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THE LATIN LANGUAGE
W. M. LINDSAY

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## THE

## LATIN LANGUAGE

AN HISTORICAL ACCOUNT
of

## LATIN SOUNDS, STEMS, AND FLEXIONS

в

W. M. LINDSAY, M.A.<br>FELLOW OF JESUS COLLEGE, OXFORD

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## PREFACE

Since Corssen's great work (last edition, Leipzig, 1868-70), there has been no book devoted to a separate investigation by Comparative Philological methods of the Latin Language, its declensions, its conjugations, its formation of the various parts of speech, and the changes of its pronunciation and orthography, if we except the short summary (last edition, Nördlingen, 1889) written by Professor Stolz for the Iwan Müller Series of Handbooks of Classical Antiquity. And yet the additions to our knowledge of the subject since Corssen's time have been very great. Not only has the whole Science of Comparative Philology been, by the help of men like Johannes Schmidt, Osthoff, and Brugmann ${ }^{1}$, set on a sounder basis, but a vast amount has been added to our knowledge of the Early Latin authors, especially Plautus, of the Umbrian, Oscan, and other dialects of ancient Italy, of Romance, and above all of the Celtic family of languages, a family closely united with the Italic group. The time has surely come for a new treatment of the subject, such as I venture to offer in the ten chapters of this volume.

I should have liked to have added to them a fuller discussion of the relation of Latin to the other languages of Italy. But I had already exceeded the generous limits

[^0]allowed by the Delegates of the Press, and it seemed to me that until more evidence is forthcoming in the shape of dialectal inscriptions certainty can hardly be attained. It is much to be desired that some of the money which is being raised every year for excavations should be devoted to this field of research. The records of peoples like the Samnites, who fought so gallantly with Rome for the rule of Italy, and whose religion and manners so greatly influenced the ruling race, should not be allowed to lie neglected. And yet, while the Latin, Greek, and Etruscan inscriptions of Italy are carefully sought after year by year, there has been practically no organized search for the remains of Oscan, Umbriau, Pelignian, and the rest. I trust that some step may be taken ere long in this direction.

It remains for me to acknowledge with gratitude the kind help which I have had from numerous correspondents, both in this country and abroad, as well as from my Oxford friends, such as my colleague, Mr. E. R. Wharton. My special thanks are due to Mr. Sweet for looking through the proof-sheets of my chapter on Latin Pronunciation, and to Professors Mommsen. Bormann, Huelsen, and Dressel for giving me access to the advance-sheets of the Corpus Inscriptionum Latinarum. My friend, Mr. J. A. Smith, Fellow of Balliol College, has been good enough to go over the whole book in proof, and to give me many valuable suggestions, especially on one of the most difficult problems of the language, the formation of the Perfect Tense.

[^1]
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## LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

A. L. L. = Archiv f. lat. Lexikographie u. Grammatik, ed. Wölfflin. Leipz. 1884 sqq.
Amer. Journ. Phil. = American Journal of Philology.
Anecd. Helv. $=$ Anecdota Helvetica, ed. Hagen (a Supplement to the Grammatici Latini, ed. Keil).
Ann. Epigr. = Cagnat, L’année épigraphique. Paris, 1889 sqq.
Ann. Inst. = Annali dell' Instituto di corrispondenza archeologica. Rome, 1829 sqq.
Arch. Glottol., Arch. Glott. Ital. $=$ Archivio Glottologico Italiano. Rome, 1873 sqq.

B. B. = Beiträge z. Kunde d. Indog. Sprachen, ed. Bezzenberger. Göttingen, 1877 sqq.
B. P. W., Berl. Phil. Woch. $=$ Berliner Philologische Wochenschrift. Berl. 188r sqq.
Brit. Mus. $=$ The Collection of Ancient Greek Inscriptions in the British Museum, ed. Sir Ch. Newton. Oxf. 1874 sqq.
Büch. Umbr. = Bücheler, Umbrica. Bonn, 1883 .
Bull. = Bullettino dell' Instituto di corrispondenza archeologica. Rome, 1829 sqq.
Burs. Jahresber. = Jahresbericht über d. Fortschritte d. Classischen Alterthumswissenschaft, ed. Bursian. Berl. 1875 sqq.
C. G. L. = Corpus Glossariorum Latinorum, ed. Goetz und Gundermann. Leipz.
C. I. A. $=$ Corpus Inscriptionum Atticarum. Berl. 1873 sqq.
C. I. G. $=$ Corpus Inscriptionum Graecarum, ed. Boeckh. Berl. 1828 sqq.
C. I. L. $=$ Corpus Inscriptionum Latinarum. Berl. 1863 sqq.

Class. Rev. $=$ Classical Review.
Comm. Lud. Saec. = Commentaria Ludorum Saecularium, ed. Mommsen, in vol. viii of the E'phemeris Epigraphica (also published in the Monumenti Antichi, vol. i, part 3).
Comm. Ribbeck. $=$ Commentationes Philologae $\ldots$ Ottoni Ribbeckio. Leipz. 1888.

Comm. Schweizer-Sidler = Philologische Abhandlungen Heinrich SchweizerSidler . . . gewidmet. Zürich, 189r.
Comm. Woelff. - Commentationes Woelfflinianae. Leipz. r89r.
Eckinger = Eckinger, Die Orthographie lateinischer Wörter in griechischen Inschriften. Munich.

Edict. Diocl. $=$ the Edict of Diocletian (contained in the Supplement to vol. iii of the Corpus Inscr. Lat.).
Eph. Epigr. $=$ Ephemeris Epigraphica. Berl. 1872 sqq. (A Supplement to the Corpus Inscr. Lat.).
Etudes G. Paris = Études romanes dédiées à Gaston Paris. Paris, 189 r.
Etym. Lat. = Etyma Latina, by E. R. Wharton. Lond. 1890.
Fabr: = Fabretti, Corpus Inscr. Italicarum antiquioris aevi. Turin, 1867.
Fleck. Jahrb. = Jahrbücher f. classische Philologie, ed. Fleckeisen. Leipz. 1855 sqq.
Gl. Cyrill., Gl. Philox., Gl. Plac. = the Cyrillus, Philoxenus, and Placidus Glossaries (contained in vols. ii and v of the Corpus Glossariorum Latinorum. ed. Goetz und Gundermann .
Harv. Stud. = Harvard Studies in Classical Philology. Boston, 1980 sqq.
Herm. = Hermes. Zeitschrift f. classische Philologie. Berl. 1866 sqq.
I. F, = Indogermanische Forschungen, ed. Brugmanu und Streitberg. Strassburg, 189 s sqq.
I. I. S. - Inscriptiones Graecae Siciliae et Italiae, ed. Kaibel. Berl. 1890 .
I. N., I. R. N. = Inscriptiones Regni Neapolitani Latinae, ed. Mommsen. Leipz. 1852.
Journ. Hell. Stud. = Journal of Hellenic Studies.
Journ. Phil. = Journal of Philology.
K. Z. $=$ Zeitschrift f. vergleichende Sprachforschung, ed. Kuhn. Berl. 1872 sqq.

Lex. Agr. = Lex Agraria (No. 200 in vol. i of the Corpus Inscr. Lat.).
Lex Repet. $=$ Lex Repetundarum (No. 198 in the same vol.).
Lib. Gloss. $=$ Liber Glossarum (selections from which are contained in vol. v of the Corpus Glossariorum Latinorum).
Mél. Arch. $=$ Mélanges d'Archéologie et d'Histoire Paris, 1884 sqq. (The publication of the Ecole française de Rome.)
Mem. Ist. Lombard. $=$ Memorie dell' I. R. istituto Lombardo di scienze, lettere ed arti. Milan, 1843 sqq .
Mém. Soc. Ling., M. S. L. = Mémoires de la Société de Linguistique de Paris. Paris, 1868 sqq.
Meyer-Lübke $=$ Meyer-Lübke, Grammatik der romanischen Sprachen. Leipz. r890 sqq.
Mitth. $=$ Mittheilungen d. kaiserlich deutschen archäologischen Instituts. Athens, 1876 sqq.
Mitth. (röm.) = ditto (römische Abtheilung).
Mon. Anc. - Res Gestae Divi Augusti : ex monumentis Ancyrano et Apolloniensi, ed. Mommsen. Berl. ${ }^{2}$ 1883.
Mon. Antichi = Monumenti Antichi pubblicati per cura della Reale Accademia dei Lincei. Milan, r890 sqq.
Morph. Unt., M. U. $=$ Morphologische Untersuchungen, by Osthoff and Brugmann. Leipz. 1878 sqq.
M. S. L. (see Mém. Soc. Ling.).

Mur.-Muratori, Novus thesaurus veterum inscriptionum. Milan, 1739-42.
Neue $=$ Neue, Formenlehre d. lateinischen Sprache. Berl. 1866 sqq.
Not. Scav. $=$ Notizie degli Scavi di antichità (Atti della R. Accademia dei Lincei). Rome, 1876 sqq.
Or., Or. Henz. = Orelli, Inscriptionum Latinarum Collectio, vols. i-ii, Zürich, 1828, vol. iii (Suppl.), ed. Henzen. Zürich, 1856.

Osthoff, Dunkles u. helles l(see Transactions of American Philological Association 1893, vol. xxiv, pp 50 sqq.).
P. B. Beitr. = Beiträge z. Geschichte d. deutschen Sprache u. Literatur, ed. Paul und Braune. Halle, 1874 sqq.
Philol. = Philologus : Zeitschrift f. d klassische Alterthum. Göttingen, 1846 sqq.
Phil. Soc. Trans. = Transactions of the Philological Society.
Phonet. Stud. = Phonetische Studien: Zeitschrift f. wissenschaftliche u. praktische Phonetik. Marburg, 1887 sqq.
Probi App. $=$ Probi Appendix (contained in vol. iv of the Grammatici Latini, ed. Keil).
Rev. Phil. = Revue de Philologie. Paris, 1877 sqq.
Rhein. Mus. $=$ Rheinisches Museum f. Philologie. Frankf. am Main, 1842 sqq. Riv. Filolog. == Rivista di Filologia. Rome, 1873 sqq.
Rossi $=$ De Rossi, Inscriptiones Christianae Urbis Romue, 2 vols. Rome, 1861-1888.
S. C. Bacch. $=$ Senatus Consultum de Bacchanalibus (No. 196 in vol. i of the Corpus Inscr. Lat.).
Stud. Ital. = Studi Italiani di filologia classica. Florence, 1893 sqq.
Studem. Stud. - Studien auf d. Gebiete d. Archaischen Lateins, ed. Studemund. Berl. 1873 sqq.
Suppl. Arch Glott. = Supplementi Periodici all' Archivio Glottologico Italiano, vol. i Turin, 1891.
Tab. B:ant. = Tabula Bantina (No. 197 in vol. i of the Corpus Inscr. Lat.).
Versamml. Philolog. = Verhandlungen d. Versammlungen deutscher Philologen u. Schulmänner.
Von Planta $=$ Von Planta, Grammatik d Oskisch-Unbbrischen Dialehte, vol. i. Strassburg, 1893.
Wien. Stud. = Wiener Studien : Zeitschrift f. class. Philologie. Vienna, 1879 sqq.
Wilm. $=$ Wilmanns, Exempla Inscriptionum Latinarum, 2 vols. Berl. 1873.
Zv. I. I. I., Zvet. = Zvetaieff, Inscriptiones Italiae Inferioris Dialecticae. Moscow, 1886.

In the transcription of the various I.-Eur. languages the system of Brugmann, Grundriss d. vergleichenden Grammatik, Strassburg, 1886 sqq. (Engl. trans.; London, 1888 sqq.) is in the main followed, though in ' I.-Eur.' forms Gutturals Proper are denoted by $k$, g. \&c. (not as in Brugmann by $q, g, \& c$. ), and $y, w$ often replace Brugmann's i, u, while in O. Engl. (Brugmann's 'Anglo-Saxon') words the orthography of Sweet, History of English Sounds, is preferred. I follow Brugmann in distinguishing the Oscan and Umbrian inscriptions written in the Roman alphabet from those written in the native alphabets by printing the former in italics, a type reserved in this book for Latin words, stems, suffixes, and sounds. (On the use of $k, g$, gh see p. 290.)

## THE LATIN LANGUAGE

## CHAPTER I.

## THE ALPHABET ${ }^{1}$.

§ 1. Ir an alphabet is to express the sounds of a language properly, each nation must construct one for itself. But this ideal was not realized by the ancient languages of Italy. The Oscan and Umbrian stocks borrowed for the expression of their language the alphabet used by the Etruscans, who had themselves borrowed it at an earlier period from the Greeks; and so neither Oscans nor Umbrians were at first able to express in writing some common sounds of their language, such as $d$ and $o$, which were wanting in the Etruscan speech (von Planta, Osk.-Umbr. Dial. i., p. 44). The Latin Alphabet, consisting in the later Republic of twenty-one letters, abcdefghiklmnopqrstvx, was borrowed from some Chalcidian colony (e.g. Cumae), to judge from the form of the letters, which more nearly resemble those of the Chalcidian inscriptions than of any other Greek stock. So few Latin inscriptions earlier than the second Punic War have been preserved, that it is difficult to trace each separate stage in the process of adapting the Greek alphabet to the exigencies of the Latin language. The symbols for the Greek aspirate mutes, $\Theta$ (the $t h$-sound of our 'ant-heap'), $\Phi$ (as in

[^2]' upkill'), $\Psi$ (the symbol for the $k l$-sound of our 'inklorn' in the Chalcidian alphabet, while X was the symbol for the $k s$-sound, Attic $\Xi$ ), were found superfluous by the Latins, in whose language these sounds were unknown, and were retained as symbols for numbers merely, $\Theta$ for 100 (later modified to C, the initial of centum), $\Psi$ (later L) for $50, \Phi$ for 1000 (later M, the initial of mille), while the right-hand half of the symbol, viz. D, was used for the half of 1000 , i.e. 500 , just as V , for 5 , seems to have been the upper half of X (used probably in the Etruscan adaptation of the Greek alphabet for 10) (Ritschl, Opusc. iv. 704 and 722; Mommsen in Hermes xxii. 598). For the $f$-sound, the bilabial spirant, a sound which in Quintilian's time was quite unknown in Greek (Quint. xii. 10. 29), the nations of Italy seem to have taken the Greek combination of symbols FH (digamma with aspiration), a combination found in a few of the earliest Greek inscriptions to express a sound which seems to have been a development of an original $s w_{\text {- (e.g. Fleка } \alpha \dot{\alpha} \mu о \epsilon \text {, in the proper }}$ name Hecademus, on an inscription of Tanagra (Röhl, Inscr. Graec. 131), and which may have been at that time some adumbration of the $f$-sound. This double letter $F H$, which we find in a very old Latin inscription on a brooch found at Praeneste with fhefhaked ( $=$ fecit) (C. I. L. xiv. 4123), in the earliest Etruscan inscriptions, e.g. vhul又enas (the proper name Fulcinius) (Fabr. Suppl. iii. 306), and in the inscriptions of the Veneti, an Illyrian tribe of N.E. Italy (Pauli, Altitalische `Forschungen iii. p. 97 sqq.), was in the Etruscan alphabet reduced to a symbol like the figure 8 (a modification of H , the F being dropt), while in the Latin alphabet the second element of the compound was discarded, and F alone was used. The exact course of events which led to the use of the Greek symbol for the $g$-sound (in Chalcidian inscriptions written c not $\Gamma$ ), to express the Latin $k$-sound as well as the Latin $g$-sound, and in time to the almost total disuse of the symbol K , cannot, with the evidence at present forthcoming, be determined (for a conjecture, see ch. ii. § 75). On the very old Dvenos inscription, for example (Annali dell' Inst. 1880), we find feked (or feked corrected into feced), (fecit), pakari, cosmis (cömis), virco (virgo?) side by side. The inconvenience of this practice led in time to the use
of a modified form of the symbol C to express the $g$-sound, the earliest example of which is found on the as libralis of Luceria (between 300 and 250 b.c. according to Mommsen), with Ga.f. (Gai filius) (Édon, Écriture et Prononciation, p. 145 sqq.). It was received into the Roman alphabet at the time possibly of Appius Claudius Caecus, censor 312 b. c., and took the place of Z, the symbol apparently for soft or voiced $s$, a sound which had by this time passed into the $r$-sound (see ch. iv. § 148). The symbols of the Greek vowels $\iota$ and $v$ were used not only for the Latin vowels $i$ and $u$, but also for the $y$ - and $w$-sounds of words like jam, vor, a confusion frequently remarked on by the grammarians (e.g. Quint.i. 4. Io 'iam ' sicut ' etiam' scribitur, et 'uos' ut 'tuos'), which persisted till very late times; though on Inscriptions from the beginning of the Empire onwards we often find a tall form of I used for the $y$-sound (Christiansen, de Apicilus et I longis, p. 29); and the Emperor Claudius tried without success to introduce a new symbol, an inverted digamma, for the $u$-sound.

The third guttural symbol of the Greek Alphabet, Koppa, was retained for the $q$-sound of Latin, a sound at first expressed by Q, e. g. QOI (qui) on the Dvenos inseription, then by QV.

In the second century b.c. the cultivation of literature at Rome, in particular possibly the imitation of the quantitative verse of Greece, led to two usages, perhaps borrowed, the one from the Greek, the other (if not both) from the Oscan alphabet, viz. the doubling of a consonant to express the repeated or lengthened sound (see ii. 127), the doubling of a vowel ( $a, e, u$, and $o$ ?) to express the long quantity ${ }^{1}$. The earliest example of the former is the Decree of Aemilius Paulus, 189 b.c. (C. I. L. ii. 5041), with possidere, \&c., beside posedisent, \&c., for all the older inscriptions ${ }^{2}$ write the consonant single in such cases; of the latter, the Miliarium Popillianum, I32 в.c. with patstores. Ennius is mentioned as the introducer of the double consonant, while the practice of doubling the vowel is ascribed

[^3]${ }^{2}$ As do the oldest Oscan inscriptions and all the Umbrian inscriptions written in the native alphabet.
by the Roman tradition to the poet Accius, another of whose spelling reforms was the use of $g g$ for the velar nasal followed by $g$ (see ch. ii. §63). The practice of doubling the consonant remained to the latest times, in spite of a temporary resort in the reign of Augustus to the use of the siciliticus, a sickle-shaped mark placed above the single consonant, to express its repeated or lengthened sound ; but the double vowel was soon discarded in favour of the apex, a mark placed above the single vowel, to express length, originally of a shape like a sickle, or like the figure 7 , later of the form of the acute accent. The apex was much in fashion till about 130 A. D., when it came to be used at random over short and long vowels alike, but never attained so universal use as the doubled consonant. Long $i$ was indicated by the tall form of $I^{1}$, a form likewise employed to denote the $y$-sound, and often also for initial $i$ (Christiansen, de Apicibus et. I longis).

In the last century of the Republic, when Greek Grammar, and even Greek Phonetics, came to be studied at Rome, the necessity was felt for the more exact expression of the sound of Greek loan words, which were more and more entering into the language especially of the upper classes. For the Greek aspirates, which had hitherto been represented by the Latin tenues T, P, C, compound symbols TH, PH, CH were introduced ; and the mispronunciation of these sounds was considered as great a fault in polite society as the dropping of $l$ is with us; (see ch. ii. § 6o). The Greek $v$ (earlier represented by Latin V), which had by this time the $i$-sound (see ch. ii. § 14), was now expressed by the Greek letter itself in its Attic form $\Upsilon$, just as we use Spanish $\tilde{n}$ in loan words like 'cañon,' while for Greek $\zeta$ (formerly denoted by s-, -ss-, e. g. setvs, for Zethus, C. I. L. i. 1047, patrisso, \&c., Plaut.), the old symbol $Z$ was revived. The reforms proposed by the Emperor Claudius, the use of the Greek symbol of the rough breathing for the $i$-sound (see ch. ii. § 14), of the reversed C for the ps-sound of scripsi, urbs, \&c. (see ch. ii. § 78), of the inverted digamma for the $w$-sound of $v o s, \& c$., did not survive his own reign (see Bücheler, de Ti. Clauntio Caesare grammatico).

[^4]§ 2. The Alphabet of twenty-one letters. Cicero (Deor. Nat. ii. 37.93) argues against the Atomic Theory by showing the improbability of any chance combinations of the twenty-one letters of the alphabet ever producing a single line, much less an entire poem, of Ennius: 'hoc qui existimet fieri, non intellego cur non idem putet, si innumerabiles unius et viginti formae litterarum, vel aureae vel quaelibet, aliquo coiciantur, posse ex iis excussis annales Enni, ut deinceps legi possint, effici ; quod nescio an ne in uno quidem versu possit tantum valere fortuna.' This Alphabet, A to X, is often found on coins of the last century of the Republic (e. g. C. I. L. i. 374, с. гоо в.c.); and Quintilian (first cent. A.d.) speaks of $x$ as the last letter of the alphabet (nostrarum ultima, i.4.9). But Y and Z are added on some coins e.g. C.I.L. i. 393,454 , both with $\mathrm{YZ} ; 417$ with Y -all belonging to the last century of the Republic).
§ 3. The letter F. That early Greek $F h$, a development of I..Eur. ske, had some kind of $f$-sound is made not improbable by the analogy of other languages. In Old Irish, where I.-Eur. sr between two vowels became like $s r^{-}$in Greek $\delta \in \hat{\nu} \mu a$, futós), hr. rh, (e.g. a 'his' prefixed to sruth, 'stream,' is pronounced $a$ rhoo), I.-Eur. sw- when preceded by' a vowel became $f$, e. g. a fiur, 'his sister' (I.-Eur. *esyo swesor), which points to a connexion between $h w(w h)$, and the $f$-sound. It must however be added that I.-Eur. $w$ - in Irish regularly becomes $f$, e.g. fáith, 'a prophet' (cf. Lat. rātēs). A still better analogy is furnished by the Aberdeenshire dialect of Scotch, where the $w h$ - or $k w$-sound of Scotch 'what,' 'when,' \&c., appears as $f$, 'fat,' 'fan.'
§4. $\mathbf{X}$. $x$, the last letter of the alphabet (Quint. i. 4. 9: x nostrarum (litterarum) ultima, qua tam carere potuimus quam psi non quaerimus), was also written $x$ from early times (e.g. exstrad for extra, on the S. C. de Bacchanalibus, 886 в.c. C. I. L. i. 196;, especially at the period of the poet and grammarian, Accius (e.g. saxsvm on an epitaph of one of the Scipios, c. rзo в. с., i. 34; proxsvmeis for proximis, exsigito, lexs on the Lex Bantina, bet. r33 and ri8 в. с., i. 197), and is common in the Augustan age and in plebeian inscriptions of a later epoch (for examples, see Index to C. I. L. viii. \&c.; exsemplo Comm. Lud. Saec. A. 26 ; and for instances in Virgil MSS., see Ribbeck, Ind. p. 445). Terentius Scaurus, second cent. a. d., condemns the spelling 'nuxs,' 'truxs,' 'feroxs' as an unnecessary repetition of the sibilant element of the $x$-sound. The guttural element is repeated in the spelling $c x$, e.g. vcxor for uxor (a misspelling which has led to the corruption roxor in MSS. of Plautus, Class. Rev. v. 293), vicxit (C. I. L. v. 5735). (For examples in Virgil MSS., see Ribbeck, Ind. p. 39r). We also find $x c$, e.g. ivxcta (C. I. L. vi. 146i4), and $s x$, e. g. visxit (viii. 67), all various ways of expressing the same sound (a $c$-sound followed by an $s$-sound), for which we also find a more accurate expression, namely cs, e. g. vicsir (vii. 5723). This last combination was used to express the sound in the Etruscan alphabet, the symbol X keing retained only as a numerical symbol, for the number 10 .
§ 5. Z. If we are to believe Velius Longus (7. 51 K), this symbol was found in the Carmen Saliare; though whether the mysterious jumble of letters which the MSS. of Varro, L. L. vii. 26, offer as a fragment from this hymn, cozeulodorieso, \&c., can be fairly quoted as an instance of Old Latin $z$ is doubtful, for the reading suggests 0 zeu (Greek $\bar{\omega} Z_{\epsilon \in \hat{v}}$ ) more than anything else ; and Varro quotes the passage as exemplifying the old use of $s$
(not z) for later r. It is found on coins of Cosa [C. I. L. i. i4 cozano (after ${ }^{2} 73$ в. с.), where the letter should have the ordinary z -form and not the form printed in the Corpus (see Ritschl. Opusc. iv. $72 \mathrm{I} n$ )]. The dzenoine of the Dvenos inscription is too doubtful to quote; for the letters may read not only dze noine. 'on the ninth day,' but also die noine, or even Dvenoi ne. This old Latin $z$ seems to have expressed the sound of soft or voiced $s$ 'but see ch.ii. § i21, the sound in our verb 'to use'; while our noun 'use' has the hard or unvoiced $s$. Between vowels in Iatin $s$ had once this soft sound, and was presumably written $z$; but this sound passed at an early time into the $r$-sound (c. 350 в. с., to judge from the remark of Cicero, Fam. ix. 2I. 2, that L. Papirius Crassus, dictator 415 A. U.c. $(=339$ b.c.), was the first of his family to change the name from Papisius to Papirius; in the Digests (i. 2. 2. 36) Appius Claudius is mentioned as the author of the change : R litteram invenit ut pro Valesiis Valerii essent, et pro Fusiis Furii). Martianus Capella tells us that the letter was removed from the alphabet by Appius Claudius Caecus, the famous censor of 312 в. c., adding the curious reason that in pronouncing it the teetl assumed the appearance of the teeth of a grinning skull (Mart. Cap. iii. 261 : z vero idcirco Appius Claudius detestatur, quod dentes mortui, dum exprimitur, imitatur). In the Oscan language this soft $s$ sound was retained without passing into $r$. The native Oscan alphabet (derived from the Etruscan), expresses it by the letter $s$, which is also used for the hard $s$-sound, while the $z$-symbol denotes the $t s$-sound ; but in the later inscriptions, which are written in Latin characters, $z$ is used (e.g. eizazunc egmazum (in Latin, earum rerum), on the Bantia tablet, с. гзо в.с.). (On the question whether the $z$ Latin character) of Osc. zicolo-, ' dieculus,' represents the soft $s$-sound or the $t$-sound of the letter written in the Oscan alphabet like a capital I with top and bottom strokes prolonged, and in the Umbrian alphabet with the same strokes slanting instead of horizontal, and on the occasional use of the native letter for the $s$-sound, e.g. Umbr. zeřef, ' sedens,' see von Planta, Osk.Unbr. Dial. p. 71.)
§ 6. The Guttural-symbols. A special symbol for the $g$-sound, made by adding a small stroke to the symbol C, is said by Plutarch (Quaest. Rom. 54 and 59 ; cf. Ter. Scaur. 7.15 K.) to have been the invention of Sp. Carvilins Ruga c. 293 в.c., presumably because he was the first to write his name Rugu with the new symbol, as L. Papirius Crassus, dictator 339 в.c., was the first to conform the spelling of the family-name Papisius to the new pronunciation Papirius. The remark, however, of Martianus Capella about the action of the censor of 312 в.c., Appius Claudius Caecus, with regard to the letter Z, whose position in the Latin alphabet was occupied by the new symbol $G$, suggests that the differentiation of the $C$ and $G$ symbols was the work rather of that many-sided reformer. The exclusive use of the symbol C for the $k$-sound led to the disuse of the symbol K , which however, thanks to the conservative instinct of the Roman nation, was still retained as abbreviation for the proper name Kaeso, and in a few words before the vowel a, e.g. Kalendae, a common spelling on inscriptions (see C. I. L. i.. Index, p. 583), interkalaris, kaput, kalumnia. Terentius Scaurus, second cent. A. D. (p. I5 K.) tells us that the letter K was called $k a$, while the name of C was $c e$, and that these letters themselves had been before his time used to indicate the syllables represented by their names, e.g. krus (for ka-rus), cra (for cera). Velius Longus, first cent. A. d., speaks of some sticklers for old usages in his own age, who in their corre-
spondence always spelt karissime with $k$ not $c$ (p. 53 K.) see also Quint. i. 7. 10; Prisc. i. 12. 5 H. ; Diom. 424. 29 K. ; Cledonius 28. 5 K. ; Maximus Victorinus 195. 19 K. ; Probus ıo. 23 K. ; Serv. in Don. p. 422 K. ; Donatus, p. 368 K. For spellings with $k a$ in Virgil MSS., see Ribbeck, Index, p. 429 ; and for similar spellings elsewhere, Georges, Lex. Lat. Wortf. s. vv. Carthago, caput, carus, \&c., and Brambach, Lat. Orth. p. 208.) The symbol C was similarly retained in its old use for the $g$-sound in the abbreviations of proper names, C. for Gaius, Cn. for Gnaeus ; just as an old five-stroked form of the symbol $M$ seems to be the original of the abbreviation for the name Manius, later written M with apostrophe. That it persisted in other words also to the beginning of the literary period, we see from the fact that a large number of archaic words, quoted by the grammarians from the early literature, are spelt with $c$ not $g$, e. g. acetare for agitare (Paul. Fest. ${ }^{17} .30 \mathrm{Th}$.). The proper spelling of these obsolete words was occasionally a subject of discussion, e. g. whether pacvit in the XII Tables, ni ita pacvnt, stood for pagunt (cf. pepigi, pango), or for pacunt (cf. paciscor , (Quint. i. 6. 10-1 I ; Ter. Scaur. 7. 15 K.; cf. Fest. 33023 Th.) ; and probably the $\mu \in \tau а \chi \alpha \rho a \kappa \tau \eta \rho \iota \sigma \mu \dot{c}_{s}$ of early C to c and $g$ was almost as fruitful a source of error as that of E to $\epsilon, \eta$, $\epsilon$, of O to $o, \omega$, ov in the Homeric text. Thus frico, not frigo, may be the proper form of the Old Latin verb, used by Accius frigit suetas (of a boar) Trag. 443 R., \&c. (cf. Greek фpí $\sigma \omega \omega$ for $\phi \rho \iota \kappa-y \omega$ ); dĕč̆re (cf. $\delta \in \epsilon \epsilon о \mu a \iota, \pi \rho o \sigma \delta o \kappa \alpha ́ \omega)$ of Old Latin degere, 'expectare' Paul. Fest. 5 I. 32 Th .). (On the use of C for the $g$-sound see also Mar. Victorin. p. i2 K. who quotes Cabino, lece, acna; Fest. 242 and 284 Th., \&c. : C is invariably used for $g$ on the Columna Rostrata (C. I. L i. 195), an Imperial restoration which probably followed with some fidelity the spelling of the old inscription. The letter $Q$ often takes before $u$ the place of classical Latin $c$, especially in inscriptions of the time of the Gracchi, e.g. peqvila, oqvpare, qura for a list of the instances, see Bersu, Die Gutturalen, p. 49) ; though whether Ritschl (Opusc. iv. $492 n, 687$ ), is right in his suggestion that one of the grammatical reforms of the poet Accius may have been the restriction of $k$ to the $c$-sound before $a$, and of $q$ to the $c$-sound before $u$, is quite uncertain. For Accius' use of $g g$ for $n g$ in aggulus, \&c., gc for $n c$ in agceps, \&c., in imitation of the Greek use of $\gamma$ for the nasal guttural, see below). Marius Victorinus says (12. 19 K.) : Q et fuisse apud Graecos, et quare desiderat fungi vice litterae, cognoscere potestis, si pontificum libros legeritis.
§ 7. Y- and W-Sounds : $-j$ and $v$ were not distinguished in Latin MSS. nor indeed in the earlier printed editions. In Italian some writers keep up the old Latin habit of using $i$ for $j$, e.g. Gennaio for Gennajo (Lat. Jänuärius) ; others use $j$ for -ii, e.g. vizj, 'vices.' Even now we generally print the texts of the older Latin writers, Plautus, Terence, \&c., with $i, u$, not $j, v$, partly to give their language an archaic appearance, but mainly because a large number of words which in the Classical period, or the Empire, had the $y$-and $w$-sounds, had in earlier times the sound of the vowels (sometimes of the half-vowels); lärua, for example, is a trisyllable in Plautus, never a dissyllable. The minuscule forms $v$ and $u$ are developments of the V , of Capital, and the U of Uncial writing. The use of the tall I form on Inscriptions for the $y$-sound has already been mentioned, as well as its use for initial $i$, and for long $i$. How far the I-symbol (in ordinary form or tall form) might be employed for $-y i$-, or V for $-w u$, -uw- is very doubtful. Sittl, in Burs. Jahresber. 1891, p. 250, quotes abicere for abyic-(?), vesvivs for Vesuv- (?) : cf. Brambach, Orth. p. 94.

On the Monumentum Ancyranum we have iventvais (3. 5 M .), and in Virgil MSS. iuenis, fluius, exuiae, \&c. (Ribbeck, Ind. p. 448). Equally doubtful is the occasional usage in the earlier history of the Latin alphabet of the Greek digamma-symbol (whether in the F-form or in the Etruscan form, viz. an E wanting the middle horizontal line) for the $w$-sound. Cornutus (ap. Cassiodor. 148.8 K .: itaque in prima syllaba digamma et vocalem oportuit poni, 'Fotum,' ' Firgo,' quod et Aeoles fecerunt et antiqui nostri, sicut scriptura in quibusdam libellis declarat) implies merely that some of his grammatical predecessors made a hobby of writing F for $v$ (cf. Prisc. i. 35 - 77 H .). The second symbol in the phrase d*enoine on the Dvenos tablet may be a variety of this symbol in the later form Drenoi ne, but it may also be $z$, dze noine or (most likely) a form of $i$. (See above.)

Cicero wrote $i i$ to express the sound of the second element of an $i$-diphthong before a vowel (see ch. ii. § 55), e.g. aiio, Maiia, Aüax (Quint. i. 4. ir ; Vel. Long. 7.54 K . : et in plerisque Cicero videtur auditu emensus scriptionenı, qui et 'Aiiacem' et ' Maiiam' per duo i scribenda existimavit. He mentions also Troiic, and with three $i$ 's, coiiicit. Cf. Prisc. i. 303 and i. 14 H., who ascribes the spelling Pompeiii to Julius Caesar).

On inscriptions we find eItvs and erIvs (see Weissbrodt in Plilologus, xliii. pp. 444 sqq.), and in MSS. like the Ambrosian Palimpsest of Plautus, eiius, aiiunt, \&c. for examples in MSS. of Plautus and Virgil, see Studemund's Apograpl, Ind. p. 509 ; Ribbeck, Prol. p. 138).

In the Umbro-Oscan alphabets, which are derived from the Etruscan, the $w$-sound is expressed by the digamma, in the form of a capital E wanting the middle horizontal stroke, while V expresses both the $u$ - and the $o$-vowels (the Oscan alphabet came in time to discriminate the o sound by inserting a dot between the two arms of V ). On the question whether Osc. $i i$ and $i$ correspond to I.- Eur. iy and $y$ in words like Osc. heriiad and heriam, see ch. iv. § 63 .
§ 8. Double Consonant. Festus in his discussion of the word solitaurilia (p. 412 Th.), which he derives from taurus, in the sense of $\kappa 0 \chi \alpha \nu \eta$, and the Oscan sollo- (in Latin totus), declares the doubling of the consonant to have been a practice introduced by the poet Ennius ( $239-169$ b.c.) into Latin orthography in imitation of the Greek usage (per unum 1 enuntiari non est mirum, quia nulla tunc geminabatur littera in scribendo. quam consuetudinem Ennius mutavisse fertur, utpote Graecus Graeco more usus). The Roman tradition, which ascribes this spelling reform to Ennius, as well as the doubling of the long vowel to Accius, is supported by the dates at which these spellings are first found on inscriptions (double consonant i89 в.c., double vowel 132 b.c.); though it is quite possible that Ennius followed, not the Greeks, but the Oscans, who used double consonants much earlier than the Romans, and to whose nationality he belonged quite as much as to the Greek. We do indeed find a double consonant before 189 в.c. in the spelling hinnad (the town of Enna in Sicily), 21 i b.c. (C.I.L. i. 530), which is a mere reproduction of the Greek spelling found on coins, e.g. hennaion (Head, Historia Numorum, p. 119) ; but even after 189 в.c. the double consonantsound is often written with the single letter till the time of the Gracchi, when the double letter became the established spelling (see Ritschl, opusc. iv. 165 sqq.).

The sicilicus is only found on a few inscriptions of Augustus' time : Mumiaes

Sabelio C. I. L. v. 136I. osa x. 3743. Marius Victorinus, fourth cent. A.D., states that it was often to be seen in old MSS. (sicut apparet in multis adhuc veteribus ita scriptis libris (p. 8 K . Cf. Isidor. Orig. i. 26. 29).
§ 9. Signs for long vowels. No instance of $o o$ for $\bar{o}$ is found on the extant Latin inscriptions, though we have uootum on an inscription in the Faliscan dialect, whose orthography was very like the Latin : pretod de zenatuo sententicel nootum dedet (in Latin, 'praetor de senatus sententia votum dedit'), Zvetaieff, Inscr. Ital. Inf. 70). For ī Accius wrote ei (Mar. Victorinus 8. i4 K.), either because the diphthong $e i$ had by this time become identical with the $i$-sound, or in imitation of the Greek orthography (§ 12); for Greek $\epsilon \iota$ had taken the same course as Latin ei, and expressed the same sound as original long $i$ (Blass. Griech. Aussprache?, p. 51). Lucilius prescribed rules for the use of $e i$ and ' $i$ longa'; but instead of keeping $e i$ for the original diphthong, and the single letter for the original long vowel, he used foolish distinctions ${ }^{1}$, if we are to believe Velius Longus ( 56.7 K .) such as that the double symbol was suitable for a plural, e.g. puerei Nom. Pl., the single symbol for a singular, e. g. pueri Gen. Sg. (alii vero, quorum est item Lucilius, varie seriptitaverunt, siquidem in iis, quae producerentur, alia per i longam, alia per e et i notaverunt, velut differentia quadam separantes, ut cum diceremus ' viri,' si essent plures, per e et i scriberemus, si vero esset unius viri, per i notaremus, et Lucilius in nono :-
‘iam puerei uenere ;' e postremo facito atque i. ut puerei plures fiant. i si facis solum, 'pupilli,' 'pueri,' 'Lucili,' hoc unins fiet ;
item
'hoc illi factum est uni ;' tenue hoc facies i :
' haec illei fecere;' adde e ut pinguius fiat.)
The same absurd reason seems to be assigned for the differentiation of meille, meillia and miles, militia; of pilum, a mortar (Sing.) and peila, javelins (Plur.) in another fragment of Lucilius (9. 21-24 M.).
'meille hominum,' 'duo meillia ;' item huc E utroque opus ; 'miles,'
'militiam'; tenues i, 'pilam,' qua ludimus, ' pilum,'
quo pisunt, tenues. si plura haec feceris pila, quae iacimus, addes e, 'peila,' ut plenius fiat.
Another fragment (or rather two fragments), of more doubtful reading, seems to prescribe single $i$ in the Gen. Sg. of IO-stems, but $e i$ in the Voc. Sg. (9. ${ }^{1} 7-20$ M. ) : -
(i) porro hoc 'filius Luci;' feceris i solum, ut 'Corneli,' 'Cornificique,'
(2) 'mendaci' 'Furique.' addes e cum dare, 'Furei,' iusseris
(unless we read 'date, Furei,' and make the ei-form Voc. Plur.).
Whether the persistent use of $-i$ in the Gen. Sg. of $O$-stems on inscriptions is due to the rule which Lucilius supports, or whether it is to be otherwise explained, is hard to say (see ch. vi. § 20). Varro, while disapproving of Lucilius' arguments, seems to have followed his practice, for Ter. Scaurus (p.

[^5]19 K.$)$, after quoting the passage from Lucilius beginning 'meille hominum,' goes on to say : quam inconstantiam Varro arguens in eundem errorem diversa via delabitur, dicens in plurali quidem numero debere litterae ie (om. MSS.) praeponi, in singulari vero minime. But in general the spelling ei on Inscriptions seems to occur for any $\bar{i}$-sound (see the Index to C.I. L. i., and cf. below, ch. iv. § 34). From the time of Sulla the symbol in use is the tall I (Christiansen, p 28), though EI shows itself even later, while from c. izo A.d. the tall I is used at random for the short and long vowel alike (Christiansen, p. 29). This tall I may be indicated by Lucilius' phrase ' $i$ longa,' and even by Plautus' allusion to the 'littera longa' in Aul. 77, where the miser's old serving-woman in a fit of despondency thinks of hanging herself :-
neque quicquam meliust mihi,
Ut opinor, quam ex me ut unam faciam litteram Longam.
(Cf. Ausonius 'iota longum,' of a hanging body, Epigr. exxviii. ri.) But the absence of the long form from the Inscriptions till Sulla's time makes this doubtful, especially in the case of Plautus. The remark in the Rudens (v. 1305) that mendīcus has 'one letter more' than mélĭcus shows that the long $i$ of the first word was not expressed by $e i$.

The reason which induced Accius to use EI, and not II, for the long $i$-sound was probably the fear of confusion with a common symbol for E, viz. II, in which a long vertical stroke is substituted for the three horizontal strokes. There was a similar symbol for F, viz. $I^{1}$, with a short vertical stroke; both these by-forms of F and E being probably more used in writing than on inscriptions, though they are common enough in plebeian inscriptions of later times, along with a by-form of M with four horizontal strokes III. (See Hübner, Exempla Scripturae Lat. Epigr.).

In Greek inscriptions a double vowel is found perhaps only in the name Marcus and its cognates. In the second century b.c. the spelling Maаркєллоs, Maapкıos, Mápкos is the rule, and it is common till 50 b.c. But the aa is not found in derivatives where the Greek accent does not fall on this vowel, e.g. Mаркıадоs, Маркєл入єıvos, \&c. (Eckinger, p. 8).

In the first century a.d. the use of $и и$ for $\bar{u}$ seems to have been affected for a time, for the spelling nuulli occurs on wax tablets found at Pompeii (Notizie degli Scavi, October, 1887), and $u u$ is often found for $\bar{u}$ of fourth decl. nouns in Virgil MSS. (see Ribbeck, Ind. p. 449), e. g. metuus, curruus; also suus for sūs (cf. Probi Appendix, p. 202. 27 K.). In the Bamberg MS. of the elder Pliny uus is the regular spelling in the Gen. Sg. and (Nom. and) Acc. Pl. of fourth decl. nouns (see preface to Sillig's edition), so that this must have been Pliny's own practice (Probus, Inst. Art. 116. 33 K., refers to this spelling). Lucilius seems to have objected to Accius' rule of doubling the vowels, at least in the case of A, which, he points out, has the same quality when short and when long (see ch. ii. § I) ; hence $\breve{a}$ and $\bar{a}$, he argues, should be written in the same way, like Greek $\breve{a}$ and $\bar{\alpha}$ (9. 4-7 M.):-
a primum longa, et breuis syllaba. nos tamen unum
hoc faciemus, et uno eodemque ut dicimus pacto
scribemus 'pacem,' 'placide,' 'Ianum,' 'aridum,' 'acetum,'
${ }^{3} A \rho \epsilon s,{ }^{\prime}$ Apes Graeci ut faciunt.
(On vehemens for rèmens, see ch. ii.§ 56.)
§ 10. gg for ng. The guttural nasal of English 'sing' (ch.ii. § 6r) was ex-
 Greek grammarians the 'Agma.' Accius proposed to follow the example of the Greeks, and express this sound in Latin by $g$ instead of $n$, e.g. 'aggulus' for angǔlus, 'aggens' for angens, 'iggerunt' for ingĕrunt, 'agceps' for anceps. (Varro ap. Prisc. i. p. зо H. : ut Ion scribit, quinta vicesima est litera, quam vocant agma, cuius forma nulla est, et vox communis est Graecis et Latinis, ut his verbis: 'aggulus,' 'aggens,' 'agguila,' 'iggerunt.' in eiusmodi Graeci et Accius noster bina $g$ scribunt, alii $n$ et $g$, quod in hoc veritatem videre facile non est. Similiter 'agceps,' 'agcora.') The Inscriptions offer no example of this spelling (cf. Eph. Epigr. vii. 928) ; but a trace of its existence is perhaps found in the spelling 'ager' for agger, which the MSS. offer with singular persistence for a line of Lucilius (26.8I M. ; cf. II. 5 M.). If Lucilius and his contemporaries used $g g$ for $n g$, they would be forced to use the single letter in words like agger, aggero, \&e.
§ 11. New Letters for Greek Sounds: Y, Z, CH, PH, TH, RH. Our name for $y$, viz. 'wy,' comes from the Latin name for the letter which was 'ui' (Mém. Soc. Ling. vi. 79). Greek $v$ is often represented by Latin ui, and vice versa, e.g. quinici for $\kappa v \nu \iota \kappa o i ́, ~ a n d ~ ' A \kappa u ́ \lambda a s ~ f o r ~ A q u i l a ~(i b i d . ~ v i i i . ~ 188 ; ~ E c k i n g e r, ~$ p. 123). Before the introduction of the Greek letter, Latin $u$ was used in loanwords like tumba, \&c., while at a later time $i$ was employed, e. g. cignus; and the Romance forms of these earlier and later-loan words indicate that these spellings represented the pronunciation of the time (see ch. ii. $\S 28$ ). Y was not allowed in native Roman words (Caper vii. го5. г 7 K .), though it sometimes gained a footing through a mistaken idea that a word was borrowed from the Greek, e.g. sylva supposed to be the Greek v̈̀ $\eta$, lympha identified with Greek $\nu \dot{\prime} \mu \phi \eta$, \&c. (see ch. ii. $\S 28$ ). Greek $\zeta$, if we are to believe the grammarians, was expressed in earlier times by $d$ also (Prisc. i. p. 36 : y et z in Graecis tantummodo ponuntur dictionibus, quamvis in multis veteres haec quoque mutasse inveniantur, et pro $v$ u, pro $\zeta$ vero ...s vel ss vel d posuisse, ut...'Sagun tum,' 'massa ' pro Záruv 0 os, $\mu \hat{a} \zeta \alpha, . .$. 'Sethus' pro Z $\hat{\eta} \theta o s$ dicentes, et 'Medentius' pro Mezentius) (see ch. ii. § 120).

The earlier expression of Greek $\theta, \phi, \chi$ by $t, p, c$ (e.g. adelpus, Metradation an inscr. of 81 в с. (?), Not. Scav. 1887, p. I 10) remains in words like tus, Greek
 tum ne consonantibus (veteres) adspirarent, ut in 'triumpis'). We find $b$ for $\phi$ in Old Latin Bruges for $\Phi \rho \dot{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \epsilon$ s, and in ballaena for фád入aıva, the former of which was used by Ennius, and was still to be found in copies of his poems in Cicero's time (Cic. Orat. xlviii. 16o Ennius . . . 'ui patefecerunt Bruges,' non Phryges, ipsius antiqui declarant libri), while the latter remained in current use. ( $F$ was not regularly used for $\phi$ till the middle of the fourth century A. D. (Hermes xiv. p. 70), though it is often found on plebeian inscriptions from Severus' time, and even on Pompeian graffiti we have, e. g. Dafne, C. I. L. vi. 68o). But as early as 146 в.c. we find $t h, p h, c h$ in the dedicatory inscriptions ${ }^{1}$ of the Graecizing L. Mummius (C. I. L. i. 546 corintho (?), 146 b.c.; i. 54 I in Saturnians :

ACHAIA CAPTA CORINTO DELETO ROMAM REDIEIT TRIVMPHANS).
The importance attached in polite society at Rome to the correct pronunciation

[^6]of these aspirated consonants in Greek loan－words led to their wrong use in native Latin words（ch．ii．§ 6o），e．g．pulcher，referred to Greek no入v́Xpovs， a spelling found as early as 104 b．c．on a denarius of Claudius Pulcher（C．I．L． i． 380 ），much in the same way as＇antem＇（O．Engl．antefn from Gk．àvi申фav＇ through Low Lat．）has come to be written with th，＇anthem．＇For Greek initial $\hat{\rho}$ ，and for $-\{\hat{p}$－，the older spelling was $r, r$ ，e．g．Regium，Burrus（the invariable form of the name $\Pi \dot{v} \dot{\rho} \rho \dot{\rho} \rho o s$ in Ennius，according to Cic．Orat．xlviii． 160 ．The use of $r \boldsymbol{h}$ for initial $\rho$ ．was not approved by Varro，who preferred to write＇Rodus，＇＇retor＇（Varro，L．L．iii．fr．57．p． 182 Wilm．）．

In Oscan inscriptions similarly Greek aspirates are usually expressed by tenues，e．g．Arkiia（for＇Apxias），Meeilikiieis（for Mєı入ıरiov Gen．），and so Pelignian Perseponas，＇Proserpinae，＇Gen．，but we have also Osc．thesavreí，＇in thesauro，Loc．，\＆e．
§ 12．Influence of Greek Orthography．－The use of g for the guttural nasal，advocated without success by Accius（see above），was clearly borrowed from the Greeks．The spelling $e i$ for the long $i$－sound，and the employment of double consonants，may possibly，as we have seen，have come from the same source．But however natural it may appear for the Romans to have adopted Greek spelling along with Greek terminology in matters of Grammar and Phonetics，there is hardly a single instance of the practice that can be established by proof（see Zarncke＇s attempt in Comm．Ribbeck，1888）．
§ 13．Syllabic Writing．－The remark of Ter．Scaurus（p．15 K．）quoted above，that $k$ had been employed to denote the syllable $k a, c$ the syllable $c e$ ， suggests（unless indeed he is merely alluding to the common practice of abbreviating words by writing only the initial letter of each syllable），that spellings on early inscriptions like LVBS for lube，$n$ ）s on a Marso－Latin inscrip－ tion（C．I．L．i．183），may be not really evidences of syncopated pronunciation， but rather traces of an old custom of syllabic writing（see ch．iii．§ 14）．The syllabaries found on Etruscan inscriptions（e．g．Fabretti 2403 and 450），as well as the use of a dot（like the Sanscrit virama），to indicate those consonants which are not followed by a vowel，in the inscriptions of the Veneti，an Illyrian tribe of N．E．Italy，are perhaps other indications that syllabic writing prevailed at an early period in the Italian peninsula．

## CHAPTER II.

## PRONUNOIATION ${ }^{1}$.

§ 1. A. In the words 'man,' ' father,' the vowels which we are in the habit of classing roughly as 'short $a$ ' and 'long $a$,' are really very different from each other, and would be phonetically expressed by two distinct symbols. In Sweet's Handlook of Phonetics, while the second is written $a$, the first is denoted by a combination of the letters $a$ and $e$, viz. æ, a symbol which implies that the vowel has something of the nature of an E -sound. If we compare our pronunciation of the words 'man,' ' hat,' with the German of 'Mann,' ' er hat,' we see that the German vowel is the same as the a of English 'father' or German 'Vater,' while we might say that our ' man,' ' hat,' ' bat,' have in them something of the sound of 'men,' 'bet.' Seelmann, who classifies the varieties of A as ' normal $a$,' ' $a$ inclined to an E -sound,' and ' $a$ inclined to an O-sound' (this last being something not quite so definitely an O-sound as the vowel of our words 'all,' ' awe '), is of opinion that the Latin $a$ had a leaning to $e$ rather than to $o$, and goes so far as to give to Latin $a$ of the Imperial age the a-sound of English 'man.' This however is not the sound of modern Italian a, e.g. padre, which Sweet now judges to be identical in quality with the $a$ of English 'father,' though, owing

[^7]to our smaller use of lip-action in utterance, the vowel has with us what he terms a more 'muffled' sound. And the evidence at our disposal is not at all strong enough to allow us to determine with precision under which class of A-sounds Latin $a$ should be placed, nor yet how far its quality was altered by the consonants which accompanied it, nor even whether it had to some extent a different quality as a long and as a short vowel. On this last point indeed we have some evidence of weight. We can be sure that Latin $\breve{a}$ and $\bar{a}$, if they differed at all in quality, did not differ so markedly as Latin $\breve{e}$ and $\bar{e}, \breve{\imath}$ and $\bar{\imath}, \breve{u}$ and $\bar{u}$. For Lucilius (ix. fr. 4 M ), in criticizing the proposal of the poet and grammarian Accius to write a single vowel for a short, a double for a long vowel (thus $a$ for $\breve{c}, a a$ for $\bar{a}$ ), says that the vowel $a$ has the same sound in pronunciation when long as when short, and should be written in the same way, e.g. päcem, plăcide, \&c., just as the Greeks write $\breve{a}$ and $\bar{a}$ in the same way, e.g. ${ }^{\top} A \rho \epsilon s$ and "A $\rho \in s$ (the passage is quoted on p . 10 ).

And his remark is borne out by the evidence of the Romance languages. In them there are no means of tracing the quantity of a Latin vowel, unless the long and the short vowel differed in quality as well as in quantity. This difference did exist in the case of other vowels, e.g. $\breve{\iota}$ and $\bar{\imath}$; and so in the Romance languages Latin $\breve{\imath}$ appears as close $e$, Latin $\bar{\imath}$ as close $i$ (e.g. Ital. misi for Lat. missi ; Ital. beve for Lat. bibbüt.). Latin $\breve{a}$ and $\bar{a}$, however, show no divergence in any Romance language ; and, when we are in doubt whether a Latin $a$ was long or short, in a syllable long by position for example, we have to refer to some other family of languages, which happens to have borrowed the word at an early period from the Latin. A word like saccus is shown by its Welsh and Breton forms, sach, not to speak of Gothic sakkus, O. H. G. sac, O. Engl. sæcc, to have had a short $a$; but this could not have been told from its Romance forms, Ital. sacco, Span. saco. Long a appears in a different guise in Welsh and Breton (e.g. poc, a kiss, representing Latin pūcem in the formula of the priest at absolution, pacem do tibi), but not in Romance, e.g. Ital. pace, Span. paz.

The accounts of the pronunciation of $a$, given by the Latin writers on phonetics, do not much help us to determine the shade
or shades of the A -sound, which the Latin vowel expressed, nor are any of their descriptions free from the suspicion of Greek bias. The evidence to be drawn from the phenomena of the language itself is equally indecisive. It is true that $a$ becomes $e$ in the unaccented syllable (long by position), as aurĭfex from aurum and facis, and in Early Latin in open syllables too, e.g. $\breve{a} b$ ĕgit, classical $\breve{a} b \breve{g} g i t$, from $\breve{a} b$ and $\breve{a} g o$, an $e$ retained in classical Latin before $r$, e.g. impĕro from păro. But this was the fate of every short vowel in the unaccented syllable, and not of $a$ alone, so that $e$ was the natural sound which any short Latin post-tonic vowel tended to assume, unless attracted by a following Labial to an O-, U- or Ü-sound, e.g. occŭpo from ob and cŭpio, testŭmōuium (C. I. L. i. 197, 3) from stem testi- (see iii. 18). Varieties in the spelling of foreign names like Sarlŭca and Serlüca, Delmŭtia and Dalmŭtia prove nothing for Latin $a$. More important is the fact that $j \bar{a}$-, $j a j$ - seem to have tended to the pronunciation $j \bar{j}$-, $j e j-$, with open $e$. Thus Jànuārius became Jēnuārius; jajūnus is the Plautine form of the classical jejunnus. Here the change of $a$ to $e$ was due to the influence of the palatal $j$ (our,$y$ ) preceding, just as the $\bar{u}$ of $j \bar{j} n u \bar{u}$ érrus was changed to $i$ by the same palatal in Vulgar Latin jinipirus (Probi Appendix, 199. 8 K.) (Ital. ginepro, Fr. genièvre, Span. enebro). No such influence is at work in the mispronunciation stetim for stătim, a Roman cockneyism like London ' keb ' for ' cab,' mentioned by a grammarian of the fifth (?) century a.d. (Consentius, p. 392, i6 K. : per immutationem fiunt barbarismi sic: litterae, ut siquis dicat 'bobis' pro vobis, ' peres' pro pedes, 'stetim' pro statim, quod vitium plebem Romanam quadam deliciosa novitatis affectione corrumpit). This is quoted by Seelmann as a strong argument for his assertion that Latin $a$ had in Imperial times the sound of English $a$ in 'man'; though on the other hand we might argue for an A-sound more inclining to o from Vulg. Lat. *nŏtare, a by-form of nŭtare, to swim, which ousted the $a$-form in Vulgar Latin about 100 в $\mathbf{c}$. In Plautus' time and later văcare was pronounced like vocare; the $o$-sound apparently having been produced by the influence of the labial $v$ (our $w$ ) (cf. K $\omega \delta \rho a \tau o s$, Koojpatos for Quadrätus on Gk. inscriptions), as $e$ was by the palatal $j$ (our $y$ ) in Jēnuärius. In one of Phaedrus' fables (App. 21) a man
mistakes the caw of a crow for ave! ave! It is worth mentioning that Oscan ú, the representative of Ind.-Eur. O, $\bar{O}$, and, when at the end of a word, of Ind.-Eur. $\bar{A}$, which must have had a sound something like our $a$ in 'all,' 'awe,' and which is in those inscriptions which are written in Latin characters expressed by o (e.g. torto, 'state,' ' community, Nom. Sing. of $\bar{A}$-stem ; petiro-pert, ' four times,' Acc. Pl. Neut.), rarely by u (e.g. petiru-pert), as in Greek characters by o (e.g. $\tau \omega F \tau o$ ), is yet written by Festus and by Paulus, his epitomator, with $a$. Festus, when he mentions the Oscan word for 'four,' writes it petora (p. 250, l. 33 Th.) ; and Paulus gives veia, not veio, as the word for 'cart' (p. 560, l. 17 Th.) ; though Lucilius, if Festus (p. 426, l. 7 Th.) quotes him accurately, makes $\check{o}$ the Latin equivalent of the Oscan Neut. Pl. suffix in sollŏ (Lat. tota),

The evidence then of the Latin language itself points to Latin $a$ having had a sound which was liable to influence in the direction of $o$ as well as of $e$. Into the modifications of Latin $a$ in each several Romance language, it is hardly necessary to enter, for they are as likely to be due to the vocal peculiarities of the nations conquered by the Romans, as to the nuances of sound in the language of the conquering race. French is the language where Latin $a$ has been most widely replaced by $e$ (e.g. chef, Lat. cŭpŭt, while in champ, Lat. campus, though $e$ is not written, the preceding guttural has been palatalized); and in Portuguese it is something between the $a$ of 'father' and the $a$ of 'man,' though before $l$ the sound is more guttaral. But in Italy $a$ has what may be called the normal A-sound, that of English $a$ in 'father,' not that of $a$ in ' man.' It is only in two districts, Emilia (i.e. the Po-valley), and the coast of Apulia, that it has an E-sound, while in some parts of Italy it tends to an O-sound (Meyer-Lübke, Ital. Gram. §§ 18-21). Speaking generally, we may say that the influence of a palatal or $r$ often changes $a$ into an E -sound in the Romance languages (e.g. Corsican berba), whereas an O -sound is produced under the influence of such letters as $l, v, b$ (e.g. oltro for Latin alter in some dialects of N . Italy), while before $n$ Latin $a$ is in some
places changed to $e$, in others to $o$. So that the evidence, taken as a whole, is rather more in favour of attributing to Latin $a$ a sound which varied to some extent in character, according to the consonant which accompanied it, than of giving it definitely the E -character of our $a$ in 'man.' And in the absence of more definite proof, it will be best, for practical purposes, to use in reading Latin the sound which the vowel bears in the language of the direct descendants of the Roman people, the normal A-sound of Italian padre.
§ 2. Descriptions of the A-sound by Latin phoneticians. The formation of the (Greek or Latin?) sound is described very cleverly by Terentianus Maurus (second cent. A.d.) (p. 328 of Keil's edition), in spite of the limitations of the difficult Sotadean metre (--uv|--uv|-u-v|-モ) : -

> a prima locum littera sic ab ore sumit:
> immunia rictu patulo tenere labra, linguamque necesse est ita pendulam reduci,
> ut nisus in illam valeat subire vocis,
> nec partibus ullis aliquos ferire dentes.

Marius Victorinus (fourth cent. A.D.) (p. $3^{2}$ of Keil's edition) compresses the same description, in his usual way : a littera rictu patulo suspensa, neque impressa dentibus lingua enuntiatur. It is still further compressed by Martianus Capella (fourth or fifth cent. A. D.) (iii. 261, p. 63 of Eyssenhardt's edition in the Teubner series) : A sub hiatu oris congruo solo spiritu memoramus.
§ 3. Interchange of $a$ and $e$. Delmütia and Dalmütia : Vel. Longus, p. 73 K. placet etiam Delmatiam quoque, non 'Dalmatiam' pronuntiemus, quoniam a Delmino maxima ejusdem provinciae civitate tractum nomen existimatur. On Inscriptions, we have sometimes a, e. g. Dalmat. (C.I.L. vi. 1607), sometimes e, e.g. Delmatia (C.I.L. iii. p. 280) (see Georges. Lex. Lat. Wortf. s. v.). Jē̄-, $j e j$ - for $j \bar{a}$-, jaj: :--The Vulg. Lat. name of the month was Jenuarius (C.I. L. vi. 1708, of $3^{1 r-31} 4$ A. D., and other inscriptions) [see Schuchardt, Vok. i. 185. So in Greek inscri. 'I $\epsilon$ vovapiuv C. I. G. 9486 (Catana) ; 'I $\epsilon$ vapímv I. I. S. 62 (Syracuse)], which has developed into the Italian Gennajo (cf. Span. Enero), with open e. Jejūnus (with ĕ according to Ter. Maur. 343 K.), jejentaculum supplanted the older jajūnus, jajentaculum, the Plautine forms (A. L. L. 7. 528). Jēnua, for jānua, is indicated by Sardinian enna, genna, and is sometimes found in MSS. (see Schuchardt, Vok. i. p. 185). Jajunus reappears in late Latin (in the Itala, e. g. Luc. iii. 20), and in Span. ayunar, while the shortened forms jantācūlum, jantāre are found in MSS. along with the usual jentācŭlum, jentäre (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. vv.) ; and jantare is indicated by Old Span. yantar, Port. yantar. On Vulg. Lat. jecto for jacto (Ital. gettare, Fr. jeter), see I. F. ii. Anz. p. 35 ; and for other examples of $a-e$, Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. vv. Sarapis, serracum, Serdica, metaxa, Sabadius, and Dict. s. v. Serranus.
§4. Interchange of $a$ and $o$. Nătäre is the form reflected in the languages of those countries which were earliest colonized (Sard. nadare, Span. nadar, Port.
nadar, Prov. nadar), while *nŏtäre appears in O. Fr. noer, Raet. nudar, Roum. innotá, Ital. nuotare, which shows that $*_{\text {notare }}$ did not find its way into Vulgar Latin till about roo в.c. *Vŏcitus is the Vulg. Lat. original of Ital. voto, O. Fr. voit, 'empty,' and vŏrare, vŏc(u)us (see Georges, Lex. Wortf.) of Sard. bogare, Span. hueco. Vocatio for văcātio is found on the Lex Repetundarum of 123-2 в.c. (C.I.L. i. 198. 77 : militiaeque eis uocatio esto), and is the spelling of Julius Caesar in his Lex Municipalis of 45 в. c. (i. 206. 93 and 103 : vocatio rei militaris). Plautus puns on vŏcare, 'to be empty,' and vŏcare 'to call,' in Cas. 527: Fac habeant linguam tuae aedes. Quid ita? Quom ueniam, uocent. Marmor (Greek $\mu$ áp $\mu a \rho o s$ ) follows the analogy of Nouns in -or. (For other examples of $a-0$, see Schuchardt, Vok. i. p. 177 sqq., and Brambach, Hülfsbüchlein s. v. Tamyris, and cf. below, ch. iv. §55.)
§ 5. Anomalies in Romance. Accented Latin a sometimes shows o, sometimes $e$ in Romance from a variety of causes. Thus Ital. chiovo, from Lat. clātus, shows o by influence of $v$; Ital. (dialectal) opre for apre, Fr. ouvrir, hardly point to Vulg. Lat. *operio for c̆pĕrio, but are rather influenced by co(o, pério, Fr. couvrir, Ital. coprire ; Ital. monco from Lat. mancus is due to the synonym tronco from Lat. truncus. Vulg. Lat. *grěvis (Ital. greve and grave) may have adapted itself to lěvis; melum, not mälum, the original of the Romance words for apple (Ital. melo, \&c.), seems to be the Greek form $\mu \hat{\eta} \lambda o \nu$, and is indicated by the pun in Petronius, chap. lvi. (p.37. ig Büch.) contumelia. . . contus cum malo (ley. melo). The appearance of $e$ for $a$ in the unaccented syllable, e.g. Vulg. Lat. alecer (with stem alecro-) for allŭcri- (Ital. allegro, Span. alegre), ceresio- (ceresium and serasium in Marc. Emp.) from *ceresus for cĕrưsus (Greek $\kappa \in \rho a \sigma$ '́s) in the Romance words for cherry (Ital. ciriegio, \&c.) is due to the same law which produced consecro from sacro (ch. iii). The mispronunciations fetigo Prob. 212. 4, secratum Mar. Vict. x. 6, are to be similarly explained. (On the variation of Italian $\check{a}$ with I.-Eur. $\breve{e}$ in words like Lat. pŭteo (Osc. pate-) besides Gk. $\pi \epsilon \tau$ áı $\nu v \mu$, see ch. iv. § 6r.)
§ 6. E. The evidence for the pronunciation of Latin $e$ is much stronger than the evidence at our disposal for Latin a. In the Romance languages we have clear proof that short and long $e$ had in the parent-speech a different quality, $\breve{c}$ being an open E-sound like Engl. 'men,' è a close E-sound like Fr. été. (Our 'fail,' 'fate' have a diphthong of this close $e$ combined with an I-sound.) These sounds are retained without a change in Italian at the present day in such words as bello (Lat. bĕllus) with open $e$, stella (Lat. stēlla) with close $e$, though in open syllables in many Romance languages open $e$ has developed to ie (Ital. criepa, Span. crieba, from Lat. crĕpat) (cf. Schuchardt, Vok. ii. p. 328). All this harmonizes so wonderfully with the evidence we can draw from the Latin language itself, and from the statements of the Latin grammarians, as to leave little room for doubt. According to the grammarians long $e$ is 'an $\mathbf{E}$ inclining to an I-sound,'
precisely what phoneticians nowadays call ' close $e$ ' (open $e$ would be 'an E inclining to an A-sound'), while short $e$ approaches the sound of the Latin diphthong $a$, which in the Romance languages is undistinguishable from Latin $\breve{e}$ (e.g. Ital. cielo, Span. cielo, from Lat. caelum, exactly as Ital. criepa, Span. crieba, from Lat. crĕpat). Latin $\bar{e}$ and $\breve{\imath}$ are merged in the same way in Romance (Ital. fendo from Lat. fundo, like vendo from Lat. vēndo; messo from Lat. mŭssus, like mesa from Lat. mē $(u) s a$; all with close $e$ ), being distinguished only in the oldest Romance dialect, viz. Sardinian (Sard. veru from Lat. vērus, but pira from Lat. *püra, pırıum, for which the Italian words are vero, pera), so that the two sounds must have become very like one another in quality at an early period of Vulgar Latin. They were not however identical, for they are clearly distinguished in Latin loanwords in other languages (e. g. Lat. füdes, cèr $a$, loanwords of the second to the fourth cent. A.D., are in Welsh ffydd, cwyr). And so the probable history of the change of $\breve{c}$ to $\breve{\imath}$ in unaccented syllables (e. g. eligo from lego), is that the open $e$ first became close $e$, and then passed into $\check{\imath}$. Italian $e$ in unaccented syllables is similarly close $e$, for example, the final $e$ of diece, 'ten'; and English speakers of Italian often fail to give this sound correctly. It is only in the unaccented syllable that we find $i$ substituted for $e$ in the mispronunciations censured by the grammarians, pinaria for penaria, pidato for pedatu, decim for decem, \&c., though on plebeian epitaphs, and the like, we find instances of $i$ for accented $e$, some of which may be a mere graver's mistake of dropping a stroke of II, a common way of writing E. Before another vowel $\breve{e}$ seems to have approached the sound of $\check{\imath}$, to judge from the frequent confusion of suffixes like -eus and -ius, -eolus and -iolus. Before $\bar{\imath}$, older $e i$, the $\breve{\imath}$-sound was recognized as the correct pronunciation, or at least the correct spelling, e. g. mieis, miiis, contracted to mis; dii, diis, contracted to $d i$, dis; ii, iis, contracted to $i$, is in Plautus, \&c. The contrary tendency, to substitute $\breve{e}$ for $\breve{\iota}$ before a vowel, was a feature of rustic Latin; and some of these 'rustic' forms, especially in names of agricultural implements and the like, have found their way into ordinary Latin, e.g. mateola for ${ }^{*}$ matiola (Sanscr. matyàm). Another dialectal change was to replace $\breve{e}$ by $i$ before
$r c$, e.g. stircus for stercus. The remark of Quintilian (i. 4. 8) that some new letter was required to express the sound of the final vowel of heri, here (in 'here' neque e plane neque i auditur), is discussed in § 16.

In Oscan, as we shall see (§ 14), the short and long E-sounds seem to have corresponded to Latin $\breve{e}, \bar{e}$, in being the one open, the other close. A short E-vowel, however, when lengthened by 'compensation' or any other cause, appears to have retained the open sound ; for it is expressed by doubling the symbol of the short vowel (e.g. eestínt, Lat. exstant ; keenzstur, Lat. censor, censöres), and not by the symbol of the long vowel. For Latin nevertheless the evidence points to $\bar{e}$ - for $\breve{e} x$, $-\bar{e}(n) s$ s- for -ĕnshaving had the close sound; for evitat is the instance given by a grammarian (see below) of the close E-sound of ordinary Latin $\bar{e}$, and the Romance and Celtic forms of Lat. mensa, $m e ̀(n) s a$ (Ital. mesa, Welsh mwys, \&c.) point to the ordinary $\bar{e}$-vowel. But Vulg. Latin Jènuarius (for Jänuarius) is shawn by Italian Gennajo (with open $e$ ) to have had the E-sound which is most near $a$, that is, the open sound. (On ens see § 144.)

> §7. Descriptions of the E-sound by Latin phoneticians, \&c. Terentianus Maurus in his account ( 329.1 I6 K.) :-
> e quae sequitur vocula dissona est priori, quia deprimit altum modico tenore rictum, et lingua remotos premit hinc et hinc molares,
curiously omits all reference to the difference between short and long e. There must, however, have been such a reference in some part of his writings, for Pompeius, as we shall see, quotes him as an authority on this very point. Marius Victorinus, whose account always closely corresponds with his, after describing $e$ as follows (33. 1 K.) : e quae sequitur, depresso modice rictu oris reductisque introrsum labiis effertur, goes on to say : o, ut e, geminum vocis sonum pro condicione temporis promit. Martianus Capella (iii. 26I) has : E spiritus facit lingua paululum pressiore. More valuable are the remarks of those grammarians who give practical hints on the correct pronunciation of actual Latin words. Servius (fourth cent. A. d.) (in Don. 421. 17 K.) is very clear : vocales sunt quinque, aeiou. ex his duae, e et o, aliter sonant productae, aliter correptae . . . e quando producitur vicinum est ad sonum i litterae, ut 'meta;' quando autem correptum, vicinum est ad sonum diphthongi, ut 'equus.' (By the 'diphthong' he means ae of aequus, \&c.) Cautions against the confusion of 'equus' and 'aequus' occur more than once in the writings of the grammarians. Thus Pompeius (fifth cent. A.d.) says the one vowel-sound is short, the other long ( 285.6 K .) : plerumque male pronuntiamus et facimus vitium, ut brevis syllaba longo tractu sonet . . . siqui
velit dicere 'aequus' pro eo quod est equus, in pronuntiatione hoc fit (cf. Alcuin 295.4 K. : 'aequitas,' 'aequus,' id est justus, . . . per ae diphthongon scribenda sunt ; 'equus,' si animal significat, per simplicem e) (see § 41). Pompeius, in another passage ( IO .4 K .), ascribes the comparison of the long $\bar{e}-$ to the $i$-sound to Terentianus Maurus : e aliter longa, aliter brevis sonat ... dicit ita Terentianus 'quotienscumque e longam volumus proferri, vicina sit ad i litteram.' ipse sonus sic debet sonare, quomodo sonat i littera. quando dicis 'evitat,' vicina debet esse, sic pressa, sic angusta, ut vicina sit ad i litteram. quando vis dicere brevem e, simpliciter sonat. And 'Sergius' (in Don. 520.27 K.) gives much the same account as Servius: vocales sunt quinque. hae non omnes varios habent sonos, sed tantum duae, e et o. nam quando e correptum est, sic sonat, quasi diphthongus, 'equus ;' quando productum est, sic sonat, quasi i, ut 'demens.'
§ 8. i for unaccented è. Caper (first cent. A.D.) (93. 3 K .) : cella penaria, non 'pinaria,' dicendum ; ibid. roo. 23 K . primo pedatu, non 'pidato,' dicendum ; Velius Longus (first cent. A. D.) ( 76.9 K .) : 'comprimo' quoque per i malo scribi, quamvis ' compressus' dicatur ; et e contrario 'decem' audacius dixerim, quamvis inde 'decies' trahatur, quoniam, ut supra dixi, sono usitatiore gaudet auditus, referring to the form 'decim,' which is found now and then on inscriptions. (For other examples, see ch. iii. § 22.)
§ 9. i for ě in hiatus. The Appendix Probi censures vinia (198. 3 K.), cavia (198. 5), brattia (198. 6), coclia and cooliarium (198. 6), lancia (198. 8), solia (198. 10), calcius (198. 10), tinia (198. 19), baltius (198. 23), lintium (198. 31), palliarium (198. $9^{\prime}$, fassiolus (198. 2б́). Ariam (e. g. C. I. L. vi. 54I, of 88 A. D.), horriorum (e. g. vi. 8680, of 68 A. D.), are frequent spellings on inscriptions. Cf. Greek $\delta \rho \rho \iota a, \dot{a} \rho \iota a$ from the end of the first cent. a.d. ; $\pi \epsilon \lambda \iota o \nu$ in the Edict of Diocletian, 3 ог a. d.; Потьлоь, Потıшлoı. Vulg. Lat. *mia for mea, \&c., is shown by Sard. mia, O. Fr. moie, Roum. mea. Velius Longus (first cent. A. d.) says (77. 16 K.) : nostris auribus ${ }^{1}$ placet . . . 'miis' per i, non 'meis' per e, ut Terentius :-
at enim ístoc nihil est mágis, Syre, miis núptiis aduérsum.
Our MSS. of Terence have not preserved the old spelling in this passage (Heaut. 699); but that it was a spelling current in the older period we see from mieis on one of the Scipio Epitaphs (C. I. L. i. 38, of 1 зо в. c.). In the Lex Parieti Faciendo (C. I. L. i. 577), a copy of an inscription of ro5 в.c., we find the Abl. Pl. ăbiegnieis, aesculnieis, distinguished in spelling from Acc. Pl. ăbiegnea $\langle K . Z$. xxx. 500). Similarly dii, diis represented the pronunciation, although spelt dei, deis to agree with the other cases, as we learn from Caper (first cent. A. d.) (rog. 6 K.) : dei non 'dii' ; nam et deabus Cicero dixit: igitur deis ratio, diis consuetudo ; and the same must hold of $i$ i, iis (ieis, C. I. L. vi. 877, time of Augustus ; ieis, iei, but eos, \&c., on the Regulations for the Ludi Saeculares of ${ }^{1} 7$ в. c. (Monumenti Antichi i. iii)) ; cf. Caper ro6. if K. eam (MSS. iam) semper dicendum, quia nihil est 'iam.' item non 'iamus,' sed eamus. (On the spelling of the Plur. of is and deus see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. vv.) By-

[^8][^9]forms in -ea and -ia are sometimes differentiated by the subtlety of grammarians, a practice very properly censured by Cornutus (ap. Cassiod. 150. 18 K.) : vineas per e quidam scribendas tradiderunt, si hae significarentur, quas in agris videmus ; at contra per i, vinias, illas sub quibus latere miles solet, quod discrimen stultissimum est. nam neque aliunde vineae castrenses dictae sunt, quam quod vineis illis agrestibus similes sunt. (For other examples of eea, -eus varying with -ia, -ius, see Schuchardt, Vok. i. p. 424 ; Brambach Orth. p. 133 ; and consult Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. vv. glarea, linea, janeus, mustaceus, virgineus, vitreus, gallinaceus, cavea, urceolus, adorea, lancea, oreae, ostrea, pausea, labea, linteo, phaseolus, nauseo, coprea, cochlea, hordearius ; and Brambach, Hillfsbüchlein s. vv. balteus, solea, tinea, bractea.) They have been explained by that tendency to change $i$ and $e$ in hiatus into consonantal $i(y)$, which turned tilium \&c. into 'lilyum,' ärea \&c. into ' arya,' so that -ens, eeum, -ius, ium were merged in the same sound (see ch. iv. $\S_{3}$ ). But they are more easily explained by the tendency to give a vowel in hiatus the close sound (§ 18).
§ 10. 'Rustic' $e$ for $\check{\imath}$ in hiatus. Varro (R. R. i. 2. 14) : rustici . . . viam 'veham' appellant. (The Oscan word is via-, the Umbr. vea- and via-); -eo for -io is common in inscrr. of Etruria, Praeneste, \&c. (Sittl, Lok. Versch. p. Io), e. g. Praenestine fileai (C. I. L. i. 54) ; the Praenestine form of cĭcönia is given by the MSS. of Plautus, Truc. 690, as conea not 'conia': ut Praenestinis conea est ciconia ; in Plaut. Most. 48 the MSS. read ãleäto 'on garlic.' Charisius ( 70.27 K .) censures the pronunciation of 'alii diserti' aleum, doleum, palleum; the Appendix Probi rejects aleum (198. 18 K.), lileum (198. 19', laneo (197. 29), osteum (198. 5). [For other exx. see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. vv. alium, ascia, dolium, folium, lanio, ostium, pallium, solium, spolium ; and Brambach, Hülfsb. s.vv. feriae, litium, sobrius. Both spongia and spongea were used, the latter being, for example, the normal spelling in the MSS. of Martial (see Georges, s.v. and Friedländer's edition, i. p. 118). Schuchardt (Vok. ii. p. 37) gives a number of misspellings of the kind from MSS. and inscriptions.]
§ 11. i for è. Schuchardt (Vok. i. p. 227) quotes a large number of spellings from inscrr. of the fourth cent., and later in which an $i$ appears for $\bar{e}$. It is not easy to decide how many represent a pronunciation of $\bar{z}$ for $\bar{e}$ [thus Aurilius (third cent.), Cornilius seem to represent that change of $\bar{e}$ to $\bar{\imath}$ before a syll. with $\bar{i}(y)$ in hiatus, which appears in filius, with the ordinary Latin long $i$-sound (close $i, \S$ I4), to judge from its Romance descendants, Ital. figlio, Span. hijo, \&c.; on this possible change of $\bar{e}$ to $\bar{i}$, see ch. iv. § 7], how many a pronunciation of $\check{\imath}$ for $\bar{e}$ (e. g. filiciter?), how many are dialectal (the equivalent of Lat. $\bar{e}$ is an $i$-sound in several of the Italian dialects, e.g. Osc. ligud 'lege' ch. iv. §5), and how many are mere mistakes. In Greek inscrr. $\bar{\imath}$ for Lat. $\bar{e}$ is late, probably dating from the time when Greek $\eta$ came to take the $i$-sound ; but Aúpı $\lambda_{10 s}(-\imath \lambda \lambda ı o s)$ is found beside $A \dot{u} \rho \eta \lambda ı o s$ in the second cent. (Eckinger, p. 24). The rare spelling decreiuit for dëcrēvit on an inscr. of 189 в.c. from Spain (C. I. L. ii. 504I) cannot be quoted as an example of the transition of $\bar{e}$ to $\bar{i}$. The use of ei for $\check{e}$ in the unaccented syll. in the word inpeirator (for impérätor) on the same inscr. suggests that $e i$ in decreiuit may have been meant to indicate the close e-sound [cf. leigibus xiv. 2892 (Praeneste), pleib. (Eph. Epigr. i. 3)]. Dētirus and dềerus are rightly explained by Velius Longus (73. 2 K.), who follows Varro : delirus is the proper form, derived from $\bar{i} r a$ a furrow, while the form delerus is due to a fanciful connexion of the word with Gk. $\lambda \eta p \in i v$.
(On the comparative prevalence of the two spellings see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v., and cf. App. Probi 198. 19: delirus non 'delerus') ; torpïdo beside torpēdo (Caper ro6. 8 K .) is merely the substitution of a more familiar for a less familiar suffix (cf. grăvīdo for grïrē̃lo ; see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.), and the same is true of Vulg. Lat. *vënīnum (Fr. venin), Bizacinus for Byzacēnus (App. Probi, 198. I), *pergamīnum (Ital. pergamino, Fr. parchemin), *pullīcinum (Ital. pulcino, Fr. poussin) (-ènus, -ènum have been in fact supplanted by -inno- in Romance languages, e.g. Ital. Saracino, Messina, \&c., Fr. serin, a canary, if from Sirēn), *răcïmus (Ital. racimolo, Fr. raisin), *rervīcen (Ital. berbice, Fr. brebis), *mantīle (Ital. mantile), \&c. (See also Georges, s. vv. crŭmēna, sēsămum, séricus ; cf. App. Probi 199. 6 : hermeneumata non 'erminomata.')
§ 12. i for accented è (see Schuchardt, Vok. i. p. 329 sqq.). Bipinnis for bipennis, censured in App. Probi 199. 6 K. (cf. Quint.i. 4. 12), is due to confusion of pinna with penna (cf. Caper roo. $\boldsymbol{r}_{7}$ K.) ; carictum beside cärectum (de Dub. Nom. v. 573.2 K. Virgilius in bucolicis 'tu sub carecta latebas,' nunc caricta), may follow the analogy of scelictum, \&c., but it is more likely that the true reading here is caricea, Plur. of caricerm (Nonius 21. 24 M. ?), the original of Span. carrizo. On viggeo and vĕgeo, fïlix and fĕlix, füber and fëber, pinna and penna, see ch. iv. § iI ; and on bĕněvŏlus and bĕnйvŏlus, bĕnĕf̌̌cus and bĕnĭfícus, \&c., ch. iii. § 37 . Sčda, schüdd for schĕda (see Georges, s. v.) seems to follow the analogy of scindo ; spı̆cio, sǐco, \&c., of prospı̌ıio, prōsǐco, \&c. The use of $\check{e}$ for $\check{\imath}$ is discussed in $\S 17$. Before $n g$ every Latin $\check{e}$ became by a phonetic law of the language $i$ (see ch. iv. § 8), e.g. tingo, confringo, attingo ; and other consonant-combinations may have influenced $\check{e}$ towards the close $e$-sound or the $\check{\imath}$-sound (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. vv. Vergilius, vergiliae, Verginius, hernia, segmentum, Porsenna, and cf. § 144); dignus has been explained as *dec-nus from dĕcet, and spellings like frumintum (Schuchardt, Vok. i. 354) may point to a modification of $\breve{e}$ like that of $\breve{o}$ (ch. iv. § 20 before $n t$.
§13. ă for ě. Before $r c$ we find $a$ for $e$ in the mispronunciation novarca (for norerea) mentioned in the Appendix Probi (198. 34 K.) ; but forms like ansar (ib. 198. 22 and 23), passar (ib. 198. 33), carcar in the Acts of the Arval Brothers, \&c. (cf. App. Prob. 197. 32), are better explained as cases of assimilation to the vowel of the accented syllable (see ch. iii. § 33); and calandae, the Vulg. Lat. form of călendae [in Greek always $\kappa a \lambda a \nu \delta a \iota$ (cf. Eckinger), Welsh calan, New Year's Day, Mod. Gk. кá $\left.\alpha^{2} \tau \tau \alpha\right]$, may be a r Conj. Gerundive form. (Schuchardt, Vok. i. p. 206 sqq., has collected a list of examples of doubtful validity.)
§ 14. I. The Romance languages show us that Latin $\breve{\imath}, \bar{\imath}$ differed in quality, like Latin $\breve{e}, \bar{e}$. Latin $\breve{\imath}$, as we have seen, they merge in Latin $\bar{e}$, while Latin $\bar{\imath}$ remains $i$, e.g. Ital. beve, from Latin bŭbŭt, misi from Latin nū $\bar{\imath} \bar{\imath}$. This $i$ from Latin $\bar{\imath}$ is, of all Romance vowels, the least liable to change. In almost every Romance language it preserves its character unaltered, and resists every influence of neighbouring consonants, so that there is great likelihood that it has remained the same on Italian soil from Roman times till now. Italian sì will then exactly repre-
sent the vowel sound of Latin sic, finito of Lat.finītus. This Italian $i$ has the close I-sound, like French si, fini, Germ. sie, our 'see' being rather a diphthong, while our $i$ in 'bit,' ' fish,' ' kin,' is an open I-sound, but, according to Sweet, 'nearer $e$ of "men" than $i$ of German Kind, bitten.' The Latin grammarians similarly speak of the sound of $i$ as fuller (plenior) than that of $\breve{i}$, while the latter is ' a sound between $e$ and $i$.' They add a third I-sound, which in the Romance languages is not distinguished from ordinary Latin $\breve{\imath}$, viz. the $\breve{\imath}$ of optimus older optumns, \&c., which they style 'a sound between $i$ and $u$.' The natural inference is that Latin $\breve{\imath}$ and $\bar{\imath}$ differed as Latin $\breve{e}$ and $\bar{e}$, the short vowel being open, the long close, while $\breve{\imath}$ before a labial, in words like optimus, had some sound like that of German $i$ in schützen, Hütte. This $i i$ is the same sound as Germ. $i$ of ' Kind,' 'bitten,' modified by labialization, or as it is usually called, 'rounding,' i. e. lateral compression of the cheek passage, and narrowing of the lip-aperture (Sweet, Handlook, p. 13).

The relation of the E- and I-sounds in Oscan seems to offer a close parallel to that in Latin. I.-Eur. $\breve{e}$ is in the Oscan alphabet e, e. g. edum (Lat. ědere, esse 'to eat'), estud (Lat. esto); $\bar{\imath}$ is i, e. g. bivus (Lat. $v \bar{\imath} v i$, Nom. Pl.). For $\bar{e}$ and $\breve{\imath}$ they have the same sign (except that for $\bar{e}$ it is often written double to indicate length), a modification of this last, which we conventionally write í, e. g. fí́snam, a temple, Acc. Sg. (cf. Lat. fëstus), píd (Lat. qǔ̆d). In Greek characters the three signs are $\epsilon, \iota, \epsilon \iota$; in Latin characters $e, i, i$. Everything points to their e having been, like Latin $\check{e}$, an open E-sound, their i the close I-sound of Latin $\bar{\imath}$, while like the Romance languages they have merged close $e$ and open $i$ in one sound í. Whether the iu of Oscan úliumam (Lat. ultimam) indicates the Latin $\ddot{u}$-sound is, with the scarcity of material at our disposal, uncertain (see ch. iv. § 23).

In rustic Latin, as we saw ( $§ 10$ ), $\grave{\imath}$ before a vowel was replaced by $e$, e.g. mateola for *matiola, while in the ordinary language accented $\breve{\imath}$ before a vowel, e.g. dies, seems to have had the quality of long $i$. It had possibly the same quality in words like audit, where the $i$, originally long (e.g. audīt, Plaut.), has been shortened owing to the difficulty felt by the Romans in pronouncing a long vowel before final $t$ (see ch. iii. § 49). Rustic Latin
$\bar{e}$ for $\bar{\imath}$ in speca, \&c., is probably a development of the old diphthong $e i$. Similarly $\breve{e}$, the old vowel of the open unaccented syllable, e.g. O. Lat. ălĕgit for ăbŭgit, was retained in rustic Latin.
§ 15. Descriptions of the I-sound by Latin phoneticians. The phoneticians describe only the $\bar{\imath}$-sound. Terent. Maur. (329. 119 K.) :-

> i porrigit ictum genuinos prope ad ipsos,
> minimumque renidet supero tenus labello,

Mar. Victor. (33. 2 K.) : i semicluso ore impressaque sensim lingua dentibus vocem dabit ; Mart. Cap. (iii. 26I) : I spiritus (facit) prope dentibus pressis.
§16. by Grammarians. The $\ddot{u}$-sound attracted a good deal of attention from Latin grammarians, and had the honour of being noticed by various rulers of the Roman Empire. Julius Caesar effected the adoption of the spelling optimus maximus, and the like, on State inscriptions; his successor Augustus, we are told, reverted in these forms to the old spelling with $u$; the Emperor Claudius took a course different from both of his illustrious predecessors, and tried to introduce into the Latin alphabet a new letter to express this particular sound. The statements of the Latin grammarians about the various sounds of Latin $i$ are not always perfectly clear, and must be examined in detail. Quintilian (middle of first cent. A. D.), speaking of the letters wanting to the Latin alphabet says (i.4.8) that some special sign is required for the sound between $i$ and $u$ in words like optimus, and similarly for the sound between $e$ and $i$ in words like hĕre (older hĕri), sübi, quăsi (older sìbe, quăse) [cf. nise, ŭbe in Virgil MSS., Ribbeck, Index, pp. 436, 45I, nise in Lex Rubria of 49 в.c. (C.1.L.i. 205), and (with ube, sebe, \&c.) on late inscrr. (see Georges). In the Appendix Probi (199. 16 K.) we have : nescio ubi non 'nesciocube']: medius est quidam u eti litterae sonus; non enim 'optumum' dicimus aut ' optimum ${ }^{1}$ ', et in 'here' neque e plane neque i auditur. In another passage he tells us that the change in spelling, optimus, \&c., from optumus, \&c., was made by the influence of Julius Caesar, a statement repeated by Velius Longus in the passage quoted below, and first uttered, according to Cornutus (ap. Cassiodor. r50. ir K.) by Varro: Quint. i. 7. 21 : iam 'optimus maximus,' ut mediam i litteram, quae veteribus u fuerat, acciperent, Gai primum Caesaris inscriptione traditur factum. 'here' nunc e littera terminamus ; at veterum comicorum adhuc libris invenio 'heri ad me uenit,' quod idem in epistulis Augusti, quas sua manu scripsit, aut emendavit, deprehenditur . . . 'sibe' et 'quase' scriptum in multorum libris est, sed an hoc voluerint auctores nescio ; T. Livium ita his usum ex Pediano comperi, qui et ipse eum sequebatur ; haec nos i littera finimus. This example, here and heri, has given rise to some doubt ; for we are accustomed to regard here and heri as differing in quantity, like rure and ruri, Tibure and Tiburi (the ee being the Cons.-stem Locative suffix-i, the $-\bar{\imath}$ being the $I$-stem Abl. suffix-id,

[^10][^11]ch. iv). We have herĕ, for example, in Martial i. 44 est positum nobis nil here praeter aprum, but herī in Terence, Eun. $\mathbf{r} 6$ herí minas pro ambóbus uigintí dedi, often shortened by the peculiar metrical law of the comedians by which $\dot{a} v \bar{e}$ was scanned as $\dot{\alpha} v e ̆, ~ c \dot{r} r e \overline{e x ~ a s ~ c a r e ̆, ~ \& c . ~(s e e ~ c h . ~ i i i), ~ a s ~ i n ~ t h e ~ l i n e, ~}$ Hec. 329 herǐ némo uoluit Sóstratam íntro admíttere. Some have been led by this into the mistaken idea that what Quintilian is referring to, is that interchange of $\bar{e}$ and $\bar{i}$, which we see on old inscriptions in rendering the diphthong ei, e. g. ploirume for ploirumei, later plurimi, on an epitaph of one of the Scipios (C.I.L. i. 32). But, as we shall see from the passages quoted from other grammarians, the phrase 'a sound between $e$ and $i$ ' is the designation for Latin $\check{\imath}$ in such a word as hominem; and we may be sure that in Quintilian's time the word heri, as well as here, would invariably have in the utterance of everyday speech a short final syllable. He tells us expressly of the word ave (hare) that, although it ought by right to have a long final vowel, being an Imperative of a verb of the second conjugation, like splendē, audē, it was never, except by precisians, pronounced otherwise than havĕ (i. 6. 2I). (A fuller account of this shortening is given in ch. iii. § 40.) Velius Longus, who like Quintilian belonged to the first cent. A.D., talks of the 'exilis sonus' of the Latin vowel $\bar{\imath}$ and, in some cases, of $\grave{\imath}$, e.g. in 3 Sg . Pres. Ind. of verbs of the fourth conjugation, audit, \&c. (In Plautus and the oldest literature this $i$ is long. audit, the shortening having been effected by the influence of the final $t$, just as with us the vowel of ' note' is shorter than the vowel of 'node.' See ch. iii. §49.) Ordinary $\check{\imath}$, as in 3 Sg. Pres. Ind. of the third conjugation, ponit, \&c., he calls the 'latus sonus,' while the $i$ of optimus is 'pinguis.' Of this last sound he says that the spelling and pronunciation of $u$ for $i$ in optimus, manibiae, \&c., was regarded in his time as old-fashioned and countrified ( 49 K .) : i vero littera interdum exilis est, interdum pinguis, ut in eo quod est 'prodit' ' vincit' ' condit' exilius volo sonare in eo vero quod significatur prodire vincire condire usque pinguescit ut jam in ambiguitatem cadat utrum per i quaedam debeant dici an per ut est 'optumus maxumus.' in quibus adnotandum antiquum sermonem plenioris soni fuisse et, ut ait Cicero, rusticanum, atque illis fere placuisse per u talia scribere et enuntiare. erravere autem grammatici qui putaverunt superlativa per u enuntiari. ut enim concedamus illis in 'optimo,' in 'maximo,' in 'pulcherrimo,' in 'justissimo,' quid facient in his nominibus, in quibus aeque manet eadem quaestio superlatione sublata, 'manubiae' an 'manibiae,' 'libido,' an 'lubido'? nos vero, postquam exilitas sermonis delectare coepit, usque i littera castigavimus illam pinguitudinem, non tamen ut plene i litteram enuntiaremus. et concedamus talia nomina per u scribere is qui antiquorum voluntátes sequuntur, ne tamen sic enuntient, quo modo scribunt; and again ( $6_{7} \mathrm{~K}$.) : varie etiam scriptitatum est 'mancupium' 'aucupium' 'manubiae,' siquidem C. Caesar per i scripsit, ut apparet ex titulis ipsius, at Augustus per u, ut testes sunt ejus inscriptiones ${ }^{1}$. . . . relinquitur igitur electio, utrumne per antiquum sonum, qui est pinguissimus et u litteram occupabat, velit quis enuntiare, an per hunc, qui jam videtur eligantior, exilius, id est per i litteram, has proferat voces; and a little further on ( 68.6 K .) : mihi videtur nimis rusticana enuntiatio futura, si per $u$ extulerimus. ita tamen existimo enuntiandum, ut nee nimis i littera exilis

[^12]sit, nec, u litteram si scripseris, enuntiationis sono nimis plena. Here his account of the 'sound between $i$ and $u$ ' is perfectly clear. Optumus had in old times been written and pronounced with a U -sound; but such pronunciation was old fashioned and countrified in his own time, the sound used in polite circles being something between a normal U -sound and a normal I-sound. But the beginning of the first passage, where he discusses the other two kinds of I-sound, is not so intelligible. His examples are evidently carefully chosen synonyms of the third and fourth conjugations; and one cannot but suppose that he meant to contrast the $i$ of prodit (from prodo), vincit (from rinco), condit (from condo), with that of the third person singular of prodire, vincire, condire. Keil supplies a sentence between the words sonare and in eo, and reads : exilius volo sonare, si dico ab eo quod est prodere, vincere, condere ; in eo vero quod significat prodire, \&c. He refers the 'pinguescit' to the sound of $\bar{\imath}$, not to the $\check{\imath}$ of optimus, \&c., understanding Velius Longus to distinguish $\bar{\imath}$ from $\bar{\imath}$ as 'exilis sonus' and 'pinguis sonus.' These words, 'exilis,' ' latus,' 'pinguis,' unfortunately lack the precision of the terminology of modern phoneticians. They remind us of Lucilius' use of 'tenuare' and 'plenius facere' some two centuries earlier, in a passage not less obscure ( 9.14 M.) :-
'pilam' qua ludimıs, 'pilum'
quo pisunt, tenues, si plura haec feceris pila quae iacimus, addes e, 'peila,' ut plenius fiat;
whereas a later grammarian, Pompeius (fifth cent. A.D.), uses 'tenuis' and 'pinguis' to distinguish vocalic from consonantal $i$ and $u$ (ro3 K.) : ecce adverte, quomodo sonat $u$, 'unus,' ecce u vides quam tenuiter sonat. junge illam ad aliam litteram, et vide quia non sic sonat, sed pinguius sonat, 'vulnus,' ' vanus.' numquid sic sonat 'unus' quando u sola est? non, sed tenuiter sonat. 'vanus' quando dico pinguior sonus est. numquid dicis 'u-a-nus'? ergo vides quia, si ponantur solae, tenuem sonum habent, si jungantur ad alias litteras, pingues sonant. similiter et i sic patitur. 'itur,' ecce tenuius sonat; si dicas 'Titius,' pinguius sonat, et perdit sonum suum, et accipit sibilum. ( $t$ palatalized.) This confusion of terms must be borne in mind in reading the passage we now quote from Consentius (fifth cent. A.d.?), a passage interesting from its account of the Gaulish and Greek mispronunciations of Latin $i$ (394. Ir K.) : iotacismum dicunt vitium quod per ilitteram vel pinguius vel exilius prolatam fit. Galli pinguius hanc utuntur, ut cum dicunt 'ite,' non expresse ipsam proferentes, sed inter e et i pinguiorem sonum nescioquem ponentes. Graeci exilius hanc proferunt, adeo expressioni ejus tenui studentes, ut, si dicant 'jus,' aliquantulum de priori littera sic proferant, ut videas disyllabum esse factum. Romanae linguae in hoc erit moderatio, ut exilis ejus sonus sit, ubi ab ea verbum incipit, ut 'ite,' aut pinguior, ubi in ea desinit verbum, ut 'habui,' 'tenui'; medium quendam sonum inter e et i habet, ubi in medio sermone est, ut 'hominem.' mihi tamen videtur, quando producta est, plenior vel acutior esse ; quando autem brevis est, medium sonum exhibere debet, sicut eadem exempla, quae posita sunt, possunt declarare. Consentius hēre uses 'pinguis' and 'tenuis' or 'exilis' like Pompeius, not like Velius Longus, while he distinguishes long $i$ as 'plenior vel acutior,' short $i$ in hominem as 'a sound between e and i .' What he means by saying that in habui, tenui, $i$ had the 'pinguis sonus,' must
be that the words were pronounced in his time ' habuyi,' 'tenuyi.' (Seelmann gives quite a different explanation.)

These three accounts of Latin $\check{\imath}, \bar{\imath}$, taken in connexion with the evidence supplied by the Romance languages, where Latin $\check{\imath}$ has become a close E-sound, while Latin $\bar{i}$ is invariably close $\mathbf{I}$, give us the right to suppose that the usual Latin $\check{\imath}$ was different in quality from Latin $\bar{\imath}$, being an open I, like Engl. 'bit' or Germ. Kind, while $\bar{\imath}$ was the ordinary close I of Italian and other languages; though they suggest the further possibility of there having been a short variety of this latter $i$ in such words as the 3 Sing. Pres. Ind. Act. of the fourth conjugation, prodit, audit, condit, where the $i$, long in the time of Plautus, was shortened through the difficulty felt by the Romans in pronouncing a long vowel before final $-t$. Seelmann is of opinion that this short variety of close $i$ came gradually to replace open $\imath$ in the language of the educated classes at Rome in the first centuries of the Empire (postquam exilitas sermonis delectare coepit, Vel. Long.), and so explains the strange statement of the fourth century commentators on Donatus, quoted in our discussion of the sound of $e(\S 7$ ), that $\bar{\imath}$, $\bar{\imath}$, with $\breve{u}, \bar{u}$, were not distinguished like $\breve{e}, \bar{e}, \breve{o}, \bar{o}$; though Consentius a century later enlarges on this very distinction in the case of $i$. It is more probable that these commentators, though they refer to some Latin instances (mēta, dèmens, ĕquus), are really quoting remarks of Greek phoneticians on the sounds of Greek vowels, designed to explain the presence of separate signs for long and short $e$ and $o$ in the Greek alphabet ( $\epsilon, \eta, o, \omega$ ) ; and, if this be so, it cannot but suggest the alarming suspicion that their phrase, ' $\check{c}$ is like the diphthong, $\bar{e}$ like $i$,' may really mean that Greek $\epsilon$ had the sound of at (as was the case in Attic Greek by the second cent. a. d.), $\eta$ of $\iota$ (the itacism of modern Greek. Blass ascribes the change of $\eta$ to $\iota$ to the fifth cent. A. D.).

To pass to the ü-sound of optimus, which in the Romance languages is merged in ordinary Latin $i$. The statements of the grammarians we have quoted, particularly that of Velius Longus ( 49 K.), show us clearly that in the first century A. D. the vowel had a sound between $u$ and $i$, having had at an earlier period a U-sound. Still earlier it was an o (see ch. iii. § 18), and we may regard it as the sound which $\breve{u}$ (whether originally $o$ or $u$ or $a$, \&c.) took in open syllables after the accent, when influenced by the presence of a labial; whereas accented $\check{u}$ remained, e.g. cŭbo. The passage which we now quote from Velius Longus extends the same sound to $\check{\imath}$ in accented syllables influenced by the labial sibilant $v$, as in rir, virtus ( 75 K.) : 'aurifex' melius per i sonat quam per u. at 'aucupare' [et aucupium] mihi rursus melius videtur sonare per u quam per i; et idem tamen 'aucipis' malo quam 'aucupis,' quia scio sermonem et decori servire et aurium voluptati. unde fit ut saepe aliud scribamus, aliud enuntiemus, sicut supra locutus sum de 'viro' et 'virtute,' ubi i scribitur et paene u enuntiatur. unde Ti. Claudius novam quandam litteram excogitavit similem ei notae quam pro adspiratione Graeci ponunt, per quam scriberentur eae voces, quae neque secundum exilitatem i litterae, neque secundum pinguitudinem u literae sonarent, ut in 'viro' et 'virtute,' neque rursus secundum latum litterae sonum enuntiaretur, ut in eo quod est legere, scribere. In the last words he seems to refer to $i$ of the third conjugation, legit, legimus, legitis, \&c., the sound of which he calls 'latus' as opposed to the 'exilis sonus' of $\bar{i}$, and the 'pinguis sonus' of $i / u$; and this confirms our view that in the passage first quoted from him, the same threefold distinction was
explained between prodit of third conj. with 'latus sonus,' prodit of fourth conj. with 'exilis sonus,' and optimus with 'pinguis sonus.' There are a large number of references by other grammarians to this $i / u$ sound (see Seelmann, p. 205). Of these we need only quote two; one from Marius Victorinus (fourth cent.), who points out that this vowel is really the Greek $\boldsymbol{v}$ (Latin $y$ ) (see § 28); and one from Priscian, who, like Velius Longus, gives this sound of Greek $v$ to accented $\check{\imath}$ influenced by a preceding $v$. Mar. Victor. 19. 22 K . sunt qui inter u quoque et i litteras supputant deesse nobis vocem, sed pinguius quam $i$, exilius quam $u$. sed et pace eorum dixerim, non vident y litteram desiderari : sic enim 'gylam,' 'myserum,' 'Syllam' (MSS. syllabam), 'proxymum' dicebant antiqui. sed nunc consuetudo paucorum hominum ita loquentium evanuit, ideoque voces istas per $u$ 〈vel per i) scribite. The spelling myserum, which is found on some inscriptions, may be explained by Greek $\mu \nu \sigma a \rho o ́ s$, just as silva was spelt sylva through a fanciful connexion with $u$ ú $\lambda \eta$, and so Sylla for *Syrǔla (cf. App. Probi 197. 26 crista non 'crysta'); but it is difficult to explain gyla (for gǔla) in the same way. All the Romance languages point to gưla as the Vulgar Latin form (Ital. Span. gola, Fr. gueule). The 'antiqui' alluded to are merely former grammarians, whose innovation in spelling met with little favour, to judge from the instances found on inscriptions (Schuchardt, Vok. ii. pp. 197 sqq., 218 sqq.). Priscian i. 6 i et u vocales, quando mediae sunt, alternos inter se sonos videntur confundere, teste Donato, ut ' vir,' 'optimus,' ' quis' ; et i quidem quando post consonantem loco digamma functam Aeolici ponitur brevis, sequente $d$ vel $m$ vel $r$ vel t vel $x$, sonum y Graecae videtur habere, ut 'video,' ' vim,' ' virtus,' 'vitium,' 'vix.' Schuchardt, Vok. ii. p. 221, gives a few examples of $v y$ - for $v i$-in late inscriptions; and in the Appendix Probi (198. 20 K.) we have: vir non 'vyr,' virgo non 'vyrgo,' virga non 'vyrga,' so that the existence of this tendency to pronounce accented $i$ as $\ddot{u}$ after $v$ can hardly be doubted. (The Latin name for $y$, Greek $v$, was 'ui.' See below.) But Greek $v$ does not represent Latin $i$ in this position on Greek inscriptions. Other examples of accented $i / u$ are simus, written for sŭmus by some purists of the Augustan age (Mar. Victor. 9. 5 K. Messala, Brutus, Agrippa pro sumus 'simus' scripserunt), and by Augustus himself (Suet. Aug. 87) (cf. C. 1. L. ix. 3473. 14) ; lübet and lübet ; clupeus and clipeus (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. vv.) ; though two of these, simus and libet, might be explained as enclitic words and so wanting the accent, e. g. amatisumus, lubet-îre, quódlubet, \&c. (see iii. 12). (See also Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. vv. Bruttii, cliens (earlier cluens), linter, scrūpulus. The Romance forms point to both sŭmus (e.g. Fr. sommes) and simus (e. g. Ital. siamo from *semo, O. Roum. semo). Supparum, with byform siparum (see Georges s.v.) seems to be an Oscan word (Varro, L. L. v. 131), and the mispronunciations 'imbilicus' (Prob. App. 198. 4 K. ; cf. Ir. imbliu), 'scoriscus' (ib. 198. 32 K.), 'arispex' (Vel. Long. 73.9 K.) have been variously explained.) (On the $\ddot{u}$-sound, see Parodi in Studi Italiani, i. 385 .)
§17. Interchange of $i$ and $e$. The misspellings on inscriptions testify abundantly to the close relation between $\imath$ and $e$ (close e), e.g. karessemo merentessemo (C.I.L. ii. 2997) (see Schuchardt, Vok. ii. pp. 1-67) ; but $\bar{\imath}$ is rarely written $e$ except in Gaul and Britain, where $\bar{o}$ too appears as $u$. In rustic Latin indeed such words as spīca were pronounced spēca (Varro, R.R. i. 48. 2); but it is not clear whether this was not confined to words which originally had the diphthong ei (cf. vella, Varro, R. R. i. 2. 14). If so, the $e$ is that dialectal $e$ for
I.-Eur. ei which is found in the Umbrian language, e.g. prevo- (Lat. privus, privatus; Osc. preirato.), and in various parts of Italy. Demidius for dimidius (App. Prob. 198. 27 K.) is due to confusion of $d \bar{e}$ with $d i \overline{-}$ (dis) [cf. demedius, C. I. L. vii. 140 ; x. 3428, and in MSS. (see Schuchardt, Vok. ii. 71). Fr. demi]; Serena for Sirēna (App. Prob. 199. 10) to confusion with sërēnus (cf. Fr. serin, canary ?). On dēlirus and delerrus, see ch. iii. The vowel of the open unaccented syllable was in Old Latin $\check{e}$, not $\grave{\imath}$ (see iii. 18 ; and this ancient sound remained in Rustic Latin. So that $\check{e}$ for $\grave{\imath}$ of hŏminnem, \&c., as well as $\bar{e}$ for $\bar{\imath}$ of sp $\bar{c} c a, \& c$., and $\breve{e}$ for $\breve{c}$ in hiatus of via, \&c., characterized the pronunciation of the country districts. Cicero often alludes to the 'rustic' substitution of the $e$ - for the $i$-sound in the utterance of his friend L. Aurelius Cotta, the author of the famous jury-law, the Lex Aurelia Judiciaria of 70 в. c. : quare Cotta noster, cujus tu illa lata, Sulpici, nonnunquam imitaris, ut iota litteram tollas et $e$ plenissimum dicas, non mihi oratores antiquos, sed messores videtur imitari (de Orat. iii. 12. 46. Cf. iii. 11. 42 ; Brut. xxxvi. 137; lxxiv. 259 ; and Quintilian xi. 3. 10).

The frequent occurrence on Greek inscriptions of $\epsilon$ for Lat. ì (e.g. T $\in \beta \in \rho / o s$, $\lambda \epsilon \nu \tau \iota o \nu)$ may point to Greek $\epsilon$ having had (unlike Latin ĕ) the close E-sound (see Blass, Aussprache des Griechischen ${ }^{2}$, p. 23). But it may often be merely a retention of the early Latin spelling, of the form in which the word was first borrowed by the Greeks. This $\epsilon$ for $\check{\imath}$ is the usual spelling in couєtov at all periods, while Kauкєлıos is replaced by Kaıkiлıos after 50 в. с., K $a \pi \epsilon \tau \omega \lambda \iota o \nu$ by Kamırшגıov in the first cent. A.d. ; $\Lambda \in \pi \in \delta o s$ is the form of the Republican, $\Lambda \epsilon \pi \kappa \delta o s$ of the Imperial Age. (For other examples see Eckinger, p. 29 sqq., and for examples of $\grave{\iota}$ e in Latin, Georges, Lex. Wortf. s.vv. gillo, hibiscum, minus, minister, sinus, sine, sinapi, cindico, comissor, solidus. On the late Lat. emitari, see Schuch. Vok. ii. 20, and cf. Prob. App. 199. 2, and 198. 22 K.)
§ 18. i in hiatus. The Romance forms of the word for day (Ital. dì, Sard. die, Span. dia, O. Fr. di) have all $i$, which is the normal representative of Latin $\bar{\imath}$; and on inscriptions we have sometimes the lengthened form of the letter, which usually denotes long $i$, e. g. dIes (C. I. L. vi. 7527) ; dIe (io239, also privsquam). (On pIvs see § 143.)
§ 19. Anomalies in Romance. Ital. freddo, Fr. froid, from Lat. frĭğdus, point to *fruldus, from frig(i)dus (cf. App. Probi 198. 3 K. frigida non frigda), where the $i$ has been referred to the analogy of rigidus (but see § 127); *glèrem replaces gitrem in Celtic countries (Fr. loir, O. Prov. gles), but not elsewhere (Ital. ghiro); Vulg. Lat. *sübilo, *süfilo, beside sibibil, *sīflo, to whistle (e.g. Ital. sufilare, subillare, sibilare, O. Fr. subler, siffler), have been explained by reference to suflare, or to sübulo, the Etruscan word for a fluteplayer ; Greek $\bar{\imath}$ in $\chi \rho \hat{\imath} \sigma \mu \alpha$ is treated like Latin $\imath$ in Fr. chrême, Ital. cresma.
§ 20. O. Having discovered that Latin $\breve{e}$ is open E, Latin $\bar{e}$ close $\mathbf{E}$, we are almost entitled to infer that Latin $\breve{o}$ will be open 0 , Latin $\bar{o}$ close 0 . For each language has what phoneticians call a 'basis of articulation,' according to which all its sounds are regulated; and if one set of sounds is treated in a particular way, any set of corresponding sounds is likely to
receive a similar treatment. The Teutonic languages, for example, changed the I.-Eur. Aspirate Mediae to voiced Spirants ( $\lambda h$ to $d$, the sound of our $t / l$ in 'this,' \&c.). They correspondingly moved the Tenues to unvoiced Spirants ( $t$ to the of 'thin,' $\& c$. ) ; and similarly the Mediae to Tenues ( $d$ to $t, \& c$.), a movement or gradation of sounds first discovered by Grimm, and known as ' Grimm's Law.' From detecting one sound in a language, we are thus often able to guess what other sounds will be ; and we could in the absence of other evidence infer the quality of the O-sounds in Latin from that of the E-sounds. Evidence, however, is not wanting. The Romance languages, for example, show Latin $\breve{o}$ as open O , Latin $\bar{o}$ (with which Latin $\breve{u}$ is merged) as close O . This open O is in many languages developed in open syllables to uo (e.g. Ital. ruota, from Lat. roota), as open E to ie (§6), while in Spanish wo has further developed to we (e.g. ruede), a change that reminds us of the substitution of $v e$ - for vo- in Latin words like verto, older vorto. In Italian we have molle (with open O) for Latin mŏllis, sole (with close O) for Latin sōl, solem, the open O having the O-sound of German voll, Stock, the close that of German so, Fr. chaud. Our 'short $o$ ' in 'stock,' 'folly,' is a 'lower' sound, formed with the tongue lower in the mouth, than the open O of German (our O-sound in 'oar' is nearer this), while our 'long $o$ ' in 'so' is a diphthong.

In unaccented syllables in Latin open O, before a Labial or $l$, seems, like open E before other consonants, to have become close, and then to have passed into a U-sound, as $e$ into an I-sound, e.g. sēlưlōō from sē $d o ̆ l o ̄, ~ c o n s u ̆ l o ~(E a r l y ~ L a t . ~ c o s o l-) . ~ I n ~ I t a l i a n, ~ o ̆, ~ l i k e ~$ $\breve{e}$, takes the close sound in syllables after the accent. This $u$, as we saw (\$ 14), might sink to $\ddot{\text { u }}$, e.g. consilium ; but as a rule $o$ is retained in the spelling of compounds more persistently than $e$, e.g. accŏlo, agř̆cŏla (agricula, Schuch. ii. 133). Even when accented, $\breve{o}$ seems to have had the close sound before certain groups of consonants, such as $l$ with another consonant (not $l l$ ), $n$ or $n$ with another consonant, $m, \& c$., to judge from such varieties of spelling as Old Latin Culcides for Colclides (Quint. i. 4. 16), Old Latin and Rustic Latin frundes forforondes, Vulg. Lat. turnus for tornus; and this is confirmed by the misspellings on plebeian inscriptions, and the like (collected by Schuchardt, Vok. ii. pp. 1 I4,
\&c.). In Celtic countries $u$ is often found on Latin inscriptions instead of $\bar{o}$, e. g. nepus (for nèpōs). (C.I.L. xii. 5336.)

The O-sounds of the Oscan language offer the same analogy to the Latin, as the E-sounds (§ 6). The Oscan alphabet, being borrowed from the Etruscan, had originally no sign for $o$, but only the sign for $u$. This $u$-sign was used for $\bar{o}$ as well as for $u$, while for $\check{o}$ a modification of the sign was used, conventionally written by us ú. In Latin characters $u$ expresses Oscan u , and $o$ Oscan ú, though in the final syllable before a labial $u$ sometimes takes its place [e.g. Osc. estud, in Latin writing estud (Lat. estō, older estōld), Osc. púd, in Latin writing pod (Lat. quŏd), Osc. dékum, in Latin writing deicum (Lat. dīcere, older deicere), and dolom, dolum (Lat. dölum)]. In Greek characters Oscan u is ov, and sometimes o, Oscan ú is o. This Oscan ú, as was noticed before (§ I), represents I.-Eur. final $\bar{A}$ of Nom. Sg. of $\bar{A}$-stems and Acc. Pl. Neut. of O-stems, and can hardly have been anything but some form of open $O$.

## 21. Descriptions of the O-sound by Latin phoneticians. Terentianus

 Maurus distinguishes short from long O (vi. $3^{299}$. 130-134 K.) :-> igitur sonitum reddere cum voles minori, retrorsus adactam modice teneto linguam, rictu neque magno, sat erit patere labra. at longior alto tragicum sub oris antro molita rotundis acuit sonum labellis.

This 'tragic tone in the mouth-cavern' of $\bar{o}$ is perhaps more applicable to Greek $\omega$, which was open 0 (Blass, Aussprache des Griechischen ${ }^{2}$, p. 26), than Latin $\overline{0}$, and the whole description is possibly, as we have seen, borrowed from Greek writers on Phonetics. Marius Victorinus (vi. 33. 3-8K.) summarizes the older account : o, ut e, geminum vocis sonum pro condicione temporis promit... igitur qui correptum enuntiat, nec magno hiatu labra reserabit, et retrorsum actam linguam tenebit. longum autem productis labris, rictu tereti, lingua antro oris pendula sonum tragicum dabit. The commentators on Donatus (Servius, in Don. p. 421. 17-19 K.) say the same : o productum quando est, ore sublato vox sonat, ut 'Roma'; quando correptum, de labris vox exprimitur, ut 'rosa' ; Sergius, in Don. p. 520. 30-3I o quando longa est, intra palatum sonat; 'Roma,' 'orator'; quando brevis est, primis labris exprimitur : 'opus,' ' rosa.' Martianus Capella (iii. 26r) says merely : 0 rotundi oris spiritu comparatur.
§ 22. Close for open o in accented syllables before certain consonantgroups. (See Schuchardt, Vok. ii. p. 114 sqq.) Before $l$ and another consonant ŏ became $u$ in classical Latin, e. g. consulto (early consolto, C.I. L. i. 548, latter part of second century в. c.) ; pulcer (but Polc[er], C.I.L. i. 552 of 131 в.c., cf. Prisc. i. 27. 12 H.) ; culpa (Old Lat. colpa Prisc. l.c.). Before $m$ or $n$ when these nasals are followed by a consonant we see the same tendency.

The classical spelling is $u$ in umbo, lumbus, unguis, uncus (see ch. iv. § 20). Before $n d$ in Vulg. Lat. u replaced classical $o(K . Z . \operatorname{xxx} .336)$, as is shown by the Romance forms (e.g. Ital. risponde, with close o, Sard. respundit); and in Italian we have close $o$ in ponte, fronte, fonte, which corresponds with Priscian's remark that funtes, frundes, \&c., were the older forms retained in Rustic Latin. (Prisc. i. 26. 35 H. multa praeterea vetustissimi etiam in principalibus mutabant syllabis; 'gungrum' pro gongrum, 'cunchin' pro conchin, 'huminem' pro hominem proferentes, 'funtes' pro fontes, unde Lucretius in libro . . tertio :-

## atque ea nimirum quaecumque Acherunte profundo,

... quae tamen a junioribus repudiata sunt quasi rustico more dicta. Cf. Velius Longus p . 49. 15 K . unde in multis etiam nominibus variae sunt scripturae, ut fontes funtes, frondes frundes; and Charis. p. 130. 29 K. ; sic ab Ennio est declinatum annalium libro vii ; russescunt frundes, non frondes.) Rumpia is the Latin form of popqaia, the long two-edged sword of the Thracians, quoted from Ennius by Gell. x. 25. 4, and read in the MSS. of Livy xxxi. 39. ir. Before $r n$ a close sound of $\check{\prime}$, and not the long vowel, is perhaps indicated by the apex on the o of ornare in some inscriptions (e.g C. I. L. x. 6104. 1839. 6009) (a fuller discussion of this point in § 145). Greek «ó $\theta$ op oos is cothurnus; Greek tópvos was in Vulgar Latin turmus (so spelt in the MSS. of Symmachus, Epp. v. io), e. g. Span. tornar, Ital. torno (with close o). The vowel of tornus has been referred to the close sound of Greek o (while $\omega$ had the open sound) ( $К . Z . \mathrm{xxx} .336$ ), and the $u$ of amurca (Greek ${ }^{\mu} \mu \dot{\rho} \rho \gamma \eta$ ), and other Greek loanwords in Latin (cf. App. Probi 198. 22 botruus not 'butro.' Cf. Butrio, C. I. L. ii. 668 and Sard. budrone), might be explained in the same way. But it is unlikely that the nuances of Greek vowels would be retained in words naturalized in Latin, and the tendency to give $\begin{array}{r} \\ \text { the close sound before }\end{array}$ these consonant-groups is visible in genuine Latin words. Perhaps $b b$ is another group of the kind. Obba was in the time of Nonius (fourth cent. A. D.) $u b b a$ (Non. 146 M. obba, poculi genus, quod nunc ubba dicitur).

In Greek Inscriptions we have Movytavos for Lat. Montänus (C. I. A. iii. ıı38, of 174-8 A.d. ; but usually Movaavos), Bov入кaxios, Kovpßov入ш (and Kopß-), Movatovuıos (see Eckinger, p. 54). For other examples of $0-u$ before consonantgroups in the accented syllable, see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. ve. conchis, dupundius, formo(n)sus, Corsi, Volscus, proboscis, colostra, bulbus, furnus, fornix, fornax, Fulvius, triumphus, cochlea; and in the unaccented syllable, s.vv. volsella, to (n)sillae, promunturium; also Brambach, Hülfsb. s. vv. furrus, formica. For classical -utwe have O. Lat. -ov- in flovius, elovies (see Georges s.vv.). Curium (for corium) on the Edict of Diocletian viii. 6 is a strange variety. The Appendix Probi censures furmica (197. 27 K.). formunsus (198.9, detundo (199. 1), purpureticum marmur (197. 19), as well as torma for turma (198. 4 and 28). We have tundunt on two rustic Calendars (C.I.L. $\mathrm{i}^{2}$. p. 280) for class. tondent. Cf. Sard. tundere).
§ 23. $\mathbf{u}$ for unaccented ǒ. The mispronunciation pulenta for pŏlenta (Charis. 96. 13 K . ; Caper 106. 4 K .) shows this change in the pretonic syllable. Cf. lulligo for lolizgo (Georges s.v), \&c. In the post-tonic syllable the change to $u$ is normal ; see ch. iii. § 18 .
§ 24. $u$ for $\overline{\text { o }}$. These two sounds are, as was mentioned above, merged in the Romance languages. In Late Latin inscriptions the expression of $\bar{\sigma}$ by $u$
is very common, e.g. patrunus for patrōnus. (Cf. App. Probi 197. 28 sobrius non 'suber.') Schuchardt, Vok. ii. p. 91 sqq., has collected a large number of instances from Inscriptions and MSS. (cf. facitud, C.1. L. i. 8ı3). Forms like pūmilio, pōmilio belong to a somewhat different category; for the original sound here was ou (cf. pater poumilionom on an old Praenestine cista, Eph. Epigr. i. 20', and $\bar{o}$ was a development of $o u$, in the same way that $\bar{e}$ was of $e i$ (see iv. 32 ). The same $\bar{o}$ for ou seems to appear in the classical forms röbustus, röbigo, for which we have occasional byforms rubustus, rubigo (see Georges s.v., and cf. Probi Append. 199. 5 K. robigo non rubigo). (This use of $\bar{o}$ and $\bar{u}$ for earlier ou is discussed in ch. iv. §4r.) (Cf. nongentos non ' nungentos,' Bede 28r. 26 K.)
§ 25. Other changes of ŏ and $\overline{0}$. Curtina, a mispronunciation of cortina (Dub. Nom. 5757 K. ), may follow the analogy of curtus; faeneris, \&c., for faenöris, \&c. Vel. Long. 72 and 73 K.) are influenced ly gěnëris and the like; praestōlor and praestūlor (Curt. Valerian. ap. Cassiodor. ${ }^{1} 57.23$ K. ; Alcuin 306. 12 K. ; Bede 286. 19 K.) depend on praestō and praestī ; ōstium was in Vulg. Lat. ūstium (ustei Gen. is found in Marc. Emp. xxviii. 37) (Ital. uscio, O. Span. uzo, Fr. huis) ; ōvum, an egg, was *ŏ́um (Ital. uovo, Span. huevo, O. Fr. uef); cŏrallium and cüralium are two different forms (Greek ropá $\lambda \lambda \iota o \nu$ and кovрáдıov); and the same must be said of úpilio and üpilio. (The note of Servius on Ecl. x. 19 venit et upilio, \&c., implies these quantities : propter metrum ait 'upilio,' nam opilio dicimus-et graeco usus est schemate, sicut illi dicunt oüvo $\mu a$ pro eo quod est övoua, et oűp pro eo quod est ő $\rho \eta$. Cf. Caper ri2 K. upilio, nunc opilio.)
§ 26. U, Y. The Latin grammarians do not speak so much about the difference of short and long $u$ as they do about $\check{\imath}$ and $\bar{\imath}$, perhaps because the first distinction did not so much appeal to the ear. But in Romance $\breve{u}$ and $\bar{u}$ take quite different paths, $\breve{u}$ being merged in $\bar{o}$, and $\bar{\iota}$ preserved, as we found $\breve{\imath}$ merged in $\bar{e}$, and $\bar{\imath}$ preserved. Short $\breve{u}$ and $\bar{j}$ of Latin are distinguished not only in Sardinian (the only Romance language which distinguishes Latin $\breve{\imath}$ and $\bar{e}$ ), but also in Roumanian and in the Latin element of the Albanian language, though in the two latter $\check{u}$ may have first become close $o$, and changed back again to $u$. (A.L.L. vii. 61.) They are distinguished also in Latin loanwords in Welsh.

Latin $\bar{u}$ is little altered in Romance, except that in some countries it has taken a $\ddot{u}$-sound, in France (lune, for Latin lüna), a Celtic country, and, perhaps by Greek influence, through the south-east coast of Italy. Italian $\bar{u}$, which seems to retain the sound of Latin $\bar{u}$, as Italian $\bar{\imath}$ of Latin $\bar{\imath}$, has the close U -sound of Fr . sou, Germ. gut, du, while our 'two' is a diphthong ending with a $w$-sound. Our short $u$, e. g. 'full,' ' put,' is open U, the German $\check{u}$ of und, Lust, \&c. being, according to Sweet (Handb. p.o28),
rather closer than the English. The 'obscure vowel' of 'but,' which is sometimes carelessly spoken of as 'short $u$ ' is an entirely different vowel, not to be called a U-sound at all. In Welsh and Breton some Latin loanwords show $\bar{\imath}$ for $\bar{u}$, e. g. Bret. dīr (Lat. d $\bar{u} r u s$ ), but this is probably due to the Celtic tendency to turn $u$-sounds into $i \ddot{\text {-sounds }}$ (see however K. $Z$. xxix. 46). Vulg. Lat. junipirus (e.g. Ital. ginepro) for $j \bar{u} n \breve{\imath} p$ е̌rus (Probi Append. 199. 8 K.) shows the same influence of the palatal spirant $j$ (our $y$ ) as Vulg. Lat. Jenuarius for Jänuarius (§ 1). But there is little reason to believe that Latin $\bar{u}$ had naturally a $i u$-sound. Plautus, Men. 654, compares the reiterated $t u t u$ 'you! you!' to the hooting of an owl:-

> Matrona. Tu tu istic inquam. Peniculus. Vin adferri noctuam, Quae 'tu tu' usque dicat tibi? Nam nos iam defessi sumus.

This seems to point to the oo-sound of our 'too-whoo,' though such comparisons should never have too much stress laid on them. The palatalization of $c$ before $\bar{u}$ is hardly known in the Romance languages ( $K . Z$. xxix. 46). The connexion between $\breve{u}$ and close O is seen in the numerous misspellings of $o$ for $\breve{u}$ in plebeian inscriptions (Schuchardt, Vok. ii. 149, \&c.). In unaccented syllables, as we have seen (§ 14), $\breve{u}$ tended to the $\ddot{u}$-sound of optümus, optimus, which was written $u$ to the time of Julius Caesar, afterwards $i$, and which in the Romance languages is not distinguished from $i$. This was the sound of Greek $v$, which in older Latin was treated like Latin $u$, but afterwards was with more exactness spelt (and pronounced) with the Greek letter $\Upsilon(y)$; though in ordinary usage we often find it, like the $u$-sound of optimus, represented by $i$. In Oscan $\breve{u}$ took after certain letters a $y u$-sound, e. g. tiurrí (Lat. turrim), Diumpaís (Lat. lumpis, lympliis), as in the Boeotian dialect rúx $\eta$ was tooúxa, or in English 'tune' is pronounced 'tyūn ; ' but there is no trace of this sound in Latin ${ }^{1}$ (see ch. iv. § 7).
§ 27. Descriptions of the $\boldsymbol{U}$-sound by Latin phoneticians. Ter. Maur. vi. 329. 142-145 K. :-
hanc edere vocem quotiens paramus ore
nitamur ut $u$ dicere, sic citetur ortus:
productius autem coeuntibus labellis
natura soni pressior altius meabit.

[^13]Mar. Vict. vi. 33.8 -9 K. u litteram quotiens enuntiamus productis et coeuntibus labris efferemus. Martianus Capella iii. 26r U ore constricto labrisque prominulis exhibetur.
§ 28. Greek $v$ in Latin. Ter. Scaurus says (vii. 25. 13 K.) y litteram supervacuam latino sermoni putaverunt, quoniam pro illa u cederet. sed cum quaedam in nostrum sermonem graeca nomina admissa sint, in quibus evidenter sonus hujus litterae exprimitur, ut 'hyperbaton' et 'hymnus' et 'hyacinthus' et similia, in eisdem hac littera necessario utimur. Y, as a Greek letter, was not allowed in Roman words (see ch. i.), for the custom of writing gyla, \&c., never gained acceptance (Caper vii. ı05. 17 K. y litteram nulla vox nostra adsciscit. ideo insultabis 'gylam' dicentibus. Cf. Bede vii. ${ }^{273} 33$ K. ; Ter. Scaur. vii. 22-23 K. ; Vel. Longus vii. 81. 5-8 K. ; Mar. Victorin. vi. 33. пг K.), unless the word was mistaken for a Greek one, e. g. sylva referred to Greek $u$ ú $\eta$, lympha to Greek $\nu \dot{v} \mu \phi \eta^{1}$ (Cf. crista non 'crysta, App. Probi 197. 26 K.). The new letter invented by the Emperor Claudius to express the ü-sound of optümus, optimus is used for Greek $v$ in words like Nymphius, Bathyllus in the Fasti Antiates written in the reign of Claudius (C.I. L. $\mathrm{i}^{2}$. p. 247). But before the use of the Greek letter $\Upsilon$, the Greek vowel was written $u$ (Cassiod. ${ }^{5} 53$. ir K. Y littera antiqui non semper usi sunt, sed aliquando loco illius $u$ ponebant: itaque in illorum quidem libris hanc scripturam observandam censeo, 'Suriam' 'Suracusas' 'sumbola' 'sucophantas,' at in nostris corrumpi non debet ; cf. ibid. r6o. 16 K.$)$; and the MSS. of Plautus indicate such spellings as Hilüria for Illy̆ria, \&c. Burrus and Bruges were the forms used by Ennius for Pyrrhus and Phry̆ges (Cicero, Orator xlviii. 160 ipsius antiqui declarant libri). That it was also pronounced like ordinary Latin $u$ we see from the Romance forms of these earlier Greek loanwords which make no distinction (e.g. Lat. tumba for Greek $\tau \boldsymbol{v} \mu \beta$ os, is in Ital. tomba, in Sard. tumba, in Fr. tombe), not to speak of Plautus' pun on Ly dus and lūdus (Bacch. 129), and on chry̆sičlus and crǔcǐsčlus (ib. 362). After the $u$-sound of optumus, optimus came to be spelt with $\check{i}$, the same letter was in ordinary usage employed for Greek v, e. g. cignus (Greek кúkvos), in Ital. cecero, being pronounced probably in the same way as the $i$ of optimus, which in Romance is not distinguishable from ordinary $\grave{i}$. Tondrus for Tymdareus on an old Praenestine cista (C.I.L. xiv. 4 109) is perhaps to be explained by the $u$-sound of $o$ before $n d$ (ch. iv. $\S 20$ ). Greek $\kappa v$ is often spelt $q u i$, e.g. Vulg. quiatus for cyathus (see Schuch. Vok. ii. p. 273 sqq. for examples), as Latin qui is often expressed by Greek $\kappa v$; e. g. 'Akv入as for $\breve{A} q u i l a, ~ K \nu \rho \epsilon \iota \nu o s ~ a n d ~ K v \rho ı \nu o s ~$ for Quïrinus on Greek inscriptions (see Eckinger, p. 123). Oe is found for Greek $\bar{v}$ in goerus, coloephia, byforms of gȳrus, colȳphia, \&c. (see Georges s.vv., and Schuch. ii. 278). Latin $\check{u}$ is in Greek inscriptions always expressed by o till the beginning of the Empire, when ov takes its place. We find $v$ especially in the suffixes -ullus, -ulus, -urius, \&c. (Eckinger, p. 58 sqq.) Sulla, Sylla for Sy̌rula (§ 16) is always $\Sigma u \lambda \lambda a s$.
(For spellings of Greek $v$ and the Latin $i$-sound with $y, u, i$, see Schuchardt's examples from inscriptions and MSS., Vok. ii. p. 218 sqq., and consult Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. vv. cumba, murra, myrtetum, myrtum, lympha,

[^14]murmillo, Thynia, Syrus, serpyllum, and Brambach, Hülfsbüchlein s. vv. thynnus, syllaba, stilus. The Appendix Probi has : tymum non 'tumum' (199. 6); myrta non 'murta' (199.7) ; Marsyas non 'Marsuas' (197. 24) ; clamys non 'clamus' (198. 20) ; gyrus non 'girus' (197.27) ; Byzacenus non 'Bizacinus' (198. 1) ; amygdala non 'amiddula' (198. 26).)
§ 29. o for $\check{u}$. The coincidence of Latin $\bar{o}$ and $\check{u}$ in the Romance languages makes it natural that we should find $o$ written for $\check{u}$ on late inscriptions, and in plebeian forms. Roman tiles, for example, from the figlina Bucconiana are in the earlier period marked Bucconiana, but from Diocletian's time often Boconiana (C.I.L. xv. p. 386) ; and Greek $\sigma \pi \dot{\rho} \rho a \xi$ appears in late Latin as storax (Georges s. v.). [In addition to the large number of instances of $o$ for $\breve{u}$ collected by Schuchardt, Vok. ii. p. 149 \&c., see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. vv. columna, urceolus, cunnus, luxurio, verccundus, and cf. App. Probi 198. 23 puella non 'poella'; 198. 12 cluaca non 'cloaca': 197. 25 columna non 'colomna' (on the last example, see § 68 and ch . iii. § 33 .)]
§30. ō for $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$. This interchange, as we have seen (§ 24 ), is properly confined to words which had originally the diphthong ou, which became in Latin a sound expressed variously by $\bar{j}$ and by $\bar{u}(\mathbf{c h} . \mathrm{iv} . \S 4 \mathrm{I})$. Some examples of the interchange have been mentioned in § 24. To them may be added bocula, occasionally in MSS. of Virgil for būciulla (Ribbeck, Index, p. 39r), jocundus for jücundus (Georges s.v.), and the examples (many of doubtful worth) collected by Schuchardt, Vok. ii. p. i8i sqq.
§ 31. Other changes of u and $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$. Cölŭber was in Vulg. Lat. colober, the $u$ being assimilated to the accented $o$ (see ch. iii. § 33). Hence Vulg. Lat. cololra, with open $o$ accented before $b r$ (cf. ch. iii. § II). (Sicil. culovria, Span. culebra, O. Fr. culuevre) ; cf. Append. Probi 199. 2 K. coluber non colober : so colober on inserr. e.g. Mur. 1144.3, and in MSS. (Schuch. ii. 149) ; nŭrus was norus (see Georges s. v.) or rather *nora (cf. App. Probi 198. 34 nurus non 'nura'), with open o (Ital. nuora, Span. nuera), perhaps by analogy of sŏror. Läridus was *lür(i)dus (Ital. lordo, Fr. lourd) ; pūmex shows *püm-, in Ital. pomice, Span. pomez, Fr. ponce) ; nüptice was ${ }^{\text {noptia (Ital. nozze, Fr. noces), explained }}$ by analogy of nova nupta (?). Úpilio and ŏpilio, cūralium and cơrallium were explained in § 25 . Aurūgo and aurīgo are due to interchange of suffixes, not to transition of vowel-sound. (So grăvīdo and grằēdo, § ro.)

A curious tendency to interchange $u-i$ and $i-u$ appears in Vulg. Lat. stŭpila (seen in Ital. stoppia, O. Fr. estoble, Fr. éteule, \&c.), unless stup- and stip- are original byforms. (On mitulus and mytilus, see Brambach, Hülfsbüchl. s. v., cf.

§ 32. Diphthongs. We have no reason to doubt that Latin $a u$, ae were in the classical period, and for some time after, diphthongal sounds. None of the grammarians who discuss these diphthongs suggests that they were anything else. But in various dialects of Italy $a u$ had been early reduced to a single sound $o$, ae to a single sound $e$, a-dialectal or 'rustic' pronunciation which shows signs of its presence in the speech of everyday life. The Romance languages indicate that in Vulgar Latin ae
had become hardly distinguishable from an open E-sound ; and the reiterated warnings of grammarians, from the fourth cent. A.D. onwards, against the confusion of words like aequus and equus tell the same story. Welsh praidd (Latin praeda, for *prae-heda or *prae-hita, from prehendo, prae-hendo) must have been borrowed before this decay set in; but Varro's use of ae, instead of $\bar{e}$, to express the sound of Greek $\eta$ (probably open $e$ ), in scaena, seems to show that the process of development had at least begun before the Imperial Age. On the other hand, au has been preserved intact by several of the Romance languages; and in the others (e.g. Italian and French), where it has developed to o (Ital. cosa, poco, \&c., with open $o$; Fr. chose), this development can be proved to be post-Roman. In Latin loanwords in Welsh we have sometimes $a u$, e.g. aur (Lat. aurum), sometimes close $o$. The pronunciation of these diphthongs must have been a combination of the simple sounds of which they are composed; au, an $a$ rapidly followed by a $u$ (or $o$ ), something like German au; $a e$, an $a$ rapidly followed by an $e$, something like Welsh ae; but how modified from century to century, it is impossible to say. In (originally) unaccented syllables in compounds, $a \iota$ was reduced to $\bar{u}$ (through eu ?), e. g. dēfrūlo, from fraudo (see ch. iii. § i8) (cf. Ital. udire, from Lat. audire); ae, or rather the earlier $a i$, to $\bar{\imath}$ (through ei?), e.g. Nistīsum, from taedeo (ibid.) ; but in later Latin the reduction was seldom carried out (ch. iii. § 23). The interjection au, only used by women, seems to have been a cry expressing wonder or indignation, e.g. Ter. Adelph. $33^{6} \mathrm{au}$, au, mi homo, sanusne es? while the diphthong ae occurs in several exclamations, such as vae (the Lettish wai), hahue and halahae, \&c. (Cf. baubari to bark.)

Ae had been in early times $a i$; and this old spelling was often used by lovers of antiquity in the Imperial period, though the pronunciation was of course $a e$, and not $a i$. A curious feature of Vulgar Latin, reflected in Romance, was the substitution of $a$ for $a u$ in syllables before the accent, when the next syllable contained the vowel u, e.g. Agustus, found on Inscriptions for Augustus. (Ital. agosto.) The same tendency is shown in the Sardinian dialect of Italian, where Lat. laurus is laru, \&c., and in our ' laughter' $a u$ has an $a$-sound.
$O i$, a diphthong used in early times, had been reduced first to $o e$, then to a simple sound $\bar{u}$ (through some $\ddot{o}$-sound probably) before the classical period. What was the exact sound of the later diphthong oe, which we find in words like coetus (from $c o(m)$-itus $)$, is difficult to determine; and the small number of words which possessed this diphthong makes it impossible to ascertain its treatment in Romance. We have already seen ( $\S 28$ ) that it is occasionally found as an expression of Greek $\bar{v}$, e.g. goerus (beside g⿹̄龴rus), coloeplia (beside cōl $\bar{y} p l i a)$. The interjection $o i e i$ was a cry of pain. Thus in Plautus, Mil. 1406, when the soldier is being thrashed, he shouts: oiei, satis sum verberatus; and in Terence, Phorm. 663, the miserly father, hearing of the large sum demanded by the parasite, cries out, as if he had received a blow : oiei, nimium est.
$E u$ is another diphthong, which arose at a later period through fortuitous combination, e.g. nĕuter, a trisyllable (Consentius p. $3^{89}$. 28 K.) (from $u$ ĕ and $u$ uter, with the accent on the $n \breve{e}, \S$ I49), seu (so neu, ceu, ch. x. § 16 and II) (by reduction of sī-ve, sei-ve, ch. x. §4); while I.-Eur. eu was, like I.-Eur. ou, in the Italic languages $o u$, a diphthong found in early Latin, but reduced to $\bar{u}$ (as I.-Eur. $e i$ to $\bar{\imath}$ ) by the second cent. в.c. (ch. iv. § 26). Latin $e u$ of the Interjection heu (cf. Greek $\phi \epsilon \hat{v}$ ) must have been pronounced like $e$ followed rapidly by $u$ (or $o$ ); for a fifth century grammarian (Agroecius 122. II-I6 K.) dwells on the distinction between eo, $e h o$, and heu. Greek $\epsilon v$ seems to have been usually pronounced as a disyllable in Latin. Ui, which can hardly claim to rank as a Latin diphthong, is seen in the interjection hui, where it may express the sound of a whistle, our ' whew !' and in the Dative cui, which does not seem to have much differed in pronunciation from the Nominative $q u \bar{u}$.
§ 33. Grammarians' account of diphthongs. Nigidius (first cent. в.c.), $a p$. Gell. xix. 14.6 a et o semper principes sunt, i et u semper subditae, e et subit et praeit ; praeit in 'Euripo, subit in 'Aemilio'; Ter. Scaurus (second cent. A. d.) vii. 16. 5 K. a igitur littera praeposita est . . . e litter(ae) . . . et apud antiquos i littera pro ea scribebatur, . . ut 'pictai vestis,' et 'aulai medio'. . . sed magis in illis e novissima sonat (cf. Quint. i. 7. 18) ; Marius Victorinus ;fourth cent. A. D.) vi. 32. 4-6 K. duae inter se vocales jugatae ac sub unius vocis enuntiatione prolatae syllabam faciunt natura longam, quam Graeci diphthongon vocant, veluti geminae vocis unum sonum, ut ae, $\mathrm{oe}, \mathrm{au}$; cf. Ter. Maur. vi. $33^{8 .}$ 418-427 K. and $365 . ~ 1326-1334 ; ~[P r o b u s] ~ d e ~ u l t . ~_{\text {2 }}$.
syll.iv. 219.25 K. ; Servius, in Don. iv. 423.30 K. ; Mallius Theodorus vi. 586. 25-26 K. ; Bede vii. 229. 20-25 K.
§ 34. Ter. Maurus on au. Terentianus Maurus makes a distinction between Latin $\check{u} u$ and $\tilde{a} u$, while Latin $e u$, he says, is like Greek $\epsilon v$ always $\check{u} u$. $\breve{A} u$, as in ' aut ăgĕ,' 'aut ŭbi,' 'Aurunci' of Virgil, he compares to Homer's à̉́̂́puaav (presumably $\left.\dot{a} F^{\prime} \dot{f} p u \sigma a \nu\right)$ and $\dot{u} \tau \alpha \dot{\rho} \rho$ for aútá $\rho$, in contrast to the (accented) $\bar{a} u$ of aurum, auspı̆ces, Greek aṽpıov:-

> 'aut age' inquit ille vates, saepe dixit ' aut ubi' dixit 'Aurunci,' quod aeque barbarum est producere: pes ubique lege constat, prima cum correpta sit, consonans et una plenum non queat tempus dare
> aúє́pváa inquit poeta sic et aủtáp corripit.

If this means anything, which is doubtful, it ought to mean that in 'aut age. 'aut ubi' the diphthong had a more reduced sound than the au of aurum, a reduction which was similar to that seen in pretonic $a u$ followed by a syllable with u, Aruncus like Agustus (Cf. arvnceio, C.I. L. vi. 13416 ; Arunci in Virgil MSS., \&c.; Ribbeck, Ind. p. $3^{88 .)}$
§ 35. au in Romance. Had au been an open O-sound in Vulg. Lat. it would have been merged in Latin $\check{o}$, has $a e$ as been merged in $\check{e}$. But that the o of Ital. poco, Fr. chose, is a late development we see from the forms of the words, which would otherwise have been *pogo, *cose (Meyer-Lübke, Rom. Gram. i. p. 235). We may similarly infer the diphthongal character of $a u$, $u e$, at the time of the Empire, from the frequently-repeated statement of the grammarians that after a diphthong it was impossible to pronounce a double consonant, e.g. paulum (not paullum), Paulus (usually spelt Paullus, but not so pronounced), while after a long vowel double $l$ was common, e.g. stêlla, Pölla, villum (Diminutive of vimum) (see § 127).
§ 36. u for accented au. The change of $a u$ to $\bar{u}$ in the (originally) unaccented syllable is in conformity with the rule in dêfrüdo, the spelling recommended for Plautus and Terence on the strength of the MSS. by Ritschl (Parerga, i. 540) (see also Georges s.v.). But we find also sed frude in the Lex Repetundarum (123-122 в. c.) (C.I.L. i. 198, § 64 ) (but sed fraude, § 69), where there seems no reason for supposing the syllable to have been unaccented [Another instance of the confusion of $a u$ and $\bar{u}$ in this word is the spelling fraustra, often found in MSS. of Virgil (see Ribbeck, Index s.v.), which also exhibit frude for fraude in A. iv. 675, as the MSS. of Lucretius have frudem ii. 187, frudi vi. 186 (see Lachm. p. 85)]. Similarly the $u$ for unaccented au which appears regularly in the compounds of claudo, seems to have called into life a byform of the simple verb, cludo, in the first cent. A.d. (Georges, Lex. Lat. Wortf. s.v. claudo, and p. 750), which remains in the Italian chiudo. (For cludam, lame, in Plaut. Pseud. 659, read with the palimpsest claudam.)
§ 37. o and au. ofor $a u$ is a feature of the Umbrian language (e.g. ote, Lat. aut) and other dialects, and was preserved in 'rustic' Latin, and even in the Latin of the streets of Rome. Festus tells us of a millionaire who was nicknamed Orata (i.e. aurāta, goldfish), because he wore two gold ear-rings [Festus 202. 13 Th. orata, genus piscis, appellatur a colore auri quod rustici 'orum' dicebant, ut auriculas 'oriculas,' itaque Sergium quoque quendàm
praedivitem... Oratam dicunt esse appellatum, \&c. (For oricula, cf. App. Probi 198. 11 auris non 'oricla.' Oricla occurs as a cognomen on inscriptions, C.I. L. xii. 5686, no. 652.)] Cicero's rival Clodius, was the first of the gens to change the name Claudius to the plebeian form Clodius, no doubt with the view of conciliating the mob. Cicero himself in his letters often uses the more homely forms with o, e. g. loreolam (Att. v. 20. 4), pollulum (Fam. xii. 12. 2; oricula (Quint. Fr. ii. 13. 4), like oricilla, Catull. xxv. 2 (see A. L. L. vi. 84), while plodo is quoted from his 'De Gloria' by Diomede (p. 382. 26 K.), and in Plautus we seem to find assonance of aurum with ornamentum, ornatus, of auspicium with omen, of auribus with oculus (Bursian's Jahresberight, 188ı, p. 33). So too Priscian (i. 52, p. 39 H.) says : (au) transit in o productam more antiquo, ut 'lotus' pro lautus, 'plostrum' pro plaustrum, 'cotes' pro cautes: sicut etiam pro o, au, ut 'austrum' pro ostrum, 'ausculum' pro osculum, frequentissime hoc faciebant antiqui. This usage of $a u$ for $o$ [cf. Paul. Fest. 21 (apparently referring to a passage of Plautus) ausculari dicebant antiqui pro osculari] is found in Plautus, not merely in aurichalcum (Greek ó $\rho \in i^{\prime} \chi a \lambda \kappa o s$ ), where it is due to confusion with aurum, but also in auscŭl̄̄tur (Bacch. 897, \&c.). Aula or aulla as in the palimpsest) of Plautus became olla, as Paula, Paula became Pōlu. It is perhaps confined to derivatives of $\overline{o s s}$ (see Georges s.vv.oreue, ostium, osculum, osculor), which seems to have had two parallel stems in early Latin, aus and $\overline{\delta \quad s}$ - (cf. jécur and jöcur) ; so this gives no evidence on the pronunciation of Lat. of. In the Lex Metalli Vipascensis of the first cent. A. D. (Eph. Epigr. iii. p. 180 we have scauria for the Greek orapia, which the Romance languages show us to have been scöria in Vulgar Latin. Rustic or dialectal $o$ for au is found in the name M. Lornti ( $=$ M. Laurenti), on a jar in the old Esquiline cemetery (c. 200 b. c. (Ann. Inst. 1880, p. 260), while on plebeian inscriptions we have such forms as Oli (for Auli) on the tombstone of a praeco (Epl. Epigr. iv. p. 297), Olipor (C. I. L. xi. 1973), \&e. In Greek inscriptions we have ' $\Omega \lambda$ os from the time of Augustus, but always $\Pi a v \lambda \lambda o s$ (though often $\Pi \omega \lambda \lambda a$ and $\Pi \circ \lambda \lambda a$, like Lat. Pölla). (See Eckinger, p. i3.) In cauda (Lith. ki̊das) the original vowel may be $\bar{o}$, and the spelling $a u$ be due to the similarity of sound between $\bar{o}$ and $a u$. (See K. Z. xxviii. 157 for this and other doubtful instances.) [For other examples of $a u-0$, see Schuchardt, Vok. ii. p. 301 sqq., and Georges, Lex. Wortf. s.vv. caupo, auspicor (Diom. 383. ıо K. Claudius octavo Historiarum 'Flacco ospicatur'), caulis, cauliculus, caurus, raudus (also rudus'), pausea, lauretum, plaudo, claudus, claustrum, sorix (cf. Mar. Vict. 26. 7 K. sorix vel saurix, C. G. L. v. 242. 33), codex.] (See Diomedes, pp. 382-3 K., Probus Inst. ir8-9 K.) Suetonius (Vesp. viii. 22) tells us an anecdote of the homely Vespasian : Mestrium Florum consularem, admonitus ab eo plaustra potius quam plostra dicenda, postero die 'Flaurum' salutavit [cf. the glosses: plostrum dicimus magis quam 'plaustrum' (C. G. L. v. 93. 13), and : 'odit' audit (ibid. 89. 7 and t25.26).]
§ 38. a for au. (Schuchardt, Vok. ii. p. 305 sqq.) Agustus for Augustus, e. g. C. I. L. ix. 1365 (4II A. d.) (cf. Greek 'A ${ }^{\prime}$ ovãa入ıos, Mitt. Inst. xiii. p. 236 n. 5 ; Eckinger, p. 12). The Romance name of the month points to Vulg. Lat. Agustus, e.g. Ital. agosto, Span. agosto, Fr. août, and shows that the a was not merely a conventional symbol for $\partial$. Asculto was the Vulg. Lat. form of ausculto (cf. Caper ro8. 6 ausculta non 'asculta'), as we see from the Romance forms, e. g. Ital. ascoltare, Span. ascuchar; *agurium of augurium (Raet. far agur, to consider, Ital. sciagurato, from *exaguratus, unlucky,

Span．jawo）．Cladius often occurs for Claudius on inscriptions（e．g．C．I．L． ii． 4638 ，of 275 A．D．）（cf．Greek Фaбtos，C．I．A．iii．1o，of 209－210 A．D．； Bull．viii．p．247，of II A．D．，from Eumenia）．For similar spellings in Glossaries （e．g．＇agustae＇sanctae ；fastus for faustus，\＆c．），see Löwe，Prodr．p．42 I．In MSS．of Virgil，\＆c．，we find Arunci for Aurunci（Ribbeck，Ind．p．388，cf． Arunceio，C．I．L．vi．13416）；and modern Italian place－names like Metaro， Pesaro show a similar change．
§ 39．Greek transcriptions of au．In Greek inscriptions we find usually $a v$ for Latin $a u$ ；but also ao，e．g．Фaovtivl，C．I．L．ix． 6229 and 6230 ；Фaoбtives 6209 （the form חaodos does not occur till the fourth or fifth cent．A．D．）； also aov，e．g．Пaou入入ıva．C．l．G． 6665 ；Aoủ入ov（2656 b add．）（see Eckinger， p．I3）．
§ 40．ae for au．$A e$ is found now and then on inscriptions for ar，e．g． maeso（leum），C．I．L．i．Fast．min．ix of i a．d．；Paelinus，\＆c．
§ 41．e for ae．（Brambach，Orthogr．p． 205 ；Schuchardt，Vok．i．p． 224 sqq．） $E$ for ae（ai）is a feature of the Umbrian language，e．g．pre（Lat．prae），and is found on Latin inscriptions in the Umbrian territory，e．g．Cesula，C．I．L． i． 168 （Pisaurum），and elsewhere（see Sittl，Lok．Verschied．p．4）．It was a feature too of rustic Latin，as we see from Varro，L．L．vii． 96 rustici pappum ＇Mesium，＇non Maesium ；v． 97 in Latio rure＇edus＇；qui in urbe，ut in multis，a addito aedus；and from Lucilius＇ridicule of a praetor who called himself Cecilius instead of Caecilius（ix．so M．Cecilius pretor ne rusticus fiat． Cf．Diom．452．I7 K．）．The same variation of $e$ and $a e$ found its way into ordinary pronunciation in the case of country－terms，e．g．faenisicia and fenisicia， the hay－harvest．The Romance forms point to sēpes，not saepes；sēptum，not sceptum（e．g．Port．sebe，Span．seto）（Gröber，A．L．L．v．465）．From Varro＇s remark that scaena（and scceptrum？）represented the pronunciation of Greek $\sigma \kappa \eta \nu:, \sigma \kappa \hat{\eta} \pi \tau \rho o \nu$ at his time，we should infer that this ae had a sound approaching to long open $e$ ，for Greek $\eta$ probably still had at this period the open sound（Varro，L．L．vii． 96 obscaenum dictum ab scaena ；eam ut Graeci Accius scribit＇scena．＇In pluribus verbis a ante e alii ponunt，alii non，ut quod partim dicunt＇scaeptrum，＇partim＇sceptrum，＇alii Plauti＇Faenera－ tricem，＇alii＇Feneratricem＇；sic＇faenisicia＇ac＇fenisicia＇）．This spelling of the title of a play of Plautus，Feneratrix，for Faenërätrix，the Usuress，agrees with another remark of Varro that fenus，not faenus，was the pronunciation of Old Latin，used by Cato and others（Non． 54 M．；Varro lib．iii de sermone Latino：＇faenus autem dictum a fetu，et quasi fetura quadam pecuniae．＇ Nam et Catonem et ceteros antiquiores sine a littera＇fenus＇pronuntiasse contendit，ut fetus et fecunditas）．How thoroughly ae（through cee ？）became identified with the long sound of open $e$ at a later time，we see from the remark of a fifth century grammarian，that ĕquus，when the first syllable， through being accented，was unduly lengthened in pronunciation，became aequus（Pompeius 285.6 K ．plerumque male pronuntiamus，et facimus vitium ut brevis syllaba longo tractu sonet ．．．si（quis）velit dicere＇aequus＇pro eo quod est equus）．（Cf．prehendo，with shortening of prae before a vowel，as děamo of dé，and Marius Victorinus＇use of aeus to express the disyllabic pronunciation of Gk．－$\epsilon \boldsymbol{s}(67 \mathrm{~K} . \because)$ Another grammarian of the same century gives a caution against the confusion of vae and $v e$（Agroecius 1r4．2I K．，of quaeritur and quëritur（id．ı16． 18 K．）；while he speaks of the first syllable of
praemium, prètium, prěcor, as if they were distinguished in writing only, not in pronunciation (id. II5 K. praemium cum diphthongo scribendum ; pretium, precor sine diphthongo. Veteres enim majoris rei sermones cum diphthongo, et quadam dignitate scribi voluerunt). Even in the fourth cent. Servius, in a note on Virgil, Aen. i. 344 :-
huic conjux Sychaeus erat, ditissimus agri Phoenicum, et magno miserae dilectus amore,
thinks it necessary to point out that miserae is the Adjective, not the Adverb miserē. The 'Orthographies' of Bede and Alcuin the latter served as a text-book for Carlovingian scribes of MSS.) abound in similar distinctions (e.g. quaeritur and queritur, Alcuin 308. 16 K.; Bede 287. 8 K.; quaestus and questus, Alcuin 308. 17 K.; saevit and serit, Alcuin 310. 5 K.; Bede 289. 30 K.; caelo and celo, Alcuin 299.6 K. ; Bede 268.27 K.), some of which may have been taken from earlier grammarians [ct. Charisius (fourth cent.', p. 98 K . on the spelling erumna for aerumna; Marius Victorinus (fourth cent.), p. 25 K . on the spelling cesaries for caesaries]. Philargyrius, the Virgil Scholiast, on Ecl. iii. 39, defends the ae of haedera (for hĕdĕra) by connecting the word with haereo (cf. Paul. Fest. 7I. 26 Th. hedera dicta, quod haereat, sive quod edita petat, vel quia id, cui adhaeserit, edit.). With all this it is no wonder that it is often difficult to decide whether the proper spelling of a word is with ae or $e$. [For the rival claims of $e$ and ae in some words, see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s.vv. meles, nenia, gleba, maena, muraena, paelex, feles, cetra, ne (the Interjection), gaesum.]

On Greek inscriptions we find $\epsilon$ for Latin ae from the middle of the second cent. A.d., e. g. Kєкı入ıos, but never $\eta$. (Eckinger, p. 78.) Instances of Latin $u e$ for Greek $\eta$ in inscriptions and MSS. are given by Schuchardt, Vok. i. p. 227 sqq., a very frequent case being that Genitive ending of female names in -aes (Greek - $\eta \mathrm{s}$ ) from the last century of the Republic, e. g. Laudicaes (C.I.L.i. 1212 , which is discussed in ch. vi. § 18.
§ 42. ai for ae. The old spelling $a i$ is found on Imperial inscriptions, especially in the reign of the grammarian-emperor Claudius (e. g. C.I. L. vi. 353 , of 5 I A. D., Caisare) ; but we have the express testimony of Terentius Scaurus (second cent.) (16. 7 K . sed magis in illis e novissima sonat), not to speak of Quintilian (first cent.) (i. 7. 18 cujus secundam nunc e litteram ponimus), that the second element, as pronounced, was $e$, not $i$. The change of the earlier $a i$ to the classical form of the diphthong, $a e$, took place in the second cent. в. с. (e.g. aedem, beside aiquom, tabelai, datai, \&c., on the S. C. Bacch. of 186 в. с., C. I.L. i. 196). The spelling aei, found once or twice towards the end of the second cent. в.c., e.g. conquaeisivei, Caeicilius, Caeician [us], may mark the transition (see ch. iv. § 29). In ain for aisne, aibat (disyll.) the diphthong must have had the sound of O. Lat. ai.
§ 43. Greek $\epsilon$. Before a consonant Greek $\epsilon \iota$ is always $\bar{\imath}$ in Latin, e. g. Atrides. Before a vowel it is $\bar{e}$ till the first cent. a. d., then $\bar{\imath}$. Thus Alexandrēa, Darēus, \&c., are the earlier spellings ; Alexandrīa, Darius the later. (See Brambach, Hülfsbüchlein, p. 4.) The - $\bar{e}-$, $-\bar{\imath}$ - was often shortened (cf. § 143). e. g. balnĕum (Gk. $\beta a \lambda a \nu \epsilon i ̂ o \nu) ~(c f . ~ P r i s c . ~ i . ~ p . ~ 71 ~ H . ~ a n d ~ p . ~ 73 ~ H . ~ o n ~ A l p h e ̄ u s, ~$ Hectorĕus, \&c.). The Greek diphthong which probably passed into the $\bar{\imath}$-sound about roo B. c. is a common expression of Latin $\bar{i}$, e.g. 'A $\nu \tau \omega \nu \in i v o s$, but of


Eckinger, p. 42). Latin $e i$ in words like Pompeius is in Greek $\eta \iota$; but from the first century a. d. we find also $\epsilon$, e. g. Пovatios (Eckinger, p. 8I).
§44. oe and e. Alcuin and Bede give almost as many rules for the distinction of $o e$ and $e$, as for the distinction of ae and $e[\mathrm{e} . \mathrm{g}$. cepit and coepit, coepta and incepta, Alcuin vii. 299. 18 K. ; Bede vii. 269.14 K. ; fedus (quod est deformis) and foedus, Alcuin vii. зor-302. 2 K. ; Bede vii. 273. 4 K. ; cf. Orthogr. Bern. 293. 9 K. ; pene, penes, and poena, Alcuin vii. зo6. 35 K. ; Bede vii. 286. r K.], some of which may come from earlier grammarians. [For variations in spelling between oe, e, ae see Schuchardt, Vok. ii. p. 288 sqq., and consult Georges and Brambach s. vv. cena, caenum, faeteo (cf. Span. hiede), amoenus, fenus, maereo, paene, proelium, caelebs, caelum, caecus, oboedio, foedus, fecundus, obscenus, pomoerium, femina, fetus, \&c.] Greek $\varphi$ is in classical Latin $\bar{o}$, e. g. melodia, but earlier oe, e.g. comoeds (cf. Thraex and Thrax, Blass, p. 43).
§45. oe in Romance. ${ }^{*} p e \bar{n}$ s for poena is indicated by the Romance forms (e. g. Ital. pena, Span. pena, Fr. peine), and probably ${ }^{\text {fédus }}$ for foedus, foul (e. g. Span. hedo, feo). Cēna (e. g. Ital. cena, Span. cena) is thought to have been the correct spelling (cf. Osc. kersna-), though the spelling with oe (due to confusion with Greek koıvos, as coelum, for caelum, confused with roî̀os) is very old (coen- on a Praenestine cista. Mél. Arch. 1890, p. 303).
§46. Greek $\epsilon v$. Marius Victorinus vi. 66-67 K. consimili ratione quaeritur, Orpheus in metro, ut
non me carminibus vincat nee Thracius Orpheus,
utrum trisyllabum an disyllabum sit, an idem nomen duplici enuntiatione promatur, aut sine a littera, ut Peleus Pentheus, aut cum a, ut ita declinetur Orphaeus, ut Aristaeus. visum est tamen hoc posse discerni, ut illa sine a littera graeca sit enuntiatio, haec latina, quae per diphthongon effertur. The proper spelling is euhoe, Euhius, euhan, not evoe, Evius, evan (see Brambach, Hülfsbüchlein s. vv.). For a corruption of Greek $\epsilon v$ in vulgar pronunciation, see App. Probi 199. 6 hermeneumata non 'erminomata.' On an old mirror of Praeneste we have Taseos (Tasei, Gen.) for ©ā $\sigma \epsilon \epsilon^{\prime}$ (Eph. Epigr. i. 23).
§ 47. ui of cui. Quint. i. 7. 27 illud nunc melius, quod 'cui' tribus quas posui litteris enotamus, in quo pueris nobis ad pinguem sane sonum qu et oi utebantur, tantum ut ab illo 'qui' distingueretur. Ter. Scaur. 28. г K. с autem in dativo ponimus, ut sit differentia cui et qui, id est dativi [et vocativi] singularis et nominativi et vocativi pluralis. Annaeus Cornutus ap. Cassiod. r49. 8 K. ' qui'syllaba per q u i scribitur ; si dividitur, ut sit cui et huic, per c.
§ 48. J, V. That Latin $j$ and $v$ had some sound like our $y, w$, and not like our $j, v$, there can be no doubt whatever. We see this from the close relation that exists between $i$ and $j, u$ and $v$ in different forms of the same word in Latin, e. g. jam and nunciain ( 3 syll.), tenuis and tenvia (3 syll.), as well as from the express testimony of grammarians. The signs $j$ and $v$, which suggest to us a difference between the sound of these letters and
of the corresponding vowels, are, as we saw (ch. i. § 7), of quite a late date. In the Roman period jus and ros were written with $i$ and $u$, ius, uos, exactly like pius and tuos (ch. i. § 1). The only question is whether $j$ and $v$ were actual consonants $(y, w)$ or halfvowels ( $i, u$ ). Our $y$, for example, in ' you' is a spirant consonant, but is often in pronunciation weakened into a half-vowel (Sweet, Handb. p. 37). The distinction is so slight a one that it seems impossible to determine the exact pronunciation of $j$ and $v$ in a dead language like Latin; and probably the pronunciation varied at different times; but we certainly have one or two clear testimonies to the consonantal character of these sounds. Thus a fifth (?) century grammarian remarks on the difficulty experienced by the Greeks of his day (as by the Greeks of our own time) in pronouncing this $y$-sound in such a word as $j u s$. They make the word, he says, almost a disyllable (Consentius v. 394 K.). And the same writer in another passage mentions a corresponding mispronunciation of the $w$-sound in veni (v. 395.15 K . u quoque litteram aliqui pinguius ecferunt, ut, cum dicunt 'veni,' putes trisyllabum incipere). And much earlier, in the first cent. A. d., we have a distinction drawn between $v$ of valente, primitivo, \&c., and the $u$ of quis. The former is said to sound 'cum aliqua aspiratione' (Velius Longus vii. 58. 17 K.), much as Varro, the contemporary of Cicero, says that $v$ - had a strong thick sound (crassum et quasi validum) in vafer, velum, vinum, vomis, vuluus, \&c. (L. L. iii. fr. p. 148 Wilm.). That this consonantal character of $j$ and $v$ intensified and developed itself as the centuries went on, we see from the Romance languages, e.g. Italian, where Latin $v$ has become our $v$-, Latin $j$ our $j$-sound (e. g. vostro, Lat. voster, giurare, Lat. $j \bar{u} \mid \bar{u} r e$ ) ; and it is possible that the further back we go in the history of the Latin language the less consonantal was the sound of $j$ and $v^{1}$. But there is no evidence of this, unless we count as such the scansion ăbicio in Plautus and Terence, where the $j$ appears to be so entirely sunk in the following $i(e)$, as not to make the first syllable long by position,

[^15]indicate that the $v$ of sve- was more consonantal than ordinary $r$.
whereas in äbicio of the classical poets the first syllable is so lengthened (A. L. L. iv. 560) (but see ch. iii. § 25). This merging of $j$ in a following $i$ has been compared with the merging of the $u$ of $q u$, which Velius Longus tells us was more vocalic than the $v$ of valente, \&c., in a following $u$, e.g. cum (earlier quom) for quum, locuntur (earlier loquontur) for loquuntur (cf. § 93). A similar unconsonantal character for $v$ in early Latin has been inferred from the reduction of $\bar{i} v i$ to $\bar{i}$ in such Plautine forms as obliscor for oblīviscor, dinus for divinuls; but in the absence of express testimony, such as we have for the consonantal character of $j$ and $v$ at a later time, it is impossible to decide positively so minute a point. An untrained ear can hardly distinguish between the spirants $y, w$, and the half-vowels $i, u$, nor yet between the various nuances of the $w$-sound, such as our $w l$, e. g. ' which,' the unvoiced $w$, differing from the voiced $w$ of ' witch' as $p$ from $b$, $t$ from $d, c$ from $g$, or such as in French 'oui,' the consonant of the vowel of French 'sou,' while our $w$ is the consonant of the vowel of English ' full,' ' put' (Sweet, Handbk. p. 42). So much we can say, that the pronunciation of $j$ and $v$ certainly became more and more removed from the half-vowels in the centuries of the Empire ; and it is natural to infer a movement in the same direction in the Republican period. But when exactly $j$ and $v$ ceased to be half-vowels and became consonants, or how far their character varied according to their position in the word it is impossible to determine with precision.

The same tendency to syncopate a short unaccented syllable that produced calda out of călŭda affected the vowels $i, u$ when they preceded other vowels. The word lārua is a trisyllable in Plautus; it has become a dissyllable in classical Latin, just as lärüdum of Plautus became lārdum. The only forms known to Plautus are mīluos, rĕlucuos, grātū̀̄s, which in classical Latin are milvos, reliquos (by the middle of the first cent. a.d. relicus), gratīs. In the first cent. A.d. tĕnuis wavered between a dissyllable and a trisyllable (Caesellius ap. Cassiod. vii. 205 K.).

This reduction of the vowel $i$ after $t, c$ led, as we shall see ( $\S \S 90,94$ ), to the assibilation of these consonants. Titius became *Tityus and then something like *Titsus (cf. our 'orchard' for 'ort-yard '), as we learn from the remark of a fifth cent.
grammarian, quoted below : si dicas 'Titius' (i) pinguius sonat et perdit sonum suum et accipit sibilum.

As to the pronunciation of words like Maia, Pompeius, ejus, where the diphthong is followed by a vowel, we have very clear information from the grammarians that the $i$-sound was shared both by the first and the second syllable, Mai-ia or Mai-ya, not Ma-ia, Ma-ya. To express this sound Cicero proposed to write Maiia, Aïax with two $i$ 's (Velius Longus vii. 54. 16 K. ; Quint. i. 4. 11) ; and on inscriptions we find spellings like maIIorem (C. I. L. ii. 1964, col. iii. 10) (see ch. i. § 7), where the long form of I may express the consonantal or half-vocalic sound $j$, as in conIvax (C.I. L. vii. 8, \&c.) (ch. i. § 1). Whether it was this already existing practice of writing long I for $j$, which made Claudius abstain from proposing a new letter for $j$, when he introduced the inverted F -sign for $v$, or whether he followed the Greek alphabet which had a sign for $w$ (the digamma), but none for $y$, we cannot say. Possibly the reason is to be found in the more rapid development of the $w$-sound (Latin $v$ ) than of the $y$-sound (Latin $j$ ).
$V$ and $l$ (which had by this time become between vowels the bilabial spirant) were, as early as the third cent. a. D., hardly distinguishable, as is seen from the frequent warnings given by the grammarians against confusion of labat and lavat (Probi Appendix 199. 22 K.), libilo and livito (ib. 201. 4 K.), \&c., \&c. Indeed one grammatical treatise (of the fifth century) is devoted to this very subject: Adamantii sive Martyrii de $B$ rocali et $V$ rocali. It was summarized by Cassiodorus for the book on Orthography which he compiled for the use of Benedictine copyists of MSS. (Keil, Grammatici Lativi, vol. vii).

At some time before the fifth cent. A.D., when precisely we cannot say, initial $v$, and possibly $v$ in other positions too, seems to have passed from the bilabial spirant (Spanish $b$ ) to the labio-dental spirant (our $r$ ). After $l, r$ it assumed in time the sound of the voiced mute $b$.

[^16](i. 7. 26) he tells us that seruos was the spelling of his teachers, seruus that of his own time, but that neither spelling quite expressed the sound, so that the emperor Claudius had good reason to introduce a new letter like the Aeolic digamma (cf. xii. ro. 29). The usual expression of the grammarians for $j$ and $v$ is '( $\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{u}$ ) transeunt in consonantium potestatem' (e.g. Mar. Victorin. vi. 5. 18 K. ; Donat. iv. ${ }^{667}$. 12 K. ; Charisius i. 8. I : cf. Diom. i. 422. 14 K. ; Ter. Maur. vi. 34 I. 536 K.). Later they talk of the 'pinguis sonus' as opposed to the 'exilis' or 'tenuis' (vocalic), the first to use this term being Servius (fourth cent.) (iv. 422.1 K.), e. g. Pompeius (fifth cent.) (v. ıоз K. 'vanus' quando dico pinguior sonus est. numquid dicis ua nus? ergo vides quia, si ponantur solae, tenuem senum habent, si jungantur ad alias litteras, pingues sonant. similiter et i sic patitur. 'itur,' ecce tenuius sonat; si dicas - Titius,' pinguius sonat et perdit sonum suum et accipit sibilum). Finally Priscian (sixth cent.) speaks of the 'diversus sonus' of $j$ and $v$ from $i$ and $u$, and questions the soundness of Censorinus' (third cent.) contrary opinion (i. p. i3 H. non sunt in eisdem, meo judicio, elementis accipiendae : quamvis et Censorino, doctissimo artis grammaticae, idem placuit) (cf. Nigidius ap. Gell. xix. 14. 6). In another passage Priscian talks of $r$ and $b$ as quite similar in sound (i. 18. го H.), where he says that caelebs should be written *caelevs, the word being derived from caelum and vita, and meaning literally caelestium ritam ducens (!), were it not that $v$ is never allowed to stand before a consonant. He goes on to say that $b$ had this sound in very early Latin, because Quintilian quotes Belena for Hëľ̆́na ( $F \in \lambda \in ́ v a$ ) (ef. Serv. in Don. 422.2 K., and C.I.L. i. r50I) from early literature. This remark is interesting as showing how early MS. corruptions showed themselves. When we turn to the passage in Quintilian (i. 4. 15, we find that he is discussing the use of $b$ for Greek $\pi$ and $\phi$ in early Latin. His examples are Burrus (for חvppós), Bruges (for $\Phi \rho \dot{\gamma} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \epsilon$ ) and balaena (for фá̀ $\lambda a \iota v a$ ). The whole passage is taken from Verrius Flaccus, who used these same examples. In our MSS. of Quintilian there is the corruption Belena for balaena, a corruption which must have also existed in the MS. used by Priscian, and which led him to make this mistake (Fleck. Jahrb. 1889, p. 394). We notice that Consentius (fifth cent. ?) happens to use pinguis in precisely the opposite sense when he speaks of that mispronunciation of teni which made the word almost like a trisyllable (v. 395. 15 K .), unless indeed he is referring to the bilabial (w) as opposed to the labiodental spirant sound ( $v$ ) (see below). Other barbarisms which he mentions as 'in usu cotidie loquentium' are so-lu-it for disyllabic solvit, uam for uram, induruit (a trisyllable) (r. 392.35 K . .
§50. $\mathbf{j}$ and v in early Latin. Priscian (i. p. 17. 3 K.) is certainly wrong in explaining the sine invidia of Terence (Andr. 66) by the vocalic character of $v$ (see ch. iii. § 34) ; Accius' augŭra (Trag. 624 R.) : pró certo arbitrábor sortis, óracla, aditus, aúgura, may be a byform, and not a case of suppression of $i(y)$; progenie mi genui on a hexameter line of a Scipio epitaph of c. гзо в.с. (C. I.L. i. $3^{8}$ ) is perhaps a graver's error for progeniem genui; the use of $-i$, not $-i i$, in the Gen. Sing. of IO-stems in the older writers has nothing to do with the sound of $j$ (see ch. vi. § 20), nor have the Plautine forms ain (always), aibat (occasional) (see ch. viii. § 35) ; peiěro, where the $r$ of the preposition has been dropped, owing to the consonantal nature of the $i$, seems to be a later spelling than periero (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.) ; and the true account of puleium fleabane (also pulegium, see Georges) is a matter of doubt (see ch. iv. § itб).

Between $\bar{\imath}$ and another $i, v$ disappears at a very early time，e．g．obliscor，dinus in Plautus（see Rhein．Mus．xxxv．627）；and Plautus＇trisyllabic avonculus（aunculus or aonculus）seems to be a suppression of pretonic $v$ like the later Noembris for Novembris（see below）．The vocalic nature of $v$ in cave（pronounced with $\check{e}$ ，ch．iii．§44）is seen from Cicero＇s story（Dic．ii．84）of the confusion of Cauneas （sc．ficus vendo）with cave ne eas，as well as from the spelling causis for cave sis in Juvenal ix．120；of $v$ in ave（pronounced with－ĕ，Quint．i．6．21）from Phaedrus＇fable（ $A P$ p．21）of the man who mistook the caw of a crow for this word（famila for familia on an inser．of Ameria in Umbria，C．I．L．xi． 4488 ，may be a dialectal variety，like the Oscan famelo＇familia＇of Bantia， Zv ． I．I．I．23r）．Our $w$ is similarly suppressed in＇ Ha （w）arden，＇＇Main（w）aring，＇\＆c．
§ 51．in late Latin and Romance．With Latin $j$（our $y$ ）were merged in Vulgar Latin $g$ before $e, i$ ，and $d$ before $i$ followed by a vowel（see below），for these three Latin sounds are indistinguishable in the Romance languages． Spellings therefore on late inscriptions like Diuliali（Rossi iri8，of 568 A．d．， Madias（Rossi 172），Giove（I．R．N．695），Gianuaria（Fabr．x．632，Interamna， of 503 A．D．）do not indicate that $j$ had passed from the $y$－sound（see A．L．L． i．220），but that－diu－，－dia－，gio－，gia－were pronounced like－yu，－ya，yo－，\＆c． The occasional spelling with Lat．$z$ ，Greek $\zeta$ ，e．g．Zanuario（C．I．L．x．2466）， jov $\epsilon \epsilon$（I．I．S．826．22，Naples），$\kappa o$ §ovs（Lat．co（n）jıx，C．I．L．x．719，Surrentum） is probably nothing but an attempt to indicate the spirant sound of $j$（our $y$ ） as opposed to the vocalic sound of $i$ ；for Lat．$z$ ，Greek $\zeta$ had at this time the soft or voiced $s$－sound of our verb＇to use，＇and not our $j$－sound，nor the sound of $-d z$－in＇adze＇（see § $\mathbf{1 2 0}$ ．（For other examples see Schuchardt，Vok．i． pp． 66 sqq．）This Vulgar Latin $y$－sound of triple origin is $y$ in Spanish（in most situations＇，in Sardinian，and（by Greek influence？）in South Italian， but in ordinary Italian（except when pretonic，e．g．rione from Lat．regiōnem， ajuta，pronounced ayuta，from Lat．adjūtat）it has become the sound of our $j$ ； while in French（in most situations）it has assumed the sound which we write $s$ in＇pleasure，＇$z$ in＇azure．＇Thus Latin jugum is Span．yugo，Ital． giogo，Fr．joug ；Lat．majus is Span．mayo，Sicilian mayu，Ital．maggio；Vulg． Lat．Jenuarius is Sicil．yennaru，Ital．gennajo，Fr．janvier．In loanwords in Welsh Latin $j$ has the $y$－sound，e．g．Ionawr（Lat．Jänuärius），dydd Iau（Lat． dies Jovis）．In Greek inscriptions，besides the usual ı，e．g．＇Iov入ıos，Поутєוos， we have sometimes $\eta$ and $\epsilon$ ，e．g．＇Hov入ıos，Eiov入ıos，「atios and 「ajos（see Eckinger，p．8o）．

The barred $d$ of the Pelignian dialect（Petiedu，uidadu，Uibdu，afded in the same inscription，Zvetaieff，Inscr．Ital．Inf．13）expresses some sound into which consonantal $i(y)$ and $d i$ in hiatus had developed（Latin Pettiedia，＊viam－do，Vibidia， abiit）（Rhein．Mus．xliii．348；Class．Rev．vii．104），and seems to be a dialectal anticipation of the coincidence of $d i$ in hiatus and $j$ in Vulgar and late Latin． After a short accented vowel $y$ suffered some similar change in Teutonic， witness Goth．iddja I went，from the root EI to go．
§ 52．v confused with b in late Latin and Romance．From the beginning of the second century A．D．we begin to find $b$ and $v$ interchanged on inscrip－ tions（see Schuchardt，Vok．i．13I and iii． 67 ；Brambach，Orth．p．238），and by the third century the confusion is complete．The $b$－symbol is，as is natural， used for the $v$－sound more frequently than the vowel symbol（capital V ，uncial U，see i．7）for $b$ ．Latin $b$ had probably by this time become，when between
vowels, a spirant (see §78), so that the tendency is to restrict $V, U$ to the vowel- ( $u$ ), B to the spirant-sounds ( $b, v$ ). (For examples of the interchange see the Indices to the Corpus.) In Greek inscriptions ov is the earliest spelling for Lat. $v$, and continues to be the usual spelling throughout the Imperial
 ové $\rho a v o s$, \&c. But we find $\beta$ occasionally even in the first cent. A. d., the earliest examples being $\Phi \lambda \alpha \beta \iota o s, \Lambda \epsilon i \beta l o s ~(t h e ~ u s u a l ~ s p e l l i n g), ~ \Sigma i \lambda \beta a v o s, ~ B a \lambda \epsilon \rho \iota o s$. This use of $\beta$ may have been stimulated by the preference of a single to a double symbol. $\Lambda \epsilon \iota \beta \iota o s$ is more pleasing to the eye than $\Lambda \epsilon i o v i o s ;$ and in this way we may explain why Latin ov is more often oß than oov. (It is often ov, e.g. Novios) (see Eckinger, pp. 82 sqq.) Little light however is thrown on the pronunciation of Latin $v$ by this Greek use of $\beta$; for in the first place, the pronunciation of $\beta$ itself in the Imperial age is uncertain (Blass supposes it to have become a spirant, as in modern Greek, in the second cent. a.d. Aussprache d. Griech. ${ }^{2}$ p. 91), and in the second, the use of $\beta$ followed in all probability the use of $b$ in the Latin spelling. (Thus on the Edict of Diocletian culva is spelt bulba in the Latin inscription, $\beta o v \lambda \beta \eta$ in the Greek.) We sometimes find ov and $\beta$ on the same inscription, e.g. $N \in \rho o v a$ and $N \epsilon \rho \beta \alpha$ (second cent.), Фגaoviavos and Фגaßıavos on an inscr. of Cyrene, 1i7-125 A.d. (see Eckinger). The remarks however of the Grammarians point, as we have seen, to $v$ having retained its connexion with the vowel $u$ till a later time in correct pronunciation; and the same thing is indicated by the loss of intervocalic $v$ in paimentum, \&c., for păvimentum (see below). At what time the bilabial spirant $v$ (our $w$ ) became the labiodental spirant $v$ (our $v$ ) is not easy to say. It would be rash to conclude from spellings like convivium, convivio (where the $m$ of com is changed to $n$ ) on the Lex Municipalis of Julius Caesar (C.I.L. i. 206), and still more from invitei, inviteis (where the $n$ of in is retained) on the Sententia Minuciorum of 117 в.c. (i. 199), that the change had taken place in the Republican period; for as early as 189 в.с. we have inpeirator. (Wilm. 2837), and in the Sen. Cons. de Bacchanalibus of 186 b.c. conpromesise i. 196), clear instances of $n$ before an undoubted bilabial. The facts certainly point to com-, im- being the oldest spellings before $v$ - (and $f$-, see § 64), e.g. comvovise (and coventionid) i. 196; comvalem, comfluont (but also conflouont) i. 199 ; and the im uita of the Palimpsest of Plautus (Merc. 471), comuiuas (Men. 224), may rest upon old tradition ; but the substitution of $-n$ for $-m$ of a preposition before a consonant in a compound is no certain evidence for the nature of the consonant (see § 65). More weight may be attached to Cicero's deliberate preference of the spelling com before $v$, mentioned by Marius Victorinus (fourth cent. A.d.) (18. 14 K.) : item consonantes inter se, sed proprie sunt cognatae, quae simili figuratione oris dicuntur, ut est b, f, m, p, quibus Cicero adicit $u$, non eam quae accipitur pro vocali, sed eam quae consonantis obtinet vicem, et anteposita vocali fit, ut aliae quoque consonantes. quotiens igitur praepositionem sequetur vox cujus prima syllaba incipit a supradictis litteris, id est $\mathrm{b}, \mathrm{f}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{p}$, v , quae vox conjuncta praepositioni significationem ejus confundat, vos quoque praepositionis litteram mutate, ut est 'combibit,' ' comburit,' 'comfert,' ' comfundit,' ' commemorat,' 'comminuit,' 'comparat,' 'compellit,' 'comvalescit,' ' comvocat,' non 'conbibit,' ' conburit,' et similia. sic etiam praepositio juncta vocibus quae incipiunt a supradictis litteris n commutat in m, ut 'imbibit,' 'imbuit,' 'imfert,' 'imficit,' 'immemor,' ' immitis,' 'impius,' 'impotens.' The ordinary rule that com-, im- are used before $p, b$,
$m$ is quoted by Priscian (i. p. зr. 2 H.) from Pliny, Papirian, and Probus (cf. Papir. ap. Cassiod. 162. 6 K. ; Prob. 150. 6 K.) with no mention either of $f$ (which Mar. Vict. must have taken from some older grammarian), or of $v$. It is true that Cicero's spelling, comuocat, \&c., might equally well be taken as a proof of the more vocalic nature of $v$ in his time; for before a vowel com is often the form in use, e. g. cŏmědo, cŏmĭtor, \&c. [Caesellius Vindex (end of first cent. A.d.) (ap. Cassiod. 206. 17 K.) recommends com- before a vowel, conbefore a consonant or $v$ : tunc pro m littera n litterae sonum decentius efferemus]. But the Latin and Teutonic loanwords give a similar indication of a change in the pronunciation of $v$ (at any rate of initial $v$ ), during the period of the Western Empire. The early Latin loanwords in Teutonic languages show invariably $w$ for Latin $v$-, e.g. Goth. wīns, our 'wine,' 'wall,' '-wick' (Latin rīnum, vallum, vïcus). But Teutonic loanwords in Italian \&c., which date from the Gothic occupation in the fifth cent. A. D., show gu- for Gothic $w$ (e.g. guarire from Gothic warjan ; guisa, our '-wise'), an indication that the initial $w$ - sound had passed out of use in Latin. An examination of the Romance languages does indeed suggest that the change from the bilabial to the labiodental spirant was not completed in the Vulgar Latin of all the provinces; but on the other hand the close connexion of the $w$ - and the $r$-sounds, and the frequent passage of a language from either sound to the other, weaken the force of the evidence. In Vulgar Latin intervocalic $b$ had been merged in $v$. This $v$, of double origin, has the labiodental sound in Italian and French ; but is bilabial in Spain, and (possibly through Greek influence) in South Italy. Spanish and South Italian also merge initial $b$ and $v$. Thus, while initial and intervocalic $b$ of Latin bibo receive a different treatment in Italian bevere, they have the same spirant sound in Spanish beber, Sicilian viviri, Calabrian vivere. The identification of Latin $v$ and intervocalic $b$ in all the Romance languages, and therefore in Vulgar Latin, shows that it was in this position, in the middle of a word between vowels, that $b$ first became a spirant sound (see below). Confusions of spelling between $b$ and $v$ are usually of this sort, e.g. Dānürius, the spelling of the classical period, later Danubius (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s.v., and for other examples, s.vv. abellana, gabata, viduvium, Suebi, sebum, Vesuvius, sevir). That the development also of $v$ differed according to its position in a word is a natural inference, and is confirmed by the evidence. Initial accented $v$ would, owing to the stress with which a consonant was pronounced in this position, develop its consonantal character more rapidly than intervocalic $v$, especially than pretonic intervocalic $v$ (see below). A good instance of a confusion of spelling due to this is the word věnëficus, which so often assumed the form beneficus, that it produced in late Latin a new word for a sorcerer, maleficus (A.L.L. i. 79) (cf. Probi App. 200. 9 K . inter beneficum et veneficum hoc interest, quod beneficum bene facientem significat, veneficum autem veneni datorem esse demonstrat). Vătillum is the correct spelling, not bătillum (Nettleship, Contributions to Lat. Lexic. s.v.).
After $r$ and $l$ the same thing seems to have happened; cf. late Lat. albeus (Agrim. 82. 24), arba (75. 19), Vulg. Lat. corbus, curbus (Fr. corbeau, courbe, \&c.). Pliny's example of preconsonantal' 1 is the word silva ( $\S 99$ ) ; and the classical spelling of the Perfect of ferveo, where $r v$ is followed by $u$ is ferbui not fervui (feruui) (cf. Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. vv. vulva, ervum, gilvus; Probi App. 198. 7 alveus non 'albeus.' Albeus occurs often on inscrr., e.g. C.I.L. x. 1.
1695. 1696, 4752, 6350, Eph. Epigr. iii. 48). The only (?) early example of $r b, l b$ becoming $r v, l v$ is acervissimam ( $I . N$. 1951, of 155 A. D.), a misspelling due to confusion of two similar words acerbus and acercus, and not to be taken as evidence of a change of the sound $r b$ to the sound $r$. But $r b, l b$ for $r v, l v$ is common on inscrr., e.g. coserba, Helbius, salbus, serbat, serbus, balbis (see index to C.I.L. xiv). Assimilation also often played a part in the development of $v$ and $b$; e.g. rervex is in Vulg. Lat. *berbix (Fr. brebis, Ital. berbice) ; vervactum is *barbactum (Span. barbecho, Sard. barvatu, Port. barbeito), and the only change of $r b$ to $r$ that is common to all the Romance languages, viz. morvus for morbus, seems to show the influence of the initial $m$ (Span. muermo, Port. mormo, Prov. vorma, Fr. morve, Sicil. morvu. See A.L. L. iv. 121). Primilegium for privilēgium (Caper, rif. 2 K.) is due to confusion with primus. We have $f$ for $v$ in the spellings iudicafid (C.I.L. vi. 6592), Mafortio (le Blant, I.G. 612 A, of 527 A.D. from Narbonne).
§ 53. Intervocalic $\mathbf{v}$ dropped. Between vowels $v$ seems to have retained a vocalic character much longer. It was dropped before $u$ of the Nom. Sing., thus dirus (older deiv-) became *deius, deus, Gincevus became Gnaeus, \&c. (ch. iv. § 70), but was usually restored from the other cases, e. g. rivus from rivo, \&c., but Vulg. Lat. had rius, \&c. (Ital. rio, Prov. rius, O.Fr. riu) ; between similar vowels it is very prone to disappear, e. g. $\bar{\imath} \bar{\imath}$, sīs, for sī vīs, oblīscor, dīnus (Plaut.), just as in Mod. Tuscan between e-e, bee for beve ; late spellings like noicius, for novicius, Noe( $m$ ) bris for Novembris, \&c., are very frequent, especially when $v$ stands before the accent. (For examples see Schuchardt, Vok. ii. pp. 47 I sqq., e. g. Flaus C.I.L. i. 277 , viii. 9422 , ao E.E. v. 777 ; cf. the remarks of grammarians like Probus, Inst. 113.17 K. hoc ovum et non hoc 'oum' ; Probi App. 198 5. K. flavus non 'flaus'; ib. 199. 2 K . rivus non 'rius' ; ib. 198. 8 K. favilla non 'failla'; ib. 199. 2 K . pavor non 'paor'; ib. 197. 28 avus non 'aus'; similarly on Greek inscriptions No $\epsilon \beta \beta$ pos is the usual form (as early as 73 в. c. in S. C. of Oropus) ; cf. 'Октаїos (time of Augustus) ; 'Aïavos (C.I.I. 4750) ; इє $\boldsymbol{i} \rho o s, \& c$. (Eckinger, p. 92) (see also Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. vv. longao, boa, boo, Ribbeck, Index, p. 448 for spellings in Virgil MSS. like fluius, exuiae, iuenis, beside which we find fluventa, bovum, fluridus, fluritantem, ingruvit, tenuvia).
§ 54. Postconsonantalv dropped. Vulg. Lat.v (in classical Latin the vowel $u$ ) is also dropped after consonants not only before $u$ (for examples see Schuchardt, Vok. ii. pp. 464 sqq.), e. g. mortus for mortuus, cardus for carduus (cf. cardelis Petron 46. 4) (Ital. morto, cardo ; Span. muerto, cardo ; Fr. mort, chardon from $*_{\text {cardo, }}$-onis), just as -quu- became -cu- in the beginning of the first cent. A. D. e. g. ecus, locuntur, locutus (see § 93), but also when pretonic in words like Jün(u)ärius, Febr(u)ārius, batt'u)ére, cons(u)ère, contin(u)ari (see Georges and Brambach s. vv. and for contin'u)ari, A.L. L. viii. 129, 136. Examples of this spelling in Inscriptions and M.SS. have been collected by Schuchardt, Vok. ii. pp. 467 sqq. Compare the Romance forms, e. g. Ital. gennajo, febbrajo, battére, cucire, \&c.) (see ch. iii. § 15). In the App. Probi we have : 199. 12 Februarius non 'Febrarius'; 197.23 vacua non 'vaqua,' vacui non 'vaqui' (cf. Febrarius in various Latin inscriptions, such as C.I.L. ix. 3 r60; xiv. 58. 2795). Pituitta must have had in ordinary speech the trisyllabic pronunciation which Horace gives it (Epp. i. r. ro8 nisi cum pituita molesta est), and not the quadrisyllabic of Catullus (xxiii. 17 mucusque et mala pituita nasi). For Aelius Stilo's derivation of the word was 'quia petit vitam' (ap. Quint. i. 6.
37), and the Vulgar Latin form was *pipīta or *pippitta (Ital. pipita, Span. pepita, Fr. pépie ; cf. Mid. Engl. pippe, Swiss pfiffis). On the other hand suävis seems to have been a trisyllable in Vulg. Lat. (as in Sedulius, e.g. i. 274, and later poets), e. g. Ital. soave, O.Fr. so-éf, Prov. soáu. Servius (ad Aen. i. 357) tells us that many persons in his day considered suãdet to be a trisyllable.
§ 55. ai, ei before a vowel. Velius Longus says that Cicero wrote Maïa, \&c., because he thought these words should be written as they were pronounced (auditu emensus scriptionem) ; so coincit might be written coiiicit to express the sound of the first syllable coi and the second and third syllables icicit (Vel. Long. vii. 54.16 K .) : in plerisque Cicero videtur auditu emensus scriptionem, qui et 'Aiacem' et 'Maiiam' per duo i scribenda existimavit : quidam unum esse animadvertunt, siquidem potest et per unum i enuntiari, ut scriptum est. unde illud quod pressius et plenius sonet per duo i scribi oportere existimat, sic et 'Troiiam,' et siqua talia sunt. inde crescit ista geminatio, et incipit per tria i scribi ' coiiicit,' ut prima syllaba sit coi, sequentes duae iicit. . . at qui Troiam et Maiam per unum i seribunt, negant onerandam pluribus litteris scriptionem, cum sonus ipse sufficiat. hanc enim naturam esse quarundam litterarum, ut morentur et enuntiatione sonum detineant, quod accidit et in eo quod dicimus 'hoc est' [pronounced 'hoccest' p. 54. 12], cum ipsa vastitas litterae in enuntiatione pinguescat. atque ipsa natura i litterae est ut interjectal vocalibus latinis enuntietur, dum et prior illam adserit et sequens sibi vindicat. So Priscian (x. I. 494) says that aio was spelt aiio in former times, and is still pronounced 'ayyo' (iloco consonantis habet duplicis). Our ordinary pronunciation Trō-ja, $\bar{e}-j u s$ is wrong. The first vowel of the diphthong retained its natural quantity, éjero, Gäius, but ĕjus, čio, mŭjor (see Arch. Glott. Ital. x), as we see from Romance forms like Ital. peggio (with open e) for Latin pĕjor, and from the remark of Terentianus Maurus (p. 343 K., that in Troja, Maia, pejor, jejunium the vowel preceding $j$ is short in each of these words, though the syllable is long. Similarly ejullo, to utter the cry $e i$ (Plaut. Aul. 796 ei mihi !. . Cur eiulas ?) must have been pronounced ei-inulo. In unaccented syllables $j, \underset{\sim}{i}$ seem to have been dropped after a short vowel in Latin, e.g. the Adj. suffix -eus for *eeyos (Riv. Filolog. 1891 p. 18) (ch. v.). $_{\text {. }}$ Spellings like aiio are sometimes found in MSS. of classical authors, e. g. aio in the archetype of Hor. Epp. i. 15. 45 was written aiio, whence the corruption alio in several MSS (Class. Rer. v. 296) ; eiuus in the Ambrosian Palimpsest of Plautus, Most. 98 I \&c. ; piiaculum (in the Vetus Codex pilaculum) Truc. 223.
§ 56. H. Latin $h$, the representative of Indo-European GH (e.g. hostis, our 'guest') must in prehistoric times have had some sound like German $c h$ in 'ach,' Scotch $c h$ in 'loch,' but by the literary period had been reduced to the mere spiritus fortis, our $h$. We have no reason to doubt that the sound was dropped in Vulgar Latin as early as the middle of the third cent. в. c., for we have not a trace of initial or medial $h$ in any of the Romance languages, not even the oldest ; and one of the earliest tasks of grammarians at Rome was to draw up rules for the correct use of
initial $l$, their usual practice being to appeal to the Sabine diaiect where I.-Eur. $g h l$ - had become $f$ (e.g. fostis), as $g h$ in our ' enough' (ch. iv. § 121). The Greek aspirated consonants $\theta, \chi, \phi(\mathrm{t}-\mathrm{h}, \mathrm{k}-\mathrm{h}$, p -h, as in ' ant-leap,' 'ink-horn,' ' up-hill') were expressed by the simple tenues $t, c, p$ in the Latin of the Republic, until at the time of Cicero it was felt necessary to express them more accurately by $t h, c h, p h(c h . \operatorname{i.} \S$ II) ; and this pronunciation was carefully followed in polite circles. The struggle to attain the new shibboleth of fashion led to ludicrous misapplications of the $h$-sound by the uneducated classes, which have been satirized by Catullus in his famous epigram on Arrius (84):

> 'Chommoda' dicebat siquando commoda vellet dicere et insidias Arrius 'hinsidias';
and the dropping of $h$ seems to have been even in the time of St . Augustine an unpardonable breach of manners. (On $r / h, r r h$ for Greek $\dot{\rho}$-, - $\rho \dot{\rho}$ - see ch. i. § it.)

Between vowels the omission of $h$ was sanctioned by current usage in a number of words such as nèmo (for *ne-hemo), dèbeo (dehibeo), praebeo (praehibeo), praeda (for *prae-heda, *praehida). By the first cent. prento and nill had established themselves in pronunciation, also deprendo, through repreliensus was heard as well as reprensus.

In the Umbrian language the length of a vowel was often indicated by writing it before and after an $l$, e. g. comohota (Lat. commōta) ; and it has been suggested that this usage may have been adopted in Latin in a few words like vehemens, just as the Oscan habit of doubling a vowel to express its length (e. g. trístaamentud, Latin testämento abl.) was adopted by Accius (ch. i. § 9). Vehemens, according to this theory, is derived from ve and mens, like résanus from vé and sanus (Etym. Lat. p. II3). We have nahartis (C.I.L. xi. 4213 , time of Augustus), as well as $\operatorname{mart}($ is) (ib. $420 \mathrm{I}, 240$ a.d.), \&c., in Latin inscriptions from the Umbrian territory, and Cicero (Orat. xlv. 153) speaks of the name $\bar{A} l a$ (Ahala) as representing Axilla (but cf. Diom. p. 424, Dositheus, p. $3^{82}$ K.). We find $k$ put to the same use in modern German, through analogy of words like stahel 'steel' (with $/ /$ for I.-Eur. $k$; cf. O. Pruss. stakla) which became stāl.
§ 57. Testimony of grammarians: Quint. i. 5. 19 quamquam per adspirationem, sive adicitur vitiose sive detrahitur, apud nos potest quaeri, an in scripto sit vitium, si h littera est, non nota. cujus quidem ratio mutata cum temporibus est saepius. parcissime ea veteres usi etiam in vocalibus, cum ' aedos ircosque' dicebant. diu deinde servatum, ne consonantibus adspirarent, ut in 'Graccis'et 'triumpis.' erupit brevi tempore nimius usus, ut 'choronae chenturiones praechones' adhuc quibusdam inscriptionibus maneant, qua de re Catulli nobile epigramma est. inde durat ad nos usque 'vehementer' et ' comprehendere' et 'mihi' : nam 'mehe' quoque pro ' me' [leg. mi ?] apud antiquos tragoediarum praecipue scriptores in veteribus libris invenimus. Similarly Gellius ii. 3. r-4: h litteram sive illam spiritum magis quam litteram dici oportet, inserebant eam veteres nostri plerisque vocibus verborum firmandis roborandisque, ut sonus earum esset viridior vegetiorque ; atque id videntur fecisse studio et exemplo linguae Atticae. satis notum est, Atticos $i \chi \theta u ́ v$ et $i ́$ pronomen et multa itidem alia, contra morem gentium Graeciae ceterarum, inspirantis primae litterae dixisse. sic 'lachrumas,' sic 'sepulchrum,' sic 'ahenum,' sic 'vehemens,' sic 'incohare,' sic 'helluari,' sic 'halucinari,' sic 'honera,' sic 'honustum' dixerunt. In his enim verbis omnibus litterae seu spiritus istius nulla ratio visa est, nisi ut firmitas et vigor vocis, quasi quibusdam nervis additis, intenderetur. Then he goes on to tell of a bookhunting friend of his who had bought for twenty gold 'sigillarii' a MS. of the second Aeneid, 'mirandae vetustatis,' which was reputed to have belonged to Virgil himself. In v. 469 telis et luce coruscus aena, the last word had been corrected to ahena, just as aheni, not aeni, was the reading of the 'optimi libri' in Georg. i. 296. This account of $h$ as (like the Greek spiritus asper), a mere 'nota adspirationis,' not properly called a 'littera' is a commonplace of the grammarians, e. g. Mar. Victor. vi. 5 . 27 K. ; ib. vi. 3 ; Charisius i. 265 . 20 K. ; Priscian i. 47 , \&c. The only contradiction is the absurd remark of Pompeius (v. II7. 14 K.), that in Virgil's line (Aen. ix. 6ro) terga fatigamus hasta, the $h$ causes length by position, a remark often repeated by the later writers on metre and followed in practice by the Christian poets.

Terentianus Maurus in his description of the sound of $h$ discusses its claims to stand in the alphabet (vi. 33r. 213) (Cf. Quint. i. 4. 9) :

> nulli dubium est faucibus emicet quod ipsis h littera, sive est nota, quae spiret anhelum. quin hanc etiam grammatici volunt vacare, quia non adicit litterulis novum sonorem, sed graecula quaedam scholicae nitela vocis vocalibus apte sedet ante posta cunctis, 'hastas' 'hederas' cum loquor 'Hister' 'hospes' 'hujus.'

Marius Victorinus says (vi. 34. 7 K.) profundo spiritu, anhelis faucibus, exploso ore fundetur ; and Martianus Capella (iii. 26I) H contractis [conrasis Eyss.] paululum faucibus ventus exhalat. Cf. Priscian i. 24 ; Alcuin vii. 303. 18 K .

Rules for the use and omission of initial $h$ are very frequent in the grammarians. Nigidius (first cent. B. c.) emphasized the importance of correctness in the use of this letter: rusticus fit sermo si adspires perperam, a dictum quoted by Gellius (xiii. 6. 3), who explains that by 'rusticism' Nigidius meant what grammarians of a later date called barbarismus. Velius Longus
quotes Varro's argument for the pronunciation hărēna, viz. that the Sábine form of the word is fasena. Similarly haedus is supported by faedus, hircus by fircus (Vel. Long. vii. 69. 4-io K.). Quite a number of dialectal forms have been preserved for us through the grammarians' practice of using dialectal $f$ as a criterion for Latin $h$, e. g. fordeum (with fasena, firci, faedi) (Vel. Long. vii. 81 K.) : the doubtful fariolus (Ter. Scaur. ir K.) (with faedus, fordeum, and p. 13 fircus) : Faliscan haba (id. 13 K.) : fibra ( $=$ herba) (Nigidius ap. 'Serv.' ad Georg. i. 120) : forda bos, a cow in calf, Fordicidia (Paul. Fest. 59 ; 73 Th. folus, fostis, fostia (id. 59 : horctus, good (id. 73) : hanulum, a shrine (id. 73): fuma (=humus), Haunii (=Faunii) (glosses ap. Löwe, Prodr. 426); and a large number of etymologies were made on the strength of this relation between $f$ and $h$, such as Formiae 'velut Hormiae' from Greek öppos (Paul Fest. 59) : horreum from far (id. 73) : firmus from Greek " $\epsilon \rho \mu a(i d .64$ ). So Servius (ad Aen. vii. 695) : Faliscos Halesus condidit. hi autem, inmutato h in f, Falisci dicti sunt, sicut febris dicitur quae ante 'hebris' dicebatur, Formiae quae 'Hormiae' fuerunt, ùnò $\tau \hat{\eta} s \dot{\delta} \rho \mu \hat{\eta} s:$ nam posteritas in multis nominibus $\mathbf{f}$ pro h posuit. These dialectal words are often loosely called 'old Latin': haba, for example, which Terentius Scaurus expressly declares to have been a Faliscan word (13 K.), is referred by Velius Longus ( 69 K .) to the 'antiqui'; and Quintilian (i. 4. 13), amongst other genuine instances of old Latin, such as Valesii, Fusii, mertare, says: quin 'fordeum' 'faedosque' [dicebant], pro adspiratione f ut simili littera utentes. There is however no reason to believe that in Latin itself these forms were used, though they may have been heard in the country districts about Rome, where dialectal influence often strongly asserted itself. At other times grammarians defend the use or omission of $h$ by more or less ingenious etymologies, e. g. Servius in Don. iv. 444. 28, 29 K . dicta est enim [harena] quod harida sit terra; Charisius i. 103. 21, 22 K . harena dicitur quod haereat, et arena quod areat; gratius tamen cum adspiratione sonat. Velius Longus (vii. 68. 18, 19 K.) defends ălĭca : cum ab alendo possit alica dici, et aliculam existiment dictam, quod alas nobis injecta contineat, and ortus: quod ibi herbae oriantur. Charisius says of this word allica that Verrius Flaccus approved of the form without $h$, whereas a line of Lucilius ran : nemo est halicarius posterior te (i. 96.9 K.). Caper's dictum is : alica non halica (vii. 107. 12 K.). Another doubtful case was the salutation ăve. Quintilian (i. 6. 21) tells us that though the proper form was $\mathfrak{a r e}$ e, the verb being avēre and not havére, yet no one, except a precisian, thought of saying anything else than havĕ: multum enim litteratus, qui sine adspiratione et producta secunda syllaba salutarit ('avere' est enim), . . . recta est haec via : quis negat? sed adjacet alia et mollior et magis trita, \&c. (For examples of uncertainty in the use of $h$-, see Georges and Brambach, s. vv. Hiberus, harena, haurio, exaurio, harundo, haruspex, hebenus, hedera, helluor, Henna, heia, eiulo, Hilotae, Aedui, alica, allec, halucinor, Hadria, Halaesa, Halicarnassus, Hamilcar, Hammon, Hannibal, Hanno, elleborum, ercisco, erctum, erus, Hadrumetum, haedus, hamus, hariolus, hibiscum, hinnuleus, hircus, hostia, holus, holitor, onustus, umeo, umerus, ulcus, Hister, Hirpini, onero, Merda, Illyria.) Cf. Probi App. 199. $\mathrm{r}_{7}$ K. adhuc non 'aduc' (aduc in C.I. L. v. 6244).

The right employment of $h$ is a leading subject in Alcuin's handbook of Orthography (vii. 300. 27 K. ; 303. 11, 13 and 19; 306. 2) ; and St. Augustine (Confess. i. 18) playfully remarks that the dropping of an $h$ was generally regarded as a more heinous sin than an offence against the law of

Christian charity : si contra disciplinam grammaticam sine adspiratione primae syllabae 'ominem' dixerit, displiceat magis hominibus, quam si contra tua praecepta hominem oderit, quum sit 'homo.'
§ 58. h between vowels. Quintilian (ix. 4. 59) says that deprendere, not deprehendere, was the form in use in his time. Gellius (second cent.) (ii. 3) speaks of ahenum (cf. uheneam, Comm. Lud. Saec. A 6o, \&c.), rehemens, incohare (along with lachrumae, sepulchrum, helluari, halucinari, honera and honustus) as oldfashioned forms now obsolete. A fourth century grammarian, called Probus, says that tracho retains the $h$ in spelling merely to indicate that the $a$ and $o$ are pronounced separately, the word being spoken 'trao' (iv. 185.5 K.). On the other hand in the second century Terentius Scaurus while declaring that prendo, never prehendo, was the form in use, says that rĕho 'sine dubio aspiratur,' and speaks of vemens and rehemens, reprensus, and reprehensus as optional (vii. 19. 14 K .) [cf. Velius Longus (second cent.), vii. 68. 15 K., who gives remens and reprendo as the usage of the 'elegantiores,' prendo as universal, and Annaeus Cornutus (first cent., the friend of Persius, who mentions prendo, remens, nil as the pronunciation of his day (ap. Cassiodor. vii. ${ }^{153.7}$ K.) (see also Alcuin vii. $3^{11}$. 26, 27 K. ; Papirian vii. 159. 18-21 K.; Eutyches vii. 200. 8 K.; Caper vii 98. 12 K.)]. (For examples of confusion in spelling, see Georges and Brambach s. vv. cohors, incoho, aeneus, Ahenobarbus, Dahae, Phrautes, coerceo, ethan, prooemium, periodus. For Greek compounds with aspirate initial of second member following a consonant, see exedra, exodus, synodus, Panhormus, \&c. On the interjections aha, ehem cf. Richter in Studemund's Studien, i. ii.)
§59. h in Old Latin. H was dropped earliest between vowels (e.g. nēmo); and the disuse of initial $h$ would no doubt begin with words which were preceded in the sentence by a word ending in a vorvel. Teutonic loanwords with $h$ - in Romance lost their $h$ rapidly in Italian, Spanish, and Portuguese, but retained it for some time in French, which in the Middle Ages abounded in consonantal terminations. This was doubtless the principle of elision of a final vowel before initial $h$ in Latin poetry, whether the vowel was actually final, or was followed by the vague nasal 'after-sound,' $m$ (see $\S \S$ 153 $^{2}, 6 \mathrm{r}$ ). There is no reason to suppose that initial $h$ was in Early Roman poetry more resistive of elision, than in the classical period. The Plautine flagitiüm hominis formed really a single word (ch. iii. § r2), and the hiatus is to be compared to hiatus in compounds like circưit from circum it. The weak nature of early $h$ is seen in compounds like cohonesto (co-before a vowel as in coeo, coorior, \&c.) which in Accius, Trag. 445 R. appears as cōnesto (see § 149). Nihil is always a monosyllable in Plautus apparently. But the dropping of initial $h$ on the older inscriptions is hardly known. (See Sittl. Lok. Verschied. p. 39.)
§ 60. Greek aspirates in Latin. The Greek aspirates lost their aspiration in loanwords used by the early writers, e.g. Plautus, as we gather from the MSS. (see the statistics given in Fleck. Jahrb. 1891, p. 658 n .), from puns like those on Chrysalus (Crusalus) and crucisalus, on Charinus (Carinus) and careo:Pseud. '736, non Charinus mihi quidemst sed copia, on Thales and talentum Capt. 274, and from the statements of later grammarians (cf. the pun on excalciaverat 'cum adspiratione secundae syllabae' (robbed of one's money, xa入kós), and excalceaverat, i. e. taken off one's boots, calcei) in Porphyr. ad Hor. S. i. 8. 39).

Quintilian for example (i. 5. 20) says: diu deinde servatum ne consonantibus [veteres] adspirarent, ut in 'Graccis' et in 'triumpis.' There are not wanting in Plautus indications that the vulgar Greek pronunciation of $\chi$ as $k-k h$ (see Blass, p. 86) influenced some loanwords in popular use so as to lengthen (by position) the previous vowel. Acc' $h$ )eruns, $A c c(h) i l(l) e s$, like bracc( $h$ )ium seem to be required by the metre (Baier, Philologische Abhandlungen zu Hertz. 1888'. Similarly the word tricae, whose origin has been traced to S. Italy, where the word was applied to hair-shackles put on the legs of fowls to prevent their straying, seems to be nothing but the Greek rpíXes in a Latinized form (trïcae and *triccae, like brächium and bracchium, \&e.). The proverb ' $\quad$ рйnae trīcaeque,' used of trifles (Mart. xiv. 1. 7) :-
sunt apinae tricaeque et siquid vilius istis,
 unseen realms,' was in popular story the name of an imaginary country of bliss, like Aristophanes' 'Cloud-cuckoo-land' (Ribbeck, Leipziger Studien, 1887). The Vulg. Latin muttus, a word, from which Fr. mot is derived (mütus, Non. $9.16 \mathrm{M} . ?$ ) seems to be similarly Greek $\mu \hat{v} \theta$ os (muttus for mütus), as trīcae for *triccae; also strüppus a rope is Gk. $\sigma \tau \rho o ́ \phi o s$ (Festus, 452 . 21 Th., says that at Tusculum the word had the sense of a wreath, and that a Faliscan 'Garlandfestival' was called Struppearia; the Romance forms point to ströppus, a form found in this passage of Festus). Gk. $\phi$ was in early Latin transcription p, e.g. Pilipus on a denarius of the time of the Gracchi (C.I.L. i. 354),
 balaena for фá入入aıva (Quint. I. 4. 15, from Verrius Flaccus) (see § 49). $F$ was not regularly used till the middle of the fourth cent. A.d. (see ch. i. § ir). Blass, Griech. Aussprache ${ }^{2}$, p. 85, dates the change of Greek $\phi$ from the $p-h$ to the $f$-sound at about 400 A.D. ; and the language of Diomede (fourth cent.) seems to imply that the difference between Lat. $f$ and $\mathrm{Gk} . \phi$ was in his time very slight ( 423.28 K . 'et hoc scire debemus quod f littera tum scribitur, cum latina dictio scribitur, ut 'felix,' nam si peregrina fuerit, $p$ et $h$ scribimus, ut 'Phoebus,' ' Phaeton'). The difference between the two sounds in Cicero's time is seen from Quintilian's story of Cicero ridiculing a Greek witness who could not pronounce the first letter of Fundanius (Quint. i. 4. 14). $\Phi$ is however, as is natural, the Greek transcription of Latin $f$ (Eckinger, p. 97); e.g. Фovסavos is the Greek transcription of this very name on an inscription of 8i b.c. (Bull. ix. p. 457, from Lagina in Caria). The old spelling persisted in a few words like $t \bar{u} s$ (Gk. $\theta$ vos), \&c. (see ch. i. § Ir). A curious interchange of $s$ and $t h$ is occasionally seen in the Notae Tironianae, e. g. agatho for agāso, Apollopisius for Pythius (Schmitz, Beitr. rog'. With the introduction however of Greek grammatical studies at Rome a more exact transcription came into fashion (see ch. i. § II), and it is to this tendency that we must refer the aspiration of some consonants even in Latin words about this time, not merely in words which were supposed to be borrowed from Greek, e.g. pulcher (ch. i. § II) (referred to $\pi 0 \lambda$ v́ $\chi \rho o u s$, Ter. Scaur. vii. 20. 4-8), and š̌pulchrum (sē and pulcher! Charis. i. 7317 ; cf. C.I.L. i. 1007 heic est sepulcrum hau pulcrum pulcrai feminae), lachry̆ma (to Gk. סáкpū $\mu a$ ), \&c., but to others which could hardly be so misunderstood, e.g. praecho, lurcho. In the Orator xlviii. 160, Cicero tells us that he was forced in spite of his convictions to yield so far to popular usage as to pronounce pulcher, Cethëgus, triumphus, Karthägo, though he
still adhered to Orcivius, Măto, Ǒto, Caepio, sĕpulcrum, cŏrōna, lacrĭma : quin ego ipse. cum scirem ita majores locutos esse, ut nusquam nisi in vocali aspiratione uterentur, loquebar sic, ut 'pulcros,' 'Cetegos,' 'triumpos,' 'Kartaginem' dicerem. aliquando idque sero convicio aurium cum extorta mihi veritas esset, usum loquendi populo concessi, scientiam mihi reservavi. 'Orcivios' tamen et ' Matones,' 'Otones,' 'Caepiones,' 'sepulcra,' 'coronas,' ' lacrimas,' dicimus, quia per aurium judicium licet. Similarly Quintilian, in a passage already mentioned (1.5.20), says : diu deinde servatum, ne consonantibus [veteres] adspirarent, ut in 'Graccis' et in 'triumpis.' erupit brevi tempore nimius usus, ut 'choronae,' 'chenturiones,' 'praechones,' adhuc quibusdam in inscriptionibus maneant. qua de re Catulli nobile epigramma est. In the second cent. A.D. pulcher was the current pronunciation (Ter. Scaur. vii. 20. 4-8 K.; Vel. Long. vii. 69. 13-17 K.), also Carthägo, Gracchus, ŏtho, Bocchus ; unaspirated were cill, coclea, cocleäre (Vel. Long. l.c.). In the fourth cent. Orcus, Vulcänus, cŏrōna, ancŏra, sĕpulcrum (Mar. Victorinus vi. 21. 20 K. ; Serv. ad Georg. iii. 223, but for ancora cf. Serv. ad Aen. vi. 4;, but Gracchus (Charis. i. 82. ı I K.), pulcher (Serv. l. c.) were the forms in use. Pulcher held its ground most persistently in spite of the rule, first apparently stated by Varro (Charis. i. 73.17 K. ), and often repeated by the Grammarians Ter. Scaur. vii. 20. 4-8; Probus Cath. iv. ıo. 19 K. ; Ter. Maur. vi. 332. 219-221 K. ; Mar. Vict. vi. 34. 5-6 K. ; cf. Vel. Long. vii. $69.13-17 \mathrm{~K}$.) that no consonant should be aspirated in a native Latin word. On the other hand thūs (Gk. tros), chōrōna (from Gk . Xofós, Etym. Lat. p. 23), with lurcho, sc̆pulchrum, Orchus, \&c., were only adopted by imitators of the Ciceronian age (Probus Cath. iv. ro. 19 K., Serv. ad Aen. vi. 4 ; Mar. Victor. vi. 2 r. 20 K. ; cf. Ter. Scaur. vii. 14 K.). Of cŭrōna Festus ( 26 Th.), quoting probably from Verrius Flaccus (time of Augustus), says : corona cum videatur a choro dici, caret tamen aspiratione. For examples of these varieties of spelling on inscriptions, see Brandis, De consonantium aspiratione apud Romanos (in Curtius, Studien, ii. 1869). Consentius (v. 392. 19, 27) censures the mispronunciations Tracia, Trachia, Chartago. For $\phi \theta$ we have $p$ th in pthoibus in the Comm. Lud. Saec. The use of $r h$ for Gk. initial $\dot{\rho}$ - was not approved by Varro (L.L. iii. fr. 58, p. 182 Wilm.) (see ch i. § ir). [For examples of this confusion of spelling, see Georges and Brambach, s.vv. ancora, arca, tropaeum, baccar, Cethegus, Gracchus, murra, Orcus, Otho, pulcher, Regium, rhombus, talasio, letum, simulacrum, charta, Bosporus (Bosphorus not till third or fourth cent. A.D.), chlamys, chorda, clatri, cochlea, concha, cothurnus, cyathus, lurco, lumpa, schema, schola, sepulcrum, raeda, Raetia, Ramnes, Rhodope, Rhodus, rhūs, Riphaeus, romphaea, theatrum, Viriathus, triumphus, racana, ciniphes ( $\kappa \nu i ̂ \pi \epsilon s$ ), triclinium (Abl. Plur. trichilinis, C.I.L. ix. 4971 ; xiv. 375, 17). On the spellings Calphurnius and Calfurnius, see Schuch. Vok. i. p. 18, and for the confusion of $p h, p, f$, see ibid. on the spelling phidelis, and Georges on phaseolus, sifo, sulfur Late Latin culfus'see A.L. L. vii. 443) is the precursor of the Romance forms of Gk. $\kappa$ ód $\pi o s$ (Ital. Span. golfo, \&c.). In the Probi App. we have (199. 7 K.) strofa non 'stropa'; (199. 17) amfora non 'ampora'; (197. 19) porphyreticum marmor, non 'purpureticum marmur,' and perhaps (199.8) zizifus [zizibus MS.] non 'zizupus.'
The Romance forms show that Vulgar Latin retained the old equivalence of the Latin tenues to the Greek aspirates ; e. g. Gk. кó ${ }^{\prime} a \phi o s$ is Ital. colpo, O.Fr.
 [Cf. the cautions given in Prob. Appendix against stropa, ampora (see above).]

So that misspellings like $c h$ for $c$, th for $t, p h$ for $p$ on plebeian inscriptions cannot have implied a different pronunciation. The aspirated forms were to the uneducated Romans mere equivalents of the tenues. Ch, the equivalent of $c$, was in Italian utilized to distinguish the guttural from the palatalized sound, e.g. chi (Lat. qui), chiave (Lat. clāris) (see Schuch. Vok. i. p. 74). Similarly $h$ is written, but not pronounced, in Italian to distinguish a few synonyms like ho (Lat. hăbeo), and o (Lat. aut), \&c.
$\S 61 . \mathbf{M}, \mathbf{N}$. The pronunciation of the nasals varied according to their position. At the beginning of a word or a syllable $m$ and $n$ had their normal sound. What this was for $m$ there can be little doubt. M, the lip-nasal, has in all Romance languages at the beginning of a word the same sound, that namely of our $m$. The N -sounds on the other hand vary considerably. There is 'dental $n$,' as Sweet calls it, the point-nasal, with many varieties according as the tongue touches the teeth (the true 'dental' $n$ as in French, Italian, \&c.), or the gums a little behind the teeth, as in English, and so on. There is 'palatal' $n$, Sweet's front-nasal, as in Fr. Boulogne, vigne, Italian ogni, Spanish señor, cañon (something like our 'vineyard'). There is 'velar' or 'guttural' $n$, Sweet's back-nasal, of English 'sing,' German singen. And $n$ (like $m$ ), may be unvoiced, as in Icelandic kníf, hnut, a sound common in England 200 years ago in words beginning with kn like 'know,' ' knife,' which have now lost all trace of the initial $k$. Voiceless $m$ is heard in the interjection 'hm!' Normal Latin $n$ was not the true 'dental' (as Italian $n$ is) according to the Latin phoneticians. The tongue touched not the teeth but the palate; what precise part of the palate, we are not told (Nigidius ap. Gell. xix. 14. 7). Before a guttural, $n$ was 'velar' or 'guttural' $n$, like Greek $\gamma$ in ${ }_{a} \gamma \gamma \epsilon \lambda o s, \dot{a} \gamma \kappa a ́ \lambda \eta$, a sound called the Agma by Greek phoneticians and by their Latin imitators (Nigidius l. c.; Priscian i. 39; Mart. Vict. vi. 19. II K.), to express which Accius proposed to follow the Greeks and write $g$, e.g. aggŭlus, aggens, agguīla, iggĕrunt. At the end of a syllable, before a consonant, Latin $m, n$ had again a parallel in Greek, and accordingly have received attention at the hands of the Latin grammarians. The sound is described as 'something that is neither $m$ nor $n$,' as in Greek $\sigma \alpha ́ \mu \beta v \xi$ (Mar. Vict. vi. 16. 4 K.), a description that would apply to the sound of $n$ in our own 'unpractical,' 'unmerciful' in
careless utterance, as well as to the preposition in Ital. impero, intacco. There was however one sound of Latin $m$ which had no parallel in Greek ; and here the Latin grammarians do not give us so much information as we could wish. The curious usage of Latin poetry, by which a word ending with $-m$ elides its final syllable before an initial vowel or $l$, just as though it ended with a vowel, has nothing like it in Greek. Quintilian (ix. 4. 40) tells us that final $m$ before an initial vowel was hardly pronounced, and had a sound not represented in the alphabet: neque enim eximitur, sed obscuratur, et tantum in hoc aliqua inter duas vocales velut nota est, ne ipsae coeant. Cato, he adds, wrote 'dicae' 'faciae' for đīcam, füciam (cf. Quint. i. 7. 23; Paul. Fest. 20.6 and 5I. 10), although this spelling was often changed by ignorant persons: quae in veteribus libris reperta mutare imperiti solent, et dum librariorum insectari volunt inscientiam, suam confitentur. And according to Velius Longus (80. 20 K.), Verrius Flaccus, in the time of Augustus, proposed a new letter, the first half of the ordinary letter $M$, to express final $m$ before an initial vowel : ut appareret exprimi non debere. Priscian (i. p. 29. I5 H.) says: m obscurum in extremitate dictionum sonat, ut 'templum'; apertum in principio, ut ' magnus'; mediocre in mediis, ut 'umbra.' What the exact sound of $-m$ was, is not easy to determine. From Latin poetry we see that a word ending in $-m$, e. g. finem, is, when the next word begins with a vowel, treated like a word ending in a vowel, e.g.fine. In both cases the final syllable suffers what is called 'elision,' fin(em) onerat and fin(e) onerat (see § 153 ). Final $-m$ therefore lacks the weight of an ordinary consonant, the power to prevent two vowels from coalescing, and in this respect is on a par with initial $h$-. Before e.g. honorat the final syllable of fine, finem suffers 'elision' in exactly the same way as before onerat. But are we to say that in finem the em became a nasal vowel, an $e$ spoken 'through the nose,' or in stricter terms, spoken with the passage into the nose not covered by the uvula? In this case em would have a sound like that of our exclamation 'eh!', spoken with something of asal twang; and to give this sound to the Latin interjection hem (expressing surprise, sorrow, indignation, \&c., e. g. Ter. Audr. 435 : quid Davos narrat? . . .
nilne hem? Nil prorsus), would not be unnatural. Or should we say that $e$ had its ordinary sound, and that this sound was followed by some reduced form of $m$, probably some adumbration of unvoiced or whispered $m$, at any rate something of as slight a consonantal character as $h$ ? A very probable account is that $-m$ was reduced through the lips not being closed to pronounce it. If instead of closing the lips, all that were done were to drop the uvula, a nasal sound would be given to the following initial vowel, so that finem onerat would be pronounced finewonerat with a nasalized $o$ (Gröber, Commentationes Woelflinianae, pp. 17 I sqq.). When the next word began with a consonant, final $m$ seems to have had more weight in ordinary Latin, if not in Vulgar Latin, for it never fails to make its vowel long by ' position' in poetry of all periods, whereas final $s$ in the earlier poetry usually does so fail. Plautus, for example, could not end an iambic line with nullum fert, though he does with nullus fert (which we often write $n u l l u u^{\prime}$. fert). But that it had not the definite $n$-character of initial $m$, that $m$ of viam continet did not sound like $m$ of mira continet we see from the remark of a first century grammarian, that in the phrase etian nunc, although $m$ was written, something else (like etiannunc), was pronounced (Vel. Longus vii. 78. 19 K. cum dico 'etiam nunc,' quamvis per m scribam, nescioquomodo tamen exprimere non possum). How far this differed from that sound of the nasal before a consonant in the middle of the word, which is described as 'something that is neither $m$ nor $n$,' it is difficult to say. Compounds with prepositions at any rate, like co(n)necto, comprimit, contĭnet seem quite on a level with etian nunc (or etiamnunc?). In both these cases Latin $m$ is treated like Greek $\nu$ in $\sigma v \gamma \kappa \alpha \lambda \epsilon \epsilon \omega, \sigma v \nu \tau \epsilon i v \omega, \sigma v \mu \beta \dot{d} \lambda \lambda \omega$, and the spellings found
 which has led in the Rhodian dialect of the present day to a complete assimilation of the nasal to the consonant, e.g. tix $\chi$ ári ( $\tau \grave{v} \nu$ xápıv) (G. Meyer, Grviechische Grammatik, ${ }^{2} \S$ 274). As close a parallel is offered by Sanserit final $m$ which is described as 'a nasal of a servile character always to be assimilated to a following consonant of whatever nature that may be' (Whitney, Sanscrit Grammar, §71). This Sanscrit $-m$ before initial $y, v$ becomes 'a nasal semivowel, the counterpart of each respectively.' If
the same happened in Latin, if coniunctus, coniux were pronounced coiiunctus, coiiux, with the first $i$ nasalized, and conuentio were *couuentio with the first $u$ nasalized, it would explain why it is that, in spelling, the nasal is often omitted, coventionid (C.I. L. i. 196), coiugi (id. 1064) (cf. Sweet Primer, p. 104).

Final $n$ had not this weak sound. Priscian tells us (1. p. 30) n quoque plenior in primis sonat et in ultimis partibus syllabarum, ut 'nomen,' 'stamen': exilior in mediis ut 'amnis,' 'damnum.' In the Umbrian language however it seems to have been on the same footing as Latin final $m$, for it is sometimes omitted, e. g. nome (Lat. nomen), and sometimes written $m$, e. g. numem. Both in Umbrian and Oscan final $m$ shows the same character as in Latin, e. g. Umbr. ku and kum (Lat. cum), Osc. vía and víam (Lat. viam), con preivatud (Lat. cum privato) and cum atrud ; and in both languages a nasal is often omitted before a consonant in the middle of a word, e.g. Umbr. iveka and ivenga (Lat. juvenca), uzo- and onso- (Lat. humero-) ; Osc. aragetud (Lat. argento) and praesentill (Lat. praesenti): Umbr. apentu and ampentu (Lat. impendito) ; Osc. Aanovıs (Lat. Lamроnius). This omission occurs on Latin inscriptions too, e.g. decebris (C.I.L. i. 930), mereti (iii. $27 \circ 2$, \&c.), but was a tendency not allowed to develop, as we see from the fact that in Romance $n$ and $m$ are always retained, e.g. Ital. Dicembre, Span. Diciembre, Fr. Décembre. The Plautine scansion of nempe in such a line as Cas. 599 :-

> quin tú suspendis té? Nempe tu te díxeras,
has often been quoted as an instance of such a suppression of the nasal (nĕpe) in ordinary speech. But the true scansion is nemp $(e)$ with the same syncope of final -ĕ as in tun and tane, ac (for *atc) and atque, nee and neque. A nasal is only dropped before certain consonants in Latin according to fixed laws and never without doubling the consonant or lengthening the vowel (Skutsch, Forschungen, i. § 2). Before $s$, for example, this was the case; so mensa was pronounced $m \bar{e} s$, with the ordinary close sound of the long vowel, to judge from the Romance forms, e.g. Ital. mesa (with close $e$ ) ; in consules the $n$, though written, was not sounded (Quint. i. 7. 28, 29). Whether this $e$, o were at any
period of the language nasal vowels we are not told. In O.Engl. n was dropped before th (of 'thin,' \&c.), s, f with nasalization and lengthening of the preceding vowel, e. g. mūp, ' mouth' (Germ. Mund), gōs, ' goose ' (Germ. Gans), fīf, 'five' (Germ. fünf).

Another internal group that calls for notice is $m n$. In most Romance languages this has become nn, e.g. Ital. danno (Lat. damnum), donna (Lat. domna and domina), colonna (Lat. columna), but in French the $n$ has yielded to the $m$, e.g. dame (Lat. damnum and $\left.d \frac{0}{m} m(i) n a\right)$ (colonne is a bookword). That in the Latin pronunciation the $u$ had here a weak sound seems to follow from Priscian's remark (i. p. 30) : n exilior in mediis [sonat] ut 'amnis,' 'damnum' (where the syllable begins with m, a-muis, Ia-mnum, while in étiamnunc the syllable begins with $n$ ), as well as from Quintilian's many centuries earlier (i. 7. 28, 29) : quid quae scribuntur aliter quam enuntiantur?... 'columnam' et 'consules' exempta $n$ littera legimus. gn likewise takes different paths in the Romance languages. Usually it becomes a palatal $n$-sound, e. g. Ital. legno (Lat. lignum), Span. leño, but in Sardinian $n u$, e.g. linna. There is no evidence to show that the $g$ in this position in Latin took the velar guttural sound $r$; and probably the pronunciation was merely ordinary $g$ followed by $n$. $n c t$ was pronounced at least in Vulg. Latin $n t$ (probably not with velar n), with suppression of the $c$, e.g. quīntus (Ital. quinto, with close i) (see § 144). nd shows a tendency to $n n$ (as in Oscan and Umbrian) in forms like Plautus' dispennite, distennite; but this assimilation was not carried out in literary or Vulgar Latin (e. g. Ital. risponde, Lat. responilet).

M, $\nu$ are 'liquids' ( $\dot{\gamma} \gamma \rho a i)$ in Greek, because they readily combine (like $\lambda, \rho$ ) in one syllable with a preceding mute. But in Latin, though this was the case with $l, r$, it was not with $n, n$. Greek loanwords in Latin which presented this combination, tended to be pronounced with a parasitic vowel, e. g. Tёсйmessa for Greek T'є́к $\mu \eta \sigma \sigma a$ : and this is the form in which they appeared in the earlier literature. At the end of the Republic, when it was considered a requisite of polite speech to express with greater exactness the Greek sound of these loanwords, this spelling was generally abandoned; though even in the literary language it persisted in some forms, such as mïna
(Greek $\mu \nu \hat{a}$ ), and in Vulgar Latin, as the Romance languages testify, it never was given up (e. g. č̆cı̆nus, Ital. cecero, for кúкvos) (see § 154).
§ 62. Phonetic descriptions of normal m, n. Ter. Maur. vi. 332. 235 :
at tertia [sc. littera m] clauso quasi mugit intus ore; quartae [ n ] sonitus figitur usque sub palato, quo spiritus anceps coeat naris et oris.
Mar. Vict. vi. 34 . 12 , 13 K . m impressis invicem labiis mugitum quendam intra oris specum attractis naribus dabit; $n$ vero sub convexo palati lingu:a inhaerente gemino naris et oris spiritu explicabitur. Martianus Capella (iii. 26I), M labris imprimitur ; N lingua dentibus appulsa collidit. Priscian i. $29,30 \mathrm{H} . \mathrm{m}$ obscurum in extremitate dictionum sonat ut 'templum,' apertum in principio ut 'magnus,' mediocre in mediis ut 'umbra.' . . . n quoque plenior in primis sonat et in ultimis partibus syllabarum ut 'nomen,' 'stamen,' exilior in mediis ut 'amnis,' 'damnum.' Nigidius (ap. Gell. xix. 14. 7), speaking of the Agma, says: si ea littera [ $n$ ] esset, lingua palatum tangeret. Ter. Scaurus mentions the exertion necessary to produce the labial $m$ (as also $b, p$ ), vii. 14. 3 K . non sine labore conjuncto ore.
§ 63. The Agma. Nigidius (l. c.), in Augustus' time, speaks of the $n$ in words like anguis, increpat, ingenuus as a sound 'between $n$ and $g$,' a spurious $n$ (adulterinum), in which the tongue does not touch the palate, as in normal $n$. Varro (ap. Priscian i. p. 30) says it is a sound common to Greek and Latin, written $g$ in Greek, and by the poet Accius in Latin, e. g. aggulus, agceps (ef. Mar. Vict. vi. 19. ir). Marius Victorinus (fourth cent.), vi. i6. 4. K., declares that this was the sound of the nasal before qu in nunquam, numquam, quanquam. quamquam, which is a sound between $n$ and $g$, though, he says, it is usuallyspoken of by grammarians as if it were the sound between $m$ and $n$ of Greek $\sigma \alpha ́ \mu \beta v \xi$. Spellings on late inscriptions like nuncqvam (C.I.L. v. r54) nvnc.eqam (iv. 1837), vncevam (x. 8192) may indicate this pronunciation, though in rvacxi (viii. 8692), \&c., cx may be merely the common symbol for $X$ as in vaxor (ii. 3330), a spelling which has led to the corruption voxor in MSS. of Plautus (Class. Rev. v. 293).
§ 64. $\mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}$ before consonant. Marius Victorinus, speaking of nunquam, numquam, \&c. (vi. 16. 4 K.) says : clari in studiis viri, qui aliquid de orthographia scripserunt, omnes fere aiunt inter $m$ et $n$ litteras mediam vocem, quae nou abhorreat ab utraque littera, sed neutram proprie exprimat, tam nobis deesse quam Graecis : nam cum illi $\sigma \dot{\alpha} \mu \beta v \xi$ scribant, nec m exprimere nec n . sed haec ambiguitas in his fortasse vocabulis sit, ut in 'Ampelo,' 'Lycambe.' nam in nostris supra dictis non est. The word $\sigma \dot{\alpha} \mu \beta v \xi$, apparently the stock example of Greek phoneticians for this 'sound which is neither $m$ nor $n$,' is an unfortunate instance. It is not a native Greek word, but a loanword from another language, and in its original form seems not to have had a nasal [Aramaic sabb'kā (Daniel iii. 5), Greek $\sigma a \mu \beta \beta^{\prime} \kappa \eta$ ]. [Is the word connected with the Latin sambūcus, elderwood, where we have a similar variety of spelling between sambūcus and sābucus (sab- in Romance)? On Lat. labrusca, in Vulg. Lat. lambrusca (a MS. reading in Virg. Ecl. v. 7), Ital. lambrusca, Fr. lambruche, Span. lambrusca, see below.] We might be inclined from this to believe that
the Greek phoneticians were speaking of a sound that is not a native Greek sound, were it not for spellings on Greek inscriptions like $\pi о \nu \pi \eta \bar{\eta}$, 'Oגvviiq, Cret. àvфótapos, \&c. This Greek sound was appealed to by Latin grammarians to explain varieties of spelling like eorumdem and corundem, quamtus and quantus, where $m$ was required by the etymology, true or false (eorum, quam) (Cornutus ap. Cassiod. vii. 152. 3), but $n$ by the pronunciation, and even, as we have seen, to explain numquam and nunquam, tamquam and tanquam, \&c. Here again a doubt suggests itself whether the reference of this sound 'between $m$ and $n$ ' to the Latin language is not based on mere varieties of spelling which were not varieties of pronunciation ; but an appeal to the inseriptions tends to remove it. sentemtiam (C. I. L. i. 206), decenber (ii. 4587 , \&c.) (see Indices to C.I. L.) can most easily be explained on the supposition that this sound really existed in Latin, unless indeed they are due to the general confusion between $m t$ and $n t, n b$ and $m b$ caused by the co-existence of etymological and phonetic spellings like comtëro and contëro, inbütus and imbütus. (The spelling sententiam is that of the Lex Julia Municipalis and may be due to some orthographical theory of Julius Caesar ; for on the same inscription we have damdum, damdam, faciumdei, tuemdam, tuemdarum, quanta, quamtum, tamtae, tamtam.) The spelling of these verbs compounded with the prepositions in, cum (com) is frequently discussed by the grammarians (see the passages collected by Seelmann, p. 279) (cf. jandūdum for jamdūdum in Virgil MSS., Ribbeck, Index s. v.). To the ordinary consonants before which $n$ becomes $m$, viz. $b, p, m$ (cited by Priscian, i. p. 31. 2 H., from the elder Pliny), Marius Victorinus (fourth cent.) adds $f$ (probably from some earlier grammarian', and on Cicero's authority $v$, e.g. comfert, comvocat. Whether the change in the fashion of spelling compounds of com, in with verbs beginning with $f, v$, is a proof that these spirants passed from a bilabial to a labiodental pronunciation is discussed in § 52. It is possible that the nasal was not sounded before $f, v$ or only slightly sounded (as before $h$, or a vowel initial), so that the variation of $m, n$ in the spelling would not indicate a change in pronunciation (cf. the suppression of Latin $n$ before $f, v$ in Provencal : see below). The form co- often appears on inscriptions before $j, v$ in compounds as before a vowel or $h$ (coŏrior, coeo, cohortor, cohaereo, but also comest, and in the older spelling comauditum, \&c.). Before $v$ only on early inscriptions, e. g. covenvmis (C.I. L. i. 532), coventionid (i. 196) ; before $j$ also on later, e.g. coicito (C.I.L. ii. 1964, col. ii. 5I), corvar (C.I.L. i. 1064, 1413 , vi. 2516, \&c.) (see Indices to C.I.L.). The nasal is also often dropped in simple words before mutes, $m$ before Labials, e. g. Novebris, $n$ before Dentals and Gutturals, e. g. eudem, provicia (Mon. Ancyr.) (see Schuchardt, Vok. i. p. 105). Greek inscriptions treat the Latin nasals in the same way, e. g.
 pp .109 sqq. ). Occasionally a nasal is wrongly inserted in plebeian and late inscriptions, $m$ before Labials, $n$ before Dentals and Gutturals, e.g. semptem, singnifer. (Examples from inscriptions and MSS. are given by Schuchardt, Vok. i. p. 113 sqq .) (Co may be an original byform of com in cōgo, \&c.; see ch. ix. § 22,)
In Romance, however, there is no trace of any variety of sound in these cases. The classical spelling is invariably reproduced, e.g. Ital. immobile (Lat. immöbilis), lanto (Lat. tantus) ; and this fact strengthens the doubt expressed above regarding the existence of this 'sound between $m$ and $n$ ' in Latin. Vulg. Lat. *rendo (Ital. rendo, with open e, Span. rendir, Fr. rendre, \&c.) follows the analogy of prendo ; and lambrusca, just quoted, for labrusca, should
probably be explained in the same way. But the dropping of the nasal in such a form as infatibus, quoted (perhaps from some older grammarian) as a 'barbarismus' by Julian, Bishop of Toledo (end of seventh cent.) (Exc. in Don. v. 324.9 K.) is not reflected in the Romance forms (Ital. infante, Span. infante, Fr. enfant, \&c.). Before $s$, where we know that in Latin the nasal was dropped in pronunciation with lengthening of the preceding vowel, e. g. mensa, the pronounced form, més $a$, is the form reflected in the Romance languages, e.g. Ital. mesa, with close $e$. Before $f$, the same thing seems to have happened in Latin, but almost the only instances of Latin words with $n f$ in Romance are compounds with the preposition or particle in, e. g. infans. These show $n$, except in Provençal, where $n$ is dropped, e. g. effas, eferms, efranher (Lat. infringere), efern, afra (Lat. infra), cofes, cofondre [as $n$ before $v$ in evers, eveja (Lat. invidia), covens (Lat. conventus), covertir] ; but this $n$ of Vulgar Latin may be due to what is called 'Recomposition' (see ch. iii. § 18'.
§ 65. Final m. In the only other Indo-European language which has not changed final $-m$ into $n$ we are confronted with a curiously similar difficulty to that in Latin. The native grammarians of India, who at an early time devoted themselves to a minute and exhaustive analysis of the phonetics and accidence of Sanscrit, the sacred language of India, have left conflicting accounts of the sound of $m$ at the end of a word. Some hold that in a word like Sanscr. tam (Greek rór), the sound was that of a nasalized (anunūsiza) vowel ; others teach the 'intervention after the vowel of a distinct nasal element called the anusvära, or after-tone' (Whitney, Sanscrit Grammar ${ }^{2}$, § 71). The Romance languages do not help us to decide whether one or any of these processes took place in Latin, for they offer no indication that in Vulgar Latin finem differed at all from fine. The only cases where Latin final $m$ is preserved are a few monosyllables; and in these $m$ has been changed to $n$ (rem, French rien, quem, Span. quien). The Latin nasals in the middle of a word have passed into nasal vowels in countries under Celtic influence, viz. France and North Italy, and also in Portugal, where Latin $n$ between vowels has passed into a nasal vowel, e. g. Romão, Lat. Rōmānus, mão, Lat. mănus, lãa (contracted to lã), Lat. lēna. The Portuguese suppression of intervocalic $n$ is not a complete parallel to the Latin usage; for it is in the middle of a word that the nasal is so treated, and $m$ is never suppressed like $n$, e.g. fumo, Lat. fümus, fama, Lat. fäma. The $n$ is described as having first nasalized the previous vowel, *mano (with nasal a), and then having been dropped (Meyer-Lübke, Rom. Gram. i. p. 3r4). Nor is the suppression of intervocalic $m$ in Irish in such a word as fearail, manly. This word is a compound of fear, man (cf. Lat. vir), and amhail, like (cf. Lat. similis). Between two vowels in Irish $m$ passed into a $v$-sound; and this $v$ often combines with a preceding vowel into a nasal diphthong like German au nasalized. In an unaccented syllable, as in feáramhail, this diphthong is so far reduced, as to allow the last two syllables to coalesce into one. In Latin, $m$ never had this tendency to become $v$; and so the elision in such a phrase as feram illud cannot be explained by the Irish reduction of fearamhail toffearail. A better parallel to the latter would be the reduction of comuentio, couentio to contio. (But see ch. ix. § 22). (On Port. tam with $\ddot{m}$ sounded like nasal $w$, see Sweet Phil. Soc. xvii. 203.)

Final $-m$ is omitted very frequently on the oldest inscriptions till гзо в. с.. or thereabouts, and again on late plebeian inscriptions (see § 137). Still
there is noevidence that $-m$ was more easily dropped in early Latin poetry than in the classical age. Indeed Priscian (i. p. 30 K.) speaking of final $-m$ says : vetustissimi tamen non semper eam subtrahebant, and quotes a hexameter of Ennius (A. 354 M.) ending with milia militum octo (cf. Enn. A. 322 M. beginning dum quidem unus); but this remark need not drive us to the opposite extreme, of believing that $-m$ was more sounded in early than in classical times. To the Roman ear at all periods a syllable ending in $-m$ seems to have been the equivalent in hiatus of a syllable ending in a long vowel. This appears to be the rule in Saturnian versification (see Amer. Jour. Phil. xiv. 309 ) ; and Plautus, with the older poets, Horace, with the classical poets, allow prosodical hiatus in the one case as much as in the other. Lucilius, for example, scans as a short syllable without eliding, quam (i. $3_{2} \mathrm{M}$. irritata canes quăm homo quam planius dicat. He is speaking of the letter $r$ ), exactly as he shortens quo (xxx. 24 M . quid seruas quŏ eam, quid agam? quid id attinet ad te ?). Horace's nŭm adest is on a par with his si mĕ amas; and the prosodical hiatus quoted from Ennius by Priscian may be equated with the instance quoted by Cicero (Or. xlv. $\mathrm{I}_{52}$ ) from the same poet Scipiŏ inuicte ( $A$. 345 M.$)$. Nor was this a mere usage of poetry. The same thing is seen in compounds, such as cormest, cŏire (the spelling with com probably was the older usaçe before a vowel. cf. comauditum, and comangustatum, Paul. Fest. 46 Th.: comegit Gl. Plac. xiv. 39 G. ; on cōgo, see above), which have the first syllable short, like praeire, praeeunt. The compound of circum and it is a trisyllable circūit; of antĕ and it a dissyllable, anteit. (On flagitium-lóminis in Plautus, see above, § 59.) But the disregard of $-m$ in metre before an initial consonant except under the law of Breves Breviantes, like Plautus' almost invariable ènüm) ${ }^{1}$ is unknown until late plebeian verse, e. g. umbră( $m$ ) lerem (along with talĕs amici) on the epitaph of a praeco (C.I. L. vi. 195r), moriente (m) riderent (vi. 7578), \&c. Even in the careless hexameters of the dedicatory inscription of Mummius (i. $54^{2}$; of 146 в. c.), which contain facilia occupying the place of a dactyl, pacĕ need not represent pacem (as in i. 1290 : pacem petit), but may be the Abl. (as in Plaut. Rud. 698 : tua pace) :

## tua pace rogans te <br> cogendei dissoluendei tu ut facilia faxseis.

The dropping of final $-m$ in vulgar pronunciation is attested by the remarks in Probi App. (198. 27) triclinium non 'triclinu'; (199. 14) passim non 'passi'... numquam non 'numqua' . . . pridem non 'pride,' olim non - oli'; (199. 17) idem non 'ide,' and by the spellings on late and plebeian inscriptions (see § 137 . . Consentius (fifth cent. ?), p. 394 K., alludes under the name of 'Mytacismus' to a practice of joining $-m$ to the initial vowel of the next word : sicut plerumque passim loquuntur ' dixeram illis.' Similarly Pompeius (fifth cent.), p. 287. 7 K., quotes from Melissus (second cent.) the rule for the correct pronunciation of a phrase like hominem amicum as a mean between the two extremes, 'homine mamicum' and 'homine amicum.' Velius Longus (54. K.) says : cum dicitur 'illum ego'et 'omnium optimum,' 'illum' et 'omnium' aeque $m$ terminat, nec tamen in enuntiatione apparet; with Quintilian (ix. 4. 39), quoted above, ef. Diom. 453.9 K. ; Serv. in Dom. 445. 14 K .

[^17]Before $n$ the pronunciation alluded to by Velius Longus is found expressed in writing, in MSS. of Virgil (see Ribbeck, Index, p. 430); so 'etiannunc' on the Herc. Papyri (Class. Rev. iv. 443).

Tanne for tamne is quoted by Festus (p. 542 Th.) from Afranius: tanne arcula tua plena est aranearum? Cf. Quint. viii. 3.45 on the sound of cum before a word beginning with $n$ - (ef. Cic. Orat. xlv. 154 ; Fam. ix. 22. 2). Final $-n$ of the preposition in is sometimes changed to $-m$ before an initial labial consonant (see Ribbeck, Ind. p. 433 for instances in Virgil MSS. like im burim, im flammam, im mare, im puppibus). So forsam and forsitam in MSS. (see Ribbeck, Ind. p. 420, and Georges, Lex. Wortf., and for other examples of the confusion of $\cdot m$ and $\cdot n$, Schuchardt, Vok. i. pp. 117 sqq.).
§ 66. ns. (See § I44.) In Greek inscriptions we find $n$ dropped before $s$ in Latin words frequently, at all dates and in all localities. The nasal is usually dropped in the terminations -ans and enns, also in ensis, e. g. K $\lambda \eta \mu \eta s, \kappa a \sigma \tau \rho \eta \sigma \kappa a$. But Latin census and its derivatives usually retain $n$, e.g. $\kappa \hat{\eta} \nu \sigma o s$, K $\eta \nu \sigma \omega \rho / \nu o s($ Mon. Anc.), also the combination -nst- (Eckinger, pp. II4, (15). [For the variation of $s$ with $n s$ in Latin spelling, see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. vv. centies, decies, Consentica (modern Cosenza), pinso, mensis, mensor, \&c. Cf. Probi App. 198. 9 ansa non 'asa'; 198. 2 Capsesis non 'Capsessis.'] The pronunciation of $n s$ as $s$, with lengthening of the preceding vowel, led to the use of $n s$ for $s$ after a long vowel, e.g. thensaurus for thesaurus [see Georges s.v. Other examples, e.g. occansio (ef. Rhein. Mus. xvi. 16o), in Schuchardt, Vok. i. p. 112]. The Appendix Probi gives cautions against the use of 'occansio' for occasio (198. 21 K.), of 'Herculens' for Hercules (197. 25 K.). Velius Longus (p. 79. I K. says that Cicero • libenter dicebat foresia, Megalesia, hortesia, and Papirian (ap. Cassiod. 160. 14 K.) says that tosus, tusus, prasus were the older spellings, but that the rule of his time was to retain $n$ in the P.P.P., not in Adjectives, e. g. formosus (cf. Probi App. 198. 14 K. formosus non 'formunsus'; Caper 95. 18 K. : Ter. Scaur. 21. זо K. ; we have formonsae, C.I. L. vi. 2738) ; in the P.P.P. the $n$ seems to have been restored from the other part of the verb. Charisius ( 58. 17 K.) says: mensam sine $n$ littera dictam Varro ait quod media poneretur ; sed auctores cum $n$ littera protulerunt, Vergilius saepe, \&c. (cf. Varro L. L. v. 118). On quotiens (the better spelling) and on vicensumus, \&c., see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. vv., and Brambach, Lat. Orth. p. 269.
§ 67. nx . Of the spellings conjux and conjunx (statistics in Georges, s.v.), Velius Longus (first cent. A. d.) says (p. 78 K .) that the spelling without $n$ is due to the analogy of the other cases. conjugis, conjugi, \&c. In actual pronunciation, he declares, the $n$ is heard; for 'subtracta $n$ littera, et difficilius enuntiabitur et asperius auribus accidet.' The comparison of other I.-Eur. languages, e. g. Greek $\sigma \dot{v}-\delta v \xi$, Sanscr. sam-yuj-, shows that the form without $n$ must have been the original form of the Nom. too, and that the $n$ has been introduced by the analogy of jungo (cf. Ter. Scaur. p. 20. го K.).
§ 68. mn. In the fifth cent. Pompeius (p. 283. ir K.) mentions as a barbarism columa (cf. the Diminutive collŭmella) for collumna, which looks very like the pronunciation mentioned by Quintilian as normal in his day (columnam exempta $n$ legimus). This colum ( $n$ )a seems to have become *coloma, as cŏlŭber became colober, by assimilation of unaccented $u$ to accented $o$ (see ch. iii. §33), whence colomna (Probi App. 197. 25) with open accented o, the origin of the Romance words for pillar, as *colobra (open o) of the Romance words for snake.

But the analogy of collŭmen may have had something to do with the pronunciation colum.n)a (cf. scămellum and scamnum. See Georges s. v.). Sollennis is explained as a byform of sollemnis (from *amno-, around, Osc. amno-), due to a supposed connexion with annus (Etym. Lat. p. 97). (On confusions of mn and $n n, n$, see Schuchardt, Vok. i. p. 147, and Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. vv. antenna, Portunus, lamna.) The insertion of $p$ between $m$ and $n$ occurs in late plebeian spellings like calumpnia, dampnum, sollempnis (see Schuchardt, Vok. i. p. 149, and Georges, s. v. damnum). On mpt see below. Hiemps (cf. consumpsi, \&c.), is the regular spelling of the Codex Mediceus of Virgil, and is accepted by Ribbeck; though this form is condemned by the grammarians, e. g. Caesellius ap. Cassiod. 161. 17 K. ; Ter. Scaur. 21. 6 and 27. 3 K. ; Alcuin 303. 8 K.
§ 69. gn. Spellings on inscriptions like ingnominiae (C. I. L. i. 206, 45 в. c.), congnato ( x . 1220) seem to be mere etymological spellings like inpello, \&c. Singnifer, on a soldier's grave (C.I. L. vi. $3^{6637}$ ', has been explained above in § 64 (cf. § 144). Nor are we entitled to conclude that $g$ passed into a nasal sound before $m$ from spellings like subtèmen and subtegmen, exämen, and perhaps exagmen (Class. Rev. 189I, p. 294) (see ch. iv. § ir6). (For instances of the spelling of gn-, consult Georges and Brambach s.vv. coniveo, conitor, dinosco, cognosco, navus, natus, narus, aprugnus, and see Schuchardt, Vok.i. p. 115 . On cōnitor, \&c., but cognosco, \&c., see ch. iv. § 119.)
§ 70. nct. The suppression of the guttural in quintus is something like the dropping of $-g$ of 'going' in the mispronunciation 'goin' to.' Quinctus is the spelling of the Republic, Quintus of the Empire, according to Brambach. So on Greek inscriptions of the beginning of the second cent. в. c. Koı $\boldsymbol{\text { к }}$ кos, but also Kolvtos (Eckinger p. 122). For the byforms nanctus and nactus (see Brambach) we have a parallel in sactus (reflected in Welsh saith) beside sanctus, while Vulgar santus (see Georges) is Welsh sant. The -ct- is not a development of -nct- but a byform (see ch. viii. § io).
§ 71. nd. In all S. and Central Italy nd has followed the course taken in Umbrian and Oscan and become $n n$; and similarly Latin $m b$ is $m m$. In ordinary Italian, Latin $n d$ has become $n n(n)$ in the pretonic syllable, as is shown by ne for Lat. inde, manucare for Lat. mandūcāre. Similarly we have $m m$ for $m b$ in amendue beside ambidue (Lat. ambo duo), the same assimilation as we have in English, e. g. 'lamb' ( $n n$ for $n d$ is seen in 'Lunnon town' for 'London town,' \&c.). (For Latin confusions of $n d$ and $n n$, see Schuchardt, Vok. i. p. 146, e.g. Secunnus, and consult Georges s. v. grundio). Nt competes with mpt in lanterna (better laterna) apparently from Greek $\lambda a \mu \pi \tau \dot{\eta} \rho$, and tempto (not tento), Pomptinus (not Pontinus), pĕdĕtentim, \&c. (see Georges and Brambach). Thus vŏluntas and volluptas are sometimes confused in MSS. through the intermediary form volumptas (Schuchardt, Vok. i. 5). But emptum, redemptum, consumptum are the established spellings, though Marius Victorinus (21. 12 K .) demands on etymological grounds cmtum, redentum, consumtum, as also redemsi, consumsi, \&c. (ch. iv. § 76).
§72. Parasitic vowel in Greek loanwords. The Early Latin instances have been discussed by Ritschl, Opusc. ii. 469 sqq., who on the strength of MSS. spelling, and the requirements of prosody, restored to Plautus such forms as drăchŭma, ť̌chinna, Alcưmẽna, Alcưmeus, Cŭcinnus, gŭminăsium, Pröcina. Marius

Victorinus ( 8.6 K .) tells us that the form Tecmessa was first used by Julius Caesar Vopiscus (an older contemporary of Cicero) in the title of his tragedy of that name, and was so pronounced, at his orders, by the actors : juxta autem non ponebant cm : inde nec Alcmenam dicebant nec Tecmessam, sed 'Alcumenam'; inde 'Alcumeo' et 'Alcumena' tragoediae, donec Julius Caesar, qui Vopiscus et Strabo et Sesquiculus dictus est, primus 'Teemessam ' inscripsit illam, et in scena pronuntiari jussit (cf. Prisc. i. p. 29 H. [u] saepe interponitur inter cl vel cm in Graecis nominibus, ut 'H $\rho a \kappa \lambda \hat{\eta}$ s 'Hercules,' 'A $\sigma \kappa \lambda \eta \pi t o{ }^{\prime}$ 'Aesculapius,' et antiqui 'A $\lambda \kappa \mu \dot{\eta} \nu \eta$ 'Alcumena, 'A $\lambda \kappa \mu \alpha i \omega \nu$ ' Alcumaeon'). Similarly the Sardinian mouflon was called in Latin mŭsǐmo (a name applied to a much-prized breed of diminutive horses ; cf. Lucilius vi. $\mathrm{I}_{5} \mathrm{M}$. praedium emit, qui vendit equum musimonem), but in Gk. $\mu o v v^{\prime} \sigma \mu \nu$ (Strabo). (On the parasitic vowel between a mute and $l$ in Latin words, like përīc ,u)lum, see ch. iii. § i3.) The difference of Greek and Latin in this respect is seen in the fact that $\Delta \epsilon \epsilon \mu$ os is the earliest and most usual form of the name Dĕcimus, older Decumus, on Gk. inscriptions, just as awkward com-
 Porcula) are commoner on Greek inscriptions than on Latin (Eckinger, pp. 47. 75). The parasitic vowel is really the visible expression of a 'voice-glide' (Sweet, Handb. p. 84), as in Germ. Knie pronounced ' $\mathrm{k}^{\circ}{ }^{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{e}^{\prime}$ '; cf. Fr. canif from Low Germ. knif. (For examples on inscriptions, e. g. Himinis, C.I.L. i. 982, see Seelmann, p. 25 I, and cf. below § 154.)
§ 73. Tenues and Mediae. In pronouncing $p, t, c$ the vocal organs are in the same position as in pronouncing $b, d, g$, but the breath comes through the open glottis, as the space between the two vocal chords which stretch across the larynx is called. With $b, d, g$ we close the glottis, by drawing these vocal chords together, and produce what phoneticians call 'voice.' $B ;, l, g$ are now therefore usually termed 'voiced' mutes as opposed to $p, t, c$, the unvoiced or 'breath'-mutes. An older designation was tenues and mediae. In some languages what are called tenues and mediae do not really differ by the absence and presence of ' voice,' but merely by energy and weakness of articulation. In one German-Swiss dialect, for example, German $k$ and $g$ are really the same consonant pronounced strongly and pronounced weakly. For such languages the terms 'fortes' and 'lenes' are more suitable than ' breath-mutes' and 'voice-mutes.' In investigating the sound of the Latin mutes we have accordingly to consider whether the tenues differed from the mediae in being uttered with the glottis open, or merely in being articulated with greater energy. Another point to be taken into consideration is that mutes, especially voiceless mutes, have in many languages a 'breath-glide,' what we roughly call $h$, after them. In Danish
every initial $t$ is pronounced with this $h$ following; and the same peculiarity in Irish-English is well known. That Latin p, t, c were not so pronounced we can infer from the fact that for the more exact expression of the Greek aspirates, ph, th, ch were brought into use in the last century of the Republic, which shows that $p, t, c$ had not, at least at that period, the sound of $\phi, \theta$, x (like our 'uphill,' 'antheap,' 'inkhorn'). The other question, whether the Latin tenues and mediae are more properly distinguished as breath- and voice-mutes, or as fortes and lenes, is more difficult to settle. The Latin phoneticians, who, as we have seen (p. 28), are not very safe guides on any point of Latin pronunciation, are especially at fault here; for neither they nor their Greek masters seem to have carried their analysis of sounds as far as the phoneticians of India, who had at an early time discovered the distinction between unvoiced (aghöša) and voiced (glözaravant) consonants, and its dependence on the opening (virära) or closure (samizara) of the glottis. The Latin phoneticians talk of $p$ and $b$, of $t$ and $l$, of $c$ and $g$ as entirely different types of sounds, produced by different positions of the vocal organs. Seelmann professes to find in their descriptions evidence that $p, t, c$ had a more energetic articulation than $l, l, g$. This is certainly true of their account of $c$ and $g$; but it is doubtful how far it is true of the others, and even if it were, how much authority should be allowed to these descriptions. A better reason for believing that the Latin tenues were pronounced with more energy of articulation than the mediae has been found in the fact that the Greek tenues, which must have lacked this energy, are often represented in Latin as mediae, e. g. Greek $\kappa \omega \beta \iota o ́ s$, Lat. göbius. This is, as is natural, especially the case in the initial accented syllable, which seems in Latin to have been uttered with a strong stress. It must be added, however, that an examination of the instances shows that they are almost wholly confined to Greek $\kappa$, especially when preceding certain sounds; and that the same tendency is shown by Latin $c$ to be weakened in the same position to $g$, e.g. Vulgar Latin *gavia for căvea (Ital. gabbia).

On the other hand, when we consider the Latin loanwords in Welsh and the Teutonic languages, we are led to believe that this energy of articulation was not the only thing which distinguished
the tenues from the mediae in Latin. Had it been, we should probably have found the two classes of mute confused in their Welsh and Teutonic forms. But this is not the case ; cf. Welsh poc, Lat. pācem; Welsh bendith, Lat. bĕn(è)dictio; Lat. cŏquīna, cocina is our 'kitchen,' Lat. gemma our 'gem.'

And in Italian of the present day $p, t, c$ are unvoiced, $l, l, g$ voiced. So we have grounds for believing the Latin tenues to have been unvoiced, the Latin mediae to have been voiced; and the guttural mutes, if not all three classes, to have been also distinguishable as fortes and lenes.

In native Latin words the tenues and mediae are not confused to any great extent. The same tendency that turned I.-Eur. d into $t$ before $r$ in atro-, \&c. (ch. iv. § II3) is seen in the old spellings mentioned by Quintilian (i. 4. 16) Alexanter and Cassantia (cf. C.I. L. i. 59, alixentrom ; i501, alixente(r) casenter(a), both inscriptions from Praeneste, and in Ital. Otranto for Greek ' $\Upsilon \delta \rho o \hat{s}$-ô̂vтos, Lat. Hydruntum). In very early times the single letter $c$ (Greek $\gamma$ ) was used for the $c$-sound and for the $g$-sound; but, as we saw before, the two sounds must have been throughout this period distinguished in pronunciation, though not in spelling. It is perhaps only at the end of a word that we find a real variation between tenuis and media. Final syllables were pronounced as weakly in Latin as initial syllables were pronounced strongly ; and we might expect to find the tenuis fortis at the end of a word replaced by the media lenis.

This is apparently the explanation of the Roman preference of the spelling ab, ob, sub to ap (as in ap-erio), op (as in op-erio, Oscan $o p), *_{s-u p}$; though in actual utterance these words were no doubt sounded with $-p$ when followed by a word beginning with a tenuis, e.g. ab templo, ob templum (like obtĭneo, proncunced op-tineo). The spelling was not so established in the case of similar subordinate or proclitic words ending in a dental, e.g. $a t$, often written ad; but the change on plebeian and late inscriptions of final $-t$ of verbs to $-l$, e. g. reliquid, is probably due to this weakening. On the other hand, a final is often reduced to a whispered sound in languages, and a voiced consonant, if whispered, sounds more like an unvoiced.

In the Romance languages the Latin tenues and mediae, when
initial, and when the initial syllable, to which they belong, has the accent, retain their identity with wonderful persistence, e.g. Ital. puro (Lat. pūrus), bene (Lat. bĕnĕ), tale (Lat. tālis), duro (Lat. dūrus); but in the middle of a word, and when in the unaccented syllable (though not after the Latin diphthong $a u$, e. g. Span. poco), the tendency is almost universal to turn the tenuis into a media, the media into a spirant. In one language, however, Roumanian, the tenuis is usually preserved, e. g. mică (Lat. mīca), lăptucă (Lat. lactūca), muta (Lat. mūtāre), and in Italian the reduction of the tenuis is of limited extent, e.g. amico (Lat. ămïcus, Span. amigo), uopo (Lat. ŏpus, Span. huebos), vite (Lat. vïtis, Span. vide), fuoco (Lat. föcus, Span. fuego), \&c., though before $a$ we have the media in miga (Lat. mīca), strada (Lat. strata), lattuga (Lat. lactūca), \&c., and when the vowel following has the accent, e.g. siguro (Lat. sècīrus), mudare (Lat. mūtāre). Misspellings on plebeian inscriptions like Amada (le Blant, I. G. 576 a), irallam (Or. 254I, of 142 A.d.), Segundae (Mur. 2076. 10) are precursors of these changes. That they obtruded themselves into the recognized Latin pronunciation is more than doubtful. One tendency indeed of the Romance languages, to turn $p r, t r, c r$ into $b r, d r, g r$, e. g. Span. padre (Lat. păter), sobra (Lat. süpra), magro (Lat. măcer), lagrima (Lat. lŭcruma, cf. C. I. L. ix. 648 Lagremas), is directly contrary to that treatment of $d$ before $r$ in early Latin (ätro- for ${ }^{*} \bar{a} d r o-, ~ \& c$. ), which we have just mentioned. In Italian $t r$ remains after any vowel except $a$, e.g. vetro (Lat. vǐtrum, Span. vedro), but padre (Lat. păter), and pr is retained when it follows the accented vowel, e.g. sopra (Lat. sŭpra), capra (Lat. căpra), but cavriuolo (Lat. capreolus), obbrobrio (Lat. opprobrium ; cf. Or. Henz. 6086 ii).

[^18][^19]cămellus [cf. Probi App. 198. 9 calathus non 'galatus'; Gloss. ap. Mai, cl. Auct. vi. 578 corax per e non per g ; and see Georges and Brambach s. vv. Caieta (now Gaëta), Agrigentum, grabatum?. In the modern Milaneso dialect, the French cabriolet has similarly become gabriolé. Before $n, c$ became $g$ in Latin (ch. iv. § ir6), so that the spellings cygnus, Gnösus, Gnìdus are only natural (see Georges and Brambach). Of the final -ca of ămurca (Gk. á $\mu \dot{o} \rho \gamma \eta$ ), Servius (ad G. i. 194) says that it was written with $c$, but pronounced with g. (A similar interchange of $-c a,-g a$, is seen in leuga and leuca, raca, and raga, \&c.) For Gk. $\pi$ we find Latin $b$ in the initial accented syllable before the vowel $u$ in the word buxus, and in the Old Latin name of King Pyrrhus, Burrus (the form used by Ennius in his Annals, according to Cicero Or. xlviii. i6o Burrum semper Ennius, numquam Pyrrhum ; ipsius antiqui declarant libri ; cf. Quint. i. 4. I5, and Ter. Scaur. 14 K., who adds Byrria as the equivalent of Gk. Hvppías). The form burrus was retained in rustic and colloquial Latin ; burra was a name for a cow, burrus for a red-faced man, as we learn from Paul. Fest. (p. 22. $3_{2}$ Th. burrum dicebant antiqui quod nunc dicimus rufum; unde rustici 'burram' appellant buculam, quae rostrum habet rufum. pari modo rubens cibo ac potione ex prandio 'burrus' appellatur), who also mentions burranica potio ; lacte mixtum sapa, a rufo colore (p. 26. 19 Th. ), and burranicum ; genus vasis (p. 26. 7'. Quintilian (i.5.13) quotes Cicero's phrase Canopitarum exercitum with the remark, ipsi Canobon dicunt. (On Latin Cănōpus, Gk. Kávaßos see Brambach s.v.) In Probi Append. (i99. 5 K.) we have, plasta non 'blasta.' Gk. $\beta a \tau a ́ v ı \nu$ for $\pi a \tau \alpha ́ v \iota o \nu$ is quoted by Hesychius

 crëp̌̌dae of Catull. xcviii : 4 are in Gk. кар $\beta$ átıvaı and карпа́тıvaı. Old Lat. Telis for $\Theta \epsilon \tau$ ís (C. I. L. xiv. 4io2, on a Praenestine mirror) (cf. Varro, L. L. vii. 87 lymphata dicta a lympha; lympha a Nympha, ut quod apud Graecos ©єtis, apud Ennium : Thelis illi mater, and R.R. iii. 9. is antiqui ut Thetim 'Thelim' dicebant, sic Medicam 'Melicam' vocabant) perhaps implies an intermediary form with $d$ for Gk. $\boldsymbol{\tau}$. The relation of cotonea, the origin of the Romance words for quince (Ital. cotogna, Fr. coing) to Gk. $\kappa v \delta \omega \nu i \alpha$ is not clear (cf. Macrob. vii. 6. I3 mala cydonia quae cotonia Cato vocat ; Pliny, N. H. xv. ro). In Vulg. Lat. we find additional examples of $g$ for Gk. $\kappa$, such as *grupta
 (Teutonic?) cattus, and probably gamba. Of spellings on Gk. inscriptions may be instanced $\kappa \alpha \lambda \iota \kappa \omega \nu$ for călйgarum, $\sigma \alpha \rho a \gamma \alpha \rho o \nu$ (from serrācum), $\sigma \gamma \alpha \lambda \eta$ all on the Edict of Diocletian ; also 「avтıos for Cantius, and Kavסıтos for Candı̆dus (Eckinger, pp. 98, 100, 102). The same interchange of tenues and mediae is seen in Gk., e. g. $\tau \dot{\eta} \kappa \omega$ and $\tau \eta \eta^{\prime} \gamma \alpha \nu o \nu$, especially in loanwords, e. g. тá $\pi \eta s, \tau \alpha \pi i s$ and $\delta \alpha ́ \pi \iota s$, 'A $\mu \pi \rho \alpha \kappa \iota \omega \tau \eta s$
 later Vulg. Gk. $\tau$ often becomes $\delta$ between two vowels. It is thus often possible that the Roman word represents a Greek byform. [Other examples of the variety in Latin loanwords are carbăsus, Gk. ка́ $\rho \pi a \sigma o s$, crŭmīna, Gk. $\gamma \rho \bar{v} \mu \epsilon ́ a$ a bag, galbănum, Gk. $\chi^{\alpha \lambda \beta a ́ \nu \eta, ~ s p e ̀ l u n c a, ~ G k . ~} \sigma \pi \dot{\eta} \lambda \boldsymbol{v} \gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha}$, not to mention incitega,

 on old Praenestine cistae for 'Chryseis' (C.I.L. xiv. 4109; i. 1501)].
§ 75. Confusion of mediae and tenues in Latin words. A large number of seeming instances are not due to any Latin, or even Italic, law of sound,
but are survivals of that interchange of media and tenuis, which shows itself occasionally in I.-Eur. roots, e. g. sūous and sügo. Many are dialectal variations; for in parts of Italy the tenuis was used where the Latin form had the media and vice versa, just as in modern Italian the Neapolitan dialect has $t$ corresponding to the $d$ of lapidi (Lat. lăpŭdes), \&c.; the Roman dialect affects grosta, gautela, \&c., with $g$ - for c-. Thus Quint. i. 5. i2 tells us that a certain Tinca of Placentia used ' precula' for pergŭla (see K. Z. xxx. 345). Of the misspellings of this kind in inscriptions and MSS. (collected by Schuchardt, Vok. i. pp. $124 \mathrm{sqq}$. ), not a few are due to the similar appearance of the letters G, C, B, P. But there is a residuum of undoubted instances of variation between the tenuis and the media, at least for $c$ and $g$. For $p$ and $b$ we have the (dialectal?) word ropio, a red mullet, given as nickname to Pompey, who had a florid complexion Mar. Sacerd. 462 K. quotes a lampoon, perhaps a Fescennine line sung by soldiers at his triumph, quém non púdet ét rúbet, nón est hómŏ sed rópio). The word, which should probably be read in Catull. xxxvii. ıo (see Sacerd. 1. c.), is evidently connected with robus and rufus, for Sacerdos adds, ropio autem est minium aut piscis robeus aut penis [cf. Ter. Scaur. 14 K. on the doubtful examples of Palatium and 'Balatium' (by analogy of balo) ; Publicola and O. Lat. Poplicola (by analogy of populus) ; propom on early coins for probum, C.I. L. i. I9 ; aduocapit in the Carmen Arvale]. For $t$ and $d$, probably not petiolus, 'a little foot' (?) Afranius ap. Non. r60 M. atque ádeo nolo núdo petiolo ésse plus [MSS. es pus?, for this is better explained as peciolo- (Ital. picciuolo, O. Fr. peçuel, \&c.). But the most examples are of $g$ for $c$, as we found to be the case with Greek loanwords; and this perhaps throws some light on the early use in the Latin alphabet of the Greek Gamma-symbol as the symbol for Latin $c$ as well as for $g$. In Vulgar Latin -cit- and -cer-in the proparoxytone syllable seem to have become -git-, -ger-, e. g. *plagitum, *fager, to judge from the Romance forms (see Arch. Glotolo. ix. 104). (Is digitus a similar transformation of dicitus? Dicitus is censured in Probi App. 198. ro, and occurs in MSS. See Schuchardt, Vok. ii. 413 ) ; initial cra-may have become gra, e. g. Ital. grasso, Span. graso, Fr. gras from Latin crassus; Ital. grata, Span. grada from Lat. crātis ${ }^{\text {Meyer Lübke, Rom. Gram.i.p. 353); Lat. gavia for cavea }}$ is reflected in Ital. gabbia, Span. gavia, Prov.gabia; so *gonfläre in Ital. gonfiare, \&c. [For other examples of $g-c$, see Georges and Brambach s. vv. vicesimus, viceni, triceni, tricies, nongenti, cremia, neglego, graculus, gurgulio, \&c.; on the change of
 e. g. dignus, see ch.iv. § 119; bibo (I.-Eur. *pibo) is due to the Latin tendency to assimilate adjacent syllables (ch.iv. § 163 ); cf. also Quint. i. 6. 30 nonnumquam etiam barbara ab emendatis conatur discernere, ut cum Triquetram dici Siciliam an 'Triquedram,' meridiem an 'medidiem' oporteat, quaeritur.]
§ 76. Mediae and Tenues at end of word. Quintilian, who includes among the points of inferiority of Latin to Greek the use of $-b,-d$ at the end of syllables (xii. ro. $3^{2}$ quid quod syllabae nostrae in blitteram et dinnituntur adeo aspere, ut plerique, non antiquissimorum quidem, sed tamen veterum, mollire temptaverint, non solum 'aversa' pro 'abversis' dicendo, sed et in praepositione b litterae absonam et ipsam $f$ [s edd.] subiciendo), mentions (i. 7. 5) with disapproval the practice of distinguishing ad, the preposition, from at, the conjunction. The right use of $t t$ and $\cdot d$ in words like $a ̆ t$ and $a ̆ d$, sĕd, quit (from queo), and quìd (from quis), quŏt and quŏd, \&c., is a subject of frequent remark in the grammarians, e. g. Ter. Scaurus ( 12.8 K) approves sed on the ground that the
old form was sedum 「cf. ib. ir. 8 K. ; Vel. Long. 69-70 K. ; Probi App. 202, 37 K. ; Cassiod. 212. 5 K.; Alcuin 308. 8 K., and (on haut and haud) 303.3 K. ; on caput and apud Bede 264 . 35 K., \&c.7. Charisius ( 229 K.) quotes ad for at from a speech of Licinius Calvus ; and Vel. Long. 70 K. says that sed in sed enim 'd litteram sonat.' Instances of the confusion or suppression of final - $d$ and - $t$ in inscriptions and MSS. have been collected by Schuchardt, Vok. i. pp. 188 sqq. and Seelmann, pp. 366 sqq. They include, beside the cases just mentioned, the use of $-d$ for $-t$, or the suppression of $\cdot t$, in verbal forms, like rogad, C.I. L. iv. 2388 (but on O. Lat. feced, \&c., for fécit, \&c., see ch. viii. § 69), peria (for péreat) iv. 1173; also the loss of $-t$ in the combination -nt, fecerun vi. 325r, just as - $t$ is lost in the combination -ct, lac from lact from older lacte, an I-stem. The preposition is spelt at in the Lex Col. Jul. Genetivae Urbanorum of 44 в.c., except when the next word begins with $d-$, e. g. at it judicium atsint, i. 2. 13 ; ateo . . ad decuriones, iii. 8.7 (Eph. Epigr. ii. p. 122), but always ad (even in aftributionem, \&c.), beside aput in the Lex Julia Municipalis of 45 в с. (C. I. L. i. 206). This uncertainty of usage has been taken as evidence of the final dental having been uttered faintly, or having been a sound intermediate between $d$ and $t$, like the final dental of German, written $d t$, in Stadt, \&c. The instances, however, mentioned by grammarians are all words which would be closely joined in utterance with a following word, quid tibi?, quid dicis, ad templum, ad deos, \&c.; so that it is most natural to believe, as was suggested of the confusion between $-m$ and $-n$, that the sounds adapted themselves to the initial of the following word. Quid tibi would be pronounced as quit tibi, and ad templum as at templum (like at-tineo, \&c.). The spellings quid tibi, ad templum would be historical (like ad-tineo, not phonetic The weakness of final $d$ is better shown by its suppression after a long vowel. Thus the Abl. Sg. ceased to be pronounced with -d about the end of the third cent. в. c. (see § 137), though $d$ remained till later in the monosyllables med, ted, while haud was retained before words beginning with vowels (Ritschl, opusc. ii. $59 \mathrm{r}, \& c ., \mathrm{v} .352$ ) ; and the affection of $-t$ by the spellings on plebeian and late inscriptions of verb-forms like reliquid, \&c. In Vulgar Latin et cannot have been dropped till after the conquest of Gaul (A.L.L. i. 212).

P is not found at the end of any Latin word, if we except rolup, for robupe, the Neuter of an adj. * volupis; but it is common in Oscan, e. g. op (Lat. ob), ip 'there.'. (On the spellings optineo, obtineo, \&c., see § 8o'. On the other hand final $g$ never appears in Latin, though we have $c$ in ac (for atqu[e]), nec (for nĕqu[e]), lac (for lact $[e]$ ), ill̄̃c for illı-c[e], \&c.; but nec is written neginvariably in negotium, and usually in neglego (see Georges, s.v.). (Cf. ch. x. § 18.)
§ 77. Mediae and tenues in the Dialects. There is a good deal of interchange of tenues and mediae in Umbrian and Oscan (e.g. Osc. deketasiúi and degetasiús), which has led some to the theory that the Umbro Oscan mediae were not voiced (Conway, Amer. Journ. Phil. xi. 306), while others refer the variation to the defects of the Umbrian and Oscan alphabets, which being derived from the Etruscan had not originally the means of distinguishing fully the tenues from the mediae (the Umbrian alphabet, for example, uses the $t$-sign for both $t$ and $d$, the $k$-sign for both $k$ and $g$, \&c., see von Planta, Gramm. Osk.-Umbr. Dial. i. p. 547). In a Falisco-Latin inscr. (Zvet. I. I. I. 72 ) we have gondecorant, gonlegium, beside communia.
§ 78. B, P. Latin $b, p$ were labial mutes, apparently with the same sound as $b, p$ in Ital., e. g. bene (Lat. bĕnĕ), pino (Lat. pīnus), and English b, p, Between vowels $b$ became in course of time a labial spirant, and by the third cent. A. D. became identified with Latin $v(w)$ (see § 52). In Spanish, $b$ has a $w$-sound, which differs from our $w$, in that the back of the tongue is not raised, nor the cheeks narrowed. It is the same as the $w$ of South German wie, wein.
$B$ was often written, though $p$ was pronounced, before $s, t$, in such words as urbs, obtı̈neo. It was a frequent subject of discussion among Latin grammarians whether these words should not be spelt with $p$, so that the spelling might agree with the pronunciation. The $b$ was defended in urbs, \&c., on the ground that it would be unreasonable to spell a nominative case with $p$ and the other cases with $b$, urbis, urbi, \&c., and in obtineo, \&c., because the form of the preposition when alone, and often in composition, had the $b, o b$, obdच̄$c o, \& c$. The $-b$ of the preposition similarly assimilated itself in pronunciation to $m$ in compounds like submitto, summitto. In ŏmitto all traces of this $b$ have disappeared (see ch. iii.).

Latin $b$ represents an I.-Eur. aspirate in words like rŭber,
 $f$ in various parts of Italy corresponded to Latin $b$, e.g. Umbrian rufro-. This dialectal $f$ for $b$ is seen in forms like sifillus, beside genuine Latin sibullus, forms which do not prove anything about the pronunciation of Latin $b$, but are merely corresponding words to the Latin, which have come from some dialect or other. A good many of these dialectal $f$-forms have found their way into the Romance languages.

[^20]Mar. Vict. vi. 33.15 K . (whose $b$ seems to be the $p$ of Ter. Maur.) b et p litterae conjunctione vocalium quasi syllabae (nam muta portio penitus latet: neque enim labiis hiscere ullumve meatum vocis exprimere nisus valet, nisi vocales exitum dederint atque ora reserarint) dispari inter se oris officio exprimuntur, nam prima exploso e mediis labiis sono, sequens compresso ore velut introrsum attracto vocis ictu explicatur; Martianus Capella iii. 26 I B labris per spiritus impetum reclusis edicimus . . P labris spiritus [spiritu Eyss.] erumpit; we may add the remark of Terentius Scaurus vii. 14. 3 K. $b$ cum $p$ et $m$ consentit, quoniam origo earum non sine labore conjuncto ore respondet.
80. bs, bt. Latin bs had the sound of Greek $\psi$ (Vel. Long. vii. 6r K.), and was one of the sounds for which the Emperor Claudius proposed a new letter, on the ground that a separate sign for $c s(x)$ justified a separate sign for $p s$. The general opinion however pronounced this new letter unnecessary. Some even went so far as to question the necessity of $x$ (Quint. i. 4. 9 nostrarum ultima [sc. x], qua tam carere potuimus, quam psi non quaerimus). The spelling $a b s$ is defended on the strength of $a b$ by Velius Longus (vii. 6i K.), who also tells us that some authorities always spelt opstitit, absorpsi, urps, nupsi, pleps (id. vii. 64 and $73-4$ K. ) (ef. Mar. Vict. vi. 2 I. 10 K. . Ter. Scaur. vii. 14. 7 ; 21. 8 K.). It was Varro who laid down the rule that nouns with $-p$ - in the Genitive should have -ps in the Nominative, nouns with $-b$ - should have -bs, e. g. Pelops, Pélơpis, but plebs, plēbis, urbs, urbis (Ter. Scaur. vii. 27. ir K. ; cf. Varro, L.L. x. 56). [So in the Appendix Probi : (198.4 K. and 199. 4) celebs non 'celeps'; (199. 3 ) plebs non 'pleps'; (199. ir) labsus non 'lapsus.'] That oltinnuit was pronounced optinuit, we are told by Quintilian (i. 7 7): secundam enim b litteram ratio poscit, aures magis audiunt $p$. The spellings $p s, p t$ are common enough in MSS. and inscriptions (see Indices to C.I.L.) [cf. Obscus, Opscus and Opicus, old forms of Oscus (as supscribo, subscribo of suscribo), Fest. 212 and 234 Th. ; and see Georges, Lex. Wortf., s.v. cambsi, campsi]. Curtius Valerianus (ap. Cassiod. I57 K.) says ps belong to the same, $b s$ to different syllables. In the Lex Col. Jul. Genetivae Urbanorum of 44 в. c. $o p$ - is used in opsaepire, optemperare, opturare, optinere, but always ab-, never ap(Eph. Epigr. ii. pp. 122 and 221). Absinthium (vulgar absentium), absida late Lat. for apsis follow the analogy of abs.
§ 81. ps, pt. In Romance the sounds of Latin pt and ps have been retained in Roumanian, but in other languages have passed into $t t$, ss, e. g. Ital. sette (Lat. septem), cassa (Lat. capsa), esso (Lat. ipsě), medesimo (Vulg. Lat. *met ipsimus, O. Fr. medesme, Fr. même). Isse for ipse found its way into colloquial Latin (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.), though, if the story mentioned, but discredited, by Suetonius (Aug. 88), be true, the use of issi (or ixi ? )' ${ }^{1}$ for $i p s i$ by a 'legatus consularis'led to his being cashiered by Augustus as 'rudis et indoctus.' Cf. sussilio for supsilio, subsilio; and for some examples of ss for $p s$ in MSS. and late plebeian inscriptions, see Schuchardt, Vok. i. 148 ; for $t t, t$ for $p t$, ib. i. 143, and see Georges s. vv. scratta, septimus. The lap-dog, the subject of one of Martial's prettiest epigrams (i. Icg) was called Issa (i. e. ipsa in the sense of domina), ' M'lady.' Its master had made a painting of it : in qua tam similem videbis Issam, Ut sit tam similis sibi nec ipsa.

[^21]§ 82. bm, mb. Ommentans was the spelling in a line of Livius Andronicus' translation of the Odyssey (ap. Fest. 218. 14 Th. aut in Pylum deuenies aut ibi ommentans. Cf. G1. Plac. ommentat: expectat. Amnĕgo occurs on inscriptions (C. 1. L. vi. 14672) ; amnuo in Glosses (Löwe, Prodromus, p. 421). (On ämitto, submitto, pronounced summitto, \&c., see Brambach, Hülfsb. ${ }^{3}$ pp. 16-18. On $m b$ becoming dialectally $m m$, see § 7 r .
§ 83. b and dialectal f. Alfius was the dialectal, Albius the Latin form of the name. The two forms are found, for example, on Interamna inscriptions (Albius, C. I. L. xi. 4240 , Alfia, 4242). So with other proper names like Orbilius and Orfilius. Sifilus, a mispronunciation of sibilus, censured in the Appendix Probi (199. 3 K. ; cf. Non. 531. 2), was a dialectal variety ; similarly scröfa a sow has been connected with scröbis. In glosses we find crefrare with cribrare, bufus with būbo (Löwe, Prodr. p. 421), and in modern Italian sufilare (cf. Fr. siffler) beside sibilare (Lat. sibilure), tafano (Lat. tăbänus), \&c. (other examples in Arch. Glott. Ital. x. I).
$\S 84 . \mathrm{b}$ and m . B became $m$ in Latin before $m, n$ (cf. summitto, amnego, above). But glŏmus and glöbus (cf. Probi App. 198. 8 globus non 'glomus') are two different stems, globus, -i and glomus, eris (see Rom. Forsch. vii. 217).
§ 85. D, T. We have clear evidence that Latin $n$, the dental nasal, was, like our $n$, not a pure dental (see § 6r). The dental mutes, $l$ the voiced dental, $t$ the unvoiced, cannot then have been pure dentals either. The Latin phoneticians speak of Latin $d$ and $t$ as differing in more respects than the mere presence or absence of what is technically called 'voice'; though the suspicion under which they stand of being unduly influenced by their Greek authorities makes them uncertain guides. In Italian, $t$, e. g. tu (Lat. $t \bar{u}$ ), $l$, e. g. dono (Lat. $\lambda \bar{o} n o$ ) are both pure dentals, differing like any other unvoiced and voiced mute. But there is on Italian soil a curious sound, a cacuminal $\lambda$, exemplified by Sicilian cavaḍḍu (Lat. căballus), on which see Meyer-Lübke, Ital. Gram. § 264.

Both $l$ and $r$ are sounds closely related to $l l$, the position of the tongue, \&c., being very similar in the formation of all three sounds. In $d$ there is a complete closure of the mouth passage ; in $l$ the middle of the passage is closed, but the sides are left open; in $r$ there is an opening in front at the tip of the tongue: Through neglect of the side closure $d$ has passed into $l$ in words like lăcrüma (older dacruma) (see ch. iv. § III); through neglect of the front closure it passed into $r$ in Old Latin in words like arfuise (later alfuisse) on the Senatus Consultum de Bacchanalibus (C.I. L. i. 196, of 186 в.c.) before the bilabial spirants $f$ and $v$
(see ch. iv. § i12). A fifth (?) century grammarian speaks of the mispronunciation peres for pèllès as one specially affected by the poorer classes at Rome in his time (Consentius v. 392. 1.5 K.); and the same change of sound is still found in dialects of Italy. In Naples, for example, pere is the word used for 'foot' to this very day. Before $r, d$ seems to have been changed to $t$, e.g.
 spellings like Alexanter, Cassantra, which Quintilian tells us he had noticed on old inscriptions at Rome (i. 4. 16), and which is found on Praenestine cistae (see § 73). Of $d r, d l$, \&c. we are told 'nullo modo sonare d littera potest' (Cassiod. 15 I K. ; 207 K.). Before $l, t$ could not be pronounced, but passed into the sound of $c$, just as the phrase 'at least' often takes with us the sound 'a cleast.' The I.-Eur. suffix -tlo had on this account become -clo in Latin words like pĕrīclum (ch. v. § 25) ; and when at a late period the Latin suffix -tulus became contracted by the syncope of the penult, it was changed to -clus, vétưlus, for example, becoming veclus (Ital. vecchio). Another change of $l$, namely its tendency to be assimilated by a preceding $n$ in words like distenno for distendo is discussed in $\S 7 \mathrm{I}$, and its assimilation in compounds like adtïneo, pronounced attineo, adsum, pronounced assum, in ch. iv. § 160 . The most important changes of $\lambda, t$, however, are those which these letters experienced when they were followed by $i$ before another vowel. The same syncope that reduced vetulus to veclus, cŭlŭda to calda, made 'Tityus' out of Tritius, 'hodye' out of hơdie. Through this combination of $y$ with a preceding consonant in unaccented syllables, a new series of sounds, unknown in Latin, has arisen in Romance. Latin simia has become French singe (through *simya), Latin apium Fr. ache (*apyum), Lat. răbies Fr. rage (*rabyes), Lat. cambiare Fr. changer (*cambyare). $D y$, as we saw before (§51), became identified with $g i, g e$, and Latin $j$ (our $y$ ), and has assumed in Italian the sound of our $j$, e.g. Ital. giorno from Lat. diurnus; while ty has developed in Italian into the sound of $t s$, a sound reduced in French to an $s$-sound, in Spanish to a sound like our th in 'thin' (written in Spanish z), e.g. Ital. piazza, Fr. place, Span. plaza, all from Latin plătea, *platya. The grammarians of the later Empire have fortunately left us a good many remarks on the
palatalization of $t$, so that we can trace pretty clearly the course of its development in Latin. It seems from their accounts to have begun in the fourth cent. A.D., and to have been fairly established by the fifth ; and this is confirmed by other evidence, such as the fact that in the Latin loanwords in Welsh (borrowed during the Roman occupation of Britain which ceased in the fifth cent.), $t y$ has not become an $s$-sound. About the same time cy became assibilated ; and so confusions of $-c i$ - and $-t i$ - before a vowel are common in late inscriptions and in MSS.
§ 86. Phonetic descriptions of d, t . Terentianus Maurus makes the back of the tongue come into play in the formation of $d$, which would make Latin d to have been what phoneticians call 'dorsal' $d$ (from Lat. dorsum, the back), like the $d$ of Central and S. Germany. Seelmann understands $t, l, r$, and $n$ also to have been dorsal sounds. Ter. Maur. vi. 33r. 199-203 K. :

> at portio dentes quotiens suprema linguae pulsaverit imos modiceque curva summos, tunc $d$ sonitum perficit explicatque vocem; $t$, qua superis dentibus intima est origo, summa satis est ad sonitum ferire lingua.

Similarly Marius Victorinus speaks of the two sounds as having marked difference in their formation (vi. 33.24 K .) : d autem et $t$, quibus, ut ita dixerim, vocis vicinitas quaedam est, linguae sublatione ac positione distinguuntur. nam cum summos atque imos conjunctim dentes suprema sui parte pulsaverit, d litteram exprimit. quotiens autem sublimata partem, qua superis dentibus est origo contigerit, $t$ sonore vocis explicabit. They represent the formation of $t$, in conformity with what we have already learned about $n$, as the contact of the tongue with the alveolars, or gums of the upper teeth, whereas in uttering $d$ both the lower and the upper teeth are touched by the tongue, which is so bent down as to touch the lower teeth with its tip, and the upper with its blade. Martianus Capella (iii. 26I) : D appulsu linguae circa superiores dentes innascitur. . . T appulsu linguae dentibusque impulsis extunditur [extruditur Eyss., extuditur MSS.].
§ 87. $d$ and 1 . In some Italian dialects $d$ in the Latin suffix - $\begin{aligned} & d u s \\ & \text { becomes } l \text { if }\end{aligned}$ the stem ends in a labial. Thus Lat. ťeprdus is in the Neapolitan dialect tiepolo. Some examples of $l$ for $d$ in MSS. and late inscriptions are collected by Schuchardt, Vok. i. 142.
§ 88. d and r. In the Abruzzi (the ancient country of Oscan and Sabellian tribes) we find $\tilde{d}$ (English th in 'there') and $r$ for Latin $d$, e. g. đicere and ricere (Lat. dicere), đa and ra (Lat. dat). The close connexion of $\hbar$ with $r$, as phases of $d$, we see from Spanish, where in the literary language $d$ has assumed the $d$-sound in words like ' Madrid,' while in the Andalusian dialect this $\boldsymbol{t}$ has sometimes developed into $r$, e. g. soleares, sometimes been dropped e. g. naa, for *nada. Final $\begin{gathered}t \\ \text { is weakly pronounced in Spanish, and often dropped ; and }\end{gathered}$ the same is true of the Galician dialect of Portuguese, e.g. bondá (Iat.
bŏntututem). In Provençal too Latin $d$ became đt and was dropped when final. All this throws light on the Umbrian treatment of I.-Eur. $d$, which in the middle of a word is expressed by a peculiar sign in the Umbrian alphabet (conventionally written $\pi$ or $\check{r}$ ), a sign rendered in Latin characters by $r s$, e.g. kapiđe, capirse (Lat. cŭpĭdi, Dat. of capis, a bowl), and which seems to interchange with $r$, e. g. tertu and teđtu (Lat. dŭto, or rather *dĕdato), but which at the end of a word is often dropped, e. g. asam-a and asam-ađ (Lat. ad äram, or rather *aram add, always when a long vowel precedes, e. g. pihaclu (Lat. piācưlo, older puācolōd, Abl.). Not unlike is the Latin treatment of $d$, with the occasional change to $r$ on the one hand, and the loss of final $d$ after a long vowel [e.g. $\operatorname{piacolō}(d)$, but $q u o ̆ d]$ on the other. In Italian $d$ is always dropped in
 two vowels is liable to the same thing ; e.g. Latin mĕdulla is in Spanish meollo, in French moelle, though in Italian it is midolla; Italian preda (Lat. prael(a) is in Sardinian prea, \&c.
§ 89. tl. Veclus for rětưtus, viclus for vitǔluts, capiclum for căpitưlum, were mispronunciations in vulgar speech (Probi App. p. 197. 20 and 198. 34 K.). Stlis the old form of $l \bar{i} s$ (Quint. i. 4. 16) is spelled sclis on inscriptions (e. g. C.I.L. x. 21 I and 1249). Caper censures the use of sclataris for stlätēris, a pirate ship, marculus for martülus, a priest of Mars (vii. 107. у ; 105. 21 K.). (For examples of $c l$ for $t l$ in MSS. and late inscriptions see Schuchardt, Vok. i. i6o.)
§ 90. Assibilation of ty, dy. In the fourth cent. we have an indication that $t i$, $d i$ before a vowel were in process of change. Servius (in Don. iv. 445. 8-12 K.) tells us that they often pass into a sibilus (which need not imply an $s$-sound) when in the middle of a word, though often they retain a pronunciation in accord with their spelling (etiam sic positae sicut dicuntur ita etiam sonandae sunt, ut 'dies' 'tiaras'). The same grammarian, in a note on Virgil, Georg. ii. 126, remarks that the Greek word Mélǐa must be pronounced in Greek fashion sine sibilo, that is to say without that consonantal $y$-sound which Latin měrlius, media had in the time of Servius, that 'pinguis sonus' of $i$ which the grammarians, as we saw before (§ 14), declared to be particularly alien to Greek pronunciation. In the early part of the fifth cent. Papirian (MS. 'Papirius') is more explicit. The letters $t i$ before a vowel, in words like Tatius, ötia, justititia, have, he says, a sound as if $z$ (i. e. Greek $\zeta$, which had at this time the soft or voiced $s$-sound) were inserted between them (ap. Cassiodor. vii. 216. 8 K .) : ‘justitia’ cum scribitur, tertia syllaba sic sonat quasi constet ex tribus litteris $\mathrm{t}, \mathrm{z}, \mathrm{i}$. This, he points out, is the case only when $t i$ is followed by a vowel, and not always even then, not, for example, in Genitives like otii nor when $s$ precedes $t i$, e. g. justius, castius. In the same century Pompeius censures as a fault the very pronunciation allowed in the preceding century by Servius, whereby $t i, d i$ were pronounced as spelled. He lays down the rule (v. 286. ro K.) : quotienscumque post ti vel di syllabam sequitur vocalis, illud ti vel di in sibilum vertendum est . . . ergo si volueris dicere ti vel di, noli, quem ad modum scribitur, sic proferre, sed sibilo profer. He goes on to say that this pronunciation is not found with initial $t i, d i$; nor with the combination sti; for' here 'ipsa syllaba a litteris accepit sibilum,' a remark which shows pretty clearly that Pompeius understands by sibilus an $s$-sound, cf. v. so4. 6 K . si dicas 'Titius,' pinguius sonat [i] et perdit sonum suum et accipit sibilum. $\quad$ grammarian of the fifth cent.(?),

Consentius ( 395.3 ), describes the new sound of $t i$ in ettiam as 'breaking something off the middle syllable' (de media syllaba infringant). He, like Pompeius, declares the old pronunciation to be a 'vitium,' and tells us that the Greeks in their anxiety to correct this fault were apt to go to the extreme of giving the new sound to $t i$ even when not followed by a vowel, e. g. in optimus (mediam syllabam ita sonent quasi post t , z graecum ammisceant). Finally Isidore in the seventh cent. tells us (Orig. i. 26. 28) that justitia 'sonum z litterae exprimit,' and (xx. 9. 4) that the Italians of his time pronounced hŏdie as ozie. The spellings on inscriptions confirm this account of the grammarians, though, as was to be expected, the assibilation shows itself on plebeian inscriptions even earlier than the fourth cent., e. g. Crescentsian(us) (Gruter, p. 127, vii. I, of 140 A. D.), and even in the case of accented $t i, d i$; Isidore's statement about the pronunciation of hodie (now oggi) is perhaps supported by oze (C.I.L. viii. 8424): z (= zes, for dies) (C.I. L. v. r667), \&c., this $z$ being pronounced like our $z$ in 'amaze.' But dy-first passed through the stage of $y$, unlike $t y$-(see ch.iv. § 62), and this $z$ may be merely an attempt to express the $y$-sound. Seelmann, p. ${ }^{23}$, gives a list of these spellings. Some may be dialectal, for in Oscan we have on the Bantia tablet ( $Z v .23$ r) Bansa(Lat. Bantia), zicolo- (Lat. diēcula) (pronounce $\boldsymbol{z}$ as above); and in Etruria the assibilation of $t y$ seems also to have been known (see Sittl, Lok. Verschiedenheiten, p. ir) ; Marsus (ef. Martses Abl. Pl. on a Marsic inscr.) was the native name for Martius. The rationale of the change of sound is easy. While forming the $t$-sound the tongue unconsciously adapted itself to the position for the $y$-sound, so that the interval between the two letters was bridged over by a glide-sound which the Latin grammarians compare to Greek $\zeta$, like the connecting $p$ in the group $m p t$, from original $m t$, in words like emptus. (For a full account of the process see $K . Z$. xxix. i sqq., especially p. 48. On the interchange of $t i-$ and $c i$-, see § 94.)
§ 91. K, C, G, QU, GU. What we call Guttural Consonants are more properly divided into (I) Gutturals proper, or Velar Gutturals, or simply 'Velars,' formed by the back of the convex surface of the tongue against the soft palate or velum, and (2) Palatals, formed by the middle of the convex surface of the tongue against the hard palate ; and these two classes, which are also called back gutturals and front gutturals, might be still further subdivided according as the sound is made more to the back, or more to the front of the mouth. The Velars and Palatals may be found side by side in a language. German ch, for example, with a broad vowel like $o, a$, is a velar, e.g. 'ach,' but with a narrow vowel like $i$, in such a word as 'ich,' it is a palatal, being spoken more in the front of the mouth, so that it often sounds like English sh. Italian ch of chi, chiesa, is spoken more in the front of the mouth than $c$ of casa, and the same is true of Engl. $k$ of ' key' compared with $c$ of 'caw.' The
distinct lines of development which the Latin gutturals, $c(k), g$, took before broad and before narrow vowels, makes it possible, or even probable, that in Latin, as in Italian, $c$ in centum had a more palatal sound than $c$ in cantus, contus, \&c., although this distinction is not mentioned by any of the Roman grammarians. The only guttural of which they give us a clear account is $q u$, in which the $u$-element seems to have been more of a vowel than Latin $v$ (our $w$ ). A first century grammarian (Vel. Long. vii. 58. 17 K.) makes the difference to consist in the latter being sounded 'cum aliqua aspiratione,' i.e. as a consonantal spirant, not as a half-vowel, like $u$ of quis, and in the fourth century $u$ of quŏniam, quŭdem is said to be ' nee vocalis nec consonans' (Donat. iv. $3^{67}$. 16 K.). Priscian (seventh cent.) says the same of the $u$ of sanguis, lingua (i. 37), so that Latin $q u$, $g u$ must have had a sound very like their sound in Italian quattro, \&c. The palatalization of $c, g$ before a narrow vowel is found in all Romance languages, with the exception of a dialect in the island of Sardinia. It was also a feature of the Umbrian language, so that we should expect it to have appeared early in Vulgar Latin at least. But all the evidence points to as late a period as the sixth and seventh centuries A.D. as the time when the change of sound took place. No grammarian hints at a difference of sound in $c, g$ before a broad and before a narrow vowel, although the assibilation of $t i$ before a vowel is mentioned again and again. Greek transcriptions of Latin words with $c$ invariably reproduce it by $\kappa$, in cases like KHNDON for censum, KPHEKHNS for crescens; Latin loanwords in Welsh (first to fifth centuries) show that Latin $c$ was hard in all positions, e.g. Welsh cwyr (Lat. cēra), ciwdawd (Lat. cīv̌̌tätem), and similarly German Keller (Lat. cellärium), Kiste (Lat. cista); it is not till the seventh century that spellings like paze for puce (Muratori, 1915.3) assert themselves on inscriptions. At an earlier period, it is true, $c i(c y)$ before a vowel in unaccented syllables, and $t i(t y)$ in the same position, had been confused, so that $c i$ was written $t i$ in words like sōlātium, and expressed like genuine $t i$ a sibilant sound. But this proves nothing for $c$ in words like centum, cĭtra. $G$ before $e, i$ became (like $d y$ ) the $y$-sound, and is in the Romance languages indistinguishable from Latin $j$ (our $y$ ) (see § 51). The
group ct has become $t t$ in Italian, e.g. Ottobre, Lat. Octōbris, and had assumed the sound in late Latin, to judge from spellings on inscriptions like lattuca in the Edict of Diocletian, Otobris (Rossi 288, of 380 A. D.) and autor.

§ 92. Phonetic descriptions of the Gutturals. Ter. Maur. vi. 33r. 194-205 K. : utrumque latus dentibus applicare linguam c pressius urget : dein hinc et hine remittit, quo vocis adhaerens sonus explicetur ore. g porro retrorsum coit et sonum prioris obtusius ipsi prope sufficit palato. . . . k perspicuum est littera quod vacare possit et $q$ similis; namque eadem vis in utraque est.

Mar. Vict. vi. 33 . 20 K . c etiam et g , ut supra scriptae, sono proximae oris molimine nisuque dissentiunt. nam c reducta introrsum lingua hinc atque hinc molares urgens haerentem intra os sonum vocis excludit: g vim prioris pari linguae habitu palato suggerens lenius reddit . . [q, k] quarum utramque exprimi faucibus, alteram distento, alteram producto rictu manifestum est. Mart. Cap. iii. 26I ; G spiritus [facit] cum palato . . . K faucibus palatoque formatur . . . Q appulsu palati ore restricto. Ter. Scaur. vii. 14. 1 K. x littera cognata est cum cet $g$, quod lingua sublata paulum hae dicuntur. Bede (228. 21), in criticizing Donatus' remark, quoted above, on the pronunciation of $u$ in $q u$, explains him to mean that 'tam leviter tum effertur ut vix sentiri queat.' Pompeius (v. 104. 25 K .) calls the $u$ a 'pars litterae praecedentis.' Priscian (i. 6) seems to speak of it as the 'contractus sonus' of normal $u$; but the passage is corrupt and the meaning uncertain. The statement of the phoneticians that Latin $c$ was uttered with more energy of articulation than $g$, is confirmed by certain phenomena of the language, as has been shown in § 73 .
§ 93. qu, gu. In Oscan and Umbrian, where I.-Eur. qu had become $p$, Latin $q u$ is expressed in loanwords by $k v$ (Osc. kvaísstur, Umbr. kvestretie [Lat. quaestīrae]). In Faliscan the $q u$-sound is written ov (cu or $c v$ ) e. g. cuando. Greek transcriptions have normally $\kappa o v-$, e. g. Kovajpatos: but $\kappa o$ - is the earliest expression of qui-, e.g. Koıvкıos (C.I. G. ii. 770, of 196-4 в. c., see Eckinger, p. I20 sqq.). In the Augustan age when o before a final consonant was weakened to $u$ even after $v, u$ (ch. iv. $\S 20$ ), $q u, g u$ became before this $u$ reduced to $c, g$, which points to their being more like $c u$, $g u$ than $c v, g w$, relicus from reliquos (in the time of Plautus rellicuos, of four syllables), löcuntur, sěcuntur, extingunt. The grammarians of the first cent. A. D. were puzzled by the want of correspondence between Nom. Sing. ěcus, Nom. PI. equi, and reconstituted the Nom. Sing. as equus (in the time of Trajan) (Vel. Long. 59. 3 K. auribus quidem sufficiebat ut equus per unum u scriberetur, ratio tamen duo exigit); yuu in extinguunt, \&c., followed somewhat later. In the fifth cent. we find co definitely ousting $q u \check{0}$, and $g o$, gū̆, though $q u o ̆ ~ s e e m s ~ t o ~ h a v e ~ b e e n ~ p r o-~$ nounced cŏ as early as the beginning of the second cent. b. c. (see ch. iv. § 137). Grammarians find great difficulty in deciding which verbs should be written with -guo and which with -go. The rule they usually follow is to write -go when the Perfect has -xi, ungo, tingo (see Bersu Die Gutturalen). (A Vulg. Lat. *laceus for lăqueus is the original of Romance words for 'noose'
like Ital. laccio, Fr. lacs; cf. Probi App. 197. 27 K. exequiae non 'execiae'; Cassiod. 158. 15 K. on 'reliciae'). The spelling of the Pronoun qui in its various forms was also matter of discussion as early as the time of Quintilian. He tells us (i. 7. 27) that in his younger days the Dative Singular used to be written quoi to distinguish it from the Nom. qui, but that the fashion had since come in of spelling it cui: illud nunc melius, quod 'cui' tribus quam posui litteris enotamus, in quo pueris nobis ad pinguem sane sonum qu et oi utebantur, tantum ut ab illo 'qui' distingueretur. Annaeus Cornutus, Persius' teacher, tells us that at a much earlier period Lucilius laid down the rule that $q u$ should be used when a vowel followed in the same syllable, otherwise $c u$, and this rule he himself accepts. His comments on it seem to show that there was not much difference in the sound. 'Some,' he goes on to say, 'think we should spell as we pronounce, but I do not go so far as that' (ego non omnia auribus dederim). Then he adds, 'qui' syllaba per quiscribitur ; si dividitur, ut sit cui ut huic, per c (ap. Cassiod. 149. r K.). So Ter. Scaurus (first cent.), 27. 18 K . quis quidem per 'cuis' scribunt, quoniam supervacuam esse q litteram putant. sed nos cum illa u litteram, si quando tertia ab ea vocalis ponitur, consentire jam demonstravimus. c autem in dativo ponimus, ut sit differentia cui et qui. Velius Longus (first cent.) (75. ro K.) thinks it necessary to point out the distinction between ăquam Noun and ăcuam Verb. Another tendency that appears in late Latin is to make a short vowel before $q u$ long by position, as indeed any consonant followed by $u(w)$, e.g. Ital. Gennaio with double $n$ from *Jenwarius; aqua is scanned with the first syllable long by the Christian poets, and appears in Ital. as acqua (cf. Probi App. 198. 18 K . aqua non 'acqua'). A sixth cent. grammarian ventures to give this quantity to the word in a line of Lucretius, vi. 868 quae calidum faciunt aquae tactum atque vaporem, where, however, the MSS. read laticis. Lachmann proposed to read aquïe of three syllables, but was not able to prove that this form (like Horace's siliaae) existed in Old Latin (see Schroeder in Studemund, Studien, ii. 20). In Plautus and the older dramatists, where the short syllable of a word like păti, lŏci has a shortening influence on the following long syllable, so that the words may be occasionally scanned pătŭ, lŏcĭ (see ch. iii. § 42 ). a short vowel before $q u$ seems hardly to have had this shortening power, e. g. rarely (if ever) lŏqui. So to the ear of Plautus $q u$ almost made a preceding vowel long by position, unless we say that loqui, \&c., sounded to Plautus something like a trisyllable. At any rate qu can hardly have had merely the 'rounded' $k$-sound of Russian.
§ 94. $\mathbf{c}, \mathrm{g}$ before narrow vowels. That $c, g$ remained hard before $e, i, \& c$. (when a vowel did not follow), down to the sixth and seventh centuries A. D. we have a superabundance of proof. For the earlier period we may point to the fact that in Umbrian, where $c(k)$ before a narrow vowel became a sibilant, expressed by a peculiar sign in the native alphabet, the Latin $c$ was not used for this sound in inscriptions (from the time of the Gracchi) written in Latin characters, but a modification of $s$, namely $s$ with a stroke like a grave accent above it, e. g. dèsen (Lat. dĕcem), s̀ssna (Lat. cēna). That Plautus (who by the way was an Umbrian) makes a play ón the words Sōsia and sŏcius, proves nothing (Amph. 383) :

Ámphitruonis te ésse aiebas Sósiam.-Peccáueram :
nam 'Ámphitruonis sócium' dudum me ésse volui dicere.

He makes a play on arcem and arcam in Bacch. 943: atque hic equos non in árcem verum in árcam faciet ímpetum.
At Cicero's time the spelling pulcher, Gracchi with ch for supposed Greek $\chi$ is evidence that in declension of nouns and adjectives (acer, acris, \&c.) the $c$ did not change to a sibilant when it came to stand before an $e$ or an $i$, as it does in Italian (amico with hard $c$, amici with sibilant $c$ ). Varro (ap. Prisc. i. 39) quotes agceps (another spelling of anceps) as one of the words where the Agma-sound (the $n g$ of 'thing') was found in Latin before $c$ (therefore presumably hard $c$ ). In the first cent. A. d. Plutarch and Strabo render Latin $c$ before a narrow vowel by Greek $\kappa$, Kı«є́ $\rho \omega \nu, \& c$. None of the grammarians of the Empire hint at a variety of pronunciation for $c, g$, not even Priscian in the sixth cent. ; and all through this period we have Greek $\kappa$ for Latin $c$ in all positions (on documents of the sixth cent. $\delta \epsilon \kappa \iota \mu, \delta \omega \nu a \tau \rho \iota \kappa \iota, \& c$.), and on Latin inscriptions an interchange of $c, k, q$ (e.g. pake, C.I. L. x. 7173 : cesquet for quiescit, viii. ro91) (see Seelmann, pp. 342 sqq.). This interchange is not regulated by any principle. We do not find $k$ used for 'hard $c$,' $c$ for 'soft $c$ ' \&c., as would have been the case had there been a real difference of pronunciation. All the examples quoted for interchange of $c$ before a narrow vowel (not in hiatus) with a sibilant earlier than the sixth cent. in S. Italy, the seventh cent. in Gaul, are illusory (see G. Paris in Acad. Inscr. 1893, Comptes Rendus, xxi. p. 8r).
The evidence that Latin $c$ was what we call hard $c$ before $e, i$ down to a late period is thus overwhelmingly strong. But while holding to this fact we may make two concessions. First, that $c$ before $e, i$ was probably more of a palatal (like Italian $c h$ in chiesa) than a velar (like Italian $c$ in casa). This palatal character was more and more developed in the Romance languages till c became a sibilant. Since however this assibilation is not known in the Sardinian dialect of Logudoru, it may be that at the time of the occupation of Sardinia (c. 250 в. c.) Latin $c$ had still a velar character before narrow as before broad vowels. Second, that $c i$ (ce) before a vowel underwent the same process of assibilation, as $t i$ before a vowel did in the fifth cent. A. D., although interchange of spelling between prevocalic $c i$ and $t i$ before that time means merely that $c y$, ty were confused, as $c l, t l$ were confused (cf. Quint. i. 1 i. 6), not that both $c y$ and $t y$ expressed a sibilant sound. (For instances of the confusion see Schuchardt, Vok. i. pp. 154 sq., and consult Georges and Brambach s. vv. Mucius, mundities, negotium, otium, nurtius, Porcius, propitius, provincia, spatium, Sulpicius, indutiae, infitiae, condicio, contio, convicium, dicio, fetialis, solacium, suspicio, uncia, \&c. The earliest examples date from the second cent. A. d.) On Greek inscriptions Latin $c i$ and $t i$ are similarly confused, the earliest example being 'Apovkiavos ('A $\theta \eta \nu$. iv. p. 104) of 13 r a.d. In a Pisidian inscription (Journ. Hell. Stud. iv. p. 26), of 225 A. D., with Mapoıavos, the $\sigma$ (written C) is no doubt merely a confusion with the Latin letter $c$.
$G$ before $e, i$ may have been a palatal, rather than a velar, even earlier than $c$; for in Sardinian hard $g$ is not preserved as hard $c$ is in this position. At what precise period it was developed to $y$ we do not know. The Appendix Probi mentions as a mispronunciation 'calcosteis,' for calcostëgis, though this may be a case of that spirant pronunciation of Greek $\gamma$, like Tarentine $\overline{\text { dióos }}$ for $\boldsymbol{o x i} \boldsymbol{i} o s$, Boeotian $\mathfrak{i} \omega \boldsymbol{\nu}$ for $\mathfrak{\epsilon} \gamma \dot{\boldsymbol{\omega}}$. In the Romance languages it is treated exactly like Latin $j(y)$, e. g. Ital. genero, Span. yerno (Lat. gěner), like Ital. giace, Span. yace (Lat. jacet). It is dropped between two vowels in spellings like
vinti for viginti (C. I. L. viii. 8573), the precursor of Ital. venti, \&c. ; so trienta, (xii. 5399), \&c. (A.L.L. vii. 69. See the list in Schuchardt, Vok. ii. 461). Vulg. Lat. *mais is seen in Fr. mais, Ital. mai, \&c. But this dropping of intervocalic $g$ is found aiso before other vowels in late inscriptions and MSS., e. g. frualitas for frugalitas (see Schuchardt's list, Vok. i. 129), as in Vulg. Lat. eo (Ital. io, \&c.) for ego, just as in Italian and other Romance languages, every intervocalic $g$ when pretonic is dropped, e. g. Ital. reale from Lat. regalis. So $g$ in this position may have become a spirant (like $g$ of German Tage), just as intervocalic $b$ became a $w$-sound in the third cent. (§ 78 ).
§ 95. ct, tt. For examples see Schuchardt, Vok. i. I34; Rhein. Mus. xlv. p. 493, and consult Georges and Brambach s. vv. cottana, coturnix, setius (?), vettonica, pittacium, brattea, salapitta, virecta. So nictio, to 'give tongue,' of a dog who has picked up the scent, is spelled nittio in the lemma of Festus (p. 188. 1. 16 Th.), where he quotes the spirited line of Ennius, Ann. 374 M. :
nare sagaci
Sensit; voce sua nictit ululatque ibi acuta.
Autor, with autoritas, is censured in the Appendix Probi (198. 30 K .), and is found on late inscriptions (C.I.L. viii. 1423 ; cf. xii. 2058, of 49 I A. D.). For $n c t$, which became $n t$ by loss of the guttural, see $\S 70$. So mulcta became multa (Georges s. v.).
gm or at least Greek $\gamma \mu$ seem to have tended, like $l m$, to the sound $u m$. In Vulg. Lat. sagma was *sauma (Prov. sauma, Fr. somme), Isid. Orig. xx. $16.5^{5}$ sagma quae corrupte vulgo 'sauma' dicitur (v.l. salma; cf. Span. salma, Ital. salma and soma). Cf. Probi App. 198. ir pegma non 'peuma.' (For other examples, see Schuchardt, Vok. ii. p. 499.) For gn, see § 144.
§ 96. L,R. The liquids $l, r$ are, as we have seen (§ 85), closely connected with the voiced dental mute $d$. The tongue has a similar position with each of the three sounds; but while with $d$ the mouth passage is completely closed by pressure of the point of the tongue against the front, and of the edges of the tongue against the sides of the mouth, with $l$ the sides are left open, and with $r$ the front. The connexion of the three sounds in Latin is seen, as was before remarked, in the interchange of $l$ with $l$ in lingua, older dingua, \&c., of $d$ with $r$ in arfuisse for adfuisse, \&c., and, as we may now add, of $r$ with $l$ in words like caerūleus for *caeluleus, not to mention occasional occurrences of the dental nasal for $r$ or $l$, like Vulgar Latin menetris for mĕrëtrix, cuntellum for cultellum.

The grammarians give us a good deal of information about the pronunciation of $l$ in different parts of the word. It had a 'pinguis sonus,' or 'plenus sonus,' in two cases, ( I ) when it ended a word, or syllable followed by another consonant, e.g. sōl, silva, albus; (2) in combinations like $f l, c l$, e.g. flävus, clārus.

In contrast with this 'pinguis sonus' it has what is called an 'exilis' (or 'tenuis') 'sonus' (presumably its normal sound) in other two cases, viz. (1) at the beginning of a word, e.g. lectus, lāna, lupus, and especially (2) when it ends one syllable and begins the next, e.g. il-lŭ, Mĕtel-lus, al-lia [pronounced with two $l$ 's as in our ' mill-lade,' 'hotel-landlord' (see § 127)]. When we examine the development of Latin $l$ in the Romance languages we find the explanation of this distinction. In Italian, for example, Latin $l$, when initial, or when repeated, has the normal $l$-sound, e.g. lana, valle (Lat. vallis), pelle (Lat. pellis), but after a consonant $l$ has become an $l y$-sound, now reduced to $i$ (the halfvowel), e.g. chiaro (Lat. clārus), pieno (Lat. plēnus), fiume (Lat. flumen). At the end of a syllable before a consonant, it has in most Romance languages been reduced to a $u$-sound, e.g. Fr. autre, Prov. autre, Span. otro (Lat. alter), and so in parts of Italy, e.g. Sicil. autru, while in other parts it is represented by an $i$-sound, e.g. aitro in the Florentine dialect. All this points to $l$ in clārus, \&c., and $l$ in alter, \&c., having been pronounced with what phoneticians call an 'off-glide' and an 'on-glide' cllarus, $a^{l} l$ ter, which glides have been more and more developed in the Romance languages, till they reduced, or even completely extinguished, the $l$-sound. In Sardinian, which reflects the oldest type of Vulgar Latin, $l$ remains unaffected after a consonant to a large extent, e.g. klaru, plenu, flumen, so that this affection of $l$ may not have been begun in Vulgar Latin till about 200 b.c.

With regard to $r$, we should expect from the analogy of the Romance languages that Latin $r$ was trilled (i.e. formed with the tip of the tongue vibrating), like the German and Scotch $r$, not like English $r$ in 'red.' This is confirmed by the Roman name for $r$, ' littera canina,' the growling letter, Pers. i. 109 (Latin lirrio must have expressed the sound better than English 'growl'), and by Lucilius' description of it as like the growl of a lazy dog, or as he puts it, like 'what care I ?' in dogs' language (ix. 29, 30 M.) :

> r non multum abest hoc cacosyntheton atque canina. si lingua dico 'nihil ad me.'

This rough sound of Latin $r$ explains the reluctance of the Romans to begin two successive syllables with a consonant
followed by $r$, a reluctance seen in forms like praestigiae for praestrigiae, incrēbui for increbrui, and in spellings on inscriptions like propius for prŏprius. Before $s, r$ was assimilated, e.g. rūssus, rūsus for rūrsus, as we see from Plautus' pun on Persa and pessum (Pers. 740 Persa me pessum dedit). It was assimilated too before l, e.g. perlücio, pronounced, and often spelled, pellicio. Metathesis of $r$ (añd $l$ ) was as common in bad Latin as in bad English, as interipertor (? interpĕtror) for interpretor, coacla for cloãca testify, and other mispronunciations censured by the grammarians. Dr became $t r$ in Latin, e.g. ütrox (cf. ödium) (ch.iv. § II3). Neither $r$ nor $l$ remained unaffected by the palatalizing influence of $y$, that later sound of $\breve{\imath}$ in words like Jōnuārius, fŭcio, hödie, which worked so great a transformation of the language in the later period of Roman history. The palatalization of $r$ led to its disappearance in Italian, e.g. Gennajo (Vulg. Lat. ${ }^{*} J_{\text {en }}(u)$ aryus $)$, a process exemplified in earlier times by the form peiuro for periūro, while $l y$ has become the $l$ mouillée, written $g l$ in figlia, miglia (cf. our ' million'), bigliardo (our ' billiards '), and in some dialects, e.g. the patois of Rome and the neighbourhood, has sunk to $y$. Some spellings on late Latin inscriptions seem to be precursors of these changes of $r y, l y$. (On Umbrian $l$-, see ch. iv. § 85. )
§ 97. Phonetic descriptions of 1. Ter. Maur. vi. 332. 230-234 K.:
adversa palati supera premendo parte
obstansque sono quem ciet ipsa lingua nitens
validum penitus nescio quid sonare cogit,
quo littera ad aures veniat secunda nostras,
ex ordine fulgens cui dat locum synopsis;
Mar. Vict. vi. 34. го K : : sequetur 1 quae validum nescioquid partem palati, qua primordium dentibus superis est, lingua trudente, diducto ore personabit; Mart. Cap. iii. 26I 1 lingua palatoque dulcescit.
§ 98. of r. Ter. Maur. vi. 332. 238, 239 K. :
vibrat tremulis ictibus aridum sonorem has quae sequitur littera;

[^22]§ 99. The grammarians on the pronunciation of 1 . The earlies taccount (ap. Prisc. i. p. 29 H.) is that of Pliny the Elder, who gives $l$ three varieties of sound : ( I ) exilis : quando geminatur secundo loco'posita ut 'ille' 'Metellus '; (2) plenus : quando finit nomina vel syllabas et quando aliquam habet ante se in eadem syllaba consonantem ut 'sol' 'silva' 'flavus' 'clarus'; (3) medius, in other positions : ut 'lectus' 'lectum.' Similarly in the fifth(?) cent. Consentius (v. 394 K.) makes only two divisions ( I ) pinguis: cum vel b sequitur, ut in 'albo,' vel cut in 'pulchro,' vel fut in 'adelfis,' vel g ut in 'alga,' vel m ut in 'pulmone.' vel $p$ ut in 'scalpro' (2) exilis: ubicumque ab ea verbum incipit, ut in 'lepore' ' lana' 'lupo,' vel ubi in eodem verbo et prior syllaba in hac finitur, et sequens ab ea incipit, ut 'il-le' et 'Al-lia.' Not so clear is his account of the two mispronunciations to which ille was liable. The Greeks, he says, pronounce 'ille mihi dixit' subtilius as if ille had only one $l$; others pronounce 'ille meum comitatus est iter,' or 'illum ego per flammas eripui' pinguius, 'ut aliquid illic soni etiam consonantis ammiscere videantur.' Possibly this means that the Greeks made the double $l$ into one as we do in pronouncing Italian (see § 127), and that others (e. g. Spaniards) gave it the $l y$-sound that it now has in Spain, e. g. villa (Ital. villa), which is pronounced like Italian viglia. Diomede (i. 453.3 K.) remarks on the fault of pronouncing $l$ in lūcem or almam ' nimium plene.' Servius in Don. iv. 445. ${ }^{12-13} \mathrm{~K}$. calls it a 'labdacismus' (mispronunciation of $l$ ) to make a single $l$, e. g. Lūcius, too 'tenuis,' or a double l, e. g. Mětellus, too 'pinguis.' Pompeius (v. $286-287$ K.) makes the same remark, and explains it thus : debemus dicere ' largus' ut pingue sonet ; et si dicas 'lex,' non 'lex,' vitiosa sunt per labdacismum. item in gemino 1 , si volueris pinguius sonare, si dicamus 'Metellus' ' Catullus,' in his etiam agnoscimus gentium vitia; labdacismis scatent Afri, raro est ut aliquis dicat 1 : per geminum 1 sic locuntur Romani, omnes Latini sic locuntur: 'Catullus' 'Metellus.' His explanation would doubtless be intelligible to his auditors when accompanied by his oral examples of the different sounds; to us, who have to infer these, it is not so clear. All that seems certain is that initial $l$ had some distinction of sound from the $l$ of Mětellus, Cütullus, \&c., but whether this distinction consisted merely in the more emphatic articulation which every initial consonant received in Latin or in some other modification, such as the slight on-glide, which initial $l$ has in the Gaelic language, and which makes a word like long, a ship (Lat. longa sc. navis), sound almost like 'along,' it is impossible to say (cf. § 117 ; ch. iv. § 149). The sound of the initial is described as 'pinguis,' in comparison with the $l$ of Metellus, but as 'exilis' in comparison with the $l$ of clärus, alter, \&c. (See also Isid. Orig. i. 31. 8). In O. Engl. also there were three different kinds of $l$, ( 1 ) deep gutteral $l$, as in 'chalk,' (2) ordinary $l$, as in 'field,' (3) palatal $l$, as in 'whill)ch' (Paul's Grundr. i. p. 860). The fact that $e$ could become $a$ before $l$, but not before $l l$, in Latin (ch. iv. § ro) suggests that normal Latin $l$ was deeper, or less palatal, than $l$.
§100. of r. Varro (L. L. iii. fr. p. 146 Wilm.) mentions the rough sound ('asperum') of crux, ācre, vĕpres (also crura), beside voluptas, mel, lēna.
§ 101. Interchange of $r$ and 1 . On the confusion of flăgro and frăgro, and the misspelling of both as fraglo, see A. L. L. iv. 8. In Probi App. 201. 19 the distinction between the two words is carefully pointed out (cf. ib. 198. 9 flagellum non 'fragellum') (Ital. fragello). Pliny gave the rule for the
employment of the suffixes -lis and -ris, that -lis should be used when the stem contained an $r$, -ris when it contained an $l$, e. g. augŭräle, môlüre (ap. Charis. 135. 13; cf. Prisc. i. p. 132 H.). So too the I.-Eur. suffix -tlo-, Latin -clo-, became -cro- after a stem with $l$, e.g. lavacrum, fulcrum, simulacrum. The same tendency to dissimilation is seen in Vulgar Latin forms like veltrahus, beside vertrăgus (see Georges s. v., and cf. Prov. veltres, O. Fr. viautre), and pelegrinus (C.I.L. iii. 4222, \&c.), from which come the Romance words, Ital. pellegrino, Fr. pèlerin, our 'pilgrim,'\&c.; in the mispronunciations telebra (see Georges s.v.), censured in Probi App. 198. 2r K.; in the spellings of MSS. and late Latin inscriptions, collected by Schuchardt, Vok. i. r 36 sqq. (cf. meletrix, Non. 202. 13 ; 3 18. 6) ; in spellings on Greek inscriptions like Bapßı $\lambda \lambda \epsilon \iota a$, B $\alpha \rho \beta \iota \lambda \lambda o s$,
 p. ro7) ; in Romance forms like Ital. albero (from Lat. arbor), reclutare (our 'recruit'), Mercoledi (from Mercurrii dies), urlare (from ülŭl (are), which show that the same process is going on in modern, as in ancient, times on Italian soil. The town Cagliari in Sardinia was in Latin called Carales plur. or Caralis sing.; but we find byforms Calaris and Cararis. From Crustumeria, or Crustumium, we have the adjective-forms Crustŭminus and Clustuminus (Greek

§ 102. Parasitic Vowel with 1, r. The sounds $l, r$ were called 'liquidae' by Latin phoneticians, $\lambda, \mu, \nu, \rho$, viरfaí by Greek), because they united easily with a preceding consonant. Cf. Mar. Vict. vi. 20 eaedem autem 'liquidae' dicuntur, quando hae solae [he includes $m, n$ ] inter consonantem et vocalem immissae non asperum sonum faciunt, ut 'clamor' 'Tmolus' 'Cnosus' [MSS. consul] 'Africa.' But in Latin, especially after the time of Plautus, there was a tendency to facilitate the pronunciation of a mute followed by $l$, particularly when post-tonic by the insertion of a vowel, written on early inscriptions $o$, later $u$. Thus $p \overline{0}$-clum, which is formed with the I.-Eur. suffix -tlo(ch.v. § 25), became po-colom, po-culum. These forms with the parasitic vowel underwent at a later time the same process of syncope that reduced culluda to calda, Titius to Tityus, porcullus (from the stem porco- with the suffix -lo-) to porclus, and so resumed their earlier appearance poclum, \&c. Traces are not wanting of the same parasitic vowel-sound showing itself between a consonant and $r$. The development in Romance of a word like patrem, suggests that it must in Vulgar Latin have sounded almost like a trisyllable, *paterem (Meyer-Lübke, Rom. Gram. i. p. 25I) ; and the same is indicated perhaps by Varro's derivation of Gracchus, or, as he spelt it, Graccus (quasi *Geraccus), from gero, 'quod mater ejus duodecim mensibus utero eum gestaverit' (ap. Charis. 82. 7 K. ), certainly by spellings on inscriptions like Terebuni for Trëbön- (Eph. Epigr. i. ri6), though a good many of these may be dialectal. For this parasitic vowel was a marked feature of the Oscan language, and its kindred dialects, e. g. Oscan aragetud (Lat. argento Abl.), Pelignian Alafis (Lat. Albius). Bede cannot be right in explaining spondaic hexameters, like
illi continuo statuunt ter dena argenti,
as ending really with a dactyl and spondee, the last two words being pronounced 'denarigenti'; for it is not the case that all, or most, spondaic lines end in a word in which $r$ is combined with a consonant. But his description of the sound is interesting, though of course he is not to be regarded as an authority on Latin pronunciation, except when he is quoting from some older
grammarian. He says (p. 250. if K.), after instancing some spondaic hexameters ending with argenti, incrèmenta (!), respergebat, interfectae, intercepto, neque enim in quinta regione versus heroici spondeum ponere moris erat, sed ita tamen versus hujus modi scandere voluisse reor, ut addita in sono vocali, quam non scribebant, dactylus potius quam spondeus existeret, verbi gratia, 'intericepto' 'incerementa' 'interefectae' 'resperigebat' et per synalipham 'denarigenti.' quod ideo magis $r$ littera quam ceterae consonantes patitur, quia quae durius naturaliter sonat durior efficitur, cum ab aliis consonantibus excipitur ; atque ideo sonus ei vocalis apponitur, cujus temperamento ejus levigetur asperitas ; and he goes on to say that this use of a parasitic vowel between $r$ and a consonant was much affected by monks, when chanting the responses at divine service. At the same time it is possible that the existence of this parasitic vowel may explain another feature of Latin poetry, namely the optional treatment of a short vowel before a mute followed by $r$ as long by position. Plautus, who, as we have seen, avoided the parasitic vowel with $l$, as alien to the conversational Latin of his time, also refuses to allow the first syllable of a word like pătri, ăgri to be scanned long, though (see ch. iii. § 42 ) such a syllable is not so short as the first syllable of priti, cagi, \&c., for it cannot exercise a shortening influence (by the law of Breves Breviantes) on the following syllable. Plautus scans păť̆, ăğ̌, but only pătrí, ăgrī. In the same way he always scans vehíclum (the invariable form), cubiclum (though this last word is an exception to the rule in being usually quadrisyllabic, cubiculum), and never vehīclum, cubiclum. And this is the usage in all the dramatic poetry of the Republic. But Ennius in his Epic, Lucilius in his Satires, allow themselves such scansions as nĭgrum, lätrat, fibras, triclini ; and this suggests that in poetry, where the words were sounded with more deliberation than the rapid conversational utterance of the drama allowed, the presence of this parasitic vowel was felt to add another unit of time, another 'mora' to these syllables, so that they might on occasion be treated as long. Lucilius' scansion triclini (Inc. I45 M.), for example, reminds us of the form used by Varro, tricilinium (R.R. iii. 13. 2. So the MSS.), and the forms found on inscriptions trichilinis (C.I.L.ix. 4971 ; xiv. 375, 17, \&c.), should perhaps be replaced by the quadrisyllabic form. In the time of Servius the accent rested on the second syllable of maniplus, so that the word was regarded in ordinary conversation, either as being almost a quadrisyllable, or as having a penult equivalent to a long syllable (Serv. ad Aen. xi. 463 maniplis : in hoc sermone ut secunda a fine habeat accentum usus obtinuit); and the Vulgar Latin shifting of the accent from the first to the second syllable of words like tenebrae, \&c. (see ch. iii. § II), is no doubt to be justified in the same way; though in Servius' time it was not allowed in correct pronunciation (Serv. ad Aen. i. 384 peragro: 'per-' habet accentum . . . muta enim et liquida, quotiens ponuntur, metrum juvant, non accentum). This explanation of the optional scansion pätri, fäbrum competes with another (§ 142), according to which the consonant before the $r$ was doubled in pronunciation, as it is in modern Italian fabbro, \&c. (beside fabro), just as a consonant was doubled in later Latin before consonantal $u(w)$ in acqua (Ital. acqua), and before consonantal $i(y)$, the development of $l$, in Ital. occhio (Vulg. Lat. oc(u)lus), \&c. It is quite possible that the shifting of the accent to the second syllable of words like teneberae, may have had the effect of strengthening the sound of the mute. The doubling of the consonant in the
proparoxytone syllable is a feature of Italian, e.g. femmina, collera, legittimo (§ I3I).

The parasitic vowel between a mute and $l$ is generally wanting on Greek inscriptions, perhaps because the Greeks were more conversant with combinations like $\gamma \lambda, \tau \lambda$, \&c. than the Romans, e.g. $\Lambda \in \nu \tau \lambda o s, B \iota \gamma \lambda \in \nu \tau \iota \alpha$ (Lat. Vigilantia), and the syncopated forms of -ulus (as in porcu-lus, \&c.) are usual in the
 though it must be added that they mostly date from a time when Syncope had taken a strong hold of the Latin language itself. The Appendix Probi condemns several of these syncopated words (as he condemns calda, \&c.), including with them some whose vowel in the classical spelling is not original but parasitic: speclum, masclus, reclus, viclus (for vitulus), vernaclus, articlus, baclus, juglus, oclus, tabla, stablum, tribla, vaplo, capiclum. He also mentions mascel, figel, which may be South Italian, for the Oscan equivalent of famulus was famel (Paul. Fest. 62. I Th.). The early date of the parasitic vowel with $l$ is seen in the old Latin form piacolom, quoted by Mar. Vict. p. 12 K., and pocolom, the usual spelling on the Praenestine vases (C.I.L. i. 43 sqq.). Plautus seems to regard the use of these lengthened forms as a licence, only to be resorted to in cases of metrical necessity ; for they are found, especially when a long vowel precedes the syllable with $l$, only at the end of a line or hemistich, e.g. Capt. 740,
períclum vitae meaé tuo stat perículo (see ch. iii.§ i3).
(For the parasitic vowel in Greek loanwords with $m, n$ preceded by a consonant, see § 154.) Calicare, from calx, lime (Paul. Fest. 33. 8 Th. calicata aedificia, calce polita; ib. 4I. 21 calicatis, calce politis; ib. 53. i6 decalicatum, calce litum ; Gl. Cyrill. кovi $\omega$, decalico, calce albo ; C.I.L. i. i 66 basilicam calecandam), apparently the normal spelling, and to be read probably in the Placidus Glossary (60. 19 G.), (where the MSS. have decalcatis, de calce albatis), is not a case of parasitic vowel between $l$ and a following consonant (like Gk. Ka入ımopvtos), (Dittenb. Syll. 240 of 138 в. c.), and (on the edict of Diocletian) кa入ısıos. It merely retains the Greek loanword $\chi a \dot{\alpha} \wedge \iota \xi$ in its dissyllabic form, instead of syncopating it to its usual form in Latin, calx. (For examples of the parasitic vowel in misspellings on inscriptions. see Seelmann, p. 25I.)
§ 103. Avoidance of two r's. (See A. L. L. iv. i sqq.) The changes of $r$ to $l$ in Vulg. Lat. pelĕgrīnus, \&c., and the doubtful cases of $n$ for $r$, e. g. low Latin menetrix, may be considered as examples of this avoidance. The use of gnäritior for gnärior (not before Augustine), fĕrōcior, for *ferior, măgis vērus beside verior, magis mīris mŏdis (Plaut. Mil. 539) for mirioribus modis, dĕcentior for dĕcōrior in Quintilian and Tacitus, sanctior for săcrior, all exhibit the same tendency. Pompeius (283. I3 K.) mentions mamor as a mispronunciation of marmor ; and the form Mamers, Mamertini beside Marmar of the Carmen Saliare, also Fabaris; the Latin name of the Sabine river Farfarus, perhaps show the same dropping of $r$ in the reduplication-syllable. So too the form porrigo was preferred to *prorigo. On praestīgiae, from praestringo, to dazzle, crēbresco and its compounds (rŭbesco, is like pütesco, fromr a stem without r), see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. vv. On inscriptions, de propio (Îtal. propio and proprio) for de prŏprio occurs (Not. Scav. 1890, p. 170), propietas (C.I.L. ix. 2827 of 19 A. D.), \&c. (see Schuchardt, i. p. 21, for other instances). Vulg. Lat. *trono, to thunder, for tŏno
（Ital．tronare and tonare，Span．O．Port．Prov．tronar），has inserted $r^{r}$ for onomatopoeic effect；frustrum（Probus 199． 3 K ．frustum non＇frustrum＇）， found，with crustrum and pristris，in MSS．of Virgil（see Ribbeck＇s Index）and aplustrum（aplustre）for Greek á $\phi \lambda \boldsymbol{a} \tau \tau 0 \nu$ ：crētārias（Caper．1о8． 13 K．cetariae tabernae，quae nunc＇cretariae＇non recte dicuntur）by false analogy（see Schuchardt，i．2r for other examples：and cf．Fr．trésor from Lat．thēsaurus， beside Ital．tesoro ；Span．estrella from Lat．stêlla beside Ital．stella and（dial．） strella．In Italian we find the same tendency ；e．g．Federico，Certosa（Fr． Chartreuse），arato（Lat．ărätrum），frate（Lat．frätrem），deretano（Vulg．Lat． ＊deretranus from retro），\＆c．；gomitolo，a ball of thread，from Lat．glŏmus，shows the same suppression of one of two $l$＇s．
§ 104．rs．Velius Longus 79.4 says：sic et dossum per duo $s$ quam per $r$ dorsum quidam ut lenius enuntiaverunt，ac tota littera $r$ sublata est in eo quod est rusum et retrosum．Cf．Probi App．198． 29 persica non＇pessica＇（a peach）．［For other examples，see Georges，Lex．Wortf．s．vv．controversia（and other compounds of－versus，e．g．prosa），Marspiter，Sassina，Thyrsagetes，assa，\＆c．］ In the Sententia Minuciorum of 117 b．c．（C．I．L．i．199）we have controvorsieis， controvosias，suso vorsum，sursuorsum，and sursumuorsum，deorsum and dorsum side by side．Since double consonants are usually written single on this inscription （ posidebunt，posedeit，\＆c．，beside possiderent）controuosias probably represents the pronunciation controuossias．（On these spellings in Plautine MSS．，${ }^{\text {，see Ritschl，}}$ Prolegg．p．civ．）
§ 105．r－n．Menetris，a byform of merrětrix（see A．L．L．iii． 539 and cf．Probi App．198． 28 K ．meretrix non＇menetris＇）may have been influenced by münēre or Greek $\mu_{\epsilon ́ \nu}^{\nu} \omega$（cf．Non． $4^{23}$ ．ir M．menetrices a manendo dictae sunt）． Nor is cancer＇a clear case of＇Dissimilation＇for＊carcer＇Greek карк－ivos），seeing that a nasal in the reduplication－syllable is not unknown in other I．－Eur． languages，e．g．Greek $\gamma \quad \gamma-\gamma u ́ \lambda \lambda \omega$, cov－$\theta o \rho u ́\{\omega$ ， 0 ．Ind．cañ－curyate，cf．gin－grire． In the Gaelic language $n$ when following $c, g$ becomes $r$ ，such a word as $c n u$ ， a nut，being pronounced cru（with nasal $u$ ）．Some see this change in grōma． a land－measuring instrument，which they consider to be the Greek $\gamma \nu \omega \mu \omega \nu$ ． But other instances are wanting ；and $g n$－in Latin became $n$ ，not $g r$ ，e．g．nosco， nātus．（Cf．Probi App．197． 32 pancarpus non＇parcarpus＇）（see ch．iv．§ 80）．
§ 106．1－n．Nuscitiosus，＇qui plus videret vesperi quam meridie＇（Fest． 180. 21 Th．），and nusciosus，＇qui plus vespere videt＇（Löwe，Prodromus，p．17），are byforms of luscitiosus and lusciosus，which may be due to the analogy of nox． Leptis，＇filia fratris＇（ib．p．340）seems to be a byform of neptis．The Diminutive of colus，a spindle，was in Vulg．Lat．＊conuc（u）la（Ital．conocchia，Fr．que－ nouille）．A more certain example of $n$ for $l$ is the mispronunciation censured in Probi App．197． 24 K．cultellum non＇cuntellum＇（see below）（see also Seelmann，p． 327 ；Schuchardt，Vok．i．p．143）．When Latin $n$ follows $n$ in successive syllables we find $l-n$ in Ital．veleno and veneno（ $\mathbf{O}$ ．Fr．velin）from Latin věnēnum，Bologna from Bŏnōnia，Palestrina from Praeneste，Praenestinus， calonaco and canonico（cf．Ital．gonfalone，a banner，Fr．gonfalon，Span． confalon，O．Fr．gonfanon，Prov．gonfanons from O．H．Germ．grand－fano）．
$\S 107.1$ before consonant．For the $u$－affection of $l$ before a consonant，see some instances collected by Schuchardt，Vok．ii．p． 493 sqq．，e．g．cauculus for calculus in MSS．（cf．Georges）．In the Edict of Diocletian（弓⿱⿰㇒一乂厂，A．d．）we have

кavkovגatopı for calcullätōri. The letters L and I are so similar that spellings like sattem (le Blant. I. G. i.) may be nothing but a graver's error. On the other hand the Umbrian form of the Latin Volsiënus was certainly Voisienus; and in C. I. L. xi. 5389 and 5390 ( $=$ i. 1412) we have epitaphs of a father in Umbrian, and a son in Latin, with the father's name Voisieno- and the son's Volsieno-. In Probi Appendix 197. 24 K. the mispronunciation cuntellum for cultellum is mentioned. This treatment of $l$ before a consonant is found in Central Italy (Latium, Sabina, la Marche, and Umbria) in modern Italian, e. g. untimo for ultimo in a fourteenth cent. text (see Wien. Stud. xiv. 315 n.). Cf. muntu from Pompeii (C.I. L. iv. I593).
§ 108. rl. Velius Longus 65 . if K. per vero praepositio omnibus integra praeponitur, nisi cum incidit in 1 litteram, adfinem consonantem, quam elegantioris sermonis viri geminare malunt quam $r$ litteram exprimere, ut cum 'pellabor' malunt dicere quam perlabor. nec aliter apud Lucilium legitur
in praeposito per,
'pelliciendo,' hoc est inducendo, geminato 1 (Lucil. ix. 32 M. ;
'pellicere' malunt quam perlicere, unde et apud Virgilium non aliter legimus 'pellacis Ulixi' (see ch. iv. § r6o). In the Probi Appendix 198. i4 K. we have: supellex non 'superlex,' with the (marginal?) note utrumque dicitur. (On the late spelling superlex, see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.) The only example of $r l$ in the Indices of the Corpus is perlegere (vol. i).
§ 109. $r$ before consonants. $R$ is sometimes dropped before a consonant on Greek inscrr., e. g. Koata (Lat. Quarta) (C. I. G. add. 435I), इatavi入os (Brit. Mus. ii. 34 I , from Cos) ; and in Latin plebeian inscrr., we have misspellings like Fotunate (C.I. L. vi. 2236) for Fortūnātae (sometimes Fort-, i. e. Fort- with close o, see § 145 ). [Cf. the rude Faliscan inscr. Zvetaieff, Inscr. Ital. Inf. 63 with Maci Acacelini (as Votilia for Voltilia) for the usual Marci Acarcelini of no 62 , \&c.] But it would be unsafe to rely on these as evidence that Latin $r$ ever became the mere voice-glide which English $r$ always becomes when not followed by a vowel, e. g. in 'here,' 'hark' as opposed to 'herein,' 'harass.'
§ llo. final r. All final consonants were, as we have seen, weakly pronounced in Latin. Some instances of the omission of $r$ in spellings of inscriptions and MSS. have been collected by Schuchardt, Vok. ii. p. 390.
111. Metathesis. Quint. i. 5. 13 'Trasumennum' pro Tarsumenno, multi auctores; i. 5. 12 duos in uno nomine faciebat barbarismos Tinga Placentinus, si reprehendenti Hortensio credimus, 'preculam' pro pergula dicens. Examples from Plautus are Phyrgio, Aul. 508, corcotarii, Aul. 521. Consentius (392. 23 K.) censures perlum for prelum, reilquum for reliquum, interpertor for interpretor, coacla for cloaca, displicina (a schoolboy's joke surely) for disciplina: Diomedes (452. 30 K.), leriquiae for reliquiae, lerigio for religio (and tanpister for tantisper) ; Julian, in Don. v. p. 324. 18 K. intrepella for interpella; Probi Appendix has (199. 12 K .) glatri [leg. clatri ?] non 'cracli.' This late Latin cracli (cf. Probi App. 195. 23 K.) comes from *cratli as veclus (ib. 197. 20) from $*_{\text {retlus }}$ for vetulus. Clustrum for crustlum is found on inseriptions of the Empire (e. g. clustrum et mulsum, Not. Scav. 1877, p. 246 of second cent. A.d., cf. $\kappa \lambda$ ovarpothaкồs, Athen. xiv. p. $647 \mathrm{c}, \mathrm{d}$ ). Colurnus is the adjective from corulus. (On the confusion of fragro, flagro and the form fraglo, see A.L. L. iv. 8.) In Italian nothing is
commoner than this Metathesis with $r$. Thus in S. Italy crapa is used for capra (Lat. căpra), which reminds us of the statement of Paul. Fest. that the old Latin word for capra was crepa (33. 36 Th . caprae dictae, quod omne virgultum carpant, sive a crepitu crurum. Unde et 'crepas' eas prisci dixerunt. The Luperci, who wore goatskins and ran about striking people with goatskin thongs, were called crĕpi, ib. 39.34 K . crepos, id est lupercos, dicebant a crepitu pellicularum, quem faciunt verberantes) ; so interpetre for interprete (should we read interpetror in Consentius 392. 23 K . ?) ; and preta for petra is used in various parts of Italy; formento is Lat. frumentum, farnetico Lat. phrĕnēticus, \&c., \&c. For $l$ we have padule, a marsh (Lat. pălūdem) ; falliva beside favilla, fiaba, a fable, for Lat. fabla, fäbŭla. Paduan requilia for reliquia (should we read requilum in Consentius 392. 23 K . ?) is in Venetian leriquia (cf. leriquias of Diomedes $45^{2}$. зo K.) ; in many parts of Italy, grolia is used for gloria. [For some instances of Metathesis in late inscriptions and in MSS. spellings, see Schuchardt, Vok. i. p. 29 on Prancatius for Pancratius, padules for paludes (cf. Ital. padule), and Seelmann, p. 330 on Procobera for Porcobera, \&c.; and for examples in Latin byforms, see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s.vv. pristis, crocodilus, Trasumenus, trapezita, and Wölfflin, A. L. L. viii. 279 on accerso and arcesso.] The Latin Prōserpìna (C.I.L. i. 57 Prosepnai dat. case) for Greek Пєрбєфóvŋ (Pelignian Perseponas gen. case) may be due to the analogy of prōserpo; but Vulg. Lat. *alenare for ünhēlare (Ital. alenare, Fr. haleiner), *plopus for poplus, pōpŭlus, poplar-tree (Ital. pioppo, Roum. plop, Catal. clop) are clear cases of metathesis of $l$.
§ 112. ly. For misspellings on late inscriptions and in MSS. like fius for filius, see Schuchardt, Vok. ii. pp. 486 sqq. Some of them may be due to the confusion of the L and I (see above). Ital. giglio, a lily, seems to come from a form *lyilyum.
§ 113. ry. Servius ad Aen. ii. 195 approves pejuro for the Verb, but perjurus for the Adjective : in verbo $r$ non habet : nam pejuro dicimus, corrupta natura praepositionis: quae res facit errorem, ut aliqui male dicant 'pejurus' ut pejuro.
§ 114. F. The Latin phoneticians cannot be suspected of any influence from Greek sources in their account of $f$, a sound unknown to the Greek alphabet; so their description may be taken as a true account of the pronunciation of $f$ at their time, or possibly even at an earlier, the date, namely, of the treatise on Latin phonetics from which they seem to have borrowed. That time was probably the Augustan age. Their words leave no doubt whatever that $f$ was a labiodental spirant, as it is in Italian and most languages, formed by the upper teeth pressed against the lower lip, not a bilabial spirant, formed by the upper and lower lips pressed against each other :

[^23]The spiramen lene was more a feature of the normal $f$-sound when a vowel followed, than in combinations with consonants like $f r$, $f l$, as we learn from Quintilian, who, when discussing the more musical nature of the Greek language than the Latin, speaks of Latin $f$, especially in words like frangit (to a less extent when followed by a vowel), as rough and harsh compared with the softer sounds of Greek. This more vehement articulation of $f$ before a consonant explains the different treatment of the Latin spirant in Spanish, in words like haba (Lat. füba), humo (Lat. fümus), but fraga (Lat. frägum, *fraga). Quintilian's account does not mention the labiodental character of the sound (xii. ıо. 29 paene non humana voce vel omnino non voce potius inter discrimina dentium efflanda est), but is quite consistent with it. It is, in fact, very like the account given by phoneticians of our $f$, as 'formed with a strong hiss, by pressing the lower lip firmly against the upper teeth, and thus driving the breath between the teeth ' (Sweet, Handl. p. 41).

But it is highly probable that Latin $f$ was at some time bilabial, as it is to this day in Spanish, where $v(b)$ is bilabial too. Bilabial $f$ naturally tends to become labiodental, because by bringing the teeth into play it is possible to give a stronger and more distinct sound than can be produced by the lips alone. The voiced bilabial spirant $v$ has, as we saw before ( $\S 48$ ), become labiodental $v$ in Italian and other Romance languages. And we have some evidence of $f$ being still bilabial in the last centuries of the Republic from spellings like im fronte (C.I. L. i. IIO4), not to speak of comfluont beside conflouont on the Sententia Minuciorum of 117 b.c. (C.I.L.i. 199), and possibly from the fact that adl, in composition with a word beginning with $f$ (or $v, b, \& c$.) became in Republican Latin ar, e.g. arfuise on the S. C. de Bacchanālibus of 186 b.c. (C. I. L. i. 196). Another passage of Quintilian tells us of the difficulty felt by Greeks in pronouncing this thoroughly Roman letter (i. 4. 14 Graeci adspirare f ut $\phi$ solent). He illustrates it by the story of Cicero's ridicule of a Greek witness who could not pronounce the first letter of Fundänius. By the fifth cent. A. $\mathbf{D}$. , however, the Greek aspirate had become a spirant, differing from Latin $f$ only in being bilabial.
§ 115. Descriptions of the sound of f. Quintilian (xii. so. 29) : nam illa, quae est sexta nostrarum, paene non humana voce, vel omnino non voce potius, inter discrimina dentium efflanda est: quae, etiam cum vocalem proximo accipit, quassa quodammodo, utique quotiens aliquam consonantem frangit, ut in hoc ipso 'frangit,' multo fit horridior ; Terent. Maur. 332.227 K. :
imum superis dentibus adprimens labellum, spiramine leni, velut hirta Graia [i.e. $\phi, p-h$ ] vites, hanc ore sonabis, modo quae locata prima est;
Marius Victorin. 34. 9 K. f litteram imum labium superis imprimentes dentibus, reflexa ad palati fastigium lingua, leni spiramine proferemus; Mart. Cap. iii. 26I F dentes [faciunt] labrum inferius deprimentes. In the sixth cent. A. D., Priscian mentions as the only difference between Latin $f$ and Greek $\phi$, that the former was not pronounced fixis labris (i. p. 11. 27 H . hoc tamen scire debemus, quod non fixis labris est pronuntianda $f$, quomodo $p$ et $h$; atque hoc solum interest) [Blass, Griech. Aussprache ${ }^{2}$, p. 85 dates the change of Greek $\phi$ (written in Latin ph, or as Priscian puts it ' p et h '), from the aspirate to the spirant sound at about $400 \mathrm{~A} . \mathrm{D}$.$] . Two centuries earlier than$ Priscian, the difference between Latin $f$ and Greek $\phi$ seems to have been very slight, for Diomedes (fourth cent. A.D.), from whom, or from whose original authority, Priscian may be quoting, says ( 423.28 K .) : et hoc scire debemus quod $f$ littera tum scribitur, cum Latina dictio scribitur, ut 'felix.' nam si peregrina fuerit, pet h scribimus, ut 'Phoebus,' 'Phaeton.' $F$ is the normal equivalent of Greek $\phi$ in Greek loanwords from the middle or end of the fourth century onwards, e. g. strofa, Greek $\sigma \tau \rho \circ \phi \eta$ ' (see ch. i. § II).

The remark of Priscian (i. p. 35. ${ }^{1} 7$ H.) that F, the Aeolic digamma, used to have the sound of consonantal $v(w)$, probably refers to a fashion of some early grammarians of writing 'Fotum,' ' Firgo,' \&c., alluded to by Cornutus ap. Cassiodor. r48. 8 K. and by Donatus ad Ter. Andr. i. 2. 2 (see ch. i. § 7).
§ 116. mf. Mar. Victorinus ( 18.14 K .) : item consonantes inter se [invicem sibi succedunt], sed proprie sunt cognatae, quae simili figuratione oris dicuntur, ut est $\mathrm{b}, \mathrm{f},[\mathrm{s}], \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{p}$, quibus Cicero adicit v , non eam quae accipitur pro vocali, sed eam quae consonantis obtinet vicem, et anteposita vocali fit ut aliae quoque consonantes. quotiens igitur praepositionem sequetur vox cujus prima syllaba incipit a supradictis litteris, id est b, f, [s], m, p, v, quae vox conjuncta praepositioni significationem ejus confundat, vos quoque praepositionis litteram mutate, ut est 'combibit' 'comburit' 'comfert' 'comfundit' 'commemorat' 'comminuit' 'comparat' 'compellit' 'comvalescit' 'comvocat' non 'conbibit' 'conburit' et similia. sic etiam praepositio juncta vocibus quae incipiunt a supradictis litteris n commutat in m, ut 'imbibit' 'imbuit' 'imfert' 'imficit' 'immemor' 'immitis' 'impius, 'impotens.' He must be quoting from some grammarian of the Republic in his rule about $f$; for the usual teaching of the grammarians of the Empire is that the consonants before which $m$ is used are $b, p, m$; and Priscian, i. p. 3r. 2 H . quotes as early an authority as the elder Pliny to this effect (cf. Prise. i. p. 29. 18 H . ' am' praepositio f vel c vel q sequentibus in n mutat m : 'anfractus' 'ancisus' 'anquiro'). But the spelling with $m$ before $f$ (and $v$ ) was undoubtedly an old usage, of which such MS. spellings as comferre, Poen. 1048, comfragosas, Men. 59r in the Plautus Palimpsest, im flammam, Aen. xii. 214, comfieri, Aen. iv. II6 in Virgil MSS. may be relics. On the other hand since
inpěrātor is found both in early and later times beside imperator, and since the nasal may have been in pronunciation dropped before $f$ (cf. cofisse, corenere in Virgil MSS., Ribbeck, Ind. p. 393), the evidence of these early spellings is not conclusive.
§ 117. $\mathbf{S}, \mathbf{X}, \mathbf{Z}$. In the noun 'use' and the verb' to use' the letter $s$ has two different sounds, which we often call 'hard $s$ ' and 'soft $s$. . Hard $s$ is more scientifically termed 'unvoiced,' soft 'voiced' $s$, the two sounds differing exactly as the unvoiced and voiced mutes, $p$ and $b, t$ and $d, c$ and $g$. The Latin $s$ in a word like urls was hard or unvoiced $s$, we know from the frequently repeated statements of the grammarians, that the spelling urps expressed the pronunciation; while the spelling with $b$ was justified only by the analogy of other cases, urbis, $u r l i, u r b e m, \& c .(\operatorname{see} \S 80)$; and $p$ in sumpsi, hiemps tells the same tale. Initial $s$, whether in the accented or unaccented syllable, may also be put down as unvoiced $s$, since the Romance languages agree in giving it this sound (e.g. Ital. sì, Fr. si, Span. sì for Lat. $s i$; Ital. sudare, Fr. suer, Span. sudare for Lat. sudare), and similarly when $s$ is the initial of the second member of a compound, in words like Ital. risalire, Fr. résilier, Span. resalir from Lat. rěsulire, later resalire. None of the Latin grammarians ever suggest that Latin $\delta$ had anything but one and the same sound ; and their silence is evidence of some weight that the soft or unvoiced variety of $s$ was unknown in Latin. This voiced $s$-sound seems to have been the sound of Greek $\zeta$ in and after the Macedonian period (cf. ک $\mu \dot{\rho} \rho a \gamma \delta o s$ for $\sigma \mu \dot{\rho} \rho a \gamma \delta o s, Z \mu v \rho_{\nu} \alpha$ for $\Sigma \mu v ́ \rho \nu a$ ), which explains why Oscan voiced $s$, which corresponds to Umbrian and Latin $r$, is in those inscriptions which are written in Latin characters, expressed by $z$, e.g. eizac (Umbr. erak), eizazunc egmazum (in Lat. earum rerum) on the Bantia Tablet c. I3O в.c. Between vowels $s$ had at an early time in Latin (c. 350 B.c. according to Cicero, Fam. ix. 21. 2) become r, as it did in Umbrian ; and this earlier $s$ may very well have had in this position the voiced sound (ch. iv. § 146). Intervocalic $s$ in the classical and Imperial period is only found as a rule where there had been formerly some consonant combined with $s$, e.g. formösus earlier formonsus, causa earlier caussa, $\bar{u} s u s$ earlier ussus (see ch. iv. § 148). In such words $s$ has become voiced in many Romance
languages, e. g. Fr. épouse (Lat. sponsa), but only in those in which every Latin unvoiced consonant becomes voiced in this position. In Italian intervocalic $s$ is unvoiced, except in the few cases where Latin unvoiced mutes also become voiced, e.g. sposare, like mudare ( $\S 73$ ). There is hardly any evidence, therefore, that $s$ in classical Latin was in any circumstances pronounced like our $s$ in 'to use'; and the opinion, a widely spread one, that the change of spelling from caussa to causa, \&c., indicated a change from hard to soft $s$ is utterly wrong.

The pronunciation of double -ss- is discussed in § 131. Here we need only mention the curious practice that grew up in the later Empire of prefixing $i$ to initial $s t, s p, s c$, seen in spellings on inscriptions like istatuam (Orelli 1120 , of 375 A.d), ispose (i.e. sponsae C.I.L. viii. 3485), and in Romance forms like Fr. épouse. These last show that this spelling does not indicate an $s h$-sound of $s$ before a mute like German stehen (pronounced 'shtehen'), but that there was an actual $i$-sound before the $s$-sound, an $i$-sound which developed from a vowel-glide, due to beginning the word before the vocal-organs were properly in position for the initial consonant. These 'initial on-glides,' as phoneticians would term them, are a feature of Romance languages (cf. Greek द́pvӨ $\rho o s^{\prime}$ ), but not of Teutonic. We have already seen that there is some indication of initial $l$ having had an 'on-glide' in Latin (§ 99); and spellings on inscriptions suggest the same for other initial consonants. Can this have been the 'circa s litteram deliciae' which elocution teachers had to correct in their pupils (Quint. i. II. 6), just as singers are taught nowadays to avoid the 'breathy' gradual beginning of an initial vowel?

X had, as the grammarians repeatedly tell us, the sound of $c$ followed by the sound of $s$. The $c$ (as the $c$ of $c t, \S 95$ ), tended to be dropped after a consonant, whence the spelling mers in Plautus for merx; and in careless pronunciation $x$ in any position tended to ss (so ct became $t t$, § 95), as we see from forms like cossim for coxim, used in the farces of Pomponius (ap. Non. 40 M.). There are traces, too, of the substitution of sc for $c s$, e.g. ascella is the Late-Latin form of axilla. In Italian we have ss [as in ancient Pelignian, e.g. usur (Lat. uxōres), and
other dialects], for example, sasso (Lat. saxum), but before a consonant (as probably in Vulgar Latin), $s$, e.g. destro (Lat. dexter) (as in ancient Umbrian destra, \&c.). Latin loanwords in Welsh indicate cs, e.g. O.W. Saes for Latin Saxo, croes for Latin crŭx, but $s$ before a consonant, e.g. estron (Lat. exträneus), estynn (Lat. extendo).

Z of Old Latin had perhaps the soft or voiced sound of $s$, which passed into the $r$-sound about the time of Appius Claudius, the famous censor, when $z$ was discarded from the alphabet (see ch. i. § 5). Greek $\zeta$ differed from it in causing length by 'position.'

Final -s after a short vowel was weakly pronounced at all periods of the Latin language, and in the early poetry often did not constitute 'position' before an initial consonant, though by Cicero's time it was regarded as an essential of correct pronunciation to give $s$ at the end of a word its full sound.
§ 118. Phonetic descriptions of $\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{x}$ : Ter. Maur. vi. 332. 239-243 K. :
mox duae supremae
vicina quidem sibila dentibus repressis miscere videntur: tamen ictus ut priori et promptus in ore est, agiturque pone dentes, sic levis et unum ciet auribus susurrum.
Mar. Vict. vi. 34 . 16 K . dehinc duae supremae, $s$ et x , jure jungentur. nam vicino inter se sonore attracto sibilant rictu, ita tamen, si prioris ictus pone dentes excitatus ad medium lenis agitetur. Mart. Cap. iii. ${ }^{26 I}$ S sibilum facit dentibus verberatis. .. . X quicquid C atque S formavit exsibilat. Cledonius, v. 28. r K. s... sibilus magis est quam consonans.
§ 119. Latin s in Romance. Initial $s$ - becomes our $s h$ (cf. Ital. scimmia) in Venice and some other parts (similarly intervocalic $s$ becomes the voiced form of this sound, as in our 'pleasure'), and was possibly voiced $s$ in ancient Italic dialects (e. g. Faliscan Zexto- for Sextus (?)). On a late inscription of Tibur we have zabina (C. I. L. vi. 12236). Intervocalic -s- between the accented and unaccented vowels is unvoiced in Spanish (where however all sibilants are unvoiced), Roumanian and Italian, e. g. Italian mese (Latin ménsis) [mhzes on a Naples' inscription (C. I. L. x. 719), if it represent actual pronunciation, must have been a dialectal variety]. Italian sposa (with voiced $s$ and open o) is influenced by sposare (Latin spo(n)sare), where the $o$ and the $s$ precede the accent; the voiced $s$ of rosa is anomalous, but may represent Greek $\zeta$; or rosa may be a bookword and not a direct descendant of the Latin, for its French and Spanish forms too are irregular (Gröber's Grundr. p. 522). It is voiced in the other Romance languages, in which also (as in Spanish) unvoiced mutes between vowels become voiced, e. g. Fr. épouse (Lat. spo(n)sa), chose (Lat. causa) with voiced $s$, like O.Fr. ruede (Lat. röta, Span. ruede), vide (Lat. vitta, Span. vida). It is voiced also in North Italian. Intervocalic -s-
before the accented vowel is voiced in Italian, e.g. sposare (Latin spo(n)sare), precisely as any Latin unvoiced mute becomes voiced in this position; e. g. mudare (Latin mütare), pagare (Lat. pācare). So does any $s$ which by Syncope, \&c. has come to stand before a voiced consonant, e.g. sdegno (Vulg. Lat. disdigno), while in Spanish it has developed to $\vec{t}, r($ though written $s)$, e.g. desden.
§ 120. Greek $\zeta$, Latin z. The letter $z$, the Greek letter $\zeta$, was, as we saw (ch. i. § I), brought into use at Rome in the transcription of Greek words (and of those only) about the close of the Republic. Previously to that time ss had been used, e. g. massa (Greek $\mu \hat{a} \zeta \alpha$ ), which at the beginning of a word was $s$, e.g. Setus (C.I.L. i. 1047, 1299, Greek Z $\hat{\eta} \theta o s$ ) (Plautus makes this $s$ - alliterate with ordinary $s$-, e. g. sonam sustuli Merc. 925, solve sonam Truc. 954), and, if we are to believe the grammarians, $l$, e. g. Medentius for Mezentius. [But Septidonium a mispronunciation of Septizonium, a building at Rome (Probi App. 197. 23), seems to be a popular etymology from donum.] (Prisc. i. 49 y etz in graecis tantummodo ponuntur dictionibus, quanvis in multis veteres haec quoque mutasse inveniantur, et pro $v \mathrm{u}$, pro $\zeta$ vero...s vel ss vel d posuisse, ut... 'Saguntum,' 'massa' pro Zárvvөos, $\mu \bar{a}\lceil a, \ldots$. . 'Sethus' pro $\mathrm{Z} \hat{\eta} \theta$ os dicentes, et 'Medentius' pro Mezentius.) Blass, in his book on Greek Pronunciation, gives the history of the Greek sound as follows. The com-
 ('A $\theta \dot{\eta} \nu a s-\delta \epsilon$ ) was expressed by the letter $\zeta$ (the Semitic letter Sain, a symbol in the Semitic alphabet of voiced $s^{\prime}$, as the combination ks by $\xi$ (the Semitic Samech). This was the original use of $\zeta$. It came to be applied to the combination $d z$ (from $d y$ ), e.g. $\pi \epsilon$ §ós (for $\pi \epsilon \delta y_{o ́ s), ~ \zeta a ́ \pi \lambda o v t o s ~(f o r ~ \delta o a ́ n \lambda o v t o s) ; ~}^{\text {) }}$ and at this period came the transference of the Greek alphabet to Italy, with the result that in the Italic alphabets, Umbrian, Oscan, \&c., the $z$-symbol had the sound of $d z$ or $t s$. In course of time $d z$ came round to the sound of $z d$, so that $\pi \epsilon \zeta^{\circ}$ ós and $i \zeta \omega$ had now the same sound of $\zeta$. This $z d$-sound further developed into the sound of $z z$, or $z$, apparently in the Macedonian period; and so we find the town Gaza, whose Semitic name has voiced $s$ or Sain, written in Greek characters 「ája. This then was the sound which the Romans had to express in Greek loanwords, voiced $s$, not the earlier sound $z d$. Voiced $s$, as we have found reason to believe, was a sound unknown in Latin words since 350 в. c., which explains Quintilian's remark (xii. ro. 28 ; cf. Maxim. Victorinus, vi. 196. 3 K.) about the beauty of the sound of $\zeta$, and its absence from the Latin alphabet. To express it, double or single $s$ (the unvoiced $s$-symbol) was used by the early Republican writers and occasionally by later authors (e.g. saplutus, Petron. 37, for Sámえovros), perhaps even $d$ (with the sound of $t h$ in 'this'?), until a later age felt the necessity of employing, for the sake of exactness, the Greek letter itself, as they did also in the case of Greek $v, \phi, \chi, \theta$. The history of $\zeta$ is a common point of discussion among Greek grammarians who remark on its origin from the combinations $\sigma \delta$ and $\delta \sigma$, and their remarks are repeated by their Latin imitators, but need not be taken to imply that $\zeta$ had at the time of the Empire any other sound than that of voiced $s$ (Mar. Vict. vi. 6. 6 K. : Maxim. Vict. vi. 196. 3 K. : Audacis exc. vii. 327 K.). Thus Velius Longus (vii. 50.9 K.), in criticizing the remark of Verrius Flaccus: 'sciant z litteram per sd scribi ab iis qui putant illam exs et d constare,' states positively that $\zeta$ had not the sound of a double letter, unlike $\psi$ and $\xi$ : denique siquis secundum naturam vult excutere hane
litteram, inveniet duplicem non esse, si modo illam aure sinceriore exploraverit... et plane siquid supervenerit, me dicente sonum hujus litterae, invenies eundem tenorem, a quo coeperit. The interchange of $d y$ and $z$ on late inscriptions, e.g. baptidiata, Rossi i. 805, of 459 A. D., and in spellings like zabulus for diăboblus (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s.v.) implies merely that the spirant $y$-sound which $d y$ had come to take in Latin ( $\$ 5 \mathrm{I}$, cf. Madia for Maia) was felt to resemble the sibilant sound of voiced $s . \quad Z$ has however the $t s$-sound in alphabets derived from Latin, e. g. O. Engl. Bezabe 'Bathsheba.'
§ 121. Old Roman z, found in the Carmen Saliare (Velius Longus, vii. 5I. 5 K.), and according to tradition discarded through the influence of Appius Claudius, one would naturally suppose to have had the same sound as that of $z$ in the Umbrian, Oscan, and other Italic alphabets, viz. $d z$ or $t s^{1}$; so that Claudius might, like Papirius, Ruga, and other traditional reformers of spelling, have exemplified the new orthography in his own family-name by writing Claudius for an earlier *Clauzus. This would harmonize well with the fantastic remark of Martianus Capella, that Claudius objected to the letter because it gave the teeth the appearance of a death's-head (iii. 26x Z vero idcirco Appius Claudius detestatur, quod dentes mortui, dum exprimitur, imitatur), which happily describes the appearance of the mouth in uttering the $d z$ sound of our 'adze.' But this description will also suit for the voiced $s$-sound; and the contemporary change of intervocalic $s$ (voiced $s$ to $r$, exemplified in the new spelling of Papisius as Päpurius, as well as the use of $z$ for voiced $s$ on a very early coin of Cosa, suggests that this rather was the sound of early Roman $z$ (see ch. i. § 5 , though the matter is uncertain.
§ 122. Old Roman $\mathbf{s}(\mathbf{z})$, later r . The change of intervocalic $s$ to $r$ is a common one in various languages, and is generally taken to imply that the $s$ first became voiced $s$, then passed into $r$ (cf. Span. desden, see above). That Old Roman $s$ of Füsius, \&c. took this course is indicated by the fact that the Oscan sibilant, corresponding to Latin and Umbrian $r$, is in the inscriptions in Latin characters written $z$, and not $s$.
§ 123. Prosthetic vowel with st, \&c. For instances of the prosthetic vowel in MSS. and late inscriptions, see the list given by Schuchardt in Vok. ii. pp. $33^{8}$ sqq., who refers the earliest traces of its use to the second cent. A.d. It is written $i$ or e, e.g. istudium, estudium, sometimes $h i$-, he-, e.g. histudiis (often misread in MSS. as hisstudiis), rarely $y$, ae, and is often confused with the prepositions in, ex. Thus iscribere, escribere may represent either scribĕre or inscribere or exscribere. In late Latin where $a b$ is used before an initial vowel, $\bar{a}$ before an initial consonant, we find $a b$ normally before an initial $s p-, s c-, s t$-, even though the prosthetic vowel is not expressed in writing (A.L.L. iii. r49). Along with the dropping of this prosthetic vowel, and the restoration of the original form scribere, \&c., went the dropping of the initial $i$-, $e$ - of $i(n)$ scribere, $e(x)$ scribere, so that we get spellings like splorator for explörätor (Cagnat, Amn. Epigr. 1889, no. 55), Spania for Hispānia (see Schuchardt's list, Vok. ii. pp. $3^{6} 5$ sqq.). In Italian, a language in which almost every word ends in a vowel, the prosthetic vowel has been dropped, e.g. studio, and with it the genuine

[^24]initial vowels of words like Lat. histöria, Hispania, instrümentum, Ital. storia. Spagna, stromento or strumento. But after words like con, in, non (all ending in a consonant), both vowels are restored in pronunciation, so that the spelling con estudio, non estoria represents the actual sound. These forms studio and estudio (istudio), storia and estoria (istoria) are what are called 'doublets,' the one being used after a final vowel, the other after a (rare) final consonant; and that is, no doubt, the explanation of these double forms splorator, esplorator, \&c. on late inscriptions. In French, where consonant endings were far more preserved than in Italian, the prosthetic vowel remains, e.g.étude, écrire. It is before $s t-$, $s c-, s p$-, \&c., for the most part, that the prosthetic vowel asserted itself sufficiently to require expression in spelling; but its presence before other consonantal initials may be inferred from occasional spellings like ilocus, iveddere, imerito (misread in MSS. as immerito), \&c. (see the list of examples in Schuchardt, Vok. ii. pp. 360 sqq. ; some in MSS. are merely misreadings of critical signs). In Italian, where, as we have said, almost every word ends in a vowel, we could hardly expect this Latin pros. thetic vowel to show signs of itself. Indeed the tendency is rather for a genuine initial vowel to be suppressed under the influence of a preceding final vowel. Thus la apecchia, the bee (Lat. čpı̆cŭla) has become la pecchia, Lat. ecclēsia has become chiesa, ìnimīcus, nemico, and so on. Whether the same Procope is the explanation of the mispronunciation rabo for arrăbo, which Plautus puts into the mouth of the slave in the Truculentus, for the sake of poking fun at the Praenestines, it is impossible to say :

STR. tene tibi
rabonem habeto . . .
AST. Perii, 'rabonem.' quam esse dicam hanc beluam? Quin tu arrabonem dicis?

STR. 'a' facio lucri,
Ut Praenestinis 'conea' est ciconia.
We do not find mention of the prosthetic vowel by Latin grammarians till quite late times, which shows that however far it had developed in Vulgar Latin, it did not threaten to encroach on the speech of the educated classes. Thus Isidore (seventh cent.) derives escarus (i.e. scarus) from esca (Orig. xii. 6. $3^{\circ}$ escarus dictus eo, quod escam solus ruminare perhibetur), and iscurra (i.e. scurra), somewhat comically, from the same word (ib. x. I52 [under I not E] iscurra vocatur, quia causa escae quempiam consectetur ; cf. ib. xx. 4. 9 discus antea 'iscus' vocabatur a specie scuti). He warns his readers against the mispronunciations yspissa, yscena, ystimulus, (4. 509, App. 3. 40. Ar. spissa, scena, stimulus et cetera similia y carent). Similar warnings are given in the Glosses ap. Mai, Cl. Auct. against iscena, iscandalum, iscapha, iscribtura (vi. 580), and directions to write 'per solam s' sceda (vii. 578 b), stimulus, spissa, and splendor (vi. 581). (Theophilus non 'izofilus,' Probi App. 198. r, should perhaps read 'T. non ziofilus,' and in 199. ro, stabilitus non 'istabilitus,' is a mere conjecture.) It is not found in the early Latin loanwords in Teutonic, e.g. O. H. Germ. scrîban (Lat. scribo), or Celtic languages, e.g. O. Ir. scol, Bret. skol (Lat. sc(h)ola). But Welsh, which has the same tendency as late Latin to use a prosthetic vowel (written $y$, pronounced like $u$ of our 'but'), before initial $s$ followed by a consonant has subsequently added this $y$ - to these Latin loanwards, e.g. ysgol, ysgrifo, as it has done to other words of a similar
form, e.g. ysgub, a sheaf. That Procope had shown itself in Vulgar Latin we see from the Romance forms, Ital. bottega, Span. botica, Fr. boutique, which point to Vulg. Lat. *poteca for ăдŏthēca, and Ital. morchia, Span. morga from Vulg. Lat. *murca for ămurca, both Greek words. (On ste for istĕ, see ch. vii. § 17.)
A further result of the confusion of a word like scribo with a compound, exscribo, inscribo, was that some words beginning with sc-, sp-, st-, \&c. were regarded as compounds with the prepositions $e x$, $i n$, and were deprived of their initial $s$. This, at any rate, seems to be the explanation of forms like Vulg. Lat. *pasmus for spasmus (Span. pasmo, Port. pasmo, and the French verb pâmer, to swoon) (see the list of examples in Schuchardt, Vok. ii. pp. 354 sqq.). Another result possibly was that such a form as sponere for exponere being regarded as the equivalent of ponere, the letter $s$ - might occasionally be prefixed at random to words beginning in $c-, t-, p$-, \&c., e.g. spictus for pictus (Schuchardt, l.c., mentions a few doubtful examples; but includes cases where the $s$ - was original, e.g. O. Lat. stritavus, later trïtarus. See ch. iv. § i46.)
§ 124. s before a consonant. I.-Eur. $s$ before $m, n$, \&c. was dropped in Latin or rather assimilated (iv. 159), e. g. primus (Pelignian Prismu for Lat. Prima), cōmis (on the very ancient Dvenos inscription cosmis), dūmus older dummus (cf. Dusmus). So $\operatorname{tra}(n) s$ became $\operatorname{tra-}$ before $j$, $d$, and optionally before $m, p$, according to Velius Longus, 66.9 K., e. g. transtulit, but trajecit, träduxit transmisit or trämisit, transposuit or trāposuit. Spellings on late plebeian inscriptions and in MSS., such as prebeteri for presbyteri (Rossi, i. 73I, of 445 A. D.), have been collected by Schuchardt, Vok. ii. pp. 355 sq. But though $s$ is suppressed in this position in some Romance languages, notably in French, e. g. château (Ital. castello, Span. castillo) from Lat. castellum ; blâmer (Ital. biasmare, Catal. blasmar, Prov. blasmar) from Vulg. Lat. *blas(i)mare for blasphēmare, this suppression is by no means universal, and was unknown in French itself at an earlier stage, e.g. blasmer ; so that these spellings cannot convince us that Latin $s$ in the middle of a word had at all the same weak sound that it had at the end of a word. (Schuchardt's examples of the assimilation of $c$ or $t$ to $s$, with $s s$ for $s c$ and $s t$, e.g. Crissana, Vok. i. pp. 145 sq., are perhaps better explained as cases of palatalization of $c, t$.)
A vowel before st, \&c. is not shortened under the influence of a preceding short syllable in Plautine versification any more readily than a vowel before any other consonant group, e. g. volüptátem, beside potëstätem, ministérium. (See ch. iii. § 34.)
§125. x . On the spellings $c s, c x, x s$, \&c. see ch. i. $\S 4$, and for the interchange of $x$ with ss and (with consonant) $s$, see Georges and Brambach s. vv. mixtus, Ulixes, sesoenti, Esquiliae, Xerxes, Sestius, \&c. Schuchardt, Vok. ii. p. 35i, and i. ı33, gives some instances of $e s$ - for $e x$ - before $c, t, p$ in late Latin inscriptions and in MSS. (Cf. Placidus' Glossary, 67.18 G. exspes, sine spe . . 'espes' vero sine $\mathbf{x}$ nihil est), and of $-s s-$, $-s$ - for $-x-$, e. g. vissit for vixit, Alesander for Alexander. Vissit for vixit is common on late Christian inscriptions (e. g. C.I. L. x. 4546), but the earliest instance of ss for $x$ is probably on an epitaph of a cavalry soldier at Cologne, which cannot be later than Nero's reign [ve]ssillo (A. L. L. viii. 589.) On mers for merx $(\operatorname{mer}(c) s$, like pars for $\operatorname{par}(t) s)$ in MSS. of Plautus, see Ritschl, Opusc. ii. p. 656. Caper 98. ro K. allows both cals and calx : cals dicendum, ubi materia est, per s; at cum pedis est, calx per x. In late Latin
final $-s$ and $-x$ are often interchanged. Thus $x$ is written for the final $s$ (originally ss) of miles, ăries, pŭples, lŏcŭples. All these are forms censured in the Appendix Probi (197. 28 K. ; 198. 29 ; 199. 4, 5) ; and on inscriptions we have milex, milix, pregnax, \&c. (see Seelmann, p. 353). The similarity of the sound of this $-s$ with $-x$ may be inferred from Probus, Inst. 126. 36 K. quaeritur qua de causa miles per s et non per x litteram scribatur, \&c. Similarly obstetrix was made opstitris (Probi App. 198. 34 K., cf. 198. 28 meretrix non ' menetris') ; and on inscriptions we have conivs and corvs (Greek kozoyc, C.I. L. x. 7 19), subornatris, \&c. (see Seelmann, p. 353). The felatris (iv. 1388 and 2292) on inscriptions of Pompeii reminds us of $-s$, -ss for $x$, cs, on Oscan inscriptions of the same town, e. g. meddíss (for *meddicicĕs Nom. Pl.) Zv. I.I.I. 140 (cf. Osc. Santia for ヨavoías).
§ 126. Final s. (See Havet on 'l'S latin caduc' in Études dédiées à $G$. Paris. 1891; he shows that it is the rule, and not the exception, that -s does not constitute 'position' in the older poetry ; cf. Plautine endings of lines like estǐs ros). Cicero (Orator, xlviii. 16I) : quin etiam quod jam subrusticum videtur, olim autem politius, eorum verborum, quorum eaedem erant postremae duae litterae, quae sunt in 'optimus,' postremam litteram detrahebant, nisi vocalis insequebatur ; ita non erat ea offensio in versibus, quam nunc fugiunt poetae novi; ita enim loquebamur:
qui est omnibu' princeps,
non 'omnibus princeps,' et
uita illa dignu' locoque,
non dignus. quod si indocta consuetudo tam est artifex suavitatis, quid ab ipsa tandem arte et docttrina postulari putamus? ; Quint. ix. 4. $3^{8}$ quae fuit causa et Servio, ut dixit, subtrahendae s litterae, quotiens ultima esset aliaque consonante susciperetur, quod reprehendit Luranius, Messala defendit. nam neque Lucilium putat uti eadem ultima, cum dicit 'Aeserninus fuit' et 'dignus locoque,' et Cicero in Oratore plures antiquorum tradit sic locutos. (On the dropping of $-s$ on inscrr. see § 137.)
§ 127. Double Consonants. No point of Latin pronunciation is more certain than that a double consonant in such a word as bucca was really pronounced as a double, and not as a single consonant, with 'the first syllable ending in one $c$, and the second syllable beginning with another $c$,' as the Latin grammarians put it, or in more scientific language, with a new forceimpulse beginning in the second half of the consonant. The word would be uttered, not, as we are accustomed to pronounce it, with one $c$-sound, but with the double $c$-sound of our 'bookcase.' The statements of the grammarians are so clear on this matter as to leave no room for doubt; and even without their help, we might have inferred the Latin usage from the evidence of the Romance languages. For although it is only the Italian which has entirely preserved to this day the double pronunciation
(e.g. Ital. boc-ca, but Span. boca, Fr. bouche), there are traces in the others of its previous existence. Latin $s s$ is hard $s$, where Latin $s$ has become soft, or voiced $s$. Latin rr, $n n, l l$ have developed into different sounds in Spanish from Latin $r, n, l$; and in French a Latin vowel before a double consonant has been differently treated from one before a single consonant: tãlis becomes tel, but vallis, val ; mŭnus becomes main, but annus, an. The only thing open to question is whether the spelling with two consonants did not sometimes indicate a lengthened rather than a doubled consonant, a consonant on which the voice dwelt for a time, without dividing it between two syllables. This distinction between a long and a double consonant is more clearly marked in the case of a mute (e.g. long $c$ and double $c$ ), than of a liquid, nasal, or sibilant (e.g. long $l$ and double $l$, long $n$ and double $n$, long $s$ and double $s$ ). The greater force and abruptness of the mute as compared with the liquid would make the syllabledivision in bucca more readily caught by the ear than in mille.

This lengthened pronunciation may have been given to $m$, \&c., in ämitto for ammitto (cf. ammissam in the Medicean MS. of Virgil, A. ii. 74 I ) ; and it was probably a stage in the development of words like milia older millia, causa older caussa, casus older cassus.

From the statements of the grammarians, and from the spelling of Inscriptions and the oldest MSS., we see that the orthography, and presumably the pronunciation, of the Empire did not allow $s s$ after a diphthong, nor (with possible exceptions) after a long vowel, nor yet $l l$ between a long $i$ and another $i$. The caussa, cässus, glōssa, mīssi, mīllia of an earlier time were reduced to causa, cāsus, glōsa, mīsi, mī̀ia, and show in Italian to-day the single letter in spelling and pronunciation (cosa, chiosa, misi, \&c.). Seelmann's explanation is that the length of the diphthong would detract from the length of the consonant in cau-ssa, and make it no longer than a single consonant causa, while in milia the similarity of the articulation of $\bar{\imath}$ and $l$ was the reason why the vowel organs passed so quickly over the intervening $l$-position back to the $i$-position, as to prevent the voice from dwelling for the due period of time on the $l$ itself. However that may be, we can at least be positive that the spelling ss did not, as Corssen suggests, merely indicate the hard or unvoiced
quality of the $s$-sound (e.g. Engl. 'ass' with hard $s$, 'as' with soft $s$ ).

The practice of writing the consonants double was not adopted, as we saw (ch. i. § 8), until the time of Ennius. But there is no evidence, apart from this fact, to show that the pronunciation of bucca, penna, \&c., in earlier times was not the same as the later pronunciation (like our 'bookcase,' 'penknife'). Plautus may have written these words with a single letter; still he always treats the first syllable as long by position; so that it would be as rash to infer that the older spelling was anything more than a mere usage of orthography, as to regard the temporary use of the sicilicus in the Augustan age (ch. i. § 8), e.g. os a (C.I.L. x. 3743), as an indication that the consonant had at that time a lengthened rather than a doubled pronunciation.
§ 128. Testimony of the grammarians. The grammarians' rule is 'Write two consonants, when two consonants are pronounced': ubi duarum consonantum sonus percutiet aures, Mar. Victorinus vi. 9-ro K. ; who quotes sab-batis, sac-cis, ef-fert, ef-fugit, fal-lit, gal-lus, ral-lus, macel-lum, nul-lus, pal-lium Pal-las, an-num, Cin-nam, ap-paratum, lap-pam, Ar-runtium, bar-rum, cur-rit, fer-rum, as-siduum, Cas-sium, fes-sum, At-tius, Vet-tius, and adds : nam ut color oculorum judicio, sapor palati, odor narium dinoscitur, ita sonus aurium arbitrio subjectus est. Similarly Papirian (ap. Cassiodor. vii. 162. ıo K.) says : sono internoscemus, quoting ac-cedo, at-tuli, as-siduus, ap-pareo, an-nuo, al-ligo. So Vel. Longus vii. 61-62 K. : ac-cipio, ac-currere, ag-gerat, Pliny (ap. Priscian, i. p. 29. 8): il-le, Metel-lus. They speak also of one syllable ending with the consonant, and the next syllable beginning with the same consonant (prior syllaba in hac finitur, et sequens ab ea incipit, Consentius, v. 394.35 K ., who quotes $i l-l e, A l-l i a)$. Similarly Priscian, i. p. 45.5 of $i l-l e, ~ p .46 .8$ of Sab-burra, sab-bata, gib-bus, gib-berosus, gib-ber, ob-ba, . . . sub-bibo, p. 47. 5 of vacca (MSS. bacca), buc-ca, soc-cus, ec-quis, quic-quam, p. 47. 9 of abad-dir, abad-dier, ad-do, red-do, red-duco (' quod etiam reduco dicitur',) p. 48. 5 of of-ficio, suf-ficio, afffectus, ef-ficio, dif-ficilis, dif-fundo, p. 49.29 of lip-pus, ap-paret, p. 50.25 of mit-to, Cot-ta, at-tinet. Velius Longus' remarks on the pronunciation of reduco and reddo must be understood in the same way (vii. 66. 3 K.).
§ 129. Reduction of 11 to 1 , ss to s , after a diphthong or long vowel. Some grammarians ascribe this reduction to a diphthong, others to any long vowel. Quintilian (i. 7. 20-21) tells us that caussae, cassus, divissiones was the spelling of Cicero's time, and that the double $s$ was found in autograph MSS. both of Cicero and of Virgil, and adds that in still earlier times (i. e. before the introduction of double letters), jussi was spelt with a single $s$. Velius Longus (vii. 79. 20 K.) censures the proposal of Nisus (first cent. A. n.) to write comese, consuese, and his argument 'quia juxta productam vocalem geminata consonans progredi non soleat,' and declares positively that 'geminari consonantes productis vocalibus junctas usus ostendit,' quoting
as examples errasse, saltasse, abisse, calcasse. He inclines however to the spelling paulum on the ground that paullum 'repetito eodem elemento [sc. 1] . . . enuntiari nullo modo potest,' and declares the true rule to be that the presence of a diphthong, not of any long vowel, forbids the doubling of a consonant (cf. Prisc. i. p. iog. 22 H.). Still he contrasts dossum (for dŏrsum), with rūsum, retrōsum ; and in another passage (72. I K.) he approves of the spelling and pronunciation accūsītor, as of cōmisātor. Annaeus Cornutus (ap. Cassiodor. 149. 12-15 K.), speaking apparently of the old spelling caussa, says: in qua enuntiatione quomodo duarum consonantium sonus exaudiatur, non invenio. Terentius Scaurus (21-22 K.) declares that neither $s$ nor $r$ are doubled, unless the preceding vowel is short; when it is long, the syllable ends with the vowel, and the consonant begins the next syllable, e.g. plau-sus, lī-sus. The spelling caussa he makes etymological (due to cavissa), not phonetic: apparet 'causam' geminatum s non recipere, quoniam neque in fine praecedentis alterum potest poni, neque a gemino sequens incipere. The remarks of Velius Longus (72. 19 K. s vero geminata vocis sonum exasperat), and of Marius Victorinus (viii. 56 K . iidem [sc. antiqui] voces quae pressiore sono eduntur, ' ausus,' 'causa,' ' fusus,' 'odiosus,' per duo s scribebant 'aussus'), must be regarded in the light of the previously quoted statements; though the latter may imply that the sound of an -s-, which represented a former-sswas not quite the same as the sound of ordinary $s$. That this was probably the case with final -s (e. g. miles for *miless) we shall see below (§ 133). Elsewhere Terentius Scaurus defends the spelling paullum on etymological grounds, comparing pullum, pusillum ( 20.15 K .) ; and Annaeus Cornutus (first cent. A.D., ap. Cassiodor. 149. 19 K.) speaks of some grammarians who wrote mallo (the older spelling, as we shall see) for mälo, because they connected the word with Greek $\mu \hat{a} \lambda \lambda o \nu$. Another reason apparently alleged for this spelling mallo, nollo, was the analogy of the Infinitive malle, nolle, to judge from Papirian's dictum ap. Cassiodor. 159. r K. : malo per unum l, quod est magis volo; malle per duo l, quod est magis velle ; nolo per unum l, est enim non volo, nolle per duo l, quod est non velle (cf. Probi App. 201. 33 K. inter velit et vellit hoc interest quod, \&c.) (cf. vellint, C.I.L. v. 2090 ; vii. 80 ; nollis, vii. 140). A further instance of the influence of an etymological theory on spelling is furnished by Alcuin (310. $3^{2} \mathrm{~K}$.), who defends the spelling solemnis by referring the word to solleo. But if we overlook spellings warped by etymological theories, and here and there a traditional spelling retained, we may lay down the rule that $l$ after a diphthong, and $s$ after a long vowel or diphthong, were not written, or pronounced double in the period of the Empire, so that it is unlikely, for example, that cessi (though from céllo), jussi [though the spelling jous- occurs on old inscriptions (see C.I.L. $\mathrm{i}^{1}$. Index p. 583), and cf. juissus (along with Annius!), vi. 77], ussi (though from üro; cf. A.L.L. ii. 607), had a long vowel in the Imperial age. (Cěssi, ŭssi, according to Priscian, i. p. 466.6,7 H.) The use of $l l$ after a long vowel, but not after a diphthong, shows that the diphthongs still retained their diphthongal sound.
The statements of the grammarians about the older spelling are borne out by a reference to the Republican inscriptions. On the Lex Rubria of 49 в. c. we have promeisserit, remeisserit, repromeisserit, and on other inscriptions caussa, accussasse, missit, paullum, millia, milliärium (see the Index to C.I. L. vol. $\mathrm{i}^{1}$. pp. 6or-2) ; on the Comm. Lud. Saec. both caussa and causa, but always quaeso ; on the Mon. Anc. millia, clausum and claussum, caussa, caesae, occasio.

Paullus is the usual form even on later inscriptions, also Pollio and Polio (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s.vv.; cf. Pōlla with apex on o, C.I.L. xi. 4572, \&c.). Aulla, the oldest spelling, preserved in the Ambrosian MS. of Plautus (see below), similarly became aula and olla (see Georges) ; crisso (with $\bar{\imath}$, cf. crīspus) became criso (ib.) ; glossa and glossema became glosa, glosema (Löwe, Prodromus, pp. x sqq.) ; nassiterna is the old spelling, of this old word, like nassum (later nēsus) (see Georges). Thus abscisio (from caedo), and abscissio (from scindo) were not distinguished in spelling till Tiberius' reign.

In the best and oldest MSS. of Republican writers, and (archaistic) writers of the Augustan age, such as Plautus and Virgil, we have a good many spellings with $l$, ss, where the later orthography used the single letter. Thus in Virgil MSS. we have examples of the old spelling, with double $s$, of the Perfect and Perf. Part. Pass. of verbs like edo (adessus, ambessus, exessus, obessus, peressus, semessus, i.e. adeessus, \&c.), video (prorissa, \&c.; also the verb invisso), audeo (aussa), and other verbs in -do, -deo; haereo (haessit) and haurio (haussere, hausserat) : mitto (missi, missere); we have -nss- and -ss- for later -ns-, -s- in conprenssa and compressa, emenssi, \&c., lapidossa, undossi, \&c.; similarly caussa, incusso, \&c. ; and in foreign words cassia (Gk. каббía, a misspelling of $\kappa a ̆ \sigma i ́ a), ~$ Crinisso (A. v. 38), gessa (A. viii. 662), Passiphae, Rhessus; though some of these last may be a wrong spelling (e.g. gessa should be gaesa, for O.Ir. gae, O. H. Germ. gaizon- point to gaiso-, with $g$ for I.-Eur. gh-, cf. Sanscr. hē̌̌as). And in the Ambrosian Palimpsest of Plautus we have essum, essurire, essitabunt, exscīssus (Most. 826), ussus, ussura, incusses, uisso, ueisse, dimissero, quaesso, caussa, -ossus (laboriossi, odiossae, negotiossam, radiossus) ; also nassum, uassa, and even sesse (perhaps rightly, for *sēd-sēe (d)), Merc. 249, Stich. 365, and noss, Stich. 536 ; and in Greek words paussam, Alcēssimarche, and (perversely) băssilice, Poen. 577 (cf. bassim, C.I.L. i. 1181). For $l l$ we have in Virgil MSS. some words where $s, x$, \&c. have been dropped before $l$ with lengthening of the vowel, or rather have been assimilated, like quallus, G. ii. 24 I (cf. quăsillus), anhellitus and anhellus, tellum, vellum, along with some of doubtful origin, collum, a strainer, G. ii. 242 (probably first *carillum, then caulum or collum, then colum, like Paullus, Paulus, Pollio and Polio), illex, A. vi. 180, mallim, G. iii. 69 and A. iv. ıo8, paullatim, millia, opillio; as well as -ella, -ellus in loquella, querella (the normal spelling), Philomella, fasellus. (On olli Dat., olim Adv., see ch. vii.) And in the Plautus Palimpsest, aulla, a jar (later aula and olla), millia, paullum (see Ribbeck's Index, and the Index to Studemund's Apograph of the Codex Ambrosianus). In the Palatine MSS. of Plautus we have also nollo (see Goetz, preface to the Stichus, p. xiv).

Of these, we know that millia, \&c., where long ${ }^{i}$ precedes and $i$ follows the double $l$, became milia, \&c. in the Imperial age. Pompeius (185. 16 K.) quotes the rule of the elder Pliny : Plinius Secundus in libris dubii sermonis ita expressit, ' mille non debemus aliter dicere nisi per geminum 1, in numero plurali unum 1 ponere debemus et dicere milia' (cf. ibid. 172. 13 K.). Milia, vilicus are the normal spellings on inscriptions, beside mille, villa, from the reign of Tiberius; but in earlier inscriptions (excepting in very early ones where no consonant is written double) we have $l l$. In the Monumentum Ancyranum, that valuable evidence of the orthography of the Augustan age, we have millia, milliens. (On stilicidium from stīla, Diminutive of *stìra, stīria, see Lachmann ad Lucr. i. 313.) In other circumstances double $l l$ was retained after a long vowel, e.g. vīlla, stèlla, which show the long vowel and double $l$,
or its traces, in the Romance languages, e.g. Ital. villa, stella (with close e). as in the Welsh loanword ystwyll, Epiphany. So mïlle, rällum, stīlla, vïllum (Dim. of cinum), trülla, corölla (Dim. of corōna), üllus (from ūnus), nüllus, \&c. (Priscian i. p. 109. 21 H. attests villum, and ullus; and on inserr. we have ulla C.I.L. ii. 1473 ; ūlli, vi. 10230 ; nüllum, x. 4787 ; villan̄̄, ix. 348, \&e.) But in a group of words, as before remarked, we have $l l$ in the older, $l$ in the Imperial spelling, viz. words where there has been what is called 'compensatory lengthening,' e.g. quälus for *quas-lus (cf. quăsillus), rēlum for rex-lum (cf. rexillum). Of these wordṣ Cicero says (Orat. xlv. 153), quin etiam verba saepe contrahuntur non usus causa, sed aurium ; quo modo enim vester 'Axilla' Ala factus est nisi fuga litterae vastioris? quam litteram etiam e'maxillis' et 'taxillis' et 'paxillo' et 'vexillo' et 'pauxillo ' consuetudo elegans Latini sermonis evellit.

That the suppression of the $s$-sound was in the earlier period expressed by doubling the letter, we may infer from these spellings in Virgil MSS. and aulla (for aux-la, cf. auxilla) in the Palimpsest of Plautus. The change to the single $l$ seems to have been made after the reign of Augustus, simultaneously with the adoption of $l$ for $l l$ in paulum, milia, \&c., of $s$ for $s s$ in causa, fusus, \&c., and, as we shall see, of $m$ for $m m$ in a similar case of ' compensatory lengthening,' clumus from *dus-mus. Anhellus, if for *anhenslus from stem *an-anslo,, must have had long $e$. Thus lơquella for *loques-la, quĕrella for *queres-la may have been the older forms, which were banished for a time, and were restored in later Latin. (For statistics, see Brambach, Orth. p. 259.) Mallo, nollo are attacked by the grammarians of the Empire, along with millia, caussa, fussus, $\& c .$, and represent with these the older fashion of spelling and pronunciation. Diomedes (p. 386. г3 K.) blames those 'qui geminant 1 litteram et enuntiant' in these two verbs. (Does Velius Longus allude to the verb in p. 80.5 K.. where he says : quis autem nescit 'malum' una l littera scriptam multum distare a 'mallo' eodem elemento geminato ?) How far other consonants were doubled after a long vowel is discussed below.
§ 130. Confusion of single and double letter in Latin. In the misspellings of inscriptions and MSS. we find a double written for a single consonant. especially in the case of (1) mute before $r$, e. g. frattre (C.I. L. viii. iIt), suppra and suppremus in Virgil MSS. (Ribbeck, Ind.) ; (2) before consonantal $u(w)$, e. g. tennuis in Virgil MSS., strennuior in MSS. of Lucil. xvi. 19 M. (cf. Probi App. 198. 18 K. aqua non 'acqua') ; (3) $s$ before mute, e. g. disscente (C.I. L. iv. 1278). We find the same doubling of a consonant in the first two cases in Italian in fabbro, acqua, \&c. (see below); and in classical Latin we have perhaps traces of them in the normal spellings, quattuor, battuo. The third type of misspelling probably reflects the attraction of $s$ to the first syllable (see § 139). The opposite error, of writing a single consonant for a double, appears especially (i) after a long vowel, e.g. nula, Eph. Epigr. iv. no. 557 (Consentius warns against mispronunciations like mile, vila, 392.7 K .) ; (2) in syllables before the accent, usually in words compounded with prepositions, where the final consonant of the preposition has been assimilated to the initial of the verb or noun, e.g. acepi, comunis, but also in other cases, such as Diminutives, e.g. sacellus (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s.v.). There are in the classical language a few traces of the reduction of a long syllable to a short in the pretonic syllable, possibly in Diminutives like öfella (from offa), mămilla (from mamma) (cf. Ital. vanello), but certainly in prepositional compounds. Thus ommitto
from ob and mitto has become ŏmitto (Priscian i. p. 46.18 H. omitto dicimus pro 'ommitto') ; in reddūco the preposition was changed, perhaps by the analogy of other compounds, to re, but not in reddo, where it is accented (unless the true explanation here is that reddo represents *re-dido with a reduplicated form of the verb found in Umbro-Oscan, ch. viii. § 9). (Velius Longus 66. 3 interdum haec d littera geminatur, quotiens ab eadem littera sequens vox incipit; nec tamen semper, siquidem 'reddere' dicimus geminata d, . . . unde adnotanda imperitia eorum qui sic 'redducere' geminata d littera volunt enuntiare, quasi 'reddere,' tamquam necesse sit totiens eam duplicem esse, quotiens sequens vox ab eadem littera incipit.) The versification of Plautus shows us that after a short syllable the preposition in the pretonic syllable of a compound was especially liable to be so slurred in pronunciation, that it might optionally be scanned as a short syllable, e. g. quid ăccépit? (see ch. iii. § 34). How far the weakness incident to the first syllable of accepit after a short syllable adhered to it in other circumstances, and tended to reduce the acc- to the sound of ac-, it is difficult to say. We have ore corrupto in Lucil. ix. I. M., expressly attested by Consentius ( 400.8 K .) ; and there seems no reason for setting aside the reading of the MSS. in Lucr. vi. 1135 an caelum nobis ultro natura cörumptum Deferat, a reading confirmed by Isidore, Nat. Rer. 39. The usual practice, where the preposition is assimilated, is to write a double letter in some cases, e.g. corruptus, ommentans (Liv. Andron.); in others to write a single letter and lengthen the vowel, e.g. $\overline{\text { amitto. It is not always easy to }}$ draw a hard and fast line between these two practices. A scansion like Plautus' quid ämittis suggests that the second word was pronounced rather ammittis (cf. ammissam in Virgil MSS., Ribbeck, Ind.) than ämittis; for Plautus does not shorten the first syllable of the compound in quid insanis, \&c., where we know the $i$ to have been a long vowel before the group ns (see ch. iii. § 34). The $a$ of amittis could then hardly be on precisely the same footing as a vowel long by nature. Adm-, though written amm- was not written $\bar{a} m$-. (Amentum, beside ammentum and admentum, is probably non-existent. See Nettleship, Contributions s.v.) Again, Gellius says of the preposition com, compcunded with ligo, and necto (ii. 17. 8) coligatus et conexus producte dicitur. (Com before $n$ is always $\overline{0} n$ - in the best spelling, e.g. cōnubium, but not before gn, e.g. cognatus, unless $g n$ has previously become $n$, e.g. cōnitor.) The late spelling oportunus (see Georges) may be due to the analogy of ŏportet; but on Greek inscriptions we often have $\omega$, instead of the usual $o$, in compounds with com, the assimilated $m$ being sometimes omitted, e.g. K $\omega \mu o \delta o s$, sometimes expressed, e.g. $\kappa \omega \rho \rho \epsilon \kappa \tau \omega \rho$ (Eckinger pp. 51-2). It is therefore an open question how far these late spellings, such as corigia in the Edict of Diocletian, indicate a real reduction of the double consonant to a single, corigia, or a transference to the vowel of the extra length of the consonant, corrigia. Greek spellings of Latin words are very uncertain guides; for Consentius mentions as a fault of the Greeks their inability to pronounce the double consonant in words like jussit, ille, 395.13 K . s litteram Graeci exiliter ecferunt adeo, ut cum dicunt 'jussit,' per unum s dicere existimes; 394. 25 K . ubi enim [Graeci] dicunt 'ille mihi dixit,' sic sonant duae 11 primae syllabae, quasi per unum 1 sermo ipse consistat ${ }^{1}$; and on Greek inscriptions we find double confused with Jsingle, single with double consonant in Latin words to a very great extent, especially $l$ and $l$, but not
${ }^{1}$ In Martial ii. 60 puer Hylle has assonance with puerile.
often $s$ and $s s$ (see Eckinger). Similarly in Latin inscriptions we find Greek words misspelt in this particular, e. g. tesera, eclesia (so in Vulg. Lat. ; cf. Ital. chiesa, \&c.), bassilica (e.g. C.I.L. iv. 1779), \&c. So Probi App. (r99. 9 K.) censures 'bassilica' ; (198. ri) 'cammera' (cf. Sicil. Neap. cammara) ; (198. 17) 'dracco'; (198.27) 'fassiolus.' (In each case the vowel is $a$, the quality of which was the same, whether short or long.) On a Republican inscription (C.I.L. i. r181) we have bassim, and in the Palimpsest of Plautus bassilice. The Plautine form of the name 'I $\lambda \lambda v$ pía is Hilüria. In other foreign words we have a like confusion, e. g. Britanni and (later) Brittanni (see Georges s.v.), as we have a confusion in the quantity of the vowel of Butăci, \&c. Very often a wrong etymology, or wrong association, is the cause of a misspelling ; e. g. pellex, a late spelling of paelex (see Georges), was due to connexion with pellicio; and the established spelling accĭputer for *acŭpeter [probably with $\breve{a}$, weak grade of $\bar{o}$ of Greek $\dot{\omega} \kappa v-\pi \epsilon \in \tau \eta s$ (epithet of hawk in Hesiod, Op. 2ro), Sanscr. āçupátvan-, ch. iv. §54] to connexion with accĭpio ; cf. the vulgar form acceptor (Caper ro7. 8 K . accipiter non 'acceptor') used by Lucilins (inc. r23 M.) exta acceptoris et unguis. The misspelling cominus for comminis (see Georges) is due to the analogy of ēminus; and the analogy of Diminutive terminations -ellus, -illus, -ullus is generally believed to be responsible for the later spellings camellus, anguilla, cucullus, \&c. The corrupt form cămellus instead of camēlus (Greek ка́ $\mu \eta \lambda o s$ ) is indicated by the spelling in the Itala (see Rönsch, Itala, p. 460), and in the Edict of Diocletian (II. 6, \&c.), as by the Italian cammello (with open e), Span. camello, Fr. chameau (cf. phasellus for phasēlus in Virgil MSS.) ; angutula, the spelling of good MSS. of Latin authors, is reflected by Span. anguila (A. L. L. viii. 442) ; on cucülus and cucullus, see Brambach, Hïlfsbiichlein, s. v. The same explanation is generally given of eella for -èla of loquela, querela, suadelu, tutela, medela, \&c. (on which see Brambach, Orthographie, p. 258 sq.). The grammarians approve of the single $l$ in these words (Ter. Scaur. ri. i K. on querela ; Mar. Vict. r7.9 K. on loquela, querela, suadela, tutela, also camelus; Caper 96. 6 K . on querela, loquela) ; but by the time of Papirian, the latter part of the fourth cent. A. D., querella was the usual spelling (see Papir. ap. Cassiod. $\mathrm{r}_{59.4} \mathrm{~K}$. Cf. Bede 287.6 K.; Alcuin 299. 6 K.; Quaest. Gram. Cod. Bern. 83. Suppl. ${ }^{1} 75.7 \mathrm{~K}$.). At the same time we have seen that querella (for *queres-la), loquella, \&c. were probably the older spellings, and stand beside quallus for *quas-lus in Virgil MSS., so that their use in Vulgar Latin may be really a case of adherence to the older form, just as we find vulgar spellings like ussus, vissus, messor, fressus, allium (on these see Georges), and Vulg. Lat. *ressica, attested by Ital. vescica, \&c. (cf. Capsesis non 'Capsessis,' Probi App. 198. 2). Pula was in late Latin *pilla, pillula (see Georges s.v. pilula, and cf. the Romance forms). Pōno, for pŏ-s(i)no, a compound with the preposition po, for *apo, a byform of $a b$, was treated in vulgar speech as if *por-s(i)no, a compound with por- Hence the double $s$ (for rs, as dossum from dorsum) in possitus (quasi 'por-situs'), possui on plebeian inscriptions (e.g. possuit, C.I. L. v. 5623 ; vii. 47. 137. 246; dipossitus, Rossi, i. 103, of 348 A. d.). In the Appendix Probi 202. 12 K . one is warned against the confusion of sera, a bolt, with serra, a saw, a confusion seen in Ital. serrare, Span. cerrar (cf. 20r. 33 on velit and vellit). Other misspellings depend merely on the substitution of a single consonant with long vowel for a double consonant with short vowel, and vice versa, e.g. Probi App. 199. 4 K. garrulus, non 'garulus' (probably gārulus) ; 198. 2 I K. caligo, non 'calligo.' This substitution was allowed, as
we have seen, in prepositional compounds, like $\bar{a} m i t t o$, to which we may add stipendium for stïp[i]pendium (stupendiorum, C.I.L. vi. 2496, 2787, 2795; stependiorum 3069 , of $221 \mathrm{~A} . \mathrm{D}$. point to $i$ in vulgar pronunciation), tricae (see §60) for *tricc [h]ae (cf. Ital. treccare, beside Neapolitan tricare). It appears to be consistently carried out in a group of words, cūpa (cf. Sanscr. kutpas) and cŭppa, stūpa and stŭppa (Greek $\sigma \tau \dot{v} \pi \eta$ and $\sigma \tau \dot{\jmath} \pi \pi \eta$ ), mūcus and mŭcous, pūpa (cf. prypae, C.I.L. x. 4315 ; pv́pivs, pýpia, vi. 6o21) and püppa, gütus and gŭttus, mütus (Greek $\mu \hat{v} \theta o s$, see Class. Rev. v. ro) and mǔttus, *būtis (Greek ßov̂tıs) and *büttis (cf. Ital. botte, bottiglia). The forms with short vowel and double consonant seem to be those of late Latin and Romance (e. g. cuppa, Ulp. Dig. xxxiii. 6, 3 § 1 and xxxiii. 7, 8 M. ; Augustine, Conf. ix. 8. 18; Not. Tir. 156: pıppa, Acron, in Hor. S. i. 5.65 ; Ital. coppa, Span. copa, \&c., while cūpa is reflected in Ital. cupola, Span. cuba and in the Welsh cib), so that the variety in form has arisen through the consomant being allowed to assert itself before the articulation of the vowel had been completed, and thus to take away from the vowel some of its force. [Similarly Middle High German muoter (I.-Eur. *mäter), with long vowel and single consonant has become n modern German mŭtter.] Strëna seems in the same way to have become strënna at the end of the Republican period ; for strēna is indicated by Span. estrena, \&c., strënna by Ital. strenna (with open e), Fr. étrenne, though the byform strenua (see Georges) may indicate confusion with strenuus, later strennuи (see above). In Italian the same thing is very common, e.g. venni for vēni, leggi for leggi, hrutto for brūto ; and this may be the explanation of the puzzling form tutto for Latin tōtus (see Körting, Lut.-Roman. Wörterb. s. v. ; and cf. Consent. 392. r K. $\cdot$ tottum' pro toto, 'cottidie' pro cotidie), as of Latin Juppiter (the usual spelling. see Georges) for Jüpiter ${ }^{1}$ (ch. vi. § $3^{2}$ ). Sūcus however retains this form in Vulgar Latin, and similarly brüca ; while both classical and Vulgar Latin showbäca (see Georges, and cf. Ital. bag-ola, Fr. baie), which, if the ordinary derivation be correct (see Etyma Latina s.v.), should be bacca for *bat-ca. Latin ciccus seems to have been in Vulg. Latin *cīcus, to judge from Ital. cica, cigolo, \&c.
Scribes of Irish nationality were specially liable to miswrite a double for a single consonant in a Latin word; for in the orthography of their own language the double letter often indicated merely that the consonant had not degenerated into a spirant. Thus a repeated substitution of double for single consonants in a Latin MS. is frequently an indication that the MS. has been written in an Irish monastery (see Zimmer, Glossae Hibernicae, proll. xi). Again the confusion of single with double consonants in inscriptions may often be due to local influence. Thus the Greeks, as we have seen, had a difficulty in pronouncing the Latin double consonants; the Oscan dialect often shows a double letter, where a single is etymologically correct, especially before a $y$-sound, e.g. Vitelliú (Lat. Italia), before a $w$-sound, e.g. dekkviarim (cf. Lat. decem), before an $r$, e.g. alttreí (Lat. alteri), and similarly ss before $t$, e.g. kvaisstur (Lat. quaestor), which remind us of Latin misspellings like acqua, frattre, disscente ; in the Umbrian inscriptions a double consonant is never found in those written in the native alphabet, and very seldom (sometimes perversely, e.g. ennom, cf. Lat. ënim ; avvei, cf. Lat. ăris) in those written in Latin characters.

[^25]But in spite of all these facts, it still remains true that there is usually a sufficient consensus between inscriptions and the best MSS. to enable us to decide with certainty on the single, or on the double letter, as the classical spelling of the word, a spelling with which the Romance forms, as well as the loanwords in Celtic and Teutonic languages, show a remarkable agreement. The classical form generally agrees with the form postulated by the etymology of the word, though there are some exceptions, e.g. bāca (see above) instead of bacca, damma (but in the proper name, Däma; see Georges) instead of dama. This implies that a sharp line was drawn in Latin between the single and double consonant ${ }^{1}$ (e.g. mūlus and müllus), a fact which should make us suspicious of etymologies which ignore this distinction, such as the identification of annus, a year (with $\breve{c}$, Terent. Maurus v. 1239), cf. perennis), with annulus, a ring. For examples of this kind of uncertainty in Latin spellings, see Georges, Lex. Wortf. and Brambach, Hïlfsbïchlein s.vv. lammina and lamina (syncopated lamna), vācillo and raccillo, māmilla rarely mammilla, buccella and būcella, disicio and dissicio (ef. porricio), cotidie and cottidie (see Etyma Latina s.v.), mutonium and muttonium, muttio and mutio, glutto and gluto, murgisu and murgisso, mantisa and mantissa, favisae and favissae, favisor and farissor, comissor and comisor, Masinissa and Massinissa, phaseolus and passeolus, Tissaphernes and Tisaphernes, Porsenna and Porsěna [cf. Pompeius, p. 284 K., who also censures (a suppositious?) Catilinna], meldix and medix (Oscan meddís Nom.. medíkeís, Gen.), Apuleius and Appuleius (but Apulia better than App-), Marcomani and (later) Marcomanni. (Pānus and pannus may be different words. See Berl. Phil. Woch. 1887, p. 214.) The double consonant is declared by them to be the better spelling of bracchium (with cch for $\chi$ of Gk. Bpá $\chi^{i o v}$ : see § 60), litteru [cf. Rumance, e.g. Fr. lettre, and Welsh llythyr. In the Lex Repet. (C. I. L. i. 198) of 123-122 в. c., once leiteras, but the spelling of a single for a double consonant is usual on this inscription, and $e i$ is used for $\breve{c}$ in seine], futtilis, caccăbus, cŭlleus, trūlleum, cuppes, cuppēdo (for cūp-), loll̄̆go (Fritsche, ad Hor. S. i. 4. 100), fello (for fê-lo), helluor, sollers, sollemnis, sollicito, pappare (Plaut. Epid. Goetz, pref. p. xxx), cippus, lippus, cüperro (see Nettleship in Class. Rev. 1892, p. 168). Messalla (cf. Hispällus with ll on C.I.L. i. 39), Sallustius, barrītus, Arruns, Arwétium (now Arezzo), allèc, Allecto, Allĭfae, Sardënüpallus, ballaena (Gk. фa入入-rather than фал-), ballista, Sallentini, cǒcinnus, pëtorritum, Trăsŭmennus, Appennīnus (and $A p$-), nummus, immo, bissextum ; the single of balbutio, litus (so Vulg. Lat., e.g. Ital. lito and lido), bucina, alucinor, besalis, belua, sărio, muriola (cf. Paul. Fest. 125. ${ }^{13}$ Th. murrina, genus potionis, quae Graece dicitur nectar. Hanc mulieres vocabant muriolam), Erinys, Apulia, Sufes, tăpete, Larisa, sarisa, Gnosus, Parnasus, talasio, pedǐsequus, ilico ; the double consonant appears to be the older spelling, the single the later in mantellum (Plaut.) and mantele, stellio and stelio, pilleus (so, for example, in MSS. of Martial ; see Friedländer's edition, i. p. 1 17), and püleus (pill-in Romance, K.Z. xxxiii. 308), marsuppium and marsūpium, Marpessos and Marpésius, and possibly the legal parret and päret (Fest. 292. 25 Th ., parret, quod est in formulis, debuit et producta priore syllaba pronuntiari et non gemino $r$ scribi, ut fieret 'paret,' quod est invenitur, ut comparet, apparet). The spelling paricida for parricida belongs to a period before the doubling of
${ }^{1}$ Plautus, however, puns on mittis and mitis in Mil. 1424, when the soldier is getting a thrashing:

Vérberon etiam, án iam mittis? Mítis sum equidem fústibus.
consonants was practised. Of Greek loanwords we have O. Lat. creterra (Gk. $\kappa \rho \eta \tau \dot{\eta} \rho$ ), perhaps grammosus (from Gk. $\gamma \lambda \dot{\eta} \mu \eta$ ) in Caecil. Comm. 268 R. (but gramae Plaut. Curc. 318, Büch. Rh. Mus. xxxv. 72), grabattus (Gk. rрáßaros), \&c. A. L.L. viii. $\left.3^{67}\right)^{1}$. (See also Ellis Catulus p. $33^{8}$ on Varus and Varro.)
§ 131. Double consonants in Italian. These are not known in the dialects of Umbria and of North Italy ; and their use varies a good deal in different parts. They form one of the greatest difficulties to English learners; for a double consonant is unknown in our language, except in compound words like 'bookcase,' 'penknife'; as they proved a stumbling-block in old times to Greeks (cf. $\S \S 99$ and 117 on the Greek mispronunciation of $l l, s s$ ). Double consonants have replaced Latin single consonants before $y$, e.g. occhio (Lat. ŏc(u)lus), vendemmia (Lat. vindèmia); before the $w$-sound of Latin c̆qua (Ital. acqua) ; before $r$, e.g. fabbro (Lat. făber). (Compare the doubling of a consonant in these positions in Oscan orthography, and similar misspellings in late Latin inscriptions.) Doubling is very common under the accent of a paroxytone word, e.g. femmina (Lat. fëminna), legittimo (Lat. légǐtimus), and on the first syllable, when it has a secondary accent, e.g. pellegrino, tollerare (cf. late Latin suppellectilis, see Georges). Forms like allodola (Lat. alauda), commedia (Lat. cömoedia) seem to be due to the analogy of words compounded with prepositions, like Latin allūdo, commŏdus (cf. Osc. Appelluneís ' Apollinis'?).
§ 132. Double consonant (not l, s) after long vowel. We know that the $e$ of fressus, for frensus, later fresus, was long; but we cannot tell whether the true explanation of the change from dummetum to dūmètum (see Georges) is to make it similarly a reduction of a double to a single consonant after a long vowel, or merely a substitution of a vowel length (um) for consonant length (ŭmm), like änissam for ammissam (in MSS. of Virg. A. ii. 741), as the -amm- of flammen, a blast, in Virg. MSS. (see Ribbeck) seems to represent the usual -ām- of flā-men. A spelling like ruppes for rūpes in Virgil. MSS. (see Ribbeck) suggests rather the alternation of cŭppa with cüpa, pŭppa with pupa (see above); and the quantity of the vowel before the double consonant of lammina (see Georges), vaccinnia (see Ribbeck, Index) is quite uncertain. Clear cases of a long vowel before $n n$ are mercennarius (the correct spelling, according to Brambach, Hülfsbüchl. s. v., later mercenarius), tinnire (for $\bar{\imath}$ and $n n$ are attested by Port. tinir, Sard. tinnire), and perhaps hinnuleus (also innuleus, inuleus, see Georges) (cf. Agroecius 115.14 K . hinnuleus, ut $i$ acutum sit, quia nomen a sono vocis accipit), and Vinnius (also Vinius; see C.I.L. vi. 28978 sqq. Long $i$ is indicated for Vinnia, 28986) ; but before other double consonants they are difficult to establish. nárrem on the carefully written inscription of the Emperor Claudius (48 A. d.) at Lyons (Allmer et Dissard vol.i. p. $70^{n}$; Boissieu p. 136) may be due to the analogy of gnärus, närus, which made the spelling naro (proposed by Varro, if we are to believe Papirian

[^26][^27]ap. Cassiodor. 159.8 ; cf. Varro. L.L. vi. 5 I) approved by some grammarians (e.g. Velius Longus 8o. 9 K.), though never accepted in popular usage (see Georges) (cf. värus and Varro. (On *trippa, the original of Ital. trippa, our 'tripe,' \&c., see Körting's Lexicon s. v.) A certain instance of the reduction of $t t$ to $t$ after a diphthong is the late form autor (censured, with autoritas, in Probi Appendix 198. зо K., and found on late inscriptions, e.g. C.I. L. viii. 1423 ; cf. xii. 2058, of 491 A. D.), where the $t$ represents $t t$ for original $c t$ (see § 95). Ital. freddo, Fr. froid point to *friddus, from frigdus, a vulgar form of frigidus (Probi App. 198. 3 frigida non 'frigda') ; O. Span. frido to *frìdus or *friddus.
§ 133. Final double consonant. A final double consonant was not allowed in Latin orthography, but was written single, e.g. mīles for $*_{\text {miless, }}$ from *milit-s. But that it differed in pronunciation from an ordinary final single consonant, we may infer from the forms censured in the Appendix Probi, where $-x$ is wrongly substituted for this $-s$ (originally $\cdot s s$ ) (197.28 K. miles non 'milex'; 198. 29 aries non 'ariex'; 199. 4-5 poples non 'poplex,' locuples non 'locuplex'), forms which are found on inscriptions (e. g. milex, C. I. L. vi. $37,2457,2549, \& c$.). We may infer also that there was a change in its pronunciation in course of time ; for in Plautus miles has the last syllable long (Aul. 528), while in Ennius, Lucilius, \&c., its last syllable is short (Ann. ${ }_{277}$ M. ; so milĕs, Lucil. xi. 8 M .), though never shortened before an initial
 the true spelling ; see Rhein. Mus. xlvi. p. 236) from *ters, *tris (Greek $\tau$ pis), as a long syllable (Bacch. 1127), as he scans es (2 Sg. Pres. Ind. of sum), prödes, \&e. like *ess, *prodess (contrast cŏr, Lucil. xv. 9 M. ; prodĕs, id. inc. 128). A relic of this usage remains in the scansion of hoc for *hocc from *hod-(c)e as a long syllable by the classical poets; and the remarks of the grammarians on this scansion explain the reason of the change and uncertainty in the quantity of these final syllables. Thus Velius Longus ( 54.6 K. ), commenting on Virgil's 'hoc erat, alma parens' says: ergo scribendum per duo c, 'hoc-cerat alma parens,' aut confitendum quaedam aliter scribi, aliter enuntiari ; Pompeius (119. 13): item e littera aliquando pro duabus consonantibus est... ut . . ' 'hoc erat alma parens' : 'hoc,' collide e, ut sit pro duabus consonantibus. in illo alio exemplo brevis est, 'solus hic inflexit sensus' : sic lubrice et leniter currit. (Velius Longus also fails to make this proper distinction between hocc for *hod-c and hi-c.) They show us that in pronunciation *hocc (and presumably *corr, ${ }^{\text {esss }}$ ) were actually sounded with double consonant when the next word began with a vowel, at least if the accent fell on them, while before a consonant initial, and probably when unaccented, the double consonant would be reduced to a single, hoc fuit but hocc erat. The unaccented nature of the Substantive Verb $*_{\text {ess }}$, and of the final syllable of *miless, prodess, \& c. explains their speedy reduction in Latin prosody (see ch. iii).
§ 134. Final consonants. A final consonant is always more liable to weakening than an initial, because of the general tendency of languages to pronounce with diminishing stress. It is especially so in English after a long vowel. Thus in the word 'cat' the $t$ is uttered with less force than the $c$, while the same final after a long vowel, as in 'cart,' is still weaker. It is
a rule of our language that a final consonant is always short after a long vowel, as we may see, if we contrast a word like 'heel' with a word like 'hill.' The weakness of Latin final consonants has been already mentioned. Final $-d$ was dropped in pronunciation after a long vowel about the end of the third cent. в.c.; final $s$ does not constitute position before an initial consonant in that species of poetry which most closely imitated ordinary pronunciation, Dramatic Poetry ; final $-m$ offers but slight resistance to the elision of the vowel which precedes it; the tenues fortes seem to have been replaced when final in pronunciation by the mediae lenes, e.g. ab, sub, reliqquid, \&c. (cf. negötium ? ) (see § 73).

In considering the pronunciation of final consonants it is necessary to regard not isolated words, but words as they stand in the sentence. The accent of a word, when standing alone, is something different from its accentuation in the sentence; e.g. Greek $\pi \rho o ́ s$, but $\pi \rho o ̀ s ~ \pi o ́ \lambda \iota \nu ~ \eta \jmath \lambda \theta \epsilon$. And the same is true of its pronunciation. The Greek orthography indicates the first distinction, but rarely the second ; though we find it to some extent on inscriptions $\tau \eta \mu \pi o \lambda \iota v, \epsilon \gamma \delta \iota \kappa \eta s$, \&c., especially in Cretan inscriptions (see ch. iii. §41). But in writing Sanscrit the principles of 'Sandhi' (i.e. putting together, synthesis), to use the native term, were carefully followed by the grammarians of India. The neuter Demonstrative, for example, tad (Lat. is-lŭd) had its final $d$ changed according to the following initial consonant in tat tapas, that heat (Lat. is-tud *tepus), tal lihati (Lat. is-tud lingit), tan nahyati (Lat. is-tud nectit), \&c. There was something like this in Latin. Traces of it appear occasionally in inscriptions and MSS., e.g. im burim in MSS. of Virgil, G. i. 170; and we have 'doublets' like neque, atque before vowels, nec, ac before consonants ; but for the most part it is not indicated in spelling.

Final consonants lingered longest in monosyllables, especially accented monosyllables, and before being entirely discarded in spelling, passed through the 'doublet' stage; that is to say, they were retained in pronunciation in certain positions in the sentence, before an initial vowel usually, and dropped in others; e.g. hau scio but haud habeo, just as the $r$-sound is found in English only before an initial vowel following without any pause,
e.g. 'here he is.' The same process went on in the Romance languages, of which French was the most retentive of final consonants till comparatively modern times; though now, for example, final $-t,-s,-r$ exist only in pre-vocalic 'doublets,' e.g. vient-il ? with $t$ sounded, but il vien( t$)$. An English example of 'Sandhi' is the different vowel-sound of the article 'the' before a vowel and before a consonant, and an example of the abandonment of one 'doublet' and the exclusive use of another is the preposition ' with,' which now ends only in the th-sound of thin, but which in early modern English had in certain collocations the $t h$-sound of 'this.' Both 'doublet' forms remain in ' my' and 'mine,' 'one' and 'a,' 'an,' ' naught' and 'not,' \&c.

The treatment of final vowels in Latin is most naturally considered in connexion with the changes produced by the accent; for they are affected much in the same way as the vowels in post-tonic syllables (see ch. iii. §40).
§ 135. 'Sandhi'in Latin :-Verrius Flaceus proposed a new symbol for final $m$, when the next word in the sentence began with a vowel, a symbol like the half of the ordinary letter M ; while Cato the Elder wrote dicae for dicam, faciue for faciam (see § 61). The tendency of final $-m,-n$ to adapt themselves to a following consonant-initial, is seen in spellings on inscriptions, like im balneum, C.I.L. iv. 2410 , imbello, iii. 4835 , im pace, viii. 10542 (for examples see Indices to C.I. L.) and in MS. spellings like im mare, im medio, im pace, im pyppim in Virgil MSS. (see Ribbeck, Ind. p. 433), im praeda, im uita in the Plautus Palimpsest (see Ind. to Studemund's Apograph.). Caper (106. 17 K.) says : in Siciliam dicendum, non 'is Siciliam,' кata $\tau \grave{c} \nu$, non кatà $\boldsymbol{r o}$ o, quia nunquam sine n pronuntiatur (leg. insicia . . non 'is.' ?). We have etiannunc in the Herculanean papyri (Class. Rev. iv. 443), and etiennum, jandudum, \&c. in MSS. of Virgil (see Ribbeck), spellings which agree with the statement of Velius Longus (78. 19 K. cum dico 'etiam nunc,' ' quamvis per m scribam, nescio quomodo tamen exprimere non possum), and Cicero's remarks on the sound of cum followed by $n$ - (Or. xlv. 154 ; Fam. ix. 22. 2; cf. Quint. viii. 3. 45 ; Diom. 450.34 K. ; Pompeius 293. 17 K. ; Prise. i. 372.8 and 594. 21 H. \&c.). Est was curtailed in writing, as in pronunciation, like our 'is,' in 'it 's,' 'he's,' \&c., audiendust, audiendast, audiendumst, \&c., a spelling recommended by Mar. Victorinus (22. 14 K.), and found in MSS., e. g. in Virgil MSS. acerbist, locutast, ventumst, amantemst, cupidost, suprast, \&c. (see Ribbeck's Index, p. 419), in the Plautus Palimpsest copiast, aegrest, homost, olimst, palamst, meliust, \&c., and similarly with es, iratas, dignus, iturus (generally printed by editors irata's, \&c.; once with es Imperat., viz. molestus, Most. 955) (see Studemund's Index, p. 505). One may perhaps see the beginnings of the suppression of final consonants in the tendency of pronunciation mentioned by Consentius (fifth cent. ? A. D.) ( 395.7 K.), the tendency to detach a final consonant from its word, and join it to a following initial, 'si cludit' for sic ludit, 'si(c) custodit'
for sic custodit: item litteram c quidam in quibusdam dictionibus non latine ecferunt, sed ita crasse, ut non discernas, quid dicant : ut puta siquis dicat 'sic ludit,' ita hoc loquitur, ut putes eum in secunda parte orationis cludere dixisse, non ludere ; et item si contra dicat illud, contrarium putabis. alii contra ita subtiliter hoc ecferunt, ut cum duo c habeant, quasi uno c utrumque explicent, ut dicunt multi 'sic custodit.' [Cf. his remarks (394. 7 K .) on the pronunciation 'dixera millis' for dixeram illis.]
§ 136. Latin 'Doublets.' By pretonic Syncope (see ch. iii. § гз) ac (for*atc), nec, neu, seu, replaced atque, neque, neve, sive before a word beginning with a consonant. In Dramatic poetry the final.$^{-e}$ is always suppressed, in similar circumstances, of nempe, and often of unde, inde, quippe, ille, and perhaps iste. Similarly proin, dein seem to have developed from proinde, deinde, when a consonantal initial followed. Final $d$, after it had been dropped after a long vowel in the pronunciation of most words, remained in monosyllables like haud, med, ted; haud being the form used before a vowel, hau before a consonant (Caper. 96. 4 K. 'hau dolo' [leg. haud uolo?] per d recte scribitur, etenim d inter duas vocales esse debet. quod si consonans sequitur, $d$ addi non debet, ut 'hauscio'; Mar. Vict. 15. 21 K. So in Plautus, Ritschl opusc. ii. $59 \mathrm{I} n$. and v . 352) ; the same probably being true of med, ted. (On qui(n)e, quandoc and quandoque, see ch. x. § 15, ch. ix. § ro.) Preposition 'doublets' $\bar{u}, \breve{c} b, a b s ; \bar{e}, e c, e x, \& c .$, on which see ch. ix. §§ 12 and 29.
§ 137. Dropping of final consonant in Latin. It was a rule of Latin, pointed out by Julius Caesar, in criticizing Varro's spelling lact, that no word could end in two mutes (Pompeius 199 K . ; Caper 95 K. On lacte, lact, lac, see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s.v.). Nor was a double consonant allowed to end a word. Plautus gives to miles, es, \&c. the scansion of miless (for $*_{\text {milit-s }}$, ess, \&c. (see ch. viii. § 2) ; but almost the only trace (a doubtful one) of spelling with -ss is noss in the Ambrosian Palimpsest in Stich. 536; though Velius Longus ( 54.6 K .), commenting on Virgil's 'hoc erat, alma parens,' half proposes to write hoccerat : ergo scribendum per duo c, 'hoccerat alma parens' aut confitendum quaedam aliter scribi, aliter enuntiari (cf. Pompeius ir9. гз K.; Prisc. ii. p. 6. г H. So hoccine for *hocce-ne, *hod-ce-ne, Prisc. i. p. 592. 22 H.). Mel (for *mell, *meld), cor (for *corr, * cord), ter (for terr, cf. terr-uncius, *ters, *tris) are short in Ovid, \&c., though long (neither mĕl nor mēl are found) in Plautus; but the difference between -s (from original -ss) and ordinary -s is shown even at a late period by spellings like milex, praegnax (see § 125).
Final $-d$ after a long vowel is written throughout the S. C. de Bacchanalibus of 186 в. c. (C. I. L. i. 196, sententiad, exstrad, facilumed, \&c.), though it is not found in the decree of Aemilius Paulus Macedonicus of 189 b. c. (ib. ii. 504I, in turri Lascutana, ea tempestate), and probably does not appear in Plautus, excepting in the Pronouns (Abl. and Acc.) med, ted, sed. Even these Pronoun forms are out of use by Terence's time. The retention of haud along with hau shows the course which this final $d$ must have taken. Before vowels it would remain pronounced until the preconsonantal form had driven the full form from the field (so in post-Augustan poetry we find nec more and more supplanting neque) ; before consonants it would probably be first assimilated, e.g. haud lŭgo, pronounced haulligo, like alľ̆go, haud scio, pronounced hausscio like $a(s) s c i s c o$, then dropped. After a short vowel, it is often written -t on late inscriptions (and indeed from the end of the Republican period), but is not dropped (see Seelmann's list, p. 366).

Final $-m$ is dropped in early inscriptions before a consonant or a vowelinitial with equal frequency, in the earliest inscriptions more after o of the Gen. Plur. (perhaps not yet shortened before -m), than after o of the Acc. Sg. Masc. and Nom. Acc. Sg. Neut. On the older Scipio epitaphs it is usually dropped, e. g. oino (Acc. Sg.), duonoro (Gen. Pl.) (C.I. L. i. $3^{2}$. But from c. гзо it is regularly retained in spelling [as also on State inscriptions like the S. C. Bacch. of 186 в. c., the (restored) Columna Rostrata, \&c.], until the plebeian inscriptions of a later date (see § 65). On these it is not merely dropped but also is written $-n$, as final $-n$ is occasionally written $-m$ (see Seelmann's lists, p. ${ }^{664}$ ). It never fails, as final $-s$ may fail, to constitute ' position' before an initial consonant in early poetry; though the frequency of the scansion enim before a consonant in Plautus (where the final syllable is shortened by the law of Breves Breviantes) suggests that this represents the usual pronunciation of the word. Final $m$ before an initial vowel seems to have been equally adapted with a final long vowel or diphthong for what is called 'Prosodical Hiatus,' i. e. for being scanned as a short syllable, instead of being elided. Ennius, for example, ends a line with millia milititm octo, as he begins another with Scipiŏ invicte. (Cf. circu(m)ire, septu(m)ennis, septu(m)aginta, but septumus, \&c.) (On the treatment of $-m$ in poetry, see $\S 65$; and on its weak pronunciation in ordinary speech, § 6r.) The course it took is perhaps indicated by Consentius ( 394.7 K .), who says that the common way of pronouncing a phrase like 'dixeram illis' was to detach the $-m$ from the first word, and join it to the initial of the second. (Cf. Pompeius 287.7 K.) (see §. 6r.)

Final $-s$ is dropped on early inscriptions especially in the Nom. Sing. of IO-stems, written -io, or -i (see Index to C.I. L. $\mathrm{i}^{1}$. p. 602). That both io and - $i$ represent the same sound $-\bar{i}(s)(\mathrm{ch} . \mathrm{vi} . \S 2)$ is quite possible. (Cf. Cornelio on one Scipio epitaph, C.I. L. i. 31, c. 250 в. c., Corneli on another, i. 35, c. 160 в. c.) But as a rule $-s$ is dropped only after a short vowel, except in the dialect of Pisaurum, e. g. matrona(s) (ib. i. 167 sqq .), and is more often retained than dropped.

Cicero speaks of its failure to prevent elision of a preceding $\bar{\imath}$ in the phrase vas' argenteis; and some have thought that it is occasionally elided before an initial vowel in Plautus, e. g. com(is) incommodus, Bacch. 40I, amatu(s) es written in the MSS. amatus. But all the instances admit of other explanations; amatu's is rather a case of prodelision, like our 'it's' for 'it is' (the length of the $u$ is due to the double $s$ with which es ended in Plautus' time, ch. viii. § 2) ; plur(is) existumo of Plaut. Pers. 353 may easily be a mistake for plure, which Charisius tell us was used in O. Lat., and so on. Whether aequănı̆mitas implies a pronunciation aequ(us) animus is doubtful; it seems rather to come from the Compound (ch. v. §80) uequ-animus (cf. the gloss 'Animus aequus' duae partes orationis ; 'animaequus' ipse homo, C.G.L.v. 266. 11-12). (On final $s$ not constituting 'position' before an initial consonant in the older poetry, see § 126.) The Latin loanwords in Teutonic seem to have still possessed -us (e. g. Goth. sakkus, a U-stem, Germ. kurz, from Lat. saccus, curtus), but to have lost the final consonant of -um (Zeitschr. Roman. Philologie, xvii. 559).

Final $t$ is often written $-d$ on late inscriptions, e. g. reliquid, fecid (see Seelmann's list, p. 366), which probably indicates change to the media lenis in pronunciation. It is dropped with great frequency in the graffiti of Pompeii, e. g. ralia, ama (see Index to C. I. L. iv.).

Final -nt loses the dental, and is written $-n$, or $-m$, on late inscriptions, e.g. fecerun (see the Indices to the Corpus), though, no doubt, the $-t$ was heard before an initial vowel, like the $t$ of Fr. vient in vient-il? Dedro (C.I.L. i. ${ }_{177}$ Matre Matuta dono dedro matrona 'Matri Matutae donum déderunt matronae') is a form belonging to the dialect of Pisaurum in Picenum. The dropping of final consonants ( $-m,-d,-r,-f ;-t,-n,-s$ ) in this order of frequency is a feature of Umbrian (see von Planta i. 568).
§ 138. Dropping of final consonants in Romance. Lat. final consonants are better preserved in monosyllables than in other words. $\check{E t}$ is in Italian e, before vowels ed ; in O. Fr. and Prov. e and ed ; in Span. y and e; aut is in Italian o, od ; Fr. ou, Span. o ; ŭd in Ital., Prov. and O. Fr. is a before consonants, ad before vowels, \&c. - $M$ remains in the monosyllables, Fr. rien (Lat. rem), Span. quien (Lat. quem), \&c.; el in a monosyllable like mel, Fr. miel, Span. miel, Ital. miele ; $r$ in the monosyllable cor, Fr. cueur, O. Span. cuer, Ital. cuore ; $-n$ remains in non (Ital. no and non). In longer words, $-m$ is dropped, e. g. Ital. dieci from Lat. dë̆cem, amava from Lat. ămäbam; -t is retained in Fr., e.g. O. Fr. aimet, but Ital. ama, Span. ama. In Sardinian the form used 'in pausa' (at the end of a sentence, \&c.) is amat, before a vowel amad, e.g. amad issu, before a consonant ama, e. g. ama su padre; $-l$ and $-r$ are lost in Italian, e. g. frate, tribuna, insieme (cf. Span. ensieme, but Fr. ensemble) ; -s is lost in Ital. (though in monosyllables it leaves an $i$, e. g. noi, crai, which is absorbed in a preceding $e$, e. g. tre), but it is retained in Fr. and Span., e. g. Ital. tempo, Fr. temps from Lat. tempus, and from Lat. cantas, lĕgis, Fr. chantes, lis, Span cantas, lees ; - $d$ is lost in Ital. chè, Span. que from Lat. quid, but remains in O. Fr. qued ; -c has disappeared in Ital. di (Lat. dic), si (Lat. sic) ; -nt is -n in Ital., Span. e.g. Ital. aman-o, Span. aman, but remains in Fr., e. g. aiment ; $-x$ remains in Fr. six, Span. seis, but not in Ital. sei. It thus appears that French has been far more retentive of final consonants than Italian or Spanish. In the Sardinian dialect of Italian (Sardinia was the earliest province, and its dialect is a descendant of the earliest stage of Vulgar Latin), all final consonants remain, except -m, e.g. tempus, amas, amat, ses, amant, nomen, but adapt themselves to the following initial, e. g. est bennidu (pronounced 'es b-') (see Meyer-Lübke Ital. Gramm. p. 156). But in standard Italian there are still traces of these lost final consonants of monosyllables, e. g. ebbene for e bene (Lat. et bĕnë), ovvero for o vero (Lat. aut vērō), dimmi for di mi (Lat. dīc mìhi), checcosa for chè cosa (Lat. quid causa), where the double consonant is due to the final having assimilated itself to the following initial, as Latin $\bar{a}$ arose from a collocation like ab-bŏnis, *am-me (for $a b m e$ ), *ap-patre (for ab pätre). In French we see 'Sandhi' carried to far greater lengths than Italian, where almost every word ends in a vowel. Before an initial vowel, French $-s,-t,-r$ are heard in pronunciation, and a nasal vowel resolves itself into an oral vowel followed by $n$. And, more curious still, $-l$ of words closely joined to a following word beginning with a consonant suffers the same change as $l$ before a consonant in the middle of a word and becomes $u$; e.g. du père, au père, beau, like autre, \&c. In S. Spain -s becomes $h$, or is dropped, e.g. 'Cađi(h)' (Storm. Engl. Phil. ${ }^{\prime}$ i. p. 7I).
§ 139. Syllable-Division. The Romance languages show a remarkable agreement in their division of the word into
syllables, their principle of division being to make the syllable end with a vowel, and begin with a consonant, or combination of consonants. Any combination of consonants, that is pronounceable at the beginning of a word is made to begin the syllable, with the one occasional exception of combinations beginning with $s$, where the $s$ is in some languages allowed to end the preceding syllable. An Italian says o-bli-quo, te-cni-co, e-ni-gma, a-tle-ta, no-stro, be-ne, a pronunciation which often offers considerable difficulty to Englishmen, who would, for example, more naturally pronounce the last word as ben-e, like 'any.' A Spaniard says ha-blar, bu-llir, but nues-tro, attaching the $s$ to the first syllable. The Roman division of syllables was that of the Romance languages, not of the English, as is proved to certainty by the very precise and unmistakable statements of the grammarians on the subject. Their rule is 'Never let a syllable end in a consonant if the consonant can possibly be pronounced at the begimning of the next syllable'; and they give examples like pöte-stas, no-ster, a-mnis, ma-gno, a-gmen. The same method is followed in those inscriptions which indicate the syllables by dots, e.g. C.I. L. vi. 77 T•AN•NI•vs•HE•DY•pNvs, $11682 \mathrm{vi} \cdot \mathrm{xit} \cdot \mathrm{AN} \cdot \mathrm{NIS}$, as well as by contractions, where the initial letters of the syllables are used, like $\overline{\mathrm{MG}}$ (magnus), $\overline{\text { OMB }}$ (omnibus), $\overline{P P}$ (propler); though on inscriptions we often find $s$ taken with the preceding syllable in words like cae-les-ti (vi. 77), sesTV•LE•TVS (ix. 4028), with which we may compare misspellings like disscente (vide § 130 ). Occasionally a grammarian urges the advisability of regarding the etymological formation of compounds like abs-tèmius, ob-līviscor; but such remarks only show that the natural pronunciation of these words was ab-stemius, obliviscor, just as we in natural utterance disregard the formation of phrases like 'at all,' ' at home,' and pronounce 'a-tall,' 'a-tome.'

[^28]' Mnestheus,' 'attulit': non possumus duo $t$ sequenti syllabae dare, quia nullus sermo invenitur, qui a duabus $t$ consonantibus inchoetur, et hoc in ceteris consonantibus observabimus. plane scire debemus, conexiones quod dico consonantium non eas quae latinis syllabis congruunt, sed etiam quae graecis, excepta scilicet ea syllaba quae constat de $b$ et d, quae in latinum sermonen numquam ita transit, ut cohaereat, ut est $\beta \delta \epsilon ́ \lambda \lambda a$. quando enim scribimus ' abditur,' non possumus a in una syllaba ponere et b et d in sequenti. He thus testifies to $a$-spice, $a$-mnis, at-tulit, abditur. Similarly Caesellius (ap. Cassiod. vii. 205. I K.) to pote-stas, no-ster, ca-pto, plo-strum, lu-strant, capi-strum, clau-strum, ra-strum, campe-stre, a-stla (for astula), pe-stlum (for pestulum), car-po, dor-sum, Por-cius, Pa-ris, la-pis, tu-tus, sol-vo, ner-vus, rol-vo, lar-va, pul-vis, te-mu-is, but dissyllabic ten-vis, be-lu-a and bel-va, ma-lu-a and mal-va ; Terentianus Maurus (vi. 35I, v. 879 K.) to o-mnis, a-mnis, and (v. 904 K.) ma-gnus, di-gnus, $u$-gnus, si-gna, pu-gna (v. 94 I K.), fa-xo, a-xis, ne-xus, u-xor, no-xia ; Marius Victorinus (vi. 29. 20 K.) to a-mnis, ar-ma, a-xis (cf. Charisius, i. ı1. 19 K. ; Dositheus vii. 387.4 K.) ; Caper (vii. 96.9 K.) to no-strum, ve-strum, maje-stas; Dositheus (vii. 385.5 K.) to $a$-gmine, ma-gno ; Priscian (i. p. 42 H.) to a-bdomen, My-gdonides, Abo-dlas, A-tlas, Ae-tna,i-pse, nu-psi, scri-psi, scri-ptum, dra-chma, a-gmen, vi-ctrix, sce-ptrum, thus admitting, unlike Servius, bd into the list of pronounceable combinations, and (p. 50 H .) pa-scua, lu-scus, Co-smus, pro-spera, te-stis, \&c. Bede and Alcuin insist on copyists of MSS. breaking up words at the end of a line according to these rules, ma-gnus, pro-pter, colu-mna, \&c. Etymological division is recommended by Quintilian (i. 7. 9) with the instances haru-spex, abs-temius (quia ex abstinentia temeti composita vox est); by Caesellius (ap. Cassiodor. vii. 206. r K.), ob-liviscor, and (205. 18 K.), di-spicio. abs-tulit, trans-tulit, abs-condit) ; by Alcuin (vii. 306.4 K.), ob-stipui, ob-sum, ob-strepo, obs-olevit (cf. Cassiodor. vii. 204. 19 K.). Priscian similarly says (i. p. 45 H.) si antecedens syllaba terminat in consonantem, necesse est etiam sequentem a consonante incipere, ut 'ar-tus' 'il-le' 'ar-duus,' nisi sit compositum, ut 'ab-eo' 'ad-eo' ' per-eo,' but adds that Herodian in his treatise on Orthography declared it to be 'rationabilius sonoriusque' to follow the ordinary syllable-division in the case of Compounds too ; and in another passage (i. p. 42) he hesitates between $\alpha$-bnuo and ab-nuo. Terentius Scaurus (vii. г2. г K.) censures 'nes-cio' for ne-scio, a mispronunciation which shows the tendency already mentioned (§ 139 ) to detach $s$ from a following consonant or consonant group, or perhaps rather to divide it between the two syllables, 'nes-scio.'

The law of Breves Breviantes in Plautine prosody, it may be mentioned, takes no account of syllable-division. Shortening is allowed (after a short syllable) of a pretonic syllable long by position in words like gubĕrnábunt, caviluditor, volüntaitis, where the consonant group is divided between two syllables neither more nor less readily than in words like egěstäti, venŭstatit, where the consonant group is confined to one syllable.
§ 141. Quantity. The quantity and the quality of a vowel are two different things. We are apt to distinguish in our minds a long and a short vowel (say $\breve{e}$ and $\bar{e}$ ) by quality, not by quantity, thinking of $\breve{e}$ as an open E-sound, of $\bar{e}$ as a close E-sound, whereas the terms 'long' and 'short' should be
applied only to the amount of time taken in pronouncing the vowel, so that there is, properly speaking, a long and a short open E and a long and a short close E . It is true that difference in quantity and in quality often go together ; thus Latin $\breve{e}$ was, like our $\breve{e}$, open $\mathbf{E}$, Latin $\bar{e}$ was close $\mathbf{E}$, though the long sound of open E was also known in Latin, and was written ae (§ 6). The Romance languages, which have lost all other distinction of the Latin long and short vowels, distinguish them according to quality (e.g. Lat. bĕllus is Ital. bello with open E, Lat. stella is Ital. stella with close E), though this distinction of quality does not always correspond to distinction of quantity (e.g. the $\breve{\imath}$ of Lat. video and the $\bar{e}$ of Lat. credo are similarly represented in Fr. vois, crois) (§ 6). Consonants, too, may differ in their quantity like vowels. For example, English final consonants are long after short, short after long vowels, e. g. 'hill,' ' heel.'

We may distinguish at least three degrees of quantity or length,--long, short, and half-long,-an example of the last being the vowel of our ' note,' while 'node' and German 'Noth' have a long vowel. Latin half-longs may be detected by the metrical scansion of a syllable as either long or short, e.g. in Plautus' time the final syllables of ümat, tĕnet, ăbit, dŏlor (ch. iii. §40) ${ }^{1}$.

The marked distinction between a long and a short vowel in Latin made it possible for the Romans to imitate the quantitative metre of the Greeks. Their own native metre, the Saturnian, which is represented in literature by the 'Odyssea' of Livius Andronicus and the 'Bellum Poenicum' of Naevius, but which was banished from the domain of poetry by Ennius, was,

[^29]vowel being written with $e i$, or with the tall form of $i$ (to indicate the long sound) on inscriptions, and being usually so scanned by poets; but Virgil ( $A$. vi. 773) has urbemque Fídenam. Scansions like İtalia (an imitation of a Greek prosodical usage) are mere metrical licences, and prove nothing about actual pronunciation ('İtaliam' . . . extra carmen non deprendas. Quint. i. 5. 18).
like the metre of the Teutonic and other I.-Eur. stocks, accentual, not quantitative ${ }^{1}$. But the Romance languages do not possess this distinction. We are in the habit of calling an accented vowel, such as the second vowel of the Italian word 'Toscana,' long; but in reality it is pronounced with no more length than the unaccented vowels of the same word. One of the chief differences of such a language as Italian from Teutonic languages is the equal length which it assigns to each vowel, even a final unaccented vowel. Contrast, for instance, the final $e$ of Ital. notte with that of Germ. Gabe, or the final $i$ of Tivoli in the Italian and in the usual English pronunciation of the word. Almost the only really long syllables in Italian are syllables long 'by position,' e.g. the first syllables of 'tanto,' 'tempo,' which, as we shall see (ch. iii. § 4), have in fact a circumflex accentuation, ' tânto,' 'têmpo.' Similarly the Spanish accent does not impair the quantity as the English accent does; and in French the usual quantity of every vowel is the half-long, e.g. jeune. (See Storm on Romance Quantity in the Phonet. Stud. 1888.) All this points to a period of 'Vulgar Latin' when all vowels were equally short or half-long, and when the only predominance of one vowel over another would be that conferred by the stress of accentuation. And we detect traces of this process of 'levelling' in the evident uncertainty of the grammarians of the fourth and fifth centuries A.D. about the quantities of words for which they have not one of the classical poets to appeal to ${ }^{2}$, and above all in the errors in scansion of those

[^30]Christian poets who imitate the quantitative verse of the Augustan poets. Grammarians often censure mispronunciations due to the overmastering of quantity by accent, e.g. Céres (Mar. Sacerd. 451. 13 K.), pīcĕs (Consent. 392. 18 K.), pīper and д̆rator (ib. 392. 3, II quod vitium Afrorum speciale est) ; they frequently caution against the confusion of equus (with accented short open $e$ ) and aequus (with accented long open $e$ ) (Pompeius, 285. 8 K., \&c.). Cf. the haphazard use of the apex and tall I on late inscriptions (ch. i. § 1). For a discussion of the influence of accentuation on the quantity of the Latin vowels (e.g. late Lat.
 and pācem, (I.-Eur. păk . and $p \bar{a} k-$ ), see ch. iv. § 51 .
§142. 'Position.' In Latin poetry a syllable is scanned long, even though it have a short vowel, if the vowel precedes any consonant-group requiring a certain period of time for pronunciation. A long syllable of this kind is said to be long by 'position ' (positio, e.g. Quint. ix. 4.86 ; i. 5.28 ) ; and the way in which a Roman apprehended this length by 'position' may be seen from a passage of a fifth cent. grammarian (Pompeius, 112. 26 K .): ut puta si dicas 'et,' unum semis habet. e vocalis est brevis, unum habet tempus. $t$ consonans est, et omnis consonans dimidium habet tempus: ecce 'et' unum semis habet tempus. adhuc non est nec longa nec brevis; plus tamen habet a brevi, minus quidem habet a longa. adde ad 'et' s, etiam fit longa. quare? e brevis unum tempus habet, t dimidium tempus habet, s dimidium tempus habet : ecce duo tempora sunt, fecerunt duo tempora longam syllabam. With a naturally long vowel there would be really extra-length, but there is no account taken in Roman poetry of the different length of, say, the second syllables of calesco (with $\bar{e}$ ) and morlestus (with $\breve{e}$ ), both being treated as long syllables. Plautus, however, seems not to shorter by the Brevis Brevians Law (ch. iii. § 42) a syllable with naturally long vowel, scanning qǔ̆s ŭncédit? but not qǔ̆s 九̆nsistit? qǔ̆s infértur? (before $s$-, $f$ - the vowel of in was long, § 144).

Consonant groups which admitted of more rapid pronunciation were not necessarily scanned long, viz. groups composed of a mute and a liquid ( $r, l$ ). Thus in Virgil agrum (with $\breve{a}$ ) may
be scanned with the first syllable long or short as the poet chooses. Plautus and the older dramatists, who follow more the actual pronunciation of everyday life, never scan such a syllable long, though in other than dramatic poetry this scansion is found ; e.g. Ennius in his epic has nigrum (Ann. 187 M.), sacruficare (il. 233), \&c., with first syllable long, whence we may infer that in rapid unconventional utterance such a syllable was short, but in measured ceremonious speech the longer dwelling of the voice on the mute and liquid justified a long scansion. That such a syllable differed from an ordinary short syllable is seen in the avoidance by the dramatists of the shortening of a vowel after a mute and a liquid by the Brevis Brevians Law; e.g. Plautus scans $\breve{a} \breve{\iota}$ readily, but avoids a scansion like $\breve{a} g r \check{\imath}$. The same pronunciation of a mute with $r$ seems to have prevailed in Imperial times, to judge by Servius' note on Virg. $A$. i. 384 Libyae deserta peragro] 'per' habet accentum ; nam 'a' longa quidem est, sed non solida positione; muta enim et liquida quotiens ponuntur, metrum juvant, non accentum (cf. Quint. i. 5.28 ; ix. 4.86 ), but not of a mute with $l$ in the word maniplis, according to the same authority (Serv. ad $A$. xi. 463 in hoc sermone, . ut secunda a fine habeat accentum usus obtinuit). The establishment of the pronunciation maniplus with long second syllable (but short $\breve{\imath}$ ) has been plausibly referred to the longer form manípulus (on the presence and absence of the parasitic or svarabhaktic vowel in Latin between a mute and $l$, see § 102); but it may be objected that Plautus scans poplus with first syllable short, as well as trisyllabic pŏpulus; and makes the suffix tlo- (ch. v. § 25) one syllable, with preceding vowel scanned short, in $\tau$ čhŭclum, though (normally) two syllables in cŭŭčulum. In the Romance languages the accent has been shifted to all penultimate vowels followed by a mute with $r$, e.g. Ital. allegro (with accent on second syllable) from Lat. álacris (Vulg. Lat. *alecro-) (see ch. iii. § II ), which shows that in Vulgar Latin the combination of a mute with $r$ came universally to constitute length by position. This, too, has been explained by the supposition of a parasitic vowel, *alécerro-, like the occasional spelling arbiterium (in poetry, however, arbitrium is invariably scanned with short second syllable), but may also be referred to the practice which
we see most clearly in Italian of lengthening a mute before $r$, e.g. fabbro (Lat. făbro-), febbre (Lat. fëbris), and Ital. occhio from Lat. occulus (Vulg. Lat. oclus, *occlus ?), suggests a similar account of the Imperial Latin pronunciation of maniplus. We see the same doubling in English 'fodder' (from 'food '), 'bitter' (from 'bite'), 'apple.' Gröber ascribes this consonant lengthening (Comm. Woelffl. p. I7I) to what is called the 'legato,' as opposed to the 'staccato' pronunciation; that is to say, *fabrowas pronounced with linking of the two syllables fa- and bro-, not with that marked break of one syllable from another that we see in Ital. be-ne (§ 139). The same 'legato' pronunciation of the two syllables of a word like factum, omnis (but cf. § 139), he makes the scientific explanation of the scansion of the first syllable as long (similarly with fac tumulum, \&c.), and by the tendency to attach an $s$ in a group like $s t, s c, s p$ to the preceding syllable (seen in misspellings like disscente, § I30), he explains the scansion esto, nescio, \&c., with first syllable long. On the other hand, when a word ended in a vowel and the next began with $s t$, $s c, s p$, the 'legato' pronunciation did not equally assert itself, so that Lucretius allows a scansion like lileră sponte (v. 79) and the like, though Virgil does not ${ }^{1}$. The Italian pronunciation of festa, pescare, aspro, \&c., lengthens the $s$, similarly the $l$ in alto, the $r$ in morte, the $n$ in mondo, the $m$ in campo, and so on.

In early Latin poetry final $-s$ as a rule does not before an initial consonant constitute length by position, a fact due to the weak pronunciation of $-s$ at that period (§ 126 ). Similarly initial $h-$, both in early and classical poetry, has not the weight of an ordinary consonant. But final $-m$ always has this weight (§65).
§ 143. Shortening of long vowel before another vowel. In the word pius the $i$ was originally long (cf. Osc. Pílhioí 'Pio' Dat. Sg.), and the scansion pīa (MSS. diu, dia) has been ascribed to Ennius in his Epic (ap. Cic. Rep. i. 4 I .64 :

> pectora pia tenet desiderium, simul inter
> sese sic memorant: O Romule, Romule die),

[^31]though Plautus in his homelier dramatic poetry recognizes only $\mu \check{\mu} /$ s. The shortening of the $i$ is due to the difficulty found by the Romans in maintaining the long quantity of a vowel before another vowel. The same is true of diphthongs; we find, for instance, the compound of prae and *hendo assuming the form methendo (and even prenulo, $\$ 5^{8}$ ). The amount of length assigned to a long vowel or diphthong in such a position would differ at different periods, and even in the pronunciation of the same period. Plautus is no doubt using the colloquial pronunciation of his own day when he scans Chŭus (Adj.) (Poen. 699: Curc. 78 ) ; whereas unüs was not in vogue at Quintilian's time (extra carmen non deprendas, sed nee in carmine vitia ducenda sunt, Quint. i. 5. I8), and Servius (ad Virg. A. i. 45I) says that audiit. and not auliit, leniit and not lenlit, was the ordinary pronunciation, the forms with the short penult being a usage of poetry. Here the retention of long $i$ in Servius' pronunciation may be ascribed to the presence of the forms with $r$, autivit, lenivit, and similarly we find in Ter. Phorm. 573 aulieras. The fīi of Ennius, e.g. Ann. 43 I M.:
nos sumus Romani qui fuimus ante Rudini,
is sometimes used (especially at the end of a line, i.e. through metrical necessity) by Plautus, who makes similar use of fieri. fierem. (On Ennius' arlü̈it Perf. \&c. see ch. viii. $\$ .50$; we have foveit, C.I. L. i. 105 I.$)$

The same shortening must have appeared in the pronunciation of the sentence, when a word ending in a long vowel or diphthong preceded a word beginning with a vowel, so that the 'prosodical hiatus' of Latin poetry, e.g. Plant. tŭ amas, Enn. Scipiŏ inuicte (cf. Ennı̆ imaginis), Virg. quĭ amant, \&c, was a native Latin usage and not an imitation of Greek versification ${ }^{1}$. Final long vowels would, therefore, have a short variety or 'doublet,' which occurred as often as a vowel-initial followed, and this fact, coupled with the tendency of the accent to weaken a long final, especially in iambic words (ch. iii. §40), explains the early shortening of final $\bar{a}$, e.g. terrŭ, and the later shortening of final -ō, e.g. ponŏ in Imperial Latin (ch. iii. § 45).

[^32]On inscriptions we not unfrequently find a short $i$ before another vowel in the middle of a word written with the tall form of the letter, the usual sign of $\bar{i}(\mathrm{ch} . \mathrm{i}$. § I ), e.g. dIe, with prIvsqvam (C.I.L. vi. 10239) ; and in the Romance languages the $i$ of dies is represented by the usual representative of Latin $i$, e.g. Ital. di, Prov. dia, Fr. di, Span. dia. This at first sight seems to be in direct opposition to the usual law of shortening. a long vowel before another vowel. But it is unlikely that a short vowel was lengthened in this position; all that the Romance forms and the spelling with tall $I$ need imply is that the $i$ had the quality (not necessarily the quantity) of long $i$, in other words, had the close and not the open sound (\$ 14). This is certainly the explanation of Romance *pio, with close $i$ (Ital. pio, \&c.), and of the pIvs of inscriptions, e.g. C.I. L. vi. $105^{8}$, for we have seen reason to believe that a long $\bar{i}$ shortened in Latin retained the quality of long $i$, aud $\mathrm{l} t$, \&c., of the classical and later period being pronounced with the close, not the open $i$-sound (§ 14). But the $i$ of dies must have been originally short (ch. iv. § 63). (The examples from Romance are discussed in K. Z. xxx. 337 ; additional examples of tall I in dies, pius on inscriptions are given in Christiansen, De apicibus et I longis, p. 32.) (Cf. the sound of Engl. 'the' before a vowel.)
§ 144. Change in quantity of vowel before certain consonantgroups. The quantity of a vowel which stands before a group of consonants or a double consonant in Latin is not so easily determined as the quantity of a vowel followed by a single con-
 the Latin poets will fix the quantity of the vowel of every syllable except the third. The $u$ of the third syllable is long by 'position,' as it is called, because it stands before the consonants ct, but we cannot tell from a line like-
venit summa dies et ineluctabile tempus,
whether it is also long by nature or not. To ascertain the natural quantity of these vowels which are long by position ${ }^{1}$, we can refer to two main sources of information; first, the

[^33]inscriptions which denote a long $a, e, o, u$ by an apex, a mark like the symbol of the acute accent (and from с. гзо в.с. by doubling the vowel), a long $i$ by the tall form of that letter; second, the Romance languages which, as we have seen, distinguish a long from a short $e, i, o, u$, when, as seems usually to have been the case, the long and the short vowel differed in Vulgar Latin in quality as well as in quantity. Neither of these sources are wholly satisfactory. The apex and tall $i$ seem to be often used at haphazard, especially on inscriptions later than 150 A.D., and the latter has other uses than to express long $\bar{i}$, such as for initial $i$, consonantal $i$ (our $y$ ), and so on ${ }^{1}$. The Romance languages, and the Teutonic and Celtic loanwords, often indicate a quantity different from that which can be inferred for a word in Classical Latin, a very natural thing if we consider how much the pronunciation of a vowel is liable to be influenced by the consonant-group next which it stands, and by the analogy of other words of a similar form. Some help is occasionally afforded by the statements of grammarians on the quantity of this or that vowel, though even they sometimes show by their hesitation that the pronunciation of such vowels was in their time not always definitely established. Aulus Gellius (second cent. A.D.), for example, discusses the proper quantity of $e$ in quiesco (vii. 15 ), and decides for $\bar{e}$ on the analogy of calēsco, nitēsco, stupēsco and other Inceptives, as well as of the noun quiēs (cf. quiēsco C.I. L. vi. 2553 I), though he adds that a friend of his, an educated man, invariably pronounced the word with short $e, q u i e s s c o . ~ I n ~ a n o t h e r ~ p a s s a g e ~(i x . ~ 6) ~ h e ~ r e c o m m e n d s ~ t h e ~ p r o-~$ nunciation äctito, against a common pronunciation of his time, $\breve{a} c t i t o$, which was defended by the analogy of the short vowel of the simple verb $\breve{a} g o$. The grammarians of a later date, when the distinction between long and short quantity was beginning to disappear, are still more at a loss about those quantities for which they have not the authority of the classical poets to fall back upon. It is difficult to believe Priscian (ix. 28) (sixth cent.) when he posits a naturally long penult for all perfects with $e$,

[^34]e.g. illëxi, and for no others, e.g. düxi, nor yet when he makes the $a$ of mansi long by position only (ix. 27). Greek transcriptions, too, are often dangerous guides; for the quality of Greek $\epsilon$ and $\eta, o$ and $\omega$, differed, as we have seen ( $\S 32, \S 21$ ), from that of Latin $\breve{e}, \bar{e}, \breve{o}, \bar{o}$, the Greek short vowels being, at least in the Attic period, close and the long vowels open, while the Latin short vowels had the open, the long the close sound. Greek ov is no indication of the long $\bar{u}$ of Latin, but merely of the $u$-sound of Latin $\check{u}$, as opposed to the $\ddot{u}$-sound of Greek v. Greek $\varepsilon \iota$, however, almost always indicates Latin $\bar{\imath}$ (see Eckinger).

Etymology indeed will often help us. Thus we can infer a long vowel in the first syllable of luctus, grief (the $u$ is marked long on inscriptions), from the analogy of ligeo; though we should never have guessed that hésternus, unlike hĕri, had a long vowel, if we had not been informed of the fact by a Latin grammarian (Mar. Victorin. vi. 15 . 15 K. 'hesternum' producte dici debet: nemo enim est, qui latine modo sciat loqui, qui aliter quam producta syllaba 'hesternum' dixerit). The metrical treatment of words by the early dramatists may also be appealed to, if it be granted that a vowel long by nature is seldom or never shortened by the influence of a preceding short syllable, in words like vŏlŭptátem, or phrases like quŭl ŭgnóras (see ch. iii. § 34). With all these aids it is possible to gain a good deal of information about the quantity of vowels long by 'position' in Latin, quite enough to prove the irrationableness of our usual method of pronunciation which ignores all distinction of quantity in their case ${ }^{1}$, though hardly enough to settle satisfactorily the question with which this paragraph proposes to deal, namely the extent to which the influence of one consonant-group tended to shorten a vowel naturally long, of another to lengthen a vowel naturally short. To ascertain the limits of our knowledge and of our ignorance on this subject it will be necessary to make a more minute examination of the several words involved than is generally wanted.

[^35]In one case at least we seem to have safe ground under our feet. Cicero (Orator, xlviii. § 159), tells us that in- and conlengthened their vowel when compounded with a word beginning with $s$ or $f$ : quid vero hoc elegantius, quod non fit natura sed quodam instituto, 'indoctus' dicimus brevi prima littera, 'insanus' producta, 'inhumanus' brevi, 'infelix' longa. et, ne multis, quibus in verbis eae primae litterae sunt, quae in 'sapiente' atque 'felice,' producte dicitur, in ceteris omnibus breviter. itemque ' cōmposuit' ' cōnsuevit' ' cŏncrepuit' ' cōnfecit': consule veritatem, reprehendet; refer ad aures, probabunt. That this rule should be extended to all vowels before $n s$, ( $n f$ ), we see from such statements of grammarians as that Present Participles in eens, -ans had in the Nominative a long vowel (Probus iv. 245. 13 K.; Pompeius, v. 113. 23 K.), while the original shortness of this $e$ is indicated by the Romance languages for the other cases (e.g. Ital. -ente with open $e$ in the penult); that $e$ was long in the termination of Numeral Adverbs in -iens, -ies (Probus iv. 247. 9. K.) (cf. O. Ind. kíyănt, \&c.), and in the Nominative Singular of lëns, gēns, mēns, \&c., (Bede vii. 230. 15 K .), while $\breve{e}$ in the other cases of these nouns is indicated by the Romance forms (e.g. Ital. dente, gente, with open e, Span. diente, miente). Probus, however, seems to inculcate insŏns, insŏntis as opposed to fōns, föntis (iv. 6.12 and 28.26 K.: cf. Prisc. vii. 39). Inscriptions, too, show the apex in words like cléméns (C. I. L. ii. 4550), prócédéns (vi. 1527 d 28), and a host of other examples with $n s$ (see a list of them in Christiansen, De apicibus, \&c. p. 41); while Greek inscriptions have - $\eta \nu s$, e.g. Прoviŋ̀s (Eckinger, p. 115). Finally Romance forms like Ital. teso (with close $e$ ) from Latin tē $(u) s u s$, the participle of tendo (with open e) from Latin tĕndo, not only indicate a long vowel before $n s$ in Latin, but also seem to show that this long $e$ had the same quality as the usual Latin $\bar{e}$ (close $e$ ), and was not a mere protraction of the open $e$-sound of short $e^{1}$. Quintilian

[^36][^37](i. 7. 29) tells us that in the word consuless the nasal was not sounded, a fact possibly expressed by the usual abbreviation of the word on inscriptions, cós. The dropping of the nasal is also indicated by spellings like novies beside noviens, and by the Romance forms, e.g. Ital. teso (Lat. tē (u)sus), and Celtic and Teutonic loanwords, e.g. Welsh dwys (Lat. dē $(n) s u s)$, O.H.G. îsila (Lat. ì (n).sula, cf. Diom. i. 409. 3 K. ; Serv. in Don. iv. 442. 30 K.) (cf. Iferos, C.I L. vi. 19873).

The grammarians who repeat the rule of Cicero with regard to $i n$ - and con- (Gellius, ii. 17 ; Probus, iv. 149.33 K. and 253 . 22 ; Diomedes, i. 433. 55 K. ; Serv. ad Aen. i. 187 ; Max. Vict. vi. 204. 16 K. ; Audacis exc. vii. 354. 21 K .), often add the remark that the rule was not strictly followed in the pronunciation of their time. Thus Diomedes (i. 409. 3 K.) says of $i n$ - and con- before $s, f$, 'plerumque producuntur' (cf. Cledonius, v. 76. 9 K.) ; and Servius (in Don. iv. 442. 28 K.) intimates that the rule was often violated in practice, plerumque enim non observantes in barbarismos incurrimus. This probably indicates a tendency of later Latin to give in- and con-in these compounds the same short vowel-sound that they had in other compounds like ${ }_{\text {incerldo }}$, cŏncedo, and in the simple forms $\breve{n} n$, cŭm ; and this will explain why it is, that on all but the earliest inscriptions of the Empire, the instances of apexed vowels before $n s$ are not so frequent in these compounds, as in other words (see the lists given by Christiansen), and also why, both on inscriptions and in Romance forms, instances of a long vowel before $n f$ are rare ${ }^{1}$. For the combination $n f$ hardly occurs except in the case of verbs beginning with $f$ compounded with $i n$ - and con-. The word consul was perhaps not regarded as a compound; for the o is marked with the apex on inscriptions with great persistency. In Welsh, too, the Old Welsh form cusil points to a Latin cō(n)silium (cf. Diom. i. 409.3 K. : Serv. in Don. iv. 442.30 K.). But, for compounds, which were realized in popular usage to be compounds, the pronunciation of Cicero's time must have gone

[^38]more and more out of fashion under the Empire. Its prevalence in the time of Plautus may be inferred from the fact that Plautus is averse to ins-, inf- being shortened by the influence of a preceding short syllable (see § 142). In Umbro-Oscan we see lengthening of a vowel before $n s, n f$ in Osc. keenzstur, ' censor,' (with long open E, § 6), Umbr. aanfehtaf, 'infectas.'

The remark of Priscian (ii. 63), that the terminations -gnus, -gna, -gnum are always preceded by a long vowel, has been extended by Marx and others into a rule that the combination -gn- always lengthened a preceding vowel. Of Priscian's examples (rëgnum, stāgnum, benūgnus, malīgnus, abiëgnus, privīgnus, Paetĭgnus), abiëgnus, rēgnum, stāgnum had probably originally a long vowel (cf. abiès, règem, stāre); privignus gets a certain amount of confirmation from the spelling PrIvIGNo on a soldier's epitaph (C. I. L. vi. 3541) ; but lenйgnus, malägnus receive none from Romance forms like Ital. benigno, maligno, which are probably 'bookwords,' acquired by recent borrowing from Latin, not naturally transmitted by continuous usage from Roman times.

The Romance forms (e.g. Ital. degno, Span. des-den, 'disdain'; possibly 'bookwords,' A. L. I. viii. 324), point to Vulg. Lat. dünnes; but the word has the tall $I$ in C.I. L. vi. 6314 digne, and elsewhere. They point also to sŭgnum (cf. sŭgillum), (Ital. segno, Span. seña, \&c.) ; but on inscriptions we have sIgnum (C.I.L. vi. 10234, a carefully written inscription of 153 a. d., and elsewhere), sIqnificabo (vi. 16664). The grammarian Diomedes (fourth cent.), speaking of the rhythmic arrangement of some of Cicero's clauses (i. 470.9 K. ), seems to speak of dignitas as an anapaest, just as he calls jüstam a trochee; and if this be the right construction of his words, it suggests that he pronounced fügnutū̀s. Welsh swyn, a charm, Old Irish sén, blessing, sénaim, to bless, to sain, Old High German sëgan, charm against evil, blessing, are all from a late Latin signum in its Christian sense of 'the sign of the cross'; and their form indicates a form segnum, with close $e$, a development of an earlier sĭguum, not sīgnum (cf. § 14). The Romance forms indicate, too, a short vowel in lignum, pignus, pugnus, and show us that if the lengthening of a vowel before $g n$ was a tendency of Latin pronunciation at all, it was not one $\mathbf{s o}^{-}$
marked, and so persistent, as the lengthening before $n s$. [For further discussion of this question, see Bezz. Beitr. xvi. 189 sqq.; Mém. Soc. Ling. vi. 34 note ; K. Z. xxx. 337, where it is suggested that the change in the vowel was one of quantity merely, not of quality, so that dignus, signum, would have the long open $i$-sound. Before $g n$, by a phonetic law of Latin, $\breve{e}$ became $i(\mathrm{ch} . \mathrm{iv} \S 8)]$. The spelling pIgmen(tum) on an African inscription (C.I. L. viii. i344) is not evidence enough for a lengthening of the vowel before gm ; nor is the exact relation clear between subtegmen and sultemen, exagmen (?) and exāmen (Class. Rev. vol. v. p. 294 : Etym. Lat. p. I26) (see ch. iv. § 116 ).

In the Perfect Participle Passive and kindred formations of verbs whose Present ends in -go, preceded by a short syllable, e.g. lĕgo, ăgo, we find a long vowel. Thus lēctor, lēctum, äctum, līctor (from a third-conjugation form *ligere?) are attested by Aul. Gellius (xii. 3 and ix. 6), lécto by Porphyrio (ad Hor. S. i. 6. 122), while on inscriptions we have lëctor (C. I. L. vi. 9447, the epitaph of a grammaticus, and so presumably correct in spelling ; vi. 27140 ), allēctō, xiv. 376 (second cent. A.d.), \&c., äctīs (vi. і $5^{27}$ d 59, в.c. 8-2), \&c., infíāctā (ix. 60, c. Ico A. d.) (while $\breve{a}$ for fiango is proved by effringo, confringo ( $\breve{\imath}$ from $\breve{e}$ ), rēcte ${ }^{1}$ (xii. 2494, beginning of first cent. A.d.), téctor (vi. 5205), and the like (see Christiansen, p. 47, and cf. $\lambda \eta \kappa \tau o s, \pi \rho o \tau \eta \kappa \tau о[\rho o s]$ on Gk. inscrr., $K . Z$. xxxiii. 402.). The long vowel is also found in the Perfect (properly S.-Aorist, see ch. viii. § 39) of these verbs, rèxi, tēxi (Prisc. ix. 28, who adds illēxi ${ }^{2}$ ), rëxit (C.I.L. v. 875, 105 A.d.), tēxit (x. 1793) (see Christiansen, p. 49). Whether it is due to the consonant-groups $g$ and $t, g$ and $s$, or is a lengthening peculiar to the Perfect and kindred forms of the verb (see ch. viii. §39), it is difficult to say, but the latter supposition is certainly the more probable. The single instance on inscriptions of a form that is not Verbal, viz. $m \bar{a} x(i m o)$ (vi. 2080, the Acts of the Arval Brotherhood, c. 120 A.D.) is not sufficient

[^39]alluded to by Hor. (Epp. i. r. 59) rex eris aiunt Si recte facies.
${ }^{2}$ Plautus puns on illectus, the Verbal Noun from illicio, and lectus (from lego), a bed, Bacch. 55.
evidence for the former. Diomedes (431. 17 K.) says the $i$ of $n i x$ is short. A similar difficulty presents itself in connexion with the parallel formations from Verbs ending in -ngo. Gellius (ix. 6) attests $\bar{u} n c t u s$ beside $\breve{u} n g o$; and on inscriptions we have sejūnctuin (C.I.L. vi. 1527 e 38, в. с. 8-2), \&c., dëfünctis (v. 1326), \&c., conjünxit (xii. 4333, time of Antonines), extīnctos (vi. 25617, A.d. io), cīnctus (x. 4104) (see Christiansen, pp. 44 sqq.). Here the spelling sānctus (cf. Osc. saahtúm, Umbr. sahata), frequent on inscriptions, seems to show that the lengthening occurs before original $n c$ (sacer ${ }^{1}$ ), as well as before $n c$ from original $n g$; but the few instances of non-verbal forms, viz. conjūnx (vi. 6592, 6593), the numeral quinctus, frequent on inscriptions (Christiansen, p. 46) (cf. quīnque, quīni), are again insufficient evidence to separate the lengthening from the ordinary lengthening of the Latin Perfect. The absence of the nasal in nactus (beside nanctus), fictus (but finctus Ter. Eun. 104), plebeian defuctus (ii. 4173 ), and sactissimae (vi. I551I ; v. 6580) (cf. Welsh saith beside sant, § 70), is explained in ch. viii. § 10 . In quintus it is the guttural that disappears. All the Romance forms point to quintus (cf. Greek Kovelvios and Koєlvios, though the earliest forms are Ko九үктוos and Koıvтos: see Eckinger, pp. 122 sqq.), but declare for the short vowel in pŭuctus, ünctus, čnnctus, tı̈nctus, č̆nxi, fĭnxi.

In the absence of express testimony, such as we have for $n s$, $u f$, it is impossible to be sure that the combination of $g$ with a consonant, like $n, m, t, s$, whether preceded or not by a nasal, had a lengthening effect on a preceding vowel; though there certainly are a good many apparent indications of this. It is equally impossible to decide whether the supposed influence exerted on the vowel may have been a change of quality merely, and not of quantity, just as the combination ngu had the effect of changing an $o$ to a $u$, e.g. unguis for *onguis (ch. iv. § 20).
145. r with consonant. Spellings on inscriptions like Förtun(a), Förtunata (C.I. L. vi. 7527) (cf. Fotunate vi. 2236) suggest that the o, which was certainly originally short (Lat. orr for I.-Eur. $!$, see ch. iv. § 92 ), has been lengthened by the influence of the following $r$. If this be so, it could only have been a local pronunciation, or at least one that never gained a secure footing in the

[^40]language; for the Romance languages testify abundantly to short vowels in words like porcus, cornu, certus, \&c. Marius Sacerdos (vi. 45I. 5 K.) quotes pērnix as a barbarism ; and Pompeius (v. 126. 5) censures the mispronunciation arma. So that the initial o of $\overline{\text { orno }}$. if long, as attested by inscriptions,
 Antonines ; (for other instances on inscriptions, see Christiansen. p. 53], and by Celtic loanwords (e.g. Welsh addurn, 'ornament,' addurno, 'to ornament,' Lat. adōrno) must have been originally long and cannot owe its length to the influence of the following rm . (Similarly förma, ördo, orca.) But it is more likely that the $o$ was not really long, but merely had the quality of long Latin $\bar{o}$, in other words was close 0 . Plautus seems to scan orm-after a short syllable ; though the instances are so few as to leave a slight doubt (Trin. $8_{4}$ o might possibly be noro cum ōrnatu, Aul. 721 eo ōmatus). There are not wanting indications that $r$ with a nasal tended to modify the quality of a vowel, e. g. formus and furnus, formica and furmica, turnus (Greek $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ ópoos), just as in Italian to-day (though not in the Toscana) close $e$ becomes open before $r$ with a consonant, e. g. verde, erpice (Meyer-Lübke, Ital. Gram. § 54). How far this may explain the discrepancy between the firmus of inscriptions (Christiansen, p. 53), and the Vulg. Lat. firmus, postulated by Romance forms like Ital. fermo, and the Welsh loanword fferf, it is difficult to say. Arrum with short a expressly attested by Audacis exc. p. 328.8 K ., originally the neuter of the adjective ăruus, e. g. Plaut. Truc. 449 non aruos hic sed pascuos ager est, appears with long $a$ in an inscription of Tiberius' time (äreäli, C.I.L. vi. 9 13). (For other cases of long vowel before $r$ with consonant on inscriptions, see Christiansen, pp. 5I sqq.) [Ărma, attested by Serv. in Don. 426. ir and 36 K. Prisc. Acc. 52 I. r 5 , Audacis exc. 328.6 , is proved by inermis, for $\bar{a}$ is not weakened to $e$ (ch. iii.) ; ürx Pomp. Izo. 7 is proved by coerceo.]
§146. s with consonant. The short vowel before $s p, s c, s t, \& c$. , attested by the Romance languages for words like rësper, pisscis, crǐstu, is quite strong enough evidence to disprove the theory that an originally short vowel was lengthened before these combinations, and to show that the long vowel indicated by inscriptions for pästor, prīscus, trīstis, jūstus, \&c. (see Christiansen, pp. 54 sqq.) must have been originally long. Diomedes (p. 431, 31; 432, 16. . attests feněstra, c̆sper; Quintilian (ix. 4. 85) agrěstis, Audax (359. 15 K.) campěstris, \&c. Hēsternus (Mar. Victorin. vi. 15. 15 K.) beside hĕri is puzzling; also the discrepancy between crüstum of C.I. L. i. i 199 and Vulg. Lat. criusta indicated by the Romance forms, e.g. Ital. crosta. Festus (86. 8 Th.) distinguishes lŭstra, wallowing-places, from lūstra, purifications.
§ 147. n with single consonant. Vēndo (Ital. vendo with close e), föntem (Probus 6. 12 K.; but Romance *fönt- by analogy of other nt-stems), princeps (Ital. principe, \&c.) are enough to disprove the theory that this combination shortened a preceding long vowel. There are, however, points of difficulty. Servius (in Don. 426.34 K.) attests princeps; Diomedes 433 . I8 cŏntio (by anal. of cöm-?) (for coventio, and so originally cōntio, or perhaps *cüntio ; French nonce, annoncer points to a Latin form nüntius (for noventius, and so originally nüntius, Mar. Victorin. vi. 12. 18 K.) ; Romance words for 'eleven,' like Span. once, Fr. onze, point to a Vulg. Lat. ündecim (properly ūndecim, from ünus and decem) (sinciput is usually explained as $*_{s e \bar{m}}(i)$-caput). There are some indications that the quality of a vowel was liable to change before this combination. Thus oond- appears as -und- in frundes, a form ascribed to Ennius (see K. Z.
xxx. 336) ; unguis seems to be for *onguis (ch. iv. § 20). The remark of a late grammarian (Anon. Bern. Suppl. if H.), that hirundo, arundo have $\bar{u}$, is a mistake based on a misunderstanding of Priscian i. p. 123.7 H.
§ 148. 1 with consonant. Vulg. Lat. remülcum (Ital. rimorchio, Span. remolque, Fr. remorque), properly remülcum (from Greek $\bar{\rho} \bar{v} \mu o v \lambda \kappa \epsilon \epsilon \omega$ ) is not evidence sufficient to justify us in supposing that this combination had the effect of shortening a preceding long vowel. Ŭltra, the form attested by the Romance languages, was in all probability also the classical form ; in Varro, L. L. v. 50 read uls, miswritten in the Archetype uis, as in v. 83, and then changed by scribes to ouis: ultrā, not ültra, is the true reading of the Claudius Tablet at Lyons, col. r. 1. 40 (Allmer et Dissard, Inscriptions antiques, Musée de Lyon, vol. i. pp. 70 sqq.). The influence of this combination, however, in changing the quality of a vowel is seen in culmen beside cŏlümen, vult beside vŏlo, \&c. (see ch. iv. § 20 ).

The shortening of a long vowel before certain single final consonants, $-r,-t, \& c$. is, like the shortening and change of final vowels, dependent on the Accent, and so is discussed in the next chapter. (On the Assimilation of Consonants, e.g. summitto for submitto, see ch. iv. § 159.)
§ 149. Crasis of vowels, Synizesis, \&c. Two neighbouring vowels in the middle of a word became a Diphthong if the second was $i$ or $u$, e.g. coetus for co-itus (used literally in Plaut. Amph. 657 primo coetu uicimus), suffered Crasis if they were suitable vowels, e.g. cōmo from co-emo (cf. Engl. 'doff' for do-off, 'don' for do-on), while if the first was $i$ or $u$ (or in certain cases $e$ or o) Synizesis was a common result, e.g. larva from lārua (a trisyllable in Plautus). Compounds of a Preposition ending in a vowel, and a Verb, \&c., beginning with a vowel or $l$, show vowel-contraction more regularly in the early dramatists than in the Augustan poets, e.g. coercé (a dissyllable) Pacuv., conestat (for colonestat) Accius, whether it be that these contracted forms are a relic of the earlier accentuation of the first syllable of every word, cóerce, and the uncontracted the result of the shifting of the accent, cö-érce, or that the contracted belong to the conversational language of everyday life, the uncontracted to the artificial diction of the higher poetry. Possibly a trisyllabic coerce is a 're-composition' like $\bar{e}-n e ̆ c o$ beside older enico (with weakening of unaccented vowel), or adcurro beside accurro (with assimilation of consonants) (see ch. iv. § 159). Synizesis went hand in hand with Syncope [lārua became larva at the same time that läridum became lardum (see ch. iii.)], and asserted itself more and more under the Empire ; e.g. quetus (*quyētus) for quiètus is a common spelling on late inscriptions (cf. Ital. cheto, Span.
quedo, Prov. quetz). The palatalization of a comsonant under the influence of a following $i$ (become $y$ ) before a vowel has played a great part in the Romance languages, e.g. Fr. bras from bracchium, *braccyum (see §48). A final vowel before an initial vowel suffered elision (see the next section), and the same thing may have happened to the $e$ of ne- in neutiquam, \&c., which is scanned with the first syllable short (or should we pronounce nyŭtiquam, nyullus, nyusquan?), while nĕ̈̆ter, in which the accent by the Penultima law fell on the $n e$-, was pronounced as a trisyllable.
§ 150. Vowel-contraction in compounds in the early dramatists. Coerce (dissyll.) is found in Pacuvius, Trag. 47 R. :
gradere átque atrocem cóerce confidéntiam
(cf. l. 345) ; and in Plautus deartuare (Capt. 640, 672), deasciare (Mil. 884); deosculari (Cas. 136, 453, 454, 467) are quadrisyllables. But dehortari (four syllables) stands in contrast to hortari in Poen. 674--

> neque vós hortari néque dehortarí decet.
(Ennius, Ann. 40 has the same verb in Tmesis: de me hortatur.) The phrase coemptionalis senex, used of old, and therefore valueless, slaves who were bought not singly but in numbers (from coemere, to buy in a lump) is irreverently applied to his master by the cunning slave in the Bacchides, 976-
nunc Príamo nostro si ést quis emptor, coémptionalém senem uendam ego,
where the word coemptionalem is scanned with five syllables, as cohonestat appears in the form conestat in a line of Accius (Trag. 445 R.) -
pró se quisque cúm corona clárum conestát caput. (MSS. conectal, constat.) Of the compounds of hăbeo, dēbeo always has the contracted form in Plautus; cohibeo may in all cases scan as cōbeo, and prohibeo as prōbeo ; pruebeo is sometimes spelt praehibeo in the MSS., but the scansion may always be trisyllabic, and must be so in Merc. ro23; and the same holds true of all the older poets. In Terence we find only prendo and reprendo, not prehendo (unless possibly Andr. 353), nor reprehendo (from prae and *hendo). (For other instances, see Klotz, Altröm. Metrik, p. 139.) In the classical literature the full forms of these verbs are generally restored [but e. g. cōgo from *co-ago, cōgito from *co-agito (ch. viii. § 3r), dēbeo, praebeo, \&c.], though Derivative words often retain the shorter form, e. g. cōpula from *co-apula, from ăpere, to fasten ; praeda for ${ }^{*}$ prae-heda (cf. prehendo) ; praemium from *prae-emo (cf. eximius from ex-ěmo), \&c. (see ch. v. § 4).

Coepi Perf., with its O. Lat. Present coepio, comes from an old verb ăpere (cf. äpiscor) meaning 'to fasten' (Paul. Fest. 14. 2. Th. comprehendere antiqui vinculo 'apere' dicebant), derivatives of which are aptus, aptare, as well as cöpula just mentioned. In the Perfect we should expect cöēpi like cöēgi from cōgo (co-ago), and this scansion is occasionally found, as in this hexameter line (usually referred to Ennius' Annals) ( 536 M.)-
(cf. Lucr. iv. 619). Like dissyllabic coepi (the usual scansion both in the early and in the classical poetry) is Terence's trisyll. coemisse (Ad. 225).
§ 151. Synizesis in Late and Vulgar Latin. For a list of spellings from late inscriptions and from MSS. like quesco (for quiesco), Febrarius (Ital. Febbrajo, Span. Febrero, \&c.), see Schuchardt, Vok. ii. pp. 444 sqq., and cf. Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. vv. virl( $i$ ) arium, $\operatorname{sesqu(i)ater,~vac(u)efacio,~ventr(i)osus,~sem~}(i) \operatorname{ermis}, \operatorname{sem}(i)-$ ustus, sem(i)uncia, vitr(e)arius, alv(e)arium. All these show suppression of $\breve{u}$ $(w), \breve{\iota}(y)$ before an accented vowel, long by nature or by position. Similarly Lat. coactus has become Ital. quatto, Prov. quait, Span. cacho, through Vulg. Lat. *quattus (from *cuactus), Lat. coāgulum, Ital. quaglio, Span. cuajo, and so on. Forms with Synizesis occasionally appear in the Latin Poets (classical as well as ante-classical), e.g. praemjatores, Naevius, Com. ${ }_{17}$ R., injurjatum, Lucilius ii. 9. M., malvisti, id. Inc. fr. ix M., genva, tenvia, arjete (with the first syllables of these three words scanned long by position) (see Luc. Müller, De Re Metrica, pp. 249 sqq.). (On 'scyo' or 'sciŏ,' see Charisius, p. r6. 9 K.)
§152. Other examples of vowel-contraction. Nīl from nihil (always monosyllabic in Plautus); nèmo from *ne-hemo; dissyllabic deinde, proinde (according to the grammarians these were accented on the first syllable; see next chapter, and cf. the Plautine scansion périnnde, Stich. 520) ; cömburo for *co-amb-uro ; limus for *bi-himus, 'of two winters' (cf. Engl.'twinter,' meaning a two-year old beast) from hiems : cōpia and O. Lat. cōpi- Adj. for ${ }^{*} c o-o p i a$, *co-ŏpis- (cf. $i n$--̌̆pi-) ; antehac (see $\S 58$ for other examples of the loss of intervocalic $h$ with contraction). The loss of intervocalic $k, y$ led to contraction in words like dïtion for divitior, dīnus a form of dīvinus, stō for *stāyō (Umbr. stahu, ch. viii. \& 2) (but $e$ and $o$ do not coalesce in mŏneo, pleo, \&c., nor $a$ and accented $\bar{e}$ in ăherrus) ; on these see ch. iv. §§ 66 and 70 . So did the loss of intervocalic $m$ in cōgo for *cŏmăgo, \&c., (unless co was a by-form of com, ch. ix. § 22). The tendency to contraction of vowels appears at all stages of the history of Latin, and asserted itself in colloquial Latin even more than in the literary language. (For a fuller list of examples see Stolz in Müller's Handbuch, ii'. p. 275). (On the merging of $i$ in a following $i, u$ in a following $u$, see $\S 48$.)
$\S$ 153. Elision. Elision of a final vowel, or vowel preceding final $-m$, before the initial vowel (or $h$ with vowel) of a following word is a feature of Latin poetry. That it was also practised in speaking we see from passages like Cicero, Orator, xliv. § 150 ; xlv. § 152 ; Quint. ix. 4.33 ; xi. 3. 33-34; Seneca, Epp. 40 [cf. Cicero's story of Crassus mistaking Cauneas (sc. ficus vendo) for cave ne eas; Div. ii. 40]. Marius Sacerdos (448. 6 K.) says that in reading a line like Virgil's monstrum horrenilum, \&c., the final -um of monstrum was entirely suppressed, but this does not quite agree with the statement of Probus (ap. Gell. xiii. 21. 6) that turrim had a more melodious sound than turrem in the line turrim in praecipiti stantem, \&c. In the Saturnian Poetry a final syllable ending in $-m$ seems to have been not elided but left in
prosodical hiatus (see § 65), like the -um of circum in the compounds $\operatorname{circu}(m) a g o, \operatorname{circu}(m) e o$, or of sublatum, \&c., in the forms sublatuiri, \&c. (ch.viii. § 87), and the same treatment is found occasionally in the older poets, e.g. Ennius (Ann. 354 M.) (quoted by Prisician i. p. 30 H .) millia militŭm octo, and even in the Augustan poets with monosyllables, e.g. nŭm abest Hor.; a final long vowel was also shortened, not elided, like any long vowel before another vowel in the middle of a Latin word, e.g. prĕ-liendo, illŭuls, and so in the older poets frequently, occasionally in Augustan poetry, e.g. quĭ amant, Virg., Esquilinaĕ alites, Hor. (see § i43). This must be a native usage, and not an imitation of Greek poetry. Cicero's remarks on this subject may be quoted (Orat. xlv. ${ }^{15}{ }^{2}$ ) : nobis, ne si cupiamus quidem distrahere voces conceditur : indicant orationes illae ipsae horridulae Catonis, indicant omnes poetae praeter eos, qui, ut versum facerent, saepe hiabant, ut Naevius :
uos, qui accolitis Histrum fluyium atque algidam.
et ibidem :
quam numquam uobis Grai atque barbari;
at Ennius semel :
Scipio inuicte;
et quidem nos:
hoc motu radiantis Etesiae in uada ponti :
hoc idem nostri saepius non tulissent, quod Graeci laudare etiam solent. How far they indicate a change in actual pronunciation or in the mere technique of verse-making is doubtful (cf. ch. iii. §41).
§ 154. Parasitic vowels (cf. §§ 72, 102, and ch. iii. § 13). When two adjoining consonants are not easily pronounced together a vowel is often inserted to facilitate pronunciation. This is called Anaptyxis. The inserted or 'parasitic' vowel (sometimes styled in the terminology of the Sanscrit grammarians 'svarabhaktic' vowel, from Sansc. svara-bhakti-‘ partial vowel') is often seen in the older Latin loanwords from Greek, when the Greek word contained a combination of consonants which was not easily pronounced by Roman lips. A Roman did not begin a word
with the letters $m n$-, as the Greeks often did, so the Greek $\mu \nu \hat{a}$ took in Latin the form m̌na, just as in French the Low German knif became canif; similarly we find in Plautus tĕchina (e.g. Poen. 817 $^{\text {) , drăchüma and the like. Marius Victorinus ( } 8.6 \text { K.) says that }}$ the un-Latin character of the combination cm produced the forms Alcŭmeo, Alcŭmèna (so on an old Praenestine mirror, C.I. L. xiv. 4102), Técŭmessa, and adds that the tragedian Julius Caesar Vopiscus (an older contemporary of Cicero) was the first to conform the third word to the Greek T'́к $\mu \eta \sigma \sigma a$, writing the title of his tragedy Tecmessa, and ordering the actors to pronounce the name in this way on the stage (cf. Prisc. i. 29. 5 H.). (For a list of Greek words so treated, see Ritsch], Opusc. ii. pp. 469523.) The same thing is found in native Latin words. The suffix tlo- (ch. v. § 25), for example, which indicates the instrument with which an action is performed, or the place of its performance, is in Lat. -culo-, as well as -clo-, e.g. vĕhŭcúlum, 'that by which one is carried' (in Plautus always vĕhŭclum), cŭb̆̄č̆lum, 'the place where one lies down.' In Plautus the -clo- form is the more usual, especially after a long vowel; e.g. pĕrīcŭlum is a quadrisyllable only at the end of a line (i.e. through metrical necessity) in his plays, so that in his time the parasitic vowel between $c$ and $l$ had not quite asserted its claim to rank as a separate syllable (see § 102), though between consonants of less affinity, e.g. $l$ and $l$ in the ending -bŭlum, it is normal ; he uses both pŏpulus and pŏplus (the latter only at the end of a line) (cf. pilumnoe poploe, quoted from the Carmen Saliare by Festus, 244. 24 Th., a phrase for the javelin-bearing Romans). On the oldest inscriptions we have poplo- (e.g. poplus, C.I.L. ii. 504 I , of 189 b.c.; poplom on the (restored) Columna Rostrata, pro poplo Ariminesi, Not. Scav. 1887, p. 120); piaclum (C.I. L. xi. 4766) may be like cedre 'caedere' due to Umbrian influence; but pocolom on the early Praenestine vases (C. I. L. i. 43 sqq.), tabola (i. 197, 198), \&c. (Marius Victorinus, if we can trust the reading, quotes from the 'libri antiqui foederum et regum' piacolom. with populoi Romanoi.) At a later time the spelling -culestablished itself so firmly in the language that it became impossible to discriminate an original co-lo, e.g. cor-cu-lum (formed with the diminutive suffixes ko- and lo-, ch. v.), por-
culus for *porco-lo-, from an original -clo-; and still later the wave of Syncope which swept over the language reduced all these forms to the same type, porclus, stablum, cubiclum, \&c. (see ch. iii. § 13).

Anaptyxis played a great part in the Oscan language, and its kindred dialect, the Pelignian. We have in Oscan aragetud for Lat. argento (Abl.), Helevis for Lat. Helvius, teremenniú for '*terminia' (Lat. termuni), with liquid preceding ; and with liquid following, patereí (Lat. pătri), Sadiriis (Lat. Satrius), in Pelignian sacaracirix (Lat. sücrätrīces), pristafalacirix (Lat. praestülŭlütrices), and so on. The inserted vowel takes the quality of the vowel in the syllable containing the liquid, e.g. aragetud for *ar-getud, patereí for *pa-treí (so Lat. stălŭlum for $*_{s t a ̆-b l u m, ~ s t a ̆ b u l l i s ~ f o r ~}{ }^{*}$ sta-blis). The long preceding syllable is the reason of its absence in Osc. maatreís (Lat. mätris) (cf. O. H. G. hlūtres beside fŏgales and Plautus' preference of perīclum, \&c.). It is not found in the initial syllable, so that Terebonio (C. I. L. i. 190), if a dialectal form, does not belong to the Oscan dialect (cf. Terebuni, Eph. Epigr. i. 1 I6; Ital. calabrone from Lat crabro, a 'hornet'l). Accentuation often seems to influence its presence or absence in Latin ; for example, Plautus has usually mănŭpläris (once at least manipularis), as in classical Latin discǐpulus stands beside disciplina. But the cross-working of Anaptyxis and Syncope, and the difficulty of ascertaining in which words a suffix has been directly added to a stem ending. in a consonant, and in which there was originally an intervening vowel (ch. v. § 2I) has hitherto prevented the drawing up of exact rules for its use in the language. [A full list of Latin examples will be found in Stolz, Lat. Gram. (in Müller's Handb. Klass. Alterthumswissenchaft) p. 277 (2nd ed.) (see also above, § 102)].

[^41]
## CHAPTER III.

## ACCENTUATION ${ }^{1}$.

§1. Nature of the Latin Accent. Was the Latin accent one of pitch or stress? Did the accented syllable in a Latin word differ from the other syllables in being uttered at a higher note than they were, or with a greater force? The two things are obviously quite distinct. For a syllable to be sounded at a high or low note is one thing, with energy or with gentleness is another, just as a musical note may be sounded strongly or gently (forte or piano), a thing quite different from its being a note high or low on the musical scale. Most languages do indeed combine in a greater or less degree pitch-accent with stressaccent. The accented syllable, if pronounced with more energy than the unaccented, is generally at the same time pronounced at a slightly higher (or lower) pitch. But, for all that, it is usually possible to say decidedly of one language : this language has a stress-accent; of another : this language has a pitch-accent. Our own language for example is clearly a language of stressaccent. It distinguishes its accented syllables by giving them greater energy of articulation than the unaccented; and it shows the usual characteristics of a language with stress-accentuation, namely, a slurring or Syncope of short syllables immediately following the accented syllable (e. g. ' méd(i)cine'; cf. dám(o)sel,' ' fánt(a)sy' and 'fancy,') and an obscuring or reduction of unaccented vowels (e. g. 'father,' where the $e$ has the sound of the

[^42][^43]' obscure ' vowel of the word ' but'; 'savage,' 'minute,' ' orange '). In a long word, say the adjective ' characteristical,' we might number each syllable according to the amount of force with which it is uttered, the strongest (with the main accent) being the fourth syllable of the word, the next strongest (with the secondary accent) the first. The weakest syllables are, as is usually the case with stress-accentuation, those following immediately on the most strongly accented, thus 'chárâctẻ̉ristical ${ }^{4}$ I.' In the Romance languages the accent is, like ours, an accent of stress, but this stress is much weaker than ours, corresponding to our secondary stress rather than to our main accent. This is notably the case in French, where the stress is weaker than it is, for example, in Italian. But the Romance languages show the same tendency to syncope of short unaccented syllables, and to the reduction of unaccented vowels, as our language does, though in a much less marked degree (e.g. Italian gridare from Latin quйītare, balsimo from Latin balsămum). Pitch-accentuation is seen in English more in the accentuation of the sentence than of single words. A question like 'Are you ready?' differs by its rising tone from a statement of fact like 'He is ready.' In some languages however, such as Swedish, Lithuanian, Servian, these tone-distinctions are cleary marked in single words, a word of the same spelling as another being often distinguished from it by the tone alone. In English we have no example of this, unless it be such a word as 'rather,' which by a difference of tone can imply two different meanings, in answer to a question like 'Is it raining?' If we are asked, 'Is it raining?' and reply 'Rather,' the word, if we give it one tone, will imply 'slightly,' ' not much,' with another tone will convey the notion of 'heavily,' 'violently.' But in the main the distinctions of tone are unknown in our language ; and it is this that makes it difficult for us to understand the nature of a language which uses entirely or predominantly a pitch-accentuation, such as in ancient times the Greek language, and of living languages, Chinese. In the case of a dead language, we have two means of ascertaining whether its accent was one of pitch or of stress. We have the phenomena of the language itself on the one hand, and we have the statements of native grammarians, if they are
trustworthy, on the other. Both these means of evidence point to the pitch-character of the ancient Greek accent. The words of the language do not show that Syncope and Reduction of unaccented vowels, which we have seen to be characteristic effects of a stress-accent. The Greek grammarians' accounts of the accent of their own language point in the same direction. Modern Greek has, however, a stress-accentuation, so that the Greek accent must have changed its nature in the course of time, though at what precise period the change took place it is difficult to say. No doubt the nature of the accent differed more or less in different parts of Greece; and the accent in one dialect may have allowed stress to predominate over tone at an earlier period than in another (in the N. Greek dialects, for example, as in the N . Greek dialects of modern times ; see Hatzidakis, $K . Z . \mathrm{xxx}$. 388). The accent is taken into account in Greek metre in the verse of Babrius, a contemporary probably of Augustus, and author of a verse translation of Aesop's fables.

When we turn our attention to Latin, we are confronted with the difficulty that, while the Latin grammarians often speak of their accent in terms properly applicable only to a pitch-accent, all the features of their language point to its having been a stress-accent. The reduction of the unaccented vowel (e.g. $\breve{a} b \breve{b} g o, \& c .$, but Greek $\dot{a} \pi \dot{\alpha} \gamma \omega$, \&c.), the Syncope of syllables following the accent (e.g. objūrgo from objūrĭgo, caldus from cullŭdus), all indicate unmistakably the presence of a stressaccent. And the difference of its accentuation from Greek, though not a single grammarian definitely informs us of this difference, comes out clearly in the treatment of Greek loanwords, especially in the language of the less educated Romans. Greek Looía (with short $\imath$ ) became Sofía, a stress-accent replacing the pitch-accent with the result of lengthening the accented vowel; Greek eïò $\omega \lambda$ ov became ídŏlum. Instances like these show that the Romans had much the same difficulty as we have, in pronouncing Greek words with a short accented paenultima, or with an accented antepaenultima and long penult. The difficulty would not be so great for a Roman as for us, if his stress-accent, like that of his modern descendant, the Italian, was not so strong as ours; nor would it be so much felt at an earlier period, when
the distinctions of quantity were more vividly marked (see ch. ii. § 14I) than in the later Empire. The Hungarian language, where the sense of quantity is equally vivid, accentuates the first syllable of every word without detracting from the quantity of vowels in the following syllables. No doubt too the nature of the stress-accent would differ in various parts of Italy in ancient times, as it does to-day (see Meyer-Lübke, Ital. Gram. § 122, p. 71). In Praeneste, if we are to believe such indications as the spelling mgolnia for the name Magolnia on inscriptions, and perhaps the form conea for ciconia, 'a stork,' Syncope was carried to greater lengths than in Latin, and the stress of the accent must have been stronger (see § 14 below). But that the Latin language of all periods, at which we have definite knowledge of it, was a language of stress-accentuation, is proved by all the evidence at our disposal, and disproved by nothing except the silence of the grammarians. The same tendency to Syncope, which before the literary period produced undecin out of $*_{u} n o ̆-$ dĕcim, is seen working in the Early Literary time in words like objurigo (Plaut.), objurgo (Plaut. and Ter.), and in the Augustan age in calidus and caldus (the form preferred by the Emperor Augustus, Quint. i. 6. 19), while virdis for vĭrüllis asserted itself still later, and the same tendency, as we have seen, still shows itself in modern Italian. And hand in hand with Syncope goes the reduction and change of unaccented vowels. How then are we to explain the absence of comment on the part of the grammarians? We must, I think, take three things into consideration. First, that the study of Accentuation, and all the terminology used, came to the Romans from Greece. It was Tyrannio who in the first cent. в. с. brought this new lore to Rome, including among his earliest pupils possibly Varro and certainly Cicero's friend Atticus. Cicero, in a letter which has been preserved (ad Att. xii. 6. 2), banters his friend on his enthusiasm for so trivial a subject (te istam tam tenuem $\theta \epsilon \omega \rho$ íav tam valde admiratum esse gaudeo . . . sed quaeso quid ex ista acuta et gravi refertur ad $\tau \in ́ \lambda o s$ ?), and in his own treatise, the ' Orator,' published at this time, makes mention of the wonderful 'law of nature' which prescribes that the accent shall never be further from the end of a word than the third syllable (Or. xviii.
58). The word accentus itself was nothing but the Greek word $\pi \rho о \sigma \varphi \delta \dot{\prime} a$ in a Latin dress; and not only the terms employed, but the description of the phenomena of accentuation are taken directly from Greek authorities.

In the second place, the contrast between their accent and the Greek would not be felt so markedly by Roman grammarians as it would by us, whose accent has so much stronger a stress than the Latin, or modern Italian, a consideration which makes it less surprising that they did not remark on the essential difference between the two systems of accentuation. And thirdly, the Greek accent itself had probably at the time of these grammarians already entered that process of change which ended in the stress-accentuation of modern Greek. The Greek writers on accentuation would no doubt go on using the terminology of the earlier phoneticians, without perceiving that their terms and descriptions were no longer so applicable to the actual phenomena as they had once been; and if the Greek contemporary theorists on accent misused the terminology in this way, a Roman imitator might be excused for carrying the misuse a little further, in applying the same terminology to Latin accentuation. Indeed, the writers on Latin Grammar were seldom Roman by birth; they were usually Greeks, and would have the same difficulties in describing the Latin accent as a Frenchman in describing the strong stress-accent of English. These considerations may explain how it is that only a few statements of the writers on Latin Grammar are rid of the terms 'high ' and 'low' (instead of 'strong' and 'weak') accent, such as the remark of a fifthcentury grammarian, that the accented syllable in a Latin word is the syllable which would be heard at a distance, when the others were inaudible (quoted in § 2). We may then believe the Latin accent to have been in the main an accent of stress, like that of modern Italian, though like it (and the accent of the Romance languages generally), the stress-accent may have been accompanied by a higher tone than the tone of the unstressed syllables.

The discredit, which we have found it necessary to attach to the language the grammarians use in describing the nature of accentuation, makes us hesitate about accepting their distinction,
evidently borrowed from the Greek, of three kinds of accent, grave, acute, and circumflex. They postulate a circumflex for those syllables with naturally long vowels which would have one in Greek, namely, long paenultimas followed by a short final syllable, e.g. Rômă but Rómāe. The quantity of the final syllable is the chief factor in Greek accentuation, but not in Latin, where the quantity of the paenultima takes its place, so that one would not expect the accent of the first syllable of Romŭ to differ from that of Romāe. Other circumflex words are, according to the grammarians, long monosyllables like $\hat{\imath} \hat{e} s$, flos, môs, and final long syllables of words whose last vowel has been dropped by Apocope or Syncope, e.g. illīc from *illīee, nostrâs from nosträtis. In modern Italian these apocopated words have a strong acute accent on the final syllable, e.g. bontà, città, virtù, for bonitatem, civitatem, virtutem, but in Spanish a word like amó (Latin ŭmävǔt, Vulg. Lat. *amaut) has a tone-circumflex in the last syllable, the voice rising first and then falling slightly. There is hardly evidence enough to enable us to test this theory of a circumflex in Latin, nor to show, supposing such an accent did exist, whether it was a tone-circumflex, formed of a rising and falling tone, like Spanish amó or our ' Oh!' when used sarcastically, or a stress-‘ circumflex,' formed by two impulses of the voice, something like our diphthongal pronunciation of a long vowel, e.g. 'foe,' 'two.' In modern Italian a paenultima long by position has a very long pronunciation, and we might write a circumflex accent over the first syllable of words like tanto (pronounce 'tânto'), tempo (pronounce 'têmpo'), while the different treatment of a Latin penultimate from a Latin antepenultimate vowel in words like popolo (Lat. pŏpulus), uopo (Lat. ̆̈pus), suggest the possibility of a Latin Róma, \&c. as distinct from Rómulus, \&c.

On the whole, then, we may say that a circumflex accent may have existed in Latin in words like flôs, illic, and even in Rôma (though the grammarians' distinction of Rôma, Rómae is doubtful), but that certainty on this matter is not to be had. The Latin accent was an accent of stress, a stress which was not so strong as ours, and which may have been accompanied, as in Romance, by a high tone.
§ 2. Testimony of the grammarians. (l) On the Nature of the Latin Accent. The remarks of the Latin grammarians on accentuation have been collected by Schoell, De Accentu linguae Latinae (in the Acta Soc. Philolog. Lipsiensis, vol. vi. 1876). They include remarks not only on accentuation, but on proper pronunciation generally; for accentus is often defined as 'vitio carens vocis artificiosa pronuntiatio' (ib. p. 78). Here are one or two of the more important descriptions of the Latin accent. Varro, who probably learnt the theory of accentuation from Tyrannio (Schoell, ib. p. 6), speaks of the altitudo of a word as opposed to its longitudo (i.e. the quantity of the syllable). By altitudo he means its accentuation, cum pars verbi aut in grave deprimitur aut sublimatur in acutum (ap. Serg. de Acc. p. 525.28 K.) (cf. ib. p. 533.4 cum verbum enuntietur aliqua in eo syllaba necesse est summum illud vocis fastigium possideat). His imitator, Martianus Capella (fourth and fifth cent. A.D.) (iii. p. 65. 19 Eyss.), prettily describes accentuation as 'anima vocis et seminarium musices,' adding, quod omnis modulatio ex fastigiis vocum gravitateque componitur ; and Nigidius, a contemporary of Varro (ap. Gell. xiii. 26. 1-3 H.), describes the accentuation Váleri by the words summo tono est prima, deinde gradatim descendunt (cf. Audac. exc. 7. 357. 14-358. I K.). On the other hand Pompeius (fifth century A.d.) (5. 126-7 K.) uses language suitable to stress-accentuation (plus sonat), when he says, illa syllaba, quae accentum habet, plus sonat, quasi ipsa habet majorem potestatem, and goes on to use the illustration of the accented syllable of the word optimus being the only syllable heard at a distance, finge tibi quasi vocem clamantis ad longe aliquem positum, ut puta finge tibi aliquem illo loco contra stare et clama ad ipsum. cum coeperis clamare, naturalis ratio exigit ut unam syllabam plus dicas a reliquis illius verbi; et quam videris plus sonare a ceteris, ipsa habet accontum. 'optimus,' quae plus sonat? illa quae prior est. numquid hic sonat ' ti ' et ' mus' quemadmodum 'op'? Ergo necesse est, ut illa syllaba habeat accentum, quae plus sonat a reliquis, quando clamorem fingimus. [The same language is used by Servius (fourth cent.), in Don. iv. 426. io-20 K.]. Some would explain this difference of language by supposing the Latin accent in the time of Varro to have been more of a pitchaccent than it was in the time of Pompeius, while others try to make out that it is those grammarians who were themselves Greeks, or who follow implicitly Greek authorities, who speak of 'high' and 'low' accent, while the native grammarians of a more independent turn of mind use the more correct terms, 'strong' and 'weak.' I cannot see much ground for discriminating between the accent of Varro's time and of a later age. The same processes of syncope and vowel-reduction are at work at both periods and the cause of these processes must have been the same stress-accentuation. But there may well have been a change in the Greek accentuation which became more and more apparent in each successive century.
(2) On the circumflex accent. Servius (in Don. 426 . io K.) distinguishes the acute accent of árma from the circumflex of Mûsa, acutus dicitur accentus quotiens cursim syllabam proferimus, ut 'árma'; circumflexus vero, quotiens tractim, ut 'Mûsa' (cf. Pompeius, 126.4 K. non possumus dicere 'ârma,' non possumus dicere 'Músa'; Cledonius, p. 3г. зо K. 'árma' excusso sono dicendum est, while 'Rôma' is pronounced tractim). Similarly Priscian (i. p. 7. II H.) speaks of three different sounds of $\bar{a}$, with the acute, the grave, and the circumflex accent, as in hámis, hàmorum, hâmus, or árae, àrarum, âra,
and Vitruvius, in a passage borrowed apparently from Aristoxenus, says of the words sol, lux, flos, vox, nec unde incipit nec ubi desinit [sc. vox] intelligitur, sed quod [v.l. nec quae] ex acuta facta est gravis, ex gravi acuta. (Archit. v. 4. 2).
§ 3. Accentuation of Greek loanwords. (See the passages quoted by Schoell, pp. COI sqq.) An educated Roman would of course pronounce a Greek word correctly with the same quantity and accentuation that the Greeks themselves gave to it. The grammarians of the Empire prescribe the Greek accentuation for such Greek words in a Latin author as retained their Greek form and declension. Thus in Virg. Georg. i. 59 Eliadum palmas Epiros equarum ; Servius, in his note on the passage, says that the word Epiros, since it has its Greek form, must be pronounced with the accent on the first syllable, Épiros, unlike the Latinized form Epirus: sane 'Epiros' graece profertur, unde etiam ' E ' habet accentum ; nam si latinum esset, 'Epirus,' 'pi' haberet, quia longa est. But Greek loanwords which became naturalized at Rome were adapted to the Latin accentuation and declension. This was specially the case in the Republican period, according to Quintilian (i. 5. 60), who tells us that Julius Caesar followed the old habit of using Calypsonem, a form which Quintilian himself does not approve, though he accepts Castörem, Olympus, tyránnus. In the plays of Plautus, who uses the language of the educated society of his day, Greek words appear as a rule in a Latinized form with a Latin accent, but in some words of use among the common people the Greek accent is retained with the effect of altering the quantity. Thus the gold coin known as a 'Philip,' Greek $\Phi i \lambda \iota \pi \pi o s$, is always Philüppus with the second syllable shortened after an accented short syllable. The shortening of the second syllable, long by position not by nature, is, like the reduction of the vowel in Tarentum (Greek Tápavia, Accus., now Táranto), an indication that the Roman accent in early times, as well as late, produced an effect on the word that the Greek accent did not produce, an effect always traceable to a stress-accentuation. But whether a naturally long vowel was at this period ever shortened by the accent in a Greek loanword is doubtful. Ancŏra (Greek ä $\left.{ }^{\prime} \kappa \bar{v} \rho a\right)$, with $o$ instead of $u$, is not a certain example, and still less the hypothetical cunŭla (Greek кovì̀ $\eta$, not кóvī̀a) in Plaut Trin. 935 (Journ. Phil. xxi. 205). It
was frequently done at a later age when the long and short quantity had more approximated to each other (see ch. ii. § 141),

 (Greek $\left.\sigma \epsilon^{\prime} \hat{\lambda} \bar{\iota} \nu o v\right)$, our ' celery.' In all these popular words which passed into the Romance languages (Ital. ermo, sedano, \&c.) the rule seems to be that the Greek accent was always retained, even at the cost of the quantity, except in oxytone words, which followed rather the Latin accentuation, e.g. tapinus (Greek $\tau a \pi \epsilon \iota \nu o ́ s$ ) [see Meyer-Lübke, Gram. Rom. Sprach. i. p. 34, and cf. Anecd. Helv. 177.4 H. on 'aby̆ssus' (ảßvoros) : paenultima positione longa sed acuitur antepaenultima. So aby̆ssus Paulinus of Nola (19. 651; 35. 228); Cyprian, Gall. gen. 288 P.]. This inability of the Romans to reproduce the Greek accentuation of a final syllable is a subject of frequent remark in the grammarians. A Greek writer of the sixth cent. (Olympiodorus in Aristot. Meteor. p. 27) makes the curious remark that the Roman paroxytone pronunciation of words like Граєкоí, \&c., was due to their haughtiness (òıà ròv ко́ $\mu \pi \nu \nu$ ), and had earned for them the epithet of the 'overween-
 I have heard a Frenchman ascribe the English mispronunciation of words like 'Français' to the same cause.
§ 4. Romance Accentuation. The clearness with which each part of the word is pronounced in Italian and Spanish always strikes an English traveller. Every syllable has due effect given to it. There is nothing like the swallowing of parts of words, that is seen in our own and in other Teutonic languages. The unaccented vowel in Italian notte, Spanish noche, is clearer and more definite than in German Gabe; but on the other hand there is less difference in quantity between a long and a short vowel, the accented long vowel in the word 'Toscana,' for example, being hardly, if at all, longer than the unaccented vowels of the word. The accent is one of stress, but is accompanied by a high tone, the drop of the voice in a Spanish word like mano (Lat. manus), being about one-fifth, $\underset{\text { mano, }}{\overline{\text { On}}}$, though sometimes in emphatic utterance the word is pronounced with
a lengthening of final vowel and a slight rise of the voice on the second, the unaccented, syllable, The French accent must have at one time been of very powerful stress, so great is the reduction which French vowels and syllables have undergone, but it is now much weaker than in any other Romance language, so weak that it is usually difficult to say on which syllable the accent rests. The difference of pitch, say between the two syllables of the word 'jamais!' is often very considerable, especially

§ 5. The Earlier Law of Accentuation. The Indo-European accentuation, which we can generally ascertain from the Sanscrit and Greek (e.g. Sansc. pitá, Greek $\pi a r \eta \dot{\rho}$, father), has not left in Latin the traces which it has left in the Teutonic languages. According to a law discovered by Verner, and known as 'Verner's Law,' a Teutonic spirant, developed from an Indo-European unvoiced mute, remained unvoiced when the immediately preceding vowel bore the accent in the Indo-European, but became voiced when that vowel did not. The Indo-European verb *wértō, to turn or become (Sanscr. vártāmi, Lat. vĕ̀ito), is in Goth, vairra (our 'worth' in ' Woe worth the day!') with the unvoiced-spirant sound (our the in 'thin'); while Gothic fadar (Engl. 'father') had the voiced-spirant sound of our th in 'then.' By the same law Indo-European $s$ appears in Teutonic words as unvoiced or voiced under the same conditions, e.g. unvoiced in Old High Germ. $m \bar{u}$ s, our ' mouse ' from Indo-Eur. *mūs (Sanscr. múš, Gk. $\mu \hat{v} s$, Lat. misss), where the immediately preceding vowel had the accent, voiced in Goth. aiza-, our ' ore ' from Indo-Eur. *áyos (Sanscr. áyas, Lat. aes), where the Indo-European accent fell on another vowel. (On the change of voiced $s$ to $r$ in Latin, see ch. iv. § 148). The Lithuanian accentuation, too, often enables us, when we compare it with the Greek, to determine in what cases the Indo-European accent was 'circumflex,' and in what cases 'acute,' e.g. circumflex in Gen. Sg. of Ā-stems (Greek $\tau \iota \mu \bar{\tau}$, Lith. rañkõs), acute in Nom. Sg. of the same stems (Greek $\tau \iota \mu \eta$, Lith. rankà from *rank ${ }^{\frac{1}{a}}$ ) (see Hirt's articles in Indogerm. Forsch. i. \&c.).

We have, however, in Latin, as Corssen proved, traces of an
older accentuation than the system which prevailed in the classical period, which show us that at some early time the Indo-European accent-law had been replaced by a new law, namely, that the accent should fall on the first syllable of every word. A change of the same kind seems to have taken place in the Teutonic languages (see Paul's Grundriss Germ. Philol. i. p. 339), and probably also in Celtic (Thurneysen in Revue celtique, vol. vi); and in some languages of the present day, such as Lettish, this uniform accentuation of the first syllable prevails. The traces it has left in Latin are these:-
(1) Syncope of the second syllable of a word when that syllable was short, e.g. undecim, which under the ordinary Latin accentuation must have been $*_{\text {unódecim, a compound of } \bar{u} n u s \text { and dĕcem }}$ (see § I3).
(2) Reduction of vowels, which would by the accentuation of the classical period bear the accent, e.g. infringo from in and frango; concīdo from cum and caedo; triennium from tri- (tres) and annus; which point unmistakably to an earlier *cóncaido, *trianniom, \&c. (see § 18). At what precise period the change, no doubt a gradual one, from this earlier system to the Pænultima Law of Cicero's time began and completed itself, it is difficult to ascertain. But there is some evidence that it was still incomplete in one particular in the period of the Early Drama, for the metrical treatment of words like facilius, mulierem ( $\cup \cup \cup \smile$ ), in the plays of Plautus and Terence, indicate that the pronunciation of such words in their time laid the accent on the first, and not on the second syllable. A line in which the metrical ictus falls on the second syllable occurs very rarely in their plays (Philologus, li. 364 sqq.). At the same time the incidence of the metrical ictus in all other types of words points to the prevalence of the Paenultima Law for all words, except these quadrisyllables with the first three syllables short. But though we cannot fix the time when Latin words passed from the old to the new accentuation, when, for example, sápientia became sapiéntia, témpestatibus became tempestátilus, we can guess, partly from the analogy of other languages, partly from the inherent probabilities of the case, what the nature of that change was. A long word like săpientia, tempestať̆bus must have had at all periods a secondary
as well as a main accent; it could hardly be pronounced otherwise, as we can see from our own pronunciation of such words as 'chàracterístical' (with secondary accent on first, main accent on fourth syllable). So that sápientia would be more accurately written sápièntia. The change from the old accentuation to the new would be, in reality, nothing but a usurpation by the secondary accent of the prominence of the main accent; sápièntia would become sàpiéntia, témpestàtilus would become tèmpestátibus. Dīmŭdius, unless it takes its -mi- by analogy of dimidiatus, \&c. (which is unlikely), must have been accentuated on the first syllable about 250 в. .c, for the change of unaccented $\breve{e}$ to $\breve{\imath}$ is not found on the oldest inscriptions (§ 22).

The Umbro-Oscan dialects seem to have passed through the same stages as Latin. Traces of the first stage, the accentuation of the first syllable, are e.g. Osc. Maakdiis, Vezkeí, 'Vetusco' (with syncope of the second syllable), of the second stage (the Paenultima Law), Osc. teremenniu, ‘*terminia,' with doubling of consonant before the $y$-sound and after the accented vowel (see von Planta, Gramm. Osk.-Umbr. Dial. i. p. 589).
§ 6. Traces of I.-Eur. accentuation in Latin. The occasional appearance of $\breve{a}$ for I.-Eur. $\breve{e}$ in Latin has been explained by the I.-Eur. accentuation by Wharton (Etyma Latina, p. 119), who thinks that $\breve{e}$ (and $\breve{o}$ ) became $\breve{a}$ when they preceded the syllable which bore the I.-Eur. accent, e.g. magnus from ${ }^{*}$ meg-nós, Gk. $\left.\mu^{\prime} \boldsymbol{\gamma} \gamma a s\right)$. For other theories of the kind, see Bugge in Bezz. Beitr. xiv. 60. 67. 70 ; Froehde, ib. xvi. 182. 191. 215 ; Stolz in Wien. Stud. viii. 149 ; Conway, Verner's Law in Italy, \&c. (on a trace of the I.-Eur. accent in UmbroOscan, von Planta, i. p. 49i).
§ 7. Secondary and main accent. The Saturnian verse recognizes this secondary accent, if we are right in regarding it as accentual and not quantitative verse, with three accents in the first hemistich and two in the second (see ch. ii. § I4I),
e. g. dábunt málum Metélli || Naéuio poétae.

For a five-syllabled word always counts for two accents in Saturnian verse,
e.g. mágna sàpiéntia \| multásque uirtútes,
e. g. dédet Tèmpestátibus \| aíde méretod,
e. g. òneráriae onústae \| stábant in flústris ;
and a four-syllabled word (at any rate of the forms $-\simeq ー \simeq$ and $\simeq-u \succeq$ ) does the same at the beginning of the line,
e. g. immolábat áuream \| uíctimam púlchram,
e.g. sùpérbiter contémptim \| cónterit legiónes,
e.g. Còrnélius Lúcius $\|$ Scípio Barbátus.

A Latin secondary accent in long words such as àrmatûra is indicated by the Romance forms, which treat the vowel of the first syllable in the same way
as they treat accented $\alpha$. Italian Fiorentino beside Firenze may point to the secondary accent having been stronger in the first syllable of Lat. Flōrentīnus than of Lat. Flōrentia (cf. Ital. tollerare, scellerato, \&c., with doubling of the consonant which follows the vowel with secondary accent) (see Meyer-Lübke, Gram. Rom. Sprach., i. p. 501). There are some indications (e. g. Alliteration) that the first syllable was even in the classical period pronounced with a certain amount of stress.
§ 8. The Paenultima Law. The law of accentuation which prevailed in the classical and subsequent periods is that known as the 'Paenultima Law,' a very simple one, namely, that the accent falls on the antepenultimate syllable, if the paenultima be short, on the paenultima itself, if long, e.g. décŏres, decôres. The earliest notice of Latin accentuation, the remark of Cicero (Or. xviii. $5^{8}$ ) mentioned above (§ x ), speaks of it as a law of nature that the accent should never go further back in a word than the third syllable from the end. We have seen reason to believe that at an earlier period this 'law of nature' was broken in the case of four-syllabled words, like facĭ兀us, beginning with three short syllables. These were at the time of Plautus accented on the fourth syllable from the end, fácilius, \&c. But in all other words the evidence to be obtained from the versification of Plautus, and such processes of language as syncope and reduction of unaccented vowels, points to the operation of the Paenultima Law in the earliest literary period.

The Latin grammarians agree in pointing out the difference between the Greek and Roman systems of accentuation, and the greater simplicity of the Roman, which (like the Aeolic, and unlike the Attic, \&c.) never lets the accent fall on the last syllable of a word; though they are strangely silent on the difference, which one would have thought would have been quite as striking, between the pitch-accent of the Greek, and the stress-accent of their own language. They posit for Latin the three kinds of accent used by the Greeks, the acute, the circumflex, and the grave, understanding by the last term rather the absence of accent than any particular form of accent, and assigning the circumflex, as we have seen, to vowels long by nature in the penultimate syllable of words whose final syllable is short, and in monosyllabic words. Thus the name Céthēgŭs, with a naturally long paenultima and a short final, takes the circum-
flex on the paenultima, Cethégus, and the grave accent on the antepaenultima, Cèthêgus; the name Cütullus, with a naturally short vowel in the paenultima, takes the acute accent instead of the circumflex, Catúllus, with the grave on the antepaenultima, as before, Càtúllus.

Monosyllables like lux, spes, flos, sol, mons, mos, fons, lis, whose vowel is naturally long, have the circumflex, lûx, spês, \&c., while ars, pars, pix, nix, fax, with vowel naturally short and lengthened only by 'position,' take the acute accent, árs, párs, \&c. Apocopated words like illūc, nosträs retain their old circumflex accent, illîc(e), nostrâ $(t i) s$.

A compound word, or word-group, like rēspūblŭca, jūsjūrandum, mălŭsanus, intëreälŏc̄̄, has only one accent, respíblica, malesânus, intereáloci, \&c., though, if resolved into two independent words, each takes its separate accent, résque pública, mále sânus, intérea lóci. Thus Argīlētum, which the etymological fancy of the Romans explained as Argi letum, 'the death of Argus,' is mentioned as a unique example of a word combining all three accents, the acute on the first, the grave on the second, and the circumflex on the third syllable, Argilétum. (On these wordgroups, see below, § 12.)

The secondary accent, which, as we have seen (§7), must have existed in longer words like àrlŭrêtum, tèmpĕrätus, ìntĕmĕrâtus, existı̆mätus, is ignored by the Roman grammarians, unless we are so to understand the media prosodia, mentioned by Varro, in imitation of the $\mu \epsilon^{\prime} \sigma \eta \pi \rho \sigma \sigma \varphi \delta i ́ a$ of Greek Accentual Theorists, an accent which he describes as something between the grave (i.e. entire absence of accent) and the acute accent. The secondary accent shows traces of itself in Italian in the doubling of the consonant in words like pellegrino (Lat. pĕrĕgrinnus), scellerato (Lat. scĕlèrā̀tus), tollerare (Lat. tolerare), \&c. (see above, § 7).

The simplicity of the Latin accentuation made it unnecessary to indicate by written signs the accent with which a word was to be pronounced. The mark of the Greek acute accent, a line sloping up from left to right, and placed above the vowel of the syllable, was used in Latin inscriptions to indicate a long vowel, and was called the 'apex' (see ch. i. § i). It was employed
especially where two words of similar spelling differed in quantity alone, e.g. mălus and mälus (Quint. i. 7. 2), and has remained with a quantitative use in several alphabets derived from the Latin, e.g. the Irish alphabet.
§ 9. Testimony of the grammarians. Quintilian's remarks on Latin pronunciation are generally so free from Greek bias, that his account of the Paenultima Law is worth quoting in full (i. 5. 29-3I) : difficilior apud Graecos observatio est [sc. legis sermonis], quia plura illis loquendi genera, quas бıà'́ккous vocant et quod alias vitiosum, interim alias rectum est ; apud nos vero brevissima ratio. namque in omni voce acuta intra numerum trium syllabarum continetur, sive eae sunt in verbo solae, sive ultimae, et in iis aut proxima extremae, aut ab ea tertia. Trium porro de quibus loquor, media longa aut acuta aut flexa erit, eodem loco brevis utique gravem habebit sonum ideoque positam ante se, id est ab ultima tertiam, acuet. Est autem in omni voce utique acuta, sed nunquam plus una, nec unquam ultima, ideoque in disyllabis prior ; praeterea nunquam in eadem flexa et acuta: itaque neutra cludet vocem Latinam. Ea vero quae sunt syllabae unius, erunt acuta aut flexa, ne sit aliqua vox sine acuta. In another passage (xii. 1о. 33) he praises the variety of the Greek accent in contrast to the monotonous accent of the Romans, who never give the acute or the circumflex to the last syllable of a word, so that every word has its last syllable, sometimes both its last syllable and its paenultima, grave (i. e. unaccented) ; and adds that Roman poets like to give a charm to their lines by the use of Greek names pronounced with the Greek accent. (For other similar statements of the Paenultima Law, see the passages quoted by Schoell pp. 100 sqq.: e. g. Diomedes 43 r. 6 K. ; Donatus 371. 2 K. ; Servius in Don. 426. 15 K. \&c.) Examples are sôl, dôs, Càtúllus, Cèthêgus (Sergius, De Acc. p. 483. II K.) indoctissimus (Pomp. 127. 15 K.), Caelius, Sallustius, Curiàtius, caêlum, Cícero, Galênus, Galéni, Camilli (Mart. Cap. iii. p. 65. 22 Eyss.), Românus, Hispânus ('Priscian,' De Acc. p. 520. 17 K.), àb, mél, fél, airs, pärs, pix, nix, fäx, lûx, spês, flôs, sôl, môns, môs, fồns, lìs (Diom. 43 I. 15 K.), núx, rês (Don. 37 r. 8 K.), néc, nóx (Serv. in Don. 426.27 K.), rồs (Serg. De Acc. 524. 21 K.), aês, èt, qué (Pomp. 128. 15 K.), déus, citus, dàtur, árat, póntus, cơhors, lûna, Rôma (Diom. 43r. 18 K.), hôra, léges, sálus, hómo (Dositheus 378. I K.), mêta, Crêta, népos, bónus, málus (Don. 371. i I K.), marînus, Crispinus, amicus, Sabinus, Quirinus, lectica, Metellus, Marcêllus, làtebrae, ténebrae, Fidénae, Athénae, Thébae, Cimae, tabêllae, fenéstrae, Sérgius, Mälius, àscia, fúscina, Július, Claúdius, Románi, legäti, praetơres, praedönes (Diom. 431. 23 K.), \&c.

Of compound words and word-groups with one accent (like our 'són-inlaw,' 'man-of-wár,' 'pockethándkerchief,') we have examples such as malesânus, interealoci (Don. 371. 22 K. ; Diom. 433. зо K. ; Pomp. 1зо. 18 K. ; Cledonius 33. 12 K.). Argiletum (Prisc. ii. p. ri3. ro H. ; but with all three accents, Mart. Cap. iii. p. 68. 15 Eyss.), propediem [Don. ad Ter. Ad. v. 5. 7 (888)], respublica, jusjurandum (Prisc. i. p. 177. го H.; i. p. 180. 12 H.), jurisperitus, legislator, praefectusurbis and praefectusurbi, tribunusplebis, tribunusplebi, mentecaptus, orbisterrae, orbisterrarum, paterfamilias, paterfamiliarum, armipotens, armorumpotens, magistermilitum, asecretis, acalculis, aresponsis, abactis (Prisc. i. p. 183. 5 H.), istiusmodi, hujusmodi, cujusmodi (Prisc. i. p. 440. 2 H.). Of hujuscémodi, \&c., Priscian (i. p. 205.16 H .) says that some regard them as two separate words, but the accent, resting as it does on the last syllable of the pronoun, shows that they
are compounds. He distinguishes the separate accentuation of decimus et septimus, \&c. from the single accent of septimus-decimus, \&c. (de Fig. Num. xxi. p. $4^{13}$. II K.).
§ 10. Exceptions to the Paenultima Law. The rule of Latin Accentuation, that final syllables are always unaccented, is, according to the grammarians, violated, or apparently violated, by certain classes of words. They are words which have dropped or contracted their last syllable, so that the accent, which in the uncurtailed form fell on the paenultima, remains in the curtailed form on the same syllable, which has now become the ultima. Under this category come :-
(I) Nouns, or rather Adjectives, in nas, Gen. -atis, indicating the country of one's birth, e. g. cujâs, nostrâs, Arpinâs, with primâs, optimâs Caper ap. Prisc. i. p. 128. 23 H.). These words, which in Early Latin (e. g. Plautus) have the full form cujātis, nostrātis, when at a later time they became contracted, retained their old accentuation ; and so nostrâs, ' a countryman of ours,' was distinguished by its accent from nostras, Acc. Pl. Fem. of the Possessive Pronoun (Priscian i. p. 454. ir K.).
(2) Some Verbal Forms; addîc, addûc, \&c., fumât (for fümā̃̌̆t), audit for audīrưt), and the like (Servius ad Aen. iii. 3). Another remark of Servius (ad Aen. i. 45I), and other grammarians, throws some light on the last example. They tell us that aud̄̄it and not audüit, lenïit and not lenüt, was the ordinary pronunciation, the forms with the short penult being an artificial usage of poetry, much as in English the word 'wind' is allowed a different pronunciation in poetry from its ordinary one. From -īit to -īt is so short a step that it is difficult to justify a disbelief of the grammarians' statements about audit. The third Sing. Perf. Act. in Romance languages (e.g. Span. amó, Latin ămãrı̆t, Ital. dormì, Latin dormērı̀t) points to Vulgar Latin forms in accented -aut, -īt (cf. -aut on graffiti of Pompeii, C. I. L. iv. 1391, 2048).
(3) Words ending in $-c$ (the Enclitic -c ${ }^{\text {( }}$, whose last syllable is long by nature or by position, e.g. adĥ̂c, posthâc, anteht̂c, istic, illic, istîc, illùc, istinc, illinc, istâc, illâc, istôc, illôc (Caper ap. Prisc. i. p. ェзо. 2 H.). Vulgar Latin accentuation of the final vowel of illic, illūc, \&c. is indicated by the Romance adverbs, e. g. Ital. lì, là, Span. allí, allá.
(4) Words ending in $n$ (the Enclitic -nĕ), whose last syllable is long by nature or by position, e. g. tantôn, Pyrrhin (Servius ad Aen. x. 668, \&c.). This rule cannot however have been absolute, for forms like vidĕn ut in Old Latin Poetry, and even in Augustan poets (Virg. Aen. vi. 779 ; Tib. ii. 1. 25) show that when the final vowel of the particle was elided, the verb might retain the ordinary accentuation, viden, like rides. Servius (fourth cent.) tell us that viděn was the usage of his time (ad Aen. vi. 779 viden ut geminae stant vertice cristae] 'den' naturaliter longa est, brevem eam posuit, secutus Ennium : et adeo ejus est inmutata natura, ut jam ubique brevis inveniatur), and Plautus seems, when -quĕ, -nĕ is elided, to let the metrical ictus fall normally on the syllable which would have the accent in the absence of the particle, e. g. próspërēqu(e), surrúptasqu(e) (Amer. Journ. Phil. xiv. 313).

An accent originally on the antepaenultima remains in the curtailed form on the paenultima, according to the grammarians, in contracted vocatives and genitives of IO-stems, e.g. Vergili, Valéri, tugüri (Serv. ad Aen. i. 45I ; Prisc. i. p. 301. 2 I H.). Gellius (second cent. A. d.) tells us that Nigidius Figulus (first cent. b. c.) wished to distinguish Váleri Voc. from Valéri Gen., but adds̈
that in his own time such an accentuation as Váleri Voc. would sound very strange : siquis nunc Valerium appellans in casu vocandi secundum id praeceptum Nigidii acuerit primum, non aberit quin rideatur (N.A. xiii. 26).

Lastly, Interjections are excluded by the grammarians from the ordinary rule. They are said to have no 'certi accentus,' whatever that may mean; and the statement of a late grammarian (Audacis exc. 36 r . in K. that papaé and attát (also ehem, MSS. hoehem?) were accented on the last syllable, is confirmed, in the case of at least the former, by the incidence of the metrical ictus in Plautus (always papaé, never pápae). The Greek $\epsilon \hat{\jmath} \gamma \epsilon$ appears in Plautus' dramas with the last syllable lengthened ${ }^{1}$ (cf. the MSS. spelling eugae), and the phrase eugae-eugae always has the metrical ictus eugae-eugae.
Greek words, as was mentioned before (§ 3), when they were used by a Latin author with their Greek form and declension, retained also their Greek accent, e. g. Epīros in Virg. Georg. i. 59 (Serv. ad loc.).
§ 11. Vulgar-Latin Accentuation. The Latin accentuation is retained with wonderful tenacity by the Romance languages. Where they agree in deviating from the classical Latin accent, the accentuation which they reproduce is that of Vulgar Latin. There are four important cases of deviation :-
(I) First of all, in words ending in -iĕrem, -ĭlum, e. g. mullürem, filĭ̆̆lum, the accent in Vulgar Latin was shifted from the $i$ to the $e$ and $o$, mulierem, filiofum. The precept of an unknown grammarian (Anecd. Helv. p. ciii. K.) sanctions this usage (mulierem in antepenultimo nemo debet acuere, sed in penultimo potius), and in Christian poets of the third and fourth centuries we find scansions like insuper et Salomon, eadem muliēre creatus, Drac. Satisf. i6i ; cf. Ital. figliuolo, Span. hijuelo, Fr. filleul. Nouns in -īes, Gen. -iětis followed a somewhat different course. Their Nominative became - $\bar{e} s$, and this form was extended to the other cases, e.g. paretes (C. I. L. vi. 3714), Acc. Sg. *parētem is attested by the Latin loanword in Welsh, parwyd, and by the Romance forms, e.g. Ital. parete (with close e), Span. paréd, \&c., while ${ }^{*}$ mulierem is the original of Ital. mogliére (with open $e$ in the penult).
(2) Again the occurrence of a mute with the liquid $r$ at the beginning of the last syllable seems to have attracted the accent to the penult. Thus Vulg. Lat. *tenebrae is attested by Span. tinieblas, and other Romance forms. We cannot be wrong in connecting this with the practice of Latin poets of treating a short syllable before a mute with $r$ as a long syllable, when it suits their convenience (see ch. ii. § I42).

Servius (fourth cent.) (ad Aen. i. 384) seems to say that the accent was not in his time attracted to the penult in correct pronunciation; for he remarks with regard to peragro in this line of Virgil ; ' per' habet accentum . . . muta enim et liquida quotiens ponuntur metrum juvant, non accentum (cf. Diom. 43 r. 28 K.).
(3) In Compound Verbs the accent seems to have shifted to the stem-vowel of the verb in Vulgar or Late Latin, e. g. recipit is indicated by Ital. riceve, Fr. reçoit ; renégat by Ital. riniega, 0 . Fr. renie. With this we may connect the tendency in the spelling of post-classical inscriptions, and of our earliest MSS. to restore the vowels in compound verbs to their undecayed form, e. g. consacro, compremo (§ 18).

[^44](4) Lastly, the Romance forms of the Numerals give indications that the Vulgar Latin accentuation was viginti, quadraginta, \&c. (see Meyer-Lübke, Gram. Rom. Sprach. i. p. 494). Triginta is one of the barbarisms 'quae in usu cotidie loquentium animadvertere possumus,' enumerated by a fifth-century (?) grammarian (Consentius p. 392. 4 K.). On a fifth-cent. inser. (vid. A. L. L. v. 106) we have quarranta for quadrāgintū (Ital. quaránta), and an epitaph in hexameters has vinti for vīgintī (Ital. venti) [Wilm. 569 (cf. C. I. L. viii. 8573) : et menses septem diebus cum vinti duobus].
§ 12. Accentuation of the Sentence. Hitherto we have been considering only the accentuation of words by themselves. But there is also such a thing as the accentuation of the sentence; and the accent which a word would bear, if uttered separately, may be different from the accent assigned to it when standing with other words in a sentence. The Greek preposition $\pi \rho \rho^{\prime}$, for example, had, if mentioned by itself, an acute accent. But in the sentence its accent was obscured by the accent of the noun which it governed, e.g. $\pi \rho o ̀ s ~ \pi o ́ \lambda \iota \nu$, and this by the Greek system was expressed by replacing its acute by a grave accent. So that the Greek system of marking the accents recognized both the word-accent and the sentence-accent.

By the Indo-European sentence-accentuation the verb in a main sentence was treated as a subordinate word, and apparently occupied the position proper to enclitic words, namcly, the second place in the sentence, while in dependent clauses it received the accent like any other word, and stood at the end of the clause, an arrangement which has been, curiously enough, preserved in German to the present day (see Wackernagel in Indog. Forsch. i. pp. 333 sqq.). Indefinite pronouns were enclitic or subordinate words, while interrogatives were accented (cf. Greek $\mathfrak{a} \nu \dot{\eta} \rho \tau \iota s$ and $\left.\tau i ́ s a \nu \eta \eta_{\rho} ;\right)$. Other enclitics were the copula ${ }^{*} q^{\mathrm{u}} \mathrm{e}$ (Greek $\tau \epsilon$, Lat. $q u e ̆$ ), the personal pronouns (unless specially emphasized), \&c.

We can determine with a fair amount of accuracy the accentuation of the Latin sentence, partly by the help of the remarks of Latin grammarians, partly from observing the phonetic changes of Latin words in the Romance languages, where an accented word or syllable is not subject to the same laws of development as an unaccented, partly from the analogy of other languages, and to a large extent from the versification of the
early dramatists. For Plautus and Terence leave, as a rule, the subordinate words of the sentence, the words, in fact, which we omit in writing telegrams, in the theses of the line, where no metrical ictus falls on them :

$$
\text { e.g. Plaut. Trin. } 21 \text { [rogat] ut líceat possidére hanc nomen fábulam, }
$$

where ut and hanc, words which might be omitted without obscuring the meaning, are relegated to the theses of the first and fourth feet. The Latin grammarians, with their usual adherence to Greek terminology, speak of the 'attraction' of the accent by enclitics or subordinate words. But this statement of the facts is corrected by Quintilian (i. 5. 25, 26), who shows that a subordinate relative, like qualis in the sentence, talis est qualis Cicero fuit, or a subordinate preposition, like circum in Virg. Aen. iv. 254 quae circum litora, circum Piscosos scopulos, \&c., is really in Latin united with the following word into a word-group, which takes the ordinary accent of a single word: cum dico 'circum litora,' tamquam unum enuntio dissimulata distinctione, itaque tamquam in una voce una est acuta. The Latin pronunciation would thus be qualis-Cícero, circum-lítöra. Priscian (i. p. 183 H.) objects similarly to a statement of Hellenizing grammarians, that qư̌s, the indefinite pronoun, in sīquis, numquis, \&c., is an enclitic like $\tau \iota s$ in citcss, and prefers to call siquis a compound or word-group with the natural accent of a single word. With this correction, the rules of the Latin grammarians about enclitics and subordinate words are in the main probable enough in themselves, and are confirmed by the evidence of the Romance languages, and the early dramatists' versification, though some of their distinctions between the accentuation of words of the same spelling, such as $n \vec{e}$, 'verily,' né, prohibitive, ne 'lest'; ádeo, the verb, and adéo, the adverb; út, 'how,' ut, 'in order that'; érgo, 'therefore,' ergô, ' on account of,' require additional evidence before we can accept them.

[^45]versation these words often lost their final vowel, and so appear also in the forms ac (for *atq), seu, \&c. (see § 35).
(2) The various parts of the substantive verb. The mode in which es, est are written in the best MSS. of Plautus, for example, amatus (amatu's), amatust, amatumst for amatus es, amata est, amatum est (cf. rentumst, \&c. in Virgil MSS., Ribbeck, p. 419), shows that they were treated as mere appendages of the past participle passive. For the unaccented nature of ĕrat, ĕrit, \&c. we have proof, if proof be needed, in Romance forms like Ital. era and Span era (Lat. erat), 0 . Fr. ert (Lat. erit), for an accented $\breve{e}$ would have taken another form, such as Ital. *iera, Span. *yera (cf. Ital. niega, Lat. nĕgat). It need hardly be said that the extent to which these words, and indeed all 'Sentence-Enclitics,' were suppressed, would depend on the caprice of the speaker, on the nuance of thought, on the style of composition, \&c. No hard and fast rule can be laid down about them, just as no rule could be made for the use of 's' for 'is,' ' 're' for 'are' in English. A sentence, for example, of Cicero, ending with the words licitum est, is quoted by a grammarian as an instance of a sentence ending with a monosyllable (Mar. Sacerd. 493. 14 K.).
(3) The personal and possessive pronouns, when unemphatic. In the Romance languages two distinct series have been developed for the personal pronouns : $(a)$ the enclitic, e.g. Ital. mi, ti ; Fr. me, te: $(b)$ the accented, e. g. Ital. me, te ; Fr. moi, toi. Similarly a Vulgar-Latin possessive *mus, *mum, *ma, beside the regular meus, meum, mea, is indicated by French mon, ma, and Vulgar-Italian ma-donna, padre-mo, \&c., which resemble O. Lat. sis for suis, \&c. (see ch. vii. § ir), in such a line as Ennius, Ann. 151 M., postquam lumina sis osulis bonus Ancus reliquit. It is true that Priscian (ii. p. 141. 15 H.) expressly says that there is no distinction in Latin corresponding to the Greek distinc-
 eadem et discretiva sunt ut 'vidit me' vel, 'vidit me, illum autem non'; but he seems to refer rather to the identity of the written form of the emphatic and unemphatic pronoun, than to that of their intonation in discourse. In Plautus and Terence the ictus always falls on the preposition in phrases like in me, did me, inter se, unless the pronoun is emphatic (or elided), just as in Greek we have $\pi \rho o ́ s ~ \mu \epsilon, \pi \rho o ́ s ~ \sigma \epsilon, \& c$., or as in English we lay the stress on 'for,' ' with ' in 'for me,' 'with him,' \&e. In 0 . Irish this tendency of pronunciation reduced the pronouns to mere suffixes, e. g. for-m, 'on me,' for-t, 'on thee,' \&c. (but cf. Censorin. ap. Prise. ii. p. 5I. if H.).
(4) The demonstrative pronouns, when unemphatic. The Romance forms point to (il)lum pătrem, ${ }^{(i l)}$ )la mäter, \&c. as the origin of the definite article in all the Romance languages, while ille pater seems to have been pronounced sometimes $i l(l e)$ pater, e. g. Ital. il padre, Span. el padre, Prov. el paire, sometimes (il)le pater, e. g. Fr. le père. Similarly (i)ste, indicated by Ital. stasera, 'this evening,' is actually found in old MSS. (see Neue, Formentehre ${ }^{3}$ ii pp. 402 sq.; on sta in the Itala, see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.), and isté is mentioned as a barbarism by a third-century grammarian (Mar. Sac. p. 45I. ro K.).
(5) The relative and indefinite pronouns, while the interrogative and exclamatory were accented, e. g. tális est qualis Cicero fuit, but qualis fuit Cicero! The grammarians often distinguish between the accentuation of quis, quälis, quantus, quöt, quötus, cujus, йbi, unde, \&c. when used interrogatively, and when they are merely relative or indefinite pronouns (e. g. Prisc. i. p. 6r. 5 H., interrogativum est quod cum interrogatione profertur, ut quis, quâlis, quàntus,
quót, quótus, cum suos servant accentus. Infinitum est interrogativorum contrarium, ut quis, qualis, quantus, quot, quotus, cum in lectione gravi accentu pronunciantur, cf. ii. p. 127. 2 H. Partit. p. 501.14 H. So for qui interrog. and rel. $i b$. ii. p. 9.20 H. ; cujus, interrog. and rel. $i b$. ii. p. ${ }^{179 .} 3$ H. ; quo, ubi, unde, qua, ib. ii. p. гз2. з H. ; ii. p. 83. гх H. 'qua' quando relativum est gravatur ; quando, Charis. p. 11 r. 27 K. ; Prisc. ii. p. 82.24 H. ; quorsum, ib. ii. p. 83. II H. \&c.). Their usual expression for the subordination of the relative and indefinite forms of these words is that they 'have the grave accent' (gravi accentu pronuntiantur, gravantur), though sometimes they use language more applicable to Greek (e. g. moios interrog., moots rel.), and say that ' they take the acute accent on the last syllable '; and Charisius (p. 111. 27 H.) gives an actual Latin example of this accentuation of the last syllable in the sentence quandó tot stragis acervos Vidimus. Quintilian, as we saw, corrects this statement of the case, and shows that the true account for the Latin language is to say that the relative is joined with the noun or important word beside it, this word-group taking the accent of any ordinary word. The line from Virgil would thus be really pronounced quandó-tot stragis acervos, \&c., so that the accentuation of the final syllable of quando is due to the accident that it stands next to a monosyllabic word. The relative would have no accent in a sentence like quem testem te adducturum dixeras, for it would be joined with the noun into a word-group, quem-téstem, with the accent on the first syllable of the noun. When in a line of poetry the relative followed the noun, as in Plautus (Amph. 919) Testém quem dudum te ádducturum díxeras, the accentuation would presumably be by the same reasoning testém-quem; and this presumption seems to be con med by the versification of the dramatists.
(6) Prepositions, while adverbs, are accented. Thus we should say supra hábitat, but supra moénia est ; ánte vênit, but ante Caésarem vênit. This distinction is often inculcated by the grammarians ; e.g. Palaemon (first cent. A. d.) (ap. Charis. p. 189. ro K. = Diom. p. 407. 19 K.) insists on the different accentuation of infra, supra, extra, intra, ultra, citra, circa, juxta, contra, subtus, coram, ante, post, prope, usque, super, when adverbs, and when prepositions; cf. Charis. p. 23 I. 24 K. ; Audax, p. 353.22 K. ; Probus, Inst. p. 149.27 K. ; Mart. Cap. iii. p. 67. 21 Eyss.; Prisc. ii. p. 28. 24 H. ; ii. p. 30.25 H. ; ii. p. 33 . х H.; ii. p. 42.7 H. ; ii. p. 45.25 H. ; ii. p. 51. ı H. \&c.). Priscian (ii. p. 27. 4 H.) says that Latin prepositions, like Greek, had, by themselves the acute accent on the last syllable (super, $\dot{u \pi} \epsilon^{\prime} \rho$ ), but in the sentence lost this accent ; (accentum habent praepositiones acutum in fine, tam apud Graecos quam apud nos, qui tamen cum aliis legendo, in gravem convertitur) (cf. Don. p. 391. ir K.) ; and Quintilian, as before mentioned, says that what really happened in Latin was that the preposition was fused with its noun into a word-group, which was then accented like any ordinary word, e.g. circum-litora (accented like circumsistite, circumlitio). Indeed the words are often written together in old MSS. and inscriptions ; cf. Mar. Vict. 23.12 K. and Indices to C. I. L. (so Umbr. preveres 'ante portas'). This suggests that in collocations like in via, per dolum, in manus the preposition itself may have received the accent of the word-group, unless it were desirable for some special reason to give prominence to the noun. This view is supported by some word-groups, which established themselves in Latin usage, such as obriam, sêdülo (sē, sinĕ dolo), commĭnus, dēnŭo (dē nŏvo), admŏdum, affütim (but cf. Gell. vi. 7), as well as by the versification of the dramatists, which also points to in-rem,
in-spem, in-jūs, \&c. (cf. quamobrem.) A preposition placed after its noun received an accent, as in Greek, according to the grammarians (e.g. Prisc. ii. p. ${ }^{27} .4$ H. cum praepostere ponuntur, monosyllabae acuto, disyllabae paenultimo acuto proferuntur) ; but remained unaccented in phrases like virtutem propter imperatoris or justitia in legum, where the preposition is followed by a genitive dependent on the noun (Censorinus ap. Prisc. ii. p. 33.20 H.).
(7) That conjunctions, like prepositions, had a different pronunciation according as they came first or second in the sentence is asserted by Priscian (ii. p. 24. 2 I H.) praepositae gravantur omnibus syllabis, postpositae acuuntur in principio. He refers expressly to iggtur, quŏniam, saltem, so that he would have us pronounce, e.g. igitur Cicero vênit, but vênit igitur Cicero. That the monosyllabic conjunctions ět, sěd, and the like, were enclitic words in the sentence, may be proved, if proof be wanted, from the versification of the early dramatists, in whose lines these conjunctions are relegated as a rule to the theses, and do not receive the metrical ictus, and also from the Romance languages, where the Latin monosyllabic conjunctions have suffered the same phonetic changes as the unaccented syllables of Latin words. Et, for example, if the word had been accented, would have become $*_{i e t}$, or some similar form, instead of Ital. e, Fr. et, Span. y.
(8) Auxiliary verbs in Latin must, like those in other languages, have been enclitic, or rather, according to the Latin practice, must have been joined with their verb into a word-group, e.g. rolo-scire, coctúm-dabo, missímfacit, cave-fácias. In Plautus volo-scire is always scanned rolö-scīre, never volōscire; and the metrical ictus in his verses of phrases like factim-volo, faciasrolo, missám-face, cavě-pársis, carě-fáxis supports our rule. Cicero's story about Crassus at his departure for Parthia mistaking the cry of a fig-seller, Cauneas ! Cauneas! (sc. ficus vendo) for căve nē eas (Div. ii. 40. 84) seems to show that in ordinary talk this verbal phrase was treated as a word-complex with a single accent cau(e)-n(e)-eas. Similarly a verbal phrase like ̆̆ре̌̌am-dăre, füdem-dăre, dōnō-düre would probably have ordinarily only one accent, just as we throw the stress on the noun 'noise' and not on the verb 'make' in the phrase 'to make a noise.' The dramatists let the metrical ictus fall on these phrases thus : fidém-dans, operam-dat, operam-dabam, donó-data. The reduction of other unemphatic verbs to mere members of a compound word is indicated by the traditional way of writing quōlīet, quamvīs, quantumrīs, and the like. Siss, 'if you please,' from sī $u \bar{\imath} s$ (cf. sultis, Plur.), is an enclitic appendage of the imperative, e.g. prŏpërā-sis as much as dum in excŭtē-dum, aspı̆č̆-dum. (Plautus gives to these phrases the ictus properid-sis, excitedum, aspicedum, \&c.)
(9) Some nouns too of subordinate meaning must have become members of word-groups. In English 'thing,' ' kind,' 'state,' 'part' are used in this way without stress, in such sentences as 'something (nothing) of that kind,' 'some parts of England.' That mŏrlus, rēs were so used in Latin we see from the traditional spelling quōmŏdo? quärē? So dies in propediem (Don. ad Ter. Ad. 888), quotidie, postridie. Gellius (x. 24) says that in the time of Cicero and the earlier period, the phrase diequinte or diequinti was in vogue, ' pro adverbio copulate dictum, secunda in eo syllaba correpta,' and we may guess that dies formed a compound with triginta (viginti) from the fact that these two numerals are perhaps never found in Plautus and Terence with the ictus on the last syllable, except when dies (or minae) follows, e. g. Men. 95I
át ego te pendéntem fodiam stímulis trigintá dies,
where the last two words seem to make a compound noun, like our 'fortnight,' 'twelvemonth.' Lŏcus too might be subordinated in a phrase like intěreā loci (Don. ad Ter. Eun. 255), ŭbi loci, \&c. The versification of the early dramatists, and the compound words in Romance suggest as similar wordgroups phrases like vaé-mĭhi, vaé-miseró-mĭhi, bene-rém-gĕrit, male-rém-gĕrit (with metrical ictus normally on these accented syllables in Plautus), ad-illam-hôram. (Ital. allora, Fr. alors), ad-mentem-habêre (Prov. amentaver, O. Fr. amentevoir), avis-strithio (Fr. autruche, Span. avestruz), acis-tcirla (Ital. ottarda, Fr. outarde, Port. abetarda), foris-fácére ( $\mathbf{O}$. Ital. forfare, Fr. forfaire), male-hibibitus ( $\mathbf{O} . \mathrm{Sp}$. malato, Prov. malapte, Fr.malade), \&c., (cf. Engl. 'goodbye' for 'God be wi' ye').
§ 13. Syncope. The syncope or suppression of an unaccented vowel is a common feature of languages which have a stressaccent, and is carried to the greatest length by the language whose stress-accent is most powerful. The Celtic languages had a stronger stress-accent than Latin, and so we find in Old Irish some words borrowed from Latin (which the Romans had themselves borrowed from the Greeks), reduced by syncope to a much greater extent than they were in Latin, e.g. felsub, Latin phŭlŏsŏphus, apstal, Latin ŭpostŏlus. And in countries under Celtic influence, such as France or the northern parts of Italy (e.g. in the Romagna dmeng for $\AA$ Ø̆mŭnйca, Sunday), Latin words have been curtailed much more than in other parts of the Romance-speaking world. In ancient Italy, too, we see syncope more developed in some districts than in others, e.g. Mgolnia for Magolnia on a Praenestine inscription (C.I. L. i. I 18), though it is not always easy to say when such forms are merely graphic, and indicate the use not of a contracted pronunciation, but only of a contracted system of writing. The conditions under which vowel-syncope was carried out differed at different periods. In Latin a vowel between $n$ and $m$ was not syncopated, because the consonant-group $n m$ was difficult to pronounce, e.g. $\breve{n \iota m a ~ n o t ~}$ *anma. But in the Romance languages syncope has been pushed a stage further, e.g. Prov. anma, alma, arma, Old Fr. anme, alme, arme, Fr. âme, Span. alma, Sicil. arma, Ital. alma (in poetry), the unmanageable group $n m$ being often changed to $r m$, just as original $n m$ in Latin *can-men from căno, *gen-men from gĕno, gigno became rm in carmen, germen (ch. iv. §78). Similarly pertica, which resisted syncope in Latin, in Italian (pertica), and in other languages, has succumbed in French (perche, our 'perch') and Provençal (perga). Friğ̈dus appears in all the

Romance languages in a syncopated shape (Ital. freddo, Fr. froid, \&c.) (ch. ii. § 132). Vürŭlis, too, was in Vulg. Lat. v̌̆rlis (Ital. verde, Span. verde, Fr. vert), and cădudus appears early as caldus. Analogy also may often prevent syncope, or, after words have been syncopated, may restore them to their original form. Thus porgo, for example, was restored to porrigo by the analogy of the perfect porrexi; and the analogy of other adjectives in -irlus where this termination was preceded by some uncombinable consonant, e.g. frigidus, may account for the existence of unsyncopated adjectives like calidus; for the consonants in calidus, $l$ and $l l$, are of a kind that would be easily combined. A Nom, Sing. like hortus, if syncopated to *horts, *hors, would soon be restored to its old form by analogy of the other cases horti, liorto, \&c. In the compound cohors we do indeed find this monosyllabic form ; and one might be tempted to think that the syncope of hortus to *hors had led to the word becoming an I-stem for an O-stem, *hors, *hortis, from hortus, horti. But the I-stem of cohors is more easily accounted for by the Latin predilection for I-stem compounds of O -stem nouns, e.g. exanimis, unanimis from ănйmus (ch. v. § 34.). It is doubtful whether any clear case of a change of stem through syncope of the final syllable of a Nom. Sg . is to be found in Latin.

It appears, then, that vowels resisted syncope when they stood between consonants which did not easily combine, and that the analogy of unsyncopated forms might prevent or efface syncope in whole classes of words. With these exceptions, it seems to have been the law of Early Latin that $\breve{e}, \breve{\imath}$ in the syllable after the accent always suffered syncope, unless they were long by ' position.' This $\breve{e}, \breve{\imath}$ might be original $\breve{e}, \breve{\imath}$, or the reduced (posttonic) form of original $\breve{u}, \breve{o}(\S \times 8)$. The Early Latin accent fell, as we have seen above ( $\S 5$ ), on the first syllable of each word, so that every $\breve{e}, \breve{\imath}$ in a second syllable not long by position must have suffered syncope.

The syllable -rıॅ-, preceded by a consonant, followed laws of its own. It appears in the posttonic syllable as $\breve{e r}$, e.g. păternus for *patrü-nus. Similarly -ľ̆- appears in the posttonic syllable as $\breve{u} l(\breve{\partial} l)$ in $f u ̈ c u l t a s, ~ \& c$. (see ch. iv. § 13). The syllable -v $\check{-}$ - also stands apart from others owing to the vowel-nature of its con-
sonant, which facilitated syncope. Thus we have syncope of a vowel preceded by $v$ even in a syllable long by position, e.g. aunculus (Plautus), the ordinary conversational form of ăvoncŭlus (cf. anculus, C.I. L. viii. 3936, ix. 998) ; or rather the semivocalic $w$ has dropped out between the two vowels. Similarly ditior for d̄̄̀rŭtior, dĕorsum (dissyllabic deorsum in Plaut.) for dēvorsum, and the like, are different from the ordinary cases of syncope.

The tendency to syncope continued to assert itself at all periods of the language. Words which resisted it at an earlier period often, as we have seen, succumbed at a later. The new law of accentuation, the Paenultima Law (§ 8), brought with it the possibility of a new variety, namely, suppression of the syllable preceding the accent. Pretonic syncope is a feature of Indo-European, where indeed it was much commoner than posttonic syncope, but it could play no part in Latin so long as the accent remained invariably on the first syllable. It is often difficult to say whether a case of syncope is pretonic or posttonic. In words like ārdère, ārlōrem, for example, we say
 accent on the penult; *arilére, *aridôrem, but it might possibly be referred to the influence of the old accent on the first syllable, *áridere, *árillorem. Words like artēna (Greek àpv́raıva), perstrōma (Greek $\pi \epsilon \rho i \sigma \tau \rho \omega \mu a$ ) Lucil. (i. 4 I M. and Löwe, Prodr. p. 347), both borrowed no doubt after the old accent law had ceased to operate, are clearer cases of pretonic syncope. So are enclitic or subordinate words which drop final $\breve{e}$ before an initial consonant, e. g. nempe, proinde, deinde, which before a consonant often took the forms $*_{n e m p}$ (so scanned by Plautus and Terence, ch. x. § 7), proin, dein, as atque, nĕque became ac (for $* a t q$, atc), nec. So benfŭcium, malfǔcium, calf $\mathfrak{c} c i o, \& c$. And the influence of the following accent, rather than the mere addition of extra syllables, seems to be the real factor in the syncope in the literary period of such words as frigdária (Lucil. viii. 12 M.) beside frígidus, caldárius beside cálidus, portórium beside pórtütor, postrúdie beside póstëri, altrinsěcus beside áltëri. The weakening effect on an unaccented syllable of a following accent is shown by Plautine scansions like sĕnĕctútem, vŏlŭntátem, pŏtéstátem, perĭstróma, where an additional weakening element is supplied by the short syllable
preceding. These scansions must reflect the pronunciation of these words in ordinary conversation. Similarly calē-fácere became calĕ̈-fácere and cal-fácere, and mı̆ň̆stérium passed into minstérium or mistérium (cf. Plaut. Pseud. 772), the consonant-group st being specially adapted to combination with a preceding liquid or nasal (cf. per(i)stroma above). The unaccented -vŭ- of $\breve{a} v \check{\imath} d u s$, which resisted syncope in the simple adjective-form, succumbs to the influence of the following accent in the lengthened derivative *avidére, audêre, to have a mind for, to dare [e. g. si audes (Plaut.), if you please, in the classical period sörles].

Arild- of áridus becomes ard-in arlêre, ardôrem, and by their analogy sometimes appears in the simple adjective (arlus, Lucil. xxvii. 40 M.). Similarly aet- for aevŭt- in aet $\bar{u} s$ may have come into use first in the lengthened cases aetâtis, aetáti, aetätem, or in derivatives like aetérnus, though here the syncopated form of the trisyllable established itself in ordinary usage, unlike ardus. Forms like caldárius may have had some influence in introducing caldus into the colloquial usage (it hardly came into the literary) of the Augustan period. Quintilian (i. 6. 19) tells us that Augustus stigmatized as a piece of affectation the use of calidus for caldus (non quia id non sit latinum, sed quia sit odiosum, et, ut ipse Graeco verbo significavit, $\pi \epsilon \rho i \epsilon \rho \gamma o v)$, and yet in the Appendix Probi we find calda under the same condemnation as frigda, virdis (198. 3 K.).

Post-tonic syncope, under the new accent law, seems, during the Republic and Early Empire, to occur only when the accented vowel is long ${ }^{1}$, e. g. jūrgo (in Plautus still júrigo), usūrpo for *usūripo, -âs for (Plautine) -âtis in nostrâs, Arpīnâs, summấs, \&c., though we find it in the period of the Early Literature after a shortened vowel in words of four or more syllables where three short syllables followed each other before the final syllable, e.g. bălınĕ̌um [so Plaut. and Ter., and balineator, Rud., 527 (A.)], a spelling which did not yield for some time to later balneum [balinearium, C.I.L. i. 1 ı66 (c.ı3о в.c.); Caper (first cent.A.d.)(ı08. 7 K.) prefers balneum ; cf. Gloss. Plac. 9. 29, and see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.;

[^46]balineum occurs frequently on the Lex Metalli Vipascensis of the first century a.d. (Eph. Epigr. iii. p. 166)], ̆̆pı̆tŭmus [the spelling opitvma of an archaizing inscription, C. I. L. i. 1016 ( = vi. 1958) of the late Republic or early Empire shows that this form had not been so long obsolete as to be forgotten, though as early as the Scipio Epitaph, C.I.L. i. 32, c. 200 b.c., we have optvmo, 'optimum ']. These words, as we saw above ( $\$ 5$ ), had in the time of Plautus and Terence the accent on the first syllable, bắlı̆nĕum producing balneum, *ópitumus optumus. Similarly ŏpŭfŭcīna, òpificîna (Plaut. Mil. 880), produced officina, puĕrưtŭa (with the ictus puéritia in all the instances, not many, of its occurrence in the early dramatists) produced the puertia of Horace [C. i. 36.8 actae non alio rege puertiae ; Charisius (fourth century A.D.) still recognized pueritia as the correct form, 266. 7 K.]. But forms like caldus, virdis, domnus belong to colloquial or to Vulgar Latin, and were not as a rule established in the language till the later Empire, though valde, older vălŭle, Plaut. Psend. 364, and a few other words, were current at a much earfier time. The same wave of syncope that reduced viridis, dŏm̌̆nus, \&c., to dissyllabic form attacked $u, i$ in hiatus (cf. ch. ii. §48). As early as the latter half of the first century A.D. tĕnuis varied between a dissyllable and a trisyllable (Caesellius ap. Cassiod. vii. 205. 16K.); cardus (for carduus) (ch. ii. § 54), mortus (for mortuus), \&c., are the precursors of the Romance forms (Ital., Span. cardo, Ital. morto, Span. muerto, Fr . mort); while the similar reduction of $i(e)$, led to that palatalization of consonants which has so transformed the whole appearance of the Romance languages, e.g. Ital. piazza, Span. plaza, Fr. place from Vulg. Lat. *platya, Lat. plŭte̛a, \&c. (see ch. ii. § 48).

Forms like saeclum beside saeculum are not to be classed with forms like jurgo beside jurigo, for saeclum is the older form, while in saeculum a vowel has been inserted between the $c$ and the $l$ to facilitate pronunciation, a vowel which is generally called a 'parasitic' vowel, or, in the terminology of the Sanscrit grammarians, a 'svarabhaktic' vowel (from Sanscr. svarabhakti-, 'partial vowel'); see chap. ii. § I 54. The termination -cŭlus, -cŭlum in Latin sometimes represents the I.-Eur. suffix -tlo, which indicates the instrument with which an action is performed, or
the place of its performance, sometimes the suffix -colo, a compound of two I.-Eur. diminutive suffixes, -co and -lo. To the first class belong words like vĕhl̆culum, 'that by which one is carried'; pöculum, 'that out of which one drinks'; cuййculum, 'the place where one lies down'; perī̀culum from *perior, perītus, experior: ōräculum from orare. To the second, diminutives like corculum, uxorcula, sucula. These two classes of terminations are not distinguished by us in our ordinary practice of writing Latin; they show, however, in the hands of Plautus a notable difference of metrical treatment. For in his verses the first suffix appears normally as one syllable, -clus, -clum, reflecting without doubt the current pronunciation of his time; the second as two syllables, -culus, -culum. Thus Plautus has always věȟuclum, with that monosyllabic form of the suffix which we find invariably when by dissimilation the $c l$ is changed into $c r$, e.g. ambŭlūcrum, 'a place for walking in,' for *ambulaclum, while diminutives like auricula, pulvisculus retain the dissyllabic suffix in his plays as persistently as $\breve{a} g r i c o c \not l a$, incŏla, or any other compound of the verb cŏlo. So do nouns formed by the addition of the suffix -lo to -co-stems, in distinction to those formed by its addition to -c-stems, e.g. porcu-lus, cĕlōc-la, 'a yacht.' Probably not a single instance occurs in his verses of -col-reduced to -cl- by syncope, even after a long vowel, e.g. never *corclum from cor-cu-lum, *porclus from porcu-lus (Class. Rev. vi. 87). (But privicloes, ' priviculis,' Carm. Sal., ch. vi. § 49.)

Forms with the parasitic or svarabhaktic vowel, with -colofor -clo-, are indeed not infrequent with him. Cubiculum, for instance, always or almost always, appears as a quadrisyllable. But he uses these expanded forms as a rule (especially when a long vowel precedes), only at the end of a line or half-line; that is to say he regards the equivalence of the parasitic vowel to an actual short syllable as a licence only to be resorted to in cases of metrical necessity. For example, periclum is the normal form of the word, while periculum occurs only at the end of a line or hemistich. Capt. 740 is a good example of this distinction :

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períclum vitae méae tuo stat perículo;
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and it is only at the end of a line that the phrase nullumst peri-
clum (e.g. Pseud. 1076) becomes nullum periculumst (e.g. Capt. 91). Poculum, too, shows this full form usually in a similar position, while saeclum is never allowed trisyllabic scansion at all. The Romance languages show that a later wave of syncope not only reduced $\operatorname{saec}(u)$ lum, \&c. to their original form saeclum, but also words like porculus to porclus, e. g. Ital. cerchio, (Lat. circ $(u) l u s)$, teschio (Lat. test(u)la), spillo (Lat. spīn(u)la). (Cf. oclus, C.I. L. x. 7756, \&c., crustlum, xi. 3303, of 18 A.d., Proclaes, xv. II57, of 123 A.d., Vitlus, viii. 9432, \&c., $\Lambda \epsilon \nu \tau \lambda o s$, \&c. on Greek inscriptions, Eckinger, pp. 73-5, Masclus (Gk. Maбклоs, \&c.); so in Probi App. 197. 20-22 K. speculum non 'speclum,' masculus non 'masclus,' vetulus non 'veclus,' vitulus non 'viclus,' vernaculus non 'vernaclus,' articulus non 'articlus,' baculus non 'baclus,' angulus non 'anglus,' jugulus non 'juglus,' and 198. i8 oculus non 'oclus,' 198. 23 tabula non 'tabla,' 198.27 stabulum non 'stablum,' 198. 34 capitulum non 'capiclum,' 199. 9 tribula non 'tribla,' 199. 14 vapulo non 'vaplo' (MS. baplo); and see George's Lex. Wortf. s. vv. $\operatorname{coag}(u) l o$, aedic $(u) l a, ~ a s s e c(u) l a, ~ b u b(u) l u s$, conch $(u) l a$, Vist $(u) \ a$, $\operatorname{cop}(u) \ a, \operatorname{cop}(u) l o, \operatorname{culic}(u) l u m, \operatorname{vit}(u) l u s$, discip $(u) l i n a$, extemp $(u) l o$, fil(u)la, fig(u)linus, laterc(u)lus, Herc(u)le, jug(u) 〕ans, manic(u)la, ment $(u) l a$, masc $(u)$ lus, orac $(u)$ lum, poc $(u) l u m$, peric(u)lum, perli$c(u)$ lus, saec (u)lum, scrup $(u)$ hus, sextula ( $\operatorname{sescla}), \operatorname{surc}(u)) u s, \operatorname{spec}(u)-$ lum, sub (u)la, temp $(u)$ lum, trich(i)la, vinc(u)lum, vet (u)lus, ver$n a c(u) l u s$, Asc(u)lum, Vist(u)la, \&c.; cf. Schuch. Vok. ii. 402 sqq.). Fr. roule, \&c. from unsyncopated rŏtŭla points to a re-formed diminutive; so in Roumanian, e.g. teule or tiule (Lat. tégŭla) (Taverney in Études . . . G. Paris, p. 267). (See also § 21.)

Another case of syllable-suppression which differs from ordinary syncope is that of words like arcubii ('qui excubabant in arce,' Paul. Fest. 19. Io Th.) for arcĭ-cŭuii, where the proximity of two almost identical syllables $c \breve{\imath}$ and $c \breve{u}$ has caused or facilitated the dropping of the former. [Similarly sēmĭmörlius and semodius, dēbŭlŭtare for *debilitātäre, fastīdium for *fastưtīdium, ìlōlatria for ìdōlōla-, limitrophus for limitotro-, Restītus for Restı̂tūtus (A. L. L. viii. 368), \&c., as in Greek ả $\mu(\phi \iota)$ форєv́s, $\psi \eta(\phi o) \phi о \rho i ́ a, \lambda \epsilon \iota(\pi o) \pi v \rho i ́ a, ~ \& c].$.

And a large number of words, like dixem (beside dixissem),
audissem (beside audīvissem), aud̄̄-trix (beside auditor), gi-gno (beside gĕn-us), are often wrongly included with genuine cases of Latin syncope like lardum, jurgo. In some of these there is either no syncope at all (so some explain dixem for ${ }^{*}$ dic-sem, like es-sem; but see ch. viii. § 3), or, if there is, it took place in the I.-Eur. period, e.g. I.-Eur. *ĝĭ-ĝnō (ch. iv. § 5 r), -trī- (ib.); others, e.g. dixem, if a reduction of dixissem (ch. viii. § 3), are rather to be explained like ar(ci)cubii above; audissem, if a reduction of audivissem (ch. viii. § 3), like sīs for $s i \bar{\imath} v i ̄ s$.
§14. Syncope in the Praenestine Dialect of Latin. On the Latin inscriptions found at Praeneste there are a large number of omissions of vowels, e.g. Dcumius (for Dĕč̆mius), C.I.L. i. п133, Gminia (for Gëmĭnia), Eph. Epigr. i. 72, Diesptr (for Diēspiter), C.I.L. i. r500; Ptronio (for Pêtrönio), Eph. Epigr. i. 92 ; a full list in Sittl, Lokal. Verschied. Lat. Sprache, p. 22. This tallies so remarkably with a reference by Plautus to a peculiar pronunciation of the Praenestines, conea for cicōnia, 'a stork,' that it is likely that these spellings represent the actual sound of the words. In the Trucutentus of Plautus the surly, taciturn slave Truculentus, whose mispronunciations are more than once a subject of jest (cf. line 683), turns the word arrăbo, 'a prepayment,' 'earnest-money,' into rabo, 'a raver' (cf. rabere, 'to rave,' rabula, 'a bawling pettifogging lawyer'); and on being taken to task, says that he has pocketed a part of his arrabo as the Praenestines do with ciconia (line 690):

> 'ar' facio lucri, ut Praenestinis 'conea' est ciconia.
(Cf. misisia for Ital. amicizia in the modern Parmese dialect; Ital. nemico for Lat. innimīcus, \&c.) The omitted vowel is $e$ or $i$, once a (Mgolnia, C.I.L. i. 1r8) (besides Acmemeno for Ăgămemno, on an old Praenestine cista, Eph. Epigr. i. 19), and the omission is easily explained by the influence of the accent in words like Diésp $(i) t(e) r, P(e)$ trónio, and, if we admit that the antepaenultima was accented in these words in the Praenestine dialect at this period, in $D(e)$ cumius, $G(e)$ minia (cf. Cem(i)na; C.I. L. i. 99). But an accented vowel is omitted in Trtia (for Tertia), Eph. i. ro8, Pol(i)dia, Eph. i. 95, and even a long accented vowel in Atlia (for Atilia), Eph. i. 33.
A grammarian of the second cent. A.D. (Terentius Scaurus, pp. 14, i5 K.) tells us of a practice of an earlier date of substituting a letter for the name of the letter. The name of $c$ was ' $c e$,' of $d$ was ' $d e$,' of $k$ was ' $k a$ '; and so $c r a$ was written for cēra, kra for kara (cāra). His example for $d$ is almost exactly our first example of the Praenestine contraction, viz. Dcimus for Decimus. These words of Terentius Scaurus suggest that spellings like Albsi for Albēsi, Albensi on an inscription of Alba Fucentia, a town not far removed from the Praenestine district (Zvetaieff, Inscr. Ital. Inf. 46), lubs mereto (for lubēs, lubens merito) on an inscription found near Avezzano, in the same neighbourhood (C.I.L. i. 183), are indications of a syllabic system of writing in partial use in this region of Italy (ch. i. § 13), and leave us in doubt about the real nature of Praenestine pronunciation.
§ 15. Syncope under the Old Accent Law. (1) The preposition ambi(Gk. $\dot{\alpha} \mu \phi i ́)$ loses its second syllable in compounds like ánculus, 'a servant,' for ${ }^{*}$ aimbi-cölus (Gk. à $\mu \phi i$ - $\pi 0 \lambda o s$, Sanscr. abhi-caras), an old Latin word from which came anculare, 'to serve' (Paul. Fest. 15. 7 Th.) and ancilla; ancipes (Plaut. Rud. 1158), later anceps (from ambi- and căput); am-plector, \&c. The same shortening may have caused that confusion of the old preposition indo (endo) (ch. ix. § 27) with the preposition in (en) (ind(o)grĕdior, \&c. becoming by syncope identical with ingredior) which led to the disuse of indo and the adoption of in in its place. Thus indaudio (Plaut.) was completely ousted by inaudio in the time of Terence, and in the classical period compounds with indo are only found as archaisms in poets, e. g. indüpĕrātor Juv.
(2) The second syllable of the first member of a compound is syncopated in hospes for *hosti-pes, princeps for ${ }^{*}$ primì-ceps (cf. primi-gĕnia, an epithet of the goddess Fortuna, unsyncopated because $m$ and $g$ do not easily combine) ; forceps for formï-ceps (from formus, 'hot,' connected with Gk. $\theta \in \rho \mu$ ós. Paul. Fest. 59. 18 gives us this etymology, forcipes dicuntur, quod his forma, id est calida, capiuntur; cf. Vel. Long. 71. 15 K.) ; quindecim from quīnquĕ and dĕcem ; undecim from unnus and decem; universus is a re-formation from an older syncopated form which we find on the Decree of the Senate against the Bacchanalian orgies, an inscription of the time of Plautus ( 186 b.c.) (though Plautus himself uses the four-syllabled universus) (C.I.L. i. 196. 19 homines plous V oinuorsei uirei atque mulieres sacra ne quisquam fecise uelet) (this may be a mistake for ${ }^{*}$ oinuuorsei, like sursuorsum on the Sentent. Minuc. 1. 15) ; vindēmia for *viǹ-dèmia ; Marpor (C. I. L. i. 1о76) for Marci-por, \&c.
(3) The first syllable of a verb compounded with a preposition is suppressed in pergo for *per-rigo (cf. perrexi, perrectum); porgo, the old form of porrigo, *por-rĕgo (cf. Fest. 274. 15 Th. antiqui etiam 'porgam ' dixerunt pro porrigam), e. g. exporgere lumbos, 'to stretch one's legs,' Plaut. Pseud. prol. r, cf. Epid. 733 ; the word, sanctioned by the usage of Virgil (A. viii. 274 pocula porgite dextris), appears now and then in the Silver Age poets (Val. Flacc. ii. 656 ; Stat. Theb. viii. 755, \&c.), but the classical form is porrigo; surgo for surrigo, *sub-régo; a deponent perf. participle sortus for *surctus, formed on the analogy of the syncopated pres. ind., was often used by Livius Andronicus (Paul. Fest. 423. I Th.); beside surrŭpui (classical surripui) we have the syncopated form surpui in Plautus (e. g. Capt. ${ }^{760}$ ), and even a perf. part. pass. formed after its type, surptus (Rud. ino5). Lucretius also uses the contracted form of the present (ii. 314 motus quoque surpere debent), and Horace (S. ii. 3.283 unum me surpite morti; cf. C. iv. 13. 20 quae me surpuerat mihi) ; pono for ${ }^{*} p$ ŏ-sĭno (the preposition is pŏa byform of * с̆̆ $\overline{0}$, ăb), postus, depostus, compostus, very common for pŏ-sittus, \&c. ; like postus is prae-stō, earlier prae-st̄̄ (Cassiod. 157. 22 K.), ready, at hand, for *prae-situ; cette for *cedite, *cĕ-dăte, where the particle cĕ, 'here,' 'hither,' is prefixed to the verb, as in Oscan ce-bnust, 'huc venerit' (Zvetaieff, Inscr. Ital. Inf. 23I. 20). These syncopated forms were probably far more frequent in the early period, than at a later time, when the same tendency to recomposition which produced con-sacro out of consecro, ad-sum out of assum (ch. iv. § 160) restored por-rigo, sur-ripui, \&c. The older forms might remain undisturbed in derivatives whose connexion with the verb was unnoticed, e. g. refriva faba (referiva, Plin. xviii. I19), the bean brought back by the farmer from the field for luck (in Fest. 380. I7 Th. we are told that the word was also associated with refrigo, 'to roast,' 'parch'); apricus, Aprilis may be similar
traces of an ap-(e)rio (cf. ŏp-ěrio), unless the syncope in all three words was pretonic syncope under the Paenultima Law of Accentuation, ref(e)riva, ap(e)ricus, $A p(e) r i l i s$. Verbs beginning with a vowel unite it into one sound with the final vowel of the preposition, though to what period of the language this crasis should in each case be referred is uncertain, for it might be caused by a following as well as by a preceding accent. Crasis was the rule in such compounds in the early period, to judge from the usage of the older poets. Coerce, for example, is dissyllabic in Pacuvius (Trag. 47 R.),
gradere átque atrocem coerce confidéntiam (see ch. ii. § r50).
(4) The first syllable of a reduplicated perfect of a compound verb is dropped in reppěri, rettŭli, reccidli, \&c., where the double consonant seems to preserve a trace of the syncope (see ch. viii. §44). The syncope would in these perfects be facilitated by the Latin tendency to drop one of two neighbouring syllables of like sound (see on arcubii for arci-čibii, above § 13); and it is natural to suppose that the perfects without reduplication, like $e x$-scidd ( $\mathbf{O}$. Lat. scicídi), con-curri (and con-cŭcurri, older *con-cécurri), \&c., originated in this way (ch. viii. §44), just as in modern Greek $\beta \iota \beta \dot{\alpha} \zeta \omega$ has become $\beta a ́ \zeta \omega$ in compounds like $\delta \iota \alpha \beta \alpha \dot{\zeta} \omega$, $\grave{\epsilon} \mu \beta a ́ \delta \omega$, \&c. Another syncopated verb-form is cante (2 Plur. Imperat. of căno), quoted from the Carmen Saliare by Varro (L.L. vii. 27). But as a rule all traces of syncope in the declension of the verb have been obliterated, the full forms (e. g. cănưte) having been restored through the influence of forms where the consonants were not adapted for combination (e. g. sistite), or where the syllable in question did not immediately follow the (early) accent (e. g. concinite), as well as from the analogy of other conjugations, e.g. amā-te, monē-te, audī-te. In Umbrian and Oscan these imperatives are syncopated, e. g. Umbr. sistu (Lat. sistito), Osc. actud (Lat. ăgìto). The same is true of derivative adjectives, e.g. in -idus, hūmidus, frīgidus, călidus, sölidus, riggidus, àridus, \&e. (but nūdus for *novidus from a root nogw-, Sanscr. nag-nas, our 'naked,' is syncopated ; on údus see below), in -iccus, e. g. ӣnicus, cīvicus, mëdicus, but the nouns Plancus, lurco, 'a glutton' (from lüra, 'the mouth of a sack,' according to Paul. Fest. 86. 23 Th. lura, os cullei, veI etiam utris; unde lurcones capacis gulae homines), juncus, \&c. are syncopated (see below on raucus). Similarly vivídus is saved from syncope by the influence of other adjectives in -idus, while the noun vïta for *vĩita (Lith. gywatà) is not. The Umbrian adj. in -co-, tōtco- (Latin pübliccus) from tōta-, *touta-, ' the community,' 'people,' shows the contraction which Latin adjectives of this formation escape (cf. Osc. toutico-).
(5) Diminutives in -lo-, on the other hand, extended the syncope from dissyllabic to other forms, e.g. ullus from *üno-lus, villum from *vīno-lum, Ter. Adelph. 786, and from their analogy, cörölla for *corōnula, persölla for *persōnula,

(6) Greek words borrowed at an early period probably owe their syncope to the early accent, e. g. Hercŭles (Greek 'H ${ }^{\prime}$ акл $\lambda \overline{\mathrm{y}}$ ), Pollūces (the early form of Pollūx),
 tine Acmemeno (above, § 14).
(7) Other examples are alter from ăliter ; postulo from *posč̌-tŭlo; ulna from *ul̆̆na (Greek $\dot{\omega} \lambda \dot{\epsilon} \nu \eta$ ) ; original -ln- becomes -ll-in Latin, e. g. collis from *colnis (Lith. káłnas, Greek $\kappa 0 \lambda \omega \nu \delta{ }^{\prime}$ ) ; propter from *prơpǐ-tèr.

from săcer and root dō, 'to give'; ăcerbus for *ácrǐ-dho-, with the same termination (belonging to root dhé, 'to make') which becomes -dus when not preceded by $r$, e. g. frigidus, calidus (see ch. iv. § II4) ; săcellum for ${ }^{*}$ sacer-lum, ${ }^{\text {sacrŏ-lom, }}$ sácrǐ-lum, \&c. Nouns like ăger (Greek ả após), căper (Greek кátoos), and adjectives like $\bar{\alpha} c e r$ show this treatment of the unaccented final syllable of the Nom. case, whereas hortus, \&c. are saved from syncope by the analogy of other cases, horti, horto, hortum, \&c., and of other Nominatives, whose final syllable did not immediately follow the (early) accent, like ánimus, autumnus. In the Italian dialects we find this -er-in similar positions, e. g. Osc. Aderla- from *Adrola(Lat. Atella), Abella- probably from *Abrola- (Lat. *Apella), Umbr. ager, pacer, 'propitious,' from pācri-, often spelt -r-, e.g. Sabine Atrno- (Lat. Aternus), Osc. Tantrnnaiúm (Gen. Pl.) (ch. iv. § 92). In Latin we seem to have -er-for -ri, in the accented syllable too, e.g. ter (Greek rpis), in Plautus (e. g. Bacch. 1127) scanned as a long syllable, and so pronounced terr (cf. terruncius, the right spelling ; see Bücheler in Rhein. Mus. xlvi. 236), from *ters. The substitution of $\check{e r} r$ for $r \check{ }$ would then be due rather to metathesis (cf. N. Ital. fardor, \&c. for fredor, \&c., Meyer-Lübke, Rom. Gramm. i. p. 29I, and see above, ch. ii. § IIr). Ter would however be unaccented in phrases like ter-mille (ef. terdeciens written as one word on Mon. Anc. i. 29). On ter, see ch. vi. § 6i, on er for ř̌ ch. iv. § гз.
(9) For the syllable -vǐ-, e. g. autumo for ăv̌̌-tùmo (Greek öん for $\dot{o} F-$ - $\omega$ ) ; claudo *clãvǔ-do, from clāvis; cūria for *cŏviricia (cf. Volscian covehriu, Zv. Inscr. Ital. Inf. 47) ; gaudeo for *gāvǐdeo, part. gāvīsus (Greek $\gamma \eta \theta^{\prime} \omega$ for $\gamma \bar{\alpha} F \epsilon-\theta^{\prime} \omega$ ) ; naufragus for ${ }^{*}$ nävĭ-frăgus ${ }^{1}$; nüper, cf. adj. nuperum Acc. Sg., Plaut. Capt. 718 recéns captum hominem núperum nouícium), for *nŏv̌̌-pĕrus from nŏvus and păro ; praeco for ${ }^{*}$ prae-vǐco from prae and vŏco; praedes, earlier praerǐdes (praevides Plur., praes Sing. on the Lex Agraria of Sp. Thorius, ifi b.c., C.I.L. i. 200, but only praedes on the older Lex Repetundarum, 123-2 в. c., i. 198), from prae and vas, perhaps suffered syncope after the new accent law, as did $\bar{u} d u s$ (as early as Lucil. inc. 172 M.), in Plautus only üvidus; raucus for răvǐcus from răvis, 'hoarseness'; vīta for *vīvita (see above) ; auceps for *ăvǐ-ceps; Opiter, a name given to a child 'who had a grandfather for a father,' cujus pater avo vivo mortuus est (Paul. Fest. 207. 15 Th.), Plur. Opiteres (Löwe, Prodr. p. 396), seems to be colloquial Latin for *Aupater for *ăvi-păter from ărus and păter. The form mävŏlo is found (with mālo) in Plautus, but in the classical period only mälo.

The syllable -v̌̌-, $-v \check{\text { ě- }}$ is syncopated, even when long by 'position,' in auspex for *ăv̌-spex ; nüntius, older nŏventius [the older form occurs in a prophecy of the famous Marcius, published 213 в.c. (ap. Fest. 164. 28 Th.) quamvis noventium duonum negumate, 'quamvis bonum nuntium negate'] ; nundinae for *nŏven-dinae from novem and dĭn- a bystem of dies (Sanscr. dínam, O. Slav. dinní). And $-v$ - is dropped even before a long vowel when a vowel of the same quality precedes, e.g. lābrum, earlier lăväbrum, Lucr. vi. 799. (Marius Victorinus, ix. 20 K . quotes lavābrum for läbrum among other instances of Old Latin forms such as hacetenus for hāct̄̈nus, hocedie for hŏdiē, semol for sǐmŭl); lätrina for lăvätrina, the old word for a bath, supplanted by the Greek loanwords bal(i)neum ( $\beta$ ăлăveiov) (cf. Non. 212. 7 M. 1ātrina . . . est lavatrina, quod nunc balneum dicitur), as balneum itself was succeeded by lavācrum : divī̄nus was early contracted to dinus (Leo in Rhein. Mus. xxxviii. 2), e. g. reidinai and

[^47]res deina on an old inscription (C.I.L. xi. 4766), so obliscor for obliviscor in the early dramatists (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.), and in universal usage, sīs, for $s \bar{\imath} v \bar{\imath} s$, from which a plural sultis was formed. (On loss of intervocalic $-v$ see ch. ii. § 53 and ch. iv. § 70 .

This liability of every short second syllable to syncope under the Early Accent Law makes it dangerous to infer from Latin forms the presence or absence of a short vowel in the corresponding Indo-European forms, e. g. to infer from the distinction between Lat. ưltrā, citrā , infrā, sŭprā, extrā, contrī on the one hand, and üttěrior, citterior, inférior, süpěrior, extërior on the other, that the original stem-suffix was $-t r-,-r$ - in these adverbs and $-t e r$-, -er- in these adjectives. Priscian (ii. p. зо. г H.) tells us that the older forms were supera, infera, extera, \&c. quaedam etiam syncopam passa sunt, ut 'supra' pro 'supera,' et 'infra' pro 'infera,' et 'extra' pro 'extera,' nam antiqui trisyllaba ea proferebant, ut Cicero in Arato :

## Torvus Draco serpit supter superaque retorquens Sese,

tenuit tamen, ut disyllaba magis ea proferantur (cf. ii. p. 55. 23 H.). Sŭpĕra is found in an elegiac epitaph, of the time of the poet Accius (to judge from its use of a double letter to indicate a long vowel), C.I L. i. ioir Ree fuit ee vero plus superaque parens, and on another inscription, with the same indication of date (cf. Ritschl, P.L.M. p. 46) (-ee-for ē in seedes) we have infera, i. ri66 quae infera scripta sont, but on the earlier S. C. de Bacch. (i. rg6 of 186 в. c.) we have suprad and exstrad, so that supera (which is used also by Lucretius) may be a form that is not genuinely antique. On the spelling arbiterium for arbitrium, see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v., and cf. mayistero- C. I. L. i. 73, ma[gi]steratus, Eph. Epigr. ii. 298 ; on dextëra and dextra, see Brambach, Lat. Orth. ; on sinistera for sinistra (e. g. Ter. Eun. 835), on Tïbëris and Třbris, see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. vv., and for other examples of syncopated byforms, s. vv. sol(i)dus, Vir(i)domarus, frig(i)dus, ful(i)ca, Temese (Gk.) and Tempsa (Lat.) ; but audac-ter, later audāč-ter, prīvi-gnus beside privi-genus (cf. Paul. Fest. 225. 2 Th. ' oenigenos' unigenitos), teg-men beside teggi-men, \&c. admit of other explanations. (On the use of a Parasitic Vowel with $r$ see ch. ii. § ro2.)
Syncope is carried even further in Umbro-Oscan than in Latin, but in Umbrian the Perf. Part. Pass. is not syncopated, while the 3 Sg. Imper. is (but not -net-, e. g. kanetu, 'let him sing') ; thus sektu is Imper., seçetu is P. P. P. (see von Planta, i. p. 214). Contrast Osc. toutico- with Umbr. totco-, 'publicus,' Osc. minstro- with Lat. ministro-, Osc. Vezkú- with Lat. Vetusco-.
§ 16. Syncope of Final Syllable. In Oscan and Umbrian, as in Gothic, $\check{c}, \check{o}$, $\check{\imath}$, but not $\breve{u}$ (?), in a final syllable are syncopated, e.g. Osc. húrz, Lat. hortus, Bantins, Lat. Bantīnus, túvtíks for *touticos from touta-, 'community,' ' people,' Umbr. emps, Lat. emptus, pihaz, Lat. piātus, all with syncope of -ŏs; Osc. $\mu \epsilon \delta \delta \epsilon \epsilon \xi$ for ${ }^{\text {med-dik-ěs Nom. Pl. of meddix, the title of the Oscan chief }}$ magistrate, censtur for * censtor-ĕs, Lat. censörēs, with syncope of -ĕs of Nom. Pl. (see ch. vi. § 40). Umbr. pacer for *pāc-ri-s, 'propitious,' with syncope of -rĭs. In Latin we have this syncope, unless it should rather be called metathesis (§ $\mathbf{1 5} .8$ ), in Nom. Sg. of -ro-, and ri-stems, e. g. ăger for *ag-ro-s, in-tĕg-er for ${ }^{*}$ en-tag-ro-s, ācer for ac-ri-s, volŭcer, \&c., but perhaps in no others. Quattuor might be for *quetwor-és, Masc. (Doric Gk. tétopes, Sanscr. catváras), but may
also be the Neuter form (Sanscr. catvā́ri) (see ch. vi. §63). The contraction of $-\bar{a} t i s$ to $-\bar{a} s$ in the Nom. Sg. of adjectives or nouns denoting the place of one's birth, e. g. Arpinas, *Casilas (Umbr. Casilos), is later than Plautus, who always uses the full form -ätis : while Campans (Masc. not Neut.) in his cruel sneer at the conquered Campanians, Trin. 545 :

## Campans genus Multo Surorum iam antidit patientia,

seems intended to mimic an Oscan *Campans for Campänus, like Osc. Bantins for Bantīnus. Like Arpīnātis, later Arpinas, are Samnītis, later Samnis, Laurentis, later Laurens, Tīburtis, later Tiburs, \&c. (Prisc. i. p. 134 H.). Nominatives Sg. of $i$-stems like sors (in Plaut. Cas. 38 o sortis), quiēs (if an I-stem like O. Pers. šiyātiš, Av. šyệitiš) may have dropped $i$ in their final syllable, not by syncope, but by analogy of consonant-stems; cf. nubs used by Liv. Andr. for nübēs (Serv. ad Aen. x. 636), plebs and plēbēs (for other examples, see Ritschl. Opusc. ii. 652). Or these may be instances of parallel stem-formations, like репи-, peno-, penos- of pënus, Gen. penūs, penum, Gen. peni, penus, Gen. penöris. So viŏlens and viŏlentus, fluens and fluentum, \&c., epulonus (Paul. Fest. 55, $I_{5}$ Th. 'epolonos' dicebant antiqui, quos nunc epulones dicimus), and ёрйlo, centurionus and centŭrio, curionus, decurionus and cūrio, decŭrio (Paul. Fest. 34. $3^{6}$ Th. 'centurionus' antea, qui nunc centurio, et 'curionus' et 'decurionus' dicebantur), infans, once used by Accius (Trag. 189 R. infans facinus) in the sense of infandus. Compounds like in-dex, iu$(s)$-dex, vin-dex differ from causĭ-dĭcus, iurĭ-dı̆cus, fätı̆-dŭcus in being formed directly from the weak verb-stem dĭc-, like Sanscr. ā-diśs-. So conjux (cf. Sanscr. sąyuj-, Gk.
 urbĭ-сӑpus (Plaut.), hosti-capas (Paul. Fest. 73. 1о Th. 'hosticapas' hostium captor) ; йрй-fex, artı̆-fex, carnй-fex beside mūnй-fĭcus, magnй-fı̆cus; rēm-ex beside prōd-ǐgus. Man-suēs (Acc. mansuem and mansuētem) beside man-suētus, in-quiēs
 anceps from prae-, ambi- and căput, in Plautus praecĭpes (Rud. 671), ancĭpes (Rud. II58) (cf. procapis, Paul. Fest. 281. 22 Th. 'procapis' progenies, quae ab uno capite procedit; and concapit (?) of the XII Tables ap. Fest. 556. 27 Th . tignum iunctum aedibus uineaue et concapit ne soluito) were afterwards assimilated to compounds of căpio, e.g. prin-ceps (cf. Prisc. i. p. 28o. 15 H . antiqui tamen 'ancipes' et 'praecipes' et 'bicipes' proferebant in nominativo . . . idem tamen vetustissimi etiam 'praecipis' genetivum . . . secundum analogiam nominativi protulerunt). Old Latin Pollūcēs (Plaut. Bacch. 894, cf. Gk. Поגvסєúкฑs) was shortened to Pollūx, probably by analogy of lūx, Gen. lūcis. Priscian (i. p. 282. 12 H.) tells us that the old forms of concors, discors, \&c. were concordis, discordis (cf. i. 354. 13 H.) (cf. late Lat. orbs, e. g. Ven. Fort. ix. 3.14 ; orbis non ' orbs' Probi App. 198. 8 K.).

O-stem adjectives often have their Nom. Sg. shortened through their tendency, especially when compound (ch. v. § 34), to become I-stems. Thus hĭlărus (Gk. iौapós, one of those loanwords from Greek to express subtlenuances of feeling, for which the Romans had no word of their own, like our loanwords from French, such as 'triste') became, after the time of Plautus, hilaris (ch. v. § 34) ; foritis was perhaps originally forctus (Paul. Fest. 73. 9 Th. 'forctum' pro bono dicebant), though as early as the XII Tables we find forctes for loyal allies, (ap. Fest, 524. I5 Th., in XII cautum est, ut idem juris esset 'Sanatibus' quod
'Forctibus,' id est bonis, et qui numquam defecerant a Populo Romano ; cf. Paul. Fest. 59. 26 'forctes,' frugi et bonus, sive validus, where Paulus may have put the Nom. Pl. forctes by mistake for the Nom. Sg. forctis); săcro- and säcri- are parallel stems in O. Latin (sācres porci, 'pigs for sacrifice,' Plaut. Men. 289, Rud. ı208, cf. Fest. 464. 7 Th.), and similarly māno- and mäni-, 'good,' though in classical Latin the only survival of this group was im-mānis 'bad,' 'hurtful,' and the di Mänes. In the Carmen Saliare occurred the phrase Cerus mänus, explained by Paul. Fest. 87. 29 Th. as creator bonus, and at Lanuvium the old word mänis was in use even in the time of Macrobius (fourth cent. A.D.) (Macr. i. 3. I3 nam et Lanuini 'mane' pro bono dicunt; sicut apud nos quoque contrarium est 'immane'). Varro (L. L. vi. 4) connects with O. Latin mānus, 'good' the adverb mäne, 'early,' and in support of his etymology mentions a curious Greek custom of uttering the words $\phi \hat{\omega} s \dot{a} \gamma \alpha \theta \delta v^{\prime} \nu$ as a good omen when a light was brought into the room, diei principium 'mane,' quod tum manat dies ab oriente, nisi potius quod bonum antiqui dicebant 'manum,' ad cujusmodi religionem Graeci quoque, cum lumen affertur, solent dicere $\phi \hat{\omega} \boldsymbol{s}$ ad $\gamma a \theta o \delta \nu$ (see ch. vi. § 38 ). The 0 -stem hortus became in the compound $*_{c o-h o r t o-~ a n ~ I-s t e m ~} *_{c o-h o r t i s, ~ w h i c h ~(l i k e ~ s o r s, ~ \& c . ~ a b o v e) ~ c h a n g e d ~}^{\text {a }}$ its Nom. Sg. to co-hors. Even the Perf. Part. Pass. sānätus appears in the form sanati- in the expression quoted from the XII Tables by Festus 524. ro Th. for the repentant allies, who had first revolted and then returned to their allegiance, 'Sanates' dicti sunt, qui supra infraque Romam habitaverunt. quod nomen his fuit, quia, cum defecissent a Romanis, brevi post redierunt in amicitiam quasi sanata mente. And the Old Latin legal phrase dare damnas esto, tantum damnas esto (Cato ap. Gell. vi. 3.37 ; Quint. vii. 9. 12, \&c.) may be a case of substitution, for the usual 0 -stem damnato-, of an I-stem damnati-, which has taken a cons.-stem Nom. Sg. damnas, like aetas, tempestas.
IO-stems had at all periods a tendency to pass into I-stems. The older adj. termination -ārius (frequent in Plautus, vid. Lorenz ad Psend. 952, e.g. singularius, virginariuss) may have been often replaced by -äris in MSS. of Plautus (ch. v. §4). Cf. Caper ri2. 2 K. vates olim 'vatios' dicebant; so Verres and Verrius. In Vulg. Lat. -ius (-eus) became -is in actuaris, abstemis, sobris, caerulis, consanguinis, \&c. (Löwe, Prodr. p. 420), thus repeating the early confusion between -io- and $-i$ - in the declension of names like Caecilius, Acc. Caecilium, Caecilis, Acc. Caecilim (see ch. vi. §5). But none of these are clear cases of the change of stem of a Latin word owing to the syncope of its final syllable in the Nom. Sg. Perhaps the most likely instance is Lucipor, from Lücius and puer (stem püěro-), of which the Plur. is given by Pliny, H. N. xxxiii. 26 as Lucipores (cf. Dat. Sg. Naepori on an inscription of the end of the Republican period, C.I.L. i. 1539 e), but even this might be otherwise explained. The weakening of final vowels in Latin (see below) gives an à priori probability to the syncope of final short syllables like -iss, -ǒs, --̌s as in Oscan and Umbrian, but it has not yet been satisfactorily proved that syncope did actually occur in any syllables except those immediately preceding or following the accent. (Schuchardt, Vok. ii. 394 sqq. has collected a number of instances on late plebeian inscriptions of the omission of a short vowel of the final syllable, e.g. fect for fécit.)
§ 17. Syncope under the Paenultima Accent Law. (r)Pretonic. Compounds of jăcio like călē̈facio, which shortened their ē by the law of Brevis Brevians (see below), took the further step of suppressing the vowel altogether before
the accent of the next syllable, cal-fácere, cal-fáctus. Quintilian (i. 6. 2r) tells us that in his time the full form caleffacere was never used in ordinary talk. olfacere, not *olefacere, is the regular form. Ritschl proposed to help the metre occasionally in Plautus by reading benficium, malficium for bĕnĕficium, mălŭfičium, benfacta, malfacta (e.g. Trin. 185) for benefacta, malefacta of the MSS. He supported his proposal by the old spelling benventod on a coin of Beneventum (C.I. L. i. 19), c. 250 в.c. On later inscriptions spellings like benmerenti are frequent, also maldictvm (see Ritschl, Opusc. ii. 716). So firmly established was the syncopated form of compounds of facio like olfacio that even ärēfacio, whose é could not be shortened by ordinary phonetic change, since it is preceded by a long syllable, seems after their analogy to have been made a quadrisyllable by Cato, for the MSS. of the Res Rustica agree wonderfully in presenting the word in this form (c. 69 ; 125; 157. 12). To pretonic syncope we must refer the currency of the forms disciplinna, fŭglina beside discipulus, figulus, and on later inscriptions vetranus (cf. C.I.L. iii. Ind. p. 1159 for větěrē̃nus, \&c. (on Greek inscriptions almost always oúєtpavos or $\boldsymbol{\beta \epsilon}$ tpavos). Festus 466.16 Th. tells us that scēna, an old word for the priest's knife (used by Liv. Andr. Com. 2 R. corruit quasi ictus scena) had a byform sacēna; and another obsolete term sculna, discussed by Gell. xx. 11, a synonym of sĕquester, was explained by a grammarian, who compiled a sort of 'Slang Dictionary' (Lavinius 'De Verbis Sordidis') as a contraction of *seculna. Vulg. Lat. $m \bar{t} t(\bar{u}) t i n u s$ (Ital. mattino, \&c.) may be explained either as a case of the suppression of one of two similiar neighbouring syllables, like Res(ti)tütus above (§ $13, \mathrm{p} .176$ ) or of pretonic syncope, such as is seen in Ital. cervello (Lat. cěrébellum), vergogna (Lat. rërécundia), bontà (Lat. bŏnĭt̄̄t-), gridare (Lat. quïritare), dritto (Lat. dīrectus), \&c. Procope is common in Italian, owing to the frequency of final vowels, e.g. vescovo (Lat. ëpiscơpus), nemico (Lat. innimīcus), cagione (Lat. occāsion-), \&c. Synizesis of the pretonic short vowel is seen in Vulg. Lat. qu(i)ētus, *dyurnus (Ital. giorno); coactus became *quattus (Ital. quatto), \&c. (cf. Georges, Lex. Wortf. on Num(i)torius, Lug(u)dunum).
(2) Post-tonic. A good example of syncope after a long accented syllable under the new Accent-law is the word barca (our 'barque'), a word which seems to have been introduced at the time of the naval displays given by Caesar for the amusement of the people, and which is clearly a contraction of *bärǐca from the Egyptian bāris (Prop. iii. ir. 44) (see Rhein. Mus. xlii. 583). Another is lamna (Hor. C. ii. 2.2 inimice lamnae), in Vulg. Lat. lanna (Arnob. ii. 41); the older form of which was lammina (e. g. Plaut. Asin. 549). And we have many words which appear in Plautus in their full form, but in later writers are reduced by syncope, such as obiūrigo, by Terence's time always obiūrgo, nouns or adjectives in -ätis denoting the country of one's birth, \&c., e.g. infimatis (Stich. 493). The same shortening tendency attacked $u, i$ in hiatus, e.g. lärua is a trisyllable in Plautus, a dissyllable later, so grätūs, later grätis, while it has left traces of itself in spellings on old inscriptions like iugra (for $j \bar{j} g e ̌ r a$ ) on the Lex Agraria of Sp. Thorius, iri b. c. (C.I. L. i. 200. 14, 25), not to mention others which may be dialectal, such as proseprax (Dative) on a very old mirror of Cosa (C.I.L. i. 57. -AI, not-Ars, is what is written ; see Rhein. Mus. xlii. 486), and cedre for caedere on an early inscription of Spoletium in Umbria (C.I. L. xi. 4766). Ardus for äridus appears occasionally, e. g. Plaut. Aul. 297 ; Pers. 266 ; Lucil. 27. 40 M., and on an inscription copied in the Empire from an original of 105 b.c. (C.I.L.i. 577. 2. $21=$
x. 178I), which also contains ūda (2. 18) for ūvida (but āridus, Plaut. Rud. $574,726,764, \& c$.$) ; so Raude for Ravide, Catull. xl. \mathrm{I}$; aspris for aspĕris, Virg. Aen. ii. 379 (cf. aspritūdo, asprètum, asprēdo, and other derivatives, as well as Ital. aspro), aspriter, Sueius ap. Non. 513 M. Syncope after a short accented syllable is seen in soldus, used even in the Lex Municipalis of Julius Caesar, 45 B. C. (C. I. L. i. 206. 114 , I 15), and admitted by Horace into his Satires (S. ii. 5 . 65 metuentis reddere soldum, and S. i. 2. 113), in possum for pơtë-sum (ch. viii. §97), and in ferme, for ferrime, Superl. of fërē, if the corruption fert me of the Palatine MSS. in Plaut. Trin. 319 be evidence of the spelling ferime in Plautus' time. Plautus has never the form culmen, which appears to be a form proper to the oblique cases, so that the declension was : Nom. collumen, Gen. coll(u)minis (cf. Georges, Lex. Wortf. on later(i)culus, and possibly fer (i)culum). In Vulgar Latin we have slave-names like Marpor (C. I. L. i. ro76), Naepori (Dat. Sg.) (i. 1539 e), of which full forms like Quintipor, Marcipor, Gaipor, are given by Festus (340. ${ }_{7} 7$ Th.), mattus for mäditus, 'drunk' (Petron.), virdis (cf. Probi App. 199. 9 viridis non 'virdis') ; on $\operatorname{vir}(i)$ desco, $\operatorname{vir}(i) d a r i u m$, see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s.vv.; dictus for digĭtus (see Georges) ; fridam for frigidam on an inscription of Pompeii (C. I. L. iv. 1291) (cf. Probi App. 198. 3 K. calida non 'calda'; frigida non 'frigda'; infrigdo for infrigido, Oribas. fragm. Bern. iv. 34. p. i. 6 and ro Hag.); cf. frigdor (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.) ; calda is read in Cato, R. R. vi. г and 75, Varro, R.R.i. 13, \&c., and the proper name Cald(us) is found on coins as early as 109 в. c. (C.I.L. i. 382); on domnus for dŏmùnus, see Georges s.v., and cf. the proper name Domnus, Domna, Gk. Douvos (C.I. G. i. 6505 , end of second cent. A.d.), and Vulg.-Lat. nit(i)dus, horr(i)dus, rig(i)dus, col(a)phus, \&c. are indicated by the Romance forms, e. g. Ital. netto, ordo (but with close initial o), reddo, colpo, \&c. (For a list of syncopated forms in late inscriptions and MSS., see Schuchardt, Vok. ii. pp. 394 sqq.)
§ 18. Change of Unaccented Vowels. In a language with a stress-accent the unaccented vowels are liable to be obscured. We see this in our own language, where the unaccented vowels in words like 'father,' ' sister,' have become what we call par excellence 'the obscure vowel,' the vowel-sound of $u$ in 'but.' We notice too a difference in this respect between Italian pronunciation and our own; for an Italian pronounces the vowels of the unaccented syllables more clearly, and does not slur them to the same extent as we do. But in Italian also the same tendency to weaken an unaccented vowel is present, though not in so marked a degree. The unaccented vowel often fails to preserve its individuality, and is open to influence from a neighbouring consonant, $r$, for example, changing a preceding short vowel to $e, l$ changing one to $o$. Thus Latin arbor, or rather its oblique case-form arbörem, \&c. has become in Italian albero ; Latin dēb̄̆lis has become debole. And in the pretonic syllable of signore (Lat. sĕniörem), midolla (Lat. mĕdulla), the
unaccented vowel has become $i$. Exactly the same thing happened in Latin. In the last chapter we saw that a short vowel in the syllable following the accented syllable remained unsyncopated only when its syllable was long by position, or when some other cause prevented syncope. But though unsyncopated, it did not remain unaffected. Its quality was changed. In a syllable long by position we see a short unaccented vowel becoming e, e.g. remex, from rèmus and ăgo, in other syllables $i$, e.g. remigis, jūrigo (Plaut.), later jürgo. Under the influence of a following labial consonant or $l$ it assumes a $u$ - or $u$-sound (see ch. ii. § 16), e.g. occŭpo, in-č̆pio, from căpio; a following $r$ makes it $e$, e.g. pёдӗеri, from părio. Some vowels retained their individuality better than others. Short $o$ in compounds of verbs like voco, rogo, \&c. remains unchanged, e.g. convoco, invoco, irrogo, arrogo; short $u$ in tu-tudi, \&c.

Final syllables too cannot have been so liable to affection as others, or the difference between Nominatives Singular of different stems, such as cĭnis, ŏpus (Old Lat. opos), mănus, \&c. could not have been so well maintained. Perhaps they were saved by the analogy of trisyllables, and longer words, where the final syllable was not in the weakest of all positions, viz. immediately following the accent.

Even diphthongs were changed, their first element being affected, ai becoming $\bar{\imath}$ (through $*_{e i}$ ), au becoming $\bar{u}$ (through ${ }^{*} e u$ ), just as single $a$ was originally weakened to $e$ (see below). Thus the compound of ob and caedo became, under the influence of the early accent, occīdo, of $o b$ and $c l a u d o, o c c l \bar{u} d o$. But long vowels were more resistive of change, e.g. invädo, from vädo, irrēpo, from rēpo.

The regularity with which these changes of short vowels and diphthongs are carried out in the second syllables of Latin words is a strong proof of the fact discovered by Corssen, that the Latin accent at some early time rested invariably on the first syllable; for it is the syllable immediately following the accented syllable, which in a language with stress-accent is most liable to be affected. A syllable with a secondary accent, like the paenultima of *parri-caìda- (under the old accent law) would not be liable, just as in the Romance languages the vowel of the
first syllable of words like classical Latin àrmatûra, \&c. shows the same treatment as the vowel of the syllable with the main accent (cf. Ital. Fiorentino from Flòrentinus, like fiore from flörem, but Firenze from Floréntia). It might, however, change its vowel after the analogy of kindred words where the same vowel followed immediately on the accent, e.g. *óc-caido, and so we get the Old Latin form paricīlas (Paul. Fest. 278. 1o Th.). On the other hand the analogy of the simple word with accented root-vowel would often save the vowel of the compound from being changed, e.g. vades et subvades, XII Tab., where the $a$ of vades is not weakened as it is in praeviles (C.I. L. i. 200), later praedes. And at any period in the language the sense of the relation of a compound to a simple word might lead to the restoration of the vowel in the compound to its accented quality, e.g. *prövicare might become provöcare, though the noun praeco (for *prae-vico) was left unchanged; ènŭco might become e-neco; consecro, con-sacro. This restoration of compounds to their unweakened form, 'Recomposition' as it is sometimes called, is a feature of the late Republican and the Imperial period, and possibly had some connexion with the grammatical studies imported from Greece towards the close of the Republic, and prosecuted with great zest for many centuries.

In the period of the earlier literature the change of unaccented vowels is more the rule than it is later, e.g. always enico in Plautus, \&c., in spite of the old practice of separating the preposition from its verb by tmesis, ob vos sacro, for obsecro vos, sub vos placo, for supplico vos.

Analogy, however, was at work in all periods, and exerted its influence now in one way, now in another. The analogy of the Nominative preserved from change the vowel in the oblique cases of arborem, fulguris, \&c., at least in the literary lauguage (cf. Ital. albero ; fulgerator, Gruter. Inscr. xxi. 3) ; the analogy of the Oblique Cases, integri, integro, \&c. has substituted $e$ for $i$ in the Nominative integer. Compounds, too, which were made for the occasion, or were rarely used, like O. Lat. hosti-capas, hostium captor (Paul. Fest. 73. 10 Th.), urbi-capus (Plaut.), would escape the change which befel a word established in use, like prin-ceps, muni-ceps. But with these exceptions the change of
short vowels of the second syllable is very regular in Latin, though the oldest inscription extant, Manios med fefaked Numasioi, on a brooch perhaps of the sixth cent. B. c. found at Praeneste, is suggestive of an epoch when this law was not in operation.

The exact rules of change seem to be these. The older representative of $i$, the modification of a short vowel in an ordinary short unaccented syllable was $e$ (Gk. $\epsilon$ ); while the older representative of $u$, the modification of an unaccented short vowel before a labial or $l$, was $o$ (Gk. o). $E$ was replaced by $i, o$ by $u$ about 230 в.c. Up to that time the process of change might be so described. An unaccented short vowel was changed before a labial $l$ to $o$, in all other circumstances to $e$. Thus on old Praenestine jewelcases, \&c. we find spellings like Belolai (C.I.L. i. 44) for Bellulae, Salutes (i. 49) for Sŭlütis, Aecetiai for Aequitiae (al. Angitiae), (i. 43); and these older spellings often persist to a much later period. The MSS. of Plautus, for example, preserve traces of abegit for abigit, Capt. 814; exsolatum for exulatum in Merc. 593 (B), Most. 597 (A), \&c., and the Lex Repetundarum of 121 b.c. (C.I.L. i. 198) has, with the conservativeness of legal orthography, forms like detolerit, oppedeis side by side with detulerit, ediderit, \&c. E was especially long retained after the vowel $i$, e.g. èbrietas, părietem. And after consonantal $i(y)$ we find conieciant on the Lex Repetundarum, proiecitad (for projicito) on the Titulus Lucerinus (Eph. Epigr. ii. 298); while the spelling inieciatis, Plaut. Truc. 298 has led to the corruption illeciatis in the Ambrosian Palimpsest (so in Lucretius MSS. traiĕcĕre, iii. 513. For other examples, see Lachmann ad Lucr. ii. 951); o was similarly retained after $i, e$, e.g. fīliolus, Pŭteoli, lit. ' little wells,' and after vocalic or consonantal $u(u, w)$, e.g. paruolus. (See ch. iv. § 70.)

The iĕ of compounds of jacio, \&c. became $\breve{\imath}$, e.g. conicio, through loss of accent (ch. iv. §5r), and similarly uĕ of compounds of quatio, \&c. became $\breve{u}$, e.g. concutio. This older $e$ remained in short syllables before $r$, e.g. peperi. Also in syllables long by position, except where the first of the two consonants was a labial or $l$; and even into these it found its way in time with the exception of the combination of $l$ with another consonant (not $l l$ ), e.g. condemno, older condumno (both forms are
found on the Lex Bantina of 130 b.c., C.I.L. i. 197) ; surreptum (surruptum Plaut.), but always insulto, insulsus, inculco (ch.iv. § ı). The $o$, proper to syllables whether short or long by position in which the vowel was followed by a labial or $l$, became $u$, which might pass into the $\ddot{u}$-sound (ch. ii. § 16 ), written at first $u$, later $i$. The spelling of MSS. of Plautus, testumonium, \&c. became in time testimonium, \&c. In Superlatives $i$ for earlier $u$ was adopted for State Inscriptions through the influence of Julius Caesar (Quint. i. 7. 2 I ; Varro ap. Cassiod. p. 150. 1 I K.), so on the Lex Julia Municipalis of 45 в. с. (C.I.L. i. 206) maximam and maxumam, though we find it occasionally used long before his time, e.g. proxsimum (i. 1291, an inscription which Ritschl dates ' not after 1 зо в. с.'). $I$ came in earliest probably in syllables which were followed by a syllable with $i$ in hiatus, e.g. recipio (recipit on a Scipio epitaph of c. 180 b.c., i. 33).

The same vowel appears in confringo, infringo, \&c. in accordance with the phonetic law of Latin which gives us $i$ for $e$ in the accented syllables of words like tingo (Gk. $\tau^{\prime} \neq \gamma \omega$ ), ch. iv. § ir.

The succession of $o, u, i$ in words like maxomos, maxumus, maximus is also seen in the parasitic or 'Svarabhaktic' vowel (ch. ii. § I 54) of pōculum (Plaut. poclum), \&c. The earliest spelling is $o$, e.g. on the Praenestine vases of third cent. b.c.belolai pocolom (C. I. L.i. 44), Salutes pocolom (i. 49), Aisclapi pococolom (for pocolom), (Eph.Epigr. i. 5). The classical Latin spelling is u, poculum, stăbulum, \&c. The $i$ in I-stem Adjectives, \&c., e.g. stabilis, ăgilis, fäcilis, where $i$ follows in the next syllable, is in O. Lat. e, e.g. fameliai (C.I. L. i. 166), on Greek inscriptions Kaıкєлıos, \&c.

An $o$ which had escaped the reduction to $e$ became at the end of the third cent. в.c. u, e.g. ŏpus, earlier opos (ib. i. 52), Lūcius, earlier Luciom (ib. i. $3^{2}$ ) (cf. ch. iv. § 17) ; industrius (older endos-truo-, if we may believe Paul. Fest. 75. 28 Th.) ; -unt in 3 Pl. for older -ont, e. g. praedopiont of Carm. Sal. (Fest. 244. 13 Th. MS. -oti-) in the sense of praeoptant. A $u$ became $\ddot{u}, i$, e.g. sŭtura, satira.

The weakening of the diphthong ai (later $a e$ ) to $\bar{\imath}$ was frequently abandoned in the late Republican and Imperial time, a number of forms which exhibit-this weakening, e.g. consiptum, obsiptum, from saepio, being recognized as Old Latin forms. The same weakening may have occurred when $a i$ stood in hiatus,
but here by the Latin law of shortening a long vowel in hiatus (ch. ii. § I43), $\bar{\imath}$ sank further to $\breve{\imath}$, e.g. Bŏrianum for Bovïanum (Oscan Búvaianúd Abl.), Mărius (cf. Oscan Maraiio-). Similarly unaccented $a u$ in hiatus sank to $\breve{u}$ in èluo, eluäcrum (Cato) from lăvere (Old Lat.), lavãcrum. (For other examples, see Parodi in Stud. Ital. i. 385.) (For reduction of final vowels, see § 37.)

Greek loanwords in Latin show the same changes of the posttonic vowels, though a vowel may be retained unchanged in words which were borrowed after the operation of the law affecting that particular vowel, or which never became part and parcel of the common language. The change is seen in bálineum (Plaut. \&c.), classical balneum ( $\beta a \lambda a v \in i ̂ o v)$, trŭtina ( $\tau \rho v \tau a ́ v \eta)$, tălentum (тá̀avтov), phălerae (фá入apa), \&c., but not in plătanus
 Probi App. 197. 26 K.), Ital. cetera and cetra, but Span. guitarra from citára ( $\kappa \iota \theta$ ápa) (as from кá $\mu \mu a \rho o s$ Ital. gambero, but Span. gambaro), carry out the vowel-reduction which was omitted in the classical forms of these words. The analogy too of native words may often have interfered with the normal development of these unaccented vowels; the $\breve{o}$ of ancŏra ( ${ }^{\gamma} \gamma \kappa \bar{v} \rho a$ ) and the $e$ of plŭcenta ( $\pi \lambda \alpha к о \hat{v} \nu \tau a$, Acc. Sg.), for example, may have arisen in this way, just as $\pi \rho o ́ \theta v \rho o v$ became protulum (Löwe, Proll. p. 376) by the analogy of diminutives, or $\Pi \epsilon \rho \sigma \epsilon-$ фóv̀, Pröserpina (Prosepnai, Dative, on an old mirror of Cosa, C.I. L. i. 57) by the analogy of proserpo.

Under the early law of accentuation, when the accent fell on the first syllable of every word, pretonic change could take place only in proclitic or subordinate words like prepositions preceding their nouns. Whether Menerua of early inscriptions (e.g.C.I.L. i. 191 Meneruai; cf. Quint. i. 4. 17), a quadrisyllable in Plautus (ch. iv. § 148), became Munerva through loss of accent in the first syllable or by analogy of munor is uncertain. But the pretonic change of $a u$ to $u$ in Ital. udire (Lat. audire), uccello (Vulg. Lat. *aucellus from ăvis), and of ae to $i$ in Ital. cimento (Lat. caementum), cisello, our 'chisel' (Lat. caesellum), may have already occurred in Vulgar Latin. The pretonic syllable is often assimilated to the accented, e.g. momordi for earlier memordi, and the same tendency in the post-tonic syllable
is seen in mispronunciations like tonotru (Probi Append. 198. 32 K.), preventing reduction in ŭlăcer, leĕbĕtem, \&c.

A long vowel in an unaccented syllable was not shortened (except in the final syllable, see $\S \S 40-50$ infr.) until a late period, when the length of all long syllables had been reduced to something not far removed from a short syllable (see ch. ii. § I4I).

But a syllable long by position, when preceded by a short syllable and followed immediately by the accented syllable, was so reduced as to be often scanned as a short syllable by the early dramatists, e.g. volŭptatem, senĕctutem (Plaut. Ter.).

In Oscan and Umbrian, though syncope is of frequent occurrence, the quality of an unsyncopated unaccented vowel is retained in the spelling. The name, for instance, of the Latin poet, Propertius, who was a native of Umbria, is in Umbrian form Propartio-, not Propertio- (Vois. Ner. Propartie on an Umbrian inscription, C.I. L. xi. 5389, would be in Latin Vols. Propertii, Neronis f.; cf. xi. 5518 sqq.).
§ 19. Other Examples. I. Syllables long by position. Anteclassical exercirent from sarcio, Ter. Heaut. 143 ( $e$ in all the MSS.; cf. Paul. Fest. 57. 12 Th. exercirent: sarcirent) ; ommentans, from manto, Frequentative of măneo, quoted by Fest. (218. 14 Th.) from Livius Andronicus (cf. Gl. Plac. ommentat : expectat, \&c.); inpetritum : inpetratum (Paul. Fest. 77. 3 Th.); inermat: armis spoliat (id. 78. 28 Th.) ; inlĕx : inductor, ab inliciendo (id. 8o. 29 Th., with quotation of Plaut. Asin. 221) from O. Lat. lŭcio (id. 83. $3^{66 T h}$., lacit: inducit in fraudem. Inde est 'allicere' et ' lacessere'; inde 'lactat,' 'illectat,' 'oblectat,' 'delectat.' Cf. 83. 14 Th. lacit : decipiendo inducit. 'Lax' etenim fraus est) ; procestria (id. 282. 6 Th .), apparently from castra, seems to be the word equated with Gk. проá $\sigma \tau \epsilon \epsilon a$ in the 'Philoxenus' and 'Cyrillus' Glossaries ; compectus is in Plautus the Participle of the compound of păciscor, compāctus (ch. ii. § 144) of compingo. We have $e$ before a labial with a consonant in incepsit, the old 'Perf. Subj.' of incipio (Paul. Fest. 76. 23 Th.) ; peremne dicitur auspicari, qui amnem, aut aquam, quae ex sacro oritur, auspicato transit (Fest. 316. $3^{2}$ Th.) ; indeptare: consequi (Paul. Fest. 75. 27 Th.). The gloss indepisci: adsequi, adipisci, on the same page, l. 3r (cf. Gloss. Plac.) is perhaps given more correctly in the 'Philoxenus' Glossary, indepti: àv'vavtes; praeceptat: saepe praecipit Carm. Sal. (Fest. 244. ro Th.) ; inebrae aves : quae in auguriis aliquid fieri prohibent (id. 78. 7 Th.). But enubro: inhibenti (id. 54. 7 Th.). Cf. the questionable spellings in the 'Philoxenus' Glossary, eniber, enibra, enibrum (for enub-?). On the Falisco-Latin inscription of the Faliscan 'collegium cocorum' in Sardinia (Zv. I.I.I. 72), an inscription with bad spelling and worse metre, we ${ }^{-}$have aciptum for acceptum in the first line: Gonlegium quod est aciptum aetatei aged $a i$.

Classical examples are gĕnetrix beside genitus; obstetrix beside stator, constituo; (but prödïtrix, \&c., influenced by prōdïtor); fulgëtrum (all these Neuters in -trum
and Fems．in－tra have $\check{e}$ ，except a few with $\bar{a}$ ，e．g．verêtrum，mulcětra，arātrum．But tonitru：see A．L．L．i．ifi）；ไ̀d－ent－idem from ante；expers from pars；pěrennis from annus，and imberbis from barba，with the usual I－stem of Compound Adjectives；incestus from castus；forceps from formus，＇warm，＇and căpio ；compesco from＊păc－sco（cf．păciscor）．So in Reduplicated Perfects，e．g．peperci from parco ；fefelli from fallo．And in Final Syllables like mīles for＊milets，＊milit－s（in Plaut．the last syllable of such words is long by position，ch．ii．§ 137）；cornicen
 $\tau \rho(a ́ \kappa o \nu \tau \alpha$ ）（on $i$ for $e$ before $n t$ ，cf．ch．ii．§ I47），ille from unaccented olle（ch．vii． § 13），and perhaps pěren－die（cf．Osc．perum）（on－undo－and－endo in the Gerund， －unt－and－ent－in the Pres．Part．，see chap．viii．）．An original $u$ becomes $e$ in con－sternari（cf．Gk．$\pi \tau$ û́poual，O．H．G．stornem）；an original $i$ perhaps in O．Lat．magester Quint．i．4．17）．Other examples of the variation of weakened and unweakened forms are ：comperco and comparco，contrecto and contracto，aspergo and aspargo，àmundo and amendo，dispertio better than dispartio，bìpartititus and bipertitus，quinquepertitus and quinquepartitus，retracto better than retrecto，conspergo and conspargo，cŭliandrum and caliendrum，attrecto and attracto（so perhaps Sarepta and Sarapta），on which see Georges，Lex．Wortf．s．vv．；cf．abarcet Paul．Fest． I I． $3^{66}$ ，abercet id．19． 26 Th ．On Greek inscriptions we have $\pi \rho \iota \nu \kappa \iota \psi$ ，$\mu а \nu \kappa \iota \psi$ ， Bı彑ı入入apıos，oùıpavos，\＆c．，from the end of the first cent．A．d．；see Eckinger； prae－fiscin̄ $\bar{\imath}$ is usually derived from fascinum，but neither exintero beside exentero， nor bipinnis beside bipennis are certain cases of the change of $e$ to $i$ ，nor yet Antistius beside Antestius（§ 39）．（On $i$ for $e$ in infringo，triginta，see ch．iv．§ I r．）
§ 20．II．Short Syllables（1）in－r．The compound of lēx and rumpo has in Plautus the spelling legerŭpa（e．g．Pers．68，corrupted to lege rumpam），ef． vīverādix，Cato，R．R．xxxiii．3），though at a later time the usual＇Composition－ Vowel＇$i$ was used，e．g．pinnirăpus，Juvenal（see Rev．Phil．1892，p．109）；from paro come aequipero，impero，pauper，but ŏpй－parus；jünı̆рerus（and junipirus）（see Brambach，Lat．Orth．p．142），derived by Verrius Flaccus from jüvĕnis and pïrus （＇Serv．＇ad Ecl．vii．53）；sŏcer，soceri may be the direct development of＊swĕ̂̂ŭros， Gk．ékvoós，Skt．šváśuras，but see § I5，K．Z．xxxii．564）；cineris，cineri，but cinis， cinisculus（cf．Georges，Lex．Wortf．s．vv．Silerus，mataris，Samiramis，and for plebeian spellings like Caeserem，see Schuchardt，Vok．i．195，ii．214）．［The late spelling facinerosus is capable of being explained，like temperi Adv．beside tempori Dat．，by the variation of the suffix－os－and es－in the Declension of these Neuter stems（ch．v．§ 7r）；cf．pignera for pignora（see Georges）］．
§ 21．（2）in－1 or Labial．Anteclassical ：consoluerunt and cosoleretur on the S．C．de Bacchanalibus of 186 в．c．（C．I．L．i．196．But consuluere i． 185 beside consoltu i． 186 on two old inscriptions of Venusia）；the MSS．of Plautus show exsolatum，Merc． 593 （B），exolatum，Most． 597 （A），\＆c．（see Brix ad Trin．535）； consol on two inscriptions of 211 в．c．（i． $530-\mathrm{r}$ ）on another of 200 в．c．（Not． Scav．1887，p．195），and so normally till the third Punic War，even in one of 71 b．C．，consolibus beside consulibus（C．I．L．i．204）；exsoles is the Old Latin form （Cornutus ap．Cassiod．p．152． 7 K．；Caesellius ap．eund．p．204． 2 K．），while Velius Longus says，＇consol＇scribebatur per o，cum legeretur per u（p． 49. 14 K．）；incolomis is the spelling of the best MSS．（B，C）in Plaut．Truc． 68 （cf． colomnas C．I．L．i．13०7）． 0 remains in the classical period in vinolentus（perhaps by analogy of vinō lentus），somnolentus，and sanguĭnolentus．For the Superlative suffix we have the oldest spelling 0 in the proper name Maxomo in an inscription in the Faliscan dialect（Zv．I．I．I． 60 Maxomo Iuneo he cupat，＇Maximus Junius hic
cubat'). (cf. Gk. $\Delta \epsilon \kappa \circ[\mu 0 S$ C.I. A. iii.61. A (3). 18 , end of first cent. A. d. (?) ; maxu$m u s, \& c$. , as was said above ( $\S 18$ ), is the usual spelling on inscriptions till the time of Julius Caesar, though maximus, \&c. is occasionally found much earlier. The spelling of Plautus has $u$ in words like magnufice, Pseud. 702 (A.) ; pultufagis, Most. 828 (A.); sociufraude, Pseud. 362 (A.) ; sacruficem, Pseud. 327 (both A, the Ambrosian Palimpsest, and the Palatine family of MSS.) ; carnufex, \&c. (see Index to Studemund's Apograph of A, p. 522). So Oinumama for Unimamma, an Amazon, on an old Praenestine cista (C.I.L. i. 1501) ; testumonium on the Lex Bantina of 133-118 в.c. (i. 197); Cornuficia on an inscription (i. 1087), which Ritschl dates ' not long after Caesar' (cf. Gk. Kopvopıılos, e.g. C.I. G. 6948), tubulustrium (Varro), but aedificandam 108 в.c. (C. I. L. i. 565 and Eph. Epigr. viii. 460), opiparum on the old Falisco-Latin inscription with aciptum (Zv. I. I. I. 72), radimonium and aedificium on the Lex Agraria of III B. c. (C.I. L. i. 200) ; testimonium on the Lex Repetundarum of 121 в.c. (i. 198), \&c. Mănufestus is the anteclass., manifestus the classical spelling(Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.). [For other examples see Georges s.vv. Hadrumetum, quadrupes, septu ( $m$ )ennis, septu ( $m$ )aginta, crassupes (Gk. K $\rho a \sigma \sigma o \pi \eta s$, Bull. vi. p. 280, of the Republican period), manupretium, maritumus, incolumis, coluber, marsuppium, monumentum, cornupeta, aurufex, existumo, lacruma mucculentus, recupero, ustulo, acupenser, sterculinum, intubus, sescuplex, victuma, pontufex]. The influence of a following syllable with $i$ (especially in hiatus) is shown in fämilia ( 0 . Lat. famelia, § 18) beside famulus; subrimii haedi, from rumis, mamma (Paul. Fest. 369. 8 Th.) beside subrumari (Fest. 442. 32 Th.); moinicipieis beside mancup(um) on the Lex Agraria of ini b.c. (C.I.L. i. 200) ; manibieis, Eph. Epigr. i. p. 215 (but manubies, ib. viii. 476 , on a Capua inscription c. 135 B. c.) ; surripias is the spelling of both families of MSS. of Plautus in Pseud. 876, surripere in Pseud. 290, 675, surripitur in Mil. 602, but with $u$ in the next syllable surrupui, surrupuisse seem to be the Plautine forms (also surruptus) ; we have recipit on a Scipio Epitaph of c. 18 о в.c. (C.I.L.i. 33), accipito and concilium on i. 197 of $133-118$ в. c., accipito, conciliatum, conciliaboleis on i. 198 of 123-122 в. c.; acipiant on i. 199 of 117 в. C. ; only the $i$-form is quoted of inipitus: implicatus vel inretitus (Gl. Plac.), from root ap- (cf. aptus). [For inipite : inpetum facite (Paul. Fest. 78. 5 Th .), see below]. In Gk. inscriptions $\Sigma \in \pi \tau o v \mu \iota o s$ is very rare; we find almost always $\Sigma \in \pi \tau \iota \mu \iota o s$. (See also Georges on Lanivium).

Classical: $u$ remains in contubernium (but adtibernalis, Paul. Fest. 9. 9 Th.) from taberna; nuncupo, occupo from capio, occulo, \&c., and was retained in the spelling of Dat. and Abl. Plur. of some U-stems to distinguish them from similar I- or Cons.-stems, e.g. artubus, but according to the second-cent. grammarian in the spelling only (Ter. Scaur. p. 25 . II K. nemo autem tam insulse per $u$ 'artubus' dixerit) (trebibos on an old inscription in the British Museum, Eph. Epigr. ii. 299) ; dissupo is the anteclassical, dissipo the classical spelling (Georges, Lex. Wortf. s.v.) ; so victuma and victima (ib. s.v.) ; monumentum and monimentum were both used, e.g. monimentu (C.I.L. i. 1258, 'not after 130 в.c.' Ritschl), while monementum and monomentum are incorrect spellings (Georg. s. v.). Dŏcumentum, \&c. but spĕcimen, \&c. by Assimilation.
The Parasitic Vowel. Anteclassical : piacolom, the old spelling according to Mar. Victorinus (p. ir. 14 K . ut apparet ex libris antiquis foederum et legum, qui etiamsi frequenti transcriptione aliquid mutarunt, tamen retinent antiquitatem... pro 'piaculum'ibi 'piacolom'), is on a law of 58 в. c. (C.I.L. i. 603 ), piacul- (piaclum on the Spoletium inscription, xi. 4766), but the ancient o
remains in Plautine spellings like aemolos, Acc. Pl., Pseud. 196 (A.) ; epolonos dicebant antiqui quos nunc epulones dicimus (Paul. Fest. 55. 15 Th.); agolum : pastorale baculum, quo pecudes aguntur (Paul. Fest. 21. 37 Th.) ; Tuscolana, C.I. L. i. 1200 ; tabolam on S. C. Bacch. of 186 в. c. (i. 196); taboleis, popolum (beside popul(o)) on Lex Bantina of $133-118$ в. c. (i. 197); singolos, taboleis (and tabula), conciliaboleis on the Lex Repetundarum of 123-122 в. c. (i. 198); singolos (but vinculeis) on the Sententia Minuciorum of 1 17 B. c. (i. 199) ; tabolam, singolis on i. 208, an inscription referred by Ritschl to about the time of the Lex Agraria (i. 200, which however has only tabula, tableis, singula, trientabule(is)), viz. i I в.c.; angolaria (but opercula), on the (restored) Lex Parieti Faciendo of ro5 b. c. (i. 577), so that the old spelling does not seem to have died out till the end of the second cent. b.c. (On Greek inscriptions we have $\Lambda \in \nu \tau o \lambda o s$ (first cent. в. c.), $\Lambda \epsilon \nu \tau \epsilon \lambda o s($ (c. 140 в. с.), $\Lambda \epsilon \nu \tau v \lambda o s(f i r s t ~ c e n t . ~ A . ~ d),. ~ b u t ~ u s u a l l y ~ \Lambda \epsilon \nu \tau \lambda o s ~(c f . ~ c h . ~ i i . ~$ § 102); the Gk. loanword drachma is in the earlier writers drac( $h$ )uma; for spellings like vigulum, vigulo, vigelia, titelus, sibelo, sepulivit, see Georges.)
§ 22. in other short syllables. Anteclassical : accědo (for accìdo) is preserved by the MSS. in Enn. Trag. 77. 206 R.; Lucr. ii. 1025, v. 609 and elsewhere (see Ribbeck, Prolegom. Verg. p. 416) ; so timedus in Naev. Com. 35 R.; acetare dicebant, quod nunc dicimus agere (Paul. Fest. 17. 30 Th.). Similarly $e$ is retained without weakening in spellings of the oldest MSS. of Plautus like detenet, Pers. 505, contenuum, Stich. 214, contenuo 623, \&c. (so the corruption ad te alienent, Pers. 497, points to attenent not attinent) ; in the MSS. of Poen. 266 proseda (cf. Paul. Fest. 282. 16 Th. prosedas meretrices Plautus appellat), optenui on a Scipio Epitaph of c. 130 в. c. (C.I.L.i. $3^{8}$ ) ; conregione in the augur's formula (Varro, L. L. vii. 8 ; Paul. $4^{\text {6. } 24 ~ T h .) ~ ; ~ p r o m e n e r u a t, ~ p r o m o n e t, ~ C a r m . ~ S a l . ~(F e s t . ~}$ 244. 12 Th.) ; cf. mereto(d) on a Scipio Epitaph of c. 215 B. c. (C.I. L.'i. 32) (but meritod i. 190, ' early part of the sixth cent. A. U.c.'), and even on a recent inscription (i. roiz). This $e$ in Old Latin spellings often appears for I.-Eur. $i$ in syllables unaccented under the Old or the Paenultima Law, e. g. aidiles Nom. Sg. on a Scipio Epitaph of c. 250 b. c. (i. 31) ; Fabrecio (i. 106) ; Tempestatebus on a Scipio Epitaph of c. 215 B. c. (i. 32) ; Lepareses for Liparenses (Gk. $\Lambda \iota \pi a ́ \rho a l)$, (quoted probably from Ennius by Paul. Fest. 87. 6 Th.), and Greek inscriptions often retain the older orthography, e. g. ко $\boldsymbol{\epsilon \tau \iota o \nu}$ (usually), Kaıke入ıos (till
 $\Lambda \epsilon \pi \epsilon \delta$ os (in Rep., but $\Lambda \epsilon \pi i \delta o s$ in Empire), $\Delta o \mu \epsilon \tau \iota o s$ and $\Delta o \mu \tau \tau ו o s$. But the weakening to $i$ is old, as is seen from dimidius, which must have changed eto $i$ at a time when the accent rested on the first syllable; confice on an old Praenestine cista of third cent. b. c. (Mél. Arch. 1890, p. 303); subigit and opsides on a Scipio Epitaph of c. 200 в. c. (i. зо) ; habitarent oppidum, possidere on the Decree of L. Aemilius Paulus, 189 b. c. (ii. 5041) ; obstinet, dicebant antiqui, quod nunc est ostendit, ut in veteribus carminibus, \&c. (Fest. 228. 6 Th.) ; prospices, prospice, Carm. Sal. (Fest. 244. 13 Th.) ; énico is the old spelling, later eneco (Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.) ; prosicium, quod praesecatum projicitur (Paul. Fest. 282. 13 Th., cf. prosiciae, Gl. Philox.) ; exsicas from ex and seco, Plaut. Rud. 122 ; obigitat antiqui dicebant pro ante agitat (Fest. a14. 2 Th.) ; jūrigo, later jūrgo (cf. jürgium) ; gallicinium from cano, by analogy of which was formed conticinium (cf. Gl. Plac. p. 58. 24 G. conticinio: tempore noctis post galli cantum quando cecinit et conticuit) (see Goetz, praef. in Plaut. Asin. xxv). Classical : Juppiter from pater ; sistite (cf. Gk. ïaravt); compitum, explained by Varro, 'ubi viae competunt' (L. L. 6. 25) (cf. propitius) ; dimico from maco
(cf. macto) ; of the rare weakening of $o$ we have examples in Compounds like hŏmicidda, armiger, \&c. for the Composition-Vowel, which is o on in other languages, is $\check{\imath}$ in Latin (see ch. v. § 83) ; inquilinus beside incola? Of $\breve{u}$, examples are cornicen
 Plur.) ; both inclutus (incluto in all the MSS. of Plaut. Pers. 251) and inclitus are attested spellings; (cf. arbita, not arbuta, in the MSS. of Lucretius, v. 941 and 965). For other examples of $e-i$, see Georges, Lex. Wortf., s. vv. eligo, compitum, tremebundus, caeremonia, fenisicium, cervesia, ploxenum, subsicivus, quatenus, internecio, protinus, seneca, querimonia, intellegentia, neglego, interimo, also for late and plebeian spellings like segitis, patena, tredecem, decim. (On late adjecentia see Schuchardt, Vok. i. 193.) The change of $e$ to $i$ in syllables long by position is claimed for praefiscini gĕnista, \&c. (on these see ch. ii. § 12), certainly with right in infringo, \&c. (see ch. iv. § II), before a consonant-group like ng (so tingo for *tengo, Gk. тє́ $\gamma \boldsymbol{\gamma} \omega$ ). Assimilation saves the vowel in segetem, teretem, \&c.
§ 23. (3) Diphthongs, ai, ae. Anteclassical : distisum et pertisum dicebant, quod nunc ' distaesum 'et 'pertaesum' (Paul. Fest. 51. 25 Th., cf. 27 r. 2 Th.). Festus, 372. 7 Th. tells us that Scipio Africanus Minor was twitted for his use of pertisus by Lucilius :

Quo facetior videare, et scire plus quam caeteri
'Pertisum' hominem, non pertaesum, dices.
Lucilius was right, for compounds with intensive per are Separable Compounds like bene-facio, sat-ago (see below); pertaesum is the spelling on the Claudius tablet at Lyons; consiptus was used by Ennius, according to Paul. Fest. 43.37 Th. (cf. 45. 15), and an example is quoted by Non. 183. 14 M. s. v. venor: teneor consipta, undique uenor (Enn. Trag. 254 R.) ; adsipere et praesipere dicebant antiqui, sicut nos quoque modo dicimus abaequo 'iniquum,' ab quaerendo 'inquirere' (Paul. Fest. 16. 9 Th.) ; obsipiam, quoted from Caecilius by Diomedes (p. 383. то K. quod vulgo 'obsepio' dicimus veteres 'obsipio' dixerunt. Caecilius, \&c.) (Com. 65 R.); praecidaneam porcam dicebant, quam immolare erant soliti antequam novam frugem praeciderent (Paul. Fest. 273. 5 Th.). (Gellius, iv. 6 discusses this word and its cognate succidaneae, which, he says, was sometimes mispronounced in his time succidaneae: succidaneae nominatae, littera i scilicet tractim pronuntiata; audio enim quosdam eam litteram in hac voce corripere); occisit is quoted from the Laws of Numa by Festus (194. 21 Th.) ; so decidito in XII Tab., inceideretis on S. C. Bacch. of 186 в. c. (C.L I. i. 196, 27). But exquaere is quoted by Priscian (i. p. 38 H.) from Plaut. Aul. 8oo, and the MSS. of Plautus often show this spelling of the word (see Ritschl, Opusc. iv. p. 141) (so defaecato, Aul. 79, but deficatam, Most. 158 are the likely spellings) ; conquaeri, conquaesiverit, exaestumaverit occur on the Lex Repetundarum of 123-122 в. с. (C.I.L. i. 198), while on the Edictum Popillianum of 132 b. c. (i. 551) we have the curious spelling conquaeisiuei [cf. i. 547, an inscription of 14 I or 116 в. c., with Caeicilius (and consulto), while a similar inscription, i. 548, has the older spelling Caicilius (and consolto, § 26)]. Later, the retention of ae became the rule, e. g. opsaeptum on the Lex Col. Jul. Urbanorum of 44 в. c. (Eph. Epigr. ii. p. 105); lapicaedinis on the Lex Metalli Vipascensis of the first cent. A. D. (Eph. Epigr. iii. p. 166) ; we have usually fabri subaediani on inscriptions (C.I. L. x. 6699. 5 ; vi. 9559.8 , \&c.), or subediani (vi. 9558. 7 ; viii. 10523.5) (of which last, subidiani on ii. 22ri. 7, seems to be a misspelling). The weakened forms are used in the classical period in the compounds of quaero, in existimo (cf. Mar. Victor.
p. 22. 6 K . quid enim facietis in his quae, velitis nolitis, et scribenda sunt et legenda ut scripta sunt, ut exempli gratia 'existimo' non 'exaestimo'), in fastidium for ${ }^{\text {ffasti-tidium (§ }}$ 13, p. 176), \&c.
au ; offucare aquam : in fauces obsorbendam dare (Paul. Fest. 223. 8 Th.) ; defrudo seems to be the spelling of Plautus and Terence (Ritschl, Parerg. Plaut. p. 540) ; accuso, incuso, \&c. from causa are classical forms. The $\bar{u}$ of the compounds of claudo was in time adopted in the simple verb too, cludo by analogy of recludo, \&c. (of Ital. chiudo) (see Seelmann in Gött. Gel. Anz. Aug. 15, 1890) (cf. sed frude § 64, beside sed fraude § 69, on the Lex Repetundarum, C.I. L.i. 198). The $\bar{o}$ of explodo, \&c. is not due to the loss of accent, but is a byform of au found in the simple verb. (Diom. p. 382.26 K . plaudo frequens est, apud veteres plodo ; then after quoting the form ploderent from Cicero, he adds, secundum eam consuetudinem qua ' au'syllaba cum 'o' littera commercium habet, ut cum dicimus 'claustra' et 'clostra,' item 'caudam' et 'codam' et similia), just as oe (older oi) and $\bar{u}$ are byforms, e.g. commūnis, immünis, сомогnem in S.C. Bacch. (C.I.L. i. 196), immoenis (Plaut.). Oboedio from audio is difficult to explain. (See also Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. vv. dissaeptum, exquiro, existimo, and Brambach, Orth. on pertaesus, lapicidinae.)
§ 24. (4) Diphthongs in Hiatus. (On these see also ch. iv.) The $u$-diphthong is retained in $\breve{a} b-a v u s$, ăt-acus, tritt-avus ( $\mathbf{O}$. Lat. strit-avus) but becomes $\breve{u}$ in èluo

 oleivo-, which became when -om was weakened to -um *olei(v)um Nom., *oleivi Gen. \&c. (see ch. ii. §53), whence oleum (for ey before a vowel loses $y$, e. g. eo, 'I go,' for *ëyō, ch. iv. §63), and olīvum, olei and otivi, \&c. (like dei(v)us, deivi, whence deus and dīvus, dei and dīvi, ch. iv. § 70) ; Gk. $\rho о \mu \phi a i a, ~ a ~ T h r a c i a n ~ c l a y m o r e, ~$ became rumpia (Enn. Ann. xiv. fr. 8 M. ; Liv. xxxi. 39. II). In cloãca for clovaca, the $v$ has been dropped, as usual, before the accented vowel (ch. ii. §53), while nöcirvus and nocuus are different formations (ch. v. § 7).
§ 25. (5) je and ve. On $\check{\imath}$, $\breve{u}$ as a weak or unaccented form of yĕ, wě in IndoEuropean see ch. iv. §5r. Whether the $\check{\imath}$ of ăbicio, \&c. should be explained as a similar Latin weakening, or as a modification of $-j i$-, is an open question. The $\breve{u}$ of concutio may also be compared with the use of Greek $\kappa v$ for Lat. -quǐ-
 Lat. Quirīnus, see ch.ii. § 28. Cf. ancunulentae 'unclean,' (Paul. Fest. 8. 29 Th.), and inquinare; bigae is the reduction of bi-jugae (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v. bijugus), quadrigae of quadri-jugae ; abicio has the first syllable short in the old dramatic poets (cf. ch. ii. § 48, p. 45).
§ 26. (6) Later change of $o$ to $u, u$ to $u, i$. In syllables long by position this is the usual development of original 0 , for cases like trī-gintā with $e(i)$ for unaccented o (cf. Greek rpıáкovтa) are rare, e. g. větustus from I.-Eur. *wetos (Greek étos, 'a year') and similar derivative TO-stems from Neuter S-stems, férundus and similar Gerundial DO-stems from third Conjugation Verbs, voluntas and the like formations [that fünestus, ferendus, ferentarius (cf. Osc. Herentat-, the Oscan Venus), \&c. show a weakening of $o$ to $e$, and not rather a bystem funes-, ferend-, ferent- cannot be proved ; cf. ch. viii. §§ 89, 94, and see above, §20; cf. lugubris (-os) and funebris (-es)]. Similarly in final syllables long by position we have -unt in 3 Pl . of Verbs for O. Lat. -ont, e. g. nequinont (Liv. Andron.), cosentiont (Scipio Epitaph) (ch. viii. § 73). The change of $o$ to $u$
in unaccented syllables is further discussed in ch．iv．§ 20．Dŭpundius（and dupondius；see Georges，Lex．Wortf．s．v．），promuntürium，are not good examples， for before $n d$ ，$n t$ we find even accented o becoming a $u$－sound，e．g．O．Lat．frundes， Acheruntem（ch．ii．§ 22）．For examples of the change in syllables not long by position，see Georges，Lex．Wortf．s．vv．formidolosus，adulescens，lemures，fulgurio， bajulus，lautumiae，and cf．Brambach，Orth．on the misspellings pulenta，amulum， Aequiculi and Georges on subules，eburis Gen．，rigura Plur．，vinulentus，sanguinu－ lentus，somnulentus，tripudo．But cōralium（Greek $\kappa \omega \rho-$－）and curalium（Greek $\kappa$ кov $\rho$－） are not examples，nor mamphur（leg．mamfar）the＇thong＇round a turner＇s wheel （Paul．Fest．ior．I Th．）（see Meyer－Lübke，Comm．Schweizer－Sidler，p．24），and O．Lat．colina is a doubtful form．Examples of $u-i$ are inclutus，later inclitus，dē－ frutum and defritum（see Georges），arbutum and arbitum（Lucr．），sătura and satira．
§ 27．（7）Greek words with Vowel－change．a．Aleria（ A入a入ía in Herodo－ tus），a town in Corsica（cf．the Scipio Epitaph，c． 215 в．c．C．I．L．i． 32 hec cepit Corsica Aleriaque urbe）；tessera（ $\tau$＇́ $\sigma \sigma a \rho a$ ）；Agrigentum（＇Aкрá ${ }^{\prime} a \nu \tau a$ Acc．），now Girgenti；Tarentum（Tápavza Acc．），now Táranto or Taránto；Alixentrom （＇A $\bar{\epsilon} \dot{\xi} \alpha \nu \delta \rho o \nu$ ）on a Praenestine cista of third cent．B．c．（i．59），and on another
 Hecuba，O．Lat．Hecoba（Quint．i．4．16）（＇Ека́ßך）；camera（када́ $\rho a)$ ，also camara， （the spelling approved by Verrius Flaccus，Charis．58． 23 K．），which was specially used in the sense of a decked boat（see Georges，Lex．Wortf．s．v．）； Camerina and Camarina（кадápıva），crāpula（крaıлá入ך）（see Meyer，Rom．Gram．
 strangulo（ $\sigma \tau \rho a \gamma \gamma a \lambda a ́ \omega)$ ．



เ．dapsilis（ $\delta a \psi \iota \lambda \eta$ ））；cupressus（кvส́́pıббos）．
o．amurca（ả $\mu \dot{o} \rho \gamma \eta)$ ；cothurnus（ $\kappa \dot{o} \theta o \rho \nu o s)$ ；epistula（ $\mathfrak{\epsilon} \pi \iota \sigma \tau o \lambda \eta$ ）；also epistola（see Georges，Lex．Wortf．s．v．）；paenula（фaıvó入ךs）；tribulus（ $\tau \boldsymbol{\rho}$ ißo入os）；Patricoles （Пárроклоs），the old form，used by Ennius（Trag． $3^{14}$ R．；a line of Livius Andronicus is quoted by Gellius，vi．7． 1 I，with this name in the form Patroclus， without any divergence in the MSS．）；lautumiae．Avernus，popularly connected with äopvos，and late Lat．averta（Greek dapsí）admit of other explanations． （See Solmsen，Stud．Lat．Lautgesch．p．23）．On the spelling numisma（Gk．vó $\mu / \sigma \mu a$ ） see Keller ad Hor．Epp．ii．1．234，and on late Lat．zabulus for diabolus，Georges， Lex．Wortf．s．v．
v．arytaena，but artaena（artena）in Lucilius（ảpúvaıva）；incitega（è $\gamma \gamma v \theta \dot{\eta} \kappa \eta$ ） （Paul．Fest．76． 3 Th．incitega ：machinula，in qua constituebatur in convivio vini amphora，de qua subinde deferrentur vina）；mattea，＇mincemeat＇（Varro， L．L．v．II2）（ $\mu$ artú $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ ）．（The word appears in a curious military term mattiobarbulus，used by Vegetius for a leaden bullet，or a soldier armed with these，apparently for $\mu a \tau \tau v o-\pi \alpha ́ \rho \beta o \lambda o s$, lit．＇mincemeat－scattering．＇See
 $a t$ av．Achivi（＇AХaıó）；olivum and oleum（＇่̇ $\lambda a \iota o \nu$ ）；oliva and olea（é $\left.\lambda a a^{\prime} a\right)$ ； Centurum，Centaurum（Gl．Plac．p．54． 7 G．）（K＇́vtavpov）．

Parasitic Vowel．＇Hрак $\lambda \hat{\eta}$ s is on Praenestine cistae and mirrors Hercle ．．． （C．I．L．xiv．4105），Hercles（？Fercles）（C．I．L．i．1500），Hercele Acc．（i．56）， and on old Praenestine inscriptions（xiv．2891－2）Hercole Dat．On a Roman inscription of 217 в．c．（i．1503）Hercolei Dat．So Hercolei（i．1175），Hercoli （i．815），but Herculis Gen．on an inscr．of 146 в．c．（i．54I），classical Hercules，
mehercle（cf．Prisc．i．p．27．13．H．Romanorum vetustissimi in multis dictioni－ bus loco ejus（u）o posuisse inveniuntur ．．＇Hercolem＇pro＇Herculem＇）； ＇A $\sigma \kappa \lambda \eta \pi \iota^{\prime}$＇s is Aiscolapio Dat．on an old inscr．（Ann．Epigr．1890，no．85，but Aisclapi，Eph．Epigr．i．5），classical Aesculapius；＇А $\lambda \kappa \mu \not \eta_{\nu} \eta$ is in Plautus Alcumena； on techina，\＆c．，musimo，see ch．ii．§ 72.
§ 28．（8）Vowel unchanged．i．in Latin words．Anteclassical ：incantassit and excantassit of XII Tab．（ap．Plin．xxviii．18），but＇occentassint＇antiqui dice－ bant，quod nune convicium fecerint（Fest．196．I2 Th．）；ancaesa，dicta sunt ab antiquis vasa，quae caelata appellamus（Paul．Fest．15．1o Th．），but Prisc． i．p． 29.20 H ．cites as instances of am－，＇anfractus，＇＇ancisus，＇＇anquiro，＇and Varro，L．L．vii． 43 explains＇ancilia＇：quod ea arma ab utraque parte，ut Thracum， incisa ；perfacul antiqui，et per se＇facul＇dicebant，quod nunc facile diximus （Fest．266． 20 ＇Th．）is normal，for compounds with per－＇very＇seem not to change the vowel，e．g．persalsus（beside insulsus），persapiens（beside insipiens）： perfacilis（beside difficilis），being what are called＇Separable＇Compounds， cf．per pol saepe peccas，Plaut．Cas．370，per ópus est，Ter．Andr． 265 （so that Lucilius was right in his objection to pertisum，see above）；procapis progenies： quae ab uno capite procedit（Paul．Fest．281． 22 Th．）；concapit tignum XII Tab．（ap．Fest．556． 27 Th．tignum iunctum aedibus uineaue et concapit ne soluito）；resparsum vinum（Paul．Fest．353． 6 Th．）；concapsit，conprehen－ derit（C．G．L．v．182．22）．occanuere（3 Pl．Pft．）is quoted from Sallust＇s Histories by Priscian，i．p．529． 5 K．

Classical ：rědarguo，but＇rederguo，＇was used by Scipio Africanus Minor （Fest．372． 7 Th．redarguisse per e litteram Scipio Africanus Pauli filius dicitur enuntiasse，ut idem etiam＇pertisum＇）；ălacris，but Vulg．Lat．alecer（so in a glossary in MS．Vind．482）（Ital．allegro，\＆c．）；augurātus，augur were formerly＇augeratus，＇＇auger＇according to Priscian，i．p．27．17 H．；impetus， but＇inipite，＇inpetum facite（Paul．Fest． 78.5 Th ．，apparently a corruption for＇impite，＇impetum fac），＇compitum＇；undecim，duodecim weaken the $e$ of the final syllable but not of the paenultima ；incola，but 0 ．Lat＇inquilinnus＇ （ch．vi．§ го）；indequälis，but＇iniquus，＇\＆c．U remains in tütudi（see ch．viii． § 39），pěcudem，contumax，\＆c．（See also Georges，Lex．Wortf．s．vv．instauro，con－ quaestor，comparo，sepelio，\＆c．）
§ 29．ii．in Greek loanwords：amygdala（ả $\mu v \gamma \delta \dot{a} \lambda \eta$ ）（but Vulg．amiddula，Probi Appendix 198.26 K．），artemo Lucil．（ả $\rho \tau \epsilon ́ \mu \omega \nu)$ ；astraba，the title of a play ascribed to Plautus（ $\dot{\alpha} \sigma \tau \rho \dot{\beta} \beta \eta$ ）；ballaena or balena，Plaut．\＆c．（фá入入aıva）；balanus，Plaut．
 apparently Vulg．Lat．＊calmus（Ital．calmo and calamo，Fr．chaume）；cantharus， Plaut．\＆c．（кávөapos）；cinaedus，Plaut．\＆c．（кivaıסos）；cottabus，Plaut．\＆c． （кótтаßos）；cymbalum，Lucr．\＆c．（кú $\mu \beta a \lambda o \nu)$ ；daedalus，Enn．\＆c．（סaí8a入os）；drapeta，
 रav́бamos）；Hecata，Plaut．\＆c．（＇Eィárๆ）；hilarus，Plaut．\＆c．，later hilaris（i入após）； Hiluria，Plaut．，later Illyria（＇İдлvpía）；lapathus，Lucil．（ $\lambda$ ámaӨos）；machaera， Plaut．\＆c．（ $\mu$ á $\chi a \imath \rho a)$ ；malacus，Naev．，Plaut．\＆c．（ $\mu$ áдакos）；margarita，Varro，

 （ôvarpos）；palaestra，Plaut．\＆c．（ $\pi a \lambda a i ́ \sigma \tau \rho a)$ ；petasus，Plaut．\＆c．（ $\pi \epsilon \in \tau a \sigma o s)$ ； phalanga，Varro，\＆c．；pittacium（ $\pi \iota \tau \tau \alpha ́ \alpha \iota o \nu)$ ；ptisana，Varro，\＆c．（ $\pi \tau \iota \sigma a ́ v \eta) ;$ raphanus，Cato，\＆c．（ค́áфavos）；sesamum，Plaut．（ $\sigma \eta \sigma^{\sigma} \mu o \nu$ ），but sesuma，Plaut．

Poen. 326, sesima (see Georges s.v.) ; stomachus, stomachor, Ter. \&c. ( $\sigma$ ró $\mu a \chi o s$ );
 (Consent. 392. 17 K.) ; thalamus ( $\theta$ á $\lambda a \mu 0 s$ ) ; thesaurus, $t(h) e n s a u r u s, ~ P l a u t . ~ \& c . ~$ ( $\theta \eta \sigma a \nu \rho o ́ s$ ) ; tropaeum, Accius, \&c. (трó $\pi \alpha \iota o \nu$ ) ; tympanum, Plaut. \&c. ( $\tau \dot{\prime} \mu \pi a \nu o v)$;

§ 30. (9) Long vowels. None of the examples adduced to prove that long unaccented vowels were sometimes changed are conclusive: dētiro from līra, 'a furrow,' root leis- (O. Sl. lēha, Lith. lýsè, 'a garden-bed, 'O. H. G. wagan-leisa, \&c.), is the correct form, while delēro, as Varro (ap. Vel. Long. 73. 2 K .) pointed out, is due to confusion with Greek $\lambda \eta \rho \in i v$. Délinio (so spelt in all the MSS. apparently of Plaut. Stich. 457), beside delenio, subtīlis (but protēlum, \&c.), suspicio, convicium, all with $i$ in the following syllable, show the change to which even accented $\bar{e}$ is liable, e. g. Ptinius (ch. iv. § 7). Occidamus, attributed to Plautus, as an example of $o b$ in composition, by the MSS. of Festus (ig6. ro Th. occidamus Plautus ponit pro contra cedamus, cum plurimae aliae praepositiones familiariores huic verbo sint; cf. Paul. 197. i Th.) is clearly a corruption for occēdāmus. For not only does Placidus' Glossary of Plautus (p. 89. 4 G.) give occedere : occurrere vel obviam cedere, but the MSS. (the Palatine family) of Plautus read in the passage referred to by Festus, viz. Pseud. 250, Accedamus hac obviam, where the corruption accedamus points to an original occedamus. Consiva, an epithet of the goddess Ops (Fest. 2ro. 26 Th., Varro, L. L. vi. 2I) has been connected with consëro, consēvi. The examples of unchanged $\bar{e}$ are numerous, such as the compounds of cēdo, rēpo, cèlo, crēdo, crētus, spēro, irrētio from rēte, \&c. For the change of $\bar{a}$ to $\bar{e}$ through want of accent (for a similar change through influence of palatal $j(y)$ in Vulg. Lat. Jēnuarius, \&c., see ch. ii. § 3) the examples usually adduced are anhēlus (cf. hēlo), and subtĕl (cf. tālus). But anhēlus (spelt anellus in MSS. of Virgil; see Ribbeck's Index) has probably come from *an-ěnslos, the $a$ of $h \bar{a} l o$, from *ănslo (root an augmented by $s$ ), having been changed to $e$ while its quantity was still short. The word subtel quoted by Priscian (i. p. 147.9 H.) as an instance of -ěl, and explained as rò кoîخov rồ moסós (what does he mean by hostis hostilis, subtel subtilis, i. p. 13г. 21 H. ?) may similarly be due to a change of the short vowel in the original form *sub-tax-lus (cf. taxillus) (or from tellus ?). None of the Compounds of clāmo, fāma, fātus, clārus, pāreo, pāx, plāco, prāvus, rādo, vādo, gnārus, grātus, lā̄or, māno, nätus,gnāvus, \&c. ever change the vowel. Profestus is a compound of fēstus (cf. fêriae for ${ }^{*}$ fēsiae), not of fastus, fās (cf. nefastus). Nor do $\bar{o}, \bar{u}$ change; witness the Compounds of plōro, dōno, flōs, \&c. Praestōlor and praestülor come, the one from praestō, the other from praest̄̄u (§ 15.3 ). Pejĕro and ējĕro (cf. conierat, coniurat, C. G. L. iv. 322. 33) have not yet been thoroughly explained.
§ 31. (10) Recomposition and Analogy. In Vulgar Latin, as was mentioned before (§ II), the accent seems to have rested on the first syllable of the verb in Compound Verbs, e. g. renégat, Ital. riniega, O. Fr. renie ; dimórat, Ital. dimora (with close o), Fr. demeure. The vowel of the simple verb usually appears unchanged in the Compound, e. g. reddédit, Ital. rendiede, $\mathrm{O} . \mathrm{Fr}$. rendiet. From the inscriptions of the Empire and the remarks of grammarians we see that the same 'etymological' treatment of Compound Verbs was a feature of Imperial Latin. On the Latin Papyri of Herculaneum (first cent. A. D.) the preposition of a Compound Verb, \&c. is usually retained in its simple form and not assimilated to the initial of the verb, or noun, e.g.
ad-siduo, ad-fini (Class. Rev. iv. 443), by a similar 're-composition'; and Velius Longus (p. 62. 16 K.) mentions adluo, adlöquor, adläbor as the forms in use at his time, though Assimilation was the custom with other verbs, e. g. alligo (see ch. iv. § 159). The same grammarian, in another passage, while he approves of the pronunciation commendo, adds that the popular pronunciation was commando ( 73. ro K . quamvis 'commendo' dicamus, tamen 'commando' in consuetudine est.) (So amendo and amando. See Georges, Lex.Wortf. s. v.). And his remark on the word comprimo shows the tendency of his time (first cent. A.d.) to follow in these Compound Verbs the Analogy of the Simple Verb, or of the Perfect Participle Passive (76. 9 K. 'comprimo' quoque per i malo scribi, quamvis 'compressus' dicatur). (Cf. Mar. Vict. ıо. 6 K. sacratum autem in compositione 'consecratum' facit per s et e, non per s et a , sic et castus facit 'incestum 'non 'incastum'; Caper ino. 7 K . 'insipiens' non 'insapiens'; Diom. 378. 30 K. ; Prisc. i. p. 437.25 H.) The analogy of the Perf. Part. Pass. (or was it Assimilation ?) brought $e$ instead of $i$ into the second syllable of perpeti, depecisci, \&c., while the analogy of the simple verb is seen in spellings on Imperial inscriptions like consacravit (C. I. L. vi. 3716, of 182 A. D.), consacravi on the Mon. Ancyr. ii. 30 ; iv. 25) (for other examples see Seelmann, Ausspr. p. 6o). Often the two forms, the old with changed vowel and the new popular form, are retained side by side, and are used by the grammarians to express different shades of meaning. Thus Velius Longus ( 75.6 K .) differentiates aspergo the Verb, from aspargo the Noun ; Caper (roo. 5 K.) protinus the Adverb of time, from protenus the local Adverb. The $i$ of the Oblique Cases of levir, *laevir, 'brother-in-law' (cf. Greek $\delta a \eta$ р. I.-Eur. *daiwer-) and indeed of the Nom. Sg. too, is due to the analogy of vir (cf. Non. 557. 6 M. levir dicitur frater mariti, quasi laevus vir) ; of the inferior spelling gĕnitrix, for genetrix (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.) to the analogy of genitor. Sometimes the Analogy of the Compound affects the Simple Verb, when the Compound is more frequently in use than the other. The Analogy of conspicio, aspicio, despicio, \&c. changed the spelling of the little used simple verb from specio (e. g. Varr. L. L. vi. 82, Plaut. Cas. 516) to spicio ; complico, explico, \&c. have effected the change of *pleco (Gk. $\pi \lambda \boldsymbol{\lambda} \kappa \kappa \tau \omega)$ to plico. (For other ex. of 'Re-composition,' see Seelmann, Ausspr. p. 6o, and Georges, Lex.Wortf. s.vv. dispando, infacetus, praecanto, infarcio, peremo, indamnis beside indemnis; see also above, § 28).
§ 32. (11) Pretonic. Miniscitur pro reminiscitur antiquitus dicebatur (Paul. Fest. 88. is Th.) (or by Analogy of Compound ?) ; the Preposition en of O. Lat. became in from its position before the accented syllable in phrases like in-aéde esse, in-témplum ire, \&c. Caper (p. 93.3 K .) corrects the mispronunciation pinaria cella for 'penaria,' and (p. ro6. 4 K.) pulenta for 'polenta,' and (p. 100. ${ }_{23}$ K.), pidato for 'pedatu' in the phrase 'primo pedatu'; Probi Append. 198. 5 K. sinatus (C.1. L. i. 206, l. 135; viii. 10525, \&c.). We may similarly explain the $u$ of Ulixes, from 'Oגvoбєús, the 'Aeolic' form of 'Oסvoбєús (Quint. i. 4. r6, who also quotes the spelling Pulixena for Polyxena); cf. 'Iovßıvos on a Gk. inscription of Syracuse, I.I.S. 125; Bovdovulios on a Cyzicus inscription of the Republican period, Mitth. vi. 124. (See also Georges, Lex. Wortf. for the spellings rutundus, lulligo, ciminum, Sigambri, Lundinium, \&e.) In Italian the influence of the following labial is shown in somiglia (Lat. *similiat), domanda (Lat. demandat), dovere (Lat. debere), of a following $r$ in smeraldo (Lat. smaragdus). But examples in Republican Latin of the weakening of initial syllables are doubtful (cf. §7).
§ 33. (12) Assimilation, Dissimilation, and False Analogy. In Italian the unaccented vowel is often assimilated to the vowel of the neighbouring syllable. Thus Latin aequälis has become uguale ; cronaca (Lat. chronica) owes its penultimate $a$ to Assimilation. The same tendency is seen in Vulgar Latin *aramen for aerämen (Span. arambre, Port. arame, Prov. aram, \&c.), *salvaticus for silväť̌cus (Fr. sauvage, our 'savage,' Span. salvaje), \&c., and in classical Latin in Perfects like momordi, poposci, cucurri, of which the older forms were memordi, peposci, cecurri (Gell. vi. 9). So strong is the tendency in Latin to assimilate completely an initial syllable which has some resemblance to a following syllable that we find this Assimilation even in the accented syllable of Perfects like puрйgi, older pepugi (Gell. ib.) [cecini reflects the older spelling *ee-cen-ei, but when the Stem-syllable had originally $i$, we have $i$ in the Reduplication-syllable, e. g. di-dľc-i (see ch. viii. § 22) from *dic-sco]. (On the Assimilation of Syllables in Latin, see ch. iv. § 163). Mispronunciations of this kind censured in the Appendix Probi (197-9 K.) are : toloneum, tonotru, passar, ansar, parantalia, butumen, and on late inscriptions we have misspellings like monomentum (C. I. L. vi. 2888, 1113i, 2448i, xiv. 416 and 523 and 864 ; Bull. Comm. Rom. 1880, p. 137, 1887, p. 43), optomo (C.I.L. ii. 4291) (cf. oppodum as early as the Lex Agraria of ini b.c., i. 200.81), passar (I.R.N. 7160 ; C.I.L. vi. 2698), ansare (v. 7906), pataris (vi. 2060. 12, the Act. Arval. of 81 A.d.), carcares (vi. 2065, 2066, 2067, the Act. Arval. of 87-90 A. d.), cubuc (u)larius (C. I. L. vi. 6262, 8766), figilinae (xv. praef. p. 8). See also Georges, Lex. Wortf. on the spellings lucuna, lucusta, tūburis, Berenice, carcar, passar [e. g. Itala (Ash.) Lev. xi. 5, (Taur.) Matth. x. 29 and 3I, (Cantabr.) Luc. xi. 150], Ptolomais, Dolobella, tugurium, and cf. Romance forms like Span. pajaro, Ital. passaretta (from Vulg. Lat. passar). The opposite tendency, viz. Dissimilation, perhaps appears in Vulgar Latin in a word like vicinus, where the first $\bar{i}$ (close $i$ ) has been changed to open $i$ (Span. vecino, Prov. vezins, \&c.). To the false analogy of lăcus has been referred the $a$ of Vulg. Lat. *lacusta (Roum. lăcustă), while forms like Prov. langosta, O. Fr. langoste point to an original l'angusta (illa angusta). The tendency of plant-, bird-, and beast-names to be changed by all sorts of false analogies is well seen in the dialectal Italian descendants of Lat. vespertilio, 'a bat' (T'osc. pipistrello, and vipistrello Caserta sportiglione, Pisa pilistrello, Parma pálpástrel, \&c.). (For exx. of vowel retained by Assimilation, see §§ 22, 29).
§ 34. (13) Shortening of Syllables long by Position. In the dramatists of the Republic a syllable long by nature or by position is occasionally scanned as a short syllable when a short syllable precedes, a law of Prosody which is usually called the Law of Breves Breviantes. Of final syllables, syllables whether long by nature or by 'position' are shortened by this law especially in iambic words like cavĕ, pută, ferŭnt, legŭnt, the liability of a final unaccented syllable to be shortened being increased by the precedence of a short accented syllable (see next section). Putting final syllables aside for the present, the usual case of syllable-shortening is in a word of four or more syllables, where a syllable long by position is preceded by a short syllable, and followed by the accented syllable. Thus volŭptatis, volŭptatem, volŭptarius, \&c. are common scansions in the early dramatists, and volüntatis, juvëntutis, gubërnare and gubërnator, egěstatis, venŭstatis, supěllectilis come next in order of frequency. The normal scansion of all these second syllables is that of Classical poetry; but the position of the syllable between a short syllable on the one hand and the
accented syllable on the other, made it especially liable to be slurred in pronunciation, so that the dramatic poets, who followed more closely the pronunciation of everyday life than others, felt themselves at liberty, when exigencies of metre demanded, to treat it as a short syllable. In the word ministerium this pronunciation was carried so far as to syncopate the second syllable, minsterium, misterium (Ital. mestiero, Fr. métier, Chaucer's 'mistery,' ed. Morris, iii. 348); and this form seems to occur as early as Plautus, Pseud. 772 :

> paruis magnisque misteriis praefulcior,
where the MSS. offer miseriis. Less frequently we find the preposition shortened in a Compound when preceded by a short monosyllable (or elided dissyllable), e. g. Capt. 83 in ŏcculto, Most. 896 tibi ŏptemperem, phrases which may be considered as word-groups in-occuilto, tib(i)-optémperem, and so fall under the same category as the polysyllables roluptatis, voluptarius just mentioned, but also, e. g. Trin. 318 quid ëxprobras? Capt. 70 quia innuocatus, where the accent does not fall on the syllable immediately following the preposition. The tendency of a preposition in a Compound to be weakened (cl.ii. § 130) (cf. ŏ-mitto for *om-mitto, *obmitto; rěcido, rë-latus, rě-duco, earlier reccido, rellatus, redduco, but see ch.ix. § 49), is here increased by the precedence of a short syllable; or perhaps the truer explanation is that the Preposition was regarded as separable from the other member of the Compound, and quid $\ddot{e x}_{x}$-, qui(a) inn-show the same shortening as in the final syllable of iambic words. Similarly in Greek and other loanwords a syllable long by position may be shortened when the preceding short syllable has the
 coin, and in the Christian poets aby̆ssus (äßvaбos) (Paul. Nol. 19. 651 ; 35. 228; Cypr. Gall. Gen. 288 P.). In Vulgar and Late Latin we have syllables long by nature shortened in this way, e. g. erèmus ( ${ }_{\epsilon}^{\epsilon} \eta \mu \mu \mathrm{s}$ ) in the Christian poets (e. g. Prud. Psych. 372 ; Cath. v. 89), whence the Romance forms, Ital. erěmo and ermo, O. Fr. erme, Span. yermo, \&c. ; merěbatur, a mispronunciation censured by Consentius 393.23 K . (also orrator 392. 11 K.) ; verěcundus in the Christian poets (e. g. Fort. vii. 6. ro) (cf. vericundus C.I. L. x. 1870), whence the Romance syncopated forms of ver(e)cundia, Ital. vergogna, Fr. vergogne, Span. verguenza, \&c. ; but the instances which can be quoted from the early dramatists are so few and so uncertain as not to warrant us in ascribing this pronunciation to an earlier time (see Journ. Phil. xxi. 198; xxii. r). In Ter. Phorm. 902 an uerëbamini, some MSS. have an ueremini; and Clutëmestra or Clutaëmestra (Kגvтal$\mu \dot{\eta} \sigma \tau \rho a$, a better spelling than K $\left.\lambda \nu \tau a \iota \mu \nu \eta \eta^{\prime} \sigma \tau \rho a\right)$, in Livius Andronicus, Trag. in R., may be a case of false analogy, like orichalcum (öpeíर $\alpha \lambda \kappa o s$ ), which is in Plautus aurichalcum, by confusion with aurum, and owes its short $i$ to this earlier form (cf. aquaeductus non 'aquiductus' Prob. App. 197. 26 K ., like terrae motus non 'terrimotium' ib. 198. 32). Ancöra (ä $\gamma \kappa v \rho a$ ), where the shortened vowel follows a syllable which is not short but long by position, seems, with its ofor $v$ before $r$, not to be a direct development of the Greek word. The early dramatists do not shorten by the law of Breves Breviantes the prepositions in, con in Compounds when the letter following the preposition is $s$ or $f$ (see Journ. Phil. ll. cc.); and we know from Cicero (Or. xlviii. § 159) that the $i, 0$ were long in these cases. Calěfacio, \&c. (in Quintilian's time apparently calfacio, i. 6. 21), are really separable compounds, cale facio (cf. facit äré, Lucr. vi. 962), so that the $e$ is properly regarded as a final vowel; and the same is true of diëquinte (cf. Gell. x. 24. r).
§ 35. Change and Shortening of Vowel in Unaccented Final Syllable. The final syllable in Latin requires a separate treatment, for besides the want of accent, there are other weakening influences to which a final syllable is always liable. Phoneticians tell us (Sweet, Primer, § 105) that 'the general tendency of language is to pronounce with diminishing force,' so that in English, for example, the $c$ of 'cat' is pronounced with more force than the $t$, and the final consonants of 'obliged' are ' whispered '; and in Portuguese the final $o$ of a word like campo (Lat. campus) is similarly uttered with what is known as ' whisper,' not with 'voice.' When a vowel actually ended a word, it would also be liable to elision, more or less complete, before a word which began with a vowel or the letter $h$.
I. Loss or Syncope of Short Vowel. i. Final vowel. The weakness of a final short vowel in Latin is seen in Plautine versification. Plautus (according to Langen, in Philologus, xlvi. p. 419) shows a preference to elide a final short vowel rather than allow it to constitute by itself a thesis, so that endings of iambic lines like expectare vis, where the final $\breve{e}$ of expectare forms the thesis of the last iambus, are not common. The weakness of final $\breve{e}$ in particular, the vowel to which, as we shall see, every short final vowel was changed, is shown still more by its occasional suppression in words like quippe, unde, inde, and perhaps ille, iste, before an initial consonant in Plautus and the early dramatists. Nempe is always scanned nemp in this position by Plautus and Terence, while proinde, deinde, have developed the byforms proin and dein, and něque, atque, the monosyllables nec, ac (for *atc). All these are words which would naturally be closely joined in utterance with a following word, so that we may compare the Italian suppression of $-e,-0$, after $n, l, r$ in word-groups, such as of the final vowel of bello, buono, signore, \&c., in phrases like bel tempo, buon giorno, signor padre, tal cosa, \&c. Similarly the subordinate or auxiliary verbs fücio, dīco, dūco, lose their $-e$ in the 2 Sg . Imper. fac, dic, duc (see ch. viii. § 28). The same loss of $-\breve{e}$, whether due to syncope in a word-group, or to elision before an initial vowel, or to both causes, has produced $-l$ from $-l e,-r$ from -re, in forms like bacchānal for earlier *bacchanāle, calcar for * calcāre (Neut. of
calcaris, for calcare ferrum, 'the iron attached to the heel'), \&c., and has reduced the particles $-c e$, $-n e$, to $-c$, $-n$, in hic, hunc, viden, audin, \&c. The loss of final -um in nuthil for nihilum, š̆d for sedum (Ter. Scaur. 12. 8 K.), \&c., can have been due to elision, but not to syncope (see ch. x. § i8).
ii. In final syllable. The syncope of a short vowel in a final syllable ending in a consonant has been already discussed in § 16. We there saw that this syncope, a prominent feature of the Oscan and Umbrian languages, e.g. Osc. húrz (Lat. hortus), Umbr. emps (Lat. emptus), is difficult to establish with certainty for Latin, since viölens beside violentus, mansuēs beside mansuètus, rèmex beside pröd̆̆gus, \&c., may be instances of parallel stem-formations like pĕnu-, peno-, penos-, of penus, Gen. penūs, penum, Gen.peni, penus, Gen. penŏris; and even stronger examples, such as Arpīnas, older Arpinätis, praeceps, older praecĭpes, may have arisen otherwise than by syncope.
§ 36. Loss of -e. For other examples in Plautus such as Pseud. 239 mitt(e) mésis, and for a list of instances of quipp(e), nemp (e), \&c. see Skutsch, Forsch. i. Plautus' use of $-n e$ and $-n$ seems to depend, not on whether the initial of the following word is a vowel or a consonant, but on whether the preceding syllable is short or long (Schrader, De part. ' $n e$ ' . . . apud Plautum) (for Terence's use of -ne, $-n$, see Dziatzko ad Phorm. 2 го Anh.) ; while he employs the forms hisce, illisce, \&c. before an initial vowel, hi, illi, before an initial consonant (Studemund in Fleckeisen's Jahrb. 1876, p. 73). Parallel forms like atque, and ac (for *atc), Ital. tale and tal, which have arisen from the same original form according to its position in the sentence, are called 'doublets.' (German 'Satzdoubletten') (ch. ii. § 136.) The Latin măgis has thus become in Italian mai, when used independently as an Adverb; but ma, with loss of the final vowel, when used as a Conjunction, and so joined to a following word. In Oscan, avt, in the sense of Latin autem or at, and avti, in the sense of Lat. aut, may be similar doublets. The syncopated form of the I.-Eur. preposition *ăpð (Greek äno, Sanscr. ápa) has become universal in Latin, e.g. ap-ërio, ab-dūco (cf. sub, Greek $\ddot{v} \pi$ ), almost the only trace of the final vowel being po-situs, pöno for *po-s(i)no; I.-Eur. *përĭ (Greek $\pi \epsilon \in \rho \iota$, Sanscr. pári) is Lat. per- in permagnus, persaepe, \&c.; I.-Eur. *ětĭ (Greek érı, Sanscr. áti) is Lat. et (Umbr. et) ; I.-Eur. *ŏpı̆ (Greek ö $\pi t-\sigma \theta \epsilon \nu$ ) is Lat. ob (Oscan op) ; I.-Eur. *ambhĭ (Greek $\dot{d} \mu \phi i ́)$ is Lat. amb-ustus, an-cisus), whether the Syncope of these words took place in the Latin period ( $a b$ from *ape, earlier *apo), or at a much more remote period (cf. Goth. af, English 'of,' 'off'). Neu, seu, ceu, which are not used in Latin poets before a vowel, are cases of Syncope in the Latin period o sīve \&c.; also quin (see ch. x. § 16) for quî-ne [cf. Ter. Andr. 334, if nē):
effícite qui detúr tíbi;
égo id agam mihi quí ne detur);
$\sin$ for si-ne ; quot, tot (cf. totti-dem, Sanscr. káti, táti). (On fer and vel, see ch. viii.
§58，and on em，originally＊eme，the Imper．of ěmo，＇to take，＇ch．x．§ 19）．As late as the time of Terence we find abduce used before a vowel，abduc before a con－ sonant，while face is the form employed at the end of a line（Engelbrecht， Studia Terentiana，p．63）；but in the classical period，owing to the prevalent use of these imperatives $d i c, d u c, f a c$ ，in word－groups，i．e．in close connection with a following word，the syncopated＇doublet＇has ousted the other form， just as in post－Augustan poetry we find nec more and more supplanting neque，and usurping the position before vowel－as well as before consonant－ initials．Other Imperatives occasionally appear without final－ĕ，e．g．inger mi Catull．xxvii． 2 （see ch．viii．§58）．So with－厄̌ of the Infinitive．Biber dari is quoted by Charisius（124．r K．）from Fannius（cf．Caper ro8．io K．bibere non ＇biber＇）；and a plausible etymology of instar，a word first used in Cic．Verr．ii． 5. § 44，and literally meaning＇weight＇（cf．Cic．Off．iii．3．II ut omnia ex altera parte collocata vix minimi momenti instar habeant），makes it the Infinitive， used，like biber，as a Substantive，of insto，＇to be of equal weight，＇＇to show equi－ poise of the balance，＇like Swiss－German＇die Stimmen stehen ein，＇＇the votes are equal．＇（Wölfflin in A．L．L．ii．58r．）Bustar or bostar，glossed by Bovará⿱㇒⿻二丿⿴囗⿱一一儿生 in the＇Cyrillus＇and＇Philoxenus＇Glossaries，may be for－stare，as instar for instare．We find－al，－ar for－ale，－are in trisyllabic or longer Nouns like animal，but from sedile，\＆c．we do not find＊sedil，\＆c．，nor from ūle，\＆c．ul， though subtēl（ $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ ò roì̀ov tov nooós，Prisc．i．p．147．ir H．）is said to stand for ＊subtēle，Neut．of＊subtēlis from tälus．Sirempse，an old legal word，found in the phrase sirempse lex esto，＇let the same law apply，＇e．g．Plaut．Amph． prol． 73 ：

> sirempse legem iussit esse Iuppiter,
is found without the final $-e$ in the Tabula Bantina of rз3－п18 в．c．（C．I．L． i．197． 13 siremps lexs esto），and other early laws．Lacte，the Plautine form （though lac is the reading of the MSS．in Amph．601，perhaps．a corruption of lact）is lact in Varro，L．L．v．ro4（lacte Cato ap．Char．ro2． 9 K．），and in classical Latin lac（cf．Charisius，102． 4 K．lactis nominativum alii volunt lac， alii lact，alii lacte＇$e$＇postrema）．Vŏlŭp，＇pleasurably，＇seems to be for ＊volupe，Adverbial Neut．of an Adj．＊volupis ；and Ritschl（Opusc．ii．450）would analyze the volupest of Plautus，Mil．277，\＆c．into volupe est，a form which the phrase seems actually to bear in late Latin writers，like Arnobius， Prudentius and others（see Georges，Lex．Wortf．s．v．）．We have similarly facul for fäciľ，e．g．Lucilius vi． 3 M．nobilitate facul propellere iniquos，and difficul for dificile（see Nonius，p． 1 Ir． 21 M．；Paul．Fest．6I． 32 Th．；Fest． 266. 20 Th．＇perfacul＇antiqui et per se facul dicebant，quod nunc facile dicimus）． The O．Lat．Adverb poste（e．g．Enn．A． 244 M．poste recumbite，uestraque pectora pellite tonsis）is in classical Latin post ；ante does not appear without the final ee in Latin，but we have in Oscan ant，as well as púst，post，Umbr． post．The suppression of a final short vowel was a common feature of Oscan and Umbrian，e．g．Oscan nep，Umbrian nep（Lat．neque），\＆c．（See also ch．x． §§ 9 and 12 ，on $u t$ and $\boldsymbol{u} t i$－nam，dōnec and doniqque，and cf．Georges，Lex Wortf．s．vv． altar（e），animal（e），autumnal（e），boletar（e），cervical（e），cochlear（e），laquear（e）， pulvinar（e），virginal（e），lucar，specular，toral，torcular，vectigal，\＆c．Quint．i．6． 17 speaks of tribunale as out of use in his time）．
§ 37．II．Change of Vowel．i．Short Vowel．We have already seen（§ 18）that，in the syllable immediately following the
early accent, every short vowel was changed to $\breve{e}$, unless diverted by a following labial to $\breve{0}$. It is probable that short final vowels took the same course, and were one and all changed to $\breve{e}$. This $\breve{e}$ might be dropped ( $\S 3^{6}$ ) or retained, but did not become $\breve{\imath}$, as unaccented $\breve{e}$ in the middle of a word did (§ I8), so that $\breve{e}$ is preeminently the final vowel of the Latin language. A final $\breve{\imath}$ becomes $\breve{e}$ in măre for *mari, ănŭmäle (later animal) for *animali, \&c., while in the middle of the word it remains, e.g. maria, animalia. Similarly final $-\breve{e}$, when, by the addition of a particle, it ceases to be a final vowel, becomes $\breve{\imath}$, e.g. bĕnifŭcus beside bene, quippini beside quippe, sicine beside sic(e), hoccine beside lioc-ce from *hod-ce (ch. vii. § 16).
ii. Diphthong. A diphthong in the final syllable was treated like a diphthong in the posttonic syllable. As we have $e i$, class. $\bar{\imath}$, for posttonic ai in inceido (S. C. Bacch.), class. incīdo from O. Lat. caido, class. caedo, so we find final ei, class. $\bar{\imath}$ representing I.-Eur. ai (or $a \mathrm{i}$ ? ch. viii. § 66) in the I Sing. of the Perfect Active, \&c., e.g. từtưd-ı (older -ei). And while an example of the weakening of oi to $e i, \bar{\imath}$ in the posttonic syllable is difficult to find (§ 18), it is regular when final, e. g. foideratei (S. C. Bacch.), class. foederati, from an original ending -oi. On the treatment of the final long diphthongs -āi, -ēi, \&c., see ch. iv. §§ 45 sqq.
iii. Long Vowel. In the post-tonic syllable, as we saw (§ 30 ), a long vowel was not changed through the influence of the preceding accent. Nor was it changed in quality in the final syllable, though its quantity suffered. Long final a became $-\breve{a}$ in terră, arvă, \&c., but did not pass into another vowel, such as $\bar{e}$. The shortening of long final vowels is discussed below (§ 40).
§ 38. Change of final short vowel to è. An example of $\check{e}$ - for an original - $\delta$ is the ending of the 2 Sg . Imperat. Pass. and Depon., e.g. sequere for *sequeso (Gk. $\notin \pi \epsilon(\sigma) 0$, ch. viii. § 77 ), of $-\check{e}$ for $-\breve{u}$, perhaps sat from an older ${ }^{\prime}$ sat $(\stackrel{e}{)})$, if this was a $u$-stem *satu- (cf. satu-r) (but see ch.ix. §4). An -ŏ which has escaped this weakening (e.g. endo, on which see ch.ix. § 27) became $-\breve{u}$ (as in the posttonic syllable, § 26), e. g. indŭ. (On noenŭ, a byform of noenum, see ch. x. § 18).

[^48]pare, antistes, antistita, antigerio ( 0 . Lat. for valde), and antisto (a better spelling than antesto: see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.) ; facilin for facile with ne, servirin for servire with ne, is the spelling of the MSS. in Plaut. Men. 928 and 795 ; benivolus, benificus, malivolus, malificus (beside benevolus, malerolus, \&c., a spelling much discussed by the grammarians, e. g. Vel. Long. 76-77 K. ; Alcuin 298. 14 K.; Probus, 119. 2 K. See Brambach, Lat. Orth. and Georges, Lex. Wortf. s.vv.) (For additional examples see Ritschl, Opusc. ii. 556).
§ 40. III. Shortening of Long Syllable. i. Final long vowel or diphthong. A long vowel or diphthong in the middle of a Latin word may be shortened in hiatus, e.g. p九us (cf. Oscan piíhio-), balnĕum ( $\beta a \lambda a v \epsilon i ̂ o v$ ), dĕamo, prĕhendo (see ch. ii. § 143). The same thing happened apparently to a final long vowel or diphthong when the next word began with a vowel or $h$, so that scansions like Plautus, Aul. 463 mét honóris, Asin. 706 dĕ hórdeo (cf. class. mĕhercle), Ennius, Ann. 45 M. Scipiŏ inuicte, need not have been imitations of Greek poetry, but rather expressed the actual Latin pronunciation. How far the shortening proper to this position may have attached itself to the vowel, even when a consonant initial followed, is not easy to say. From the earliest period of Latin literature we find a tendency to shorten every final long vowel. Some offer more resistance than others; $-\bar{\imath}$ and $-\bar{u}$ than $-\bar{a}$ and $-\bar{o}$. The final $\bar{a}$ of Nom. Sg. of A-stems and of Nom. Acc. Pl. of Neuter O-stems seems never to occur even in the earliest poetry in any but a shortened form, while in the Oscan and Umbrian dialects it has been reduced to some sound which is written 0 , and which is treated by Lucilius as a short vowel (Lucil. inc. Io6 M.), if we may trust the quotation by Festus (426. 7 Th.) Lucilius: 'uasa quoque omnino dirimit non sollo dupundi,'id est, non tota). Final $\bar{o}$ of verbs and nouns is, on the other hand, always long in the earlier poetry, except when the precedence of a short vowel, especially an accented short vowel, allows it to be scanned as a short syllable, e. g. legŏ, mod̆̆, less frequently pellegŏ, dicitŏ. But by the time of grammarians like Charisius and Diomedes (fourth century A.D.), this -o was universally shortened in pronunciation, so that a fifth-century grammarian (Pompeius, p. 232 K.), cannot explain Virgilian scansions like canto, except on the theory that they are imitations of the Greek - $\omega$ of $\pi o \iota \hat{\omega}$, \&c.! The course of development taken by $-\breve{o}$ in the literary period, viz. its shortening first in iambic
words like leğ, then in cretic words like pelleğ, finally in all words, e.g. cantŏ, we may suppose to have been taken in the pre-literary age by final $-\bar{a}$. From feră, \&c. the shortening would spread to efferă, \&c., and would in time be extended over every Nom. Sg. Fem. of $\bar{A}$-stems and Nom. Acc. Pl. Neut. of O-stems. That the shortening was mainly the work of analogy we see from trīgintā, quadrägintā, \&c., which, though really Neuters Plural, were regarded as mere numerals and so escaped the shortening which was enforced on every Neuter Plural Noun. But it must have been aided, partly by the inherent weakness of every final syllable, partly by the shortening of a final long vowel in pronunciation when the next word began with a vowel. The former presence of a final consonant does not seem to have made much difference. Ovid scans estŏ (earlier estōd) as he scans Sulmŏ; and Plautus allows the shortening by the Brevis Brevians law of datŏ, dicitŏ, probĕ, maxumĕ, man̆̆ and other Ablatives (earlier datōl, \&c.).
ii. Long vowel followed by consonant. The quantity of a vowel in a final syllable is often influenced by a following consonant. In English the long vowel-sound of 'node' becomes a half-long sound before the dental tenuis, 'note.' Similarly in Latin a long vowel tended to be shortened by a following final $t, r$, \&c. Under the shortening influence of a preceding short accented syllable, the final syllable (with naturally long vowel) is readily shortened by Plautus in words like tenet, amat, and, to a less extent, soror, moror, but seldom in words like tenes, amas, moras (for the statistics, see Leppermann, De correptione, \&c. p. 78) ; and in classical poetry every originally long vowel is scanned as a short vowel before final $-t,-r$, \&c., but not before final -s. Final $-l$ also shortens a preceding long vowel ; thus bacchānāl (for bacchanäle) became, when the accent shifted to the second syllable, bacchanăl, as calcär (for calcäre) became, under similar circumstances, calcăr. And, though we cannot trace the effect of final $-m$ in poetry, seeing that a syllable so ending is elided before an initial vowel, we are told by Priscian that it had the same power of shortening a long vowel (even in monosyllables), e. g. sрёm, rĕm, diëm, meridiëm (Prisc. i. 23. 13; 366.21 H.).
iii. Final syllable long by position. In Plautus legünt, dixerŭnt
are admitted as well as leğ, dixerŏ. But in the hexameters of Ennius, Lucilius, \&c., these shortenings of final syllables long by position are avoided, as they were in the poetry of the classical period. They were apparently regarded as vulgarisms, much as the change of final $-n g$ to $-n$ is with us.
§41. Final long vowel in Hiatus. In Greek poetry(dactylic, anapaestic, \&c.) besides the shortening of final diphthongs like $a \iota$, o before an initial vowel (a scansion due to the consonantal character of $t$, äv $\nu \delta \alpha a<\iota \notin \nu \nu \epsilon \pi \epsilon$ being pronounced ävסja $\mu о y_{\epsilon}^{\prime} \nu \nu \in \pi \epsilon$, G. Meyer, Griech. Gram. ${ }^{2}$ § r54), we sometimes find shortening of final $\bar{a}, \omega, \eta$ in similar circumstances. This shortening seems to have reflected the ordinary pronunciation, as we can see from inscriptions in the Cretan dialect, a dialect in which the nuances of sound taken by a word in its various positions in the sentence were more regularly expressed in the orthography than in other dialects. On the Tablet of Gortyn, for example, $\mu \boldsymbol{\eta}$ is written $\mu \epsilon$ when the next word begins with a vowel (K. Z. xxxiii. 133) In the native metre of the Romans, the Saturnian, a final long vowel or diphthong (or syllable in - $m$ ), seems similarly to be left in Prosodical Hiatus, i.e. shortened, not wholly elided, before an initial vowel or $h$ - (see ch. ii. § 143) ; and this Prosodical Hiatus, as well as Hiatus proper, such as the non-elision of a final short vowel, is much more common in Plautus than in Terence, as it was in Naevius, according to Cic. Or. xlv. § 152, than in Ennius. Plautus employs it in dialogue metres with ( 1 ) (accented?) monosyllables preceding a short initial syllable, e.g. quŏeam? (2) iambic words with verse ictus on the first syllable, e.g.meí honoris; (3) monosyllables following a short final syllable which has the verse ictus, e. g. omnić quaĕ isti dedi; (4) iambic words or word-endings, when the final syllable has the verse ictus and the following initial syllable is short and has the natural accent, e.g. virí habitat, una operä́ ebur, obsequi animo. In Anapaestic Metres also with (5) Cretic words, and in other cases. (For a list of examples, see Klotz, Altröm. Metrik, p. rig. They include not merely instances of dissimilar vowels, but also of similar, e.g. $i-i$ in éri imágine, Pseud. 1202). Terence, and apparently Lucilius, restrict it to the first of these cases ; but Virgil has not only examples like quĭ amant (Ecl. viii. 108), but also like vale valĕ inquit (Ecl. iii. 79), and sub Iliŏ alto (A. v. 26I). Virgil thus employs it ( 1 ) to prevent the entire suppression by elision of a monosyllable (accented?), ending in a long vowel or -m ; (2) in cases where a long final vowel would be shortened by the law of Breves Breviantes in the dramatists. That a vowel shortened in Hiatus was not so long as an ordinary short vowel, we may infer not only from the fact that it is normally elided, but also from the disinclination shown by Plautus to allow a vowel so shortened to constitute by itself the thesis of a metrical foot. It is allowed to go with another short syllable to form a resolved thesis, e. g. quŏ ěám, but is never allowed to dispense with the proximity of another short syllable, except in a few phrases which may be considered as word-groups or compound words, e.g. dë hórdeo, Asin. 706, whịch might be written de-hordeo like děhortari, Poen. 674. The difference in this respect between Plautine and Saturnian versification (see ch. ii. § 143) need not imply a change in the pronunciation of these final long vowels in Hiatus; but may be due merely to the different character of the verse. The Saturnian poetry was of a more
solemn and dignified tone than the conversational verse of the dramatists, and would naturally be uttered with a greater pause between the words. Imitation of the Greek dactylic and anapaestic prosody is inconceivable in the Saturnian poetry, and unlikely in the trochaic and iambic verse of Plautus; so that we can hardly be wrong in supposing this Prosodical Hiatus to reflect the ordinary pronunciation in Latin, as it did in Greek.
§42. Breves Breviantes. The syllables most affected by this law are those ending in a long vowel in words which were in ordinary talk closely joined with a following word. Forms like mihŭ, tibŭ, sibŭ, modŏ, citŏ, \&c. have forced their way even into classical poetry ; and in Plautus we find this shortening chiefly in verb-forms, which go closely with a following word, e. g. volŏ-scire, abĭ-rus, cavè-dicas, while the examples of nouns are mostly confined to adverbial forms, e. g. domĭ-restat, domŏ-prodit, or subordinate words like homŏ (see statistics in Leppermann, De correptione, p. 78). Ennius in his Epic restricts this usage to words ending in a vowel, and subsequent Hexameter poets follow him, e. g. putŏ but not legŭnt, dixerŏ (Hor. S. i. 4. 104) but not dixerŭnt. That this shortening was not a mere metrical licence, but reflected the actual pronunciation, we see from Quintilian's remark (i. 6. 2r) that havĕ, not avé, was the normal form in his time, as well as from Phaedrus' fable of the man who mistook this word for the caw of a crow (App. 21), and Cicero's story (Div. ii. 40) of Crassus mistaking a figseller's cry, Cauneas (sc. ficus vendo), for cave ne eas. The spelling causis for cave sis in Juvenal ix. 120 points to the same thing; and Servius (ad Aen. vi. 780) says that vidĕn was the pronunciation of his day. (Should we read rogăn for rogăs in Pers. v. 134 ?) Plautus in his dialogue metres allows the scansion of a cretic word as a dactyl in the first foot only of the line or hemistich; Terence not at all ; but Horace in his Satires and Epistles has Polliŏ, dixerŏ, mentiŏ, \&c. ; commodă Catull. x. 26 is probably Neut. Plur. (see Owen ad loc.). (On the operation of the Breves Breviantes Law in Plautus, see Journ. Phil. xxi. 198 and xxii. r.) Plautus requires that the preceding short syllable shall be perfectly short; he does not allow a short vowel preceding a mute and liquid to act as a Brevis Brevians, e.g. not pătrĭ like pătŭ, nor even a short vowel preceding $q u$, except under particular circumstances. But in classical poetry we find putrěfacta, liquĕfunt, \&c.
§43. Shortening of final $-\bar{a}$. We have $-\bar{a}$ in Greek words in the early poets (Enn. A. 567 M . agoea longa repletur is very uncertain ; cf. Gk. ä $\gamma v ı a ̆$ ), just as we have in later poetry, e. g. Stat. Theb. vi. 515 Nemeā (ef. Prisc. i. p. 202. 16 H.). But the instances quoted of $-\bar{a}$ in Nom. Sg. of $\bar{A}$-stems or Nom. Acc. Pl. of O-stems seem to be illusory. They are really cases of (I) metrical lengthening, e.g. Enn. A. 149 M. et densis aquilā pinnis obnixa volabat, a lengthening of a short syllable before the penthemimeral Caesura, like the lengthenings before the hephthemimeral in $A .85 \mathrm{M}$. sic expectabat populūs atque ora tenebat, Virg. A. iii. 464 dona dehinc auro graviä sectoque elephanto, where we have an originally short syllable (e. g. populŭs, I.-Eur. -ŏs) lengthened, by a metrical licence borrowed from Greek poetry, before the two chief caesuras of the hexameter ; (2) syllaba anceps, e. g. Plaut. Mil. 1226 namque édepol uix fuit copiă | adeúndi atque impetrándi (at the end of the first hemistich of an Iambic Septenarius, like -ŭs in Truc. 149 non áruos hic sed páscư̆s | ager ést : si aratiónes) ; Plaut. Rud. 1086 TR. Ét crepundiá ( $\breve{a})$. GR.Quid, si ea sunt aúrea? TR. Quid istúc tua? (at change of speaker,
like $\cdot \check{c ̌}$ of Voc. Sg., I-Eur. -ě, in Pers. 482 TO. Quíd agis? DO. Credo. TO. Únde agis te, Dórdalĕ. DO. Credó tibi). Or they are cases of wrong scansion, e.g. Trin. 25I nox datur : ducitur familia tota (where the metre is Anapaestic with familiŭ, not Cretic with fámiliŭ́), Mil. I3I4 Quíd $u$ is? Quin tu iúbes ecferri ómnia quae isti dedi [where we should scan ómniắ quaě istí, not ómniấqu(ae), istí], or of wrong reading, e. g. Asin. 762 Ne epístula quidem úlla sit in aédibus (where we might insert usquam before ulla, as in Rud. 529, and scan epistulă, not epistula $\bar{a}$. A few apparent instances of $\cdot \bar{a}$ in Plautus have not yet been explained, viz. Bacch. 1128 ; Epid. 498 ; Men. 974 a. (For a list of examples in Plautus, see C. F.'Müller, Plaut. Prosodie, p. I; in Ennius, see Reichardt in Fleck. Jahrb. 1889, p. 777.) In the Saturnian fragments there is no reason for scanning $-\bar{a}$ in Nom. Sg. or Neut. Pl. (see ch. ii § I4r). Final $-\bar{a}$ for $-\bar{a} d$ is long in Early Latin, as in Classical poetry, e.g. Abl. mensā, erā, Adv. extrā, suprā (exstrad, suprad on S. C. Bacch. of 186 в. c., C. I. L. i. 196), so that Early Latin contră, frustră (e.g. Plaut. Rud. 1255 ne tu frustră sis, at the end of an Iambic line; Naev. praet. 6 R. contră redhostis, at the beginning of the second hemistich of a Trochaic Septenarius ; Enn. ap. Varr. L. L. vii. 12 quis pater aut cognatu' uolet nos contră tueri ?) cannot have been originally *conträd, *frusträd. But it may be shortened by the influence of a preceding short syllable, like any other long vowel, e. g. venustissumŭ, Poen. 1177, gratiă, Stich. 327, rustică, Pers. 169. Similarly with - $\bar{a}$ of Imperatives of the first Conjugation. We have in the dramatists amŭ, put̆̆ beside amā, putā, and so even e.g. Persius iv. 9. hoc pută non justum est. But this shortening was not extended by analogy to all Imperatives in $-\bar{c}$. We never find ${ }^{*}$ plantă for plantā, *mandă for mandā in Early or in Classical poetry. This is perhaps due to the influence of the other Persons of the imperative plantäto, plantäte, while for nouns like mensa the length of the final $-a$ would not be impressed on the memory by other cases like mensae, mensam, \&c. The $-\bar{a}$ of Numerals like quadraginta, \&c. is not scanned as a short syllable till late times, e. g. C.I.L. vi. 28047 ( $=$ Meyer, Anth. 1326) quadragintŭ per annos; vi. 29426 (= Mey. 1389) septvagint $\breve{a}$, when Abl. $-\bar{u}$ is similarly treated, e. g. C.I. L. xiv. 3723 hic situs Amphion ereptus primă juventa (see ch. ii. § 141).
§ 44. Shortening of final -e. Final - $\bar{e}$ of the Imperatives of the second Conjugation is scanned short by Plautus under the same conditions as final $-\bar{a}$ of first Conjugation Imperatives, e. g. monĕ and monē, cavĕ (almost always short). That this scansion corresponded with the pronunciation we see from the remark of Quintilian (i. 6. 2r) that havě, not avē, was the universal pronunciation of his time (multum enim litteratus, qui sine adspiratione et producta secunda syllaba salutarit-'avere' est enim-et 'calefacere' dixerit potius quam quod dicimus, et 'conservavisse,' his adiciat 'face' et 'dice' et similia. recta est haec via : quis negat? sed adjacet et mollior et magis trita) (cf. § 42). This shortening was not extended to Imperatives with long penult, e. g. splendē, never*splendě. Similarly the -ē of calé, frigē, \&c. in the compounds calefacio, frigefacio is in all Latin poetry scanned short only when the first syllable is short, călüfacio (but never $*_{\text {frigĕfacio), which in }}$ Quintilian's time was apparently pronounced calfacio (Quint. i. 6. 21 quoted above ; for this spelling see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.). Cato's arfacit, so spelt in MSS. of the Res Rustica 69 ; 125; 157. 12, seems to follow the analogy of calfacit. These Compounds were Separable Compounds (cf. facit are for arefacit, Lucr. vi. 962), so that their -e is properly regarded as final -è. This -e already
shortened to some extent under the influence of the preceding accented short syllable in calĕ, madé, \&c., is in the Compounds cale-fácio, made-fácio (cf. Prisc. i. p. 402. го H.) subjected to the additional weakening influence of a following accented syllable, and so is scanned by the dramatists invariably as a short syllable, although other writers sometimes make it long, e. g. Enn. Ann. 573 M. patêfecit ; Catull. lxiv. 360 tepëfaciet beside tepĕfacsit of lxviii. 29 (see Ritschl, opusc. ii. p. 6I8). A short vowel before a mute and liquid (and to some extent before $q u$ ) (see ch. ii. §93) was not so short as a short vowel before a single consonant, and was not so capable of acting as a Brevis Brevians in the dramatists' versification. Hence Ritschl was wrong in scanning pǔtrěfacit, Plaut. Most. I12, though Ovid has putre̛factus, liquéfiunt. Similarly in the compound of dies and quintus, \&c. the $\bar{e}$ of the second syllable, properly regarded as a final $-\bar{e}$, was shortened in the Republican forms diëquinte, \&c. (Gell. x. 24. I 'die quarto' et 'die quinto' . . . ab eruditis nunc quoque dici audio, et qui aliter dicit pro rudi atque indocto despicitur. Sed Marci Tullii aetas ac supra eam non, opinor, ita dixerunt ; 'diequinte' enim et 'diequinti' pro adverbio copulate dictum est, secunda in eo syllaba correpta. Divus etiam Augustus, linguae Latinae non nescius, munditiarumque patris sui in sermonibus sectator, in epistulis plurifariam significatione ista dierum non aliter usus est.) Final $-\bar{e}$ in the Abl. of the fifth Declension is treated by Plautus exactly as final $-\bar{a}$ of first-Declension Ablatives, that is to say, it is occasionally scanned short when preceded by a short, especially an accented short, syllable, but not otherwise, e.g. diĕ, fidě. This shortening was not extended to Ablatives with long penult. So with Adverbs in $-\bar{e}$ (originally $-\bar{e} d$, e.g. facilumed on S. C. Bacch. of 186 b.C., C.I.L. i. 196). Plautus scans pröbّ̆̆, maxŭm厄̆, though an instance of the shortening of this $-e$ is wanting in Terence.
§ 45. Shortening of final -ō. In Plautus and the other dramatists final $-\bar{o}$ is shortened under exactly the same conditions as final $-\bar{e}$, that is to say, only under the influence of a Brevis Brevians, e.g. volŏ, which normally has this scansion when joined closely as an auxiliary verb with an infinitive, volŏ-scire, \&c. This shortening of -ō in some iambic and cretic words had so established itself in pronunciation that even the later Republican and Augustan poets admit scansions of iambic words like homŏ (Lucr. vi. 652), volŏ (Catull. vi. r6), dalŭ̆ (Catull. xiii. Ir), vetŏ (Hor. S. i. r. 104), and even of cretic words like Pollio (Hor.S. i. 1о. 42, 85 ; and even in the Odes, ii. г. 14), mentiŏ (Hor. S. i. 4. 93), dixerŏ (Hor. S. i. 4. 104), quomodŏ (Hor. S. i. 9. 43). The shortening of final $-\bar{o}$, like that of final $-\bar{a}$, and unlike that of final $-\bar{e}$, rapidly extended itself to all instances, even when a long syllable preceded. In Ovid we have ergŏ (Her. v. 59, and elsewhere), estŏ, Trist. iv. 3. 72, Sulmŏ, Nasŏ, \&c.; and even Cicero uses Vettŏ, if his epigram is rightly quoted by Quint. (viii. 6. 73) fundum Vettŏ vocat, quem possit mittere funda, \&c. (On endŏ, see ch. ix. § 27.) But -ō of the Dat. and Abl. is not shortened till very late times. The fourth -century grammarians speak of the final -o of Nouns (Nom. Sing.), Verbs (i Pers. Sing. Pres. Ind.), Adverbs and Conjunctions, as universally shortened in the pronunciation of their time, except in monosyllables and foreign words. [Charis. p. 16. 5 K . etiam illud magna cura videndum est quod veteres omnia vel verba vel nomina quae o littera finiuntur, item adverbia vel conjunctiones producta extrema syllaba proferebant, adeo ut Vergilius quoque idem servaverit, in aliis autem refugerit vetustatis horrorem, et carmen
contra morem veterum levigaverit... paulatim autem usus invertit, ut in sermone nostro 'scribo' 'dico' et item talibus, ubi o non solum correpta ponitur, sed etiam ridiculus sit qui eam produxerit . . . sane monosyllaba fere quaecumque sunt verba $\pi \rho \omega \boldsymbol{c}_{\text {ótuta }}$ o littera finita tam versu quam etiam prosa similiter productam habent: necesse non corripi, ut 'sto' 'do.' quibus si conferatur 'dico' 'curro' 'disco' item producta o littera, dijudicari poterit quam sit aliud absurdum, aliud per euphoniam gratum ; cf. p. 63. I $_{7} \mathrm{~K}$. nullum autem nomen o producta finitur nisi peregrinum, veluti ' Ino' 'Sappho ' 'Dido' (cf. Diom. p. 435. 22 K. ; 'Prob.' de ult. syll. p. 220.15 K.) ; Mar. Victorinus (p. 28. 23K. ) distinguishes the Verbs monstrŏ, ostentŭ, \&c. from monströ, ostentō, the Dat. and Abl. cases of the Nouns monstrum, ostentum. Servius (ad A. iv. 291) attests quandŏ. Priscian (i. p. 409. 16 H.) excuses vigilandŏ of Juv. iii. $232, \& c$. on the ground that it is part of a verb (: nos in 'do' utimur terminatione, quae similis est dativo vel ablativo nominis, nisi quod verbum hoc existimantes quidam etiam corripiunt o finalem ejus.]
§46. Shortening of final -i. The shortening of $-\bar{\imath}$ by the Brevis Brevians Law is common in Plautus in Imperatives like abl̆, redı̆, and Perfects like dedı̆; while in nouns we have domı̆ (very frequent), eř̆, viř̆, sen̆̆, \&c., with the Ablatives av̌ sinistra, Pseud. 762, pař̆ fortuna, Bacch. 1108 (cf. Ter. levĭ sententia, Hec. 3 12).
§ 47. Shortening of final - $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$. By the Brevis Brevians Law we have тапй in Plaut. Trin. 288, but owing to the few words with short paenultima ending in $-\bar{u}$, the examples are not frequent. Terence has always $d i \bar{u}$, never $d i u ̈$, but Plautus has $d i u ̈$ (or $d j u$ ?) very frequently.
§ 48. Shortening of final diphthong. A final diphthong is almost never shortened by the Brevis Brevians Law in Plautus (e. g. novaě nuptae, Cas. ri8), and never in Terence. This is rather to be referred to the infrequency of words so ending (Noms. Plur. and Dats. Sing. in -ae), than to be quoted as a proof of the difference in sound between a diphthong and a long vowel.
49. Shortening of long vowel before final Consonant. -1. In Plautus we have still the long quantity, e.g. Aul. 413 aperitur Bacchanál : adest, but in Classical poetry -ăl, e. g. trïbünăl, Ovid (cf. Mar. Victorinus de Finalibus p. 231. ir. K.). Subtel (apparently for *subtēle, Neut. of *subtelis, a Compound of sub and tālus) (but see § 30 ), is quoted as an instance of - $\check{l}$ by Priscian, i. p. 147. ir H., and explained as tò koîخov rov̂ $\pi 0 \delta o ́ s$.
-m . Whether the different treatment of $-m$ after $o$ of the Gen. Plur. and $o$ of the Acc. Sg. Masc. and Nom. Acc. Sg. Neut. of O-stems on the earliest inscriptions (e.g. C.I.L. i. 16 Suesano probom, 'Suessanorum probum') is a proof that a long vowel was at the end of the third cent. в. c. not yet shortened before final $-m$ is uncertain (see cl. ii. § I37). If Lat. $-m$ sounded like $-w$ owing to the lips not being closed in pronouncing it (ch. ii. § 6i), the shortening spĕm may be compared with nĕu (ch. ii. §34). Osc. paam 'quam' Acc. Sg. Fem., Umbr. pracatarum Gen. Pl. Fem. (with $u$ the equivalent of Lat. $\bar{o}$ ) indicate a retention of the long quantity in Umbro-Oscan.
-r. (I) Nouns like calcar(e). The final syllable was without doubt long in Plautus, though there is no certain evidence of its quantity, or of its loss of final ee. It is short in Classical poetry, e. g. exemplăr, Hor. (but exempläre, Lucr. ii. 124), though the grammarians recognize that it ought to be long by
the analogy of the other cases $-\bar{a} r i s,-\bar{a} r i, \& c$. (Charis. exc. p. 54r. 2 K. : Mar. Victorin. de Fin. p. ${ }^{232}$. 9 K., and similarly of -al p. 23 r. 10 K.).
(2) Nouns and Adjectives like sŏror, maeror, minnor, major, have the long quantity invariably in Plautus, unless in cases of shortening by the Brevis Brevians Law, e. g. sorōr, Poen. 364 ; amŏr, Cist. i. 1. 69, and probably always patër. Iambic nouns often retain the old Nominative ending -os, e.g. odos, Pseud. 841 ; honos, Trin. 697. Ennius in his Annals has -ör. Whether he ever (A. 455 M. $s \bar{u} d \breve{\partial r}$ ) uses - $\check{r}$ is doubtful; but Lucilius has normally -ŏr (e. g. stridör, inc. 90 M .), and the two probable examples of $-\bar{o} r$ in Lucilius, (dölör v. 55 M. ; pŭdör xxx. 70 M .) are perhaps metrical lengthenings before the chief Caesuras, like Virgil's lăbōr (G. iii. 118), dŏmittör (A. xii. 550), \&c. There is a lack of decisive instances in the plays of Terence (see Boemer, De correptione, p. 25).
(3) Verbs like mŏror, ūtor Ind., morer, utar Subj., in Plautus always have a long final, unless shortened by the Brevis Brevians Law, e. g. Rud. 1248 níl morör ullúm lucrum ; Aul. 232 utār ; Bacch. 153 nil mórŏr. By Lucilius’ time it is invariably short, e. g. fruniscơr xviii. 3 M. ; oblĭnür xxx. 25 M . In the Comedies of Terence the evidence is defective (e. g. sěquăr, Andr. 8ig). In Tibullus, i. ro. 13 trăhör is of course a case of metrical lengthening before the penthemimeral Caesura. Oscan patir 'pater,' keenzstur ' censor' apparently retain the long vowel.
-t. The shortening of a long vowel before final $t$ was perhaps slightly earlier than before final -r. It is indeed not found in Plautus, except where the Brevis Brevians Law interposes (and here the shortening is much more frequent than with -r), e. g. cubăt, Amplı. 290 ; timět, Amph. 295 ; vĕň̆t, Aul. 226 ; arāt, Asin. 874 ; solēt, Merc. 696; aūt, Cas. 693 ; but in Ennius' hexameters, though the long quantity is usual, we find shortening occasionally even after a long syllable, e. g. mandebăt, A. 138 M. (but ponebăt, A. 288); splendčt, Sat. 14 (but jubēt, A. 465) ; potessět, A. 235 (but essēt, A. 8I). In Lucilius the short quantity is normal, though we have crissavit ix. 70 M . But Terence, to judge from the slender evidence at our disposal, seems to follow rather the usage of Ennius' hexameter poems, for we have more long scansions, e. g. stetit, Phorm. prol. 9 ; augeāt, Adelph. prol. 25, \&c. beside audirĕt, Adelph. 453. On a Scipio epitaph of c. 1зо в. c. written in elegiac metre (C. I. L. i. 38) we have nobilitauct, though the spelling eeit in the Perfect is found much later (e.g. probaueit beside coerauit, in C.I. L. i. 600 , of 62 в. c.) (see ch. viii. § 70). Ovid repeatedly lengthens the -it of interiit, abiit, rediit, \&c. and of pctiit (see Munro ad Lucr. iii. 1042). On attát in the Dramatists see § 10. p. 164.

Before final -s the long quantity persisted to classical times. It is occasionally shortened by the Brevis Brevians Law in Plautus, e. g. Mil. 325 sunt manŭs ; Aul. 187 habĕs; and the same is true of the plays of Terence (e. g. bonis, Eun. prol.8), which however do not offer any example of a verbal form in -s being shortened (potěs, adĕs are for *potëss, *adĕss, not ${ }^{*}$ potēs, *adēs). But this shortening is very rare in both dramatists, and not at all so frequent as the shortening by the same Brevis Brevians Law before $-t$, $-r$ (see the statistics in Leppermann, De correptione . . . apud Plautum, and in Boemer, De correptione . . . Terentiana). Horace's palŭs aptaque remis (A. P. 65) is a unique scansion in Augustan poetry (cf. viď̌n, rogăn § 42). Ennius has in his Annals (1. ro2 M.) virginĕs (cf. Plaut. Pers. 845) before a consonant initial (see below).
§ 50. Shortening of Final Syllable long by position. Aběst in Lucilius
(ix. 29 M .), which seems to be the right reading, stands perhaps alone as an instance in non-dramatic poetry of the shortening by the Brevis Brevians Law of a final syllable long by position. Horace allows dixerŏ, but not e. g. dixerŭnt. Ennius' virginĕs in Ann. roz M. :
uirgines nam sibi quisque domi Romanus habet sas,
shows shortening of a final syllable long both by nature (-ēs for -ens, ch. vi. § 2), and by position. In the dramatists the shortening by the Brevis Brevians Law of final syllables long both by nature and by position, or by position only, is freely allowed in the case of dissyllables in the dialogue metres (e. g. Nil pótëst (?) suprá, Ter. ; ex Graécis bónǐs Latínas fecit nón bonas, Ter.), in the case of trisyllables, \&c. only (as a rule) in Anapaestic and other lyric metres (e. g. vénerănt húc, Plaut. ; odio énicăs míseram, Plaut. ; qui hic líberăs vírginěs mércatúr, Plaut.).
Final syllables which had originally a double consonant are long in Plautus, e. g. miles for ${ }^{*}$ miless, Aul. 528 milếs inpransus ástat, aes censét dari, though they may, of course, be shortened by the influence of a Brevis Brevians, e. g. potěs, Stich. 325. But after Plautus' time they appear to be short syllables. Ennius has not only ĕquĕs (Ann. 484.249 M.), but also mīlĕs (Ann. 277) ; Terence has always aděs, potěs; Lucilius has mil̆ess (xi. 8 M.), prödĕs (inc. 128 M.) ; Lucretius (iii. 72I) exŏs, and so on. But final -s for -ss never fails before an initial consonant to make 'position' in Early Latin versification as original -s usually fails; milĕs vult could not end an Iambic Senarius like occidistiss me, Plaut. Bacch. 3гз. Perhaps the reduction of the final double consonant was proper to a position before an initial consonant, so that the actual pronunciation would be originally, e. g. miless impransus, miles pransus (see below § 5 I , on $\operatorname{hoc}(c)$ ).
§ 51. Shortening of Monosyllables. The connexion of all these cases of shortening with the absence of accent is seen from the fact that monosyllabic words are as a rule not shortened, unless they are subordinate or enclitic words. Thus a long vowel is shortened before final $-r,-l$, in Classical poetry in unaccented syllables, e.g. candŏr, majŏr, fund̆̆r, calcăr, trĭbūnăll, but not in the monosyllables $f \bar{u} r, s \bar{o} l$, where the natural length of the vowel is retained. The monosyllable cor, however, which represents *cord, with vowel naturally short, but long by position, is scanned short in classical poetry, though it is long in Plautus, Poen. 388 :
húius cōr, huiús studium, huius sáuium, mastígia,
the pronunciation of his time having probably been cord huius, cord arlet, when the next word began with a vowel, but cor calet (like cor(d)culum, ch. iv. § 157), when the next word began with a consonant. Similarly the more or less subordinate word ter,
older *terr (cf. terr-uncius) for *tërs (I.-Eur. *triss, ch. vi. § 61), is a long syllable before an initial vowel in Plautus, Bacch. 1127 (a bacchiac line):
rerín tēr in ánno posse hás tonsitári,
while in subsequent poetry the 'doublet' used before an initial consonant, e.g. ter $(r)$ durus, like hor $(r)$ deum (from *horsdeum, ch. iv. § 158 ), established itself before initial vowels too. Hoc Neut. for hocc (*höd-ce, ch. vii. § 16 ; cf. hocci-ne) retained its antevocalic 'doublet' form in classical poetry, e.g. Virg. (A. ii. 664):
hōc erat, alma parens, \&c.,
and Velius Longus, commenting on this line, tells us that the actual pronunciation of his time was 'hocc erat' ( 54.6 K . ergo scribendum per duo c, 'hoc-c-erat alma parens,' aut confitendum quaedam aliter scribi, aliter pronuntiari). Plautus uses the proper 'doublet' of all these monosyllables which have a vowel naturally short followed by a consonant that represents two consonants; thus he invariably makes es, 'thou art' (I.-Eur. *es-s(i), ch. viii. § 2), a long syllable before a word beginning with a vowel (unless under the operation of the Brevis Brevians Law, just as we find $h \check{o} c$ in a line like Men. $5_{22}$ quid hŏc ést negoti?). But in Terence es is a short syllable, and so in Lucilius (e.g. iv. 4 M.) (On the reduction of a final double consonant, see ch. ii. § 133).

The shortening of $s i$ in sĭ-quidem, and (in the older poetry only) of $t \bar{u}, t e \bar{e}, m \bar{e}$, \&c. before quidem (e.g. tüquidem, Lucil. xiv. 26 M ., Plaut. Epid. 99), is due to accentuation, and should be understood in connexion with the rule that antepenultimate syllables could not be circumflexed in Latin (ch. iii. § 2, p.I 53), and with the modern Italian practice of diphthongizing a paroxytone vowel, e.g. buono (Lat. bŏnus), but not a proparoxytone, e.g. popolo (Lat. ро̆рйlus). The shortening of English sheep, know in shep-herd, shepherdess, know-ledge, is similarly due to accentual conditions, and of Welsh brawd, 'a brother,' in brod-yr, ' brothers,' \&c.
§ 52. Loss of Final Syllable with -m. This could hardly take place except in the case of words closely joined in ordinary talk with a following word [e.g. noen (um) est, noen (um) habet, nihil(um) est, nihil(um) habet, would be the 'doublet' forms
before initial vowels, noenum dat, nikilum dat, the ante-consonantal doublets], so that the theory which explains adverbs in -ter, e.g. breviter, as Accusatives Sing. Neut. of adjectives with the ' comparative' suffix -tero (ch. v. § 18), for breviter (um), \&c., is unlikely to be correct (seech. ix. § 2). The Preposition circum, when compounded with a verb beginning with a vowel, has its final syllable not entirely elided but left in prosodical hiatus, e.g. cir$c \breve{u}(m) i t$ (a trisyllable); (cf. sublatuiri for sublatum iri, ch. viii. § 89), and it is possible that non, ni( $h i) l$, should not be referred to noen (um), nihil( $u m$ ), but should receive another explanation, such as non for noe-ne (on noenŭ, see ch. x. § 18), nikil for *ni-hile, Neut. of I-stem (cf. imbellis and imbellus, subtĕl from *sub-tèle, Neut. of an I-stem compound of tālus (?), and see § 49). But rénire seems to represent venum ire, though pessum ire did not become *pessire. The grammarians defend the spelling sed against set by a reference to an older sedum (Charisius, 112.5 K. ; Mar. Vict. 10. 13 K.) (see ch. x. §5). (On donec and O. Lat. donicum, see ch. x. § 12).

By comparing the various Romance words for, let us say, 'horse,' Ital. cavallo, Span. caballo, Port. cavallo, Prov. cavals, Fr. cheval, Roum. cal, \&c., it is possible to conjecture the form of the Latin prototype from which they all have descended, caballus. In the same way we can guess at the early form, what is called the 'Indo-European' form, underlying any cognate group of words in the various Indo-European languages; e.g. Lat. mäter, Dor. Gk. $\mu a ́ r \eta \eta \rho, ~ O . ~ I n d . ~ m a ̄ t a ́ r-, ~ O . ~ I r . ~ m a ̄ t h i r, ~$ O. Slav. mater-, Arm. mair, O. Eng. mōdor, point to something like *mātēr as their prototype. We may similarly trace back inflexions to an 'Indo-European' form, and may out of these conjectured words and inflexions construct an 'Indo-European' alphabet.

In the last two chapters we have discussed the pronunciation and accentuation of Latin, and the phonetic changes of the language produced under the influence of the accent, or due to peculiarities (often local and temporal merely) of pronunciation. In the next chapter we shall compare Latin with the other languages of the Indo-European family; we shall investigate the form in which the various sounds of our imaginary 'Indo-European' alphabet appear on Latin soil, and how that form differs from the forms assumed in the various languages of Asia and Europe, which are classed under the name 'Indo-European.' These languages are: (I) the Aryan, including i. Indian, ii. Iranian (Zend, Persian, \&c.) ; (2) the Armenian ; (3) the Greek ; (4) the Albanian ; (5) the Italic, including i. Latin, ii. the UmbroOscan dialects ; (6) the Celtic, including i. Gaulish, ii. Goidelic (Irish, Gaelic of Scotland, \&c.), iii. Brythonic (Welsh, Breton, \&c.) ; (7) the Balto-Slavic, including i. Baltic (Lithuanian, \&c.), ii. Slavonic ; (8) the Teutonic, including i. Gothic, ii. Scandinavian, iii. W. Teutonic (German, English, \&c.), (see Introduction to Brugmann's Comparative Grammar).

## CHAPTER IV.

## THE LATIN REPRESENTATIVES OF THE INDO-EUROPEAN SOUNDS.

## $\overline{\mathbf{A}}, \check{\mathbf{A}}$.

§ 1. $\overline{\mathbf{A}}$. I.-Eur. $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ is Latin $\bar{a}$. Thus in the declension of A-stems we have Latin fümŭliäs (the old genitive preserved in legal language, păter familias), terrā̄̄ (later terrâa, terrae), praed $\bar{a}$ (O. Lat. praidād), fīliārum, fīliäbus (another legal form, required for distinction from filiis, Dat. Abl. Plur. of filius); the word for ' mother,' I.-Eur. *māter- (O. Ind. mātár-, Arm. mair, Dor. Gk.
 I.-Eur. $\bar{a}$ in Lithuanian and in the Teutonic languages, Lith. motẽ̃, ' wife,' O. Eng. mōdor, O. H. Germ. muoter, now Mutter, with short vowel and double consonant instead of long vowel and single consonant) is in Latin mäter.
I.-Eur. $\bar{a}$, Lat. $\bar{a}$, is often found in developments from simple roots like ğěn-, ' to beget,' e.g. Lat. gnātus, later nātus, beside indư-gĕna, gĕn-us: tel-, ' to carry,' Lat. lātus for *tlätus, P. P. P. of tollo; stel- (O. Slav. stelja, 'I spread'), Lat. lātus, wide, earlier stlätus, stläta, sc. nāvis, whence the adj. stlätarius, or with -ătt- for earlier -āt- (ch. ii. § 127), stlatta, stlattarius (Paul. Fest. 455. I Th. stlatta, genus navigii, latum magis quam altum, et a latitudine sic appellatum, sub ea consuetudine, qua 'stlocum' pro locum, et 'stlitem' pro litem dicebant; Gl. Philox. stlata: $\pi \epsilon \iota \rho a \tau \iota \kappa o \hat{v} \sigma \kappa a ́ \phi o v s ~ \epsilon i ̂ ̀ o s: ~ J u v . ~ v i i . ~ I 34 ~ s t l a t t a r i a ~ p u r p u r a) ; ~ s t e r-~$ (Lat. sterno), Lat. strä-tus, sträzmen ; ger-, 'to rub,' 'wear away,' 'make old ' (Gk. $\gamma^{\epsilon} \rho \omega \nu$ ), Lat. grā-num ; keld-, 'to strike' (Lat. per-cello), Lat. clädes; kert-, 'to bind,'' weave together' (O. Ind. cṛtáti, 'he binds,' kṛṇátti, 'he spins'), Lat. crätes; K̂er-
(Gk. кє́pas, horn), Lat. cräbro for $*_{c r a ̈ s}$-ro (§ $\mathrm{I}^{2}$ ), a hornet. The $l \bar{a}, r \bar{a}, n \bar{a}$ has been variously explained in some or all of these instances, as (1) long sonant or syllabic l, r, n (§§ 81, 92), (so Brugmann, Grundr. ${ }^{1}$ i. §§ 253, 306), so that, for example, Lat. gränum would represent I.-Eur. *g̣̣̣no-, while Goth. kaurn, Eng. corn, represent I.-Eur. *ğ̣̣̆no- (cf. Lat. rād-īx, I.-Eur. *wṛ̂d-, but Goth. vaurts, Eng. wort, I.-Eur, *wṛ̆d-) : (2) due to the fusion of an $e$-sound with an $a$-sound in a grade of a dissyllabic root of the form gena-, \&c., so that e.g. Lat. gnätus would come from gena-, the root gen- with the addition of an $a$-sound, while Gk. (Att. and Dor.) - $\gamma v \eta$ ros would come from gene-, the root gen- with the addition of an $e$-sound (so Bechtel, Hauptprobleme, p. 203); the $*_{\text {cräs- of }}$ Lat. cräbro for $*_{\text {cräs-ro }}$ will thus be a grade of I.-Eur. *îeras- (Greek кє́pas-) : (3) a secondary root, formed by the addition of a stem-suffix $\bar{a}$ to the weak grade of the simple root (see Brugmann, Morph. Unt. i. p. 1; Persson, Wurzelerweiterung, p. 91), so that e.g. Lat. gnārus would show a root formed from gn-, the weak grade of the root gen-, 'to know,' by the addition of the suffix $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$, as gnōtus, gnōsco would show a root similarly formed from gn- by the addition of the suffix $\overline{0}$; Lat. lätus, 'carried,' for *tlätus, will thus be like Dor. Gk. $\begin{gathered}\text { é- } \lambda \bar{a}-\nu\end{gathered}$ from root tel-, ' to carry,' $\begin{gathered}\epsilon-\pi \tau \bar{a}-\nu \\ \text { from root pet-, 'to fly.' }\end{gathered}$

Latin $\bar{a}$ is often $\breve{a}$ lengthened by 'compensation' (§ 162), e.g. quälus for *quăs-lus (cf. quăsillus); hālo for *ăns-lo, from the root an-, ' to breathe,' with the addition of s , ans-, ' to be fragrant' (O. Sl. ąchati, ' to be fragrant'), with compound ${ }^{n} n$-hēlo from *anenslo, with change of $\breve{a}$ to $\breve{e}$ before the vowel became lengthened by 'compensation' (ch. iv. § 162). The older spelling was with $l l$ (cf. quallus, ankellus, and anhellitus in Virgil MSS.), so that the $\bar{a}$ is due to the shifting of the long quantity from the consonant to the vowel. In octävus from octō we seem to have before $v$ an $\bar{a}$ developed from an $\bar{o}$, just as in căvus we have $\breve{a} v$ for $\breve{o v}$ (§ 19).

Unaccented $\bar{a}$ remains unchanged, e.g. immänis, from an old word, mänus, good ; but when final, or when preceding final $m$, $t, r, l$, it was, like other long vowels, shortened in course of time. When final, perhaps only in iambic words, originally (ch. iii. §43), fëră, noun, pŭtŭ, imper.; but this shortening was extended to all Noms. Sing. of $\bar{A}$-stems and Noms. Accs. Plur. Neut. (see ch. vi. §§3
and 45). Thus in the declension of $\bar{A}$-stems, the 'First Declension,' final - $a$ of the Nom. Sg. is even in the earliest poetry a short vowel ; the Acc. Sg. has $-\breve{a} m$; the final syllable of the 3 Sg . Pres. Subj.Act., e. g. mittat, and Pass. mittar was shortened in the second cent. b.c.; -al (older -ăle) was also shortened (see ch. iii. §49).

In Umbro-Oscan I.-Eur. à was likewise retained (von Planta, i. p. 77), e. g. Osc. maatreís, Umbr. matrer 'matris'; Osc. fratrúm 'fratrum,' Umbr. frater 'fratres.' But final -ā became an O -sound, written in Oscan ú (in Lat. alph. o, in Gk. alph. o), in Umbr. u (in Lat. alph. o) and a, e.g. Osc. molto, Umbr. mutu and muta, ' multa' ('a fine '), Osc. víú 'via.' It is scanned (in the Neut. Pl. of an O-stem) as a short syllable by Lucilius (sollŏ, Lucil. inc. Io6 M.; cf. ch. ii. § I), so that I.-Eur. final -ā may have been modified at a very early period in the Italic languages (Latin as well as Umbro-Osc.), and the Latin shortening may not have been confined originally to iambic words (but see ch. iii. § 43).


#### Abstract

§ 2. Latin $\bar{a}$ for I.-Eur. $\bar{a}$. Other examples are ( I ) in suffixes, \&c. : I.-Eur. $\bar{a}$ of the Subjunctive, Lat. fërämus, ferätis, \&c. ; I.-Eur. noun-suffix -tāt- (e. g. O. Ind. dēvá-tāt-, 'divinity,' Dor. Gk. vє́ó- $\bar{a} \tau-$ ), Lat. nŏv̌itāt-, vŏluptāt-; I.-Eur. adjective-suffix -āko- [e.g.Ir. buadhach, 'victorious' (from buaid, 'victory'; cf. Boudicca, wrongly called by us Boadicea), Gaulish Teuto-bōdiācī, Bēn-ācus, Lith. sałdókas, 'sweetish,' O.Sl. novakŭ ; cf. Gk. v'́ā̄ $]$, Lat. mĕrācucus, vērāc-; (2) in individual words : I.-Eur. *bhrātor-, 'brother' (O.Ind.bhrátar, Gk. $\phi \rho \bar{a} \tau \omega \rho$, the member of a фратрía, O. Ir. brāthir, W. brawd, Goth. brōpar, O. Eng. bröpor, Lith. broter-êli-s), Lat. fräter ; I.-Eur. *bhāgo-, 'beech-tree' (Dor. Gk. $\phi \bar{\gamma} \gamma \dot{s}, \mathbf{O}$. Engl. bōe-trēow, 'beech tree,' bōc, 'a book,' lit. the runes scratched on a piece of beech-wood), Lat. fāgus ; I.-Eur. *swādu-, 'sweet' (0. Ind. svādú-, Dor. Gk. ádús, O. Sax. swōti), Lat. suāvis for ${ }^{*}$ suādvis ; similarly Lat. clāvis  färi, fäma, fäbula (Dor. Gk. $\phi \bar{a}-\mu$ ', O. Sl. ba-jati, 'to converse'), vātes (O. Ir. fāith, the $i$ being due to 'Infection,' that is, to the influence of an $i$, which was suppressed in pronunciation in a following syllable, from stem fāti-, I.-Eur. *wāti-).


§ 3. Ă. I.-Eur. ă is Latin $\breve{a}$. Thus I.-Eur. *ăĝō, ' I drive' (O. Ind. ájāmi, Gk. ă ${ }^{\prime} \gamma \omega$, Ir. agaim, O. Isl. aka inf.), is in Latin ăgo; its derivative, I.-Eur. *ăĝros, 'a field ' (O. Ind. ájra-s, Gk. à $\gamma \rho o ́ s$, Goth. akrs, Engl. acre), is in Latin ăger, stem ăgro-.
I.- Eur. ă varies with $\bar{a}$, and similarly Latin $\breve{a}$ with $\bar{a}$, in this root ăğ-, 'to drive' (Lat. amb-äges, Sanscr. ājí-, ‘a race, contest,' Ir. $\overline{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{g}$, 'a contest'), and in others, some of which are enumerated in § 56. The P.P. P. of $s t \overline{0}$, from root stā-, ' to stand,' is stătus (Gk.
otatós), with $\breve{a}$ for the weak grade of $\bar{a}$. Latin $\breve{a}$ (probably Eur. $\breve{a}$ ) is also the vowel of a weak grade of $\bar{o}$, e.g. in a root like dō-, 'to give' (Gk. $\delta \bar{a}-\nu o s, \delta \omega \bar{\omega}-\rho o v)$, Latin $d \breve{a}-t u s$ beside $d \bar{o}-n u m$. Like Lat. dă-tus from root dō- is Lat. să-tus from root sē-, 'to sow'; and this $\breve{a}$ seems to be an Eur. ă, a weak grade
 This I.-Eur. vowel, found in a weak grade of roots with $\bar{a}, \bar{o}, \bar{e}$, whether it was in each case $\breve{a}$, or in some or all cases was an indeterminate vowel (written a by Brugmann), appears in Latin as $\breve{a}$, stătus, dŭtus, sătus, but in O. Ind. we have ĭ in sthitás, á-di-ta 3 Sg. Aor., -dhitas P. P. P. of dhā- (I.-Eur. dhē-), 'to place.' The same O. Ind. ǐ is seen in words like I.-Eur. *pater-, O. Ind. pitár-, where in the other languages we have ă, Gk. пaтท́, O . Ir. athir, Goth. fadar, O. Engl. fæder, as $\breve{a}$ in Latin pater, probably a derivative from the root pā-, 'to protect,' with this weak-grade vowel. In other words, like Latin păteo, $\breve{a}$ seems to vary with ĕ (Gk. $\pi \epsilon \tau$ व́avvvuı); and in Latin we have a few instances of $\breve{a}$, where other languages, or kindred Latin forms, offer ĕ, frango fragilis (Goth. brikan, Engl. break), flagro (Gk. $\phi \lambda \epsilon \in \omega$ ), gradus (Goth. grips), aper (O. Engl. eofor, Germ. Eber). They are mostly cases of $\breve{a}$ with a liquid or nasal, and so admit of the explanation that they are a form of the sonant or syllabic $\mathrm{l}, \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}$ (so Osthoff, Morph. Unt. vol. v. pref.), while aper has been explained as 'a contamination' of I.-Eur. *kapro- (Gk. кá $\pi \rho o s)$ and I.-Eur. ${ }^{*}$ epro ; they have also been explained by the theory that I.-Eur. $\breve{\text { é and }}$ ŏ when pretonic became $\breve{a}$ in Latin (Wharton, Etyma Latina, p. 128). The more or less complete fusion of I.-Eur. ă and ǒ in other languages makes it impossible to be sure that this use of $a$ in words connected with ĕ-roots is not a peculiarity of Latin, or rather of the Italic languages generally (cf. Osc. patensíns, Umb. abro-), depending, it may be, on the pronunciation of Latin or Italic $a$ (see ch.ii. § I ). For Latin $\breve{a}$ for $\check{o}$, under influence of $v$, e.g. căvus, older covus, see § 19 , and for $a r$, al, an, from sonant r, l, n, §§ 8r, 92.

Unaccented Latin $\breve{a}$ in the posttonic syllable became at first $\breve{e}$, except before $l$ and labials, where it became $\check{o}$. This ĕ became, perhaps about the end of the third century b.c., $\check{\imath}$ in syllables not long by position (except when it preceded $r$ ), and before $n g$;
while this $o$ became $u$ or the $\ddot{u}$-sound, which in most cases passed into $\breve{\imath}$ at the close of the Republican period. Thus the compound of $a b$ and cado became accĕllo (so spelt by Ennius), then accŭdo; from in and arma we have the compound inermis; from sub and rapio first *surropio probably, then surrŭpio (Plaut.), then surripio; from ex and frango, effringo (see ch. iii. § 18). Final Latin $\breve{a}$ probably became $\breve{e}$, and might be dropped (see ch. iii. § 37).

In Umbro-Oscan I.-Eur. ă remains, as in Latin, e.g. Umbr. ager, 'a field,' Osc. actud 'agito' third Sg. Imperat., also I.-Eur. $a$, e.g. Osc. patereí 'patri,' Umbr. Iupater 'Juppiter' (von Planta, i. p. 75).
§ 4. I.-Eur. à. The I.-Eur. preposition *ăpŏ (O. Ind. ápa, Gk. äпo, Goth. af, Germ. ab, Engl. of) is Latin $\breve{a} p$ - of ap-ěrio, usually written $\breve{a} b$, with suppression of the final vowel; but the form pŏ- of po-situcs, from pōno for ${ }^{*} p o ̆-s i n n o, ~ s h o w s ~$ suppression of the initial vowel ; *ăd (O. Ir. ad, Goth. at, Engl. at) is Latin $\breve{a} d$. The I.-Eur. pronoun *ălyo , 'other' [Gk. ä̀ $\lambda$ os, O. Ir. aile, Gaul. Allo-broges, 'those of another country'(Schol. Juven. viii. 234), (as opposed to *Combroges, ' native,' whence Welsh Cymry), W. all-, Goth. aljis, Engl. el-se] is Latin ălius. Similarly mădeo (Gk. $\mu \alpha \delta^{\alpha} \omega$ ) ; sălio (Gk. ä̀ $\lambda o \mu a \iota$ ) ; sălix (Ir. sail, a C-stem, Bret. haleg-en, O. H. Germ. salahā, O. Engl. sealh, Engl. sallow) (but see §§ 92-94) ; dăcrŭma, later lacruma and lacrima (Gk. סáкрv, O. Ir. dêr, W. dagr, Goth. tagr, O. Eng. tēar, Germ. Zähre) ; ango, angor, angustus (O. Ind. áhas, 'need,' Gk. á $\gamma \chi \omega$, Ir. t-achtaim, W. t-agu, Lith. añksztas, 'narrow,' O. Sl. ązŭkŭ, Goth. aggvus, Germ. enge) ; arceo (Gk. àprє́ $\omega$, Arm. argel, 'hindrance'); măcer, 'thin' (Gk. $\mu$ акюо́s, long, Av. masah-, 'size,' O. H. Germ. magar, 'thin'); albus (Gk. à $\lambda \phi$ о́s, white leprosy) ; ŭnìmus, c̆ň̆ma, 'soul' (O. Ir. anim, anman Gen., 'soul,' Gk. ăv $\nu \in \mu \circ s$, wind, from root an-, 'to breathe ') ; cŭno (O. Ir. canim, W. canu, Goth. hana, 'a cock,' Engl. hen) ; ălo (Ir. alaim, W. alu, Goth. ala, ' I grow up,' Gk. ẳ $\nu-a \lambda \tau o s$, insatiate) ; ̆̆qua (Goth. ahva); scăbo (Gk. $\sigma \kappa \alpha ́ \pi \tau \omega$, Lith. skabù, 'I cut,' Goth. skaba, 'I shave,' O. Engl. scafe, Engl. shave) ; ăro (Arm. araur, 'a plough,' Gk. ápóa, O. Ir. arathar, 'a plough,' W. ar, 'tilth,' Lith. ariù, 'I plough,' O. Sl. orją, Goth. arja, Engl. to ear) ; sal- (Arm. a ${ }^{\text {a }, ~ G k . ~}$ ä $\lambda \mathrm{s}$, O. Ir. salann, W. halen, O. Sl. solĭ, Goth. salt, Engl. salt).
I.-Eur. ă or $\theta$ (see § 5 r).
ă-ŏ (see § 55) e. g. atrox and odium, acer-bus and ocris.
ă-ě (see § 6r) e.g. aser blood (Gk. $\neq a \rho$ ), sacena a priest's knife (cf. seco).

## ЕЕ, Ё.

§5. 亠̄.. I.-Eur. ē is Latin $\bar{e}$. Thus the optative-suffix, I.-Eur.
 O.Lat.siès. From the root plē-, ' to fill' (O.Ind. prä-tá- Part., 'full,' Arm. li, Gk. $\pi \lambda \eta$ '- $\rho \eta s$, O. Ir. līn, ' number,' O. Isl. fleire, 'more') comes Latin plē-nus, im-plē-tus, plērī-que,O. Lat. ex-plē-nunt; from
sē-, ' to throw, throw seed ' (Gk. ín $\mu l$ for $*_{\sigma \iota-\sigma \eta-\mu l, ~}^{\eta}-\mu a$ for ${ }^{*} s \bar{e}-\mathrm{mn}$, O. Ir. sill, ' seed,' W. hīl, Goth. mana-sēps, ' mankind,' Engl. seed, Lith. séju, 'I sow,' O. Sl. sěję, sě-mę, 'seed') Latin sē-vī, sē-men. This I.-Eur. e is often found in developments from simple roots with $\breve{e}$, as, for instance, plē-, from the simple root pĕl-, 'to fill' (Goth. filu, 'much,' O. Ir. il), or psē- (O. Ind. psā-,' 'to devour,' Gk. $\psi \hat{\eta} \nu$, to rub) from the simple root bhĕs-, (O. Ind. bhas-, 'to devour'), the $\bar{e}$ being either due to the fusion of $\breve{ }$ e with an $e$-sound, in a grade of a dissyllabic root (thus plē- would be a grade of pele-), or a stem-suffix added to the weak grade of the simple root (thus psē- is ps-, the weak grade of bhes-, with the addition of the suffix ē). The same doubt we found to exist about roots with $\bar{a}$, like ĝnā- (Lat. gnā-tus) from gen $\alpha$ - or gnn-ā- (§ I). Occasionally $\bar{e}$ became $\bar{z}$ in Latin through the influence of an $i(y)$ followed by a vowel in the next syllable, e.g. fīlius for $*_{f}$ eilius. Latin $\bar{e}$ is often $\breve{e}$, lengthened by 'compensation,' e.g. $\breve{a} n h \bar{e} l u s$ for *an-ĕnslo from *an-ănslo- (cf. hälo), written in the older orthography (in Virgil MSS.) anhellus, a spelling which indicates the lengthening of the $e$ to have been a transference of the long quantity from the consonant to the vowel. Sometimes Latin $\bar{e}$ is due to the fusion of two vowels, e.g. prëndo from prehendo, trēs from *trěyĕs (ch. vi. § 61).

In the unaccented syllable, Latin $\bar{e}$ remained unchanged, e. g. concēdo, accèdo (see ch. iii. §30). But when final, it was shortened in iambic words in course of time, so that while Plautus scans $c \breve{a} v e \check{e}$ and occasionally $c \breve{v} v e \bar{e}$, the ordinary pronunciation in Cicero's time was căvĕ only. When preceding final $m$, it was shortened like other long vowels; hence the first Pers. Sg. of the optative would be siëm in Latin, unlike Gk. eil $\nu$ for ${ }^{*}(\sigma)\left(\tau \eta l^{\prime}\right.$; and before final $-t,-r,-l$ it became (like $\bar{a}, \& c$.) a short vowel in the second century b.c. (For this shortening, see ch. iii. § 40.)

In Oscan I.-Eur ē is í (the symbol also of I.-Eur. Ĭ, § 13 ), íi (Lat. alph. i), e.g. lígatúis 'legatis,' ligud 'lege'; in Umbr. e, sometimes i, e. g. plener 'plenis,' habetu and habitu ' habeto' (von Planta, i. p. 89).

[^49]Gk. $\theta \hat{\eta} \sigma \theta a l, \theta \hat{\eta}-\lambda u s, \theta \eta-\lambda \dot{\eta}, \mathrm{O}$. Ir. dith, 'he sucked,' dinu, Pres.-Part., 'a lamb,' Goth. daddja, 'I suckle,' O. H. Germ. tāu, Lith. dè-lễ, 'a leech,' pirm-dèlề, 'young mother,' O. Sl. dě-tę, 'infant'), Latin fê-mina, fello (vulgar form of félo), $f_{i}$-lius for ffelius $^{\prime}$ I.-Eur. nē-, 'to sew, spin' (Gk. $\nu \hat{\eta} \nu, \nu \dot{\eta}-\theta \omega, \nu \hat{\eta}-\mu a, \nu \hat{\eta}-\tau \rho o \nu$, Goth. nē-pla, 'needle,' O. H. Germ. nādela, nāen, Germ. nähen), Lat. nē-re, nē-tus, nēmen ; I.-Eur. *sēmi-, 'half' (O. Ind. sāmi-, Gk. $\mathfrak{\eta} \mu c-$, O. H. Germ. sāmi-, O. Engl. sām-, Engl. sand-blind), Lat. sēmi-. Similarly Lat. rēs (0. Ind. rầ-s, 'property'); Lat. vērus (O. Ir. fīr, W. gwir, Goth. tuz-vērjan, 'to doubt,' O. Sl. věra, 'belief'); Lat. rē-ri (Goth. rēdan, 'to advise,' O. Engl. r̄̄̄dan, Engl. rede, Germ. rathen); Lat. spēs (Lith. spéti, 'to have leisure,' O. Sl. spěti, ' to advance,' Goth. spēdiza, ' later,' Germ. spät). This I.-Eur. ē is often a 'doublet' of ēi (see §47); rē-, for example, of Lat. rēs, $O$. Ind. rấ-s, is a byform of rēi-, rēy- (O. Ind. rāy-ás Gen.), and some refer the $f \bar{i}-$ of Lat. fīlius to an I.-Eur. dhī-, a grade of a root dhēi-, dhēy, 'to suckle.' That the Romans of Plautus' day regarded filius as a cognate of felo (fello) appears from a line preserved only in the Ambrosian MS., Pseud. 422 iam ille felat filius, and in Umbrian the word seems to have had the sense of 'suckling,' e. g. sif filiu trif, tref sif feliuf, 'tres sues lactentes' Acc., as well as that of 'son,' e. g. fel. for felis, 'filius' on an Umbrian epitaph. (Büch. Umbr. p. r74.) (On Praenestine file(i) a, a nurse (?), see A.L.L. ii. 482).
§ 7. ì for è. Delinnio, a byform of delēnio; Pl̄nius (dialectal?) apparently from plēnus; convīcium from root wěqū-, 'to speak' (?); suspīcio from root spëk-, 'to look,' all seem to be examples of this change of $\bar{e}$ to $\bar{\imath}$, produced by a $y$-sound in the next syllable. Filius is spelt felius on an inscription (C. I. L. xiv. ror r), and seems in Umbrian to have the $\bar{e}$-sound, spelt $e$ or $i$. On the spellings Cornilius, Aurilius, which prove the affinity of Latin $\bar{e}$ with an $i$-sound before a syllable with $y$, see ch. ii. § ir [Aurilius occurs on an inscr. of 200 b.c. (C.I.L. xiv. 4268 , with eisdim)] ; and on the spelling stilio, for stellio, a newt, see Georges, Lex Wortf. s. v. (Parodi in Stud.Ital. i. 385 gives other exx., and adds tilia, \&c.)
§8. E. I.-Eur. ĕ is Latin $\breve{e}$ : for example, in the present stem, e.g. of the root bhĕr-, I.-Eur. *bhěrō, first Pers. Sg. (O. Ind. bhárāmi, Arm. berem, Gk. $\phi \epsilon ́ \rho \omega$, O. Ir. berim, W. ad-feru Inf., Goth. baira, Engl. I bear, O. Sl. berą), Lat. fëro ; in the Neuter ES-stem, e.g. of root ĝĕn-, I.-Eur. *ĝ̌nos, Nom. Sg. (O. Ind. jánas, Gk. 又'́vos, O. Ir. gein), Lat. gĕnus; in the numeral 'ten,' I.-Eur. *děk̂km (O. Ind. dáš́a, Gk. סє́ка, O. Ir. deich, W. deg, Goth. taihun, O. H. G. zehan, Lith. dẽszimt, O. Sl. desętǐ), Lat. dĕcem.

Latin em, en may represent I.-Eur. m, n, the sonant or syllabic nasal, e.g. I.-Eur. *îmbtom (or *îemtom), O. Ind. šatám, Gk. éкатóv, O. Ir. cēt, W. cant, Goth. hund, Lith. szim̃tas, O. Sl. sŭto), Lat. centum (see §81). I.-Eur. ěw became $\check{o} v$ in Latin, which in the unaccented syllable passed into $u$, e.g. nŏvus (Gk. v́́os) and dē-nuo, and similarly I:-Eur. wě became $\breve{\text { o }}$, e. g. sŏror for I.-Eur. swĕsor-, in certain circumstances (see below), and I.-Eur. el became $\breve{o l} l(\breve{u} l)$ except before $e, i$ or in the group ell, e.g. vŏlo, but vělim, velle. Latin ĕ became $i$ before $n g$, e. g. tingo (Gk. $\tau \in \gamma \gamma \omega$ ),
before gn, e. g. dignus from decet (? see§ I 19), just as in the Teutonic languages ě has become $\check{1}$ before a nasal and a consonant, e.g. Engl. ' wind.' It became $i$ also in open unaccented syllables, except when final, or when preceding $r$, but passed into a $u$-sound before $l$ or a labial. Thus the compound of nĕco was $\bar{e}-n \check{c} c o$ (later spelt епесо), the ordinal of дӗсет was dёсйтия, class. decimus (ch.iii.§ 18).

Latin $\breve{e}$ sometimes represents ei (ĕy) before a vowel, e.g. $\breve{\text { e o }}$ from the I.-Eur. root ei-, 'to go,' on which see § 63. Final Latin $\breve{e}$ may represent any I.-Eur. short vowel, as may also $e$ in unaccented syllables before $r$ or a consonant-group, e. g. pĕ-pĕr-i from părio, an-ceps from căput (see ch. iii. § 18). Final - $\breve{c}$ was often dropped, e.g. nĕc for nĕqŭ̆, exemplăr, older exemplāre, as $\breve{e}$ (and $\check{\imath}$ ) in the middle of a word might be suppressed by syncope, e.g. surgo for sub-rĕgo (see ch. iii. § 13). On the substitution of - $\breve{r}$ - for -rı̈- in ter, older terr (cf. terr-uncius) for *ters, I.-Eur. *trǐs, \&c., see ch. iii. § 5 5. 8. I.-Eur. ĕ remains in Umbro-Oscan, though before some consonants it appears as 1 , e.g. Osc. estud 'esto,' Umbr. fertu 'ferto.' The change to ŏ before lis apparently unknown. (For particulars, see von Planta, i. p. 83.)
§ 9 . Latin ě for I.-Eur. è. I.-Eur. -ě in the Voc. Sg. of 0 -stems ( 0 . Ind. vŕ̛ka, Gk. $\lambda$ v́rє , Lith. vilkè, O. Sl. vlŭče) is Latin -ě of lupĕ, \&c., as in the Imperative 2 Sg. Act., e. g. *ăĝé (O. Ind. ája, Gk. ärє) Lat. ăgĕ, dro pped in dic, $d \bar{u} c, f u ̆ c\left(c h . i i i . \S 3^{6}\right)$; the conjunction ' and,' I.-Eur. *qüĕ ( 0 . Ind. ca, Gk. $\boldsymbol{\tau \epsilon}$ ) is Latin quĕ, with -ĕ dropped in nĕc for nĕquĕ, \&c. ; the first personal pronoun (O. Ind. ahám, Arm. es, Gk. '̇ $\gamma \dot{\prime}$, Goth. ik, O. Eng. ic, Lith. àsz, O.Sl. azŭ) is in Latin ĕgo. Other examples are Lat. nĕbŭla (Gk. vєфє́ $\lambda \eta$, $\mathbf{O}$. Ir. nēl from *neblo-, W. nifwl, O. H. Germ. nebul, Germ. Nebel) ; Lat. sĕquor ( 0 . Ind. sác-, Gk. ${ }^{\epsilon} \pi \boldsymbol{\pi} \mu a t$, O. Ir. sechur, Lith. sekù) ; Lat. ět (Gk. éctı) ; Lat. mëdius (O. Ind. mádhya-, Gk. $\mu$ '́ $\sigma \sigma o s, ~ \mu \notin \sigma o s, G o t h . ~ m i d j i s, ~ O . ~ I r . ~ m e d o ̄ n, ~ ' t h e m i d d l e, ' ~ O . S l . ~ m e z ̌ d a ; ~$ Lat. ëquus (O. Ind. ášva-, O. Ir. ech, Gaul. Epo-rēdia, W. ebol, 'a colt,' Goth. aihva-tundi, 'a bush,' lit. 'horse-tooth,' O. Engl. eoh, Lith. aszvà 'a mare'); Lat. věho ( 0 . Ind. vah-, Pamphyl. Gk. F'є́ $\chi \omega$, Ir. fēn from *wegno-, 'a waggon,' Goth. ga-viga, 'I move,' Germ. be-wege, Lith. vežù, $\mathbf{O}$. Sl. vezą).
§ 10. ǒ for è with w and 1. I.-Eur. *něwṇ (O. Ind. náva, Gk. $̇ \nu \nu \in ́ \in a$ for ${ }^{*} \stackrel{\nu}{\boldsymbol{\nu}-\nu \epsilon} \mathrm{Fa}$, Ir. nōi, W. naw, Goth. niun) is in Latin nŏvem; I.-Eur. *něwo(O. Ind. náva, Gk. véos, O. Ir. nūe from ${ }^{*}$ nowio-, Gaul. Novio-dūnum, W. newydd) is Lat. norvus, Novius, while in the unaccented syllable we see $\breve{u}$ for I.-Eur. ew in dēnŭo. (For other examples of this $u$, see ch. iii. § 24.) The change of $\check{e}$ to $\begin{aligned} \\ \text { before } \\ w\end{aligned}$, which is shared by the Celtic languages (e.g. Gaul. Noviodunum, $O$. Ir. nūe for *nowio-, W. newydd from *nawydd for *nowio- from I.-Eur. *něwio-, cf. Gk. vetós, Goth. niujis ; O.-Ir. nōi, W. naw from I.-Eur. *newn), and by the Balto-Slavic (e. g. Lith. tãvas for I.-Eur. *téwo-, Gk. $r \epsilon(F)$ ós ; O. Sl. novŭ for I.-Eur. *něwo-, Gk. $\nu \in(F) o s)$, does not affect the ev (Latin ev, but not I.-Eur. -ew-) of words like le̛vis (Gk. $\boldsymbol{t}-\lambda a \chi u{ }^{\prime \prime} s$ ), sěverrus,
apparently from root sěĝh-, brěvis (Gk. Bpaxús), so that the law of change must have ceased to operate before these words assumed in Latin this form. It is like the change of the diphthong eu to ou in the Italic, Celtic, and BaltoSlavic languages, e. g. O. Lat. douco for I.-Eur. *deukō (Goth. tiuha) (see §35).
I.-Eur. swě- appears as sŏ- in Latin, e.g. I.-Eur. *swĕsor- (O. Ind. svásar-, Gk. $\xi^{\epsilon} o \rho-\epsilon s, 0$. Ir. siur, and after a vowel fiur, W. chwaer, Goth. svistar, Lith. sesư, O. Sl. sestra) is in Latin sŏror ; I.-Eur. *swêkeŭro- (O. Ind. Šváśsura-, Gk. Fєкvó́s, W. chwegrwn, O. H. Germ. swehur, Germ. Schwäher, Lith. szeszuras, O. Sl. svekrŭ) is Lat. söcer ; I.-Eur. *swěpno- ( 0 . Ind. svápna-, O. Scand. svefn, 0. Engl. swefen) is Lat. sŏmnus for *sŏpnus; cf. sŏpor. I.-Eur. k̂wĕ is said to appear as cŏ- in Latin in combr-ètum, a bulrush (Lith. szveñdrai Plur.) from a stem k̂wĕndhro-, though this may stand for *quombr-ètum with the 0 -grade of stem (see § 137) ; förem seems to represent dissyllabic *fwěrem. But $\begin{gathered} \\ \text { of dwĕ- }\end{gathered}$ remains, e. g. bellum, older duellum, bĕnĕ (cf. older Duenos). Quë from I.-Eur. $q^{\text {ưe }}$, kwĕ, \&c. remains, and does not become co, e. g. -quĕ (I.-Eur. quĕ), quĕror from kw-ĕs- (cf. Gk. $\kappa \omega \kappa v i \omega$ ), though quo became co in course of time, e.g. collo, the O. Lat. form of which was quolo, as in the old inscription of the Faliscan 'collegium cocorum,' written in rude Saturnians, and with equally rude spelling (Zvetaieff, Inscr. Ital. Inf. 72 a) :
> gonlegium quod est aciptum aetatei aged [ai], opiparum ad ueitam quolundam festosque dies, quei soueis astutieis opidque Uolgani gondecorant saipisume comuiuia loidosque,
> ququei huc dederunt inperatoribus summeis (i. e. Jupiter, Juno and Minerva)
> utei sesed lubentes beneiouent optantis,

where also coqui is written ququei (so qolunt for colunt in the Plautus Palimpsest in Pseud. 822). The compound inquilinnus, with -quï- for quö- in the unaccented syllable, was formed before the change from quo to $c$, and being a legal term kept its old spelling, unlike incolla, (but see p. 229). That quŏ had come to sound like cŏ as early as the beginning of the second cent. в. c., we may infer from the spelling in oquoltod, for in occulto, on the S. C. de Bacchanalibus (C. I. L. i. 196) of 186 в. c.; for occŭlo must be connected with cello, which has not the $q^{\text {n }}$ - guttural (cf. Ir. cělim, W. cělu with the ë-grade of the same root). The analogy of quam, quem, \&c. would preserve the spelling quom till a late date, though the word was probably pronounced $*$ com, for the preposition, I.-Eur. *kŏm or *kŏm, is usually spelt quom till the time of the Gracchi (Bersu, Gutturale, p. 42) ; and similarly loquontur, \&c. would be written after the fashion of löquantur, loquentur, with quo; so that it is not until the fifth cent. A. D. that every $q u \frac{\check{o}}{}$ has assumed the spelling co, e. g. cot, cörum, coque (the conjunction), condam (the adverb), locor (Bersu, p. 90). The form quotidie is censured by Quintilian (i. 7. 6 frigidiora his alia ut . . ' quotidie,' non cotidie, ut sit quot diebus: verum haec jam etiam inter ipsas ineptias evanuerunt), by Velius Longus (79. 16 K . illos vitiose et dicere et scribere [qui potius] per 'quo' 'quotidie' dicunt quam per 'co' cotidie, cum et dicatur melius et scribatur. non enim est a quoto die 'quotidie' dictum, sed a continenti die cotidie tractum), and by Marius Victorinus [13. 21 K. nam concussus quamvis a quatio habeat originem, et cocus a coquendo (v.l. quo-
quendo), et cotidie a quoto die, et incola ab inquilino, attamen per c quam per qu scribuntur]. Cottidie and cotidie are the spellings of the best MSS., and are found on inscriptions (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.), though no doubt the older spelling would have quo-.

Lat. vo- became ve- (see Solmsen, Stud. Lat. Lautg. p. i) in the middle of the second cent. b. c. Quintilian tells us that Scipio Africanus (Minor) was credited by tradition with this ehange of orthography (i. 7. 25 quid dicam 'vortices' et 'vorsus,' ceteraque in eundem modum, quae primus Scipio Africanus in e litteram secundam vertisse dicitur?). (On these spellings in inscriptions, see Brambach, Orth. p. rог.) The MSS. of Plautus show the older spellings vorto, vorsus, and compounds, voster, voto (I-Eur. gn-), -vorro; and invorto, divorsi, vortex are found even in the MSS. of Augustan poets, like Virgil. The grammarians of the Empire sometimes advised the retention of these forms for the sake of distinctions, e. g. Caper, 99. II K. vortex fluminis est, vertex capitis; 97 . 15 vorsus paginae dicetur, versus participium est a verbo vertor. One of the o-forms indeed, vŏster, was retained to the last (perhaps by analogy of vōs, or of nŏster) in Vulgar Latin (cf. Roumanian vostru, Ital. vostro, Fr. vôtre), as o was retained in classical vŏco (by analogy of $\overline{\bar{o} x}$ ?), vŏmo, vŏro (I.-Eur. gñ-). $O$ was retained before single $l$ and $l$ before another consonant, e. g. volo, to wish, volo, to fly, vola, hollow of hand, volvo, volnus, later vulnus, \&c., and before $v$, e.g. voveo; though Cassiodorus, a doubtful authority, makes convollere the old spelling of convellere (149. 17 K.). Vollăterrae for Etruscan Vela日ri, Vollumnius for Etruscan Velimna cannot be quoted to prove that Latin vč- was ever pronounced wŏ-. They exemplify the phonetic law that $\check{l} l$ became $\begin{aligned} & \text { oll in Latin (see below). There is no evidence that věho }\end{aligned}$ was ever *ooho, or Věnus *Vonus, or vĕntus *vontus, or věru *voru, \&c. The old spelling vorto (I.-Eur. *wěrtō, Goth. wairpa) probably belongs to a period when vo- had come to take the sound of ve- and was occasionally used as a symbol of this sound (ch. viii. §8); it has also been referred to the analogy of the P. P. P. vorsus (I.-Eur. *wṛt-to-), where Lat. or represents I.-Eur. r.
$O i$ may similarly have become $e i$ after $v$, so that vidi may represent an I.-Eur. *woidai ( 0 . Sl. vědě ; cf. Gk. oî $\alpha$, ch. viii. § 39) ; but the appearance of $\check{\text { ě beside }}$ ŏ in Latin in words like amplector, 0. Lat. amploctor (Prisc. i. p. 25. 15 H.; cf. below ch. viii. § 33) is better referred to the same 'variation' (Ablaut) as that seen in tego beside toga, procus beside precor, \&c., on which see § 5 r .
$E l$ is found in the group ell, e. g. velle, vellem (that $l l$ had a more 'exilis' sound than $l$, in technical language was 'front-modified,' is attested by the grammarians,ch.ii. § 96), and before e, $i(y)$; butin other circumstances it seems that the character of Latin $l$ so asserted itself as to change $e$ to o, e. g. volo, though there are a few exceptions to the rule, and not very many instances ${ }^{1}$. Thus the Greek ${ }^{\dot{\epsilon}} \lambda \boldsymbol{\lambda a i}(F) \bar{a}$, when adopted by the Romans (in the period of the Tarquins, Plin. Nat. Hist. xv. 1), became *olaiva, then $*_{o l e i v a ~(§ ~ 27), ~ o l i v a . ~}^{\text {a }}$ A following $e$ - or $i$-vowel prevents the change, e.g. vetim, metior. The older type of declension hollus, *hĕleris (from *heleses) has left traces of itself in holus, holeris and O. Lat. helus (Paul. Fest. 71. 13 Th. 'helus' et 'helusa' antiqui

[^50]dicebant, quod nuncholus et holera ; cf. the gloss 'helitores' hortolani Löwe, Prodr. p. 339), but *scollus has not survived beside scelleris. Before a consonant $e l$ became ol (ul § 17) (on the pronunciation of $l$ before a cons., see ch. ii. § 96 ), e. g. vult, older volt. (On gelu, helvus, sěmel, celsus, and for other instances of the change to ol, see Osthoff, Dunkles $u$. helles ' $l$ ' im Lat.). Inquilìnus may thus represent an older *enquelino-, incŏla an older *enquolā-, both from an early quël-.
§ 11 . i for (accented) e. Other examples are : before ng, Lat. lingua, older dingua from I.-Eur. dụghn- (O. Ir. tenge, W. tafod, Goth. tuggō) ; Lat. inguen from I.-Eur. ng $g^{\text {n. }}$ (Gk. ả $\left.\delta \dot{\eta} \nu\right)$; Lat. stringo, I bind, draw tight ( O . Ir. srengim, 'I draw'); Lat. septingenti, confringo, attingo, \&c. for*septengenti, *confrengo, *attengo, \&c. ; before gn, ignis from I.-Eur. *ngni- (O. Ind. agní-, Lith. ugnìs, O. Sl. ognï) ; Ignatius, a late spelling of Egnatius (see Schuchardt, Vok. i. 334); ilignus and iligneus from $\bar{u} l e x$, but abiēgnus (with $\bar{e}$, according to Priscian, i. p. 82. 8 H.) from abbies; the old religious term for a sheep, brought with its two lambs to the sacrifice, is given by Paul. Fest. as ambegna (4. 7 Th . 'ambegni' bos et vervex appellabantur, cum ad eorum utraque latera agni in sacrificium ducebantur), but in Glossaries as ambigna (Mai, vi. p. 506 b. 'ambignae,' oves ex utraque parte agnos habentes; and 'ambignae,' oves quas Junoni offerebant, quia geminos parerent), while the MSS. of Varro give ambiegna, which may indicate a correction of ambegna to ambigna (L. L. vii. 3r 'ambiegna' bos apud augures, quam circum aliae hostiae constituuntur). We have sim- for sem- (I.-Eur. $\mathrm{sm}-, \mathrm{Gk} . \dot{a}-\pi \lambda$ óos, \&c.), in simplus, simplex, simpludiarea funera (quibus adhibentur duntaxat ludi corbitoresque, Fest. 498. 24 Th.) as well as singuli, sincerus, sincinia (cantio solitaria, Paul. Fest. 500. 23 Th.) and in simul, older semul (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.), sirmilis, simītu, but $e$ does not become $i$ before mpl of templum, nor before $n c$ in jŭvencus, and Umbrian sumel, Gk. $\dot{\delta} \mu \lambda$ ós, \&c. suggest that the sim- of similis and its cognates is I.-Eur. som-, and has the $\ddot{u}$-sound of sǔmus, written also simus, lübet later lỉbet (see ch. ii. § r6) ; sincǐput is derived from sëmicaput by Velius Longus (78. 18 K.), \&c. On the quantity and quality of the vowel $i$ before $g n$ in dignus, \&c., see ch. ii. § 144 . The I.-Eur. word for
 סov $a$, cinqfoil, O. W. pimp, Goth. fimf, Lith. penkì, O. Sl. pętĭ) is in Latin quinque [with long $i$ indicated both by inscriptions and by the Romance forms, a quantity which has been referred to the influence of quin (c)tus ( $K . Z . \mathbf{x x x}$. 50I) (see ch. ii. § 144)]. In rustic and dialectal Latin e before $r c$ became $i$, e.g. Mircurios, Mirqurios (C.I.L. i. 1500 and 59, both from Praeneste), stircus (C. I. L. ix. 782, from Luceria, in Apulia on the borders of Samnium), commircium, mentioned as an older form by Velius Longus ( 77.12 K . 'mium' et 'commircium' quoque per i antiquis relinquamus, apud quos aeque et 'Mircurius' per i dicebatur, quod mirandarum rerum esset inventor, ut Varro dicit. nostris jam auribus placet per e, ut et Mercurius et commercia dicantur). The $i$ of country-terms like hirsutus, hirtus, \&c. (apparently from root ghers-, 'to be rough,' whence Lat. horreo, hordeum, \&c.) may be explained by this dialectal pronunciation of stircus for stercus, \&c. (cf. Osc. amiricatud 'immercato'). In other positions than before $r$ c, \&c. the 'rustic' pronunciation seems to have substituted e for $i$ (ut iota litteram tollaset'e plenissimum dicas,Cic. de Orat.iii. 12. 46) (cf. above, ch. ii. § 17). To this confusion is perhaps due the uncertainty in the spelling of country-terms like filix or felix, a fern (the latter approved by Caper, p. 106. r K. ; see Georges s. v.), fiber and fêber, a beaver, from I.-Eur. bhěbhr- (see Georges) ; but the byforms pinna and penna, vigeo and vegeo, villus
M. and vellus N . have not yet been satisfactorily explained. Levir, a brother-in-law, a word only found in late Latin writers, and so misspelt with ē for $a e$ (see § 28), from I.-Eur. *daiwer- (Gk. סañp, Lith. dëverìs) takes $i$ by anal. of vir. (On other byforms due to the late Latin identification of $\check{\imath}$ with $\bar{e}$, and to the change of $\breve{c}$ to $\breve{\imath}$ in unaccented syllables, see ch. ii. § 6).

## $\overline{\mathbf{I}}, \stackrel{\check{I}}{ }$.

§ 12. $\overline{\mathbf{I}}$. I.-Eur. i has been faithfully retained by the various languages in almost all circumstances, and is in Latin $\bar{\imath}$, though often written in O. Lat. $e i$, after the I.-Eur. ei-diphthong had come to take the sound of $\bar{\imath}$ (ch. i. § 9). The diphthong $\epsilon \iota$ in Greek developed to the same sound (thus ${ }_{\epsilon} \tau \epsilon \iota \sigma a$, the proper spelling, became ${ }^{\prime \prime} \tau \bar{\tau} \sigma a$ ), so that in Greek also $\epsilon \iota$ was in course of time often written for $\bar{i}$, e.g. $\pi 0 \lambda \epsilon i \neq \eta s$, and Ulfilas adopted this symbol $e i$ for the long $i$-sound of Gothic. For examples of I.-Eur. i we may take the adjective-suffix in -ino- (O. Ind. nav-ína-, 'new,' Gk. $\dot{a} \gamma \chi \iota \sigma \tau-i \nu 0 s$, often with names of animals, e.g. корак-ivos, $\delta \in \lambda \phi а к-\frac{i}{\nu} \eta$, xoเ--ív $\eta$, Goth. gulp-eins, O. H. G. guld-in, Engl. gold-en, Goth. sv-ein, O. Engl. sw-īn, Engl. swine, O. Sl. mater-inŭ, ' motherly,' sv-inŭ), in Latin su-īnus, dīv-īuus, \&c.; the optative-suffix ì (varying with yè, ch. viii. §55) (O. Ind. dviṣī̀-máhi, Gk. єî̀̄єî $\mu \in v$ from $\epsilon i \delta \epsilon(\sigma)-\bar{i}-\mu \epsilon \nu$, Goth. vil-ei-ma) in Lat. $s-\bar{i}-m u s$; the adjective *guīwo-, ‘alive,' (O. Ind. jīvá-, Lith. gývas, O. Sl. živŭ, O. Ir. biu, W. byw) in Lat. vìvus, in old spelling veivos; Lat. vìs (Gk. ìs, î-фı) ; Lat. vīrus (Gk. iós for *Fī $\sigma o s$ ), Lat. vītex (Gk. ì $\begin{gathered} \\ \epsilon\end{gathered} a$ and $\epsilon i \tau \epsilon ́ a$, Eng. withy, Lith. výtis). I.-Eur. ì is usually a grade of an ei-root, and it is often difficult to say whether Lat. $\bar{\imath}$ represents the $\overline{1}$-grade or the ei-grade.

After $\breve{\imath}$, Latin $\bar{\imath}$ appears as $\bar{e}$ in $l a ̆ n i-\bar{e} n a$ for *lani-īna, \&c. (cf.
 tas, \&c. (see ch. v. § 83). Latin $\bar{\imath}$ represents I.-Eur. ei in $d \bar{\imath} c o$ (O. Lat.deico, Gk. $\delta \epsilon i \kappa-\nu \bar{v}-\mu \iota)$, ad-dīco, \&c., $f \bar{\imath} \imath l o\left(G k . \pi \epsilon i \theta \omega\right.$ for $\left.{ }^{*} \phi \epsilon \epsilon \theta \omega\right)$, con-fīdo, \&c. (see ch. viii. § 6), and has come from $\breve{\imath}$ lengthened by compensation in words like $n \bar{d} d u s$ for ${ }^{*} n i s d o-\left({ }^{*} n i z d o-\right) ~(A r m . ~$ nist, 'situation,' Engl. nest). In the unaccented syllable it may represent older $e i$ (Latin $e i$, not I.-Eur. ei), viz. an I-diphthong whose first element has been weakened; as in con-cido, older con-ceido, from caedo, older caido, and in the final syllable of Perfects like $t \breve{u}-t \breve{u} d-\bar{\imath}$ (older -ei) (O. Ind. tu-tud-ề), which have the
I.-Eur. i Sg. Perf. Middle ending -ai (-ai) (ch. viii. § 66); oi in the final syllable of Noms. Plur. of O-stems like populi (oldest Lat. poploe, then populei, ch. vi. §40). V̄̄̀ $d \bar{\imath}$, older veidei, from I.Eur. *woidai ( O . Sl. vědě) shows vei-, a development of an older voi-, as versus (I.-Eur. *wṛt-to-) shows ver-, a development of an $^{\text {a }}$ older vor- (§ io). On the use of $\bar{e}$ for Lat. $\bar{\imath}$ (perhaps properly only I.-Eur. ei) in rustic Latin, e. g. speca, vella, see ch. ii. § I7, and cf. below, § 32 ; on $\bar{\imath}$ for è in filius, § 7. I.-Eur. ì remains in Umbro-Osc. and is written in the Oscan alphabet ií or i (in Lat. alph. $i$ ), in Umbr. i (in Lat. alph. $i$ and $e i$ ), e. g. Osc. límitú [m ' līmitum,' Umbr. si, sir, sei, 'sit' (see von Planta, i. p. IO2).
§ 13. Ĭ. I.-Eur. Ĭ is Latin $\breve{\imath}$, sometimes written in Old Latin $e$ (e. g. Tempestatebus on a Scipio epitaph), after unaccented $\breve{e}$ had come to take the $\breve{\imath}$-sound (see also ch. iii. § 18). The I.-Eur. pronoun *ั̌- (O. Ind. i-d-ám Neut., Goth. is Masc., ita Neut., Engl. it) is Lat. $\iota_{s} \mathrm{M}$., $\check{\imath} d \mathrm{~N} . ;$ the pronoun * $\mathrm{k} \check{-}-$, ' this' (Goth hi-mma Dat., hi-drē Adv., Engl. him, hither, Lith. szìs, O. S. sĭ) appears in Latin čss, č̆tr a; the interrogative and indefinite pronoun *quĭ (O. Ind. ci-d, Gk. $\tau i(\delta)$, O. Sl. čč-to) is Latin quŭs M., quŭd N. (cf. Umbr. pis) ; from the root mĭn-, 'to lessen,' from the primary root mei- (O. Ind. minốmi, Gk. $\mu \nu v v^{\prime}-\theta \omega$, Goth. mins Adv., O. Sl. mĭnjijĭ Adj.) we have Lat. mı̆nuo, mĭnor.
I.-Eur. y is generally the weak grade of the diphthong ei (as minn- from mei-, 'to lessen'), and so in Latin, e. g. in-dŭco beside dīco (older deico), füdes (cf. Gk. $\left.{ }^{\ell}-\pi \iota \theta-o v\right)$ beside fī̀lo, older feido (cf. Gk. $\pi \epsilon^{i} \theta \omega$ for $\left.{ }^{*} \phi \epsilon \epsilon \theta \omega\right)$. For ǐ varying with ì, e.g. I.-Eur. *wĭro, 'a man,' see §58. Latin $\breve{\imath}$ may represent any short vowel in an unaccented syllable, not long by position, e.g. conč̆no for con-cano, dīlŭgo for dilego, inquül̄nus for *inquolinus, quidlübet for quidlubet (whence libet for lubet, ch. ii. § 16). In an unaccented syllable long by position $\check{\imath}$ became $\breve{e}$, e. g. ind $\breve{e} x$ beside ind̆̌co, jüd $d e ̆ x$ beside
 in an open unaccented syllable before $r$, e.g. čnn-er-is from cinis, and also when final, e.g. mărĕ but"maria, mari-ť̆mus; lĕv̆̆, Neut. of levis (contrast Gk. ì $\delta \rho$, , Neut. of $\grave{\delta} \delta \rho \iota s$ ), rurĕ, Loc. of $r \bar{u} s$, in which case it may be dropped, e. g. ănı̆măl for animāle, Neut. of animälis. Latin -rir-in the unaccented syllable, when preceded by a con-
sonant, became $\breve{e r}$, e.g. $\check{c}$ cerbus for *acrŭ-bus from *acrŭ-dho(Lith. asztrùs, O. Sl. ostrŭ), incertus for *incrĭtus (Gk. à-крıтоs); and apparently this may occur in the accented syllable too, e.g. ter, properly tĕrs (cf. terr-uncius) for *tĕrs from *trǔs (Gk. т $\rho$ ís), testis for *trü-stis (cf. Oscan trístaamentud, in Lat. testāmentō Abl.) (but see ch. iii. § 15. 8). Similarly for -ľ̆-, when, through syncope, the $l$ has to play the part of a vowel (sonant or syllabic $l$ ), as is seen in our ' able,' and more clearly in French able, we find $\breve{u} l$ (older $\breve{b} l$ ) in Latin, e.g. fŭcultas for $*_{f a c l(\breve{\imath}) t a s}$ beside facilitas, simultas for $* \operatorname{siml}(\breve{\imath}) t a s$ beside sümŭlŭtas.

After $i$ we find $\breve{e}$ not $\breve{\imath}$ in sŏcietas, anxietas, \&c., beside prŏbŭtas, castŭtas, \&c. (cf. Engl. yě- for yĭ- in 'yet,' 'yes'), as we find lănièna beside tonstrīna (§ I2). In Oscan I.-Eur. Ǐ is í (in Lat. alph. $i$, in Gr. $\epsilon i$ ); in Umbr. it is i (Lat.alph. $i$ ), but in O. Umbr. often e ; e.g. Osc. pís, Umbr. pis 'quis' (von Planta, i. p. 96).
§ 14. Other examples of Lat. ĭ for I.-Eur. ì. The -ĭs- of the I.-Eur. Super-
 appears in Latin măg-is-ter (in O. Lat. written magester according to Quintilian, i. 4. 17 quid? non e quoque iloco fuit? 'Menerua' et 'leber 'et ' magester' et ' Diove Victore,' non Diovi Victori), min-is-ter. The weak grade of an ei-root is seen in I.-Eur. trǐ- from root trei-, 'three' (O. Ind. trǐ-ṣ̆ú Loc., Gk. $\tau \rho t-\sigma$ ', Goth. pri-m Dat., Lith. tri-sè Loc., O. Sl. trï-chŭ) and Latin trǐ-bus, though in ter, terni, \&c. there is the usual change of -ri- to -er-; Lat.piscis (Goth. fisks), while O. Ir. iasg from *peisco-shows the ei-grade ; Lat. video (O. Ind.vid-má, i Pl., Hom. Gk. Fi $\delta-\mu \epsilon \nu$, W. gwedd, 'aspect,' Goth. vit-um, r Pl., Engl. wit, Germ. wissen) from root weid-, 'to see, know,' with Perfect-stem woid- (Gk. oiiסa) ; Lat. fïd-i, findo (O. Ind. bhid-), 'to split,' Goth. bitum, I Pl. Pret., Engl. bit, Germ. bissen), from root bheid- (Goth. beitan, Engl. to bite, Germ. beissen).
i in the unaccented syllable. See ch. iii. § i8 for other instances.
§ 15. iě, not iǐ. Other examples are pietas, sătietas, ébrietas and other derivatives in -tat-from io-adjective stems, ŭrietis, übietis, \&c., văriego, \&c. beside lēv̌̆go, \&c., hietare, and the earlier spellings conieciant, proiecitad, inieciatis, traiěcere, \&c. (see ch. iii. § 18, p. 188).

$$
\overline{\mathbf{O}}, \mathrm{O} \text {. }
$$

§ 16. $\overline{0}$. I.-Eur. $\bar{o}$ is Latin $\bar{o}$. Thus the I.-Eur. root pō-, ' to drink' (O. Ind. pā-, pá-na-, Noun, Gk. $\pi \epsilon \in-\pi \omega-\kappa a, ~ a ̆ \mu-\pi \omega-\tau \iota s$, the ebb, Aeol. $\pi \omega \dot{\omega}-\nu \omega$, Lith. pü-ta) is Latin $p \bar{o}-$ of $p \bar{o}-t o$, $p \bar{o}-t u s, ~ p \bar{o}-c u l u m$; dō-, 'to give' (O. Ind. dá-na- and dá-ti-, 'a gift,' Arm. tur, Gk. ס̂̀$\rho o v$ and $\delta \omega \tau i v \eta$, Lith. dů-tis, O. Sl. da-rŭ, dan-ŭ, P.P.P.; in Celtic, the I.-Eur. word for 'gift' has taken the sense of 'an accomplishment,' O. Ir. dān, W. dawn) is in Latin dō̄-num, dō-s. On
§§ 14-17.] REPRESENTATIVES OF I.-EUR. SOUNDS. O, Ǒ. 233
the other hand, I.-Eur. $\bar{o}$ is often a grade of $\check{\text { e }}$ or $\bar{e}$ (e.g. Gk. $\pi \omega \tau$ áo $\mu a \iota$ from root $\pi \epsilon \tau-$, $\kappa \lambda \omega^{\prime} \psi$, a thief, from $\kappa \lambda \epsilon \epsilon \pi \tau \omega, \theta \omega \mu o ́ s$ from $\tau i \not \theta \eta \mu \iota)$ (see $§ § 5 \mathrm{I}, 53$ ). A root like ĝnō- (Gk. $\gamma \nu \omega \tau o ́ s$, Lat. $n \bar{o} t u s$, older $£ n o ̄ t u s, g n o \overline{s c o}$ ) beside gen-, admits of being explained either as an addition of the suffix - $\overline{-}$ - to the weak grade gn-, or as a grade of a dissyllabic root geno-, so that gnötus from genowould be like $g^{2} n \bar{a} r u s$ from gen $a-$, \&c. (§ i ).

Latin $\bar{o}$ sometimes represents an $\breve{b}$ lengthened by 'compensation,' e. g. pōno from *pŏ-s(i)no (cf. pŏ-š̆tus) ; sometimes it is due to crasis, e. g. cōpula for *co-apula, cōmluro for co-amb-uro (see ch. ii. § I49) ; sometimes it is the 'rustic' development of Latin ou, which in standard Latin became $\bar{u}$, e. g. rōbus for *rubus (cf. rülidus) from I.-Eur. reudh- (Goth. raups) (see § 4I); sometimes it is the 'rustic' form of au, e. g. plōstrum, a byform of plaustrum, from plaudo (ch. ii. §37). But $\bar{o}$ is also found to vary with $a u$ in Latin, when both are sprung from an original ou, e.g. ōsculum, ausculum (ib.).

In unaccented syllables $\bar{o}$ remained unaltered, e.g. con-dōno and co-gnossco, but final - $\bar{o}$ became shortened in course of time (see ch. iii. § 45). Octārus from octō(I.-Eur. *ôktō, *ôktōu) appears to show $\bar{a} v$ for ōw, as cavus shows $\breve{a} v$ for ǒw (§ 19). Fūr, cūr (O. Lat. quōr) seem to represent an I.-Eur. *bhōr (Gk. $\phi \dot{\rho} \rho$, p. 254), *qū̄-r (Lith. kur̃, 'where,' for *kůr, ch. x. § io), and $n \bar{o} n$ to stand for $*_{n \bar{u} n, \text { a development of noen }(u m)(\mathrm{ch} . ~ х . ~ § ~ i ~ 8) . ~}^{\text {d }}$
I.-Eur. $\bar{o}$ is in Osc. u, uu (in Lat.alph. u), but the endings - $\overline{\mathrm{s}}$, , $-\overline{\mathrm{o}}$ appear in Osc. as -ús, -úd (with ú, the symbol of I.-Eur. ǒ); e.g. d]uunated 'dōnavit,' dunum 'dōnum,' Abellanús 'Abellani' Nom. Plur., Búvaianúd 'Boviano' Abl. Sg. In Umbr. it is usually o (in Lat. alph., for the native alphabet writes $u$ for both the U -sound and the O -sound, ch. i. § I ), but - $\overline{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{R}$ appears as -ur, e.g. nome 'nōmen,' postro 'retrō,' arsferture 'adfertōri' (see von Planta, i. p. II6).
§ 17. Ǒ. I.-Eur. ǒ is Latin (accented) ŏ, e. g. I.-Eur. *ŏk̂tō, ' eight' (O. Ind. aş̧ṭá, Arm. ut', Gk. óкт由', O. Ir. ocht, W. wyth, Goth. ahtau, O. Engl. eahta, Lith. asztůnì, O. Sl. osmĭ), Lat. ठ̆ctō; I.-Eur. *pǔti-, 'master' (O. Ind. páti-, Gk. тóvıs, Goth. brūp-faps, 'bridegroom,' O. Engl. fadian, ' to arrange,' Lith. pàts, vễsz-patis, 'lord '), Lat. pŏtis, potior.
I.-Eur. ŏw seems to have become $\check{a} v$ in the beginning of the second century b.c., e.g. căvus, older covus (Gk. кóot, cavities, Hesych., кoîlos for $*_{\text {ко }} F_{\imath \lambda o s}$ ). Latin vŏ- became vĕ- in the middle of the second century в.c. in versus, older vorsus, \&c. (§ 10); but vŏco was the older form of văco, as we see from Plautus' pun in Cas. 527 :
fác habeant linguám tuae aedes. Quíd ita? Quom ueniám, uocent.
Latin -ø̆v^ may represent I.-Eur. -ĕw-, as in nŏvem, nŏrus (see § 10) ; Latin sŏ-, I.-Eur. swĕ-, as in sŏror, sŏcer, somnus (see § ıо); Latin ŏl, ŏr, the I.-Eur. sonant or syllabic l, r, as in fors, cor (see § 92). In the accented, as well as the unaccented syllable, Latin $\breve{o}$ became $u$, before $l$ with a consonant (not $l l$ ), before $m$ with a labial, before ngu, e. g. vult (volt) from volo, lumbus, unguis. Before certain other consonant-groups it tended to the close $o$ - or to the $u$-sound (see ch. ii. § 22). In the unaccented syllable, Latin $\check{o}$ offered more resistance than, for example, Latin $\breve{a}$, to the rule that a short vowel became $\breve{e}$, then $\breve{\imath}$, in open syllables; e. g. adnŏto, arrŏgo have not changed their vowel like adl̆go (from $\breve{a} g o$ ). In syllables long by position, $\breve{o}$ became $\breve{u}$ about the end of the third century в.c.; and any $\check{o}$ which had escaped weakening to $\breve{e}, \breve{\imath}$ took the same course (see ch. iii. § I 3 ). The terminations -os, -om became -us, -um towards the end of the third century в.c. [Luciom, filios, on one Scipio epitaph (C.I. L. i. 32), Lucius, prognatus on another (ib. i. 30 ), -us, -um invariably in the S.C. Bacch. of 186 в. c., (ib. i. 196), and on the decree of L. Aem. Paulus Macedonicus of 189 в.c. (ib. ii. 5041 )]. But after $v, u, q u, g u$ we find the spelling -os, oom down to the end of the Republic. There are similar traces in Osc. of unaccented ǒ becoming ŭ, e. g. dolom and dolum (von Planta, i. p. ini). Final ŏ became $\breve{e}$, like final ă, ̆̆, \&c., e.g. sĕquĕre imper. for I.-Eur. *seq ${ }^{\mathrm{u}}{ }^{\text {eso }}$ (Gk. ét $\pi \epsilon 0$ ) (see ch viii. § 77).

[^51]Lat. nŏx, nŏctis Gen. ; I.-Eur. root od-, 'to smell' (varying with ōd-) Gk. ó $\delta \mu$ ' ö $\varsigma \omega$, Arm. hot) appears in Lat. ŏd-or, oleo for $*_{o d-e o ~(§ ~ I I r) . ~}^{\text {I }}$.
§ 19. Lat. ă for I.-Eur. ŏ, under influence of v. Other examples are Lat. căveo for *cŏveo (Gk. $\kappa \frac{(F) ' \epsilon}{} \omega$, to perceive, $\mathfrak{a}-\kappa o \dot{v} \omega$ ), Lat. autŭmo for *ăvi-tumo from *ŏvi-tumo (Gk. óíw), Lat. lăvo for *lŏvo (Gk. 入ové ). Lat. făvilla for *fõvilla from I.-Eur. root dheghñ-, 'to burn' (O. Ind. dah-, Gk. t'́ $\phi$ - $\rho a$, ashes, Lith. degù, 'I burn'). The example previously quoted, Lat. căvus for covus, enables us to assign a date to this change of I.-Eur. ow, Lat. ov to $\alpha v$. The Spanish and Portuguese words (Span. cueva, Port. cova) show that covo-, not cavo-, was the Vulgar Latin stem at the time when Spain was made a province. The country-term coum, (cohum), the hollow in the plough, used by Ennius of the innermost part of the heavenly sphere, retained the 0 , as did ocis ( Gk .0 ö $(F)$ เs), though whether the avi- of aububulcus 'pastor ovium' (Löwe, Prodr. p. 348), avillus 'agnus recentis partus' (Paul. Fest. ro. 32 Th.) is better referred to this root or to agn- the root of agnus (Gk. à $\mu \nu$ ós for ${ }^{*} \dot{a} \beta \nu o s$ ) is not clear. (Varro, L.L. v. i35 explains coum as 'sub jugo medio cavum, quod bura extrema addita oppilatur,' and adds 'vocatur coum a covo' ; cf. Paul. Fest. 28. I Th.; Isid. Nat. Rer. i2 cous ( $\% . l$. chous) est quo caelum continetur, unde Ennius,
vix solum complere coum (MSS. choum, cous) terroribus caeli.
Partes ejus sunt, cous (v.l. chous), axis, clima, cardines, convexa, poli, hemisphaeria ; Diomedes ( $365 .{ }_{17}$ K.) says that Verrius Flaccus spelt incoho, not inchoo, for he derived the word from cohum, the Old Latin word for mundus). We have already found that I.-Eur. ĕw became obv in Latin (e. g. Lat. norus for I.-Eur. *newos), and that probably at a very early date, seeing that the change is shared by other Italic languages (e. g. Osc. Núvellum). If then it be the case that I.-Eur. ow became $a v$ in Latin in the third or second cent. b. c. we must suppose that Latin ov from I.-Eur. ew had a different sound from Latin ov from I.-Eur. ow ; for the former ov does not undergo change to av (e. g. norus, not *navus; novem, not *navem). Latin ov from I.-Eur. oghn shares the change to $\alpha v$, e. g. füvilla from I.-Eur. dhŏghño, the o-grade of the root dhĕghñ-, 'to burn'; but $n \bar{d} d u s$ for *nov(e)dus from I.-Eur. *nogñ, ' naked,' shows that the change of $o v$ to $a v$ was later than the syncope of $\check{e}$ in the post-tonic syllable.

Lat. vŏco (Plaut. Cas. 527) for căco (Umbr. vaçeto- P. P. P., vakaze, for *vakaz se, Lat. vacatio sit ?), is probably nothing but an indication of the o-sound assumed by $a$ when preceded by $v$ (see ch. ii. § 4). This $o$-sound in *vŏctitus, the Vulg. Lat. word for 'empty,' must have persisted till late times, for Italian voto, as well as 0 . Fr. voit, reflect this form.
§ 20. ü for o. ( I ) in close syllables, unaccented (according to the early Accent-law) : větüstus for *vetös-to- (Gk. (F)́́ $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\sigma} s$ ), and other derivatives from Neuters in -os (class. Lat. -us), such as angustus, věnustus, ŏnustus; hŏmŭllus for *homöllus from *homŏn-lo-, and other lo- Diminutives from ŏn-stems, like lēnullus, whereas Diminutives from on- have -öll-, e. g. persölla, cŏrölla; so also Diminutives in -co-lo- from on-stems, like hŏmŭnculus, latrunculus; ălŭmnus (cf. Gk. $\tau \rho \in \phi-\dot{\rho} \mu \epsilon \nu 0 s)$ and similar formations, Vertumnus, Autumnus, cölumna, \&c.
(2) before $l$ with consonant (not $l l$ ): cullmen (contrasted with colümen); stultus (contrasted with stolĭdus) ; pulvis (contrasted with pollen) ; fulvus (contrasted with solvo for *solü̈). In Old Latin we have o, e. g. on inscriptions, Folvius (C.I. L. vi. 1307 , of 187 в. c. ; Eph. Epigr. viii. 476, c. 135 в. c. ; C.I.L. i. 554 and

555, both of $130-129$ в. c. \&c.) Polc[er] (ib. i 552 of 132-131 в.c.). Priscian (i. p. 27.33 H .) tells us that colpa was the O. Lat. form of culpa; and in the lines of Ennius about Servius Tullius (Ann. 337 M.) the corrupt reading of the MSS. optimus for uttimus, probably indicates the spelling oltimus (cf. Osc. últiumam) :
mortalem summum Fortuna repente reddidit, ut summo regno famul oltimus esset.

On the spellings volva and vulva, Fem. of adj. *volvus from volvo, see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v. Vulnus is the pronunciation of Varro (L. L. iii. fr., p. 148 Wilm. vafer, velum, vinum, vomis, vulnus, where he gives examples of initial $v$ followed by the various vowels of the alphabet). This ol may be I.-Eur. ell, e. g. volt, vult (§ 10).
 the Greek (Thracian ?) $\rho о \mu \phi a i \alpha$ is rumpйa in Ennius (A. xiv. fr. 8 M.) and Livy (xxxi. 39. II). Perhaps also before $m s$, e. g. ümĕrus from omso- ( 0 . Ind. ị̂sa-, Arm. us, Goth. ams, Umbr. onso-).
(4) before ngu: unguo, unguen, unguentum for *ongu- (0. Ind. añj-, 'to anoint'); ungula, like unguis (Gk. övvछ) ; but longus, where the $g$ is not velar ( $g u$ ), retains the $o$ (we find however $\operatorname{lun}[g u m]$ beside $\operatorname{lon}[g u m]$ in neighbouring inscrr., C.I. L. i. 1073). We have also uncus for *oncus (Gk. ö $\boldsymbol{\gamma k o s}$ ), (but sesconciam C.I. L. i. 1430 , in a Cremona inscription), \&c. On the occasional use of $u$ for $o$, often for Greek o, before other consonant-groups, e. g. turnus beside tornus, from Greek tópvos, O. Lat. frundes (see ch. ii. § 22). Some isolated cases of $\breve{u}$ for accented $\check{0}$ have various explanations; hŭmus, for *homus (cf. Gk. $\chi \theta \omega \omega \nu$ ), may take its $u$ from the analogy of humeo, for the word (not common in the oldest writers ; humi, for example, not occurring till Terence, Andr. 726) seems to have been first used in the sense of moist ground, clay, e. g. Laevius ap. Prisc. i. p. 269.7 H. humum humidum pedibus fodit; Varr. Men. 53 I B. in pavimento non audes facere laconam $\dagger$, at in humu calceos facis elixos; Enn. Trag. 396 R. cubitis pinsibant humum ; Pac. Trag. 35I R. tractate per aspera saxa et humum ; cf. Gracch. Trag. 3 mersit sequentis humidum plantas (MS. plantis) humum ; Priscian's 'old Latin huminem' (i. p. 27. I H.) may be an etymological spelling to suit a derivation from humus, like the spelling colina, adapted to the derivation from colo (Varro ap. Non. 55. 20 M. ; 'Serv.' ad Aen. iii. 134) ; fülica, if for *fölica, either follows the analogy of füligo, or shows the vowel of fulca, the form used by Furius Antias ap. Gell. xviii. ir. l. 4.
(5) in syllables unaccented under the later Accent-law : the 3 Plur. suffix -ont became -unt at the end of the third cent. B. c., though the old spelling was sometimes retained even later. On old inscriptions we have e. g. dederont (C. I. L. i. 181, from Picenum), cosentiont on a Scipio epitaph (i. 32) (so on the restored Columna Rostrata, exfociont, i. 195). Festus (244. i3 Th.) quotes praed-opiont (MS. praedotiont), in the sense of praeoptant, from the Carmen Saliare, and nequīnont, an old 3 Pl. form of nequeo, from the Odyssea of Livius Andronicus (ap. Fest. 162. 24 Th. ; cf. Paul. Fest. 163.14 Th.) :

> pártim érrant, nequinont Graéciam redíre;
the Nom. Sg. termination of Neuter ES-stems is -os on an old inscription, opos (C. I. L. i. 52, probably from Orvieto) (cf. Uenos on old mirrors, i. 57 and 58 ); the Acc. Sg. termination of 0 -stems is -om in the older period, e. g. donom, the Nom. Sg. is -os (see Index to C. I. L. i.), and this spelling remained after $u, v$,
e. g. equos, arvom, till the time of Quintilian, though the pronunciation may have been the $\breve{u}$-sound (see § 70). (On this reduction of $\breve{o}$ to $\check{u}$ in unaccented syllables, see ch. iii. §§ 18,26 ; another example is the verb sum, for *som, with $u$ for $o$, because of its usual unaccented character.) In late Latin, when $\breve{u}$ and $\bar{\sigma}$ had come to have nearly, or altogether, the same sound, $o$ is often written for $\breve{u}$, so that the older spelling seems to be revived (see ch. ii. § 29).

## $\overline{\mathbf{U}}, \overline{\mathrm{U}}$.

§ 21. Ū. I.-Eur. ū is Latin $\bar{u}$, I.-Eur. *dhūmo-, 'smoke,' from root dheu-, 'to move violently' (O. Ind. dhūmá-, Gk. $\theta \bar{v} \mu o ́ s$, passion, Lith. dúmai Pl., O. Sl. dymŭ), Lat. fūmus; I.-Eur. *mūs-, ‘ a mouse' (O. Ind. múṣ̣̂, Gk. $\mu \hat{v} s$, O. Engl. mūs, O. Sl. myṣ̌̌), Lat. mūs. It is generally a grade of a eu-root as ì of an eiroot (§ 12). Latin $\bar{u}$, older ou, may represent also I.-Eur. eu or ou, e.g. dūco, older douco (see $\S \S 35,4 \mathrm{I}$ ), Latin $\bar{u}$, older oi, oe, I.-Eur. oi, e.g. cūra ( $\S 3^{8}$ ), and sometimes has arisen from $\check{u}$ by ' compensation,' e.g. dūmus, older dŭsmo-(Paul. Fest. 47. 20 Th.), a spelling retained in the proper name Dusmius; dümetum for dusm-, in Virgil MSS. spelt dummetum, shows that $-\bar{u} m$ - is equivalent to $-\bar{u} m m$ In the unaccented syllable $\bar{u}$ may represent au, e.g. dēfrūdo from fraudo, inclūdo from claudo (ch. iii. § 18). On fūr, cūr for *fōr, quōr, see § 16. I.-Eur. $\bar{u}$ is in Umbr. and perhaps in some other dialects i, e.g. Umbr. frif 'fruges' Acc. Pl. (see von Planta, i. 129).
§ 22. Other examples of Lat. $\overline{\mathrm{u}}, \mathrm{I}$.-Eur. ū. Lat. frūnisci (Goth. brūkjan, 'to use,' Germ. brauchen, O. Engl. brūcan, Engl. to brook) ; jūs, broth (O. Ind. yūṣa-, Gk. $\zeta_{v}^{\prime} \cdot \mu \eta$ for * $\zeta \bar{v} \sigma-\mu \eta$, leaven, Lith. júszè) ; sūtus (O. Ind. syūtá-, Gk. $\nu \epsilon o-\kappa \alpha ́ \tau \tau u ̈ \tau o s)$; so-lūtus (Hom. ßou入itтóv-סє).
§ 23. Ǔ. I.-Eur. ŭ, Lat. $\breve{u}$, appears often in the weak grade of an eu-root, e.g. I.-Eur. *yŭgo-, 'a yoke,' weak grade of yeug-, ' to join' (O. Ind. yŭgá-, Gk. ऽv̆ ${ }^{\circ}$ óv, Goth. jŭk, O. Sl. igo for jŭgo), Lat. jŭgum ; I.-Eur. lŭk-, weak grade of leuk-, 'to shine' (O. Ind. rŭc-, Gk. à $\mu \phi \iota-\lambda u ̛ ้ \kappa \eta$, twilight), Lat. lŭcerna. I.-Eur. ŭ (Lat. $\breve{u})$ is also the weak grade of a wě-root, e.g. I.-Eur. *perruti, 'last year' (Gk. $\pi^{\epsilon} \rho \rho v \sigma \iota$ ), from *wetes-, 'year,' and similarly in the unaccented syllable Latin $\breve{u}$ often appears for $u \breve{e}$, e.g. concutio for *conquetio from quătio (see ch. iii. § 25). Lat. $u$ often represents I.-Eur. (and older Latin) ob; for an ŏ passed at the end of the third cent. b.c. into the sound $\breve{u}$, when in the unaccented syllable (unless saved by a preceding $v, u$ ), e.g. donum from earlier donom,
but equom till the time of Quintilian ; and even in the accented syllable $\breve{o}$ came to assume a $u$-sound before certain consonantgroups, e.g. culpa, older colpa, Fulvius, older Folvius (see § 20). (On equom, divom, \&c., see $\$ \S 70,135$ ).

Lat. $\breve{u}$ offered more resistance than $\breve{a}$ to the usual transition of a short vowel in the open unaccented syllable to $\breve{\imath}$ (earlier $\breve{e}$, and always before $r$ ), e.g. sŏcer (Gk. éкvpós) (ch. iii. § I8). Before $l$ and labials it passed in open unaccented syllables (especially when the next syllable contained an $i$ in hiatus) into the $u ̈$-sound, which ultimately was written and pronounced $\breve{\imath}$, e.g. mănubiae, manibiae, manibus, dissupo, dissipo. That it ever had the $u$-sound, the sound of Greek $v$, in the accented syllable of native Latin words is doubtful. [On (quid)lubet and (quid)libet, \&c. see ch. ii. § 16]. Before a vowel in the unaccented syllable Latin $u$ may represent I.-Eur. ew, ow, Lat. ov, e.g. dènuo for dè novo, èluo for è-lavo (I.-Eur. *lŏwō) (ch. iii. § 24); before $l$ and labials any short vowel, e. g. occupo from cap-, to take (ch. iii. § 18), and before any consonant-group $\cdot$ Latin $\breve{\text { o }}$, e.g. hŏmullus for *homŏn-lo- (see § 20). Final - $\breve{u}$, like other short vowels, normally became $\breve{e}$, and might be elided (ch. iii. §§ 37,38 ).

A close relation exists in Latin, as in I.-Eur., between $\breve{\mathrm{u}}$ and w , vocalic and consonantal u. After $l$ and $r$ the vowel $\breve{u}$ became a consonant in the second cent. b.c. in Latin, e.g. lärva (lärua, Plaut.), arvum (ăruos, -a, -om Plaut.), mìlvus (mïluos, Plaut.), pelvis, \&c. (see ch. iii. §48). For Latin $\breve{u}$ (earlier $\breve{o}$ ), the parasitic, or svarabhaktic vowel, in oculus from ŏc-lo-, speculum from spĕc-lo-, $\overline{\text { oraculum }}$ from orā-clo-, see ch. ii. § 154 .
I.-Eur. ŭ is Umbro-Osc. u, e.g. Umbr. subra 'supra,' though sometimes we find $o$ written in Umbr. [i.e. in the Lat. alph., for the native alphabet did not distinguish the O - and the U -sound (see ch. i. § I)]. In Oscan we find iu after t , d, n (s ?), e.g. tiurrí 'turrim,' Diumpaís 'Lumpis' ('to the Nymphs'), Niumsieís ' Numerii' Gen. Sg., an affection of u which resembles Boeot. тıov́xa (Att. $\tau$ úx $\eta$ ), or Engl. 'pure,' \&c. (pronounced piuu-), (see von Planta, i. p. 122).
§ 24. Lat. ŭ for I.-Eur. ŭ. I.-Eur. -ŭ- in the U-stem suffix is Latin $\breve{u}$ of fructŭs, mănŭs, \&c.; the I.-Eur. preposition *ŭpŏ (O. Ind. úpa, Gk, ṽँo, O. Ir. fo for *wo, with $p$ dropped between vowels, and $u$ turned into $w$, Goth. uf,

Engl. of-ten) is Latin $s$-ub (see ch. ix. § $5^{2}$ ) ; the preposition *ŭpĕr, *upĕrı̆ ( O . Ind. upári, Gk. $\dot{v} \pi \epsilon i(\rho, ~ v ̈ \pi \epsilon \rho, \mathrm{O}$. Ir. for, from *wer, with suppression of p , Goth. ufar, Engl. over, o'er) is Latin s-uper (see ch. ix. § 53) ; I.-Eur. *snŭso-, 'daughter-in-law' (O. Ind. snuṣ̂ã., Arm. nu, Gr. $\nu v(\sigma)$ ós, O. Engl. snoru, Germ.Schnur, O. Sl. snŭcha), isLat. nŭrus; I.-Eur. *k̀lŭto-, 'famous,' from k̂leu-, 'to hear' (O. Ind. šrutá-, Gr. $\kappa \lambda v \tau o ́ s, ~ O . ~ I r . ~ c l o t h, ~ G a u l . ~ C l u t o-i d a, ~ O . ~ H . ~ G e r m . ~$. Hlud-olf, Hlot-hari, from hari, 'army,' whence Lothair, \&c.), is Lat. in-clütus, later in-clitus; I.-Eur. *rŭdhro-, 'red,' from the root reudh-, 'to be red' ( 0 . Ind. rudhirá-, Gk. épvepós, O.Sl. rŭdrŭ) is Lat. rŭber ; Lat. mŭsca (the Romance forms
 from I.-Eur. *yŭwṇ̂̂o- (O. Ind. yuvašá-, Gk. ' 'ák-ıv $\theta o s, ~ O . ~ I r . ~ o ̄ a c, ~ W e l s h ~ i e u a n c, ~$ Gaul. Jovincillus, Goth. juggs for *juvunga-, O. Engl. geong) ; Lat. füga (Gk.
 grade of the root werg-, 'to confine, press' (Gk. $\bar{\epsilon}$-(F) ${ }^{\prime} \rho \gamma \omega$, Lat. vergo.)
§ 25. Latin ŭ and Latin ŏ. We have seen that Latin ŏ became $\breve{u}$ when unaccented, and even in the accented syllable before certain consonant-groups, and that in late Latin $\check{u}$ and $\bar{o}$ came to have the same sound and were often exchanged in spelling (see $\S 17$ and ch. ii. § 29). Some doubtful cases may be discussed here. As turbo and turba (Gk. $\tau \hat{v} \rho \beta \eta, \sigma \tau v \rho \beta a ́ \zeta \omega$ ) come from I.-Eur. turb-, from tŭr-, the weak grade of twěr-, 'to twirl,' so I.-Eur. qur-, gharr-, the weak grades of $q^{\text {üerr-, }}$ ghnër-, seem to appear in Latin as cur-, fur, e.g. furnus, an oven, from I.-Eur. ghịrno- (O. Sl. grŭnŭ, 'a kettle'), but formus, warm, from I.-Eur. ghnormo- (0. H. G. warm, Engl. warm). Whether Nonius, who derives furnus from formus, has any justification in spelling the word fornus ( 53 r. 24 M.) is uncertain; but fornax has o, and Plautus Epid. 119 puns on furno (so the MSS.), and foro. Curro may then stand for * $\mathrm{q}^{\prime \prime}$ ? so- from the root $q^{\text {ner- ( }}$ (cf. Lat. querquèrus) ; curtus cannot be the same as Gk. кaprós, from the root ker- of Gk. $\kappa \epsilon i \rho \omega$, but must stand for *qurto-, from a root $q^{n}$ ner-; corpus must represent *quorpes-, not *qurpes- (cf. O. Ind. kị̣-); ursus may be a loanword (Lucanian, according to Varro, L. L. v. Ioo), or may owe its $u$ to a velar guttural -rqn- ; ürceus cannot be connected with ōrca; the spelling forcillis in MSS. of Catullus (cv. 2) must be late, if the word is connected with Hesychius' фоиркор, фиркоs, which point to $u$ (Cyprian форкєs $=\chi$ а́ракєs shows dialectal $o$ for $v$ ) ; urbs (cf. Mars. en urbid 'in urbe') cannot be connected with orbs, so that there is no etymological appropriateness in the play on these words which is often found in the later poets (e.g. Rutil. i. 66).
§ 26. The Diphthongs. In its treatment of the diphthongs $a i$, $a u, e i$, [(1) I.-Eur. ei and in Latin also, (2) I.-Eur. ai (oi ?) in the post-tonic syllable, (3) I.-Eur. ai, oi in the final syllable], $o i$, ou, [(I) I.-Eur. eu, (2) I.-Eur. ou], Latin stands halfway between Oscan an Umbrian. In Oscan they are all retained intact, except that the $i$-element has sunk to an $e$-sound ${ }^{1}$. In Umbrian they are all reduced to simple sounds, e.g. Umbr.

[^52]dēvo-, Osc. deívo-, 'god'; Umbrian tōro-, Osc. ravpo-, bull; Umbr. tōto, Osc. $\tau \omega F \tau 0$, people, commanity [I.-Eur. *teutā-, Goth. piuda, whence some derive 'Teuton,' O. Ir. tuath, Gaul. Teuto-bōdiāci, W. tud (in Gaelic tuath is used for 'the countrypeople,' 'the tenantry'), Lith. tauta], (see von Planta, i. p. 137). In the Latin of Cicero's time ae (from ai) and au are the only survivors; and even they tend in rustic or colloquial speech to single sounds, $\bar{e}, \bar{o}$, e.g. pretor, plostrum. Diphthongs whose two elements had affinity of sound, such as ei, ou, are naturally the first to be simplified; ei, for example, both in Greek and in the Teutonic languages, passed early into a long $\bar{i}$-sound. The oldest Latin inscriptions offer with great fidelity $e i$ for I.-Eur. ei, as also for the $e i$ to which I.-Eur. ai, oi, when unaccented, were reduced. Thus on the S. C. de Bacchanalibus of 186 b.c. (C.I. L. i. 196) we have deicerent (I.-Eur. ei), inceideretis (I.-Eur. post-tonic ai), foideratei (I.-Eur. final -oi). But this diphthong soon became identical in pronunciation with the long $i$-vowel, so that spellingreformers like Accius and Lucilius used $i$ and $e i$ for this long $i$-sound without sufficient regard to the past history of the sound (see ch. i. § 9), and the practice grew up of using ei to indicate the long vowel-sound, $i$ to indicate the short. $O u$ is also sometimes used for Latin $\bar{u}$ (I.-Eur. oi), e.g. courarerunt (C.I.L. i. I419, from Picenum), though not at all to the same extent as $e i$ for $\bar{\imath}$. Ou seems to have been reduced to a simple sound at the end of the third century b.c. Ai became ae a little later. Towards the end of the second cent. b.c. we find the spelling ae established in use, with an occasional resort at the transition period to a spelling aei; but the original spelling (not pronunciation) was again brought into fashion in the reign of Claudius and is found occasionally on epitaphs even of the late Empire. On the diphthongal sound of ae (Germ. Kaiser is evidence of this sound in Lat. Caesar), au, see ch. ii. § 32.
$O i$ passed (through oe) into $\bar{u}$ at the beginning of the second cent. в.c., though oi, and afterwards oe, were long retained on official inscriptions in phrases like faciundum coiraverunt (coeraverunt), e.g. C.I.L. i. 567 (Capua) of 106 в.c.: murum et pluteum faciund. coeravere, where the spelling murum (older moerum, moirom) shows that the pronunciation was $\bar{u}$,
not oe, and in some words of the official or legal style like poena, foelus.

The long diphthongs are not common in I.-Eur., so that we have hardly sufficient material from which to discover their history in Latin. In the Veda, the oldest literature of India, we see a tendency to use final - $\bar{a}$ (I.-Eur. - $\bar{o}$ ) before a consonant initial, final - $\bar{\alpha} u$ (I.-Eur. -ōu) before a vowel initial (e.g. dēvà and dēváu in Dual of devá-, I.-Eur. *deivo-, ' god '); and the development of $\bar{e} i$ and $\bar{o} u$ in roots and suffixes in the various I.-Eur. languages suggests that doublets of this sort, ēi and $\bar{e}$, $\bar{o} u$ and $\bar{o}$, already existed in the case of these two diphthongs of kindred elements in what is called 'the Indo-European period.' Long diphthongs, composed of sounds not so nearly allied as $\bar{e}$ and $i, \bar{o}$ and $u$, may have taken on Latin soil a different course of development, according as they were final or not. When final, the second element may have been suppressed (probably after passing through the doublet-stage), just as in later times a short final vowel has been suppressed after a long syllable in words like exemplār $(e)$, $n \bar{e} v(e)$. When followed by a consonant the long element must have been shortened, by the rule that any long vowel is shortened before $\mathrm{y}, \mathrm{w}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{r}$, \&c. followed by a consonant, so that ài (āy) would pass to the ordinary diphthongsound $a i$, āu ( $\overline{\mathrm{a} w}$ ) to $a u$, èu to $e u$, $\overline{\mathrm{o}} \mathrm{i}$ to $o i$; just as we have vĕntus from *wēnt- (root wè-, ' to blow,' Gk. ä $\eta \mu \mathrm{c}$ ) (see below, § 45).
§ 27. AI. I.-Eur. ai is Lat. ae (older ai), e.g. the I.-Eur. root aiwĕ-, 'time, life' (Gk. aicov, ${ }_{a}^{2} \in i$ for ${ }^{*} a i F \epsilon(\sigma) \iota$, with Ion. Att. $\bar{a}$ for
 appears in Latin aevum ; I.-Eur. aidh-, 'to burn,' (O. Ind. édhas-, 'firewood,' Gk. al $\theta \omega$, O. Ir. aid, aed, 'fire,' O. H. G. eit, 'pyre,' O. Engl. ād), in Latin aedes, lit. 'where the fire is kept up,' aestus. In the last root I.-Eur. ai is the weak grade of ayě, thus aidhof ayědh- (aye- is seen in I.-Eur. *ayes-, 'metal, gleaming metal'), and in the first of āi (§ 45) (cf. O. Ind. áyu-). In the unaccented syllable ae became $\bar{\imath}$, e.g. inquīro, occīdo from quaero, caedo (see ch.iii. § 18), or rather $a i$ became ei, then $\bar{i}$, e.g. inceideretis on the S. C. de Bacch.; and in the final syllable, e.g. tütùdi (O. Ind. tutudé) with the I Sg. Perf. Middle ending -ai or -ai
(ch. viii. §76). On rustic and colloquial $e$ for $a e$, and on the late Latin confusion of $a e, e$, oe (that is, oe which had been restored, $\S 3^{8}$ ), see ch. ii. §§ 41, 44. A spurious diphthong $a i$ is found in the verb aio (for *ahio, § I I6), ain (for *aisne), aibat (dissyllabic), \&c.
§ 28. I.-Eur. ai, Lat. ae (ai). Lat. caedo from I.-Eur. root skaidh- (Goth. skaidan, O. Engl. scādan, Engl. water-shed, Lith. skédžiu, 'I separate'); Lat. scaevus (Gk. $\sigma \kappa \alpha u(F)$ ós) ; Lat. laevus (Gk. $\lambda a \iota(F)$ ós, O. SI. levvŭ) ; Lat. caecus from I.-Eur. *kaiko-, 'blind' (O. Ir. caech, with another sense, 'empty,' cf. Gael. caoch-ag, 'a nut without a kernel,' Goth. haihs ; in Gk. кoוкúл $\lambda \omega$, 'to gape about,' the $a \iota$ has become $o l$, through the assimilating influence of the accented $v$ ); Lat. haereo from I.-Eur. root ghais- (Lith. gaĩszti, 'to tarry'; Goth. us-gaisjan, 'to frighten,' lit. 'cause to hesitate,' Engl. gaze); Lat. haedus (Goth. gaits, Engl. goat) ; Lat. lēvir from I.-Eur. *daiwer-, O. Ind. dēvár-, Arm. taigr, Gk. $\delta \overline{a ̄}{ }^{\prime} \rho$, O. H. G. zeihhur, O. Eng. tācor, Lith. dëverìs', O. Sl. dẹ̆verĭ) is a late Latin spelling for laevir, the $i$ being due to the analogy of vir.
§ 29. AI, AE on Inscriptions. We have ae on the S. C. Bacch. (C.I.L. i. 196) of 186 в. с. in aedem (along with aiquom, tabelai, datai, \&c.) ; Aemilius on three inscriptions of 187 в. c. (i. 535-7), but Aimilius (C. I. L. ii. 5041) of 189 в. c. ; aetate on a Scipio epitaph of c. 1зо в. c. (i. 34), (along with quairatis) ; quaestor, quaero, praetor are established spellings in the Lex Bantina of $133-118$ в. с. (i. 197), the Lex Repetundarum of 123-122 в. c. (i. 198), \&c. The spelling aei, which we find once or twice towards the end of the second cent. в. c., conquaeisivei (in the post-tonic syllable under the older Accent Law) (i. 55I, of 132 в. c.), Caeicilius (i. 547 b., ' of 141 or 116 в. c.,' Momms., and i. 1487 , from Majorca), Caeician [us] [i. 378, on a coin with an alphabet A-X, so older than the introduction of Y, Z (ch. i. § 2)], Caeidia (ix. 3087, from Sulmo), seems to mark the transition stage. Often ai and ae are found side by side, e.g. praitores aere Martio emeru (i. 1148, from Cora) ; aetatei and saip[is]ume on the dedicatory inscription of the Faliscan 'collegium cocorum' (Zvet. I.I.I. 72 a). The spelling Caisar, \&c. is frequent on inscriptions of Claudius' reign, when antiquarian lore was in fashion (e. g. C.I. L. vi. 353), and we find on epitaphs of the late Empire Valeriai (Rossi, i. ri3, of 352 A.d.), quai and filiai (Rossi, i. 410, of 393 A.D.), \&c. $E$ is not regularly exchanged with ae till the fourth cent. A. D. on inscriptions (Seelmann, Ausspr. Lat. p. 225), but in dialectal inscrr. it is of course much earlier, e.g. cedre for caedere on an old inscr. of the Umbrian territory (C. I. L. xi. 4766), and in plebeian from the first cent. A. d. (Hammer, Loc. Verbr. p. II). The use of ai, ae for $\bar{a}$ is a feature of inscriptions of the Etruscan country (see Mem. Ist. Lombard. 1892), e. g. Painsscos on a Praenestine mirror (C. I. L. xiv. 4098) [cf. Saeturni on a Praenestine vase (i. 48), and perhaps

§ 30. AU. I.-Eur. au is Latin au, which in the unaccented syllable became $\bar{u}$ (see ch. iii. § 18), and in the accented syllable was in dialectal Latin ō (e. g. Plautus' Umbrian name was Plotus ' splay-foot,' Paul. Fest. 305. 7 Th.). Thus the I.-Eur. root aug-, indicating ' growth' or 'strength,' a weak grade of the root awĕgof Gk. à(F) $\epsilon \xi \omega$ (O. Ind. ójas-, Goth. aukan, 'to multiply,' Engl.
eke vb., Lith. áugu, 'I grow,' Gk. av̉ $\xi \omega$, à̉ $\xi \dot{\prime} \nu \omega)$ appears in Latin aug-eo, augus-tus; the I.-Eur. particle *au [Gk. $a \hat{v}, a \hat{v}-\tau \epsilon, a \hat{v}-\tau \iota s$, Goth. au-k, 'also' (with -k like Gr. $\gamma \epsilon$ ), O. Engl. ēac, Eng. eke advb.], in Latin au-t (Osc. avti, Umbr. ote), au-tem (Osc. avt). This I.-Eur. ${ }^{2}$ au is perhaps similarly the weak grade of $*_{a-w e}$, (see ch. x. § 4). Lat. au represents the weak grade of an I.-Eur. $\bar{o} u-r o o t ~ i n ~ a u s c u ̛ l u m ~(P l a u t) ~ b e s i d e. ~ \overline{o s s ~ f r o m ~ I .-E u r . ~ * o ̄ u s ~(c f . ~}$ cătus beside cōs, § 54).
§ 31. Other examples. Lat. paucus (Goth. favai Pl., Engl. few) ; Lat. aurōra for *ausōsa (Gk. avैpıov for *aủ $\sigma \rho \iota o \nu$, ä $\gamma \chi$-avpos vv́g Apoll. Rhod., 'nearing the dawn,' Lith. ausz-rà, O. Scand. austr, O. H. G. ōstar, Engl. east) from I.-Eur. aus-, a weak grade of ăwĕs-, 'to gleam' (cf. Gk. $\bar{\eta} \omega{ }^{\omega}$ for $* \dot{d} F \omega s$ ), whence *auso-, 'gold' (Lat. aurum, Lith. áuksas); Lat. auris for *ausis, aus-culto (O. Ir. au, a Neuter S-stem, Goth. ausō, an N-stem, Lith. ausis) from I.-Eur. *aus-, a weak grade of *ăwĕs- [cf. Gk. acm $\left({ }_{\substack{2}}^{3} \omega\right)$, I perceive ; but oîs is a Greek development of the high grade *ōus ; cf. O. Ind. āvís, 'openly']. Lat. au-, away, as in au-fero, au-fugio (Pruss. au- of au-mū-sna-n Acc., 'washing off'; O. Sl. u- of u-myti, 'to wash off') from I.-Eur. *au, a weak grade of *awe (*awo ?) (O. Ind. áva, 'away,' ava-bhr--, 'aufero'). It is often difficult to distinguish this Lat. $a u$, representing I.-Eur. au (a reduction of I.-Eur. ăwĕ) from Lat. au, a reduction of Lat. ăvĕ, ăv̌̆, e. g. audeo from avidus. (Other examples in ch. iii. § 16. 9.) On the occasional appearance of $\bar{u}$ for $a u$ in the accented syllable, e. g. sed frude 'sine fraude' in the Lex Repetundarum, post-class. cludo, and on the plebeian and dialectal reduction of $a u$ to $\overline{0}$, e. g. plostrum, Clodius, see ch. ii. §§ 36-37.
§ 32. EI. I.-Eur. ei was in Old Latin $e i$; but this diphthong became identical with the sound of long $i$, so that in inscriptions from the latter part of the second century в.с. the symbol $e i$ is used not only for I.-Eur. ei, but also for I.-Eur. ì, and some spelling reformers proposed to reserve the letter I for short $i$, and the diphthong-symbol EI for long $i$ (see ch. i. § 9). In Oscan, however, the diphthong is preserved. In Latin it is used in the interjection hei, ei, from which comes the verb ejullo. Instances of I.-Eur. ei, Latin $e i$ or $i$, are: I.-Eur. deik-,' to show, say' (Gk. $\delta \in i \in-\nu \bar{v} \mu l$, Goth. ga-teiha, 'I declare'), Lat. dīco, O. Lat. deico, Osc. deicum Inf.; I.-Eur. bheidh-, 'to believe, trust' (Gr. $\left.\pi \epsilon i \theta_{o \mu} \mu \iota\right)$, Lat. fìdo, O. Lat. feido. Before a vowel ei, ej became $e$ in Latin, e. g. eo from I.-Eur. ei-, 'to go,' both in the accented (§63), and in the unaccented syllable (ch. iii. § 24). O. Lat. $e i$, class. $\bar{i}$, may represent other I-diphthongs in the final or
 -ai or -ai (ch. viii. § 76); in ро̆цй $\bar{\iota} \bar{\imath}$ Nom. Pl. (oldest Lat. poploe),
I.-Eur. -oi; in con-cīdo from caedo, older caido, I.-Eur. ai. The older spelling of all these words shows -ei, tutudei, pop(u)lei, conceido, sometimes $e$, e.g. ploirume ' plurimi,' Nom. Pl., on a Scipio epitaph (C.I.L. i. 32). Greek $\epsilon \iota$ before a vowel was written $\bar{e}$, e.g. Alexandrēa, Dārēus (shortened to $\breve{e}$, e.g. balnĕum), later $\bar{\imath}$, e.g. Alexandrīa (shortened to $\breve{\imath}$ ) (cf. ch. ii. § 143).
§ 33. Other examples of I.-Eur. ei. I.-Eur. *ei-ti, 3 Sg. Pres. Ind. of ei-, 'to go' ( $\mathbf{O}$. Ind. éti, Gk. єiol, Lith. eĩti, eĩt), Lat, it (with $\bar{\imath}$ in Old Latin, but class. $\check{\imath}$, a shortening produced in the course of the second cent. b.c. by the influence of the final -t, ch. iii. § 49); I.-Eur. *deiwo-, 'god'
 O. Engl. Tīwes-dæg, 'Tuesday' ; but Gk. $\delta \hat{o}$ os is for * $\delta \iota f \iota o s$, like O. Ind. divyá-), Lat. divus, on the Dvenos inscription deiro-. When ŏ of the final syllable was weakened to $\breve{u}$, deivos became *deius (for *deivus, the $v$ being absorbed by the following $u, \S 70$ ), deivom became *deium, which passed into de(y)us, de $(y) u m$ as ${ }^{*} i i-u m$, Acc. M. of $i s$, into $e(y)-u m, *_{e i-o ~ I ~ S g . ~ i n t o ~} e(y) o$, so that the word would be declined deus, deivei, deivō, deum, \&c. ; from this variation arose the 'doublets' divus, divi, divo, divum, \&c., and deus, dei, deo, deum, \&c. (cf. C.I. L. i. $6_{32}$ sei deo sei deivae) ; some grammarians of Varro's time proposed to restrict divus to the sense of a mortal made a god (so later divus Augustus), but Varro contested the accuracy of this usage, showing that in old times dicus was the word for any god (Varro, L. L. iv. fr., p. r 50 Wilm. ; cf. Serv. ad Aen. xii. 139 diva deam, \&c.). Reus (cf. rīvälis, older reiv-), seu (cf. sīvĕ, older seive) are to be similarly explained, though some prefer to suppose that the prior stages of all three words were *dēus, *rēus, *sēu (like Alexandrēa, Darēus, $\& \mathrm{c}$. ), and quote levvis as an example of the passage of $e i$ before $v$ into $e$ (cf. Gk. $\lambda \epsilon i(f)$ os) (von Planta, Osk.-Umbr. Dial. i. p. 145). Neu, ceu are most naturally explained as shortenings from *nēu (cf. nēve), *cēu (cf. Gk. $\kappa \hat{\eta}$, Lat. cē-teri, B. B. xv. 313), though they also admit of being referred to *nei-u (from 0 . Lat. nei, $n i$, used in the sense of class. $n \bar{e}$ ), and from a Locative, either Demonstr. *cei (ch. vii. § 15) or Relative quei, qui (ch. vii. § 23). On meio see ch. viii. § 6, ejus ch . vii. § 13 , peior below § 116.
§ 34. EI and I in Inscriptions, \&c. On the S. C. de Bacchanalibus of 186 b.c. (C. I. L. i. 196) we have deicerent (I.-Eur. ei), inceideretis (I.-Eur. post-tonic ai), foideratei (I.-Eur. final -oi). But we have ei employed merely to indicate long $i$ in audeire of the Lex Repetundarum of $123-122 \mathbf{~ в . ~} \mathbf{c}$. (i. 198) ; ameicitiam of the Lex Agraria of III в.c. (i. 200) ; ameicorum, věneire (i. 203, of 78 в. c.) ; erceiscunda deividunda and feient of the Lex Rubria of 49 B. c. (i. 205) ; esureis on a leaden bullet used at the siege of Perusia with the cruel message carved on it, esureis et me celas (i. 692); veivos (i. 1256), \&c. ; and this seems to be the function of $e i$ in the Plautine text represented by the Codex Ambrosianus (see Index to Studemund's Apograph, p. 504). Even as early as the end of the third cent. b. c. we have opeinod deuincam ted on a Praenestine mirror with a representation of a gaming-table (Rendic. Accad. Lincei, v. p. 253, 1889). The transition stage from ei to $i$ is perhaps marked by the spelling $e$ in ploirume (Nom. PI.) on a Scipio epitaph of the end of the third cent. B. c. (C.I.L. i. 32), conpromesise on the S. C.

Bacch. of 186 в. c. (i. 196; cf. ameiserunt, i. 204), though this spelling is often nothing but a dialectal variety, e. g. uecos (Lat. vei-, vīcus) on an inscription from the Marsic territory (i. 183) (cf. Umbr. devo-, 'god,' Lat. divo-). Now and then we find $e i$ written for a short vowel, as in inpeirator on the inscription of Aem. Paulus Macedonicus, from Spain (C.I. L. ii. 5041, of 189 b. c.), leiteras (see ch. ii. § 130), and seine on the Lex Repetundarum (i. 198); so in the Ambrosian Palimpsest of Plautus, ibeis, Cas. 92 ; curabeis, Merc. 526. And ei appears occasionally even for the $\bar{e}$-sound, as in pleib-, in an old inscription found between Rome and Ostia (Eph. Epigr. i. 3), in leigibus on a Praenestine cippus of erratic orthography (pro sed sueq for pro se suisque, \&c.) (C.I. L. xiv. 2892), and in decreivit on the Spanish inscription of 189 в.c., just mentioned (C. I. L. ii. 5041) (see ch. ii. § II). The Dative forms in ee on old inscriptions (e. g. C.I.L. i. Irio Iunone Seispitei Matri) are best explained as graphical varieties of the Dat. in $-e i$, class. $-\bar{i}$ (see ch. vi. § 28), and similarly the 3 Sg. Perf. Act. forms in -ed, -et, e. g. fefaced on the Praenestine fibula, dedet (beside cepit) on a Scipio epitaph (C.I. L. i. 32), as graphical varieties of -eit (e.g. probareit beside coeravit, i. 600) (see ch. viii. §70). The Plautine spelling must have been mendico-, eira to judge from the remarks in Rud. 1305 that mendicus has 'one letter more' than medicus, and in Truc. 262 that comprime sis eiram becomes comprime sis eram by 'taking away a single letter.' (Cf. Early Greek E for EI).
§ 35. EU. This diphthong has been merged in ou in most languages ; but Greek, with $\epsilon v$ and $o v$, and Gothic, with iu and au, will serve as criteria. We find $e u$ in Latin in the interjections heu (cf. Gk. $\phi \in \hat{v}$ ), eleu, heus; the pronoun neuter [a trisyllable (ch. ii. § $3^{2}$ ), from $n \breve{e}$ and $u t e r$, with accent on the $n e$, whereas in neutiquam, pronounced nŭtiquam (or nyŭtiquam, ch. ii. § 149), ne being unaccented, was elided]; the conjunction neu, a byform of nēvĕ, seu, a byform of sīve (older seive), cen from *cē-ve or *cei-ve (§33). (On the pronunciation of $e u$ in these words and in Latinized Greek words, like Orpheus, see ch. ii. §§ 32, 46.) Eu is assigned to the Carmen Saliare on the strength of the quotations Leucesie (Ter. Scaur. 28. i I K.), and cozeulodorieso of Varro, L. L. vii. 26 (perhaps $O$ Zen, \&c., ch. ii. § 5), but whether rightly or not is a matter of doubt. (See Rhein. Mus. xxxiv. I on Latin eu.)

Examples of I.-Eur. eu, Latin $\bar{u}$ (O. Lat. ou ) are: Lat. d $\bar{u} c e r e$ (Goth. tiuhan, O. Engl. tēon, Germ. ziehen); Lat. jūgeribus Abl.Pl. from *jügus (Gk. $\zeta \epsilon \hat{v} \gamma o s)$; Lat. $\bar{u} r o(G k . \epsilon v i \omega$ for $* \epsilon v ้ h \omega)$. The Greek Полvঠєن́кचs is in O. Lat. *Pollouces, written in the orthography of the early Praenestine inscriptions Poloces (C.I. L. i. 55), and Polouces (xiv. 4094), then Pollucés (so the MSS. in Plaut. Bacch. 894; cf. Varro, L. L. v. 73 in latinis litteris veteribus nomen quod est, inscribitur ut Пoגvóєúкns, 'Polluces,' non ut nunc, Pollux).

Before a vowel $e u(e v)$ from I.-Eur. ew similarly became ov in the accented syllable, e. g. nŏvus from I.-Eur. *nĕwo- (see § io), and in the unaccented was reduced to $u$, e. g. dēnй̄ō (see ch. iii. § 24, and for other examples Solmsen, Stud. Lat. Lautg. p. 128); in cloäca, $\& c . \dot{v}$ has been dropped before the accent (ch. ii. § 53), leaving 0.
§ 36. Other examples of I.-Eur. eu. Jüpiter, in the usual Latin spelling Jŭppiter (ch. ii. § Ізо), may have been originally a vocative like Gk. Z $\epsilon \hat{v}$ пár $\epsilon \rho$. (Can the fragment of the Carmen Saliare quoted above from Varro have 0 Zeu with $Z$ for the sound $d y$-, as in Oscan inscriptions written in Roman characters we find zicolo- as the Diminutive of the word for 'day,' like Latin diēcūla ?).
§ 37. OU, U in Inscriptions. The diphthong was reduced very early to a simple sound, as is natural where the two elements of the diphthong have so close affinity as $o$ and $u$. We have $\bar{u}$ for ou (I.-Eur. eu) in the name Lucius in two of the oldest Scipio epitaphs (C.I.L. i. 32 Luciom ; i. 30 Lucius with Loucanam, and abdoucit), not later than 200 в. с. ; deducundae, 181 в. с. (i. 538); Lucius in a dedicatory inscription of the consul Mummius, 146 в. с. (i. 542) ; luuci and iurarint (with iouranto, ioudicetur, ioudex, \&c.) in the Lex Bantina of 133-118 в.c. (i. 197) ; iurato, iudicibus, duco (with ioudicium, ioudicatio, ious) on the Lex Repetundarum of 123 -122 в.c. (i. 198), while the spelling with ou is entirely discarded in the Lex Cornelia of 81 в. с. (i. 202, with iuus, iure, \&e.). Now and then ou occurs for a short vowel, e. g. ioubeatis (beside iousiset) in the S. C. Bacch. (i. 196) (but see ch. viii. § 29), proboum on old coins (i. r6), Laoumeda on an old Praenestine vase (xiv. 4108, or Lad-?), possibly to represent the transition-sound between $\check{o}$ and $\breve{u}$, or in imitation of the Greek orthography, in which ov represented the u-sound, $v$ the ü-sound. Ou is sometimes used for $\bar{u}$ (I.-Eur. oi), e. g. couraverunt (i. 1419, from Picenum), plourume (with Cloul[i] for Cloelius, i. 1297, from near Amiternum), though not at all to the same extent as $e i$ for $\bar{i}$. (On ou for I.-Eur. ou, see § 4r.) The spelling o for ou (I.-Eur. eu) is dialectal, e.g. Poloces and Losna on a Praenestine mirror (i. 55) (cf. Umbr. toro- for Latin tauro-, bull). On Latin inscriptions o occurs for I.-Eur. ou, and for the new ou-diphthong, which arose by syncope in words like nov(e)ntius, cov(e)ntio, but not for I.-Eur. eu or ū. The spellings poblico-, puplo-, \&c. (see index to C.I.L. i.), are due to confusion of the two radically different words $p \bar{u} b e s$ and pŏp(u)lus.
§ 38. OI. I.-Eur. oi was oi till the second century, then came to be written $o e$, and finally passed into the sound $\bar{u}$, though oe was still written in some words which belonged to legal or official diction, e.g. foedus, a treaty, poena (but punio), Poenus, moenia (but munio), öboedio, in the poetic words foedus, foul, $\breve{a}$ moenus, and in the family name Cloelius. Thus I.-Eur. *oino-, 'one' (cf. *oiwo-, Gk. oios, 'alone') (Gk. olv ${ }^{\text {o }}$, the ace, O. Ir. oen, W. un, Goth. ains, O. Engl. ān, Engl. one, an, a, Pruss. ains, Lith. vếnas, O . Sl. inŭ; in Greek the numeral-root used was I.-Eur. sem- of Lat. sëmel, \&c., єis for $*_{\text {sem-s, }} \mu i a$ for $*_{\sigma \mu ı a, ~ ह ै \nu ~}^{\text {é }}$
for *sem), Lat. unus, older oenus, oino-. I.-Eur. oi is a grade of an ei-root, often seen in the Perfect Tense or in a derivative noun, e.g. woid- in the Perfect of weid-, 'to know' (Gk. oiioa and
 assessment, fine,' from quei-,' ' to value, care for' (Gk. $\pi \boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\nu} \eta^{\prime}$, from $\tau \epsilon i \omega$, often written $\tau^{i} \omega$, borrowed by the Romans, poena, Zend. kaẹnā-, O. Sl. cěna, the k and c in these two examples indicating oi not ei) and similarly in Latin, e.g. foedus, a treaty, from feido, fìdo, just as ŏ appears in the similar grade of č-roots, in pondus from pendo. After initial $v$ - Latin oi became $e i$, as $\check{o}$ became $\breve{e}$ in vorsus, versus, \&c. (§ 1о), e.g. vīdi in older spelling veidei, from I.-Eur. *woidai (-ai), Perf. Mid. (O. Sl. vědě; cf. Gk. oî̀a, Goth. wait, O. Engl. wāt, Engl. wot).

In the unaccented syllable oi became ei, class. $\bar{\imath}$ in the nautical term anquīna, a truss, a loanword from the Greek (à $\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{\prime} о$ ív $\eta$ ), perhaps adapted to Latin nouns in -ina (Non. 536. 5 M. anquinae vincla quibus antennae tenentur), but in most cases was as resistive of weakening as o (ch. iii. § I 8), e. g. sē-curus from cura, older coira, impunis (impoene Cato frag. p. 37. 21 Jord.) from poena (cf. punio); in the final syllable $e i, \bar{\imath}$ is regular, e.g. Nom. Pl. populi, earlier pop(u)lei, from a still earlier poploe. (Fest. 244. 24 Th. quotes from the Carmen Saliare pilumnoe poploe, a designation of the Romans 'velut pilis uti assueti.') A spurious diphthong $o i$, oe, class. $\bar{u}$, has arisen through composition in coep $i$ (older cöepi), coetus for co-itus, and through loss of $v$ before the accent in Julius, older Iuilio- from *Io(v)illius (§43) (cf. Cloelius, older Cluilius, from the root *klew-, 'to be heard, famous'). On cui from quoi, see ch. vii. § 25 , and on $n o \bar{n}$ from noen(um), ch. x. § 18.
§ 39. Other examples of I.-Eur. oi. Lat. mūnus, Pl. mūnera, *müne, Pl. moenia, mūnia, mūnč̈їрium, com-mūnis, im-mūnis, O. Lat. moini-cipio-, comoinem (C.I.L. i. 196, of 186 в. c.) (Goth. ga-mains, Germ. ge-mein, 'common,' Lith. maĩnas, 'exchange,' O. Ir. moini, maini, 'gifts'), and from the same root mūto, to exchange, mütuus, lent (Sicil. Gk. $\mu$ oívos, requital, Goth. maibms, 'a gift,' Lett. meetōt, 'to exchange') ; Lat. ütor, O. Lat. oit-ile (C.I.L. i. 201. 9), oeti (i. 603.6.8), \&c. (cf. Mart. Cap. iii. 236 'oisus' etiam dicitur; sic enim veteres usum dixere) seem to show, like Gk. oltos, fate, 'portion,' the o-grade of a root eit-, seen perhaps in Osc. eítiuvā-, 'money,' for *eitu-; cünae shows the o-grade of the root kei-, 'to lie' (Gk. кєi- $\mu a \iota$; cf. кoítך).
§40. OI, OE, U on Inscriptions. $O i$ is reduced to $\bar{u}$ in a Scipio epitaph of the beginning of the second cent. B.C. (C.I. L. i. 33) with utier ; so usura in one of Mummius' tithe-dedications to Hercules (i. 542) of 146 в. c. ; muru Acc. on
a Capua inscription of c. 135 в. c. (Eph. Epigr. viii. 476) ; procurandae (with oinā and moinicipieis) on the Lex Agraria of ini b. c. (C.I.L.i. 200). But the spelling $o i$, and after it the spelling oe, long continued to be used, especially in such phrases as faciundum coiraverunt (coeraverunt) in magisterial inscriptions (e.g. i. 566 , of 106 в. c. coiravere and loid[os] ; i. 6oo, of 62 в. c. coeravit ; i. 617 , of $5 \mathbf{1}$ b. с. coeraver.) ; and Cicero in the laws which he draws up for his ideal state seems to think that the official style demands the spelling oe (e.g. ploeres, Legg. iii. 3. 6 ; oenus, ib. iii. 3. 9 ; coerari and oesus, ib. iii. 4. 1o), though in the Lex Julia Municipalis of 45 в. c. (C.I. L. i. 206) we have regularly curo, utor, municipium (once foidere), and similarly on the Lex Rubria of 49 B. c. (i. 205), ludus (not loedus), the form used in the Comm. Lud. Saec. and the Mon. Anc., both of Augustus' reign, though Virgil MSS. often show moerus for murus (see Ribbeck's Index). The traditional nature of this spelling, even in the second cent. b. c., is seen from the occurrence of spellings like murus side by side with coeraverunt, \&c., e.g. i. $5^{66}$, of 106 в. c., murum . . . coeravere . . . loedos; i. 568, of 104 B. c., murum . . . coiraver- ; Eph. Epigr. viii. 460, of 108 в. с., murum . . . coiraverunt. Examples from the older literature are, oenigenos 'unigenitos' Paul. Fest. 225. 2 Th. ; oenus Plaut. Truc. 104 (B.) ; proilio Men. 186 (P.) ; moenis, obliging, quoted by Nonius 23. 9 M. from Pacuvius; moerus Accius Trag. 347 R.; moenio in the Ambrosian Palimpsest of Plautus (see Index to Studemund's Apograph); 'loebesum' et 'loebertatem' antiqui dicebant liberum et libertatem Paul. Fest. 86. 30 Th . (Loebasius is given as the Sabine name for Liber by Serv. ad Georg. i. 7 quamvis Sabini Cererem Pandam appellent, Liberum Loebasium ; cf. Gl. Plac. 80. 22 G.). This oe seems to have represented to the Romans a long $\ddot{u}$-sound, the sound, in fact, of Greek $\bar{v}$; and the earlier instances of $u$ for I.-Eur. oi probably indicate this sound. Plautus (Bacch. 129) puns on Lydus (Gk. $\Lambda \bar{i} \delta o ́ s)$ and ludus :
non ómnis aetas, Lýde, ludo cónuenit;
and $o e$ is often used to express $\mathrm{Gk} . \bar{v}$, e. g. goerus, coloephia (ch. ii. § 28).
§ 41. OU. I.-Eur. ou before a vowel (ow) became, as we saw (§ 19), first ov in Latin, then in the second century b.c. av, which in the unaccented syll. fell to $u$, e. g. èluo (ch. iii. § 24). For I.-Eur. ou before a consonant we find sometimes $\overline{0}$, sometimes $\bar{u}$. Occasionally both these spellings occur for the same word. Thus I.-Eur. *roudho-, 'red' (Goth. raups), is Latin rōbus, rōb-īgo [the form rubigo (with $\bar{u}$ like rufus, or with $\breve{u}$ like ruber?) is rejected in the Probi Appendix, 199. 5 K. ; cf. the gloss robigo non 'rubigo' C. G.L. v. 144. 32, and see ch.ii. § 24], and rüfus, the last being shown by its $f$, instead of $d$ or $b$ (§ 114), to be dialectal. $R u \bar{b} \check{\imath}-d u s$ comes from a verb in -eo (cf. hümĭdus from hūmeo, căludus from căleo, \&c.), *rūbeo, with I.-Eur. eu of Gk. $\grave{\rho} \in \dot{v} \theta \omega$, while the ordinary form of the verb, rŭbeo, shows, like rüber (Gk. $\epsilon^{\epsilon} \rho v \theta \rho o{ }^{\prime}$ ), the ŭ of the weak grade of the root, I.-Eur. rǔdh. The same variety of spelling is seen in a word indicating unshaped metal, \&c., rödus and rūdus, though the normal spelling
is perhaps raudus (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s.v.), the weak grade of this stem (perhaps connected with the stem of robbus, rüfus) being apparently seen in rüdis, which means rough, literally, e. g. aes rude, or rough, metaphorically, e. g. arte rudis, in Ovid's criticism of Ennius : Ennius ingenio maximus, arte rudis. [Varro, L. L. v. 163 deinde (porta) Rauduscula, quod aerata fuit. Aes 'raudus' dictum : ex eo veteribus in mancipiis scriptum 'raudusculo libram ferito'; Festus 356. 4 Th. rodus, vel raudus significat rem rudem et imperfectam, nam saxum quoque raudus appellant poetae, ut Accius . . . hinc manibus rapere roudus (so the MS.) saxeum ; Paul. Fest. 377. I Th. Rodusculana porta appellata, quod rudis et impolita sit relicta, vel quia raudo, id est aere, fuerit vincta]. This variety of spelling suggests that I.-Eur. ou became in Latin an $a u$-sound, which was sometimes written, like Lat. au from I.-Eur. au (§ 30 ), as $\bar{o}$, sometimes, like Lat. on from I.-Eur. eu (§35), as $\bar{u}$; though, owing to the scarcity of reliable instances, it is impossible to determine how far these spellings corresponded to the pronunciation of the diphthong at various periods, or how far they were influenced by the analogy of other grades of the same root. For the higher grade with I.-Eur. ōu, $\bar{o}$ would have in Latin $\bar{o}(\S 50)$, and the weak grade of an eu-root with I.-Eur. $\breve{u}$ would have in Latin $\breve{u}$ (§ 23), while a $\bar{u}$-grade (I.-Eur. $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$, Lat. $\bar{u}$ ) was also not unknown (§51). The Latin diphthong corresponding to I.-Eur. eu had thus a different sound from the representative of I.-Eur. ou. An ou-diphthong arose in Latin also from I.-Eur. -og(h) ${ }^{\mathrm{u}}$-, for the velar $\mathrm{g}(\mathrm{h}) \mathrm{u}$ took in Roman lips the sound of $v(u)$. Thus I.-Eur. *nŏg ${ }^{\text {dĕ }}$ do- became in Latin ${ }^{*}$ noved $o$-, ${ }^{*}$ noudo-, whence *nüdus, an example which suggests that the ou from I.-Eur. $o g(h)^{u}$ had the same sound as the ou from I.-Eur. eu, and was developed in the same way to long $u$. Also by syncope in words like O. Lat. noventius (as in the prophecy of Cn. Marcius : quamuis nouentium duonum negumate, ap. Fest. 164. 28 Th.) with Lat. ŏv, I.-Eur. ĕw, O. Lat. *novend̆̆nae, from nŏvem (I.-Eur.
 O. Ind. dina-, \&c. For this spurious ou we have first $\bar{o}$, later $\bar{u}$.

[^53]Quint. i. 4. 16), perhaps showing the o-grade, I.-Eur. noud- (Goth. naups, O. Engl. nēad, Engl. need, Germ. Noth. Cf. Iatin usus est, there is need) ; Lat. clūnis seems to represent I.-Eur. k̂loun- (O. Scand. hlaunn, 'haunch,' but Gk. «入óvis), though the word occurs so seldom in the older writers that we cannot say whether *claunis, *clōnis were earlier spellings; Lat. lūcus is I.-Eur. *louko(O.H.G. lōh, 'copse, brushwood,' the -loo of Water-loo, O. Engl. leah, Engl.lea), properly an open space in a wood, like the German Lichtung (cf. collūcare, to make a clearing in a wood), showing the o-grade of the I.-Eur. root leukof Lat. lūceo, \&c., so that the old etymology 'lucus a non lucendo' had a grain of truth after all. The O. Lat. spelling shows -ou-, e. g. in hoce loucarid on the inscription of Luceria (C. I. L. ix. 782) ; honce loucom . . . quod louci siet on the inscription of Spoletium (C. I. L. xi. 4766) ; the Perfect Part. Pass. of lăvo, to wash, I.-Eur. lŏw- (Gk. $\lambda o v i \omega)$ is lautus, later lōtus (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.); the Dat. (Abl.) Plur. of bōs, bŏvis (I.-Eur. *gū̄u-s, *gŭŏw-es) is bōbus and būbus; formed from the same stem bou-after the fashion of instar (ch.iii. §36), comes the word spelt bustar in the Glossary of Philoxenus, and bostar in the Glossary of Cyrillus, and stated in both glossaries to be the equivalent of the Greek $\beta_{00}$ ofá$\sigma o v$, a word which must have belonged to the older period only, for Spanish and Portuguese alone preserve it [Span. bostar, Port. bostal, indicating a Latin original bōstar ; bustar, a place for burning a dead body, (Charisius 38 . 19 K.), is a quite different word, connected with būstum] ; Lat. ūber appears to show the $\bar{u}$-grade of the root, like 0 . Ind. údhar, 0 . Engl. ūder, Lith. üdrưti,' to give milk,' but the ou-grade of Gk. oz̃ $\theta a \rho$, Gen. -aros for -ṇtos, meaning (r) udder, (2) fertility of soil, may appear in the (dialectal) name of a river in Latium, $\bar{U}$ fens (modern Uffente) [cf. the Apulian river, Aufidus (modern Ofanto)], from which comes the name of one of the Roman tribes Ufentina, in Old Latin Oufentina (see Index to C.I.L. i.), also Vofentina, and ofentina (C. I.I. xi. 5702), in Greek inscriptions ' $\Omega \phi$-, Ovi $\omega \phi$ - (Eckinger, p. 44).
§ 43. $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ for older ovǐ, ovè. By the composition of com-, co- with vir we get the word ${ }^{*}$ coviria (cf. Volsc. covehriā-), which became by syncope ${ }^{*}$ cou(i)ria, cüria-. The name Jülius (written Iuilio on a lamp found in one of the oldest graves in the Esquiline burying-place, Ann. Inst. 1880, p. 260) seems to come from an earlier* Jovillio-, from a word found in Oscan in the form diuvilä-, later iúvilā-, meaning apparently a gift presented yearly by a corporation or clan to its tutelary god. Here the older spelling Iuil- suggests that the $\bar{u}$ represents not ov(i) but $o(v) i$, the $v$ having been suppressed before the accent (see ch.ii. §53). Jullus is the original form of the substantival name, of which Julius is an adjectival derivative. The trisyllabic Iulus is an invention of Virgil's (Herm.xxiv. 155). Similarly Cluilius, the older form of Cloelius (written on an old inscription Cloul[is], C. I. L. i. 1297), shows its derivation from the name Cluvius, a name evidently connected with the root kleu-, 'to be famous' (Gk. $\kappa \lambda$ ' $\epsilon$-os) [compare the gloss clucior: nobilior, Löwe, Prodr. p. 364 ; Paul. Fest. 39. 2 Th. refers the word to Clonius: Cloelia familia a Clonio Aeneae comite, est appellata. The family name retained, as often happens, the older spelling with oe, Cloelius, not Clülius]. Similarly O. Lat. coventio (couentionid on the S. C. Bacch. of 186 в. C., C.I.L. i. 196), lost its $v$ before the accent, and the two vowels $o$ and $e$ were fused into $\bar{o}$; contio (but see ch. ii. § 147, and below on muntius).
§44. The spurious diphthong ou. Nontio, the older spelling (denontiari on


#### Abstract

the Lex Bantina of r33-ri8 в. c., C.I. L. i. 197 ; pronontiato on the Lex Repetundarum of 123-122 в. с., i. 198; nontiata on the Epistula ad Tiburtes of c. 100 B. c., i. 201 ; pronontiato and pronontiatum on fragments of old Laws, i. 207 and 208) became nuntio at the close of the Republican period (renuntio is the spelling throughout the Lex Julia Municipalis of 45 в. c., i. 206 ; so nuntiationem on the Lex Rubria of 49 в. c., i. 205), though Cicero in his Laws (ii. 2r) uses nontius. Marius Victorinus (12. 18 K .) says the old spelling had ou. For nundinae the oldest spelling is with ou, noundinum on the S. C. Bacch. of 186 B. C. (C.I.L. i. 196, then with 0, nondinum on the Lex Bantina) (i. 197).


§ 45. ĀI. The I.-Eur. root, referred to in § 27 , as aiwě-, ‘ time, life,' is perhaps more correctly āiwĕ- (cf. O. Ind. á ayu-, ' life'), with the diphthong originally long, but shortened in Latin aevum, according to the rule that a long diphthong (including combinations with a nasal or liquid as second element) shortened in Latin its first element when a consonant followed. Final I.-Eur. $-\bar{a} i$, the ending of the Dat. Sg. of $\bar{A}$-stems, shows traces in Latin of 'doublet' forms, (I) $\bar{a}$ (with suppression of the second element, by a similar syncope as produced exemplar from exemplāre), a form which seems to occur on a few old inscriptions, e.g. Iunonei Loucina (C.I. L. i. 189), Iunone Loucina Tuscolana sacra (i. 1200); (2) $-a i$ (one syllable), class. - $a e$ (presumably $\breve{a} e$; cf. Osc. -aí, Umbr. -e, Rustic and Late Latin $e$, ch.ii. §41) (with a shortening of the first element, which properly took place only before a consonant). Similar doublets $-\bar{o}$ and $-o i$ seem to show themselves for I.-Eur. -ōi in O-stem Datives [(1) class. ĕqū̄, dŏmŭnō, (2) O. Lat. populoi Romanoi, Numasioi; cf. Osc. -úí, Umbr. -e], though in O-stems the first (not the second doublet as in the $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stems) established itself in the classical usage. (On these Datives, see ch. vi. § 23.) In Greek this I.-Eur. -āi became $-\bar{a}$, e. g. $\chi \boldsymbol{\chi}^{\boldsymbol{\omega} \rho a}$, later $-\bar{a}$, but in dialects also -aı (presumably $\stackrel{a}{\iota} \iota$, while this I.-Eur. $\bar{o} \mathrm{i}$ became $-\omega$, e. g. $i \pi \pi \omega$, later $-\omega$, in dialects -ol.

[^54]$e$, the long pronunciation of which is a barbarism : barbarismus . . . fit . . .si dicas pernix et 'per' producas, quae correpta est]; the Dat. (Abl. Loc. Instr.) Plur. Suffix of 0 -stems, I.-Eur. -ōis has become in Greek -ots, as in Latin -eis, $-i ̄ s$ (ch. vi. § 48) ; lëntus is a cognate of lënis. (Cf. Engl. 'kept,' 'wept' from 'keep,' 'weep').
§ 46. $\bar{A} \mathbf{U}$. The I.-Eur. long diphthong āu is seen in the stem nāu-, 'ship' (O. Ind. nāús, nāvás, Gen.; Hom. Gk. vךv̂s, v ${ }^{\prime}$ ós Gen., Arm. nav, O. Ir. nau, naue or nōe, Gen., W. noe, 'a dish,' like our 'butter-boat,' O. Scand. nōr), which is in Latin an $i$-stem nāvis, like clävis (Gk. $\kappa \lambda \eta(F)$ is). The -au- of nau-frăgium, nau-stübulum 'vas alvei simile' (Fest. 172. 23 Th.), claudo shortens the first element owing to the fact that a consonant follows (see above, § 45). [That claudo had the same $a u$, as the equivalent of I.-Eur. au (e.g.fraus), we see from its sinking to $\bar{u}$ in the unaccented syllable, e.g. exclūdere, like defrūdlare.] For Latin $\bar{a} v$ from I.-Eur. ōw, e.g. octā̀us, and perhaps flāvus (beside fiōrus, Gk. $x^{\lambda \omega \rho o ́ s), ~ s e e ~ § 50 . ~ G a ̈ u ̈ u s ~(a ~ t r i s y l l a b l e ~ t i l l ~ l a t e ~ L a t i n, ~ H a r v a r d ~}$ Studies, 1891) is the class. form of older Gävius (Osc. Gaaviis), with suppression of intervocalic $v(\S 70)$, a name apparently derived from the root of gaudeo, gāvisus sum (Gk. $\gamma \eta \theta^{\prime} \epsilon$ for ${ }^{*} \gamma \bar{a} F \epsilon \theta \epsilon \omega$ ) (cf. Raius and Rāvius) On the curious remark of Terentianus Maurus about the pronunciation of Lat. au, see ch. ii. § 34 .
§ 47. ĒI. I.-Eur. ēi appears e.g. in *rēi-, ' property' (O. Ind. rấs, Gen. rāyás), Lat. rēs, Gen. rē̄̄ for *rēyī, a root in which the diphthong had apparently in the 'Indo-European period' the doublets ēi (ēy) and ē. The Loc. Sing. ending of E-stems shows the second of these doublets in Latin, e. g. diē crastini, postrïdiē, \&c.
§ 48. ĒU. The I.-Eur. Nom. *dyēus, 'the sky,' shows the long diphthong ēu (O. Ind. dyãús, Acc. dî́vam and dyấm, diyắm; Gk. Zєús for *Zqus, Lat. diēs like Acc. diem; on Jŏvis, \&c., from the stem dyěw-, see ch. vi. § 9). A final ēu-diphthong arose in Latin by the suppression of the final $-\check{e}$ of nevve, and produced the form $n e u$; ceu is probably to be referred to an older $*_{c e}-v e(c h . x . \S ~ i 1) . ~$ The Loc. Sg. ending of U-stems, if this was I.-Eur. -ēu, appears in noct $\bar{u}$, where the $\bar{u}$ represents an earlier $-\breve{e} u$ with shortening of the first element of -ēu (see § 26), so that I.-Eur. *dyēus should be Lat. *diūs (nü-dius-tertius?).
§ 49. ŌI. An example of final -ōi has been already mentioned,
the ending of the Dat. Sg. of O-stems. This in Latin shows the
 (presumably - $\breve{o}$ ), an ending found in very old inscriptions, e.g. Numasioi (Osc. -úí, Umbr. -e) (ch. vi. § 26).
§50. ŌU. I.-Eur. ōu-is seen in the numeral *ơktōu, a dual in form, with the sense apparently of 'two sets of four' (O. Ind. aṣ̂táu, aṣ̂tá, Gk. ỏктє́, Goth. ahtau, O. Engl. eahta, Lith. asztů-nì), in Latin octō. Duals in the Veda show generally -āu (I.-Eur. -ōu) before an initial vowel, - $\bar{a}$ (I.-Eur. - $\bar{o}$ ) before an initial consonant, e. g. dēvāú and dēvă, 'twin-gods ;' and it is probable that these doublets existed even in what is called the I.-Eur. period, so that the $-\bar{o}$ of Latin octo (cf. ambo, duo) will represent an I.-Eur. - $\overline{0}$, and not -ōu. As I.-Eur. ŏw became $\breve{a} v$ in Latin (§ 19), so I.-Eur. $\bar{o} \mathrm{w}$ is said to have become $\bar{a} v$ in the corresponding ordinal number, octävus for ${ }^{\text {octōvus (Gk. öyoo(F)os). The long diphthong seems to }}$ have occurred in the I.-Eur. declension of the word for 'ox,' stem *gŏ̃u- (O. Ind. gāús, Loc. gắvi, Acc. gấm, Nom. Pl. gầvas, \&c., Arm. kov, Gk. $\beta o \hat{s} s$, Dor. $\beta \hat{\omega} s$, according to the grammarians, O.Ir. bou, bō, W. bu, buw, O. Engl. cū, Lett. gůws); but the Latin $b \bar{o} s$ is a doubtful example, for its $b$ - instead of the normal $v$ (§ 139) suggests that it is a dialectal (or rustic) form like ŏvis for *avis (I.-Eur. *ŏwi-, § 19), and not a genuine Latin development.
§ 51. Variation (Ablaut) of Vowels. A root like pet- of Gk. $\pi \dot{\epsilon} \tau \epsilon \sigma \theta a l$, to fly, O. Ind. pátati, ' he flies,' appears in the form ptin Gk. $\pi \tau \notin \epsilon \theta \theta a \iota$, O. Ind. á-pa-pta-t, 'he flew,' the shorter form being a syncopated form of the other, due to loss of accent. Similarly the root ei-, 'to go' (Gk. $\epsilon i-\sigma \iota, 3$ Sg., Lith. eĩ-ti, Lat. it, older $e i-t$, ch. viii. § 2), loses the $\breve{e}$ of the diphthong in the P. P. P. *ॅ-tó(O. Ind. -ǐtá-, Gk. -ıtos, Lat. -ittus), where the accent falls on the suffix ; and eu becomes ŭ, through loss of accent, in I.-Eur. *bhŭgà $\frac{1}{a}$, 'flight' (Gk. фŭyí, Lat. fŭga) from *bheúgō, 'I flee' (Gk. $\phi \epsilon \cup ́ \gamma \omega)$; while en, em, er, el, similarly reduced, appear before a vowel as n, m, r, l, e.g. Gk. $\gamma i-\gamma \nu$-o $\mu a l$, Lat. gi-gn-o, beside Gk. $\gamma^{\prime} \nu$-os, Lat. gĕn-us, but before a consonant assumed in Greek the forms $a, \rho a, \lambda a$, e.g. фatós from $\phi \in \nu-$, to kill, I.-Eur. gh ${ }^{\mathfrak{u}}$ en-, $\delta \rho а к \omega \nu$ (O. Ind. dryśant-) from $\delta є \rho \kappa-$, to glance, I.-Eur. derk-, in Latin en, em, or, ol, e.g. ten-tus (O. Ind. ta-tá-, Gk. $\tau a-\tau o ́ s) ~ f r o m ~$
ten-, 'to stretch,' fors (O. Ind. bhr-tí-, O. Ir. brith, Goth. gabaurps) from bher-, 'to bear' (see $\S \S 8 \mathrm{r}, 92$ ). We may call these reduced forms pt-, bhŭg-, bhr-, \&c., the 'weak grade' of the roots, and pet-, bheug-, bher- the normal or Ĕ-grade. We find these roots also with their ĕ replaced by ŏ in such words as Gk . $\gamma^{\epsilon}$ - - ov-a Pft., oitos, a Derivative Noun from the root ei-, ' to go,' róvos from the root gen-, фóvos from $\mathrm{gh}^{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{en}-$; and gon-, oi-, $\mathrm{gh}^{\mathrm{n}}$ on- may be called the O -grade of these roots. There are also occasionally forms with è, $\bar{o}$, e.g. Gk. $\pi \omega \tau$ dáoua from pet-, 'to fly.' This variation, or gradation, called by the Germans 'Ablaut,' of I.-Eur. vowels has not yet been thoroughly explained or systematized ; the relation for example of $\overline{\mathrm{u}}, \mathrm{i}$ to the ordinary weak grade ŭ, ǐ in words like I.-Eur. *k̂lū-tó- (O. H. G. hlūt, ' loud,' Zend. srū-ta) beside I.-Eur. *k̂lŭ-tó- (O. Ind. š́rŭ-tá-, Gk. $\kappa \lambda \breve{v}$-тós) is not quite clear, nor yet that of the $\overline{\mathrm{E}}$ - and $\overline{\mathrm{O}}$-forms to the E- and Ŏ-forms, e.g. Gk. $\pi \omega \tau$ dáoual beside $\pi o \tau \epsilon ́ \sigma \mu a \iota$. They are generally called 'lengthenings' of the weak grade (of diphthongal roots), of the $\breve{\mathrm{E}}$-gradeand of the O -grade, and are by German philologists classed under the term 'Dehnstufe' (' lengthened grade'). [On these see Streitberg in Indog. Forsch. iii. 306, who explains them as produced by syncope of a following short vowel in *bhōr (Gk. $\phi \omega^{\rho} \rho$ ) for *bhŏr(o)s, \&c., *rēks- (Lat. rēx-ī) for *rĕğ-ĕs-, \&c]. Nor have the grades of other than E-roots been properly equated to grades like pět-, pt-, pŏt-; the variation of the root dō-, ' to give,' for example, which has o in Gk. $\delta t-\delta \omega-\mu \iota$, Lat. dō-num, but a short vowel in Gk. $\delta 0$-тós, Lat. $d \breve{a}-t u s$, of the root sē-, 'to throw,' or 'to throw seed,' with è in Gk. $i-\eta-\mu l$ for $*_{\sigma l-\sigma \eta-\mu l}$, Lat. sē-men, but with a short vowel in Gk. é- $\boldsymbol{\tau}$ ós, Lat. s $\check{a}-t u s$, of the root stā-, 'to stand,' with $\bar{a}$ in Gk. $i-\sigma \tau \eta \mu \iota$ for $*_{\sigma \iota-\sigma \tau \bar{a}-\mu l}$, Lat. stā-re, but with a short vowel in Gk. $\sigma \tau \breve{a}-\tau o ́ s$, Lat. stă-tus; similarly the variation of $\breve{a}$ and $\bar{a}$, e.g. in the I.-Eur. root meaning 'to drive,' ăĝ- in O. Ind: ăjāa-mi, Gk. ${ }_{a}{ }^{\prime} \gamma \omega$, Ir. agaim, Lat. ăgo, āĝ- in O. Ind. ājí-, ‘a contest,' O. Ir. āg, ' a contest,' Lat. amb-äges; and the variation of ŏ and $\bar{o}$, e.g. in Lat. födio beside fōdi, Gk. ôo- $\mu \boldsymbol{\eta}$ beside $\epsilon \dot{v}-\omega \bar{\partial} \eta s$; not to mention the variation of $\breve{a}$ and ŏ in Lat. scăbo beside scobbis, $\breve{a} c i e s$ (Gk. ằкроs, Hom. ă้крıs, a hill-top) beside O . Lat. ŏcris, a rugged hill (Gk. ốkpıs, a point), from the root ak-, ok-, 'sharp.'

Examples of this variation of vowels in Latin are I. in E-roots: (a) Weak grade in (1) Derivative Nouns with $\bar{A}$-suffix, O-suffix, TI-suffix, \&c. (ch. v. §§ 2, 42), e.g. füga (Gk. $\phi v \gamma-\eta$ ) from the root bheug-, 'to flee,' $j u \breve{g} g-u m$ (O. Ind. yŭg-ám, Gk. $\tilde{\zeta u} \gamma-o{ }^{\prime} v$ ) from the root yeug-, ' to join '), fors (O. Ind. bhr-tí-), mens (O. Ind. ma-tí-), mors (O. Ind. mr-ti) ; (2) in P.P.P. with TO-suffix, e.g. düc-tus from dūco for $*_{\text {deuco, }}$ uss-tus (A.L.L. ii. 607) from $\bar{u} r o$ for $*_{\text {euso }}$ (Gk. єṽ $\omega$ for $\epsilon \hat{h} h \omega$ ), per-culsus for *kld-to- (cf. clādes); (3) in Reduplicated Present-stem, e.g. gi-gn-o from the root gen-, sido for $*_{s i-s l l-o}$ from the root sed- ; (4) in Nasalized Present-stems, e.g. $j u \bar{u}-n-g-o$ from the root yeug-, $\check{\imath}-n-q u o$ from the root leiq${ }^{n}-$ (Gk. $\lambda \epsilon i \pi \omega)$, $f_{\imath}^{\prime}-n-d-o$ from the root bheid- (Goth. beita, 'I bite') ; (5) in some Present-stems with the YO-suffix, e.g. füg-io from the root bheug-.
(b) Normal or E-grade in (1) Neuter ES-stems, e.g. gen-us from the root gen- (Gk. $\gamma^{\prime} \nu$-os), decus from the root dek-, nemus from the root nem-; (2) Present-stems formed with the Thematic Vowel, e.g. veho from the root weĝh- (O. Ind. vah-, Lith. vežù, O. Sl. vezaq), sequor from the root seq̈- (O. Ind. sac-, Gk. $\begin{gathered}\pi \\ \pi\end{gathered}{ }^{\mathrm{u}} \mu \mathrm{al}$, O. Ir. sechur), fīdo, O. Lat. feido, from the root bheidh- (Gk. $\pi \epsilon i \theta \omega$ for ${ }^{*}{ }_{\phi \epsilon \epsilon \theta \omega}$ ), dīco, O. Lat. deico, from the root deik- (Gk. $\delta \in(i \kappa v v \mu \iota)$, dūco, O. Lat. douco for *leuco (§ 35), from the root deuk- (Goth. tiuha), īro for $*_{\text {euso }}$ from the root eus- (Gk. єṽ for **v้ $h \omega$ ), pluo, O. Lat. plovo for *plewo, from the root pleu(Gk. $\left.\pi \lambda^{\prime}(F) \omega\right)$. (On the $u$ of pluo see ch. viii. § 6.)
(c) O-grade in (1) Derivative Nouns with $\bar{A}$-suffix, O-suffix, \&c., e.g. procus from the root prek-, 'to ask' (Lat. precor), domus (Gk. סópos) from the root dem-, 'to build ' (Gk. $\delta \dot{\epsilon} \mu \omega)$ ), toga from the root (s)teg-, 'to cover, thatch' (Gk. $\sigma \tau$ ' $\gamma \omega$, Lat. tego); (2) Causative Verbs, e.g. moneo, lit. ' cause to remember,' from the root men-(Lat. me-min-i), torreo, lit. 'cause to dry up,' from the root ters- (Gk. т'́ $\rho \sigma о \mu a \iota)$.
II. in E-suffixes. (I) Nouns of the Second Declension with Voc. Sg. in -ë, e. g. eque, Nom. Acc., \&c. in -os, -om, e. g. equos, equom ; (2) N-stems, R-stems, S-stems, \&c., e. g. temp-ŭs (O. Lat. temp-ŏs), temp-ŏr-is for *temp-ŏs-es Gen., temp-ĕr-i Adv., aug-us-tus
 dec-ōs) ; nō-mĕn, car-n-is, răti-ōn-i. In the I.-Eur. declension
of these stems the suffix may have shown in the Nom. Sg. $\bar{e}$ when accented, $\bar{o}$ when unaccented, e. g. Gk. $\delta o-\tau \eta \rho \rho, \delta \omega-\tau \omega \rho$, in the other 'strong' cases ĕ when accented, ŏ when unaccented, e. g. Gk. $\pi \alpha-\tau \epsilon \rho-a, \phi \rho \bar{a}-\tau \rho \rho-a$, and in the ' weak' cases the weak grade, e. g. Gk. $\pi \alpha-\tau \rho-\sigma_{s}, \pi \alpha-\tau \rho \alpha-\sigma \iota$ (O. Ind. pi-tr--ṣu), but the divergences of the suffix-form have been to a great extent removed in the various I.-Eur. languages, e.g. Gk. $\mu \eta \tau \tau^{\prime} \rho o s$ as well as $\mu \eta \tau \rho o ́ s, \pi a \tau \epsilon ́ \rho \omega \nu$ instead of $\pi a \tau \rho \bar{\omega} \nu$. The alternation of strong and weak stems in Declension, depending on the accentuation of the stem or the suffix, has left its mark in the divergent form of words like Gk. $\pi$ oús, $\pi$ ooós (cf. Lat. trŭ-pŏd-are) and Lat. pes, pĕd-is (cf. Gk. $\pi \epsilon \prime \zeta a, ~ \tau \rho \alpha ́-\pi \epsilon \zeta a$, lit. 'fourfooted,' $\pi \epsilon$ Sós, \&c., for *ped-ya-, *ped-yo-), Lat. pecten and Gk. $\kappa \tau \epsilon$ ís for $*_{\pi \kappa \tau \in \nu s, ~ \& c . ~}^{\text {e }}$

The combination yě, wĕ was treated somewhat similarly to ei, eu, being reduced by the loss of accent to 1 , ŭ, e. g. Gk. $\tilde{v}^{\pi}-\nu$ os for *sŭp-nos (O. Sl. sŭnŭ) from the root swep (O. Engl. swefn, ' a dream '), Gk. $\pi \epsilon ́ \rho v \sigma \iota$, last year, for $\pi \epsilon ́ \rho v \tau \iota$ (O. Ind. par-ut) from the root wet- (Gk. (F)'́tos, a year, Lat. větus). This root wetseems to have lost by procope an initial ă, and the reduced form of ăwět- appears in Gk. èvl-avt-ós, just as the reduced form of ăwěg- (Gr. $\grave{a}(F) \epsilon \dot{\epsilon} \xi)$ in the aug- of Lat. aug-eo, Gk. av̋ $\xi \omega$, O. Ind. ójas-, 'strength,' while ŭg- the reduced form of wĕg- (with procope of initial $̆$ a) appears in O. Ind. ukṣ̆-, 'to grow strong,' Gk.
 weak grades of ei, eu, so we find the same long vowels in forms of yě- and wě-roots, e.g. k̄ū- (O. Ind. šúna-, ' want, emptiness') from the root kwě- (Gk. $\kappa(F) \in \nu o{ }^{\prime}$, empty). On the variation of $\check{1}$ with yě (Ĭye) in I.-Eur. YO-stems, see ch. v. § 4, of i with yē in the I.-Eur. Athematic Optative (O. Lat. siès and sīmus, \&c.), see ch. viii. § 55. Latin con-cŭt-io for *con-quĕt-io from quătio, ab-ĭc-io (with the first syllable short in the older poetry), for *ab-yěc-io from $j$ ăcio, shows that the Latin language had the same tendency as the I.-Eur. to reduce unaccented yĕ to $\check{1}$, wĕ to $\breve{u}$, and in many cases it is impossible to say whether the reduction belongs to the 'Indo-European' period or is a Latin development.
III. in other roots. I.-Eur. ē (Lat. $\bar{e})$ varies with Lat. $\breve{a}$ in Lat. sē-men (Gk. $\hat{\eta}-\mu a$, a casting) and $s \breve{a}-t u s$ (Gk. $\mathfrak{\varepsilon}-$-ós) from the
root sē－，$f e \bar{c}-i(\mathrm{Gk} . \underset{\mathrm{c}}{\mathrm{e}}-\theta \eta \kappa-a)$ and $f a ̆ c-i o$ ，an extension of the root dhē－（Gk．$\tau i-\theta \eta-\mu \iota)$ ；I．－Eur． $\bar{o}$（Lat． $\bar{o}$ ）varies with Lat．$a ̆$ in Lat． dō－num（Gk．$\delta \hat{\omega} \rho o v)$ ，and $l \breve{a}-\mathrm{-tus}$（Gk．סoтós，$\delta o \sigma^{\sigma} \iota s$ ）from the root dō－，cōs（O．Ind．śā－，＇to sharpen＇）and cătus，which in O．Lat．meant ＇sharp，＇＇shrill＇from the root kō－；I．－Eur． $\bar{a}$（Lat． $\bar{a}$ ）varies with Latin $\breve{a}$ in Lat．$f \bar{a}-m a(\mathrm{Gk} . \phi \eta$ $-\mu \eta)$ and $f a ̆ t-e o r ~(c h . ~ v i i i . ~ § 32) ~(G k . ~$
 In all these cases the Latin weak－grade vowel is $\breve{a}$ ，while in Greek we have $\epsilon$ for $\overline{\mathrm{E}}$－roots，ofor $\overline{\mathrm{O}}$－roots，${ }^{\text {a }}$ for $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$－roots，but in Sanscrit ĭ for all roots（e．g．hĭ－tá－from root $\mathrm{DHE} \overline{\mathrm{E}}$ ，dî́－ti－from root D $\delta$ ， sthĭ－tá－from root stā－），just as we have Lat．$\breve{a}$ of pater，which is also ă in Greek and other languages（Gk．$\pi a \tau \eta$ 向，O．Ir．athir，Goth． fadar）represented by Sanscrit y（pǐtár－）．We find even in Greek occasionally $\breve{a}$ in the weak form of $\overline{\mathrm{E}}$－，$\overline{\mathrm{O}}$－roots（e．g．кєка́⿱亠乂口丿ovго beside $\grave{\epsilon} \kappa \epsilon \kappa \eta \dot{\eta} \epsilon \iota, \delta a^{\prime} \nu v o s$ beside $\left.\delta \hat{\omega} \rho \rho \nu\right)$ ，so that we are perhaps justified in supposing a short $a$－sound（ $\breve{a}$ ）to have been the form of the weak grade of $\bar{e}, \bar{o}$ ，as well as of $\bar{a}$ ，in European languages（see § 3）．

The Latin tendency to weaken every unaccented vowel has greatly obscured the traces of the I．－Eur．variation of vowels； prosperus，for example，has spă－（cf．O．Ind．sphh̆rrá－，＇wealthy＇）the weak grade of $s p \bar{e}-$ of $s p \bar{e} s, s p \bar{e} r o$（O．Ind．sphā－，O．Sl．spě－ti）， with $\breve{a}$ weakened before $r$ in the unaccented syllable to $\breve{e}$ ，and crēditus（ O ．Ind．śrád－dhǐta－）has the same vowel weakened to $\check{\imath}$ ．

Words like frăngo（ $\breve{a}$ is shown by con－fringo for con－frengo，\＆c．）， with the weak grade frăg－in the Nasalized Present－stem of the I．－Eur．root bhreg－（Goth．brikan，＇to break＇），grădus，grădior， with a weak form grăd－from the I．－Eur．root ghredh－，＇to step＇ （Goth．grips，＇a step＇），suggest that in Latin（as perhaps in other languages，$M . U$. v．pref．）$r \breve{u}, m \breve{u}$ ，\＆c．were the weak grades of
 the weak grades of ěr，čl，ěm，ĕn where the liquid or nasal follows the ě．But we occasionally find in Latin（and perhaps in the other Italic languages）$\breve{a}$ in forms of $\breve{E}-r o o t s$ where e $\check{\text { es }}$ not preceded by a liquid or nasal，e．g．pateo（Osc．pate－）from the root pet－（Gk． $\pi \epsilon \tau \dot{d}(\nu v \mu \iota)$ ；its relation to the obscure or indeterminate vowel （like the Hebrew she${ }^{e} v a$ ），written $\breve{a},{ }^{2},{ }^{e}, \& c$ ．，is not clear（see $\S \S 3$ ， 83，94）．

As an I．－Eur．$\breve{a}$ is the weak grade of $\overline{0}$ ，so $\breve{a} u$ may be the weak
grade of ou ; the Plautine aus-culum, for example, may then exhibit the weak grade of the stem *ōus- (O. Ind. ás-, Lat. $\bar{s} s-)$. It may also be the weak grade of ēu (Caurus or Cōrus, Lith. sziáurè, beside O . Sl. sěverŭ, is quoted as an example), and of āu; and similarly $\breve{a} i$ of $\bar{o} \mathrm{i}$, èi, āi. It is also possible that as ă varies with ŏ, so ai may vary with oi (e. g. Lat. aemidus and Gk. oióó $\omega$ ), and au with ou (e.g. Gk. кav入ós, a stalk, and коìлоs for $*_{\text {ко }}$ Fıлоs, hollow); and some explain in this way Latin forms like lăvo beside Gk. 入ov́w (on which see § 19).


#### Abstract

§ 52. I.-Eur. and Lat. ě and ǒ. Lat. procus (Lith. praszýti, O. Sl. prositi) from I.-Eur. root prek̂- (Lith. perszù and Lat. preces, precor); Lat. noceo, the Causative of I.-Eur. nêk- (O. Ind. naš́-, Gk. v'̇́cus, Lat. nex, \&c.) ; Lat. pondo, in weight (used with ellipse of libra, e.g. centum pondo es, 'you weigh a hundred pounds'), the Abl. of an 0 -stem *pondus, -i, beside pondus, -eris, from pendo, to weigh ; Lat. domus, an 0 -stem in Plautus and the writers before Sulla, I.-Eur. *domo- (O. Ind. dáma-, Gk. סó $\mu \mathrm{os}$ ) from I.-Eur. root dem-, 'to build' (Gk. $\delta \epsilon \epsilon \mu \omega$, $\delta \epsilon ́ \mu a s$, form, Goth. tim-r-jan, 'to build,' Engl. tim-ber, Germ. Zim-mer; Goth. ga-timan, 'to be suitable, conformable,' Germ. ziemen) ; Latin röta, rǒtundus (O. Ir. roth, 'a wheel,' W. rhod, O. H. G. rad, Lith. rãtas) from I.-Eur. root reth-, 'to run' ( 0. Ir. rethim, W. rhedu Inf., Lith. ritù, ' I roll') ; Latin ŏrbus, I.-Eur. *ŏrbho- (Arm. orb, Gk. ò $\rho \phi$ avós, ò $\rho \phi o-\beta o ́ \tau a l$, O. Ir. orbe, from stem *orbio-, 'an inheritance,' Goth. arbi) from I.-Eur. root erbh- ( 0 . Ir. erbim, 'I entrust, bequeath ') ; cīnae from *coinae (cf. Gk. кoít $\boldsymbol{\eta}$ )  § 53. ě and ō. This ō is best seen in the Noun Suffixes -ōn-, -ōr- which vary with -ēn-, -ēr- and -ĕn-, -ĕr-, as well as with -ŏn-, -ŏr-, e. g. Lat. hŏmō Nom., hominis for *homĕnis Gen., Lat. dŭtor, datōris beside Gk. $\delta \dot{\omega} \tau \omega \rho$, $\delta \dot{\omega} \tau o \rho o s ~ a n d ~ \delta o \tau \eta ́ \rho, ~$ סorŋ̂pos (see ch. v. § 57); in Greek it is seen also in the Perf. of verbs with é,  bhlō- (Ir. blāth, Goth. blō-ma, Engl. bloom ; O. Engl. blōs-tm, Engl. blossom ; O. Engl. blō-wan, Engl. to blow, of flowers), which is connected with the root bhlé- of Lat. feemina, congestion of blood (Goth. uf-blēsan, Germ. auf-blasen),  $\pi \lambda \hat{\eta} \theta o s)$ seems to be connected with the root plō- of Ir. lār, Engl. floor, \&c.; but these are rather to be explained like ĝnō- and ĝnā- of Lat. gnōtus, and gnārus (§ $\mathbf{1}$ ).


§54. ō-ă, è-ă. From root lēd-, 'to leave, to let' (Goth. lētan, O. Engl. lǣtan, Engl. let), with $\bar{o}$-grade in Goth. lai-lōt Perf., we have in the weak grade Lat. lăssus (Goth. lats, Germ. lass); Lat. catus, which Varro makes the equivalent of ăcütus, used in Old Latin and in the Sabine dialect of sounds, i. e. sharp, shrill (L. L. vii. 46 apud Ennium :
iam cata signa fere sonitum dare voce parabant.
Cata acuta; hoc enim verbo dicunt Sabini : quare:

## catus Aelius Sextus

non, ut aiunt, sapiens, sed acutus) is in O. Ind. sítá-, 'sharp,' from sá-, 'to

## §§ 52-56.] REPRESENTATIVES OF I.-EUR. VOWEL-GRADES. 259

sharpen,' and is connected with Lat. cōs, a whetstone (like dōs from root dō-). Similarly we have ră-tus beside rē-ri, füc-io beside féc-i (ch. viii. §41), and from I.-Eur. ō̂̄-, 'swift' (connected with āk̂-, ‘sharp'?) (O. Ind. āšú-, Gk. $\dot{\omega} \kappa$ ús, Lat. ōcior) acupedium (presumably with $\check{\text { én }}$ ), equated in the Philoxenus and
 Fest. 7. 19 Th. is a mistake, see Class. Rev. v. p. 9) ; accipiter (ăcc- Ter. Maur. 1267) is probably a corruption of *ăcu-peter (cf. O. Ind. āśu-pátvan- for *ôku-, 'swift-flying,' and Gk. $\dot{\omega} \kappa v-\pi \epsilon \in \tau \eta s$, the epithet of a hawk in Hesiod, Op. 2ro), due to a popular etymology from accipio; the form acceptor, the original of O. Span. acetore, is used by Lucilius (inc. 123 M.) exta acceptoris et unguis, but is censured by the grammarian Caper (p. ro7. 8 K . accipiter non 'acceptor'); ămārus shows the root ăm- (O. Ind. am-lá-, 'sour'), which is usually regarded as the weak form of ōm-, ' raw' ( $\mathbf{O}$. Ind. āmá-, Gk. $\dot{\omega} \mu$ ós).
§ 55. ă-ŏ. Examples of this interchange are Lat. atrox for *adrox (Arm. ateam, 'I hate') and odium; scabo, to scrape (Gk. бкánta, to dig) and scobis, sawdust; acuo, acus, acies, acer-bus (Gk. ă̌кроs, Hom. äкрıs, a hill-top) and ocris (Gk. öкpıs, a point, òkplóєts, an epithet of unhewn stone in Homer), an Old Latin word for a rugged hill. [Fest. 196. 17 Th. ocrem antiqui, ut Ateius Philologus in libro Glossematorum refert, montem confragosum vocabant, ut apud Livium : sed qui sunt hi, qui ascendunt altum ocrim?
... unde fortasse etiam ocreae sint dictae inaequaliter tuberatae ; in Umbrian, and Marrucinian the stem ocri- (Nom. Sg. ocar, in Umbrian) seems to bear the sense of citadel]; ancus, an Old Latin word for a person with a crook-elbow (Paul. Fest. 15. 3 Th. ancus appellatur, qui aduncum bracchium habet, et exporrigi non potest), which went out of use c. 200 b.c., to judge from the fact that the word survives only in Portuguese anco, 'the elbow' (Gk. à $\gamma \kappa \dot{\omega} \nu$ and ¿̇ $\gamma \kappa \alpha ́ \lambda \eta$, O. Ir. ēcath, 'a hook,' from root ank-), and uncus, a hook, reduncum
 * $\delta \iota-\delta \alpha \kappa-\sigma \kappa \omega$. We have Oscan a, Latin o in tongere, a word used by Ennius, declared by Aelius Stilo to be equivalent to noscere, and to be still employed in the Praenestine dialect (Paul. Fest. 539. 5 Th. tongere nosse est, nam Praenestini 'tongitionem' dicunt notionem. Ennius: alii rhetorica tongent. Cf. Fest. 538. 9 Th. [tongere Aelius Sti]lo ait noscere esse), appearing in Oscan in the noun tangion- with the sense of sententia, e.g. senateís tanginúd, 'senatus sententia,' the cognate of our word 'think,' probably from a root teng-. [Cf. the (dialectal?) variation of names like Blossius, Blassius; Fabius, Fobius.]
§ 58. ã and ă. I. Eur. păĝ-, 'to fasten' (cf. pẵ̂k-) (Sanscr. pásśa-, 'cord,' Dor. Gk. $\pi \dot{\alpha} \gamma \nu v \mu_{l}$ and $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \pi a ̆ ́ \gamma \eta \nu$, Mid. High. Germ. vuoge, 'deftness in fastening,' \&c., Mod. Germ. Fuge, and Goth. fagrs, 'suitable),' Lat. păngo (with $\breve{a}$; cf. com-pingo), pepiggi (from *pe-păg-i) and com-päges, păciscor and pāc-em Acc. ; I.-Eur. swăd-, 'to make pleasant' ( 0. Ind. svádati and svādatē, Dor. Gk. à $\delta o \mu a \iota$ and Hom. Gk.
 Gen. năs-os (O.Ind. nās- and năs-, Lith. nósis and O. Sl. nosŭ), O. Lat. nāssum, class. Lat. nāsus (ch. ii. § 129), nāris; similarly Lat. sāgio, sāgus and săgax
 sēee). The Latin words sägio and săgax were used of hounds on the track,
whence praesāgio, to 'scent out' the future (Cic. Div. i. 65: cf. Ennius, A. 375 M. nare sagaci Sensit ; voce sua nictit ululatque ibi acuta); säga was applied to an old match-maker, like Gyllis in the first Idyll of Herondas (Non. 22. 34 M . sagae mulieres dicuntur feminarum ad libidinem virorum indagatrices; cf. Lucil. vii. 6 M. saga et bona conciliatrix). So Latin ācer, stem äcri-, and ăcuo (Gk. ẳкpos, Lith. asztrù-s, \&c., show I.-Eur. ă); Lat. ācri- beside Gk. ă̈cpo- reminds us of Latin sācri- (säcres porci, pigs for sacrifice, Plaut.) beside săcro-.
§57. ě and è. I.-Eur. ĕd-, 'to eat' (O. Ind. ad-, 'to eat' and ādyà-,
 jad-ŭ), Lat. ědo and ē $d l$ Perf.; Lat. lēx, lēg-is and lĕgo, \&c.; I.-Eur. rē̆g-' to stretch, rule ' (O. Ind. ráji-, ‘a row,' ráj-, 'a king,' O. Ir. rĭgim, 'I stretch,' rī, 'a king'), Lat. rĕgo, I rule, rēg-, a king. This lengthening appears chiefly in Preterites, e. g. O. Sl. něsŭ, 'I carried' (beside něsą, 'I carry),' Goth. sētum, 'we sat' (beside sittam, 'we sit'), O. Ir. ro mīdar, ' $I$ judged' (beside mĭdiur, 'I judge, think,' from the root mèd- of Gk. $\mu \epsilon \dot{\delta} \delta \mu a \iota$ ), and in the nouns derived from Verbstems like léx, réx. The occurrence of the long vowel in some Present-forms like Lith. éd-mi, ' I eat,' is probably due to the use of a Perfect-stem as a Present (like Gk. $\dot{\nu} \nu \dot{\omega} \gamma \omega$ Pres. from ắv $\omega \gamma a$ Perf.).
§ 58 ǐ and ī. I.-Eur. *w̌̆ro-, 'a man' (O. Ind. vīrá-, Lith. výras have ī ; O. Ir. fer from *wh̆ro-, Goth. vair from *whro-, O. H. G. wer, Germ. Wer-wolf, Engl. were-wolf and Lat. vǐr have ĭ); I.-Eur. *gṇ̆iro-, 'lively' (O. Ind. jīrá-, Lat. virreo). But most examples of Latin $\bar{i}-\bar{\imath}$ are really cases of $\overline{1}-\mathrm{ei}, \mathrm{e}$. g. fĭdes and $i d o$, older feido (see § 13).
 Lat. öc-ulus ; the root ǒd-, 'to smell' (Gk. ${ }^{\delta} \delta \mu \eta$, Arm. hot, and Gk. $\delta v \sigma-\dot{\omega} \delta \eta s$, Lith. üdziu) in Lat. ŏdor ; nŏgñ-, 'naked' (O. Ind. nagná-, Ir. nocht, Goth. naqaps, and Lith. núgas), in Lat. nūdus for *nŏv(i)dus; б̆len-, 'the elbow' (Gk. $\dot{\omega} \lambda \in ́ \nu \eta$, Goth. aleina, 'a cubit,' 'ell,' O. Ir. uile, uilenn Gen., W. elin, O. Engl. eln, Engl. ell, el-bow) is Lat. ulna for *ol(i)na. As with $\bar{e}$ (varying with ě) we find $\bar{o}$ (varying with $\check{\circ}$ ) in the Perfect-stem, in nouns derived from Verb-stems, \&c., e. g. Gk. ö $\pi-\omega \pi-\alpha, \ddot{\omega} \psi$.
 (O. Ind. nŭ, Adv. and Particle, nūnám, Gk. vǔ, vप̆v, O. Ir. nŏ and nŭ, a Verbal Part. often used with the Present Tense, e.g. no chanim, 'I am singing,' Goth. nŭu, O. Engl. nŭ, Germ. nun and sometimes nu, Lith. nù-gi, O. Sl. ny-nĕ), Lat. nu-dius tertius the day before yesterday, lit. ' now the third day,' -num in etiam-num, \&c. (Gk. тoí-vvv), nŭn-c; I.-Eur. l $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ - from the ront leu-, 'to loose' [Gk. Bov $\overline{\mathrm{v}} \boldsymbol{\tau} \delta \boldsymbol{v}-\delta \boldsymbol{\delta}$, about the time of loosing the oxen from the plough, towards midday (Class. Rev.ii. 260 ; Schulze, Quaest. Ep. p. 321), and גüтós?, Lat. so-lütus ; I.-Eur. sŭ-, 'a sow' (O. Ind. sū-kará-, Gk. îs, O. Engl. sū), Lat. sūs and sü-cerdae, 'stercus suillum' (Fest. 432. 8 Th. ; cf. Paul. Fest. 433. 2 Th. ; Non. 175. 14 M.) (W. hw-ch, Goth. sw-ein, O. Engl. sw-in) ; I.-Eur. tū̆, the accented and the unaccented form of the and Personal Pronoun (Gk. $\tau_{\hat{v}}^{\hat{v}-\nu-\eta \text { and } \sigma \tilde{v}, ~ \& c \text {.) , }}$ Lat. $t \bar{u}$ (on tü-quidem, see ch. iii. §5I); I.-Eur. pū̆-, 'to rot' (Gk. $\pi \tilde{v} \theta \omega$, Goth. fūls ist, 'he stinketh,' O. Engl. fūl, Engl. foul, Lith. púti ; Gk. múos for *mŭбos), Lat.
 O.H. G. hūt, Germ. Haut), Lat. curtis. But usually the alternation of $\bar{u}$ with $\breve{u}$ in Latin is the alternation of I.-Eur. eu, ou with ŭ, e. g. dūco and düx, fūgi and

## §§ 57-62.] REPRESENTATIVES OF I.-EUR. VOWEL-GRADES. 26I

fügio (see § 23). The ū-grade of eu-roots and the i-grade of ei-roots are frequent before certain suffixes, especially the TO-suffix (ch. v. § 28), e. g. I.-Eur. *lū-to- (Lat. so-lūtus, Hom. Bou- $\lambda \bar{v} \tau \delta \partial v-\delta \epsilon$ ), though the ŭ-grade and ĭ-grade are most common in the P. P. P., e.g. Gk. $\lambda \breve{v}-\boldsymbol{\tau} o ́ s$ (ib.) (cf. defrütum, must boiled down, Plaut. Pseud. 741, Mar. Vict. 24. 15 K. in defruto apicem secundae syllabae imponere debetis, nam a defervendo et decoquendo fit tale; but defrütum Virg. G. iv. 269). [See Osthoff's list of forms with $\overline{1}$, $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ in Morph. Unters. vol. iv., such as Lat. fū-mus (I.-Eur. *dhū-mo-, O. Ind. dhū-má-), sūtus

§ 61. ě and ă. Cognate with 0 . Ind. asán-, Lettish asins, 'blood,' is an O. Lat. word aser, blood, with a derivative *aseratum, a mixture of wine and blood (Paul. Fest. 12. i9 Th. assaratum apud antiquos dicebatur genus quoddam potionis ex vino et sanguine temperatum, quod Latini prisci sanguinem 'assyr' vocarent; Gl. Philox. 23. 56 G. aser : ai $\mu a$ ) which appears with an $e$-sound in Greek ( ${ }_{\epsilon}^{\prime \prime} \alpha \rho$ in the Cretan dialect, $\mu \epsilon \in \lambda a \nu \epsilon i \bar{i} \alpha \rho$ Callimachus). Another Old Latin word sacena, a priest's knife or axe, whose byform scēna recalls the Irish word for a knife, scian (stem scēnā-) (Fest. 466. 16 Th. scena ab aliis; a quibusdam 'sacena' appellatur, dolabra pontificalis; id. 488. 33 Th . scenam genus [fuisse ferri] manifestum est, sed utrum securis an dolabra sit, ambigitur. quam Cincius in libro qui est de verbis priscis, dolabram ait esse pontificiam. Livius in Lydio :

> corruít quasi ictus scéna, haut multó secus)
may be, like another word for a priest's knife, secespita (Fest. 522. 4 Th.; Paul. Fest. 523. 3 Th. dicta autem est secespita a secando ; 'Serv.' ad Aen. iv. 262) derived from seco, to cut. O. H. Germ. sahs, O. Engl. seax Neut., 'a knife,' suggest connexion with Lat. saxum. Lat. aries, Gk. ${ }^{\prime} \rho \iota-\phi o s$, is in Lithuanian éras, 'a lamb,' with $\bar{e}$, and has in Umbrian some $e$-sound, erietu Acc., so that it has been suggested that Lat. $\breve{a}$, Gk. $\epsilon$ (but see § 51 on rєнá $\delta o \nu \tau o$ with $\breve{a}$ from root $\kappa \eta \delta-$ ), may be weak grades of an ē-root; and the same explanation might be given of aser and sacena. In several cases of Lat. $a, \mathrm{Gk} . \epsilon$ we have a Gk. byform with $\iota$, e.g. Lat. pateo, pando, Gk. $\pi \epsilon \tau \dot{d} \alpha \nu v \mu \iota$ and $\pi i \tau \nu \eta \mu_{\iota}$; Lat. quattuor (Osc. petora, Umbr. petur-), Dor. Gk. $\boldsymbol{\tau} \epsilon$ '́ropes, Aeol. $\pi \in ́ \sigma v \rho \epsilon s$ and Hom.
 are: Lat. gradior, and gressus (O. Sl. grędą, 'I come,' O. Ir. ingrennim, 'I pursue,' from root grend-, Goth. grips, 'a step') ; Lat. magnus (cf. măgis, măjor, ch. ii. § 55), Gk. $\mu_{\epsilon ́ \gamma a s}$ (Goth. mikils, Arm. mec) ; Lat. nancis-cor, nactus, Gk. '́-vє $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \kappa \epsilon i v$ (Lith. nèszti, 'to carry,' O. Sl. nesti, O. Ir. conicim, 'I am able'); Lat. labium, labrum (by analogy of lambo ?), O. Engl. lippa from root leb- (?) ; Lat. glacies and gelu; Lat. alnus, Lith. eĩksnis, O. Sl. jelĭcha, O. H. G. elira and erila, Germ. Erle). Farcio (cf. frequens) shows ăr (cf. confer(c)tus), perhaps by metathesis (like Gk. фарктós beside фрактós) (but see § 92).
§ 62. ou u-ău. Another example of *ăus-, the weak grade of the I.-Eur. stem *öus-, 'mouth,' is aureae, whence, by composition with ăgo, aurīga (Paul. Fest. 6. 27 Th. 'aureax': auriga, 'aureas' enim dicebant frenum, quod ad aures equorum religabatur; 'orias' quó ora cohercebantur, with an absurd reference to auris, ear), a byform of öreae (Fest. 202. 23 Th. 'oreae': freni quod ori inseruntur . . . Naevius in Hariolo :
deprándi autem leóni si obdas óreas,
like our proverb ' to beard a lion') ; austium (C. I. L. i. r463) (0. Pruss. austin, ' mouth,' O. Ind. óṣtha-, 'lip'), a byform of ōstium (Lith. ůstà, 'mouth of river,' Lett. ōsta, 'harbour'). (Schmidt, Pluralb. p. 22r.)

## $\mathbf{Y}, \mathbf{W}$.

§ 63. Y. I.-Eur. initial y is represented in Greek sometimes
 sometimes by $\zeta$, e.g. گvoóv (I.-Eur. *yŭgo-), the same letter as we find used for an initial $y$ - or $y y$-sound which has developed from an original dy-, e.g. Zєús (I.-Eur. *Dyê̆u-). But in Latin both these kinds of I.-Eur. y are represented by $j$, as we write the letter, but, as the Romans wrote it, $i$, e.g. $j u$ venc-us, $j u g g u m$. The question whether this $j$ was pronounced like a consonantal spirant ( $y$ ), or like the half-vowel $i$, , is discussed in ch. ii. § 48 . In the middle of a word it is often difficult to say whether the original form of the sound, the ' Indo-European form,' as we call it, is more correctly expressed by the spirant $y$, or by the vowel i (or iy, ii, 年, \&c.). This would no doubt often depend upon the preceding consonant or consonant-group. The I.-Eur. word for ' middle,' for example, we write * mědhyo- (cf. O. Ind. mádhya-, $^{\text {a }}$ Gk. $\mu \notin \sigma(\sigma)$ os, Goth. midjis, O. Sl. mežda, 'the middle'); the
 (cf. O. Ind. pítriya-, Gk. $\pi$ árpıos). In Latin, this suffix -yo-, -io- appears as -io-, mědius, pătrius, though a word like sŏcius gives us a clue that -yo- may often have been the original,form. For in this word the $q u$ of the root sequ-, 'to follow, accompany' (Lat. sequor), has become $c$ in the derivative with this suffix, and with the o-grade of the root; and this would not have happened unless $q^{u}$ (Lat. $q u$ ) had preceded a consonant (§ iI 6) (cf. Gk.
 socyo- has become in time a trisyllable, *socio-.

At a later period, owing to that wave of Syncope which, as we saw, passed over Late and Vulgar Latin, this Adjectiveending -ius, and similar dissyllabic endings, were reduced to single syllables, the $i$ (now become $y$ ) merging itself in the preceding consonant and giving it a palatal character, e.g. Titius became $* T i t y u s$, and then something like $*$ Titsus; the $i$ 'lost
itself in a sibilant sound,' as a fifth-century grammarian puts it (perdit sonum suum et accipit sibilum ; see ch. ii. § 90 ; also § I5I).

It is this palatalization of a consonant before an $i$, reduced to $y$, which has made many Romance words, especially French, so unlike their Latin originals, e.g. Fr. bras from Lat. bracchium, through *braccy-; nièce from neptia, through $*_{\text {netty-; }}$ ache from ăpium, through *apy-; rage from răbies, rabia, through $*_{\text {raby- }}$; singe from simia, through $*_{\text {simy- }}$ (see ch. iii. § 13). The history of the suffix -yo- in Latin is very like that of the suffix -lo-. After a consonant both developed a parasitic vowel; $*_{\text {soc-yo- }}$ became $*_{\text {soc-iyo-, socius, }}{ }^{*}$ oc-lo- (from root oq ${ }^{\text {º }}$-) became ${ }^{*}$ oc-olo-, oculus; and this vowel was in both cases absorbed by syncope at a later period, *soc-yus, $*_{\text {oclus }}$ (whence the Romance forms, e.g. Ital. occhio). Between vowels $y$ was dropped in Latin, e.g. I.-Eur. *eyā-, the Fem. of the Demonstrative (Goth. ija Acc.) is Latin ea (so in Umbro-Osc., Umbr. eo, ea, Osc. 1 í, io ; von Planta, i. p. 175). Causative Verbs, which ended in I.-Eur. in -eyō (e.g. O. Ind. mānáyā-mi from root man-, the I.-Eur. root men- ; Gk. $\phi \circ \beta \epsilon \epsilon \omega$ from root $\phi \in \beta-$ ), end in Latin in -eō, e.g. mŏneo, I remind, 'cause to remember,' from root menof mĕmı̆ni for $*_{m e-m e n-i, ~ I ~ r e m e m b e r . ~ O n ~ t h e ~ w e a k e n i n g ~ o f ~}^{\text {a }}$ -yě- to 1 in I.-Eur. and in Latin (e.g. ab-icio), see § 5I, p. 256.

The intervocalic $j(y)$ which we find in major, aio, \&c. (pronounced 'măyyor,' 'ăyyo,' ch. ii. § 55), has arisen through suppression (or assimilation) of $h$ (for I.-Eur. gh) before $y$. In the first syllable $y$ is not found after any consonant in Latin, except $d$, and that only in the older period, e.g. O. Lat. Diovem, classical Jŏvem (from dyĕu-, O. Ind. Dyāús, Gk. Z $\epsilon$ ús, while Lat. diēes shows a bystem *diĕu-, O. Ind. Diyāús), though how far this $j(y)$ of Jovem (for $y y$-, I.-Eur. dy-, Gk. $\zeta^{-}$) differed at any time in pronunciation from the $j$ of $j u$ venis (I.-Eur. y-: Gk. '-) and from the $j$ of jugum (I.-Eur. y-, Gk. $\zeta_{-}$), we cannot say. All these have developed to the same sound in the Romance languages, e.g. Ital. Giove, giovane, giogo (with the sound of our j or -dge in 'judge').

The Oscan orthography shows both ii and i for intervocalic $i(y)$, though the paucity of the remains of the language makes it impossible to determine how far this was arbitrary or reflected
the actual pronunciation, e.g. diíviiaí *‘ dīviae,' mefiaí ' mediae'; heriiad is 3 Sg. Pres. Subj. of the verb and heriam Acc. Sg. of the noun derived from her-, 'to wish' (I.-Eur. ĜHer-). The presence of the $y$-sound is indicated by the doubling of a preceding consonant after the accented vowel, e.g. medikkiaí 'meddiciae' Dat. Sg., $\Sigma_{\text {tatrı } ו s ~ ' S t a t i i ' ~ G e n . ~ S g ., ~ P e t t i o-, ~ \& c . ~ I n ~}^{\text {I }}$ the Oscan dialect of Bantia this $y$-sound is merged in the preceding consonant, e.g. Bansae 'Bantiae,' allo 'alia' (see von Planta, i. p. 165). [Cf. Pel. $\neq$ (ch. ii. § 51 ), written $s$ in Musesa.]
§ 64. I.-Eur. initial y. I.-Eur. *yŭwṇ̂̂o- (O. Ind. yuvašá-, Gk. 'rák-ıขӨos, O. Ir. ōac, Welsh ieuanc, Gaul. Jovincillus, Goth. juggs for *juvunga-, O. Engl. geong), Lat. jüvencus, with its cognates jüvĕnis (O. Ind. yúvan-), jürenta (Goth. junda, Engl. youth), \&c.; I.-Eur. *yŭgo-, (O. Ind. yugám, Gk.

 I.-Eur. *yūs- (O. Ind. yūṣă-, Gk. $\left\langle\dot{v}-\mu \eta\right.$ for ${ }^{*}\{\tilde{v} \sigma-\mu \eta$, leaven, Lith. júszè), Lat. $j \bar{u} s$, broth, while Lat. $j \bar{u} s$, law, older jous, is I.-Eur. *yeus- (O. Ind. yós, 'welfare') ; I.-Eur. yā-, 'to go,' formed by adding the suffix ā to i-, the weak grade of the root ei-, 'to go' (O. Ind. yā-, 'to go,' Lith. jóti, 'to ride,' O. Sl. jad) appears in Lat. jā-nua, a door, Jänuarius. (On the tendency to give Latin $a$ after initial $j$ the open $e$-sound, whence Vulg. Lat. *Jenuarius, see ch. ii. § i.) Similarly Lat. jöcus with I.-Eur. yŏ- (cf. Lith. júkas, 'ridicule,' with I.-Eur. yō-, B. B. xviii. 255) (cf. § 59 above). On riēn (Plaut. ; cf. liên) and rēn, see Prisc. i. 149.7 H. On Vulg. Lat. $q u(i) e$ etus, ch. ii. § 151 , and cf. ch. iii. § ir on $\operatorname{par}(i) e \bar{e}$.
§ 65. I.-Eur. y preceded by a consonant. (I) In the first syllable:This y has been dropped in the Latin derivatives from I.-Eur. roots like syū-, 'to sew' (O. Ind. syū-, Gk. $\kappa \alpha-\sigma \sigma v i \omega$, a compound with $\kappa a \tau(\grave{d})$, Goth. siujan, O. Engl. seowian, Lith. siúti, O. Sl. šiti), Lat. suo ; *ĝhyěs-, 'yesterday' (0. Ind. hyás, Gk. $\chi^{\theta \text { '́s }}$; cf. Goth. gistra-dagis), Lat. hëri, with Adj. hēster-nus; though it is possible that there were sometimes I.-Eur. byforms without $y$ (cf. O. Ind. sút-tra-, 'thread,' also used, in the sense of 'clue,' for ritual and grammatical text-books, the Sûtras). So Lat. spuo (Gk. $\pi \tau_{v}^{\prime} \omega$, Lith. spiáuju, O. Sl. pljują, \&c.). There is a similar doubt about dy-. It may have lost the dental at a very early period, for we have Ioves ('Jovios'?) on the ancient Dvenos inscription, and it is not possible to prove that the form Diovem had gone out of use by the time that the form Jơvem came in (ef. Diouem, C.I.L. i. 57 , Iouei, i. 56, both on old Praenestine mirrors). Diovem may quite well have come from a byform *dĭyěw-, as 0 . Lat. siēs from *siyēs ( 0 . Ind. siyấs), a byform of *syēs, ( 0 . Ind. syấs) and have been discarded in course of time for the other 'doublet' *dyěw- Jovem.
(2) In other syllables:-Y after a consonant in other syllables than the first became vocalic in Latin. Thus after $p$ we find $y$ becoming $\tau$ in Greek in verbs formed with the suffix -yo- (-iyo-), e.g. $\boldsymbol{\tau} \dot{\prime} \pi-\tau \omega$ for ${ }^{*} \tau v \pi-y \omega, \chi^{a \lambda \epsilon \pi-\tau \omega}$ for ${ }^{*} \chi \alpha \lambda \epsilon \pi-y \omega$; but in Latin these verbs appear with -pio, e. g. căpio, săpio; after n we find y producing epenthesis in Greek, e. g. Baivo for *gnam-yō, root ghem-, but not in Latin, e.g.věnio. But -ğy-, as has been mentioned, became hy,
then $y$ or rather $y y$, e.g. $\check{a} i o$, pronounced *ayyo, and often written aiio (ch. i. § 7), from ăĝh-, 'to say.'
§ 66. I.-Eur. y between vowels. The Nom. Pl. of I-stems shows I.-Eur. -ěyěs, e. g. I.-Eur. *treyes from the stem tri-, 'three' (O. Ind. tráyas), *ĝhosteyes from the stem ghosti-, 'a stranger' ( 0. Sl. gostije), in Latin -ess for -*e-es, e. g. trēs, hostēs. In the words ăhēnus, ahëneus the letter $h$ indicates the hiatus caused by the dropping of y of I.-Eur. *ăyĕs-, 'metal,' *ayes-no-, 'made of metal' ( 0 . Ind. áyas-), like $h$ in the Umbrian stahu for $*$ stā-yo, ' I stand' (Lat. sto). Like Lat. stō for *stā-yo (Lith. pa-stó-ju), are fleo for *flē-yo (O. Sl. blě-ją), neo for *nē-yo, \&c., where the similar vowels $a$ and $o$ are blended into one sound, but the dissimilar, $e$ and $o$, remain in hiatus. Similarly Lat. formo for *formā-yo, from forma (stem *form $\bar{a}-$ ), and other ist Conj. verbs from ist Decl. nouns, like Gk. $\tau \iota \mu \hat{\omega}$, for $\tau \iota \mu \dot{a}-\omega,{ }^{\prime} \tau \iota \mu \bar{a} y \omega$, from $\tau \iota \mu \dot{\eta}$, Dor. $\tau \iota \mu \bar{a}$ (stem $\left.\tau \iota \mu \bar{a}-\right)$.
§ 67. Latin j. Any $j$ which has been developed by the phonetic changes of the language is treated in much the same way as I.-Eur. y. Thus the group $s j-(s y-)$ has been produced by the union under one accent of the two words si audes. The $j(y)$ is dropped, like I.-Eur. y in suo, in the form sōdes, a form which seems to have come into use in the period between Plautus and Terence. For Plautus has the full si audes, e. g. Poen. 757 mitte ád me, si audes, hódie Adelphasiúm tuam, but Terence the shortened form, e.g. Andr. 85 dic, sodes. Internal $j(y)$ after a consonant becomes vocalic in nunc-iam (3 syll. Plaut.), and between two vowels disappears in bĭgae for *bi-jigae from bi- and jugum. On abjëcio, abjücio, abĭcio see ch. iii. § 18, ch. ii. § 48, ch. i. § 7 .
§ 88. W. I.-Eur. initial w is represented in Latin by the sound which we write $v$, and which the Romans wrote $u$. (On the spelling and on the pronunciation of the letter, see ch. ii. § 48), e.g. I.-Eur. *weĝhō, ‘I carry’ (O. Ind. váhā-mi, Gk. (F)ớxos, Pamph. $F_{\epsilon}{ }^{\omega}$, O. Ir. fēn for ${ }^{*}$ fegn, 'a waggon,' W. gwain, Goth. ga-viga, Germ. be-wege), Lat.vĕlio. The suffix wo- after a consonant was perhaps, like the suffix yo- (§63), vocalic in early Latin, e.g.furvus for early *fusuos (§ 148 ; cf. fus-cus), Minerua, a quadrisyllable in Plautus (Bacch. 893); though Syncope, like that which reduced Titius, \&c. to *Tityus, reduced ăruum, lārua, mīluus (all trisyllabic in Plautus) to arvum, larva, milvus. Between vowels $v$ remains, e. g. $\breve{a} v i s, \breve{\partial} v i s$; but in the unaccented syllable we find $u$ for $\breve{a} r$, $\breve{e} v, \breve{o} v$, e.g. dènuo for de novo (see ch. iii. § 24), and before the accent $v$ is often dropped, e.g. seorsum (and sorsum) for sèvorsum, especially between similar vowels, e. g. O. Lat. $d \bar{\imath}(v) \bar{\imath} n u s, l \breve{u}(v) \bar{a} b r u m$ (see ch. ii. § 53). After a consonant in the initial syllable, w is dropped in pius for ${ }^{*}{ }^{2} w-\bar{i} y o-(?)$ from the same root as pürus, but remains (like y) after d, e.g. O. Lat. duonus, Duenos, duellum; though at the beginning of the literary period this $d v$ - passed into $b-$ e. e.g. bŏnus, bĕnĕ, bellum. Side by side with dissyllabic duonus, duellum
we find trisyllabic duonus, duellum, just as in I.-Eur. we have duw- and dw- in the words for 'two' (O. Ind. duvá, and dvà́, Gk. $\delta \hat{v} \omega$ and $* \delta(F) i ́ s$, Lat. duo and $b \check{\iota} s)$, 'dog' (O. Ind. śuván- and śván-, Gk. $\kappa \hat{\prime} \omega \nu$ and Lith. szũ̃). And side by side with I.-Eur. *twoi, the Locative case of the 2nd Pers. Pron. Sg. we have the unaccented form *toi (O. Ind. tvé and tē, Gk. $\sigma o i$ and $\tau o \iota$ ), so that it is often difficult to say when the I.-Eur. form has dropped w, when it has w , and when it has uw (əw), and to determine when the whas been dropped in the 'I.-Eur. period' and when in the 'Latin period.' An ě has been turned into ŏ through the influence of a preceding $w$ in the group swě-, e.g. sŏror (I.-Eur.
 sonant (l, r) I.-Eur. w is dropped in Latin, e.g. rādix for *wrād- (cf. Goth. vaurts, Engl. wort). On the weakening of unaccented wĕ to ŭ in I.-Eur., e. g. *pĕrŭt(i) (O. Ind. parut, Gk. $\pi \epsilon \in \rho v \sigma_{\imath}$ ) from the root wĕt- (Gk. Féros, a year, Lat. vĕtus), and in Latin, e.g. con-cŭtio for *-quetio, see § 51, and on ferbui for fervui, ch. ii. § $5^{2}$.

Latin $v$ often represents I.-Eur. $g^{u}, g^{\text {n }}$ (see $\S \S$ I 39, I43), both
 O. Ind. gam-, Goth. qima, Engl. come), and between vowels, e. g. nŭv-em Acc. for *nighㅁ̣ (Gk. víqa. Acc., W. nyf) from the root sneigh ${ }^{\mathrm{u}}$ - (e. g. O. Ir. snechta, Goth. snaivs, Lith. snaigýti, 'to snow,' O. Sl. sněgŭ, 'snow').

In Umbro-Osc. there are separate symbols in the native alphabets for the consonantal and for the vocalic $U$-sound (written in our transcription v and u respectively). The rules for the use of $u v$ and $v$ in Umbr. have not yet been determined; we have arvia and (once) aruvia, vatuva (never *vatva), \&c. (see von Planta, i. p. 180).
§ 69. I.-Eur. initial w. The I.-Eur. root weid-, 'to know, to see' (O. Ind. vêda, Arm. gitem, Gk. Foî̀a, O. Ir. fiadaim, Goth vait, O. Engl. wāt, Engl. wot, O. Sl. viděti, 'to see,' věděti, 'to know') appears in Lat. video; the I.-Eur. *weik- (O. Ind. viśs-, vēśá-, Gk. oikos, Goth. veihs, O.Sl. vǐsì), in Latin vīcus; the conjunction *wĕ, 'or' (O. Ind. vā, Gk. $\dot{\eta}-(F)$ '), Lat. -vě'; the root wert-, 'to turn' (O. Ind. vart-, Goth. vairpa, Engl. 'woe worth the day,' W. gwerthyd, ' a spindle,' Lith. vartaũ, O. Sl. vratiti Inf.) in Lat. verto. Similarly Lat. vieo, vïtis (O. Ind. vi-, Lith. výti, O. Sl. viti, Ir. féith, 'woodbine,' W. gwydd-fid); Lat. vellus, with $l l$ for $\ln (\S 78)$, (Goth. vulla, Engl. wool, Lith. vilnos, O.Sl. vlŭna); Lat. vērus (O. Ir. fīr, W. gwir, Goth. tuz-vērjan, 'to doubt,' O. Engl. wǣr, 'true,' Germ.wahr; cf. Lith. vërà, 'faith,' O. Sl. věra); Lat. vespa (O. Engl. wæsp and
wæps, O. Sl. vosa) ; Lat. vïrus (O. Ind. viṣạá-, Gk. îós for Fioos) ; Lat. vơmo (O. Ind. vam-, Gk. ${ }_{\epsilon} \mu^{\prime} \epsilon \omega$ for ${ }^{*} F \epsilon \mu$-, Lith. vemiù).
§ 70. I.-Eur. w (and Latin v) between vowels. I.-Eur. *gnīwo-, 'alive' [O. Ind. jīvá-, W. byw, O. Ir. biu, Goth. qius, O. Engl. cwicu- (with -c- developed before u', Engl. quick, Lith. gývas, O.SI. živŭ] is Lat. vīvus; I.-Eur. ${ }^{*}$ nĕwo-, 'new' ( 0. Ind. náva-, Gk. $\nu^{\prime}(F)$ os, $0 . \mathrm{Sl}$. novŭ) is Lat. nŏvus; I.-Eur. *něwṇ, 'nine' ( 0 . Ind. náva, Gk. èv- $\nu$ éa, O. Ir. nōi, W. naw, Goth. niun) is Lat. nйvem; I.-Eur. *yŭwṇ̂̂o-, (O.Ind. yuvašá-, Gk. 'Yák-ıveos, Gaul. Jovinc-illus, W. ieuanc) is Lat. jüvencus. Similarly Lat. clāvis (Gk. $\kappa \lambda \eta(F)(i s)$; Lat. lēvir,
 Lat. aerum (Gk. ai(F) ${ }^{\prime} \nu$, Goth. aivs, O. Engl. $\overline{\boldsymbol{x}}$ ) ; Lat. laevus (Gk. $\lambda a \iota(F)$ ós).
The question of the change of the ending -vos to -vus and -us is a difficult one. The most natural explanation of the change of deiros to deus (the form in ordinary use as early as Plautus) is that given in § 33 (through ${ }^{\text {d de }(i) u s), ~}$ which takes for granted that -ros became -rus when -os became -us (§ 17) [cf. Flaus on a coin of $200-150$ в.c (C.I.L. i. 277), Gnaeus, boum, coum and cohum (§ 19)], and seems to conflict with the fact that the spelling -vo- (with -quo-, -guo-) is retained to the end of the Republic. But it is by no means clear that the spelling $v o$ did not represent the sound $v u$, the spelling vo being preferred to vv, because this last might be confused with the sound $\bar{u}(\mathbf{c h} . \mathrm{i} . \S$ g) or $u v$. Velius Longus (first cent. A. d.) expressly asserts this (58.4 K.) : a plerisque superiorum 'primitivus' et 'adoptivus' et 'nominativus' per v et o scripta sunt, scilicet quia sciebant vocales inter se ita confundi non posse ut unam syllabam [non] faciant, apparetque eos hoc genus nominum aliter scripsisse, aliter enuntiasse. Nam cum per o scriberent, per u tamen enuntiabant. The tendency to re-insert the $v$ from other cases and cognate words, divo, divos, diva, \&c., would interfere from time to time with the natural development of the sound. (Cf. $\S 67$ on abjecio, abjicio and abicio.) On Republican inscrr. we find v in rvents (C.I. L. i. r202), \&c., where $\mathrm{vv}(u v)$ is the orthography of the Augustan age, but that this always represents the pronunciation (as in Pācu(v)ius also written Pāquius; Vĕsu(v)ius, cf. Galen x. 364) is unlikely. [For examples of the spellings vo, vv, $\mathrm{v}(v o, v u, u v, u)$, and for a fuller discussion of the treatment of intervocalic $v$ in Latin, see Solmsen, Stud. Lautg. sect. iii.]
The process of Syncope affected at various periods intervocalic $v$ in different ways. Under the early Accent Law *üvi-spex was reduced to auspex (cf. au-ceps), *vīita (Lith. gywatà; cf. Gk. Bıotí) to vïta, \&c.; under the Paenultima Law *ăvidère became audere, \&c.; in the period of the Early Literature aevitas became aetas, ūvǐdus became ūdus, praevides became praedes, \&c.; while four-syllabled words with the first, second, and third syllables short, which were in the second cent. в. c. still accented on the first syllable (ch. iii. § 8), may have suffered syncope within the literary period or at a much earlier time, e. g. Aulius from Auilios (C.I. L. i. 83, Praeneste). (On the loss of $-v$ through Syncope see ch. iii. § 16. 9.)

[^55]to be I.-Eur. *dĭs-, a byform of *dwǐs (Lat. biss, O. Lat. duis), as I.-Eur. *toi (unaccented) was a byform of *twoi (accented), though some regard Lat. dis as the direct descendant of I.-Eur. *dwis, and O. Lat. duis (class. bis) as the descendant of I.-Eur. *dŭwis. Sāvium, a kiss, seems to represent $s(u) \bar{a} v i u m$. On sos, \&c. for suos, \&c., see ch. vii. § 12.
(2) In other syllables:-Internal -dw- becomes -v- in suavis for ${ }^{*}$ suad-vis; *derviosus, later derbiosus (see ch. ii. § 52), for *der-dwi-oso- (O. Ind. dardū-; cf. Engl. tetter). Vìduus does not show I.-Eur. -dhw-, but -dhëw-, for it represents I.-Eur. *wǐdhěwo- (O. Ind. vidháva-, Gk. $\boldsymbol{\eta}-(F) \hat{i} \theta \in(F) o s, ~ O . ~ S l . ~ v i ̌ d o v a, ~$ 'widow.') Postconsonantal $u$, later $v$, is in Vulgar and Late Latin dropped before the accent in Jan(v)arius, Febr(v)arius, batt(v)ére, cons(v)ére, quatt(v)ordecim, contin(v)ari, whence Ital. Gennajo, Febbrajo, quattordici, \&c. (see ch. ii. § 54), like $v$ between vowels before the accent (see above). The suffix -uo- remains dissyllabic in the classical form of words like mortuus ( 0 . Sl. mrittŭ). . So quattuor (O. Ind. catváras, Lith. ketverì, O. Sl. četvero) ; tënuis (O. Ind. tanvī F.), gĕnua (Zend. zanva, Lesb. Gk. róvva for ${ }^{*}$ रovFa), though tenvia, genva are found in classical poetry, and in the first cent. a.d. tenuis is declared to have wavered between a dissyllable and a trisyllable (Caesellius ap. Cassiod. vii. 205 K.). Late-Lat. mortvus, \&c. (ch. ii. § 48) became mortus, \&c. (Ïtal. morto), as rivus, \&c., rius.
dw-, duw-. Duellius (Duill- ?), consul of 260 в. с., was the first to change his name to Bellius (Cic. Orat. lv. 153 ; cf. Quint. i. 4. 15) ; duonus seems to be a trisyllable in the Saturnian fragments (cf. ch. ii. § 141 r $n$ ), viz. C.I. L. i. $3^{2}$ : dùonóro óptumo fuíse uíro, and Naevius (?) ap. Fest. 532. 22 Th.: símul dúona eórum pórtant ad náuis, duellum to be a disyllable (Aem. Lepidus' inscr. ap. Caes. Bass. 265.25 K : : duéllo mágno diriméndo, régibus subigéndis), as it always is in Plautus (e.g. Amph. 189; extíncto duello máxumo), whereas Ennius has ( $A .168$ M.) : pars occidit illa duellis, a scansion imitated by later poets. (On O. Lat. duis, dui- for bis, bi- see ch. vi. § 59 ; on $d u$ - in glosses, see Löwe, Prodr. p. 363, and add Duellona, C. G.L. ii. 56. 34.)
§ 72. I.-Eur. w before a consonant. Lat. lĭquo, 亢iquor stand for *vliq- (O. Ir. fliuch, 'wet') ; Lat. rĕpens may be a Pres. Part. of I.-Eur. wrĕp- (Gk. $\rho \in \pi \omega$, to fall; cf. Lith. virpëti, 'to tremble') (but see ch. viii. § 18).
§ 73. M, N. In Sanscrit various kinds of nasals are distinguished in writing. The palatal $n$ (made palatal by the preceding j) of yajná-, 'worship' (Gk. àyvós, holy) is written differently from the cerebral $n$ (made cerebral by the preceding ṛ) of mṛ̣ắmi, 'I crush, annihilate' (Gk. нápvauaı Mid.). And in Greek, owing to the fact that $\gamma$ before $\nu$ of $\gamma$ i $\gamma v o \mu a \iota, \& c$. had come to take the sound of the Agma (see ch. ii. §63), * ${ }^{\text {yıəvo }}$ a (cf. Dor. $\gamma^{i} \nu o \mu a l$ ), $\gamma$ was used to express the guttural nasal, e.g. ä้ $\gamma \kappa v \rho a, \epsilon^{\epsilon} \gamma \gamma v^{\prime}$, though in inscriptions we often find ằvкvрa, $\dot{\epsilon} v \gamma u ́ s$. But in Latin we have only the symbols $m, n$ (see ch. ii. $\S 63$, and on their pronunciation, ch. ii. §6r). Before a consonant, though sometimes omitted on inscriptions, they were not dropped in correct speech. Lugŭla, spoon (cf. O. Ir. liag, W. llwy), is not the
same word as lingŭla, strap ; *nüpe in Plautus should be corrected to $\operatorname{nemp}(e)$. (For other instances, see Skutsch, Forsch. i. § 2.)
M. I.-Eur. m is Latin $m$, whether initial, e. g. I.-Eur. *māter(O. Ind. mātár-, Arm. mair, Dor. Gk. $\mu a ̆ t \eta \eta, ~ O . ~ I n d . ~ m a ̄ t h i r, ~$ O. H. G. muoter, O. Engl. mōdor, Lith. motẽ̃, ' wife,' O. Sl. mati), Lat. mäter, or internal, e.g. from I.-Eur. root wem- (O. Ind. vám-, Gk. (F) $\epsilon \epsilon \epsilon \epsilon$, Lith. vemataĩ, Pl.), Lat. vŏmo; I.-Eur. *termen- (O. Ind. tárman-, Gk. $\tau \in ́ \rho \mu \omega \nu)$, Lat. termō, termĭnus ; I.-Eur. rump-, ' to break ' (O. Ind. lumpắmi), Lat. rumpo, or final, e. g. I.-Eur. -m of the Acc. Sg., as in I.-Eur. *tŏm (O. Ind. tám, Gk. тóv, Goth. pan-a, Lith. tã̃, O. Sl. tŭ), O. Lat. is-tom, class. Lat. is-tum. Before $y(i), t, s, d, c$ we find $n$ in quŏniam (for quom jam, and originally used in a temporal sense ' when now,' 'now that,' ch. x. § 13), quan-sei, C.I. L. i. 200.27 (on quăsi, see ch. х. § II), altrin-sěcus, centum from I.-Eur. *ḳ̣ntom (Lith. szim̃tas), septen-triōnes (lit. ' the seven oxen,' according to Aelius Stilo and Varro, who regarded the -trio not as a mere termination, but as a rustic word for an ox, Gell. ii. 21), septen-llécim, nunc (from num, now, which survives in etiamnum in a temporal sense, but usually has the interrogative sense of 'now,' as in our 'now is this the case?', 'now is that true?', where 'now' has something of the dubitative significance of Lat.num), princeps for $*_{p r i m}(i)$-ceps; though a traditional spelling is often used, e. g. numcŭbi, quamtus, O. Lat. quamde, than, \&c. (see ch. ii. § 61). A $p$ is inserted to facilitate the pronunciation of these groups in sumptus, sumpsi for sumtus, sumsi, exemplum for $*_{\text {exemlum, }}$ \&c. I.-Eur. mr is Latin br in hïbernus from *hilrĭno- (§ 13), (Gk. $\chi \in \iota \mu \in \rho\left(v_{o}\right)$, but initial mr probably became in Latin. $f r$. On the loss of final -um by elision in sed from older sedum, nitil from nihilum, \&c., see ch. iii. § 52 .

Latin $m$ represents an original $n$ before a labial, \&c., e.g. impello for inpello, an original labial before $n$, e.g. scamnum from the root skabh-, 'to support,' with Diminutive scabellum. It is sometimes lost in a consonant-group, e. g. forceps for *form(i)-ceps, from formus, warm.
I.-Eur. m is Umbro-Osc. m, e. g. Umbr. matrer, Osc. maatreís 'matris.' Final -m is usually dropped in Umbrian (see von Planta, i. pp. 301, 570).
§ 74. I.-Eur. m ; other examples. I.-Eur. *mědhyo- (O. Ind. mádhya-, Gk. $\mu^{\prime} \sigma(\sigma) o s$, Ir. medōn, 'the middle,' Goth. midjis, 0 . Sl. mežda, 'the middle') is Lat. mĕdius ; I.-Eur. root men-, 'to think' (O. Ind. man-, mánman-, 'thought,' O. Ir. men-me, 'thought,' O. H. G. minna, 'remembrance,' Lith. menù, 'I remember') appears in Lat. mëmĭni for *me-men-i, mens, \&c. Similarly Lat. $m \bar{e}$ (O. Ind. má́m, Gk. $\mu \epsilon$, Ir. mi, Goth. mi-k) ; Lat. sēmi- (O. Ind. sāmi-, Gk. $\eta^{\dot{\prime}} \mu$--) ; Lat. hŏmo (Goth. guma, Engl. groom, bride-groom) ; Lat. cum, com-, with (O. Ir. com-) ; Lat. mors, mortis (O. Ind. mṛti-, Lith. mirtìs, O. Sl. sŭ-mrǐtĭ ; cf. Goth. maurbr, 'murder') ; Lat. fūmus (O. Ind. dhūmá-, Lith. dúmai, P1., O. Sl. dymŭ).
§ 75. n for m . Lat. con-tra from com ; quon-dam from quom; vēnun-do, class. véndlo, from vēno-, sale (cf. Gk. $\bar{\omega} \nu o s), ~ l i t . ~ ' t o ~ p u t ~ o r ~ m a k e ~ s a l e, ' ~ l i k e ~ v e ́ n u m ~ e o, ~$ class. véneo, lit. 'to go to sale' (cf. pessum do, to ruin, and pessum eo, to be ruined). On the spellings damdum, damdam (C. I. L. i. 206. 17. 49,) \&c. see ch. ii. § 64.
§ 76. I.-Eur. ms. In Lat. těnêbrae (Plur., like O. Ind. támăsi, Russ. sumerki) from the I.-Eur. root tem- (Lith. témti, 'to grow dark', Ir. tem, 'dark,' temel, 'darkness') the $n$ seems to be due to the influence of $s$, for 0 . Ind. támisrā, O.H.G. dinstar, Germ. finster, show that *emésrā̄- or *temsrā- was the old form of the stem in Latin. The $m$ remains in těmëre Loc., 'in the dark' (ch. ix. § 5) (cf. O. Ind. támas- from I.-Eur. *tèmes-, 'darkness,' and Germ. Dämmerung). Another example of I.-Eur. -ms- (mes-?) is Lat. ümërus (Umbr. onso-, O. Ind. ấsa-, Arm. us, Gk. $\widehat{\mu} \mu o s$, Goth. ams), and perhaps Lat. nŭměrus, Numerius (cf. Numisius, O. Lat. Numasio-,Oscan Niumsio-); and another example of -msr- is Lat. membrum for * mems-ro- (cf. Goth. mimz, 'flesh,' O. Sl. męso ; also Gk. $\mu \eta \rho$ ós for $\mu \eta \sigma \rho o$-, the thigh, 0 . Ind. māsáa-, ' flesh,' Arm. mis.) The fewness and the contrariety of these instances make it difficult to decide how I.-Eur. -ms- was treated in Latin. Latin -ms- became ns, e. g. con-sentio, con-silio, \&c., from com-, where the $m$ might be regarded as the final letter of a separate word, but mps, e. g. sumpsi, dempsi, where the $m$ could not be so regarded. (On the spellings sumpsi, sumsi, \&c., hiems, hiemps, see Brambach, Lat. Orth. p. 248 ; the Roman grammarians approve of sumpsi, \&c., but not of hiemps.)
§77. I.-Eur. mr, ml are equally difficult to trace in Latin. They are represented by $\beta \rho, \beta \lambda$ in Greek when initial, e.g. $\beta \rho o t o ́ s, \beta \lambda \omega \sigma \kappa \omega, \beta \lambda i ́ \tau \tau \omega$ (from $\left.\mu^{\prime} \lambda \iota\right)$, by $\mu \beta \rho, \mu \beta \lambda$ when medial, e.g. ä $\mu \beta \rho о т о s, \mu^{\prime} \epsilon \beta \lambda \omega \kappa \alpha$. In Irish we find initial mr- to be an early spelling, which was changed later to br-, e.g. mraich, 'malt,' later braich, from a stem *mrăci-, and similarly ml-, later bl-, e.g. mlicht, blicht, 'milk.' The Latin fraces, olivelees, seems to be the same as this Irish word mraich, in which case $f r$ - will be the Latin equivalent of I.-Eur. mr- (for other examples, see Osthoff, Morph. Unters. v. 85), and the $b$ of hibernus, tüber, a swelling, a truffle (from tumeo, to swell), will be like the $b$ of ruber, \&c. (§ $\mathrm{Ir}_{4}$ ), for which $f$ is found in other dialects, e.g. Umbr. rufro-. [Ital. tartufo, 'truffle,' lit. 'earth-mushroom,' from terra and tüber, a name borrowed by the Germans in the eighteenth cent. for the potato, Kartoffel, shows that the dialectal form of tūber had $f$ (ch. ii. § 83)]. The long vowel in hībernus, tüber might then be explained like the long $i$ of infero, infringo, \&c., (ch. ii. § 144), and the original forms would be *himfrino-, tümfro-. On the other hand the analogy of other languages and the connexion of $m$ and $b$ in

Latin would make us expect to find Latin $b r$ as the equivalent of I.-Eur. initial mr-. A further difficulty is caused by gěner, a word which it is hard to dissociate from Gk. $\gamma \boldsymbol{\alpha} \mu \beta$ pós, with $n(e) r$ for -mr-. I.-Eur. medial -mlappears in exemplum for *ex-em-lo-, lit. 'something taken out,' with a euphonic $p$ inserted, while a vowel seems to have intervened between m and l in trĕmulus, tümulus, \&c. (ch. v. § 2I).
§ 78. N. I.-Eur. n is in Latin $n$, whether ( 1 ) initial, e.g. I.-Eur. *něwo-, *newio-, 'new' (O. Ind. náva-, návya-, Arm. nor, Gk. v'́os, O. Ir. nūe, Gaul. Novios, W. newydd from *noviyo-, Goth. niujis, O. Engl. nēowe, Lith. naũjas, O. Sl. novŭ), Lat. nŏvus, Nŏvius, or (2) internal; e.g. the I.-Eur. root sĕn-, ' old ' (O. Ind. sána-, Arm.
 Superl., Lith. sẽnas) appears in Lat. sĕnex, senior, the root angh-, 'to choke' (O. Ind. ạ́has-, 'need,' Arm. anjuk, 'narrow,' Gk. ả $\gamma \chi \omega$, O. Ir. cum-ung, 'narrow,' Goth. aggvus, ' narrow,' Engl. anger, Lith. añksztas, 'narrow,' O. Sl. ązŭkŭ) in Lat. ango, angor, angustus, or (3) final; e.g. the I.-Eur. preposition *ĕn (Gk. $\dot{\epsilon} \nu$, O. Ir. in, Goth. in, Lith. $\mathfrak{\imath})$ Lat. $\check{n}$, O. Lat. en. Before a labial we find $m$, e. g. impello, immūto. But nm seems to have become in Latin $r m$, if carmen stands for ${ }^{*}$ can-men, germen for ${ }^{*}$ gen-men, just as the $n m$ which arose at a later time from the syncope of $i$ in $\breve{a n} \check{\imath m a}$ has become in some Romance languages rm (e.g. Prov. anma, alma, and arma, O. Fr. anme, alme, and arme, Catal. arma and alma, Sicil. arma, Milanese armella). Before $l$ it was assimilated, e.g. cŏrölla for *corōn-la, lıŏmŭllus for *homŏn-lus, illŭgo, illex, malluviae, water for washing the hands, from *man-luviae (so before $r$ in irritus, \&c.), and also after l, e.g. collis for * col-ni-s (Lith. kátnas; cf. Gk. ко入 $\omega$ עós), vellus (Lith. vìtna, O. Sl. vlŭna), as in Greek we
 In ulna, \&c. a vowel originally came between $l$ and $n$ (cf. Gk. $\dot{\omega} \lambda \epsilon \in \nu \eta)$. On the pronunciation of $n s$ as $s s$, or $s$, with lengthening of the preceding vowel, e. g. vicessimus and vicēsimus from vīcensi$m u s$, see ch. ii. § 64. So with $n f(i b$.$) .$
I.-Eur. n is in Umbro-Osc. n , e.g. Umbr. nerus, Dat. Pl., Osc. nerum, Gen. Pl., from the same root as Gk. à $\eta^{\prime} \rho(c f . ~ N e ̆ r o) . ~$ Before mutes and spirants we find $n$ often dropped, especially in O. Umbr., e. g. iveka 'juvencas' (N. Umbr. ivenga), but in Umbr. of all periods before s, e.g. aseriatu and aseriato, anseriato; in Oscan before a mute in an unaccented final syllable, e.g. -et for
-ent 3rd Plur., íak in Acc. Sg. for íank (Lat. eam, with the particle -ce, ch. vii. § 1.5) (see von Planta, i. p. 301).
§ 79. I.-Eur. n; other examples. I.-Eur. *něwṇ, 'nine' (O. Ind. náva, Gk.
 devetir with d- by analogy of the words for ten, just as Vulg. Engl. 'thruppence' takes its $u$ from 'tuppence,' 'twopence.') Lat. nŏvem [for noven (\$ 8x) : a similar substitution of $-m$ for $-n$ has been found in Subj. feram, (O. Ind. bharāṇi)]; I.-Eur. *nō, *nōu, ' we' (O. Ind. nāu, Gk. $\nu \omega$, O. Sl. na ; cf. O. Ir. ni), Lat. nō̄s; I.-Eur. *nās-, 'the nose' (O. Ind. nắsā Du., Lith. nósis; cf. O. Engl. nosu), Lat. nāris for *nūs-is; I.-Eur. *nāu-, 'ship' (O. Ind. nāú-, Arm. nav, Gk. $\nu a \hat{v} s$, O. Ir. nau, W. noe, 'a dish, vessel'), Lat. nāvis; I.-Eur. *nĕpot-, 'grandson' (O. Ind. nápāt-, M. Ir. niae, niath Gen., W. nai), Lat. nĕpōs, Gen. nepötis; I.-Eur. sneighñ., 'to snow' (Zend. snaẹžaiti, Gk. viфa Acc., ả ávóvos for ${ }^{2}{ }_{a} \alpha^{\alpha}-\sigma \nu \iota \phi o s$, O. Ir. snecht, W. nyf, Goth. snaivs, Lith. snaĩgo, Vb., O. Sl. snegŭ), Lat. nix, ninguit ; I.-Eur. *g̀nō-to-, 'known' (O. Ind. jñātá-, Gk. $\gamma^{\nu} \omega$ rós, $^{\text {O. Ir. }}$ gnāth, 'accustomed'), Lat. nōtus, 0. Lat. gnōtus ; the I.-Eur. root bhendh-, 'to bind' ( 0. Ind. bándhana-, 'binding,' bándhu-, 'a relation,' Gk. $\pi \in \nu \theta \in \rho o ́ s$, stepfather, $\pi \epsilon i \sigma \mu a$, a rope, for * $\pi \epsilon \nu \theta-\sigma \mu a$, Goth. bindan, 'to bind') survives in the religious term, of-fendices, the knots with which the priest's apex was tied on, an old word wrongly connected by some Roman antiquarians with offendo [Festus 244. 2 Th . offendices ait esse Titius nodos, quibus apex retineatur et remittatur. At Veranius coriola existimat, quae sint in loris apicis, quibus apex retineatur et remittatur, quae ab offendendo dicantur. nam quom ad mentum perventum sit, offendit mentum. Paulus Diaconus, the epitomator of Festus, has been misled by the corruption offendimentum for offendit mentum (Paul. 245. x Th.) : offendices dicebant ligaturae nodos, quibus apex retinebatur. Id cum pervenisset ad mentum, dicebatur 'offendimentum ;' whence the 'ghost-word' offendimentum has come into our Latin dictionaries; cf. C. G. L. iv. 132. 3 offendix nodus proprius quo apex flaminum retinetur (MS. restinguitur) et remittitur]; I.-Eur. *ghans-, 'a goose' (O. Ind. hąsá-, Lith. žăsis̀s, O. Engl. gōs ; cf. Gk. $\chi \dot{\eta} \nu$ : in Irish the word means a swan, geeis from stem *gēsi-, originally *ghansi-), Lat. anser, properly hanser.
The instances of a nasal ( $n$ or $m$ ) being dropped before a consonant in Latin without 'compensation' are illusory : liğŭla, a spoon, from lingo, to lick, is a different word from lingulla, a strap, lit. 'a little tongue,' though the two were sometimes confused, as we learn from Martial's lines on a silver spoon (xiv. 120) :
quamvis me ligulam dicant equitesque patresque, dicor ab indoctis 'lingula' grammaticis,
(see Friedländer ad loc.) ; lanterna (from Gk. $\lambda a \mu \pi \tau \eta \dot{\eta} \rho$ ) is the correct spelling (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s.v.), laterna being probably a corruption due to a fanciful connexion of the word with lātus ; ty̆pănum is $G \mathbf{k}$. тúnavov, tympanum, Gk. тú $\mu \pi a \nu o v, \& c$.
§ 80. nm. How far the theory that *canmen became carmen is supported by the comparison of cancer with $\mathbf{O}$. Ind. karkara-, 'hard,' Gk. кapkivos, and of crëpus-culum with Gk. $\kappa \nu$ '́申 ${ }^{\prime}$ as is doubtful. For the change of $r$ to $n$ in the first of these examples is due to Dissimilation, like the change of $l$ to $r$ in the first syllable of caeruleus (§84), and the second example, if correct, would exhibit
the same change of initial en- to cr- for facility of pronunciation, as is seen in dialects of Gaelic, e.g. cnu, 'a nut' (pronounced cru with nasalized vowel', enoc, 'a hill' pronounced similarly cr-; in Manx, cronk', gnath (I -Eur. *ĝnōto-) (pronounced grā with nasalized $\bar{a}$ ). In Latin, however, I.-Eur. enand gn- seem to have become $n$ - ( $\$ \mathrm{II} 9$ ), so that crepus-culum, creper, 'dark,' if they represent an earlier cn -, must be dialectal. Varro makes them Sabine words (L. L. vi. 5 secundum hoc dicitur 'crepusculum' a crepero. id vocabulum sumpserunt a Sabinis, unde veniunt 'Crepusci ' nominati Amiterno, qui eo tempore erant nati, ut 'Lucii' prima luce in Reatino; 'crepusculum' significat dubium ; ab eo res dictae dubiae 'creperae,' quod crepusculum dies etiam nune sit an jam nox multis dubium). The Probi Appendix censures the pronunciation 'parcarpus' instead of pancarpus (Gk. $\pi i \gamma-\kappa \alpha \rho \pi о s$ ) (197. $3^{2} \mathrm{~K}$.; the reading is doubtful, and 'prancarpus' has been proposed).
The evidence for the change of $n$ to $r$ in carmen, germen (cf § 91 on $n$ for $r$ is thus not very strong, and a good deal may be said for the view which refers germen to *ges-i-men from gĕro for *geso, cf. ges-si, ges-tum) and gemma to *gen-ma. Carmen may be connected with O. Ind. kārú-, 'a singer,' or with căro (in Lat. a portion of meat, flesh, but in Osc. any portion, e.g. maimas carneis senateis tanginud 'maximae partis senatus, sententia'), as O. Ir. drecht means (1) part, portion, (2) song. (O. Ind. צ́ás-man- Neut., 'praise,' a word which occurs only once in the Rig Veda, comes from the O. Ind. root šas-, 'to praise,' which is usually connected with Lat. censeo. In Compounds with in, con-, \&c. -nm- became $m m$, e. g. im-mitto, com-mitto, so that gemma seems a natural development of gen-ma.
The connexion of $n$ with $l$ seen in Provençal alma for Lat. an(i)ma, \&c. receives an equally doubtful support from the mispronunciation censured in the Probi Appendix (r97. 24 K.) 'cuntellum' for cultellum, and in the curious form of the word neptis mentioned in glossaries, 'leptis' (Löwe, Prodr. p. 340) ; nuscicio explained as 'caecitudo nocturna' [Fest. 180. 23 Th.; cf. nusciciosus, $i b$., nusciosus in glossaries (Löwe, Prodr. p. 17 'qui plus vespere videt')] seems to be a popular adaptation of luscitio (-cio?) (Paul. Fest. 86. 21 Th.), derived from luscus, to the word nox. Conucella, the Diminutive of colus (C. G. L. iii. 322. 9) (cf. Ital. conocchia, 'a distaff,' from Lat. *conucula, Fr. quenouille, \&c.), may be influenced by cōnus. N appears as lin dialectal Greek, e.g. $\lambda$ ápva $\xi$ for $\nu \alpha{ }^{\rho} \rho \nu a \xi .(K . Z . \times x x i i i .226$.) On the affinity of the $n$-, $l$-, and $r$-sounds, see ch. ii. §§ 6i, 96, ro5, ro6. (Cf. Germ. Himmel, Goth. himins, Engl. heaven ?).
§ 81. The Ni- and N-Sonants. For the sounds to which ěm, ĕn (mě, nĕ) are reduced in the unaccented syllable of such a word as I.-Eur. *tṇtó- (O. Ind. tatá-, Gk. татós, Lat. tentus) from the root ten-, ' to stretch,' some write, $m, n$, others $\partial m$, ən (mə, nə),
 In Latin these sounds became $\breve{e ̆ m}$, ӗ», e. g. dӗсӗm (Gk. סє́ка, Goth. taihun), tentus, the $\breve{e}$ being subject to all the changes of $\breve{e}$ for I.-Eur. е̌ (e.g. incertus, Gk. äкрьrōs, undĕcim, decumus, decimus, \&c.) ; in Greek they became $a$ before a consonant [but $a \mu$, a $\nu$ before vocalic $\mathrm{i}(\mathrm{y})$ ]; in Teutonic um, un, and so on ; so that it is only
by reference to another I.-Eur. language that we can tell whether Lat. $\check{e} m$, ĕn are I.-Eur. ěm, ěn, or I.-Eur. m, ṇ. We occasionally find $m \breve{a}, n \breve{u}$ in Latin words from roots in mĕ, nĕ, which are probably to be explained similarly by the weakening influence of the accent, e.g. nactus from the root nek-, nenk-, 'to obtain' (O. Ind. naś-, Gk. $\grave{\epsilon}-\nu \in \gamma \kappa-\epsilon i \nu$, Mid. Ir. co-emnacar, ' potui,' Lith. nèszti, ‘ to carry,' O. Sl. nesti). (See Osthoff, Morph. Unt. v. Pref., and cf. above, § 6I.) Whether Gk. $\nu \bar{a}$, Lat. $n \bar{a}$ of Gk. $\nu \hat{\eta} \sigma \sigma a$ (Lat. ănas) for ${ }_{\nu} \bar{a}^{\tau} \tau-y a$, a duck, Lat. gnätus, and Lat. an, O. Ind. ā of Lat. antae, O. Ind. jātá-, ' born,' are rightly called the long sonant nasals from roots like gen-, \&c. is a point which has not yet been settled (see § r). I.-Eur. initial me, ṇ have been also referred to a weakening of an original initial am-, an-, e. g. *mbhi beside *ambhi (Gk. ä $\mu 申 \iota$ ), like *po beside *apo (Gk. ä $\quad$ o) (ch. ix. § I2).
I.-Eur. m, n are in Umbro-Osc. treated as in Latin, e.g. Umbr. desen- 'decem,' ivenga 'juvencas,' Osc. trístaamentud ' testamento' Abl. Sg. Why an- should appear for Lat. in- (en-), in Umbr. antakres 'integris,' Osc. amprufid 'improbe,' UmbroOsc. anter ' inter,' is not quite clear (see von Planta, i. p. 315).
§ 82. Other examples of the Nasal Sonants. I.-Eur. -mn of the Nom. Sg. Neut. of men-stems (e. g. Gk. $\hat{\eta} \mu a$ ) is Lat. -men, e. g. sèmen; the weak form of the root ten-, 'to stretch,' appears also in I.-Eur. *tenú-, 'thin' (O. Ind. tanú- ; cf. Gk. $\tau a \nu v-$, stretched, of $\tau a \nu v i-\gamma \lambda \omega \sigma \sigma o s, ~ \tau a v v ́-\pi \tau \epsilon \rho o s, ~ \tau a v i ́-~$ $\pi \epsilon \pi \lambda o s)$, Lat. tenuis from the Fem. form (O. Ind. tanvī) (ch. v. § 47) ; I.-Eur. *ḳ̣̂tóm, 'hundred' (O. Ind. צ̌atám, Gk. é-kađóv, O. Ir. cēt, W. cant, Goth. hund, Engl. hund-red, lit. ' roo-number,' Lith. szim̃tas, O. Sl. sŭto) is Lat. centum ; I.-Eur. *gunti-, the Verbal Noun from the root $g^{\text {nem }}$-, 'to go' (O.Ind. gáti-, Gk. ßáбıs, Goth. ga-qumbs, 'assembly,' Germ. Her-kunft, \&c.), Lat. in-venti-o ; I.-Eur. *sm-, the weak grade of the root sem-, ' one' (O. Ind. sa-kft, ' once,' Gk. ä- $\pi a \xi$, , da- $\pi \lambda$ óos), Lat. simplex ; I.-Eur. *mṇtó-, mṇti-, the P. P. P. and Verbal Noun of men-, ' to think' (O. Ind. mati-, matí- Gk. av̉ró- $\mu a \tau o s$, O. Ir. dēr-met, 'forgetting,' Goth. ga-munds, ' remembrance,' O. Engl. gemynd, Engl. mind, Lith. miñtas, O. Sl. mętŭ, pa-mętĭ, 'memory') appear in Lat. com-mentus, mens, Gen. mentis. Similarly Lat. ensis (O. Ind. así-) ; Lat. ingens, lit. 'unknown,' 'uncouth' (O. Eng. un-cūđ) from the root gen-, 'to know'; Lat. jŭrencus (see § 64); Lat. lingua, older dingua (Goth. tuggō, O. Engl. tunge.) (On nŏrem for *noven, see § 79.) The late retention of the m -, n -sounds (as of the l-, r-sounds, § 92) has been inferred from patrëm (beside patris), nōmĕn (not -in) (but see p. 186).
§ 83. Other examples of am, an, mā, n̄̄. Lat. gnārus from root gen-, 'to know' (O. Ind. jānấmi) ; antae, pillars at door of a temple (O. Ind. átā-, Arm. dr-and) ; Lat. janitrices, sisters-in-law (O. Ind. yātar-, cf. Gk. civátepes, O. Sl. jętry). Lat. ămäre is explained by some as derived from ëmo, 'I take,' with
a reduction of the ëm-, as dǐcūre shows reduction of the deic- of dīco ( 0 . Lat. devco). (Cf. § 94 on $a l$, ar, and § 3 on păteo (Gk. $\pi \in \tau$-), ăper.
§ 84. L, R. These two sounds are often interchanged in Latin by 'Dissimilation' of l-l, e. g. caerŭleus from caelum, pŏpŭl̄̄$-r i s$ and austrā-lis (ch. ii. § IOI). The same thing is found in other languages, e. g. O.H. G. turtula-tūbā, our 'turtle-dove' from Lat. turtur (Gk. $\kappa \in \phi а \lambda а \rho у i a$ and $\left.\kappa \epsilon \phi а \lambda a \lambda \gamma^{\prime} \alpha\right)$ and perhaps occurred in what is called the I.-Eur. period, e. g. I.-Eur. g ${ }^{\text {u }}$ er$g^{\mathrm{w}} \mathrm{el}$ - in the reduplicated root (Lat.gur-gul-io, O. H. G. querechela, Lith. gargalǔju). On the parasitic vowel often found between a consonant and $l(r)$, see ch. ii. $\S$ 103, and on the avoidance of r-r, e.g. praest(r)̄̄giae (like Gk. $\delta \rho v^{\prime}$-фактоs for $\delta \rho v^{\prime}$-фрактоs) ib.
§ 85. 工. I.-Eur. l is Lat. l, e.g. the I.-Eur. root leiqu, ' to leave' (O. Ind. ric-, Arm. Ik'anem, Gk. $\lambda \epsilon i \pi \omega$, O. Ir. lēcim, Goth. leihvan, 'to lend,' O. Engl. lēon, Lith. lëkù, 'I leave,' O. Sl. otŭlěkŭ, 'remainder') appears in Latin linquo, Pft. l̄̄qui; the root k̂lei-, ' to lean ' (O. Ind. śri-, Gk. к $\lambda \frac{t}{\iota} \nu \omega$, O. Ir. cloen, 'awry,' Goth. hlains, 'a hill,' Lith. sztaĩtas, szlẽ̃ti, ' to lean'), appears in Lat. clīvus, ac-cl̄̄nis; suffixal -lo, -lā, as in derivatives from the root dhē-, ' to suck' (O. Ind. dhārú-, Arm. dal, ' beestings,' Gk. $\theta \eta \lambda \eta$, $\theta \hat{\eta} \lambda v s$, O. Ir. dĕl, 'teat,' Gael. deal, 'leech,' O. H. G. tila, 'teat,' Lith. dèlè, 'leech'), in Lat. fellare for fē-lare, \&c. (ch. ii. § I30).

We find $l l$ in Latin for original ld, e.g. per-cello (cf. Gk. $\kappa \lambda \alpha \grave{j} a \rho o ́ s$, brittle, Lat. clādes), ln, e. g. collis (Lith. kátnas; cf. Gk. $\kappa о \lambda \omega \nu o ́ s)(u \ln a$ had I.-Eur. -lĕn- ; cf. Gk. $\dot{\omega} \lambda \epsilon \in \nu \eta)$ ls, e. g. collum, O. Lat. collus (O. Engl. heals, Germ. Hals M.), velle for *vel-se (cf. es-se), rl, e.g. stēlla for ${ }^{*} s t e \bar{r}-l a$, ăgĕllus for ${ }^{*}$ ager-lus. So dl in compound verbs, e.g. alligo for ad-ligo. But usually a parasitic vowel was inserted to facilitate pronunciation, when $l$ was preceded by a consonant, e. g. piāculum for pia-clum (see ch. ii. § 154).
I.-Eur. d became $l$ in the Sabine dialect (see I. F. ii. I57), and this form was sanctioned in a few words in Latin, e. g. lingua, older dingua, from I.-Eur. *dngh ${ }^{\text {ūā- (Goth. tuggō) (§ III). On }}$ fäcul, \&c. for *faclu, fac(i)lĕ, \&c., see § 13 ; on leptis, a byform of neptis, ch. ii. $\S 106$; on the change of $\breve{e}$ to $\breve{o}(\breve{u})$ before Latin $l$ [except before $l$ followed by $e, i(y)$ or before the group $l l$ ], $\oint 10$, and on the various pronunciations of Latin $l$ when alone, when double, and when preceding a consonant, ch. ii. $\S 96$.
I.-Eur. l is Oscan l, e.g. lígatúís 'lēgātis.' Similarly we have Umbr. plener 'plenis,' veltu 'vulto' Imperat. ; but initial 1 does not occur in the Eugubine Tables, the chief record of the language, and it is not impossible that at the beginning of a word I.-Eur. 1 is Umbrian v in words like vapef (Lat. lăp̆rdes? Acc. Pl.), Vuvçis (Lat. Lū̀cius? cf. Osc. Luvkis), vutu (Lat.lŭrŭto ?); between vowels l became (like d) ř ( $r s$ ) in kařetu, carsitu ' let him call' (Gk. к $\alpha \lambda \epsilon \epsilon \omega$, Lat. cālāre), fameřias 'familiae,' \&c.; before t it was dropped in muta 'multa' ('a fine,' Osc. múlta-), \&c., while the Umbrian name Voisieno- (Lat. Volsiēno-) ${ }^{1}$ suggests that it became i before s (see von Planta, i. p. 285).
§ 86. I.-Eur. 1 ; other examples. The I.-Eur. root leuk., 'to shine' (O. Ind. ruc-, Gk. $\lambda \in u \kappa$ ćs, O. Ir. lōche, löchet Gen., 'lightning,' Gaul. Leucetios, W. lluched, Goth. liuhath, O. Engl. lēoht, O. Sl. lučĭi) appears in Lat. lūx, lūceo, lŭcerna; the root ghel-, 'green, yellow' (O. Ind. hári-, Gk. $\chi^{\lambda} \omega \rho{ }^{\prime} \dot{s}, \chi^{\lambda}{ }^{\prime} \dot{\eta}, \mathrm{O}$. Ir. gel, 'white,' O. H. G. gelr, O. Engl. geolo, 'yellow,' Lith. žélti, ' to grow green,' O. Sl. zelije, 'vegetables,' zelenŭ, 'green'), in Lat. helvus, hělus, and hŏlus. Similarly Lat. sal (Arm. à, Gk. äds, O. Ir. salann, W. halen, Goth. salt, O. Sl. solĭ, Lith. salunka, 'salt-box') ; Lat. flōs (O. Ir. blāth, 'bloom,' W. blodau, 'flowers,' Goth. blōma, O. H. G. bluomo) ; Lat. clūnis (O. Ind. ćróṇi-, W. clun, O. Scand. hlaunn, Lith. sztaunìs) ; Lat. plēnus, plèrī-que, plētus (O. Ind. prātá-, Arm. li, Gk.
 Lat. in-clŭtus (O. Ind. ̌́rutá-, 'heard,' Gk. клuтós, in Hom. 'heard, loud,' e.g.

§ 87. R. I.-Eur. r is Lat. $r$. Thus the I.-Eur. *rêĝ-, 'a king' (O. Ind. rấj-an-, O. Ir. rī, rīg Gen., W. rhi, Gaul. Catu-rīges, lit. ' kings in fight') is Lat. rēx, stem rēg-; I.-Eur. *bhĕrō, 'I carry ' (O. Ind. bhárā-mi, Arm. berem, Gk. $\phi \in ́ \rho \omega$, O. Ir. berim, W. ad-feru Inf., Goth. baira, O. Engl. bere, O. Sl. berą) is Lat. fërō ; I.-Eur. wert-, ' to turn ' (O. Ind. vrt-, Goth. vairjan, Engl. worth, in ' woe worth the day,' Lith. ver̃sti and vartýti, O. Sl. vratiti) is Lat. vĕrtere ; I.-Eur. *kăpro- (Gk. кám $\quad$ os, boar, O. Engl. hæfer, ' goat') is Lat. căper, stem *căpro-, I.-Eur. rs before a vowel became $r$ r in Latin, e. g. torreo for *torseo (O. Ind. trẹ̆-, Goth. paursjan, 'to thirst' ; cf. Gk. $\tau$ ' $\rho \sigma \sigma \mu a \iota)$. But $r$ was assimilated to a following $s$ in pronunciation, e. g. Persa pronounced *Pessa (see ch.ii. § 96),

[^56]and I.-Eur. rs before a consonant became ss, e. g. tostus for *tosstus, *torstus from torreo. $l$ was also assimilated to $l$ in Latin, e.g. stēlla, ăgĕllus for ${ }^{*}$ stērla, *agĕrlus. The Campanian town of which the Latin name was $\bar{A}$ tella has on its coins Aderl. so that its Oscan name must have been *Aderlo, a name apparently meaning 'the little black town.' On the metathesis by which $\breve{r}$ became $\breve{e r}$, e.g. ter, terr- $(*$ ters $)$ for ${ }^{*} t r \breve{\iota}$ s, see § 13 . Sometimes the cacophony of a repetition of $r(\S 84)$ seems to be avoided by using $n$ for one $r$, e. g. cancer for * carc- (Gk. карк-ivos; cf. O. Ind. kar-kar-a-, ' hard ') (but see ch. ii. § 105). On carmen, possibly for $*_{c a n-m e n, ~ s e e ~} \S 78$, and on $r$ for $d$ before $f, v, g$, e.g. arfuerunt, arvorsum, arger, § i12. Between vowels I.-Eur. s became $r$ in Latin, e. g. gĕnĕrris from the stem ğĕnĕs- [cf. Gk. $\gamma^{\prime}{ }^{\prime} \nu \epsilon(\sigma)$ os], on which see § 148). I.-Eur. r is Umbro-Osc. r, e. g. Umbr. rehte 'recte,' Osc. Regatureí *‘ Regātori' (see von Planta, i. p. 285). In Umbrian, as in Latin, intervocalic s became $r$, but not in Oscan (cf. infr. § 146).

§ 88. I.-Eur. r ; other examples. Lat. rŏta ( 0 . Ind. rátha-, 'chariot,' O. Ir. roth, 'wheel,' Gaulo-Lat. petor-rǐtum, 'a four-wheeled vehicle,' O. H. G. rad, 'wheel,' Lith. rãtas) ; Lat. porcus (Gk. по́окоs, O. Ir. ore, O. H. G. farh, Engl. farrow, Lith. par̃szas, O. Sl. prasę) ; Lat. vi̛r (O. Ir. fër, Goth. vair; cf. O. Ind. vīrá-, Lith. výras) ; Lat. inter (O. Ind. antár, O. Ir. eter) ; Lat. serpo (O. Ind. srpp-, Gk. ${ }^{\epsilon} \rho \pi \omega$ ) ; Lat. rŭber ( $O$. Ind. rudhirá-, Gk. $\begin{gathered}\text { द́- } \rho v \theta \rho i s, ~ O . ~ S l . ~ r u ̆ d r u ̆ ~ ; ~ c f . ~\end{gathered}$ O. Ir. ruad, Goth. raups) ; Lat. rumpo, (O. Ind. rup- and lup-, O. Engl. berēofan, 'to bereave,' Lith. rūpéti, 'to trouble'); Lat. prŏ̃- (O. Ind. prá, Gk. $\pi \rho \sigma^{\prime}$, O. Ir. ro, used like the augment to indicate a past tense, e.g. ro alt, 'he nourished,' ro char, 'he loved,' O. Bret. ro, Lith. pra-, O. Sl. pro-).

[^57]a byform of Marspitter ; Tuscus (Umbr. Tursco- and Tusco-). Lat. fers has probably re-appended -s to an older $*_{f e r} *_{f e r r}$ for $*_{f e r-s}$ [so ul-s has appended -s a second time to $*_{u l}$, *ull for ${ }^{0} l-s$ (ch. ix. §56).] In Umbrian inscriptions written in the Latin alphabet, the Umbrian đ-sound (see ch. ii. $\$ 88$ ) is written $r$ s, e.g. capirse (in the native alph. kapiře), (Lat. capidi), Dat. Sing. of căpìd-, a bowl.
§ 91. n for $\mathbf{r}$. Lat. crĕpuscŭlum, if it has $c r$ - for $c n$ - (compare Gk. $\kappa \nu$ '́ $\phi a s$ ), with that change of $c n$ - to $c r$ - which we find in some languages, e.g. Gael. enu (pronounced cru with nasal vowel), Bret. kraoun, 'a nut,' must be like our 'gloaming,' a dialectal word : Varro (L. L. vi. 5) makes it Sabine (see § 80). On the spellings menetris for meretrix, \&c., see ch. ii. § ro5.

§ 92. The L- and R-Sonants. For the sounds to which $\check{e l}$, $\breve{e r}(l \breve{e}, r \breve{e})$ are reduced in the unaccented syllable of such a word as I.-Eur. *dṛtó-, *dṛti (O. Ind. dṛti-, Gk. סןarós and סaptós, $\delta \alpha \alpha_{\rho \sigma \iota s, ~ L i t h . ~ n u-d i r t a s, ~ G o t h . ~ g a-t a u r p s) ~ f r o m ~ t h e ~ r o o t ~ d e r-, ~ ' ~ t o ~}^{\text {a }}$ flay,' some write ! , r, others al, ər (la, re), the ə indicating an obscure vowel sound (also ${ }^{\mathrm{e}}$, ${ }^{\mathrm{e}}$, \&c.). In Latin these sounds became $\check{o l}$, $\begin{aligned} & \text { or, e. g. mors, Gen. mortis (O. Ind. mṛti-, Goth. maurbr, }\end{aligned}$ O. H. G. mord, Lith. mirtis, O. Sl. sŭ-mritǐ), fors, stem *forti(O. Ind. bhrtí-, O.Ir. brith, Goth. ga-baurps, 'birth,' O. Engl. gebyrd, ' fate'), the $o$ being subject to all the changes of $\check{o}$ for I.-Eur. $\breve{o}$ (e, g. pulsus, Gk. $\pi$ a入tós from the root pel-), while before a vowel we seem to find $\breve{a} l$, $\breve{a} r$ in sălix (O. Ir. sail ; cf. Gk. é $\lambda i \not \kappa \eta$ with E-grade), căro (Umbr. karu, ‘a portion'; cf. Gk. кєí $\rho \omega$ ) ; in Greek they became $\breve{a} \rho(\rho \breve{a}$, e. g. $\pi a \tau \rho \alpha \dot{\alpha} \iota)$, $\breve{\alpha} \lambda(\lambda \breve{a})$, in Teutonic ŭr, ŭl ; in Slavonic $\mathfrak{r}$, 1 l , and so on ; so that it is only by reference to another I.-Eur. language that we can tell whether Lat. $\check{\text { ol, }}$, $\mathrm{or}^{2}$ are I.-Eur. ŏl, ŏr, or I.-Eur. ḷ, r. (Lat. ŏl may also be I.-Eur. ěl, § ıо.) We occasionally find $l \breve{u}$, $r u ̆$ in Latin words from roots in lĕ, rĕ, which are probably to be explained similarly by the weakening influence of the accent, e. g. frăngo, frăğ̆lis from the root bhreg-, ' to break' (Goth. brǐkan, O. Engl. brěcan) (see Osthoff, Morph. Unt. v. Pref., and above § 3). Whether Gk. $\rho \omega, \rho \bar{a}$, Lat. $\dot{\imath} \bar{a}$, of Gk. $\tau \tau \rho \omega \tau o ́ s, \pi \epsilon ́ \pi \rho \omega \tau a \iota$, кра̄тós, Lat. strātus, clādes, and Gk. of (aן), Lat. ar of Gk. $\sigma \tau \dot{\rho} \rho \nu v \mu$, Lat. pars, părtior, quärtus, are rightly called the long-sonant vowels from roots ster-, per-, \&c. is a point which has not yet been settled (see § 1). There are some indications that vocalic $l$ and $r$ were sounds not unknown to the Italic languages down to a fairly late period, e.g. Marrucinian pacrsi 'pacer (pacris) sit,' 'may she be propitious' (Zv. I.I.I. 8) (cf.

Umbr. pacer, Lat. acer; acris Fem.), Sabine Atrno (Zv. ıo), Osc. Tantrnnaiúm Gen. Pl., though how far these are merely graphic is hard to decide (cf. ch. iii. § I4); corresponding to Gk. à $\gamma \rho \rho^{\prime}$ we have in Lat. ager, in Umbr. ager, and so on (see ch. vi. § 4). On Lat. $t e r(r)$ for *tris, facul for $f a c(i) l$, see $\S$ 13. I.-Eur. ! , r r receive the same treatment in Umbro-Osc. as in Latin, e. g. Umbr. orto(Lat. ortus), Osc. molto (Lat. multa, a fine) (see vonPlanta, i. p. 314).
§ 93. Other examples of the liquid Sonants. I.-Eur. ${ }^{*} \mathrm{pr} \hat{\mathrm{k} k}-\mathrm{s} \mathrm{k} \bar{o}$ (O. Ind. pṛchấmi, pṛchā-, 'enquiry,' Arm. harc̣anem, harẹ, O. H. G. forscōn, forsca) Lat. posco for ${ }^{*}$ porc-sco ; I.-Eur. *k̂rd-. (O. Ind. hị́d, Gk. $\kappa a \rho \delta i ́ a ~ a n d ~ к \rho a \delta i \eta, ~$ O. Ir. cride, Lith. szirdis, O. Sl. srídĭce', Lat. cor for *corl ; I.-Eur. *prk̄ā-, 'the ridge of a furrow' (W. rhych F., O. Engl. furh F.), Lat. porca (Varro, R. R. i. 29. 3 qua aratrum vomere lacunam striam fecit, 'sulcus' vocatur. quod est inter duos sulcos elata terra dicitur ' porca' ; Paul. Fest. 77. I Th. explains the name Imporcitor as ' qui porcas in agro facit arando,' the name of a deity invoked by the flamen in the sacrifice to Tellus and Ceres, with a number of other agricultural divinities : Vervactor, Reparator, Imporcitor, Insitor, Obarator, Occator, Saritor, Subruncinator, Messor, Convector, Conditor, Promitor, whose names are given by Fabius Pictor ap. Serv. ad Virg. G. i. 21. The word porca occurs also in a line of Accius ap. Non. 6 r. 19 M. bene proscissas cossigerare ordine porcas) ; I.-Eur. ḳrn- (Gk. кápvos Hesych., Goth. haurn), Lat. cornu (cf. Lat. cornus, cornel, Gk. к $\rho a ́ v o s, ~ к \rho a ́ v o \nu) ~ ; ~ I .-E u r . ~ * p r ̣ s o-~(G k . ~ \pi \rho a ́ \sigma o \nu), ~$ Lat. porrum for *porsum. Certain examples of I.-Eur. ! in Latin are not numerous. Ulmus may stand for *!mo- (Ir. lem, Russ. ilemŭ); or for *elmo(O. Engl. elm); or for ${ }^{*}$ olmo- (O. Scand. almr) ; mulctus, milked, for ${ }^{*}$ m (Lith. mitsztas, O. Ir. mlicht or blicht, ' milk') ; oc-cultus for *-kllto- from the root kel-, 'to hide'; cf. sepultus from sĕpelio.
§ 94. Other examples of al, ar, lā, rā. Lat. palma, palm of hand ( $\mathbf{O} . \mathrm{Ir}$. lām F. ; cf. Gk. $\pi a \lambda \alpha \dot{\mu} \boldsymbol{\eta}$ ) ; sculpo (cf. sculpo) ; clādes (cf. Gk. $\kappa \lambda a \delta a \rho\left({ }^{\prime} s, ~ p e r c u l s u s, ~\right.$ from the root keld- of per-cello) ; clāmo (cf. calo, cŭlendae) ; fā̃rus (cf. fulvus, O. Lat. Folvius) ; lātus, carried (cf. tollo) ; lätus, wide, earlier slǟtus, from the
 îrmás, Goth. arms, O. Sl. ramę ; cf. Pruss. irmo) ; carpo from the root kerp-, ' to cut' (Lith. kerpù) (cf. Gk. кapாós, Engl. harvest) ; fastĭgium for *farst- (cf. O. Ind. bhrṣ̣̣í-, ' point,' O. Engl. byrst, ' bristle '), or *frast- (see ch viii. § r8, on farcio for *fracio); crābro for *crā-sro (cf. Lith. szirszů, O. Sl. srǔšenĭ); crātis and cartilägo (cf. Gk. кápтa入os, basket, O. H. G. hurt, Engl. hurdle) ; fraxǐnus and farnus ( $\mathbf{O}$. Ind. bhūrja-, ' a birch-tree ') from the root bherĝ-, ( $\mathbf{O}$. Engl. beore, Lith. béržas, O. Sl. brěza ; grānum (O. Ind. jīrṇá-, 'worn out'; cf. Goth. kaurn, 'corn,' Lith. žirnis, 'pea,' O. Sl. zrŭno, 'a grain') ; grātus (O. Ind. gūrtá-, 'welcome') ; rādix for ${ }^{*} v r \bar{\alpha}$ - (cf. Goth. vaurts, Engl. wort); strāmen (Gk. $\left.\sigma \tau \rho \hat{\omega} \mu a\right)$ from sterno ; lāna for *vläna ( 0 . Ind. úrnā, Gk. oṽ̀os for *Fo $\begin{gathered}\text { vos). On Lat. ăl, ăr for }\end{gathered}$ el, өr before a vowel, see M.S. L. viii. 279, Osthoff, Dunkles u. helles l, p. 52, (palea, parens, varix, \&c.), and cf. § 3 on păteo (Gk. $\pi \epsilon \tau-{ }^{-}$), \&c.
§ 95. Tenues, Mediae, and Aspirates. In Sanscrit we have four varieties of each class of mutes or stopped consonants,
(1) tenues, or unvoiced, (2) mediae, or voiced, (3) tenues aspiratae, or tenues followed by $h$ (like our th in 'ant-hill'), (4) mediae aspiratae, or mediae followed by $h$ (like our $d h$ in 'sandhill'). But these varieties are not kept distinct in other I.-Eur. languages. In Greek tenues aspiratae take the place of the Sanscrit mediae aspiratae (e. g. $\theta \bar{\imath} \mu$ ós, O. Ind. dhūmás) ; in the Celtic and Slavonic families the mediae and mediae aspiratae of Sanscrit are merged in mediae (e.g. Lith. dü-ti, ‘ to give,' O. Ind. dā-, O. Ir. dān, ‘a gift, an accomplishment'; Lith. dèlế ‘a leech,' O. Ind. dhā-, 'to suck,' O. Ir. dĕl, 'teat'). The tenues aspiratae of Sanscrit are especially difficult to trace in the other languages ; nor is it always easy to say whether they are due to some phonetic law peculiar to Sanscrit, or represent I.-Eur. tenues aspiratae. In the O. Ind. root sthā-, ' to stand,' where the dental tenuis is found in all other languages (Gk. í $\sigma \tau \eta \mu \nu$, Lat. sto, \&c.), it seems probable that the I.-Eur. form of the root was stā-, whereas in O. Ind. nakhá-, ‘a nail, claw,' for which we have an aspirate in Gk. oैr? - the tenuis aspirata may be original. Tenues aspiratae have been with more or less probability conjectured for such words as I.-Eur. *îkonkho-, ‘a shell' (O. Ind. š́arkkhá-, Gk. кó үx os, Lat. congius, a quart) ; I.-Eur. skhi(n)d-, 'to split' (O. Ind. chid-, Gk. $\sigma_{\chi} i \zeta_{\omega}, \sigma_{\chi} \nu \nu \bar{\partial} a \lambda \mu \dot{o ́ s}^{\prime}$, a splinter, Lat. scindo, O. H. G. scintan, Germ. schinden) ; the suffix of the 2 Sg . Pft. Ind. (O. Ind. vêt-tha, Gk. oí $\sigma-\theta a$, Lat. vìd-is-ti, Goth. las-t, \&c.); and the same hypothesis has been used to explain the anomalous correspondence of Latin $l$ - and Goth. h - in the verb, 'to have,' Lat. hăbet, Goth. habaip (I.-Eur. khabhē- ? ?), \&c.

These I.-Eur. tenues, mediae, and aspiratae were liable to change their character under the influence of an adjoining consonant. A media became a tenuis before an unvoiced consonant, e.g. I.-Eur. *yukto-, P.P.P. from the root yeug-, 'to join' (O. Ind. yuktá-, Lat. junctus). A tenuis similarly became a media before a voiced consonant, [cf. I.-Eur. *si-zd-o, the reduplicated form of the root sed-, ' to sit' (Lat. sido)]. A media aspirata before $t$ or $s$ is in Latin and other languages treated like a tenuis, e. g. vectus, vexi (vecsi), from Lat. vĕho (I.-Eur. root wegh-), but whether this was the case in what is called 'the Indo-European period' is not certain. More plausible is the
theory that $t$ before $t$ or th, and perhaps $d$ before $d, d h$, produced already at this period some sibilant sound; for a trace of this appears in every branch of the I.-Eur. family, e. g. from the root sed-, with the P. P. P. suffix -to-, we have Zend ni-šasta-, Lat. -sessus, Lith. séstas, O. Scand. sess) (for other examples in Latin, see $\S 108$ ). The occasional confusion, too, which we find between tenues and mediae (e.g. Gk. $\sigma \kappa \alpha \pi \alpha ́ \nu \eta$ beside Lat. scabo), mediae and aspiratae (e.g. Gk. $\sigma \tau \epsilon \prime \mu \beta \omega$ beside $\dot{\alpha} \sigma \tau \epsilon \mu \phi \eta_{s} ;$ O. Ind. ahám
 the same early time.

In Umbrian a tenuis becomes a media before r in sulfra 'supra,' podruhpei 'utroque,' regularly after n, e.g. ivenga 'juvencas,' ander 'inter' (Osc. anter) (von Planta, i. p. 547) ; and we have both in Oscan and Umbrian many instances of a tenuis appearing for a media, which are by some explained as miswritings, due to the earlier use of the tenuis-symbol only in the native alphabets (derived from Etruscan, ch. i. § I), but are by others considered as a proof that the Italic mediae were not voiced (ch. ii. §77). (For instances, see von Planta, i. p. 555.)
§ 96. Media or aspirata assimilated to unvoiced consonant in Latin. Other examples are cet-te for *cĕ-dc̆te, the plural of cĕd̆̆, give, lit. 'give here' (ch. vii. § 15), hoc (c) for *hod-ce (ch. vii. § 16) ; topper for *tod-per (ch. ix. § 7); ac-tus from ăgo ; scriptus from scribo ; vec-tus from veho, \&c. On spellings like optenui (Scip. Ep. ', apscede, urps, see ch. ii. § 8o.
§ 97. Tenuis assimilated to voiced consonant in Latin. On ob-duco beside op-tenui, see ch. ii. § 73. I.-Eur. d becomes $t$ before $r$ (unvciced?) in Latin, e.g. ătrox, from ad-, a byform of the root od- of odium (§113).

Interchange of tenuis and media in Latin. (See ch. ii. §§ 73-77.
Interchange of media and aspirata in Latin. On $g$ occasionally appearing for I.-Eur. $g \mathrm{~h}$, see § ri6.

## $\mathbf{P}, \mathrm{B}, \mathrm{BH}, \mathbf{P H}$.

§ 98. P. I.-Eur. p is Lat. p, e. g. I.-Eur. *pĕk̂u- N. (O. Ind. pásu, Goth. faihu, Germ. Vieh, Engl. fee), Lat. pĕcu, I.-Eur. *sĕpṭ̣ (O. Ind. saptá, Arm. evṫn, Gk. é $\pi \tau \alpha ́, ~ O . ~ I r . ~ s e c h t, ~$ W. saith, Goth. sibun ; cf. Lith. septynì). $P$ becomes $n$ before $n$, e. g. somnus for $*_{\text {sop-nus }}$; it is assimilated before labials, e. g. summus for *supmus, suffio for *supfio.

The Labial Tenuis receives a similar treatment in UmbroOscan, e.g. Umbr. patre, Osc. patereí 'patri'; but pt is in Osc. ft, in Umbr. ht, e. g. Osc. scrifto-, Umbr. screilto- 'scripto' (see von Planta, i. p. 424).
§ 99. Other examples of I.-Eur. p. I.-Eur. *păter-, (O. Ind. pitár-, Arm. hair, Gk. $\pi a \tau \dot{\eta} \rho$, O. Ir. athir, Goth. fadar) Lat. păter ; O.-Eur. *pro (O. Ind. prá, Gk. $\pi \rho o ́$, O. Ir. ro, O. Bret. ro, Lith. pra-, O. Sl. pro-), Lat. prŏ- ; I.-Eur.
 O. H. G. spehōn, Engl. spy), Lat. ar-spex, con-spı̄cio ; from I.-Eur. root prek(O. Ind. pras̆́-ná-, 'a request,' Goth. fraihnan, Germ. fragen ; Lith. praszýti, O. Sl. prositi) come Lat. prĕcor, and prŏcus; I. Eur. *nĕpot- (O. Ind. nápāt-, M. Ir. niae, niath Gen., O. H. G. nefo), Lat. nĕpōs ; I.-Eur. root pâk-, pāğ(O. Ind. páśáa-, 'string,' Dor. Gk. $\pi \dot{a} \gamma \nu v \mu$, Gotl. fāhan, ' to catch,' Germ. Fuge) Lat. pāx, pāginu ; I.-Eur. *kăpro- (Gk. ки́mpos, O. Engl. hæfer, 'goat'), Lat. căper.
§ 100. B. I.-Eur. b is Lat. b, e.g. I.-Eur. *pĭbō, 'I drink' (O. Ind. píbāmi, O. Ir. ibim), Lat. bŭbo for *pibo (§ 163). Lat. b, whether from I.-Eur. b or bh, becomes $m$ before $n$, e.g. scamnum beside scabellum. Latin $b$ may represent I.-Eur. -bh-, e.g. scrïbo (cf. Gk. бкарїфáoцal, scratch) (§ IO3), -dh-, e. g. rŭber (Gk. $\mathfrak{~} \rho v \theta \rho o ́ s$ (§ 114 ), m before r, e.g. hïbernus (Gk. $\chi \epsilon \iota \mu \epsilon \iota v o ́ s)(\$ 77$ ), s before r, e.g. cĕrel-rum for *cerĕs-rum (§ 152 ), dw-, e. g. bis for */w̌̆s (Gk. $\delta i s$ ) (§ 68). On the confusion of $b$ and $v$ in late spellings, see ch. ii. $\S 52$, and on the substitution of $-b$ for $-p$ in $s u b, a b$, ch. ii. § 73 .
§ 101. Other examples of I.-Eur. b. Lat. balbus (O. Ind. balbalā-, Gk. $\beta \dot{\alpha} \rho \beta a \rho o s)$; Lat. lambo (O. H. G. laffan, O. Sl. lobŭzŭ ; cf. Gk. 入áтrw) ; Lat. lūbricus (Goth. sliupan, 'to slip'); Lat. lăbium (O. H. G. lefs, O. Engl. lippa).
§ 102. mn for bn. amnis from abh- (O. Ind. ámbhas-, 'water,' Ir. abann, 'river'). On the spellings amnuere in glosses, see Löwe, Prodr. p. 421 ; cf. amnegaverit 'C.I.L. vi. 14672). Similarly $b m$ of ${ }^{*} g l u ̈ b-m a(r o o t ~ g l e u b h-, ~ G k . ~$ $\gamma \lambda \dot{\prime} \phi \omega$ ) became $m m$, and was reduced to $m$ (ch. ii. §127), glüma.
§ 103. BH. I.-Eur. bh when initial became Latin $f$, when medial $b$, e.g. I.-Eur. root *bher-, 'to carry' (O. Ind. bhar-, Arm. berem, Gk. $\phi \hat{\rho} \rho \omega$, O. Ir. berim, W. ad-feru Inf., Goth. baira, Engl. I bear, O. Sl. berą) is Lat. fĕro; I.-Eur. *orbho- (Arm. orb, Gk.
 Lat. orbus ; I.-Eur. root bheu- (O. Ind. bhū-, Gk. $\phi \bar{v} \omega$, O. Ir. buith, Lith. bú-ti, O. Sl. by-ti), Lat. fui, fütürus ; I.-Eur. *bhrātor- (O. Ind. bhrấtar-, Gk. ф $\frac{a}{\tau} \tau \omega \rho$, O. Ir. brāthir, W.
brawd, Goth. brōpar, Lith. broter-êlis, O. Sl. bratrŭ), Lat. fräter. A good example of the different treatment of initial and medial bh in Latin is the word for a beaver, I.-Eur. *bhĕbhru- (O. H. G. bibar, Lith. bễbrus, O . Sl. bebrŭ ; O. Ind. babhrú-, 'brown'), Lat. fıller. On $m n$ for $b n$ (with $b$ from I.-Eur. b or bh), e.g. scamnum from skabh- 'to support,' with Dim. scabellun" (-illum) (also scamillum Ter. Scaur. 14. 6 K.), see § 102, and on dialectal $f$ for $b$ (e.g. Alfius, a byform of Albius), see ch. ii. § 83. T.-Eur. bh is Umbro-Osc. f, whether initial or internal, e.g. Umbr.-Osc. fust ‘ erit,' Umbr. alfo-, Osc. Alafaternum ‘albo-.' On Faliscan haba for Lat. füba, see § 121 , ch. ii. § 57.


#### Abstract

§ 104. I.-Eur bh ; other examples. Lat. nêbüla (Gk. עє申́́ $\lambda \eta$, O. Ir. nēl for ${ }^{*}$ neblo-, O. H. G. nebul, Germ. Nebel), Lat. fŭteor, fäma (Gk. фұ~i) ; Lat. sorbeo (Gk. คоф'́ $\omega$, Arm. arb-enam, Lith. srebiù) ; Lat. umbo, umbĭlicus (O. Ind. nábbhi-, nābhīla-, Gk. ¿ $\mu ф а \lambda o ́ s, ~ O . ~ I r . ~ i m b l i u, ~ O . ~ H . ~ G . ~ n a b a, ~ n a b o l o, ~ P r u s s . ~$ nabis, Lett. naba); Lat. flōs (O. Ir. blāth, 'bloom,' Goth. blōma'; Lat. albus (Gk. ả $\lambda$ фós, white leprosy) ; Lat. ambù- (O. Ind. abhí, Gk. ả $\mu \phi i, 0$ O. Ir. imme for imbe, Gaulish Ambi-gatus' O. Engl. ymb, Engl. ember-days, from O. Engl. ymb-ryne 'running round, circuit,' Germ. um for umb) ; Lat. ambō (O. Ind. u-bhá-, Gk. ä $\mu \phi \omega$, Goth. bai, baj-ōbs, Engl. b-oth, Lith. abù, O. Sl. oba: ; Lat. findo from I.-Eur. root bheid- (O. Ind. bhid-, Goth. beita, Engl. I bite); Lat. fägus (Dor. Gk. фā ${ }^{\prime}$ ós, O. Engl. bōc). Barba for *farba (I.-Eur. bhardh-, O. Sl. brada, Lith. barzdà, Engl. beard) is due to assimilation (see § i63).


## T, D, DH, TH.

§ 105. T. I.-Eur. t is Lat. $t$; e. g. the I.-Eur. root ten-, ' to stretch ' (O. Ind. tan-, Gk. teiv(o, O. Ir. tennaim, Goth. uf-panja, Germ. dehnen ; O. Ind. tanú-, ‘ thin,' Gk. taví-птєpos, O. Ir. tana, W. teneu, O. H. G. dunni, O. Engl. pynne, Lith.dial. tenvas, O. Sl. tuň̌kŭ) appears in Latin ten-do, tĕnuis; I.-Eur. *wert-, 'to turn' (O. Ind. vártatē 3 Sg., Goth. vairpan, Germ. werden, Lith. ver̃szti, vartýti, O. Sl. vratiti, W. gwerthyd, 'spindle') is Lat. vertëre. Before $l$ it is dropped when initial, e.g. lātus for *tlātus, P. P. P. of fëro, tüli, but becomes $c$ when medial; thus the suffix -tlo-, which indicates the instrument with which an action is performed, or the place of its performance, appears in Latin as -clo-, e.g. věhiclum or veht̆cŭlum, 'that by which one is carried': poclum or pōcŭlum, 'that out of which one drinks,' cưbiclum or cubŭcŭlum, 'the place where one lies down,' \&c., by the same change as is seen in later Latin veclus for vĕt $(\breve{u}) l u s$, in the

English mispronunciation 'acleast' for 'at least,' in Mod. Gk. $\sigma \epsilon \hat{v} \kappa \lambda o$ from Gk. $\sigma \epsilon \hat{v} \tau \lambda o v$, \&c. Before $c$ it is assimilated, e.g. $a c$ for ${ }^{*} a c c$ from *atc, atqu(e), while $t t$ became ss, after a consonant $s$, e.g. passus for ${ }^{*}$ pattus from patior, salsus for ${ }^{*}$ salttus from sallo, *saldo, versus from verto, \&c.

Final -nt seems to have become -ns in the Umbro-Oscan languages, for the 3 Plur. Act. ending of Secondary Tenses (I.-Eur. -nt) appears in them as -ns, e.g. Osc. fufans 'erant' quasi 'fubant' (ch. viii. § 73). The same may hold of Latin, for quătiens, tottiens suggest the O. Ind. suffix -yant of ki-yant, 'how large,' \&c. (See A. L. L. v. 575). Latin $t$ represents an original d before $r$, e.g. ătrox beside ŏdium (see § i1 3 ). On the loss of $t$ in consonant-groups, e.g. nox for ${ }^{*} n o c(t) s$, verminna for ${ }^{*}$ ver ( $(t)$ mina, see § 157, and on $n n$ for tn, e.g. annus, § 161.

In Umbro-Osc. I.-Eur. t remains, e.g. Umbr. tota-, Osc. $\tau \omega F \tau 0$, a community, but tl became (as in Latin) kl, e.g. Umbr. pihaklu, Osc. sakaraklúm (cf. Pelignian sacaracirix 'sacratrices,' pristafalacirix ' $p$ raestabulatrices ').
§ 106. Other examples of I.-Eur. t. I.-Eur. *îṃtom (O. Ind. ḱatám, Gk. ¢́-katóv, O. Ir. cēt, W. cant, Goth. hund, Lith. szim̃tas, O. Sl. sŭto) is Lat.
 W. wyth, Goth. ahtau, O. Engl. eahta, Lith. asztů-nì, O. Sl. os(t)-mi), Lat. ưctō ; I.-Eur. *māter- (O. Ind. mātár-, Arm. mair, Dor. Gk. $\mu$ át $\eta \rho$, O. Ir. māthir, O. Engl. mōdor, O. Sl. mater-, Lith. moterà, ' woman'), Lat. māter ; I.-Eur. *wĕtos, 'a year' (O. Ind. vats-á-, 'calf,' lit. 'yearling,' Gk. (F)étos, O. Sl. vetŭchŭ, 'old’), Lat. vëtus-tus, větus ; I.-Eur. *ĕs-ti (O. Ind. ásti, Gk. ě $\sigma \tau$, Goth. ist), Lat. est ; I.-Eur. root steig-, 'to pierce' (O. Ind. tij-, tigmá-, 'sharp,' Gk. $\sigma r_{i}^{\prime} \zeta \omega, \sigma \tau \iota \gamma \mu \dot{\eta}$, Goth. stiks, ' point of time,' Germ. Stich), Lat. instigo; the ' Comparative' Suffix ttĕro- (O. Ind. katará-, Gk. $\pi \dot{\prime} \boldsymbol{\tau} \epsilon \rho \rho s$, O. Ir. -ther, Goth. hvaןar, Engl. whether, Lith. katràs, O. Sl. kotory-jï) is in Lat. -tëro-, e. g. üter.
§ 107. I.-Eur. tl. Lat. lŏquor is I.-Eur. tloqn- (O. Ir. atluchur for ad-tluchur in the phrase atluchur bude, ' I thank,' 'ad-loquor gratias'). On the spellings stlis, sclis, slis for class. lis, see § 150.
§ 108. I.-Eur. tt . Verbs whose stem ends in a dental show ss (after a diphthong, \&c. reduced to $s$, ch. ii. § 127) in their P. P. P., formed with the suffix -to (e. g. fǐssus from findo, ausus from audeo, fisus from fido, \&c. (see § 155 and ch. v. § 28). So in formations with the suffix -tümo-, e. g. vïcensumus for $*_{\text {vicent-tumo- (ch. v. § 14), Adjectives in -ōsus (ch. v. § 65), \&c. }}^{\text {4 }}$

The combination tt in Latin appears where a vowel has been dropped by syncope, e. g. cette for *cè-dăte 2 Plur. Imper., egret $(t)$ us, adgret(t)us (§ 109).
§ 109. D. Of I.-Eur. d, Lat. $d$ examples are : I.-Eur. *děîṃ,
'ten' (O. Ind. dáśa, Arm. tasn, Gk. סéкa, O. Ir. deich, W. deg, Goth. taihun, O. H. G. zehan, Lith. dẽszimt, dẽszimtis, O. Sl. desętǐ), Lat. dĕcem; I.-Eur. root weid-, 'to see, know' (O. Ind. vèda, Arm. git-em, Gk. oiioa, O. Ir. ad-fiadaim, 'I narrate,' Goth. vait, Engl. wot, O. Sl. věděti Inf.), Lat. v̌̌deo, vìdi. In the Sabine dialect d became l (I. F. ii. 157) ; and we find the spelling $l$ sanctioned in a few Latin words at the beginning of the literary period, e.g. lăcrı̆ma, older đacrima, đacruma (Gk. סáкрv, Welsh dagr, Goth: tagr), (Paul. Fest. 48. 15 Th. 'dacrimas' pro lacrimas Livius saepe posuit). $D$ became $r$ before $g$ in mergo, mergus ( O . Ind. madgú-, ' a waterfowl'), \&c., and before $v$ and $f$, though the old forms arger, arvorsus, arfuerunt, had their $d$ restored from ad at the beginning of the second cent. в.c. Initial dw- became $b$, e.g. bellum (older duellum, always a dissyllable in Plautus), lŭ.s. for $*$ dwhs (Gk. $\delta i$ s), (see $\S 68$ ), and initial dy- became $j$ - (y), e.g. Jŏris, O. Lat. Diovis (see § 63), but internal -dw- leaves $v$ in suävis (§71). D is assimilated to a following $m$ in ramentum from rādo, caemeitum from caedo, $c$ in O. Lat. reccŭlo, hoc for *horl-ce, $l$ in relligio, pelluviae, water for washing the feet, grallae, stilts, from grădior, but assimilates a preceding $l$ in percello for ${ }^{*}$-celdo (cf. clädes), \&c. (see ch. viii. § 33), sallo for *salido (Goth. salta). It became $t$ before $r$, e.g. ătrox (cf. oflium), and before $t$, this $t t$ becoming ss (see § 108), e.g. egressus, adgressus. The forms egrettus, ailgrettus (Paul. Fest. 55. 3 Th. quotes egretus, adgretus, apparently from some early writer, earlier than the practice of writing the double consonant) seem to stand for*egrell(i)to-, adgredl(i)to-(§ 108).
I.-Eur. d remains in Umbro-Osc., e.g. Umbr. devo-, Osc. deívo- 'divus,' but between vowels became in Umbrian a sound (đ? ch. ii. §88) which is expressed in the native alphabet by a sign conventionally written by us $\check{r}$ and in the Latin alphabet by $i s$, e.g. teřa, dersa 'det' (quasi *dĕdat) (Pel. dida; cf. Osc. didest). For nd we have in Umbro-Ose. nn as in -nno- the Gerundive ending, e.g. Umbr. pihano- 'piandus,' Ose. úpsanno- 'operandus.'

[^58] dë̃vas) ; Lat. pes, Gen. pĕdis (0. Ind. pád-, Gk. moús, moóós Gen., $\pi \epsilon \in\{a$, Goth. fōtus, Lith. pèdà, 'footprint') ; Lat. suādeo (0. Ind. svādú-, 'sweet,' Gk. $\mathfrak{\eta} \delta \dot{v} s$, Goth. suts) ; Lat. édo (O. Ind. ad-, Arm. ut-em, Gk. $\epsilon \delta \omega$, Goth. ita, Lith. ëdu, 0. Sl. jadĭ, ' food ').
§ 111. Lat. 1 for d. Lautia, which usually occurs in an alliterative formula,e.g. Liv. xxx. i7. 14 aedes liberae, loca, lautia legatis decreta; xxviii. 39. 19 locus inde lautiaque legatis praeberi jussa) was in Old Latin dautia, a form quoted from Livius Andronicus by Paul. Fest. 48. 16 Th. 'dautia' (Livius saepe posuit', quae lautia dicimus, et dantur legatis hospitii gratia; lingua, for I.-Eur. *dụgh [nos nunc . . . linguam per l potius quam per d (scribamus), Mar. Vict. 9. i 7 K.; communionem enim habuit littera ( 1 cum d) apud antiquos, ut 'dinguam' et linguam, et ‘dacrimis' et lacrimis, et ‘Kapitodium’ et Kapitolium, id. 26. r K.). (Was Aquilonia the Oscan Akudunnia-, now Cedogna? cf. O. Umbr. akeđunia-.) Pompey, according to Mar. Vict. 8. i5 K., affected the old spelling and pronunciation kadamitas for cullămïtas (perhaps from the same root as Oscan cadeis amnud, ' with intent to injure,' 'out of malice,' Gk. $\kappa \epsilon \kappa \alpha \delta \eta \hat{\eta} \alpha \iota$, explained by Hesychius as $\beta \lambda \alpha \dot{\psi} \alpha \iota$, как $\hat{\omega} \sigma a \iota, ~ \sigma \tau \epsilon \rho \hat{\eta} \sigma a \iota)$; the di Norensiles appear on an old inscription from Picenum as deiv. novesede (C.I.L. i. 178) (cf. the Marsic esos novesede, Zv. I.I.I. 39). In many or all of these words the preference of the byform with $l$ can be explained by false analogy ; in lingua hy the analogy of lingo (cf. O. Ir. ligur, ' the tongue,' Arm. lezu, Lith. lëžùvis); in calamitas by the analogy of calamus; in lautia by the analogy of lavo, \&c. Similarly 0. Lat. dēlicare with the sense of indǐcare (e. g. Plaut. Mil. 844) may owe its $l$ to the influence of deliquare, to clarify. Perhaps Lat. lympha, a Graecized form (ef. Gen. Pl. lymphon, Varro, Sat. Men. 50 B.) of *dumpa, (Osc. Diumpa-', with Lat. Ulysses, does not exhibit a Latin change of $d$ to $l$, but a change which had already been made in Greek ; for Quintilian, i.4. r6, quotes dialectal Gk. 'Oגva $\quad$ cús ; and on Gk. vases (see Kretschmer, Gr. Vas. p. 146) we have 'Oגvoєus (C.I. G. 7697), frequently 'Oגvtevs (C.I.G. 7383, 7699, 8185,
 ${ }^{\Theta}$ ét $\tau$ s, Varro, $L . L$. vii. 87 ). The exact relation of sìmila, similăgo, fine wheaten flour (cf. Germ. Semmel), to Gk. $\sigma \epsilon \mu_{i} i \alpha_{i} \iota s$ is doubtful, as also that of casila (Paul. Fest. 33. 22 Th.; for cassilla?) to cassis, cassida (an Etruscan word according to Isidore, Orig. xviii. 14. 1). The form reluvium mentioned by Festus ( 370 . 17 Th. rediviam quidam, alii 'reluvium' appellant, cum circa unguis cutis se resolvit, quia luere est solvere) never ousted the form redicia. It does not appear to have been a phonetic variety of redivia, but rather a separate word, perhaps a grammarian's coinage, derived from luo, as redivia, red-ucia was derived from *ơro of ind-uo, ex-uo, exŭviae. Some of the forms with $l$ mentioned above, e. g. calamitas, 'injury to crops,' may similarly have been different words from the d-forms. [So consilium, \&c. beside praesidium, \&c.; cf. Mar. Vict. 9. 18 K. praesidium per d potius (scribamus) quam per 1; considium Plaut. Cas. 966 (see below on solium)]. Some appear to be dialectal ; e. g. lepesta or lepista [Greek $\delta \in \pi \in \sigma \tau a$ (but cf. $\lambda \in \pi a \sigma \tau \eta$ ), according to Varro, L. L. v. 123] was Sabine (Varro, l.c.), and perhaps Novensiles (id. v. 74) (cf. Paul. Fest. 77. 7 Th. 'inpelimenta' inpedimenta dicebant); so probably lărix for *darix ( $\mathbf{O} . \mathrm{Ir}$. dair for *darix, ' an oak'), and possibly laurus for *daurus (O. Ir. daur for *darus, ‘ an oak') ; Melica (gallina) for Mēlica (Varro, R. R. iii. 9. 19) (cf.

Paul. Fest. 89. 27 Th.) ; and the few modern Italian words which show this change of $d$ to $l$ may be dialectal too, e.g. cicala from Lat. ciccūda, ellera from Lat. héděra, trespolo from Lat. trës and pědes, as tiepolo is a dialectal variety of tepido (Lat. tëpĭdus) (cf. the Dīgentia, now Licenza, in the Sabine district). It is possible, but unlikely, that Lat. pṻličus (Ümbr. pupđiko-), Püblius from pūbes, a name whose spelling was often altered after Poplicola and other names derived from pŏpŭlus (cf. Umbr. Puplecio-), may stand for ${ }^{*} p u \bar{b} d i \stackrel{-}{-}$ and exhibit that change of $d$ to $l$ after a labial which is seen in these Italian forms tiepolo and trespolo (cf. the byform impétimenta). The town-name Telēsia shows d on Oscan coins with Tedis (Zv.I.I.I. 262). Other examples of $l$ for $d$ are lexir, better laevir, a brother-in-law for *daever (O. Ind. dēvär-, Gk. $\delta a \eta \eta_{\rho}$ for $* \delta a \iota F \eta \rho$, Lith. dëverìs, O. Sl. děverĭ), which Nonius ( 557.6 M .) explains : quası laevus vir ; olleo, which stands in puzzling contrast to ödor from the root od-, 'to smell' (Arm. hot, Gk. ò $\delta \mu \eta$ ', Lith. üdžiu) (odefacit of Paul. Fest. 193. 2 I Th. 'odefacit' dicebant pro olfacit, may be a grammarian's coinage). But the other instances usually quoted are doubtful : uligo may come from *iuvilis as well as from ūvìdus; sŏlium and O. Lat. sōlum (e. g. Enn. Ann. 93 M. scamna solumque) may be from a root swel- (Gk. $\sigma_{\epsilon}^{\prime} \lambda \mu \mu$, Lith, súlas, 'a bench '), and not represent *sodium ( $\mathbf{O} . \mathrm{I}$ r. suide) from the root sed-, as sollum, the ground, the sole of the foot (cf. solea, a slipper) stands for *swolo-, (O. Ir. fol, 'the base, foundation '); mälus might be from *maz-lo-, as Engl. mast is from *maz-do-. The interchange of $d$ and $l$ in lacruma, lingua, \&c. was well known to the native Latin grammarians, and was often appealed to by them to support theoretical etymologies of words with 1 . Thus they explained sella (really for $*_{\text {sed-la }}$; Lacon. Gk. $\in \lambda \lambda \bar{\alpha}$; cf. Goth. sitls, Engl. a settle, O. Sl. sedlo, 'a saddle') by this interchange (Mar. Vict. 26. 3 K.) ; similarly ancilia from ambe-cido (Varro, L. L. vii. 43) ; sêl̆ququstra from sědeo (Fest. 508. ıo Th.) ; médütor from $\mu \epsilon \backslash \epsilon$ rá $\omega$ (Serv. ad Ecl. i. 2) ; dëlücatus from délĭcatus [Paul. Fest. 49. 17 Th.; who quotes a (suppositious) delicare, 5I. 35 Th. 'delicare' ponebant pro dedicare; cf. G1.Plac.r6. if G. delicare: deferre, quod et 'dedicare' dicebant pro commercio litterarum]. This delicare for dedicare is either an etymological coinage to explain delicatus, or the Old Latin delicare, to explain, inform, which was mentioned above. Modern etymologists have adopted a similar course to explain some difficult words like mülier, mūles, silicernium, lūdus (for other examples, see Wharton: On Latin Consonant Laws, in the Phil. Soc. Trans. 1889 ; and Conway, Indogerm. Forsch. ii. 157). But the evidence rather points to this $l$-like pronunciation of $d$ having asserted itself at the beginning of the literary period, but not having gained admission into the literary language, except in the case of a few words where the $l$ was supported by analogy or other causes. (Latin baliolus, from bădius, is a 'ghost-word,' the true reading in Plaut. Poen. Izor is baiiolus, the old spelling of bajulus).

Whether an original 1 is ever represented by $d$ in Latin is doubtful. The mispronunciation alipes for $\breve{1}$ d̆ppes (Prob. App. 199. 3 K.) was probably influenced by the Gk. ädeipa, but is no argument that the Greek and Latin words are connected ; the $\mathbf{O}$. Lat. sedda for sella, quoted by Ter. Scaur. is. I4 K., seems to be a grammarian's coinage to illustrate the etymology from sĕdeo, though it might possibly be the same dialectal sedda, with a peculiar form of $d$, which is still heard in S. Italy and Sardinia, where every Italian $l l$ is replaced by this $d d$-sound (see ch. ii. § 85). (On medipontus and melipontus, see Keil on Cato R. R. iii. 5.)
§ 112. Lat. r for d. Priscian (i. p. 35.2 H.) tells us that the 'antiquissimi'
used arvenae, arrentores, arrocati, arfines, arvolare, arfari, also arger; and other grammarians mention arventum (Mar. Vict. 9. 17 K.), arvorsus, arvorsarius ; Vel. Long. 71. 22 K.), arveniet (Gl. Plac.), arferia (Paul. Fest. 8. 32 Th.; Gloss. ap. Löwe Prodr. p. i3 vas vinarium quo vinum ad aras ferebant; cf. adferial, G1. Cyr.). In Cato we find arveho (e. g. R. R. 135.7; r38) ; and on inscriptions arfuerunt, arfuise and arrorsum (C.I. L. i. 196) in the S. C. de Bacchanalibus of 186 в. с., arvorsario beside advorsarium (i. 198), in the Lex Repetundarum of 123-2 в. с., arvorsu (ix. 782). Apur (Mar. Vict. 9. 17 K.), apor (Paul. Fest. 19. 34 Th.), the old form of apud, was probably a 'doublet' used before a word beginning with $g, v, f$ (cf. apur finem in an old inscription from the Marsic territory, Zv. I.1.I. 45) ; but quirquir in the augur's formula for marking out a templum (Varro, L. L. vii. 8) is a doubtful example ; and arduuitur (Legg. XII Tabb. ıо. 7 Br .), ar me Lucil. ix. 30 M . unlikely readings. The affinity of the sounds is seen in the dialectal) mispronunciation 'in usu cotidie loquentium' (Consent. 392. 15 K.) peres for pĕdes (cf. arvenire Diom. 452.29 K.) ; and $r$ (or else đ, the th-sound of our 'this,' 'then') takes the place of Italian $d$ in the dialects of S. Italy and Sicily, e.g. đicere and ricere for Ital. dicere in the Abruzzi; Neapolitan rurece for Ital. dodici, and (like Consentius' peres) pere for Ital. piede, \&c. Arger persisted in Vulgar Latin (Ital. argine, 'a dam,' Span. arcen, ' a parapet.') Arbĭter, from the root gnet- of Lat. věto ( $\mathbf{O}$. Scand. at-kvaeđa, (a decision') seems to be dialectal ( 0 . Umbr. ađputrati, in Lat. ' (crbitratu') (cf. mönērŭla, the form used by Plautus, classical mŏnēdŭla with the termination of acrēdula, fīcēdula, querquēdula, nìtḕdula, alcēdo ; and the glosses maredus for mădüdus, solerare for sollùdare, mavcerat for marcĭdat (Löwe, Prodr. $35^{2}$; Opusc. 142). The change of $d$ to $r$ in 0 . Lat. arfuerunt (preserved in the formula scr. arf. scribendo arfuerunt), \&c. was often mentioned by the native grammarians, who regarded a reference of any $r$ to an original $d$ as a legitimate device in framing etymologies. ThusVelius Longus ( 7 I .23 K .) derives auricŭla from audio, and mëridies (older meridie Adv.) from mĕdius and dies. This explanation of meridies is probably right, the $r$ being due to dissimilation (cf. Cic. Orat. xlvii. ${ }_{5} 57$ jam videtur nescire dulcius. ipsum meridiem cur non 'medidiem'; Varro, L. L. vi. 4, says that medidies was the old form, and that he had seen it on a Praenestine sundial : meridies ab eo quod medius dies. d antiqui, non $r$, in hoc dicebant, ut Praeneste incisum in solario vidi), though a good deal may be said for the derivation from merus (cf. mero meridie, Petr. 37. p. 25. r B.), and the Praenestine D seen by Varro may have been merely an old form of the letter R, as ladinod, ladinet on all coins c. 250 b. c.) of Larinum (modern Larino) (C. I. L. i. 24) may show the Oscan D , the symbol of $r$, as R was of $d$. Isidore (Orig. xii. 7. 69) similarly explains mĕrulla : merula antiquitus ' medula' vocabatur, eo quod moduletur ; and Varro (L. L. v. rio) derives perna 'a pede.'

Modern etymologists explain in the same way glärea (Gk. $\chi^{\lambda} \hat{\eta} \delta o s$ ), possibly a dialectal form, sïmïtur (ch. ix. §8) beside simitu, and other words of doubtful origin (see Wharton, Latin Consonant Laws, in Phil. Soc. Trans. 1889, on căreo, plōro, \&c.). But the available evidence hardly allows us to ascribe any $r$ to an original din a Latin word except before $g, v, f$. Cādūceus, a loanword from Gk $\kappa \eta \rho v^{\prime} \kappa \iota o \nu$ (Dor. $\kappa \bar{\alpha} \rho-$ ) may owe its $d$ to a fanciful connexion of the word with cădūcus. In Umbrian ar- is found for the Preposition ad in compounds perhaps only before f-, v-, e. g. arveitu 'advehito,' arfertur (and arsfertur) 'adfertor' (von Planta, i. p. 408). (On Lat. arcesso and other doubtful exx. of $a r$ - for $a d$-, see Schoell, xii Tabb., p. 8r.)
§§ 112-115.] REPRESENTATIVES OF I.-EUR. SOUNDS. T, D, DH. 289
§ 113. tr for dr . Lat. citrus was the old form of Gk . $\boldsymbol{\kappa} \in \delta \delta \rho o s$, for Naevius has citrosa vestis, while cedrus is not found till Virgil ; Cassantra and Alexanter were the old forms of Ka $\sigma \sigma \alpha \nu \delta \rho a$, 'A $\bar{\epsilon} \xi a \nu \delta \rho o s$, according to Quint. i. 4. 16 [we find Alixentrom (C. I. L. i. 50), Alixente(r), Casenter(a) (i. 1501), on old inscriptions from Praeneste]. So Gk. ' $\Upsilon \delta \rho o \hat{v} s$, -ô̂voos, Lat. Hydruntum, is modern Otranto, Lat. nütrio is for *noud-rio (§ 42 ) (Lith. naudà, 'use,' Goth. niutan, 'to enjoy,' Germ. geniessen) ; taeter for *taed-ro- (cf. taedet) ; so ŭter, Gen. ŭtris (Gk. ì $\delta \rho i ́ a)$; lütra, an otter, may be a malformation of *ütra (O. Ind. udrá-, Lith. údra, Engl. otter). The group $d r$ is not found in Latin, except in quadru-, quadra, \&c. (but cf. triquetrus). The name Drūsus (cf. Gloss ap. Löwe, Prodr. p. 398 drusus: patiens, rigidus, contumax) is declared by Suetonus (Tib. iii.) to be a Gaulish name : Drusus, hostium duce Drauso comminus trucidato, sibi posterisque cognomen invenit ; andruare and drua (Paul. Fest. 7. 15 Th.) are very doubtful spellings of antruare (antroare) and trua (ib. 1. 17).
§ 114. DH. I.-Eur. dh became $f$ in Latin, which in proximity to $r$ became $b$; but in the middle of a word between vowels $d$ is found ; e.g. I.-Eur. *dhūmo- (O. Ind. dhūmá-, Gk. $\theta \bar{v} \mu$ ós, Lith. dúmai Pl., O. Sl. dymŭ), Lat. fümus; I.-Eur. rŭdhro- (Gk. द́-pvӨ $\rho o ́ s, ~ O . ~ S l . ~ r u ̆ d r u ̆ ~ ; ~ c f . ~ O . ~ I n d . ~ r u d h i r a ́-), ~ L a t . ~ r u ̆ b e r, ~ s t e m ~$ rubro-; I.-Eur. root bheidh- (Gk. $\pi \epsilon^{i} \theta \omega$ for ${ }^{*} \phi \epsilon i \theta \omega$ ), Lat. fìdo. This $f, b, d$ may have all three developed from an older $d$-sound, the sound of our $t h$ in 'this,' 'that,' 'then;' but whether Sicilian $\lambda i \tau \rho a$ (for Lat. $l \bar{i} b r a$ ) is a survival of the $t$-stage is uncertain. The change of $d r$ to $f r, b r$ may be compared with the change of $s r$ to $f r, b r$ in tenebrae for *tenes-rae, \&c. (§ 152 ).
I.-Eur. $\underline{d h}$ is in Umbro-Osc. fi, whether initial or internal, e.g. Umbr. façia, Osc. fakiiad 'faciat,' Umbr. rufra 'rubra,' Osc. mefiaí 'mediae' (von Planta, i. p. 451). This f for Lat. (internal) $d, b$ is found in some dialectal words, e.g. crefrare for cribrare, like dialectal $\mathbf{f}$ for Lat. (internal) $b$ from I.-Eur. bh (see ch. ii. § 83).
§ 115. Other examples of I.-Eur. dh. (I) Initial : I.-Eur. root dhē-, dhēk-,
 deed, Lith. dë-ti, O. Sl. dé-ti, 'to lay'), Lat. făc-io, but with dh medial, condo (făc-shows the weak grade of dhēk-); I.-Eur. root dhē-, dhēy-, 'to suck,' (O.Ind. dháyāmi, Arm. diem, Gk. $\theta \hat{\eta} \sigma \theta a l$, O. Ir. dīth 3 Sg. Pret., Goth. daddjan, 'to suckle,' O. Sl. dexté, 'an infant'), Lat.félo, usually spelt fello, filius (§ 7). Similarly Lat. forum (Lith. dvãras, 'court,' O. Sl. dvorŭ) ; Lat. fŏveo, făvilla from the I.-Eur. root dheghñㅁ, 'to burn' (O. Ind. dah-, Lith. degù, Gk. $\boldsymbol{\tau}^{\prime} \phi \rho a$ for ${ }^{*} \theta$ é $\phi \rho a$, ashes) [the original meaning of foveo was 'to warm' (see the dictionaries, and cf. Paul. Fest. 6o. 15 Th. a fovendo, id est calefaciendo) ; hence fōculum, a fire-pan, e. g. Plaut. Capt. 847 foveri foculis ferventibus].
(2) Medial: from I.-Eur. root reudh-, 'to be red'(O.Ind. róhita-, 'red,' lōhá-,
' metal,' Gk. $\mathfrak{e}-\rho \in \dot{\prime} \theta \omega$, O. Ir. ruad,' red,' ' strong,' Gaul. Roudos, W. rhudd, Goth. raups, 'red,' O. H. G. rost, 'rust,' 0. Sl. rŭděti, 'to blush,' ruda, 'metal,' rŭžda, 'rust') come Lat. raudus, rödus and rūdus, unshaped metal, rŭdis, unshaped, and with $b$, besides rüber mentioned above, rưbeo, rōbus, rōbur, rōbigo, while rūfus with $f$, is dialectal ; from I.-Eur. root. bhendh-,'to bind' (O. Ind. bándhana-, Gk. $\pi \in i ̈ \sigma \mu a$ for ${ }^{*} \pi \epsilon \nu \theta \sigma \mu a, \pi \in \nu \theta \in \rho o ́ s$, Goth. bindan), Lat. offendix (§79) with $d$, while Lat. lumbus shows $b$ for dh (or dhw?) (O. Sl. lędvija, O. Engl. lenden), and $b$ appears for dh of the suffix dhlo- (see ch. v. § 26), in trī-bulum, stäbulum, \&c. as -bro- for I.-Eur. dhro- in crī-brum, vertě-bra, \&c. ; I.-Eur. *mědhyo- (O. Ind. mádhya-, Gk. $\mu$ '́ $\sigma(\sigma)$ os, Goth. midjis), Lat. mĕdius; I.-Eur. root aidh-, 'to burn' (O. Ind. édha-, 'firewood,' Gk. aï $\theta \omega$, O. Ir. aid, 'fire,' O. Engl. ād, 'pyre),' Lat. aedes, house, lit. 'hearth.' Similarly Lat. vǐdua (O. Ind. vidhávā, O. Ir. fedb, Goth. viduvō, O. Sl. vídova) ; fìdèlia (Gk. $\pi i \theta o s)$; grădus (Goth. grips); vădes (Goth. vadi, Germ. Wette, Lith. vadüti, 'to redeem') ; ūber (O. Ind. údhar, Gk. oṽ $\theta a \rho$, O. Engl. ūder) ; combrêtum, a bulrush (cf. Lith. szveñdrai Pl.) ; barba for *farba (§ 104) (Engl. beard, O. Sl. brada, Lith. barz-dà) ; arbos (O. Ind. ardh-, 'to grow, thrive') ; glăber (O. H. G. glat, 'smooth,' Engl. glad, Lith. glodùs, 'smooth,' O.Sl.gladŭkŭ) ; verbum (Goth.vaurd, Neut., Lith. var̛̃das, 'a name').
§ 116. The Gutturals. There are three series of Gutturals, viz. (1) Palatals (in some languages Sibilants, e.g. O. Ind. šatám, Lith. szim̃tas, O. Sl. sŭto, 'hundred' corresponding to Lat. centum); (2) Velars, better called Gutturals proper (Gutturals in all languages, e.g. the onomatopoetic name of the cuckoo, O. Ind. kôka-, Gk. ко́ккv $\xi$, Lat. cucūlus; cf. Lith. kukứti, ' to cry cuckoo'); (3) Velars with Labialisation, i.e. followed by a $w$-sound (in some languages Labials, e.g. Hom. Gk. mírvpєs, W. pedwar, Osc. petora, 'four,' corresponding to Lat. quattuor). They are most conveniently written, ( I ) $\hat{\mathrm{k}}, \hat{\mathrm{g}}, \& \mathrm{c} .,(2) \mathrm{k}, \mathrm{g}, \& \mathrm{c} .,(3) \mathrm{q}^{\mathrm{u}}, \mathrm{g}^{\mathrm{u}}, \& \mathrm{c}$. , while the symbols $k, g$, \&c. may be reserved for Gutturals whose exact nature is doubtful. So far as Latin is concerned, we might write (1) and (2) as $k, g$, \&c., and (3) as $k w, g w$, \&c.. for the same letter $c$ represents the $\hat{k}$ of centum and the k of carpo ( O . Ind. krp-), nor does the kw of equus, \&c. (O. Ind. áśva-) present a different appearance from the $q^{u}$ of quattuor, sequor ( O . Ind. sac-). I.-Eur. $\hat{\mathrm{k}}$ and k became Lat. $c(k)$, $\hat{\mathrm{g}}$ and g Lat. $g$, gh and gh became a guttural spirant, which was written $g$ with a consonant, elsewhere $l$; I.-Eur. $q^{\mathrm{u}}$ is Lat. $q u$ (which we might write $k v, k w), g^{u}$ is Latin $g u, g v(g w)$, which became $g$ before a consonant, but lost its $g$ when initial just as $d j$ - ( $d y-$ ) when initial became $j_{-}\left(y_{-}\right)$, or as Teut. gw from I.-Eur. $g^{\prime}{ }^{\mathbf{u}}$ became w in 'warm,' 'snow,' \&c. It lost its $g$ also when medial between vowels. I.-Eur. $\mathrm{gh}^{\mathbf{u}}$ became a guttural spirant
followed by a $w$-sound, which was written with a consonant $g u$ or $g$, but elsewhere became $h w$, this $h w$ developing at the beginning of a word into $f$ [just as the Greek $l w$-sound from I.-Eur. initial sw- seems to have developed into some $f$-sound (ch.i. §3)], but in the middle of a word into $v(w)$. (For examples see below.)

The I.-Eur. Gutturals offer considerable difficulty. It is not only that we find occasionally the confusion, found with every species of Mute, between Tenuis and Media (ch. ii. § 75), Media and Aspirate, \&c.; e.g. the guttural Media seems to replace the Aspirate in Lat. lugurrio (cf. lingo), from the root leighh-,' to lick' (Gk. $\lambda \in i \chi \omega$ ), Lat. adagio, pröduyium, from the root aĝh-, ' to say' (O. Ind. ah-), Lat. fügūra (cf. fingo) from the root dheiĝh-, 'to mould,' (O. Ind. dih-, ' to smear,') just as we find the labial Media replacing the Aspirate in Gk. $\sigma \tau \epsilon \mu \beta \omega$ beside $\grave{a} \sigma \tau \epsilon \mu \phi \eta^{\prime} s$. We find also apparent confusion of one series of Gutturals with another; thus in Greek (and perhaps in other languages) the proximity of the vowel $u$ seems to change a Guttural of the third into a Guttural of the second series, e.g. $\gamma v v \eta^{1}$ (Boeot. $\beta a v a ́, O$ Ir. ban), 入v́кos (dial. Lat. lŭpus); and very often the want of a cognate word in a language which treats one series differently from another, prevents us from ascertaining to which series a Guttural properly belongs, e.g. whether the $c$ of collum is a palatal or a true guttural. We are also confronted with an apparently I.-Eur. dialectal change of $\mathrm{q}^{\text {u }}$ to p , perhaps made in order to avoid that similarity between two successive syllables which was so sought after in Latin ( $\S$ 163). Thus the I.-Eur. word for 'five' may have been *qĕnqŭ ${ }^{\text {ü }}$ in one dialect ( $O$. Ind. pánca,
 the root meaning 'to cook,' pequ'- (O. Ind. pac-, Gk. $\pi \epsilon^{\prime} \sigma \sigma \omega$ ), $q^{u} e q{ }^{\mathrm{u}}$ - (W. pobi, with $p$ - from I.-Eur. $q^{\mathrm{u}}$, Lat. cŏquus), and even $q^{\text {u }}$ ep- (Lith. kepù. What of Gk. á $\left.\rho \tau о-к о ́ \pi о s ?\right) . ~ T h e ~ s a m e ~$ explanation has been suggested for the $q^{\prime \prime}$ of Lat. quercus beside the p- of O. Engl. furh, Engl. fir, and for the p- of Goth. fidvōr, Engl. four, beside the $q^{u}$ of other languages, e.g. Lat. quattuor.

A Latin Guttural, to whatever series it belongs, combines with a following $s$ into $x$, e.g. vexi from vĕho (I.-Eur. gh), before $t$ becomes the group ct, e.g. vectus, actus, which in late Latin

[^59]came to ho nronounned tt (Ital. atto), before $n, m$ becomes the group $y \cdot i, i^{\prime \prime \mu}$, c.o. $\quad$ from $i!n$,. from кúкдos. Initial $g n$ - became $n$ - at the beginning of the second cent. b.c., e.g. nātus. But lūna does not stand for *lucna, but for *lucsna (Zend raoxšna-, 'shining,' Pruss. lauxnos, 'stars'), as we see from the old form on a Praenestine mirror, Losna (C.I. L. i. 55), just as vèlum, a sail, stands for $*_{v e x-l u m}$ (O. Sl. veslo, 'a rudder'), as we see from the Diminutive form vexillum, so that Gk. $\lambda v_{\chi}$ vos has been declared to represent * $\lambda v \kappa s \nu 0$ (M. S. L. vii. 91). Another instance of Greek $\chi \nu$ appearing in Latin as $n$ with long vowel is the (loanword ?) arānea (Gk. àpáxıך). Exāmen beside agmen, amb-āges (on exagmen see Class. Rer. v. 294), contāmino beside contāgium; [contrast propagmen (Enn. Ann. 587 M.) beside propägo, and cf. subtēmen from texo beside subtegmen, e.g. Virg. Aen. iii. 483], have been variously explained by hypotheses that have as yet failed to establish themselves, such as (1) that the Guttural is assimilated (like $d$ in caementum from caedo) after a long vowel, $*_{\text {exāg-men }}$ becoming $*_{\text {exāmmen, exāmen, while }}$ ăg-men remains agmen; (2) that the Guttural is assimilated in the unaccented syllable (under the earlier Accent Law), whence éxämen but agmen; (3) that the unassimilated forms had originally a connecting vowel, e.g. $\breve{a} g(\imath) m e n)$ (cf. jugumentum, a joining, Cato, R. R. xiv. I and 4). Another theory, that these forms add an $s$ to the final Guttural of the root, examen for ${ }^{*} e x$-ax-men from $*_{a g s-m e n-}$ (cf. $\left.*_{a x-} l a, a x-i s\right)$, connects the forms with a known law of Latin phonetics, and is preferable on that account.

The cognates of major, aio show $g$ in Latin, e.g. magnus, măgis, adagio, prödl̆gium, but the guttural Aspirate in other I.-Eur. languages (O. Ind. mah-, ah-) ; so it is better to refer them to the ordinary law that Latin $h$ may be dropped between vowels, than to posit a new law that the guttural Media was dropped before $y$. Major will thus come from an older *măhior (cf. O. Ind. máhīyas-); pül̄̄̈ium, fleabane, apparently from pülex, a flea, may be dialectal, like Umbr. muieto P. P. P., with i for palatalized g , beside mugatu Imperat.; brëvis (Gk. $\beta$ 位ús) will represent an older trisyllable brehuis, and lëvis (Gk. ė̀axús: what of $\epsilon \lambda \lambda \alpha \phi o o^{\prime} ?$ ) an older *lehuis, while pinguis (Gk. $\pi a \chi u{ }^{\prime} s$ ),
where the Aspirate is preceded by the ronsonant n, 11 represent an older trisyllabic form *pingü̈s (see § 127).

Aspirate Tenues, which are difficult to trace (see § 95), have been found in unguis (cf. O. Ind. nakhá-, Gk. övvх-, O. Ir. inge, Lith. nãgas, O. Engl. nægel) (see B. B. xvii. 133), congius (O. Ind. šarakhá-, 'a shell,' Gk. кórर $\eta$, Lett. sence). On dat. $c l$ for I.-Eur. -tl-, e.g. pōc(u)lum see § 105 ; on $c c$ for $t c$, e.g. $a c$ for *atc, atque, hoc for *hod-c(e), § 109 ; on the mispronunciations ss, sc for $x$, e.g. coxim, ascella, ch. ii. § 117 .

In Umbrian the combination kt, when due to Syncope, seems to be differently developed according as the k represents on the one hand an I.-Eur. $q^{n}$ or on the other an I.-Eur. $\hat{k}$ (or $k$ ); in the former case it becomes kt, e.g. fiktu (Lat. figito for fivito, ch. viii. § 7), in the latter, itt, e.g. deitu (Lat. dīcito). In Osc. both are kt, e.g. fruktatiuf 'fru(v)itationes,' factuc 'facito,' while I.-Eur. $q^{\underline{1}} \mathrm{t}$ (not due to Syncope) is Umbro-Osc. kt, and I.-Eur. kt, kt (not due to Syncope) is Umbro-Osc. ht (for examples see Buck, Vocalismus Osk. Sprache, p. 145).
§ 117. $\mathbf{x}$ for Guttural with s. Vexi from věho (I.-Eur. root weghh-, 'to carry'); panxi (cf. Gk. $\pi \dot{\eta} \gamma \nu v \mu l)$; finxi from fingo (I.-Eur. dheigh-) ; nix for ${ }^{*}(\mathrm{~s})$ nigh ${ }_{\mathrm{s}}$; coxi from cŏquo ; lüxa, prō-lixus, ē-lixus from lĭquor for *vliquor (O. Ir. fliuch, ' wet,' W. gwlyb). Before most consonants $x$ became s, e.g. sescēni for *sex-ceni, (as after $r$ in mers for merx, sparsi, tersi, \&c., § 158 ), but not before $t$ in dexter, dextra, sextus, \&c. (but lustro, to illuminate, illustris, \&c. from *lucs-tr- ; on Sestius, mistus, see ch. ii. § 125), while before $m, n, l$ it was (like $s$ for I.-Eur. s, e. g. quälus for *quas-lus, cf. quĕsillus, § 151) dropped with 'Compensation,' e. g. pālus for *pax-lus (Dim. paxillus) ; äla, wing, shoulder, for *ax-la (Din. axilla), like axis, an axle, from the root ag.- of ăgo (O. H. G. ahsala, 'shoulder,' W. echel, 'an axle,' Engl. axle) ; tèlum, for *tex-lum, from texo, to shape (O. H. G. dehsala, ' an axe,' O. Sl. tesla) ; tēla, for *tex-la, from texo, to weave (Ter. Heaut. 285 texentem telam) ; tālus, for *tax-lus (Dim. taxillus) ; sēni for *sex-ni; aula, Dim. auxilla.
§ 118. et for Guttural with t. Vectus, with vectis, a lever, from věho (ĝh); panctum and pactum from pango ( $\hat{\mathrm{g}}$ ?) ; fictum from fingo ( gh ) ; luctus, grief, from lūgeo ( $\mathbf{g}$ ) ; coctum from cŏquo ( $\mathbf{q}^{\mathbf{n}}$ ) ; nicto, to wink; cf. co-nīveo (ghị). After a consonant $c$ was dropped in course of time (§ 157), e. g. fortis, in O. Lat. forctis [in the XII Tables forctes was the name given to the loyal neighbours of Rome, sanates to those who had swerved from their loyalty, but had returned to it, Fest. 524. 15 Th. ; cf. Paul. Fest. 59. 26 'forctes' (leg. 'forctis') frugi et bonus, sive validus]; quintus, in the older spelling quinctus, the older form being long retained in the names Quinctilius, Quinctius, Quinctilis, \&c. (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.). On Vulg. and Late-Lat. tt for ct, e. g. brattea, see ch. ii. § 95, and cf. Rhein. Mus. xlv. p. 493.
§ 119. gn, gm for cn, cm. Like ilignus from îlex are larignus from lărix, salignus from sălix; similarly segmentum from sěco; dignus, usually explained as *dec-nus
from dĕcet, but better as *dic-nus (0. Scand. tiginn, 'high-born,' tign, 'rank') a P. P. P. NO-stem from the root deik- of dīcere, indĭcare, \&c. Aprunus is a late spelling of aprugnus ; aprinus is an entirely different formation (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.). After a consonant the Guttural is dropped, e. g. quernus for *querc-nus from quercus; farnus for *farg-nus, a byform of fraxinus, though not in Compounds with $\alpha d$, \&c., e. g. agnosco. When the consonant is a Nasal, it seems to combine with the following Nasal, e. g. quīni for *quinc-ni, so that contämino might stand for *con-tang-mino as well as for *con-tags-mino. Compounds with in, con show different spellings; in- with gnosco gives ignosco, con- with gnosco both cognosco and connosco, as con- with necto gives cönecto, \&c. (cf. ch. ii. § 1зо).

Initial Latin $g n$ became at the beginning of the second cent. в. c. $n$ (as in Engl. 'gnat'), e. g. nōsco, older gnōsco (ĝn-), nätus, older gnatus (ĝn-) (gnatare $\pi \alpha \iota \delta o \pi o \iota \hat{\eta} \sigma a l$, C. G.L. ii. 35. ro), nixus, older gnixus (k̂n- ; cf. O. H. G. hnīgan, Germ. neigen), nārus, older gnarus (gnaritur $\gamma \nu \omega p i\langle\epsilon$ tal, C. G. L. ii. 35. 12), nāvus, older gnarus, Naevius (cf Gk. Nalos on the Mon. Anc.) beside Gnaeus (cf. Gnaivod, Abl., on a Scipio epitaph, C. I. L. i. 30). For instances of the older forms, see (Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. vv., and Löwe, Prodr. 354: e.g. gnoscier on the S. C. Bacch. of 186 в. c., C.I.L. i. 196. 27, but nationum, norerit (beside gnatus Part.) on the Lex Repetundarum of 123 -122 в. c., i. 198 ; natus Part. on the Sent. Minuciorum of ${ }^{11} 7$ b. c., i. 199. Plautus and Terence use, as a rule, natus for the Participle, gnatus for the Substantive ; the $g$ of these forms appears in the compounds agnosco, agnatus, ignarus, ignarus, \&c., and strangely also in agnomen, cognomen; for nōmen (so in S. C. Bacch.) was not originally *gnomen (cf. O. Ind. nâma-, and for the various forms of the root, see B. B. xvii. 132). On crĕpusculum and Gk. $\kappa \nu$ 白 $\phi a s$, see § 80 .
§120. Lat. h dropped between vowels. Bimus for *bi-himus, lit. 'two winters
 old,' Scotch gimmer, a yearling lamb) ; nill (so always in Plautus), for nihhil, nîhīlum from nĕ and hīlum (cf. Enn. A. 8 M. nec dispendi facit hilum; Lucil. xiv. ir M. hilo non sectius vivas ; Lucr. iii. 830 nil igitur mors est ad nos neque pertinet hilum), hillum being explained as 'quod grano fabae adhaeret' (Paul. Fest. 72. ro Th.) ; praebeo for praehibeo ; cors for cŏhors. On the $h$ of ăhēnus (aenus) for *ăyěs-no-, and on the question whether $h$ was used in vehemens, \&c. to indicate a long vowel (as in Umbrian, e.g. comohota 'commōta'), see ch. ii. § 56 .
§ 121. Dialectal $\mathbf{f}$ for h. In Spanish, Latin $f$ has become $h$, e. g. hablar, 'to speak' (Lat. fäbulari, O. Lat. fabulare), and an interchange of $h$ and $f$ shows traces of itself in the dialects of Italy. We find the form fasena for hăsēna ascribed to the Sabine dialect by the grammarians (Vel. Long. 69.8 K.), along with fircus (cf. the name of a citizen of Reate mentioned by Varro, Fircellius) and fedus. Similar forms roughly classed by the grammarians as 'Old Latin' we may believe to have been dialectal, e. g. fordeum for hordeum, folus for hölus, fostis for hostis, fostia for hostia, \&c., though some of them may be mere coinages to strengthen the argument for the spelling with $h$ - (see Quint.i. 4. 14; Ter. Scaur. pp. i1, 13 K. ; Vel. Long. p. 8i K. ; Paul. Fest. 59. 21 Th. \&c.). A Faliscan inscription has foied for hodie (Not. Scav. 1887, pp. 262, 307): foied uino pipafo kra karefo 'hodie vinum bibam, cras carebo,' but a Sabine inscription has hiretum, apparently from the root gher- (? gher-) (Osc. heriiad, Gk. $\chi^{a} \rho(\rho a, \& c$.$) , and Ter. Scaurus (r3. 9$ K.) quotes haba (Lat. faba, O. Sl. bobu,
I.-Eur. bh-) as Faliscan. (See von Planta, i. p. 442 ; Löwe, Prodr. p. 426 ; and on the interchange of $\mathbf{f}$ and h in Etruscan inscriptions, Pauli, Altitalische Forschungen, iii. p. 114). Lat. fel has been explained as a dialectal form for *hel (cf. Gk. $\chi^{\circ} \boldsymbol{\lambda} \boldsymbol{\lambda o s}$ ), and fovea for *hovea (Gk. $\chi \epsilon \operatorname{lá}$ ) (cf. the gloss 'fuma' terra, C. G. L. v. 296. 50).
§ 122. The Palatal Gutturals: $\hat{\mathbf{K}}, \hat{\mathbf{G}}, \hat{\mathbf{G} H}, \hat{\mathbf{K}} \boldsymbol{H}$. These were in Latin, as in Greek, Celtic, and Teutonic, guttural sounds, while in the Asiatic languages and Slavonic they were sibilants.
$\hat{\mathbf{K}}$. I.-Eur. $\hat{\mathrm{k}}$, Lat. $c$, is seen in I.-Eur.*ḳ̣̂tom,'hundred'(O. Ind. šatám, Gk. é-катóv, O. Ir. cēt, W. cant, Goth. hund, Lith. sziñtas), Lat. centum ; *swěkŭro-, 'step-father' (O. Ind. šváśsura-, Arm. skesur F., Gk. є́кvрós, O. Corn. hwigeren, hweger F., Goth. svaihra, Germ. Schwäher, Lith. szeszuras), Lat. sŏcer ; *ơk̂tō(u), 'eight' (O. Ind. aşṭấu, aṣṭá, Gk. òкт由, O. Ir. ocht, W. wyth, Goth. ahtau, O. Engl. eahta, Lith. asztůnì, O. Sl. osmĭ), Lat. ŏctō. I.-Eur. kw was merged in $q u$, the representative of I.-Eur. $q^{u}$; thus I.-Eur. *ěk̂wo-, 'horse' (O. Ind. áš́va-; cf. Lith. aszvà, ' mare,' \&c.) is Lat. ĕquus.
I.-Eur. $\hat{k}$ is Umbro-Osc. k, e.g. Umbr. kletram Acc., ' a litter' (Gk. $\kappa \lambda i \nu \omega \omega, \& c$.), Kluviier, Osc. Kluvatiium from the root kleu(Lat. clueo, Gk. клє́os, \&c.), (von Planta, i. p. 326). In Umbrian $\mathbf{k}$ (whether from I.-Eur. $\hat{k}$ or $\mathbf{k}$ ) was palatalized before $e, i$, and was written in the native alphabet by a sign which we conventionally express by ç, in the Latin alphabet by $s$ (sometimes $s$ ), e. g. çersnatur, s̀esna (Lat. cēna, Osc. kersna-) (ib. p. 359).

[^60]chim, Goth. fraih-na, Germ. frage, Lith. praszaũ, O. Sl. prošą), Lat. prěcor. Similarly Lat. crābro for *crāsro (cf. Lith. szirszủ̉, O. Sl. srŭšenĭ, Engl. hornet); ăcus, $\bar{a} c e r, ~ \& c$. from the root ak., ' to be sharp ' (O. Ind. aš́rí-, 'edge,' Arm. ase $\lambda n$, 'a needle,' Lith. asztrùs, 'sharp,' 0 . Sl. ostrŭ, \&c.) ; cěrěbrum for *cerěs-rum (cf. O. Ind. sírías-, N., 'head,' Gk. кá $\rho \bar{a}, \& c$.$) .$
§ 124. I.-Eur. kw . Lat. combretum, bulrush, from the stem $\mathrm{k} w e$ ndhr-, seen in Lith. szveñdrai Pl., has been compared to sŏror for *swěsor- (§ 68) ; but it more probably shows the $O$-grade of the stem, ${ }^{* q u o m b r-e t u m ~(c f . ~ O . ~ S c a n d . ~ h v o ̈ n n ~}$ 'angelica'), with reduction of quo- to co- as in cŏlo for older quolo (cf. § 137).
§ 125. $\hat{G}$. Of I.-Eur. g. Lat. $g$, we have examples in the I.-Eur. roots gen-, ĝnō-, ' to know, learn' (O. Ind. jā-nắ-mi, jnnātá-, Arm. can-eay Aor., Gk. $\gamma \iota-\gamma \nu \omega-\sigma \kappa \omega$, $\gamma \nu \omega \tau$ ós, O. Ir. gnāth, ‘ accustomed,' W. gnawd, O. Engl. cnāwan, Engl. to know, Lith. žin-óti, O. Sl. zna-ti), Lat. gnō-sco, gnō-tus; melĝ-, ' to milk' (O. Ind. mrj-, ' to wipe off,' Gk. à $\mu \notin \lambda \gamma \omega$, O. Ir. bligim, O. Engl. melce, Lith. métžu, O. Sl. mlŭzą), Lat. mulgeo.
I.-Eur. ĝw would be indistinguishable in Latin from I.-Eur.
 'to be strong' (cf. Gk. virıis), shows $v$ between vowels for ĝw.

In Umbro-Osc. I.-Eur. ĝ is g, e. g. Umbr. ager 'ager,' Osc. aragetud ' argento' Abl. (von Planta, i. p. 329). In Umbrian g, whether I.-Eur. $\hat{g}$ or g , suffers before e, i palatalization, and is written i, e.g. muieto, P. P. P. of a verb whose Imperat. 3 sg . is mugatu (von Planta, i. p. 372 ).
§ 126. Other examples of I.-Eur. g. I.-Eur. geus-, ‘ to taste' ( 0 . Ind. juṣ̆-, Gk. $\gamma \in \dot{v} \omega$ for * $\gamma \in \dot{\prime} \sigma \omega$, O. Ir. to-gu, 'I choose,' Goth. kiusa), Lat. gŭstus; I.-Eur.
 rīg Gen., Gaul. Catu-rīges, W. rhi, Goth. uf-rakja, Lith. rāž̌au), Lat. rëgo, rēgis
 O. Ir. gēnar Pft., gein, W. geni, genid, Goth. kuni, 'race,' Engl. kin), Lat. gi-gn-o, gĕnus. Similarly Lat. argentum (Zend er ${ }^{\circ}$ zata-, Arm. arcat'; cf. O.
 ăgo (O. Ind. aj-, Arm. acem, Gk. äro, O. Ir. ag-, O. Scand. aka), Lat. grānum (O. Ind. jīrnáá-, 'crushed,' Goth. kaurn, Lith. žirnis, 'a pea,' O. Sl. zrǐno) ; Lat. gĕnu (0. Ind.. jắnu, Arm. cunr, Gk. yóvv, Goth. kniu N., O. Engl. enēo N.) ; Lat.
 Germ. wacker) ; Lat. gělu ( 0 . Sl. žlédica) (on él instead of ŏl, see § го).
§ 127. ĜH. I.-Eur. ghh is in Latin $h$, but $g$ before or after a consonant, e.g. I.-Eur. *ĝhŏrto- (Gk. xópтos, O. Ir. gort, Lith. žar̃dis), Lat. hortus ; I.-Eur. root weĝh- (O. Ind. vah-, Gk. ö̉os, Goth. ga-viga,
gl. waggon, Lith. wežù,
O. Sl. vezą), Lat. vĕho ; I.-Eur. root anĝh- (O. Ind. âhas-, ' need,' Arm. anjuk, ‘ narrow,' Gk. ă $\gamma \chi \omega$, O. Ir. cum-ung, ' narrow,' Goth. aggvus, O. Engl. ange, Germ. eng, O. Sl. ązŭkŭ), Lat. ango, angor, angustus ; Lat. grando (O. Ind. hrādúni-). A good example of the rule for $g$ and $h$ is mingo beside mejo for $*_{\text {meiho, from the root }}$ meiĝh- (O. Ind. mih-, Lith. mīzaũ, Gk. ob- $\mu \tau \chi{ }^{\epsilon} \omega$ ).
I.-Eur. ghw was in Latin merged in I.-Eur. gh ${ }^{\mathrm{u}}$, e.g. I.-Eur. *ĝhwēr-,‘ a wild animal ' (Gk. $\theta \dot{\eta} \rho$, Thess. $\phi \epsilon i \rho$, Lith. žvèrìs, O. Sl. zvěrĭ), with which is connected Lat. fërus, Fem. fëra, a wild animal. (But Engl. deer, Germ. Thier, Goth. dius point to some I.-Eur. original like *dheusó-, cf. Lat. füro for *fuso ?).
I.-Eur. gh is in Umbro-Osc. h, as in Latin, e.g. Umbr. hondra, Osc. huntro- from the root of Lat. hümus (von Planta, i. p. 436). On h for f in Sabine fasena 'harena,' \&c., see above § I2I.
§ 128. Other examples of I.-Eur. ĝh. Lat. hiems (O. Ind. himá-, Arm.
 Lat. hưmus (O. Ind. jmá- F., Gk. ұauaí, Lith. žẽmè, O. Sl. zemlja) ; Lat. hơlus, older helus, helvus (§ іо) (O. Ind. hári-, 'yellow,' O.Ir. gel, ‘white,'0. Engl. geolo, Engl. yellow, Lith. želù, 'I grow green,' O. Sl. zelije, 'vegetables'); Lat. lingo (O. Ind. lih-, Arm. lizum, Gk. $\lambda \epsilon i ́ \chi \omega$, Goth. bi-laigō, Lith. lěžiù, O. Sl. ližą ); Lat. ( $h$ )anser (O. Ind. hąsá-, Gk. $\chi \eta \dot{\eta}$, O. Ir. gēis, 'a swan,' Engl. goose, Lith. žą̧ìs̀s) ; Lat. fingo (0. Ind. dih-, 'to smear,' dēhí, ‘a wall,' Arm. dizem, Gk. TєíXos, 0. Ir. dengaim, 'I fasten,' Goth. deigan, 'I mould,' daigs, 'dough,' Germ. Teig) ; Lat. hiare (O. H. G. giēn, Engl. to yawn, Lith. -žióti, O. Sl. zijati).
§ 129. The Gutturals Proper: K, G, GH, KH. These appear as Gutturals in all the I.-Eur. languages. The fact that the I.-Eur. onomatopoetic name for the cuckoo shows this form of Guttural (O. Ind. kóka-, Gk. ко́ккия, Lat. cucūlus, O. Ir. cuach, W. cog ; cf. Lith. kukưti, ‘ to cry cuckoo') indicates what sort of Guttural it was.
K. I.-Eur. k is Lat. $c$, e. g. I.-Eur. root kert-, 'to plait' (O. Ind. eṛt-, káta-, ' mat,' Gk. кápтaдos, basket, Goth. haurds F., 'door,' Engl. hurdle), Lat. crātes, cartilāgo; I.-Eur. kerp-, 'to cut, reap' (O. Ind. krpāṇa-, 'a sword,' Gk. картós, fruit, Engl. harvest, Lith. kerpù, ' I cut'), Lat. carpō (on ar see § 3).

In Umbro-Osc. I.-Eur. $k$ remains as in Latin, e. g. Umbr. kanetu 'canito' (von Planta, i. p. 327), though in Umbrian k suffers palatalization before e, i (see above § 122 ).
§ 130. I.-Eur. k ; other examples. Lat. cruor, crūulus (O. Ind. kravíṣ- N., ' raw meat,' Gk. $\kappa \rho \in ́ a s$, , O. Ir. crū, 'gore,' W. crau, Lith. kraũjas, O. Sl. krŭvì, O. Engl. hrēaw, 'raw') ; Lat. collis (Goth. hallus M., Lith. kátnas; cf. Gk. кo^んขós) ; Lat. clävis, clāvus (Gk. $\kappa \lambda \eta$ is, O. Ir. clō M., 'a nail,' Germ. schliessen, 0. Sl. ključí, ' a hook, a key'); Lat. ancus, uncus (O. Ind. aıəká-, Gk. à $\gamma \kappa \dot{\omega} \nu$, ö $\gamma \kappa о s$, O. Ir. ēcath); Lat. căpio (Arm. kap, 'a fetter,' Gk. «án $\eta$, O. Engl. hæft, ' captive,' Lett. kampu, 'I seize') ; Lat. coxa (O. Ind. kákẹ̆a-, O. Ir. coss, 'the foot,' W. coes, 'the leg,' M. H. G. hahse, 'bend of knee, hough') ; Lat. cūpa (O. Ind. kúpa-, 'a pit,' Gk. ки́ $\pi \eta$ ) ; Lat. sĕco ( $\mathbf{O}$. Scand. sigđr, 'a sickle,' O. Engl. sage, 'a saw,' O. Sl. sěka, ' 'I cut'), O. Lat. clepo (Gk. $\kappa \lambda \epsilon^{\prime} \pi \tau \omega$, Goth. hlifa, Engl. shop-lifter, Pruss. au-klipts, 'hidden') ; Lat. vinco (O. Ir. fichim, 'I fight,' Goth. veiha, Engl. wight, Lith. vëkà, 'strength,' ap-veikiù, 'I compel') ; Lat. scando ( 0 . Ind. skándā-mi, ' I spring,' Gk. $\sigma \kappa a \nu \delta \dot{\alpha} \lambda \eta \theta \rho o \nu$, a springe, 0 . Ir. ro-sescaind, 'he sprang').
§ 131. G. Of I.-Eur. g, Lat. $g$, examples are: I.-Eur. root gar-, ' to shout ' (O. Ind. gr--, Gk. $\gamma \eta \rho v^{\prime} \omega$, O. Ir. gāir, ' a shout,' W. gawr, O. H. G. chirru, 'I shout,' Lith. gar̃sas, ' noise'), Lat. garrio ; I.-Eur. *yŭgo-, ‘a yoke’ (O. Ind. yugá-, Gk. 〔voóv, Goth. juk, O. Sl. igo), Lat. jŭgum.
I.-Eur. g is g also in Umbro-Osc. (von Planta, i. p. 330) ; but an Umbrian g , as we have seen, is palatalized (written i) before the vowels i, e, \&c. (§ 125).
§ 132. Other examples of I.-Eur. g. Lat. grūs (Arm. kriunk, Gk. $\boldsymbol{\gamma}^{\prime} \rho a v o s$, Gaul. Tri-garanus, W. garan, O. Engl. cran, Lith. gérvé, O. Sl. žeravǐ) ; Lat. tĕgo (O. Ind. sthágā-mi, Gk. $\sigma \tau \in ́ \gamma \omega$, $\sigma \tau \in ́ \gamma o s$, and $\tau \in ́ \gamma o s, 0 . \mathrm{Ir}$. teg, O. W. tig, Engl. thatch, Germ. Dach, Lith. stógas) ; Lat. augeo (O. Ind. ójas-, 'strength,' Gk. aủğ́va, O. Ir. ōg, 'entire,' Goth. auka, 'I multiply,' Engl. eke, Lith. áugu, 'I grow'), O. Lat. érügo, of which e-ructo is the Iterative form (Paul. Fest. 58. зo Th.), used by Ennius, Ann. 593 M. :
contempsit fontes quibus ex erugit aquae uis,

§ 133. GH. I.-Eur. gh, like I.-Eur. ghh, became $/ \bar{L}$ in Latin, except before or after a consonant, when it became $g$. Examples are : I.-Eur. *ghŏsti- (Goth. gasts, Engl. guest, O. Sl. gostř), Lat. hostis, hos(ti)pes (O. Lat. hostis, 'stranger,' Varro L. L. v. 3); I.-Eur. root ghred- (O. Ir. ingrennim, ' I pursue,' Goth. grips, 'a step,' O. Sl. grędą, 'I come'), Lat. grădior (on $a$, see § 3), gradus.

In Umbro-Osc. also I.-Eur. gh is h (von Planta, i. p. 438). On f for h in some dialects, such as the Sabine, see above, §121.
§ 134. I.-Eur. gh : other examples. Lat. prě-hendo (Gk. $\chi^{a \nu \delta a ́ v a, ~ A l b . ~ g e n ́, ~}$ ' I find,' Gendem, ' I am found,' Goth. bi-gita, Engl. I get); Lat. hordeum (Arm. gari, Germ. Gerste); Lat. haereo (Goth. us-gaisja, 'I frighten,' Engl. gaze, Lith. gaisztù, ' I tarry ').
§ 135. Velar Gutturals with Labialisation. These appear as Gutturals in some languages, and as Labials in others, and show this divergence even on Italian soil, e. g. Umbr., Osc. pis, Lat. quis. (On the Italic treatment of the Gutturals of this series, see von Planta, i. pp. 331 sqq.). Q ${ }^{\mathrm{u}}$. I.-Eur. $q^{n}$ is Lat. qu (but qoi for classical qui on the Dvenos inscription). Before $u$ we find $c$, e. g. sĕcütus from sequor, a change which may have been very ancient (see § II6). Before o this $q u$, though often retained in writing, seems to have come to sound like $c$; hence quŏquo-, a cook, was written coquo- as well as quoquo-, and on the other hand the Preposition cum, older cŏm [for kom or kom (Osc. kúm, Umbr. -kum)], was written quom till the time of the Gracchi, and the P.P.P. of occullo, from a root kel- or kel- (W. celu), appears with the spelling oquoltod on the S. C. de Bacch. of 186 b. c. (C. I. L. i. 196). When in the eighth cent. A. U. c. o before a final consonant, came to be universally changed in spelling (see $\S 20$ ) to $u$, we find the spelling quo (guo) replaced by cu (gu), so that ěquos became ecus (Gen. equi), quoquos or coquos became cocus (Gen. coqui). The grammarians of the first cent. A.D. were puzzled by the want of analogy between ecus Nom., and equi Gen., \&c., and reconstituted the Nom. as equus, \&c. Instances of I.-Eur. $q^{u}$ in Latin are : I.-Eur. root seqn ${ }^{u}$ (O. Ind. sac-, Gk. Є́ $\quad \pi о \mu a \iota, ~ O . ~ I r . ~ s e c h u r, ~ L i t h . ~$ sekù), Lat. sequor ; I.-Eur. root leiqñ- (O. Ind. ric-, Arm. e-lik', 'he left,' Gk. $\lambda \epsilon i \pi \omega$, O. Ir. lēcim, Goth. leihva, 'I lend,' Germ. leihe, Lith. lëkù), Lat. linquo ; I.-Eur. ${ }^{*} q^{u}{ }^{u} i-(O$. Ind. -cid Neut., Gk. $\tau i$ for ${ }^{*} \tau \iota \delta, \mathrm{O}$. Sl. čı-to 'what?'), Lat. qu乞̆d Indef. ; I.-Eur. ${ }^{*} q^{u}$ ǔ (O. Ind. ca, Gk. $\tau \in$, O. Ir. -ch, W. -p, Goth. -h), Latin -quĕ. Before a consonant this qu became c, e.g. sŏcius, older *socyofrom the $o$-grade of the root seq ${ }^{u}$, with the adjectival suffix -yo-
 *oclo-from the root oq"-, 'to see' (Gk. oै $\sigma \sigma \epsilon$, with $\sigma \sigma$ for $\kappa y$, ö $\mu \mu a$ for ${ }^{*}{ }^{\circ} \pi \pi-\mu a$, Lith. akìs, O. Sl. oko) with the suffix -lo.
I.-Eur. $q^{n} w$ has been postulated for the initial $u(v)$ of $\breve{u} b i$ (Osc. puf, Umbr. pufe), $\breve{u} t, \breve{u} t i$ (of. Osc. puz, Umbr. puze) (with $c u$ in the middle of a word, e.g. sī-cŭbi), văpor (Lith. kvãpas), in-vītus and in-vīto (Pruss. quāits, 'will'; Lith. kvëcžiù, 'I invite'), \&c. (see K.Z. xxxii. 405).

In Umbro-Osc. I.-Eur. $q^{u}$ is $p$. (On the date of the change, see von Planta, i. p. 331). Latin pŏpina, lŭpus, \&c. are dialectal, just as Pontius and Pompeius are the dialectal names corresponding to Lat. Quintius, and Petreius to Lat. Quartius. (A full list of examples in von Planta, l.c.).
§ 136. I.-Eur. qu, Lat. qu : other examples. Lat. quattuor (O. Ind. catváras,
 Gaulo-Lat. petor-ritum, Lith. keturì, O. Sl. četyrije) ; Lat. quīnque ( 0. Ind. pán̂ca, Arm. hing, Gk. $\pi^{\epsilon} \ell \boldsymbol{\varepsilon} \tau \epsilon$, O. Ir. cōic, W. pump, Lith. penkì) ; Lat. qui, quam, \&c. (O. Ind. ká-, Gk. $\pi \delta \theta \in \nu, \pi \hat{\eta}, ~ O . ~ I r . ~ c i a, ~ W . ~ p w y, ~ G o t h . ~ h v a s, ~ h v e ̄, ~ L i t h . ~$ kàs, O. Sl. kŭ-to).
§ 137. c for qu. (I) Before $u$; arcus (Goth. arhv-azna, 'an arrow,' O. Engl. earh), beside arquitēnens, arquittes, the old word for săgittärii (Paul. Fest. 15. 32 Th .) ; the change to $-c u$ - appears to be Italic and not merely Latin, if Umbr. arslata- (cf. Paul. Fest. 12. 15 'arculata' dicebantur circuli, qui ex farina in sacrificiis fiebant) comes from arcus; from quinque come quincunx, quincuplex; from sesque comes sescuplus (but cf. Löwe, Prodr. p. 403).
(2) Before a consonant: Lat. nĕc for nĕquĕ, ac from *atc for atque, with Syncope of -č before an initial consonant (ch. iii. § 36) ; torcŭlus from torqueo; cöcullum from cŏquo. On ct for $\mathrm{q}^{\mathrm{n}}$ - t , $x$ for $\mathrm{q}^{\mathrm{n}}$-s, see § 1 r6.
(3) Before 0: cŏlo (older quolo: we have qolunt in the Ambrosian Palimpsest of Plautus, Pseud. 822, and quolundam on the inscription of the Faliscan 'collegium coquorum,' which also has ququei for coqui, Zv. I.I.I. 72) beside inquilīnus ; cölus, a distaff (Gk. móлos, an axle). The fact that quo (I.-Eur. qno or kwo) had come to be pronounced like co (I.-Eur. ko or ko) explains why $q u$ seems not to offer the same resistance to the Brevis Brevians law in the Early Poets when it precedes 0 , as when it precedes other vowels, e.g. coquŏ but only loquī (ch. iii. § 42). But the indiscriminate spelling of every quo as co is not found till the fifth cent. A.d., e. g. cot, corum, condam, locor (see Bersu, die Gutturalen, p.90) and the analogy of the other cases and persons kept quo as the spelling in the Nom. Sg. of equos, \&c., and the 3rd Pl., sequontur, \&c., until the $o$, hitherto preserved in spelling by the preceding $u$, became in the eighth cent. A. U.c. $u$ (ch. iii. § 17), when ecus, secuntur were adopted as the proper spelling. In words where the analogy of other forms played no part (e.g. sesconciam, C.I. L. i. r430) the spelling co is found much earlier. Similarly the first syllable of the stem coquo- shows co earlier than the second syllable ; we have $q u$ - however in the older period (e.g. in all the MSS. of Plaut. Pseud. 382 ; cf. ququei on the inscription of the Faliscan 'collegium coquorum,' Zv. I.I.I. 72). Puns are unsafe evidence of pronunciation ; but the punning reply may be quoted of Cicero to the cook's son who asked for his vote: ego 'quoque' tibi favebo (Quint. vi. 3. 47). The spelling equus, \&c. was instituted by Velius Longus in Trajan's time. (On this transition of orthography -quo-, -cu-, -quu-, see Bersu, die Gutturalen, who quotes a large number of instances of these spellings, as also of the use in the time of the Gracchi of $q$ for $c$ before $u$, e.g. oqupare, pequnia, \&c., and has collected those passages of the grammarians which bear on the subject. A list of the instances of the spelling quom for cum in the MSS. of Plautus is given by Probst, Gebrauch von 'ut' bei Terenz, p. 178 n.) I.-Eur. quě did not, as is often stated, become quŏ, cŏ in Latin (as
it did in Celtic, e. g. Ir. cōic, W. pump, but Lat. quinque) ; and though -wěafter other initial consonants appears as ŏ in Latin sŏcer (swěk-), sŏror (swěs-), \&c., it probably did not after a palatal ; for the evidence points to $\hat{k} w, \hat{\mathrm{~g}} \mathrm{w}$, \&c. having been merged in $q^{u}, g^{u}$ in Latin. Combretum, bulrush, may show the O-grade of the stem k̂wendhr- of Lith. szveñdrai Pl. (cf. O. Scand. hvönn ' angelica ').
§ 138. Lat. qu of other origin. We have already seen that I.-Eur. kw became qu in Latin, e.g. I.-Eur. *êk̂wo-, 'horse' (0. Ind. áš́va-, cf. Lith. asžvà, 'mare '), Lat. ĕquus. The guttural of lăcus (Gk. 入áккos, 'a tank,' O. Ir. loch), lacīnar, is not I.-Eur. $q^{\mathbf{u}}$, but when followed by a consonantal $u$ we find $q u$ in ăquear. The occasional spelling sterquilinium (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.) may be like that usage of Late Latin orthography, whereby qui is written for Greek $\kappa v$, e.g. quinicus, helquisticon, liquiritia (see ch. ii. § 28), the ui being meant to express the $u$-sound of Greek $v$, or possibly the $q u$ being meant to indicate the hard unpalatalized guttural. In Italian, Latin $q u$ before $e, i$ has this hard sound (written ch), e.g. chi, che, retaining the labial affection (the following $w$-sound) before $a$, e.g. quale (see ch. ii. § 91), though in cinque, ' five,' where two Latin labialized velars stood in successive syllables, the first seems to have lost its labialization in Vulgar Latin.
§ 139. Gu. I.-Eur. $g^{u}$ is in Latin $v$, but after a consonant $g u$, and before a consonant $g$. Thus I.-Eur. ${ }^{g^{\frac{u}{i}}{ }^{i} w o-, ' ~ a l i v e ' ~(O . ~ I n d . ~}$ jīvá-, O. Ir. biu, Lith. gývas) is Lat. vīvus ; I.-Eur. root ong ${ }^{\text {º }}$-, ' to anoint' (O. Ind. anj-, O. H. G. ancho, ' butter' ; cf. O. Ir. imb, ' butter,' W. ymen-yn) is Lat. unguo ; Lat. gravis is cognate with O. Ind. gurú-, Gk. $\beta$ apús, Goth. kaurus. Before $u$ I.-Eur. $g^{u}$ was replaced by $g$ in Latin, a change probably of a very early date, e.g. gurges (Gk. vinó- $\beta \rho v \chi a$, vimo- $\beta \rho v_{\chi}{ }^{\prime}$ os), though the $u$ may be often regarded as a weak form of the wě of $g$ we (see § 5 I ). Before $o$, Latin $g u(g v)$ seems to have come in time to sound like Latin $g$, as quo came to sound like $c o$ ( $\S$ 137). After $o$ in terminations had come to be written $u$, even when preceded by $v$, $u$, we find spellings like distingunt, extingunt, for which distinguunt, extinguunt, \&c. were afterwards restored by the analogy of the other persons, distinguimus, \&c. The grammarians of the Empire have difficulty in determining the proper spelling of verbs in -guo and -go, and generally follow the rule of writing -go when the Perfect ended in $-x i$, e. g. extingo, ungo.

[^61]An intervocalic $g w$ of later origin is similarly treated in māvŏlo（＊mavvolo）from ${ }^{*}$ mag（e）－volo．
§ 141．Dialectal b．In Umbro－Osc．I．－Eur．$g^{n}$ is b，e．g．Umbr．benust，Osc． ce－bnust from the root of Lat．věnio．So Lat．bōs，\＆c．seem to be dialectal or rustic（see von Planta，i．p．335）．
§ 142．g for I．－Eur．gur．（r）Before consonant：Lat．agnus（Gk．ủ $\mu \nu o{ }^{\text {u }}$ for
 miglivŭ，＇mobile＇）；Lat．glans（Gk．ßá入avos，Arm．ka入in，Lith．gìlė，O．Sl． zelądi）．
（2）Before $u$ ．（On the spellings distingunt，\＆c．，see Bersu，die Gutturalen）．
（3）Before o．（On the spellings distingo，\＆c．，see Bersu，die Gutturalen）． Similarly $g u$ from I．－Eur．ghin is written $g$ before $o$ in ningo．
§ 143． $\mathrm{GH}^{\mathrm{u}}$ ．I．－Eur． $\mathrm{gh}^{\mathrm{n}}$ is Latin $f$ ，when initial，but between vowels $v$ ，after a consonant $g u$（before $u$ reduced to $g$ ），and before a consonant $g$ ．Thus Lat．formus（O．Ind．gharmá－，＇heat，＇Arm． jerm，Gk．$\theta \epsilon \rho \mu$ ós，Engl．warm for＊gwarm，Pruss．gorme，‘heat＇）； nı̆vem Acc．，O．Lat．nīvit［Gk．ví申a，ví申єь（ $\nu \in \iota-)$ ；cf．Zend snaẹ̌̌aiti， Goth．snaivs，＇snow，＇Lith．snaigýti Inf．，O．Sl．sněgŭ，＇snow，＇ W．nyf］；ninguit（Lith．sniñga）from the root sneigh ${ }^{\text {un－，＇}}$ to snow．＇

I．－Eur． $\mathrm{gh}^{\underline{v}}$ is $f$ in Umbro－Osc．whether initial or intervocalic， \＆c．（see von Planta，i．p．447，for examples）．
§ 144．I．－Eur．gha in Latin ：other examples．Lat．cō－nīreo from the root kneighn－（Goth．hneivan，Germ．neigen）；tergus（Gk．$\sigma \tau \in ́ \rho \phi o s, ~ \tau \epsilon ́ \rho \phi o s) ;$ Lat． füreo，the original meaning of which is＇to warm＇（e．g．Plaut．Capt． 847 ； foueri foculis feruentibus）from the root dheghn－，＇to burn＇（Lith．degù），and from the same root，Lat．füvilla（Gk．$\tau^{\prime} \notin \rho a$ for $\left.{ }^{*} \theta^{\prime} \phi \rho a\right)$ ．
§ 145．The Sibilants：S，Z．In Sanscrit，besides the $\$$ （I．－Eur． k ），which corresponds to a guttural in Greek，Latin， \＆c．（e．g．O．Ind．śatám，Gk．é－кatóv，Lat．centum）we have s （I．－Eur．s）which corresponds to $s$ in other languages（e．g． O．Ind．saptá，Lat．septem，O．Ir．secht，Goth．sibun，Lith．sep－ tynì），and ṣ（like our $s h$ ）which appears after $i$－and $u$－，$r$－and $k$－ sounds，e．g．uṣṭa－，Lat．ǔstus．Sanscrit kṣ̣ is the equivalent of
 $\stackrel{\rightharpoonup}{a} \xi \omega \nu, \& c$ ．，and even of Greek $\chi \theta$ in kśšam－，Gk．$\chi \theta \sigma^{\prime} v$ ：The exact number and nature of the I．－Eur．sibilants have not yet been determined，but we can at least discriminate an unvoiced and a voiced sibilant，which we may call S and Z（cf．Engl．＇use＇

Noun and 'use' Verb), without precluding the possibility of this S and Z representing more than one variety of sibilant.
§ 146. S, Z. Latin $s$ was, as we have seen (ch. ii. § 117 ), unvoiced or hard. The voiced or soft sibilant, for which the symbol Z may have been used in early times (ch. i. § 5) passed in the fourth cent. в. c. into $r$ between vowels (cf. Engl. 'forlorn,' Mid. Engl. forloren, beside ' lost'). Before a consonant the voiced sibilant was dropped with lengthening of the preceding vowel, e. g. I.-Eur. *nĭzdo (O. Ind. nīḍá-, Arm. nist, ‘situation,' O. Ir. net M., 'a nest,' Engl. nest), Lat. nitlus. An initial sibilant was often dropped in I.-Eur.; thus we have a root teg-, 'to cover, roof ' (Lat. tĕgo, Gk. тє́ $\mathbf{\gamma o s ,}$ O. Ir. teg,‘ house,' Engl. thatch), as well as a root steg-(O. Ind. sthag-, Gk. $\sigma \tau \notin \gamma \omega$ ), the roots without initial s- being perhaps those used after words ending in -s (cf. $\tau a \iota \sigma \tau \epsilon \gamma a \iota s$ for $\tau$ ais $\sigma \tau \epsilon$ '́ $\gamma$ als on the Gortyn inscr., $\delta \dot{v} \sigma \tau \eta$ $\nu o s$ for ${ }^{\delta} \delta v \sigma-\sigma \tau \eta \nu o s, \& c$.) ; and it is not always easy to say whether Latin words, which lack an initial sibilant that is found in cognate words of other languages, have lost it through the phonetic laws peculiar to Latin, or represent an I.-Eur. 'doublet.' Lätus, broad, from the I.-Eur. root stel-,'to extend'(O. Sl. steljã), appears in Old Latin in the form stlātus, stlätaria or stlattaria navis (ch. ii. § 130); and we have stlo-cus, stlis (slis) as the old forms of lŏcus, līs, just as in Greek $\sigma \mu$ ккрós, \&c. are the older forms of $\mu \iota \kappa \rho o ́ s, \& c$. An initial sibilant is not found in Latin before $m$, e.g. mordeo from the root smerd- (Gk. $\sigma \mu \epsilon \rho \delta a \lambda \epsilon$ 'os, O. H. G. smerzan, ' to feel pain,' Engl. to smart), before $n$, e. g. nürus from I.-Eur. *snŭso- (O. Ind. snuṣ̂á, Arm. nu, Gk. $\nu v(\sigma) o ́ s, ~ O . ~ H . ~ G . ~$ snur), before l, e. g. lăbo for *slabo (O. H. G. slaf, 'loose,' Lith. slãbnas, 'weak'). Before $r$ in the middle of a word a sibilant becomes b, e. g. sobrinus for *swesrinus (Lith. seserynai, Pl.), from I.-Eur. *swĕsor-, 'a sister,' probably from an earlier $f$ (§ II4); whether it becomes $f$ at the beginning of a word, e.g. frigus (Gk. $\dot{\rho} \hat{\gamma} \gamma o s$ ), or is dropped, e. g. rēpo for ${ }^{*}$ srèpo (cf. serpo), or becomes $s t r$-, e.g. stringo (O. Ir. srengim, ' to draw '), is uncertain. After $r$ and $l$ it is assimilated, e. g. verres for $*_{\text {verses (Lith. ver̃s- }}$ zis ; cf. O. Ind. v'ṛṣa-), collum, O. Lat. collus, for *colso- (O. Engl. heals, Germ. Hals). Initial ps-, ks- appear to have become $s$-,
 kṣ̣ip-, ' to throw ').

Latin $s$ often represents an original dental sound, e. g. adgressus formed from the stem of adgrĕdior with the participial termination -to-. This change was probably very old, so that the form adgrettus (written in the earlier orthography adgretus), quoted from Ennius by Paul. Fest. 5. 6 Th., probably represents *ad-gred(i)tus (like cette for *cë-lüte, § Iо8). A double ss (generally arisen from $t t$, ts; cf. our 'gossip' for god-sip) was after a diphthong or long vowel (see ch. ii. § 129) reduced in the Early Empire to single s, e. g. fūsus, older fūssus, $\bar{u} s u s$, older $\bar{u} s s u s$. In sescēni, from sex, the second $s$ represents an original $x$ (i. e. $c-s$ ) (see $\S 155^{8}$ ) ; and $x$ reduced to $s$ is first assimilated, then dropped with lengthening of the vowel, in words like têlum, older tellum, for *teslum, *texlum (§ 117). On initial $s$ - for sy-, e. g. suo, see § 65 ; for $s w$-, e. g. sīdor, § 71. On $n s$, see ch. ii. § 66, on I.-Eur. ms, above, § 76 .

In Umbro-Oscan I.-Eur. s remains when initial, e. g. Umbr. sent, Osc. set 'sunt,' but when intervocalic became first voiced $s$ (written in Oscan in the native alphabet s , in the Lat. alph. $z$, e. g. Fluusaí ' Florae,' egmazum ' rerum '), which in Umbr. passed into r, e. g. kuratu ' curato ' (Pel. coisatens ' curaverunt'). I.-Eur. ss became tt if the Perfect ending -atted 3 Sg., -attens 3 Pl. (e.g. Osc. prúfatted 'probavit,' prúfattens 'probaverunt') is rightly compared with the Lat. Future in -sso, e.g. amasso (ch. viii. § 3) ; sr probably became $\operatorname{fr}$ (Lat. $b r$ ) (cf. mod. Neapolitan Uttrafe for Ital. Ottobre‘ 'October'); sn, sm, sl remain, e.g. Umbr. snata P. P. P. (Lat. nare), Osc. Slabiis 'Labius' (cf. Lat. Stlaborius) ; rs appears in Osc. sometimes as r with ' compensatory' lengthening, e.g. teerúm 'terram,' sometimes as rr, e.g. Kerrí, in Umbrian sometimes as rs (s), e. g. tursitu, tusetu (cf. Lat. terreo), sometimes as rf, e.g. Çerfu-; ns in the middle of a word became nts, e. g. Umbr. menzne 'mense'; when final it is in Osc. -ss, in Umbr. -f, e. g. Osc. víass 'vias,' Umbr. turuf 'tauros' ; final -nts is in Umbr. (and Osc. ?) -f, e. g. Umbr. zeřef ' sedens.' (On the treatment of I.-Eur. s in Umbro-Oscan, see von Planta, i. p. 472.)
§ 147. I.-Eur. s, Latin s: other examples. I.-Eur. *sĕno-, 'old’ (O. Ind. sána-, Arm. hin, Gk. ধ̈v $\kappa$ кaì ע'́a, 'the old and new day,' i. e. the last day of the month, O. Ir. sen, W. hen, Goth. sinista Superl., Lith. sẽnas), Lat. sěn-ior, sěn-ex, Gen. senis; I.-Eur. root wes-, 'to clothe' (O. Ind. vas-, vástra-, N., 'clothing,' Arm. z-gest, Gk. $\begin{gathered} \\ \sigma\end{gathered}$ - $\theta$ 's, Goth. vasjan, vasti F.), Lat. ves-tis; I.-Eur. *ak̂s(i)-, 'axle' (O. Ind. àkṣ̆a-, Gk. ág ${ }^{\prime} \omega \nu$, O. H. G. ahsa, Lith. aszìs, O. Sl. osĭ), Lat. axis ; I.-Eur. *pŏtis Nom. Sg. (O. Ind. pátis, ' master,' Gk. $\pi \delta \sigma \not \subset s$ ), Lat. pŏtis.
§ 148. Lat. r for intervocalic sibilant. Intervocalic s became h in Greek,
 (I.-Eur. *ĝěněs-ǒs), but in Latin it appears as r, e. g. üro, gěněris, having probably passed through the stage of voiced s (z), a stage at which the sibilant remained in Oscan, e. g. ezum 'esse.' while it suffered rhotacism in Umbrian, as in Latin, e. g. erom. The grammarians often quote Old Latin forms with intervocalic s, e.g. lases, Valesii, Fusii (Quint. i. 4. 13; cf. 'Ter. Scaur. 13. 13 K. Fusius, asa, lases); dasi, arbosem, robosem, helusa 'holera,' loebesum 'liberum' (Paul. Fest. 48. 19; 11. 20 ; 71. 12; 86. зо Th.) ; r pros littera saepe antiqui posuerunt, ut maiosibus, meliosibus, lasibus, fesiis (id. 359. I Th.) ; pignosa (id. 260. ir Th.) (for other passages see Müller ad Paul. Fest. p. 15), and often refer similar forms to the Sabine dialect (e. g. Paul Fest. 6. 36 Th. aurum . . . alii a Sabinis translatum putant, quod illi 'ausum' dicebant; id. 18.3 Th. Aureliam familiam ex Sabinis oriundam a Sole dictam putant, quod ei publice a populo Romano datus sit locus, in quo sacra faceret Soli, qui ex hoc 'Auseli' dicebantur, ut 'Valesii,' 'Papisii' pro eo quod est Valerii, Papirii ; Varro, ap. Vel. Long. 69. 8 K. (cf. L. L. vii. 27) gave fasena as Sabine for Lat. harena. Varro (L. L. vii. 26) quotes examples of this older spelling from the Carmen Saliare; Livy speaking of Sp. Furius Fusus, the consul of 464 b. c.. says that some of his authorities spelt the name Fusio- (iii. 4. r Furios 'Fusios' scripsere quidam) ; on the inscription with the Carmen Arvale (C.I. L. i. 28 we have Lases 'Lares': enos, Lases, iuuate; in the most ancient piece of Latin preserved for us, the Praenestine fibula, Numasioi 'Numerio' (xiv. 4123 Manios med fefaked Numasioi), and in the Dvenos inser. Toitesiai 'Tuteriae.' But words of the literary period with intervocalic $s$ are either (1) dialectal, e.g. ămäsius, a gallant (Sabine?, see Nettleship, Contributions, s. v.), or (2) foreign loanwords, e.g. gaesum (Gaulish; cf. gaesati, Gaulish mercenaries, c. G. L. v. 71. 23, O. Ir. gai) (so ăš̌nus, lāser, rŏsa, sĭser, \&c.), or (3) had originally ss, whether derived from I.-Eur. tt, e.g. caesus for $*_{\text {caet-tus }}$ from caedo, from ns (I.-Eur. ntt, \&c.), e.g. vicēsimus older vicensumus (ch. ii. § 66), formōsus, older formonsus (ib.), from I.-Eur. ss, e. g. quaeso, older quaes-so, a different word from quaero (ch. viii. § 33), $n \overline{a s u s}$, older nassum, or from some other consonant-group. This older $s s$ was after a long vowel or diphthong written $s$ after the close of the Republic, but Quintilian tells us that caussae, cassus, divissiones, \&c. was the spelling of Cicero and Virgil (i. 7. 20 quid quod Ciceronis temporibus paulumque infra, fere quotiens s littera media vocalium longarum vel subjecta longis esset, geminabatur? ut 'caussae, cassus, divissiones': quomodo et ipsum et Vergilium quoque scripsisse manus eorum docent), and this spelling is by no means uncommon in the MSS. of Plautus, Virgil, \&e. (see ch. ii. § 129). After a short vowel ss remained, e.g. füssus. Quăsillus, pŭsillus (cf. pūsus) are said to show the same reduction in the pretonic syllable as offella (beside offa), mămilla (beside mamma) (ch. ii. § 130 ); rather the Dim. quasillus was formed from *quas-los
after Rhotacism had ceased to operate; miser (on the spelling myser see ch. ii. § r6, p. 29) has been explained as a loanword from the Greek ( $\mu v \sigma \alpha \rho o s^{\prime}$ ), like other adjectives expressive of nuances of feeling, e.g. hillăris older hilarus (Gk. inapós). An initial $s$ is not rhotacized when it comes after the final vowel of a preposition, \&c., in a compound, e.g. pǒ-situs from po-, a byform of $a b$ (I.-Eur. *ăpŏ) and the P. P. P. of sino, but the final $s$ of a preposition, \&c., in a compound is rhotacized before an initial vowel, e. g. dir-imo from dıॅs- and ĕmo, diribeo from dis- and hăbeo. Furvus points to an earlier trisyllabic fus-uo- (cf. arvum from trisyllabic aruum, § 68), a byformation of fus-cus, and Minerva to ${ }^{*}$ Menes-u $\bar{a}$ (the word is a quadrisyllable in Plaut. Bacch. 893, Attius, Trag. 127 R.), but before consonantal $v$ we have $s$ dropped with 'Compensation' in di -vello, dī-vendo, \&c. Other examples of forms with $r$ beside forms with $s$ are maereo (maestus), gĕro (ges-si, ges-tum), haurio (haus-(s)i, haus-tum), quaero (quaes-tus; but quaes(s)iri, quaes(s) $\overline{\text { Itum }}$ come from quaes(s)o, ch.viii. §33), Etrüria (Etrusci), auris (aus-culto), nāres (nās-(s)um), and oblique cases of S-stems, e. g. füneris (funes-tus), öneris (onus-tus), verberis (subverbustam Plaut. ap. Fest. 444. 15 Th .), hŏnōris (honestus) ; by analogy of these oblique cases $r$ has found its way into the Nominative of honor (older honos), arbor (older arbos; cf. arbustum and arbŏrētum), ŏdor (older odos), \&c. (ch. vi. § 7). (For a fuller list of examples of the Latin and Umbro-Oscan treatment of I.-Eur. intervocalic s, see Conway, Verner's Law in Italy). The change of intervocalic $s$ to $r$ is a common occurrence in language. English $r$ corresponds to Gothic $z$ in words like 'ore' (Goth. aiz-, I.-Eur. *ayes-, Lat. aes, aeris Gen.), and in Polish a word like może, 'can,' has a trilled sound of the voiced sibilant that is hardly to be distinguished from $r$ (see $B . B$. xv. pp. 270 sqq.).
§ 149. Initial Sibilant before Consonant: (I) before unvoiced consonant : I.-Eur. root stā-, 'to stand' (O. Ind. sthā-, Gk. $\sigma \tau \alpha \dot{\sigma} \iota s$, Goth. staps, O. Sl. stati Inf. ), Lat. stāre, stătio ; I.-Eur. root sper-, 'to strike with the feet' (O. Ind. sphur-, Gk $\sigma \pi a i \rho \omega$, Engl. spurn, Lith. spiriù), Lat. sperno; I.-Eur. root skand-, 'to spring' (O. Ind. skand-, Gk. $\sigma \kappa \alpha \nu \delta \alpha ́ \lambda \eta \theta \rho o \nu$, a springe, O. Ir. ro se-scaind, ' he sprang'), Lat. scando. Similarly we have str-, e. g. in Lat. strātus, strāmen (cf. Gk. $\sigma \tau \rho \omega \tau u ́ s$, $\sigma \tau \rho \omega \mu \dot{\alpha}$ ), spr-in sprētus, scr- in scrơbis, a ditch (Lett. skrabt, 'to scrape'), while stl- of O. Lat. stlātus, stlātaria (stlatt.) navis has become class. Lat. l- of lātus, broad.
(2) Before voiced consonant: I.-Eur. root sneighn ${ }^{\text {n -, ' to snow' (Zend snaẹžaiti, }}$ Gk. $\nu \epsilon i \phi \epsilon \iota, a \dot{\gamma} \alpha \dot{\alpha}-\nu \nu \iota \phi o s$ for $* a ̉ \gamma \alpha-\sigma \nu \iota \phi o s, ~ O . ~ I r . ~ s n e c h t a, ~ W . ~ n y f, ~ G o t h . ~ s n a i v s, ~ L i t h . ~$ snëgas, O. Sl. sněgŭ) Lat. nivem Acc.; I.-Eur. root snä- (O. Ind. snā-, ' to bathe,' Gk. $\nu \eta \eta^{\prime} \chi \omega$, I swim, O. Ir. snāim), Lat. nāre; I.-Eur. root slēg- (Gk. $\lambda a \gamma \gamma a ́ \zeta \omega$, to slacken, $\lambda \eta \dot{\eta} \gamma \omega$, to cease, O. Ir. lac, 'weak,' W. llag, O. H. G. slach, Engl. slack), Lat. langueo; I.-Eur. root sleub- (Goth. sliupan, Engl. to slip), Lat. lübricus; I.-Eur. root smerd- (Lith. smirdëti, 'to stink'), Lat. merda; Gk. ( $\sigma$ ) $\mu \bar{i} \kappa \rho \frac{\rho}{s}$, Lat. mīca. If we may infer from the treatment of an internal sibilant before a voiced consonant, e. g. n̄̄дus for *nizdo-, it would seem that the initial sibilant was first assimilated, ${ }^{*} n n i x$ for $*_{s n i x}$ (cf. Gk. $\phi \iota \lambda o-\mu \mu \epsilon \ell \delta \boldsymbol{\eta}_{\boldsymbol{\prime}}$ for ${ }^{*} \phi(\lambda o-\sigma \mu \epsilon i \delta \eta s)$ then dropped, nix.
(3) Before $r$. The use of $t$ for I.-Eur. d with $r$ in Latin, e. g. āter, stem ätrofor * $\vec{a} d r o-$, suggests that Latin $r$ was not voiced, so that it is better to consider separately the treatment of an initial sibilant before $r$. The instances are unfortunately few and uncertain. Lat. frïgus goes naturally with Gk. fíyos, but it has also been connected with Gk. фpí $\sigma \omega$, while Lat. rigor, rigidus has been assigned to $\boldsymbol{f} \hat{\gamma} \gamma o s ;$ Lat. frāga, strawberries, has been referred by some to

Gk. $\dot{\rho} \dot{a} \bar{\xi} \xi$, a grape, by others to fragro, and certainly Lat. răcēmus goes more naturally with $\hat{\rho} \dot{a} \xi$ than fräga. Whether Greek $\dot{\rho} \hat{\gamma} \gamma o s, \rho \hat{\alpha} \hat{\xi}$ originally began with $\sigma$ or $F$ is a moot point. Lat. repo goes naturally with serpo, but Lith. réplióti, Zend rap-, 'to go,' suggest an I.-Eur. 'doublet' without the initial sibilant. The I.-Eur. root sreu-, 'to flow' (O. Ind. sru-, Gk $\dot{\rho}(f) \omega$, Lith. sraviù, Ir. sruaim, 'a stream,' O. H. G. stroum), has been sought in the Latin words rümen, (ficus) Rümina, Rumon, the old name of the Tiber (Serv. ad Aen. viii. 63.90 ) and in the name Rōma itself; Lat. rătis has been connected with sěro, Lat. rübus with Germ. Ge-strüpp, and so on (for other examples see Osthoff, M. U. v. 62). On the other hand Latin forms with initial $r$ which have in other languages a sibilant before the r , may come from an I.-Eur. 'doublet' which lacked the sibilant, as tĕgo comes from I.-Eur. teg-, a byform of the root steg-, 'to cover,' roof. Another possibility is that str-may be the Latin equivalent, as in our 'stream,' \&c. It is not always easy to decide where Lat. str- and str-, sr-, in other languages, represent an original str- or an original sr- ; and similarly 0 . Lat. stl-, of stlöcus, stlīs and slis may have been originally $s l-$ and not $s t l$-.
§ 150. O. Lat. stl, sl, scl. Quintilian (i. 4. .6) quotes stlocus and stlites as 0 . Lat. forms. The old form stlis was retained in the legal phrase decemviri stlitibus judicandis in Cicero's time (Cic. Or. xlvi. 156); on the Lex Repetundarum of 123-122 b.c. (C. I. L. i. 198) we have once slis but usually lis, and sl. ivdik on a Scipio epitaph of c. 1 зо в. c. (i. 38), sclitib ... (x. 1249); cf. stloc[us] (v. 738r). Stlembus, slow, is quoted from Lucilius (Paul. Fest. 455.4 Th.); scloppus (v. l. stloppus), is used by Persius (v. r3) to indicate the sound of slapping the cheek when distended (cf. Ital. schioppo) :
nec scloppo tumidas intendis rumpere buccas.
In dialectal names these combinations are preserved, e. g. Stlaccius (C.I. L. vi. ${ }^{26863}$, \&c.) (cf. Lat. lacca, a swelling on the leg ?), Stlaborius (Wilm. 1913, Pompeii) (cf. Lat. lăbor?), Oscan Slabio-. In Latin the $t$ of $s t l$ - (or $c$, for $t l$ became $c l$, § Io5) would be dropped, as it is in the name Foslius (cf. Fostulus, Faustulus), C. I. L. $\mathrm{i}^{2}$. p. 130) (cf. for(c)tis, § 157 ), leaving $s l$-, which would become *ll(see above), then $l$-.
§ 151. Sibilant before voiced consonant in middle of word. Lat. audio for *aus-dio, from *aus, a byform of auris; Lat. pēdo from I.-Eur. pezd- (M. H. G. fist, Pruss. peisda, ' podex') with o-grade of root in pōdex for *posl-ex ; Lat. sīdo for ${ }^{s} i$-sdo from the weak grade of the root sed-, ' to sit,' with $i$-reduplication (ch. viii. § 9) ; Lat. sūdus for *sus-dus from the root saus-, ' to dry ' (O. Ind. śuṣ̆-, Gk. aĩos, Lith. saũsas, Engl. sear) ; Lat. mälus for *mas-lus or for *mas-dus (§ III) (Engl. mast) ; Lat. dümus (O. Lat. dusmus), dümetum, dummetum in the earlier spelling, e. g. in Virgil MSS. (see Ribbeck's Index) for *dusmetum (cf. O. Ir. doss, 'a bush') (the dialectal name Dusmia is found on inscriptions, Eph. Epigr. viii. 128.820, both from Teate Marruc). Lat. cömis (cosmis on the Dvenos inscr.) ; Lat. primus for *prismus (cf. priscus, pristinus, Pelign. prismo-); Lat. pōmērium for ${ }^{*} p o s(t)$ moerium (Varro, L. L. v. 143 ; cf. Paul. Fest. 327. 13 Th.) ; Lat. prelum for *pres-lum (cf. pres-si: a Latin *preso must have existed beside premo, as Gk. $\tau \rho \epsilon(\sigma) \omega$ beside $\tau \rho \dot{\epsilon} \mu \omega)$; Lat. quālus for *quas-lus (cf. quйsillus; Lith. kãszius, O. Sl. kos̆ĭ) ; Lat. cānus for *casnus (cf. cascus, Osc. casnar, an old man) ; Lat. fänum for *füsnum (cf. Osc. fíisna-, Umbr. fesna-, from stem *fēsnā- ; on $\breve{a}-\bar{e}$, see § 54) ; Lat. fês-tus, fêriue from fês-iue, Osc. físia-); Lat.
pōne for ${ }^{*} p_{0 s}(t)-n e$; Lat. pōno for ${ }^{*} p_{o-s(i) n o, ~ a ~ c o m p o u n d ~ o f ~}^{p o ̆-, ~ a ~ b y f o r m ~ o f ~} a b$, ap- of aperio (cf. O. Ind. ápa, Gk. ä $\pi o$ ), and sǐno [cf. the P. P. P po-sǐtus, and Pft. Ind. originally po-sivi, then by false analogy of pos-itus, posui (ch. viii. § 39)] ; aēnus, ahēnus for *ayes-no-, Umbr. ahesno-), and so with many stems in -ēno-, $-\overline{i n} n-$, èlo-, \&c. In some of these examples the sibilant is a development from an earlier group of sounds, e.g. from st in pōmērium, pōne, from $s(\imath)$ in $\overline{\bar{o}} \overline{0} n o$; similarly from ( r ) cs, $x$ in līna, written Losna on an old Praenestine mirror (C.I. L. i. 55), for *lux-na (Zend raoxšna-, 'shining,' Pruss. lauxnos, 'stars'); sēni, sēmenstris (cf. ses-ceni) for ${ }^{*}$ sexni, ${ }^{*}$ sex-menstris; tēla from texo, \&c. (other examples in § $162^{\prime}$; (2) $n s$ in ( $h$ ) àlo for *anslo (O. Sl. ąchati, 'to be fragrant'); pilum from pinso. The older spelling showed a double consonant in these cases. Thus rēlatura, the carrying trade, for *rex-latura, from reho, was probably spelt vellatura by Varro in a passage ( $R . R$. i. 2. 14) where he connects the word with vella, the rustic form of villa; a sibilant which came at a later time to stand before a voiced consonant was similarly treated, e. g. dīvello for dis-vello, dīmota for dismota (S. C. Bacch. C. I.L. i. 196), dīmitte ('dismitte' non dicas, Caper, 97.7 K .), dī-numero, dī-luo. In the same way the form $\bar{e}$ arose from ex in collocations like $\bar{e}$-vello, $\bar{e}-$ moveo, $\bar{e}$-mitto, $\bar{e}$-mumero. $\bar{e}-l u o$ (see ch. ix. § 29) ; vidēn for ridēs-ne was shortened to vidĕn (ch. iii.§ 42). Cămillus (Camelio on old Praenestine epitaphs, C.I.L. i. 74; I50I a) was derived by the Romans from a Greek
 vii. 34 ; Macr. iii. 8. 5 ; Paul. Fest. 44. 33 Th. ; cf. Virg. Aen. xi. 542). Varro refers Camena to an earlier Casmena, which he connects with carmen (L. L. vii. 26). How Casmillus and Casmena (if the word ever existed in this form) failed to become *Cāmillus, *Cämena is not clear. The group rsd became rd (through *rrd, for $r$ s becomes rr), e. g. hordeum (cf. O. H. G. gerstā, Germ. Gerste) ; turdus (Lith. strãzdas, O. Ir. truit, Engl. throstle). The I.-Eur.prototype of custos (Goth. huzd, Engl. hoard), hasta (Goth. gazds, 'a sting,' Germ. Gerte, Engl. yard, O. Ir. gat) may have had sth-, not -zdh-.

Quăsillus from *quas-los (class. quälus) shows that sl remained later than the change of intervocalic $s$ to $r$ (§ 148). Dusmus Adj. occurs in Liv. Andronicus (end of third cent. b.c.) (Trag. 39 R.) dusmo in loco. Plautus' viden for videsne, ain for aisne, \&c. show that the law was operative in his time.
§ 152. Sibilant before $\mathbf{r}$ in middle of word. Lat. cĕrĕbrum for *cerĕsrum (O. Ind. širas-, 'the head') ; Lat. crābro for *crāsro (Lith. szirszũ̃, O. Sl. srŭšenĭ) ; fĭbra for fĭsra (cf. fīlum for *fislum, Lith. gýsla, ' a sinew'); Lat. tënĕbrae for *tenĕsrcue (O. Ind. támisrā, from támas-, 'darkness,' Germ. Dämmerung); fünĕbris for *funĕs-ris.
§ 153. Assimilation of sibilant to preceding $\mathbf{r}, 1$. Lat. farreus for ${ }^{*}$ farseus (Umbr. farsio-, cf. O. Sl. brašino, 'food'; Goth. barizeins, ' made of barley'); Lat. torreo for *torseo (O. Ind. trṣ̆-, Gk. т'́ $\rho \sigma o \mu a \iota$ ); Lat. ferre for *fer-se; Lat. velle for *eelse; Lat. erro for *erso (Goth. airzjan, 'to mislead,' Germ. irren); Lat. garrio for *garsio (Lith. gar̃sas, 'noise') ; Lat. porrum from I.-Eur. *prso- (Gk. $\pi \rho a ́ \sigma o \nu)$; Lat. terruncius for *ters-, older *tris- (Gk. тpís). This rr from rs was when final reduced to $r$, e. g. ter (scanned as long by position in Plautus) (ch. ii. § 133), far, Gen. farris. Before $t$ the $s$ kept its place, and the $r$ was dropped, e. g. testämentum for *tersta- from older *trista- (Osc. trístaamento-) ; tostus for *torstus.

An $s(s s)$, arisen out of an earlier $t s$, \&c. was not assimilated, e. g. versus for *verttus, rursus and reversus for *reverttus, ars beside far. Latin rs was
pronounced like ss, as we see from the pun in Plautus, Pers. 740 Persa me pessum dedit, and often came to be written $s s$, and after a long vowel, $s$; hence russus and rusus, introsum, prosa, \&c. (see ch. ii. § 129).
$\S$ 154. Assimilation of preceding dental to the sibilant. Lat. suāsi for *suāssi from suādeo; concŭssi from conciuttio, \&c.; pŏssum for ${ }^{*}$ pŏt $($ e) sum. Similarly in the final syllable, hospes for *hospets, miles for ${ }^{\text {milets } ; \text { this }-e s ~ i s ~}$ short in classical poetry, but probably long by position in Plautus (ch.ii. § I33).
§ 155. Lat. ss for tt . Before $r$ we find st for $t$, e. g. pèdestris for ${ }^{*}$ pedet-tris from pedes, Gen. peditis, assestrix Fem. of assessor, and perhaps at the end of a word, e. g. est, 3 Sg. Pres. of ëdo. But in other cases $t t$ became ss, e. g. ūsus, older ussus, from utor (older oitor, oetor) for *ut-tus, ūsio for ${ }^{*} u t$-tio, *oit-tio (Osc. oíttiuf ' usio,' beside Pel. oisa 'usa ' is best explained as *oit(i)tions) ; so făssus from făteor, sěssus from sědeo, morsus from mordeo, perculsus from per-cello, *per-celdo, \&c., all formed by adding the participial TO-suffix (see ch. v. § 27 ) to the root of the verb. In the second cent. в. c. some verbs whose root ended in a guttural followed the analogy of these verbs, owing to the similarity of their Perfect Indicative Active, e.g. spargo, sparsi made sparsus, as ardeo, arsi.made arsus; tergo, tersi made tersus, as mordeo, morsi made morsus. But in the period of the older literature these false forms in -sus had not established themselves; Paul. Fest. quotes mertat for mersat (57. 16 Th.; cf. 89. 26) ; Quintilian (i. 4. 14) says: 'mertare' atque 'pultare' dicebant; and Nonius ( 179.4 M.) quotes from Varro tertus for tersus, and from Accius mertare for mersare. Exfuti, explained by Paul. Fest.57.16 Th. as exfusi (cf. con-füto, futtilis, fütilis) has been referred to ${ }_{f} \bar{u} t u s$, P. P. P. of a verb *fuo, to shake ( $O$. Ind. dhū-); if it comes from fundo it must represent an older *fud(i)tus, a byform of *fud-tus as al(i)tus of al-tus ; so mattus, drunk (the Romance forms attest tt) for $* \operatorname{mad}(i) t u s$, like adgrettus (§ rog). Estis, este, \&c. from edo, to eat, must be due to the analogy of ămā-tis, ama-te, \&c.; so com-estus beside comessus. Fěrunto, \&c. for *feront-tōd (ch. viii. § 57), rehementer, if for *rehement-ter (ch. ix. § 2) retain $t$ in the same way.
§ 156. Other groups with a sibilant. When a sibilant came between two labials or gutturals, the first was dropped, e.g. asporto for *abs-porto, disco for *dǐc-sco (cf. di-dic-i), sescēni for $*$ sex-ceni, *secs-ceni. Similarly pst becomes st in ostendo (but O. Lat. obstinet) beside obstrūdo, obstīno.
As $r$ s became $r r$, and $l s$ became $l$, so $r s$, $l s$ before a consonant become $r, l$, e.g. hordeum for *horsdeum, ainus for *alsnus (Lith. eilksnis), perna, the ham, from I.-Eur. *pērsnā-, 'the heel' (Gk. $\pi \tau \epsilon \epsilon \rho \nu a, ~ G o t h . ~ f a i r z n a, ~ O . ~ E n g l . ~ f y r s n, ~$ Germ. Ferse ; cf. O. Ind. pźrẹ̆ni-), but an unvoiced consonant preserves the $s$ at the expense of the $r, l$, e. g. tostus for ${ }^{*}$ torstus, posco for ${ }^{*}$ porsco ( $\mathrm{O} . \mathrm{H} . \mathrm{G}$. forscōn, Germ. forschen), properly for *pṛ̂skôo from the root prekे- of precor, \&c. (On these groups see the next paragraph.)
§ 157. Loss of Consonant in Group. It is convenient here to bring together the various examples of the loss of consonants, when they occur between two other consonants, or in some unpronounceable combination (cf. Engl. ' hal(f)penny,' 'Satur(n)day, ' be( t )st,' ' cas( t$) \mathrm{le}$,' ' go(d)spel '). It is not always possible to decide whether the consonant was already ejected in what we
call the ' Indo-European period,' e. g. mĭsk̂-,' to mix' (Lat. misceo, O. Ir. mescaim, W. mysgu Inf., O. H. G. miscu), for $*_{m i ̂ k}^{k}-\mathrm{sk}$-, from the root meik-, ' to mix' (O. Ind. miśs-rá-, ' mixed,' Lith. sumiszti, ' to get mixed '), with the addition of the Inceptive suffix (ch. viii. §21), or whether its ejection is due to the phonetic laws of Latin, e.g. lūna (on an early Praenestine mirror Losua) for *lu(c)sna (Zend raoxšna-, ' shining,' Pruss. lauxnos, ' stars').

A consonant between two others is dropped in such groups as :
(1) $\mathbf{l}(\mathbf{c}) \mathbf{t}, \mathbf{l}(\mathbf{c}) \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{c}) \mathbf{t}, \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{c}) \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{r}(\mathrm{t}) \mathbf{c}, \mathbf{s}(\mathbf{c}) \mathrm{t}, \mathbf{s}(\mathrm{t}) \mathbf{l}, \mathbf{s}(\mathbf{c}) \mathbf{l}, \mathbf{c}(\mathrm{t}) \mathbf{s}, \mathbf{r}(\mathrm{t}) \mathbf{s}$ or $\mathbf{r}(\mathrm{d}) \mathbf{s}$, e. g. ultus for *ulctus, mulsi for *mulcsi, fortis, O. Lat. forctis (§ 118), tortus for *torctus, torsi for *torcsi, corculum for *cort-culum $^{\text {from }} \operatorname{cor}(d)$, pastum for *pasctum, O. Lat. slis, class. lis for stlis (sclis) (§ 150), nox for *nocts, ars for *arts, arsi for *arlsi .
(2) $\mathbf{r}(\mathbf{g}) \mathbf{n}, \mathbf{r}(\mathbf{g}) \mathbf{m}, \mathbf{r}(\mathrm{d}) \mathbf{n}, \mathbf{r}(\mathrm{d}) \mathbf{m}, \mathbf{r}(\mathrm{b}) \mathbf{m}$, e. g. urna for $\boldsymbol{*}_{u r g n a}(\mathbf{c f}$. urceus), tormentum for *torgmentum, from torqueo, orno for *ordno (cf. ordı̆no), vermina, gripes (Gk. $\sigma \tau \rho 0 ́ \phi o s$, Paul. Fest. 57 I. 12 Th.) for * verdmina from verto, sarmentum for $*_{\text {sarbmentum }}$ from sarpo.

The first consonant is dropped in groups like:
(3) (t)sc, (c)sc, (p)sp, (p)st, (p)sc, ( $\mathbf{s})_{\mathbf{p s}}$, ( $\mathbf{n}$ ) gn, ( $\left.\mathbf{r}\right) \mathbf{s t}$, ( $\mathbf{r}$ )sc,
 asporto for *apsporto from abs (ch. ix. § 12) and porto, ostendo for *opstendo from ols and tenilo (but obstünätus, O. Lat. obstinet, \&c.), Oscus, older Opscus (Obscus) (see Fest. 212. 24 and 234. 29 Th.), ipse for $*_{i s p s e, ~ i g n i s ~ f o r ~}^{*} *_{\text {engnis (I.-Eur. }}{ }_{\mathrm{n} \text { nni-, }}$ O. Ind. agní-, Lith. ugnìs, O. Sl. ognĭ. See M. S. L. viii. 236), fastīgium for *farstigium (cf. O. Ind. bhṛ̣̣țí-, ' a point,' Engl. bristle), Tuscus (Umbr. Tursco- and Tusco-).
(4) (c)sn or (g)sn, (c)sl or (g)sl, (c)sm or (g)sm, e.g. lüna for *lusna (Praen. Losna) for *lucsna, tēlum for *teslum for *tecslum, äla for $*_{\text {asla }}$ for $*_{a g s l a, ~ s u b t e ̄ m e n ~ f o r ~}^{*}$ subtesmen for ${ }^{*}$ subtecsmen.

The group nct is preserved in junctus, defunctus, anteclass. quinctus, but drops the $c$ in class. quintus, late Lat. defuntus (C. I. L. iii. 2137), santus (v. 8136), nantus (iii. 1635.4), \&c. (see ch. ii. §§ 70, 95), and cf. conctione miswritten for contione on the Lex Repetundarum, i. 198. 18). The group ncs remains, e. g. planxi, lanx.

[^62]verb *fergo, to bake (cf. O. Ir. bairgen 'bread') ; also fartus from farcio, O. Lat. tertus (§ 155) from tergo, sartus from sarcio. Cf. fulmentum for fulcmentum, quernus, for *quercnus. The $b$ of *ambe, around, is dropped in am-termini, am-caesa, am-sěgĕtes, \&c. (seech.ix. § 16), and the loss of the $d$ in indu-in similar circumstances probably led to its being ousted by in, e.g. imperator, ingredi (O. Lat. induperator, indugredi, ch. iii. § 15). The sibilant is dropped in hordeum for horsdeum (O. H. G. gersta), turdus for *tursdus (Engl. throstle ; cf. Lith. strãzdas), perna (Goth. fairzna, 'the heel' ; O. Ind. párṣ̆ni-), alnus (cf. Lith. el̀ksnis for *elsnis) (see § 156 ) ; also in inquam, coinquo if these stand for *ind-squam, co-ind-squo, but remains in exta if this stands for encsta (Lith. ìnkstas, 'kidney'). Like asporto, \&c. are suscǐpio for ${ }^{\text {supps-cipio, astülit (Charis. 237. } 2 \mathrm{~K} \text {.) for apstulit (abstulit). }}$ Posco represents ${ }^{*}$ por-sco (O. H. G. forscōn, Germ. forschen), I.-Eur. pr(k)-skolike $* \operatorname{mĭ}(\hat{\mathbf{k}})$-sko-. The group nst remains in monstrum, \&c. but becomes st between vowels, e. g. mostellum. Like fastīium is testämentum for *erstamentum (Osc. tristaamentud Abl.).

The weakening of a root often produces an unpleasing consonant-group which has to be changed and often becomes unrecognizable. Thus the I.-Eur. weak-grade of dek- (of the numeral 'ten,' I.-Eur. *dëk̂m) appears in the word for hundred as dik-, which is changed to $\hat{\mathbf{k}}$ - (I.-Eur. * $\mathrm{k} n \underline{1}$ tom for *dikntom, ch. vi. § 76 ; Lat. centum beside dĕcem) ; the weak-grade of the root gen-, 'to be born,' appears in Lat. gnätus, which in class. Lat. lost its initial g (§ I r9). Similarly *tlätus from the root tel- of tollo, \&c., became lātus, 'carried '(§ 105), and stlatūus, from the root stel- of O. Sl. stelja, 'I extend,' was reduced to the same form lätus, 'extended, broad' (§ 146). Other initial consonant-groups avoided in Latin are $d r-, c n-, d l-, s m-, w l-, v r-$, \& $\mathbf{c}$. (see this chapter passim).
§ 159. Assimilation of Consonants. The loss of a consonant in a group is often really due to assimilation. Thus the loss of $s$ in hordeum for horsdeum can hardly be separated from the assimilation of $s$ to $r$ in the group rs, e. g. horreo for *horseo. In the case of Assimilation, as of Ecthlipsis, it is often difficult to say whether the Assimilation already existed in 'the I.-Eur. period' or not. Assimilation plays a great part in the compounding of Prepositions with verbs, e.g. accurrere for ad-currere, O. Lat. ommentans for ob-mentans, pellĕge (Plaut.) for perlege, al-lйgare for ad-ligare (the assimilated form had so established itself by the time of Pliny that he treats it as a simple verb and re-compounds it with ad, ad-alligare), but the unmodified forms of the preposition were often restored in spelling at least (thus Servius ad Aen. i. 6 I6 says that applicat was the spelling formerly in vogue, adplicat the spelling of his own day), a restoration which went hand in hand with the restoration of the unweakened form of the vowel in verbs like $\bar{e}$-neco (older enico), intel-lego, \&c. (see ch. iii. §31). Examples of Assimilation are:
 suf-fŭcio ; bg, e.g. og-gĕro, sug-gero; bm, e.g. ommentans (quoted from Liv. Andron. from Festus 218.14 Th., and explained by obmănens, 'waiting'; cf. C.G.L.v. 37. 3 ommentat: expectat), summitto, $\bar{a} m i t t o$ (for ammitto, ch. ii. § 127) (but ŏmitto), glūma for *glūb-ma from glībo. $\quad B$ is assimilated to $r$ in Prepositional Compounds like surripio, and before $n$ becomes $m$ in scamnum (cf. scabellum), amnegaverit ( $\dot{C} . I . L$. vi. 14672), \&c. (§ IO2), though in Prepositional Compounds the spelling with $b$ is usually retained, e.g. $a b-n е ̈ g o ; \mathbf{c f}$ (rather $\mathbf{c}(\mathbf{s}) \mathbf{f}, \S 157$ ), e.g. effĕro from ex-fero; tc, e.g. ac-curro, lıoc for $*$ hod-ce ; tf, e. g. affero ; dg, e. g. ag-gero; dl, e.g. al-luo, pel-luviae, water for washing the feet, lăpillus for *lapid-lus; dm, e.g. vamentum from rādo; dn, e.g. an-nuo, mercēnnarius from mercēd-; tp, e.g. ap-pāreo; tq, e.g. quicquam; dr (tr), e.g. ar-rīdeo ; ds (ts), e.g. as-š̆deo ; ln, e.g. collis (Lith. káłnas), but ulna had originally a short vowel between $l$ and $n$ (Gk. $\omega \lambda$ '́ $\nu \eta$ ) ; ld, e.g. per-cello (cf. clādes), but valdè from vălŭde, calda from călŭda; ls, e.g. collum, O. Lat. collus (Goth. hals
 Compounds of the Prepositions com-, in, and the Negative Prefix $i n-$, e. g. col-laudo, il-lābor, illaudabilis, cor-ruo, ir-ruo, ir-rĭtus, con-necto or cōnecto, im-mitto, im-mëmor, and similarly the final -m of étiam, tam, \&c. was often written $n$ (ch.ii. § 65) before an initial $n$, e.g. etian-num tan-ne (ch.ii. § 135) ; nl (as in Engl. ‘eleven,' Mid. Engl. enleven), e. g. cŏrolla for $*_{\text {corōn-la, hŏmullus for } * h o m o ̆ n-~}^{\text {- }}$
 non 'superlex,' Probi App. 198. 14 K.) ; rs, e.g. torreo for *torseo (cf. Gk. тє́ $\rho \sigma о \mu a \iota$ ), ferre for *fer-se (cf. es-se). On the Assimilation of $s$ to a following voiced consonant, and the consequent lengthening of the preceding vowel by 'Compensation,' e.g. quālus (older quallus) for *quăs-lus (cf. quăsillus), see § 55 I , on a like treatment of $n$ before $s$ or $f, i b$., and on the Assimilation of Mediae to Tenues (e.g.scriptus for $*_{s c r i b t u s), ~ c e ̣ t-t e ~ f o r ~ * ~}^{*} c$ ĕd( $\left.i\right) t e$ ), Tenues to Mediae, e. g. ab-duco from ap- (I.-Eur. *ăpŏ), see § 95. In dialectal Latin $n d$ became $n n$ as in Osc. úpsanno- ' operando-,' whence dispennưte and distennŭte (Plaut.) (see ch. ii. § 7 I) ; on the pronunciation ss for rs (cf. russus for rursus), see ch. ii. § 104.
§ 160. Assimilation in Preposition compounded with Verb. The passages of the Roman grammarians dealing with this subject are enumerated by Brambach, Lat. Orth. pp. 294 sqq. Lucilius declared it to be immaterial whether one wrote $d$ or $c$ in adcurrere, accurrere (ix. 25 M.) :

> : 'adcurrere' scribas
> dne an c , non est quod quaeras eque labores,
but seems (though the reading is doubtful) to have insisted on the necessity of distinguishing ad-bitere (from $a d$ and baeto) and ab-bitere (from $a b$ and baeto) (ix. 27 M.) :
'abbitere' multum est
$d$ siet an b;
(absimilis seems to have been discarded in Latin for dissimilis, through fear of confusion with adsimilis) ; he pronounces in favour of pellicio (ix. 32 M .):
in praeposito per
'pelliciendo,' hoc est inducendo, geminato 1.
Similarly Priscian (i. 50.7 H.) quotes pellege, pellucet from Plautus.
The MSS. of Plautus and Terence show great prevalence of Assimilation ; Plautus puns on adsum and assum, Poen. 279 :
Mílphio, heus ubi tu és? Assum apud te eccum. Át ego elixus sís uolo,
where however the MSS. read adsum, and Stilo (end of second cent. в.c.) derived as-siduus 'ab asse dando' (Cic. Top. ii. ro). It is quite a mistake to suppose the unassimilated forms to be the older, and the assimilated the more recent (see Dorsch in the Prager philol. Studien, 1887). In the Herculanean papyri the preposition is generally not assimilated, e.g. 'adsiduo,' 'inridens,' ' inlita,' ' adfini,' but 'imminet,' 'imperiis' (Class. Rev. iv. 442). The byform $\bar{a}$ of $a b$ originated in an assimilated form, e. g. before $f$ - in the verb $\bar{a}-f l u 0$, to be abundant (cf. $a b-u n d o$ ), often confused in MSS. with $a f-f l u o$, to flow to (see Nettleship, Contributions, s.v. atfluo), and before m-, v-, e. g. $\bar{a}-m i t t o, \bar{a}-$-vello, the forms ammitto, \&c. being avoided apparently through fear of confusion with compounds of $a d$; in classical spelling $a d$ is assimilated usually before $c-$, e. g. ac-cĭpio (sometimes before $q$-, e. g. ac-quïro), before $g$-, e.g. aggrëdior and ad-gredior, before $l$-, e.g. alligare but adluere, adlŏqui (Velius Longus, p. 6i K.), before p-. e. g. ap-pōno, rarely ad-pono, before $r$-, e.g. arripio and ad-ripio, before s, e. g. as-sideo and ad-sideo, ad-sum, before $t$-, e. g. at-tribuo ; com-is assimilated before $l$-, e. g. col-lègium, col-löco and con-loco, before $r$-, e. g. cor-rigo, and becomes conbefore $c-, d-, f-, g-, j-, n-, q-, s-, t-, v-$; on ex see ch.ix. $\S 29$; in- is assimilated before $m$-, e.g. im-mitto (becoming im- also before $b$-, $p$-), occasionally before $r$-, e. g. $i r-r u o$ and in-ruo, not so often before $l$-, e. g. in-lūdo and il-ludo ; ob- is assimilated before c-, e.g. oc-curro, before $f$-, e. g. of-fendo, before $g$-, e. g. og-gěro, before $p$-, e. g. op-pěrior, and occasionally before $m$-, e. g. ob-mŭneo, 0 . Lat. om-mentare ; per- is assimilated before $l$-, e.g. pel-lı̆cio, pel-lĕgo and per-lego; sub is assimilated before $c$-, e. g. suc-curro before $f$-, e. g. suf-fěro, before $g$-, e. g. sug-gěro, before $p$-, e. g. sup-pono, and optionally before m-, e. g. sum-mitto and sub-mitto, and r-, e. g. surripui (contracted surpui) and sub-ripui ; träns- often becomes trā- before $j$-, $d$-, $l$-, $m$-, $n$-, e. g. trā-do (trans-dere attested by Donatus for Terence, Phorm. 2, where all our MSS. have tradere) ; before $j$ - we find co- in coicio, \&c., pe- in pejërare, a later spelling of perjerare (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.) (cf. peiiuri Plaut. Truc. 612 (B))
(cf. Ital. Gennajo for Lat., Jānuarius). (See Brambach, Lat. Orth. pp. 296 sqq. on the Assimilation of Prepositions on Inscriptions, and the Indices to C.I.L.)
§ 161. Other examples of Assimilation. If Festus (252. 7 Th .) is right in saying that both petria and pesna were 0 . Lat. words for 'a wing,' we must suppose penna to be the development of the former, while the latter (from *petsnā-) would become *pēna (cf. luna for *lucsna); annus is most naturally derived from *at-no- (Goth. apn Neut., 'a year'). The assimilation of $c$ to a following $t$ was a feature of dialectal (e.g. blatta for *blacta, Lett. blakts, ' a bug') and Late Latin (see ch. ii. § 95). Like glüma from glūbo is rumentum (glossed ky 'abruptio' Paul. Fest. 369 . i2 Th.) from rumpo; like rāmentum from rādo is caementum from caedo. (On the reduction of mm after a long vowel or diphthong to $m$, e.g. *caemmentum to cuementum, see ch. ii. § 127). For $d p$ we have 0. Lat. topper (see ch. ix. § 7) for *tod-per (on quippe, quippiam, see ch. x. § 7). Idcirco is sometimes spelt iccirco (see Brambach, Hülfsbüchlein, s. v.). Whether nm became $m m$, e.g. gemma, or $r m$, e. g. germen, is discussed in $\S 80$, and whether exāmen represents ${ }^{*}$ exăgmen or ${ }^{*}$ ex-ags-men in § ri6. In the Probi App. (198. 26 K .) we have: amygdala non 'amiddula'; the gd of frig(i)dus (frigda Probi App. 198. з K.) became dd (cf. fridam, C.I.L. iv. 29r ; Ital. freddo, \&c.).
§ 162. Lengthening by Compensation. Closely connected with the Assimilation of Consonants is what is called the 'Compensatory' Lengthening of Vowels, where the assimilated consonant lends itself rather to increase the length of the preceding vowel, so that the loss of the consonant is, as it were, compensated by the additional quantity of the vowel. (English examples are 'lady,' 'maid,' 'rain,' 'thane.') Quālus, for *quăs-lus (cf. quăs-illus, § 148), is in the older spelling quallus, ănhēlus for *anhenslus is anhellus, vellum for *vexlum (cf. vexillum) is vellum, aula, a pot (later olla), for *auxla (cf. auxilla) is aulla, \&c.; the Adjective ending -ösus for $*_{0}$-went-to-(ch. v. § 65 ) is in the older spelling -onssus, -ossus (see Brambach, Orth. p. 268, and the Indices to Ribbeck's Virgil and Studemund's Apograph of the Ambrosian Palimpsest of Plautus) ; dumetum for $*$ dusmetum is in Virgil MSS. dummetum, as dīminuo is in Plautus MSS. dimminuo [cf. dirrumpo, Bacch. 44 I (C D), but disr- (B)], and so on. (On the spellings with double consonant in the MSS. of Plautus, Virgil, \&c., see ch. ii. §§ ${ }^{127-1} 33$, where the question is discussed how far a long vowel with a single consonant might be substituted for a short vowel with a double consonant in Latin. On the lengthening of a vowel before $n \delta$, see ch.ii. § 144, and for additional examples of the loss of $s, x$ with 'compensatory' lengthening, § 151 above.)
§ 163. Assimilation of Syllables. The change of the older Perfect-forms cĕcurri, mĕmordi, pӗposci, מӗpŭgi, \&c. to cŭcurri, mŏmordi, p̆̆posci, pŭpugi, \&c. (see ch. viii. § 43) shows the partiality of Latin for the complete assimilation of two neighbouring syllables.
 (O. Ind. pán̂ca, Lith. penkì, \&c.) is not seen in Lat. quinque; quercus (for *querquus), querquëtum may be another example, for O. Engl. furh, our ' fir,' points to I.-Eur. *perqº- (cf. buloo from I.-Eur. pib-, O. Ind. píbāmi, O. Ir. ibim). The same similarity of initial and following syllable, whether an original similarity preserved in Latin or first produced by the Latin partiality for a repetition of the same sound, is seen in words like cincinnus, a curl (Gk. кíкıvvos), quisquйliae, shreds (Gk. кобкиддátıa), barba for *farba (Engl. beard, O. Sl. brada), querquĕra, ague, murmur (Gk. $\mu о \rho \mu \nu ́ \rho \omega)$, йрйра (Gk. є̈то廿), furfur, tintinno, сйсйmis, turtur, \&c. But in Vulgar Latin we find $q u$ becoming $c$ when a following syllable has qu, e. g. cinque for quinque, cesquo for quiesco (Bersu, die Gutturalen, p. 98).

## CHAPTER V.

## FORMATION OF NOUN AND ADJECTIVE STEMS.

§ 1. I. STEM-SUFFIXES. We have seen how the several sounds of the Latin language were written (ch. i.), and pronounced (ch. ii.), and what original or 'Indo-European' sounds they represent (ch. iv.). We have now to see how Latin words were formed, and how the Latin process of formation was related to the 'Indo-European.'

For the forming of words we find sounds combined into roots, and these developed into stems; thus the sounds $t$, $e$, and $g$, are combined into the root teg-, ' to cover' (Lat. tĕg-o, teg-men, tectus for *teg-tus, tog-a with O-grade of root), which is further developed into the stems tŭgā- (Lat. Nom. Sg. togă, earlier *togā, Gen. Pl. togä-rum, \&c.), tegmen- (Lat. Nom. Sg. tegmen, Gẹn. tegmı̆nis, earlier *tegmen-es, \&c.) by the addition to the root of the stem-suffixes -ā-, -men-. It is these stem-suffixes, used in the making of Nouns and Adjectives, which will be the subject of this section.
§ 2. Suffixes ending in -ǒ, - (Nouns and Adjectives of the First and Second Declension). -ŏ-, - $\overline{\mathbf{A}}-. \quad$-Ŏ-, which should rather be called the ĕ-r-suffix, since it alternates with ĕ (e.g. I.-Eur. Voc. Sg. of Masc. o-stems ended in -ĕ, *êkwĕ, ' O horse,' Gk. i $i \pi \pi \epsilon$, Lat. equĕ, \&c.), is associated with the Masc. and Neut. Gender. - $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-, which should rather be called the $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$-suffix, since it alternates with ă (e.g. I.-Eur. Voc. Sg. of Fem. ā-stems ended in -ă, *ěk̂kwă, ‘O mare'; cf. Hom. Gk. vv́ $\mu \phi$ ă ), is associated with the Fem. Gender. Hence the ŏ- and ā-suffixes were used
in Adjectives, e.g. I.-Eur. něwo-, Masc. and Neut., *newā-, Fem. (Gk. $\nu^{\prime}(F)$ os, $\nu^{\prime}(F)$ ov, $\nu^{\prime}(F) \bar{a}$, Lat. nŏvos, novom, nova, \&c.). Special circumstances have however produced a few instances of Fem. o-stems and Masc. ā-stems. Thus Lat. fägus, Gk. $\phi \eta \gamma o ́ s$ are Fem., being names of trees; and Lat. agricola, when it passed from its original abstract sense of 'field-tillage' into the concrete sense of a 'field-tiller,' became Masc. (cf. Gk. $*_{\nu \epsilon a v i a ̄-, ~ y o u t h, ~}^{v \in a v i a ̄ s, ~ a ~ y o u t h) . ~(S e e ~ c h . ~ v i . ~ § ~ i .) ~}$

Of the many uses of the ŏ-suffix, two may be selected for particular notice: (I) in Abstract Nouns (Nomina Actionis), these having the accent on the root, e.g. I.-Eur. *ĝóno-, ' production ' (O. Ind. jắnam, Gk. үóvos), from root g̀en-, ‘ to produce '; (2) in Nomina Agentis, these having the accent on the suffix, e.g. I.-Eur. *tŏró-, ‘a piercer' (Gk. тopós), from root ter-, 'to pierce'; I.-Eur. *prơko-, 'an asker' (Lat. prŏcus, a suitor), from root prek-, 'to ask.' The root in all these examples shows the o-grade (ch. iv. § 5 r).

The ā-suffix is similarly used in Abstract Nouns (Nomina Actionis), e.g. I.-Eur. *bhŭgā, 'the action of fleeing' (Gk. фvy', Lat. füga), from the weak grade of the root bheug-, ' to flee.'

How far these simple suffixes -ŏ- and -ā- have been combined with others to form the large number of suffixes which end in the letter ŏ, or the letter ā, e.g. -io-, -iā-, -to-, -tā-, -tuo-, -tuā-, -tro-, -trā, \&c. need not be discussed here. In Latin we find them more used in the older stages of the language, while fuller suffixes seem to be required in the classical period; thus perrưcus (from the root weik-, 'to fight,' Lat. vinco) is O. Lat. for per-vicāx, and squālus, Enn., became squälüdus. The Verbal Noun used as Infinitive by the Umbro-Samnite nations was probably a Neuter ö-stem, e.g. Osc. ezum, Umbr. erom from root ěs-, 'to be,' Lat. esse; Osc. deicum corresponds to Lat. dīcere, Osc. moltaum to Lat. multare) ; and at all periods of Latin we see a tendency to make rough-and-ready coinages of words with the help of these simple suffixes, e.g. Carna, from $*_{c u \breve{r}}(o) n$-, flesh, the goddess of the vital organs, to whom a temple was dedicated by Junius Brutus in 510 в. c., Carda (or Cardea), from *cardon-, a hinge, the goddess of hinges, nola, ' a say-no' from nōlo, in Caelius' punning description of Clodia (Quint. viii. 6. 53).
§ 3. Latin ǒ- and à-suffixes; other examples. Lat. uncus from *oncos (O. Ind. arkás; Gk. oै $\gamma \kappa \kappa$ s) from the root ank-, ' to bend '; Lat. dŏlus (Gk. סódos), perhaps the 0 -grade of a root del- ; Lat. jügum ( 0 . Ind. yugám, Gk. ̧vybv, Goth. juk Neut., O. Sl. igo Neut.) from the root yeug-, 'to join'; Lat. pläga (Gk. $\pi \lambda \eta \gamma \gamma$ ') from the root plāg-, 'to beat'; con-vīva from vīvo, to enjoy oneself (e.g. Catull. v. I; Plaut. Pers. 30 uiues mecum ; so vita Plaut. Trin. 477 ; cf. Non. 14. 16 M. sicuti qui nunc est in summa laetitia, 'vivere' eum dicimus); parcus from parco; with lengthened root col-lēga (cf. tēg-ǔla, rēg-ǔla, and cēläre,
 Of early forms, and occasional coinages, may be mentioned : condus and prōmus from condo, promo, e.g. Plaut. Pseud. 608 condus promus sum, procurator peni ; trăha, a harrow, for which Virgil substituted (invented ?) the form trahea (cf. the note of Servius or G. i. 164 traheaeque: Epenthesin fecit causa metri, ut 'navita.' traha autem vehiculum est a trahendo dictum; nam non habet rotas), from traho, like serra, the bolt of a door, from sero, to join; from aio was formed Aius Locutius, the god to whom a temple was dedicated in gratitude for the supernatural warning against the attack of the Gauls, 39 в. в. с. ; from pando, Panda, the goddess of opening, after whom was named the Pandana porta (Varro, L.L. v. 42), the Oscan name of the goddess being Patana-. Nonius quotes pervicus, stubborn, persistent, from Accius (Trag. 158 R.) :
sed péruico Aiax ánimo atque aduorsábili,
derived from pervinco, to be stubborn, persistent, as we may see from the assonance of Ennius (Trag. 408 R.) :
peruínce pertináci peruicácia;
coa and nola, from coeo and nolo are quoted from Caelius by Quintilian (viii. 6. 53): quadrantariam Clytemestram, et in triclinio coam, in cubiculo nolam ; so perhaps confeta sus, for sus cum fêtu, explained by Paul. Fest. (40. 28 Th.) : quae cum omni fetu adhibebatur ad sacrificium; Domi-duca, Prō-nüba (an epithet of Juno), Juga (another epithet of Juno), Lua, Vica Pota, noctī-lūca, sanguì-sūga. Scrüba was the early word for 'a poet' (Fest. 492. ig Th.).

## § 4. -IǑ-, -IĀ- (-YǑ-, -Y $\overline{\mathbf{A}}-)$. It is difficult to distin-

 guish in Latin the I.-Eur. suffixes ( 1 ) -yŏ-, -yā-, (2) -̌̆yŏ-, -ľyā- (by some written -әуo-, -əyā-), for as we have seen (ch. iv. § 65), y after a consonant in the middle of a word became vocalic $i$ in Latin, so that Lat. mĕdius from I.-Eur. *mědh-yo- (O. Ind. mádhya-, Gk. $\mu \notin(\sigma) \sigma o s)$ is, unlike the O. Ind. and Greek forms of the word, a trisyllable. The weak grade of I.-Eur. -yŏ-, -ĭyǒ- (or -yě-, -ĭyĕ-, § 2) seems to have been -ǐ-, -ī- ; e. g. Goth. brūks, ' useful,' for *brūkǐs, I.-Eur. *bhrūḡㅡㄴ, *bhrūgg yǒ- (-yě-), from the root bhreug ${ }^{\text {un }}$-, ' to use, enjoy ' (Lat. fruor); Goth. hairdeis, 'a herd, shepherd,' for *hairdis; and this opened the way to a confusion of io-stems with i-stems. Another byform seems to have been -iyyŏ-, -iyyā-, e. g. O.Ind. trtt-1́ya-, 'third,'Hom. Gk. $\pi \rho o \theta v \mu-\hat{i} \eta$, a form which would in Latin shorten the i before the following vowel, and become identical with I.-Eur.-1̆yo-.

These IO- suffixes have three chief uses in I.-Eur.: (I) to form Verbal Adjectives, especially Gerundives, the Neuter and Fem. being often employed as Verbal Nouns, e.g. I.-Eur. *sŏq $^{\text {ü }}$-yo-, 'requiring help or company' (Lat. sŏcius; cf. O. Ind.
 accompany ' (O. Ind. sac-, Gk. ধ̈лонaı, Lat. sĕquor). Similarly Latin ex̌̆mius in the sense of eximendus (e.g. Ter. Hec. 66 utin eximium neminem habeam? 'am I to make no exception?'); Lat. stŭdium from studeo, Lat. exŭviae from exuo; plŭvia from pluo; (2) as a secondary suffix of Adjectives, the Neuter and Fem. being often used as Abstract Nouns; often too in Compound Adjectives; e.g. I.-Eur. *pătrǐyo- (O. Ind. pítriya-, Gk. $\pi a ́ r \rho o o s$, Lat. patrius) from the noun *păter- (I.-Eur. pitár-, Gk. $\pi a \tau \eta$ и, Lat. păter); Lat. somnium (O. Ind. svápnyam, O. Sl. sŭnı̆je, sŭnije) from somnus, stem *somno- (O. Ind. svápnas, O. Sl. sŭnŭ); Lat. falsi-jūrius from falsus and jus, discordia from discors; (3) in Adjectives which have a sense of comparison or distinction, indicating a special locality, direction, \&c., e.g. I.-Eur. *mědhyo- (O. Ind. mádhya-, Gk. $\mu \epsilon ́(\sigma) \sigma o s$, Lat. mĕdius) ; I.-Eur. *ălyo- (Arm. ail, Gk. ä入入os, Lat. ălius, Goth. aljis); Gk. $\delta \in \xi$ tós has this suffix, while Lat. dexter (Gk. $\left.\begin{array}{c} \\ \hline\end{array} \xi \tau \epsilon \rho \rho_{s}\right)$ has the -tero- suffix, which has the same force (§ 16). So in some Ordinal Numbers, e.g. Lat. tertius (cf. O. Ind. trtîya-, Goth. pridja, O. Sl. tretǐjĭ, ch. vi. § 61).

A notable use of this suffix in the Italic languages is in the formation of Proper Names. While in all, or most, of the other I.-Eur. languages Compounds were used for Proper Names, the son taking a Compound slightly varied from the father's (e.g. Gk. $\Delta v_{0}-\kappa \rho a ́ t \eta s$, son of $\Delta v_{0}-\kappa \lambda \hat{\eta} s$, Teut. Walt-bert, son of Wald-ram), the Italic stocks employed simple stems with this IO- suffix, e.g. Lat. Lūcius, Stätius, \&c., which correspond to some contracted or 'pet'-names in the other I.-Eur. nations, e.g. Gaul. Toutius, a familiar shortened form of Toutio-rix, Gk.
 $\Lambda \epsilon u ́ k-\iota \pi \pi o s, \& c$. (see Fick, Personennamen).

The Oscan inscriptions enable us to distinguish two varieties
of this suffix in Patronymics (or family names), which cannot so easily be distinguished in Latin: (1) -yo-, in Patronymics derived from praenomina (what we call 'Christian names') in -o, e.g. Osc. Úhtavis, Lat. Octāvius, the patronymic derived from Lat. Octavus; Osc. Statis from a praenomen *Stato-. The Oscan suffix is in native characters written -is (i.e. -iss), in Latin characters -is, in Gk. -ıs: (2) -1yo-, in Patronymics derived from praenomina in -yo-, e.g. Statiis, a patronymic from the praenomen Statis (stem *Statyo-). This suffix is in Oscan characters -iis, in Latin characters -ies, in Gk. -les. To these we may add a third variety, -iyo-, apparently the unshortened form of -1yo-. This is used in ceremonious language on inscriptions bearing the names of magistrates, \&c., and is written -iís, Gk. - $\epsilon \epsilon \epsilon s$, e.g. Viínikiís, 'AFঠє $\epsilon \epsilon s$, both quaestors. How far Latin spellings like Clodeius, Publeius, Vareius, if they are genuine Latin forms and not dialectal, may be distinguished from the normal forms Clodŭus, Publŭus, Varı̆us is hard to determine. The diphthong $\epsilon i$ in O. Latin may, as we have seen, represent the weakening of an original -ai- (-oi-) in the unaccented syllable, e.g. occeido, as well as an original -ei-, e.g. deico; it may also be a graphic expression of the long simple vowel $\bar{i}$, for this -ei- came to be pronounced, and in time spelt, in the same way as $\bar{\imath}$; and before another vowel $\bar{\imath}$ would be shortened to $\check{2}$. Thus Osc. Bovaiano- was in Latin Bovĭanum through *Bovāanum from *Boveianom; Osc. Púmpaiians is Lat. Pompeianus; Osc. Maraio-, Falisc. Mareio-, is Lat. Marĭus (cf. Umbr. pernaio-, 'in front,' postraio-, 'behind,' in Lat. antīcus, postīcus). Analogous to the Oscan -iyo- as opposed to -iyoo- is perhaps the Latin use of the full ending -ius, as opposed to the shorter -is or $-i$ (with $-\overline{-}$ - like Osc. -is ?), in names of magistrates; for example, on the S. C. de Bacchanalibus (C.I.L. i. 196) the consuls' names are Marcius and Postumius, but the names of the clerks who 'scribendo arfuerunt' are Claudi, Valeri, Minuci.

As the IO-suffix is often added as a secondary suffix to Verbstems (e.g. pinsio and pinso, ch. viii. § 15 ), so it is added to Nouns. O-stems either drop their final vowel before it, e.g. somn-ium, or show -ĕyo- which became -ěo- (ch. iv. § 66), e.g. aureus. (On rustic -eo- for -io-, see ch. ii. § 10). This ending
was often assigned to other stems, e. g. flammeus ( $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stem), corneus (U-stem), riteus (I-stem), to denote material. The TER-stems augmented by -io- produce in Latin a numerous class of Neuter Nouns indicating the place or instrument of an action, with the ending -tōrio- corresponding to Greek -т $\eta \rho \iota o-$, e.g. audī-torium, 'the place of hearing,' deversorium for * (levert-torium, 'a lodgingplace,' scalp-torium, 'an instrument for scratching' (Martial

 deciding '). (On Fem. -toria in Late Lat. see Rönsch, Collectanea, p. 197.) Similarly we have -mōnium, -mōnia from MEN-stems, e.g. ălümonia and ŭlümonium (cf. ălumentum), flamonium (on the spelling, see Nettleship, Contributions, s.v.) from flamen, an ending extended to trisť̆-monia, sancti-monia, \&c. The Adj. ending -ārius
 later Latin (ch. iii. § 16), though the popular speech retained the older forms (e.g. vīnarius), forms which should perhaps be restored to various lines of Plautus (see Langen, Beiträge, p. 324; e.g. militariis, Pseun. 1049). The same may be true of -älius and
 A common ending of Abstract Nouns is -irtia (often -ities), e. g. laetitia from laetus, like militia from miles (see also YE-stems, § 51), -ı̂tium, e.g. servitium, fāgitium, lūnitium. From N-stems we have, e. g. cŏlōnia, in O. Lat., 'a dwelling-place' (Plaut. Aut. 576: ut conmutet coloniam).
-ārio- and -āri-, -ālio- and -āli-. Caper (p. ro3. 9 K.) approves the old form vinarius:

## Vasa istaec vinaria sunt, vinaria cella :

Vulgus adhuc retinet de prisca verba loquella;
and similarly atramentarium (p. ro8. 3 K.) ; but Probi Appendix (p. 198. 7 K.) primipilaris, non 'primipilarius.' (For other examples of -arius, -alius, see Rönsch, Collectanea, pp. 196, 208; Neue ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 158.)

Other examples of IO-stem Compounds. From jūs and ${ }^{g} g o$ was formed jūr(i)-gium; so lītŭgium; from dīco, jūdìcium, indŭcium ; from eo, cŏmĭtium, exìtium, initium (cf. § 77) ; similarly praemium from ĕmo, incendium, suspīrium, discìdium, connübium, subsĭdium, aedi-fĭcium, lecti-sterniúm, stilli-cĭdium, "obsĕquium [wrongly declared (Cicero ap. Quint. viii. 3.35 ; but cf. Lael. xxiv. 89) to be a coinage of Terence, for it is used by Plautus (Bacch. ro8z) and Naevius (Don. ad Ter. Andr. i. 1. 40)] and exsĕquiae, excŭbiae, suppěticue, vindēmia from vīnum and dëmo, incüria from cūra, \&c.
§ 5．－UǑ－，－U $\bar{A}-$. Here again the two I．－Eur．forms of the suffix， （1）－wŏ－，－wā－，（2）－ŭwŏ－，－ŭwā－，（or－əwo－，\＆c．）are difficult to dis－ tinguish in Latin，where w after a consonant in the middle of a word became vocalic $u$ at first，though it might afterwards become a consonant by the process of Syncope described in ch．iii．§ 13， e．g．furrus，which must have been trisyllabic，fusuos（cf．fus－cus）， at the time when $s$ between vowels became $r$ in Latin．An original－ăwǒ－，－ĕwǒ－，－ŏwǒ－would also become－ŭŏ－，and in time $-v \breve{0}-$ in Latin（ch．iii．$\S 24$, p．174），so that the exact origin of the Latin suffix－$\check{\iota} 0-,-r \breve{o}-$ is often doubtful．Another element of confusion is that the weak grade of the I．－Eur．suffixes－wŏ－， －ŭwǒ－（－wě－，－ŭwě－，see § 2）was $\check{\bar{u}}$ ，which opened the way to these stems coalescing with $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$－stems．

The UO－suffix is much used in Latin and in Teutonic in adjectives denoting colour，e．g．Lat．helvus（O．H．G．gelo，Engl． yellow，from＊ĝhĕl－wo－），furvus，flävus，rāvus，\＆c．Greek Verbal Adjectives in $-\tau \epsilon 0$ ，for ${ }^{*}$－$\tau \epsilon F$ os，with Gerundive force，e．g． $\delta \iota \omega \kappa$ т́os，requiring to be pursued，capable of being pursued（cf． O．Ind．kártva－，kártuva－，＇requiring to be done＇），are in Latin represented by formations in－uиs，e．g．caeduиs，excı̆puиs，prae－ cйриия，conspŭcuus，while another class of Verbal Adjectives， denoting state or condition，end in－tīvus，e．g．nātīvus，captīvus， rōtīvus．These Adjectives in－tīvus seem to be derived from Verbal Nouns with a TIO－suffix or a TI－suffix（cf．furtīvus from＊furti－，a stem seen in Adv．furtim，ch．ix．§ 4 ；sèmentīrus from sementis，Late Lat．sementium，Rönsch，Collect．p．209）， though some have tried to connect them with Sanskrit Gerund－ ives in－tavyà－，e．g．O．Ind．kartavyà－，＇requiring to be done．＇ （See Thurneysen，Verba auf－io，p．41 ；von Planta，Gramm．Osk．－ Umbr．i．p．169），while Verbal Adjectives of the same sense in －ìvus，e．g．reॅečrdīvus［cf．cadivus（morbus），＇the falling sickness，＇ in Gaulish Latin，e．g．Marc．Emp．xx．93］，sub－sĕčivus，O．Lat． vocīvos from vocare（classical văcare），may come from Verbal Nouns with an IO－suffix．The forms dë－cüduus，văcuus are not phonetic developments of these，but follow the analogy of Gerundive Adjectives like caeduus，excipuus，\＆c．
§ 6．I．－Eur．Stems in－wǒ－．I．－Eur．＊ǧ⿳亠口冋⿱一𫝀口1－wǒ－，＇alive，lively＇（0．Ind．jīvá－， O．Ir．biu，W．byw，Goth．qius，Lith．gývas，O．Sl．živŭ），Lat．vīvus；I．－Eur．
*laiwo-, 'left' (Gk. $\lambda a \iota(F)$ ós, O. Sl. lěvŭ), Lat. laevus, probably connected with Engl. slow, from Teut. *slaiwa-. Similarly Lat. calcus (O. Ind. kulva-) ; Lat. scaevus (Gk. бкац(F)ós) ; Lat. clivus (Goth. hlaiv Neut. 'tomb,' O. Engl. hlāw, hl̄̄w, ' hill,' esp. 'grave-hill,' Sc. law) from the root klei-, 'to lean, slope.'
The thematic vowel is inserted in I.-Eur.*wĭdh-è-wo-, 'unmarried, widowed' [O. Ind. vidháva-, Gk. $\boldsymbol{\eta}^{-i}$ - $\theta$ eos ; cf. Goth. viduvō ( n -stem), O. Sl. vìdova, ' a widow,' $O$. Ir. fedb, W. gweddw]. Lat. vǐduus, from the root weidh-. 'to separate,' of Lat. dī-vǔdo, \&c.
§ 7. Latin Verbal Adjectives in -uus, -ivus, -tivus. Relĭcuus (rather relicuos) is a word of four syllables in Plautus, and indeed in all the Republican literature, though it afterwards became reliquos and finally relicus; similarly dēticuus, \&c. (see Bersu, die Gutturalen, p. 59). This ending -uus (-uos), indicating state or condition, is seen in contı̈nuus, ingĕnuus, assĭduus (whence the Adverb assiduo, for the sake of a pun with which Plautus coins the form accưbuo, Truc. 422), exiguus, ambigqueus (though we find other Compounds like prödigus from ăgo (prodigivus in the Comm. Lud. Saec.), indügus from ĕgeo with the O-suffix] ; from first conj. verbs we have ăruus, irrĭguus (irrigïvus Cato), văcuus (vocīvus Plaut.) ; from ineo we have Inuus. Derivative IO-stems from these are e.g. reliquiae, deliquium. Examples of Adjectives, \&c. in -uus, derived from nouns, are : annuus from annus (O-stem), Mīnerva for ${ }^{*}$ menes-uā (cf. O. Ind. manas-vín-, 'intelligent’) from *menes-, 'intelligence' (O. Ind. mánas-, Gk.
 health, Engl. stern, Pruss. sturnawiskan, 'earnest', , patriuus from păter (R-stem). Another example of a Gerundive Verbal Adjective in -uus is pascuus, fit for pasture, intended for pasture, with which Plautus contrasts urruus, fit for ploughing (Truc. 149):
non aruos hic, sed pascuos ager est;
(cf. Cic. de Rep. v. 2. 3 agri arvi et arbusti et pascui), whence arrum, with O. Lat. aruae Plur., a field for ploughing. Of Nouns and Adjectives in -ivus, -iva, which some would make Derivative IO-stems of Adjectives in -uus (recidivus from reciduus; but cf. deliquium, reliquiae from delicuus, relicuus), examples are : interněcivus (cf. internecio and internecium) from nĕcare, subsiciovus [cf. i(n)sicium, féni-sicium] from sĕcare. (Subsicivus denotes what remains over and above a division of land, \&c., hence subsicirus ager, spare land, subsicivum tempus, spare time, whence the proverb subsicivis operis, Cic. de Orat. ii. 89. 364). Another word often confused with this last, viz. succisivus, from succìdo, shows the more usual mode of derivation, from a Verbal Noun TI- or TIO-stem (cf. succīsio), like passivus, fŭğ̌ticus. Lĭxivus, whence the derivative IO-stem lüxivius, comes from lixius, derived from lüxa, water, lye, *lüxare (Ital. lessare), to boil, words connected with the root wleiqu of Lat. liquor, O. Ir. fliuch, 'wet' (see Class. Rev. v. io). The O. Lat. word sonivius (Paul. Fest. 409.6 Th. 'sonivio,' sonanti) used in the augur's phrase sonivium tripudium (Serv. ad A. iii. 90 ; cf. Fest. 422.19 Th.), will, if the second syllable is long, be similarly related to sŏnare, as lixivus to *lixare, subsicivus to subsicare, \&c. [Nŏcivus, Plin. Phaedr., \&c. from nöceo, I.-Eur. *nökéyō (ch. viii. §. 23), has been compared to O. Sl. chodī-vŭ, ' wandering,' from chodi-ti, ' to 'go,' ljubī-vŭ, 'loving,' from ljubi-ti, 'to love'].

The I.-Eur. suffixes -twǒ-, -twā-, or -tŭwǒ-, -tŭwā-, closely connected with the Verbal Noun suffix -tu- ( $\$ 47$ ), are frequent in O. Ind. and Slav. (e.g.
O. 1nd. kár-tuva-, kár-tva-, 'requiring to be done,' kár-tva-m, 'a task'; cf. Gk. $-\tau \epsilon(F)$ os of $\delta \omega \omega \kappa-\tau \epsilon \in s, \& c$.$) , but hardly appear in Latin ; e. g. mor-tuus (O. Sl. mrì-$ -tvŭ) ; Fā-tuus another name of Faunus, the god of prophecy, derived from $f a ̄-r i$ (but fătuus, foolish, with short a, means literally 'gaping,' from fŭtiscor, \&c.). In mütuus the t belongs to the Verb-stem (cf. Lett. meetōt, 'to exchange,' Goth. maibms, 'a gift').
§ 8. -Nǒ-, -NĀ-. The I.-Eur. suffix -nŏ-, Fem. -nā-, seems to vary with the higher grades -ĕnŏ-, -ĕnā-, and -ŏnŏ-, -ŏnā-; sometimes a vowel-sound seems to precede the nasal, representing some such variation as -ənŏ-, -ənā- (ch. iv. § 81). Its chief use is in the formation of Verbal Adjectives, usually with the force of a Perfect Participle Passive ; thus in Sanscrit a certain number of Verbs have P. P. P. in -ná-, the others in -tá- (I.-Eur. -to-, §27), and likewise in Teutonic and Balto-Slavic, e. g. O. Ind. pūrṇá-, ‘filled,' O. Engl. bunden, ‘bound,’ O. Sl. danŭ, ' given.' In Latin, as in Greek, the P. P. P. suffix is -to-, but traces of a similar use of -no- are found in words like plēnus, full (cf. implètus) ; while of Verbal Nouns formed with this suffix we have, e. g. dōnum (O. Ind. dấna- N., O. Ir. dān), somunts from the root swep-, 'to sleep' (O. Ind. svípna- M., Arm. k'un, O. Ir. suan, O. Engl. swefen, Lith. sãpnas ; cf. Gk. vinvos, O. Sl. sŭnŭ). An N -stem which passes into the O-declension shows this suffix ; thus rēgnum (ch. ii. § 144) may be from stem *rēgen- (cf. O. Ind. räján-, 'rule'). The suffix is preceded by s in lüna for *luxna (cf. losua on an old Praenestine mirror, C. I. L. i. 55) (Zend raoxšna-, ' shining,' Pruss. lauxnos Pl., 'stars'). In Greek we find some Adjectives of Time in - $\boldsymbol{\imath} \nu o s$, derived from a Locative Case ending
 vós (Lat. vernus), è $\sigma \pi \epsilon \rho \iota-v o ́ s$ (cf. Lat. vesperna), \&c. Adjectives in -ı̆nus in Latin like fägı̆nus, juncĭnus show an I.-Eur. suffix -ǐnǒ-, denoting material or origin, e. g. Gk. фп́y-і̆os, made of beechwood, $\beta$ v́ß入ı̆vos, made of papyrus, \&c. In Latin, owing to the weakening of vowels in unaccented syllables, - -̆uus may represent an older -ănŏ-, -ĕnŏ-, -ŏnŏ-, \&c., as well as -ĭnŏ- ; and, owing to the syncope of such vowels, -nus may represent the same formations. It is however often possible to distinguish between original -no- and original -ĭno-, \&c.; thus pōpulnus, made of poplar-wood, must have had originally a vowel between the $l$ and the $n$, for original $l n$ becomes $l l$ in Latin (e.g. collis for
${ }^{*}$ colnis ; cf. Lith. káłnas; see ch. iv. § $7^{8}$ ). The suffix -ivos in Greek, denoting species, occurs frequently with names of animals,
 in Latin we have lŏvīnus, ĕquīnus, suīnus (Goth. sv-ein, Engl. swine, O. Sl. sv-inŭ), fibrinnus (O. H. G. bibir-īn; cf. Zend bawraeniš, Lith. bebr-ìnis), \&c., the feminine often being employed with ellipse of căro, as vittŭlina, veal, suina, pork, \&c. Latin -inus is often due to the addition of the NO-suffix to IO-stems, e.g. Lătinus from Latium (though, when the suffix -ino-, and not -no-, is added, we have -iēnus, e. g. c̆lienus from alius, lăniena from lanius, with the same dissimilation of the $i$ - and $e$-vowels, as in pietas instead of ${ }^{*}$ piitas, mĕlietas instead of * medrïtas, \&c., Engl. ' yet,' ' yes,' for ' yit,' ' yis'), or to I-stems, e.g. mŭrinus from mare, piscina from piscis, omnino from omnis. It is often seen in the transference of an ION-stem into the $\breve{\mathrm{O}}$ - or $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-declension (cf. $\S 55$ on ĕpŭlōnus beside epulo), e.g. in names of gods like Jugatinus, 'qui conjuges jungit,' from jügätio, Potina, the goddess worshipped when a child first took milk (Non. 108. 17 M.), from pōtio, \&c. Lat. -ìno may also represent an earlier -aino-, \&c., for ai in the unaccented syllable, became $e i$, which passed into $\bar{i}$, but Osc. deiv-ino-, \&c. proves an original -ino- for dī̀vinus, \&c. The suffix -ť̆nus of diu-tinus, cras-tinus, pris-tinus, \&c., corresponding to the O. Ind. suffix -tna-, -tana- used to form Adjectives from Adverbs of Time, e. g. divá̀-tana- and divā-tína-, 'daily,' nút-tna-, nû́-tana-, ' of the present time,' pra-tná-, 'former,' \&c., may be connected with O. Ir. tan, 'time,' and so be more strictly the second element of a compound than a mere suffix, just as -gnus in privi-gnus, bignae, twins (Paul. Fest. 24. 25 Th.), represents the root gen-, of gĕnus, gigno, \&c. The -gnus of $\bar{\imath} l i$ gnus, sŭlignus, lŭrignus on the other hand shows the suffix -no-, the $g$ being the development before $n$ (ch.iv. § IIg) of the final $c$ of the stems $i l \check{l} c$ - $i s$ s, sal̆c$c-i s$, lař̌c- $i s$, and was by their analogy extended to other tree-adjectives like abiegnus fromăbiēs, Gen.abiĕt-is [ferrüğ̆nus (cf. auriğ̀neus, fül̄̄igineus) adds the O-suffix to the stem of ferruğ̄n-is]. Similarly -änus, the ending of Adjectives formed with the NO-suffix from $\bar{A}$-stems, e. g. silvānus, arcānus, is extended to Adjectives from other stems, e.g. urbānus. By the addition of this NO-suffix to Nomina Agentis in -or we get
-urnus, e.g. tăč̆turnus (and -urnius, e.g. Plausurnius) ; while ES-stems give -ènus; e.g. ahènus, Umbr. ahesno- from aes, I.-Eur. *ayes- ; vĕnënum, lit. ' philtre,' 'love-potion,' for *vënĕs-no- (cf. Vĕnus) ; ̆̆gēnus (cf. ĕges-tas), \&c.; we have -üna from a U-stem in lăcüna. A common use of the NO-suffix in Latin is to form Distributive Numerals, e. g. quăterni, bīni, trïni, terni (see ch. vi. §§ 59, 6I, 63).
§ 9. I.-Eur. NO-suffix. I.-Eur. *oi-no-, 'one' [Gk. oiv ${ }^{\prime}$, the ace on dice, (though oios, Cypr. oifos, alone, has the WO-suffix, like Zend aeeva-, ôiva-), O. Ir. oen, W. un, Goth. ains, Lith. vênas, 0 . Sl. inŭ), Lat. ùnus. Similarly Lat. cänus for *casnus (cf. cascus), Ose. casnar, an old man ; Lat. urna for *urcna (cf. urceus) ; Lat. quernus for *quercnus; Lat. agnus (Gk. ả avós for *ảß-vos, O. Ir. uan, W. oen ; cf. O. Sl. jagnę) ; Lat. grānum from root ger-, 'to rub down, wear out' ( 0 . Ind. jīrná-, 'rubbed down,' Goth. kaurn, 'corn,' O. Sl. zrinno).
§ 10. Latin -nus. Other examples are păter-nus, māter-nus, from R-stems; alter-nus, infer-nus, exter-nus; prönus from the preposition pro, as Osc. amno-, 'a circuit,' from the preposition am- (Lat. ambĭ-), Osc. com(o)no-, Umbr. kumno-, corresponding to the Latin cơmĭtium, from the preposition com ; mätěrinus from materiēs (-īn-probably); from U-stems tribūnus, (cf. pěcūnia). The suffix -ĕno-, -ŏno- appears in O. Lat. Duenos, bĕne (cf. bĕnignus, bellus for *ben-lus), O. Lat. duonus, bŏnus from the same root as O. Ind. dúvas-, 'honour.' From sarcio we have sarcìna, from pango (compäges), pāgĭna, from ango, angĭna, from sto, destina, a prop (cf. destïnäre, like lancinäre, \&c., ch. viii. § го).
§ 11. Latin-inus. From $\bar{A}$-stems, names of animals, we have ăquilinus, formīcinus, noctuinus, mustēlinus, cŏlumbinus, vīpěrinus, \&c., and from names of persons, Agrippina, Jŭgurthinus, Messälina, Sïbyllinus, \&c. Other examples are : from 0 -stems, $d_{i v}$-inus, vīcinus; from an R-stem, sobr-inus (for ${ }^{\text {s sosr-inus }}$ from sŏror, I.-Eur *swësor-); from U-stems, gĕnuinus dens, from *genus, the jaw (Gk. $\gamma^{\prime} \nu$ ves), veruina from vëru; from Verbs in -io, officicina, fơdina. (For a list of Nouns in -ina, see Rönsch, Collectanea, p. 199).
§ 12. Latin -ānus. (See A.L.L. i. r77.) From town-names of the first declension we have Rōmanus, Căpuanus, \&c. Names of persons in -ānus are usually derived from place-names, and often preserve the names of lost towns; e.g. Apscillanus points to a town *Apscilla (Eph. Epigr. ii. pp. 25-92). Derivative Adjectives from the fem. of ordinal numbers show -änus, e. g. undëcimani from undecima, sc. lĕgio, cohors. So decimanus from decima, sc. pars, the tenth part, tithe, e.g. ager decimanus, land paying tithes, an adjective which somehow acquired the sense of large, huge, e.g. decumana scuta, decumanus fluctus, decumana ova, all quoted by Paul. Fest. (3. 3I ; 50. 27 Th.), decimanus acipenser, Lucil. iv. 6 M . The same ending appears in some names of gods which are derived from Verbs of the first conjugation, e. g. Levana from lěväre, to lift, the goddess who protected the newly-born child when first lifted from the ground, Tutana from tütāri, Praestana from praestäre, \&c. The ending -iānus, properly affixed to iā-stems, e.g. Octārianus from Octāvia, sc. gens (the cognomen of a person who had passed by adoption from the gens Octavia to another
gens), was much affected with N-stems, e.g. Cǐcerōnianus, Pisōnianus, which seem to have pleased the Roman ear more than *Ciceron-anus, *Pison-anus, and was in time extended to other Proper Name-stems, e.g. Caesărianus (but Caesarinus in Cicero, \&c.). The ending -it̀ünus, e.g. Abdëritanus, was produced by adding the Roman termination to the Greek -it $\eta s$, e.g. 'A ${ }^{\prime} \delta \eta \rho \bar{i} \tau \eta s$; so Neäpŏlitanus, Pŭnormitanus, \&c. The ending -icīnus often denotes a resident alien as opposed to a native, e. g. Africanus, an Africander, opposed to Afer, Gallicanus, to Gallus. (Varro, L. L.i. 32. 2 : legumina Gallicani quidam 'legarica' appellant.)
The Romance languages point to a great extension of the -anus endings in Vulgar and Late Latin, e. g. Fr. certain from *certānus, moyen from *mediünus.
§ 13. -MĔNǑ-, -MĔNĀ-. Other grades of this suffix were -mŏnŏ-, -mŏnā-, and -mnŏ-, -mnā-, \&c. In Latin -měno- and -mŏno- would both become -minno- or (by Syncope) -mno- (cf. lamna, earlier lammina). The suffix was used in the Middle or Passive Participles of Thematic Tenses of the I.-Eur. Verb (e. g. O. Ind. bhára-māṇa-, Gk. $\phi \in \rho o ́-\mu \in v o s)$; and although the Pres. Part. Passive was lost in Latin, traces of this formation remain in the 2 Pl . Pres. Ind., e. g. lĕgmini for legimini estis (while legimini, 2 Pl. Pres. Imper., may equally stand for the Inf., Gk. $\lambda \in \gamma^{\prime} \mu \in \nu a \iota$, used in Imperatival sense ; see ch. viii. § 81), йlumnus, o $\tau \rho \epsilon \phi$ о́ $\mu \in \nu$ os (sometimes a nurse, as in the Ciris, 44 I : communis alumna omnibus, of the earth), fé-mina from the root dhē(y)'to give suck,' Vertumnus, the god of the changing seasons, from verto, Volumnus, the deity who guarded new-born children, from rŏlo, *calımnus (cf. călümnia) from calu-or, calvor, to deceive. Analogous, but irregular, formations seem to be O. Lat. pilumnoe poploe, from pilum, a javelin, used of the Romans in the Carmen Saliare (Fest. 244. 24 Th.), like classical piläni, and the names of deities, Pilumnus, from pīlum, a pestle, Vitumnus, 'per quem vivescat infans,' from vīta, \&c. We find -mo- (from an earlier -mno- ?) in Umbro-Oscan Imperative forms like Umbr. persnihimu 'supplicato,' Osc. censamur 'censetor'; cf. Lat. praefâminō, antestäminō (see ch. viii. § 60). Sometimes the suffix is used in the transference of a MEN- or MON-stem into the ŏ- or ā-declension, e. g. cŏlumna, beside cŏlümen (cf. columella for *colu-men-la), terminus, beside termen añd termo (quoted by Festus, 550. 22 Th., from Ennius, e. g. A. 591 M. : qua redditus termo est).

The ending -mnus in Latin often arises from the addition of the suffix -no- to a stem ending in a labial consonant, e. g. som-
nus for＊sopnus（cf．sŏpor），damnum（cf．Gk．סапávך），scamnum（cf． scabellum），\＆c．
§ 14 －MǑ－，－MĀ－．This suffix was used to form Adjectives （e．g．Gk．$\phi \dot{v} \xi \iota \mu o s$ from $\phi \dot{v} \xi \iota s, \lambda v ́ \sigma \iota \mu s$ from $\lambda \hat{v} \sigma \iota s$ ）and Nouns， especially Masculine nouns，but sometimes Fem．（e．g．Gk． Abstracts in－$\mu o ́ s$ like $\lambda t$－$\mu$ ós，$\lambda o \iota-\mu o ́ s)$ ．Examples are I．－Eur．
 dymŭ），Lat．fūmus，from the root dheu－；I．－Eur．${ }^{*} g h{ }^{\text {º }}$ ormós， ＊gh ${ }^{\text {iermos（O．Ind．gharmás，＇warmth，＇Arm．ǰerm，＇warm，＇Gk．}}$ $\theta \epsilon \rho \mu o^{\prime}$, Engl．warm），Lat．formus，from the root ghe ${ }^{\mathrm{u}}$ er－．

It was also used to form Superlatives（with Comparative in －čro－，ch．vi．$\S 5^{2}$ ），e．g．Lat．summus for $*_{\rho-u p-m o, ~ w i t h ~ C o m p . ~}^{\text {d }}$ $s-$ upero－（O．Ind．upamá－，with Comp．upara－；cf．O．Engl．yf（e）m－ est）．In Latin pulcerrimus for＊pulcersimus，＊pulcrisimus，it is affixed to the Comparative suffix－is－of măğs，\＆c．The more usual Superlative suffix however was－temo－（ $-\mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{mo}$－）（with＇Com－ parative＇in－těro－，ch．vi．§ 52），e．g．Lat．in－timus，with＇Comp．＇ intero－（O．Ind．án－tama－，with＇Comp．＇án－tara－）．（On the Lat．Superlative see ch．vi．§ 54．）But originally this suffix， like the Comparative－tero－（ch．vi．§52），had the sense rather of likeness（O．Ind．gó－tama－，lit．＇like an ox＇），or position（Lat． mărĭtimus，older mari－tumus，lit．＇placed by the sea＇）．The Ordinal Numeral ending－mus of lёсі̆mus，\＆c．may owe its $m$ to the final of the Cardinal Numeral stem ；but－$t^{\circ} \mathrm{mo}$－appears in vicèsimus，\＆c．（ch．vi § 74）．
§ 15．Other Examples：（ 1 ）of the Noun－or Adjective－suffix．Lat．ănimus （Gk．àv $\epsilon-\mu 0 s$ ）；Lat．fāma（Gk．$\phi \grave{\eta}-\mu \eta$ ）；Lat．pal－ma（Gk．$\pi a \lambda \alpha \dot{\alpha}-\mu \eta$ ，O．Ir．lā－m Fem．，O．Engl．fol－m Fem．）；Lat．culmus（Gk．九á入a－$\mu \mathrm{os}$ ，O．Engl．healm，Lett． sal－ms，O．Sl．sla－ma Fem．）；Lat．dūmus，O．Lat．dusmus Adj．（Liv．Andr． dusmo in loco）（cf．O．Ir．doss，＇a bush＇）；Lat．厄imus（O．H．G．līm，Engl．lime）．
（2）Of the Superlative suffix，（a）alone ：Lat．minnimus，brūma from brëvis for ＊breghu－（cf．Gk．Bpaxús）；Lat．infĭmus beside infërus．（b）With－is－：cělerrimus， făcillimus，simillimus，\＆c．．The suffix－temo－（－temo－）has its original sense in fīnĭ－timus，lēğ̀－timus，aedǐ－tumus，a temple attendant，which was changed in Varro＇s time to aedi－tuus，through a false reference of the word to tueor（Varro R．R．i．2．I）ab aeditimo，ut dicere didicimus a patribus nortris，ut corrigimur a recentibus urbanis，ab＇aedituo＇；cf．Gell．xii．ro）．Ultimus （Osc．ulliumo－）is Superl．of ulterior，citimus of citerior，\＆c．
§ 16．－Rǒ－，－R̄̄－．This suffix in its various forms was used to form Adjectives and Concrete Nouns，e．g．I．－Eur．＊rŭdhró－，
 rŭdrŭ ; cf. O. Scan. rōđra Fem., 'blood'), Lat. rŭber ; I.-Eur. *ăgrro-, 'a field,' from the root aĝ-, ' to drive' (O. Ind. ájra-, Gk. à $\gamma$ ós, Goth. akrs), Lat. ăger. In Latin the ending -rŏs (and $-r \check{s}$, § 40) became -er, as is seen in these two examples [cf. ch. iii. § 15 (8)]. The suffixes -ěrŏ̌- and -těrŏ-, which in Latin might through Syncope lose the $\breve{e}$ and appear as -ro-, $-t r o$ - have been already mentioned as Comparative Suffixes, corresponding to Superlatives in -mo- (-mmo-), -tmmo- (-temo-). Their original sense however was rather that of likeness, of equal than of greater degree, e. g. O. Ind. vatsa-tará-, lit. 'like a calf' (cf. Lat. mätertera), and similarly O. Ind. -tama in goó-tama-, lit. 'like an ox,' \&c. ; and in O. Ir. the suffix -tero- retains this sense, e. g. demnithir, 'equally certain' (not 'more certain'), from demin, 'certain,' while in O. Ind. and Greek it has developed into a regular Comparative suffix (but cf. Hom. $\theta \eta \lambda v ́ \tau \epsilon \rho o s$, ả $\gamma \rho o ́ \tau \epsilon \rho o s$ ). Latin nouns like filiaster, matraster, patraster have this suffix with a prefixed -as- (see Ascoli, Suppl. Arch. Glot\%. i), while in măg-is-ter, mŭu$i s$-ter, the Comparative sense belongs to the suffix -is-, not to the suffix -ter ; cŭter, exter, \&c. are not Comparatives ; ci-ter-ior, ex-ter-ior, \&c. are. (On the Latin Comparative, see ch. vi. §53). Latin Adverbs in -řter have probably this suffix, e.g. brĕviter. (see ch. ix. §2); though some have explained -iter as the noun üter, a way, so that brev-iter would correspond to the German adverb kurz-weg. It is used in Possessive Pronouns in Latin, e. g. vester, as in Gk., e. g. í $\mu \epsilon ́ \tau \epsilon \rho o s$, and in various pronominal and locative Adjectives, with the sense of 'like,' 'in the direction of,' e.g. al-ter, $\check{\imath}$-terum, süp-erus, to which Adverbs with -(t)rocorrespond, e. g. intrō (ch. iii. § 55 ). This suffix -tero-, in Lat. -tero- or -tro-, must be distinguished from the I.-Eur. suffix -TRO-, which was used to form Neuter nouns indicating an instrument, \&c., e. g. $\breve{a r} r a ̈$-trum, 'an instrument for ploughing;' a plough, and from the Latin suffix -cro- which represents the stem cerro-, making, from the root ker-, ' to make' (cf. Lat. Cerus, creare, \&c.), e.g. lüdŭ-cer, or stands by assimilation for -clo-(I.-Eur. -tlo-) when an $l$ precedes, e. g. invŏlū-crum for *involu-clum (ch. ii. § IOI). This -clo- (I.-Eur. -tlo-) is a suffix closely associated with -tro-, forming Neuter Nouns which indicate a tool or instrument. Another
suffix, -dhro-, is used in the same way, though in Latin it affects also the Feminine gender, - $b r a$ for ${ }^{*}-f r a \overline{,}$, $-d h r \bar{a}(\mathrm{ch} . \mathrm{iv} . \S$ II4), e.g. tërébra, a gimlet, borer, from tero, to bore ; crïbrum, a sieve, from cerno, to sift. Latin -ōrus, of honōrus, तlĕcōrus, cănōrus, ŏdōrus, \&c. stands for -ōso- (§ 74); we have -èrus in e. g. sĕvèrus, pröcèrus.
§ 17. Other examples of the RO-suffix. Lat. pro-sper, stem pro-spĕro- for *pro-spăro-, with the weak grade (ch. iv. §5r) of the root of spess (0. Ind. sphirá-, O. Sl. sporŭ) ; Lat. virr (O. Ir. fer, Goth. vair, Engl. wer-wolf; cf. O. Ind. vīrá-, Lith. výras) ; Lat. těněbrae for *temes-rae (O. Ind. tamis-ram, támis-rā, O. H. G. dinstar) ; Lat. сйper (Gk. кáт-pos, O. Engl. hæfer) ; Lat. măcer (Gk. $\mu a \kappa$ - ós) ; Lat. plē-rus, gnā-rus, in-tĕger, glăber for *gladhro- (cf. O. Sl. gladŭkŭ, 'smooth '), cĕrĕbrum for *ceres-rum (cf. O. Ind. síiras-, 'head'), mätū-rus (cf. pēnūria). (On Fut. Part. in -türus, see ch. viii. § 86.)
§ 18. Examples of I.-Eur. -těro- and -ěro- in Latin : ( I ) attached to Nouns. Adjectives formed with this suffix from Nouns seem to have passed into i-stems in Latin (cf. § 34) ; they have often a locative sense and correspond to Adjectives in -tïmus like măritimus, fŭnitimus: e. g. camp-ĕs-ter, silv-es-ter, \&c. which take -es- by the Analogy of Neuter ES-stems (cf. Gk. ó $\rho \dot{\epsilon} \sigma$ - тє $\rho 0 \mathrm{os}$, \&c.) ; ĕques-ter for $*_{e q u i t-t r i-, ~ p e ̆ l e s t e r ~ f o r ~ * p e d i t-t r i-; ~ p u ̈ l u ̄ s t e r ~ f o r ~ * p a l u ̈ d-t r i-, ~ t e l l u ̄ s-t e r . ~ T h e ~}^{\text {. }}$ ending -aster of Nouns or Adjectives, especially in Vulgar or colloquial Latin (cf. Ital. giovinastro, poetastro), derived from Nouns or Adjectives, implies likeness, and is often used contemptuously in the sense of 'a poor imitation of,' e. g. pĕditaster, of which Plautus uses the Diminutive in the sense of 'tagrag and bob-tail soldiery' in Mil. 54 :

> at péditastelli quía erant, siui uíuerent,

Antōniaster (Cic. fragm. orat. pro Vareno, io) ; ŏleaster, wild olive, and similarly ŭpiastrum, wild parsley, \&c. ; filiaster, a stepson, mātrastra, a stepmother, paitraster, a stepfather; surdaster, with other Adjectives indicating bodily defects, such as calvaster, claudaster, and the diminutive rärastellus from rärus, grey (v. 1. grāvastellus; cf. Gk. रpaûs?) in Plaut. Epid. 620. Derivative Adjectives show -ast(r) $\bar{\imath} n u s$, e.g. mĕdiastinus and mediastrinus, oleastinus, filiastinus. (On these formations in -aster, see A. L. L. i. 390.)
(2) Attached to Prepositions, \&c. : Lat. süpero- (0. Ind. úpara-, Gk. v̈ $\pi \in \rho o s$, O. Engl. ufer-ra with -ra for Goth. -iza), sŭp-er and sub-ter; Lat. inter-ior (O. Ind. antara-, Gk. $\neq \nu \tau \epsilon \rho o \nu$, the entrails, 0 . Sl. jętro Neut., 'the liver') ; Lat. exter ( 0. Ir. echtar), postero-, postrī-diē, contrā, praeter (ch. ix. § 2). Other locative words are cǐ-ter (Goth. hi-drē, 'hither'), dex-ter (Gk. $\left.\delta \in \xi \_-\tau \epsilon \rho o ́ s\right)$, sinn-is-ter.
(3) Forming Pronouns: Lat. ü-ter, Osc. potoro- (cf. O. Ind. katará-, Gk. $\pi \delta ́ \tau \in \rho o s$, Goth. hvałar, Lith. katràs) ; ìterum, for another time, again, from itero-, other ( 0 . Ind. ítara-, 'other'). The suffix often expresses that a pair of persons or things is spoken of, e. g. al-ter, the other (of a pair), but allius, another (of many). The Possessives 'our,' ' your' take -tero-in Latin, nos-ter, ves-ter, and Greek $\dot{\eta} \mu \epsilon ́-\tau \epsilon \rho o s, \dot{v} \mu \epsilon ́-\tau \epsilon \rho o s$, but -ero- in Teutonic, e. g. Goth. unsar, Germ. unser.
§ 19. I-Eur. -tro-. Lat. ărā̄-trum (cf. Gk. ä $\rho o-\tau \rho o \nu$, Arm. arör, Ir. arathar, W. $\operatorname{arad}(\mathbf{r})$ from aro (arātus); spectrum from spĕcio (spectus); rŭtrum from ruo
(rŭtus) ; věrětrum from vereor (veritus) (so fulgetrum from fulgeo; cf. tŏnitru from tono, tonitus A. L. L. i. 1II) ; mulctrum, a milkpail, from mulgeo (mulctus) ; rōstrum from rödo. We find -stro- in Lat. căpistrum, a halter, from cüpio (or for *capittrum from căput?), monstrum from mŏneo (cf. O. H. G. gal-star Neut., 'a song,' from galan, 'to sing'), \&c. The Dim. of monstrum is mostellum (ch. iv. § 158).
§ 20. I.-Eur. d-hro-. The Greek and O. Ir. cognates of Lat. terébra show the suffix -tro- (Gk. $\boldsymbol{\tau} \epsilon \rho \epsilon \tau \rho o \nu$, O. Ir. tarathar Neut.) ; so O. Ir. criathar, 'a sieve,' for *kreitron (cf. Lat. palpèbra and palpětra). Other examples of Lat. -bra are dölū-bra, from dolāre, whence the name (originally a nickname) Dŏlā-
 from lacio, to allure (cf. $\kappa \dot{\eta} \lambda \eta-\theta \rho o \nu$ from $\kappa \eta \lambda \epsilon \epsilon$ ). Examples of Lat. -brum are flā-brum from fläre, O. Lat. polubrum (quod Graeci $\chi^{\prime} \rho \nu \iota \beta o v$, nos trullum vocamus, Non. 544. 20 M.) from *pŏ-luo in the sense of ab-luo (cf. ch. ix. § 12), dēlūbrum, ventil̃ä-brum from ventilā-re. (On the possibility of referring all these forms to the suffix -dhlo-, see § 26). Latin -bro-, -brä- also represent an original -s-ro-, -s-rā- (ch.iv. § I52), e.g. těnëbrae (O. Ind. támisrā-) from *temis, *temus darkness (cf. tëmëre), cěrébrum (cf. O. Ind. šíras-, 'the head'); and some would explain terebra, \&c. as *teres-rā, from the Verbal Noun-stem teresseen in Inf. terere (§71).
§ 21. -LǑ-, -L L्̄A-. This suffix in its various forms was used for Nomina Agentis (Nouns and Adjectives), and often came to denote an instrument, while as a secondary suffix it was specially used to form Diminutives. Thus Engl, shovel, literally 'an instrument with which one shoves,' meant originally 'the shover' ; Engl. throstle, is a Diminutive. Latin examples are lĕgŭlus, a picker, from lego, pendŭlus, hanging, from pendo, pendeo, vincŭlum, a bond, 'an instrument for binding,' from vincio, mensŭla, a little table, from mensa. In Latin, since every short vowel in a syllable which had not the accent under the early Accent Law (ch. iii. § 5) became before $l$ the short $u$-vowel, it is impossible to distinguish -ělo- (e.g. Gk. $v \in \phi \phi^{\prime} \lambda \eta$, Lat. nĕbŭla), from -ŭlo- (e.g. Gk. $\pi a \chi v \lambda o ́ s, ~ O . ~ I n d . ~ b a h u l a ́-), ~$ \&c. Further, owing to the tendency to insert a short $u$-vowel between a consonant and $l$ to facilitate pronunciation (ch. ii. § 102), it is not always possible to decide whether the original suffix was -lo- or -ĕlo-, -ŭlo-, \&c., though in words like exemplum, \&c. (as contrasted with words like trĕmulus, \&c.) it is clear that no vowel intervened between the final consonant of the root and the LO-suffix. The wave of Syncope which passed over the Latin language reduced all these formations in Late and Vulgar Latin to -lus, -la-, -lum (e.g. aurı̆-cŏ-la, formed by adding the

Diminutive Suffix -la to the Diminutive Suffix -co- (§ 3I), in classical Latin auricula, became auricla, ōricla, whence Ital. orecchia and orecchio, Fr. oreille, \&c. (ch. iii. § 13). From these formations with the two Diminutive Suffixes -co- and -lo- we must distinguish Neuter nouns formed by the suffix -tlo-, denoting the instrument with which an action is performed, or the place of its performance. This took in Latin the form -clum, or with parasitic vowel -culum, e.g. vĕhĭ-clum (věhľculum), ' that by which one is carried,' p̄̄-clum (pōculum), 'that out of which one drinks,' cŭb̆̆-clum (cŭl̆c̆culum),' the place where one lies down'; and we have seen (ch. ii. § 154) that Plautus generally makes this suffix monosyllabic, and the Diminutive -co-lo- dissyllabic, e.g. vĕl̆ı̆clım, përīclum, but corcŭlum, uxorcŭla. The suffix -dhlo- (in Latin -bullum) had much the same function as -tlo-, e.g. stăbulum, 'a place for standing.' The presence of an $l$ in the stem of the word causes a dissimilation of -clum to -crum, -blum to -brum in ambŭlü-crum, ‘a place for walking,' \&c. (ch. iv. § 84). Beside Neuters in -bŭlum we have Passive Adjectives in -bullis, with much the same sense as the Passive Adjectives in -lis, e.g. $\breve{a} \breve{\imath}$-bilis, that can or ought to be driven, from $\breve{a} g o$, like ăğllis, 'that can easily be driven,' nimble.
§ 22. Adjectives formed by the LO-suffix. Other examples of Adjectives expressing the action of a Verb are Lat. bǐbŭlus from bỉbo, crēdŭlus from crēdo, trěmŭlus from trěmo, garrŭlus from garrio, ēmĭnŭlus from ēminneo, pŭtulus from păteo. With a passive sense they become I-stems in Latin, and indicate capacity, suitability, \&c., e. g. ăgilis (O. Ind. ajirá-), 'easily driven,' nimble, from ago, to drive, dŏcilis from dŏceo, frăgilis from frango, bibilis from bibo. This -li-suffix is often added with the same sense to P. P. P. stems, e.g. coctilis from coctus, fissilis from fissus, flexilis from flexus.

In Adjectives derived from Nouns, \&c., we find -li-, e.g. hŭmilis (Gk. $\chi \theta a \mu a-$ $\lambda o ́ s)$ from hümus, herbilis from herba, similiis (Gk. ó $\mu \mathrm{a} \lambda$ ós) (on these see § 40). Active Verbal Adjectives in -lo- are used in O. Sl. in the periphrastic perfect tense, e.g. zna-lŭ jesmi, 'I have known,' lit. 'I am acquainted,' from znati, 'to know.'
§ 23. Nouns denoting the Agent or the Instrument, e. g. Lat. figurlus, a potter, from fingo; tēgŭla from těgo; régŭla from régo (unless these are Diminutives of *tēga, *rēga ; cf. col-lēga ; cf. § 3) ; căpŭlus from cŭpio ; spěcǔla, a place of outlook, and spĕculum, a looking-glass, from spěcio, to look ; torcülum (with Adj. torculus), a wine-press (later torcular), from torqueo; cingǔlum and cingulus, a girdle, from cingo ; jăcǔlum, (1) a javelin, (2) a throw-net (rete iaculum, Plaut. Truc. 35), and jaculus, a kind of snake, from jăcio ; sella for *sed-la (Lac. Gk. $\dot{\epsilon} \lambda \lambda a \dot{a})$ from sědeo; grallae from grădior : pīlum for *pinslum, a pestle, from pinso.

Often we have the terminations -slo-, -slā-, e. g. -älum for *ans-lum, from ans(cf. O. Sl. ach-ati, 'to be fragrant'), a byform of the root an-, 'to breathe'; pülus for *pax-lus (cf. Diminutive paxillus), from pango ; vēlum, a sail, for *vexlum (cf. vexillum), from věho (ef. O.Sl. veslo, 'a rudder'). Nouns in -ēla may be derived from Neuter es-stems (e g. quĕrēla for *queres-la, sĕquēla for *seques-la) or may have had originally é (e. g. ci-cindēla, a glow-worm, from candeo, candē-re, like Gk. $\mu \mu \eta \lambda \hat{o}^{\prime}$ from $\left.\mu \mu \mu^{\prime} о \mu a \iota\right)$. These nouns in -ēla were in Late and Vulgar Latin confused with Diminutives and became querêlla, sequèlla, \&c. (see ch. ii. § гзо), just as camēlus became camèlus, cucïlus became cucullus, angṻla (A. L. L. viii. 442) became anguilla. We have -rum for -lum by dissimilation of $l$ in scalp.rum from scalpo, \&c.
§ 24. Diminutives. Lat. cistula; auxilla from aula (olla) for *aux-la; porculus (Germ. Ferkel) ; servolus; filiolus; līneola; lactucula from lactīca; lŏquāc-ulus; mǐsellus (occasionally misĕrulus); Ātella (Osc. Aderlā-) ; asellus from ăsĭmus; gemellus from gèmini ; lapillus from läpŭd-. Sometimes this termination is added a second time, e.g. cistella from cistula; ollula from olla; porcellus from porculus; usellulus from asellus; gemellulus from gemellus. Sometimes it is added to the ${ }^{-}$ Diminutive suffix- co-, e. g. olľ̆-cu-la, servì-cu-lus, cor-cu-lum, légiun-cu-la, căn̄̄-cu-la (cf. febrī-cul̄̄sus, mëtū̄-culōsus), c̆pì-cu-la, vallē-cu-la, diē-cu-la, corpus-cu-lum, artī-cu-lus. The Diminutive retains the Gender of the simple Noun, unlike Greek Diminutives in -tov, which are Neuter (A. L. L. iv. 169). This suffix -cilles gives to Adjectives the sense of 'somewhat,' e. g. mélius-culus, 'somewhat better,' and other Comparatives like plus-culus, majus-culus, \&c. ; also grandĭ-cu'us, dulcǐ-culus, lĕveri-culus, \&c. With the Diminutive suffix -lo-, familiar or pet names are often formed in I.-Eur. languages, e. g. Gk. ©paбv́-入os, the familiar form of $\Theta \rho a \sigma \dot{v}_{-}$ $\mu a \chi o s, G o t h . ~ V u l f i-l a$. The gradual weakening of the diminutive force of these suffixes, which is to some extent accountable for the doubling of the suffix in puellula, cistella, \&c. (cf. anellus from ānulus, Dim. of ānus, a large ring, e. g. Plaut. Merr. 85 anum lima praeterunt) is seen in words like ancilla (Fem. of servus), which had ceased to be a Diminutive as early as the time of Plautus. Adulescentulus always differs from älülescens in Plautus, but in Terence is hardly distinguishable. Diminutives were a feature of Vulgar Latin, as we see from the forms censured in the Probi Appendix : juvencus non 'juvenclus' (197. 29 K.) ; catulus non 'catellus' (198. 2), auris non 'oricla' (198. II ; cf. Ital. orecchio, Fr. oreille) ; fax non 'facla' (198.23) ; neptis non 'nepticla,' anus non 'anucla' (199. 1) ; mergus non 'mergulus' (199.7). The ending -ělus, as we have seen, may denote a Diminutive of a LO-Diminutive, e.g. त̄nellus (on -ell-, see ch. iv. § ro), Dim. of annulus, or the Diminutive of a Noun with a RO-suffix, e.g. ăgellus from ăgro- for *agrŏ-lo- (ch. iii. § 15. 8), or of a Noun with ĕ in the penult, e.g. fēmella from fēmina (earlier -mena). Similarly we have -ìlus for -ìd-lus in lapillus, -èlla for -èn-la in catēlla, sillum for -īn-lum in vīllum, -ŭllus (older -ŏllus) for -ŏn-lus in hŏmullus, -ōlla for -ōn-la in corrōlla, -ūllus for -ūnlus in $\overline{l l l u s, ~-a ̄ l l u s ~ f o r ~-a ̈ n-l u s ~ i n ~ H i s p a ̈ l l u s, ~ \& c . ~(c f . ~ n i ̄ ̀ t e d u l a ~ a n d ~ n i ̄ t e l l a) . ~}$
§ 25. Neuters formed with the Suffx -tlo-. Lat. discernicculum (' acus quae capillos mulierum ante frontem dividit: dictum a discernendo,' Non. 35. 29 M.) ; piāclum (piäculum), 'a means of appeasing the gods,' a victim, then 'a sin for which the gods must be appeased,' from piäre; rëceptāculum from receptīre; pavicula, a mallet, from păvīre; sediculum from sĕleo ('sediculum'
sedile, Paul. Fest. 500. 9 Th.) ; ŏperculum from operio (opertus) ; sĕpulcrum, from sëpělio (sepultus). We have -crum by dissimilation of $l-l$ in lăvã-crim, ' a place for bathing,' from laväre ; invŏlūcrum from involvo, \&c.
§ 26. The suffix -dhlo-. Lat. lŭtibulum, 'a place for hiding,' from lateo ; rēnëbulum, 'an instrument for hunting,' a hunting-spear, from renäri; vectābulum (quod nunc vehiculum dicitur, Non. 54. 26 M.) ; conciliäbulum (locus ubi in concilium convenitur, Paul. Fest. 27. 9 Th.) ; cf. fäbula, sūbula. We may have -brum by dissimilation of $l-l$ in lüräbrum ; and it is possible that some, or all, of the examples of Lat. -brum (I.-Eur. -dhro--), quoted in § 20 , had originally -blo- and not-bro-, e.g. po-lubrum. Just as I-stem adjectives with a Passive sense like agglis, ' easily driven,' are connected with Neuter Instrumentals in-lo- like ̆̆gŭlum ('agolum,' pastorale baculum, quo pecudes aguntur, Paul. Fest. 21. 37 Th.), so we have Passive I-stem Adjectives connected with the suffix-dhlo-, e. g. amā-bilis, horrí-bilis, fē-billis, vŏlū-bĭlis, mō-bǐlis, intell̆̆ğ-b̌̌lis, \&c. (cf. Umbr. façefele 'facibile'), sometimes derived from the P. P. P. stem, e. g. persuäsì-bĭlis, flexĭ-bilis, sensǐ-bǐlis, and sometimes showing -bris (-ber) for -bilis, when an $l$ precedes, e. g. c̆lebbris (and ălübilis), ancläbris. For a list of Adj.j. in -bulis in early authors (e.g. nōbilis, known, Plaut. Pseucl. 1112 neque illis nobilis fui ; cf. Pacuv. Trag. 221 R.), see Hanssen in Philol. xlvii. 274, who denies that they ever have a transitive sense, e. g. incogitabilis, 'thoughtless,' Plaut.
§ 27. -TŎ-, -TĀ-. This I.-Eur. suffix was used to form (r) Verbal Adjectives, which in Latin and some other languages have the function of perfect participles passive, e.g. gĕnй-tus from the root gen-, while with the negative particle prefixed they may express incapacity, e.g. I.-Eur. *nmrto-, 'incapable of being killed,’ immortal (O. Ind. amị́ta-, Gk. ä $\mu \beta \rho o \tau o s)$; (2) Ordinal Numbers, and when added to the Comparative suffix -is- (§ 76), Superlatives ; e.g. I.-Eur. *sěk̂sto- (O. Ind. ṣaṣ̌-ṭhá-, Gk. ćк-тos, Goth. saihs-ta, an N-stem), Lat. sextus; I.-Eur. *ō̂̂k-is-to- (O. Ind. áś-iṣṭha-, Gk. ఱ̈кıбтоs). In Latin this formation of Superlatives is not found, but another, e.g. ōcissimus (ch. vi. § 54). Abstract Nouns in -tā- are found beside Verbal Adjectives in -to-, e.g. Gk. $\gamma \in \nu \epsilon \tau \eta$, birth, Goth. junda 'juventa' ', which occasionally pass into a concrete sense and become Masculine. e. g. $\gamma \in \nu \in ́ \tau \eta s$, in $\pi$ ór $\eta \boldsymbol{s}$ (cf. Lat. ĕques from an earlier Abstract Fem. *equita?), though the suffix in Latin was ousted by $-t \bar{a} s$, $-t \bar{u} d o$, \&c. (§ 67). I.-Eur. -to- is often seen added to the MEN-

[^63]sense of 'period of youth' and 'a number of young men.' (Fleck. Jahrb. Suppl. r89r.) We have aetate iuenta on an inscription (C.I. L. i. 1202).
suffix (§54) in neuter nouns, e.g. Lat. cognō-men-tum beside cogno-men, such forms being apparently the Neuter of Participles or Verbal Adjectives, formed not from verbs but from nouns, e. g. *cogno-mentus beside cogno-mŭnātus, like scĕlestus beside scelĕrātus (cf. Engl. compounds like 'bare-footed,' 'black-headed,' where the participial suffix is added to the nouns 'foot,' 'head '). The forms with -mentum are, as a rule, those used by prose writers, the forms with -men being relegated to poetry. With -mentum, Plur. -menta has been compared Gk. Plur. - $\mu a \tau a$, e.g. $\sigma \tau \rho \omega ́ \mu a \tau a($ Lat. strämenta), кабб́v́цата (cf. Lat. assūmenta).
§28. Participles in tus. The weak grade of the root is used with I.-Eur. verbal adjectives in -to-, and the suffix is accented, e. g. I.-Eur. *k̂lŭ-tó-, 'heard, heard of, famous,' from the root k̂leu-, 'to hear,' [O. Ind. šrutá-, Gk. $\kappa \lambda$ йтós, which perhaps retains the old sense of 'heard,' 'loud' in such Homeric phrases as $\kappa \lambda v \tau \grave{\alpha} \mu \hat{\eta} \lambda a, O$. Ir. cloth, from *clŭto-, O. H. G. Hlot-hari (from O. H. G. hari, Germ. Heer), the name Lothair, corresponding to Greek
 with the noun we often find the high-grade and the accent on the root, e.g. Gk. коít from $\kappa \epsilon i \mu a l$, oîtos from $\epsilon i \bar{i} \mu$, \&c. In Latin -sus replaced -tus when the verbal stem ended $d$ or $t\left(\mathrm{ch} . \mathrm{iv}\right.$. § $\mathbf{1 5 5}$ ), e. g. salsus from sallo for ${ }^{\text {saldo }}$; occasionally the P. P. P. took -sus when the Perfect Ind. had -si, e. g. tersus from tergeo (Perf. Indic. tersi), though the older spelling appears in the earlier literature, e.g. tertus (Varro) (see ch. viii. § 92 ; ch. iv. § 155 ).

Examples of Latin participles in -tus are strätus (from the root ster-, O. Ind. stṛta-, Gk. $\sigma \tau \rho \omega \tau$ ós, O. Sl. -stritŭ) ; mulctus from the ront melg. (Lith. mitsztas) ; com-mentus from the root men- (O. Ind. matá-, Gk. aú $\dot{\prime}-\mu a \tau o s$, Goth. munds, Lith. miñtas, O. Sl. mettŭ) ; Lat. gnätus from the root gen-, *ĝnā- (O. Ind. jātá-, Goth. -kunds) ; Lat. sūtus for *syūto- (O. Ind. syūtá-, Gk. vєo-ká $\tau \bar{v} \tau \bar{\tau}$ s, Lith. siútas, O. Sl. šitŭ ; Lat. gnōtus (O. Ind. jñātá-, Gk. $\gamma \nu \omega \tau u ́ s$, O. Ir. gnāth) ; Lat. junctus (cf. O. Ind. yŭktá-, Gk. §єvkтós). The different treatment of the stem vowel before the suffix is exemplified by ămätus, dŏmĭtus from first conj. Verbs; viētus, vĕgĕtus, exercitus (but ar(c)tus), mŏnitus (but Monēta), mulctus from second conj.; allitus and altus, cultus, factus (but făcētus) from third conj. ; fīnitus and ŏpertus from fourth conj. (On these Verb-stems see ch. viii.) ; aegrō-tus, argū-tus, inclŭ-tus, cītus and cìtus. Words like pā̄āti, - armed with the pilum,' barbātus ( $\mathbf{O}$. Sl. bradatü), aurītus, cinctütus, do not of course imply the existence of verbs, *pilare, *barbare, *aurire, \&c. Of similar formations from Noun- or Adjective-stems examples are : Lat. lībertus beside libëratus; ŏnustus beside onĕratus; sĕnectus from senex; and the words indicating a place planted with trees, \&c., e. g. arbus-tum, sălic-tum, the Neuters of arbustus, 'provided with trees' (arbustus sive silvestris, Columella), \&c. (Arbörétum is a quasi-participle from *arboreo, arboresco,-ike ăcètum from acesco; so nŭc-ētum, pin-etum, ilìc-etum. The -cêtum of ilicetum, \&c. and the -ctum of salictum, \&c. were extended by false analogy, e.g. būcetum, virrectum). For a list of Adjectives in -estus, -ustus, -utus with this sense of 'provided with,' see Rönsch, Collect. p. 217, and cf. Plaut. Capt. 392 : qui me honore honestiorem semper
fecit et facit). Latin participles in -to- have often become nouns, e.g. tectum, lēgatus, rěpulsa, sënecta, or Adjectives (ch. viii.§ 92), e.g. sanctus, lätus, broad (for *stlätus, from the root stel-, ' to extend,' O. Sl. stelją).
§ 29. Abstract Nouns in -ta (-sa). The Fem. of the Participles rěpulsus, dēprensus, \&c. is used in an abstract sense : repulsa, 'defeat at an election,' deprensa, 'genus militaris animadversionis, castigatione major, ignominia minor' (Paul. Fest. 50.30 Th.). These Abstracts must be distinguished from Concretes like torta (sc. plăcenta), a roll, expensa (sc. pěcūnia), a sum expended (for a fuller list, see Rönsch, Collect. p. 195). The Fem. Abstract *equita,' horsemanship,' seems to have been made a Masc. Concrete in 0 . Lat. with the sense also of 'a horse'; thus Ennius ( $A .249$ M.), describing a charge of cavalry and elephants, says :
denique ui magnal quadrupes eques atque elephanti proiciunt sese,
a usage imitated by Virgil (G. iii. ri6) :
equitem docuere sub armis insultare solo et gressus glomerare superbos, and commented on by Aulus Gellius (xviii. 5 ; cf. Non. 106. 24 M.).
§ 30. Neuters in -mentum. Other examples are augmentum beside augmen poet.) : fundämentum beside fundamen (poet.); intëgŭmentum beside tegumen, tĕğ̀men, tegmen ; cognōmentum beside cognomen ; termentum and trīmentum beside tërimen; argümentum, from arguo, 'a making clear,' a proof, then 'the subject of a story, picture, \&c.,' e.g. Virg. A. vii. 791 argumentum ingens; Prop. iii. 9. 13: argumenta magis sunt Mentoris addita formae ; restimentum, from vestio; caementum for *caed-mentum (ch. iv. § 16r) from caedo; jugmentum (et paries, C.I.L. vi. 24710), and jugumentum (Cato) ; jümentum from juvo, according to Augustine, Quaest. in Heptat. iii. 2 and v. 38 ; mōmentum beside mōmen (poet.) from mŏveo. Nümen, crīmen, culmen (cf. cŏlŭmen), \&c. have no byforms in -mentum; implëmentum, incrëmentum, mŏnŭmentum, \&c. have no byforms in -men.
§ 31. -KŎ-, -K. $\bar{A}-$. I.-Eur. -ko-, the -y of Engl. 'stony,' ' angry,' \&c., is rarely -k̂o- (with palatal k), e.g. I.-Eur. *yŭwṇ̂ko(O. Ind. yuvašá-, O. Ir. ōac, W. ieuanc, Goth. juggs), Lat. jürencus, but usually -ko- or - $q^{\text {u }} 0$-. It is used as a primary suffix, e.g. cascus (cf. cānus for *casnus, Osc. casnar) fiscus (cf. $_{\text {fin }}$ furvus for ${ }^{*}$ fusuus), but mainly as a secondary suffix employed in the formation of Adjectives from Adverbs, e.g. antīcus (of place), antīquus (of time) from ante (cf. O. Ind. antǐká-), Nouns, e.g. bellŭcus, cīř̌cus, and Adjectives, e.g. O. Ind. nágnaka-, 'naked,' beside nagná-, having often a diminutive significance, which is in Latin denoted by ccullus (§24), the addition to -coof the other diminutive suffix -lo- (§21), e.g. nigrïculus beside
năger, ŏricula (O. Sl. ovǐca), [allŭcare and nigrŭcare are Verbs with the Diminutive KO-suffix (ch. viii. § 33 (7)], (cf. hı̆mun-c-io and liomun-cu-lus, sёnĕca, Non. 17.18 M., senecio and senйculus), as in Gk. by -ьбко- of паıঠíккоs, \&c. We also find it preceded by ı̆, e. g. $\epsilon i \rho \omega \nu-\iota \kappa o ́ s, L$ Lat. histriōn-icus (without the vowel we should have had *histriuncus), often -tüco-, e. g. rus-ticus, herbï-ticus, errā-ticus after the analogy of Participle-stems in -to- (§ 28); by ì, e. g. Goth. mahteigs,' mighty,' Lat. $\breve{u ̈ m \bar{u} c u s, ~ p u ̆ d \bar{\imath} c u s ~(\bar{\imath} ~ n o t ~ e i ~}$ is attested for mendīcus by Plaut. Rud. I 305 ; see ch. iv. § 34) ; by $\bar{a}, \mathrm{e} . \mathrm{g}$. mĕräcus. Adjectives in -āko- had the sense of English adjectives in -ish, e. g. Lith. sałdókas, ' sweetish,' and came in some languages to acquire the force of Comparatives, e.g. Lett. saldáks, 'sweeter,' W. glanach, ' fairer.'

In Latin the -ko- and $-q^{\mathrm{n}}{ }^{0}$ - suffixes seem often to have been confused, e.g. antīcus and antīquus, tesca or tesqua, lit. 'dry places,' for *tersc-, from the root ters-, 'to dry' (cf. torreo, Gk. $\tau ' \rho \rho \sigma о \mu a \iota)$, and, as in Greek, \&c. there are often byforms of the Consonantal declension, e. g. bĭlüx, \&c. beside meräcus, fèlīx, \&c. beside pudī̀us, \&c., like Greek $\mathfrak{\eta} \lambda \iota \xi$ and $\hat{\eta} \lambda i \kappa о s, \mu \epsilon i \rho \rho a \xi$ (O. Ind.
 trücius, adventīcius, commendāt̄̄̄cius, \&c.; for -ācus we have -āceus in herbāceus, gall̄̀nāceus, ărund̆̆nāceus, \&c.

[^64]§ 33. Adjectives in -ĭcius. Denominatives (i.e. derivatives from Nouns
or Adjectives) have -1̆-, e. g. patricius from păter, natalĭcius from nätālis ; Derivatives from P. P. P. in -to (Vb. Nouns in -tio-, -ti-) have -i-, e.g. dediticius from dēdĭtus, insiticius (cf. insĭtīvus) (also nŏvīcius). (For a full list, see A. L. L.v. $4^{15}$.)
§ 34. Suffixes ending in $\check{\overline{1}}$ (Nouns and Adjectives of third Declension). -Ǐ-. In the declension of these stems ĭ varies with ei and oi (see ch. vi.). The Ĭ-stems are often confused with IOstems (§ 4), with $\overline{\mathrm{I}}$-stems (§ 5 I ), and with YĒ-stems (§ 5I). Examples of the primary suffix -1- are Lat. anguis (Lith. angìs, O. Sl. ąži, Arm. auj), and another I.-Eur. word for a snake, *ĕğhi- (O. Ind. áhi-, Zend aži-, Arm. iž, Gk ěxıs).

Neuter Ĭ-stems in I.-Eur. (like Neuter R-stems, \&c., see § 56) seem occasionally to show a heteroclite declension, a nasal replacing the vowel in oblique cases, e.g. O. Ind. ákṣ̌i, akṣṇás Gen., ' the eye,' ásthi, asthnás Gen., ‘a bone,' which may have led to a confusion of I- and N -stems in such words as I.-Eur.*aksi-, ' an axle' (Lat. axis, Lith. aszìs, O. Sl. osı̌ ; but Gk. ág $\omega \nu$ ). As a secondary suffix -i- is used in many languages to give an adjectival sense, especially in the formation of Compound Adjectives from Nouns, e.g. Lat. exsomnis from somnus, O. Ir. essamin for $*_{\text {exomni-, }}$ from omun ( ${ }^{*}$ omno-), 'fear,' though we often find in the early Latin literature the O-stem, e. g. ınnermus, class. inermis (so Gaulish Exobnus, Exomnus for O. Ir. essamin).

In Latin the I-declension has been greatly extended; thus consonantal stems of the third declension often take the 1 -stem case-suffixes, e. g. pĕd- $\breve{\imath}$-bus, fërent-ium, \&c.; and a stem-suffix ending in ŏ or $\breve{u}$ passes readily, if it be an adjective, into an
 (I.-Eur. *nāu-, O. Ind. nāús, Gk. vav̂s), brĕvis (cf. Gk. $\beta \rho a x u ́ s)$, lëvis (cf. O. Ind. raghus, Gk. $\epsilon-\lambda a \chi$ v́s, Lith. lenguriss). The Greek loanword hülürus (inapós) is also hilaris by the time of Terence.
§ 35. Other examples of I-stems. Lat. ensis (O. Ind. así-) ; Lat. trŭdis from trūdo (root treud-, Goth. us-priutan, 'to trouble,' Engl. thrust, threat, O. S1. trudŭ, 'toil') ; Lat. rŭdis, unworked, rude, originally of metal, from the root reudh-, 'to be red' (cf. raudus, unworked metal, ch. iv. §4r) ; jügis, continual, from jungo ; Lat. scöbis from scăbo ; Lat. măre (O. Ir. muir Neut., for *mori, O. H. G. meri Neut., Germ. Meer Neut., Engl. mere).
§ 36. Adjective I-stems from O-stems. Other examples are: O. Lat. sublimus, e.g. Enn. Trag. 2 R. deum sublimas subices, Lucr. i. 340 sublimaque caeli (see Munro's note) ; O. Lat. stërilus, e.g. Lucr. ii. 845 sonitu sterila (cf. Paul. Fest. 463. I Th. 'sterilam' sterilem). Greek aüqunpós had the same tendency to the I-declension in Latin as Greek inapós, for Caper gives
a caution against the form austeris (p. 108. 4 K.). Nonius ( 494.26 M.) quotes prōnis from Varro (Men. 39r B.). On O. Lat. forctus, see ch. viii. § 92.

The Noun torris from the root ters- (Gk. T'́pooual ; cf. Lat. torreo for ${ }^{*}$ torseo, ch. viii. § 23) was in O. Lat. torrus (Non. 15. 22 M. ; Serv. ad Aen. xii. 298 'hic torris'. . . ita nunc dicimus : nam illud Ennii et Pacuvii penitus de usu recessit ut 'hic torrus, hujus torri' dicamus), but is rather to be explained as an $\overline{\mathrm{E}}$-stem become an I-stem (like sordes, §5r). The form torres F., a burning, read by Lachmann in Lucretius iii. 917 (MSS. torret) is doubtful (A.L. L. viii. $5^{87}$ ). On hilarus beside hilaris, see Neue, $\mathrm{ii}^{3}$. p. 149.
§ 37. -NI-. This suffix, varying with -ěni-, -ŏni-, \&c. is more common in those languages which have extended the use of the P. P. P. in -no- (§ 8) than in Latin. Examples are: Lat. ignis (cf. O. Ind. agní-, Lith. ugnìs F., O. Sl. ognĭ M.), Lat. clūnis (O. Ind. šróṇi-, O. Scand. hlaunn, Lith. szłaunìs). Adjectives in -nis may bave been originally NO-stems (§ 36), e.g. immaninis from O. Lat. mānus, good (with a bystem in -ni-, Mänes, lit. ' the good deities'); cf. Janis, a byform of Janus, in Carm. Sal. (Tert. Apol. го).
§ 38. Other examples of Latin -nis. Lat. amnis for *ab-nis (cf. O. Ir. abann), Lat. crīnis for *crisnis (cf. Lat. crista), pänis for *pasnis (cf. Lat. pastillus).
§ 39. -MI- is a still rarer suffix than -ni-. An example is Lat. vermis (O. H. G. wurm), a word the relation of which to I.-Eur. *qựrmi- (O. Ind. kṛ́mi-, O. Ir. cruim, W. pryf, Lith. kirmis) is not quite clear. Latin Adjectives in -mis like ŭnermis, sublìmis were originally -MO-stems (cf. § $3^{6}$ ) ; thus Nonius 489. 7 M. gives some examples of sublimus from the older literature (cf. Georges, Lex. Worlf. s. v.).
§ 40. -RI-, -LI-. These are not nearly so common I.-Eur. suffixes as -ro-, -lo-, e. g. O. Lat. ŏcris, a hill (in Umbrian, \&c.
 áśri-, but also Gk. ák $\kappa \rho s$ ), Lat. tālis, quālis (O. Sl. tolĭ Adv., kolĭ Adv.; cf. Gk. $\tau \eta \lambda i-\kappa o s, \pi \eta \lambda i-\kappa o s)$; but -li- is fairly frequent in the Slavonic languages, where the P.P.P. in -lo- is much in vogue. In Latin, Adjective -RO- and -LO- stems often show -ris, -lis, e.g. O. Lat. säcres, used of animals for sacrifice (e.g. Plaut. Rud. 1208 súnt domi agni et pórci säc̈res) beside sŭcer (cf. Mānes
 $\left.\chi \theta a \mu a \lambda o{ }^{\prime}\right)$. And the use of -li- and -ri- for Adjectives derived from Nouns is very widely extended in Latin, far more widely
than in any other I.-Eur. language, e. g. vītālis from vīta, ālāris for *alalis (?) from $\bar{a} l a$, so that the Greek Adj. $\delta a \psi \iota \lambda \eta$ 's, when borrowed by Latin, assumed the form dapsĭlis. Dialectal examples are Osc. luisarifs, ' *lusaribus,' Sab. Flusare 'Florali,' while Osc. Fiuusasiais ' Florariis' has -āsio- (Lat. -ārio-, § 4).
§ 41. Other examples of Latin -li-, -ri-. üter, a skin, for *ŭd-ri-, beside ütërus (O. Lat. uterum) ; ācer, sharp (cf. Gk. äкpos). Verbal Adjectives in -lis are, as we have seen ( $\$ 22$ ), byforms with Passive sense of Active Verbal Adjectives in -lus, e. g. ăgйis, 'easily driven,' bübŭlis, 'easily drunk' (beside bibullus, 'easily drinking,' inclined to drink), dŏcìi is (like dŏcĭb̆lis); sometimes formed from the Perf. Part. Pass., e.g. fictilis, fissilis, flexilis (and flexibilis), hämätilis et saxãtilis (Plaut. Rud. 299), missilis. 'The ending -ilis of aedilis has I.-Eur. ì, not ei, to judge from old inscriptions, e. g. C.I.L. i. 6I aidilis (cf. ib. 3 r). This -ilis (proper to I- and IO-stems) as well as -allis (proper to $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stems) is often extended by analogy ; e.g. ănīlis (for *anūlis) by analogy of sĕnülis; vernillis is from verna, vernälis from ver; from libra, a pound, we have librilis and librälis; from scurra, scurrīls; from manu not *manūlis, but manuālis (so dorsuälis from dorso-). Examples of eèlis are fưdèlis from fưdē-, crūdēlis (cf. fümé-lĭcus, contŭmē-lia) as well
 From O-stems we have puërilis, virīlis, hërīlis, servīlis, \&c.; annälis, fätālis, \&c.; from Cons.-stems căpǐt-älis, virgĭn-älis, hospĭt-ālis, jŭvĕnālis and jŭvĕn̄̄lis, \&c.
§ 42. -TI-. As -to- was the I.-Eur. suffix of Verbal Adjectives, especially of the Perfect Participle Passive, so -ti- was the suffix of Verbal Nouns (Nomina Actionis), e.g. Gk. $\pi \iota \sigma \tau o{ }^{\prime} s$ and $\pi i \sigma \tau \iota s$. These nouns were of the feminine gender, had the weak form of the root, and are accented sometimes on the suffix, and sometimes on the root, e.g. O. Ind. matí- and máti- for I.-Eur. *mp̣-ti-(Lat. mens) from the root men-, ' to think.' In Latin, as in Celtic, we find this suffix enlarged by an EN-suffix, e.g. Lat. mentio, Acc. mentiōnem, O. Ir. -mitiu-, -mitin Acc., and this compound suffix, which in Latin supplanted almost entirely the older -ti-, appears also in other languages, e.g. Goth. rapjō (Lat. rătio), Gk. $\delta \omega \tau i t \nu \eta$ (cf. Lat. dŭtio, Acc. dationem). The supplanting may be accounted for, wholly or partly, by the change which the phonetic laws of the Latin language would produce in the TI-suffix, a change which would often make the suffix unrecognizable. From the root men-, the Verbal Noun *mntibecame mens in Latin and from the root bher-, the Noun *bhrtibecame fors, while from mĕto we have messis for *met-tis, from the root wes-, vestis, from sătiüre, sătiās, \&c., forms whose common formation has been obscured past recognition. A similar
explanation has been offered for the fact that in Teutonic also the same suffix -ti- ceased to be a living suffix, namely that under the working of the Teutonic phonetic laws it would assume the various forms -pi, -di, -ti, -si, \&c. The older suffix remains in Adverbs like raptim, furtim, \&c. (see ch. ix. § 4).

Occasionally the feminine abstract passed into a concrete noun and might change its gender. Thus Lat. hostis (Goth. gasts, ' a guest,' O. Sl. gostř) may have been originally abstract, just as Lat. agrǐcŏla, a field-tiller, meant originally 'field-tillage' (§ 2).

The secondary suffix -tāti- (or -tāt-), used to form feminine Abstract Nouns, derived from Adjectives and Nouns, and the similar suffix -tūti- (or -tūt-) exhibit this suffix -ti- added to the suffixes -tā- and -tu-, e. g. Lat. jŭventās beside jŭventa (see § 27). The suffix -tāti- (-tāt-) is found in O. Ind., Greek, and Latin, while -tūti- (-tūt-) is found in Latin, Celtic, and Teutonic, e.g. Lat. nŏrı̆tās (Gk. vєórns), Lat. ūnưtūs (O. Ir. oentu), Lat. jŭventūs. (O. Ir. ōitiu). In Latin, in addition to -tūti- (-tūt-), which is much less in use than -tāti- (-tāt-), we find a form augmented by an N -suffix, -tūdo, Gen. -tūdinis, e. g. servītūdo beside servĭtūs, hŭlŭrĭtudo (so in Plaut., not hilaritas), beätŭtudo, which (with beatitas) was a coinage of Cicero (Quint. viii. 3. 32).
§ 43. Other examples of the suffix -ti- in Latin. Latin vectis, a lever (cf. vectio), from weho; Lat. vitis from the root wei-, ' to plait, weave'; Lat. messis (cf. messio) from mëto ; Lat. fors (O. Ind. bhṛtí-, O. Ir. brith, Goth. ga-baurps, O. H. G. giburt, O. Engl. gebyrd, 'fate') from fëro ; Lat. mens (O. Ind. matí and máti-, Goth. gamunds, ana-minds, Lith. at-mintis, O. Sl. pamętǐ) from the root men-, 'to think' (cf. mentio) ; Lat. gens, from gigno (cf. nätio for ${ }^{*}$ gnatio) ; Lat. mors (O. Ind. mrti-, O. Lith. mirtis, O. Sl. sŭ-mrǐtĭ) from mŏrior; Lat. dōs (O. Ind, dắti-, Lith. důtis, O. Sl. datĭ) from root dō- (cf. dătio, Gk. $\delta \omega \pi t \stackrel{t}{ } \boldsymbol{\eta}$ ) ; so Lat. cōs beside cătus (ch. iv. § 54); Lat. ars (O. Ind. ṛtí- means 'attack') ; Lat. pars (cf. portio) ; Lat. grātes beside grātus; Lat. quiēs beside quiètus (inquies for inquietus is due to the tendency to turn Compound Adjectives into I-stems) ; Lat. vestis from the root wes-, 'to clothe,' meant originally, like our word ' clothing,' the act of arraying oneself, then the raiment itself.
§44. Examples of Lat. -tiōn-. Lat. vīsio (cf. O. Ind. vitti-, O. Sl. -vistĭ and véstǐ) from the root weid-, 'to see, know' ; Lat. -ventio (cf. O. Ind. gáti-, Gk. Bácts, O. H. G. cunft, Lith. -gimtis) from the root $g^{\text {nem-, }}$ ' to come'; Lat. sătio (cf. Gk. äv-Etis, Goth. -sēps, 'seed,' Lith. sêti) from the root sē-, 'to throw, throw seed '; Lat. con-dititio for *con-dütio (cf. O. Ind. -hiti-, Gk. $\theta^{\prime}$ '́ts, Goth. -dēps, 'a deed,' O. Sl. -dextī) from the root dhē-, 'to put, place '; Lat. ăd-eptio for *ad-ăptio (cf. O. Ind. ápti-) beside aptus; Lat. ex-plētio (cf. O. Ind. prāti-, Gk. $\pi \lambda \hat{\eta} \sigma \iota s$ ), beside ex-plētus ; Lat. nōtio for *gnōtio (cf. O. Ind. -jn̄āti-, ' the act of knowing,'
jn̂ātí-, 'an acquaintance,' Gk. $\gamma \nu \omega \bar{\omega} \tau \iota$, O. H. G. ur-chnāt, O. Sl. po-znatĭ, Goth. ga-kunps, ga-kunds, Germ. Kunst, O. Sl. zętī, 'son-in-law') beside ( $g$ ) nötus; Lat. dictio (cf. O. Ind. diş̧ti-, Gk. $\delta \in \epsilon \hat{i} \iota \iota$, O. H. G. -ziht) from the root deik-; Lat. stătio (cf. O. Ind. sthíti-, Gk. oráoıs, O. H. G. stat, O. Sl. -statî) from stare; Lat. in-tentio (cf. O. Ind. tati-, Gk. rá $\sigma \iota s$ ) from the root ten-, 'to stretch'; Lat. junctio (cf. O. Ind. yukti-, Gk. $\zeta \epsilon \hat{v} \xi \varsigma \iota$, Lith. jùnkti) from jungo.
§45. Adjectival -ti- for -to- in Latin. The same tendency to turn O-stem Adjectives into I-stems, which we have seen in similis (Gk. $\delta \mu a \lambda o ́ s$ ), hŭmilis (Gk. $\chi$ Өaرa入ós), appears in an adjective like fortis, in O. Lat. forctus (Paul. Fest. 73. 9 Th . horctum et forctum pro bono dicebant), originally a P. P. P. from the root dherghh-, 'to establish' (O. Ind. dṛdhá-, 'stablished, firm'). The older spelling forctis occurs in the clause of the XII Tables quoted by Festus (524. 15 Th.), which provided : ut idem juris esset Sanatibus quod Forctibus, the Sanates being allies who had revolted but had returned to their allegiance, 'quasi sanata mente,' the Forctes being those who had never broken faith [cf. Paul. Fest. 59. 26 Th. forctis (MSS. forctes), frugi et bonus, sive validus]. The word Sanates shows a similar transference to the I-declension of the P. P. P. of sünare, and throws light on the termination, -ās O. Lat. -ätis (see ch. iii. § r6), which indicates the country or the party to which one belongs, e.g. optĩmates, infïmatis (Plaut. Stich. 493), Arpīnates.
§ 46. Other examples of Lat. -tāt(i)-, -tūt(i)-, -tūdin-. The tendency of the I-stems to encroach on the Consonant-stems in Latin (mentioned above, §34) makes it difficult to decide when -tāt-, -tūt-, and when -tāti-, -tūtiwere the suffixes used, e. g. Gen. Pl. civitcatum and civitatium. In O. Ind. -tāte. g. sarvátāt-, 'completeness') is rarer than -tāti- (e. g. sarvátāti-), while in Greek only -tāt- is found. Other Latin examples of -tās (see A. L. L: viii. 32 r ) are scaevitus (Gk. бка⿺ótךs), commūnı̆tas (Goth. gamaindūps), bönitas from bŏnus, lībertas from $\bar{i} b e r$, cīvitas from cīvis, ūbertas from ūber, făcultas and făcilitus from fücilis, vŏluptus from vŏlŭp $(e)$, tempestas from tempus (cf. tempĕri), völuntas from vülens. Examples of -tūs: sĕnectus from sënex, virtus from vir; O. Lat. tempestus (Varro L. L. vii. 5I libri augurum pro tempestate 'tempestutem' dicunt supremum augurii tempus). Examples of tī̄̃lo: altitudo from altus, lātitudo from lātus, sollīcituclo from sollicicitus.
§ 47. Suffixes ending in -й (Nouns of fourth Decl.). -Ŭ-. In the declension of these stems ŭ varies with eu and ou (see ch. vi.). I.-Eur. Adjectives in -u- usually show the weak form of the root, and are accented on the suffix, e.g. *pltú-, ' broad ' (O. Ind. prthú-, Gk. $\pi \lambda a \tau u ́ s, ~ G a u l . ~ l i t u-) . ~ T h e y ~ f o r m e d ~$ their Nom. Sing. Fem. in -wī, e. g. *swādu-, 'sweet,' with Nom. Sg. Masc. *swādús (O. Ind. svādús, Gk. ท̀ $\delta$ v́s), Nom. Sg. Fem. *swādwî (O. Ind. svādví). In Latin these Adjectives, aided by $^{\text {a }}$ the analogy of the Fem., have followed the tendency of O-stem Adjectives, and have passed into the I-declension (as in Teutonic *tenu-' thin' became punni- by influence of the fem. *tenwí); thus suävis for *suādvis, tĕnuis (O. Ind. tanú-, Gk. $\tau \alpha \nu v ́-\gamma \lambda \omega \sigma \sigma o s$,
O. Sl. tĭnŭ-kŭ), lĕvis (cf. O. Ind. raghú-, Gk. є̇-גaxús, O. Sl. ly̆gŭ-kŭ), brěvis (Gk. $\beta \rho a \chi u ́ s$ ), grăvis (O. Ind. gurú-, Gk. $\beta a \rho u ́ s$, Goth. kaurus). Of nouns with the U-suffix examples are I.-Eur. *pěku- (O. Ind. pašú- M., Goth. faihu N., 'property,' O. H. G. fihu, O. Engl. feoh, Germ. Vieh, Engl. fee), Lat. pĕcu and pecus; Lat. lăcus (O. Ir. loch, a Neuter U-stem) ; with the rarer NUsuffix, Lat. cornu and cornus, mănus, pīnus. The -ru- of Gk. ठáк $\rho v$ is augmented by the suffix -mā- in Lat. dacrŭma, lacrŭma. The Romance languages show us that U-stems had come in Vulg. Lat. to be merged in the O-declension ; and even as early as Plautus Noun-stems in -u retained little of a distinctive declension in ordinary speech.
-TU-. As we have seen -ti- used to form feminine Verbal Nouns (Nomina Actionis), connected with the P. P. P. in -to-, similarly -tu- was used for masc. nouns of the same kind, sometimes with accent on the root (strong grade), sometimes with weak grade of root and the root unaccented, e.g. O. Ind. étum but Ĭtvà́, from the I.-Eur. root ei-, 'to go.' The Latin first Supine is the Accusative of a TU-stem, used with a verb of motion, e. g. vīsum it (cf. O. Ind. vēttum èti, O . Sl. vidětŭ idetǐ), and the second Supine is another case (ch. viii. § 88) of a similar stem. Occasionally these Abstract Verbal Nouns become concrete, e.g. Lat. măgisträtus, a magistrate. In Greek (they are mostly confined to the Ionic dialect) they are feminine, e.g. a ${ }_{\rho}$ úvs, a fitting, a connexion (Lat. artus, M., a limb) (cf. O. Lat. metus F.).

[^65]suocera, Span. nuera, suegra, \&c. On Greek inscriptions the only fourth Decl. Nouns found are idus, tribus, and the forms used are Nom. Pl. ciסou (iठou), Gen. Pl. єíducv (second cent. b.c., but later ciid $\omega \nu$ ) Abl. Sg. $\tau \rho \iota \beta o v$ (see Eckinger, p. 134).

Dŏmus is declined only according to the second Decl. in Plautus and till Sulla (see Langen, Anal. Plaut. ii. p.5). Quintilian (i.6.5) mentions it as a word about whose declension there might be doubt. We find in the older writers humu (Varro, Men. 422, 53 B. ; the gender of hŭmus is Masc. in O. Lat., see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.), lectus (fourth Decl., Georges s. v.), sŏnus (fourth Decl., Georges s.v.), and in a quotation from a Law of Numa (ap. Fest. 212.17 M.) occurs the form Jänui Dat. Sg. : Janui Quirino agnum marem caedito. Priscian, discussing the interchange of second and fourth Decl. forms (i. p. 256 H.), mentions the variants fastos and fastus in Hor. C. iii. 17. 4, cibus Gen. Sg. (doubtful), arci Gen. Sg. (Cic. Deor. Nat. iii. 20. 5I ; arcus is Fem. in O. Lat.), as well as the parallel forms spĕcus and specum, pěnus and penum, fīco and ficu, \&c. For statistics of the O - and U -declension of such words see Neue, $\mathrm{i}^{2}$. pp. 509 sqq. Names of trees like laurus, fagus, \&c. show this uncertainty (Varro L. L. ix. 8 o alii dicunt cupressus, alii cupressi, item de ficis platanis et plerisque arboribus), an uncertainty perhaps due to the rarity of fem. 0 stems (e. g. fägus, Gk. $\phi \eta \gamma o ́ s$ F.) in I.-Eur. (see ch. vi. § 1. p. $3^{69}$ ).
§ 50. Other examples of -tu-stems. Lat. êsus from edo (O. Ind. áttu-, Lith. ëstū, O. Sl. jastŭ) ; Lat. vitus, the felly of a wheel (Gk. ïvvs F.) ; Lat. actus, (1) a driving, (2) a road for driving (Paul. Fest. 13. 17 Th. iter inter vicinos quattuor pedum latum), (3) the space over which something is driven, a measure of land, like our 'plough-gate,' (Plin. xviii. 9 in quo boves agerentur cum aratro uno impetu justo) ; Lat. fétus, a brood (cf. Gk. $\tau \rho o \phi \dot{\eta}$, e. g. Soph. O. T. i) ; O. Lat. metus F., e. g. Enn. A. 526 M. nec metus ulla tenet.
§ 51. The Suffixes-YE- (Nouns of fifth Decl.) and -İ-. The Stems in -E. As the feminines of O-stems were formed with the suffix -ā- (§ 2), so the feminines of other stems appear with the suffix -yē-, e. g. Lat. tempĕriès from the ES-stem tempus, or -ī-, e. g. O. Ind. dātrí, fem. of dātár- (in Latin with $c$ added, e.g.
 short i), or -yā-, e. g. Lat. temperia (cf. Gk. ${ }_{\alpha} \lambda \hat{\eta}^{\prime} \theta \epsilon \iota a$ for ${ }^{*}{ }_{d} \lambda \eta \theta \epsilon \sigma-$ $y \breve{a}$, $\delta$ óтєє $\rho a$ for $\left.{ }^{*} \delta o \tau \epsilon \rho-y a ̆\right)$. How far these differences are due to a variation of -yē- with -i--, as in the Optative, e. g. Lat. siēs, sitis (ch. viii. § 55), or to a confusion of $\overline{\mathrm{I}}$-stems (thus O. Ind. naptí-, Lat. neptis, may be an I-stem corresponding to the U-stem, O. Ind. śvašrứ-, Lat. socrus, O. Sl. svekry), has not yet been satisfactorily determined. It is possible that the e-vowel of Latin and the Balto-Slavic languages (e.g. Lith. žem-è- for *žem-iè-, 'land,' O. Sl. zēm(l)-ja- for *zem(l)jē-, whence the name Nova Zembla, connected with Lat. hйmus and Gk. $\left.\chi^{\theta}{ }^{\theta} \boldsymbol{\nu} \nu\right)$ may be a modification
of an original $\bar{a}$ under the influence of the preceding $y$-sound (cf. Vulg. Lat. Jenuarius for Jànuarius, ch. ii. § 3), so that O. Lat. heriem Acc., a word occurring in the liturgical formula heriem Junonis (Gell. xiii. 23. 2), will exactly correspond to Osc. heriam [on an execration-tablet, Zvet. I. I. I. 129. I ; the i (not ii) of the Oscan word probably indicates a y-sound (ch.iv.§63)]. Verbal Nouns with -yē- are a feature of Latin, e. g. pro-gĕnies, răbies, scăbies, pernŭcies, and permŭties [in fücies, spěcies the $i(y)$ appears also in the Pres. stem].

Other examples of these suffixes are: of U-stems, O. Ind. svādví, Gk. $\grave{\eta} \delta \epsilon i ̄ a$ for $*_{\sigma} F \bar{o} \delta \epsilon F y$ ă (cf. Lat. suävis M. and F., § 47), fem. of I.-Eur. *swādu-; of N-stems, O. Ind. yūnī, fem. of yúvan-, ' young' (the Plautine inuenix, Mil. 304 points to Lat. jünix being rather a contraction of a stem *yŭwenī- than a direct development of the stem yūnī-), O. Ind. rājn̂̄ (mod. Ranee), fem. of rájjan-, ‘a king' ; of NT-stems, O. Ind. bhárantī, fem. of the Pres. Part. bhárant- (Gk. фє́ $\rho o v \sigma a$ for ${ }^{*} \phi \epsilon \rho о \nu \tau y a ̆$; cf. Lat. praesentia, \&c.).

Other fifth Decl. stems are suffixless, e.g. rēe-s (O.Ind. rá -s, rāy-ás Gen. from the root rēi- (ch. iv. § 47) ${ }^{1}$; diēes from a stem d(i)yēw(O. Ind. dyāús Nom. Sg.), a byform of d(i)yěw-, ‘sky, day' (ch. iv. §48). Some seem to have the same Verbal $\overline{\mathrm{E}}$-suffix as is seen in verbs like călēēfacio, candē-facio [ch. viii. § 33 (9)], e. g. füm-è-s (cf. Gk. $\epsilon^{2}-\chi a ́ \nu-\eta-\nu$ from $\chi^{a i v \omega}$ for * $\chi a \mu y \omega$ ), which is really a fifth Decl. noun like $f^{\prime} \boldsymbol{u} \nmid-\bar{e}-s$ (cf. Gk. $\left.\epsilon-\pi i \theta-\eta-\nu\right)$. Another noun declined according to the fifth Decl. is sorlēs, Abl. sorlēe, Lucr. vi. 127 I , Gen. Pl. sordèrum, Plaut. Poen. 314 (cf. sordeo). So from *ŏleo, to grow, pröles for *pro-ŏles, sub-ŏles, ind-ŏles (cf. ol(e)-facio from ŏleo, to smell); from luo lues, from struo strues from ruo rues ['rues' ruina, C. G. L. iv. 281. 5; cf. lue rue, 'luem ruem' (?) on the Carmen Arvale]. Against the association of läbes with laube-facio is the different quantity of the root-vowel. A long vowel is seen also in möles (mŏles-tus), sëdes (sĕdeo), amb-äges (ăgo),

[^66]treats it as an S-stem in Ann. 448 M. : spero, si speres quicquam prodesse potis. sunt (cf. II9 M.). With the variants spēs and spērēs, compare vīs (Nom. Pl.) and vires.
contāges (tăngo), propäges and compäges (păngo), rūpes (rŭmpo). The cognates mŏles-tus, Gk. ধ́̀os, vé申os have suggested the reference of mōlés, sèdès, nūlués (though the $\bar{u}$ is difficult to explain) to ES-stems (§71), with the same -ēs that we see in Gk. ${ }^{2} \lambda \eta \eta_{\eta} \eta^{\prime} s$
 plation of sēlēs is to regard it as a Plural of an I-stem sédis, used as a Singular (cf. O. Ind. váyas, ‘ a bird,' properly ' birds,' and for the long vowel Gk. $\mu \hat{\eta} \nu \iota s, \& c$.); for a good many of these nouns in -ès were more used in the Plural than the Singular, e. g. amluägès (O. Ind. àjí-, ‘ contest,' Ir. āg, ‘ contest'), aedes, vepres, and byforms of the Nom. Sg. occur with -is, e. g. nubis, Plaut. Merc. 880 (cf. nubs, Liv. Andr.), saeps, Cic. (cf. prae-saepe Neut.), rātis (cf. O. Ir. fāith for *wāti-), vĕhis, clādis, aedis (C. I. L. i. 206. 30), caedis, molis, sedis. Many of them belong to poetical diction; e.g. neither Plautus nor Terence use sedes (the usual word for a seat being sŏlium or sella), rupes, täbes, caedes, \&c.; and they must have been liable on that account to confusion of Number. A certain amount again of Nouns in -ès are fem. ${ }^{1}$ names of animals, e. g. cănēs (F., beside căň̆s M., in O. Lat.), fèèes, mëlès, vulpè̀s (cf. vulpēcula), pŭlumbès. The last two, perhaps all, are dialectal, so that this $-\bar{s} s$ may be the dialectal expression of -eis, a byform of the Nom. Sg. suffix of I-stems. Plēbēs has been called an ES-stem like $\pi \lambda \hat{\eta} \theta o s$, but it is more persistently declined after the fifth Decl. (cf. plebeius), than any of the others, whose Abl. is often the only Singular case found in use (e.g. ambage, vepre, Ovid, \&c.); pübēs (cf. pūber-tas, im-pū̆b̆̈r-es Nom. Pl.) has a better claim, although the Abl. pubē, Plaut. Pseud. 126, would have to be explained as due to a false analogy of the Nom. Sg., such as has produced requiè Abl., requiem Acc. from requiès, eètis.

The declension of a good many of these Nouns with Nom. Sg. in $-\bar{e} s$ wavers between the third and fifth Decl. Plautus makes the Gen. Pl. of sordès sordèrum. (Poen. 314), like rèrum, but we find sordium in late Lat. Cicero ( $T_{o p}$. vii. 30 ) says that specierum, speciebus are impossible forms (nolim enim, ne si Latine quidem

[^67]dici possit, 'specierum' et 'speciebus' dicere), and so prefers forma to species as a translation of the Greek eioos. Yet specierum and speciebus are common in late authors, e. g. Apuleius, and Priscian (i. $367: 23$ H.) quotes facierum from a speech of Cato. Quintilian (i. 6. 26) expresses the doubt felt about the declension of progenies and spes: quid progenies genetivo singulari, quid plurali spes faciet? (For statistics of fifth Decl. forms, see Neue, $i^{2}$. pp. 370 sqq.) And the use of $-i \bar{e} s$ itself in the Nom. Sing. seems to have been a matter of gradual extension. Plautus has fücies, permüties, mätĕries (but materiam on the Sententia Minuciorum of 117 в. c., C. I. L. i. 199), segnutties, vastŭties, and possibly caesŭries, inlüvies, intempěries, răbies (but eff $\mathfrak{g}$ gia, \&c.), to which Terence adds mollŭties, Lucretius nötŭties, spurcǐties, \&c. These yē-forms are generally confined to the Nom. Acc. Sg., while in other cases yā-forms are preferred, e.g. intemperiae Nom. Pl., materiae Dat. Sg., luxŭriae Dat. Sg., mollitiis Abl. Pl., in Abl. Sg. barlăriā, Poen. 598, mollitiā, Vidul. 35. Still Plautus adheres to the fifth Decl. type for facies (Nom. Gen. Acc. Abl. Sg.), and apparently ŭcies (Acc. Abl. Sg.), permities (Nom. Acc. Abl. Sg.), species (Acc. Abl. Sg.), though he does not use these words in the Plural. Pliny (ap. Charis.p. 118.15 K.) allowed plānŭties, luxuries, mollities, but not ămūcities (amicitiem, Lucr. v. IO19), ' because the Plural is amicitiae,' while Charisius (p. 57.3 K.) confines cänưties to poetry, and makes canitia the proper proseform. (For fuller statistics, see Neue.) The -tiē-stems are found also in Umbr., e. g. uhtretie 'auctoritate,' kvestretie, ' in the quaestorship.'
§ 52. Other examples of Latin Fems. in -ī, -īc, \&c. Latin cornix (cf. Gk.
 from mëdleor the name of the deity Mĕditrina, whose festival, the Meditrinalia, is mentioned by Varro (L. L. vi. 2I) and Paul. Fest. (88. 36 Th.) in connexion with the curious Roman custom of hallowing the first taste of new wine with the words: novum vetus vinum bibo; novo veteri morbo medeor; cănīcula (ef. O. Ind. š́uní) ; clāris, -im Acc., -ī Abl. (cf. Gk. $\kappa \lambda \eta \bar{\iota} \mathrm{s}$, stem $\kappa \lambda \eta \bar{i}-\delta-$ ).

[^68]§ 54. Suffixes ending in -n (Nouns of third Decl.). -EN-, -YEN-, -WEN-, -MEN-. Beside I.-Eur. Mase. stems in -o- (-e-), -yo- (-ye-), -wo- (-we-) (§§ 2, 4, 5), we find masc. stems in -en- (-on-), -yen- (-yon-), -wen- (-won-). The relation between the two seems to be that the O-stem is the Adjective, but becomes an N -stem when a Substantive, e.g. Lat. mulț̄̄-b̆̈bus Adj., but b̆̌bō Subst. An adjective which is restricted to denote one individual, in other words which becomes definite from indefinite, takes this suffix, e.g. Lat. rūfus, red, but $k \bar{u} f \bar{f}$, ' the Red' (cf. Gk. $\sigma \tau \rho a \beta$ ós and $\Sigma \tau \rho \alpha{ }^{\prime}-$ $\beta \omega \nu)$; and this process, which has been more consistently carried out in the Teutonic languages than in any other, is still seen in the German 'weak declension' of the Adjective, e. g. rothe Nom. Pl. indef. (strong decl.), die rothen Nom. Pl. def. (weak decl.) (Goth. raudai and pai raudans). This early connexion between O - and N -stems explains why an N -stem in a Compound is often replaced by an O-stem, e. g. Gk. àк $\boldsymbol{o}_{o}-\theta \epsilon \tau o \nu$, stithy, compounded of ${ }_{\alpha} \kappa \mu \omega \nu$ and $\tau i \theta \eta \mu \nu$, and why an N-stem in one language often corresponds to an O-stem in another, e.g. Gk. $a i(F) \omega \dot{\omega}$ to Lat. aevom (also explained as *aiwŏn), Goth. ga-juk-a ( N -stem) to Lat. con-jugg-us (O-stem), or in the same language, e. g. Lat. lănio to Lat. lănius, incŭbo to incŭbus. In the declension of these Masc. N-stems, n varies with en, on, èn, ōn, \&c., yen also with $\check{\overline{\mathrm{I}}} \mathrm{n}$, and wen also with $\overline{\mathrm{u}} \mathrm{n}$. They are sometimes transferred by the addition of $-0-$ or $-\overline{\mathrm{a}}-$ into the $\mathrm{O}-$ and $\overline{\mathrm{A}}-$ declension, e.g. Lat. ĕpŭlönus beside ĕpŭl̄̄, termŭnus beside termō (§ 13). Neuters in -n are connected with neuters in -r, \&c., the n apparently being proper to the Oblique Cases, e. g. Lat. femur, Gen. feminis (§56). They are therefore better considered in the paragraph which deals with the R -suffix § (56).

Neuters in -men are Verbal Nouns (Nomina Actionis), and are used in various languages as Infinitives (like -sen-, e.g. O. Ind. nēṣáni from nī-), e. g. O. Ind. vid-mán-ē, Hom. Gk. ťo$\mu \in \nu-a l$ (perhaps Lat. 2 Pl. Imper. Pass., e. g. lĕğ̈minni, is a similar Infinitive form with Imperative sense ; see ch. viii. § 8r). They have usually the E-grade of root, e.g. teg-men, but the Latin law of Syncope seldom allows us to decide when there was a connecting vowel, when an s preceded, \&c. (cf, regimen, integumen-tum,
jugmen-tum and jugumen-tum, augmen-tum, sümes from sügo, and see ch. iv. § 116 on agmen and exämen). Their byforms with -mentum in Latin, e. g. ullumentum, have been mentioned in $\S 30$, and the extension of MEN-stems by the YO-, Y $\bar{A}-$ suffixes, e.g. alimōnia, alimonium, in § 4.

Fem. Verbal Abstracts in -yen-, -tyen- (-tien-) in Lat., Celt., Teut., e.g. Lat. $\bar{u} s \bar{u}-$-cŭpio, captio have become fem. by the analogy of other abstract nouns. They sometimes appear as $\bar{A}$-stems with the ending -ina, -tina, e.g. Potina, the goddess worshipped when a child first drank (Non. 108. 15 M.) from pötio, Statina, 'statuendi infantis,' off ruina (cf. § 8).
§ 55. Masc. en-stems in Latin. Lat. liēn, Gen. liēnis shows -ēn, and pectĕn,
 Nom. Sg., - $\bar{n}$ - or $-\mathrm{in}_{n}$ - (with $\breve{\imath}$ for older $\breve{o}$ or $\breve{e}$ ) in the oblique cases, e.g. $\check{e} d \bar{万}$, Gen. elōnis from the verbal root ed-, 'to eat,'homō, Gen. hominnis from the nounstem humo-, the ground. The Fem. cäro, Gen. carnis, is exceptional in reducing the stem-suffix in the oblique cases to $n$. In Umbr.-Osc. the word has the same declension and gender, but retains the older sense of 'a part,' a 'share,' e. g. Osc. maimas carneis senateis tanginud, which would be in Latin, ' maximae partis senatūs sententiā'; and originally the word seems to have been a Verbal Abstract (Nomen Actionis), 'the act of cutting or dividing,' whence the feminine gender. (On the variation of gender in cardo, margo, cŭpïdo, grando, üligo, farrägo, see Neue, $\mathrm{i}^{2}$. p. 654 ; Abstracts in -go, like ŏrīgo, are fem., and Nouns indicating defects or ailments like fervügo, cerūgo, cälī̆o, prürīgo).
Nouns in - $\bar{o}$, - $\bar{n} n i s$ Gen., used of persons, belong as a rule to plebeian or colloquial Latin and express contempt, e.g. äleo, bibo, Cäpĭto, Näso; in the earliest period they are derived only from Adjectives, e.g. strébo, but later from Nouns and Verbs, e.g. commilĭto from mīles, lünio from lănius, erro from errare, sătŭrio from sătưrire. The more respectful formation was in -ōnus, e. g. patronus (but $\pi a \tau \rho \omega 1$ always on Greek inscriptions, as early as 150 b. c., Eckinger, p. 135); Paul. Fest. quotes O. Lat. epolonus for ĕpŭlo ( 55.15 Th .), centürionus, cürionus and dĕcŭrionus ( 34.36 Th .) ; so Dor. Gk. $\Lambda a ̄ \tau \omega ́$ became Lätona. (On these nicknames, \&c. in -ō, -ōnis, see Fisch, Lat. Nomina Pers. auf-o, -onis, 1890.)
§ 56. Suffixes ending in -r (Nouns of third Decl.). -R-. I.-Eur. Neuters in -r (-r) seem to have substituted $n$ for $r$ in the oblique cases, e. g. Lat. fĕmur, Gen.fĕmŭnis, O. Ind. údhar, ' the udder,' ùdhnas Gen., which has led to confusions of R- and N-stems, e.g. Lat. jécur, but O. Ind. yakán-, and to such curious


[^69]§ 58．－ER－and－TER－．As the Comparative suffix is some－ times－ero－，sometimes－tero－（§ 16 ），so we find－er and－ter as the suffix for forming words of relationship，and masculine No－ mina Agentis［with fem．in－（t）rĩ，－（t）ria，\＆c．，§5I］．This－（t）er－ varies with－（t）or－，－（t）ēr－，－（t）ōr－，－（t）r－，\＆c．，e．g．Gk．$\pi a \tau \eta \rho$ ， Acc．$\pi a \tau \epsilon ́ \rho a$ ，and $\phi \rho \frac{\tilde{\alpha} \tau \omega \rho, ~ A c c . ~}{\phi \rho \stackrel{1}{\alpha} \tau о \rho a, ~ G k . ~ \delta o \tau \eta ́ \rho ~ b e s i d e ~} \delta \omega \dot{\tau} \omega \rho$ ， $\beta o \tau \eta \dot{\eta} \rho$ beside $\beta \omega ́ \tau \omega \rho$ ，\＆c．The Nomina Agentis in Latin show －tōr－，e．g．actor，Gen．actōris（Gk．äкт $\omega \rho,-о \rho o s$ and $\grave{\epsilon} \pi$－$\alpha \kappa \tau \eta ́ \rho$ ， －$\hat{\eta} \rho o s)$ ．Abstracts in－or，－ōris Gen．，often connected with Verbs in－eo and Adjectives in－乞̆dus（e．g．cŭlor，beside caleo，calidus）， are not R －stems but S －stems，and had in O．Lat．$-\bar{s}$ in the Nom． Sg．，e．g．calos，though in the classical period the $r$ ，into which intervocalic s in the oblique cases had passed by the phonetic law of Latin（ch．iv．§ 148），forced its way into the Nom．Sing．also （see ch．vi．§ 7）．
§59．Nouns of relationship．Lat．pŭter［O．Ind．pĭtár－，Arm．hair，Gk． $\pi a \tau \eta \rho_{\rho}, \mathrm{O}$ ．Ir．athir，Goth．（rare）fadar］；Lat．māter［O．Ind．mātár－，Arm．mair， Gk．$\mu \eta \eta_{\tau} \tau \rho$, O．Ir．māthir，O．Engl．mōdor（in Goth．aipei，＇mother，＇atta，＇father＇） O．Sl．mater－］；Lat．fräter（O．Ind．bhrấtar－，Arm．eגbair，Gk．$\phi \rho \bar{a} \tau \omega \rho$ and $\phi \rho a ̆ ́ r \eta \rho$, a clansman，O．Ir．brāthir，＇a brother，＇W．brawd（r），Goth．brōpar；cf．O．Sl． bratrŭ ）；Lat．sǒror（ $\mathbf{O}$ ．Ind．svásar－，Arm． k ‘oir， O ．Ir．siur and fiur，Lith． sesũ̃ ；cf．Goth．svistar，O．Sl．svestra）；Lat．lêvir better＊laevir，for＊laever by Anal．of vir（I．－Eur．＊daiwer－，O．Ind．dēvár－，Arm．taigr with g for w， Gk．$\delta \bar{a} \eta{ }^{\prime} \rho$ for ${ }^{*} \delta a \iota F \eta \rho$ ，O．Engl．tācor，O．H．G．zeihhur ；cf．Lith．dëver－is， O．Sl．dever－ĭ）．
§ 60．Latin Nomina Agentis．Lat．praetor for＊prae－itor（0．Ind．pura－êtár－， ＇he who goes before，＇＇a guide＇）；junctor（O．Ind．yōktár－，Gk．$\zeta \in v \kappa \tau \eta \dot{\rho} \rho$ ）（cf． junctus）；con－dĭtor for ${ }^{*}$ con－dător from the root dhē－，＇to put，place＇（O．Ind． dhātár－and dhắtar－，Gk．$\theta \in \tau \dot{\prime} \rho$ ）（cf．condưtus）；pōtor（ 0 ．Ind．pātár－and pắtar－，
 gĕnitus）with Fem．gěnĕtrīx（ $O$ ．Ind．jánitrī，Gk．$\gamma \in \nu \in ́ \tau \epsilon \epsilon \rho a ̆$ ）（on ĕ see ch．iii．§ 19）； textor（O．Ind．táštar－，＇carpenter＇）（cf．textus）；êsor（O．Ind．attár－，Gk．由̀ $\mu \eta \sigma \tau \eta{ }^{\prime} \rho$ ） （cf．êsus）．
§ 61．Suffixes ending in－t（Nouns and Adjectives of third Decl．）．－T－．Latin stems in $-t$ are probably of various origins．A compound like com－es（stem＊cŏm－乞̆t－）from cum and ire，which has the sense of a Participle Active，＇going along with，＇ reminds us of the use of this suffix in O．Ind．with verbal roots ending in vowels，\＆c．，when these roots form the second part of a compound，e．g．O．Ind．viš́va－jit－，＇all－conquering，＇from ji－，＇to conquer．＇To this category belong Latin $t$－stems like anti－stes
from the root stā-,' to stand,' sŭcer-cl̄̄s from the root dō-, ' to give.' On the other hand adjectives of passive meaning like man-suēs, Gen. mansuētis, ' accustomed to the hand,' tame (beside mansuētus), in-gens, Gen. ingentis, ' not known,' huge (cf. Engl. uncouth), may be for *mansuetis, *ingentis with that transference of the Adjective to an I-stem which we have seen in O. Lat. Sanates, beside sanuti, forctis (class. fortis) beside forctus (§ 4.5). It has further been suggested (§29) that nouns like ĕques, Gen. equătis, may be connected with Greek formations like $i \pi \pi o ́ \tau \eta s$, the fem. Abstract *equita, horsemanship, becoming masc. eques, a horseman, just as antistita fem. is related to antistes masc.

Again Feminine t-stems like tĕges, Gen. tegĕtis, a mat, lit. ' a covering,' sĕges, Gen. segĕtis, a crop, lit. 'a sowing' (W. hau for *sog-, 'to sow'), merges, a sheaf, lit. 'a dipping' (if merga, a pitchfork, be rightly explained by Paul. Fest. 89. I3 Th. : quia . . . messores eas in fruges demergunt, ut elevare possint manipulos), or ' a plucking' (cf. Gk. $\alpha-\mu ' \rho \gamma \omega)$, may have been originally Fem. TI-stems (Nomina Actionis), like messis for *met-tis, ' a reaping,' harvest ( $§ 42$ ), and may show that confusion of the TI- and the T-suffix which is shown by words formed with -tūt(i)-, -tāt(i)-, (§ 46), and bystems like Gk. $\nu v \kappa \tau$-, Lat. nocti-. But Greek nouns like кє́ $\lambda \eta s$, $-\eta \tau o s$, a horse, lit. ' runner,' from the root kel-, 'to run, go quickly' (O. Ind. car- ; cf. Lat. celer'), and adjectives like $\alpha^{\prime} \rho \gamma \hat{\eta} \tau$ - and $\alpha^{\prime} \rho \gamma \epsilon \epsilon \tau-$, bright, from the root arĝ-, ' to shine' (O. Ind. arj- ; cf. Lat. argentum), rather point to byforms in -t, beside the usual Pres. Part. stems in -nt, just as Greek compounds like á $\gamma \nu \omega^{\prime}$, - $\omega$ тos, (1) unknowing, (2) unknown,
 $\pi \rho o ́ \beta \lambda \eta \pi o s$, thrown forth, suggest that Latin mansuēs, \&c. may be quite separate forms from mansuētus, \&c., and not sprung from *mansuētis, still less produced by Syncope of the last syllable of $^{\text {m }}$ mansuetus (cf. ch. iii. § 16).

[^70]in the earlier period, e. g. caeles, -itis, circes, -itis. From it were formed Abstract Nouns in -iticia, -ities, \&c. (see §§ 4, 5I) (cf. axitiōsi, Paul. Fest. 2. 34 Th. : a. factiosi dicebantur, cum plures una quid agerent facerentque, from axites id. 3. I Th. a. mulieres sive viri dicebantur una agentes. The adj. axitiōsus is quoted by Varro, L. L. vii. 66 from the Astraba of Plautus :

> áxitiosae annónam caram e uíli concinnánt uiris).
§ 63. -NT-. The suffix -ent-, -ont-, -nt-, \&c. plays an important part in the I.-Eur. languages, being used in the formation of all Active Participles, except the Perfect (ch. viii. §89). In the thematic conjugation we have -ont- in all the cases in
 and O. Lat. forms like flexuntes (?), as well as the classical euntes where $e$ precedes, have been quoted as proof that Lat. ferent-is, ferent-em, \&c. represent an older *feront-, with change of the short vowel before double consonant in the syllable unaccented under the early Accent-law (ch. iii. § 5) into $\breve{e}$ (but see ch. viii. $\S 90$ ). These Participles have often become adjectives and nouns, e.g. Engl friend (Goth. frijōnds, lit. 'loving '), fiend (Goth. fijands, lit. 'hating,' Germ. Feind), Gk. à $\rho_{\chi} \omega \nu$, Lat. rudens, sometimes with transference to the O-declension, e.g. Lat. vĕntus (Goth. vinds) beside the Participle, O. Ind. vấnt-, Gk. à í's for ${ }_{a} F \in \tau \tau \tau$.
§64. Other examples of Lat. -ent. Lat. ăgens (O. Ind. ájant-, Gk. ä $\gamma \omega \nu$ ); férens ( O . Ind. bhárant-, Gk. $\phi \in ́ \rho \omega \nu$, Goth. bairands, O . Sl. bery); rudens (O. Ind. rudánt-), (I) 'roaring,' (2) 'a rope '; vĕhens (O. Ind. váhant-, Goth. gavigands, Lith. vežąss, $O . S l$. vezy) ; běnévŏlens is often a Noun (cf. bĕnĕmĕrens) in the Comedians, and is closely connected with the Adjective benevolus, so that benerolentior and benerolenter have taken the place of the Comparative and Adverb of the latter, as magnĭfǔcentior, magnificentissimus supply a Comparative and Superlative to magnificus. Other Nouns are părens (beside the verb părio), serpens, ̆̆dŭlescens; other Adjectives, ēlŏquens, süpiens, innŏcens. The addition of the ya-suffix, which forms the fem. of these participles in Greek (e.g. $\phi \dot{f} \rho o v \sigma a$ for $\left.{ }^{*} \phi \epsilon \rho о \nu \tau y \bar{\alpha}\right)$ forms Abstract derivatives in Latin. e.g. benivolentia, prcesentia, eloquentia (all of these first used by Terence), confĩdentia, mălĭvolentia, pütientia, săpientia, pollentia, \&c. (all used by Plautus), sententia (beside the verb sentio). On the rare ending -entium, e.g. silentium, see Rönsch, Collect. p. 208. Fluentum and cruentus probably originated in Neut. Pl. fluenta, cruenta (cf. silenta loca Laev.), a formation like Gk. фє́povta, \&c. The ending -lentus of э̆pŭlentus (beside opulens), viölentus (and violens), trưcŭlentus, escülentus, virŭlentus, \&c. comes from an Adj.-stem in -lo (-li § 21); cf. grăculentus (the o of vinolentus, somnölentus has been explained by 'popular etymology' from vīnō lentus, somn $\bar{o}$ lentus ; see ch. iii. § 21).
§ 65. -WENT'. This suffix, like our '-ful,' added to Noun-
stems to form Adjectives, with the sense 'possessed of,' 'abounding in,' and occasionally 'resembling,' e.g. O. Ind. agni-vánt-, 'provided with fire,' $\chi$ api $i \epsilon \iota$ for * $\chi a \rho \iota F \epsilon \nu \tau s$, possessed of grace, graceful, $\sigma$ тovóєєs (Corcyr. $\sigma$ тovoFєoav, Acc. Sg. Fem.), woeful, is in Latin augmented by the TO-suffix, e.g. dŏlōsus (Gk. סodé $\epsilon$ cs) for * (lolo-venssus from *dolo-went-to- or *dolo-wṇt-to-, nı̌rösus (Gk. vıфó́ts). In O. Ind. it was often added to the P. P. P. TO-stem, e.g. krta-vant- from krtá-, P. P. P. of kr-, ' to do,' and came to be used in the sense of a Perfect Indicative (with omission of the Substantive Verb), e.g. sa tad krtavān, 'he has done this.'


#### Abstract

§ 66. Other examples of Lat. -ōsus. Lat. virosus (cf. O. Ind. vị̌̌á-vant-); vinosus (cf. Gk. oivó́ts), (1) full of wine, (2) like wine; cŭdāvĕrosus, like a dead body. From U-stems, -uosus, e.g. cestuosus (but fastōsus, and from the stem mont-, montuōsus), but from I-stems -osus, e. g. piscosus (Virgil's rendering of Homer's ix日vóєts', (but būliosus). Incūriosus (from incīria) produced cüriosus (instead of *ūr̄ōsus) ; călümìtōsus stands for *calamitātosus (ch. iii. § 13, p. 176). On the change of *-ovenssus to -ōsus (cf. retrōrsum, retrōsum from retrōversum, \&c.), see ch. ii. § 53. The older spelling is -onssus, -ossus (see Brambach, Orth.p. 268, and the Indices to Ribbeck's Virgil and to Studemund's Apograph of the Ambrosian Palimpsest of Plautus). Gellius (ix. 12) comments on the Active and Passive sense of these Adjectives: ut 'formidulosus' dici potest et qui formidat et qui formidatur, ut 'invidiosus' et qui invidet et cui invidetur, ut 'suspiciosus' et qui suspicatur et qui suspectus est, ut 'ambitiosus' et qui ambit et qui ambitur, ut item 'gratiosus' et qui adhibet gratias et qui admittit, ut 'laboriosus' et qui laborat et qui labori est, \&c.


§ 67. Suffixes ending in -d (Nouns of third Declension). D-suffixes are not frequent enough in the I.-Eur. languages to enable us to determine the formation of Latin $d$-stems like lüpis (cf. Gk. $\lambda \in ́ \in \pi a s$ ?), mercēs, hēerès, nor to trace the passage of original D-stems into other stems. The -a $\delta$ - of Gk. xoıpás, a reef, 'like a hog's back,' $\pi \epsilon \lambda \epsilon \iota$ 'ás, a wild dove, has been declared to be the first part of the Latin -astro- (for *-ad-tro-) of poētaster, ' like a poet,' ŏleaster, 'a wild olive,' \&c. Lat. -è̀lula occurs in names of birds, \&c., e.g.fīcēlula (and ficēlla?), a beccafico, acrëdula, querquèdula, nītèlula and nītēlla (cf. alcèlo); Lat. -èlo in names of ailments like frīgēdo, ǐưbëlo, grăvèlo (and gravìdo) resembles the $-\eta \delta \dot{\omega} \nu$ of Gk. $a_{\chi} \theta \eta \delta \dot{\omega} \nu$, रaı $\eta \delta \dot{\omega} \nu$. Lat. - $d u s$ of Adjectives beside Verbs in -eo and Abstract Nouns in -or, e.g. palludus (beside palleo and pallor), splendüdus (beside splendeo and
splendor), squälulus (O. Lat. squalus) (beside squäleo and squalor), has been referred to the root dō-, 'to give' (cf. O. Ind. jala-das, lit. 'giving moisture,' like Lat. imbrĭ-dus, artha-das, 'giving benefit,' but see ch. iii. § $15 .(8))$; and the termination of Gerundives like laudandus, \&c. has been similarly explained (*laudamdus, 'praise-giving') with the Acc. Sg. of a Verbal Noun as the first part (cf. vin-dex) of the compound (see ch. viii. § 94), as well as Verbal Adjectives in -bundus, e. g. erräbundlus, püd̆̌bundus, fŭrıbundus, gĕmĕbundus, mŏrı̆bundus, lascīvibundus (-īb- probably) and -cundus, e.g. jūcundus, rŭbŭcundus, veॅ̌ēēcundus, fēcundus, īrācundus, fäcundus. (On these also, see ch. viii. § 94.) The termination -tūdo, Gen. $-t \bar{u} d \breve{\imath} n i s$, has been called the amplification of the stem -tūt- by an N-stem, *tūt-n- producing *tūd-n- (but see ch. iv. § 161), but it may also be derived from a tu-stem, as rǔbēdo from an è-stem.
§ 68. Other examples. Lat. pĕcus, -ŭdis beside pecus, -öris; Lat. cassis, an Etruscan word, according to Isidore (Orig. xviii. 14. r), with transference to the $\overline{\mathbf{A}}$-declension in the byform cassida.
§ 69. Suffixes ending in a Guttural (Nouns and Adjectives of third Declension). These also are infrequent in I.-Eur. languages, and often have, as we have seen ( $\S 31$ ), byforms with added -o-, e g. Gk. $\dot{\alpha} \lambda \omega \dot{\omega} \pi \eta \xi$ (O. Ind. lōpāšáá-), Gk. $\mu \in i \hat{\rho} \rho \xi$ (O. Ind. maryaká-), Gk. $\nu^{\prime} \dot{a} \xi \bar{\xi}$ (O. Sl. novakŭ), Lat. sěnex (O. Ind. sanaká-, cf. Goth. sineigs; perhaps with the Diminutive suffix -ko-, so that Lat. senex may be for *sĕnĕcis, 'oldish,' with that transference to the I-declension so frequent in Adjectives ; cf. seni- from I.-Eur. *sĕno-, O. Ind. sána-, Gk. đ̈vos, O. Ir. sen, Lith. sẽnas, \&c.). Latin Adjectives in -āx express tendency or character, e. g. $b \breve{b} b \bar{a} x, d \breve{c} \bar{c} \bar{x}, ~ r u ̆ p \bar{a} x, ~ p e r v \breve{v} c \bar{a} x$ (O. Lat. pervicus); of adjectives in $-\bar{\imath} x$ we have $f \bar{e} \bar{\imath} x$ from $*_{f e}^{l} l a, ~ G k . ~ \theta \eta \lambda \eta$, the breast, pernīx (properly of horses, \&c. A.L.L. viii. 453) from perna; -trīx is the fem. ending (O. Ind -trī, Gk. - $\tau \rho y a ̆)$ of Masc. Nomina Agentis in -tor, e. g. gĕnĕtrīx (O. Ind. jánitrī, Gk. $\gamma \in \nu \epsilon \in \tau \epsilon \rho \rho a, \S 5 \mathrm{I})$; $-\bar{o} x$ appears in the derivatives from Adjectives, fërōx (from fërus), sollöx (from sollus), ătrōx (from *ătro-; cf. ŏdium), and in vèlōx, cĕlōx, which suggest connexion with ōcior. We have O-stem Adjectives with -äcus, e.g. mërācus, and -īcus, e. g. mendī̀us, ămīcus (§ 3I), and Ā-stem Nouns with -īca, e.g.
lectīca, and $-\bar{u} c a$, e.g. lactūca (§ 32). The Latin termination $-\bar{g} g o$, in names of ailments, e.g. vertigo, dēpĕtigo, impĕtigo, cāligo, may be due to the addition of an N -suffix to Adjectives in $-\bar{\imath} x$, *vertīc-n-, *calīc-n-, \&c., and the somewhat similar -ügo of ferrūgo (cf. rōbīgo), aerūgo, lānūgo, and in names of plants, e.g. mollügo (-igo), aspĕrūgo may similarly represent $-\bar{u} c-n-$, the $c$ becoming $g$ before $n$ by the phonetic law of Latin (ch. iv. § iIg).
§ 70. Other examples. Lat. pülŭx, -ı̆cis, a flea, but pulegium, fleabane; Lat.
 vertëx from verto ; Lat. vervēx, a wether ; Lat. nătrixx, -icis, a watersnake (O. Ir. nathir, nathrach Gen.).

Words like aureax (a. auriga, Paul. Fest. 6. 27 Th.), auriffex, \&c. do not show the Guttural suffix, but are Compounds of ago, facio (§78).
The number of words ending with $-x$ that indicate parts of the body is noticeable, e. g. calx, faux, coxendix, cervix (or rather cerrīces Plur., for the Sing. was a poetical usage; cf. Varro, L. L. viii. 14 and Quint. viii. 3. 35), mätrix, pantex, pōdex, also bodily marks, e. g. varix, vībix, famex, \&c.; bird-names in -ix are, e. g. cornix, coturnix, spinturnix. Adjectives in -āx from second Conj. Verbs are audax, tĕnax (cf. rêtĭnāculum), mordax, \&c.; from IO-Verbs cŭpax, efficax, perspĭcax. With fallax cf. falla, O. Lat. for fallücia; with dücax cf. dĭcā-re beside diсё้е ; with сйрах, ос-сйрй-re.
§ 71. Suffixes ending in -s (Nouns and Adjectives of third Declension). -ES-. The suffix -es-, varying with -os-, -s-, \&c. was used to form Neuter Abstract Nouns, with E-grade of root and accent on the root, e.g. I.-Eur. *ĝénos Nom. Sg., *henes- in Oblique Cases, from the root ĝen- (O. Ind. jánas, Gk. $\gamma \in \operatorname{c} v o s$ Nom., $\gamma^{\prime} \nu \in(\sigma)$-os Gen.), Lat. gĕnus Nom., genĕr-is for *genes-es Gen. These Neuter-stems became adjectives by transferring the accent to the suffix and substituting -ēs for -ŏs in Nom. Sg. Masc., -ĕs in Nom. Sg. Neut., e. g. Gk. єiं- $\gamma \in \nu \nu^{\prime} s$ Masc., - $\nu \epsilon \in s$ Neut. Beside them we find occasionally Masc. or Fem. Nouns with -ōs in Nom. Sg., a formation which came into great favour in Latin, e.g. tĕnor Masc. for *tenōs, beside tenus Neut. (Gk. т'́vos, a string), from the root ten-, 'to stretch'; tĕpor Masc. for *tepōs (cf. O. Ind. tápas Neut. for *tépos), from the root tep-, ' to be warm.' A case of these Neuters is used as the Infinitive in various languages, e.g. Lat. vīvëre Loc., O. Ind. jivásé Dat., ' to live' (see ch. viii. § 83).

[^71]-ŏris (but cf. tempeři, tempes-tīvus) ; önus, ŏnustus (but cf. oneris, onerare) ; Velius Longus ( $\mathbf{p} .73$. г K.) calls attention to the discrepancy between faenoris and faeneratorem, fücinoris and facinerosus. We have the O -grade of the root, e. g. in mŏdes-tus (by analogy of the 0 -stem mŏdus) from ${ }^{*}$ modes ${ }^{1}$, from the root med(but Umbr. mers for ${ }^{\text {med }}$ (o)s Neut., the right, the due, is normal), foedus [also fidus, i. e. *feidos, to judge from Varro L. L. v. 86 per hos (Fetiales) etiamnunc fit foedus quod 'fidus' Ennius scribit dictum ; cf. Paul. Fest. 64. 3 Th. fidusta a fide denominata, ea quae maximae fidei erant] from the root bheidh-, pondus by analogy of pondo- (Abl. pondō) from pendo. Minerva was in earlier times *Menes-ua ( $\$ 7$ ), a derivative of the Neut. stem *ménes- (0. Ind. mánas-, Gk. $\mu^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}{ }^{\prime}$ s), from the root men-. From other than E-roots we have, e. g. ŏpus ( $O$. Ind. ápas and ápas, 'work,' especially 'a religious performance '). The ending -nus is seen in făcinns (cf. Gk. $\delta$ á-vos), \&c. The -r of rōbur (O. Lat. robus, see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.) may be due to the Masc. byform robor (ef. O. Lat. robosem Acc., quoted by Paul. Fest. ri. 20 Th.) ; cf. călor Neut. (Plaut. Merc. 860). The weak grade of the suffix, -s-, is seen in the derivative 0 -stem O. Ind. vats-á- for *wetso-, 'a calf,' lit. 'a yearling,' from *wetos, 'a year' (Gk. Fétos), \&c. Other examples are Vĕnus (originally Neuter and meaning 'glamour,' like 0 . Ind. vánas-; cf. vënēnum for *renes-num, properly 'a philtre') ; tergus (Gk. $\sigma \tau \epsilon \in \rho \phi o s$ and $\tau \epsilon ́ \rho \phi o s)$.
§ 73. Adjective ES-stems. Of the transference of a Neut. S-stem into an Adjective a good example is Lat. větus, which is nothing but I.-Eur. *wětos (Gk. Fétos, a year) used in apposition as a predicate (cf. Hom. Gk. míap, Lat. $\bar{u} b e r, \& c$.). The ordinary way of making an Adjective from a Neuter S-stem was by adding the suffix -to- (\$27), e. g. větustus, to which however, owing to the cacophony of the two similar syllables, vetus was preferred in the Positive and veterrimus in the Superlative, though vetustior was the Comparative in vogue (cf. Varro, L. L. vi. 59 a vetere vetustius ac veterrimum), ŏnŭs-tus, scělěs-tus, füněstus, jüs-tus. Perhaps another way was to add the suffix -o-, e. g. 0. Lat. scèlèrus, and perhaps fünĕrus (beside funereus) (see Fleck. Jahrb. 189f, p. 676 ; both forms are doubtful) (cf. dëcōrus from děcor, § 74). The veter used by Ennius (Ann. г 6 M. cum ueter occubuit Priamus sub Marte Pelasgo) and Accius (Trag. 48i R.) may be of this formation, or of the third Decl. like püber (beside pubēs Adj.) and the Compounds dēgĕner, bǐcorpor, \&c.
§ 74. Masc. (and Fem.) ES-stems. The usual termination is -or Nom., -ōris Gen. (older -ōs, -ōsis), e.g. děcor (beside decus; with Adj. decōrus, O. Lat. decŏrem Accus. ; cf. indecŏrem beside indecörum) ; angor (O. Ind. ą̧has Neut. ; with Adj. angustus) ; hŏnor (with Adj. honestus) ; arbor F. (with Adj. *arbustus, cf. arbustum, § 28) ; paedora is Vulg. Lat. for paedores (C. G. L. iv. 270.4 'paedora' aurium sordes). The semains in flōs [like Flōra F. beside flōs M. is aurōra beside I.-Eur. *ausōs (Gk. $\eta \boldsymbol{\eta} \omega \mathrm{s}$ F.) ]; while some have found $-\bar{s} s$ in the Fem. nouns sédēs, beside I.-Eur. *sĕdŏs (O. Ind. sádas, Gk. "́ $\delta o s$ ), plēbēs (Gk. $\pi \lambda \hat{\eta} \theta 0 \mathrm{os}$ ), and perhaps aedēs beside aedis (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.) (O. Ind. édhas, Gk. aîoos) (but see § 5r). These Masc. Nouns in or are widely used as Verbal Abstracts, connected with Verbs in -eo and Adjectives in -idus, e. g. pallor (palleo, pallidus), timor (timeo, timidus) (see $\S 6_{7}$; and for a list of examples
A. L. L. viii. 313). The Verb in -eo is not found with fluor, fluidus, cruor, crūdus (cf. O. Ind. kravị́̂-, 'raw flesh,' Gk. кр'́as) ; the Adj. in -ı̆dus is not found with făror (făreo), a coinage of Cicero's time (Quint. viii. 3. 34).
§ 75. Other S-stems. Lat. cěrèbrum for *eresrum points to an S-stem like O. Ind. ṣíras-, 'the head,' Gk. $\kappa$ 'є́pas, a horn ; Lat. těnëbrae for *tenesrae (cf. O.Ind. támis-rā beside támas, 'darkness' ; cf. Lat. těměre, lit. 'in the dark') ; Lat. cinis M., sometimes F., resembles Gk. róvıs F. in its termination ; Lat. fär, farris Gen. for *fars, *farsis has a derivative fürina for ${ }^{*}$ farisna, Fem. of an Adj. *farisnus (cf. Goth. bariz-eins, 'made of barley').
§ 76. -YES-. This suffix, used to form Comparatives (cf. the 'Comparative' use of -yo-, § 4), appears in Latin as -ior Nom. M., F., -iōris Gen., -ius Nom. N. (older -iōs, -iōsis, -iŏs), e. g. suā̀ior, suāviōris, suärius. The variations of the suffix are not easy to determine amid the variety of forms in the various languages (e.g. O. Ind. svấd-īyas-, with Nom. svád-īyān, Gk. $\dot{\eta} \delta \dot{\delta} \omega \nu$, Acc. $\dot{\eta} \delta \dot{\omega} \omega$ for $* \dot{\eta} \delta \iota o \sigma a$, Goth. sutiza for *sut-izen-, Lith. sald-ẽs-nis, \&c.), but it is certain that the weak grade -ǐs- was prefixed to the suffix -tŏ- (-thŏ-?) to form Superlatives in various languages (O. Ind. svád-iṣ̣̣̂ha-, Gk. $\eta$ ク̈ठ $\iota \sigma \tau o s, ~ G o t h . ~ s u t i s t s), ~$ though in Latin this formation was ousted by -issimus (cf. however măgis, magis-ter, \&c.). These suffixes were originally affixed to the root without the suffix of the Positive stem (so Lat. $\overline{o c}-$-ior, O. Ind. áśs-iyas-. Gk. $\dot{\omega} \kappa$ - $i \omega \nu$ from a Positive stem *ō̂̂ku-), but we have also in Latin, e.g. tĕnu-ior, suārior for *suadv-ior, aspěr-ior, \&c.

For other details of the formation of Comparatives and Superlatives in Latin, see ch. vi. section 2.
§ 77. Suffixless Forms. Nouns formed directly from the root, without any suffix except those of the cases, are especially frequent as the second element of a Compound, and take in this position the function of a Nomen Agentis, e.g. Lat. au-spex, 'seer of birds,' from the root spek-, ' to see,' parti-ceps, 'taking a share.' They are also found independently, e.g. O. Ind. spáśs-, 'a spy,' often with a high grade of vowel, e. g. Gk. $\sigma \kappa \omega$ ' $\psi$, an owl (cf. ch. iii. §5I, p. 254), both from the same root spek- (skep-). The passage of such forms into the vowel declension is a very near one, so that we find bystems with and without a suffix in the same language, e.g. Lat. auspex beside exti-spŭcus (a late
form of exti-spex), or in different languages, e. g. O. Ind. nāú-, Gk. vav̂s beside Lat. nāv-i-s, O. Ind. úd-añc- beside Gk. $\pi \frac{\delta}{\text { o }-a \pi-o ́-s, ~}$ Lat. prŏp-inqu-o-s. The Latin Inf. Pass., e. g. $\check{a} g \bar{\imath}$, seems to be a case of a suffixless Verbal Noun (cf. O. Ind. nir-ájē, dřséé, Inf. of dṛśs-, ' to look'), just as the Inf. Act., e. g. ăgĕrŭ, seems to be the Locative case of a Verbal Stem in -es- (see ch. viii. § 83).


#### Abstract

§ 78. Suffixless stems at end of Compounds in Latin. From jungo, con-jux (cf. O. Ind. sat-yuj-, Gk. $\sigma \dot{v}-\zeta v \xi)_{\text {) }}$ and con-junx (O. Ind. yúnj- beside yúj.-) ; from făcio, artîfex, carnŭfex, ŏpйfex, \&c.; from căpio, manceps, auceps, forceps for *formi-ceps, prīnceps, \&c.; from dico, jūdex, vindex ; from sĕdeo, dēses, rĕses; from căno, cornìcen, fŭlŭcen; from ăyo, rēmex, aureax, \&c. Beside these we have often 0 -stems, \&c., e. g. jūrǐ-dŭcus beside jū-dex, prōd-ĭgus beside rēm-ex, O. Lat. hosti-capas (hostium captor, Paul. Fest. 73. ro Th.), urbĭ-căpe Voc. (Plaut. Mil. ro55) beside auceps, \&c. The presence of suffixless stems in the second part of Compounds in other I.-Eur. languages forbids us to regard the third Decl. forms as due to Latin syncope of the $O$-suffix in the Nom. Case, *avi-cap (o)s, \&c. (see ch. iii. § 16). But in some adjectives original O-stems may have become I-stems (cf. § 34), and the Nominative form may be due to syncope or to the analogy of consonant-stems (just as pars Nom. for *parti-s, with Gen. partis, is due to syncope or to the analogy of rex Nom. with Gen. rēg-is, \&c.), e. g. praecox beside praecŏquis and praecoquus, cohors for *cohortis from hortus. The Feminines add a, e. g. exti-spǔc-a, fŭdŭ-cin- $a$.


§ 79. Latin Independent suffixless stems. Lat. rēx (O. Ind. rấj-, O. Ir. rīg Gen.) from the root reĝ-, of rĕgo ; lēx from lĕgo ; pēs Nom., pë̆d-is Gen. (cf. O. Ind. pad-, pád-am Acc., Dor. Gk. $\pi$ oús Nom., $\pi$ of-ós Gen., \&c.); fur for ${ }^{*}$ för (ch. iv. § 16)

 Gen., in the phrase dicis causa, for form's sake ( $\mathbf{O}$. Ind. diś-, 'direction') from the root deî̀--, of dīco; nŭx (Gk. ví $\phi-a$ Acc.) ; sal (Gk. ä̉s) ; sūs, sŭūbus Dat. Pl. (Gk. îs, O. H. G. sū) ; dŭx from dūco ; prěc-es Plur. from root prêk-, 'to ask'; vōx (O. Ind. vấc- F.) beside vŏco. (On the long vowel, see ch. iv. § 5 I, p. 254.)
§ 80. II. COMPOSITION. Compounds are seldom resolv-
 in battle, Lat. sĕnātūs-consultum, patres-fŭmŭliārum, jūris-jūrandi, res-publüca, O. Engl. Tīwes-dæg, 'Tuesday.' Sometimes, as in reduplicated words, one element is reduced almost beyond recognition, either the second element (in 'broken' or curtailed Reduplication), e. g. Lat. bal-b-us (cf. O. Ind. bal-balā-karōmi), gur-g-es, a whirlpool (cf. O. Ind. gár-gara-), or more usually the first, e.g. ci-cindē-la, a glow-worm, while' Lat. gur-gŭl-io, the throat, quer-quĕr-us, mur-mur, \&c.give equal prominence to both elements. But generally the full stem without the case suffixes
is used in the first part of the Compound, e.g. patrū-c $\bar{u} d a$ (contrasted with patres-familiarum), jūrॅॅ-lı̆cus (contrasted with jurisjurandi). The treatment of these stems which begin the Compound is the special subject of this section.

Owing to the weakening of unaccented vowels in Latin, every vowel in the final syllable of such a stem was liable to change under the early accentuation of the first syllable of each word (ch. iii. § 5). It is therefore often necessary to call in the aid of other I.-Eur. languages before one can determine the original vowel in a Latin Compound, e.g. àlu-ger from äla may be shown to have been originally *alö-ger by Greek viлo-тó $\mu o s$, \&c. from $u$ ú $\eta$ ( $§ 82$ ), though, so far as the Latin form goes, it might equally well have been $*_{a l u ̆-g e r, ~ * a l e ̆-g e r, ~ \& c ., ~ w h i l e ~ i n ~}^{\text {n }}$ forceps for *formi-ceps the vowel has been suppressed altogether by Syncope (ch. iii. § 13), in arculubii for arci-cubiii by Dissimilation (ib. p. 176). O is the I.-Eur. 'Composition-Vowel' par excellence. Not only does it appear in O-stems, but it is often added to Consonant-stems, and sometimes takes the place of the $-\bar{a}$ of $\bar{A}$-stems. In Latin post-tonic $\breve{0}$ (like $\breve{a}$ and other short vowels) became, as was shown in ch. iii. § 18 , $\breve{u}$ before labials (later $\breve{\imath}$ ), and $\breve{\imath}$ before other single consonants (except $r$ ), so that $\breve{\iota}$ is the 'Composition-Vowel' of Latin as $\breve{ }$ of I.-Eur. (cf. Unomammia Plaut., Oinu-mama on a Praenestine inscription, йnйmamma, an Amazon).

The second part of a Compound is often scarcely to be distinguished from a suffix. Thus the second part of imbrit-dus (cf. O. Ind. jala-da-, lit. ' moisture-giving,' § 67) is often called the 'suffix' $d o-$; and the form taken by the final vowel of the stem before a suffix is often determined by the same laws as before the second element of a Compound (cf. f $f \vec{a} b \bar{a}-$-ginus with $f a b \bar{a}-c e u s$, fabā-tus, fabā-rius, fabā-lis; imbrŭ-dus with imbrŭ-cus). For these laws with suffixes, laws often disturbed by the influence of analogy, e. g. ănīlis (from anu-) for *anūlis by analogy of sĕnīlis (from seni-), see the preceding section.

Composition does not play so great a part in Latin as in Greek (cf. Liv. xxvii. II. 4 quos 'androgynos' vulgus, ut pleraque, faciliore ad duplicanda verba Graeco sermone, appellat). The early dramatists and other imitators of Greek poetry incurred
the censure of Quintilian for their attempts to reproduce Greek compounds like кvpтav́x $\eta \nu$ in Latin (Quint. i. 5. 70 sed res tota magis Graecos decet, nobis minus succedit: nec id fieri natura puto, sed alienis favemus, ideoque cum киртаú $\notin \varepsilon$ м mirati simus, 'incurvicervicum' vix a risu defendimus, alluding to Pacuvius' line:

> Nérei repándirostrum incúruiceruicúm pecus);
and Virgil uses a periphrasis like (Averna) sonantia silvis (A. iii. 442) where an earlier poet might have employed a compound like silvǐsŏnus (cf. silv̌̆frăgus, used by Lucretius, who however complains that the 'patrii sermonis egestas' prevented him from
 compound Proper Names of other I.-Eur. languages are, as we have seen (§ 4), replaced in Latin (and Umbro-Oscan) by Adjective IO-stems, such as Lūcius [on the compound Opiter, see ch. iii. § 16 (9)]. The Latin language does not therefore give the same occasion as the Greek for a study of the I.-Eur. types of Compounds, or the various irregularities which disturbed the normal course of Composition; and a brief account of these types and irregularities will suffice.
I.-Eur. Compounds, Nouns and Adjectives, are sometimes classified according to the scheme of the Sanscrit grammarians [Dvandva or Collectives, Bahuvrîhi or Possessives, Tatpurusha or Determinatives (including Karmadhâraya formed of Adj. and Noun, and Dvigu formed of Numeral and Noun), Avyayîbhâva or Adverbial Compounds], sometimes by the more rational criterion of the change or retention of the meaning of the second element (thus the Possessive longı̆-mănus, ' possessing long hands,' ' long-handed,' changes its second element from a Noun to an Adjective, while the Determinative perennĭ-servus, 'a constant slave,' retains the Noun-meaning of servus), these two main classes being subdivided according to the nature of the first element [a Noun or Adj. stem as in longi-manus, a Particle as in in-certus, vé-sänus, a Preposition as in con-servus, a Noun or Adj. Case as in vin-dex, lēgislator, jurisdictio (contrast jūrĭ-ď̌cus), the last being, as we have seen, rather Word-groups than Compounds; cf. parcē-prōmus Plaut., lĕnĕ-vŏlus, paen-insŭla (contrast
lĕv̌̆-densis, sollŭ-č̆tus)], \&c. Of Possessive Compounds (Sanscr. Bahuvrîhi) examples are angǔ-pes, ' possessing a foot which is a snake,' 'snake-footed ' ${ }^{1}$; püdōrı̀-c̆̆lor, ' possessing the colour of shame,' 'shame-coloured,' sicc-ŏcŭlus, ' possessing dry eyes,' 'dryeyed.' Of Determinatives with first element consisting of (1) a governed Noun (Sanscr. Tatpurusha): vĭtu-sător', 'planter of the vine,' artı̆-fex, ̆̆quй-lex; (2) Adjective qualifying a Noun (Sanscr. Karmadhâraya): O. Lat. albŏ-gŭlērus, the white cap of the Flamen Dialis, suā̃ŭ-sāviātio Plaut., vīvě-rū̀lix Cato, lātǒclävus (the Adj. contrary to rule follows the Noun in Pliny's equifer, a wild horse; cf. ov̌̆fer, a wild sheep) ; (3) Numeral, trǐnummus. (For other examples of Numeral Compounds, see ch. vi. sect. iii.) Coordinate Compounds (Sanscr. Dvandva, e. g. agnidhūmau, 'fire and smoke') are not found in Latin, except in Derivatives, e. g. su-ŏč̆-taurīlia (but not *su-ovi-taurus), a sacrifice of a swine, a sheep, and a bull, stru-fer (c)tarii, those who offered 'struem et fertum.' Scaliger's rule that a Noun is never compounded with a Verb was a law of I.-Eur. Nouncompounds, and is not broken in good Latin, though Tertullian coins vinci-pes by false analogy of uudi-pes, whose first element he conceives as a verb, 'qui pedes nudat' (de Pall. 5 quem enim non expediat in algore et ardore rigere nudipedem quam in calceo vincipedem ?), and Verti-cordia was a name under which Venus was worshipped. As we have seen in the chapter on the Latin Accent (ch. iii.), the line is often hard to draw between a Word-group (united under a single accent) and a Compound, e. g. affatim (from ad fatim), denuo (from de novo), Juppiter (from *Jū- pater, Voc., ch. vi. § 32). From the group per uoctem has been formed the Compound Adj. pernox, much as mĕrī-die [a single word like O. Lat. diequinte or diequinti, ch. iii. § $\left.12^{a}(9)\right]$, which is only found in this form in the earlier writers, gave rise to the Compound Noun meridies; from Sacra Via we have the derivative Sacravienses, from quarta dĕčma (sc. legio) the derivative quartadecimāni (cf our 'get-at-able,' \&c. formed from the

[^72]phrase＇to get at＇）．Holusatrum differs from a word－group by the fact that the first element remains undeclined in holusatri Gen．，\＆c．（§85）；vin－dex，by the fact that－dex（－dix）is not used as a separate word，though the first element shows the Noun in its proper Case（for a similar explanation of laudan－dus，\＆c．， see ch．viii．§ 95）．Similarly the Case instead of the Stem appears in the first element of centum－pèda（cf．Gk．£ккато́м－$\pi \in \delta о s$ ）， beside cent $t$－peda（but see ch．vi．§ $7 \dot{6}$ ），while the reverse is seen in the forms multŭ－mŏdis（for multis modis），omnй－modis（for omn⿱⺌兀口us modis），which are used by Plautus．Plautus is especially fond of whimsical compounds coined on the Greek type，and often half－Greek，half－Latin，e．g．Pers．702－5：

> Uaníloquidorus Uírginesuendónides Nugiepiloquides Árgentumextenebrónides Tedígniloquides Númmosexpalpónides Quodsémelarripides Númquameripides: ém tibi.

Cüvaedium may stand for cav（um）aedium，domnaedium Accus．for dŏmŭn（um）aedium，as ănŭmadverto for anim（um）adverto（ch．iii． § 52）（ $\breve{\text { änmaequŭtas has similarly been referred to anim（i）aequitas）；}}$ Lucr．uses orlia prima for primorlia；and summopere，magnŏpere， \＆c．represent summo opere，magno opere，and the like．Greek compounds like àpıбтó－$\chi \epsilon \iota \rho$（with a Superlative as first element）， aùvó－$\chi \epsilon \iota \rho$（with a Pronoun）are alien to the spirit of the Latin language．

These Noun and Adjective Compounds sometimes retain the stem of their second element unchanged，e．g．sicc－ŏcŭlus，some－
 Compound O－stem Adjectives，as we have seen（§ 34），tended to become I－stems，e．g．O．Lat．innermus，class．inermis；and Com－ pound Nouns（and Adjectives）affected the IO－suffix，e．g．lātŭ－ clävium beside lätüclārus（so the Vulgar Compound formed from the Word－group terrae motus assumed the form terrimotium， Prob．App．198． $3^{2}$ K．）．Often the selection of a suffix for a Compound is determined by the usage in Derivatives from the simple word，e．g．transmărīnus from trans mare，like marinus from mare，dübingěniösus from dubius and ingenium，like ingeniosus from ingenium，simplūdiärius（cf．ludiarius）．

Compound Verbs have normally as their first element a Prepo－
sition (see ch. ix.). Whether the Negative Particle in might be used, e.g. ig-nosco, 'not to notice,' to overlook or pardon, is doubtful (see ch. x. § 18 ; cf. ne-scio, ne-queo, \&c.). But Compounds like aelifficare from aedes and facio are really Derivatives from Compound Adjectives or Nouns, aedificus or aedifex; so that Scaliger's law (see above) is not violated (cf. Gk. оікодонє́ $\omega$,
 *opitulus (like philosophari from philosophus). (On these Deriv. Verbs, see ch. viii. §§ 21, 33.) Bĕnĕfŭcio, mŭlĕfacio, \&c. are really word-groups, and so are cŭlefacio, arefacio, \&c. (cf. facit ärè Lucr.). Crḕlo comes from an I.-Eur. word-group (O. Ind. śrád dadhāmi, 'I set the heart to,' see ch. viii. § 27). Compound Adverbs like dērĕpentĕ, dèsŭbŭtō are discussed in ch. ix., and also Compound Prepositions like Vulg. Lat. cubante (Fr. avant). (For a fuller treatment of Latin Compounds than can be permitted within the limits of this book, see Skutsch, Nom. Lat. Comp.).
§ 81. Reduplicated Nouns and Adjectives in Latin. Lat. gur-g-es, whirlpool, gur-gŭl-io, throat (O. Ind. gár-gar-a-, ' whirlpool,' Gk. $\gamma \alpha \rho-\gamma a \rho-\epsilon \omega \dot{\omega}$, uvula, $\gamma^{\prime} \rho-\gamma \in \rho-o s$, throat, O. H. G. quer-chal-a and quer-ch-a, Germ. Gurgel); bal-b-us (O. Ind. bal-bal-ā-karōmi, 'I stammer,' Gk. $\beta$ áp- $\beta a \rho-o-s$ ) ; quer-quĕr-u-s, cold, shivering (frigidus cum tremore, Paul. Fest. 343.5 Th., who quotes from Lucilius febris querquera, the ague) (cf. Hom. Gk. каркаi $\rho \omega$ ), has reduplicated form like other words for trembling, shivering, such as Germ. zittere from *ti-trō-mi ; can-cer (cf, ,O. Ind. kar-kat-a-, Gk. кар-кiv-o-s) ; mur-mur (O. Ind. mar-mar-a-, Gk. $\mu o \rho-\mu \dot{\rho} \rho-\omega$, Lith. mür-m-iu) ; ta-ta, like mamma, children's words mentioned in Martial's witty epigram (i. 100):

> 'mammas' atque 'tatas' habet Afra; sed ipsa tatarum dici et mammarum maxima mamma potest,
and found on children's epitaphs, e.g. C.I. L. vi. 25808 destituisti, Vitilla mea, miseram mammam tuam (cf. ch. ii. p. 118 ), qui-squil-iae, shreds of leather, \&c. (Gk. ко-бкvд- $\mu$ átıa) (Caec. Com. 25I R. quisquilias uolantis, uenti spolia) ; fiber (the I.-Eur. name was *bhe-bhr-u-, O. Ind. ba-bhr-ú-, 'brown,' O. H. G. bi-bar, 'a beaver,' Lith. bë-br-u-s, O. Sl. be-br-ŭ). Reduplication is common in onomatopoetic words, e. g. cü-cülus (cf. Gr. кóккvॄ̆, Lith. ku-kü-ti,
 od-i$\left.\gamma^{\prime}\right)$, tur-tur. The Latin tendency is to assimilate the first to the subsequent syllable, e. g. cin-cin-nus (Gk. кí-кıv-vos) (cf. mŏ-mord-i for earlier mĕ-mord-i, \&c.. see ch.iv. § 163 ). Often a reduplicated Noun is a derivative from a reduplicated Verb-form, e. g. ci-cinde-la from *cǐ-cinde-o, a reduplicated form of candeo,
 cated Verb-forms, see ch. viii. § 9.)
§ 82. $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stems show sometimes $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$, but usually $\overline{\mathrm{o}}$ in I.-Eur. compounds,
(e. g. Gk. vık -фópos and Nıкó- $\mu a \chi o s$, O. Ind. urvarā-jit- and ukhă-chíd-, Lith. sziksznó-sparnis and gatvã-raisztis, Gaul. Teutǒ-bōdiāci, Goth. airpă-kunds), so that Lat. $\imath$ of tübi-cen, $\bar{a} l i$-ger, \&c. must have been originally $o$. The long a is probably seen in fäbū-ginus, öleā-ginus, as before suffixes like Rōmā-nus, ala $\bar{a}-$ ris. Stems in -iā seem to show a similar divergence of forms, tī̄i-cen with ${ }^{i}$. for iŏ (§ 4), and before a suffix viā-tīcus.
§ 83. O-stems appear with -ŏ in Gk. immó- $\delta a \mu o s$, Gaul. Dēvo-gnāta, Eporēdia, Teut. Austro-valdus, \&c., so that Lat. $\check{\imath}$ of belli-ger, magni-fĭcus, earlier $\breve{u}$ before a labial, e. g. magnu-ficus, is probably a weakening in the unaccented syllable of original o. O. Lat. spellings (mostly before a labial), like Unomammia (Plaut. Curc. 445 ; cf. Oinu-mama, an Amazon, on an old Praenestine cista, C. I. L. i. r501), sescento-plägus (Plaut. Capt. 726), albo-gălèrus (Paul. Fest. 8. 6 Th.), Ăheno-barbus may thus be genuine relics of the oldest spelling, though late compounds like mālo-grānātum must be imitations of the Greek. Before a vowel this -ŏ is elided in Latin (as in Greek, \&c., e. g. imm-ararós), e. g. magn-ŭnimus, aequ-c̆nìmitas, forms like multi-angŭlus being late. Lat. -IO-stems show -iě- for -iĭ- by Dissimilation (ch. iv. § 13) before a suffix in söcie-tas, anxietas, \&c., but-ī- in Lucilius, \&c. (cf. hosti-lis from the I-stem hosti-). Like sescentoplägus, \&c. is O. Lat. sŏcio-fraudus or sociu-fraudus in Plaut. Pseud. 362. (The Palatine MSS. have o, the Ambrosian Palimpsest u.) Latin ro-stems show -ĕr- by rule [ch. iii. § $15 .(8)$ ], e. g. sacer-d̄̄ss, but sometimes -rǐ-, e. g. sacri-fex, after the law by which -rĭ- became -ĕr-had been forgotten.
§ 84. I-stems had ĭ in I.-Eur. compounds (e.g. O. Ind. tri-pád-, Gk. т $\rho$ ínous, Gaul. tri-garanus, O. Engl. pri-fēte, Lith. tri-kójis, O. SI. tri-ząbŭ), and so Lat. tri-ennium, trǐ-gëmìnus, though by rule -rǐ- [at least unaccented -rĭ-, ch. iii. § 15 . (8)], became - $\check{\text { re }}$ - in Latin, e. g.ter-geminus, and before a labial $\check{\imath}$ was by the older spelling properly $\check{u}$, e.g. ācrŭfollios Cato ( $R . R$. xxxi. r), as before $r$
 dropped, e.g. fün-ambulus (coined by Messalla to express Gk. $\sigma \chi o \iota \nu o \beta a ́ r \eta s$, Porph. ad Hor. S. i. ıо. 28), from *funy-ambulus, sēm-ermis for *semyermis.
§ 85. U stems had originally $\check{u}$ (e. g. O. Ind. svādu-rātí-, Gk. $\grave{\eta} \delta v-(F) \in \pi \eta s^{\prime}$, Gaul. Catu-rīges; O. H. G. Hadu-mar, Lith. virszù-kalnis), so that the older spelling mănü-festus preserves the earliest form (class. mănŭ-festus). From diphthongal U-stems we have nau-frŭgus (see ch. iv. § 46), bū-caeda beside bŏvìcīdium, bu-star and bo-star, an ox-stall (ch. iv. § 42), jū-glans (Gk. $\Delta$ iòs $\beta a ́ \lambda a \nu o s) ~$ (Macr. iii. 18. 3). Dies-pitris (C.L.L. xi. 3259), Dies-pitri Arnob. ii. 70 (cf. Dies-pitrem, Macrob. i. 15.14 ' ut diei patrem') may be a case of the declension only of the second part of a word-group, like holus-atri for holeris atri (§80), or pronouns like alter-uter, alter-utrius Gen. (ch. vii. § 29). On Juppiter, see ch. vi. § 32.
§ 86. N-stems show, as we have seen (§ 54), their close connexion with 0 -stems. by substituting -ŏ for -n whether in the first half of a compound,
 guma-kunds, ' of male sex'), or in the second, e. g. Gk. ö $\mu \alpha \mu$ оs beside $\delta \mu a i \mu \omega \nu$. We find also $n \mathrm{n}$ in Gk. òvouá-kגvros, so that the en of Lat. nomen-clātor, \&c. was originally n ; also the 'Composition vowel' -ob- added to the stem, e. g. Gk. $\phi f \in \nu-0-\beta \lambda a \beta \eta$ s, Lat. ìmāgĭn-ǐ-fer.
§ 87. R-stems, like N -stems, take the weak grade of the stem suffix before a consonant, rer (e.g. O. Ind. pitr-śrávaṇa-, Gk. $\tau \in \tau \rho \bar{d}-\gamma v o s$, Goth. brōpru-lubō), before a vowel, r (e.g. O. Ind. pitr-artham, Gk. $\pi a \tau \rho-\omega \nu v ́ \mu \iota o s)$. and often add the 'Composition vowel' ŏ (e.g. Gk. $\pi a \tau \rho o-\phi o ́ v o s)$. Since Latin -ŏr- (for I.-Eur. ̣ r), -rǐ- (for I.-Eur. -rŏ-) would generally become in the unaccented syllable - $-\stackrel{r}{r}$-, it is not easy to decide on the origin of - $\breve{r} r$ - in each case. For patrǐ-cīda, patrĭ-cus, \&c. we should expect *patercida, ${ }^{*}$ patercus ; cf. acertas on the Aes Italicense. (C.I.L. ii. 6278 , l. 36, of $176-180$ A.d.)
§ 88. Dental and Guttural Stems. The frequent interchange of consonantal with I-stems in Latin (§ 34), suggests that the $-\grave{\imath}$ - of dent-i-frangibullus, pĕd-i-sěquus, rēg-i-fŭgium, may have been original ĭ. It may also have been the ${ }_{\mathrm{o}}$, which is often used as 'Composition vowel,' with these stems, in other languages [e.g. Gk. $\delta \rho a k o \nu \tau-\delta \dot{-}-\mu \alpha \lambda \lambda o s, \nu \iota \phi-\sigma_{-}^{-\beta o \lambda o s, ~ G a u l . ~ C a r a n t-o-m a g u s, ~}$ Cinget-o-rīx (lit. ' king of warriors' ; cf. O. Ir. cing, 'a warrior,' from cingim, ' I march')]. Before $r$ we should have ĕ, e. g. lë̀ĕ̌rǔpa (Plaut.), and before a labial $\check{u}(\breve{\sigma})$ in the older spelling (see ch. iii. § r8).
§ 89. S-stems. The S-stems, like other consonant-stems in Latin, often show $\grave{\imath}$, e. g. mūr-i-c-c$d u s, j \bar{u} r-i-l$-lĭcus, whether the 1 of I-stems or the 'Composition vowel' ${ }^{\circ}$ it is not easy to decide. But we find also the normal stem, e. g. mūs-cĭpǔla (cf. Gk. $\mu \bar{i} \sigma$-фóvos). The ES-stems took -ĕs- in I.-Eur. compounds [e.g. Gk. $\sigma a k \epsilon \sigma$ - $\phi$ ópos (the poetical form), Goth. sigis-laun], and so before suffixes in Latin tempes-tivus, hŏnes-tus, \&c., though -ŭs-, by Analogy of the Nom. Sing., is found in ŏnus-tus, \&c. In Latin compounds the stem suffix is
 O. Sl. čudo-točĭnŭ], e. g. foedĭ-frŭgus, or augmented by it, e. g. foelĕr-ǐ-fragus, hönōr-i--fücus ícf. O. Sl. čudes-o-točĭnŭ, Goth. aiz-il-smipa).
§90. Stem-suffixes and Composition in Romance. The Latin suffixes have for the most part remained productive in Romance (e.g. Ital. cannonata with the TO-suffix), though their meaning has sometimes undergone a change. Thus -ino-, which has ousted $-e(y) o-$, the suffix denoting material (§4), e. g. Fr. ferrin, ivoirin, has acquired in Italian and Portuguese a Diminutive sense, e. g. Ital. tavolino, Port. filhinho; -aceo- has taken the sense of large size or inferior quality, e.g. Ital. corpaccio, acquaccia. And new suffixes have been gained from other languages, such as -issa (from the Greek), a fem. suffix used especially in titles, e.g. Ital. duchessa, Fr. duchesse ; -itto- with Diminutive sense, e.g. Ital. biglietto, Fr. amourette ; -ia (from the Greek), denoting Abstracts, e. g. Ital. villania, Span. villanía, cortesía, and so on. (For a full account of the Romance suffixes, see Meyer-Labbe, Rom. Gram. ii. pp. 448 sqq.) Of Composition these varieties are noteworthy : Word-groups like Fr. pourboire; Bahuvrîhi Compounds like Fr. röuge-gorge; Dvandva Compounds like Ital. acqui-vento, 'wind and rain'; Verb with Noun (violating Scaliger's rule), e. g. Fr. garde-robe, Ital. guarda-boschi, becca-fico, lit. 'peck-fig,' with the Verb apparently in the 2 Sg. Imperat. (see Meyer-Lübke, ib. pp. 577 sqq.).

## CHAPTER VI.

## DECLENSION OF NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

## COMPARISON OF ADJECTIVES. NUMERALS.

§ 1. I. DECLENSION OF NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES. The I.-Eur. Noun had three Genders, Masc., Fem., and Neut., three Numbers, Sing., Dual, and Plur., and at least eight Cases, Nom., Gen., Dat., Acc., Voc. (if the Voc. may be called a Case), Abl., Instrumental, and Locative (the Dat., Abl., Instr., Loc. are not always easy to discriminate in the Plural). The three Genders are retained in Latin, but of the Numbers the Dual has disappeared, though traces of it remain in the Numeral forms dū (§59), oc1ō (lit. 'two sets of four'?), and in the Pronoun form $a m b \bar{o}$ (ch. vii. § 29) ${ }^{1}$. (On $v \bar{\imath}-g i n t \bar{z}$, see § 74.) Of the Cases the Voc. hardly survives except in O-stems (§31), and the Instr. has left only doubtful traces of itself in some Adverb forms (§ 36); the Locative became by the operation of the phonetic laws of the language indistinguishable in $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stems from the Gen. Sg., while in O-stems it seems to have ousted the Genitive (§ 17), and in Cons.-stems the Ablative (§33).

The I.-Eur. Cases were indicated sometimes by the addition of suffixes, e. g. -s for Nom. Sg. Masc., -m for Acc. Sg., sometimes by modification of the stem, e. g. *pătēr Nom. Sg. of stem *pătër-, ' a father,'sometimes by both, e. g. *patr-ŏs, *patr-öm Gen. Sg., Pl . of the same stem. This modification (called by the Germans

[^73]
#### Abstract

a suffix still retained in 'oxen,' \&c. The Dual is rapidly disappearing at the present time in the Prussian dialect of Lithuanian, though in the other dialects it is better preserved.


'Abstufung') of the stem is due to the different accentuation of the different cases; and the I.-Eur. cases have been divided into (1) 'Strong' Cases, viz. the Nom., Voc. M. and F. of all Numbers, and the Acc. M. and F. of the Sing. and Dual, along with the Loc. Sing.; (2) 'Weak' Cases, where the accentuation of the suffix weakened the stem, e.g. *patr-ós (Gk. $\pi a \tau \rho-o{ }^{\prime}$ ). This alternation of unweakened and weakened stem is a feature of the Sanscrit declension, but has been effaced in most other languages by the natural tendency to make one Case like another in everything but the suffix (cf. Hom. Gk. aatépos on the analogy of $\pi a \tau \epsilon ́ \rho a$ ), Lat. patr-em on the analogy of patr-is), and often the only trace left of it is the existence of varieties of the same stem ; e. g. the varieties polen- (Lat. polen-ta) and poll- for *poln- (Lat. poll-en) may be due to a former declension with the stem polen- in the strong, and the stem poln-in the weak cases. [The variations homĕn-, e.g. hŏmı̆nis, hemön-, e.g. O. Lat. lёmönem (Paul. Fest. 71. 18 Th.), and homō( $n$ )- have been similarly explained.] The appropriation of different stems to different cases leads to what is called Heteroclite declension ; thus $\breve{\imath} t \breve{e} r$ - is the stem appropriated to the Nom. Sing., そ̌tınĕrr- the stem appropriated to the other cases in Latin [so sénĕc- (ch. v. § 69) Nom. Sg., but $\operatorname{sĕn}(i)$ - in the other cases, s supelleg-, for super-leg-, a suffixless $^{\text {a }}$ stem (ch. v. §77) in the Nom. Sg., supellectūli- for super-lectili- (an Adjectival LI-stem, ch. v. § 40) in the oblique cases]. Lat. fëmŭr Nom., fĕmĭnis Gen., \&c. retain a very ancient type of heteroclite declension of Neuter Nouns, in which the consonant $R$ was the mark of the Nom., Acc., the consonant N of the Gen., Dat., \&c. (see ch. v. § 56). In discussing the declension of the Latin Noun it will be better to put aside the conventional division made by the native grammarians, and to class nouns rather according to the final letter of their stems as $\bar{A}$-stems, $\check{O}$-stems, \&c. The heterogeneous composition of the fifth declension ( $r \bar{e} s$ stem reì-, füle $\bar{e}$ stem fid- $\bar{e}-$, tristütiès stem tristitiā- (?)) has been already pointed out (ch. v. §51) ; also the close connexion of Consonant and I-stems (ch. v. §34; cf. below, §46, on cīv̌̌tātium, न̌̆rentium, aulācium, \&c.), and the absorption of the U- into the O-declension (ch. v. §49). O-stems had, as we saw (ch. v. § 34), a tendency, when used as Adjectives, to become I-stems, e.g. ı̆nermis, O. Lat. inermus,
from the stem armo-; and in Vulg. Lat. we find a similar confusion of I-stem Adjs. with O-stems, e. g. tristis non 'tristus,' Prob. App. 198.3K.(cf.trista N., Rossi, i. 842, of 472 A.D., Ital.tristo).

In the Romance languages the Latin Declensions have been 'levelled' to a much greater extent than the Latin Conjugations, owing to the fact that the distinction of the Cases came to be expressed rather by Prepositions than by Case-suffixes. The sign of the Genitive was the Preposition de, of the Dative arl, and so on ; and these Prepositions ceased to retain their classical construction [as early as the first cent. a. d. we have on a Pompeian graffito (C. I. L. iv. 275) Saturninus cum discentes]. Thus the Cases have been reduced in most languages to one, though O. Fr. and O. Prov. retain the distinction of the Nom. and Acc. (e.g. O. Fr. chars Nom., char Acc. of Lat. cārus; suer Nom., serour Acc. of Lat. sŏror), and in Roumanian we see the Dat. Fem. in roase Dat. (Lat. rơsae) beside roasă Nom. (Lat. rŏsa), \&c. More important was the distinction of Singular and Plural ; and so the two Numbers are always distinguished, except (in pronunciation) in French, though a Latin Plural has often become a Romance Singular, e. g. ligna, Ital. legna, liblia, Ital. bibbia. The fourth Declension has been merged in the second, a process which shows itself very strongly even in the conversational Latin of Plautus (ch.v §49), the fifth in the third or first; and forms like Span. polvo (Vulg. Lat. *pulvus for pulvis), Ital. serpe (Vulg. Lat. serpi- for serpens) illustrate how the 'levelling' influence of Analogy gradually removed the distinctions of declension. (For particulars of the Romance declension, see Meyer-Lübke, Gram. Rom. Sprach. ii. pp. I sqq.).

As regards Gender, the laws according to which one Noun was Masculine, another Feminine, and a third Neuter in I.-Eur. have not yet been determined. The Neuter Gender seems to have been restricted to things without life. Thus while names of trees were masc. (in O. Ind., e. g. bhūrjas, 'a birch') or fem. (in Greek and Latin, e. g. ф $\eta \gamma$ ós, fägus, 'a beech '), names of fruits were Neuter (e.g. O. Ind. āmrám, 'mango-fruit,' beside āmrás, ' mango-tree,' Lat. mälum beside mälus) (see Delbrück in Brugmann's Grundriss, iii. ch. i.); the difference between the gender of names of rivers in O. Ind. (fem.) and in Gk. and Lat. (masc.)
may be due to the different gender of the word for 'river' in these languages (O. Ind. nadí F., Gk. тoтauós M.), just as the names of the months, winds, \&c. in Latin are really Adjectives agreeing with mensis, ventus (e. g. Jānuārius, Febriuàrius, Martius; Auster, Caurus, Färonius). But the proneness of nouns to take a new gender by analogy of a noun which had a similar termination, or a kindred meaning, or with which they were often joined in speech ${ }^{1}$, makes it impossible to trace the original gender of each and every noun. The feminine gender seems to have been associated with Abstract Nouns, e.g. Lat. optio, ' choice.' But if an Abstract Noun came to be used as a Concrete, it might change its gender ; and so optio in the sense of 'a centurion's assistant' was masculine. Similarly agrǔcơla, lit. 'field-tillage,' became masc. in the sense of 'a field-tiller'; and this is probably the reason why $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stems, which were associated with the feminine gender in I.-Eur., are often masc. in the various I.-Eur. languages (ch. v. § 2). O-stems were similarly associated with the masculine (with Nom. Sg. in -oss) and the neuter gender (Nom., Acc. Sg. in -ŏm) ; but we have feminine O-stems in the various languages, e. g. Gk. óoós, $\kappa \in \in \lambda \in v \theta o s, \lambda i \theta o s$, $\psi \hat{\eta} \phi o s$, and names of trees like $\phi \eta \gamma o ́ s, \& c$. In Latin (as we have seen, ch. iv. § 49) we seem to detect a tendency of these feminine O-stems to pass into the fourth declension. Thus fägus is treated like a U-stem (fourth Declension) in the Culex, l. 1 39 : umbrosaeque patent fagus (cf. Varro ap. Charis. p. 130. 5 K.); and the declension of dŏmus (an O-stem in the earlier literature, ch. v. § 49 ; cf. Gk. סó ${ }^{\mu o s}{ }^{2}$ ), cŏlus (Gk. oóגos), nŭrus (Gk. vvós for *vvoós) has been so explained.

The confusion of masculine and neuter O-stems may be illustrated by the words collum, which in Plautus is collus (I.-Eur. kolso-, Germ. Hals M.), and ŭtërus, which in Plautus is uterum (cf. O. Ind. udáram). (Other exx. in Neue, $\mathrm{i}^{2}$. p. 529.) (On löcus, loca Plur., \&c., see § 45.) In Late and Vulgar Latin the masculine seems to oust the neuter in these stems, as we see from

[^74]the precepts of the grammarians [e.g. Caper (first cent.) censures pratus 105. 6 K ., solius 94. 19 K., and expresses himself forcibly about cereber 103. 6 K .: hoc cerebrum est nam 'cereber' qui dicunt sine cerebro vivunt], and from the 'sermo plebeius' of Petronius (e. g. fatus, 42, p. 28. 13 B.). On plebeian epitaphs we find collegius (e.g. C. I. L. xi. 4579. 4749), monimentus (e.g. ib. vi. 19319), and especially fatus in the stock-epitaph of the lower classes (like our 'Affliction sore long time he bore '):

> noli dolere mater eventum meum. properavit aetas: hoc voluit fatus milhi.
(On the disuse of the Neuter in later Latin, see Appel, De genere neutro intereunte in lingua Latina, Erlangen, 1883).

In the Romance languages the Neuter has disappeared, though it has influenced the formation of the Plural. Thus O. Prov. pratz points to pratus for prātum, but Ital. tempora Plur. (tempo Sg.), braccia Plur. (braccio Sg.), retain the Neut. Plur. formation tempora, bracchia. (On change of gender see Meyer-Lübke,ii. 416.)

The Adjective Declension took advantage of the connexion of O -stems with the masculine and neuter, and of $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stems with the feminine gender, e.g. I.-Eur. *něwŏs M., *něwā F., *něwŏm N. (Lat. nŏvus, $-a,-u m$ ) (see ch. v. § 2). Consonant-stems formed their feminine with the Ī-suffix, e. g. I.-Eur. *nĕptī F. beside nĕpot- M. (Lat. neptis beside nĕpōs.) (On the $\overline{\mathrm{I}}$-suffix, see ch. v. § 5I, and on other feminine formative suffixes, as in Lat. gall-ina beside gallus, rëg-īna beside rēx, consult the same chapter.) The Greek extension to the Feminine of the masculine suffix -os in Compound Adjectives, which were originally Nouns in Apposition, is not found in Latin, e.g. poóoóáктvлos 'H $\omega$ s, lit. ‘ Dawn Rose-finger' (ch. v. §80), though we have in O. Lat. lupus femina, agnus femina, \&c. (e. g. Ennius, A. 59 M., in the story of the nursing of Romulus and Remus, has:

> indotuetur ibi lupus femina).

But a usage peculiar to Latin is the extension to the Neuter of the S-suffix of the Masc. and Fem., not merely in Present Participles like fërens, where ferens Neut. may represent an older *ferent (ch. iv. § IO5), and in větus, which was probably originally
a noun (Gk. F'́ros, § 55), but also in Adjectives like audāx (facinus audax, Plaut.), dives (dives opus, Ovid). It is to be compared with the extension of Derivatives in -trīx (properly feminine, e.g. victrices lauros, Virg.) to Neuters, e.g. victricia arma, Virg., though victrix Sing. is not used with a Neuter Noun till Late Latin (see Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 40 ; and cf. below, § 16). The distinction in RI-stems ${ }^{1}$ between the Nom. Sg. Masc. in -er, and the Nom. Sg. Fem. in -ris is not always found in the earlier authors (e.g. Ennius has somnus acris, A. 400 M., and acer hiemps, A. 47 I M., and Virgil himself has alacris Masc., $A$. vi. 685), and is not rigorously enforced even in classical Latin, e. g. mediocris Masc., illustris Masc. (see Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. I5). (On the Romance declension of Adjectives, e.g. Ital. buono M., buona F., Span. bueno M., buena F., O. Fr. bon, bone, \&c., see Meyer-Lübke, Rom. Gram. ii. p. 75.) (On the Pronominal declension of certain Adjectives in I.-Eur., see ch. vii. § 29.)
§ 2. Nom. Sing. I. Masc., Fem. Ā-stems took -ā in I.-Eur. (e. g. O. Ind. áśvā, 'a mare,' Gk. $\chi^{\dagger} \rho \rho \bar{a}$ ). By the time of the oldest Latin poetry this $\bar{a}$ has in every Nom. of an $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stem been shortened to $\breve{c}$, a shortening which may have begun in dissyllables with short first syllable, e. g. lera, where the working of the Law of Breves Breviantes would shorten the final syllable, hĕră like căvĕ, hăvĕ (ch. iii. §40); though an early reduction of this $-\bar{a}$, as well as of the $-\bar{a}$ of Nom. Pl. Neut. of O-stems (§ 45), on Italian soil is indicated by the fact that in Oscan both have been replaced by an $o$-sound (in Oscan alph. ú, in Lat. $o$, in Gk. o), and in Umbrian are written sometimes -a, sometimes -o (in Umbr. alph. -u), e. g. Osc. vío 'via,' Umbr. mutu and muta 'mulcta' (see ch. ii. § I) ${ }^{2}$. O. Lat. hosticapas (hostium captor, Paul. Fest. 73.10 Th. ), paricilas quoted from the Laws of Numa (Paul. Fest. 278. 10 siqui hominem liberum dolo sciens morti duit, paricidas esto) may be analogous to the Greek usage of

[^75]adding -s to a fem. Abstract $\bar{a}$-stem when used as a masc. Concrete, e.g. $\nu \epsilon a v i ́ a s$, a youth, from ${ }^{*}{ }_{\nu \epsilon a \nu i ́ a}$, youth, though the usual practice in Latin is to retain the ordinary Nom. form, e.g. agrǐ-cŏla, a field-tiller, originally ' field-tillage.'

YA-stems, the fem. of consonant-stems, \&c. (ch. v. § 51 ), which in O. Ind. take -ì, e.g. bhárantī, Pres. Part of bhr-, ' to carry,' naptí, Fem. of nápāt-, 'grandson,' in Greek -ıă, e. g. ф'́povoa for ${ }^{*} \phi \epsilon \rho о \nu \tau y$ ă, show in Latin -ia, e. g. prae-sentia, possibly also - $\iota s$, e. g. *ferentı̌s which became ferens, neptıťs (older Lat. $-\bar{\imath} s$ ?). Beside -ia (first Decl.) we find -iès (fifth Decl.), e.g. māterr-ies beside materia. The exact relation between O. Ind. -ī, Gk. -ıă, Lat. $-i a$ and $-i \bar{e} s$ has not yet been determined (see ch. v. § 5 I ).

O -stems took -os in I.-Eur. (e. g. O. Ind. vب̣́kas, 'a wolf,' Gk.入úкos, Gaul. tarvos, 'a bull'), and in Latin, e. g. lupus, taurus, older *lupos, *tauros (ch. iv. § 19). In RŎ-stems the final -ros, when preceded by a consonant, was changed by a phonetic process common to Latin with other Italic languages to -er, e. g. Lat. ăger for *agro-s (Gk. àpós), Umbr. ager; even when a short vowel precedes, we find, e. g. Lat. sŏcer (in Plautus socërus) for $*_{s o c u ̆ r o s, ~ * s o c e ̆ r o s ~(I .-E u r . ~ * s w e ̌ k i k u r o s), ~ v u ̆ r ~ f o r ~ * v i ̆ r o s, ~ s a ̆ t u r ~ f o r ~}^{\text {for }}$ $*_{\text {satŭros. }}$

YO-stems, whose suffix in I.-Eur. seems to have varied with i (e. g. Goth. hairdeis, 'a herdsman ;' Lith. gaidỹs, 'a cock,' beside svẽczias, 'a guest') show in Latin usually -ius, but in familiar language also -is, e. g. Corneèlis and other proper names.

All other stems took -s in I.-Eur. and in Latin, e. g. ŏrŭs (O. Ind. ávi-s, Gk. ö(F) $)^{\prime}$, Lith. avis), mănŭs (O. Ind. svādús,
 rès (O. Ind. rấs), mïlüs for *milets (the last syllable is scanned long by Plautus, *miless, ch. ii. § 133), $m \bar{u} s$ for ${ }^{*} m \bar{s} s-s, ~ r e \bar{x}$, \&c. S-stems have -ēs (e. g. I.-Eur. *dus-menēs, O. Ind. dur-manās, Gk. $\delta v \sigma-\mu \in \nu \eta \eta^{\prime}$ ) or -ōs (e.g. I.-Eur. *āusōs, Hom. Gk. $\eta^{\prime} \omega s$; cf. O. Ind. uṣ̂ás), and so in Latin, e. g. pūbēs, hŏn̄̄̀s M., later honor, tënor M. (beside tenus N.). But N-stems, which in I.-Eur.
 śvá̀, ‘dog,' O. Ir. cū, Lith. szũ̃], show -ō in Latin, e. g. hömō, rătiō, uirco 'virgo' on the very ancient Dvenos inscr. I.-Eur. R-stems

(2) O. Ind. mātá, dâtā, Lith. motễ and mótè, sesũ̃, 'sister '], but display only the first formation in Latin, e. g. mätĕr, dătŭr, sŏrŏr (in O. Lat. *matēr, datōr, sorōr ; see ch. iii. § 49). So in Umbrian karu, 'a part' (Lat. cŭrō), with u as equivalent of Lat. $\bar{o}$, but in Osc. statíf 'statio,' fruktatiuf ' fruitatio,' úittiuf ' utitio' with -f for ns, the ns being perhaps a re-formation just as carnis sometimes replaces caro in Latin (Prisc. i. p. 208. 19 H.). UmbroOscan R-stems form their Nom. like the Latin, e.g. Umbr. arsfertur, Osc. censtur 'censor' (both with $u$, the equivalent of Lat. $\bar{o}$ ).
§ 3. Nom. Sing. of $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stems in Lat. We have seen in ch. iii. § 43 that all supposed instances of $-\bar{a}$ Nom. Sg. in early poetry are illusory [aquilu, Enn. A. I 49 M. is a case of metrical lengthening of a short syllable before the penthemimeral caesura ; copiă, Plaut. Mil. 1226 shows 'syllaba anceps' at the end of the hemistich ; familia, Trin. 25 I is a proceleusmatic (fümilŭ̈) representing an anapaest, and so on]. The only genuine instances are Greek words with $-\bar{a}^{1}$, which are long in later poetry too, e. g. Nemeä (Stat. Theb. vi. $5^{16}$. Greek Nominatives in $-a s,-\eta s$ were especially in the older literature changed to the ordinary Latin Nom., e.g. Anchisŭ (Enn. A. 19 M.), Aenea (Quint. i. 5. 61 ne in a quidem atque s litteras exire temere masculina Graeca nomina recto casu patiebantur, ideoque et apud Caelium legimus 'Pelia cincinnatus' et apud Messalam 'bene fecit Euthia,' et apud Ciceronem 'Hermagora,' ne miremur, quod ab antiquorum plerisque 'Aenea' ut 'Anchisa' sit dictus), and similarly in classical Latin poêtŭ, nautü, bibliöpoŭü, \&c.. (cf. Atrīdŭ, Propert. ii. 14. I ; Marsyă, Hor. S. i. 6. I20; and for other instances see Neue, Formenl. $\mathrm{i}^{2}$. pp. 3r sqq.) ; though they usually in the classical literature retain $-\overline{\mathrm{c}}$ s, - $\bar{s}$. just as Greek Noms. in $-\eta$ retain $\bar{\varepsilon}$, e. g. Andrömüché, or take the Latin suffix, e.g. 戶pistuluc. Hosticapas, quoted by Paul. Fest., is a strange form. Compounds of căpio usually show -ceps, e.g. mūñ̆-ceps, while Plautus has urbй-cŭpe Voc. (Mil. io55). Paricidas (i.e. parricidas, for the double consonant was not written double till Ennius' time, ch. i. § 8) is indeed in the Republican and Classical period an $\overline{\text { Al-stem (e.g. parricìida Voc., Plaut. Pseud. } 362 \text {; but adjectivally }}$ müri-cīde homo Voc., ' you coward,' Epid. 333); however, if these Mase. $\overline{\text { A.stems }}$ originally took -as in Latin, they had conformed to the ordinary usage of Fem. $\overline{\text { A}}$-stems as early as the beginning of the second cent. в. c., for Plautus, Rud. 652, has lēgiriùpa (better legerupa, ch. iii. § 20) Nom. Sing. with its last syllable elided:
légerupa, inpudéns, inpurus, ínuerecundíssimus,
where legerupa, originally 'the act of law-breaking,' a fem. Abstract, then masc. and Concrete, 'a law-breaker,' cannot have been written by Plautus legerupas (ch. ii. § 137). The names on Oscan inscriptions (Map)as (Zv. I.I.I.
${ }^{1}$ agoeā in Enn. A. $5^{6} 7$ M. : multa foro ponet et agoea longa repletur, is not a certain example. The Greek
word seems to have been ä $\gamma v i a ̆$, and one MS. reads ponens ageaque.

253 from Messana), Maras (I. F. ii. p. 437 from Puteoli or Cumae), whence the derivative Osc. Maraio-, Falisc. Mareio-, Lat. Mărŭus (ch. v. §4), and Tanas (Zvet. 102 from Samnium) suggest that Noms. in -ās (for -ăs would probably be syncopated in Oscan) were used in Oscan like Noms. in $-\bar{\alpha} s,-\eta s$ in Greek. But they may belong to some un-Italic dialect. Eaveías is Osc. Santia (Zvet. 228).
§ 4. RO-stems. The substitution of er for -ros is extended even to Gk. loanwords, e. g. Alexander, though the usage varied, e. g. Euandrus and Euander in Virgil (see Neue, Formenl. i'. p. 77). It is not found in Latin words when a long syllable precedes -ros, e. g. sěvē-rus, sǔsur-rus, mätū-rus, nor in these tribrach words hŭmërus, nŭmĕrus, ǔtĕrus. Plautus has the tribrach stem sŏcĕro-(I.-Eur. *swěkŭro-, O. Ind. švášura-, Gk. écvoós, Lith. szesziùras) with Nom. socerus (Men. 957), and Priscian (i. 231. 13 H.) says that puerus was used by the older writers, though he is perhaps referring to Voc. puëre, probably the invariable form of the Voc. Sg. of puer in Plautus, for puerus is not found in any extant literature. It is not however certain that puer was originally an $O$-stem, for the cognate Greek word is $\pi a(F) i \delta$-, and the old Saturnian poets used puer as fem. as well as masc. (see Charis. 84. 5 K. ; Prisc. i. p. 232 H.), e. g. Naevius, Bell. Pun. ii. :

## príma incédit Céreris Prosérpina púer,

while the curious compound slave-names Marcipor, Gaipor, Quintipor, \&c. are I-stems, Plur. Marcipores (e.g. Plin. xxxiii. 26). Infĕrus, with sŭpĕrus, is used in Livius Andronicus' translation of the Odyssey (at least in the later dactylic version of it) :
inferus an superus tibi fert deus funera, Ulixes?,
but infer and super by Cato (R.R. cxlix. i ubi super inferque uicinus permittet), like citer (Cato, Orat. fr. Ixii. p. 65 J.). Of compounds ending in Verbal Adjective in -rus we have always mōrǐ-gĕrus (e.g. Plaut. Capt. 966), prŏ-pĕrus, (jūnī-pěrus is by some explained as jun(on)i-pirus, 'Juno's pear,' like jū-glans, 'Jove's acorn,' by others is derived from *jünus, cf. jun-cus, and părio), but the normal usage favoured -ger, -fer, \&c. (for details, see Kühner, Lat. Gram. i. pp. 278 sqq.). All this points to -er having originally been substituted for -ros only when a consonant preceded, e. g. ăger for *ag-ros. After the vowel $i$ we find -ros curtailed to $-r$ in vir (but pirus beside pı̈rum) ; after the vowel $u$, in sătür (as early as Plautus; see A.L.L. v. 34), although voltürus (class. vultur,
 increased in Vulgar Latin, as we see from the Probi Appendix 197. 30 K.: barbarus non 'barbar,' although the opposite tendency (due to Greek influence of S. Italy ?) is also mentioned (ib. 198. 26) : teter non 'tetrus,' aper non 'aprus.' In the Umbro-Oscan dialects -los was similarly changed to -el, e. g. Osc. famel, apparently for făm-lo-, 'a dweller' (cf. Osc. faamat, 'he dwells') with the same formation as Lat.figulus, stem fig-lo- from figo, \&c. (ch. iv. § 5I). But this was not the Latin usage, e. g. fămülus, bibŭlus, mascülus, \&c. (cf. ch. iv. § ro), though Ennius borrows from his native Oscan the form famul in his reference to Servius Tullius ( $A .336$ M.):
mortalem summum fortuna repente
reddidit, ut summo regno famul oltimus esset,
in which he is imitated by Lucretius, who echoes the rhythm of this passage (iii. 1035) :

Scipiadas, belli fulmen, Carthaginis horror, ossa dedit terrae proinde ac famul infimus esset.

The S. Italian forms figel, mascel found their way into plebeian Latin under the Empire (Prob. App. 197. 28 K . figulus non 'figel,' masculus non 'mascel'); but the usual Vulgar Latin form masclus is mentioned in the same treatise (197.20 K. speculum non 'speclum,' masculus non 'masclus,' vetulus non 'veclus,' vernaculus non 'vernaclus,' articulus non 'articlus,' baculus non 'baclus,' angulus non 'anglus,' jugulus nọn 'juglus.') (On the curtailment of -řs and -liss, see ch. iv. § 13 ; the restriction of er to Masc., -ris to Fem. Nom. Sing. is not observed in the older literature ; e. g. Ennius has somnus acris and acer hiems ; cf. § 1 , p. 37 r ).
§ 5. YO-stems. The -īs of the Nom. Sing. of Oscan YO-stems, e.g. Pakis, Lat. Pūcius (-ǐs would be syncopated in Oscan, e.g. cers, Lat. cîris), is perhaps indicated for Latin by the occasional spellings with -ets on Greek inscriptions, e.g. 'Eגєts (Lat. Aelius) (I.I.S. 928, Ostia, very late), Пєт $\quad \omega \nu \epsilon \epsilon$ (Lat. Petronius) ; the usual Greek transcription, however, is -ts. (Neither -ts nor - $\epsilon$ Is is found till the beginning of the first century A.d.; see Eckinger, Orthographie p. 56). Alŭs (if we may infer this quantity from allŭd, Lucr. i. 263 , \&c.) may have its final syllable shortened by the Law of Breves Breviantes, like carě, harě, \&c. (ch. iii. § 42). In the S. C. de Bacchanalibus (C.I.L. i. 196) the consuls' names are written in what we may suppose to be the ceremonious form, Marcius, Postumius, while the secretaries' names have the is-ending, Claudi, Valeri, Minuci. Ritschl in a paper entitled 'De declinatione quadam latina reconditiore' (Opusc. iv. 446) has collected a large number of these proper names with -is or $-i$ Nom. (less certainly -is Gen., $-i$ Dat., -im Acc.) from Latin inscrr. The form alis, quoted from the older writers (e. g.Catull. lxvi. 28) by the grammarians (see the passages mentioned by Ritschl, $i b$. p. 452), may have been specially used in collocations like alis alium (so in the Vulgar Latin of the Itala ; cf. C. I. L. ii. 2633 , of 27 A. D. : eique omnes alis alium . . . receperunt), alis alibi (e.g. Sallust fragt. ap. Charis. p. 159. 3r K.), where the two words formed a single word-group like our 'one another.' This byform of the Nom. (Ace. \&c.) must have led to confusion with I-stems, of which we have perhaps a trace in the gradual ousting of the second Decl. suffix -ärius by the third Decl. -äris (ch. v. §4), and in the remark of Caper (in2. 2 K.) that
 vatius.
§ 6. I-stems. The -is of the Nom. Sing. of I-stems is syncopated in the Umbro-Oscan dialects, e. g. Ose. cevs (Lat. civis), like the -ös of the Nom. Sing. of 0 -stems, e. g. Umbr. emps (Lat. emptis), Ikuvins (Lat. Iguvinus), Osc. húrz (Lat. hortus), Bantins (Lat.Bantinus), and the -ěs of the Nom. Plur. of Consonantstems, e. g. Osc. $\mu \in \delta \delta \epsilon \epsilon \xi$ for *med-dik-ès Nom. Plur. of meddix, censtur for *cen-stor-ës, Lat. censöres. We have seen (ch. $\mathrm{iii} . \S$ г 6 ) that it is very difficult to prove a similar treatment of -is in Latin; for Noms. like pars (for partis), Gen. partis, may have dropped $i$ not by Syncope, but by the Analogy of Cons.-stems like rēx, Gen. rēgis, lēx, Gen. lēgis, \&c. Like -rös, however, rĭs was reduced to -er in Latin as in Umbro-Oscan, e.g. Lat. àcer for cucris, Umbr. pacer for *pac-
ris, 'propitious,' connected with Lat. pāx. Ennius, who coined fămŭl after the type of the Oscan famel (\$4), used dēbil (Voc. Sing. ?) for debilis (A.34I M. debil homo), perhaps after Osc. aídil (Lat. aidilis), \&e. Nouns with Nom. Sing. in -l (consul, praesul, exul, pŭgil, viggil, mūgil, \&c.) are declined as Consonantstems in Latin (Gen. Plur. consul-um, pugil-um, vigil-um, mugil-um) (see Neue, Formenl. $\mathbf{i}^{2}$. p. 153), though the line between Nouns in -l and Adjectives in -lis, e.g. debilis, is, as might be expected, often passed over. Thus Juvenal, (x. 317) has mugilis (but Mart. Cap. iii. 294 si 'mugilis' esset . . . 'mugilium' faceret.) For vigil, pugil we should expect *vigulus, *pugulus, like bübŭlus, fĭgŭlus (ch.v. § 22), or with adjectival $i(\mathrm{ch} . \mathrm{v} . \S 34)^{*}$ rigilis, *pugilis, although -ilis has properly $^{2}$ a passive sense, e.g. bibilis, 'drinkable, easily drunk,' ăgilis, 'easily moved,' hăbilis (whence dēbilis for *de-hibilis), 'easily handled' (ch. v. §4I). Beside -iss, the usual Nom. Sing. of Masc. and Fem. I-stems in Latin, we find occasionally $-\bar{e} s$, e.g. cănēs F ., the O . Lat. form which had been replaced by canĭs by the time of Varro (L. L. vii. 32). The -ęs of ambägēs, \&c., we have seen to be really the -ès of the Nom. Plur. of I-stems, viz. -ĕyĕs (e. g. Lat. trēs for *trĕyěs, O. Ind. tráyas, Cret. Gk. $\tau \rho \notin \epsilon \in$ for ${ }^{*} \tau \rho \in y \in s, 0$. Sl. trǐje, \&c.) (§ 40) ; it must not be confounded with an early spelling like aidiles for aedilius on a Scipio epitaph (C.I. L. i. 3r, but aidilis on another Scipio epitaph, i. 32), where the $e$ (pronounced $\check{e}$ ) is merely an expression of the $\check{\imath}$-sound in an unaccented syllable, like the third $e$ of Tempestatebus for Tempestatitubus (C. I. L. i. 32) (see ch. iii. § 22). This use of $-\bar{s}$ s in the Nom. Sing. of I-stems led to the diversion of other stems, which took -ēs in the Nom. Sing., into the I-declension. Thus plēbēs, if an ĔS-stem by origin like Gk. $\pi \epsilon \rho \iota-\pi \lambda \eta \theta \eta^{\prime} s($ beside $\pi \lambda \hat{\eta} \theta o s$ ) (ch. v. § 74 ), should have made its Gen. Sing. *plēbĕris, but was led by the analogy of canēs, \&c. into taking a Gen. pleb-is, as on the other hand the analogy of stems like rés, Gen. rē̄̄, rề supplied the Gen. plebēt, plebề ; and the tendency of Vulgar Latin to replace every Nom. Sing. ees by the more familiar -is was perhaps the cause of the forms cautis, plebis, vatis, tabis, nubis, subolis, vulpis, palumbis, luis, vepris, fumis, cladis, prolis, censured in Prob. App. pp. 198-9 K. For the late byform molis for mōles (an ES-stem, cf. molĕs-tus), see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s.v., and for other examples, Ritschl, Opusc. ii. 654. Beside plebēs, nubēs, cautes, saepes, we have plebs, nubs (used by Liv. Andronicus, according to Servius ad A. x. 636, and frequent in the Itala), cōs, saeps; also trabs for older träbes (Varro, L. L. vii. 33 sic dictum a quibusdam ut una 'canes,' una 'trabes' . . . cujus verbi singularis casus rectus correptus ac facta trabs.) (On these Noms. in -ēs, see ch. v. § 51.) O. Lat. sortis (class. Lat. sors) and the like are discussed in ch. iii. § 16 ; messis of Plaut. Rud. 763 (AP) is changed by editors to messis.
§ 7. S-stems. Masc. and Fem. ES-stems, connected with Neuter ES-stems (Nom. -ŏs, ch. v. § 71), took -ōs M. (class. -or), - $\bar{e} s$ F. in Latin, e.g. hŏnōs, class. honor (cf. honěs-tus), plēbēs (cf. Gk. $\pi \lambda \hat{\eta} \theta o s)$. As Adjectives (cf. Gk. $\pi \in \rho \iota-\pi \lambda \eta \theta \eta \dot{\eta} s$ beside $\pi \lambda \hat{\eta} \theta o s, \psi \in v \delta \bar{\eta} s$ beside $\psi \in \hat{v} \delta o s$ ) they show -er in $p \bar{u} b e r$ (also pubēs, -ěris Gen., impubēs, -̌̌ris Gen.), dē-ğ̌ner ; -or in con-cǒlor, bĭ-corpor (ch. v. § 73). The -os of honos, lăbos, cơlos, văpos, \&c. was not quite ousted by -or (taken from the oblique cases, honōris, honōrem, \&c., where $s$ came between two vowels, ch. iv. § 148) till the Augustan period (for details, see Neue, Forment. i ${ }^{2}$. p. 167). Sallust, according to Servius ad A.i. 253, almost always used the form labos; and -os was persistently retained in monosyllables, e.g. flōs, rōs.
§ 8. N-stems. We find -en in pecten M. (Gk. $\kappa \tau \epsilon \in$ M. for ${ }^{*} \pi \kappa \tau \epsilon \nu s$, Gen.
$\kappa \tau \epsilon v o ́ s)$, flāmen, and liēn (the $\bar{e}$ is attested by Prisc. i. i49. 7 H., Mart. Cap. iii. ${ }^{279}$ ). Sanguis M., which often has its last syllable scanned long by the Latin poets (always sanguĕn or sangū̄s in Lucretius, Munro ad Lucr. i. 853), may represent *sanguins (ch. ii. § 144), a patchwork of the old Nom. *sangui, with the oblique cases *sanguěn-es Gen., \&c. (For this declension of some I.-Eur. neuters, e.g. O. Ind. ákṣ̆i Nom., akšnás Gen., 'the eye,' see ch. v. § 34.) The scansion sanguis brought with it the treatment of the word as an I-stem, sanguem Acc., sanguis Gen. \&c. (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.).
§ 9. Diphthong Stems. I.-Eur. *nāu-s (O. Ind. nāú-s, Gk. vav̂-s) is Latin nävis ; I.-Eur. ${ }^{*}$ güoús ( $^{(O . I n d . ~ g a ̄ u ́-s, ~ G k . ~ \beta o u ̂ s) ~ i s ~ L a t . ~ b o ̄ s, ~ b u t ~ t h e ~} b$ - points to the form being dialectal; the stem rēy- ( 0 . Ind. rás Nom., rāy-ás Gen.) probably formed its I.-Eur. Nom. Sing. as *rē-s, and so in Lat., ręs. I.-Eur. *d(i)yēu-s, 'the sky, day' (O. Ind. d(i)yāús, Gk. Zef́s) has in Latin in the sense of 'day' the Nom. diē-s, while for the name of the sky-god a compound is used, Juppiter (the correct spelling, ch. ii. § 130. p. 116) for *Jeu-pater, probably in the Voc. case, unless Jeu- be the stem (ch. v. § 85 ; cf. Jani-patri, C.I. L. xi. 5374). The grammarians point out the incongruity of a declension like Juppiter Nom., Jơvis Gen. ('as absurd as Phoebus Nom., Apollinis Gen.' Mar. Sacerd. 473. i K.), and tell us that in the old liturgical books the word was declined Juppiter Nom., Juppitris Gen., \&c. (Pompeius 172.25 ; 187.9 K.), or Joris Nom., Jovis Gen., Prisc. i. 229. to H.). We have tovos Nom. on an old Praenestine cista (C. I. L. xiv. 4105), also [Die]spater (Bull. 1887, p.232), Diesptr (C. I.L. i. 1500); and in Plautus, \&c. Diespiter is not unknown (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s.v. Juppiter). Dies is like the Accus. diem. For the Nom. we should expect *(ieus ( $\mathbf{G k}$. Z Zéśs), with ëu from $\bar{e} u$, which would become in Latin diūs (ef. nŭ-diustertius ?).
§ 10. Nom., Acc. Sing. II. Neut. Neuter O-stems in I.-Eur. have their Nom. Sing. in -ŏm, the suffix of the Acc. Sg. Masc.; all others use the bare stem, ES-stem Nouns taking however -ŏs, N-stems -n, NT-stems -ṇt, \&c. So in Latin, e. g. jŭgum (older jŭgom). (I.-Eur. *yŭgom, O. Ind. yugám, Gk. 〔vyóv), mīte (older $*_{m i ̄ t}{ }^{2}$; see ch. iii. § 37) (cf. O. Ind. šúci, 'pure,' Gk $\begin{aligned} & \text { ì } \rho \iota) ; ~\end{aligned}$ nōmen with een for I.-Eur. -ṇ (O. Ind nấma ; cf. Gk. ồoua); fĕrens from * ferent (ch.iv. § IO5) with -ent for I.-Eur.-ṇt (O. Ind. bhárat), gĕnus (older genŏs) (I.-Eur. *ĝĕnŏs, Gk. $\chi^{\prime}$ vos), cor for ${ }^{*} \operatorname{corl}$ ( O . Ind. hṛ̂d ; cf. Gk. $\kappa \hat{\eta} \rho$ for $\left.{ }^{*}{ }_{\kappa \eta \rho \delta}\right)$. U-stems have in I.-Eur. -ŭ, e.g. *mědhŭ,' mead,' *swādŭ, 'sweet' (O. Ind. mádhŭ, svādŭ́, Gk. $\mu \epsilon ́ \theta \check{v}, \dot{\eta} \delta \delta \check{v})$; and similarly Latin Neuter Nouns have -u, e. g. pŭcu, соrnu (U-Stem Adjectives passed into the I-declension in Latin, e. g. suäve; see ch. v. § 47). But there is a doubt with regard to the quantity of the $-u$. Most grammarians declare it to be short, while Priscian (i. $3^{62 .} 11$ H.) controverts their opinion, and proves by quotations from the poets that it is long. (For
details, see Neue, Formenl. i ${ }^{2}$. p. 345). The existence of byforms like pecus, cornum, \&c. obscures the question, but there seems to be little doubt that with the Augustan poets corn $\bar{u}$, \&c. was the recognized scansion. The long vowel has not yet been satisfactorily explained (see Brugmann, Grundr. ii. § 223 for the various theories, and cf. below, § 45). The Neuter Nom. of consonant-stem adjectives has been assimilated to the Masc. and
 *lŭ-plĕc (Umbr. tu-plak) (cf. above, § $1, ~ p .370$ ).
§ 11. O-stems. We find -um lost in nihhil, nill, from nĭhillum, a compound of nĕ and hillum (quod grano fabae adhaeret, Paul. Fest. 72. io Th.), a loss which seems due to elision before a vowel (ch. iii. § 52). From phrases like nihil(um) hoc est on the one hand, and nihilum dicit on the other, the 'doublets' nihil and nihilum would come into use, and no doubt existed for a long time side by side till the less cumbrous nihil, null ousted its rival. Similarly nōn for ne-oenum, like our ' nought' for 'ne-aught,' $\bar{o}$ being substituted for $\bar{u}$ (older oe) because of the monosyllabic form or the unaccented character of the Conjunction (but see ch. x. § 18). The Umbro-Oscan neuters have -orm, Osc. sakaraklúm 'sacraculum' ('a shrine'), dunum 'dōnum,' Umbr. esonom, a sacrifice.
§ 12. I-stems. Final ĕ is dropped by Syncope (cf. ch. iii. § 36) in Neuters like facul, an O. Lat. form of facile, e. g. Accius, Trag. 460 R.:
érat istuc uirile, ferre aduórsam fortunám facul,
volup, Neut. of a lost Adj. *volupis, e. g. Plaut. Cas. 784 fácite nostro animó uolup. (On the question whether volupest is rightly divided into volupe est or into volup est, see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.). Similarly the old Nom. lacte, with the I-stem form (e. g. Plaut. Bacch. 19. 1134, Men. 1089, Mil. 240) became lact [Plaut. Truc. 903 (?), Varro, L L. v. 104], classical lac (see Georges s. v.).
§ 13. U-stems. The uncertainty of the grammarians of the Empire about the quantity of $-u$ of fourth Decl. Neuters may be due to the fact that in later Latin the fourth Decl. was being supplanted by the second Decl. (ch. v. § 49). Priscian elsewhere (i. 161. 26 H., \&c.) corrects the extraordinary statement of Charisius (fourth cent.) (22. 15 K.) and others, that the $-u$ of -us in fourth Decl. Noms. masculine was pronounced long, a quantity indicated neither by poetry nor by the orthography of inscriptions.
§ 14. S-stems. The I.-Eur. Nom. Sg. -ŏs of Neut. ES-stems, and -ōs of Masc. ES-stems, remained distinct in Latin, e. g. O. Lat. opŏs (C. I. L. i. $5^{2}$ ), honōs. In course of time Neut. -ǒs sank to -ŭs, ̆口pus (see ch. iv. § 20), Masc. -ōs became by Analogy of the oblique cases (hönorr-is, honōr-em, \&c.) -ōr, then -ŏr, owing to the difficulty of sounding a long vowel before a final $-r$ (ch. iii. § 49). There are a few indications of a temporary formation of Neuter Noms. in or, e. g. calor (Plaut. Merc. 860 nec calor nec frigus metuo), prior bellum (Claudius Quadrigarius ap. Prisc. i. p. 347. 7 H.), bellum Punicum posterior (Cassius Hemina
ap. eund.) (cf. $\S 53$ below). Priscian (l. c.), who quotes some instances of Neut. Comparatives in -or from the old historians, says : vetustissimi etiam neutrum in or finiebant, et erat eadem terminatio communis trium generum, thus hinting that the justification of this usage was the Analogy of Adjectives of one termination for Masc., Fem., Neut., like audāx, fēl̄x. And it is possible that a Neuter in $\breve{r} r$ (older -ŏr like rōbur (robor Acc., Varro, R. R. iii. 7. 9) took $-r$ for $-s$ in the Nom. from the oblique cases robor $r-i s$, roborr $-i$, \&c., for Cato ( $R . R$. xvii. r) uses the form robus, or from an Early Latin Masc. byform [if we may trust Paul. Fest. ir. 20 Th. 'robosem' pro robore (dicebant antiqui)]. But in spite of these occasional deviations, Latin writers hold with great persistence to the rule that a Neuter ES-stem has a Nom. in -ŭs (older - čs), a Masc. ES-stem in -ŏr (older-ōr, -ōs), e. g. tĕnus N., tënor M., dĕcus N., dĕcor M., frïgus N., frīgor M. The -us, not only of Neut. Nouns, but also of Neut. Comparatives, is invariably short in Plautus and the older poetry (Müller, Plaut. Pros. p. 55).
§ 15. R-stems. Neuter R-stems show usually -ur (older -orr), apparently representing I.-Eur. -r, but occasionally -ěr, e.g. über (O. Ind. údhar-, Gk. oṽ $\theta a \rho$ ), in Latin. The obsolete word aser, blood (cf. Cret. Gk. द́ap, O. Ind. ásr-k, asn-ás Gen., Lett. asins), is of doubtful spelling [cf. Paul. Fest. 12. 19'Th. 'assaratum' apud antiquos dicebatur genus quoddam potionis ex vino et sanguine temperatum, quod Latini prisci sanguinem 'assyr' vocarent; Gl. Philox. asaer (leg. -er) : aij $\mu]$.
§ 16. S in Nom. Sg. Neut. of Adjectives. This, if we may believe the MSS., is as old as Plautus, e.g. facinus audax, Aul. 460 (so Ter. Phorm. 233, \&e.), duplex (sc. aurum), Men. 546, sagax nasum, Curc. iro, and occurs in the ancient phrase quod bonum faustum felix fortunatumque sit. (For examples, e.g. dives opus, Ovid, pondus iners, Cic., see Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 22). Similar is the extension of the suffix -tric-, properly fem., to neuter Adjectives, e. g. victricia arma, Virg. A. iii. 54 (though rictrix Sg. is not used as neut. till Late Latin). [Does concapit of the XII Tables (ap. Fest. 556. 27 Th. tignum iunctum aedibus uineaue et concapit ne soluito) point to an earlier use of the bare stem for the Neuter ?].
§ 17. Gen. Sing. $\bar{A}$-stems took in I.-Eur. -ās (e. g. Gk. $\chi \omega \bar{\omega} \rho \bar{s} s$, Goth. gibōs, Lith. rañkos), and similarly in the Umbro-Oscan languages, e.g. Umbr. tutas, later totar 'civitatis,' Osc. eituas ' pecuniae,' and in O. Lat., e. g. escas, Liv. Andr. But a rival formation, of doubtful origin, which appears in the oldest literature as $\bar{a} \bar{\imath}$ (dissyllabic) ultimately established itself in exclusive use in the form -ae. In Greek we find Masc. $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stems taking the O-stem suffix, e. g. Hom. 'A $\tau \rho \in$ eiōão like Aió入oo, and it has been suggested that Lat. - $\bar{a} \bar{\imath}$ began in Masc. Nouns such as agričcōla, advëna, \&c. (§ 2), and took its -ı from the Gen. of the second Decl. Similarly fifth Decl. stems show $-\bar{e} \bar{\imath}$, later $-e i$, $-\bar{u}$, e. g. $f \check{u} d \bar{e} \bar{\imath}$ O. Lat., $f$ 'udelū class., $r \bar{e} \bar{\imath}, r \breve{e} \bar{l}$, and re $\bar{\iota}$ in the Dramatists, dii, Virg. A. i. ${ }^{3} 6$, also (like $-\bar{u} s$ from $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stems), O. Lat. faciès, diès.

O-stems, which in Umbro-Oscan show the I-stem suffix, have in Latin, as in Celtic, a long $i$-sound, e.g. Lat. nätī, virrī, Gaul. Ate-gnati, O. Ir. eich for *eci, ' of a horse,' which one would have no difficulty in regarding as the Locative suffix of O-stems, -ei (§ 37), were it not that it is written $-i$ and not $-e i$ in the oldest Latin inscriptions. For IO-stems indeed a Gen. $-\bar{\imath}$ would naturally go with a Nom. -is (§ 5) ; and it is possible that the suffix, or at any rate the spelling of the suffix, has been extended from these over all O -stems.

I-stems have -eis, -ois in various languages (e. g. Goth. anstais for I.-Eur. -ois) ; and in Umbro-Oscan we have -eis', e.g. Umbr. ocrer, of the citadel (Lat. ŏcris), a suffix extended to consonantstems and even to O-stems, e. g. Osc. carneis, of a part (Lat. carn-is), sakarakleís, ' of a shrine' (Lat. *sacrācūli). But in Latin the consonant-stem suffix has enforced itself on the I-stems too, e.g. partŭs like reg-̌̆s (cf. partus like Castorus, C.I.L. i. 197).

U-stems seem similarly to have had -eus, -ous (e. g. Goth. sunaus, ' of a son,' for I. Eur. -ous), and so in Umbro-Oscan, e.g. Umbr. trifor 'tribus,' Osc. castrovs ' fundi,' Lat. mŭnüs, all probably with -ous from I. Eur. -eus (ch. iv. § 35). Whether the Gen. form of dömuis affected by Augustus, viz. domos, points to the coexistence in Latin of I.-Eur. -ous is uncertain (cf. ch. iv. § 4I, on Lat. $\bar{o}$ for I.-Eur. ou). A common formation, perhaps the usual one in the careless talk of every-day life, in which the fourth Decl. seems to have been greatly merged in the second (ch. v. § 49), was $-\bar{i}$, the O-stem genitive. This is the normal genitive in the Dramatists of the Republic ; and even Quintilian in the first cent. A. D. declares it impossible to decide whether senati or senatūs is the proper Gen. of sĕnätus. Occasionally the Dramatists have -uis, the suffix proper to $\bar{u}$-stems like $s \bar{u} s$, socrūs, as $-* i i s,-\bar{s} s$ to $\bar{i}$-stems like $v i \bar{s}(\mathrm{O}$. Lat. Gen. viss).

Consonant-stems show -ěs in some languages (e. g. O. Sl. dĭn-e, ' of a day,' with -e from -ĕs), -ŏs in others (e.g. Gk. $\pi o \neq \mu \in \mathcal{v}$-os). Latin -is, on old inscriptions -es, shows the former suffix, while the -us occasionally written on inscriptions seems to be a relic of the latter. To make -is a weakening of earlier -us $(-o s)$ is an unlikely theory, seeing that -us ( $-0 s$ ) of the Nom.

Sg. of Neuter ES-stems, \&c., e.g. genus, opus, was not weakened to -es, $-i s$.

The $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stem Gen. -aes (pronounced -ès with the open $\mathbf{E}$-sound, ch. ii. § 32 ) is probably a feature of the Italian-Greek patois, for it is practically confined to epitaphs of the uneducated classes (from the last century of the Republic). It is merely an expression in Roman letters of the Greek Genitive-ending - $\eta \boldsymbol{s}$ (with open E). Hedonḕ̃ (C.I.L xi. 3316 Forum Clodi), may be an example of a Greek name in $-\eta$ taking a Genitive after the analogy of Latin fifth Decl. stems (or for Hedonii?)
§ 18. $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stems. (1) In -ās. This form is proper to the Saturnian and earliest Epic poetry. Thus escas, Mŏnētas, Lätōnas are quoted by Priscian (i. p. 198 H.) from Livius Andronicus, Terras and fortūnas from Naevius, vias from Ennius. (For other passages of the grammarians treating of this Genitive, see Neue, Formenl. i'2. p. 5.) Servius favours the reading auras for aurae in Virg. A. xi. 8or, and in his note on the passage mentions that some interpreted custōllias as a Gen. Sg. in a passage of Sallust: castella custodias thensaurorum in deditionem acciperentur. A relic of the old usage survived in legal phraseology, so conservative always of old words and ceremonies, in the terms păter fămilias, mãter familias, filius (-a) familias. But this form is unknown to the conversational language of the Dramatists [Alcüménas in the Argument (post Plautine) of the Amphitruo, l. 1, is an imitation of the antique], and must have been in their time out of use. (A contrary view is stated in Studem. Stud. ii. p. 21.)
(2) In $-\bar{u} \bar{l}$, class. $-a e$. Dissyllabic $-\bar{c} \bar{\imath}$ is not infrequent in Plautus, and is perhaps found in Terence (Rhein. Mus. 1893, p. 305), while in Lucilius it is allowed in hexameters only (e.g. Tirěsiai, v. 43 M.), not in the dramatic metres. Lucretius is especially fond of this early form ; and it is used occasionally by Cicero, Virgil, and other Epic writers (for instances, see Neue, $\mathrm{i}^{2}$. p. 12). To Martial it seems typical of the uncouth early Latin poetry (xi. 90. 5) :

> attonitusque legis 'terrai frugiferai,'
> Accius et quicquid Pacuviusque vomunt.

The rarity of the elision of the final $-i$ of $-\bar{a}$, as of $-\bar{e} \bar{c}$ [Plaut. Bacch. 307 Diana( $i$ ) Ephesiae; Pers. 409 pecunia( $i$ ) accipiter, are more or less doubtful instances], may be an indication that the ending had already at the beginning of the second cent. b.c. ceased to be quite two distinct syllables, though it is scanned as a spondee. The change to -ae would probably begin by the shortening of the $\bar{a}$ before the following vowel, so that $\widehat{a}$ (classical -ae) would differ from $-\bar{a} \bar{\imath}$ in Plautus very much as his pronunciation Chius (Adj. pǔus from Chīus, pīus (ch. ii. § 143). Though written -ai on early inscriptions (for example on the old Praenestine vases and mirrors) it need not have been pronounced otherwise than the diphthong ai of aidilis, \&c. (ch. iv. § 29), precisely as the archaistic spelling of a later metrical inscription (C.I.L. vi. 555) offers as a spondee ripai. Another inséription of no early date (i. 1202),
seems to show -ai with -i elided: non aevo exsacto vitai es traditus morti). [For passages of the grammarians referring to this Genitive in -ai, see Neue, $\mathrm{i}^{2}$. p. 9, e.g. Quint. i. 7. 18 unde 'pictai vestis' et 'aquai' Vergilius amantissimus vetustatis carminibus inseruit. Servius on $A$. vii. 464 says that Virgil ended the line with 'aquae amnis' (leg. vis?), which was changed by Tucca and Varius to aquai].
A list of 'Greek' genitives in -aes from plebeian epitaphs is given by Neue, $\mathrm{i}^{2}$. p. i3. On two bricks of the same year (123 A. D.) from the manufactory of Flavia Procula we have (C. I. L. xv. i. $1157-8$ ) Flaviaes Proclaes and Flariae Procule. [Cf. no. 1425 Seiaes Isauricae (123-14I A.D.), but usually Seiae Isauricae.]
Some would connect Lat. - $\bar{u}$, -ue with O. Ind. Gen. -āyās, Dat. -āyāi (used in the Brāhmanas for the Gen.) of $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stems, the yo f which forms is of doubtful origin. The derivation of Lat. $-\bar{\imath} \bar{\imath}$ from an earlier ${ }^{*}$-ais is impossible. The supposed ' Prosepnais 'of a Praenestine mirror (C. I. L. i. 57) is really Prosepnai, and is a Dative, not a Genitive (see Rhein. Mus. 1887, p. 486).
§ 19. Fifth Decl. Stems. The Genitive of these stems is discussed by Aulus Gellius in the fourteenth chapter of Book ix of the Nंoctes Atticae. In old copies (aliquot veteribus libris) of the History of Claudius Quadrigarius he found facies Gen., sometimes with facii added in the margin : meminimus enim in Tiburti bibliotheca invenire nos in eodem Claudii libro scriptum utrumque 'facies' et 'facii.' Sed 'facies' in ordinem (in the text) scriptum fuit, et contra (in the margin) per i geminum 'facii.' He quotes dies from Ennius (Ann. 433 M. ) and from Cicero, pro Sest. xii. 28: equites vero daturos illius dies poenas (where our MSS. read diei, but where Gellius found dies in the older copies : inpensa opera conquisitis veteribus libris plusculis), and mentions a report that in a 'liber idiographus' of Virgil the line (G. i. 208) was written :

Libra dies somnique pares ubi fecerit horas ${ }^{1}$.
He adds examples of $-i i$ (Nom. $-i \bar{e} s$ ), $-i$ (Nom. $-\bar{e} s$ ) from early literature, fami from Cato and Lucilius, pernicii from Sisenna and Cicero, progenii from Pacuvius, acii and specii from Matius, luxurii from C. Gracchus, and supports the reading dii in Virgil, A. i. $\sigma_{3} 6$ : munera laetitiamque dii (quod inperitiores 'dei’ legunt, ab insolentia scilicet vocis istius abhorrentes). Finally he summons the authority of the great Dictator for die, specie, \&c. : sed C. Caesar in libro de Analogia secundo 'hujus die' et 'hujus specie' dicendum putat, and supports this form from an old MS. of Sallust : ego quoque in Jugurtha Sallustii summae fidei et reverendae vetustatis libro 'die' casu patrio scriptum inveni. (The passage is Jug. xcvii. 3, where two of our MSS. have die, the rest diei.) (For the remarks of other grammarians on this point, see Neue, $\mathrm{i}^{2}$. p. 375.) From his account we gather that forms like diē, speciē, were grammarians' coinages designed to restore the actual forms dī̃, specī to the proper e-type of stem. At the same time the tendency to Dissimilation, which in the middle of a word turned $i \bar{\imath}$ to $i \bar{e}$ in ălienus, \&c., may have been to some extent operative in certain collocations of these words, e. g. dii-festi, dii-natalis, \&c. [see ch. iii. § $12 a(9)$ ]. The spelling diei, speciei, \&c., in early literature and inscriptions, may often have represented diĩ, speciī, the -ei being diphthongal as

[^76]in the old spellings deico, feido (ch.iv. § 34). Gellius mentions (l. c.) the theory of some grammarians that die, specie were Ablative forms used as Genitives, and modern philologists have made them Locatives, like die crastini, \&c. (§ 37).
The rule of the grammarians of the Empire is that in the approved Gen. form, dissyllabic -ei, the $e$ is short after a consonant, long after a vowel, e. g. fidĕi, diēi. In Plautus and Terence we rarely find rěì (e. g. Plaut. Men. 494), but usually monosyllabic rê, hardly ever the ceremonious form rē, e. g. Mil. (prol.) ro3 magnái rēī públicai grátia (post-Plautine ?) ; similarly fidei is always dissyllabic in Terence and usually in Plautus (but twice fidḕ); spei is never a dissyllable. (Seyffert, Stud. Pl.p. 25.) (Compare the usage of the dramatists with regard to the Pronoun Dat. Sg. $\overline{e l}, \stackrel{\imath}{\imath}$, and $\hat{e}$, ch. vii. § 19.) The normal shortening of $\bar{e}$ in hiatus (ch. ii. § r43) would be hindered when $i$ preceded, e. g. diei. Of the elision of the final $-i$ of dissyllabic $-e i$ examples (more or less doubtful) are : Plaut. Aul. 68 Malaé rei euenísse, Poen. 479 Quoi réi ? Ad fundas uíscus ne adhaerésceret, \&c. (Other examples of all these forms of the Gen. of fifth Decl. stems, e. g. răbiēs in Lucr. iv. 1083 :
quodcumque est, rabies unde illaec germina surgunt,
die in Varro, Ep. ad Fufium : meridiem die natalis, fìdē in Hor. C. iii. 7.4 constantis juvenem fide, see in Neue, l. c.)
§20. O-stems and IO-stems. The grammarians tell us that Vălĕri, Vergili, \&c. were accented on the second syllable, that is to say they were accented as if they were contractions of Valerii, \&c. (ch. iii. § 1о. 4), though whether this accentuation was due to tradition or to grammarians' rules is open to question. Lucilius' rule for the use of the single symbol $i$ for a Singular case, e. g. pueri Gen. Sg., and of the double symbol ei for a Plural, e. g. puerei Nom. Pl. has been mentioned in ch. i. § 9 .

The earliest form of the O-stem Gen. Sg. suffix is $-i$, e. g. Saeturni pocolom C.I.L. i. 48 ; from the time of Lucilius to the end of the Republic -ei, which had come to be an expression of the long $i$-sound (ch. i. $\S 9$ ) is also found. e.g. populi Romanei on the Lex Agraria of iri b.c. In Faliscan we have oi in the one instance of the Gen. Sg. of an O-stem, Zextoi 'Sexti' on a rude inscr. on a tile (Zvet. I. I. I. 73) ; IO-stems (with Nom. in -io or -es) have -i, e.g. Acarcelini (ib. 62), Caui (ib. 49) (also -es ?). On the use in the Gen. Sg. of IO-stems of $-i$ (the older form) and -ii (Propertius, Ovid, \&c.), see Neue, Forment. $\mathrm{i}^{2}$. pp. 85-94. The passages which he quotes from the grammarians make it clear that -ii was a grammarian's restoration ${ }^{1}$ on the Analogy of
${ }^{1}$ The suggestion of $-i i$ seems to have been made as early as Lucilius, who proposed to distinguish in this way the Gen. of Numerius from the Gen. of numerus. The phrase servandi numeri should, he said, mean 'for the purpose of keeping tune' (inc. 66 M.):

[^77]This use of the Gen. of the Gerundive
to indicate purpose (cf. Aegyptum proficiscitur cognoscendae antiquitatis, Tac.) is a genuine Latin construction (see Weisweiler, Der finale Gen. Gerund. 1890), and is found in Umbrian, e. g. esono- . . . ocrer pihaner 'sacrificium arcis piandae' (Tab. Ig. vi. A. 18), verfale pufe arsfertur trebeit ocrer peihaner' 'templum (?) ubi flamen versatur arcis piandae ' (ib. ที่. A. 8).

0 -stems, $-i$ the actual historical development. Adjective IO-stems have -ii, e. g. patrii sermonis, Lucr. [See Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 44 ; fluvii of Virg. A. iii. 702 (Gela fluvii cognomine dicta) has been explained as an Adj.]
§ 21. U-stems. On the S. C. de Bacchanalibus of 186 в. c. (C.I. L. i. 196) we have sěnätuos, but in inscriptions of the latter part of the second cent. b.c. senati (i. 199, of 117 в. с.; i. 200, of III в. c. ; i. 547, of 141 or 116 в. c.), (cf. lăci i. 584, of $82-79$ в. c., and see Mommsen's note) ; and in the Comedians and Tragedians $-i$ is the usual form (cf. Prisc. i. 257.18 H. ), occasionally -uis (dissyll.), e. g. Ter. Heaut. 287 eius anuis causa. Gellius (iv. 16. r) tells us that Varro and Nigidius (first cent. в. c.) approved -uis, e. g. senatuis, dömuis, a form which sticklers for Analogy defended by the Dat. Sg. senatui, since patri, dŭci, caedi had as Genitives patris, ducis, caedis. According to Mar. Victorinus ( 9.4 K.), Augustus used domos for domus Gen. (divus Augustus genetivo casu hujus 'domos' meae per o, non ut nos per u litteram scripsit. Cf. Suet. Aug. 87). (For other passages of the grammarians dealing with the Genitive of $u$-stems, see Neue, $\mathrm{i}^{2} . \mathrm{p} .35^{2}$ ). The -uos of senatuos must be the $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$-stem Gen. with the I.-Eur. Gen. suffix -ŏs (see below), as the -uis of anuis is the $\bar{u}$-stem Gen. with the I.-Eur. Gen. suffix -ès. But the - $\bar{s} s$ of senatūs, ănūs can hardly be derived by the ordinary processes of phonetic change from either ; for -uos, -uis would naturally become -vŏs (-ŭs), -v̌̆s (cf. mīluos, Plaut., milvos in class. Lat., mort(v)ŭs in Late Lat., ch. iv. § 7r).

In Faliscan we have (Zvet. I. I.I. 70) : de zenatuo sententiad, where the final -s of zenatuos (Lat. senatuos) has been dropped before the following initial s-. Oscan senateís shows the same Gen. suffix as the $O$-stems.
§ 22. Consonant-stems. The frequency of the Gen. -us in S. Italian inscriptions, e.g. Vĕnĕrus, C.I. L. i. 565 (Capua, ro8 в. c.), Eph. Épigr. viii. 460 (Capua, 108 в.c.), C.I.L. i. 1183 (Casinum), i. 1495 (on a tile, now at Naples), Cěrěrus, i. 566 (Capua, го6 в. с.), i. 568 (Capua, 104 в.c.), Hönōrus on the Lex Pariet. Fac. i. 577 (Puteoli, ro5 в. c., a copy), may be due to the influence of the Greek Gen. in -os [so rēgus (with söciëtätis) on a bilingual Greek and Latin inscr. of 8i в. c., Not. Scav. 1887, p. 11о], but this Latin suffix cannot have been merely a usage of Italian-Greek patois, like -aes in Gen. of $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stems. It is found on so early inscriptions as the S. C. de Bacch. (i. 196) with nōminnus, and the old Praenestine cippus (xiv. 2892) with Sälütus, and on various official inscriptions, e.g. the Epistula ad Tiburtes (i. 201, of c. 100 в.c.) with Kastorus, the Lex Agraria of iif b.c. (i. 200) with hŏmĭnus, praeräricītioionus, the Lex Bantina (i. 197, of 133-1 18 в. c.) with Castorus and even partus (an I-stem), and may be the correct reading in Lucil. ix. 28 M. : foris subteminus panust. (Other examples in Neue, $\mathrm{i}^{2}$. p. ig1, such as the soldier's message of defiance cut on a glans used at the siege of Perusia: L. Antoni calve, peristi C. Caesarus victoria, C. I. L. i. 685).
The Genitive in -es on old inscriptions may sometimes be dialectal with -ès for -eis (the I-stem Gen., extended in the Umbro-Oscan languages to Con-sonant-stems), e.g. Umbr. matrer, nomner (cf. Osc. maatreís 'matris'), but is more naturally regarded as -čs, the older spelling of classical -ıs (as early as c. 18 о в. c., fläminis, C.I.L. i. 33) (cf. ch. iii. § 18). Examples are C.I.L. i. 49 (Orte) Salutes pocolom, i. 187 (Praeneste) Apolones dederi, i. 8ir (Rome ?) [C]ereres.

On a possible byform $-s$, of the Gen. Sg. suffix, seen in the O. Lat. Adverb nox, ' by night' (Gk. vukтós), see ch. ix. § 3.
§ 23. Dat. Sing. The Dat. Sing. of $\bar{A}$-stems had in I-Eur. the long diphthong -āi (e.g. Gk. $\chi \omega \dot{\omega} \rho \bar{a}$ ). In Latin and the Umbro-Oscan languages we find the ordinary diphthong -ai (Osc. -aí, Umbr. -e, Lat. -ae, older -ai). Whether in O. Lat. - $\bar{a}$ existed beside $-a i$ is not quite certain. If it did, we must suppose $-\bar{a}$ and $-a i$ to have been doublets, both sprung from original $-\overline{\mathrm{a}}$, just as atque and ac (for *atc) were doublets, the one representing the sound which at with the enclitic que took before a word beginning with a vowel, the other its sound before a consonant (ch. ii. § 136 ; ch. iv. § 45).

O-stems had similarly in I.-Eur. the long diphthong -ōi (e. g. Gk. $i \pi \pi \varphi)$. In the most ancient Latin inscriptions we have -oi with the quantity of the $o$ unascertainable (Umbro-Oscan seem to have had the ordinary diphthong -oi, in Oscan -úi, in Umbrian $-e)$, but in all other inscriptions and in classical Latin, $-\bar{o}$. This $-o i$ and $-\bar{o}$ are generally regarded as doublets, like $-\bar{a}$ and $-a i$ of $\bar{A}$-stems, the long vowel having survived the struggle for existence in the one declension, the diphthong in the other.

As regards Fifth Decl. Stems, we have seen (ch. iv. § 47) that the doublets -èi (the long diphthong) and -e probably existed in I.-Eur. times. If Gellius is right in saying that fücie, \&c. were regarded as the correct forms by the older writers, this may indicate that the latter gained the day in Latin. The alternative Dative which he mentions, facii, may then be the Genitive form (facī for older faciē from faciḕ), which was adapted to the dative use on the Analogy of third Decl. datives in $-\bar{\imath}$ (just as the classical faciè $\bar{\imath}$ seems to be a Genitive form), though some prefer to regard it as a relic of the I.-Eur. 'doublet '-suffix eii-.

I-stems have in Latin $-\bar{\imath}$, older -ei, probably (like the Genitive in $-\iota s$, older -es, also -us, § 22) a loan from Consonant-stems, and so originally $-a i$. The Umbro-Oscan termination was -ei (Osc. -eí, Umbr. -e), as in Consonant-stems.

U-stems have $-u \bar{\imath}$ in Latin, which is equally traceable to either of the I.-Eur. suffixes, -ěwai and -wai (e.g. O. Ind. sūnávē, ' to a son,' and šíśv, ' to a child.' The occasional Latin forms in $-\bar{u}$ are (cf. Umbrian trifo 'tribui') really Locatives (§37), according to some, Instrumentals (§36).

Consonant-stems had -ai (-ai? chiviv. § 3) in I.-Eur. (e. g. O. Ind. c c
śńn-ē, ' to a dog,' dá-man-ē Inf., Gk. $\delta o ́-\mu \in \nu$-aı Inf., Lat. lĕğัmĭn̄̄ Inf. used as Imper. (?), ch. viii. § 8r), in Latin -i from older -ei (sometimes written $-e$ ), the diphthong -ai being weakened first to $-e i$, then to $-\bar{\imath}$ in the unaccented syllable, as ai of oc-caillo to ei, occeillo, and $\bar{i}$, occīllo (ch. iii. § 18). In Umbro-Osc. this weakening does not seem to have taken place, so that their -ei
 Umbr. -e, e. g. patre, nomne) can hardly represent I.-Eur. -ai.
$\S 24 . \overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stems. Dissyllabic $-\bar{a} \bar{\imath}$ is not found in the Dat. of $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stems, but only in the Gen. (terrai frugiferai, Enn. $A .605$ M. is, like Virgil's aulai medio, with which Charisius couples it, a Genitive, so correct 'dativo' in Char. 19. I K. ; uī̄ $\bar{\imath}$ sternend $\widehat{a}$, Lucil. xi. 5 M., even if the reading is right (MSS. vim sternenda et), is anything but a certain example (see L. Mueller's note), so that Priscian's remark that the Nom. and Voc. Plur. ending of the first declension did not admit of 'divisio,' as the Gen. and Dat. Sg. did, cannot be quite accurate (Prisc. i. p. $29 \mathrm{r} .{ }^{1} 7 \mathrm{H}$. nominativus et vocativus pluralis primae declinationis similis est genetivo et dativo singulari. Nam in ae diphthongum profertur, ut 'hi' et 'o poetae'; sed in his non potest divisio fieri, sicut in illis). Gellius (xiii. 26. 4) tells us that Nigidius (first cent. в. с.) approved -ai (presumably the diphthong) in the Gen., -ae in the Dative. (On Lucilius' practice see L. Mueller's note on Lucil. ix. 6.) The -e found on some inscriptions is dialectal (cf. Umbr. -e) and rustic, e.g. Diane (C.I. L. i. r68, Pisaurum), Fortune (i. 64, Tusculum), Uictorie (i. 183, Marsi). Of the ' Datives in -a, only found on very old inscriptions, most of the apparent examples come from Pisaurum (C.I. L. i. 167-180), where -e (Diane just quoted) was the Dat. suffix of $\overline{\mathbf{A}}$-stems, and may be Genitives in $-\bar{s} s$ with omission of the final $s$ (cf. Nom. Pl. matrona Pisaurese for matronas Pisaurenses, i. 773 ; so Gen. Sg. Coira pocolo, Eph. Epigr. i. 6), or else a mere dialectal variety, which would prove nothing for the Latin dative. Others, viz. Fortuna (i. 1133, Praeneste) ; Fortuna (Bull. 1885, p. 62, Signia) ; Fortuna Diouo fileia primogenia (xiv. 2863, Praeneste) ; Diana (xiv. $4182 a$ and $4184 a$, Nemi) are open to similar doubts. The strongest instances are: [Me]nerua dono d... (Not. Scav. 1887, p. 179, Rome); Iunonei Loucina (C. I. L. i. 189, loc. inc.) ; Iunone Loucina Tuscolana sacra and [Pa]le [Tusc]olana sacra (i. 1200-1, Capua) [cf. Faliscan Menerua sacru (Zvet. I. I. I. 70)].

Examples of -ai are Dianai donum dedit (C. I. L. xiv. 4270, beg. of second cent. в. c.), Meneruai donom port- (C. I. L. i. 191), [Iunon]e Loucinai (i. 813). We have -ai even on inscrr. of the Emperor Claudius, e.g. Antoniai Augustai matri (Orelli 650).
§25. Fifth Decl. Stems. Gellius(ix. 14): in casu autem dandi qui purissime locuti sunt non 'faciei,' uti nunc dicitur, sed 'facie' dixerunt. He then quotes two examples of facie from Lucilius (vii. 9 and vii. 7 M.), and adds : sunt tamen non pauci, qui utrobique 'facii' legant. In Plautus the treatment of the Dative Sg. of these stems is the same as that of the Genitive (see § 19). In Umbr. ri 'rei' the i may correspond to Lat. $-\bar{e}$, as in pru-sikurent 'pronuntiaverint' with the égrade of root seen in Lat. sédi, \&c. (ch. viii. § 39).
§ 26. O-stems. The suffix -oi (mentioned by Mar. Victorinus 17. 20 K .: 'populoi Romanoi' pro populo Romano solitos priores seribere) is found on the very ancient Praenestine fibula (C.I. L. xiv. 4123) : Manios med fefaked Numasioi (=Manius me fecit Numerio), but oo on the Dvenos inscription (Zvet.I.I.I. 285), if the words: die noine med mano statod, be rightly read and interpreted 'die noni me Mano stato' (cf. Numisio Martio donom dedit meretod, Not. Scar. 1890, p. io ; Lebro 'Libero' C. I. L. i. r74, from Pisaurum. The Vestine dialect had -o, e. g. Herclo Iouio (Zvet. I. I. I. ir).
§ 27. U-stems. Senatuei (C. I. L. i. 20I, of c. 100 в. c.). Gellius (iv. 16) informs us that Varro and Nigidius used senatui, clomui, fluctui, \&c. in the Dative, and senatuis, clomuis, fluctuis in the Genitive, but gives examples of $-\bar{u}$ from Lucilius (iv. 8 M. ; йnu, iv. 9, cf. vii. 2I) and Virgil, and clenches them with the authority of Caesar: C. etiam Caesar, gravis auctor linguae Latinae, ... in libris Analogicis omnia istiusmodi sine i littera dicenda censet. In Plautus. -ui is the usual form, e.g. quaestui habere, extersui, usui esse, and with the force of a second supine, Bacch. 62 quia istaec lepida sunt memoratui; but $-u$ is also found, e. g. Rud. 294 sunt nobis quaestu et cultu.
§ 28. Consonant-stems. The so-called 'Datives in $-\check{e}$ ' in Latin poets (cf. Servius ad $A$. x. 653 conjuncta crepidine saxi, $A$. x. $3^{6 I}$ r haeret pede pes, and L. Mueller's note on Ennius, Ann. 395) are really Locatives or Instrumentals (see Neue, $\mathrm{i}^{2}$. p. 195). The $-e$ which we find (along with eei) on old inscriptions is $-\bar{e}$, possibly in some cases (e. g. C.I.L. i. 1170 , Ioue, Marsic), a dialectal form (cf. Umbr. patre), but certainly in others a mere graphic variety of -ei, later $-\bar{\imath}$, just as the $e$ of ploirume on the Scipio epitaph (C.I. L. i. $3^{2}$ honc oino ploirume cosentiont) represents no different sound from the usual -ei, later - $\bar{\imath}$ of the Nom. Pl. of O-stems. Instances of Dat. $-e i$ and $-e$ are : Hercolei (i. 1503, Rome, 217 в. с.) ; Martei (i. 53і, Rome, 211 в. c.) ; Hercole (Ann. Épigr. г89о, no. 84, Rome) ; Hercole (C. I. L. xiv. 2891-2, Praeneste). We have the three spellings of the suffix side by side on a freedman's inscription from the Roman district (i. rifo): Iunone Seispitei Matri, and the two older in i. 638 : [D]iouei Uictore (Rome, c. 18о в. c.), [Quintilian (i. 4. 17) mentions Diove Uictore as an old form], and in xi. 4766 Ioue . . . Iouei (Spoletium in Umbria). (For other instances of these old spellings, see Index to C. I. L. i.)
§ 29. Acc. Sing. To form the Acc. Sing. Masc. and Fem. the suffix -m was added, which in the case of Consonant-stems took the form -m (e.g. O. Ind. mātár-am, Gk. $\mu \eta \tau \epsilon \in \rho-a$, Lat. matr-em). The Acc. Neut. was the same as the Nom. (§ Io).

Thus $\bar{A}$-stems had -ām (e.g. O. Ind. áśvām, Gk. х'́ $\rho a \bar{\nu}$ ), which in Latin would become - $\breve{m}$ (ch. iii. § 49), еquăm. The long vowel is indicated by Osc. paam (Lat. quam), the Acc. Sg. Fem. of the Relative Pronoun, but the usual spelling is e.g. Osc. tovtam, Umbr. totam, the community. O-stems had -ŏm, in O. Lat. om, class. -um (ch. iv. § 20); IO-stems, -iom, -ium, perhaps also in the
' familiar’ declension (§5), -im ; I-stems, -im, which is found in the older literature and in many examples, turrim, \&c., in the classical period, though -em, the Consonant-stem ending, has usually supplanted it; U-stems, -ŭm ; İ-stems, -im (also -iym, e.g. O. Ind. dhíyam, 'thought'), which in Latin would become -im; $\overline{\mathrm{U}}$-stems, -uwm, Lat. -uem, e. g. suem, also -ūm, Lat. -ŭm, e.g. socrum. Consonant-stems take in Umbro-Oscan -om, the O-stem Accusative, e.g. Osc. medicatin-om (Lat. *meddŭcātiōnem from med-dix, a magistrate). Of Latin ES-stems some are regular, e. g. dēgĕnĕrem from * degenes-em; others follow the analogy of $\overline{\mathrm{E}}$-stems, as in the Gen. and other cases, e. g. plēbem (ch. v. §51).
§ 30. The endings -im and -em. We can hardly say that $-\mathrm{c} m$ arose from -im by ordinary phonetic change, seeing that final -im remains in so many words, e. g. Adverbs in -im like ōlim, as well as Accusatives like clävim. The change is rather due to that intermixture of I- and Consonant-stems which was the despair of grammarians as early as Varro (L. L. viii. 66), and which led to the substitution of $-\bar{\epsilon}$ for $-\bar{\imath}$ in the 'Ablative' (see below, § 33). A list of Accusatives in -im, with references to the Latin grammarians who discuss this question, is given by Neue, $\mathrm{i}^{2}$. p. 196, to which may be added piscim on an old Praenestine cista (Mél. Arch. 1890, p. 303), and the instances from the Ambrosian Palimpsest of Plautus given in Studemund's Index, e. g. imbrim, Pseud. 102. Sometimes the use of -im indicates an İ-stem, e.g. vim, sometimes a Greek loanword, e. g. turrim (?) ; it is retained in Accusatives used adverbially, e. g. partim (ch. ix. § 4). [Claudi, \&c. (C.I. L. iv. Ind.), if for Clau$d i(u) m$, may be dialectal. On Gk. 'A $\pi \phi \epsilon \iota \nu$ for"A $\pi \pi \iota \nu \nu$ Nom. Sg. (I.I.S. I4II), \&c., see Eekinger, Orth. p. 56.]
§ 31. Voc. Sing. In the Plural and Dual, and in the Neut. Sing., the Nom. form was used also for the Voc. in I.-Eur., and even in the Masc., Fem. Sing. the same thing is often found (e.g. in the Veda, Vấyav Índraś ca, 'O Vāyu and Indra'; in Hom., $\mathrm{Z} \in \hat{v}$ $\pi \alpha ́ \tau \epsilon \rho, \ldots$. 'Hédıós $\tau \epsilon$; in Plautus meus ocellus, . . . mi anime). The rule however was that in the Singular the bare stem was used (accented on the first syllable, e.g. O. Ind. pítar, Gk. $\pi \dot{a} \tau \in \rho$, unlike the Nom., O. Ind. pitá, Gk. $\left.\pi a \pi \eta \eta^{\prime} \rho\right)$. $\overline{\text { A }}$-stems had a short A-vowel (Gk. $\delta \dot{\epsilon} \sigma \pi \sigma \pi a$, \&c.), O-stems -ĕ (O. Ind. vṛ́kă, Gk. $\lambda \dot{v} \kappa \epsilon$, Lat. lйрӗ) and so on. In Latin I-, U- and N-stems substitute the Nom. form for the Voc., e.g. civis, mănus, hơmo (contrast Gk. ö $\phi \iota, \pi \hat{\eta} \chi v, \kappa \hat{\prime} o \nu)$; and the same was done in Rstems even earlier than the shortening of long vowels before final $-r$ in the second cent. в. с. removed the distinction between I.-Eur. -ēr and -ěr, -ōr and -ŏrr, to judge from scansions in

Plautus like Merc. 800 Uxốr, heus uxor; probably also in S-stems. Final ā was shortened in Nouns of the first declension still earlier, before the literary period (ch. iii. §43), so that it is impossible to say whether equă Voc. is the Nom. form (originally equä), or is a special Voc. form. It cannot be the I.-Eur. Vocative, if final I.-Eur. - i became $-\check{c}$ in Latin (ch. iii. § 37), so that I.-Eur. *ekwwă would sink to equŭ, and would be indistinguishable from the Voc. of O-stems, I.-Eur. *ek̂wě, Voc. of *ekwos. The levelling process to which the other Latin Vocatives have submitted makes it likely that the Nom. was used for the Voc. in the $\bar{A}$-declension too ; and that the Umbrian language, in which a distinction between the Nom. (in $-0, \S 2$ ), and the Voc. (only in $-a$, e.g. Serfia), of $\bar{A}$-stems is clearly apparent, has retained the I.-Eur. -ă of the Voc. (cf. ch. iii. § 18 , p. 191). Latin IO-stems show in the Voc. - $\bar{\imath}$, e. g. Vălĕri; but this form is hardly found except in proper names [which, as we saw before, (§5), admitted the 'familiar' declension,-is Nom., -im Acc.(?), \&c.], and the word of everyday life, $f i \bar{\imath} l$, so that the $-\bar{\imath}$ need not be a contraction of an older -ie, but may be the Voc. byform corresponding to the Nom. byform -is (cf. Lith. gaidỹ Voc. from gaidỹs Nom., 'a cock'; see § 5). RO-stems which took -er in the Nom. retain this in the Voc. too, though puĕre, and not puer, seems to be the form always used by Plautus.
§ 32. Other examples. Jī-pitter (better Juppiter, ch. ii. § 13о, p. г16; corresponds exactly with Gk. Z $\epsilon \hat{v} \boldsymbol{\pi} \dot{\tau} \tau \epsilon \rho$, and might be a Vocative used as
 explained as obsolete Vocative forms, preserved only in certain liturgies, and treated by the poet as Nominatives through a similar mistake to ours in using 'cherubim' as a Singular. But Jū-piter may also be a correctly formed Nominative with the stem *Dyeu-, Lat. Jor- (cf. O. Lat. Jovis Nom.) as the first part of the Compound (cf. jū-glans, ch. v. §85). The same double explanation is possible for Dite pater Voc. (C. I. L. i. 818). Dite Voc. (Eph. Epigr. viii. 529) reminds us of Gk. oै $\phi \iota$, \&c.

The Vocative formation for IO-stems is discussed by Gellius (Noct. Att. xiv. 5), who describes a battle royal waged in his presence between two grammarians about the proper Voc. of egregius, without satisfactory result (non arbitratus ego operae pretium esse, eadem istaec diutius audire, clamantes compugnantesque illos reliqui). Priscian (i. p. 3oi. 19 H.) says that the early writers used -ie as well as $-i$ in the Voc. of proper names: haec tamen eadem etiam in e proferebant antiquissimi, ' $O$ Virgilie,' ' Mercurie' dicentes, though all that he quotes is a couple of instances of Laertie, which is a Greek word, and as much an Adjective as a Noun. He adds that the classical form $-\imath$ must be
a contraction of this older -ie (as Arpīnâs, \&c., of older Arpinâtis, \&c.) because Vocs. in $-\bar{\imath}$ were accented on the paenultima, e.g. Valéri Voc. (like Valéri Gen.). Gellius (xiii. 26) tells us that Nigidius Figulus (first cent. b. c.) wished to distinguish Valeri Voc. from Valéri Gen., but says that in his time both Voc. and Gen. of IO-stems were invariably accented on the paenultima (cf. ch. iii. § го. 4). (For other passages of the grammarians, see Neue, Formenl. i ${ }^{2}$. p. 82.) Priscian elsewhere (i. p. 305.9 H.) quotes filie (apparently the more ceremonious form) from Livius Andronicus:

> páter nóster, Satúrni fílie,
but almost the only instance of the Voc. Sg. of a masc. IO-stem to be found in Plautus and the older writers is volưri (for which some would read volture), ' you vulture' (Capt. 844). Publi Corneli occurs on a Scipio epitaph of c. 18 о в.с. (C.I. L. i. 33). Adjective IO-stems take at all periods $-i e$, though there is evidently a reluctance on the part of good writers to use these forms (see Neue, Formenl. ii ${ }^{2}$. p. 42).
§ 33. Abl. Sing. The Ablative suffix, ending in -d, appears to have been used in I.-Eur. only in O-stems, which formed their Abl. Sg. in -ōd and -èd (the latter suffix being reserved in the Italic languages for Adverbs, ch. ix. § I), [O. Ind. yugátt, 'from a yoke,' O. Lat. jugod, Falisc. rected, class. Lat. jügō, rectē, final $l$ being dropped after a long vowel at the close of the third cent. в. c. (ch. ii. § 137)]. In other stems the Genitive ending -ĕs or -ŏs was used (O. Ind. nāvás, ‘from a ship,' Hom. Gk. $\nu \eta(F)$ ós) ; and in the Greek language this Ablatival use of the Genitive was extended to O-stems too. In the Italic languages on the other hand the $\overline{\mathrm{A}}-, \check{\overline{\mathrm{I}}}-$, $\check{\mathrm{U}}$ - and $\overline{\mathrm{E}}$-stems acquired Ablatives in $-d$ on the Analogy of the O-stems; and the Consonant-stems availed themselves in Latin of the I-stem Abl., in UmbroOscan of the O-stem Abl. (e. g. O. Lat.' air-ìd, Osc. ligud, ‘ by law'). The Locative Case in -ĕ (possibly Instrumental, § 36) of these Consonant-stems competed with this I-stem Abl. not only in Consonant-stems (e. g. aerĕ and aerī), but also in I-stems (e. g. cīvĕ and $c \bar{v} v \bar{\imath}$ ), so that Varro declares that ove was heard in his time as often as ovi, ave as avi. The confusion of cases was increased by the circumstance that when $-d$ of the Abl. was dropped, nothing remained to distinguish Abl. $-\bar{e}(d)$ of $\overline{\mathrm{E}}$-stems, $-\bar{i}(d)$ of I-stems, $-\bar{u}(d)$ of U-stems from Loc. $-\bar{e},-\bar{\imath},-\bar{u}$ (see § 37), so that the $\breve{o} v \bar{\imath}, \breve{a} v \bar{\imath}$ of Varro's time have as much right to be called Locatives as Ablatives. (On the question whether these forms can have been Instrumentals, see § 36.)

The use of $-\breve{e}$ in the 'Abl.' Sg. of I-stems was certainly not so far advanced in the time of Plautus as in the classical period. He uses only sorti, būli, cūvi, fusti, uāui, \&c., not sortĕ, \&c. Priscian however attests rete (presumably rètě̆, like fortĕ, Most. 694) in Rur. 1020, and remarks (i. p. 331. 16 H.): vetustissimi solebant hujuscemodi ablativum etiam in -e proferre. Of Consonant-stems with -ī we have, e. g. păriětī (MSS. -e), Cas. 140, pūmı̆cī (MSS. -e), Pers. 4I, obiëcic̄, Pers. 203. (For details of the use of $-i$ and $-e$ forms by the Latin authors, and the rules laid down by the native grammarians, see Neue, $\mathrm{i}^{2}$. pp. 212 sqq.). An early example of the Ablatival use of $-e$ (presumably - $-{ }_{e}$ ) is the line of the Saturnian Scipio epitaph (C.I. L. i. 30, c. 200 B. c.?) :

Gnaíuod pâtre prognátus fórtis vir sapiénsque.
(Cf. aire moltaticod i. 181, Picenum) ; somewhat later are i. 198 (Lex Repet.) maiore parte diei; i. 199 (Sent. Minuc.) de maiore parte ; i. 603 (Lex Furf.) mense Flusare (dial. ? Cf. Sab. mesene Flusare). We have $-e i$, apparently a graphic variety of $\bar{\imath}$ (ch. i. § 9), in the Scipio epitaph of c. 130 в. c. (i. 34 , along with aetate):
is hic sítus quei núnquam uictus est uirtútei
(cf. ab fontei on the Sent. Minuc., i. 199. 7) ; -i in the Lex Agr. (i. 200.23 ab eo herediue eius . . . testamento hereditati deditioniue obuenit, and again : curatore herediue), in the Lex Jul. Municip. (i. 206 ubi continenti habitabitur), the Lex Rep. (i. 198. 56 de sanctioni, but also adessint for adessent). These are clearly the later forms of the older $-\bar{\imath} d$ of i. 61 airill, i. 186 (S. C. Bacch.) couentionil, xi. 4766 bouid.

[^78]Faliscan sententiad), but in Umbrian it has been dropped as in Latin, e.g. poplu 'populo,' re-per 'pro re,' ocri-per, vea 'viā' (cf. Pelignian oisa 'usā'); similarly with Adverbs in -ēd, e. g. Osc. amprufid 'improbe,' Umbr. rehte 'recte;' Cons. stems show the O-stem Abl., e.g. Osc. ligud ' lege,' or the Loc. in -ĭ, e. g. Pelign aetate, Umbr. nomne.
§ 35. I-stem and Cons.-stem 'Abl.' in -i and -e. There is no evidence of an old Cons. stem $-\bar{e} d$, later $-\bar{e}$, corresponding to I -stem $-\bar{i} d$, later $-\bar{i}$. The dictatored (also navaled, but marid) of the Columna Rostrata (C. I. L. i. 195) is probably a mistake, for the inscription is not the actual inscription of 260 в.с., but a copy made in the time of the Empire; and the instances in MSS. of Plautus and the old poets with final -e may be due to that 'imperitia' on the part of scribes which Priscian (i. p. 345. i H.) blames for the change of civi, \&c. to cire in MSS. of Cicero. The reading of the best Palatine MS. (B) in Plaut. Pseud. 616 is militite, which points to a correction in the archetype of militi to milite (the Ambrosian Palimpsest seems to have militi); and the MSS. often vary between $-i$ and $-e$, e.g. Naev. Bell. Pun. 14 M. pietati (v. l. -te), Enn. A. 486 M. montī (MSS. montis and monte).
§ 36. Instr. Sing. The Latin grammarians knew nothing ofan Instrumental Case. Quintilian indeed (i. 4. 26) suggests that a seventh case is required in Latin for such a phrase as liast $\bar{a}$ percussi, where liast $\bar{a}$ is not a real Ablative; though of the previous existence of an Instrumental Case in the Latin language he has no conception. But in various I.-Eur. languages we find an Instrumental, and also a Locative Case; Sanscrit, for example, has, in addition to the Abl. dēvát, ' from a god,' the Instrumental ${ }^{1}$ dēvếna, 'with a god' (in Vedic also *dēvấ), and the Locative dēvé,'in a god.' And the suffixes used in these languages to form their Instrumentals and Locatives it is possible to find also in Latin, though the weakening process which attacked every Latin final syllable has made them indistinguishable from other Case suffixes. To form the Instrumental Singular there seem to have been originally two methods used in the Indo-European language: (1) the addition of -ĕ [according to some -ă, which would in Latin become - $\breve{e}$ (ch. iii. § 37)]; in Cons.-stems this -ĕ is found unchanged, in $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stems we have $-\bar{a}$, in O-stems - $\bar{o}$ or $-\bar{e}$ and so on ; (2) the addition of -bhi (e.g. Hom. Gk. i- $\phi \iota$ ), or -mi (e.g. Lith. sūnu-mì, ' with a son') ; and various modifications of these suffixes are found in the different languages. Of $\overline{\mathbb{A}}$-stem

[^79]Instrumentals with I.-Eur. - $\bar{a}$ (and $-\mathrm{a} m$ ?) (e. g. G̛̀k. $\lambda \dot{\alpha} \theta \rho \bar{a}$ ?) there are no certain examples in Latin, for the Adverbs supra $\bar{a}$, extr $\bar{a}$, \&c. are written in the S. C. de Bacchanalibus suprad, exstrad, and are therefore Ablatives. Some make O. Lat. contră (the invariable scansion in O. Lat. poetry, Skutsch, Forschungen, i. p. 3) an Instrumental, with the same shortening of $-\bar{a}$ as is seen in the Nom. Sing. of $\bar{A}$-stems, e. g. terră (ch. iii. § 43), contrā, the classical form being adapted to the type of suprū, extrā, \&c. But contră may be an Acc. Pl. Neut. form, and frustră (the O. Lat. quantity, e.g. ue frustrŭc sis, Plaut.) need not be an Instrumental either. The Oscan preposition contrud (i.e. *contrōd ; cf. Lat contro-versia) is an Ablative.

The O-stem suffix -o would by the second cent. b.c., when -d was dropped after a long vowel, be identical with the Abl., so that moido, cito (usually with -ŏ by the Law of Breves Breviantes, ch. iii. § 42) may be either Instrumentals or Ablatives. Porro is shown to be an Abl. by the old spelling pororl, mentioned above (§34). The other O-stem suffix -è may indeed appear in bӗnĕ, m $\breve{u} \breve{e}$, since the shortening of their final syllable by the Breves Breviantes Law (e.g. Plaut. dütŏ for *latōl) has advanced more rapidly than in the case of $-\bar{e} d$; but on the other hand this might be referred to their greater use in everyday life (cf. lavĕ but mone in Quintilian's time, ch. iii. § 42), and their more frequent occurrence in word-groups, e. g. lene-rem-geras, male-ficio (cf. diëquinte but fidē, ch. iii. §44). (The scansion benē, malē in Plaut. is doubtful.) Superlative Adverbs in $-\bar{e}$ have lost a final $l$, as is shown by facilumed on the S. C. de Bacchanalibus. Similarly ee of Fifth Decl. stems, e. g. füciè, rē, may be Instrumental -ē or Ablàtive -èd; - $\bar{\imath}$ of I-stems may be Instr. -ī or Abl. -id; - $\bar{u}$ of U-stems may be Instr. - $\bar{u}$ or Abl. - $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$; they may also be Locative -ē (e.g. postrī-die), -ĕy̆̆- (Lat. -ei, class. -ì, e. g. Neāpŏt̄̄), -eu- (Lat. - $\bar{u}$. e. o. noctū) (see §37). The - $\breve{e}$ of Consonant-stems, e. g. patrĕ, cannot be an Abl. suffix, but either Instrumental -ě (-ă ?), or Locative $-\check{1}$ (Lat. - $\breve{e}$, e. g. Tīlŭ̆rĕ), used ablativally and instrumentally, as Loc. - 1 in Gk. Cons.-stems was used to express all the meanings of the Greek Dative case, e.g. $\pi a \tau \rho-\check{c}_{\text {. }}$.

It thus appears how difficult it is to establish by certain proof the presence of Instrumental forms in the Latin declension, owing
to the lack of a sufficient number of examples from the earlier inscriptions in which Abl. forms have not yet lost their final $d$ (e. g. C. I. L. xi. 4766 bouid piaclum datod ; i. 6I airid [coir]au[it]; i. 18 I aire moltaticod ; Zvet. I. I. I. 72 opidque Uolgani) ${ }^{1}$, and Loc. -1̆ would be distinguished from Instrumental -ě (-ă ?). Yet the evidence of cognate languages shows that Instrumental case-forms must have been a living part of Latin at some period, however remote ; and when we come to examine the formation of Latin Adverbs we shall find that some of them are believed with a fair amount of probability to be Instrumentals. The evidence that we can draw from forms on Oscan inscriptions (they are not very numerous), is all in favour of the supposition that in the declension of the Noun the Instrumental forms had quite dropped out of use. The Oscan language, unlike the Umbrian, does not drop final d ; and indubitable Ablative forms with -d are used in all the senses of the Latin 'Ablative,' to express our prepositions ' from,' ' with,' ' by,' \&c., e.g. kúmbennieís tanginud, 'by decree of the assembly,' eítiuvad, 'with money,' úp eísúd sakaraklúd (Lat. apud id sacellum). (The doubtful eítie of Zv. I. I. I. 89 : súvad eítie upsed (Lat. sua pecunia opera$t u s e s t$ ), requires confirmation before it can be used as evidence that IE-stems used an Instr. or Loc. -iē instead of Abl. -iēd. The absence of an Abl. in -ièl from the early Latin inscriptions can be explained by the comparative paucity of Fifth Decl. stems.) In the Pelignian dialect, a variety of Oscan, we have in the few inscriptions preserved an 'Ablative Absolute,' oisa aetate (Lat. $u s \tilde{a}$ aetate, with passive sense of the Deponent, 'his life having been exhausted') (cf. forte, of doubtful meaning, on the same inscription), and an Ablative of uncertain construction, suad (?) aetatu firata fertlid (Lat. suā aetate . . .fertili), with apparent dropping of -d before initial $f$; and this evidence, so far as it goes, points to an Abl. of Cons.-stems in -ud (i. e. -ōd, the O-stem Abl. suffix), beside another case in -e (presumably -ě). If however this -e represents an original -ĭ (cf. Pel. ae for ai, Osc. Bansae Loc.) the case will be a Locative, not an Instrumental ; and this view is favoured by the fact that other stems have in

[^80]Oscan a Locative as well as an Ablative Case, e.g. $\bar{A}$-stems : víaí mefiaí Loc., beside eítiuvad Abl. (and eituas Gen.); O-stems : Ladinei Loc., beside trístaamentud Abl. (and sakaraklés Gen.). An isolated example of an Adverb formed apparently by the Instr. suffix in Osc. is suluh 'omnino' (Zvet. I. I. I. 129), though this stands on a carelessly written inscription, a leaden execration tablet, and is not free from the suspicion of being meant for sullud, a form which seems to occur (the last letter is unfortunately not quite legible) on another tablet of the same kind (I.F. ii. 435 ; cf. von Planta, i. pp. 577-80). The conclusion therefore which the scanty evidence at our disposal entitles us to draw is that Instrumental formations, though they may be found in some Latin Adverbs, are not found in the declension of Latin Nouns, the case-forms which competed with the Latin Ablative (especially in Cons.-stems) being Locatives and not Instrumentals.
> § 37. Locative Singular. Locatives in I.-Eur. seem sometimes to have had a final -1̆ (e. g. O. Ind. mūrdhán-i and mūrdhn-í, ' on the head'), sometimes not (e. g. O. Ind. mūrdhán, Gk. סó $\mu \in v$ Inf., a Loc. as $\delta \dot{\mu} \mu \epsilon \boldsymbol{\nu}$ al is a Dat.). Of Locatives without -r in Latin there are only uncertain traces, such as Prepositions like pĕnĕs (Loc. of penus, with -es not sunk to $-i s$, possibly because the accent rested on it in collocations like penés me, penés te, ch. iii. § $12 a .3$ ), and Adverbs like noctū. The predominant formation is with -1̆. Of these 1 -forms, $\bar{A}$-stem locatives show I.-Eur. -āi in O. Ind. áśvāy-ām, Lith. rañkoj-e, with Postpositions -ām and -e, but in Greek the ordinary diphthong -ai (a 'doublet' of āi, ch. iv. $\S 45$ ), e. g. $\Theta \eta \beta a l-\gamma \epsilon \nu \eta^{\prime} s$; and this is also the Italian form (O. Lat. $-\widehat{a l}$, class. Lat. -ae, Osc. -aí, Umbr. -e). O-stems took -oi and -ei (e. g. Gk. oľкоь and olk both these suffixes would become $-e i$, class. $-\bar{\imath}$ (ch. iii. § 18) ; so the origin of the suffix of Cŏrinthī, \&c. is, so far as Latin is concerned, doubtful. But in Oscan we have -eí, which must be I.-Eur. -ei (e. g. múíníkeí tereí, ‘ on common ground ’) (Umbr. -e, e.g. lestre onse, ' on the right shoulder,' may be -oi or -ei). Fifth Decl. stems took -ēi, which already in the ' I.-Eur. period' had a 'doublet' -è. It is this latter form which appears in Latin, e. g. die in the phrase postrī-diē, die cĩastïnu , \&c. (unless die has lost
a final $d$; cf. Faliscan foied ' hodie'). I-stems had -ĕyı̆ (e. g. Hom. Gk. $\pi \tau o ́ \lambda \epsilon i ̈)$, which in Latin would become $-e i$, class. $-\bar{\imath}$, and would be merged in the Dative (§ 23) [possibly Instrumental (§ 36)] suffixes. U-stems had -ĕwĭ (e.g. Hom. Gk. ă $\sigma \tau \epsilon і ̈)$, but Latin U-stem Locatives show $-\bar{u}$, the i-less formation, e. g. noct $\bar{u}$, mentioned above. İ-stems showed -ĭy̆̌, Lat. -ī, as Ū-stems -ŭwĭ, Lat. -ue, e. g. sue. Consonant-stems had -1̌ (used in Greek as Dative suffix, as well as Locative), which in Latin became $-\breve{e}$, e. g. Carthāgı̆nĕ, rūrĕ, and Infs. Act. like ŭgere, vīverĕ (contrast O. Ind. jīvás-ē, Lat. ag $\bar{\imath}$, which are Datives), though by false analogy of O-stems (or I-stems ?) we sometimes find - $\bar{\imath}$, e. g. ruri, perhaps introduced to discriminate the locative from the ablative use, e. g. rurī esse, from rurĕ venire.
§ 38. Locatives in $-\overline{1}$ and $-\theta$ in Latin. Hěr $i$ is by modern editors written with $e e$ when the last vowel has to be scanned short, otherwise with $-i$. The scansion herǐ (by the Brevis Brevians Law, ch. iii. §42) is common enough in the early Dramatists (e. g. Caecil. Com. 197 R. heri uero, where heri has abundant MS. authority), while the spelling here is established for passages like Plaut. Mil. 59 (quantity of final vowel doubtful), where the Ambrosian Palimpsest has here and the Palatine MS. hercle (cf. Pers. 108). Quintilian (i. 7. 22) says : 'here' nunc e littera terminamus: at veterum comicorum adhuc libris invenio: 'heri ad me uenit,' quod idem in epistulis Augusti, quas sua manu scripsit aut emendavit, deprehenditur. [On his remark (i. 4. 8), in 'here' neque e plane neque i auditur, see ch. ii. § 16.] The spelling of these forms, especially in the early writers, is often doubtful, and so it is difficult to prove with certainty such a theory as that only ruri is used for 'in the country,' and usually rure for ' from the country' in Plautus (Langen, Beiträge, p. 308). Charisius (p. 200. 12 K.) attests heri for Afranius Com. 71 R., peregri for Naev. Com. 93 R., but peregre for Naev. Com. 84 R., as prae-fiscine for Afranius Com. 36 R. The long quantity of the final vowel of përégre (so both the Ambrosian Palimpsest and the Palatine family) is required by the metre in Plaut. Truc. 127, an anapaestic line, and peregre has been explained as the suffixless Locative of an I-stem peregri- (ch. v. § 34) with the I.-Eur. ending -ē, a doublet of -ei (cf. O. Ind. agnắ, Loc. of agní-, 'fire'). Vespěrī, the form always used by the early writers, is naturally referred to the 0 -Stem vespero-. Tempëri (-ori, see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.) may be related to temporè as faenơr̄̄ to faenoré, majöř to majorĕ (§ 33), and so with rurī (e. g. Ter. Phorm. 363, Plaut. Cist. 226), Carthagini (e.g. Plaut. Poen. ro56 AP), Accherunti Plaut., while mäne (if not an Adverbial Accusative) may show conversely a Cons.-stem 'Ablative' suffix applied to an I-stem mani-, Manes Pl. (ch. v. § 37). The close connexion of the Ablative and Locative, already mentioned in § 33 , is seen in phrases like mane sane septimi, Plaut. Men. 1157 ; luci claro, Plaut. Aul. 748 (the use of claro for clară or clarae is due to the fact that luci being an Adverb does not have the fem. gender of $l u x$ ). (For fuller details about these Locatives, see Bell on the Latin Locative; Neue, Formenlehre, $\mathrm{ii}^{3}$. p. $64 \mathrm{o}, \mathrm{i}^{2}$. p. 242).
§ 39. $\overline{\mathbf{A}}$-stems, \&c. $\quad \mathrm{O}$. Lat. $-a i$ is never dissyllabic, like $-\bar{a} \bar{i}$ of the Genitive. In Plautus a common $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stem Loc. is riciniae, as in the phrase proxumae uiciniae, 'next door.' We have Romai on a very early inscription, C.I.L. i. 54: med Romai fecid. Die quinti occurs in Cato's account of Maharbal's boast to Hannibal : mitte mecum Romam equitatum ; die quinti in Capitolio tibi cena cocta erit (ap. Gell. x. 24. 7).
§ 40. Nom. Plur. I. Masc., Fem. The I.-Eur. -ĕs, which appears in Cons.-stems as -ĕs (e. g. O. Ind. mātár-as, Gk. $\mu \eta \tau \epsilon \in \rho-\epsilon s$ ), in $\bar{A}$-stems as -ās, in O-stems as -ōs, and so on, is the suffix in use among the Umbro-Oscan dialects (e.g. Umbr. frater for *fratr-ĕs, Osc. censtur for -rĕs, aasas ' arae'), but in Latin is hardly found except in I-stems whose -és represents I.-Eur. -ĕyěs (e. g. from the I.-Eur. stem tri-, ' three,' O. Ind. tráyas, Cret. Gk. $\tau \rho \in \in \in s$ for ${ }^{*} \tau \rho \epsilon y \epsilon s$, Att. $\left.\tau \rho \epsilon i s\right)$ Lat. trēs. In O-stems this I.-Eur. suffix -ōs is replaced in many of the I.-Eur. languages by -oi, the Nom. Pl. suffix of the Pronominal Declension (e.g. I.-Eur. *toi, O. Ind. té, Hom. Gk. $\tau o i ́$, Lat. $i s-t \bar{\imath}$ from -tei from original -toi). Thus in Greek we find -oı (e.g. $\lambda$ и́коь), in Celtic -oi (e. g. Gaul. Tanotaliknoi ; O. Ir. fir Nom. Pl., ' men,' points to an original *wiroi, as does Lat. $v \grave{\imath} \imath \bar{\imath}$, while firu Voc. Pl. is either the I.-Eur. Nom. Pl. in -ōs or the Acc. Pl.), Teutonic -ai (used in Adjectives, I.-Eur. -ōs being used in Nouns), Balto-Slav. -ai (e. g. Lith. vitkaĩ, O. Sl. vlŭci, ' wolves'). Similarly in Latin we find $-\bar{\imath}$ from -ei from still earlier -oe or -oi, e. g. O. Lat. poploe (Carm. Saliare), poplei, class. pоррйl̄, which is thus distinguished from Acc. Pl. populōs as Nom. Pl. istī (originally -toi) from Acc. Pl. $i s t o ̄ s$. The prevalence of this Pronominal oi-suffix among the European languages suggests the possibility that Umbro-Osc. -ōs (e. g. Umbr. Atiersiur 'Attiedii,' Osc. Núvlanús ' Nolani') may have had at one period a struggle for existence with oi, and may have owed its acceptance into use to the analogy of $\bar{A}$ stem Noms. Plur. in -ās. The Latin $\bar{A}$-stem suffix -ae, e. g. àrae (O. Lat. -ai, never dissyllabic, according to Prisc. i.p. 22 I H.), is an example of the contrary change from a prehistoric -ās, of which no traces remain, to a new formation made on the model of the -oi of O-stems. It resembles Greek -ăı (e.g. $\chi \hat{\omega} \rho a \iota$ ), but must have been originally $-\bar{a} i$, since the ordinary diphthong $-\mathrm{a} i$ would become $-\bar{\imath}$ in the unaccented syllable in Latin (cf. occidi for óc-caido, ch. iii. § I8). Lat. iē-stems with Nom. Pl. -iés may
have the I.-Eur. suffix, but U-stems with $-\bar{u} s$ show the Acc. Pl. suffix, instead of the I.-Eur. Nom. Pl. -ĕwĕs, which would be in Latin -ŭĕs, -ŭus. (This would hardly contract into $-\bar{u} s$, as we saw before, $\S 21$ ). The $-\bar{\imath} s$ which is occasionally found for $-\bar{e} s$ in I-stems is also an Acc. Pl. suffix (§51); and the Ī-stem Nom. Pl. vīe (so in O. Lat., but in class. Lat. vīr-ès for $* v i \bar{s}-\bar{e} s$, an $S-s t e m)$ is probably an Accusative form. The -ès of Cons.-stems, e. g. matr-ès, censör-és may either be the I-stem Nom. Pl. ending, since there is so much interchange of Cons.- and I-stems in Latin (§30), or the Acc. Pl. ; and the same is true of the $\overline{\mathrm{U}}$-stem -u $\bar{e}$ s, e. g. sués.
§41. $\overline{\mathbf{A}}$-stems. Ritschl (Neue Excurse, i. p. ir8) proposed to avoid hiatus in some passages of Plautus by the change of Nom. Pl. -ae to $-\bar{a} s$, reading e.g. alternas in Trin. 539 :

> nam fúlguritae súnt alternae árbores,
where all the MSS., the Palatine family as well as the Ambrosian Palimpsest, read alternae (which may be right, the hiatus being palliated by the alliteration, though editors prefer alternis, or alternas, an Adverb like ălias, altĕras). He quoted in support of this change a line from one of the Atellanae of Pomponius, c. 90 B. c. (Com. 141 R.) :
quót laetitias ínsperatas módo mi inrepsere ín sinum,
where laetitias insperatas is now usually explained as Acc., governed by inrepsere, though it may quite well be a dialectal form, for the Atellanae in imitating the manners of country life may also have imitated its language. Dialectal -as Nom. Pl. is found in the old inscriptions of Pisaurum with the $s$ dropped (C. I. L. i. 173 matrona Pisaurese dono dedrot; 177 dono dedro matrona), along with Gen. Sg. $-\bar{a}(s)$ [or Dat. Sg. $-\bar{a}(i)$, § 24]. In early inscriptions we have -ai for class -ae, e. g. tabelai, datai on the S. C. de Bacch.
§ 42. O-stems. Pilumnoe poploe was a phrase used of the Romans in the Carmen Saliare (Fest. 244. 25 Th. velut pilis uti assueti) ; cf. fescemnoe (qui depellere fascinum credebantur, Paul. Fest. 6i. ro Th.; should we read Fesceninoe, class. Fescennini ?). On early inscriptions we have -ei, e. g. foideratei, uirei, oinuorsei on the S.C. de Bacch., sometimes written -e (cf. ch.iv. § 34), e.g. ploirume (C. I. L. i. 32). A Nom. Pl. of an IO-stem with -is occurs on an inscription of the first cent. A. D. (C. I. L. i. I54I b), filis. It is impossible to say whether filei (i. 1272), feilei (i. 1284) (cf. socei, i. 104r) is meant for this form (cf. Clodi for Clodis Nom. Sg.), or is a misspelling of filiei (i. 1275) or a contraction of it (like gratīs for older gratiis). O-stems show eis, also written -es, -is, in some inscriptions of the end of the second or beginning of the first cent. b. c., e.g. magistreis (C. I L. i. 565 , Capua, ro8 в. c. : heisce magistreis Uenerus Louiae muru aedificandum coirauerunt), lanies (vi. 168, Rome), violaries rosaries coronariis (vi. 169, Rome). (For other examples, see Ritschl, Opusc. ii. 646, and add heisce magistreis, Not. Scav. 1893, p. 164, from Capua, mustae pieis, C. I. L. iii. Suppl. 12318, from Samothrace.) This form is attested for the pronoun hic by Priscian (i. p. 593.5 H . inveniuntur tamen etiam nominativum 'hisce' proferentes antiqui), and is found in the Nom. Pl. Masc. of hic, ille, iste in the Dramatists
before a word beginning with a vowel, when the particle -ce is added, e. g. Plaut. Mil. 374 :

> non póssunt mihi mináciis tuis hísce oculi exfodíri,
(similarly illisce and istisce are the forms used in Plautus before a word beginning with a vowel, never illīc, istīc ; Studemund in Fleck. Jahrb. 1876, p. 57), though probably never in the Nom. Pl. of O-stem nouns. In the pronouns it seems to be due to the addition of the plural suffix -s to the already formed plural in $-\bar{\imath}$ (older -ei); in the Noun 0 -stems it may have the same origin, though it is not unlikely that the IO-stem formation mentioned above had at least some share in bringing it into use.

Deus has two Nom. Pl. forms, dei, a dissyllable (probably the more ceremonious form), and $d i$, also written $d i i$, a monosyllable. (Dii and dei are compared to $i i$ and $e i$ by Prisc. i. p. 298 H.).
§43. $\overline{\bar{I}}$-stems. Varro (L. L. viii. 66) says that puppis and puppes, restis and restes were rival forms in his time, like Abl. ŏvi and ore, c̆ri and are. On early inscriptions we have usually -es, e. g. aidiles, C. I. L. i. 187, Eph. Epigr. viii. 676, but ceiveis on the Lex Repetund. of 123-122 в. c. (C.I.L. i. 198. 77), fineis and finis in the Sent. Minuciorum of ri7 b. c. (ib. i. 199), and pelleis on the Lex Furf. (i. 603) (cf. coques atriensis on a Praenestine inscr., i. r540). (See Neue, $\mathrm{i}^{2}$. p. 246.) The O. Lat. Plur. of $r \bar{\imath} s$ was vis (Prisc. i. p. 249.9 H.).
§ 44. Cons.-stems. Lat. quuttuor appears to be a relic of the -ěs formation, for *quattuor-ěs (§ 63), I -Eur. *qü̆tworěs (O. Ind. catváras, Dor. Gk. $\tau \in ́ \tau o p \epsilon s$, O. Ir. cethir), though some make it represent I.-Eur. *quetwōr, supposing this to be a byform of the ordinary Neuter, which would be in Latin *quattuora (Osc. petora or *petoro). Plautine scansions like cănĕs, turbinĕs (Trin. 835) are of course mere examples of the Law of Breves Breviantes, like the Imperatives cŭrĕ, pŭtŭ, \&c. (ch. iii. §42) (cf. Acc. Pl. liberŭs virginěs, Pers. 845) and are no evidence of the use of the suffix $-\breve{c}_{s}$.
§ 45. Nom., Acc. Plur. II. Neut. In the Italic, BaltoSlavic, and Teutonic languages all Neuter stems form their Nom. and Acc. Plur. in -ā, while in Greek we have -ă. This $\check{\check{a}}$ seems to have been originally peculiar to O-stems, and to be in reality the same as the Nom. Sg. Fem. suffix. Prof. Johannes Schmidt, in his book on the Indo-European formation of Neuter Plurals (Die Pluralbildungen der Indogermanischen Neutra, Weimar, 1889) has mustered an array of facts from the various I.-Eur. languages, which point to the Neut. Plur. having been originally a Collective Fem. Sg. like Lat. fümirlia in the sense of $f \breve{a} m u ̈ l i$, so that, e.g. Lat. juga originally meant what the Germans would express by 'das Gejöche,' the yoke-material. The use of a Singular Verb with a Neut. Plur. subject in

Greek, O. Ind. (Vedic) and Zend may be explained by this
 differs from $\mu \eta \rho o i ́$ of 1.460 $\mu \eta \rho o v v_{s} \tau^{\prime}$ є $\xi \in \epsilon \tau a \mu o \nu$ in signifying the mass of meat as opposed to the thighs separately. And the change of Gender in Lat. caementum N., caementa F., mendum N., menda F. may be due to the fact that a Collective Sing. Fem. caementa, menda, being treated as a Plural (a 'Nom. Plur. Neut.'), developed a new Singular, caementum, mendum (Nom. Sing. Neut.). Other illustrations of the connexion between a Collective Sing. Fem. and a Plur. Neut. may be seen in Prof. Schmidt's book, e.g. Lat. ŏpĕra Sg. Fem. and ŏpĕr $\quad$ Plur. Neut.,
 examples of change of Gender like locus Sg., loca Pl. are to be found in Neue, $\mathrm{i}^{2}$. p. 540.)

The suffix - $-\bar{a}$ appears, as we have seen, in the Nom. Plur. of all Neuter-stems in the European languages. But in the oldest Indian and Zend literature we have relics of an earlier state of things, viz. -ā for O-stems, $-\overline{1}$ for I-stems (a Latin relic of $-\overline{1}$ is trī-ginta, lit. ' three tens,' § 74), -ū for U-stems (perhaps the long vowel of Lat. pĕcu, gĕnu, cornu, \&c. may be due to their having been originally Neut. Plur.; another suggestion is, that gen $\bar{u}$, $\operatorname{corn} \bar{u}, \& c$. were Duals, like I.-Eur. *sūnū, Nom. Dual of the stem *sūnŭ-, 'a son'); while Cons.-stems lengthened the vowel of their final syllable [e.g. Vedic nấmā, 'names,' for * $_{\text {nōmō }}(\mathrm{n})$ ?; Prof. Schmidt compares Lat. quattuor from I.-Eur. ${ }^{*} q^{\text {" }}$ etwōr, but see §63]. All these formations Prof. Schmidt identifies with Fem. Sing. Collectives.

Like the $-\bar{a}$ of the Nom. Sing. of $\bar{A}$-stems, Neut. Plur. $-\bar{a}$ appears in Latin as -ă in the earliest literature, and in UmbroOscan becomes an $o$-sound, Oscan ú, Umbr. u, (a), both written in the Latin alphabet $o$, which is scanned by Lucilius as a short syllable in the Oscan loanword sollo (Lat. tota Neut. Pl.) (inc. 160 M.$)$ : uasa quoque omnino dirimit, non sollŏ dupundi,
and is written $-a$ by Festus in the Oscan numeral petora, four (250. 30 Th. petoritum et Gallicum vehiculum esse, et nomen ejus dictum esse existimant a numero quattuor rotarum. alii Osce, quod hi quoque 'petora' quattuor vocent). In Umbrian
it appears that the Nom. and Acc. Pl. of Neuter-stems were distinguished by the addition to this $-o$ of the $-r(-\mathrm{s})$ and the -f , which are the final letters of the Masc. Nom. and Acc. Plur., though it is possible that this -r and -f were not pronounced, but were used merely as graphic criteria of the two cases, e.g. tuderor Nom., verof Acc. Whether it is merely accidental, or not, that the ordinary forms in -a, -o are found in the Acc. along with forms in -of, but not in the Nom. along with forms in -or, the limited material does not allow us to decide.

With that interchange of the Cons.- with the I-declension mentioned in § 50, we have e. g. plīria (cf. compluria) and plura, forms discussed by Gellius (v. 21), who tells us of a letter written by Sinnius Capito to Pacuvius Labeo to prove the thesis: 'pluria non plura dici debere.' We have -ia in the Neut. Plur. of Adjective Stems like tẹ̆rètia, audäcia, victrīcia, fërentia, \&c. (see Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 121), but always vêtĕra from vetus, which was originally a Noun (Gk. (F)'́ros, a year) (§55). In O. Lat. we have silenta, for silentia, quoted by Gellius from Laevius (Gell. xix. 7. 7 ab eo quod est sileo 'silenta loca' dixit et ' pulverulenta' et ' pestilenta') (see ch. v. § 64).
§ 46. Gen. Plur. The suffix -ōm is indicated by most of the I.-Eur. languages (e.g. Gk. ì $\pi \pi \omega \nu, \mu \eta \tau \epsilon^{\prime} \rho-\omega \nu$ ), which would in Latin become in time -ŏm (ch. iii. § 49), then - $\breve{u} m$ (e. g. socium on the S. C. de Bacch.) (cf. Osc. Núvlanúm, Maцєртıvov, Дovкаvo $\mu$, Umbr. Atiersio). $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stems took in Greek and in the Italic languages -āsōm, e.g. (Hom Gk. $\theta \epsilon \frac{a}{\alpha} \omega \nu$, Att. $\theta \epsilon \omega \bar{\omega}$, Lat. deārum, Osc. egmazum ' rerum,' which was the Gen. Plur. Fem. suffix of Pronouns (e.g. O. Ind. tấsām, Hom. Gk. тá̀ $\omega \nu$, Lat. is-tarum), and after this model a Gen. Pl. of O-stems was formed in Latin with the suffix -ōrum (O. Lat. -orom), a suffix not found in Umbro-Oscan, which by Cicero's time drove the older -om, -um off the field. On the same model the Fifth Decl. stems formed their Gen. Pl., e. g. făciērum. The use of -ium in Gen. Plur. of Adjectives like fürentium, audācium, and of $-u m$ in Gen. Pl. $\breve{a} p u m, ~ v o ̆ l u ̆ c r u m, ~ v a ̄ t u m, ~ \& c . ~(s e e ~ i n s t a n c e s ~ i n ~ N e u e, ~ i ² . ~ p p . ~ 258 ~ s q q ., ~$ e. g. ciev̌tūtum and civitatium), is due to that confusion of Cons.stems with I-stems, which played so great a part in the Latin

## declension, and which occupied a great deal of the attention of

 the native grammarians.§47. -um and -orum in O-stems. Cicero's remarks on these suffixes are worth quoting (Orat. xlvi. r55): atque etiam a quibusdam sero jam emendatur antiquitas, qui haec reprehendunt; nam pro deum atque hominum fidem 'deorum' aiunt. Ita credo. Hoc illi nesciebant? an dabat hanc licentiam consuetudo? Itaque idem poeta (Ennius) qui inusitatius contraxerat : Patris mei, meum factum pudet, pro 'meorum factorum,' et: Texitur, exitium examen rapit, pro 'exitiorum,' non dicit 'liberum,' ut plerique loquimur, cum 'cupidos liberum' aut 'in liberum loco' dicimus, sed ut isti volunt: Neque tuum unquam in gremium extollas liberorum ex te genus. Et idem : Namque Aesculapi liberorum. At ille alter (Pacuvius) in Chryse non solum : Ciues, antiqui amici maiorum meum, quod erat usitatum, sed durius etiam : Consilium socii, augurium atque extum interpretes; idemque pergit: Postquam prodigium horriferum, portentum pauor. Quae non sane sunt in omnibus neutris usitata. Nec enim dixerim tam libenter 'armum judicium,' etsi est apud eundem : Nihilne ad te de iudicio armum accidit? quam centuriam, ut censoriae tabulae loquuntur, fabrum et procum audeo dicere, non 'fabrorum' et 'procorum.' Planeque 'duorum virorum judicium' aut 'triumvirorum capitalium' aut 'decemvirorum stlitibus judicandis' dico nunquam. Atqui dixit Attius: Uideo sepulera duo duorum corporum ; idemque : Mulier una duum uirum. Quid verum sit intellego, sed alias ita loquor, ut concessum est, ut hoc vel pro deum dico vel pro deorum, alias, ut necesse est, cum triumvirum, non 'virorum,' cum sestertium, nummum, non 'nummorum,' quod in his consuetudo varia non est. Similarly Varro (L.L. viii. 7r) : quaerunt, si sit analogia, cur appellant omnes aedem Deum Consentium et non 'Deorum Consentium'? Item quor dicatur mille denarium, non 'mille denariorum'; est enim hoc vocabulum figura ut Vatinius, Manilius, denarius ; debet igitur dici ut Vatiniorum, Maniliorum, denariorum; et non equum puplicum mille assarium esse, sed mille 'assariorum'; ab uno enim assario multi assarii, ab eo assariorum. (A list of Genitives Plur. of 0 -stems in -um is given by Neue, $\mathrm{i}^{2}$. 으.) Nostrum and restrum, Gen. Plur. of noster, vester, established themselves in class. Lat. as Gen. Pl. of nos, vos (ch. vii.§ 9). $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stem Genitives like agricŏlum (Lucr. iv. 586) follow the analogy of 0 -stems, as do vectigăliorum, anciliorum, \&c., and perhaps currum, \&c.; amphŏrum and drachmum follow the Greek. On the (restored) Columna Rostrata (C. I. L. i. 195. 10) we have the Pronoun olorom 'illorum'; on a Scipio epitaph of perhaps the end of the third cent. в. с. (i. 32), the Adj. duonoro 'bonorum,' but $-0(m)$ on the earliest coins, e. g. C. I. L. i. is Caleno (with N $\epsilon$ orodıt $\omega \nu$ ), i. 16 Suesano (with N $\epsilon$ oтодıт $\boldsymbol{\omega} \nu$ ). (See ch. iii. § 49.) In i. 24, of end of third cent. b. c., ladinod is usually read Larinor., a Gen. Pl.
§ 48. Dat., Abl., Loc., Instr. Plural. These four cases must be considered together; they are so intermingled in Latin and in other I.-Eur. languages. Latin $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stems show - $\bar{\imath}$, older -eis, which has come from an earlier -ais (cf. Oscan -aís, Greek -ats), a suffix apparently formed in imitation of the -ois of O-stems.

This O-stem suffix, in Latin -ìs, earlier -eis, and still earlier -oes or -ois (Osc. -úis, -ois) is regarded by some as a Locative, by others as an Instrumental (see Brugmann, Grundriss, ii. §§ 357, 380). The suffix -bŭs, O. Lat. -bos, shown by other stems (e. g. cīv̌u-bus, lēg--̌-bus with the $i$ of I-stems, lŭcŭ-bus or lŭch-bus, sī-bus or sŭ-bus), comes from an original -bhŏs. In Umbro-Oscan, as usual, the short vowel of the final syllable is syncopated, e.g. O. Osc. luisari-fs (in Lat. *lūsāribus), Osc. teremn-í-ss (in Lat. termı̆nŭbus), lig-i-s (in Lat. lèg-ı̆-bus), Umbr. fratr-u-s, with s for ss and so not changed to r , and preceded by a vowel which may be the I.-Eur. ' Composition Vowel' o (ch. v. § 80), though this is quite uncertain. This suffix was in O. Lat. employed in the Dat., Abl. Plur. of $\bar{A}$-stems, e.g. dexträbus (cf. Gaul. Mā̃ $\rho \epsilon \beta$ N Napavбıк $\bar{\alpha} \beta o$ ), but in the classical period this form was retained only in legal language, for the purpose of distinguishing $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$ - from O-stems, e.g. filiis et filialus, just as we retain the old Plural suffix in ' oxen' but have dropped it in ' shoes' (earlier 'shoon '). Adverbs like ŭliās, O. Lat. altĕras, fŏrās may show the I.-Eur. Locative of $\bar{A}$-stems (Gk. - $\bar{\sigma} \bar{\iota}$, e. g. $\theta \dot{v} \rho \bar{\rho} \bar{\sigma} \iota$; O. Ind. -āsŭ, e. g. áśvāsu) (but see ch. ix. § 4).
§49. $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$ - and O -stems. The old form privicloes (privis, id est singulis), the Dat., Abl. Plur. of a diminutive of privus, is quoted from the Carmen Saliare by Festus (244. 21 Th.), and Paul. Fest. 14. 17 Th. has: ab 'oloes' dicebant pro ab illis, but -eis, sometimes written -es (ch. iv. § 34), is the spelling of the older inscriptions: e. g. uieis, leibereis, populeis, uedificieis, agreis, loceis, on the Lex Agraria of ini b. c. (C.I.L. i. 200); soueis nuges on an old epitaph of a mimus (i. 1297) :

> plouruma que fecit populo soueis gaudia nuges,
which has $\bar{e}$ for $e i$ also in the Nom. Sing. Masc. of the Relative, que for quei (class. quй) ; de manubies (Eph. Epigr. viii. 476, Capua, $\mathbf{1} 35$ в.c.). We find -ı̄̌s contracted in course of time into $-\bar{s}$; thus grātiis (always with -iis, and similarly ingratiis, in Plautus and Terence ; cf. gratiis in a line of Pomponius, c. 90 в. с., Com. ıı R.) became gratīs in classical Latin ; provincīs, \&c. beside $j u d i c i n s$ ( the long $i$ being indicated by the tall form of the letter), occur on the Mon. Ancyranum ; and of IO-stems we have, e. g. Januaris (C.I. L. vi. 543, of 115 A. d.), Junis (vi. 213, of 131 A.d.). (For other examples, see Neue i'. p. 3r.) An example of -äbus in 0 . Lat. is quoted by Nonius ( 493.16 M .) from Livius Andronicus' translation of the Odyssey : déque mánibus dextrábus. The passages of the grammarians bearing on this form, and details of the use of deabus, filiabus, and libertabus, the most frequent words of the kind, are given by Neue, $\mathrm{i}^{2}$. pp. 22 sqq. We have Masc. -ōbus with Fem. - $\bar{a} b u s$ in the Duals duobus, ambobus, though the rarity of the formation led to the latter being
replaced in Vulg. Lat. by ambis Mase. and Fem. (Caper iо7. 14 K. ambobus, non 'ambis' et ambabus'. O-stems sometimes take the I-stem and Consonantal -ibus in Late and Vulgar Latin, e.g. C. I. L. vi. 224 dibus omnibus deabusque (197 A. D.); 15267 amicibus; ${ }^{17633}$ alumnibus. Pomponius, the writer of Atellanae, uses pannibus (Com. 7o R.) for pannis in imitation of the rustic mode of speech; and in the Sermo Plebeius of Petronius we have diibus (Sat. 44. p. 29, 35 B. ita meos fruniscar, ut ego puto omnia illa a diibus fieri). In the O. Lat. inscription (C.I.L. i. 814) : devas Corniscas sacrum, found in the 'Corniscarum divarum locus trans Tiberim' (Paul. Fest. 45. 16 Th.), the two first words may be Gen. Sing. If Plural, they are Locatives like alias. The instances of dialectal and Lat. -os are all doubtful (Class. Rev. ii. p. 204).
§50. Other stems. O. Lat. -bos of trebibos on a bronze vase in the British Museum (Eph. Epigr. ii. 299 Q. Lainio Q. f. praifectos protrebibos fecit), corresponding to class. -bus, indicates a short vowel, for -bōs would have retained $\bar{j}$ (ch. iii. § 18). The few apparent examples of its being scanned as a long syllable by the Dramatists (collected by C. F. Müller in his Plaut. Prosodie, p. 53 ; add Naev. Trag. 57 R.) must be illusory (many of them are cases of syllaba anceps at a pause in the line, e.g. Plaut. Merc. 900, Rud. 975).
§ 51. Acc. Plur. The I.-Eur. suffix was -ns, after a consonant -ṇs. Thus $\bar{A}$-stems ended in -āns, which became -ās, O-stems in -ŏns, which became -or ${ }^{\mathrm{n}}$, I-stems in -ins, R-stems in -rns, S-stems in -sṇs, and so on. Latin examples are vī̄s, lupōs, fratrès [with -ès from -ĕns (ch. ii. § 64) from I.-Eur. -ṇs], honōrès for -ösĕns. I.-Eur. -ns, -ṇs becomes in Oscan -ss, in Umbr. -f, e.g. Osc. víass ' vias,' feíhúss, walls (cf. Gk. $\tau \in i ̂ \chi o s)$, Umbr. vitlaf ' vitulas,' or with loss of -f vitla, toru for *toruf ' tauros,' avef, avif, and aveif' aves.'

I-stems in Latin should show -īs (from -ins, ch. ii. § 64) ; and this is the usual form in the best MSS., though we often find $-\bar{s} s$, the Nom. Pl. ending or the Cons.-stem ending. Thus urbis is attested for Virg. G. i. 25 : urbisne invisere, Caesar, \&c., but urbes for $A$. iii. 106: centum urbes habitant magnas, tres for $A$. x. 350, but tris for the following line (Gell. xiii. 21); so on the (restored) Columna Rostrata (C. I. L. i. 195) [c]lasesque nauales . . claseis Poenicas . . . copias Cartacinienseis . . . naueis. (For statistics of the use of $-i s$ and $-\bar{e} s$, see Neue, $i^{2}$. p. 24.5.)
§52. II. THE COMPARISON OF ADJECTIDES. The I.-Eur. suffixes used to form the Comparative and Superlative of Adjectives have been already mentioned in chap. iv. For the Comparative, (r) -yĕs-, with weak grade -is- (e. g. O. Ind. svắd-īyas-, Gk. $\hat{\eta} \delta i \omega$ Acc. for ${ }^{*} \dot{\eta} \delta \iota o \sigma a$, Goth. sutiza, Lith. sald-ẽs-nis),

Lat. suävior, older *suaviōs, măgis Adv.; (2) -těro- and -ěro-, the original sense of which was rather that of likeness, of equal, than of greater degree (e. g. O. Ind. vatsa-tará-, lit. 'like a calf,' Lat. mäter-tera, lit. ' like a mother,' Ir. demnithir, 'equally certain,' from demin, ' certain'); for the Superlative, (1) -is-to- (-is-tho-?),
 ıбтos, Goth. sut-ists, Engl. sweet-est), apparently composed of the weak Comparative suffix -is- and the TO-suffix (ch. v. § 27) ; (2) -temo- or -temo- (-tmmo-) and -emo- or - ${ }^{-}$mo- (-mmo-) (ch. v. § 14) (e.g. O. Ind. án-tama-, Lat. in-ťmus; O. Ind. upamá-, Lat. summus for $*_{\text {sup-mus }}$. This last Superlative suffix was, like the Comparative -tero-, -ero- (Ascoli, Suppl. Arcl. Glott. Ital. i. 53), originally a suffix denoting likeness (e.g. O. Ind. gó-tama-, lit. ' like an ox') or position, and it has this force in Latin words like aedř-tumus, lit. ' living in a temple' (later corrupted to aedi-tuus, as if from tueor, ' guarding a temple,' Gell. xii. то; Varro, R. R. i. 2. 1) ; finu九̆-timus, mŭrı̆-timus, \&c., so that e. g. č̆-timus probably meant originally ' near in position' (cf. dex-timus, ' on the right, not ' most on the right'), and is not properly a Superlative. To give Superlative sense, the weak Comparative suffix was added, -is-emo- (-is- ${ }^{-}$mo-), e. g. maximus for ${ }^{*}$ măgis-imus, săcervimus for $*_{\text {sacris-imus, fŭcillimus }}$ for *fačlis-imus (on the change of -ris- $^{\text {(or }}$ to -ers-, -err-, \&c., see ch. iv. § 13). The origin of the usual Latin Superlative ending -issimus, older -issumus, has been matter of much discussion. One theory makes the I.-Eur. suffix of O. Ind. áśs-iṣṭha-, Gk. ©̈к-ьбтos -istho-, not -isto-, and explains Lat. -issimus as this suffix augmented by -emo- (-mo-). But the change of I.-Eur. sth into Latin ss is not satisfactorily proved by Lat. ossi-, bone (O. Ind. asthán-, Gk ò otéov; see ch. iv. § 95), and it seems safer to analyze -issimus into the suffixes -isto- and -temo- (on ss for (s)tt, see ch. iv. § io8) ${ }^{1}$. The -is- of -issimus, like the -is of magis, had short $i$, a fact attested not only by grammarians [Mar. Victor., p. 242.24 K.; Vergilius, p. 189. ${ }^{1} 7$ H. (Suppl.)], but by late spellings like merentessemo, karessemo

[^81](C.I. L. ii. 2997). (The tall form of I in some late inscriptions, e.g. carIssimo C. I. L. vi 5325 , does not prove that the vowel was long ; see ch. i. § 9).

The irregular Comparison of simple Adjectives like ' good,'
 good, better) is a relic of a very early time when different roots were used to express a Positive, a Comparative, and a Superlative notion,-bonus (older duonus) from dwen- (cf. O. Ind. dúvas-, 'honour'), melior, optimus (C.I. L. i. 1016 has opituma, an archaism) from the root op- of opto, ŏpes, \&c. On the Comparison of Adverbs, see ch. ix. § I.

In the Romance languages Comparison is expressed by the use of the descendants of Lat. plus (Ital., French, \&c.), magis (Span., Port., \&c.), e. g. Ital. più ricco, ' richer,' il più ricco, ' the richest,' except in these simple Adjectives like 'good,' 'bad,' which retain their old irregular Comparison, e.g. Ital. migliore and ottimo, 'very good' (il migliore, 'the best'), peggiore and pessimo, ' very bad '(il peggiore, ' the worst'), \&c. Ital. -issimo (e. g. ricchissimo, 'very rich,' not ' richest') shows itself by its -is- instead of -es- (for Lat. - $九 s-$, ch. ii. § 14) to be a late innovation, and no transmission from ancient times. (See Meyer-Luibke, Rom. Gram. ii. p. 83.)
§ 53. The Comparative Suffixes. The suffix -yes- appears in Latin as -ior Nom. Sg., M., F., -iöris Gen. Sg., -ius Nom. Sg. Neut., of which the older forms were -iōs, -iōses, -iŏs. (On the change of $s$ to $r$, see ch. iv. § i48). Varro (L. L. vii. 27) quotes from early Latin (from the Carm. Sal.?) meliosem, and Paul. Fest. (359. I Th.) maiosibus, meliosibus (his 'meltom' meliorem dicebant, 87.25 Th., may be a corruption of a gloss like ' melios' melior ; see Class. Rev. v. io ; so in a Glossary 'meliosa' meliora, Löwe, Opusc. p. 170). Priscian (i. p. 347. 2 H.) quotes from the earlier historians Neuter forms like prior, posterior; thus from Valerius Antias: hoc senatusconsultum prior factum est; from Cassius Hemina: bellum Punicum posterior; from Claudius Quadrigarius: prior bellum quod cum his gestum erat; and: foedus prior Pompeianum (on calor Neut. in O. Lat., see § 14); though it is conceivable that the actual forms used may have been priös, posteriŏs, which must have been the predecessors of priüs, posteriüs (ch. iii. § 18) ${ }^{1}$.

The yes-suffix was originally affixed to the root without the suffix of the Positive stem, as in Lat. $\bar{o} c-i o r, ~ O$. Ind. áśsīyas-, Gk. $\dot{\omega} \kappa-$-i $\omega \nu$ from a Positive

[^82]stem *ō̂̂u-, but Lat. suāvior for *suadv-ior, těnuior, aspërior, \&c. start from the Positive stem *swādu-, \&c. On the other hand the suffix -tero-, when added
 often added to Prepositions, e.g. ex-ter, cï-ter, postero- (similarly -ero- in sup-ero-). In Latin it has not Comparative sense unless augmented by the YES-suffix, e.g. ex-ter-ior, ci-ter-ior, dex-ter-ior, sŭnis-ter-ior ; öciter, \&c. being apparently the Latin equivalent of the Gk. $\dot{\omega} \kappa v=\tau \epsilon \rho o-, \& c$. (ch. ix. § i).
§ 54. The Superlative Suffixes. The suffix -temo- or -temo- (-tmmo-) with -emo- or -emo (-mmo-) is closely associated with Comparative -tero-, -ero-, e. g. ci-timus goes with ci-tero-, in-timus with in-tero- (O. Ind. án-tama- with án-tara-), summus from *sup-mues with sup-ero-, infimus (ìmus seems not to occur in Plautus) with infero-. The old augural term sollistumum tripudium may combine it with the Comparative -is-. Its original form is difficult to ascertain. The spelling on Republican inscriptions is -tumus, -umus (ch. iii. § 18). Umbr. hondomu suggests an older -tomo-, -omo-, while Osc. últiumam (Lat. ultimam) shows an affection of that is usual before a $u$-sound (cf. Osc. tiurri-, Lat. turris). The form without $t$ is seen in mĭnimus, brūma from brĕvis for *breghu- (Gk. Bpaxús), (cf. Osc. maimo- 'maximus'), and apparently attached to a case-form, in supree-mus, extrē-mus, postrē-mus (cf. postumus Virg. $A$. vi. 763 ), but it is usually combined with the Comparative -is-, e. g. maximus for mag-is-imus (Falisc. Maxomo-), O. Lat. oxime (Paul. Fest. 225. I Th.) for *oc-is-ime, medioximus from the stem medioc- seen in médiocris. This was the formation adopted by Adjective-stems ending in -li-, -ri-, -ro-, e.g. faciis,
 rimus ${ }^{1}$, \&c., though we have sĕvèrissimus, mütürissimus and maturissime, but usually maturrime, \&c. (see Neue, $\mathrm{ii}{ }^{3}$. pp. 187 sqq.). With the last we should probably compare $\mathbf{O}$. Lat. pürine in the phrase purime tetinero, explained in Paul. Fest. 335. 7 Th. as purissime tenuero. Ennius (according to Charisius 83. 22 K.) wrote equitatus celerissimus, and minerrimus is quoted by Paul. Fest. 88. II Th.: 'minerrimus' pro minimo dixerunt.
§ 55. Some irregular Comparatives and Superlatives. Vetustior appears as the Comparative of větus, because vetustus with its ill-sounding repetition of the syllable tus- was discarded in the Positive for retus, apparently the I.-Eur.
 retustissimus (in Livy and later writers) are both found. Minus, with ous not -ius, has been similarly explained to have originated in a Neuter Noun, meaning 'the less quantity,' and to have produced the declension minor M., minor F., minus $\mathbf{N}$. ; the Oscan equivalent of minor is minstro- (Lat. minister), e. g. ampert minstreis aeteis eituas moltas moltaum licitud 'dumtaxat minoris partis pecuniae multas multare liceto' on the Law of Bantia (c.f. Umbr. mestro- 'major,' Lat. măgister). The coexistence of such forms as bĕněvölus and benerolens (ch. viii. § 90) produced a type of Comparison like magnĭficus, magnificentior, magnificentissimus; while früḡ, which was a Dative Case of a noun [frugi (bonae) sc.

[^83]antepenultimate of -issimus is ever shortened (Class. Rev. vi. 342).
faciendae aptus; cf. Plaut. Pseud. 468 tamen ero frugi bonae; Poen. 892 erus si tuos uolt facere frugem) had recourse for its Comparative and Superlative to the Adj. frügälis. The retention of $v$ in the Positive with its suppression in the other degrees, causes the anomaly in the Comparison of dires, (but cf. Ter. Adelph. 770 dis quidem esses, Demea), dìtior, 'dïtissimus; jŭvěnis, jünior. From plē-, a development of the root pel-, 'to fill' (Lat. plē-nus, replē-tus, $p l \bar{\ell}-r i-q u e, ~ G k . \pi \lambda \hat{\eta} \rho \eta s, \& c$.), were formed Greek $\pi \lambda \epsilon i \omega \omega \nu, \pi \lambda \epsilon i \sigma \tau o s ’$; from plō-, another grade of plē- (ch. iv. §53), the Latin plūs for *plo-is (ploera Cic. Legg. iii. 3. 6), plürimus for *plois-omo- (ploirume Nom. Pl. Masc. on a Scipio epitaph of the end of the third cent. в.c., C. I. L. i. $3^{2}$ :

> hónc oíno ploírume coséntiont R[ómai]
> dùönóro óptumo fuise uíro,
'hunc unum plurimi consentiunt Romae bonorum optimum fuisse virum '); the plous of the S. C. Bacch. (C. I. L. i. 196. 19 and 20) may with its ou merely represent the $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$-sound which the diphthong oi had by this time assumed (ch. iv. $\S \S 37,38$ ), and is hardly sufficient evidence of a formation *plo-us like minus; similarly plouruma on the epitaph of a mime (C. I. L. i. 1297, in dactylic hexameters:
plouruma que fecit populo soueis gaudia nuges,
'plurima qui fecit populo suis gaudia nugis') is a misspelling of ploeruma or plūruma. The pleoris of the Carmen Arvale (C.I.L. i. 28), a hymn preserved in a late and wretchedly spelt inscription :

> neve luae rue, Marma, sins incurrere in dleores, neve lue rue, Marmar, sins incurrere in pleoris, neve lue rue, Marmar, sers incurrere in pleoris,
' neve luem ruem, Marmar, sinas (siveris ?) incurrere in plures,' may be a mistake for ploeres, and the plisima quoted from the Carmen Saliare by Festus [244. 17 Th. 'plisima' plurima; but in Varro's account of the same Carmen (L. L. vii. 27) plusima is the reading of the MS.] should perhaps be corrected to ploisuma (ploisoma), though some regard these forms as evidence of Latin derivatives from the root plē-, like Greek $\pi \lambda \epsilon \epsilon^{\prime} \omega \nu$ ( $\pi \lambda \lambda^{\prime} \omega \nu$ ) and $\pi \lambda \epsilon i \hat{\sigma} \sigma \tau o s$. Major is perhaps best referred to an older *mahior (cf. O. Ind. máhīyas-) with $h$ for the Guttural Aspirate, while magis, maximus show another form of root with the Guttural Media (ch. iv. § 116), (but cf. Osc. mais for *mahis, maimas for *mahimas, Umbr. mestru for *mahistro-); the relation however of the Italic forms to Goth. maiza, 'more' Adj. (I.-Eur. *ma-is-), O. Ir. māa, mō, O. W. moi, all of which point to a root ending in a long vowel, mā- or mō-, is not perfectly clear.
§ 56. III. NUMERALS. Of the Latin Cardinal Numbers only 1-3 are inflected, ūnus -a -um, $d u \bar{o}-a e-\bar{o}$, très $-\bar{e} s-i a$, not 4 (O. Ind. catváras, cátasras, catvấri, Gk. $\tau \in \in \sigma \sigma a \rho \epsilon s-\epsilon s-a$ ), nor 5 (O. Ind. páñca Nom., pan̂cānắm Gen., Gk. $\pi \in ́ \nu \tau \epsilon$, Lesb. $\pi \epsilon \in \mu \pi \omega \nu$ Gen.). The Numeral Adverbs from 5 upwards end in -iens or -iēs (on the spelling, see Brambach, Lat. Orth. p. 269 ; Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 335; the Mon. Ancyranum has -iens), an ending which is also found
in totie(n)s, quotie(n)s, and which has been connected with the ending of O. Ind. kíyant- (Adj.), ' how great? ', íyant- (Adj.), 'so great,' probably I.-Eur. -yĕnt. Umbr. nuvis 'novies,' Osc. pomtis 'quinquies' seem to show the same ending, with $i$ as weak grade of yĕ (ch. iv. §5 5 ). [On the change of I.-Eur. -nt to -ns in Lat. and Umbro-Oscan, see ch. iv. § 105 ; in late Lat. inscriptions we often find -is (cf. ch. ii. § 6), e. g. quinquis, Rossi, I. Chr. i. 508 , of 402 A. D., sexis, ib. i. 530 , of 404 A. D., decis C.I. L. xii. 2087, of 559 A. D., also -es (cf. quetus for quiētus, ch. ii. § 149), e. g. quinques, Rossi, i. 510, of 402 A. D., Ieces C. I. L. xii. 2086, of 558 A. D., vices xii. 2187 , of 564 A . d.]

Fractions are expressed by divisions of the as ( $=12$ unciae), e. g. uncia, 'one-twelfth,' quincunx, ' five-twelfths,' septunx, 'seventwelfths,' deunx, 'eleven-twelfths,' lit. ' minus an ounce.' The I.-Eur. word for 'half,' *sēmǐ- (O. Ind. sāmi-, Gk. ì $\mu t-$, O. Engl. sām-, whence our 'sand-blind '), is in Latin sèm̌̌-, the declinable form sèmis, Gen. semissis, \&c., being apparently a compound of seemi- and as with the -yĕ- of *semyĕssis weakened to $\breve{\iota}$ (ch. iii. § 18, p. 188) ; similarly the -w $\check{-}$ - of *eentu( $m$ )-essi-, * $l$ ĕcu $(m)$-essi- is weakened to $\breve{u}$ in centussi-, decussi-. The origin of the -ns (for -nts) of triens, 'one-third,' sextans, ' one-sixth,' quadrans, ' one-fourth,' dodrans, ' three-fourths,' dextans, ' fivesixths,' for *lē-sextans, lit. ' minus one-sixth,' is not clear ; bessi- is usually explained as * $l u$-essi- (on $b$ - from $d w$-, see ch. iv. § 71 ), but it means not 'two asses' but 'two-thirds of an as' 1 . The Adjective for 'half' is $d \bar{\imath}$-midius from dis- and medius (ch. iii. § 18). 'One and a half' is sesquí-, usually explained as *sēmisque, with the same syncope as is seen in sestertius, 'two and a half,' for sēnis-tertius (cf. Germ. drittehalb).
§ 57. One. I.-Eur. *oi-no- (Gk. olv ${ }^{\text {ol }}$, an ace, O. Ir. oen, W. un, Goth. ains, Lith. v-ếnas, O. Sl. i-nŭ ; cf. O. Ind. êka- for ${ }^{*}$ oi-ko-, Cypr. Gk. oi-Fos, Att. oios, alone, for ${ }^{*}$ oi-wo-), Lat. $\bar{u} n u s$ ( $-a-u m$ ), O. Lat. oinos. Another I.-Eur. word for 'one' was

[^84]*sěm-, which is used in Gk., $^{\text {fis for }}$ *sem-s, $\mu i a$ for $\sigma \mu-\iota a$, ${ }^{\prime} \nu$ for $*_{\text {sem }}$, and in Arm., mi for ${ }^{\text {sm-i }}$; and in Derivatives and Compounds in all languages, e. g. *sem-, *sm- in O. Ind. sa-kṛ́t, ' once,' Gk. ä- $-\pi a \xi$, á- $\pi \lambda$ ós, à- àdóos, Lat. sin-gŭli, simplus, sim-plex, sĕmĕl, sem-p̆̈r, sincinia : cantio solitaria, Paul. Fest. 500. 23 Th., simpludiarea funera: quibus adhibentur duntaxat ludi,.Fest. 498. 24 Th., Goth. simlē,‘ once.' For the Ordinal was used a derivative from the I.-Eur. root per- (cf. Lat. prō̆, prae, \&c.; Gk. $\pi \dot{\epsilon} \rho v \sigma \iota$ for $\pi \epsilon \rho-v \tau \iota$, ' in the previous year,' O. Ind. par-ut, from perrand the root of *wětos, ' a year,' Gk. '̈́ros), in Latin *prīs- (cf. prius) with the suffix -mo-, primus for *prīs-mus (Pelign. Prismā-; cf. Lat. prīs-cus, pris-tinus), in O. Ind. a derivative with one Superlative suffix, pra-thamá-, in Teutonic with another, O. H. G. fur-ist (cf. Germ. Fürst), Engl. first.

The Adverb is in Latin sĕmĕl from the root sem-, just mentioned, a byform of which furnished the Indefinite Pronoun 'any,' 'some,' in various languages (O. Ind. sama-, Gk. à $\mu o^{\prime}$, Goth. sums, Engl. some ; K. Z. xxxii. 373) ; the Adjective, sim-plus (Gk. $\dot{a}-\pi \lambda o ́ s$ ) or sim-plex (from *sem-plax, cf. du-plex §59) ; the Distributive sin-yŭli.
§ 58. Unus. O. Lat. oinos appears on the proud epitaph of L. Cornelius Scipio (C.I. L. i. 32), written in Saturnian metre :

> hónc oíno ploírume coséntiont R[ómai] düönóro óptumo fuíse uíro,
'hunc unum plurimi consentiunt Romae bonorum optimum fuisse virum'; cf. oinuorsei ' universi' on the S. C. de Bacch. (i. 196), and Oinumama 'Unimamma' (an Amazon) on an old Praenestine cista (i. r501), oinā Adv. in the Lex Agraria of 111 b.c. (i. 200. 21) ; oenus in Plaut. Truc. 103, Cic. Legg. iii. 3. 9. But we have unus in the Lex Repetundarum of 123-122 в.c. (i. 198). The Neuter, with the Negative particle nĕ prefixed, was used as the ordinary Negative, noenum (for *ne-oinom), later nōn (ch. iv. § r6), like our 'not' and ' nought,' Germ. nicht and Nichts, from Goth. ni waihts (see ch. x. § 18), while to express 'nothing' the Romans used a compound of ne and hilum (quod grano fabae adhaeret, Paul. Fest. 72. io Th.), nîhīlum, later nĭhill, nīl (ch. iii. § 52). The plural of unus is found with Nouns whose Plural is used in a Singular (Collective) sense, e. g. una castra, and in the sense' of 'only,' 'alone' (cf. Gk. olos), e. g. tres unos passus Plaut. In the Romance languages the Indefinite Article is formed from Lat. unus, as the Definite from Lat. ille; and we see traces of this use in colloquial Latin, e. g. una adulescertula, Ter. Andr. 118.
§59. Two. I.-Eur. *dŭwo- and *dwo- with Dual declension,
*duwō(u) M., *duwai F., *duwoi or *duwei N. (O. Ind. dvāú and dvắ, older duvāú and duvá M., dvế, older duvé F., N., Gk. $\delta v^{\prime} \omega$ and $\delta \dot{v} o$, also $\delta(F) \omega-$, O. Ir. dau and dā M., dī F., W. dau M., dwy F., Goth. tvai M., tvōs F., tva N., Lith. dù M., for *dvü, dvì F. for *dvế, O. Sl. dva and dŭva M., dvě and dŭvě F., N.), Latin duo M., N., duae F., with Dual declension, which however became intermixed with Plural forms, e. g. duös Acc. M. beside duo. In Derivatives and Compounds the I.-Eur. stem dwiappears (O. Ind. dvi-pád-, Gk. $\delta(F)$ i- $\pi o v s$, O. Engl. twi-fēte), Lat. hí-pes, bǐ-dens (O. Lat. dui-dens, Paul. Fest. 47. 8 Th., cf. duicensus : cum altero, id est cum filio, census, id. 47. 5; duicensus ... $\delta \in \dot{v} \tau \in \rho о \nu$ à $\pi о \gamma \epsilon \gamma \rho a \mu \mu \epsilon ́ v o s$ Gl. Philox.), while in the Italic languages we have also dŭ- (Lat. du-plus, du-plex, du-centi, Umbr. du-pursus ' bipedibus'), apparently the weak grade of an I.-Eur. *dwĕ- (Lat. du-lius has the same root; cf. Hom. סoin, doubt, Germ. Zwei-fel, Zend dvai-dī). For the Ordinal the Romans used sěcundus, lit. 'following,' from sĕquor, or alter, ' the other of two,' from the same root as $\check{c}$-ius, ' the other of many' (O. Ir. aile, W. ail, which have also this sense of 'second '; in O. Engl. öper had this numerical sense); for the Adverb I.-Eur. *dwh̆s or *dŭwĭs (O. Ind. dvís, Vedic duvís, Gk. $\delta(F) i s, ~ M . ~ H . ~ G . ~ z w i s, ~ G o t h . ~ t v i s-, ~ ' a p a r t ' ; ~ E n g l . ~ t w i s-t), ~ l i s s ~(O . ~$ Lat. duis, Paul. Fest. 47.6 Th. ; cf. duidens 'hostia bidens,' and duicensus ' cum altero, id est cum filio census' quoted above); for
 (Gk. $\delta i-\pi \lambda \alpha \xi$; cf. Umbr. tu-plak N.) ; for the Distributive $b \bar{\imath}-n i$ from *dwǐz-no- (O. Scand. tvenner) or from *dwī-no- (Lith. dvynù Du., 'twins ').
§60. Duo. The original quantity of the final vowel of duo in Latin is difficult to establish from poetry. We cannot assign much weight to the precept of the grammarians (e. g. Charisius 35.25 K .) which distinguishes $\quad u \overline{0} \mathrm{M}$. from $d u \check{0} \mathrm{~N}$. , nor to the scansion $d u \overline{0}$ in the Christian poets (Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. 277 ; similarly egō for egŏ). In classical poetry the scansion is invariably duŏ (cf. duŏdëni), but in the old Republican poets we find duo Acc. distinguished from duos, not by the quantity of its final syllable, but in being treated as a monosyllable or the equivalent of a long syllable; for example, duo Acc. is never allowed to end an iambic line, which points to *dvō rather than to *dŭ̆ (A.L.L. iii. 55I). The shortening of the final vowel can be easily explained by the Law of Breves Breviantes, which reduced hăvē to hăvĕ (ch. iii. § 42) ; for a similar doubt with reference to the pronunciation of scio as sciŏ or ${ }^{*}$ scjō, see
ch. ii. § 151). The Fem. drue may retain the old suffix of the Nom. Dual of $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stems, -ai (e. g. O. Ind. áśvē for I.-Eur. *ëk̂wai, 'two mares'), which would be retained in monosyllabic *dvai without sinking, as in the unaccented syllable, to - $\bar{\imath}$ (e. g. occido from oc-caido, ch. iii. § 18). The termination -ōbus of duōbus M., N. is shared only by the other Dual-form ambo, though -äbus F. was a common (Dat., Abl. or Instr.) Plural ending of $\bar{A}$-stems, retained in legal language especially in the words deabus, filiabus, libertabus (\$48). But the Plural declension encroached more and more on these Dual forms; düōs Acc. M. competes, as we have seen, in the older literature with duJ, while duas F. is a Plural, as are also the Genitive forms duorum M., N. (older duum, e. g. duumvirum used by Cicero, §47), duarum F. A Nom., Acc. Neuter dua appears on inscriptions (e.g. C.I. L. v. 1102 ; other instances in Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 277), though it is called a barbarism by Quintilian (i. 5. 15 nam 'dua' et 'tre' diversorum generum sunt barbarismi, at 'duapondo' et 'trepondo' usque ad nostram aetatem ab omnibus dictum est, et recte dici Messala confirmat), which seems to have been supplemented by a Nom. Masc. $*_{d u \bar{c}}$ in Vulgar Latin, to judge from the Romance forms (e.g. Ital. due, older dui, O. Fr. dui, doi, \&c.). In Umbrian the word shows Plural declension, tur Nom., tuf Acc., tuva Nom. Acc. Neut. (On the declension of Lat. duo. see Neue, $\mathrm{ii}^{3}$. pp. ${ }_{27}{ }^{7}$ sqq.). Late compounds like diloris, dinummium are hybrid formations with Greek $\delta i$ instead of Latin bir-. The relation of I.-Eur. *dwi- to the Latin preposition dis-, apart, has not been established, nor yet to I.-Eur. *wi- of Dor. Gk. Fi-кatı, Lat. vī-gintī, \&c., perhaps comnected with O. Ind. ví, 'apart.'
§ 61. Three. I.-Eur. *tri-, Nom. Masc. *trĕyĕs (O. Ind. tráyas, Gk. $\tau \rho \epsilon \bar{\iota} \varsigma$, Cret. Gk. $\tau \rho \epsilon \epsilon \epsilon$, O. Ir. trī, W. tri, Goth. preis, Lith. trỹs, O. Sl. trĭje), Lat. trēs M., F., tria N. (cf. Umbr. trif or tref Acc., triia Neut.). The stem trǐ- appears in Gk. $\tau \rho i$ i-тоs, $\tau \rho i-$ $\pi o v s$, Lat. tri-pes, \&c., but a stem trě- in Lat. trĕ-centi, tre-pondo, Lith. trẽ-czias, 'third,' O. Sl. tre-tı̆jı̆, \&c. The Ordinal tĕrtius (Umbr. tertio-) probably shows this stem trě- with metathesis of r ; the Adverb tër, for terr (in Plautus scanned as a long syllable, cf. terr-uncius) from *ter-s, comes from the same stem, or, like O. Ind. trís, Gk. $\tau \rho$ ís, from the stem trǐ- (ch. iii. § 15.8 ); the Adjective is trǐ-plus (Gk. $\tau \rho \iota-\pi \lambda o ́ s)$, tri-plex ; the Distributive trinus (see on binns above), and ter-nus. We find trĭ- and terinterchanged in Compounds like tri-gĕmĭnus and ter-geminus, tri-vĕnëficus and ter-veneficus, tri-vium and ter-vium (C.I.L. ix. 2476), Terventum now Trivento; trĭ- and trĕ- in tri-mödia and tre-modia (Varro, Men. 3 Іо B.).

[^85]> tres quoque Threicios Boreae de gente suprema et tris, quos Idas pater et patria Ismara mittit, per varios sternit casus,
as he uses elsewhere urbes Acc. in a context where the Roman critics found that this form gave greater melody to the line ( $A$. iii. 106) : centum urbes habitant magnas (Gellius l. c. quotes the remarks of Probus on this form : hic item muta ut 'urbis' dicas, nimis exilis vox erit et exsanguis, and his reply to a caviller: noli igitur laborare, utrum istorum debeas dicere 'urbis' an ' urbes.' Nam cum id genus sis, quod video, ut sine jactura tua pecces, nihil perdes, utrum dixeris!). Tris Nom. is found on late inscriptions, e. g. Eph. Epigr. iv. 420 (other examples in A.L. L. vii. 65).
§63. Four. The I.-Eur. stem quetwer- had various grades, $q^{\mathrm{u}}$ etwor-, $\mathrm{q}^{\mathrm{u}}$ etur-, $\mathrm{q}^{\mathrm{u}}$ etru-, \&c. Its Nom. Masc. * $\mathrm{q}^{\mathrm{u}}$ etwō$r e s$ (O. Ind. catvấras, Dor. Gk. $\tau \in ́ \tau o \rho \epsilon s$, Att. $\tau \epsilon ́ \tau \tau a \rho \epsilon s$, Lesb. $\pi \epsilon ́ \sigma v \rho \epsilon s, \mathrm{O}$. Ir. cethir, W. pedwar, Goth. fidvōr, O. Engl. fēower; cf. Lith. keturì, O. Sl. četyre) probably appears in Lat. quattuor (some make this an I.-Eur. Neuter *q etwōr, $\S \S 44,45$ ), apparently for ${ }^{*} q u o t v o r(\breve{e}) s$, with $t$ doubled before the $w$-sound (ch. ii. § I30) and -atv- for -otv- like -av- for -ov- in cŭvus, \&c. (ch. iv. § 19). The Oscan word was petora (so spelt by Festus 250. 33 Th., but probably better *petoro). In Compounds and Derivatives we find a stem quetru- (Zend capru-, Gaul. Petru-corius; cf. Umbr. petur-pursus 'quadripedibus'), which in Latin is quadru- (with $\breve{a}$ for $\breve{e}$ by analogy of quattuor, quartus?), where the $d$ is puzzling, for -dr- seems to become -tr- in Latin, e.g. àtro- for * $\bar{d} d r o-$, nütrix for *nūdrix (ch. iv. § I 1 3), so that -tr- should not change to -dr-[Wharton, Etym. Lat. p. 83 suggests that quadra, a square, means literally 'pointed' and comes, not from quattuor, but from a root $q^{\text {n }}$ ad-, ' to point, sharpen,' Engl. whet, the usual change of -dr- to -tr- being seen in tri-quetrus, triangular. Quadra, which retained $d$ (by analogy of other words from the same root?), may have been the cause of ${ }^{*} q^{\text {² }}$ etru- taking the form quadru-; cf. K. Z. xxxii. 565]. The Ordinal quärtus with its long $a$ (indicated by an apex over the letter on inscriptions; see Christiansen, de Apicibus, p. 52) has not yet been satisfactorily explained. On an inscription of Praeneste we have Quorta (cf. ch. ii. §4); the Oscan word truto- is interpreted variously as 'quartus' for *ptru-to-, and as ' certus.' The Adverb quătĕr stands for *qetrŭ-s (Zend capruš; cf. O. Ind. catúr), as ager for *agrŏs, äcer-for *āerı̆s (ch. iii. § 16); the

Adjectives quadrŭ－plus，quadrŭu－plex show the curious change of －tr－to－dr－，remarked on above，from which quater is free；the Distributive quăternus for＊quatrǐ－nus（like săcerdōs for＊sacrŭdōs， ch．iii．§ 16）from＊${ }^{\text {T }}$ etrŭ－no－（ch．iii．§ 18），or from the Adverb quater with the suffix－no（see above on bīnus，§ 59）．
§ 64．Quattuor with double $t$ is the spelling of the best MSS．and in－ scriptions，such as the Monumentum Ancyranum（see Georges，Lex．Worlf．s．v．）． The form quattor，found on late inscriptions（e．g．C．I．L．viii． 5843 ；other examples in A．L．L．vii．65）has been already explained from＊quatt（v）órdecim， where the $w$－sound would be dropped before the accent，as in $\operatorname{Jan}(v)$ árius，Feb－ $r(v)$ arius，\＆c．（ch．ii．§ 54 ．Vulg．Lat．＊quattor－decim is indicated by the Romance words for＇fourteen，＇e．g．Ital．quattordici，Fr．quatorze，but Vulg．Lat．＊quat－ tro by the words for＇four，＇e．g．Ital．quattro，Fr．quatre（Sic．battor，how－ ever，from quattor）．This Late and Vulg．Latin quattor can hardly be assigned to early Latin authors ；so retain quattior in Plaut．Most． 630 and scan quattuírr， like enicuss，Rud． 944 as a dactyl at the beginning of an iambic line ；in Enn．A． 90 M．quattuŏr like virginěs A．ro2 ；in Enn．A． 609 read ferĕ quattuŏr partum（？）． Petreius，Petrönius are dialectal Proper Names derived from this numeral，as Pompeius，Pontius（Lat．Quintius）from the numeral＇five．＇
§ 65．Five．I．－Eur．＊pĕnq⿰口欠（O．Ind．pán̂ca，Arm．hing，Gk． $\pi \epsilon ́ v \tau \epsilon, \pi \epsilon \mu \pi-\omega \dot{\beta} \beta \lambda o v$ ，Lith．penkì）shows in Teutonic assimilation of the second syllable to the first，＊pempe（Goth．fimf），in Lat． and Celtic of the first to the second ${ }^{*} q^{\underline{u}}{ }^{\mathrm{en}}{ }^{\underline{u}}{ }^{\mathrm{u}} \mathrm{e}$（Gaul．$\pi \epsilon \mu \pi \epsilon-\delta o v \lambda a$ ， quinquefoil，O．W．pimp ；in O．Ir．with o for e in the first syllable， cōic ；cf．Umbro－Oscan pump－，Pompeius），Lat．quinque with $e$ changed to $i$ before a nasal and guttural（like tingo for＊tengo， ch．iv．§ I1），and the $i$ lengthened（by analogy of quīntus？）．The Ordinal quīntus，older quīnctus，follows the rules of Latin phonetics that $q u$ becomes $c$ before a consonant（ch．iv．§ 137），and that in this group of three consonants the middle one is dropped（ch．iv． § 157）．On the lengthening of the $i$ ，see ch．ii．§ 144．The original form was＊q ${ }^{\text {ü }}$ enc－to－in Italic for I．－Eur．＊penq ${ }^{\text {un }}$－to（or＊pnq ${ }^{\text {un }}$－to－？${ }^{\text {？}}$ （Gk．$\pi \epsilon \in \mu \pi \tau o s, L i t h . p e n ̃ k t a s, ~ O . S l . p e t t u ̆ ; ~ O s c . ~ P u ́ n t i i s, ~ a l s o ~ П o \mu \pi \tau \tau \epsilon s ~$ with $-m p$－from the Cardinal form）．The Adverb is quinquies， older quinquiens，on which see § 56，the Adjective quinqǔ̆－plex［or with－cu－for－quu－（ch．iv．§ 137）quincŭ－plex］，rarely quincuplus or quinquiplus；the Distributive quīnus for＊quinc－nus（ch．iv．§ 157）．

[^86]§ 67. Six. Lat. sex points to I.-Eur. *sěk̂ks or *ksěkes (M.S. L.
 sē and $*_{\text {fē, }} \mathrm{W}$. chwech). The Ordinal sextus has -st- in UmbroOscan, e.g. Umbr. sestentasiaru; Sestius is a dialectal byform of Sextius. The Adverb is sexiēs, older sexiens (see § $5^{6}$ ); the Distributive sĕnus for *sĕx-nus (as lūna for lūx-na, ch. iv. § 162 ).
§ 68. Seven. I.-Eur. *sěptṇ́ (O. Ind. saptá, Arm. evt'n, Gk. é $\pi \tau \dot{\prime}$, O. Ir. secht, W. saith, Goth. sibun ; cf. Lith. septyn-ì), Lat. septem, with Ordinal *septmo- (O. Ind. saptamá-, Gk. $\epsilon \beta \delta o \mu o s$, Pruss. septmas and sepmas), Lat. septituus, older septumus. The Distributive septēnus stands for *septen-no- (ch.ii.§ I 30 ).

In later Latin we find $t t$ for $p t$, e. g. Settembris (C.I.L. xi. 288 5, Setebres 4075) ; cf. Ital. sette, Settembre. In Compounds we find the stem septem-, e.g. septempĕlālis Plaut., septemplex Virg., septemgĕminus Catull., but Septi-montium, and on the restored Columna Rostrata septe-resmos (C.I.L. i. 195) ; septuennis Plaut., \&c. (cf. septuā-gintū, below), for $*_{\text {septum-ennis, }}$ shows the usual weakening of unaccented $\breve{e}$ before $m$ to $u$, and the same loss between vowels of final $m$ of the first member of a compound as is seen in circu(m)ire, \&c. (ch. iii. §§ 18 and 52 ).
§ 69. Eight. The O.-Ind. Dual form *ŏktố(u), cleverly explained by Fick as 'the two sets of pointed' (i.e. the fingers, without the thumbs, of both hands), from the root âk-, ok-, 'to be sharp, pointed ' (O. Ind. aṣ̣tá and aṣtāú, Arm. ut', Gk. óкт由, O. Ir. ocht, W. wyth, Goth. ahtau, Lith. astů-n-ì) is in Latin octō, with Ordinal octavus (cf. Osc. Úhtavis 'Octavius') for *octövus (ch. iv. § 16), and Distributive octō-nus. In later Latin ct became tt, Ottobres C.I.L. xi. 2537 (cf. Ital. otto, Ottobre), and the final $-\bar{o}$ is shortened, like every final $-\bar{o}$ in the poetry of the Empire, e. g. octŏ Mart. vii. 53. 1o. In Compounds it is treated as an O-stem, e.g. octü-plus, octư-plex, octŭ-pes, oct-ennis.

[^87]normal en. The proper Nasal appears in the Ordinal nönus, older noino- (if the Dvenos inscription is rightly read dienoine, on the ninth day), from *nŏrĕno-, where the $\bar{o}$ is difficult to explain, though it seems to have a parallel in nön for noen(um). Failing this explanation, we may suppose that $*_{\text {nouno- or }}$ *nownno- was the I.-Eur. form, with the O-grade of the root, and understand Lat. $\bar{o}$ as an expression of I.-Eur. ou as in rōbus, \&c. (ch. iv. §41). (On nōndinum and noundinum, old spellings of nūndŭnum, for ${ }^{*} n o(v)$ éndinum, from novem and the root dĭn-, seen in O. Sl. dĭnĭ, 'a day,' see ch. iṿ. § 44.) Umbr. nuvimoshows the form rather to be expected in Latin, *nŏvĭmo(O. Ind. navamá-), but in Pelign. we have Novnis 'Nonius.' The Adverb is noriès (Umbr. nuvīs) ; the Distributive novēnus from *noven-no- (ch. ii. § 130).
§ 71. Ten. I.-Eur. *dếkin (O. Ind. dáśa, Arm. tasn, Gk. סéкка, O. Ir. deich, W. deg, Goth. taihun ; cf. Lith. dẽszim-t, O. Sl. desę-tĭ), Lat. lĕcem, with Ordinal dĕčimus (O. Ind. daśsamá-) (cf. the proper name Decius), Adverb deciès, and Distributive dènus for which we should expect *lecènus like septēnus (cf. § 74).
§ 72. Eleven to Nineteen. These Numerals were denoted in I.-Eur. by Compounds, expressive of the addition of the smaller unit to ten. These Compounds consist of the two Numerals themselves (not their stems) placed together, the smaller unit preceding the ten, e.g. I.-Eur. *trĕyěs-dĕk̂kn, 'thirteen ' (O. Ind. tráyō-daśa). The Latin Compounds (in which the final -em of decem sinks to -im, ch. iii. § 18) are, un-decim for ${ }_{\bar{u} n}(i)$-decim (on Vulg. Lat. *ŭndecim, see ch. ii. § 147), duodecint, trē-decim for $*_{r}$ eès-decim (like nūdus for $*_{n i s-d u s, ~ c h . ~ i v . ~}^{\text {. }}$ § 151), quattuor-decim, quin-decim for *quin(que)-decim (ch.iii.§ 13), së-lecim (the correct spelling) for sex-decim (like lüna for *lūx-na, ch.iv. § 162), septem-decim. Octō-decim and novem-decim were replaced by duo-dè-viginti, un-dē-viginti for ${ }^{*} u n(i)-d e-v i g i n t i$, or by octo et decem, decem novem, a mode of expression which is found in the other numerals too, e. g. decem duo (Umbr. desen-duf Acc.), and which is used in Greek exclusively for the numbers above

twelve, $\delta \omega^{\prime}-\delta \epsilon \kappa a$ or $\delta$ ঠ́́ка $\delta$ óo. In I.-Eur. it was used for numbers above twenty, and so in Lat. quattuor et viginti or viginti quattuor, \&c. The Ordinals are undecimus, duodecimus (O. Ind. dvādaśama-), \&c.; the Adverbs undecies, duodecies, the Distributives undènus, luŏdènus, and so on.
§ 73. O. Lat. duovicesimus for class. cluo et cīcēsìmus, twenty-second, is attested by an interesting chapter of the Noctes Atticae (v. 4), which illustrates the pains taken in the Imperial period to secure correct texts of early authors. Gellius there tells us of a MS. of the Annals of Fabius: bonae atque sincerae vetustatis libri, quos venditor sine mendis esse contendebat. A grammaticus who was asked to inspect the MS., on the absolute correctness of which the bookseller was willing to stake any amount of money (grammaticus quispiam de nobilioribus, ab emptore ad spectandos libros adhibitus, repperisse se unum in libro mendum dicebat; sed contra librarius in quodvis pignus vocabat, si in una uspiam littera delictum esset), declared that duovicesimo anno in Book iv. was a mistake of the copyist for duo et vicesimo anno, but was finally forced to admit, on being referred to other passages of ancient authors, that duovicesimus was a genuine Old Latin form.
§ 74. Twenty to Ninety. These Numerals are denoted in I.-Eur. by Neuter Compounds, 'two decades,' 'three decades,' \&c., the word for ' decade' being *dekn-t-, changed in Composition into *(d)k̂mt- [or *(d)̂̂komt-?; cf. Greek -коขт- in 30-90, $\tau \rho \iota \bar{a}-\kappa о \nu \tau а$, $\tau \epsilon \sigma \sigma а \rho a ̆ ́-к о \nu \tau а$, or $\tau \epsilon \tau \rho \omega \dot{-}-\kappa о \nu \tau a$, \&c., which suggests that this is the plural stem, the other the dual]. In Lat. $v \bar{i}-g \breve{y} u t \bar{\imath}$ $v \bar{i}$ - is probably Neut. Dual Nom. of I.-Eur. *wi-; the -gı̆nti, with $\breve{\imath}$ for $\breve{e}$ owing to the popular accentuation $*$ vigenti, *trigenta, *quadrágenta, \&c., which takes its $g$ apparently through influence of the d of I.-Eur. *(d)k̂mt- (but vicesimus; so Alb. -zet, ' a gross,' points to $\hat{\mathrm{g}}$ not $\hat{\mathrm{k}}$ ), is also Neut. Dual Nom. In trī-gintā the tri- is Neut. Plur. Nom. of the I.-Eur. stem *tri-, the -gintā shows the original quantity of the Neut. Plur. suffix, which has by the time of the earliest literature been shortened in Nouns, \&c. to - $\breve{a}$ (ch. iii. § 43). In quadrā-gintā the quadrä- (on the form of the stem, see § 63) may correspond to Gk. $\tau \in \tau \rho \omega$ - of $\tau \epsilon \tau \rho \omega$-коута (see ch. iv. § 92), or may have the Neut. Plur. ending $-\bar{u}$, an ending assumed by quinque, sex, septem, novem in a somewhat haphazard way in the Compounds quinquā̈-ginta, sexā-ginta, septuä-ginta (for *septu(m)äginta; see above on septuennis, § 68), nonä-ginta, while octō in octōginta retains its ordinary form. The Ordinals are formed with the suffix -tmo- or - $\mathrm{t}^{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{mo}$ - (ch. v. § 14),
e. g. vīcēsimus, older vicensumus (this spelling is more frequent than vigesimus) for *vi-cent-tumus, trīcēsimus and trigesimus, older -ensumus for *tri-cent-tumus (O. Ind. tri-šat-tamá-); the Adverbs are vīciès, older -ens, tricieies, older -ens (sometimes trīgies), like decies, older -ens (§56); the Distributives vīcēnus (with byform vìgēnus), triēēnus (with byform trïgënus), \&c., not like the abnormal dènus, but like * (lecēnus (§71).


#### Abstract

§75. Viginti, \&c. Viginti is spelt reiginti (C.I. L. i. r194; x. 6009), but the ei may merely indicate $\bar{\imath}$, for the inscriptions are not of great antiquity (ch. i. § 9). The late spelling vigenti (C. I. L. v. r645, \&.c.) points to viginti (cf. quinquagenta xii. 482, and other examples of -genta quoted in A. L. L. vii. 69-70). In Late and Vulgar Latin the $g$ was dropped (clı. ii. § 94), whence the form vinti ; e.g. Wilm. 569: et menses septem dîebus cum vinti duobus; cf. Sard. vinti, Ital. venti, \&c. The same thing happened to triginta, producing the form trienta (C.I.L. xii. 5399, \&c.), and in Romance, Sard. trinta, Ital. trenta, \&c.; also to quadraginta (a hexameter line on a late epitaph ends, quadragintă per annos, vi. 28047), which had become quar(r)aginta (Fabretti, iv. 134), whence Ital. quaranta, Fr. quarante. On the accentuation of these three numerals, see ch. iii. §ir. 4. Septuagintă is the scansion required in metrical epitaphs (C. I.L. vi. 22251. 29426). Its analogy produced in Mediaeval Latin the form octuaginta, which found its way into some early editions of Latin authors (Skutsch, Forsch. i. 24). Octaginta occurs sometimes in the Edict of Diocletian (C. I. L. iii. pp. 81o, 8ir) and elsewhere (see A. L. L. vii. 70). (For other examples of the scansion -gintă in late poetry, see Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 290.)


§ 76. The Hundreds. The I.-Eur. expression for 100 was apparently 'a decade of deeades' (like the Compound later evolved in Gothic, taihuntē-hund (?)), viz. *(d)k̂mtớm, probably an old Gen. Plur. of the stem *dekmp (§ 46), treated as a Nom., like sestertium, - $i$ Gen. for mille sestertium, 'a thousand of sesterces,' in Latin. This explains why the full form, and not the mere stem, is used in Compounds in Greek and Latin (e.g. єккато́ $\mu-\beta \eta$, є̇като́о-रєьроз, centum-plex, centum-gĕmĭnus, centumpondium); though some prefer to regard *(d)ḳ̣tŏ́m as Nom. Sg. of a Neut. O-stem, ‘a decade,' just as O. Ind. dašati- means, (I) a decade, (2) a hundred, i.e. 'a decade (of decades'). The d of *(d)kntóm shows its influence in Latin in the presence of $g$, instead of, or along with $c$, in the expressions for the various hundreds. In O. Lat. we find Neuter Compounds, dŭcentum (with dŭ- the weak stem of I.-Eur. dwě-, a byform of dwǐ-, §59), trĕ̈-centum (with I.-Eur. trĕ-, a byform of trǐ-, § 61),
nongentum, \&c., used with the Genitive of the thing specified, e. g. argenti sescentum, Lucil. xxx. 22 M.; but these Neuter Compounds, when referring not to a mass, but to a number of individual things, became in course of time declined as Adjectives, dŭ-centi -ae a, trĕ-centi -ae -a, e. g. trecentae causae Plaut. (cf. nongèntus, Plin. xxxiii. 2. 31). (So in Greek YO-stem Adjectives were formed, in Att. -ко́бьoı(with - $\sigma \iota-$ for -ть-), in Dor. -ка́тıо..) They formed their Numeral Adverbs, Adjectives, and Distributives by analogy of the tens, e. g. trĕcent-ies (like trïcies), trĕcentèsimus (like trīcesimus), trěcent-ēni (like trīceni). The forms quingenti (for *quinc-genti, ch. iv. § 157), septin-genti (for *septem-genti, *septen-genti like tingo for *tengo, ch. iv. § I I), apparently influenced quadrin-genti (for earlier quadrǐ-genti), octin-genti, and even noningenti (beside the usual non-genti). Ses-centi for $*_{s e(c) s-c e n t i}$ obeys the same phonetic law as disco for $*_{d i}(c)$-sco (cf. di-dic-i ; see ch. iv. § I57.3).
§77. Centum, \&c. The stem *centŏ- (-ĕ) appears in centĭ-ceps Hor., centīmănus Hor., centï-pĕda (and centum-peda) Plin., \&c., but centom-in centumpondium Plaut., Cato, centumplex Plaut. Pers. 560, centum-gӗmĭnus Virg., \&c., so that the latter is the older formation. For examples of ducentum, \&c., with Gen., from the older writers and in legal phraseology, see Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 298. The usage is confined to phrases like ducentum auri, argenti, vini, \&c.; Plautus has ducenti $-a e-a, \& c .$, as in classical Latin. A transitional construction is seen in C.I. L. iv. 1136 nongentum tabernae, nine hundred shops. As to the form of the several numerals; duocenti is found in the late Latin of the Itala; quadrigenti is the Plautine form, though the MSS. have usually (not, however, universally in Bacch. 1183 ) changed it to quadringenti ; for the second syllable is always short, and the Breves Breviantes Law is inoperative when a Mute and Liquid follow the short vowel, so that -dri- not -drin- must have been the second syllable of the word used in Plautus' day ; quadrigenti, quadrigenus, \&c. are probably also the classical forms (Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 297), but on Mon. Ancyr. iii. 8 quadringenos; of quingentum Festus tells us that the pronunciation before his time was quincentenn (Fest. 338. ı9 Th. 'quincentum' et producta prima syllaba, et per c litteram usurpant antiqui, quod postea levius visum est, ita ut nunc dicimus, pronuntiari) ; sescenti is the correct spelling, not sexcenti (see Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 297); septigenti for septingenti occurs on the Edict of Diocletian ; noningenti is a late and rare form (see Neue, l. c.); Caper censures the form noncenti (io4. r K. nongentos non 'noncentos' dicendum est), and it seems to be the rule that after $n$ the voiced ( $g$ ), and not the unvoiced (c) guttural is used in these words.
§ 78. The Thousands. The Latin mille, in O. Lat. a declinable Neuter Noun taking a Genitive of the things specified, e.g. mille hominum occiditur, milli (Abl.) passum vicerit, is probably
unconnected with the Gk. $\chi^{i ́ \lambda \iota o \iota, ~ L e s b . ~} \chi^{\epsilon} \lambda \lambda \iota o \iota$, from *ghhĕslioAdj., and the O. Ind. sa-hásram from ${ }^{*}$ sm-g.ghěslom, a Neuter Noun-compound, of which the first part is the root sem-, ' one,' literally ' one thousand,' as Gk. є-катóv for * $_{\alpha}$-катóv (?), ' one hundred,' ' one (decade) of decades (?).' [Some suppose that it represents an original *sm-hesli, 'one thousand,' and that this became *melle, *mēle, as *quaslus (cf. quăsillus) became quälus (older quallus, ch. iv. §162); the Plural *mélia becoming millia as *Plënius became Plīnius (ch. iv. §7). O. Ir. mïle would then be a loanword from Latin, for I.-Eur. sm-. would remain in Irish.] It is cognate with the Celtic word for 'thousand ' (O. Ir. mīle, W. mil), just as the Teutonic and Slavonic numerals are cognate, Goth. pūsundi F., Lith. túkstantis, O. Sl. tysęšta or tysąšta F.

For the thousands, the units duo, tria,\&c. are prefixed in Latin as separate words, duo milia (on the spelling milia beside mille, see ch. ii. § 127), tria milia, \&c. The Ordinals and Adverbs are formed like those of the hundreds, mill-èsimus, miliés, \&c., like cent-èsimus, cent-iès.


#### Abstract

§ 79. Mille. Gellius (i. 16) quotes a number of passages to show that Cicero, as well as the older writers of the Republic, used mille as a Neuter Singular Noun, e. g. Cic. Mil. 53 mille hominum versabatur. So mille passuum (earlier passum), a mile. [Other examples are given by Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 303, to which add Plaut. Bacch. 928 millì (MSS. mille) cum numero náuium]. In the spelling meilia (probably for meillia, for double consonants are written single on this inscription, e. g. redidei, tabelarios) of C.I.L. i. 551 (Lucania, 132 в.c.), the $e i$ may indicate merely the long $i$-sound. Lucilius (ix. 2I M.) seems also to recommend ei in both singular and plural (cf. ch. i. § 9) (so meille in the Ambrosian Palimpsest, Plaut. Stich. 587).


§ 80. The Numerals in Romance. The Cardinals are mostly retained, though dŭcenti, \&c. have become Fr. deux cents, Span, doscientos, \&c. But only Italian keeps the Ordinals unchanged, primo, secondo, terzo, quarto, \&c. French has premier for primus, and for the others uses the suffix -ieme. Spanish has primero (like French) for primus, tercero (with the same suffix) for tertius, and uses for nōnus noveno (the Lat. Distributive növënus), and similarly for děčัmus deceno. (For a fuller account see Meyer-Lübke, Rom. Gram. ii. pp. 590 sqq .)

## CHAPTER VII.

## THE PRONOUNS.

§ 1. I. THE PERSONAL PRONOUNS AND THE REFLEXIVE. 1. Sing. Latin $\check{e g} g \breve{0}$, O. Lat. $\breve{e} g \bar{o}$ represents I.-Eur. *ĕgō (Gk. є́ $\gamma \omega$ ( ), of which byforms were *egŏ (Goth. ik, Lith. esz and àsz), *eĝōm (Gk. ধ่ $\gamma \omega \dot{v}$ ), *egŏm (O. Sl. azŭ ; cf. O. Ind. ahám with Aspirate instead of Media). It is strengthened by the addition of the particle -mĕt, e. g. egomet, mihimet, and in certain of its cases by the particle -ptĕ ( $\S 20$ ), e. g. mihipte, while in the Accusative we find the Pronoun doubled for emphasis, mémé. For the Genitive, mei is used, apparently the Gen. Sg. Neut. of the Possessive, ' of mine,' but in O. Lat. we have mŭs (with the Gen. ĕssuffix ?) ; for the Dative mŭhŭ (mī) for *mehei or * mehoi, with the I.-Eur. Locative ending (Umbr. melıe ; cf. O. Ind. máhy-am) and with $m \check{\imath}$ - instead of $m \breve{e}$ - because of the Pronoun's want of accent (ch. iii. § 18 ) ; for the Accusative O. Lat. merl, by the time of Terence always $m \bar{e}$, owing to the Latin phonetic law that final $d$ was lost after a long vowel (ch. ii. § 137 ) ; this $d$ is either the Ablative $d$, with a strange confusion between Acc. and Abl. functions (so in Engl. 'him' Dat. has become Acc.), or the I.Eur. particle -id, often used in the Veda to strengthen Pronouns,
 *gĕ is used to distinguish the Acc. in Teutonic (Goth. mi-k, Germ. mich ; cf. Gk. $\epsilon^{\epsilon} \mu \epsilon \in-\gamma \epsilon$ ); for the Ablative, O. Lat. mēd from I.-Eur. *mēd (cf. O. Ind. mád from I.-Eur. *měd), which with $m e \bar{e} d$ Acc., became $m \bar{e}$ in the second cent. b. c.; the Locative [I.-Eur. $*_{\text {mei }}$ or ${ }^{*}$ moi, O. Ind. (Vedic) mé Loc., used also as Gen. and Dat., Gk. noí Dat.] and Instrumental (perhaps I.-Eur. $*_{\text {me }}$ or $*_{\mathrm{mo}}$ ) cannot be identified in Latin. On the affix -ghof mihi, see ch. x. § I.
§ 2. Egŏ is the invariable scansion of classical poetry, and the almost invariable scansion of Plautus and the early Dramatists; eg $\overline{0}$ is found occasionally in late poetry (Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 346), where it may possibly be influenced by Gk. $\bar{\epsilon} \gamma \dot{\omega}$, and in Plautus (e. g. Poen. 1185), \&c., where it must be a relic of the older quantity (Klotz, Altröm. Metrik, p. 51 ; Müller, Plaut. Pros. p. 30), not yet shortened by the Breves Breviantes Law (ch. iii. §42). The preponderance of the shortened form is due to the enclitic character of the word (even egŏmet), for Lat. egŏ cannot represent I.-Eur. *egŏ, if final ŏ became ĕ in Latin (ch. iii. § 37). Mihipte is quoted from Cato by Fest. 144. II Th. ; Paul. Fest. 145. 5 ; mepte occurs in Plaut. Men. ro59:
quin certíssumumst
mépte potius fíeri seruom, quám te umquam emittám manu.
For examples of meme (a somewhat douktful form), see Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 355. Mis Gen. is quoted by Priscian from Ennius (A. 145 M.) :
ingens cura mïs cum concordibus aequiperare,
and probably occurs in Plaut. in Poen. 1188, beginning: rebús mǐs agúndis (anapaestic), and in other passages, though the MSS. have usually changed it to the more familiar mei. It is often mentioned as an 0 . Lat. form by the grammarians (see the references in Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 347), and may represent an original *mës, as Salutis is in O. Lat. Salutes (ch. vi. § 17). For the Dative, we have on old inscriptions mihei (C. I. L. i. ror6. 1277), and with $e$ to express the ei-diphthong (cf. ch. iv. § $\mathbf{3}^{2}$ ) mihe (i. 1049). A still older form mehe (cf. mehi Plaut. Men. 925 (P.)) seems to be mentioned by Quintilian (i. 5. 21 nam ' mehe' pro mi apud antiquos tragoediarum praecipue scriptores in veteribus libris invenimus), though, if we retain the MSS. reading ' pro me,' we must suppose mehe to be a mere graphic expression of me, as in Umbrian a long vowel is indicated by repeating it and inserting h, e.g. comohota 'commōta' (whether this was a Latin practice is doubtful, see ch. ii. $\S 56$ ). The final vowel of mihi, \&c. had quite become a short vowel in Quintilian's time, and is described by him in the phrase commonly applied to $\grave{\imath}$, as 'a sound between $e$ and $i$ ' (see ch. ii. § 16) ; and even in Plautus and the early Dramatists mihi is the usual scansion (Leppermann, De correptione, p. 9). Mihi is often contracted to $m \bar{n}$, as $n i h i l$ to $m \bar{l}$ (ch. ii. $\S 58$ ), so that we have side by side in Plautus divergent treatments of this Dative, such as (I) dissyllabic miȟ̆, e. g. Truc. 77 Nam mihĭ haec méretrix, \&c., (2) the same with elision, e.g. Stich. 427 mih(i) expedi, (3) monosyllabic mi, e. g. (elided) Truc. 173 Sunt m(i) étiam. (For instances of $m i$, see Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. 349, and on Nigidius' distinction of Gen. and Dat., Gell. xiii. 26.)
The remark of Festus ( $\mathbf{r} 56.6 \mathrm{Th}$ ) ' me' pro mihi dicebant antiqui, illustrated by a quotation from Lucilius (inc. 98 M .) : quae res me impendet, means, of course, merely that in 0 . Lat. another case was used (in this example, the Accusative ; cf. Lucr. i. 326 mare quae impendent saxa), where the classical construction had the Dative ; and similarly vae te Plaut. Asin. 48i (cf. vae me Seneca, Apoc.4) is probably nothing but an unusual employment of the Accusative. The Vocative of the Possessive Pronoun mī, e. g. mi fili, mi vir, has been regarded as a Locative-Dative by some and compared with Homer's $\mu \eta \tau \in ́ \rho \iota \mu o \iota$, the Tragedians' $\hat{\omega}$ रóvaı $\mu o \iota$, Vedic mé gíras, 'my hymns.' But it is more likely to be a byform of *mie (with unaccented $e$ sunk to $i$, ch. iii. § 18),
as fili may be of filie (but see ch. vi. § 3r), for it is always joined with a Voc., and is used in good writers only with a masculine noun (with a Fem. after Apuleius, Neue, $\mathrm{ii}^{3}$. p. ${ }^{688}$ ) ; and this is the explanation given by the native grammarians [see below, § 12 ; there is no $\left.{ }^{*} t \bar{\imath}(G k . ~ \tau o l, ~ \sigma o ו) ~ n o r ~ * s i ̄ ~(G k . ~ o i)\right] . ~$. The Accusative med is found on the very earliest Latin inscriptions which we possess, the Praenestine fibula (C. I. L. xiv. 4123 ), with Manios med fefaked Numasioi, and the Dvenos inscription (Zvet. I.I.I. 285, Rome), with Dvenos med feked (or feceed); and in Plautus mēed and me are doublets, in the Acc. as in the Abl., $m \bar{e}$ often being shortened by prosodical hiatus to $m \breve{e}$ before an initial vowel, while in Terence $m \bar{e}$, \&c. Acc., Abl. has ousted $m \bar{e} d$, \&c. Whether Plautine $m \overline{\bar{c}}$ Abl. is ever an Instrumental form, and has not lost a final $-d$, it is impossible to say ; but there is no indication of its being anything but a phonetic variation of an original mē̃l (cf. ch. ii. § 137). On mĕ-quidem Plaut., see ch. iii. §5r.
§ 3. 2 Sing. Lat. $t \bar{u}$ is from I.-Eur. *tū (Hom. Gk. $\tau \hat{v}-\nu \eta$, O. Ir. tū, O. H. G. dū, O. Sl. ty), as Dor. Gk. тú from I.-Eur. *tŭ. In the oblique cases the I.-Eur. stem was *twĕ (or *twŏ) and *tĕ (or *tŏ), \&c. [e. g. Gk. $\sigma \epsilon$ for Cret. $\tau$ F'́, O. Ind. (Ved.) tvá Instr., tvế Loc., tē Dat., Gen.], often enlarged by an affix -bh-, like the -ghl- of the i Sing. Pron. (e.g. O. Ind. tú-bhyam Dat.). For the Genitive in Latin the Gen. Sg. Neut. of the Possessive is used, tuì, ' of thine' (see above, on $m e \bar{\imath}$ ), and a Gen. tis (? tus) appears in O. Lat.; for the Dative, tilū), older tibei, for *tebhei (Umbr. tefe ; cf. Pruss. tebbei), with $t \breve{\imath}$ - for $t e$ - owing to its unaccented character; for the Acc., as for the Abl., O. Lat. teell ; in the earliest literature tèll and te appear as 'doublets' (like mèll and $m \bar{e}, \S 2$ ), but by the middle of the second cent. в. c. $t \bar{e} d$ is out of use ; the Locative and Instrumental cannot be identified in Latin. A strengthened form of the Nom. is $t \bar{u}-t \bar{e}$, of the Acc. and Abl. $t \bar{e}-t \bar{e}$; and with addition of the particle -mĕt we find $t \bar{u}-t \stackrel{t}{u}-m e t$. (cf. ch. iii. § 39), tili-met, tè-met.
§4. Tis (like mis, § 2) is attested for O. Lat. by the grammarians (see Nene, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 347), and occurs in Plaut. Mil. ro33 (an anapaestic line):
quia tís egeat, quia té careat: ob eám rem huc ad te míssast,
where, if we keep the reading of the MSS. (the evidence of the Palimpsest is wanting), we must scan tīs, unlike mǐs. (Shall we read quia tǐs ea egeat?); Trin. 343 né tis alios misereat (so in the Palimpsest, but the other MSS. have changed the unfamiliar form to tui), and possibly elsewhere (see Neue, l. c. and add Plaut. Cist. 457) The Dative is spelt tibci, C. I. L. i. 542. 1453, but tibe in all the MSS. of Varro R.R. iii. 7. II, and in C. I. L. i. 33 (one of the Scipio epitaphs in Saturnian metre, c. 180 в.c.). The Acc. is spelt te (probably with elision) on the same epitaph :
$T u$-met is not allowed by Priscian (i. p. 59r. 5 H. . An example of tute is the famous alliterative line of Ennius (A. 108 M.) :

> O Tite tute Tati tibi tanta tyranne tulisti.
(For other examples of tute, tutimet, tibimet, \&c., see Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. pp. ${ }^{661}$ sqq.; on tŭquidem, těquidem, see above, ch. iii. § 5 I.)

The Umbro-Oscan forms for the Accusative (and Nom.?) point to an original tīom (from *twīom as. fio from *fwīo ; or with ī for I.-Eur. ū ?), Umbr. tiom and tio, Osc. tiium (usually taken as Nom.).
§ 5. Reflexive. The I.-Eur. stem was *swĕ (or *swŏ) and *sě (or *sŏ), \&c. (e. g. O. Ind. svá-, 'own,' Goth. svēs, O. Sl. svojı̌; Goth. si-k Acc., O. Sl. sebě Dat.), often with the same affix as ${ }_{2} \mathrm{Sg} .{ }^{\text {*twě, }}$ *tě (see above), viz. -bh-. The Latin Gen. is sū̃, the Gen. Sg. Neut. of the Possessive (like mei, tui; see above), the Dat. sibй for ${ }^{*}$ sebhei (Pelign. sefei, Osc. sífeí ; cf. Pruss. sebbei), with $s \breve{\imath}$ - for $s \breve{e}$ - owing to the unaccented use of the Reflexive; the Acc. and Abl. sé (O. Lat. sēcl, which went out of use with med, ted, § 2), often doubled for emphasis, sēsé. The particle -met is added for the same purpose to se, sibi, viz. semet, sibimet. Se-pse is read in Cic. Rep. iii. 8. 12 : quae omnis magis quam sepse diligit.
§ 6. The spelling sibei is found on C. I. L. i. 38 (an Elegiac Scipio epitaph, с. гзо в. с.) ut sibeĭ me esse creatum Laetentur ; i. 196 (the S. C. Bacch. of 186 в. с.) ; i. 198 (the Lex Repetundarum of 123-122 в. c.) ; i. 200 (the Lex Agraria of iri в. c.) ; i. 205 (the Lex Rubria of 49 в. c.), \&c.; the spelling sibe was found (with quase) by Quint. (i. 7. 24) in several MSS. (sed an hoc voluerint auctores nescio), and was affected by Livy (T. Livium ita his usum ex Pediano comperi, qui et ipse eum sequebatur). Livy's spelling was probably designed to express short unaccented $i$, the sound which the grammarians describe as being 'between an $e$ and an $i$ ' (see ch. ii. § 16). Sibŭ (like mihľ, tibŭ) is the usual scansion in Plautus and the early Dramatists, but sib̄ is by no means rare, and is normal in the phrase suus sib̄̄, 'his very own' (so meus mih̄̄), e. g. suo sibi gladio hunc jugulo ; cf. O. Sl. pisachą svoja si rě̌í, 'scribebant suam sibi linguam '). There is no Genitive form in O. Lat., *sis, corresponding to mis, tis (Priscian ii. p. 2. 29 H.). Sed, Acc., occurs on the S. C. Bacch., of 186 в. с. (C. I. L. і. 196 inter sed), and on the Lex Bantina of iз3-ı 18 в. с. (i. 197 apud sed: along with sese, seese); sesed on the inscr. of the Faliscan cooks (Zvet. I. I. I. 72 a). Sese is much more frequent than mēmē and têtē. (For examples of its use, see Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 355.)
The Oscan Acc. is siom (cf. above, § 4, on Umbro-Osc. tiom 'te'), the Umbrian Dat. seso.
§ 7. 1 Plur. Of the two I.-Eur. stems, *wĕ- (or *wŏ-) (e. g. O. Ind. vay-ám Nom., Goth. veis, Engl. we, Lith. vè-du Dual, O. Sl. vě) and *nĕ- (or *nŏ-) (e. g. O. Ind. nas, the enclitic Gen.,

Dat., Acc., O. Ir. nī, Goth. uns for *ns, Engl. us, O. Sl. nasŭ ; Gk. $\nu \omega \hat{\iota} \iota$ Dual, O. Sl. na; with weak grade ns- and an affix -smě- in O. Ind. oblique cases, asmá́n Acc., asmábhis Instr., \&c., Lesb. Gk. ä $\mu \mu \in s$, Att. $\dot{\eta} \mu \epsilon i \hat{i})$, the latter appears in Latin $n \bar{o} s$ Acc. (Zend nå Acc.). Nōs is also the Nominative form. The Gen. is nostrum (O. Lat. nostrorum, -arum) and nostri, the Gen. Plur. and the Gen. Sg. Neut. of the Possessive, ' of ours,' the Gen. Pl. being used when the idea of plurality was specially prominent, e. g. omnium nostrum, pars nostrum, but amicus nostri; the Dat., Abl. is nōb̄̄s (earlier nō-bei-s), apparently with the plural suffix $s$ added to a case suffix like that of Dat. Sg. tibei, sibei; in O. Lat. nis seems also to have been used (Paul. Fest. 33. 6 Th.), with the ordinary Dat., Abl. Plur. suffix (see ch. vi. §48). To strengthen the pronoun, the particle -met is added ; nosmet (always Nom. in Plautus), nobismet.

[^88]\[

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { énos, Láses, iuuáte . . . } \\
& \text { énos, Mármor, iuuáto ; }
\end{aligned}
$$
\]

but this, and indeed every fact about the lines, is doubtful. The form enos is generally explained as having a particle *ě prefixed to nos (cf. $\bar{\epsilon}-\mu \bar{\epsilon}$ ). Nosmet is, like vosmet, always Subject in Plautus, but also Acc. in Terence, Phorm. 172, and the classical writers. The use of nostrum (Partitive Gen. and with omnium) and nostri is discussed by Gellius (xx. 6). For instances of nostrorum, -ärum for nostrum in Plautus, \&c., see Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 359. The spelling nobeis is frequent in the Ambrosian Palimpsest of Plautus (see Studemund's Index, p. 505).
§ 9. 2 Plur. There are two I.-Eur. stems, *yu- (O. Ind. yūyám, Goth. jūs, Engl. you, Lith. jũs ; O. Ind. yuvám Dual, Lith. jù-du) and *wě- (or *wŏ-) (O. Ind. vas, the enclitic Gen., Dat., Acc., Pruss. wans, O. Sl. vy vasŭ ; O. Ind. vām Dual, O. Sl. va). The former, with the affix -smě- is found in Gk. $\dot{v} \mu \in i s$, O. Ind. yuṣ̆mắn Acc., yuṣ̌mábhis Instr., \&c.; the latter is the stem used in Latin vōs Acc. (Zend và Acc.). Vös is also the Nominative form ; vestrum (O. Lat. vostrorum, -arum) and vestri (O. Lat. vostri) the Gen., with the same usage and origin as nostrum and nostri (see above) ; rötñs is the Dat., Abl., older vobeis (see above on nobis). The strengthening particle used is -met:
vosmet (only Nom. in Plautus, but afterwards Acc. as well), vobismet; and -pte in O. Lat. vopte (Paul. Fest. 578. 21 Th. ' vopte' pro vos ipsi Cato posuit).
§10. For examples of Gen. vestrum (rostrorum) and vestri, see Neue, $\mathrm{ii}^{3}$. p. 359 ; and cf. nostrum, nostrorum, nostri, above. The spelling vobeis is extremely frequent in the Ambrosian Palimpsest of Plautus, and occurs in the S. C. Bacch. (C.I.L. i. 196. 29), the Epistula ad Tiburtes of c. 100 в. с. (i. 201), \&e.
§ 11. II. THE POSSESSIVE PRONOUNS. In the I.-Eur. languages there is a close connexion between the Possessives and the Gen. of the Personal Pronouns. Thus O. Ind. (Vedic) tvá-s is Possessive 'thy,' táva is Gen., ' of thee' (I.-Eur. *těwĕ); Dor. Gk. $\tau \epsilon$ ós is Possessive, $\tau \epsilon$ ́o (I.-Eur. *tĕ-syŏ) is Gen. Latin tuus, O. Lat. tovo- (I.-Eur. *těwo-) must be similarly derived from the I.-Eur. Gen. *tĕwĕ, Latin sunts, O. Lat. sovo- (I.-Eur. *sĕwo-) from a corresponding Gen. *sĕwĕ, while meus ( $*_{\text {meyo-) }}$ may come from the Locative-Genitive *mei (O. Ind. mē Gen., Dat.). The same connexion is seen between cujus, the Gen. of the Interrogative (§ 13), and cujus $-a-u m$ the Possessive (§ 23). Some purists objected to this Possessive, and parodied Virgil's line ( $E$. iii. 1) by :
dic mihi, Damoeta, 'cujum' pecus, anne Latinum?
under the idea that cujus -a -um was merely a vulgar inflexion of a Gen. suffix -us, treated as if it had been -us of the Nom. Sing.

Beside the Reflexive Possessive stem *sĕwŏ- (Gk. €ós), there was another I.-Eur. form, *swŏ- (O. Ind. svás, Gk. ö́s for * $\sigma$ Fos). The latter would be in Latin so- (ch. iv. § 68), and appears in the O. Lat. forms sam for suam, sas for suas, sos for suos, sis for suis, which must not be confounded with the Demonstrative stem so- on the one hand (O. Lat. sos for eos, sum for eum, \&c.), nor on the other with the monosyllabic suas, suos, suis (pronounced swas, swos, swis), where, through the unaccented use of the Poss., the $\breve{u}$ has been turned into a consonant ( $w$ ) before a long vowel (see ch. ii. § 149), just as the $\breve{e}(\breve{\imath})$ of unaccented meus has been turned into $y$ in monosyllabic meas, meos, meis, meā, meō. Mieis was the older spelling of meis (ch. ii. § 9), and in the Voc. Sing.

Masc. we have, besides meus, the form mi, e.g. mi fili, mi homo, mi vir.

For the Plural Pronouns the suffix -tĕro- (ch. v. § i6) was used (cf. Gk. $\dot{\eta} \mu \dot{\epsilon}-\tau \epsilon \rho o s, \dot{v} \mu \dot{\epsilon}-\tau \epsilon \rho o s)$, 1 Pl. nŏster, 2 Pl. O. Lat. voster, which by the phonetic laws of Latin (cf. vĕto from older rŏto, ch. iv. § io) became rester about the middle of the second cent. в. с. [Osc. nestro- (?), Umbr. vestro-.]

The Gen. Sg. Neut. of these Possessives was in classical Latin used for the Gen. of the Personal Pronouns, mei, tui, sui, nostri, vestri, and, where the notion of plurality was involved (as in the Partitive Genitive or with omnium), the Gen. Pl. nostrum, vestrum (in O. Lat. nostrorum, -arum, vostrorum, -arum) (see § 8).

The strengthening particles -mĕt, -ptĕ are added to the Possessives, e. g. meamet, suismet, meapte, suopte, nostrapte.
§ 12. The grammarians speak of an O . Lat. spelling mius, from which they derive Voc. mi (as Laeli Voc., Laelius Nom.) (e. g. Charis. p. 159. 17 K., Vel. Long. p. 77. 12 K .; other references in Neue, $\mathrm{ii}^{3}$. p. 366), though the only instance which they quote is miis in Ter. Heaut. 699 (probably a dissyllable) :
at enim ístoc nihil est mágis, Syre, miis núptiis aduérsum,
where miis (a spelling retained in the MSS. of Terence), like mieis (probably a monosyllable) on a Scipio epitaph of c. гзо в. с. (C. I. L. i. 38):

> uirtutes generis mieis moribus accumulavi,
and mieis (probably a monosyllable) in Plaut. Men. 202 : úna uiuis mieís morigera moribus (probably mieis, Truc. 709, where the MSS. read miles), shows that spelling of $i$ for $e$ (I.-Eur. ey) which was the rule in Republican Latin in an unaccented syllable before -iss (-tis), e. g. abiegnieis (but abiegnea Acc.), aesculnicis on the Lex Parieti Faciundo of io5 b. c. (C. I. L. i. 577) (see ch. ii. § 9). [For other passages in Plautus where miis is indicated by the MSS., see Neue, l. c. ; in Trin. 822 mis may be Gen. Sg. of the Personal Pronoun, mis ( $\$ 2$ ), or Abl. Pl. of the Possessive : bonis mís quid foret aut meaé uitae (anapaestic)]. For the Vocative Sg. Masc., meus was used with an 0 -stem Noun in the Nominative form, e. g. Plaut. $A \sin .664$ :
da, méus ocellus, méa rosa, mi ánime, mea uolúptas,
Cas. 137 :
sine, amábo, ted amári, meus festús dies, meus púllus passer, méa columba, mí lepus.
(Notice mi lepus in Plaut., where the Noun is not an O-stem. But Virg. has meus sanguis.) On the theory that $m i$ is I.-Eur. *moi or *mei Loc., see § 2 above.
$M i$ is not found with a Voc. Fem. Sg. or Mase. Pl. till Late and Vulgar Latin, e.g. mi parens, my mother, Apul. Met. iv. 26 ; o mi, inquit, hospites, Petron.

116, p. 82.25 B. ; (mi homines, mi spectatores, Plaut. Cist. 678, should probably be mei, as in Mil. гззо 0 mei oculi, 0 mi anime). (See Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. pp. ${ }^{368-9}$.)
We find tou[am] for tuam on an old inscription (C.I.L. i. i2go quei tou[am] pacem petit adiouta); soueis for suis on the Lex Repetundarum of 123-122 в. $\mathbf{c}$. (i. 198. 50, beside suei, suae, suo, sua Abl.,) and on i. 1258, i. 1297 (where it is a monosyllable :
plouruma que fecit populo soueis gaudia nuges),
souo i. 1007 (beside suom, both dissyllabic :
suóm mareitum córde dilexít souo),
souom Gen. Pl. Masc. i. 588, of c. 8ı в. с.
The unemphatic Possessive is a monosyllable in the early Dramatists (by Synizesis), in iambic forms, e.g. mês, sūs, which should probably not be scanned according to the Breves Breviantes Law *më̆s, *sŭı̆s (see ch. iii. § 49). (Instances from Plaut. and Ter. in Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 37r.) How far the Vulgar Latin unemphatic Possessive *mus, *mum, *ma (seen in Fr. mon, ma, and in Vulg. Ital. ma-donna, padre-mo, \&c.) should be referred to O. Lat. so- (I.-Eur. *swo-), \&c., or to these colloquial forms, is a doubtful point. (Cf. tis for tuis on a late metrical inscription, Orelli 4847 :
cum vita functus jungar tis umbra figuris.)
O. Lat. so- Possess. is attested by Festus and distinguished from O. Lat. soDemonstr. (sas Fest. 476. i7 Th. 'sas' Verrius putat significare eas, teste Ennio, qui dicat in lib. i.:
uirginës nam sibi quisque domi Romanus habet sas,
cum suas magis videatur significare, sicuti ejusdem lib. vii. fatendum est eam significari, cum ait :
nec quisquam sapientia quae perhibetur in somnis uidit prius quam sam discere coepit,
idem cum ait 'sapsam,' pro ipsa nec alia ponit in lib. xvi. :
quo res sapsa loco sese ostentatque iubetque,
et Pacuvius in Teucro :
nam Teúcrum regi sápsa res restibiliet;
sis Fest. 428. in Th. 'sos' pro eos antiqui dicebant, ut Ennius, lib. i. :
constitit inde loci propter sos dia dearum, et lib. iii. :
circum sos quae sunt magnae gentes opulentae, lib. vii.:
dum censent terrere minis, hortantur ibe sos,
lib xi.:
contendunt Graios, Graecos memorare solent sos,
interdum pro suos ponebant, ut cum per dativum casum idem Ennius effert:
postquam lumina sis oculis bonus Ancus reliquit;
sam Paul. Fest. 33. 6 Th. antiqui dicebant . . . 'sam' pro suam). On the other hand Festus quotes in illustration of O. Lat. puellus part of a line of Ennius with monosyllabic suos (so spelt in the MSS. of Festus 324. 17 Th. and Paulus 325.6):

Poeni soliti suos sacrificare puellos,
and the MSS. of Lucretius spell suo (monosyll.) in i. ro22, v. 420 :
ordine se suo quaeque sagaci mente locarunt,
but sis in his quotation of Ennius' line, just mentioned, iii. ro25:
lumina sis oculis etiam bonus Ancus reliquit,
so that monosyllabic stoos, \&c. of everyday speech, a scansion discarded by the Augustan poets as unsuitable to the dignity of poetry, were different forms from O. Lat. sos, \&c. We have monosyllabic suo, tuā (see ch. ii. § 65) on the dedicatory inscription of Mummius, the conqueror of Corinth (C.I.L. i. 542, of 146 в. c.) :
uisum animo suo perfecit, tua pace rogans te.
Gen. Pl. meum, turm, nostrum are attested by Priscian (i. p. 308.23 H.), and occur along with sum (cf. souom, C.I. L. i. 588, of c. 8r в. c.) in the Republican Dramatists, \&c. (see instances in Neue), though an instance of vostrum (vestrum) is difficult to find. It occurs in the elegiac epitaph of Ennius quoted by Cicero, Tusc. i. 15. 34 :
hic uestrum panxit maxima facta patrum.
The particle -met is not found with the Possessives in Cicero or Caesar, and is not common in other authors. We have mêmet culpū, Plaut. Poen. 446, suămet, suōmet, suämet, suismet in Sallust. It was thus more a particle for Personal than for Possessive Pronouns. But -pte is very common, though almost exclusively with the Abl. of the Possessive, which precedes its noun, e.g. suapte manu, Cic.; meopte ingenio, Plaut.; nostrapte culpū, Ter. Phorm. 766. (See examples and references to the native grammarians, in Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 373). Still the usual method of emphatic expression was sū̄ ipsius man", meo ipsius ingenio, nostra ipsorum culpa in literary Latin, and in colloquial speech suus sibī, meus mihī, \&c. (§6). Examples of Possessives from the Umbro-Oscan dialects are, Osc. tuvai ' tuae,' suvam 'suam,' súvad 'suā,' suveís 'sui' (perhaps Pel. svad 'suā,' Osc.nistrus 'nostros ') ; Umbr. tua and tuva 'tua,' tuer and tover 'tui,' restra 'vestrā.'
§13. III. Demonstratives. There were several Demonstrative Pronoun-stems in I.-Eur., some of which appear in some languages as Adverbs and Particles only, but as Pronouns in others. Thus the stem ke-, ( $\hat{k} o-$ ) appears in Latin in the Adverb ce- of cědo, 'give here,' and in the Particle -ce of liujus-ce, illis-ce, \&c., but in Oscan eko- is the Pronoun in common use, which corresponds to the Latin lie; and on the other hand the
stems ĝho-, ĝhe- (cf. ĝhĭ-) of Lat. hicc (O. Lat. hĕ-c ), ho-c appear as particles in O. Ind. ha, hí, Gk. ov̀-xí, vaí-xı.

The Latin Demonstrative stems are:
(1) I.-Eur. sǒ-, (sě-), which seems to have been originally confined to Nom. Sg. Masc. and .Fem., a stem tob- being used elsewhere (O. Ind. sá and sás M., sá F., tád N., Gk. $\delta$ and ớs M., $\dot{\eta}$ F., $\tau$ ó, for ${ }^{*} \tau o \delta$, N.) So- is the stem of O. Lat. sam ' eam,' sos ' eos,' sum ' eum '; to- of the second element of the compound is-te for $* i s-t o$ M. (ch. iii. $§ 37$ ), is-ta F., is-tud N., from the stem $*_{i}$-, *ei- (see below), though some regard the first part as the stem es- (Umbr. es-to-?), a byform of the stem so- (se-), with $i$ for $e$ owing to the unaccented use of the Pronoun (ch. iii. § 18). By a further reduction of the vowel iste became in course of time ste.
(2) I.-Eur. ghhŏ- (ghhĕ-) supplies Lat. $h \imath \imath-c$ from O. Lat. $h \check{e}-c$ M., haec for *hai-ce, hoc for hocc for *hod-c, ' this,' all augmented by the particle *ke. The $i$ of lic is due to its unaccented nature (see ch. (iii; § 18).
(3) I.-Eur. ol- (Lat. ǔl-tra, ul-timus; see ch. ix. § 56), a grade of the root ăl- (ŭl-) of Gk. äd $\lambda$ os, Lat. alius, \&c. (§ 29), with I.-Eur. sŏ- appended. The Nom. Sg. Masc. was $*_{o l-s o ̆, ~ O . ~ L a t . ~}^{\text {O }}$ olle, or *ol-sŏs, O. Lat. ollus, Fem. *ol-sā, O. Lat. olla, with ll by the Latin phonetic law for original ls (cf. velle for *vel-se), Neut. *ol-tŏd, which should have been in Latin *oltud, *ultud, but which was adapted to the Masc. and Fem. forms and became ollurl. In class. Lat. owing to the unaccented use of the Pronoun apparently, though the change is a curious one, the $\breve{b}$ became $\breve{\imath}$, ille (illus being dropped), illa, illud.
(4) From I.-Eur. 1̌- (ei-) and eyo- (O. Ind. id-ám N., im-ám Acc. M., Lith. jìs M., O. Sl. -jĭ, \&c.) comes the Latin ' anaphoric' pronoun (i.e. the pronoun which refers to something previously mentioned), йs M., ea for *eyā F., ${ }^{\prime}$ й N. Augmented by a combination of the particle pue (ch. x. § I) with the Pronoun-stem so-, a combination which expresses 'self,' it forms the Latin Pronoun of Identity, ipse M. for ${ }^{*} i_{-p(e)-s o}(\mathrm{ch}. \mathrm{iii} .\mathrm{§} \mathrm{37)} ,\mathrm{ipsa} \mathrm{F.}$, ipsum N., in the O. Lat. also ea-pse with flexion of the first element of the Compound only, and ea-psa with flexion of both elements. Augmented by the particle -dem (ch. x. § 1) it
expresses ' the same,' $\bar{i}$-dem for $i s-d e m$ M. (like audio for *aus-dio, ch. iv. § ${ }^{151}$ ), ea-den F. (For a fuller list of the I.-Eur. demonstrative stems which appear in Latin, see the chapters on the Adverb and the Conjunction.)

The Declension of these stems differed originally from that of Noun-stems, though it became more and more assimilated in course of time, and in Greek had come to be almost identical. The Nom., Acc. Sg. Neut. was formed, not like O-stem Nouns in $-m$, e. g. dönum, but in -ll (often written $-t$, ch. ii. § 73), e.g. illud, istud (but ipsum instead of *i-ptull), id; the Dat. Sg. of all Genders has $-i$, older -ei (-oi), like the Locative -ei (-oi) suffix which appears in O-stem nouns such as Cörinthī, e.g. $i l l \bar{\imath}$, ist $\bar{\imath}$, ipsì, huic for O. Lat. hoi-ce, $\check{\bar{c}} \bar{\imath}$, and $\overparen{e l}$ for $*_{e y-e i}$; the Gen. Sg. of all Genders is formed by the addition to this Dative-Locative form of the Gen. suffix -ŏs, -us, as in O. Lat. nomin-us, e.g. illī-us, istī-us, ipsī-us (with shortening of vowel before vowel, illüus, \&c. ch.ii. § 143), luijus (pronounced *hŭyyus) for hoi-us, ejus (pronounced *ĕyyus) which when unaccented became in the rapid utterance of ordinary speech $*_{i l l \bar{s} s, * i s t \bar{\tau} s \text {, }}$
 word, illïmodi, with $s$ dropped before $m$ as in primus for *prismus (ch.iv. § 151 ). The Nom. Plur. Masc. suffix of O-stem pronouns, viz. -oi, was in Latin (as in Greek) borrowed by O-stem nouns (see ch. vi. § 40), and so is not distinctive of the Pronoun in Latin, but the Nom. Sing. Fem. (and Nom. Acc. Pl. Neut.) in -ai is a feature of the pronominal declension which remains in Latin haec for O. Lat. hai-ce, illaec for *illai-ce, istaec for *istai-ce, though without the particle -ce the two last take the $-a$ of Noun-stems, illa, ista (and so ipsa). Before the Dat., Abl. Plur. suffix the stem appears with an appended i (O. Ind. té-bhyas, Goth. pai-m, Lith. tế-ms, O. Sl. tě-mŭ), e.g. Lat. hī-bus; cf. $\bar{i}$-bus for $*_{e i-b u s ~(O . ~ I n d . ~ e ̀-b h y a ́ s), ~ b u t ~ q u ̌ ̌-b u s, ~ n o t ~}^{*}$ quī-bus. There is the same difficulty with Latin Pronouns as there is with Nouns (ch. vi. § $3^{6}$ ), in assigning any ' Ablative' forms to an original Instrumental. Thus Osc. svai puh, 'si quo' (cf. Umbr. pu-e ' quo'), in the sense of 'sive' (but see ch. ix. § 5), suggests that Lat. quō in some of its uses may be an Instru-


Adverbial eā in praeter-ea is shown to be an Ablative by aruorsum ead on the S. C. Bacch. (C.I. L. i. 196. 24) ; cf. eorl die, xi. 4766. The Locative had also the Dat. and Gen. functions, which we found to belong to the Loc. of the Personal Pronouns, e. g. Gk. $\mu \eta \tau \epsilon ́ \rho i \mu o \iota(\S 2)$. Its suffix in O-stems was -ei or -oi, e.g. Gk. $\pi o \hat{\imath}$, Dor. $\pi \in \hat{\epsilon},{ }_{\epsilon} \epsilon \kappa \in \hat{\imath}$; the former is the suffix used in Oscan, e.g. eíseí, which uses in the Fem. the $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stem Loc. suffix, e. g. eísaí.
§ 14. O. Lat. so-. Festus ( 428.1 i Th.) quotes sos for eos from three lines of Ennius (see § 12) ; elsewhere ( 476.17 Th .) he cites sam for eam, sapsa for ipsa from the same author, and (426..2 Th.) sum for eum: 'sum' pro eum usus est Ennius lib. i.:
astu, non ui, sum summam seruare decet rem,
et lib. ii. :
ad sese sum quae dederat in luminis oras.
[The gloss (Löwe, Prodr. p. 350 ' 'soc': ita is doubtful; cf. Umbr. e-soc 'sic.'] But neither the Demonstrative so- nor the byform of the Reflexive Possessive so- (I.-Eur. swo-) are found in the conversational language of Plautus and Terence. The Neuter * tod is preserved in an O. Lat. Adverb topper for *tod-per, on which see ch. ix. § 7 .
§ 15. The particle -ce. This particle belongs to the stems kö- (kè-), (also
 added, e. g. ekask, ' hae '), Lat. cï-ter, ci-tra, O. Ir. cé, 'on this side,' Engl. he, him, Germ. heu-te, Lith. szis, 'this,' O. Sl. sil], and appears as an Adverb or Preposition in Lat. $c \check{c}-d o$, 'give here' (more frequent in Terence than in Plautus), (O. Ir. cit 'da' (?)), and probably in Osc. ce-bnust, 'huc venerit.' It is said to be employed as an enclitic in other languages too, e.g. Arm. tēr-s, 'this person,' Goth. pau-h, Engl. though (?). Its widespread use with Demonstratives in Latin and Umbro-Oscan (Lat. hǐ-c, ille, O. Lat. illŭc, iste, O. Lat. isť̌c, Osc. eísa-k and Umbr. erak, 'eā,' Osc. ekask, 'hae,' exac, 'hac, iú-k, ' eă,' and so on) may be compared with the Romance forms which have prefixed Lat. ecce to certain Pronouns and Adverbs, e.g. Fr. çà, 'there,' from ecce-hac; Fr. ci, Ital.ci, 'here,' from ecce-h̄̆c ; Fr. ce-, Ital. ciò, 'this,' from ecce-hoc ; Fr. celle from ecce-illa, Fr. cette from ecce-ista, \&c.), (cf. eccillum uideo and eccistam uideo Plaut.). It is the same tendency of expression which has reasserted itself; and it has its equivalents in vulgar English 'this here' for 'this,' 'that there' for 'that,' and so on. The usage with these forms with ece differed in early and in classical Latin; for while in early Latin they are more or less arbitrarily used, in classical Latin their use is stereotyped in most pronouns. Thus class. Lat. illic is the Adverb (Locative), while ill̄ is the Dative (so istīc and istī); hae is the Nom. Pl. Fem., haec the Nom. Pl. Neut.; but in Plautus illī and illic, istī and isț̄c, are equally Adv. and Dat. Pron., hae and haec (illae and illaec, istae and istaec) are both used for the Nom. Pl. Fem., illa and illaec (but only haec, istaec) for the Neut., while illüc, istǐc, forms not found in class. Lat., are equivalents of ille, iste, illuc of illud (but only istuc in Terence, and perhaps also in Plautus). Still there are rules observed even so early as

Plautus' time ; for example, the Nom. Pl. Masc. of hic, ille, is before a word beginning with a vowel hisce, illisce, but before a consonant hi, illi, and in general the forms with -ce are found in use before an initial vowel, hosce, hasce, hisce Dat.-Abl., illisce, istisce Dat.-Abl., though before a consonant horinc, harinc are employed when the verse-ictus has to fall on the final syllable. In the Latin of ordinary conversation, as represented by the language of Plautus' plays, the particle -ce has not in these pronouns the worth of a syllable, a dissyllabic haece, \&c. being proper to a more elevated style of poetry, e. g. Ennius, $A .294$ M. haece locutus vocat, at the beginning of a hexameter line. so that hacetenus and hocedie, quoted as O. Lat. forms by Mar. Victorinus ( 9.19 K.), must come from an Epic poem, or else from some official inscription or legal document. When the interrogative particle -nĕ is added, the -ce is preserved as a full syllable, e.g. hoc-ci-ne, si-ci-ne with $\check{\imath}$ not $\check{\epsilon}$, because the vowel has now become medial and not final (ch. iii. § 39). The full form only is used in Plautus and Terence, but in later authors we find also, e. g. hicne (Stat. Theb. i. 189; other examples in Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 422). The Interjection em seems always to take the forms with -c, e.g. em illic, em istoc, but not the Interjection ecce, e. g. ecc-illam, ecc-istam, ecc-am (for ecce *ham?, § 16). Prefixed to quidem the $c$ is not used in hiquidem, \&c. of the Dramatists (but istucquidem, not istulquidem, in Plautus, as istuc not istud in the simple Pronoun).
§ 16. Hic. The old form hec (for *gher-ke) appears on the earliest Scipio epitaph in Saturnian metre (C.I. L. i. 32) :
héc cépit Córsica Alériaque úrbe,
which has, however, $e$ for original $i$ in Tempestatebus, and in the previous line shows the spelling hic (probably not the Adverb, for this would naturally be spelt heic in so early an inscription):
cónsol, cénsor, aidílis híc fuet a[púd uos].
The spelling hec seems to be a retention of the old form, due to the emphatic position of the Pronoun at the beginning of the line, if it is not merely an example of the early interchange of $\check{e}$ and $\grave{\imath}$ in the unaccented syllable (e. g. aidiles for uedilis on the still older Scipio epitaph, i. 3r ; see ch. iii. § 22). The Neuter Nom.-Acc. hoc should be *hocc (for *ĝhŏd-k̂e), but though we are expressly told that it was so pronounced before an initial vowel, as in Virgil's line : hoc erat, alma parens, \&c., there is no evidence that it was ever written with -cc, for Priscian's statement (i. 592. 22 H.) : in antiquissimis codicibus invenitur bis c scriptum, is illustrated only by the form hoccine. Hoc is always long by position in Latin poetry, as hōc Abl. is long both by nature and by position (for *hōd-ce), and hıc M. is distinguished from hīc Adv. in Plautus and the early Dramatists (spelt heic in Plautine MSS., Merc. 307, Men. $375, \& c$. ), though, like other long syllables, $h \bar{\imath} c$, ( $h \bar{o} c$ ) may be shortened, when unaccented, after a short syllable by the Law of Breves Breviantes (ch. iii. § 42), e. g. quid hĭc est?, what is here?, (quid hŏc est?, what is this?). But in classical poetry hic M. is more often scanned as a long than as a short syllable; and the grammarians assert of hic in a line like Virg. A. xi. 16: manibusque meis Mezentius hic est, that it was pronounced *hicc (Mar. Victor. 22. 17 K. ; other references in Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 411), just as they declare hoc erat to have been pronounced hocc erat ; so that it is probable that hic M. came to be pronounced *hicc by the Analogy of hoc (for *hodc) N., which was pronounced *hŏcc. (One
theory supposes hic with long $i$ to have been a byform of hic, Rev. Philologie, 1892.)

In the Genitive we have, e.g. hoiusce on the Lex Repetundarum of 123-122 B.c. C.I.L. i. 198. 56), hoiusque (i. 603 , of 58 в.c. hoiusque aedis ergo), hoius Plaut. Pseud. 27 I (holus A, hujus P), huiius Most. 664 (A, hujus P). Plautus is said not to admit the form with -ce (Poen. 1257) into the colloquial language of his plays. It occurs, however, in Terence (Andr. 439, Phorm. 827), and the phrase hujusce modi is very common in Cicero and Sallust.

In the Dative hoic occurs in the Lex Bantina of 133-118 b.c. (C. I. L. i. 197. 26 hoice leegei). Mar. Victorinus (12.2 K.) quotes 'ex libris antiquis foederum et legum, qui etiamsi frequenti transcriptione aliquid mutarunt, tamen retinent antiquitatem, the form hoic, a form affected in pronunciation by a few in the time of Velius Longus (first cent. A. D.) (p. 76. 3 K.). In later poetry huic (like cйй in the poetry of the first cent. A. D., § 25) is scanned as a dissyllable (twice in Statius, Silv. i. 1. 107; i. 2. 135; and even hŭı̆ in Ter. Maurus, l. 1375. For other examples, see Neue, $\mathrm{ii}^{3}$. p. 415). In the Accusative the oldest spelling hon-ce appears in the Lex Spoletina (C.I.L. xi. 4766 honce loucom nequs uiolatod), hance in the Lex Bantina (i. 197), hoce for *hocce on the S. C. Bacch. of 186 в.c., where double consonants are written single, (i. 196. 26 atque utei hoce in tabolam ahenam inceideretis) (cf. i. r291 itus actusque est in hoce delubrum Feroniai). We have honc on the Scipio epitaph (i. 32 ), in the Saturnian line :
hónc oíno ploírume coséntiont R[ómai],
'hunc unum plurimi consentiunt Romae.' Like hunc from honc M. is huc(c) from $h o c(c)$ N., a spelling found in an inscription of somewhat irregular orthography (i. 603, of 58 в. c., ad huc templum), and in the Falisco-Lat. huc dederunt (Zvet. I. I.I. 72 (a), but in classical Latin reserved to discriminate the Adverb from the Pronoun (see ch. ix. § ro). In the Abl. we have the full form hoce, e.g. in the magisterial proclamation cited above for hoce Neut. Acc. (C.I.L. i. 1291 ex hoce loco ; cf. Orell. 3857), hace in the Lex Bantina (i. 197. 7) and throughout the Lex Repetundarum (i. 198) [cf. hocedie and hacetenus, mentioned as O. Lat. forms by Mar. Vict. (9. 19 K.)]. (For the Locative, see the Adverb hīc, heic, ch. ix. § 10). Nom.-Acc. Plur. Neut. haice is found in the S. C. Bacch. (C.I.L. i. 196. 22 haice utei in couentionid exdeicatis, 'haec uti in contione edicatis') ; haece has been already cited from Ennius, A. 294 M. haece locutus; hīsce or heisce, the Nom. Pl. Masc. form used by Plautus before a word beginning with a vowel, occurs without the particle in two inscriptions of no great antiquity (C.I. L. i. 1059 heis sunt horti ; i. IO7r heis sunt duo concordes), and, according to the grammarians, in Virg. E. iii. 102:
his certe, neque amor causa est, vix ossibus haerent;
we have heisce further in some Capua inscriptions of 108-7r b. c. (C.I. L. i. 565 heisce magistreis Uenerus Iouiae ; i. 566 heisce magistreis Cererus ; i. 567 heisce magistrei ; i. 569 heisce mag. ; i. 573 heisc. magistr. ; Not. Scav. 1893. p. 164 heisce magistreis); cf. C.I.L. i. 1478 (Cartagena), heisce magistris. For examples of haec F., see Neue, ii³. p. $4^{17}$; e.g. Virg. G. iii. 305 :
haec quoque non cura nobis leviore tuendae.
The form seems to have been used both by Caesar and Cicero. In the Genitive the full form is found in Cato, e.g. harumce ( $R . R$. 139 harumce rerum ergo), and in the old oath administered to soldiers taking furlough (ap. Gell.
xvi. 4. 4 nisi harunce quae causa erit, funus familiare, feriaeve denicales, \&c.). In the Dat.-Abl. hisce is used by Plaut. and Ter. before vowels, by Cicero, \&c. before consonants too (examples in Neue, $\mathrm{ii}^{3}$. p. 419 ; cf. heisce in the Lex Repetundarum, C.I.L. i. 198. 8 de heisce, dum, \&c.), and the same holds of Acc. hosce and hasce (cf. hasce sedes, C. I. L. iii. 7230).

The stem hŏ- (ȟ̌-) is augmented by $i$ (like the Pronoun Datives Pl., O. Ind. tế-bhyas, Goth. pai-m, Lith. tế-ms, O. Sl. teè-mŭ), in Dat. Pl. hîbus (obsolete in Varro's time ; cf. Varro, L. L. viii. 72), attested by Priscian, ii. p. ro. 15 H. (and Charis. p. 54. r9 K.) in Plaut. Curc. 506 :
eodem hércle uos pono ét paro : paríssumi estis híbus,
like ibus (for *eibus) in Plaut. Mil. 74 (see § 19); it follows the analogy of Noun $\bar{A}$-stems in Dat. Sg. F. hae in Cato ( $R . R$. I4. 3 hae rei materiem . . . dominus praebebit). The Nom. PI. M. heis-ce, already mentioned, is, like Nom. Pl. eis of the stem i- (§ 19), due to the addition of the Plural suffix -s to the already formed plural hei, hī. (On the declension of hic in Plautus, see Studemund in Fleckeisen's Jahrbücher, 1876, p. 57, and on its use, Bach in Studem. Stud. ii). Hic always refers to the first Personal Pronoun in Old Latin, and means 'this that is near me, that belongs to me,' \&c. ; so hic homo for ego in the Comedians. It is sometimes used for is, to refer to something already mentioned, in the classical historians and Epic poets, but rarely earlier, e. g. Ter. Phorm. 866-9 has hic where $i b i$ would be used by Plautus :
ád fores
súspenso gradú placide ire pérrexi, accessi, ástiti, hic pulchérrumum

## fácinus audiui.

The Adverb hŏ-die (Falisc. foied) seems to show the bare stem (cf. ch. ix. § 5). A form without the enclitic has been claimed for O. Lat. eccum, e. g. sed eccum Palaestrionem, 'but see, here comes P.', Plaut., though the word may be analyzed into ecce eum as well as into ecce *hum (§ 15). On Faliscan he cupat, 'here lie,' ' here lies' (for *hei or for *heic?), and on Late Lat. hi jacet, see ch. ix. § ro. We have Dat. hui in late inscriptions (Henz. 7339, Rome ; perhaps also in C. I.L. x. 7297, Palermo).
§ 17. Iste. Examples of the various cases of this Pronoun with -c(e) in Plautus and Terence are given by Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. pp. 398 sqq., istic Nom. Sg. M., istaec F., istuc N., ist̄̄c Dat., istunc Ace. M. istanc F., istuc N., istoc Abl. M., istac F., istaec Nom. Pl. F., N., istosci-n Acc. Pl. M., istaec N., also of the later curtailed form ste (cf. Ital. stasera, from Lat. (i)stā serē$)$ as in the Itala sta nomina ; see I. F. Anz. ii. 153) (cf. ch. iii. § 12 a. 4). (The declension of iste in Plautus is treated by Studemund in Fleckeisen's Jahrbiucher, 1876, p. 57, and its use by Bach in Studemund's Stuctien ii.) Iste refers to the second Personal Pronoun, 'that of yours,' as hic to the first and ille to the third. In classical Latin, but probably not in the earlier literature, it came to acquire a contemptuous sense. We find istãce in an old ritual mentioned by Cato ( $R . R .132 .2$ ): Iuppiter dapalis, macte istace dape pollucenda esto. The influence of the Noun declension is seen in Late Lat. isto Dat. Sg. (Apuleius), istum Neut. (Vulgate) ; istae Dat. Sg. is the reading supported by the MSS. in Plaut. Truc. 790 (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.). In colloquial Latin ecce is sometimes prefixed to the Acc. case of iste, and forms a compound, e. g. eccistam uideo Plaut.
§ 18. Ille. Nom. ollus M., olla F. are the words used in two ancient formulae preserved by Varro (L.L. vii. 42), the announcement made at a 'funus indictivum,' viz. ollus leto datus est, and the proclamation by the herald at the comitia, in which olla centuria and not 'illa c.' was used, just as we keep up the old Norman French 'oyez, oyez' in Royal proclamations. The same Nom. Fem. seems to occur in the formula, also preserved by Varro (L. L. vii. 8), which the augur used on the citadel in marking off a 'templum,' though the reading of the MSS. is corrupt : ullaber arbos quirquir est . . . ollaner arbos quirquir est. The immediate precursor of ille, the Nom. Masc. olle, is found in the Law of Servius Tullius, quoted by Festus (290. 15 Th.): si parentem puer verberet (MS. -it), ast olle plorassit, puer divis parentum sacer esto. A very old form of the Abl. Plur., oloes, is cited by Paul. Fest. 14. 17 Th.: ' ab oloes' dicebant pro ab illis; antiqui enim litteram non geminabant; and in the inscription on the Columna Rostrata (a restoration made in the Imperial period) we have the Gen. Pl. olorom (C. I. L. i. 195 praesente[d Hanibaled] dictatored ol[or]om) (cf. ollarum on an early inscr., Marini, Act. Arv. p. 233). Macrobius (iii. 9. ro) quotes an old ritual with ollis legibus, and on the Lex Furfensis of 58 в. c. (C.I.L. i. 603 ) the same phrase occurs, olleis legibus (followed immediately by illeis regionibus), similarly on the Lex Cornelia of 8 I в. с. [i. 302 . (I). 6 olleis hominibus]. Cicero in his De Legibus employs in the archaic language of his laws olli Dat.Sg., ollis Dat. Pl., olli Nom. Pl., olla Neut. Pl., ollos Acc. Pl. In the early Dramatists the form is not found, so that it must have been already relegated to the legal style by the beginning of the second cent. b. c. Ennius in his Annals knows only olli Dat. Sg. and Nom. Pl., and ollis Dat.-Abl. Plur. (illi and illis are apparently not used by him), and these are the only forms of olle found in his imitator, Virgil, and the later Epic poets, while Lucretius confines himself to ollis. Quintilian mentions olli among the happy archaisms of Virgil (viii. 3. 25 'olli' enim et 'quianam' et 'moerus' et 'pone' et 'porricerent' adspergunt illam, quae etiam in picturis est gratissima, vetustatis inimitabilem arti auctoritatem). The old spelling may have lingered longest in these forms through the analogy of the Adverb ölim, which comes from the stem $\overline{o l}$ - (Umbr. $u l_{0}$ 'illuc') a byform of $\overline{\mathrm{l}}$ - (ch. iv. §§ 45, 59), and does not exhibit a substitution of $\overline{o l}$ - for $\overline{o l l}$ - (cf. ch. ii. § 127). Servius (ad A. i. 254 and v. ro) mentions a theory that olli in these two lines of Virgil was not the Dat. Sg. of the Pronoun, but an Adverb with the sense 'tunc' (cf. the glosses olli 'illi . . . aut tunc'; olli 'ibi, interdum, illi, vel illinc,' C. G. L. v. 229. 4-5), and olli-c is quoted by Paul. Fest. 231. 2 Th. as an O. Lat. form of illic (cf. Lucil. inc. ${ }_{152}$ M. : uelut olim Auceps ille facit, where the MSS. offer olli). The mispronunciation, 'oli' for olim, censured in Prob. App. 199. 16 K., is merely an example of the tendency of Vulg. Lat. to omit final $-m$, like the mispronunciations 'pride,' 'passi,' 'numqua,' 'ide,' censured on the same page. From olim was formed Late Lat. olitanus, ' of former time,' and the curious phrase, found in Petron. 43 p. 29. 2 B. olim oliorum, 'long long ago.' [Another theory connects O . Lat. oll̃, 'then,' with O.Sl. lani, 'last summer,' and analyzes ollointo *ol-no-, not *ol-so- (I. F. iii. 264).]
For instances of the addition of the particle ce to ille in its various forms in Plautus, \&c. (illĭc Nom. Sg. M., illaec F., illuc N., illīc Dat., illunc Acc. M., illanc F., illoc Abl., illac F., illisce Nom. Pl. M. (before a vowel), illaec F., illaec Neut., illisce Dat.-Abl. (before a vowel), see Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 427. In old rituals mentioned by Cato in the Res Rustica we find illiusce ( 139 illiusce sacri coercendi ergo), illäce
(132. I eius rei ergo macte hac illace dape pollucenda esto), illisce (141. 4 Mars pater, siquid tibi in illisee suouitaurilibus lactentibus neque satisfactum est, te hisce suouitaurilibus piaculo) ; and in legal formulae in Varro's Res Rustica, illosce (ii. 5. II illosce boues sanos esse noxisque praestari, . . . illosce iuuencos sanos recte deque pecore sano esse noxisque praestari spondesne?), illasce (ii. 4. 5 illasce sues sanas esse). The Analogy of 0 -stem Adjectives has produced illum Neut. in Late and Vulgar Latin (e. g. in the Vulgate, S. Marc.iv. 35), illae Dat. in Cato ( $R$. R. I53 and ${ }^{1} 54$ illae rei) and Plaut. Stich. 560 (filiae illae ; so the MSS.), illo Dat. in late authors (e.g. Apuleius) ; to the Analogy of I-stems is due illibus, if it be a genuine form, ascribed to O. Lat. by Serg. in Donat. p. 547.37 K .

Lucilius seems to have proposed the spelling illi Dat. Sg., illei Nom. Pl. (ix. 15 M.) :
'hoc illi factumst uni' : tenue hoc facies i.
'haec illei fecere': adde e, ut pinguius fiat,
on which see ch. i. § 9. According to Diomedes (332. ir K.) the strengthening particle -met is added to ille, and produces illemet.

In colloquial Latin ecc- was prefixed to the Acc. case of ille and formed a compound, e.g. eccillum uideo, Plaut. By prefixing em [the old deictic interjection, for which ēn was substituted in class. Latin (ch. x. § 19)], was formed ellum, ellam of the Comedians, which survives in the exclamation used in the dialect of the Abruzzi at the present day, ello ('with open e).

On the pronunciations illüus and illīus, see Neue, $\mathrm{ii}^{3} .518$, and cf. below, § 22.
§ 19. Is. The stem 1.- appears clearly in ìs Nom. Sg. M., 九̌d N. But the encroachment of the 0 -declension shows itself in the numerous cases formed from a stem ĕyŏ- (e. g. eum for *ĕyŏm Acc. Sg. M., which ousted the old Acc. im ; eis for *eyois Dat.-Abl. Pl., which ousted the old ībus for *ei-bus (0. Ind. è-bhyás), with stem augmented before the Dat. Plur. suffix as in hībus (§ 16). Another old I-stem form may be Abl. $\bar{\imath}$ - in $\bar{i}$-lico, which is used in O. Lat. in the sense of 'in loco' [' in eo loco,' Non. 325. 6 M., who quotes Accius (Trag. 373 R.) :
îlico, inquam, habitáto, nusquam própius],
while the class. Abl. Sg. M. is eō for *eyōd. $\bar{l} l u ̈ c o ̄ \bar{o}$ is however better explained as ${ }^{\text {in }}$ sloco, 0 . Lat. for in lŏco (see ch. ix. § 7).

It may be owing to this stem eyo- that we find the natural Fem. *ia replaced by ea. The Acc. form iam preserved in the MSS. of Varro, L. L. v. 166 and viii. 44 (cf jam, the Adverb, ch.ix. § io. 8 ; ium on a Luceria inscr., C. I. L. ix. 782), may be a relic of the old and correct spelling, for there is no indication that there ever existed a spelling *eiam, of which some have supposed it to be a corruption (cf. ch. ii. § 9). (In Umbr. we find eam Acc. Sg. F., eaf Acc. Pl. F.)

The particle ce is not added to this Pronoun stem until Late Latin, e.g. ejuscemodi (Jerome, Epist. 82. 6) by Analogy of hujuscemodi. [Posteac in Claudius' edict on the Anauni (Hermes, iv. 99, 1. 13) is an isolated form.] But in Oscan we have iz-ic 'is,' iú-k ' ea,' id-ik 'id,' and in Umbrian (with intervocalic s become r) er-ec ' is,' ed-ek 'id,' \&c., as well as forms like Osc. id-ad 'ad id,' Umbr. eo Acc. Pl. M., eu Acc. Pl. N., \&c.
The various case-forms that call for notice are these. Nom. Sg. M. eis appears three times beside the usual is on the Lex Repetundarum. It may be
a Nom. formed from the strong stem ei- (cf. Dat. Pl. $\bar{\imath}-b u s)$, but is as likely to be a mere mistaken use of $e i$ for $\check{\imath}$ as in seine and leiteras on the same inscription, an inscription not older than the last quarter of the second cent. b. c. (On eislem, see §2r.) In the Dat. Sg. iei is written in the Lex Rubria (C.I. L. i. 205) of 49 в.c. (beside ei), by the same orthography as mieis, abiegnieis, aesculnieis (see ch. ii. § 9 , and cf. iei Nom. Pl., ieis Dat. Pl. below). (So Umbr. ie-pru, ie-pi). The Acc. Sg. M. was in O. Lat. im [Charis. 133. I K. 'im' pro eum. nam ita Scaurus in arte grammatica disputavit, antiquos 'im,' 'ques ' . . . et declinari ita: is, ejus, ei, eum vel im ; Paul. Fest. 73.29 Th. 'im' ponebant pro eum, a nominativo is; ib. 33.7 antiqui dicebant... 'im' pro eum; Gl. Philox. im : aủróv, cis aủtóv ; Gl. Cyrill. aủróv, roûtov• im (MS. eim)]. Macrobius (i.4. 19) quotes a law of the XII Tables: si nox furtum factum sit, si im occisit, iure caesus esto, and Cicero (Legg. ii. 24. 60) another : cui auro dentes iuncti escunt, ast im cum illo sepelirei ureiue se fraude esto (cf. Fest. 322. ${ }_{13} \mathrm{Th}$.).
This form is often given as em, instead of $i m$, perhaps by analogy of Noun I-stems which substituted the Acc. suffix of Consonant-stems for that of Istems, e. g. turrem for turrim (see ch. vi. § 29) ; so Paul. Fest. 54. 20 Th. 'em' pro eum, ab eo quod est is. Another law of the XII Tables is cited by Porphyrio in his note on the 'licet antestari ?' of Hor. S. i. 9. 76 : si in ius uocat, ni it, antestamino, igitur em (MSS. en) capito; and Festus ( 298.15 Th .) quotes, from a speech of Cato, si em percussi. Similarly the Adverb im (ch. ix. § ro) (cf. O. Ind. im, originally an Acc. of the 'anaphoric' pronoun, then a mere particle), so written in Gl. Philox. im : лoıтóv, $\eta \delta \eta$, is mentioned by Paul. Fest. as em ( 53.37 Th. ' em,' tum) ; the Acc. of an O. Lat. derivative of is in the sense of idem is imeum in the Philoxenus Glossary (imeum : rùv aùtóv), but emem in Paul. Fest. (54. 2 Th. 'emem,' eundem) [cf. the form in the Glossary of Placidus, emdem (MSS. hendem) : aeque, similiter, C. G. L. v. 73. 19].
The Dat.-Loc. Sg. *eyei, written eiei ${ }^{1}$ (along with $e i$ ) in the Lex Repetundarum of 123-122 в.c. (C.I.L. i. 198), has in Plautus and the older poetry three
 rě̃ class., ch. vi. § 19). This *ěyěi is thought to have become $\bar{e} \imath$ much as -ěyěs became -ēs (e. g. Lat. trēs for I.-Eur. *trěyěs, ch. iv. § 66), which in what we may call 'ceremonious' speech would preserve its full sound, and for a time resist the Latin tendency to shorten every long vowel before another vowel (ch. ii. § 143), while after the shortening set in, ě̃, through its unaccented character, would in the rapid utterance of everyday life become a mere monosyllable ê, as tŭĭ became tûl, \&c. (§ 12). (Priscian, ii. p. ro. 2 H . speaks as if $e i$ were as much a monosyllable as huic, cui in the ordinary pronunciation of his time). To suppose that eiei was pronounced *ey-yei as *Tröia was pronounced *Troy-ya, pëjor, *pey-yor (ch. ii. § 55), does not account for the fact that these words are always scanned with the first syllable long in poetry, while eum for *eyom is never scanned with its first syllable long. (See below, however, on the doubt attaching to the antiquity of the scansion $\bar{e} \bar{c}$.) But the Genitive ejus, formed by the addition of the Gen. suffix -us to
${ }^{1}$ This would most naturally be explained as a Reduplication of ei, and some explain $\bar{e} \bar{\imath}$, èz as produced in this way. But the reduplicated
form of the $i$-stem had in Latin the notion of identity, e.g. em-em (gl. eundem). Still the theory given above is far from certain.
the already formed Locative had this pronunciation *ëy-yus [Caesell. ap. Cassiod. 206. 6 K . 'Pompeiius,' 'Tarpeiius' et 'eiius' per duo i scribenda sunt, et propter sonum (plenius enim sonant), et propter metrum. Numquam enim longa fiet syllaba nisi per i geminum scribatur]. This pronunciation is indicated by the spelling exIvs on inscriptions (Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 376) and MSS. (Index to Studemund's Apograph of the Ambrosian Palimpsest of Plautus). The treatment of Nom. Pl. *eyei for *eyoi and Dat.-Abl. Pl. *eyeis for *eyois is not the same as that of Dat.-Loc. Sg. *eyei ; for we have in Plautus
 Where $\breve{e}$ is followed by a long syllable it passed in unaccented usage into $y$ by Synizesis, e. g. ê, ês, êrum Plaut. (not ĕ̌̆s, \&c., by Law of Breves Breviantes; see ch. iii. § 49).
The old Abl. Sg. $-d$ is seen in eod die of the Lex Spoletina (C. I. L. xi. 4766), and in Adverbial ead of the S. C. Bacch. (i. 196. 25 quei aruorsum ead fecisent, 'qui adversum eā fecissent').
In the Nom. Pl. the spelling $i e i$ is, in accordance with the orthography of the first cent. в. c. (ch. ii. § 9), found on the Lex Cornelia of 8i в. c. [i. 202. (I). 7. along with ei], on the Lex Antonia de Termessibus of 7 г b. c. (i. 204, passim, never ei), on the Lex Rubria of 49 в.c. [i. 205. (r). 48], on the Lex Julia Municipalis of 45 в. c. (i. 206. 24, usually ei), and in Varro (L.L. ix. 2 and 35). We have also $i$ in MSS. (often confused with $h i$ ), and inscriptions (examples in Neue, $\mathrm{ii}^{3} . \mathrm{p} . \mathrm{3}^{82}$ ); and the ei of Republican inscriptions (ibid. p. 383) admits of being taken to denote the simple long $i$-sound. Priscian (i. 298. 9 H.) seems to distinguish monosyllabic ii (for $\bar{i}$ ) from dissyllabic $\check{e}$, and similarly iis (īs) from ë̀ss, dii ( $d \bar{\imath}$ ) from dë̆, diis ( $d \bar{i} s$ ) from dè̄̀s (see Neue, l. c.). The Nom. Pl. Masc. form used in the Lex Bantina of $133-118$ в.c. (i. 197) and the Lex Repetundae of 123-122 в. c. (i. 198) is eis (cf. i. 199. 29 ?), a form which appears in the earlier spelling eeis in the S. C. Bacch. of 186 в.c. (i. 196. 5, the only occurrence of a Nom. Pl. of is on this inscr.) (possibly in i. 185 ieis), and which should be compared with his (older heis) and hisce for hi, illis (illeis) and illisce for illi $(\S \S 16,18)$. (The reading is in Pacuv. Trag. 221 R. ap. Charis. 133. 4 K. is very doubtful). In the Gen. Pl. the form eum, mentioned by Paul. Fest. (54. 20 Th. 'eum' antiqui dicebant pro eorum), is found once (usually eorum) on the Lex Julia Municipalis of 45 B.c. [C. I.L. i. 206. 52 eum h(ac)l(ege) $n$ (ihil) r(ogatur)]. The orthography of the Dat.-Abl. Pl. resembles that of the Nom. Pl. We have ieis on the Lex Antonia de Termessibus, the Lex Rubria, the Lex Julia Municipalis, and other inscriptions of the first cent. в. c. (see Index to C. I. L. i.), but eeis in the early spelling of the S. C. Bacch. of 186 в.c. (i. 196), while the earliest form of all, eieis, reappears on an inscr. of circ. 1оо в. c., the Epistula Praetoris ad Tiburtes (i. 20I de eieis rebus af uobeis peccatum non esse. Quonque de eieis rebus senatuei purgati estis, \&c.). We have also is in MSS. (often confused with his) and inscriptions (Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. $3^{83}$ ), and the eis of Republican inscriptions (see Index to C.I. L. i.) admits of being taken as an expression of the sound $\bar{\imath} s$. Priscian, as we have just seen, appears to distinguish iis (pronounced $\bar{\imath} s$ ) from êìs, as diis (pronounced (īs) from dissyllabic dě̀s.

The O. Lat. I-stem Dat.-Abl. ibus is mentioned by Nonius (486. i m. 'ibus' pro is minus latinum putat consuetudo, cum veterum auctoritate plurimum valeat), who quotes Plautus, Mil. 74 :
latrónes, ībus dínumerem stipéndium,
(the MSS. of Plautus have latronisbus and latronibus), and other instances from the Comedians. The Placidus Glossary (C.G.L. v. 75.9) has 'ibus,' iis, illis, with quotation of the same line of Plautus. For other lines of Plautus where some editors read ibus, and for Lachmann's proposal to read ibus (though only $\bar{z} b u s$, hībus are known in Plautus, \&c.) in certain lines of Lucretius, see Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 386.
The analogy of the $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-declension has produced eae Dat. Sg. F., a form found in Cato ( $R$. R. 142 quo modo uilicam uti oportet, et quo modo eae imperari oportet) and probably in Plaut. Mil. 348 : hic eae proxumust, but not in use in Varro's time (L. L. viii. 51) ; so in Late Latin eum for id (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.). Cato also uses eabus (R. R. 152 facito scopas uirgeas ulmeas aridas . . . eabus latera doliis intrinsecus usque bene perfricato), which is quoted from Cassius Hemina (pro eis differentiae causa in feminino) by Priscian (i. 294. 4 H.).
The obscure form necerim mentioned by Festus (160. 21 Th.) and Paul. Fest. (16i. ir Th.), and explained by them as 'nec eum,' has been supposed by some to be a wrong reading for nece im (nec eim?), by others to contain the Pronoun-stem es- of iste for *este ( $\S 13$ ).
The scansion $\overline{e c}$ is allowed by most editors of Plautus in the Dat. Sg., but a certain example is very difficult to find, except in the Prologues; and these cannot be quoted as Plautine. Thus in Rud. 392 where editors end the line with : ne cópia esset éi, the MSS. have eius; in Bacch. 525 : mendácium ei díxit, only the Ambrosian Palimpsest has ei, the Palatine MSS. have illi [editors similarly prefer illis the (probable) reading of the Palimpsest to iis of the other MSS. in Rud. 219 : neque quícquam umquam illis prófuit]; in Curc. 544, for which we have only the testimony of the Palatine family of MSS. :
is Summanum sé uncari díxit; ei réddidi,
èi might be easily emended to ê ego, and so on (e. g. Cist. 138). But the scansion $\bar{e} t$ in the Dat. Sg. is certain for Terence, e.g. Andr. 443 :
dum licitumst éi dumque aetás tulit,
and is very common in Lucretius, e. g. vi. 674 :
scilicet et fluvius quivis est maximus ei qui non ante aliquem majorem vidit;
so that $\bar{e} \bar{\imath}$ (like supera for supra, ch. iii. § 15 ) may be a form that is not genuinely antique. The Dat. Sg. is avoided by the Augustan poets, Horace for example in his Satires and Epistles using ejus, eum, eo but not ei; but in Ovid, Halieut. 33, we have ě̌ (see Neue, $\mathrm{ii}^{3}$. p. 378, who, however, quotes as examples of $\bar{e} \bar{\imath}$ from Plautus lines where it can be scanned ĕc̆ in prosodical hiatus, e.g. Curc. 603 máter ĕ̌̆ uténdum dederat, like mĕ̃̆ honoris, Aul. 463).
§ 20. Ipse. We have already seen the particles -pte and -pse added to various pronouns to give the sense of 'self,' 'own,' e. g. meopte ingenio like meo ipsius ingenio, sepse like se ipsam. These particles seem to be composed of a particle pe- (pi-), seen in quis-piam, quippe, \&c., and the Pronoun-stems so- and to-, which alternate in the I.-Eur. Demonstrative with its Nom. *sŏ M., *sā F., *tord N., and its oblique cases formed from the stem to- (te-). [Lat. -pte should therefore not be compared with Lith. pàts, 'self,' from patis (Lat. potis, Gk. mó $\sigma \iota s, \& c$.)]. Similarly we find the Pronoun-stem i- augmented by -pse in the Latin pronoun of identity, $i$-pse, which is further strengthened in the 0 . Lat.
form, or forms, given by Paul. Fest. as ipsippe ( 74.37 Th. 'ipsippe,' ipsi, neque alii), in the Glossary of Philoxenus as ipsipte ('ipsipti' : aủroí, C. G.L. ii. 87. 26 and 44) and ipsipse ('ipsipse': aủrós, ib. 9r. 35), and augmented by -pte in eopte (Paul. Fest. 78. 16 Th. ' in eopte,' eo ipso).

The original declension of ipse we may suppose to have been : Nom. Sg. $*_{i s-p s e}(i-p s e)$ M., ea-psa F., *id-ptod (*i-ptod) N., Acc. Sg. *im-ptom M., \&c., until the inconvenience of the alternation of -p -so- and -p-to- brought about a 'levelling' process. (Ipsud is not found till late Latin, see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.) The declension of both elements of the Compound may still appear in isolated forms indicated by the MSS. of Plautus, e.g. eapsa, Cas. 602 [so the Ambrosian Palimpsest (A), but ea ipsa in the Palatine MSS. (P), as in v. 604 for eapse of A] ; eaepsae, Pseud. 833 (eaepse A, eae ipsae P) ; eumpsum non eampsam, Truc. 133 (eum ipsum non eam ipsam A, eum ipsum non ea ase $\mathbf{P}$ ); eumpsum, Truc. 114 (eum ipsum A, umsum P), which have been, perhaps unnecessarily, changed by editors to eapse, eaepse. eumpse, eampse.

The declension of the first element appears in eapse, mentioned by Paul. Fest. (54. 28 Th. 'eapse,' ea ipsa), and this and similar forms are sometimes preserved in the MSS. of Plautus (e. g. eapse, Trin. 974, Truc. 24, Curc. 16r, 534), though usually ipse is written for the unfamiliar -pse and is sometimes declined, e.g. eumpse, Pers. 603 (eum ipse P) ; eampse, Poen. 272 (eam ipse $\mathbf{P}$; eapse, Cas. 604 (so A, but ea ipsa P). (On sirempse, see ch. ix. § 8.)
In the Nom. Sg. Masc. we have a byform ipsus in O. Lat. (ipsos in a Law of Numa quoted by Paul. Fest. 4. 29 Th.: si quisquam aliuta faxit, ipsos Ioui sacer esto), which is the form used by the Comedians before a Reflexive Pronoun, e.g. ipsus sibi, ipsus suam rem, \&c. Ipse is not a development of ipsus. The two are separate forms, ipse for -s厄̆, ipsus for -sos, corresponding to the I.-Eur. byforms *sŏ and sŏs (O. Ind. sá and sás, Gk. $\delta$ and ös) (§ 13). The influence of 0 -stem Adjectives produced in Late Latin ipso Dat. Sg. (Apul.) and ipsae (Apul.), of I-stems ipsibus Dat. Pl., ascribed to O. Latin by Serg. in Don. (547. 37 K.). The Plautine ipsissumus (Trin. 988), like Aristophanes' aùzótazos, seems to have been, in the form ipsuma or ipsima, actually used in the colloquial Latin of the Empire in the sense of domina (Petron. 69. p. 46 . 16 B. ; 75. p. 5 I. 23 B., \&c.). (On the colloquial pronunciation isse, issa, for ipse, ipsa, see ch. ii. § 81.) Ipsemet is found occasionally (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.).
§ 21. Idem. The affix -dem of $\bar{\imath} d e m, \mathbf{O}$. Lat. is-dem, tantī-dem, tantum-dem, expressing the idea of 'precisely,' 'exactly,' is thought by some to have been originally $\grave{\mathrm{d}} \mathrm{dem}$, for the Oscan equivalent of Latin $\overline{\mathrm{\imath}} \mathrm{dem}$ is is-ídum. This $\grave{\mathrm{d}} \mathrm{dem}$, formed by adding the affix -em to the Neut. Demonstr. $i d$, is used in Latin as the Neut. of the Pronoun expressing 'the same,' but in O. Ind. Ĭd-ám is the Neut. of the Demonstr. ' this,' much as the Acc. Masc. with the same affix, *im-em, is used in O. Ind. (imam) as the Acc. Masc. 'this.' but was in O. Lat. the equivalent of eundem [Paul. Fest. 54. 2 Th. emem, 'eundem'; Gl. Philox. imeum : tò̀ aủtóv ; cf. Gl. Plac. (h)emdem, 'aeque, similiter'; these readings leave it doubtful whether the word was formed by adding the affix $-e m$ to the Acc. im, or, as seems more likely, by doubling the Acc.]. Priscian (i. 589. 14 H.) derives $\bar{\imath}$-dem from is and dèmum.
The Nom. Masc. is discussed by Cicero in a passage of somewhat uncertain text (Orat. xlvii. 157) : 'idem campus habet' inquit Ennius, et in templis eidem probavit ; at 'isdem' erat verius, nec tamen 'eisdem' ut opimius: male
sonabat ' isdem' ; impetratum est a consuetudine, ut peccare suavitatis causa liceret. He seems to say that $\bar{d} d e m$ [also written with $e i$ for the long $i$-sound (ch. i. § 9) eidem] was the form in use, with $s$ dropped with compensatory lengthening before $d$ (ch. iv. § 15I), but that some purists insisted on the spelling with $s$, isdem or even eisdem. (For examples of these spellings, e.g. eisdem C.I.L. i. 576 ; 577. (2). 9 , 11 , 13 ; 1468 ; 1470, \&c., see Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 390.)

In the Dat. Sg. we have èĩdem and êdem (like ěī and êt, § 19), but êdem is not found. On later inscriptions idem is very frequent (examples in Neue, $\mathrm{ii}^{3}$. p. 390), and even isdem (Neue, l. c.), a confusion with the Nom. Sg., which had the (archaic) spelling isdem, but the pronunciation īdem. In the Nom. and Dat.-Abl. Pl., Priscian (i. 589. 29 H.) seems to distinguish ě̌̀-dem, ềs-dem from iidem (pronounced and usually spelt $\bar{i}$-dem), iisdem (pronounced and usually spelt $\bar{i} s-d e m$ ). (For instances of the spelling $i$-dem and $i s-d e m$, the usual forms, see Neue, l.c.) The eidem of Republican Inscriptions (Neue, l.c.; e. g. C.I. L. i. 197. 17 and i. 202) may represent the pronunciation idem. Like eis, older eeis, as Nom. Plur. of is (§ 19), we find eisdem Nom. Pl. (C. I.L. i. 198. 27 eisdem ioudices; often in the phrase eisdem probauerunt, \&c., e.g. i. 1149; i. 1187; i. 1192 ; cf. i. 1143), and in later inscriptions sometimes isdem (Neue, p. 394). In the Dramatists, \&c. with a long second syllable we find the word pronounced with Synizesis, e. g. eodem, êsdem, \&c. like êo, ề (§ 19). The influence of O-stem Adjectives is seen in the Late Latin forms eodem Dat., euedem Dat. (very rare ; see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.).
§ 22. The Pronominal Gen. and Dat. Sg. In the early Dramatists we find two scansions of illius, istius, ipsius, \&c., ( $\mathbf{I}$ ) illī̆us, istīŭs, ipsīŭs, alterĭŭs, \&c., (2) $\operatorname{illi}(u) s$, istī $(u) s$, ipsī $(u) s$, but not illŭŭs, istǐus, ipsǐ̆s, \&c., as in classical poetry. Examples of the second scansion are : istǐ (u)s modi ( 4 syll.) in Plaut. Most. 746 ; Rud. 321 ; Ter. Heaut. 387 , \&c. Another O. Lat. form of the Gen., fully attested by Priscian (i. 196. 22 H.; i. 226. 16 H. ; i. 266. 3 H. ; i. зоз. ${ }_{21} \mathrm{H}$. ; ii. 8 H. ) is with $-\bar{i}$, illi, isti, ipsi, e.g. illi modi and isti modi (Cato), isti modi Plaut. Truc. 930 (so the MSS.). This cannot be explained as an 0 -stem Adjective formation, for it is found with Fem. Nouns, e.g. toti familiae (Afranius), isti formae (Terence), and a Dat. Masc. like illo, isto is not found till Late Latin. It may be a relic of the Locative form which, as we have seen, was augmented by the Gen. suffix -us (-os) to form these Pronoun Genitives in -ius; but it is also conceivable that it is a doublet which has arisen out of the contracted form $\operatorname{ill} \bar{\imath}(u) s$, isti$(u) s, \& c$. in certain combinations. A word-group like istī(u)s-modi would be pronounced istīmodi, as naturally as O. Lat. dusmus became dümus, or *prismus became primus, or is-dem, ìdem; and a large number of Priscian's examples of this Gen. in $-\bar{\imath}$ show the Pronoun in combination with modus. Similarly ali(u)s-rei would become ati-rei, as dis-rumpo became dirumpo; cf. Priscian's examples, alii rei causa (Caelius), nulli rei (Cato). The byforms illi, null̃, \&c. having been produced in such combinations would push their way into other combinations too, e. g. tam nulli consili (Ter. Andr. 608). They do not however seem to be found before a vowel initial.

The Dative in $-\bar{\imath}$ is, as we have seen, undisturbed by the influence of the 0 -stem Noun declension till Late Latin, e.g. illo, isto, ipso (Apuleius). But a Dat. Fem.in-ae, attested for O. Lat. by Priscian (i. 197. 12 H.; i. 226. 18 H.), is not unknown in early authors, e. g. illae rei, Cato (R. R. 153 and 154). (For a list of examples of these Gen. and Dat. forms, with references to the passages of
grammarians dealing with them, and for a fuller discussion of the whole subject, see Luchs in Studemund's Studien, i. pp. 3 I9 sqq.)
§ 23. IV. RELATIVE, INDEFINITE, AND INTERROGATIVE PRONOUNS. The I.-Eur. Relative-stem ${ }^{*}$ yo- (O. Ind. yás, Gk. ös) does not supply the Latin Relative, which shows the stem ${ }^{*} q^{\underline{u}}{ }^{0}-$, a stem originally proper (with ${ }^{*} q^{u}{ }^{u}{ }^{u}$, ${ }^{*} q^{u}{ }^{u} u-$ ) to the Interrogative and Indefinite Pronouns (O. Ind. kás, kú-tra, ' where ?,' Gk. $\tau i s, ~ \pi o \hat{v}, ~ O . ~ I r . ~ c i a, ~ W . ~ p w y, ~ G o t h . ~ h v a s, ~ E n g l . ~ w h o ~ ?, ~$ Lith. kàs, O. Sl. kŭ-to ; O. Ind. cit Neut., Gk. $\tau \iota$, \&c.), but used also as a Relative (Engl. who, \&c.). I.-Eur. ${ }^{*} q^{n} 0-$, ${ }^{*} q^{u}{ }^{u} i-,{ }^{*} q^{\text {u }}{ }^{u} u-$ appear in the Latin quis?, si-quis, qui?, ali-cubi, \&c. (UmbroOscan pis, Osc. píd Neut.). We may roughly distinguish qui as the Relative, quis as the Interrogative and Indefinite Pronoun, though the stems frequently overlap, e.g. in the Latin of Cato and the earliest inscriptions ques is the Nom. Pl. of the Indefinite, $q u \bar{\imath}$ (quei) of the Relative; but in class. Lat. both are qui. In the Italic languages (as in Celtic and elsewhere) a curious declension of the Relative (and Interrogative) was in vogue, a case-form of the Relative-stem being prefixed to a Demonstrative, like modern Gk. $\pi o \hat{v}$ тóv for őv in such a sentence as
 Thus an Abl. Sg. Fem. of the Relative is in Oscan púllad, which is compounded of the Relative-stem po- (Lat. quo-) (either the bare stem or a case-form) and *ullad (Lat. *olläd), the Abl. Sg. Fem. of the Demonstrative ollo- ; another is poizad, a similar compound with the Abl. Sg. Fem. of the Demonstrative eiso-. The old spelling of the Dat. Sg. of Lat. qui, viz. quoiei, shows it to be a compound of this kind, having for its second element the Dat. Sg. of is (O. Lat. eiei), *quö-eiei ; and Gen. Sg. quoius (class. cujus) will consequently represent *quo-eius. Whether this method of declension was used in other cases in Latin does not appear. Another feature of the Italic Relative is its tendency to append the Pronominal particle i (cf. Gk. ovitos-í), e.g. Umbr. poi Nom. Sg. M., porsi (*pođi) N.; Lat. quī for *q" ${ }^{\text {w }} \mathbf{o - i}$ (O. Lat. quoi).

The Latin Interrogative-Relative has a Possessive cujus -a -um, older quoius - $a-u m$, which is very frequent in Plautus and Terence, and is found in Republican inscriptions (e.g. in the

Lex Repetundarum, i. ${ }^{\text {'198. 5, 10, } 29 \text { quoium nomen and quoiaue }}$ in fide), in Cicero (e.g. Verr. II. i. 54.142 cuja res), and Virgil ( L. iii. I cujum pecus). Virgil's use of the word was objected to by purists, apparently through an idea that cujus -a -um was a vulgar inflexion of the Gen. Sg. of the Pronoun, an idea which the occurrence of the word in Cicero and in State inscriptions disproves ( $\S_{11}$ ). It is rather formed by means of the
 meus (stem $*_{\text {me-yo-) }}$ from the stem $*_{\text {me- }}(\S$ I). It is not till Late Latin that we find the particle -ce added to the RelativeInterrogative Pronoun in cujuscemodi (Apuleius, \&c.), a word coined after the type of hujuscemorli.
§ 24. Stems $q^{n i}$ - and $q^{n} 0$-. In O. Lat. there is a usage of quis, possibly as a Relative, but rather in the sense of siquis or quicunque; e. g. in an old treaty quoted by Festus to illustrate 0 . Lat nancitor for nanciscitur (170. 25 Th .): pecuniam quis nancitor, habeto; in an old plebiscitum (Fest. 322. II Th.) : eum quis uolet magistratus multare, dum minore parti familias taxat, liceto ; on a public notice affixed to a grove at Luceria (C. I. L. ix. 782) : quis uolet (other examples from Cato and from Cicero's laws are given by Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 430, e. g. Cato, R. R. 147 dominus uino quid uolet faciet. Cf. O. Lat. necumquem explained by ' nec umquam quemquam' (Fest. 162. 22 Th.; Paul. Fest. 163. 12 Th.). (So Umbr. pisest totar Tarsinater 'quisquis est civitatis Tadinatis,' Osc. pis hafiest 'qui habebit'). In the Dramatists quis is the Fem. of the Interrogative, quat of the Relative (cf. Prisc. ii. 8. 2r H. quis etiam communis esse generis putaverunt vetustissimi, sicut apud Graecos rís). e. g. Plaut. Pers. 200 quis haec est, quae me aduorsum incedit? (other examples in Neue, p. 44r), but the distinction of qui Adj., and quis Pron. in questions, e.g. qui homo venit? and quis renit? is hardly observed, the habit of Plautus being rather to use quis before a vowel, qui before a cons. (see Neue, p. 43I, and B. P. W. xiii. 278 ; similarly Cornificius seems to write siqui before an initial $s$, otherwise siquis, e.g. siqui suadebit, iii. 5. 8). The I-declension form of the 'Abl.' Sg. qui, e. g. quicum, is Relative as well as Interrogative and Indefinite ; e. g. Ter. Ad. 477 psaltriam parauit, quicum uiuat ; C.I. L. i. 200 queiue ab eorum quei emit (see Neue, pp. 455 sqq.). But the Nom. Plur. ques, attested by Charisius (9r. 16 K . ut duces, ducibus, mores, moribus, et 'ques,' quibus; 158.21 veteres nominativum pluralem ' $q u e s$ ' dixerunt regulam secuti, unde etiam dativus mansit in consuetudine), Festus (348. 23 Th.), Priscian (ii. 9.13 H. ) \&c., seems to have been confined to the Interrogative and Indefinite use. Thus Cato began his Origines with the words: siques homines sunt, quos delectat populi Romani gesta describere ; on the S. C. Bacch. (C. I.L. i. 196) we have: sei ques esent, quei sibei deicerent necesus ese Bacanal habere, 'siqui essent, qui sibi dicerent necesse esse Bacchanal habere'; and a line of Pacuvius (Trag. 22 r R.) runs :
ques sủnt? ignoti, néscioques ignóbiles;
(other examples in Neue, p. 466).

The I-declension Neuter quia survives only as an Adverb or Conjunction, e.g. O. Lat. quianam, 'why ?,' like quidnam ; the Gen. quium can hardly be ascribed to Cato on the mere testimony of Servius (ad A. i. 95 : denique Cato in Originibus ait: si ques sunt populi. Et declinavit 'ques,' 'quium' ut ' puppes,' 'puppium'), for this remark only implies that Cato's ques was an I-stem formation. The I-stem Dat. quibus supplanted the $\mathbf{O}$-stem quiss (older queis) in the Relative, though the 0 -stem form is by no means uncommon (see a long list of instances in Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 469, e. g. Plaut. Most. 1040 :
quis méd exemplis hódie eludificátus est).
§ 25. Case-forms. The original Nom. Sg. Masc. of the Relative quo-i (stem quŏ- with affix-i of Gk. oivoo-it, \&c.) [Osc. púi(?), Umbr. poi; the Umbr. shows this affix also in Nom. Pl. Masc. pur-i, Acc. Pl. Fem. paf-e, \&c.] is probably intended by the spelling qoi of the very ancient Dvenos inscription [Zvet. I.I. I. 285 qoi med mitat, 'qui me mittat (mittet)].' The weakened form quei, due to the unaccented use of the Relative (ch. iii. § 18 ), is common on inscriptions of the Republic, from the Scipio epitaph (in Saturnians) of c. 200 в. c. (C.I. L. i. 30) :

> cónsol cénsor aidílis queí fuit apúd uos,
to the Lex Julia Municipalis of 45 в. c. (i. 206), which has quei far more frequently than qui; also in the MSS. of Plautus, \&c. (see instances in Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.). The Fem. of the Indefinite Pronoun in its Adjectival use followed the Adjective Declension in taking usually the suffix $-a$ in class. Latin, e. g. siqua causa est (but seiquae causa erit on the Lex Repetundarum, C.I. L. i. 198. 37 ; si quae lex on the Lex Agraria, i. 200. 4 r ; and in Plautus numquae causast quin, \&c. ; see Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 445). Gen. Sg. quoius appears in the Saturnian Scipio epitaph of c. 200 b.c. (C.I. L. i. 30 ):

> quoíus fórma uirtútei parísuma fúit,
in the Lex Repetundarum (i. 198), and other inscriptions, and in the MSS. of Plautus, Varro, \&c. (see Georges, s. v. ; Neue, p. 450). When the oi sank to $u$. the $q u$ by a law of Latin phonetics became $c$ (ch. iv. § 137); hence cujus (pronounced cŭy-yus, ch. ii. §55), a pronunciation indicated by spellings like cuiius, cuilus (Neue, p. 451). (On monosyllabic quoi( $u$,s in quoi(u)smodi, \&c., in the Dramatists, and quoi in quoiquoimodi, cuicuimodi in Cic., \&c., see § 22). The oldest form preserved of the Dative is quoiei of a Scipio epitaph of c. 1зо в. с. (C.I. L. i. 34) in a Saturnian line referring to the short life of the deceased :
quoíei uíta defécit nón honos honóre,
in the Lex Repetundarum of 123-122 в. c. (i. 198. ro, usually quoi), and in the Lex Agraria of in в.c. (i. 200. 68, usually quoi; cf. quoieique, 11. 3. 6. 32.45. 99) ; though the dissyllabic Dative seems not to occur in Plautus (it is read by some editors in Trin. 358.558 , \&c. ; see Brix ad locc.), and so cannot have been used in the ordinary conversation of his time. The common form in use on Republican inscriptions is quoi (see Index to C. I. L. i.) ; the Lex Julia Municipalis, for example, of 45 b.c. (i. 206) has always quoi, never cui, as it has always quoius, never cujus, and always, except in two instances, quei for qui (so quoi in the Comm. Lud. Saec. of Augustus' reign). And Quintilian (i. 7.
27) tells us that in his youth quoi was the spelling. [Cf. Velius Longus (first cent. A. D.), p. 76. 3 K . itaque audimus quosdam plena oi syllaba dicere 'quoi' et 'hoic' pro cui et huic.] In late poetry cui is a dissyllable, cŭй, a scansion which is found as early as Seneca, Juvenal, and Martial, e. g. Mart. i. 104. 22 sed norunt cui serviant leones (examples in Neue, p. 454). Acc. quem has -em for -im (Osc. pim) by analogy of Noun I-stems which usually substituted the Cons.-stem -em for the I-stem -im, e. g. turrem (ch. vi. § 29). As to the Abl. Sg. we have not sufficient means of deciding, owing to the absence of sufficiently old inscriptions, whether and in what uses qui, O. Lat. for quo, was an Abl. (from *quīd), a Locative (from *quei), or even an Instrumental (from *quī). But the spelling quiquam ('in any way') on the S. C. Bacch. (1. 12), an inscr. on which original $i$ and original $e i$ seem to be kept distinct, goes against the Locative theory, unless indeed it is a mere mistake for quisquam (see § 28). The spelling quei on the Lex Agraria of ini B. c. (C.I. L. i. 200. 17 queiue ab eorum quei emit) merely expresses the sound $q u \bar{u}$ (see ch. i. § 9). This $q u \bar{i}$, byform of $q u \bar{o}, q u \bar{u}$, occurs in Virgil (A. xi. 822) :

Accam ex aequalibus unam, quicum partiri curas.
It was not in living use in the time of Servius (fourth cent. A. d.) (in Donat. p. 4 ri. i K. nam dicimus 'a quo' venisti et 'a qui' venisti; sed 'a qui' in usu esse desiit). Already in Terence quicum is not so frequent as in Plautus. In the early authors qui is used : ( $\mathbf{I}$ ) as an ordinary Abl., e. g. Plaut. Capt. 828 qui hómine nemo uíuit fortunátior ; Bacch. 335 sed quí praesente id aúrum Theotimó datumst?; but especially (2) as an Abl. of the instrument, e.g. Plaut Men. 39 r quis istést Peniculus? qui éxtergentur báxeae?, 'what Mr. Brush do you mean? one to clean shoes with ?' ; Varro, R. R. ii. praef. 3 frumentum qui saturi fiamus. In this capacity it passes into a mere Adverb like $u t$, and is used even with a plural noun, e. g. Plaut. Stich. 292 quadrigas qui uehar ; Pseud. 487 (uiginti minas) quas meo gnato des, qui amicam liberet ; (3) as an Adverb with the sense of quomodo; e. g. qui fit ut ?, a phrase in common use in classical Latin; Ter. Adelph. 215 qui potui melius? ; (4) as an enclitic Particle, e. g hercle qui, edepol qui, utinam qui (Plaut.), a usage surviving in classical at-qui. (For a fuller list of examples, see Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. pp. 455 sqq. ; cf. below, ch. x. § 5.) The Nom. Pl. Masc. is written quei on Republican inscriptions (see Index to C.I. L. i.), this being the weakening of an original *quoi, due to the unaccented nature of the Relative (ch. iii. § $12 a .5$ ), e. g. i. ig6 sei ques esent, quei sibei deicerent necesus ese Bacanal habere. (On ques Nom. Pl. of quis in O. Lat., and on queis and quīs, Dat.-Abl. Plur., from *quois, see above, § 24.)
§ 26. The stem $q^{n} u$-. Corresponding to Umbr. pu-fe, Osc. pu-f, 'where' (O. Ind. kúha, O. Sl. kŭde, from I.-Eur. *qưudh-), is Lat. -cŭbŭ of ălü-cubi, 'somewhere,' sī-cubi, 'if anywhere,' nē-cubi, num-cubi, \&c., with cu-instead of quuby the same phonetic law of the Latin language that has made quincu-plex out of *quinquu-plex (ch. iv. § 137) (cf. Vulg. Lat. nescio-cube, Probi App. 199. 16 K.), and clearly connected with the Interrogative, Indefinite, and Relative Pro-noun-root (see ch. x. § I, on the existence of parallel stems of Pronouns in -o, $-\mathrm{i},-\mathrm{u})$. But apart from compounds the Latin Adverb is ubi. Similarly the -cunde of ăli-cunde (aliquonde is written in Plaut. Pseud. 317 in the Ambr. Palimps.; so Caesellius ap. Cassiod. 202. 28 K . aliquonde per quon debet scribi), si-
cunde, nē-cunde, wants initial $c$ - in the simple form -unde. According to Schmidt (K. Z. xxxii. 405) this Latin initial $u$-, internal $c u$-, represents I.-Eur. ${ }^{*} q^{n} u$-, a parallel stem of $q^{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{O}-, q^{\mathrm{ni}}$ - (cf. § 23). (For another possible explanation of this loss of the initial guttural, see Brugm. Grundr. i. § 43 I c.) The Latin Interrogative and Indefinite Pronoun üter, 'whether of two' (on the suffix -tero-, see ch. v. § 18) shows a similar relation to O. Ind. kútra, 'whither' (stem *quatro-, *kutro-), Osc. potro-, ' whether of two' (stem *quotro- or *kwotero-; both derivatives of a stem *que-t(e)ro- or *kwe-t(e)ro- ?). (On other Latin Adverbs beginning with $u$-, derived from the Interrogative root, and wanting an initial guttural, see ch. ix. § ro.) Ritschl's proposal [based on Trin. 934, where there is a manuscript corruption cubitus for ubi tus (gignitur)] to read cubi, \&c., in some passages of Plautus, has not met with approval (Opusc. iii. 135).
§ 27. The Possessive cujus. The case most frequently in use in Plautus and Terence is the Nom. Sg. Fem., e. g. Plaut. Trin. 45 quoia hic uox prope me sonat? ; cf. Cic. Verr. II. iii. 7. i6 ne is redimeret, cuja res esset; ib. 27. 68 Apronius certiorem facit istum, cuja res erat. The Plural is very rare, Plaut. Rud. 745 :
árgentum ego pro istísce ambabus quoíae erant dominó dedi,
Trin. 533, with quoium for cujorum, Gen. Pl. (?) (cuium A, quoium B ; some read (чиorum):
necúnquam quisquamst, quoíus ille agér fuit, quin péssume ei res uórterit, quoiúm fuit, alii éxolatum abiérunt, alii emórtui.

With the suffix -äti-, denoting the country of one’s birth (ch. v. § 45), we have cujajs, O. Lat. quoiatis, 'what countryman?' 'belonging to what country?'
§ 28. Other derivatives. Ălu-quis, some one, is a compound of the stem ali-, some (connected with allio-, other) ${ }^{1}$ and the Indefinite Pronoun, like alicubi, somewhere, ali-cunde, \&c. An O. Lat. Nom. Pl. aliques is mentioned by Charisius ( 159.7 K. ). Ec-quis has been explained as nothing else than et quis, with $c$ for $t$ by the same phonetic law as reduced *sit-cus (cf. sitis) to sic-cus (ch. iv. § 159), but it is more likely to come from the pronominal stem ĕ- (used as a prefix in e-nos, Umbro-Osc. e-tanto-, \&c.) with the appended particle -ce (without this appendage in e-quidem, ch. $\mathbf{x}$. § 6, and in $\check{e}$-quis, a byform of ec-quis, in Plaut.). The Neut. ecquid in Plautus often sinks into a mere conjunction, e. g. ecquid placent? Most. go6, \&c.

Quīlam for *quis-dam (like $\overline{\text { indem }}$ for $i s$-dem, § 21) appends the particle -dam to the Indefinite Pronoun. The Nom. Plur. Masc. is not found in Plautus, and scarcely indeed in any of the older authors. We have quesdam Acc. Pl. in Accius, Trag. 477 R. Quēvis (cf. Umbr. pis-her from the verb heri-, 'to wish') may stand for *quuss-vis, ' any you please,' 'whosoever you please' (cf. O. Lat. quis nancitor, 'whosoever obtains,' § 24), with the same loss of $s$ before initial $v$ in a Compound as dīvello for *lǔs-vello (ch. iv. § 15r), and quïlubet, for *quis-lubet, like diligo for *dǐsligo (ib.), as well as for quï-ris, quī-lubet. The I-declension Abl. quīuis appears in Plaut. Stich. 627 : quícumuis depúgno multo fácilius

[^89]quam cúm fame. Quī-cum-que, O. Lat. quei-quom-que (C. I. L. i. 197. 5 ; 200. 50 ; 202, \&c.), had probably a byform *quis-quom-que, to judge from Nom. Pl. quescumque n Cato (Orig. ii. fr. 34 J . quescumque Romae regnauissent). The latter part of the word is probably the Adverb quum (O. Lat. quom), when, with the enclitic particle -que, so that -cumque means literally 'whenever' (see ch. ix. § 1о. 7). In O. Lat. quisque is used in the sense of quicunque, e.g. quemque offendero, Plaut. Capt. 798, the particle -que (O. Ind. ca in kaš'ca, 'whoever,' \&c., Hom. Gk. $\tau \epsilon$ in ós $\tau \epsilon$, Goth. -h in hvō-h) giving to a word the sense of our 'ever' in 'whoever,' 'whenever,' \&c. (see ch. x. § 2) ; but has in classical Latin the sense of 'each.' It is fem. as well as masc. in O. Lat., e.g. Ter. Hec. 216 quisque uostrarum ; so quemque Acc. Sg. F. in Plaut. Pseud. 185. Another expression for 'whosoever' is quisquis (Osc. pispis, of which the Neut. pitpit is mentioned by Paul. Fest. 263.8 Th .), (rioris occurs in an Old Gk. inscr., Mon. Antichi i. 3. p. 594), a doubling of the Indefinite Pronoun ${ }^{1}$. We have quisquis Fem. in O. Latin, e. g. Plaut. Cist. 6io mulier quisquis es (cf. Nonius, $197.3 \circ \mathrm{M}$.$) . The Neuter quicquid, a byform of quidquid, shows the same$ assimilation of $d(t)$ before a guttural as accurro for adcurro (ch.iv. § 160). The shortened form of the Gen. Sg. of quis, current in ordinary pronunciation when not specially emphasized, viz. quoi(u)s, cui(u)s, (§ 22), appears without its final $s$ in Cicero's cuicuimodi; and the I-stem Ablative quiqui occurs more than once in Plautus in the phrase cum eo, cum quiqui, anyhow, at any cost, lit. ' with that thing or with whatsoever thing' (Poen. 536. 588). A curious passage, Cas. 523 :
séd facito dum, mérula per uorsús quod cantat, tú colas : ' cúm cibo, cum quíqui' facito ut uéniant,
suggests that Roman children interpreted the alarm-note of the blackbird into the words : cum cibo, cum quiqui, sc. veni, 'come along! food or no food.' (Cluss. Rev. vi. 124.) Quis prefixed to the Adverb quam, quis-quam had the sense of ' any,' and was used especially in negative sentences. Examples of its use as Fem. in O. Lat. are Ter. Eun. 678 nostrarum numquam quisquam uidit ; Plaut. Rud. 406 :
neque dígniorem cénseo uidísse anum me quémquam,
and of the I-declension Abl., Plaut. Pers. 477 nec satis a quiquam homine accepi [see § 25 on qui-quam Adv., 'anyhow' (?), of S. C. Bacch.: neue pro magistratud neque uirum neque mulierem quiquam fecise uelet, like nēqṻ-quam, in vain, lit. 'not anyhow,' always so spelt in the Ambrosian Palimpsest of Plautus'. Another compound of the Indefinite Pronoun, quis-piam, some, the formation of which was obscure to the Roman grammarians (Festus 338. 28 Th. 'quispiam' quin significet aliquis, et 'quaepiam ' aliquae, similiterque alia ejusdem generis, ut dubium non est, ita unde sequens pars ejus coeperit, inveniri non potest), may be a compound of *quis-pe, of which quippe for *quïpe is an Adverbial case-form (ch. x. § 7), with jam, as nunciam of nunc with jam (ch. iv. § 67). Corresponding to -quam, -piam of Lat. quisquam, quispiam is Oscan -um of píd-um 'quidquam,' pieis-um 'cujuspiam.'

[^90]§ 29．V．THE PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES．These are ：
（I）ălius，I．－Eur．＊ălyo－（Arm．ail，Gk．ä入入os，O．Ir．aile， Goth．aljis，Engl．else），Osc．allo－（on the Bantine Tablet），with a byform alis in the Nom．Sg．Masc．（e．g．Catull．lxvi．28），alid in the Nom．Sg．Neut．（e．g．Lucr．i．263）．These byforms， which are to be compared with Cornelis，\＆c．for Cornēlius（see ch．vi．§5），come into special use in the phrase alis alium（e．g． ad alis alium and cum alis alio in the Vulgate，alis alium，C．I．L． ii． 2633.7 ），probably owing to the fact that the stress of the voice in this word－group fell on the antepenultimate syllable（see ch．iii．§ 12 ）．The deriv．Adj．alienus is for＊ali－inno－（ch．iv．§ I2）．
（2）alter is formed from the root al－（ $a \mathrm{l}-$ ？ ），seen in＊alyo－，by the addition of the suffix－tero－（ch．v．$\S 18$ ），（Osc．alttro－）， while other I．－Eur．languages show a similar formation from the root an－，seen in O．Ind．anyá－＇alius＇（O．Ind．ántara－， Goth．an－par，O．Engl．ōper，Germ．ander，Lith．àn－tras）．It is often used as an Ordinal Numeral，＇second．＇A stem altro－ appears in altrin－secus，altro－vorsum（Plaut．Cas．555）and other words（cf．Gk．à入入ótpıos），but in lines like Plaut．Bacch．in 84 alterum，\＆c．need not be changed into altrum，\＆c．，but may be scanned as dactyls，altérüm，\＆c．（see Klotz，Altrön．Metrik，p．59）； even in Pers． 226 altra is not certain．
（3）üllus is formed by the LO－suffix（ch．v．§ 2 I ）from $\bar{u} n u s$ （see ch．iii．$\S 15.5$ ），which also belongs to the Pronominal Declen－ sion，Gen．unius，Dat．uni．（With quisque appended we have the word－group or compound unus－quisque．）The opposite of ullus is uйllus with the negative prefix nĕ－of $n$－usquam，n（e）－utiquam （pronounced with both first and second syllable short）and the like（ch．ii．§ 149）；and＊ne－ullus，＇not a little one，＇＇not even one，＇was probably anterior in formation to ullus，in which the force of the Diminutive suffix is not so apparent．Like nullus， but used properly of persons，while nullus was used normally of things，is nēmo from nĕ－liemo．（On hemo，a byform of homo， see ch．vi．§ 1．）Nullus is hardly used as a substantive till Late Latin，but nullius and nullo take the place of neminis and nemine in class．Latin．As the Neuter of nullus，nihil is used，a com－ pound of the negative $n \breve{e}$－and hīlum（see ch．iii．§ $5^{2}$ ；ch．vi．§ II）．
（4）sollus may be connected with the Adverb $s \bar{e}-$ ，sēl－，apart G $\mathbf{g}^{-}$
(e. g. sēd-itio, lit. ' a going apart')(ch. ix. § 51 ), and be formed of $s \bar{o}-$, a grade of $s \bar{e}$ - (ch. iv. § 53 ), with the suffix -lo. Some refer the word to the stem sollo- of Osc. sollo-, ' whole,' Lat. soll-ers, soll-emnis, but the connexion of theideas 'alone' and 'whole' or 'all' is not apparent.
(5) tōtus is another word of uncertain etymology. Some connect it with the Umbro-Oscan word for a community, state or people, *teutā- (Osc. tovtā-, Umbr. totā-), and suppose the Latin word to exhibit another grade of the root,perhaps*touto-(see ch. iv. §41). The word encroached on the sphere of omnis, and finally supplanted omnis in Vulgar Latin. Of the Romance languages Italian is the only one which preserves Lat. omnis(Ital.ogni) beside Lat. tōtus (Ital. tutto; on this form, see ch. ii. § 130 . p. 116 ).
(6) $\breve{u} t e r$ is one of those Latin Relative (Interrog., Indef.) forms beginning with $u$ - like $\breve{u} b i$, $\breve{u} t$ which are discussed in § 26. With the addition of -que, 'ever' (see on quis-que, § 28), it becomes uter-que. The Umbro-Oscan stem is *potro- (Osc. pútúrús-píd Nom. Pl. 'utrique,' pútereí-píd Loc. Sg.; Umbr. sei-podrulh-pei 'utroque' Adv. is a formation like sed-utraque Nom. Sg. Fem., 'each separately,' Plaut. Stich. 106). The opposite of uter is neuter, a trisyllable (ch. ii. § 32), with the negative prefix. Alter-uter is a compound of alter and uter, sometimes with both elements declined, sometimes with the second only (cf. $\S 20$ on ipse, Fem. ea-psa, ea-pse and i-psa). A form altertra for alterutra is mentioned by Paul. Fest. 6. 2 Th.

All of these take the pronominal Gen. and Dat. Sg. in -ius, and $-i$, but only alius takes the Neut. Sg. (Nom.-Acc.) in - d. Still they admitted more readily than ille, iste and the other Demonstrative Pronouns the Noun Declension forms in these cases ; e.g. unae rei (Gen.), Cic. Tull. xv. 36; tam nulli consili,Ter. Andr. 608 ; coloris ulli, Plaut. Itruc. 293 ; allerae legioni, Caes. Bell. Gall. v. 27.5 (see Priscian, i. 196. 18 H. and Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. pp. $5^{16}$ sqq.). For the Gen. Sing. of alius the Romans discarded alŭus, which was liable to confusion with the Nom., and used the Gen. Sing. of alter instead, alterīus (in dactylic poetry, of course, only alterius is admissible, but alterius occurs in other metres, e.g. Ter. Andr. 628, Seneca, Herc. Fur. 212 ).

There are other Adjectives called 'Pronominal' Adjectives, which are derived from Pronoun-stems, but which do not share
the Pronominal Declension. From the stem to- (te-) comes Lat. tālis (I.-Eur. *tāli- of Gk $\tau \eta \lambda i$ í-коs ; cf. O. Sl. toľ̆ Adv., 'so very,' toli-kŭ Adj., 'so great'), tan-tus (Osc. e-tanto-, e. g. molto etanto estud ' multa tanta esto'; Umbr. e-tanto-, e.g. etantu mutu ađferture si 'tanta multa affertori sit') (tantisce pro tantis C. G. L. v. I55. 36), tŏt, older totĭ-, preserved in tottŭ-dem (I.-Eur. *tŏtĭ,
 (e. g. Manil. iii. 420 detrahitur summae tota pars, quota demitur). From the Relative (Interrog., Indef.) stem comes Lat. quälis (Gk. $\pi \eta \lambda i$-кos ; cf. O. Sl. kolĭ, koli-kŭ), quantus (Umbr. panto-), quŏt, older quoť̆ (I.-Eur. *qư̆tĭ, O. Ind. káti ; cf. Gk. $\pi o ́ \sigma(\sigma)$ os for ${ }^{*}$ morios), and (with O-suffix) quŏtus (e.g. Hor. tu quotus esse velis rescribe). (On cotti-die, see ch. ix. § 5.) The Late Latin use of tanti, quanti for tot, quot (e.g. Tertull. nec tamen tantos inveniunt verba discipulos, quantos Christiani factis docendo), survives in Romance, e. g. Ital. quanti anni ha ?, 'quantos annos habet ?', 'how old is he?' (On cē-teri, see ch. iv. § 33.)

A Dual, like the Numeral duo (ch. vi.§59), is ambō -ae - $\bar{o}$ (I.-Eur. *ambhō(u), Gk. ä $\mu \phi \omega)$, Gen. $a^{m b o ̄ r u m, ~ \& c ., ~ D a t . ~ a m b o ̄ b u s, ~}$ \&c., Acc. ambōs and amlō -as - $\bar{o}$; in the Acc. the older ambō was being ousted by ambōs even in Plautus' time, for he uses ambos always before an initial consonant, and ambō with ambos before an initial vowel as the metre requires, while in Late Lat. we have ambis for the Dat.-Abl. Plur. e. g. Eph. Epigr. iv. p. 49 I (cf. Caper 107. 14 K. ambobus, non 'ambis,' et ambabus; and see Neue, ii'. p. 279).

The Pronominal Declension has in some languages (e.g. Lithuanian and the Teutonic languages) extended itself from these Pronominal Adjectives to all Adjectives ${ }^{1}$. What is called in Teutonic the 'Strong Declension ' of Adjectives, in Lithuanian the ' Indefinite' is really the Pronominal, e. g. Goth. blinds with Neut. blindata, ' blind,' like Neut. pata, ' that.' In Greek, on the other hand, the Pronominal Declension has lost ground, and that is why in Greek the declension of the Pronouns does not appear so unlike the declension of the Nouns as in Latin.

[^91]§ 30. The Pronouns in Romance. The development in the Romance languages of two series of the Personal and Possessive Pronouns, (a) the enclitic, e.g. Fr. me, te, mon, ton, (b) the accented, e. g. Fr. moi, toi, mien, tien, has been already mentioned (ch. iii. § $12 a, 3$, and above, § 12 ). In Vulgar Latin ego became eo, whence the Romance forms, e. g. Ital. io, Span. yo, Sard. eo, O. Fr. eo, io, eu, jo, now je. Spanish nosotros ' we,' vosotros ' you ' represent nos alteros, vos alteros (cf. Fr. nous autres, \&c.). The 2 Pl . Possessive remained voster in Vulg. Lat., whence Ital. vostro, Fr. vôtre, Span. vuestro, \&c., while two rival forms competed for the 3 Pl. Possessive, suus (Span., Port.) and illorum (Ital. loro, Fr. leur).

The Demonstratives ille, ipse (which takes the place of ille in Sard. as 3 Sg. Pron. and Article, isse and issu, ' he'), iste had in Vulg. Lat. $\bar{\imath}^{i}$ in Nom. Sg., -ui in Dat. Sg. Masc., -aei in Dat. Sg. Fem., e. g. illi (Ital. egli, Fr. il), illui (C. I. L. x. 2654 ; Ital. lui, Fr. lui), illaei (Ital. lei, O. Fr. li). Their extension by the prefix ecce has been noticed in § 15 , e. g. Fr. celle from ecce-illa. Used enclitically, ille has lost its first syllable in Romance, e. g. Ital. gli (from illi), lo (from illum), Span. le, Sard. li. The Definite Article in most Romance countries was supplied by ille . (but by ipse in Sardinia and elsewhere), which in Roumanian is postfixed (e.g. domnu-l for dominus ille), and in all languages is united with a Preposition into one word, e.g. with the Preposition ad in Ital. al, Fr. au, \&c. Hic survived only in word-groups, e.g. Ital. ciò from ecce hoc.

Of the Indefinite, Interrogative and Relative Pronouns quae and quis seem to have been ousted in Vulg. Lat. by qui; quid is Ital. che, and (accented) Fr. quoi, (unaccented) Fr. que.

For the Pronoun of Identity (ipse had become a Demonstrative) various phrases were used; e.g. Ital. medesimo, Prov. medesme, Fr. même, Span. mismo are from met ipsimus; Ital. desso from id ipsum (or ad ipsum ?) ; Ital. stesso is a compound of iste and ipse.

Alius survived in a Neuter form *alum, whence O. Fr. el and al, O. Span. al, alter having taken its place (Ital. altro, Fr. autre, Span. otro). Certus (and certänus) replaced quidam. Ăそ̆quis was joined with $\bar{u} n u s$ into a Compound *alicunus, whence Ital. alcuno, Fr. aucun, Span. alguno. (See Meyer-Lübke Rom. Gram. ii. pp. 89 sqq., 595 sqq.).

## CHAPTER VIII.

## THE VERB.

§ 1. I. THE CONJUGATIONS. The I.-Eur. Verb had two Conjugations, (I) the Thematic, in which the Person-suffixes were attached to the verb-root augmented by -ě- or -ǒ-, e. g. Gk. $\phi \epsilon ́ \rho-$ $0-\mu \epsilon \nu$, $\phi \epsilon \rho-\epsilon-\tau \epsilon$; (2) the Athematic, in which this vowel, the
 ${ }^{\prime}$ ' $\sigma \tau$ ă- $\tau \epsilon$. In the Thematic Conjugation the 1 Sg. Pres. Ind. Act had -ō, e. g. $\phi \epsilon \in \rho-\omega$, Lat. leg- $\bar{o}$; the Subjunctive changed the Thematic Vowel of the Indicative to -ē- (and -ō-), e. g. Gk. $\phi \epsilon \quad \rho-\eta-\tau \epsilon$ $(\phi \epsilon \rho-\omega-\mu \epsilon \nu)$; the Optative changed it to -oi-, e. g. Gk. $\phi \epsilon \in-o \iota-\mu \epsilon \nu$, $\phi \epsilon \rho-o \iota-\tau \epsilon$. In the Athematic Conjugation the I Sg. Pres. Ind. Act. had -mı̆, e.g. Gk. í $\sigma \tau \eta-\mu \iota$; the verb-stem was weakened in the Dual and Plural Act. and in all Numbers of the Middle, e.g. Gk. í $\sigma \tau \check{a}-\tau o \nu$, í $\sigma \tau a ̆-\mu \in \nu$, ì $\sigma \tau \alpha \check{\alpha}-\mu a \iota$ beside Sg. i $\sigma \tau \eta-$; the Subjunctive (with strong stem) showed -ě- or -ŏ- between the root and the Person-suffixes, and the Optative (with weak stem) -yē- in Sg. Act., -ī- elsewhere, e. g. Gk. $i \sigma \tau \breve{\alpha}-i \eta-\nu$, $i \sigma \tau \breve{\alpha}-\tau-\mu \in \nu$ ( $i \sigma \tau \alpha \hat{\mu} \mu \epsilon \nu)$.

We find early Derivative Verbs like I.-Eur, tr-ā- from the root ter-, pl-ē- from the root pel- (Lat. in-trā-re, im-plē-re), and later Derivatives from Nouns, e.g. Lat. curā-re from the Noun-stem curā-, forming the persons of their Present Tense sometimes thematically with the suffix -yŏ- (§ 15 ), sometimes athematically, e. g. O. Ind. trắ-yă-tē and trā-ti 3 Sg . The long vowel, with which these derivative verb-stems end, is not weakened in the Dual and Plur. Act., nor in the Middle, e. g. O. Ind. trấ-sva 2 Sg. Imperat. Mid.

In Latin almost every athematic verb becomes thematic in ${ }_{1}$ Sg. Pres. Ind., and usually in 3 Pl.; and the declension of the Pres. Ind. often shows thematic and athematic forms side by side. Thus I.-Eur. *ei-mĭ, ‘I go ’ (O. Ind. é-mi i Sg., ĭ-más I Pl., Gk. $\epsilon i \bar{i}-\mu \iota$ I Sg., $t-\mu \in \nu$ I Pl., Lith. ei-mì) is in Latin eo for *ĕy- $\overline{\text { on }}$, a thematic form, though other Persons, e.g. 2 Sg. $\bar{i}-\delta$, older $e i-s$ (*ei-s(̌))), are athematic ; I.-Eur. *wěl-mĭ, 'I wish' (Lith. pavelmi i Sg., pa-velt 3 Sg.) is in Latin thematic in 1 Sg. wăl-ō, but athematic in 3 Sg. vul-t. The Latin Substantive Verb sum has best retained the features of the Athematic Conjugation, with its I Sg. Ind. in - $m$, its Opt. originally declined $s-i \bar{e}-m$, $s-i \bar{e}-s$, $s-i \bar{e}-t, *_{s-\bar{\imath}-m o s,} *_{s i \overline{-}-t e s, \text { and so on. }}$

The four Conjugations of our Latin Grammars, (1) amā-re, \&c., (2) vidē-re, \&c., (3) legĕ-re, \&c., (4) aud̄̄̄-re, \&c. are, like the five Declensions (ch. vi. § I), an unscientific classification, often bringing forms together which were of dissimilar origin, just as Modern Italian with its three Conjugations brings together in the Second forms like vendére (Lat. vendĕre), potére (Lat. posse), solére (Lat. sŏlēre), and in the Third dire (Lat. dicĕre), empire (Lat. implère), apparire (Lat. apparēre), seguire (Lat. sëqui), and venire (Lat. věnìre). We must substitute for them an enumeration of the various ways in which the Tense-stems are formed, especially the Present Tense-stem.

Of the Latin Present (i. e. Thematic Present) Tense-stems, the usual type is that which was also the most prevalent in I.-Eur., that namely in which the Present-stem shows the ordinary unweakened root ( E -grade) of the Verb, e. g. Gk. $\pi \epsilon \dot{\epsilon} \theta-o-\mu a \iota$ from the root bheudh-, $\pi \in i \theta-\omega$ from the root bheidh-, $\pi \epsilon \tau-o-\mu a \iota$ from the root pet-, while the weak grade of the root is proper to the
 $\mu \eta \nu$. Latin examples (part of the 'Third Conjugation') are: dū̀co, O. Lat. douco, for *deuco (Goth. tiuha) from the root deuk-; dīco, O. Lat. deico (Goth. ga-teiha, ' I indicate') from the root deik̂-; veho for ${ }^{\text {wweĝh-ō (O. Ind. váh-ā-mi, Lith. vež-u, Goth. }}$ ga-vig-a, ' I move'). Another type shows a Nasal in the Pre-sent-stem (with weak grade of root) which is omitted in the other tense-stems, this Nasal being either ( 1 ) a nasal infix, e. g. Lat. rŭ-m-po (O. Ind. lŭ-m-pắmi) from the root reup-, fü-n-do
(O. Ind. bhy̆-na-dmi) from the root bheid-, or (2) a nasal affix, e. g. Lat. $l \check{\imath}-n-o$ (O. Ind. lı̄-nā-mi, O. Scand. lĭ-na) from the root lei-. Latin meio for $*_{\text {meiĝgh-ō, beside }}$ mйngo for $*_{\text {mǐ-n-ĝh-ō, is }}$ a good example of these two modes of forming the Pres.-stem; and similarly we seem to have O. Lat. nīvo for *(s)neígh ${ }^{\mathrm{u}}-\overline{0}$ (or
 of Pacuvius (Praet. 4 R.) :

> sagíttis nīuit, plúmbo et saxis grándinat.

Another affixes -yŏ- (-yĕ-) or -1̆yŏ- (-1̆y̌̌-), an affix which often varied with $\overline{1}$ (cf. ch. iv. $\S 5^{1}$ ); e.g. in Latin (part of the Third and of the Fourth Conjugations) farcio (Gk. $\phi \rho a ́ \sigma \sigma \omega$ for $\left.{ }^{*} \phi \rho а к-у \omega\right)$, with 2 Sg . farcī-s, from the root bhreq ${ }^{\mathrm{u}}$ - (cf. frequeus), Lat. morior (O. Ind. mr-iyá-tē 3 Sg.) from the root mer-. We have also a suffix -sî̀̌- (-sk̂č-) used to form what are wrongly called 'Inceptives' (Third Conj.), with weak grade of root, e. g. posco for *porc-sco, from prk̂-, the weak grade of the root prek-, 'to ask'; a suffix -čyŏ- (with O-grade of root) used to form Causatives (Second Conjugation), e. g. Lat. mŏneo for $*_{\text {mon-ĕyō. ' I remind,' lit. }}$ 'cause to remember,' from the root men- (cf. Lat. me-min-i), and so on. A very important class is the class of Verb-stems ending in a vowel (Vowel-stems), which form their i Sg. Pres. Ind. usually with the help of the suffix -yŏ-, e. g. in Latin (First and Second Conjugations) no for $*(\mathrm{~s}) \mathrm{nā}-\mathrm{yo}$ (O. Ind. snā-ya-tē), neo for $*(\mathrm{~s}) n \bar{e}-y o ̄(O . H . G . ~ n a ̄ u), ~ b u t ~ o t h e r ~ P e r s o n s ~ a t h e m a t i c a l l y, ~$ e. g. 2 Sg. $n \bar{u}-s, n \bar{e}-s$, many of these Vowel-stems being Derivatives from Nouns and Adjectives (First, Second, and Fourth Conjugations), e. g. cūro from cura (stem *curā̄-), like Gk. $\tau \bar{u} \mu a ́-\omega$ from $\tau \iota \mu \bar{a}(-\bar{\eta})$, albeo from albus (stem *albo-, *albe-), finio from finis (stem fini-, finei-). These various modes of forming the Present Tense-stem will be considered in later sections (\$§ 6-33).
§ 2. Traces of the Athematic Conjugation in Latin. Of I.-Eur. verbs of the Athematic Conjugation, which retain more or less of their athematic character in Latin, the most important are the roots es-, 'to be,' ei-, ' to go.' ed-, 'to eat,' wel-, ' to wish.' ES- has in I Sg. sum (Osc. sum) with the roct in weak form $s$-, instead of es- of I.-Eur. *ës-mĭ (O. Ind. ás-mi, Arm. em, Gk. $\epsilon i \cdot \mu i$ for ${ }^{\boldsymbol{\epsilon}} \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sigma-\mu i ́$, Lesb. ${ }^{\epsilon} \mu \mu \mu$, Alb. jam, Goth. im, Lith. es-mì, O. Sl. jes-mĭ), though, if we may believe Varro (L. L. ix. roo), the older form was esum (sum quod nunc dicitur olim dicebatur 'esum') ; 2 Sg. es [older es(s), scanned long by 'position' in Plautus], I.-Eur. *ĕs-sĭ (Arm. es, Hom. '̇ $\sigma-\sigma i$ ) ; 3 Sg. es-t (Osc.
íst), I.-Eur. *ĕs-tĭ [O. Ind. ás-ti, Gk. ${ }^{\epsilon} \sigma-\tau \iota, O$. Ir. is for ${ }^{\text {is }}$-t, Goth. is-t, Lith. ẽs-ti and ês-t, O. Sl. (Russ.) jes-ť]; I Pl. sŭmus and simus (ch. ii. § r6), I.-Eur. ${ }^{\text {s }}$-mes, ${ }^{*}$ s-mos ( 0. Ind. s-más) ; 2 Pl. es-tis should be ${ }^{*}$ s-tis, I.-Eur. ${ }^{*}$ s-tě (O. Ind. s-thá), but cf. Gk. é $\sigma$ - $\boldsymbol{\tau} \boldsymbol{\epsilon}$, Lith. ẽs-te ; 3 Pl. sunt (older sont) from $*_{\text {sont }}(i)$ beside I.-Eur. ${ }^{*}$ senti (Goth. s-ind), as Umbr. sent, Osc.
 ${ }^{*} \mathrm{~s}$ - $\mathrm{i}-\mathrm{mos}$ I Pl., \&c., is reproduced with some fidelity in 0 . Lat. $s-i \bar{e}-s, s-\bar{i}-m u s$, though the vowel $\bar{\imath}$ extended itself in time over Sg. as well as Plur., class. Lat. sim, sis, sit (§55), as in Umbr. sir 'sis,' si 'sit,' sins 'sint'; in the Imperative we should expect *ĕs, the bare stem, in 2 Sg . (and ĕs is probably the only actual Latin form, on which see $\S 58$ ), *s-tōd in Sg., but we have es- $-\bar{o}(d)$ (cf. Gk. $\left.{ }^{\epsilon} \sigma-\tau \omega\right)$; the Inf. is es-se, the Loc. Sg. of an S-stem, as the Umbro-Oscan *es-om (Osc. ezum, Umbr. erom) is the Acc. Sg. of an O-stem (ch. v. § 2) ; EI- is thematic in I Sg. in Lat. eo from *ĕy-ō instead of I.-Eur. *ei-mi, but athematic in the other persons of the Pres. Ind., 2 Sg . iss, older e-is, 3 Sg. it, older eit, I Pl. ì-mus, older ei-mus, with strong stem ei- as in Lith. eĩ-me, eì-te, instead of weak stem ĭ- (possibly with a bygrade i like 0 . Ind. í-mahē I Pl. Mid. ; but Pel. ei-te 2 Pl. Imper. points to an original ei- for Latin also), 2 Pl. ì-tis older ei-tis (with ei- again for 1 -), except the 3 Plural eunt from ${ }^{*}$ ey-o-nt(i), unless -onti was an I.-Eur. byform of -enti in the Athematic Conjugation (cf. sunt from *sont(i)) ; the form int of the Philoxenus Glossary (p. 75. 23 G. : int, порє́́ovtai) is too doubtful to quote as an athematic 3 Pl., for it may be a wrong reading for inunt (cf. prod-ìnunt, red-inunt, ob-inunt), although indeed the common theory of the origin of these forms presupposes an old ${ }_{3} \mathrm{Pl}$. $\overline{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{n}$ - (see § 73 ); athematic too are the Inf. ire older ei-re from *ei-sĭ, Imper. $i$ older $e i$ (Lith. eĩ-k), īto older $e i-t \bar{o}(d)$ (with ei-, as in Umbr. ee-tu, for $1 \mathrm{l}-$ of $(\mathrm{Gk} . \underset{i}{-\tau} \tau \omega(\delta), \S 57)$; ED- is thematic in I Sg. ed-ō (Gk. Fut. $\epsilon \delta-o-\mu a \iota$ is a Subjunctive form, and is quite regular), but athematic in the other persons, which often show a byform êd- (Lith. éd-mi and éd-u i Sg., és-t 3 Sg.) (thus Donatus ad Ter. Andr. i. I. 54 distinguishes ut una ēsset, Subj. of edo, from ut una ësset, Subj. of sum) ; i Pl. edimus, 3 Pl . edunt are like sumus, sunt; the Imper. es-tō is athematic, and the Inf. es-se. (On -st-instead of -ss- from I.-Eur. -dt - in est 3 Sg. \&c., see ch. iv. § 555 ; on Imperat. es, § 58 , below). The byforms edlut, ellütis, \&c. need not be new Latin types, for there are indications that in the I.-Eur. period this root wavered between the Thematic and Athematic Conjugations (cf. Lith. éd-u for *ēd-ō beside éd-mi ; Goth. ita for *ěd-ō) ; WELwas probably declined : 1 Sg. *wél-mĭ, a Sg. *wêl-sĭ, 3 Sg. *wél-tĭ, r Pl.*wḷ-més or -mŏs, \&c. ; Lat. vŏlo, vult (rolt) are the normal equivalents of *wělō, *wělt(1̆) (see ch. iv. § ro on ótiva from Gk. 'èaía, \&c.), so that the I Sg. is thematic, as are possibly also the 1 Pl. ${ }^{1}$ and 3 Pl . (cf. sumus, sunt), while the 3 Sg . and 2 Pl . are athematic ; for the 2 Sg. *wels, which would become *vel(l) (ch.iv. § 146), and would be probably scanned as a long syllable in Plautus [see ch. ii. § 133 on Plautine ter $(r)$ for ${ }^{*}$ ters from I.-Eur. *trir-s], the Romans substituted the
${ }^{1}$ The - $u$ - in I Pl. of these Athematic Verbs, sumus, volumus, is noticeable. Volimus, the reading of the Ambrosian Palimpsest in Plaut. Pseud. 233, Truc. 192 is a Late Lat. form (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.), due either to the

Analogy of the Thematic Conj. (so Late Lat. feris, aufere, on which see Georges), or to the ordinary weakening of unaccented $\breve{u}$ (so possimus, § 97 , simus, ch. ii. § r6). On the spelling quaesumus see below, § 33.4 .

2 Sg. of a different Verb-root wei-, 'to wish' (O. Ind. vī-, with 2 Sg. vé-ṣ̌i, Gk í $\epsilon \mu a l$ ) [I.-Eur. wel-, wei-, wek̀- (Gk. $\left.\tilde{\epsilon}^{\epsilon} \kappa \dot{\omega} \nu\right)$ all mean 'to wish,' and are probably connected]; the athematic Imper. vél (vél in Plautus too) has become a Conjunction (ch. x. §4), while the Imper. note of the Compound, has been variously referred to a bystem of the Fourth Conjugation (I.-Eur. *wel-yō-, Goth. vilja; O. Sl. velją), with Imper. *velī, like farcī, § 57, and to the Optative (cf. 2 Pl. Opt. nō̄tis with 2 Pl. Imper. nolite ; also I Pl. nolīmus, used both in an optative and an imperative sense). The root BHER- belonged to the Thematic Conjugation (Gk. $\phi^{\prime} \rho-\omega$, O. Ir. -biur from *ber- $\overline{0}$, Goth. bair-a ; cf. 3 Sg. O. Ind. bhár-a-ti for *bher-e-ti, Arm. ber-ē, O. Sl. ber-e-tŭ; athematic forms however appear, O. Ind. bhár-ti 3 Sg ., bhṛ-tám 2 Du . ; cf. Gk. $\phi \in ́ \epsilon$ - $\tau \epsilon$ 2 Pl., O. Ind. bhar-tam 2 Du.), but in Latin to the Athematic (with the usual exceptions of the i Sg. and probably i Pl. and 3 Pl. Pres. Ind.), e. g. fer-t 3 Sg. Pres. Ind., fer-tis 2 Pl. (with strong stem fer-instead of weak stem for-, I.-Eur. bhr- ; cf. Gk. $\phi \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \rho-\tau \epsilon$ ), fer Imper., fer-ve (for $*_{\text {fer-se from }} *_{f e r-s i}$, ch. iv. § 146 ; ch. iii. § 37) Inf., while 2 Sg. $*^{f}$ er $(r)$ [this is what an original $*_{\text {fer-s }}(\breve{l})$ would become in Latin ; $\operatorname{cf.} \operatorname{ter}(r)$ for ${ }^{*}$ ters, ch. ii. § 133] has been brought into line with other 2 Sg . forms by the fresh addition of the 2 Sg . suffix, fer-s. An Optative *ferim like velim and the other optatives of athematic Verbs is not found and probably never existed. (On the Pres. Part.-stems sent- and sont-, ient- and eunt-, volent- and volunt-, see § $9 \circ$; and on the Optatives sim, O. Lat. siem, edim, velim, § 56 ; the Compounds possum, mãlo, nōlo, \&c. are discussed in § 97, ambio in § 46).

Of I.-Eur.athematic Verbs of the type of O.Ind. dà -ti ${ }_{3} \mathrm{Sg}$. (Gk. $\delta i \delta \omega-\mu$, ï $\sigma \tau \eta-\mu$, \&c.) with root dō- (varying with the weak grade), Latin examples are: D $\overline{0}-$, to give, of which 1 Pl., 2 Pl. Pres. Ind. dc̆-mus, dŭ-tis are the normal athematic forms with the weak root dŭ- (cf. cătus and cōs, ch. iv. § 54), while 2 Sg. dās, 3 Sg. dat (O. Lat. dāt, probably so scanned in Plautus, e. g. Most. 6or, Men. roi), show $\bar{a}$ instead of $\bar{o},{ }^{*} d \bar{o}-s,{ }^{*}\left(\bar{o}-t\right.$; the old athem. 2 Sg. Imper. ${ }^{*} d \bar{o}$ (Lith. dü-k) remains only in cĕ-d̆ (shortened under the influence of the preceding short syllable, like harě, sib̌̆, ch. iii. $\$ 42$ ), for the ordinary form dā is coined on the type of the ist Conjugation ; the $2,3 \mathrm{Sg}$. dl̆-to is however the correct athematic form, also 2 Pl. dŭ-te, and Inf. dc̆-re, older *dă-sì. 1 Sg. Pres. Ind. dō is probably *dō-yō (cf. O. Sl. da-ją), and the reduplicated Present-stem of Gk. $\delta i-\delta \omega \mu$, Pelignian dida 'det' \&c. (§ 9 ) may appear in reddo, if this stands for re-d $(i)-d \bar{o}$. DHE,- to put, appears in the Latin compounds con-do, cré-do (O. Ind. šrád-dhā-, lit. 'to put the heart to,' $O$. Ir. cretim), which are usually reckoned as ordinary thematic verbs of the 3rd Conj., like lĕgo, though a great many of their forms may be explained as athematic, with the weak root, Lat. -dă(which at the beginning of the word would be fü-, ch. iv. § 114 ; cf. fücio, I.-Eur. *dhăk $k$-yō, from DHĒ-K-, Gk. $\epsilon-\theta \eta \kappa-a$, an extension of the root by addition of $k$ ) ; thus, though condı̌s, condǐt should have *-dēs, *-det ( 0 . Lạt. *-dèt, class. *-dĕt, ch. iii. § 49), con-dĭmus may represent *-dămus, con-dïtis, *-dătis, and though 2 Sg. Imper. con-dĕ should be *-dè (Lith. dè' k ), 3 Sg. con-dĭto, 2 Pl . con-dĭte may represent *-d̆̆u-tōd, *-dă-te, and Inf. con-dĕre, *-dc̆-sĭ. (On Opt. duim from the stem *duo, a bystem both of DŌ- and of DHE - - see § 56.) The roots
 are treated like the type trā- (a development of the root ter-; see below) and retain $\bar{a}$ throughout, stā-s, st $\bar{a}-m u s, s t \bar{a}-r e, ~ \& c ., f \bar{a}-t u r, f \bar{a}-m u r, f \bar{a}-r i, \& c$. (cf. Gk. $\hat{\epsilon}-\sigma \tau \eta \mu \epsilon \nu, \epsilon \ddot{\epsilon}-\sigma \tau \eta \tau \epsilon)$, forming the $\mathbf{I}$ Sg. Pres. Ind. with the suffix -yo, stō from
*stā-yō (Umbr. stahu, Lith. stó-jůs, 'I station myself,' O. Sl. sta-ją ; cf. Zend ā-stāyā, but see Buck, Osk. Spr. p. 24), $f_{0}(r)$ from *bhā-yō (Lith. bó-ju, 'I enquire,' O. Sl. ba-ją, 'I converse'; cf. O. Ind. bhā-ya-tē Pass., if this be a genuine form). The weak grade of the two roots appears in stätus (O. Lat. also stätus), făteor (cf. Osc. fatium Inf.) ; the reduplicated Present-stem of the former (Gk. í $\sigma \tau \eta-\mu l$ for ${ }^{*} \sigma l-\sigma \tau \eta-\mu l$ ), in Lat. si-st-o, which usurped the transitive sense that had in O. Lat. belonged to sto, e.g. med Mano statod, 'set me as an offering to Manus,' on the Dvenos inscription, 'astasent' (leg. -int ?) statuerunt (leg. -int?) Paul. Fest. 19.32 Th. On these Reduplicated Presents of athematic roots in Latin, si-sti-mus from the root STA' $\overline{\text { - }}$, se-rí-mus from the root SE- (Gk. i $\eta \mu \iota$ for $\left.{ }^{*} \sigma_{t}-\sigma \eta \mu \iota\right)$ and perhaps $r e-d(i)-d i ⿱-m u s$, see § 9 . An athematic 2 Sg. Imper. from the root BHEU- (of Lat. fui) occurs in the Carmen Arvale. fu (Lith. bú-k, Umbr. fu-tu), if rightly understood in the sense of 'be' : satur fu, fere Mars.

Of I.-Eur. athematic verbs of the type of O. Ind.prā-mi $(G \mathrm{Gk} . \pi i(\mu) \pi \lambda \eta-\mu)$ with root plē-, a development of root pel- (the strong grade plē- never varying with any weak grade), the Latin examples are : PLĒ- (cf. PĔL-), im-plēre, ex-plère; TRĀ-(cf. TE゙R-), in-trāre, \&c. These form the i Sg. Pres. Ind. thematically with the thematic suffix -yo-, e.g. im-pleo for *-plē-ȳ̄, in-tro for *-trā-yō (thematic byforms with this suffix perhaps existed in the I.-Eur. period, e. g. O. Ind. trā́-ya-tē beside trā-ti), but the other persons athematically, im-plē-s, in-trā-s, im-ple-t (O. Lat. - $\bar{\epsilon} t$ ), in-tra-t (O. Lat. - $\bar{u} t)$, im-plē-mus, in-trā-mus, \&c., as also the other parts of the verb, Imper. im-plē, im-plē-to, in-tră, in-trā-to, Inf. im-plē-re. in-trā-re.

Like them were declined other verbs whose stems ended in long vowels or diphthongs, e. g. I.-Eur. *wĭd-ē- (a stem perhaps originally confined to Secondary Tenses, *wĭd-yǒ- being the stem used in the Present Tense; see § 15 ), Derivative Verbs from $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stems, e.g. cūr $\bar{a}-\mathrm{from}$ the Noun cüra (stem cūrū-, ch. v. § 2), from I-stems, e. g. finei- from the Noun finis (stem finei-, fini-, ch. v. § 34), but not from U-stems (e. g. stätuo from status, § 15), nor possibly (1) those from O -stems (e.g. fläreo from flarus), (2) Causatives and Intensives with 1 Sg. Pres. Ind. in -éyō (e. g. mŏneo, Causative of root men-; f. mĕmĭni; see § 29), though these two last types have a declension which, by reason of the phonetic changes of Latin, can hardly be discriminated from the athematic declension [thus monēs may represent *monē-s, as well as *mon-ĕyĕ-s (cf. trës for *trëyěs, ch. iv. § 66), monē Imper. may come from *monē, a stem in -ē, or *mon-ĕyĕ. In the P. P. P. however the two types are distinct, moni-tus, with I.-Eur. weak stem monĭ-, im-plētus with stem plē-, as in the Perfect Ind. Act. mon-ui, im-plē-vi; see § 39.4]. Farcio (Gk. ф ®á $^{\sigma} \sigma \omega$ for $\left.{ }^{*} \phi \rho a \kappa y \omega\right)$ and făcio both belong to the same I.-Eur. thematic type, a type in which the root has the suffix -yö-, varying on the one hand with -yĕ-, on the other with -1- and -i- ; the divergent roads which they have taken in Latin are perhaps due to the fact that in the declension of facio the weak suffix -i- asserted itself (Imper. 0 . Lat. face for ${ }^{*}$ facĭ, căpe for ${ }^{*}$ capĭ), in the other the weak suffix -i (Imper. farcī), and this assertion of the long vowel brought with it a transference to the Athematic type, farcī-re beside face-re from *faci-se, though the original difference between farcio and a Derivative like finio, is still maintained in the Perf. Ind. Act. $f a r-s i$, for $*_{f a r c-s i}$; beside $f i n i z-v i$, and P. P. P. far-tus, older farc-tus, beside fini-tus. (On these stems with suffix -yo-, and on the Derivative Verbs and stems ending in vowels which form their 1 Sing. Pres. Ind. with the help of this suffix, see $\S \S 15,21$.)

The form cante for canite quoted from the Carmen Saliare by Varro (L. $L$. vii. 27) can hardly be called an Athematic 2 Pl . (Imper.). It is rather an example of the Latin tendency to syncopate every short unaccented vowel before a single consonant, which would have destroyed most traces of the thematic vowel in the Latin Verb, if it had been allowed free play (see ch. iii. § $13^{1}$ ).

## § 3. II. THE TENSE-STEMS (STRONG AORIST AND

 S-FORMATIONS). The Tense-stems are formed by various modifications of the root. From the root gen-for example is formed by Reduplication (with $\check{y}$ as Reduplication-vowel and with weak grade of root) the Present-stem ĝi-ĝn- (Lat. gigno, Gk. $\left.\gamma^{\prime} \gamma \nu o-\mu a \iota\right)$, expressive of continued action in Present time, ' I am producing,' and by another species of Reduplication [with ě as Reduplicationvowel and in the Singular (see §39) with the O-grade of the root] the Perfect-stem ge-ĝon- (Gk. $\gamma^{\prime}$ 'rova) expressive of completed action, ' I have produced.' The Aorist-stem, expressive of action merely, unlimited by the idea of continuance or the idea of completeness, is in this Verb formed from the root itself gen(Gk. $\bar{\epsilon}-\gamma \in \nu-\sigma^{\prime}-\mu \eta \nu$ ), and so the O. Lat. form genunt (Varro, Sat. Menipp. 35 B. sed quod haec loca aliquid genunt; cf. Lucr. iii. 797 durare genique) might be called an Aorist (i. e. unlimited) tense-form. But the distinction between a Present-stem and an Aorist-stem is by no means so clearly marked as between a Pre-sent-stem and a Perfect-stem, and what is an Aorist-stem in one language may be used as a Present-stem in another. The stem gen- (with the thematic vowel geno-, gene- as in Gk. $\bar{\epsilon}-\gamma \in \nu o ́-\mu \eta \nu$, $\left.\hat{\epsilon}^{\prime}-\gamma^{\prime} \dot{\varphi} \epsilon-\tau o\right)$ is in O. Ind. used as a Present, jána-ti 3 Sg., and the exact equivalent of Gk. $\grave{\epsilon}-\gamma \in \nu 0$ - (with the Augment prefixed) is in O. Ind. not an Aorist, but the past tense of a Present-stem, in other words an Imperfect, á-jana-m, 'I was producing,' while the aorist sense is assigned to the weak grade of root, gn- ( $\mathrm{g}^{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{n}-$ ), a-jn̂a-ta 3 Pl . Thus in this verb it would be more correct to say that the Present-stem was both gii-ĝn- and gen-, than to restrict the first of these to the Present, the second to the Aorist signification.[^92]Some find more exact counterparts of the Greek Strong Aorist (2nd Aorist) in Latin Perfects like scŭdit (O. Ind. á-chĭdă-t), scicd- being the weak grade of the root sceid-, a root which forms its Present-stem in Latin by Nasalization, scinct-. But, as is pointed out in §4I, scidit is more likely to be a Reduplicated Perfect (O. Lat. sč̆-cčdī, O. Ind. cǐ-chǐdē), and to have lost its Reduplication syllable in Compounds like disscidit (O. Lat. -it, -eit) for *lis-sci-cidit, like re-p-pullit for *re-pe-pulit), the Perfect having in Latin come to assume Aorist functions, e. g. dĕdī (I) I have given, (2) I gave. Where the Aorist-usage most shows traces of itself in Latin is in phrases like né att $\grave{\imath}$ gas (Subjunctive of an Aorist-stem tăg- beside the Present-stem tăng-), which suggest comparison with the Greek use of the Aor. Subj. in prohibitions, \&c.

The Present-stem, as it is on the one hand occasionally indistinguishable from the Aorist-stem, so it is on the other from the Verb-stem. In a verb like Lat. sino the Nasal is clearly part of the Present-stem, and connected with the idea of continued action in present time, for it is not found in other parts of the verb (e.g. sï-vi, sü-tum) (cf. tango Pres., tëtŭgi Perf., tac-tus Verbal Noun). But in a verb like Lat. jungo the Nasal is extended throughout the Verb (e. g. junxi, junctum, § 1о). Similarly the ' Inceptive' suffix of cre-sco is properly dropped in crë-vi, crè-tum, but the same suffix is in posco (for ${ }^{\text {pporc-sco, I.-Eur. *prk̂-sko-) }}$ extended to Perf. prıposci, \&c. Some of the stems which are included in this section in the list of Present-stems are probably rather to be called Verb-stems, i.e. extensions of the root by means of a suffix to denote action, whether continued action, completed action, or momentary action ; for example, the stems trĕm-, trĕs-, formed from the root ter- (O. Ind. tar-alá-, 'trembling ') by means of an M-suffix (Gk. $\tau \rho \epsilon \mu-\omega$, Lat. trĕm- $o$ ) and an S-suffix (Gk. $\tau \rho^{!}-(\sigma)-\omega$, Lat. terreo for *ters-eo), are rather Verbstems than Present-stems, although, for practical purposes, it is best with a view to completeness to include them in the list of Present-stem formations.

We have already spoken of the so-called Aorist (i.e. Strong Aorist) forms of the Latin Verb. Another series of forms is better considered here than assigned to any definite Tense, viz.
the S-formations, which receive further treatment in the sections dealing with the Perfect, Future, Imperfect and Pluperfect Tenses. A large number of Verb-forms, whose exact relation to each other has not yet been clearly explained, show the sibilant s in some shape or other (-ss-, -s-, -es-, \&c.). We find an S-suffix in the Verb-stem just mentioned, tres-, ' to be afraid, tremble' ( O . Ind. trása-ti and tar-ása-ti, Gk. $\tau \rho \epsilon(\sigma) \omega$; cf. Lat. terreo for *ter-s-); and in a stem like auk-s- of Gk. av $\xi \omega$ ( $c f . a v \xi a v \omega)$ from the root aug- (Lat. augeo), this S-suffix is clearly connected with the S-suffix (-es-, -os-, -s-) of the Noun *augos, *auges-os Gen. (O.Ind. ójas, 'strength'; cf. Lat. augus-tus like röbus-tus, fünes-tus, ch. v. §7r), precisely as in Derivative Verbs like Gk. $\tau \in \lambda \epsilon(\sigma)-\omega$, Pft. Pass. $\tau \epsilon \tau^{\prime} \hat{\prime} \lambda \epsilon \sigma-\tau a l$, from the Noun $\tau \epsilon^{\prime} \lambda o s$, Gen. $\tau^{\prime} \lambda \epsilon(\sigma)$-os; and this Noun S-suffix we shall find to be the suffix used in Infinitives like Lat. $\breve{\text { ăğ̌rĕ for }}$ *aĝ-es-ǐ Loc. Sg., ferrĕ for *bher-s-ĭ Loc. Sg., ferrī for *bher-s-ai Dat. Sg., Gk. $\delta \in \iota \hat{\epsilon} \xi \iota$, \&c., which are nothing but cases of Verbal Nouns. Side by side with Verb-stems with an S -suffix stand Verb-stems with a suffix -syo-, e.g. O. Ind. tra-sya-ti, exactly as Present-stems in -yo- like Lat. fŭg-io (stem bhŭg-yo-) stand side by side with Present-stems like Gk. $\phi \in \hat{c}^{\prime} \gamma \omega$ (stem bheug-o-). This suffix -syo- is however usually the suffix of the Future-stem (e.g. O. Ind. dēk-ş̌yā-mi from I.-Eur. deik̂-, Lith. bú-siu from I.-Eur. bheu-), but not of the ordinary Greek Futures, e. g. $\delta \epsilon i \xi \omega, \phi \bar{v} \sigma \omega, \tau \iota \mu \eta \sigma \omega$, which are now generally regarded as Subjunctives (the I.-Eur. Subjunctive had Future, as well as Subjunctive, force, § 55) of the S-Aorist, the difference between $\tau \iota \mu \eta^{\prime} \sigma o \mu \epsilon \nu$ Fut., $\tau \mu \eta \eta^{\prime} \sigma \omega \mu \epsilon$ Aor. Subj., $\delta \epsilon i \xi 0 \mu \epsilon \nu$ Fut., $\delta \epsilon i \xi \omega \mu \epsilon \nu$ Aor. Subj. being explained by the fact that originally the Subjunctive of the S -Aorist was Athematic (§ I ), $\tau \iota \mu \eta \sigma-o-\mu \epsilon \nu, \delta \epsilon i \xi-0-\mu \epsilon \nu$ (cf. $\tau \epsilon i \sigma o \mu \epsilon \nu$ Hom.), but afterwards took by analogy of Thematic Subjunctives the long vowels $\omega, \eta$, and retained its proper athematic forms only in their Future Indicative usage. Gk. $\tau \tau \mu \eta \sigma \omega$, $\grave{\epsilon} \tau \dot{\prime} \mu \eta \sigma a$, \&c. must have
 between vowels in Greek disappeared when single (e. g. $\gamma \epsilon \in \epsilon \epsilon(\sigma)$-os), and was reduced when double (e.g. єv̈ $\sigma a$ from the root eus-, for ${ }^{*} \epsilon \cup ้ \sigma \sigma a$, cf. Lat. $\breve{u}_{s}-s i$, ch. ii. § 129), as in Latin it became $r$ when single (e.g. gĕnër-is, quaero), and was reduced in the classical
period after a long vowel or diphthong (ib.) when double (e.g. quaeso, older quaesso, haesi, older haessi). Gk. $\tau \iota \mu \boldsymbol{\eta} \sigma$, older $-\bar{a} \sigma \sigma \omega$, will then correspond to O. Lat. amasso, Gk. $\delta \in i \xi \omega$ to O . Lat. dixo and similar forms. We have also Latin forms in 88 used as Presents, but always with a peculiar sense (§ 33.5), e. g. lŭcesso (cf. lacio, lacto), făcesso (cf. facio), căpesso (cf. capio), incipisso Plaut. (cf. incipio), pĕtesso (cf. peto; in O. Lat. petissere, ' saepius petere' Fest. 250. 19 Th., adpetissis Accius, Trag. 160 R.; cf. petivi), quaeso (cf. quaero), viso (cf. vǐdeo) ; they have sometimes been called Latin Intensives, and compared with another Sformation in which the root is reduplicated, namely, the Desideratives (sometimes with Intensive force) of Sanscrit, e.g. pí-pā-s-āmi, 'I wish to drink,' jí-jīvā-s-āmi, ' I wish to live,' ${ }_{1}^{1}$ p-sāmi, ' I wish to acquire,' and the Reduplicated Futures of Celtic, such as O. Ir. gigius 'rogabo,' gigeste ' orabitis'; their Perfects in -ivi, lacessivi, quaesivi (used as Pft. of quaero), arcessivi, perhaps point to parallel stems in -ss-yo-, *lacessio, *quaessio, *arcessio (cf. the I.-Eur. Fut. in -syo-, Lith. bú-siu beside Gk. $_{\text {G }}$ $\phi v ́-\sigma \omega$ ) (on visi, see $\S 41$ ). Other O. Lat. $s$-forms (Subjunctive or rather Optative, § 55), like averruncassis, servassis, faxis, used in prayers, wishes, deprecations, \&c. (e.g. deos ut fortunassint precor ; Juppiter, prohibessis seelus; di mactassint), have been called Latin Precatives, and compared with Sanscrit Precatives (more usual in the older literature than in classical ' Sanscrit') such as bhū-yắ-s-am from bhū-, ' to be.' These O. Lat. Fut. and Opt. forms with $s s$ (corresponding to $s$ after a consonant, faxo, faxim, dixo, dixim) are mostly found in Verbs of the first Conjugation, -asso, -assim, Inf. -assere, but sometimes in Verbs of the second, e. g. prolĭlessis, prohibessint. They do not occur in the Aorist (Preterite) Indicative usage of Gk. $\grave{\epsilon} \tau \dot{\jmath} \mu \eta \sigma a(-\bar{\alpha} \sigma \sigma a)$, $\xi^{\prime} \phi i \lambda \eta \sigma a(-\eta \sigma \sigma a)$ in Latin ; but, if Umbro-Oscan tt is rightly interpreted as the equivalent of I.-Eur. ss (cf. Att. ${ }^{\circ} \pi \rho a ́ \tau \tau \omega$ for $\pi \rho a ́ \sigma \sigma \omega$, this $\sigma_{0}$ being a Greek development of $\kappa y$ ), they do occur in this usage in the other Italic languages, Osc. teremnattens ' terminaverunt,' quasi *terminassunt, prúfatted ' probavit,' quasi *probassit, duunated 'donavit' quasi *donassit, Pel. coisatens ' curaverunt' and so on (all the examples preserved belong to the first Conjugation).

So far we have found evidence of Verb-forms with ss after a vowel, s after a consonant, used as Aorists, Futures [in the Future use often with -(s)syo- for -(s)so-], Precatives, \&c., as well as of Verb-stems with a suffix consisting of a single s (e.g. *tres- the stem of Gk. $\tau \rho \epsilon{ }^{\prime} \omega$ ), a suffix perhaps identical with the S-suffix of Verbal Nouns. It is therefore a natural inference to explain the formations with double $s$ as due to the addition of some S-suffix to a Verb-stem already composed by means of an S-suffix, so that Latin amasso would be resolved into ama-s-so, and possibly dīxo into deic-s-so. (On dixo however, see § 55 ; Greek Locatives Plural also like $\theta \dot{v} \rho \bar{a} \sigma \iota$ offer an original -ss-, which after a consonant appears as -s-, e. g. фúda $\xi \imath$ ).

This additional S-suffix may be the same as that which seems to show the form -ĕs- in Latin Future Perfects like vìd-ero, amav-ero, dix-ero, and Pluperfects like vid-eram, amav-eram, dix-eram, and which has been identified, plausibly enough, with the Substantive verb, es-, ' to be' (it appears in the form s in ama-rem, fer-rem, age-rem, \&c.), though some regard it as the suffix -es- of Noun-stems, comparing vīl-ero to Gk. $\epsilon i \grave{\delta} \hat{\epsilon}(\sigma) \omega$, viderimus Subj. to Gk. $\epsilon i \delta \epsilon(\sigma) \tau \mu \in \nu$ Opt., and these to Gk. $\epsilon i \delta \delta o s$, $-\epsilon(\sigma)$-os (similarly ferrem, agerem, \&c. to ferre, agere). Others make it not only -es- but -is- or -as- (ch. iv. §3), comparing vīl-eram to O. Ind. á-vēd-iṣam, dixeram to O. Ind. Aorists with -siṣ̆- such as ákśiśsur 3 Pl ., and identify this -is- or -as-, as well as -es-, with the suffix of Noun S-stems (e.g. O. Ind. rōcíc̣̣- N., Gk. $\gamma \hat{\eta} \rho a s, \theta \epsilon \epsilon$ кıs-, Lat. č̆nis), and further with Latin -is- of amav-is-tis, amav-is-sem, amav-is-se, although the $i$ in these Latin Perfect-forms may be merely an example of the continuation of the vowel of the I Sg. Ind., \&c. of the Perfect throughout the declension of this Tense, as Gk. $\delta \epsilon \iota \xi a \iota \mu \iota, \delta \epsilon \iota \xi \dot{\alpha} \tau \omega$, \&c. continue the $a$ of $\epsilon^{\kappa} \delta \epsilon \iota \xi a$ (see $\S \S 67,52,39$ ). The Umbro-Oscan Future forms, e.g. Osc. didest 'dabit,' Umbr. ferest 'feret' point to the vowel having been originally e, for the Latin weakening of unaccented vowels is almost unknown in Umbro-Oscan.

Another moot point in the analysis of the Latin Verb is the explanation of what the Roman grammarians regarded as contracted forms, such as amassen beside amavissem, amastis beside amavistis, amarunt, amaro, and amarim beside amavërunt, amavero,
and amaverim, and also such as invassem beside inväsissem, dixem beside dixissem, dixti and dixtis beside dixisti and dixistis. There is nothing in the laws of Latin Phonetics to prevent the Contraction Theory from being right; audivissem would become auntissem as naturally as sī vīs became sīs, oblīvisci became oblisci (Plaut.), dī̀̄̄̄nus, dīnus (Plaut.) (see ch. iv. § 70) ; invasissem would become invassem by that Roman practice of discarding one of two similar neighbouring syllables which reduced *arcicubii to arcŭbii, Restitutus to Restūtus (see ch. iii. § 13. p. 176). Thus although the comparison of amassem ( $\overline{\mathrm{E}}-\mathrm{Subj}$. like amem) with amassim (Opt. like sim, O. Lat. siem), dixem with dixo and dixim, amarim with amarem is a very natural one, it cannot be said that the evidence is at present strong enough to warrant us in relinquishing the old explanation.

Indeed the evidence to be derived from the usage of Plautus and the other Dramatists is all the other way, for we find that Plautus and Terence treat these shorter forms exactly as they treat forms that are indubitably contracted, like jurgo from jürigo (ch. iii. § I3) ; in the older poet the two are used side by side, in the later the contracted have ousted the uncontracted, the latter being used only at the end of a line, i.e. only through metrical necessity. (For statistics, see $\S \S 48,49$.)
§ 4. 'Strong Aorist' forms in Latin. Beside the Nasalized Present-stem tăng- of tango, attingo we find a stem tăg-in O. Lat. In the Dramatists attigas, attigatis (only in prohibitions) are not uncommon, e. g. Plaut. Bacch. 445 ne attigas puerum istac causa (cf. Non. 75.26 M .). A lamp discovered in the very ancient Esquiline burying-ground bears the inscription : ne atigas. non sum tua. M. sum (Ann. Inst. 1880, p. 260). In the simple verb we have, e. g. si tagit, nisi tagam in Pacuvius (Trag. 344 and 165 K.) (forms compared to con-tigit, at-tigit by Festus 540.27 M.), and probably tăgo in Plaut. Mil. 192 :
remoráre: abeo. Neque té remoror neque té tago neque te-táceo.
Similarly beside the Nasalized Present-stem toln- of tollo, attollo (cf. affero), abstollo (cf. aufero) we have attulas, abstulas, \&c. (or in the older spelling attolas, abstolas) in prohibitions in the Dramatists, e.g. Novius, Com. 87 R. dotem ad nos nullam attulas ; Pacuv. Trag. 228 R. :

> cústodite istúnc uos: ne uim qui áttolat, neu qui áttigat,
and in the simple verb nisi tulat (Accius, Trag. roz R.).
Beside the Present-stem formed with the suffix -yo- (§ 5 5), venio-, we find a stem vën- without this suffix in the compounds erenat, advenat, pervenat, \&c. (e. g. Plaut. metuo ne aduenat, priusquam peruenat, utinam euenat, quomodo
euenat, \&c.) These Aor. forms seem to occur only at the end of a line (the same indeed is generally, but not always, true of attigas, attulas, \&c.), and so are licences of which the Dramatic Poets availed themselves under metrical necessity. They have been also referred to a suppression of the $i(y)$ of eveniat, \&c., like that of $i(y)$ in ăbicio (the scansion of the Dramatists) and possibly augür(i)a of Accius (see ch. ii. §5.0), on the plea that the Aor.-stem would be vem-, for the $n$ is produced from m under the influence of the following consonantal $i(y)$, *rem-yo (I.-Eur. *gụn-yo-, Gk. Baivo for $\left.{ }^{*} \beta a \mu y \omega\right)$ becoming ven-yo, věnio, as quom-jam became quŏniam (ch. iv. § 73). The root is $g^{\text {n }}$ m- (cf. Goth. qiman, 'to come'). Similarly beside pärio, to give birth to, we have parentes. Beside the Reduplicated Present gi-gn-o from the root gen-, we have an O. Lat. Present geno (cf. Priscian, i. 528.25 H.) of the common type of fero (root bler-), reho (root weĝh-), sequor (root sequ-) (see § 6). This form of the Present is frequent in Varro (e.g. $R . R$. ii. 2. 19 nam et pingues facit facillime et genit lacte; ib. i. 31. 4 antequam genat; Men. 35 B. quod genunt), and occurs in the testamentary formula 'si mihi filius genitur' (Cic. De Orat. ii. 42. 141) (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v. for examples of the word). It was a moot point among Latin grammarians whether in the phrase of the XII Tables ni ita pacvit, the last word was 3 Plur. of a verb *paco (whence püciscor ; but cf. $\S 28$ ), or with the old usage of writing c both for c and for $g$, of a verb pago (an unnasalized form of pango; cf. pĕpйgi) (see ch. i. § 6). (On rüdentes, the ropes of a ship, see below, § 6.)
§ 5. O. Lat. forms with -ss- (-s-). The forms in -(s)so i Sg. may be called Future-Perfects ; thus faxo corresponds to fécéro in Plaut. fr. 62 W. :
peribo si non fécero, si fáxo uapulábo,
Capt. 695 pol si istuc faxis, haud sine poena feceris ; but they are often used in the Dramatists, as the ordinary Fut. Perf. is also used, in the sense of a Future, e.g. Plaut. Poen. 888 nisi ero uni meo indicasso, 'I will tell my master only' (see Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 548). They have an Inf. in -ssere, e.g. hoc credo me impetrassere, illum confido me reconciliassere, and occur sometimes in the Passive Voice in laws, e.g. mercassitur (C.I. L. i. 200. 71) ; faxitur in an old Rogatio mentioned by Livy, xxii. го. 6 : si antidea senatus populusque iusserit fieri, ac faxitur ; turbassitur in a law in Cicero, De Legg. iii. 4. in ; cf. uti iussitur, ' as shall be ordered,' Cato R. R. xiv. i.
The forms in -(s)sim I Sg. have never a reference to past time like the ordinary Perfect Subjunctive ; contrast, for example, Plaut. Capt. 127 uisam ne nocte hac ('last night') quippiam turbauerint, with Pacuvius, Trag. 297 R. precor ueniám petens Ut quae égi, ago, vel áxim uerruncént bene (see A. L. L. ii. 223); they are frequent in Plautus, who normally uses cave dixis, care faxis, \&c., and not (except at the end of a line, i.e. for metrical convenience) cave dixeris, cave feceris, \&c. (after ne only dixeris, \&c.), but are much less frequent in Terence. They are generally used by Plautus in the protasis of a conditional sentence (except ausim, faxim, which are found in the main clause), e.g. Aul. 228 si locassim, and similarly in old laws, e.g. the Lex Numae (ap. Fest. 194. 2I Th.) : si hominem fulminibus occisit; we find them also in wishes, e.g. Plaut. Aul. 50 utinám me diui adáxint ad suspéndium, in prayers, as in the Augural Prayer (quoted by Festus, 526. II Th.): bene sponsis beneque uolueris, and with ne in deprecations, e.g. Plaut. Most. ro97 ne occupassis opsecro aram, and expressions of anxiety, e.g. Plaut. Bacch. 598 :

> mihi caútiost
> ne núcifrangibula excússit ex malís meis.

These usages mark the forms in $-(s) \operatorname{sim}$ as the Optative Mood of the forms in -(s)so. This -(s)s- formation appears in Vowel Verbs almost only in the first Conjugation, though we find in the second prohibessit, prohibessint and prohibessis occasionally, cohibessit (Lucr. iii. 444), lücessit (Plaut. Asin. 603), \&c., while for the fourth ambissit (MSS. ambisset) in the (un-Plautine?) prologue of the Amphitruo of Plautus, 1. 71, is quoted. In Terence these forms of Vowel Verbs are very rare, e. g. appellassis, Phorm. 742. In Consonant-stems of the third Conjugation they are found in poetry of all periods (faxim and ausim even in prose) ; examples are (Labials) capso, accepso, incepsit, (Gutturals) axim, taxim, insexit, noxit, (Dentals) baesis (C.G.L. ii. 27. 55), incensit, (Nasals) empsim, surempsit (Fest.). [For other instances, see Neue, $\mathrm{ii}^{2}$. 539 sqq.; essis of the MSS. of Nonius (200. 30 M .) in a line of Accius [Trag. (Praet.) 16 R.], quoted as an example of castra F.: cástra haec uestra est : óptime essis méritus a nobis, seems a miswriting of escis (cf. below, § 33.5) ; adessint of the Lex Repetundarum (C. I. L. i. 198. 1. 63) may stand for ad-essent (cf. ch. vi. § 33 ); uiolasit (C.I. L. xi. 4766, with anua) and similar forms with $s$ for ss belong to the period when double consonants were written single (ch. i. §8)].

## § 6. A. Present ${ }^{1}$. (1) With Ě-grade of root and Thematic

 Vowel. Examples are of E-roots: I.-Eur. *sĕqŭo, *sĕq Mid., 'to be following' (O. Ind. sáca-tē 3 Sg., Gk. ‘́ $\pi о-\mu a \iota$, O. Ir. sechur, Lith. sekù Act.), Lat. sequor ; I.-Eur. *weghhŏ-, $*_{\text {wěğhě-, ' } \text { o o be carrying ' }}$ (O. Ind. váhā-mi, Pamphyl. Gk. F $\in \chi \omega(?)$, Lith. vežù, O. Sl. vezą, Goth. ga-viga, 'I move'), Lat. veho. Of EI-roots: I.-Eur. *bheidhŏ-, *bheidhě-, 'to be trusting' (Gk. $\pi \epsilon i \theta o-\mu a \iota$, Goth. beida, 'I abide'), Lat. fullo from O. Lat. feido; I.-Eur. *deik̂̌̆-, *deik̆č-, ' to be showing, indicating' (Goth. ga-teiha, Germ. zeige), Lat. dīco from O. Lat. deico ; I.-Eur. *meiĝhǒ-, *meiĝhě- (O. Ind. méhā-mi, O. Engl. mīge), Lat. meio. Of. EU-roots : I.-Eur. *deukŏ-, *deukě-, ' to be leading, drawing' (Goth. tiuha, Germ. ziehe), Lat. dūco, O. Lat. douco for $*_{\text {deukō (ch. iv. § 37) ; I.-Eur. *eusŏ-, *eusě-, ' to be }}$ burning, singeing' (O. Ind. ôṣā-mi, Gk. $\epsilon \hat{v} \omega$ for $\left.*_{\epsilon} \dot{v} h \omega\right)$, Lat. ūro, O. Lat. *ouro from *eusō ; I.-Eur. *plewŏ-, *plewě-, ' to be flowing, sailing, swimming' (O. Ind. pláva-tē 3 Sg. Mid., Gk. $\pi \lambda \epsilon \prime(F) \omega$, O. Sl. plovą for *plew-), Lat. pluo from O. Lat. plovo (cf. Fest. 330. 29 Th. ' pateram perplovere' in sacris cum dicitur, significat pertusam esse ; so plovebat, Petron. 44. p. 30. I B.). (The form pluo is proper to Compounds, e. g. perpluo, ch. iii. § 24.)[^93]The weak grade of the root, which in Greek appears with the accent on the suffix, and with the Aorist sense (e. g. $\tau \rho a \pi \epsilon i v$ Aor. but $\tau \rho \epsilon \in \pi \epsilon \iota \nu$ Pres., $\pi \iota \theta \theta^{\prime} \sigma \theta a \iota$ Aor. but $\pi \epsilon \epsilon \theta \epsilon \sigma \theta a \iota$ Pres., $\pi v \theta \epsilon^{\prime} \sigma \theta a \iota$ Aor. but $\pi \epsilon v^{\prime} \theta \epsilon \sigma \theta a \iota$ Pres.), has sometimes encroached on the Pres.stem, e.g. Dor. Gk. $\tau \rho a ́ \pi \pi \omega$ beside Att. $\tau \rho \epsilon \neq \pi \omega$, Gk. $\gamma \lambda \nu ้ ้ \phi \omega$ beside I.-Eur. *gleubhŏ- (Lat. glübo, O. H. G. chliubu, Engl. cleave). Similarly Lat. rŭlo (O. Ind. rŭdấ-mi) beside rūdo (O. H. G. riuzu) seems to show $*_{\text {rŭdớ- beside }} *_{\text {reúdŏ-, so that rŭdentes, the ropes }}$ of a ship, lit. ' the rattlers,' ' roarers,' might be called an ' Aorist' participle (§4). [In Plautus we have rüdentes, Rul. IoI 5 mítte rūdentém, sceleste, as rūdo in Persius, iii. 9 Arcadiae pecuaria rūdere credas. The Pft. rudivi (Apuleius) and Verbal Noun ruditus point to a Pres.-stem *rŭd-yŏ-, like fügio, § I 5.]

Examples of Verbs which have not an E-root are: vādo, I am going (the weak grade $v \breve{a} d$-is seen in $v \breve{a} d l u m$, a ford) ; caedo, from older caido, I.-Eur. (s)kaidh- (Goth. skaida, cf. Engl. watershed) ; ăgo, I.-Eur. *ăĝō (O. Ind. ájā-mi, Gk. ă $\gamma \omega$, M. Ir. agaim, \&c.; the strong stem āĝ- is seen in Lat. amb-äges, \&c.); scălo, to scrape, I.-Eur. skabh- (Goth. skaba, ' I shave'; the strong stem skābh- perhaps appears in Perf. scābi; see § 39).
§ 7. Other examples. Lat. tego (Gk. $\sigma \tau \in ́ \gamma \omega$ ) ; rego (Gk. ó- $\rho \in ́ \gamma \omega)$; lego (Gk. $\lambda \epsilon ́ \gamma \omega)$. Like O. Lat. nüvit, beside ninguit, for *(s)neighnŏo (Zend snaẹžaiti, Gk. $\nu \epsilon i ́ \phi \epsilon$, Lith. dial. snẽ̃ga) is 0 . Lat. fīro for *dheighñoo-(?) (Lith. dếgia Intr.), for which fig $g$ was afterwards substituted by Analogy of fxi, \&c. The form with $v$ which, we are told, was used by Cato [Paul. Fest. 65. 19 Th. 'fivere' (apud Catonem) pro figere], reappears in the derivative fibula for *fvi-bula (cf. fixul-au, Paul. Fest. 64. 7 Th. 'fixulas,' fibulas). (Lith. dygús however points to *dhīghnö-, and we have figier, not fei- on the S. C. Bacch.).
O. Lat. amploctor (veteres immutaverunt 'amploctor' crebro dictitantes, Diom. 384. 8 K.), e. g. Liv. Andr. Odyss. :
útrum génua amplóctens uirginem oráret,
may take its ofrom a Derivative Noun (cf. toga from tego, ch. iv. § 52, and see below, § 33. 3). The o of cŏquō for *quĕ-quō (0. Ind. pac-, Gk. $\boldsymbol{\pi} \epsilon \in \sigma \sigma \omega, \mathbf{O}$. Sl. peką) has been similarly referred to the influence of cǒquus.
§ 8. Weak grade of root. Verto is in 0 . Lat. vorto (Plaut., \&c.), so that instead of showing the vowel ě of I.-Eur. *wèrt-ō (O. Ind. vártatē 3 Sg. Mid., Goth. vairpa, 'I become'), it seems to show the o of the Perfect, O. Lat. vorti (with weak-grade of stem, wrt-, as in 0 . Ind. va-vrt-e Perf. Mid.) and the P. P. P., O. Lat. vorsus for *wrtt-to (O. Ind. vṛt-tá-). But in Umbr. we find vert- in the Present, vort- in the Perfect and Verbal Noun, ku-vertu, co-vertu 'convertito,' ku-vurtus, 'converteris,' co-vortus, vorsum Acc. $\pi \lambda^{\prime} \epsilon \in \rho o \nu$. The $\mathbf{O}$. Lat. spelling vorto is in all probability a mere matter of spelling; the Present Hh2.
was always pronounced with $e$, verto, but at the time when vo-had come to be pronounced $v e$ - (see ch. iv. § ro), it was occasionally spelt (not pronounced) vorto. O. Lat. vorro for *verso (O. H. G. wirru, 'verwirre') may be similarly explained. In Gk. $\gamma^{\prime}-\gamma \nu-o-\mu a \iota$ Pres., ${ }^{\prime}-\gamma \epsilon \nu-\delta-\mu \eta \nu$ Aor. we find the E-root relegated to the Preterite, while a modification of the root by Reduplication is assigned to the Present (see next paragraph). In O. Lat. and O. Ind., however, the E-form, gen-, appears also as a Present-stem (O. Lat. genunt, O. Ind. ján-a-ti 3 Sg.) (see §§ 3-4). Similarly, Lat. peto is regarded by some as originally an Aorist-stem, the Present-stem being formed with the -Y $\breve{O}$-suffix (§ 15), *petio I Sg., whence the Perfect petīvi.

Other examples of the unaccented verb-form of a Latin Compound asserting itself in the uncompounded verb are : clūdo for claudo (see ch. ii. § 36) ; luo for lavo (Sil. Ital. xi. 22) ; spicio, sico for spĕcio, sěco (see ch. ii. § 12). (For additional instances, e. g. plico, see Solmsen, Stud. Lautg. p. ıзо.)
§9. (2) With reduplicated root. Latin examples are: gigno [I.-Eur. *ĝ̌̆-ĝnǒ-, *ğ̀-ĝn-ě from root gen-, which also occurs with Them. Vow. as a Pres.-stem in O. Ind. and O. Lat. ( $\S \S 3$ 3-4), Gk. $\gamma$ í $\mathbf{\nu}$ oual ], bibo for *pibo (ch. iv. § 163)(I.-Eur. *pı̆-bŏ-, *pĭ-bĕ-, O. Ind. píba-ti 3 Sg., O. Ir. ibi-d; cf. Faliscan pipafo Fut.), sisto (I.-Eur. *sĭ-stŏ-, *š̆-stĕ- from root stā-, O. Ind. tíṣṭha-ti 3 Sg.), sùdo for *sĭ-sdo (ch. iv. § 15I) (I.-Eur. *sĭ-zdŏ-,
 ander-sistu ' intersidito' Imper., for $* \operatorname{sisd}(\mathrm{e})$-tod). Often these Reduplicated Present-stems belong to the Athematic Conjugation, e.g. Gk. ï $\sigma \tau \eta-\mu c$ for *si-stā-mĭ (O. H. G. sestō-m), beside Lat. sisto, O. Ind. tíṣṭhā-mi ; and Latin sistĭmus, sistütis correspond as well with the Greek $\boldsymbol{i} \sigma \tau \breve{a}-\mu \epsilon \nu$, $\mathfrak{\imath} \sigma \tau \check{a}-\tau \epsilon$, as with the thematic forms. Similarly Gk. ï $\eta \mu \iota$ (I.-Eur. *š̌-sē-, athematic) is in Latin thematic in sěro for ${ }^{*}$ si-so, though seri-mus, seri-tis may be equally referred to athematic $*_{\operatorname{sis} \alpha-\text { as to thematic } * \text { sisǒ-, } * \text { sisě- ; I.-Eur. } * \text { dĭ-dō-, }}$ athemátic (Gk. $\delta i \delta \delta \omega-\mu \iota, \mathrm{O}$. Ind. dádā-mi) has in Latin lost its reduplication, except in redd 0 , if this stands for re-ll(i)do as reppuli, repperi for re-p $(e) p u l i$, re-p $(e)$ peri, but not in Umbro-Osean (Pelign. dida 'det,' Umbr. dirsa pronounced *dĭđa ?). All these Latin examples reduplicate with the vowel 1 , and most belong to roots ending in a long vowel. Some Greek Aorist-stems show this reduplication with the vowel ĕ, e. g. $\begin{gathered}\text { é- } \pi \epsilon \phi \nu 0-\nu \text { from root } \phi \epsilon \nu \text {-, }\end{gathered}$
 from root $\pi \epsilon v \theta-$, by analogy of which the spurious Presents $\pi \epsilon \phi \nu \omega$, кє́клоцац have been formed. Short $e$ is also the Reduplicationvowel of the Perfect-stem (see § 39).
§ 10. (3) With root nasalized. Of the ten conjugations under which the Hindu grammarians have classified the Sanscrit verb, three are assigned to these nasalized Present-stems, one (the seventh conjugation) showing a nasal infix, I.-Eur, -ně-, varying with -n-, e.g. yŭ-ná-j-mi I Sg., yŭ-n̂-j-más ı Pl., yurk-té 3 Sg. Mid. (Lat. $j u \check{u}-n-y o$ ), from the root yuj- (I.-Eur. yeug-), the other two showing a nasal affix, viz. the ninth conjugation with -nā- varying with a weak grade (O. Ind. -nī-), e. g. str-nắ-mi i Sg., stṛ-nī-más i Pl., stṛ-nī-tē 3 Sg. Mid. (Lat. ster-no), and the fifth conjugation with I.-Eur. -neu- (O. Ind. -nō-) varying with -nŭ-, e.g. r-ṇó-mi 1 Sg., ṛ-ب̣ŭ-más i Pl., r-ṇŭ-té 3 Sg Mid. (Gk. ö $\rho-\nu \bar{v}-\mu \iota$ ). In Greek the type of Present corresponding to the Sanscrit seventh conjugation has only -n-, never -ně-, and has been usually modified by the addition either
 $\tau v-\gamma-\chi-\alpha d^{\nu} \omega, \lambda a-\nu-\theta-a ́ v \omega, \& c$. .), or of the -Y $O$-, -YĔ- suffix, e. g. $\kappa \lambda \dot{\alpha} \zeta \omega$ for ${ }_{\kappa}{ }_{\kappa \lambda} \alpha \gamma \gamma-y \omega$ (cf. $\epsilon-\kappa \lambda a \gamma \xi a$ ) (Lat. clango); the Sanscrit ninth conjugation is represented by $\sigma \kappa i \hat{\delta}-\nu \eta-\mu \iota$ I Sg., $\sigma \kappa i \hat{\delta}-\nu a ̆-\mu \epsilon \nu$ I Pl., $\sigma \kappa i \grave{\delta}-\nu a ̆-\mu a \iota$ Mid., $\pi i \tau-\nu \eta-\mu \iota$ I Sg., $\pi i \tau-\nu a ̆-\mu \in \nu$ I Pl., $\pi i \tau-\nu a ̆-$ $\mu a \iota$ Mid., \&c. ; the Sanscrit fifth conjugation by ä $\gamma-\nu v \bar{v}-\mu \iota ~ I ~ S g .$,
 Sanscrit all these nasalized stems belong to the Athematic Conjugation, though we have thematic byforms like 3 Sg. yuñjáti, ṛ̣vati ; but in Greek the first type mentioned is always thematic, e. g. $\lambda \iota \mu \pi \alpha \alpha^{\nu} \omega$, the others occasionally, e.g. $\pi \iota \tau \nu \dot{a} \omega, \delta a \mu \nu \alpha \alpha^{\prime} \omega$ (byforms

 $\dot{v} \pi \iota \sigma \chi \nu^{\prime} \circ \mu a \iota, \kappa \iota \nu \epsilon \in \omega$. The discrepancy between Greek and Sanscrit, the two languages in which these nasalized stems have been most fully preserved, makes it difficult to determine the original ${ }^{\bullet}$ I.-Eur. types of nasalization (see I. F. ii. pp. 285 sqq.). In default of a better classification, we may arrange the Latin nasalized Presents in two classes, according as the nasal presents the appearance of a nasal infix or a nasal affix.
i. With nasal infix, e. g. lŭ-n-quo (O. Ind. rĭ-ṇá-c-mi i Sg., rı̆-n̂-c-más i Pl., Pruss. po-linka, ' he remains'; cf. Gk. $\lambda \check{\iota \mu \pi a ́ v \omega), ~}$ from root leiqư- (Gk. $\lambda \epsilon i \pi \omega$, Lith. lëkù, Goth. leihva, 'I lend,' Germ. leihe) ; fŭ-n-do (O. Ind. bhĭ-ná-d-mi) from root bheid-
(Goth. beita, ' I bite'). The variation of -nĕ- and -n- seen in O. Ind. rǐ-ṇá-c-mi i Sg., rĭ-n̂-c-más i Pl., is not seen in other languages, where the weak grade -n- is used throughout. The Latin Presents conquiniscor (Perf. conquexus), to stoop, and possibly frūniscor (cf. fructus), to enjoy, do however perhaps show the fuller suffix-nĕ- combined with the Inceptive suffix -sko- (§ 22), if -niscor stands for -nĕc-scor, with loss of $c(g)$ in the group
 of other Inceptives (see § 28) ; and Gk. $\kappa v-\nu \epsilon-(\sigma)-\omega$, Aor. ${ }^{\epsilon}-\kappa v \sigma-a$, may do the same. These forms with nasal infix are often augmented by the YŎ-suffix (§ 15), e.g. Gk. $\pi \tau i \sigma \sigma \omega$ for $*_{\pi \tau i \nu \sigma-y \omega \text {, }}$
 (cf. $\begin{gathered}\epsilon \\ -\kappa \lambda a \gamma \xi a) \text {, Lith. jùng-iu, beside Lat. pinso, plango, clango, }\end{gathered}$ and jungo; and so in Lat. pinsio, sancio (cf. sŭc-er), vincio (from the root vyek-). English examples of nasal infix are : 'I spring,'
 wring,' from the root werĝh- (Lith. verž-iù, 'I squeeze'). ('I stand' belongs to a rare type of I.-Eur. Present-stem in -NT, on which see Osthoff in Versamml. Philolog. xxi. p. 300.)
ii. With nasal affix. I.-Eur. lĭ-nā- (O. Ind. lĭ-nā-mi, Gk. $\lambda i-\nu a ̆-\mu a \iota \cdot \tau \rho \epsilon ́ \pi о \mu a \iota ~ H e s y c h ., ~ O . ~ I r . ~ l e ̆ n i m, ~ ' I ~ c l i n g ~ t o, ~ f o l l o w, ' ~ O . ~$ Scand. lina, 'I grow weak') is Lat. $l i$-no, from a root lei-, so that the I.-Eur. affix -nā- has been lost in Latin (unless lino represents * $l i-n \bar{a}-\bar{o}$ ), and only its weak grade (O. Ind. -nī-, Gk. -vă-) remains,
 sperno), consternäre, to terrify (beside consterno, to strew) (but cf. ch. iii. § 19), decl̄̄̄āre and incl̄̄nāre (beside Gk. клìv $)$, dest̄̄näre (beside Gk. $\sigma \tau a ́ \nu \omega$ and $\sigma \tau a \nu v{ }^{\prime} \omega$ ) cannot quite be identified with I.-Eur. -nā- (O. H. G. spor-nō-n, O. Ind. str-ṇā-ti 3 Sg., O. Sax. hli-nō-n ; cf. O. H. G. stornēn, 'to be astonished,' hlinēn), for the same $\bar{a}$ appears in compounds of other than nasal-stems, e. g." occüpäre (beside căpere), proftīgāre (beside fīgere) (see § $3^{2}$ ), and the -ıиnā- of $l a-n-c-i n \bar{a}-r e$ (cf. lăc-er), coqu-inā-re (cf. cŏquo), which indeed suggests comparison rather with Gk. -ăvo- of $\lambda \iota-\mu-\pi-\alpha{ }^{2} \nu \omega$, $\dot{\alpha} \mu a \rho \tau-\alpha, \nu \omega, \& c$., than with Gk. - $\nu \bar{a}-$ of $\sigma \kappa i \hat{\delta}-\nu \eta-\mu \iota, \pi(\tau-\nu \eta-\mu l$, seems to show the - $\bar{a}$ - (I.-Eur. -āyŏ-) of Derivative Verbs (§ 32), like sarcŭnatus from sarcina (a Derivative with nasal suffix from sarcio, as facĭnus from facio), runcĭnare from runcĭna, päğ̆nare from pāğ̆na,
or nominare from nomen (cf. destina, a prop). The I.-Eur. affix -neu-, -nŭ- has left very few traces in Latin: ster-nu-o (Gk.
 probably for *mĭ-new-ō, \&c. (cf. dēnuo for de *newōd, ch. iii. § 24). English examples of nasal affix are 'I spurn,' ' I shine' (Goth. skei-na), 'I fill' (with 11 for ln).

By rule the Nasalization should be confined to the Present Tense, and not extended to other than Present forms: e.g. $l i-n-q u o$, re-lìqui, re-lic-tus; sì-n-o, sì-vi, sĭ-tus. But it pervades the whole verb in some cases, e. g. jungo, junxi, junctus.

The weak grade of the root is proper to all these Nasalized Present-stems, e.g. jungo from root yeug-, lino from root lei-, $m \check{\imath}-n u-o$ from root mei-.
§ 11. Other examples of nasal infix. Lat. rŭ-m-po ( 0 . Ind. lŭ-m-pấmi), from root reup- ( $\mathbf{O}$. Engl. berēofe, Engl. I bereave) ; pi-n-so (O. Ind. pĭ-ná-s̆-mi ; cf. Gk. $\pi$ тí $\sigma \omega$ for ${ }^{*} \pi \tau \iota \nu \sigma y \omega$, Lat. pinsio) ; scǐ-n-do (O. Ind. chĭ-ná-d-mi) ; fungor (O.Ind. bhu-ná-j-mi) ; lü-n-go, from root leighh- (Gk. $\lambda \epsilon i ́ \chi \omega$ ) (cf. O. H. G. lecchōm, from *lĭgh-nā-mi) ; vǐ-n-co, from root weik- (Goth. veiha, 'I fight'); cla-n-go (O. Scand. hlakka; cf. Gk. $\kappa \lambda \alpha \gamma \gamma \dot{\alpha} \nu \omega$, $\kappa \lambda a ́ \zeta o \mu a \iota$ ), from root klag- (Lith. klagéti, ' to cackle') ; pre-he-n-do (Alb. gendem, 'I am found,' Lett. gidu, ' I apprehend, perceive,' for ${ }^{\text {g gendu }}$; cf. Gk. $\chi^{a \nu \delta \alpha ́ \nu \omega, ~ \chi \epsilon i \sigma o \mu a \iota ~ F u t . ~ f o r ~}{ }^{*} \chi \in \nu \delta-\sigma \circ \mu \alpha \iota$ ), from root ghed- (Engl. get, Lat. praeda for ${ }^{*}$ prae-hed-a); di-sti-n-guo (Goth. stigqa, 'I thrust' ; cf. Lith. sténgiu), from the root steign- (O. Ind. tếjatē, 'is sharp' ; cf. Lat. in-stigare) ; e-mü-n-go ( 0 . Ind. muncáti, 'he releases,' Lett. múku, ' I escape,' for *munku) ; fî-n-go ( 0 . Ir. dengaim, ' I fasten'), from root dheiĝh- (Goth. deiga) ; tŭ-n-do (Pft. tŭ-tŭ-di) ; pŭ-n-go (Pft. pŭ-pŭg-i) ; ac-cŭ-m-bo (cf. cŭbare, Pft. ac-cŭb-ui) ; tŭ-n-go (Pft.te-tig-i, for *te-tŭg-i, Gk. $\tau \in \tau a \gamma \dot{\omega} \nu)$; lŭ-m-bo (cf. lüb-ium) ; rï-n-gor ( $\mathbf{O}$. Sl. ręg-ną, augmented by -no-), beside rictus.
§ 12. Retention of Nasal throughout the Tenses. Like jungo, junxi, junctum
 Men. 913: nón potest haec rés ellebori iúngere optinérier),
we have pungo, punctum (but pŭpйgi; Priscian says the Perf. of repungo is repunxi, like expunxi, or repupugi, i. 524. 13 H.) ; distinguo, distinxi, distinctum; fingo, finxi (but fictum ; finctum, Ter. Eun. 104) ; plango, planxi, planctum; emungo, emunxi, emunctum; lingo, linxi, linctum; fungor, functus [but on plebeian inscriptions defuctus (C. I. L. ii. $4^{1173}$ ), like sactus, e. g. sactissimae (vi. 1551I, v. 6580), whence the Welsh loanword saith beside sant ; nactus and nanctus are equally good spellings, see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.]. Spellings in MSS. like corrumptus (Neue, $\mathrm{ii}^{2}{ }^{5} 560$ ), relinqui, Perf., are due to the same confusion. When the stem is extended by the YO-suffix, the n is retained, e. g. vincio, vinxi, vinctum, from root vyek-, beside vinco, vici, victum from root weik-, sanctus from sancio. Of roots ending in a dental we have e. g. from tundo, tunsus and (post-Aug.) tusus, and the grammarians speak of a Perf. tunsi (Georges, s. v.); but the dropping of $n$ before $s$ in pronunciation makes it doubtful how far the nasal was really present in such forms (see ch. ii. § 66 on thensaurus for $\theta \eta \sigma a v \rho \sigma^{\prime}$; cf. mensus from mētior).
§ 13. Other examples of nasal affix. Lat. sperno (0. H. G. fir-spirni-t 3 Sg., spurnu), with Perf. surē-ri, as cerno Perf. crē-ri (cf. Gk. $\tau^{\epsilon} \mu-\nu-\omega$, $\bar{\epsilon}-\tau \mu \eta-\theta \eta \nu$ ); O. Lat. degunere (degustare, Paul. Fest. 50. 36 Th. ; cf. Gl. Philox. degunere :
 Goth. kiusa, Engl. I choose) ; ap-pelläre and com-pelläre for ${ }^{*}-$ pel-nā-re (Gk. $\boldsymbol{\pi} \mathbf{i} \lambda$ $\nu$ ă- $\mu a \iota$, I approach, $\mathbf{O}$. Ir. ad-ellaim), beside pellere, to strike; the Compoundstem with -nä- has a peculiar sense also in de-stī-nā-re, prae-stī-n $\bar{a}-r e$, which in Plautus are used for 'to buy,' e. g. Most. 646 quid, eas quanti destinat?; Capt. 848 alium piscis praestinatum abire (cf. Arm. sta-na-m, 'I possess, buy'), $o b-s t i \cdot n \bar{a}-r e$, to stickle for, Plaut. Aul. 267 :

> id inhiat, ea affinitatem hanc óbstinauit grátia,
whence obstinatus ; there is a gloss, gredinunda BaסíSovoa, C. G. L. ii. 36. ro.
§ 14. Other Verb-stems with n. From Nasalized Present-stems we must distinguish (r) O. Lat. forms of the 3 Plur. Pres. Ind. like dănunt, explēnunt, prodinunt, on which see § 73 ; (2) Derivative $\bar{A}$-Verbs from Noun and Adjective Nasal-stems : e. g. opinnor, -äri from a Noun *opion-, connected with praedopiont (MSS. praedotiont) 'praeoptant' of the Carmen Saliare (Fest. 244. ${ }_{13}$ Th.), optio, optare, \&c.; festīno, -äre ; vulpīnor, $-\bar{a} r i$, to use the wiles of a fox (Varro, Men. $3^{227}$ B.) ; auctiōnor, -āri ; contiōnor, -āri ; sarcinno, -äre; nominno, -äre (see above); (3) Verbs in which the nasal belongs to the root, e.g. tendo, formed from the root ten- by means of the suffix $d$ (§33); frendo similarly for frem-d-o ; offendo, defendo from the root ghwen-, 'to strike' (Gk. $\theta$ eiva for $\left.{ }^{*} \theta \epsilon \nu y \omega\right)$.

The verb pando is of doubtful origin. Some make it a nasalized form like unda (cf. Lith. vandư beside Goth. vatō, Engl. water; O. Ind. udán- beside Gk. ṽ $\delta \omega \rho$ ) ; others make it a word-group, *patem-do, lit. 'I make opening,' like vendo and vénum do [Osc. patensíns 'aperirent' (?) has also been variously explained]. Mando, to chew, if connected with Gk. $\mu a \sigma$ áo $\mu a l$ for ${ }^{*} \mu a \tau \iota a \rho \mu a \iota(?)$, will be a parallel formation.
§ 15. With suffix -YǑ-, -ǏYǑ-. Like the Noun-suffix -yŏ-, -1̆yŏ- (ch. v. § 4) this varies with -yě-, -1̆yĕ- or with -І̆-. Owing to the weakening of vowels in unaccented syllables in Latin, it is difficult to ascertain the exact form of the suffix in the various persons of the Present Tense; but the analogy of other languages points to a declension like this of those Presents in which -yŏ- varied with $-\overline{1}-: ~ 1 ~ S g . ~ * ~ c u p-y o ̄, ~ 2 ~ S g . ~ c u p-i-s, ~ 3 ~ S g . ~$ cup- $i-t$, 1 Pl . ${ }^{*}$ cup-y̆̆-mos, 2 Pl . *cup-i-tes, 3 Pl . *cup-yo-nt (see Brugmann, Grundriss, ii. § 702).

Two classes of Present-stems with the YŎ-suffix stand out very clearly, though they occasionally overlap:
i. With E-grade of root and accent on the root, e.g. Lat. spĕc-io (O. Ind. páśs-ya-ti, Zend spas-yẹ-iti, Gk. $\sigma \kappa є ́ \pi \tau о \mu a \iota ~ f o r ~$ $*_{\sigma \kappa \epsilon \pi-y o-\mu a \iota)}$.
ii. With weak grade of root and accent on the suffix, e.g. Lat. mŏr-ior for *mr-yōr (O. Ind. mr-iyá-tē 3 Sg .), vënio for
 belong intransitive verbs (e. g. O. Sl. sto-ja, 'I stand ') ; and so intimately connected is this type of the suffix with intransitive sense, that in Sanscrit its Middle is used as the Passive of all verbs, e.g. kriyé, 'I am made,' kriyátē, ' he is made,' the Passive of karốmi, 'I make,' karôti, 'he makes.' In the Balto-Slavic family of languages these verbs show in the other tenses an $\overline{\mathrm{E}}$-suffix, clearly the same as the Greek Passive $-\eta$ - of $\grave{c}-\mu a ́ v-\eta-\nu$ beside $\mu$ aivouaı for $*_{\mu l l-y o-\mu a l}$, a suffix likewise identified with the intransitive or passive sense. This conjugation of intransitive verbs is not found in Latin, but it has perhaps left its mark in the coexistence of Presents in -io and -eo, e. g. jŭcio and $j$ üceo, părio and pŭveo. In most cases however the $\overline{\mathrm{E}}$-suffix ousted the YŎ-suffix altogether, e. g. sělleo, sel-ē-s, sell-è-mus, \&̌c. from an
 sizzu for ${ }^{*}$ sed-yō), video, vid-è-s, vid-è-mus, \&c. from an I.-Eur. Present-stem *wid-yŏ- (O. Ind. vid-yá-tē, ‘he is perceived,' Lith. pa-výdžiu i Sg. Pres.) with another (originally not a Present) stem in -ē- (Lith. pa-vydëti Inf.). [In Goth. vitais for *wid- $^{\text {wid }}$ eyyĕ-s, vitaib for $*_{\text {wid-èyĕ-t, and in other Teutonic verbs, the same }}$ intrusion of -ē- (-èyŏ-) into the Pres.-stem is seen as in Latin.] These Intransitive Verbs with Inf. -ère constitute an important part of the second Conjugation in Latin, e.g. călēre, rŭlū̀re, pütère; they acquire a Transitive sense by appending fŭcio to a Verb-stem in -é (ch. v. § 5r), e. g, cŭlēe-fücio, and often take as their Present-stem an ' Inceptive' formation in -sco, e.g. incŭlesco, $\bar{e} r$ rubesco (see § 28). The association of this type with the Intransitive functions is seen in pendeo Intrans. beside pendo Trans., mŭdeo (Gk. $\mu \alpha \delta \delta_{a ́ \omega}$ ), vĕreor (Gk. ó $\rho a ́ \omega$, ch. iv. § 10), clueo and cluo (Gk. $\left.\kappa \lambda \lambda^{\prime} \omega\right)$.

Another class of Presents which show the YŎ-suffix is-
iii. With $-\bar{a},-\bar{e},-\bar{o}$ after the root. Beside the root pel-, for example, we have the root plē-, ' to fill,' with a Present-stem *plē-yŏ-, 'to be filling' (Lat. im-pleo) ; beside the root ter- we have the root trē-, ' to penetrate,' (cf. Gk. $\tau \rho \hat{\eta}-\mu a$ ) with a Present-stem *trē-yŏ- (O. H. G. drāu, Germ. drehe), as well as the root trā-,
with a Present-stem *trā-yŏ- (O. Ind. trà́-ya-tē, Lat. in-tro for *-trāyō) (see ch. iv. § 66). Unlike the second Conj. verbs just mentioned, vüdeo, sëdeo, \&c. with Perfects vïdi, sèdi, Supines vīsum, sessum, and căleo, rŭbeo, \&c. with Perfects călui, rŭbui and with Supines wanting, these è-verbs retain their $\bar{e}$ throughout the conjugation, -plēvi, -plētum, \&c. In addition to monosyllabic Verbstems we have such dissyllabic stems as Lat. *lomä-yō, dŏmo (O. Ind. damā-yá-ti), and a group of onomatopoetic words, e. g. Lat. *ul-ulā-yo, ŭlŭlo (Lith. ut-ūtó-ju, and unreduplicated utó-ju, Gk. $\dot{v} \lambda \dot{\alpha} \omega$ for $* \dot{\lambda} \lambda \bar{a}-y \omega)$. Beside the Present-stems with the YÖ-suffix we find athematic Presents from these roots with $-\bar{a},-\bar{e},-\bar{o}$ (e. g. O. Ind. trā-ti beside trátya-tē, Gk. $\pi i \mu-\pi \lambda \eta-\mu l, \tau i-\tau \rho \eta-\mu l$, $\kappa i-\chi \eta-\mu \iota)$ which seem to have originally retained the long vowel throughout, and not to have variation with the weak grade (e. g. O. Ind. trá-sva 2 Sg. Imper. Mid., Gk. $\kappa i-\chi \eta-\mu \in \nu$ Pl.); and in Latin this athematic formation appears to be used in all persons but the first, in-trä-s, in-trā-mus, \&c., though this cannot be proved, seeing that, e.g. $i m-p l \bar{e} s$ is equally derivable from thematic *-plē-yĕ-s (cf. trēs for *trüy-čs, ch. iv. § 66) as from athematic *-plē-s (O. Ind. prá-si).

The YŎ-suffix played a great part in the I.-Eur. languages as a secondary suffix, added to Verb-stems, e. g. Lat. pinsio beside pinso (an already-formed Pres.-stem, § io), Gk. $\grave{\epsilon} \sigma \theta i \omega$ beside ${ }_{\epsilon} \epsilon \sigma \theta \omega$, or to Noun-stems, \&c. to form derivative verbs, e.g. Lat. cūro, for * currā-yō (Umbr. kuraia, 'curet') from the Noun-stem *curā-, claudeo for *claudc̆ç-yō from the Adjective-stem *claudĕ-, *claull̆-, finnio for $^{*}$ fini $-y \bar{o}$ from the Noun-stem *fini-, stătuo for $^{\text {for }}$ $*_{s t a t u-y \bar{o}}$ from the Noun-stem $*_{\text {statu-, }}$ custölio for $*_{c u s t o l-y \bar{o}}$ from the Noun-stem * custöl-, and so on. But since the suffix is in these derivatives usually maintained throughout the Latin conjugation, pinsitus, custorlivi, custoditus, \&c., they are better reserved for discussion among the Verb-suffixes in $\S 26$ (cf. Gk. $\delta a i-\sigma \omega, \delta a i-v \bar{v}-\mu \iota$ beside $\delta a i \omega$ for $* \delta a-y \omega)$. Derivatives from $\bar{A}$-stems follow the analogy of roots with -a (e.g. Lat. in-tro, in-trūs, in-trümus, see above) in using the YO-suffix only to form the thematic ist Pers. Sg. of the Present Tense, while those from U-stems use it in all persons, e. g. stătuo, statuis, statuimus. For Latin athematic forms like curā-mus derived from stem curā-, \&c. we may compare the athematic flexion of similar

Derivative Verbs in the Lesbian dialect, e. g. $\tau i \mu \bar{a}-\mu \epsilon \nu$, derived from stem $\tau \iota \mu \bar{a}-, \phi i ́ \lambda \eta-\mu l$, derived from stem $\phi i \lambda \epsilon-, \sigma \tau \epsilon \phi a ́ v \omega \mu \nu$, derived from stem $\sigma \tau \epsilon \phi a v o-$.

English examples of Present-stems with the YŎ-suffix are 'I lie' [O. H. G. ligg(i)u, but Pret. lag, ' I lay'], and the two Pres. Participles which have become Nouns, 'a fiend' (Goth. fijands, lit. 'hating'), ‘ a friend' (Goth. frijōnds, lit. ‘ loving ').
§ 16. $\check{\overline{1}}$ in the third Conj. Presents with Yǒ-suffix. We have $\bar{\imath}$ often in O. Lat. ; cupīs, Plaut. Curc. $3^{64}$ :
laúdo. Laudató, quando illud, quód cupis, effécero,
facis, Amph. 555 (so the MSS.) ; facit, Curc. 258 (?) ; inlicite is the scansion required by the metre in a line of Naevius (Trag. 30 R.) :
sublímen altos sáltus inlicíte, ubi bipedés uolantes (MSS. uolucres) líno linquant lúmina;
in I Pers. Plur., morimur is attested by Priscian (i. p. 501 . 16 H.) in a couplet of Ennius (Amn. 415 M.):
nunc est ille dies, cum gloria maxima sese
nobis ostendat, si uiuimus siue morimur ;
we have adgredimur, Plaut. Asin. 68o, Rud. 299 ; and in 3 Sg. Dep. adoritur is attested by Prisc. (l. c.) in a line of Lucilius (or Lucretius iii. 515 ?). The long vowel is especially common in the Inf. of the Deponent in Plautus, e. g. adgredīri, morīri, effodīri (cf. parīre). (For other examples, see Neue, ii ${ }^{2}$. p. 415.) These forms can hardly be due to the false Analogy of verbs like finio, -ivi, -itum, -ire, such as is seen in Late Lat. farci-tus (coined on the type of fini-tus), for they are a feature of the older language. They rather indicate that in the period of the early literature the suffix might appear as $\grave{\imath}$ or as $\bar{i}$, whereas in the classical period the usage became restricted to one or other of these forms The best explanation then of Verbs in -io 1 Sg. Pres. Ind. which belong to the third Conjugation is that they are YŎ-stems in which - $\imath-$ asserted itself, rather than $-i$-, as the weak grade of -yŏ- (-yë-) ; capëre will then stand for *capiš̆, cape for ${ }^{*}$ capĭ. This does not however preclude the possibility of other explanations being right in particular cases, such as that a bystem without -yŏ- existed, say *fac- beside *fac-yŏ- (cf. bene-ficent-ior beside faciens), *rap- beside *rap-yŏ (cf. rapo, 'a robber,' Varro, Men. 378 B.), that - $i$ belongs to a stem in -iyŏ-, -i- to a stem in -yŏ-, e. g. spěcio from stem *spek-yo(cf. Gk. $\sigma \kappa \in ́ \pi \tau \omega$ ) with the Y $\check{O}$-suffix immediately following on a consonant.
§ 17. Other examples of E-grade roots. Lat. *vërio, 'to close,' seen in op-(w)erio, ap-(w)erio (Lith. ùž-veriu, 'I shut,' àt-veriu, 'I open') (on the loss of $\mathbf{w}$, see ch. iv. § 71) ; ind-uo for *indovo from *-ew-y $\overline{\text {, }}$, to judge from Umbr. an-oviihi-mu for *and-ov-ī-mu, 'induimino' (ch. iii. § 24) from the root ew-, ' to put on.' Similarly haurio for aurio (exaurio is the almost invariable spelling
of Latin Glossaries, Löwe, Prodr. p. 371 n.) from root aus- (cf. Gk. $\boldsymbol{\xi} \xi a \hat{v} \sigma a t$, 'to
 krok-iì and krog-iù).
§ 18. Of weak grade roots. i. With -io. Lat. curp-io (O. Ind. kup-ya-ti, ' is in
 grưdior from the root glredh- (Goth. gridi- F., 'a step,' O. Sl. grędą, ' I come,' O. Ir. in-grennim, ' I pursue, attack,' the last two with Nasalized stem) shows the weakening of -rě- to -rŏ- mentioned in ch. iv. § 5 r ; similarly farcio for *fracio (Gk. $\phi \rho a ́ \sigma \sigma \omega$ ) from the root bhreqü- of frequens (and for the connexion of ' cramming' and 'frequency,' cf. saepe and O. Lat. saepissumus, 'closely packed,' clı. ix. § 4); likewise răpio, if connected with rĕpens, 'sudden.'
ii. Intransitive with eeo. Lat. rübeo from an I.-Eur. *rŭdh-yō (O. Sl. rŭždą, with the ésuffix in Inf. rŭde-ti) ; torpeo with trp- the weak grade of the root
 botlı seem to show Lat. čas a weak grade of ě (ch. iv. § 3). Like rübeo with Noun ribor, torpeo with Noun torpor and Adj. torpidus are a large number of Intransitive Verbs, cŭleo (calor, calidus, plüceo (placidus; but Transitive plāco), lı̆queo (lı̆ииor, lüquidus; cf. leqquor, third Conj.), and so on (ch. v. § 74). The tĕneo of per-tineo, lit. 'to reach through,' trans-tineo, 'to reach across' (Plaut. Mil. +68 commeatus transtinet trans parietem) is the Neuter of tendo.
§ 19. Alternative forms in -o and -eo. Lat. tueor and tuor, ' to look'; fulgeo and fulgo ; ferreo and ferro; scĭteo and scato; abnuo and O. Lat. abnueo (Diom. 382. It K.): In all of these the form in oo is the older (e. g. contuor, intuor Plaut., scato Plaut., Enn., Lucr.; ferrit and fervĕre are common in the early Dramatists, the latter often in Virgil, but to Quintilian a third Conjugation form of this verb is ' inauditum,' Quint. i. 6. 8), while the form in -eo is a new formation on the Analogy of the numerous Intransitives in -eo (cf. Caper rog. 16 K . fido non 'fideo'. We have sorlĕre in Plaut. Poen. п179. (See also below, § 33.)
§ 20. Of roots with -ā, -è, -ō. Latin $n o$ for ${ }^{*} \operatorname{sna} \bar{a}-y \bar{o}$ ( $O$. Ind. snā-ya-tē, and athem. snấ-ti, Lat. nat); neo for *(s)nē-yō (Gk. v'́ต, O. H. G. nāu, Germ. nähe), tŭceo for *tacē-yō (Goth. pahaip 3 Sg. from *takē-yĕ-ti, and athem. O. H. G. dagē-s, Lat. tucēs) ; flo for *flē-yō (cf. O. H. G. blāu from *bllē-yō, perhaps the same word as Lat. fleo for *flē-ȳ̄, Gk. $\phi \lambda \bar{\epsilon} \omega$, to overflow); hio for *hiā-yō (Lith. žió-ju) from the root ğhei-; jŭvo for *jucā-ȳ̄, I.-Eur. *dyŭg"̄ā-yō, from the root dyeugñ- (cf. Lith.džiung-ü-s, 'I rejoice,' a nasalized Present) (butcf. ch.iv.§64); cübo for *cub-āyo from the root keubh- (cf. -cumbo, a nasalized Present). Of onomatopoetic words with I Sg. Pres. in - (cyos, we have murmuro, tintinno, unco, to bray (Gk. órıćo oual .
§ 21. Inceptives, and other Verb-stems. Though Inceptive verbs by virtue of their meaning restrict, as a rule, the inceptive suffix -skŏ- (-skŏ-) to the Present sense, e. g. cresco, Pft. crēvi; they differ from Present-stem formations like sĭno, Pft. sivi, сӑpio, Pft. cēpi, in this respect, that the meaning, which they express, is something more than the mere sense of action in present time, e. g. sĕnesco means, not 'I am old' (sĕneo), but 'I become old.' They are therefore better considered in a separate
section, along with some verb-formations which are more than mere Tense-stems, such as Causatives, Intensives, Desideratives, and the like.
§ 22. Inceptives in -sîkǒ- (-skŏ-). The root shows, as a rule, the weak grade, e. g. I.-Eur. *pṛk-skŏ- (O. Ind. pr-chấ-mi, with *-skh- for $*_{\text {-sk-), Lat. posco }}$ for $*_{\text {porc-sco, }}$ from the root prek-. It is sometimes reduplicated in Greek, e. g. $\delta \iota \delta \dot{a} \sigma \kappa \omega$ for $\boldsymbol{*}_{\delta} \iota-\delta a \kappa-\sigma \kappa \omega$, but not in Latin unless $l i s c o$, from root deik-, stands for $* d i-d c-s e r$, (cf. $d \breve{\imath}-d \breve{l} c-i)$ and not for $*_{l \breve{l} c-s c o . ~ A n ~ E n g l i s h ~ I n c e p t i v e ~ i s ~}^{\text {a }}$ 'I wash’ (O. Engl. wæsce, from a Teut. * ${ }_{\text {wat-skō ist }}$ Sg., derived from the same root as ' wet,' ' water,' Lat. unda, \&c.).
§23. Causatives and Intensives in -eyo-. The root has the O-grade, and the accent rests on the first syllable of the suffix. Causatives of this type are a regular feature of the Sanscrit conjugation, and may be formed from any verb, e. g. mān-áyā-mi (Lat. mŏneo for *mon-éyō) from the root man- (I. Eur. men-; cf. Lat. mĕmŭni for *me-men-i); tarṣ-áyā-mi (Lat. torreo, O. H. G. derr(i)u, for *trs-éyō) from the root trẹs- (I.-Eur. ters-), so that Lat. moneo was literally 'to cause to remember' [cf. Plaut. Mil. 49 Edepól memoria's óptima. Offaé monent; Paul. Fest. ${ }^{115} 5$ Th. 'monitores' qui in scaena monent histriones (our ' prompters ')], torreo 'to cause to be dry.' These Causatives of Sanscrit have a different accent from Derivatives in -ĕyŏ- from O-stems, in which the accent falls on the suffix -yǒ-, e. g. dēva-yắ-mi, 'I honour the gods,' from dēvá-, 'a god' (an O-stem, *deiwŏ-). The same formation often has the Intensive or the Iterative sense, e. g. Gk. фopé $\omega$ from I.-Eur. *bhŏr-éyō, ' I carry frequently,' from the I.-Eur. root bher-, 'to carry' (Gk. $\phi$ ' $\rho \omega$, Lat. fero); Gk. $\pi{ }^{\circ} \theta^{\prime} \omega$ for ${ }^{*} \phi o \theta \epsilon \omega$ from I.-Eur. *gh ${ }^{\mathrm{n}}$ odh-éyō (O. Ir. guidiu), ' I ask or desire earnestly,' from the I.-Eur. root gh"edh-', 'to ask' (Gk. $\theta \epsilon \in \sigma \sigma \epsilon \sigma \theta a \iota)$. The P.P. P. of these verbs shows -iin some languages ( $O$. Ind. vartǐ-tá-, Goth fra-vardi-ps), -i- in others (cf. Lith.vartý-tiInf., O.Sl. vrati-ti); in Lat. ${ }_{\mathrm{z}}^{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{e}$ e.g.monitus, nocitus ; and there are indications that the I.-Eur. declension of the Present Ind. was *wortéyō i Sg., *wortī̀mós i Pl., \&c. (P. B. Beitr. xviii.p. 519). An English example is 'I lay '(Pres.), in Goth. lag.ja, from I.-Eur. *loghéyō; 'I lay' is the Causative of 'I lie.'
§ 24. Latin Desideratives in -tŭrio. These are formed with the YO-suffix (§ 15), probably from Verbal Noun-stems in -tor-, e. g. parturio from partor, scripturio from scriptor, with the same change of unaccented $\breve{o}$ to $\breve{u}$ as in fulgŭro, O . Lat. fulgŏrio (ch. iii.§ 26).
§ 25. Latin Iteratives or Frequentatives in -*tāyŏ- are formed from Perf. Part. Pass.-stems, or rather from the Fem. of these used as a Noun (cf. offensa beside offensus, rĕpulsa beside repulsus), with the help of the YŎ-suffix, e. g. pulso, older pulto, for *pultū-yō, from pulsus, older pultus, P. P. P. of pello. Sometimes the TO-suffix is doubled, e. g. factı̆to, ventüto.
§ 26. Other Derivative Verbs with the YǑ-suffix. The ending -ăyō-, which properly belongs to Derivatives from Ā-stem Nouns (e. g. from planta, a plant, a shoot, plantare, to plant, lit. ' to make or turn something into a plant'), acquired a transitive sense, and was used in Latin, as in other I.-Eur. languages, with any Noun- or Adj.-stem, e. g. clärare, 'to make clear,' from the Adj.-stem claro-, pulverare, ' to turn something into dust,' or ' to cover with dust,' from the Noun pulvis, a Consonant-stem. The ending -ěyo-, which properly belongs partly to Derivatives from O-stem Nouns or Adjectives (e.g. claudeo,' to be lame,' from claurlus, albeo, 'to be white,' from albus), partly, as a Primary suffix, to Intransitive Verbs like rubeo, sedeo (see § 32), is the corresponding intransitive formation, e.g. clarere, ' to be clear.' Latin Verbs in -io include Derivative Verbs from Consonantstems, e. g. custōd-io from the stem custor-, and from I-stems, e.g. tunänio from the Adj. I-stem inani-. This ending acquired to some extent an intransitive sense, expressing a state of body or of mind, and was in this capacity applied to other stems too, e. g. insänio from the Adj. O-stem insanus, to be mad, saevio from the Adj. O-stem saevus, to be fierce.
§ 27. Other suffixes commonly used in forming Verb-stems, primitive suffixes, the sense conveyed by which cannot now be detected, were (1) -dh-, e. g. Gk. $\kappa \nu \eta^{\prime}-\theta-\omega$ beside $\kappa \nu a ́ \omega$, (2) -d-, e.g. Gk. $\bar{\epsilon} \lambda-\delta o-\mu a \iota$ from root wel- (Lat. volo), which may be nothing
but the Verb-stems dhē-, ' to put,' and dō-, ' to give' (cf. Lat. crè̀lo, O. Ir. cretim with O. Ind. šrád dadhāmi, lit. 'I set heart to '), as the common Latin ending - $\mathfrak{\imath g o}$, -àre, e. g. nävigo, seems to be nothing else than the Verb ${ }^{\text {aggo ( }}$ (from *narigus; cf. ch. v. § 80) ; (3) -t-, e. g. Gk. $\pi \epsilon \kappa \kappa-\tau-\omega$ (Lat. pecto) and $\pi \epsilon \kappa \tau \epsilon \epsilon$, beside $\pi \epsilon \in \kappa \omega$, which seems connected with the P. P. P. suffix -to- (ch. v. § 27); (4) -s-, e. g. Gk. $\delta \epsilon ́ \psi \omega$ beside $\delta \epsilon ́ \phi \omega, \tau \rho \epsilon ́-(\sigma)-\omega$ beside $\tau \rho \epsilon \in-\mu-\omega$, which seems the same as the ES-suffix of Nouns, e.g. Gk. $\tau \in \in \lambda o s$, stem $\tau \epsilon \lambda \epsilon \sigma-\quad$ (Gk. $\left.\tau \epsilon \lambda \epsilon(\sigma) \omega, \tau \epsilon-\tau^{\prime} \lambda \epsilon \epsilon-\tau a l\right)$ (§ 3). Latin examples are : gau-d-eo (Gk. $\gamma \dot{\eta} \theta o \mu a \iota$ and $\left.\gamma \eta \theta^{\prime} \epsilon\right)$ for $* g \bar{a} \backslash \grave{\imath}-l-e o(c f . ~ g a ̈ \imath \bar{\imath} s u s)$, sallo for $*_{s a l-d o}$ (Goth. salta), plecto (O. H. G. flih-tu, Germ. flechte) beside plüco, -āre (Gk. $\pi \lambda \epsilon \in \kappa \omega$ ), vīso, older vīsso, veisso for * weid-so (Goth. ga-veisō ; cf. the O. Ind. Desiderative vi-vit-sã- $_{\text {and }}$ mi), quaeso, older quaes-so for *quais-so, beside quaero for *quaiso, in-cesso for $*_{i n-c e d-s o ~(c f . ~ c e ̀ l o) . ~ O t h e r ~ L a t i n ~ e n d i n g s ~ a r e: ~(5) ~}^{\text {l }}$ -siso, e. g. cŭpesso, incı̆pisso (Plaut.), pĕtesso, O. Lat. petisso (Fest. 250. 19 Th.) from căpio, pĕto (or a bystem *petio, whence petivi, §47); on these see §3; (6) -lo and -illo of Diminutive Verbs, e. g. conscrǔbillo Catull. ; (7) -co of allŭco, fŏd兀̆co, \&c.; the last two are like Derivative $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-verbs and belong to the first Conjugation, conscribillare, fodicare, albicare, like mĕlǔcari from medicus. Similarly, (8) -ro of lamb-ĕro (§4I) is like -ro of the Derivative tempĕrare from tempus.
§ 28. Other examples of Latin Inceptives. Misc-eo has added the Causative ending to a lost *missco [cf. misc sane for miscĕ sane on an old Praenestine cista ( $\delta 58$ )] for *mîk-sk $\bar{o}$ [the shortness of the $i$ is seen in the Romance forms, such as Ital. (Tuse.) mesci, 'give me a drink,' the Latin misce mi] with the weak grade of the root meik-. But the E-grade is retained in O. Lat. esco for *es-sco, the Inceptive of the root es-, 'to be,' used for ero (or rather for sum) in the Laws of the XII Tables : si morbus aeuitasue uitium escit, and ast ei custos nec escit, \&c., and even by Lucr. i. 619:

> ergo rerum inter summam minimamve quid escit?,
as by Ennius, A. 322 M. :
dum quidĕm unus homo Romanus toga superescit.
Roots extended by $-\bar{a},-\bar{e},-\bar{o}$ like gnnō- from gen-, keep this vowel long, as is their
 (g)nü-scor, crē-sco, viē-sco, hī $\bar{a}-s c o$; and similarly Latin Intransitives in -eo (§ $\mathbf{3}^{2}$ ) and Derivatives in -o (for $*$-ăyō), -eo, -io (ib.), e. g. rŭbē-sco, con-tičce-sco, $\bar{\imath} r \bar{a}-$ scor, flāvē-sco, ob-dormī-sco, ercī-sco [erceiscunda on the Lex Rubria, C. I. L. i. 205. (2). 55], descisco (with, tall form of $I$ on Mon. Anc. v. 28, which also offers
nascerer with an apex over the $a$ ); though at a later time, when the difference of quantity between vowels had become less marked, we find some uncertainty about the $e$ of quiesco (see Gellius, vii. 15, who decides in favour of quiēsco, on the strength of călēesco, nitēesco, stüpēsco and other Inceptives ; cf. ch. ii. § 144).

The name 'Inceptive' is unsuitable. It is only verbs of the second Conjugation uncompounded with a Preposition, such as calesco, lüquesco, to which a notion of 'beginning' can be attached, and even there the notion conveyed by the suffix is rather that of passing into a state or condition, of 'becoming' than of 'beginning,' e.g. liquesco, 'to pass into a liquid state,' 'to become liquid.' The suffix is closely associated with Intransitive Verbs of the second Conjugation, so closely indeed that these, when compounded with the Prepositions cum, ex, in (Prepositions which convey the idea of 'becoming'), always form their Present-stem with this suffix in good authors, e. g. érübesco (not erubeo), conrülesco (not conraleo), inardesco (not inardeo), unless the Preposition retains its separate force, e. g. é-lüceo, 'to shine out,' co-haereo, 'to be united with,' which have the force of luceo ex, haereo cum. Intransitive Derivatives from stems like dulci-, igni-, grări-, \&c. are formed on this type, and take -esco instead of -isco, dulcesco, ignesco, gravesco, mïtesco, pinguesco, \&c.; and -āsco of Intransitive Derivatives from $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stems, \&c., is in Late Latin often changed to -esco, e. g. gemmesco for gemmasco. The spelling -isco for -esco in Late Latin, e. g. erubisco, may often be a mere interchange of the similarly sounding vowels $\breve{\imath}$ and $\bar{e}$ (see ch. ii. § 14), but it may also be referred to the Late Latin importation of Verbs of the second Conjugation into the fourth (e.g. floriet, florient in the Itala), which has left its mark on the Romance languages, e. g. Ital. apparire (apparisco Pres.) from Lat. appārère ( $\$ 33 a$ ). The -iscor of üpiscor, nanciscor, may be referred to the old forms apio, nancio (whence coepiam, Paul. Fest. 4r. 34 Th., nunciam, Prisc. i. 513.17 H.), as the -isso of 0 . Lat. pĕtisso to a lost *petio (whence petivi, §47). 'Inceptives' from fourth Conjugation Verbs are for the most part ante-classical, e.g. condormisco (Plaut.), êdormisco (Plaut., Ter.), perprū̄risco (Plaut. Stich. 76r), persentisco (Plaut., Ter.), but obdormisco, 'to fall asleep,' is used by Cicero (Tusc. i. 49. 117). They are mostly Compounds (except scisco), and the same is true of the 'Inceptives' from third Conjugation Verbs in the Republican writers, e.g. rěsǐpisco (Plaut., \&c.), prơfĭciscor (cf. făcessere, 'to take oneself off,' and Late Lat. se facere, 'to betake oneself,' e. g. intra limen sese facit, Apul.), concŭpisco (Cic., Sall., \&c.), implüciscier, to become affected (by a disease), Plaut. Amph. 729 :

> úbi primum tibí sensisti, múlier, inplicíscier ?,
though in the poets and later prose writers we have trěmesco, gĕmesco, \&c. - Inceptives' from first Conjugation Verbs found in the early writers are ămasco (Naev.), hiasco (Cat.), lübasco (Plaut., Ter., Lucr.), collabasso, permūnasco, dēsūdasco, and a few others; but this formation was not continued in the classical period, though we find Derivatives in -asco, derived from Noun- and Adj.-stems, e. g. veterasco, resperasco, gemmasco, in which the suffix -sco seems to be added to change the transitive sense attaching to these Derivative $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-verbs (e.g. clarare, to make clear, to clarify, § $3^{2}$ ) into an intransitive.

It thus appears that an intransitive sense attached to the suffix -sco- in Latin, and that this was the reason of its close association with the Intransitive Second Conjugation. Its sense of 'passing into a state or condition' suited it for acting as the Present Tense-stem of Intransitive Verbs. A
verb with this suffix did not govern an Accusative, unless the simple verb from which it was formed governed an Accusative, e. g. perhorrescere aliquid, Cic., like horrere aliquid (a construction of horreo, pŭreo, \&c., not found before Cicero's time). But in the fifth cent. A. D. the termination acquired a causative sense, e. g. innötescere, to make known, inform ; mollescere, to make soft, not 'to become soft,' a sense which was properly expressed by the Auxiliary facio, e. g. calē-facio, rubē-facio. Assuesco, insuesco, mansuesco, and other compounds of suesco had at an earlier period assumed the sense of assuē-facio, mansuē-facio, and perhaps supplied the type for this new formation, which was widely extended in the Romance languages (cf. § $33{ }^{a}$ ).
Of individual 'Inceptive' Verbs may be noticed : callesco, in whose Perfect Cato retained the Inceptive suffix, callesserunt 3 Pl . [Nonius 89.26 M . quotes this form (MSS. calliscerunt) from Cato's speech on the Punic War : aures nobis callescerunt ad iniurias]; obsölesco and exŏlesco from sŏleo with P.P.P. obsolètus, exolētus; udŏlesco and coülesco (cöl-) from the root al- (ol-), 'to grow, nourish' (whence indöles, subŭles, pröles), with P. P. P. adultus, coalĭtus.
For a list of Latin 'Inceptives,' and full details of their history, see A. L. L. i. 465 sqq. Umbro-Oscan examples are Umbr. pepurkurent 'rogaverint,' Osc. comparascuster ' consulta erit.'
§ 29. Of Latin Causatives, \&c. O. Lat. lūceo, 'to cause to shine,' to light or kindle (e.g. Enn. A. 158 M. : prodīnunt famuli, tum candida lumina lucent; Plaut. Curc. 9 tuté tibi puer es: laútus luces céreum; Cas. ir8 primum ómnium huic lucébis nouae nuptaé facem) may be a Causative form, I.-Eur. *louk-éyō (O. Ind. rōcáyā-mi), and different from lūceo, to shine, which seems to be an intransitive form like sĕleo, with -eo instead of -io, I.-Eur. *leuk-yo (Gk. $\lambda \in \dot{\prime} \sigma \sigma \omega$ ) ; nŏco, I.-Eur. *nök̂-è́yō (O. Ind. nāš́áyā-mi) is the Causative of the root nek- (Lat. nex), and has in Late and Vulgar Latin the construction which we should expect, viz. with the Accusative case; its use with the Dat. in class. Latin must be due to the analogy of obesse, officere, \&c. The rivalry between Transitive $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stems and these Causative-stems, best seen in Lithuanian, where the Causatives (e. g. vartý-ti Inf.) form their Presentstems with -ā- (e. g. vartō- for I.-Eur. *wortā-), appears in Lat. něcēre beside nŏcēre ; ă̆müre may be I.-Eur. *dŏmā- (O. H. G. zamō-, 'to tame'), a byform of I.-Eur. *dŏméyo- (Goth. tamja, O. H. G. zemm(i`u). In O. Ind. we have examples of verbs with this suffix which have not the $O$-grade of root, but the weak grade, e.g. grbh-áya-ti, 'he seizes.' Perhaps Latin ci-eo (beside cio) belongs to this type. But the ending -eo is sometimes added to other Verb-stems which have a Causative sense. Thus in Lat. misc-eo it is added to a stem formed already with the inceptive suffix, so that misceo for ${ }^{*}$ mǐc-sc-ĕyo has really two suffixes (cf. O. Ind. dhūnaya-ti, 'he shakes, shatters,' beside dhu-nā-ti and dhŭ-nố-ti, Gk. $\epsilon i \lambda \epsilon \in \omega$ beside $\epsilon i \lambda \omega$ for $\left.{ }^{*} \epsilon \lambda-\nu-\omega\right)$. And this may be the true explanation of cieo also. Jübeo for *yŭ-dh-eyo [from the root yeu- with the formative suffix -dh- (see § 27), cf. O. Ind. yō-dha-ti, 'is set in motion,' Lith. j-un-dù, 'I am set in motion'] is spelt in the S. C. Bacch. with -ou-, the diphthong always found in the perfect (C. I. L. i. 196, 1. 27 ioubeatis, 1. 9, 1. 18 iousiset ; cf. iousit 547 a, 1166, iouserunt 199, 1. 4, iouserit 198, 1. 12) ; this, if not a misspelling (ch.iv. § 37), will exactly correspond with the O. Ind. causative yōdháyā-mi (I.-Eur. *youdhếyō). Terreo, for which we should expect *torreo, has in Umbrian the O-grade of root (Umbr. tursitu, O. Umbr. tusetu, ' terreto ').

Other Causatives, or Transitive Verbs with the Causative -eo appended, are rĕgeo (older rŭgeo ?), to rouse to life, e.g. Pomponius, Com. 78 R. animos Venus veget voluptatibus, düceo, sū̄dleo, urgeo, tondeo, torqueo, mordeo, spondeo, augeo, \&c.
§ 30. Of Latin Desideratives. These were called by the Latin grammarians ' Meditativa.' They were avoided in the higher literature and went out of use in Late Latin. They are not found in the Romance languages. Examples of Desiderative Verbs are ēsŭrio, partürio, emptŭrio, cênätürio (see A. L. L. i. 408 . Verbs in -urrio (-ürio), e. g. lĭgurrio, scăturio, are a quite distinct class, being apparently Derivatives from Verbal Nouns in -üris (e.g. sěcuris) or -їra (e. g. figura).
§ 31. Of Latin Iteratives. The distinction of (I) 'Iteratives' in -tito, (2) 'Intensives' in -to, -so is untenable. The suffix in all its forms denotes repeated action ; the usual type is that of a Derivative $\bar{A}$-Verb from a Perfect Participle Passive, e. g. dütare, dormitare, though from Verbs of the first Conjugation we have sometimes forms in -itto like clümito, vơcito, vŏlito, pointing to P. P. P. rocitus like crĕputus (§92). As the to-suffix of the P.P.P. became in time so- (ch. iv. § 155), we have Iteratives in an older form, merto, pulto (' mertare' atque 'pultare' dicebant Quint. i. 4. 14; Plautus puns on pultem Subj. and pultem Acc. of puls in Poen. 729), and in the class. form merso, pulso. Iteratives which add the suffix to a Present-stem, e. g. sciscito Plaut., noscito Plaut., ăgito, are especially frequent in Late Latin, e. g. mergito Tertull., miscito Script. Gromat., while to the class of Iteratives with double suffix belong actito, lectito, cuntito, dictito, leuesito, juctito, rentito, victito, cursito, factito, Vulg.-Lat. *taxitare, whence Ital. tastare, Fr. tater, 'to taste, try.'
Iteratives are especially used in anteclass. and postclass. Latin. They are aroided by Terence, and not much used by Cicero and Caesar, hardly at all by the Augustan writers; in fact they seem to have been regarded as a part of the uncultured speech. In the Romance languages they have often taken the place of the parent verb, e. g. Fr. jeter (Lat.jactare), to throw (Lat. jăcio), mériter (Lat. mëritare), to deserve (Lat. mëreo), chanter (Lat. cantare), to sing (Lat. cüno). (See A. L. L. iv. 197.) Dübĭtare is the Iterative of an O. Lat. verb dubare (Paul. Fest. 47. 18 Th. 'dubat,' dubitat) ; hortari of an O. Lat. *hŏrior [attested in 3 Sg. horitur by Diomedes (p. 382. 23 K.) for Ennius (A. 465 M .) : prandere iubēt horiturque], which seems to be a Deponent of I.-Eur. *ĝhr-yō
 the Umbro-Oscan word corresponding to Lat. volo, e.g. Umbr. heris, 'vis,' Osc. heriiad, 'velit,' whence Herentas, the Oscan name of Venus) from the root gher-; gǔstare is apparently an I.-Eur. Iterative of this type (O.H.G. costōn) from *ĝ̆us-to-, P. P. P. of geeus-, 'to taste' (Gk. $\gamma \epsilon \dot{v}(\sigma) \epsilon \iota \nu$, Goth. kiusan,
 *itus P. P. P. of eo, for *itāyō (Umbr. etaians, 'itent') ; purto, -are, to prune, to think, lit. 'to sift or cleanse often' (in Romance 'to prune,' e. g. Ital. potare), from a P. P. P. stem *pü-to-, 'cleansed' (Lat. pütus, clean, in the phrase pürus pütus, e.g. Plaut. Pseud. 1200), from the root of Lat. pū-rus, for *pŭtāyō (cf. O.SI. pytają, 'I investigate,' with $\overline{\mathbf{u}}$ ) ; dŏmito from domitus ; crępìto from crepitus ; habito for habitus, which monopolized in class. Lat. the sense of 'to dwell,' ' inhabit' (cf. archaic Engl. ' to keep,' as in the Merchant of Venice, iii. 3 : it is the most impenetrable cur That ever kept with man), a sense which it shared
in O. Lat. with hăbeo, e.g. Plaut. Men. 308 : nón tu in illisce aédibus Habes? Di íllos homines, quí illic habitant, pérduint.
§ 32. Of Latin Derivative verbs with Yǒ-suffix. The onomatopoetic verbs tintinnio (also tinnio and tintirnare), gingrio, to cackle, of geese (whence gingrina, the name of a small size of fife : genus quoddam tibiarum exiguarum, Paul. Fest. 67. 23 Th.; cf. Gl. Philox.) have a formation analogous to the Sanscrit Intensives (e.g. nan-nam-ya-tē from the root nam-, 'to bend') and to Greek $\pi \alpha \mu \phi a^{\prime} \nu \omega$ for ${ }^{*} \pi \alpha \nu-\phi a \nu-y \omega$, , $\mu \alpha \rho \mu a i \rho \omega$ for ${ }^{*} \mu a \rho-\mu a \rho-y \omega$, \&c., that is to say with the suffix -yö- appended to the fully reduplicated root.

The suffix -yoั-, as was remarked before ( $\$$ ro), is often added to nasalized Present-stems, especially in Greek, e. g. $\kappa \lambda \bar{i} \nu \omega$ for ${ }^{*} \kappa \lambda \grave{i}-\nu-y \omega$ from the root k̂lei-, and so we have: linio, a Late Lat. derivative from lino, the Present tense of the root lei- ; pinsio (Gk. $\pi \tau i \sigma \sigma \omega$ for ${ }^{*} \pi \tau \iota \nu \sigma-y \omega$ ) beside pinso; rincio from $*_{v i}{ }^{2}-n-c o$, the nasalized Present of the root vyek- (O. Ind. vi-vyak-ti, 'he encompasses'); sancio beside sŭcer. These derivatives naturally retain the nasal throughout the verb, e.g. P.P.P. pinsitus (but from pinso, pistus), sunctus (in Vulg. Lat. sactus, ch. ii. §70).

Examples of Verbs in -āyŏ- from Noun Ā-stems are: scintillo, -are from scintilla ; lăcrimo, -are from lacrima; multo, -are (Osc. moltanm Inf.) from multa ; insidior, -ari, insidiae ; măcŭlo, -are from macula; praedor, -ari from praeda; mŏrari from mora [in O. Lat. always transitive, 'to cause delay,' 'to detain,' whence nil moror (hane rem), I do not care for, lit. 'I do not (care to) detain']. Lat. poenio, pünio, from poenc, may exhibit an alternative method of forming derivative verbs from Noun $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stems, viz. with the mere suffix -yǒ-, the final vowel of the Noun-stem being suppressed, as in derivative Adjectives like Gk. $\tau i \mu-\iota$ os from $\tau i \mu \eta^{\prime}$; or may follow the analogy of derivatives from I-stems, or derivatives from Consonant-stems.

Of Transitive Verbs from O-stems : amplant, 'pro amplificant,' Pacuv. Trag. 339 R. (ap. Non. 506.30 M. ; nŏro, -are from norus ; säno, -are from sanus ; narro, -are from gnärus (? ch. ii. § 132) ; armo, -are from arma Pl. ; spŏlior, -ari from spolium ; mumĕro, -are from numerus; lŏco,-are from locus; dōno, -are from donum; cйmŭlo,-are from cumulus; damno, -are from damnum. This use of the - $\bar{A} Y(\check{O}-$ suffix for Derivative Verbs from O-stem Nouns and Adjectives is common in all I.-Eur. languages, e. g. Goth. frijō, 'I love' (of which Engl. 'friend' is a Pres. Part.), O. Sl. prija-ją, O. Ind. priyā-yá-tē 3 Sg., all from an I.-Eur. O-stem, *priyo- (O.-Ind. priyá-, ' dear'), O. Ir. caraid, 'he loves,' from I.-Eur. karo-, 'dear' (Lat. cīrus). On the use of -ätŏ- as a Participial Adjective suffix, meaning 'provided with,' 'clothed in,' \&c., e. g. armatus, dentatus, pilatus, from pilum, cordatus in Ennius' egregie cordatus homo (cf. re-cordāri), see ch. v. § 28. It is probably seen in Gaulish $\gamma$ al $\sigma a \tau o t$ [gaesati, 'Gaulish mercenaries,' C. G. L. v. 7r. 23 (?)], from Gaulo-Latin gaesum, a spear.

The natural formation from 0 -stems is sometimes in -ěyö-, e. g. Gk. $\phi\rangle \lambda^{\prime} \omega$, to love, for ${ }^{*} \phi i \lambda \epsilon-y \omega$, from $\phi i ́ \lambda o s$, dear (stem $\phi i \lambda o-$ or $\phi \lambda \lambda \epsilon-$, ch. v. § 2 ), á $\delta \nu \nu a \tau \epsilon \in \omega$, to be unable, from ádúvatos, unable ; sometimes in -yŏ- merely, e. g. Gk. $\mu \in t-$ $\lambda_{i} \sigma \sigma \omega$ for ${ }^{*} \mu_{i} \lambda_{\imath} \backslash-y \omega$ from $\mu \epsilon_{i} \lambda_{i} \chi o s$. With the latter Lat. $\bar{u} n i o$ from unus, blandior from blandus may be compared, as in Noun derivative Y O-stems we have somn-ium from somnus, Octärius from Octavus, \&c. (ch. v. § 4) ; with the former, intransitive Verbs from second Declension Adjectives, like claudeo from claudus, albeo from albus, clāreo from clarus, fläveo from flarus [as in Adjective derivative YÖ-stems like aureus from aurum (ib.)], unless these follow the
analogy of Intransitives like séleo for I.-Eur. *sed-yō (see above, § 15), in which case their ending will be not -ĕyō but -èyō. (The corresponding verbs in Balto-Slavic have -ēyō, e. g. Lith. kétè-ju, ' I grow hard,' from kétas, 'hard'). The same distinction between transitive $-0,-\bar{a} r e ~ a n d ~$ intransitive eoo, -ēre is seen in primary verbs like liquare and lĭquere. (On the proneness of Intransitive Verbs to take -eo, e. g. ferv-eo, fulg-eo, O. Lat. fervo, ful-go, see § 19.)

We have also Participial Adjectives in -ötus, e.g. aegrōtus from aeger (stem aegro-), like (Gk. $\mu / \sigma \theta \omega-$ rós from $\mu \sigma \sigma \theta$ 's, Lith. ragü-tas from rãgas, 'a horn,' with corresponding Verb-stems in Greek and Lithuanian, e. g. Gk. $\mu$ 澣o, Lith. jůkŭ-ju, but no *uegrōō or *aegrō, - $\bar{s}$, , $\bar{o} m u s$ in Latin. Derivatives from I-stems have -Ĭyö-, e. g. O. Ind. kavǐyi-té, 'he acts like a seer,' from kaví-, 'a seer,'

 from lenis; they show -i- in the Perfect Participle Pass., \&c., e. g. Gk. à- $\delta \dot{\eta} \rho \bar{p}-$ tos, Lat. finī-tus, lenī-tus, molli-tus, insignī-tus, vestī-tus, mūn̄̄-tus, stäbū̄̄-tus, ē-rülītus; from sors, O. Lat. sortis, comes sortior ; from pars, stem parti-, comes partior ; from pŭtis (O. Ind. paiti-, 'lord,' Gk. núvis) comes pŏtior, ' to become master of,' with an Active potio (e. g. Plaut. Rul. gII piscátu nouó me uberí conpotíuit), which was used in Oscan as the equivalent of the Latin possum (Osc. putiiad 'possit,' putiians ' possint' ' (\$ 97). U-stem derivatives have -ŭyǒ-, e. g. O. Ind. śatrŭ-yá-ti, 'acts like an enemy,' from šátru-, 'an enemy,' Gk. $\delta \alpha \kappa \rho v^{\omega} \omega$ (苂) from $\delta \dot{\alpha} \kappa \rho v$ (from Ü-stems, e. g. i $\sigma \chi \bar{\chi} \omega$ in the Dramatists), Lat. stătuo from status, mëtuo from metus, with -ī- in the Perf. Part. Pass., e. g. Gk. da- $\delta \dot{a} \kappa \rho \bar{v}-\tau o s, ~ L a t . ~$ statū-tus, argū-tus (from the stem arĝu- of O. Ind. árju-na-, 'white,' Gk. áp ${ }^{\text {anv }}$ pos), acī-tus (cf. acus, a needle) ${ }^{1}$. From the analogy of a number of verbs of similar meaning, which happened to be formed with one or other of these types of Y $\breve{C}$-suffix, a definite meaning came to attach itself in the various languages to certain suffixes. Thus in Sanscrit the ending -1̆yŏ- came to acquire a desiderative sense and was used to convey this notion, not merely in derivatives from I-stems, e. g. jan1̆yá-ti, 'he desires a wife,' from jáni-, 'a wife,' but in derivatives from other stems too, e.g. putrǐyá-ti, 'he desires a son,' from putrá-, 'a son' (an O-stem). In Latin, as we have seen, the desiderative ending is -türiö, e. g. parturio, but it is possible that the ending -iö conveys this sense in cütülio from the O-stem catulus, ĕquio from equus.

A fact of more certainty is that Latin - $\overline{0}$. for $*$ - $\overline{\text { à }} y \bar{o}$ was used to give a transitive sense ${ }^{2}$, e. g. clūro, -are, to make clear, from the O-stem clarus, nŏvō, - $\bar{a} r e$ from norus (and so in other languages, § 29, e. g. O. H. G. niuwōn, though in Greek the ending -ow ousted $-a \omega$ from this usage, e. g. $\nu \epsilon$ ó $\omega$, to make new, from $\nu \dot{\epsilon} o s$,
 sense, e. g. clēreo, -ïre, to be clear, from the same stem, claro-, while -io possibly had attached to it the notion of a state of body or mind, e. g. férōcio, -ire, to be
${ }^{1}$ These Derivatives in -ŭyŏ- must be distinguished from Presents ending in -nuo, like minиo ( $O$. Ind. mi-nō-mi, from I -Eur. *mì-neu-mi, § ro), as well as from a Present like pluo (0. Lat. plŏro, from I.-Eur. *plěwō, § 6), and from .fluo, fruor, \&c., whose
root has a Guttural (cf. fluxi, fructus, § 39. 3). Suo represents an I.-Eur. *syū-yō (Goth. siuja, Lett. schuju, Gk. $\kappa \alpha \sigma \sigma \bar{v} \omega)$.
${ }^{2}$ On First Conjugation Deponents with intransitive sense, e.g. aemŭlari, fluctuari (and fluctuare), see $\$ \S 62,64$.
haughty (Cato, \&c.), saevio, -ire, to be fierce, insānio, -ire, to be insane, dentio, $-i r e$, to be teething, as $-\alpha \omega$, $-\downarrow \alpha \omega$ were used in bodily ailments in Greek, e.g.


The-YÖ- suffix was the I.-Eur.suffix by which verbs were formed from Nouns and Adjectives, e. g. O. Ind. apas-yá-ti from ápas-, á pas- (Lat. opus), Gk. ỏvo-
 has been to a great extent supplanted by -ā-yŏ- (see below). Thus the Latin equivalents of the Sanscrit and Greek verbs, just quoted, are ̆̆qĕrari and nōmŭnare. This process of extending the $\overline{\mathrm{A}} \mathrm{Y} \check{O}$-suffix at the expense of the $\mathrm{Y} \breve{O}$-suffix went on as late as the literary period. Many O. Lat. verbs of the fourth Conj. are in class. Lat. verbs of the first Conj. ; e. g. O. Lat. fullgorio (fulyur-io), from fulgur, used by Naevius (Trag. i3 R.) :

## suo sónitu claro fúlgoriuit Iúppiter,

is in class Lat. fulgüro, -äre; impetrive is the old form of impetrare, consecrated to religious usage, like porricere the old form of projicere (ch. ix. §44) ; artire, Cato, \&c. is in class. Lat. crtare ; cf. dolitus, Varro, Men. 7 B. for dollatus; atritior, Compar. of atritus, Plaut. Poen. 1290 (if this is the right reading) ; gnarivisse quoted (apparently from Livius Andronicus) by Paul. Fest. 68. 5 Th., for narrasse (cf. Gl. Philox. gnaritur: $\gamma^{\nu} \omega p i \xi \epsilon \in a \iota$; C. G. L.v. 72. 9 gnoritur: cognitum sive compertum est).

The old formation remains in custōdio from custos; dentio, to grow teeth (used by Plautus for 'to suffer through lack of food' in Mil. 34, where the parasite apologizes to the audience for his complaisance in listening to the soldier's bragging: aúribus Peraúdienda súnt, ne dentes déntiant), though dentätus, and not dentitus, is the Participial Adjective. In dentio we have the same-YO- or -IYO-suffix as in the Verbs indicating disease, state of body, \&c. (see below), like insänio from insanus.
When a Verb is compounded with anything but a Preposition the Compound assumes the form of an $\bar{A}$-Derivative, e.g. aedificare from aedes and fücio, sacrifícare from sacrum and fücio (cf. sacrificus), as in Greek we have - $\epsilon \omega$ of оiкобо $\boldsymbol{\epsilon}^{\prime} \omega$, \&c. Mandēre seems to be a similar formation, as if a Derivative Verb from *mant-dus, 'giving into the hand'; and the Derivative Verbs in -̈̆go, -are, e.g. nāuigo, -are, pūr(i)go, -are, jütr(i)go, -are (on O. Lat. purigo, jurigo, see ch. iii. § I3) point to *narigus, \&c. from naris and ago. Mōrǐyĕrari, to humour, devote oneself to (also morem gerere), comes from the Adj. morigero(Plaut. Amph. 1004 meo me aequomst morigerum patri esse); ŏpitựlari from
 type of Verb in Latin, see § 33 a .

Examples of these endings are: (I) -o, -üre : nōmĭno, -are from nomen ; cơlōro, -are from color; ŏnĕro, -are from onus; scęlĕro, -are from scelus; exāminno, -are from examen ; privo, -are from privus; ignōro, -are to make unrecognizable, Plaut. Men. 468 ; pio, -are from pius; pröbo, -are from probus; săcro, -are from sacer ; grăvo, -are, to make heavy, from gravis ; cīcuro, -are from cīcur (not $\grave{\text { ü , Rev. Philologie, }}$ xv. 64) ; levo, -are, to make light, or to lift, from lecis; păro, -are, to make equal, from par, Plaut. Curc. 506 :
eodem hércle uos pono ét paro: paríssumi estis híbus.
Ampliare, to adjourn a case, is a rough-and-ready Derivative from amplius, the judge's phrase in giving notice of adjournment; similarly comperrendinare, to remand for two days, from (com perendinus (dies), Vulg. Lat. *hūcare, to call
hither (Fr. hucher), from huc ; some explain nĕgare as a Derivative of this sort from nec (cf. Germ. verneinen from nein), or rather from its byform neg(ch. x. § 18), the byform being chosen to avoid confusion with nĕcare, to kill. Whether the $\bar{a}$ so eften seen in Verbs compounded with a Preposition, e.g. profigare (from figo), occŭpare (from cŭpio), aspernari (from sperno) is due to the transitive sense of the Compound, or to derivation from lost Adjective-stems *profligo-, *occupo-, *asperno-, is not clear. (On amplio see K. Z. xxxiii. 55.)
(2) -io, -ive : raucio, to be hoarse, from raucus; singultio from singultus (U-stem), blundior from blandus, largior from largus, prae-sāgio from sāgus (an Adj. especially found in the Fem. saga, a go-between, e.g. Lucil. vii. 6 M. saga et bona conciliatrix .
3) -eo, -ire : ardeo from āridus [O. Lat. ardus, e. g. C.I. L. i. 577. (2). 2 I ; see ch. iii. § i3], which is the Adjective corresponding to äreo, as callidus to calleo, nitidutus to niteo, \&e. (ch. v. § 74) ; audeo, from ăvidus, the Adj. corresponding to rureo, had originally the sense of 'to be eager,' 'to have a mind to,' e.g. Plaut. Mil. 232 auden participare me quod commentu's, whence the colloquial södes (Terence, \&c.), 'if you please,' for si audes (Plaut., e. g. Trin. 244 dá mihi hoc, mél meum, sí me amas, si aúdes) (ch. iv. $\S 67$. These two classes of verbs in -eo must be kept distinct, the Derivatives from O-stem Adjectives like flatreo, ardeo, audeo, and the Intransitives with Nouns in -or and Adjectives in -ïdus, e.g. caleo (calor, calidus), areo (aridus), aveo (avidus), niteo \{nitor, nitidus) (see ch. v. §§ 67, 74).
§ 33. Of other Verb-suffixes:-(1) -dh- : on jübeo with jub-, for *dyu-dh-, lit. ' to set in motion,' ' rouse to action,' see § 29.
(2) -d- : tondeo seems to be Causative of a lost *endo (Gk. tév $\delta \omega$, to gnaw), for *tem-do from the root tem-, ' to cut' (Gk. $\tau ' \mu-\nu \omega)$; per-cello for *eel-do (cf. clā-d-es,
 (Goth. us-priuta, 'I trouble').
Since -dh- would become $d$ in Latin (ch. iv. § 114), it is impossible to determine whether the suffix -dh- or -d- appears in $c \bar{u}-d o$ (cf. Lith. káu-ju), fren-do (and frendeo) ${ }^{1}$ for ${ }^{*}$ frem- $l o$ (cf. fremo), ten-do from the root ten-, 'to stretch' (cf. Gk. $\tau \epsilon^{\prime} \nu \omega$ for * $\tau \epsilon \nu y \omega$ ), of-fen-do and de-fen-do from the root ghen'cf. ( ※k. $\theta$ eiv $\omega$ for $\left.{ }^{*} \theta \in \nu-y \omega\right)$. On pando, mando (third Conj.), vendo, see §§ 14 , 95, and on mando (first Conj.) § 32, above.
(3) -t-: mé-to (cf. Mid. Ir. methel, 'a reaper'; so some explained the name Mêtellus, Löwe, Prodr. s.v.) cannot be dissociated from Gk. dááa ; nor flec-to from falx. But this formation is not so common in Latin as in Greek, though all of the numerous Gk. Verbs in $-\pi \tau \omega$, e. g. $\tau \dot{\prime} \pi \tau \omega$, $\chi^{a \lambda \epsilon} \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \pi \tau \omega$ may be formations with the YŎ-suffix, for -py - seems to have become $-\pi \tau$ - in Greek, ${ }^{*} \tau v \pi-y \omega$, ${ }^{*} \chi^{\lambda \lambda \epsilon \pi-y \omega, ~ \& c . ~(c h . ~ i v . ~ § ~ 65) . ~ T h e ~ E-g r a d e ~ o f ~ r o o t ~ s e e m s ~ t o ~ b e ~ u s e d ~ w i t h ~ t h e ~}$ T- as with the D-suffix, so that plecto (from root plek-, Gk. $\left.\pi \lambda \epsilon \epsilon^{\prime} \kappa \omega\right)$ is the correct form, O. Lat. -plocto being due to false Analogy (cf. pondus with o by Analogy of pondo-, ch. v. § 72, and see above, § 7).
(4) -s- : $p r \bar{u} \cdot r$-io shows the ending -io of verbs indicating bodily ailments, \&c. (§ $3^{2}$ ) attached to a lost *prūro for *preu-so (O. H. G. friusu, Engl. I freeze) from
${ }^{1}$ The two forms frendo and frendeo have been explained by a supposed original declension like fren-dēs (I.-

Eur. *-dhēs) 2 Sg., fren-ditis (I.-Eur.
*-dhătes) 2 Pl.
the root preu- ; with Gk. av゙ $\xi \omega$, a development of *aj̉ (cf. Lat. aug-eo, a Causative formation, § 29) with the suffix -s- (cf. I.-Eur. *auges-, *augos-, a neuter noun, O.Ind. ójas, 'strength'; cf. Lat. augus-tus), we may compare Lat. aux-ilium, and the Umbrian formula in invocations of deities orer ose, if this means ' his (sc. donis) macte,' ose being Voc. of a stem *aukso- with the sense of Lat. auctus.
If arcesso is connected with accēdo as incesso with incēdo, the suffix must in this Verb have Causative force (cf. Lib. Gloss. 'arcesserat,' advenire compulerat ; Porphyr. ad Hor. Epp. i. i 7 . 50 corvus cum accedit ad cibum, strepitu vocis alias aves arcessit), but the use of $r$ for $d$ before $c$ is peculiar (ch. iv. § $112^{\circ}$. Accerso is a metathesis of arcesso and belongs to colloquial Latin (e.g. Terence, Petronius), as arcesso to legal phraseology (see A.L.L. viii. 279). Quaeso, in older spelling quaesso (ch. ii. § 129), from *quai-s-s-o, is in the earlier writers used along with quatro (older quairo, C.I. L. i. 34, from * quai-s-o), e. g. Plaut. Bacch. 178 :
mirúmst me, ut redeam, te ópere tanto quaésere,
Enn. Ann. 143 M. (a description of Ostia):
Ostia munitast. idem loca nauibus celsis munda facit nautisque mari quaesentibus uitam,
and Trag. 97 R. liberum quaesendum causa ${ }^{1}$; in classical Latin it is found in ${ }^{\text {I Sg. quaeso, i Pl. quaesumus. (On the spelling quaesimus in MSS. of Cic., see }}$ Neue, ii ${ }^{2}$. p. 437. The spelling with $u$ seems to be an affectation due to the archaic character of the word.)
(5) -ss-. These bear the same relation to the stems just mentioned as Lat. cumasso, \&c. to dixo, capso. They are called 'Desiderativa' by Priscian (i. 43I. 18 H .), who explains capesso as 'desidero capere' (i. 535 . io H.). In MSS. they are often confused with 'Inceptive' forms, e.g. lacescentem for lŭcessentem, capescit for cŭpessit (for a list of examples, see A.L.L. i. 515).
(6) Verbs in -illo. These are hardly to be separated from $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-Derivatives from Diminutive Nouns in -illā-, Adjectives in -illo-, \&c., such as scintillare from scintilla, stillare from stilla (cf. stiria), tranquillo from tranquillus. They are evidently Diminutive Verbs derived in the same style from Verbs instead of Nouns. Examples are : conscribillare from conscrïbo, e.g. Catull. xxv. in :
ne láneum latúsculum manúsque mollicéllas
inústa turpitér tibi flagélla conscribillent;
Varro, Men. $7_{6}$ B. itaque eas inceravi et conscribillavi Herculis athlis ; Varro, Men. 280 B. astrologi non sunt? qui conscribillarunt pingentes caelum; occillare from occo, Plaut. Amph. 183; sorbillo from sorbeo; obstringillare from obstringo, e. g. Enn. Sat. ii. I M.:
. . . restitánt, occurrunt, óbstringillant, óbagitant.
(See A. L. L. iv. 68. 223.)
We have -lo in vāpülo, vertilia-bundus, ventìlo, ustŭlo, \&c.
(7) -co in alb̌̆co, fodǐco, vellico seems to have the same Diminutive force as the preceding suffix. As the Adj. suffix -co- is often combined with -lo-in Diminu-
${ }^{1}$ quaesere, quaesentibus, quaesendum, cannot be the O. Lat. forms of quaerere, quaerentibus, quaerendorum, as Valesius of Valerius, \&c., for inter-
vocalic $s$ had become $r$ long before the time of Plautus and Ennius (ch. iv. § 148).
tives, e. g. puer-cu-lus (ch. v. § 3i), so we have in Verbs pandǐcullans, stretching oneself (in yawning) Plaut. Men. 834 (cf. gestüčulari from gesticulus, Dim. of gestus).
(8) -ro. Consìděro can hardly come from sidus, a star, but must with dēsĩdero be an extension of a Verb-stem -sid d. Other examples of this formation are müč̆ro, rëcйрёro, tôlèro.
(9) Other formations. Verbs in -igo, -are, e. g. O. Lat. gnarigavit, used by Liv. Andr. for narrarit (Paul. Fest. 68. 5 Th.), with an Auxiliary ăgo giving a Causative force, have been already mentioned (§27), and verbs in -fǐco, -are ( $\$ 3^{2}$ ), e.g. amplifico, -üre, in which an Auxiliary fücio plays the same part. Facio does not enter into so close composition with the Verb in bĕnĕ facio, àre fucio (Lucr. vi. 962 sol excoquit et facit are), cellē facio later calüfacio with the same shortening of a final long vowel as in havĕ (ch. iii. §42), consué facio (Varro, $R . R$ ii. 9 . I3 consue quoque faciunt) (on this -e see § 34), compendi facio, to cut short (Plaut. orationis operam compendiface) ; and we have an Accusative case-form as the first element of rēnum-do (vendo), venum ео (veneo), pessum-do, pessim eo (on crēdo, see § 27 ; on mando, -äre, § 32 ; on pando, mando., -ĕre, § 14). Other Latin Verb-suffixes are -ut $(t)$ io of balbūtio, to stammer, friguttio, to chirp; -urrio (-ürio) of lŭgurrio, scïturio (on which see above, § зo) ; -cĭnor, -āri of patröcinor, lēñ̄̈cinor (cf. patrocìnium, lenocĭnium), rătiōcinor, alūcinor, tuburcinor,
 patrisso (cf. § $33 a$ ).
§ 33 a . The Conjugations in Romance. In the Romance languages the Latin Conjugations are much better preserved than the Latin Declensions (ch.vi. § I). The first Conjugation is the prevailing type. Its encroachment on the others even in the Latin period is shown by Vulg. Lat. ${ }^{1}$ forms like fildäre (Fr. fier, Span. fiar), a Derivative from fidus, which supplanted class. fïlĕre, as the Derivative pectĭnare supplanted pectere (Caper 93. 8 K. pecto caput non ' pectino,' et pexum non 'pectinatum'), as well as from the fact that Greek loanverbs appear naturally to drift into it, $\grave{\jmath} \psi \omega \nu \epsilon i ̄ \nu$ becoming olsōnare, $\pi \rho o \pi i \nu \epsilon \iota \nu$ propinnare, \&c., just as loanwords in French take -er (Lat. - $\bar{r} \cdot e$ ), e. g. trinquer, and in German, -ieren, e.g. marschieren, amusieren. The freaks of false Analogy appear in Vulg. Lat. fugīre, cupīre, \&c. (Ital. fuggire, Fr. fuir, Span. huir; Sard. kubire, Prov. cobir), with transference to the fourth Conjugation by the analogy of their ${ }_{1}$ Sing. Pres. Ind., fugio, cupio; in Vulg. Lat. florire, complire (Ital. fiorire, Fr. fleurir ; Ital. compire; cf. Fr. emplir), with a similar transference, due to the identity in Vulg. Lat. of eeo and -io (both pronounced -yo, ch. ii. § 149); and the confusion

[^94]planted *eèlo (cf. occưlo), and the same explanation should perhaps bè given of sŏnare (Perf. somui), \&c. (See § 32.)
of second and third Conjugation Verbs, which we have already remarked in the Latin of Plautus in the case of ferveo, sordeo, \&c. (§ 19), is intensified in Romance through the approximation of the $\stackrel{e}{\text { - }}$ - and $\bar{e}$-sounds (ch. ii. § 141), so that we have Vulg. Lat. forms like respondĕre (Ital. rispondere, Fr . répondre), tondëre (Ital. tondere, Fr. tondre), and (by Analogy of the Perfect tense sapui) sapére (Ital. sapere, Fr. savoir) ; so Anal. of potui, posse became Vulg. Lat. potére (Ital. potere, Span. poder), and by Anal. of volui, velle became voléve (Ital. volere, Fr. vouloir). The Perfects struxi, traxi, prostrāui, contrivi have similarly produced the Vulg. Latin forms tragere (Ital. trarre, Fr. traire), strugere (Ital. struggere, Fr. dé-truire), prostrare (Span., Port. prostrar), contrice (Span., Port. curtir). Verbs of the fourth Conjugation often show the 'Inceptive' suffix in their Present, e. g. Ital. unisco Pres. Ind., unire Inf., on which see § 28. (For a fuller account of the Romance Conjugations, consult MeyerLübke, Rom. Gram. ii. pp. 137 sqq.).

Of Derivative Verb endings may be noticed (1) -icare, a frequent formation in Vulg. Lat., e. g. *nư̌ŭcare, to snow (Ital. nevicare, Fr. neiger), (2) -̌̆diare (Gk. - $\iota \zeta \epsilon \nu v)$, which appears in Ital. as -eggiare, in Fr. as -oyer, in Span. as -ear, e. g. Ital. biancheggiare, O. Fr. blanchoyer, Span. blanquear, (3) -antare, -entare (cf. Lat. praesentare), used for Factitive Verbs, e. g. *expaventare, to terrify (Ital. spaventare, Fr. épouvanter, Span. espantar) (ib. ii. pp. 604 sqq.).
§ 34. B. Imperfect. In Slavonic the Imperfect is formed by appending a Preterite of the Substantive Verb (i Sg. *jaclŭ from original ${ }^{*} \mathrm{e} s-\mathrm{o}-\mathrm{m}$, ' I was') to a case form (usually called an Instrumental) of a Verbal Noun. Thus of the verb 'to see,' of which the Inf. is vidě-ti (Lat. vidē-re), the Imperfect ( 1 Sg.) is vidě-achŭ, lit. 'I was a-seeing'; of the verb 'to carry,' Inf. nes-ti (from the I.-Eur. root nek- of Gk. $\epsilon_{\nu} \nu \epsilon \kappa \kappa \hat{i} \nu, \& c$. ), the Imperfect ( 1 Sg.) is nesě-achŭ ; of glagola-ti, 'to speak,' the Impft. ( Sg .) is glagola-achŭ. The same method of forming an Imperfect was followed in Latin, only the Auxiliary verb chosen was not I.-Eur. es-. Lat. vidē-bam, ferē̄-bam, amä-bam, are formations consisting of a Verbal Noun-stem (probably in
some case form such as the Instrumental) followed by the Preterite of an Auxiliary verb. The $b$ of the Latin Imperfect is in Umbro-Oscan $\mathbf{f}$ (Osc. fu-fans, 'they were'), and must represent an I.-Eur. bh or dh (e. g. Lat. $\breve{u} b i$, Umbr. pufe, Osc. puf, O. Sl. kŭde, O. Ind. kŭha from an I.-Eur. DH-suffix) (ch. iv. § II 4). It can hardly be separated from the $b$ of the Latin Future vidēe-bo, amā-bo, \&c. (see § 36), which is similarly in the Italic languages $f$, e. g. Fal. kare-fo ' carebo,' but whose equivalent in O. Ir., b, e. g. no charub, ' amabo ' [quasi ${ }^{*} \mathrm{nu}(\mathrm{nunc})$ carabo] (cf. Lat. cārus), shows it to represent I.-Eur. bh, not dh (which would be d in O.-Ir.). The Auxiliary verb used must then have been the I.-Eur. root bheu-, whence Lat. fui, O. Lat. Subj. fuam, \&c.; and Lat. -bam, -būs, -bat, 3 Pl. -bant (Osc. -fans) may represent an I.-Eur. Preterite *bhwām, -ās, \&c. (on the loss of postconsonantal w, see ch. iv. § 7r), seen in O. Ir. ba (from *bām), and corresponding to the Lat. Preterite of the verb es-, eram (from $*_{\text {esām). The Verbal Noun-stem }}$ employed recurs in such formations as the Fut. vidè-bo, arè-bo, scī-bo, as well as in Verbs compounded with fücio, e. g. arē-नacio (§33.9), and in Adverbs compounded with lŭcet, e.g. villē-licet, sci-licet, $\overline{\text { I-licet (ch. ix. § 7). It appears in the Acc. case in O. Ind. }}$ Perfects like viḍ̣̂-cakāra, compounded of vidấm, the Acc. Sg. of a Verbal Noun (cf. Lat. vidé-) and cakára, the Perfect of kṛ-, 'to make' (I.-Eur. ker-, Gk. $\kappa \rho-\alpha i v \omega$, Lat. creo). Lat. vileè-, amā-, fini- might be regarded as the bare stem of the Verb without any Case-suffix, but this explanation does not suit with legē-bam, for the Verb-stem would here be legĕ- (legŏ-), and the only way of avoiding this difficulty ${ }^{1}$ would be to suppose that Verbs of the third Conjugation followed the Analogy of Verbs of the second Conjugation, *legĕ-bam becoming legè-bam after the fashion of ride-bam, as in the third Declension of Nouns Consonant-stems followed the analogy of I-stems in their Nom. Pl., * ${ }_{\text {milit-ĕs }}$ becoming milit-iss like part-ès (originally -ěyĕs, ch. vi. § 40). A similar change of their Imperfect formation was made by Verbs of the fourth Conjugation in the second century b. c., for

[^95]while these have -ibam (or -iēbam) in Plautus and the earlier writers, e. g. audī-bam (and audiē-bam), they follow exclusively in classical Latin the analogy of Verbs like facio in their Imperfect audiè-bam like faciè-bam, as in their Future aurtiam (O. Lat. audībo and audiam) like.faciam. The Romance languages point to a Vulgar Latin Imperfect of the second and third Conjugations in -ēam, of the fourth in -īam (e. g. Sard. timia, finia, Span. vendia, Port. dormia, O. Fr. diseie ' disais,' senteie 'sentais '), while the first Conj. Impft. had -ābam (e.g. Sard. istava from Lat. stäbam), but whether this may be taken as evidence that byforms *timée-am, *fiñ-am, \&c. formed like er-am, *llww-am, existed in Latin from the earliest times is doubtful (see Meyer-Lübke, Rom. Gram. ii. p. 282 ; and cp. below, $\S 37$ ).

The Imperfect Subjunctive is formed with an S-suffix which is usually referred to the Substantive Verb es-, appended as an auxiliary, though some explain it as a Noun-stem suffix, comparing ăger-em (on Subjunctive $e$, see $\S 55$ ) to ayere for $*_{\text {ages-1 }}$, Loc. Sg. of a Neuter S-stem *agos, *ages-os Gen., ferr-em for *fers-em to ferre for *fersĕ, ümarem, mĕrerem, autirem to amare, merere, audire (see § 83).
§ 35. Fourth Conj. Impft. in -ibam. These forms are very common indeed in the Dramatists, e. g. Plaut. Aul. 178 :
praésagibat mi ánimus frustra me íre, quom exibám domo.
and the Republican poets, e. g. Lucr. v. 934 :
nec scibat ferro molirier arva,
and are often used by the Augustan poets and their followers, where the ordinary form would not come into a dactylic line, e. g. lenibat in Virg. $A$. vi. 468 :
lenibat dictis animum lacrimasque ciebat.
From eo, the classical Imperfect remained ībam, pert-ībam, vēn-ībam, and from queo, quībam, nĕ-quïbam.
Aībam, a dissyllable, is the usual form in Plautus, but we have also aiebam, e. g. Rud. ro8o quam esse aiebas (MSS. alebas).

The question whether -ibam or -iēbam was the correct ending for these fourth Conjugation Imperfects was a matter of discussion among Roman grammarians. We hear of a certain Aufustius who wrote a treatise, dedicated to Asinius Pollio, to show that veniebain and similar forms were preferable to venibam, \&c.
§ 36. C. Future. (1) In -lō. (I.-Eur. *bhwō). This formation is shared by the Celtic languages [e.g. O. Ir. no charub
'amabo,' quasi ' $*_{\mathrm{nu}}$ (nunc) carabo ' (cf. Lat. cärus)], and appears in Faliscan, karefo 'carebo,' pipafo 'bibam' in the inscription on a drinking bowl: foied vino pipafo, kra karefo 'hodie vinum bibam, cras carebo ' (Not. Scav. 1887, p. 262). In class. Lat. it is confined to the first and second Conjugations, $\check{a} m a \bar{a} b o$, vŭdē-bo, but in the early Dramatists the fourth Conjugation Verbs show -ibo as well as -iam in the Future, and in the plebeian Latin of Novius' Atellanae, or rustic farces, we find virebo, for vivam, dicelo for dīcam (as in the Atellanae of Pomponius parilis for păries, Com. 20 R.). These last forms are doubtless due to the influence of the Imperfect in -bam (see the preceding section), a formation shared by the third Conjugation, as well as the first, second, and fourth ; vivēbam, diceēbam called into existence vivēlo, dicēbo, on the analogy of rŭdēbam, cŭrḕbam, which had Future forms vidēbo, carēlo. This -bō of the Future Tense, Falisc. -fo, O. Ir. -b $(\bar{o})$ is clearly some part of the Verb bheu- (Lat. fui, \&c.), of which we have seen -bam of the Imperfect Tense to be a Preterite. The Future of Latin sum, ero, is a Subjunctive form, *es-o, with Future meaning ; a meaning which seems to have attached itself to the I.-Eur. Subjunctive (see §55).
(2) In -am. For verbs of the third and fourth Conjugations iv Latin the I Sg. of the $\bar{A}$-Subjunctive (see §55) is used for the I Sg. Future, though, as we have seen, in the case of Verb-stems of the fourth Conjugation, this Subjunctive did not succeed in entirely ousting the formation in -bo till the classical period, e.g. lĕg-am 1 Sg . Fut. and I Sg. Subj., audi-am I Sg. Fut. and I Sg. Subj. (but in the older literature, also audt-lo). For the other Persons of the Future the $\overline{\mathrm{E}}$-Subjunctive forms (see $§ 55$ ) are used, legēs, leget, legēmus, \&c., audiès, audiet, audièmus, \&c. The reason of this distinction between the a Sg. and the other Persons of the Future Tense is not clear. It may be that the I Sg. Subj. had already for a long time played the part of the I Sg. Fut. of these verbs, as it played the part of the 1 Sg . Imperative at all periods of Latin, and still retained its place when the new Future forms, which supplanted an older dixo, \&c. (see below), were introduced. The spellings affected by Cato dicae, faciae for dicam, faciam seem to have had nothing to do with this variation of $\bar{a}$ and $\bar{e}$
in the Future of these verbs, but to be merely an attempt to express by a written symbol the weak sound of final $m$ in Latin (see ch. ii. § 61 $)^{1}$.
(3) In -so. This formation belongs to O. Lat., e. g. dixo, faxo. It is discussed in $\S \S 3$ and 5 . The similarity in use between dixo, faxo, capso on the one hand, and ümasso, \&c. on the other, suggests that dixo stands for *lic-sso, faxo for *fac-sso, capso for *cap-sso. But the Umbro-Oscan Future, e.g. Osc. deivast 'jurabit,' censazet ' censebunt,' Umbr. fust ' erit,' furent 'erunt' had only one s. In Romance the Future has been lost (but O. Fr. ier from ero), its place being supplied by periphrastic formations with habeo (the usual type), volo, \&c. Thus Ital. canterò, Fr. chanterai represent cantare habeo (reduced to hayo) (see MeyerLübke, Rom. Gram. ii. pp. 138 and 354 sqq.).
§ 37. Fourth Conj. Fut. in -ibo. This formation is extremely common in the Dramatists, e. g. Plaut. Asin. 28 ut ipse scíbo, te faciam út scias, but was not adopted (as the Impft. in -ibcum was) by the Augustan poets, though Propertius ventures on lénibunt, iii. 21. 32. In Late Latin poetry it reappears, e. g. largibor, Juvenc. ii. 562. The existence of audiam beside audībo, and of dicēbo beside dicam may have led in Vulgar Latin to the coinage of an Imperfect without $b$, whence Romance Imperfects like Sard. timia, finia (but istava, Lat. stabam) (see § 34). Red-dibo, an O. Lat. Fut. of reddo, shows the Fut. of $d o$, dĕbo, e. g. Plaut. Men. ro38 (perhaps redĕ̈bo is the spelling indicated here and elsewhere by the MSS.:
sáluom tibi ita, ut míhi dedisti, réddibo : hic me máne modo.
The Fut. of eo and its Compounds, as of nĕqueo, has -ibo in class. Latin as well as in the earlier period ; and it is not till Late Latin that forms like rediet, transient came into use (exiet in Hor. C. iv. 4. 65: merses profundo, pulcrior evenit, is the reading of inferior MSS., and like mollibit of C. iii. 23 . 19 has no probability.
Whether third Conjugation YO-stems took this form of Future (and the Imperfect in -ibam) is very doubtful. Paribis for păries, quoted from an Atellanc of Pomponius (Com. 20 R.) may be a vulgarism. Adgrédibor is the reading of the Palimpsest in Plaut. Pers. 15, as against adgredior (aggredior) of the other MSS., and seems to be required by the metre ; congrediar of all the MSS. (AP) in Plaut. Most. 783 is changed by editors to congredibor.
§ 38. Third Conj. Fut.in -ēbo. Vicebo is quoted by Nonius ( 509.3 M.) from Novius (Com. ro R.) :
tíbi dum uiuebó, fidelis éro,

[^96]and dicebo by Nonius (507. r M.) from the same play of the same author Com. 8 R.) primum quod dicebo. Plautus (Epid. 188) uses the phrase exsugēbo sanguinem :
iam ego mé conuortam in hirúdinem atque eorum éxsugebo sánguinem, though in another passage he has the usual exsugam in this phrase, Poen. 6r4: iám nunc ego illic égredienti sánguinem exsugám procul
(in Rud. roog the correct reading is : exurgebo quidquid umoris tibist). (On Late Latin inferebis, tremebit, see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. vv.)
§ 39. D. Perfect. The I.-Eur. Perfect-stem, denoting completed action, was either (a) Reduplicated, with O-grade of an E-root in the Singular Active, and elsewhere the weak grade, ĕ being the usual Reduplication-vowel: e.g. from the root gen(Lat. gi-gn-o) the Perfect-stem was *ge-ĝon-, *ĝe-ĝṇ (Gk. $\gamma^{\prime}-\gamma o \nu-\epsilon, \gamma^{\epsilon}-\gamma a-\mu \epsilon \nu$; cf. O. Ind. ja-jấn-a, ja-jn̂-úr), or (b) Unreduplicated, usually with a high grade of the Stem, and that either confined to the Singular Active, or extended over all the declension: e.g. from the root weid-, 'to see, know' (Lat. čul-eo) the Perfect-stem was *woid-, *whid- (Gk. oiì- $\epsilon$, $\not \partial \hat{o}-\mu \epsilon \nu$, O. Ind. véd-a, vid-má) ; from the root sěd-, ' to sit’ (Lat. sěrl-eo), the Perfect-stem was sēd- (Goth. sēt-um, Lith. séd-ềs, Partic.). Verbs beginning with vowels, e.g. root ed-, 'to eat' (Perfectstem ēd-, O. Ind. ād-a, Goth. fr-ēt), may have been the steppingstone between these two formations. Other Unreduplicated Perfects occur in various languages side by side with Reduplicated forms, and show the same vocalism, e. g. O. Ind. sarpa (and sa-sarpa), from the I.-Eur. root serp-, 'to creep,' Hom. $\delta \in$ ' $\chi$-atal (beside $\delta \hat{\epsilon}-\delta \mathbf{\delta} \kappa$ к-тal) from $\delta \in ́ \chi \neq \mu a \iota, \mathrm{O}$. Ind. skambh-ur (and ca-skambh-a) from the root ska(m)bh-, 'to support' (cf. Lat. scam$n u m)$. In Latin both the Reduplicated and the Unreduplicated type of Perfect are found, and it is not always easy to decide whether on the one hand the Reduplication has been lost in what we may call the 'Latin period' (e.g. tulli, which is in the time of Plautus tĕ-t $\breve{u} l-i$; cf. Gk. $\tau \in-\tau \lambda a \mu \in \nu$ ), either by that Latin habit of discarding one of two neighbouring syllables with similar form [ar(č̌)-cŭbii, \&c.; see ch. iii. § 13. p. 176] re-t(e)-tuli (so dē-tondi, O. Lat. de-tŏ-tondi beside to-tondi), or by adaptation to other Unreduplicated forms, or whether on the
other the want of Reduplication dates from what we may call the ' Indo-European period.'

The Latin Perfect had usurped the functions of the Aorist or Preterite, and denoted action in past time, as well as completed action in present time, e.g. dĕd ${ }^{(1)}$ ( I gave, (2) I have given. It thus drew within its sphere Aorist or Preterite formations, such as what is called the S-aorist, e.g. Gk. $\epsilon_{-\delta \epsilon \iota \xi-}-a$, O. Ind. á-dĭkṣ̆-am, and gave to these its own peculiar person-endings (1 Sg. - $\bar{\imath}$ from I.-Eur. -ai or $-a i$, O. Ind. $-\bar{e}$, the I.-Eur. Middle i Sg. suffix, so that Lat. ded-ì corresponds to O. Ind. da-d-é, a Middle, not an Active; 2 Sg. $-i s i$, and so on ; see $\S \S 65$ sqq.). Thus Lat. $d \bar{x} x-i$ from the S-Aorist stem $*$ dei $\hat{k}-\mathrm{s}-(\mathrm{Gk} . \ddot{\epsilon}-\delta \epsilon \iota \xi-a)$ is in Latin called a Perfect, not an Aorist, and is declined like a true Perfect, dīx-ī̀ (O. Lat. deixei, *deik-s-ai), 3 Sg . dīxit (O. Lat. -īt, -eit) like mĕminn̄̀, 3 Sg . meminit (O. Lat. -īt, -eit). Strong Aorists, both Reduplicated (e.g. Gk. $\epsilon-\pi \epsilon-\phi \nu o-\nu$ from gh"en-, 'to kill') and Unreduplicated (e. g. Gk. $\grave{\epsilon}-\gamma \in \nu \delta o ́-\mu \eta \nu$ from gen-), may have been absorbed into the Latin Perfect with the others, but decisive evidence that will prove their existence separate from true Perfects (Reduplicated and Unreduplicated) is hard to find. Thus Lat. $f u d d \bar{\imath}$ of $l i f-f f^{\imath} d-\bar{\imath}$ from $f i-n-d-o$, root bheid-, may perfectly well be a true Perfect, with Reduplication lost in the 'Latin period,' the weak grade of the stem being appropriate to the whole of the I.-Eur Middle (e.g. O. Ind. bǐ-bhǐd-è, I Sg.) as well as to the Plural (and Dual) Persons of the Active Perfect (e.g. O. Ind. bĭ-bhĭd-úr, 3 Pl.). It may however be claimed for the Strong Aorist class, like O. Ind. á-bhĭda-m, Aor.; and similarly scčld-ı has been called a Strong Aorist (O. Ind. á-chĭda-m) with the Latin Perfect-ending, while scŭ-čud- $\bar{\imath}$ is the true Perfect-form ; even sci-cill- $\bar{\imath}$ might be itself ascribed to a Reduplicated Aorist-class, as tĕtl̆gi has been
 seems best to class these Latin forms merely as 'Reduplicated' and 'Unreduplicated,' without the more definite title of 'Reduplicated Perfect,' 'Unreduplicated Perfect.' To attempt a further subdivision into Reduplicated Aorist (or Preterite), Unreduplicated Aorist (or Preterite) would be to go beyond the evidence at our disposal.

There is still another formation which in Latin has the name and the person-endings of the Perfect-stem, viz. the formation adopted for Vowel-verbs (first, second, fourth Conjugations), which appends $v$ (after a Consonant $u$ ), e.g. $\breve{a} m \bar{a}-v-i, r e-p l \bar{e}-v-i$, aucti-v-i, mŏn-u-i. This formation has not yet been satisfactorily explained (see below). The $v$ disappears in audiit (pronounced auduit in ordinary speech, aullìit in Poetry), auditt, alitt, as in dîtior from dīư̆tior, O. Lat. dinnus from dī̀īnus (ch. ii.§ 53), sìs for $s \bar{\imath} r \bar{\imath} \bar{s}$.

Examples of the various types of Latin Perfect are:
(I) Reduplicated: dlē-l $l-\bar{\imath}$ (O. Ind. dă-d-é, Perf. Mid.; cf. O. Ind. $\mathfrak{\text { í-da-da-m, Impf.), Osc. de-d-ed 'dedit,’ Umbr. đeđe (on }}$ the Umbro-Oscan 3 Sg . Person-ending, see § 69), crē- $(l \mathfrak{\imath}-d-i$ (O. Ind. dă-dh-ê, Perf. Mid. On crēdo, O. Ind. š́rád-dhā-, 'I believe,' lit. ' put the heart to,' O. Ir. cretim, see § 27). The I.-Eur. Reduplication Vowel $\breve{\text { e }}$ (in O. Ind. the vowel of the stem is often substituted) remains in class. Latin in forms like $m e ̆-m \check{n} n-i$ (older *me-men-i), pĕ- $-\mu \check{e r}^{r}-i$, but came to be assimilated in Latin fashion (see ch. iv. § 163 ) to the vowel of the second syllable in mŏ-mor $\cdot d-i$, tŭ-tŭul-i (cf. O. Ind. tu-tud-è), \&c., although in O. Lat. to the end of the Republic forms like mě-mord- $i$ were in use.

What the Latin Stem-vowel originally was is not always to be discovered, owing to the Latin habit of weakening every vowel in a short second syllable to $\breve{\imath}(\breve{e})$ (ch. iii. § 18). Tu-t̆u $l-i$, which has retained the $u$-vowel unweakened (ch. iii. § 28), shows the weak stem tŭd- of the I.-Eur. Middle and Plural Active (O. Ind. tŭ-tŭd-ē I Sg. Mid., tŭ-tŭd-úr 3 Pl. Act.), while con-t $\bar{u} l-i t$, quoted by Priscian (i. p. 518.13 H.) along with con-t $\mathfrak{u} d-i t$ from the Annals of Ennius (ll. 515 and 418 M.), may be the trace of a Latin *tŭ-ttull-, *te-taud- (O. Ind. tŭ-totd-a I Sg. Act., Goth. stai-staut 1 Sg . Act., stai-staut-un 3 Pl. Act., apparently from a root (s)taud-), like ce-cìd-i from *ce-caiil-, root (s)kaidh-. But to-tond-i, spo-(s)pond-i (O. Latin spe-pond-i), from the roots tend- (Gk. $\tau^{\epsilon} \nu \bar{\nu} \omega \omega$ ), spend- (Gk. $\sigma \pi \pi^{\prime} \nu \delta \delta \omega$ ), are not necessarily derived from that form of the Reduplicated Perfectstem which was reserved for the Singular Active in I.-Eur., the form namely with O-grade of an E-stem vowel, *te-tond-, \&c.,
for their o may be due to the Causative Present-stems (§ 29) with which they were associated, tondeo (I.-Eur. *tondéyo-), spondeo (I.-Eur. *spondéyo-). The or of mo-mord-i (O. Lat. me-mord-i) is most naturally explained as the Latin equivalent of I.-Eur. re, so that me-morl- is the weak stem, *me-mrd-, from root (s)merd-, and me-mord- $\bar{\imath}$ is exactly O. Ind. ma-mrd-è i Sg. Mid.; similarly the $u l$ (older ol) of tetüli will be I.-Eur. ! (el) (cf. Lat. te-tul-i-mus, Gk. $\tau \epsilon-\tau \lambda-a-\mu \in \nu$ ) from the root tel-.
(2) Unreduplicated: vīd-i, I saw, have seen, if vïd- represents I.-Eur. *woid- (ch. iv. § Io, p. 228), exactly corresponds to O. SI. věd-ě, 'I know,' a Middle form, and perhaps the only trace of the Perfect Tense to be found in the Balto-Slavic family of languages, with the exception of the Participle, while in Latin, Celtic, and Teutonic it is the Perfect Participle which has been lost, and the other parts of the Tense retained ; the Active form, I.-Eur. *woid-ă, appears in O. Ind. véd-a, 'I know,' Gk. oî̀- $a$, Goth. vait ; sèd $-i$, unless it stands for $*_{s e ̆-s ~}^{\text {s }} l-i$, as sïlo for $*_{s i-s d-o}$ $(\S 9)^{1}$, shows the I.-Eur. Perfect-stem sēd- of Goth. sēt-um i Pl., Lith. séd-ęs Partic. ; èl-i shows I.-Eur. ēd- of O. Ind. ād-a Act., Goth. fr-ēt ; $\bar{e} g i$, the Perfect of $\check{a} g o$, does not show I.-Eur. āĝ-
 adopts a Latin raising of $\breve{a}$ to $\bar{e}$, seen in other verbs whose rootvowel is $a$, e. g. peggi from root paĝ- (Lat. pango) [cf. ch. iv. § 51 , where it is shown that I.-Eur. $\breve{a}$, Lat. $\breve{u}$, is the weak grade of I.-Eur. è, Lat. è, e.g. I.-Eur. *sŭto- from root sē-, Lat. sătus beside sē-men, fŭc-io beside fèc-i (Gk. єै $\theta \eta \kappa a)$ from root dhē-].

A similar absence of Reduplication appears in Umbro-Oscan, e. g. Osc. dicust 'dixerit' (beside Umbr. dersicust), Umbr. fakust 'fecerit' (beside Osc. fefacust), Umbr. vurtus 'verterit' and ku-vurtus ' converteris.'
(3) S-Aorist (Preterite): dīx-ī, older deix-ei (Gk. ${ }^{\epsilon}-\delta \bar{\delta} \iota \iota-\alpha$; cf. O. Ind. á-ď̌kșa-m) from the root deik-, a Reduplicated Perfect (Aorist?) of which appears in Umbr. de-rsic-ust 'dixerit' (Umbr. rs expresses an intervocalic đ-sound, ch. ii. §88), and apparently an Unreduplicated in Osc. dic-ust 'dixerit'; ussi (Gk.

[^97]$\epsilon \tilde{\sigma} \sigma a$ for ＊$\left._{\epsilon \text { v̌ }} \sigma \sigma a\right)$ has a short vowel according to Priscian，i． 466. 7 H．，like $\breve{u} s-t u s$ which has the weak grade ŭs－of the root eus－

 forms show sometimes the weak stem，sometimes the E－grade in I．－Eur．languages，e．g．O．Ind．á－dǐkṣ̆am just mentioned，Gk． $\ddot{\omega}-\rho \in \xi-a$ ，sometimes a still higher grade；e．g．from the root leiq ${ }^{n}-$ ，O．Ind．á－räikṣ̆am Act．［Gk．$\epsilon$－$\lambda \epsilon \iota \psi-a$ may represent －lěiq ${ }^{u}$－or－lēiqư－（ch．iv．§ 45），O．Ind．á－rǐkṣ̌－i Mid．has the weak grade］；and the same variety appears in Latin S－Perfects，e．g．d̄̄⿱一𫝀口йudo，dī－vīsi，but $\bar{u} r o$ ，üssi．But it is not always possible to ascertain the quantity of the vowel in Latin， for the grammarians of the Empire are uncertain guides about the natural quantity of any vowels long by position，for which they could get no clue from the classical poets．One requires further evidence before one can fully believe Priscian（sixth cent．） （i．p． 466.17 H．），when he posits a naturally long penult for all Per－ fects in $-x i$ which have the vowel $e$ before this ending，e．g．il－lexi from lŭcio，and for no others，e．g．dux－i from dī̀co（so perdüctus， Audacis exc．359． 15 K．，but derdūxerunt in the Mon．Anc．iii．26）． The use of the apex，or accent－mark，to indicate a long vowel，on inscriptions，especially on inscriptions later than 150 A．D．，is also evidence of a more or less doubtful character ；and even when the length of a vowel seems fairly established，e．g．reexi（with apex over the $e$ on an inscr．of 105 A．D．，C．I．L．v． 875 ；also declared to have long $e$ by Priscian，l．c．；contrast Gk． $\begin{gathered} \\ \omega\end{gathered} \rho \epsilon \xi a$ ），there remains a further question whether the long vowel is not due to a similar phonetic law for the group $g-s$ ，as that which gramma－ rians mention for the group $g$－$t$（in rectus，lectus，tectus，\＆c．），viz． that a naturally short vowel is lengthened before this Consonant－ group．（On the question of the quantity of the Stem－vowel in these S－Perfects，see ch．ii．§ 144，and cf．ch．iv．§ 5 I，p．254， where the high grade of the root is accounted for by the syncope of a short vowel，rēx－for refge－（č）s－．）The vocalism of the Perfect of $j u b b e o$ may have been altered before the end of the Republic， for the spelling jous－on old inscriptions（see C．I．L．i．Index， s．v．）proves an original diphthong ou（probably I．－Eur．eu； the root is yeudh－，O．Ind．yōdhati），and O．Lat．joussei（with s for $s s$ before the practice of writing a double consonant came in，
ch. i. § 8) would become naturally in classical Latin $j \bar{u} s \bar{\imath}$, as in the Perfect of mitto O. Lat. meissei became class. Lat. mīsī (see ch. ii. § 129). Cë̀lo has cëssi (Prisc. i. 466. 6 H.). Perfects in - $s s i$ often come from Verb-stems ending in $-s$, e.g. from the root eus-, us-si; thus prĕmo probably takes its Perfect mres-si from a lost Present *preso [cf. Gk. $\tau \rho \epsilon^{\prime}(\sigma) \omega$ and $\tau \rho \epsilon ́ \mu \omega$; Lat. $\operatorname{ter}(s)$-eo and trĕm-0, § 3]. Fluxi comes from the stem *bhlug ${ }^{\text {T }}$ (Gk. oivó- $\phi \lambda v \xi$ ), the guttural becoming $v$ in fluvo, class. tluo; co-nixi from the root kneigh ${ }^{\mathrm{u}}$ - (cf. nicto) ; fixi from the stem dheig ${ }^{n}$-, the O. Lat. Present being fivo (§ 7) ; vexi from the root weĝh-, Pres. veho, and so on.

The S-Aorist is not found with Vowel Verbs in Latin as it is in Greek, e. g. $\bar{c}-\tau i \mu \eta-\sigma a$ (Dor. $-\bar{\alpha} \sigma a$ ), $\bar{\epsilon}-\phi i ́ \lambda \eta-\sigma a$ (with $\sigma$ apparently for $\sigma \sigma$ as in $\epsilon \dot{v} \sigma a$ for $*_{\epsilon} v^{\prime} \sigma-\sigma a$, quoted above); at least it is not found in the Indicative. But in Umbro-Oscan, if tt in these languages represents an original ss (as Att. $\pi \rho a ́ \tau \tau \omega$ for $\pi \rho a ́ \sigma \sigma \omega$ ), we have this formation in Perfects like Pelignian coisatens 'curaverunt' quasi *curassunt, Osc. duunated 'donavit' quasi *dōnassit, dadíkatted 'dedicavit,' prúfatted, prúfattens 'probavit, probaverunt,' teremnattens 'terminaverunt' [all the examples preserved belong to the first Conj., and so do almost all of the Latin examples of -ss- forms, e.g. amasso, amassim, amassere (see* § 5)].
(4) With $v(u)$. This is the Perfect-stem formation of VowelVerbs, as of the first Conjugation, ̆̆mävi, nĕc̄̄̄-vi, and with the $v(u)$ added to a stem not ending in $-\bar{u}$, nĕc-ui (so crĕpavi and crëpui, cŭbavi and cŭbui, dīmı̆cavi and dimı̆сui, \&c.), of the second replēvi, monui, of the third strā-vi, sè-vi, crē-vi, sī-vi, of the fourth audīvi, dēešlưi, and dēesil̄̄vi. It is also found with some Consonant Verb-stems, e.g. cŏlui, ŭlui, gĕmui, and is sometimes added to a Perfect-stem already formed; e. g. mess-ui (but see § 51). When the stem ends in $v(w)$, two $v$ 's are not written, but the preceding vowel is lengthened, e. g. cāvi, lävi (see § 47 on fövi). Statui, fui, \&c. were in O. Lat. statūi (statūvi), fūvi. Pŏsui is a form introduced by the false apprehension of pŏ-sĭtus [from the Preposition pro- (Gk. ànó, Lat. ab, ch. ix. § 12) and st̆tus P.P. P. of sino ( $p$ ōno for $p \check{o}-s(i) n o$, ch. iv. § 151 ) ], as if it were posi-tus like mŏň̆-tus. The true Perfect, used by the older K k 2
writers, is po-sivi, but this could not become posui (impos $\breve{i} i$, Lucil. xxviii. 26 M.) by ordinary phonetic development.

Both the Perfect with $v$ and the S-Perfect occasionally present shortened forms, e.g. amasti, misti, which are best regarded as phonetic developments of the full forms ămāvisti, mīsisti, due in the one case to the Roman tendency to drop intervocalic $v$ (see ch. ii. $\S 53$ ), and in the other to the practice of discarding one of two neighbouring similar syllables (see ch. iii. § I3, p. 176). The same shortening occurs in various parts of the Perfect-stem conjugation, e. g. amäro Fut. Pft., amassem Pluperf. Subj., and so on (see § 3).

The Perfect-stem was formed in I.-Eur. from the root of the verb, not from the Present-stem. This is the reason why a Latin Perfect often presents so different an appearance from a Latin Present. Thus $s \bar{e}-v i$ is formed from the root sē- (cf. sē-men), but sĕroo is a Reduplicated Present, for $*_{\text {sĭ-s-ō (cf. Gk. }}$ ï $\eta \mu \iota$ for $*_{\sigma \iota-\sigma \eta-\mu \iota}, \S 9$ ) ; crēevi, I determined, sī-vi, strā-vi and others exhibit Nasalized Present-stems, cer-no, sĭ-no, ster-no (see § 1o); crēeri, I grew, nō-vi, ŭbŏlē-vi and abol-ui have as Presents 'Inceptive'-stems cre-sco, no-sco, abole-sco (see § 28). But it often happened that the Perfect was influenced by the form of the Present-stem. Thus vèni from root $g^{\mathrm{g}} \mathrm{em}$ - (Goth. qēmum I Pl.) should be $*$ rēmi, but takes its $n$ from the Present, a YO-stem, which by the Latin Phonetic law changes its $m$ to $n$ before $i(y)$, vĕnio.

In Oscan the Perfect Subjunctive differs from the Perf. Ind. only in its use of the Subjunctive vowel é (§ 55), e. g. Osc. fefacil ' fecerit.' But in Latin the Perfect Subjunctive adds to the Perfect-stem -ĕrim, -ĕrı̄̄s, -ĕrit, \&c. (3 Pl. -erint), which is generally regarded as an Optative form from the root es- (cf. $\operatorname{sim})$ used as an Auxiliary. Others explain vïdĕrim, with vïdĕro, \&c., as containing a Noun-stem vidis- (cf. cinǔs-), which is seen in its proper form in vidis-sem (see § 52). In the Perfect Subjunctive person-endings $\bar{\imath}$, not $\breve{\imath}$, is correct ; scansions with $\breve{\imath}$ are due to confusion with the Fut. Perf. (see Neue, ii ${ }^{2}$. p. 510). In its Potential use, e. g. dixerim, I would say, affirmaverim, \&c. the first Pers. Plur. is rare (e. g. dixerimus, Cic. Tusc. iii. 4.7 ; Nat. Deor. i. 20. 52), and in the Deponent Conjugation this use is rare

# even in the Singular (e.g. passus sim, Ter. Andr. 203 ; cf. sit passus, Virg. G. iii. 141) (see A. L. L. i. 347). 

§ 40. Other examples of Reduplicated forms : stē-t-ī ( 0 . Ind. ta-sth-ē), ste-tī-mus, older *ste-tü-mos (Gk. $\left.\begin{array}{c}\epsilon \\ \epsilon \\ \sigma\end{array} \alpha-\mu \epsilon \nu\right)$; pe-péd-i from pēdo for *pezdo (O. Engl. fist) ; ce-cinn-i, older *ce-cen-ei (0. Ir. ce-chan) ; but with the Reduplicationvowel changed, dĭ-ľ̆c-i, Pres. disco for ${ }^{*} d i c-s c o ;$ pŏ-posc-ì, O. Lat. pe-posc-i for *pe-prik (root prek-) with 'Inceptive'-stem suffix -sk- (§ 22) (cf. O. Ind. pa-prach-a, Act.), Umbr. pe-purk-urent 'rogaverint.' Peculiar to O. Lat. are : te-tĭn-i (O. Ind. ta-tan-ē from tan-, I.-Eur. ten-, 'to stretch'), which was used as a Perfect of tëneo (apud veteres 'tetini ' dicitur Diom. 372. 18 K.) ; Nonius (i78. 7 M.) quotes tetinisse and tetinerim from Pacuvius, tetinerit from Accius; in Plaut. Amph. 926 we should probably read abstinei for abstines of the MSS. :
nunc quándo factis me inpudicis ábstinei, ab inpudicis díctis auortí uolo,
and tetini, -tini should perhaps be read for tenui, -tinui in other passages of Plautus (Studem. Stud. ii. 122 n.) ; Paul. Fest. (335. 7 Th .) has preserved for us an old augural phrase, discussed by Messala in his Treatise on Augury, purime tetinero 'purissime tenuero' ; scicicldi (sciscidi ?), illustrated by Priscian (i. 517.3 H.) with several passages from the Dramatists.
§ 41. Unreduplicated. The following, with short vowel, which are often referred to I.-Eur. strong (unreduplicated) Aorists, are more probably reduplicated forms which have lost their Reduplication, first in Compounds, then in the Simple Verb : tŭli (see below) ; scï-di (cf. O. Ind. ci-chid-e Perf. Mid., á-chida-m Aor.), in O. Lat. sč̌-cĭd-ī (see above), ef. ab-scidi, di-scidi, re-scidi, \&c.; füdl (cf. O. Ind. bi-bhid-ē Perf. Mid., á-bhida-m Aor.), rare in the Simple Verb, but more frequent in the Compound dif-fidi (e.g. Virg. A. ix. 588 tempora plumbo diffidit ; Hor. C. iii. 16. 13 diffidit urbinm Portas vir Macedo) ; -cŭli only occurs in the Compound per-culi, just as -pulli (in the Simple Verb pĕpŭli) is only found in Compounds, dispuli, impuli, \&c. (cf. rep(e)puli).

And a large number of the forms usually quoted as Unreduplicated Perfects with stem-vowel unchanged rest on very insecure foundation :-cendi occurs only in Compounds ac-cendi, in-cendi, \&c. ; the same is true of -fendi of de-fendi, of-fendi, and -hendi of pre-lendi, nor can we be certain whether the $e$ in these Perfects was short or long ; *lambi is attested by Priscian (i. 506.25 H.) with the single example of a line of Lucilius (xiii. ir M.) :
iucundasque puer qui lamberat ore placentas,
where lamberat is evidently Pres. of lambero (Plaut. Pseud. 743 :
eúgepae: lepidé, Charine, meó me ludo lámberas),
and is probably the very word which is quoted by Paul. Fest. $8_{\ddagger} .30 \mathrm{Th}$. 'lamberat' scindit ac laniat ; for *psalli Priscian quotes only a line of Caesius Bassus, the friend of Persius, with psallerat ; of mando he says (i. 419.13 H.) ejus praeteritum perfectum quidem alii mandui, alii mandidi esse voluerunt; Livius tamen in Odyssia (a later hexameter version):
-vĕrri (ef. Prisc. i. 532.22 H.) is easily attested for Compounds, but not for the Simple Verb, and the same is true of -cūdi (Prisc. i. 515.16 H .), and to a great extent of velli (Virg. Ecl. vi. 4 vellit et admonuit).

Of the remaining examples of Unreduplicated Perfect with Stem-vowel unchanged, īci (Pft. of īco? see Wharton, Etyma Lat. s. v.), strīdi, vīsi (an SAorist? ; the usual Perfect of these Present S-stems is in -ivi, e. g arcess-ivi, quaes-ivi, from arcesso, quaes(s)o, § 3), and better attested than these, păndi, prandi, scăndi, rěrti (on siddi, bibi, see below) ; the Verbs with Present in -ndo are sometimes credited with a Perfect in -düdi instead of $-d i$ (cf. condidi, but in composition abscondi, though abscondidi is quoted from the Republican Dramatists by Nonius, 75.22 M.), e. g. descendidi, quoted from Valerius Antias and Laberius by Gell. vi. 9. 17, mandidi, a byform of mandi (Prisc. i. 419. 13 H., just cited), prandidi, censured by Diomedes, 367.17 K . This -didi is proper to verbs compounded with $d 0$, (1) to give, (2) to put, so is applied by false analogy to de-scenclo, from the I.-Eur. root skand- (O. Ind. skand-, Gk. $\sigma \kappa a \nu \delta \dot{\alpha} \lambda \eta \theta \rho o \nu$, 0. Ir. ro-sescaind) ; the formation of păndo (cf. Osc. patensíns 'aperirent' (?)), mando, prandeo is not clear (see § 14). Verti, O. Lat. vorti (vo- became ve- in the course of the second cent. в. c., ch. iv. § ro), has probably the weak stem *wrt-, with which we may compare either the O. Ind. Reduplicated Perf. Mid. vavṛté or the 0 . Ind. Unreduplicated Aorist á-vṛta-m) ; but while the Umbrian forms ku-vurtus, co-cortus, corrtust (or courtust, for covurtust?), 'converteris' ' converterit,' ku-vertu, co-vertu 'convertito,' point to a different stem for the Present (wert- ; cf. O. Ind. vairtatē) and the Perfect (wṛt-), the O. Lat. spelling shows rort-(wrt-) both in the Present and in the Perfect, as well as in the Perfect Participle Passive vorsus (*wṛt-to-, O. Ind. vṛttá-), so that the weak stem has the appearance of having forced its way in Latin into the Present Tensesystem, leaving an identity of Stem-vowel between the Present and the Perfect. The spelling rorto may, however, have represented the pronunciation rerto (see ch. iv. § ro).
The alternation of $\breve{a}$ in Present- with $\bar{e}$ in Perfect-stem is seen in $f a ̆ c-i o$ (Umbr. façia, Osc. fakiiad 'faciat') and fēc-i (I.-Eur. dhē-k- of Gk. $\epsilon-\theta \eta \kappa-\alpha$ ), früngo (root bhreg-, Goth. brikan ; see ch. iv. § 51), and frēg-i, jăcio and jēci, căpio and cēpi, pango and pēgi, c̆go and égi, cö̈pi (Lucr.) and apere (ch. ii. § 150), it is seen also in Oscan hipid 'habuerit' (Osc. i is I.-Eur. ē), though *hēbi is unknown in Latin; that of $\check{o}$ with $\bar{o}$ in fŏd-io and fōd $\bar{f} i$ [the I.-Eur. root is bhedh-, Lith. bedu, 'I dig,' W. bedd, 'a grave,' varying with bhodh-, Gk. Bóppos (with $\beta$ for $\pi$ ), Lith. badaũ, 'I prick,' $O$. Sl. boda] ; of $\breve{a}$ with $\bar{a}$ there is one doubtful example, scăbo (with $\check{a}$ in scăberet, Hor. S. i. 10. 7r) and scäberat, quoted as a Plupft. (with lamberat, on which see above) by Priscian from Lucil. ix. ${ }_{77}$ M. scaberat ut porcus contritis arbore costis; that of $\breve{e}$ with $\bar{e}$ is seen in ědo and édli, ěmo and émi, lĕgo and lēgi, sĕdeo and sē̃li, věnio (en for ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{m}, \mathrm{m}$, like $\mathbf{G k}$. $\beta a i v \omega)$ and vēni for ${ }^{* r e ̄ m i ~(G o t h . ~ q e e m u m, ~ r ~ P l .) ~ ; ~ t h e ~ w e a k ~ s t e m ~ w i t h ~ s h o r t ~}$ vowel is seen in the Present, but not in the Perfect, in fügio and fugi (root bheug-), linquo and liqui (root leiqü-), rümpo and rūpi (root reup-), vĭdeo and vīdi (root weid-), vǐnco and vīci (root weik-), fündo and füdi.
§42. Form of Reduplication. When the root of the Verb began with a group of consonants the practice in I.-Eur. languages is to use only the first consonant of the group in the Reduplication-syllable, e.g. I.-Eur. *ke-klow-, *k̂e-k̂lu-, the Perfect-stems from the root k̂leu-, 'to hear' (Gk. $\boldsymbol{\pi \epsilon} \in{ }^{\prime}-\kappa \lambda \nu \tau \epsilon$; cf.
O. Ind. š́u-ş́ráva, $\mathbf{O}$. Ir. ru chuala from *cu-clowa, both of these last having the weak stem vowel ŭ instead of the Reduplication-vowel ĕ). This form of Reduplication appears in Latin Reduplicated Presents (see § 9) like si-s-to (I.-Eur. *si-st-, Zend hi-štaiti, Gk. ï- $\sigma \tau \eta \mu$, Umbr. se-stu). But in Latin Perfects the whole group appears in the Reduplication-syllable when the group consists of s followed by a mute, while in the stem-syllable the $s$ is dropped (possibly sometimes retained, as in Teutonic), whereas in other I.-Eur. languages (e. g. O.-Ind., Gk.) only the mute appears in the Reduplication-syllable, e.g. Lat. spö-pond-i (spo-spondi is occasionally found in MSS.), scĭ-cicd-i (v. l. sciscidi), Goth. stai-staut, O. Ind. ta-sthāú (from O. Ind. sthā-, 'to stand'). Bibi shows the 1 i of $b \grave{r}-b-0$, the Reduplication-vowel of Present-stems, as ĕ of Perfect-stems. Similarly dì-dic-i may owe its $\check{\imath}$ to the
 $\delta a \kappa-\sigma \kappa \omega$ ) (but see § 22). The Roman grammarians were in doubt whether the correct Perfect of sisto was stī-t-i or stĕ-t-i (see Georges, s. v.), Gellius (ii. 14) speaks of an old MS. of Cato's speeches which had the reading vadimonium stitisses, a reading changed by 'emendatores' to radimonium stetisses; the same doubt existed whether sīdi or sèdi was the Perfect of sido (*si-sd-o).
§43. Assimilation of Reduplication-vowel to Stem-vowel. Aulus Gellius, in a chapter dealing with peculiar forms of the Latin Perfect (N. A. vi. 9 ; cf. Nonius 140. 19 M.), says that although poposci, momordi, pupugi, cucurvi were the forms used in his time by almost all educated men (omnes ferme doctiores), the older writers used $\check{\text { é in }}$ the Reduplication-syllable. He quotes memordi from Ennius (from his poem to Scipio, and referring to the rivals of his hero ?) (Sat. 20 M.) :
meum nón est, ut ( $v . l$. at) si mé canis memórderit,
from Laberius, Nigidius, Atta, and Plautus (Aul. fr. 2 ut admemordit hominem), remarking that the last author used also prae-morsisset (the S-Aorist form), peposci from Valerius Antias, pepugero from Atta, occecurrit from Aelius Tubero, speponderant from Valerius Antias. He even assigns similar forms to Cicero and Caesar (sic M. Tullius et C. Caesar mordeo 'memordi,' pungo 'pepugi,' spondeo 'spepondi' dixerunt), although our MSS. of these authors, as of Plautus and the older writers, hardly preserve a trace of them [see Neue, $\mathrm{ii}^{2} .465$. In Plaut. Poen. 1074 one of the Palatine MSS. has memordit (D), another me mordit (C), another momordit (B)].
§ 44. Loss of Reduplication. This assimilation may have in some cases facilitated the loss of the Reduplication-syllable in Compounds, which was ascribed above ( $\$ 39$ ) to the Latin practice of discarding one of two neighbouring and similar syllables [e.g. ar(cī)-cŭbii, ch. iii. § i3. p. 176]. This practice of Latin [cf. Gk. $\dot{\alpha} \mu(\phi t)$-фopev́s], along with the liability of every short second syllable to Syncope under the older law of Accentuation (ch.iii. § 13), must have operated most powerfully to the detriment of the Reduplicationsyllable in Compounds, so that it is wrong to refer all Latin Unreduplicated Perfects to I.-Eur. Unreduplicated Perfect and Aorist forms. A Perfect like tưli, which has in Plautus the form tettulli, in Terence usually the Unreduplicated form, tưli, as always in classical Latin, is most naturally explained as a Reduplicated form which lost its Reduplication in the second cent. b. c. The Compound rettuli (not retuli, see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.) has a double $t$, which
is clearly not due to the Preposition having had the form red-, but like the double $p$ of reppĕri (beside rĕpĕrio), reppŭli (beside rĕpello), to the Syncope of the Reduplication-vowel, re-t(e)-tuli, like re-p(e)-peri, re-p(e)-puli. Other compounds, like con-tuli, ob-tuli, at-tuli, sus-tuli have precisely the form which they would have had if they, like rettuli, had suffered Syncope of their second syllable; only, while Syncope has left a trace of its operation in the double $t$ of rettuli, this trace has been obliterated by the phonetic conditions of these other Compounds. *Conttuli, *obttuli, *attuli, *susttuli are impossible forms; they must in Latin orthography be written contuli, obtuli, attuli, sustuli, so as to afford no criterion of whether the Preposition was originally compounded with tetuli or tuli. The one Compound however which does afford such a criterion pronounces for the first of these alternatives, and warrants us in asserting that an original tetuli has been reduced to tuli in the Perfect of all the Compounds of fero (tollo), and in denying the theory that they show an original tuli, an Aorist formation like Subj. attulas, \&c. (see § 4). The shortened form tuli having thus established itself in the numerous Compounds of fěro, words in constant use in the speech of every-day life, it may well have spread from them to the simple verb. The habitual use of con-tuli, at-tuli, ob-tuli, \&c. would naturally lead to the preference of tuli for the more cumbersome tetuli, although by a freak of language, by the caprice of that 'usus,
quem penes arbitrium est et jus et norma loquendi,'
the shortened form -puli of the Compounds re-p'e)puli, com-'pe)puli, im-(pe)puli, \&c. did not supplant the full form pepuli at the same time. It is the Compound Verbs which as a rule in Latin show the short form, the Simple Verbs which are most retentive of the full Reduplicated form; e.g. dē-tondi (detotondi is quoted from Varro by Priscian, i. 482.7 H ., but is declared impermissible by Servius, who lays down the law that no Compound can have a Reduplicated Perfect: 'verba quae in praeterito perfecto primam syllabam geminant, cum composita fuerint, geminare non possunt), attondi (in Plaut. \&c.), despondi (Plaut., Ter., Cic.), praecidli (Plaut., Cic.) beside totondi, spopondi, cecīdi; and this fact is additional evidence of Latin Unreduplicated forms having lost the Reduplication-syllable in Composition.
§45. Co-existent Reduplicated and Unreduplicated forms. A more certain example of an Unreduplicated form existing side by side with a Reduplicated, and not a phonetic development from the latter due to the loss of the Reduplication-syllable, is the Perfect of pango, pēgi beside pĕp̆̆gi. Both forms survived in classical Latin, the Reduplicated pepigi being reserved for the sense 'I have agreed,' 'stipulated,' so that it is often called by the Roman grammarians the Perfect of pĕciscor ; and in addition a third Perfect is mentioned by the grammarians for the Simple Verb (not the Compounds), an S-Aorist form panxi, e.g. in the elegiac epitaph of Ennius (ap. Cic. Tusc.i. 15.34) :

> hic uestrum panxit maxima facta patrum.

In the same way O. Lat. fefaked of the very ancient inscription on a Praenestine brooch (C.I. L. xiv. 4123) : Manios med fefaked Numasioi, seems to be from a Perfect-stem * $f_{e-f}$ füc- (and similarly Osc. fefacust ' fecerit' Fut. Pft., and fefacid 'fecerit' Pft. Subj., will have ă not à), anterior to the weakening of unaccented vowels (see ch. iii. § 18). It would have been in class. Latin, had the form survived, *Jĕfici, related to fèci as pĕpr̆gi to pēgi.
§ 46. S-Preterite. Examples of parallel Latin and Greek forms are dixi,
O. Lat. dei- (Gk. $\epsilon \delta \epsilon \iota \xi a)$ (both Lat.dei- and $\mathrm{Gk} . \delta \epsilon t-$ may before a consonant repre-

 substitution of -si for $-x i$ (of sanxi, tinxi, \&c.) in mulsi from ( $\mathbf{I}$ ) mulceo, ( $\mathbf{2}$ ) mulgeo, fulsi from (1) fulcio, (2) fulgeo, parsi (and peperci) from parco, sparsi from spargo, \&c. is due to the preceding consonants $l, r$ (see ch. iv. § 157). The same Verb may use as its Perfect both the S-formation and the Reduplicated Perfect: thus parco has parsi and peperci ; praemordeo has praemordi and pruemorsi (Plaut. fr. 120 G.) : surgo has surrexi, but in Livius Andronicus often surregi (in the old spelling suregi ; Paul. Fest. $4^{23}$. I Th. 'suregit' et 'sortus' pro surrexit, et quasi possit fieri surrectus, frequenter posuit Livius) ; the difference between dï-lexi, neg-lexi (cf. intel-lexi) and cēelēgi, ē-lēgi, \&c. has been explained by referring the Perfects with $x$ to a lost Present *lego (Gk. $\dot{d} \lambda \epsilon \in \gamma \omega$, to care for) ; émo, to buy (cf. redimo, coëmo), in O. Lat. to take (Paul. Fest. 53. 26 Th . emere, quod nunc est mercari, antiqui accipiebant pro accipere) as in ad-imo, to take away, O. Lat. ab-emo with the same sense (Paul. Fest. 4. ir Th. 'abemito' significat demito vel auferto. 'emere' enim antiqui dicebant pro accipere), dirr-imo, intër-imo, ex-imo (cf. M. Ir. fo-emaim, 'I take,' Lith. imú, O. Sl. imą), retains in these Compounds the Perfect-formation of the Simple Verb emi, redēmi, coēmi, adēmi, \&c., but in the Compounds cōmo, dèmo, prōmo, sūmo, in which its connexion with emo is obscured, it takes an S-Preterite, compsi, dempsi, prompsi, sumpsi ( 0 . Lat. suremit however for sumpsit is quoted by Paul. Fest. 425.3 Th.) ; similarly ămŭcio, a Compound of jăcio, is conjugated inconsistently with its forgotten origin amicui and amixi, amictum, amicire (cf. ambitum Supine of ambio, a Compound of eo, but amb-ťtus, a going round, canvassing, \&c.); why élưcio should have as Perfect elücui, but allücio, cllexi is not clear.
§47. Origin of the Perfect in -vi (-ui). The $v(u)$ of Perfects like $\check{u} m \bar{u}-v i$, $m o ̆ n-u ̆ i ~ h a s ~ b e e n ~ v a r i o u s l y ~ e x p l a i n e d ~ a s ~ a ~ c a s e-e n d i n g ~ o f ~ a ~ V e r b a l ~ N o u n ~ U-s t e m ~$ followed by the Auxiliary Verb ei-, 'to go,' as a formation on the analogy of Verb-stems which end in $v(u)$ such as for-eo (ch. iv. § r44) from the root dheghn ${ }_{n}^{n}$ (fōvi being regarded as a Perfect formed in the same way as födl from födio, and not in the manner stated in § 39.4) and other even less satisfactory hypotheses. A very plausible theory supposes I.-Eur. -wĭ to have been the ending of the first and third persons singular of the Perfect of roots ending in a long vowel and compares $O$. Ind. ja-jñāú (with final unaccented 1 dropped with Lat. (g)noví (with the middle 1 Sg. ending -ai), O. Ind. pa-prāú with Lat. plèrí. These O. Ind. forms are confined to the r and 3 Sg . of the Perfect of roots ending in a long vowel, e. g. da-dāú, 'I have given,' ' he has given,' but da-dấtha, 'thou hast given,' \&c., so that the original Latin paradigm may have been plevi, plesti, plevit, \&c. There is also an explanation possible which connects these Latin Perfects with Oscan (and probably Umbrian) Perfects in -f- (-ff-), such as Osc. aa-mana-ffed 'amandavit' 'faciendum curavit,' aíkda-fed '*aequidavit' ' fines ad normam derexit,' prúf-fed 'probavit,' fufens 'fuerunt.' This Oscan $f$ has been naturally explained, like $f$ of Oscan fu-fans 'erant,' Falisc. kare-fo 'carebo,' as representing I.-Eur. bh, seen in O. Ir. charub 'amabo' (quasi ' *carabo'). But Italic f may also represent I.-Eur. dh (see ch. iv. § II4), so that these Oscan Perfects, if separable from the Impft. fufans, may contain an Auxiliary Verb connected with the root dhē-, 'to put' (Gk. $\boldsymbol{x}^{\prime} \theta \eta \mu \mu$, Lat. crē- $d 0$, § 27 and p. $3^{6} 3$ ). Latin $v(u)$ in the middle of a word
may represent $d v$ (I.-Eur. dw, as in sū̄vis, I.-Eur. *swādu-, and probably also I.-Eur. dhw), while at the beginning of a word I.-Eur. dw- is represented by Latin b, e.g. bı̆s from I.-Eur. *dwĭs (Gk. $\delta(F)$ ís), so that the $v$ of the Latin Perfect and the $f(f f)$ of the Oscan may both represent the dhw- of a weak stem from the root dhē-, 'to put, place,' a stem which appears in a fuller form (the E-grade ? ch. iv. §5I) in Lat. crē-duas, as the numeral duo (see ch. vi. § 59) appears beside bis. If this explanation, which requires a good many possibilities, be right, Oscan -manaffed will correspond to Latin cubavit, \&c., Oscan prúffed to Latin cubuit, \&c., and the -ss- of messui, \&c. will be due to the combination of the final dental of the Verb-stem with the initial dental of the Auxiliary (see below § 5 ${ }^{1}$ ).

In cuиbui beside cubari, сrёриi beside -crepavi, the $u$-forms may be referred to the parallel Consonant-stems of cumbere, *crepere (percrepis, Varro, Men. 124 B.), and similarly lūvi (for *lavri) to O. Lat. lăvere, sŏnui to O. Lat. sŏnere (cf. § 92). But Perfects in $-u i$ may also come from forms in which a short vowel ${ }^{1}$ preceded the Auxiliary *dhwai, just as éluo comes from êlăvo, clēnuo from dē nŏvo


Perfects in -īvi from Consonantal Verbs, such as petivi from pĕto, rudivi from ruio, lacessivi from lŭcesso, arcessivi from arcesso (and similarly quaesivi for *quaessivi from quaeso, older quaesso, used as Perf. of quaero), probably come from parallel YO-stems, ${ }^{*}$ petio, ${ }^{*}$ rudio, *lacessio, \&c. (cf. sallo and sallio, Perf. sallivi, lino and linio, Perf. linivi, \&c., § 15).
§48. Shortened forms of the Perfect in -vi. Latin $v$ was often dropped when it stood between two vowels, oftenest between two $i$ 's, e.g. O. Lat. dinnus for dīrīmus, oblisci for oblīvisci, dītem for dīvĭtem (so dis for dīves) (see ch. ii. § 53), but the dropping of $u$ after a consonant is not practised in the same way (ch. iv. §7r). The only Latin Perfect form without $u$ is the curious monerim of Pacuvius, quoted as an irregular formation by Nonius (507. 23 M.) Trag. 30 R .:
. . . dic quid fáciam ; quod me móneris effectűm dabo,
and Trag. 112 R. di mónerint meliora átque amentiam áuerruncassínt tuam (parodied by Lucil. xxvi. 35 M.), which seems to be a formation from a stem mon- (cf. Gk. $\mu \dot{\epsilon}-\mu o \nu a$ ?) instead of the ordinary Perfect-stem monu-, unless it indicates a pronunciation mŏn(w)erim like $\breve{a} b(y) i c i o$ of the old Dramatists (ch. ii.§ 50), and possibly augŭr $y$ ) a in a line of Accius (Trag. 624 R.) (quoted by Nonius 488. 2 M., who makes the word augura, by some regarded as a Neut. Pl. like rōbŏra ; cf. O. Ind. ójass N., 'strength') :
pró certo arbitrábor sortis, óracla, adytus, aúgura,
and $p r o ̄ g e n(y)$ em (? prŏgĕně̆m) in a pentameter line of a Scipio epitaph of this period (C.I.L. i. 38, с. гзо в. c.) :
progenie mi genui : facta patris petiei
(probably a graver's mistake for progeniem genui). (Pŏsisse, săpisse are shortened forms, not of posuisse, sapuisse, but of posīvisse, sapīvisse, § 39.4). But Perfect-forms

[^98]domitus). An example of a stem in I.-Eur. -c̆ is O. Ind. vámi-mi (3 Sg. vámi-ti, but also with the Thematic Vowel, vama-ti), the equivalent of Lat. vŏmo, -čre.
without $v$ were extremely common ; in Cicero's time nosse, jüdicasse, \&c. were usual (Orat. xlvii. 157 quid quod sic loqui, 'nosse, judicasse' vetant, 'novisse' jubent et 'judicavisse '? quasi vero nesciamus in hoc genere et plenum verbum recte dici et imminutum usitate); and in Quintilian's time the forms audivisse, scīvisse, conservārisse were scarcely heard even in public speaking [Quint. i. 6 . 17-21 inhaerent tamen ei (sc. analogiae) quidam molestissima diligentiae perversitate ut 'audaciter' potius dicant quam 'audacter,' licet omnes oratores aliud sequantur . . . his permittamus et 'audivisse' et 'scivisse' et 'tribunale' et 'faciliter' dicere . . . sed abolita atque abrogata retinere insolentiae cujusdam est et frivolae in parvis jactantiae. multum enim litteratus, qui sine adspiratione et producta secunda syllaba salutarit ('avere' est enim), et 'calefacere' dixerit potius quam quod dicimuset 'conservavisse,' his adiciat 'face' et 'dice' et similia. recta est haec via : quis negat? sed adjacet et mollior et magis trita]. Servius, in a note on the form lenüit in Virg. Aen. i. 45r, tells us that the pronunciation of every-day life was lenitit, the form with the short penult being confined to poetry (sed hoc in metro ubi necessitas cogit : nam in prosa et naturam suam et accentum retentat).
Varro (L. L. iii. fr. p. 148 W.) mentions amasti, nosti, abiit as the favourite forms of his time; and in Terence the usual forms of Perfects in -ēvi, -ivi and of nōri are the contracted (in Plautus the uncontracted, though in the middle, not the end, of a line siris, not sivěris, is used), while the uncontracted forms of Perfects in $-\bar{a} v i$ are used only at the end of a line (in Plautus equally with the contracted). Eo and its compounds have even in Plautus usually the
 forms without $v$ to have been phonetic developments of the others, and to have gradually established themselves in exclusive use, the $v$ being dropped earliest and most persistently in forms where it came between two $i$ 's. The shortened form of -avit, if it did not push itself into literary usage, must however have become, sooner or later, a part of every-day pronunciation, for the Romance forms point to a Vulgar Latin -aut for -avit, e. g. Ital. compro from a Vulg. Lat. *comp(ă)raut. (On audit, \&c. for audivit, see ch. iii.§ го. 2.)

The $v$ of the Perfect of verbs whose stem ends in $v(u)$ was not dropped to the same extent ; a fact which may be explained by the different sound of $-\bar{\tau} v$ for -avv- in cāveram (pronounced *cavveram?) and - $\bar{u} v$ - in amāveram. But even these Perfects when $o, u$ precede $v$, are contracted almost as readily as the others: e.g. dêvōro for dḕōvěro in the Praetextata of Accius called 'Decius, (referring to Decius Mus) [Trag. (Praet.) 15 R.] :
pátrio exemplo et mé dicabo atque ánimam deuoro hóstibus;
commōrat, Ter. Phorm. ıor ; commōrunt, remosse, Lucr. ; adjūro (or adjü̆̈ro ?), in a passage of the eleventh book of Ennius' Annals (1. 386 M.) describing the Macedonian campaign of Flamininus (the words are addressed by a shepherdguide to the Roman general) :

0 Tite, siquid ego adiuro curamue leuasso, quae nunc te coquit et uersat in pectore fixa, ecquid erit praemi?
and the same form (3 Sg.) in Plaut. Rud. 305 and Ter. Phorm. 537, \&c. Mōrunt, mōram, commōrunt, commōram, commossen, \&c. are not uncommon in the Augustan poets, e. g. Hor. S. i. 9. 48 :
dispeream ni
summosses omnis,
and jü̆rint occurs in Catullus, lxvi. 18:
non, ita me diui, uera gemunt, iuerint
for other examples, see Neue, $\mathrm{ii}^{2}$. 533). The usage on inscriptions of the 3 Pl. Pft. forms of cirro, prïbo similarly points to the forms with $v$ being the older [e. g. corauteront, C.I. L. i. 73, courauerunt 1419 , coirauterunt 565 , \&c. (once coirarunt), but coeraverunt and coerarunt, curarunt $]$.
§ 49. Shortened forms of the Perfect in -si. A better case might be presented for the theory that the shorter forms of Perfects in -si (-xi) are really ancient forms of different origin from the full forms, for dixti, dixem, dixe, \&c. are most found in the early Dramatists, though they are by no means uncommon in Virgil and later poets. But the explanation of this fact is rather that they were felt to belong more or less to colloquial Latin, and so were freely admitted into Comedy and Tragedy (in both of which the every-day language of cultured society was employed), but not so freely into other literature. (Quintilian ix. 3. 22 remarks on Cicero's use of dixti 'excussa syllaba' in the pro Caecina, 29. 82.) A thing that is almost conclusive proof that dixem, \&c. are not parallel forms to dixim, dixo, \&c. is that these shortened forms are only found with Verbs which form the Perfect in $-s i$ (-xi); we have no *apsem, answering to capsim, no *axem answering to axim. [On the wrongness of the readings subaxet (for subaxit) in Pacuv. Trag. 163 R., faxet in Plant. Capt. 712, accepsti, Trin. 420, 964, \&c., see Neue, ii ${ }^{2}$. p. 539, and for examples of the shortened forms of Perfects in -si (-xi), e. g. rixe and rixem in Varro ( $M e n .321$ B. non eos optime vixe qui diutissime vixent sed qui modestissime), misti, misse, scripsti, rescripsti (Cic. ad Att. v. 9. 2), -sumpsti, -sumpse, -cesti, -cessem, -cesse, duxti, duxe, -spexti, -spexe, vexti, traxe, emunxti, \&c. see Neue, $\mathrm{ii}^{2}$. pp. 536 sqq .]
§ 50. O. Lat. Perfects in $\cdot \overline{\mathbf{u}}(\mathrm{v}) \mathbf{i}$. Varro declares that in the correct pronunciation of his time the $u$ of verbs like pluo, luo was short in the Present but long in the Perfect Indicative, as in the Perfect Participle Passive of similar verbs (L. L. ix. 104 quidam reprehendunt, quod 'pluit' et 'luit' dicamus in praeterito et praesenti tempore, cum analogiae sui cujusque temporis verba debeant discriminare. falluntur; nam est ac putant aliter, quod in praeteritis u dicimus longum 'plūit,' ' lūit,' in praesenti breve 'plŭit' 'lŭit'; ideoque in venditionis lege fundi 'rūta caesa' ita dicimus ut u producamus) (but ef. dirütus). Priscian (i. 504. 22 H.) makes this pronunciation, $-\bar{u} i$, in the Perfects of Verbs in - $\iota 0$, a feature of Old Latin, and quotes Ennius (Ann. I35 M): adnūit sese mecum decernere ferro,
while in another passige (i. 503.14 H .) he quotes plurisse, plucit with $v$ (the quantity of the $u$ is not mentioned) from Livy.

Instituit is the reading of the MSS. in Plaut. Most. 86 (in bacchiac metre, a metre in which the long quantity of a vowel preceding another vowel is often retained):
argúmentaque in pectus múlta institúi.
The commonest instance of $-\bar{i} i$ or $-i \pi i$ is in the Perfect of the old verb fuo, viz. fini, used as the Perfect of sum, as füimus in the boast of Ennius on being made a Roman citizen (Ann. 43 r M.) :
nos sumus Romani qui fūimus ante Rudini,
fï̈t (along with profŭit) in Plaut. Capt. 555 :
quibus insputarí saluti fuit atque ìs prófüit,
füerim, Mil. 1364, \&c., füisset in Ennius (Ann. 297 M.) :
magnam cum lassus diei
partem fūisset de summis rebus regundis.
We have the spelling fvveit on an epitaph (C.I.L. i. I05I). (See ch. iv. § 70.)
§ 51. Some Irregular Perfects. Besides the byforms in $s$ of the Perfect of parco, -lĕgo, \&c. which are found in the older as well as the later literature $(\$ 46)$, we have some which are more recent coinages on the type of other verbs. Velius Longus (74. 4 K.) speaking of sorpsi, a byform of sorbui, says : cum recens haec declinatio a sordidi sermonis viris coeperit (cf. Caper 94. 14 K. non est . . 'sorbsi,' sed sorbui), and similarly describes terui (for trivi) as a 'consuetudo nova' (absorpsi is used by Lucan, iv. roo). The Perfect vulsi, for velli, seems also to belong to this class of later coinages (ärulsit in Lucan. v. 594 ; cf. Neue, $\mathrm{ii}^{2} .503$ ), and -сс̆пиi of concimui (Ov., Tibull.), oссаmui (Sall.), incinui (Varro), \&c. may be a remodelling of a Perfect with lost Reduplication -cĭni (con-cini, oc-cini, in-cini) after the pattern of sŏnui, consomui, \&c. Messui (found in the older writers) is generally regarded as due to a similar addition of the ending $-u i$ to an already existing Perfect *messi, and also nexui (with nexi), pexui (with pexi), although, if the theory of the origin of the V-perfect stated in $\S 47$ be correct, the sibilant might be referred to the influence of the dental in the auxiliary *dhwai (cf. usus for *ut-tus. *oit-to-, füsus for *fud-tus, \&c., ch. iv. § 95. p. 281). In late inscriptions we have e.g. reguit (C.I.L. v. 923, from Aquileia: septimae qui cohortis centuriam reguit. a pentameter line), convertuit (viii. 2532 D b i) ; Apuleius uses conterui (see Georges Lex Wortf. s. v.). On Heteroclite Perfects like fui, Perfect of sum, tǔli (older tětưli) of fĕro, see § 97 .

In Vulgar Latin, as reflected in the Romance languages, the ending -ui encroached still more. Cognovit became cognovuit (Ital. conobbe), movit became movuit (Ital. movve), cecidit was replaced by caduit (Ital. cadde), stetit by stetuit (Ital. stette), venit by remuit (Ital. venne), \&c. [cf. § 92 on the Vulg. Lat. P. P. P. in - $u t u s$, e.g. cad̄̄tus, fallen (Ital. caduto)]. The ending -si also extended its sphere, respondit passing to responsit (Ital. rispose), prendit to pre(n)sit (Ital. prese), cucurrit to cursit (Ital. corse), \&c. (See Meyer-Lübke, Rom. Gramm. ii. pp. 297 sqq.)
§ 52. E. Pluperfect. The Pluperfect-stem is formed by adding to the Perfect-stem an S-suffix, probably a Preterite of the Substantive Verb es-, as the Imperfect in -bam, e.g. ămä-bam, uses a Preterite of the Verb bheu-. The -е̌ram, -èr $\bar{c}$ s, -ĕrat of ümāv-eram, mĕrı-eram, replēv-eram, dīx-eram, vīd-eram, рёр̆̆g-eram, audīv-eram is most naturally referred to the Imperfect of sum, though videram has been, with the O. Ind. á-vēdiṣ̆-am, analyzed into a Noun-stem in -is (cf. vidis-sem) as Gk. $\check{\eta} \delta \bar{\delta} \epsilon a$ into a Noun-stem in -es (see §3). The -is- of the Pluperfect Subjunctive ămāvissem, mŏnuissem, vüdissem, audīvissem must, if the old view be correct which sees in these forms an

Auxiliary essem appended to the Perfect-stem, be a change of -es- to the I-vocalism of the Perfect, just as the $a$ of Gk. $\delta \epsilon \iota \dot{\xi}$ á $\omega$, \&c. is due to the apprehension of $a$ as the appropriate vowel of the Aorist Tense.
§ 53. F. Future-Perfect. The Future-Perfect adds to the Perfect-stem -ĕrō, -ěř̌s, -ĕř̆t, \&c. (3 Pl. -ĕrunt), which seems to be nothing else than the Future (in form a Subjunctive, § 55) of sum, appended as an Auxiliary Verb, though those who explain the -er- of viderram as I.-Eur. -is-, the suffix of a Nounstem, see the same -is-in vīd-ĕro (cf. O. Ind. vēdiṣam) (see 3). S cansions like fecerīnus (Catull. v. ıo), i Pl. of fécĕro, are due to the confusion of the Future-Perfect forms with Perfect Subjunctive forms (see Neue, ii ${ }^{2}$. p. 510) ; aderint is similarly used for ălĕrunt throughout the Lex Col. Jul. Genetivae Urbanorum of 44 B.c. (Eph. Epigr. ii. p. 122). The use of the Fut. Perf. in the Republican Dramatists in sentences like mox ivero, where it hardly differs from the Future, suggests that in its original usage the Tense was more of a Future than of a Future Perfect (see $A . L . L$. iv. 594).

In the Umbro-Oscan languages we have a suffix -us- (UmbroOscan u may represent I.-Eur. $\bar{o}$ as well as I.-Eur. $\breve{\mathrm{u}}$ ), which is supposed to be the termination of the Perfect Participle. Thus Osc. fefacust 'fecerit' will be like Gk. $\delta \epsilon \delta \rho а к \grave{\omega}$ s $\neq \sigma o \mu a \iota, ~ U m b r$.
 Participle in -us, see § 89.)
§ 54. G. Tenses formed with Auxiliary Verbs. We have seen that the suffix used to form the Imperfect Tense of all Verbs, $-b \bar{a}-$, and the suffix used for the Future of Vowel Verbs, -bŏ-(-bŭ-), are nothing but parts of the Auxiliary Verb bheu- (Lat. fui), that the S-suffixes of the Pluperfect and Future-Perfect Indicative, and of the Imperfect, Perfect and Pluperfect Subjunctive are probably to be referred to the Auxiliary es- (Lat. sum), and we have seen the possibility of a similar explanation of the V-suffix of the Perfect Tense as a form of the root dhē-, 'to set, put,' used as an Auxiliary Verb. These theories receive a sanction from the proneness of the Latin and other Italic languages for Periphrastic Tense-forms. Not only was the

Italic Perfect Indicative Passive a form of this kind [Lat. ămätus sum, (1) I was loved, (2) I am in a state of being loved, amatus fui, I was in a state of being loved, Osc. prúftú-set 'probata sunt,' teremnatust ' terminatus est,' Umbr. screhto est 'scriptum est' (the Auxiliary is joined in writing with the Participle in frosetomest)], and other Tenses of the Passive (Pluperfect, Lat. amatus ĕram, amatus fuĕram, Future-Perfect amatus ĕro, umatus fuĕro, Perfect Subjunctive amatus sim, amatus fuĕrim, Pluperfect Subjunctive amatus essem, amatus fuissem), but we have many other examples of Periphrastic formation. The 2 Pl. Pass. ending -mĭn̄̄, e. g. fër as the ending of a Pres. Part. Pass. (Gk. фєоо́ $\mu \in \nu \circ \iota$ ) with suppression of estis, just as esse is commonly suppressed in the Fut. Inf. dictūrus, -a, -um (esse) (§ 86). Osc. manafum 'mando,' if it correspond to 'mandans sum,' is another example, showing a Pres. Part. with the Substantive Verb (cf. C.I.L. i. 196 senatuosque sententiam utei scientes esetis). The Auxiliary eo appears in the Latin Fut. Inf. Pass., e.g. dŭtum (i Sup.) $\bar{r} \bar{\imath}$ ( $\S 87$ ), the Auxiliary hăbeo in such phrases as missum habeo for mīsi or dīmisi (e. g. Plaut. Pseud. 602 illa omnia missa habeo, quae ante agere occepi), the Auxiliary DHE - (red $d o, \lambda t o, f u ̈ c i o, \& c$. in phrases like missum facio for mitto or dimitto (e.g. Plaut. Amph. 1145), perfectum reddo for perficio (e.g. Plaut. Asin. 122), factum dabo for faciam (e.g. Ter. Eun. 212 ). In the Romance languages these expressions have supplanted many of the Latin tenses; e.g. cantare habeo (Fr. chanter-ai, Ital. canter-ò, with habeo, habes, \&c., reduced to hayo, has, hat, haunt, \&c.) has supplanted cantabo, \&c., so that the Latin Future survives in Romance only in a few isolated forms, Ital. fia, O. Fr. ier from Lat. fiam, ero; we find a Periphrastic Perfect consisting of the Perf. Part. Pass. with sum, sto (Intrans.) or with habeo, teneo (Trans.); and for the Passive the same Participle with sum, fio, venio, \&c.' (See Meyer-Lübke, Rom. Gram. ii. pp. 138 sqq.)
§ 55. III. THE MOODS. A. Subjunctive. (Relics of the I.-Eur. Optative Mood in Latin.) The I.-Eur. Subjunctive had the functions of a Future (cf. Hom. 1l. i. 262 ov̉ $\gamma \dot{\alpha} \rho \pi \omega$ toíovs î̀ov àv́́pas oviò $\grave{\iota} \delta \omega \mu a \iota)$, as well as of a true Subjunctive; it had
also Imperatival functions, and in $O$. Ind. while Subjunctive forms are frequent in the oldest literature, the Vedas, they survive in classical 'Sanscrit' only in Imperatival use, e. g. I Sg. Imper. bhar-ā-ṇi, 'let me carry.' To the unweakened stem (E-grade) was appended in the Athematic Conjugation the short vowels ě and ŏ, followed by either the Primary or the Secondary Person-endings ( $\$ 65$ ): e. g. from the Athematic Verb es-, 'to be,' we have 3 Sg . Subj. *es-e-t(i) (O. Ind. ásat(i) ). In Greek these athematic Subjunctive forms are still seen in Homer (e. g.
 from the Athematic Verb ed-, 'to eat,' as in Latin we have ëro, érit 3 Sg . similarly retained as a Future Tense. But in Greek, as in Latin, the athematic forms have been almost wholly supplanted by the thematic forms, which show a long vowel, sometimes $\bar{a}$, as in the Italic, Celtic and other languages, sometimes ē (which in Greek varies with ō, e.g. $\phi \epsilon \rho-\eta-\tau \epsilon, \phi \epsilon \rho^{\prime} \rho-$ ${ }^{\omega}-\mu \epsilon \nu$, like athematic $\epsilon-0$ in $\left.\tau \epsilon i \sigma-\epsilon \tau \epsilon, \beta \eta^{\prime} \sigma-0-\mu \epsilon \nu\right)$, as in the Italic and Greek languages; and this process must have begun very early, for thematic Subjunctive forms of verbs belonging to the Athematic Conjugation appear in many instances to have been I.-Eur. forms. Thus *ed-ā-, *ed-ē- must have been an I.-Eur. Subjunctive stem of ed-, 'to eat,' for we find in Lat. ed $\bar{a}-m u s$,
 (O. Ind. $\bar{a}$ may represent I.-Eur. $\bar{a}, \bar{e}, \bar{o})$; $*_{\text {es-ē- from es-, }}$ 'to be,' appears in Gk. $\epsilon^{\prime} \eta-\tau \epsilon$, ${ }^{\prime} \epsilon \omega-\mu \in \nu$ (cf. O. Ind. ásā-t 3 Sg., asā-tha 2 Pl.); and ey-ā- from ei-, 'to go, in Lat. eā-s, eā-tis (cf. O. Ind. ayā-s 2 Sg., ayā-t 3 Sg.). The discarded athematic forms are supposed to have been utilized in Greek as Futures [the Future in $-\sigma 0-(-\sigma \epsilon-)$ ]; thus Att. $\tau \epsilon i \sigma о \mu \epsilon \nu, \tau \epsilon i \sigma \epsilon \tau \epsilon, \delta \epsilon i \xi \sigma \mu \epsilon \nu$, $\delta \in i \xi \epsilon \tau \epsilon, \tau \iota \mu \eta \sigma \sigma \mu \epsilon \nu, \tau \iota \mu \eta \sigma \epsilon \tau \epsilon$, \&c. will not be of the same class as the ordinary I.-Eur. Future in -syo-, e. g. O. Ind. dēk-ş̌yā-mi corresponding to Gk. $\delta \in i \xi \omega$, Lith. bú-siu to Gk. $\phi \hat{v} \sigma \omega$, but will be Subjunctives of S-Aorists; and Latin Futures in -so-, like dixo, faxo, \&c., have been referred to the same source. (On this theory, see § 3.)

In Latin the ā-forms were not used for the first Conjugation, probably because a Subjunctive like $*_{\text {amãy-ā-s }}(\mathrm{i}){ }_{2} \mathrm{Sg}$. must have become amăs, and so been merged in the Indicative

2 Sg. amās. The E-forms only were used for this Conjugation in Latin, e. g. amés from *amāy-e-s(i) (cf. Osc. devaid 'juret,' tadait 'censeat,' sakahíter 'sacretur'; Oscan í, in the Latin alphabet $i$, represents I.-Eur. è, e. g. lígato- ' lēgatus,' zicolo- M. ' diēcula'), but in Umbrian we have $\bar{A}$-forms in kuraia 'curet,' etaians 'itent.' Similarly the E-forms were not used for the second Conjugation in Latin, to avoid confusion between *widēy-$\overline{\mathrm{e}}$-s(i), *vidès 2 Sg. Subj., and vidēs 2 Sg. Ind., only the $\bar{A}$-forms being allowed, e. g. *widēy-ā-s(i), videãs. But in the other Conjugations the $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$ - and $\overline{\mathrm{E}}$-forms probably existed side by side, until the latter were appropriated for the Future functions (see § 36), e. g. ferās 2 Sg . Subj. from *bher-ā-s(i), ferēs 2 Sg . Fut. from *bher-ē-s(i), faciat 3 Sg. Subj. (Osc. fakiiad, Volsc. façia, Umbr. façia), faciet 3 Sg . Fut. These $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$ - and E-Subjunctives show in Umbro-Oscan the Secondary Person-endings (-d in 3 Sg., -ns in 3 Pl.).

The Optative must have entered into competition with the Subjunctive at an early time, for it has almost entirely ousted the Subjunctive forms in the Teutonic and Balto-Slavic families of languages, and in Latin we see the struggle still going on between the Optative-forms $\check{e l d} \bar{\imath}-m u s$, ed $\bar{\imath}-t i s$, and the Subjunctiveforms eldā-mus, edā-tis from the root ed-, 'to eat,' while in the case of the root es-, 'to be,' the Optative sit-mus, sit-tis have driven out of the field the proper athematic Subjunctive forms erй-mus, eř-tis (from *eso-, *ese-), which have been relegated to the Future function, as an *(e)sē-mus, *(e)sē-tis may lurk in the Imperfect Subjunctive ending (see § 34).

The I.-Eur. Optative had in the Athematic Conjugation the weak grade of stem, with a suffix which was in the Singular Active -yē- (-ĭye-) and elsewhere -i--, and with the Secondary person-endings. Thus from the root es-, the I.-Eur. Optative forms were: 2 Sg . *syē-s (O. Ind. syắ-s) or sy̆yē-s (O. Ind. s-1̆yát-s, O. Lat. siēes), 2 Pl. $*_{\text {s-ī-tě (cf. Lat. } s-i \text {-itis). In the }}$ Thematic Conjugation the suffix was -oi- in Singular and Plural alike, e. g. from the root bher-, to carry, 2 Sg. *bher-oi-s ( Gk . " $\phi \epsilon$ ' $\rho-o l-\mathrm{s}$ ), 2 Pl . *bher-oi-te (Gk. $\phi \epsilon \bar{\epsilon} \rho-o l-\tau \epsilon$ ). I.-Eur. oi of the Thematic Optative would in the unaccented syllable in Latin become -ei-, then -ī- (ch. iii. § 18), and I.-Eur. -yē- (-ǐyē-)
of the Singular Active of the Athematic Optative has been mostly replaced by $-\bar{i}-$, the weak form of the suffix (e. g. class. sim for O. Lat. siem, like simus, sitis), so that a Latin Optative form like elizs might equally well represent an I.-Eur. athematic *ĕd-ī-s (with E-grade of stem and with i transferred to the Singular from the Plural, as -yē- is transferred to the Plural from the Singular in Gk. $\sigma \tau \breve{a}-i \eta-\mu \epsilon \nu$, a byform of $\sigma \tau a i \mu \epsilon \nu$ ), and an I.-Eur. thematic *ĕd-oi-s. The probability however is that the Optative was confined to the Athematic Conjugation in Latin, and represents in every case I.-Eur. -yē-, -ī-. Again, it would be possible to argue that stès, stemus, \&c. were representatives of I.-Eur. *stă-yē- (Gk. $\sigma \tau a ̆-i \eta s, \sigma \tau a ̆-i ́ \eta-\mu \in \nu)$, and not examples of $\overline{\mathrm{E}}$-Subjunctives. The resolution of these doubts must come from the Umbro-Oscan languages, of which the remains hitherto discovered offer too scanty material to enable us to separate with certainty Latin thematic and athematic Optatives, and Latin Subjunctives in $-\bar{e}-$. The use of the weak grade of the suffix -yē- in the Singular of the Optative of es- appears in these languages too, e.g. Umbr. si 'sis,' si 'sit, like sins 'sint,' Marruc. -si 'sis' or 'sit,' and has been referred to an Italic weakening of unaccented yē to ì. How far it is possible to assign an Optative force to forms like crèduim in the older literature, and a Subjunctive force to forms like crecluam is doubtful. The Optative origin of the old forms in -(s)sim comes out clearly in their use in prayers (e.g. Juppiter prohibessis scelus, di mactassint, and the formula of the ancient Augural prayer: bene sponsis beneque uolueris; see $\S 5$ ), but in process of time all distinctions between Optatives in -im, Subjunctives in -am and Subjunctives (possibly Optatives) in -em came to be effaced.

[^99]siem, siet are almost invariably used in old laws (e. g. C.I. L. i. 196. 30 ; 197. 21 ; 198 passim ; 199. 6 ; 200 passim), and Cicero (Orat. xlvii. r57) says, 'siet' plenum est, 'sit' imminutum: licet utare utroque. [For statistics, see Zander, Vers. Ital. p. cxx, who makes -i- of sit, \&c. not the I.-Eur. i of the Plural, but a Latin weakening of -ie- as in Cornelī Voc. for Corneliüe. (? ch. vi. § 3r)]. Besides the class. Lat. 'Subjunctives' (Optatives) in -im, sim, ĕdim, velim (in Plaut. velis and vis are used as the metre requires, without difference of meaning), with its Compounds nōlim and mälim (on noli, see §58), we find an O. Lat. Optative duim. It comes from duo, a bystem both of $d 0$, to give (root d̄̄-) and of -do, to put (root dhē- of $\tau_{i}^{i}-\theta \eta-\mu$, \&c.), e. g. duitur (v. l. arduuitur) XII Tab. x. 7, interduo, Plaut. fr. inc. 2 G. ciccum non interduo, concreduo, Aul. 585, concredui, Perf., Cas. 479. We have in Plautus the Optative forms duim, perduim, especially in prayers and execrations (e.g. Most. 668 di istum perduint), interduim (e. g. Rud. 580 ciccum non interduim), creduim (in phrases like Amph. 672 si situlam cépero, Núnquam mili diuini quicquam créduis post húnc diem, ' may you never trust me again'), as also the $\overline{\mathbf{A}}$-Subjunctive forms creduam e. g. Bacch. 504 nam míhi diuini númquam quisquam créduat, Ni ego, \&c.), and accreduam (Asin. 854 néque diuini néque mi humani pósthac quicquam adcréduas . . si, \&c.), while an E-Subjunctive form (in Future sense?) is quoted by Paul. Fest. 20. 22 Th. addues, addideris (cf. ib. 47. 6 Th. duis . . . pro dederis). We have in Conditional use, e. g. duit in a Law of Numa (ap. Paul. Fest. ${ }^{27} 8.9$ Th.) si qui hominem liberum dolo sciens morti duit, paricidas esto ; adduit in a Plebiscitum de Ponderibus Publicis (ap. Fest. 322. II Th.) siquis . . . faxit iussitue . . . dolumue adduit, \&c. Festus also quotes an old form produit which he explains by 'porro dederit' (284. 16 'Th.). Duim was the form appropriate to Early Latin prayers, as in the prayer at the 'agri lustratio,' preserved by Cato ( $R . R$. cxli. 3) : pastores pecuaque salua seruassis duisque bonam salutem ualetudinemque mihi domo familiaeque nostrae; it is used even in Tiberius' letter to the Senate (Tac. Ann. iv. $3^{8)}$. There are also uncertain traces of Optative forms from other verbs, such as coquint, the reading of the Palatine MSS. in Plaut. Pseud. 819 (but cocunt in the Ambrosian Palimpsest), temperint, the reading of the same family of MSS. in Truc. 6o, a line for which the evidence of the Palimpsest is not available (other examples, see in Neue, $\mathrm{ii}^{2} .442$ : carint of the Palatine MSS. in Most. 858 is carent in the Palimpsest, and the corrupt reading of the Palatine MSS. in Men. $984 a$, where this line of the Mostellaria is wrongly inserted, culparent for culpa carent, shows carent to be the right form ; verberit of the law of the XII Tables, ap. Fest. 290. 15 Th. : si parentem puer uerberit, ast olle plorassit, is a corruption due to the fact that the words were wrongly divided in the archetype verberetas tolle, and the first word, being mistaken for a frequentative Verb, was changed to verberitas).

An O. Lat. $\bar{A}-$ Subjunctive is fuam used in the sense of fam, e.g. Bacch. 156, in the amusing conversation between young Pistoclerus and his 'paedagogus' Lydus:

Pist. fiam, út ego opinor Hércules, tu autém Linus.
Lyd. pol métuo magis, ne Phoénix tuis factís fuam, teque ád patrem esse mórtuom renúntiem,
sometimes merely in the sense of $\operatorname{sim}$, e.g. Virg. $A . \mathrm{x} .108$ :'
Tros Rutulusve fuat nullo discrimine habebo.
Ll2.

The equivalent of forsitan (which is not used by Plautus, and only seldom, if ever, by Terence, ch. ix. § 5) is in Plautus fors fuat an, e.g. Pseud. 432 :
fors füat an istaec dícta sint mendácia.
(Cf. Ter. Hec. 610 fors fuat pol! 'heaven grant it may !')
Nonius ( 478.26 M .) quotes colam for velim from Lucil. (xxviii. 15 M .) :
eidóla atque atomus uíncere Epicurí uolam,
and Plaut. Asin. 109 siquid te uolam, Ubi erís? ; but in the second at least of these passages it seems to be used in the Future sense.
§ 57. B. Imperative. In the 2 Sg . Act. of the Present Imperative the bare stem of the Verb is used, e.g. Athematic *ei, from the root ei-, 'to go' (Gk. ${ }^{\epsilon} \xi-\epsilon \iota$, Lat. ex-i from $*_{e x-e i) \text {, }}$ Thematic *bhere, from the root bher-, 'to carry' (O. Ind. bhára, Arm. ber, Gk. $\phi \epsilon ́ \rho \epsilon$, O. Ir. beir, Goth. bair; Lat. age). But a particle was often added : the particle -dhi to the 2 Sg . in the Athematic Conjugation (e.g. O. Ind. i-hí, Gk. $\imath-\theta \iota$; O. Ind. vid-dhí, Gk. ${ }^{\prime} \sigma \theta_{\iota}$ for $* F_{\iota} \delta-\theta_{l}, \mathrm{O}$. Lith. veiz-di, O. Sl. viž-dĭ); the particle -ki or -ke in Lithuanian, e. g. eĩ-k, ‘ go,' dứ-k, ‘ give,' bú-k, 'be'; the particle -u (cf. O. Ind. sô for $*_{\text {sou, }}$ Gk. ov̂-tos for $*_{\sigma o v-}$ ros) in Sanscrit to the 3 Sg . and Pl., e. g. bháratu, bhárantu; the particle -tōd to various persons both in the Athematic and Thematic Conjugations [e. g. O. Ind. vit-tát 2 Sg. ; Gk. ĭ $\sigma \tau \omega$ for ${ }^{*} F_{\iota \tau-\tau \omega \delta} 3 \mathrm{Sg}$.; Gk. $\stackrel{\bullet}{\epsilon} \sigma-\tau \omega(\delta)$, Lat. es- $\left.\boldsymbol{t} \bar{o}(d)\right]$. In Latin the 2 Sg. Imper. in $-t \bar{o}(l)$ is called the Future Imperative, because it expresses a command, not for immediate performance, but for performance after something shall have happened (e.g. Plaut. Merc. 770 cras petito, dabitur; nunc abi; Hor. C. iii. 14. 23 si per invisum mora janitorem Fiet, abito), and the same sense is attached to the O. Ind. 2 Sg . Imper. in -tāt (see Delbrück, Altind. Syntax, p. 363), so that it is not unlikely that this particle -tōd is nothing but the Abl. Sg. of the Demonstrative Pronoun-stem to- (ch. vii. § 13. r), and means 'from this,' ' thereupon.' It is also found with the 3 Sg . Dual and Plur., and perhaps took with it originally the weak grade of the Verbstem (e. g. Gk. $\grave{\imath}-\tau \omega 3 \mathrm{Sg}$., $\partial \mu-\nu \grave{u}-\tau \omega 3 \mathrm{Sg}$., O. Ind. kr-ṇŭ-tāt 2 Sg., 'do thou'; but not in Latin īto, Umbr. etu, eetu, for *ei-tōd). In the 3 Pl . it is added to what is called the 'Injunctive' 3 Pl ., viz. a form resembling an augmentless Imperfect
(I.-Eur. *bheront like Impft. *e-bheront), e.g. Gk. $\phi \in \rho o ́ v \tau \omega$ for $*_{\phi \epsilon \rho o \nu \tau-\tau \omega \delta}$, Lat. ferunto for ${ }^{\text {ferornt-tṑl. For the I Sg. and }}$ Plur. the Subjunctive was used, e.g. Lat. feram, ferāmus. In the 2 Pl . we have the 'Injunctive' form (e g. *bherĕtě, O. Ind. bhárata, Gk. $\phi \dot{\epsilon} \rho \epsilon \tau \epsilon$, O. Ir. berid, Goth. bairip; Lat. ăgı̆te from *agete), beside which we find in Latin a 'Future' form with -tōte, e.g. estote, apparently the addition of the 2 Plur. suffix -tre (§ 72) to the 2 Sg . 'Future' Imperative (e.g. estō.)

In the Latin Passive, the Injunctive form in -sŏ (e. g. I.-Eur.

 2 Sg., and in the 2 Pl . the old Passive Infinitive ${ }^{1}$ (Dat. Sg. of
 $\mu \in v a \iota)$, da-mini (O. Ind. dấ-manē Inf., Hom. Gk. $\delta o ́-\mu \in v^{\prime} a \iota$ ); in the 2 Sg . ' Future' Imper. and in the other persons the final $d$ of $-t \bar{o} d$ is changed to $-r$, e. g. ăğ̆tor, dŭtor, aguntor (cf. Umbr. emantur, emantu, tursiandu). A byform for the 2, 3 Sg. is in -mŭnō, e.g. prae-fāmino, formed apparently by Anal. of 2 Pl . -mॅ̌nй. There is no Perfect Imper. in Latin, though mĕmŭnī, a Perfect used for a Present, has mĕmento for *mement-tōd (Gk. $\mu \in \mu \dot{a} \tau \omega$ for $*_{\mu \epsilon \mu \eta-\tau \omega \delta}$ ). Memento, like other 2 Sg . Imperatives in -to, expresses a command that usually has reference to the future, a reference naturally suggested by the command ' remember.'
§ 58. Other examples of 2 Sg . Imper. with bare stem. (1) Athematic : like athematic Ind. im-plē-s, vidē-s, curā-s, fin̄̄-s are Imper. im-plē, vidē (Lith. pa-vydé-k), curā, fin̄̄, \&c. Fer, vel, es (from sum) are then likely to be athematic too, since their Ind. is athematic (e.g. $3 \mathrm{Sg} . f e r-t$, vul-t, es-t; see § 2). Fer cannot be an Injunctive form *fer-s (like ter for ${ }^{*}$ ter-s from I.-Eur. *trĭ-s, ch. vi. §6r), if, as is probable, it is in Plautus a thoroughly short syllable, capable of acting as a brevis brevians (see ch. iii. § 42), in Curc. 245 aufér istaec quaeso, whereas ter is a long syllable in Plautus, e.g. Bacch. ir27. In Mil. 1343 however one family of MSS. reads: fēr aequo animo, the evidence of the Ambrosian Palimpsest being unfortunately wanting, a reading which may easily be changed to fër animo aequo (as Curc. 245, for which there is similar MS. evidence, is changed by some editors to aufer quaeso istaec). The

[^100]ellipse of estis (§ 82). The Inf. is used for the Imper. in Italian \&c. in phrases like non parlare 'do not speak.'
small number of lines with decisive evidence on the quantity of $f e r$ in Plautus makes it difficult to speak with certainty. Fer is short in $A \sin .672$ fër amánti ero salútem. Vei is a short syllable, capable of acting as a brevis brevians in Plautus, e. g. Amph. 917 vél hŭnc rogato; es, 'be,' cannot be shown (like es, 'art') to be long by position in Plautus (see Solmsen, Stud. Lauty. p. 185); es, 'eat,' for which we should expect *ed, beside 3 Sg. esto, may be coined on the type of es, 'be,' beside 3 Sg. esto, although both es, 'be,' and es, 'eat,' can also


Cê-dŏ (with Plur. ce-tte for *ce-dǐte ?), 'give me' or 'tell me,' seems to contain the Pronoun *k̂e (perhaps Lith. szè, 'hither'; see ch. vii. § 15), prefixed as an Adverb or Preposition, 'here,' 'hither' (cf. Osc. ce-bnust 'huc venerit,' composed of *îe and a tense of the I.-Eur. root $g^{n} \mathrm{em}$-, 'to come') to an athematic Imperative *dō (Lith. dúlk; cf. Gk. $\delta i-\delta \omega$ ), the final vowel, shortened by the Law of Breves Breviantes after the short syllable $c$ č-, being invariably short owing to the rapid utterance of the word in every-day talk (so harě for ave in the pronunciation of Quintilian's time, ch. iii. § 42).
$D \bar{c}$ for *dō shows the same transference to the $\overline{\mathbb{A}}$-Conjugation as Pres. Ind. dās, dat (0. Lat. dāt) (see § 2).

Another example of an athematic Imperative may be $f u$ in the Carmen Arvale, if the words satur fu, fere Mars, are rightly interpreted 'satur esto, fere Mars.' Fu will be Imper. of *fuo, like Lith. bú-k. Nōl̄̄ may come from a bystem of the fourth Conjugation, I.-Eur. *wel-yo- (Goth. vilja, O. Sl. velja ) (see § 2). (On Late Lat. aufere, see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.)
2) Thematic. The thematic Imperatives O. Lat. dīce, dū̀ce, făce (for *facì, from stem fac-yoั-, § 16) drop their final $-e$ in classical Latin owing to their frequent use in word-groups, i.e. in close connexion with a following word (like atq(ue), neq(ue) before consonants; see ch. iii. § 35). Dic mihi, fac sciam are regularly used even in O. Latin authors, and in Plautus we find dic in questions when the next word begins with a consonant, e. g. dic quid est, but dice is the form employed where there is anything of a pause after the word; cf. Mil. 256 dice, monstra, praecipe, and especially Rud. 124 :
tu, síquid opus est díce. Dic quod té rogo.
Abdūce, addūce and other Compounds of duco are still found in Terence before a vowel, abdūc, \&c. before a consonant, while face is the form employed at the end of a line ; édīce in Virgil ('antiquitatis amans' Diom. p. 349. зo K.) in Aen. xi. 463 :

> tu, Voluse, armari Volscorum edice maniplis.

The Compounds however of facio, whose short penult was not so favourable to Syncope (ch. iii. § 13. p. 173) retain the -e, confĭce, affice, infĭce, \&c. Catullus has ingermi (xxvii. 2) : inger mi calices amariores, from which we may perhaps explain misc sane on an old Praenestine cista with a kitchen-scene (Mél. Arch. 1890, p. 303 ) as misc(ĕ) sane from *misco, an earlier form of misceo (see § 28). The Interjection em (ch. x. § 19) [e.g. em tibi, 'take that' (with a blow), em ergo hoc tibi, \&c., in the Comedians] may have been originally Imperative of émo, which in O. Lat. (§46) meant 'to take' (thematic *eme, to judge from the Ind. emis, emit, \&c.), just as the Conjunction vel (ch. x. § 4) was the

[^101]Imperative (athematic) of rŏlo (I.-Eur. *wĕl-mi) (cf. Umbr. heris . . . heris, ' either . . . or,' lit. 'do you wish . . . do you wish'?).
§ 59. Other examples of Imper. in -tōd. The final -d is retained in Oscan, e. g. 3 Sg. deivatud 'jurato,' estud, líkitud 'lĭcēto,' and in Early Latin inscriptions, e. g. 2 Sg. statod, 'sistito' on the Dvenos bowl [a Future Imperative if we are right in interpreting dienoine med Mano statod 'on the ninth day set me (with an offering) for Manus'] ; 3Sg. uiolatod, licetod, datod with exuehito, exferto, celito 'caedito,' on the Spoletium inscription (C.I. L. ii. 4766 ), estod, licetod with fundatid, proiecitad, parentatid on the Luceria inscr. (C.I.L. ix. 782); but in class. Latin, as in Umbrian, $-d$ was by the phonetic laws of the language lost after a long vowel (see ch. ii. § 137), e. g. Lat. estō, lưcētō, fertō, hăbētō, Umbr. fertu, futu 'esto,' habetu. The curious forms in -tid and -tad on the Luceria inscr. (in hoce loucarid stircus ne[qu]is fundatid neue cadauerproiecitad neue parentatid) are dialectal (Subj., with $i$ for é in -tid?). A Third Pl. form with - $d$, suntorl, occurs on the Spoletium inscription. (On Umbrian *-tō-tā in 2, 3 Pl., see § 73.)
Deponents sometimes show -to for -tor, e. g. nitito (Cic. ap. Diom. 340. I K.), utunto [C.I. L. i. 204. (I). 8], and on the Lex Repetundarum we have the Passive censento (i. 198. 77).
§ 60. Imper. Pass. 2, 3 Sg . in -mĭnō. This is an 0 . Lat. form, found as 2 Sg. in Plautus (e. g. progrèdīmino, Pseud. 859 : tu spectató simul, si quo híc gradietur, páriter progredímino),
and Cato (praefamino, R. R. cxli. 2 Ianum Iouemque uino praefamino, sic dicito) (cf. Paul. Fest. 62. io Th. 'famino' dicito), and as 3 Sg. in early legal Latin ; antestamino in XII Tables: si in ius uocat, ni it, antestamino, igitur em capito; fruimino in the Sententia Minuciorum of II7 в.c. (C.I.L.і. 199. 32 quei . . . non parebit, is eum agrum nei habeto niue fruimino) ; profitemino in the Lex Julia Municipalis of 45 в.c. (i. 206. ll. 3, 5, 8, іг).
The corresponding suffix in Umbrian is -mu 3 Sg. (i. e. -mō, from -*mnōd?, ch. v. § із), e. g. persnihi-mu 'precamino,' with 3 Pl. persnihi-mumo. In Oscan the Passive ending -r appears in 3 Sg. censamur (i. e. -mōr) 'censemino,' but the so-called Latin 2 Pl . Imper. Pass. in -minor is a fiction of the grammarians (see Madvig, Opusc. p. 239.) [Cicero in the archaic language of his laws employs appellamino (M.SS. -minor) as 3 Pl. Pass. (Legg. iii. 3. 8), but that this is a genuine old usage may be doubted.]
§ 61. 3 Pl. Imperat. The grammarians occasionally offer curious forms, amento (Sacerdos) ; probunto, doceunto (Probus; cf. 3 Pl. Ind. mereunt, Commod., neunt, Tibull.).
§ 62. IV. THE VOICES. Deponent Verbs. Passive. Since the Passive in Latin does not differ from the Active in the Tense-stems so much as in the Person-endings, it is best discussed here, immediately before we proceed to the consideration of the suffixes used to denote the different Persons of the Verb. In close connexion with it goes the Middle, which had originally

a Neuter force, e.g. Gk. $\theta$ є́ $\rho o \mu a \iota, ~ \check{\epsilon} \rho \chi о \mu a \iota$. In Latin Middle Verbs are called 'Deponents,' e.g. cingor like cingo me. Thus the I.-Eur. Middle *seq"-, 'to follow, accompany' (O. Ind. sáca-tē 3 Sg., Gk. é $\pi \epsilon-\tau a \iota$ ) is in Lat. the Deponent sequor, sequitur 3 Sg . (O. Ir sechur, sechethar 3 Sg .). The R-endings of the Passive and Middle or ' Deponent' in the Italic and Celtic languages are discussed in $\S 65$, where it is suggested that the Passive R-forms may originally have been restricted to an Impersonal use in Latin, as in Umbro-Osean and Celtic the Impersonal Passive with -r, e. g. Umbr. fera-r Subj., 'there may be carrying,' O. Ir. do-bera-r, ' there may be giving' (I.-Eur. *bherā-r), is by its absence of person-ending distinguished from the Deponent with -r, e. g. Osc. karanter 'vescuntur,' O. Ir. sechethar 'sequitur.' The Personal Passive of O. Ir. by its restriction to the Third Person indicates its Impersonal origin. A Latin phrase like itur in antiquam silvam, the peculiarity of which is commented on by Quintilian (i. 4. 28 : jam 'itur in antiquam silvam' nonne propriae cujusdam rationis est? nam quod initium ejus invenias? cui simile 'fletur') may then exemplify the oldest use of the R-Passive, except that the original form would be $*_{i r}$ (*ei-r) without the 3 Sg . Person-suffix of itur (*ei-tŏ-r) ; and the change from the Impersonal vitam vivitur of O . Lat. to the Personal vita vivitur of class. Lat. is parallel to Horace's use of invileor for invidetur mili, or Cato's change of contumeliam factum itur to contumelia factum itur (§87).

The Latin Perfect, as we have seen (§ 39), represents the I.-Eur. Perfect Middle, its I Sg. - $\bar{\imath}$, older -ei, being I.-Eur. -ai or -ai (O. Ind. -è), so that a Perfect like rĕverti (older -vorti, -vortei; cf. O. Ind. va-vrtē) goes naturally with a Present revertor: On the other hand, the Participle in -to- (§92), which properly belonged to the Preterite Passive, was often used in an Active (or Middle) sense, e. g. Lat. cēnätus, pransus, pōtus, so that reversus (older -vorsus; cf. O. Ind. vṛttá-), reversus sum are also admissible. More questionable is vertens as the Pres. Part. of vertor in the phrase: intra finem anni vertentis, 'within the current year,' vehens of vehor, \&c. In the older literary period we find Active and Middle forms of the same verb side by side, but by the time of the classical writers there is less freedom
of choice ; assentior, for example, had almost wholly supplanted assentio in Varro's time, who tells us that Sisenna the historian still clung to the old-fashioned assentio in giving his vote in the senate [L.L. fr. ap. Gell. ii. 25.9: 'sentior' nemo dicit, et id per se nihil est; adsentior tamen fere omnes dicunt. Sisenna unus 'adsentio' in senatu dicebat, et eum postea multi secuti, neque tamen vincere consuetudinem potuerunt; cf. Quint. i. 5 . 13. Quintilian however (ix. 3. 7) allows both assentior and assentio, and the latter form is found in Cicero's Letters and in the De Inventione; see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.]. The Middle form of assentior (as distinguished from sentio) is justified by the use of the Middle in verbs which express a state of feeling, e.g. reor, vëreor, $\bar{\imath}$ rascor. For the Greek Verb-ending -єvш (e.g. $\kappa о \lambda а к-\epsilon \dot{v} \omega)$, used in Derivative verbs indicating 'to play a part,' 'to act like,' we have in Latin an $\bar{A}$-Middle, e. g. aemŭl-or, $-\bar{a} r i$ from aemulus, augŭror, from augur, d̆ŏm̌̆nor from dominus, poētor of Ennius' frank confession (Sat. I M.) :
nunquám poetor nísi sim podager,
from poeta and so on. Examples of Frequentative Middles are hortor from O. Lat. *lŏrior (3 Sg. horĭtur Enn.), mĕdlitor from a lost *medor (Gk. $\mu$ é̀̇ouaı), ĭmı̌tor (cf. ümägo), nītor for *nīvitor from a root with a Guttural (cf. nixus, and see ch. iv. § in 6 ).
§ 63. Impersonal use of Latin Passive. An example of an Acc. governed by an Impers. Pass. is Ennius, Trag. 190 R.
incerte errat ánimus, praeterprópter uitam uíuitur,
quoted by Gellius (xix. ro) in illustration of the word praterpropter, 'inexactly,' 'so so,' a word which was in his time only used in plebeian Latin (nescioquid hoc praenimis plebeium est et in opificum sermonibus quam in hominum doctorum disputationibus notius) ; the same construction has been seen in Plaut. Mil. 24 (epityra estur), Pseud. 117 $_{7}$ (teritur sinapis scelera), (but see edd. ad locc.), Pers. 577 (uēniri hanc uolo) (but cf. Plaut. fr. inc. l. 64 G. ego illi uenear). Without an Acc. the Impersonal Passive is very common in the older writers, e. g. Plaut. Pseud. 273 :

Quid agitur, Calidóre? Amatur átque egetur ácriter;
Pers. 309 ut ualetur ?, 386 facile nubitur, ' marriage is easy' ; Trin. 580 ibitur ; Capt. 80 quom caletur, 'in hot weather'; Rud. ror8, \&c. The Latin for 'No admittance' is PRIVATVM. PRECARIO ADEITVR, a notice preserved in an inseription (C. I. L. i. 1215).
§ 64. Active and Middle. Gellius (xviii. 12) remarks on the O. Lat. use
of Active Verbs like augeo, mūto in a Neuter sense, instead of augeor, mutor, and similarly of contemplo for contemplor, \&c., and the seventh book of Nonius contains a host of examples from the older writers, aucupo for aucŭpor, vago for răgor, and so on. Quintilian (ix. 3. 6-7) remarks on the inconsistency of the Middle form of Transitive Verbs, fabricor, punnior, arbitror, suspucor with the Active form of a Neuter or Passive Verb, vāpullo, and mentions as parallel forms luxiricitur and luxuriat, fluctuctur and fluctuat, adsentior and adsentio (see § 62). The same uncertainty with Active and Middle forms is shown for a later period by the precepts of the grammarians, e. g. Caper (93.ro K. ructo et nausio dicendum, quamvis quidam veteres 'ructor' et 'nausior' dixerunt. non 'egeo ' . . . dicendum, non autem 'egeor' ; 93. 2r K. suffragornon'suffrago'; 95. r K. somnio dicendum, non 'somnior'). The Passive use of Deponents (e.g. vereor abs te) is discussed by Gellius (xv. 13) with examples from the older writers, and a fuller list is given by Priscian (i. pp. 379 sqq. H.). A curious instance of Attraction is seen in the use of coeptus sum, instead of coepi, lesitus sum instead of desii, with a Pass. Inf., e. g. urbs coepta est aedificari (cf. mitescere discordiae coeptae, Liv.), and in O. Lat. we find pŏtestur, poteratur, possetur similarly used (instances in Nonius p. 508 M.), nĕquïtur, nequïtum (see Georges, s. v.). The Neuter sense of fio (cf. Osc. fiet 'fiunt'), and its use as Passive of fücio (on the occasional use of facior, apparently a vulgarism, see Georges), have changed its old Inf. fiere to fieri. Fiere was used by Ennius (see Gram. Lat. v. p. 645.9 K.), perhaps in the line in which the spirit of Homer related his experience of metempsychosis (Ann. 8 M .) :
memini me fiere pauom (MSS. fieri),
while Cato (ap. Prisc. i. p. 377. II H.) used fitur for fit, ficbantur for fiebant. (On Imperat. fī, e.g. Plaut. Pers. 38, Curc. 87, fîte Curc. 89, 150, \&c., see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.) ; so rēnivi is used for vēnire (rēnum ire) in Plaut. Pers. 577 (cf. pereunda, Epid. 74, plücenda, Trin. 1159). As coeptus sum and desitus sum replaced coepi and desii (originally Middle formations), when these verbs were used intransitively, so Intransitive Verbs like süleo, gaudeo, audeo took a Perfect of Passive form solituss sum, yā̀īsus sum, ausus sum, in O. Lat. also solui, gavisi, ausi (Prisc. i. pp. 420,482 H. ; Non. 508.27 M.), e. g. Liv. Andr. : quoniam audiui, paucis ganisi. On the Deponent Imperatives nitito, utunto, \&c., see § 59 .
§ 65. V. THE PERSON-ENDINGS. The I.-Eur. personendings were slightly different in Primary Tenses (the Present Ind., Future Ind., \&c.) and in Secondary Tenses (the Preterites Ind., the Tenses of the Optative Mood, \&c.), e. g. I.-Eur. *bhěrĕ-tŭ, 'he is carrying,' *̌̌-bhĕrě-t, 'he was carrying,' 'he carried,' *bhĕroi-t 3 Sg . Opt. The Tenses of the Subjunctive Mood seem to have taken sometimes the Primary, sometimes (in Umbro-Oscan perhaps always) the Secondary person-endings. In the Perfect Tense an entirely different set of endings was in use, e. g. I.-Eur. I Sg. *woidă, 'I know,' 2 Sg. *woit-thă, 'thou $^{\text {a }}$ knowest,' and so on ; and in the Imperative the persons are often
distinguished by the addition of particles, e. g. I.-Eur. *bhĕrětōd, with the particle *tōd, Abl. Sg. of the Pronoun *to-, meaning 'from this' or 'thereupon ' (§57).

In Passive and Deponent Verbs, Latin departs widely from the I.-Eur. scheme of Passive (or rather Middle) person-endings
 sequйmur with Gk. фєөó- $\mu \in \theta a$, غ̇ $\pi o ́-\mu \epsilon \theta a$, and with O. Ind. bhár-è, bhárā-mahē). Latin, as well as the Umbro-Oscan languages, and the Celtic family, uses as the characteristic mark of its passive and deponent flexion the letter r (cf. O. Ir. sechur i Sg., sechethar 3 Sg., sechemmar i Pl., sechetar 3 Pl., with Lat. sequor, sequĭtur, sequĭmur, sequuntur.). [In Celtic $r$ is used in all persons of Deponents (except 2 Pl.), but only in 3 Sg., Pl. of Passives.] This r cannot be connected with the Reflexive Pronoun *swě- (Lat. sē Acc.), seeing that sbetween vowels does not become $r$ in Oscan or in the Celtic languages (e. g. Lat. sequor might conceivably stand for sseq $^{\mathrm{n}} 0$-sĕ, but O. Ir. sechur could not). Nor does it go well with the r of 3 Pl . suffixes in the Sanscrit Verb, and the -runt, -re of the ${ }_{3}$ Pl. Pft. Act. in Latin (e. g. O. Ind. á-duh-ra, á-vavrtranta, Lat. dĕd $\bar{l}$ reunt, dedḕrĕ $)$, since the Sanscrit $r$ is confined to 3 Pl. suffixes, and is used in Active as well as Passive Verbs. Its original sense may have been impersonal [cf. Lat. itur in antiquam silvam, 'they go,' 'one goes'; originally without any person-ending, as in Umbro-Oscan and Celtic, e. g. Umbr. pone esonom-e ferar, 'when there is carrying to the sacrifice,' 'when the carrying to the sacrifice takes place,' which would be in Lat. feratur or feretur, with person-ending -tu- (-tŏ-); O. Ir. doberr or doberar, 'they give,' 'one gives,' Bret. gweler, 'they see,' 'one sees'] ; and the original construction of these Impersonals Passive seems to have been with an Acc. of the object (e. g. O. Lat. vitam vivitur; Osc., iúvilas . . . sakriiss sakrafír avt últiumam kerssnaís, ' let the jovilae be consecrated with victims, but the last with banquets' ; Welsh, Etlym gledyf coch ym gelwir, 'they call me Etlym of the red glaive,' like Lat. me appellatur (see § 62).

This Impersonal (Passive?) governing an Acc. has been explained as the Verb-stem with the Locative suffix r (seen in Engl. ' where,' 'there') used predicatively like the i-Locative of the

Verbal S-stem (the Latin Inf. Act. ; see § 83) in such a phrase as hostes apparere, 'the enemy appeared' (Historical Inf.), lit. 'the enemy in the action of appearing.' On the change from, e. g. *amā-r amicos to amantur amici, like Horace's invideor for invidetur mihi, see above, § 62.
§68. (1) Active. 1 Sing. I.-Eur. Athematic Verbs ended in Primary Tenses in -mı̆ (e. g. I.-Eur. *es-mi, O. Ind. ás-mi, Arm. em, Gk. $\epsilon i \mu i$ for ${ }^{*} \epsilon \sigma-\mu l$, Alb. jam, Goth. im, Lith. es-mì, O. Sl. jes-mĭ), Thematic in -ō (e. g. I.-Eur. *bhĕr-ō, Gk. $\phi \in ́ \rho \omega$, O. Ir. -biur for *berō, Goth. baira for *berō ; Lith. vežù, ' veho'). In Secondary tenses the ending was -m (e. g. I.-Eur. *ě-bhĕrơ-m, O. Ind. ábharam, Gk. є' $\phi \in \rho о \nu$; O. Sl. nesŭ, ' I carried,' for *nesom $^{\prime}$, after a consonant, -m, e. g. Gk. $\left.\epsilon \begin{array}{c}\delta \\ \epsilon \\ \xi\end{array}\right)$ for $* \in \delta \epsilon \epsilon \iota \xi-\mathrm{m}$. The Perfect had -ă (e.g. I.-Eur. *woid-ă, O. Ind. véd-a, Gk. oiiò-a, Goth. vait for *vaită; O. Ir. ro cechan ' cecini ').

In Latin, as we have seen, Athematic Verbs form the I Sg. according to the Thematic Conjugation, e. g. Lat. $\check{l l} l-\bar{o}$ for I.-Eur. *ĕd-mi, cŏl-ō for I.-Eur. *wěl-mi (§ 2), just as in Sanscrit Thematic Verbs take the Athematic -mi, e. g. bhárā-mi for I.-Eur. *bherō. I.-Eur. *es-mi, however, is in Latin sum, whether originally *sŏmı̆ with Syncope of final $\check{y}$ (ch. iii. §37) or merely $*_{s o ̆ m}$, it is impossible to determine (cf. Osc. sum). The curious I Sg. inquam ${ }^{1}$, with the other Persons formed from a I Sg. inquio, and with Imper. inquĕ, resembles a Subjunctive in form, ' I should say,' or 'I shall say,' or ' let me say' (see § 55). The Secondary Tense-ending -m appears in Imperfects and Pluperfects,
 dja, ' I went'), $\breve{a} m \bar{a}-b a-m$ (cf. O. Ir. ba for *bām, 'I was '), $\breve{a} m \bar{a} r-$ $\breve{e r a-m, ~ i n ~ O p t a t i v e ~ f o r m s, ~ e . ~ g . ~ s i-m, ~ O . ~ L a t . ~ s i e-m ~(O . ~ I n d . ~ s i y a ́ m, ~}$ syà́-m, Gk. є亢̈ $\eta-v$ ), ămār-ĕri-m, ăma-ssi-m, faxi-m, and in Subjunctive, e. g. ̆̈me-nı, йmävisse-m, vŭlea-m, fĕra-m (also used as Fut., § 36), finia-m (cf. O. Ir. do-ber for *-ram, O. Sl. bera, used as Pres. Ind.). But the 'Future-Subjunctives' (see § 53) take the Thematic ending, e. g. ĕr-o for *ĕs-ō (Zend. anhā,

[^102] for *stāy-ō (Umbr. stahu).

In the Perfect, the ending of the Active Voice has been replaced in Latin by the Middle ending -ai (-ai), which became in the unaccented syllable $-e i$, then $-\bar{i}$ (ch. iii. § 18), tưtưud- $\bar{i}$ (O. Ind. tutud-è), dĕel-ì (O. Ind. dad-è̀), vīd-ī from *veidei, a Middle form which survives in the O . Sl. vědě, ' I know,' for *woidai (O. Lat. fecei, poseiuei, conquaeisiuei, redidei, all on the milestone of Popilius of 132 b. c., C. I. L. i. 551). Lat. reverti, assensi, \&c. are thus really Middle forms, and go suitably with Pres. revertor, assentior.
§ 67. 2 Sg. The I.-Eur. endings are -sı̆ (e. g. I.-Eur. *ĕ-si and $*_{\text {ess-si, O }}$. Ind. á-si, Gk. $\epsilon i \mathfrak{i}$ for ${ }^{*} \mathcal{\epsilon}-\sigma \iota$, which with the addition again of the suffix -s became $\epsilon i \boldsymbol{s}$, Hom. $\mathfrak{\epsilon} \sigma-\sigma i ;$ I.-Eur. *ei-sĭ from the root ei-, 'to go,' O. Ind. é-ş̣i, Gk. $\epsilon i$ for $*_{\epsilon i-\sigma \iota}$; O. Ind. bhára-si, O. Ir. beri. Goth. bairi-s), -s (e. g. I.-Eur. *ĕ-bhĕrĕ-s, O. Ind. á-bhara-s, Gk. $\begin{gathered}\text { é- } \phi \epsilon \rho \epsilon-\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{O} \text {. Ir. do-bir ; O. Sl. veze }\end{gathered}$ 'vexisti'; and in the Present Tense, Gk. $\tau i \theta \eta-\mathrm{s}$, Dor. $\phi \bar{\epsilon} \rho \epsilon-\mathrm{s})$, in the Perfect -thă (e.g. I.-Eur. *woit-tha, O. Ind. vèt-tha, Gk. ${ }_{\mathrm{o}} \hat{\sigma} \theta a$; cf. O. H. G. gi-tars-t). In Latin we have $-s$ in $\breve{e} s$, ' thou art,' for *ĕss (scanned as a long syllable in Plautus), whether from older * essi ( (ch. iii. §37) or not, it is impossible to say, ăy̆̆-s for *agě-s (if from an original *age-si, like O. Ir. beri from *bheresi, the final -ĭ must have been dropped before the fourth cent. в. c. when s between vowels became $r$; see ch. iv. § 146), si-s (O. Lat. siē-s), agā-s, while in the 2 Sg . of the Perfect Tense we have $-s t \bar{i}$, e. g. lĕedi-sti, the final vowel of which (O. Lat. -ei, e. g. gesistei on a Scipio Epitaph of c. 180 b. c., C.I. L. i. 33), like the $-\bar{\imath}$ of I Sg. dĕed $-\bar{\imath}$ (O. Ind. dad-ề), must represent an original -ai $(-a \mathrm{i})$, while the $-s$ reminds us of that -s- which so often appears in the endings of the second Person (e. g. Gk. є́ $\phi \eta-\sigma \theta a$, $\tau i \theta \eta-\sigma \theta a$, $\left.\epsilon_{\epsilon} \theta \in ́ \in \lambda \eta l-\sigma \theta a, \beta a ́ \lambda o l-\sigma \theta a\right)$. (For another theory which regards vidisof $v i d i s t i$ as a Verbal Noun-stem, see $\S 52$.)

In the Imperative, the bare stem is used, as the bare stem is used in Vocatives Sg. of Nouns, e. g. (Thematic) age from the Thematic Verb-stem *ăğě-, *ăğ̄̆-, 'to lead,' as *ăğĕ is Voc. Sg. of the Thematic Noun-stem *ăğĕe-, *ăğŏ-, Gk. à yós, a leader,

Lat. pröl-ı̆gus; (Athematic) $\bar{\imath}$ for $*_{e i}$ from the Athematic Verbstem ei-, 'to go' (see § 2). Sometimes the particle *tōd (Abl. Sg . of the Pronoun-stem tŏ-, ' from this,' ' thereupon') is added, when the command refers not to immediate action, but to action after something shall have happened, e. g. quum venerit, scribito, ' when he comes, write,' lit. ' write thereupon.' (So in O. Ind., e. g. 2 Sg. vit-tát for I.-Eur. *wit-tōd from the root weid-, 'to know'; see § 57.) The final - $\breve{e}$ of O. Lat. dī̄ce, dīce, füce [for *fač (ch. iii. § 37), from the stem facyo-, fač̆-, § 16] is dropped in classical Latin, through its frequent use in word-groups like dic(e) milhi, \&c. So in Catullus (xxvii. 2) inger mi for ingere mi (see § 58 ; ch. iii. § 36 ).
§ 68. The athematic Sg. of fěro, vèlo would be *fers, *eels, which would become ${ }^{*} f e r(r), *_{c e l}(l)$ (ch. iv. § 153 ). The former word was changed to fer-s by the addition of the 2 Sg . suffix $-s$, as in Greek $\epsilon \hat{l}$ for ${ }^{*} \boldsymbol{\epsilon} \sigma \tau$ was made $\epsilon \bar{i}$, thou art ; for the latter was substituted the word vīs, apparently 2 Sg. of a root wei-, 'to wish' O. Ind. vī-, 2 Sg. vé-šì, Gk. í $\epsilon \mu a l)$.

Whether dices of the MSS. in Plaut. Trin. 606 non credibile dices, is a relic of the old spelling of dicis is doubtful. It may be Future.
§ 69. 3 Sg . The Primary Tense-ending in I.-Eur. was -tǐ (e. g. *ĕs-ti, O. Ind. ás-ti, Gk. ${ }^{\epsilon} \sigma-\tau \iota, \mathrm{O}$. Ir. is, Goth. is-t, Lith. ẽs-ti and ẽs-t, O. Sl. (Russ.) jes-tǐ ; Dor. Gk. $\delta i \hat{o} \omega-\tau \iota$, Att. $\delta i \delta \hat{\omega} \omega-\sigma \iota, \tau i \theta \eta-\sigma \iota$, \&c.), the Secondary Tense-ending was -t (e. g. *ë-bhěrē-t, O. Ind. á-bhara-t, Gk. $\stackrel{\prime}{\epsilon}-\phi \epsilon \rho \epsilon$ for $\left.*_{\mathfrak{l}}-\phi \epsilon \rho \epsilon-\tau\right)$, and the ending of the Perfect -č (e.g. *woidĕ, O. Ind. vêd-a, Gk. oiiò-є, Goth. vait; O. Ir. ro cechuin 'cecinit'). In Latin all trace of the -i of I.-Eur. -tı̆ has been lost (e. g. Lat. es-t, fer-t, ăğ̆-t for *agĕ-t), but in Oscan we find -t for I.-Eur. -tř, and -d for I.-Eur. -t. On the very oldest Latin inscriptions we find $-d$ for the Secondary ending, but certain instances of Primary endings are unfortunately wanting. Thus the Praenestine fibula has fefaced, 'fecit,' the Dvenos inscription has feced, sied (but mitat, apparently 3 Sg. Subj. used as Fut.), and in Oscan we have deded 'dedit,' kúm-bened ' con-vēnit,' fusí-d 'foret,' deivaid ' juret,' heriiad 'velit,' while Primary Tenses show -t, e.g. faamat 'habitat.' These endings had been 'levelled' to $t$ in Latin before the second century в.c.; for a Praenestine cista, not of the same antiquity as the fibula just mentioned, has dedit beside fecir (C.I. L. i. 54 Dindia Macolnia fileai dedit. Nouios

Plautios med Romai fecid), and in all other old inscriptions we have invariably $-t$, e. g. iousit (ii. 504 I , of 189 в. c.), uelet ' vellet.' eset, fuit, censuit (all on the S. C. Bacch. of 186 в. c., i. 196), cepet on the (restored) Columna Rostrata (i. 195), fuet, cepit, dedet on one of the oldest Scipio Epitaphs (i. 32.).

In the Latin Perfect the original ending seems to have been -eit, written in the very oldest inscriptions -ed (with that use of $e$ to express the $e i$-sound which we have seen in Nom. Pl. ploirume on a Scipio Epitaph, Dat. Sg. Diove Victore, ap. Quint. i. 4. I7 ; see ch. iv. §34), then -et, -eit, and in class. Lat. -it. Before a final $-t$ a long vowel was shortened in the course of the second cent. в. c. (ch. iii. § 49), so that in class. poetry this -it of the Perfect is a short syllable. But in Plautus it is invariably scanned long, unless shortened in iambic words, \&c. by the Law of Breves Breviantes (e. g. dưd $d \bar{t}$ may be scanned dedॅut, but only $v \bar{u} d \bar{l} t$, fè $\bar{c} \bar{t}$, \&c.). The long quantity is found in every type of Perfect in Plautus (see § 39), in vixìt, habuйt, adnumeravīt, as well as in Perfects proper like vicit. This -eit can hardly have been anything else than the I.-Eur. ending of the 3 Sg . Mid. of the Perfect Tense (which was, like the i Sg. Mid. ending -ai, a diphthong weakened in the unaccented syllable in Latin to -ei, class. - $\bar{i}$, ch. iii. § 18), augmented by the 3 Sg . Act. Secondary suffix -t. So that all trace of the I.-Eur. 3 Sg . Act. ending -ĕ is lost in Latin. In the Oscan Perfect, however, the ending -ed, e. g. deded 'dedit,' prúfatted ' probavit' (quasi *probassǐt, § 3), aamanaffed '-mandavit' (cf. $\delta \in \delta \in \tau$, avaFaкєт, Pel. afđed 'abiit') is usually referred to the I.-Eur. Preterite ending -ět, or to the Perfect Active -ě augmented by -t, though whether Umbrian -d (fefure for $*$ fefured, đeđe for $*$ đeđed) was dropped after a short vowel, so readily as after a long vowel (like Latin -ll) is doubtful.

In the Imperative the same form is used as the 2 Sg . 'Future' Imper. e. g. es-tō (l), on which see above, $\S 67$.
§ 70. The $3 \mathbf{S g}$. Pft. in Latin. We have found (ch. iii. § 49) that the shortening influence of final $t$ on a preceding long vowel is already seen in the poetry of Ennius (239-169 в. c.), who scans, e. g. mandebăt beside ponebāt, splendĕt beside jubett, potessĕt beside essët, though it probably does not appear in Plautus (c. 254-184 в. c.), that Terence ( $195-159$ в. c.) follows the same usage as Ennius, while Lucilius ( 148 -ro3 b. c.) scarcely ever allows a vowel before final $-t$ to retain its original length. It is thus the versification of Plautus
which must decide the original quantity of the vowel in the 3 Sg. Pft. ending $-i t$. Indubitable instances of $-i t$ in Plautus are ēmit, Poen. 1059 :
emit, et is me sibi adoptauit filium ;
vixith, Pseud. 3 II :
ílico uixít amator, úbi lenoni súpplicat;
which are the readings of both families of MSS., while we have vicitt, Amph. 643 :
uicít et domúm laudis cómpos reuénit (a bacchiac line);
adnümërā̃̄̄t, Asin 501 :
adnúmerauit et crédidit mihi néque deceptust in eo,
where the evidence of the Ambrosian Palimpsest is wanting. (For other examples, see Müller, Plaut. Pros. p. 71.) The instances of -it in Plautus, except where the Law of Breves Breviantes operates (e. g. dědĭt like dĕdŭ, ăbŭ, übüt, übüs, \&c.), are very few and uncertain (e. g. dixit, Pers. 26o); and even if it were true, as it almost certainly is not, that this scansion occurred now and then in Plautus, it would only prove that the shortening influence of final $-t$ showed itself even earlier than Ennius, for there is no indication of one type of Perfect having had -it and another type -it. In other writers we
 crissā$u \bar{t} t$ Lucil. ix. 70 M ., and the long quantity is found after $i$ in the compounds of eo in Ovid, e. g. interiut, abizt, rediūt (see Lachmann and Munro on Lucr. iii. 1042 ; and cf. interieisti, C.I. L. i. 1202).
The spelling in the very oldest inscriptions is -ed: fefaced on the Praenestine fibula (C.I. L. xiv. 4123 Manios med fefaced Numasioi, ' Manius me fecit Numerio'), fekied (or.feced ?) on the Dvenos bowl (Zvet. I. I. I. 285 Duenos med feked). This can hardly be equated with Osc. -ed, since the other spellings eeit, -it point to this early $e$ being merely that symbol of the $e i$-sound which is often found in old inscriptions (ch. iv. § 34), derivable from an I.-Eur. -ai, for which in Oscan we should expect to find a diphthong rather than the simple vowel e. Other old spellings are -et, -eit, -id, and -it. Examples of -et are fuet and dedet (beside cepit) on a Scipio Epitaph, perhaps of the end of the third cent. b.c. (C.I.L. i. $3^{2}$ ), dellet in two old inscriptions with Ablatival - $d$ (i. 63 de praidad Maurte dedet ; i. 64 de praidad Fortune dedet) ; and this is the spelling adopted in the (restored) Columna Rostrata (i. 195 exemet . . . cepet . . . ornauet). The classical spelling -it occurs as early as the Scipio Epitaph, just mentioned, with cepit ; the dedicatory tablet of Minucius, 217 b. c., with rorit (i. 1503 Hercolei sacrom. M. Minuci C. f. Dictator uouit) ; a Scipio Epitaph of c. 200 b. c. (i. 30) with fuit, cepit ; the dedication of Aurelius, 200 b. c. (Not. Scav. 1887, p. 195), with didit, probauit; the decree of Aemilius Paulus of 189 b. c. (C.I. L. ii. 5041) with decreiuit, iousit ; and the contemporary decree of Fulvius Nobilior 189 b.c. with cepit (i. 534 Aetolia cepit, 'took from Aetolia') ; the S. C. Bacch. 186 в. c. (i. 196) with censuit; while we have both -it and -id on the old Praenestine cista (end of third cent.?) quoted above, with dedit, fecid. But -eit is not common, e. g. probaveit (with coeravit) (i. 600, of 62 в. c.), fuueit (i. 105r), redieit (i. 541, of 145 в. c.), renieit (i. 200. 58, \&c., of 11 в. c.), so that if we had only the spellings of inscriptions to guide us, and not the versification of the early poets, we should be inclined to suppose the original form of the 3 Sg . Pft. suffix to have been $-\check{t}$, $-\check{c} d$, which, with the usual change of unaccented $\check{e}$ to $\check{,}$, became about the end of the third cent. - $\mathrm{\imath t}(-\stackrel{\mathrm{c}}{\mathrm{d}})$ ). It has been suggested that in some types of Perfect, e. g. dixit (cf. Gk. $\boldsymbol{\epsilon} \delta \in \epsilon \xi \in(\tau)$ ), fŭlit (cf. O. Ind. á-bhid-
ăt ; but see § 39), the final syllable was originally short, while in other types it was long. But the versification of Plautus points to no distinction having been made between the different types in his time at least. The pronunciation of his age must have been dixit, fidīt, amarīt as well as tutudit, viditt, fecit, and this $\bar{\imath}$-sound can hardly be dissociated from the final - $\bar{\imath}$ of I Sg . tutudt, \&e. This $-\bar{\imath}$ of tutudi we have seen to be the I.-Eur. -ai, the ending of the I Sg. Pft. Mid. (0. Ind. tutud-ē). In the 3 Sg . of the Perfect Middle, Sanscrit shows a similar form to the i Sg., viz. tutud-è. We are therefore led to suppose that in Latin as in Sanscrit *tutudai was the original form both in I Sg. and ${ }_{3} \mathrm{Sg}$. This *tutudai, which would become in Latin *tutudei, then tutudī, was in the 3 Sg . discriminated by the addition of the 3 Sg . suffix used in Secondary Tenses in the Active Voice, -t, and became tutudei-t (written in the old orthography tutude- $t$ ), then tutudī-t, then in the second cent. в.c. tutudit. The other types of Perfect followed in the 3 Sg ., as in all other persons, the type of I.-Eur. Perfects like tutudī.
§ 71. 1 Plur. In Lat. we have in all tenses the ending *-mŏs (class. -mưs), while in the other I.-Eur. languages we have
 (this I.-Eur. *-mĕs varied with ${ }^{*}$-mŏs, the Latin person-suffix), O. Ind. á-bharā-ma, Vedic vid-mà. The scansion -mūs in Plaut. is illusory (see Müller, Plaut. Pros. p. 57).
§ 72. 2 Plur. The ending -tě of Gk. $\phi \dot{\rho} \rho \epsilon-\tau \epsilon$, \&c. appears in Latin only in the Imperative, e.g. fer-te, agi-te for *agĕ-te, \&c. Elsewhere it was replaced by -třs (older *-ters), an ending like the 2 Dual ending (with th- apparently) of O. Ind. bhára-thas, Goth. baira-ts, the use of which discriminated agitis Ind. from agite Imper., as agis Ind. differed from age Imper. Corresponding to the 2 Sg. 'Future' Imperative in $-t \bar{o}$ (older -tōll), we have a 2 Pl . 'Future' Imperative in -tōte, apparently composed by adding to the Sg. form the 2 Pl . suffix -tě, -tōte (e.g. estōte), for -tīt-te (ch ii. § 127).
§ 73. 3 Plur. The I.-Eur. suffixes end with -ǐ in Primary but not in Secondary Tenses. Thus -entĭ, -ṇť̆, -nti are Primary, -ent, -ṇt, -nt are Secondary, e.g. *s-ĕnti (O. Ind. s-ánti, Gk. єi $\sigma i$ for Dor. $\mathfrak{\epsilon}-\nu \tau i ́, ~ O . ~ I r . ~ i t, ~ O . ~ W . ~ i n t, ~ G o t h . ~ s-i n d ~ ; ~ s o ~ U m b r . ~ s-e n t, ~$ Osc. s-et for $*_{s-e n t), ~ * b h e ̆ r o ̆-n t i ~[O . ~ I n d . ~ b h a ́ r a-n t i, ~ A r m . ~ b e r e n, ~}^{\text {, }}$
 berątǐ], *ě-bhĕrǒ-nt (O. Ind. á-bhara-n, Gk. è-申є $¢ 0-\dot{\nu}$ ). In class. Lat. the ending both for Primary and Secondary Tenses is -nt, e. g. feru-nt (older *fero-nt, e. g. cosentiont on a Scipio Epitaph,
C.I.L. i. 32), fereba-nt, fera-nt, si-nt [Umbr. sins; but O. Lat. sient, either by analogy of Sg. siem, sies, siet (see § 55), or with -ent for -ṇt, *siyṇt], s-unt (older sont, C.I.L. i. ı166). But in Umbro-Oscan there is a distinction. We have -nt for I.-Eur. -ntř, but -ns for I.-Eur. -nt, e. g. Umbr. sent, Osc. set for sent in $^{\text {sen }}$ the Ind. of the Substantive Verb, but Umbr. sins, in the Opt., Osc. prúfattens ' probaverunt,'so that itis likely that at some early period Latin, like the other languages of Italy, distinguished Primary -ntĭ and Secondary -nt. The 3 Pl . tremonti in the fragment of the Carmen Saliare, ascribed to Numa's time, is a doubtful reading [Ter. Scaur. 28.9 K. Cum . . . quoniam antiqui pro hoc adverbio 'cuine' dicebant, ut Numa in Saliari carmine:
> cuine tonas (MSS. ponas), Leucesie, prae tet tremonti (MSS. praetexere monti)],

though it is confirmed by another corrupt passage of Festus ( 244.17 Th .; he is quoting from the Carmen Saliare): 'prae tet tremonti' (MSS. pretet t.) praetremunt te (MSS. praetemunt pe). In Old Latin we have a curious form in -nunt (older -nont) in the Pres. Ind. only, e. g. dŭ-nunt, explē-nunt, prōdī̀nunt, nĕquīnont, which has been explained on the theory that the 3 Pl . of the Pres. Ind. had once ended in -n, *lŭn, *explèn, *prodìn, * $_{\text {nequin }}$, and that these forms were expanded by the subsequent addition of the Thematic Secondary ending - $\breve{n} t$, later - $\breve{u} n t$, much as Gk. $\epsilon i$ for $* \epsilon \sigma \iota, 2 \mathrm{Sg}$. of $\epsilon i \mu i$, was by the addition of the Secondary suffix -s expanded to $\epsilon \mathrm{i}-\mathrm{s}$, or O. Engl. sind, 'they are,' to sind-un. If it were a mere case of Nasalization like $t u-n-d o$, $l u ̈-n-0, *_{s t u ̆-n-o}$ in destüno (?), \&c., Lith. einù, 'I go' (§ 10), it is difficult to see why it should be confined to this single person, the third person plural of the Present Indicative Active. But how $*$ danti could become $*_{\text {dan, }}$ *eks-plenti become $*_{\text {explen, has }}$ not yet been satisfactorily shown (see I. F. ii. 302).
I.-Eur. -ṇti, -ṇt (e. g. O. Ind. dád-ati, Gk. $\lambda \in \lambda$ ó $\gamma \chi$ - $a \sigma \iota$ for $-n ̣ t i)$ does not appear in Latin, unless possibly in O. Lat. sient (see above). But in Umbro-Oscan -ent, -ens [I.-Eur. -ent(i) or -nt(i) ] is as universal as -unt [I.-Eur. -ont(i)] in Latin, e. g. Osc. fiiet 'fiunt,' prúfattens ' probaverunt,' Umbr. furent 'erunt,' Osc. censazet for -ent 'censebunt.'

The ending of the 3 Pl . of the Latin Perfect - $̆$ erunt is to be compared with the O. Ind. 3 Pl . endings with -r- of various Tenses (e. g. á-duh-ra Pret., duh-ratē Pres., bharē-rata Opt., duh-rám and duh-ratấm Imper.; very rarely -ranta, in á-vavṛtranta. The O. Ind. Perfect has in 3 Pl . Act. -ur, e.g. dadúr, ' they have given,' and in 3 Pl. Mid. -rē, e.g. dadiré, representing probably I.-Eur. -r and -rai). The byform -ērĕ is in O. Lat. -erй (dederi, C. I. L. i. 187, probably from Praeneste: M. Mindios L. fi. P. Condetios Ua. fi. aidiles uicesma parti Apolones dederi).

In the Imperative we have in Latin, as in Greek, the particle *tōd, ' from this,' ' thereupon,' added to a 3 Pl . form, e.g. Lat. ferunto for ${ }^{*}$ feront-tōd, Gk. $\phi \epsilon \rho o ́ v \tau \omega$ for ${ }^{*} \phi \epsilon \rho o v \tau-\tau \omega \delta$. The final $-d$ is seen in suntod on the Spoletium inscription (C. I. L. xi. 4766). The Umbrian ending appears to have been -tōtā, e.g. etuta and etuto ' eunto.'
§ 74. 3 Pl. Pres. in -nunt. Dămunt for dant is quoted from the older poets by Nonius, 97. 13 M., e. g. Caecilius, Com. 176 R. patiére quod dant, quándo optata nón danunt (cf. Paul. Fest. 48. r8Th. 'danunt' dant); it is often used by Plautus (the references are given in Neue, Formenl. ii ${ }^{2}$. p. 412), and is found on a Saturnian dedicatory inscription of two brothers, money-lenders, called Vertuleius (C. I. L. i. II75, Sora :
dónu dánunt Hércolei máxsume méreto) ;
prodinunt for prodeunt is quoted by Festus (284. 22 Th.) from Ennius ( $A$. 158 M.) :
prodinunt famuli; tum candida lumina lucent;
so obinunt for obeunt (id. 214. 4 Th.), redinunt for redeunt (id. 400. 12, a passage badly preserved in the MS.), quoted from Ennius [possibly with mention of inunt for eunt, so that the Philoxenus Gloss (p. 75. 23 G.), int : mopev́ovial may be a corruption of inunt : mopєv́ovtal (see § 2)]; nequinont for nequeunt (Fest. 162. 24 Th.), quoted from the Odyssea of Livius Andronicus:
pártim érrant, nequínont Graéciam redíre,
and paralleled with ferinunt (MS. fernunt) foi feriunt (MS. fereunt; cf. 400. 14 Th.), and solinunt for solent [rather for solunt, the obsolete verb of which consulo is a compound; cf. Fest. 526. 14 Th. ' solino' idem (Messala) ait esse consulo]; explenunt for explent by Paul. Fest. (56. 14 Th.); inserinuntur for inseruntur is used by Liv. Andr. (ap. Fest. 532. 24 Th.) : millia ália in ísdem inserinúntur.
§ 75. 3 Pl. Perf. The isolated forms dedro on an old inscription of Pisaurum (C. I. L. i. 177 Matre Matuta dono dedro matrona; beside dedrot on another inscription from the same place, i. r 73 Iunone re. matrona Pisaurese dono dedrot) and emeru on an inscription of Cora (i. 1148 Q. Pomponius Q. f. L. Tulius Ser.f. praitores aere Martio emeru) cannot be taken as a proof that -rŏ
was a byform of $-r$ in the Latin 3 Pl. Perfect. For the dropping of final consonants is a feature of the Latin of Pisaurum (see the inscriptions quoted above with $-s,-r$ dropped ; and cf. the loss of $-t$ in dede, i. 169, and apparently of -nt in i. $\mathrm{r}_{77}$ M'. Curia, Pola Liuia deda), and emeru on the Cora inscription may be a similar dialectal variety, or merely a graphic contraction for emerunt. Final -nt often loses the dental on late inscriptions and is written $-n$ or $-m$; thus we have fecerun and fecerum (also feceru, vi. 24649) in plebeian inscriptions of the Empire (see ch. ii. § 137). Some Roman grammarians called the form with -re the 'Dual' form, a theory which is rightly rejected by Quintilian, though his own explanation, that it is a weakening of -runt, cannot stand (i. 5. 43 quanquam fuerunt qui nobis quoque adicerent dualem 'scripsere' 'legere': quod evitandae asperitatis gratia mollitum est, ut apud veteres pro male mereris ' male merere') (cf. Serv. ad $A$. ii. r). In the older writers -runt and -re seem to be used at will, e. g. Plaut. Trin. 535 alii éxolatum abiérunt, alii emórtui, Alií se suspendére, and Cicero (Orat. xlvii. 157), quoting a line of Ennius, says : nec vero reprehenderim 'scripsere alii rem'; 'scripserunt' esse verius censeo, sed consuetudini auribus indulgenti libenter obsequor. (Ennius, however, seems to prefer -erunt to -ere in his Annals; Terence prefers -ere.) The older spelling -ront, mentioned by Quintilian (i. 4. 16), who quotes dederont and probareront, is found on early inscriptions (see Index to C. I. L. i.).

The ending -rĕ (older -ri) seems to come from an I.-Eur. -rĭ, cognate with the I.-Eur. -rai of the O. Ind. ${ }_{3} \mathrm{Sg}$. Pft. Mid.-ré, e. g. dadiré, 'dedere'; the ending -runt (older -ront), either from an I.-Eur. -ront (cf. O. Ind. á-vavrt-ranta), or from a subsequent addition of the usual 3 Pl . Thematic suffix -unt (-ont) to a 3 Pl. Pft. in -r. Thus *dedēr (a 'doublet' of dedēre?) would become dedēr-unt by the same process as we have supposed an earlier *explen to have become explen-unt. In view of the presence of $r$ in these $O$. Ind. third persons plural this is a more likely explanation than to suppose that $r$ is the Latin substitute for intervocalics.

With regard to the quantity of the $e$ in -erunt, the short quantity, though it is in the classical and later period more prominent in Dactylic Poetry than in other verse, owing to its suitableness for the dactylic metre, is not by any means unknown in the older (and later) dramatists, e.g. in Plautus subegërunt, Plaut. Bacch. 928, fecěrunt, Amph. 184 locavërunt, Pers. 16o, cessarunt, Mil. 1432, \&c. ; emĕrunt, Ter. Eun. prol. 20, conlocarunt, ib. 593). Plautus appears, however, to use it only at the end of a line or hemistich, so must have regarded its use as a licence to be resorted to under metrical necessity. It does not appear to have been used in Tragedy, nor by the earlier Epic writers, like Ennius, and not very frequently by Lucretius (e. g. institěrunt, i. 406 ; see Munro's note), which points to its having been a pronunciation of colloquial Latin that won its way only gradually into the higher literature. It is generally explained as a 3 Plur. of the Auxiliary stem es-, 'to be,' and is compared with Gk. - $\epsilon \sigma \alpha \nu$ of 3 Plur. Plupft., so that dederrunt from *dedesunt would be a quite different formation from dedërunt and dedēre, with I.-Eur. r. Another theory makes it *dedis-ont, the first part being a Verbal Noun-stem *dedis- (see § 52). [On curarunt for curavěrunt beside the older coirauerunt (ē ?) on inscriptions, see § 48.]
ending was -ōr in the Pres. Ind. [e. g. O. Lat. sequōr, class. sequŏr (ch. iii. § 49), O. Ir. sechur], apparently an addition of Passive -r to the Active ending - $\overline{0}$. Those Tenses and Moods which in Latin formed their I Sg. Active in $-m$ substitute in the Passive $-r$ for $-m$, e. g. fëra-r Fut. and Subj., fereba-r Impft., except in the Perfect group, where a periphrastic form is used, e. g. lätus sim, latus essem, not *tulerir, *tulisser, also latus ero, not *tuleror (see §54), though in Oscan we do find this adaptation of the Active forms in comparascuster, Fut. Pft. Pass. (pon ioc egmo comparascuster ' cum ea res consulta erit'), the Active of which would be *comparascust ( $\S 89$ ) ; but in Umbr. we have pihaz fust 'piatus erit,' \&c.
§ 77. 2 Sing. Since O. Ir. sechther 'sequeris' shows the I.-Eur. (athematic) ending -thēs (e. g. O. Ind. á-di-thās, Gk. $\epsilon-\delta o ́-\theta \eta s$ ), which is retained in the O. Ir. Imperative (e. g. cluinte, 'do thou hear,' Dep.), with the usual ending -r, we might expect to find in Latin the I.-Eur. (thematic) ending -sŏ (e.g. Zend bara-rha, Gk. $\phi \epsilon \in \rho \in$ for $*$ - $\sigma o$, $\bar{\epsilon}-\phi \epsilon ́ \rho \epsilon-o$ ), which is retained in the Latin Imperative (e. g. sĕquĕrĕ for *sequesŏ, § 57), with an appended -r, *sequesŏr, in class. Lat. *sequerŭr. But the forms actually found are (1) sequerer, the same as the Imperative 2 Sg . (this is the usual form in O. Lat., and even in Cicero); (2) sequerts, which adds to this the ending $-s$ of the 2 Sg. Act., $*_{\text {sequerě-s }}$ becoming sequerurs (ch. iii. § 18). The addition of this $-s$ discriminates the Ind. from the Imper. form as $\check{a} g \check{s}$ differs
 $-r$ the -d of its 2 Sg. Act., e. g. fer-tor 2 Sg. Pass., fertō from fer$t \bar{c} d 2 \mathrm{Sg}$. Act. [On the O. Lat. ending for the $2,3 \mathrm{Sg}$. Imper. -mı̆ño, formed apparently from 2 Pl . -mŭnū on the type of $2,3 \mathrm{Sg}$. Act. -tō(d), see § 60, and on forms like ūtūto for utitor, § 59.]
§ 78. For statistics of the use of -re and -ris, see Neue, ii ${ }^{2}$. pp. 393 sqq. Terence uses -re only, Plautus both -re and -ris, but -re far more frequently. (He puns on obloquere Ind. and obloquere Imperat. in Curc. 4r.) Cicero prefers $-r e$ in all other tenses than the Pres. Ind., and in this tense too in Deponent Verbs. Quintilian is wrong in supposing -re to be a weakening of -ris (i. 5.42 quod evitandae asperitatis gratia mollitum est, ut apud veteres pro male mereris ' male merere'), for -is did not become -e in Latin (ch. ii. § 137), nor can an isolated spelling like tribunos [milita]re for mïlitäris on an old inscr. (C. I. L.
i. 64) be quoted as a proof of this change. The form -rus on a few inscriptions (spatiarus, C. I. L. i. 1220, Beneventum ; utarus, i. 1267, Venusia ; figarus, iv. 2082, Pompeii), none of them old, may be a mere dialectal or vulgar variety, but it may also (like -us in the Gen. Sg. of the 3rd Decl., ch. vi. § 22) be a genuine tradition of an older form, which arose from the addition of $-s$ to $*_{\text {sequesö, \&c., at a stage prior to its weakening to sequerě. Thus *spatiā-sŏ would }}$ be expanded to ${ }^{\text {spatiāsŏ-s, which would become }{ }^{*} \text { spatiärŏs, spatiarus. }}$
§ 79. 3 Sg. The Italo-Celtic ending is -torr [e. g. Lat. sĕquйtŭr from *seque-tör, O. Ir. sechethar ; cf. Osc. sakarater 'sacratur,' with -ter from syncopated -t( $(\mathrm{o}) \mathrm{r}$ as Umbr. ager from $*_{\operatorname{agr}(\breve{\mathrm{os}})) \text {, }}$ formed by adding Passive -r to the I.-Eur. Secondary ending -tõ (e.g. O. Ind. á-di-ta, Gk. $\begin{gathered}\text { é- } \delta o-\tau o ; ~ O . ~ I n d . ~ a ́-b h a r a-t a, ~ G k . ~\end{gathered}$ $\epsilon-\phi \epsilon ́ \rho \epsilon-\tau o)$. The Imperative changes to $-r$ the -d of the Particle -tōd which it appends to the bare stem in the Act., e. g. fer-tor Pass., fer-to(d) Act., ăğ̌-tor Pass., agi-tō(d) Act. (On O. Lat. $-m u ̆ n o ̄, ~ e . ~ g . ~ a n t e s t a m i n o, ~ ' l e t ~ h i m ~ t a k e ~ t o ~ w i t n e s s, ' ~ s e e ~ § ~ 60, ~ a n d ~$ on -to for -tor in $\bar{u} t \stackrel{t}{t} t o, \& c$. ., § 59.)
§ 80. 1 Plur. The Italo-Celtic ending is -mŏr (e.g. Lat. sёquйmŭr for $*_{\text {sequo-mŏr, }} \mathrm{O}$. Ir. seche-mmar with a curious doubling of the m ), formed by changing to $r$ the s of the Active -mŏs (Lat. férı̆-mŭs for *fere-mŏs, O. Ir. do-beram for -mŏs ?).
§ 81. 2 Plur. Both the Celtic and the Italic languages depart from the ordinary procedure in this person. In O. Ir. Deponents we have the Active ending ; in Latin we have the Nom. Plur. of the old Pres. Part. Passive with ellipse of estis, e. g. fĕrйmı̆nı from *fero-menoi (Gk. фєоо́иєvol) in the Present Tense, and analogical formations in the others, e. g. fĕr $\overline{\ddot{b}} \vec{a}-m \check{u} n \bar{u} \bar{u}$, fërā̄-minnū, ferreè-mı̆n̄̄. The 2 Plur. Imper., though similar in form to the 2 Plur. Pres. Ind., e. g. ferimini, is usually explained as an old Infinitive (Dat. of a MEN-stem), for I.-Eur. *bheremenai (Gk. $\phi \epsilon \rho \epsilon \epsilon^{\prime}-\mu \epsilon \nu a \iota$ ) (see § 57).
§ 82. 3 Plur. The Italo-Celtic ending is -ntŏr (e.g. Lat. sëquuntŭr from *sequo-ntŏr, O. Ir. sechetar ; cf. Osc. karanter 'pascuntur' with -nter from syncopated -nt(̆) r) like 3 Sg. -ter for $-t(\breve{o}) r$; see above), formed by adding Passive -r to the I.-Eur.
 Cf. Gk. ${ }^{\prime} \mu-\pi \lambda \eta-\nu \tau o$ with Lat. im-ple-ntur). In the Imperative the
-d of the particle -tod appended in the 3 Pl . Act., is changed to $r$, e. g. fëruntor Pass., feruntö from *feront-tōd Act. (see § 57, and on O. Lat. censento for censentor, § 59).
§ 83. Vi. the infinitive. The I.-Eur. Infinitive was merely a Case (usually Dat. or Loc. Sg.) of a Verbal Noun, and has best retained its character in the Celtic languages, where its object stands not in the Acc., as after a verb, but in the Gen., as after a Noun. The form of the Inf. varied not merely according to the case employed, but also according to the Noun-stem which was chosen. In O. Ind. we have a great variety of Infinitives, e.g. (i) Dat. of a Root-stem, a stem which was the same as the root of the Verb, e. g. -ájē, 'to drive,' lit. 'for driving' (Lat. ăḡ̄ ; cf. Gk. $\chi \epsilon \hat{v}-a \iota$ ?) ; (2) Dat. of an S-stem, e. g. ji-ṣéé, ' to conquer ' [cf. Lat. da-rī, O. Lat. dla-sei (§ 85), Gk. $\pi \in \hat{i}-\sigma a l]$; (3) Dat. of a MEN-stem, e.g. dấ-manē, 'to give' (Gk. סóuєval; Lat. daminū 2 Pl. Imper. Pass., see § 57), vid-mánē, ' to know' [Gk. (F)î̀$\mu \in v a l] ;$ (4) Loc. of a MEN-stem (without-ǐ, see ch. vi. § 37), e.g. dhár-man, ' to keep up ' (cf. Gk. $\delta o ́-\mu \in \nu$ ) ; (5) Dat. of a TU-stem, e.g. dhấ-tavē,' to set' (cf. Pruss. dā-twei, ' to give ') ; (6) Acc. of a TU-stem, e. g. dhấ-tum (this is the classical or Sanscrit form of the Infinitive of every verb) (Lat. con-drutum ist Sup., Lith. dé-tū Sup., O. Sl. dě-tŭ Sup.; the Balto-Slavic Supine in -tum is fused with the auxiliary verb of the same root as Lat. fui to form a Compound Tense, e.g. Lith. détum-bime, i Pl. Opt., as the Lat. Ist Supine is joined with impersonal $\bar{\imath} \eta \bar{\imath}$ to form the Fut. Inf. Pass., e. g. sublātum iri or sublatuiri, see below); (7) Dat. of an I-stem, e. g. dṛ́s-áyē, 'to see,' and many others. The Teutonic Inf. is Acc. of an ONO-stem, e. g. Goth. itan, Germ. essen from *ěd-ŏnŏ-m (cf. O. Ind. ádanam, a Neut. Noun). The form chosen for the Latin Inf. Act. was a Loc. Sg. of an S-stem, e. g. ăgĕ-rĕ from *age-sŭ, amā-rĕ from *ama-sŭ, vŭdē-ř̆ from *vide-s̆̆,

 change of $r s$ to $r r$ (cf. torreo from *torseyō, ch. iv. § 153), $l s$ to $l l$ (cf. collum from *colso-, Germ. Hals, ch. iv. § 146). For the Inf. Pass. a Dat. Sg. was chosen, either (1) of a Root-stem, e.g. $\breve{a} g-\bar{\imath}$ (O. Lat. ag-ei) from *ăğ-ai, mŏr-ī (with the diphthong ai
weakened in the unaccented syllable, first to $e i$, then to $\bar{\imath}$, as in *óc-caido, oc-ceido, oc-cīlo, ch. iii. § 18), or (2) of an S-stem, e.g. ŭmā-r̄ ( O . Lat. ama-rei) from $*_{\text {ama-sai, vidē}-r \bar{\imath}}$ from $*_{\text {wide-sai, }}$ $f_{i n i}^{i}-r \bar{\imath}, \mathrm{O}$. Lat. mŏrī-ri, so that the Lat. Inf. Pass. differed from the Inf. Act. only conventionally, and had no distinctive Passive suffix. This however seems to be present in the byforms agier, amärier, moririer, though the exact origin of this -ier, -rier is doubtful ${ }^{1}$. For the Perfect Inf. Passive the Perf. Part. Pass. was used with the auxiliary verb esse, e.g. constat id factum esse, constat ea facta esse ; for the Fut. Pass. the ist Supine with $\bar{r} r \bar{i}$, Inf. Pass. of $e o$, 'to go,' e. g. constat id factum iri, constat ea factum iri. The Fut. Act., e. g. constat id eventurum (esse), is most naturally explained as a combination of the Fut. Part. Act. with esse, though its Old Latin indeclinable use, e.g. credo inimicos meos dicturum (from a speech of C. Gracchus) has suggested the theory that it is a compound of the 2 nd Supine in $-t \bar{u}$ (e. g. even$t \bar{u}$, dict $\bar{u}$, Locs. of TU-stems, ch. vi. § 37) with an old byform of esse, viz. esem, later $^{*}$ erum (Umbr. erom, Osc. ezum, Acc. of Ostem), dictūrum for $*_{\text {dictu-erum being in time made personal }}$ Nicturus -a -um (the Fut. Part. Act.) in the same way as O. Lat. 'dicendum est orationem' changed to class. Lat. 'dicenda est oratio' (Postgate in Class. Rev. v. p. 301 ). The Umbro-Oscan Pres. Inf. Act. is the Acc. Sg. of a Verbal O-stem (e.g. Umbr. er-om, Osc. ez-um, deic-um, molt-aum 'multare') (ch. v. § 2).

On Lat. arè in arē-facio and similar Verb-stems, see § 34 .
In Vulg. Lat., as reflected in the Romance languages, the Perf. Inf. has been lost; esse has become essere (Ital. essere, Span. ser, Fr. être) ; velle, volēre (Ital. volere, Fr. vouloir), this verb having been transferred (by the analogy of its Perf. volui like monui, habui, \&c.) to the second Conjugation, voleo ${ }_{1}$ Sg. Pres. Ind. (Ital. voglio), voleat, 3 Sg. Pres. Subj. (Ital. voglia), as posse became potēre (Ital. potere, Sp. poder) through the likeness of its Perf. potui to the second Conjugation type. (cf. § $33 a$ ).

[^103](A. L. L. vii. 132). Similarly in Vulg. Lat. esse-re replaced esse (see below).
§ 84. Pres. Inf. Act. Biber for bïbĕrĕ in the phrase biber dare (quoted by Charisius 124. r K. from various early authors, and censured as a mispronunciation by Caper, ı8. го K . bibere non 'biber'), seems to be a case of syncope of final -ĕ (like nec for nĕque, animal for ünĭmäle, calcar for calcäre, ch. iii. § 36), though it has been also regarded as a veritably old form, a Locative without í (ch. vi. § 37), like Gk. $\delta \delta$ ó $\mu \epsilon \nu$ Inf. (see above). Instar may be a similar syncopated Inf. (for instare) used as a Noun (cf. bustar, an oxstall ; see ch. iii. § 36 ). On late inscriptions we have, e. g. haber (C. I. L. viii. 8369, of 128 A.d.) ; and on a lamp found in the oldest Esquiline cemetery (Ann. Inst. 1880, p. 260), Sotae sum. noli me tanger.
§ 85. Pres. Inf. Pass. The form in -ier, -rier belongs to O. Lat. and is employed as an archaism by the Augustan poets and their imitators (see statistics in Neue, $\mathrm{ii}^{2}$. p. 409). Even in the time of Plautus it can hardly have been so current as the form in $-\bar{\imath}$, $-r i$, for it is confined to the end of iambic and trochaic lines, e.g. percontarier, Most. 963 (see Lorenz, ad loc.), and is never found with a short antepaenultima (except deripier, Men. 1006), restrictions which indicate that it was a form used only for the sake of the metre.
That the $-r$ of $-r i$ was originally $s$ we see from the 0 . Lat. form dasi mentioned by Paul. Fest. [48. ig Th. 'dasi' dari (should we read 'dasei' or else dare? )].
The occasional scansion of the Pres. Inf. Act. with -ē in Plaut. (e. g. Pseuct. 355, гооз) has been explained as a relic of the use of -ai (O. Lat. -ei or -ē, ch. iv. § 34) as Active suffix (I. F. iv. 240). But it may be otherwise explained, as syllaba anceps before final dipody (see Müller, Plaut. Pros. p. 22). The theory that the 1 i- and ai- suffixes were in the 0 . Lat. period used indifferently as Act. or Pass. is plausible enough but lacks proof.
§ 86. Fut. Inf. Act. Gellius in the seventh chapter of the first book of his Noctes Atticue quotes several instances of the indeclinable use of the Fut. Inf. Act. from the older authors, in connexion with the reading: hanc sibi rem praesidio sperant futurum (Cic. Verr. II. v. 65. 167), found in a copy of Tiro's edition (libro spectatae fidei, Tironiana cura atque disciplina facto). This reading was defended by such examples as : credo ego inimicos meos hoc dicturum (from a speech of C. Gracchus); hostium copias ibi occupatas futurum, and again: deos bonis bene facturum (from the Annals of Claudius Quadrigarius) ; omnia ex sententia processurum esse (from Valerius Antias ; the use of esse is irregular) ; altero te occisurum ait (sc. Casina) (from Plaut. Cas. 693, where our MSS. are almost unanimous for occisuram!) ; non putavi hoc eam facturum (from Laberius, Com. 51 R.). Priscian (i. p. 475. 23 H.$)$ quotes from Cato : illi polliciti sese facturum omnia ; from Lucilius (xvii. 8 M.) : nupturum te (sc. Penelope) nupta negas.

The existence of nouns like scriptūra, versüra, pictīra points to the Fut. Part. scriptūrus -a -um, versūrus -a -um, pictūrus -a -um, \&c. (formed from Ŭ-stems, as Gk. i $\sigma \chi \overline{\mathrm{v}} \rho \bar{\delta}$-, from a $\overline{\mathrm{U}}$-stem; cf. ch. v. § 16 , ch. iv. § 6o) having been an old formation (cf. offensa beside offensus, rĕpulsa beside repulsus), and makes it unlikely that the declinable Fut. Part. arose from this indeclinable Inf. So it may be better to regard O. Lat. dicturum as the Neut. Sg. of this participle used (without esse) impersonally, just as the Impersonal constat, e.g. 'constat inter omnes haec ita esse,' becomes in the Fut. Inf. Pass.
constaturum, e.g. 'spero constaturum inter omnes haec ita esse.' Similarly the Gerundive in -ndus -a -um seems the older form and the Gerund in -ndum an Impersonal use, eundum est being analogous to itur (see § 62). On the other hand the preference shown by Plautus and Terence for the omission of esse (for statistics, see Postgate in 1. F. iv. 252 ; cf. Plaut. Bacch. 592 negat se iturum, with Truc. 85 is nunc dicitur Uenturus peregre), and the rarity of the use of the Fut. Part. in apposition (e. g. Enn. Ann. 412 M. carbasus alta uolat pandam ductura carinam) are quoted in support of Prof. Postgate's explanation.
§ 87. Fut. Inf. Pass. Iri is impersonal, like itur in Virgil's itur in antiquam silvam, so that the line of Terence (Hec. prol.) : rumor uenit datum iri gladiatores, should be translated 'that they are going to exhibit gladiators,' 'that there is going to be a gladiatorial show.' Gellius (x. 14) quotes a curious extension of this usage from a speech of Cato, contumelia mihi factum itur: atque euenit ita, Quirites, uti in hac contumelia, quae mihi per huiusce petulantiam factum itur, rei quoque publicae medius fidius miserear, Quirites. This throws some light on the development of the Italo-Celtic passive from an Impersonal R-form (§62). (Cf. Plaut. Rud. 1242 mihi istaéc uidetur praéda praedatum írier.) The word-group factum iri, \&c. seems to have become a single word in ordinary language, for we often find the Fut. Inf. Pass. written with -tuiri in MSS., which is frequently corrupted in later copies to -turi as if Nom. Pl. Masc. of Fut. Part. Act. (e. g. sublatuiri in Cod. A of Bell. Alex. xix. 2, but in other MSS. sublaturi; for a list of examples from Lactantius, see A. L. L. ii. 349). The suppression of $-m$ of sublatum, \&c. is like the suppression of $m$ of circum in circuit for circum it (see ch. ii. § 153 ).
§ 88. VII. THE SUPINES. The First Supine, used after a Verb of motion, is the Acc. Sg. of a Verbal Noun, a TU-stem (e.g. ire spectātum, lit. ' to go to the seeing,' like ire dŏmum, to go to the house, ire Rōmam, to go to Rome), the same form as is in Sanscrit the regular Infinitive of the verb (see § 83). An O. Ind. usage like draṣ̣tum ấ gachanti, 'they come to see,' hốtum ēti, 'he goes to sacrifice ' (cf. O. Sl. vidětŭ idetǐ, ' he goes to see ') (Delbrück, Altind. Syntax, p. 428) is what the Latin First Supine has developed from.

The Second Supine, used after an Adjective, is the Loc. Sg. of the same Verbal Noun (e.g. ăğlis curs $\bar{u}$, nimble in running). The Loc. Sg. in $-\bar{u}$ of U-stems often played the part of a Dat. (e. g. curru for currui in Virgil, see ch. vi. §§ 37, 23, 27) ; and we find the Second Supine used not only as a Loc., but as a Dative, e.g. (fabula) lĕp̆̌ula mëmŏrätū, pleasant for telling, where in the older language the Dative proper in -ui is used, e.g. lepida memoratui (Plaut.), as well as the Locative, e.g. rûdǔcüla audītu
(Plaut.), (in Plaut. Rud. 294 sunt nobis quaestu et cultu, this Loc. plays the part of a Predicative Dative).

This TU-stem bulks largely in the language of Plautus and the older Dramatists, e.g. opsonatu redeo (Plaut. Men. 288), essum vocare, ' to invite to dinner' (Men. 458), nuptum dare, 'to give a girl in marriage' (Pers. 383). In Aul. $73^{6}$ perditum ire is used almost like perdere :
quam ób rem ita faceres méque meosque pérditum ires liberos, (cf. Bacch. 565 mi ires consultum male), and the use of the Accusative without a Preposition is paralleled by phrases like ¡ mălam crŭcem (Plaut.), suppĕtias, infîtias, exsĕquias ire, \&c. Like nuptum dare and muptum ire are vënumă̈re or venundare (vendere) and venum ire (vënire; but cf. O. Ind. vasna-yá-ti, 3 Sg., Gk.
 Acc. of a Verbal Noun TU-stem is asom (class. assum, ist Supine of ardeo) in the phrase asom fero on an old Praenestine cista with the representation of a kitchen scene (Mél. Arch. 1890, p. 303), a phrase which recurs on a Marrucine inscription, asum . . .feret (Zvet. I. I. I. 8). The ist Supine is also found in Umbrian, e.g. aseriato etu 'observatum ito.' In the Romance languages the Supines have been lost.
§ 89. VIII. THE PARTICIPLES. The I.-Eur. Participles were merely Verbal Adjectives formed with the various suffixes already mentioned in the chapter on Noun- and Adjective-stems (chap. v). Thus for the Perf. Part. Pass. the TO-suffix was used (e. g. O. Ind. -dhi-tá-, Gk. $\theta \in$-tós, Lat. crêe-clu-tus, Lith. dé-tas ; Goth. vaurh-ts, ' wrought'), or the NO-suffix (e. g. O. Ind. pūr-ṇá-, 'filled,' O. Engl. bund-en, ‘ bound-en,' O. Sl. nes-enŭ, ‘ carried’; cf. Lat. plēenus); for the Gerundive, the YO-suffix (e.g. O.Ind. dŕ̛ś-ya-, 'seeable, worth seeing,' O. Sax. un-fōd-i, 'insatiable'; cf. Gk. ä $\gamma-$-os, venerable, Lat. exĭm-ius), or -TWO-, -TĔWO- (e.g. O. Ind. kár-tva-, ' worth doing,' Gk. $\delta \iota \omega \kappa-\tau \epsilon(F)$ os, worth pursuing), and so on. With the LO-suffix is formed the second Past Participle Act. in O. Sl., e. g. nes-lŭ, used in the periphrastic neslŭ jesmĭ, 'I have carried,' and the Aor. Part. Act. or Pass. in Armenian, e. g. gereal ' capiens, captus.'

The Pres. Part. Act. (and all Active Participles, except the

Perfect) took the suffix -ěnt-, -nt-, -ont- (see ch. v. § $\sigma_{3}$ ) (e.g. O. Ind. bhárant-, Gk. $\phi \epsilon \in \rho \omega \nu$, -ov oos, Goth. bairands, O. Sl. bery), Lat. fër-ens, -entis, sëdens (Umbr. zeđef). The Perf. Part. Act. took -wĕs- (e. g. O. Ind. ririk-vás-, Gk. $\lambda \epsilon \lambda o \iota \pi-(F) \omega ́ s$, Lith. likē̄s ; cf. O. Sl. mlŭz-ŭ, 'having milked'); and this formation appears in Umbro-Oscan in the Compound Tense, which corresponds to the Lat. Fut. Perf. (e. g. Osc. fefacust 'fecerit'), and probably in Osc. sipus, knowing, with full knowledge [from *sēp-wes- (?). That the $u$ is long (I.-Eur. $\bar{u}$ or $\bar{o}$ ) is inferred from the absence of Syncope, for *sipüs, *sipŏs would become in Oscan *sips; but see ch. iii. § 16]; but in Latin the Perf. Part. Act. is not used. Neither is the Pres. Part. Middle (or Pass.), which was formed in -mĕno- (-mono-, -mno-) (e.g. O. Ind. bhára-māṇa-, Gk. $\phi \in \rho o ́-\mu \in \nu o s ;$ cf. Pruss. po-klausi-manas, 'being heard'), though it is found in the 2 Pl. Ind. Pass., e. g. fěřmĭñ̄̃ (sc. estis, see § 8I), and in nouns like alumnия (cf. Gk. ó $\tau \rho \epsilon \phi о ́ \mu \in v o s$, see $\mathrm{ch} . \mathrm{v}$. § 13). The Perf. Part. shows the suffix -to-, e. g. scriptus (Umbr. screihto-, Osc. scrifto-); the Fut. Part. Act. in -t $\bar{u} r u s$ is probably a formation with the suffix -ro- from a TU-stem Verbal Noun, e. g. scriptūrus, stem $*_{s c r i p t \bar{u}-r o-~ f r o m ~ t h e ~ s t e m ~} *_{\text {scriptu- of }}$ scriptus, $-\bar{u} s$, pictūrus from the stem *pictu- of pictus, -us, \&c., like Gk. $i \sigma \chi \bar{v}-\rho o^{\prime}$ from $i \sigma \chi \frac{\bar{v}}{s}$. [On its relation to the Fut. Inf. Act. in O. Lat. scripturum, in class. Lat. scripturus ( $-a-u m$ ) (esse), see §86 . For a Participle the Latin writers, especially the poets, often substituted an Adjective, e.g. lŭcĕr for lăcĕrätus (Virg. lacerum crudeliter ora), and these Adjectives or 'truncated Participles' have to some extent encroached on the Perf. Part. Pass. in the Romance languages, e.g. Ital trovo beside trovato. (MeyerLübke, Rom. Gram. ii. p. 375.)

[^104]Verbal Adjectives (especially Compounds) in -us with Participles in -ens, is a Comparison like benevolus, benevolentior, benevolentissimus, magnificus, -entior, -entissimus (see ch. vi. § 55).
The 0 -grade of the suffix which predominates in the Greek declension,
 \&c.), euntis, -i, -em, -es, \&c. (beside Nom. Sg. iens), vŏluntas (beside volens). It can hardly be due to a mere accident that all these traces of the suffix -ontare found in verbs belonging to the Athematic Conjugation, I.-Eur. *es-mi, *ei-mi, *wel-mi (see § 2). It almost seems as if the declension of the Pres. Part. of Athematic Verbs in Latin had originally exhibited the suffix -ont-, perhaps varying with -ent- (I.-Eur -nt- or even -ent-), e. g. ab-iens Nom. Sg., euntis Gen., eunti Dat., *ientem Acc. (see ch. vi. § r, p. 367), or sons Nom. Sg., sentis Gen. from an I.-Eur. *sónts Nom., *sṇtós Gen. (cf. O. Ind. sánt-, satás Gen.),
 equivalent of Att. ov̄ $\sigma a$ (ch. iv. $\S 8 \mathrm{r}$ ). The use of euntis, eunti, \&c. cannot well have been due to the dislike of the combination $-\breve{u}$ - (iens has $\check{\bar{e}} \bar{E}$-, the vowel being lengthened before $n s$, ch. ii. § 144), for this combination is not objected to in other Participles, facientis, capientis, \&c. The survival of the suffix ent- in the struggle for existence in the Latin Present Particíple, athematic and thematic, was probably aided by the Latin tendency to turn every short unaccented vowel before a consonant-group to $\breve{e}$ (see ch. iii. § 18 ; and cf. below, § 94, on -undus and -endus in the Gerundive).
§ 91. Perf. Part. Act. This has been lost also in Celtic and Teutonic, but in Balto-Slavic is the only part of the Perfect Active retained. Some find traces of the formation in Lat. cădāter, păpāter, others in O. Lat. gnärŭres Plur., 'knowing,' e. g. Plaut. Most. 100:
simúl gnarurís uos uolo ésse hane rem mécum.
(Cf. Gloss. Placid. 'gnaruris' gnarus, sciens: Gloss. Philox. 'gnarurem'
 not a Perfect Participle, but an Adjective derived from a Perfect Participlestem, as Gk. rєєгаүнós (Eurip.) is a Noun derived from $\kappa$ ќє $\kappa \bar{\gamma} \gamma$ а.
§ 92. Perf. Part. Pass. This participle too became often an ordinary Adjective (Engl. 'cold,' 'dead,' \&c. are TO-stem Participles), e. g. citus, swift, lit. 'bestirred' ( $\mathbf{O}$. Ind. siil-tá-) ; cưtus, sharp (this was the meaning of the word in the Sabine district, Varro's home, Varro, L. L. vii. 46), then (metaphorically) (r) piercing, of sounds, e. g. Enn. A. $53^{8}$ M. cata signa, the shrill clarions; (2) shrewd, of persons, literally 'sharpened,' from I.-Eur. ̂kō- (cf. Lat. cōs, a whetstone) (ch. iv. § 54) ; lätus, O. Lat. stlütus, broad, lit. ' extended' (cf. O. Sl. stel-ją, 'I spread, extend') ', or a Noun, e.g. nütus, a son (in Plautus and Terence we have as a rule gnatus, a son, natus, born), leggätus, a lieutenant, deputy. When used as an Adj. it sometimes passes into the I-declension, the favourite Adjective declension (ch. v. § 34), e.g. fortis, O. Lat. forctus, originally P. P. P. of the I.-Eur. root dhergh-, 'to establish' (O. Ind. dradhá-,

[^105]'established, firm'), in-gens, lit. 'unknown,' from the root gen-, 'to know' (O. Engl. un-cūđ, 'uncouth'). When used as a Noun the Neuter often appears, e.g. lectum (also Masc. lectus, of the fourth or second decl.), tectum, futtum (the sense of 'destiny' probably originated in the phrase 'fari fatum alicui,' to lay a doom or spell on one, like the Welsh tynghu tynghed ; see Rhŷs, Proc. of Internat. Folklore Congr. r89r, p. 150), and (especially in the case of Abstract Nouns) the Feminine, e.g. offensa, rěpulsa.

The Participle in -to- of Intransitive Verbs has the sense of a Perfect Part. Active, e. g. cēnētus, having dined, pransus, pötus, like our 'learned' in such a phrase as 'a learned man,' 'a learned judge.' Hence its use as the Perfect Participle of Deponent Verbs, e.g. cispernätus, sécūtus, and the coexistence of Deponent Perf. Part. and Act. Verb, e. g. fissus beside füdo, maestus, sad, beside maereo. These participial TO-stems from roots which have developed in Latin into Deponent Verbs often retain their true passive sense, e.g. ăbüsa Pass. (Plaut. Asin. 196; cf. Pelign. oisa aetate 'confecta aetate'), so that there is a justification for Virgil's oblita carmina, Horace's dêtestäta bella, and the like.
It seems to have taken in I.-Eur. the weak grade of the Verb-root, e. g. I.-Eur. *wid-to- from the root weid-, 'to know' (O. Ind. vittá-, Gk. ál-ı $\sigma$ oros, Goth. un-vĭs), *k̂lŭ-to- from k̂leu- [O. Ind. šrrŭtá-, Gk. $\kappa \lambda \check{c} \tau o ́ s$, Lat. in-clŭtus, O. Ir. cloth for *clŭto-, O. H. G. Hlot-hari (the equivalent of Gk. Kגvtóarparos, cf. Germ. Heer, an army), the name 'Lothair']. In Latin this is also the rule, e. g. düc-tus from dū̃o, üs-tus from üro, tentus for *tn-tos (Gk. ratis) from root ten-, pǔtus (Plaut. Pseud. 1200) used with its equivalent $p^{\prime} \overline{-} r$ rus. See ch. ii. § 144, where it is suggested that the long vowel of réctus, \&c. may be due to a Latin tendency to lengthen a vowel before the group $y$-t. The Perfect Ind. Act. too has often influenced its vocalism. The same influence caused the substitution of -sus for -tus, which spread from Dental Verb-stems, where it was due to a Latin phonetic law (ch. iv. § 155), e. g. tensus for *tend-tus, ūsus older ùssus, for *īt-tus, *oit-to-, flexus for *flectus, salsus for *sald-to- (cf. Goth. saltan), perculsus for *kld-to- (cf. clādes), to others where the Perfect has $s$ ( $x$ ), e.g. farsus (cf. farsi Perf.), fixus (cf. fixi; but fictus from fingo, finxi), just as the analogy of haesi has produced the late form haes-ūrus, and hausi (P. P. P. haustus), haus-ūrus beside hausturus, or as the analogy of the Present Tense is followed in O. Lat. sortus (surtus?) with -rtfor -rct-, ch. iv. § 157) for *surrectus (Paul. Fest. 423. I Th. 'suregit' et 'sortus' pro surrexit, et quasi possit fieri surrectus, frequenter posuit Livius), expergitus for experrectus Lucil. iii. 56 M . ; Lucr. iii. 929, \&c.).

On Oscan prúfto- 'probatus,' Umbr. vas̀eto- (from stem vakā-), \&c., which have been compared with Lat. crĕpitus from crepāre, implüčitus from implicare, see von Planta, i. p. 214. The difficulties which they offer have not yet been satisfactorily removed.

In Italian, French, and Roumanian the ending -ütus (like statūtus, minütus, \&c.) has become the normal ending of the P. P. P. of the third Conjugation; e. g. Ital. venduto, Fr. vendu, Roum. vindut, point to a Vulg. Lat. vendūtus for venditus (see Meyer-Lübke, Rom. Gram. ii. p. 370). (Cf. §5r, above, on the encroachment of the Perfect in $-u i$ in Vulg. Lat.) For the Past Part. of sum the Italian and French languages use status (Ital. stato, Fr. été, \&c.) (ib. p. 385). A Romance example of a P.P.P. which has become an Adj. is strictus with the sense of ' narrow' (Ital. stretto, Fr. étroit, Span. estrecho).
§ 93. 'Truncated' Participles. Priscian (i. 534. 6 H.) says: 'retus' pro retitus dicebant, quomodo 'saucius' pro sauciatus, et 'lassus' pro lassatus, et 'lacerus' pro laceratus et 'potus' pro potatus; Gellius (xix. 7) quotes from Laevius 'oblitteram' gentem for oblitteratam, with other novelties such as 'accipitret' for laceret, 'pudoricolorem' auroram, curis 'intolerantibus' for intolerandis.
§ 94. IX. THE GERUND AND GERUNDIVE. The Gerundive (Adj.) in -ndo-, Umbro-Oscan -nno- (e.g. Osc. trííbúm . . . úpsannam deded 'domum . . . operandam dedit,' Umbr. esonir . . . popler anferener et ocrer pihaner 'sacris . . . populi circumferendi et arcis piandae,' Gen. of 'Purpose') has beside it in Latin, but not, so far as we can tell, in Umbro-Oscan, a Gerund (Neut. Noun) in -ndo-, which seems to stand to the Gerundive in the same relation as an Impersonal to a Personal Verb, eundum est in antiquam silvam being Impersonal like itur in antiquam silvam. Until more Umbro-Oscan inscriptions with this formation have been discovered, it is rash to attempt a history of the Gerundive and Gerund on Italian soil. The evidence at present at our disposal points to the Adjectival use as having been the original one, shared by all the Italic languages, e.g. domus aedificanda, iter cognoscendae antiquitatis (ch. vi. §20, p. $3^{8} 3$ n.). In the older Latin writers when this formation is turned into finite form, i. e. when a statement is made by means of it, the usual method is to employ the Gerund with est governing an object, e.g. agitandum est vigilias, imperandum est servis, carendum est urbe ; but in classical Latin the Gerundive is preferred if the Verb is one which governs the Accusative, e.g. agitandae sunt vigiliae, but still as before, imperandum est servis, carendum est urbe (see Roby, Lat. Gram. $i^{2}$. Pref. pp. lxi sqq.); and the transition from the impersonal to the personal mode of expression, marked by a construction like Plautus' nominandi istorum copia (a construction allowed by Cic. with a Gen. Pl. for the sake of euphony, e. g. facultas agrorum condonandi) is like the transition from 'factum itur contumeliam' to Cato's contumelia factum itur (§87).

The origin of the Gerundive suffix still remains doubtful, after all the theories that have been started to account for it (see especially Brugmann, Grundriss, ii. $\S \S 69$ and 1103 ; Thurneysen, K.Z. xxx. 493 ; Conway, Class. Rev. v. 296). In the third and fourth Conjugations the form -ĕndo- cannot be a phonetic
development of -ŏndo- through weakening of the vowel ŏ in the unaccented syllable, for we have anfereno- for *ămbhĭ-bhěrĕndǒin Umbrian, where a weakening of this kind would not be found. Although the form -endo- became the approved form in classical Latin, while -ŭndo-(from an earlier -ŏndo-) was relegated to the legal and archaistic style, e. g. rès rĕpĕtundae, yet the classical form is found on the earliest inseriptions. On the Senatus Consultum de Bacchanalibus of 186 b. c. (C. I. L. i. 196) we have exdeicendum ' edicendum' and faciendam, and on the Lex Repetundarum of 122-123 в. c. (i. 198) tribuentei, fruendeis, frucndum, \&c. stand side by side with legundis, scribundi, deferunilo, quaerunilai, \&e. The two are rather parallel endings like $-\breve{o n t}$ - and -c̆nt- in the Pres. Part. Act. (see § 90), although the ultimate acceptance of the $\breve{\mathrm{E}}$-form in both these cases may have been helped by the Latin tendency to turn a short unaccented vowel before a consonant-group into $\breve{c}$ (ch. iii. § i 8 ).

With the Cierundive suifix are evidently connected the suffixes of Adjectives in -bundo-,-cundo-, \&c., e. g. erriū-bundus, $\bar{\imath} r \overline{-}-c u n d u s$, rŭl̆̈-cundus, rơtundus (ef. O. Ir. cruind, 'round,' ālaind, 'beautiful'?). The $l$ of the first of these has been referred to the root bheu- of fui, \&c., the $c$ of the seeond to the suffix seen in rŭlü-care, alli-care, \&c. (above § 27 , ch. v. § 3 r ).
§ 95. Origin of the suffix -ndo-. The suffix -do- of lūci-clus, \&c. has been referred to the verb dare, so that luci-dus would really mean 'giving light' (ch. v. §67). In the Gerundive this same suffix (cf. Aius from aio, Panda from pando. \&e., ch. v. $\S \S 2,3$ ) may perhaps be joined not with a stem, as in lucitus, hut with an Accusative case, as -lex (from dico) is in vin-dex (ch. v. § 8o), or as the finite verb is joined in composition with an Accusative in renun-do, vendo, pessum-llo. These may be relics of a mode of expression that prevailed much more widely in the pre-literary period of Latin. The combination of Active and Passive sense, which is so peculiar a feature of the Latin Gerundive forms, e.g. 'agitandum est vigilias' Act., and 'agitandae sunt vigiliae' Pass., and 'anulus in digito subtertenuatur habendo' Act.-Pass., may then be explained from the double sense that can be attached to an expression like rübōren dare, (1) to blush, Neut., (2) to cause to blush, Act. The Accusatives will be Accusatives of Verbal Noun-stems *rotam-dus, *lundam-dus (laudăndus, Audacis exc. 359. 15 K.), *rubem-dus, *habem-dus (Ital. provienda points to habëndus), ${ }^{\text {ferröm-dus (with }}$ *erèm-dus; cf. ferē-bam, § 34) (see § 34 on rubë-facio, \&c., i-licet, \&c., and cf. the Zend Inf. dąm, 'to set, to give'). That -md- became -nd- in Latin, but -nn- (often written $n$ ) in Umbro-Oscan, we see from Lat. quon-dam, ruan-llo, Umbr. ponne and pone, Osc. pon from *qnom-dĕ.
§ 96. Adjectives in -bundo-,-cundo-, \&c. Examples of -bundo- from Verbs
of the first Conjugation : errī-bundus, praeld̄̄-bundus (Sall., \&c.), popultā-bundus (Liv., \&c.), vertilī-bundus (Varr. Men. 108 B.) ; of the second : püdǐ-bundus (Aug. poets) ; of the third: fürǐ-bundus, mŏř--bundus, quĕri-bundus, trěmĕ-bundus (cf. treme-facio, treme-sco), frèmè-bundus (Accius, with fremi-?, and Aug. poets); of the fourth : lasciri-bundus (Plaut. Stich. 288 ; the quantity of the third vowel is not decided by the metre, but must be long). Examples of -cundo- are from
 from the second: fê-cunclus (cf. fêe-tus', věrēe-cundus (from Plaut. onwards), rŭbй-cundus (Ter., \&c.; cf. rubĕ-facio). Ròtündus has -ündo- (ef. Ital. rotondo, Span. redondo, \&c.) from -obdo- (on the spelling rutumdus, see ch. iii. § 33 . Söcienmus, a Plautine word for sơcius (Aw. 659), may be a dialectal form (Plautus was an Umbrian), of which the true Latin equivalent would be *sociendus.
§ 97. Some Irregular Verbs. The irregularity of many verbs consists in their use of different stems for different tenses. The Substantive Verb shows the root ES- in some tenses (§2), the root BHEU- in others, e.g. Pft. fuil ${ }^{1}$; and the heteroclite conjugation of verbs like 'to be,' 'to go' seems to date from the I.-Eur. period. Other Latin examples are fio (for *ficio from bhw-, a weakened form of the root bheu-; cf. Osc. fiet, fiet ( fient') and factus sum ; fërio and percussi; fĕro and tüli (O. Lat. tétului, § 39), the Perfect being taken from the root of O. Ind. tul-, ' to lift,' Gk. $\tau \epsilon \tau \lambda$ ával, Ir. tallaim, 'I take away,' Goth. pulan, 'to endure,' Scoteh thole ; tollo for tol-no (Ir. tallaim), with the Nasal Present-stem and sustŭli for sustĕtūli (§ 44), with Preposition and Aorist- or Weak stem (§ 3); vescor and pasturs sum ; arguor and convictus sun ; rĕnüniscor and recorlatus sum; mĕleor and mĕflücatus sum ; surgo differs from surrexi and surrectus in being syncopated (cf. porgo and porrigo) ; a contracted form of the P. P. P., sortus, is said by Fest. 422.5 Th. (cf. Paul. Fest. 423. 1) to have been frequently used by Livius Andronicus; Virgil ( $A$. iv. 183) uses the full form sub-rigo in an active sense: tot subrigit aures; on vīs beside cǒlo, see §3. Other verbs, classed as Irregular, are the Defective Verbs: coepi (the Present coopio is found in O. Lat., see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v., e. g. Plaut. Men. 960 neque ego litis coepio ; Pers. 121 coepĕre Inf.; on coepi dissyll. and coépi trisyll., see ch. ii. § 150); inquam for

[^106]*ind-squam (ch. iv. § 158 ) from the root seq $^{u}$-, ' to speak' (W. heb, O. W. hepp, 'quoth he,' \&c.), the unweakened form of which appears in O. Lat. insĕque Imperat., insequis, ' narras, refers, et interdum pergis'’ C. G. L. v. 78. 1o [or *in(d)-vequam from the root weq ${ }^{u}$ - ?] ; inque, an Imperat. of inquam, is used by Plaut., and the $2 \mathrm{Sg} ., \& c$. of Pres., inquis, inquit, inquiunt and of Fut., inquies, inquiet are frequent, but inquio Pres. Ind. is not found till Late Lat. (cf. inquio 'dico,' C. G. L. iv. 250. 27). [On the parts in use of inquam, ăio for $*_{\text {ughl-io (ch. iv. § 116), infit }}$, see Neue ii ${ }^{2}$. p. 612 ; infio is quoted from Varro by Priscian, i. p. 450.17 H.; ai Imperat. (a dissyll.) is used by Naevius, Com. 125 R. uel aï uel nega (but aie 'incipe, dic,' C. G. L. v. 165.7 , like infe 'incipe, dic, narra,' ib. 21 1. 10 , infens ‘ dicens,' ib. 211. 37) ; the two vowels of aio are sometimes united in a diphthong, e.g. aibam (dissyll.), ain (monosyll.) in a phrase like ain vero? 'do you really mean that?'; on the spelling aiio, see ch. i. § 7.]

Possum is found in the older writers in its uncompounded form pŏtis and pŏtĕ sum (examples in Georges, Lex. Wortf. s.v., Neue, $\mathrm{ii}^{2} . \mathrm{p} .600$ ) ; pote is properly the Neuter of potis, e. g. pote est (class. potest), it is possible, but the Masc. (and Fem.) and Neut. forms are used of any gender and of any number, e.g. potis est, it is possible, Ter. Phorm. 379, credo equidem potis esse te, scelus, Plaut. Pseud. 1302 ; so with potis and pote, without sum, just as O. Ind. îsvará -, 'able,' which is used with the sense of 'can,' though generally agreeing with the subject, sometimes appears in the stereotyped form īśvarás (Delbrück, Altind. Syntax, p. 88). In Oscan we have a derivative verb used in this sense, putiians and putians 'possint,' putiiad and pútíad 'possit' (cf. Lat. pŏtui, like mŏnui from moneo), but the Latin derivative potio is used in the sense of ' potem facere,' potior (fourth and third Conj.) of 'potis fieri' [cf. potior fieri used in the sense of potiri, Plaut. Cas. 112 quam tu eius potior fias, like certior (and certus) fieri], e.g. eum nunc potiuit pater seruitutis, Plaut. Amph. 178; postquam meus rex est potitus hostium, Capt. 92; regni potiri, Cic. On possimus for possumus in MSS. of Virgil, Ecl. vii. 23 and perhaps viii. 63 : non omnia possumus omnes, also in the Verona Palimpsest of Gaius (99, 14; 101, 2), \&c., see ch. ii.
§ 16. Possem for potessem has been explained by the Analogy of possum (for pot(e)-sum) beside potis-sum, possin beside potis-sim.

Mälo, a contraction of mävŏlo ${ }^{1}$, seems to come similarly from măgĕ (a byform of magis, ch. ix. § 4) united into a word-group with roblo, and nōto from the Negative nĕ- and volo, though the exact process of phonetic or analogical change by which the various parts of these verbs arose is not easy to trace.
 was written cävi, § 39. 4), much as I.-Eur. gy or gw became Lat. $v$ (ch. iv. § I 39). And nĕ-vŏlo (for the word-group cf. ne-scio, nĕ-queo, Engl. cannot) may have become *nŏrŏlo as I.-Eur. *nĕwos became Lat. nŏvus (ch. iv. § 10), and similarly $*_{\text {novis, }}$ *novolt, $^{*}$ novolumus, ${ }^{\text {novoltis, }}{ }^{\text {n novolunt. }}$ By loss of intervocalic $v$ (ch. ii. § 53) arose nölo (the only form known to Plautus), nölumus, noltis (ap. Diom. 386. 19 K.), nōlunt, while O. Lat. nĕ-vis, nĕ-volt, as well as class. non-vis, non-vult, nonvultis are re-formations. On Imperat. nōt $\bar{\imath}$ see $\S 2$, and on the spellings mallo, nollo, ch. ii. § 129. Another account of mā-volo makes its first element the Comparative Adverb $*_{\text {mā }} *_{\text {mō }}$ (see ch. x. § 6 on im-mo), and not mage.
§ 98. Irregular Verbs in Romance. Of Lat. sum the Vulg. Lat. Inf. essĕre (Ital. essere, Fr. être, Span. ser), and P. P. P. status (Ital. stato, Fr. été), have been already mentioned ( $\S \S 83,92$ ); the Pres. Subj. seems to have been siam (Ital. sia, Span. sea, O. Fr. soie). For Lat. eo various verbs were united in the Vulg. Lat. paradigm, e. g. Fr. je vais from Lat. vādo), nous allons (from Lat. ambulo ?). Lat. hăbeo was, owing to its Auxiliary use, shortened to a declension like hayo, has, hat . . . haunt (Ital. ho, hai, ha .. . hanno ; Fr. ai, as, a . . . ont; Span. he, has, ha . . . han). Vulg. Lat. voleo, volēre Inf. (Ital. voglio, volere; Fr. veux, vouloir) by Analogy of Pft. volui, as Vulg. Lat. potēre (Ital. potere, Span. poder) by analogy of potui, have been cited in $\S \S 33 a, 83$.

1 Both mavolo and malo, mavelim and malim occur in Plautus, but malo, malim, \&c. are predominant later, though we have mavolo once at the
end of a line in Terence, Hec. 540. Mallem is not found in Platutus, only marellem (Solmsen, Stud. Lautg. p. 55.)

## CHAPTER IX.

## ADVERBS AND PREPOSITIONS.

§ 1. ADVERBS. Latin Adverbs are for the most part cases of Nouns, Adjectives (or Participles), and Pronouns, the cases most frequently found being the Accusative (cf. O . Ind. náktam, 'by night,' satyám, ‘truly,' Acc. Sg. Neut., pratarấm Acc. Sg. Fem., Gk. $\pi \rho o ́ \tau \epsilon \rho о v$ Acc. Sg. Neut., $\mu а к \rho a ́ v ~ A c c . ~ S g . ~ F e m ., ~$ к $\rho$ úфa Acc. Pl. Neut.), Ablative (cf. O. Ind. dūrátt, 'afar') [also Instrumental (?), cf. O. Ind. dívā, 'by day,' Gk. ả $\lambda \lambda \eta]^{1}$, and Locative (cf. O. Ind. dūré, ' afar,' Gk. oǐкоı, àvaı $\mu \omega \tau \epsilon$ í, éкоขтí), and often retain case-forms which have become obsolete in the ordinary declension. Thus, -im, the original form of the Acc. Sg. suffix of I-stems (ch. vi. § 29), which in classical Latin was replaced by the -em of Consonant-stems, e. g. partem from the stem parti-, like militem from the stem milit-, is retained in Adverbs like partim, and in the Adverbial Accusatives of Verbal Noun I-stems, e.g. raptim from the stem rapti- (class. raptiōn-, ch.v.§42), sensim from the stem sensi- (class. sension-), uni-versim (Osc. úíníveresím) \&c. ; nox, an old equivalent of noctu, seems to be an early byform of noctis Gen.; - $\bar{e}$ (older $-\bar{c} l)$, the suffix by which Adverbs derived from Adjective O -stems are formed in the Italic languages, is an Abl. Sg. suffix (parallel with - $\bar{o}$, older $-\overline{o l l}$, ch. vi. § 33), which has been reserved for Adverbs alone. The Adverbial suffix -tus (I.-Eur. *-tüs) of fundl̆-tus, dīvīñ̆-tus, \&c., is in O. Ind. occasionally used as an Ablative suffix (Sing. or Plur.) of Nouns, e. g. mātr-tas, Abl. Sg. of mātár-, 'a mother,'

[^107]śatru-tas, Abl. Pl. of šátru-, 'an enemy'; and this close relation of Noun and Adverb suffixes makes it difficult to draw any hard and fast line between the suffixes used in the formation of Adverbs, and the suffixes used in the declension of Nouns. An example of a purely Adverbial suffix is -iēs (older -iens), by which most Numerals form their Adverbs, e. g. sex-ies (cf. tott-ies, $q u \check{t}$-ies), or the $*$-mente of the Romance languages, e.g. Fr. facile-ment, Span. facil-mente, which is nothing but the Abl. Sg . of Latin mens, just as the -versus, -versum (older -vorsus, -vorsum) of quäquäversus ( $-m$ ), ăliōvorsum (contracted aliorsum), retrōoorsum (contracted retrorsum, retrosum), rursus ( $-n$ ) for reversus $(-m)$, \&c. are nothing but the Nom. Sg. Masc. (see below) and Acc. Sg. Neut. of the P.P.P. of verto, to turn, or as the -tĕnus of hactenus, ŭlı̆quätenus, \&c. is the Acc. Sg., employed adverbially, of the old neuter noun tenus, a stretching, used by Plautus in the sense of a string or snare ( $\$ 54$ ). The Adverbs derived from Pronouns, e. g. $\breve{\iota} b i$, inde, illine, offer special difficulty, because of our ignorance of the full number of case-suffixes used in the I.-Eur. declension of the Pronoun. Thus -am of quam, tam, nam, jam is naturally taken as Acc. Sg. Fem., but it has also been referred to an Instrumental formation with the suffix $-m,-m i ̆$, which appears in the Instrumental case of Nouns and Pronouns in Balto-Slavic (ch. vi. §36) ; and various other Latin Adverbs in -m, usually called Accusatives, have been referred to the same source.

Adverbs in -ter, e. g. brĕrǔter, are best explained as Nominatives Singular Mase. of stems in -těro-, a Stem-suffix which occurs in various pronominal and locative Adjectives, e.g. al-ter, dex-ter, \&c. (ch. v. § 16) ( $\breve{\imath}$-terum is an Acc. Sg. Neut. of a similar formation), though they have been also referred to the noun $\check{\imath}$ ter, brev-iter. corresponding to German kurz-weg. Other examples of a Nom. Sg. Masc. Adjective stereotyped as an Adverb are probably deinceps, which was declined in O. Lat. like princeps, though it might be regarded as Acc. Sg. Neut. (cf. exordium princeps), demus an O. Lat. byform of dèmum; more certainly adversus, rursus, \&c., the byforms of adversum, rursum, and other compounds of versus ( $-m$ ), \&c.

Examples of Acc. Sg. Neut. forms are, beside the Adverhs in
-tim (-sini) just mentioned, Adverbs in -um like $\check{\imath}$-terum, another time (Acc. of *itero-, O. Ind. ítara-, 'other,' from the Pronounstem i-, ch. vii. § 13 , with the suffix -tero-, ch. v. § 16), cē-terum (ch. x. §5), commödum (beside commode), multum, părum (§ 7), plērum-que (p. 559), vèrum, tantum, along with some Superlatives like mŭnı̆mum (usually minime), potissimum, insānum (not insane in Plaut.) 'very,' and occasional Adverbs from I-stem Adjectives, e.g. fücŭl̆̈, difficile, sublīmĕ (though -iter is the usual suffix, e.g. breviter, fülēliter, the formation in - $\breve{e}$ being reserved for poetry, e. g. dulce ridentem . . . dulce loquentem, Hor.). The comparative degree of the Adverb is always the Acc. Sg. Neut. of the Comparative Adjective, e. g. longius, facilius, brevius. Accusatives Sing. of Nouns used Adverbially are vŭcem, id gĕnus, \&c., to which we may add an Acc. Pl. föräs, which is only used with verbs of motion towards (foras ire, like rus ire, domum ire), and seems to be Acc. Pl. of *fora (Gk. $\begin{gathered}\text { v́pa), a door. Of Acc. Pl. }\end{gathered}$ Neut. forms we have ceteră (Virg. A. ix. 656 cetera parce puer bello), omnia (Virg. A. iv. $55^{8}$ omnia Mercurio similis ; C.I. L. vi. II44 omnia magno Constantino), possibly the O. Lat. forms contrŭu [for which contrā, an Abl. Sg. Fem., was used in class. Lat., and contrul, an Abl. Sg. Neut. (cf. Lat. contrō-versia), in Oscan], and frustră (class. frustrā).

Of Ablatives we have for O-stems, beside the $\bar{e} d$-suffix already quoted (a suffix used to form the Superlative Degree of Adverbs, e. g. facillume, O. Lat. facilumed, brevissüme), the ordinary ōdsuffix (ch.vi.§ 33), e.g. certo (beside certe), vero (beside vere), assĭduo (usually assidue), explōräto (and explorate), mĕrĭto and immerito (neither of these are Adverbs in Plautus, for they are used with meo, tuo, \&c.), festīnäto (also festinatim), fortū̆to (also fortuitu; see ch. v. § 49). Examples of Ablatives Sg. Fem. are dextèrā (scil. parte), rectā (scil. via), eādem (scil. opĕra), extrā, suprā. As was pointed out before (ch.vi. § 36), the loss of final $d$ after a long vowel at the beginning of the 2nd cent. в. c. makes it impossible to be certain that some of these 'Ablatives' (e. g. ūna, omninno) are not really Instrumentals (e.g. Gk. $\lambda \alpha \alpha^{\prime} \theta \rho \bar{a}, ~ \kappa o \iota \nu \eta$ ? ?) ; for it is natural to suppose that the Instrumental suffix, whose existence in the Latin declension of Nouns is difficult to establish (ch. vi. $\S 3^{6}$ ), may have survived in Latin as an Adverbial suffix. The
shortening of $-\bar{o}$ (by the Law of Breves Breviantes, ch. iii. § 42) in čttŏ, mödŏ, and of -ē in bĕnĕ, mŭlĕ, is no proof that these words ended originally in $-\bar{o},-\bar{e}$ (Instr.) and not in $-\overline{o l l},-\bar{e} l l$ (Abl.), but should be referred to their greater use in every-day speech (cf. hăvĕ beside mŏnē,\&c. in Quintilian's time, ch. iii. § 42), and their more frequent occurrence in word-groups, e. g. bene-rem-gĕras, malesänus (cf. diëquinti beside fưlē, ch. iii. §44). It is only rarely that the occurrence of an Adverb on an old Latin inscription, or on inscriptions written in Oscan, or some other dialect which retained $-d$, enables us to decide, e.g. O. Lat. meritorl (meretorl), pororl, extrad, supral, Osc. contrud, Falisc. rected, which are Abl. forms, Osc. suluh, 'wholly,' from the stem sollo-, all, whole, which is called an Instrumental form (but see ch. vi. § 36). The third Declension 'Abl.' (originally a Consonant-stem Locative, ch.vi. § 37) appears in fortĕ, spontĕ, rĕpentĕ (O. Lat. dèrepente), \&c., and the Plural Abl. (Instr. Loc.) in grätīs (older gratiis), 'for mere thanks' (cf. Ter. si non pretio, at gratiis), ingratios (ingratis), förīs (used with verbs of rest, e. g. foris manere, occasionally with verbs of motion from, e. g. foris venire), alternis. Examples of Locatives of U-stems are hiumi (first found in Terence, Andr. 726), postrī-diē, die crastı̆nū, noctū (cf. O. Ind. aktāú) (see ch. vi. $\S \S 37-38$ ).

Pronominal Adverbs show various suffixes: (1) -bī (older -bei) with locative sense, e.g. $\breve{l} b \bar{\imath}, \breve{u} b \bar{\imath}$, also $i b \breve{u}$, $u b \breve{u}$, with final vowel either shortened by the Breves Breviantes Law (ch. iii. § 42), or originally short (cf. Osc. puf); (2) $-\bar{\imath}$ (older $-e i$ ), the Locative O-stem suffix, e.g. O. Lat. illi, isti, there, which in classical Latin always have the particle $-c(e)$ appended, $i l l-\bar{i}-c$, ist $-\bar{i}-c$; (3) $-\bar{\sigma}$, to indicate motion to a place, e.g. $e \bar{o}, q u \bar{o}, ~ i s t \bar{o}$, aliō, apparently Abl. forms like porrō (O. Lat. pororl); O. Lat. hoc, istoc, illoc may represent *hŏd-c(e), *istöll-c(e),*illöll-ce, Acc. Sg. Neut., for in class. Lat. we have huc, istuc, illuc ; (4) $\bar{u}$, to indicate direction, manner, \&c., e.g. qua, ea, which like quo, eo are Abl. forms (O. Lat. arvorsum eall), not Instrumental like Greek $\pi \hat{\eta}$, $\tau a \dot{\tau} \tau \eta$, $\pi \dot{a} \nu \tau \eta$ (afterwards confused with Dative $-\eta$ ); (5) -im, to indicate motion from a place, e.g. illim, istim, which in class. Lat. always append the particle -ce, illinc, istinc (cf. hinc, dehinc) ; (6) -nde, with similar sense, in unde, inde; this inde is shortened by syncope of the final vowel to -in in the Compounds proin, dein,
exin, \&c. (ch. iii. § 36). Other endings like -dam of quondam (cf. quidam), -lem of qut-dem, tan-dem, with the sense of 'exactly,' ' precisely' in ibi-llem, tantī-llem (cf. ìlem, ch. vii. § 21), -tem of $\check{\iota}$-tem, $-t a$ of $\check{\iota}$-ta, are apparently case-forms of pronominal stems, as -yuam of un-quam, us-quam (cf. quis-quam), appears to be Ace. Sg. Fem. of the stem *quo-. (See ch. x. on the Conjunctions.)

Other Adverb formations are (1) in -färiam, indicating division, e.g. ľ̌-fariam, quadrü-fariam (cf. Gk. -фắбos from -фatıos, e.g. $\tau \rho \iota-\phi$ árıos); (2) in -sĕcus, indicating motion from a place; this secus is an Adverbial Noun, and is appended to Adverbial forms in -im, e.g. extrin-secus, intrin-secus, altrin-secus, as -tenus to Abl. Sg. Fem. forms, e.g. quā-tenus, aliquā-tenus, eä-tenus; it is derived from the root seq ${ }^{\mathrm{u}}$-, 'to follow,' and must be distinguished from (1) the Adverb sĕcus, otherwise (O. Ir. sech, 'beyond,' W. heb, ' without'); (2) the Adverbial Noun sĕcus, a Neuter byform of sexus, used in phrases like: trecenti occisi sunt virile secus, ' 300 were killed of the male sex ' (see § 50 on the Preposition secus). The Abl. fiñ (fïnĕ) occurs in O. Lat., like tenus, after an Abl., e.g. senem osse fini dedolabo, Plaut., oleas operito terra radicibus fini, Cato ; but came to take a Genitive, e.g. amphoras nolito implere nimium, ansarum infimarum fini, Cato; fine inguinum ingrediuntur mare, Sall.

Instances of Adverbial word-groups are all-fŭtim, sufficiently, lit. 'to weariness,' ald-mŏlum, quem-al-modum, quä-rë, quam-obrem, dē-nuō for de nŏro, sē-dŭlō for se dolo, $\bar{\imath}$-liccō perhaps for in sloco (old form of lücı), ī-lĭcet, scī-licet, vüde-licet, im-primis, dumtaxat, \&c.

In the Romance languagres Lat. mente (p. 549) is the favourite Adverbial suffix, though Lat. $-\bar{o}(-u m)$ is not uncommon, e. g. Vulg. Lat. alt $\bar{o}$ or alt.nm (Ital. alto, Fr. haut, Span. alto) (-iter has been lost). Mente (Abl. of mens) retains a trace of its independence in usages like Span. temeraria y locamente, O. Fr. humle e dulcemente. So firmly lias it established its footing as Adverbial suffix that it is even added to already formed Adverbs, e.g. Ital. quasimente, O. Fr. ausiment. (For fuller details of the formation of Adverbs in Romance, see Meyer-Lübke, Rom. Gram. ii. pp. 637 sqq.).
§ 2. Nominative Adverb-forms. Breviter, \&c. are better considered Nom. Sg. Masc. than Acc. Sg. Neut. for *brevi-terum, since the loss of -um seems only to occur in a few words of constant use, such as noenum, ni(hi)lum, which came to be employed exclusively in that doublet-form which the words assumed before a vowel, e. g. no(e)n(um) est, ni(hi)l(um) habeo (ch. iii. § 52). Iterum did not become *iter, nor ceterum, *ceter. The crystallizing of the Nom. Sg. Masc. of the Adjective as an Adverb, used with any number or gender, finds a parallel in the extension of pötis, properly Nom. Sg. Masc., Fem. only, e. g. potis sum, potis es, potis est ille, potis est illa, to all persons and numbers of the Verb, e. g. quî istuc potis est fieri ?, Plaut., with Neuter subject (see ch. viii. § 97). The Adverbs (Prepositions) praeter, propter, \&c. might be similarly explained ; praeter it ille, ${ }^{*}$ praetera it illa, *praeteri eunt illi became praeterit, praetereunt without distinction of gender or number (but see p. 554). Nüper (Superl. nuperrime) appears to be Nom. Sing. Masc. of the Adjective nupěro- (Plaut. Capt. 718 recéns captum hominem, núperum, nouicium) for *nŏvi-pĕro-, 'newly acquired,' unless it is Acc. Sg. Neut. of an I-stem Adj. (ch. v. § 34) for *nupere. Fŭcul (Paul. Fest. 6ı. 32 Th. 'facul' antiqui dicebant et 'faculter' pro facile ; Fest. 266. 20 Th. 'perfacul' antiqui, et per se 'facul' dicebant, quod nune facile dicimus; Non. rif. 2r M. 'facul' pro faciliter, huic contrarium est 'difficul'), a word used by Lucilius in his description of the Roman patricians (vi. 2 M .) :

> peccare inpune rati sunt
> posse, et nobilitate facul propellere iniquos,
is better regarded as Neut. Sg. for facile, with syncope of -c̆, as in rolup for rolupe, Neut. of *rolupis (ch. iii. § 36), than as Nom. Sg. Masc. of an Adj.-stem faculo- (cf. sacri-ficulus), since the reduction of -lŏs to $-l$ seems to be dialectal only (e. g. Oscan famel) (ch. vi. §4), and not, like the reduction of -rŏs to -r (e. g. Lat., Umbr. ager, Gk. ảrpós), shared by Latin. We have difficicl Nom. Sg. Neut. in Varro Men. 46 B. :
quod utrúm sit magnum an párvum, facile an difficul.
Sïmǔl (older semol, C. I. L. i. ri75, in MSS. of Plautus semul, e. g. Rud. 760, Men. 405) (Umbr. sumel ?) may be Acc. Sg. Neut. of similis, unless it rather shows the L-suffix of 0. Sl. ko-li, ko-lě, ' when,' to-li, to-lě, ' then,' \&c. ; simul and simulter (a byform of similiter, used by Plaut. Pseud. 382) correspond to facul and faculter. Deinceps was declined like princeps in O. Lat. (Paul. Fest. 53. I Th. 'deincipem' antiqui dicebant proximo quemque captum, ut principem primum captum ; cf. ib. 50. 5), and may have been associated with princeps in a fragmentary line on the Lex Repetundarum (C.I.L. i. 198. 79): iudex deinceps faciat pr[incipe cessante]. Dēmus (cf. Gk. $\tau \hat{\eta} \mu o s$ ) was used by Livius Andronicus (Paul. Fest. 49. 27 Th.) ; it is the reading of the Palatine family of MSS. in Plaut. Truc. 245 : qui de thensauris integris demús danunt (demum oggerunt A), and is required by the metre in Trin. 781. In the Adverbial compounds of rersus the terminations -us and -um compete in the early literature, e. g. rursum and rursus (also russum, rusum, \&c., ch.ii. § ro4; rursum appears to be used in Plaut. after Compounds with re-, e.g. redeo rursum, and at the end of the line', prorsum (with local sense in Plaut. Pers. 677 simulato quasi eas prorsum in navem ; Mil. 1193, \&c.) and prorsus (cf. prosa oratio), sursum and sursus, but in the classical period one of the rival forms often has the monopoly, e.g. rursus, prorsus, sursum (for statistics, see Ritschl, Opusc. ii. 259 ; Neue, Formenl. ii ${ }^{3}$. 743). These compounds show other
adverbial suffixes in ünčersim (Osc. úiníveresim), unnōse for *unō-vorse (Pacuv. Trag. 213 R. óccidisti, ut múlta paucis uérba unose obnúntiem). On the Preposition rersus, see § 58. Adverbs in ter are in classical Latin almost confined to Adjectives of the third Decl. (Cicero in his earlier writings uses hümāniter, but finally discarded it for hümänē), but in the older literature are often formed from O-stem Adjectives [Priscian, ii. 7 o .20 H . gives a list of these from the older writers, e. g. ämīciter, maestiter, Plaut., and the eleventh book of Nonius is devoted to obsolete Adverb forms, especially ( $\mathbf{r}$ ) Adverbs in -ter from O-stem Adjs., (2) in -ĕ from I-stem Adjs, e. g. cělěre, fǔdēle, (3) in -tus, e. g. médullitus, largitus, commünĭtus]. The NT-stems have -nter, e. g. vehementer, impŭdenter, instead of -nt-ter (cf. з Pl. Imper. fëruntō for *feront-tōll, ch. viii. § 57), by dissimilation, some say, for *-nt-i-ter (ch. iii. § 13, p. 176). From audāx we have audacter (less commonly cudā̃īter ; see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.), but from fallüx, fallāc--iter, from löquüx loquūciter, from pröcīx procācìter, \&c. Difficulter is more usual than difficiliter (see Georges) ; füculter is mentioned by Paul. Fest. (61. 32 Th. 'facul' antiqui dicebant et 'faculter'), but füciliter (see Georges) was the form that competed with facil̆ (cf. Mart. Cap. iii. 325 cum difficulter dicamus, cur ' faculter' dici non potest?) ; simulter is quoted from Plaut. Pseud. 382 by Nonius ${ }^{1} 70.19 \mathrm{M}$. Quintilian condemns both cuduciter and faciliter [i.6. 17 inhaerent ei (sc. analogiae) quidam molestissima diligentiae perversitate, ut 'audaciter' potius dicant quam audacter, licet omnes oratores aliud sequantur, et 'emicavit' non emicuit, et 'conire' non coire ; his permittamus et 'audivisse' et 'scivisse' et 'tribunale ' et ' faciliter' dicere], regarding audacter and facile as the true Latin forms.

Other Adverbs that might be called Nominative forms are: éminnus and comminus (the spelling co-minus is due to the analogy of $\bar{e}$-minus; see Georges s. v.), which may be Nom. Sg. of Compound Adjectives (cf. Gk. au̇tú- $\chi \epsilon \rho \rho$, e. g. Soph. Ant. 1175 Aí $\mu \omega \nu \nu$ ö $\lambda \omega \lambda \epsilon \nu$, aủтó $\chi \epsilon \iota \rho \delta^{\prime}$ ai $\mu \dot{\alpha} \sigma \sigma \epsilon \tau a l$ ); rěcens (used with a Perfect Participle, e. g. Lucr. vi. 791 nocturnumque recens extinctum lumen), which is equated with libens by Charisius (114.2I K.): utimur sic 'recens venit,' quod est pro adverbio nomen, ut 'libens dixit.' (Similarly rĕpens comes very near répentĕ in phrases like Liv. xxii. 8. i: repens alia nuntiatur clades); prō-tinus (also prö-ténus), 'stretching forward,' may be the Nom. Sg. of an 0 -stem, as the (somewhat doubtful) form prö-tenis (Afran. Com. ıо 7 R. cómissatum prótenis rectá domum Digredimur) may be the Nom. Sg. of an I-stem (ch. v. § 34) ; sëcus in intrin-secus, \&c., has been sometimes explained as Nom. Sg. of an Adj. *seco., lit. 'following from within.' But these, and indeed all the Adverbs cited as Nominatives, are capable of other explanations; recens (like deinceps) as Acc. Sg. Neut. ; cominus, eminus [with the other Adverbs in $-s$, rursus and other compounds of versus (corsus)] as augmented with the same
 (with dëmus cf. Gk. $\hat{\eta} \mu o s, ~ \tau \hat{\eta} \mu o s$, and for -tenus, -secus, see above) ; praeter, propter, subter are best explained as suffixless Locatives (ch. vi. § 37) like O. Ind. prā-tár, 'early,' sanu-tár, ' away,' Lat. super and Gk. imє́p (cf. O. Ind. uparr-i, with the Locative suffix), Lat. inter and O. Ind. antár (but antári-kṣá-), though they are also capable of being referred to the 0 . Ind. ending of local Adverbs, -tra (I.-Eur. -trë ?), e. g. tátra, 'there,' yátra, 'where,' anyátra (Lat. ăliter ?), 'elsewhere,' *prai-tré, \&c. becoming by syncope *prai-ter, \&c. ; pröcul has been similarly explained as *pro-tle (ch. iv. § 105), by Dissimilation from *pro-tre (ch. iv. §84), or as Acc. Neut. Sg. of a compound Adjective, whose second element
 referred to some extension of the Preposition prŏ by a co-suffix (cf. rěcǐ-pröcus from re-co- and pro-co-, O. Sl. pro-kŭ) ; nūpĕr (Superl. nuperrime) may have as its second component the Preposition per of antio-per (§ 7), sem-per (?), Osc. pert in petiro-pert ' quater,' and as its first the adverbial particle *n $^{\breve{u}}$ (0. Ind. nú, ' now,' Gk. $\nu \hat{v}-\nu, \nu \check{v}$, Lat. nu-dius tertius, \&c., ch. x. § го). The existence of Adverbs in Latin derived from Nom. Sing. case-forms is thus at once natural to imagine and difficult to prove.
§ 3. Genitive Adverb-forms. Examples of nox, used for noctū, in O. Lat. are XII Tab. : si nox furtim faxit; Enn. Ann. 439 M. :
si luci, si nox, si mox, si jam data sit frux ;
(cf. Plaut. Asin. 598, and see Gell. viii. lemm. r). In Lucil. iii. 22 M. it is qualified by mediā, as if nocte :
hine media remis Palinurum peruenio nox.
The parallel Adverbs in other I.-Eur. languages, e. g. Gk. vvィrós, O. Ind. aktốs, 'by night,'vástōs, 'by day'(cf. Germ. nachts), suggest that it is a Genitive form (see however ch. iii.§ 16). Dius, in O. Lat. ' by day,' may then be likewise a Genitive form (I.-Eur. *dĭw-os was the Gen. of the word for ' day,' O.-Ind. divás Gen., Gk. $\Delta$ (fós Gen.) and inter-dius. They have also been explained as suffixless Locatives (ch. iv. § 37), like O. Ind. sa-dívas, 'at once,' pūrvē-dyús, ' early in the morning' (so pĕnĕs may be a suffixless Loc. of pĕnus Neut. § 37). Examples of dius are, Plaut. Merc. 862 noctu neque dius; Titin. Com. 13 R. noctu diusque. Interdius is more common, e.g. Plaut. Asin. 599 : nunc enim ésse negótiosum intérdius uidélicet Solónem ;
(other instances in Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.), just as interdī̃ became the usual word for 'by day,' while di $\bar{u}$ [formed on the analogy of noctū, a U -stem Loc. (ch. vi. §37), according to one theory] is seldom found in this sense. (It is found only in conjunction with noctu, at least in the older writers). Nonius (98. 20 M .) gives as examples Plaut. Cas. 823 (apparently anapaestic) :
noctúque et diu ut uiro súbdola sis;
Aul. fr. 4 nee noctu nec diu; Titin. Com. 27 R. (in his play about the life of the fullones) :
nec nóctu nec diú licet fullónibus quiéscant.
[On diu, for a long time, see ch. x. § 12 ; we have quandius for quamdiu in the epitaph of a litter-bearer (C.I.L. vi. 6308), quamdius (vi. izror)]. Mox has been, like the Adverb nox, explained as an old Genitive-form, or a form with the Adverbial suffix -s (a variety of -sŭ, -sĭ, the suffix of the Loc. Plur. ?, cf. Gk. $\pi \epsilon \rho \rho \xi$ and $\mu \epsilon \tau \alpha \xi \dot{\xi} v)$; its cognates are O. Ind. makṣút, 'soon, quickly,' an Adverb from the Adjective makṣ̆ŭ-, 'quick,' O. Ir. mos- (e. g. mos-ricub, 'I will soon come'), moch,' 'early.' Vix (connected with vicem? must be of similar formation. Per-nox is an Adj. (e.g. lunā pernocte, Ov.), so in Late Lat. pernox et perdius, $-a$, -um.
§4. Accusative Adverb-forms. The Adverbial use of the Accusative Case was a feature of I.-Eur. syntax. In addition to the Latin examples already given (vǐcem, id gĕnus, sĕcus in viřile secus, \&c.), may be mentioned partem (e. g. magnam partem, maximam partem), principüum (e.g. Cato, R.R. I57. I de brassica pythagorea, quid in ea boni sit salubritatisque, principium te cognoscere
oportet). When used alone as an Adverb, the Acc. Sg. partem retains its old form partim (see Gell. $\mathbf{x} .13$ on partim hominum renerunt and Cato's cum partim illorum erat). If saltem is Acc. Sg. of *salti-, a leap, lit. ' with a leap,' 'swiftly, easily, assuredly,' it has taken $\operatorname{tem}$ by analogy of $a u$-tem, $\mathbf{\imath}$-tem, \&c. [saltim, e.g. C. G.L. v. ${ }^{146}$. 13 , is, according to Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v., a late spelling, like decim for decem (ch. ii. § 8 ; cf. B. P. W. xiii. 310 ], for the other Adverbial Accusatives of Verbal Nouns retain, in addition to the old Stem-suffix -ticlass. -tionn-, ch. v. §42), the old form of the Case-suffix, -im. Other examples of these Verbal Adverbs are dŭtêtion from the. Frequentative dătare, whence tutatim lutere, to play at ball (Plaut. Curc. 296), a phrase used in the famous deseription of the coquette (' Naev.' Com. 75 R.) : quasi in choro
ludéns datatim dát se et communém facit. aliúm tenet, alii ádnictat, alibí manus est óccupata, álii peruellít pedem, alii dat anulum áspectandum, á labris alium innocat, cum álio cantat, áttamen aliis dat digito lítteras;
prasertim from sero, lit. 'in the front row' (cf. disertim O. Lat. for diserte); tôlütion, at a trot (see Nonius, 4. r M.), connected with tollo ; strictim (e. g. strictim tonlere, as opposed to per pectinem tondere, Plaut. Capt. 268) from stringo, to graze, touch the surface ; pĕdĕtemptim, cautiously, like sensim, lit. 'feeling,' (Nonius quotes a byform pedepressim, 29. у M.) ; passim from pando ; cursim, hastily, for which Virgil and others use cursu [Abl. Sg. of the Verbal Noun-stem cursu-, like the Comedians' curricülo fugere, abire, percurrere, \&c.), Abl. Sg. of curriculum (cf. Plaut. Trin. rio3, Stich. 337)]; stütim, at once, lit. 'standing,' 'on the spot' like iluccō, §7), is the Acc. Sg. of the Verbal Noun stŭti- (class. stütion-), while O. Lat: stätion (for the $\overline{1}$, see Nonius, 393.5 M. ; Donat. in Phorm. v. 3. 7), comes from a bystem stäti- (cf. stütu- and stātu-); in Plautus the word has the sense of 'standing to one's ground,' e.g. Plaut. Amph. 239 néc recedít loco quín statim rém gerat ; ib. 276 ita statim stant signa; it does not mean 'at once' till Afranius' time (Langen, Beitr. pp. 16 and 337). Parallel with the Adjectives in -āto- derived from Nouns, e.g. togatus from tŏga, and, like them, not postulating the existence of a verb in -are (e.g. *togare) (ch. v. § 28), are Adverbs in -ütim like assulutim, from assüla, a splinter (e.g. Plaut. Capt. 832 áperite hasce ambás foris, Príus quam pultando ássulatim fóribus exitium ádfero), yuttation from gutta, ostiction from ostium, vicatim from vicus, gradation from grŭdus, \&c., also paulutim, pauxillatim, nostration from noster ; cf. nostrates), and from proper names, tongiliatim (tongiliatim loqui, ... a Tongilio parasito, qui ... salutatus convicio responderet ; see Löwe, Prodr.), zopyriation, Lucil. ix. 74 M. Vir forms its Adverb with -itim, tïritim (so propritim Lucr. ii. 975). Confestim comes from a stem *festi-, a byform of which, *festiōn-, is indicated by the Verb festinn, from which Virgil (A. ix. 488) coined the Adj. festīnus. These Adverbs in -tim (-sim) were more frequent in early than in classical Latin (Gellius xii. 15 remarks on their frequency in the historian Sisenna), but returned into fashion at a later period (see A.L.L. viii. 98). Vicissim (which some derive from *ric-essi, a Loc. Plur. of *vix, Acc. vicem) is an abnormal form. In 0 . Lat. we have also vicissatim, with that substitution of -atim for -im, $-m$, which we see in two forms mentioned by Paul. Fest. 79. 12 Th., interatim for intërim and interduation (cf. Plaut. Truc. 882 ?) for interdum. Prō-tı̆nus (also spelt prō-tenus; see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s.v.) meant (i) forward, onward (of
space or time), e.g. en ipse capellas Protenus aeger ago, Virg.; sic vives protinus, Hor.; (2) without interval of space, e.g. Virg. A. iii. 416 cum protinus utraque tellus Una foret, of the traditional connexion of Italy with Sicily; (3) without interval of time, forthwith (its usual sense); quā-tenus (also spelt qua-tinus; see Georges), whose earlier form quatenos is quoted by Festus (346. 34 Th.) from a speech of Scipio Africanus, meant originally (1) 'as far as,' of space, then (2) 'as long as,' of time, then acquired a causal sense like our 'in so far as,' a usage found first in Lucr. ii. 927, \&c., but avoided by the classical prose writers, as well as by Virgil ; in later Latin it took also (4) the sense of 'quomodo,' 'qua ratione,' (5) the final sense of ' ut,' (6) the consecutive sense of 'ut,' (7) the force of an Acc. before an Inf., and was very widely used (see A. L. L. v. 399). (On the Prep. tenus, see § 54. Adverbs in -am are usually called Accusatives Sing. Fem., though a new theory makes them relics of the old $\bar{A}$-stem Instr. Sg. in - $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$, of which - $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ was
 mentals in -m ; see I. F. i. 17). Other examples quoted are: perpăram, falsely, wrongly, said to be Acc. Sg. Fem. of perperus (cf. C. G. L. iv. I4I. 19 ' perperum,' perversum), sc. viam, an Adjective used by the Dramatist Accius in his poem on stage technique (Pragmaticon, fr. inc. i. M.), a precursor of Horace's Ars Poetica :
discribere in theatro pérperos pópularis,
along with the derivative noun perpëritūdo (fr. inc. ii. M.):
ét eo plectuntúr poetae quám suo uitio saépius dúctabilitate cinimi nimia uéstra aut perperitúdine ;
protinam, forth, forward, an O. Lat. Adverb, used always of motion forward from a place of rest (Langen, Beitr. p. 163), e. g. Plaut. fr. ı6 G. dare pédibus protinam sése ab his regiónibus, and sometimes wrongly written protinus in MSS. of Plautus and Terence (e. g. Ter. Phorm. 190), seems to be an Acc. Sg. Fem. of an Adjective-stem *protitino-, as contìnū̄ is Abl. Sg. Neut. of the Adjective-stem continuus ; prō-miscam (e. g. Plaut. Pseud. 1062 ut meá laetitia laétus promiscám siet ; cf. Paul. Fest. 28r. i Th.) is similarly related to the usual pro-miscue (also promisce).

Of Accusative Plural, culicīs (sc. vices), at other times, altērēs quoted (apparently from Cato) by Paul. Fest. 2o. 8 Th., utrusque, on both occasions, used by the historian Cassius Hemina (ap. Non. 183. 25 M. : in Hispania pugnatum bis. utrasque nostri loco moti), and by the comedian Caecilius Statius (Com. 225 R. :

> utque hércle, utrque te, cum ad nós uenis, subfárcinatam uidi),
have been called Locative Plural forms like Gk. $\begin{aligned} & \text { v́piōt, and the occasional use }\end{aligned}$ of fơrās in the sense of fơrīs (better explained as a vulgarism, e. g. Petron. 3o, p. 21. ro B. . III et pridie Kalendas Januarias C. noster foras cenat, the entry on the engagement-tablets of the wealthy parvenu, Trimalchio ; cf. ib. 47, p. 32. ${ }_{4}$ B.) has been referred to the same source ; contra is an Adverb, not a Preposition (but Pers. 13 contra me astat ; cf. Pseud. 156), in Plautus and Terence, e.g. tueri contra (cf. Liv. i. ı6. 6 and ix. 6. 8 contra intueri), auro contra rendere, \&c., and has the final vowel short like frustră (for the quantity -c̆, see Brix, Trin. ${ }^{3}$
introd. p. 20) [ne frustrc̆ sis, 'don't mistake,' is frequent in Plaut.. but frustra sum (cf. ita sum, bene sum, \&c.) is avoided by classical writers (A. L. L. ii. 3), though frustra in Plautus usually occurs with this verb (with other verbs nequiquam)]. Contră can hardly be anything else than Acc. Plur. Neut. (cf. Gk. àvia Pl., àviov Sg.) of $*_{\text {con-t(e)ro. (ch. v. § r6) ; and frustră may be the same }}$ case of a stem *frustro-, whence frustrari [cf. Liv. ii. 3 I. 9 neque frustrabor cives meos neque ipse frustra dictator ero ; Ennius in one of his Saturae (inc. 84 M .) plays on the words frustra and frustrari for four lines consecutively : nám qui lepide póstulat álterum frustrári, Quém frustratur frústra eum dicit esse frústra, and so on, somewhat in the style of the Schoolmaster in the Merry Wires of Windsor]; torrŭ̆ tueri and similar adverbial Accusatives PI. Neut. belong, like dulce ritentem, to the language of poetry. (Servius ad Aen. iii. 594 cetera Graius, \&c., quotes from Sallust sanctus alia ; cf. Tac. Ann. xii. з juvenem et alia clarum, and see A. L. L. ii. 90).

The Comparative Degree of the Adverb is in Latin (as in Greek) expressed by the Acc. Sg. Neut. of the Adjective (the Superlative in Greek, but not in Latin, by the Acc. Pl. Neut.), e. g. pejus (Superl. pessime), longius (Superl. lonyissime). The Adverb corresponding to the Compar. Adj. major (pronounced 'măj-jor,' ch. ii. §55) is not *majus but măgis ; this magis, properly *ma(h)is (Osc. mais), takes its $g$ from magnus, as fïgïra for *fihura (ch. iv. § Ir6) takes its $g$ from fingo, and represents either I.-Eur. *mais (*mais?), (Goth. mais), from a stem mā-, seen in O. Ir. mār (mōr), 'great,' or more probably *maghis from a stem maĝh-, seen in O. Ind. máh-, 'great' (cf. the Oscan name Mahio-). In either case the suffix is -is, the weak grade of the Comparative suffix -ios, seen in Superlatives like Gk. $\pi \lambda \epsilon-i \sigma-\tau o s$, Goth. ma-is-ts, \&c. (ch. vi. $\S 5^{2}$, just as the $-\imath \nu$
 these weak grades ch. iv. § 5 I, and on the Compar. suffix, ch. vi. § 53 , and cf. magis-tro-, minis-tro-, Osc. mins-tro-). This -is seems to have been confused by the Romans with -is, the Nom. Sg. ending of I-stem Adjectives, like facilis, potis, so that from mŭǧ̌s, regarded as a Nom. Sg. Masc. or Fem., was formed măgĕ, a Nom. Sg. Neut., as pŏtĕ from pütís (cf. Serv. ad Aen. x. 48i nune mage sit, \&c.: - mage'... propter metrum dictum est pro magis, sicut etiam 'pote' pro potis, . . . quod adeo in usum venit ut etiam in prosa inveniatur ; Cicero in Frumentaria: mage condemnatum hominem in judicium adducere non posse), whence mävŏlo (pronounced *marvolo?, ch. viii. § 97) for mag(e)-volo ; nĭmı̆s did not produce a parallel Neuter in -č, *nime, perhaps because there existed already a cognate Neuter in -ium, nimium (Neut. of the Adj. nimius) with Comparative sense, 'too much'; but surtǐs, a Noun meaning 'sufficiency' (cf. fütis, § 7), and properly used in sentences like satis est mihi divitiarum, then extended as an Adverb to sentences like satis divitiarum habeo, satis dives sum, developed a Neuter ${ }^{*}$ sate, curtailed to sat ${ }^{1}$ ) ; plus, if plous on the S. C. Bacch. (C. I. L. i. 196, of 186 в. c.) be merely an expression of the sound plūs (as plouruma, Cloul[i] on the epitaph of the actor, i. 1297, seem to show ou for $\bar{u}$,
${ }^{1}$ Another explanation of sat makes it Neut. Sg. of a stem satu- (cf. Lith. sotùs, 'satisfying'), whence, with addition of the suffix -ro-, was formed the Latin Adj. sütür (stem satu-ro-). Puene may similarly represent ${ }^{*}$ paenǔ
(cf. pēnūria). Satin (with the Interrog. Particle -nĕ) is used in questions, e.g. satin abiit? 'has he gone?' Terence puns on satin and satis in Phorm. 683: Satin ést id? Nescio hércle : tantum iússus sum.
ch.iv. § 37 , will have, like magis and nimis, the comparative suffix -is, and will represent *plo-is [cf. ploera, 'plura,' an archaism used by Cicero in his laws (Legg. iii. 3. 6), plo-ir-ume, 'plurimi,' on one of the oldest Scipio epitaphs (i. 32, end of the third cent. в. с. ?)], with root plo-, a variety of the root ple- of Greek $\pi \lambda \epsilon i \omega \nu, \pi \lambda \epsilon i ̂ \sigma \tau o s(c h . v i . ~ § 55)$. That forms like mage, \&c. are not mere expressions of a teridency to drop final $s$ in pronunciation (ch. ii. § 137), we see from a line like Plaut. Poen. 46I : conténtiores máge erunt atque auidí minus, where the final of the word is elided (cf. ch. viii. § 78 on -rĕ and -ris in 2 Sg. Pass.).

For plerum-que, plerum is used in a passage of the historian Sempr. Asellio (ap. Prisc. i. p. 182. is $_{3} \mathrm{H}$. ut fieri solet plerum, ut in victoria mitior mansuetiorque fiat), an Acc. Sg. Neut. of the O. Lat. Adjective plerus, used for example by Pacuvius, Trag 320 R.:
periére Danai, pléra pars pessúm datast.
Other examples of the Adverbial Acc. Sg. Neut. of I-stem Adjectives are : rölŭp for rolupĕ (ch. iii. § 36 ) ; impünĕ from impunis, a compound of in and poena; vilu, an Adverb in common use in the time of Charisius (ri6. 7; 187.7; 883. 14 and 18 K.) ; fudelĕ, quoted from Plaut. Capt. 439 (fac fidele sis fidelis) by Nonius, $5^{12} .59 \mathrm{M}$. ; sublĭmĕ, aloft. For this last we often find sublimen, as in the Plautine expressions sublimen rapere, ferre, auferre, which is nothing but an Adverbial word-group sub limen, ' under or up to the lintel' (on the confusion in MSS. between sublime, sublimem and sublimen, see Ritschl, Opusc. ii. 462); saepĕ, Neut. of an old Adj. *saepis (whence saepio) of which the Superl. is possibly to be read in Plaut. Pers. 633 :
úbi rerum omniúm bonarum cópiast saepissuma,
'the most closely packed store,' ' the densest store' (frĕquens seems to be connected with farcio by a similar transference of meaning).
Gellius (x. i) says that Pompey consulted various authorities, and finally Cicero, on the question whether he should write tertium or tertio consul in the dedicatory inscr. on the temple of Victory, and by his advice wrote merely tert. The distinction between the two words is a slight one, 'during the third year' and 'in the third year.'
§ 5. Ablative (Instr.) and Locative Adverb-forms. The normal formation of Adverbs from O-stem Adjectives was in -ē, older -ēd (e. g. facilumed on the S. C. Bacch., C. I. L. i. rg6 ; cf. Falisc. rected, Osc. amprufid 'improbe,' Umbr. rehte, totce 'publice'), a suffix which in classical Latin was distinctive of 0 -stems as -(i)ter of 1 - and Consonant-stems. The ending - $\overline{0}$ (the Abl. suffix, originally - $\bar{o} d$; possibly in some words the Instrumental suffix, originally $-\overline{0}$, but see below) competes, as we have seen, with $-\bar{e}$ in some Adverbs formed from 0 -stem Adjectives, and is exclusively used by good writers in sŭbito (cf. O. Lat. desubito), omnīno, mĕrito (meritod, C. I. L. i. 190), the Abl. of meritum, desert (cf. Plaut. Asin. 737 meritissimo ejus), \&c. Charisius seems to say that the use of to for -e in Adverbs was a feature of some dialects of Latin ( 193.16 K . non quia negem ultra Safinum interque Vestinos Teatinis et Marrucinis esse moris e litteram relegare, o videlicet pro eadem littera claudentibus dictionem). Adverbs formed from 0 -stem Nouns have - $\bar{\sigma}$, e. g. mŏd $\check{0}$, with Adverb or Preposition prefixed in postmodo, prŏpĕmodo [these
are not early forms ; postmodo is indeed read in Ter. Hec. 208, but propemodum is the only form used in the old Drama. Asinius Pollio (Cic. Fam. x. 33. 1) seems to have introduced the form postmodo into prose, and Livy prefers it to postmodum (see Neue, $\mathrm{ii}^{3}$. p. 600)] ; O. Lat. antigerio (antiqui pro valde dixerunt, Paul. Fest. 6. 18 Th. ; vel admodum vel imprimis, Gl. Placid.; cf. G1. Philox.), a word described by Quintilian (viii. 3.25 ; cf.i.6.40) as quite obsolete in his day, apparently Abl. Sg. of a Verbal Noun, an IO-stem (ch. v. § 4), anti-gerium from antĕ and gěro, a carrying in front; O. Lat. nümëro, quickly, or too quickly, e. g. Plaut. Men. 287 numero huc aduenis ad prandium, whence Varro (ap. Non. $35^{2 .} 32 \mathrm{M}$.) derives the name Numerius, 'prematurely born,' a Beneventan name first introduced into the Roman aristocracy, according to the tradition, by a Fabius who married the daughter of a rich citizen of Beneventum (Fest. 178. $3^{2}$ Th.) ; numero, probably used originally with Verbs of motion, may mean ' with musical note or rhythm,' like Germ. nach Noten ; vulgo from vulgus; princĭpio rarely Acc. Sg. principium) ; impendio (Abl. of impendium, outlay), used as an Adverb (Gell. xix. 7. Io translates it by impense) by the Republican Dramatists, especially with magis, mimus, e.g. Ter. Eun. 587 impéndio magis ánimus gaudebat mihi. Instead of fortĕ, the Nom. fors is sometimes used (e. g. Virg. A. ii. r39) with an ellipse of sit an [cf. forsitan (first in Terence ${ }^{1}$ ) and forsan (first in Lucr.), often written forsitam and forsam (see Ritschl, Opusc. ii. 57o) by Anal. of Advbs. in -am? cf. p. 69], while fortusse and fortassis (in O. Lat. followed by Acc. and Inf, e. g. Plaut. Asin. 36 ubi fit polenta, té fortasse dicere, but also, e. g. Rud. 140 fortásse tu huc uocatus es ad prándium) seem to be parts of a verb *fortare, to assert. affirm, derived from 0 . Lat. forctus, strong, as af-firmare from firmus. Opĕrĕ, 'Abl.' of opus, appears in a great many Adverbial expressions, e.g. magnŏpere, tantŭpere for magn(̄̄) opere, tant( $\bar{o}$ ) opere (cf. Plaut. Mil. 75 me opere orauit maxumo). Ritĕ is a similar formation from *ris, a byform of rîtus (cf. O. Ind. ṛtú-, 'the fitting time,' esp. for a sacrifice, ṛtá-, 'fitting, suitable,' P. P. P.. ṛténa, 'fitly, duly,' Adv. (Instr.)].

Tëmĕrĕ (on the quantity of the final e, see A. L. L. iv. $5^{1}$ ) is either the Loc. Sg. of a lost Noun *temus (cf.O. Ind. tamas-, 'darkness'), lit. 'in the dark,' or Acc. Sg. Neit. of a lost Adj.*temeris, lit. 'darkly, blindly' (cf. O. Lat. tëmëriter). On the adverbial Locative cases of Nouns in common use, hŭm̄, dŏm $\overline{\text {, }}$, militice, \&c., see ch. vi. §§ 37-38. Dié whether with original -e (cf. eod die, C. I. L. xi. 4766 , an inscr. where $-d$ is not invariably written after a long vowel ; die noine or dze noine, 'on the ninth day,' on the Dvenos inser., if this reading be the correct one) or with original -èd [cf. Falise foied, apparently 'hodie' (Not. Scav. 1887, pp. 262 and 307): foied vino pipafo kra karefo 'hodie vinum bibam, cras carebo'] occurs in a great many Adverbial word-groups, e. g. postrī-die (cf. die crastini), $m i ̄-d i e$, cottī-die and coti-die (spelt quotidie only by precisians, Quint. i. 7.6), përendie, hö-die, mèr-die (see ch. iv. § 112 ), from which was formed the Noun meridies. Cotti-die can hardly represent anything but, a compound of dies and the word quot in some form or other (cf. quot Kalendis ${ }^{2}$, Plaut. Stich. 60 ; quotannis, and in Late Latin quot diebus and quot dies) with co- written for quo-, its equivalent in sound (ch. iv. § 137), but what that form was is not easy to say. Some make it quō-tus, a correlative of tōtus (cf. totos dies, Plaut. Aul. 73 ; totis horis, Mil. 212);
${ }^{1}$ Whether forsitan really occurs in Terence is doubtful. (Fleck. Jahrb. 1894, p. 284.)
${ }^{2}$ cotidie, the reading of the MSS. in Plaut. Stich 165 , is changed by editors to quot dies.
others postulate a *quot-tus (beside quŏ-tus from quo-) formed from quot- with that TO-suffix which is used in Ordinal Numerals, quar-tus, quin-tus, \&c., just as quot-umus (Plaut. Pseud.962. 1173) is formed on the type of septumus; others again suppose *quöt(i)tus (O. Ind. katithá-) to have been a byform of quötus; peren-die, the day after to-morrow, is connected with Osc. perum, without (originally 'beyond'; cf. Gk. $\pi^{\prime} \rho \bar{a}$ ), of the phrase perum dolom mallom 'sine dolo malo,' and means literally 'on the beyond day'; hŏ-die seems to join to die the bare stem hŏ- (but see ch. iii. § 5 I on sǐ-quidem). (For other Abl. and Loc. Adverb-forms, see ch. vi. § 38.)

Eãdem, at the same time, always with the Fut. or Fut. Pft. in Plautus, e.g. Trin. 577:
i hac, Lésbonice, mécum, ut coram núptiis
dies cónstituatur ; eádem haec confirmábimus,
is occasionally found without ellipse of 品rē, e. g. Capt. 449 :
séquere me, uiáticum ut dem á tarpezitá tibi:
eádem opera a praetóre sumam sýngraphum;
ūn̄ may, in some uses at least, have sprung from a similar phrase; cf. Pseud. 318:
quia pol quá opera credám tibi, úna opera alligém canem fugitíuam agninis láctibus.

Of Adverbs in -e from 0 -stems may be noticed : valde [the full form vălüde is found in Plautus, Pseud. 145 (AP), \&e.] from validus; Cicero was the first to use it with an Adj. ; fëre and fermé are related as Positive and Superl. (cf. p. 185).
§6. Adverbs in tus. The best established in classical usage were antīquìtus, divīnìtus, providentially, fundǐtus, lit. 'from the ground,' 'from the bottom' (derived from fundo-, O. Ir. bonn, Gael. bonn, 'the sole, the ground or base'; cf. O. Ind. budhná-, Gk. $\pi v \theta \mu \dot{\eta} \nu$ and $\pi \dot{v} \nu \delta a \xi$, the bottom of a vessel, O. Engl. botm), pĕnǐtus, lit. 'from within' (see § 37 on pĕnĕs), rädī̀čtus, intus. Intus is used not only of motion from within, e. g. Plaut. Men. 218 euocate intus Culindrum, but also like Greek évzós (cf. è $\kappa \tau$ ós), of rest within, e. g. Capt. 192 ibo íntro atque intus súbducam ratiúnculam ; cf. Lucil. ix. 59 M., who explains the distinction between $a d$ and apud as the same as that between intrō and intus:
intro nos uocat ad sese, tenet intus apud se.
Quintilian declares the use of intus in the sense of intro (motion to within) to be a solecism (i. 5. 5I). (The suffix -tus, when added to another preposition, sub, has the same variety of meaning; for subtus, like intus, denotes not merely motion from, but also rest in, e. g. uti subtus homo ambulare possit, Cato, R. R. xlviii. 2). But in the older and the later literature many other of these Adverbs occur. Nonius in his eleventh book, which deals with the Adverb forms of the older writers, cites commünittus, publicictus, pugnitus, with the fist, hümünïtus, immortālitus, largïtus, 'pro large'; and elsewhere mentions ănïmitus, germānitus, mëdullitus [from the Saturae of Ennius (1. 7 M.):

Enní poeta, sálue, qui mortálibus uersús propinas flámmeos medúllitus],
ŏcullitus, primitus, sollemnitus, \&c. From the Adverb penitus Plautus coined the Superlative Adj. penitissumus (see Varro, Men. $\mathbf{5 2 2}^{2 \boldsymbol{B}}$ B. ut ait Plautus 'penitissumae'), which is common in Late Latin. He uses in one passage an Adj. penitus (Asin. 40 usque ex penitis faucibus), which also found currency in the late literature (cf. penitē Adv., Catull. Ixi. 178 ).
§ 7. Adverbial word-groups and compounds. Antioper nfò roúrov, Gloss. Philox., seems, if the reading is right, to represent *antia [Acc. Pl. Neut. of *antio-, Gk. àvrios : cf. antiae (sc. comae), front curls], with the Preposition per (on $o$ for $u$ after $i$ in the unaccented syllable, e. g. filiolus, see ch. iii. § 18 ), as pĕrum-per represents părum (Acc. Sg. Neut. of *par-o-, little, a byform of par-uo-, parrus) with the same Preposition (cf. the Umbro-Oscan Numeral Adverbs, Umbr. triiu-per, 'three times,' Osc. petiro-pert, four times; on the form pert. see § 38). Topper, a word quite obsolete in Quintilian's day i. 6. 40 ab ultimis et jam oblitteratis repetita temporibus, qualia sunt 'topper' et 'antigerio ' et 'exanclare' et 'prosapia,' et Saliorum carmina vix sacerdotibus suis satis intellecta) seems to be a similar word-group with an Acc. Sg. Neut. *torl (from the Pronominal-stem to-, ch. vii. § 13 ; cf. is-tud) governed by the Preposition per; according to the Roman grammarians (see Festus, p. 532 Th.) the word had two meanings, (r) 'cito, celeriter, temere,' e. g. Liv. Andronicus (a translation of Homer, Od. viii. 138 sq.) :
námque núllum peíus mácerat humánum quámde máre saéuom, uís et cui sunt mágnae ; tópper corpus confríngent inportúnae úndae.
and in his translation of Bk. xii. 17 :
tópper cíti ad aédis uénimus Circái,
and of Bk. x. 395 :
tópper fácit hómines ut príus fuérunt;
2 'fortasse.' a later sense, e. g. Pacuvius (Trag. 424 R. :
tópper tecum sit potestas fáxit si mecúm uelit,
and the historian Caelius Antipater (cotemp. of C. Gracchus): eadem re gesta, topper nihilo minore negotio acto, gratia minor esset. Sem-per may likewise have as its first element an Acc. Sg. Neut. *sem (Gk. "ע ), and as its second the Preposition per (sempitermus ${ }^{1}$ may then be a formation on the analogy of ueviternus ; but see Suppl. Arch. Glott. Ital. i. 58). These examples suggest that in paulis-per ${ }^{2}$, tantis-per, aliquantis-per the first element may be a Neuter-stem in -is, possibly a weak grade of Comparative -ius (cf. müğs, p. 558), and not, as is usually thought, an Abl. (Loc. Instr.) Plural form, paulis, 'by littles,' 'little by little.' The -per of these words however may be the Greek - $\pi \epsilon \rho$ of $\ddot{\omega} \sigma \pi \epsilon \rho, \kappa a \theta \dot{\pi} \pi \epsilon \rho, \& c$. (cl. x. § I). (On muper, see § 2.) Impraesentiürum is more naturally analyzed into in praesentia rerum (a phrase which actually occurs in

[^108][^109]its full form ; see A. L. L. iv. ir), with suppression of one of two similarly sounding syllables (see p. 176), than into in praesentia harum, with ellipse of rerum. Another adverbial word-group, consisting of a Preposition with its Noun, is affuttim, for ad-fatim from a lost noun *fatis, weariness (cf. fatīgo), e. g. Liv. Andr. Com. 5 R. affatim edi, bibi, lusi; Plaut. Poen. 534 bibas . . . usque affatim, where affatim (perhaps better written ad fatim, for an early affation would have become *affetim) means 'abundantly'; it is also used with a Gen. in the sense of 'abundance,' e.g. Plaut. Men. 457 affatim hominumst. Paul. Fest. 8. 34 Th. says : Terentius 'affatim' dixit pro eo quod est ad lassitudinem, which shows that the grammarians of the Empire still realized that affation was a combination of the Preposition ad with a Noun (like ad saturitatem, Plaut. Rud. 758 ; ad rŭvim, Aul. 336, Cist. 304 ; praeconis ad fastidium, Hor. Epod. 4. 12). Indeed from the words of Gellius (vi. 7) we gather that in the second century A. D. the Adverb was divided in spelling and pronunciation into two words ad fatim, for he speaks of the pronunciation affatim (like $\dot{c} d m o d u m$ ) as unusual, only to be defended on the supposition that the phrase was one word and not two (quod 'affatim' non essent duae partes orationis, sed utraque pars in unam vocem coaluisset). It was possibly this pronunciation ad fatim that gave rise to the curtailed Adverb fatim, which was in use in the time of Servius (4th cent. A. d.) (Serv. ad Aen. i. 123 'fatim' enim abundanter dicimus). Ǎmussim (Paul. Fest. 5. 3 Th.), Accus. of amussis, a carpenter's rule, may be a similar late curtailment of ad amussim, though we find examussim as early as Plautus. Another word-group of the kind is sélcullo, from $s e \bar{e}$, a Preposition used in 0 . Lat. in the sense of its cognate sine ( $\S 55^{1}$ ), and dölus. From the Adverb se-dulo (with $\breve{\iota}$ for $\breve{o}$ in the unaccented syllable, ch. iii. $\S 26$ was formed the Adjective selulus. That this is the true account of selulo is clear from se dulo malo of the Lex Agraria (C.I. L. i. 200. 40), and from the comparison of phrases like Plaut. Trin. go heut dicam dolo, 480 nom tibi dicam dolo, Men. 228 non ducam dolo, with Capt. 886 quod ego dico sedulo, Ter. Phorm. 453 ego sedulo hunc dixisse credo (but sedulo is commoner with facio than with dico) ; though the confusion of sedudo with an Adverb from an Adjectivestem sedulo- must have been very early, for the byform sedulum is found in a line of 'Plautus' (fr. 4 I G.) sedulum est, and in a plebiscitum about weights and measures quoted by Festus (322. 3. Th.) : ex ponderibus publicis, quibus hac tempestate populus oetier qui solet, uti coaequetur sedulum, uti quadrantal uini octoginta pondo siet, congius uini decem pondo siet, \&c. (cf. later sedule). The Roman grammarians usually explained the word in this way ; Acron however, in his commentary on Terence, derived the word from an Ad-jective-stem sedulo-, as falso from the Adj. falso- (ap. Charis. 192. 30; 219. 5 K.). Another combination of Preposition and Noun is ol-viam, which has its literal sense in Plautus (usually with esse, ire, venire, \&c.); thus in Capt. 79 r the parasite Ergasilus, who is hurrying to give Hegio news of the arrival of his son, cries out :
éminor intérminorque néquis obstiterit óbuiam,
'that no one stand in my way'; it has not the sense of praesto in Plautus norin Terence. From obviam was formed the Adjective obrius (but cf. pervium, pervius), as from sedulo, sedulus. Like obviam (and inter-vias with vias Acc. Pl.) is obiter, a word regarded with suspicion by purists, though Augustus gave it his sanction, and reproved Tiberius for using per viam instead. The Emperor Hadrian seems to have reversed his predecessor's decision (Charis. 209. 12 K .
'obiter' divus Hadrianus Sermonum I quaerit an Latinum sit . . . quanquam divus Augustus reprehendens Ti. Claudium ita loquitur : scribis enim 'per viam ' àvrì tov̂ obiter). IIlĭcō is explained by Charisius (201. ${ }_{17} \mathrm{~K}$.) as inlöco (the length of the initial $\bar{\imath}$ could be accounted for by the old form sloco, ch. iv. § 150 ), and has often this sense in Old Latin authors (for examples, see Charisius, 1. c. and Nonius, 325.6 M .) (in Plautus the local sense is not nearly so common as the temporal, and is found only with verbs of rest, e.g. Rud. 878 ibidem ilico manete ; 836 illic astate ilico) : Nonius (1. c.) makes it the equivalent of 'in eo loco,' but the sense of $i b i$ is foreign to ilico, a fact which tells against its derivation from ${ }^{*}$, an old Abl. Sg. of is, and locus. Ilico has not the sense of 'on that spot,' but of 'on the spot' (e.g. ilico hic ante ostium, Plaut. Trin. 608 ), and its change from a local to a temporal meaning finds an exact counterpart in our phrase 'on the spot,' which may be used in the sense of 'immediately,' ' without delay.' Curiously enough the O. Lat. adverbial word-group iliccet, which in the Comedians has the sense of ive lĭcet (e.g. Plaut. Capt. 469 :
ilicet parasíticae arti máxumam malám crucem,
'the profession of diner-out may go hang itself on the highest possible gallows'), from which by an easy transition it acquired that of actum est [e. g. Plaut. Cist. 685 perii, opinor, actumst, ilicet, was brought again into fashion by Virgil in the sense of ilico, e.g. Aen. xi. 468 :

## ilicet in muros tota discurritur urbe.

[Charisius quotes the note of a commentator on this line: (ilicet) nunc pro ilico, id est statim. antiqui pro eas licet,' and mentions a somewhat similar use of the word in a line of Afranius (Com. 215 R.) : an tu eloquens ilicet?, 'have you become an orator all at once ?']. By another freak of language the confusion of ilicet with a word of similar sound was repeated some cen. tures later, when it was used (e. g. by Sidonius Apollinaris, fifth cent. A. d.) in the sense of scilicet (cf. Paul. Fest. 74. 22 'ilicet,' sine dubio). A verbal group like ilicet is videľlicet, which in the earlier period occurs with the construction of vidēre licet, e. g. Plaut. Asin. 599 :
nunc enim ésse
negótiosum intérdius uidélicet Solónem,
Lucret. i. 210 :
esse videlicet in terris primordia rerum,
also scilicet, construed like scire licet in such a line as Plaut. Pseud. 1 I 79 : scilicet solitum esse, ' of course he used to' (on these verbal Noun stems $i$-, vide-, sci-, see ch. viii. § 34). $\quad$ Sis (for sī vīs, ch. ii. § 53), sultis Plur., similarly takes an Inf. in Plaut. Asin. 309 sís amanti súbuenire fámiliari filio.
The word mŏdus enters into several adverbial word-groups. Besides admodum, propemodum (and later propemodo), postmodum (and postmodo), which have been already mentioned, we have quemadmodum, quōmodō [cf. cujusmodī, hujusmodi, ejusmodi, \&c., which in Plautus are scanned as cretics or the equivalents of cretics (ch. vii. § 22), cuicuimodi (perhaps not in Plautus)]. quōdammodo, tantummodo and (in Late Latin) solummodo, \&c. (cf. the compounds omnir-modis, multimodis, on which see Neue, $\mathrm{ii}^{3} . \mathrm{pp} .609 \mathrm{sq}$.). We find rēs in quä-rē, quam-ob-rem, \&c., dies in in-dies, prope-diem.

A Preposition with a Noun (or Adj.) appears also in dē-nŭō, for de nŏvo (with
$u$ for unaccented $o v$, ch. iii. § 24), like de integro, ex-templo (in Plaut. also extempulo), from templum in its O. Lat. sense of locus (e. g. Acherusia templa, Enn.), in-cassum, lit. 'into the empty' (cf. cassa nux, Plaut.), like its synonyms in Late Lat. in vanum and in vacuum ; im-primīs, cum-primis (cf. apprime, used with an Adj. in the sense of a Superlative in ante-classical and post-classical Latin). A verbal phrase is seen in dum-taxat [taxat is Pres. Subj. of *taxo, a byform of tango, as viso of video, quaeso of quaero (ch. viii. §33. 4) for *tag-so], a legal phrase whose original sense appears in O. Lat. laws like C. I. L. i. r97. r2 : sei quis magistratus multam inrogare uolet, [quei uolet, dum minoris] partus familias taxsat, liceto, 'so long as he assigns a fine of the smaller portion of his property,' 'of less than half of his property' (for dumtaxat the Oscan expression is ampert from the Negative particle an- and the Preposition pert, 'beyond'; thus on the Tabula Bantina: in [im] srae pis ionc fortis meddis moltaum herest, ampert minstreis aeteis eituas moltas moltaum licitud' et siquis eum fortius (? forte) meddix multare volet, dumtaxat minoris partis pecuniae multas multare liceto') (Zvet. I. I. I. 23r. 12'. Actī-tum is merely actū, lit. 'on the act,' followed by tum, then.
§ 8. Other Adverbs. One of the puzzles of Latin etymology is the O. Lat. Adverb simītū, the equivalent of simul, found as an archaism on some inscriptions of the Empire in the forms simitu (C.I. L. vi. 7578), and certainly once (possibly twice) simitur (vi. 9290, a slave-girl's epitaph of iз в. c., and read by Ritschl in x. 174, an epitaph in illiterate verse). Nonius mentions simitu (175. 16 M.) with three examples from Lucilius and Plautus; so that this form is well established. Plautus elides the last syllable in Stich. 249 mecúm simitu ut íres ad sesé domum. The later (plebeian) form simitur can hardly be due to a change of -d to -rlike that seen in O. Lat. apor, apur for apud (§ 19) ; it is more likely to be a corruption caused by confusion with the Impersonal itur, 3 Sg . Pass. of eo, to go. Simitu has been explained as a Compound of the root sem- (ch. vi. §57) in some form or other with $\begin{gathered}\text { the } \\ \text {, the } \\ \text { Abl. Sg. of the }\end{gathered}$ Verbal Noun ǐtus, a going.

Another puzzle is řgitur (the quantity of the final syllable cannot be determined in Plautus), the oldest sense of which is 'then,' 'thereupon' (cf. Non. 128. 14'igitur' positum pro postea), e. g. the first clause of the XII Tables: si in ius uocat, ni it, antestamino : igitur em capito, a clause well known to Roman schoolboys of the first cent. b.c. as the beginning of one of their most formidable lesson-books (cf. Cic. Legg. ii. 4.9 a parvis . . Quinte, didicimus 'si in ius vocat' atque alia ejus modi 'leges' nominare); Plaut. Cas. 215 móx magis quom ótium ét mihi et tíbi erit, Ígitur tecún loquar: núnc uale; Mil. 772 quándo habebo, igitúr rationem meárum fabricarúm dabo; igitur tum (e.g. Most. 689), igitur deindĕ, igitur dēmum are all frequent in Plautus. This makes unlikely the theory that igitur is a curtailment of quid igitur?, a form of quid ăgitur ?, with $\breve{a}$ weakened to $\breve{\imath}$ in the unaccented syllable of the word-group quid-agitur? Another theory connects it with Lith. -ktu of tõktu, 'so,' kõktu, 'as,' or with O. Sl. -gda of togda, 'then,' igda, 'hitherto.' It has also been resolved into the three Pronominalstems i- (ch. vii. § I3), $\hat{\mathrm{k} o}$ - [ib.; digitus is quoted as a parallel case of the change of -icit- to-igit-; others make the particle *gĕ (Gk. $\gamma \epsilon$ ) the second element of igitur], and to- (ib.) ; the last with the ending -r, seen in O. Ind. tár-hi, 'then,' kár-hi, ' when,' \&c.). Its use varies in different authors ; thus it is placed normally as first word of the sentence in Sallust and Tacitus, but almost never in Cicero's speeches ; and it is avoided by purists like Terence (except in his
earliest plays), Lucilius, Caesar, and the older and the younger Seneca (for statistics, see A. L. L. iii. 560). Its formation evidently seemed to the Romans to have something irregular about it (cf. Quint. i. 5. 39 ex quo genere an sit ' igitur' initio sermonis positum dubitari potest, quia maximos auctores in diversa fuisse opinione video, cum apud alios sit etiam frequens, apud alios numquam reperiatur). Another Adverb (?) of uncertain etymology is siremps in the formula found on old laws, siremps lex esto, 'the same law shall hold' (C.I. L. i. 197. 12 ; 198. 73 ; 200. 27 ; 202. (1). 38, (2). 1, \&c. ; see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.), and in the form sirempse (which Charisius calls the Ablative of siremps, 93.24 ; 146.1 K.) in the (un-Plautine ?) prologue of the Amphitruo of Plautus, 1.73 :

> sirémpse legem iússit esse Iúppiter.

One theory declares it to be composed of sis (si vis) and empse, the old Acc. Sg. Masc. of ipse (ch. vii. § 20), and to have originally meant 'the aforesaid' (person), but to have been in course of time wrongly associated with lex esto (Wien. Stud. 1891, p. 296).

Setius, less (esp. non setius, nihilo setius, also quo setius like quo minus), is the correct spelling, not sēcius, which is not found till the period when $t i$ began to he confused with $c i$ (see ch. ii. § go, and Fleckeisen, Fünfzig Artikel, p. 28), so that the word cannot be equated with Gk. $\ddot{\eta} \sigma \sigma \omega \nu$ (for $* \ddot{\eta} \kappa y \omega \nu$; cf. $\eta^{\prime \prime} \kappa \iota \sigma \tau о s$ ). Though treated by the Roman grammarians as the Comparative of the Adverb (Preposition) sěcus and as a byform of the normal comparative séquius (e.g. Afranius 293 R. sín, id quod non spéro, ratio tális sequius céciderit) (from the root seqñ-, 'to follow,' Gk. 'єтодаı ; lit. 'following,' hence 'inferior'), it seems impossible to connect sêtius with secus (see § I) or with sequius. Gellius (xviii. 9.4), describing a controversy he had heard over the spelling of the 0. Lat. verb insěco (insequo), to narrate (Gk. ধ́vionov), mentions as an argument adduced by one of the disputants, that the form sectius was found in Plaut. Men. 1047 (our MSS. in this line of Plautus, a line unfortunately undecipherable in the Ambrosian Palimpsest, vary between setius quam, sed usquam, and secus reame:

> haée nihilo esse mihi uidentur sétius quam sómnia,
and that this sectius was connected with the 0 . Lat. insectiones 'narrationes,' so that the line really meant ' nihilo magis narranda esse quam si ea essent somnia.' On the strength of this very questionable authority, it has been attempted to connect setius with the root sequn-, 'to follow,' by the theory that séctius was the oldest form (from secto-, a participial-stem from sequor ; cf. secta, sector), which became $*_{\text {settius, then settius. But even granting the existence of }}$ this form sectius, a form most probably due to an error in the copy of Plautus used, the change of $c t$ to $t t$ is a late one (ch. ii. §95), and the substitution of ett for étt too doubtful (ch. ii. § 130) to make this theory at all convincing. It is much more likely that setius and secus were entirely different words (like mélius and bĕně, pejus and mülĕ), associated as Comparative and Positive owing to their similarity of meaning.
oppüdo is another of the problems of Latin etymology. The most likely theory is that oppuldum, a town, meant originally the part on the plain (ob${ }^{*}$ pedum ; cf. Gk. $\left.\pi \in \delta i o v\right)$ as opposed to the arx. This distinction seems to be expressly made in the Titulus Aletrinas (C.I.L.i. ir66) in a passage referring to the water supply of a town : aquam in opidum adqu[e] arduom. The

Adverbial Abl. oppido will then be exactly similar to plānē. In Plautus it goes usually with a Verb, but in Terence only with an Adj.

## § 9. Numeral Adverbs in -ies (see ch. vi. § 56).

§ 10. Pronominal Adverbs. (On the Relative Adverbs which show initial $u$ - in the simple word, but as the second element of a compound -cu-, e. g. uıbi, sī-cubi, unde, sī-cunde, see ch. vii. § 26).
(r) With suffix -bi (Umbr. -fe, Osc. -f, e.g. Umbr. pufe, Osc. puf, 'ubi,' Umbr. ife). The Umbro-Oscan forms point to -fi as their original suffix, with $f$ representing I.-Eur. bh (Gk. - $\boldsymbol{\text { l }}$ ), as in the Dat. Sg. of the Personal Pronouns (e. g. Osc. sífeí ‘sibi,' I.-Eur. *sebhei, ch. vii. §5), or more probably dh (Gk. - $\theta \iota$; cf. O. Sl. kŭde, O. Ind. kúha). Latin -bi is in O. Lat. -bei [e. g. ubei on the S. C. Bacch. (C. I. L. i. 196) ; other examples in Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v. ; on the spelling ube, e. g. Varro R.R.i.4.4, see ch. vii. § 6], and is in poetry scanned as a long or as a short syllable (similarly ibŭdem), a variation of quantity which is most naturally explained by supposing that the last syllable was originally long (representing I.-Eur. -ei), and was in time shortened through the influence of the short first syllable (avě from avé, \&c., ch. iii. § 42). The Oscan form however suggests that the short final vowel may not be a late development (cf. uti- and utei, ch. x. § ir). Latin examples of this forma-
 $i n$-ibi [inibi esse like in eo esse (ut), 'to be on the point of '], interr-ibi (often used by Plautus for intereā, interim), post-ibi (used sometimes by Plautus for postea), ulibi and the less usual aliubi (as early as the Lex Agraria of ini b. c., C. I. L. i. 200.86 : aliubeiue aliterue), utrubb, utrubique and utrobique (on these spellings, see Georges s. v.), neutrubi.
(2) With suffix $-\bar{\imath}$ (older -ei). In the language of Plautus illī or illicc (older ollic, Paul. Fest. 231. 2 Th.), ist̄̄ or istīc may be Dat. Sg., 'to him,' or Adverb (Loc. Sg.), 'there.' The scribes of our MSS. however have gone on the principle of correcting illi, isti, 'there,' to illic, istic, usually (e. g. Capt. 278, where the metre requires illi), and almost always illic, istic, 'to him,' to illi, isti, so that the relative frequency of the two forms of the Adverb in Plautus, or other writers, cannot well be determined. The Adverb from the pronoun hic seems to have had the enclitic $-c(e)$ at all periods of the literature, $h \bar{c} c$, older heic (C. I. L. i. 551. 590. 1007. 1009) ; heicei on the epitaph of an actor, i 1297 :

Protogenes Cloul[i] suauei heicei situst mimus, plouruma que fecit populo soueis gaudia nuges,
may be a graver's error, for the orthography of the inscription is erratic ; heice (i. 1049 me heice situm inmature). But on late inscriptions we occasionally find $h i$ (e.g. ii. 3244 hi jacet). [Faliscan he, hei in the formula he (hei) cupat 'hic cubat, -ant' may owe the suppression of its -c to the initial c- of the following word ; cf. Zvet. I.I.I.66.] From the Pronominalstem *so-(ch.vii. § 13) we have si, and with the enclitic -c(e), sic ${ }^{1}$ (cf. Umbr. i -sek

[^110]ut rosa amoena homini est quom primo tempore floret,
quei me viderunt, seic ego Amoena fui
(item') ; from the Relative (Interrog., Indef.) the Adverb qui (which is perhaps rightly regarded as an Instr. (cf. O. Engl. hwī, O. Sl. čimĭ) from a stem qui-, ch. vii. § 25), and with the suffix -n(e), quin (ch. x. § 16), as well as the compounds alio-qui and alio-quin, cetero-qui and cetero-quin, nē-qui-quam (ch. vii. § 28), and perhaps quippe (if for quī-pe) and quippiam (quīpiam) (see ch. x. § 7 ; ch. vii. § 28 ).
(3) With suffix - $\overline{0}$, e. g. eo, eo-dem (id-eo has only the later sense of purpose, not the earlier of motion towards, 'that for that purpose,' 'and that indeed with that object'), quo, quo-cunque, c̆liquo, c̆lio, utro, utroque, neutro. These have the same sense as Adverbs formed with -versum, $-s$ (older-vorsum, $-s$ ), and often have this participle added, e. g. aliōvorsum and aliorsum, Plaut. (for the suppression of $v$ between the two vowels, see ch. ii. $\S 53$ ), quorsus, $-m$. The Preposition $a d$ is appended in quo-ad, and prefixed in $\check{a} d-e o$ (used in a literal sense in the older literature, e.g. Cato, R. R. xl. 3 surculum artito usque adeo quo praeacueris; cf. adeo res rediit, 'things have reached such a pass,' in the Comedians), and ad-quo, a variety of quoad, 'so far as,' for which Nonius ( 76.6 M.) cites two lines of Afranius, Com. 278 R. : ut scíre possis ádquo te expediát loqui,
and 249 R. :

> irátus essem adquó liceret.

We have the same suffix $-\bar{o}$ in Adverbs indicating motion towards, formed from Prepositions by means of the tro- (ro-) suffix, rĕ-tro, cü-tro, ul-tro, por-ro; and that this $-\bar{o}$ represents earlier $-\bar{o} d$, the Ablative case-ending of 0 -stems, we see from the spelling porod on an old Praenestine cista (Mél. Arch. 1890, p. 303). Oscan adpúd in a Capua inscr. (Rhein. Mus. 1888, pp. 9 and 557. adpúd fiiet) seems to be the equivalent of Latin quoad (cf. Afranius' adquo) and to have the sense of 'so long as,' Lat. quoad fient. In Umbrian, where, as in Latin, final -d is dropped after a long vowel, we find ar-ni-po with another sense of quoarl, 'until,' followed by a Future Perfect, sersitu arnipo . . . pesnis fust 'sedeto quoad precatus erit' (the -ni- of arnipo seems to be like the -ni- of Latin dō-nı̆-cum, ch. x. § 12, and -po may represent *pöm rather than *pöd); the Adverb corresponding to Latin quo is pu-e with that suffix -i (?) (Gk. oviroo-í) written -i, -ei, -e, which is added not merely to the Nom. Sg. Masc. of the Umbrian Relative, po-i, or $p o-e i$, or po-e (Lat. quī for $q u 0-$ with $\bar{i}$, ch. vii. § 25), but to other parts of its declension, e.g. Acc. Pl. Fem.paf-e; the Adverb from O. Lat. sēl-üter-que (Plaut.), 'each separately,' is in Umbrian sei-podruh-pei, with $u$ expressive of the long $o$-sound (a close $o$, nearly or altogether $u$; see ch.ii. § 20). The fact that the O-stem Abl. shows -u in Umbr. has been used as an argument that Umbr. ulo 'illuc,' postro 'retro,' \&c. are Instrumentals. Similar formations from ille, iste are found at all periods of Latin, illō (cf. Umbr. ulu, ulo), istō (for examples, see Georges), but the Adverbs generally used are illuc, istuc, with final syllable scanned long in poetry, and similarly from hic we have huc, hither, ad-huc, hither-to (is *hō indicated by the form horsum for hovorsum?). In the earlier literature the forms with the enclitic $-c(e)$ end in -oc, with final syllable again scanned long, e. g. hoc (as in Plaut. Capt. 480, where the parasite is touting for a dinner :

> quís ait. 'hoc'? aut quís profitetur?),
an archaic form employed by Virgil, A. viii. 423 (see the note of Servius on the passage) :
[for other examples, see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. vv.; statistics of the spelling hoc and huc in Plaut., \&c. are given in Fleck. Jahrb. (Suppl.) r891, p. 293 n.]. This -uc has been referred to an earlier -oi-ce with the Locative suffix -oi, which is used in Adverbs of motion towards in Greek, , пoî, ömol, \&c., but it seems unnatural to regard it as anything but a phonetic development of the earlier -oc. If the vowel in these endings be naturally long, it must have been originally ou (ch. iv. §4r), and the parallel Adverbs in Greek will be not тоі, öтоь but $\pi о \hat{v}$, öтои, which mean in Greek 'where,' not 'whither.' But it may have been naturally short; for the metrical value of the syllable can be explained by the fact that $c$ really represents $c c$, from an earlier $d c$, *hod-c(e), *is-tod-c(e) (ch. iii. § 5r), so that the forms would be really Accusatives Sing. Neut. (cf. however O. Lat. illuc, istuc, and class. hoc, Acc. Sg. Neut.), and not Ablatives.

Quo, eo, \&c. have also other senses in Latin, as with Comparatives eo major, eo minor (cf. Lith. jữ with Comparatives; Welsh po, 'by how much the'), quo major, quo minor, \&c., from which comes the use of $q u 0$ for $u t$ in final sentences with a Comparative, e. g. quo facilius haec fieri possint, and the word-group quömïnus, lest, e. g. quominus haec fieri possint ; also quo, whereby, \&c. These too are Ablative forms, originally *quṑl, *ē̄几l, as we may see from Osc. pod . . . mins 'quominus' in the Tabula Bantina (Zvet. I.I.I. 231. ro): nep fefacid porl pis dat eizac egmad min[s] deivaid dolud malud ' neve fecerit quo quis de ea re minus juret dolo malo'; Osc. scaepod . . . sraepod 'sive . . . sive,' Umbr. svepo; Umbr. eso (iso) from the stem *ek-so-, also esoc (issoc) for *ek-sok 'sic' ; with the last, cf. the Latin gloss: soc, ita Löwe, Prodr. p. 350, a doubtful form). In a leaden execration tablet (Zvet. I.I.I. 129), written in Oscan (presumably not the best Oscan), we have svai puh (h indicates the length of a vowel in Umbrian), a spelling which, if found on a magisterial proclamation, or any carefully written inscription, might establish the existence of an Oscan $p \bar{o}(p \bar{u})$, an Instrumental form, beside pōd (pūd), the Ablative form. But the character of this inscription diminishes the value of the evidence of this, as well as of the other ' Instrumental' Adverb, which occurs on the same tablet, suluh ' omnino' (from the stem sollo-, 'all, whole') ; besides it is doubtful whether h indicates vowel-length in Oscan. In another Oscan execration scroll (I.F. ii. 435), we have the form sullud (the last letter somewhat doubtful), but the fragmentary state of the inscription makes it impossible to determine satisfactorily that sullud is an Adverb.
(4) In $-\bar{a}$, e. g. qua, 'in which direction' (cf. qua . . . qua, 'both . . . and'), ne-qua-quam, haud-qua-quam, qua-propter (cf. Plaut. Amph. 815 qua istaec propter dicta dicantur mihi), ea (often appended to Adverbs, propter-eā, praeter-eā, post$e \bar{a}$, ant-eā, and on the S. C. Bacch. arvorsum ead in the sentence: sei ques esent, quei aruorsum ead fecisent, quam suprad scriptum est), ea-dem, alia, aliqua, hac (appended like ea to Adverbs, post-hac, ante-hac, praeter-hac, and in a plebiscitum ap. Fest. 322. 8 Th. adversus hac ; cf. Osc. post exac (posthac'), illac, istac. With tĕnus appended these Adverbs indicate distance : quatenus, 'how far' (on the subsequent development of meanings, see § 4), hactenus, 'thus far' (cf. Hor. est quadam prodire tenus). The formation is evidently the same as that of Adverbs derived from Prepositions with the suffix -tro- (-ro-), e. g. extra (exstrad S. C. Bacch.), supra (suprad S. C. Bacch.) (cf. Oscan púllad ' qua,' an Adverbial Ablative Sg. Fem. of the Relative, formed by adding the Abl. Sg. Fem. of the Oscan Demonstr. stem ollo- (Lat. illo-, older ollo-, ch. vii.
§ 18) to the Relative stem po- (ch. vii. § 23) ; [p]úllad víú uruvú íst 'quà via flexa (?) est,' Zvet. I. I. I. 136. 56). Qua-ad is found for quo-ad on late inscriptions, and is a not uncommon variant in good MSS. (see Georges).
(5) In -im, ütrim-que, illim (found in Cicero as well as in the older writers, whereas istim is doubtful ; see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. vv.), but usually illinc, as istinc, hinc. The same suffix is found in the forms to which the Adverb sëcus is appended, intrin-secus, altrin-secus, extrin-secus, and apparently in exim, intërim and $\bar{t} l \mathrm{~m}$, though in two at least of these three last words, it has not its usual sense of motion from. Intërim is equivalent to intër-eñ, inter-ibi (Plaut.), while olim, from meaning 'at that time' (often answering to quum in Plautus, e. g. olim quom caletur maxime, Truc. 65), came to mean 'at any former time,' 'formerly,' ' once upon a time,' then 'at any time,' ' occasionally' (e. g. Lucil. iii. 4 M . uiamque Degrumatus uti castris mensor facit olim), and to be used even of future time (e. g. Hor. : non si male nunc, et olim Sic erit). Olim can hardly come directly from the Pronoun-stem ollo- of O. Lat. ollus, olle (class. ille), best analyzed into *ol-so- (ch. vii. § 13), for oll- would not become $\bar{o} l$ - (ch. ii. § 130); it is rather to be derived from the stem ōl-, a grade of the OL-(AL-) stem, without the suffix so- (cf. Umbr. ulo 'illuc' with $u$ the equivalent of Lat. $\bar{o}$ ).
The origin of the suffix -im has not yet been satisfactorily explained.
6) In -ndĕ. This suffix seems to be the suffix $-m$ (hardly the Acc. Sg. suffix) augmented by the particle -de. As the Adverbs meaning 'thence,' ille, iste added to $-i m$ the particle $-c(e)$, the corresponding Adverbs from is, qui add to $-m$ the particle $\boldsymbol{d}\left(\mathrm{le}\right.$ (cf. Gk. $\left.{ }^{\grave{c} \nu} \theta^{\prime} \dot{\epsilon} \nu-\delta \epsilon\right)$, which, like -ce, was liable to be curtailed of its final short vowel in every-day pronunciation (ch. iii. § 36). Thus we have inde (which should not be derived from the Preposition in, but must go with unde), indľ-dem, and with prefixed Adverb de-inde (curtailed to dein), proinde (and proin), ex-inde (and exin, a different word from exim ; see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.), \&c., unde, sī-cunde, nē-cunde, undĭ-que, aliunde, culĭcunde. For ütrinde, quoted from a speech of Cato by Charisius (224. 14 K . utrinde factiones tibi pares) we should expect utrunde.
7) In $-u m(-o m)$, the Acc. Sg. Neuter, e.g. tum and with the enclitic $-c(e)$, tunc (cf. nunc and eticm-num), quam, older quom, with appended jam in quöniam (ch. x. § 13), and appended -dam in quon-dam (cf. qui-dam, ch. vii. § 28), dum ch. x. § 12), dū-dum (ib., non-dum. From the Pronominal-stem i- (Lat. is) an Adverb in - $m$ was in use in $O$. Lat. in the sense of 'then,' variously written as $i m$ and $e m$ (ch. vii. § 19); and from the Relative-stem seen in $u-b i$, \&c. we have the $u m$ - of un-quam (cf. O. Lat. *umquis of necumquem' nee umquam quemquam' Fest. 162.22 Th.), and with negative nĕ- prefixed, nun-quam (ne umquam is the reading of the MSS. of Plaut. Most. 307) ; though some make this originally to have ended in $n$, not in $m$, and find the form with initial $c$ (like si-cubi, si-cunde) in the -cun- of qui-cun-que (ch. x. § 2), ne-cun-quem (so interpreting the $O$. Lat. word mentioned by Festus), which they compare with Goth. -hunof ni hvas-hun, 'none so ever.'
(8) In -am, apparently the Acc. Sg. Fem., though some make it an Instrumental case (suffix -m or -mĭ, ch. vi. § 36). If Festus is right in quoting tame as an O. Lat. form of tam from the Carmen Saliare (Fest. 546. r Th. 'tame'in Carmine positum est pro tam), all these Adverbs in -am may have originally ended in a short vowel. From the Relative Pronoun we have quam, the correlative of which is taken from the Pronoun to- (ch. vii. § 13), not from the Pronoun i-, tam. The two are united in tan-quam. Whether jam, now (cf.

Lith. jaũ, ' already'), is the corresponding formation from the stem i- is not certain. The indeclinable Adj. nē-quam may be a colloquial compound of quam, as the Adverb nē-quaquam is of quäquam, so that nequam would literally mean ' a no-how' (cf. O. Lat. nequalia 'detrimenta' Fest. 162. 23 ; Paul. Fest. 163. ${ }_{13}$ Th.). Another compound is perquam, exceedingly (cf. admodum quam, Plaut.).

The addition of the Preposition $d \overline{0}(\S 27)$ to quam gives the Adverb quandō (ch. x. § 12), originally temporal, then causal (cf. quandŏquiđem, culü-quando, quandō-que (Umbr. panu-pei) (cf. O. Sl. kądu, 'qua, unde'?), while O. Lat. quam-dĕ is a byform of quam, than, as in a passage of Livius Andronicus (quoted in § 7): peius. . . quamde mare saeuom, and Lucr. i. 640 quamde gravis inter Graios qui vera requirunt. Other derivatives are ăliquam in aliquam-diu, \&c., quam-vīs (rarely with Subj. in Plautus, and always with an Adj. or Adv.; not in Terence), and quam-quam (cf. tam-quam), n(e)-ǔť̄-quam, nē-qua-quam, \&c.

From the pronominal-stem *no- (O. Ind. náa-nā, 'in various places or ways,' lit. 'there and there,' 'thus and thus '), connected with the stem *eno- (*ono-) (O. Ind. ana-, 'this,' Lith. anàs, 'that,' $O$. Sl. onŭ' we have nam used in emphasizing a question, e. g. quid cerussā opus nam? Plaut. hence quis-nam, who?, O. Lat. quiă-nam, why?), and in the sense of 'for'; from the stem *do-, -dam of quon-dam (cf. qui-dam).
(9) With other suffixes: of $t$-suffixes we have (a) -ta in $\breve{\imath}-t \breve{a}$, so (Umbr. itek), $i$-ťu-que, therefore (ch. x. § 8); *uta, as, may be inferred from 0. Lat. ali-uta (cf. ali$u b i$, p. 564), otherwise, quoted from the Laws of Numa by Paul Fest. [4. 27 Th. si quisquam aliuta faxit, ipsos Ioui sacer esto ; cf. the gloss aliutea (leg. aliuta), aliud, amplius, Löwe, Prodr. 432]. The final $a$ was no doubt originally long, if every final short vowel became - $\check{c}$ in Latin (ch. iii. §37), but there are no traces of this quantity in itaque in the older poetry (on itaque in the Saturnian epitaph of Naevius, see ch. x. § 8), and probably none in ita either. So that the shortening of the final vowel under the influence of the preceding short syllable must have established itself in this word of common use at a very early date.
(b) -tem in i-tem, cu-tem (cf. O. Ind. -tham of ka-thám, 'how,' \&c.?').
(c) $-t$ (originally with a short final vowel, probably 1 ; cf. O. Ind. ítì, 'thus') in ŭt, útü-nam, utĭ-que. The Umbro-Oscan equivalents of Latin ut show an $s$ after the $t$, Umbr. puze, puse, ending originally in -tsĭ or -tsĕ, Osc. puz (pous on the Bantine tablet must surely have ou for $u t$ ), which in Latin appears in the local Adverbs us-quam, nus-quam.
$\bar{U} s$-que is a different word, derived from the I.-Eur. Preposition ud-, as ab-$s$-que from $a b$ (see § 57 for $\bar{u} s q u e$ ).

The suffix $t$ appears also in aut, which probably ended originally in a short -i (Gk. $a \hat{i}-\tau \epsilon$ has $\tau \epsilon$ for I.-Eur. ${ }^{*}$-què, ch. x. § 2), as we see from Umbr. ote, Osc. avti. The long $-i$ of $u t \bar{\imath}$ is probably Loc. $-e i$ (§ ir).

Of $d$-suffixes, besides ( $a$ )-dam of quon-dam (temporal Adv. of $q u \bar{\imath}$-dam) and (b) dum, with idea of time in 'd $\bar{u}-d u m$, non-dum, vix-dum, inter-dum already mentioned, we have (c) -dem in quit-dem (ch. x. § 6), and with the sense of 'exactly,' 'just' (cf. is demum, ibi demum) in a large number of Adverbs, such as tantī-dem,
 as well as in the Pronoun of Identity, $\bar{i}-d e m$ (ch. vii. §2r), with its curious derivative ǐdentüdem, repeatedly (explained as 'idem ante idem' or 'idem tum idem'), also with the idea of time (cf. dum in inter-dum, non-dum) in tan-dem (cf. demum), prī-dem.
§ 11. PREPOSItIONS. Prepositions are Adverbs, which came to be specially used in connexion with certain cases of the Noun, or in composition with a Verb. In the early stage of a language the cases alone were sufficient to indicate the sense, but as the force of the Case-suffixes became weakened, or as the necessity for clearer definition was more recognized, the Case-suffix was strengthened by the addition of an Adverb. Thus ire monte might mean 'to go out of the mountain' or 'to go down from the mountain.' To indicate the first sense, the Adverb ex was used, ire monte ex ; to indicate the second, the Adverb de, ire monte de; or ex-ire monte, *de-ire monte. These Adverbs which, owing to their meaning, are most frequently associated with particular cases of Nouns, or are used in composition with Verbs, are called Prepositions; and the process, by which Latin Adverbs became Prepositions, may be seen in operation at various periods of the language. Thus contra, which has hardly passed the Adverb stage with Plautus and Terence, is a Preposition in classical Latin and governs an Accusative Case; coram is not a Preposition till Cicero's time; simul in Augustan poetry and Silver Age prose; retro not till Late Latin (e.g. vade retro me, S. Marc. viii. 33, $F_{\text {ullgata). It is customary now in writing Latin }}$ to write the Preposition and the Verb in one word, e.g. exire, but not the Preposition and the Noun, e.g. ex monte; and this practice is justified by the fact that a Verb compounded with a Preposition had, so to speak, a separate life of its own in its compound form. Exhyo, for example, was a different word from $\breve{u} g o$, and so suffered weakening of the vowel $a$ in the unaccented syllable; pōno ceased to be recognized as a compound of po(see § 12) and sinn, and changed its Perfect pŏ-sīvi to posui (ch. viii. § 39.4 ); summitto shows that assimilation to which the internal consonants of a word were liable. On the other hand a Noun with a Preposition is as a rule not so treated (although there are not wanting examples like serlulo for se dolo, § 7), unless a Compound Adjective is formed of the Preposition and the Noun, e.g. pĕrĕgre, Loc. of *peregris compounded of per- and ager (ch. vi. $\S 3^{8}$ ). Still it must be remembered that in the Roman pronunciation the Preposition and the Noun formed a word-group (e.g. circum-littora, ch. iii. § $12 a .6$ ), and in the Roman ortho-
graphy they were usually written together (e.g. ingalliam, initaliam, Mar. Victorin. 23. 12 K .), sometimes with consonant-assimilation, (e.g. summănus for sub manus, Plaut. Pers. 450). This close union of the Preposition with its Verb and Noun must have led at a very early time to the syncope of a final short syllable of Prepositions; and it is possible that byforms like Gk. $\bar{\epsilon} \nu i$ and $\dot{\epsilon} \nu$ may be doublets of very ancient date, representing the forms assumed by the word when used independently and in composition (cf. Engl. ' by' and ' be '-witch, Germ. 'bei' and 'be'-leben, similarly 'off' and 'of,' 'too' and 'to' are doublets, one of which is used as Adv., the other as Prep.). Tmesis, or the separation of the prepositional part of a Compound, from the other part, is a feature of the older stage of every language; and is common in O. Lat. (e.g. sub uos placo was the archaic phrase for supplüco retained in Latin prayers; transque dato and endoque plorato are legal archaisms for trädŭtoque and implörätoque, Fest. 444. 30 Th.). An arrangement like sub uos placo, ob uos sacro (for obsecro vos) (cf. Vedic ví nō dhēhi, ' lend us') became the rule in the Celtic languages, thus in O . Ir. at-om-aig 'adigit me' the Pronoun is 'infixed' between the Preposition and the Verb, as if we had in Latin 'ad me agit.'

In the later stages of a language the use of Prepositions increases more and more. In Latin this culminated in the loss of Case-suffixes, and the use of Prepositions in their place, as we see in the Romance languages. As early as the first cent. A.d. a grammarian points out that in manus aqua is the phrase in vogue instead of the older aqua manibus (Caper 92. 8 K.). New distinctions of prepositional meaning were expressed by compounding Prepositions with one another, e. g. de-ex, de-sub, \&c. [cf. abante, C. I. L. xi. 147, Fr. avant], a process which may have begun at a very early stage ; for I.-Eur. Prepositions often show an appended particle (Pronoun and Adverb), such as (1) -s( $(\mathrm{e})$,
 e.g. Lat. postid, antid, prod- (cf. O. Sl. -dŭ of prě-dŭ-, 'before'); (3) -tĭ, e.g. O. Ind. práti, Zend patiy, Gk. $\pi \rho o \tau i$, , $\pi o \tau i$, Osc. pert-; (4) -n(ĕ), e.g. Lat. pōne for *pos-ne (cf. Germ. von, O. H. G. fona and fon). These particles, whose original form is not always recognizable (thus a Latin $-d$ from - $d \breve{e}$ might come from
an original $*$ dĕ, $* d$ y̆, $*$ dŏ, $*$ dŭ, \&c., ch. iii. § 37), cannot be separated from the pronominal stems mentioned in § 10 , ch. x. $\S 1$ (e. g. the 'Adverbial' - $\delta \epsilon$ of Gk. $\delta o ́ \mu o \nu \delta \bar{\epsilon}$ from the 'pronominal' $-\delta \epsilon$ of Gk . $\check{o}-\delta \bar{\delta}$ ); and it is doubtful how far there was originally any real distinction between them. In Latin their original form is especially obscured by the Latin tendency to syncopate a short second syllable (ch. iii. § 13), a process which may have led to the confusion of the Preposition end 0 -, indü- with the different Preposition en-, in-, in such words as indŭu-grëlli, in-gredi, indŭ-pĕratör, im-perator, and ultimately to the disuse of endo, indu, in favour of en, in. (In Terence inaudio alone is used for earlier ind-audio and in-audio. A similar confusion of I.-Eur. *endo and $*_{\text {en may have taken place in Celtic). }}^{\text {mat }}$.

And the tendency of a Latin Preposition, because unaccented, to be obscured brought about that confusion of $o b-$ and $a b-$, deand di- (dis-) in Compounds which we see in Late Latin, and which even in the earlier centuries of the Empire attracted the notice of the grammarians (Vel. Long. 64. 19 K., \&c., on de- and di-; in Romance *abdurare, *abaudire, *abtenere have supplanted obdūrare, obaudire, obt $\bar{n} \bar{e} r e)$. A much earlier opportunity of confusion was afforded by Prepositions which represented different developments, case-forms, \&c. of the same root, e.g. Lat. per, through, and Umbro-Osc. per, 'on behalf of, before,' the equivalent of Lat. pro (both I.-Eur. *per and *pro being derived from the same root per-, on which see $\S 3^{8}$ ); and this confusion is very hard to trace. The readiness too with which a Preposition changes its meaning is an obstacle in the way of identifying its cognates in other languages. Oscan úp, op governs the Abl. with the sense of Lat. apud, while Latin ob (governing the Acc.) has passed from that sense ( $\$ 35$ ) to its classical sense of ' on account of '; O. Ind. á with Abl. following has the sense of 'to,' but with Abl. preceding might be translated 'from'; examples which show that a difference of meaning between a Preposition in one language and in another is not a valid proof that the two words were not originally identical. Much less is the difference of case governed to be taken into account. In the earlier stage of every language the Prepositions must have been used with great elasticity, sometimes with one case, sometimes with another
(cf. O. Lat. in potestatem esse, \&c.), the fixing down of Prepositions to a particular case being always a feature of an advanced stage of language. [Servius may thus be right in saying (ad Ecl. i. 29 longo post tempore) that post, ante, circum were used also with the Abl. in earlier times : antiqui enim 'post' 'ante' 'circum' etiam ablativo jungebant, quod hodie facere minime possumus; Pompeius (278. 2I K.) attributes ante templo and propter homine to Pacuvius]. It should be noticed that in Umbro-Oscan local Prepositions, indicating rest in a place, \&c., go with the Locative case, not the Abl. as in Latin. Their position too varied in course of time. In classical Latin a Preposition, especially a monosyllabic Preposition, precedes the noun (hence 'Pre-position'), except in particular circumstances (e.g. metu in magno, \&c.; see Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. pp. 942 sqq. for statistics), but in the older literature often follows it; and in UmbroOscan postposition is common, e.g. Umbr. asam-ađ, ' ad aram,' termnom-e 'in terminum.' (So our 'in here' was earlier 'here in'). In I.-Eur. the Preposition seems to have preceded the Verb, but to have followed the Noun, while between the Prep. and the V erb a Particle or Enclitic Pronoun (ch. iii. § 12) might be inserted (cf. O. Lat. anti-d-eo, § 18 ?, sub vos placo, p. $5^{69}$ ).

On the Vulgar Latin treatment of Prepositions in composition with Verbs, as it is reflected in the Romance languages, see Meyer-Lübke Rom. Gram. ii. pp. 617 sqq. To the ordinary Prepositions were added foris, e. g. Vulg. Lat. foris-facere (Fr. forfaire, Ital. fuorfare), and other words.
§ 12. Ab, ap-, po-, abs, ā-, au-, af, absque. $\breve{A} l$, from, is I.-Eur. *ap (Goth. af, Engl. of, off), a curtailed form of *ăpŏ (O. Ind. ápa, Gk. ämo, e.g. O. Ind. apa-i-, ‘ to go away,' Gk. ä $\pi-\epsilon \iota \mu$, Lat. ab-eo; cf. Lat. ăp ${ }^{\text {und }}$ for *apo- $d$, see below), of which another curtailment was *po (O. Sl. po-, Lith. pa-), found in Lat. pŏ-sĭtus, pōno for *po-s(i)no (with Pft. pŏ-sīvi changed to pŏs-ui owing to a false apprehension of po-situs as if it were posi-tus like mŏnŭ-tus). (Po-lubrum, a wash-basin, pŏ-lire, and Germ. vo-n, O. H. G. fo-na and fo-n, have also been referred to this I.-Eur. form, § 39). The form $\breve{a} p$ - appears in $\breve{a} p-e \breve{r i o}$, and was no doubt the shape assumed by the word in such collections as ab templo; ab is due to the same

Latin preference for $-b$ rather than $-p$, as substituted ob for op (Osc. op ; cf. Lat. op-erio), sub for *sup (ch. ii. § 73). The form abs (pronounced and often written aps, see ch. ii. §80), in which the Preposition is augmented by the particle *-s( $_{\text {(e) }}$ (Gk. ä $\psi$ ), is used in Composition before Tenues,e.g. before $t, c$ in $a b s-t r a h o, a b s-c o n d o$, while before $p$ it is, by a law of Latin phonetics (ch. iv. § 157), reduced to as-, e. g. as-porto for *aps-porto, as-pello for *aps-pello; it appears also in the O. Lat. phrase absque me (te, \&c.) esset (.foret), equivalent to 'si sine me esset,' where que, like its O. Ind. equivalent ca in the Rig-Veda, seems almost to have the sense of 'if' (cf. O. Engl. an for and); at a later period absque me, \&c. was used without the verb, and absque came to take the sense of sine, without (A.L.L. vi. 197). That $\bar{a}$ (Osc. aa-manaffed 'amandavit,' Umbr. aha-, aa-, a-, e.g. aha-vendu beside prevendu) is another form of $a b$, as $\bar{e}$ of $e x$ (see below), is generally believed, though it is difficult to see why $o b$ and sub did not develope corresponding forms ${ }^{\bar{o}}, * s \bar{u}$; it may be an entirely different word, associated with $a b$ because of its resemblance in meaning, form, and usage ${ }^{1}$. Au- of aufügio, aufĕro, \&c. is an example of an association of this kind. It has not been produced from $a b$ by any phonetic process, but represents a different I.-Eur. preposition, ${ }^{*}$ aw(č) (O. Ind. áva, Pruss. au-, e.g. O. Ind. ava-bhr-- ' au-fero '), which was brought into requisition in these Compounds before an initial $f$ to avoid confusion with the compounds of ad, e.g. affero. (On the confusion between äfluo and afluo, see Nettleship, Contrib. Lat. Lex. s.v.). A curious Preposition af, used in Cicero's time occasionally in account-books, with the name of the person from whom money had been received, occurs on a few inscriptions, and in O. Lat. afvolant for āvŏlant. Whether it is a dialectal form (cf. Pelign. af-ded 'abiit'?) with $f$ representing some I.-Eur. aspirate (cf. O. Ind. ádhi, ' on,' used with Abl. in the sense of 'from'), or a Latin variety of $a b$ (or $a u$ ?) with $f$ produced originally under the influence of some following consonant (most probably $v$ ), it is impossible to say. It may be a mere (Greek ?) trick of writing, with the symbol F employed to denote the $u$ - or $w$-sound, like the Greek digamma (cf. Prisc. i. 35.17 H .).

[^111]§ 13. Ab, abs, a. In Plautus $a b$ is used before vowels and $j, s, r ; \bar{a}$ before $b, p, m, f, v, c, q, g$ (Labial and Guttural sounds); abs (and a) before tu, tuus, $\& c . ; a b$ and $a$ before $t, d, l, n$; in class. Lat. $a b$ is used before vowels and $l, n$, $r, s, j$; $\bar{a}$ before $b, p, f, v$; abs before $c, q, t$ (Cicero began with abste, but discarded this expression for $a t e$ ); in Late Latin $a b$ is used before vowels, $\bar{a}$ before consonants (see Langen, Beitr. 33I ; Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v. ; A. L. L. iii. 148). The usage of $\bar{a}$ in the older period allows of its being a mere phonetic development of $a b$, for $\bar{a}$ bello may be simply an expression of the sound abbello (ch. ii. § 130), and so the shortening of $\bar{a}$ by the Law of Breves Breviantes in Plautus, e. g. quĭd $\breve{a}$ betio portat?, will not be a case of the shortening of a naturally long vowel by this law (see ch. iii. §34).
§ 14. Af. Cicero's words are (Orat. xlvii. 158) : una praepositio est 'af,' eaque nunc tantum in accepti tabulis manet, ne his quidem omnium, in reliquo sermone mutata est ; nam 'a-movit' dicimus et 'ab-egit' et 'abs-tulit,' ut jam nescias ' $a$ ' ne verum sit an 'ab,' ' abs.' Quid si etiam 'au-fugit,' quod ' ab-fugit' turpe visum est et ' a-fer' noluerunt, 'aufugit' et 'aufer' maluerunt. Quae praepositio praeter haec duo verba nullo alio in verbo reperietur. Velius Longus ( 60.13 K .), who refers to this passage of Cicero, gives as an illustration of the now obsolete use of af in receipts, af Longo (his own name); Paul. Festus (19. 3 I Th.) mentions afvolant as an actual form used by an ancient writer. On an inscription of Amiternum (Not. Scav. Oct. 1891) we have af vinieis, af villa (beside ab castello, ab segete) ; on the Epistula ad Tiburtes (C. I. L. і. 201, of с. уоо в. с.) af uobeis; on the milestone of Popillius (i. 551, of 132 в. c., from Lucania) (f Capua (besides ab Regio) ; on a bilingual (Greek and Latin) inscription ascribed to c. 8ı в. с. (i. 587) af Lyco ; on an inscription of Praeneste (i. II43) af muro, and so on.
§ 15. Ad, at, to, I.-Eur. *ad (O. Ir. ad, e. g. at-om-aig ‘adigit me,' lit. ' ad me agit,' Goth. at, Engl. at ; cf. Goth. at-tiuha with Lat. ad-dūco, Goth. at-baira with Lat. ad-féro) is a different word from the Conjunction at, I.-Eur. *at (Goth. ap- in ap-pan, ‘but'), though often confused with it in Roman spelling (ch. ii. § 76). On the old form ar, e. g. arfuerunt, arrorsum, due to the phonetic change of $d$ to an $r$-sound before $f, v$, see ch. iv. § 112 . This Preposition, which governs the Acc. in Umbro-Oscan as in Latin, is found augmented with the particle $*_{s}(\mathrm{e})$ in Oscan, e.g. az húrtúm'ad hortum'; but also ad, e. g. adpúd 'adquo' 'quoad,' idad 'ad id.' In Umbrian we have ad, e.g. ađ-fertur 'adfertor,' ađputrati 'arbitratu' (ch. iv. § II2), postfixed to Nouns, e.g. asam-ađ 'ad aram,' written $a r$ - in arnipo 'quoad ' (§ 1o. 3).
§ 16. Ambĭ-, around, on each side, I.-Eur. *ambhı̆ (Gk. à $\mu \phi i ́$; cf.
O. Ind. abhí, Gaul. ambi-, O.Ir. imme, imb-, W.am-, O.Engl. ymb,
O. Sl. obi-), a Locative of the same stem as I.-Eur. *ambhō, 'both '
（Gk．ä $\mu \phi \omega$ ，Lat．ambo；cf．O．Ind．ubhá－，Goth．bai，baj－ōps，Lith． abù，O．Sl．oba），appears in Latin compounds in the forms，（I） amb－before a vowel，e．g．amb－arvāle（sacrificium）＇quod arva ambiat victima＇（Serv．ad Ecl．iii．77），amb－urbiales（hostiae）＇quae circum terminos urbis Romae ducebantur＇（Paul．Fest．4． 15 Th．）， amb－ustus＇circumustus＇（ib．4．17），whence by false analogy comb－ustus，instead of＊com－ustus（unless this rather represents co－amb－ustus），amb－ĭtus＇circuitus＇（ib．4．18）；（2）am－before a consonant，e．g．am－ter－mini（oratores），a phrase of Cato＇s＇qui circa terminos provinciae manent＇（Paul．Fest． 13.9 Th．；Macr． i．14．5；Gl．Philox．），am－plector，am－pendices＇quod circum－ pendebant＇（Paul．Fest．16． 3 Th．），am－segetes＇quorum ager viam tangit＇（ib．I6．i ；Charis．231．I I K．seems to quote a similar amfines），ăm－ı̆cio for am－jicio．The form amlŭ－in compounds bears the sense of＇both＇in ambř－dens（ovis）＇quae superioribus et inferioribus est dentibus＇（Paul．Fest．4． 9 Th．），ambi－lustrum ＇quod non licebat nisi ambos censores post quinquennium lustrare civitatem＇（＇Serv．＇ad Aen．i．283），ambi－vium．In Umbro－Oscan the word appears with an $r$－suffix（cf．inter），Osc amfr－et ＇ambiunt，＇Umbr．ambr－etuto＇ambiunto，＇but also e．g．Osc． am－núd＇circuitu，＇am－víanud＇vico，＇Umbr．an－ferener＇cir－ cumferendi．＇
§ 17．Ăn－，a curtailment of I．－Eur．＊ănă，＇on＇（Zend ana，Gk． à $\left.{ }^{\prime} a^{\prime}, G o t h . ~ a n a, ~ E n g l . ~ o n, ~ O . ~ S l . ~ v u ̆ ~ f o r ~ * o ̆ n\right) ~(c f . ~ I .-E u r . ~ * a ̆ n u ̆), ~(, ~$ （O．Ind．ánu，Zend anu）may appear in $\breve{n}$－kèlus（also derived from the root an－，＇to breathe，＇whence $\breve{a} n ⿱ 䒑 䶹 m u s, ~ \& c.), ~ a n-q u \bar{u} r o ~[b y ~ s o m e ~$ explained as＊amb $(i)$－quiro］，an－tennae，an－testari（or for＊ante－ tennae，＊ante－testari，ch．iii．§ $13, \mathrm{p} . \mathrm{I}_{76}$ ）．Its presence is more certain in Umbro－Oscan，e．g．Osc．ava－Faкєт＇consecravit，＇an－ getuzet＇proposuerunt，＇Umbr．an－tentu＇intendito，＇am－pentu ＇impendito，＇unless indeed it is here some variety of Lat．in，as an－the Umbro－Oscan negative prefix（ch．iv．§ 81）is of Lat．in－．
§ 18．Antë，before，I．－Eur．＊antĭ（O．Ind．ánti，‘ opposite，near，＇ Gk．àvti，opposite，instead of，Goth．and，＇towards，＇Engl．an－swer， Lith．añt，＇on＇），a Locative Sing．of some stem connected with Lat．antes，rows，O．Ind．ánta－，＇vicinity，end，＇Goth．and－eis，＇end，＇ of which Gk．ä $\nu \tau a$ ，opposite（cf．áv $\nu \tau \eta \nu$ ），is another case．In Oscan
the Preposition (governing the Acc. as in Latin) appears without the final short vowel (this loss of a final $\breve{1}$ is common in Oscan), e.g. ant púnttram 'ante pontem;' but in Latin, though poste was reduced to post (see below), ant is not written for ante [in Plaut. Rud. 509, if the reading of the MSS. is right, we must pronounce ant(e)positast, a quadrisyllable:

## quam quaé Thyestae quóndam antepósitast Téreo.

On antenna and antestor, see above]. With the particle *dĕ appended, as in postid, is the form antidl- in O. Lat. antüd-eo (e.g. Plaut. Trin. 545 sed Campans genus Multo Surorum iam antidit patientiā), antüd-hac (used by Plautus when three syllables are required by the metre, anteliac being a dissyllable; cf. antidit, \&ce. and anteit, \&c.), antüd -eē (Liv. xxii. 10.6 in the Vow of the Ver Sacrum ; antea is not found in Plautus, and only once in Terence, viz. Andr. 52). In antid- the -1 of I.-Eur. *anti, not being final, does not sink to $\check{e}$ (cf. anti-stes, \&c., ch. iii. § 39).
§ 19. Apud, which is also spelt aput, seems to be the I.-Eur. Preposition *ăpŏ (of which Lat. $a b$ is a curtailment; see above), augmented by the particle $* \mathrm{~d}(\mathrm{e})$, or ${ }_{\mathrm{t}}^{\mathrm{t}}(\mathrm{Y})$, and must have been originally *apo-d, or *apo-t (cf. Dor. тотí). An old form apor, with that change of $-d$ to an $r$-sound (before $f, v$ ) seen in arfue-runt, ar-vorsum, \&c. (ch. iv. § 112 ), is quoted by Paul. Fest. 19. 34 Th. (cf. apur finen on a Marsic inscr., Zvet. I. I. I. 45 ; apur is quoted by Mar. Vict. 9. 17 K.). On the spelling aput, like at, set for ad, sed, see ch. ii. § 76. In Oscan úp, op (Lat. ob) is used with the Abl. in the sense of Lat. apud, e. g. op tovtad 'apud populum,' úp eísúd sakaraklúd 'apud id sacellum.'
§ 20. Circum, circā, cirč̌ter. Circum, around, is the Adverbial Acc. Sg. of circus (Gk. крíкоs, a ring; cf. O. Engl. hring, with nasalization), which had in O. Lat. the sense of class. circulus (Dub. Nom. 573.4 K ; cf. above, ch. v. § 24), and is used, for example, by Accius of the moon's orbit (Trag. 100 R.) : quot lúna circos ánnuo in cursu institit.
In the early literature circum is the only form, whether Adverb or Preposition, but in class. Lat. a byform circa appears, first found in Cicero (who uses it in three passages of the Verrine orations, but afterwards seems to have discarded it), possibly never
in Caesar, but much affected by Livy. Circā is a formation on the type of suprā, extra $\bar{a}$, \&c., perhaps originally employed with verbs like esse (Cicero's three examples of the words are : Verr. II. i. 51.133 canes esse circa se multos; i. 48 . 126 canibus, quos circa se haberet; iv. 48 . 107 Henna, quam circa lacus sunt plurimi), owing to a feeling that circum was suitable only for verbs of motion, e.g. legatos circum civitates mittere, 'to send ambassadors a tour of the states,' ire circum urbem, 'to go a circuit of the city' (A.L. L. v. 295). Circiter, an adverbial formation like breviter, O. Lat. amiciter (see § 1 ), came to be restricted to the logical sense of 'about,' ' almost,' e. g. Plaut. Cist. 677 loca haec circiter. The form circo appears in the Adverb id-circo, as circa in quocirca, with the same logical sense (cf. Osc. amnud, 'because of,' in egm[as tovti]cas amnud 'rei publicae causa,' an adverbial Abl. Sg . Neut. of amno-, a formation with the suffix -no- from the Preposition am- [Lat. am-, ambi-], as comno- ' comitium ' from the Prep. com-).

Cǐs, cǐtrā, on this side (cf. Umb. çimu, şimo, 'retro'?), are formed from the I.-Eur.pronominal root kì-, 'this' (Gk. -кı of oùкí, $о о \lambda \lambda a ́ \kappa \iota$, Goth. hi-na, ' this,' Engl. he, Lith. szìs, O. Sl. sǐ), exactly as their opposites uls, ultra, on that side, from the I.-Eur. pronominal root ol-, 'that' (ch. vii. § 13), the first by the addition of the particle ${ }^{\text {s }}$ (e) (p. 573 ; on uls for *oll, see §56), the second (an Abl. Sg. Fem.) by the suffix -tero- (ch. v. § i6). The Adverb citrō (Abl. Sg. Neut. or Masc.) corresponds to citrī as ultrō (e. g. ultro citroque) to ultrā.
§ 21. Clam, clancŭlum. Clam, an Adverbial Acc. Sg. Fem. (?) from' the root kel-, 'to hide' (Lat. cēlō, occŭlo, \&c.), had in O. Lat. a byform clam-dle, clande (written clade in the MSS. of Placidus 15.32 G.; but cf. quamde from quam, ch. x. § 1 I ), whence was formed the Adj. clandestīnus. Another O. Lat. form written callim in the MSS. of Paul. Fest. 33.6 (' callim' antiqui dicebant pro clam, ut 'nis' pro nobis, 'sam' pro suam, 'in' pro eum) is more difficult to explain. (Should we read calam, and refer the form to the Analogy of pălam? It may be merely the coinage of some grammarian to support his etymology of clam). Clam, which governs the Acc. always in Plaut. and Ter., and perhaps never the Abl. at any period of Latin (Langen, Beitr. p. 230), has in the Comedians another, apparently a Diminutive form,
clancưlum (but cf. procul, § 2), used as a Preposition by Terence, Adelph. 52 clanculum patres. Cf. the glosses : clanculae 'absconsae' (C. G. L. v. 277.58) ; clanculum 'occultum' (ib. 278. 1).
§ 22. Corm-, (cŭm), with, and co- (e.g. cōgo for cŏ-ăgo), I.-Eur. ${ }^{*} k$ ŏm and $* k o ̆(?)($ with palatal or with guttural $k$ ?) (O. Ir. com-, co, W. cyf-, cy, Osc. com, con, co-, Umbr. com, -co, co-) is in early inscriptions written quom (Bersu, Gutturale, p. 42), like the Relative Adverb quom, when, because quo- had the same sound as co- (ch. iv. § 137). The $o$ of com became $u$ in the unaccented use of the word (ch.iv. §20), and before certain initial consonants (ch.ii. § 22), and cum became the recognized spelling of the simple Preposition, though in compounds, e.g. com-es, the o-form was retained. On the form co-, e. g. co-eo (Quint. i. 6. 17), O. Lat. co-ventionid, and the like, see ch. ii. §§ 6I, 65. Its original difference from com- is not certain. Osc. com, with, governs the Abl., and is prefixed in compreivatud, conpreivatud 'cum privato' on the Tabula Bantina (cf. Umbr. com prinvatir 'cum legatis'), but Umbr. kum, com is postfixed in the sense of 'apud,' 'juxta,' e.g. asa-ku, 'juxta aram,' veris-co (opposed to pre verir and post verir), at the gates.
§ 23. Contra (see §§ I, 4). Osc. contrud in the phrase on the Bantine Law: svae pis contrud exeic fefacust 'si quis contra hoc fecerit,' is followed by the Adverb (Locative) exeic, as Lat. arvorsum in the S. C. Bacch. by the Adverb (Abl. Fem.) ead: sei ques esent, quei aruorsum ead fecisent. It is Abl. of an O-stem (cf. Lat. contrō-versia), as contrā of an $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-stem.
§ 24. Cōram, in presence of (not a Preposition till Cicero's time), seems to be connected with $\bar{\delta} s$, Gen. $\bar{o} r i s$, the face, perhaps being an Adverbial Acc. Sg. Fem. of a stem *cōso- (*cōro-), compounded of the preposition com- (cum) and this noun (cf. O. Ind. sākṣăd). Incoram with a Gen., e.g. incoram omnium, is found in Apuleius.
§ 25. Dē, down from, concerning (Fal. de in the phrase: de zenatuo sententiad, Zvet. I.I.I. 70) ; O. Ir. dī, O. W. dì; cf. O. Ir. di-mōr, 'very great,' with Lat. de-magis, \&c. corresponds to Osc. dat (e. g. dat senateis tanginud 'de senatus sententia'),
which seems to have the particle $-t(i)$ affixed, as per-t, Lat. per ( $\S 3^{8}$ ), unless the -t stand for -d, in which case *dad may be an Ablative (Lat. dē for *dèd?). The Umbrian Preposition is da (with final -d or -t dropped in Umbrian fashion), if da-etom on the Eugubine Tables (vi. A 28) stands for Lat. demptum (cf. Osc. da-did ' dedat,' da-díkatted 'dedicavit').
§ 26. Diss-, apart, is most naturally referred to some byform of the root dwo-, dwi-, 'two ' (Goth. tvis-, e. g. tvis-standan, 'to separate'), wanting the w (see ch. iv. § 71). With the w the same formation expressed the Numeral Adverb *dwĭs [O. Ind. dvís, Gk. $\delta(F)$ is, M. H. G. zwis], and is in Latin bis (ch. iv. § 68). Before a vowel $d \imath s$ - becomes, by the phonetic law of Latin, dir- (ch. iv.
 di-, e. g. di-mŏveo (dis-mota on the S. C. Bacch., C.I. L. i. 196).
§ 27. Endǒ. (Cf. O. Ir. ind-., e.g. ind-riuth, 'I attack,' Gaul. ande-?), also under the form indu, the $i$ and $u$ being apparently weakening of $e$ and $o$ due to the unaccented use of the Preposition. It corresponds in meaning to in (both with Abl. and Acc.), and was in classical Latin replaced by in, e.g. class. im-pĕrätor, O. Lat. indu-perator, class. in-grëdi, O. Lat. indu-gredi. It seems to represent an I.-Eur. *en-dŏ (Gk. évòo- $\theta$ l, $\left.{ }_{\epsilon}^{\prime} \nu \delta \partial o-\theta \epsilon \nu, \stackrel{้}{\epsilon} \nu \delta o \nu\right)$, compounded of the Prep. *en (Lat. in) and the Prep. *dŏ (cf. Lat. dō-nec ; O. Ir. do, Engl. to, Lith. do, O. Sl. do), the last element being connected with the Adverbial particle *d(e) (Gk. $\delta o ́ \mu o v-\delta \epsilon)$. The final -o has been preserved from becoming - $\breve{<}$ in Latin (ch. iii. §37) by the frequent use of the word as the first element in a compound. (So *prŏ remains pro in Latin and does not in unaccented use become ${ }^{*} p r e \breve{e}$, owing to compounds like $\mu$ rŏ-ficiscor, \&c.). Traces of the same confusion of I.-Eur. *endo- and I.-Eur. *en- are seen in Celtic.

Endo and indu. The form endo occurs, e.g. in the epitaph of Ennius, quoted by Cicero, in his De Repullica (ap. Sen. Epp. 108. 34):
si fas endo plagas caelestum ascendere cuiquam est, mi soli caeli maxima porta patet,
in a clause of the XII Tables (ap. Fest. 452. 6 Th.) : si caluitur, pedemue struit, manum endo iacito, 'if he deceives, or attempts to run away, the prosecutor may arrest him,' a clause alluded to by Lucilius, xvii. то M. :
si non it, capito, inquit, eum, et si caluitur, endo
fertǒ manum,
and in other laws, and is one of the archaisms used by Cicero in drawing up his code of laws (Legg. ii. 8. 19) ; it is employed too by Lucretius (vi. 890) endǒ mari [cf. the glosses: endoclusa $\bar{\epsilon} \gamma \kappa \epsilon \kappa \lambda \epsilon \iota \sigma \mu \epsilon ́ \nu \eta$; endo festabat; endo rivum ката̀ $\hat{\rho} \epsilon i ̂ \theta \rho o \nu$; endodicarit $\mu \eta \nu v ́ \sigma \epsilon \iota$ (C. G. L. ii. 6x. 35); endogenia (-ua ?) 'naturaliter amoena'; endoriguum 'irriguum' (C. G.L.v. 193.25)]. The form indo-appears in a line of Ennius, referring to Romulus and Remus (Ann. 59 M.):

## indotuetur ibi lupus femina, conspicit omnis;

the form indu, e.g. in Ennius, $A n n .298$ M. indu foro lato sanctoque senatu (cf. Lucil. inc. 17 indŭ foro); in Lucr. v. ro2 nec jacere indu manus (cf. ii. rog6 indu manu), as well as in the compounds induperator Enn., Lucr., indupedio Lucr., indugredior Lucr., \&c. By the time of Plautus the word seems to have dropped out of ordinary usage, for it occurs in his plays only in compounds like ind-audio (Terence knows only in-audio), ind--̌piscor (cf. class. indigeo, incll-gĕna, ind-öles, \&c.) ; and though it occurs at the end of Varro's Res Rusticae (iii. 17. 10) : ille inde endo suam domum, nos nostram, the phrase is a quotation from Ennius' curious experiment in language, mentioned by Ausonius (Techn. 18) and others : endo suam do, with do, an apocopated form of dŏmum, after the type of Homer's $\delta \hat{\omega}$.
§ 28. Ergā, ergō. Ergā, originally local (e.g. Plaut. I'ruc. 405 tonstricém Suram Nouístin nostram quae érga aedem seséd habet?, if the MSS. reading be right), must be connected with erg $\overline{0}$, on account of, in O. Lat. a preposition or rather postposition, governing the Genitive, e.g. funeris ergo, XII Tab. Whether the two words have been differentiated on the type of ultrā and ultro, intr $\bar{a}$ and intro , or whether they came originally from two different stems, it is impossible to say. Ergo has been explained as a compound of the Preposition $\bar{e}$ and the Abl. Sg. of a stem *rego- (from the root reĝ-, 'to stretch'), meaning 'direction,' so that its change of meaning would resemble that of German wegen (originally von wegen). Ergā might similarly represent $e *_{\text {rĕgā }}$, like e reğ $\bar{o} n e$, opposite. It is not restricted to the expression of friendly feeling in Plautus, e.g. Pseud. 1020 ne málus item erga mé sit, ut erga illúm fuit; Cas. 618 aut quód ego umquam erga Uénerem inique fécerim.
§ 29. Ex, ec-, ē, out of. I.-Eur. *ek̂s (Gk. द̀ $\xi$, Gaul. ex-, O. Ir. ess-, W. es-; cf. Lith. isz ?) appears to be a compound of a Preposition $*_{\mathrm{e} k}$ and the particle $*_{\mathrm{s}}(\mathrm{e})$, as Gk . $\ddot{\mu} \psi$, Lat. abs,
 In Latin compounds the Preposition often appears before the letter $f$ in the form ec- in MSS. (cf. Ter. Scaur. 26. 14 K. effatus, non 'exfatus' nec 'ecfatus,' ut quidam putaverunt; Ter.

Maur. l. 949 K. muto vel partem prioris, si fit hirtum, syllabae, 'ecfer' ut dicam, vel illud, 'hoc tibi effectum dabo'), e.g. ecfödio, ecfëro, ecfäri (for examples, see Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 870), often corrupted to haec and to et (see Class. Rev. v. 295; Fleck. Jahrb. 1890, p. 771). (Et is often a corruption also of ex, owing to the fact that the symbols for these words in minuscule writing were very similar.) This ec- may be merely a phonetic development of $e x$ before $f$, as $\bar{e}$ of $e x$ before $l l$ (e. g. $\bar{e}-d \bar{u} c o$; cf. sē-lĕčim), $m$ (e. g. $\bar{e}-m i t t o$; cf. sē-mestris), \&c. (ch. iv. § ${ }^{5} 5 \mathrm{I}$ ). Corresponding to Lat. $\bar{e}$ we find in Osc. ee-stínt (apparently with a different sound from I.-Eur. è, which is in Osc. i, í, e. g. ligud'lege '), eehiianasúm ' e(ve)hiandarum,' Umbr. chiato- ' evehiato-,' easa ' ex ara,' \&c. (see ch. ii. § 6).

Extrā. (O. Lat. extrad ; cf. the S. C. Bacch., C.I. L. i. ig6 exstrad urbem) is an Abl. Sg. Fem. of an extension of $e x$ by the suffix -t(e)ro- (ch. v. § 16), like in-tra, cü-tra, ul-tra, \&e. Oscan ehtrad (with $h t$ for $c t$, as in Uhtavis, the Oscan form of Octavius), O. Ir. echtar may represent an original stem $* \mathrm{ek}(\mathrm{s})$-tero- or *eî-tero-.
§ 30. Ĭn, in, the unaccented form of O. Lat. en [cf. énque, but ináltord on the (restored) Col. Rostrata (C.I. L. i. 195)] is I.-Eur. *ĕn (Gk. $\grave{\varepsilon} \nu$, O. Ir. in, W. yn, Goth. in, Lith. $\mathfrak{t})$. The same form is used in Latin and other languages with the two senses, (1) in, (2) into [whereas in Greek the second is distinguished by the addition of the particle $*_{s}(\mathrm{e}), \dot{\epsilon} \nu s$, Att. $\left.\epsilon i s\right]$, and appears to be a Locative case, formed without the case-suffix -1 (ch. vi. §37). (The Greek byform $\overline{\epsilon \nu} \nu i ́ s h o w s ~ t h i s ~ c a s e-s u f f i x ~ ; ~ b u t ~ c f . ~ a b o v e, ~ § ~ i I) . ~$. Before labial consonants in became im by the Latin phonetic law (ch. iv. § 78), e. g. im-pleo, im-mitto, imbello (in war), C.I. L. iii. 4835 , \& $\dot{c}$. On the derivative Prepositions endo, inter, see $\S \S 27,32$.

Osc. en (in), Umbr. en, have with Acc. and Loc. (not Abl.) the two senses of Lat. in, but are postfixed, e.g. Osc. exaisc-en ligis 'hisce in legibus,' Pel. eite uus pritrom-e, 'do ye go past or forward,' Umbr. arvam -en 'in arvum,' arven ' in arvo,' fesner-e 'in fanis.' Osc. -en with the Abl. imad-en 'ab ima (parte),' eisuc-en ziculud ' ab eo die (*dieculo),' which has the sense of Lat. $a b$, has been referred to Lat. inde (but see § io. 6).
§ 31. Infrā (infera, C.I.L. i. ı166), an Abl. Sg. Fem. like suprā, citrā, intrā, connected with the Adj. infërus (on which see ch. v. § 16 ).
§ 32. Intër, between (O. Ind. antár, O. Ir. ētar ; e. g. O. Ind. antár-chid- 'inter-scindo'), is formed from in by the addition of the suffix -tero- (see ch.v. §16), like intërior (cf. intrō,intrā), as ex-tero-, \&c. from ex. The Oscan form is anter (with Acc., but once with Abl.-Loc. Plur.), the Umbrian form is anter, ander (governing the Acc.), both with an- corresponding to Lat. in-, the Preposition, as to Lat. in, the Negative, e. g. Umbr. an-takro- ' in-tegro-.'
§ 33. Intrā, intŭs. Intrā is an Abl. Sg. Fem. like extrā, class. conträ (while intro is an Abl. Sg. Neut. like Osc. contrud, Lat. contrō-versia) (cf. Osc. Entra-, the name of a goddess). Intus (Gk. ėv-тós with the I.-Eur. affix -tǒs, implying usually motion from, § 1) wavers between an Adverb and a Preposition in such a phrase as Virgil's tali intus templo, ' in such temple, within' or ' within such temple' (cf. Lucr. vi. 798).
§ 34. Juxtā, which is first used as a Preposition by Caesar, is Abl. Sg. Fem. of a stem *juxto-, whether this be P.P.P. of a verb *juxo formed from jungo as viso from video, quaeso from quaero (ch. viii. §33.4), or a Superlative with the I.-Eur. Superlative suffix -isto- (Gk. $\pi \lambda \epsilon-i \sigma \pi o s, ~ \& c$.). The Adv. juxtim is found as early as Livius Andronicus (Trag. 11 R.).
 on, to, ö $\pi \iota-\sigma \theta \epsilon \nu$, behind, O. Ind. ápi, ' by,' Lith. api-, ' around '; cf. Lith. ap-szvễsti, 'to make light,' with Lat. ob-caeco, to make dark), is in Oscan op (with the sense of Lat. ugpud, governing the Abl., e.g. op tovtad ' apud populum,' úp eísúd sakaraklúd 'apud id sacellum'), and often retains its $-p$ in Latin spelling in compounds like op-tïneo (e.g. optenui on a Scipio Epitaph, C.I.L. i. 38 ; cf. Quint. i. 7. 7), op-ĕrio, though in the simple word the Latin usage substituted the Media for the Tenuis as the final consonant (cf. $a b$ for $a p, s u b$ for sup, and see ch. ii. § 76). In classical Latin it has the sense of 'before,' e.g. ob oculos ponere, to describe, or ' on account of '; but in the earlier literature it had other shades of meaning ; cf. Paul. Fest. 193. 7 Th.
ob praepositio alias ponitur pro circum, ut cum dicimus urbem ' obsideri,' . . . 'obvallari,' . . . alias pro ad, ut Ennius :
ob Romam noctu legiones ducere coepit;
Servius tells us that many interpreted ob Italiam in Virgil, Aen. i. 233 as 'juxta Italiam,' with the old sense of $o b$ : ob enim veteres pro juxta ponebant. (This variety of meanings has been explained by the theory that Lat. ob represents, not only I.-Eur. *epi, *opi, but also an *ebhi, seen in O. Ind. abhí.) By the addition of the particle $*_{\mathrm{s}}(\mathrm{e})$, as $a b$ became $a b s$ (e.g. abs te, abstineo), so ob became obs, a form occasionally found in compounds before $t$-, e. g. olstinet (Fest. 228. 6 Th. o. dicebant antiqui, quod nunc est ostendit), obstruldant (Paul. Fest. 22I. 3 Th. ‘ avide trudant'; Fest. 220.14) (so Umbr. os-tendu 'ostendito'). (On ŏmitto, see ch.iii. §34.)
§ 36. Pălam, like its opposite, clam, an Acc. Sg. Fem. (but see $\S$ 1) of some stem, perhaps connected with the Plautine verb dispalesco (Bacch. 1046):
periisse suáuiust
quam illúd flagitium uólgo dispaléscere
(from the root of pälari, to wander, be dispersed abroad). Others connect it with palma, the hand, and make it mean literally ' in the hand.' Besides the Adv. palam we have pro-palam, as early as Plautus, but palam is not a Prep. till the Augustan Age.
§ 37. Pĕněs (governing the Acc., usually of a person), represents some case of penus, -oris N ., or a kindred stem, from the root pen- of penŭ-tus (§ I), penĕ-tro, \&c., a suffixless Locative according to some. (cf. Dor. aiés), a Loc. Pl. according to others, who offer a similar explanation of vǐcissi-m (ch. ix. § 4), sëmissi-, vix, mox (cf. §3). The final syllable may have been prevented from being weakened to -is by the fact that the stress of the voice fell on it in the common phrases penés-me, penés-te, penésnos, penés-cos, \&c. (ch. iii. § $12 a .3$ ). Penes is used only with Pronouns in Plautus.
§ 38. Pĕr, through (Goth. fair-, Lith. per̃), connected with I.-Eur. *perō, ' I transport, bring or pass through' (O. Ind. pr--, O. Sl. perą; cf. Gk. $\pi \epsilon i ́ \rho \omega$, $\pi \in i ̂ \rho a, ~ L a t . ~ e x-p e \check{r i o r, ~ \& c .), ~}$ corresponds to Osc. per- of peremust, Fut. Pft. of a verb used
apparently in the old sense of Lat. perěmo (Fest. 266. 3I Th. 'peremere' Cincius in libro de Verbis Priscis ait significare idem, quod prohibere: at Cato in libro qui est de Re Militari pro vitiare usus est), though the commoner form of the Oscan Preposition is pert (with the suffix -tr of Gk. $\pi \rho o \sigma^{\prime}$, § II), e.g. comono pertemest ' comitia peremet,' am-pert, ' not beyond ' (used like Lat. duntaxat, § 7), petiro-pert, 'four times' (cf. Lat. sem-per, § 7), and to Umbr. per, pert, e.g. per-etom 'peremptum,' trio-per, 'three times,' which with the Abl. has the sense of Lat. pro, e. g. nomneper 'pro nomine.' The intensive sense of per- in per-magnus, per-quam, \&c. (often separated from the qualified word, e.g. per pol quam paucos reperias, Ter. Hec. 58 ; hence per-taesus did not become per-tīsus, ch. iii. § 23), is seen in Lith. per-saldùs, 'very sweet'; cf. Gk. $\pi \epsilon \rho \iota-\mu \eta$ к$к \eta s$, very long, \&c. (cf. Engl. 'through' and 'thorough'). Again Lat. per- approaches the usual sense of Gk. $\pi \epsilon \rho i$ i, about, around, in pertëgo, perungo, pervölito. The sense of ' past,' 'beyond ' (cf. Osc. am-pert, pert víam 'trans viam,' Umbr. pert spinia 'trans spinam'(?)) appears in per-go, \&c.; and with the implication of wrong or injury (cf. Gk. $\pi a \rho a-\beta a i \nu \omega$, $\pi a \rho-o ́ \mu \nu v \mu \iota$ ), in per-jūrus [from which рејёro, perjero (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.), can hardly be separated, though the $\breve{c}$ is hard to explain], per-do, per-füdus, and of difference in perĕgre It thus appears that per represents a considerable variety of meanings, and this variety is increased if we take into account Umbro-Oscan per, pert. For besides the sense of Lat. pro, on behalf of, seen in Umbr. nomne-per, \&c. in the Eugubine Liturgy: (tio . . ocre-per Fisiu, tota-per Iovina, erer nomne-per, erar nomne-per . . . subocau' te pro arce Fisia, pro populo Iguvino, pro ejus (M.) nomine, pro ejus (F.) nomine, subvoco,' estu esunu fetu fratrus-per Atiieđie 'ista sacra facito pro fratribus Atiediis'), once written -pert in the phrase: Petruniapert natine 'pro Petronia natione,' it has the local sense of Latin pro-, forward, in front, in the words, Umbr. per-ne, per-naio-, opposed to post-ne (Lat. pōne, behind), post-naio-, Osc. Perna-, the name of a goddess [cf. I.-Eur. *per- in *per-ŭt(Ĭ), from *wĕtos-, ‘a year,' O. Ind. parut, ' in the former year,' Gk. $\pi \pi^{\prime} \rho v \sigma \iota$, Dor. $\left.\pi \epsilon \rho \cdot \frac{1}{\prime} \iota\right)$. The reason of this is that the I.-Eur. root per- produced a large number of Prepositions, representing different case-forms, \&c., *pérĭ Loc.
(O. Ind. pári, 'around,' Gk. $\pi \epsilon \rho$ '), *p ${ }^{\text {eroós }}$ Gen. (O. Ind. purás, ‘before,' Gk. $\pi a ́ \rho o s)$, *pérṃ (O. Ind. páră,‘beyond '; cf. párā, Gk. $\pi \epsilon ́ \rho \bar{a}$; Lat. perem- of peren-die, Osc. perum dolom mallom 'sine dolo malo '), and so on. The weak grades of the root, pr-, pr-, seen in G'k. $\pi$ a $\rho$ á, Goth. faura, faur, Engl. be-fore, appear in Lat. por- of por-tentum, \&c., Umbr. pur-titu, pur-ditom (unless this be merely a metathesis of prŏ), and in Lat. prỡ, Umbr. pro, pru, Osc. pro, pru, as well as in Lat. prae from *prai (Pel. prai-, Osc. prae, Umbr. pre), perhaps a Dative form (cf. Gk. $\pi a \rho a i$, O. Ind. parế).
§ 39. Pǒ-, retained only in a few Compounds, po-sťtus, po-lubrum, porceo, \&c., as Teut. *mip, ' with' (Goth. mip, Germ. mit, like Gk. $\mu \in \tau$ á) is in English retained only in the compound 'midwife' (see under $a b$, § 12 ).
§ 40. Post, pōně. Post, behind, from *posť̆, O. Lat. poste, posti-l (with the particle ${ }^{*} \mathrm{~d}(\mathrm{e})$ ), adds the suffix -tr (§ ir) to I.-Eur. *pos (Lith. pàs, \&c.), which seems to be derived from *pŏ-(Lith. pa-, ' under,' O. Sl. po, ' about'), a curtailment of *ăpŏ (see § 12). In certain collocations the $-t$ was dropped by the Latin phonetic law (ch. iv. § 157), e.g. C.I.L. i. 1454 postempus; of Virg. Aen. iii. i Marius Victorinus says (22. II K.): posquam res Asiae, non 'postquam'; and this pos might be further reduced (before $m, \& c .$, ch. iv. $\S_{15}$ ) to $p \bar{o}-$, e.g. pō-merium (so spelt, not pomoerium), quod erat post murum 'post-moerium' dictum, Varro L. L. v. 143.

Pone (Plaut., \&c.) adds the suffix -nĕ (§ I I) to post (Umbr.postne, opposed to perne; cf. pustnaio-, pusnao- Adj., opposed to pernaio-).

Umbrian post is joined with the same case as pre (Lat. prae), e.g. post verir Treblanir and pre verir Treblanir, in O. Umbr. pusveres Treplanes and preveres Treplanes, and similarly Osc. púst feíhúís 'post fines,' while Osc. post exac corresponds to Lat. posthac.

In Umbro-Oscan we find a Preposition postin governing the Acc. case with the sense of Lat. secundum, e.g. Umbr. pusti kastruvuf, ' according to their lands,' Osc. pústin slagím, ' according to the locality (?).'
§ 41. Poste, posti-d, pos, pō-. Poste, which shows the regular change of -1 when final to $\check{e}$ (ĭ not final is retained, e.g. posti-d, see ch. iii. § 39), is found in a fine line of Ennius, Ann. 244 M., an exhortation to rowers :
poste recumbite, uestraque. pectora pellite tonsis,
frequently in Plautus, e. g. Asin. 915 (see Ritschl, Opusc. ii. 541 sqq.), and probably in Terence, Eun. 493 (see A. L. L. ii. r40). Its reduction to post is like that of animalĕ to animal, nequĕ to nec, \&c. (ch.iii. § 36 ). The Adverb postid is not unfrequent in Plautus (e. g. postid locorum, Poen. 144, \&c.), as also postid-eä (cf. antid-eñ, antid-hac), compounded with the Adverbial Abl. Sg. Fem. of is (§ 1о. 4) (e. g. postidea loci, Stich. 758, \&c.), and has on account of its exclusively adverbial use been regarded as a compound of post(e) with id, the (adverbial) Acc. Sg. Neut. of is (cf. post-ē̄, ad id locorum, Sall., Liv.), though this explanation requires us to see in postidea, antidea,\&c. a pleonastic repetition of the pronouns, post-id-eā, ant-id-eā. Cicero (Orat. xlvii. 157 ; cf. Vel. Long. 79.3 K.) says that he preferred posmeridianus (quadrigas) to postmeridianas, while Quintilian (ix. 4. 39) seems to mention the form pomeridiem. (On the spelling pos for post in MSS. of Plautus, see Ritschl, Opusc. ii. 549 ; of Virgil, see Ribbeck, Prolegg. p. 442 ; of other authors, see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s.v.). The evidence points to Lat. pos- being not I.-Eur. *pos, but a syncopated form of I.-Eur. *pos-tĭ (see Stolz, Beitr. p. 2I).
§ 42. Prae, before, I.-Eur. *prai (Lith. prễ ; cf. O. Ir. rē or ria, with a dropped final nasal). In O. Lat. also pri, according to Paul. Fest. 282. 27 Th. (cf. prīs-cus, prīs-tīnus, prīmus for *prīs-mo-, Pelign. Prismā-, pri-stafalacirix 'prae-stabulatrices'), probably I.-Eur. *prı̄ (Lith. pri, O. Sl. pri, Goth. fri-), connected with I.-Eur. *prō̆, 'before,' and with Gk. $\pi \dot{\alpha} \rho o s, \mathrm{O}$. Ind. purás, purá, Goth. faura, Engl. be-fore (B. $B$. xvii. I7), possibly a Dative formation from the root per- (see above, § 38). The Preposition is found with the same use as in Latin, but with prominence of the idea 'before' (often for Lat. ante), in the Umbro-Oscan languages ; Pel. prai-cim, Osc. prai, prae-sentil 'praesente' (with the usual sense of Lat. praesens; in the Columna Rostrata we have praesens in its older sense: praesente[d] . . . dictatored ol[or]om, 'being in command,' C.I. L. i. 195), prae-fucus 'praefectus,' Umbr. pre verir Treblanir 'ante portas Treblanas,' pre-pa, ' priusquam,' lit. ' prae-quam,' pre-habia 'praebeat.'
§ 43. Praetǒr, past, except, is formed from the preceding by means of the suffix -tero- like the Adverbs brĕči-ter, \&c. (§ 2), as from I.-Eur. ${ }^{*}$ pr $\overline{1}$ is formed Pelignian pritro- (in an epitaph, Zvet.I.I.I. i 3 eite uus pritrome 'ite vos praeter' quasi 'praeterum in '). (Cf. Umbr. pretro- ' prior.')
§ 44. Pro, por-. Prŏ, before, forth, is I.-Eur. *prǒ (O. Ind. prá, Gk. $\pi \rho \rho$, O. Ir. ro-, used like the Greek augment with preterite tenses, Goth. fra-, Lith. pra-, O. Sl. pro). The long vowel seems to be the vorwel of the Oscan preposition (or I.-Eur. *prŭ, Gk. $\pi \rho v ́ t a v \iota s, \& c$. .), e.g. pru-hipid 'prohibuerit,' pruter-pan ' priusquam,' and may have been I.-Eur. (Gk. $\pi \rho \omega-i$, early, O. H. G. fruo, Lett. prui-jam, 'forth '). These Oscan forms suggest that Lat. prō was not originally ${ }^{*} p r o \bar{o} l$, an Abl. form (which would be in Oscan *prud-, not pru-), so that the prōll- of pröd-est, prōd-ire, may be a form augmented by the particle $*_{-d}(\mathrm{e})$ like anti-cl-, posti-ll, r-ed-, \&c. In Late Latin the form prode (cf. Charis. 236. 29 K.) is common, especially with esse (cf. Charis. 237. 8 K., and see Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 662) (prodius: ulterius, longius, a prodeundo, quoted by Nonius 47. 10 M . from Varro, is generally corrected by editors to propius). The por- of por-rigo or porgo, porricio for *por-jicio, por-rō (O. Lat. porod), \&c. is either a metathesis of
 ch.iv. § 92). In Umbrian we have pro- for Lat. pro, before, e.g. procanurent 'procinuerint,' affixed in ie-pru (cf. promo- 'primus'), and pur- in a verb corresponding in sense to Lat. porricio and in form apparently to Lat. prō-do, with P. P. P. pur-ditom, Imper. pur-dovitu.
§ 45. Prō- and proั-. The variety prō- and prŏ- in Compounds (the simple preposition has always the long vowel) is seen more in the early literature than in the stereotyped usage of the classical age : prōvehat atque prŏpellat, Lucr. iv. 194 and vi. 1027 ; Lucr. prŏ́pagare ; O. Lat. prŏ-tinam. Prō- almost ousts prŏin class. Latin, but prŏ- is normal before $f$-, e. g. prŏ-ficiscor, prŏ-fundo, except in prö-ficio (for pröde-facio, as in Late Latin ?) ; but Catullus (lxiv. 202) has prōfudit; Plautus (Men. 643) and Ennius (Trag. 293 R.) prōfteri; Plautus (Trin. 149) pröfecturus. The Greek $\pi \rho o ́ \lambda o \gamma o s ~ i s ~ p r o ̈ l o g u s ~ i n ~ t h e ~ C o m e d i a n s ~(c f . ~ p r o ̈ p o l a, ~ L u c i l . ~$ v. 28 M .), $\pi \rho o \pi i \nu \omega$ is pröpinare. Even in classical poetry we have prŏcuro. O. Lat. prō-tervus might be similarly explained, were it not for the fact that there are indications of an old form proptervo- (so in the MSS. of Plaut. Bacch. 612, and in the Ambrosian Palimpsest in Truc. 256: see Löwe, Gloss. Nom. pp. 142, 184, who connects the form with Gk. $\pi \rho \circ \pi \epsilon \tau \eta \eta^{\prime}$ ). Prơbus (cf. O. Ind. prabhú- 'preeminent') apparently adds to prŏ the same formation (from the

§ 46. Prǒcŭl is formed from *prŏ by the suffix -ko- [a suffix often attached to adverbs, e.g. Lat. postī-cus, antī-cus (ch. v. §31), rěčiprŏcus from *reco- and *proco-, § 49], and some L-suffix (see § 2). It is used as a Prep. as early as Ennius (Trag. 220 R.)
§ 47. Prŏpĕ (e. g. Plaut. Curc. 97 prope me est) adds to I.-Eur. *prŏ the particle -pe (ch. x. § 1.4). The sense 'nearly' is perhaps later than Plautus (A.L.L. ix. 165). For Superl. proxime we should expect *prop-(i)s-ime, ch. vi. § 54).
§ 48. Proptěr, near, on account of (in Plautus this latter sense is always expressed by propter, not by ol, when a person is spoken of), is formed from the Adverb prope by means of the suffix -tero-, as praeter from prae (§43), circiter from circum (§20).
§ 49. Rĕ-, back, has in O. Lat. a byform rěld-, with the addition of the particle $*_{\mathrm{d}}(\mathrm{e})(\S 11$; cf. anti-ll, posti-l $)$, which in class. Lat. remains in rel-eo, red-do, \&c. (rectū-vīvus is peculiar), but is before a consonant usually discarded for $r \check{匕}-$-, e. $g$. rĕ-l $\bar{u} c o$ (O. Lat. red-duco, but perhaps only re-dux), (before a vowel, not till Late Latin, e. g. reaedifico; see A. L. L. viii. 278). From rewas formed the Adverb $r$ ē-trō (like in-tro, ci-trō, ul-trō), which in Late Lat. became a Preposition, e. g. vade retro me, S. Marc. viii. 33, Vulgata. An Adjective-stem * rěco- from this Preposition (ch. v. §31) is seen compounded with a stem *prŏco- from the Prep. prŏin the word reci-procus. In Umbrian this Prep. appears in two Compound Verbs, re-vestu 'revisito' and re-statu 'restituito.'
§ 50. Sĕcundum, sěcŭs. Secundum, according to, close behind, \&c. is the Adverbial Acc. Sg. Neut. of secuntus, following (§ 4). In plebeian Latin secus was used for secundum (Charis. 80.18 K . id quod vulgus usurpat, 'secus illum sedi,' hoc est secundum illum, et novum et sordidum est ; cf. Caper. 103.12 K.; so on plebeian inscriptions, secus merita ejus, secus viam, \&c., but also in O. Lat. authors, for Charis. (220. 14 K.) quotes hoc secus, 'soon after this,' from the historian Sempr. Asellio), which may be Nom. Sg. Masc. of an Adj.-stem (cf. heres secus, 'h. secundus,' C.I. L. iii. 387), or Acc. Sg. of a Neuter S-stem $*_{\text {secus, like tenus ( }}$ ( 54). Apparently connected with the Prep. secus are O. Ir. sech, 'past,' W. heb, ' without,' from a stem *seq ${ }^{\text {u }} 0-$; and the Latin Adv. secus appended to Adverbs in -im, e.g. extrin-secus (§ 10.5), as well as the secus of phrases like secus accidit, non secus atque (Comp. sequius) has been also referred to our Preposition on the theory that this Adverb meant originally 'following but coming short of,' ' less,' as O. Ir. seeh meant 'following and going past,' 'more than' (see § 8).
§ 50 a. Símǔl, used as a Prep. in Augustan and later poetry, and in Silver Age prose, is perhaps Acc. Sg. Neut. of similis (see § 2).
§ 51. Sinnĕ, sē. Sine, if connected with O. Ind. sanu-tár (cf. sani-túr), M. H. G. sun-der (which have the suffix -tero-), must represent I.-Eur. $*_{s^{e} n \check{~}}$ ( $\left.*^{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{e} n \mathrm{u}\right)$, and must have been in O. Lat. $*_{\text {sene, }}$ the change from $e$ to $i$ being due to the unaccented use of the word, as in $m i h i$ for ${ }^{*} m e h i$ (ch. vii. § 1). The spelling seine on the Lex Repetundarum (C.I.L. i. 198. 54) is best explained, like leiteras on the same inscription, as a case of $e i$ wrongly used for $\breve{\imath}$ (ch. ii. § I 30 ).
In O. Lat. there is another Preposition of the same meaning, $s \bar{e}(l)$ (as an Adverb meaning ' apart'), which became obsolete except in Compounds like sēd-ĭtio, lit. ‘a going apart,' se-orsum (-s) (a dissyll. as early as Plautus), sē-dŭūō from se dolo (whence the Adj. sēdulus, § 7), sē-cūrus, sē-cèlo, sē-cerno; it is evidently connected with the Conjunction sĕd (ch.x. §5); the $d$ of sèd-ı̆tio, \&c. need not be the Abl. Case-suffix, but may be the particle $* d(\mathrm{e})$ (cf. re- $l-$, , §49). This Preposition occurs in the legal phrase se fraude, ' without hurt,' free from penalty, written sed fraude on the Lex Repetundarum of 123-122 b.c. (C.I. L. i. 198), and on the Lex Agraria of 111 b.c.(i. 200, ll. 29 and 42, but se dulo malo l. 40) (cf. Paul. Fest. 500.6 Th. 'sed ' pro sine inveniuntur posuisse antiqui). The compound sed-ŭterque (cf. Umbr. sei-podruhpei) occurs in the Nom. Sg. Fem. in Plaut. Stich. 106 sedutraque ut dicat mihi. This $s e \bar{e}(d)$ has been plausibly connected with the I.-Eur. Reflexive Pronoun-stem $*_{\text {swe-- (Lat. sē Acc.), and explained }}$ as originally meaning 'by oneself.' The Old Slavonic Prepositions svě-ně, svě-nĭ, svě-nje, ' except, without,' in which this root swe- appears with an N -suffix, suggests that Lat. *se-ne may also be connected with the Reflexive Pronoun. The first part of the Compound Verb sol-vo, and the Adjs. so-brius (cf. $\bar{e}$-brius, according to Charis. 83 . 16 K. from bria 'vas vinarium '), sō-cors (cf. secordis 'stultus, fatuus,' C. G. L. iv. 282. 52), is of kindred origin. Festus quotes nesi ' pro sine positum' from an inscription on the temple of Diana on the Aventine, but the fragmentary condition of the MS. of Festus for this passage (nesi pro sine positum ... Dianae Aventinen . . . , 166. 26 Th .) makes it doubtful whether the word is
not really the conjunction nisi, used in a context which gave it the force of sine.
§ 52. Sŭb, subtěr, subtŭs. Sul, under, is I.-Eur. *ŭpŏ (O. Ind. úpa, ' to,' Gk. $\dot{i \pi o}$, under, for $\boldsymbol{v} \pi o^{\prime}$, O. Ir. fo, W. gwo-, go-, Goth. uf). The initial $s$-, which is found also in the Umbrian Preposition su(b), e. g. subocau, 'subvoco,' su-tentu 'subtendito,' as well as in super ( $\S 53$ ), is generally explained as a curtailment of prefixed ex (I.-Eur. *eks), so that sul would represent an I.-Eur. compound Preposition *ek̂s-upo, but is as likely to be the particle $-s(\mathrm{e})(\S 11)$. This particle $-\mathrm{s}(\mathrm{e})$ is postfixed in the form sus- for sub-s, e. g. sus-tinneo, sus-que de-que (in the O. Lat. phrase susque deque fero, habeo (Plaut. Amph. 886), explained by Gell. xvi. 9 as meaning 'aequo animo sum '), apparently used by wrong analogy in old forms of sumpsit and sumpserit quoted by Paul. Fest. 425.3 Th., suremit and surempsit. Sub-ter is a formation like prae-ter (§43), and sub-tus like in-tus (§33). The diminutive sense of Lat. sub in sub-absurdus, \&c. is shared by Gk. $\dot{i \pi o ́}(\mathrm{e} . \mathrm{g} . \dot{v} \pi o ́ \lambda \epsilon v \kappa o s)$ and O . Ir. fo (e. g. fo-dord, 'a murmur').
§ 53. Sŭpĕr, sŭprā, insuper, supernĕ. Super is I.-Eur. *ŭpĕr, *ŭpĕrı̆ (O. Ind. upári, Gk. vinє́ for $\dot{v} \pi \epsilon \rho$, O. Ir. for, O. W. guor-, Goth. ufar) with a prefixed $s$ - as in Lat. sub, just mentioned. Umbr. super governs the Loc., e.g. super kumne ' super comitio.' Süprā is an Abl. Sg. Fem. (suprad on the S. C. Bacch.) like in-tra $\overline{,}$ ci-trā, \&c. The form supera is quoted by Priscian (ii. 30.3 and 55.23 H .) from Cicero's poems, and is found in Lucretius as well as on C.I.L. i. IO11.(2). I I (see p. 181). The Umbrian equivalent is sobra, governing the Acc., e. g. sobra tudero'supra fines.' Super-nĕ (also supernë, Adv. of supernus) is formed from super as pōnĕ from post (§ 40). It is not used as a Preposition in Latin, at least in classical Latin, but is so used (governing an Acc.) in Umbrian, superne adro 'super atra (vascula).' Iusuper is a Prep. as early as Cato (R.R. xviii. 5).
§ 54. Tĕnŭs, apparently the Adverbial Acc. Sg. of a Neuter S-stem *tenes-, from the root ten-, 'to stretch' (cf. tenus $\mathrm{N} .$, ' a cord,' in Plaut. Bacch. 793 pendébit hodie púlcre ; ita intendí tenus) is used as a Preposition as early as Ennius. It takes the Abl. Sg.,
e.g. Tauro tenus, Cic. (originally 'from T. in a line,' then used for ' usque ad '), and the Gen. Pl., e. g. crurum tenus, Virg., and in Late Latin the Acc., e. g. Tanain tenus, Val. Flacc. It is not found in prose till the Silver Age (see A. L. L. i. 415). Tenus is appended to Adverbs in $-\bar{a}$ (older $-\bar{a} d$ Abl. Sg. Fem.) in the sense of 'as far as,' lit. 'stretching from,' e.g. aliqua-tenus, hac-tenus (on which see § ro. 4 ; cf. prō-tinus, § 4).
§ 55. Trans, across (Umbr. traf, tralaf), is either the Pres. Part. of *träre, in-trare, pĕnĕ-trare (probably the Nom. Sg. Masc. crystallized in Adverbial usage ; cf. § 2), or is an extension of an obsolete Preposition *tram (an Acc. Sg. Fem. from the same root) by the same particle $*_{\mathrm{s}}(\mathrm{e})$ as appears in the Prepositions of kindred meaning, ul-s, ci-s. It is clearly connected with O. Ir. tree or tria, trī, trem-, tar, W. trwy, trach, O. Ind. tirás, all from the root ter-, ' to go through, drive through ' (O. Ind. tr--, 'to bore,' Gk. $\tau \in i \rho \omega$, Lat. tĕro, \&c.). The -ans, pronounced -as (ch. ii. § 66), of traus became before voiced consonants $\bar{a}$ by the Latin phonetic law (ch. iv. § 151 ), e. g. trä-do (but transdo C.I.L.i. 198, ll. 54, 58, \&c.), trā-mitto (and trans-mitto). Umbr. traf, trahaf (i.e. trāf), tra governs the Acc. with a verb of motion, e.g. traf sahatam etu ' trans Sanctam ito,' the Loc. with the idea of rest, e. g. trahaf saliate vitla trif feetu' ' trans Sanctam vitulas tris facito.'
§ 56. Uls, ultrā, beyond, on the other side, came from the same root, I.-Eur. ol- (whence Lat. ille, O. Lat. olle for *ol-sŏ, ch.vii. § 1 3), the first being augmented by the particle $*_{\mathrm{s}}(\mathrm{e})(\S \mathrm{II})$, the second (an Abl. Sg. Fem.) by the suffix -tero- (ch. v. § i6). The $\begin{array}{r}\text { o }\end{array}$ has become $\breve{u}$ before the combination $l$ with a consonant by the Latin phonetic law (ch. iv. § 20), but the original vowel appears in oltimus (Osc. últiumo-) in Ennius' description of Servius Tullius (A. 337 M.) :
mortalem summum fortuna repente reddidit ut summo regno famul oltimus (MSS. optimus) esset.
(The ovis of the MS. of Varro L. L. v. 50 is a scribe's emendation of $v i s$, the same mis-writing of $u l s$ as occurs later in v .83 , or is due to the correction of ols to uls , and should not be printed ouls, which would imply $\bar{u} l s$. The shortness of the vowel is proved by the Romance forms of ultra; cf. Gell. xii. 13.8 on the extension
of in, cis, uls to intra, citra, ultra: quoniam parvo exiguoque sonitu obscurius promebantur, addita est tribus omnibus eadem syllaba. It is a mistake to suppose that there is an accent to indicate length over the first vowel of ultra in Claudius' tablet at Lyons.) An original $*_{o l}$-s(e) must have become $*_{o l l}$ in Latin ; the form $u l_{s}$ is due to a later re-addition of $s$ on the analogy of ci-s, \&c. (cf. ch. viii. § 68 on $f e r-s$ ).
§ 57. Usquĕ, with long $u$, to judge from Romance forms like O. Fr. usque, Fr. jusque for de usque (for Lat. $\breve{u}$ would be represented by o, see ch. ii. § 26 ), is formed from the I.-Eur. Preposition *ud, 'out, up out' (O. Ind. úd, Goth. ūt, Engl. out) in the same way as absque from I.-Eur. ${ }^{*} \operatorname{ap}(0)(§ 12)$, so is not connected with usquam (§ 10.9).

The Prepositional use of this Adverb (see § II), e. g. usque quintum diem, Cels. (in Cic. only 'usque Romam,' \&c.; so Ter. $A d .655$ Miletum usque, but Cato $R . R$. xlix. 2 usque radices persequito), is due to a curtailment of the proper phrase usque $a d$, much as in Attic Greek $\omega s$ (for $\omega s$ cis) came to be used as
 point out that usque, unlike other Prepositions (cf. p. 573), can take a Preposition as prefix, e.g. abusque, adusque (Expl. in Donat. 517. 22 K. nemo enim dicit 'de post forum,' nemo enim ' ab ante'; at vero dicimus 'ab usque' et 'ad usque') ; ab usque was a poetic inversion of Virgil's which found its way into Silver Age prose (A.L.L. vi. 8o) ; ad usque (first in Catull. iv. 24) is likewise a phrase of Augustan poetry and Silver Age prose (A.L.L. vii. 107).
58. Versus, versum, adversus, adversum, exadversus, exadversum. Versus apparently a Nom. Sg. Masc., as versum is an Acc. Sg. Neut., of the P. P. P. versus, corresponds to the Celtic Preposition meaning 'towards,' 'against' (O. Ir. frith, fri, W. wrth, O. W. gurt). On its Adverbial use, see § 2.

## CHAPTER X.

## CONJUNCTIONS AND INTERJECTIONS.

§1. CONJUNCTIONS. As Prepositions are hardly separable from Adverbs of Locality, so Conjunctions are closely connected with pronominal Adverbs. These pronominal Adverbs, as we have seen (ch. ix. § Io), are not always capable of being referred to their proper case-form (e.g. $\breve{\iota} b \bar{u}, \breve{u} \breve{u}$ ) , owing to our imperfect knowledge of the declension of the I.-Eur. pronoun. Nor is it easy to find their cognates in the various I.-Eur. languages; so rapidly does the meaning of a Conjunction alter. Thus Latin ĕnim, which in the older literature is a particle of asseveration, 'indeed,' had by the classical period appropriated the sense of 'for'; and in French, pas (Lat. passus) and point (Lat. punctum) have acquired a negative sense from their use in the phrases ne . . . pas, ne . . point. A feature of I.-Eur. Conjunctions is their tendency to append other Conjunctions or conjunctive Particles (e.g. iss in Greek may append $\left.\delta \dot{\eta}, \pi \epsilon \rho, \& c ., \omega s \delta \delta \dot{\eta}, \omega^{\prime \prime} s \pi \epsilon \rho\right)$; and this habit puts another obstacle in the way of identifying cognate Conjunctions in different languages, for in one language they may appear extended by one particle, in another language by another. The exact form of these conjunctive Particles is also a difficult thing to ascertain ; we often see parallel stems in $-0,-i,-u, \& c$. (e g. ${ }^{*} q^{u} 0-,{ }^{*} q^{\frac{u}{e}}{ }^{-},{ }^{*} q^{u}{ }^{i}-,{ }^{*} q^{u}{ }^{u}$ - are all various forms of the Relative and Interrogative Pronoun-stem, ch. vii. § 23 ; -tĕ and -tĭ appear in O. Ind. u-tá, Gk. av̂-тє, O. Ind. í-ti, Gk. $\neq-\tau \iota$ ), and parallel forms with long and with short vowel (e.g. Negative $*_{n e ̆}$ and $*_{n e ̄}$ appear in O. Ind. ná and ná, Lat. $n e \breve{e}-$ and $n e \bar{e}$; I.-Eur. *wĕ́, 'or,' O. Ind. vã, Lat. -vĕ); and the tendency was always
present to adapt the ending of one Conjunction to the ending of another Conjunction of similar meaning (e.g. Lat. saltem for saltim, adapted to au-tem, 亿̆-tem ?, ch. ix. § 4). It will therefore be best to designate these conjunctive Particles according to their consonants, as, for example, (1) the T-particle of Lat. tam, $\breve{\imath}$-tem, $u-t(\grave{v})$, Gk. $a \hat{v}-\tau \epsilon$, O. Ind. u-tá(-àt), í-ti, ‘so,' O. Sl. te, 'and'; (2) the
 Gk. $\delta \eta$, $\delta \epsilon \in, o^{\prime \prime}-\delta \epsilon$; (3) the DH- particle of Gk. $\epsilon_{\nu} \nu-\theta a$, O. Ind. kú-ha, 'where,' O. Sl. kŭ-de, 'where;' (4) the P-particle of Lat. quip-pe, nem-pe, Lith. kaĩ-p, 'how, as,' szeĩp . . . teĩp, 'so . . . so '; (5) the N -particle of Lat. nam, num, nem-pe, quis-nam, O. Ind. hi-ná, 'for,' O. Sl. tu-nŭ, ' then.' These particles are not easily distinguished on the one hand from the particles affixed to Prepositions (e. g. *-tǐ of O. Ind. prá-ti, Gk. $\pi \rho o-\tau i$, Osc. per-t ; *-nĕ of Lat. pō-ne, Umbr. post-ne, Germ. vo-n), as has been already mentioned (ch. ix. § ir), nor on the other are they always to be distinguished from Case-suffixes. Indeed the usage of the oldest Indian literature, where, for example, the particle kám is often added to a Dativus Commodi or to a Dative of Purpose (see Delbrück, Altind. Syntax, p. 150), and other particles are more or less allotted to special cases, suggests that the Case-suffixes may have at the first originated in this way, just as Gk. ${ }^{\circ} \nu$ came in time to be a sign of a Mood of the Verb. Thus not only has the -s of the Nom. Sg. Masc. been with great probability referred to the pronominal-stem $*_{\text {so- }}\left(*_{\text {se- }}\right)(\mathrm{ch}$. vii. § 13$)$, but also the Abl. -d to the suffix *dĕ expressive of motion, joined with an Accusative, in the sense of motion towards, in Gk. $\delta o{ }^{\prime} \mu \nu \nu-\delta \epsilon$, Gen. -s (which in Greek and other languages has the function of an Abl.) to the similar $*_{\text {sĕ }}$ of Gk. ä $\lambda \lambda o-\sigma \epsilon$. The personsuffixes of Verbs may often have had a similar origin. The *-dhĭ of the 2 Sg . Imper. in O. Ind., Gk. \&c., e.g. $\check{\imath}-\theta \iota$, is the asseverative particle *dhĭ, joined to Imperatives, as Lat. dum in ăgĕ dum ; the *-tōd of the 2 Sg . Fut. Imper., e. g. quando uidebis, dato, Plaut., is the Adverbial Abl. Sg. Neut. of the Pronoun *to-, 'from this,' 'thereupon' (ch. viii. § 57). And in the declension of the Pronouns themselves we have clear instances of the progress of appended particles to case-suffixes in ${ }^{\text {gě }}$ (Gk. $\gamma \epsilon$ ) used as the sign of the Acc. Sg. in Goth. mi-k, Germ. mi-ch, *ghhĭ (O. Ind. hí,

Gk. vai-xı) as the sign of the Dat. Sg. in O. Ind. má-hy-am, ch.vii. § 1). The $-d$ of the Acc. Sg. of the Personal Pronouns in Latin has been similarly explained as the particle *ild, so common in the $^{\text {en }}$ oldest Indian literature, where it is used to emphasize a preceding word, so that Lat. tēd was originally *tè id (cf. tuấm íd in the Rig-Veda) (see ch. vii. § I).
§ 2. (1) Conjunctive--Que, et, atque, ac, quoque, etiam. -Quĕ, I.-Eur. *-q"्̄̆ (O. Ind. ca, Gk. т'́, Goth. -h, e.g. ni-h 'ne-que'), apparently the bare stem of the Relative ${ }^{*} q^{\mathrm{u}} 0-\left({ }^{*} q^{\frac{\mathrm{n}}{}} \mathrm{e}-\right)$ (ch. vii. § 23 ), is in Latin, as it was in I.-Eur., an enclitic appended to the first word of the sentence. Through Syncope, to which final -ĕ was always liable in Latin (ch. iii. § 36 ), it has become $-c$ in nec (neque), $a c$ for *at-c (at-que), \&c., and probably often had this sound before an initial consonant in the rapid utterance of every-day life. In some lines of Plautus (Stich. 696, Capt. 246, Poen. 419, \&c.) we must, if the reading of the MSS. be right, scan: dúmq(ue) se exórnat ; pérq(ue), cōnséruitiúm commúne, \&c. (Skutsch, Forschungen, i. p. 151). I.-Eur. ${ }^{*}$ q q $^{\text {we }}$ gave a relative and indefinite sense to pronouns, and so in O. Latin, though in the classical period the fuller ending -cunque (O. Lat. -quomque, e. g. queiquomque, C.I.L. i. 197. 5; 198, \&c. ; see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.) is preferred, e. g. quem-que Plaut. for quem-cunque (O. Ind. kaš-ca, Hom. Gk. ốs $\tau \epsilon$, Goth. hvō-h F.) ; so quis-que, each (cf. O. Ir. cā-ch,

 ever' (Hor. C. i. 32. 15), though some connect it with O. Ind. caná (with ka-, \&c, 'whoever,' \&c.), and others make the -cum-(-cun-) a byform of um- (un-) of um-quam, \&c. (ch. ix. § 10. 7). The corresponding particle in Oscan is -píd (O. Ind. -cit), e.g. pokka-píd 'quandoque.' Lat. quŏ-quĕ is composed of some part of the Pronoun-stem quo- (que-) and the enclitic -que (perhaps the bare Pronoun-stem; cf. O. Ind. kva-ca, 'anywhere, in any case,' from kvà, ' where,' and ca, Lat. -que). Similarly, at-quĕ, of the Preposition (Adverb) ad and the enclitic, lit. 'and to,' 'and further' ; in O. Lat. it often signifies 'forthwith,' e. g. Plaut. Most. 1050:

Umbrian ape, when, also spelt api, appei, may be the same formation as Lat. atque. The Umbro-Oscan equivalents of Lat. nĕquĕ, Osc. nep, neip, nip, Umbr. neip, nep, have -p for I.-Eur. *-qำ. further), used in Latin, as in Gothic (ip, ' and '), for the copula. It may be that it gradually encroached on the sphere of the older -quĕ, for it is noticeable that only -que, not $\breve{e} t$, is found in the (restored) inscription on the Columna Rostrata (C.I.L. i. 195). The Umbrian copula is also et, but in Oscan íním, a word related to Lat. enim (see below).

In ët-iam, et is associated with the Adverb jam, now, the $i(y)$ becoming vocalic by the Latin phonetic law in the middle of a word, as in mĕdius (I.-Eur. *médhyos, O. Ind. mádhyas, Gk. $\mu \epsilon ́ \sigma(\sigma)$ os, \&c.) (ch. iv. § 67).
§ 3. Atque, ac. On Republican Inscriptions the rule is that atque be used before an initial vowel, ac before an initial consonant, and so in the MSS. of Terence. But in the MSS. of Plautus atque is sometimes used before a consonant, where the metre requires the pronunciation ac (e.g. Epid. 522), and in the MSS. of Cato atque is the prevailing spelling (whatever Cato's pronunciation may have been) before initial consonants and vowels alike. The classical authors, as well as Plautus, seem to avoid ac not only before vowels, but also before $c$-, $g$-, $q$ - (see Georges, Lex. Worlf. s. v. ; Skutsch, Forsch. i. 52 ; B. P. W. xiii. 3 12). Atque is the spelling in Republican inscriptions; adque occurs in the Res Gestae of Augustus (once), and is in later inscriptions very frequent, as well as in good MSS. (see Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. 953). Atque atque seems to mean 'nearer and nearer' in Ennius, Ann. 519 M. :

> atque atque accedit muros Romana iuuentus.
§ 4. (2) Disjunctive.-Ve, aut, vel, sive, seu. - $V$ ĕ is I.-Eur. *-wē, (O. Ind. vā, e. g. náktaṃ vā dívā vā, ' by night or by day,' Hom. Gk. $\eta_{-}-(F) \epsilon$ '), probably a curtailment of an I.-Eur. Adverb *ăwě (O. Ind. áva, ' 'away '). The I.-Eur. particle had also the sense of 'as,' ' like,' seen in Lat. ce-u, O. Ind. i-va, 'as,' e-vá, 'thus,' later e-vám.

Aut is compounded of I.-Eur. *au [Gk. $a \hat{v}$, again, Goth. au-k, 'also' (quasi $*_{\alpha \hat{v}-\gamma \epsilon), ~ E n g l . ~ e k e], ~ a n o t h e r ~ c u r t a i l m e n t ~ o f ~ t h e ~ s a m e ~}^{\text {a }}$ Adverb (cf. au-füğ̌o, auf-ĕro, ch. ix. § 12), and the particle -ť̆ (§ 1). Similar are Umbr. ote, Osc. avti and avt, though the latter Oscan form has generally the sense of Latin autem.
$V \breve{l} l$ is the old ${ }_{2}$ Sg. Pres. Imperative of vŏlo (ch. viii. § $5^{8}$ ), lit.
' choose,' as Germ. wohl (e. g. Homer, wohl der grösste Dichter, 'Homerus vel summus poeta') was originally Imper. of wollen.

Vel can hardly represent vell for *rels, an old 2 Sg. 'Injunctive,' for it is so thoroughly a short syllable in Plautus as to be capable of acting as a Brevis Brevians (ch.iii. §42), e.g. Poen. 827 uél in lautumiis, uél in pistrino, although Umbr. heris ... heris, e. g. heris vinu heri puni 'vel vino vel posca,' is 2 Sg . Ind. of heri-, 'to wish' (whence Herentas, the Oscan Venus).

Other instances of Imperatives used as Particles are pütŭ, for example, Hor. and $\check{c} g \check{ }$; em, the Interjection, probably represents émĕ, 2 Sg. Imper. of emo, I take (§ 19).

Sivĕ is compounded of $s \bar{\imath}$, older sei, and $-v e$. Before $-u$, the curtailed or syncopated form of $-v e$ (as -c of $-q u \breve{e},-n$ of Interrogative - $u \check{e}, \& c$.), the $e i$-diphthong was by the Latin phonetic law (ch. iv. §66) reduced to $\breve{e}$ (as in deus from deiu(u)s, ch. iv. § 33). Lat. si was in Umbrian sve (Osc. svaí), and the Umbrian equivalent of Lat. sive is sve-po 'siquō.'
§ 5. (3) Adversative-At, ast, sed, autem, atqui, tamen, ceterum, verum, vero. $\breve{A} t$ is the I.-Eur. Adverb *at(Ĭ) (O. Ir. aith-, ' back,' Lith. at-, O. Sl. otŭ, 'from'), used in Latin, as in Gothic (ap-pan, 'but'), as a Conjunction. On its confusion in spelling with the Preposition arl, see ch. ii. § 76.

Ast is a Conjunction found in old laws in various senses (Charis. 229. 30 K . 'ast' apud antiquos variam vim contulit vocibus, pro atque, pro ac, pro ergo, pro sed, pro tamen, pro tum, pro cum, ut in glossis antiquitatum legimus scriptum), especially ( I ) ' if further,' ' and if moreover,' e. g. Lex Serv. Tull. : si parentem puer uerberet, ast olle plorassit, puer diuis parentum sacer esto; (2) ' if,' e. g. XII Tab. чo. 8 (in the curious law referring to the use of gold in dentistry) : . . . neue aurum addito, at cui auro dentes iuncti escunt, ast im cum illo sepeliet uretue, se fraude esto), and occasionally in the early writers, e.g. with the sense of - if further,' Plaut. Capt. 683 :
si ego híc peribo, ast ille ut dixit nón redit,
with the sense of 'further' or 'but,' Accius, Trag. 260 R. :
idem splendet saépe, ast idem nímbis interdúm nigret.
It may be a formation from $a d$, and stand for *ad-s-tĭ as post for
*po-s-tĭ (ch. ix. § 40), so that its original signification would be 'further,' ' moreover,' though, owing to the custom of using it in the added clause of the protasis in conditional sentences, it came to acquire the notion of 'if further,' and even of 'if.' It is one of the archaisms used by Cicero in drawing up his code of laws (Legg. ii. 8. 19, \&c.), who gives it the senses of ( I ) ' if further,' (2) 'if' (so on the law relating to the Ludi Saeculares of Augustus' reign, ast quid est 'siquid est'), (3) 'further' (so in Cicero's translation of Aratus's Prognostica, l. 160). The Augustan poets revived the use of the word, as a substitute for at, where the metre required a long syllable, and in the second cent. A.d. it passed into prose. If asted on the Dvenos inscription (usually explained as adstet) be really ast, it is a byform with the particle - $l(e)$ like postid (ch. ix. § 40).

Sĕd, if we may believe the statement of some grammarians (Charis. 112. 5 K.; Mar. Victorin. 10. 13 K.; Ter. Scaur. 12. 8 K. ; Isid. Orig. i. 26. 24), who argue against the spelling set (ch. ii. §76), was at some early period sellum. The word can hardly be separated from the Preposition (Adverb) se (sēd), 'apart' (ch. ix. § $5^{1}$ ), and may be a compound of *sĕ, a byform of $^{\text {s. }}$ së, with the Conjunctive particle dum (see below).

Autem adds the particle -tem (cf. $\check{\text { rtem }}$ ) to the I.-Eur. Adverb *au [Gk. â̂, again, Goth. au-k, ‘also' (quasi $*_{a \hat{v}-\gamma \epsilon), ~ E n g l . ~ e k e], ~}^{\text {, }}$ which is probably identical with the Preposition au- of Lat. aufëro, au-fügio (ch. ix. § 12), and cognate with the I.-Eur. Conjunction *wĕ (see under Lat. -ve). The Oscan equivalent of autem is avt, apparently a 'doublet' of avti, the equivalent of aut (§4). The older usage of autem is seen in passages like Plaut. Merc. if8:
et cúrrendum et pugnándum et autem iúrigandumst ín uia, (cf. sed autem, Rud. 472 ; et autem, Poen. 84 I ).

Atquì adds to the Conjunction at the particle quī, which is much used by the early Dramatists as a mere particle of emphasis [e.g. Plaut. Hercle qui (Pseud. 473), utinam qui, ut qui (I'rin. 637)], and which is either the Abl., Loc. or Instr. Sg. of the Relative (ch. vii. § 25). Atquin (on this spelling, see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.) has the particle $-n(e)$ appended (§ 1, above).

Tămĕn however, ' none the less,' is clearly related to tam (ch. ix.
§ io. 8), so, ' equally much,' which was often used in the sense of tamen in O. Lat. (Fest. 548. 3 Th. antiqui 'tam' etiam pro tamen usi sunt, with examples from Naevius, Ennius, and Titinius ; for examples in Plautus, see Seyffert, Stud. Plaut. p. 14) (cf. class. tam-etsī and tamen-etsi). Some see in tam-en a relic of the earlier usage, retained in Umbro-Oscan, of putting the Preposition in (older en) after the word it governs, e. g. Umbr. arvamen 'in arvum,' Pel. pritrom-e 'praeter' quasi 'praeterum-in' (ch. ix. §30); others suppose that the particle -n̆̈ (of quando-ne, \&c., § 1), appended to tam, produced tam-i-ne or tamen(e), and quote Plaut. Mil. 628, where the MSS. reading points to tamine, as a proof that interrogative -ne appended to tam produced this same form :

> tám capularis? támne tibi diu uídeor uitam uíuere.

On the other hand tanne is mentioned by Festus 542. 26 Th. as the O. Lat. form of tam with interrogative -ne, and exemplified by Afranius, Com. 410 R.: tanne árcula Túa plena est aránearum? Festus also quotes tame, as an old form of tam, on which see ch. ix. § io. 8.

Cètĕrum is the adverbial Acc. Sg. Neut. of the stem cètero(Nom. Pl. cèteri), as cetera in such a line as Virg. A. ix. 656: cetera parce puer bello, 'for the rest-you are a boy-deal sparingly with war,' is an adverbial Acc. Pl. Neut. Ceterum of Plautus' Truc. 847, \&c. is exactly parallel to unum of Plautus, Mil. Glor. 24 nisi únum epityra ei éstur insanúm bene, ' butone thing,-\&c.' The root of the word is the I.-Eur. pronominal *Ke, which shows the short vowel in the Latin enclitic -ce of lujus-ce, \&c. (ch. vii. § 15 ), the long vowel in Lat. cē-teri, \&c. (see § I on the variation of quantity in pronominal $*_{w \check{c},} *_{n}$ ne, \&c., and cf. ch. iv. § 33).

Vèrum is similarly an adverbial Acc. Sg. Neut, of the Adj.stem vero-, true, and verō an adverbial Abl. (Instr.?) Sg. Neut. of the same stem.
§ 6. (4) Limitative and Corrective.-Quidem, immo. The formation of quı̆dem has not yet been satisfactorily explained. The quй- may be the bare stem of the Pronoun (see § 2 on quŏ-
quĕ); or if $\breve{\imath}$ lem represents *${ }^{2} d$-dem, quidem may be the Neuter Pronoun with the suffix -dem (§ 2) *quĭd-dem (but see ch. vii. § 21 on $\begin{gathered}\text { àdem }) \text {. } \\ \text {. }\end{gathered}$

Eqquüdem might be similarly explained as et-quidem [cf. Plaut. Pers. 187 et quidem (A), eq. (P)], but is better referred to the pronominal prefix $\breve{e}$ - of e-nos, Umbro-Osc. e-tanto-, \&c., augmented by the particle -ce in ec-quis, and in ecce (see § 19). Its association with the first Personal Pronoun in Cicero and other good writers (see Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 963) shows that to a Roman the first syllable suggested a reference rather to ego than to et (cf. Prisc. ii. 103. 5 H.; ecce in Plautus very often refers to the person speaking, A. L. L. v. i8). The exact truth regarding its use in Plautus is not easy to ascertain, for the MSS. frequently write it for et quidem (e. g. Pers. 187), and editors often substitute it for quidem after $t u$, me, \&c. to avoid the scansion $t \breve{u}$ quidem, mĕ quidem (like š̆quidem, ch. iii. § 5 I), or the division of a dactyl between two words in iambic and trochaic metres, e. g. atque quidem.

Immō (not imo ${ }^{1}$, according to Brambach, Hülfsbüchlein, s. v.) has the scansion of a pyrrhic ( $\cup \checkmark$ ) according to the MSS. in passages like Terence, Phorm. $93^{6}$ :
immo uéro uxorem tú cedo. In ius ámbula,
a scansion which has not yet been accounted for. Nor is the derivation of the word at all clear. One theory makes it Adverbial Abl. Sg. Neut. of $\bar{i} m u s$, another analyzes it into in-mō, 'in magis,' supposing $*_{m \bar{o}}$ to be an I.-Eur. Comparative 'more,' whence comes Gaul. -mā-rus of Virdo-mārus, O. Ir. mār, mōr, ' great,' \&c.
§ 7. (5) Explanatory--Enim, nam, namque, quippe, nempe, nemut. Enim, in O. Lat. an asseverative particle merely (cf. class. enim-vero), a usage imitated by Virgil, e.g. A. viii. 84: quam pius Aeneas tibi enim, tibi, maxima Juno, mactat sacra ferens,
is most naturally referred to I.-Eur. *eno- (*ene-) (cf. O. Ind. aná, ' indeed,' 'for'), another form of I.-Eur. *no- (*ne-) (§ I), (cf. illim from ille, istim from iste, ch. ix. § ıо. 5). The weak point of this etymology is that it prevents us from connecting the word

[^112]directly with einom 'igitur,' of the Dvenos inscription, Pel. inom (?), 'et,' Osc. íním, 'et' Umbr. enom (enum-ek, inum-ek, with the particle -ce of Lat. hujus-ce, \&c.), also enem 'tum,' which all show the Pronominal root i- of Lat. is (ch. ix. § 19) prefixed to a form (-nim, -nom) of the root no- (ne-). Lat. enim (from $*_{\mathrm{e}-\mathrm{no}-\text { ) will stand to O. Lat. einom of the Dvenos inscr. }}$ (from *ei-no- ; cf. O. Ind. ēna-, 'he,' ēnấ, 'so, here'), as O. Ind. asā-ú, ' this' (from *e-so-) to O. Ind. ęṣá-, ' this' (from *ei-so-).

Nam, often used in O. Lat. in questions, e.g. 'quid cerussa opus nam?' 'why, what is the use of paint?' Plaut. (cf. quisnam), without that definite sense of 'for,' 'because' to which the word is restricted in classical literature (but cf. uti-nam), is the same case-form of the Pronominal-stem $*_{\text {no- }}(\S$ I) as quam of ${ }^{*} \mathrm{q}^{\mathrm{u}} 0$-, tam of ${ }^{*}$ to- (Acc. Sg. Fem.?, ch. ix. § го. 8).

Namque adds to nam the enclitic -quc̆ (§2). It is used only before an initial vowel in Plautus and Terence.

Quippĕ appends the particle -p̆̈ (§ 1) to some case of the Relative or Interrogative or Indefinite Pronoun, either the Acc. Sg. Neut. quippe for *quid-pe (cf. quippini equivalent to quidni), or (if -ipp- can represent -i$p$ - in Latin; cf. ipsippe ' ipsi neque alii ' Paul. Fest. 74. 37 Th., and see p. 116 n.), the Loc. Instr. Sg., quippe for *qui-ppe, or else the Abl. Sg. quippe for *quīd-pe.

Nempĕ appends the same particle to a form $*_{n e m}$ (the same case-form of the Pronominal-stem $*_{\text {no-, as }}$-tem of autem is of the stem *to-). This form $*_{n e m}$ appears also in O. Lat. nemut ' nisi etiam vel nempe' (Fest. 160. 28 ; Paul. Fest. 16 r. 13 Th.). On the pronunciation nemp $(e)$ before initial consonants, see ch. iii. § 35 .
§ 8. (6) Conclusive.-Ergo, itaque, igitur. Ergö has already been explained, in connexion with its use as a Preposition, e.g. funeris ergo (ch. ix. § 28), as possibly standing for ée Frŏgo (cf. $e$ rĕgione), 'from the direction,' and has been compared with German wegen, M. H. G. vonwëgen.

Ĭtŭquc̆, compounded of $\breve{\imath} t \breve{a}(\mathrm{ch} . \mathrm{ix} . \S 10.9$ ), and -quĕ (§ 2), seems, like $i t a$, never to have $\bar{a}$ even in the earliest poetry. We should scan the Saturnian line of the epitaph of Naevius (ap. Gell. i. 24.2):

[^113]The grammarians of the Empire distinguish ităque, therefore, from itáque, and so, 'et ita,' (e. g. Serv. in Don. 427 . 13 K . tunc corripitur media cum una pars fuerit orationis, tunc vero producitur cum duae), but short $a$ is invariably shown in the Dramatists in both senses of the word. The grammarians' rule about itaque resembles their rule for the penultimate accentuation of pleráque, utráque, Nom. Sg. Fem. (cf. ch. ii § 93 on Late Lat $\overline{\text { áqua, acqua). }}$

Igitur had in O. Lat. the sense of tum (Paul. Fest. 74. 29 Th. 'igitur' nunc quidem pro conpletionis significatione valet, quae est ergo. Sed apud antiquos ponebatur pro inde et postea et tum), as in Plaut. Mil. 772 :

## quándo habebo, igitúr rationem meárum fabricarúm dabo,

or in the first law of the XII Tab.: si in ius uocat, ni it, antestamino. igitur em capito. The etymology of the word, one of the most puzzling in Latin, is discussed in ch. ix. § 8 .
§ 9. (7) Optative.-Ut, utinam. Ut, in wishes, e.g. Juppiter ut Danaum omne genus pereat, is the Conjunction $\breve{u} t$, that (older $\breve{u} t \breve{\imath}$, ch. iii. § 36 ), with suppression of the idea ' I wish' or 'do thou grant.'

In $\breve{u} t \breve{n} n a m$ the final $\breve{\imath}$ of $u t(\breve{\imath})$ is retained, and nan has its older sense of a strengthening particle, 'indeed' (§ 7).
§ 10. (8) Interrogative- - Ne, nonne, num, utrum, an, anne, cur, quare, quianam. In class. Latin -nĕ is the general interrogative particle, while nonnĕ is limited to questions which expect an affirmative, num to those which expect a negative, answer. This distinction is unknown to Plautus, who uses nonne hardly at all (e. g. Trin. 789), (-ne being used instead, e.g. Trin. 178, Men. 284, or nōn, e.g. Stich. 606), and num, numquis without a negative sense occasionally, e.g. Most. 999. (A list of examples of the Interrogative Particles in Plautus and Terence is given in Amer. Journ. Phil. vol. xi. 1890.) It is easy to see how these meanings came to be attached to non-ne, ' is . . . not,' and num, 'now' [Gk. vvv; cf. nunc for num-c(e), ch. ix. § 10], e.g. nonne haec ita sunt?, ' is not this the case?'; num haec ita sunt?, 'now is this the case?' (with emphasis on the word 'is').
$-N e$ is probably I.-Eur. *nĕ (Zend -na, appended to Interrogatives, e.g. kas-nā, ' who then ?' ; cf. O. H. G. na weist tu na,
' nescisne ? '), though it might also represent I.-Eur. *nŭ (ch. iii. § 37) (O. Ind. nŭ, in the phrase: kathắ nú, 'how then?'; cf.
 to $-n$, e.g. v̌̆dĕn, audīn, see ch. iii. § 36 .
$\breve{U}$ trum is the adverbial Acc. Sg. Neut. of $\mathrm{ut} t e r$, like Gk. $\pi$ órepov.
$\breve{A} n$ (Goth. an ; cf. Gk. ă $\nu$, in that case) belongs to the I.-Eur. pronominal root seen in Lith. añis, 'that,' O. Sl. onŭ, \&c.
$C^{\prime} \bar{u} r$ (O. Lat. $q u \bar{o} r$ ) is I.-Eur. * ${ }^{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{o} \bar{o} \mathrm{r}$ [Lith. kur̃, ' where,' for *kůr (I. F. ii. 420) ; cf. O. H. G. hwār, ' where ?', from I.-Eur, $*_{q}{ }^{\text {uerr, }}$, and O. Ind. kár-hi, 'when ?', from I.-Eur. *qưrr], with a change of $\bar{o}$ to $\bar{u}$ in a monosyllable before final $-r$ (ch. iv. § I6) that has a parallel in für from *fōr (Gk. $\phi \omega \rho$ ). It may also represent I.-Eur. *q ${ }^{\text {u }}$ ou- (Gk. $\pi o \hat{v}$, where ?) with the suffix $-r$. (On O. Lat. $\bar{o}$, class. $\bar{u}$ for the I.-Eur. diphthong ou, see ch. iv. § 41.)

Quärè, which must not be connected with cur, since the length of the final vowel makes the idea of Syncope impossible (calcarĕ becomes calcar, but avare could not become *avar), is the Ablative of Cause, just as cui rei Plaut. Truc. 394 (quoi rei te adsimulare retulit?) is the Dative of Purpose, of the word-group quae res? (cf. quamobrem?). Plautus uses cur or quamobrem, quoi rei, but perhaps not quare. (Epid. 597 quare filiam Credidisti nostram? is bracketed by Goetz.)

Quйnam, in O. Lat. poetry (Fest. 340. 25 Th.; 'Servius' ad Virg. A. x. 6) (not in Comedy, so not colloquial ; Langen, Beitr. p. 326), and adopted as an archaism occasionally by Virgil (A. v. I3 and x. 6), is the adverbial (I-stem) Acc. Pl. Neut. of quis-nam (ch. vii. §28), as quid-nam is the adverbial Acc. Sg. in such a phrase of Plautus as : quid tu, malum, nam me retrahis?, 'plague on you, why do you pull me back?'
§ 11. (9) Comparative.-Ut, uti, quasi, ceu, quam. $\breve{U} t$, of which the final short vowel is preserved in $\check{u t \imath \imath}$-nam, ne-utť-quam, [pronouneed $n(e) u t i q u a m$ with first, as well as second, syllable short], uttu-que, is one of those Relative Particles that appear in Latin with initial $u$, but in the Umbro-Oscan dialects with an initial p-, which is their usual equivalent for an I.-Eur. labiovelar guttural (see ch. iv. § 135). The Umbro-Oscan forms are discussed in ch. ix. § 10. 9 .
$\breve{U} t \bar{\imath}$ is in O. Lat. utei (e.g. on the S. C. Bacch. of 186 в. c., C.I. L. i. 196).

Quăš̆. It is difficult to derive quasi from quam si, though the two expressions were undoubtedly equivalents: e. g. in the Republican Laws quasei is the usual form, as in the Bantine tablet of 133-118 в. c., C.I.L. i. 197. 1. 12, in the Lex Repetundarum of 123-122 в. c., i. 198.1.41 (cf. l. 73), but quansei occurs in the Lex Agraria of 111 b. c., i. 200. 1. 27 ; and in Plautus we have (I) quam sī in the sense of the usual quăs $\bar{\iota}$ in Poen. 241 item . . . quam si, (2) quăš̆ in the sense of 'than if,' (quam si) in Mil. 482, \&c. (see Brix's note on Trin. 265). For the first syllable of quasi was so thoroughly short that it acted as a 'Brevis Brevians' and made the normal quantity of the final vowel of $-s i$ short as early as the time of Plautus, whereas the combination $n s(m s)$ properly lengthens a preceding vowel in Latin (ch. ii. § 144). We are thus driven to suppose that quam (adverbial Acc. Sg. Fem.) and quŭ (adverbial Acc. Pl. Neut.) were two equivalent Conjunctions which were joined with $s i$ to denote (1) as, (2) than if, and that the classical usage made a differentiation of them, assigning the sense of 'as' to the combination $q u a-s i$ and the sense of 'than if ' to the combination quam-si.

Ceu, which is restricted to the Epic and Lyric Poets and a few Silver Age prose writers (the elder Pliny, \&c.), is compounded of the Pronominal-stem *ko- (ke-), 'this' (ch. vii. § i5) and the particle *wĕ, 'as, like' (§ 4). It has been supposed that as seu is a syncopated form of sive [ ${ }^{*}$ sei-w( $\left.(\breve{e}), \S 4\right]$, ceu must come from a fuller form *ikei-w( e$)$, the Locative Case of the Pronoun with the particle *wĕ. But of this fuller form there is no trace, so it is better explained as $*_{c \bar{e}-v e ~(c f . ~ c e ̄-t e r i) ~(c h . ~ i v . ~ § ~ 33) . ~}^{\text {. }}$

Quam is the Acc. Sg. Fem. of the Relative, as tam of the Demonstrative (ch. ix. § Io). The two words are combined in tanquam. Its Oscan equivalent is pan (Zvet. I. I.I. 23 r. 6 mais egm [as tovti]cas amnud pan pieisum brateis ' magis rei publicae causa quam cujuspiam gratiae') or pam (ib. 231. 16 pruter pam medicatinom didest' priusquam judicationem dabit'). In O. Lat. we have a form augmented by -dĕ, quamde, e. g. Liv. Andr. ap. Fest. 532. 8 Th.:

> námque núllum péius mácerat humánum quámde máre saéuom uís et cui sunt mágnae,
(a translation of Hom. Od. viii. 139). This quamde, quande (Umbr. pane) would probably become *quan (Osc. pan ?), as deinde became dein (ch. ix. § 10.6), and would be merged in quam.
§ 12. (Io) Temporal.-Quum, quando, dum, donec, ut, ubi. Quum, O. Lat. quom, is most simply explained as an Adverbial Acc. Sg. Neut. of the Relative, an I.-Eur. *q ${ }^{\text {u }}$ om. Terentius Scaurus ( 28.9 K .) mentions an old form of the word (MSS. cuine, for which editors read quomne or cume), and quotes a couplet from the Carmen Saliare ; but unfortunately the passage in the MSS. is so corrupt that little certain has hitherto been made of the lines (see ch. viii. § 73). The Umbrian word ponne, pone and the Oscan pún, pon seem to be compounded of I.-Eur. $_{\mathrm{q}}{ }^{\mathrm{n}} \mathrm{om}$ and a particle -dĕ [cf. O. Lat. quamde for quam (Umbr. pane, Osc. pann)§ II; and see below on quan-do].

Quandō seems to be the Acc. Sg. Fem. of the Relative with the I.-Eur. Preposition *dō, 'to,' or with some form of the particle -de of O. Lat. quamde, than (§ II). The Faliscan form cuando (cu- or cv-) (Zvet. I.I. I. 70 cuando datu) affords presumption that the word did not end originally in $-l l$, so that $-d \bar{o}$ would not be an Abl. The 'Preposition' -do, 'to' (ch. ix. § 27) would give a suitable sense, 'to what' (sc. time), for in Plautus the Conjunction is mainly temporal, though in Terence it is mainly causal, as quandŏquйdem is at all periods of the literature (see Studemund's Studien, ii. pp. 85 sqq.). Varro mentions its use for quum, ' when,' as a feature of the dialects of Formiae and Fundi (ap. Charis. III. 23 K.). In quandone (C.I. L. vi. 25048 nequa ei loci controversia quandone fieret; 25905 con qua reliquias meas quandone poni volo) we have the suffix further augmented by the particle -ne (cf. d $\bar{o}-n \breve{u}-c u m$ and see ch. ix. § Io; O. Sl. kŭ-da-no 'quando,' beside kŭ-da 'quando' shows another form of the N -suffix), and in quand $\bar{o}-q u \bar{e}$, whenever, by the particle -quĕ, 'ever' (§ 2). Quandoc, quoted from the XII Tab. by Festus 346.3 Th. (cf. Paul. Fest. $345 \cdot 4,7$ Th.) seems to be a syncopated form of quantloque as nĕc of nĕquĕ. The scansion quan九ŏquidem, found as early as Plaut. (Trin. 991 sáluos quandoquidem áduenis; some would scan quandōoc'dem) seems to be like süquidem (see ch. iii. §51).

Dum, which is often a mere asseverative particle, e. g. ăgĕ dum (Gk. ă $\gamma \epsilon \delta \dot{\jmath}$ ), quīdum, how so? primmundum, first of all, is an Acc. Sg. Neut. from the Pronominal-stem *do-, as tum from *to-, quum from $* q^{\mathrm{u}} 0$ - (Gk. $\delta \hat{\eta}$ is another case-form of the same stem). The phonetic laws of Latin hardly allow us to connect it with diū, diēs, which come from the root dyew-, diw- ; but the first part of $d \bar{u}-d u m$, often referred to diu and dies, may come from a stem $*_{d u}$-, a byform of ${ }^{*}$ do-, whence Gk. $\delta \dot{\eta} v$ for $*_{\delta} \digamma \bar{a} \nu, \mathrm{O}$. Sl. davě, ' olim' (I.F. ii. 250). Similar parallel stems were $*_{\text {no- }}$ and $*_{\text {nu- }}$; and as Latin num may stand for $*_{\text {no-m }}$ from the first or $*_{\text {nu-m }}$ from the second, so Lat. dum may stand for ${ }^{*}$ do-m or $* d u-m$. The temporal sense is clearly seen in the particle -dum in non-dum, etiam-dum, inter-dlum, \&c. On late plebeian inscriptions we find a form tunc, while, e.g. C.I. L. vi. $25 \mathrm{c}_{3}$ :

> ad tu ne propera simili qui sorte teneris, dunc annos titulo nomina ut ipse legas;
apparently an extension of dum by the particle $-c(e)$, on the type of nunc, tunc (ch. ix. § 1o. 7). The connexion of the two meanings 'while' and 'until' is seen in archaic Engl., e.g. Macbeth, iii. I. 143 while then, God be with you.

Dönĕc must be considered in connexion with the byforms "ōnйcum and dōn̆̆quĕ. Dōnйcum is mentioned as an O. Lat. form by Charisius (197. 15 K.), who quotes Livius Andronicus:

> íbi mánens sedéto dónicum uidébis mé carpénto uehénte mecim domum uenísse,
as well as Plautus and Cato. It is naturally resolved into $*_{l o-n e}$ (the Preposition *do, ch. ix. § 27 , and the affix -ne, § 1), and cum the temporal Adverb, 'to when,' ' till when' (cf. Umbr. ar-ni-po and its Latin equivalent quo-ad. Some explain donec as a form of donicum with the last syllable dropped, but the loss of final -um in Latin is confined within strict limits [on nikil(um), $n o(e) n-(u m)$, see ch. iii. § 52$]$, and would hardly be allowed in donecum. Donec is more naturally explained as the syncopated form of doni-que (cf. nec and neque, § 18), and doni-que as *lone augmented by the particle -que, 'ever' (cf. quando, when, quandoque, whenever; also dēe-nique); but the weak point in this account is that donique is not found till Lucretius, and so is later than donec. Perhaps the true explanation is that donicum was appre-
hended as donec cum, and so with omission of cum became donec, while Lucretius coined a donique on the analogy of nec and neque. Whether Fr. donc and the cognate Romance words come from donec is doubtful [see Körting, Lat.-rom. Wörterb. s.v.; donec in Petronius 40 (see Friedl. ad loc.) and 55 need not be translated ' then.']

Ut (see § 9). Uli (see ch. ix. § 10. 1).
§ 13. (1i) Causal.-Quum, quoniam, quod, quia, quippe. Qum (see ch. ix. § 1o. 7).
Quŏйam is a compound of quum (quom) and jam, the $j(y)$ becoming vocalic by the law of Latin phonetics in the middle of a word (so I.-Eur. *médhyos, O. Ind. mádhyas, Gk. $\mu \in ́ \sigma(\sigma) o s, \& c$., became medius in Latin, ch.iv. $\S 63$ ). Its oldest sense is temporal 'when now' (with Pres Ind., the Pres. tense being required by the jam), e.g. Plaut. Trin. 112:
quoniam hínc iturust ípsus in Seleúciam, mihi cónmendauit uírginem ;
and it is possible to trace its gradual development from a temporal to a causal sense in the course of Latin Literature (see Luebbert, Gramm. Stur. ii.).

Quŏrl. I.-Eur. *qư̆d (Lith. kad, 'that,' after verba declarandi, \&c., also used in the sense of 'if') is the Acc. Sg. Neut. of the Relative O-stem, used like Homeric ö in such a line as Od. i. $3^{82}$ :

$$
\text { T } \eta \lambda \epsilon ́ \mu a \chi o \nu \text { өav́ } \mu a \zeta o \nu \text { ò } \theta a \rho \sigma a \lambda \epsilon ́ \omega s \text { ả } \gamma o ́ \rho \epsilon \cup \epsilon .
$$

In Plautus it is always, or almost always, subject or object of a relative sentence, e. g. Capt. 586 :
filium tuum quód redimere se ait, id ne utiquam míhi placet;
from the second cent. a.d. it is used with verba declarandi, \&c. e. g. Apul. Met. x. 7 asserere incipit quod se vocasset.

Quйŭ is an Acc. Plur. Neut. of the Relative I-stem (Slov. či, ' if,' Bulg. c̀r, ' that, because '), and has the same double meaning as quod, (1) that, (2) because. With appended -nam it had interrogative meaning ' why?' (see § 10) like quid? quidnam?

Quippĕ (see § 7). (On quatenus see ch. ix. § 4.)
§ 14. (I2) Conditional.-Si, nisi, ni, sin, sive, seu, modo, dummodo. $\$_{i}$, O. Lat. sei, is a Loc. Sg. of the Pronoun $*_{\text {so-, seen }}$
in Lat. ip-se, ip-sa (ch. vii. § 20), as Lith. jéi, 'if,' of the Pronoun seen in Lat. is, ea (ch.vii. § 19). Greek $\epsilon i$ has been connected by some with the Latin, by others with the Lith. conjunction. Sic, so, is the same word with the enclitic $-c(e)$ appended (ch. vii. § I 5). Osc. svaí, Umbr. sve come from a stem *swo- (whence Goth sva, ‘so '), of which O. Lat. suad 'sic,' quoted from an augural prayer by Festus ( 526.15 Th. suad ted 'sic te') is an Abl. Sg. Fem., as the Umbro-Oscan forms are Loc. Sg. Fem. ; but Volscian se shows the same stem as Latin. The stems $*_{\text {so-, }} *_{\text {swo- were no }}$ doubt originally connected like the two stems of the second Sg. Personal Pronoun *twe- and $*$ te- (ch. vii. § 3). (On sw- see ch. iv. § 68 .)
$N \breve{\imath} s \breve{\imath}$ is a compound of the negative $u \check{e}(\S 18)$ with $s i$, ' not if.' It is probably this word which is quoted in the form nesi (ch. ix. §51) in a defective passage of Festus, who explains it as sine (166. 26 Th .) ; it is spelt nisei on the S. C. Bacch. and the Lex Repetundarum, and nise (with $e$ for the ei-diphthong, ch. iv. § 34) on the Lex Rubria. The change of $\breve{e}$ to $\breve{\breve{c}}$ in the first syllable is due to the unaccented use of the word (as sine for sĕ-ne, milii for meliei) (ch. iii. § I8).

The Umbro-Oscan forms have $*_{\text {swai }}$ instead of $*_{\text {sei }}$ (Lat. si), as their second component, the Negative being represented in Oscan by the Loc. Sg. form ${ }^{\text {nei }}$ (Osc. nei svae), in Umbrian by a form no (Umbr. nosve). In that very old Latin inscription, known as the Dvenos inscription, we find the Negative in another Loc. form noi (is this a mere graphic variety of nei ?), if noisi is rightly interpreted 'unless.' With the first part of nisi we may compare Osc. ne pon 'nisi quum' (Zvet. I. I. I. 23 1. 14 izic comono ni hipid ne pon, \&c. ' is comitia ne habuerit nisi quum,' \&c.).
$N_{i}$, I -Eur. $*_{\text {nei, perhaps }} *_{\text {nĕ }}$ with the deictic particle -i of Gk. oviroc-t $\frac{\iota}{L}$ \&c. (ch. vii. §23), had originally the sense of nōn or $n \bar{e}$, as in quid-ni, quippi-ni [Lith. neĩ, 'not at all'; Osc. svae pis censtomen nei cebnust 'si quis in censum non venerit', nei-p mais pomtis com preivatud actud 'neve magis (quam) quinquies cum privato agito,' nei svae ' nisi,' svai nei-p 'si non' 'si nec '], and still retains this sense in some passages of O. Lat., e.g. Cato : caueto ni quam materiem doles, and in Virgil's line : ni teneant cursus. It came however to acquire the sense of nisi from its
use in such phrases as si in ius uocat, ni it, XII Tab., ' if he summons him (and) he does not go,' id ni fit, pignus dato Plaut., ' lay me a wager in the event of that not happening,' lit. 'that does not happen, lay me a wager.' (See O. Brugmann, Gebrauch des Cond. ' Ni,' 1887.)
$\operatorname{Sin}$ is usually said to represent $s i \bar{i}-n e ̆$, , if not,' with the same syncope of the negative particle as in quinn, lest (§ 16), or as of the interrogative particle in audin for audis-ne, \&c. (§ 10); and this explanation exactly suits its use in sentences like Cic. Epp. Famm. xii. 6.2 qui si consecutus erit, vicimus ; sin -, quod di omen avertant, omnis omnium cursus est ad vos. But this negative sense of sin, ' if not,' is hardly attached to the word in the time of Plautus. The Plautine use of $\sin$ has been explained by the O. Lat. habit of attaching interrogative -ine to the first word of the relative clause, instead of to the first word of the main clause [e.g. Ter. Phorm. 923 quodne ego discripsi? instead of: quod ego discripsi, illudne rescribam ?], so that, e. g. Plaut. Trin. 309 si animus hominem pepulit, actumst . . . sin ipse animum pepulit, uiuit, might more properly be written : sin ipse animum pepulit? uiuit. It is however unnecessary to regard the $n$ of $\sin$ as either the Interrogative or the Negative Particle -ne; for it may be merely that Demonstrative suffix -ne seen in alioquin, \&c. (§ 16) [Quin (see § 16) represents (1) quı with Negative -ne, (2) quî with Interrogative -ne, (3) qui with Demonstrative -ne]. The older spelling sein occurs, for example, on an epitaph, much affected by the Romans ${ }^{1}$ (Not. Scav. 1887, p. 180) :

> mortua heic ego sum, et sum cinis, is cinis terrast ; sein est terra dea, ego sum dea, mortua non sum.

Sive and seu (see ch. iv. § 33).
Mödŏ is the adverbial Abl. (Instr.?) Sg. of mŏdus, measure, limit (cf. Hor. quis desiderio sit pudor aut modus ?), ' only'; rlum-modo, 'while only.' A common sense of the word is the temporal sense, 'only a little while ago' (cf. Caper 96. 15 K. ' modo' praeteriti est temporis, et ideo dicendum ' modo scripsi,'

[^114][^115]' modo feci ' non ' modo scribo,' ' modo facio'; quamvis quidam veteres et praesentis putaverint), emphasized in the Praenestine dialect by the addition of tam (tam modo, inquit Praenestinus, Plaut. Trin. 609). The shortening of the final -0 is due to the influence of the preceding short syllable (see ch. iii. § 42 on the Law of Breves Breviantes), like dŭtŏ (originally *datōd) Plaut., $h a ̆ v \check{e ̆, ~ b e ̆ n e ̆, ~ m a ̆ l e ̆, ~ \& c . ~}$
§ 15. (13) Concessive.- Etsi, quamquam, quamvis, licet. The formation of all these words is evident: et-sī, 'even if,' quam-quam (reduplicated), quam-vīs, 'how you wish' (like quan-tum-vis, 'however much you wish' or quam-libet, 'how you please'), ľ̌cet, 'it is allowed,' 'granted.'
§ 16. (14) Final.-Ut, quo, quominus, quin, ne, neve, neu, nedum. Ut (see § ii).
$Q u o \bar{o}$ is the Abl. (Instr. ?) Sg. Neut. of the Relative, used with Comparatives, quo facilius like eo facilius. Quōm̌ийs adds to quo the Comparative mॅийs, 'less,' used in a negative sense (cf. mı̆nı̆mé, ' by no means'; părrum sciens, ' ignorant').

Quīn is composed of quĭ, how (Abl.? Loc.? Instr. ?), and the negative particle $n \check{e}$ (§ 18), and is found with -ne (or perhaps $n \bar{e}$, 'lest') in unsyncopated form in Ter. Andr. 334: effícite qui detúr tibi ; Égo id agam mihi quí ne detur, and in a fragment from some comedy (Com. inc. 47 R.) :

> haúd facile est defénsu qui ne cómburantur próxumae.

In some instances it represents qui (Nom. Sg. Masc.) with -ne, e. g. nemo fuit quin sciret (qui nesciret) ; and a construction like nulla mulier fuit quin sciret, nil tam difficile est quin exquiri possit, is best explained as a universalizing of qui Masc., as of potis Masc. in potis est (ch. ix. § 2), though some regard the qui of this usage as the Adv., and compare it to that Mod. Gk. use of пô $\tau o ́ v$ for ơv $\nu$ mentioned in ch. vii. § 23 (I. F. iv. 226).

It is used also in other ways than as a Final Conjunction (the manifold uses of quin were a favourite theme of Latin grammarians; see Gell. xvii. 13). Quin in affirmations, e. g. hercle quin recte dicis, Plaut., may be merely the Adverb qui of
hercle qui, \&c. with the Demonstrative suffix -ne (so atquin and atqui, alioquin and alioqui, ceteroquin and ceteroqui; see on these forms Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. vv.) ; quin in commands, originally with Ind. (and so usually in Plautus), e.g. quin dicis?, then by 'constructio ad sensum' with Imper. (so usually in Ter.), e. g. quin dic, is the Adverb qui with the Interrogative particle -ne, 'how not?' 'why not?'; quin in a sentence like Plaut. Trin. 360 : quin comedit quód fuit, quod nón fuit? (i.e. eumne dicis qui, \&c.), is qui Nom. Sg. with the same particle (cf. Mil. I3 quemne ego seruaui? ' you mean the man whose life I saved ?' (see above, § 14 on $\sin )$.

Nè is I.-Eur. *nē, ' not' (O. Ind. ná, O. Ir. nī), a variety of I -Eur. *nĕ, ' not' (Lat. nŭ-, § 18). In O. Lat. nй (I.-Eur. *nei, Osc. nei) was used in the sense of $n \bar{e}(\S 14)$. In Umbro-Oscan i corresponds to I.-Eur. é (Lat.e), so that Osc. $n i$ in $n i$ hipid 'ne habuerit,' ni fuid 'ne fuerit,' Marruc. $n i$ in nita[. $g] a$ 'ne tangat' exactly correspond to Lat. nè.
$N \bar{e} v \breve{c}$ adds to $n \bar{e}$ the enclitic -vĕ, or, which in neu is reduced by syncope (cf. sive and seu, § 14).

For nedum (especially used by Livy, also by Cicero, but rarely by the other authors) ne alone is occasionally found (Journ. Phil. xx. 177). An early instance of the word, which is not employed by Plautus, is Ter. Heaut. 454 :
satrapa sí siet
amátor, numquam súfferre eius sumptús queat; nedúm tu possis,
lit. ' ne(dum) tu te posse credas dico satrapam non posse,' ' satrapa non potest, nondum tu potes,' with which we may compare Plaut. Amph. 330 :
uíx incedo inánis, ne ire pósse cum onere exístumes.
Nedum is related to ne, as vixdum to vix, nondum to non; cf. Liv. xxiv. 4. I puerum vixdum libertatem, nedum dominationem modice laturum. On the construction and use of the word, see Harv. Stud. ii. pp. 103 sqq.
§ 17 ( 5 ) Asseverative Particles.-Ne (nae), -ne. Nē is the spelling indicated by the references to the word in the Roman grammarians, for they speak of it as the same in form with pro-
hibitive ne (Charis. 189. 2 K. ; Diom. 394. 21 K. ), and is also the spelling of the best MSS. (Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.), though there is no reason why there should not have been in Latin two separate affirmative particles $n \bar{e}$ and nae, as there were in Greek $\nu \dot{\prime}$ and $\nu a i ́\left(c f . \delta \dot{\eta}\right.$ and $\delta a i$ ), representing an original $*_{\text {nē }}$ and $*_{\text {nai, }}$ a Loc. Sg. Form (cf. Osc. svaí, 'if,' § I4). The form $*_{\text {nē cor- }}$ responds to $*_{\text {nĕ }}$ of the affirmative suffix -nĕ found in the Dramatists with Personal and Demonstrative Pronouns; cf. O. Scand. pēr-na 'tibimet' (e.g. Plaut. Mil. 565 :
égone si post húnc diem muttíuero, etiam quód egomet certó sciam, dato éxcruciandum mé ;
for other examples, see Amer.Journ. Phiil. ii. 51), as *wĕ to *wē, 'or,' *dě to *dè, \&c. (§ 1).
§ 18. (16) Negatives.-In-, ne-, nec, non, haud, ve-. Nĕ-(I.-Eur. *nĕ, O. Ind. ná, \&c.) is prefixed, not only to Verbs, e. g. ne-scio, O. Lat. ne-vis, ne-parcunt, \&c. (cf. O. Engl. nille, nolde; O. Sl. něsmĭ, \&c.), but also to other parts of speech, e. g. uĕ-fus, $u(e)$-utiquam, neïter (uē-, I.-Eur. *nē, O. Ind. nắ, \&c., appears in nēquїquam, \&c.) ; in- (I.-Eur. *ṇ, O. Ind. an-, a-, Gk. à ${ }^{\nu}$-, $a-$, \&c.) and $r \bar{e}$ - (I.-Eur. *wě, O. Ind. vă-; cf. O. Sl. u-bogŭ, 'poor'), a curtailment of I.-Eur. *ăwē-, O. Ind. ava-, ch. ix. § 12) only to Adjectives, \&c. (but see Langen, Beitr. p. 181 on imprŏbare, infïteri, ignoscere, \&c.). I.-Eur, *!̣- (Lat. in-, older en-, ch. iv. § 8ı), the weak or unaccented grade of I.-Eur. * $_{\text {nĕ }}$ (ch. iv. § 5 I ), is represented in Umbro-Oscan by an-, e. g. Umbr. antakres 'integris,' Osc. amprufid ' improbe.'

Nōn is generally supposed to represent *noen(um), the 'doublet' of noenum (usually explained as *nĕ-oinom, ' not one') before an initial vowel, as nihil, nīl was the similar doublet of nililum (ch. iii. $\S 52$ ); though the absence of a satisfactory parallel for the change of $o e$ to $\bar{o}$ (instead of the usual $\bar{u}$ ) has led many to see in the first part of the word some other form of the Negative stem (cf. Umbr. no-sve 'nisi,' § 14), leaving the final $n$ to be explained as the particle (negative or demonstrative, § 1) *-nč (or *-nŭ ; cf. O. Ind. na-nú, Hom. ovv $\nu v$, and see ch. iii. §37).

Noenй (e.g. Lucr. iii. 199 noenu potest) should be written
$*_{n o e n u s, ~ a n d ~ r e p r e s e n t s ~}$ *ne-unus as noenum, *ne-ınum (cf.dèmus and lemum, ch. ix. § 2) with suppression of $-s$ in pronunciation (ch. ii. § 126). The other theory makes it differ from noenum in


IIaunt, which is confined within narrower limits than non in O. Lat., being used especially with Adjectives and Adverbs, usually immediately before the negated word, and never in questions, has been referred (along with Gk. oủ) to I.-Eur. *ăwě-, 'away' (see above on $v e-$-), so that it would properly be spelt *aur. The Roman grammarians preferred the spelling haud to haut, e. g. Charis. 1.12. 8 K. haud ... d littera terminatur. ov̉ enim Graeca vox d littera terminari apud antiquos coepit), and were probably right in doing so; for the byform hau seems to be the 'doublet' (ch. ii. § 136 ) before an initial consonant [Mar. Vict. 15.25 K . cum (sequens) verbum a consonanti incipit, d perdit, ut 'hau dudum' et 'hau multum' et 'hau placitura refer'], e.g. C.I. L. i. 1007 heic ést sepulcrum hau púlerum pulcrai féminae. (On the spellings haut, haut, hau, see Georges, Lex. Worlf. s. v.) The initial $h$ - must have been used as a distinguishing mark to differentiate the word from aut (cf. Prob. Inst. Art. 145.9 K. 'aut' si sine aspiratione scribatur et in $t$ litteram exeat, crit conjunctio ; si vero 'haud' cum aspiratione scribatur et in d litteram exeat, erit adverbiumj.
$N e ̆ c$ in O. Lat. has the sense of $n o n^{1}$ [Festus 162.14 Th . quotes XII Tab.: ast ei custos nec escit, and Plautus 'in Phasmate' (Most. 240) nec recte si illi dixeris], like Osc. neip (svai neip dadit 'si nec dedat'), Umbr. neip (sve neip portust issoc pusei subra screhto est 'si nec portarit ita uti supra scriptum est'). The $y$ of nĕg-ötium, neg-lĕgo (often spelt ueclego in MSS.; see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s. v.), \&c. is variously explained as a phonetic change of the -c (*qŭe) of nec (see ch. ii. § 73), or as the particle *ger (Gk. $\gamma \epsilon$ ) of $*_{n e ̆-g(\breve{c r})}$ (cf. Lith. nè-gi, ne-gu), a different formation from $*_{n e ̆-q}{ }^{\mathrm{u}(\mathrm{e})}$ ).
§ 19. INTERJECTIONS. Interjections, being for the most part onomatopoetic words, do not come under the phonetic laws

[^116]of a language ; their analysis and etymology offer little difficulty. The Latin interjections need not therefore detain us long. Oh! ah! st! are more or less the same sounds that we ourselves use to express astonishment and surprise, and to enforce silence ; and they require no discussion. Many are borrowed from the Greek, especially the exclamations used at musical or other entertainments, e. g. euge [in the Dramatists eugé (engae) with a lengthening of the final syllable ${ }^{1}$ like our ' bravo,' ' hallo '], sŏphīs, pălŭn, as ours come from the Italian or French, e.g. bravo, da capo, encore. But some are peculiarly Latin and offer points of interest. Em (not to be confused with hem, an Interjection of terror, grief, $\& c$. .), which is used by the Republican Comedians, where $\bar{e} n$ (Gk. $\eta \nu \nu)$ is used by the classical writers (in the Comedians $\bar{e} n$ is used only in rhetorical questions, e. g. enunquam?, Plaut. Men. 142, 925), seems to be the Imperative of $\breve{\text { emo }}$, lit. 'take,' a sense which suits well in phrases like em tibi, 'take that!' 'there's for you!' (in giving a blow), e. g. Plaut. Asin. 431 em ergo hoc tibi. Others make it Adverbial Acc. of is, O. Lat. em, 'tum ' (Paul. Fest. 53. 37 Th.), which is also, perhaps properly, spelt im (ch. vii. § 19). Joined with ille (in the Acc. Case) it produces ellum [ello (with open $e$ ) is still heard in the Abruzzi], ellos, \&c. So ecce (O. Sl. ese and se) from the Pronominal stem $*_{\text {eke }}-\left(*_{\text {eko }}\right.$ ) (ch. vii. §̧ I 5 ) either with appended -ce; [cf. Osc. eko-, ' this,' usually with appended -k (Lat. -ce), ekak 'hac,' ekkum 'item'], or else with doubling of consonant (as in att-at) produces eccillum, eccillos, \&c., whence the Romance forms, Fr. celui, Ital. quello, \&c. (see ch. vii. § 15). Eccum has been explained as ecce *hum (the enclitic -ce not being appended to the Pronoun because it exists already in the Interjection, just as $*_{\text {ecceillunc, \&c. is }}$ never found); and this analysis is preferred to ecce eum, because the word is used by the Dramatists only when the person referred to is present on the stage, whereas is is the Pronoun used of persons who have been recently mentioned. Still $*_{\text {ecce e eum }}$ might be explained as a parenthesis, e. g. Amphitruo eccum exit foras, 'A. -see him - has come out.' Eccum is the original of the Italian

[^117]heia, viri, nostrum reboans echo sonet heia!, appears as heiā in Plaut. Merc. 998.
interjection ecco, and in Plautus often comes very near ecce, e.g. Mil. 25 ubi tu es? Eccum, Poen. 279 assum apud te eccum.

Prō (not proh, see Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 985) seems to be merely the Preposition (Adverb) prō, forth, lit. ' away with it!'

Vae, I.-Eur. *wai (Goth. vai, Lett. wai), borrowed in late Greek, ovai', is the same word as our Noun 'woe.'
$\breve{A} y \check{e}$ is, like em, an Imperative used interjectionally, in Plautus and Terence often with the enclitic dum appended, agedum (like Gk. ä $\gamma \epsilon \delta \dot{\eta}$, § 1). The interjectional use of Imperatives is a feature of all languages; our ' lo ' is the Imperative of 'to look,' and we have in modern Italian vie (for veni), tie or te (for tene), guar (for guaria).

The names of deities occur in hercle, me-/erercules (sc. juvet, Paul. Fest. 90. 11 Th.), me-lercle, me-castor, me-dius fidius (' the god of grood faith,' with dius for deus because the first syllable is unaccented ?), pol (a curtailment of Pollux), ecastor (better eccastor, for the first syllable is long, but not long by nature, since it is shortened by the Law of Breves Breviantes in the Dramatists; see ch. iii. § 34). The last might represent et Castor, but ĕlĕpol can hardly represent et deus Pollux, although the irregular forms assumed by many of the English interjections, 'zounds,' 'sblood,' ' marry ' (for ' Mary '), show us the difficulty of tracing curtailed phrases of the kind back to their origin by the ordinary methods. Eccerrē is either an invocation of Ceres or ecce re, ' lo indeed.'

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## ADDENDA ET CORRIGENDA

p. vii. Prof. Stolz has now published a Lautlehre der lateinischen Sprache (Leipz. 1894), giving the phonetic laws of Latin, (cf. chap. iv of this book) along with a general introduction to the study of the language.
p. 344. § 95. The new number of the American Journal of Philology (vol. xv. p. 194) has a paper by Mr. L. Horton-Smith, in which this view of the origin of the Gerundive -ndo- is supported by a strong array of arguments.

| p. 153, I. 12 f | for illīc | read | illic. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| p. 198. l. 3 | .. Ann. Epigr. | - | Ann. Épigr. |
| p. 235. l. $7 \mathrm{ab} \mathrm{im}$. | , on- | - | on-. |
| p. 238, l. 9 ab im . | .. orbs | , | orbis, late Lat. orbs. |
| p. 242, 1. 14 | ,. děverĭ | - | dexveri. |
| p. 276, l. 8 | ., cälēre | , | calāre. |
| p. 29x, l. if ab im. | .. *qĕnq ${ }_{\text {nĕ }}$ | $\cdot$, | *pěnqư̆. |
| p. 356, 1. 4 | ,. *modes- | " | *modes- (whence moderor). |
| p. $4^{15}$, 1. 6 | .. sènus | , | sēnus. |
| p. 420, 1. 3 | .. *egŏ | - | *eğo. |
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| p. 528, 1. 22 | ,, fefaced | " | fefaked. |
| p. 55i, l. 19 | ,. U-stems | , | Vow.-stems. |

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[^0]:    ${ }^{1}$ I take this opportunity of ac- , Grammatik in chaps. iv-viii, and to knowledging to the fullest extent -"Seelmann, Aussprache des Latein in possible my indebtedness to Brug- chap. ii.

[^1]:    Oxford, August, 1894.

[^2]:    ${ }^{1}$ Hübner's article in Müller's Handbuch d. Klass. Alterthumswissenschaft, vol. i. pp. 492 sqq. 1886, gives a
    summary of what is known and a list of the authorities.

[^3]:    ${ }^{1}$ In Oscan this is normally confined to long vowels in the first syllable. (But tristaamentud, 'testamento').

[^4]:    ${ }^{1}$ Was this too borrowed from an Oscan inscription earlier than Oscan? We have fliet, 'fient,' on 211 b. c. (Rhein. Mus. 1888, p. 557).

[^5]:    ${ }^{1}$ Or should we call them mnemonic, as opposed to scientific, distinctions, meant to impress the orthographic
    rules on the memory of the common people for whom Lucilius wrote his book? (see Lucil. 26. г M.).

[^6]:    ${ }^{1}$ They may be later restorations.

[^7]:    ${ }^{1}$ Seelmann, Aussprache des Latein, Heilbronn, 1885, is the chief book on Latin Pronunciation.

[^8]:    ${ }^{1}$ But the use of $i$ may have been a mere usage of orthography to avoid the awkward collocation -eī-, which might be misread as the symbol for

[^9]:    the long $i$-sound (i. 9), or -eei-, which might suggest the $\bar{e}$-sound (ibid.) followed by $i$.

[^10]:    ${ }^{1}$ V. T. non enim sic 'optumum' dicimus ut 'optimum.' Perhaps, non enim sincere . . . aut. The reading

[^11]:    of one MS., opimum for optimum, is certainly wrong. Cf. Quint.i.7. 21, 22.

[^12]:    ${ }^{1}$ But the Comm. Lud. Saec. has optimus maximus.

[^13]:    ${ }^{1}$ The confusion of Carthaginian miuulec (?) with Lat. mures in Plaut. Poen. roog is no evidence.

[^14]:    ${ }^{1}$ Varro Men. 50 B. makes the Gen. Plur. lymphon. In Glossaries we have
    phaticus' arrepticius G1. Sangall. 912 ; Ambr. B. 3 r supr.

[^15]:    ${ }^{1}$ I.-Eur. swĕ- became Latin sŏ-, e.g. soror (through $*_{\text {svo- ? }}$ ), but not I.-Eur. wĕ-, e.g. vetus, which may

[^16]:    § 49. Testimony of grammarians. Quintilian i. 4. io, in, after saying that a letter is wanting to the Latin alphabet to express the sound of $v$ in servus, vulgus, the Aeolic digamma, goes on to speak of the consonantal (pro consonantibus) character of the vowels $i, u$, e.g. iam but etiam, uos but tuos. Of conjücit he says, littera $i$ sibi insidut, and so with $u$ in vulgus, servus. In another passage

[^17]:    ${ }^{1}$ Cf. Enn. A. 287 non enĭm rumores ponebat ante salutem (with non enim in all MSS.).

[^18]:    (For the phonetic descriptions of the Latin tenues and mediae by Roman grammarians see §§ 79, 86, 92.)

[^19]:    § 74. Greek tenues in loanwords. The most frequent instance of the change of a Gk. tenuis to a Lat. media, is the change of Gk. $\kappa$ to Lat. $g$, especially before the vowels $a, o, u$. Thus gummi for $\kappa о ́ \mu \mu$, göbius for $\kappa \omega \beta$ tós, gŭbernäre for $\kappa v \beta \epsilon \rho \nu a ̂ \nu, ~ S a ̆ g u n t u m ~ f o r ~ Z a ́ k v \nu \theta o s, ~ \& c ., ~ h a v e ~ a l w a y s, ~ o r ~ u s u a l l y, ~$ $g$ in Lat. (see Georges, Lex. Wortf. s.vv.). The spelling, varies in conger. and gonger, görȳtus and corytus, cammărus and gammarus (see Georges). Ter. Scaurus (xiv. 9, 10)says that some pronounced gaunăce, some caunace; so gamellus and

[^20]:    § 79. Phonetic descriptions of b , p . To the usual phoneticians, Ter. Maur. vi. 331. 186-193 K. :

    > b littera vel p quasi syllabae videntur junguntque sonos de gemina sede profectos: nam muta jubet portio comprimi labella, vocalis at intus locus exitum ministrat. compressio porro est in utraque dissonora; nam prima per oras etiam labella figit, velut intus agatur sonus; ast altera contra pellit sonitum de mediis foras labellis;

[^21]:    ${ }^{1}$ Plautus puns on opsecro and mox seco, Mil. 1406.

[^22]:    Mar. Vict. vi. 34 . ${ }^{15} \mathrm{~K}$. sequetur r quae vibrato $\dagger$ vocis palatum linguae fastigio fragorem tremulis ictibus reddit; Mart. Cap. iii. 26I $R$ spiritum lingua crispante corraditur. Ter. Scaurus (13. ro K.) mentions the connexion of $r$ and $l$ with $d$ : item 1 et $d$ et $\mathbf{r}$ et s [inter se mutuis vicibus funguntur], cujus rei maximum argumentum est, quod balbi, qui $r$ exprimere non possunt, aut 1 dicunt aut s , nee minus quod capra per diminutionem capella dicitur et frater fratellus.

[^23]:    imum superis dentibus adprimens labellum spiramine leni (Terentianus Maurus, second cent. A. d.).

[^24]:    ${ }^{1}$ Initial Z, however, in Umbro-Osc. may have been a variety of s, e.g. Umbr. zeřef 'sedens' (von Planta, i. p. 71).

[^25]:    ${ }^{1}$ Juppiter, quippe (ch. ix. § 7), ipsippe (ch. vii. § 20) suggest that this doubling of $p$ was a usage in the literary language.

[^26]:    ${ }^{1}$ Sometimes the interchange of single and double consonant is I-Eur. In pet-names we often find a double consonant: e.g. Gk. vávva beside 0 . Ind. nanấ ; Lat. mammas atque tătas (ch. v. §8i) beside Gk. ärrтa, O. Ind. attā ;

[^27]:    Lat. Acca Larentia, Gk. 'Aккผ́ (a name
     \&c. The double consonant of Eppius, Seppius, \&c. has been so explained, though others refer it to a dialectal doubling before $y$ like Osc. Vitelliú.

[^28]:    § 140. Testimony of grammarians. Servius, in Don. iv. 427. 20 K., states the rule as follows: quotienscumque quaerimus, quae consonantes in scribendo sibi cohaereant vel cui syllabae imputentur, utrum priori an sequenti, similitudo aliorum nominum hunc solvit errorem. ut puta 'aspice' ... intelligimus . . . s et p . . . consonantes sequenti tantummodo dare nos debere, eo quod invenitur sermo qui a duabus istis consonantibus inchoetur, ut 'spica.' similiter 'amnis': debemus m et $n$ sequenti syllabae dare in scribendo, quoniam invenitur sermo qui ab his consonantibus inchoetur, ut

[^29]:    ${ }^{1}$ A poetical scansion may of course be traditional. Thus Martial(iii.95. I) has havé, although Quintilian (i.6.2r) tells us that in the ordinary pronunciation of his time the final vowel was short. Nor is variation in the scansion of proper names proof of half-long quantity; it is rather to be referred to ignorance or carelessness. The first syllable of Fidenae, for example, was certainly long, the

[^30]:    ${ }^{1}$ The Saturnian line had three accents (main or secondary, ch. iii. § 7) in the first hemistich (one always on the first syllable of the line), and two in the second, and like Romance poetry reckoned (with permissible variations) a definite number of syllables to the line, seven to the first hemistich, six to the second. Its two chief types were:

    ## A-type -

    x́x (, ) x́x, xx́x $\|$ x́xx, xx́x dábunt málum Metelli Naéuio poétae, B-type (less usual) -
    x́x(,) X́x, x́xx \| xx́xx, x́x prim(a) incédit Céreris Prosérpina púer, a variety of the second hemistich of the A-type being \|l xxx́x, x́x adlocútus súmmi, and of the B-type \| xx́x, x́x fuísse uírum. (See Amer. Journ. Phil. vol. xiv.)
    ${ }^{2}$ The passages quoted from the grammarians by Seelmann, p. 75, are not conclusive; e.g. Ter. Scaurus' distinction of facilis Sg. from facieis Pl. is a matter of orthography, not of pronunciation, and is suggested by Lucilius' proposed distinction of the symbols $i$ and ei (see ch. i. § 9).

[^31]:    ${ }^{1}$ In A. xi. 308-
    spem siquam adscitis Aetolum habuistis in armis
    ponite. spes sibi quisque, \&c., a pause in the sentence intervenes between the two words.

[^32]:    ${ }^{1}$ It seems to be the rule in Saturnian metre (Amer. Journ. Phil. xiv. 310).

[^33]:    ${ }^{1}$ For a list of them: see Marx, Hülfsbüchlein², Berlin, 1889 (a book to be used with caution).

[^34]:    ${ }^{1}$ See Christiansen, De apicibus et I longis inscriptionum latinarum, 1889 (a Kiel dissertation).

[^35]:    ${ }^{1}$ Our ordinary pronunciation of Latin makes no distinction, for example, between illëx, 'alluring,' and
    illēx, 'lawless.' We pronounce both 'illĕx'!

[^36]:    ${ }^{1}$ The spellings $t(h)$ ensaurus for $\theta \eta \sigma a v \rho o ́ s$, Scaptensula for $\Sigma \kappa a \pi \tau \eta े$ í $\lambda \eta$ or $\sum \kappa \alpha \pi \tau \eta \sigma v ́ \lambda \eta$, Chersonensus for $\mathbf{X} \in \rho$ oóv $\eta \sigma o s$ (see Georges) do not then offer -ens. as the equivalent of Gk.

[^37]:    $-\eta \sigma$ - (with long open E , § 4 r ), but are to be compared with the misspelling censured in Probi App. 198. 21 K., occansio for occasio (see § 66). Long open E was written $a e(\S 4 \mathrm{I}$ ).

[^38]:    ${ }^{1}$ The tall $I$ of Inferi (C.I.L. vi. 7579), quoted by Christiansen and Seelmann, is no certain indication of long $i$. Every initial $i$ of this
    inscription has the tall form, e.g. Ita, Impetra. It is always difficult to be sure whether Ins-, Inf- on inscriptions indicate long $i$, or merely initial $i$.

[^39]:    ${ }^{1}$ So that there was complete assonance between $r \bar{e} x$ and rēctē in the children's verse :
    réx eris, si récte facies; sí non facies, nón eris,

[^40]:    ${ }^{1}$ A fresh complication arises from the fact that beside săcro-, we have
    a stem sācri- (säcres, Plautus), pointing to a root $s \bar{a} c$ - beside $s a ̆ c-$.

[^41]:    ${ }^{1}$ Varro's derivation of the name Gracchus, 'a gerendo' (Lib. Gramm.
    p. 184, Wilm.), suggests a pronunciation like Geracchus.

[^42]:    ${ }^{1}$ Seelmann, Aussprache des Latein, Heilbronn, 1885 , is the chief exponent of the stress-theory; Weil et Benloew, Théorie générale de l'Ac-

[^43]:    centuation Latine, Paris, 1855, of the pitch-theory. For sentence-accentuation, see the Class. Rev. v. pp. 373, 402.

[^44]:    ${ }^{1}$ Like our ' bravo !' 'hillo!' often pronounced with the voice dwelling on the final vowel.

[^45]:    § 12a. Latin Sentence-Enclitics. Among Latin Sentence-Enclitics we may class:-
    (1) Enclitic Particles like quĕ (I.-Eur. *què, O. Ind. ca, Gk. $\tau \in$, all unaccented), $v \check{e}$ [I. Eur. ${ }^{*}$ wĕ, O. Ind. vā (unacccented), Gk. *Fє in $\dot{\eta}^{\prime}-\epsilon$ from $\left.{ }^{*} \hat{\eta}-F \epsilon\right]$, and so on. Their enclitic nature is shown by their being always joined in writing with the preceding word, e.g. atque, sive. In the rapid utterance of ordinary con-

[^46]:    ${ }^{1}$ Syncope after a long vowel is due to the tendency to make a long vowel extra long.

[^47]:    ${ }^{1}$ Or for *näu-fragus, which became nău-fragus (ch. iv. § 45), and so with claudo, gaudeo (?).

[^48]:    § 39. Alternation of final e with internal i. Other examples are istic, illic from iste, ille, increased by -ce; isticine, illicine, further increased by -ne; hicine, nuncine, tuncine; tutin, for tute with ne, is the spelling of the MSS. in Plaut. Mil. 290 ; undique from unde, indidem from inde; ante is anti- in compounds like antici-

[^49]:    § 6. Lat. $\bar{e}$ for I.-Eur. е̄. Other examples are : I.-Eur. dhē-, 'to suck,' 'suckle' (O. Ind. dhā-, dhā-rú-, 'suckling,' dhā-trī, 'nurse,'Arm. diem, 'I suck,

[^50]:    ${ }^{1}$ Pliny contrasts the $l$ of lectus, lectum with the 'exilis' $l$-sound of Metellus, so that we cannot suppose
    exactly as Russian or Gaelic 1, viz. a 'deep' $l$ before $a, o, u$, a 'palatal' $l$ before $e, i$.

[^51]:    § 18. Latin ob for I.-Eur. ob. Other examples : from the I.-Eur. root öqn-, 'to see ' (varying with ōqn̄-) (O. Ind. ákṣ̌i-, 'the eye,' Arm. akn, Gk. ö $\mu \mu a$, ö $\nless о \mu a \iota$, Lith. akìs, O. Sl. oko) comes Lat. oculus; the I.-Eur. preposition *pró, 'forth' (O. Ind. prá, Gk. $\pi \rho \rho^{\prime}$, O. Ir. ro, used like the Augment to indicate past time, e.g. ro chan 'I sang' from canim 'I sing,' O. Bret. ro-, Goth. fra-, Lith. pra-, O. Sl. pro-) is Lat.prŏ- of prǒ-ficiscor,\&c.; another preposition, I.-Eur.*kom 'with '(Gk. roıv's from * $\kappa о \mu$-yos, $\mathbf{O}$. Ir. com-, Osc. com) is Lat. com, which when unaccented, or when preceding $b, p, g u$, \&c., became cum, its usual form in classical Latin; I.-Eur. *nokti-, ' night' (O. Ind. nákti-, Gk. $\nu v$ ǵ, O. Ir. in-nocht, 'to-night,' W. henoeth, nos, Goth. nahts, O. Engl. neaht, niht, Lith. naktis, O. Sl. noštì) is

[^52]:    ${ }^{1}$ Perhaps both in Oscan and Latin the second element of ai, \&c. was
    a sound between open i and e, just as in German and English.

[^53]:    § 42. Other examples of I.-Eur. ou. From the root neud-, 'to use, enjoy' (Goth. niutan, 'to enjoy') comes the Latin nütrio, nütrix (in Old Latin notrix,

[^54]:    Shortening of long 'diphthong' before consonant. It seems to have been a law very widely spread through the I.-Eur. languages that a long vowel became shortened before any y (in i-diphthongs), w (in u-diphthongs), $\mathrm{m}, \mathrm{n}, \mathrm{r}$, orl, when this was followed by a consonant. Thus I.-Eur. *wēnt- from the root wee., 'to blow' (Gk. $\alpha-\eta \mu_{l}$ ) has become in Gk. $\dot{\alpha}-\epsilon \in \tau \tau$-, in Goth. vinds, our ' wind,' as in Latin věntus (Span. viento)'; the I.-Eur. word for the heel or the ham (O. Ind. pátrṣnni-) is in Gk. $\pi \tau \epsilon \in \rho \nu a$, in Goth. fairzna, and in Latin pěrna (Span. pierna) [curiously enough Mar. Sacerdos (vi. 45 I. 5 K.) cites a derivative of this word, pernix, swift (lit. 'strong in the ham,' and properly used of horses and other animals, A. L. L. viii. 453) as an illustration of a short

[^55]:    § 71. I.-Eur. w after a consonant. (r) In the first syllable :-LLatin serius (Goth. svērs, 'honourable'; Germ. schwer, 'heavy') is from the root swer-, 'to weigh' (Lith. sver̃ti) ; for Latin si we have in Oscan svaí, in Umbr. sve; Latin sidus is connected with Lith. svidéti, 'to shine'; Lat. suf-fǐo, to fumigate, with Gk. $\theta$ v́a, from I.-Eur. *dhw-iyō. But swā- is Lat. suā- in suavis (a trisyllable in Vulg. Lat., cf. Ital. soave ; Servius ad Aen. i. 357 says that many persons in his day made suādet a trisyllable). Lat. dǔs-, apart, asunder, seems

[^56]:    ${ }^{1}$ On inscrr. of Asisium the Umbr. Voisiener Gen. Sing. (C. I. L. xi. 5389 = Bücheler, Umbrica Inscr. Min. i., p. I72) corresponds to Lat. Volsienus

[^57]:    § 89. ss for rs before consonant. Other examples are: Lat. testīmentum for ${ }^{*}$ tesst-, ${ }^{*}$ terst- from ${ }^{*}$ trist- (Osc. trístaamentud Abl. Sg.) ; cēna for ${ }^{*}$ cesna, *cessna from *cersna (Osc. kersna-, Umbr. sesna-). The spelling coena, due to the analogy of Gk. coıvós, is very old. It appears on an early Praenestine cista of the third cent. в. $c$. with the representation of a kitchen where cooking operations are going on. One servant is saying feri porod ( $=$ feri porro) ; another replies cofeci $(=$ confeci $)$; a third orders made mirecie ( $=$ made mi regie or made mire, cie); a fourth misc sane (= misce sane); a fifth says asom fero ( $=$ assum fero) ; a sixth confice piscim. The title is coenalia or coena pia (see Mel. Arch. 1890, p. 303). Similarly Lat. fastīgium for *farst- (O. Ind. bhrṣ̣tí-, 'a point') ; posco for *porcsco (O. Ind. prchấmi, O. H. G. forscōn, Germ. forschen).
    § 90. rr for rs before vowel. Othèr examples: Lat. farreus (Umbr. farsio- and fasio-; cf. O. Sl. brašino, ' food'); garrio (Lith. gar̃sas, 'noise'); horreo (O. Ind. hṛ̣̣̆-) ; porrum (Gk. $\boldsymbol{\pi} \boldsymbol{\rho} \dot{\sigma} \sigma o \nu)$; terreo [O. Ind. tras-, Gk. $\tau \rho \bar{f}(\sigma) \omega$, Umbr. tursitu tremitu] ; verres (Lith. ver̃szis, ‘calf'; cf. O. Ind. vrṣ̣ṇi-, 'ram’) ; verrūca, 'a rising-ground' in O. Lat. (Lith. virszùs; cf. O. Ind. várẹ̆man-) ; Maspiter,

[^58]:    § 110. Other instances of I.-Eur. d, Lat. d. I.-Eur. root deik-, 'to point' (O. Ind. diš́s, Gk. $\delta \epsilon \in \epsilon \kappa v \mu$, Goth. ga-teihan, 'to proclaim'), Latin dicere, indŭcare ; I.-
     Gaul. Dexsiva, W. deheu, Goth. taihsva, Lith. deszinễ, O. Sl. desĭnŭ), Lat. dexter ; I.-Eur. root sed-, 'to sit' (O. Ind. sad-, Gk. ধ́ $\delta o s, 0$, Ir. sudim, sadaim, W. seddu Inf., Goth. sita, O. Sl. sedlo,'saddle'), Lat. sědeo. Similarly Lat. scindo

[^59]:    ${ }^{1}$ So $w$ is dropped before the $u$-sound in Engl. 'two.'

[^60]:    § 123. Other examples of I.-Eur. ̂̂k. From I.-Eur. root weik-, 'to enter' ( 0. Ind. viśs, věšá- M., 'a tent,' Gk. Foîkos, Alb. vis M., 'a place,' Goth. veihs, 'a village,' Lith. vëszëti, ' to be lodged,' O. Sl. vĭsĭ, 'a farm'), Lat. vīcus ; I.-Eur. *yŭwṇko- (O. Ind. yuvašá-, Gk. 'rák-ıvoos, O. Ir. ōac, W. ieuanc, Goth. juggs), Lat. jüvencus; I.-Eur. *k̂rd-, 'heart' (O. Ind. šrad-dhā́-, 'confidence,' Arm. sirt, Gk. карס́ía, O. Ir. cride, Goth. hairtō, Lith. szirdìs, O. Sl. srïdĭce), Lat. cor, crēdo; I.-Eur. root k̂leu-, 'to hear' (O. Ind. šru-, Gk. $\kappa \lambda \dot{\prime} \omega$, O.-Ir. cloor, cluinim, W. clywed Inf., Goth. hliu-ma, 'hearing,' O. Sl. sluti, 'to be famous'), Lat. clueo; I.-Eur. *porrko- (Gk. $\pi \delta \dot{\rho} \kappa$ коs, O. Ir. orc, O. Engl. fearh, Engl. farrow, Lith. par̃szas, O. Sl. prasę), Lat. porous ; I.-Eur. kii-, a Demonstrative Pronoun-stem (Arm. -s, Gk. -кı, Alb. si-, O. Ir. cē, Goth. hi-mma, Lith. szìs, O. Sl. sĭ), Lat. cis, citer, citra ; I.-Eur. k̂lei-, 'to lean' (O. Ind. śri-, Gk. $\kappa \lambda t \nu \omega$, O. Ir. cloen, 'awry,' Goth. hlains, 'a hill,' Lith. sztaĩtas', Lat. ac-ctinis, ctivus'; I.-Eur. *děk̂ṃ, 'ten' (O. Ind. dáśsa, Arm. tasn, Gk. סéḱa, O. Ir. deich, W. deg, Goth. taihun, Lith. dêszimt, O. Sl. desętĭ), Lat. dĕcem; I.-Eur. root deik̂-, 'to point, say' (O. Ind. diš-, Gk. $\delta \in i \not \epsilon v v \mu$, Goth. gateihan, 'to proclaim),' Lat. dīcere, indǐcare ; I.-Eur. root prek-, 'to ask' (O. Ind. pras̆́-ná-, 'a question,' O. Ir. imm-chom-arcim, 'I ask,' O. W. di-er-

[^61]:    § 140. I.-Fur. $g^{u}$, Lat. $v$ : other examples. Lat. vĕnio (O. Ind. gam-, gach-, Arm. e-kn,' hecame,' Gk. Baiva, Bá $\sigma \kappa \omega$, Goth. qima, Engl. I come, Germ. komme; Lat. vŏro (O. Ind. gr--, Arm. ker, 'food,' Gk. ßopa, $\beta \iota \beta \rho \omega \sigma \kappa \omega$, Lith. geriù, 'I drink,' O. Sl. žirą, 'I swallow') ; Lat.věru (O. Ir. bir N., a U-stem, W. ber) ; Lat. nüdus for *novedo- (Goth. naqabs ; cf. O. Ind. nag-ná-, Lith. núgas, O. Sl. nagŭ).

[^62]:    § 158. Other examples. On the forms cals for $*_{c a l(c) s, ~ c a l x, ~ a n d ~ m e r s ~ f o r ~}^{\text {f }}$ ${ }^{\text {mer }}$ (c)s, merx, see ch. ii. § $\mathbf{1 2 5}$; they are like farsi for *farcsi, fulsi for*fulcsi, mulsi for ${ }^{\text {mulcsi. }}$ Like for (c)tis is fertum, $\mathbf{0}$. Lat.ferctum, a sacrificial cake, from a lost

[^63]:    ${ }^{1}$ Lat. jŭventa seems to be a formation on the analogy of sernecta (sc. aetas), for juventūs is the form used by the oldest writers, both in the

[^64]:    § 32. Adjectives with the KO-suffix. From the adverbs rĕ- and prŏ- we have rĕcĭ-prŏcus, while prŏcul adds the lo- (li-) suffix to *procus (O. Sl. prokŭ) (Rhein. Mus. xliii. 402) ; postīcus is the opposite of anticus; priss-cus (cf. primus for ${ }^{*} p_{r i s}$-mus). From the numeral ünus we have uň̆cus (Goth. ainahs, O. Sl. inokŭ ; cf. O. Ind. dvĭka-, Gk. $\delta \iota \sigma \sigma o ́ s$ for $* \delta F \iota \iota \iota o s)$. From nouns : patricus (cf. patricius); hosticus, used in Plautus like hostìlis (hostica manus, Capt. 246 ; hostilis manus, Capt. 3ri) ; cīvǐcus (beside cīvīlis). (Cf. Porph. ad Hor. C. ii. r. I adtende autem non 'civile' sed 'civicum' dixisse antiqua figura. illi enim ' civica' et 'hostica,' deinde 'civilia' et 'hostilia' dicebant. denominationes autem hae fere liberae sunt apud doctos). Other noticeable forms are
     hiulcus, pětulcus from hiare and petere with the (diminutive?) LO-suffix. [For a list of Nouns in $-\bar{u} c a, ~ e . ~ g . ~ v e r r u c a, ~ a ~ w a r t, ~ i n ~ O . ~ L a t . ~ a ~ h i l l ~(C a t o ~ a p . ~ G e l l ~$ iii. 7. 6 ; Quint. viii. 3. 48 and viii.6. 14), from the root wers- of Lith. virszùs, ' the top,' O. Ind. várṣ̆man, 'a height,' see Stolz, Beiträge, p. 6, who points out the connexion of this ending with the ending -ugo, e.g. Verrugo, a Volscian town in Latium.] A gloss has : manubrium, quod rustici 'manicum' dicunt (C. G. L. v. 115. I7) (manico- in Romance, e. g. Ital. manico, Span. mango, Fr. manche) ; Paul. Fest. quotes olentica ' mali odoris loca' (223. 4 Th.).

[^65]:    § 48. Other examples of U-stems in Latin. Lat. gĕnu (cf. O. Ind. jấnu, N. Gk. róvv N., Goth. kniu N.) ; věru (O. Ir. bir, a Neut. u-Stem, W. ber).
    $\S 49$. Interchange of U - with O -stems. This interchange is found also in Umbro-Osc. Thus Osc. senateís shows the same Gen. Sg. suffix as an O-stem (e.g. sakarakleís 'sacraculi'), Umbr. maronato 'magistratu,' the O-stem Abl. In Plautus the U-stems appear mostly in the Nom. Acc. Abl. Sg., and so are hardly to be distinguished from 0 -stems ; the Dat. Sg. is usually in -ui (ch. vi. § 27), but the Gen. Sg. is normally in -i (ch. vi. § 21); in the Plural instances are comparatively seldom and almost only in the Nom. Acc. and Abl.; the only certain instance of a Gen. Pl. is mille passum. On the S. C. Bacch. of 186 в.c. we have Gen. Sg. senatuos, but at the end of the same century senati (C.I.L.i. 199, 200, 547), and Quintilian (i. 6. 27) states that it is impossible to say whether sěnēti or sěnätus is the Genitive form. Nura for nürus, socra for socrus, forms censured in the Probi Appendix (198. 34 and 199. I K.) occur on late inscriptions (nura, C. I. L. viii. 2604. 4293, \&c. ; nurua, v. 2452 ; socra, ii. 530,2936 ; iii. 655 ; viii. 2906, 3994 ; xiv. 526 , \&c. ; socera, iii. 3895, vii. 229, \&c.) and nơra, sŏč̌ra or socra are the prototypes of Ital. nuora,

[^66]:    ${ }^{1}$ spēs may be of similar formation (cf. O.Ind. sphāyatē, 'he extends himself, increases'); it is used by Plautus only in Nom. Acc. Abl. Sg. and in Nom. Acc. Pl. (spes). But Ennius

[^67]:    ${ }^{1}$ Priscian (i. pp. 168. 15: 169, 9, and 321. 19 H.) seems to think that adip- F. implies a Nom. Sg. adipēs.

[^68]:    § 53. -yē- and -i-. Acisculus, a small pickäxe (there was a Roman familyname Valerius Acisculus), has been referred (with supposed $i$ ) to ăcies (Rhein. Mus. 1891, p. 236); the Probi Appendix (p. 198. i2 K.) censures a large number of forms in -is beside forms in -es, e. g. vatis beside vates, and among them facis for facies (cf. facitergium Isid. beside facietergium Greg. Tur.).

[^69]:    § 57. Neuter R-stems. Many of these are names for parts of the body, e. g. fěmur, jëcur, über.(Amer. Journ. Phil. xii. r). On O. Lat. aser, blood (0. Ind. ásr--k Nom., asn-ás Gen.) and on other Neut. R.-stems, see ch. vi. § 15.

[^70]:    § 62. Other examples of Lat. T-stems. Lat. tĕres, Gen. terětis, from tero ; hěbes, Gen. hebětis ; äles, Gen. alŭtis, with the sense of alātus; tŭdes (cf. tưdŭtare), an old word for a hammer (Fest. 530. 30 Th. ; Paul. Fest. 53r. 12. Th.), from tundo, is a rather doubtful form ; and the origin of I.-Eur. *něpot- (O. Ind. nápāt-, M. Ir. niae, Gen. niath, W. nai ; cf. Hom. Gk. v'́ $\pi o \delta \epsilon s$ ), Lat. nĕpōs, with its cognate *něptī (O. Ind. naptí-, Goth. ni(f)pjis, 'kinsman,' O. Sl. ne(p)tijï-, ' nephew,' \&c.), Lat. neptis is not clear. The termination es was much in vogue

[^71]:    § 72. Neuter ES-stems in Latin. The original declension with -os Nom., -es- in Oblique Cases and Derivatives, is sometimes departed from, e.g.tempus,

[^72]:    ${ }^{1}$ These Possessives were originally used in Apposition, e. g. angui-pes, 'Snake-foot.' Hence in Greek os is
    retained in the Fem. of Compounds like $\rho_{o \delta o-\delta a ́ к \tau v \lambda o s ~(' H o ́ s), ~ ' R o s e-~}^{\text {' }}$ finger.

[^73]:    ${ }^{1}$ With the gradual loss of these peculiar suffixes (in Plautus ambos has begun to oust ambō Acc., and in Late Latin ambis ousts ambōbus) we may compare our plural 'shoes,' with disuse of the older suffix of 'shoon,'

[^74]:    ${ }^{1}$ Thus the fem. gender of diēs has been ascribed to the analogy of nox.
    ${ }^{2}$ O. Slav. domŭ is a U-stem, but in Slavonic the $\mathbf{O}$ - and U-declensions have been mixed up, as in Latin.

[^75]:    ${ }^{1}$ Many were originally RO-stems (ch. v. § 40 ; cf. O. Lat. hìlürus). They are often RO-stems in Late and Vulgar Latin, e.g. Vulg. Lat. alelĕcer,

    Ital. allegro ; cf. Ital. campestro, \&c.
    ${ }^{2}$ For the Umbro-Oscan forms of these and the other case-suffixes, see Class. Rev. ii. pp. 129, 202, 273.

[^76]:    ${ }^{1}$ The form dies would, however, produce cacophony with its repetition of $-s$ in the Cicero and Virgil passages.

[^77]:    'seruandi numeri' $:$-numerum ut seruemus modumque.

[^78]:    § 34. O. Lat. Abl. with -d. Ablatives with -d seem to be unknown in Plautus and the earliest Dramatic literature, so that the final dental must have dropped out of the spoken language before the end of the third cent. B. c., though it is found in the Saturnian poetry (e.g. Naevius, Bell. Pun. 7 M. nóctu Troíad exíbant cápitibus opértis; C.I.L. i. 30 , one of the oldest Saturnian Scipio epitaphs: Gnaíuod pátre (probably -č) prognátus fórtis uir sapiénsque (but SamnioAbl. on the same epitaph), and is persistently written in the S. C. de Bacchanalibus (i. 196) of 186 b. c. (sententiad, couentionid, exstrad, suprad, oquoltod, preiuatod, poplicod, facilumed, \&c.). It is as persistently omitted in a nearly contemporary inscription (C.I. L. ii. 504 I , Spain, of 189 B. c.). [For other examples of Abl. - $d$ on inscriptions, and for passages of the Latin grammarians referring to this form, see Neue, $i^{2}$. p. 2, Ritschl, Neue Excurse, i., and add porod (for class. porro) on a Praenestine cista, Met. Arch. 1890, p. 303.] In Oscan the -d remains, e. g. trístaamentud 'testamentō,' akrid 'acri,' egmad 're' (cf.

[^79]:    ${ }^{1}$ The Instrumental, it may be remarked, is the case used after the phrase arthō bhavati (Lat. opus est).

[^80]:    ${ }^{1}$ The (Adverb ?) mërito is spelt meretod or meritod on the oldest inscriptions.

[^81]:    ${ }^{1}$ Or -issimo-, an ending peculiar, so far as is known, to Latin, may contain the suffix -is- twice. The change of ${ }^{*}$ cics-ume $(d)$ to oxime ( ${ }^{*} o c$ -
    sime) obscured the presence of this suffix, and may have led to a reformation from ocius (*ocis), viz. ocissime.

[^82]:    ${ }^{1}$ The supposed examples of -iüs in Plautus are illusory ; see Müller, Plaut. Pros. p. 55.

[^83]:    ${ }^{1}$ It is a mistake to suppose that the scansion misërrimus, simillimus, \&c. is found in 0 . Lat. poetry, or that the

[^84]:    ${ }^{1}$ The Oscan word, often compared with bessi-, viz. diasis (Zv. I.I.I. 154), has scant claims to existence.

    All that the inscription shows is . . . ịasis.

[^85]:    § 62. Tres. The grammarians prescribe trés in the Nominative and tris in the Accusative (Neue, ii ${ }^{3}$. p. 284), as is the rule in all I-stems ( $\$ \S 40,5 \mathrm{I}$ ), though Virgil, as Gellius (xiii. 21. 10) points out, uses tres Acc. for the sake of variety in A. x. 350 :

[^86]:    § 66．Quinque．The long quantity of the $i$ of quinque is attested by the use of the tall form of the letter on inscriptions（for instances，see Christiansen， de Apicibus，pp．45－46．On Vulg．Lat．cinque（Ital．cinque，Fr．cinq，\＆c．）， see ch．iv．§ 163）．

[^87]:    § 70. Nine. I.-Eur. *nĕ́wṇ (O. Ind. náva, Gk. ėvvéa for ${ }^{*} \epsilon \nu-\nu \epsilon F a(?)$, O. Ir. nōi, W. naw, Goth. niun ; cf. Lith. devyn-i with d- instead of n-) is in Latin nŏvem with ov regularly enough for -ew- as in Celtic (ch. iv. § 10), but with -em instead of the

[^88]:    § 8. Enos Acc. is found in the ancient Hymn of the Arval Brothers, preserved in a carelessly written inscription, containing the minutes of the Priesthood for the year 218 A. D. (C.I. L.i. 28) : enos, Lases, iuuate, and enos, Marmor, iuuato. If the lines have Saturnian rhythm, the accent must fall on the first syllable of enos (see ch. ii. § 14r, p. 128 n.) :

[^89]:    ${ }^{1}$ aliquis alius is not found in Plautus, though it occurs in Terence.

[^90]:    ${ }^{1}$ So quantus quantu's, 'every inch of you,' Ter. Adelph. 394 ; quantum quantum, Plaut. Poen. 738 ; quaequalis in a poetical inscr., C. I. L. vi. $6_{3} 14$.

[^91]:    ${ }^{1}$ We have seen (ch. vi. § 46) that in Latin the Gen. Pl. suffix of O -stems, -ōsom, then -ōrom, class. -ōrum, was extended from Pronouns (e.g. olorom 'illorum' on the Columna Rostrata)
    to Adjectives (e. g. duonoro on a Scipio Epitaph of perhaps the end of the third cent. b. c.), and in time to Nouns (e.g. deorum competed with deum in Cicero's time, ch. vi. § 47).

[^92]:    ${ }^{1}$ Or is cante, like the other strange syncopated form quoted from the Carm. Sal. priuicloes 'priviculis'
    (p. 175), merely a trace of the older syllabic writing (ch. iii. § 44 )?

[^93]:    ${ }^{1}$ For a fuller list of examples of the various Present-stem formations,
    see Job, le Présent et ses dérivés dans la conjugaison latine, Paris, 1893.

[^94]:    ${ }^{1}$ The same tendency appears at an early period. Cèlare, a Derivative from ${ }^{*}$ cēla, concealment, has sup-

[^95]:    ${ }^{1}$ Some prefer to regard the Latin Imperfect as formed of a Verbal Noun in -ěs with an Auxiliary. In that
    case legēbam will represent *legěs-bam

[^96]:    ${ }^{1}$ Still all the instances of this spelling of Cato's seem to be 1 Sg . Fut. In MSS. of Plautus we find -em occasionally in 1 Sg. Fut. of Verbs in -io (for the references, see Neue, $\mathrm{ii}^{2}$.

[^97]:    ${ }^{1}$ Umbr. pru-sik-urent 'pronuntiaverint' has certainly I.-Eur. é (Umbr. i).

[^98]:    ${ }^{1}$ Dŏmui, which is usually explained as Perf. of *dömé́yo-, a Causative byform of *domāyo- (§ 29), is by some referred to an I.-Eur. stem ending in a or $-\breve{a}$ ( cf. Gk. á- $\delta a \dot{\alpha} \mu$ ăтos with Lat.

[^99]:    § 56. Some O. Lat. Subj. and Opt. forms. In one of the oldest Latin inscriptions preserved, the Dvenos inscription, we have an $\overline{\mathrm{A}}$-Subjunctive milat 'mittat' used as a Future, with the Optative of the root es-, sied 'sit,' used in the true Optative sense : qoi med mitat, nei ted endo cosmis uirco sied 'qui me mittet, ne erga te comis Virgo sit' (asted on the same inscr. is variously interpreted as 'adstet' and as 'ast'; see ch. x. § 5). Siem, sies, siet (on sient, see § $73 ;{ }^{*}$ siemus, *sietis have not found their way into Latin as syâma, syàta have into 0 . Ind.), possiem, \&c. are by Terence used almost only at the end of a line or hemistich, i. e. through metrical necessity, but

[^100]:    ${ }^{1}$ Or the Plural of the old Pres. Part. Passive, agimini for *ago-menoi (Gk. áyó- $\boldsymbol{\mu} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\nu} \boldsymbol{\circ}$ ), with ellipse of este, as 2 Pl. Ind. agimini for the same, with

[^101]:    ${ }^{1}$ Sins of the Carmen Arvale (quoted in ch. vi. §55) is a very doubtful form.

[^102]:    ${ }^{1}$ Explained as *ind-(s)quam from the root sequ- (ch. iv. § 158), or as *ind-(ve)quam from the ront wequ‥

[^103]:    ${ }^{1}$ Some make it an addition to $\bar{\imath}$ of the Active Inf. ending, with Syncope of the final ě, as in biber for bĭbĕre

[^104]:    § 90. Pres. Part. Act. The Pres. Part. Act. was liable to become in all languages an ordinary Adjective or a Noun ; e.g. Goth. frijōnd-s, lit. 'loving,' assumed the sense of 'friend'; Lat. rŭdens (see § 6), lit. 'rattling,' assumed the sense of 'a rope, tackling'; bĕnĕ̌̌̌lens is a noun in Plautus, e. g. Trin. 46, 1148, \&c. Very early examples of this seem to be Lat. dens (Osc. dont-?), a Pres. Part. of the I.-Eur. root ed-, ' to eat,' sons a Pres. Part. of I.-Eur. es-, 'to be' (cf. O. Scand. sannr, 'sooth, true,' which acquired the sense of 'truly charged.' 'guilty'). Of Pres. Parts. becoming Adjectives in Latin examples are congruens (beside congruus), benevolens (beside benevolus), bĕnëmërens (cf. -mërus in Lucilius' mercēdïmërae lĕgiōnes̀) ; indĭgens, not indŭgus, and insciens, not inscius (but nescius), are used by Plautus. The result of this close connexion of

[^105]:    ${ }^{1}$ Another example is cunctus (for co-vinctus?), which has still its participial sense in Plaut. Most.

    1168: fac istam cunctam gratiam. Accūratus is always a Participle in o. Lat.

[^106]:    ${ }^{1}$ föret beside esset seems to be a form of *fueret, *bhwësēt, like soror- from *swĕsōr (ch. iv. § 10), or Marci-por for
    -pucr ; the Oscan equivalent is fusid, cf. Osc. fust Fut.

[^107]:    ${ }^{1}$ In 0 . Ind. the Instr. Case is in the Noun Declension used to denote
    the sphere of motion, 'by the route of.' (Delb. Altind. Synt. p. 129.)

[^108]:    ${ }^{1}$ Explained as *sempe $(r)$ ternus with loss of $r$ by Dissimilation (ch. ii. § 103 )

[^109]:    ${ }^{2}$ Paulisper, with the tall form of I to indicate the long quantity, occurs in C. I. L. vi. 27788.

[^110]:    ${ }^{1}$ For an example of the older spelling seic we may take this touching epitaph of a girl called Flavia Amoena [Mitth. (röm.) viii. $\mathrm{r}^{\circ}$ ] :

[^111]:    ${ }^{1}$ Lat. $\bar{c}$ and W. Teut. $\bar{o}$ are referred to I.-Eur. ${ }^{* \bar{a}}$ by Buck, Osk. Spr. p. 25.

[^112]:    ${ }^{1}$ Imo occurs in the Aes Italicense of 176-180 A.d. (C.I. L. ii. 6278, l. 20).

[^113]:    Ítăque póstquam est Órcho tráditus thesaúro (see p. i28 n.).

[^114]:    ${ }^{1}$ This is a translation of Epicharmus' epigram (ap. Schol. Hom. Il. x. 144) :
    

[^115]:    ко́троs є̇бтív.
     ả入入à $\theta \epsilon o ́ s$.

[^116]:    ${ }^{1}$ Catullus (lxiv. 83) uses the phrase funera nec funera to express the Greek тáфоı äтафоı.

[^117]:    ${ }^{1}$ Heiă, the usual scansion, as in this refrain of a Late Lat. boatingsong (Poet. Lat. Min. iii. p. 167 B.) :

[^118]:    ${ }^{1}$ If a word is not found in this Index, the ending or suffix of the word should be looked for. Thus the reference for furibundus, fremebundus, \&c., will be found under -bundus, the reference for commenticius, \&c., under-ticius.

[^119]:    - Scholia Graeca in Iliadem Townleyana. Recensuit Ernestus Maass. 2 vols. 8vo. Ih. 168.

