

Sanskrit: The Indo-European Perspective

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January 27, 2020

Preface

Students of Sanskrit can choose among several good manuals, for example those by Deshpande [2007], Egenes [2011, 2012], Goldman and Goldman [2011], Harding Maurer [2009], Otter [2017], Ruppel [2017], or Stiehl [2011]. Whichever they may choose, learning Sanskrit is a daunting task. Indeed, the author of one of those text books, Robert Goldman, mentions “the intricacies and frustrations of *sandhi* and the other terrors of Sanskrit” inflicted on successive student generations (Goldman and Goldman [2011, p. xix]). This book has been written in order to reduce these terrors of Sanskrit.

This book is *not* an alternative textbook for learning Sanskrit. Instead, it is to accompany these textbooks and written in the hope to make Sanskrit learning easier by explaining words and grammatical forms from an Indo-European point of view. Consider, for example Old Indian *ad* which means “to eat”, but is also historically related to both English *eat* and New High German *essen*. There was an Indo-European word **ed* that branched out into all these words over some millennia. Even e. *tooth* and nhg. *Zahn* stem from **ed* (or, taking the laryngeal perspective, **Hed*).

I may well fail in my endeavour to bring Sanskrit and Indo-European studies closer to each other once again. After all, Jakob Wackernagel [1896, p. LXXIV], who wrote “Altindische Grammatik” more than hundred years ago, had a similar aim in mind:

“... der Verfasser würde sich freuen, wenn es ihm gelänge ... die in den letzten Jahrzehnten gelockerten Bande zwischen Sprachwissenschaft und Sanskritphilologie wieder fester zu knüpfen”

While Wackernagel did put together the (in his time) state-of-the-art Indo-European outlook on Old Indian, he did not manage to influence language teaching, at least when judged from modern textbooks of Sanskrit. A case in point is Deshpande [2007, back cover], who hopes to simplify “the process of learning Sanskrit, by dissociating this language-learning process from the heavy burdens imposed, both by the tradition of Indo-European linguistics and the tradition of indigenous Sanskrit grammarians in India.” In my mind, the Indo-European perspective should be seen as helpful, rather than an extra burden. In this vein, this manual has a clear didactic purpose. It has been written to help the author and his fellow students to make the best didactic use of the Indo-European perspective on Sanskrit.

By the didactic purpose of this book, the knowledge of other Indo-European languages is not important. In particular, knowledge of Latin and Greek is not vital. We often use the Latin or Greek words found in modern English or German. We focus on Sanskrit, but briefly also mention Middle Indian languages. While Vedic grammar is ignored, Vedic vocabulary is occasionally mentioned. Accents (important in Vedic) are regularly

ignored. German words, and more rarely und unsystematically, French, Italian or Irish words are adduced. The reasons for including words are often rather subjective.

Fortunately, new Wackernagels (of sorts) have been written by Kobayashi [2004], Kümmel [2014], and Goto [2013]. Readers interested in current state-of-the-art Indo-Aryan or Indo-European phonology and morphology had better turn elsewhere. Thanks and apologies for not citing appropriately are due to all the above-mentioned authors and also to many other authors¹ of textbooks/grammars/dictionaries/articles: I copy Brugmann [2009, p. V]’s excuse: “Bei jeder Einzelheit anzugeben, wer über dieselbe gehandelt habe und wer der erste Urheber der von mir vorgetragenen Auffassung sei, schien mir einerseits durch den Zweck des Buches nicht geboten, andererseits aber wiederum durch die Raumverhältnisse ausgeschlossen.” I sometimes divert from this general practice and would be grateful if I am not asked for the general rule underlying these exceptions.

Heartfelt thanks are due, of course, to Sadananda Das, my Leipzig Sanskrit teacher and friend whose perfect command of Sanskrit is well beyond reach even after studying 10 Sanskrit textbooks and 5 manuals on Sanskrit as an Indo-European language.

This manual surely contains many mistakes. The author would be most grateful if some of these were pointed out to him. Also, additional material and other suggestions to present the subject matters in a different manner are most welcome. I like to thank Kerstin Szwedek for many helpful hints. Katharina Lotzen undertook the laborious work of producing the index. Maria Näther and Alexander Singer proved very efficient with LaTeX and Lyx. Jan Warzok carefully read a later version.

Ideally, and borrowing from Kobayashi [2004, p. 1], the current author enjoys, and hopes that other learners of Sanskrit may also enjoy, “a conspiracy-like tendency behind apparently unrelated phenomena”.

Leipzig, December 2019

Harald Wiese

¹In many different ways, I have made use of Beekes [1995, 2010], Brugmann [2009], Burrow [2001], Clackson [2007], Dudenredaktion [2006], Dunkel [2014a,b], Fortson IV [2004], Hock [1991], Kluge [2002], Kroonen [2013], Lazzeroni [1998], Lubotsky [2018], Macdonell [2010], Rix [2001], Schmitt-Brandt [1998], Sihler [1995, 2000], Szemerényi [1989], de Vaan [2008], Watkins [1998], Zentralinstitut für Sprachwissenschaft [1997], Ziegler [2012], and, of course, Mayrhofer [1978, 1992, 1996]. With respect to Middle Indian, I have benefitted from Hinüber [1986], Masica [1991], Oberlies [2003], and Woolner [1996].

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A. Introduction

A.1. Historical highlights

The idea of this manual is to make Sanskrit easier to learn by taking the Indo-European perspective. This allows to link Sanskrit to other languages possibly known to students and also to improve the understanding of Sanskrit peculiarities. In taking the Indo-European point of view, we are not undertaking anything new or innovative, of course. Indeed, Indo-European and Sanskrit studies were very close in the beginning of these subjects in the western world. Here is a short history.

Sir William Jones

Perhaps, both western Indology and Indo-European studies have been initiated by Sir William Jones (1746-1794) who learnt many different languages even before going to India (which was under British colonial rule) as a judge. It was only there that he came into contact with Sanskrit, relevant to him as the language of ancient law texts. In 1786, Jones gave a presentation at the Royal Asiatic Society in Calcutta. He notes that Sanskrit is very similar to Latin and Greek. These similarities cannot be explained by mere chance. Jones' conclusion: All three languages stem from a common language which may not be in existence any more. Apart from these languages, Jones conjectures that Gothic and Celtic languages are also related.

Friedrich von Schlegel

In 1808, Friedrich von Schlegel publishes the monograph "Über die Sprache und Weisheit der Indier" (On the language and wisdom of Indians). Von Schlegel's 300 pages strong book draws German and European attention to Sanskrit and also to the hypothesis put forward by William Jones whom Schlegel mentions in the very first sentence of the introduction. Von Schlegel (1808) then expresses the hope to kindle the love for Indian language and philosophy in Germany. He suggests a new renaissance. In the 15th and 16th century, the study of Greek language and culture grew prominent. Similarly, the Indian cultural heritage should be made fruitful for the present. The new renaissance (with Yoga, Hare Krishna and Bollywood) might not have resonated well with Schlegel's aspirations. However, indology as a university subject gathered momentum and Indo-European linguistics was exercised in several (predominantly German) universities, in particular in Berlin, Jena, Halle, and Leipzig.

A. Introduction

Franz Bopp

Within Schlegel's monography, the third chapter of the second book argues that "die innere Structur der Grammatik oder die vergleichende Grammatik" would be best suited to clarify Jones' idea. Here, "vergleichend" means "comparative"—the focus is on juxtaposing words in different languages. It is Franz Bopp who takes up Schlegel's suggestion in a systematic manner. In 1816, he publishes "Über das Conjugationssystem der Sanskritsprache in Vergleichung mit jenem der griechischen, lateinischen, persischen und germanischen Sprache". In 1821, Bopp is offered the chair of "Orientalische Litteratur und allgemeine Sprachkunde" in Berlin. The range of languages accepted as Indo-European is steadily increasing. Bopp's major work is called

Vergleichende Grammatik des Sanskrit, Zend, Griechischen, Lateinischen, Litauischen, Altslavischen, Gotischen und Deutschen

While Bopp is considered the founder of Indo-European studies, he focused on comparative work. He did not express sound laws.

August Schleicher

While Bopp can be credited with the successful application of the comparative method, sound laws and reconstruction of the Indo-European language were pursued by August Schleicher (1821 - 1868), professor in Prag and Jena, and August Friedrich Pott (1802 – 1887), professor in Halle. Schleicher's approach is still relevant today. He introduced the convention to indicate reconstructed forms by an asterisk. Also, he was the first to use family trees (language trees) to visualize how languages can be traced back. The title of Schleicher's main work is

Compendium der vergleichenden Grammatik der indogermanischen Sprachen. Kurzer Abriß einer Lautlere der indogermanischen Ursprache, des Altindischen (Sanskrit), Alteranischen (Altbaktrischen), Altgriechischen, Altitalischen (Lateinischen, Umbrischen, Oskischen), Altkeltischen (Altirischen), Altslawischen (Altbulgarischen), Litauischen, und Altdeutschen (Gotischen)

Thus, an Indo-European "Ursprache" (proto-language) was to be reconstructed. Schleicher was optimistic about the possibility of this project and even composed an Indo-European fable.

Karl Brugmann

Building on the work done by Schleicher and Bopp, the next major steps were done by the Leipzig school. It consisted of a group of scholar grouped around Schleicher's pupil August Leskien (1840 – 1916), a renowned slavist, and the younger philologist Karl Brugmann (1849 – 1919). They made Leipzig the world-wide center of Indo-European studies from about 1890 to 1920. Fortson IV [2004, p. 9] acknowledges: "By the dawn of the twentieth century, a picture of reconstructed [Indo-European] had emerged that was quite similar to the one that is presented" in that author's textbook.

The researchers from the Leipzig school are also known as the “Junggrammatiker” (neogrammarians). They earned this slightly derogative term in their quarrel with Friedrich Pott from Halle and Brugmann’s teacher Georg Curtius. The bone of contention: The older researchers distinguished between regular and irregular sound changes. In contrast, the younger generation insisted on the “Ausnahmslosigkeit der Lautgesetze” (sound laws valid without exception).

Ferdinand de Saussure

An important chapter for both indology and Indo-European studies was written by Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913). The young Swiss went to Leipzig from 1876 to 1880. Being 21 years of age, he published the “Mémoire sur le système primitif des voyelles dans les langues indo-européennes”. De Saussure claimed the existence of so-called laryngeals for Indo-European. His arguments build on some peculiarities of the Old Indian verbal classes. While his revolutionary ideas took quite a while to gain acceptance, laryngeal theory is accepted today and will play a very important role in this book. It is a pity that de Saussure did not live to learn about Hittite, a language discovered in Anatolia, some 150 kilometers east of Ankara. After being deciphered in 1917, the Polish linguist Jerzy Kurylowicz (1895 - 1978) discovered Indo-European words in Hittite that have a *h*-sound at the very place where de Saussure expected a laryngeal! After leaving Leipzig, de Saussure went to Paris and finally became professor in Geneva. Nowadays, de Saussure, who made a ground-breaking discovery in Indo-European linguistics, is known to many as the founder of modern linguistics.

A.2. Language trees

The language family whose existence has been shown by Franz Bopp is called Indo-European and “Indogermanisch”, the latter term being used in German speaking countries. Both terms make sense. “Indogermanisch” refers to languages between India (Sanskrit) and Iceland (old Icelandic as a Germanic language) while “Indo-European” makes clear that nearly all European languages (in fact, without Finnish, Estonian, and Basque) together with Indo-Iranian languages are cognate. However, both terms are not quite correct because Tocharian has been identified as an Indo-European language which was spoken in (what is nowadays) China.

It is helpful to follow August Schleicher and think in terms of languages trees. The Indo-European language tree is shown in fig. A.1. It shows the most important language families that stem from Indo-European. We can zoom in on any specific branch. For example, the Germanic language tree is depicted in fig. A.2.

Of special relevance for this manual, is, of course, the Indo-Iranian subtree. Old Indian (Sanskrit) can be Vedic or Classical Sanskrit. There are several Middle Indian languages,

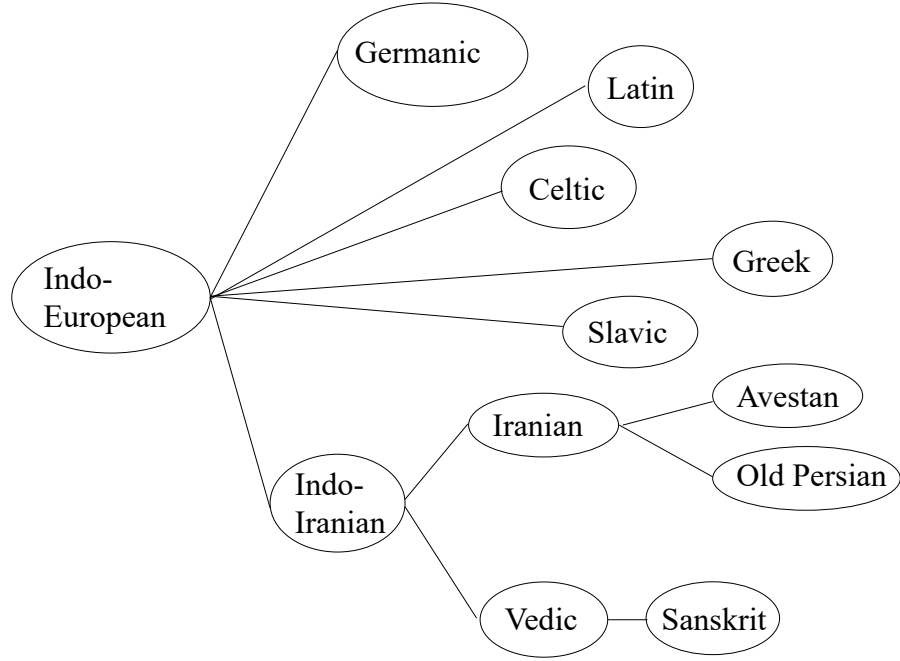


Figure A.1.: The Indo-European Language Tree

the oldest one being Pali which was primarily used in Buddhist scriptures. Other Middle Indian languages are Śaurasenī, Māghadhī, or Māhārāṣṭrī. These languages are normally addressed as Prakrit or Prakrits. The sound laws that differentiate Middle Indian (mi.) from Old Indian (oi.) are complicated and differ between the Middle Indian languages. We mostly use Pali (pa.) when we look for Middle Indian examples, but sometimes also Prakrit (pkt.). While Classical Sanskrit (in the sense of Pāṇini) is not a mother tongue of Pali or of (a) Prakrit, it is surely more conservative than these Middle Indian languages in most respects. However, one can find examples where Pali is more conservative than Vedic. Neither Vedic nor Sanskrit are mother tongues of Pali. But they are close to a mother tongue one tries to reconstruct. Many new Indian languages exist, such as Hindi, Bengali, Marathi, Gujarati, and others.

A.3. Sound laws

The Junggrammatiker's dictum was the "Ausnahmslosigkeit der Lautgesetze" (regularity principle). In their own words:

Aller lautwandel, soweit er mechanisch vor sich geht, vollzieht sich nach ausnahmslosen gesetzen, d.h. die richtung der lautbewegung ist bei allen angehörigen einer sprachgenossenschaft, außer dem fall, daß dialektspaltung eintritt, stets dieselbe ...

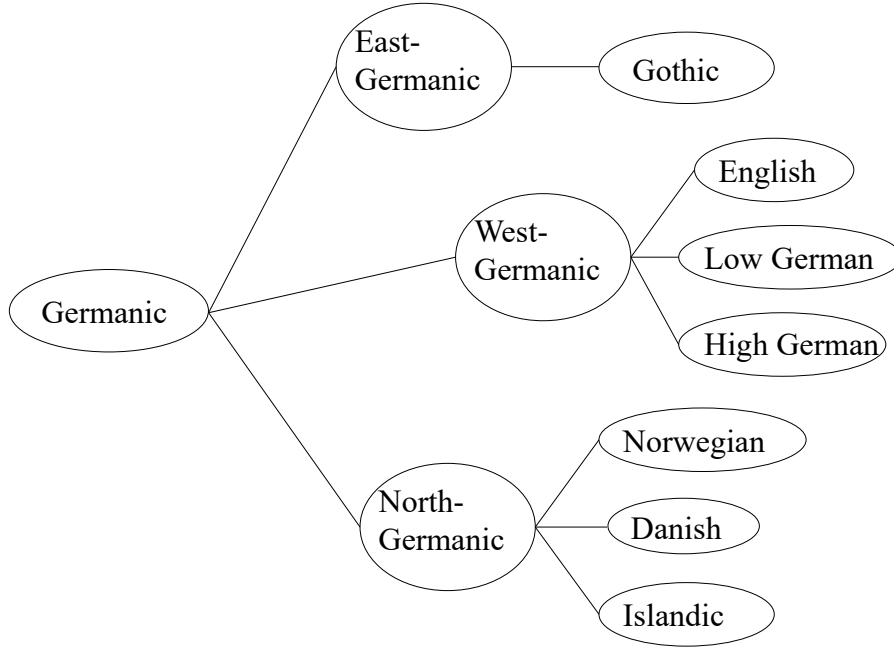


Figure A.2.: The Germanic Language Tree

Sound changes that are not mechanical come under two headings. First, levelling means that a pattern gets transferred from one occurrence to another one. Second, foreign words or loan words travel from another language.

The Junggrammatiker also had a different view on the Indo-European vowel system. Following Franz Bopp, August Pott and Georg Curtius assumed that the Indo-European language knew three short vowels, *a*, *i*, and *u*, also found in Sanskrit. The youngsters contradicted. They opined that the Indo-European vowels *a*, *e*, and *o* collapsed into Indo-Iranian *a*, while Old Greek preserved the Indo-European vowels particularly well. Their argument was based on the *Ausnahmslosigkeit*. If Sanskrit *a* were to reflect the Indo-European state of affairs, sound laws should tell under which conditions Indo-European *a* turned into Greek *a*, *e*, and *o*. However, such sound laws are not to be found. Hence, the Leipzig-school researchers claimed

$$\text{ie. } a/e/o \rightarrow \text{oi. } a$$

where ie. means Indo-European and oi. refers to Old Indian (or Sanskrit).

As in the above example, we consistently use arrows to indicate that one word goes back to, or develops into, another one. For example,

$$\text{oi. } \bar{u}dhar \leftarrow \text{ie. } *\bar{u}dher \rightarrow \text{e. } udder \sim \text{nhg. } Euter$$

is to be understood in the following manner:

- ◇ There was once an Indo-European word that we reconstruct as *$\bar{u}dher$* (the asterisk * signals a reconstructed form).

A. Introduction

- ◇ It developed into Sanskrit (or Vedic) *ūdhar*.
- ◇ In a parallel fashion (see fig. A.1), the Indo-European word is also present in Germanic languages, such as New High German (nhg.) *Euter* or English (e.) *udder*. The symbol \sim is used for cognate words where we have neither nhg. *Euter* \rightarrow e. *udder* nor the other way around. This is clear from fig. A.2 above.

All the sound laws assumed in this book are of the above diachronic sort. Specific “rules” get applied in a determined sequence. The use of language trees and the neogrammarian regularity principle have been under attack from different perspectives. Criticism against the simple neogrammarian viewpoint has been raised from dialectology, sociolinguistics, and/or constraint-based approaches. While dialectology (see Hock [1991, chapter 15]) and sociolinguistics (see Hock [1991, chapter 20]) have their respective merits, I think that they are best left aside in a book like this one. As Hock [1991, p. 660] summarizes, “the neogrammarian regularity principle still remains a heuristically useful and important criterion for historical linguistic research.” Similarly, the current author does not negate the importance of constraint-based approaches where one would rule out certain changes rather than letting them happen and providing an “antidote”. Oftentimes, these approaches may be both simpler and closer to the historical facts. However, it is not easy to decide which description is more accurate and, more to the point for my endeavour, which descriptions are easier to grasp and to memorize.

A.4. Analogy and levelling

Sound laws consist of regularly applied rules of change. Often, they lead to irregular forms in comparison to some dominant paradigm. Then, “analogical change” (short: “analogy”) or “levelling” is applied against the sound laws to restore a paradigmatic regularity. We quote from Sihler [2000, p. 73]:

- ◇ By analogy, one can understand “the influence of one form or class of forms on the pronunciation of another”.
- ◇ Levelling is “the elimination (or reduction) of functionless alternation”.

We will often use the word “analogy” to refer to these kind of changes. Sometimes, we apply (what is also called proportional) analogy according to the following pattern:

a	with property X :	b
just as		
A	with property X :	$?$

where $? = B$ is the “solution”. Alternatively, we use this pattern (most suitably for levelling):

	a	
influenced by	B	with property X
turns into	$?$	with property X

with A as the expected answer.

A.5. Back-formation

Sanskrit is full of words composed from other words. Sometimes, the speakers misunderstood a word as a specific compound and falsely reconstructed constituents of that word. A related example from English is the tongue-in-cheek advice: “Be *alert*, the world needs lerts.” Here, *alert* has been “misunderstood” as *a lert*.

This phenomenon is called back-formation. In our example, the formation consists of adding the indefinite article *a* to a noun like *monkey* yielding *a monkey*. Of course, from *a monkey*, we can safely assume a noun *monkey*. This is called back-formation. If we apply the same procedure (leaving out the indefinite article) to *alert*, we obtain the noun *lert*. Indeed, back-formation is mostly used for wrong applications of these procedures. In our example, we may depict this procedure by

<i>a monkey</i>	with noun:	<i>monkey</i>
just as		
<i>a-lert</i>	with noun	<i>lert</i>

A prominent example for back-formation in Sanskrit concerns the negating particle *a* (which is cognate with English *un* as in *unbelievable*). We have

- ◇ *suras*, m. (“god”) and
- ◇ *asuras*, m. (“demon”)

However, the second does not originate from the first but the other way around, by back-formation:

<i>a-dēvas</i> , m. (“demon”)	with negating <i>a</i> from:	<i>dēvas</i> , m. (“god”)
just as		
<i>a-suras</i> , m. (“demon”), falsely	with negating <i>a</i> from:	<i>suras</i> , m. (“god”)

A.6. Conventions

The convention to quote nouns depends on the type of noun:

- ◇ Nouns where the stem and the nom. sg. coincide:
 - feminine nouns like *dēvā* (“goddess”)
 - feminine nouns like *nadī*
 - athematic neuter nouns like *tapas* (“heat”) or *havis* (“offering”)
- ◇ Thematic nouns other than the *dēvā* or *nadī* type:
 - masculine nouns like *dhūrta* (“rogue”)

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- masculine nouns like *muni* (“sage”)
 - feminine nouns like *matī* (“mind”)
 - feminine nouns like *camū* (“army”)
 - feminine monosyllabic nouns like *dhī* (“intellect”)
 - feminine monosyllabic nouns like *bhū* (“earth”)
- but add the nom. sg. marker *s* whenever appropriate
- ◇ Neuter *a*-noun: *phalam* (“fruit”) with the ending *m*
 - ◇ Thematic *a*-adjectives on like *dhūrta* (“cunning”) without the ending
 - ◇ Athematic *an*-nouns:
 - masculine *rāj-an* (“king”)
 - neuter *karm-an* (“act”)
 - ◇ Athematic *in*-nouns like masculine *yôg-in* (“devotee, yogi”)
 - ◇ In-between *tor*-nouns like masculine *nê-tar* (“leader”)
 - ◇ In-between kinship nouns:
 - masculine *pit-ar* (“father”)
 - feminine *māt-ar* (“mother”)
 - ◇ Athematic nouns ending in long diphthong:
 - *rāy*, m./f. (“wealth”)
 - *glāv*, m. (“moon”)

With these conventions in place, genders need not always be indicated.

The meaning is indicated by inverted commas. In order to economize on inverted commas, I will use the notation

- ◇ “not going → tree” rather than
- ◇ “not going” → “tree”

and similar with commas between between words.

A.7. Overview

This is our plan for the book:

Chapter “sound laws”

The next chapter deals with the most important sound laws for Sanskrit and also, to a minor degree, for other languages such as Latin, Greek, English, and High German. The reader is not expected to memorize all laws. Often, some telling examples may be as helpful. Also, we later repeat the sound laws when needed or refer to them.

Chapter “grammar: verbal system”

The chapters on grammar tries to make sense of an otherwise bewildering multitude of forms. In these chapter, we will focus on Sanskrit forms and will leave examples from other languages aside. The grammar chapter on the verbal system focuses on the ten verbal classes and on the forms that are derived from ablaut.

Chapter “grammar: nouns and adverbs”

The second grammar chapter focuses on nouns and adverbs.

Chapter “etymological dictionary”

The last chapter presents those Sanskrit words which have interesting cognates in other languages the typical reader may be expected to know. Thus, the focus is not on defending this or that reconstructed form but to build a net of words from different Indo-European languages.

A.8. Abbreviations

Cases

- ◇ abl. = ablative
- ◇ acc. = accusative
- ◇ dat. = dative
- ◇ gen. = genitive
- ◇ instr. = instrumental
- ◇ loc. = locative
- ◇ nom. = nominative
- ◇ voc. = vocative
- ◇ NVA = nom., voc., or acc.

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Numbers

- ◇ sg. = singular
- ◇ pl. = plural

A.8.1. Genders

- ◇ f. = feminine
- ◇ m. = masculine
- ◇ n. = neuter

A.8.2. Languages

Germanic

- ◇ e. = English
- ◇ germ. = Germanic
- ◇ nhg. = New High German
- ◇ nlg. = New Low German
- ◇ oe. = Old English
- ◇ ohg. = Old High German

Indo-Aryan

- ◇ hi. = Hindi
- ◇ mi. = Middle Indian
- ◇ oi. = Old Indian
- ◇ pa. = Pali
- ◇ pkt. = Prakrit
- ◇ skt. = Sanskrit (used for mi. words)
- ◇ ved. = Vedic

Others

- ◇ ie. = Indo-European
- ◇ it. = Italian
- ◇ fr. = French
- ◇ gr. = Greek
- ◇ lat. = Latin
- ◇ nir. = New Irish
- ◇ ogr. = Old Greek
- ◇ oir. = Old Irish
- ◇ olat. = Old Latin

A.8.3. Sounds

- ◇ asp. = aspirated
- ◇ C = consonants
 - C^{lab} = labial consonants
 - C^{unlab} = consonants other than labial ones
 - C^{vd} = voiced consonants
 - C^{v1} = voiceless consonants
 - C^{asp} = aspirated consonants
 - C^{unasp} = unaspirated consonants
- ◇ D = dentals
 - D^{vd} = voiced dentals
 - D^{v1} = voiceless dentals
- ◇ Di = diphthongs, also oi. such as $\hat{e}/ay/\hat{a}i/\bar{a}y$
- ◇ Fg = full-grade (vowel)
- ◇ hV = halfvowels
- ◇ H = laryngeals h_1, h_2, h_3
- ◇ L = liquids r, l
- ◇ Lg = lengthened-grade (vowel)

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- ◇ N = nasals \mathfrak{m} , \mathfrak{n} , $\tilde{\mathfrak{n}}$, $\mathfrak{ɲ}$, n , m
- ◇ P = plosives (stops)
 - P^{pal} = palatal plosives
 - P^{unpal} = plosives except palatal plosives
 - P^{vd} = voiced plosives
 - $P^{\text{vd,unasp}}$ = voiced, unaspirated plosives
 - P^{v1} = voiceless plosives
- ◇ R = resonants (L , N , hV)
- ◇ S = sibilants:
 - voiceless: \mathfrak{s} , $\mathfrak{ʃ}$, s (palatal, cerebral, and dental, respectively)
 - voiced: \mathfrak{z} , $\mathfrak{ʒ}$, z
- ◇ unasp. = unaspirated
- ◇ V = vowels
- ◇ \bar{V} = long vowels
- ◇ \check{V} = short vowels
- ◇ vd. = voiced
- ◇ vl. = voiceless
- ◇ Zg = zero-grade (vowel)
- ◇ h = voiceless interdental spirant

A.8.4. Sound laws

- ◇ $a\bar{a}$ = ie. to oi. vowel changes (p. 19)
- ◇ **AFP** = consonants in **A**bsolute **F**inal **P**osition (p. 45)
- ◇ **ASh** = (Bartholomae's) **A**spiration **S**hift (p. 37)
- ◇ **BA** = **B**ackward **A**ssimilation (p. 39)
- ◇ **CCl** = simplification of **C**onsonant **C**lusters (p. 44)
- ◇ **Cern** = **C**erabralization of **n** (p. 42)
- ◇ **CerD** = **C**erabralization of **D**entals (p. 41)
- ◇ **CpL** = **C**ompensatory **L**engthening, in particular

- **CpL***dk'* for clusters *dk'* (p. 51)
 - **CpL***r* for *r* (p. 50)
 - **CpL***s* for *s* (p. 50)
 - **CpL***z* for *z* (p. 47)
- ◇ **DA** = (Grassmann's) **DeAspiration** (p. 38)
- ◇ **DIPH** = **DIPHthong** before vowel and before consonant (p. 22)
- ◇ **DzD** = *z* sprouting or vanishing between **Dentals** (p. 47)
- ◇ **GER** = first consonant shift (from ie. to **GER**manic) (p. 70)
- ◇ **hV** = **halfvowel** before vowel, vowel before consonant (p. 20)
- ◇ **IE_SY_N** = **SYllabic Nasals**, representation in some ie. languages (p. 66)
- ◇ **IE_SY_L** = **SYllabic Liquids**, representation in some ie. languages (p. 67)
- ◇ **Lar** = **Laryngeal** sound laws (p. 52), in particular
- **Lar_CH**, relating to laryngeals after a consonant and before a vowel (p. 52)
 - **Lar_V**, lengthening or producing vowels in the absence of syllabic nasals or liquids (p. 27)
 - **Lar_SY**, relating to laryngeals after syllabic nasals and liquids (p. 28)
 - **Lar_MTh** about a metathesis of a laryngeal and a half vowel (p. 28)
- ◇ **LAT_DD** = **LAT**in dental-plus-dental sequence (p. 70)
- ◇ **LAT_f** = **LAT**in *f* (p. 69)
- ◇ **LAT_sr** = **LAT**in *r* from ie. *s* (p. 70)
- ◇ **LAT_V** = **LAT**in sound laws concerning vowels and diphthongs (p. 65)
- ◇ **LAT_v** = **LAT**in *v* from ie. labiovelar *g^w* (p. 69)
- ◇ **LawOfMorae** = Middle Indian **Law of Morae** (p. 55)
- ◇ **Lo** = (Brugmann) **Lengthening** of ie. *o* in open syllable (p. 33)
- ◇ **MET_rSP** methathesis of a vowel with *r* in order to prevent the indicated sequence (p. 46)
- ◇ **MVS** = **More Vowel Sandhi** (p. 30)
- ◇ **NHG** = **New High German** sound laws, in particular
- **NHG_V**, concerning vowels (p. 65)

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- **NHG_C**, concerning consonants (p. 71)
- **NHG_E**, where **New High German** proves more conservative than **English** (p. 73)
- ◇ **OGR** = **Old GR**eek sound laws (p. 68)
- ◇ **OGR_DA** = **Old GR**eek (Grassmann) **DeA**spiration (p. 69)
- ◇ **PPal** = **P**rietary **Pal**atalization (p. 35)
- ◇ **RUKI** = cerebralization of *s* (p. 41)
- ◇ *rl* = dialectal confusion of *r* and *l* (p. 46)
- ◇ **SI** = **S**yllable- **I**nitial assimilations (p. 42)
- ◇ **SIB** = **SIB**ilant clusters and palatal-sibilant clusters (p. 43)
- ◇ **SPal** = **S**econdary **Pal**atalization (p. 36)
- ◇ *sP(h)* = Possible aspiration of **P**losive after root-initial *s* (p. 46)
- ◇ **SY_Conf** = **SY**llabic **C**onflict (p. 27)
- ◇ **SY_N** = **SY**llabic **N**asals, representation in oi. (p. 25)
- ◇ *sz* = voiceless *s* and voiced *z* before plosives (p. 39)
- ◇ **VER** = **VER**ner's law (p. 75)
- ◇ **Vis** = **Vis**arga rules (p. 51)
- ◇ **V+hV** = emergence of vowel before the corresponding halfvowel (p. 21)

A.8.5. Grammatical terms

- ◇ ac./ag. noun = action/agent noun
- ◇ adj. = adjective
- ◇ athem. = athematic
- ◇ ātm. = ātmanêpada
- ◇ augm. = augment
- ◇ f.g. = full grade
- ◇ fut. = future tense
- ◇ B = borrowing, i.e., foreign or loan word

- ◇ impf. = imperfect
- ◇ impv. = imperative
- ◇ lev. = levelling
- ◇ l.g. = lengthened grade
- ◇ n.at. = not attested
- ◇ PAP = past active participle (*gatavant*)
- ◇ par. = parasmâipada
- ◇ pers. = person, personal
- ◇ pf. = perfect (*cakāra*)
- ◇ pf.P = perfect participle (*cakṛvans*)
- ◇ PN = proper name
- ◇ PPP = past perfect participle (*gata*)
- ◇ pres.P = present participle
- ◇ pres. tense = present tense
- ◇ PRII = present tense, imperfect, or imperative
- ◇ prim. end. = primary ending
- ◇ pron. = pronoun
- ◇ redup. = reduplicated
- ◇ sec. end. = secondary ending
- ◇ s.v. = sub verbo (i.e., dealt with in the dictionary)
- ◇ them. = thematic
- ◇ v. = verb
- ◇ w.-i. = word-initial
- ◇ w.-f. = word-final
- ◇ z.g. = zero grade
- ◇ √ = oi. root
- ◇ ∅ = no ending, no phoneme

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- $\diamond \rightarrow$ = “develops into”
- $\diamond \leftarrow$ = “originates from”
- $\diamond \sim$ = “cognate with”

B. Sound laws

B.1. Indo-European phonemes

B.1.1. Vowels

It is assumed that Indo-European had short and long vowels, five each:

short vowels	<i>a</i>	<i>e</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>o</i>	<i>u</i>
long vowels	\bar{a}	\bar{e}	\bar{i}	\bar{o}	\bar{u}

While *a*, *e*, and *o* are always addressed as “vowels”, *i* and *u* are often called halfvowels (see below). They are consonantic before vowels, written *y* and *v*, respectively. We abbreviate

- ◇ V = vowels
- ◇ \bar{V} = long vowels
- ◇ \check{V} = short vowels
- ◇ hV = halfvowels

I often use ie. \bar{e} and ie. He interchangeably.

B.1.2. Consonants

Ie. consonants (abbreviated by C) might be

- ◇ P = plosives like *t*, *gh*, or *k^w*
- ◇ L = liquids *r*, *l*
- ◇ N = nasals *n*, *m*
- ◇ R = resonants (L , N , hV)
- ◇ S = sibilants: voiceless *s*
- ◇ hV = halfvowels *y*, *v*

The Indo-European plosives (P) can be tabled in this manner:

B. Sound laws

	vl./unasp.	vd./unasp.	vd./asp.
velars	k	g	gh
palatals	k'	g'	gh
dentals	t	d	dh
labials	p	b	bh
labio-velars	k^w	g^w	g^wh

- ◇ The table exhibits five rows, according to the place in the mouth where the sudden release of the stream of air originates.
- ◇ Note the labio-velar sounds. They are written as velars with w , for example g^w or g^wh . k^w might have been pronounced similar to e. *queen*.
- ◇ The ie. palatal sounds were pronounced as k together with a y -sound. We write them as k' etc.
- ◇ It is not quite clear whether the voiceless aspirated sounds (not present in the above table) existed in Indo-European. In any case, they were rather uncommon. Occurances of voiceless aspirated plosives are mostly explained by laryngeals (**Lar** $_$ **CH**) or by preceding s as in the oi. root *chid* or in oi. *sphira*.

Resonants comprise liquids, nasals, and halfvowels.

B.1.3. Halfvowels and syllabic nasals and liquids

i and u are vowels. But they are often called halfvowels because they turn into consonants before vowels, written y and v , respectively.

Inversely, nasals and liquids are consonant. However, between vowels they become syllabic, already in Indo-European times. These syllabic versions of nasals and liquids are denoted by circle below. The interplay of sounds that can become syllabic or consonantal is summarized in the following table:

	consonants	vowels
nasals	n	$\underset{\circ}{n}$
	m	$\underset{\circ}{m}$
liquids	r	$\underset{\circ}{r}$
	l	$\underset{\circ}{l}$
(half)vowels	y	i
	v	u

B.1.4. Laryngeals

We now turn to the so-called laryngeals. Since laryngeal theory is very helpful for understanding and learning Sanskrit, we will (most of the time) apply it. Laryngeals are not

B.2. Vowel sound laws, laryngeal sound laws, and vowel gradation

covered above under the headings of “vowels” or “consonants” for two reasons. First, one does not really know how these sounds were pronounced. Second, the laryngeal development belongs to an early stage of Indo-European. It is assumed that in that early state, Indo-European did not know the vowels *a* or *o*. Instead, these vowels developed from *e* under the influence of an appropriate laryngeal. Most scientists assume three laryngeals:

- ◇ h_1 (which would leave *e* unaffected),
- ◇ h_2 (which has an *a*-quality) and
- ◇ h_3 (under whose influence *e* turns into *o*).

German speakers may enjoy the only Indo-European joke on offer:

- ◇ h_1 is called the “Kehlkopflaut” (which is what laryngeal means),
- ◇ h_2 the “Kahlkopflaut”, and
- ◇ h_3 the “Kohlkopflaut”.

These developments will be summarized below by the sound laws beginning with **Lar**. If we just write *H* without any index, the specific laryngeal is of no importance or not known.

Laryngeal theory needed a long time to get accepted. Nowadays, a great majority of Indo-European scholars accepts the laryngeal theory in one form or another. The most convincing argument for claiming laryngeals in Indo-European is due to Ferdinand de Saussure and deals with the verbal classes in Sanskrit.

B.2. Vowel sound laws, laryngeal sound laws, and vowel gradation

B.2.1. Old Indian *a* and *ā*

Nowadays, Sanskrit is mostly written in the devanagari writing or in the Latin transcription. Devanagari is based on consonant-plus-vowel signs where each consonant ends in *a* unless a marker tells otherwise. Why *a* and not *e* or *o*? Simply because *a* is much more frequent than any other sound. The reason for the preponderance of *a* is this: Indo-European *a*, *e*, or *o* (short or long) turn into old Indian *a*, short and long, respectively:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \mathbf{aa} & \text{ie. } a/e/o & \rightarrow \text{oi. } a \\ & \text{ie. } \bar{a}/\bar{e}/\bar{o} & \rightarrow \text{oi. } \bar{a} \end{array}$$

Examples for ie. *e* abound:

- ◇ The Indo-European word for “honey” is

$$\text{ie. } *medhu \rightarrow \begin{cases} \text{oi. } madhu \\ \text{ogr. } methu \rightarrow \text{FW } methane \end{cases}$$

B. Sound laws

◇ The “middle one” is expressed by

$$\text{ie. } *medhu \rightarrow \begin{cases} \text{oi. } madhya \\ \text{ogr. FW } Meso-potamia \\ \text{lat. } medius \end{cases}$$

For ie. *o*, let us point to

$$\text{ie. } *ovi/h_3evi \rightarrow \begin{cases} \text{oi. } avi \\ \text{lat. } ovi \end{cases}$$

As an example for long vowels, consider

$$\text{ie. } *rēg \rightarrow \begin{cases} \text{oi. } rājan \\ \text{lat. } rēx \end{cases}$$

B.2.2. Half vowels

Along with the vowels *a*, *e*, and *o*, the Indo-European language as well as Sanskrit know the half vowels *i* and *u* that turn into consonants before vowels, written *y* and *v*, respectively. That is, we have

$$\begin{array}{ll} \mathbf{hV} & \text{ie. } i \rightarrow \text{oi. } \begin{cases} i, \text{ bef. consonant} \\ y, \text{ bef. vowel} \end{cases} \\ & \text{ie. } u \rightarrow \text{oi. } \begin{cases} u, \text{ bef. consonant} \\ v, \text{ bef. vowel} \end{cases} \end{array}$$

In fact, the rules are a bit more complicated (see below), but \mathbf{hV} in the present formulation is already very helpful. The hybrid nature of half vowels clearly shows in the sandhi rules:

◇ with *i*:

- *phalāni*, but *phalāny akhādat*
- *gacchāmi*, but *gacchāmy aham*

◇ with *u*:

- *bhavatu*, but *evam bhavatu iti* (“so let it be”) where *iti* stands for ‘end of quote’
- *jayatu*, but *jayatu āryaputraḥ* (“may my lord be victorious”)

\mathbf{hV} also clear shows up in these examples:

- ◇ *anvartha* (“appropriate”) ← *anu* (“along”) + *artha* (“purpose, sense, wealth”)
- ◇ *vyartham* (“in vain”) ← *vi* (“apart, away”) + *artha* (“purpose, sense, wealth”)

B.2. Vowel sound laws, laryngeal sound laws, and vowel gradation

- ◇ $\bar{a}\acute{s}va\acute{s}va$ (“to have fast horses”) $\leftarrow \bar{a}\acute{s}u$ (“fast”) + $a\acute{s}va$ (“horse”)

The “same” happens with long \bar{i} and long \bar{u} , for example

- ◇ $nar\bar{i} \hat{a}ik\acute{s}ata \rightarrow nary\hat{a}ik\acute{s}ata$ (“the woman saw”)
- ◇ $bhv\bar{a}digana$ (“ $gana$ consisting of $bh\bar{u}$ etc.”) $\leftarrow bh\bar{u}$ (“to be”) + $\bar{a}di$ (“beginning”) + $gana$ (“cohort, flock, word group”, see pp. 79)

Thus, we have the rules

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{ie. } i/\bar{i} & \rightarrow \text{oi. } \begin{cases} i/\bar{i}, & \text{bef. consonant} \\ y, & \text{bef. vowel} \end{cases} \\ \text{ie. } u/\bar{u} & \rightarrow \text{oi. } \begin{cases} u/\bar{u}, & \text{bef. consonant} \\ v, & \text{bef. vowel} \end{cases} \end{array}$$

Sometimes (the rules are not quite clear), ie. \bar{i} and \bar{u} appear as a sequence of iy or uv , respectively. Examples are

- ◇ $dh\bar{i}$, f, (“intellect”) has acc. sg. $dhiy-a-m$ (compare with u.at. alternative $dhyam$).
- ◇ $bh\bar{u}$, f, (“earth”) has acc. sg. $bhuv-a-m$ (compare with u.at. $bhvam$).

This change (see the first two lines) prevents awkward vowel clusters:

$V+hV$			example
	PiV	\rightarrow	$PiyV$ $dhiy-a-m$
	$P\bar{u}V$	\rightarrow	$PuvV$ $bhuv-a-m$
	$CRyV$	\rightarrow	$CRiyV$ $mr-iy-a-t\hat{e}$
	$CRvV$	\rightarrow	$CRuvV$ $\bar{a}p-nuv-an-ti$

The last two lines may have a similar motivation. An example for the third line is $mr-iy-a-t\hat{e}$ (“he dies”) which is a 4. class verb with root mr in contrast to the 4. class verb $kup-y-a-ti$ (“he is angry”) with oi. root kup). Passive forms provide further examples:

- ◇ $hr-iy-a-t\hat{e}$ (“he is taken”) \leftarrow 1. class verb hr , $har-a-ti$
- ◇ $sr-iy-a-t\hat{e}$ (“it is moved (by)”) \leftarrow 1. class verb sr , $sar-a-ti$

in contrast to $budh-y-a-t\hat{e}$ or $pat-y-a-t\hat{e}$.

An example for the fourth line is given by $\bar{a}p-nuv-an-ti$, where u cannot stand directly before a vowel and needs the halfvowel v to stand in between. The comparison of $su-nv-an-ti$ or $kur-v-an-ti$ with $\bar{a}p-nuv-an-ti$ prompts us to revisit the sound laws hV and $V+hV$:

hV			example
	$VRiV$	\rightarrow	$VRyV$ $vy-ar\acute{t}ham$
	$VRuV$	\rightarrow	$VRvV$ $anv-ar\acute{t}ha$, $kur-v-an-ti$
$V+hV$	$CRyV$	\rightarrow	$CRiyV$ $mr-iy-a-t\hat{e}$
	$CRuV$	\rightarrow	$CRuvV$ $\bar{a}p-nuv-an-ti$

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In the examples of *gacchāmy aham* and *su-nv-an-ti* or *kur-v-an-ti* the clusters *RyV* or *RuV* are preceded by a (**fat**) vowel so that one obtains the corresponding halfvowel. In contrast, *mr-iy-a-tê* and *āp-nuv-an-ti* exhibit the same clusters *RyV* or *RuV*, but they follow a (**fat**) consonant. Therefore, one does not obtain sound law **hV** but **V+hV**. Finally, note that **V+hV** is also applied if *RuV* occurs word-initial as in *nuv-a-n-ti* (p. 164).

B.2.3. Diphthongs

We have noted above that ie. *a*, *e*, and *o* coalesce into oi. *a*. Nevertheless, you can find *e* and *o* in Sanskrit, also, but they go back to Indo-European diphthongs:

a/e/o (short or long)
plus
i/u

We obtain the short diphthongs

DIPH	ie. <i>ai/ei/oi</i>	→	oi.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \hat{e}, & \text{bef. consonant} \\ ay, & \text{bef. vowel} \end{array} \right.$
	ie. <i>au/eu/ou</i>	→	oi.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \hat{o}, & \text{bef. consonant} \\ av, & \text{bef. vowel} \end{array} \right.$
	ie. <i>āi/ēi/ōi</i>	→	oi.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \hat{a}i, & \text{bef. consonant} \\ \bar{a}y, & \text{bef. vowel} \end{array} \right.$
	ie. <i>āu/ēu/ōu</i>	→	oi.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{ll} \hat{a}u, & \text{bef. consonant} \\ \bar{a}v, & \text{bef. vowel} \end{array} \right.$

The reader notes that I use the hat to indicate that my transliteration of Sanskrit words does not always conform with the usual one. In particular, we have

normal writing	my writing
<i>e</i>	<i>ê</i>
<i>o</i>	<i>ô</i>
<i>ai</i>	<i>âi</i>
<i>au</i>	<i>âu</i>

I do this for three reasons. First, *ê* and *ô* are long vowels. Second, oi. *ê* can be distinguished from ie. *e*. Third, *âi* and *âu* go back to ie. long diphthongs which helps to understand some sandhi rules.

Turning to the short diphthongs, **DIPH** (the first two lines) is helpful to distinguish between *nêṭṛ* (“leader”) and *nayati* (“he leads”). Similarly, for the stem *gô* (“cow”) compare instr. pl. *gôbhis* with instr. sg. *gavā*. Consider also

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- sarvê iti* (without sandhi)
→ *sarvay iti* (**DIPH**)
and then sometimes
→ *sarva iti* (*y* is weak and drops here between words)

With respect to long diphthongs, **DIPH** (the last two lines) explains why we obtain a long \bar{a} from the diphthongs *ai* and *au* that we write as $\hat{a}i$ and $\hat{a}u$, respectively. Consider

- tasmai adadāt* (usual spelling without sandhi)
→ *tasmâi adadāt* (our spelling without sandhi)
→ *tasmāy adadāt* (**DIPH**)
and then sometimes
→ *tasmā adadāt* (*y* is weak and drops here between words)

and

- ubhau êva* (usual without sandhi)
→ *ubhâu êva* (our spelling without sandhi)
→ *ubhâv êva* (**DIPH**)

B.2.4. Vowel gradation (ablaut)

Indo-European vowel gradation

Many Sanskrit peculiarities turn out to be regular developments when seen from the point of view of Indo-European vowel gradation. Ablaut is the German word for vowel gradation, often used also in English texts.

First of all, the typical Indo-European vowel is *e* (that will become *a* in Sanskrit). Within Indo-European (!), this *e* can undergo two types of gradation (see also fig. B.1):

- ◇ quantitative ablaut:
 - *e* may be lost (zero grade).
 - *e* itself is the normal grade (full grade).
 - *e* may become \bar{e} (lengthened *e*-grade).
- ◇ qualitative ablaut:
 - *e* may be become *o* (*o*-grade).
 - Finally, the lengthened *o*-grade \bar{o} (which may also be considered a quantitative ablaut) sometimes occurs.

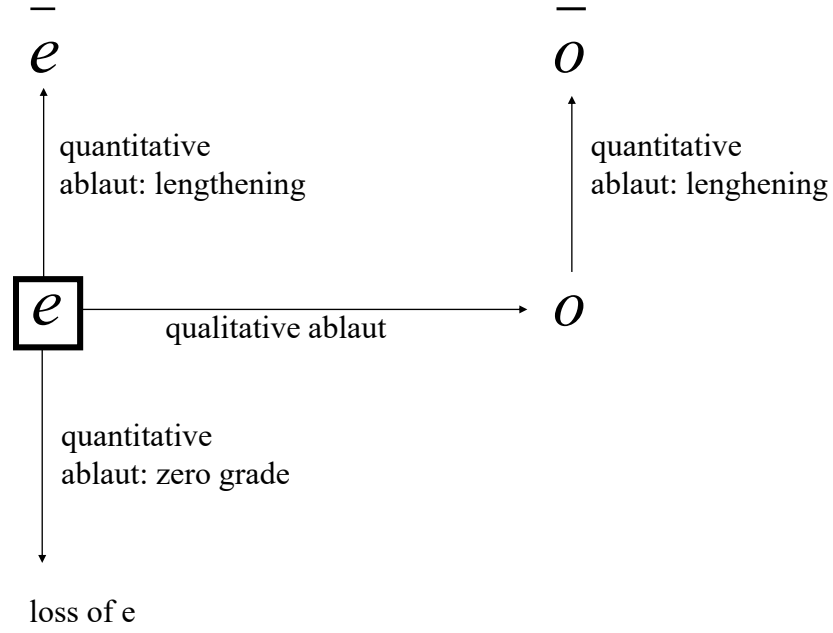


Figure B.1.: Indo-European Vowel Gradation (Ablaut)

Vowel gradation in Sanskrit

In Sanskrit, *e/o* and *ē/ō* coalesce into *a* or *ā*, depending on whether they are short or long (*aa*, p. 19). Therefore, the traditional Indian grammarians did not consider the qualitative ablaut. Instead, they taught the three-fold distinctions:

- ◇ svara (this is our zero grade)
- ◇ guṇa (normal grade *e* or *o*-grade)
- ◇ vṛddhi (lengthened *e*-grade, leading to *ē*) or the lengthened *o*-grade, yielding *ō*)

Roughly speaking, svara (zero grade) and guṇa (full grade *e* or *o*-grade) tend to go back to Indo-European, whereas many instances of the lengthened grades have developed within Old Indian, only.

Beautifully, vowel gradation is pretty transparent in Sanskrit. That is why we need to have a firm grasp of its workings. Important (and true *cum grano salis*):

- ◇ Strong forms (in the nominal declension as well as in the verbal conjugation, in particular classes 2 and 3) involve the full grade.
- ◇ The weak forms are based on the zero grade.

However, in contrast to the Sanskrit grammarians, it is best to begin with the normal or full grade. Let us consider a few examples. *budh*, *bôdhati* is Sankrit for “to know”. In Indo-European times, *ô* went back to *eu* before consonants (**DIPH**, p. 22). When,

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in Indo-European times, the *e* was dropped to obtain the zero grade, we were left with *budh* (in fact, we had ie. **bhudh* but that is another story). Certainly not *bvdh* because syllables need a vowel (p. 18).

A second example: “remember” in Sankrit is

<i>smṛ</i>	the oi. root in zero grade
<i>smar-a-ti</i>	the 3. sg. present tense in full grade

In the zero grade, without *a* (representing ie. *e*), you do not have *smar* but *smṛ*. For example, the past perfect participle (PPP) is normally formed from the zero grade, here *smṛ-ta* (“remembered”). If you have been doing Sanskrit for a while, a lot of verbs will come to your mind where matters are not that simple. Hold on for a while or fastforward to section C.4, pp. 108. Did you notice the funny circle under the *r*? It means that *r* is syllabic, i.e., it has vowel quality (p. 18). In Indo-European syllabic *r* is denoted by a larger circle: ie. *r̥*.

A last example concerns the nasals. Oi. *nam* (“to bow”) is in the full grade. The PPP is *nata* which goes back to ie. *nm̥to*. This points to an important sound law:

SY_N	ie. <i>n̥C</i>	→	oi. <i>aC</i>
	ie. <i>m̥C</i>	→	oi. <i>a</i>
	ie. <i>n̥V</i>	→	oi. <i>anV</i>
	ie. <i>m̥V</i>	→	oi. <i>amV</i>

The vowel-gradation table

We are now in a position to summarize ie. vowel gradation and the oi. version in one table. I hope you see that it is very systematically constructed:

	just <i>e</i>	half vowel <i>y</i>	half vowel <i>v</i>
zero gr.	ie. - → oi. -	ie. <i>i</i> → oi. <i>i</i>	ie. <i>u</i> → oi. <i>u</i>
full gr.	ie. <i>e</i> → oi. <i>a</i> (<i>aā</i>)	ie. <i>ei</i> → oi. <i>ê/ay</i> (DIPH)	ie. <i>eu</i> → oi. <i>ô/av</i> (DIPH)
length. gr.	ie. <i>ē</i> → oi. <i>ā</i> (<i>aā</i>)	ie. <i>ēi</i> → oi. <i>âi/āy</i> (DIPH)	ie. <i>ēu</i> → oi. <i>âu/āv</i> (DIPH)
	<i>r</i>	<i>n</i>	
zero gr.	ie. <i>r̥</i> → oi. <i>r̥</i>	ie. <i>n̥</i> → oi. <i>a</i> (SY_N)	
full gr.	ie. <i>er</i> → oi. <i>ar</i> (<i>aā</i>)	ie. <i>en</i> → oi. <i>an</i> (<i>aā</i>)	
length. gr.	ie. <i>ēr</i> → oi. <i>ār</i> (<i>aā</i>)	ie. <i>ēn</i> → oi. <i>ān</i> (<i>aā</i>)	

Let us look at a few other examples about ablaut laws:

- ◇ ie. **es* “to be” clearly shows in the full grade *as-ti* (“he is”, compare Latin *est*) and zero grade *s-anti* (“they are”, compare Latin *sunt*).

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- ◇ oi. *i* “to go” has full grade *êti* (“he goes”, with *ê* before consonant according to **DIPH**) and zero grade *y-anti* (“they go”, with consonant *y* before vowel).
- ◇ The vṛddhi form (lengthened form) of *budh* appears in *bâud-dha* (“concerning understanding, Buddhist”).
- ◇ The Sanskrit term for lengthened grade vṛddhi goes back to *vṛdh*, *vardhatê* (“to grow”). Funnily, *vṛddhi* it is an example of the zero grade.
- ◇ Latin *menti* (known to you from B *mental*) is cognate with Sanskrit zero grades *mati* (“thought, idea”) and the past participle *mata* where you have *a* for syllabic *n* (**SY_N**). The full grade is represented by the neuter noun *manas*, while *māna* (“opinion, intent”) shows the lengthened grade.
- ◇ English and German examples of ablaut are presented at pp. 67 below.

B.2.5. Sanskrit representation of ie. syllabic nasals and liquids, without laryngeals

Indo-European knew syllabic nasals and liquids, probably both short and long. Here, we concentrate on the development of short syllabic nasals and liquids into Sanskrit. Below, in subsection B.5.2, we also look at other languages. Thus, for syllabic nasals, we find

$$\text{IE_SY_N} \quad \text{ie. } \underset{\circ}{n}/\underset{\circ}{m} \rightarrow \text{oi. } \begin{cases} an/am & \text{bef. vowel} \\ a/a & \text{between consonants} \end{cases}$$

with Sanskrit examples *an-anta* (“without end”) and *a-gatika* (“without way out”), respectively. For syllabic liquids, we observe these sound laws:

$$\text{IE_SY_L} \quad \text{ie. } \underset{\circ}{r}/\underset{\circ}{l} \rightarrow \text{oi. } \begin{cases} r \text{ or } l (!) & \text{between cons.} \\ ur/ur & \text{before vowels, after labials} \\ ir/ir (?) & \text{before vowels, not after labials} \end{cases}$$

Examples are presented in subsection B.5.2. Laryngeals affected these developments in particular manners as can be seen in subsection B.2.7.

B.2.6. Resolution of syllabic conflicts

Sometimes, it may be unclear which sound is to become syllabic. For example, 3. pers. pl. (!) pres. tense *bi-bhy-a-ti* might be explained by

$$\text{ie. } *bhi-bhiH-\underset{\circ}{n}-ti \text{ (reduplication, zero grade)} \\ bhi-bhi\bar{n}-\underset{\circ}{n}-ti$$

and then

$$\rightarrow bi-bhi\bar{n}-ti \text{ (second to last syllabifiable sound syllabic)}$$

or

$$\rightarrow bi-bhy-a-ti \text{ (last syllabifiable sound syllabic)}$$

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Apparently, the following rule applies:

SY_Conf Make the last syllabifiable sound syllabic!

A second example is *karm-a-bhis* rather than n.at. *karanbhis*.

This rule can be applied several times. Consider *yuv-a-ti* from (something like) ie. *yuv-n̥-ti* where, from right to left, we obtain

ie. **yuv-n̥-ti*
 \rightarrow *yuv-a-ti* (**SY_Conf** with respect to *n̥*)
 \rightarrow *yu-v-a-ti* (**hV** with respect to *v*)
 \rightarrow *y-u-v-a-ti* (**SY_Conf** with respect to *u*)
 \rightarrow *y-uv-a-ti* (**hV** with respect to *y*)

B.2.7. Laryngeal sound laws

The sound laws

Finally, laryngeals were lost. But they left specific traces in three groups (a fourth one is covered under consonant sound laws). First, consider these laryngeal laws with respect to vowels and diphthongs:

Lar_V	ie. $h_1e/h_2e/h_3e$	\rightarrow	ie. $e/a/o$
	ie. $iH/uH/eH/oH$	\rightarrow	$\bar{i}/\bar{u}/\bar{a}/\bar{a}$
	ie. $eiH/euH/\bar{e}iH/\bar{e}uH$	\rightarrow	ie. $ei/eu/\bar{e}i/\bar{e}u \rightarrow \mathbf{DIPH}$
	ie. CHC	\rightarrow	CiC or CC (unclear conditions)

The first line is understandable from subsection B.1.4. The second line says that laryngeals were lost under compensatory lengthening. The same may hold for the third line, but the diphthongs are long already.

Consider the instructive example of ie. **bheuH* (“to be”). One finds

- ◇ zero grade oi. *bhū-ta* (long \bar{u} is an instance of compensatory lengthening for the dropped laryngeal, **Lar_V** second line)
- ◇ full grade *bhav-a-ti* (the laryngeal is lost without effect between consonant and vowel, **Lar_CH**)
- ◇ full grade *bhavitum* (the laryngeal becomes *i* between consonants, **Lar_V** fourth line)

In contrast to the sound law ie. $CHC \rightarrow CiC$, laryngeals are sometimes dropped without apparent trace, as in *da-dh-mah* (“we set”) from ie. **de-dhh₁-mes*. The conditioning

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factors are difficult to discern. Compare s.v. $dā$ (“to bind”) \leftarrow ie. $*deH$ with the two zero grades

◇ $d-yati \leftarrow$ ie. $*dH-ye-ti$ and

◇ $a-di-ti \leftarrow$ ie. $*n̥-dH-ti$

Second, when laryngeals follow syllabic nasals or liquids, one finds:

Lar _SY	ie. $Cn̥HC$	\rightarrow	$CāC$
	ie. $Cm̥HC$	\rightarrow	$CāmC$ (or $CāC$)
	ie. $Cn̥HV$	\rightarrow	Cam
	ie. $C^{labial}r̥H$	\rightarrow	$Cūr$
	ie. $C^{not\ labial}r̥H$	\rightarrow	$Cṛ$

jan , $jāyatē$ (“to be born”) is often considered a very irregular verb, with the PPP $jāta$ and the agent noun $janitr̥$ (“creator, progenitor”). We find

◇ long $ā$ in zero grade (4. class verb with ya , PPP) and

◇ short a in full grade (agent noun).

Shouldn’t it be the other way around? No. The Indo-European full grade of this verb is (to be reconstructed as) $*genH$ so that we obtain

◇ zero grade oi. PPP $jāta \leftarrow$ $gn̥H-to$ according to sound law ie. $Cn̥H \rightarrow Cā$,

◇ zero grade oi. $jā-ya-tē \leftarrow$ $gn̥H-ye/o-tei$,

◇ full grade $janitr̥$ where the laryngeal turns into i between the consonants n and t .

The only “problem” may be the root jan itself. However, roots are grammatical fictions and which root should one postulate instead? Writing $jā$, $jāyatē$ rather than jan , $jāyatē$ is certainly not helpful.

Third, a laryngeal metathesis apparently took place in some examples:

Lar _MTh	ie. $CHiC$	\rightarrow	$CiHC$
	ie. $CHuC$	\rightarrow	$CuHC$

The laryngeal vowel-gradation table

In line with the above sound laws, we can rewrite the table from section B.2.4 (pp. 23) with laryngeals:

	just $e+H$	half vowel $y+H$	half vowel $v+H$
zero gr.	ie. $CHC \rightarrow$ oi. CiC (also CC) ie. $CHV \rightarrow$ oi. CV	ie. $iH \rightarrow$ oi. \bar{i}	ie. $uH \rightarrow$ oi. \bar{u}
full gr.	ie. $eH \rightarrow$ oi. \bar{a}	ie. $eiH \rightarrow$ oi. \hat{e}/ay	ie. $euH \rightarrow$ oi. \hat{o}/av
length. gr.	ie. $\bar{e}H \rightarrow$ oi. \bar{a}	ie. $\bar{e}iH \rightarrow$ oi. $\hat{a}i/\bar{a}y$	ie. $\bar{e}uH \rightarrow$ oi. $\hat{a}u/\bar{a}v$
	$r+H$	$n+H$	
zero gr.	ie. $C^{labial}_r H \rightarrow$ oi. $C\bar{u}r$ ie. $C^{not\ labial}_r H \rightarrow$ oi. $C\bar{i}r$	ie. $C\eta_o H \rightarrow$ oi. $C\bar{a}$	
full gr.	ie. $erH \rightarrow$ oi. ar	ie. $enH \rightarrow$ oi. an	
length. gr.	ie. $\bar{e}rH \rightarrow$ oi. $\bar{a}r$	ie. $\bar{e}nH \rightarrow$ oi. $\bar{a}n$	

In Sanskrit grammar books, you will often encounter “*seṭ* roots”. The word *seṭ* derives from

- ◇ oi. *sa* (“with”) and
- ◇ *iṭ* (which is the usual manner in which traditional Indian grammarians refer to the *i*)

together with a sandhi rule to be explained in the following subsection.

Many of these are roots that ended in a laryngeal, like oi. *bhū* or *jan*. In some grammatical forms, we have *i* as a reflex of the laryngeal (see the infinitives *bhavitum* or *janitum*). Roots without *i* are “*aniṭ* roots” where *aniṭ* ← *an* + *iṭ* uses the negating particle *a* or *an* (see *a* in the etymological dictionary). Some roots only sometimes exhibit the *i*. These are the “*veṭ* roots”, with *vā* (“or”).

B.2.8. More vowel sandhi rules

Really different sandhi rules

In the previous subsections, a few sandhi rules could already be illuminated by referring to ie.-oi. sound laws. Some sandhi rules refer to developments within Old Indian. For these, the advantage of our modified transliteration will again be obvious. We find:

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MVS	oi. $\check{V}/\bar{V} + \check{V}/\bar{V}/hV$	→	oi. \bar{V}
	oi. $a/\bar{a} + i/\bar{i}$	→	oi. \hat{e}
	oi. $a/\bar{a} + u/\bar{u}$	→	oi. \hat{o}
	oi. $a/\bar{a} + \hat{e}$	→	oi. $\hat{a}i$
	oi. $a/\bar{a} + \hat{o}$	→	oi. $\hat{a}u$
	impf. augment $a/\bar{a} + i/\bar{i}$	→	oi. $\hat{a}i$
	impf. augment $a/\bar{a} + u/\bar{u}$	→	oi. $\hat{a}u$

MVS rules partly contradict the ie.-oi. sound laws **DIPH** (p. 22). This is no problem because the latter refer to the development from Indo-European to Old Indian, while the former describe inner-Indian sound changes.

The differences concern only some of these sound laws. Consider the fourth line of **MVS** and *atraiva* (as you would find it in usual textbooks):

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{atra } \hat{e}va \text{ (without sandhi)} \\
 \rightarrow & \text{atra } aiva \text{ (ai as short diphthong with } i) \\
 \rightarrow & \text{atr}\hat{a}iva \text{ (two short } a \text{ have become one long } \bar{a}) \\
 = & \text{atraiva (usual spelling)}
 \end{aligned}$$

or the fifth line of **MVS** and *saudanam pacati* (again with the standard transliteration):

$$\begin{aligned}
 & s\bar{a} \hat{o}danam \text{ pacati (without sandhi)} \\
 \rightarrow & s\bar{a} \text{ audanam } \text{ pacati (au as short diphthong with } u) \\
 \rightarrow & s\hat{a}udanam \text{ pacati (by } \bar{a} + a = \bar{a}) \\
 = & \text{saudanam } \text{ pacati (usual spelling)}
 \end{aligned}$$

In a similar, fashion, the second and third lines of **MVS** are unsurprising. Consider

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \hat{e}vam \text{ bhava } iti \text{ vadati (without sandhi)} \\
 \rightarrow & \hat{e}vam \text{ bhav}\hat{e}ti \text{ vadati (} a + i = \hat{e})
 \end{aligned}$$

or

$$\begin{aligned}
 & ca \text{ iti (without sandhi)} \\
 \rightarrow & c\hat{e}ti \text{ (} a + i = \hat{e})
 \end{aligned}$$

or

$$\begin{aligned}
 & d\hat{e}va \text{ } \bar{i}\hat{s}varas \text{ (compound, without sandhi)} \\
 \rightarrow & d\hat{e}v\hat{e}\hat{s}varas \text{ (} a + \bar{i} = \hat{e})
 \end{aligned}$$

or

$$\begin{aligned}
 & m\hat{e}gha \text{ udakam (compound “cloud water} \rightarrow \text{rain”, without sandhi)} \\
 \rightarrow & m\hat{e}gh\hat{o}dakam \text{ (} a + u = \hat{o})
 \end{aligned}$$

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or

$$\begin{aligned} & a\text{-}va\text{-}uc\text{-}a\text{-}t \text{ (aorist "he spoke", without sandhi)} \\ \rightarrow & a\text{-}vôc\text{-}a\text{-}t \text{ (} a + u = ô \text{)} \end{aligned}$$

Just to mock learners of Sanskrit, if the imperfect augment short (!) a precedes $i/\bar{i}/u/\bar{u}$, we do not obtain \hat{e} or \hat{o} , but $\hat{a}i$ and $\hat{a}u$, respectively (see the last two lines of **MVS**). Examples:

$$\begin{aligned} na \text{ } \bar{i}kṣatê \text{ ("he does not see", without sandhi)} & \rightarrow nêkṣatê \text{ (MVS, 2. line)} \\ \text{but } a\text{-}\bar{i}kṣat \text{ ("he did not see", without sandhi)} & \rightarrow \hat{a}ikṣat \text{ (MVS, 6. line)} \end{aligned}$$

or

$$\begin{aligned} tena \text{ } uktam \text{ ("it has been said by him", without sandhi)} & \rightarrow tenôktam \text{ (MVS, 3. line)} \\ \text{but } a\text{-}uṣ\text{-}ma \text{ ("we wished", without sandhi)} & \rightarrow \hat{a}uṣ\text{-}ma \text{ (MVS, 7. line)} \end{aligned}$$

Additional MVS examples

$a/\bar{a} + a/\bar{a} \rightarrow \bar{a}$ (MVS 1. line)

- ◇ $jālā\text{-}śaya$ ("stay of water \rightarrow lake") $\leftarrow jala$ ("water") + $\bar{a}\text{-}śaya$ ("stay, sojourn")
- ◇ $vêdānta$ ("end of Vedic literature") $\leftarrow vêda$ ("theological knowledge, Veda") + $anta$ ("end")
- ◇ $vātāyanam$ ("window") $\leftarrow vāta$ ("wind") + $ayanam$ ("going, motion, hallway") $\leftarrow i$
- ◇ $rāmāyana$ (name of an Indian epic) $\leftarrow rāma$ ("name of Indian hero") + $ayanam$ ("going, motion, hallway")
- ◇ $sārtha$ ("caravan") $\leftarrow sa$ ("together with") + $artha$ ("wealth")
- ◇ $sānanda$ ("he with delight") $\leftarrow sa$ ("together with") + $\bar{a}nanda$ ("delight")
- ◇ $bhūtārtha$ ("fact, issue") $\leftarrow bhūta$ (PPP of $bhū$) + $artha$ ("meaning, purpose")
- ◇ $êkāgra$ ("one-pointed, focussed") $\leftarrow êka$ ("one, single") + $agra$ ("top, summit, beginning")
- ◇ $gatāsu$ ("with life gone away, dead") $\leftarrow gata$ (PPP of gam) + asu ("life")

$i/\bar{i} + i/\bar{i} \rightarrow \bar{i}$ (MVS 1. line)

- ◇ $atīta$ ("gone by") $\leftarrow ati$ + $i\text{-}ta$ (PPP of i)
- ◇ $atīva$ ("exceedingly, very") $\leftarrow ati$ + iva
- ◇ $vi\text{-}parīta$ ("perverse, false") $\leftarrow vi$ + $pari$ + ita (PPP of i)

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$u/\bar{u} + u/\bar{u} \rightarrow \bar{u}$ (MVS 1. line)

- ◇ *sūкта* (“well said”) \leftarrow *su* (“good”) + *ukta* (PPP of *vac*, “to say”)
- ◇ *bahūtkṣēpam* (“having thrown up ones arms”) \leftarrow *bahu* (“arm”) + *ud* (preposition, “up”) + full grade of *kṣip* (“to throw”) + gerund ending *am* (pp. 107)
- ◇ from *yuv-an* m. (“youngster”) instr. sg. $y\bar{u}-n-\bar{a} \leftarrow yuv-n-\bar{a}$

$a/\bar{a} + i/\bar{i} \rightarrow \hat{e}$ (MVS 2. line)

- ◇ *sam-upēta* (“provided with”) \leftarrow *sam* + *upa* + *i-ta* (PPP of *i*)
- ◇ *sēt* (“with *i*”) \leftarrow *sa* (“together with”) + *iṭ* (traditional expression for oi. *i*)
- ◇ *vēt* (“with or without *i*”) \leftarrow *vā* (“or”) + *iṭ* (traditional expression for oi. *i*)
- ◇ *prētyēha* (“in the hereafter and here”) \leftarrow *pra-i* (“to go forward, to die”) + *tya* (gerundive suffix) + *iha* (“here”)

$a/\bar{a} + u/\bar{u} \rightarrow \hat{o}$ (MVS 3. line)

- ◇ *ēkōna vimśati* (“20-1, 19”) \leftarrow *ēka* (“one, single”) + *ūna* (“incomplete”)
- ◇ *hitōpadēśa* (“20-1, 19”) \leftarrow *hita* (“well-being”, see PPP of *dhā*) + *upa-dēśa* (“teaching”, see *diś*)
- ◇ *a-vôc-a-t* (aorist, 3. pers. sg. of *vac*, “he said”) \leftarrow **a-va-uc-a-t*

$a/\bar{a} + \hat{e} \rightarrow \hat{ai}$ (MVS 4. line)

- ◇ *ekâikaśas*, adv. (“one by one”) \leftarrow *ēka* (“one”) + *ēka* + *śas* (“adverbial suffix”)

$a/\bar{a} + \hat{o} \rightarrow \hat{au}$ (MVS 5. line)

- ◇ *vanâukas*, m. (“living in the forest, ascetic”) \leftarrow *vana* (“forest”) + *ôkas*, n. (“living place, homeland”)
- ◇ *divâukas*, m. (“living in heaven, god”) \leftarrow *diva* (“heaven”) + *ôkas*, n. (“living place, homeland”)
- ◇ *uttamâujas* (“being of superior strength”) \leftarrow *uttama* (“highest, best”) + *ôjas* (“strength”)

B.2.9. Lengthening of Indo-European *o* in open syllables (according to Brugmann)

A somewhat special law is due to the famous Leipzig scholar Karl Brugmann. It says

$$\mathbf{L}o \quad \text{ie. } oCV \rightarrow \text{oi. } \bar{a}CV$$

This law is rather complex:

- ◇ First, it is only ie. *o*, but not ie. *e* or *a* that are lengthened. From a purely Sanskrit point of view, it is difficult to know whether the law applies because all three ie. vowels turn into oi. *a*.
- ◇ Second, while one often speaks of an open syllable as a prerequisite, it is more to the point to say that ie. *o* is followed by only one consonant plus a vowel:
 - Sometimes, a second consonant in the form of a laryngeal may not be visible any more. Then, the law does not apply. See *janayati* below.
 - If the word finishes with ie. *o*, the syllable is open, but Brugmann does not apply. See *pra* below.
 - If ie. *o* goes back to *h₃e*, the law is also not applied. See *avi* in the dictionary.

Differently put, one obtains ie. *o* → oi. *ā* unless the syllable is heavy already, i.e., heavy by the existence of two consonants after *o*. We point to four classes of examples: First, 1. pers. pl. verbs like *bhar-ā-mas* ← ie. **bher-o-mes* show the long *ā* before *m* in an open syllable. (However, 1. pers. sg. verbs like *bharāmi* does not fall under this heading because of Greek *pherō* and Latin *ferō*. Apparently, *mi* was added in Sanskrit after long *ō* which already indicates the 1. pers. sg.)

Second, verbs of the tenth class do also sometimes show long *ā*, this time before the liquid *r*. In particular, we have

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{mor-ey-e-ti ("he makes die, he kills")} & \rightarrow \text{mār-ay-a-ti} \\ \text{but jonH-ey-e-ti ("she begets")} & \rightarrow \text{jan-ay-a-ti} \end{array}$$

In the second example, the laryngeal makes the syllable a closed one so that Brugmann's law does not apply.

Third, in the perfect tense, we find

✓	1. pers. sg.		3. pers. sg.	
	ie.	oi.	ie.	oi.
<i>kṛ</i> ("to make")	<i>ke-kor-h₂e</i>	<i>ca-kar-a</i>	<i>ke-kor-e</i>	<i>ca-kār-a</i>
<i>gam</i>	<i>g^we-g^wom-h₂e</i>	<i>ja-gam-a</i>	<i>g^we-g^wom-e</i>	<i>ja-gām-a</i>
<i>tan</i>	<i>te-ton-h₂e</i>	<i>ta-tan-a</i>	<i>te-ton-e</i>	<i>ta-tān-a</i>

In the 1. pers. sg., the syllable is not open because of the laryngeal. In the 3. pers. sg., the syllable is open and hence, Brugmann's law applies. The 1. pers. sg. also has

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the Sanskrit alternatives *ja-gām-a*, *ta-tān-a*, or *ca-kār-a*, respectively. However, these **Lo**-violating variants do not show up in the older Vedic language.

Fourth and finally, Brugmann does not apply in open syllables in absolute auslaut: oi. *pra* ← ie. **pro* and oi. *sa* ← ie. **so*.

B.3. Consonants

B.3.1. Old Indian consonants

Most Old-Indian stops or plosives can be put into a matrix with five rows and four columns:

	vl./unasp.	vl./asp.	vd./unasp.	vd./asp.	nasals	sibilants
velars	<i>k</i>	<i>kh</i>	<i>g</i>	<i>gh</i>	<i>ṇ</i>	
palatals	<i>c</i>	<i>ch</i>	<i>j</i>	<i>jh</i>	<i>ñ</i>	<i>ś</i>
cerebrals	<i>ṭ</i>	<i>ṭh</i>	<i>ḍ</i>	<i>ḍh</i>	<i>ṇ</i>	<i>ṣ</i>
dentals	<i>t</i>	<i>th</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>dh</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>s</i>
labials	<i>p</i>	<i>ph</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>bh</i>	<i>m</i>	

In each of these rows, we find voiceless (abbreviation: vl.) and voiced (vd.) representatives, both in aspirated (asp.) and unaspirated (unasp.) form. These sounds are stops or plosives because the air is stopped before it is finally released in an explosive manner. The fifth column hosts the corresponding nasals and the sixth column the sibilants.

B.3.2. Primary and secondary palatalization

Reconsider the oi. table of plosives:

	vl./unasp.	vd./unasp.	vd./asp.
velars	<i>k</i> (SPal?)	<i>g</i> (SPal?)	<i>gh</i> (SPal?)
palatals	<i>k' → oi. ś</i> (PPal)	<i>g' → oi. j</i> (PPal)	<i>gh → oi. h</i> (PPal)
dentals	<i>t</i>	<i>d</i>	<i>dh</i>
labials	<i>p</i>	<i>b</i>	<i>bh</i>
labio-velars	<i>k^w</i> (SPal?)	<i>g^w</i> (SPal?)	<i>g^wh</i> (SPal?)

Dentals and labials are basically unaffected by sound ie.-oi. sound changes. Both the ie. table and the oi. table of plosives have palatals in their second rows. The development from ie. to oi. palatals is called primary palatalization:

PPal	ie. $k'V$	→	oi. sV
	ie. $g'V$	→	oi. jV
	ie. ghV	→	oi. hV
but SIB (p. 43)	ie. $k's$ /ie. $g's$	→	oi. $ks \rightarrow k's$ (RUKI)
	ie. $s k'$	→	oi. cch
but BA	ie. $k'D^{v1}$	→	oi. kD^{v1}
but sz	ie. gP^{vd}	→	oi. zP^{vd}
	ie. gP^{v1}	→	oi. sP^{v1}

As examples for primary palatalization, consider the word for “hundred”

$$\text{ie. } k'm_{\circ}tóm \rightarrow \text{oi. } \begin{cases} \text{oi. } \acute{s}atám \\ \text{ogr. } he-katon \\ \text{lat. } centum \\ \text{gth. } hund \end{cases}$$

or the one for “knee”:

$$\text{oi. } j\bar{a}nu \leftarrow \text{ie. } *genu/\acute{g}onu \rightarrow \text{lat. } genu \sim \text{e. } knee$$

Three verbs confirm the fifth line: oi. *ch* (with *cch* within words after short vowels) goes back to ie. $*s k'$ as in

- ◇ *iš*, *icchatī* (“to wish”) \sim e. *ask* \sim ohg. *eiscōn* \rightarrow nhg. *heischen*
- ◇ *gam*, *gacchatī* (“to go”) \sim ogr. *baskō* \leftarrow ie. $*g^w m_{\circ} - s k'$
- ◇ *pracch*, *prcchatī* \sim nhg. *forschen* \sim lat. *pōscere*, *pōscō* (“to claim, to demand”) \leftarrow ie. $*pr k - s k'$

Later on, within the Indo-Iranian language group, secondary palatalization (**SPal**) set in. While **PPal** invariably occurs, **SPal** depends on whether an ie. (!) front vowel (ie. *e* or *i*) follows. Fig. B.2 on p. 36 summarizes the most important palatalization laws. Secondary palatalization is most clearly seen in reduplicated forms, for example in the reduplicated perfect:

$\sqrt{\quad}$	3. pers. sg.	
	ie.	oi.
<i>kr</i> (“to make”)	<i>ke-kor-e</i>	<i>ca-kār-a</i>
<i>gam</i>	<i>g^we-g^wom-e</i>	<i>ja-gām-a</i>

Additional examples for secondary palatalization are provided by

- ◇ oi. *ca* \leftarrow ie. $*k^w e$ which shows very nicely in lat. *que*, and
- ◇ oi. *jīva* \leftarrow ie. $*g^w i\bar{v}o$ (“living”) which is also cognate with lat. *vīvus*
- ◇ oi. *jahi* \leftarrow ie. $*g^w h\bar{n}-hi$ which is difficult (see p. 162)

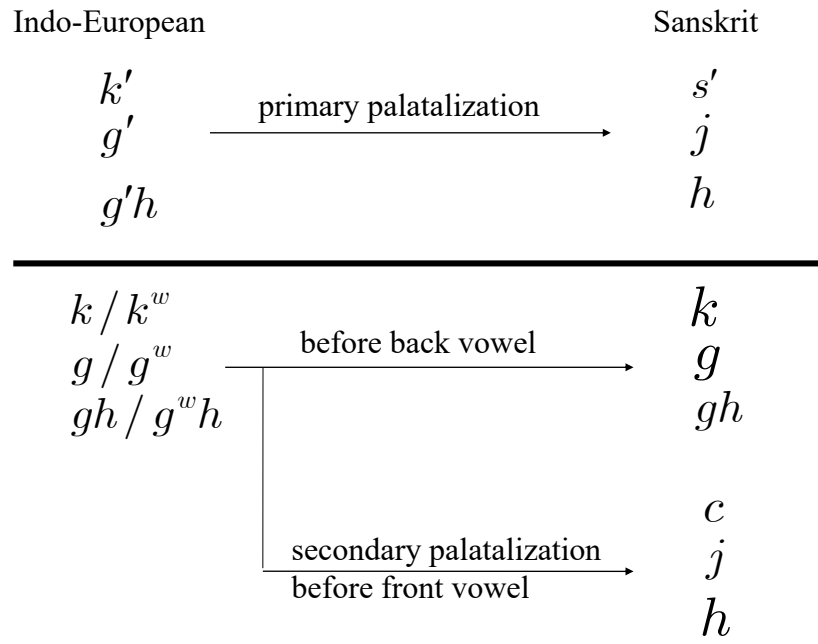


Figure B.2.: Primary and secondary palatalization

B.3.3. Aspiration laws (due to Bartholomae, due to Grassmann)

Aspiration shift (ASh)

There exist two aspiration laws that explain changes from Indo-European to Indo-Iranian.

- ◇ Aspiration shift (Bartholomae's law):

In consonant clusters, the aspiration shifts to the last consonant (if possible!).

- ◇ Aspiration dissimilation or deaspiration (Grassmann's law):

If aspirated consonants occur in the beginning of two subsequent syllables, the first aspirated consonant loses its aspiration.

Let us consider the shift of aspiration due to Christian Bartholomae (who got his Dr. phil. in Leipzig in 1877). The most frequent occurrences are

ASh	ie. <i>gh-t</i>	→	oi. <i>g-dh</i>
	ie. <i>dh-t</i>	→	oi. <i>d-dh</i>
	ie. <i>bh-t</i>	→	oi. <i>b-dh</i>
but	ie. <i>gh-s/gʰs</i>	→	<i>g-s</i> → <i>k-s</i> (BA) → RUKI
	ie. <i>dh-s</i>	→	<i>d-s</i> → oi. <i>t-s</i> (BA)
	ie. <i>bh-s</i>	→	<i>b-s</i> → oi. <i>p-s</i> (BA)

For example, we have both aspiration shift and forward assimilation (voiceless *t* becoming voiced *d* which is then aspirated) in PPPs such as

- ◇ *bud-dha* ← *budh-ta*

- ◇ *lab-dha* ← *labh-ta*

The main rule seems to be that aspirated consonants are not admitted within consonant clusters. Assume, now, that *bh* is followed by the consonant *s* which is voiceless and unaspirated. Indeed, voiced or aspirated spirants do not exist in Sanskrit. Therefore, we encounter two problems:

- ◇ While aspiraton can shift away from *b*, *s* cannot assume the aspiration.
- ◇ Voice cannot be forwarded to *s*.

As a consequence, backward assimilation (from voiceless *s* to voiced *b* sets in) and one obtains a form like future

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\text{ie. } *leb\text{h-sy-e-toi} \text{ (f.g. with future sign } sy) \\
 &\rightarrow lab\text{h-sy-a-tê} \\
 &\rightarrow lap\text{-sy-a-tê} \text{ (ASh)}
 \end{aligned}$$

Deaspiration (DA)

The second aspiration law is named after Hermann Grassmann, a German mathematician and Indologist. (He was not the inventor, however. See the article by Romaschko [2000].) Imagine having two aspirated sounds. One should probably add that these aspirated sounds occur syllable-initial (see *dhehi* on p. 172). However, levelling may have done its work in many cases where the second aspirated sound is not found at the beginning of a syllable. In any case, the first one becomes deaspirated:

$$\text{DA} \quad \text{ie. } C^{\text{asp}} VC^{\text{asp}} (V) \rightarrow \text{oi. } C^{\text{unasp}} VC^{\text{asp}} (V)$$

Reduplicated forms provide examples.

- ◇ From oi. *bhū* (“to be”), we have the perfect *ba-bhūva* (“he was”).
- ◇ The present tense for “to stand” is reduplicated: *sthā*, *ti-ṣṭha-ti* (**RUKI** after *i*).
- ◇ Verbs of class 3 are reduplicated and provide the examples such as *dhā*, *da-dhā-ti* (“to put”)

Consider oi. *budh*, *bôdhati* which goes back to ie. **bheudh*. Interestingly, the word initial *bh* appears in the future form *bhôt-sy-ati*. Think about it this way:

- ◇ **ASh** is applied:
dh lost its aspiration in the consonant cluster and became voiceless before voiceless *s*. *sy* could not assume the aspiration.
- ◇ **DA** is not applied:
Deaspiration did not take place. The second (originally aspirated) consonant *dh* is not aspirated any more.

Finally, compare

- ◇ nom. *kāma-dhuk*, f. (“wish fulfillment”) with
- ◇ acc. *kāma-duh-am*

Ie. **dheugh* means “to milk”. In accusative, *h* is followed by a vowel (apply **DA**). In nominative, *k* (**AFP**) is in word-final position (do not apply **DA**) so that there is no need to deaspirate the word-initial *dh*.

B.3.4. Assimilations

Introductory remark

All languages have assimilation rules. In the context of the Old Indian language, many assimilations are called *sandhi* rules. Most assimilations work backward, where a sound influences the preceding one. Forward assimilation is also present, in particular with respect to cerebralization. Interestingly, when a cerebral plosive (that would be inclined to make the following sound cerebral) is followed by a palatal or dental plosive (that would be inclined to palatalize or dentalize the preceding sound), some sort of stalemate results: no assimilation takes place in *ṣaṭ-cakra* (“six chakras”) or *ṣaṭ-triṃśa* (“thirty-six”).

Backward assimilations

Let us begin with some important and rather obvious cases of backward induction:

BA	motivation	example
	voicelessness	<i>yuk-ta</i> ← ie. * <i>yug-to</i> <i>tat kamalam</i> ← <i>tad</i> + <i>kamalam</i>
	voice	<i>gramād vanam</i> ← <i>gramāt</i> + <i>vanam</i>
	nasalizing of dentals	<i>tan mitram</i> ← <i>tad</i> + <i>mitram</i> <i>un-mārgas</i> , m. (“a wrong or evil way”) ← <i>ud-mārgas</i> <i>anna</i> ← <i>ad-na</i> (oi. root <i>ad</i>) <i>ṣaṇ-māśas</i> , m. (“period of six months”) ← <i>ṣaṭ-māśas</i>
	palatalization	<i>tac chrutvā</i> ← <i>tad</i> + <i>śrutvā</i> <i>uccarati</i> ← <i>ud-carati</i>
	depalatalization	<i>yuk-ta</i> ← ie. * <i>yug-to</i>
	dentalization	PPP <i>śrānta</i> ← * <i>śrānta</i> ← ie. * <i>kr̥mH-to</i>

Less obvious sorts of backward assimilation are covered in the following subsections and sections.

Backward assimilation: *sz* soundlaw

For intermediate steps, we need three so-called *sz* laws. *z* is a voiced sibilant. It can originate from voiceless *s* before voiced consonant. Alternatively, it can go back to ie. *ǵ*, again before voiced consonants. These are the sound laws:

<i>sz</i>	ie. <i>s</i> before vowel or voiced stop	→ * <i>z</i>
	ie. <i>ǵ</i> before voiced stop	→ * <i>z</i>
	ie. <i>ǵ</i> before voiceless stop	→ * <i>s</i>

For examples concerning the first two sound laws, please, wait until pp. 47. An example for the third law, is provided by PPP *iṣ-ta* of oi. *yaj* (“to sacrifice”):

	ie. * <i>iǵ-to</i> (z.g. with <i>to</i> PPP marker)
→	<i>is-ta</i> (<i>sz</i> before voiceless cons.)
→	<i>iṣ-ta</i> (RUKI)
→	<i>iṣ-ta</i> (Cer <i>D</i>)

Backward assimilation: insertion of sibilant after word-final *n*

If a word-final *n* stands before certain voiceless consonants, it is changed into anusvāra and an additional sibilant is inserted. This rule is best seen from a few examples:

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$$\begin{array}{lll} a-bhar-an\ ca & \rightarrow & a-bhar-aṃ-ś\ ca \\ has-an\ tīkatê & \rightarrow & has-aṃ-ṣ\ tīkatê \\ dēvān\ tatra & \rightarrow & dēvāṃ-s\ tatra \end{array}$$

This change might seem odd at first sight. Its explanation goes back to the acc. pl. (and maybe other forms) which is believed to have been ie. **-o-ns* and hence oi. *ān* in line with **CpLs** (p. 50). Apparently, the final consonant *s* was not dropped if standing right before the above consonants. Instead it was joined with, and assimilated to, these consonants.

Forward assimilations: overview

Forward assimilations are rarer than backward ones. We have these main classes:

1. Aspiration shift **ASh** (p. 37):
A prominent example is the PPP *bud-dha* ← *budh-ta*. Both aspiration and voice go forward.
2. Cerebralization:
 - ◇ of *s* after *i* and other sounds (**RUKI**, p. 41) as in loc. pl. *nadīṣu* of *nadī* (“river”)
 - ◇ of dentals after *ś*, *ṣ*, or *z* (**CerD**, p. 41), for example, PPP *drṣ-ṭa* of oi. root *drś*, *paśyati* (“to see”)
 - ◇ of *n* after *r* (**Cern**, p. 42) as in *marāṇam* (“death”)
3. Palatalization of *n* after *j*:
 - ◇ The stem for “king” is *rāj-an* and the instr. sg. is *rāj-ñ-ā*.
 - ◇ From ie. **gneh₃* (“to know”), we have oi. root *jñā*.

Forward cerebralization: RUKI

One famous cerebralization law is called after the sounds that precede oi. *s*, leading to cerebralization. These sounds are

- ◇ oi. *r*-sounds, such as *r* and *ṛ* with examples
 - *karṣa* (“ploughing”) and
 - *kṛṣṇa* (“black, dark”)
- ◇ oi. *u*-sounds such as *u* and *ô* (see **DIPH**, p. 22) with example *gô-ṣṭham* (“cowshed”) ← stem *gô* (“cow”) + *sthā* (“to stand”)
- ◇ oi. *k* with example loc. pl. *vākṣu* ← *vāc* (“word”)
- ◇ oi. *i*-sounds such as *i* and *ê* with examples

- *sthā*, *ti-ṣṭhati* (“to stand”) with *i*-reduplication
- *dēva* (“god”) with loc. pl. *dēvēṣu*
- *sad*, *ni-ṣīdati*

Summarizing, we obtain the first line of the **RUKI** sound law:

RUKI	oi. <i>r/ṛ/u/ô/k/i/ê</i> + <i>s/z</i> not w.f., not before <i>P^{vd}</i>	→	oi. <i>r/ṛ/u/ô/k/i/ê</i> + <i>ṣ/ž</i>
	ie. <i>k's</i>	→	oi. <i>kṣ</i>
	oi. <i>us/is</i> before voiced stop	→	oi. <i>ur/ir</i>
	oi. <i>is-r</i>	→	oi. <i>is-r</i> (“no RUKI ”)

The **RUKI** sound laws are not clearcut: The example of *duh-kham* (“misfortune”) does not fit the first line.

The second line seems clear from an example like *vaś* (“to wish”) with 2. pers. sg. present tense *vak-ṣi* ← ie. **vek'si*.

The third line is necessitated by the neuter noun *havis* (“oblation”) with

- ◇ with instr. pl. *havir-bhis* before voiced consonant
- ◇ but loc. pl. *haviḥ-ṣu* before unvoiced consonant

The fourth line is exemplified by *tamisram* (“darkness”).

Forward cerebralization: **CerD**

Not only the dental sibilant, but also the dental plosives can undergo cerebralization:

CerD	oi. <i>ṣ/ś</i> + <i>t</i>	→	oi. <i>ṣṭ</i>
	<i>ṣ</i> + <i>d/dh</i>	→	<i>ṣ</i> + <i>ḍ/ḍh</i>

The first line shows up in these examples:

- ◇ PPP *drṣ-ta* of oi. root *drś*, *paśyati* (“to see”)
- ◇ oi. *aṣṭā* ← ie. *oktō* (“eight”), but not in ie. **esti* (“he is”) → oi. *asti*, where we have *s* rather than *ṣ* or *ś*

and in the PPP *iṣ-ta* of oi. *yaj*, *yajatê* (“to sacrifice”):

	ie. <i>*ig-to</i> (z.g. with <i>to</i> PPP marker)
→	<i>is-ta</i> (<i>sz</i> before voiceless cons.)
→	<i>iṣ-ta</i> (RUKI)
→	<i>iṣ-ta</i> (CerD)

For the second line consider

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ie. **misdho*
 → *mizdha* (*sz* before voiced cons.)
 → *mizdha* (**RUKI**)
 → *mizdha* (**CerD**)
 → *mīdha* (**CpLz**)

Forward cerebralization: **Cern**

The rules for the cerebralization of *n* are complex. Roughly speaking, we have

Cern oi. *n* after *r/ṛ/ṝ* not word-final (see below) → oi. *ṇ*

Compare

- ◇ *jīvanam* (“life”) without *r*-sounds or *ṣ* before *n* versus
- ◇ *maraṇam* (“death”) where the *r* cerebralizes *n*.

Apparently, *r-ṣ* sounds force the tip of the tongue into a back-bending position. Then, by way of forward assimilation, *n* is also to be pronounced in a back-bending, i.e., cerebral manner. If other sounds intervene between the *r-ṣ* sounds and the *n*, cerebralization may still occur. This is the case when the other sounds involve the lips rather than the tip of the tongue. Compare

- ◇ *rathena* (instr. sg. of *ratha* (“carriage”)) where the dental *th* forces the tip of the tongue forward very close to that position where dental *n* is to be pronounced, versus
- ◇ *brahmaṇā* (instr. sg. of *brahman* (“the absolute”)) where *h* and *m* do not involve the tip of the tongue

Assimilations for syllable-initials

Some assimilations and dissimilations do not concern immediately adjacent sounds, but syllable-initials in neighbouring syllables:

SI oi. *ś..s* → oi. *ś..ś*
 oi. *s..ś* → oi. *ś..ś*

For the first line see ie. **kásó* → n.at. *śasa* → *śaśa* (“hare”), by forward-assimilation example. Backward assimilation is involved in the second line where ie. **svekūro* → n.at. *svaśura* → *śvaśura* (“father in law”) provides an example.

Sibilant and palatal-sibilant clusters

A bewildering variety of sound laws concern sibilants and palatal-sibilants clusters. For reference purposes, all these sound laws are collected here:

SIB		ie. <i>ss</i>	→	oi. <i>ts</i>
		<i>ṣs</i>	→	oi. <i>kṣ</i>
PPal	←	ie. <i>ḱ</i> , ie. <i>ḱs</i>	→	oi. <i>kṣ</i>
SPal	←	ie. <i>k^w</i> , ie. <i>k^ws</i>	→	oi. <i>kṣ</i>
PPal, sz	←	ie. <i>ǵ</i> , ie. <i>ǵs</i>	→	oi. <i>kṣ</i>
		ie. <i>tḱ</i>	→	oi. <i>kṣ</i>
		ie. <i>dhǵh</i>	→	oi. <i>kṣ</i>
		ie. <i>k^wḱ</i>	→	oi. <i>kṣ</i>
PPal	←	ie. <i>ḱ</i> , ie. <i>Vsḱ/Csḱ</i>	→	oi. <i>Vcch/Cch</i>
		<i>sḱ</i> w.-i./ <i>sk</i> w.-i.	→	<i>ch</i> w.-i.
		ie. <i>r_osr</i>	→	oi. <i>rcch</i>

For the first five lines, refer to the following table:

✓	translation	infinitive	future, 3. sg.
<i>vas</i>	to dwell	<i>vas-tum</i>	<i>vat-sy-a-ti</i>
<i>tuṣ</i>	to enjoy	<i>tôṣ-tum</i>	<i>tôk-ṣy-a-ti</i>
<i>sprṣ́</i>	to touch	<i>sparṣ-tum</i> , <i>spraṣ-tum</i>	<i>sprak-ṣy-a-ti</i> , <i>spark-ṣy-a-ti</i>
<i>vac</i>	to say	<i>vak-tum</i>	<i>vak-ṣy-a-ti</i>
<i>yaj</i>	to sacrifice	<i>yaṣ-tum</i>	<i>yak-ṣy-a-ti</i>

Let us now turn to the dental-palatal clusters ie. *tḱ* and ie. *dhǵh*. By a series of regular, but not obvious sound laws, one obtains the two sound laws in the above table:

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\text{ie. } *tḱ \\
 &\rightarrow tṣ \text{ (PPal)} \\
 &\rightarrow ṭṣ \text{ (a backward version of CerD)} \\
 &\rightarrow kṣ
 \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\text{ie. } *dhǵh \\
 &\rightarrow dhṣh \text{ (some version of sz)} \\
 &\rightarrow dṣ \text{ (ASh, ṣ cannot be aspirated)} \\
 &\rightarrow ṭṣ \text{ (a backward version of CerD, but unclear loss of voice)} \\
 &\rightarrow kṣ
 \end{aligned}$$

They justify the derivations

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$$\begin{aligned} & \text{ie. } *h_2 r t k_{\circ} o \\ \rightarrow & \text{oi. } r k_{\circ} s a \text{ ("bear"),} \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{ie. } *dh g h o m \\ \rightarrow & \text{ved. } k s a m \text{ ("ground, earth")} \end{aligned}$$

respectively.

For the fourth line from the bottom, refer to *ca**k**s*. For the third last one, see

- ◇ *i**s*, *ic**chat**i* ("to wish") ~ e. *a**s**k* ~ ohg. *eiscōn* → nhg. *heischen*
- ◇ *ga**m*, *ga**c**chat**i* ("to go") ~ ogr. *ba**skō* ← ie. **g^wm-s^k*
- ◇ *pra**c**ch*, *pra**c**chat**i* ~ nhg. *for**sch**en* ~ lat. *pōscere*, *pōscō* ("to claim, to demand") ← ie. **pr^k-s^k*

In these three examples, there is a vowel (*i*, *m_o*, or *r_o*) before ie. *(k)s^k*. The case of a preceding consonant is covered by *hūrchana* in the dictionary. *Chand* and *cand* provide examples for application and non-application of word-initial occurrences (second-to-last line), respectively.

The last line is justified by the *ra*-adjective *kṛcch-ra* from the oi. root *kṛṣ* (see p. 121).

B.3.5. Consonant clusters and word-final consonants

Simplification of consonant clusters (CCI)

Old Indian admits only a limited number of consecutive consonants. At the end of a word, the first consonant in a cluster remains. Within a word, the last two consonants are allowed:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \text{CCI} & \text{oi. } VC_1 C_2 \text{ word-final} & \rightarrow \text{oi. } VC_1 \\ & \text{oi. } VC_1 C_2 C_3 V \text{ word-interior} & \rightarrow \text{oi. } VC_2 C_3 V \end{array}$$

Turning to word-final consonant clusters, consider these examples of cluster simplification:

- ◇ From an Indo-European perspective, *s* is often taken as the sign of nom. sg., both masculine and feminine, for example, in the thematic noun *dev-a-s*, m. ("god"). In athematic nouns, *s* is directly attached to the stem so that we might expect **marut-s*, but find nom. sg. *marut* ("wind") instead.
- ◇ Parasmâipada imperfect sg. of athematic verbs also present suitable examples, for example

√ han	1. pers. sg.	2. pers. sg.	3. pers. sg.
	<i>a-han-am</i>	<i>a-han</i> ← <i>a-han-s</i>	<i>a-han</i> ← <i>a-han-t</i>

For simplification of word-interior clusters, consider the desiderative *bhik-s-u* (“beggar”) which derives from

**bhi-bhj-s-u*
 → *bhi-bj-s-u* (*s* cannot be aspirated)
 → *bhi-pk-s-u* (**BA** twice)
 → *bhi-k-s-u* (**CC1**)

Admissable consonants in absolute final position (AFP)

In absolute final positions (at the end of sentences), palatals, voiced, or aspirated stops are not allowed. The following table shows how they are substituted in absolute final position:

AFP

	vl./unasp.	vl./asp.	vd./unasp.	vd./asp.	sibilants
velars	<i>k</i>	<i>kh</i> → <i>k</i>	<i>g</i> → <i>k</i>	<i>gh</i> → <i>k</i>	
palatals	<i>c</i> → <i>k/ṭ</i>	<i>ch</i> → <i>k/ṭ</i>	<i>j</i> → <i>k/ṭ</i>	<i>jh</i> → <i>k/ṭ</i>	<i>ś</i> → <i>k/ṭ</i>
cerebrals	<i>ṭ</i>	<i>ṭh</i> → <i>ṭ</i>	<i>ḍ</i> → <i>ṭ</i>	<i>ḍh</i> → <i>ṭ</i>	<i>ks</i> → <i>ṭ</i> , <i>ṣṭ</i> → <i>ṭ</i>
dentals	<i>t</i>	<i>th</i> → <i>t</i>	<i>d</i> → <i>t</i>	<i>dh</i> → <i>t</i>	<i>s</i> → <i>h</i>
labials	<i>p</i>	<i>ph</i> → <i>p</i>	<i>b</i> → <i>p</i>	<i>bh</i> → <i>p</i>	

Root nouns (subsection C.4.1) provide examples:

oi. stem	nom. sg.	translation
<i>dṛś</i> ← ie. * <i>derk</i>	<i>dṛk</i> ← ie. * <i>dṛk-s</i>	sight
<i>bhuj</i>	<i>bhuk</i>	enjoyment, utility
<i>madhu-lih</i> ← ie. * <i>medhu</i> + ie. * <i>leigh</i>	<i>madhu-liṭ</i> ← ie. * <i>medhu-liḡh-s</i>	honey licker, bee
<i>mṛd</i>	<i>mṛt</i>	clay
<i>viś</i> ← ie. * <i>veik</i>	<i>viṭ</i> ← ie. * <i>vik-s</i>	settlement
<i>yudh</i>	<i>yut</i>	battle
<i>sam-rāj</i>	<i>sam-rāṭ</i>	ruler

The loss of voice and aspiration may not be surprising. However, the palatals may turn into *k* or *ṭ*. From the point of view of **PPal** and **SPal** (see pp. 35), the change into *k* is the expected one because these palatal originate from ie. velar or ie. palatals. Indeed, the palatalization has probably not occurred at all in absolute final position.

It seems that cerebral *ṭ* shows up if cerebrals are involved in the first place or after **RUKI**. Indeed, in view of *viṭ* and *madhu-liṭ*, we can postulate the development

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$$\begin{aligned} & \text{ie. } *k\acute{-}s/\acute{g}h\text{-}s \\ \rightarrow & k\acute{-}s/\acute{g}\text{-}s \text{ (ASh)} \\ \rightarrow & k\text{-}s \text{ (BA)} \\ \rightarrow & k\text{-}\acute{s} \text{ (RUKI)} \\ \rightarrow & \acute{t} \text{ (AFP)} \end{aligned}$$

Avoidance of consonant clusters with resonant

Beside the diachronic rules as given in the previous sections, a few constrained-based rules are applied. They do not contain an arrow. Instead, they prohibit certain sound combinations and bring about “obvious” alternatives.

$$\text{MET_}rSP \quad \text{oi. } arSP \rightarrow \text{oi. } raSP$$

For example, the infinitive of $dr\acute{s}$ is not $dar\acute{s}tum$, but $dra\acute{s}tum$. In this manner, the cluster $r\acute{s}t$ is avoided.

B.3.6. Minor sound laws

Dialectal confusion of r and l

Ie. r may lead to oi. r or l and the same is true for ie. l . Thus, when we have oi. r or l , we cannot know without other evidence whether they go back to ie. r or to ie. l . This confusion results in pairs of Sanskrit words, one with r , the other with l :

- ◇ $car\text{-}a\text{-}ti$ (“he wanders”) versus $cal\text{-}a\text{-}ti$ (“he moves, he swings”)
- ◇ $r\acute{e}kh\text{-}\bar{a}$ (“line, strip, picture”) versus $l\acute{e}kh\text{-}\bar{a}$ (“line, strip, picture”), both of which are related to $likh\text{-}a\text{-}ti$ (“he writes”)

This fact (although not a sound law) is indicated by rl .

Roots with and without word-initial s

A number of ie. roots come in two version, with and without word-initial s which is than called s -mobile. See the dictionary chapter at oi. $stan$, $(s)tHeg$, $k\acute{r}t$, $carman$, $pa\acute{s}yati$, and lih .

Root-initial s before a plosive may drop, but lead to aspiration of this plosive. This sound law will be addressed by $sP(h)$. Examples are provided by $chid$, $chad$, or $sphira$ (see dictionary).

Sprouting or deletion of sibilants between dentals

We find two odd rules for sibilants between dentals. On the one hand, z (voiced sibilant) spontaneously emerges between voiced dentals (symbolized by D^{vd}). On the other hand, s (voiceless sibilant) is deleted before a voiceless dental:

DzD	ie. $D^{vd}D^{vd}$	\rightarrow	oi. $D^{vd}zD^{vd}$
	ie. DsD^{v1}	\rightarrow	oi. DD^{v1}
	ie. PsD^{v1}	\rightarrow	oi. PD^{v1}

The first sound law (sprouting of z between voiced dentals) is exemplified on p. 48. The second one is obvious from the gerund *ut-thāya* from *ud-sthā*. The third one has the support of the PPP *a-gdha* (“not eaten”) from the oi. root *ghas* or the ie. root *ghes*

	ie. $^{*}\underset{\circ}{n}ghs-to$ (z.g. with <i>to</i> -marker for PPP)
\rightarrow	<i>agh-ta</i> (SY $_N$, DzD)
\rightarrow	<i>ag-dha</i> (ASh)

This third sound law is also supported by *a-śap-dhvam* for u.at. *a-śap-s-dhvam* (p. 202).

B.3.7. Compensatory lengthenings

B.3.7.1. Compensatory lengthening for suppression of z

DIPH shows how oi. \hat{e} and \hat{o} go back to ie. diphthongs. There is one other source for \hat{e} and \hat{o} , compensatory lengthening for the suppression of (voiced) z (in intermediate steps). The latter originates from (voiceless) s before vowels or voiced consonants by **sz** (39). We find:

CpLz	oi. $as + C^{vd}$	\rightarrow	oi. $\begin{cases} \hat{o}, \text{ w.-f.} \\ \hat{o}, \text{ not w.-f.} & C^{vd} \\ \hat{e}, \text{ not w.-f., bef. } i \end{cases}$
	oi. $is + C^{vd}$	\rightarrow	oi. $\begin{cases} ir, \text{ sandhi between words} \\ \bar{i}, \text{ word formation} \end{cases} C^{vd}$
	oi. $us + C^{vd}$	\rightarrow	oi. $\begin{cases} ur, \text{ sandhi between words} \\ \bar{u}, \text{ word formation} \end{cases} C^{vd}$
	oi. $\bar{a}s + C^{vd} / V$	\rightarrow	oi. $\bar{a} + C^{vd} / V$
	oi. $as + a$	\rightarrow	oi. $\hat{o} + \emptyset$ (second w.-i. a is deleted)
but no lengthening!	oi. $as + i/\bar{i}/u/\bar{u}/\hat{a}i$ etc.	\rightarrow	oi. $a + i/\bar{i}/u/\bar{u}/\hat{a}i$ etc.

The first case (“at the end of words”) of the first line is a common sandhi rule. For example, “the man runs” is

	<i>naras dhavati</i> (without sandhi)
\rightarrow	<i>naraz dhavati</i> (sz before voiced stop)
\rightarrow	<i>narô dhavati</i> (CpLz)

Similarly (but internal sandhi), the instr./dat./abl. dual of *manas*, n.:

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$$*manas-bhyām \rightarrow manô-bhyām$$

and the number 13:

$$*trayas-daśa \rightarrow trayo-daśa$$

And here are two more complicated examples: First, *ṣôḍaśa* (“16”) can be explained by

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{ṣaṣ-daśa (without sandhi)} \\ \rightarrow & \text{ṣaz-daśa (sz before voiced stop)} \\ \rightarrow & \text{ṣaz-ḍaśa (CerD)} \\ \rightarrow & \text{ṣô-ḍaśa (CpLz)} \end{aligned}$$

Second, the infinitive *vôḍhum* of *vah*, *vahati* results as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{ie. } *veǵh-tum \text{ (full grade and infinitive marker } tum) \\ \rightarrow & \text{vaǵh-tum (aā)} \\ \rightarrow & \text{vaǵ-dhum (ASh)} \\ \rightarrow & \text{vaz-dhum (sz)} \\ \rightarrow & \text{vô-dhum (CpLz)} \\ \rightarrow & \text{vô-ḍhum (leveling with PPP } \bar{u}ḍha, \text{ p. 115)} \end{aligned}$$

Still within the first line, within a word before a consonant + *i*, one obtains the 2. sg. impv. of “to be”

$$*as-dhi \rightarrow êdhi$$

Together with sound law **DzD**, we obtain the parasmâipada impv. 2. pers. sg. of *dā* (“to give”). It builds on the reduplicative form *da-d*:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{ie. } *da-dh_3-dhi \\ \rightarrow & \text{da-dzdhi (DzD, p. 47)} \\ \rightarrow & \text{da-zdhi (CCI, p. 44)} \\ \rightarrow & \text{daz-dhi} \\ \rightarrow & \text{dê-dhi (CpLz)} \\ \rightarrow & \text{dê-hi (analogy)} \end{aligned}$$

where the analogy produces the alternative ending *hi* rather than *dhi*, for example:

<i>bhî</i>	with imperative ending <i>hi</i> :	<i>bi-bhî-hi</i>
just as		
<i>dā</i>	with imperative ending <i>hi</i> :	<i>dê-hi</i>

Turning to the second and third lines, we encounter sandhi rules that may also apply within words, such as *dur-ga*, *havir-bhis* (see p. 214) or *āyur-bhis* (see p. 214). In an earlier word-formation stage, we observe compensatory lengthening. Consider *sīdati* from the root *sad* (“to sit”)

- si-sd-ati* (reduplication with *i* and zero grade, without sandhi)
→ *si-zd-ati* (**sz** law before voiced cons.)
→ *si-ṣd-ati* (**RUKI**)
→ *si-ṣḍ-ati* (**CerD**)
→ *sīḍ-ati* (**CpLz**)
→ *sīd-ati* (leveling)

where leveling restores the dental:

	<i>sīḍ-ati</i>	
influenced by	<i>sa-sād-a</i> (perf. 3. pers. sg.) or other forms from <i>sad</i>	with dental
turns into	<i>sīd-ati</i>	with dental

For similar examples, consult the etymological dictionary for *nīdam* or *mīdham*.

Turning to the third line, consider this development that leads to the PPP of *vah* ← ie. **vegh*:

- ie. **vegh-to* (z.g. with *to*-marker of PPP)
→ *uegh-ta* (**hV**)
→ *ueḡ-dha* (**ASh**)
→ *uz-dha* (**sz**)
→ *uṣ-dha* (**RUKI**)
→ *uṣ-ḍha* (**CerD**)
→ *ū-ḍha* (**CpLz**)

According to a well-known sandhi rule, *s* is dropped from *ās* before voiced sounds. This is the fourth line of **CpLz** above and best understood as the result of two steps:

- narās gacchanti* (without sandhi)
→ *narāz gacchanti* (**sz**)
→ *narā gacchanti* (**CpLz**, *ā* is already long)

A second example is provided by the 2. pl. present tense of *ās* (“to sit”):

- ās-dhvê* (without sandhi)
→ *āz-dhvê* (**sz**)
→ *ā-dhvê* (**CpLz**, *ā* is already long)

Remember that this particular rule holds for vowels also, not just for voiced stops:

- narās īkṣantê* (without sandhi)
→ *narāz īkṣantê* (**sz**)
→ *narā īkṣantê* (**CpLz**, *ā* is already long)

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As in the first line, oi. *as* turns to *ô* also before oi. *a* (fifth line), but the latter is then deleted as in

$$\begin{aligned}
 & rāmas \text{ atra (without sandhi)} \\
 \rightarrow & rāmaz \text{ atra (sz)} \\
 \rightarrow & narô \text{ atra (CpLz)} \\
 \rightarrow & narô \text{ 'tra (a of second word drops)}
 \end{aligned}$$

In the sixth line (similar to the fourth one), before vowels other than *a*, *s* simply vanishes:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & rāmas \text{ īkṣatê (without sandhi)} \\
 \rightarrow & rāmaz \text{ īkṣatê (sz)} \\
 \rightarrow & rāma \text{ īkṣatê (z drops)}
 \end{aligned}$$

B.3.7.2. Word-final compensatory lengthening

Apart from **CpLz**, other types of compensatory lengthening occur:

$$\begin{array}{llll}
 \mathbf{CpLr} & \text{oi. } Vr + r & \rightarrow & \text{oi. } \bar{V} + r \\
 \mathbf{CpLs} & \text{oi. } VCs & \rightarrow & \text{oi. } \bar{V} + C
 \end{array}$$

The first line is exemplified by the sandhi rule

$$*punar \text{ rāmaḥ} \rightarrow \text{oi. } punā \text{ rāmaḥ}$$

but is not fulfilled in

$$*nētar-s \rightarrow \text{oi. } nētā \text{ pp. 231}$$

where additional information is given at the pages indicated.

The second line is present in

$$\begin{array}{llll}
 *bala-vant-s & \rightarrow & \text{oi. } bala-vān & \text{pp. 218} \\
 *su-manas-s & \rightarrow & \text{oi. } su-manās & \text{pp. 213} \\
 *gīr-s & \rightarrow & \text{oi. } gīr & \\
 \text{acc. pl. ie. } *deiv-o-ns & \rightarrow & dēv-ān & \text{pp. 210} \\
 \text{acc. pl. ie. } *nei-tr_{\circ}-ns & \rightarrow & nē-tṛ-n & \text{pp. 231}
 \end{array}$$

Against **CpLs**, we find

$$\begin{array}{llll}
 *gach-ant-s & \rightarrow & \text{oi. } gach-an \text{ (CCl)} & \text{pp. 220 for } bhar-an \\
 *rāj-an-s & \rightarrow & \text{oi. } rājā & \text{pp. 226} \\
 *yôg-in-s & \rightarrow & \text{oi. } yôgī & \text{pp. 230}
 \end{array}$$

B.3.7.3. Compensatory lengthening s

A rather special rule can be described as

$$\text{CpLd}\acute{k} \quad \text{oi. } Vd\acute{k} \rightarrow \text{oi. } \bar{V} + \acute{k} \rightarrow \text{SIB}$$

For examples, see the dictionary entries for *dāśva* (s.v. *damś*), for oi. root *dīkṣ* (s.v. *dāś*), and for *pañcāśat*.

B.3.8. Visarga rules

Most visarga rules are of the backward-assimilation type. Before voiceless sounds, some obvious backward-assimilation rules apply. Before voiced sounds, voiceless *s* turns into voiced *z* and then some particular developments ensure.

Visarga rules regularly apply to word final *s*, but sometimes also to *s* within words, in particular before endings or in composita. Quite a few of the visarga rules have been dealt with before. The rules can easily be memorized by looking at examples (mostly provided by Goldman and Goldman, 2011):

- ◇ *s* following any vowel but *a* or *ā*
 - absolute final position: *agnis* → *agniḥ*
 - before non-voiced initial that are
 - ⊙ palatal stops: *haris* + *calati* → *hariś calati* (BA)
 - ⊙ cerebral stops: *haris* + *tīkāṃ karoti* → *hariṣ tīkāṃ karoti* (BA)
 - ⊙ dental stops: *agnis* + *tīkṣṇaḥ* → *agnis tīkṣṇaḥ* (*s* is dental already)
 - ⊙ any other:
 - ▷ *haris* + *paśyati* → *hariḥ paśyati*
 - ▷ *haris* + *saṃharati* → *hariḥ saṃharati*
 - ▷ loc. pl. *manaḥ-su* besides *manas-su*)
 - before voiced initial:
 - ⊙ *agnis* + *iva* → *agnir iva*
 - ⊙ *gatir* + *nāsti* → *gatr nāsti*
- ◇ *s* following *a*
 - absolute final position: *rāmas* → *rāmaḥ* (as after other vowels, see above)
 - before non-voiced initial (just after other vowels, see above)
 - before voiced sounds that are
 - ⊙ consonants: *rāmas* + *gacchati* → *rāmo gacchati* (CpLz)
 - ⊙ vowel *a*: *rāmas* + *ayaṃ* → *rāmo 'yaṃ* (CpLz)
 - ⊙ other vowels: *rāmas* + *uvāca* → *rāma uvāca* (CpLz)

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◇ *s* following \bar{a}

- absolute final position: as after any other vowels
- before non-voiced initial (just after any other vowels)
- before voiced initial: $hat\bar{a}s + v\bar{r}\bar{a}s \rightarrow hat\bar{a} v\bar{r}\bar{a}h$ (**CpLz**)

These rules are addressed by **Vis**.

B.3.9. Laryngeal sound laws

Laryngeals were involved in modifying some consonants:

Lar_ CH	ie. CHV	\rightarrow	CV
in particular:	ie. $P^{vd,unasp}h_2$	\rightarrow	$P^{vd,asp}$
	ie. th_2 / k^wh_2	\rightarrow	th / kh
	ie. ph_3	\rightarrow	b

The laryngeal in the sequence CHV tends to be dropped without a trace. However, there are important exceptions, both before V and before C . First, after voiced unaspirated plosives, the laryngeal h_2 effected aspiration as in

lat./ogr. $eg\bar{o}$
\leftarrow ie. $*h_1egoh_2/h_1egoh_2m$
$\rightarrow h_1egh_2om$ (metathesis of o and h_2 , similar to Lar_ MTh)
$\rightarrow eghom$ (Lar_ V , Lar_ CH)
$\rightarrow ehom$ (PPal)
$\rightarrow aham$ ($a\bar{a}$)

and in the difficult cases of

ie. $*dhug-h_2ter$
$\rightarrow dhughiter$ (Lar_ CH , Lar_ V , with two effects from one laryngeal)
$\rightarrow dughiter$ (DA)
$\rightarrow dughitar$ ($a\bar{a}$)
$\rightarrow duhitar$ (SPal)

and

ogr. $mega$
\leftarrow ie. $*megh_2-os/megh_2$
$\rightarrow meg\bar{h}i$ (Lar_ CH , Lar_ V , with two effects from one laryngeal)
$\rightarrow mehi$ (PPal)
$\rightarrow mahi$ ($a\bar{a}$)

For the two remaining sound laws see *sthā*, *tiṣṭhati* (“to stand”) on p. 80 and *pā*, *pi-ba-ti* (“to drink”) on p. 81.

B.3.10. Old Indian *h*

In contrast to the usual procedure (from ie. to oi.), we now observe where Old Indian *h* comes from. The following long list is somewhat disconcerting. Oi. *h* may regularly originate

- ◇ from ie. palatal *gh* (**PPal**)
- ◇ from ie. velar *gh* or from ie. labiovelar *g^wh* (**SPal**)

It may also be dialectal from

- ◇ ie. *dh* (see PPP *hita* of *dhā*) or
- ◇ ie. *bh* (see oi. *grh* besides oi. *grbh* “to grab”)

In a surprising manner (other ie. languages do not show aspiration), oi. *h* is seen in these examples:

- ◇ oi. *hanu* “chin” versus lat. *gena* ~ nhg. *Kinn*
- ◇ oi. *hṛd* (“heart”) versus lat. *cor*, *cordis* where *h* represents an ie. (voiceless!) palatal (ie. **kerd*)

And, finally, see the previous laryngeal subsection for *aham*, *duhitar*, and *mahi*.

B.4. Middle and New Indian

B.4.1. Introductory remark

There are several Middle Indian languages, the oldest one being Pali which was primarily used in Buddhist scriptures. Other Middle Indian languages are Śaurasenī, Māghadhī, or Māhārāṣṭrī. These languages are normally addressed by Prakrit or Prakrits. The sound laws that differentiate Middle Indian (mi.) from Old Indian (oi.) are complicated and differ between the Middle Indian languages. We mostly use Pali (pa.) when we look for Middle Indian examples, but sometimes also Prakrit (pkt.). While Classical Sanskrit (in the sense of Pāṇini) is not a mother tongue of Pali or of (a) Prakrit, it is surely more conservative than these Middle Indian languages in most respects. Counterexamples exist such as pa. *idha* (“here”) versus oi. (even ved.) *iha* which is “newer” (see pp. 53). Or consider the thematic present tense participle oi. and ved. *a-māna* (see p. 248). While acknowledging that Pali is sometimes more conservative than Sanskrit, we still feel justified to use the arrow \rightarrow in

$$\text{oi. } \textit{ava} \rightarrow \text{mi. } \textit{o}$$

or

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$$\text{oi. } dugdha \rightarrow \text{pa. } duddha$$

Middle Indian features (as shown in Pali) are already present in Vedic scriptures. In contrast, Apabhraṃśa develops later, as of 500 A.D.

B.4.2. Vowels and diphthongs

Different sources of *o* and *e*

The vowels oi. *a*, *i*, and *u*, both short and long, are generally preserved as such. If, after loss of a consonant, *i* or *u* come to stand after another vowel, they are written as *ĩ* or *ũ*, respectively.

Oi. *ē* and *ô* are also preserved. Remember that these oi. vowels are long. In Middle Indian, we have both short and long *e* and *o* that we distinguish in writing by *ě* or *ē*, and *ō* or *ō̄*, respectively.

Now, mi. *ē* and *ō̄* basically have three origins:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{oi. } \acute{e}/\acute{a}i/aya &\rightarrow \text{mi. } \bar{e} \\ \text{oi. } \acute{o}/\acute{a}u/ava &\rightarrow \text{mi. } \bar{o} \end{aligned}$$

They may be shortened due to the law of morae (see below). Consider the example of

$$\text{oi. } t\acute{a}ila \text{ ("oil")} \rightarrow \text{pa. } t\bar{e}la \sim \text{pkt. } t\acute{e}lla$$

Since oi. *p* may develop into mi. *v*, we obtain the following corollary to the above sound law

$$\text{oi. } apa \rightarrow \text{mi. } \acute{o} \rightarrow \text{mi. } \bar{o}$$

Mi. *ē* has additional sources:

$$\text{oi. } \bar{a}yi/ayi/avi \rightarrow \text{mi. } \bar{e}$$

Thus, oi. long diphthongs *âi* or *âu* are not preserved in Middle Indian.

The law of morae

The law of morae states that a syllable with a long vowel cannot be closed. If we have an oi. word with a long vowel followed by two consonants, in Middle Indian, either the long vowel has to be shortened or the double consonant simplified. This can be seen in oi. *upêkṣā* which corresponds to both

- ◇ pa. *upêkkhā* (short vowel and double consonant) and
- ◇ pa. *upēkhā* (long vowel and single consonant)

A variant of this law can be seen in the doubling of consonants:

- ◇ oi. *ēka* ("one") → pkt. *ěkka*

- ◇ oi. *êvam* (“thus”) → pkt. *ěvvam*
- ◇ oi. *tâilam* (“oil”) → pkt. *tëlla*
- ◇ oi. *nakha* (“finger nail”) → pkt. *nakkha*
- ◇ oi. *yâuvanam* (“youth”) → pkt. *jövvana*

We summarize:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{LawOfMorae} & \text{oi. } \bar{V}CC \rightarrow \text{mi. } \check{V}CC/\bar{V}C \\ & \text{oi. } \bar{V}C \rightarrow \text{mi. } \check{V}CC \end{array}$$

Anaptyxis or svarabhakti

An “inserted vowel” is regularly found between two consonants, one of which is a resonant (R), i.e., a nasal (N), a liquid (L), or a halfvowel (hV). The inserted vowel is often i :

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{oi. } RC & \rightarrow \text{mi. } RiC \\ \text{oi. } CR & \rightarrow \text{mi. } CiR \end{array}$$

However, u can serve in this position in two cases:

- ◇ near half vowel v or
- ◇ near labials

This phenomenon is called anaptyxis or, in Sanskrit, svarabhakti. Here, we have some examples:

- ◇ oi. *klinna* (PPP of *klid*, “to get wet”) → pkt. *kiliṇṇa* (see also p. 57) oi. *varṣa* (“rain”) → pkt. *varisa* (together with oi. $\acute{s}/\grave{s}/s \rightarrow$ mi. s)
- ◇ oi. *padma* (“lotus”) → pa. *paduma* ~ pkt. *paüma*
- ◇ oi. *śvas* (“tomorrow”) → pkt. *suvo* (near half vowel v)
- ◇ oi. *smarati* (“he remembers”) → pa. *sarati* ~ pkt. *sumaradi* (near labial m)
- ◇ oi. *harṣa* (“joy, delight”) → pkt. *harisa*

Vocalic r

Oi. r turns into i , a , or u :

$$\text{oi. } r \rightarrow \text{mi. } \begin{cases} i, & \text{after or before light vowel} \\ u, & \text{after labial} \\ i/a, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

as can be seen in these examples. We have

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- ◇ oi. *ṛ* → mi. *i* after or before front vowel
 - oi. *ṛṣi* (“seer”) → pa. *isi*
 - oi. *kṛmi* (“worm”) → pa. *kimi* (see also pp. 62)
 - u.at. **śṛthra* (“loose”, *ra*-adjective of *śrath* (“to loosen, to resolve”)) → pkt. *śithira* (in the *Ṛgveda*!), also a svarabhakti example
- ◇ oi. *ṛ* → mi. *u* after labial
 - oi. *pṛcchati* (“he asks”) → pa. *pucchati*
- ◇ oi. *ṛ* → mi. *i/a* otherwise
 - oi. *ṛṇa* (“debt”) → pa. *iṇa*
 - oi. *kṛta* (PPP of *kr*) → pkt. *kida* (see subsection B.4.3, pp. 58)
 - oi. *gṛha* (“house”) → pa. *gaha*
 - oi. *bhṛta* (“servant”) → pa. *bhata*

B.4.3. Consonants

General rules

We now turn to consonants. The development is often complicated and differs between Middle Indian languages. We give a rough outline of phonetic changes first, before turning to examples. You need to remember:

- ◇ *n* is typically cerebralized, *d* and *t* are often cerebralized near *r* or *ṛ*.
- ◇ The three sibilants are reduced to one, normally *s*.
- ◇ *s* before *p* or *k* may aspirate the plosive and vanish.
- ◇ Unvoiced plosives tend to become voiced.
- ◇ Final plosives are dropped.
- ◇ Intervocal non-aspirated gutturals, palatals and dentals, both unvoiced and voiced, often disappear.
- ◇ In clusters,
 - when two plosives meet, we have backward assimilation;
 - when different types of sounds meet, assimilation (backward or forward) occurs according to some hierarchy given below.

We now turn to the individual rules, roughly in the above order.

Cerebralization

- ◇ Dentals often become cerebral, in particular near *r* or *ṛ*:
 - oi. *patita* (PPP of *pat*, “to fall”) → pkt. *paḍida*
 - oi. *prathama* (“first, prior, principal”) → pkt. *paḍhama*
- ◇ *n* is often cerebralized as in
 - oi. *nayana* (“driving, eye”) → pkt. *ṇaṇa*
 - oi. *bhōjana* (“eating, nutrition”) → pkt. *bhoṇa*

Other cerebral peculiarities

We sometimes see lenition, as in

$$\text{mi. } t/\text{th}/\text{th} \rightarrow \text{mi. } d/\text{dh}/\text{dh}$$

This developement is best seen as one occuring within Middle Indian:

- ◇ skt./pkt. *kuṭumba* (“family”) → pkt. *kuḍumba*
- ◇ skt./pkt. *vaṭa* (“fig tree”) → pkt. *vaḍa*

ḍ is then sometimes changed into *ḷ* as in

- ◇ oi. *krīḍā* (“game”) → pkt. *kḷā*

Convergence of the three sibilants

The sound law according to which the three sibilants converge can be written as

$$\text{oi. } ś/\ṣ/\textit{s} \rightarrow \text{mi. } s$$

Examples are

- ◇ oi. *pra-viś-a-ti* (“he enters”) → pa. *pa-vis-a-ti*
- ◇ oi. *bhāṣati* (“he speaks”) → pa. *bhāṣati*
- ◇ oi. *śaśa* (“hare”) → pa. *sasa*
- ◇ oi. *śiṣya* (“pupil”) → pa. *sissa* (see also pp. 62)

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Aspiration, compensatory and otherwise

In some cases, *s* is dropped, but aspirates the accompanied plosive:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \text{oi. } sp & \rightarrow & \text{mi. } ph \\ \text{oi. } ks & \rightarrow & \text{mi. } kh \end{array}$$

Thus, *sP(h)* is best seen as a Middle Indian development. Here are some examples:

- ◇ oi. *kṣatriya* (“warrior”) → pkt. *khattia*
- ◇ oi. *kṣipta* (PPP of oi. *kṣip*) → pkt. *khitta*
- ◇ oi. *spr̥ṣati* (“touches”) → pa. *phusati* ~ pkt. *phusai*

Alternatively, we may find *ch* rather than *kh*, as in

- ◇ oi. *kṣatta* (“wounded”) → pa. *khatta* → pkt. *chaya/khaya*
- ◇ oi. *kṣetra* (“field”) → pa. *khēṭṭa* → pkt. *chēṭṭa/khēṭṭa*

After a vowel, we have both compensatory aspiration for deleted *s* and compensatory doubling:

- ◇ oi. *akṣi*, n. (“eye”) → pkt. *akkhi*
- ◇ oi. *asti* (“he is”) → pkt. *atthi*
- ◇ oi. *hasta* (“hand”) → pkt. *hattha*

Aspiration of both *k* and *p* may sometimes occur without the presence of *s*:

- ◇ oi. *kubja* (“crooked, bent”) → pkt. *khujja*
- ◇ skt./pkt. *vaṭa* (“fig tree”) → u.at. **vatha* → pkt. **vadha*

Intervocalic lenition or loss of non-aspirated plosives

Between vowels, we may find

$$\begin{array}{lll} \text{oi. } g/j/d & \rightarrow & \text{mi. } \emptyset \\ \text{oi. } k/c/t & \rightarrow & \text{mi. } \emptyset \end{array}$$

Note that these plosives sometimes remain or that the unvoiced ones are voiced:

$$\text{oi. } t \rightarrow \text{mi. } d$$

Examples:

- ◇ oi. *avalokita* (“looked at”) → pkt. *ālōia*
- ◇ oi. *ēti* (“he goes”) →

- Śaurasenī pkt. *ēdi*
 - Māhārāṣṭrī pkt. *ēi*
- ◇ oi. *nakula* (“mongoose”) → pkt. *naula*
- ◇ oi. *nagaram* (“town”) → pkt. *nayara* (where *y* occurs to avoid hiatus)
- ◇ oi. *bhōjanam* (“eating, nutrition”) → pkt. *bhoṇa*
- ◇ oi. *latā* (“creeper”) →
- Śaurasenī pkt. *ladā*
 - Māhārāṣṭrī pkt. *laā*
- ◇ oi. *loka* (“world”) →
- Śaurasenī pkt. *loga*
 - Māhārāṣṭrī pkt. *lōa*
- ◇ oi. *śauca* (“cleanness”) → pkt. *sōa*
- ◇ oi. *sakala* (“total, complete”) → pkt. *saala*
- ◇ oi. *hita* (PPP of *dhā*) →
- Śaurasenī pkt. *hida*
 - Māhārāṣṭrī pkt. *hia*

Note that these plosives sometimes remain or that the unvoiced ones are voiced. Examples for voiced consonants for unvoiced ones are

- ◇ oi. *athiti* (“guest”) → pkt. *adhidi*
- ◇ oi. *kṛta* (PPP of *kṛ*) → pkt. *kida*
- ◇ oi. *gata* (PPP of *gam*) → pkt. *gada*

Intervocalic lenition or loss of aspirated plosives

In line with the above sound laws

$$\begin{aligned} \text{oi. } k/c/t &\rightarrow \text{mi. } \emptyset \\ \text{oi. } g/j/d &\rightarrow \text{mi. } \emptyset \end{aligned}$$

we find

$$\begin{aligned} \text{oi. } kh/gh &\rightarrow \text{mi. } h \\ \text{oi. } th/dh &\rightarrow \text{mi. } h \\ \text{oi. } ph/bh &\rightarrow \text{mi. } h \end{aligned}$$

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Consider these examples:

- ◇ oi. *atha* (“and, now”) →
 - Śaurasenī pkt. *adha*
 - Māhārāṣṭrī pkt. *aha*
- ◇ oi. *katham* (“how? in what manner?”) →
 - Śaurasenī pkt. *kadham*
 - Māhārāṣṭrī pkt. *kaham*
- ◇ oi. *nakha* (“finger nail”) → pkt. *ṇaha*
- ◇ oi. *mukha* (“mouth”) → pkt. *muha*
- ◇ oi. *mêgha* (“cloud”) → pkt. *mēha*
- ◇ oi. *vadhū* (“bride”) → pkt. *vahū*

But *ph* is often retained at the beginning of a second member of a compound:

- ◇ oi. *citra-phalakam* (“painting”) → pkt. *citta-phalaa*

Consonants: initial palatalization

Word-initially, palatal sounds evolve in Middle Indian through different avenues. The sound law

$$\text{oi. } y \rightarrow \text{mi. } j$$

can readily be witnessed in

- ◇ oi. *yathā* → pkt. *jathā*
- ◇ oi. *yuddha* (“battle”) → pkt. *juddha*
- ◇ oi. *yôgī* → pkt. *jōgī*

but see also (in non-initial position): oi. *āryaputra* → pkt. *ajjaūtta*

Dentals together with *y* may also produce palatals:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{oi. } ty &\rightarrow \text{mi. } c \\ \text{oi. } dy &\rightarrow \text{mi. } j \\ \text{oi. } dhy &\rightarrow \text{mi. } jh \end{aligned}$$

We have these examples:

- ◇ oi. *tyāga* (“abandonment”) → pa. *cāga*
- ◇ oi. *dyūta* (“gambling”) → pa. *jūta*
- ◇ oi. *dhyānam* (“meditation”) → pa. *jhāna*

Consonants: initial peculiarities

We can note some further initial peculiarities. Word-initial aspiration of *k* and *p* sometimes occurs without *s* before them:

$$\text{oi. } k/p \rightarrow \text{mi. } kh/ph$$

In the oi. root *bhū*, we often have mi. *h* for *bh* and find

- ◇ oi. and pa. *bhav-a-ti* (“he is”) versus pkt. *ho-ti* or even *hoī*
- ◇ oi. *bhav-i-sy-a-ti* (“he will be”) → pkt. *havissadi* (see subsection B.4.3)

Consonants: other peculiarities

Oi. *p* may develop into *v* or may be dropped: Since the loss of *p* occurred via *b* and *v*, *b* and *v* are also sometimes dropped:

- ◇ oi. *rūpam* (“form, beauty”) → pkt. *rūa*
- Oi. *y* tends to be dropped:
- ◇ oi. *priya* (“dear, pleasant”) → pkt. *pia* (see subsection B.4.3)
- ◇ oi. *vi-yoga* (“disjunction, separation”) → pkt. *vioa*

Clusters: Backward assimilation for non-palatal plosives

If two non-palatal plosives meet, the first is assimilated to the second. I.e., we have sound laws like

$$\text{oi. } pt \rightarrow \text{mi. } tt$$

It is easy to find examples

- ◇ oi. *utkramati* (“he ascends”) → pa. *ukkamati*
- ◇ oi. *dugdha* (“milk”) → pa. *duddha*
- ◇ oi. *labdha* (PPP *labh*, “to obtain”) → pa. *laddha*
- ◇ oi. *vāk-pati-rāja* (“king who is also a master of language”) → pkt. *vap-pai-rāa*
- ◇ oi. *śabda* (“sound”) → pa. *sadda*
- ◇ oi. *sakta* (“attached”) → pa. *satta* (as in oi. **bodhisakta* (“who clings to enlightenment”) → *bodhisatta*)
- ◇ oi. *sapta* (“seven”) → pa. *satta*

Clusters: hierarchical assimilation

The case of clusters involving two non-palatal plosives has been considered above. We now turn to many other possibilities. It turns out that a hierarchy of sounds provides a generalization of many different sound laws. This is the hierarchy:

$$P_{\text{unpal}} > S > N > P_{\text{pal}} > l > v > y > r$$

The hierarchy rule states that the stronger sound influences the weaker one. Here, assimilation can be backward or forward. This hierarchy can also be applied in word-initial positions, but then only one consonant can remain. Thus, we have simple consonants in word-initial positions and double consonants in medial positions.

Non-palatal plosives are strongest:

- ◇ oi. *agni* (“fire”) → pa. *aggi*
- ◇ oi. *ardha* (“half”) → mi. *addha*/*aḍḍha*
- ◇ oi. *alpa* (“small”) → pa. *appa*
- ◇ oi. *kalpa* (“eon, ritual, rule”) → pa. *kappa*
- ◇ oi. *triloka* (“three worlds”) → pkt. *tilōa*
- ◇ oi. *tvacam* (“skin”) → pa. *taco*
- ◇ oi. *durbala* (“weak”) → pkt. *dubbala*
- ◇ oi. *dṛṣṭi* (“sight”) → pkt. *diṭṭhi*
- ◇ oi. *dṛṣya* (“visible”) → pkt. *dassa*
- ◇ oi. *dviḥ* (“twice born”) → pa. *diḥ*
- ◇ oi. *pakva* (“cooked, ripe”) → pa. *pakka*
- ◇ oi. *bharta* → mi. *bhatta*
- ◇ oi. *yogyā* (“exercise”) → pa. *yōggā* (law of morae)
- ◇ oi. *rātrī* (“night”) → pa. *rattī* (law of morae)
- ◇ oi. *śak-no-ti* (“he is able”) → pa. *sak-kō-ti*

Palatals are weaker than nasals:

- ◇ oi. *ājñāpayati* (“he orders”) → pkt. *āṇāvēdi*
- ◇ oi. *yajñam* (“sacrifice”) → pkt. *jaṇṇa*

Sibilants occupy second position in hierarchy:

- ◇ oi. *śvara* (“lord”) → pa. *issara*
- ◇ oi. *dr̥ṣya* (“visible”) → pa. *dassa*
- ◇ oi. *var̥ṣa* (“rain”) → pa. *vassa*
- ◇ oi. *śyāma* (“dark”) → pa. *sāma*
- ◇ oi. *sahasra* (“thousand”) → pa. *sahassa*
- ◇ oi. *sravati* (“it flows”) → pa. *savati*

***r* is weakest:**

- ◇ oi. *argha* (“price”) → pkt. *aggha*
- ◇ oi. *ardha* (“half”) → pkt. *addha*
- ◇ oi. *ava-tīr̥ṇa* (“come down”, PPP of *tṛ̥*, see p. 118) → pkt. *o-iñṇa*
- ◇ oi. *kar̥ṇa* (“ear”) → pa. *kaṇṇa*
- ◇ oi. *priya* (“dear, pleasant”) → pa. *pīa*
- ◇ oi. *grāma* (“village”) → pa. *gāma*
- ◇ oi. *cakram* (“wheel”) → pa. *cakka*
- ◇ oi. *durlabha* (“difficult to obtain”) → pa. *dullabha*
- ◇ oi. *dharma* (“religion, duty”) → pa. *dhamma*
- ◇ oi. *putra* (“son”) → pa. *putta*
- ◇ oi. *mārga* (“path”) → pkt. *magga*
- ◇ oi. *vajra* (“thunderbolt”) → pkt. *vajja*
- ◇ oi. *varga* (“class, tribe”) → pa. *vagga*
- ◇ oi. *vipra* (“Brahmin”) → pa. *vippa*
- ◇ oi. *vyagra* (“indifferent, undisturbed”) → pa. *vagga*
- ◇ oi. *vr̥hi* (“rice”) → pa. *vīhi*

Exceptions to the above hierarchy concern three groups:

1. Dental + *y* yields new palatals (where voice and aspiration remains):
 - ◇ oi. *tyāga* (“abandonment”) → pa. *cāga*

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- ◇ oi. *dyūta* (“gambling”) → pa. *jūta*
- ◇ oi. *dhyānam* (“meditation”) → pa. *jhāna*
- 2. Cluster *kṣ* may regularly yield *kh* as in oi. *kṣatriya* (“warrior”) → pkt. *khattia*
- 3. Nasals before plosives remain:
 - ◇ oi. *anika* (“mark, sign”) → pa. *anika*
 - ◇ oi. *kampa* (“tremble”) → pa. *kampa*
 - ◇ oi. *danta* (“tooth”) → pa. *danta*
 - ◇ oi. *pañca* (“five”) → pa. *pañca*
 - ◇ oi. *mantram* (“spell”) → pa. *manta*

B.4.4. A few New Indian developments

Building on mi. features, the modern Indian languages developed. With respect to Hindi (hi.), we find three major developments:

1. Middle Indian double consonants are simplified with two effects:
 - a) The preceding vowel is lengthened (compensatory lengthening).
 - b) In Hindi (more than in some other New Indian languages), this compensatory lengthening often (not always) occurs together with nasalisation.
2. A very similar development is witnessed for *NP* sequences:
 - a) The consonant cluster is simplified and only the plosive remains.
 - b) The preceding vowel is lengthened and nasalised. Of course, since the nasal is present, here, in the first place, this nasalisation is no surprise.
3. In Apabhraṃśa, Middle Indian final long vowels are shortened. In New Indian, final short vowels are lost.

Together, these three developments clearly show in these examples.

1. Double consonants simplified without nasalisation:
 - ◇ oi. *dugdha* (“milk”) → pa. *duddha* → hi. *dūdh*
 - ◇ oi. *rātrī* (“night”) → pa. *rattī* → hi. *rāt*
 - ◇ oi. *sapta* (“seven”) → pa. *satta* → hi. *sāt*
2. Double consonants simplified with nasalisation (where \tilde{a} stands for nasalised \bar{a}):
 - ◇ oi. *akṣi*, n. (“eye”) → pkt. *akkhi* → hi. $\tilde{ā}kh$
 - ◇ oi. *sarpa* (“serpent”) → pa. *sappa* → hi. $\tilde{sāp}$
3. Nasal lost under nasalisation and compensatory lengthening

- ◇ oi. *anika* (“mark, sign”) → pa. *anika* → hi. *āṅk*
- ◇ oi. *kampa* (“tremble”) → pa. *kampa* → hi. *kāṅp*
- ◇ oi. *danta* (“tooth”) → pa. *danta* → hi. *dāṅt*
- ◇ oi. *pañca* (“five”) → pa. *pañca* → hi. *pāṅc*

B.5. Sound laws of other ie. languages

Linking Sanskrit words to words in English or German, or to Latin and Greek foreign words is helpful in learning the abundant Sanskrit vocabulary. Therefore, we now give a summary of the important sound laws involving these languages. Many of the sound laws for Old Indian have already been considered in the previous sections. I apologize in advance for favouring High German which will take quite a lot of pages. Good for German speakers, mainly useless for others.

B.5.1. Vowels and diphthongs

The most dramatic vowel changes in the Indo-European language family concerns the Indo-Iranian shift towards *a* and *ā*. Sometimes one can reconstruct Indo-European words by taking the Sanskrit consonants and the Greek vowels. For example,

$$\text{ie. } *bher \rightarrow \begin{cases} \text{oi. } bhar- \\ \text{ogr. } pher- \\ \text{lat. } fer- \\ \text{e. } bear \end{cases}$$

We will deal with a few vowel changes, only. For Latin, we need to remember

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{LAT_V} & \text{ie. } e \text{ before } u \text{ or } v \rightarrow \text{lat. } o \\ & \text{olat. } ei \rightarrow \text{lat. } \bar{i} \end{array}$$

With respect to the first line, we have ie. **nevōs* (“new”) → lat. *novus* whence many foreign words such as *novice* or *re-novate*. In contrast the Greek-based foreign words show *e*, as in *neo-liberal* or *Neolithic*.

For the second line, consider lat. *dīcere* (“to say”) that goes back to olat. *deicere* with PPP in zero grade *dictum*. See *diś* in the dictionary.

For the benefit of German speakers, we mention a few sound laws that will become important later on. Germanic unstressed syllables tend to be dropped or turned into the “schwa”-sound (which is nicely called “Murmelvokal” in German). Examples are e. *seven* and nhg. *sieben* and e. *eat* versus nhg. *essen*.

On top, consider these (selective!) developments for New High German:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{NHG_V} & \text{ie. } a/o \rightarrow \text{nhg. } a \\ & \text{ie. } \bar{a}/\bar{o} \rightarrow \text{nhg. } \bar{u} \\ & \text{ie. } e \rightarrow \text{nhg. } i \end{array}$$

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For the first line, consider

- ◇ ie. **oktō* → lat. *octō* ~ nhg. *acht*
- ◇ lat. *toga* ~ nhg. *Dach*
- ◇ lat. *monere* ~ nhg. *mahnen*

The second line finds some confirmation the the pronounced, not the written, German:

- ◇ lat. *cārus* (“dear”, fr. *cher*) ~ e. *whore* ~ nhg. *Hure*
- ◇ ie. **b^hrātēr* → lat. *frāter* ~ nhg. *Bruder*

And here two examples for the third line:

- ◇ ie. **b^hend^h* → oi. *bandh* ~ nhg. *binden*
- ◇ ie. **esti* → lat. *est* ~ oi. *asti* ~ nhg. *ist*

B.5.2. Syllabic Indo-European nasals and liquids

Indo-European knew syllabic nasals and liquids, probably both short and long. Concentrating on the short ones, we have the following sound laws for syllabic nasals:

$$\mathbf{IE_SY_N} \quad \text{ie. } \underset{\circ}{n}/\underset{\circ}{m} \rightarrow \begin{cases} \text{oi. } \begin{cases} an/am & \text{bef. vowel} \\ a/a & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ \text{ogr. } \begin{cases} an/am & \text{bef. vowel} \\ a/a & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ \text{lat. } \begin{cases} in/im & \text{word-initial} \\ en/em & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ \text{e. } un/um \sim \text{nhg. } un/um \end{cases}$$

A very instructive example is the negating prefix ie. *n̥*.

- ◇ Sanskrit examples between consonants: *a-gatika* (“without way out”), *a-kriya* (“lazy”), *a-kāla* (“wrong time”), *a-nāyaka* (“without leader”), *a-ratha* (“without charriot”), *a-putra* (“without son”)
- ◇ Sanskrit examples before vowel: *an-anta* (“without end”), *an-ātma-jñā* (“not knowing oneself”)
- ◇ Germanic examples: nhg. *un-gläubig*, e. *un-happy*, e. *un-believable*
- ◇ Greek-based B: *a-theist*, *an-archy*
- ◇ Latin-based B: *in-effective*, *im-perfect*

We sometimes have mixtures such as

- ◇ *a-social* (the first part Greek, the second Latin)
- ◇ German *un-effektiv* (German-Latin)

The past participle is build with the zero grade. Compare nhg. *ge-bund-en* with oi. *bad-dha*, both from ie. **bh_ondh_o*.

Syllabic liquids follow these sound laws:

$$\text{IE_SY_L} \quad \text{ie. } r_{\circ}/l_{\circ} \rightarrow \begin{cases} \text{oi. } \begin{cases} r \text{ or } l (!) & \text{between cons.} \\ ur/ur & \text{before vowels, after labials} \\ ir/ir (?) & \text{before vowels, not after labials} \end{cases} \\ \text{ogr. } \begin{cases} (ra,ar)/(la,al) & \text{bef. vowel} \\ a/a & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ \text{lat. } \begin{cases} (or,ur)/(ol,ul) & \text{betw. cons.} \\ er/el & \text{otherwise} \end{cases} \\ \text{e. } or/ol \sim \text{nhg. } or/ol \end{cases}$$

Consider a few examples

- ◇ ie. **wr_ok^w* → oi. *vrka* ~ e. *wolf* ~ nhg. *Wolf*
- ◇ ie. **dr_ok[´]* → oi. *drś*
- ◇ ie. **g^wr_ou* → oi. *guru* ~ ogr. *baru* as in the B *baro-meter*
- ◇ ie. **plh₁u* → oi. *puru*

Note the exception of word-initial ie. *m* before a resonant:

- ◇ oi. *mlāta* (“faded, tanned (said of leather)”)
- ◇ oi. *√mnā* (“to mention”).

B.5.3. Ablaut in English and German

In English and German, we have weak and strong verbs. An example of a weak verb is

	English	German
infinitive	to <i>love</i>	<i>lieben</i>
imperfect	I <i>loved</i>	ich <i>liebte</i>
perfect	I have <i>loved</i>	ich habe <i>geliebt</i>

where the root vowel does not change. In strong verbs, the root vowel changes due to vowel gradation (ablaut). Consider, for example, the German *werden* with

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full grade *er*: *werden* (“to become”)
o-grade *or*: *ward* (“he became”), *a* as in ie. **oktō* → nhg. *acht*
 zero grade *r*: *geworden* (PPP “become”), as in *Wolf*, p. 67

According to this pattern, we also find (due to sound laws or due to analogy):

- ◇ *werben, warb, geworden*
- ◇ *werfen, warf, geworfen*
- ◇ *bergen, barg, geborgen*
- ◇ *sterben, starb, gestorben*
- ◇ *helfen, half, geholfen*

With *n* instead of *r*, we have

full grade *en*: *finden* (“to find”)
o-grade *on*: *fand* (“he found”), *a* as in ie. **oktō* → nhg. *acht*
 zero grade *n*: *gefunden* (PPP “found”)

The English language also shows this ablaut pattern:

	English	German
full grade	sing	singen
<i>o</i> -grade	sang	sang
zero grade	sung	gesungen

B.5.4. Consonants: From Indo-European to Greek, Latin, and Germanic

Non-aspirated consonants

ie. *p/t/k* and ie. *b/d/g*

remain the same in Greek and Latin as in Indo-European. That part is easy.

Voiced aspirated sound are more interesting.

OGR	ie. <i>bh/dh/gh</i>	→ ogr. <i>ph/th/kh</i> (written)
	ie. <i>k^w/g^w/g^wh</i> before cons., <i>a</i> , <i>i</i> , or <i>o</i>	→ ogr. <i>p/b/ph</i> (written)
	ie. <i>k^w/g^w/g^wh</i> before <i>e</i>	→ ogr. <i>t/d/th</i> (written)
	ie. <i>k^w/g^w/g^wh</i> before or after nasal	→ ogr. <i>k/g/ch</i> (written)
	ie. <i>v</i>	→ ogr. <i>∅</i>
	ie. <i>s</i>	→ ogr. <i>h</i>

You will not forget the first line. It is responsible for the fact that you can often recognize Greek foreign words by

- ◇ *ph*: *philosophy*, *phobia*
- ◇ *th*: *theology*, *theatre*, *mathematics*
- ◇ *ch*: *chlorine*, *Christopher*

Lines 2 through 4 are concerned with ie. labiovelars. While the velar element is lost, the result varies a lot depending on the environment. Aspirated voiced labiovelars undergo two changes. First, they turn into voiced labial, dental, or velar sounds, respectively. Second, they undergo the changes of the first line. Thus, g^wh before *e* finally turns into *th* as in gr. B *thermic* (s.v. *gharma*).

For the fifth line of **OGR** compare

- ◇ lat. *vox* with gr. B *epic* (see dictionary at *vac*)
- ◇ lat. B *vicinity* with gr. B *economics*
- ◇ oi. *kravis* with ogr. *kreas* ← ie. $*kreuh_2s-$

Turning to the sixth line, ie. *s* is voiceless and remains in most ie. languages. However, Greek is an interesting exception. The contrast of ie. *s*, preserved in Latin, with Greek *h* clearly shows up in these examples:

lat. <i>sex</i>	~	agr. <i>hex</i> (as in <i>hexagon</i>)
lat. <i>septem</i>	~	agr. <i>hepta</i> (as in <i>heptagon</i>)
it. B <i>sal-to</i>	~	agr. <i>hal-ma</i> (as in board game)
e. <i>same</i>	~	gr.-lat. B <i>homo-sexual</i>
lat. B <i>semi-final</i>	~	gr. B <i>hemi-sphere</i>
lat. B <i>serpent</i>	~	gr. B <i>herpes</i> (a skin disease, spreading like a snake)

Similar to Sanskrit, but in an independent development, Grassmann's law applies also in Greek. The first of two aspirated sounds becomes deaspirated:

$$\mathbf{OGR_DA} \quad \text{ie. } C^{\text{asp}} VC^{\text{asp}} \rightarrow \text{oi. } C^{\text{unasp}} VC^{\text{asp}}$$

In Latin, the development ie. $b^h/d^h/g^h$ is complicated. It pays to remember

$$\mathbf{LAT_f} \quad \text{ie. } b^h/d^h/g^h \text{ word-initial} \rightarrow \text{lat. } f$$

For example, ie. $*b^hreg$ leads to the lat. FWs *frag-ile* or *fraction*. Second, ie. g^w lost the velar element:

$$\mathbf{LAT_v} \quad \text{ie. } g^w \text{ word-initial} \rightarrow \text{lat. } v$$

See lat. B *vital* (s.v. *jīv*).

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An ie. *s* between vowels regularly turned into Latin *r*, a process sometimes called rhotazism:

$$\text{LAT_sr} \quad \text{ie. } s \text{ intervocalic} \rightarrow \text{lat. } r$$

See lat. B *vīrus* (s.v. *viša*).

A final Latin sound law that is often applied concerns two dentals that come into contact. They are replaced by *ss*:

$$\text{LAT_DD} \quad \text{ie. } DD \rightarrow \text{lat. } ss$$

The consonantal development from Indo-European to Germanic is often called the “first consonant shift”. Most Germanic consonants remain in English. The first consonant shift is governed by these sound laws:

$$\begin{array}{lll} \text{GER} & \text{ie. } p/t/k & \rightarrow \text{germ. } f/p/h \\ & \text{ie. } b/d/g & \rightarrow \text{germ. } p/t/k \\ & \text{ie. } b^h/d^h/g^h & \rightarrow \text{germ. } b/d/g \end{array}$$

where *p* (first line) represents the voiceless interdental spirant. In words:

- ◇ Voiceless unaspirated *p/t/k* turn into fricatives. See
 - lat. *pecus* („cow“) as in the B *pecuniary* ~ e. *fee*
 - Latin based B *pedal* or *pedicure* ~ e. *foot*.
- ◇ Voiced unaspirated plosives turn voiceless. This can be seen from
 - lat. *ego* ~ Berlin low German *icke*
 - ital. *gelato* („ice“) ~ e. *cold*.
- ◇ Voiced aspirated sounds lose the aspiration. From ie. **b^hreg* one obtains lat. B *frag-ile* ~ e. *break*

B.5.5. Consonants: From Germanic and English to New High German

The second consonant shift (NHG_C)

The so-called first consonant shift refers to developments from ie. to germ. The second consonant shift concerns changes from germ. to High German. These changes are peculiar to German (and Swiss German), but do not occur in English, Danish, Swedish, low German etc.:

NHG _ C	germ. <i>t</i>	→	nhg.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} s/ss \text{ after vowel} \\ ts \text{ otherwise} \end{array} \right.$
	germ. <i>k</i>	→	nhg.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} ch \text{ after vowel} \\ k \text{ otherwise} \end{array} \right.$
	germ. <i>p</i>	→	nhg.	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} f/ff \text{ after vowel} \\ pf \text{ otherwise} \end{array} \right.$
	germ. <i>þ</i>	→	e. <i>th</i>	~ nhg. <i>d</i>
	germ. <i>d</i>	→	e. <i>d</i>	~ nhg. <i>t</i>

where *þ* (fourth line) represents the voiceless interdental spirant. Since English often preserves the Germanic consonants, we compare English (rather than Germanic or Gothic) with New High German. For the first line of **NHG** _ **C**, consider these examples after a vowel:

e. <i>eat</i> ~ nhg. <i>essen</i>	e. <i>nettle</i> ~ nhg. <i>Brennnessel</i>
e. <i>what</i> ~ nhg. <i>was</i>	e. <i>let</i> ~ nhg. <i>lassen</i>
e. <i>out</i> ~ nhg. <i>aus</i>	e. <i>shoot</i> ~ nhg. <i>schießen</i>
e. <i>white</i> ~ nhg. <i>weiß</i>	e. <i>goat</i> ~ nhg. <i>Geiß</i>
e. <i>hot</i> ~ nhg. <i>heiß</i>	e. <i>sprout</i> ~ nhg. <i>sprießen</i>

“Otherwise” in the above rule means “not after vowel” and hence word-initial or after consonants as in these examples:

e. <i>town</i> ~ nhg. <i>Zaun</i>	e. <i>timber</i> ~ nhg. <i>Zimmer</i>
e. <i>tide</i> ~ nhg. <i>Zeit</i>	e. <i>tongue</i> ~ nhg. <i>Zunge</i>
e. <i>tear</i> ~ nhg. <i>zerren</i>	e. <i>fif-ty</i> ~ nhg. <i>fünfzig</i>
e. <i>till</i> ~ nhg. <i>Ziel</i>	e. <i>ten</i> ~ nhg. <i>zehn</i>

The second line of **NHG** _ **C** concerns germ. *k*. We observe a word-initial change in Switzerland. For other High German speakers, a change occurs only “otherwise”:

e. <i>weak</i> ~ nhg. <i>weich</i>	e. <i>break</i> ~ nhg. <i>brechen</i>
e. <i>duck</i> ~ nhg. <i>tauchen</i>	e. <i>seek</i> ~ nhg. <i>suchen</i>
e. <i>lock</i> ~ nhg. <i>Loch</i>	e. <i>spoke</i> ~ nhg. <i>Speiche</i>
lat. <i>cocus</i> → e. <i>cook</i> ~ nhg. <i>Koch</i>	lat. <i>sīcilis</i> → <i>Sichel</i>

A final interesting example is lat. *sēcūrus* (← *sē cūrā*, “without worry, carefree → *sicher*”).

We now turn to the remaining unvoiced unaspirated sound, *p*. Similar to *t*, we have changes “after vowel” and “otherwise”:

e. <i>path</i> ~ nhg. <i>Pfad</i>	e. <i>hip</i> ~ nhg. <i>Hüfte</i>
e. <i>leap</i> ~ nhg. <i>laufen</i>	e. <i>heap</i> ~ nhg. <i>Haufen</i>
e. <i>sleep</i> ~ nhg. <i>schlafen</i>	e. <i>sheep</i> ~ nhg. <i>Schaf</i>

B. Sound laws

If we have a clear Latin-Germanic equation without the second consonant shift, the solution is borrowing as in

- ◇ lat. *planta* → B in English *plant* ~ B in German *Pflanze*
- ◇ lat. *piper* → B in English *pepper* ~ B in German *Pfeffer*

The developments for Germanic *p/t/k* are considered in the first three lines of **NHG_C**. Voiced labials and velars do not undergo any further changes. However, with respect to dentals, we observe the sound laws presented in the last two lines of **NHG_C**. Examples for the fourth line are easy to find:

e. <i>bath</i> ~ nhg. <i>Bad</i>	e. <i>oath</i> ~ nhg. <i>Eid</i>
e. <i>think</i> ~ nhg. <i>dünken</i> („mich dünkt“)	e. <i>path</i> ~ nhg. <i>Pfad</i>
e. <i>brother</i> ~ nhg. <i>Bruder</i>	e. <i>smith</i> ~ nhg. <i>Schmied</i>
e. <i>earth</i> ~ nhg. <i>Erde</i>	e. <i>that</i> ~ nhg. <i>das/dass</i>
e. <i>three</i> ~ nhg. <i>drei</i>	e. <i>thief</i> ~ nhg. <i>Dieb</i>
e. <i>through</i> ~ nhg. <i>durch</i>	e. <i>thing</i> ~ nhg. <i>Ding</i>
e. <i>thorn</i> ~ nhg. <i>Dorn</i>	e. <i>leather</i> ~ nhg. <i>Leder</i>
e. <i>thirst</i> ~ nhg. <i>Durst</i>	

Finally, for Germanic and English *d* we point to these examples:

e. <i>bed</i> ~ nhg. <i>Bett</i>	e. <i>drink</i> ~ nhg. <i>trinken</i>
e. <i>bed</i> ~ nhg. <i>Beet</i>	e. <i>duck</i> ~ nhg. <i>tauchen</i>
e. <i>board</i> ~ nhg. <i>Brett</i>	e. <i>deer</i> ~ nhg. <i>Tier</i>
e. <i>ride</i> ~ nhg. <i>reiten</i>	e. <i>lead</i> ~ nhg. <i>leiten</i>
e. <i>day</i> ~ nhg. <i>Tag</i>	e. <i>mood</i> ~ nhg. <i>Mut</i>
e. <i>deep</i> ~ nhg. <i>tief</i>	e. <i>daughter</i> ~ nhg. <i>Tochter</i>
e. <i>door</i> ~ nhg. <i>Tür</i>	e. <i>tide</i> ~ nhg. <i>Zeit</i>
e. <i>do</i> ~ nhg. <i>tun</i>	e. <i>under</i> ~ nhg. <i>unter</i>
e. <i>spade</i> ~ nhg. <i>Spaten</i>	e. <i>wide</i> ~ nhg. <i>weit</i>
e. <i>good</i> ~ nhg. <i>gut</i>	e. <i>widow</i> ~ nhg. <i>Witwe</i>
e. <i>red</i> ~ nhg. <i>rot</i>	e. <i>dear</i> ~ nhg. <i>teuer</i>
e. <i>ladder</i> ~ nhg. <i>Leiter</i>	e. <i>shoulder</i> ~ nhg. <i>Schulter</i>
e. <i>dead</i> ~ nhg. <i>tot</i>	e. <i>need</i> ~ nhg. <i>Not</i>
e. <i>seed</i> ~ nhg. <i>Saat</i>	e. <i>fold</i> ~ nhg. <i>falten</i>

Exceptions

Of course, no rules without exception (which gives rise to new, refined rules):

1. Germ. *t* remains after *f*, *s*, or *ch*:

- ◇ lat. *captivus* ~ nhg. *Haft*
 - ◇ e. *stone* ~ nhg. *Stein*, but not *Szein* (just you try)
 - ◇ e. *starve* ~ nhg. *sterben*
 - ◇ e. *is* ~ nhg. *ist* ← ie. **esti* → oi. *asti* (where *s* prevented the shift of *t* in both the first and the second consonant shifts)
2. Germ. *t* remains before *r*: e. *tree, true* ~ nhg. *Treue, Trost*
 3. Germ. *d* remains after *n*: e. *hound* ~ nhg. *Hund*
 4. Germ. *k* is not shifted if *r* follows immediately
 - ◇ e. *acre* ~ nhg. *Acker*
 - ◇ e. *bite* ~ nhg. *bitter* in contrast to nhg. *Biss*

New High German more conservative than English

English is closer to Germanic than New High German. However, sometimes, New High German is more conservative than English:

NHG_E	germ. <i>b</i>	→	nhg. <i>b</i>	~	e. <i>v/f</i>
	germ. <i>ch</i> not w.-i.	→	nhg. <i>ch</i>	~	e. \emptyset (written <i>gh</i>)
	germ. <i>g</i> not w.-i.	→	nhg. <i>g</i>	~	e. \emptyset (written <i>i</i> or <i>y</i>)
	germ. <i>g</i> w.-i.	→	nhg. <i>g</i>	~	e. <i>y</i>
	germ. <i>k</i>	→	nhg. <i>k</i>	~	e. <i>ch</i> (near oe. <i>i</i> or <i>e</i>)
	germ. <i>n/m</i>	→	nhg. <i>n/m</i>	~	e. \emptyset (before <i>f</i> , <i>th</i> , or <i>s</i>)

The first line of **NHG_E** is exemplified by

e. <i>life</i> ~ nhg. <i>Leib</i>	e. <i>live</i> ~ nhg. <i>leben</i>
e. <i>deaf</i> ~ nhg. <i>taub</i>	e. <i>dove</i> ~ nhg. <i>Taube</i>
e. <i>loaf</i> ~ nhg. <i>Laib</i> (Brot)	e. <i>leaf</i> ~ nhg. <i>Laub</i>
e. <i>have</i> ~ nhg. <i>haben</i>	e. <i>seven</i> ~ nhg. <i>sieben</i>
e. <i>love</i> ~ nhg. <i>lieben</i>	e. <i>starve</i> ~ nhg. <i>sterben</i>
e. <i>believe</i> ~ nhg. <i>glauben</i>	e. <i>evil</i> ~ nhg. <i>übel</i>

The second and third lines of **NHG_E** show how velar sounds turn mute in English, i.e., we find

e. to <i>fight</i> ~ nhg. <i>fechten</i>	e. <i>night</i> ~ nhg. <i>Nacht</i>
e. <i>knight</i> ~ nhg. <i>Knecht</i>	e. <i>weight</i> ~ nhg. <i>Ge-wicht</i>
e. <i>plight</i> ~ nhg. <i>Pflicht</i>	e. <i>eight</i> ~ nhg. <i>acht</i>

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and

e. <i>rain</i> ~ <i>Regen</i>	e. <i>way</i> ~ <i>Weg</i>
e. to <i>lie</i> ~ <i>liegen</i>	e. <i>many</i> ~ <i>mannig</i> -faltig
e. to <i>lie</i> ~ <i>lügen</i>	e. to <i>say</i> ~ <i>sagen</i>
e. <i>day</i> ~ <i>Tag</i>	e. <i>nail</i> ~ <i>Nagel</i>

While the third line concerns germ. *g* within a word, the fourth line is about word-initial *g*:

- ◇ e. *yellow* ~ *gelb*
- ◇ e. *yawn* ~ *gähnen*

We also find e. *g* in this position, like in e. *forget* ~ nhg. „*vergessen*“. This is an Old Nordic import into the English language.

The fifth line is justified by these examples:

- ◇ e. *church* ← oe. *cirice* ~ nhg. *Kirche*
- ◇ e. *choose* ← oe. *ceosan* ~ nhg. *kiesen* (old for “examine, choose”)
- ◇ e. *chin* ~ *Kinn*

Finally (sixth line of **NHG_E**), we have the loss *n* or *m* in English:

e. <i>five</i> ~ <i>fünf</i>	e. <i>tooth</i> ~ <i>Zahn</i>
e. <i>wish</i> ~ <i>wünschen</i>	e. <i>other</i> ~ <i>anderer</i>
e. <i>us</i> ~ <i>uns</i>	e. <i>goose</i> ~ <i>Gans</i>

B.5.6. Consonants: From Indo-European to Germanic and English

The previous two subsections dealt with the first and the second consonant shift, respectively. Putting them together, one gets these examples:

- ◇ lat. *trēs* ~ e. *three* ~ nhg. *drei*
- ◇ lat. *tū* ~ e. *thou* (old form) ~ nhg. *du*
- ◇ gr. B *cardiology* ~ fr. *cordialement* ~ e. *heart* ~ nhg. *Herz*
- ◇ lat. B *dental* ~ e. *tooth* ~ nhg. *Zahn*
- ◇ *Dun* (Laoghaire) (Irish town near Dublin) ~ e. *town* ~ nhg. *Zaun*
- ◇ gr. B *dermatology* ← ie. **der* (“to tear (an animal’s skin from the body)”) → e. *tear* („zerren, reißen“) ~ nhg. *zerren*

An important class of regular exceptions comes under the heading of Verner’s law. If ie. *p/t/k/s* (not word-initial) do not follow immediately the ie. accent, we have

VER	ie. $p/t/k/s$ not word-initial, no immediately after ie. accent
→	germ. $b^{\text{fric}}/d^{\text{fric}}/g^{\text{fric}}/r$
→	$\begin{cases} \text{e. } v/th/g/r \\ \text{nhg. } b/t/g/r \end{cases}$

where “fric” stands for fricative. These sounds are consonants produced by forcing air through a narrow channel. Sibilants (like oi. s or \acute{s}) are special fricatives where the tongue directs the air over the edge of the teeth. That the Germanic sounds are fricative is not obvious from German where we have t for both germ. d and germ. d^{fric} :

NHG_C	germ. d	→	e. d (example <i>red</i>)	~	nhg. t (example <i>rot</i>)
VER	germ. d^{fric}	→	e. th (example <i>father</i>)	~	nhg. t (example <i>Vater</i>)

The fricative nature shows more clearly in English words like *father*. Indeed, ie. $*ph_2t\acute{e}r$ (where \acute{e} is both long and stressed) is a good example for Verner’s law. The ie. stress immediately follows t and hence we get germ. d^{fric} .

Otherwise, we have the (more common) development:

NHG_C	ie. $p/t/k/s$ word-initial or not immediately after ie. accent
→	germ. $f/p/h/s$
→	nhg. $f/d/h/s$
~	e. $f/th/h/s$

where the example of ie. $*b^hr\acute{a}t\acute{e}r$ yields e. *brother* ~ nhg. *Bruder*.

B.6. Sequence of sound laws

Sound laws are valid only for a limited time period. The sequence of sound laws is sometimes relevant. I hope that these sequences are not too far off the mark:

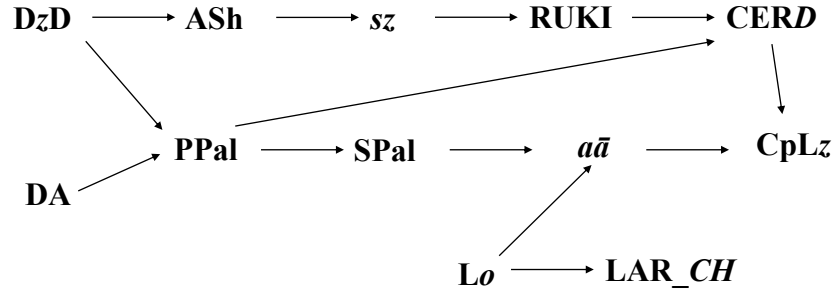


Figure B.3.: Sequence of sound laws (tentatively)

PPal → SPal	by <i>śiras</i> (p. 372)
PPal → CerD	by <i>viṣṭa</i> (p. 114)
DzD → CCl → CpLz	by <i>dehi</i> (p. 48)
CCl → SY_N	by <i>himṣā</i> (p. 135)
DzD → ASh	by <i>agdha</i> (p. 47)
DA → PPal	by <i>juhōti</i> (p. 86)
DA → SPal	by <i>jaghāna</i> (p. 191)
ASh → sz → RUKI → CerD → CpLz	by <i>ūdha</i> (p. 49)
SPal → aa	by <i>jagāma</i> (p. 33)
Lo → aa	by <i>bhar-ā-mas</i> (p. 33)
Lo → Lar_CH	by <i>mārayati</i> versus <i>janayati</i> (p. 33)
Lo → Lar_V (ie. <i>h₃e</i> → ie. <i>o</i>)	by oi. <i>avi</i> versus lat. <i>ovis</i> (p. 263)
aa → CpLz	by <i>voḍhum</i> (p. 48)
sz → CpLz	by <i>voḍhum</i> (p. 48)
RUKI → CerD	by <i>iṣṭa</i> (p. 41)
Lar_CH , Lar_V → DA	by <i>duhitar</i> (p. 52)

The arrows indicate that one sound law was applied before another one in relevant instances. This does not imply that the opposite order is ruled out for other words. After all, the application of one rule may provide the very environment that allows application of another one. Putting these different sequences together, a network of sound laws results that is depicted in fig. B.3.

Another, quite different question is whether one sound law was only applied after another one could not have been active any more. |

C. Grammar: verbal system

C.1. Roots

Learners of Sanskrit are used to memorize

bhud, bhôdati
vas, vasati
pat, patati
...

where

- ◇ *bhud, vas,* and *pat* are referred to as oi. roots and
- ◇ *bhôdati* etc. are the forms for the 3. pers. sg. present tense.

There is, of course, nothing wrong with memorizing *pat, patati*. Note, however, that the oi. root is a (helpful) grammatical fiction. It is regularly used to derive root nouns (subsection C.4.1), the passive voice (subsection C.4.7), and the past participle (pp. 109).

For verbs in the first class, the present-tense forms are ideally given in the full grade and the oi. root in the zero grade, as shown by *bhud, bhôdati* (see chapter B, section B.2.4 which you should now read for the fourth time). However, we do not always see the oi. root in zero grade for two different reasons (two extra reasons are given below):

1. The oi. root may be unpronounceable (the zero grade of *pat* should be **pt*, but neither *p* nor *t* can become syllabic). (But even here, we can point to the aorist *a-pa-pt-a-t*.)
2. The regular result may be “too far off”. Consider the oi. root *vas* whose zero grade would be *us* and then, by **RUKI**, *uṣ*.

In most textbooks, what we call “oi. roots” are simply called “roots”. We distinguish

- ◇ a root with ie. *e*, i.e., a full-grade root or a normal-grade root or just a root (in Sanskrit: *a*, or, if a half vowel follows, *ê* or *ô*, respectively), from
- ◇ a root where ie. *e* was lost, i.e., the zero-grade root (in Sanskrit: see pp. 23)

Typically, (ie.) roots are mono-syllabic and of one of the following forms

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syllabic structure	example	translation
$C-e-C$	<i>med</i>	to measure
$e-C$	<i>ed</i>	to eat
$C-L-e-C$	<i>trem</i>	to tremble
$C-e-L-C$	<i>serp</i>	to creep
$C-e-hV-C$	<i>deuk</i>	to lead

Nowadays, ie. roots $*ed$ are not accepted any more. Instead, laryngeals are thought to come before the e . Thus, we would have $*h_1ed$ instead of just $*ed$. Similarly, ie. $*ag$ with root vowel a is replaced by $*h_2eg$ where h_2 is responsible for changing e to a . Thus, from this point of view, all ie. roots are enclosed by consonants (which may be laryngeals or also liquids or half vowels). While we make use of laryngeal theory oftentimes, we do not mind reconstructions as $*ed$.

We now turn to two additional reasons why oi. roots may not be in zero grade. Both concern ie. roots ending in a laryngeal:

3. Oi. roots such as $bhā$ (second class) do not distinguish between strong forms (typically full grade) and weak forms (typically zero grade), but use $bhā-$ throughout although $bhā$ is full grade.
4. A given ie. root may give rise to two different oi. roots, such as $\hat{e}-ti$ versus $yā-ti$ or $jay-a-ti$ versus $jyā-ti$.

Turning to the third reason, consider the syllable structure $C-e-C$. If the final consonant is a laryngeal, we obtain $C-e-H$ so that we obtain long \bar{a} as in

$\sqrt{\quad}$	3. pers. sg.	translation
$p\bar{a}$	$p\bar{a}-ti$	to protect
$bh\bar{a}$	$bh\bar{a}-ti$	to shine
$m\bar{a}$	$m\bar{a}-ti$	to measure
$y\bar{a}$	$y\bar{a}-ti$	to go
$v\bar{a}$	$v\bar{a}-ti$	to blow

With respect to the fourth reason, a given ie. root may give rise to two different oi. roots as the following table shows:

$\sqrt{\quad}$	$\sqrt{\quad}$
i (“to go”), $\hat{e}-ti$	$y\bar{a}$ (“to go out, to go forth”), $y\bar{a}-ti$
ghr (“to springle, to wet”), $j\hat{i}-ghar-ti$	$ghr\bar{a}$ (“to smell”), $ghr\bar{a}-ti$
jan (“to produce”, see $j\hat{n}\bar{a}$ in dictionary),	$j\hat{n}\bar{a}$ (“to know”), $j\bar{a}n\bar{a}-ti$
$j\hat{i}$ (“to conquer, to overcome”), $jay-a-ti$	$jy\bar{a}$ (“to suppress, to grow old”), $jy\bar{a}-ti$
$t\bar{r}$ (“to cross”), $tar-a-ti$	$tr\bar{a}(i)$ (“to protect, to save”), $tr\bar{a}-ti$
man (“to think”), $man-ya-t\hat{e}$	$mn\bar{a}$ (“to remember, to praise”), $mn\bar{a}-ti$

Thus, these long- \bar{a} roots like $mn\bar{a}$ are built by this rule:

$$\text{zero-grade root} + \bar{a} \leftarrow eh_2$$

Perhaps, the long- \bar{a} roots have a consequential meaning?

- ◇ He goes (\acute{e} - ti) so that he escapes ($y\bar{a}$ - ti).
- ◇ He conquers (jay - a - ti) so that he suppresses ($jy\bar{a}$ - ti).

C.2. Ten verbal classes, overview

C.2.1. Thematic versus athematic classes

Sanskrit is famous for its ten verbal classes. In this section (classes 1, 4, 6, and 10) and in the next section (classes 2, 3, 5, 7, 8, and 9) we present a rough overview of these classes. Interesting special cases are dealt with later.

A typical characteristic of the athematic classes is the presence of strong forms (mostly full grade) and weak forms (zero grade). In order to provide examples, we report the 3. pers. sing. (which usually takes a strong form) and the 1. pers. pl. (where we should expect the weak form). A more detailed analysis of the athematic classes is found in section C.6 (pp. 142).

In the third class, we have reduplication, in the classes 5, 7, 8, and 9 a nasal infix complicates matters.

C.2.2. The four thematic classes

The first class

We first turn to the four classes that use the thematic vowel. One typical example for the first class is given by

$$\begin{array}{ccccccc} \underbrace{bhud} & , & \underbrace{bhôd} & - & \underbrace{a} & - & \underbrace{ti} \\ \text{oi. root} & & \text{root} & & \text{thematic} & & \text{ending} \\ \text{in zero grade} & & \text{in full grade} & & \text{vowel} & & \text{3. pers. sg.} \end{array}$$

Other examples, typical or less typical are now presented: Typical cases (zero-grade oi. root, present-tense in full-grade) include:

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√	3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>kṛṣ</i>	<i>karṣ-a-ti</i>	he ploughs
<i>klp</i>	<i>kalp-a-ti</i>	he is ready for
<i>dyut</i>	<i>dyôt-a-tê</i>	he shines
<i>bhū</i> ← <i>*bhuH</i>	<i>bhav-a-ti</i>	he is
<i>mih</i>	<i>mêh-a-ti</i>	he urinates
<i>śuc</i>	<i>śôc-a-ti</i>	he grieves
<i>smṛ</i>	<i>smar-a-ti</i>	he remembers

Some oi. roots are given in full grade:

√	3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>kamp</i>	<i>kamp-a-tê</i>	he trembles
<i>tyaj</i>	<i>tyaj-a-ti</i>	he abandons
<i>dah</i>	<i>dah-a-ti</i>	he burns
<i>vas</i>	<i>vas-a-ti</i>	he dwells

In these examples, the zero grades would be impossible to pronounce or “too far away” to be recognizable.

Some reduplicated roots also belong to the first class:

- ◇ *sîd-a-ti* (“he sits”) with (full-grade!) oi. root *sad* is originally a reduplicated form and could be considered a class-3 verb. In fact, we obtain *sîd-a-ti* by way of

si-sd-ati (reduplication with *i* and zero grade, without sandhi)
→ *si-zd-ati* (**sz** before voiced stop)
→ *si-ꝛd-ati* (**RUKI**)
→ *si-ꝛd-ati* (**CerD**)
→ *sîd-ati* (**CpLz**), see *pîd*

whence finally *sîd-a-ti* through leveling:

	<i>sîd-ati</i>	
influenced by	<i>sa-sâd-a</i> (perf. 3. pers. sg.) or other forms	with dental
turns into	<i>sîd-ati</i>	with dental

- ◇ *sthā*, *tiṣṭhati* (“to stand”) is thought to go back to ie. **steh₂*. Note that *t* in the ie. full-grade root is not aspirated. Thus, *ti-ṣth-a-ti* is not an instance of Grassmann’s law (although the final result does not contract that law). Instead, the aspiration is a reflex of the laryngeal. Reduplicating with *i* and just the consonant immediately before *i* yields

- **ti-sth₂-eti* (reduplication with *i* and zero grade)
 → **ti-sth-eti* (**Lar _ CH**: *h₂* aspirates *t*)
 → *ti-ṣth-ati* (**RUKI**)
 → *ti-ṣṭh-ati* (**CERD**)

The full grade form should be **steh₂* → *stā*. In fact, the oi. root *sthā* is aspirated (as in the infinitive *sthā-tum*). Leveling provides an easy explanation.

- ◇ While *h₂* has caused aspiration, *h₃* may have caused voicedness in *pā*, *pi-ba-ti* (“to drink”):

- **pi-ph₃-eti* (reduplication with *i* and zero grade)
 → **pi-b-eti* (**Lar _ CH**: *h₃* makes *t* voiced)
 → *pi-b-ati*

The first class also contains verbs where

- ◇ both oi. root and present-tense contain short *i* or short *u*:

√	3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>cumb</i>	<i>cumb-a-ti</i>	he kisses
<i>bhikṣ</i>	<i>bhikṣ-a-ti</i> (p. 130)	he begs

- ◇ both oi. root and present-tense contain *ī*:

√	3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>krīḍ</i>	<i>krīḍ-a-ti</i>	he plays
<i>ṭīk</i>	<i>ṭīk-a-ti</i>	he trips

- ◇ both oi. root and present-tense are in lengthened grade:

√	3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>kāṅkṣ</i>	<i>kāṅkṣ-a-ti</i>	he craves
<i>kāś</i>	<i>kāś-a-ti</i>	he shines
<i>khād</i>	<i>khād-a-ti</i>	he eats
<i>dhāv</i>	<i>khād-a-ti</i>	he runs

- ◇ the oi. root is in full grade while the present tense is in lengthened grade:

krām-a-ti (“he strides”) with oi. root *kram* (not by Brugmann’s law because of root vowel ie. *e*)

The fourth class

The fourth class also employs the thematic vowel. Both oi. root and present tense are in zero grade, as seen in this example:

\underbrace{sidh}	,	\underbrace{sidh}	$\underbrace{-y-}_{\text{suffix}}$	$\underbrace{a}_{\text{thematic vowel}}$	$\underbrace{-ti}_{\text{3. pers. sg. ending}}$
oi. root		root			
in zero grade		in zero grade			

Consider these typical cases (zero-grade oi. root, present tense in zero grade plus suffix *y*):

✓	3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>kup</i>	<i>kup-y-a-ti</i>	he is angry
<i>kṣup</i>	<i>kṣup-y-a-ti</i>	he is agitated
<i>tuṣ</i>	<i>tuṣ-y-a-ti</i>	he is pleased
<i>tṛp</i>	<i>tṛp-y-a-ti</i>	he is content
<i>nṛt</i>	<i>nṛt-y-a-ti</i>	he dances
<i>sidh</i>	<i>sidh-y-a-ti</i>	he is successful
<i>sniḥ</i>	<i>sniḥ-y-a-ti</i>	he loves

Some verbs exhibit full-grade oi. root with nasal. Then **SY**_**N** applies:

✓	3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>bhraṃś</i>	<i>bhraś-y-a-ti</i> ← <i>*bhrṃś</i>	he falls
<i>rañj</i>	<i>raj-y-a-ti</i> ← <i>*rñj</i>	he reddens

But, this rule is not always adhered to. In the following example, the result would have been too difficult to attribute:

✓	3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>man</i>	<i>man-y-a-tê</i>	he thinks

Finally, we turn to laryngeal cases. A clear instance of full-grade oi. root and zero-grade present tense is given by

✓	3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>jan</i>	<i>jā-y-a-tê</i> ← <i>*ǵñHetai</i>	he is born

where we apply the laryngeal sound law **Lar**_**SY** (p. 28). The laryngeal in this case is clear from infinitive *jan-i-tum*. Laryngeals are also responsible for these three examples where we encounter full-grade oi. root and zero grade (!) present tense:

√	3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>dam</i>	<i>dām-y-a-ti</i> ← * <i>d_omH</i>	he tames
<i>śam</i>	<i>śām-y-a-ti</i> ← * <i>ś_omH</i>	he gets quiet
<i>śram</i>	<i>śrām-y-a-ti</i> ← * <i>ś_ormH</i>	he toils

The reason for long *ā* in *mad*, *mād-y-a-ti* is unclear.

The sixth class

The sixth class is like the fourth class without *y*, see, for example,

<u><i>tud</i></u>	,	<u><i>tud</i></u>	-	<u><i>a</i></u>	-	<u><i>ti</i></u>
oi. root		root		thematic		ending
in zero grade		in zero grade		vowel		3. pers. sg.

Look, first, at these typical cases (zero-grade oi. root, zero-grade present tense):

√	3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>kṛṣ</i>	<i>kṛṣ-a-ti</i>	he ploughs
<i>kṣip</i>	<i>kṣip-a-ti</i>	he throws
<i>tud</i>	<i>tud-a-ti</i>	he strikes
<i>diś</i>	<i>diś-a-ti</i>	he shows
<i>nud</i>	<i>nud-a-ti</i>	he pushes
<i>likh</i>	<i>likh-a-ti</i>	he writes
<i>viś</i>	<i>viś-a-ti</i>	he enters

Second, we have some verbs with nasal infix in the present tense:

√	3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>muc</i>	<i>muñc-a-ti</i>	he frees
<i>lip</i>	<i>limp-a-ti</i>	he smears
<i>lup</i>	<i>lump-a-ti</i>	he bites off, he steals
<i>vid</i>	<i>vind-a-ti</i>	he finds

Finally, observe the verbs which (Indo-European speaking) use *śk'* to form the present tense:

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√	3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>iṣ</i>	<i>icch-a-ti</i>	he wishes
<i>pracch</i>	<i>prcch-a-ti</i>	he asks

Clearly, *gam*, *gacch-a-ti* also belongs here. While it is normally considered a first-class root, *gacch-a-ti* goes back to ie. $*g^w m_0-sk-e-ti$ (**SY** $_N$, **SIB**). Thus, *gacch-a-ti* is in zero grade.

The tenth class

For the tenth class, the leading examples is this:

\underbrace{cur}	,	$\underbrace{c\bar{or}}$	$- \underbrace{ay} -$	\underbrace{a}	$-$	\underbrace{ti}
oi. root		root	suffix	thematic		ending
in zero grade		in full grade		vowel		3. pers. sg.

with a full-grade root in the present tense. Another frequent example is provided by

√	3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>cint</i>	<i>cint-ay-a-ti</i>	he thinks

The causatives look similar, but are treated elsewhere, in subsection C.3.8.

C.2.3. The second class

Leaving the thematic group of verbs, we now treat the athematic classes 2, 3, 5, 7, 8, and 9. In the third class, we have reduplication, in the classes 5, 7, 8, and 9 a nasal infix. The remaining class 2 (which we are now going to deal with) is the most simple one. For example, the full grade of *i* is \hat{e} so that Sanskrit for “to go” is

\underbrace{i}	,	$\underbrace{\hat{e}}$	$-$	\underbrace{ti}
oi. root		root		ending
in zero grade		in full grade		3. pers. sg.

In the following examples, we report the 3. pers. sing. (which usually takes a strong form) and the 1. pers. pl. (where we should expect the weak form). First, the typical cases include:

√	3. pers. sg.	1. pers. pl.	translation
<i>as</i> (f.g.)	<i>as-ti</i>	<i>s-mas</i>	to be
<i>i</i>	<i>ê-ti</i>	<i>i-mas</i>	to go
<i>dih</i>	<i>dêg-dhi</i> (2) ← ie. * <i>dheigh-ti</i>	<i>dih-mas</i>	to grease
<i>duh</i>	<i>dôg-dhi</i> (2) ← ie. * <i>dheugh-ti</i>	<i>duh-mas</i>	to milk
<i>dviş</i>	<i>dvêş-ti</i> (1)	<i>dviş-mas</i>	to hate
<i>lih</i>	<i>lê-dhi</i> (3) ← ie. * <i>leigh-ti</i>	<i>lih-mas</i>	to lick
<i>vaś</i> (f.g.)	<i>vaş-ti</i> (1)	<i>uş-mas</i>	to wish
<i>vid</i>	<i>vêt-ti</i>	<i>vid-mas</i>	to know

1. Sound laws oi. $s/\acute{s} + t \rightarrow \acute{s}t$ (**CerD**)
2. Both Grassmann (deaspiration of word-initial **dh*, **DA**) and Bartholomae (ie. *gh t* → oi. *g dh*, **ASh**)
3. *lê-dhi* is to be explained by

ie. **leigh-ti* (full grade)
 → *lêgh-ti*
 → *lêg-dhi* (**ASh**)
 → *lêz-dhi* (**sz** before voiced stop)
 → *lêz-dhi* (**RUKI**)
 → *lêz-dhi* (**CerD**)
 → *lê-dhi* (**CpLz**, but *ê* already long)

However, full grade also in plural are sometimes observed:

√	3. pers. sg.	1. pers. pl.	translation
<i>ad</i> (f.g.)	<i>at-ti</i>	<i>ad-mas</i>	to eat
<i>vac</i> (f.g.)	<i>vak-ti</i>	<i>vac-mas</i>	to speak
<i>vas</i> (f.g.)	<i>vas-tê</i>	<i>vas-mahê</i>	to dress
<i>han</i> (f.g.)	<i>han-ti</i>	<i>han-mas</i>	to kill

Next, consider some oi. *sê* roots with regular weak-strong distribution:

√	3. pers. sg.	1. pers. pl.	translation
<i>rud</i>	<i>rôd-i-ti</i>	<i>rud-i-mas</i>	to weep

However, some *sê* roots show strong forms also in the plural:

√	3. pers. sg.	1. pers. pl.	translation
<i>an</i> (f.g.)	<i>an-i-ti</i>	<i>an-i-mas</i>	to breath
<i>svap</i> (f.g.)	<i>svap-i-ti</i>	<i>svap-i-mas</i>	to sleep
<i>svas</i> (f.g.)	<i>svas-i-ti</i>	<i>svas-i-mas</i>	to blow, to snuffle

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We sometimes find lengthened-grade in sg., zero-grade in pl. (so-called Narten present forms):

√	3. pers. sg.	1. pers. pl.	translation
<i>nu</i>	<i>nâu-ti</i>	<i>nu-mas</i>	to praise
<i>ru</i>	<i>râu-ti</i>	<i>ru-mas</i>	to roar
<i>stu</i>	<i>stâu-ti</i>	<i>stu-mas</i>	to praise

Finally, long-ā verbs do not differ between strong and weak forms:

√	3. pers. sg.	1. pers. pl.	translation
<i>khyā</i>	<i>khyā-ti</i>	<i>khyā-mas</i>	to tell
<i>pā</i>	<i>pā-ti</i>	<i>pā-mas</i>	to protect
<i>bhā</i>	<i>bhā-ti</i>	<i>bhā-mas</i>	to shine
<i>mā</i>	<i>mā-ti</i>	<i>mā-mas</i>	to measure
<i>yā</i>	<i>yā-ti</i>	<i>yā-mas</i>	to go
<i>vā</i>	<i>vā-ti</i>	<i>vā-mas</i>	to blow

C.2.4. The third class

We now turn to the reduplicating class of verbs which does not have many representatives. (However, reduplication is also used for perfect and for desiderative forms.) The basic idea is that the former part of the root is repeated. However, the repeated root vowel is often “reduced” and *i* seems to be the preferred reduplication vowel. In particular, we find this pattern:

oi. root vowels	<i>ā</i>	<i>ī</i>	<i>u</i>	<i>ṛ</i>
	↓	↓	↓	↓
reduplication vowel	<i>a</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>u</i>	<i>i</i>

Thus, a typical example is given by the verb for “carry”:

<u><i>bhṛ</i></u>	,	<u><i>bi</i></u>	-	<u><i>bhar</i></u>	-	<u><i>ti</i></u>
oi. root		reduplication		root		ending
in zero grade		syllable		in full grade		3. pers. sg.

Grassmann’s law (**DA**, section B.3.2, pp. 37) is regularly applied. For example, the oi. root *hu* (“sacrifice”) goes back to i.e. **ǵheu* and we obtain

ie.* <i>ǵhu-ǵheu-ti</i>
→ <i>ǵu-ǵhō-ti</i> (DA)
→ <i>ju-hō-ti</i> (PPal , p. 35)

Here is a list with third-class verbs:

√	3. pers. sg.	1. pers. pl.	translation
<i>gā</i>	<i>jī-gā-ti</i>	<i>jī-gī-mas</i>	to go
<i>dā</i>	<i>da-dā-ti</i>	<i>da-d-mas</i>	to give
<i>dhā</i>	<i>da-dhā-ti</i>	<i>da-dh-mas</i>	to set
<i>bhī</i>	<i>bi-bhē-ti</i>	<i>bi-bhī-mas</i>	to be afraid
<i>bhṛ</i>	<i>bi-bhar-ti</i>	<i>bi-bhṛ-mas</i>	to carry
<i>hā</i>	<i>ja-hā-ti</i>	<i>ja-hī-mas</i>	to abandon
<i>hū</i>	<i>ju-hô-ti</i>	<i>ju-hu-mas</i>	to sacrifice

C.2.5. The nasal infix classes

Infixes in the root

The remaining four classes 5, 7, 8, and 9 show a nasal element. The most ancient constellation can be seen in class 7. For example, the Sanskrit verb for “to join” is *yug*, *yunakti* which is best understood as

<u>yu</u>	-	<u>na</u>	-	<u>k</u>	-	<u>ti</u>
beginning of oi. root		sign		final root		ending
in zero grade		in strong form		consonant		3. pers. sg.

At first sight, the other classes do not exhibit an infix into the oi. root:

√	3. pers. sg.	1. pers. pl.	translation
<i>śak</i>	<i>śak-nô-ti</i>	<i>śak-nu-mas</i>	to be able
<i>tan</i>	<i>tan-ô-ti</i>	<i>tan-u-mas</i>	to stretch
<i>pū</i>	<i>pu-nā-ti</i>	<i>pu-nī-mas</i>	to purify

However, this first impression is misleading from a historical point of view.

The ninth class as a special instance of the seventh class

Let us begin with a comparison of classes 7 and 9. It was a close look at these classes that prompted de Saussure to postulate laryngeal sounds in Indo-European. Here is how he argued (in principle).

Consider two verbs, one from the seventh class, the other from the ninth class:

class	gaṇa sign	√	3. pers. sg.	future	infinitive
7	<i>na</i>	<i>yug</i>	<i>yu-na-k-ti</i>	<i>yôk-ṣy-a-ti</i>	<i>yôk-tum</i>
9	<i>nā</i>	<i>pū</i>	<i>pu-nā-ti</i>	<i>pavi-ṣy-a-ti</i>	<i>pavi-tum</i>

C. Grammar: verbal system

The present tense in class 7 uses *na* as an infix, in our example between *u* and the root-final consonant *j*. In contrast, *nā* in the 9th class occurs after the oi. root. De Saussure hypothesized that both verbs are similarly constructed. If that hypothesis is correct, we need to deal with two differences:

1. The ninth class has long *nā*, rather than short *na* in the seventh class.
2. Second, the future and the infinitive forms of *pū* show *i* which seems to come out of nowhere. Traditional Sanskrit grammarians also noted this *i*. They call *pū* an oi. sêṭ root (*sêṭ* ← *sa-iṭ*), i.e., an oi. root where *i* does not show up in the oi. root, but in some other forms.

De Saussure's brilliant idea was this: One sound (that is not to be seen any more) is responsible for both phenomena. Let us denote this sound by *H*. It had two effects.

1. *H* leads to the lengthening of *na* to *nā*.
2. *H* turns into *i* between consonants.

Then, one can rewrite the above Sanskrit table by a corresponding table with Indo-European forms:

class	*gaṇa sign	√	3. pers. sg.	future	infinitive
7	* <i>ne</i>	* <i>yug</i>	* <i>yu-ne-g-ti</i>	* <i>yeu-g-sy-e-ti</i>	* <i>yeuḡ-tum</i>
9	* <i>ne</i>	* <i>puH</i>	* <i>pu-ne-H-ti</i>	* <i>peu-H-sy-e-ti</i>	* <i>peuH-tum</i>

Thus, the classes 7 and 9 turn out to have an identical origin. Long *i* in the weak class sign is *nī* as in *pu-nī-mas*. It is difficult to explain.

The fifth class as a special instance of the seventh class

It can be shown that the seventh class and the fifth class are also basically the same. A prominent representative of the fifth class is

śru, *śr-ṇô-ti* ("he hears").

Now we understand this verb as one where, originally, the root-final consonant is the half vowel *v*. Then, before consonants, ie. **ne-v* should regularly turn into Sanskrit *nô*. This is, indeed, what happens here. The present tense sg. is best understood by this comparison:

class	*gaṇa sign	√	3. pers. sg.	gaṇa sign
7	* <i>ne</i>	* <i>yug</i>	* <i>yu-ne-g-ti</i> → <i>yu-nak-ti</i>	<i>na</i>
5	* <i>ne</i>	* <i>kl̥u</i> → <i>śru</i>	* <i>kl̥-ne-u-ti</i> → <i>śr-ṇô-ti</i>	<i>nô</i>

Thus, originally, we have the *na*-infix as in *yu-na-k-ti*. However, this was not evident to the speakers who imagined an oi. root *śr* and, added to that root, *nô* (similar to *nā* in *pu-nā-ti*).

The eighth class as a special instance of the fifth class

Now, and this is the final step, the eighth class can be considered a subclass of the fifth one. One may, of course, be tempted to interpret eighth-class verbs in this manner

class	✓	3. pers. sg.	gaṇa sign
8	<i>tan</i>	<i>tan-ô-ti</i>	<i>ô</i>

where *ô* is the characteristic gaṇa sign of this class. However, it is better to see the comparison with the fifth-class verbs which are built from the zero grade:

class	*gaṇa sign	3. pers. sg.	gaṇa sign
5	* <i>ne</i>	* <i>kl-ne-u-ti</i> → <i>śr-ṇô-ti</i>	<i>nô</i>
8	* <i>ne</i>	* <i>tṇ-ne-u-ti</i> → <i>ta-ṇô-ti</i>	<i>nô</i>

Thus, the *n* is part of a nasal infix and not the final root consonant. The root consonant turns into *a*, according to the sound law **SY** *N* (pp. 25).

The class signs

According to the above arguments, the nasal classes 5, 8, and 9 can ultimately be seen as special instances of the seventh class with gaṇa sign *na*. Since all classes use the signs in strong and weak forms, we obtain

class	strong gaṇa sign	3. pers. sg.	weak gaṇa sign	3. pers. pl.
5	<i>nô</i>	<i>śr-ṇô-ti</i>	<i>nu</i>	<i>śr-ṇu-mas</i>
7	<i>na</i>	<i>yu-na-k-ti</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>yu-ñ-j-mas</i>
8	<i>ô</i>	<i>tan-ô-ti</i>	<i>u</i>	<i>tan-i-mas</i>
9	<i>nā</i>	<i>pu-nā-ti</i>	<i>nī</i>	<i>pu-nī-mas</i>

Here, the weak sign forms of the classes 5, 7, and 8 are understandable from section B.2.4 (pp. 23). It is not quite clear why, in the 9. class, we have *nī* from *nH* which should lead to *ni* instead.

Thus, historically, the four nasal classes all use *na* (going back to ie. **ne*). Thus, class 7 is the most basic one. Have a look at figure C.1 to see again how the other classes are derived.

C.2.6. The fifth class

Historically, the *nô* and *nu* signs of the fifth class developed from a “misunderstanding” with respect to *śr-nô-ti*. This was then generalized to other verbs. Here are a few examples, with strong gaṇa sign *nô* and weak gaṇa sign *nu*:

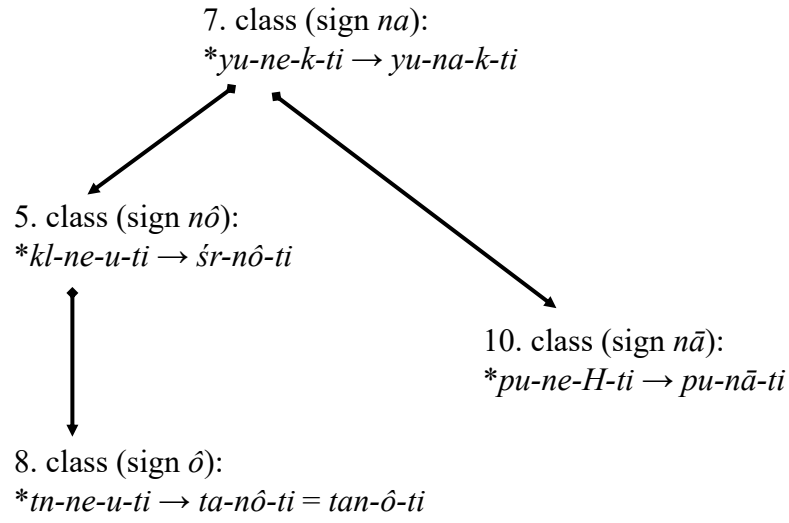


Figure C.1.: The nasal infix classes

√	3. pers. sg.	3. pers. pl.	translation
<i>āp</i>	<i>āp-nô-ti</i>	<i>āp-nu-mas</i>	to obtain
<i>śak</i>	<i>śak-nô-ti</i>	<i>śak-nu-mas</i>	to be able
<i>su</i>	<i>su-nô-ti</i>	<i>su-nu-mas</i>	to press

C.2.7. The seventh class

The seventh class is the only one of the *n*-infix verbal classes where the *na* or *n* signs are infixed into the oi. root, for example,

√	3. pers. sg.	3. pers. pl.	translation
<i>chid</i>	<i>chi-na-t-ti</i>	<i>chi-n-d-mas</i>	to cut
<i>piś</i>	<i>pi-na-ś-ti</i>	<i>pi-m-ś-mas</i>	to grind
<i>bhid</i>	<i>bhi-na-t-ti</i>	<i>bhi-n-d-mas</i>	to break
<i>yuj</i>	<i>yu-na-k-ti</i>	<i>yu-ñ-j-mas</i>	to join

C.2.8. The eighth class

Apart from *tan* with

- ◇ *ta-nô-ti*, *ta-nu-mas* from the Indo-European point of view, or
 - ◇ *tan-ô-ti*, *tan-u-mas* from the point of view of the traditional gaṇa sign
- the oi. root *kr* (“to make”) also belongs here. Remember

C.3. Infinitive and other normal-grade forms

√	3. pers. sg.	3. pers. pl.	translation
<i>kṛ</i>	<i>kar-ô-ti</i>	<i>kur-mas</i>	to make

This is somewhat surprising because this root does not seem to belong to those with nasal (infix). Apparently, the Indian grammarians considered

- ◇ *kar-ô-ti* as similar to *tan-ô-ti* and
- ◇ *kur-mas* as similar to the alternative form *tan-mas*

It is important to note that the older Vedic form *kṛṇôti* is well attested. From that perspective, *kṛ* rightly belongs to the verbs with nasals.

C.2.9. The ninth class

Finally, consider these examples for the the ninth class:

√	3. pers. sg.	1. pers. pl.	translation
<i>kṛī</i>	<i>kṛī-ṇā-ti</i>	<i>kṛī-ṇī-mas</i>	to buy
<i>pū</i>	<i>pu-nā-ti</i>	<i>pu-nī-mas</i>	to purify
<i>vṛ</i>	<i>vṛ-ṇā-ti</i>	<i>vṛ-ṇī-mas</i>	to choose

In *pu-nā-ti* we have expected short *u*. The long *ī* in *kṛī-ṇā-ti* is unexpected.

C.3. Infinitive and other normal-grade forms

C.3.1. General rule

The formation of the infinitive follows the general pattern

$$\text{full-grade root} + \text{tum}$$

Consider these examples where the full grade clearly shows:

√ in z.g.	3. pers. sg.	infinitive	translation
<i>kṛ</i>	<i>kar-ô-ti</i>	<i>kar-tum</i>	to make
<i>bhṛ</i>	<i>bhar-a-ti</i>	<i>bhar-tum</i>	to carry
<i>mṛ</i>	<i>mri-ya-tê</i>	<i>mar-tum</i>	to die
<i>vas</i>	<i>vas-a-ti</i>	<i>vas-tum</i>	to dwell
<i>smṛ</i>	<i>smar-a-ti</i>	<i>smar-tum</i>	to remember
<i>hṛ</i>	<i>har-a-ti</i>	<i>har-tum</i>	to take, to rob

Also, roots with *i* regularly have full grade *ê*:

C. Grammar: verbal system

√ in z.g.	3. pers. sg.	infinitive	translation
<i>i</i>	<i>ê-ti</i>	<i>ê-tum</i>	to go
<i>kšip</i>	<i>kšip-a-ti</i>	<i>kšêp-tum</i>	to throw
<i>jî</i>	<i>jay-a-ti</i>	<i>jê-tum</i>	to defeat

while roots with *u* exhibit *ô*:

√ in z.g.	3. pers. sg.	infinitive	translation
<i>šru</i>	<i>šr-nô-ti</i>	<i>šrô-tum</i>	to listen
<i>stu</i>	<i>stâu-ti</i> (Narten)	<i>stô-tum</i>	to praise
<i>hu</i>	<i>ju-hô-ti</i>	<i>hô-tum</i>	to sacrifice

Expected expected backward assimilation is often encountered:

√ in z.g.	3. pers. sg.	infinitive	translation
<i>khid</i>	<i>khid-ya-ti</i>	<i>khêt-tum</i>	to suffer
<i>tud</i>	<i>tud-a-ti</i>	<i>tôt-tum</i>	to hit
<i>tyaj</i> (f.g.)	<i>tyaj-a-ti</i>	<i>tyak-tum</i>	to abandon
<i>nud</i>	<i>nud-a-ti</i>	<i>nôt-tum</i>	to push
<i>pac</i> (f.g.)	<i>pac-a-ti</i>	<i>pak-tum</i>	to cook
<i>bhid</i>	<i>bhi-na-t-ti</i>	<i>bhêt-tum</i>	to break
<i>muc</i>	<i>muñc-a-ti</i>	<i>môk-tum</i>	to liberate
<i>yuj</i>	<i>yu-na-k-ti</i>	<i>yôk-tum</i>	to join
<i>vac</i> (f.g.)	<i>vak-ti</i>	<i>vak-tum</i>	to speak
<i>sad</i> (f.g.)	<i>sîd-a-ti</i> (p. 80)	<i>sat-tum</i>	to sit

C.3.2. Oi. roots ending in a nasal

When the oi. root (which is full grade in all the examples below) ends in a nasal *n* or *m*, the labial nasal also becomes dental *n* before dental *t*:

√ in f.g.	3. pers. sg.	infinitive	translation
<i>gam</i>	<i>ga-cch-a-ti</i>	<i>gan-tum</i>	to go
<i>tan</i>	<i>ta-nô-ti</i>	<i>tan-tum</i>	to stretch
<i>nam</i>	<i>nam-a-ti</i>	<i>nan-tum</i>	to salute
<i>man</i>	<i>man-y-a-tê</i>	<i>man-tum</i>	to think
<i>yam</i>	<i>yacch-a-ti</i>	<i>yan-tum</i>	to restrain
<i>ram</i>	<i>ram-a-tê</i>	<i>ran-tum</i>	to enjoy
<i>han</i>	<i>han-ti</i>	<i>han-tum</i>	to hit

C.3.3. Aspiration and cerebralization

Applying aspiration laws

If an oi. root ends in a voiced aspirate, the addition of *tum* necessitates the aspiration shift which is associated with the name of Christian Bartholomae:

ASh	ie. <i>gh-t</i>	→	oi. <i>g-dh</i>
	ie. <i>dh-t</i>	→	oi. <i>d-dh</i>
	ie. <i>bh-t</i>	→	oi. <i>b-dh</i>
but	ie. <i>dh-s</i>	→	oi. <i>t-s</i>
	ie. <i>bh-s</i>	→	oi. <i>p-s</i>

The shift is obvious in these verbs:

√	3. pers. sg.	infinitive	translation
<i>kṣubh</i>	<i>kṣubh-y-a-ti</i>	<i>kṣôb-dhum</i>	to be upset
<i>yudh</i>	<i>yudh-y-a-tê</i>	<i>yôd-dhum</i>	to fight
<i>labh</i> (f.g.)	<i>labh-a-tê</i>	<i>lab-dhum</i>	to obtain

Sometimes, the other aspiration law is also applied. Grassmann's law says: If you have two aspirated sounds, the first one becomes deaspirated:

DA	ie. $C^{\text{asp}} VC^{\text{asp}}$	→	oi. $C^{\text{unasp}} VC^{\text{asp}}$
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We now need to mix these sound laws with the palatalization laws **SPal** (pp. 36). For example, we have

√	3. pers. sg.	infinitive	translation
<i>dah</i> (f.g.)	<i>dah-a-ti</i>	$*dheg^w h-tum \rightarrow dag-dhum$	to burn
<i>dih</i>	<i>dêg-dhi</i>	$*dheigh-tum \rightarrow dêg-dhum$	to smear
<i>duh</i>	<i>dôg-dhi</i>	$*dheugh-tum \rightarrow dôg-dhum$	to milk
<i>snih</i>	<i>snih-y-a-ti</i>	$*sneig^w h-tum \rightarrow snêg-dhum$	to love

In more detail, we have

ie. $*sneig^w h-tum$	(full grade and <i>tum</i> -marker for infinitive)
→ $snêgh-tum$	(no SPal before consonant)
→ $snêg-dhum$	(ASh)

or

ie. $*dheugh-tum$	(full grade and <i>tum</i> -marker for infinitive)
→ $dhôgh-tum$	(no SPal before consonant)
→ $dôgh-tum$	(DA)
→ $dôg-dhum$	(ASh)

Applying cerebralization sound laws

In a few verbs, the infinitive comes with cerebralization. In this subsection, we need several cerebralization laws. First, cerebralization occurs not only after ς , but also after $\acute{\varsigma}$:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{CerD} & \text{oi. } \varsigma/\acute{\varsigma} + t \rightarrow \text{oi. } \acute{\varsigma}t \\ & z + d/dh \rightarrow z + \acute{d}/\acute{d}h \end{array}$$

This is clearly seen in these verbs:

$\sqrt{\quad}$	3. pers. sg.	infinitive	translation
$k\acute{r}\varsigma$	$k\acute{r}\varsigma\text{-}a\text{-}ti$	$kar\varsigma\text{-}tum$, $kra\varsigma\text{-}tum$	to plough
$kru\acute{\varsigma}$	$kr\acute{o}\acute{\varsigma}\text{-}a\text{-}ti$	$kr\acute{o}\varsigma\text{-}tum$	to cry out
$tu\varsigma$	$tu\varsigma\text{-}y\text{-}a\text{-}ti$	$t\acute{o}\varsigma\text{-}tum$	to enjoy
$dam\acute{\varsigma}$ (f.g.!)	$da\acute{\varsigma}\text{-}a\text{-}ti$ (z.g.)	$dam\varsigma\text{-}tum$	to bite
$di\acute{\varsigma}$ (z.g.!)	$di\acute{\varsigma}\text{-}a\text{-}ti$	$d\acute{e}\varsigma\text{-}tum$	to show
$dr\acute{\varsigma}$ (z.g.!)	$(pa\acute{\varsigma}\text{-}y\text{-}a\text{-}ti)$	$dra\varsigma\text{-}tum$	to see
$dvi\varsigma$	$dv\acute{e}\varsigma\text{-}ti$	$dv\acute{e}\varsigma\text{-}tum$	to hate
$na\acute{\varsigma}$ (z.g.!)	$na\acute{\varsigma}\text{-}y\text{-}a\text{-}ti$	$nam\varsigma\text{-}tum \leftarrow \text{ie. } *h_2nen\acute{k}\text{-}tu$	to perish
$pu\varsigma$	$pu\varsigma\text{-}y\text{-}a\text{-}ti$	$p\acute{o}\varsigma\text{-}tum$	to nourish
$pracch$ (f.g.)	$pr\acute{c}ch\text{-}a\text{-}ti$	$pra\varsigma\text{-}tum$	to ask
$v\acute{r}\varsigma$	$v\acute{r}\varsigma\text{-}a\text{-}ti$	$var\varsigma\text{-}tum$	to rain
srj	$srj\text{-}a\text{-}ti$	$sra\varsigma\text{-}tum$	to throw, to let loose
$spr\acute{\varsigma}$	$spr\acute{\varsigma}\text{-}a\text{-}ti$	$spar\varsigma\text{-}tum$, $spra\varsigma\text{-}tum$	to touch

In contrast to section B.2.4 (pp. 23) and different from oi. root $k\acute{r}$ with infinitive $kar\text{-}tum$, we find ra rather than ar in some verbs above: $kra\varsigma\text{-}tum$, $dra\varsigma\text{-}tum$, and $spra\varsigma\text{-}tum$ by the sound law **MET_rSP**. Indeed, $r\varsigma\text{-}t$ (as in $kar\varsigma\text{-}tum$, $var\varsigma\text{-}tum$ or $spar\varsigma\text{-}tum$) is a rather heavy combination of consonants.

The infinitive of yaj (“to sacrifice”) is $ya\varsigma\text{-}tum$, but should not be: Ie. $*ye\acute{g}$ should yield

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{ie. } *ye\acute{g}\text{-}tum \text{ (full grade and } tum\text{-marker for infinitive)} \\ \rightarrow ya\varsigma\text{-}tum \text{ (} sz \text{ before voiceless consonant)} \end{array}$$

Presumably, leveling (from the PPP) has done the rest (see p. 114):

	$ya\varsigma\text{-}tum$	
influenced by	$i\varsigma\text{-}ta$	with cerebral $\acute{\varsigma}\text{-}t$
turns into	$ya\varsigma\text{-}tum$	with cerebral $\acute{\varsigma}\text{-}t$

... both aspiration and cerebralization laws

The infinitive *vôḍhum* from *vah*, *vah-a-ti* (“to flow, to drive”) goes back to ie. **veǵh*. Cerebralization has no sound-law justification. We should have obtained

- ie. **veǵh-tum* (full grade and *tum*-marker for infinitive)
- *vaǵ-dhum* (**ASh**)
- *vaz-dhum* (**sz** before voiced consonant)
- *vô-dhum* (**CpLz**, pp. 50)

Here, leveling from regularly formed PPP *û-dha* is responsible for *vôḍhum*, with cerebral *ḍh*.

Similarly, but with Grassmann’s law, *guh*, *gūhati* (“to hide”) goes back to ie. **gheuǵh* and we get

- ie. **gheuǵh-tum* (full grade and *tum*-marker for infinitive)
- *geuǵ-dhum* (**DA**, **ASh**)
- *geuz-dhum* (**sz** before voiced consonant)
- *geuz-dhum* (**RUKI**)
- *gôz-dhum* (**DIPH**, **CerD**)
- *gô-dhum* (**CpLz**, but *ô* already long)

A very parallel development leads to the infinitive *lê-dhum* of *lihati* (“he licks”):

- ie. **leǵh-tum* (full grade and *tum*-marker for infinitive)
- *leǵ-dhum* (**ASh**)
- *leiz-dhum* (**sz** before voiced consonant)
- *leiz-dhum* (**RUKI**)
- *lêz-dhum* (**DIPH**, **CerD**)
- *lê-dhum* (**CpLz**, but *ê* already long)

Sometimes, we may find cerebral sounds which are not justified by sound laws but by analogy. For example, the infinitive of *ruh*, *rôhati* “to climb” is *rûḍhum*, but the ie. root is **h₁leudh* (ie. **dh* can produce oi. *h* according to subsection B.3.10, pp. 53) which should have lead to *rôddhum* (similar to *dôḡdhum* or *bôddhum*) instead.

sah, *sahati* (“to tolerate”) with infinitive *sô-dhum* although the sound laws show a different result:

- ie. **seǵh-tum* (full grade and *tum*-marker for infinitive)
- *saǵ-dhum* (**ASh**)
- *saz-dhum* (**sz** before voiced consonant)
- *sô-dhum* (**CpLz**)

where the analogy with verbs like *guh* above is responsible for cerebralization.

C.3.4. Laryngeals

The infinitive of quite a few number of verbs can be explained by laryngeal theory, either in line with our sound laws or by later analogy. Remember:

$$\text{ie. } *CHC \rightarrow \text{oi. } CiC$$

By this sound law, the verbs listed below exhibit *i* between the oi. full-grade root and infinitive marker *tum*.

√	3. pers. sg.	infinitive	translation
<i>av</i> (f.g.)	$*h_2euH-e-ti \rightarrow av-a-ti$	$*h_2eu-H-tum \rightarrow av-i-tum$	to help
<i>khan</i> (f.g.)	$*khenH-e-ti \rightarrow khan-a-ti$	$*khen-H-tum \rightarrow khan-i-tum$	to dig
<i>jan</i> (f.g.)	$*\acute{g}n H-y-e/o-tei \rightarrow j\bar{a}-y-a-t\bar{e}$	$*\acute{g}en-H-tum \rightarrow jan-i-tum$	to be born
<i>nī</i>	$*neyH-e-ti \rightarrow nay-a-ti$	$*ney-H-tum \rightarrow nay-i-tum$	to lead
<i>bhū</i>	$*bheuH-e-ti \rightarrow bhav-a-ti$	$*bheu-H-tum \rightarrow bhav-i-tum$	to be

Many other roots, even if there is no laryngeal excuse, use *i-tum* rather than just *tum* as the infinitive suffix. Many verbs show this *i* that prevents sandhi between the (normal-grade or, more rarely, zero-grade) root and the *tum*: *path-i-tum*, *pat-i-tum*, *cumb-i-tum*, *bhās-i-tum*, *ēṣ-itum*, *cōray-itum*, *kōpitum*, *kartitum*, *kathayitum*, *lēkh-itum*

Besides *nay-i-tum* which is parallel to *bhav-i-tum*, one also finds *nê-tum*. It is difficult to decide whether *nay-i-tum* or *nê-tum* is the regular development:

- ◇ In *nay-i-tum*, the laryngeal is of a vowel quality rather than a consonantal one. It stands between the consonants *y* and *t* and hence turns into *i*.
- ◇ In *nê-tum*, the laryngeal is of a rather consonantal quality. The diphthong *ay* before that consonant turns into the long vowel *ê*. When the laryngeal drops, this vowel cannot be lengthened any further.

There is also a class of verbs with long *ā* before *tum*. The sound law

$$\text{ie. } *eH \rightarrow \text{oi. } \bar{a}$$

is responsible for these examples:

√	3. pers. sg.	infinitive	translation
<i>dā</i>	$*de-deh_3-ti \rightarrow da-d\bar{a}-ti$	$*deh_3-tum \rightarrow d\bar{a}-tum$	to give
<i>dhā</i>	$*de-dheh_1-ti \rightarrow da-dh\bar{a}-ti$	$*dheh_1-tum \rightarrow dh\bar{a}-tum$	to set, to place
<i>pā</i>	$pi-b-a-ti$ (p. 81)	$*peh_3-tum \rightarrow p\bar{a}-tum$	to drink
<i>śās</i>	$\acute{s}\bar{a}s-ti$	$*\acute{k}eHs-tum \rightarrow \acute{s}\bar{a}s-tum$	to order, to teach
<i>sthā</i>	$t\bar{i}-\acute{s}th-a-ti$	$*steh_2-tum \rightarrow sth\bar{a}-tum$ (levelling!)	to stand

C.3.5. Agent nouns, instrument nouns, and action nouns

Masculine action nouns with suffix *a*

Many examples can be found with oi. *a* added to the full-grade root. The simplest examples are those without half vowels:

√	translation	m. action/agent noun in f.g.	translation
<i>ar</i>	to fit, to connect	<i>ar-a-s</i>	spoke (of a wheel)
<i>kr̥</i>	to make	<i>bhas-kar-a-s</i>	light-maker → sun
<i>gam</i>	to go	<i>sam-ā-gam-a-s</i>	meeting
<i>bhañj</i>	to break	<i>bhañg-a-s</i>	breaking, defeat
<i>vr̥</i>	to choose	<i>var-a-s</i>	boon

and

√	translation	m. agent noun in f.g.	translation
<i>kr̥</i>	to make	<i>kumbha-kār-a-s</i>	pot-maker → potter

If the roots contain the half vowels *i* or *u*, *ê* or *ô*, respectively, show up in the full grade:

√	translation	m. action/agent noun in f.g.	translation
<i>khid</i>	to be depressed	<i>khêd-a-s</i>	tedium
<i>dīś</i>	to show	<i>dêś-a-s</i>	country
<i>bhid</i>	to split	<i>bhêd-a-s</i>	separation, split
<i>vid</i>	to know	<i>vêd-a-s</i>	sacred knowledge

and

√	translation	m. action/agent noun in f.g.	translation
<i>kup</i>	to be angry	<i>kôp-a-s</i>	anger
<i>krudh</i>	to be angry	<i>krôdh-a-s</i>	anger
<i>lubh</i>	to be desire	<i>lôbh-a-s</i>	greed

If a root end in *i*, we witness the half vowel *y* before the ending *a-s*:

√	translation	m. action/agent noun in f.g.	translation
<i>ji</i>	to conquer	<i>jay-a-s</i>	victory

Similarly for *i* (“to go”) where the meanings vary with the prepositions:

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√	translation	m. action noun in f.g.	translation
<i>ati-i</i>	to excel	<i>aty-ay-a-s</i>	transgression
<i>adhi-i</i>	to study	<i>adhy-ay-a-s</i>	chapter, section
<i>anu-i</i>	to follow	<i>anv-ay-a-s</i>	succession, progeny
<i>abhi-i</i>	to arrive	<i>abhy-ay-a-s</i>	arrival of darkness
<i>ud-i</i>	to go up	<i>ud-ay-a-s</i>	appearance of a star
<i>upa-i</i>	to go towards	<i>upa-ay-a-s</i> → <i>upāy-a-s</i>	means, approach
<i>ny-ā-i</i>	to come down	<i>ny-ā-ay-a-s</i> → <i>nyāy-a-s</i>	rule, method
<i>pra-i</i>	to set off	<i>pra-ay-a-s</i> → <i>prāy-a-s</i>	departure from life
<i>vi-i</i>	to disappear	<i>vy-ay-a-s</i>	loss, cost
		<i>a-vy-ay-a</i>	invariant
		<i>a-vy-ay-a-m, n. (!)</i>	indeclinable
		<i>a-vy-ay-a-s</i>	the eternal one, Viṣṇu

Since laryngeals are lost without trace between a consonant (here: the half vowel *y*) and a vowel, they affect the root vowel, but not the action noun:

√	translation	m. action/agent noun in f.g.	translation
<i>bhī</i> ← <i>*bhiH</i>	to fear	<i>bhay-a-m, n. (!)</i> ← <i>*bheyH-o-m</i>	fear, danger
<i>bhū</i> ← <i>*bhuH</i>	to be	<i>bhav-a-s</i> ← <i>*bheuH-o-s</i>	being, state

Consider

√	3. pers. sg.	translation	m. ac./ag. noun in f.g.	translation
<i>yuj</i>	<i>yuj-a-tê</i> ← ie. <i>*yug-e-toi</i>	he yokes	<i>yôg-a-s</i> ← ie. <i>*yeug-o-s</i>	joining

Secondary palatalization (**SPal**) lies behind

- ◇ palatal consonant *j* in *yuj-a-tê* (the ie. thematic vowel is *e*) versus
- ◇ non-palatal consonant *g* in *yôg-a-s* (the suffix vowel *a* goes back to ie. *o*)

This pattern can also be seen in

√	3. pers. sg.	translation	m. action/agent noun in f.g.	translation
<i>arc</i>	<i>arc-a-ti</i>	he shines	<i>ark-a-s</i>	sun, song
<i>bhaj</i>	<i>bhaj-a-ti</i>	he divides	<i>bhag-a-s</i>	wealth
<i>bhuj</i>	<i>bhuñj-a-ti</i>	he enjoys	<i>bhôg-a-s</i>	enjoyment
<i>mih</i>	<i>mêh-a-ti</i>	he urinates	<i>mêgh-a-s</i>	rain
<i>yuj</i>	<i>yuj-a-tê</i>	he yokes	<i>yôg-a-s</i>	joining
<i>vi-vic</i>	<i>vi-vi-na-k-ti</i>	he sifts	<i>vi-vêk-a-s</i>	discrimination
<i>śuc</i>	<i>śôc-a-ti</i>	he grieves	<i>śôk-a-s</i>	grief
<i>srj</i>	<i>srj-a-ti</i>	he releases	<i>sarg-a-s</i>	letting go

Neuter nouns with suffix *ana*

We find many neuter action nouns with suffix *ana*. The first *a* seems to go back to an ie. front vowel, i.e., ie. **eno* → oi. *ana*. Otherwise *bhôj-ana-m* or *vac-ana-m* in the following table could not be explained:

√	translation	n. action noun in f.g.	translation
<i>gam</i>	to go	<i>gam-ana-m</i>	going
<i>nī</i>	to lead	<i>nay-ana-m</i>	leading (→ eye)
<i>bhuj</i>	to enjoy	<i>bhôj-ana-m</i>	enjoyment
<i>mṛd</i>	to squeeze	<i>mard-ana-m</i>	rubbing, pressing
<i>vac</i>	to speak	<i>vac-ana-m</i>	speech
<i>vad</i>	to speak	<i>vad-ana-m</i>	speaking (→ mouth)
<i>vi-as</i>	he dissipate	<i>vy-as-ana-m</i>	vice
<i>śru</i>	he hears	<i>śrav-ana-m</i>	hearing
<i>su</i>	he presses	<i>sav-ana-m</i>	pressing, Soma
<i>sū</i>	she begets	<i>sav-ana-m</i>	childbirth

The oi. root *i* (“to go”) gives rise to these examples:

√	translation	n. action noun in f.g.	translation
<i>adhi-i</i>	to study	<i>adhy-ay-ana-m</i>	reading, recitation
<i>ud-i</i>	to go up	<i>ud-ay-ana-m</i>	rising of the sun, outcome
<i>upa-i</i>	to go towards	<i>upa-ay-ana-m</i> → <i>upāy-ana-m</i>	coming near (a teacher: initiation)
<i>pra-i</i>	to set off, to die	<i>pra-ay-ana-m</i> → <i>prāy-ana-m</i>	going forth, beginning

Remember also *rāma-ay-ana-m* → *rāmāy-ana-m*.

Some common laryngeal roots also use the *ana* suffix which looks like a *na* suffix. For example, from *dā* (“to give”), we obtain

$$*dā-ana \rightarrow \text{oi. } dā-na$$

and similarly

√	translation	n. action noun in f.g.	translation
<i>dā</i>	to give	<i>dā-na-m</i>	giving, gift
<i>dhā</i>	to put, to place	<i>dhā-na-m</i>	container
<i>pā</i>	to drink	<i>pā-na-m</i>	drinking, drink
<i>sthā</i>	to stand	<i>sthā-na-m</i>	standing, place

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Masculine nouns with suffix *ana*

Sometimes, the suffix *ana* may also point to an agent noun:

✓	translation	m. agent noun in f.g.	translation
<i>nand</i>	to delight	<i>nand-ana-s</i>	delighter
<i>pū</i>	to purify	<i>pav-ana-s</i>	purifyer → wind

Neuter nouns with suffix *as*

Very common neuter words like take the suffix *as*. Here is a list:

✓	translation	n. action noun in f.g.	translation
<i>cit</i>	to observe	<i>cêt-as</i>	thought
<i>tap</i>	to burn	<i>tap-as</i>	austerity
<i>nam</i>	to bow	<i>nam-as</i>	bowing, homage
<i>man</i>	to think	<i>man-as</i>	thought
<i>vac</i>	to speak	<i>vac-as</i>	speech

Neuter nouns with suffix *is*

Neuter nouns with suffix *is* are rare. Examples are

✓	translation	n. action noun in f.g.	translation
<i>jyut</i>	to shine	<i>jyôt-is</i>	light, star
<i>hu</i>	to sacrifice	<i>hav-is</i>	oblation

Agent nouns with suffix *tar*

Infinitives and agent nouns share the special features

- ◇ of building on the full grade and
- ◇ of using a *t*-suffix, *tum* in the case of the infinitive and *tar* for agent nouns:

✓	infinitive	translation	m. agent noun in f.g.	translation
<i>av</i>	<i>av-i-tum</i>	to help	<i>av-i-tar</i>	helper, friend
<i>kr̥</i>	<i>kar-tum</i>	to make	<i>kar-tar</i>	doer, maker
<i>kruś</i>	<i>krôṣ-ṭum</i>	to shriek	<i>krôṣ-ṭar</i>	shrieker → jackal
<i>gam</i>	<i>gan-tum</i>	to go	<i>gan-tar</i>	goer
<i>jî</i>	<i>jê-tum</i>	to defeat	<i>jê-tar</i>	conqueror
<i>duh</i>	<i>dôg-dhum</i>	to milk	<i>dôg-dhar</i>	milker, exploiter

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<i>nī</i>	<i>nê-tum</i>	to lead	<i>nê-tar</i>	leader
<i>pā</i>	<i>pā-tum</i>	to drink	<i>pā-tar</i>	drinker
<i>bhṛ</i>	<i>bhar-tum</i>	to carry	<i>bhar-tar</i>	husband
<i>vac</i>	<i>vak-tum</i>	to speak	<i>vak-tar</i>	speaker
<i>vah</i>	<i>vô-dhum</i>	to drive	<i>vô-dhṛ</i>	bridegroom
<i>śru</i>	<i>śrô-tum</i>	to hear	<i>śrô-tar</i>	hearer
<i>sū</i>	<i>sav-i-tum</i>	to beget	<i>sav-i-tar</i>	activator, father, sun
<i>hu</i>	<i>hō-tum</i>	to sacrifice	<i>hō-tar</i>	priest

Sometimes, the zero grade is taken instead. Ie. **khen-H* has zero grade *khā* by the sound law “ie. $C\eta H \rightarrow oi. Cā$ ”. This is the form seen in *khā-tar* (“digger”) \leftarrow *khan* (“to dig”), besides the expected full-grade form *khan-i-tar* \leftarrow **khen-H-t-*.

Instrument nouns with suffix *tra*

The instruments used by the agents from the previous subsection are characterized by the suffix *tra* + neuter ending *m*. For example, the “drinker” *pā-tā* uses the “drinking-vessel” *pā-tram*.

√	infinitive	translation	n. instrum. noun in f.g.	translation
<i>kr</i>	<i>kar-tum</i>	to make	<i>kar-tra-m</i>	spell, charm
<i>gā</i>	<i>gā-tum</i>	to go	<i>gā-tra-m</i>	body limb
<i>chad</i>	<i>chat-tum</i>	to cover	<i>chat-tra-m</i> / <i>chatra-m</i>	umbrella
<i>duh</i>	<i>dôg-dhum</i>	to milk	<i>dôg-dhra-m</i>	milk-pail
<i>nī</i>	<i>nê-tum</i>	to lead	<i>nê-tra-m</i>	eye
<i>pat</i>	<i>pat-i-tum</i>	to fly	<i>pat-tra-m</i> / <i>patra-m</i>	wing, leaf
<i>pā</i>	<i>pā-tum</i>	to drink	<i>pā-tra-m</i>	cup, vessel
<i>yam</i>	<i>yan-tum</i>	to hold up/back	<i>yan-tra-m</i>	band, instrument
<i>vac</i>	<i>vak-tum</i>	to speak	<i>vak-tra-m</i>	mouth
<i>vas</i>	<i>vas-tum</i>	to clothe	<i>vas-tra-m</i>	clothing
<i>śas</i>	<i>śas-tum</i>	to kill	<i>śas-tra-m</i>	weapon
<i>śās</i>	<i>śās-tum</i>	to instruct	<i>śās-tra-m</i>	scientific text
<i>śru</i>	<i>śrô-tum</i>	to hear	<i>śrô-tra-m</i>	ear
<i>hu</i>	<i>hō-tum</i>	to sacrifice	<i>hō-tra-m</i>	sacrifice

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Action nouns with suffix *man*

Action nouns in *man* are also derived from the full grade:

√	infinitive	translation	n. instrument noun in f.g.	translation (means of ...)
<i>kṛ</i>	<i>kar-tum</i>	to make	<i>kar-man</i>	action
<i>chad</i>	<i>chat-tum</i>	to cover	<i>chad-man</i>	roof, protection
<i>jan</i>	<i>jan-i-tum</i>	to beget	<i>jan-man</i>	birth

C.3.6. Comparative and superlative

Comparative and superlative forms are often formed *tara* and *tama* or with *īyas* and *iṣṭha*, respectively:

adjective	translation	comparative	superlative
<i>priya</i>	dear	<i>priya-tara</i>	<i>priya-tama</i>
<i>mahant</i>	great	<i>mahat-tara</i>	<i>mahat-tama</i>
<i>alpa</i>	small	<i>alp-īyas</i>	<i>alp-iṣṭha</i>
<i>uru</i>	wide	<i>var-īyas</i>	<i>var-iṣṭha</i>
<i>guru</i>	heavy	<i>gar-īyas</i>	<i>gar-iṣṭha</i>

Many of the *īyas* and *iṣṭha* forms are built on verbal roots. Then, the adjective builds on the zero grade while we find the full grade in both comparative and superlative:

√	translation	adjective (z.g.)	translation	comparative (f.g.)	superlative (f.g.)
<i>kṣip</i>	to throw	<i>kṣip-ra</i> (1)	fast	<i>kṣêp-īyas</i> (1)	<i>kṣêp-iṣṭha</i> (1)
<i>kṣud</i>	to crush	<i>kṣud-ra</i> (1)	small	<i>kṣôd-īyas</i> (1)	<i>kṣôd-iṣṭha</i> (1)
<i>mṛd</i>	to rub	<i>mṛd-u</i>	soft	<i>mrâd-īyas</i> (2)	<i>mrâd-iṣṭha</i> (2)

1. One class of adjectives is built from the zero grade plus *ra* (as shown on pp. 121). This *r* is lost in the comparative and superlative forms.
2. In contrast to *mard-ana-m*, we find *ra* rather than *ar* for unclear reasons.

C.3.7. Future with *sy*-suffix

Forms with and without RUKI

The future meaning has developed from a desiderative one. Compare e. *he will go* which indicates future tense. Its original meaning is “he wants to go”; e. *will* is related to nhg. *wollen* (“to want”). The Sanskrit desiderative is dealt with in the next section (subsection C.4.8, pp. 126). The future is formed from the full grade of the root:

C.3. Infinitive and other normal-grade forms

full-grade root + *sy* + *a* + ending

Long- \bar{a} roots (although stemming from laryngeals) provide simple examples:

√ in f.g.	translation	infinitive	future, 3. sg.
<i>dā</i>	to give	<i>dā-tum</i>	<i>dā-sy-a-ti</i>
<i>dhā</i>	to set, to place	<i>dhā-tum</i>	<i>dhā-sy-a-ti</i>
<i>pā</i>	to drink	<i>pā-tum</i>	<i>pā-sy-a-ti</i>
<i>sthā</i>	to stand	<i>sthā-tum</i>	<i>sthā-sy-a-ti</i>

For roots without *i* or *u*, we find the full grade *a* in

√ in f.g.	translation	infinitive	future, 3. sg.
<i>man</i>	to think	<i>man-tum</i>	<i>maṁ-sy-a-ti</i>
<i>yaj</i>	to sacrifice	<i>yaṣ-tum</i>	<i>yak-sy-a-ti</i>
<i>ram</i>	to enjoy	<i>ran-tum</i>	<i>raṁ-sy-a-tê</i>
<i>labh</i>	to obtain	<i>lab-dhum</i>	<i>lap-sy-a-tê</i>
<i>vac</i>	to speak	<i>vak-tum</i>	<i>vak-sy-a-ti</i>
<i>sad</i>	to sit	<i>sat-tum</i>	<i>sat-sy-a-tê</i>
<i>han</i>	to kill	<i>han-tum</i>	<i>haṁ-sy-a-ti</i>

In all these examples, we see some backward assimilation to the unvoiced *s*. **RU****KI** is encountered after *k* in *vak-sy-a-ti*. Also, *labh* shows that the *s* cannot become aspirated, i.e., there is no aspiration shift as in *lap-sy-a-tê*. For the same reason, the following two future forms are identical:

√ in z.g.	translation	infinitive	future, 3. sg.
<i>vṛt</i>	to turn round	<i>vart-i-tum</i>	<i>vart-sy-a-ti</i>
<i>vṛdh</i>	to grow	<i>vardh-i-tum</i>	<i>vart-sy-a-ti</i>

Roots with *i* lead to full grade \hat{e} and hence to

√ in f.g.	translation	infinitive	future, 3. sg.
<i>i</i>	to go	<i>ê-tum</i>	<i>ê-sy-a-ti</i>
<i>kṣip</i>	to throw	<i>kṣêp-tum</i>	<i>kṣêp-sy-a-ti</i>
<i>ji</i>	to defeat	<i>jê-tum</i>	<i>jê-sy-a-ti</i>
<i>bhid</i>	to break	<i>bhêt-tum</i>	<i>bhêt-sy-a-ti</i>

while roots with *u* lead to full grade \hat{o} clearly seen in

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√ in z.g.	translation	infinitive	future, 3. sg.
<i>muc</i>	to liberate	<i>môk-tum</i>	<i>môk-şy-a-ti</i>
<i>yuj</i>	to join	<i>yôk-tum</i>	<i>yôk-şy-a-ti</i>
<i>şru</i>	to listen	<i>şrô-tum</i>	<i>şrô-şy-a-ti</i>
<i>stu</i>	to praise	<i>stô-tum</i>	<i>stô-şy-a-ti</i>

Laryngeal roots are responsible for *i-şy-a-ti*:

√	translation	infinitive	future, 3. sg.
<i>jan</i> (f.g.)	to be born	<i>*ġen-H-tum → jan-i-tum</i>	<i>jan-i-şy-a-ti</i>
<i>bhū</i>	to be	<i>*bheu-H-tum → bhav-i-tum</i>	<i>bhav-i-şy-a-ti</i>

By analogy, this convenient quasi-thematic *i* spreads to other roots without any laryngeal excuse:

√ in f.g.	translation	infinitive	future, 3. sg.
<i>kṛ</i>	to make	<i>kartum</i>	<i>kar-i-şy-a-ti</i>
<i>gam</i>	to go	<i>gan-tum</i>	<i>gam-i-şy-a-ti</i>
<i>tan</i>	to stretch	<i>tan-tum</i>	<i>tan-i-şy-a-ti</i>
<i>budh</i>	to awake	<i>bôdh-i-tum</i>	<i>bôdh-i-şy-a-ti</i>
<i>bhṛ</i>	to carry	<i>bhartum</i>	<i>bhar-i-şy-a-ti</i>
<i>man</i>	to think	<i>man-tum</i>	<i>man-i-şy-a-ti/tê</i>
<i>smṛ</i>	to remember	<i>smartum</i>	<i>smar-i-şy-a-ti</i>
<i>likh</i>	to write	<i>lêkh-i-tum</i>	<i>lêkh-i-şy-a-ti</i>
<i>vad</i>	to speak	<i>vad-i-tum</i>	<i>vad-i-şy-a-ti</i>
<i>vṛt</i>	to turn round	<i>vart-i-tum</i>	<i>vart-i-şy-a-tê</i>
<i>vṛdh</i>	to grow	<i>vardh-i-tum</i>	<i>vardh-i-şy-a-tê</i>

Aspiration laws (revelation of aspirated root-initial)

The aspiration laws lead to interesting future forms for two reasons:

1. The aspiration shift **ASh** cannot happen onto *s* or *sy*.
2. Then, there is no need for root-initial deaspiration and ie. aspiration becomes apparent:

√	translation	infinitive	future, 3. sg.
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<i>gāh</i>	to dive	<i>gā-dhum</i>	<i>ghāk-şy-a-tê</i> ← * <i>gheH??</i> -
<i>dah</i>	to burn	<i>dag-dhum</i>	<i>dhak-şy-a-ti</i> ← * <i>dheg^wh-s-</i>
<i>dih</i>	to smear	<i>dêg-dhum</i>	<i>dhêk-şy-a-ti</i> ← * <i>dheigh-s-</i>
<i>duh</i>	to milk	<i>dôg-dhum</i>	<i>dhôk-şy-a-ti</i> ← * <i>dheugh-s-</i>
<i>bandh</i> ← * <i>bhendh</i>	to bind	<i>bad-dhum</i> (z.g.!)	<i>bhant-sy-a-ti</i> ← * <i>bhendh-s-</i>
<i>budh</i> ← * <i>bhudh</i>	to awake	<i>bôdh-i-tum</i>	<i>bhôt-sy-a-ti</i> ← * <i>bheudh-s-</i>

Primary palatalization (revelation of root-final)

Primary palatalization is seen in the sound law

$$\text{ie. } \acute{k} \rightarrow \text{oi. } \acute{s}.$$

Now, ie. *k* manifests itself in oi. future forms as oi. *k*:

√	translation	infinitive	future, 3. sg.
<i>damś</i> (f.g.!)	<i>daś-a-ti</i>	<i>damş-tum</i>	<i>damk-şy-a-ti</i> ← * <i>denk'-s</i>
<i>diś</i>	<i>diś-a-ti</i>	<i>dêş-tum</i>	<i>dêk-şy-a-ti</i> ← * <i>deik'-s-</i>
<i>drś</i>	to see	<i>draş-tum</i>	<i>drak-şy-a-ti</i> ← * <i>derk'-s-</i>
<i>naś</i> (z.g.!)	to perish	<i>namş-tum</i>	<i>namk-şy-a-ti</i> ← * <i>h₂ne(n)k'-s-</i>
<i>pracch</i> (f.g.)	to ask	<i>praş-tum</i>	<i>prak-şy-a-ti</i> ← * <i>prek'-s-</i>
<i>sprś</i>	to touch	<i>sparş-tum, spraş-tum</i>	<i>spark-şy-a-ti</i> ← * <i>sperk'-s-</i>

A second origin of *k-şy* in future forms is **SIB**, in particular

$$\text{oi. } \acute{s} + s \rightarrow \text{oi. } k + \acute{s}$$

Here are some examples:

√	translation	infinitive	future, 3. sg.
<i>krş</i>	to plough	<i>karş-tum, kraş-tum</i>	<i>kark-şy-a-ti</i>
<i>tuş</i>	to enjoy	<i>tôş-tum</i>	<i>tôk-şy-a-ti</i>
<i>dviş</i>	to hate	<i>dvêş-tum</i>	<i>dvêk-şy-a-ti</i>
<i>puş</i>	to nourish	<i>pôş-tum</i>	<i>pôk-şy-a-ti</i>

Finally, remember the **SIB** rule

$$\text{oi. } s + s \rightarrow \text{oi. } t + s$$

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with the following example:

✓	translation	infinitive	future, 3. sg.
<i>vas</i>	to dwell	<i>vas-tum</i>	<i>vat-sy-a-ti</i>

C.3.8. Causatives

As a rule, causatives are built from the full grade. However, since the ie. root vowel is *o* for causatives, Brugmann's law applies. Therefore, one often observes \bar{a} which should not be addressed as a lengthened grade.

I begin with the full grade in closed syllables, typical for roots with *i* or *u*. With *i* we find

$\underbrace{viś}$,	$\underbrace{vēś}$	$\underbrace{-ay-}$	\underbrace{a}	-	\underbrace{ti}
oi. root		root	suffix	thematic		ending
in zero grade		in full grade		vowel		3. pers. sg.

and with *u*

- ◇ *bhōd-ay-a-ti* ("causes to be awake → awakens") ← *budh* ("to be awake")
- ◇ *kōp-ay-a-ti* ("causes to be angry → enrages") ← *kup* ("to be angry")
- ◇ *śōbh-ay-a-ti* ("causes to shine, to be beautiful") ← *śubh* ("to shine")

Oi. roots ending on long vowel \bar{a} (which full grade due to the laryngeal) use *p* to mark causatives:

- ◇ *sthā-p-ay-a-ti* ("causes to stand → sets") ← *sthā* ("to stand")
- ◇ *dā-p-ay-a-ti* ("causes to give") ← *dā* ("to give")
- ◇ *snā-p-ay-a-ti* ("causes to swim → to bathe") ← *snā* ("to swim")
- ◇ *jñā-p-ay-a-ti* ("causes to know → inform") ← *jñā* ("to know")

Brugmann's law is responsible for these examples:

- ◇ *kār-ay-a-ti* ("causes to do → orders") ← *kr̥* ("to make")
- ◇ *tyāj-ay-a-ti* ("causes to abandon") ← *tyaj* ("to abandon")
- ◇ *pāt-ay-a-ti* ("causes to read → teaches") ← *pat̥* ("to read")
- ◇ *mār-ay-a-ti* ("causes to die → kills") ← *mr̥* ("to die")
- ◇ *vāc-ay-a-ti* ("make [a text] speak → read") ← *vac* ("to speak")
- ◇ *śrāv-ay-a-ti* ("causes to hear → teaches") ← *śru* ("to hear")
- ◇ *sād-ay-a-ti* ("causes to sit → makes sit") ← *sad* ("to sit")

C.3. Infinitive and other normal-grade forms

Applications of Brugmann's law is regularly prevented by laryngeals as in these examples:

√	3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>jan</i>	<i>jan-ay-a-ti</i> ← ie. * <i>gonH-ey-e-ti</i>	he begets
<i>dam</i>	<i>dam-ay-a-ti</i> ← ie. * <i>domH-ey-e-ti</i>	he tames

In contrast, we find “wrong”

◇ *bhāv-aya-ti* (“causes to be → makes”) from oi. root *bhū* (“to be”) ← ie. **bhuH*,

where the laryngeal should have prevented application of **Lo**.

Perhaps due to the two consonants following *u*, zero-grade is exhibited in

◇ *cumb-aya-ti* (“causes to kiss”) ← *cumb* (“to kiss”)

C.3.9. Gerunds in *am*

There exists a rare gerund that is formed with *am*. It mostly uses the full grade:

√	translation	<i>ām</i> -gerund, full grade
<i>kṣip</i>	to throw	<i>kṣêp-am</i>
<i>dṛś</i>	to see	<i>darś-am</i>
<i>bandh</i> (f.g.)	to bind	<i>bandh-am</i>
<i>buj</i>	to enjoy	<i>bôj-am</i>

However, by **Lo**, one often witnesses long *ā* in open syllables:

√	translation	<i>ām</i> -gerund, lengthened grade
<i>kr̥</i>	to make	<i>kār-am</i>
<i>grah</i>	to grab	<i>grāh-am</i>
<i>taḍ</i>	to hit	<i>tāḍ-am</i>
<i>dah</i>	to burn	<i>dāh-am</i>
<i>paṭ</i>	to read	<i>pāṭ-am</i>
<i>vah</i>	to carry	<i>vāh-am</i>
<i>śru</i>	to hear	<i>śrāv-am</i>
<i>smṛ</i>	to remember	<i>smār-am</i>

Verbs like *trāi* regularly lead to *trāy-am*:

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√	translation	ām-gerund, full grade
<i>gâi</i>	to sing	<i>gāy-am</i>
<i>trâi</i>	to protect	<i>trāy-am</i>
<i>dhyâi</i>	to meditate	<i>dhyāy-am</i>

However, *trāy-am* might be misunderstood as *trâ-yam*. This misunderstanding gave rise to a gerund marker *yam* that is found in these examples:

√	translation	ām-gerund, full grade
<i>dā</i>	to give	<i>dā-yam</i>
<i>dhā</i>	to set, to place	<i>dhā-yam</i>
<i>pā</i>	to drink	<i>pā-yam</i>
<i>mā</i>	to measure	<i>mā-yam</i>

C.4. Past participle and other zero-grade forms

C.4.1. Root nouns

Before dealing with the past participles, we present the so-called root nouns where endings are directly affixed to the root. Most of them are feminine. Root nouns are typically indicated by

- ◇ the root in zero grade and
- ◇ the nom. sg. which does not exhibit any case ending. Its root-final consonant is characterized by loss of voice and aspiration as explained in subsection B.3.5.

Dental root-final consonant

In the case of dental root-final consonant, the “no voice, no aspiration” rule yields the obvious results:

- ◇ *yut* (stem *yudh*) (“battle”)
- ◇ *mṛt* (stem *mṛd*) (“clay”)
- ◇ *vidyut* (stem *vidyut*) (“flash of lightning”)

Full grade

The root may sometimes be in full grade, for reasons explained in section C.1, pp. 77:

- ◇ *upa-ni-ṣat* (stem *upa-ni-ṣad*) ← ie. **sed*

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- Old meaning: “the sitting down at the feet of another to listen to his words, and hence, secret knowledge given in this manner”
- Current opinion: “a placement of two or several things in a hierarchy, in particular with respect to a hierarchically interconnected universe”

- ◇ *saṃ-sat* (stem *saṃ-sad*) (“assembly”) ← ie. **sed*
- ◇ *pari-ṣat* (stem *pari-ṣad*) (“assembly”) ← ie. **sed*
- ◇ *ā-pat* (stem *ā-pad*) (“calamity”) ← ie. **ped*

***k* or *t̥* as root-final consonants**

When the root ends in oi. *ś*, we are not surprised to see oi. *k* instead, since oi. *ś* goes back to ie. palatal *k̑* (p. 35):

- ◇ *dr̥k* (stem *dr̥ś*) (“sight”) ← ie. root **derk̑*

But one also finds *t̥*:

- ◇ *viṭ* (stem *viś*) (“house, people”) ← ie. root **veik̑*

Other examples are

- ◇ *bhuk* (stem *bhuj*) (“enjoyment, utility”) ← ie. root **bheug*
- ◇ *miṭ* (stem *mih*) (“mist, haze, fog”) ← ie. root **meiǵh*
- ◇ *śuk* (stem *śuc*) (“flame, grief”) ← ie. root **kéuk*

See subsection B.3.5, pp. 45 for a few attempts to distill rules.

C.4.2. General rule for PPP

Roughly speaking, the past participle (PPP) is constructed in this manner:

$$\text{zero-grade root} + \text{ta (ie. } *to$$

Consider these examples with syllabic *r̥* in both oi. root and PPP where the zero grade clearly shows:

√ in z.g.	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
<i>kṛ̥</i>	<i>kar-ô-ti</i>	<i>kṛ̥-ta</i>	to make
<i>bhṛ̥</i>	<i>bhar-a-ti</i>	<i>bhṛ̥-ta</i>	to carry
<i>mṛ̥</i>	<i>mri-ya-tê</i>	<i>mṛ̥-ta</i>	to die
<i>smṛ̥</i>	<i>smar-a-ti</i>	<i>smṛ̥-ta</i>	to remember
<i>hṛ̥</i>	<i>har-a-ti</i>	<i>hṛ̥-ta</i>	to take, to rob

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Roots with *i* preserve this *i* in the PPP:

√ in z.g.	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
<i>i</i>	<i>ê-ti</i>	<i>i-ta</i>	to go
<i>kšip</i>	<i>kšip-a-ti</i>	<i>kšip-ta</i>	to throw
<i>ji</i>	<i>jay-a-ti</i>	<i>ji-ta</i>	to defeat

Regarding *i* with prefixes, consider:

√	translation	PPP	translation
<i>adhi-i</i>	to study	<i>adhî-ta</i>	well read, learned
<i>upa-i</i>	to go towards	<i>upê-ta</i>	endowed with
<i>pra-i</i>	to set off, to die	<i>prê-ta</i>	gone forth → dead
<i>vi-i</i>	to diverge, to disappear	<i>vî-ta</i>	gone, freed from

Likewise, roots with *u* (or f.g. root with initial *v*) preserve this *u* in the PPP:

√	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
<i>muc</i>	<i>muñc-a-ti</i>	<i>muk-ta</i>	to liberate
<i>yuḷ</i>	<i>yu-na-k-ti</i>	<i>yuk-ta</i>	to join
<i>vac</i> (f.g.)	<i>vak-ti</i>	<i>uk-ta</i>	to speak
<i>vap</i> (f.g.)	<i>vap-a-ti</i>	<i>up-ta</i>	to sow
<i>śru</i>	<i>śr-ṇô-ti</i>	<i>śru-ta</i>	to listen
<i>stu</i>	<i>stâu-ti</i> (Narten)	<i>stu-ta</i>	to praise
<i>hu</i>	<i>ju-hô-ti</i>	<i>hu-ta</i>	to sacrifice

Instead of the *ta* marker, a few verbs also use *na*. Most roots in the table below end in *d* so that we obtain the expected backward assimilation:

√	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
<i>khid</i>	<i>khid-ya-ti</i>	<i>khin-na</i>	to suffer
<i>tud</i>	<i>tud-a-ti</i>	<i>tun-na</i>	to hit
<i>nud</i>	<i>nud-a-ti</i>	<i>nun-na</i>	to push

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<i>pad</i>	<i>pad-y-a-tê</i>	<i>pan-na</i>	to fall, to go
<i>bhid</i>	<i>bhi-na-t-ti</i>	<i>bhin-na</i>	to break
<i>sad</i> (f.g.)	<i>sîd-a-ti</i>	<i>san-na</i>	to sit

But stems that end in oi. *j* also use the *na* marker:

√ in f.g.	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
<i>bhañj</i>	<i>bha-na-k-ti</i>	<i>bhag-na</i>	to break
<i>majj</i>	<i>majj-a-ti</i>	<i>mag-na</i>	to sink

In contrast to the PPP, the infinitive (section C.3) is typically formed by adding oi. *tum* to the full-grade root. However, since we have a suffix beginning with *t* in both cases, there are quite a number of similarities as will become obvious in the following subsections.

Basically, gerunds ending with *tvā* use the zero-grade root as do the PPP. However, in many verbs, the infinitive seems to have influenced the formation of the gerund. Hence, we have many gerunds that use the normal grade, often along with a form in zero grade.

C.4.3. Oi. roots ending in a nasal

Sometimes, the oi. root is not in zero grade and therefore, it is not suitable for the purpose of forming the PPP. We then have to form the zero grade ourselves. An important class concerns the oi. roots ending in a nasal. According to subsection B.5.2 (pp. 66), a nasal that becomes syllabic turns into oi. *a*. Consider these examples:

√ in f.g.	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
<i>gam</i>	<i>ga-cch-a-ti</i>	ie. $*g\underset{\circ}{m}-to \rightarrow gata$	to go
<i>tan</i>	<i>ta-nô-ti</i>	ie. $*t\underset{\circ}{n}-to \rightarrow tata$	to stretch

and this list:

√ in f.g.	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
<i>nam</i>	<i>nam-a-ti</i>	<i>nata</i>	to salute
<i>man</i>	<i>man-y-a-tê</i>	<i>mata</i>	to think
<i>yam</i>	<i>yacch-a-ti</i>	<i>yata</i>	to restrain
<i>ram</i>	<i>ram-a-tê</i>	<i>rata</i>	to enjoy
<i>han</i>	<i>han-ti</i>	<i>hata</i>	to hit

The last example goes back ie. $*g^w\textit{hen}$ “to kill, to hit” where secondary palatalization

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(before ie. *e*) produces *han-ti*. However, secondary palatalization cannot be invoked for the zero grade where we should have obtained $*g^w h \underset{\circ}{n} -to \rightarrow gha-ta$. *ha-ta* is easily explained by proportional analogy:

<i>tan</i>	with root-initial consonant <i>t</i> :	<i>tata</i>
just as		
<i>han</i>	with root-initial consonant <i>h</i> :	<i>hata</i>

C.4.4. Aspiration and cerebralization

Applying aspiration laws

If an oi. root ends in a voiced aspirate, the addition of *ta* necessitates the aspiration shift **ASh** which is associated with the name of Christian Bartholomae (see section B.3.3, pp. 37):

√	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
<i>kṣubh</i>	<i>kṣubh-y-a-ti</i>	<i>kṣub-dha</i>	to be upset
<i>yudh</i>	<i>yudh-y-a-tê</i>	<i>yud-dha</i>	to fight
<i>labh</i> (f.g.)	<i>labh-a-tê</i>	<i>lab-dha</i> (f.g.!)	to obtain
<i>vṛdh</i>	<i>vardh-a-tê</i>	<i>vṛd-dha</i>	to grow

Note that *lab-dha* is full grade. While *l* might become syllabic, the result n.at. *ḷb-dha* would be unusual.

Sometimes, Grassmann's law is also applied. It says: If you have two aspirated sounds, the first one becomes deaspirated. Nice examples are provided by these PPP:

√	future 3. sg.	PPP	translation
<i>bandh</i> ← <i>*bhendh</i>	<i>bhant-sy-a-ti</i> ← <i>*bhendh-s-</i>	<i>bad-dha</i> ← <i>*bh_̃ndh-to</i>	to bind
<i>budh</i> ← <i>*bhudh</i>	<i>bhôt-sy-a-ti</i> ← <i>*bheudh-s-</i>	<i>bud-dha</i> ← <i>*bhudh-to</i>	to awake

where

- ◇ the root initial *bh* becomes deaspirated (**DA**)
- ◇ the root final *dh* undergoes the aspiration shift (**ASh**) due to Bartholomae.

We now need to mix these sound laws with the rules named secondary palatalization (**SPal**, fig. B.2 on p. 36). For example, we have

ie. $*dheg^w h\text{-}to$ (z.g. with *to*-marker for PPP)
 $\rightarrow dhegh\text{-}to$ (no **SPal** before consonant *t*)
 $\rightarrow deg h\text{-}to$ (**DA**)
 $\rightarrow dag\text{-}dha$ ($a\bar{a}$, **ASh**, $a\bar{a}$)

and

ie. $*snig^w h\text{-}to$ (z.g. with *to*-marker for PPP)
 $\rightarrow snigh\text{-}to$ (no **SPal** before *t*)
 $\rightarrow snig\text{-}dha$ (**ASh**, $a\bar{a}$)

Thus, we get these examples:

$\sqrt{\quad}$	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
<i>dah</i> (f.g.)	<i>dah-a-ti</i>	$*dheg^w h\text{-}to \rightarrow dag\text{-}dha$ (f.g.!)	to burn
<i>dih</i>	<i>dêg-dhi</i>	$*dhigh\text{-}to \rightarrow dig\text{-}dhum$	to smear
<i>duh</i>	<i>dôg-dhi</i>	$*dhugh\text{-}to \rightarrow dug\text{-}dhum$	to milk
<i>sni h</i>	<i>sni h-y-a-ti</i>	$*snig^w h\text{-}to \rightarrow snig\text{-}dha$	to love

A small mystery is provided by *nah* (“to bind”) with PPP *nad-dha*. Presumably, *nadh* is the “correct” oi. full-grade stem from where *nah* was produced as a dialectal variant (see pp. 53). From *nadh*, the PPP *nad-dha* (“bound”) is obtained by Bartholomae’s law. The problem is that *naddha* would then be in full grade. The zero grade $*addha$ is unattested as is a hypothetical full-grade root $*nandh$ which could have produced the PPP *nad-dha* as *bandh* (“to bind”) leads to *bad-dha*.

Applying cerebralization sound laws

In a number of verbs, the PPP involves cerebralization, in particular due to

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{CerD} & \text{oi. } \text{ṣ}/\acute{\text{ṣ}} + t \rightarrow \text{oi. } \text{ṣ}\acute{t} \\ & \text{ṣ} + d/dh \rightarrow \text{ṣ} + \acute{d}/\acute{dh} \end{array}$$

First, consider oi. roots that end in $\acute{\text{ṣ}}$ that goes back to ie. \acute{k} :

◇ *damṣ* (“to bite”) \leftarrow ie. $*den\acute{k}$
 ie. $*d\acute{n}\acute{k}\text{-}to$ (z.g. with *to*-marker for PPP)
 $\rightarrow da\acute{\text{ṣ}}\text{-}to$ (syllabic $\text{ṇ} \rightarrow a$, **PPal**)
 $\rightarrow da\text{ṣ}\text{-}ta$ (**CerD**, $a\bar{a}$)

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- ◇ $dr\acute{s}$ (“to see”) \leftarrow ie. $*der\acute{k}$ with
 - ie. $*dr\acute{k}\text{-}to$ (z.g. with *to*-marker for PPP)
 - $\rightarrow dr\acute{s}\text{-}to$ (**PPal**)
 - $\rightarrow dr\acute{s}\text{-}ta$ (**CerD**, $a\bar{a}$)
- ◇ $pracch$ (“to ask”) \leftarrow ie. $*pre\acute{k}\text{-}s\acute{k}$ with
 - ie. $*pr\acute{k}\text{-}to$ (z.g. with *to*-marker for PPP)
 - $\rightarrow pr\acute{s}\text{-}to$ (**PPal**)
 - $\rightarrow pr\acute{s}\text{-}ta$ (**CerD**, $a\bar{a}$)
- ◇ $vi\acute{s}$ (“to enter”) \leftarrow ie. $*vei\acute{k}$ with
 - ie. $*vi\acute{k}\text{-}to$ (z.g. with *to*-marker for PPP)
 - $\rightarrow vi\acute{s}\text{-}to$ (**PPal**)
 - $\rightarrow vi\acute{s}\text{-}ta$ (**CerD**, $a\bar{a}$)

A second important cerebralization rule is the **RUKI** rule. It combines with **CerD** in these examples:

- ◇ $i\grave{s}$ (“to wish”) \leftarrow ie. $*h_2eis$ with
 - ie. $*h_2is\text{-}to$ (z.g. with *to*-marker for PPP)
 - $\rightarrow i\grave{s}\text{-}to$ (**RUKI**)
 - $\rightarrow i\grave{s}\text{-}ta$ (**CerD**, $a\bar{a}$)
- ◇ $kr\grave{s}$ (“to plough”) \leftarrow ie. $*kers$ with
 - ie. $*kr\grave{s}\text{-}to$ (z.g. with *to*-marker for PPP)
 - $\rightarrow kr\grave{s}\text{-}to$ (**RUKI**)
 - $\rightarrow kr\grave{s}\text{-}ta$ (**CerD**, $a\bar{a}$)
- ◇ $dvi\grave{s}$ (“to hate”) \leftarrow ie. $*dveis$ with
 - ie. $*dvis\text{-}to$ (z.g. with *to*-marker for PPP)
 - $\rightarrow dvi\grave{s}\text{-}to$ (**RUKI**)
 - $\rightarrow dvi\grave{s}\text{-}ta$ (**CerD**, $a\bar{a}$)
- ◇ $vr\grave{s}$ (“to rain”) \leftarrow ie. $*vers$ with
 - ie. $*vr\grave{s}\text{-}to$ (z.g. with *to*-marker for PPP)
 - $\rightarrow vr\grave{s}\text{-}to$ (**RUKI**)
 - $\rightarrow vr\grave{s}\text{-}ta$ (**CerD**, $a\bar{a}$)

Finally, before application of **RUKI**, a **sz** rule is applied in the PPP $i\grave{s}\text{-}ta$ of oi. yaj (“to sacrifice”):

- ie. **iǵ-to* (z.g. with *to* PPP marker)
- *is-to* (**sz** before voiceless cons.)
- *iš-to* (**RUKI**)
- *iš-ta* (**CerD**, **aa**)

and, very similarly, for the PPP of *srj* (“to throw, to create”):

- ie. **srǵ-to* (z.g. with *to* PPP marker)
- *srs-to* (**sz** before voiceless cons.)
- *srs-to* (**RUKI**)
- *srs-ta* (**CerD**, **aa**)

Interestingly, *iš-ta* is the regularly formed PPP of both

- ◇ *iš* (“to wish”) ← ie. full grade **h₂eis* (see 114) and
- ◇ oi. *yaj* (“to sacrifice”) ← ie. full grade **yeǵ* (see 115)

... both aspiration and cerebralization laws

Even more complicated is the explanation for the past participle of *vah* (“to flow”, “to carry”) which is *ūdha*. Very strange? Well, yes. But regular. The ie. origin is **veǵh*, with zero grade *uǵh* (**hV**) so that we obtain

- ie. **uǵh-to* (z.g. with *to* PPP marker)
- *uǵ-dho* (**ASh**)
- *uz-dho* (**sz** before voiced stop)
- *uz-dho* (**RUKI**)
- *uz-dha* (**CerD**, **aa**)
- *ū-dha* (**CpLz**)

A very parallel development leads to the past participle *līdha* of *lih*, *lihati* (“to lick”), this time lengthening *i* rather than *u*:

- ie. **liǵh-to* (z.g. with *to* PPP marker)
- *liǵ-dho* (**ASh**)
- *liz-dho* (**sz** before voiced stop)
- *liz-dho* (**RUKI**)
- *liz-dha* (**CerD**, **aa**)
- *lī-dha* (**CpLz**)

Similarly, but with Grassmann's law, *guh* ("to hide") goes back to ie. **gheuǵh* and we get

- ie. **ghuǵh-to* (z.g. with *to* PPP marker)
- *guǵ-dho* (**DA** and **ASh**)
- *guz-dho* (**sz** before voiced stop)
- *guẓ-dho* (**RUKI**)
- *guẓ-dha* (**CerD**, **aā**)
- *gū-dha* (**CpLz**)

Also, with root vowel $\underset{\circ}{l}$ rather than *i* or *u*, we have ie. **delǵh* ("to be fix") so that we obtain

- ie. **dlǵh-to* (z.g. with *to* PPP marker)
- *drǵ-dho* (**rl** and **ASh**)
- *dṛz-dho* (**sz** before voiced stop)
- *dṛz-dho* (**RUKI**)
- *dṛz-dha* (**CerD**, **aā**)
- *dṛ-dha* (loss of voiced *z* without expected **CpLz**)

Sometimes, one finds cerebral sounds which are not justified by sound laws. For example, the PPP of *ruh*, *rôhati* ("to climb") is *rūdha*, but the ie. root is **h₁leudh* (ie. **dh* can produce oi. *h* according to subsection B.3.10, pp. 53) which should have lead to *rud-dha* (similar to *dug-dha* or *bud-dha*) instead.

A second example is *sah*, *sahati* ("to tolerate") with PPP *sô-dha* where the sound laws do not justify cerebral *dh*:

- ie. **seǵh-to* (full grade (!) and *to* PPP marker)
- *seǵ-dho* (**ASh**)
- *saz-dha* (**sz** before voiced stop, **aā**)
- *sô-dha* (**CpLz**)

Here, as in *rūdha* above, some analogy must have come into play.

C.4.5. Laryngeals

The PPP of quite a number of verbs can be explained by laryngeal theory. The reader is reminded of these sound laws:

C.4. Past participle and other zero-grade forms

neighborhood of laryngeal	sound law
after $i/u/e/o$	ie. $iH/uH/eH/oH \rightarrow \bar{i}/\bar{u}/\bar{a}/\bar{a}$
after $\underset{\circ}{n}$	ie. $C\underset{\circ}{n}H \rightarrow C\bar{a}$
after $\underset{\circ}{m}$	ie. $C\underset{\circ}{m}H \rightarrow C\bar{a}m$
after $C^{\text{labial}}\underset{\circ}{r}$	ie. $C^{\text{labial}}\underset{\circ}{r}H \rightarrow C\bar{u}r$
after $C^{\text{not labial}}\underset{\circ}{r}$	ie. $C^{\text{not labial}}\underset{\circ}{r}H \rightarrow C\bar{i}r$
between consonants	ie. $CHC \rightarrow CiC$
between consonant and vowel	ie. $CHV \rightarrow CV$

In line with these sound laws, several lists of laryngeal verbs are now presented. Consider, first, examples where the laryngeal leads to long \bar{i} or \bar{u} :

$\sqrt{\text{ in z.g.}}$	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
$n\bar{i}$	$*neyH-e-ti \rightarrow nay-a-ti$	$*ni-H-to \rightarrow n\bar{i}-ta$	to lead
$bh\bar{i}$	$*bhi-bheiH-ti \rightarrow bi-bh\bar{e}-ti$	$*bhiH-to \rightarrow bh\bar{i}-ta$	to be afraid
$bh\bar{u}$	$*bheuH-e-ti \rightarrow bhav-a-ti$	$*bhu-H-to \rightarrow bh\bar{u}-ta$	to be
$p\bar{u}$	$*pu-ne-H-ti \rightarrow pu-n\bar{a}-ti$	$*pu-H-to \rightarrow p\bar{u}-ta$	to purify

Now come PPP formed with the marker na rather than ta :

$\sqrt{\text{ in z.g.}}$	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
$\bar{l}i$	$*liH-y- \rightarrow \bar{l}i-ya-t\bar{e}$	$*liH-no \rightarrow \bar{l}i-na$	to cling
$\bar{l}u$	$*lu-ne-H-ti \rightarrow lu-n\bar{a}-ti$	$*lu-H-no \rightarrow \bar{l}u-na$	to cut

Rather difficult is

$\sqrt{\text{ }}$	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
$p\bar{a}$	$*pi-ph_3-e-ti \rightarrow pi-b-a-ti$ (p. 81)	$*ph_3i-to \rightarrow *pih_3-to \rightarrow p\bar{i}-ta$	to drink

where the PPP is often explained by the metathesis $*ph_3it \rightarrow *pih_3t$ (**Lar MTh**).

Now, consider, these laryngeal roots where the PPP is explained by “ie. $\bar{C}HC \rightarrow CiC$ ”:

$\sqrt{\text{ in z.g.}}$	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
$d\bar{a}$	$*de-deh_3-ti \rightarrow da-d\bar{a}-ti$	$*dh_3-to \rightarrow di-ta$ (1)	to give
$dh\bar{a}$	$*de-dheh_1-ti \rightarrow da-dh\bar{a}-ti$	$*dhh_1-to \rightarrow hi-ta$ (2)	to set, to place
$sth\bar{a}$	$ti-\text{ṣ}th-a-ti$	$*sth_2-to \rightarrow sthi-ta$ (3)	to stand

1. $d\bar{a}$ has two different PPP, the regular $di-ta$ given in the list above and the irregular (but more common) $dat-ta$. Perhaps, $da-d\bar{a}-mi$ was misunderstood as $dad-\bar{a}-mi$ where a PPP $datta \leftarrow dad-ta$ might be expected.
2. The word initial dh from $dh\bar{a}$ sometimes turns into h (see p. 53).

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3. The aspirated root *sthā* is explained by analogy as is aspiration in the PPP *sthi-ta* where the laryngeal has caused aspiration and is reflected by *i* at the same time.

Many verbs show *i* between the (zero-grade or full-grade) root and the *ta*. For some of them, a former laryngeal may be responsible, but others have just extended this model to forms where it is not, historically, justified. Here are some examples: *path-i-ta*, *cumb-i-ta*, *bhāṣ-i-ta*, *uṣ-i-ta* (from *vas* with **RUKI**).

Laryngeals can lengthen syllabic nasals:

√ in f.g.	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
<i>kam</i> (f.g.)	no present tense	* <i>k_ṃH-to</i> → <i>kān-ta</i> (2)	to love
<i>kram</i> (f.g.)	* <i>kremH-ye-ti</i> → <i>krām-ya-ti</i> (1)	* <i>kr_ṃH-to</i> → <i>krān-ta</i> (2)	to walk
<i>khan</i> (f.g.)	* <i>khenH-e-ti</i> → <i>khan-a-ti</i>	* <i>kh_ṇH-to</i> → <i>khā-ta</i>	to dig
<i>jan</i> (f.g.)	* <i>ǵ_ṇH-y-e-tei</i> → <i>jā-y-a-tê</i>	* <i>ǵ_nH-to</i> → <i>jā-ta</i>	to be born

1. *krām-ya-ti* is regular 4. class (i.e., zero-grade root). Then “ie. *C_ṃH* → *Cām*” (**Lar_SY**) is regularly applied.
2. *kān-ta* is readily explained by **Lar_SY** and **BA**.

In contrast, *jñā-ta* from the root *jñā* (ie. **ǵenh₃*) can only be explained by levelling. See the dictionary.

Finally, we comment on a group of verbs where long vowels *ī* or *ū* go back to *r_ṃH*:

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \text{ie. } C^{\text{labial}}r_{\text{ṃ}}H & \rightarrow & C\bar{u}r \\ \text{ie. } C^{\text{not labial}}r_{\text{ṃ}}H & \rightarrow & C\bar{i}r \end{array}$$

All these forms have *na* as the PPP marker (as do *lī-na* and *lū-na* from above):

√ in z.g.	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
<i>kṛ</i>	* <i>kerH-e-ti</i> (no SPal !) → <i>kir-a-ti</i>	* <i>k_rH-no</i> → <i>kīr-ṇa</i>	to scatter
<i>jṛ</i>	* <i>ǵ_rH-y-e-ti</i> → <i>jīr-y-a-ti</i>	* <i>j_rH-no</i> → <i>jīr-ṇa</i>	to waste away
<i>tṛ</i>	* <i>terH-e-ti</i> → <i>tar-a-ti</i>	* <i>t_rH-no</i> → <i>tīr-ṇa</i>	to pass
<i>dṛ</i>	* <i>d_r-ne-H-ti</i> → <i>dṛ-ṇā-ti</i>	* <i>d_r-H-no</i> → <i>dīr-ṇa</i>	to tear
<i>pṛ</i>	* <i>p_l-ne-H-ti</i> → <i>pṛ-ṇā-ti</i>	* <i>p_l-H-no</i> → <i>pūr-ṇa</i>	to fill

It seems that *str*, *strñôti* (“to spread”) also belongs to his list because one has the PPP

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stīṛ-ṇa similar to *stīṛṇa*. Presumably, the ie. root is **terH*. Note, however, the second PPP *stṛta*.

As a final example, we turn to

√ in z.g.	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
<i>div</i>	<i>*diHv-y-e-ti → dīv-y-a-ti</i>	<i>*dyHv-to → *dyuH-to → dyū-ta</i>	to play

Thus, starting with ie. **deiHv*, the zero-grade present tense *dīv-y-a-ti* is regular. Before the PPP marker *to*, *i* becomes the consonant *y* so that **Lar_MTh** gets applied to yield *dyū-ta*.

Some *i-ta* PPPs exist without any etymological justification for *i*:

√	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
<i>paṭh</i>	<i>paṭh-a-ti</i>	<i>paṭh-i-ta</i>	to read
<i>pat</i>	<i>pat-a-ti</i>	<i>pat-i-ta</i>	to fall

Here, the zero grade with *ta* as the PPP marker is not possible because plosives cannot be syllabic. Inserting *i* may make the forms more transparent.

C.4.6. Nouns and adjectives

Feminine action nouns with suffix *ti*

We have dealt with feminine action nouns with zero suffix above (see pp. 108). We now turn to derivations with suffixes. For many verbs, the PPP provides a model of how to form the *ti*-noun. Pretty obvious cases are

√ in z.g.	PPP	translation	<i>ti</i> -noun	translation
<i>kṛ</i>	<i>kṛ-ta</i>	to make	<i>kṛ-ti-s</i>	doing, deed
<i>kṣip</i>	<i>kṣip-ta</i>	to throw	<i>kṣip-ti-s</i>	throwing
<i>bhṛ</i>	<i>bhṛ-ta</i>	to carry	<i>bhṛ-ti-s</i>	support
<i>muc</i>	<i>muk-ta</i>	to liberate	<i>muk-ti-s</i>	liberation
<i>mṛ</i>	<i>mṛ-ta</i>	to die	<i>mṛ-ti-s</i>	death
<i>yuj</i>	<i>yuk-ta</i>	to join	<i>yuk-ti-s</i>	connection
<i>vac</i> (f.g.)	<i>uk-ta</i>	to speak	<i>uk-ti-s</i>	speech
<i>vap</i> (f.g.)	<i>up-ta</i>	to sow	<i>up-ti-s</i>	sowing seeds
<i>śru</i>	<i>śru-ta</i>	to listen	<i>śru-ti-s</i>	vedic text
<i>stu</i>	<i>stu-ta</i>	to praise	<i>stu-ti-s</i>	praise, hymn
<i>smṛ</i>	<i>smṛ-ta</i>	to remember	<i>smṛ-ti-s</i>	tradition

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The very common root *i* (“to go”) is contained in these *ti*-nouns:

√ <i>i</i> in z.g.	PPP	translation	<i>ti</i> -noun	translation
<i>adhi-i</i>	<i>adhī-ta</i>	to study	<i>adhī-ti-s</i>	study
<i>anu-i</i>	<i>anv-i-ta</i>	to follow	<i>anv-i-ti-s</i>	following after
<i>abhi-i</i>	<i>abhī-ta</i>	to arrive	<i>abhī-ti-s</i>	attack
<i>ud-i</i>	<i>ud-i-ta</i>	to go up	<i>ud-i-ti-s</i>	sunrise
<i>upa-i</i>	<i>upê-ta</i>	to go towards	<i>upê-ti-s</i>	approach
<i>pra-i</i>	<i>prê-ta</i>	to set off	<i>prê-ti-s</i>	escape

Oi. roots ending in a nasal lead to the feminine *ti*-nouns seen in the following table:

√ in f.g.	PPP	translation	<i>ti</i> -noun	translation
<i>gam</i>	<i>ga-ta</i>	to go	<i>ga-ti-s</i>	path
<i>tan</i>	<i>ta-ta</i>	to stretch	<i>ta-ti-s</i>	mass, crowd
<i>nam</i>	<i>na-ta</i>	to salute	<i>na-ti-s</i>	salutation
<i>man</i>	<i>ma-ta</i>	to think	<i>ma-ti-s</i>	thought
<i>yam</i>	<i>ya-ta</i>	to restrain	<i>ya-ti-s</i>	control
<i>ram</i>	<i>ra-ta</i>	to enjoy	<i>ra-ti-s</i>	pleasure
<i>han</i>	<i>ha-ta</i>	to hit	<i>ha-ti-s</i>	killing

Cerebralization is involved in these examples:

√ in f.g.	PPP	translation	<i>ti</i> -noun	translation
<i>iṣ</i>	<i>iṣ-ṭa</i>	to wish	<i>iṣ-ṭi-s</i>	wish
<i>kṛṣ</i>	<i>kṛṣ-ṭa</i>	to plough	<i>kṛṣ-ṭi-s</i>	ploughing, harvest
<i>dṛś</i>	<i>dṛṣ-ṭa</i>	to see	<i>dṛṣ-ṭi-s</i>	sight
<i>budh</i>	<i>bud-dha</i>	to awake	<i>bud-dhi-s</i>	idea, understanding
<i>yaj</i>	<i>iṣ-ṭa</i>	to sacrifice	<i>iṣ-ṭi-s</i>	sacrifice
<i>vah</i>	<i>ū-dha</i>	to flow, to carry	<i>ū-dhi-s</i>	carrying
<i>viś</i>	<i>viṣ-ṭa</i>	to enter	<i>viṣ-ṭi-s</i>	compulsory work
<i>vṛdh</i>	<i>vṛd-dha</i>	to grow	<i>vṛd-dhi-s</i>	growth
<i>vṛṣ</i>	<i>vṛṣ-ṭa</i>	to rain	<i>vṛṣ-ṭi-s</i>	rain

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<i>sr̥j</i>	<i>sr̥ṣ-ta</i>	to create	<i>sr̥ṣ-ti-s</i>	creation
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Funny? *vr̥d-dhi-s* (“growth, lengthened grade”) is in zero grade!

And, of course, consider all these laryngeal roots:

√ in z.g.	PPP	translation	<i>ti</i> -noun	translation
<i>kam</i> (f.g.)	<i>kān-ta</i>	to love	<i>kān-ti-s</i>	desire, female beauty
<i>khan</i> (f.g.)	<i>khā-ta</i>	to dig	<i>khā-ti-s</i>	digging
<i>jan</i> (f.g.)	<i>jā-ta</i>	to be born	<i>jā-ti-s</i>	birth, caste
<i>j̥r̥</i>	<i>j̥r̥-na</i>	to waste away	<i>a-j̥r̥-ti-s</i>	indigestibleness
<i>dā</i>	<i>dī-ta</i>	to give	<i>dī-ti-s</i>	offering, largess
	<i>dat-ta</i>	to give	<i>dat-ti-s</i>	giving, gift
<i>dā</i>	<i>dī-ta</i>	to bind	<i>a-dī-ti-s</i>	freedom, name of a goddess
<i>dhā</i>	<i>hī-ta</i>	to set, to place	<i>hī-ti-s</i>	mission, mandate
<i>nī</i>	<i>nī-ta</i>	to lead	<i>nī-ti-s</i>	conduct, policy
<i>pā</i>	<i>pī-ta</i>	to drink	<i>pī-ti-s</i>	drinking, tavern
<i>pū</i>	<i>pū-ta</i>	to purify	<i>pū-ti-s</i>	purity
<i>p̥r̥</i>	<i>p̥r̥-na</i>	to fill	<i>p̥r̥-ti-s</i>	filling, reward
<i>bhī</i>	<i>bhī-ta</i>	to be afraid	<i>bhī-ti-s</i>	fear, danger
<i>bhū</i>	<i>bhū-ta</i>	to be	<i>bhū-ti-s</i>	existence, welfare
<i>sthā</i>	<i>sthī-ta</i>	to stand	<i>sthī-ti-s</i>	rule, standing

Finally, *s-ti-s* (“being (close to a master) → dependent, vassal”) is the regular *ti*-noun from *as* (“to be”). One also finds *sti-pā* (“protecting the dependents”).

Adjectives with *ra*

Quite a few adjectives exist that are built by adding *ra* to the zero grade of the verb:

√ in z.g.	PPP	translation	<i>ra</i> adjective	translation
<i>uk-ṣ</i> (1)		to get strong	<i>ug-ra</i>	powerful, mighty
<i>kr̥p</i>	<i>kr̥ṣ-ta</i>	to moan	<i>kr̥ccch-ra</i> (SIB)	dangerous, painful
<i>krū</i> (n.at.) (1)		to form a crust	<i>krū-ra</i> (2)	bloody
<i>kṣip</i>	<i>kṣip-ta</i>	to throw	<i>kṣip-ra</i>	fast, quick

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<i>kṣud</i>	<i>kṣud-da</i> (n.at.)	to crunch	<i>kṣud-ra</i>	mean
<i>gr̥dh</i>	<i>gr̥d-dha</i>	to be greedy	<i>gr̥dh-ra</i>	greedy
			also <i>gr̥dh-ra</i>	vulture
<i>cit</i>	<i>cit-ta</i>	to observe	<i>cit-ra</i>	bright
			also <i>cit-ra-m</i>	picture
<i>chid</i>	<i>chit-ta</i>	to cut	<i>chid-ra</i>	leaky, hole
<i>dhī</i>	<i>dhī-ta</i>	to reflect	<i>dhī-ra</i>	steady, head-strong
<i>nādh</i>		to be needy	<i>ādh-ra</i> (3)	poor, weak
<i>miś</i>	<i>miś-ta</i> (4)	to mix	<i>miś-ra</i>	diverse
<i>vip</i>		to tremble	<i>vip-ra</i>	excited, wise
		to be white	<i>śvitra</i>	whitish, white leprosy
<i>sidh</i>	<i>siddha</i>	to succeed	<i>sidh-ra</i>	perfect, good
<i>sthā</i>	<i>sthi-ta</i>	to stand	<i>sthi-ra</i>	steady, durable
<i>sphāy</i>		to grow fat	<i>sphi-ra</i>	abundant, vast
<i>hims</i>	<i>hims-i-ta</i>	to hurt	<i>hims-ra</i>	hurting, vicious

1. See dictionary where other forms without *s*-extension are also mentioned.
2. See *kravis* in dictionary chapter.
3. **nHdh-ro* → *ādh-ra* (**Lar_SY**)
4. One meaning is “savoury, sweet”.

If the oi. root begins with *a* (or laryngeal plus *e*), we see the full grade (which is the oi. root!) instead. Thus, *asra* (“throwing, painful”) is build on the full grade of *as*, *asyati* (“to throw, to shoot”). Levelling seems to underlie this case. Also with full grade is *nam-ra* (“bowing down, humble”) from oi. root *nam*. The zero grade would have been *na-ra* (by **SY_N**), similar to the PPP *nata*. Similarly, we have the *ra*-adjectives from full grades:

√ in z.g.	PPP	translation	<i>ra</i> adjective	translation
<i>dabh</i>		to destroy	<i>dabh-ra</i>	little, deficient
			also <i>dah-ra</i> (see pp. 53)	small, tender
<i>vak</i>		to go crookedly	<i>vak-ra</i>	crooked, curved
<i>vaj-ra</i>		to be hard or strong	<i>vaj-ra</i>	as hard as diamond

Finally, the zero-grade adjectives

- ◇ *tīv-ra* (“severe, violent, intense”)
 ◇ *śīgh-ra* (“quick”)

are based on (probably laryngeal) roots that are scarcely attested.

C.4.7. Passive voice

Zero grades

The general rule for the passive voice is this:

$$\text{oi. root} + y + a + \bar{\text{ātmanēpada ending}}$$

In many cases, the zero grade can readily be recognized:

	√ in z.g.	3. pers. sg. active	3. pers. sg. passive	translation
ie. root with <i>er</i>	<i>kṛṣ</i>	<i>kṛṣ-a-ti</i>	<i>kṛṣ-y-a-tê</i>	to plough
	<i>dṛś</i>	(<i>paśyati</i>)	<i>dṛś-y-a-tê</i>	to see
	<i>sṛj</i>	<i>sṛj-a-ti</i>	<i>sṛj-y-a-tê</i>	to create
ie. root with <i>ei</i>	<i>iṣ</i>	<i>icch-a-ti</i>	<i>icch-y-a-tê</i>	to wish
	<i>kliś</i>	<i>kliś-y-a-tê</i> (1)	<i>kliś-y-a-tê</i> (1)	to suffer
	<i>kṣip</i>	<i>kṣip-a-ti</i>	<i>kṣip-y-a-tê</i>	to throw
	<i>viś</i>	<i>viś-a-ti</i>	<i>viś-y-a-tê</i>	to enter
ie. root with <i>eu</i>	<i>nud</i>	<i>nud-a-tê</i>	<i>nud-y-a-tê</i>	to push
	<i>budh</i>	<i>bôdh-a-ti</i>	<i>budh-y-a-tê</i>	to awake
	<i>mud</i>	<i>môd-a-ti</i>	<i>mud-y-a-tê</i>	to rejoice

1. *kliś-y-a-tê* is an example where verbs of the 4. class (with *ya*) (here *ātmanēpada*!) equal the passive voice.

The zero grade is also obvious for some oi. roots with initial *ya* or *va*:

√ in z.g.	3. pers. sg. active	3. pers. sg. passive	translation
<i>yaj</i>	<i>yaj-a-ti</i>	<i>ij-y-a-tê</i>	to sacrifice
<i>vac</i>	<i>vak-ti</i>	<i>uc-y-a-tê</i>	to speak
<i>vad</i>	<i>vad-a-ti</i>	<i>ud-y-a-tê</i>	to speak
<i>vas</i>	<i>vas-a-ti</i>	<i>uṣ-y-a-tê</i>	to dwell
<i>vah</i>	<i>vah-a-ti</i>	<i>uh-y-a-tê</i>	to flow, to carry

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In the following examples, **SY**₋**N** is responsible for *a* in the zero grades:

√ in f.g.	3. pers. sg. active	3. pers. sg. passive	translation
<i>granth</i>	<i>grath-nā-ti</i>	<i>grath-y-a-tê</i>	to bind, to compile
<i>bandh</i>	<i>badh-nā-ti</i>	<i>badh-y-a-tê</i>	to bind, to compile
<i>manth</i>	<i>math-nā-ti</i>	<i>math-y-a-tê</i>	to stir, to shake

From subsection B.2.2 (pp. 20), we know the *mr-iy-a-tê* rule:

$$CryV \rightarrow CriyV$$

The following passive forms fall under this rule:

√ in z.g.	3. pers. sg. active	3. pers. sg. passive	translation
<i>kṛ</i>	<i>kar-ô-ti</i>	<i>kri-y-a-tê</i>	to make
<i>bhṛ</i>	<i>bhar-a-ti</i>	<i>bhri-y-a-tê</i>	to carry
<i>mṛ</i>	<i>mri-ya-tê</i> (1)	<i>mri-y-a-tê</i> (1)	to die
<i>vṛ</i>	<i>vṛ-nā-ti</i>	<i>vri-y-a-tê</i>	to choose
<i>sṛ</i>	<i>sar-a-ti</i>	<i>sri-y-a-tê</i>	to flow, to move
<i>hṛ</i>	<i>har-a-ti</i>	<i>hri-y-a-tê</i>	to take, to rob

1. Same forms in active and passive.

Laryngeal verbs can be understood in this manner. Consider, first, *tīr-ṇa* versus *tīr-ya-tê*:

√ in z.g.	PPP	3. pers. sg. passive	translation
<i>kṛ</i>	<i>kīr-ṇa</i>	<i>kīr-y-a-tê</i>	to scatter
<i>jṛ</i>	<i>jīr-ṇa</i>	<i>jīr-y-a-tê</i>	to waste away
<i>tṛ</i>	<i>tīr-ṇa</i>	<i>tīr-y-a-tê</i>	to pass
<i>dṛ</i>	<i>dīr-ṇa</i>	<i>dīr-y-a-tê</i>	to tear, to pierce
<i>pṛ</i>	<i>pūr-ṇa</i>	<i>pūr-y-a-tê</i>	to fill

Knowing the PPP is also very helpful for these laryngeal words:

C.4. Past participle and other zero-grade forms

√ in z.g.	PPP	3. pers. sg. passive	translation
<i>khan</i> (f.g.)	<i>khā-ta</i>	<i>khā-y-a-tê</i>	to dig
<i>nī</i>	<i>nī-ta</i>	<i>nī-y-a-tê</i>	to lead
<i>pū</i>	<i>pū-ta</i>	<i>pū-y-a-tê</i>	to purify
<i>bhī</i>	<i>bhī-ta</i>	<i>bhī-y-a-tê</i>	to be afraid
<i>bhū</i>	<i>bhū-ta</i>	<i>bhū-y-a-tê</i>	to be

In many of these examples, long \bar{i} is regularly employed as it is in

√ in z.g.	PPP	3. pers. sg. passive	translation
<i>pā</i>	<i>pī-ta</i>	<i>pī-ya-tê</i>	to drink

where long \bar{i} might be explainable by metathesis $*ph_3i \rightarrow *pih_3$.

All these passive forms with long \bar{i} are responsible for those where long \bar{i} is not, etymologically, justified:

√ in z.g.	PPP	3. pers. sg. passive	translation
<i>dā</i>	<i>dī-ta</i>	<i>dī-y-a-tê</i>	to give
<i>dhā</i>	<i>hī-ta</i>	<i>dhī-y-a-tê</i>	to set, to place
<i>sthā</i>	<i>sthī-ta</i>	<i>sthī-ya-tê</i>	to stand

It seems that long \bar{u} that is expected in *pūr-ya-tê*, *pū-ya-tê*, or *bhū-ya-tê* above might also be responsible for the following forms by analogy:

√ in z.g.	PPP	3. pers. sg. passive	translation
<i>stu</i>	<i>stu-ta</i>	<i>stū-y-a-tê</i>	to praise
<i>hā</i>	<i>hī-na/hā-ta</i>	<i>hī-y-a-tê</i>	to abandon
<i>hu</i>	<i>hu-ta</i>	<i>hū-y-a-tê</i>	to sacrifice

Irregular full grades

In contrast to the regular zero grade, some passives use the full grade:

√	PPP	3. pers. sg. passive	translation
<i>ghuṣ</i>	<i>ghuṣ-ta</i>	<i>ghôṣ-y-a-tê</i> (1)	to proclaim
<i>cur</i>		<i>côr-y-a-tê</i> (1)	to steal
<i>paṭh</i>	<i>paṭh-i-ta</i> (2)	<i>paṭh-y-a-tê</i> (3)	to read
<i>pat</i>	<i>pat-i-ta</i> (2)	<i>pat-y-a-tê</i> (3)	to fall

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<i>tyaj</i> (f.g.)	<i>tyak-ta</i>	<i>tyaj-y-a-tê</i> (3)	to abandon
<i>labh</i> (f.g.)	<i>lab-dha</i> (f.g.!)	<i>labh-y-a-tê</i> (3)	to obtain
<i>sad</i> (f.g.)	<i>san-na</i>	<i>sad-y-a-tê</i> (3)	to sit
<i>smṛ</i>	<i>smṛ-ta</i>	<i>smar-y-a-tê</i> (4)	to remember

1. Passive forms for (3) could have used the zero grade (n.at. *ghuṣ-y-a-tê*) without any problem.
2. Some verbs like *pat* use *i-ta* as the PPP marker without etymological justification.
3. None of the root-initial or root-final consonants can become syllabic. (Note, however, that *l* might become syllabic. Levelling might have rectified the outcome n.at. *l̥bh-y-a-tê*.) Therefore, the full grade cannot be avoided.
4. At a first glance, u.at. *smṛ-ya-tê* seems possible. However, it would violate the *mr-iy-a-tê* rule (pp. 20):

$$CryV \rightarrow CriyV$$

which would then lead to u.at. and difficult to recognize *smr-iya-tê* \rightarrow *sar-iya-tê*.

Full grade are consistently present in nasal roots:

√	PPP	3. pers. sg. passive	translation
<i>gam</i>	<i>ga-ta</i>	<i>gam-y-a-tê</i>	to go
<i>tan</i>	<i>ta-ta</i>	<i>tan-y-a-tê</i>	to stretch
<i>nam</i>	<i>nata</i>	<i>nam-y-a-tê</i>	to salute
<i>man</i>	<i>mata</i>	<i>man-y-a-tê</i>	to think
<i>yam</i>	<i>yata</i>	<i>yam-y-a-tê</i>	to restrain
<i>ram</i>	<i>rata</i>	<i>ram-y-a-tê</i>	to enjoy
<i>han</i>	<i>hata</i>	<i>han-y-a-tê</i>	to hit

There are very good reasons for the irregular full grade here. For example, the regularly built passive form from *nam* is not *nam-ya-tê* but *na-ya-tê* \leftarrow $*nm_{\text{̊}}$ - (where *a* derives from syllabic $m_{\text{̊}}$. And *na-ya-tê* might easily be understood *nay-a-tê* from $n\bar{i}$ (“to lead”).

C.4.8. Desideratives

Reduplication

Desideratives and frequentatives (next subsection) use reduplication. Additionally, reduplications are found in three other grammatical instances as well:

- ◇ The reader is invited to compare the verbs of the third class (pp. 86) which also function with reduplication.
- ◇ Sanskrit perfect forms are mostly formed in a reduplicative fashion (see pp. C.7, pp. 188).
- ◇ One of the aorist formations is by way of reduplication (see pp. C.8, pp. 196).
- ◇ Frequentative verbs also use reduplication (see pp. 138).

Simple examples from the zero grade or, occasionally, the full grade

Roughly speaking, desideratives are built according to this rule:

ie. root	→	desiderative
$C_1 Fg C_2$	→	$C_1 Zg - C_1 Zg C_2 - s$

Consider the following quite transparent example yuj with

- ◇ u -reduplication,
- ◇ zero grade, and
- ◇ s marker:

**yu-yug-s-*
→ *yu-yuk-s-* (**BA**)
→ *yu-yuk-s-* (**RUKI**) → *yu-yuk-s-a-ti* he wishes to yoke

Apart from the verbal desiderative, a corresponding adjective and a corresponding noun are (often) formed. For example, the root *yudh* (“to fight”) yields the desideratives

	<i>*yu-yudh-s-</i>		
→	<i>yu-yuth-s-</i> (BA)		
→	<i>yu-yut-s-</i> (ASh, but <i>s</i> cannot be aspirated)	→	<i>yu-yut-s-a-ti</i> he wishes to fight
		→	<i>yu-yut-s-u</i> combative
		→	<i>yu-yut-s-ā</i> desire to fight

Instead of the reduplication with u , we find reduplication with i which is more common. This is the rule:

[illegible]

In these examples reduplication means repeating the root-initial consonant but not the root-final one. Similarly, we have

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√	3. pers. sg.	adjective	noun
<i>jñā</i>	<i>ji-jñā-s-a-tê</i> he wants to know	<i>ji-jñā-s-u</i> inquisitive	<i>ji-jñā-s-ā</i> curiosity
<i>tyaj</i> (2)	<i>ti-tyak-ṣ-a-ti</i> (2) he wants to abandon		
		<i>ti-tik-ṣ-u</i> (5) enduring patiently (5)	
<i>pā</i>	<i>pi-pā-s-a-tê</i> he wants to drink	<i>pi-pā-s-u</i> thirsty	<i>pi-pā-s-ā</i> thirst
<i>man</i>	<i>mi-mām-s-a-tê</i> (1) he examines		
<i>miś</i> (“to mix”)		<i>mi-mik-śu</i> desirous for mixing	
<i>muc</i>	<i>mu-muk-ṣ-a-ti</i> he wants to liberate	<i>mu-muk-ṣ-u</i> wanting liberation	<i>mu-muk-ṣ-ā</i> desire for liberation
<i>vac</i> (2)	<i>vi-vak-ṣ-a-ti</i> (2) he wants to say	<i>vi-vak-ṣ-u</i> (2) wanting to say	<i>vi-vak-ṣ-ā</i> (2) desire to speak
<i>vṛt</i>	<i>vi-vṛt-s-a-ti</i> (3) he wishes to turn		
	<i>vi-vart-i-ṣ-a-ti</i> (4) he wishes to turn		
<i>vṛdh</i>	<i>vi-vṛt-s-a-ti</i> (3) he wants to grow		
<i>vardhay</i> (6)	<i>vi-varḍhay-i-ṣ-a-ti</i> (4) he wants to grow	<i>vi-varḍhay-i-ṣ-u</i> (4) wishing to augment	

1. *mi-mām-s-a-tê* seems irregular. Theoretically, the zero-grade desiderative of *man* is u.at. **mi-ma-s-a-tê* where syllabic *m̥* would have turned into *a*. See p. 134. For *m̥* before *s*, compare the future *mām-sy-a-ti*.
2. *vi-vak-ṣ-a-ti* is irregular in that it builds on the full grade. Theoretically, the zero-grade desiderative of *vac* is u.at. **vy-uk-ṣ-a-ti*. In the syllabic conflict between *i/y* and *u/v* the latter would win by **SY_Conf**.
3. These desideratives from roots *vṛt* and *vṛdh* coincide (backward assimilation, *s* not aspiratable).
4. In order to avoid difficult forms, quasi-thematic *i* is sometimes introduced.

5. Semantically difficult
6. Causative of *vr̥dh*

Applying Grassmann's deaspiration

We look at a few desiderative examples in some detail. The following examples involve Grassmann's deaspiration. From ie. **bheid* one obtains

<i>*bhi-bhid-s-</i>		
→	<i>bi-bhid-s-</i>	(DA)
→	<i>bi-bhit-s-</i>	(BA)
	→	<i>bi-bhit-s-a-ti</i> he wishes to split
	→	<i>bi-bhit-s-u</i> wishing to split
	→	<i>bi-bhit-s-ā</i> desire to split

from ie. **bheug*:

<i>*bhu-bhug-s-</i>		
→	<i>bu-bhug-s-</i>	(DA)
→	<i>bu-bhuk-s-</i>	(BA)
→	<i>bu-bhuk-ṣ-</i>	(RUKI)
	→	<i>bu-bhuk-ṣ-a-ti</i> he wishes to eat
	→	<i>bu-bhuk-ṣ-u</i> hungry
	→	<i>bu-bhuk-ṣ-ā</i> hunger

and from ie. **bheuH*:

<i>*bhu-bhuH-s-</i>		
→	<i>bu-bhū-s-</i>	(DA)
→	<i>bu-bhū-ṣ-</i>	(RUKI)
	→	<i>bu-bhū-ṣ-a-ti</i> he wishes to be
	→	<i>bu-bhū-ṣ-u</i> wishing to be
	→	<i>bu-bhū-ṣ-ā</i> desire of being

We now consider a few example that involve root-final velars and palatals, such as ie. **gheuǵh*:

<i>*ghu-ghuǵh-s-</i>		
→	<i>gu-ghuǵh-s-</i>	(DA)
→	<i>gu-ghuk-s-</i>	(AŠh, BA)
→	<i>gu-ghuk-ṣ-</i>	(RUKI)
	→	<i>gu-ghuk-ṣ-a-ti</i> he wishes to hide
	→	<i>gu-ghuk-ṣ-u</i> wishing to hide
	→	<i>gu-ghuk-ṣ-ā</i> desire of hiding

duh ("to milk") ← ie. **dheugh*:

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<i>*dhu-dhugh-s-</i>		
→	<i>du-dhugh-s-</i>	(DA)
→	<i>du-dhuk-s-</i>	(ASh, BA)
→	<i>du-dhuk-ṣ-</i>	(RUKI)
	→	<i>du-dhuk-ṣ-a-ti</i> he wishes to milk
	→	<i>du-dhuk-ṣ-u</i> wishing to milk
	→	<i>du-dhuk-ṣ-ā</i> desire of milking

and *lih* (“to milk”) ← ie. **leigh*:

<i>*li-liḡh-s-</i>		
→	<i>li-lik-s-</i>	(ASh, BA)
→	<i>li-lik-ṣ-</i>	(RUKI)
	→	<i>li-lik-ṣ-a-ti</i> he wishes to lick

From ie. **ghrebh₂* → oi. *ghrah* (Lar_CH) one obtains the desiderative *ji-ghṛk-ṣ-u* which is a bit more complicated because the root-final is labial:

<i>*ghi-ghṛh-s-</i>		
→	<i>gi-ghṛh-s-</i>	(DA)
→	<i>ji-ghṛh-s-</i>	(SPal)
→	<i>ji-ghṛk-ṣ-</i>	(analogy with roots like <i>guh</i> above)
	→	<i>ji-ghṛk-ṣ-a-ti</i> he wishes to grab
	→	<i>ji-ghṛk-ṣ-u</i> wishing to rob
	→	<i>ji-ghṛk-ṣ-ā</i> desire to rob

Later desideratives may not contain the root-initial aspiration, undoubtedly by levelling. An example is *du-duḡk-ṣ-* in contrast to *du-dhuk-ṣ-* from the root *duh*.

Merging of the reduplication syllable with the zero-grade root

In contrast to these examples, deaspiration does not take place for *bhaj* (“to allot, to divide”) ← ie. **bheḡ*, gain with zero grade:

<i>*bhi-bhḡ-s-</i>		
→	<i>bhi-bj-s-</i>	(ASh, but <i>s</i> cannot be aspirated)
→	<i>bhi-pk-s-</i>	(BA)
→	<i>bhi-k-s-</i>	(CCI)
→	<i>bhi-k-ṣ-</i>	(RUKI)
	→	<i>bhik-ṣ-a-ti</i> he wishes to share
	→	<i>bhik-ṣ-u</i> beggar
	→	<i>bhik-ṣ-ā</i> the act of begging

Here are quite a few other examples (and see *hiṃ-s-* below) where the reduplication syllable merges with the z.g. root. Consider *śak* (“to be able”) ← ie. **kēk*:

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$*\acute{s}i\text{-}\acute{s}k\text{-}s\text{-}$ (PPal)		
$\rightarrow \acute{s}i\text{-}k\text{-}s\text{-}$ (CCI)		
$\rightarrow \acute{s}i\text{-}k\text{-}\grave{s}\text{-}$ (RUKI)	$\rightarrow \acute{s}ik\text{-}\grave{s}\text{-}a\text{-}ti$	he learns
	$\rightarrow \acute{s}ik\text{-}\grave{s}\text{-}u$	desirous of learning
	$\rightarrow \acute{s}ik\text{-}\grave{s}\text{-}\bar{a}$	science

$\bar{a}p$ (“to obtain”) \leftarrow ie. $*h_1ep$:

$*h_1i\text{-}h_1p\text{-}s\text{-}$		
$\rightarrow \bar{i}p\text{-}s\text{-}$ (ie. $iH \rightarrow oi. \bar{i}$)	$\rightarrow \bar{i}p\text{-}s\text{-}a\text{-}ti$	he wishes to obtain
	$\rightarrow \bar{i}p\text{-}s\text{-}u$	desirous of
	$\rightarrow \bar{i}p\text{-}s\text{-}\bar{a}$	desire to obtain

ie. $*h_3ek^w$:

$*h_3i\text{-}h_3k^w\text{-}s\text{-}$		
$\rightarrow \bar{i}k^w\text{-}s\text{-}$ (ie. $iH \rightarrow oi. \bar{i}$)		
$\rightarrow \bar{i}k\text{-}s\text{-}$ (see pp. 35)		
$\rightarrow \bar{i}k\text{-}\grave{s}\text{-}$ (RUKI)	$\rightarrow \bar{i}k\text{-}\grave{s}\text{-}a\text{-}ti$	he watches over
	$\rightarrow \bar{i}k\text{-}s\text{-}\bar{a}$	sight

ie. $*h_2nek'$:

$*h_2i\text{-}h_2nk'\text{-}s\text{-}$		
$\rightarrow \bar{i}ak\text{-}s\text{-}$ (Lar $_V$, SY $_N$, SY $_Conf$, PPal)		
$\rightarrow iyak\text{-}s\text{-}$ (V $+\mathbf{hV}$)		
$\rightarrow iyak\text{-}\grave{s}\text{-}$ (RUKI)	\rightarrow ved. $iyak\text{-}\grave{s}\text{-}a\text{-}ti$	he wishes to reach

ie. $*h_2enh_1$:

$*h_2i\text{-}h_2nh_1\text{-}s\text{-}$		
$\rightarrow \bar{i}ni\text{-}s\text{-}$ (twice Lar $_V$)		
$\rightarrow \bar{i}ni\text{-}\grave{s}\text{-}$ (RUKI)		
$\rightarrow anini\text{-}\grave{s}\text{-}$ (by levelling)	$\rightarrow anini\text{-}\grave{s}\text{-}a\text{-}ti$	he wishes to breathe

ie. $*deh_3$:

$*dh_3i\text{-}dh_3\text{-}s\text{-}$		
$\rightarrow di\text{-}d\text{-}s\text{-}$		
$\rightarrow di\text{-}t\text{-}s\text{-}$ (BA)	$\rightarrow dit\text{-}s\text{-}a\text{-}ti$	he wishes to give
	$\rightarrow dit\text{-}s\text{-}u$	desirous of giving
	$\rightarrow dit\text{-}s\text{-}\bar{a}$	desire to give

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ie. **dheh*₁:

**dhh*₁*i-dh*₁-s-
 → *dhi-dh-s-*
 → *dhi-th-s-* (**BA**)
 → *dhi-t-s-* (**ASh**) → *dhit-s-a-ti* he wishes to set

and ie. **dhebh*:

**dhi-dhbbh-s-*
 → *dhi-dhbbh-s-* (**DA**)
 → *dhi-bbh-s-* (**CCl**)
 → *dhi-ph-s-* (**BA**)
 → *dhi-p-s-* (**ASh**) → *dhip-s-a-ti* he wishes to injure

(besides levelled *dipsati*)

And finally ie. **deik* :

**di-dk*[́]-s-
 → *dik*[́]-s- (**CCl**) → *dik*[́]-s-a-ti he consecrates
 → *dik*[́]-s-ā consecration

where compensatory lengthening occurs in contrast to *bhik-s-a-ti* (p. 130).

and ie. **ped*:

**pi-pd-s-*
 → *pi-pd-s-* (**CCl**)
 → *pi-t-s-* (**BA**) → *pit-s-a-ti* he wishes to go
 → *pit-s-u* desirous of going
 → *pit-s-ā* desire to go

Secondary palatalization

Some desideratives are instances of secondary palatalization:

√	3. pers. sg.	adjective	noun
<i>kr</i>	<i>ci-kīr-s-a-ti</i> (1) he wants to make	<i>ci-kīr-s-u</i> (1) intending to make	<i>ci-kīr-s-ā</i> (1) desire to make
<i>gam</i>	<i>ji-gam-i-s-a-ti</i> (2, 3) he wants to go	<i>ji-gam-i-s-u</i> (2, 3) intending to go	<i>ji-gam-i-s-ā</i> (2, 3) intending to go
<i>granth</i>	<i>ji-granth-i-s-a-ti</i> (2, 3) he wants to string together		
<i>ghas</i>	<i>ji-ghat-s-a-ti</i> (2, 4) he wants to consume	<i>ji-ghat-s-u</i> (2, 4) intending to consume	<i>ji-ghat-s-ā</i> (2, 4) desire to consume

1. *ci-k̄r-ṣ-a-ti* etc. show surprising lengthening (perhaps due to analogy, see immediately below for *ti-t̄r-ṣ-u*).
2. *ji-ghat-s-a-ti* and others show full grade of the root.
3. *ji-gam-i-ṣ-a-ti* etc. use “thematic” *i* without etymological justification.
4. **SIB**

Laryngeal roots ending on *rH*

Roots with long syllabic $\bar{r} \leftarrow$ ie. *rH* form the desiderative from the full grade or from the zero grade.

\sqrt{CerH}	3. pers. sg.	adjective
$k\bar{r}$	<i>ci-kar-i-ṣ-a-ti</i> (1, 2) he wants to throw out	<i>ci-kar-i-ṣ-u</i> (1, 2) desirous to throw out
$t\bar{r}$	<i>ti-t̄r-ṣ-a-ti</i> \leftarrow ie. <i>*ti-tr_oH-s</i> (3) he wants to cross	<i>ti-t̄r-ṣ-u</i> (3) desirous of crossing
$d\bar{r}$	<i>di-d̄r-ṣ-a-ti</i> (3) he wants to tear	<i>di-d̄r-ṣ-u</i> (3) desirous of tearing
$p\bar{r}$	<i>pi-par-i-ṣ-a-ti</i> (2) he wants to spend completely (time)	
	<i>pu-p̄r-ṣ-a-ti</i> \leftarrow ie. <i>*pu-pr_oH-s</i> (4) he wants to spend completely (time)	

1. **SPal**
2. As *ji-gam-i-ṣ-a-ti* above, full grade plus “thematic” *i*.
3. **Lar_SY** after non-labial consonant
4. **Lar_SY** after labial consonant

Laryngeal suffix

It seems that instead of the desiderative suffix *s*, alternatively a desiderative suffix *HS* was employed:

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√ in z.g.	3. pers. sg.	adjective	noun
<i>ji</i>	<i>ji-gī-ṣ-a-ti</i> (1) he wants to conquer	<i>ji-gī-ṣ-u</i> (1) imperialist	<i>ji-gī-ṣ-ā</i> (1) desire to conquer
<i>mṛ</i>	<i>mu-mūr-ṣ-a-ti</i> (2) he wants to die	<i>mu-mūr-ṣ-u</i> (2) wanting to die	<i>mu-mūr-ṣ-ā</i> (2) desire to die
<i>śru</i>	<i>śu-śrū-ṣ-a-tê</i> (1) he wants to hear	<i>śu-śrū-ṣ-u</i> (1) obedient	<i>śu-śrū-ṣ-ā</i> (1) obedience
<i>sṛ</i>	<i>si-ṣīr-ṣ-a-ti</i> (3) he wants to run		

1. Long \bar{i} in *ji-gī-ṣ-a-ti* may be explainable by a suffix Hs rather than just s . Similarly, long \bar{u} in *śu-śrū-ṣ-a-tê* may also be due to suffix Hs .
2. The same laryngeal is responsible for *mu-mūr-ṣ-a-ti*. Similar to *pu-pūr-ṣ-a-ti* above, the labial (!) m is responsible for producing $mūr$ in the main syllable and hence mu as the reduplicative syllable.
3. Similar to *ti-tīr-ṣ-a-ti* above, one obtains $\bar{i}r-ṣ$ from $r_{\circ}Hs$, but note
 - a) ie. root $*terH$ and desiderative $*ti-tr_{\circ}Hs- \rightarrow ti-tīr-ṣ-$ versus
 - b) ie. root $*ser$ and desiderative $*si-sr_{\circ}Hs- \rightarrow si-ṣīr-ṣ-$

Perhaps, this explanation overuses laryngeals. Analogy may be an alternative explanation.

There exist several desideratives for *man* (“to think”) \leftarrow ie. $*men$ with desiderative suffix s , a few of which have been mentioned above. Employing the desiderative suffix Hs one may, with too many tricks, arrive at the name for one of the six philosophical systems:

$$\begin{aligned}
& *mi-mn_{\circ}-Hs- \\
\rightarrow & *mi-mn_{\circ}Hs- \\
\rightarrow & mi-mā-s- \text{ (laryngeal after syllabic } n_{\circ}) \\
\rightarrow & mi-māṁ-s- \text{ (lev. from } maṁ-sy-a-ti?) \\
\rightarrow & mī-māṁ-s- \text{ (long } \bar{i} \text{ for unclear reasons)} \quad \rightarrow \quad mī-māṁ-s-a-tê \quad \text{he doubts} \\
& \quad \quad \quad \rightarrow \quad mī-māṁ-s-ā \quad \text{investigation}
\end{aligned}$$

There exist two different desideratives for *han* (“to kill”) \leftarrow ie. $*g^w hen$, depending on the suffix. On the one hand, we have the Hs desiderative:

$*g^w hi-g^w h\underset{\circ}{n}-Hs-$	
$\rightarrow g^w hi-g^w h\bar{a}-s-$ (laryngeal after syllabic $\underset{\circ}{n}$)	
$\rightarrow g^w i-g^w h\bar{a}-s-$ (DA)	
$\rightarrow ji-gh\bar{a}-s-$ (SPal)	
$\rightarrow ji-gh\bar{a}\bar{m}-s-$ (lev. from <i>ham-sy-a-ti</i> ?)	$\rightarrow ji-gh\bar{a}\bar{m}-s-a-ti$ he wishes to kill
	$\rightarrow ji-gh\bar{a}\bar{m}-s-u$ revengeful
	$\rightarrow ji-gh\bar{a}\bar{m}-s-\bar{a}$ revenge

On the other hand, the *s* suffix yields:

$*g^w hi-g^w hn-s-$	
$\rightarrow hi-g^w hn-s-$ (SPal)	
$\rightarrow hi-n-s-$ (CCl)	
$\rightarrow hi-\bar{m}-s-$	$\rightarrow hi\bar{m}-s-a-ti$ he injures
	$\rightarrow hi\bar{m}-s-\bar{a}$ injury

Apparently, cluster simplification occurred before *n* between consonants turns into $\underset{\circ}{n}$ and then into *a* (**SY_N**).

C.4.9. Compound-final “zero grades”

At the end of compounds, we often find forms like *dvi-ja* that look like zero grades. Mostly, they are formed with short *a* (rarely than short *i* or *u*) which cannot be explained by the zero grade. Let us call these forms ultra-zero grades. A few are best understood as zero grades:

- ◇ *gam*, *gacch-a-ti* (“to go”) with PPP *ga-ta*
 - *kha-ga* (“moving in the ether → bird/sun”)
 - *a-ga* (“not going → tree”)
- ◇ *dhā*, *dadhāti* (“to set”) with PPP $*dhh_1-to \rightarrow hi-ta$
 - *ab-dhis* m. (“holding water → ocean”) ← *ap* (“water”) with apparent backward assimilation
- ◇ *nī*, *nayati* (“to lead”) with PPP $*niH-to \rightarrow nī-ta$
 - *pat-nī* f. (“lead by husband (*pati*) → wife”)
 - *sēna-nī* m. (“army leader, general”)
 - *grāma-nī* m. (“village leader”)
 - *agra-nī* m. (“leader”)
- ◇ *vid*, *vêt-ti* (“to know”) with PPP *vit-ta*, *vid-i-ta*
 - *vêda-vit* (“*Veda* knowing”)

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- *ātma-vit* (“knower of the self”)

Two odd example add *t* (perhaps in analogy to *vêda-vit*):

- ◇ *ji, jayati* (“to lead”) with PPP *ji-ta*
 - *indra-jit* m. (“conqueror of *Indra*”)
 - *apsu-jit* (“conquering the waters”), with loc. pl. of *ap* (“water”) instead of stem form (analogy with *apsu-ja* where the loc. makes sense)
- ◇ *bhr̥, bharati* (“to bear”) with PPP *bhr̥-ta*
 - *śastra-bhr̥t* (“weapon bearer → warrior”)

The other examples presented below do not use the zero grade, but just short *a*:

- ◇ *chad, chadati* (“to cover”) with PPP **channa*
 - *a-ccha* (“uncovered”) (gemination by some sandhi rule)
- ◇ *jan, jāyatê* (“to beget, to be born”) with PPP **ǵn̥-H-to → jā-ta*
 - *dvi-ja* (“twice-born”) with *dvi-ja* m. (“brahmin, bird, tooth”)
 - *ātma-ja* (“self-produced”) with *ātma-ja* m. (“son”) and *ātma-jā* f. (“daughter”)
 - *pra-ja* (“bringing forth”) with *pra-jā* f. (“progeny (!), offspring”)
 - *apsu-ja* (“born in the waters”) with loc. pl. of *ap* (“water”) instead of stem form
- ◇ *jñā, jñāti* (“to know”) with PPP **ǵn̥-h₃-to → jñā-ta*
 - *sarva-jñā* (“all-knowing”)
- ◇ *dā, dadāti* (“to give”) with PPP **dh₃-to → di-ta* besides *dat-ta*
 - *vara-da* (“giving boons”) with *vara-das* m. (“*Brahmā*”)
 - *ab-da* m. (“water giver → cloud”, “when clouds reappear → year”) ← *ap* (“water”) with apparent backward assimilation
- ◇ *pā, pibati*, 1. class (“to drink”) with PPP **ph₃i-to → *pih₃-to → pī-ta*
 - *sōma-pa* (“drinking *Soma*”)
 - *pāda-pa* (“foot-drinker → tree”)
- ◇ *pā, pā-ti* (“to protect”) with PPP *pā-na*
 - *pra-jā-pa* (“protecting the subjects”)
 - *nṛ-pa* (“man protecting, king”)
- ◇ *sthā, ti-ṣth-a-ti* (“to stand”) with PPP **sth₂-to → sthi-ta*
 - *gr̥ha-stha* (“householder”)
 - *sattva-stha* (“established in *sattva*, firm in purity”)

C.5. Lengthened-grade forms and forms using several grades

- *granta-stha* (“knowledge present in a book”)
- *kanṭha-stha* m. (“knowledge present in the throat” → “knowledge known by heart”)

One might try to explain

- ◇ *pra-bhu* m. (“lord, master”) ← ie. root **bheuH*, but here just **bhu*
- ◇ *a-bhva* (“not being (good) → monstrous, powerful”) ← ie. root **bheuH*, but here just **bhu*
- ◇ *dvi-ja* (ie. root **génH*) ← ie. root **janH*, but here just **jn_o*

by positing the zero grade without the laryngeal (i.e., just the first syllable-closing consonant remains).

C.5. Lengthened-grade forms and forms using several grades

C.5.1. Agent nouns, instrument nouns, and action nouns

In section C.3.5, we have seen derivatives on *a* like

- ◇ *jay-a* (“victory”) ← *ji* (“to conquer”)
- ◇ *bhav-a* (“being, state”) ← *bhū* (“to be”) ← ie. **bhuH*

Building on the same verbal roots, we also find lengthened-grade words:

- ◇ *jāyā* f. (“she who has been captured, the wife”)
- ◇ *bhāv-a* (“being, state”)

Sometimes, the oi. root is not in zero grade. Then, the lengthened grade becomes more likely, as in

- ◇ *anu-tāpa* m. (“remorse”) ← *tap*, *tapati* (“to heat”)
- ◇ *vi-śāda* m. (“sorrow”) ← *sad*, *sīdati* (“to sit”)
- ◇ *bhāga* m. (“part”) ← *bhaj*, *bhajati* (“to divide, to allot”)

C.5.2. Derivatives

Derivative adjectives regularly use the lengthened grade. Examples abound:

- ◇ *mānas-a* (“mental”) ← *manas*, n. (“mind”) ← *man* (“to think”)
- ◇ *tāpas-a* (“ascetic”) ← *tapas*, n. (“asceticism”) ← *tap* (“to burn”)
- ◇ *pāca-ka* (“cook”) ← *pac* (“to cook”)

C.5.3. Frequentatives

Two patterns and six constructions

Frequentative verbs work with reduplication similar to desideratives. However, the reduplicated syllable is “emphasized” more strongly. Frequentatives mostly follow one of two patterns:

marker	frequentative
<i>ya</i> marker	reduplication syllable + root + <i>ya</i> + \bar{a} tm.
\bar{i} marker	reduplication syllable + root + \bar{i} + par.

Observe:

- ◇ Any given verb typically exhibits both patterns.
- ◇ With these two patterns, frequentatives usually follow either of six (or so) different constructions.

Without any of the two markers, adjectives are occasionally formed.

First construction

For each of the six constructions, the general construction method is described together with a few examples. The first construction involves half vowels:

1. construction		ie. root	→	frequentative
	<i>ya</i> marker	$C_1 Fg C_2$	→	$C_1 Fg - C_1 Zg C_2 - ya + \bar{a}$ tm.
	\bar{i} marker	$C_1 Fg C_2$	→	$C_1 Fg - C_1 Zg C_2 - \bar{i} + \text{par.}$
example	<i>ya</i> marker	<i>reud</i>	→	<i>rô-rud-ya-tê</i>
	\bar{i} marker	<i>reud</i>	→	<i>rô-rud-\bar{i}-ti</i>

For example, with expected Grassmann deaspiration,

✓	3. sg. \bar{a} tm. (<i>ya</i> suffix)	3. sg. par. (\bar{i} suffix)	translation
<i>budh</i>	<i>bô-budh-ya-tê</i>	<i>bô-budh-\bar{i}-ti</i>	to know
<i>bhid</i>	<i>bê-bhid-ya-tê</i>	<i>bê-bhid-\bar{i}-ti</i>	to split
<i>lih</i>	<i>lê-lih-ya-tê</i>	<i>lê-lih-\bar{i}-ti</i>	to lick
<i>śuc</i>	<i>śô-śuc-ya-tê</i>	<i>śô-śuc-\bar{i}-ti</i>	to grieve
<i>śubh</i>	<i>śô-śubh-ya-tê</i>	<i>śô-śubh-\bar{i}-ti</i>	to shine
<i>svap</i> (f.g.)	<i>sô-ṣup-ya-tê</i>	see second construction	to sleep

C.5. Lengthened-grade forms and forms using several grades

1. *car* (“to go, to stir”) ← ie. **k^wel* has the frequentative adjective *ca-kr-a* (“unsteady” → “wheel”). Secondary palatalization is seen in the oi. root and in the reduplication syllable, but not, any more, before *r*.

Second construction

The first construction uses the sequence *Fg-Zg*, the second construction employs higher grades, i.e., *Lg-Fg*:

2. construction		ie. root	→	frequentative
	<i>ya</i> marker	$C_1 Fg C_2$	→	$C_1 Lg - C_1 Fg C_2 - ya$ + ātm.
	\bar{i} marker	$C_1 Fg C_2$	→	$C_1 Lg - C_1 Fg C_2 - \bar{i}$ + par.
example	<i>ya</i> marker	<i>sed</i>	→	<i>sā-sad-ya-tê</i>
	\bar{i} marker	<i>sed</i>	→	<i>sā-sad-\bar{i}-ti</i>

All the examples are transparent:

√	3. sg. ātm. (<i>ya</i> suffix)	3. sg. par. (\bar{i} suffix)	translation
<i>jval</i>	<i>jvā-jval-ya-tê</i>	<i>jvā-jval-\bar{i}-ti</i>	to burn
<i>pac</i>	<i>pā-pac-ya-tê</i>	<i>pā-pac-\bar{i}-ti</i>	to cook
<i>yac</i>	<i>yā-yac-ya-tê</i>	<i>yā-yac-\bar{i}-ti</i>	to sacrifice
<i>vad</i>	<i>vā-vad-ya-tê</i>	<i>vā-vad-\bar{i}-ti</i>	to speak
<i>smṛ</i>	<i>smā-smar-ya-tê</i>	<i>smā-smar-\bar{i}-ti</i>	to remember
<i>svap</i>	see first construction	<i>sā-svap-\bar{i}-ti</i>	to sleep

As in desideratives like *śu-śrū-ṣ-u*, only the first root-initial consonant gets reduplicated in *jval* and *svap*.

Third construction

In contrast to the first and second construction, the third one uses the root-final consonants in reduplication:

3. construction		ie. root	→	frequentative
	<i>ya</i> marker	$C_1 Fg C_2$	→	$C_1 Fg C_2 - C_1 Fg C_2 - ya$ + ātm.
	\bar{i} marker	$C_1 Fg C_2$	→	$C_1 Fg C_2 - C_1 Fg C_2 - \bar{i}$ + par.
example	<i>ya</i> marker	<i>nem</i>	→	<i>nan-nam-ya-tê</i>
	\bar{i} marker	<i>nem</i>	→	<i>nan-nam-\bar{i}-ti</i>

Here are a few examples:

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√	3. sg. atm. (<i>ya</i> suffix)	3. sg. par. (<i>ī</i> suffix)	translation
<i>kram</i>	<i>cañ-kram-ya-tê</i> (1, 2)	<i>cañ-kram-ī-ti</i> (1, 2)	to walk
<i>gam</i>	<i>jañ-gam-ya-tê</i> (2)	<i>jañ-gam-ī-ti</i> (2)	to go
<i>car</i>		<i>car-car-ī-ti</i> (2)	
<i>bhram</i>	<i>bam-bhram-ya-tê</i> (1, 3)	<i>bam-bhram-ī-ti</i> (1, 3)	to roam

1. Regularly, only the first word-initial consonant gets reduplicated. Therefore: *cañ-kram-ya-tê* and *bam-bhram-ya-tê*.
2. Secondary palatalization is seen in *cañ-kram-ya-tê* and *jañ-gam-ya-tê*. This shows that the root vowel is truly reduplicated for the case of frequentatives. For example, ie. **kem-krem-* → *cañ-kram*. These verbs also show expected backward assimilation where the suitable class nasal (here: the velar one) is used. Secondary palatalization is also present in *car-car-ī-ti*, but here the palatalization is seen already in the oi. root.
3. Grassmann deaspiration

Note that most of the above examples are nasal stems. Its construction could have been misunderstood in this manner:

3. construction		ie. root	→	frequentative
	<i>ya</i> marker	C_1FgC_2	→	$C_1Fg-N-C_1FgC_2-ya$ + atm.
	<i>ī</i> marker	C_1FgC_2	→	$C_1Fg-N-C_1FgC_2-ī$ + par.
example	<i>ya</i> marker	<i>bhrem</i>	→	<i>ba-m-bhram-ya-tê</i>
	<i>ī</i> marker	<i>bhrem</i>	→	<i>ba-m-bhram-ī-ti</i>

where a nasal is infixed after the reduplication syllable without root-final consonant. This is relevant for understanding frequentatives like

√	3. sg. atm. (<i>ya</i> suffix)	3. sg. par. (<i>ī</i> suffix)	translation
<i>cal</i>	<i>ca-ñ-cal-ya-tê</i>		to stir, to quiver
<i>jap</i>	<i>ja-ñ-jap-ya-tê</i>	<i>ja-ñ-jap-ī-ti</i>	to recite
<i>dah</i>	<i>da-ñ-dah-ya-tê</i>	<i>da-ñ-dah-ī-ti</i>	to burn

Fourth construction

According to the fourth construction, long *ī* is inserted after the reduplication syllable:

4. construction		ie. root	→	frequentative
	<i>ya</i> marker	C_1erC_2	→	$C_1ar-ī-C_1rC_2-ya$ + atm.
	<i>ī</i> marker	C_1erC_2	→	$C_1ar-ī-C_1rC_2-ī$ + par.
example	<i>ya</i> marker	<i>serp</i>	→	<i>sar-ī-sr̥p-ya-tê</i>
	<i>ī</i> marker	<i>serp</i>	→	<i>sar-ī-sr̥p-ī-ti</i>

C.5. Lengthened-grade forms and forms using several grades

Consider these examples that are exactly formed like *sar-i-srp-i-ti*:

√	3. sg. ātm. (<i>ya</i> suffix)	3. sg. par. (<i>i</i> suffix)	translation
<i>nṛt</i>	<i>nar-i-nṛt-ya-tê</i>	see fifth construction	to dance
<i>vṛt</i>	<i>var-i-vṛt-ya-tê</i>	<i>var-i-vṛt-i-ti</i>	to turn

Fifth construction

The fifth construction is similar to the fourth one. It shows up only in parasmâipada, but without the immediately preceding *i* suffix:

5. construction	ie. root	→	frequentative
	C_1erC_2	→	$C_1ar-i-C_1arC_2-$ + par.
examples	<i>vert</i>	→	<i>var-i-var-t-ti</i>
	<i>mer</i>	→	<i>mar-i-mar-ti</i>

Sixth construction

The sixth construction is applied to long *ā* roots:

√	3. sg. ātm. (<i>ya</i> suffix)	3. sg. par.	translation
<i>dā</i>	<i>dê-dā-y-a-tê</i>	<i>dā-dā-ti</i>	to give
<i>pā</i>	<i>pê-pi-y-a-tê</i>	<i>pā-pā-ti</i>	to drink

Similarly, compare *jê-jṛ-y-a-tê* from root *jṛ* (to decay).

C.5.4. Gerundives

Gerundives are formed with *tavya*, *aṇīya*, or *ya*. They occur in all grades. Consider

√	translation	f.g.	z.g.	l.g.
<i>kṛ</i>	to make	<i>kar-tavya</i> (1), <i>kar-aṇīya</i>	<i>kṛ-tya</i>	<i>kār-ya</i>
<i>gam</i>	to go	<i>gan-tavya</i> (1), <i>gam-aṇīya</i> , <i>gam-ya</i>		
<i>ji</i>	to conquer	<i>jê-tavya</i> (1), <i>jê-ya</i> , <i>jay-ya</i> (2)		
<i>tyaj</i>	to abandon			<i>tyāj-ya</i>
<i>dviṣ</i>	to hate	<i>dvêṣ-ya</i>		
<i>bhū</i>	to be	<i>bhav-i-tavya</i> (1, 3), <i>bhav-ya</i>		

1. All *tavya*-forms are built on the full grade as the infinitives on *-tum* or the agent nouns on *-tar* (pp. 91).

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2. *jê-ya* versus *jay-ya* is not totally clear. If the *ya*-forms begin with a consonant, *jê-ya* is expected and *jay-ya* in need of an explanation.
3. *bhav-i-tavya* is regular as is the infinitive *bhav-i-tum* due to the laryngeal root ie. **bhuH*.

Some gerunds surprisingly exhibit *ê*, such as

√	translation	f.g.		
<i>dā</i>	to give	<i>dê-ya</i>		
<i>dhā</i>	to set, to place	<i>dhê-ya</i>	<i>vi-dhê-ya</i> (“to be determined”)	<i>vi-dhê-ya</i> (“duty”)
<i>jñā</i>	to know	<i>jñê-ya</i>		
<i>pā</i>	to drink	<i>pê-ya</i>		
<i>sthā</i>	to stand	<i>sthê-ya</i>		

Perhaps, *pê-ya* is regularly formed in the following manner:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & *peh_3i-yo \\
 \rightarrow & p\bar{a}i-ya \text{ (Lar_V)} \\
 \rightarrow & p\hat{e}-ya \text{ (MVS, pp. 30)}
 \end{aligned}$$

while the other long *ā* verbs do not exhibit *i* in the root and are built by analogy with *pê-ya*.

C.6. Thematic and athematic verbs

C.6.1. Thematic verbs

Short introduction

Verbal classes 1, 4, 6, and 10 are thematic, the others athematic. The endings between thematic and athematic verbs are quite similar. Compare some forms of the thematic first-class verb *bhṛ* (“to carry”) with the athematic third-class verb *bhī* (“to be afraid”):

	thematic: √ <i>bhṛ</i>	athematic: √ <i>bhī</i>	
1	<i>bhar-ā-mi</i>	<i>bi-bhê-mi</i>	present
2	<i>bhar-a-si</i>	<i>bi-bhê-ṣi</i>	tense
3	<i>bhar-a-ti</i>	<i>bi-bhê-ti</i>	singular
1	<i>a-bhar-a-m</i>	<i>a-bi-bhay-a-m</i>	imper-
2	<i>a-bhar-a-s</i>	<i>a-bi-bhê-s</i>	fect
3	<i>a-bhar-a-t</i>	<i>a-bi-bhê-t</i>	singular

There are two sets of endings, primary and secondary. Primary endings are used for the present tense and the future tense. Secondary endings are used for imperfect, imperative, and optative.

Endings for thematic verbs, parasmâipada

The thematic endings are given in the following table:

thematic verbs parasmâipada				
sg.	dual	pl.		
1	<i>mi</i> (1, 2)	<i>vas</i> (1)	<i>mas</i> (1)	present
2	<i>si</i> (1, 2)	<i>thas</i>	<i>tha</i>	tense
3	<i>ti</i> (1, 2)	<i>tas</i>	<i>n-ti</i> (1, 3)	(primary ending)
1	<i>m</i> (1)	<i>va</i> (1)	<i>ma</i> (1)	imper-
2	<i>s</i> (1)	<i>tam</i>	<i>ta</i>	flect
3	<i>t</i> (1)	<i>tām</i>	<i>n</i> (3, 4)	(secondary ending)
1	<i>ni</i> (5)	<i>va</i> (1)	<i>ma</i> (1)	imper-
2	∅ (5)	<i>tam</i>	<i>ta</i>	ative
3	<i>tu</i> (1)	<i>tām</i>	<i>n-tu</i> (1, 3)	(secondary ending)

1. *m*, *s*, and *t* characterize the 1., 2., and 3. pers., respectively. This holds for both thematic and athematic, both parasmâipada and ātmanêpada verbs. It is tempting to derive *m*, *s*, and *t* from personal pronouns. For the 1. pers., this seems clear:
 - a) *m* (imperfect) or *mi* (pres. tense) is also seen in oi. gen. sg. *mama* and oi. gen./dat./acc. enclitic *mê* (and even in e. *me*).
 - b) pl. *mas* ← ie. **mes* is the ie. 1. pers. pl. pronoun
 - c) dual *vas* is still seen in the oi. gen./dat./acc. enclitic *vas*
2. Both the thematic and athematic verbal classes show *i* in the present tense sg. It is sometimes called the “here and now” particle. Secondary endings are older than primary ones.
3. From the oi. perspective, *n* indicates 3. pers. pl. as a comparison with sg. shows. Historically, *nt* may go back to the present participle.
4. Imperfect 3. pers. pl. ending is *n* instead of *nt* by **CCI**. The drop of *t* is regular: at the end of a word, only the first consonant of a consonant cluster remains (p. 44).
5. ∅ indicates the zero ending.

I now turn to a specific paradigm where we forms are built according to the formula

present stem
+ theme vowel
+ ending

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This pattern is of ie. origin:

ie. root <i>bher</i>			
	sg.	pl.	
1	<i>bher-ō</i> (1)	<i>bher-o-mes</i> (2)	present
2	<i>bher-e-si</i>	<i>bher-e-te</i>	tense
3	<i>bher-e-ti</i>	<i>bher-o-n-ti</i>	(primary ending)
1	<i>e-bher-o-m</i>	<i>e-bher-o-me</i> (2)	imperfect
2	<i>e-bher-e-s</i>	<i>e-bher-e-te</i>	(secondary ending)
3	<i>e-bher-e-t</i>	<i>e-bher-o-nt</i>	with augment <i>e</i>

The numbers are explained after the next table. While the thematic vowel was *e* or *o* in ie., it is, of course, *a* in Sanskrit:

\sqrt{bhr} parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>bhar-ā-mi</i> (1)	<i>bhar-ā-vas</i> (2)	<i>bhar-ā-mas</i> (2)	present
2	<i>bhar-a-si</i>	<i>bhar-a-thas</i>	<i>tha</i>	tense
3	<i>bhar-a-ti</i>	<i>bhar-a-tas</i>	<i>n-ti</i> (1,3)	(primary ending)
1	<i>a-bhar-a-m</i>	<i>a-bhar-ā-va</i> (2)	<i>a-bhar-ā-ma</i> (2)	imperfect
2	<i>a-bhar-a-s</i>	<i>a-bhar-a-tam</i>	<i>a-bhar-a-ta</i>	(secondary ending)
3	<i>a-bhar-a-t</i>	<i>a-bhar-a-tām</i>	<i>a-bhar-a-n</i>	with augment <i>a</i>
1	<i>bhar-ā-ni</i> (2)	<i>bhar-ā-va</i> (2)	<i>bhar-ā-ma</i> (2)	imper-
2	<i>bhar-a</i>	<i>bhar-a-tam</i>	<i>bhar-a-ta</i>	ative
3	<i>bhar-a-tu</i>	<i>bhar-a-tām</i>	<i>bhar-a-n-tu</i>	(secondary ending)

1. Instead of theme vowel *a*, we have *ā* in *bhar-ā-mi*. Historically, ie. **ō* indicates 1. pers. sg. for thematic verbs. See the table for ie. forms above. In contrast, *mi* was present in athematic verbs, only. From these athematic verbs, *mi* spread to thematic ones. Thus, the 1. pers. sg. has two markers.

2. **Lo:** oi. *bhar-ā-mas* ← ie. **bher-o-mes*.

Endings for thematic verbs, ātmanêpada

The ātmanêpada endings are difficult in that they are often amalgamated with the thematic vowel. For that reason, we now present the thematic vowel *a* together with the thematic endings in the following table:

thematic verbs ātmanêpada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>ê</i> (1, 2)	<i>ā-vahê</i> (3)	<i>mahê</i> (1, 3)	present
2	<i>a-sê</i> (1, 2)	<i>êthê</i>	<i>a-dhvê</i>	tense
3	<i>a-tê</i> (1, 2)	<i>êtê</i>	<i>a-n-tê</i> (1)	(primary ending)
1	<i>ê</i> (4)	<i>ā-vahi</i> (3)	<i>ā-mahi</i> (1)	imper-
2	<i>a-thās</i> (1)	<i>êthām</i>	<i>a-dhvam</i>	fect
3	<i>a-ta</i> (1)	<i>êtām</i>	<i>a-n-ta</i> (1)	(secondary ending)
1	<i>âi</i>	<i>ā-vahâi</i> (3)	<i>ā-mahâi</i> (1, 3)	imper-
2	<i>a-sva</i>	<i>êthām</i>	<i>a-dhvam</i>	ative
3	<i>a-tām</i> (1)	<i>êtām</i>	<i>a-n-tām</i> (1)	(secondary ending)

1. Similar to the parasmâipada endings, we again have *m*, *s*, and *t* to characterize the 1., 2., and 3. pers., respectively. However, we have just *ê* rather than *mê* in the 1. pers. sg.
2. Similar to the parasmâipada endings, we again encounter the “here and now” particle *i* in the present tense sg.; *ê* goes back to ie. *oi*.
3. As in the parasmâipada case, we see *ā*, i.e., the operation of Brugmann’s law in several forms.
4. Think of 1. pers. imperfect *ê* as *a-i* (in the athematic paradigm we have just *i*).

Presenting a paradigm, we use

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{present stem} \\ + \text{ theme vowel } a \text{ together with ending} \end{array}$$

and obtain:

$\sqrt{\text{labh}}$ ātmanêpada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>labh-ê</i>	<i>labh-ā-vahê</i>	<i>labh-mahê</i>	present
2	<i>labh-a-sê</i>	<i>labh-êthê</i>	<i>labh-a-dhvê</i>	tense
3	<i>labh-a-tê</i>	<i>labh-êtê</i>	<i>labh-a-n-tê</i>	(primary ending)
1	<i>a-labh-ê</i>	<i>a-labh-ā-vahi</i>	<i>a-labh-ā-mahi</i>	imperfect
2	<i>a-labh-a-thās</i>	<i>a-labh-êthām</i>	<i>a-labh-a-dhvam</i>	(secondary ending)
3	<i>a-labh-a-ta</i>	<i>a-labh-êtām</i>	<i>a-labh-a-n-ta</i>	with augment <i>a</i>
1	<i>labh-âi</i>	<i>labh-ā-vahâi</i> (3)	<i>labh-ā-mahâi</i> (1, 3)	imper-
2	<i>labh-a-sva</i>	<i>labh-êthām</i>	<i>labh-a-dhvam</i>	ative
3	<i>labh-a-tām</i> (1)	<i>labh-êtām</i>	<i>labh-a-n-tām</i> (1)	(secondary ending)

Parasmaipada			Atmanepada				
	sing.	dual plural		sing.	dual plural		
1			1			p r e s e n t t e n s e	
2			2				
3			3				
	sing.	dual plural		sing.	dual plural		
1			1			i m p e r f e c t	
2			2				
3			3				
	sing.	dual plural		sing.	dual plural		
1							i m p e r a t i v e
2							
3	■						
	sing.	dual plural		sing.	dual plural		
1			1			o p t a t i v e	
2			2				
3			3				

Figure C.2.: Strong forms in the athematic verbs

C.6.2. Athematic verbs

Distribution of weak and strong forms

Athematic verbs (classes 2, 3, 5, 7, 8, and 9) distinguish between weak forms and strong forms. Consider fig. C.2 where the strong forms are marked. The others are weak. If you are not the graphical type, try to remember that strong forms are present

- ◇ in parasmâipada present tense sg.
- ◇ in parasmâipada imperfect sg.
- ◇ in 1. pers. imperative, both parasmâipada and ātmanêpada
- ◇ in parasmâipada 3. pers. sg. imperative

Weak and strong forms are important because

- ◇ weak forms are defined by the zero grade
- ◇ strong form are defined by the normal grade

Endings for athematic verbs, parasmâipada

The athematic endings are very similar to the thematic ones:

them. v. par.				athem. v. par.			
sg.	dual	pl.		sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>mi</i>	<i>vas</i>	<i>mas</i>	<i>mi</i>	<i>vas</i>	<i>mas</i>	present tense (primary ending)
2	<i>si</i>	<i>thas</i>	<i>tha</i>	<i>si</i>	<i>thas</i>	<i>tha</i>	
3	<i>ti</i>	<i>tas</i>	<i>n-ti</i>	<i>ti</i>	<i>tas</i>	<i>(a)n-ti</i> (2)	
1	<i>m</i>	<i>va</i>	<i>ma</i>	<i>am</i> (1)	<i>va</i>	<i>ma</i>	imper- fect (secondary ending)
2	<i>s</i>	<i>tam</i>	<i>ta</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>tam</i>	<i>ta</i>	
3	<i>t</i>	<i>tām</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>t</i>	<i>tām</i>	<i>(a)n</i> (2)/ <i>us</i> (3)	
1	<i>ni</i>	<i>va</i>	<i>ma</i>	<i>āni</i> (4)	<i>āva</i> (4)	<i>āma</i> (4)	imper- ative (secondary ending)
2	∅	<i>tam</i>	<i>ta</i>	<i>dhi/hi/∅</i> (5)	<i>tam</i>	<i>ta</i>	
3	<i>tu</i>	<i>tām</i>	<i>n-tu</i>	<i>tu</i>	<i>tām</i>	<i>(a)n-tu</i> (2)	

- Although we are now dealing with athematic verbs, the 1. pers. sg. imperfect ending is always *am*. (This holds for Sanskrit, but in ie. times, the ending was just *m* as might be expected.) There is a good reason for this ending. With *m* instead of *am*, we would encounter irrerecognizable forms due to $m_{\circ} \rightarrow a$:

	1. pers. sg. imperfect	
	ending $m_{\circ} \rightarrow a$	ending <i>am</i>
\sqrt{yuj} (7. class)	n.at. <i>a-yu-na-j-a</i>	<i>a-yu-na-j-am</i>
\sqrt{vid} (2. class)	n.at. <i>a-vêd-a</i>	<i>a-vêd-am</i>

- Spreading of the thematic *a* often occurs in the parasmâipada 3. pers. pl. forms. In fact, this is true for all athematic classes but the third class and the 2. class verb *śās* (“to rule”).
- The variant *us* is often seen in 3. pers. pl. imperfect.
- The imperative 1. pers. endings do **not** differ between
 - “lengthened theme vowel” + “thematic ending” and
 - athematic ending.

This observation holds for parasmâipada (here) and ātmanêpada (below). Thus, the thematic vowel has also spread in these cases.

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5. The Ø-ending is also seen in athematic verbs where you find *kur-u* (“make!”) or *su-nu* (“press!”). Otherwise, the parasmâipada impv. 2. pers. sg. for the athematic classes can be *dhi* or *hi*:

	√	class	translation	imperative
<i>dhi</i>	<i>yuj</i>	7	to join	<i>yu-ni-g-dhi</i>
	<i>vid</i>	2	to know	<i>vid-dhi</i>
	<i>hu</i>	3	to sacrifice	<i>ju-hu-dhi</i>
<i>hi</i>	<i>āp</i>	5	to obtain	<i>āp-nu-hi</i>
	<i>pū</i>	9	to purify	<i>pū-ni-hi</i>
	<i>bhī</i>	3	to be afraid	<i>bi-bhī-hi</i>
	<i>yā</i>	2	to go	<i>yā-hi</i>

In Old Greek we find *thi* (in *i-thi*, “go!”). Thus, we know that oi. *dhi* is the original one, not oi. *hi*. *hi* could have developed from *dhi* through forms like these:

- vid-dhi* which could (in the speakers’ minds) have developed from **vid-hi* by way of a sandhi rule.
- i-hi* may be dialectal developement from older n.at. *i-dhi* (see p. 53). From forms like *i-hi* the new ending *hi* may have spread to other verbs.

Endings for athematic verbs, ātmanêpada

Compare the ātmanêpada endings for thematic verbs (endings again amalgamated with the thematic vowel, left-hand side) and for athematic verbs (without, usually, thematic vowel, right-hand side):

them. v. ātm.				athem. v. ātm.			
	sg.	dual	pl.	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>ê</i>	<i>ā-vahê</i>	<i>mahê</i>	<i>ê</i> (2)	<i>vahê</i> (1)	<i>mahê</i> (1)	present
2	<i>a-sê</i>	<i>êthê</i>	<i>a-dhvê</i>	<i>sê</i> (1)	<i>āthê</i> (3)	<i>dhvê</i> (1)	tense
3	<i>a-tê</i>	<i>êtê</i>	<i>a-n-tê</i>	<i>tê</i> (1)	<i>ātê</i> (3)	<i>n-tê</i> (1)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>ê</i>	<i>ā-vahi</i>	<i>ā-mahi</i>	<i>i</i> (4)	<i>vahi</i> (1)	<i>mahi</i> (1)	imper-
2	<i>a-thās</i>	<i>êthām</i>	<i>a-dhvam</i>	<i>thās</i> (1)	<i>āthām</i> (3)	<i>dhvam</i> (1)	fect
3	<i>a-ta</i>	<i>êtām</i>	<i>a-n-ta</i>	<i>ta</i> (1)	<i>ātām</i> (3)	<i>n-ta</i> (1)	(sec. end.)
1	<i>âi</i>	<i>ā-vahâi</i>	<i>ā-mahâi</i>	<i>âi</i> (2, 5)	<i>ā-vahâi</i> (5)	<i>ā-mahâi</i> (5)	imper-
2	<i>a-sva</i>	<i>êthām</i>	<i>a-dhvam</i>	<i>sva</i> (1)	<i>āthām</i> (3)	<i>dhvam</i> (1)	ative
3	<i>a-tām</i>	<i>êtām</i>	<i>a-n-tām</i>	<i>tām</i> (1)	<i>ātām</i> (3)	<i>n-tām</i> (1)	(sec. end.)

- Within the ātmanêpada paradigm, many athematic endings are the same as the corresponding thematic ones, but, of course, the athematic ones do without the thematic vowel *a* (or *ā* before 1. pers. *m-* or *v-* endings).

2. We have \hat{e} and $\hat{a}i$ in both thematic and athematic 1. pers. sg., pres. tense and imperative, respectively.
3. The 2. and 3. pers. dual forms,
 - a) begin with \hat{e} (including the thematic vowel) in thematic paradigms, but
 - b) begin with \bar{a} in athematic paradigms.
4. 1. pers. sg. imperfect i (athematic) clearly corresponds to the thematic $\hat{e} \leftarrow a-i$.
5. The imperative 1. pers. endings do **not** differ between
 - a) “(lengthened) theme vowel” + “thematic ending” (endings amalgamated with the thematic vowel, left-hand side) and
 - b) athematic ending (right-hand side).

This observation holds for $\bar{a}tman\hat{e}pada$ (here) and $parasm\hat{a}ipada$ (below). Thus, the thematic vowel has also spread in these cases.

Learners may find the 2. and 3. person duals confusing. It may be helpful to compare the present tense with its primary endings with the imperfect where we have secondary endings:

t h e m a t i c				v e r b s			
pres. tense				impf.			
par.		$\bar{a}tm.$		par.		$\bar{a}tm.$	
2	$a-thas$	$a \rightarrow \hat{e}$	$\hat{e}-th\hat{e}$	2	$a-tam$	$a \rightarrow \hat{e}$	$\hat{e}-th\bar{a}m$
	\downarrow no h		\downarrow no h				\downarrow no h
3	$a-tas$	$a \rightarrow \hat{e}$	$\hat{e}-t\hat{e}$	3	$a-t\bar{a}m$	$a \rightarrow \hat{e}$	$\hat{e}-t\bar{a}m$
	\downarrow no vowel		$\downarrow \bar{a}$ for \hat{e}		\downarrow no vowel		$\downarrow \bar{a}$ for \hat{e}

a t h e m a t i c				v e r b s			
\downarrow	pres. tense	\downarrow		\downarrow	impf.	\downarrow	
par.		$\bar{a}tman\hat{e}p.$		parasm.		$\bar{a}tman\hat{e}p.$	
2	$thas$	$\emptyset \rightarrow \bar{a}$	$\bar{a}-th\hat{e}$	2	tam	$\emptyset \rightarrow \bar{a}$	$\bar{a}-th\bar{a}m$
	\downarrow no h		\downarrow no h				\downarrow no h
3	tas	$\emptyset \rightarrow \bar{a}$	$\bar{a}-t\hat{e}$	3	$t\bar{a}m$	$\emptyset \rightarrow \bar{a}$	$\bar{a}-t\bar{a}m$

For example, we have

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		pres. tense		imperfect	
		parasmâipada	ātmanêpada	parasmâipada	ātmanêpada
2	<i>bhar-a-thas</i>	<i>bhar-ê-thê</i>	<i>a-bhar-a-tam</i>	<i>a-bhar-ê-thām</i>	thematic
3	<i>bhar-a-tas</i>	<i>bhar-ê-tê</i>	<i>a-bhar-a-tām</i>	<i>a-bhar-ê-tām</i>	verb
2	<i>kuru-thas</i>	<i>kurv-ā-thê</i>	<i>a-kuru-tam</i>	<i>a-kurv-ā-thām</i>	athematic
3	<i>kuru-tas</i>	<i>kurv-ā-tê</i>	<i>a-kuru-tām</i>	<i>a-kurv-ā-tām</i>	verb

C.6.3. The second class

Introductory remark and overview

The 3. pers. sg. is often characterized by *t* and the 3. pers. pl. by *nt*. In the athematic classes in ātmanêpada, the *n* in the pl. marker *nt* becomes syllabic so that the *n* seems to have been dropped. Compare the thematic paradigm

\sqrt{bhr} , 1. class, ātm., 3. pers.		
sg.	pl.	
<i>bhar-a-tê</i>	<i>bhar-a-n-tê</i> ← <i>*bher-o-n-toi</i>	present tense
<i>a-bhar-a-ta</i>	<i>a-bhar-a-n-ta</i>	imperfect
<i>bhar-a-tām</i>	<i>bhar-a-n-tām</i>	imperative

with the athematic one

\sqrt{vas} , 2. class, ātm., 3. pers.		
sg.	pl.	
<i>vas-tê</i>	<i>vas-a-tê</i> ← <i>*ves-n-toi</i>	present tense
<i>a-vas-ta</i>	<i>a-vas-a-ta</i>	imperfect
<i>vas-tām</i>	<i>vas-a-tām</i>	imperative

It is clearly seen how *n-tê* in the thematic verbs contrasts with *a-tê* in the athematic ones. However, this holds true only for ātmanêpada. In contrast, the parasmâipada athematic 3. pers. pl. PRII forms borrow the thematic *a* from the thematic classes, in particular nearly always in the 2. class:

\sqrt{vac} , 2. class, par., 3. pers.		
sg.	pl.	
<i>vak-ti</i>	<i>vac-a-n-ti</i> ← <i>*ves-n-toi</i>	present tense
<i>a-vak</i> ← n.at. <i>*a-vak-t</i>	<i>a-vac-a-n</i> ← n.at. <i>*a-vac-a-n-t</i>	imperfect
<i>vas-tu</i>	<i>vac-a-n-tu</i>	imperative

Second-class verbs produce many challenging forms where the verbal root directly gets into contact with the personal endings. We consider in detail

- ◇ *vac* (“to speak”) on pp. 151
- ◇ *yā* (“to go”) on pp. 152
- ◇ *vid* (“to know”) on pp. 153
- ◇ *as* (“to be”) on pp. 153
- ◇ *i* (“to go”) on pp. 154
- ◇ *duh* (“to milk”) on pp. 155
- ◇ *lih* (“to lick”) on pp. 157
- ◇ *vaś* (“to wish”) on pp. 160
- ◇ *han* (“to hit, to kill”) on pp. 161
- ◇ *brū* (“to speak”) on pp. 162
- ◇ *śās* (“to rule, to instruct”) on pp. 163
- ◇ *nu* (“to praise”) on pp. 164

***vac* (“to speak”)**

Our first verb, *vac* (“to speak”), is special in not distinguishing weak and strong forms. We have only strong forms:

$\sqrt{vac} \leftarrow$ ie. $*vek^w$, parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>vac-mi</i> (4)	<i>vac-vas</i> (4)	<i>vac-mas</i> (4)	present
2	<i>vak-ṣi</i> (2)	<i>vak-thas</i> (1)	<i>vak-tha</i> (1)	tense
3	<i>vak-ti</i> (1)	<i>vak-tas</i> (1)	<i>vac-an-ti</i> (6)	(primary ending)
1	<i>a-vac-am</i> (6)	<i>a-vac-va</i> (4)	<i>a-vac-ma</i> (4)	imperfect
2	<i>a-vak</i> (5)	<i>a-vak-tam</i> (1)	<i>a-vak-ta</i> (1)	(secondary ending)
3	<i>a-vak</i> (5)	<i>a-vak-tām</i> (1)	<i>a-vac-an</i> (6)	with augment <i>a</i>
1	<i>vac-āni</i> (4)	<i>vac-āva</i> (4)	<i>vac-āma</i> (4)	imper-
2	<i>vag-dhi</i> (3)	<i>vak-tam</i> (1)	<i>vak-ta</i> (1)	ative
3	<i>vak-tu</i>	<i>vak-tām</i> (1)	<i>vac-an-tu</i> (6)	(secondary ending)

1. No **Spal** before endings beginning with voiceless *t*
2. **RUKI**

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3. In *vag-dhi*, we have expected **BA** before *dhi*, the regular ending.
4. In the above paradigm, we have *c* (as in the oi. root *vac*) in all forms where the endings start with a vowel (**SPal**), a nasal, or a liquid.
5. In the imperfect sg., we have
 - ◇ 3. pers. *a-vak* ← ie. **vek^w-t* and
 - ◇ 2. pers. *a-vak* ← ie. **vek^w-s*
 by **CCl**.
6. In all verbs of the second class (except *śās* (“to rule, to instruct”)), parasmâipada 3. pers. pl. forms borrow *a* from the thematic class, as we see here with *vac-a-n-ti*.

yā (“to go”)

Let us now turn to a second verb without alternation of weak and strong forms: *yā* (“to go”). *yā* belongs to the class of consequentials, as do some other second-class verbs like *mnā* or *ghrā* (see pp. 79). *yā* (“to go”) has the second peculiarity in that the root ends in a vowel. This makes consonant-initial endings transparent.

$\sqrt{y\bar{a}}$ parasmāipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>yā-mi</i>	<i>yā-vas</i>	<i>yā-mas</i>	present
2	<i>yā-si</i>	<i>yā-thas</i>	<i>yā-tha</i>	tense
3	<i>yā-ti</i>	<i>yā-tas</i>	<i>yā-n-ti</i> (1)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-yā-m</i> (1)	<i>a-yā-va</i>	<i>a-yā-ma</i>	imperfect
2	<i>a-yā-s</i>	<i>a-yā-tam</i>	<i>a-yā-ta</i>	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-yā-t</i>	<i>a-yā-tām</i>	<i>a-yā-n</i> (1)/ <i>a-y-us</i> (2)	with augm.
1	<i>yā-ni</i> (1)	<i>yā-va</i> (1)	<i>yā-ma</i> (1)	imper-
2	<i>yā-hi</i> (3)	<i>yā-tam</i>	<i>yā-ta</i>	ative
3	<i>yā-tu</i>	<i>yā-tām</i>	<i>yā-n-tu</i> (1)	(sec. end.)

1. In some forms, the \bar{a} from root *yā* is confounded with an ending that (by analogy or other) begins with *a* or \bar{a} . Then, the obvious effect results.
2. *a-y-us* sometimes uses the alternative ending *us* (instead of *(a)n*) is used. And, we just have *a-y-us*, not *a-yâus* (which would be difficult to understand).
3. Note the *hi* rather than the *dhi* imperative.

vid (“to know”)

We now turn to *vid* (“to know”) which shows the expected distribution of strong and weak forms:

$\sqrt{vid} \leftarrow$ ie. $*veid$, parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>vêd-mi</i>	<i>vid-vas</i>	<i>vid-mas</i>	present
2	<i>vêt-ṣi</i> (1)	<i>vit-thas</i> (1)	<i>vit-tha</i> (1)	tense
3	<i>vêt-ti</i> (1)	<i>vit-tas</i> (1)	<i>vid-an-ti</i>	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-vêd-am</i>	<i>a-vid-va</i>	<i>a-vid-ma</i>	imperfect
2	<i>a-vêt/a-vês</i> (2)	<i>a-vit-tam</i> (1)	<i>a-vit-ta</i> (1)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-vêt</i> (2)	<i>a-vit-tām</i> (1)	<i>a-vid-us</i> (4)	with augm.
1	<i>vêd-āni</i>	<i>vêd-āva</i>	<i>vêd-āma</i>	imper-
2	<i>vid-dhi</i> (3)	<i>vit-tam</i> (1)	<i>vit-ta</i> (1)	ative
3	<i>vêt-tu</i> (1)	<i>vit-tām</i> (1)	<i>vid-an-tu</i>	(sec. end.)

1. The backward assimilation $d \rightarrow t$ is clearly seen before the many endings with t or th and before (voiceless) s in *vêt-si*.
2. In the imperfect sg., we have
 - ◇ 3. pers. *a-vêt* \leftarrow ie. $*e-veid-t$ and
 - ◇ 2. pers. *a-vêt* \leftarrow ie. $*e-veid-s$

where backward assimilation (making the dental voiceless) and then the drop of t or s , respectively, are to be expected (p. 44). *a-vês* is an alternative 2. pers. sg. which is clearly due to analogy with forms like *a-yā-s*.
3. *vid-dhi* is the regular 2. pers. sg. imperative.
4. *a-vid-us* shows the alternative ending *us* (instead of $(a)n$).

as (“to be”)

Next comes *as* (“to be”):

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$\sqrt{as} \leftarrow$ ie. * <i>Hes</i> , parasmāipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>as-mi</i>	<i>s-vas</i>	<i>s-mas</i>	present
2	<i>asi</i> (1)	<i>s-thas</i>	<i>s-tha</i> (1)	tense
3	<i>as-ti</i>	<i>s-tas</i>	<i>s-an-ti</i>	(prim. end.)
1	<i>ās-am</i> (2)	<i>ās-va</i> (3)	<i>ās-ma</i> (3)	imperfect
2	<i>ās-i-s</i> (4)	<i>ās-tam</i> (3)	<i>ās-ta</i> (3)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>ās-i-t</i> (4)	<i>ās-tām</i> (3)	<i>ās-an</i> (3)	with augm.
1	<i>as-āni</i>	<i>as-āva</i>	<i>as-āma</i>	imper-
2	<i>ē-dhi</i> (5)	<i>s-tam</i>	<i>s-ta</i>	ative
3	<i>as-tu</i>	<i>s-tām</i>	<i>s-an-tu</i>	(sec. end.)

1. We have degemination $asi \leftarrow as-si$.
2. Long \bar{a} in strong $\bar{a}s-am$ is to be understood as
 - ◇ a as imperfect augment plus
 - ◇ a from the root of as .
 Compare $a-vêd-am$ with $a-as-am \rightarrow \bar{a}s-am$ (“I was”).
3. Imperfect dual and pl. forms are also strong, in contradiction to fig. C.2.
4. Originally, $\bar{a}s-\bar{i}s$ and $\bar{a}s-\bar{i}t$ are aorist forms that migrated to the imperfect.
5. We have $\hat{e}-dhi \leftarrow \text{n.at. } as-dhi$ (see pp. 50) and again a strong form in contradiction to fig. C.2.

i (“to go”)

Another parasmâipada example from the second class is the Sanskrit word for “to go”:

$\sqrt{i} \leftarrow$ ie. $*ei$, parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	$\hat{e}\text{-}mi$ (1)	$i\text{-}vas$ (2)	$i\text{-}mas$ (2)	present
2	$\hat{e}\text{-}\grave{s}i$ (1)	$i\text{-}thas$ (2)	$i\text{-}tha$ (2)	tense
3	$\hat{e}\text{-}ti$ (1)	$i\text{-}tas$ (2)	$y\text{-}an\text{-}ti$ (2)	(prim. end.)
1	$\bar{a}y\text{-}am$ (3)	$\hat{a}i\text{-}va$ (4)	$\hat{a}i\text{-}ma$ (4)	imperfect
2	$\hat{a}i\text{-}s$ (3)	$\hat{a}i\text{-}tam$ (4)	$\hat{a}i\text{-}ta$ (4)	(sec. end.)
3	$\hat{a}i\text{-}t$ (3)	$\hat{a}i\text{-}t\bar{a}m$ (4)	$\bar{a}y\text{-}an$ (5)	with augm.
1	$ay\text{-}\bar{a}ni$ (1)	$ay\text{-}\bar{a}va$ (1)	$ay\text{-}\bar{a}ma$ (1)	imper-
2	$i\text{-}hi$ (2, 6)	$i\text{-}tam$ (2)	$i\text{-}ta$ (2)	ative
3	$\hat{e}\text{-}tu$ (1)	$i\text{-}t\bar{a}m$ (2)	$y\text{-}an\text{-}tu$ (2)	(sec. end.)

1. Strong forms (imperfect see below) regularly differ between vowel ending (*ay-āni*) and consonant ending (*ê-mi*).
2. Weak forms (imperfect see below) regularly show *i* before a consonant (see *i-mas*) in and *y* before a vowel (*y-an-ti*).
3. Imperfect forms seem not to obey the prescribed distribution of weak and strong forms. However, most of them do, in fact: We have the strong forms
 - ◇ $\bar{a}y-am \leftarrow a-ay-am$ before a vowel ending
 - ◇ $\hat{a}i-t \leftarrow a-\hat{e}t$ before a consonant ending
4. The weak forms before consonant endings are similar to the strong forms, but produced by a different rule:
 $\hat{a}i-ma \leftarrow a-i-ma$ is regular by a **MVS** sound law (pp. 30).
5. Not clear. Could a similar rule as the one applied in 4. be responsible for \bar{a} in $\bar{a}y-an \leftarrow a-i-an$ before a vowel ending?
6. *i-hi* may be regular from older **i-dhi* (p. 53). From forms like *i-hi* the new ending *hi* spread to other verbs.

***duh* (“to milk”)**

We now turn to the oi. root *duh* (“to milk”). The ie. full-grade root is ie. **dheugh*. The distribution of strong and weak forms is regular. Weak forms have the zero grade *u* and strong forms show the full grade \hat{o} (see pp. 23). Here is the parasmâipada paradigm:

$\sqrt{duh} \leftarrow$ ie. <i>*dheugh</i> , parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>dôh-mi</i> (3)	<i>duh-vas</i> (3)	<i>duh-mas</i> (3)	present
2	<i>dhôk-ši</i> (2a, 6)	<i>dug-dhas</i> (1b)	<i>dug-dha</i> (1a)	tense
3	<i>dôg-dhi</i> (1a)	<i>dug-dhas</i> (1a)	<i>duh-an-ti</i> (3, 4a)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-dôh-am</i> (3)	<i>a-duh-va</i> (3)	<i>a-duh-ma</i> (3)	imperfect
2	<i>a-dhôk</i> (5)	<i>a-dug-dham</i> (1a)	<i>a-dug-dha</i> (1a)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-dhôk</i> (5)	<i>a-dug-dhām</i> (1a)	<i>a-duh-an</i> (3, 4a)	with augm.
1	<i>dôh-āni</i> (3)	<i>dôh-āva</i> (3)	<i>dôh-āma</i> (3)	imper-
2	<i>dug-dhi</i> (1c)	<i>dug-dham</i> (1a)	<i>dug-dha</i> (1a)	ative
3	<i>dôg-dhu</i> (1a)	<i>dug-dhām</i> (1a)	<i>duh-an-tu</i> (3, 4a)	(sec. end.)

1. Many forms show the application of both deaspiration of initial ie. **dh* and of aspiration shift (Bartholomae’s law, pp. 37). In particular, we have three cases:
 - a.** $gh-t \rightarrow g-dh$ (aspiration shift and forward assimilation) is seen in ie. **dheugh-ti* $\rightarrow d\hat{o}g-dhi$.

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- b. $gh\text{-}th \rightarrow g\text{-}dh$ (no double aspiration and forward assimilation) is seen in ie. $*dhugh\text{-}th \rightarrow dug\text{-}th$ (for example 2. dual pres. tense $dug\text{-}dhas$).
 - c. $gh\text{-}dh \rightarrow g\text{-}dh$ (no double aspiration and no forward assimilation) is seen in 2. sg. impv. ie. $*dhugh\text{-}dhi \rightarrow dug\text{-}dhi$ (and, in ātmanêpada below, $dhug\text{-}dhvê$). $dug\text{-}dhas$ is an example of either 1a (3. pers. dual pres. tense) or 1b (2. pers. dual pres. tense).
2. Grassmann's deaspiration is seen in most forms. But it has been undone (or, rather, has not been carried out) in these cases:
- a. before s as in parasmâipada pres. tense 2. pers. sg. $dhôk\text{-}ši$ where
 - ◇ the root-final gh lost its aspiration and became voiceless before voiceless s ,
 - ◇ this s cannot assume the aspiration (which would otherwise occur by Bartholomae's law), and
 - ◇ hence aspiration dissimilation (according to Grassmann) cannot occur.
 - b. before dhv as in ātmanêpada pres. tense 2. pers. pl. $dhug\text{-}dhvê$ where
 - ◇ the root-final gh lost its aspiration,
 - ◇ dh is aspirated already so that not further aspiration was possible,
 - ◇ v cannot assume this aspiration and dhv is not aspirated,
 - ◇ hence aspiration dissimilation (according to Grassmann) cannot occur.
3. Before an ie. front vowel, we have secondary palatalization $gh \rightarrow h$ as seen in fig. B.2 (p. 36). This is most clearly seen in $a\text{-}duh\text{-}i$. However, h spread to many forms where an ie. front vowel was not present as in $duh\text{-}an\text{-}ti$. In the above paradigm, we have h (as in the oi. root duh) in all forms where the endings start with a vowel, a nasal, or a liquid.
4. In both thematic and athematic 3. pers. pl. forms, we have a . Note, however:
- a. In parasmâipada 3. pers. pl. forms like $duh\text{-}an\text{-}ti$, we have an due to borrowing of a from the thematic classes.
 - b. In contrast, ātmanêpada forms like $duh\text{-}a\text{-}tê$ do without this borrowing and a goes back to syllabic n : $duh\text{-}a\text{-}tê \leftarrow$ ie. $*dhugh\text{-}n\text{-}toi$.
5. In imperfect sg. forms $a\text{-}dhôk$, aspiration shift is not possible and we see expected backward assimilation (similar to 2a.) before ie. s or t in the 2. pers. and 3. pers., respectively. Both forms show the impossibility of having more than one consonant at the end of a word (section B.3.5, p. 44): In the 2. pers., s has been dropped, and in the third, t .
6. In $dhôk\text{-}si$, after the newly formed k (very similar to 5.), **RUKE** applies.

And here you see the ātmanêpada paradigm where the numbers are explained above:

$\sqrt{\text{duh}} \leftarrow \text{ie. } *dheugh, \text{ātmanêpada}$				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>duh-ê</i> (3)	<i>duh-vahê</i> (3)	<i>duh-mahê</i> (3)	present
2	<i>dhuk-ṣê</i> (2a, 6)	<i>duh-āthê</i> (1b)	<i>dhug-dhvê</i> (1c, 2b)	tense
3	<i>dug-dhê</i> (1a)	<i>duh-ātê</i> (3)	<i>duh-a-tê</i> (3, 4b)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-duh-i</i> (3)	<i>a-duh-vahi</i> (3)	<i>a-duh-mahi</i> (3)	imperfect
2	<i>a-dug-dhās</i> (1b)	<i>a-duh-āthām</i> (3)	<i>a-dhug-dhvam</i> (1c, 2b)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-dug-dha</i> (1a)	<i>a-duh-ātām</i> (3)	<i>a-duh-a-ta</i> (3, 4b)	with augm.
1	<i>dôh-âi</i> (3)	<i>dôh-āvahâi</i> (3)	<i>dôh-āmahâi</i> (3)	imper-
2	<i>dhuk-ṣva</i> (2a, 6)	<i>duh-āthām</i> (3)	<i>dhug-dhvam</i> (1c, 2b)	ative
3	<i>dug-dhām</i> (1a)	<i>duh-ātām</i> (3)	<i>duh-a-tām</i> (3, 4b)	(sec. end.)

lih (“to lick”)

A somewhat more complicated (and hence even more interesting) example is *lih* (“to lick”):

$\sqrt{\text{lih}} \leftarrow \text{ie. } *leigh, \text{parasmāipada}$				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>lēh-mi</i>	<i>lih-vas</i>	<i>lih-mas</i>	present
2	<i>lēk-ṣi</i> (2)	<i>lī-ḍhas</i> (5b)	<i>lī-ḍha</i> (5a)	tense
3	<i>lē-ḍhi</i> (1)	<i>lī-ḍhas</i> (5a)	<i>lih-an-ti</i> (6a)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-lēh-am</i>	<i>a-lih-va</i>	<i>a-lih-ma</i>	imperfect
2	<i>a-lēṭ</i> (4)	<i>a-lī-ḍham</i> (5a)	<i>a-lī-ḍha</i> (5a)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-lēṭ</i> (3)	<i>a-lī-ḍhām</i> (5a)	<i>a-lih-an</i> (6a)	with augm.
1	<i>lēh-āni</i>	<i>lēh-āva</i>	<i>lēh-āma</i>	imper-
2	<i>lī-ḍhi</i>	<i>lī-ḍham</i> (5a)	<i>lī-ḍha</i> (5a)	ative
3	<i>lē-ḍhu</i> (1)	<i>lī-ḍhām</i> (5a)	<i>lih-an-tu</i> (6a)	(sec. end.)

Notes are given below. The ātmanêpada paradigm reads:

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$\sqrt{lih} \leftarrow$ ie. *leigh, ātmanêpada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>lih-ê</i>	<i>lih-vahê</i>	<i>lih-mahê</i>	present
2	<i>lik-ṣê</i> (2)	<i>lih-āthê</i>	<i>lī-ḍhvê</i> (5c)	tense
3	<i>lī-ḍhê</i> (5a)	<i>lih-ātê</i>	<i>lih-a-tê</i> (6b)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-lih-i</i>	<i>a-lih-vahi</i>	<i>a-lih-mahi</i>	imperfect
2	<i>a-lī-dhās</i> (5b)	<i>a-lih-āthām</i>	<i>a-lī-dhvam</i> (5c)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-lī-dha</i> (5a)	<i>a-lih-ātām</i>	<i>a-lih-a-ta</i> (6b)	with augm.
1	<i>lēh-âi</i>	<i>lēh-āvahâi</i>	<i>lēh-āmahâi</i>	imper-
2	<i>lik-ṣva</i> (2)	<i>lih-āthām</i>	<i>lī-ḍhvam</i> (5c)	ative
3	<i>lī-ḍhām</i>	<i>lih-ātām</i>	<i>lih-a-tām</i> (6b)	(sec. end.)

1. The parasmâipada 3. pers. sg. present tense can be explained by

ie. **leigh-ti* (full grade)
 \rightarrow *lēg-dhi* (**ASh**)
 \rightarrow *lēz-dhi* (**sz** before voiced stop)
 \rightarrow *lēṣ-dhi* (**RUKI**)
 \rightarrow *lēṣ-dhi* (**CerD**)
 \rightarrow *lē-dhi* (**CpLz**, but *ê* already long)

2. The parasmâipada 2. pers. sg. present tense is *lēk-ṣi* which has developed regularly:

ie. **leigh-si* (full grade)
 \rightarrow *lēg-si* (**ASh**, but *s* cannot be aspirated)
 \rightarrow *lēk-si* (**BA**)
 \rightarrow *lēk-ṣi* (**RUKI**)

3. Parasmâipada imperfect sg. has *a-lêṭ* in both the 2. and 3. pers.. For the 3. pers., we have

ie. **e-leigh-t* (f.g. with ie. impf. marker *e*)
 \rightarrow *a-lêg-dh* (**ASh**)
 \rightarrow *a-lêz-dh* (**sz** before voiced stop)
 \rightarrow *a-lêṣ-dh* (**RUKI**)
 \rightarrow *a-lêṣ-dh* (**CerD**)
 \rightarrow *a-lê-dh* (**CpLz**, but *ê* already long)
 \rightarrow *a-lê-ṭ* (**AFP**, p. 45)

4. Remember *madhu-liṭ* \leftarrow ie. **medhu-ligh-s* on p. 45. The 2. pers. is also regular:

- ie. **a-leigh-s*
 → *a-lêg-s* (**ASh**, but *s* cannot be aspirated)
 → *a-lêk-s* (**BA**)
 → *a-lêk-ṣ* (**RUKI**)
 → *a-lêt* (**AFP**)

5. Quite a few regular (!) forms have long \bar{i} plus cerebralization of a dental ending. We have three cases:

a. *igh-t* → \bar{i} - $\dot{d}h$ as, for example, the ātmanêpada 3. pers. sg. present tense $\bar{l}i$ - $\dot{d}hê$:

- ie. **ligh-toi* (z.g. with *toi*-marker)
 → *ligh-tê*
 → *lig-dhê* (**ASh**)
 → *liz-dhê* (**sz** before voiced stop)
 → *liž-dhê* (**RUKI**)
 → *liž- $\dot{d}hê$* (**CerD**)
 → $\bar{l}i$ - $\dot{d}hê$ (**CpLz**)

b. *igh-th* → \bar{i} - $\dot{d}h$ as, for example parasmâipada 2. pers. dual $\bar{l}i$ - $\dot{d}has$:

- **ligh-thas* (z.g. with oi. (!) *thas*-marker)
 → *lig-dhas* (**ASh**, but no further aspiration)
 → *liz-dhas* (**sz** before voiced stop)
 → *liž-dhas* (**RUKI**)
 → *liž- $\dot{d}has$* (**CerD**)
 → $\bar{l}i$ - $\dot{d}has$ (**CpLz**)

c. *igh-dhv* → \bar{i} - $\dot{d}hv$ as, for example ātmanêpada 2. pers. dual $\bar{l}i$ - $\dot{d}hvê$:

- **ligh-dhvê* (z.g. with oi. (!) *dhvê*-marker)
 → *lig-dhvê* (**ASh**, but no further aspiration)
 → *liz-dhvê* (**sz** before voiced stop)
 → *liž-dhvê* (**RUKI**)
 → *liž- $\dot{d}hvê$* (**CerD**)
 → $\bar{l}i$ - $\dot{d}hvê$ (**CpLz**)

2. and 3. dual pres. tense are identical: $\bar{l}i$ - $\dot{d}has$ (b) with oi. ending *thas* and $\bar{l}i$ - $\dot{d}has$ (a) with oi. ending *tas*.

6. In both thematic and athematic 3. pers. pl. forms, we have *a*. Note, however:

- a.** In parasmâipada 3. pers. pl. forms like *lih-an-ti*, we have *an* due to borrowing of *a* from the thematic classes.
b. In contrast, ātmanêpada forms like *lih-a-tê* do without this borrowing and *a* goes back to syllabic η : *lih-a-tê* ← ie. **ligh- η -toi*.

vaś (“to wish”)

Now, let us turn to *vaś* (“to wish”):

$\sqrt{vaś} \leftarrow$ ie. $*ve\acute{k}$, parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>vaś-mi</i>	<i>uś-vas</i>	<i>uś-mas</i>	present
2	<i>vak-ṣi</i> (3)	<i>uṣ-ṭhas</i> (2)	<i>uṣ-ṭha</i> (2)	tense
3	<i>vaṣ-ṭi</i> (1)	<i>uṣ-ṭas</i> (2)	<i>uś-an-ti</i> (7)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-vaś-am</i>	<i>âuś-va</i> (6)	<i>âuś-ma</i> (6)	imperfect
2	<i>a-vaṭ</i> (5)	<i>âuṣ-ṭam</i> (2, 6)	<i>âuṣ-ṭa</i> (2, 6)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-vaṭ</i> (4)	<i>âuṣ-ṭām</i> (2, 6)	<i>âuś-an</i> (6, 7)	with augm.
1	<i>vaś-āni</i>	<i>vaś-āva</i>	<i>vaś-āma</i>	imper-
2	<i>uḍ-ḍhi</i> (8)	<i>uṣ-ṭam</i> (2)	<i>uṣ-ṭa</i> (2)	ative
3	<i>vaṣ-ṭu</i> (1)	<i>uṣ-ṭām</i> (2)	<i>uś-an-tu</i> (7)	(sec. end.)

1. *vaṣ-ṭi* and *vaṣ-ṭu* follow **CerD**.
2. Similarly, but in zero grade, we have forms like *uṣ-ṭhas* (present tense 2. pers. dual).
3. **SIB**
4. Parasmâipada imperfect sg. has *a-vaṭ* in both the 2. and 3. pers.. For the 3. pers., we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\text{ie. } *e-ve\acute{k}-t \text{ (f.g. with ie. impf. marker } e) \\
 &\rightarrow a-vaś-t \\
 &\rightarrow a-vaṣ-ṭ \text{ (as in } vaṣ-ṭi) \\
 &\rightarrow a-vaṭ \text{ (**AFP**)}
 \end{aligned}$$

5. The 2. pers. is also regular:

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\text{ie. } *e-ve\acute{k}-s \text{ (f.g. with ie. impf. marker } e) \\
 &\rightarrow a-vaś-s \\
 &\rightarrow a-vaś \\
 &\rightarrow a-vaṭ \text{ (**AFP**)}
 \end{aligned}$$

6. Luckily, the other imperfect forms present no great mystery. They are weak (zero grade) and then, in line with the sound law

$$\text{imperfect marker } a + u/\bar{u} \rightarrow âu$$

we obtain

a) forms like *âuś-va* with *ś* from ie. *ḱ* and

b) forms like *âuṣ-tam* where the cerebralization rule **CerD** has been applied again.

7. 3. pers. pl. forms show *an-*, the thematic *a* is borrowed from thematic classes.

8. *ud-dhi*, the imperative 2. pers. sg. is difficult, but explainable:

- ie. **uk'-dhi* (z.g. with impv. ending *dhi*)
- *uġ-dhi* (**BA**)
 - *uz-dhi* (*sz*)
 - *uẓ-dhi* (**RUKI**)
 - *uẓ-dhi* (**CerD**)
 - *ū-dhi* (**CpLz**)
 - *ud-dhi* (**LawOfMorae**)

han (“to hit, to kill”)

As another example, we present *han* (“to hit, to kill”):

$\sqrt{han} \leftarrow$ ie. $*g^w hen$, parasmāipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>han-mi</i> (1)	<i>han-vas</i> (2)	<i>han-mas</i> (2)	present
2	<i>haṃ-ṣi</i> (1)	<i>ha-thas</i> (4)	<i>ha-tha</i> (4)	tense
3	<i>han-ti</i> (1)	<i>ha-tas</i> (4)	<i>ghn-an-ti</i> (3)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-han-am</i> (1)	<i>a-han-va</i> (2)	<i>a-han-ma</i> (2)	imperfect
2	<i>a-han</i> (5)	<i>a-ha-tam</i> (4)	<i>a-ha-ta</i> (4)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-han</i> (5)	<i>a-ha-tām</i> (4)	<i>a-ghn-an</i> (3)	with augm.
1	<i>han-āni</i> (1)	<i>han-āva</i>	<i>han-āma</i>	imper-
2	<i>ja-hi</i> (6)	<i>ha-tam</i> (1)	<i>ha-ta</i> (4)	ative
3	<i>han-tu</i> (1)	<i>ha-tām</i> (1)	<i>ghn-an-tu</i> (3)	(sec. end.)

1. Secondary palatalization (section B.3.2, pp. 35) produces *han-ti* from *g^when-ti*.
2. The strong forms also migrated to present tense and imperfect both dual and pl. where they should not be seen according to p. 146.
3. In contrast, the correct zero grade is seen in the 3. pers. pl. forms like *ghn-an-ti*, after borrowing of thematic *a*. Here, secondary palatalization does not work (*g^wh* does not stand before a front vowel).
4. If the zero-grade stem came in immediate contact with a *t*-ending (for the other endings, see 2.), the *n* had to become syllabic. Then, we should have expected n.at. *gha-tas* (present tense, 3. pers. dual) and the like. However, we see *ha-tas*, undoubtedly due to leveling. This is similar to the (zero grade!) PPP *ha-ta* in subsection C.4.3 (p. 111).

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5. Identical parasmâipada imperfect 2. and 3. pers. sg. are common in athematic verbs. Due to inadmissible word-final consonant clusters (**CCI**), the endings *s* (2. pers.) and *t* (3. pers.) are lost:

◇ *a-han* ← *a-han-s*

◇ *a-han* ← *a-han-t*

6. *ja-hi* (with ending *hi* rather than *dhi*) shows secondary palatalization. Perhaps, the *i* from the ending make the syllabic nasal also a front vowel? In any case, we seem to have got

**g^wh_o-hi* (z.g. with oi. impv. marker *hi*)
→ *g^wa-hi* (**DA**)
→ *ja-hi* (difficult **SPal**)

brū (“to speak”)

For *brū* (“to speak”), the ie. root is *breuH* whence obtain

◇ the strong forms with *brav* (**DIPH**)

◇ the weak forms (*V* + *hV*)

- before vowel endings *bruv* according to the rules on pp. 20
- before consonant endings *brū-*

With these comments in mind, the declension pattern is not too surprising:

$\sqrt{brū} \leftarrow \text{ie. } *breuH$						
parasmâipada			ātmanêpada			
sg.	dual	pl.	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>brav-ī-mi</i> (1)	<i>brū-vas</i>	<i>brū-mas</i>	<i>bruv-ê</i>	<i>brū-vahê</i>	<i>brū-mahê</i>
2	<i>brav-ī-ṣi</i> (1)	<i>brū-thas</i>	<i>brū-tha</i>	<i>brū-sê</i>	<i>bruv-āthê</i>	<i>brū-dhvê</i>
3	<i>brav-ī-ti</i> (1)	<i>brū-tas</i>	<i>bruv-an-ti</i> (3)	<i>brū-tê</i> (1)	<i>bruv-ātê</i>	<i>bruv-a-tê</i> (3)
1	<i>a-brav-am</i>	<i>a-brū-va</i>	<i>a-brū-ma</i>	<i>a-bruv-i</i>	<i>a-brū-vahi</i>	<i>a-brū-mahi</i>
2	<i>a-brav-īs</i> (2)	<i>a-brū-tam</i>	<i>a-brū-ta</i>	<i>a-brū-thās</i>	<i>a-bruv-āthām</i>	<i>a-brū-dhvam</i>
3	<i>a-brav-īt</i> (2)	<i>a-brū-tām</i>	<i>a-bruv-an</i> (3)	<i>a-brū-ta</i>	<i>a-bruv-ātām</i>	<i>a-bruv-a-ta</i> (3)
1	<i>brav-āni</i>	<i>brav-āva</i>	<i>brav-āma</i>	<i>brav-âi</i>	<i>brav-ā-vahâi</i>	<i>brav-ā-mahâi</i>
2	<i>brū-hi</i>	<i>brū-tam</i>	<i>brū-ta</i>	<i>brū-ṣva</i>	<i>bruv-āthām</i>	<i>brū-dhvam</i>
3	<i>brav-ī-tu</i> (1)	<i>brū-tām</i>	<i>bruv-an-tu</i> (3)	<i>brū-tām</i>	<i>bruv-ātām</i>	<i>bruv-a-tām</i>

1. The long *ī* in present sg. like *brav-ī-ti* is surely connected to the laryngeal. However, we should have expected short *i* instead.

2. Imperfect sg. *a-brav-īs* and *a-brav-īt* are somewhat mysterious. We should expect n.at. *a-brô-s* and n.at. *a-brô-t*. These forms may have been too alien compared with the rest of the paradigm. Also, we see long \bar{i} in the sg. Perhaps, these are aorist forms as in $\bar{a}s-\bar{i}t$ from *as* (“to be”, see pp. 154).
3. Par. *bruv-an-ti* versus atm. *bruv-a-tê* is well-known by now.

$\acute{s}\bar{a}s$ (“to rule, to instruct”)

$\acute{s}\bar{a}s$ is the oi. root in full grade. By **Lar** $_V$, ie. $*\acute{k}eHs$ leads to

- ◇ the strong forms with $\acute{s}\bar{a}s$
- ◇ the weak forms $\acute{s}is$ and, after applying **RUKI**, finally $\acute{s}i\dot{s}$.

We find

$\sqrt{s\bar{a}s} \leftarrow$ ie. <i>*$\acute{k}eHs$</i> , parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>$\acute{s}\bar{a}s\text{-}mi$</i>	<i>$\acute{s}i\dot{s}\text{-}vas$</i> (1)	<i>$\acute{s}i\dot{s}\text{-}mas$</i> (1)	present
2	<i>$\acute{s}\bar{a}s\text{-}si$</i>	<i>$\acute{s}i\dot{s}\text{-}\dot{t}has$</i> (2)	<i>$\acute{s}i\dot{s}\text{-}\dot{t}ha$</i> (2)	tense
3	<i>$\acute{s}\bar{a}s\text{-}ti$</i>	<i>$\acute{s}i\dot{s}\text{-}\dot{t}as$</i> (2)	<i>$\acute{s}\bar{a}s\text{-}a\text{-}ti$</i> (6)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>$a\text{-}\acute{s}\bar{a}s\text{-}am$</i>	<i>$a\text{-}\acute{s}i\dot{s}\text{-}va$</i> (1)	<i>$a\text{-}\acute{s}i\dot{s}\text{-}ma$</i> (1)	imperfect
2	<i>$a\text{-}\acute{s}\bar{a}s/a\text{-}\acute{s}\bar{a}t$</i> (3)	<i>$a\text{-}\acute{s}i\dot{s}\text{-}\dot{t}am$</i> (2)	<i>$a\text{-}\acute{s}i\dot{s}\text{-}\dot{t}a$</i> (2)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>$a\text{-}\acute{s}\bar{a}t$</i> (3)	<i>$a\text{-}\acute{s}i\dot{s}\text{-}\dot{t}\bar{a}m$</i> (2)	<i>$a\text{-}\acute{s}\bar{a}s\text{-}us$</i> (4)	with augm.
1	<i>$\acute{s}\bar{a}s\text{-}\bar{a}ni$</i>	<i>$\acute{s}\bar{a}s\text{-}\bar{a}va$</i>	<i>$\acute{s}\bar{a}s\text{-}\bar{a}ma$</i>	imper-
2	<i>$\acute{s}\bar{a}\text{-}dhi$</i> (5)	<i>$\acute{s}i\dot{s}\text{-}\dot{t}am$</i> (2)	<i>$\acute{s}i\dot{s}\text{-}\dot{t}a$</i> (2)	ative
3	<i>$\acute{s}\bar{a}s\text{-}tu$</i>	<i>$\acute{s}i\dot{s}\text{-}\dot{t}\bar{a}m$</i> (2)	<i>$\acute{s}\bar{a}s\text{-}a\text{-}tu$</i> (6)	(sec. end.)

1. **RUKI**
2. By forward assimilation **CerD**, one obtains $\acute{s}i\dot{s}\text{-}\dot{t}as$ and the like.
3. In the imperfect, **CCI** should produce
 - ◇ 2. pers. sg. $a\text{-}\acute{s}\bar{a}s \leftarrow a\text{-}\acute{s}\bar{a}s\text{-}s$
 - ◇ 3. pers. sg. $a\text{-}\acute{s}\bar{a}s \leftarrow a\text{-}\acute{s}\bar{a}s\text{-}t$

The forms $a\text{-}\acute{s}\bar{a}t$ for both 2. and 3. pers. sg. is probably formed by analogy, presumably with $a\text{-}v\acute{e}t$ from *vid* (“to know”) which is regular. Note that teaching leads to knowing so that the analogy was also helped by close association.
4. Impf. 3. pers. pl. $a\text{-}\acute{s}\bar{a}s\text{-}us$ is special in using the more rare ending *us* instead of $(a)n$.
5. Irregularly, impv. 2. pers. sg. $\acute{s}\bar{a}dhi$ is strong: :

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ie. **keHs-dhi* (full grade with ie. impv. marker *dhi*)
→ *śās-dhi*
→ *śāz-dhi* (*sz* before voiced stop)
→ *śā-dhi* (**CpLz**, but *ā* long already)

- Quite unusual for the 2. class, we do **not** have the thematic *a* in parasmâipada 3. pers. pl. forms. Also the 3. pers. pl. forms are strong.

Narten verbs

The so-called Narten presents exhibit the lengthened grade rather than the full grade in some forms:

$\sqrt{nu} \leftarrow$ ie. * <i>vek^w</i> , parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>nâu-mi</i> (1)	<i>nu-vas</i> (3)	<i>nu-mas</i> (3)	present
2	<i>nâu-ṣi</i> (1)	<i>nu-thas</i>	<i>nu-tha</i>	tense
3	<i>nâu-ti</i> (1)	<i>nu-tas</i>	<i>nuv-an-ti</i> (4)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-nav-am</i> (2)	<i>a-nu-va</i> (3)	<i>a-nu-ma</i> (3)	imperfect
2	<i>a-nâu-s</i> (1)	<i>a-nu-tam</i>	<i>a-nu-ta</i>	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-nâu-t</i> (1)	<i>a-nu-tām</i>	<i>a-nuv-an</i> (4)	with augm.
1	<i>nav-āni</i> (2)	<i>nav-āva</i> (2)	<i>nav-āma</i> (2)	imper-
2	<i>nu-hi</i>	<i>nu-tam</i>	<i>nu-ta</i>	ative
3	<i>nâu-tu</i> (1)	<i>nu-tām</i>	<i>nuv-an-tu</i> (4)	(sec. end.)

- The very strong forms *âu* (lengthened grade) is visible in present tense sg. and also in some forms imperfect and imperative forms.
- The other strong forms exhibit expected full grade *av*.
- The weak forms in *nu* like *nu-mas* are perfectly regular.
- Forms like *nuv-a-n-ti* exhibit the intervening *v* according to the rule

$$\begin{array}{rclcl}
 & & & & \text{example} \\
 \mathbf{V+hV} & CRyV & \rightarrow & CRiyV & mr-iy-a-tê \\
 & CRuV & \rightarrow & CRuvV & āp-nuv-an-ti
 \end{array}$$

Additional comments on a few other verbs

We now briefly comment on a two verbs a sêt-root. The *i* acts as a sort of thematic vowel in case of consonant endings. Compare

- ◇ *svap-i-ti* (“he sleeps”) with *svap-a-n-ti* (“they sleep”) with strong forms throughout the paradigm
- ◇ *rôdi-ti* (“he weeps”), *rud-a-n-ti* (“they weep”) with regular distribution of strong and weak forms

C.6.4. The third class

Introductory remark and overview

Third-class verbs are characterized by reduplication. Here, typically, the initial consonant plus *i* is placed before the full-grade root (strong forms) or the zero-grade root (weak forms). Two exceptions:

- ◇ *u*-roots (such as *hu* (“to sacrifice”)) always reduplicate with *u*.
- ◇ Roots ending in \bar{a} use ie. *e* (oi. *a*) as the reduplication vowel. This concerns *dā* (“to give”), *dhā* (“to set, to put”), and *hā* (“to abandon”).

We have close looks at

- ◇ *bhṛ* (“to support, to hold”) on pp. 165
- ◇ *bhī* (“to be afraid”) on pp. 167
- ◇ *hu* (“to sacrifice”) on pp. 169
- ◇ *hā* (“to abandon”) on pp. 170
- ◇ *dā* (“to give”) on pp. 170
- ◇ *dhā* (“to set”) on pp. 172

***bhṛ* (“to support, to hold”)**

We begin with *bhṛ* (“to support”). The strong forms are *bi-bhar* and the weak ones *bi-bhṛ*. We obtain the quite regular pattern:

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$\sqrt{bhr} \leftarrow$ ie. <i>*bher</i> , parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>bi-bhar-mi</i>	<i>bi-bhr̥-vas</i>	<i>bi-bhr̥-mas</i>	present
2	<i>bi-bhar-ṣi</i>	<i>bi-bhr̥-thas</i>	<i>bi-bhr̥-tha</i>	tense
3	<i>bi-bhar-ti</i>	<i>bi-bhr̥-tas</i>	<i>bi-bhr̥-a-ti</i> (2)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-bi-bhar-am</i>	<i>a-bi-bhr̥-va</i>	<i>a-bi-bhr̥-ma</i>	imperfect
2	<i>a-bi-bhar</i> (3)	<i>a-bi-bhr̥-tam</i>	<i>a-bi-bhr̥-ta</i>	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-bi-bhar</i> (3)	<i>a-bi-bhr̥-tām</i>	<i>a-bi-bhar-us</i> (1)	with augm.
1	<i>bi-bhar-āni</i>	<i>bi-bhar-āva</i>	<i>bi-bhar-āma</i>	imper-
2	<i>bi-bhr̥-hi</i>	<i>bi-bhr̥-tam</i>	<i>bi-bhr̥-ta</i>	ative
3	<i>bi-bhar-tu</i>	<i>bi-bhr̥-tām</i>	<i>bi-bhr̥-a-tu</i> (2)	(sec. end.)

1. As is usual in the third class, the parasmâipada 3. pers. pl. imperfect *a-bi-bhar-us* is characterized by two features:
 - a) Its form is strong.
 - b) Its ending is *us* rather than the more usual (among all classes) *(a)n*. The ending *us*, by the way, is common in the reduplicative perfect.
2. In contrast to all the other classes, there is no borrowing of thematic vowel *a* in the 3. pers. pl. P_{RII} in the third class. Of course, the consonant clusters *bh-r-n-t* are way too long to survive without vowels. Both *r* and *n* might become syllabic. By the rule

SY_Conf

Make the last syllabifiable sound syllabic!

we obtain

$$bi-bhr̥-\underset{\circ}{n}-ti \rightarrow bi-bhr̥-a-ti$$

3. By simplification of consonant clusters (**CCI**), the imperfect forms are regular:
 - a) 2. pers. sg. *a-bi-bhar* \leftarrow *a-bi-bhar-s*
 - b) 3. pers. sg. *a-bi-bhar* \leftarrow *a-bi-bhar-t*

Apart from imperative 1. pers., the ātmanêpada forms are all weak:

$\sqrt{bhr} \leftarrow$ ie. * <i>bher</i> , ātmanēpada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>bi-bhr-ê</i> (2)	<i>bi-bhr-vahê</i> (1)	<i>bi-bhr-mahê</i> (1)	present
2	<i>bi-bhr-ṣê</i> (1, 4)	<i>bi-bhr-āthê</i> (2)	<i>bi-bhr-dhvê</i> (1)	tense
3	<i>bi-bhr-tê</i> (1)	<i>bi-bhr-ātê</i> (2)	<i>bi-bhr-a-tê</i> (2, 3)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-bi-bhr-i</i> (2)	<i>a-bi-bhr-vahi</i> (1)	<i>a-bi-bhr-mahi</i> (1)	imperfect
2	<i>a-bi-bhr-thās</i> (1)	<i>a-bi-bhr-āthām</i> (2)	<i>a-bi-bhr-dhvam</i> (1)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-bi-bhr-ta</i> (1)	<i>a-bi-bhr-ātām</i> (2)	<i>a-bi-bhr-a-ta</i> (2, 3)	with augm.
1	<i>bi-bhar-âi</i>	<i>bi-bhar-ā-vahâi</i>	<i>bi-bhar-ā-mahâi</i>	imper-
2	<i>bi-bhr-ṣva</i> (1, 4)	<i>bi-bhr-āthām</i> (2)	<i>bi-bhr-dhvam</i> (1)	ative
3	<i>bi-bhr-tām</i> (1)	<i>bi-bhr-ātām</i> (2)	<i>bi-bhr-a-tām</i> (2, 3)	(sec. end.)

1. We have syllabic *r* in the weak forms before consonant endings, for example *bi-bhr-tê*.
2. We have just *r* in the weak forms before vowel endings, for example *bi-bhr-ê*.
3. Compare 3. pers. pl. forms of ātmanêpada (here) with parasmâipada (above).
4. **RUKI.**

***bhī* (“to be afraid”)**

If one knows how to deal with *bhr*, *bi-bhar-ti* (“to support”), it is not difficult to learn the forms for *bhī*, *bi-bhê-ti* (“to be afraid”). The ie. root is *bheih*. Do you see that the full grade and the zero grade of both roots are formed regularly:

	$\sqrt{bhr} \leftarrow$ ie. * <i>bher</i>	$\sqrt{bhī} \leftarrow$ ie. * <i>bheih</i>
full grade	<i>bhar</i>	<i>bhê/bhay</i> before <i>C/V</i>
zero grade	<i>bhr/bhr</i> before <i>C/V</i>	<i>bhī/bhy</i> before <i>C/V</i>

This, then, is the parasmâipada paradigm:

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$\sqrt{bh\bar{i}} \leftarrow$ ie. $*bheiH$, parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>bi-bhê-mi</i>	<i>bi-bhî-vas</i> (4)	<i>bi-bhî-mas</i> (4)	pres.
2	<i>bi-bhê-ši</i> (2)	<i>bi-bhî-thas</i> (4)	<i>bi-bhî-tha</i> (4)	tense
3	<i>bi-bhê-ti</i> (1)	<i>bi-bhî-tas</i> (4)	<i>bi-bhy-a-ti</i> (5)	
1	<i>a-bi-bhay-am</i> (3)	<i>a-bi-bhî-va</i> (4)	<i>a-bi-bhî-ma</i> (4)	impf.
2	<i>a-bi-bhê-s</i> (2, 7)	<i>a-bi-bhî-tam</i> (4)	<i>a-bi-bhî-ta</i> (4)	(sec.)
3	<i>a-bi-bhê-t</i> (7)	<i>a-bi-bhî-tām</i> (4)	<i>a-bi-bhay-us</i> (6)	end.)
1	<i>bi-bhay-āni</i> (3)	<i>bi-bhay-āva</i> (3)	<i>bi-bhay-āma</i> (3)	impv.
2	<i>bi-bhî-hi</i> (4)	<i>bi-bhî-tam</i> (4)	<i>bi-bhî-ta</i> (4)	(sec.)
3	<i>bi-bhê-tu</i> (1)	<i>bi-bhî-ām</i> (4)	<i>bi-bhy-a-tu</i> (5)	end.)

1. *bi-bhê-ti* is the expected full-grade form before a consonant (**DIPH**).
2. *bi-bhê-ši* shows the regular application of **RUKI**, while *a-bi-bhê-s* does not admit **RUKI** because the *s* is word-final.
3. Before a vowel, **DIPH** produces forms like *a-bi-bhay-a-m* with *ay* rather than *ê*.
4. All weak forms exhibit the sound law $\bar{i} \leftarrow iH$. However, all these forms admit an irregular alternative with a short *i*, for example *bi-bhi-vas*.
5. *bi-bhy-a-ti* is 3. pers. pl. (!). Indeed, we have
ie. $*bhi-bhiH-\underset{\circ}{n}-ti$ (reduplication, zero grade)
 $\rightarrow bi-bhî-\underset{\circ}{n}-ti$ (**DA**, **Lar** $_ V$)
 $\rightarrow bi-bhy-a-ti$ (**SY** $_ Conf$)
6. Again, parasmâipada 3. pers. pl. imperfect
a) uses the strong form in violation of fig. C.2 and
b) exhibits the ending *us*.
7. In spite of all the similarities between $bh\bar{i}$ and $bh\bar{r}$, the imperfect sg. 2. and 3. persons differ:

	imperative singular	
	2. pers.	3. pers.
$\sqrt{bh\bar{r}} \leftarrow$ ie. $*bher$	<i>a-bi-bhar</i>	<i>a-bi-bhar</i>
$\sqrt{bh\bar{i}} \leftarrow$ ie. $*bheiH$	<i>a-bi-bhê-s</i>	<i>a-bi-bhê-t</i>

All four forms are regular!

hu (“to sacrifice”)

The paradigm for the oi. root *hu* (“to sacrifice”) looks bewildering. The ie. root is **ǵheu* and we obtain the 3. pers. sg. pres. tense

ie. **ǵhu-ǵheu-ti* (reduplication, full grade)
 → *ǵu-ǵhō-ti* (**DA**, **DIPH**)
 → *ju-hō-ti* (**PPal**, pp. 35)

We now present the paradigm:

$\sqrt{hu} \leftarrow$ ie. $*g^heu$, parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>ju-hô-mi</i>	<i>ju-hu-vas</i> (4)	<i>ju-hu-mas</i> (4)	present
2	<i>ju-hô-ši</i> (2)	<i>ju-hu-thas</i> (4)	<i>ju-hu-tha</i> (4)	tense
3	<i>ju-hô-ti</i> (1)	<i>ju-hu-tas</i> (4)	<i>ju-hv-a-ti</i> (5)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-ju-hav-am</i> (3)	<i>a-ju-hu-va</i> (4)	<i>a-ju-hu-ma</i> (4)	imperfect
2	<i>a-ju-hô-s</i> (2)	<i>a-ju-hu-tam</i> (4)	<i>a-ju-hu-ta</i> (4)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-ju-hô-t</i> (2)	<i>a-ju-hu-tām</i> (4)	<i>a-ju-hav-us</i> (6)	with augm.
1	<i>ju-hav-āni</i> (3)	<i>ju-hav-āva</i> (3)	<i>ju-hav-āma</i> (3)	imper-
2	<i>ju-hu-dhi</i> (4)	<i>ju-hu-tam</i> (4)	<i>ju-hu-ta</i> (4)	ative
3	<i>ju-hô-tu</i> (1)	<i>ju-hu-tām</i> (4)	<i>ju-hv-a-tu</i> (5)	(sec. end.)

Contrasting *bhī* (“to be afraid”) and *hu* (“sacrifice”), we find:

1. The present tense 3. pers. sg. *bi-bhē-ti* and *ju-hō-ti* are both full-grade forms.
2. The present tense 2. pers. sg. *bi-bhē-ši* and *ju-hō-ši* show **RUKI**, while their imperfect counterparts *a-bi-bhē-s* and *a-ju-hō-s* do not (at the end of words).
3. For vowel endings, the imperfect 1. pers. sg. *a-bi-bhay-a-m* and *a-ju-hav-a-m* have *ay* and *av* rather than *ē* or *ō*, respectively.
4. The present tense 1. pers. pl. *bi-bhī-vas* and *ju-hu-vas* use the zero grade (with laryngeal explanation of long *ī*).
5. The present tense 3. pers. pl. *bi-bhy-a-ti* corresponds very nicely to *ju-hv-a-ti*, both showing the sound law $n \rightarrow a$ and the sandhi rule **hV** given on p. 20.
6. The imperfect 3. pers. pl. *a-bi-bhay-us* is full grade as is *a-ju-hav-us* (peculiarity of the 3. class).
7. The only real difference is imperative 2. pers. sg. *ju-hu-dhi* in contrast to *bi-bhī-hi*.

***hā* (“to abandon”)**

The paradigm for the oi. root *hā* (“to abandon”) from ie. root **ǵ^heH* works similar to the one for *hu* (“to sacrifice”). This is how to derive the 3. pers. sg. pres. tense of *hā*:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{ie. } *ǵhe-ǵheH-ti \text{ (reduplication with ie. } e, \text{ zero grade)} \\ \rightarrow & \quad ǵe-ǵhāH-ti \text{ (DA)} \\ \rightarrow & \quad ja-hā-ti \text{ (PPal)} \end{aligned}$$

We now present the paradigm:

$\sqrt{h\bar{a}} \leftarrow \text{ie. } *g^heH, \text{ parasmâipada}$				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>ja-hā-mi</i>	<i>ja-hi-vas</i> (2)	<i>ja-hi-mas</i> (2)	present
2	<i>ja-hā-si</i>	<i>ja-hi-thas</i> (2)	<i>ja-hi-tha</i> (2)	tense
3	<i>ja-hā-ti</i> (1)	<i>ja-hi-tas</i> (2)	<i>ja-h-a-ti</i> (4)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-ja-hā-m</i>	<i>a-ja-hi-va</i> (2)	<i>a-ja-hi-ma</i> (2)	imperfect
2	<i>a-ja-hā-s</i>	<i>a-ja-hi-tam</i> (2)	<i>a-ja-hi-ta</i> (2)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-ja-hā-t</i>	<i>a-ja-hi-tām</i> (2)	<i>a-ja-h-us</i> (5)	with augm.
1	<i>ja-hā-ni</i>	<i>ja-hā-va</i>	<i>ja-hā-ma</i>	imper-
2	<i>ja-hi-hi</i> (3)	<i>ja-hi-tam</i> (2)	<i>ja-hi-ta</i> (2)	ative
3	<i>ja-hā-tu</i> (1)	<i>ja-hi-tām</i> (2)	<i>ja-h-a-tu</i> (4)	(sec. end.)

1. The present tense 3. pers. sg. *ja-hā-ti* is explained above the table.
2. *ja-hi-mas* is regular where the laryngeal is represented by *i* (**Lar** _ **V**). Again difficult are alternative forms with long \bar{i} like *ja-hī-mas*.
3. The 2. pers. sg. imperative uses the *hi*-marker.
4. The present tense 3. pers. pl. *ja-h-a-ti* is yet another example of the sound law $\overset{\circ}{n} \rightarrow a$. The laryngeal would regularly drop after a consonant and before a vowel.
5. Similarly, the laryngeal drops in the imperfect 3. pers. pl. *a-ja-h-us*. Note the zero grade in contrast to the full grade *a-ju-hav-us* in the *hu* paradigm.

***dā* (“to give”)**

Let us now turn to *dā* (“to give”):

$\sqrt{d\bar{a}} \leftarrow \text{ie. } *deh_3, \text{ parasmâipada}$				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>da-dā-mi</i>	<i>da-d-vas</i> (2)	<i>da-d-mas</i> (2)	present
2	<i>da-dā-si</i>	<i>da-t-thas</i> (2, 6)	<i>da-t-tha</i> (2, 6)	tense
3	<i>da-dā-ti</i> (1)	<i>da-t-tas</i> (2, 6)	<i>da-d-a-ti</i> (4)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-da-dā-m</i>	<i>a-da-d-va</i> (2)	<i>a-da-d-ma</i> (2)	imperfect
2	<i>a-da-dā-s</i>	<i>a-da-t-tam</i> (2, 6)	<i>a-da-t-ta</i> (2, 6)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-da-dā-t</i> (1)	<i>a-da-t-tām</i> (2, 6)	<i>a-da-d-us</i> (5)	with augm.
1	<i>da-dā-ni</i>	<i>da-dā-va</i>	<i>da-dā-ma</i>	imper-
2	<i>dê-hi</i> (3)	<i>da-t-tam</i> (2, 6)	<i>da-t-ta</i> (2, 6)	ative
3	<i>da-dā-tu</i> (1)	<i>da-t-tām</i> (2, 6)	<i>da-d-a-tu</i> (4)	(sec. end.)

1. The long \bar{a} go back to a laryngeal. The ie. full-grade root is $deh_3 \rightarrow d\bar{a}$. The reduplication vowel is oi. a so that we find *da-dā-ti* etc.

2. Between consonants, laryngeals mostly turn into i , but are lost without trace occasionally (**Lar** $_$ **V**). Here, the second alternative holds, as in many weak forms, for example in present tense 1. pers. pl. *da-d-mas* $\leftarrow de-dh_3-mes$. Alternatively, one may assume that *da-d-mas* was formed by the analogy with other verbs like

◇ *tan-mas* from *tan*, *tan-ô-ti* (“he stretches”) (8. class)

◇ *sun-mas* from *su*, *su-nô-ti* (“he presses”) (5. class)

Indeed, the speakers may have thought in terms of a root *dad*. Then, 1. pers. sg. *dad-ā-mi* could be regular as a thematic verb. Compare p. 117 for the PPP *datta*.

3. Parasmâipada imperative 2. pers. sg. *dê-hi* is difficult, but quite regular:

ie. $*de-dh_3-dhi$
 $\rightarrow da-d-dhi$ (**Lar** $_$ **V**, no i)
 $\rightarrow da-dzdhi$ (**DzD**)
 $\rightarrow da-zdhi$ (**CCl**)
 $\rightarrow daz-dhi$
 $\rightarrow dê-dhi$ (**CpLz** before consonant + i)
 $\rightarrow dê-hi$ (analogy)

4. *da-d-a-ti* reflects the sound law $n \rightarrow a$. If speakers assumed a full-grade root *dad*, the 3. pers. pl. pres. tense *dad-a-ti* (!) is formed similar to the 2. class *śās-a-ti* (compare p. 164).
5. The imperfect 3. pers. pl. often uses the full grade with ending *us* in the 3. class (see *a-bi-bhay-us* from *bhī* or *a-bi-bhar-us* from *bhr̥*). However, *a-da-d-us* is clearly zero grade.

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6. In the weak forms, one sees the expected backward assimilation.

dhā (“to set”)

And, now, the similar root *dhā*:

$\sqrt{dh\bar{a}} \leftarrow \text{ie. } *deh_1, \text{ parasmāipada}$				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>da-dhā-mi</i>	<i>da-dh-vas</i> (2)	<i>da-dh-mas</i> (2)	present
2	<i>da-dhā-si</i>	<i>dha-t-thas</i> (2, 6)	<i>dha-t-tha</i> (2, 6)	tense
3	<i>da-dhā-ti</i> (1)	<i>dha-t-tas</i> (2, 6)	<i>da-dh-a-ti</i> (4)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-da-dhā-m</i>	<i>a-da-dh-va</i> (2)	<i>a-da-dh-ma</i> (2)	imperfect
2	<i>a-da-dhā-s</i>	<i>a-dha-t-tam</i> (2, 6)	<i>a-dha-t-ta</i> (2, 6)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-da-dhā-t</i> (1)	<i>a-dha-t-tām</i> (2, 6)	<i>a-da-dh-us</i> (5)	with augm.
1	<i>da-dhā-ni</i>	<i>da-dhā-va</i>	<i>da-dhā-ma</i>	imper-
2	<i>dhê-hi</i> (3)	<i>dha-t-tam</i> (2, 6)	<i>dha-t-ta</i> (2, 6)	ative
3	<i>da-dhā-tu</i> (1)	<i>dha-t-tām</i> (2, 6)	<i>da-dh-a-tu</i> (4)	(sec. end.)

1. *dhā* is full grade from ie. **dheh₁*. The reduplication vowel is oi. *a*. By deaspiration, we obtain *da-dhā-ti* etc.
2. It seems that the laryngeal is lost without trace in *da-dh-mas* (“we set”) here as in *da-d-mas* (“we give”) above.
3. Parasmâipada imperative 2. pers. sg. *dhê-hi* may be regular:

ie. **dhe-dh₃-dhi*
→ *dha-dh-dhi* (**Lar** **_V**: loss of laryngeal, no **DA** in the closed syllable *dha-dh*)
→ *dha-d-dhi* (**ASh**, but *dh* cannot be aspirated any further)
→ *dha-dzdhi* (**DzD**)
→ *dha-zdhi* (**CCl**)
→ *dhaz-dhi*
→ *dhê-dhi* (**CpLz** before consonant + *i*)
→ *dhê-hi* (analogy)

Alternatively, analogy with *dê-hi* may be relevant:

<i>dā</i>	with imperative:	<i>dê-hi</i>
just as		
<i>dhā</i>	with imperative:	<i>dhê-hi</i>

4. *da-dh-a-ti* is due to the sound law $n \rightarrow a$, just as *da-d-a-ti*.

5. *a-da-dh-us* is parallel to *a-da-d-us*.
6. Compare *da-t-tas* (“the two give”) with *dha-t-tas* (“the two set”). After the laryngeal dropped, deaspiration could not work in the closed syllable *dha-d*. Grassmann’s law states: If aspirated consonants occur in the beginning of two subsequent syllables, the first aspirated consonant loses its aspiration. The second problem is the non-application of **ASh**. If both **DA** and **ASh** would have done their work, we should expect **da-dhh₁-t- → *da-d-dh-* instead of observed *dha-t-t-*.

C.6.5. The fifth class

Introductory remark and overview

In subsection C.2.5 (pp. 87), we have explained how the nasal classes 5, 8, and 9 can be considered special subcases of the seventh class. There, we have also printed the class signs for strong and weak forms:

class	strong gaṇa sign	3. pers. sg.	weak gaṇa sign	3. pers. pl.
5	<i>nô</i>	<i>śr-ṇô-ti</i>	<i>nu</i>	<i>śr-ṇu-mas</i>
7	<i>na</i>	<i>yu-na-k-ti</i>	<i>n</i>	<i>yu-ñ-j-mas</i>
8	<i>ô</i>	<i>tan-ô-ti</i>	<i>u</i>	<i>tan-i-mas</i>
9	<i>nā</i>	<i>pu-nā-ti</i>	<i>nī</i>	<i>pu-nī-mas</i>

Before dealing with concrete verbs of the 5. class, we point out three features.

1. In line with sound law **DIPH** (pp. 22), the strong class sign *nô* turn into *nav* when a vowel follows:

✓	1. pers. sg. pres. tense	1. pers. sg. impf.	translation
<i>āp</i>	<i>āp-nô-mi</i>	<i>āp-nav-am</i>	to obtain
<i>śak</i>	<i>śak-nô-mi</i>	<i>a-śak-nav-am</i>	to be able
<i>su</i>	<i>su-nô-mi</i>	<i>su-nav-am</i>	to press

2. The weak class sign *nu* shows predictable variations (see **hV**) depending on whether a consonant or a vowel follows:

✓	3. pers. dual pres. tense	3. pers. pl. pres. tense	translation
<i>āp</i>	<i>āp-nu-tas</i>	<i>āp-nuv-an-ti</i>	to obtain
<i>śak</i>	<i>śak-nu-tas</i>	<i>śak-nuv-an-ti</i>	to be able
<i>su</i>	<i>su-nu-tas</i>	<i>su-nv-an-ti</i>	to press

While *su-nv-an-ti* is very clear, the other two examples are more difficult. Note that n.at. *śak-nv-an-ti* would be quite impossible. *n* would be syllabified, with difficult-to-understand outcome. Hence, the rule

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$$\begin{array}{rclcl}
 & & & & \text{example} \\
 \mathbf{V} + \mathbf{hV} & CRyV & \rightarrow & CRiyV & mr-iy-a-tê \\
 & CRuV & \rightarrow & CRuvV & \bar{a}p-nuv-an-ti
 \end{array}$$

is applied and *śak-nuv-an-ti* results.

- The weak class sign *nu* is often to *n* in the 1. pers. dual and pl., present and past tenses:

√	1. pers. pl. pres. tense		translation
<i>āp</i>	<i>āp-nu-mas</i>	not <i>āp-n-mas</i>	to obtain
<i>śak</i>	<i>śak-nu-mas</i>	not <i>śak-n-mas</i>	to be able
<i>su</i>	<i>su-nu-mas</i>	<i>su-n-mas</i>	to press

It is clear that forms like *śak-n-mas* do not work.

We now turn to some verbs of the 5. class, in particular to

- ◇ *su* (“to press”) on pp. 174
- ◇ *śru* (“to hear”) on pp. 175
- ◇ *āp* (“to get”) on pp. 175
- ◇ *aś* (“to get, to enjoy”) on pp. 176

***su* (“to press”)**

We now turn to *su* (“to press”).

√ <i>su</i> ← ie. * <i>seu</i> , parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>su-nô-mi</i> (1)	<i>su-n(u)-vas</i> (4)	<i>su-n(u)-mas</i> (4)	present tense (prim. end.)
2	<i>su-nô-ṣi</i> (1, 6)	<i>su-nu-thas</i>	<i>su-nu-tha</i>	
3	<i>su-nô-ti</i> (1)	<i>su-nu-tas</i>	<i>su-nv-an-ti</i> (3)	
1	<i>a-su-nav-am</i> (2)	<i>a-su-n(u)-va</i> (4)	<i>a-su-n(u)-ma</i> (4)	imperfect (sec. end.) with augm.
2	<i>a-su-nô-s</i> (1)	<i>a-su-nu-tam</i>	<i>a-su-nu-ta</i>	
3	<i>a-su-nô-t</i> (1)	<i>a-su-nu-tām</i>	<i>a-su-nv-an</i> (3)	
1	<i>su-nav-āni</i> (2)	<i>su-nav-āva</i> (2)	<i>su-nav-āma</i> (2)	imper- ative (sec. end.)
2	<i>su-nu</i> (5)	<i>su-nu-tam</i>	<i>su-nu-ta</i>	
3	<i>su-nô-tu</i> (1)	<i>su-nu-tām</i>	<i>su-nv-an-tu</i> (3)	

- The strong forms have the strong class sign *nô* before consonant endings (see **DIPH**).
- The strong forms have the strong class sign *nav* before vowel endings (see **DIPH**).

3. The weak forms before vowel endings are *nv* (see ***hV***).
4. In the four weak forms with *m* and *v* endings, we alternatively have *n* for *nu*, i.e., *su-n-vas* besides *su-nu-vas* etc.
5. Thematic parasmâipada paradigms show the stem as sec. pers. sg. impv., as in *bhara* (“carry!”). This holds for some verbs from the 5. class, but not for all:
 - ◇ *su-nu* (“press!”) and *śru-ṇu* (“hear!”) versus
 - ◇ *āp-nu-hi* (“get!”) and *śak-nu-hi* (“be able!”)
6. **RUKI.**

śṛ (“to hear”)

Maybe, you like to consult section C.2.5 (p. 88) once again. For the purpose of the following paradigm, we work with *śṛ* (“to hear”) rather than *śru*. The paradigm for *śṛ* closely follows the *su* paradigm above. For the numbers, see under the *su* table above. Observe, however, cerebralization of the class signs after *ṛ*.

$\sqrt{sṛ} \leftarrow$ ie. * <i>seu</i> , parasmāipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>śṛ-ṇḍ-mi</i> (1)	<i>śṛ-ṇ(u)-vas</i> (4)	<i>śṛ-ṇ(u)-mas</i> (4)	present
2	<i>śṛ-ṇḍ-ṣi</i> (1, 6)	<i>śṛ-ṇu-thas</i>	<i>śṛ-ṇu-tha</i>	tense
3	<i>śṛ-ṇḍ-ti</i> (1)	<i>śṛ-ṇu-tas</i>	<i>śṛ-ṇv-an-ti</i> (3)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-śṛ-ṇav-am</i> (2)	<i>a-śṛ-ṇ(u)-va</i> (4)	<i>a-śṛ-ṇ(u)-ma</i> (4)	imperfect
2	<i>a-śṛ-ṇḍ-s</i> (1)	<i>a-śṛ-ṇu-tam</i>	<i>a-śṛ-ṇu-ta</i>	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-śṛ-ṇḍ-t</i> (1)	<i>a-śṛ-ṇu-tām</i>	<i>a-śṛ-ṇv-an</i> (3)	with augm.
1	<i>śṛ-ṇav-āni</i> (2)	<i>śṛ-ṇav-āva</i> (2)	<i>śṛ-ṇav-āma</i> (2)	imper-
2	<i>śṛ-ṇu</i> (5)	<i>śṛ-ṇu-tam</i>	<i>śṛ-ṇu-ta</i>	ative
3	<i>śṛ-ṇḍ-tu</i> (1)	<i>śṛ-ṇu-tām</i>	<i>śṛ-ṇv-an-tu</i> (3)	(sec. end.)

āp (“to get”)

And here the somewhat similar paradigm for *āp*:

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$\sqrt{\bar{a}p} \leftarrow \text{ie. } *h_1ep, \text{ parasmâipada}$				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	$\bar{a}p\text{-}n\hat{o}\text{-}mi$ (1)	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nu\text{-}vas$ (4)	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nu\text{-}mas$ (4)	present
2	$\bar{a}p\text{-}n\hat{o}\text{-}\dot{s}i$ (1, 6)	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nu\text{-}thas$	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nu\text{-}tha$	tense
3	$\bar{a}p\text{-}n\hat{o}\text{-}ti$ (1)	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nu\text{-}tas$	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nuv\text{-}an\text{-}ti$ (3)	(prim. end.)
1	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nav\text{-}am$ (2)	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nu\text{-}va$ (4)	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nu\text{-}ma$ (4)	imperfect
2	$\bar{a}p\text{-}n\hat{o}\text{-}s$ (1)	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nu\text{-}tam$	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nu\text{-}ta$	(sec. end.)
3	$\bar{a}p\text{-}n\hat{o}\text{-}t$ (1)	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nu\text{-}tām$	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nuv\text{-}an$ (3)	with augm.
1	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nav\text{-}\bar{a}ni$ (2)	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nav\text{-}\bar{a}va$ (2)	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nav\text{-}\bar{a}ma$ (2)	imper-
2	$\bar{a}p\text{-}\grave{n}u\text{-}hi$ (5)	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nu\text{-}tam$	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nu\text{-}ta$	ative
3	$\bar{a}p\text{-}n\hat{o}\text{-}tu$ (1)	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nu\text{-}tām$	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nuv\text{-}an\text{-}tu$ (3)	(sec. end.)

1. The strong forms have the strong class sign $n\hat{o}$ before consonant endings (see **DIPH**).
2. The strong forms have the strong class sign nav before vowel endings (see **DIPH**).
3. The weak forms before vowel endings are nuv . See $\mathbf{V} + \mathbf{hV}$ on pp. 21 for a discussion of the difference between $\bar{a}p\text{-}nuv\text{-}an\text{-}ti$ here and $su\text{-}nv\text{-}an\text{-}ti$ above.
4. In contrast to su , there are not alternative forms. Indeed, while $\bar{a}p\text{-}nu\text{-}ma$ is quite transparent, $\bar{a}p\text{-}n\text{-}ma$ is not (see p. 174).
5. In contrast to su , we witness the (nearly) regular sec. pers. sg. imp. of parasmâipada verbs hi .
6. **RUKI**.

$\bar{a}ś$ (“to get, to enjoy”)

We now turn to an $\bar{a}tmanêpada$ verb:

$\sqrt{aś} \leftarrow$ ie. * <i>Heś</i> , ātmanêpada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>aś-nuv-ê</i> (2)	<i>aś-nu-vahê</i> (1)	<i>aś-nu-mahê</i> (1)	present
2	<i>aś-nu-ṣê</i> (1, 5)	<i>aś-nuv-āthê</i> (2)	<i>aś-nu-dhvê</i> (1)	tense
3	<i>aś-nu-tê</i> (1)	<i>aś-nuv-ātê</i> (2)	<i>aś-nuv-a-tê</i> (2, 3)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>āś-nuv-i</i> (2)	<i>āś-nu-vahi</i> (1)	<i>āś-nu-mahi</i> (1)	imperfect
2	<i>āś-nu-thās</i> (1)	<i>āś-nuv-āthām</i> (2)	<i>āś-nu-dhvam</i> (1)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>āś-nu-ta</i> (1)	<i>āś-nuv-ātām</i> (2)	<i>āś-nuv-a-ta</i> (2, 3)	with augm.
1	<i>aś-nav-âi</i> (4)	<i>aś-nav-ā-vahâi</i> (4)	<i>aś-nav-ā-mahâi</i> (4)	imper-
2	<i>aś-nu-ṣva</i> (1, 5)	<i>aś-nuv-āthām</i> (2)	<i>aś-nu-dhvam</i> (1)	ative
3	<i>aś-nu-tām</i> (1)	<i>aś-nuv-ātām</i> (2)	<i>aś-nuv-a-tām</i> (2, 3)	(sec. end.)

1. Expectedly, the weak forms before consonantal endings are *nu*, for example *aś-nu-tê*.
2. The weak forms before vowel endings are *nuv*, for example *aś-nuv-ê*. See ***V+hV*** (pp. B.2.2).
3. A specific example of *nuv* before vowel endings is provided by 3. pers. pl. *aś-nuv-atê* where *a* goes back to *ṇ*.
4. The strong forms like ***aś-nav-âi*** have the class sign *nav* before vowel endings (**DIPH**).
5. **RUKI**

C.6.6. The seventh class

Introductory remark and overview

Historically, the 7. class is the most primitive one of the four nasal classes 5, 7, 8, and 9 (pp. 87). We consider in detail the verbs from the following table:

$\sqrt{\quad}$	3. pers. sg.	3. pers. pl.	pp.
<i>yuj</i>	<i>yu-na-k-ti</i>	<i>yu-ñ-j-mas</i>	178
<i>rudh</i>	<i>ru-ṇa-d-dhi</i>	<i>ru-n-dh-mas</i>	179
<i>bhid</i>	<i>bhi-na-t-ti</i>	<i>bhi-n-d-mas</i>	181
<i>hi-ṁ-s</i>	<i>hi-na-s-ti</i>	<i>hi-ṁ-s-mas</i>	182

Here, the infixes into the root

- ◇ *na* for strong forms
- ◇ *n* for weak forms

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are clearly seen. The oi. root does not, normally, contain the nasal infix, but the desiderative (!) *hims* (p. 135) is an exception.

yuj (“to join”)

Oi. *yuj* (“to join”) and oi. *bhuj* (“to protect”) follow the same pattern. Here is the parasmâipada paradigm of *yuj* (just replace *y* by *bh* for *bhuj*):

$\sqrt{yuj} \leftarrow$ ie. <i>*yug</i> , parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>yu-na-j-mi</i> (1)	<i>yu-ñ-j-vas</i> (1)	<i>yu-ñ-j-mas</i> (1)	present
2	<i>yu-na-k-ṣi</i> (3)	<i>yu-ñ-k-thas</i> (3)	<i>yu-ñ-k-tha</i> (3)	tense
3	<i>yu-na-k-ti</i> (3)	<i>yu-ñ-k-tas</i> (3)	<i>yu-ñ-j-an-ti</i> (1, 5a)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-yu-na-j-am</i> (1)	<i>a-yu-ñ-j-va</i> (1)	<i>a-yu-ñ-j-ma</i> (1)	imperfect
2	<i>a-yu-na-k</i> (3, 4)	<i>a-yu-ñ-k-tam</i> (3)	<i>a-yu-ñ-k-ta</i> (3)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-yu-na-k</i> (3, 4)	<i>a-yu-ñ-k-tām</i> (3)	<i>a-yu-ñ-j-an</i> (3, 5a)	with augm.
1	<i>yu-na-j-āni</i> (1)	<i>yu-na-j-āva</i> (1)	<i>yu-na-j-āma</i> (1)	imper-
2	<i>yu-ñ-g-dhi</i> (2)	<i>yu-ñ-k-tam</i> (3)	<i>yu-ñ-k-ta</i> (3)	ative
3	<i>yu-na-k-tu</i> (3)	<i>yu-ñ-k-tām</i> (3)	<i>yu-ñ-j-an-tu</i> (3, 5a)	(sec. end.)

1. The final oi. root voiced consonant *j* is found before all endings starting with resonants *m* or *v* or with vowels.
2. Instead of *j*, we find voiced *g* before voiced dentals (**BA**).
3. Instead of *j*, we find nonvoiced *k* before nonvoiced consonants (**BA**).
4. The impv. sg. forms *a-yu-na-k* reflect sound laws **BA** and **CCI**, i.e., *a-yu-na-k* stands in for **a-yu-na-k-s* or **a-yu-na-k-t*, respectively. Alternatively, one would get the same result by applying **CCI** and **AFP**, in that order.
5. In 3. pers. pl. forms, we have *a* in both parasmâipada and ātmanêpada forms. Note, however:
 - a. In parasmâipada 3. pers. pl. forms like *yu-ñ-j-a-n-ti* (paradigm above), we have *an* due to regularly occurring borrowing of *a* from the thematic classes.
 - b. In contrast, ātmanêpada forms like *yu-ñ-j-a-tê* (see below) do without this borrowing and *a* goes back to syllabic *ṇ*: *yu-ñ-j-a-tê* ← ie. **yu-n-ḡ-ṇ-toi*.

And here you see the ātmanêpada paradigm where the numbers are explained above:

$\sqrt{yuj} \leftarrow \text{ie. } *yug, \bar{\text{atmanêpada}}$				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>yu-ñ-j-ê</i> (1)	<i>yu-ñ-j-vahê</i> (1)	<i>yu-ñ-j-mahê</i> (1)	present
2	<i>yu-ñ-k-ṣê</i> (3)	<i>yu-ñ-j-āthê</i> (1)	<i>yu-ñ-g-dhvê</i> (2)	tense
3	<i>yu-ñ-k-tê</i> (3)	<i>yu-ñ-j-ātê</i> (1)	<i>yu-ñ-j-a-tê</i> (1, 5b)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-yu-ñ-j-i</i> (1)	<i>a-yu-ñ-j-vahi</i> (1)	<i>a-yu-ñ-j-mahi</i> (1)	imperfect
2	<i>a-yu-ñ-k-thās</i> (3)	<i>a-yu-ñ-j-āthām</i> (1)	<i>a-yu-ñ-g-dhvam</i> (2)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-yu-ñ-k-ta</i> (3)	<i>a-yu-ñ-j-ātām</i> (1)	<i>a-yu-ñ-j-a-ta</i> (1, 5b)	with augm.
1	<i>yu-na-j-âi</i> (1)	<i>yu-na-j-ā-vahâi</i> (1)	<i>yu-na-j-ā-mahâi</i> (1)	imper-
2	<i>yu-ñ-k-ṣva</i> (3)	<i>yu-ñ-j-āthām</i> (1)	<i>yu-ñ-g-dhvam</i> (2)	ative
3	<i>yu-ñ-k-tām</i> (3)	<i>yu-ñ-j-ātām</i> (1)	<i>yu-ñ-j-a-tām</i> (1, 5b)	(sec. end.)

***rudh* (“to obstruct”)**

The next verb is *rudh* (“to obstruct”). While the nasal infix does not change (before the dental endings), we have a few applications of Bartholomae’s law. We begin with the parasmâipada paradigm:

$\sqrt{rudh} \leftarrow \text{ie. } *reudh, \text{parasmâipada}$				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>ru-ṇa-dh-mi</i> (3)	<i>ru-n-dh-vas</i> (3)	<i>ru-n-dh-mas</i> (3)	present
2	<i>ru-ṇa-t-si</i> (2a)	<i>ru-n-d-dhas</i> (1b)	<i>ru-n-d-dha</i> (1b)	tense
3	<i>yu-na-d-dhi</i> (1a)	<i>ru-n-d-dhas</i> (1a)	<i>ru-n-dh-an-ti</i> (3, 4a)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-ru-ṇa-dh-am</i> (3)	<i>a-ru-n-dh-va</i> (3)	<i>a-ru-n-dh-ma</i> (3)	imperfect
2	<i>a-ru-ṇa-s/a-ru-ṇa-t</i> (5)	<i>a-ru-n-d-dham</i> (1a)	<i>a-ru-n-d-dha</i> (1a)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-ru-ṇa-t</i> (5)	<i>a-ru-n-d-dhām</i> (1a)	<i>a-ru-n-dh-an</i> (3, 4a)	with augm.
1	<i>ru-ṇa-dh-āni</i> (3)	<i>ru-ṇa-dh-āva</i> (3)	<i>ru-ṇa-dh-āma</i> (3)	imper-
2	<i>ru-n-d-dhi</i> (1c)	<i>ru-n-d-dham</i> (1a)	<i>ru-n-d-dha</i> (1a)	ative
3	<i>ru-ṇa-d-dhu</i> (1a)	<i>ru-n-d-dhām</i> (1a)	<i>ru-n-dh-an-tu</i> (3, 4a)	(sec. end.)

- Many forms show aspiration shift **ASh** (pp. 37). In particular, we have three cases:
 - dh-t* → *d-dh* (aspiration shift and forward assimilation) is seen in *ru-ṇa-d-dhi*.
 - dh-th* → *d-dh* (forward assimilation, but no double aspiration) is seen in *ru-n-d-dhas*.
 - dh-dh* → *d-dh* (*dh* is already voiced and aspirated) is seen in *ru-n-d-dhvê* (see *ātmanêpada* paradigm below).

The pres. tense dual form *ru-n-d-dhas* reflects both endings *thas* (case b) and *tas* (case a).

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2. *dh* loses its aspiration in these cases:

a. before *s* as in parasmâipada pres. tense 2. pers. sg. *ru-ṇa-t-si* where

- ◇ the root-final *dh* lost its aspiration and became voiceless before voiceless *s*, and
- ◇ this *s* cannot assume the aspiration (which would otherwise occur by Bartholomae's law)

b. before *dhv* as in ātmanêpada pres. tense 2. pers. pl. *ru-n-d-dhvê* where

- ◇ the root-final *dh* lost its aspiration,
- ◇ *dh* is already aspirated so that not further aspiration was possible, and
- ◇ *v* cannot assume this aspiration.

3. The oi. root consonant *dh* is found before all endings starting with resonants *m* or *v* or with vowels.

4. In 3. pers. pl. forms, we have *a* in both parasmâipada and ātmanêpada forms. Note, however:

- a.** In parasmâipada 3. pers. pl. forms like *ru-n-dh-a-n-ti* (paradigm above), we have *an* due to borrowing of *a* from the thematic classes.
- b.** In contrast, ātmanêpada forms like *ru-n-dh-a-tê* (see below) do without this borrowing and *a* goes back to syllabic *ṇ*.

5. We explain the imperfect 3. pers. sg. by

$$\begin{aligned}
 & *a-ru-ṇa-dh-t \\
 \rightarrow & a-ru-ṇa-dh \text{ (CCI)} \\
 \rightarrow & a-ru-ṇa-t \text{ (AFP)}
 \end{aligned}$$

This also works for the 2. pers. However, the 2. pers. admits a variant *a-ru-ṇa-s* which is formed by the wish to restore the usual ending *s*.

And here you see the ātmanêpada paradigm where the numbers are explained above:

$\sqrt{rudh} \leftarrow$ ie. * <i>reudh</i> , ātmanêpada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>ru-n-dh-ê</i> (3)	<i>ru-n-dh-vahê</i> (3)	<i>ru-n-dh-mahê</i> (3)	present
2	<i>ru-n-t-sê</i> (2a)	<i>ru-n-dh-āthê</i> (3)	<i>ru-n-d-dhvê</i> (1c, 2b)	tense
3	<i>ru-n-d-dhê</i> (1a)	<i>ru-n-dh-ātê</i> (3)	<i>ru-n-dh-a-tê</i> (3, 4b)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-ru-n-dh-i</i> (3)	<i>a-ru-n-dh-vahi</i> (3)	<i>a-ru-n-dh-mahi</i> (3)	imperfect
2	<i>a-ru-n-d-dhās</i> (1b)	<i>a-ru-n-dh-āthām</i> (3)	<i>a-ru-n-d-dhvam</i> (1c, 2b)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-ru-n-d-dha</i> (1a)	<i>a-ru-n-dh-ātām</i> (3)	<i>a-ru-n-dh-a-ta</i> (3, 4b)	with augm.
1	<i>ru-ṇa-dh-âi</i> (3)	<i>ru-ṇa-dh-ā-vahâi</i> (3)	<i>ru-ṇa-dh-ā-mahâi</i> (3)	imper-
2	<i>ru-n-t-sva</i> (2a)	<i>ru-n-dh-āthām</i> (3)	<i>ru-n-d-dhvam</i> (1c, 2b)	ative
3	<i>ru-n-d-dhām</i> (1a)	<i>ru-n-dh-ātām</i> (3)	<i>ru-n-dh-a-tām</i> (3, 4b)	(sec. end.)

bhid (“to break”)

We now turn to *bhid* (“to break”):

$\sqrt{bhid} \leftarrow$ ie. * <i>bheid</i> , parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>bhi-na-d-mi</i> (1)	<i>bhi-n-d-vas</i> (1)	<i>bhi-n-d-mas</i> (1)	present
2	<i>bhi-na-t-si</i> (3)	<i>bhi-n-d-thas</i> (3)	<i>bhi-n-t-tha</i> (3)	tense
3	<i>bhi-na-t-ti</i> (3)	<i>bhi-n-t-tas</i> (3)	<i>bhi-n-d-an-ti</i> (1, 5a)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-bhi-na-d-am</i> (1)	<i>a-bhi-n-d-va</i> (1)	<i>a-bhi-n-d-ma</i> (1)	imperfect
2	<i>a-bhi-na-s/a-bhi-na-t</i> (3, 4)	<i>a-bhi-n-t-tam</i> (3)	<i>a-bhi-n-t-ta</i> (3)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-bhi-na-t</i> (3, 4)	<i>a-bhi-n-t-tām</i> (3)	<i>a-bhi-n-d-an</i> (3, 5a)	with augm.
1	<i>bhi-na-d-āni</i> (1)	<i>bhi-na-d-āva</i> (1)	<i>bhi-na-d-āma</i> (1)	imper-
2	<i>bhi-n-d-dhi</i> (2)	<i>bhi-n-t-tam</i> (3)	<i>bhi-n-t-ta</i> (3)	ative
3	<i>bhi-na-t-tu</i> (3)	<i>bhi-n-t-tām</i> (3)	<i>bhi-n-d-an-tu</i> (3, 5a)	(sec. end.)

1. The final oi. root consonant *d* is found before all endings starting with resonants *m* or *v* or with vowels.
2. Since the root-final *d* corresponds to the ending of 2. pers. sg. impv., there is no change in *bhi-n-d-dhi*.
3. Instead of *d*, we find nonvoiced *t* before nonvoiced consonants (**BA**).
4. The impf. sg. forms *a-bhi-na-t* reflect sound laws **BA** and **CCI**, i.e., *a-bhi-na-t* stands in for **a-bhi-na-t-s* or **a-bhi-na-t-t*, respectively. Alternatively, one would get the same result by applying **CCI** and **AFP**.

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5. In 3. pers. pl. forms, we have *a* in both parasmâipada and ātmanêpada forms. Note, however:
- a. In parasmâipada 3. pers. pl. forms like *bhi-n-d-an-ti* (paradigm above), we have *an* due to borrowing of *a* from the thematic classes.
 - b. In contrast, ātmanêpada forms like *bhi-n-d-a-tê* (see below) do without this borrowing and *a* goes back to syllabic *n̥*.

And here you see the ātmanêpada paradigm where the numbers are explained above:

$\sqrt{bhid} \leftarrow$ ie. * <i>bheid</i> , ātmanêpada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>bhi-n-d-ê</i> (1)	<i>bhi-n-d-vahê</i> (1)	<i>bhi-n-d-mahê</i> (1)	present
2	<i>bhi-n-t-sê</i> (3)	<i>bhi-n-d-āthê</i> (1)	<i>bhi-n-d-dhvê</i> (2)	tense
3	<i>bhi-n-t-tê</i> (3)	<i>bhi-n-d-ātê</i> (1)	<i>bhi-n-d-a-tê</i> (1, 5b)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-bhi-n-d-i</i> (1)	<i>a-bhi-n-d-vahi</i> (1)	<i>a-bhi-n-d-mahi</i> (1)	imperfect
2	<i>a-bhi-n-t-thās</i> (3)	<i>a-bhi-n-d-āthām</i> (1)	<i>a-bhi-n-d-dhvam</i> (2)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-bhi-n-t-ta</i> (3)	<i>a-bhi-n-d-ātām</i> (1)	<i>a-bhi-n-d-a-ta</i> (1, 5b)	with augm.
1	<i>bhi-na-d-âi</i> (1)	<i>bhi-na-d-ā-vahâi</i> (1)	<i>bhi-na-d-ā-mahâi</i> (1)	imper-
2	<i>bhi-n-t-sva</i> (3)	<i>bhi-n-d-āthām</i> (1)	<i>bhi-n-d-dhvam</i> (2)	ative
3	<i>bhi-n-t-tām</i> (3)	<i>bhi-n-d-ātām</i> (1)	<i>bhi-n-d-a-tām</i> (1, 5b)	(sec. end.)

hiṃs (“to injure”)

In contrast to the usual convention, *hiṃs* (“to injure”) shows the weak nasal sign in the oi. root. We have the strong sign *na* versus the weak sign *ṇ* (expected *sandhi* before consonants):

$\sqrt{hiṃs}$ parasmāipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>hi-na-s-mi</i>	<i>hiṃs-vas</i>	<i>hiṃs-mas</i>	present
2	<i>hi-na-s-si</i>	<i>hiṃs-thas</i>	<i>hiṃs-tha</i>	tense
3	<i>hi-na-s-ti</i>	<i>hiṃs-tas</i>	<i>hiṃs-an-ti</i>	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-hi-na-s-am</i>	<i>a-hiṃs-va</i>	<i>a-hiṃs-ma</i>	imperfect
2	<i>a-hi-na-s/hi-na-t</i> (1)	<i>a-hiṃs-tam</i>	<i>a-hiṃs-ta</i>	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-hi-na-t</i> (1)	<i>a-hiṃs-tām</i>	<i>a-hiṃs-an</i>	with augm.
1	<i>hi-na-s-āni</i>	<i>hi-na-s-āva</i>	<i>hi-na-s-āma</i>	imper-
2	<i>hi-n-dhi</i> (2)	<i>hiṃs-tam</i>	<i>hiṃs-ta</i>	ative
3	<i>hi-na-s-tu</i>	<i>hiṃs-tām</i>	<i>hiṃs-an-tu</i>	(sec. end.)

1. We explain the imperfect 2. pers. sg. by

$$\begin{array}{c} *a-hi-na-s-s \\ \rightarrow a-hi-na-s \text{ (CCI)} \end{array}$$

The same form should be produced in the 3. pers., $*a-hi-na-s-t \rightarrow a-hi-na-s$. The forms shown in the table would have been produced by analogy with other verbs like *bhid*. Compensatory lengthening could also have occurred. But if, it has been levelled quickly.

2. The form *hi-n-dhi* for expected $*hi-m-s-dhi$ is mysterious.

C.6.7. The eighth class

Introductory remark and overview

Most paradigms of the 8. class closely resemble those of the 5. class. The reason has been explained on pp. 89. We focus on *tan* (“to stretch, to extend”) on pp. 183. In presenting the *tan* paradigms, we assume the gaṇa signs *ô* and *u*, respectively, in line with traditional Indian grammar.

Additionally, we present the paradigm for the very frequent verb *kṛ* (“to do, to make”) on pp. 184.

tan (“to stretch, to extend”)

We begin with the parasmâipada paradigm of *tan* (“to stretch, to extend”):

$\sqrt{tan} \leftarrow$ ie. * <i>ten</i> , parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>tan-ô-mi</i> (1)	<i>tan-(u)-vas</i> (4)	<i>tan-(u)-mas</i> (4)	present
2	<i>tan-ô-ṣi</i> (1, 6)	<i>tan-u-thas</i>	<i>tan-u-tha</i>	tense
3	<i>tan-ô-ti</i> (1)	<i>tan-u-tas</i>	<i>tan-v-an-ti</i> (3)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-tan-av-am</i> (2)	<i>a-tan-(u)-va</i> (4)	<i>a-tan-(u)-ma</i> (4)	imperfect
2	<i>a-tan-ô-s</i> (1)	<i>a-tan-u-tam</i>	<i>a-tan-u-ta</i>	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-tan-ô-t</i> (1)	<i>a-tan-u-tām</i>	<i>a-tan-v-an</i> (3)	with augm.
1	<i>tan-av-āni</i> (2)	<i>tan-av-āva</i> (2)	<i>tan-av-āma</i> (2)	imper-
2	<i>tan-u</i> (5)	<i>tan-u-tam</i>	<i>tan-u-ta</i>	ative
3	<i>tan-ô-tu</i> (1)	<i>tan-u-tām</i>	<i>tan-v-an-tu</i> (3)	(sec. end.)

1. The strong forms have the strong class sign *ô* before consonant endings (see **DIPH**).
2. The strong forms have the strong class sign *av* before vowel endings (see **DIPH**).
3. The weak forms before vowel endings are *v* (see **hV**).

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4. In the four weak forms with *m* and *v* endings, we alternatively have \emptyset for *u*, i.e., *tan-mas* besides *tan-u-mas* etc.
5. Thematic parasmaîpada paradigms show the stem as sec. pers. sg. impv., as in *bhara* (“carry!”). This holds here for *tan-u* (“stretch!”) as for some verbs from the 5. class like *su-nu*.
6. **RUKI**.

We now turn to the ātmanêpada paradigm:

$\sqrt{\text{tan}} \leftarrow \text{ie. } *ten, \bar{\text{atmanêpada}}$				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>tan-v-ê</i> (2)	<i>tan-(u-)vahê</i> (1, 5)	<i>tan-(u-)mahê</i> (1, 5)	present
2	<i>tan-u-ṣê</i> (1, 6)	<i>tan-v-āthê</i> (2)	<i>tan-u-dhvê</i> (1)	tense
3	<i>tan-u-tê</i> (1)	<i>tan-v-ātê</i> (2)	<i>tan-v-a-tê</i> (2, 3)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-tan-v-i</i> (2)	<i>a-tan-(u-)vahi</i> (1, 5)	<i>a-tan-(u-)mahi</i> (1, 5)	imperfect
2	<i>a-tan-u-thās</i> (1)	<i>a-tan-v-āthām</i> (2)	<i>a-tan-u-dhvam</i> (1)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-tan-u-ta</i> (1)	<i>a-tan-v-ātām</i> (2)	<i>a-tan-v-a-ta</i> (2, 3)	with augm.
1	<i>tan-av-âi</i> (4)	<i>tan-av-ā-vahâi</i> (4)	<i>tan-av-ā-mahâi</i> (4)	imper-
2	<i>tan-u-ṣva</i> (1, 6)	<i>a-tan-v-āthām</i> (2)	<i>tan-u-dhvam</i> (1)	ative
3	<i>tan-u-tām</i> (1)	<i>a-tan-v-ātām</i> (2)	<i>tan-v-a-tām</i> (2, 3)	(sec. end.)

1. Expectedly, the weak forms before consonants are *u*, for example *tan-u-tê*.
2. The weak forms before vowels are *tan-v-ê* and *a-tan-v-i*.
3. Other examples of *v* before vowel endings are provided by 3. pers. pl. *tan-v-atê* etc. where *a* goes back to \bar{n} .
4. The strong forms have the class sign *av* before vowel endings (see **DIPH**), for example *tan-av-âi*.
5. In the four weak forms with *m* and *v* endings, we alternatively have no class sign instead of class sign *u*, similar to some verbs from the 5. class (*su-n(u)-mas*).
6. **RUKI**

***kr* (“to do, to make”)**

The paradigms for *kr* (“to do, to make”) differ somewhat from the nasal verbs like *tan*:

$\sqrt{kr} \leftarrow$ ie. $*k^wer$ (without SPal), parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>kar-ô-mi</i> (1a)	<i>kur-vas</i> (3)	<i>kur-mas</i> (3)	present
2	<i>kar-ô-ši</i> (1a, 5)	<i>kur-u-thas</i>	<i>kur-u-tha</i>	tense
3	<i>kar-ô-ti</i> (1a)	<i>kur-u-tas</i>	<i>kur-v-an-ti</i> (2)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-tan-av-am</i> (1b)	<i>a-kur-va</i> (3)	<i>a-kur-ma</i> (3)	imperfect
2	<i>a-kar-ô-s</i> (1a)	<i>a-kur-u-tam</i>	<i>a-kur-u-ta</i>	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-kar-ô-t</i> (1a)	<i>a-kur-u-tām</i>	<i>a-kur-v-an</i> (2)	with augm.
1	<i>kar-av-āni</i> (1b)	<i>kar-av-āva</i> (1b)	<i>kar-av-āma</i> (1b)	imper-
2	<i>kur-u</i> (4)	<i>kur-u-tam</i>	<i>kur-u-ta</i>	ative
3	<i>kar-ô-tu</i> (1a)	<i>kur-u-tām</i>	<i>kur-v-an-tu</i> (2)	(sec. end.)

- The strong forms use the full-grade *kar*. That is different from the other verbs like *tan* that, originally, is build on the zero grade (see, again, pp. 89). The class sign
 - ô* before consonant endings.
 - av* before vowel endings.
- The weak form is *kur-u*, but we have *v* before vowel endings (***hV***), for example *kur-v-a-n-ti*.
- In the four weak forms with *m* and *v* endings, we see the zero class sign, exclusively. Thus,
 - ◇ for *tan*, we have *tan-vas* besides *tan-u-vas*
 - ◇ but *kr* shows only *kur-vas*.
- Similar to *su-nu* (5. class) and *tan-u* (8. class), we have *kur-u* (“do!”).
- RUKI**

We now turn to the ātmanêpada paradigm:

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$\sqrt{kr} \leftarrow$ ie. $*k^wer$ (without SPal), ātmanêpada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>kur-v-ê</i> (2)	<i>kur-vahê</i> (1, 5)	<i>kur-mahê</i> (1, 5)	present
2	<i>kur-u-ṣê</i> (1, 6)	<i>kur-v-āthê</i> (2)	<i>kur-u-dhvê</i> (1)	tense
3	<i>kur-u-tê</i> (1)	<i>kur-v-ātê</i> (2)	<i>kur-v-a-tê</i> (2, 3)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-kur-v-i</i> (2)	<i>a-kur-vahi</i> (1, 5)	<i>a-kur-mahi</i> (1, 5)	imperfect
2	<i>a-kur-u-thās</i> (1)	<i>a-kur-v-āthām</i> (2)	<i>a-kur-u-dhvam</i> (1)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-kur-u-ta</i> (1)	<i>a-kur-v-ātām</i> (2)	<i>a-kur-v-a-ta</i> (2, 3)	with augm.
1	<i>kur-av-âi</i> (4)	<i>kur-av-ā-vahâi</i> (4)	<i>kur-av-ā-mahâi</i> (4)	imper-
2	<i>kur-u-ṣva</i> (1, 6)	<i>a-kur-v-āthām</i> (2)	<i>kur-u-dhvam</i> (1)	ative
3	<i>kur-u-tām</i> (1)	<i>a-kur-v-ātām</i> (2)	<i>kur-v-a-tām</i> (2, 3)	(sec. end.)

- Expectedly, the weak forms before consonants are *u*, for example *kur-u-tê*.
- The weak forms before vowels are *kur-v-ê*, as expected.
- Forms like 3. pers. pl. *kur-v-atê* exhibit $a \leftarrow \eta$.
- The strong forms have the class sign *av* before vowel endings (see **DIPH**), for example *kar-av-âi*.
- In the four weak forms with *m* and *v* endings, we see the zero class sign, exclusively.
- RUKI**

C.6.8. The ninth class

The class signs for the 9. class are $n\bar{a}$ (strong forms) and $n\bar{i}$ (weak forms). Revisit pp. 87. Since both class signs end in a vowel, the forms do not present any particular difficulties. Consider the parasmâipada paradigm of *pū* (“to purify”):

$\sqrt{p\bar{u}} \leftarrow$ ie. $*puH$, parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>pu-nā-mi</i>	<i>pu-nī-vas</i>	<i>pu-nī-mas</i>	present
2	<i>pu-nā-si</i>	<i>pu-nī-thas</i>	<i>pu-nī-tha</i>	tense
3	<i>pu-nā-ti</i>	<i>pu-nī-tas</i>	<i>pu-n-an-ti</i> (3)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-pu-nā-m</i> (1)	<i>a-pu-nī-va</i>	<i>a-pu-nī-ma</i>	imperfect
2	<i>a-pu-nā-s</i>	<i>a-pu-nī-tam</i>	<i>a-pu-nī-ta</i>	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-pu-nā-t</i>	<i>a-pu-nī-tām</i>	<i>a-pu-n-an</i> (3)	with augm.
1	<i>pu-n-āni</i> (2)	<i>pu-n-āva</i> (2)	<i>pu-n-āma</i> (2)	imper-
2	<i>pu-nī-hi</i> (4)	<i>pu-nī-tam</i>	<i>pu-nī-ta</i>	ative
3	<i>pu-nā-tu</i>	<i>pu-nī-tām</i>	<i>pu-n-an-tu</i> (3)	(sec. end.)

1. We have *a-pu-nā-m*: no borrowing of *a* from the thematic verbs necessary.
2. Think of *pu-n-āni* as *pu-nā-āni*.
3. The 3. pers. pl. forms (example: *pu-n-a-n-ti*) have been modelled on the many other athematic forms like *duh-a-n-ti* (2. class) or *kur-v-a-n-ti* (8. class). The weak class sign *nī* is not seen any more.
4. Observe imperative *pu-nī-hi* instead of **pu-nī-dhi*.

The ātmanêpada paradigm is not spectacular, either:

$\sqrt{p\bar{u}} \leftarrow$ ie. * <i>puH</i> , ātmanêpada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>pu-n-ê</i> (1)	<i>pu-nī-vahê</i>	<i>pu-nī-mahê</i>	present
2	<i>pu-nī-ṣê</i> (5)	<i>pu-n-āthê</i> (2)	<i>pu-nī-dhvê</i>	tense
3	<i>pu-nī-tê</i>	<i>pu-n-ātê</i> (2)	<i>pu-n-a-tê</i> (3)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-pu-n-i</i> (4)	<i>a-pu-nī-vahi</i>	<i>a-pu-nī-mahi</i>	imperfect
2	<i>a-pu-nī-thās</i>	<i>a-pu-n-āthām</i>	<i>a-pu-nī-dhvam</i>	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-pu-nī-ta</i>	<i>a-pu-n-ātām</i>	<i>a-pu-n-a-ta</i> (3)	with augm.
1	<i>pu-n-âi</i> (6)	<i>pu-n-ā-vahâi</i> (6)	<i>pu-n-ā-mahâi</i> (6)	imper-
2	<i>pu-nī-ṣva</i> (5)	<i>a-pu-n-āthām</i> (2)	<i>pu-nī-dhvam</i>	ative
3	<i>pu-nī-tām</i>	<i>a-pu-n-ātām</i> (2)	<i>pu-n-a-tām</i> (3)	(sec. end.)

1. The weak class sign *nī* is not present in *pu-n-ê* but “reduced to” just *n*.
2. Similar in the also weak *pu-n-āthê*. This loss of a laryngeal between consonant and vowel may be a regular development (**Lar** CH).
3. The 3. pers. pl. forms (example: *pu-n-an-ti*) have been modelled on the many other athematic forms like *duh-a-tê* (2. class) or *kur-v-atê* (8. class). The weak class sign *nī* is not seen any more.
4. *a-pu-n-i* is modelled after forms like *a-bi-bhr-i* (3. class) or *a-bhi-n-d-i* (7. class).
5. **RUKI**
6. The strong forms like *pu-n-ā-mahâi* can be thought of as resultung from *pu-nā-ā-mahâi*.

Verbs like *krī* (“to buy”) or *prī* are formed similar to *pū̄*, with two exceptions:

- ◇ cerebral *ṇ* (due to **Cern**, pp. 42) in all class signs: *krī-ṇā-ti* and *krī-ṇī-mas*
- ◇ irregular *krī* (with long *ī*) in forms with weak or strong class sign:

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$\sqrt{kr\bar{i}} \leftarrow$ ie. $*kreih_2$, parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>kr̄-ṇā-mi</i>	<i>kr̄-ṇi-vas</i>	<i>kr̄-ṇi-mas</i>	present
2	<i>kr̄-ṇā-si</i>	<i>kr̄-ṇi-thas</i>	<i>kr̄-ṇi-tha</i>	tense
3	<i>kr̄-ṇā-ti</i>	<i>kr̄-ṇi-tas</i>	<i>kr̄-ṇ-an-ti</i>	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-kr̄-ṇā-m</i>	<i>a-kr̄-ṇi-va</i>	<i>a-kr̄-ṇi-ma</i>	imperfect
2	<i>kr̄-ṇā-s</i>	<i>a-kr̄-ṇi-tam</i>	<i>a-kr̄-ṇi-ta</i>	(sec. end.)
3	<i>kr̄-ṇā-t</i>	<i>a-kr̄-ṇi-tām</i>	<i>a-kr̄-ṇ-an</i>	with augm.
1	<i>kr̄-ṇ-āni</i>	<i>kr̄-ṇ-āva</i>	<i>kr̄-ṇ-āma</i>	imper-
2	<i>kr̄-ṇi-hi</i>	<i>kr̄-ṇi-tam</i>	<i>kr̄-ṇi-ta</i>	ative
3	<i>kr̄-ṇā-tu</i>	<i>kr̄-ṇi-tām</i>	<i>kr̄-ṇ-an-tu</i>	(sec. end.)

Many other verbs differ only with respect to parasmâipada 2. pers. impv.:

$\sqrt{\quad}$	pres. tense 3. pers. sg.	impv., 2. pers. sg.	translation
<i>aś</i> (f.g.)	<i>aś-nā-ti</i>	<i>aś-āna</i> (f.g.)	eat!
<i>kliś</i>	<i>kliś-nā-ti</i>	<i>kliś-āna</i>	torment!
<i>grah</i> (f.g.)	<i>gr̥h-ṇā-ti</i>	<i>gr̥h-āṇa</i>	grab!
<i>puṣ</i>	<i>puṣ-ṇā-ti</i>	<i>puṣ-āṇa</i>	strengthen!
<i>bandh</i> (f.g.)	<i>bandh-nā-ti</i>	<i>bandh-āna</i>	bind!
<i>muṣ</i>	<i>muṣ-ṇā-ti</i>	<i>muṣ-āṇa</i>	rob!
<i>stambh</i> (f.g.)	<i>stabh-nā-ti</i>	<i>stabh-āna</i>	support!

C.7. Reduplicative perfect

C.7.1. General remarks

The reduplicative perfect is mainly attested for the 3. pers. sg. It is

- ◇ strong for parasmâipada sg.,
- ◇ weak for dual, pl. or ātmanêpada.

Reduplication for the perfect works similar to that of 3. class verbs (p. 165). Interestingly, the parasmâipada 3. pers. pl. is *us*

- ◇ for reduplicative perfect such as *da-d-us* as also
- ◇ for imperfect of 3. class verbs, for example *a-da-d-us* (see p. 166)

Typically, the initial consonant plus *a* ← ie. *e* (!) is placed before the full-grade root (strong forms) or the zero-grade root (weak forms). Two exceptions:

- ◇ *u*-roots (such as *yuj*) always reduplicate with *u*.
- ◇ *i*-roots (such as *lih*) always reduplicate with *i*.

C.7.2. Strong forms

Qualitative ablaut

We begin with the strong forms. They are built with the qualitative ablaut, the *o*-grade, i.e., we have

- ◇ ie. *o* → oi. *a*
- ◇ ie. *oi* → oi. *ê*
- ◇ ie. *ou* → oi. *ô*

Here are a few examples:

	√	perfect, 3. pers. sg.	translation
ie. <i>o</i>	<i>bandh</i> (f.g.)	<i>ba-bandh-a</i> (1)	to bind
ie. <i>oi</i>	<i>dviṣ</i>	<i>di-dvêṣ-a</i> (2)	to hate
	<i>lih</i>	<i>li-lêh-a</i>	to lick
	<i>viś</i>	<i>vi-vêś-a</i>	to cut
ie. <i>ou</i>	<i>tud</i>	<i>tu-tôd-a</i>	to hit
	<i>yuj</i>	<i>yu-yôj-a</i>	to join
	<i>rud</i>	<i>ru-rôd-a</i>	to weep

1. *ba-bandh-a* is regular reduplicated perfect with reduplication vowel *a*.
2. In *di-dvêṣ-a* just the initial consonant, not the initial consonant cluster is reduplicated. The reduplication vowel is *i* in line with the root vowel.

Of course, when the root-initial is an aspirated consonant, we can expect Grassmann's law, i.e., **DA**:

√	perfect, 3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>chid</i>	<i>ci-cchêd-a</i> (sandhi)	to cut
<i>bhid</i>	<i>bi-bhêd-a</i>	to split

An unusual outlier is *vêda* ("he knows") from √*vid*. Sihler [1995, pp. 564-569] explains that *vêda* has a stative meaning and stands for a class of ie. perfects without reduplication.

Brugmann's law

Remember Brugmann's law **Lo**:

$$\mathbf{Lo} \quad \text{oi. } oCV \rightarrow \text{oi. } \bar{a}CV$$

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In the above examples, this law was not applied. For example, *o* in **bhi-bhoid-a* is not in an open syllable because both the half vowel *i* and *d* count as consonants. However, many other examples show the effect of Brugmann's law:

√	perfect, 3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>tan</i> (f.g.)	<i>ta-tān-a</i>	to stretch
<i>dah</i> (f.g.)	<i>da-dāh-a</i>	to burn
<i>naś</i> (f.g.)	<i>na-nāś-a</i>	to perish
<i>pat</i> (f.g.)	<i>pa-pāt-a</i>	to fall
<i>bhaj</i> (f.g.)	<i>ba-bhāj-a</i>	to worship
<i>bhṛ</i>	<i>ba-bhār-a</i>	to bear
<i>vyadh</i> (f.g.)	<i>vi-vyādh-a</i>	to pierce
<i>śap</i> (f.g.)	<i>śa-śāp-a</i>	to curse
<i>śru</i>	<i>śu-śrāv-a</i>	to hear
<i>su</i>	<i>su-ṣāv-a</i> (RUKI)	to press
<i>svap</i> (f.g.)	<i>su-ṣvāp-a</i> (RUKI)	to sleep

Due to the *ie.* ending of the 1. pers. sg., the syllable is not open so that **Lo** does not apply (pp. 33).

Samprasāraṇa

We now turn to roots with initial vowel or initial halfvowel. They reduplicate with this vowel or halfvowel (samprasāraṇa), totally in line with our general reduplication rule above:

√	perfect, 3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>i</i>	<i>iy-āy-a</i> (V+hV, Lo)	to go
<i>iṣ</i>	<i>iy-eṣ-a</i> (V+hV)	to wish
<i>yaj</i> (f.g.)	<i>i-yāj-a</i> (Lo)	to sacrifice
<i>vac</i> (f.g.)	<i>u-vāc-a</i> (Lo)	to say
<i>vad</i> (f.g.)	<i>u-vād-a</i> (Lo)	to say
<i>vap</i> (f.g.)	<i>u-vāp-a</i> (Lo)	to sow
<i>vas</i> (f.g.)	<i>u-vās-a</i> (Lo)	to dwell
<i>vah</i> (f.g.)	<i>u-vāh-a</i> (Lo)	to carry

Root with initial vowels *a* or *ā* (there would have been a laryngeal before the vowel) reduplicate with *a* so that *ā* is the expected sandhi result:

√ full grade	i.e. f.g. root	perfect, 3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>aś</i>	* <i>HeḱH</i> (f.g.)	<i>ās-a</i> ← ie. * <i>He-Hoḱ-e</i>	to eat
<i>aś</i> (z.g.)	* <i>h₂nḱ</i> (z.g.), * <i>h₂ne(n)ḱ</i> (f.g.)	<i>ānaṃś-a</i> ← ie. * <i>h₂e-h₂nonḱ-e</i>	to get
<i>as</i>	* <i>h₁es</i> (f.g.)	<i>ās-a</i> ← ie. * <i>h₁e-h₁os-e</i>	to be
<i>ah</i>		<i>āh-a</i>	to say
<i>āp</i> (redupl.)	* <i>h₁e-h₁p-neu</i>	<i>āp-a</i> ← ie. * <i>h₁e-h₁op-e</i>	to obtain

Palatalization

Palatalization is also relevant for the reduplicative syllable. Indeed, we need to deal with primary palatalization (**PPal**), secondary palatalization (**SPal**), and analogical palatalization. For *hu* (“to sacrifice”), we have

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\text{ie. } *ghu-ghou-e \text{ (reduplication, } o\text{-grade)} \\
 &\rightarrow \acute{g}u-ghou-e \text{ (DA)} \\
 &\rightarrow ju-hov-e \text{ (PPal, } hV\text{)} \\
 &\rightarrow ju-hōv-e \text{ (Lo)} \\
 &\rightarrow ju-hāv-a \text{ (aā)}
 \end{aligned}$$

Similarly,

√	perfect, 3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>has</i>	<i>ja-hās-a</i>	to laugh
<i>hṛ</i> (z.g.)	<i>ja-hār-a</i>	to take

You may have noticed that secondary palatalization of the root-final is intact in the perfect forms, for example *yu-yôj-a* or *u-vāc-a*. The perfect ending *a* goes back to a front vowel ie. *e* (see fig. B.2, p. 36). For the root-initial consonant, secondary palatalization happens for the reduplication consonants *i* and *a* ← ie. *e* (!). For *han* (“to hit”), we find

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\text{ie. } *g^whe-g^whon-e \text{ (reduplication, } o\text{-grade)} \\
 &\rightarrow g^we-g^whon-e \text{ (DA)} \\
 &\rightarrow je-ghon-e \text{ (SPal)} \\
 &\rightarrow ja-ghōn-e \text{ (Lo)} \\
 &\rightarrow ja-ghān-a \text{ (aā)}
 \end{aligned}$$

Similarly, consider

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√	perfect, 3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>kṛ</i>	<i>ca-kār-a</i> ← ie. <i>*k^we-k^wor-e</i>	to do
<i>kṛt</i>	<i>ca-kart-a</i>	to cut
<i>kṣip</i>	<i>ci-kṣêp-a</i>	to throw
<i>khan</i> (f.g.)	<i>ca-khān-a</i> for “correct” <i>ca-khan-a</i> (1)	to dig
<i>gam</i> (f.g.)	<i>ja-gām-a</i> ← ie. <i>*g^we-g^wom-e</i>	to go
<i>ji</i>	<i>ji-ghāy-a</i> ← ie. <i>*ghi-ghoy-e</i>	to conquer

1. *khan* is a laryngeal root ← ie. **khenH* (see PPP *khā-ta*, p. 118). Hence, *ca-khān-a* ← ie. **khe-khonH-e* does not work because syllable *khonH* ends in two consonants and is not open so that **Lo** does not apply.

Apparently, secondary palatalization spread to other verbs where it did not belong, originally, such as

√	perfect, 3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>krudh</i>	<i>cu-krôdh-a</i>	to be angry
<i>kṣubh</i>	<i>cu-kṣôbh-a</i>	to be agitated

Here, we have proportional analogy, for example

<i>kṣip</i>	with palatal reduplication:	<i>ci-kṣêp-a</i>
just as		
<i>kṣubh</i>	with palatal reduplication:	<i>cu-kṣôbh-a</i>

Irregular perfect forms

Some verbs have irregular perfect forms:

√	perfect, 3. pers. sg.	“correct” form	translation
<i>pū</i>	<i>pu-pāva</i>	<i>pu-pav-a</i> ← ie. <i>*pu-pouH-e</i>	to clean
<i>bhī</i>	<i>bi-bhāy-a</i>	<i>bi-bhay-a</i> ← ie. <i>*bhi-bhoiH-e</i>	to fear
<i>bhū</i>	<i>ba-bhūv-a</i>	<i>bu-bhav-a</i> ← ie. <i>*bhu-bhouH-e</i>	to be

where the conditions for **Lo** (syllables need to be open). On top, *ba-bhūv-a* exhibits irregular reduplication vowel. *bi-bhāy-a* means “he fears”, it has no temporal, but a stative meaning. Similarly, *veda* (“he knows”) is stative and does not even contain a reduplication.

Note also a few (laryngeal!) verbs with 3. pers. sg. ending *âu* and irregular weak forms:

√	perfect, 3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>dā</i>	<i>da-d-âu</i>	to give
<i>dhā</i>	<i>da-dh-âu</i>	to set, to place
<i>jñā</i>	<i>ja-jñ-âu</i>	to know
<i>pā</i>	<i>pa-p-âu</i>	to drink
<i>bhā</i>	<i>ba-bh-âu</i>	to shine
<i>mā</i>	<i>ma-m-âu</i>	to measure
<i>sthā</i>	<i>ta-sth-âu</i> (1)	to stand

1. *ta-sth-âu* does not reduplicate the initial consonant.

C.7.3. Weak forms

Examples for root vowels *i*, *u* or *a*

The weak forms are built with the zero grade. We begin with root vowel *i*:

√	perfect, 3. pers. sg.	perfect, 3. pers. pl.	translation
<i>kṣip</i>	<i>ci-kṣêp-a</i>	<i>ci-kṣip-us</i>	to throw
<i>chid</i>	<i>ci-cchêd-a</i> (sandhi)	<i>ci-cchid-us</i> (sandhi)	to cut
<i>jī</i>	<i>jī-ghāy-a</i>	<i>jī-ghy-us</i> (hV)	to conquer
<i>dviṣ</i>	<i>dī-dvêṣ-a</i>	<i>dī-dviṣ-us</i>	to hate
<i>bhid</i>	<i>bī-bhêd-a</i>	<i>bī-bhid-us</i>	to split
<i>lih</i>	<i>lī-lêh-a</i>	<i>lī-lih-us</i>	to lick
<i>viś</i>	<i>vī-vêś-a</i>	<i>vī-viś-us</i>	to cut
<i>vyadh</i> (f.g.)	<i>vi-vyādh-a</i>	<i>vī-vidh-us</i>	to pierce

For root vowel *u*, consider these examples

√	perfect, 3. pers. sg.	perfect, 3. pers. pl.	translation
<i>krudh</i>	<i>cu-krôdh-a</i>	<i>cu-krudh-us</i>	to be angry
<i>kṣubh</i>	<i>cu-kṣôbh-a</i>	<i>cu-kṣubh-us</i>	to be agitated
<i>tud</i>	<i>tu-tôd-a</i>	<i>tu-tud-us</i>	to hit
<i>yuj</i>	<i>yu-yôj-a</i>	<i>yu-yuj-us</i>	to join
<i>rud</i>	<i>ru-rôd-a</i>	<i>ru-rud-us</i>	to weep
<i>śru</i>	<i>śu-śrāv-a</i> (Lo)	<i>śu-śruv-us</i> (V+hV)	to hear
<i>su</i>	<i>su-ṣāv-a</i> (RUKI, Lo)	<i>su-ṣuv-us</i> (RUKI, V+hV)	to press
<i>svap</i> (f.g.)	<i>su-ṣvāp-a</i> (RUKI, Lo)	<i>su-ṣup-us</i> (RUKI)	to sleep

Finally, here are some examples for roots without halfvowels:

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√	perfect, 3. pers. sg.	perfect, 3. pers. pl.	translation
<i>kṛ</i>	<i>ca-kār-a</i> (Lo)	<i>ca-kr-us</i>	to do
<i>khan</i> (f.g.)	<i>ca-khān-a</i>	<i>ca-khn-us</i>	to dig
<i>gam</i> (f.g.)	<i>ja-gām-a</i> (Lo)	<i>ja-gm-us</i>	to go
<i>bhṛ</i>	<i>ba-bhār-a</i> (Lo)	<i>ba-bhr-us</i>	to bear
<i>hṛ</i> (f.g.)	<i>ja-hār-a</i> (Lo)	<i>ja-hr-us</i>	to take

Exceptionally, one finds full-grade 3. pers. pl.:

√	perfect, 3. pers. sg.	perfect, 3. pers. pl.	translation
<i>kṛt</i>	<i>ca-kart-a</i>	<i>ca-kart-us</i>	to cut
<i>bandh</i> (f.g.)	<i>ba-bandh-a</i>	<i>ba-bandh-us</i>	to bind
<i>has</i> (f.g.)	<i>ja-hās-a</i> (Lo)	<i>ja-has-us</i>	to laugh

Samprasāraṇa

Here are the verbs with samprasāraṇa. The reduplicative vowel *i* or *u* combines with the same vowel from the zero-grade root to produce \bar{i} or \bar{u} , respectively (**MVS**).

√	perfect, 3. pers. sg.	perfect, 3. pers. pl.	translation
<i>i</i>	<i>iy-āy-a</i>	<i>īy-us</i>	to go
<i>iṣ</i>	<i>iy-ēṣ-a</i>	<i>īṣ-us</i>	to wish
<i>yaj</i> (f.g.)	<i>i-yāj-a</i>	<i>īj-us</i>	to sacrifice
<i>vac</i> (f.g.)	<i>u-vāc-a</i>	<i>ūc-us</i>	to say
<i>vad</i> (f.g.)	<i>u-vād-a</i>	<i>ūd-us</i>	to say
<i>vap</i> (f.g.)	<i>u-vāp-a</i>	<i>ūp-us</i>	to sow
<i>vas</i> (f.g.)	<i>u-vās-a</i>	<i>ūṣ-us</i>	to dwell
<i>vah</i> (f.g.)	<i>u-vāh-a</i>	<i>ūh-us</i>	to carry

Similarly, one obtains \bar{a} in $\bar{a}p-us$ from oi. root $\bar{a}p$ (“to obtain”) ← ie. $*h_1ep$ by

$$\begin{aligned}
 &\text{ie. } *h_1e-h_1p- \text{ (reduplication, zero grade)} \\
 &\rightarrow \bar{a}p- \text{ (**Lar** _ **V**)}
 \end{aligned}$$

In contrast, there are no sound-law excuses for \bar{a} in the other three plural (and hence weak) examples:

√ full grade	perfect, 3. pers. sg.	perfect, 3. pers. pl.	translation
$\bar{a}p$	$\bar{a}p-a$	$\bar{a}p-us$	to obtain
$aś$	$\bar{a}ś-a$	$\bar{a}ś-us$ (“wrong”)	to eat
as	$\bar{a}s-a$	$\bar{a}s-us$ (“wrong”)	to be
ah	$\bar{a}h-a$	$\bar{a}h-us$ (“wrong”)	to say

Perfect with \hat{e}

Finally, we turn to the sizable number of instances where the perfect seems to be formed without reduplication:

$\sqrt{\text{in f.g.}}$	pf., 3. pers. sg., par.	pf., 3. pers. pl., par.	pf., 3. pers. pl., $\bar{\text{a}}\text{tm.}$	translation
<i>tan</i>	<i>ta-tān-a</i>	<i>tēn-us</i>		to stretch
<i>naś</i>	<i>na-nāś-a</i>	<i>nêś-us</i>		to perish
<i>pat</i>	<i>pa-pāt-a</i>	<i>pêt-us</i>		to fall
<i>bhaj</i>	<i>ba-bhāj-a</i>	<i>bhêj-us</i>		to worship
<i>man</i>			<i>mên-ê</i>	to think
<i>yat</i>			<i>yêt-ê</i>	to exert
<i>ram</i>			<i>rêm-ê</i>	to enjoy
<i>labh</i>			<i>lêbh-ê</i>	to obtain
<i>śap</i>	<i>śa-śāp-a</i>	<i>śêp-us</i>		to curse
<i>sad</i>	<i>sa-sād-a</i>	<i>sêd-us</i>		to sit

However, regular reduplication is indeed present in *sad* and *yat*:

- ie. **se-sd-* (reduplication, zero grade)
- *sa-zd-* (*aā*, *sz* before voiced consonant)
- *sêd-* (**CpLz** perhaps before consonant + *i*)

and

- ie. **ye-it-* (reduplication, zero grade)
- *yêt-* (**DIPH**)

The other examples cannot be derived in this manner. Here, proportional analogy does the trick. For example,

<i>sad</i>	with \hat{e} instead of reduplication:	<i>sêd-us</i>
just as		
<i>pat</i>	with \hat{e} instead of reduplication:	<i>pêt-us</i>

C.7.4. Conjugation

For *tud* (“to hit”), we have

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$\sqrt{tud} \leftarrow \text{ie. } *teud$			
perfect parasmâipada			
	sg.	dual	pl.
1	<i>tu-tôd-a</i> (1)	<i>tu-tud-i-va</i> (2)	<i>tu-tud-i-ma</i> (2)
2	<i>tu-tôd-i-tha</i> (1)	<i>tu-tud-a-thus</i>	<i>tu-tud-a</i>
3	<i>tu-tôd-a</i> (1)	<i>tu-tud-a-tus</i>	<i>tu-tud-us</i>
perfect âtmanêpada			
	sg.	dual	pl.
1	<i>tu-tud-ê</i> (3)	<i>tu-tud-i-vahê</i> (4)	<i>tu-tud-i-mahê</i> (4)
2	<i>tu-tud-i-șê</i> (3)	<i>tu-tud-â-thê</i> (6)	<i>tu-tud-i-dhvê</i> (5)
3	<i>tu-tud-ê</i>	<i>tu-tud-â-tê</i> (6)	<i>tu-tud-i-rê</i>

1. Strong forms in parasmâipada sg., as expected.
2. Compare the perfect forms with the imperfect ones: *a-bhar-â-ma* and *a-bhar-â-va*.
3. Compare present tense *bhar-ê* and *bhar-a-șê*.
4. Compare present tense *bhar-â-mahê* and *bhar-â-vahê*.
5. Compare present tense *bhar-a-dhvê*.
6. Compare present tense *bhar-ê-thê* and *bhar-ê-tê*.

The conjugation for *tud* is similar to the one for *dā* (“to give”) with the notable exception of 1. and 3. pers. sg.:

$\sqrt{dā} \leftarrow \text{ie. } *deh_3$						
perfect parasmâipada				perfect âtmanêpada		
	sg.	dual	pl.	sg.	dual	pl.
1	<i>da-d-âu</i> (!)	<i>da-d-i-va</i>	<i>da-d-i-ma</i>	<i>da-d-ê</i>	<i>da-d-i-vahê</i>	<i>da-d-i-mahê</i>
2	<i>da-d-i-tha</i>	<i>da-d-a-thus</i>	<i>da-d-a</i>	<i>da-d-i-șê</i>	<i>da-d-â-thê</i>	<i>da-d-i-dhvê</i>
3	<i>da-d-âu</i> (!)	<i>da-d-a-tus</i>	<i>da-d-us</i>	<i>da-d-ê</i>	<i>da-d-â-tê</i>	<i>da-d-i-rê</i>

C.8. Aorist

C.8.1. General remarks

Aorist is yet another form of past tense. The aorist formation does not use any class signs. All aorists know the augment *a*, but otherwise, a wide range of formations exists. The endings are the secondary ones, roughly speaking. For example, we have these aorist 3. sg. forms:

aurist	✓	augm.	redupl.	root.	infix	them. vow.	end.
reduplicated	<i>pat</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>pa</i>	<i>pt</i>		<i>a</i>	<i>t</i>
sigmatic <i>sa</i>	<i>diś</i>	<i>a</i>		<i>dik</i>	<i>ṣ</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>t</i>
sigmatic <i>s</i>	<i>yuj</i>	<i>a</i>		<i>yâuk</i>	<i>ṣ</i>		<i>ī-t</i>

The following table offers examples for seven different aorists with one example each:

aurist		✓	3. sg.	3. pl.	pp.
thematic		<i>yuj</i>	<i>a-yuj-a-t</i>	<i>a-yuj-a-n</i>	197
reduplicated		<i>pat</i>	<i>a-pa-pt-a-t</i>	<i>a-pa-pt-a-n</i>	197
root		<i>bhū</i>	<i>a-bhū-t</i>	<i>a-bhūv-an</i>	198
sigmatic	<i>s</i>	<i>yuj</i>	<i>a-yâuk-ṣ-ī-t</i>	<i>a-yâuk-ṣ-us</i>	201
	<i>sa</i>	<i>diś</i>	<i>a-dik-ṣ-a-t</i>	<i>a-dik-ṣ-a-n</i>	199
	<i>iṣ</i>	<i>vad</i>	<i>a-vad-ī-t</i>	<i>a-vad-iṣ-us</i>	200
	<i>siṣ</i>	<i>snā</i>	<i>a-snā-sī-t</i>	<i>a-snā-siṣ-us</i>	201

C.8.2. Thematic aorist

The thematic aorist is formed by this formula:

augment + zero-grade root + *a* + ending

Here are three examples for the 3. sg.:

thematic aorist	✓	augm.	z.g. root	them. vow.	end.
	<i>tuṣ</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>tuṣ</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>t</i>
	<i>yuj</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>yuj</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>t</i>
	<i>lubh</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>lubh</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>t</i>

and a paradigm:

✓ <i>lubh</i> ← ie. * <i>leubh</i> , aorist parasmâipada			
sg.	dual		pl.
1	<i>a-lubh-a-m</i>	<i>a-lubh-ā-va</i>	<i>a-lubh-ā-ma</i>
2	<i>a-lubh-a-s</i>	<i>a-lubh-a-tam</i>	<i>a-lubh-a-ta</i>
3	<i>a-lubh-a-t</i>	<i>a-lubh-a-tām</i>	<i>a-lubh-a-n</i>

The endings are exactly the thematic secondary parasmâipada ones (p. 143).

C.8.3. Reduplicated aorist

The reduplicated aorist is formed by this formula:

augment + reduplicated zero-grade root + *a* + ending

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Consider these three examples for the 3. sg.:

reduplicated aorist	√ in f.g.	augm.	redupl.	root	them. vow.	end.
	<i>kath</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>ca</i>	<i>kath</i> (f.g. !)	<i>a</i>	<i>t</i>
	<i>pat</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>pa</i>	<i>pt</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>t</i>
	<i>vac</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>va</i>	<i>uc</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>t</i>

where the last aorist is *a-vôc-a-t* (**MVS**).

Here the parasmâipada paradigm for *muc* that shows difficult lengthening of the reduplication syllable:

√ <i>muc</i> , aorist parasmâipada			
	sg.	dual	pl.
1	<i>a-mū-muc-a-m</i>	<i>a-mū-muc-ā-va</i>	<i>a-mū-muc-ā-ma</i>
2	<i>a-mū-muc-a-s</i>	<i>a-mū-muc-a-tam</i>	<i>a-mū-muc-a-ta</i>
3	<i>a-mū-muc-a-t</i>	<i>a-mū-muc-a-tām</i>	<i>a-mū-muc-a-n</i>

In the following ātmanêpada paradigm for *vac*, we have the thematic secondary ātmanêpada endings (p. 144).

√ <i>vac</i> , aorist ātmanêpada			
	sg.	dual	pl.
1	<i>a-vôc-ê</i>	<i>a-vôc-ā-vahi</i>	<i>a-vôc-ā-mahi</i>
2	<i>a-vôc-a-thās</i>	<i>a-vôc-êthām</i>	<i>a-vôc-a-dhvam</i>
3	<i>a-vôc-a-ta</i>	<i>a-vôc-êtām</i>	<i>a-vôc-a-n-ta</i>

You need to replace *vôc* by *mū-muc* if you want to know the ātmanêpada for *muc*.

C.8.4. Root aorist

The root aorist obeys the simple formula of

augment + zero-grade or full-grade root + ending

Again three examples for the 3. sg.:

root aorist	√	augm.	root	end.
	<i>dā</i> (f.g. !)	<i>a</i>	<i>dā</i>	<i>t</i>
	<i>bhū</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>bhū</i>	<i>t</i>
	<i>sthā</i> (f.g. !)	<i>a</i>	<i>sthā</i>	<i>t</i>

We begin with the parasmâipada for *dā*:

$\sqrt{d\bar{a}}$, aorist parasmâipada			
	sg.	dual	pl.
1	<i>a-dā-m</i>	<i>a-dā-va</i>	<i>a-dā-ma</i>
2	<i>a-dā-s</i>	<i>a-dā-tam</i>	<i>a-dā-ta</i>
3	<i>a-dā-t</i>	<i>a-dā-tām</i>	<i>a-d-us</i>

As observed, on p. 147, secondary athematic endings often have the variant *us* in 3. pers. pl.. This is the case here, also. After all *dā*, **dā-us* and hence **dôs* would have been unrecognizable. Instead, we find *a-d-us*.

Consider, now, the root aorist for *bhū*. Before vowel endings (*am* and *an*, respectively, see 147), **V**+**hV** would lead us to expect *bhuv*, but not the attested *bhūv*:

$\sqrt{bhū}$, aorist parasmâipada			
	sg.	dual	pl.
1	<i>a-bhūv-am</i>	<i>a-bhū-va</i>	<i>a-bhū-ma</i>
2	<i>a-bhū-s</i>	<i>a-bhū-tam</i>	<i>a-bhū-ta</i>
3	<i>a-bhū-t</i>	<i>a-bhū-tām</i>	<i>a-bhūv-an</i>

C.8.5. Sigmatic aorist with *sa*

There are four sigmatic aorists. We begin with the *sa*-aorist. It is formed by

augment + zero-grade root + *s* + *a* + ending

For example, **SIB** yields

<i>sa</i> -aorist	$\sqrt{\quad}$	augm.	root	infix	them. vow.	end.
	<i>diś</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>dik</i>	<i>ṣ</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>t</i>
	<i>dviṣ</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>dvik</i>	<i>ṣ</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>t</i>
	<i>viś</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>vik</i>	<i>ṣ</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>t</i>

The endings are again the expected ones. The parasmâipada paradigm for *diś* is given by

$\sqrt{diś}$, aorist parasmâipada			
	sg.	dual	pl.
1	<i>a-dik-ṣ-a-m</i>	<i>a-dik-ṣ-ā-va</i>	<i>a-dik-ṣ-ā-ma</i>
2	<i>a-dik-ṣ-a-s</i>	<i>a-dik-ṣ-a-tam</i>	<i>a-dik-ṣ-a-ta</i>
3	<i>a-dik-ṣ-a-t</i>	<i>a-dik-ṣ-a-tām</i>	<i>a-dik-ṣ-a-n</i>

C.8.6. Sigmatic aorist with *iṣ*

We now turn to the *iṣ*-aorist which is not thematic:

augment + full-grade root + *iṣ* + ending

Originally, *iṣ* has been used in *seṭ* verbs, but this formation spread to other verbs, similar to the future tense. For example,

<i>iṣ</i> -aorist	√	augm.	root	infix	end.
	<i>aś</i> (ātm.)	<i>a</i>	<i>aś</i>	<i>iṣ</i>	<i>ṭa</i>
	<i>kamp</i> (ātm.)	<i>a</i>	<i>kamp</i>	<i>iṣ</i>	<i>ṭa</i>
	<i>kṛt</i> (par.)	<i>a</i>	<i>kart</i>	<i>ī</i>	<i>t</i>
	<i>granth</i> (par.)	<i>a</i>	<i>granth</i>	<i>ī</i>	<i>t</i>
	<i>tan</i> (par.)	<i>a</i>	<i>tan</i>	<i>ī</i>	<i>t</i>
	<i>mud</i> (ātm.)	<i>a</i>	<i>môd</i>	<i>iṣ</i>	<i>ṭa</i>
	<i>rud</i> (par.)	<i>a</i>	<i>rôd</i>	<i>ī</i>	<i>t</i>

where the first entry is *āśiṣṭa*.

The *iṣ*-aorist has a peculiar 2. sg.. Consider, for example,

√ <i>budh</i> , aorist parasmâipada			
	sg.	dual	pl.
1	<i>a-bôdh-iṣ-am</i>	<i>a-bôdh-iṣ-va</i>	<i>a-bôdh-iṣ-ma</i>
2	<i>a-bôdh-ī-s</i> (1)	<i>a-bôdh-iṣ-ṭam</i> (3)	<i>a-bôdh-iṣ-ṭa</i> (3)
3	<i>a-bôdh-ī-t</i> (2)	<i>a-bôdh-iṣ-ṭām</i> (3)	<i>a-bôdh-iṣ-us</i> (4)

In general, the endings are the athematic secondary ones. Note, however:

1. *a-bôdh-ī-s* is best explained by *a-bôdh-is-s* plus compensatory lengthening of *i* for simplified *ss* → *s*.
2. Building on the 2. sg., the 3. sg. *a-bôdh-ī-t* results from leveling:

	<i>a-bôdh-iṣ-ṭ</i>	
influenced by	<i>a-bôdh-ī-s</i>	with <i>ī</i> by secondary ending
turns into	<i>a-bôdh-ī-t</i>	with <i>ī</i>

These two singular forms with “*ī* plus secondary ending” are also used in the two remaining aorists (see the two following subsections).

3. **CerD**
4. The alternative ending *us* (instead of *(a)n*) is used in the 3. pl.

C.8.7. Sigmatic aorist with *siṣ*

A few 2. class roots ending in \bar{a} use the *siṣ*-aorist and obey this formula:

$$\text{augment} + \text{root} + \text{siṣ} + \text{ending}$$

We have these examples:

<i>siṣ</i> -aorist	✓	augm.	root	infix	end.
$p\bar{a}$		a	$p\bar{a}$	$s\bar{i}$	t
$y\bar{a}$		a	$y\bar{a}$	$s\bar{i}$	t
$sn\bar{a}$		a	$sn\bar{a}$	$s\bar{i}$	t

The infix *siṣ* is not clearly visible in these sg. forms. Compare, however, the *budh* paradigm above. Here, then, $s\bar{i}$ (rather than \bar{i}) plus par. secondary ending lead to forms like $a-y\bar{a}-s\bar{i}-t$ where we might expect $*a-y\bar{a}-siṣ-t$. Perhaps, we have compensatory lengthening in $a-y\bar{a}-s\bar{i}-t$? With these remarks, the paradigm for $y\bar{a}$ is transparent:

$\sqrt{y\bar{a}}$, aorist parasmaipada			
	sg.	dual	pl.
1	$a-y\bar{a}-siṣ-am$	$a-y\bar{a}-siṣ-va$	$a-y\bar{a}-siṣ-ma$
2	$a-y\bar{a}-s\bar{i}-s$	$a-y\bar{a}-siṣ-ṭam$	$a-y\bar{a}-siṣ-ṭa$
3	$a-y\bar{a}-s\bar{i}-t$	$a-y\bar{a}-siṣ-ṭām$	$a-y\bar{a}-siṣ-us$

C.8.8. Sigmatic aorist with *s*

Finally, we turn to the *s*-aorist which is not thematic:

$$\text{augment} + \text{lengthened root} + s + \text{ending}$$

We have these examples:

<i>s</i> -aorist	✓	augm.	root	infix	end.
$kṛ$		a	$kār$	$ṣ$ (2)	us
$bandh$ (f.g.)		a	$bhānt$ (4)	s	us
$bhaj$ (f.g.)		a	$bhāk$ (1)	$ṣ$ (2)	us
tap (f.g.)		a	$tāp$	s	us
yuj		a	$yâuk$ (1)	$ṣ$ (2)	us
vas (f.g.)		a	$vāt$ (3)	s	us
vah (f.g.)		a	$vāk$ (1)	$ṣ$ (2)	us
$śap$ (f.g.)		a	$śāp$	s	us

1. s is voiceless so that we have expected backward assimilation. k in $a-vāk-ṣ-us$ is due to ie. $*vegh$.

C. Grammar: verbal system

2. **RUKI**

3. **SIB**, similar to future tense *vat-sy-a-ti*.

4. *a-bhānt-s-us* is explained along the same lines as *bhôt-sy-ati* (see p. 38).

In the above table, we have used the 3. pl. forms rather than the 3. sg. ones. Contrasting these forms yields

s-aorist	√	3. sg.	3. pl.
	<i>kṛ</i>	<i>a-kār-ṣi-t</i>	<i>a-kār-ṣ-us</i>
	<i>bandh</i> (f.g.)	<i>a-bhānt-si-t</i>	<i>a-bhānt-s-us</i>
	<i>bhāj</i> (f.g.)	<i>a-bhāk-ṣi-t</i>	<i>a-bhāk-ṣ-us</i>
	<i>tap</i> (f.g.)	<i>a-tāp-si-t</i>	<i>a-tāp-s-us</i>
	<i>yuj</i>	<i>a-yâuk-ṣi-t</i>	<i>a-yâuk-ṣ-us</i>
	<i>vas</i> (f.g.)	<i>a-vāt-si-t</i>	<i>a-vāt-s-us</i>
	<i>vah</i> (f.g.)	<i>a-vāk-ṣi-t</i>	<i>a-vāk-ṣ-us</i>
	<i>śap</i> (f.g.)	<i>a-śāp-si-t</i>	<i>a-śāp-s-us</i>

The difference between sg. and pl. is explained by the *iṣ-* and *siṣ-*aorists presented above. The speakers came to consider *i* as a possible “thematic vowel” for the two sg. forms and applied them here, were *a-yâuk-ṣ-t* would have produced **a-yâuk* by **CCI**.

The parasmâipada paradigm for *kṛ* is now easy:

√ <i>kṛ</i> , aorist parasmâipada			
	sg.	dual	pl.
1	<i>a-kār-ṣ-am</i>	<i>a-kār-ṣ-va</i>	<i>a-kār-ṣ-ma</i>
2	<i>a-kār-ṣi-s</i>	<i>a-kār-ṣ-ṭam</i>	<i>a-kār-ṣ-ṭa</i>
3	<i>a-kār-ṣi-t</i>	<i>a-kār-ṣ-ṭām</i>	<i>a-kār-ṣ-us</i>

The ātmanêpada forms for *śap* are

√ <i>śap</i> , aorist ātmanêpada			
	sg.	dual	pl.
1	<i>a-śap-s-i</i>	<i>a-śap-s-vahi</i>	<i>a-śap-s-mahi</i>
2	<i>a-śap-thās</i> (1)	<i>a-śap-s-āthām</i>	<i>a-śap-dhvam</i> (1)
3	<i>a-śap-ta</i> (1)	<i>a-śap-s-ātām</i>	<i>a-śap-s-a-ta</i> (2)

1. **DzD** (third line)

2. The athematic ending 3. pl. is regularly *a-ta* from ie. *m̐-to* (or later analogy from similar cases).

D. Grammar: nouns and adverbs

D.1. Nouns: categories

D.1.1. Distribution of weak and strong forms

Nouns whose stem ends in a consonant often distinguish between weak and strong forms. Strong forms typically take the full grade and weak forms the zero grade. In particular, masculine (m.) and feminine (f.) nouns show strong forms in nominative (nom.), vocative (voc.), and accusative (acc.) but not in acc. pl. These three cases are sometimes abbreviated by NVA. Neuter (n.) nouns exhibit strong forms in the pl. forms of NVA cases. All other forms are weak. In fig. D.1 the strong forms are marked.

D.1.2. Characteristics of thematic and athematic nouns

Roughly speaking, thematic and athematic nouns differ in these respects:

	stem ends in	weak/strong	acc. pl. m.	acc. pl. f.	gen. pl.
athem. nouns	a consonant	yes	<i>as</i>	<i>as</i>	<i>ām</i>
them. nouns	a vowel <i>V</i>	no	$\bar{V}n$ (1)	$\bar{V}s$	$\bar{V}n\bar{a}m$ (2)

1. $\bar{V}n \leftarrow Vns$ (**CpLs**)
2. $\bar{V}n\bar{a}m \leftarrow VHn\bar{o}m$ (**Lar** $_V$)

It also seems that the feminine singular endings are characterized by

	dative	abl./gen.	locative
athem. nouns	\hat{e}	<i>as</i>	<i>i</i>
them. nouns	$\hat{a}i \leftarrow a + \hat{e}$	$\bar{a}s \leftarrow a + as$	$\bar{a}m$

D.1.3. Athematic nouns

We have quite a few classes of nouns whose stem end in consonants.

- ◇ one stem, such as *marut* (“wind”) (no weak-strong alternation)
- ◇ stems on *mant*, *vant*, *ant*, such as *bala-vant* (“he who has strength”)
- ◇ *an*-stems, such as *rāj-an* (“king”)
- ◇ *in*-stems, such as *yôg-in* (“yogi”) (no weak-strong alternation)
- ◇ stems in long diphthongs, such as *rāy* (“wealth”) and *glāv* (“moon”)

masculine / feminine			
	sing.	dual	plural
nominative			
vocative			
accusative			
...			

neuter			
	sing.	dual	plural
nominative			
vocative			
accusative			
...			

Figure D.1.: Strong forms in consonant-final nouns

D.1.4. Thematic nouns

We have many classes of nouns whose stem ends in vowels or, very rarely, diphthongs. Most of them do not show any weak-strong alternation. Remember the convention for citing nouns given in subsection A.6, pp. 7.

- ◇ *a*-stems
 - *dēva*
 - *phalam*
- ◇ *ā*-stems such as *dēvā*
- ◇ *i*-stems
 - m., such as *muni*
 - f., such as *mati*
- ◇ *u*-stems
 - m., such as *guru*
 - f., such as *dhēnu*
- ◇ *ī*-stems such as *nadī*
- ◇ *ū*-stems such as *camū*

D.1.5. In-between nouns

r-stems, such as

- ◇ m. agent nouns, such as *nê-tar* (“leader”)
- ◇ kinship nouns, such as *pitar* (“father”) or *mātar* (“mother”)

have characteristics of both athematic and thematic nouns:

	stem ends in	weak/strong	acc. pl. m.	acc. pl. f.	gen. pl.
athem. nouns	<i>pitar</i>	yes			
them. nouns	<i>pitṛ</i>		<i>pitṛn</i>	<i>mātṛs</i>	<i>pitṛṇām</i>

D.2. Nouns: endings

D.2.1. A few general remarks

Endings found in all declensions

In all declensions, we find

D. Grammar: nouns and adverbs

any stem	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.			
	voc.			
	acc.			
	instr.		<i>-bhyām</i>	
	dat.		<i>-bhyām</i>	<i>-bhyas</i>
	abl.		<i>-bhyām</i>	<i>-bhyas</i>
	gen.		<i>-ôś</i>	<i>-ām</i>
	loc.		<i>-ôś</i>	<i>-su</i>

In the following subsections, we point to similarities found across declensions. Thus prepared, we go into individual declensions.

Neutral endings NVA

All n. endings nom., voc., and acc. (NVA) are the same for sg., the same for dual, and the same for pl., respectively. For example, we have

<i>jagat</i> n. (“world”)	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>jagat</i>	<i>jagat-ī</i> (1)	<i>jagant-i</i>
	voc.	<i>jagat</i>	<i>jagat-ī</i>	<i>jagant-i</i>
	acc.	<i>jagat</i>	<i>jagat-ī</i>	<i>jagant-i</i>
	instr.	<i>jagat-ā</i>	<i>jagad-bhyām</i>	<i>jagad-bhis</i>

or

<i>vanam</i> (“forest”)	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>van-a-m</i>	<i>van-ê</i> (1)	<i>van-āni</i>
	voc.	<i>van-a-m</i>	<i>van-ê</i>	<i>van-āni</i>
	acc.	<i>van-a-m</i>	<i>van-ê</i>	<i>van-āni</i>
	instr.	<i>van-āya</i>	<i>van-ā-bhyām</i>	<i>vanâis</i>

1. \bar{i} from ie. dual ending ih_2 is typical for dual NVA. Compare *jagatī* with *vanê* ← *vana-ī* (MVS).

s in masculine and feminine nominative singular

Originally, *s* was the ie. marker for m. and f. nom. sg.. When this *s* was joined to a final consonant, we often observe compensatory lengthening (CpLs). Note that n. sg. had no special ending. Thus, the following examples concern only m. and f. nouns:

$$\begin{aligned}
 *bala-vant-s &\rightarrow *bala-vann-s \rightarrow \text{oi. } bala-vān \\
 *su-manas-s &\rightarrow \text{oi. } su-manās \\
 *gir-s &\rightarrow \text{oi. } gīr
 \end{aligned}$$

Unfortunately, this model does not always work:

<i>*gach-ant-s</i>	→	oi. <i>gach-an</i> (CCI)
<i>*rāj-an-s</i>	→	oi. <i>rājā</i>
<i>*yôg-in-s</i>	→	oi. <i>yôgī</i>

Nominative and vocative plural

In all declensions, the voc. pl. is the same as the nom. pl..

D.2.2. Locative singular

Locative singular with *i*

Across many declensions, both thematic and athematic, the loc. sg. is expressed by *i* (the here-and-now particle). For example, we have

- ◇ stem *tvad* pers. pronoun (“you”) with loc. sg. *tvayī*
- ◇ stem *mad* pers. pronoun (“I”) with loc. sg. *mayī*
- ◇ (stem) *manas* n. (“mind”) with loc. sg. *manas-i* where
 - “stem” indicates that *manas* is the basis from which (many) other forms are derived and,
 - since “stem” is put in brackets, *manas* is, at the same time, the nom. sg..
- ◇ (stem) *marut* m. (“wind”) with loc. sg. *marut-i*
- ◇ stem *rāj-an* m. (“king”) with loc. sg. *rāj-ñ-i* or *rāj-an-i*
- ◇ stem *hast-in* m. (“elephant”) with loc. sg. *hast-in-i*

In the a-declension m. or n., we apply **MVS** and find

- ◇ *dêv-a* (“god”) with loc. sg. *dêv-ê* ← **dêv-a-i*
- ◇ *van-a-m* (“forest”) with loc. sg. *van-ê* ← **van-a-i*

Locative singular with *âu*

âu occurs less often. Consider the m. nouns

- ◇ stem *gur-u* m. (“teacher”) with loc. sg. *gur-âu*
- ◇ stem *mat-i* f. (“mind”) with loc. sg. *mat-âu* (and also with *-y-ām*)
- ◇ stem *mun-i* m. (“wise man”) with loc. sg. *mun-âu*
- ◇ stem *pat-i* m. (“husband”) with loc. sg. *pat-y-âu*

Locative singular with *ām*

Feminine nouns tend to exhibit loc. ending *ām*:

- ◇ (stem) *nad-ī* (“river”) with loc. sg. *nad-y-ām*
- ◇ (stem) *lat-ā* (“vine”) with loc. sg. *lat-ā-y-ām*
- ◇ stem *vadh-ū* (“bride”) with loc. sg. *vadh-v-ām*

Some f. nouns on *i* and *u* take the ending from the feminine in long vowels, i.e., from *vadh-ū*/*nad-ī*:

- ◇ (stem) *dhên-u* f. (“cow”) with loc. sg. *dhên-v-ām*
- ◇ (stem) *mat-i* f. (“mind”) with loc. sg. *mat-y-ām*

or from the corresponding m. nouns in short vowels, i.e., from *gur-u*/*mun-i*:

- ◇ (stem) *dhên-u* f. (“cow”) with loc. sg. *dhên-âu*
- ◇ (stem) *mat-i* f. (“mind”) with loc. sg. *mat-âu*

D.2.3. Locative pl. with *su*

The *su*-locative is to be found nearly everywhere and often gives rise to **RUKI**:

- ◇ stem *gur-u* m. (“teacher”) with loc. pl. *gur-u-ṣu*
- ◇ stem *tvad* pers. pronoun (“you”) with loc. pl. *yusmā-su*
- ◇ (stem) *nad-ī* (“river”) with loc. pl. *nad-ī-ṣu*
- ◇ stem *pat-i* m. (“husband”) with loc. pl. *pat-i-ṣu*
- ◇ stem *mat-i* f. (“mind”) with loc. pl. *mat-i-ṣu*
- ◇ stem *mad* pers. pronoun (“I”) with loc. pl. *asmā-su*
- ◇ (stem) *manas* n. (“mind”) with loc. pl. *manas-su*/*manaḥ-su*
- ◇ (stem) *marut* m. (“wind”) with loc. pl. *marut-su*
- ◇ stem *mun-i* m. (“wise man”) with loc. pl. *mun-i-ṣu*
- ◇ stem *rāj-an* m. (“king”) with loc. pl. *rāj-a-su*
- ◇ (stem) *lat-ā* (“vine”) with loc. pl. *lat-ā-su*
- ◇ stem *vadh-ū* (“bride”) with loc. pl. *vadh-ū-ṣu*
- ◇ stem *hast-in* m. (“elephant”) with loc. pl. *hast-i-ṣu*

In the a-declension m. or n., we find *ê* instead of thematic *a*:

- ◇ *dêv-a* (“god”) with loc. pl. *dêv-ê-ṣu*
- ◇ *van-a-m* (“forest”) with loc. pl. *van-ê-ṣu*

D.2.4. Genitive plural

There two different gen. forms:

- ◇ $\bar{a}m$ for athematic nouns
- ◇ $n\bar{a}m$ for thematic nouns including those on \bar{r} . Since $n\bar{a}m$ lengthens the thematic vowels, $n\bar{a}m$ may go back to ie . $Hn\bar{o}m$ (**Lar** $_V$).

Thus, we have the athematic gen. plurals:

- ◇ (stem) *manas* n. (“mind”) with gen. pl. *manas-ā̄m*
- ◇ (stem) *marut* m. (“wind”) with gen. pl. *marut-ā̄m*
- ◇ stem *rāj-an* m. (“king”) with gen. pl. *rāj-ñ-ā̄m* with forward assimilation
- ◇ stem *hast-in* m. (“elephant”) with gen. pl. *hast-in-ā̄m*

and the thematic gen. plurals

- ◇ stem *gur-u* m. (“teacher”) with gen. pl. *gur-ū-nā̄m*
- ◇ stem *dēv-a* (“god”) with gen. pl. *dēv-ā-nā̄m*
- ◇ (stem) *nad-ī* (“river”) with gen. pl. *nad-ī-nā̄m* (where \bar{i} is long anyway)
- ◇ stem *pat-i* m. (“husband”) with gen. pl. *pat-ī-nā̄m*
- ◇ stem *mat-i* f. (“mind”) with gen. pl. *mat-ī-nā̄m*
- ◇ stem *mun-i* m. (“wise man”) with gen. pl. *mun-ī-nā̄m*
- ◇ (stem) *lat-ā* (“vine”) with gen. pl. *lat-ā-nā̄m* (where \bar{a} is long anyway)
- ◇ stem *vadh-ū* (“bride”) with gen. pl. *vadh-ū-nā̄m* (where \bar{u} is long anyway)
- ◇ *van-a-m* (“forest”) with gen. pl. *van-ā-nā̄m*

Pronouns are often different:

- ◇ stem *tad* 3. pers. pronoun (“he, she, that”) with gen. pl.
 - *têṣā̄m* n.
 - *têṣā̄m* m. und n.
- ◇ stem *tvad* pers. pronoun (“you”) with gen. pl. *yusmā-kam*
- ◇ stem *mad* pers. pronoun (“I”) with gen. pl. *asmā-kam*

D.2.5. Accusatives with *m*

For the m. nouns, observe

	singular		plural	
	thematic	athematic	thematic	athematic
nom.	*-o-s → -a-s	*-s → ∅	*-o-es → *-ōs → -ās	*-es → -as
example	<i>dêv-a-s</i> (1)	<i>marut</i> (1)	<i>dêv-ās</i> (3)	<i>marut-as</i> (3)
acc.	*-o-m → -a-m	analogy	*-ons → -ān (4)	*-ns → -as
example	<i>dêv-a-m</i> (2)	<i>marut-am</i> (2)	<i>dêv-ān</i> (4)	<i>marut-as</i> (4)

- Nom. sg. of both m. (here) and f. are characterized by *s* which
 - ◇ is clearly seen in thematic nouns such as *dêv-a-s*, but
 - ◇ is often lost in athematic nouns due to **CCl**, for example *marut-s* → *marut*
- Acc. sg. m. (here) and f. are characterized by *m*. *marutam* borrows thematic vowel in order to avoid unrecognizable **maruta* ← *marut_m*. Just consider an analogy such as

<i>vāt-a-s</i> (“wind”)	with acc. sg.:	<i>vāt-am</i>
just as		
<i>marut</i> (“wind”)	with acc. sg.:	<i>marut-am</i>

- The nom. pl. forms can be explained by

$$\begin{array}{llllll}
 \textit{marut-as} & \leftarrow & \text{stem} & + & \text{ie. pl. marker } e & + & \text{ie. nom. marker } s \\
 \textit{dêv-ās} & \leftarrow & \text{stem} + \text{ie. them. } o & + & \text{ie. pl. marker } e & + & \text{ie. nom. marker } s
 \end{array}$$

- The acc. pl. forms are derived by

$$\begin{array}{llllll}
 \textit{marut-as} & \leftarrow & \text{stem} & + & \text{ie. acc. marker } \underset{\circ}{n} & + & \text{ie. pl. marker } s \\
 \textit{dêv-ān} & \leftarrow & \text{stem} + \text{ie. them. } o & + & \text{ie. acc. marker } n & + & \text{ie. pl. marker } s
 \end{array}$$

where *-ons → -ān follows from **CpLs**. Note that the *s* is still present in the sandhi rule described on p. 40.

D.3. Nouns: weak and strong forms**D.3.1. Introductory remark and overview**

Most nouns that we now look at differentiate between strong and weak forms. We deal with the following groups of nouns:

- ◇ one-stem nouns like *marut* (“wind”), *samrāj* (“ruler”), *vāc* (“voice, word”), *kāma-duh* (“wish-granting cow”), and *a-budh* (“fool”) in the following subsection
- ◇ stems on *ant* like *bala-vant* (“he who has strength”), *mahant* (“great”), *bhar-a-nt* (a pres. part.), *jagat* (“world”), and *bhav-ant* (“your honor”) on pp. 217
- ◇ *an*-stems like m. *rāj-an* (“king”), n. *nām-an* (“name”), and n. *karm-an* (“deed”) on pp. 225
- ◇ *in*-stems like *yôg-in* (“yogi”) and *tapas-vin* (“ascetic”) on pp. 229
- ◇ m. nouns like *nê-tar* (“leader”) on pp. 231
- ◇ kinship nouns like *pitar* (“father”) and *mātar* (“mother”) on pp. 232
- ◇ stems in long diphthongs like *rāy* (“wealth”) and *glāv* (“moon”) on pp. 234
- ◇ f. *ī-* and *ū-* stems like *nadī* (“river”), *vadhū* (“bride”), *bhū* (“earth”), *dhī* (“intellect”), and *strī* (“woman”) together with the two m. (!) compounds *su-dhī* (“intelligent”) and *prati-bhū* (“guarantor”) on pp. 235
- ◇ *i-* and *u-*stems like m. *muni* (“wise man”), f. *mati* (“mind”), m. *guru* (“teacher”), f. *dhēnu* (“cow”), n. *madh-u* (“honey”) and m. *pati* (“husband”) on pp. 239
- ◇ n. *ṛ*-stems like *gant-ṛ* on pp. 244

D.3.2. One stem, only

marut

Some nouns have one stem only, i.e., they do distinguish strong and weak forms. An example is provided by the word for “wind”:

<i>marut</i>	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>marut</i> (1)	<i>marut-âu</i> (9)	<i>marut-as</i> (6, 7)
	voc.	<i>marut</i> (2)	<i>marut-âu</i> (9)	<i>marut-as</i> (6, 7)
	acc.	<i>marut-am</i> (3)	<i>marut-âu</i> (9)	<i>marut-as</i> (6, 7)
	instr.	<i>marut-ā</i> (4)	<i>marud-bhyām</i> (10, 11)	<i>marud-bhis</i> (10, 12)
	dat.	<i>marut-ê</i> (5)	<i>marud-bhyām</i> (10, 11)	<i>marud-bhyas</i> (10, 11)
	abl.	<i>marut-as</i> (6)	<i>marud-bhyām</i> (10, 11)	<i>marud-bhyas</i> (10, 11)
	gen.	<i>marut-as</i> (6)	<i>marut-ôs</i> (11)	<i>marut-ām</i> (11)
	loc.	<i>marut-i</i> (8)	<i>marut-ôs</i> (11)	<i>marut-su</i> (11)

1. Nom. sg., m. and f., are usually characterized by *s*. Here, we have *marut-s* → *marut* due to **CCI**.
2. As is the case here, the voc. often equals the stem.

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3. The acc. sg. marker is *m* in many declensions. Here, *a* is borrowed from thematic declensions in order to avoid *marut-a*.
4. \bar{a} is the instr. sg. marker in many other declensions, too.
5. \hat{e} is the instr. sg. marker in many other declensions, too.
6. We find *as* in
 - ◇ abl. and gen. sg. and
 - ◇ NVA pl.
 This is often the case in athematic declensions, m. (as here) and f..
7. For the pl. *marut-as* forms, see pp. 210.
8. *i* is the typical loc. sg. marker in athematic declensions for all three genders.
9. $\hat{a}u$ is the typical ending for NVA dual in athematic declensions for m. and f.. It also shows in m. *a*-declension (*dêv-âu*) and most personal pronouns like *t-âu*, *sarv-âu*.
10. *t* is made voiced before voiced *b* in some dual and pl. cases.
11. Some forms shown in *marut* are seen in every declension whatsoever (p. 205):
 - ◇ dual instr. through abl. *bhyām*
 - ◇ dual gen. and loc. *ôś*
 - ◇ pl. dat. and abl. *bhyas*
 - ◇ pl. gen. $\bar{a}m$ (for athematic nouns, while $n\bar{a}m$ is seen in thematic ones as in *dêvānām*)
 - ◇ pl. loc. *su*
12. *bhis* is very typical for instr. pl. for any kind of declensions. (However, m. and n. *a*-declension use $\hat{a}is$ instead, see *dêv-âis*, *van-âis*. The same holds for most personal pronouns where *t-âis*, *sarv-âis* are both m. and n..)

The *marut* pattern holds for m. and f. nouns or adjectives, such as

	stem	nom. sg.	instr. pl.	translation
like <i>marut</i>	<i>paśu-gup</i>	<i>paśu-gup</i>	<i>paśu-gub-bhis</i>	protector of animals
	<i>sarīt</i>	<i>sarīt</i>	<i>sarid-bhis</i>	river
	<i>sarva-śak</i>	<i>sarva-śak</i>	<i>sarva-śag-bhis</i>	all-rounder

manas

Similar to *marut* are one-stem neuter nouns like *manas* or *havis*.

<i>manas</i> n.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>manas</i> (1)	<i>manas-ī</i> (2)	<i>manāṃs-i</i> (3)
	voc.	<i>manas</i> (1)	<i>manas-ī</i> (2)	<i>manāṃs-i</i> (3)
	acc.	<i>manas</i> (1)	<i>manas-ī</i> (2)	<i>manāṃs-i</i> (3)
	instr.	<i>manas-ā</i> (2)	<i>mano-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>mano-bhis</i> (4)
	dat.	<i>manas-ê</i> (2)	<i>mano-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>mano-bhyas</i> (4)
	abl.	<i>manas-as</i> (2)	<i>mano-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>mano-bhyas</i> (4)
	gen.	<i>manas-as</i> (2)	<i>manas-ôś</i> (2)	<i>manas-ām</i> (2)
	loc.	<i>manas-i</i> (2)	<i>manas-ôś</i> (2)	<i>manas-su/manaḥ-su</i> (5)

1. The stem *manas* serves as NVA singular.
2. Building on the stem, many forms follow the *marut* pattern (p. 211).
3. NVA pl. is special.
4. The sandhi rule applied is similar to **CpLz**, but note that the change is not a word-final one.
5. Two sandhi variants.

With *su* prefixed, one obtains the bahuvrīhi *su-manas* (“good-hearted man/woman”). Most endings are the same, but some acknowledge male/female, rather than neuter endings:

<i>su-manas</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>su-manās</i> (1)	<i>su-manas-âu</i> (2)	<i>su-manas-as</i> (2)
	voc.	<i>su-manas</i> (2)	<i>su-manas-âu</i> (2)	<i>su-manas-as</i> (2)
	acc.	<i>su-manas-am</i> (2)	<i>su-manas-âu</i> (2)	<i>su-manas-as</i> (2)
	instr.	<i>su-manas-ā</i> (3)	<i>su-mano-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>su-mano-bhis</i> (3)

1. Nom. sg. *su-manās* is from *su-manas-s* by **CpLs**.
2. These endings are just like in *marut*.
3. Instrumental and the other endings do not differ from the neuter endings in *manas*.

Now, turn to *havis*.

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<i>havis</i> n.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>havis</i> (1)	<i>haviṣ-ī</i> (2)	<i>haviṃṣ-i</i> (3)
	voc.	<i>havis</i> (1)	<i>haviṣ-ī</i> (2)	<i>haviṃṣ-i</i> (3)
	acc.	<i>havis</i> (1)	<i>haviṣ-ī</i> (2)	<i>haviṃṣ-i</i> (3)
	instr.	<i>haviṣ-ā</i> (2)	<i>haviṣ-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>haviṣ-bhis</i> (4)
	dat.	<i>haviṣ-ê</i> (2)	<i>haviṣ-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>haviṣ-bhyas</i> (4)
	abl.	<i>haviṣ-as</i> (2)	<i>haviṣ-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>haviṣ-bhyas</i> (4)
	gen.	<i>haviṣ-as</i> (2)	<i>haviṣ-ôṣ</i> (2)	<i>haviṣ-ām</i> (2)
	loc.	<i>haviṣ-i</i> (2)	<i>haviṣ-ôṣ</i> (2)	<i>haviṣ-su/haviḥ-su</i> (5)

1. The stem *havis* serves as NVA singular.
2. Building on the stem, many forms follow the *marut* pattern (p. 211). **RUKI**.
3. NVA pl. is special, compare *manāṃṣ-i*. **RUKI**
4. **Vis**
5. Two sandhi variants.

Consider, finally, *āyus*:

<i>āyus</i> n.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>āyus</i> (1)	<i>āyuṣ-ī</i> (2)	<i>āyūṃṣ-i</i> (3)
	voc.	<i>āyus</i> (1)	<i>āyuṣ-ī</i> (2)	<i>āyūṃṣ-i</i> (3)
	acc.	<i>āyus</i> (1)	<i>āyuṣ-ī</i> (2)	<i>āyūṃṣ-i</i> (3)
	instr.	<i>āyuṣ-ā</i> (2)	<i>āyur-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>āyur-bhis</i> (4)
	dat.	<i>āyuṣ-ê</i> (2)	<i>āyur-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>āyur-bhyas</i> (4)
	abl.	<i>āyuṣ-as</i> (2)	<i>āyur-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>āyur-bhyas</i> (4)
	gen.	<i>āyuṣ-as</i> (2)	<i>āyuṣ-ôṣ</i> (2)	<i>āyuṣ-ām</i> (2)
	loc.	<i>haviṣ-i</i> (2)	<i>āyuṣ-ôṣ</i> (2)	<i>āyuh-su</i>

1. The stem *āyus* serves as NVA singular.
2. Most forms follow the *havis* pattern above.
3. NVA pl. is special, compare *haviṃṣ-i*.
4. **Vis**

Restrictions on word-final consonants (AFP)

According to **AFP** (pp. 45), the following word-final consonants are disallowed:

- ◇ voiced stops
- ◇ aspirated stops
- ◇ palatals *c* (a stop) and *ś*
- ◇ aspirate *h*

Mostly, the “closest” unvoiced and unaspirated stop is taken instead. Since *c* is disallowed, it is changed into *k* or *t* instead, and so are *j*, *ś*, and *h*. Taking these rules into account, we obtain paradigms close to the one for *marut*. We present *samrāj* m. (“ruler”) and *vāc* f. (“voice, word”).

For *samrāj*, we find

<i>samrāj</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>samrāt</i> (2)	<i>samrāj-âu</i> (1)	<i>samrāj-as</i> (1)
	voc.	<i>samrāt</i> (2)	<i>samrāj-âu</i> (1)	<i>samrāj-as</i> (1)
	acc.	<i>samrāj-am</i> (1)	<i>samrāj-âu</i> (1)	<i>samrāj-as</i> (1)
	instr.	<i>samrāj-ā</i> (1)	<i>samrād-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>samrād-bhis</i> (3)
	dat.	<i>samrāj-ê</i> (1)	<i>samrād-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>samrād-bhyas</i> (3)
	abl.	<i>samrāj-as</i> (1)	<i>samrād-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>samrād-bhyas</i> (3)
	gen.	<i>samrāj-as</i> (1)	<i>samrāj-ôś</i> (1)	<i>samrāj-ām</i> (1)
	loc.	<i>samrāj-i</i> (1)	<i>samrāj-ôś</i> (1)	<i>samrāt-su</i> (3)

1. The stem *samrāj* occurs before the vowel endings.
2. Unvoiced *samrāt* is seen in word-final position (nom. and voc. sg.).
3. *Samrād-bhyām* and *samrāt-su* seem instances of backward assimilation, but not from the stem *samrāj*, but rather from nom. *samrāt*. In particular, we should not expect *samrāt-su* from *samrāj-su* which would turn into n.at. *samrāk-ṣu* by **SIB**.

Similar to *samrāj*, we obtain

<i>vāc</i> f.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>vāk</i> (2)	<i>vāc-âu</i> (1)	<i>vāc-as</i> (1)
	voc.	<i>vāk</i> (2)	<i>vāc-âu</i> (1)	<i>vāc-as</i> (1)
	acc.	<i>vāc-am</i> (1)	<i>vāc-âu</i> (1)	<i>vāc-as</i> (1)
	instr.	<i>vāc-ā</i> (1)	<i>vāg-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>vāg-bhis</i> (3)
	dat.	<i>vāc-ê</i> (1)	<i>vāg-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>vāg-bhyas</i> (3)
	abl.	<i>vāc-as</i> (1)	<i>vāg-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>vāg-bhyas</i> (3)
	gen.	<i>vāc-as</i> (1)	<i>vāc-ôś</i> (1)	<i>vāc-ām</i> (1)
	loc.	<i>vāc-i</i> (1)	<i>vāc-ôś</i> (1)	<i>vāk-ṣu</i> (4)

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1. The stem *vāc* is l.gr. from *vac* ← ie. *vek^w*. By **SPal** or levelling, one finds *vāc* before vowel endings (some of which have to be front vowel endings).
2. Regularly, **AFP** leads to *vāk* in absolute final position.
3. Backwardly assimilated *g* before voiced endings.
4. **BA** and **RUKI**

Along similar lines, **AFP** implies

	stem	nom. sg.	instr. pl.	translation
with <i>c</i> → <i>k</i>	<i>Ꞥc</i>	<i>Ꞥk</i>	<i>Ꞥg-bhis</i>	hymn, verse
	<i>tvac</i>	<i>tvak</i>	<i>tvag-bhis</i>	skin
	<i>śuc</i>	<i>śuk</i>	<i>śug-bhis</i>	grief
with <i>j</i> → <i>k</i>	<i>vaꞤij</i>	<i>vaꞤik</i>	<i>vaꞤig-bhis</i>	merchant
	<i>bhiṣaj</i>	<i>bhiṣak</i>	<i>bhiṣag-bhis</i>	doctor
with <i>ś</i> → <i>k</i>	<i>diś</i>	<i>dik</i>	<i>dig-bhis</i>	direction

and

	stem	nom. sg.	instr. pl.	translation
with <i>d</i> → <i>t</i>	<i>dṛṣad</i>	<i>dṛṣat</i>	<i>dṛṣad-bhis</i>	stone
	<i>vêda-vid</i>	<i>vêda-vit</i>	<i>vêda-vid-bhis</i>	Veda knower
with <i>ś/ṣ/h</i> → <i>ṭ</i>	<i>dviṣ</i>	<i>dviṭ</i>	<i>dviḍ-bhis</i>	enemy
	<i>pari-vrāj</i>	<i>pari-vrāṭ</i>	<i>pari-vrāḡ-bhis</i>	mendicant
	<i>prā-vṛṣ</i>	<i>prā-vṛṭ</i>	<i>prā-vṛḍ-bhis</i>	rain period
	<i>madhu-lih</i>	<i>madhu-liṭ</i>	<i>madhu-liḍ-bhis</i>	honey sucker
	<i>viś</i>	<i>viṭ</i>	<i>viḍ-bhis</i>	merchant-caste person

Interesting declensions arise from Grassmann's law and from instances where it is **not** applied, as we have also seen in future forms on pp. 104. Examples are provided by *kāma-duh* f. ("wish-granting cow") or *a-budh* m. ("fool"). The first one yields

<i>kāma-duh</i> f.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>kāma-dhuk</i> (2, 3)	<i>kāma-duh-âu</i> (1)	<i>kāma-duh-as</i> (1)
	voc.	<i>kāma-dhuk</i> (2, 3)	<i>kāma-duh-âu</i> (1)	<i>kāma-duh-as</i> (1)
	acc.	<i>kāma-duh-am</i> (1)	<i>kāma-duh-âu</i> (1)	<i>kāma-duh-as</i> (1)
	instr.	<i>kāma-duh-ā</i> (1)	<i>k.-dhug-bhyām</i> (2, 4)	<i>k.-dhug-bhis</i> (2, 4)
	dat.	<i>kāma-duh-ê</i> (1)	<i>k.-dhug-bhyām</i> (2, 4)	<i>k.-dhug-bhyas</i> (2, 4)
	abl.	<i>kāma-duh-as</i> (1)	<i>k.-dhug-bhyām</i> (2, 4)	<i>k.-dhug-bhyas</i> (2, 4)
	gen.	<i>kāma-duh-as</i> (1)	<i>kāma-duh-ôś</i> (1)	<i>kāma-duh-ām</i> (1)
	loc.	<i>kāma-duh-i</i> (1)	<i>kāma-duh-ôś</i> (1)	<i>kāma-dhuk-ṣu</i> (2, 5)

1. By **DA**, we obtain the stem *kāma-duh* where the second part originates from ie. **dheugh* (*h* due to **SPal** before front vowels or levelling).
2. Ie. **dh* is retained in forms where *gh* was replaced by unaspirated (!) velar before a consonant. Hence, **DA** does not apply.
3. *k* in word-final position (**AFP**)
4. *g* before voiced endings (**BA**)
5. *k* before loc. pl. ending voiceless (**BA**) *su* or, indeed, *su* by **RUKI**

Turning to the second example where Grassmann's law and its undoing play a role, we obtain

<i>a-budh</i>	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>a-bhut</i> (2, 3)	<i>a-budh-âu</i> (1)	<i>a-budh-as</i> (1)
	voc.	<i>a-bhut</i> (2, 3)	<i>a-budh-âu</i> (1)	<i>a-budh-as</i> (1)
	acc.	<i>a-budh-am</i> (1)	<i>a-budh-âu</i> (1)	<i>a-budh-as</i> (1)
	instr.	<i>a-budh-ā</i> (1)	<i>a-bhud-bhyām</i> (2, 4)	<i>a-bhud-bhis</i> (2, 4)
	dat.	<i>a-budh-ê</i> (1)	<i>a-bhud-bhyām</i> (2, 4)	<i>a-bhud-bhyas</i> (2, 4)
	abl.	<i>a-budh-as</i> (1)	<i>a-bhud-bhyām</i> (2,)	<i>a-bhud-bhyas</i> (2, 4)
	gen.	<i>a-budh-as</i> (1)	<i>a-budh-ôs</i> (1)	<i>a-budh-ām</i> (1)
	loc.	<i>a-budh-i</i> (1)	<i>a-budh-ôs</i> (1)	<i>a-bhut-su</i> (2, 5)

1. By **DA**, we obtain the stem *a-budh* where the second part originates from ie. **bheudh*.
2. Ie. **bh* is retained in forms where *dh* was replaced by unaspirated (!) dental before a consonant. Hence, **DA** does not apply.
3. *t* in word-final position (**AFP**)
4. *d* before voiced endings (**BA**)
5. *t* before loc. pl. ending voiceless (**BA**) *su*

D.3.3. Stems on *mant*, *vant*, *ant*, *ans*

bala-vant etc.

Stems on *mant*, *vant*, or *ant* are very common. Consider the paradigm for *bala-vant* m. ("he who has strength") below. The strong-weak alternation concerns the suffix. Compare

- ◇ the strong suffix *vant* with

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◇ the weak suffix $vnt \rightarrow vat$.

<i>bala-vantm.</i>	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>bala-vān</i> (1)	<i>bala-vant-âu</i>	<i>bala-vant-as</i> (2)
	voc.	<i>bala-van</i> (3)	<i>bala-vant-âu</i>	<i>bala-vant-as</i>
	acc.	<i>bala-vant-am</i>	<i>bala-vant-âu</i>	<i>bala-vat-as</i>
	instr.	<i>bala-vat-ā</i>	<i>bala-vad-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>bala-vad-bhis</i> (4)
	dat.	<i>bala-vat-ê</i>	<i>bala-vad-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>bala-vad-bhyas</i> (4)
	abl.	<i>bala-vat-as</i>	<i>bala-vad-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>bala-vad-bhyas</i> (4)
	gen.	<i>bala-vat-as</i>	<i>bala-vat-ôs</i>	<i>bala-vat-ām</i>
	loc.	<i>bala-vat-i</i>	<i>bala-vat-ôs</i>	<i>bala-vat-su</i>

1. *bala-vā-n* is an instance of compensatory lengthening:

$$\mathbf{CpLs} \quad \text{oi. } VCs \rightarrow \text{oi. } \bar{V} + C$$

i.e., we have

$$*bala-vant-s \rightarrow \text{oi. } *bala-vānt \ (\mathbf{CpLs}) \rightarrow \text{oi. } bala-vān \ (\mathbf{AFP})$$

2. Forms like *bala-vant-as* are regular strong forms.
 3. The sg. voc. *bala-van* is the stem, simplified by **CCI**.
 4. *bala-vad-bhis* exhibits backward assimilation.

The n. forms typically show strong forms in pl. NVA:

<i>bala-vant n.</i>	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>bala-vat</i>	<i>bala-vat-ī</i>	<i>bala-vant-i</i>
	voc.	<i>bala-vat</i>	<i>bala-vat-ī</i>	<i>bala-vant-i</i>
	acc.	<i>bala-vat</i>	<i>bala-vat-ī</i>	<i>bala-vant-i</i>
	instr.	<i>bala-vat-ā</i>	<i>bala-vad-bhyām</i>	<i>bala-vad-bhis</i>
	dat.	<i>bala-vat-ê</i>	<i>bala-vad-bhyām</i>	<i>bala-vad-bhyas</i>
	abl.	<i>bala-vat-as</i>	<i>bala-vad-bhyām</i>	<i>bala-vad-bhyas</i>
	gen.	<i>bala-vat-as</i>	<i>bala-vat-ôs</i>	<i>bala-vat-ām</i>
	loc.	<i>bala-vat-i</i>	<i>bala-vat-ôs</i>	<i>bala-vat-su</i>

From instrumental onwards, the neuter forms equal the masculine ones. Remember also:

$$\text{n. dual NVA} = \text{f. sg. nom.}$$

i.e., we have f. sg. nom. (and stem) *bala-vat-ī*.

Past active participles (PAP) like *ga-ta-vant* and pronomial adjectives like *tā-vant* (“so much”) are formed like *bala-vant*.

mahant

The adjective *mahant* (“great”) also belongs to this group. We plot the paradigm for masculine:

<i>mah-ant m.</i>	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>mah-ān</i> (1)	<i>mah-ānt-āu</i> (3)	<i>mah-ānt-as</i> (3)
	voc.	<i>mah-an</i> (2)	<i>mah-ānt-āu</i> (3)	<i>mah-ānt-as</i> (3)
	acc.	<i>mah-ānt-am</i> (3)	<i>mah-ānt-āu</i> (3)	<i>mah-at-as</i>
	instr.	<i>mah-at-ā</i>	<i>mah-ad-bhyām</i>	<i>mah-ad-bhis</i>
	dat.	<i>mah-at-ē</i>	<i>mah-ad-bhyām</i>	<i>mah-ad-bhyas</i>
	abl.	<i>mah-at-as</i>	<i>mah-ad-bhyām</i>	<i>mah-ad-bhyas</i>
	gen.	<i>mah-at-as</i>	<i>mah-at-ōs</i>	<i>mah-at-ām</i>
	loc.	<i>mah-at-i</i>	<i>mah-at-ōs</i>	<i>mah-at-su</i>

1. The nom. sg. m. *mah-ān* ← *mah-ant-s* shows compensatory lengthening (regular as in *bala-vān* by pp. 50).
2. Voc. sg. m. *mah-an* is regular: stem minus **CCl**.
3. Forms like *mah-ānt-as* are irregular. It seems that *ā* in the second syllable of nom. sg. m. migrated to all strong forms (leveling) except voc. sg. m..

Indeed, the migration of *ā* just mentioned also holds for the neuter paradigm:

<i>bala-vant n.</i>	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>mah-at</i>	<i>mah-at-ī</i>	<i>mah-ānt-i</i>
	voc.	<i>mah-at</i>	<i>mah-at-ī</i>	<i>mah-ānt-i</i>
	acc.	<i>mah-at</i>	<i>mah-at-ī</i>	<i>mah-ānt-i</i>
	instr.	from here like masculine		

Finally, I like to mention f. sg. nom. *mahat-ī* (like n. dual NVA).

Present participles, general remarks

The strong form of any present participle (pres. part.) can be found by looking at the 3. person pl. present tense:

			pres. part., m. nom.	
class	✓	3. pers. pl. pres. tense	singular	plural
1	<i>bhṛ</i>	<i>bhar-ant-i</i>	<i>bhar-an</i>	<i>bhar-ant-as</i>
6	<i>tud</i>	<i>tud-ant-i</i>	<i>tud-an</i>	<i>tud-ant-as</i>
3	<i>dā</i>	<i>dad-at-i</i>	<i>dad-at</i>	<i>dad-at-as</i>
5	<i>śru</i>	<i>śṛṇv-ant-i</i>	<i>śṛṇv-an</i>	<i>śṛṇv-ant-as</i>

Present participle like *bharant*

The weak-strong distribution is clearly seen in the masculine paradigm. All these forms build on the full grade of the verb. The strong-weak alternation concerns the suffix:

- ◇ The strong forms use the suffix *ant* while
- ◇ the weak forms have the same suffix without the vowel, i.e., $nt \rightarrow at$.

<i>bhar-ant</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>bhar-an</i> (1)	<i>bhar-ant-âu</i>	<i>bhar-ant-as</i> (2)
	voc.	<i>bhar-an</i> (3)	<i>bhar-ant-âu</i>	<i>bhar-ant-as</i>
	acc.	<i>bhar-ant-am</i>	<i>bhar-ant-âu</i>	<i>bhar-at-as</i>
	instr.	<i>bhar-at-ā</i>	<i>bhar-ad-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>bhar-ad-bhis</i> (4)
	dat.	<i>bhar-at-ê</i>	<i>bhar-ad-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>bhar-ad-bhyas</i> (4)
	abl.	<i>bhar-at-as</i>	<i>bhar-ad-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>bhar-ad-bhyas</i> (4)
	gen.	<i>bhar-at-as</i>	<i>bhar-at-ôs</i>	<i>bhar-at-ām</i>
	loc.	<i>bhar-at-î</i>	<i>bhar-at-ôs</i>	<i>bhar-at-su</i>

1. *bhar-a-n* goes back to *bhar-a-nt-s* in line with **CCl**. However, one might have expected compensatory lengthening due to **CpLs** (compare *bala-vā-n*) above.
2. Forms like *bhar-ant-as* are regular strong forms.
3. The sg. voc. *bhar-an* is the stem, simplified by **CCl**.
4. **BA**

I now turn to the neuter paradigm. It does not fully conform to the distribution indicated in fig. D.1, p. 204. Below, you see strong forms in dual NVA although they should be weak:

<i>bhar-ant</i> n.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>bhar-at</i>	<i>bhar-ant-î</i> (!)	<i>bhar-ant-i</i>
	voc.	<i>bhar-at</i>	<i>bhar-ant-î</i> (!)	<i>bhar-ant-i</i>
	acc.	<i>bhar-at</i>	<i>bhar-ant-î</i> (!)	<i>bhar-at-as</i>
	instr.	from here like masculine		

Again, we have

$$\text{f. sg. nom.} = \text{n. dual NVA} = \textit{bhar-ant-î}$$

Present participles with *bala-vant* formation

Two interesting pres. part. show the pattern of *bala-vant* rather than that of *bhar-ant*. Firstly, the regular distribution (weak dual n.) is shown by *jagat* n. (“world”) which is the present participle of the 3. class verb *gā*, *jī-gā-ti* (“to go”):

<i>ja-g-ant</i> n.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>ja-g-at</i>	<i>ja-g-at-ī</i>	<i>ja-g-ant-i</i>
	voc.	<i>ja-g-at</i>	<i>ja-g-at-ī</i>	<i>ja-g-ant-i</i>
	acc.	<i>ja-g-at</i>	<i>ja-g-at-ī</i>	<i>ja-g-ant-i</i>
	instr.	<i>ja-g-at-ā</i>	<i>ja-g-ad-bhyām</i>	<i>ja-g-ad-bhis</i>
	dat.	et cetera		

Secondly, the honorific pronoun *bhav-ant* (“your honor”) which, originally, is the pres. part. of *bhu* (“to be”) follows *bala-vant*:

<i>bhav-ant</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>bhav-ān</i>	<i>bhav-ant-āu</i>	<i>bhav-ant-as</i>
	voc.	<i>bhav-an</i>	<i>bhav-ant-āu</i>	<i>bhav-ant-as</i>
	acc.	<i>bhav-ant-am</i>	<i>bhav-ant-āu</i>	<i>bhav-at-as</i>
	instr.	<i>bhav-at-ā</i>	<i>bhav-ad-bhyām</i>	<i>bhav-ad-bhis</i>
	dat.	et cetera		

One may speculate that *bhav-ant* was misread as *bha-vant* so that the analogy with forms like *bala-vant* was tempting.

Remember:

1. The nom. sg. m. (like *gacch-an* ← *gacch-ants*) is without compensatory lengthening (in line with **CCI** but contradicting **CpLs**). An exception is the honorific pronoun *bhav-ān* which follows *bala-vant*.
2. The n. tends to exhibit strong forms in dual NVA in the classes 1, 4, and 10, against fig. D.1, p. 204. However, the regular weak dual NVA
 - ◇ is always seen in *ja-g-at-ī* from *jagat* n. (“world”) and
 - ◇ typically seen in the athematic classes 2, 3, 5, 7, 8, and 9
 - ◇ sometimes in pres. part. of the 6. class where we have
 - weak *tudatī bālāu* (“the two hitting boys”) beside
 - strong *tudantī bālāu*.
3. The fem. sg. can be seen from the nom. dual n.:

f. sg. nom. = n. dual NVA

as in

D. Grammar: nouns and adverbs

stem	category	nom. sg. m.	nom. dual n.	nom. sg. f.
<i>bala-vant</i>	<i>vant</i> -adjective	<i>bala-vān</i>	<i>bala-vat-ī</i>	<i>bala-vat-ī</i>
<i>mah-ant</i>	adjective	<i>mah-ān</i>	<i>mah-at-ī</i>	<i>mah-at-ī</i>
<i>bhar-ant</i>	pres. part.	<i>bhar-an</i>	<i>bhar-ant-ī</i>	<i>bhar-ant-ī</i>
<i>bhav-ant</i>	pres. part.	<i>bhav-an</i>	<i>bhav-ant-ī</i>	<i>bhav-ant-ī</i>
<i>bhav-ant</i>	honorific pronoun	<i>bhav-ān</i>	<i>bhav-at-ī</i>	<i>bhav-at-ī</i>

All the f. declensions *bala-vat-ī* through *bhav-at-ī* exactly follow *nad-ī* (pp. 235).

Analogical “nasal infix” in neuter plural NVA

We have seen the n. pl. forms for NVA such as these

stem	category	nom. sg. m.	nom. pl. n. NVA
<i>bala-vant</i>	<i>vant</i> -adjective	<i>bala-vān</i>	<i>bala-vant-i</i>
<i>mati-mant</i>	<i>mant</i> -adjective	<i>mati-mān</i>	<i>mati-mant-i</i>
<i>bhar-ant</i>	pres. part.	<i>bhar-an</i>	<i>bhar-ant-as</i>

In the last column, *n* appears because of the full grade. However, to the speakers of Sanskrit this *n* seemed the sign for nom. pl. n. NVA in general. Using the analogy

<i>bala-vat</i>	= nom sg. with nom. pl. n. NVA:	<i>bala-vant-i</i>
just as		
<i>manas</i>	= nom sg. with nom. pl. n. NVA:	<i>manāṃs-i</i>

we obtain n. pl. forms for NVA like

stem	nom. sg. m.	nom. pl. n. NVA
<i>asṛj</i>	<i>asṛk</i> (AFP)	<i>asṛñj-i</i>
<i>āyus</i>	<i>āyus</i>	<i>āyūṃs-i</i> (RUKI)
<i>havis</i>	<i>havis</i>	<i>haviṃs-i</i> (RUKI)

However, why most of these vowels (not in *asṛñj-i*) are long, remains unclear.

***kṣôd-īyans* etc.**

It may be best to cover comparative adjectives here. Consider the paradigm for *kṣôd-īyans* m. (“smaller”):

D.3. Nouns: weak and strong forms

<i>kṣôd-īyans</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>kṣôd-īyān</i> (1)	<i>kṣôd-īyāṃs-âu</i> (2)	<i>kṣôd-īyāṃs-as</i> (2)
	voc.	<i>kṣôd-īyan</i> (2)	<i>kṣôd-īyāṃs-âu</i> (2)	<i>kṣôd-īyāṃs-as</i> (2)
	acc.	<i>kṣôd-īyāṃs-am</i> (2)	<i>kṣôd-īyāṃs-âu</i> (2)	<i>kṣôd-īyas-as</i> (3)
	instr.	<i>kṣôd-īyas-ā</i> (3)	<i>kṣôd-īyô-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>kṣôd-īyô-bhis</i> (4)
	dat.	<i>kṣôd-īyas-ê</i> (3)	<i>kṣôd-īyô-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>kṣôd-īyô-bhyas</i> (4)
	abl.	<i>kṣôd-īyas-as</i> (3)	<i>kṣôd-īyô-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>kṣôd-īyô-bhyas</i> (4)
	gen.	<i>kṣôd-īyas-as</i> (3)	<i>kṣôd-īyas-ôs</i> (3)	<i>kṣôd-īyas-ām</i> (3)
	loc.	<i>kṣôd-īyas-i</i> (3)	<i>kṣôd-īyas-ôs</i> (3)	<i>kṣôd-īyas-su</i> (3)

1. *kṣôd-īyān* is another example of **CpLs**, here from **kṣôd-īyans-s*. with nom. sg. marker *s*.
2. Like in *mah-ant*, we observe migration of long *ā* from nom. sg. to all the other strong forms except for voc. sg. which is explained by the formula “stem minus **CCI**”.
3. Weak forms like *kṣôd-īyas-ā* exhibit loss of vowel and expected **SY_N**.
4. In weak forms like *kṣôd-īyô-bhis*, we see expected **CpLz** from *yas* before voiced consonant *bh*.

The n. forms regularly show strong forms in pl. NVA:

<i>kṣôd-īyans</i> n.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>kṣôd-īyas</i>	<i>kṣôd-īyas-ī</i>	<i>kṣôd-īyāṃs-i</i>
	voc.	<i>kṣôd-īyas</i>	<i>kṣôd-īyas-ī</i>	<i>kṣôd-īyāṃs-i</i>
	acc.	<i>kṣôd-īyas</i>	<i>kṣôd-īyas-ī</i>	<i>kṣôd-īyāṃs-i</i>
	instr.	from here like masculine		

***cakṛva(n)s* etc.**

We now turn to the reduplicated perfect active participle (pf.P), for example *cakṛva(n)s* (“one who did”). It is best to assume two stems, one with *n*, the other without:

D. Grammar: nouns and adverbs

<i>ca-kṛ-va(n)s m.</i>	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	ca-kṛ-vān (1)	ca-kṛ-vāṃs-âu (2)	ca-kṛ-vāṃs-as (2)
	voc.	ca-kṛ-van (2)	ca-kṛ-vāṃs-âu (2)	ca-kṛ-vāṃs-as (2)
	acc.	ca-kṛ-vāṃs-am (2)	ca-kṛ-vāṃs-âu (2)	<i>ca-kr-uṣ-as</i> (3)
	instr.	<i>ca-kr-uṣ-ā</i> (3)	<i>ca-kṛ-vad-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>ca-kṛ-vad-bhis</i> (4)
	dat.	<i>ca-kr-uṣ-ê</i> (3)	<i>ca-kṛ-vad-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>ca-kṛ-vad-bhyas</i> (4)
	abl.	<i>ca-kr-uṣ-as</i> (3)	<i>ca-kṛ-vad-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>ca-kṛ-vad-bhyas</i> (4)
	gen.	<i>ca-kr-uṣ-as</i> (3)	<i>ca-kr-uṣ-ôś</i> (3)	<i>ca-kr-uṣ-ām</i> (3)
	loc.	<i>ca-kr-uṣ-i</i> (3)	<i>ca-kr-uṣ-ôś</i> (3)	<i>ca-kṛ-vat-su</i> (4)

1. *ca-kṛ-vān* builds on *ca-kṛ-vans-s* (with *n*) and **CpLs**.
2. As in *mah-ant* and *kṣôd-īyans*, we observe migration of long *ā* from nom. sg. to all the other strong forms except for voc. sg. which is explained by the formula “stem *ca-kṛ-vans* minus **CCP**”.
3. Weak forms like *ca-kr-uṣ-ā* build on *cakṛvas* (without *n*) where the loss of vowel *a* forces *v* to become vocalic (**hV**).
4. Perhaps, forms like *ca-kṛ-vad-bhis* are best explained by analogy with forms like *bhar-ad-bhis* or *mah-ad-bhis*. And similarly *ca-kṛ-vat-su*.

The n. forms regularly show strong forms in pl. NVA:

<i>ca-kṛ-va(n)s n.</i>	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>ca-kṛ-vat</i> (4)	<i>ca-kr-uṣ-î</i> (3)	ca-kṛ-vāṃs-i (2)
	voc.	<i>ca-kṛ-vat</i> (4)	<i>ca-kr-uṣ-î</i> (3)	ca-kṛ-vāṃs-i (2)
	acc.	<i>ca-kṛ-vat</i> (4)	<i>ca-kr-uṣ-î</i> (3)	ca-kṛ-vāṃs-i (2)
	instr.	from here like masculine		

where the numbers are explained above.

A difficult pf.P is *dāśva* corrupted from *dāśva(n)s* (“liberal, giving, a donor”) which is a reduplicated (!) form going back to ie. **de-dk-v* by **CpLdk̄**. See p. 309.

Often, *vidva(n)s* (“learned person”) is considered reduplicated perfect active, too, although there is no reduplication. This is in line with the 3. sg. perf. *veda* (see p. 367).

<i>vid-va(n)s m.</i>	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>vid-vān</i> (1)	<i>vid-vāṃs-āu</i> (2)	<i>vid-vāṃs-as</i> (2)
	voc.	<i>vid-van</i> (2)	<i>vid-vāṃs-āu</i> (2)	<i>vid-vāṃs-as</i> (2)
	acc.	<i>vid-vāṃs-am</i> (2)	<i>vid-vāṃs-āu</i> (2)	<i>vid-uṣ-as</i> (3)
	instr.	<i>vid-uṣ-ā</i> (3)	<i>vid-vad-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>vid-vad-bhis</i> (4)
	dat.	<i>vid-uṣ-ê</i> (3)	<i>vid-vad-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>vid-vad-bhyas</i> (4)
	abl.	<i>vid-uṣ-as</i> (3)	<i>vid-vad-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>vid-vad-bhyas</i> (4)
	gen.	<i>vid-uṣ-as</i> (3)	<i>vid-uṣ-ôś</i> (3)	<i>vid-uṣ-ām</i> (3)
	loc.	<i>vid-uṣ-i</i> (3)	<i>vid-uṣ-ôś</i> (3)	<i>vid-vat-su</i> (4)

1. $vid-vān \leftarrow *vid-vans-s$ (with n) by **CpLs**.
2. As in *mah-ant*, *kṣôd-īyans*, and *ca-kṛ-va(n)s*, we observe migration of long \bar{a} from nom. sg. to all the other strong forms except for voc. sg. which is explained by the formula “stem *vid-vans* minus **CCI**”.
3. Weak forms like *vid-uṣ-ā* build on *vid-vas* (without n) where the loss of vowel a forces v to become vocalic (**hV**).
4. Similar to forms like *ca-kṛ-vad-bhis*, let us explain forms like *vid-vad-bhis* and *vid-vat-su* by analogy (see *bhar-ad-bhis* or *mah-at-su*).

The n . forms regularly show strong forms in pl. NVA:

<i>vid-va(n)s n.</i>	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>vid-vat</i> (4)	<i>vid-uṣ-ī</i> (3)	<i>vid-vāṃs-i</i> (2)
	voc.	<i>vid-vat</i> (4)	<i>vid-uṣ-ī</i> (3)	<i>vid-vāṃs-i</i> (2)
	acc.	<i>vid-vat</i> (4)	<i>vid-uṣ-ī</i> (3)	<i>vid-vāṃs-i</i> (2)
	instr.	from here like masculine		

where the numbers are explained above.

D.3.4. *an-* and *in-* stems like *rāj-an* and *yôg-in*

*an-*stems (*rāj-an*, *karm-an*)

The stem for “king” is *rāj-an*. The strong-weak alternation concerns the suffix *an*:

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<i>rāj-an m.</i>	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>rāj-ā</i> (2)	<i>rāj-ān-āu</i> (1)	<i>rāj-ān-as</i> (1)
	voc.	<i>rāj-an</i> (3)	<i>rāj-ān-āu</i> (1)	<i>rāj-ān-as</i> (1)
	acc.	<i>rāj-ān-am</i> (1)	<i>rāj-ān-āu</i> (1)	<i>rāj-ñ-as</i> (4)
	instr.	<i>rāj-ñ-ā</i> (4)	<i>rāj-a-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>rāj-a-bhis</i> (5)
	dat.	<i>rāj-ñ-ê</i> (4)	<i>rāj-a-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>rāj-a-bhyas</i> (5)
	abl.	<i>rāj-ñ-as</i> (4)	<i>rāj-a-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>rāj-a-bhyas</i> (5)
	gen.	<i>rāj-ñ-as</i> (4)	<i>rāj-ñ-ô-s</i> (4)	<i>rāj-ñ-ām</i> (4)
	loc.	<i>rāj-ñ-i</i> / <i>rāj-an-i</i> (4, 6)	<i>rāj-ñ-ô-s</i> (4)	<i>rāj-a-su</i> (5)

1. The strong forms with oi.

$\bar{a} + n + \text{vowel ending}$

go back to ie.

$o + n + \text{vowel ending}$

according to Brugmann's law **Lo**.

2. Nom. sg. *rāj-ā* is difficult because ie. **reġ-on-s* should result in *rāj-ān* by **CpLs**.
3. The strong form voc. sg. *rāj-an* regularly equals the stem.
4. The weak forms before vowel-initial ending like instr. sg. *rāj-ñ-ā* are zero-grade forms (just nasal without vowel) and with obvious forward (!) assimilation $n \rightarrow \tilde{n}$ after palatal *j*.
5. By **SY_N** one obtains the weak forms like *rāj-a-bhis*.
6. Loc. sg. has the alternative reading *rāj-an-i*. It is not a strong form because strong forms exhibit Brugmann's law (see 1). It is taken from forms like *ātm-an-i* (see below).

The paradigm of *śv-an* ("dog") follows the one of *rāj-an* closely:

<i>śv-an m.</i>	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>śv-ā</i> (2)	<i>śv-ān-āu</i> (1)	<i>śv-ān-as</i> (1)
	voc.	<i>śv-an</i> (3)	<i>śv-ān-āu</i> (1)	<i>śv-ān-as</i> (1)
	acc.	<i>śv-ān-am</i> (1)	<i>śv-ān-āu</i> (1)	<i>śu-n-as</i> (4)
	instr.	<i>śu-n-ā</i> (4)	<i>śv-a-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>śv-a-bhis</i> (5)
	dat.	<i>śu-n-ê</i> (4)	<i>śv-a-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>śv-a-bhyas</i> (5)
	abl.	<i>śu-n-as</i> (4)	<i>śv-a-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>śv-a-bhyas</i> (5)
	gen.	<i>śu-n-as</i> (4)	<i>śu-n-ô-s</i> (4)	<i>śu-n-ām</i> (4)
	loc.	<i>śu-n-i</i> (4)	<i>śu-n-ô-s</i> (4)	<i>śv-a-su</i> (5)

1. **Lo**
2. Nom. sg. *śv-ā* corresponds to *rāj-ā*. Both are difficult (see above).
3. The strong form voc. sg. *śv-an* regularly equals the stem.
4. The weak forms before vowel-initial ending like instr. sg. *śu-n-ā* are zero-grade forms (just nasal without vowel) and with expected vowel for halfvowel before consonant *n* (**hV**).
5. By **SY_N** and **SY_Conf** one obtains the weak forms like *śv-a-bhis*, but not n.at. *śu-n-bhis*.

Turn now to *yuv-an* m. (“youngster”):

<i>yuv-an</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>yuv-ā</i> (2)	<i>yuv-ān-āu</i> (1)	<i>yuv-ān-as</i> (1)
	voc.	<i>yuv-an</i> (3)	<i>yuv-ān-āu</i> (1)	<i>yuv-ān-as</i> (1)
	acc.	<i>yuv-ān-am</i> (1)	<i>yuv-ān-āu</i> (1)	<i>yū-n-as</i> (4)
	instr.	<i>yū-n-ā</i> (4)	<i>yuv-a-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>yuv-a-bhis</i> (5)
	dat.	<i>yū-n-ē</i> (4)	<i>yuv-a-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>yuv-a-bhyas</i> (5)
	abl.	<i>yū-n-as</i> (4)	<i>yuv-a-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>yuv-a-bhyas</i> (5)
	gen.	<i>yū-n-as</i> (4)	<i>yū-n-ōs</i> (4)	<i>yū-n-ām</i> (4)
	loc.	<i>yū-n-i</i> (4)	<i>yū-n-ōs</i> (4)	<i>yuv-a-su</i> (5)

1. **Lo**
2. Nom. sg. *yuv-ā* corresponds to *rāj-ā* and *śv-ā*.
3. The strong form voc. sg. *yuv-an* regularly equals the stem.
4. The weak forms before vowel-initial ending like instr. sg. *yū-n-ā* are zero-grade forms (just nasal without vowel) and with expected long vowel for vowel plus (half)vowel before consonant *n* (**MVS**).
5. By **SY_N** and **SY_Conf** (see 27) one obtains the weak forms like *yuv-a-bhis* (rather than u.at. *ivunbhis*).

The n. (!) noun *nām-an* (“name”) finds a similar explanation. We obtain

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<i>nām-an</i> n.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>nām-a</i> (1)	<i>nām-n-ī/nām-an-ī</i> (2, 4)	<i>nām-ān-i</i> (3)
	voc.	<i>nām-a, nām-an</i> (2)	<i>nām-n-ī/nām-an-ī</i> (2, 4)	<i>nām-ān-i</i> (3)
	acc.	<i>nām-a</i> (1)	<i>nām-n-ī/nām-an-ī</i> (2, 4)	<i>nām-ān-i</i> (3)
	instr.	<i>nām-n-ā</i> (4)	<i>nām-a-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>nām-a-bhis</i> (5)
	dat.	<i>nām-n-ê</i> (4)	<i>nām-a-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>nām-a-bhyas</i> (5)
	abl.	<i>nām-n-as</i> (4)	<i>nām-a-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>nām-a-bhyas</i> (5)
	gen.	<i>nām-n-as</i> (4)	<i>nām-n-ôś</i> (4)	<i>nām-n-ām</i> (4)
	loc.	<i>nām-n-i/nām-an-i</i> (2, 4)	<i>nām-n-ôś</i> (4)	<i>nām-a-su</i> (5)

1. *nām-a* is regular weak stem without ending from **nom-n*.
2. *nām-a* is regular by the rule that NVA neuter are the same, within sg., dual, and pl.. In contrast, the alternative *nām-an* builds on the stem *nām-an*. Similarly, loc. sg. and NVA dual also show irregular alternative forms. They are not strong forms because strong forms exhibit Brugmann's law (see 3). Instead, they have spilled over from words like the *karm-an* ("action") to which we turn next.
3. **Lo**
4. Before vowel endings, we just have *n* as the weak suffix. The dual forms NVA are formed with the usual marker *ī* in the athematic paradigms.
5. Similar to nom. sg., we find forms like *nām-a-bhis* by **SY** *N*.

We now turn to *an*-nouns with two consonants before the suffix, *ātm-an* m. ("soul, self") and the *karm-an* n. ("action"):

<i>ātm-an</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>ātm-ā</i> (2)	<i>ātm-ān-āu</i> (1)	<i>ātm-ān-as</i> (1)
	voc.	<i>ātm-an</i> (3)	<i>ātm-ān-āu</i> (1)	<i>ātm-ān-as</i> (1)
	acc.	<i>ātm-ān-am</i> (1)	<i>ātm-ān-āu</i> (1)	<i>ātm-an-as</i> (4)
	instr.	<i>ātm-an-ā</i> (4)	<i>ātm-a-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>ātm-a-bhis</i> (5) ^c
	dat.	<i>ātm-an-ê</i> (4)	<i>ātm-a-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>ātm-a-bhyas</i> (5)
	abl.	<i>ātm-an-as</i> (4)	<i>ātm-a-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>ātm-a-bhyas</i> (5)
	gen.	<i>ātm-an-as</i> (4)	<i>ātm-an-ôś</i> (4)	<i>rāj-ñ-ām</i> (4)
	loc.	<i>ātm-an-i</i> (4)	<i>ātm-an-ôś</i> (4)	<i>ātm-an-su</i> (5)

1. **Lo**
2. Nom. sg. *ātm-ā* is difficult, as is *rāj-ā*.

3. Again, the strong form voc. sg. $\bar{a}tm-an$ equals the stem.
4. We might expect instr. sg. n.at. $\bar{a}tm-n-\bar{a}$. However, m would become syllabic and we would obtain n.at. $\bar{a}ta-n-\bar{a}$. This is, of course, not what we observe.
5. By **SY_N** one obtains weak forms like $\bar{a}tm-a-bhis$.

<i>karm-an</i> n.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>karm-a</i> (1)	<i>karm-aṇ-ī</i> (4)	<i>karm-āṇ-i</i> (3)
	voc.	<i>karm-a</i> , <i>karm-an</i> (2)	<i>karm-aṇ-ī</i> (4)	<i>karm-āṇ-i</i> (3)
	acc.	<i>karm-a</i> (1)	<i>karm-aṇ-ī</i> (4)	<i>karm-āṇ-i</i> (3)
	instr.	<i>karm-aṇ-ā</i> (4)	<i>karm-a-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>karm-a-bhis</i> (5)
	dat.	<i>karm-aṇ-ē</i> (4)	<i>karm-a-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>karm-a-bhyas</i> (5)
	abl.	<i>karm-aṇ-as</i> (4)	<i>karm-a-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>karm-a-bhyas</i> (5)
	gen.	<i>karm-aṇ-as</i> (4)	<i>karm-aṇ-ōs</i> (4)	<i>karm-aṇ-ām</i> (4)
	loc.	<i>karm-aṇ-i</i> (4)	<i>karm-aṇ-ōs</i> (4)	<i>karm-a-su</i> (5)

1. Nom. sg. *karm-a* is regular weak stem without ending due to **SY_N** and **SY_Conf**.
2. Again, we have alternative forms for voc. sg.. The second one *karm-an* equals the stem.
3. **Lo**
4. Before vowel endings, we would expect n as the weak suffix, for example instr. sg. n.at. *karm-n-ā*. However, *kara-ṇ-ā* could not have survived for long (compare $\bar{a}tm-an-\bar{a}$).
5. Similar to nom. sg., we find forms like *karm-a-bhis* by **SY_N** and **SY_Conf**.

Note:

1. The only strong forms are those in pl. nom., voc., and acc. which show \bar{a} (from Brugmann's law).
2. The weak forms have $aṇ$ (after r) in line with the usual sandhi rule.
3. The “very weak” forms have a as in *karm-a-bhis* (similar to *nām-a-bhis*).

***in*-stems (*yôg-in*, *tapas-vin*)**

After one has mastered *rāj-an*, it is not too difficult to understand *yôg-in* m. (“yogī”) and other *in*-stems. They do not show any strong-weak alternation:

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<i>yôg-in</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>yôg-ī</i> (2)	<i>yôg-in-âu</i> (1)	<i>yôg-in-as</i> (1)
	voc.	<i>yôg-in</i> (1)	<i>yôg-in-âu</i> (1)	<i>yôg-in-as</i> (1)
	acc.	<i>yôg-in-am</i> (1)	<i>yôg-in-âu</i> (1)	<i>yôg-in-as</i> (1)
	instr.	<i>yôg-in-ā</i> (1)	<i>yôg-i-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>yôg-i-bhis</i> (3)
	dat.	<i>yôg-in-ê</i> (1)	<i>yôg-i-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>yôg-i-bhyas</i> (3)
	abl.	<i>yôg-in-as</i> (1)	<i>yôg-i-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>yôg-i-bhyas</i> (3)
	gen.	<i>yôg-in-as</i> (1)	<i>yôg-in-ôś</i> (1)	<i>yôg-in-ām</i> (1)
	loc.	<i>yôg-in-i</i> (1)	<i>yôg-in-ôś</i> (1)	<i>yôg-i-ṣu</i> (3, 4)

1. The stem *yôg-in* is seen in many forms. Since there is no weak-strong alternation, nom. and acc. pl. are not differentiated.
2. Similar to the nom. sg. *rāj-ā*, *yôg-ī* also exhibits compensatory lengthening for original *s* (**CpLs**, pp. 50) with unexpected loss of final *n*.
3. In the weak forms before consonants (*bh* or *s*) the *n* of *rāj-an* becomes syllabic and turns into *a*. By analogy, *n* is also missing in the corresponding forms of *yôg-in*:

<i>rāj-an</i>	with instr. pl.:	<i>rāj-a-bhis</i>
just as		
<i>yôg-in</i>	with instr. pl.:	<i>yôg-i-bhis</i>

4. RUKI

There exist also n. *in*-stems. Some are build on n. *as*-stems (p. 100), such as *tapas* n. (“heat”). However, we have *tapas-vin* rather than **tapas-in*. Indeed, n.at. *tapas-in* would lead to confusing forms such as

nom. sg. * <i>tapas-i</i>	←	n.at. <i>tapas-in</i>
loc. sg. <i>tapas-i</i>	←	n. <i>tap-as</i>

It seems that the declension of *tapas-vin* (“ascetic”) is a rather late development where analogy was probably more important than sound laws.

<i>tapas-vin</i> n.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>tapas-vi</i> (1)	<i>tapas-vin-ī</i> (4)	<i>tapas-vīn-i</i> (3)
	voc.	<i>tapas-vi/tapas-vin</i> (2)	<i>tapas-vin-ī</i> (4)	<i>tapas-vīn-i</i> (3)
	acc.	<i>tapas-vi</i> (1)	<i>tapas-vin-ī</i> (4)	<i>tapas-vīn-i</i> (3)
	instr.	<i>tapas-vin-ā</i> (4)	<i>tapas-vi-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>tapas-vi-bhis</i> (5)
	dat.	<i>tapas-vin-ê</i> (4)	<i>tapas-vi-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>tapas-vi-bhyas</i> (5)
	abl.	<i>tapas-vin-as</i> (4)	<i>tapas-vi-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>tapas-vi-bhyas</i> (5)
	gen.	<i>tapas-vin-as</i> (4)	<i>tapas-vin-ôś</i> (4)	<i>tapas-vin-ām</i> (4)
	loc.	<i>tapas-vin-i</i> (4)	<i>tapas-vin-ôś</i> (4)	<i>tapas-vi-ṣu</i> (6)

1. One may speculate that n. *tapas-vi* expresses a weak form in contrast to m. *tapas-vī*.
2. Again, we have alternative forms for voc. sg.. The second one *tapas-vin* equals the stem.
3. *tapas-vīn-i* may be formed by analogy with forms like *karm-āṇ-i* or *phalāni*.
4. Built regularly from the stem.
5. *tapas-vi-bhis* perhaps by analogy with forms like *rāj-a-bhis* or *yôg-i-bhis*.
6. **RUKI**

D.3.5. Agent and kinship nouns like *nê-tar* and *pitar*

tor-stems (*nê-tar*, *kartar*)

We now turn to in-between nouns (p. 205), the *ṛ*-stems that we will also call *tor* stems. All the forms show full grade of the verbal component, like the stems *nê-tar* (“leader”), *bhar-tar* (“husband”), or *kar-tar* (“doer, maker”). The weak-strong alternation concerns the suffix. From an ie. point of view, the suffix is *tor*. You know this suffix from the Latin B *men-tor*.

- ◇ In the strong forms, we have this suffix *tor*. The strong forms with oi.

$$\bar{a} + r + \text{vowel ending}$$

originate from ie.

$$o + r + \text{vowel ending}$$

according to Brugmann’s law **Lo**.

- ◇ In the weak forms, we see *tr* before vowels or *tṛ* before consonants.

We begin with the declension pattern of *nê-tar* (“leader”):

<i>nê-tar</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>nê-tā</i> (2)	<i>nê-tār-āu</i> (1)	<i>nê-tār-as</i> (1)
	voc.	<i>nê-tar</i> (3)	<i>nê-tār-āu</i> (1)	<i>nê-tār-as</i> (1)
	acc.	<i>nê-tār-am</i> (1)	<i>nê-tār-āu</i> (1)	<i>nê-tṛ-n</i> (6)
	instr.	<i>nê-tr-ā</i> (4)	<i>nê-tṛ-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>nê-tṛ-bhis</i> (5)
	dat.	<i>nê-tr-ê</i> (4)	<i>nê-tṛ-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>nê-tṛ-bhyas</i> (5)
	abl.	<i>nê-tr-as</i> (4)	<i>nê-tṛ-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>nê-tṛ-bhyas</i> (5)
	gen.	<i>nê-tr-as</i> (4)	<i>nê-tr-ôś</i> (4)	<i>nê-tṛ-ṇām</i> (7)
	loc.	<i>nê-tar-i</i> (9)	<i>nê-tr-ôś</i> (4)	<i>nê-tṛ-ṣu</i> (5, 8)

1. **Lo**

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2. Nom. sg. *nê-tā* may be due to **CpLs**: **tor-s* → **tōr* → **tār*. Finally the *r* is dropped after the long *ā* (similarly, we have *rāj-ā* where the *n* is lost).
3. As usual, voc. sg. *nê-tar* equals the stem. Since the syllable is not open (*r* is not followed by a vowel), Brugmann’s law does not apply.
4. The weak forms before vowel-initial endings build on the zero-grade suffix like instr. sg. *nê-tr-ā*.
5. Before a consonant-initial ending, we obtain forms like *nê-tr-bhis* (pp. 18).
6. The thematic ie. acc. pl. marker *ns* is cerebralized after *r*-sounds, but not in a word-final position (see **Cern**). Syllabic *ṛ* is long by **CpLs**.
7. *nê-tṛ-ṇām* has long *ṛ* because the thematic ie. gen. pl. marker is *Hnōm* (**Lar** _ **V**).
8. **RUKI**
9. The loc. *nê-tar-i* is irregular for expected weak form *nê-tr-i*. Note that *nê-tar-i* is not a strong form which would be *nê-tār-i* by **Lo**. Maybe, analogy is to blame, for example,

<i>marut</i>	with voc. sg.:	<i>marut-i</i>
just as		
<i>nê-tar</i>	with voc. sg.:	<i>nê-tar-i</i>

Be careful: *bhar-tar* (“husband”) and *nap-tar* (“grandson”) are best understood as agent nouns, and not as kinship nouns (see next subsection). Finally, we comment on the other two genders:

- ◇ Feminine agent nouns are formed with long *ī*, for example *nê-trī* (“woman leader”). They are formed like *nad-ī* (“river”), see pp. 235.
- ◇ Neuter agent nouns are often used as n. adjectives. They are treated on pp. 243.

Kinship nouns (*pitar*, *mātar*)

Kinship nouns (such as *pitar*, “father”) are very similar to agent nouns:

<i>pitar</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>pīṭ-ā</i> (2)	<i>pīṭ-ar-āu</i> (1)	<i>pīṭ-ar-as</i> (1)
	voc.	<i>pīṭ-ar</i> (3)	<i>pīṭ-ar-āu</i> (1)	<i>pīṭ-ar-as</i> (1)
	acc.	<i>pīṭ-ar-am</i> (1)	<i>pīṭ-ar-āu</i> (1)	<i>pīṭ-ṛ-n</i> (6)
	instr.	<i>pīṭ-r-ā</i> (4)	<i>pīṭ-ṛ-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>pīṭ-ṛ-bhis</i> (5)
	dat.	<i>pīṭ-r-ê</i> (4)	<i>pīṭ-ṛ-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>pīṭ-ṛ-bhyas</i> (5)
	abl.	<i>pīṭ-us</i> (10)	<i>pīṭ-ṛ-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>pīṭ-ṛ-bhyas</i> (5)
	gen.	<i>pīṭ-us</i> (10)	<i>pīṭ-r-ôṣ</i> (4)	<i>pīṭ-ṛ-ṇām</i> (7)
	loc.	<i>pīṭ-ar-i</i> (9)	<i>pīṭ-r-ôṣ</i> (4)	<i>pīṭ-ṛ-ṣu</i> (5, 8)

1. In contrast to agent nouns, the suffix does not contain ie. *o* so that Brugmann's law **Lo** is not applied.
2. Nom. sg. *pit-ā* may be due to **CpLs**: $*er-s \rightarrow *ēr \rightarrow *ār$. Finally the *r* is dropped after the long *ā* (similarly, we have *rāj-ā* where the *n* is lost).
3. As usual, voc. sg. *pit-ar* equals the stem.
4. The weak forms before vowel-initial endings build on the zero-grade suffix like instr. sg. *pit-r-ā*.
5. Before a consonant-initial ending, we obtain forms like *pit-ṛ-bhis* (pp. 18).
6. The thematic ie. acc. pl. marker *ns* is cerebralized after *r*-sounds, but not in a word-final position (see **Cern**). Syllabic \bar{r} is long by **CpLs**. See pp. 203.
7. *pit-ṛ-ṇām* has long \bar{r} because the thematic ie. gen. pl. marker is *Hnōm* (**Lar** _ **V**).
8. **RUKI**
9. The loc. *pit-ar-i* is irregular for expected weak form *pit-r-i*.
10. The ending *us* in abl. and gen. sg. *pit-us* seem to go back to $r̥s$, perhaps as in 3. pers. pl. perf. *bi-bhid-us*, but might just be remembered as “irregular”.

An example for a f. kinship term is *mātar* (“mother”):

<i>māt-ar f.</i>	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>māt-ā</i>	<i>māt-ar-āu</i>	<i>māt-ar-as</i>
	voc.	<i>māt-ar</i>	<i>māt-ar-āu</i>	<i>māt-ar-as</i>
	acc.	<i>māt-ar-am</i>	<i>māt-ar-āu</i>	<i>māt-ṛ-s</i> (1)
	instr.	<i>māt-r-ā</i>	<i>māt-ṛ-bhyām</i>	<i>māt-ṛ-bhis</i>
	dat.	<i>māt-r-ē</i>	<i>māt-ṛ-bhyām</i>	<i>māt-ṛ-bhyas</i>
	abl.	<i>māt-us</i>	<i>māt-ṛ-bhyām</i>	<i>māt-ṛ-bhyas</i>
	gen.	<i>māt-us</i>	<i>māt-r-ōs</i>	<i>māt-ṛ-ṇām</i>
	loc.	<i>māt-ar-i</i>	<i>māt-r-ōs</i>	<i>māt-ṛ-ṣu</i>

On the basis of *pitar* (“father”), the only innovation concerning feminine *mātar* (“mother”) concerns the acc. pl. *māt-ṛ-s*. Compare

	thematic <i>a</i> declension	inbetween declension
masculine	<i>dēv-ā-n</i>	<i>pit-ṛ-n</i>
feminine	<i>dēv-ā-s</i>	<i>māt-ṛ-s</i>

D.3.6. Stems in long diphthongs

In this section, we consider stems like *rāy* m./f. (“wealth”) and *glāv* m. (“moon”). They do not show any weak-strong alternation, but are athematic. Beginning with the *āv*-nouns, we find

<i>glāv</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>glāu-s</i> (2, 3)	<i>glāv-āu</i> (1)	<i>glāv-as</i> (1)
	voc.	<i>glāu-s</i> (2, 4)	<i>glāv-āu</i> (1)	<i>glāv-as</i> (1)
	acc.	<i>glāv-am</i> (1)	<i>glāv-āu</i> (1)	<i>glāv-as</i> (1)
	instr.	<i>glāv-ā</i> (1)	<i>glāu-bhyām</i> (2)	<i>glāu-bhis</i> (2)
	dat.	<i>glāv-ê</i> (1)	<i>glāu-bhyām</i> (2)	<i>glāu-bhyas</i> (2)
	abl.	<i>glāv-as</i> (1)	<i>glāu-bhyām</i> (2)	<i>glāu-bhyas</i> (2)
	gen.	<i>glāv-as</i> (1)	<i>glāv-ô-s</i> (1)	<i>glāv-ām</i> (1)
	loc.	<i>glāv-i</i> (1)	<i>glāv-ô-s</i> (1)	<i>glāu-ṣu</i> (2)

1. *glāv* before vowels by **DIPH**
2. *glāu* before consonants by **DIPH**
3. Nom. sg. marker *s* is clearly observable
4. Voc. sg. irregularly differs from the stem.

The *glāv* pattern is also followed by *nāv* f. (“boat”).

Turning to the *āy*-stem, consider the paradigm

<i>rāy</i> m./f.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>rā-s</i> (2, 3)	<i>rāy-āu</i> (1)	<i>rāy-as</i> (1)
	voc.	<i>rā-s</i> (2, 4)	<i>rāy-āu</i> (1)	<i>rāy-as</i> (1)
	acc.	<i>rāy-am</i> (1)	<i>rāy-āu</i> (1)	<i>rāy-as</i> (1)
	instr.	<i>rāy-ā</i> (1)	<i>rā-bhyām</i> (2)	<i>rā-bhis</i> (2)
	dat.	<i>rāy-ê</i> (1)	<i>rā-bhyām</i> (2)	<i>rā-bhyas</i> (2)
	abl.	<i>rāy-as</i> (1)	<i>rā-bhyām</i> (2)	<i>rā-bhyas</i> (2)
	gen.	<i>rāy-as</i> (1)	<i>rāy-ô-s</i> (1)	<i>rāy-ām</i> (1)
	loc.	<i>rāy-i</i> (1)	<i>rāy-ô-s</i> (1)	<i>rā-su</i> (2)

1. *rāy* before vowels by **DIPH**
2. By **DIPH** before consonants, one should expect un.at. *rāi-bhis* rather than *rā-bhis*.
3. Nom. sg. marker *s* is clearly observable
4. Voc. sg. irregularly differs from the stem.

D.3.7. Feminine \bar{i} - and \bar{u} - stems***nadī* and *vadhū***

There exist two f. declensions with long \bar{i} and long \bar{u} , respectively. They strongly resemble each other. The \bar{i} -stem is exemplified by *nadī* (“river”):

<i>nadī</i> f.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>nad-ī</i> (1, 2)	<i>nad-y-âu</i> (4)	<i>nad-y-as</i> (4)
	voc.	<i>nad-i</i> (3)	<i>nad-y-âu</i> (4)	<i>nad-y-as</i> (4)
	acc.	<i>nad-ī-m</i> (1)	<i>nad-y-âu</i> (4)	<i>nad-ī-s</i> (1, 6)
	instr.	<i>nad-y-ā</i> (4, 5)	<i>nad-ī-bhyām</i> (1)	<i>nad-ī-bhis</i> (1)
	dat.	<i>nad-y-âi</i> (4, 6)	<i>nad-ī-bhyām</i> (1)	<i>nad-ī-bhyas</i> (1)
	abl.	<i>nad-y-ās</i> (4, 6)	<i>nad-ī-bhyām</i> (1)	<i>nad-ī-bhyas</i> (1)
	gen.	<i>nad-y-ās</i> (4, 6)	<i>nad-y-ôs</i> (4)	<i>nad-ī-nām</i> (1)
	loc.	<i>nad-y-ām</i> (4, 6)	<i>nad-y-ôs</i> (4)	<i>nad-ī-ṣu</i> (1, 7)

The *nadī* model has been used for many f. \bar{i} -nouns, such as *bala-vat-ī* or *bhar-a-nt-ī*. For m. nouns, consider *sēna-nīs* m. (“army general”) at *nī* (“to lead”) in the etymological dictionary. For the numbers, see below the paradigm for *vadhū* (“bride”):

<i>vadhū</i> f.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>vadh-ū-s</i> (1, 2)	<i>vadh-v-âu</i> (4)	<i>vadh-v-as</i> (4)
	voc.	<i>vadh-u</i> (3)	<i>vadh-v-âu</i> (4)	<i>vadh-v-as</i> (4)
	acc.	<i>vadh-ū-m</i> (1)	<i>vadh-v-âu</i> (4)	<i>vadh-ū-s</i> (1, 6)
	instr.	<i>vadh-v-ā</i> (4, 5)	<i>vadh-ū-bhyām</i> (1)	<i>vadh-ū-bhis</i> (1)
	dat.	<i>vadh-v-âi</i> (4, 6)	<i>vadh-ū-bhyām</i> (1)	<i>vadh-ū-bhyas</i> (1)
	abl.	<i>vadh-v-ās</i> (4, 6)	<i>vadh-ū-bhyām</i> (1)	<i>vadh-ū-bhyas</i> (1)
	gen.	<i>vadh-v-ās</i> (4, 6)	<i>vadh-v-ôs</i> (4)	<i>vadh-ū-nām</i> (1, 6)
	loc.	<i>vadh-v-ām</i> (4, 6)	<i>vadh-v-ôs</i> (4)	<i>vadh-ū-ṣu</i> (1, 7)

The *vadhū* pattern is much less prominent and comprises the f. nouns

- ◇ *cam-ū* (“army”)
- ◇ *svaśr-ū* (“mother in law”)
- ◇ *juh-ū* (“ladle”), see *hu* (“to sacrifice”)

The two paradigms (*nad-ī* and *vadhū*) are quite parallel:

1. Before consonant-initial endings, the long vowel is present.
2. In contrast to the nom. sg. *nad-ī*, we find the usual nom. sg. marker *s* in *vadhūs*.

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3. The voc. sg. *nad-i* and *vadh-u*, respectively, are formed from the stem but with the short vowel.
4. Before vowel-initial endings, ***hV*** leads to forms like *nad-y-ā* or *vadh-v-ā*.
5. Instr. sg. ending *ā* as usual for m. and f. athematic declensions.
6. These two paradigms consistently use thematic feminine endings in line with this table:

	singular			plural	
	dative	abl./gen.	locative	acc.	gen.
them. fem. nouns	<i>âi</i>	<i>ās</i>	<i>ām</i>	<i>Ṽs</i>	<i>Ṽnām</i> ← <i>VHnōm</i>

7. **RUKI**

dhī* and *bhū

Apart from *nadī* and *vadhū*, we find monosyllabic stems in long *ī* and long *ū*, respectively, that look peculiar at first sight. Consider *dhī* (“intellect”):

<i>dhī</i> f.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>dh-ī-s</i> (1, 2)	<i>dh-iy-âu</i> (4)	<i>dh-iy-as</i> (4)
	voc.	<i>dh-ī-s</i> (3)	<i>dh-iy-âu</i> (4)	<i>dh-iy-as</i> (4)
	acc.	<i>dh-iy-am</i> (4)	<i>dh-iy-âu</i> (4)	<i>dh-iy-as</i> (4, 6)
	instr.	<i>dh-iy-ā</i> (4)	<i>dh-ī-bhyām</i> (1)	<i>dh-ī-bhis</i> (1, 8)
	dat.	<i>dh-iy-ê/dh-iy-âi</i> (4, 5)	<i>dh-ī-bhyām</i> (1)	<i>dh-ī-bhyas</i> (1)
	abl.	<i>dh-iy-as/dh-iy-ās</i> (4, 5)	<i>dh-ī-bhyām</i> (1)	<i>dh-ī-bhyas</i> (1)
	gen.	<i>dh-iy-as/dh-iy-ās</i> (4, 5)	<i>dh-iy-ôs</i> (4)	<i>dh-iy-ām/dh-ī-nām</i> (1, 4, 5)
	loc.	<i>dh-iy-i/dh-iy-ām</i> (4, 5)	<i>dh-iy-ôs</i> (4)	<i>dh-ī-ṣu</i> (1, 7)

The numbers are explained below the *bhū* paradigm. The same pattern is followed by the f. nouns

- ◇ *bh-ī* (“fear”)
- ◇ *śr-ī* (“wealth”)
- ◇ *hr-ī* (“shame”)

In a parallel fashion (replace *ī/i/j* by *ū/u/v*), we have *bhū* (“earth”):

<i>bhū</i> f.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>bh-ū-s</i> (1, 2)	<i>bh-uv-âu</i> (4)	<i>bh-uv-as</i> (4)
	voc.	<i>bh-ū-s</i> (3)	<i>bh-uv-âu</i> (4)	<i>bh-uv-as</i> (4)
	acc.	<i>bh-uv-am</i> (4)	<i>bh-uv-âu</i> (4)	<i>bh-uv-as</i> (4, 5)
	instr.	<i>bh-uv-ā</i> (4)	<i>bh-ū-bhyām</i> (1)	<i>bh-ū-bhis</i> (1, 7)
	dat.	<i>bh-uv-ê/bh-uv-âi</i> (4, 5)	<i>bh-ū-bhyām</i> (1)	<i>bh-ū-bhyas</i> (1)
	abl.	<i>bh-uv-as/bh-uv-ās</i> (4, 5)	<i>bh-ū-bhyām</i> (1)	<i>bh-ū-bhyas</i> (1)
	gen.	<i>bh-uv-as/bh-uv-ās</i> (4, 5)	<i>bh-uv-ôs</i> (4)	<i>bh-uv-ām/bh-ū-nām</i> (1, 4, 5)
	loc.	<i>bh-uv-i/bh-uv-ām</i> (4, 5)	<i>bh-uv-ôs</i> (4)	<i>bh-ū-ṣu</i> (1, 6)

The pattern of *bhū* (“earth”) is also adhered to by *bhrū* (“brow”).

The two paradigms (*dhī* and *bhū*) are strictly parallel:

1. Before consonant-initial endings, the long vowel is present.
2. Nom. sg. with the usual nom. sg. marker *s*.
3. The voc. sg. are not formed from the stem but equal the nom. sg.
4. Before vowel-initial endings, $\mathbf{V} + \mathbf{hV}$ (pp. 21) leads to forms like *dh-iy-ā* or *bh-uv-ā*.
5. Consider this table for feminine endings of both athematic and thematic nouns:

	singular			plural	
	dative	abl./gen.	locative	acc.	gen.
athem. nouns	<i>ê</i>	<i>as</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>as</i>	<i>ām</i>
them. nouns	<i>âi</i>	<i>ās</i>	<i>ām</i>	<i>Ṽs</i>	<i>Ṽnām</i> ← <i>VHnōm</i> (Lar $_$ V)

Both *dhī* and *bhū* show the thematic (*nadī*) endings except for acc. pl. where the athematic ending prevails.

6. RUKI

7. *dh-ī-bhis* and *bh-ū-bhis* are peculiar in not reflecting **DA**. It seems that Grassmann’s law was not operative any more when these forms were built.

strī and *punar-bhū*

Another f. noun is *str-ī* (“woman”) that exhibits forms similar to those of *dh-ī* and *nadī*:

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<i>str-i</i> f.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>str-i</i>	<i>str-iy-âu</i>	<i>str-iy-as</i>
	voc.	<i>str-i</i>	<i>str-iy-âu</i>	<i>str-iy-as</i>
	acc.	<i>str-iy-am</i> / <i>str-i-m</i> (!)	<i>str-iy-âu</i>	<i>str-iy-as</i> / <i>str-i-s</i> (!)
	instr.	<i>str-iy-â</i>	<i>str-i-bhyām</i>	<i>str-i-bhis</i>
	dat.	<i>str-iy-âi</i>	<i>str-i-bhyām</i>	<i>str-i-bhyas</i>
	abl.	<i>str-iy-ās</i>	<i>str-i-bhyām</i>	<i>str-i-bhyas</i>
	gen.	<i>str-iy-ās</i>	<i>str-iy-ôs</i>	<i>str-i-nām</i>
	loc.	<i>str-iy-ām</i>	<i>str-iy-ôs</i>	<i>nad-i-ṣu</i>

After taking $\mathbf{V} + \mathbf{hV}$ into account, the only difference to the *nadī* paradigm concerns the accusatives, with the (first) thematic one and the (second) athematic one.

Finally, we turn to *punar-bh-ū* f. (“remarried widow”) which belongs to *bhū* (“to be”). This noun does not apply $\mathbf{V} + \mathbf{hV}$ by replacing *ū* by *uv* before vowel endings. Instead we find forms like instr. sg. *punar-bh-v-â*, very much like *vadh-v-â*. The only differences in comparison with *vadh-ū* are seen in the acc. sg. and pl. where we have the athematic forms *punar-bh-v-a-m* and *punar-bh-v-as* like in *marut*.

Related masculine compounds

There exist two compounds related with *dhī* (“intellect”) and *bhū* (“earth”). Both are m.:

- ◇ *su-dhī* (“intelligent”) and
- ◇ *prati-bhū* (“guarantor”)

Being masculine, they employ the left-hand alternative of the *dhī* and *bhū* paradigm, respectively:

<i>su-dhī</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>su-dh-i-s</i>	<i>su-dh-iy-âu</i>	<i>su-dh-iy-as</i>
	voc.	<i>su-dh-i-s</i>	<i>su-dh-iy-âu</i>	<i>su-dh-iy-as</i>
	acc.	<i>su-dh-iy-am</i>	<i>su-dh-iy-âu</i>	<i>su-dh-iy-as</i>
	instr.	<i>su-dh-iy-â</i>	<i>su-dh-i-bhyām</i>	<i>su-dh-i-bhis</i>
	dat.	<i>su-dh-iy-ê</i>	<i>su-dh-i-bhyām</i>	<i>su-dh-i-bhyas</i>
	abl.	<i>su-dh-iy-as</i>	<i>su-dh-i-bhyām</i>	<i>su-dh-i-bhyas</i>
	gen.	<i>su-dh-iy-as</i>	<i>su-dh-iy-ôs</i>	<i>su-dh-iy-ām</i>
	loc.	<i>su-dh-iy-i</i>	<i>su-dh-iy-ôs</i>	<i>su-dh-i-ṣu</i>

and

<i>prati-bhū</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>prati-bh-ū-s</i>	<i>prati-bh-uv-âu</i>	<i>prati-bh-uv-as</i>
	voc.	<i>prati-bh-ū-s</i>	<i>prati-bh-uv-âu</i>	<i>prati-bh-uv-as</i>
	acc.	<i>prati-bh-uv-am</i>	<i>prati-bh-uv-âu</i>	<i>prati-bh-uv-as</i>
	instr.	<i>prati-bh-uv-ā</i>	<i>prati-bh-ū-bhyām</i>	<i>prati-bh-ū-bhis</i>
	dat.	<i>prati-bh-uv-ê</i>	<i>prati-bh-ū-bhyām</i>	<i>prati-bh-ū-bhyas</i>
	abl.	<i>prati-bh-uv-as</i>	<i>prati-bh-ū-bhyām</i>	<i>prati-bh-ū-bhyas</i>
	gen.	<i>prati-bh-uv-as</i>	<i>prati-bh-uv-ô-s</i>	<i>prati-bh-uv-ām</i>
	loc.	<i>prati-bh-uv-i</i>	<i>prati-bh-uv-ô-s</i>	<i>prati-bh-ū-ṣu</i>

D.3.8. *i-* and *u-*stems

i-stems (*mun-i*, *mat-i*)

We have *i*-stems, for example

◇ m. *muni*

◇ f. *mati*

and *u*-stems, for example

◇ m. *guru*

◇ f. *dhênu*

◇ n. *madhu*

While the *i*- and *u*-stems are parallel, they show some unusual features not encountered before. Turning to the *i*-stems first, compare

<i>mun-i</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>mun-i-s</i> (1)	<i>mun-ī</i> (5)	<i>mun-ay-as</i> (2, 3)
	voc.	<i>mun-ê</i> (2)	<i>mun-ī</i> (5)	<i>mun-ay-as</i> (2, 3)
	acc.	<i>mun-i-m</i> (1)	<i>mun-ī</i> (5)	<i>mun-ī-n</i> (7)
	instr.	<i>mun-i-n-ā</i> (3, 6)	<i>mun-i-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>mun-i-bhis</i> (3)
	dat.	<i>mun-ay-ê</i> (2, 3)	<i>mun-i-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>mun-i-bhyas</i> (3)
	abl.	<i>mun-ê-s</i> (2)	<i>mun-i-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>mun-i-bhyas</i> (3)
	gen.	<i>mun-ê-s</i> (2)	<i>mun-y-ô-s</i> (1)	<i>mun-ī-nām</i> (8)
	loc.	<i>mun-âu</i> (4)	<i>mun-y-ô-s</i> (1)	<i>mun-i-ṣu</i> (3, 9)

with

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<i>mat-i</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>mat-i-s</i> (1)	<i>mat-ī</i> (5)	<i>mat-ay-as</i> (2, 3)
	voc.	<i>mat-ê</i> (2)	<i>mat-ī</i> (5)	<i>mat-ay-as</i> (2, 3)
	acc.	<i>mat-i-m</i> (1)	<i>mat-ī</i> (5)	<i>mat-ī-s</i> (7)
	instr.	<i>mat-y-ā</i> (3)	<i>mat-i-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>mat-i-bhis</i> (3)
	dat.	<i>mat-ay-ê</i> (2, 3)/ <i>mat-y-âi</i> (10)	<i>mat-i-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>mat-i-bhyas</i> (3)
	abl.	<i>mat-ê-s</i> (2)/ <i>mat-y-ās</i> (10)	<i>mat-i-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>mat-i-bhyas</i> (3)
	gen.	<i>mat-ê-s</i> (2)/ <i>mat-y-ās</i> (10)	<i>mat-y-ôs</i> (1)	<i>mat-ī-nām</i> (8)
	loc.	<i>mat-âu</i> (4)/ <i>mat-y-ām</i> (10)	<i>mat-y-ôs</i> (1)	<i>mat-i-ṣu</i> (3, 9)

1. We often find *i* before consonant versus *y* before vowel.
2. Some forms are “strong” in the sense of having the strong declension signs:
 - a) *ê* before consonants or word-initial and
 - b) *ay* before vowels.

The distribution of these “strong” forms has nothing to do with the strong forms in the sense of fig. D.1, p. 204. In this sense, the vocative equals the stem with “strong” declension sign.
3. Some endings are very familiar (for example from *marut*): instr. sg. *ā*, dat. sg. *ê*, or instr. pl. *bhis*.
4. Loc. sg. *mat-âu* is strange in doing away with the stem-final *i*. Loc. sg. ending *âu* differs from the usual ending *i* encountered in *marut-i* or *dêv-ê* ← **dêv-a-i*. *âu* may have travelled from the *u*-stems like *guru* below.
5. “Since” *âu* occurs as the or as a loc. sg., *âu* cannot be used in the dual forms NVA. There, we find the long thematic vowel instead, as in *mun-ī* or *mat-ī*.
6. Instr. sg. m. *mun-i-n-ā* exhibits additional *n*, presumably modeled on *in* stems, for example *yôg-in-ā*. Indeed, these two words can be used together quite often.
7. Compare acc. pl.
 - ◇ *mun-ī-n*, m., versus *mat-ī-s*, f., with
 - ◇ *dêv-ā-n*, m., versus *dêv-ā-s*, f.

Revisit subsection D.1.2, p. 203.
8. Gen. pl. are thematic as might be expected. The long vowels are explained by the laryngeal in the ie. ending *Hnōm*.
9. **RUKI**

10. The f. paradigm allows the thematic *nadī* endings in dative through locative singular, in line with this table:

	singular		
	dative	abl./gen.	locative
athem. nouns	<i>ê</i>	<i>as</i>	<i>i</i>
them. nouns	<i>âi</i>	<i>ās</i>	<i>ām</i>

Special case: *pati*

In compounds like

- ◇ *nara-pati* m. (“lord of the people, king”)
- ◇ *vanas-pati* m. (“lord of the forest, tree”)

the paradigm of *pati* (“husband”) follows *muni* above. However, in isolation, *pati* shows some peculiarities but is “more regular” than *muni* or *pi-tar*:

<i>pat-i</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>pat-i-s</i>	<i>pat-ī</i>	<i>pat-ay-as</i>
	voc.	<i>pat-ê</i>	<i>pat-ī</i>	<i>pat-ay-as</i>
	acc.	<i>pat-i-m</i>	<i>pat-ī</i>	<i>pat-ī-n</i>
	instr.	<i>pat-y-ā</i> (1)	<i>pat-i-bhyām</i>	<i>pat-i-bhis</i>
	dat.	<i>pat-y-ê</i> (2)	<i>pat-i-bhyām</i>	<i>pat-i-bhyas</i>
	abl.	<i>pat-y-us</i> (3)	<i>pat-i-bhyām</i>	<i>pat-i-bhyas</i>
	gen.	<i>pat-y-us</i> (3)	<i>pat-y-ôs</i>	<i>pat-ī-nām</i>
	loc.	<i>pat-y-âu</i> (4)	<i>pat-y-ôs</i>	<i>pat-i-ṣu</i>

1. Instr. sg. *pat-y-ā* does not show unexpected *n* like *mun-i-n-ā*.
2. Dat. sg. *pat-y-ê* does not exhibit the unusual “strong” declension sign as does *mun-ay-ê*.
3. *pat-y-us* exhibits the *us*-ending otherwise known from
 - ◇ kinship terms like *pit-us* (pp. 232)
 - ◇ *tor*-nouns like *nê-t-us* (pp. 231)
 where, in a strange fashion, the *r* is dropped.
4. Loc. sg.
 - ◇ *pat-y-âu* still exhibits the thematic vowel *i* in the form of the halfvowel while
 - ◇ *mun-âu* can strangely do without.

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***u*-stems (*gur-u*, *dhên-u*)**

The *u*-stems, m. and f., are just as the *i*-stems. One only needs to copy and paste according to subsections B.2.2 and B.2.3 (pp. 20) and replace

- ◇ *i* by *u* and *y* by *v*
- ◇ *ê* by *ô* (and *ay* by *av*)
- ◇ *ī* by *ū*

Compare, again, a masculine paradigm

<i>gur-u</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>gur-u-s</i> (1)	<i>gur-ū</i> (5)	<i>gur-av-as</i> (2, 3)
	voc.	<i>gur-ô</i> (2)	<i>gur-ū</i> (5)	<i>gur-av-as</i> (2, 3)
	acc.	<i>gur-u-m</i> (1)	<i>gur-ū</i> (5)	<i>gur-ū-n</i> (7)
	instr.	<i>gur-u-ṇ-ā</i> (3, 6, 11)	<i>gur-u-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>gur-u-bhis</i> (3)
	dat.	<i>gur-av-ê</i> (2, 3)	<i>gur-u-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>gur-u-bhyas</i> (3)
	abl.	<i>gur-ô-s</i> (2)	<i>gur-u-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>gur-u-bhyas</i> (3)
	gen.	<i>gur-ô-s</i> (2)	<i>gur-v-ô-s</i> (1)	<i>gur-ū-ṇām</i> (8, 11)
	loc.	<i>gur-âu</i> (4)	<i>gur-v-ô-s</i> (1)	<i>gur-u-ṣu</i> (3, 9)

with a feminine one:

<i>dhên-u</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>dhên-u-s</i> (1)	<i>dhên-ū</i> (5)	<i>dhên-av-as</i> (2, 3)
	voc.	<i>dhên-ô</i> (2)	<i>dhên-ū</i> (5)	<i>dhên-av-as</i> (2, 3)
	acc.	<i>dhên-u-m</i> (1)	<i>dhên-ū</i> (5)	<i>dhên-ū-s</i> (7)
	instr.	<i>dhên-v-ā</i> (3)	<i>dhên-u-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>dhên-u-bhis</i> (3)
	dat.	<i>dhên-av-ê</i> (2, 3)/ <i>dhên-v-âi</i> (10)	<i>dhên-u-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>dhên-u-bhyas</i> (3)
	abl.	<i>dhên-ô-s</i> (2)/ <i>dhên-v-ās</i> (10)	<i>dhên-u-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>dhên-u-bhyas</i> (3)
	gen.	<i>dhên-ô-s</i> (2)/ <i>dhên-v-ās</i> (10)	<i>dhên-v-ô-s</i> (1)	<i>dhên-ū-nām</i> (8)
	loc.	<i>dhên-âu</i> (4)/ <i>dhên-v-ām</i> (10)	<i>dhên-v-ô-s</i> (1)	<i>dhên-u-ṣu</i> (3, 9)

1. ***hV***
2. **DIPH** in the sense of strong declension signs unrelated to fig. D.1. p. 204. In this sense, the vocative equals the stem with strong declension sign.
3. Familiar endings: instr. sg. *ā*, dat. sg. *ê*, or instr. pl. *bhis*.
4. Loc. sg. ending *âu* differs from the usual ending *i* encountered in *marut-i* or *dêv-ê* ← **dêv-a-i*.

5. “Since” *âu* occurs as the or as a loc. sg., *âu* cannot be used in the dual forms NVA. There, we find the long thematic vowel instead: *gur-ū* or *dhên-ū*.
6. Instr. sg. m. *gur-u-ṇ-ā* exhibits additional *n*, presumably modeled on *in* stems, for example *yôg-in-ā*. Indeed, these two words can be used together quite often.
7. Compare acc. pl.
 - ◇ *gur-ū-n*, m., versus *dhên-ū-s*, f., with
 - ◇ *mun-ī-n*, m., versus *mat-ī-s* and with
 - ◇ *dêv-ā-n*, m., versus *dêv-ā-s*, f.
8. Gen. pl. are thematic as might be expected. The long vowels are explained by the laryngeal in the ie. ending *Hnōm*.
9. **RUKI**
10. Thematic *nadī* endings in dative through locative singular
11. **Cern**

Neuter *u-* or *un-*stems and *ṛ* or *ṛṇ-*stems

The n. *u*-stems like *madh-u* (“honey”) have been strongly influenced by n. (*v*)*in*-stems like *tapas-vin* (p. 230). Indeed, the speakers may have assumed a stem **madh-un*, rather than *madh-u*: It is instructive to compare the *madh-u*/*madh-un* paradigm with the *karm-an* paradigm (pp. 229).

<i>madh-u</i> / <i>madh-un</i> n.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>madh-u</i> (1)	<i>madh-un-ī</i> (2, 4)	<i>madh-ūn-i</i> (4)
	voc.	<i>madh-u/ô</i> (1, 3)	<i>madh-un-ī</i> (2, 4)	<i>madh-ūn-i</i> (4)
	acc.	<i>madh-u</i> (1)	<i>madh-un-ī</i> (2, 4)	<i>madh-ūn-i</i> (4)
	instr.	<i>madh-un-ā</i> (2)	<i>madh-u-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>madh-u-bhis</i> (5)
	dat.	<i>madh-un-ê</i> (2)	<i>madh-u-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>madh-u-bhyas</i> (5)
	abl.	<i>madh-un-as</i> (2)	<i>madh-u-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>madh-u-bhyas</i> (5)
	gen.	<i>madh-un-as</i> (2)	<i>madh-un-ôs</i> (2)	<i>madh-ū-nām</i> (6)
	loc.	<i>madh-un-i</i> (2)	<i>madh-un-ôs</i> (2)	<i>madh-u-ṣu</i> (7)

1. The stem *madh-u* is clearly present in sg. NVA.
2. The stem *madh-un* prevails in many other forms.
3. Besides *madh-u*, the second voc. sg. *madh-ô* also exists, similar to voc. sg. *gur-ô*.
4. Compare

D. Grammar: nouns and adverbs

◇ nom. dual *tapas-vin-ī* with *madh-un-ī* and

◇ nom. pl. *tapas-vīn-i* with *madh-ūn-i*.

Pl. NVA *madh-ūn-i* are probably due to analogy with forms like *phal-ā-ni* or *karm-ā-ṇi*.

5. *madh-u-bhis* and similar forms is explainable by the stem *madh-u* but also by the stem *madh-un* together with analogy with forms like *rāj-a-bhis* or *yôg-i-bhis* (p. 230).

6. The long vowel \bar{u} is easily explained by the laryngeal in the ie. ending *Hnōm*.

7. RUKI

At this point, we may introduce n. agent nouns because their declension resembles n. *madhu* very closely. We look at the paradigm for *gan-tr*. In order to focus on the similarities with *madh-u/madh-un* we assume two stems *gant-r/gant-rṇ*:

<i>gant-r/gant-rṇ</i> n.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>gant-r̥</i>	<i>gant-rṇ-ī</i>	<i>gant-ṝṇ-i</i>
	voc.	<i>gant-ar/gantr̥</i> (!)	<i>gant-rṇ-ī</i>	<i>gant-ṝṇ-i</i>
	acc.	<i>gant-r̥</i>	<i>gant-rṇ-ī</i>	<i>gant-ṝṇ-i</i>
	instr.	<i>gant-rṇ-ā</i>	<i>gant-r-bhyām</i>	<i>gant-r̥-bhis</i>
	dat.	<i>gant-rṇ-ê</i>	<i>gant-r-bhyām</i>	<i>gant-r̥-bhyas</i>
	abl.	<i>gant-rṇ-as</i>	<i>gant-r-bhyām</i>	<i>gant-r̥-bhyas</i>
	gen.	<i>gant-rṇ-as</i>	<i>gant-rṇ-ôś</i>	<i>gant-ṝ-ṇām</i>
	loc.	<i>gant-rṇ-i</i>	<i>gant-rṇ-ôś</i>	<i>gant-r̥-ṣu</i>

The copy-paste operations involve replacing *madh* by *gant* and then

1. *u* by *r̥*,
2. *un* by *rṇ* and,
3. $\bar{u}n$ by $\bar{r}ṇ$

In particular, the voc. singulars also fit. We have

	f.g. of declension sign	z.g. of declension sign
<i>madh-u</i>	<i>madh-ô</i>	<i>madh-u</i>
<i>gant-r̥</i>	<i>gant-ar</i>	<i>gant-r̥</i>

D.4. Adverbs from fossilized case endings

Many adverbs stem from fossilized case endings.

D.4.1. Accusative

- ◇ *a-vaśyam* (“not to be wished → necessarily, indeed”) ← *a* + *ya*-gerundive of *vaś* (“to wish”)
- ◇ *ī-ṣat* (“being in that manner → a bit, somewhat”) ← *ī* + n. pres. part. of *as* (“to be”)
- ◇ *ciram* (“for a long time, long ago”) from *cira* (“long”)
- ◇ *taras* (“fast”) from *taras* n. cons. (“ferry, advancement, energy”)
- ◇ *nāma* (“by name”), see the declension on p. 228
- ◇ *nir-bharam* (“completely”) ← *nis* + *bhara*
- ◇ *prati-dinam* (“every day”) ← *prati* + *dinam*
- ◇ *praty-aham* (“every day”) ← *prati* + *ahar* (but here as if acc. from *aham*, n., which does not exist)
- ◇ *yathākāman* (“according to desire, at will”) ← *yathā* + *kāma* (“desire”)
- ◇ *sādhu* (“well”), see *sādh* (“to be successful, to lead to one’s goal”)
- ◇ *sukham* (“happily”)

D.4.2. Instrumental

- ◇ *a-khilēna* (“in its entirety, all in all”) ← *a* + *khila* (“wasteland, rest”)
- ◇ *a-cirēṇa* (“for a short time”) ← *a* + *cira* (“long”)
- ◇ *uccaiḥ* (“loud”) ← *ucca* (“high”)
- ◇ *tarēṇa* (“fast, by force”) ← *taras* n. (“ferry, advancement, energy”)
- ◇ *cirēṇa* (“after a long time”) from *cira* (“long”)
- ◇ *prāyēṇa* (“usually, probably”) ← *pra-aya* (“quantity, a state or condition of life like youth, death”)
- ◇ *vi-starēṇa* (“at length”) ← *vi-stara* (“extension, detail”, see *stṛ* in the dictionary)
- ◇ *sahas-ā* (“with might → forcibly, suddenly”) from *sahas* n. (“might, power”)

D.4.3. Ablative

- ◇ *a-cirāt* (“for a short time”) ← *a* + *cira* (“long”)
- ◇ *dūrāt* (“from afar”) ← *dūra* (“far”)

D.4.4. Locative

- ◇ *cirê* (“in a long time → finally”) ← *cira* (“long”)
- ◇ *dūrê* (“far away”) ← *dūra* (“far”)
- ◇ *sa-padi* (“immediately”) ← *sa* (“together”) + *pad* m. (“foot”)

D.4.5. *tas*-suffix

The *tas*-suffix is used in the abl. sense.

- ◇ *agra-tas* (“first, in front”) ← *agram* (“top, summit, beginning”)
- ◇ *grāma-tas* (“from the village”) ← *grāma* (“village”)
- ◇ *pr̥ṣṭha-tas* (“behind”) ← *pr̥ṣṭham* (“back”)
- ◇ *śāstra-tas* (“according to the *śāstras*”) ← *śāstram* (“text, manual”)
- ◇ *sva-tas* (“with one’s own power”) ← *sva* (“own”)

D.4.6. *śas*-suffix

śas is added to numbers or quantifiers.

- ◇ *êkâika-śas* (“one by one”) ← *êka* (“one”) + *êka* + *śas*
- ◇ *prāya-śas* (“usually, probably”) ← *pra-aya* (“quantity, a state or condition of life like youth, death”)
- ◇ *śata-śas* (“by the hundred”) ← *śatam* (“hundred”)

D.4.7. *vat*-suffix

- ◇ *kapi-vat* (“like a monkey”) ← *kapi* (“monkey”)

D.4.8. *dhā*-suffix

dhā can often be translated as “-fold”

- ◇ *dvi-dhā* (“twofold”) ← *dvi* (“two” in compounds)
- ◇ *bahu-dhā* (“manifold”) ← *bahu* (“many”)

D.5. Miscellanea

D.5.1. Derivatives

A number of derivatives seem to use something like the lengthened grade. However, it is not the verbal root that is lengthened (see pp. 137) but the first syllable. Consider these examples:

length. form	translation	origin
<i>jānakī</i>	daughter of <i>Janaka</i>	<i>Janaka</i> (name of a king)
<i>dāśa-rath-i</i>	son of <i>Daśa-rath-a</i>	<i>daśa</i> (“ten”) + <i>rath-a</i> (“chariot”)
<i>pārvat-ī</i>	daughter of the mountain	<i>parvat-a</i> (mountain)
<i>pāutr-a</i>	grandson	<i>putr-a</i> (“son”)
<i>prā-kṛt-a</i>	elementary, natural	<i>pra-kṛt-a</i> (“accomplished”)
<i>lâuk-ik-a</i>	worldly	<i>lôk-a</i> (“world”)

Rarely, alpha privativum is lengthened in similar instances:

length. form	translation	origin
<i>ā-kasmika</i>	unforeseen	<i>a-kasmāt</i> (“without a why or a wherefore”)
<i>ā-jasr-ik-a</i>	perpetual	<i>a-jasra</i> (“perpetual”)

Lengthened grade, of alpha privativum or else, also occurs in neuter nouns with suffix *ya* indicating “-ness” or “-ity”.

length. form	translation	origin
<i>ā-tith-ya-m</i>	hospitality	<i>a-tith-i</i> (“guest”)
<i>ā-rôg-ya-m</i>	health	<i>a-rôg-a</i> (“health”) ← <i>ruj</i>
<i>ā-las-ya-m</i>	idleness	<i>a-las-a</i> (“idle”) ← <i>las</i>
<i>âśvar-ya-m</i>	lordship	<i>īśvar-a</i> (“lord”)
<i>jāḍ-ya-m</i>	stupidity	<i>jaḍa</i> (“stupid”)
<i>trāiguṇ-ya-m</i>	pertaining to the three g.	<i>triguṇās</i> (“three <i>guṇas</i> ”)
<i>dāridr-ya-m</i>	poverty	<i>daridr-a</i> (“poor”)
<i>dhâir-ya-m</i>	resolution	<i>dhīr-a</i> (“steady, persistent”)
<i>pāṇḍit-ya-m</i>	scholarliness	<i>paṇḍit-a</i> (“scholar”)
<i>mādur-ya-m</i>	sweetness	<i>madur-a</i> (“sweet”)
<i>mâitr-ya-m</i>	friendship	<i>mitr-am</i> (“friend”)
<i>vāṇij-ya-m</i>	trade	<i>vaṇij</i> (“merchant”)
<i>śaur-ya-m</i>	valor	<i>śur-a</i> (“brave”)
<i>svā-sth-ya-m</i>	health	<i>sva-stha</i> (“well at ease”) ← <i>sthā</i>

D.5.2. Ātmanêpada present-tense participles

The ātmanêpada present-tense participles vary according to whether we are dealing with thematic or with athematic verbs.

- ◇ For athematic verbs, the ending *āna* is attached to the weak present stem. For example, the present participle from *duh*, *duh-mas* (“we milk”) is *duh-āna*.
- ◇ For thematic verbs, the ending *a-māna* is attached to the present stem. For example, the present participle from *man*, *man-ya-tê* (“to think”) is *man-y-a-māna*.

It is argued that

ie. **mh₁no*

is the underlying form. It is also present in the lat. B *alu-mnu-s*. Depending on whether the verb is athematic or thematic, one obtains:

- ◇ Athematic verbs attach *mh₁no* directly to their weak present stem causing *m* to become syllabic. Then **Lar**_**SY** (ie. $C\underset{\circ}{m}HC \rightarrow C\bar{a}C$) regularly produces *āna*.
- ◇ By **Lar**_**V**, thematic verbs should have produced *a-mina* (a Prakrit form *mina* does indeed exist). Leveling was then responsible for producing oi. and even ved. *a-māna*:

	<i>a-mina</i>	
influenced by	<i>āna</i>	with long <i>ā</i> before <i>n</i>
turns into	<i>a-māna</i>	with long <i>ā</i> before <i>n</i>

E. Etymological dictionary

E.1. Introductory remarks

If you are looking for a specific oi. word, you may try to check in the dictionary. Alternatively, you may check the index to see whether any Old Indian, German, English or other word is to be found. While we adhere to the usual Indian rank order in the dictionary, the index pretty much uses the order of the Latin alphabet.

For nouns and their gender, consult section A.6 (pp. 7) on the conventions used in this book. For verbs, we often record important forms, usually in the following pattern:

oi. root (meaning)		
present tense	3. pers. sg.	3. pers. pl.
infinitive		
PPP		
future	3. pers. sg.	3. pers. pl.
imperfect	3. pers. sg.	3. pers. pl.
perfect	3. pers. sg.	3. pers. pl.
aorist	3. pers. sg.	3. pers. pl.
desiderative	3. pers. sg.	adjective

If several forms exist, only one or seldomly two are cited.

E.2. Vowels

E.2.1. *a*

a- negating prefix (p. 66)

before *C*

- ◇ ***a-ga*** (“not going → tree”) with second part *ga* from *gam* (pp. 135)
- ◇ ***a-vaśyam*** adv. (“not to be wished → necessarily, indeed”), see *vaś* (“to wish”)

before *V*

- ◇ ***an-ā-gata*** (“not having come → future”) with last part PPP *gata* of *gam*
- ◇ ***an-anta*** (“without end → infinite”)

E. Etymological dictionary

- ◇ **an-êka** (“not one → manifold, several”) with second part *êka* (“one, single”)
- ◇ **an-ṛta** (“not true”) with second part PPP *ṛta*
 - “fitting → true” from *ar* (“to fit, to connect”) or
 - “reached → true” from *ṛ* (“to rise, to reach”)

an-īṭ (“without *i*”) with second part *īṭ* (traditional expression for oi. *i*)

← ie. **n̥* (**SY** *_N*), see ie. **ne* s.v. *na*

→ gr. B *a*-theist, *an*-archy (just like Sanskrit before consonant or vowel, respectively)

~ lat. B *in*-effective, *im*-possible

~ e. *un*-true, *un*-believable

~ nhg. *un*-gläubig

aṃhas n. (“fear, distress”)

aṃhu n. (“straight, narrow”)

← ie. root **h₂emǵh*

→ lat. *ang-ere* (“to stangle, to choke”) with B *anxious*

~ nhg. *eng* (“narrow”) ~ nhg. *Ang*-st (“fear”)

ak-ṣa m. (“axis, pole of a car”), see *aj*

← ie. **h₂eǵ-s*

→ lat. B *axis*

~ e. *axle* ~ nhg. *Achse*

akṣi n. (“eye”), **akṣan** n. (“eye”)

an-akṣa (“blind”), see p. 66

an-īka (“face”) ← ie. **h₁eni-h₃k^w-o* (**Lar** *_V*, for first part, see e. *in* ~ nhg. *in*)

īkṣ 1. class: **īkṣate** (“to see”), originally a desiderative (p. 131)

← ie. root **h₃ek^w-s* / **h₃ok^w-s*

→ gr. B *op-tics*

~ lat. *oc-ulus* (“eye”) with B *oc-ular* (“lense”) etc.

~ e. *eye* ~ nhg. *Auge* (difficult, perhaps a version of **VER**)

agni m. (“fire”)
aṅgāra (“coal”)

← ie. **h₁ng^w-ni* (“fire”)

→ lat. *ignis*, e. B to *ignite*

agram (“top, summit, beginning”)
agrê loc. sg. of above, prep. with gen. (“in front, ahead of”)
êkāgra (“one-pointed, focussed”) with first part *êka* (“one, single”)

a-ghn-ya (“bull”)
a-ghn-yā gerundive (p. 141, “not to be killed → cow”)
 see alpha privativum (p. 66), **SY _ N** and *han*

aṅka (“hook, curve”)

← ie. **Honk-o* (“curvature”)

→ gr. B *oncology*

aj 1. class: **ajati** (“to drive”)
aja (difficult: “the animal that is led → goat”)
ajijīṣati desiderative (“he wishes to drive”), produced by levelling and analogy
aj-ma or **ajman** n. (“path, move”)
āji m./f. (“race course, contest”)
samāja m. (“meeting, gathering”)

← ie. root **h₂eǵ* (“to drive, to do”)

→ gr. B *dem-ag-ogue* and *ped-ag-ogue*

~ lat. B

◇ before vowel *ag-ile*, *ag-ent*, *ag-enda*, *ag-itate* and the less obvious *cogitation*
 (also in: *cogito ergo sum*), *litigation*, *nav-igation* (for first part, see *nāu*)

◇ before voiceless *t* (turning *ag* into *ak*) *act*, *action*, *active*, *actual*, *re-act*

See *akṣa*, *ajra*, *êj*.

ajira (“fast”) (**SY _ N**, **Lar _ V**, *rl*)

← ie. **h₂ng_{h1}lo*

E. Etymological dictionary

→ gr. *aggelos* (“messenger”) ← ie. **h₂engh₁lo* with B in English *angel* and German *Engel*

ajra (“cattle ground”), see *aj*

← ie. **h₂eǵ-ro* (“where something is driven to → cattle ground”)

→ lat. adj. *agrarius* whence e. *agrarian* (economy, for example)

~ e. *acre* (“cattle ground → field → surface measure of about 4000 square meters”)

~ nhg. *Acker* (“field”) (the *r* has prevented the shift to *ch*, see p. 73)

añc 1. class: **añcati** or

ac 1. class: **acati** (“to bend, to go”)

añka (“hook, curve”), see s.v. *añka*

← ie. root **Henk*

Many *ac/añc* words like

preposition	<i>ac</i> adjective	<i>ac</i> adverb
<i>anu</i> (“along”)	<i>anv-añc</i> (“dir. upward, northern”)	<i>anv-ak</i> (“behind”)
<i>apa</i> (“away, off, back”)	<i>apāñc</i> (“dir. backward, western”)	<i>apāk</i> (“in or from the west”)
<i>ava</i> (“off, away”)	<i>av-añc</i> (“dir. downward, southern”)	<i>avāk</i> (“downward”)
<i>ud</i> (“out”)	<i>ud-ac</i> (“dir. upward, northern”)	<i>ud-ak</i> (“in or from the north”)
		<i>prāg-ud-ac</i> (“north-eastern”)
<i>tiras</i> (“across, over”)	<i>tiry-ac</i> (“sideward”)	
<i>ni</i> (“into”)	<i>ny-ac</i> (“downward”)	
<i>pra</i> (“before”)	<i>prāc</i> (“dir. forward, eastern”)	<i>prāk</i> (“in front, in the east”)

(where “dir.” stands for directed)

añj 7. class: **a-na-k-ti** (“to anoint, to reveal”) (preferably: *aj*, *a-na-k-ti* where infix is formed as in *yuj*, *yu-nak-ti*, see pp. 87)

abhi-vy-ak-ta (“clear, manifest”)

← ie. root **h₃eng^w* (“to anoint”)

→ lat. B *unction* and *ointment* (via old French)

at 1. class: **atati** (“to go, to roam”)

atya (“steed, runner”)

later with cerebralization:

◇ **aṭ** 1. class: **aṭati** (“to go, to roam”)

◇ **aṭavi** (“forest”)

← ie. root $*h_2et$ (“to drive, to do”)

→ lat. *annus* (“year”) ← ie. $*h_2et-nos$ (similarly in *penna*, see *pat*) with B *annual*

ati (“beyond, a lot”)

atīva (“exceedingly, very”) ← *ati* + *iva*

← ie. $*h_1eti$, loc. sg. of root noun ie. $*h_1et$ (see s.v. *at*)

→ lat. *et* (“and”) known from *et cetera* (“and the remaining”) and the sign & where you can, with some effort, recognize *e* (the upper part) and *t*

a-tithi m. (“guest”) ← *a* + *tithi* m. (“lunar day, period of 15 days”), i.e., a guest is somebody who does not stay as long as 15 days

ātithya (“hospitable, hospitality”) with *ya*-suffix and *vṛddhi*

ad 2. class: **atti** (“to eat”)

annam (“food”) ← *ad-nam*

<i>ad</i> (“to eat”)		
present tense	<i>at-ti</i> (1)	<i>ad-an-ti</i>
infinitive	<i>at-tum</i> (1)	
future	<i>at-sy-a-ti</i> (1)	<i>at-sy-a-n-ti</i>
imperfect	<i>ād-a-t</i> (2)	<i>ād-an</i> (3)
perfect	<i>ād-a</i> (4)	<i>ād-us</i> (5)

1. **BA**

2. *ād* regularly from *a-ad* with imperfect marker *a* ← ie. *e*, but irregularly with thematic vowel.

3. Perhaps regular from weak form ie. $*e-h_1d-$.

4. *ād* regularly from *a-ad* by reduplication.

5. Compare *ca-kr-us*. Perhaps *ād-us* is regular from weak form ie. $*h_1e-h_1d-$.

E. Etymological dictionary

← ie. root **h₁ed*

→ Full-grade representatives

◇ e. *eat* (**GER**)

◇ nhg. *ess-en* (**NHG** _ *C*)

~ Zero-grade representatives: The following present participles derive from ie. **h₁d-ent/ *h₁d-ont* (“eating, eater”):

◇ oi. *danta* (“an elephant’s tusk”)

◇ gr. B *dont*-ology

◇ lat. B *dent*-al

◇ e. *tooth* (**NHG** _ **E**) ~ nhg. *Zahn* (**NHG** _ *C*)

a-diti f. (“liberation”)

also: name of a goddess, mother of the *ādityas*, like *mitra*, *varuṇa*

See p. 66 and *dā* (“to bind”).

adhara (“low, inferior”)

adhas (“under”)

← ie. **H_ṛdhero/*H_ṛdhes*

→ lat. B *infra*structure

~ e. *under* ~ nhg. *unter* (But compare e. *hound* ~ nhg. *Hund* on p. 73 where germ. *d* is not changed to nhg. *t* after *n*)

an-ala (“insatiable, fire”) where the second part is related to

alam (“enough”)

anas n. (“vehicle for heavy burdens, cart”)

anaḍvah n. (“ox, draught animal ← pulling a cart”) with second part *vah* (difficult cerebralization)

← ie. **h₃enos* (ie. *o* ← *h₃e* and hence non-application of **Lo**)

→ lat. *onus* (gen. *oneris*) as in “*onus* of proof”, lat. B *onerous*, to *ex-oner-ate*

an 2. class: **aniti** (“to breathe”) and, perhaps, **ānila** (“wind”)

ana (“breath”)

◇ **āna** ← *ā* + *ana* (“inhalation, mouth”)

- ◇ **apāna** ← *apa* + *ana* (“downward breath, elimination”)
- ◇ **udāna** ← *ud* + *ana* (“upward breath”)
- ◇ **prāṇa** ← *pra* + *ana* (“vital breath”)
- ◇ **vyāna** ← *vi* + *ā* + *ana* (“moving breath, circulation”) (or by analogy with *prāṇa*)
- ◇ **samāna** ← *sama* + *ana* (“even breath, digestion”)

aniniṣati desiderative (difficult, see p. 131)

← ie. root **h₂enh₁*

→ lat. B *animated*, *animal*, *ex-animate* from lat. *anima* (“wind”)/ *animus* (“soul”)

anu (“along, corresponding”)

anu-ja (“being born later → younger (brother)”), see s.v. *jan*

anv-añc (“following”) ← *anu-añc*, see *añc* above

anv-ak (“behind”)

anta (“border, ending”)

vêdānta (“end of Vedic literature”), see *vid*

See *antara* (“another”).

antar (“within”)

antara (“interior, intimate”)

antarā (“in between, inside”)

antarīkṣam / **antarīkṣam** (“transparent space → airspace”) with second part from *īkṣ*

antar-uṣya (“station, dwelling place”) with second part from *vas* (“to dwell”)

antas-tyam (“intestines”) ← *antar* (wrong sandhi *r* → *s* before *t*) + suffix *-tya* (compare *apa-tyam*)

← ie. **h₁enter* / *h₂n[∠]tér*

→ lat. *inter* as in B *inter-national*

~ lat. B *intestines* ← ie. **h₁enter-sth₂-o* (for second part, see s.v. *sthā*)

~ nhg. *unter* (“among”) as in “Wolf *unter* Wölfen”, a 1937 novel by Hans Fallada

The ie. stress was on the second syllable, at least in ie. *h₂n[∠]tér*. Then, we have expected *t* in *unter* as in *Vater* (see *pi-tar*). Compare nhg. *unter* s.v. s.v. *adhas*.

anta-ra (“another”)

anta-ma (“next, nearest”)

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← ie. **h₁entero*

→ e. *other* ~ nhg. *anderer* (**NHG** **_E** for loss of e. *n*)

Perhaps related to *an-ta* (that on the other side). Ved. *an-tama* means “last”.

anti (“opposite, in the face of”)

anti-mitra (“surrounded by friends”)

← ie. **h₂ent* (“front, face”), a root noun with locative oi. *anti*

→ gr.

◇ B *anti-pode* (“who has his feet against ours”), see s.v. *pad*

◇ B *anti-biotics*, see *jīv*

~ lat. *ante* known from *ante Christum natum*

antyêṣṭi f. (“offering for the dead”) ← *antya* (“being at the end”, see *anta* above) + *iṣṭi* f. (“offering”, see *yaj*)

annam, see *ad*

anya (“other”)

← ie. **an-yo*/**al-yo*

~ ogr. *allos* and gr. B *allergy*, *allegory*

~ lat. *alius* and lat. B *alibi* (see *iha*)

anyônyas (“one another”) is petrified from nom. sg. *anyas anyas* by **CpLz**. The acc. sg. is **not** *anyamanyam*, but *anyônyam*.

See also *ari*.

anv-añc (“following”), see *anu* and *añc*

ap f. (“water”), only pl.

with compound-final “zero-grades” (pp. 135):

◇ **apsu-ja** (“born in the waters”) formed with loc. rather than the usual stem, see *jan*

◇ **apsu-jit** (“vanquishing among the waters or in the region of the clouds”), again with loc., see *ji*

- ◇ **ab-da** (“water giver → cloud”, “when clouds reappear → year”) with **BA**, see *dā*
- ◇ **ab-dhi** (“holding water → ocean”) with **BA**, see *dhā*

with long vowel in first part by zero-grade h_2p (**Lar** $_ V$):

- ◇ **dvīpa** (“having water on two sides → island”) ← *dvi* as in *dvi-pad* (“with two feet”) or *dvi-vacana* (“dual”)
- ◇ **anūpa** (“near the water, watery → marshy”) ← *anu*
- ◇ **nīpa** (“towards the water → lowly”) ← *ni*
- ◇ **pratīpa** (“against the stream, going in opposite direction → adverse, displeasing”) ← *prati*
- ◇ **samīpa** (“with the stream → near, adjacent, close at hand”) ← *sam* + *ap* in analogy with *pratīpa*

<i>ap</i>	case	pl.
	nom.	<i>āp-as</i> (2)
	voc.	<i>āp-as</i> (2)
	acc.	<i>ap-as</i> (1)
	instr.	<i>ad-bhis</i> (3)
	dat.	<i>ad-bhyas</i> (3)
	abl.	<i>ad-bhyas</i> (3)
	gen.	<i>ap-ām</i> (1)
	loc.	<i>ap-su</i> (1)

1. The general pattern of *ap* is close to that of *marut* (see p. 211).
2. Long *ā* in nom. and voc. cases is mysterious.
3. Dissimilation *ap-bhis* → *ad-bhis*

← ie. $*h_2ep/*h_2ek^w$

→ lat. *aqua*

apa (“away”)

apa-ra (comparative: “a later one, another one”)

apa-ma (superlative: “the latest, the last”)

apa-taram (superlative: “farther off”)

apāñc (“backward, western”), see añc

apa-tyam (“child, offspring”), for suffix *tya* compare *anta-styam*

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← ie. **h₂ep-ó* (“off”)

→ ogr. *apo* and gr. B *apocalypse* (for sec. part see *kulam*)

~ lat. *ab* and lat. B *ab-straction* or *ab-duction* (where voicing may be due lat. words like *ab-dūcere*)

~ germ.

◇ e. *of* and e. *off* ~ nhg. *ab* (**VER**)

◇ nhg. *aber* (**VER**) (“but”) ~ oi. *apara*

◇ e. *after* (“but”) ~ oi. *apatarām*

ap-as (“action, deed, rite”)

ap-nas (“wealth, action”)

← ie. **opes/h₃epes* (with regular non-application of **Lo**)

→ lat. *opus* with B *opera* and *opulent* and German *opfern* (“to sacrifice”) with unclear **NHG_C** (we should expect n.at. *offern*)

~ lat. *officium* ← **opi-fak-io* with B *official*

~ nhg. *üben* (“to exercise”), *üblich* (**VER**)

Both Sanskrit (with *apnas* from *apas*) and Latin (see *opulent*) convey the idea that you get rich from working.

apāñc (“backward, western”), see *apa* and *añc*

api (“also, even”, question particle)

← ie. **h₁epi*, loc. sg. of a root noun

api (“at, by around”)

← ie. **h₁opi*

→ ogr. *epi* in gr. B *epi-dermis*

~ lat. *op-timus* (compare *intimus* s.v. *-tama*)

abda

◇ **ab-da** (“water giver → cloud”, “when clouds reappear → year”) with **BA**, see *ap* und *dā*

◇ **a-bd-a** ← **a-pd-a* (“without feet, inaccessible”) with **BA**, see *pad*

abhi (“around, on both sides, toward”)

← ie. **h₂m_obhi*

→ gr. B *amphi*-theater

~ lat. B *ambi*-ence, *ambi*-valent, *ambi*-guous

See also *ubha* (“both”).

abhi-ṣ-ṭi m. (“protector”)/ **abhi-ṣ-ṭi** f. (“protection”), see *as* for second part

abhīṣṭa (“desired”) ← *abhi* and *iṣṭa* (PPP of *iṣ*)

abhīśu (“rein”) ← *abhi* and *īś*

abhram (“cloud, airy space”)

← ie. **nebh* (“sky, mist”) and zero-grade ie. **n_obh-ro*

Compare *ambhas* and *nabhas*.

a-bhva (“not being (good) → monstrous, powerful”), see p. 137

← ie. **n_obhv-o*

am 2. class: **amīti** (“to grab, to harm, to swear”)

ama-tram (“the pot that is grabbed → drinking vessel”)

← ie. root **h₃emh₃*

→ lat. *am-āre* (“to love” ← “to regard as a friend” ← “to take the hand of”) with B *am-ateur* and PN Wolfgang *Amadeus* (for second part, see *deva*) Mozart

~ lat. *amicus* (“friend”) and B *amicable*

a-mati (“poor”) f. (“not knowing, poverty”)

See *man*. Someone is considered poor because he is not thought of, or not borne in mind by, human or divine benefactors.

amā (“home, at home”)

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amāt (“from home”)

amā-tya (“house companion, minister”), compare *apa-tya*

See *svāmin*.

a-mnas adv. (“without thinking → immediately, unawares”)

See *man*.

ambā/ ambī (“mother”), babble word like unrelated German *Amme* or English *nana*

ambu n. (“water”), probably not related to *ambhas*

a-mbhas (“not mist → water”)

← $\overset{*}{n}\text{-}\overset{\circ}{n}\overset{\circ}{b}h$ with **BA**. Difficult because **SY_Conf** would yield *nabha*. See *abhram* and *nabhas*.

ambhas also means power because a flood can be very powerful.

ayas n. cons. (“ore, iron”)

← ie. $*h_2eyes/ ayes$ n. (“bronze”)

→ lat. *aes, aeris* n. (“copper, bronze”)

~ e. *ore*

~ nhg. *ehern* (“brazen, iron”)

a-yogū (“girl without brothers (and sisters)”)

See alpha privativum on p. 66, *yuj*, and other feminine family nouns like *vadhū* (s.v. *vadh*) and *śvaśrū*.

ar (“to fit, to connect”)

ara (“spoke of a wheel”)

ṛta (“fitting, true”) PPP, but see *ṛ*

an-ṛta (“not well fitted → not true”) with alpha privativum, but see *ṛ*

ṛ-tu m. (“time of year, right time”) and see *ṛtv-ij*

ara-mati f. (“right mind → piety”)

aram/alam adv. (“sufficient, properly”) (**rl**)

alakam adv. (“in vain”) (**rl**)

← ie. root $*h_2er$

→ lat. B *art* (“the fitting → skill”), with *m*-extension lat. B *arma-ture*, *arma-ment* (“what is fitted together → tool → weapon”)

araṇi/araṇī f. (“wood for producing fire”)

araṇa (“far away, foreign”)

araṇya (“foreign land, forest”)

araṇyavāsin = **araṇyavāukas** = **vanāukas** (see *vas* and *ōkas*)

aratni n. (“ellbow”) (**rl**)

← ie. **Heh₃l-*

→ e. *elbow* ~ nhg. *Elle* (unit of length, often from the tip of the middle finger to the bottom of the elbow), *Ellbogen/ Ellenbogen*

Compare s.v. *bhuj*.

ari m. (“enemy”)

arya/ārya (“lord”)

aryaman m. (name of a Vedic god, “associated with guests”) with *mant* suffix as in *mati-mant* (“with intellect → clever”)

Semantics:

- ◇ *ari* originally means “stranger” whence “enemy” in classical Sanskrit, but “guest” in the Ṛgveda”
- ◇ *ārya* (English B *aryan*) used by the Old Indians to describe themselves as people who are being hospitable to strangers
- ◇ *ari* might be a person who presents himself in a fitting manner (see *ar* above) as a guest or as an enemy
- ◇ *ari* is the other, see *anya*

aritr (“rower”)

← ie. root **h₁reh₁* (“to oar”)

→ e. to *row* ~ nhg. *Ruder* (“rudder”)

arc 1. class: **arcati** (“to shine, to praise”)

← ie. **h₁erk^w* (**SPal**)

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arjuna (“white, silvery”)

arjata (“white, silvery”)

← ie. **h₂erǵ-u* (“white”) / **h₂rǵ-nt-o* (“silver”)

→ lat.

◇ *argentum* (“silver”) → fr. *argent*

◇ B *argument* (“what makes clear”)

artha (“wealth, meaning”)

sārtha (“caravan”) ← *sa* (“together with”) + *artha*

bhūtārtha (“fact, issue”) ← *bhūta* (PPP of *bhū*) + *artha*

ardha (“half, part”)

← ie. **h₂ordhh₁-i* (“wheel rim”)

← lat. *orbis* (with *b* after *r*) as in the pope’s blessing *urbi et orbi* and B *orbit*

arbha (“small, weak”)

← ie. **h₂orbho*

→ gr. B *orphan* (**OGR**)

~ nhg. *Erbe* (“what the orphan obtains, bequest”), *Arbeit* (“done by the orphan → labour”), *arm* (“being without parents → poor”)

arśas n. (“hemorrhoids”)

← ie. **h₁elkes*

→ gr. *helkos* (“abcess, ulcer”)

~ lat. *ulcus* and B *ulcer*

arh 1. class: **arhati** (“to deserve, to have to, to be worthy”)

← ie. root **h₂elg^{wh}*

→ gr. *alphagein* (“to deserve”)

a-lasa (“inert, languid”) ← *a* + *rasa* (“plant juice, essence”) (**rl**), see *r̥s*

av 1. class: **avati** (“to help”)

ūta ← ie. **h₂uH-to* PPP (**Lar** _ **V**), also in *indrôta* ← *indra* + *ūta* (“helped by Indra”)

ūti f./m. (“help”)

avitum ← **h₁euH-tum* infinitive (**Lar** _ **V** between consonants)

ô-man m. (“protection, grace”) ← **h₁euH-m*

← ie. root **h₁euH*

→ lat. *iuuāre*

av 1. class: **avati** (“to enjoy”)

avasa (“refreshment, protecting”)

aviṣyu (“desirous”)

avitum ← **h₂euH-tum* infinitive (**Lar** _ **V** between consonants)

← ie. root **h₂euH*

→ lat. B *av-id*, *av-arice*, *au-dacity* (“wanting very much → daring”)

ava (“down, away”)

ava-ra (comparative: “a lower one, a later one”)

ava-ma (superlative: “the lowest, the last”)

avāñc (“directed downward”) ← *ava-añc*, see *añc*

avāk (“downward”), see *añc*

← ie. **h₂eu* (“away”)

→ lat. *aut ... aut* (exclusive *or*: “either ... or”)

ava-sāna (“dismounting from a horse”)

ava-sātṛ (“deliverer, liberator”)

← ie. **seh₂-no*

→ lat. *sānus* (“healty”) with B *sane*

avi m. (“sheep”)

← ie. **ovi/h₃evi* (ie. *o* ← *h₃e* and hence regular non-application of **Lo**)

→ lat. *ovis* with B *ovine* (“with respect to sheep”)

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~ e. *ewe*

aś 9. class: **aśnāti** (“to eat”), perhaps the same origin as **aś** (“to get”)
prātar-āśa (“breakfast”) ← **prātar** (“in the morning”) + **āśa** (“meal”)
phalāśin (“vegetarian”) ← **phala** (“fruit”) + **āśa** (“meal”) + *in* suffix
aśitum infinitive

aś 5. class: **aśnōti** (“to reach, to get”), perhaps the same origin as **aś** (“to eat”), see p. 191

← ie. root **h₂ne(n)k̑*

aś-ri f. (“angle, edge”)

aś-man m. (“stone”)

← ie. **h₂ok̑*

→ gr. *akro-polis* (“pointed town, castle”)

~ lat. B *medi-ocre* (for first part, see *madhya*)

aśru n. (“tear”)

~ probably somehow related to e. *tear* ~ nhg. *Zähre* (“tear”, but not in use) ~ nhg. *Träne*

aśva (“horse”)

aśv-in (“having horses”, a pair of gods who use horses to pull the sun across the sky)

āśu (“fast”) ← reduplicated ie. **h₁o-h₁k̑-u* (unclear)

āśv-aśva ← **āśu** + **aśva** (“having fast horses”)

← ie. **h₁ek̑vo*

→ gr. B *hippo, hippodrome*

~ lat. B *equestrian*

aśvattha (“banyan tree ← horse food”) ← **aśva** (“horse”) + *d* (zero grade of *ad*, “to eat”) + *tha* (suffix)

aṣṭā/ aṣṭāu (“acht”)

← ie. **h₃ek̑to/ *ok̑to*

- gr. B *octo-pus/octo-po* (“with eight feet”), see *pad* for second part
- ~ lat. B *October* (“the eighth month, with March being the first one in the Roman calendar”), *octave*
- ~ e. *eight* ~ nhg. *acht*

as 4. class: **asyati** (“to throw, to shoot”)

as-ra (“throwing, painful”)

as-i m. (“sword”)

abhy-as-ta (“repetition, learning”) ← *abhi* (“around, on both sides, toward”) + *asta* (PPP of *as*)

abhy-ās-a (“repetition, reduplication”) ← *abhi* (“around, on both sides, toward”) + *ās-a* (lengthened grade of *as* with a suffix)

as 2. class: **asti** (“to exist, to be”), paradigm on p. 154

as-u m. (“living, existence”), in particular in

gatāsu (“with life gone away, dead”) ← *gata* (PPP of *gam*) + *asu*

s-at (“being, good”), adj. from pres.P of *as* (“to be”) with

◇ **sat-kavi** m. (“good poet”), see *kavi*

◇ **ī-ṣat** (“being in that manner → a bit, somewhat”) ← *ī* + *sat* (n. pres.P)

◇ **sat-tvam** (“being, nature, living being”) ← *sat* + *tva* (suffix)

◇ **bodhisattva** (“a Buddha saint”) has often been written as *bodhisatva* in Buddhist Hybrid Sanskrit. See *saj*.

◇ **sat-ya** (“true, real”) ← *sat* + *ya* (suffix)

astam (“where someone is → home, home country”) may be related, used in **astam gacchati** (“he dies”, “it (the sun) sets”), but see also *nas*.

asura (“lord of life, god, demon”) ← *asu* + *ra* (suffix) may also belong here. In any case, misunderstanding this as *a* + *sura*,

sura (“not demon, god”) has been created by back-formation.

upa-s-ti m. (“servant”) with first part preposition *upa*

abhi-ṣ-ṭi m. (“protector”)/ **abhi-ṣ-ṭi** f. (“protection”) with first part preposition *abhi*

← ie. root **h₁es*

→ lat.

◇ *est* → fr. *il est*

◇ B *ab-s-ent*, *pre-s-ent* (both zero-grade pres.P, similar to oi. *s-at* and lat. B *client* (s.v. *śrī*)), *inter-es-t*

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~ e. *is* ~ nhg. *ist*

See *su*.

asūyati (“he grumbles, he resents”) ← *a* (“not”) + *su* (“good”), unclear

asṛj n. (“blood”)

← ie. **h₁esh₂*- (difficult)

→ lat. B *sanguine* (“in relation to blood → optimistic”)

asthi n. (“bone”)

← ie. **h₃ost-h₂*

→ gr. B *osteoporosis*

~ lat. B *osseous* (“concerning bones”), to *ossify*

aham

← ie. **h₁eǵoh₂m*

→ lat. *egō* with B *egotism*

~ Berlinish *icke* (**GER**)

~ e. *I* ~ nhg. *ich*

Courageous laryngalists defend this development:

lat./ogr. *egō*

← ie. **h₁eǵoh₂/h₁eǵoh₂m*

→ *h₁eǵh₂om* (metathesis of *o* and *h₂*, similar to **Lar _ MTh**)

→ *eǵhom* (**Lar _ V**, **Lar _ CH**)

→ *ehom* (**PPal**)

→ *aham* (**aā**)

ahar/ ahan n. (“day”)

aho-rātra, n. (“day and night”), see remark 4 below

praty-aham (“daily, every day”), see section D.4, pp. 244

<i>ahar/ahan/ahas</i> n.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>ahar</i> (1)	<i>ahn-ī/ahan-ī</i> (2, 3)	<i>ahān-i</i> (6)
	voc.	<i>ahar</i> (1)	<i>ahn-ī/ahan-ī</i> (2, 3)	<i>ahān-i</i> (6)
	acc.	<i>ahar</i> (1)	<i>ahn-ī/ahan-ī</i> (2, 3)	<i>ahān-i</i> (6)
	instr.	<i>ahn-ā</i> (2)	<i>aho-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>aho-bhis</i> (4)
	dat.	<i>ahn-ê</i> (2)	<i>aho-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>aho-bhyas</i> (4)
	abl.	<i>ahn-as</i> (2)	<i>aho-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>aho-bhyas</i> (4)
	gen.	<i>ahn-as</i> (2)	<i>ahn-ôś</i> (2)	<i>ahn-ām</i> (2)
	loc.	<i>ahn-i/ahan-i</i> (2, 3)	<i>ahn-ôś</i> (2)	<i>ahas-su/ahaḥ-su</i> (5)

1. The first stem *ahar* serves as NVA singular.
2. Building on the second stem *ahan*, many forms follow the *nāman* pattern (p. 228).
3. Compare loc. sg. *nām-n-i/nām-an-i* with *ahn-i/ahan-i*. The second forms are not strong forms because strong forms exhibit Brugmann's law (see 5). Instead, they have spilled over from words like the *karm-an* (p. 229).
4. Taking *ahas* as a third stem, one obtain *aho-bhis* and similar forms (p. 213). The sandhi rule applied is similar to **CpLz**, but note that the change is not a word-final one.
5. The third stem is also in use in loc. pl., compare *manas-su/manah-su* (p. 213).
6. **Lo**

E.2.2. ā

ātman m. ("self")

← ie. **éh₁t-mo(n)* with dat. sg. **h₁t-mé(n)-ei*

→ Luther's bible *Odem* ~ nhg. *Atem* (probably built on a weak form, see **VER**, p. 75)

ādhra ("needy, weak, poor"), see **Lar SY**, see pp. 121

nādh 1. class: *nādhātê* ("to be needy, to beg")

← ie. **neHdh*

Unrelated *nāth* 1. class: *nāthatê* has the same meaning as *nādh*.

āp 5. class: *āp-nôti* ("to obtain") ← ie. **h₁e-h₁p-neu* (a reduplicated present form)

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← ie. root $*h_1ep$

→ lat.

◇ B *op-t-ion*, to *ad-op-t*

◇ B *ad-ep-t*, *in-ep-t* (p. 66)

~ e. to *gi-ve* ~ nhg. *ge-ben* ← ie. $*k'o(m)-h_1ep$ (doubtful derivation, see s.v. *gabha*)

ā-yus n. (“life”), paradigm on p. 214

ā-yur-veda (“medical science”) (**Vis**, see *vid*)

yuvanm. (“youngster”) ← ie. zero-grade $*h_2yu$ (paradigm on p. 214)

← ie. $*h_2oy-u-$

→ gr. B *eon* (“age, lifetime”)

~ lat.

◇ B *eternal* ← olat. *aeviternus*

◇ *iustus* (“just”) with B *just*, B *jurisdiction*, *ad-judicate*

~ nhg. *ewig* (“forever”)

āvis (“openly, manifestly”)

← ie. $*h_2ev-is$ (“clearly”)

→ lat.

◇ B *audition* ← lat. *audīre* (“to hear”) ← ie. $*h_2evis-dhh_1-$, similar to lat. *dīvidere* (s.v. *dhā*)

◇ B *obedient* (by a complicated development)

~ e. *ear* ~ nhg. *Ohr* ← ie. $*h_2eu-s$

ās 2. class: ***āstē*** (“to sit”), not related to *sad*

āsanam (“sitting, throne”)

āsandi (“throne”)

ās (“mouth, face”)

← ie. root $*h_3eh_1-os$

→ lat. B *os-culation* (“kiss”)

āsa (“ashes”)

← ie. **h₂eh₁sh₂*

→ lat. B *ar-id*, *ar-dour*, *ar-dent* (**LAT** *sr*)

~ e. *ash* ~ nhg. *Asche* and e. *Ash* Wednesday ~ nhg. *Aschermittwoch*

~ nhg. *Esse* (“hearth”)

E.2.3. *i*

i 2. class: ***ēti*** (“to go”), pp. 154

ita PPP, also with prepositions:

√ <i>i</i> in z.g.	PPP	translation	<i>ti</i> noun	translation
<i>adhi-i</i>	<i>adhī-ta</i>	to study	<i>adhī-ti-s</i>	study
<i>anu-i</i>	<i>anv-i-ta</i>	to follow	<i>anv-i-ti-s</i>	following after
<i>abhi-i</i>	<i>abhī-ta</i>	to arrive	<i>abhī-ti-s</i>	attack
<i>ud-i</i>	<i>ud-i-ta</i>	to go up	<i>ud-i-ti-s</i>	sunrise
<i>upa-i</i>	<i>upē-ta</i>	to go towards	<i>upē-ti-s</i>	approach
<i>pra-i</i>	<i>prē-ta</i>	to set off	<i>prē-ti-s</i>	escape

palāy 10. class: ***palāyatē*** (“to go away → to flee”) (**rl**) ← **parāyatē* ← **parā-ayatē* (see *parā*)

sahāya (“companion, helper”) ← *saha* + *aya* and

sāhāyya (“fellowship, help”) (see pp. 247)

ayana/ayanam (“going, motion, hallway”) as in

◇ *vātāyanam* (“window”) ← *vāta* (“wind”)

◇ *rāmāyanam* (name of Indian epic) ← *rāma* (“name of Indian hero”)

◇ *samāvāya* (“inherence, cooccurrence”) ← *sama* (“same”) + *ava* (“down”)

<i>i</i> (“to go”)		
present tense	<i>ē-ti</i>	<i>y-an-ti</i>
infinitive	<i>ē-tum</i>	
PPP	<i>i-ta</i>	
future	<i>ē-ṣy-a-ti</i>	<i>ē-ṣy-a-n-ti</i>
imperfect	<i>âi-t</i> (1)	<i>āy-an</i> (2)
perfect	<i>iy-āy-a</i> (3)	<i>īy-us</i> (3)

E. Etymological dictionary

1. $\hat{a}i-t \leftarrow a-i-t$ is regular by **MVS** (pp. 30).

2. Not clear.

3. See section C.7, pp. 188.

\leftarrow ie. root $*h_1ei$

\rightarrow lat. B *i*-teration, *ex-i-tus*, *in-i-tial*, *i-tinerary*, *trans-i-tion*

See $y\bar{a}$

itara (“the other (of the two)”)

\leftarrow ie. $*h_1i-tero$

\sim lat. *iterum* (“again, for a second time”) and B *iteration*

iti (“in this way \rightarrow thus”, indicates quotes or thoughts), perhaps from *i* above

iti-hāsa (“thus, indeed, it was \rightarrow history, legend”) $\leftarrow iti + ha$ (“indeed”) + $\bar{a}sa$ (3. pers. sg. perfect of *as*, p. 190)

\sim lat. *ita* (“in this manner”)

idh/ indh 1. class: **indhatē** (“to set fire to”)

edha (“kindling, fire wood”)

iddha (“inflamed”) PPP (**ASh**)

\leftarrow ie. root $*h_2eidh$

\rightarrow gr. *aithō* (“I set on fire”)

\sim lat. *aedificium* (“fireplace \rightarrow room with a fireplace \rightarrow building”)

iva

atīva (“exceedingly, very”) $\leftarrow ati + iva$

\leftarrow ie. $*h_2iva$

iṣ 1. class: **icchati** (“to wish”), may well be related to *iṣ* (“to press, to send”) below
On the one hand: **gav-iṣ** m./f./n. (“wishing cows, greedy”)

\leftarrow ie. root $*h_2eis$ (“to seek, to desire”)

\rightarrow lat. B to *esteem*

On the other hand, with sk' -suffix: *icchā* (“wish”) (**CCl**, **SIB**)

← ie. $*h_2is-sk'$

→ e. *ask* ~ ohg. *eiscōn* → nhg. *er-heisch-en*

Compare *gam*, *gacchati* (“to go”), *pracch*, *prcchati* (“to ask”) and *yam*, *yacchati* (“to hold, to restrain”).

iṣ 1. class: *ēṣati*/ 4. class: *iṣyati*/ 9. class: *iṣnāti* (“to press, to send”) may well be related to *iṣ* (“to wish”) above

iṣu m. (“arrow”)

iṣat adv. (“a bit, getting close to”)

← ie. root $*h_1eis$ (“to set in motion”)

→ lat. *īra* (“anger”) (**LAT** $\underline{\text{V}}$) as in B *irate*

It seems probable that the two *iṣ* are one word, only. An arrow (*iṣu*)

◇ may be directed towards what is wished for (the first *iṣ*)

◇ may have been sent (the second *iṣ*)

iha (“here”)

pa. *idha* (“here”)

← ie. $*i-dhi$, see pp. 53

→ lat. *ibi* (“there”) (with **LAT** $\underline{\text{V}}$ ← ie. variant $*i-bhei$) with *alibi* (“there”) and B suspect’s *alibi* (see s.v. *anya*)

E.2.4. \bar{i}

$\bar{i}kṣ$ 1. class: *īkṣatē* (“to see”), see *ak-ṣi* n. (“eye”)

← ie. root $*h_3ek^w$

$\bar{i}kṣ$ is originally a desiderative (see pp. 126).

īrma (“arm, forequarter of an animal”)

← ie. $*h_2erH-mo$

→ lat. *armilla* (“arm-band, bracelet”) with B *armillary* sphere (“sort of celestial globe”)

E. Etymological dictionary

~ e. *arm* ~ nhg. *Arm*

īś 2. class: **īśte** (“to own, to rule”)

īś-vara “god, lord”

← ie. root **h₂eik*

→ e. own ~ nhg. *eigen* (**VER**)

E.2.5. **u**

ukṣ 4. class: **ukṣ-a-ti** (“to sprinkle, to moisten, to emit”)

← ie. root **Heug-/ *Heuks-*

ukṣ 4. class: **ukṣ-a-ti** (“to grow, to get strong”)

ug-ra (“powerful, mightily”)

ôj-as n. (“power”)

← ie. root **h₂eug-/* with *s*-extension **h₂euks-*

→ lat.

◇ *auctoritas* and B *authority*

◇ B *auction* (with backward assimilation), to *augment*

◇ B and name of emperor *Augustus* (literally “holy, majestic”)

~ e. to *wax* (in *wax and wane*) ~ nhg. *wachsen* ← **h₂vegs* (with metathesis)

Perhaps related to *vaj*.

ukṣ-an m. (“ox, bull”)

← ie. **Huks-en*

→ e. ox ~ nhg. *Ochse*

Derived from

◇ **ukṣ** (“to grow, to get strong”): the bull as the strong one, or

◇ **ukṣ** (“to sprinkle”): the bull as the inseminator

ud (“out of, up”)

ut-tara (comparative: “a higher one, the later one”)

ut-tama (superlative: “the extreme, the last, the best”), see *-tama*

an-ut-tama (bahuvrīhi compound: “that in relation to which there is no supreme → unsurpassed”)

ud-ac (“directed upward, northern”)

ud-ak (“in or from the north”)

un-mārga (“a wrong or evil way”) ← *ud* + *mārga*

← ie. **ud*

→ gr. B *hysteria* (compare Indo-Iranian **DzD**) ∼ oi. *uttara* above

∼ e. *out* ∼ nhg. *aus*

ud/ und 7. class: **u-na-t-ti**/ 6. class: **undati** (“to make wet”)

un-na (“wet”) ← *ud-na*

ud-an n. (“water”)

ud-akam (“water”)

ôd-man n. (“floods, rain”)

← ie. **ved-n/*ved-r*

→ gr. B *hydrate*

∼ lat. *unda* “wave”

∼ e. *water* ∼ nhg. *Wasser*

udara (“belly”)

sodara (“belly”) ← *sa* + *udara* (“brother”)

← ie. **Hud-er*

→ lat. (B) *uterus*

upa (“to, near”)

upa-niṣ-ad f. (according to one interpretation: “what is taught when sitting down and close to”, indische Geheimlehre, see *sad*)

upa-dêśa (“teaching”, see *diś*)

← ie. **(s)upo*

→ gr. B *hypo*-thesis (sec. part see *dhā*), *hypo*-crite

∼ lat. *sub* (with lat. *s* as in *super*, see *upari*) with B *sub*-mit, *sub*-ject, *sub*-set

E. Etymological dictionary

~ **but not** e. *of* or *off* or nhg. *auf*

upari (“over”)

← ie. **(s)upér(i)*

→ gr. B hyperbola, hyper-active (sec. part lat, see aj), *hyper-tension* (sec. part lat)

~ lat. super (with lat. s as in sub, see upa) with B superman, supervision, superficial

~ e. over ~ nhg. *über* (note the ie. stress and consult **VER**)

upastha (“womb, genitals, sheltered place”)

◇ *upa* (“to, near”) + *stha* (← *sthā*, compare p. 136) or

◇ *upas* (“womb”) +

- *stha* (← *sthā*) or
- *tha* (suffix)

upa-s-ti m. (“servant”) ← *upa* (“to, near”) + zero grade of *as*

ubha (“both”), probably related to *abhi* (“around, on both sides, toward”)

~ e. *both* ~ nhg. *beide*

uru (“wide”)

var-īyans (comparative, “wider”)

var-iṣṭha (superlative, “widest”), see e. *st* as in *widest* (p. 72)

f. **urvī** also (very similar to *pr̥thvī*, see *pr̥thu*) in

◇ **urvī-pati** m. (“king”)

◇ **urvī-talam** (“earth, ground”)

varas (“width, extension”)

urvasī (an *apsaras* f. (“heavenly nymph” with “extended wishes”) ← **uruvāsī* ← *uru* + *vas* (“to wish”) + *-ī*-suffix

uras (“(wide) breast”)

ulūka (“with a broad face → owl”) ← *uru-Hka*, unclear, see *ulūka*

possibly also *ūru* m. (“thigh”) with strange analogy

<i>bahu</i> (“much, many”) adj.	giving rise to body part:	<i>bāhu</i> m. (“arm”)
just as		
<i>uru</i> (“wide”) adj.	giving rise to body part:	<i>ūru</i> m. (“thigh”)

urvarā m. (“fertile soil”)

← ie. **h₂erh₃-vo*

→ lat. B *ar-able*

ulūka m. (“owl”)

← ie. **ul* / **ulul*

→ lat. *ulul-āre* (“to howl”)

~ e. owl ~ nhg. Eule

See s.v. *uru*.

uṣ 1. class **ōṣati** (“to burn, to shine”), the same root as *vas*²

uṣ-ṇa (“hot”)

uṣ-as f. (“dawn, aurora”)

us-ras (“relating to or seen in the morning, shining”)

← ie. root **Heus*

→ lat.

◇ B *aurora*

◇ *amb-ūrere* (“to burn around”, see s.v. *abhi*) (**LAT** **_sr**) → *am-būrere* and hence
B com-bustion

~ the southern direction: lat. *auster* (“south wind, south”) with

◇ lat B *Aus-tralia* (“southern land”)

◇ lat. B *Aus-tria*

~ the eastern direction:

◇ e. *eas-t* ~ nhg. *Os-t*

◇ e. *Eas-ter* ~ nhg. *Os-tern*

E.2.6. **ū**

ūti f./m. (“help”), see *av* (“to help, to promote”) ← ie. **h₂uH-ti* (**Lar** **_V**)

ūdhar n. (“udder”)

← ie. **ūdh* (“abundant”)

E. Etymological dictionary

→ lat. B *ex-ub-erant*

~ e. *udder* ~ nhg. *Euter*

ūrṇā (“wool”)

← ie. **wl_oHn*

→ e. *wool* ~ nhg. *Wolle*

ūrdhva (“tending upwards, raised, elevated”)

ūrdhvam adv. (“upwards, beyond”)

← ie. **h₃r_odh-vo* (difficult)

~ ogr. *ortho-dox*, *ortho-pedist* (**OGR**)

~ nir. placename *Aird Mhór* (British: *Ardmore*)

~ e. *ard-ous*

ūh 1. class: *ūhati* (“to carry, to modify”)

ūdha PPP

sam-ūh (“to heap together”) and *sam-ūha* (“heap, bulk, union”)

ūh goes back to *vah* (“to drive, to bring”). Long *ū* may result from PPP by levelling.

ūh 1. class: *ōhatê* (“to consider”)

ōh-as n. (“praise”) (**SPal**)

← ie. root **Heug^wh*

→ lat. B *vo-tum*, *de-vou-t*

E.2.7. *ṛ*

ṛ 1. class: *ṛ-cchati*/ 3. class: *iyarti*/ 5. class: *ṛ-ṇo-ti* (“to rise, to reach”)

On the one hand:

◇ zero-grade *ṛ-ta* PPP (“proper, right, moved”), but see *ar*

◇ zero-grade *an-ṛ-ta* PPP (“false, undeserved”), but see *ar*

← ie. root **h₃er*

→ lat. B *or-igin*, *ab-or-tion*, *orient* (“where the sun rises”)

On the other hand, ***ṛcchatī*** with *sk*-suffix:

← ie. zero grade **h₃r-sk-e-ti* (**SIB**)

Compare *iṣ*, *icchatī* (“to wish”), *gam*, *gacchatī* (“to go”) and *pracch*, *pṛcchatī* (“to ask”).

ṛkṣa (“bear”)

← ie. **h₂r^{tko}* (**SIB**)

→ gr. B *arctic* (“belonging to the bear constellation → with respect to the north pole”), with metathesis of the consonants, similar to ogr. *chthōn* s.v. *kṣam*

~ lat. *ursus* (with difficulties) and PNs *Urs* and *Ursula*

See p. 44.

ṛtē (“without”) is a loc. of some noun ***ṛta*** but is not clear whether it belongs to *ṛ* or to *ar*

ṛtvij m. (“offering at the right time → priest”)

← *ṛtu* (“time of year, right time”, see *ar*) + zero grade of *yaj* (“to sacrifice”)

ṛṣ 1. class: ***arṣ-a-ti*** (“to flow, to stream”)

rasa m. (“sap or juice of plants”)

← ie. root **h₁ers/* **h₁res* (“to flow”)

→ lat. *rōs*, *rōris* (“dew”)

See *a-lasa*.

E.2.8. *ê*, *âi*

êka (“one, single”)

êkâkin (“single, alone”) ← *êka* + *ak* (suffix) + *in* (suffix)

êkâgra (“one-pointed, focussed”) with second *agram* (“top, summit, beginning”)

← ie. **Hoi*

→ lat. *ū-nus* (“one”) with B *unity*

E. Etymological dictionary

~ e. *one* ~ nhg. *ein*

êj 1. class: **êjatê** / **îjatê** / (“to stir”)

← ie. root **h₂eg-* (like *aj*)

Formation of ved. *îjatê* by reduplication, like *sîd-ati* (see p. 80):

*ie. *h₂i-h₂g-e-toi* (reduplication with *i* and zero grade)
→ *îg-e-toi* (**Lar** _V)
→ *îj-e-toi* (**PPal**)
→ *îj-a-tê* (**aā**, **DIPH**)

îjatê then lead to *êjate*, by assuming a root *êj*.

See *aj*.

E.2.9. **ô, âu**

ôj-as (“power”), see *ukş* (“to get strong”)

ôj-man m. (“strength, power”), see **vaj* (“to get strong”)

ôd-man n. (“floods, rain”), see *ud* (“to make wet”)

ôm-an m. (“protection, grace”), see *av* (“to help, to promote”)

E.3. Velar stops

E.3.1. **k**

kanyā (“girl, daughter”)

kanā (“girl”)

kanī (“girl”)

← ie. **ken-*

→ lat. B *re-cent*

kad (“what”)

← ie. **k^wod*

→ lat. *quod*

~ e. *what* ~ nhg. *was*

See the related *kas*, *kiyat*, *kim* below.

kam (“to wish, to desire”)

ca-kam-ê (“he wished”) pf.

ci-kam-i-ṣatê (“he wishes to desire”) desiderative

kānta (“beloved”) (**BA**) ← n.at. *kāmto* (**Lar_SY**) ← ie. **kmh₂-to*

kāma (“wish, desire”)

← ie. root **keh₂/ *kemh₂*

→ lat. *cārus* (“dear, expensive”) with *Karitas*, a German Catholic welfare organization

→ fr. *cher*

~ e. *whore* ~ nhg. *Hure*

Probably related to *kānkṣ*

kas (“who”), see also *kôvida*

kad (“what”)

cid as in

◇ **kaścid** (“someone”) by **BA**

◇ **kadācid** (“sometime”)

◇ **kū-cid** (“somewhere, anywhere”)

◇ **kva-cid** (“somewhere, anywhere”)

kiyat (“how large, how long”) and **kiyan-mātra** (“measuring how much → small”)

ku (“whereever → unknown origin/source → bad, little”) as in

◇ **ku-sīda** (“lazy”) and **ku-sīdam** (“extortion, usury”) without **RUKI**

◇ **ku-śrutam** (“unfounded rumor”)

◇ **ku-sakhī** (“bad female friend”)

◇ **ku-tūhala** (“strange, wonderful”) and **ku-tūhalam** (“interesting thing, curiosity”) may also belong here

E. Etymological dictionary

kū (“where”), variant of *ku*

ku-tas (“from where”) with common adverbial suffix *tas*

kū-cid (“somewhere, anywhere”)

kva (“where(to)”)

kim (“what”) where

◇ *k* instead of expected *c* (**SPal**) stems from levelling with *kas* or *ku* and

◇ *kim* (with *m* as in many other neuter forms like *phalam*) is seen as a very ancient form for expected *cid*

kuv-id (“whether indeed, whether perhaps”) ← *kū* + *id* (see *ced* under *ca*)

← ie. **k^we* / **k^wo*

→ lat. B (saying) *quid pro quo* (“reward, return service”)

~ e. *what*, *who* ~ nhg. *was*, *wer*

kāñkṣ 1. class: **kāñkṣati** (“to wish, to desire”), unclear connection (if any) with *kam*

kāla (“time”)

kālāntaka (“ender of time → god of death”), see *anta*

kālātmaka (“determined by time/fate”)

Two explanations for *kāla*:

◇ from *kr* (“to make”) because the decisive action has to be undertaken at the right point in time

◇ from *car* (“to turn”) because “The Times They Are A-Changin” (Bob Dylan)

kās 1. class: **kāsātē** (“to appear, to shine”), unclear

← ie. root **k^weḱ*

Perhaps related to *caḱṣ*.

kās 1. class: **kāsate** (“to cough”)

kās f./**kāsā** (“cough”)

kāsa (“cough”)

← ie. root **k^wās*

→ nhg. *husten* (“to cough”)

kup 1. class: **kupyati** (“to be angry”)
kôpa (“anger”)

← ie. root **keup* (“to boil, to be agitated”)

→ lat. *cupiō* (“I desire strongly”), lat. B *cupid* (name of god of love), *cupidity* (“lust, desire, greed”)

kuṭi f. (“bending, curve”)

kuṭīla (“bent, curved, deceitful”)

kāuṭilya (“deceit, falsity”)

kāuṭilya (author of the Arthaśāstra)

kulam (“house, herd, family”)

kulāla (“producer of objects with holes → potter”)

kulāla-cakram (“potter’s wheel”)

If the original meaning of *kula* is “hole → house → family”, then

← ie. **kol*

→ e. *hole*, *hollow* ~ nhg. *hohl* (“hollow”)

But see s.v. *śūnya*.

kulva (“bald, bare”)

← ie. **k_lHv*

→ lat. B *calvary* (skull-shaped hill in Jerusalem, the site of Jesus’ crucifixion)

kū 1. class **kavatē**/ 2. class **kauti**/ **kavīti** (“to cry, to sound”)

ā-kū-ta (“meaning, intention”) PPP (**Lar** — **V**)

kavi m. (“wise, poet”) ← ie. **kovh₁i-* (the laryngeal makes the syllable closed so that Brugmann’s law **Lo** does not apply)

← ie. root **keuh₁*

→ lat. B *caution* and the lat. warning “*cave canem*” (“beware of the dog”)

~ germ.

◇ e. to *show* ~ nhg. *schauen*

◇ e. *shy* ~ nhg. *scheu* where “careful” is the underlying meaning

◇ nhg. *scheuchen* (“to shoo”), *Scheusal* (“means for shooing/ what one shies away from → monster”)

E. Etymological dictionary

kūpa (“pit, hole”)

← ie. **kupa*/ *kūpa*

→ lat. *cūpa* with B *cup*

~ e. (bee) *hive*

kṛ 8. class: **karōti** (“to make”)

kara (“maker → hand”)

su-kara (“doable”)

pra-kṛta (“made, accomplished”) and

prakṛti f. (“nature, basis, cause”)

sam-s-kṛta with unclear *s* before *k*

kṛt 7. class: **kṛnatti** (“to spin”)

mi. **kaṭa** (“mat”) ← **karta** where *r* is dropped while cerebralizing *t* (pp. 57)

kṛt 6. class: **kṛntati** (“to cut”)

← ie. root *(*s*)*ker(t)*

→ e. *shear* ~ nhg. *scheren* (“to shear”)

~ maybe e. *hard* ~ nhg. *hart*

See also *carman* (“leather”).

kṛp f. (“look, beauty”)

kṛt-s-na (“bodily → complete, whole”) ← **kṛp-s-na** (by **BA** because *s* is a dental sound!)

← ie. root **kerp*

~ lat. *corpus* with

◇ B in English *corps*, *corporation*,

◇ B in German *Körper* (“body”)

kṛp 1. class: **kṛpatē** (“to lament, to moan, to beg”)

kṛpā (“compassion”)

kṛcchra (“difficult, dangerous”) ← n.at. *kṛp-ra* (difficult)

← ie. root **krep*

→ lat. *crepāre* (“to make a sharp loud noise”) with B in *dis-crep-ancy* (“difference in sound or opinion”)

kṛśa (“thin”)

kraś-īyans (comparative, “thinner”)

kraś-iṣṭha (superlative, “thinnest”), see e. *st* as in *thinnest* (**Lar** *_CH*)

kṛṣ 1. class: **karṣati** (“to draw (a furrow), to pull, to drag”)

kṛṣaka (“farmer”)

kṛṣīvala (“farmer”) where it would certainly be nice to relate *val* to nhg. *wühlen* (“to dig into”)

karṣū (“furrow”)

kṛṣṇa (“the colour of the earth after furrowing → black”)

kṛṣṇa (“the colour of the earth after furrowing → black”)

kārṣman n. (“furrow, the target designated by a furrow → race target”)

kaṣ 1. class: **kaṣati** (“to rub, to rasp”) ← *karṣ* where *r* is dropped, but *ṣ* already cerebralised (pp. 57) and also

◇ **kaṣṭa** PPP (“harsh, severe”)

◇ **nikāṣa** (“touchstone, criterion”)

See also *car* (“to go”)

kṛ 6. class: **kirati** (“to outpour, to sprinkle”)

kīr-ṇa PPP (pp. 118)

kīr-i (“who outpours fame or praise → poet”)

ci-kar-i-ṣ-u (pp. 133)

← ie. root **kerH*

kētu m. (“brightness”), see *cit*

← ie. root **keit* (“to be bright”) ← ie. **kai* (“to shine, to burn”)

kōka / **kōkila** (“cuckoo”)

← ie. **kouk*

~ e. *cuckoo* ~ nhg. *Kuckuck* (without application of **NHG** *_C*) (doubtful, probably just independent onomatopoetic development)

E. Etymological dictionary

kôvida (“experienced”) ← *kas vida* (“who knows”) by **CpLz**

kratu m. (“power, energy”)

← ie. **kretu* (“to freeze, to form a crust”)

→ gr. B *demo-cracy*

~ maybe e. *hard* ~ nhg. *hart*

krand 1. class: **krandati** (“to lament, to cry”)

← ie. root **kel*

→ lat.

◇ *clārus* (“loud, clear, famous”), *calāre* (“to call out, to call together”), *clamare*, and con-*ciliāre* (“to join, to make friends with”)

◇ B *clear*, to *clarify*, *clarinet*, *declaration*, *council*, to *claim*, and *calender* (i.e., the days to be called out, the first day of the month when taxes and other monthly payments are due)

~ nhg. *hell*, *Hall* (“resonance”), *holen* (“to call → to fetch”)

kravis/kravyam (“raw meat, clotted blood”) (**Lar_V**)

krūra (“bloody, raw, cruel”) ← ie. zero grade **kruh₂-ro* (**Lar_V**)

← ie. **kreuh₂-* (“to freeze, to form a crust”)

→ ogr. *kreas* (“meat”) (**OGR**) with gr. B *crystal* (originally “fossilized ice”)

~ lat. *cru-or* (“blood”) and

◇ *crūdus* (“raw, clotted”) with lat. B *crude*, *cruel*

◇ *crūsta* (“crust, bark”) with lat. B *crust* (in German: *Kruste*)

~ e. *raw* ~ nhg. *roh* ← ohg. *hrō*

krī 9. class: **krīṇāti/krīṇātē** (“to buy”), see p. 188

vi-krī (“to sell”)

← ie. root **k^wreih₂*

From *k^wri-neh₂-ti*, one should expect **krīṇāti*, with short *i*, instead. See pp. 87.

krīḍ 1. class: **krīḍati** (“to play”)

← ie. **krisd* (compare *nīdam* ← *ni-sd-am*)

kruś 1. class: **krōśati** (“to cry, to lament”)

krôṣ-ṭar (“shrieker → jackal”) p. 100

kra-kar-a / **kṛ-kar-a** (“partridge”)

← ie. root **kreuk* / **kreuk*

~ e. *croak* ~ nhg. *krächzen* (doubtful, may just be independent onomatopoeic development)

klam 4. class: **klāmyati** (“to tire”) where walking is tiring:

kram 4. class: **krāmyati** (“to walk”), perhaps confusion with otherwise unrelated *śram*

krānta PPP (**Lar** **CH**, **BA**)

← ie. root **kremH*

klid 4. class: **klidyati** (“to get wet”)

klinna PPP (compare p. 110)

klêda (“wetness, humidity, decay”)

klôman m./n. (“right lung”), possibly dissimilated from **plôman**

← ie. **pleumon* (“swimmer → lung”), see *pṛ*

→ lat. B *pulmonary*, *pulmology* (with second Greek (!) part)

kṣatram (“government, leadership”)

kṣatriya (“ruling, warrior, ruler”)

kṣam f. (“earth”)

← ie. **dhghom* (**SIB**, see p. 44)

→ ogr. *chthōn* with B *chthonic* (“coming from the earth”), with metathesis of the initial consonants

~ lat.

◇ *humus* (“earth, ground”) with B *hum-ble*, *humility*

◇ *homō*, *hominis* (the initial dental plosive of the cluster drops) with B *homunculus*, *human*

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~ nhg. Bräutigam (the initial dental plosive of the cluster drops)

kṣi 2. class: **kṣēti** (“to dwell, to possess, to rule”)

kṣīti f. (“earth, living place”)

kṣēma (“habitable, comfortable”)

kṣêtram (“field, place”)

kṣi 9. class: **kṣiṇāti** (“to destroy, to perish”)

kṣīti f. (“destruction, doom”)

Nomads dwell in a certain place for a while until that place has become destroyed. From that point of view, the first meaning may have lead to the second one.

kṣip 6. class: **kṣipati** (“to throw, to dash”)

kṣipta PPP

kṣipra (“fast, quick”)

kṣêp-īyans (comparative, “quicker”)

kṣêp-iṣṭha (superlative, “quickest”) (**Lar** _ **CH**)

kṣêpa (“shot”)

kṣêpṇā adv. (“fast”)

kṣud 1. class: **kṣôdati** (“to stamp, to crunch”)

kṣuṇṇa PPP (p. 110)

kṣudra (“small, miserable, mean”)

kṣôd-īyans (comparative, “small”)

kṣôd-iṣṭha (superlative, “smallest”)

kṣudh 4. class: **kṣudhyati** (“to be hungry”)

kṣudhita PPP

kṣudh f./ **kṣudhā** (“hunger”)

kṣubh 4. class: **kṣubhyati**/ 1. class: **kṣôbhatê** (“to tremble, to be excited”)

kṣubdha PPP

← ie. root **kseubh*

→ e. to *shove*, *shovel* (**NHG** _ **E**)

~ nhg. *schieben*, *Schub* (**GER**) and also somehow *Schaufel*, *Schippe*

E.3.2. *kh*

khan 1. class: *khanati* (“to dig”)

khāta PPP (see p. 118)

khanitram (“shovel”) (compare p. 101)

khani f. (“pit, mine”)

→ ie. root **kh₂enh₁*

kham (“hole, hole containing the axis, air space”)

su-kham (“smoothly moving axis in the kha → fortune, happiness”)

kha-ga (“bird”), see pp. 78

kha-jalam (“air space water → dew, fog”)

khād 6. class: *khādati* (“to eat”)

Non-sensical suggestion: *kh-ad*, see *ad*

khila (“wasteland, rest”)

khilī kṛ (“to empty”)

a-khilam (“everything, universe”)

a-khilēna (“in its entirety, all in all”)

E.3.3. *g*

gad 1. class: *gadati* (“to say”)

gada (“illness ← result of a curse or cause of a feverish babble”)

a-gada (“not ill”)

a-gada (“medicine”)

A root with two voiced unaspirated unconsnants is very rare. It may be a mockword reflecting unnatural pronunciation.

gandha/gandham (“smell, odor”)

su-gandhi (“fragrant”)

gabha (“spreading of thighs → vulva”) (DA)

gabhasti m. (“arm, hand”) (DA)

← ie. root **ghebh/ *gheb* (“to grab, to hold”)

→ lat.

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◇ *habere* with B *habit*, *habilitation*, *in-hibition* (see p. 66), *ex-hib-ition*

◇ *habitāre* (frequentative of *habere*) with B *habitation*

~ e. to *give* ~ nhg. *geben* (but see s.v. *āp*)

and finally from ie. **ghebbhol* (“crotch, especially at the top of a house = gable”)

→ ogr. *kephalē* (**OGR**, a Greek version of **DA**) (“top, head”) with B *cephalic*, *cephalogram* ←

~ e. *gable* ~ nhg. *Giebel*, *Gabel* (“fork”)

But **not** e. to *have* ~ nhg. *haben*, see *śap*

gam 1. class: **gacchati** (“to go”)

<i>gam</i> (“to go”)		
present tense	<i>gacch-a-ti</i>	<i>gacch-a-n-ti</i>
infinitive	<i>gan-tum</i> (1)	
PPP	<i>ga-ta</i> (2)	
future	<i>gam-i-ṣy-a-ti</i> (3)	<i>gam-i-ṣy-a-n-ti</i> (3)
imperfect	<i>a-gam-a-t</i>	<i>a-gam-a-n</i>
perfect	<i>ja-gām-a</i> (4)	<i>ja-gm-us</i> (4)
them. aorist	<i>a-gam-a-t</i> (5)	<i>a-gam-a-n</i> (5)
desiderative	<i>ji-gam-i-ṣ-a-ti</i> (3)	<i>ji-gam-i-ṣ-u</i> (3)

1. **BA**

2. **SY_N**

3. *i* in future or desiderative forms is spilled over from laryngeal verbs.

4. The perfect forms are regular. The sg. is the *o*-grade plus **Lo**, the pl. the zero grade (see section C.7, pp. 188).

5. Thematic aorist, but in full grade

On the one hand: **gam**

← ie. **g^wem* (see also *gā* below)

→ gr. B *basis* with zero grade (**IE_SY_N**) and gr. B *acro-bat* (“someone who tiptoes”) (for *akro-* (“top, summit, castle”) see *aśman*)

~ lat. (**LAT_v**) *venīre* with B *inter-ven-tion*, *con-vent*, *con-ven-tion*, *advent* (“coming of Jesus Christ”), *e-vent*, *prevention*

~ nhg. *kommen*, *bequem*

On the other hand, with *sk*-suffix: ***gacchati*** (SIB)

← ie. **g^wm-sk*

→ ogr. *ba-sk-ō*

Compare *iṣ*, *icchati* (“to wish”), *pracch*, *prcchati* (“to ask”), and *yam*, *yacchati* (“to hold, to restrain”).

gaya (“life, possession, dwelling place, family”), see *jīv*

garuḍa (name of a mythical bird)

garut m. (“wing”)

garutmant (“winged one → bird” = *garuḍa*)

These three words are related, but in a difficult manner.

garj 1. class: ***garjati*** (“to roar, to thunder”)

gaja (“elephant”), but unclear

garbha (“womb, embryo”)

← ie. **g^wolbh* (“to grab, to hold”)

→ ogr. *a-delphos* (“from the same womb → brother”) with place name *Phil-a-delphia* where the *a* is related to oi. *sam*

gar (“to gulp, to swallow up”)

gara (“swallowing”)

garam (“potion”)

aja-gara (“one who swallows a goat → serpent”)

with *rl*

◇ ***gal*** 1. class: ***galati*** (“to drop, to trickle”)

◇ ***gala*** (“neck”) with ***gala-dvāram*** n. (“throat door → mouth”)

grīva (“neck”)

sugrīva (“one with a beautiful neck”, name of the monkey king who helps Rāma recover Sītā who was abducted by Rāvaṇa)

daśagrīva (“one with ten necks”, i.e., Rāvaṇa)

gā 3. class: ***jigāti*** (“to go”)

gā-tram (“instrument for going → body limb”)

gā-tu m. (“place for going → course, lane”)

E. Etymological dictionary

← ie. root $*g^w eh_2$

Compare *gam*.

gā/gâi 1. class: *gāyati* / 2. class: *gāti* (“to sing”)

gātha / *gāthā* (“singing”)

gāthaka (“singer”)

gīta PPP by laryngeal metathesis (compare p. 335) from $*giH-to \leftarrow *gHi-to$

← ie. root $*geH-i$

gup 10. class: *gôpāyati* (“to protect cows → to protect”)

gô-pā (“herdsman, cow protector”), see *gô* (“bull, cow”) and *pā* (“to protect”)

gô-pā-yati is a denominative and is derived from *gôpā*. This explains long *ā* which we do not otherwise see in the 10. class. Originally, an oi. root *gup* did not exist. Splitting *gôp-āyati* rather than *gô-pā-yati* the root *gup* came into being. Stated differently, the oi. root *gup* is obtained by back-formation, for example

PPP <i>lup-ta</i>	with 10. class:	<i>lôpayati</i>
just as		
PPP <i>gup-ta</i> , falsely	with 10. class:	<i>gôpāyati</i>

gô m./f. (“bull, cow”)

gô-pā m. (“herdsman, cow protector”), for second part, see *pā*

gô-pāla (“herdsman, cow protector”), for second part, see *par*

gô-pati m. (“lord of cows, ruler, bull”), for second part, see *pati*

gô-tama (“possessing many cows → rich”)

gô-tram (“cowshed”)

gô-ṣṭha (“where the cows stand → cowshed”), for second part, see *sthā*

gô-dhā (“sucking cows” → name for a kind of lizard), for second part, see *dhê*

← ie. $*g^w ou$

→ ogr. *bou-kolos* (“cowherd”) ~ oir. *bua-chail* (for second parts, see *car*)

~ lat. dialectal *bōs*, *bovis* with *bovine spongiform encephalopathy* (short: BSE) and beef (English, but from Norman invasion)

~ e. *cow* ~ nhg. *Kuh*

guru (“heavy”) with *guru* m. (“teacher”)

gar-īyans (comparative, “heavier”)

gar-iṣṭha (superlative, “heaviest”)

gārvan m. (“heavy object → stone”)

- ← ie. * $g^w r_{\circ} h_2 u$
→ gr. B *barometer*
~ lat. B *gravity*

guh 1. class: ***gūhati*** (“to hide”)

<i>guh</i> (“to hide”)		
present tense	<i>gūh-a-ti</i> (2)	<i>gūh-a-n-ti</i> (2)
PPP	<i>gūḍha</i> (1)	
imperfect	<i>a-gūh-a-t</i> (2)	<i>a-gūh-a-n</i> (2)
perfect	<i>ju-gūh-a</i> (2, 3)	<i>ju-guh-us</i> (3, 4)
<i>sa</i> -aorist	<i>a-ghuk-ṣ-a-t</i> (5)	
desiderative	<i>ju-ghuk-ṣ-a-ti</i> (6)	<i>ju-ghuk-ṣ-u</i> (6)

- PPP *gūḍha* is perfectly regular:
ie. **ghuḡh-to* (z.g. with *to* PPP marker)
→ *guḡ-dho* (**DA** and **ASh**)
→ *guz-dho* (*sz* before voiced stop)
→ *guṣ-dho* (**RUKI**)
→ *guṣ-ḍha* (**CerD**, **aā**)
→ *gū-ḍha* (**CpLz**)
 - gūh-a-ti* for expected full grade *gôh-a-ti*. Levelling may be responsible, see PPP *gūḍha*.
 - The perfect reduplication with *ju* is analogic secondary palatalization as in *cu-kṣôbh-a* (p. 192). However, one should expect the strong form 3. pers. sg. *ju-gôh-a*.
 - Expected weak form *ju-guh-us*.
 - sa*-aorist with expected appearance of aspiration from ie. root **gheugh*
 - Expected appearance of aspiration as in future form *bhôt-sy-a-ti* (pp. 38, 105). Palatalization of the reduplicated syllable may be due to analogy from desideratives with *i* in the stem, i.e., *ju-ghuk-ṣ-a-ti* similarly to *ji-gam-i-ṣ-a-ti*.
- ← ie. root **gheugh*

gṛ 9. class: ***grṇāti*** (“to mention with praise”)

gūrta (“agreeable, welcome”)

gūrta f. (“praise”)

E. Etymological dictionary

← ie. root **g^werH* (“to welcome”)

→ lat. B *grate-ful*, *grat-uitous*, *con-grat-ulation*, *grac-ious*

gr̥dh 4. class: **gr̥dhyati** (“to be greedy”) (**DA** and section **rl**)

gr̥ddha PPP

gardha (“greed”)

gr̥dh-yā (“greed”)

gr̥dhra (“greedy”)

gr̥dhra (“vulture”)

← ie. root **gheldh*

→ nhg. ver-*gelten* (“compensate”), *Geld* (“money”)

garh (“to lament”) and *grabh* (“to take, to grab”) may somehow be related

gr̥ham (“house”) ie. **ghrdho* (**DA** and p. 53)

← ie. root **gherdh* (“to surround”)

→ Slavic placenames like *Bel-grade*

~ lat. *hortus* (“garden”) ← ie. *t* (!)-extension **ghor-to* → lat. B *horti-culture* and possibly (but see s.v. *hr̥*) *cohort*

~ germ.

◇ e. *garden* ~ nhg. *Garten*

◇ e. to *gird*, *girdle* ~ nhg. *Gurt* (“belt”)

granth 9. class: **grathṇāti** (“to bind, to wind”)

grantha (“knot, text, book”) (**Lar** **_CH**)

granthin (“reading books”)

grathita PPP (**SY** **_N**)

← ie. root **grenth₂* and more basically ie. **ger* (“turning, to bend, to braid”)

→ germ.

◇ nhg. *krenzen* (“to produce or attach something wound”) and hence nhg. *Kranz*

◇ nhg. *Kringel* (“small circle”)

◇ nhg. *krank* (“bent, buckled → ill”)

◇ nhg. *Krampf* ~ e. *cramp*

Similar to *grabha* (“capture”, see *grabh* below), observe

ie. **grent₂-o*
 → **grent₂-o* (**Lar** *CH*)
 → *granth-a* (**aā**)

Revisit subsection C.2.5 (pp. 87) and compare *granth* with *pū*:

class	*gaṇa sign	√ (f.g.)	3. pers. sg.
7	<i>*ne</i>	<i>*yeuǵ</i>	<i>*yu-ne-ǵ-ti</i>
9	<i>*ne</i>	<i>*peuH</i>	<i>*pu-ne-H-ti</i>
9	<i>*ne</i>	<i>*grentH</i>	<i>*gr_on_t-ne-H-ti</i>

The last line should yield **gratṇāti* by **SY** *N* and **Lar** *CH* instead of *grathṇāti* above. The latter is to be explained by levelling, for example by

	<i>gratṇāti</i>	
influenced by	<i>grantha</i>	with aspirated <i>t</i>
turns into	<i>grathṇāti</i>	with aspirated <i>t</i>

grabh (later *grah*) 9. class: *gr̥bhṇāti*/*gr̥hṇāti* (“to seize, to take”), see subsection B.3.10

grabha (“capture”)

grabhīta PPP with unexpected full grade and unusual long *ī*

grabhītar (“capturer”) with expected full grade (pp. 100), but funny long *ī*

← ie. root **ghrebh*

→ germ.

◇ e. to *engrave*, *grave*

◇ nhg. *graben* (“to dig”), *Grab* (“grave”), *Grube* (“pit”), *grübeln* (“to brood”)

◇ iterative variants e. to *grobe* ~ nhg. *greifen* and nhg. *Graft* (out of use) ~ Dutch *gracht* with *ch* as in nlg. *Nichte* (see *naptar*)

The oi. root *grabh* (in full grade) and in particular forms like *grabha* (“capture”) show this development:

ie. **ghrebh₂-o*
 → **ghrebh-o* (**Lar** *CH*)
 → *ghrabh-a* (**aā**)
 → *grabh-a* (**DA**)

Similar to *grathṇāti* (see *granth*), observe

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class	*gaṇa sign	√ (f.g.)	3. pers. sg.
7	*ne	*yeuǵ	*yu-ne-ǵ-ti
9	*ne	*peuH	*pu-ne-H-ti
9	*ne	*grentH	*gr _ṇ t-ne-H-ti
9	*ne	*ghrebH	*gh _ṛ b-ne-H-ti

Again, by **SY_N** and **Lar_CH**, we should expect *gr̥bṇāti rather than gr̥bhṇāti above. And, again, levelling of the form

	gr̥bṇāti	
influenced by	grabha	with aspirated t
turns into	gr̥bhṇāti	with aspirated t

is responsible. It looks as if the laryngeal caused both the aspiration of *b* and the gaṇa sign *nā*. We had a somewhat similar phenomenon with *sthā*, *tiṣṭhati* (“to stand”) where the laryngeal of ie. *steh₂ produced both the aspirated *th* or *ṭh* and also the PPP form *sthita* where *i* goes back to the laryngeal (see p. C.2.2).

grāma (“troop, village”) (**Lo**)

← ie. *h₂ǵrom-o

→ lat. *gremium* (“lap, interior”) and lat. B in German *Gremium* (“interior → committee”)

E.3.4. gh

gharma (“heat”)

← ie. *g^wherm/*g^whorm

→ gr. B *thermic*, *thermos* bottle (**OGR**)

~ lat. *fur-nace*

~ e. *warm*

ghas 1. class: **ghasati**/ 2. class: **ghas-ti** (“to consume”)

a-gdha (“not eaten”), see p. 47

jī-ghat-s-u desiderative

← ie. root *ghas

ghṛ 2. class: *jī-ghar-ti* (“to sprinkle”)

ghrā 2. class: *ghrāti* (“to smell”) ← ie. **g^whr-eh₂*, see pp. 79

← ie. root **g^wher*

E.4. Palatal stops

E.4.1. *c*

ca (“and”)

ced (“if”) ← *ca* + *id* (see *kuv-id* under *kas*)

← ie. **k^we*

→ gr. *te* (**OGR**)

~ lat. *que* which is also enclitic: *senātus populusque rōmānus* (abbreviation: SPQR, “the Roman senate and people”)

See *pañča* and *na*.

cakṣ 1. class: *cakṣatê* / 2. class: *caṣtê* (“to see, to appear”)

cakṣa (“eye”)

cakṣus (“eye”)

cakṣas (“eye”)

cakṣan n. (“eye”)

Probably, *cakṣ* is the reduplicated form **k^we-k^wé* (**SPal**, **SIB**) ← ie. **k^weḱ*, see *kāś* (“to appear, to shine”)

One obtains

ie. **k^we-k^wé-tai* (3. pers. sg. pres. tense atm.)

→ *ce-k^wé-tai* (**SPal**)

→ *cakṣ-te* (**SIB**)

→ *caṣ-te* (**CCI**)

cakram (“wheel, circle”)

← ie. **k^we-k^wlo*, a reduplicated form from ie. **k^wel* (see *car*, *cal*)

→ gr. B *cycle*, en-*cycl*-ical, (*en*)*cyclo*-pedia, *bicycle*, *re-cycle*

catvāras (nom. pl. m.) “four”

catur “four times”

E. Etymological dictionary

← ie. **k^wetvor* (SPal, Lo)

→ gr. B *tetrahedron*

~ lat. *quattuor* with B *quadrat*

~ e. *four* ~ nhg. *vier*

See *turiya* (“fourth”)

cand 1. class (“to be white, to glow, to shine”)

candra (“shining”)

candra (“moon”)

candra-ka (“moon”)

candra-vant (“bright as the moon”)

candra-kānta (“lovely as the moon”), for second part see *kāma* (“wish, desire”)

← ie. root **(s)kend* (*s*-mobile)

→ lat.

◇ *incendere* (“set on fire”) with B *incense*

◇ B *candid* (“white → frank”), *candle*, *candidate* (men standing for elections in ancient Rome wore white *togas*)

See *chand*.

cam 1. class: **cāmati** (“to slurp”)

camūs (“bowl, army”)

cal 1. class: **calati** (“to move”)

car 1. class: **carati** (“to go”) (**rl**), see *cakram*

ca-ñ-cal-ya-tê frequentative (p. 140) (“to stir, to quiver”)

ca-ñ-cal-a (“unsteady”).

← ie. root **k^welh₁*

→ ogr. *bou-kolos* (“cowherd”) ~ oir. *bua-chail* (for first part, see *gô*)

~ lat.

◇ *colere* (“be busy, to cultivate”) with B *colony*, *clown*, *cult*, *culture* and the German town *Köln* ← “*Colonia* Agrippina”

◇ *collāre* (“neck iron for slaves”) with B *collar*, *collarbone* and French *collier* (“necklace”)

◇ *an-cul-us* (“man-servant”) ← ie. **h₂m̥bhi-k^wolh₁-os* (for first part, see *abhi*) with lat. *ancilla* (“woman-servant”) and the B *ancilla-ry* (services)

~ nhg. Hal-s (“the mover, the turner → neck”)

kr̥s (“to pull, to drag”) may also be related, from ie. **k^wol-s*.

carman n. (“leather”) (**SPal**)

← ie. *(*s*)*ker-men* (“torn skin”)

→ nhg. *Schirm*, *Herbst*, *Schere*, *scharf*

kr̥t (“to cut”) is a *t* extension.

ci 5. class: **cinôti**/ 2. class: **cêti**/ 1. class: **cayati** (“to stack, to arrange, to cover”)
caya (“layer, heap, pile, entity”)

ci 3. class: **cikêti**/ 5. class: **cinôti** / 1. class: **cayatê** (“to notice, to sift through, explore”)

nis-ci (“to decide”)

niś-caya (“decision, certainty”)

niś-ci-tam (“surely”)

niś-ci-tam (“decision”)

related to **cit** (“to observe, to appear”) below

← ie. root **k^wei*

It seems likely that **ci** (“to stack”) is related to **ci** (“to sift through”):

◇ If one sifts through a pile, one cannot help noticing.

◇ If one takes out of a heap, one makes a decision.

cit 1. class: **cêtati** (“to observe, to appear”), see *kêtu*
cêkitê frequentitive verb

E.4.2. **ch**

chad 1. class: **chad-a-ti** (“to cover”)

a-ccha (“uncovered”) (see p. 66)

sv-a-ccha (“pure, transparent”), see *su*

chand 10. class: **chand-aya-ti** (“to seem good, to please”)

chandas (“desire, delight, hymn”)

E. Etymological dictionary

← ie. root **(s)kend* (“to shine, to appear”) (*s*-mobile and **SIB**/ *sP(h)*)

→ lat.

◇ *cend-ere* (“to ignite, to set fire”) with B *incense*

◇ *cand-ere* (“to shine”) with B *cand-le*

See *cand*.

chāyā (“shade”)

← ie. root **skēh₂* (**SIB**)

→ e. to *shine* ~ nhg. *scheinen*

chid 7. class: **chi-na-t-ti** (“to split, to cut”)

chid-ra (“with holes, damaged”), see pp. 121

← ie. root **skeid* (*sP(h)*)

→ gr. B (church) *schism*

~ germ.

◇ e. to *shit* ~ nhg. *scheißen*

◇ with labial extension rather than the dental one above: nhg. *Scheibe* (“disc”, cut from a tree), *Schiefer* (“slate”)

cho 4. class: **chyati** (“to cut open, to skin”)

← ie. root **skēh₂* (“to split”)

→ lat. B *con-scious*, *science* (“to know” ← “to distinguish, to make a decision”)

E.4.3. **j**

jakṣ 2. class: ved. **jakṣiti** (“to laugh”)

Probably, **jakṣ** is the reduplicated form **ghe-ghs* (**DA**, **SPal**, **SIB**) ← ie. **ghes*, see *has* (“to laugh”)

jatu n. (“lac, gum”)

← ie. **g^wet-u*

→ lat. (via other languages that show ie. $*g^w \rightarrow b$) B *bitu-men*

jan 4. class: **jāyatê** (“to beget, to be born”)

jātu (“from birth, by nature, possibly”)

jana (“man”)

janaka (“father”)

janitar (“father”)

<i>jan</i> (“to beget”)		
present tense	<i>jā-y-a-tê</i> (1)	<i>jā-y-a-tê</i> (1)
infinitive	<i>jan-i-tum</i> (2)	
PPP	<i>jā-ta</i> (1)	
future	<i>jan-i-ṣy-a-tê</i> (2)	<i>jan-i-ṣy-a-tê</i> (2)
imperfect	<i>a-jā-y-a-ta</i> (1)	<i>a-jā-y-a-n-ta</i> (1)
perfect	<i>ja-jñ-ê</i> (3)	<i>ja-jñ-irê</i> (3)
<i>iṣ</i> -aorist	<i>a-jan-iṣ-ta</i> (2)	<i>a-jan-iṣ-a-ta</i> (2, 4)
desiderative	<i>jī-jan-i-ṣ-tê</i> (2)	<i>jī-jan-i-ṣ-u</i> (2)

1. The ie. full grade root is $*ḡenH$. The 4. class builds on the zero grade. By **Lar_SY**, *jā-y-a-tê* is regular from ie. $*ḡn̥H-ye-tei$. Similarly, we have zero grades in imperfect and PPP.
2. By **Lar_V**, the laryngeal shows up as *i* between consonants in *jan-i-tum* ← $*ḡenH-tum$ and in several other forms.
3. The (weak!) ātmanêpada perfect endings are *ê* and *irê* for sg. and pl., respectively. Before these vowel-endings, the laryngeal regularly drops.
4. **SY_N** explains *a-jan-iṣ-a-ta* for 3. pers. pl. ending *n-ta*.

← ie. root $*ḡenh_1$

→ gr.

◇ B *genealogy*

◇ B *genesis* (in particular, the first book of the Old Testament that describes the creation of Earth and mankind)

~ lat.

◇ B *general* (“pertaining to people of the same descent → shared by all”)

◇ B *in-gen-eous*

◇ B *pre-gn-ant*

E. Etymological dictionary

- ◇ (B) *genus* and pl. *genera* (**LAT** *_sr*) ~ oi. *jana* (“people, person”)
- ◇ B *germane* (“having the same father and mother → belonging, relevant”)
- ◇ *natus* in *ante Christum natum* (“before Christ was born”) and in the B *nation, nature*
- ◇ B *indi-gen-ous*
- ◇ B *primo-gen-iture*
- ◇ B *co-gnate* (“to be born with, related”), with ie. *ǵ* still present
- ~ e. *kin*(ship)
- ~ nhg. *Kind* (“begotten”, formally a PPP)

See also *jānu* and *jñā*.

jāni f./ **jāni** (‘‘woman, wife’’)

- ← ie. **ǵ^wenh₂* (**Lar** *_V*)
- gr. B *gyn*-ecology
- ~ e. *queen* (compare *quick* under *jīv*)
- ~ oir. *ben* (“woman”)

jānu n. (‘‘knee’’) (**Lo**)

- ← ie. **ǵenu/ǵonu*
- lat. B *genu-flection*
- ~ e. *knee* ~ nhg. *Knie*

Related to *jñā* and *jan*? Alternatively, the basic meaning of ie. **ǵenu/ǵonu* is ‘‘curve’’ and this word is the same as *hanu* (‘‘chin’’)

jāmātar m. (‘‘son-in-law’’) (**Lo**)

- ← ie. **ǵomo/ *ǵem-ro*
- ogr. *gambros* (‘‘son-in-law’’) (for the *b*, compare *ambrosia* s.v. *mṛ*)

jī 1. class: **jayati** (‘‘to conquer’’)

jāyā (‘‘who has been captured → woman’’) or from *jan*?

jyā 2. class: **jyāti** (‘‘suppress’’) ← ie. **ǵy-eh₂* (see pp. 79)

← ie. **ǵei*

jihva (“Zunge”)

← ie. **dnǵ-vh₂*

~ lat. *lingua* franca with B *linguist* and in English *language* via French

~ e. *tongue* ~ nhg. *Zunge*

~ nir. *mo theanga féin* (“my own” tongue in the sense of “language”)

jīv 1. class: **jīvati** (“to live”) ← ie. z.g. **g^wih₃v-e-ti* by **SPal** and **Lar _ V**

jīva (“living”)

gaya (“life, possession, dwelling place, family”) ← ie. **g^woih₃o* (no **SPal**)

← ie. root **g^weih₃(v)*

→ gr. B *bio*-logy (**OGR**)

~ lat. B *vital*, *vitamin*, *Konvikt* (in Germany: a flat shared by catholic students of theology), *Viktualienmarkt* (market place in Munich)

~ germ.

◇ e. *quick*

◇ nlg. *erquicken*, *quicklebendig*

◇ nhg. *keck*

jus 6. class: **jusatē** (“to like, to enjoy”)

jōṣa (“satisfaction”)

← ie. root **ǵeus* (“to choose, to enjoy”)

→ lat. *gūstus* in “with *gusto*” and French “chacun à son *goût*” where the circumflex is reminiscent of eliminated *s* (as in *hôpital*)

~ e. *choose* ← Old English *ceosan* ~ nhg. *kiesen* (old for “examine, choose”) (**NHG _ E**)

~ nhg. *kosten* (“to taste, to enjoy”) versus *erkoren*, *Kür* and *Kurfürst* by **VER**

jṛ 1. class: **jarati** (“to waste away”)

jīrṇa PPP (“wasted, aged”)

jarā (“age”)

E. Etymological dictionary

← ie. root $*\acute{g}r_{\circ}H-no$

→ lat. *grānum* (in “*cum grāno salis*”) ← ie. $*\acute{g}r_{\circ}H-no$ (IE_SY_L) and B *pomegranate* or *Granatapfel*

~ germ.

◇ z.g. e. *corn* ~ nhg. *Korn* ← ie. $*\acute{g}r_{\circ}H-no$ (IE_SY_L)

◇ f.g. nhg. *Kern*

$j\tilde{n}\bar{a}$ 9. class: $j\bar{a}n\bar{a}ti$ (“to know”)

$jij\tilde{n}\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ (“desire to find out → investigation”)

$jij\tilde{n}\bar{a}sanam$ (“desire to find out → curiosity”)

$j\tilde{n}\bar{a}$ (“to know”)		
present tense	$j\bar{a}-n\bar{a}-ti$ (1)	$j\bar{a}-n-an-ti$ (1, 2)
infinitive	$j\tilde{n}\bar{a}-tum$ (3)	
PPP	$j\tilde{n}\bar{a}-ta$ (4)	
future	$j\tilde{n}\bar{a}-sy-a-ti$ (3)	$j\tilde{n}\bar{a}-sy-a-n-ti$ (3)
imperfect	$a-j\bar{a}-n\bar{a}-t$ (1)	$a-j\bar{a}-n-an$ (2)
perfect	$ja-j\tilde{n}-\hat{a}u$ (5)	$ja-j\tilde{n}-us$ (5)
<i>siṣ</i> -aorist	$a-j\tilde{n}\bar{a}-s\bar{i}-t$	$a-j\tilde{n}\bar{a}-siṣ-us$
desiderative	$j\bar{i}-j\tilde{n}\bar{a}-s-a-t\hat{e}$ (4)	$j\bar{i}-j\tilde{n}\bar{a}-su$ (4)

1. The ie. root is $*\acute{g}enh_3$. Consider

class	$*gaṇa$ sign	√ (f.g.)	3. pers. sg.
9	$*ne$	$*peuH$	$*pu-ne-H-ti$
9	$*ne$	$*\acute{g}enH$	$*\acute{g}n_{\circ}-ne-H-ti$

One should expect $*ja-n\bar{a}-ti$ rather than $j\bar{a}-n\bar{a}-ti$ above. Note that $j\bar{a}$ regularly occurs in infinitive and future forms, but also irregular in PPP.

2. For 9. class verbs, the class signs are

◇ $n\bar{a}$ for strong forms and

◇ $n\bar{i}$ for weak forms.

However, the 3. pers. pl. is always like here: $pu-na-nti$, $kr\bar{i}-ṇa-nti$, $j\bar{a}-na-nti$

3. The infinitive and the future are formed regularly from the full grade $\acute{g}neh_3 \rightarrow j\tilde{n}\bar{a}$.
4. Very unusually, the PPP is formed with the full grade. The regular weak form would have been $*\acute{g}n_{\circ}H-to \rightarrow *j\bar{a}-ta$ which is the regularly formed PPP of jan . Similarly, the desiderative forms are also irregularly built on the full grade.

5. The perfect endings are *âu* for sg.. Here, as in *da-d-âu* from *dā* (“to give”), we seem to have weak forms also in the sg..

← ie. root **ǵneh*₃

→ gr. B *gnosis* (“knowledge of God”), *a-gno-stic* (for the first part, see p. 66)

~ lat. B

◇ with *g*: *co-gn-ition* and *re-co-gn-ize* (compare *co-gnate* under *jan*)

◇ without *g* word-initial: to *note*, *notion*, *no-bility*

~ e. *know* ← Old English *cnáwan*

~ nhg. *kennen* (originally causative, see Gothic *kannjan*)

jñā seems a consequential verb (pp. 79) that is related to *jan* and perhaps also to *jānu*: The father recognizes his child by setting it on his *knee*.

E.5. Dental stops and nasal

E.5.1. *t*

takṣ 1. class: ***takṣati*** / 5. class: ***takṣṇōti*** (“to form by cutting”)

takṣ-an m. (“carpenter”)

← ie. root *tek*-s (“to produce”) / ie. reduplicated root **te-tk*-en (**SIB**)

→ gr. B *technical* from *technē* (← *tek-sneh*₂ where *s* is lost under aspiration of *k*)

~ lat. B *tex-tile*

tad

← ie. **tod*

→ lat. *is-tud*

~ e. *that*

~ nhg. *das*

tan 8. class: ***tanōti*** (“to stretch”)

tanu (“thin”)

tanu f. / ***tanū*** (“body”)

tan-tram (“loom, teaching, manual”)

E. Etymological dictionary

<i>tan</i> (“to stretch”)		
present tense	<i>tan-ô-ti</i> (3)	<i>tan-v-an-ti</i> (4)
infinitive	<i>tan-tum</i> or <i>tan-i-tum</i> (1)	
PPP	<i>ta-ta</i> (2)	
future	<i>tan-i-şy-a-ti</i> (1)	<i>tan-i-şy-a-n-ti</i> (1)
imperfect	<i>a-tan-ô-t</i> (3)	<i>a-tan-v-an</i> (4)
perfect	<i>ta-tān-a</i> (5)	<i>tēn-us</i> (6)
<i>iş</i> -aorist	<i>a-tan-i-t</i>	<i>a-tan-iş-us</i>
desiderative	<i>ti-tam-s-a-ti</i> (7)	<i>ti-tam-s-u</i> (7)

1. The infinitive shows the full-grade form *tan*. The *i* in the second infinitive and also in the future forms (**RUKI**) does not go back to a laryngeal but has been produced by analogy.
2. **SY_N**
3. See pp. C.2.5 for an analysis of the 8. class: Instead of interpreting *tan-ô-ti* (i.e., as *tan* + gaṇa sign *ô*), it is preferable to analyze *ta-ṇô-ti* as **tṇ-ne-u-ti* instead.
4. The pl. *tan-v-an-ti* should be analyzed as *ta-nv-an-ti*, i.e. with **SY_N** and gaṇa sign *nu* (**hV**). Although *tan* and all other verbs of the 8. class are athematic, the thematic *a* is to be expected in the PRII par. 3. pers. pl. forms as in practically all athematic classes except the third one (p. 147). The same holds for imperfect *a-ta-nv-an*.
5. The o-grade perfect sg. *ta-tān-a* ← ie. **te-ton-e* results from Brugmann’s law **Lo** as do, for example,
 - ◇ *ba-bhār-a* ← *bhṛ* (“to bear”) or
 - ◇ *pa-pāt-a* ← *pat* (“to fall”).
 See pp. 189.
6. *tēn-us* or *pēt-us* (the latter from *pat*, “to fall”) are analogical built on zero-grade forms like
 - ◇ *sēd-* ← ie. **se-sd-* (root *sad*) or
 - ◇ *yêt-* ← ie. **ye-it-* (root *yat*).
 See p. 195.
7. Similar to *mī-mam-s-a-tê* (p. 128) *ti-tam-s-a-ti*
 - ◇ is build irregularly from the full grade (the regular zero-grade desiderative of *tan* would be **ti-ta-s-a-tê* by **SY_N**
 - ◇ shows anusvāra before *s*

- ← ie. root **ten*
- gr. B *tone* (strings (of violins) are stretched to produce a tone)
- ~ lat.
- ◇ B *ten-acious*
 - ◇ B *ten-sion* and with prepositions: *de-ten-sion*, *pre-ten-sion*
 - ◇ B with preposition *sub* (s.v. *upa*): to *sus-tain*, *sus-ten-ance*
 - ◇ B with preposition *con*: to *con-tin-ue*, *con-tin-uous*
- ~ e. *thin* ~ nhg. *dünn*
- ~ nhg. *dehnen* (“to stretch”)

tap 1. class: **tapati** (“to be hot, to burn”)
tapas (“heat, asceticism”)
tapoja (“born from heat”), **CpLz**

- ← ie. root **tep*
- lat. B tepid

-tama superlative suffix (**Lar_SY**)
pra-tama (see **pra**)
ut-tama (see **ud**)

- ← ie. **tm_oH-o*
- lat. *in-timus* (“inner”)

tamas n. (“darkness”)
tamisram (“darkness”) (no **RUKE** because of *r* after *s*)

- ← ie. **temHs*
- lat.
- ◇ *tenebrae* (pl., only), by dissimilation *temHs-r* → *temas-r* → *teneb-r*
 - ◇ B *temerity* (“acting in the dark → audacity”)

tark 10. class: **tarkayati** (“to consider, to ponder”)
tarka (“science of reasoning, logic, consideration”)
tarku (“spindle”)

E. Etymological dictionary

← ie. root **terk^w*

→ lat. *torquere* with PPP *tortus* (by regular simplification) and B in English *torture*, *retort* and B in German *torkeln* (from lat. *torculum* („winepress“))

~ nhg. *drechseln*

tij 1. class: **tējati** (“to become sharp”)

tig-ma (“sharp”)

tīkṣṇa (“sharp”) (difficult long *ī*)

← ie. root **(s)teig* (“to prick, to sting”)

→ gr. B *stigma*

~ lat. B *in-stig-ation*

~ e. *thistle* ~ nhg. *Distel*

tiras (“sideward, horizontal”)

tirac (“sideward, horizontal”), see *añc*

tiryac (“horizontally going (animal)”)

tila (“sesame plant, sesame corn”)

tâilam (“oil”) → pa. *tēla* → pkt. *tēlla* (**LawOfMorae**)

tud 6. class: **tudati** (“to strike, to hit”)

← ie. root **(s)teu(n)d*

→ lat. B *studēre* (“to be thrusting → to strive after”) with B *study*

~ nhg. *stoßen* (“to bump, to thrust”)

tumra (“big, powerful”) ← n.at. oi. root *tum* (see pp. 121)

← ie. root **teum*

→ lat. B *tumid*, *tumour*, *tumult*

Perhaps related to *tū*.

turiya “fourth” (**CCl**, **Lar** **V**) with zero grade of both vowels compared to ie. **k^wetvor*
→ *catvāras* (nom. pl. m.) “four”

← ie. **k^wtur-iHo*

tū 2. class: *tāuti* (“to be strong, to have authority”)

← ie. **teuh₂*

→ lat. B *tutor*, *tutelage*

~ e. *thumb* ~ nhg. *Daumen*

tr̥ṣ 4. class: *tr̥ṣyati* (“to thirst”)

mi. *tasati/tasyati* with expected *ṛ* → *a* and *ṣ* → *s*

← ie. root **ters* (“be dry”)

→ lat.

◇ lat. *terra* (“the dry one, the earth”) with B *terrarium*, *territory*, French *sou-terrain*

◇ B *toast* ← lat. *tostus* ← **torstos* (“dried”)

~ e. *thirst* ~ nhg. *Durst*

tṛ 1. class: *tarati*/ 4. class: *tirati* (“to cross, to rescue”)

tīrṇa PPP

titīrṣati desiderative

tīram (“bank, shore”)

tīrtha/tīrtham (“ford, passage → ritual bath place”)

← ie. root **terh₂*

→ og. *tor-nos* → lat. *tornus* → B in German *Turnus* (“cycle, rotation”), and, via French *tourner*, B in English *tour*, *tourist* and B in German *Turnier* (“having horses run in a cycle cycle → competition”), whence *Turner* (“young fighter” → “gymnast”)

~ lat. *trāns* (“across, through”) ← pres.P ie. **trh₂nt-s* (“crossing”) with B in English *transnational*, *transgender*, etc.

~ e. *throw*, e. *thread* ~ nhg. *Draht* („wire“), nhg. *drehen* (“to twist”)

See *trā*.

tê, enclitic for pers. pron. 2. pers. sg. both gen. (for non-enclitic *tava*) and dat. (for non-enclitic *tubhyam*)

E. Etymological dictionary

← ie. **toi*

→ ogr. *toi*

tê, 1. pers. pl. of *tad*

← ie. **toi*

→ lat. *is-ti*

~ nhg. *die*

tyaj 1. class: **tyajati** (“to abandon”)

ti-tik-ṣ-u (“enduring patiently” which is semantically difficult)

← ie. root **tyeg^w*

→ ogr. *sebomai* (“I worship, I am respectful”) with PPP *sebastos* (“venerable”) in PN *Sebastian*.

trayas (“three”)

← ie. **treyes*

→ gr. B *triad*

~ lat. B *triumvirate* (for second part see *vīra*)

~ e. *three* ~ nhg. *drei*

tras 1. class: **trasati** (“to tremble”)

mi. **tasati** with expected *tr* → *t*

← ie. root **tres* / **ters*

→ lat. B *terror*, *terrible*

trā 2. class: **trāti** (“to save”)

Consequential of *tṛ*, see pp. 79.

tvam (“you”)

← ie. **t-*

→ lat. *tū*

~ e. *thou* ~ nhg. *du*

tvar 1. class: *tvaratê* (“to hurry”)
tūr-ṇa, *tūr-ta* PPP
sa-tvaram adv. (“fast”)
a-tvarā (“without hurry → leisure”)

← ie. root **tverH*

E.5.2. *d*

daṃś 1. class: *daṃśati* / 10. class: *daṃśayati* (“to speak, to shine”)
 pf.P *dāśva* corrupted from *dāśva(n)s* (“liberal, giving, a donor”), reduplicated from ie.
 de-dk-vo-* by (CpLdk**) (see p. 224)

← ie. root **de(n)k*

dakṣa (“fit, able”)
dakṣiṇa (“right” [right hand is the able one?], “southern” [facing eastward, the southern direction is on the right])

← ie. root **deks*

→ lat. B *dex-terity*

daṇḍa (“stick, punishment”), mi. where *r* has cerebralized *ṇd*.

← ie. **dendr-o*

→ ogr. *dendron* (“tree”) with B *rhododendron*

danta, see *ad*

dabh 1. class: *dabhati* / 5. class: *dabhnôti* (“to hurt, to destroy”)
dabh-ra (“little deficient”)
dah-ra (“small, fine”) (see subsection B.3.10)
dhip-s-a-ti (p. 132) desiderative

← ie. root **dhebh* (“to build, to fit”)

E. Etymological dictionary

dam 4. class: **dāmyati** (“to tame”)

dānta PPP

dama (“house”)

← ie. root **dem* (“to build, to fit”)

→ gr. B *despot* ← **dems potis* (“lord of the house”, for second part see *pati*)

~ lat. B *dome*, *dominate*, *domesticate*, Italian *madonna* (← *mea domina*, “Maria, the mother of Jesus”), French *madame*

~ germ.

◇ e. *tame* ~ nhg. *zahn*

◇ e. *timber* ~ nhg. *Zimmermann*

◇ nhg. *ziemlich* (“fairly, tolerably” and, unusually, “properly”)

daśa (“ten”)

← ie. **dek̑m*

→ ogr. *deka* with B *decade*

~ lat. *decem* with B *dean* (“leader of 10 men, of a faculty”), *deciliter*, *decimate* (“to kill every 10. man”)

~ e. *ten* ~ nhg. *zehn*

Note ie. **dek̑mt* (“a tenner”) in *pañcāśat*. See *śatám*.

dah 1. class: **dahati** (“to burn”)

<i>dah</i> (“to burn”)		
present tense	<i>dah-a-ti</i> (1)	<i>dah-a-n-ti</i> (1)
infinitive	<i>dag-dhum</i> (2)	
PPP	<i>dag-dha</i> (2, 3)	
future	<i>dhak-ṣy-a-ti</i> (4)	<i>dhak-ṣy-a-n-ti</i> (4)
imperfect	<i>a-dah-a-t</i> (1)	<i>a-dah-a-n</i> (1)
perfect	<i>da-dāh-a</i> (5)	<i>da-dah-us</i> (3)
<i>iṣ</i> -aorist	<i>a-dhāk-ṣī-t</i> (4, 6)	<i>a-dhāk-ṣ-us</i> (4, 6)
desiderative	<i>di-dhak-ṣ-a-ti</i> (3, 4)	<i>di-dhak-ṣ-u</i> (3, 4)

1. From ie. **dheg^wh-e-ti*, *dah-a-ti* is obtained by **DA** and **SPal**.

2. The infinitive *dag-dhum* results from both aspiration laws **DA** and **ASh**.

3. **DA** and **ASh** also operate to produce the PPP *dag-dha* which, however, irregularly uses the full grade. Irregular full grade is also seen in the desiderative.
4. The future forms belong to a class of verbs with aspirated voiced stops in both root-initial and root-final positions. Since **ASh** relieves the root-final velar of its aspiration (which cannot be assumed by *s* or *sy*), **DA** cannot be applied. Compare *bhot-sy-a-ti* (p. 38). Here, as in the aorist and the desiderative, the ie. root-initial aspiration is revealed within Sanskrit!
5. For the perfect sg. *da-dāh-a*, consult pp. 188 to see the how Brugmann's law **Lo** produces the long \bar{a} .
6. Irregularly, this *iṣ*-aorist (pp. 200) builds on the lengthened grade. Perhaps, since the PPP uses the full grade rather than the regular zero grade, the aorist employs the lengthened grade rather than the regular full grade.

← ie. root **dheg^wh*

→ lat. B *fever*

dā 3. class: **da-dā-ti** ("to give")

<i>dā</i> ("to give")		
present tense	<i>da-dā-ti</i> (1)	<i>da-d-a-ti</i> (2)
infinitive	<i>dā-tum</i> (3)	
PPP	<i>di-ta/dat-ta</i> (4)	
future	<i>dā-sy-a-ti</i> (3)	<i>dā-sy-a-n-ti</i> (3)
imperfect	<i>a-da-dā-t</i> (1)	<i>a-da-d-us</i> (5)
perfect	<i>da-d-âu</i> (6)	<i>da-d-us</i>
root aorist	<i>a-dā-t</i>	<i>a-d-us</i>
desiderative	<i>di-t-s-a-ti</i> (7)	<i>di-t-s-u</i> (7)

1. The sg. *da-dā-ti* is a strong form (in full grade) and goes back to **de-deh₃-ti*.
2. In contrast, the pl. *da-d-a-ti* is in zero grade. The 3. class does not exhibit the thematic *a* in par. 3. pers. pl. (which is present in the other athematic verbs) so that we find
 - ◇ *bi-bhr-a-ti* ← **bi-bhr-n_o-ti* or
 - ◇ *da-d-a-ti* ← **de-dh₃n_o-ti* (**Lar** – **CH**: the laryngeal *h₃* leaves no effect before the vowel *n_o*).
3. The infinitive and the future show expected full grade.

4. The PPP di-ta is regular where the laryngeal turns into *i* between consonants. The irregular *datta* may have this explanation: The present tense 1. pers. sg. *da-dā-mi* might be misunderstood as *dad-ā-mi* with root **dad* whence a PPP *datta* ← *dad-ta* (**BA**) would arise.
5. In the third class, the imperfect 3. pers. pl. has ending *us* so that we have zero grade *a-da-d-us*. By **Lar CH**, the laryngeal *h*₃ drops between consonant *d* and vowel *u*. Indeed, *dā* (“to give”) and *dhā* (“to set, to put”) are formed regularly with the zero grade. Irregularly, the full grade is present in most verbs of the third class, as in *a-bi-bhay-us* from *bhī* or *a-bi-bhar-us* from *bhr̥*).
6. The perfect *da-d-âu* exhibits
 - ◇ 3. pers. sg. ending *âu* and
 - ◇ weak form.
 For similar examples like *ta-sth-âu* from *sthā*, see p. 192.
7. The desiderative (see pp. 126) is formed by reduplication with *i*, zero grade and suffix *s* (or maybe *HS*):

^{*}*di-dh₃-s-*
$$\rightarrow di-d-s- (\text{Lar } V)$$

→ *di-t-s-* (**BA**)

→ *di-t-s-a-ti* he wishes to give

→ *di-t-s-u* wishing to give

→ *di-t-s-a* desire to give

An irregular alternative desiderative *didāṣati* exists where \bar{a} has been taken from *da-dā-ti* or other forms with long \bar{a} .

← ie. root $*deh_3$

→ gr. B *dose* (in German, closer to the original: *Dosis*) also gr. B *an-ec-dote* (originally “not edited”)

~ lat. B *date* and *data* (PPP forms) with prefixes: lat. B *e-dit*, *man-date*, *tra-dit-ion*

dā 4. class: ***dya-ti*** (“to bind”) ← ie. **dH-ye-ti*

a-di-ti f. (“freedom, liberation”) ← ie. **n₂dH-ti* (**SY** *_N*; pp. 119 plus **Lar** *_V*)

 $\leftarrow \text{ie. } {}^*deH$

dāru n. (“wood”) (**Lo**)

← ie. *dor_u

→ e. *tree, true*

~ nhg. *Treue, Trost, trauen* where $t \rightarrow ts$ is repressed—just try to pronounce *tsreu*.

dās 1. class: **dāsati**/ 2. class: **dāṣṭi**/ 5. class: **dāśnoti** (“to venerate, to consecrate”)??

kās ??*warum lang*

dīkṣ 1. class: **dīkṣ-a-tē** (“to initiate, to consecrate”), desiderative $\leftarrow^*di-dk-s-$ (**CpLdk**)

\leftarrow ie. root $*dek$ (“to receive, to embellish”)

\rightarrow lat.

◇ B *decor, dig-nity*

◇ desiderative: lat. *discere* (“to want to perceive \rightarrow to learn”) or frequentative (“to take in repeatedly \rightarrow to learn”) with iterative suffix *ské* (see *gam, vāñch*)

◇ causative: lat. *docere* (\leftarrow ie. causative $*dek-eye-$) (“to make perceive \rightarrow to teach”) with B *docile, document, doctor*

dinam (“day”), see *dēva*.

div 4. class: **dīv-y-a-ti** (“to play”)

dyū-ta PPP (“gambling, gaming”)

\leftarrow ie. root $*deiHv$ (**Lar_MTh**)

See *siv*.

diś 6. class: **diśati** (“to show”)

diś f. (“hint, direction”)

diṣṭi f. (“hint, fortune”) with instrum. **diṣṭyā** (“Thank God!”)

deśa (“region, land”)

\leftarrow ie. root $*deik$

\rightarrow ogr. *deik-nu-mi* (“I show”) with B *apo-dic-tic, para-dig-m, syn-dic-ate*, all of them in zero grade

~ lat. *dīcere* (**LAT_V**) with zero-grade B *ver-dict, e-dict, dictator*, and, via Italian, in German

◇ *ver-male-deit* (“accursed”) and,

◇ from the rosary prayer “*ge-bene-deit* ist die Frucht deines Leibes, Jesus”.

~ germ.

◇ nhg. *ver-zeihen* and also *zeigen, Zeigefinger*

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- ◇ e. *toe* ~ nhg. *Zehe* (i.e., finger (pointer) of the foot)
- ◇ e. *token* ~ nhg. *Zeichen* (“sign”)

dih 2. class: **dêgdhi** (“to smear”)

<i>dih</i> (“to smear”)		
present tense	<i>dêg-dhi</i> (1)	<i>dih-an-ti</i> (3)
infinitive	<i>dêg-dhum</i> (1)	
PPP	<i>dig-dha</i> (1, 2)	
future	<i>dhêk-şy-a-ti</i> (4)	<i>dhêk-şy-a-n-ti</i> (4)
imperfect	<i>a-dhêk</i> (4, 5)	<i>a-dih-an</i> (3)
perfect	<i>di-dih-ê</i> (6)	<i>di-dih-irê</i> (6)
aorist		<i>a-dhikş-us</i> (4, 7)
desiderative	<i>di-dhik-ş-a-ti</i> (4, 8)	

1. The origin is ie. **dheigh*. The full grade yields oi. *ê* and the two aspiration laws **DA** and **ASh** lead to *dêg-dhi* and the infinitive *dêg-dhum*.
2. The PPP is also explained by the two aspiration laws, of course in zero grade.
3. Although athematic, 3. pers. PRII exhibits *an*. This holds for all verbs in the 2. class (except *śās*, see 163), but the 3. class shows just *n* (which would then turn into *a*).
4. The future form *dhêk-şy-a-ti* needs three observations:
 - ◇ Failed aspiration shift together with expected backward assimilation produces *k* from *gh*.
 - ◇ Very much like in *dhôk-şy-a-ti* ← ie. **dheugh-s* from *duh* (“to milk”), the ie. initial *dh* is revealed. No need for **DA**.
 - ◇ **RUKI**
5. *a-dhêk* is explained by **CCl** and **AFP** (pp. 44). **AFP** is then followed by non-application of **DA** (similar to 4.).
6. The perfect forms are ātmanêpada and hence weak (pp. 188).
7. It is not clear what type of aorist *a-dhikş-us* might be. For *dh* compare 4.
8. *di-dhik-ş-a-ti* is expected desiderative in zero grade and without **DA** in the second syllable, but **DA** in the reduplication syllable.

← ie. root **dheigh*

- lat. *fingerere* (“to build”) with present-stem nasal infix that is still present in
- ◇ English to *feign*
 - ◇ German *fingieren* (“to feign”), and
 - ◇ German *Finte* (via Italian)
- ∼ lat. without the nasal infix, B *figure*, *fiction* (backward assimilation)
- ∼ nhg. *Teig* ∼ e. *dough* (also in *doughnut* = *donut*)
- ∼ e. *la-dy* ← Old English *hlæf-dāge* (“woman who kneads dough → woman whose bread one eats”) where the first part *hlæf* is e. *loaf* ∼ nhg. *Laib*.

dīrgha (“long”) (r1, Lar_SY)

- ← ie. **dleHgh*
- lat. B *longus* with B *long-itude*
- ∼ e. *long* ∼ nhg. *lang*

dus (“bad, evil”), used in combinations such as

- ◇ ***dur-uktá*** (“bad word”)
- ◇ ***duh-kham*** (“misfortune”), see *su-kham*
- ◇ ***dur-ga*** (“place that is difficult to get at, danger”), see *gam*
- ◇ ***dur-gā*** (*devī*) (“inaccessible goddess, Shiva’s wife”)
- ◇ ***dur-bala*** (“without power”), see *balam*
- ◇ ***duṣ-kṛt*** (“acting in an evil manner”), see *kṛ*

duh 2. class: ***dôgdhi*** (“to milk”)

<i>dih</i> (“to milk”)		
present tense	<i>dôg-dhi</i> (1)	<i>duh-an-ti</i> (3)
infinitive	<i>dôg-dhum</i> (1)	
PPP	<i>dug-dha</i> (1, 2)	
future	<i>dhôk-ṣy-a-ti</i> (4)	<i>dhôk-ṣy-a-n-ti</i> (4)
imperfect	<i>a-dhôk</i> (4, 5)	<i>a-duh-an</i> (3)
perfect	<i>du-dôh-a</i> (6)	<i>du-duh-us</i> (6)
sa-aorist	<i>a-dhuk-ṣ-a-t</i> (4)	<i>a-dhuk-ṣ-a-n</i> (4)
desiderative	<i>du-dhuk-ṣ-a-ti</i> (4, 7)	<i>du-dhuk-ṣ-u</i> (4, 7)

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1. The origin is ie. **dheugh* or even *dheugh*₂ if the connection with *duhitar* is correct. The full grade yields oi. *ô* and the two aspiration laws **DA** and **ASh** lead to *dôg-dhi* and the infinitive *dôg-dhum*.
 2. The PPP is also explained by the two aspiration laws, of course in zero grade.
 3. Although athematic, 3. pers. PRII exhibits *an*. This holds for all verbs in the 2. class (except *śās*, see 163), but the 3. class shows just *n* (which would then turn into *a*).
 4. The future, the aorist and the desiderative reflect failed **DA** and then **BA**, and **RUKI** (which explain *k-ṣ*). **DA** cannot occur in the main syllable.
 5. *a-dhōk* is explained by **CCI** and **AFP** (pp. 44). **AFP** is then followed by non-application of **DA** (similar to 4.).
 6. The sg. perfect form is in parasmāipada and hence strong (pp. 188). The plural is regularly weak.
 7. *du-dhukṣ-a-ti* is expected desiderative in zero grade and without **DA** in the second syllable, but **DA** in the reduplication syllable.
- ← ie. root **dheugh*
- ogr. *tuchē* f. (“hazard, luck”) (**OGR**, **OGR_DA**), compare Vedic *dugha* (“milk cow”)

It has been surmised that oi. *duh* is back-formation from *duhitā* (“daughter”)

duhitar f. “daughter”

- ← ie. **dhug-h₂ter* (see p. 52)
- ogr. *thugatēr*
- ~ e. *daughter*
- ~ nhg. *Tochter*

dūra (“far, distant”)

dav-īyans (comparative, “farther”)
dav-iṣṭha (superlative, “farthest”)

- ← ie. **duh₂-ro* (“far, long”)
- lat. B *duration*

dr̥h 1. class: ***darh-a-ti*** (“to make firm”)

di-darh-i-ṣa (“he wishes to make firm”) desiderative, irregularly with full grade and “thematic” *i*

dr̥dha (“fixed, firm, tough”) PPP (see p. 116)

← ie. root **delǵh*

→ lat. B *in-dulg-ent* (for *in* see p. 66)

dr̥ś 1. class: ***paśyati*** (“to see”)

dr̥ṣ-ṭa PPP (**CerD**)

dr̥ś f. (“sight”)

ī-dr̥ṣ, ***īdr̥kṣa*** (“as seen → suchlike”)

darśanam (“seeing, system, revelation”)

← ie. root *derk̑*

→ ogr. *derkomai*

dr̥ 9. class: ***dr̥-ṇā-ti*** (“to break, to tear”)

didr̥ṣati (“he wishes to tear”) desiderative (p. 133)

← ie. root **derH*

→ gr. B *der-mis*, *der-matology*

~ e. to *tear* ~ nhg. *zerren*

dēva (“god”)

divya (“heavenly, divine”)

dina (“day”)

prati-dinam (“every day”) ← *prati* + *dinam*

a-dya (“today”)

dyâuṣ-pitar (“father of the the heaven”)

← ie. **dei*

→ gr. god *Zeus* (“god of heaven and daylight”)

~ lat.

◇ B *divine*, *divinity*, Latin phrase “*deus ex machina*” (with v-extension like oi. *dēva* and *divya*)

◇ god *Iū-piter* ~ oi. *dyâuṣ-pitar*

~ nir. *Dia dhuit!* (“God be with you” → “hello”)

See *hyas*.

dram 1. class: **dramati** (“to run, to move about”)

dru 1. class: **dravati** (“to haste”)

drā 2. class: **drāti** (“to run”) ← ie. **dr-eh*₂ (consequential, see p. 79)

← ie. root **der*/ **drem*/ **drev*

dvā (“two”), see *dvi* below

dvādaśa (“twelve”)

← ie. **du(v)ō* (*V* + *hV*)

→ gr. B *duo-poly*

~ lat.

◇ *duo* with B *duett*, *dualism*, *doubt* (“which of *two* alternatives is correct?”)

◇ *duo-decim* (see *dāśa*) with B English *dozen* and German *Dutzend*

◇ *du-plus* (“twofold, twice as much”, for *plus* see *pṛ* (“to fill”)) with B English *double* and German *doppelt*

~ germ.

◇ e. *two* ~ nhg. *zwei*

◇ e. *twig* ~ nhg. *Zweig*

dvi (see *dvā* above) used in combinations such as

◇ **dvi-pad** (“with two feet”) and similar in

- ogr. *dí-pous*
- lat. B *bi-ped* and
- Old English *twi-féte*

◇ **dvi-dēvata** (“for two goods”)

◇ **dvi-ja** (“twice born → Brahmin, bird”), for second part see also *jan*

◇ **dvi-bhuja** (“with two arms”)

◇ **dvi-vacana** (“dual”), for second part see *vac*

◇ **dvi-jāni** (“twice married”), for second part see *jani*

← ie. **dvis*/ **dvi*

- ogr. *di* and *dí-pous* (“with two feet”) and gr. B (via Latin) *di-ploma* (“a certificate that is folded (twice)”)
 ~ lat.
 ◇ *bi* and lat. B *bi-sexual*, *bi-annual*, *bi-lateral*
 ◇ lat. *dīvidere* (“to separate, to divide”) s.v. *dhā*
 ◇ lat. *bellum* ← Old Latin *dvellum* (“war between two parties”), but unclear
 ~ nhg. composition form *zwie* with *Zwieback* (“rusk”), *Zwirn* (“thread, yarn”), *Zwitter* (“hybrid, hermaphrodite”), *Zwiesprache* (“dialogue”), *Zwilling* (“twin”), *zwischen* (“between two parts”).

dvār f. (“door”) (with *d* instead of *dh* because of *dvā*?)

← ie. **dhwer* / *dhur*

→ lat. B *forum*

~ e. *door* ~ nhg. *Tür* and *Tor*

dviṣ 2. class: ***dvêṣti*** (“to hate”)

<i>dviṣ</i> (“to hate”)		
present tense	<i>dvêṣ-ti</i> (1)	<i>dviṣ-an-ti</i> (3)
infinitive	<i>dvêṣ-tum</i> (1)	
PPP	<i>dviṣ-ta</i> (1)	
future	<i>dvêk-ṣy-a-ti</i> (2)	<i>dvêk-ṣy-a-n-ti</i> (2)
imperfect	<i>a-dvêt</i> (3)	<i>a-dviṣ-an</i>
perfect	<i>di-dvêṣ-a</i> (4)	<i>di-dviṣ-us</i> (4)
<i>sa</i> -aorist	<i>a-dvik-ṣ-a-t</i> (2)	<i>a-dvik-ṣ-a-n</i> (2)
desiderative	<i>di-dvik-ṣ-a-ti</i> (2)	<i>di-dvik-ṣ-u</i> (2)

1. Assuming ie. **dveis*, we obtain the present tense, 3. pers. sg.

**dveis-ti* (full grade)
 → *dvêṣ-ti* (**DIPH**)
 → *dvêṣ-ti* (**RUKI**)
 → *dvêṣ-ti* (**CerD**)

The infinitive *dvêṣ-tum* and the PPP *dviṣ-ta* (zero grade) can be explained in very much the same manner.

2. **SIB**

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3. *a-dvê-t* is regular:

- **e-dveis-t* (full grade)
- *e-dvê-s-t* (**DIPH**)
- *e-dvê-š-t* (**RUKI**)
- *a-dvê-š-t* (**CerD**, **aā**)
- *a-dvê-t* (**AFP**)

4. The perfect forms *di-dvêš-a* (strong form) and *dvi-dviš-us* (weak form) present no problems (see pp. 188).

← ie. root **dveis*

dviš may well be related to *dvis* / *dvi* (“twice”).

dvis / *dvi* (“twice”), see *duvā*

E.5.3. *dh*

ghan 3. class: **da-dhan-ti** (“to run, to bear fruit”)

ghanya (“rich”)

← ie. root **dhenh*₂

→ gr. B *eu-thanasia* (see *su*), *thanatology* (with euphemism “to run away → to die”)

~ lat. *B foun-tain*

dhā 3. class: **da-dhā-ti** (“to set, to put”)

dhātar m. (“founder, preserver, fate”)

śraddhā (“belief, trust”), see s.v.

svadhā (“custom, home”) ← *sva* + *dhā*, see s.v.

dvi-dhā (“twofold”)

tri-dhā (“threefold”)

vi-dhā (“to distribute, to determine”) with

◇ *vi-dhi* m. (“regulation, method, rite”)

◇ *vi-dhêya* gerundive (“which is to be determined”)

◇ *vi-dhêya* (“duty, obligation”)

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**dhi-dhh₁-s-*
 → *dhi-dhi-s-* (**Lar** _ **V**)
 → *di-dhi-s-* (**DA**)
 → *di-dhi-ṣ-* (**RUKI**) → *didhiṣati* he wishes to set

8. Finally, note 2. pers. pres. tense ātm. *dhatsê* (not shown in the above table):

**dhe-dhh₁-soi*
 → *dhe-dh-soi* (see **Lar** _ **V**)
 → *dha-dh-sê* (**aā**, **DIPH**)
 → *dha-d-sê* (**ASh**, but *s* not aspiratable)
 → *dhatsê* (**BA**)

In contrast, the corresponding 3. pers. *dhat-tê* is “wrong”. One should expect the *bud-dha* result:

**dhe-dhh₁-toi*
 → *dhe-dh-toi* (see **Lar** _ **V**)
 → *dha-dh-tê* (**aā**, **DIPH**)
 → *dha-d-dhê* (**ASh**)
 → *da-d-dhê* (**DA**)

However, proportional analogy produced

<i>dā</i>	with 3. pers. sg. pres. tense ātm.	<i>dat-tê</i> ← * <i>dad-tê</i>
just as		
<i>dhā</i>	with 3. pers. sg. pres. tense ātm.	<i>dhat-tê</i>

Alternatively, one may surmise that a laryngeal somehow prevented **ASh** to affect the *tê*-ending.

← ie. root **dheh₁* (“to put”)

→ agr. *ti-thē-mi* (**OGR**, **OGR** _ **DA**)

◇ with *k*-extension (archaic) B *apothecary* (in German: *Apotheke*), B in German: *Bibliothek*, *Theke*

◇ with other extensions *thesis* and *theme*

◇ ogr. *ēthos* in B *ethics* (**OGR** _ **DA** twice, **OGR** _ **DA**) ← ie. **s(v)ed^hus* (see s.v. *svadhā*)

~ lat.

◇ *facere* (“to make, to do”) with B *af-fect*, *perfect*, *efficient*, *deficit*, *fak-simile*, *dif-fic-ult*, *fac-ulty*, *pre-fec-ture*

◇ *ponti-fex* (“bridge maker”) and even: *pontiff* (for first part see s.v. *panth*)

- ◇ *dīvidere* (“to separate, to divide”) ← ie. **dvi-dhh*₁- (“to separate, to distinguish”) (for first part, see s.v. *dvi*, for second part, compare) with B *division*, *dividend*
- ◇ *cēdere* (“to go, to proceed”) ← ie. **kýes-dhh*₁ (see s.v. *sidh* (“to interdict, to drive away”))
- ◇ B *multi-fa-rious*, compare oi. *dvi-dhā*

~ French *façon*, hence English *fashion*

~ germ.

- ◇ e. *do* ~ nhg. *tun*
- ◇ e. *deed* ~ nhg. *Tat*
- ◇ ending e. *-dom* ~ nhg. *-tum* in Christendom/ *Christentum*

See also *dhê*.

dhī 3. class: **dhī-dhī-tê** (“to think, to reflect”)

dhī-ra (“steady, head-strong”), see pp. C.4.6

← ie. root **dheiH*

dhū 5. class: **dhū-nô-ti**/ 6. class: **dhuvati**/ (“to agitate, to blow away”)

dhūma (“smoke”)

dhū-li f./m. (“dust, fog”), *l*-extension

← ie. root **dheuH* with *m*-extension or with other extensions

→ gr. B *thyme*

~ lat. B *fume* (**LAT_f**), *per-fume*, French *par-fumé* (“perfumed”)

~ germ.

- ◇ e. *deer* ~ nhg. *Tier* (“animal”, semantically similar *animal* s.v. *an*)
- ◇ e. to *doze* ~ nlg. *dösen* (“to doze”)/ *Döskopp* (“dozy idiot”) and also nhg. *Tor* (“intoxicated → fool”)

dhṛ 1. class: **dhār-a-ti** (“to hold, to keep”)

dhār-ma (“law, religion, duty”)

dhār-man n. (“law”)/ **dhār-man** m. (“upholder”)

← ie. root **dher* with *m*-extension

→ lat. B *firm* (**LAT_f**), to *con-firm*, *firm-ament*

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dhṛṣ 5. class: **dhṛṣṇôti** (“to dare”)

← ie. root **dhers*

→ e. *dare* (but **not** nhg. *trauen*, see *dāru*)

dhê 1. class: **dhayati** (“to suck, to slurp”)

dhênā (“milk cow”)

dhênu f. (“milk cow”)

dhātri (“nurse”), but see *dhātar* under *dhā*

dhāru (“sucking”)

dhāsyu (“willing to drink, willing to eat”)

gôdhā (“sucking cows” → name for a kind of lizard), for first part see *gô*

← ie. root **dheh*₁-*i* (*i*-extension of ie. **dheh*₁ s.v. *dhā*, here baby is put to mother’s breast)

→ lat. (**LAT_f**)

◇ B *fe-cundity*

◇ B *fe-licity* ~ oi. *dhā-ru*

◇ B *fe-minine*

◇ *fi-lius* (“son”)

◇ B *fe-tus*

◇ B *fe-llatio*

dhya(i) 4. class: **dhya-ya-ti** (“to think, to contemplate”)

dhya 2. class: **dhya-ti** (“to think, to contemplate”)

dhya-nam (“meditation”) → pa. *jhāna* → *Zen* (buddhism)

dhya consequential of *dhī*, see pp. 79.

dhru-ti f. (“leading astray, corruption, deception”)

← ie. root **dhreu*

→ lat. B *frau-d* (**LAT_f**)

E.5.4. **n**

na (“not, no”)

← ie. **ne*, full grade of ie. **n̥* (see alpha privatim *a*)

- lat. *ne* in B *ne-gative*, to *ne-gate*, to *ne-glect*
- lat. *neque* ~ oi. *na ca* (“and not”) ← ie. **nek^we* (see *ca*)
- ~ nhg. *nie* (“never”) ← ie. **ne + i* (deictic particle, see *iha*)

naktam (“night”)

- ← ie. **nok^wt*
- lat. B *noct-urnal*
- ~ e. *night* ~ nhg. *Nacht*

nagna (“naked, bare”)

- ← ie. **no-g^w*
- with nasal prefix: ogr. *gymnos* with gr. B *gymnastics*
- without nasal prefix
 - ◇ lat. B *nude*
 - ◇ e. *naked*

nadh (“to bind”) (in dictionaries normally under *nah*)

naddha (“bound”) PPP, see pp. 108 (**SY** N)

naddhi f. (“binding”) ← *nadh-ti*, see pp. 119 (**SY** N)

- ← ie. root **nendh*

nand 1. class: **nandati** (“to rejoice, to be satisfied”)

ānanda/**ānandam** (“delight”), hence

sānanda (“delighted”) with first part *sa* (“together with”)

nap-tar m. (“grandson”)

- ← ie. **nepot* (“male descendant other than son”)
- lat. B *nepotism*
- ~ germ.
 - ◇ e. *nephew* ~ nhg. *Neffe*
 - ◇ e. *niece* ~ nlg. *Nichte* ← ie. **nepti* f. (with Low German *cht* for Germanic *ft*, as in Dutch *gracht* s.v. *grabh*)

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It is thought that ie. **nepot* might mean “not master → minor” (see *pati*).

nabh 1. class: **nabhatē** (“to burst”)

nabhas (“sky, mist”)

← ie. root **nebh*

→ lat. *nebula* with B *nebulous*

~ nhg. *Nebel*

Compare *abhram* and *ambhas*.

nabhya (“nave”)

← ie. **h₃nebh*

→ lat. B *umbilicus*

~ e. *nave* ~ nhg. *Nabel*

nam 1. class: **namati** (“to bow”)

nam-as n. (“bowing, adoration”)

nam-ra (“bowing down, humble”), see p. 122

← ie. root **nem*

nara (“man”)

nārāyaṇa (epithet for Viṣṇu)

sūnāra (“to have good men → powerful”) ← ie. **h₁su-h₂nero* (**Lar_V**), (for first part see *su*).

← ie. **h₂ner* (“be strong, possessing vital powers”)

→ ogr. *anēr*, *andros* with B *andrology* (*d* inserted to ease pronunciation)

~ lat. PN *Ner-ō*

nava (“new”)

← ie. **nevo*

→ gr. B *neo-liberal*, *Neolithic* (**OGR**)

~ lat. *novus* (**LAT_V**) with B *novice*, *renovate*, *innovate*, *novelty*

~ e. *new* ~ nhg. *neu*

nava (“nine”)

← ie. **nev̥n̥*

→ lat. B *November* (**LAT** _ **V**) (“the ninth month, with March being the first one in the Roman calendar”)

~ e. *nine* ~ nhg. *neun*

naś 4. class: **naśyati** (“to reach, to attain”)

ved. **iyakṣati** (“he wishes to reach”), desiderative (see p. 131)

← ie. **h₂ne(n)k̑*

naś 4. class: **naśyati** (“to perish”)

naṃṣ-tum, p. 105

naṣṭa PPP (**CerD**)

← ie. root **h₂ne(n)k̑*

→ gr. B *nec-ro-logy*

~ lat B *per-nic-ious*, *inter-nec-ine*

~ lat B *ob-noxious*, *in-noc-ence* (for *in* see s.v. *a*)

nas 1. class: **nasatē** (“to unite with somebody”)

as-tam PPP (**SY** _ **N**) (“where someone returns to safely → home, home country”), also

astam gacchati (“he dies”, “it (the sun) sets”), but see also *as*

← ie. root **nes* (“to return home safely”)

→ ogr. PN *Nestor*

~ nhg. *nähren* (causative: “to make return home safely → to save”), but **not** related to e. *nourish*

nas f. (“nose”)

← ie. **Hneh₂ -s*

→ e. *nose* ~ nhg. *Nase*

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nas gen./dat./acc. (“us, our”)

← ie. **nas*

→ germ.

◇ e. B *paternoster* (a lift where the cabins are like the pearls on a rosary)

◇ e. *us* ~ nhg. *uns* ← ie. **n_s* (IE _SY _N, NHG _E)

nah see *nadh*

nādh 1. class: **nādhātē** (“to be needy, to beg”)

ādhra (“needy, weak, poor”) ← ie. **n_oHdh-ro* (Lar _SY)

← ie. root **neHdh*

Unrelated *nāth* has the same meaning as *nādh*.

nāman n. (“name”) (Lo), see pp. 228

← ie. **nomn_o*

→ ogr. *o-nomastic* with difficult word-initial *o*

~ lat. *nōmen* (with long *ō* by “wrong” levelling with (*g*)*nō*, see *jñā*) with B *nominal*

~ e. *name* ~ nhg. *Name*

nī (“down, into”)

nī-tarām adv. (“down from, completely”)

ny-ac (“directed downward”) ← *nī-añc*, see *añc* above

ny-ag-rôdha-pāda-pa (“fig tree”) ←

◇ *nyac*

◇ + *rôdha* (“climbing, growing”, but here *dh* instead of *h*, see *rudh* and *ruh*)

◇ + *pāda* (“foot”, see *pad*)

◇ + *pa* (“drinking”, see *pā*)

nyak kṛ (“to humiliate”)

nyak bhū (“to debase oneself”)

nīr/nis (“out of, away from”)

nīrôga (“healthy”) ← *nīs* + *rôga* (CpLz), see *ruj*

nīrasa (“dried up”) ← *nīs* + *rasa* (CpLz), see ʔs

nī 1. class: *nayati* (“to lead”)

sēnā-nī m. (“army general”)

grāma-nī m. (“village leader”)

agra-nī m. (“leader”)

← ie. root **neyH*

The three agent nouns *sēnā-nī* etc. are declined along the lines of feminine *nadī* (“river”) in having *y* before vowel endings. Otherwise, feminine forms are avoided as much as possible. Thus, we get the marut endings in many cases:

<i>sēnānī</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>sēnā-nī-s</i> (1)	<i>sēnā-ny-âu</i> (4)	<i>sēnā-ny-as</i> (4)
	voc.	<i>sēnā-nī-s</i> (2)	<i>sēnā-ny-âu</i> (4)	<i>sēnā-ny-as</i> (4)
	acc.	<i>sēnā-ny-am</i> (3)	<i>sēnā-ny-âu</i> (4)	<i>sēnā-ny-as</i> (3)
	instr.	<i>sēnā-ny-ā</i> (5)	<i>sēnā-nī-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>sēnā-nī-bhis</i> (4)
	dat.	<i>sēnā-ny-ê</i> (5)	<i>sēnā-nī-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>sēnā-nī-bhyas</i> (4)
	abl.	<i>sēnā-ny-as</i> (5)	<i>sēnā-nī-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>sēnā-nī-bhyas</i> (4)
	gen.	<i>sēnā-ny-as</i> (5)	<i>sēnā-ny-ôs</i> (4)	<i>sēnā-ny-ām</i> (5)
	loc.	<i>sēnā-ny-ām</i> (6)	<i>sēnā-ny-ôs</i> (4)	<i>sēnā-nī-ṣu</i> (4)

1. Observe nom. sg. marker m./f. here in *sēnā-nī-s*, in contrast with nom. sg. *nadī*.
2. The voc. sg. equals the nom. sg. *sēnā-nī-s* while we have short *i* in the the voc. sg. *nadī*.
3. The acc. sg. and pl. are like *marut*, not feminine as in *nadīm* and *nadīs*.
4. Many endings are the same as for *marut* and *nadī*.
5. Feminine forms are avoided and *marut* forms are taken instead in instrum. sg. *sēnā-ny-ā* versus *nady-âi* and four other forms.
6. The loc. sg. is the feminine form *sēnā-ny-ām* instead of **sēnā-ny-i*, perhaps because the ending *ny-i* is impossible in word-final position?

nīdam (“nest”) (see sad)

← ie. **nizdo*

→ e. *nest*

nīda (and very similarly *mīdha*) can be explained by a series of sound laws:

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ni-sd-o (*sd* z.g. of *sad*)
ni-zd-o (*sz* before voiced stop)
→ *ni-zd-o* (**RUKI**)
→ *ni-zd-a* (**CerD**, *aā*)
→ *nīd-a* (**CpLz**)

nu 1. class: **navatē** (“to go”)

← ie. root **neu*

→ lat. *nuere* (“to nod”) with B *innuendo*

nūnam (“now”)

← ie. **nu/* **nū*

→ e. *now* ~ nhg. *nun*

nṛt 4. class: **nṛtyati** (“to dance”)

mi. **nata** (“dancer”)

nāu f. (“ship”)

← ie. **neh₂-u*

→ ogr. *nautilus* m. (“seefarer”), gr. B *nautical*, *Nautilus* (fictitious ship in novels by Jules Verne)

~ lat. B *nav-igation* (for second part, see *aj*)

→ e. *nest*

E.6. Labial stops and nasal

E.6.1. *p*

pañk-ti f. (“a line or set of five”)

← ie. **penk* (“fist”)

→ e. *fist* ~ nhg. *Faust*

pac 1. class: **pacati** (“to cook, to ripen”)

← ie. root **pek^w*

→ lat.

- ◇ *coquus*/ *cocus* (“cook”) (assimilation *p...k^w* → *qu...qu*, similar to *quinque*, s.v. *pañča*) with B e. *cook* ~ nhg. *Koch*
- ◇ *prae-cox* (“premature”), B to *con-coc-t*
- ◇ B English *kitchen* ~ German *Küche*

pañca (“five”)

B **punch** (“drink with 5 components”)

← ie. **penk^we* (← *penk-k^we* (“and five”), see *pañk-ti* and *ca*)

→ gr. B *pentagon*

~ lat. *quīnque* (assimilation *p...k^w* → *c...qu*, similar to *coquus*, s.v. *pac*) with B *quint-essence*, *quintet*

~ e. *five* (**NHG _ E**) ~ nhg. *fünf*

pañcāśat (“fifty”)

← ie. **penk^we-dk^ṃt* (**CpLdk^ṃ**)

← *penk^we* (“five”) + *dk^ṃt* (“tenners”), see *pañča* and *daśa*.

Compare *viṃśati*.

pañḍita (“wise, learned”) ← (not ie.) **pañḍā* ← *pañṇā* ← *prajñā* f. (“intellect”), see *jñā* (*ṇḍ* is a hypercorrection: in other cases, no here, *ṇḍ* → *ṇṇ*)

pat 1. class: **patati** (“to fly, to fall”)

pat-tram (“bird, feather, letter”)

← ie. root **pet*

→ lat.

- ◇ *petere* (“to strive for”) with B to *compete*, to *repeat*, *appetite*, *petition*, *im-pet-us*
- ◇ *penna* (“feather”) ← ie. **pet-neh₂* (similarly lat. *annus*, see *at*). In German, school boys are sometimes called *Pennäler*, i.e., those who carry a *Pennal* containing the writing utensil *penna*, and the school itself is colloquially called *Penne*.

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~ e. *feather* ~ nhg. *Feder*

pati m. (“lord, husband”)

← ie. **poti*

→ gr. B *despot* ← **dems poti* (“lord of the house”, for first part see *dam*)

~ lat. *pot-esse* and B *potent*, *potential*

See *na-ptar*.

pad 4. class: **pad-ya-atê** (“to go”)

pad m. (“foot”)

pāda m. (“foot, chapter, verse”) with

◇ **pāda-pa** m. (“foot drinker → tree”), for second part, see *pā* (“to drink”)

◇ **pāda-ja** m. (“śūdra”), for second part, see *jan* (“to be born”)

◇ **pāda-rajas** (“dust at the feet”)

← ie. **pod*/ **ped* (two dialectal variants)

→ gr. B (from o-grade) *anti-pode*, *podium* (with lat. ending), *polyp* ← ogr. *poly-pous* (for first part see *pr*)

~ lat. B (from e-grade) *ped-al*, *pedi-curist* (for second part see *sicher*, p. 71), *pedestrian*, *centi-pede* (for first part see *śatām*), *ex-ped-ition*, *im-ped-iment*

~ e. *foot* ~ nhg. *Fuß*

panth m. (“path”) with declension

<i>panth m.</i>	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	panth-ās (2)	panth-ān-âu (1)	panth-ān-as (1)
	voc.	panth-ās (2)	panth-ān-âu (1)	panth-ān-as (1)
	acc.	panth-ān-am (1)	panth-ān-âu (1)	<i>path-as</i> (3)
	instr.	<i>path-ā</i> (3)	<i>path-i-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>path-i-bhis</i> (4)
	dat.	<i>path-ê</i> (3)	<i>path-i-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>path-i-bhyas</i> (4)
	abl.	<i>path-as</i> (3)	<i>path-i-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>path-i-bhyas</i> (4)
	gen.	<i>path-as</i> (3)	<i>path-ôs</i> (3)	<i>path-ām</i> (3)
	loc.	<i>path-i</i> (3)	<i>path-ôs</i> (3)	<i>path-i-su</i> (4)

1. The strong forms with oi.

$\bar{a} + n + \text{vowel ending}$

go back to ie.

$o + n + \text{vowel ending}$

according to Brugmann's law **Lo**. They seem to be formed on nouns like *rājan*.

2. Nom. and voc. sg. *panth-ās* is difficult.
3. By **SY_N**, one obtains the weak forms before vowel-initial endings like instr. sg. *path-ā*.
4. *path-i-bhis* may be explained in lines similar to *sthita* where the laryngeal is responsible for both *i* and the aspiration. Originally, one might have a form like *pat-i-bhis*, but levelling would then provide for the aspiration in these forms, too. A more plausible explanation may be that *path-i-bhis* is formed by analogy with other forms like *mun-i-bhis*. In fact, without the "thematic vowel" *i*, the resulting *pad-bhis* would be confusing.

← ie. **ponth*₂ (**Lar_CH**)

→ lat. B *ponti-fex* (for second part see p. 322)

not related are e. *path* ~ nhg. *Pfad*

parā ("away, off"), see *palāyatē* s.v. *i*

pari ("around")

← ie. **peri*

→ gr. B *perimeter*, *periphery* (see *bhr*)

~ lat. *per* as in *pay-per-view*, *per se*

~ nhg. *ver* as in *ver-laufen* ("to lose one's way")

pard 1. class: *pardatē* ("to fart")

← ie. **perd*

→ e. *fart* ~ nhg. *furzen*

palāy 10. class: *palāyatē* ("to flee"), see *i* and *parā*

paśu m. ("cattle")

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← ie. **pekú*

→ gr. B *perimeter*, *periphery* (see *bhr*)

~ lat.

◇ *pecus* (“cattle”) with B e. *fee* ~ nhg. *Vieh* (“cattle”)

◇ *pecūnia* (“wealth”) with B *pecuniary*

◇ *pecūlium* (“money in possession”) with B *peculiar*

paś-ya-ti with oi. root *drś* (see there)

← ie. root **(s)pek* with *s*-mobile (compare *schlecken* on p. E.7.3)

→ gr. B *scope*, *skepticism* (where *p* and *k* are interchanged)

~ lat. B *spectrum*, *a-spect*, *ex-spect*

~ e. to *spy* ~ nhg. *spähen* (“to peer”)

pā 2. class: ***pā-ti*** (“to protect”)

← ie. root **peh₂*

→ lat. *pāstor* (“shepherd”) with B *pastor*

pā 1. class: ***pibati*** (“to drink”)

<i>pā</i> (“to drink”)		
present tense	<i>pi-b-a-ti</i> (1)	<i>pi-b-a-n-ti</i> (1)
infinitive	<i>pā-tum</i> (2)	
PPP	<i>pī-ta</i> (3)	
future	<i>pā-sy-a-ti</i> (2)	<i>pā-sy-a-n-ti</i> (2)
imperfect	<i>a-pi-b-a-t</i> (1)	<i>a-pi-b-a-n</i> (1)
perfect	<i>pa-p-āu</i> (4)	<i>pa-p-us</i> (5)
root aorist	<i>a-pā-t</i>	<i>a-p-us</i> (5)
desiderative	<i>pi-pā-s-a-ti</i>	<i>pi-pā-s-u</i>

1. *pi-b-a-ti* is a reduplicated form, somewhat similar to *ti-ṣṭh-a-ti*. From the ie. root **peh₃*, one obtains

**pi-ph₃-eti* (reduplication with *i* and zero grade)
 → **pi-b-eti* (**Lar** **CH**: *h₃* makes *p* voiced)
 → *pi-b-ati*

Similarly, we have the imperfect *a-pi-b-a-t*.

2. The long- \bar{a} forms *pā-tum* and *pā-sy-a-ti* are both regularly full-grade from the same ie. root $*peh_3 \rightarrow p\bar{a}$.
3. *pī-ta* cannot simply be explained from the ie. root $*peh_3$. Instead, one sometimes assumes the ie. root $*peh_3i$. However, the zero grade $*ph_3i$ could not have led to long \bar{i} . One way out may be metathesis $*pih_3$ and then **Lar** $\underline{\text{V}}$. The same explanation may hold for the passive *pī-y-atê*.
4. See section C.7, pp. 188.
5. Perfect plural *pa-p-us* and root aorist plural *a-p-us* are similar. While the perfect has reduplication, the root aorist does not. Both have ending *us*.
 - ← ie. root $*peh_3/*peh_3i$
 - gr. B *symposium* (with lat. ending)
 - ~ lat.
 - ◇ B (magic) *potion*
 - ◇ B in German *Pokal* (“cup, trophy”)

pāda (“foot, chapter, verse”), see *pad*

pāśa m. (“snare, noose”)

- ← ie. $*peh_2k'$
- lat. *pax* (“peace”) and B *pact* ~
- ~ nhg. *fügen* (“to join”), *Fuge* (“joint, seam”), *be-fug-t* (“authorised”)

pika m. (“Indian cuckoo”)

- ← ie. $*spiko$
- nhg. *Specht* (“woodpecker”)

pi-tar m. (“father”)

pi-trya (“paternal, ancestral”)

pi-tr̥vya (“father’s brother”)

- ← ie. $*ph_2\overset{\angle}{t}er$

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→ gr. *patér*[∠] with B *patriot*, *patriarch* (clear indication of h_2 , see subsection B.1.4)

~ lat. B *patron*, *patrician*, German *Patrone* (“cartridge”)

~ e. *father* ~ nhg. *Vater* (**VER**)

Connection with *pā* (“to protect”) unclear.

piš 7. class: **pi-na-š-ti** (“to grind, to crush”)

← ie. root **peis*/**pei(n)s*

→ lat. *pī-lum* (“javelin, pike”)

piś 6. class: **piṃś-a-ti** (“to adorn”)

← ie. root **pei(n)k*

→ lat. B *pig-ment*, *pic-ture*

pīḍ 1. class: **pīḍatê** (“to pinch, to oppress”)

from oi. root *piš* ← ie. **pis* with *d*-extension

pis-d-ati

→ *pizd-ati* (*sz* before voiced stop)

→ *pizd-ati* (**RUKI**)

→ *pi-ṣd-ati* (**CerD**)

→ *pīḍ-ati* (**CpLz**)

Compare *sīd-ati* (p. 80) and *nīḍa* (dictionary).

pī-van (“swelling, fat”) (z.g.)

pay-as n. (“milk”) (f.g.)

← ie. root **peiH*

putra (“son”) (**rl**), uncertain

← ie. **pu-tló*

→ gr. B *pe-dagogue*

~ lat. B *puerile*

~ e. *foal* ~ nhg. *Fohlen*

pumant (“male, man”)

← ie. difficult

→ lat. B *puberty*

puṣ 1. class **poṣ-ā-ti** (“to thrive, to flourish”)

← ie. **peus*

→ lat. B *pustule*

pū 9. class **pu-na-ti** (“to clean”)

← ie. root **peuH*

→ lat. *pūrus* with B *pure*

pūrva (“front, former”)

← ie. **pr_ovo*/**pr_omo*

→ e. *former*

pr 3. class: **pi-par-ti** (“ferry over”)

gô-pāla (“herdsman, cow protector”) (**rl**) (uncertain)

pāra (“further shore or opposite bank of a river, the utmost reach or extent”)

← ie. root **per*

→ gr. B *pore* and *porous* (both via Latin), place name *Bos-porus* with the following story:

The Bos-porus is the strait near Istanbul that separates Europe from Asia. In Greek mythology, the father of gods Zeus lusted after beautiful human females, and also after Io. His sister and spouse Hera observed his erotic escapades with great jealousy. In order to hide his latest conquest, Zeus transformed Io into a cow. Hera pretended to admire this beautiful cow and made Zeus give her the cow as a present. The poor cow tried to escape Hera’s torments. During the flight, Io crossed the strait at Istanbul which has carried the name Bosphorus (“ford of the cow”) ever since.

~ lat. B to *deport*, to *export*, to *report*, *port*,

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~ germ.

◇ without dental extension:

- nhg. *fahren* / *Fuhre* / *führen*
- e. *fare* / *farewell*

◇ with dental extension:

- e. *ford* ~ nhg. *Furt*
- e. *Oxford* ~ nhg. *Ochsenfurt*

pr̥t (“to battle”)

pr̥t f. (“battle, contest”)

← ie. root **per-t* (“to press”)

→ lat. B to *express*, to *compress*, *impression*

pr̥thu (“wide, large”)

pr̥thvī / ***pr̥thivī*** (“earth, land”), also (very similar to *urvī*, see *uru*) in

◇ ***pr̥thvī-pati*** m. (“king”)

◇ ***pr̥thvī-talam*** (“earth, ground”)

← ie. **pl̥th₂v-ih₂* (compare *sthita* s.v. *sthā*)

→ gr. (via lat.) B *plate*

plu 1. class: ***plav-a-tê*** (“to swim, to float”)

plava (“floating, boat”) (***V+hV***)

with ***rl***:

◇ ***p̥r̥*** 9. class: ***pr̥ṇāti*** (“to fill, to fulfill”)

◇ ***p̥r̥ṇa*** PPP (p. C.25) ← ie. **p̥r̥h₁-no* (**Lar_SY**)

◇ ***pur*** f. (“plentitude”) with inst. pl. ***p̥urbhis***

◇ ***puru*** (“much, plenty”) (**Lar_CH**) ← ie. **plh₁-v*

← ie. root **pelh₁* / **plh₁ev*

→ gr. B *polyphony*, *polygamy*, *polyp* ← ogr. *poly-pous* (for second part see *pad*)

~ lat.

- ◇ *plēnus* (“full”) with B *plenum*, *plenary*, *plenitude*, *plenty*, *complete*, *compliment*, *complement*, *manipulation* with first part lat. *manus* (“hand”), i.e., “a handful of substances → artifice”
- ◇ *plēbs* (“people”) with B *plebiscite*
- ◇ B *pluv-ial* (“rainy”)
- ◇ B *plus*

~ germ.

- ◇ e. *full* ~ nhg. *voll*

- ◇ e. *folk/folklore* ~ nhg. *Volk*

See *klôman*.

pra (“before, in front of”), regularly without **Lo**

pra-tara (comparative: “an earlier one”) and adv. **prataram** (“in the future”)

pra-tama (superlative: “the earliest”) and adv. **pratamām** (“especially, preferably”),

see *-tama*

prāc (“directed forward, eastern”), see *añc*

prāk (“in front, in the east”)

prātar (“early in the morning”)

pra-bhu m. (“lord, master”), see p. 137

← ie. **pro*

→ gr. B *pro-biotic*, *prophecy* (see *bhā*), *prophylactic*

~ lat. B such as *proverb*, *protest*, *product*

~ nhg. *ver* as in *ver-laufen*

pracch 6. class: **pr̥cchati** (“to ask”)

On the one hand:

- ◇ full grade nouns **praś-na** (“question”) and **praś-tar** (“questioner”)

- ◇ zero-grade PPP **pr̥ṣ-ṭa**

← ie. full grade **prek̑* (“to dig, to nuzzle”) and ie. **porko* (“nuzzler → pig”)

→ lat. *porcus* (“pig”) and diminutive *porcellus* (“farrow, piglet”) whence *porcelain* (i.e., “china”)

On the other hand, with *sḱ*-suffix: zero-grade PPP **pr̥cchati** (CC1, SIB)

← ie. zero grade **pr̥ḱ-sḱ*

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→ nhg. *er-forsch-en* (“to research”) (IE_SY_L)

Besides, one has full grade *pracchā* (“inquiry”) ← ie. full grade **prak-sk-*. Compare *murchā*.

prati (“against”)

pratīpa (“against the stream, going in opposite direction → adverse, displeasing”) ← *prati* + zero-grade *h₂p* from *ap* (Lar_V).

prati-kāra, *pratī-kāra* (“vengeance, retaliation”). Could *ī* be due to words like *pratīpa*?

← ie. *preti*

→ lat. *pretium* (“reward, prize”) with B *precious*

praś-na m. (“basket-work, a plaited basket”)

← ie. root **plek-*

→ lat. B *com-plex*, *im-plic-ation*

~ nhg. *flechten* (“to weave, to plait”)

See also s.v. *pracch*

prāc (“directed forward, eastern”) see *pra* and *añc*

prī 9. class: *prīṇāti* (“to please, to love”)

priya (“beloved, dear”) (V+hV)

← ie. root **preiH*

→ lat. B *pro-priety*

~ germ.

◇ e. *friend* ~ nhg. *Freund*

◇ e. *free* ~ nhg. *frei*

◇ e. *Friday* ~ nhg. *Freitag* from the goddess *Frija* ← Old Icelandic *Frigg* (“the loved one”)

◇ nhg. *freien* (“to court, to marry”), *Friede* (“peace” ← “protection, friendship”)

plāhan m. (“spleen”)

← ie. **splǵh-en/ *splǵh-ēn*

→ gr. B *spleen* (in German: “eccentricity”)

pluṣi m. (“insect”)

← ie. **plus*

→ e. *flea* ~ nhg. *Floh*

E.6.2. *ph*

phena (“foam”) (*sP(h)*)

← ie. **spoi*

→ lat. B *spume*

~ e. *foam*

E.6.3. *b*

bandh 9. class: *badh-nā-ti* (“to bind”)

bandhu m. (“relative”)

<i>bandh</i> (“to bind”)		
present tense	<i>badh-nā-ti</i> (2)	<i>badh-n-an-ti</i>
infinitive	<i>bad-dhum</i> (1)	
PPP	<i>bad-dha</i> (1)	
future	<i>bhant-sy-a-ti</i> (3)	<i>bhant-sy-a-n-ti</i> (3)
imperfect	<i>a-badh-nā-t</i>	<i>a-badh-n-an</i>
perfect	<i>ba-bandh-a</i> (5)	<i>ba-bandh-us</i> (5)
<i>s</i> -aorist	<i>a-bhānt-sī-t</i> (3)	<i>a-bhānt-s-us</i> (3)
desiderative	<i>bi-bhant-s-a-ti</i> (3, 4)	<i>bi-bhant-s-u</i> (3, 4)

1. *bandh* goes back to ie. **bhendh*. In this verb, the nasal belongs to the root (see the e. cognate *bind*). However, the speakers seem to have been confused about this. Thus, the *n* is missing even in full-grade forms such as the infinitive *bad-dhum*. By **SY_N**, the PPP shows correct zero grade. As in *bud-dha* from *budh* (“to know”), we witness the effect of both aspiration laws **DA** and **ASh**.
2. *badh-nā-ti* is modeled on verbs like *pu-nā-ti* (“he cleans”), see pp. 87.

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3. Similar to

◇ *bhôt-sy-a-ti* ← ie. **bheudh-s* from *budh* (“to know”) or

◇ *dhôk-sy-a-ti* ← ie. **dheugh-s* from *duh* (“to milk”)

bhant-sy-a-ti ← ie. **bhendh-s* is regular in showing **ASh** (but failed) and **BA** (*s* is voiceless). Since *t-sy* is not aspirated, there is no need for **DA**.

4. The desiderative forms exhibit **DA**, not in the main syllable but in the reduplication syllable.

5. The perfect form *ba-bandh-a* is regularly in full grade. However, the pl. *ba-bandh-us* is also in full grade, but should be in zero grade (pp. 188).

← ie. root **bhendh*

→ e. *bind* ~ nhg. *binden*

babhru (“brown, tawny”) (**DA**)

← ie. **bhe-bhr-u* / **bhe-bhr-o*

→ germ.

◇ also reduplicated: e. *beaver* ~ nhg. *Biber*

◇ not reduplicated: e. *brown* ~ nhg. *braun*

bar-bar-a (“any one not a Sanskrit speaker, not an Āryan”)

bal-bal-ā-kṛ 8. class ***bal-bal-ā-kṛ*** (“to stutter, to stammer”)

← ie. **bl-bl* (onomatopoetic)

→ gr. B/ PN (via Latin) *barbaric* / *Bar-bar-a*

balam (“strength, power”)

bāla (“strong one (to be) → boy”)

← ie. **belo*

→ lat. B *de-bil-ity*

bah-u (“much, many”), z.g.

← ie. **bhengh* (“dense”)

- gr. *pachus* (“thick, plumb”) with B *pachy-cephalo-saurus* (“thick headed dinosaur”) and *pachy-dermia* (“thickness of tissue”)

bāhu m. (“arm”) (**DA**, **PPal**)

← ie. **bhāghú*

→ nhg. *Bug* (“bow, front part of a ship”)

Note the strange analogy

<i>bahu</i> (“much, many”) adj.	giving rise to body part:	<i>bāhu</i> m. (“arm”)
just as		
<i>uru</i> (“wide”) adj.	giving rise to body part:	<i>ūru</i> m. (“thigh”)

budh 1. class: *bôdhati* (“to know”)

<i>budh</i> (“to know”)		
present tense	<i>bôdh-a-ti</i> (1)	<i>bôdh-a-n-ti</i> (1)
infinitive	<i>bôdh-i-tum</i> (2)	
PPP	<i>bud-dha</i> (3)	
future	<i>bhôt-sy-a-ti</i> (4)	<i>bhôt-sy-a-n-ti</i> (4)
imperfect	<i>a-bôdh-a-t</i> (1)	<i>a-bôdh-a-n</i> (1)
perfect	<i>bu-bhud-ê</i> (5)	<i>bu-bhud-irê</i> (5)
<i>iṣ</i> -aorist	<i>a-bôdh-î-t</i> (6)	<i>a-bôdh-îṣ-us</i> (6)
desiderative	<i>bu-budh-i-ṣ-a-ti</i> (7)	<i>bu-budh-i-ṣ-u</i> (7)

1. The origin is ie. **bheudh*. The full grade yields oi. *ô* (**DIPH**) and Grassmann’s **DA** *bôdh-a-ti*.
2. The infinitive is regularly in full grade. The *i* goes not originate from a laryngeal, but has been borrowed from roots like *bhū* (“to be”). There, ie. **bheuH* + infinitive ending *tum* yields *bhav-i-tum* by **Lar** V. As in *pat-i-tum* and other roots, *i-tum* instead of *tum* has become productive.
3. Regularly, by **ASh** and **DA**, the zero grade PPP *bud-dha* results. Compare *dug-dha* ← ie. **dheugh-to* from *duh* (“to milk”).
4. With respect to the future form *bhôt-sy-a-ti*, observe:
 - ◇ Failed **ASh** together with **BA** produces *t* from *dh*.
 - ◇ Similar to *dhôk-sy-a-ti* ← ie. **dheugh-s* (oi. *duh*, “to milk”), the original initial *bh* emerges (no **DA** possible).

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5. The perfect forms are ātmanêpada and hence weak (pp. 188).
6. *a-bôdh-î-t* is an *iṣ*-aorist which can be clearly seen from the pl. *a-bôdh-iṣ-us*. For “thematic” *î* see section C.8, pp. 196.
7. Desiderative *bu-budh-iṣ-a-ti* again shows *i* taken by analogy from sêṭ roots.
- ← ie. root **bheudh*
- lat. *fidēs*, *fideī* (“trust, credit, belief”) also in “*defensor fideī*” (“defender of faith”), a title for the English kings, lat. B *fidelity* and in English *faith*
- ~ e. *bid* ~ nhg. *bieten* (“to bid, to offer”)

budh-nam (“depth, ground”) (DA)

- ← ie. **bhudh-no*
- lat. *fundament* (LAT_f) and *pro-found*, where *n* and *d* are interchanged (as in lat. *unda*, see *udan*)
- ~ e. *bottom* ~ nhg. *Boden* (“ground”) where both e. *tt* and nhg. *d* are unclear

Perhaps, *budhnam* is related to *budh* (semantically, compare German “ergründen”)

br̥h 6. class: ***br̥h-a-ti*** (“to grow, to increase”) (DA)

br̥h-as-pati m. (“lord of the prayer”) gen. sg. of a root noun ***br̥h***, see *vanam*

br̥h-ant pres.P (“thick, large, abundant”)

pari-br̥dha (“firm, dense”) PPP (see similarly compare p. 116)

brah-man n. (“the absolute”)/ ***brah-man*** m. (“the creator god”) (from n.at. *barh-man* similar to *draṣṭum* by a sound law similar to MET_rSP?)

- ← ie. root **bherh*

- lat. B *for-titude* (LAT_f)

E.6.4. ***bh***

bhaj 1. class: ***bhajati*** (“to divide, to allot”)

bhaga (“wealth, happiness”)

bhagini (“sister”)

bhakti f. (“allotment, division, love, devotion”)

bhāga (“part”)

bhikṣ 1. class: ***bhikṣ-a-tê*** (“to wish to share, to beg”), originally a desiderative (p. 130)

bhikṣu (“begging”)

- ← ie. root **bheg*
- gr. B *bacteriophage*
- ~ nhg. *Backe* (“eater → cheek”)

bhan 1. class: **bhanati** (“to speak”)

- ← ie. root **bheh₂/*bhen*
- gr. B (**OGR**)
 - ◇ *blas-phemy* where the origin of the first part is dubious, but has lead to French *blâmer*, German *blamieren* (“to disgrace oneself”)
 - ◇ *eu-phemism* where ogr. *eu* ~ oi. *su*
 - ◇ *a-phasisia* with alpha privativum (p. 66)
 - ◇ *prophet*
 - ◇ *phone, phonetics, phoneme*
- ~ lat. B (**LAT_f**)
 - ◇ *fame, famous, in-famous* where lat. *in* ~ oi. *a* ~ e. *un*
 - ◇ *fate* (“spoken by gods → destiny”), *fatal* and French and hence English *fairy* and German *Fee* (“fairy”) and *gefeit* (“immune”)
 - ◇ *fable, fabulous*
 - ◇ *profession, professor*
 - ◇ *in-fant, in-fantile* (“who does not speak → baby”, semantically compare *puerile* at oi. *putra*), *infantryman* (“child → boy → foot soldier”)
- ~ germ. **ben*
 - e. *ban* ~ nhg. *Bann*
 - ~ French *banal*
 - ~ Italian *bandito*

bhañj 7. class: **bhanakti** (“to break”)

bhañga (“breaking, defeat”)

bhagna PPP

bhand 1. class: **bhandatê** (“to shine, to gleam”)

bhad-ra (“happy, lucky”), zero grade by **SY_N**, for other examples see pp. 121

bhargas n. (“radiance, lustre”)

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← ie. **bhelg*

→ lat. B *fulminant* (**LAT_f**)

~ nhg. *Blech* (“metal sheet”), nhg. *blechen* (“to fork out ← to make a shining coin visible”)

bhā 2. class: **bhāti** (“to shine”)

bhās 1. class: **bhāsati** (“to shine”)

← ie. root **bheH(s)*

→ gr. B *phenomenon*, *photo*, *phos-phor* (“which carries light”, for second part see *bhṛ*)

~ nhg. *bohnern* (“to make shiny → to polish (the floor)”)

bhid 7. class: **bhinatti** (“to split”)

bhin-na PPP (p. 111)

← ie. root **bheid*

→ lat. B *fissure*, *fission* (both by **LAT_f** and **LAT_DD**)

~ germ.

◇ e. *bite* ~ nhg. *Biss*

◇ e. *bitter* ~ nhg. *bitter* (p. 73)

bhī 3. class: **bi-bhê-ti** (“to be afraid”)

bhay-a-m (“fear, danger”)

bi-bhī-vans / **bi-bhī-vas** (“one who is afraid”) pf.P

← ie. root **bheih₂*

→ nhg. reduplicative *be-ben* (“to tremble”), *bi-bbern* (“to jitter”)

bhuj 7. class: **bhu-na-k-ti** / *bhurikte* (“to enjoy, to consume”)

bhoga (“enjoyment, suffering”)

bhogin (“enjoying, king”)

← ie. root **bheu(n)g*

→ lat. B *fung-ible* (assets) from lat. *fungi*, *fungor* (“to enjoy, to suffer”)

bhuj 6. class: **bhuj-a-ti** / *bhuñkte* (“to bend, to make crooked”)

bhoga (“expanded hood of a snake, snake”)

bhogin (“snake”)

← ie. root **bheug*

→ gr. B *phug-oid* (a specific aircraft flight motion) seemingly from *phugē* (“escape”), but here employed in the sense of airplane (!) flight

~ lat. B *fug-itive* (**LAT_f**)

~ germ. (compare s.v. *aratni*)

◇ e. *bow* ~ nhg. *biegen*

◇ e. *elbow* ~ nhg. *Ellenbogen*

bhū 1. class: **bhavati** (“to be”)

punar-bhū (“remarried widow”)

bhū (“earth”)

pra-bhu, m. (“lord, master”), see p. C.4.9

<i>bhū</i> (“to be”)		
present tense	<i>bhav-a-ti</i> (1)	<i>bhav-a-n-ti</i> (1)
infinitive	<i>bhav-i-tum</i> (2)	
PPP	<i>bhū-ta</i> (3)	
future	<i>bhav-i-ṣy-a-ti</i> (2)	<i>bhav-i-ṣy-a-ti</i> (2)
imperfect	<i>a-bhav-a-t</i> (1)	<i>a-bhav-a-n</i> (1)
perfect	<i>ba-bhūv-a</i> (5)	
root aorist	<i>a-bhū-t</i> (3)	
desiderative	<i>bu-bhū-ṣ-a-ti</i> (3, 4)	

1. From ie. **bheuH*, *bhav-a-ti* is regular full grade (see **Lar_V**).
2. The infinitive *bhav-i-tum* (and similarly the future forms) is regular full grade where *i* originates from the laryngeal (**Lar_V**).
3. The laryngeal also shows in zero grade PPP *bud-dha*, the desiderative, and the root aorist.
4. **DA**
5. *ba-bhūv-a* is irregular. The “correct” form is **bu-bhav-a* ← ie. **bhu-bhouH-e*, with reduplication vowel *u* and with full grade. Note that **Lo** does not apply because the syllable is not open because of the laryngeal.

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- ← ie. root **bheuH*
- gr. B *physics*
- ~ lat.
 - ◇ B *future* (**LAT_f**), *super-b*, *fiat* money
 - ◇ *probus* (“excellent, good”) ~ oi. *prabhu* (see p. 137)
- ~ germ.
 - ◇ e. *be* ~ nhg. (ich) *bin*, (du) *bist*
 - ◇ nhg. *bauen* (“to build”), Bauer (“farmer”)

See *abhva*.

bhūrja (“birch”) (**PPal**)

- ← ie. **bherǵH*
- e. *birch* ~ nhg. *Birke*

bhūṣ 1. class: **bhūṣati** (“to strive after”)

- ← ie. root **bhh₂ev*
- lat. B *favour* (**LAT_f**)

bhṛ 1. class: **bharati** / 3. class: **bibharti** (“to carry”)

- ← ie. root **bher*
- gr. B
 - ◇ *peri-phery* where first part is cognate with oi. *pari*
 - ◇ *meta-phor*
 - ◇ PN *Christo-pher* (lat. version *Christophorus*)
 - ◇ *phos-phor* (“which carries light”, for first part see *bhā*)
 - ◇ *eu-phoric* where ogr. *eu* ~ oi. *su*
- ~ lat.
 - ◇ B *pre-fer*, *con-fer*, *dif-fer*, *trans-fer*, *fer-tile*, *Luci-fer* (“carrier of light” → PN of angel, see *ruc*)
 - ◇ B *for-tunate*
- ~ germ.

- ◇ e. *bear*
- ◇ e. *bier* ~ nhg. *Bahre* (“stretcher”)
- ◇ nhg. *ge-bären* (“to give birth”), *Zu-ber* (“tub”), *Ge-bär-de* (“gesture”)

bhr̥s-ti f. (“point, edge”)

← ie. *bhers*

→ e. to *burst* ~ nhg. *bersten*

bhrātar m. (“brother”)

← ie. **bhrāter*/[∠]**bhr-eh₂-ter* (see ie. **bher* s.v. *bhr̥*)

→ lat. B to *fraternize*, *fraternity* (**LAT_f**)

~ e. *brother* ~ nhg. *Bruder*

~ English Gypsy *pal* with B *pal*

Ie. **bhr-eh₂* might mean “group of males born from the same mother” and ie. **bhr-eh₂-ter* “belonging to ie. **bhr-eh₂*”. Compare oi. *sodara* s.v. *udara*.

E.6.5. *m*

majj 6. class: **majjati** (“to sink into”)

← ie. root **mesg*

→ lat. B to *merge*

madhu n. (“sweet drink, honey”)

← ie. **medhu*

→ gr. B *methane*

~ e. *mead* ~ nhg. *Met*

madhya (“middle”)

← ie. **medhyo*

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- gr. B *Mesopotamia* (“between two rivers”)
- ~ lat. B *medium*, *media*, *medi-ocre* (second part s.v. *aśri*)
- ~ e. *mid*, *middle* ~ nhg. *Mitte* (but **not**: *mit*)

man 4. class: **manyatê** (“to think”)

man-as n. (“mind”)

mati f. (“thought, mind”) (**SY** *_N*)

← ie. root **men*

→ lat.

- ◇ *mēns* (compare **CpLs**), *mentis* with B *ment-al* and *de-ment-ia*
- ◇ (reduplicated) *me-min-ti* (“to remember”) with B *me-mory*, *com-me-moration*
- ◇ B (causative) *de-mon-stration*, *mon-strance*

~ e. *mind*

See *amati*, *amnas*, *mnā*

mahi (“great”), used in Vedic as an adj. in nom. and acc. sing. n.

mahant (“great”), pp. 219

← ie. **megh₂* (see p. 52)

→ gr. B *megafon*, *megawatt*, *megabyte* and, in German, *megageil* (youth slang: “fantastic altogether”)

~ lat.

- ◇ B *magnitude*, *magnate*, *maj-esty*
- ◇ *magister* with B *master*

~ e. *much*

Perhaps, ved. *mak-ṣu* (“much, many → quick, soon”) is an old loc. pl. building on this root. Then, lat. *mox* (“soon”) may be related.

mā 3. class: **mimāti** (“to measure”)

← ie. root **meh₁*

→ gr. B *me-ter* (via French *mètre*), *geometry*

~ lat. *t*-extension finally the B *meas-ure*, *di-mens-ion*, *im-mense* (“unmeasurable”, see p. 66)

~ nhg. *l-extension ma-l* (“from time to time”), *Ma-l* (“moment”) ← ohg. *māl* ← ie.
**meh₁-lo*

See *mās*.

māṃsa m. (“meat”)

← ie. **meh₁(n)s*

→ lat. B *member*

mās m. (“moon, month”)

← ie. **meh₁(n)s*

→ lat. *mēnsis* (“month”) ← ie. **meh₁-n-s* with B *menstruation*, *se-mester* (for first part, see *ṣat*), *tri-mester* (for first part, see *trayas*)

~ Germanic languages use related, but different forms for the two meanings:

◇ e. *moon* ~ nhg. *Mond*

◇ e. *month* ~ nhg. *Monat*

mātar f. (“mother”)

← *ie. **me-h₂tér*

→ lat. B *maternity*

~ e. *mother* ~ nhg. *Mutter*

As in *pitar*, the ie. accent follows the *t* so that **VER** applies.

mitram “contract → friendship → friend”

On neuter (!) *mitram* see Thieme [1957].

mith 1. class: ***mêthati*** (“to meet, to quarrel”)

← ie. root **meith₂*

→ lat. *mit-tere* (“to release, to send”) with B to *e-mit*, *e-mis-sion* (**LAT_DD**), to *per-mit*, to *trans-mit*, *mis-sile*

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mil 6. class: **milati** (“to unite, to happen”)
mêl-a (“assembly, association”)
mêl-aka (“assembly, association”)
mêl-anam (“assembly, association”)
mêl-ā (“assembly, association”)

← ie. root **meil*

miś (“to mix”)
miś-ra (“mixing, diverse”)
miś-la (“mixing, diverse”) (**rl**)
mi-mik-ṣu (“desiring for mixing”)
On the one hand, the above words

← ie. root **meik*

On the other hand, with *sk*-suffix, *micch* as in pres.P *micchamāna*

← ie. zero grade **mik-sk* (**SIB**)

→ lat. *misc-ere* (“to mix, to blend”) with B to *mix*, *mixture*, *pro-misc-uity*, B in German *mischen* (“to mix”)

→ fr. *mélange* (“mixture”)

Compare *pracchā* (s.v. *pracch*). The oi. root *mikṣ* as in causative *mêkṣayati* is difficult because it contradicts **SIB**.

mih 1. class: **mêhati** (“to urinate”) (**PPal**)
mih f. (“mist, haze, fog”)
mêgha (“cloud”)

← ie. root **meigh*

Compare *mīḍha*. Semantically, compare *vār*.

mī 9. class: **mi-nā-ti** (“to lessen, to diminish”)

← ie. root **meih*₁

→ lat. B *mi-nus*, *mi-nute*, *di-mi-nish*, *mi-nister*

mīḍham (“wage, price”)

← ie. **mizdho*

→ e. *meed* ~ nhg. *Miete* (“rent”)

mīḍha (and very similarly *nīḍa*) can be explained by a series of sound laws:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & \text{ie. } *mizdho \\
 \rightarrow & \text{ } mizdho \text{ (RUKI)} \\
 \rightarrow & \text{ } mizdha \text{ (CerD, } a\bar{a}\text{)} \\
 \rightarrow & \text{ } mīḍha \text{ (CpLz)}
 \end{aligned}$$

From the sound laws, *mīḍha* might be a PPP of *mih* (“to urinate”) (similar to *līḍha*, p. 115). Perhaps, rain as a price for sacrifice?

mīv 1. class: *mīvati* (“to move”)
mūta in *kāma-mūta* (from n.at. *myūta*)

$$\begin{aligned}
 \leftarrow & \text{ ie. root } *myevh_1 \\
 \rightarrow & \text{ lat. B to } move, movement, mobility
 \end{aligned}$$

muc 6. class: *muñcati* (“to set free, to let go”)

$$\begin{aligned}
 \leftarrow & \text{ ie. root } *mu(n)k \\
 \rightarrow & \text{ lat. B (nasal) } mucus
 \end{aligned}$$

muni m. (“holy man”)
mūka (“dumb, silent”)

$$\begin{aligned}
 \leftarrow & \text{ ie. } *mu / *m\bar{u} \\
 \rightarrow & \text{ lat. B } mute
 \end{aligned}$$

Perhaps a person who cannot say anything but *mu* or *mū*?

mūṣa (“mouse”)

$$\begin{aligned}
 \leftarrow & \text{ ie. } *muHs \\
 \rightarrow & \text{ e. } mouse \sim \text{nhg. } Maus
 \end{aligned}$$

mṛ 1. class: *marati*/ 4. class: *mri-ya-tê* (“to die”) (p. 21)

$$\begin{aligned}
 \leftarrow & \text{ ie. root } *mer \\
 \rightarrow & \text{ gr. B } a\text{-}mbr\text{-}osia \text{ with ogr. alpha privativum } a \text{ (see p. 66). } b \text{ has been introduced} \\
 & \text{ in order to facilitate pronunciation.}
 \end{aligned}$$

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~ lat. B *mor-tal*, *mor-bid*, to *amortize* (“to make dead → to redeem a loan”)

~ e. *murder* ~ nhg. *Mord*

See *mār-ay-a-ti* on p. 33. See *m̄r*.

m̄rd 1. class: **mardati**/ 9. class: **m̄rdnāti** (“to press, to destroy”) (**rl**)

m̄rd f. (“mud, clay”)

m̄rdu (“soft, mild”)

mrad-īyans (comparative, “softer”)

mrad-iṣṭha (superlative, “softest”)

← ie. root **meld*

→ lat. B in German

◇ *a-Moll* (“A minor”)

◇ *mollig* (“chubby”)

m̄r 9. class: **m̄rṇāti** (“to bruise, to smash”)

On the one hand, **m̄rṇāti** ← ie. **mr̥-ne-h₂-ti* (**Lar** _ **V**)

← ie. root **mer-h₂* (*h₂*-extension of **mer* s.v. *m̄r*)

→ lat.

◇ *mora* (“delay, lapse of time”), see law of morae on p. 54

◇ *mor-tārium* (“bowl, mortar”) with e. B *mor-tar*, nhg. B *Mör-ser* (“mortar”) and *Mör-tel* (“mortar, grout”)

~ nhg. *mürbe*, *morsch*

On the other hand, **m̄urchā** f. (“delusion, fainting”), with *sḱ*-suffix

← ie. zero grade **mr̥h₂-sḱ* (**Lar** _ **SY**, **SIB**)

Compare *pracchā* (s.v. *pracch*).

me enclitic for pers. pron. 1. pers. sg. both gen. (for non-enclitic *mama*) and dat. (for non-enclitic *mahyam*)

← ie. **moi*

→ ogr. *moi*

mnā 2. class: **mnāti** (“to mention”) ← ie. **mn-eh₂*

Consequential of *man*, see pp. 79 and 67

E.7. Half vowels

E.7.1. *y*

yaj 1. class: **yajati** (“to sacrifice”)

iṣ-ṭa PPP

iṣ-ṭi f. (“offering”)

← ie. root **Hyeg*

→ gr. B *hag-iography*

yam 1. class: **yacchati** (“to hold, to restrain”)

On the one hand:

◇ full grade nouns **yam-a** (“restraining”)

◇ zero-grade PPP **ya-ta**

← ie. full grade **Hyem*

On the other hand, **yacchati** with *sk*-suffix:

← ie. zero grade **ym-sk* (**SIB**)

Compare *iṣ*, *icchati* (“to wish”), *gam*, *gacchati* (“to go”), and *pracch*, *prcchati* (“to ask”).

yama/ **yamala** (“a twin, one of a pair or couple”)

← ie. root **yemH*

→ lat. B *geminat*e, with analogical *g* from *genus* (s.v. *jan*)

yā 2. class: **yā-ti** (“to go”), consequential of *i*, see pp. 79

← ie. **h₁i-eh₂*

→ lat. *iānus* (“doorway”, name of a god) with B *janu-ary*

~ nir. place name “Baile *Ātha Cliath*” (“town (*baile*) of the ford (*āth*) of lattice (*cliath*): Dublin)

yu 1. class: **yu-cchati-ti**/ 3. class: **yu-yô-ti** (“to keep apart, to separate”)

On the one hand, full grade nouns:

◇ **yava** (“barley”)

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◇ **ava-yava** (“part”), see *ava*

← ie. root **yeu*

On the other hand, **yu-cchati-ti** with *sk*-suffix:

← ie. zero grade **yu-sk*’ (**SIB**)

Compare *iṣ*, *icchati* (“to wish”), *gam*, *gacchati* (“to go”), *pracch*, *pr̥cchati* (“to ask”), and *yam*, *yacchati*.

yu 2. class **yâuti** / 9. class **yunāti** (“to unite, to mix”)

yūṣa m. (“soup, broth”) ← ie. **yuH-s-o*

← ie. root **yeuH*

→ gr. B *en-zy-me*

yuj 7. class: **yu-na-k-ti** (“to yoke”)

yugam (“yoke”)

yôga (“yoking”)

← ie. root **yeug*

→ lat. B *junction*, *adjunct*, *conjugation*, Spanish and Portuguese *junta* (“council, meeting”)

~ e. *yoke* ~ nhg. *Joch*

yudh 4. class: **yudh-ya-tê** (“to fight”)

yudh f. (“fight, battle”)

yudh-i-ṣthira PN with loc. in compound

← ie. root **Hieudh*

→ lat. *iubere* (“to order”) with PPP *iussus* and B *jussive* mood (commanding with the subjunctive as in nhg. “man nehme”)

yuv-an m. (“youngster”), see p. 227

yuv-at (“young”)

yav-īyans (comparative, “younger”)

yav-iṣtha (superlative, “youngest”)

yuv-aśa (“young”)

← ie. **yuv*

- lat. B *iuvenile*
 ~ e. *young* ~ nhg. *jung*
 ~ nir. *Tír na nÓg* (“land of (eternal) youth”) where *Tír* is cognate with lat. *terra* (see *tr̥s̥*)

E.7.2. *r*

rakṣas (“demon”)

ṛkṣa (“bear”)

Perhaps both in the sense of infringer.

raghu (“light”) ***rl***, see *laghu*, both zero grade from

← ie. **le(n)g^{wh}*

→ lat. B *levity* (**LAT** *_v*)

~ e. *light* ~ nhg. *leicht*

~ nhg. f.g. *ge-ling-en* (“to succeed”) and o-grade *ge-lang-en* (“to arrive, to reach”)

raj (“to get red”)

rajaka (“washerman”)

rakta (“coloured, red”)

dūrakta ← **dur-rakta* (“badly coloured”) (**CpLr**)

ratha (“charriot”)

← ie. **rotH*

→ lat. B *rotate*

~ nhg. *Rad* (“wheel”)

raji f. (“line, direction”)

rājan m. (“king”), see p. 226

rāṣṭam (“kingdom”)

← ie. **reǵ* (“to extend in a straight line, to direct”)

→ lat. *regere* (“to direct, to guide”) and *rēgula* (“line, rule”) with B

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- ◇ PN *Regina* from lat. *rēgīna* (“queen”)
- ◇ in English
 - with *g*: *reg-ion*, *reg-ime*, *inter-reg-num*
 - with *c* before voiceless *t*: *di-rec-t*, *cor-rec-t*
 - without *g*: *rule*, *rail-road* (compare *nail*, p. 74)
- ◇ in German *reg-ieren*, *Reg-el*, *Reg-is-seur*
- ~ nhg. *richtig*, *recht*
- ~ in German, but of Celtic origin: *reich*, *Reich*, PNs *Heinrich*, *Richard*

randhra (“vent, cavity”) (**rl**)

- ← ie. **londh-v-o*
- lat. *lumbus* (“hips, loins”) with B *loins*
- ~ nhg. *Lenden*

rasa (“juice”), see *ṛṣ*

ric 7. class **ri-ṇa-k-ti** (“to empty, to leave behind”) (**rl**)

- ← ie. root **li(n)k^w*
- lat. B *de-lingu-ent*, *re-lic*
- ~ germ.
 - ◇ e. to *loan* ~ nhg. *leihen* (“to borrow, to lend”), *Darlehen* (“loan”)
 - ◇ e. *loan* word ~ nhg. *Lehnwort*

riś 6. class: **riśati** (“to tear, to plug”)

- ← ie. root **h₁reiǵ*

See *likh* with another extension.

rī 9. class: **riṇāti** (“to flow”)

- ← ie. root **h₃reiH*
- lat.
 - ◇ B. *ir-ri-tation*

◇ *rīvus* (“small stream”) with B *rival* (“who shares the use of a stream”)

~ e. *run* ~ nhg. *rinnen* (“to flow, to trickle”)

ru 2. class: **rāuti** (“to cry, to roar”)

rava (“roaring”)

with dental extension: **rud** 2. class: **rōditi** (“to cry, to roar”)

← ie. root **h₃ reuH*

→ lat

◇ *ravus* (“hoarse”)

◇ B *rumour*

rudhira (“red”)

lohita (“red, copper”) (**rl**)

← ie. **rudhro*

→ lat. *ruber* (with *b* after *u*) with B

◇ English *ruby* and German *Rubin*

◇ English *rubric* and German *Rubrik*

~ e. *red* ~ nhg. *rot*

ruc 1. class: **rōcatē** (“to shine, to please”) (**rl**)

← ie. root **leuk*

→ gr. B *lynx*, *leuk-emia*

~ lat. B *Lucifer* (“carrier of light” → PN of angel, see *bhr̥*), *lūx* in *ex oriente lūx*

~ germ.

◇ e. *light* ~ nhg. *Licht*

◇ nhg. *Luch-s* (“lynx”), *er-lauch-t* (“illustrious”), twice in *lich-ter-loh* (“blazing”)

See *lōka*.

ruj 6. class: **rujati** (“to break, to cause pain”)

See *nis*.

rudh 7. class: **ru-ṇa-ddhi** (“to detain, to check”)

rôdha (“holding back”)

rudh 1. class: **rôdhati** (“to climb, to grow”) (**rl**)

ruh 1. class: **rôhati** (“to climb, to grow”) (see pp. 53)

rûdha PPP (pp. 116)

rôha (“growing, sprout”) with *h* instead of *dh* (pp. 53)

← ie. root **h₁leudh*

rêkh-ā (“line, strip, picture”), see s.v. *likh*

râi 1. class: **râyati** (“to bark”) (**rl**)

← ie. root **leh₂(y)*

→ lat. B to *la-ment*

râi f. (“possession, wealth”)

râyas-kāma (“desirous of property”)

← ie. root **Hreh₁-i*

→ lat.

◇ *mediās in rēs* (“in the middle of things → without an introduction”)

◇ *reus* (“defendant”) in *in dubio pro reo*

◇ B *real*, *realtor*, *real* estate

E.7.3. /

likh 6. class: **likhati** (“to write”) (**rl**, **Lar** _ **CH**)

lêkha (“line, letter”)

rêkha (“line, letter”)

← ie. root **h₁reikh₂*

→ nhg. *Reihe* (“series, line”)

See *riś* with another extension.

laghu (“small”)

lagh-īyans (comparative, “smaller”)

lagh-iṣṭha (superlative, “smallest”)

raghu (“light”) by **rl** and zero grade from

- ← ie. **leng^wh*
- lat. B *levity*, to *levitate*
- ~ germ.
- ◇ e. *light* ~ nhg. *leicht*
- ◇ nhg. f.g. *gelingen* (“to succeed”) and *o*-grade *gelangen* (“to arrive, to reach”)

lih 2. class: *lē·dhi* (“to lick”)

<i>lih</i> (“to lick”)		
present tense	<i>lē·dhi</i> (1)	<i>lih-an-ti</i> (3)
infinitive	<i>lē·dhum</i> (1)	
PPP	<i>lī·dha</i> (1, 2)	
future	<i>lēk-şy-a-ti</i> (4)	<i>lēk-şy-a-n-ti</i> (4)
imperfect	<i>a-lêṭ</i> (5)	<i>a-lih-an</i> (3)
perfect	<i>li-lêh-a</i> (6)	<i>li-lih-us</i> (6)
redup. aorist	<i>a-lī-lih-a-t</i>	
desiderative	<i>li-lik-ş-a-ti</i> (7)	

1. *lē·dhi* is to be explained by

ie. **leīgh-ti* (full grade)

→ *lēgh-ti*

→ *lēg·dhi* (**ASh**)

→ *lēz-dhi* (**sz** before voiced stop)

→ *lēz·dhi* (**RUKI**)

→ *lēz·dhi* (**CerD**)

→ *lē·dhi* (**CpLz**, but *ê* already long)

The infinitive follows a similar development.

2. Along very similar lines, we find the PPP

ie. **liġh-to* (z.g. with *to* PPP marker)

→ *liġ-dha* (**ASh**)

→ *liz-dha* (**sz** before voiced stop)

→ *liz-dha* (**RUKI**)

→ *liz·dha* (**CerD**)

→ *lī·dha* (**CpLz**)

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3. Although athematic, 3. pers. PRII exhibits *an*. This holds for all verbs in the 2. class (except *śās*, see 163), but the 3. class shows just *n* (which would then turn into *a*).
4. The future form *lêk-ṣy-a-ti* is clear from
 - a) failed aspiration shift together with
 - b) **BA**
5. Parasmâipada imperfect sg. has *a-lêṭ* in both the 2. and 3. pers.. For the 3. pers., we have

ie. **e-leiǵh-t* (full grade with ie. imperfect marker *e*)
 → *a-lêǵ-dh* (**ASh**)
 → *a-lêz-dh* (**sz** before voiced stop)
 → *a-lêz-dh* (**RUKI**)
 → *a-lêz-dh* (**CerD**)
 → *a-lê-dh* (**CpLz**, but *ê* already long)
 → *a-lê-t* (**AFP**, p. 45)

6. *li-lêh-a* is par. and hence regularly strong (pp. 188). *li-lih-us* is atm. and weak.

7. *li-lik-ṣ-a-ti* is expected desiderative in zero grade.

← ie. root *(*s*)*leiǵh*

→ e. *lick* (in contrast to **GER** *kk* rather than *g*)

~ nhg. *lecken* and also *schlecken* with *s*-mobile

lū 9. class: **lunāti** (“to cut, to destroy”)

← ie. root **luH*

→ gr. B *ana-ly-sis*

~ lat. *so-lv-ere* (“to release”) with first part *so* ← *se* as in *sēcūrus* (p. 71), B: *ab-sol-ute*, *dis-sol-ution*, *re-sol-ute*

lubh 4. class: **lubhyati** (“to desire”)

← ie. root **leubh*

→ lat. *quod libet* (“what pleases”), lat. B *libido*

~ e. to *love* ~ nhg. *lieben*

lōka (“space, earth”) (see *ruc*) from *o*-grade

← ie. **loukos*

~ PN *Waterloo*

lohita, see *rudhira*.

E.7.4. *v*

vac 2. class: **vakti** (“to speak”)

ukta PPP

sūktam (“well said, hymn”) ← *su* (“good”) + *ukta*

vāc f. (“word, voice”)

← ie. root **vek^w*

→ gr. B *epic* (twice **OGR**)

~ lat. B

◇ in English: to *pro-voke*, *ad-voc-ate*, *voc-ative*, *vowel*, *voice*

◇ in German: *Vogt* (“(dike) reeve”) ← middle Latin *vocātus*

vaj 1. class: **vajati** (“to get strong”)

vaj-ra (“the hard or mighty one”)

ôj-as (“power”)

ôj-man m. (“strength, power”)

vāj-a (“fight, strength”)

← ie. root **veg*

→ lat. B *vig-orous*, *veg-etation*, *veg-ilant*

~ e. to *wake* ~ nhg. *wachen* and causative *wecken*, *wacker* (p. 73)

Perhaps related to *ukṣ*.

vadhū (“bride, daughter in law”)

← ie. root **vedh* (“to pledge (a girl for marriage)”)

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→ e. to *wed* ~ nhg. *wetten* (“to bet, to gamble”)

van 8. class: **vanôti** (“to win”)

← ie. root **venH* (“to like, to get used to”)

→ lat. goddess of love *Venus*

~ e. to *win*, PN: *Winfred*, *Erwin* ~ nhg. *gewinnen*, *Wonne*, *wohnen*

See *vāñch*.

vanam (“forest”)

van consonantal noun (“tree, wood”), hence with genitive *vanas* in **vanas-pati** m. (“lord of the forest, tree”)

vandhur (“plaited seat of carriage or plaited frame-work of carriage”)

← ie. root **vendh* (“to twine”)

→ nhg. *winden* (“to twine”) and *Wand* (“(originally plaited) wall”)

vam 1. class: **vamiti** (“to vomit”)

← ie. root **vem*

→ lat. B to *vomit*

vaś 2. class: **vaṣṭi** (“to wish”), paradigm pp. 160

a-vaśyam adv. (“not to be wished → necessarily, indeed”)

← ie. root **veḱ*

vaś is not cognate with *wish*, but *vāñch* is.

vas¹ 2. class: **vastê** (“to clothe”)

← ie. root **ves*

→ lat. B to *invest*, *investiture* and German *Weste*

~ e. *wear*

*vas*² (“to shine”), probably the same as *uṣ*.

uṣ-as f. (“dawn”) ← ie. **Hvs-es*

ucchatī f. (“dawn”) ← ie. **Hu-sk-*

← ie. root **Hves*

*vas*³ 1. class: *vasatī* (“to live, to be”)

uṣita/*uṣta*/*vasita* PPP

future *vat-sy-a-ti* by **SIB**

← ie. root **h₂ves*

→ e. *was*

~ nhg. *ge-wes-en*

vah 1. class: *vahatī* (“to drive, to bring”)

anaḍvah n. (“ox, draught animal ← pulling a cart”) with first part *anas* (difficult cerebralization)

<i>vah</i> (“to drive”)		
present tense	<i>vah-a-ti</i>	<i>vah-a-n-ti</i>
infinitive	<i>vôḍhum</i> (2)	
PPP	<i>ū-dha</i> (1)	
future	<i>vak-ṣy-a-ti</i> (3)	<i>vak-ṣy-a-n-ti</i> (3)
imperfect	<i>a-vah-a-t</i>	<i>a-vah-a-n</i>
perfect	<i>u-vāh-a</i> (4)	<i>ūh-us</i> (5)
s-aorist	<i>a-vāk-ṣi-t</i>	<i>a-vāk-ṣ-us</i>
desiderative	<i>vi-vak-ṣ-a-ti</i> (3)	

1. The ie. root of *vah* is **veǵh*. *ū-dha* is regular by

ie. **uǵh-to* (z.g. with *to* PPP marker)

→ *uǵ-dha* (**ASh**)

→ *uz-dha* (**sz** before voiced stop)

→ *uṣ-dha* (**RUKI**)

→ *uṣ-dha* (**CerD**)

→ *ū-dha* (**CpLz**)

2. The infinitive *vôḍhum* is not quite regular. One should have obtained

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- ie. **vegh-tum* (full grade and *tum*-marker for infinitive)
- *vaġ-dhum* (**ASh**)
- *vaz-dhum* (*sz* before voiced consonant)
- *vô-dhum* (**CpLz**, pp. 50)

Here, leveling from regularly formed PPP $\bar{u}\text{-}dha$ is responsible for *vôdhum*, with cerebral *dh*.

3. The future form *vak-ṣy-a-ti* is clear from failed **ASh** together with **BA**. Similarly the desiderative.

4. **Lo**

5. Samprasāraṇa: By **MVS**, the reduplicative vowel *u* combines with the same vowel from the zero-grade root to produce \bar{u} .

- ← ie. root **vegh* (“to carry”)
- lat. B *veh-icle*, *vec-tor*, *con-vex*
- ~ e. *a-way* ← Old English *onweg*
- ~ nhg. *be-weg-en*, *Weg*, *weg*, *Wiege*, *Woge*, *wägen*, *wiegen*

vā (“or”)

- ← ie. **ue* (“or”)
- lat. *ve* (“or”)

vā 2. class: *vāti* (“to blow”)
vāta (“wind”), see *vātāyanam* under *i* (“to go”)
vāyu m. (“wind”)

- ← ie. root **h₂veh₁*
- lat. B *velocity*, to *ventilate*
- ~ nhg. *wehen* (“to breeze, to blow”)

vāñch 1. class: *vāñchatī* (“to wish”) with

- ◇ ie. iterative suffix *ské* → *ccha* as in *gacchatī* (see *gam*)
- ◇ analogic insertion of *n* (otherwise **vācch*)
- ← ie. **vnH-ské* (“to like, to get used to”)

→ e. *wish* ~ nhg. *wünschen*

vār n. (“rain”)

← ie. **veh₁r* (“water”)

← lat. B *ur-ine*

Semantically, compare *mih*.

vi (“away, from, off”), see *dvi* and *viṃśati*

viṃśati (“twenty”) f., not dual (for first part, see *dvi*)

← ie. **dvi-dk̑m̑t-ih₂* (“two tenners”), with ie. dual ending *ih₂* (see p. 206)

Compare *pañcāśat*.

vid 2. class: **vētti** (“to know”), see *vind* below

vēdānta (“end of Vedic literature”), see *anta*

← ie. root **veid*

→ gr. B *idea*, *ideology* by **OGR**

~ lat. B *video*, lat. B *visa* (requirements) from lat. *visus* (“seen”)

~ germ.

◇ Swedish *vetenskap* ~ nhg. *Wissenschaft*

◇ e. *wise* ~ nhg. *weise*

◇ nhg. *gewiss*, *bewusst*

vēda (“he knows”), an old “perfect” (with stative meaning, not with a temporal one) without reduplication

vid-vān, perfect active participle, again without reduplication

vidhava (“widow”)

← ie. **vidheva*

→ e. *widow* ~ nhg. *Witwe*

Going even further back in time, one might reconstruct as ie. **h₁vi-dhh₁-ev-o* ← **dvi-dhh₁-ev-o* where *h₁v* would have been dissimilated from *dv*. The latter comprises “two” (see s.v. *dvi*) as in lat. B *di-vision*.

vind 1. class: **vind-a-ti** (“to find”), see *vid* above

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← ie. root **veind*

vip 1. class: **vêpatê** (“to tremble, to be excited”)

vip-ra (“excited, wise”) with

◇ **vipra** (“poet, learned brahmin”)

◇ **vipra-rājyam** (“Brahmin government”)

◇ **vipra-vīra** (“Helden begeisternd”)

vêp-anam (“trembling”)

← ie. root **veip/ *veib*

→ lat. B *vibr-ant*

viś 6. class: **viśati** (“to enter”)

viś f. (“house, people”) z.g., see pp. 108

← ie. root **veikʹ*

→ gr. B *economics* (**OGR**)

~ lat. *vīcus* (**LAT _ V**) (“village”) and hence English *vicinity* and French *voisin* (“neighbor”)

viṣa z.g. (“poison”)

← ie. **veis*

→ lat. *vīrus* (**LAT _ V**, **LAT _ sr**) (“venom, poison”)

◇ B *virus*

◇ B *virulent*

vīra (“man”)

← ie. **vī-ro*

→ lat. B *vir-ile*, *trium-vir-ate* (for first part see *trayas*)

~ e. *were-wolf* ~ nhg. *Werwolf*, *Wergeld* (“expiation money” in Germanic law)

vr 9. class: **vr̥ṇītê** (“to choose”) (**rl**)

vara (“choice, boon”)

← ie. root **velh₁*

→ lat. B *bene-vol-ent* (for *bene*, see s.v. *dis*), *vol-untary*

~ germ.

◇ e. *will* ~ nhg. *wollen* (“to want”), *Wille* (“will, intention”), *Will-kür* (“arbitrariness”) (for second part, see s.v. *juſ*)

◇ nhg. *Wahl* (“choice, election”)

vr̥ 5. class: **vr̥ṇḍti** (“to cover, to conceal”)

← ie. root **h₂ver*

→ lat. *aperire* (“to open”) ←ie. **h₂ep-h₂ver* with B *aperitif* (for first part, see s.v. *apa*)

vr̥ka (“wolf”) by p. 46 from

← ie. **wlk^wo* (**SY_Conf**, otherwise n.at. *urka*)

→ lat. (dialectal) *lupus* in “homo homini *lupus* est”, also “a skin disease”

~ e. *wolf* ~ nhg. *Wolf* (**IE_SY_L**)

vr̥j 7. class: **vr̥ṇa-k-ti** (“to twist”)

varga (“division, group”)

← ie. root **verg*

→ lat. B to *di-verge*, to *conv-erge*, *on the verge*

vr̥t 1. class: **vartatē** (“to turn, to roll, to be”)

← ie. root **vert*

→ lat. B *vertical*, *versus*, *verse*

~ nhg. *werden*, *Wurm*

vāi 1. class: **vāyati** (“to be dry, to be extinguished”)

nir-vāṇa (“extinguished, extinction”)

ūna (“empty, deficient”) z.g.

← ie. root **h₁veh₂*

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→ lat. B *vane*, *vanity*

vyadh 4. class: **vidhyati** (“to pierce, to drill through”)

vyādha (“hunter”)

vyādhi m. (“illness”)

vyādhita (“ill”)

vid-dha (“pierced, perforated”)

aber nicht *vi-dhi* (see *dhā*)

vra-ta (“vow, religious observance, commandment”)

← ie. **ver* and with dental extension **verdh* in the cognates below

→ lat. B *verb*, *verbal*

~ e. *word* ~ nhg. *Wort* (z.g., see **IE_SY_L**)

E.8. Sibilants

E.8.1. ś

śams 1. class: **śamsati** (“to declare, to recite”)

← ie. root **kens*

→ lat. B *census*, *ensorship*, *censure*

śaṅk 1. class: **śaṅkatê** (“to doubt, to hesitatedeclare”)

← ie. root **kenk*

→ lat. *cunctari* (“to be slow, to hesitate”)

~ n. to *hang* ~ nhg. *hängen* and also nhg. *Verhängnis* (“doom”), *Hängepartie* (“adjourned game”)

śatām (“hundred”)

← ie. **k̑m̑tóm* ← ie. **dk̑m̑tóm* (“the tenth” tenner)

→ lat. B *centipede* (for second part see *pad*), *centimeter* (for second part see *mā*), *percent*

~ e. *hund-red*

~ German *hundert* from Old Saxon

See *daśa* and *pañcāśat*.

śad (“to fall”)

śa-śāda pf.

śat-sy-ati fut.

← ie. root **ked*

→ lat. B *ac-cid-ent*, *cad-aver*, *oc-cas-ion*

śap 1. class: **śapati** (“to vow, to curse”)

← ie. root **kap*

→ lat.

◇ B *cap-ture*, *cap-tive*, *cap-tion*

◇ lat. *cap-sula* with English *cap-sule*

◇ lat. *dē-cipere* with English to *de-ceive*

◇ lat. *re-cipere* with English to *re-ceive*

◇ B *inter-cep-t*, to *ac-cep-t*, *capable*

◇ B *prin-cip-al*, *parti-cip-ation*, *parti-cip-le*

~ germ.

◇ e. to *heave* ~ nhg. *heben*

◇ nhg. *Haf-t* (“imprisonment”), also *sündhaft* (“sinful”) *wahrhaftig* (“truthful”)

śaranam (“protection”)

śarman n. (“shelter”)

āśāra (“shelter”)

śara (“skin on milk → fresh butter”)

śālā (“hall, large room”)

← ie. root **kel* (“to cover, to hide”)

→ gr.

◇ B *cal-yx*, *eucalyptus* (“well-hidden calyx” → name of a tree) (first part see *su*)

◇ B *apo-cal-ypse* (“uncovering, revelation, end of the world”, part of the bible) (first part see *apa*)

E. Etymological dictionary

~ lat.

◇ *cella* with B in English *cell* and B in German *Keller*, *Kellner* (early borrowings reflect pronunciation of lat. *c* as *k*), *Zelle* (later borrowing show that lat. *c* was pronounced as a voiceless sibilant before *e* or *i*)

◇ B *oc-cul-t*

◇ B *col-our*

~ e. *helm-et* ~ nhg. *hehlen* (in *ver-hehlen*), *Hehler*, *verhüllen*, *Helm*, *Hülle*, *Halle*, *Wil-helm*, *Hel-mut*

śaśa (“hare”) (with oi. forward assimilation ś..s → ś..ś)

← ie. **kasó* (“grey”)

→ e. *hare* ~ nhg. *Hase* (where e. *r* can be explained by **VER**, but nhg. *s* cannot)

śas 2. class: **śasti** (“to cut, to slaughter”)

śastram (“knife, weapon”)

← ie. root root **kes*

→ lat. B to *castrate*

śās 2. class: **śāsti** (“to teach, to rule”)

śāstram (“rule, manual, teaching”)

← ie. root **keHs*

śiras n. (“skull, head”)

← ie. **kerh₂*

→ lat. B *cer-ebral*

~ nhg. *Hir-n*

Related to *śṛṅga*.

śiva (“favourable”)

← ie. **keivo* (“friendly, intimate, dear”)

→ lat. B *civil*, *civilization*

Perhaps related to *śī*.

śī 2. class: **śētē**/ 1. class: **śayatē** (“to lie, to sleep”)

śāya (“lying, sleeping”)

śayu (“lying, taking a rest”)

śayā (“bed”)

śayyā (“bed”) gerundive

śayyā-gr̥ham (“bedroom”)

ā-śaya (“stay, sojourn”)

jalā-śaya (“stay of water → lake”) ← *jala* (“water”) + *ā-śaya*

← ie. root **kéyH*

→ lat. *cūnae* f. pl. (“cradle”) with B *incunable* in the sense of “nappies, cradle”

→ “the earliest stages or first traces in the development of anything”

→ “a book or pamphlet printed in Europe before the year 1501, i.e., just after the invention of the printing press”)

~ e. *home* ~ nhg. *Heim*

śuc 1. class: **śôcate** (“to shine, to grieve”) (PPal, SPal)

← ie. root *kéuk*

śuṣ 4. class: **śuṣyati** (“to become dry”)

← ie. root *kéus*

śūnya (“empty”)

← ie. root *keuh₁*

→ nhg. *hohl*, but see s.v. *kula*.

śṛṅgam (“peak, horn”)

← ie. **kr̥no*

→ lat. B *corner*

~ e. *horn* ~ nhg. *Horn* and furthermore nhg. *Hirsch* (“who carries a horn → stag”)

Related to *śiras*.

śraddhā f. (“belief, trust”)

E. Etymological dictionary

← ie. **kʳed-dheh*₁ (“to place in the heart → to believe”)

→ lat. B *credit*, *credible*, *credo* (literally 1. pers. sg.: “I believe”). Compare

◇ *hṛd*

◇ *dīvidere* s.v. *dhā*

śram 4. class: **śrāmyati** (“to tire”), compare the unrelated *klam* under *kram*
śrānta PPP (Lar_SY)

← ie. root **kʳemH*

śri 1. class: **śrayati** (“to resort to, to lean”)

← ie. root *kʳlei* (*i*-extension of root found s.v. *śar-ana*)

→ gr.

◇ B *cli-max* (ogr. “ladder” in ogr. → English “highlight, summit”)

◇ B *clinic* (short for *klīnikē technē* (“the technique for healing bedridden people
→ medical science”), for *technē* see s.v. *takṣ*)

~ lat.

◇ B *client* from pres.P ie. **kʳli-ent-* (“leaning”), see *ab-s-ent* (p. 265)

◇ B *climate* (named after the position (inclination) of the sun)

◇ B with *v*-extension *pro-cli-v-ity*

◇ B with *n*-extension: *in-clin-ed*, *de-cline*, *de-clin-ation*

~ germ.

◇ with *n*-extension: e. to *lean* ~ nhg. *lehnen*, with w.-i. ie. *kʳr/ kʳl* → e./nhg. *r/*
l s.v. *śru*

◇ e. *ladder* ~ nhg. *Leiter* (compare *climax* under this entry)

śrī (“fortune, success, beauty, fame”)

śrēyans (comparative, “more beautiful, more exquisite”)

lagh-iṣṭha (superlative, “most beautiful, most exquisite”)

śru 5. class: **śṛṇōti** (“to hear”) (see pp. 88) (**rl**)

śravas (“fame”)

śromatam (“fame, renown”)

śloka (“verse, praise”)

← ie. root **kʳleu*

- germ.
- ◇ e. *loud* ~ nhg. *laut*, *läuten* (“to ring, to toll”), with w.-i. ie. *kr/kl* → e./nhg. *r/l* s.v. *śri*
 - ◇ nhg. *lauschen* (“to listen”)
 - ◇ nhg. *Leumund* (“reputation”), with *m*-extension as in *śromatam*
 - ◇ modern German name *Lud-wig* ← ohg. name *Chlod-vig* (“who is famous (in battles)”)

ślakṣṇa (“slippery, meagre, thin”) ← n.at. *ślakṣ*

← ie. **slnǵ*

→ lat. B *languid*, *lax*

~ e. *slack*

śvan, m. (“dog”), see p. 226

śvāna (“dog”)

← ie. **kvón*

→ gr. B *cynic*

~ lat. *canis* in “cave canem”

~ e. *hound* ~ nhg. *Hund*

śvaśura (“father in law”) with oi. backward assimilation *s..ś* → *ś..ś*

śvaśrū (“mother in law”)

← ie. **svekūro*

→ nhg. *Schwäher* (unusual, “father in law”) and *Schwager* (“son of the father in law”) (**VER**)

śvas 2. class: **śvasiti** (“to hiss, to snort”)

śvāsa (“sighing, breathing”)

← ie. root **kves*

→ lat. *queri* (“to complain, to protest”) with B *querulous*

śvēta (“white”)

śvit-ra (“whitish, white leprosy”)

E. Etymological dictionary

← ie. root *kveit*

~ e. *white* ~ nhg. *weiß*

E.8.2. *ṣ*

ṣat/ṣaṣ (“six”)

← ie. **sveks*

→ gr. B *hexagon*

~ lat. *sex* with B *sextet*

~ e. *six* ~ nhg. *sechs*

Note:

◇ For final consonant, see subsection B.3.5.

◇ For initial consonant, see **SI** which is not really fitting.

ṣtīv 1. class: ***ṣtīvati*** (“to spit”)

← ie. root **spieuH* / **speiHu* / **tspieuH* (various suggestions, unclear)

→ lat. *PPP spūtum* with B *sputum*

~ e. *spew* ~ nhg. *speien*

E.8.3. *s*

sa (“with, provided with”), used in compounds for *saha* such as

◇ ***sodara*** (“belly”) ← *sa* + *udara* (“brother”)

◇ ***sa-dhana*** (“rich”), for second part see *dhanam* (“wealth”) under *dhā* (“to set, to put”)

sakhi m. (“friend”) **Lar_ CH**

← ie. **so^wk-h₂*

→ lat. B *social*

See *sac*.

sac 1. class: **sacatê** (“to follow”)

← ie. root **sek^w*

→ lat. *sequi* with B *sequence*, *second* (i.e., “the following one”), German *Sekunde*

~ e. *see* ~ nhg. *sehen* (i.e., “to follow with the eyes”)

See *o*-grade *sakhi*.

saj 1. class: **sajati** (“to adhere, to stick”)

pa. **bodhisatta** (“a Buddha saint”) may go back to oi. *bodhisattva* (often written *bodhi-satva*) (“an enlightened being”) or to **bodhisakta* (“who clings to enlightenment”)

sad 1. class: **sīdati** (“to sit”) (see p. 80 and *nīḍa*)

upa-ni-ṣad f. (according to one interpretation: “what is taught when sitting down and close to”, indische Geheimlehre, see *upa*)

vi-ṣāda (“sorrow”)

← ie. root **sed*

→ gr. B via lat. *cat-hedra* (**OGR**):

◇ German *Kat-heder* (“lectern”)

◇ English *cathedral* (i.e., “a bishop’s seat”)

◇ French *chaire* (“rocking chair”)

~ lat.

◇ *sīdere* ~ oi. *sīdati* (similar, but independent development)

◇ B *sed-entary*, *pre-sid-ing*, *re-sid-ing*

◇ *ses-sion*, *obses-sion* (**LAT_DD**)

san 8. class **sanōti** (“to obtain, to possess”)

sā-ta PPP

gô-ṣaṇi (“acquiring cattle”), for first part see *gô*

← ie. root *senh₂*

→ lat. B *sin-ister*

sana (“old”)

E. Etymological dictionary

← ie. *seno*

→ lat. B *senate*, *senator*

sap 1. class: **sapati** (“to worship”)

← ie. root **sep*

→ lat. B *sepulture*

sapta (“seven”)

← ie. **septm*_o

→ ogr. *hepta* (as in *heptagon*)

~ lat. *septem*

~ e. *seven* ~ nhg. *sieben*

sam (“together”)

← ie. **sem* (“one”)

→ gr. B *homosexual*

~ lat.

◇ *semper* (“always”) with B *sempiternal* ← *semper* + *eternal*

◇ B *similar*, *simple*

~ germ.

◇ e. *same*

◇ nhg. *sammeln* (“to collect”), *samt*, *sämtlich*

◇ e. *-some* ~ nhg. *-sam*, both meaning “of same quality”, as in

• e. *tiresome*, *wholesome*

• nhg. *kleidsam*, *gleichsam*

See *sāmi*.

sarpís n. (“clarified butter”) (**rl**)

← ie. **solpí*

→ lat. B *sulphur* with difficult *ph*

~ e. *salve* (“ointment”) ~ nhg. *Salbe* (**VER**: see accent in oi. *sarpís*)

sarva (“all, every, whole”) (**rl**)

← ie. **solHvo*

→ gr. B *holocaust*, *hologram*

~ lat. *salūs*, *salūtis* (“health, well-being”) with B to *salute* (i.e., “to wish health”), *safe*

~ nir. *slān* (“good-bye”)

sāmi (“in one → one of the two → half”)

← ie. **sēmi* loc. sg. (“in one”)

→ gr. B *hemi-sphere*

~ lat. B *semi-final*

See *sam*.

sidh 4. class: **sidhyati** (“to have success, to be valid”)

sidh-ra (“perfect, good”), zero-grade *ra*-adjective

sādh 1. class: **sādhati** (“to be successful, to lead to one’s goal”)

sādh-u (“able, noble, obedient”)

← ie. root **seHdh*

sādhayati is regular causative from ie. **seHdh*.

sidh 1. class: **sēdhati** (“to interdict, to drive away”)

← ie. **kyes-dhh*₁ (*sz*, *aā*, **CpLz**)

→ lat. *cēdere* (“to go, to proceed”) with B to *proceed*, to *succeed*, *recession*, *credible*, *credo* (literally 1. pers. sg.: “I believe”). Compare *dīvidere* s.v. *dhā* and compare *śraddhā*.

siv 4. class: **siv-y-a-ti** (“to stitch”)

syū-ta PPP (“bag”)

← ie. root **seiHv* (**Lar_MTh**)

E. Etymological dictionary

See *div.*

su (“good”)

sūktam (“well said, hymn”) ← *su* + *ukta* (PPP of *vac*, “to say”)

sv-annam (“good food”, for second part see *ad*)

su-kham (“happiness, pleasure”)

su-ṣṭhu adverb (“well”)

su-carita (“well-done”)

su-gandhi (“fragrant”, for second part see *gandha*, “smell, odor”)

sv-a-ccha (“pure, transparent”), see s.v. *chad*

← ie. **h₁su*

→ ogr. *eu* ← **eh₁u* in B

◇ *ev-angelic*, German *Evangelium* (lat. ending, “gospel”)

◇ *eu-phemism*, see *bhan*

◇ *hygiene* (similar to oi. *su-jīvita* (“living happily”), see *jīv*)

May well be related to ie. **h₁es* (see *as*)

su 5. class: **sunōti** (“to press”)

suta (“squeezed”) PPP

sav-anam (“pressing Soma, childbirth”) or below at **sū** (“to beget”)

ut-sav-a (“(drinking) festival”)

sōma (“Soma plant/ juice”)

sura (“god”), back-formation (see p. 7) from *asura* (“lord of life, god, demon”):

<i>a-dēva</i> (“demon”)	with negating <i>a</i> from:	<i>dēva</i> (“god”)
just as		
<i>a-sura</i> (“demon”), falsely	with negating <i>a</i> from:	<i>sura</i> (“god”)

sū 2. class: **sūtē** (“to beget”)

sūta PPP (“having given birth”) and also *suta* (probably mixed in from *su*, “to press”)

sū m. (“father”)

sav-ana-m (“childbirth”) or above at *su* (“to press”)

savi-tar m. (“activator, father”)

← ie. root **seuH*

sūkara m. (“pig”)

← ie. **suHs*

~ e. *sow* ~ nhg. *Sau*

sūnu m. (“son”)

← ie. **sūnu*

~ e. *son* ~ nhg. *Sohn*

sr 1. class: ***sarati*** (“to go, to flow”) (***rl***)

← ie. root **sel*

→ agr. *hal-ma* (as in board game) (**OGR**)

~ lat.

◇ *sal-īre* (“to jump”) with B *sal-to* via Italian

◇ B *serum*

srp 1. class: ***sarpati*** (“to crawl, to creep”)

← ie. root **serp*

→ gr. B *herpes* (“spreading skin condition”)

~ lat. B *serpent*

skand 1. class: ***skandati*** (“to jump”)

← ie. root **skend*

→ lat. B to *de-scend*, to *tran-scend*

stan 1. class: ***stanati*** (“to thunder, to hum”)

← ie. root *(*s*)*ten*

→ germ.

◇ with *s*-mobile: nhg. *stöhnen* (“to groan”) (see subsection B.5.5)

◇ without *s*-mobile: e. *thunder* ~ nhg. *donnern*

starī (“a barren cow”)

E. Etymological dictionary

← ie. **ster*

→ lat. B *sterile*

stigh 5. class: **stighnôti** (“to step, to mount”)

← ie. root **steigh*

→ nhg. *steigen*, *Steg*, *Steigeisen*

stṛ 5. class: **stṛnôti** / 9. class: **stṛnāti**, (“to spread”)

stṛṇa PPP

vi-stara (“extension, detail”)

vi-starêṇa (“at length”)

← ie. root **sterH*

→ gr. B *a-stro-logy*, *a-stro-nomy*, *aster*, *desaster*

~ lat.

◇ *stēlla* ← **stēr-la* with B *con-stella-tion*, *stellar*

◇ B *sub-stratum*

~ nhg. *Stern*

sthaḡ 10. class: **sthaḡayati** (“to hide, to cover”)

← ie. root *(*s*)*th₂eg*

→ lat.

◇ (B) *toga*

◇ *tēgula* (“tile”) → B German *Ziegel*

~ e. *thatcher* ~ *Dach* (“roof”)

See other instances of s-mobile at *carman* and *lih*.

sthā 1. class: **tiṣṭhati** (“to stand”)

sthāman n. (“station, position, strength”)

stāman (meaning unknown) (see 2. below)

ut-thāya gerund “standing up” (**DzD**)

sthi-ra (“steady, durable”), see pp. 121

sthūra (“strong”), see below

yudhi-ṣṭhira PN with loc. case ending

su-ṣṭhu adverb (“well”), see *su*

stiyā (“standing water”) (see 3. below)

<i>sthā</i> (“to stand”)		
present tense	<i>ti-ṣṭha-ti</i> (1)	<i>ti-ṣṭha-n-ti</i> (1)
infinitive	<i>sthā-tum</i> (2)	
PPP	<i>sthi-ta</i> (3)	
future	<i>sthā-sy-a-ti</i> (2)	<i>sthā-sy-a-n-ti</i> (2)
imperfect	<i>a-ti-ṣṭha-t</i> (1)	<i>a-ti-ṣṭha-n</i> (1)
perfect	<i>ta-sth-âu</i> (4)	<i>ta-sth-us</i>
root aorist	<i>a-sthā-t</i>	<i>a-sth-us</i>
desiderative	<i>ti-ṣṭhā-s-a-ti</i> (2, 5)	<i>ti-ṣṭhā-s-u</i> (2, 5)

- The ie. root is **steh₂*. **DA** is not involved, but one obtains *tiṣṭhati* from
 - *ti-sth₂-e-ti* (reduplication with *i*, z.g. root, thematic vowel)
 - **ti-sth-e-ti* (**Lar₋CH**: *h₂* aspirates *t*)
 - *ti-ṣṭh-atī* (**RUKI**)
 - *ti-ṣṭh-atī* (**CerD**)
- The aspirated oi. root *sthā* is in full grade, as in the infinitive *sthā-tum* and the future forms. The laryngeal **seems** to have caused both aspiration and lengthening of the vowel. However, ie. **steh₂sy-e-ti* should have produced *stā-sy-a-ti*. The rest is done by levelling:

	<i>stā-sy-a-ti</i>	
influenced by	<i>ti-ṣṭha-ti</i>	with aspirated <i>th</i>
turns into	<i>sthā-sy-a-ti</i>	with aspirated <i>th</i>

Stāman is the regular form without levelling while *sthāman* shows levelling encountered also in the future forms.

Remember that voiceless aspirated plosives are mostly explained by laryngeals (as here) or by preceding *s* as in oi. *sphira* (**sP(h)**). Aspiration in oi. root *sthā* finds two explanations.

- Similar to the future form, *sthi-ta* also shows double reflex of the laryngeal (both **Lar₋CH** and **Lar₋V**). Without aspiration, we have *stiyā* (“standing water”).
 - The perfect *ta-sth-âu* is similar to *da-d-âu* from *dā* (“to give”). See p. 192.
 - The desiderative is irregular in using the strong form.
- ← ie. root **steh₂*
- lat.
- ◇ *si-stere* (with reduplication similar to *tiṣṭhati*) with B to *desist*, to *resist*, to *subsist*

E. Etymological dictionary

◇ B *status*, *station*

~ e. *stand* ~ nhg. *stehen*

sthūra (“strong”)

sthūla (“big, fat”)

sthav-īyans (comparative, “bigger”)

sthav-iṣṭha (superlative, “biggest”)

← ie. **sth₂u-ro* (from ie. **steh₂* s.v. *sthā* above)

→ lat. B *re-staur-ation*, to *restore*

~ nlg. *stur* (“stubborn”)

snā 1. class: ***snāti*** (“to take a bath, to purify oneself”), consequential of n.at. *san*
snā-ta PPP

ni-ṣṇāta, ***ni-ṣṇa*** (“having plunged into → experienced”)

← ie. root **sn-eh₂*

snāvan m. (“muscle, sinew”)

← ie. **sneh₁*

→ gr. B *neuron*, *neurology*

~ lat. B *nervous*

snih 4. class: ***snihyati*** (“to stick, to adhere, to like”)

snig-dha PPP (“attached, lovely”)

sneh-a (“love, oil”)

← ie. root **sneig^{wh}*

→ e. *snow* ~ nhg. *Schnee*

smi 1. class: ***smayatē*** (“to smile, to laugh”)

smera (“smiling”)

← ie. root **smei*

→ lat. *mīrus* (“laughter → remarkable”), also in *annus mira-bilis* (“a wonderful year”) and in B *miracle*

smṛ 1. class: **smarati** (“to remember”)

← ie. root **(s)mer*

sprh 10. class: **sprhayati** (“to long for, desire intensely”)

← ie. root **spergh*

→ with nasal infix e. to *spring* ~ nhg. *springen*

sphāy 1. class: **sphāyatê** (“to grow large or fat”)

sphi-ra (“fat”) (*sP(h)*)

← ie. root **speh₁*

→ lat. *spēs* f. (“hope”) with B *esperanza*

~ lat. B *pro-sper*, *pro-sper-ity*

sphic f. (“buttock, hip”)

← ie. **sp...*

→ nhg. *Speck* (“bacon”)

sva (“own”)

← ie. **svo*

→ lat. *suus* in

◇ “Iustitia *suum* cuique distribuit” (“Justice renders to everyone his due.”) by the Roman politician Marcus Tullius Cicero (106 BC – 43 BC)

◇ *sui* generis (“of its (his, her, or their) own kind; in a class: by itself; unique”)

~ oir. *féin* ← **sve-(de)sin* (“own, self”). *Sinn Féin* (“we ourselves”) is a political party in Ireland, active in both parts. See also nir. *mo theanga féin* (“my own language”)

~ nhg. *sich*

See *svadhā*.

svadhā (“custom, home”) ← *sva* + *dhā*

← ie. **s(v)ed^hus*

E. Etymological dictionary

→ ogr. *ēthos* in B *ethics* (**OGR_DA** twice, **OGR_DA**)

~ nhg. *Sitte*

svan 1. class: **svanati** (“to sound”)

← ie. root **svenH*

→ lat. *son-are* (by *sve* → *swo* → *so* as in *sorōr*, see *svasar*) with B *son-ata*, *son-ic*, *re-son-ance*

svap 2. class: **svapiti** (“to sleep”)

← ie. root **svep*

→ gr. B *hypnosis* (**OGR**)

~ lat. *somnus* (by *p* → *m* before nasal) with B *somnambulant*, *somniferous* (for second part see *bhr*)

svar 1. class: **svarati** (“to sound”)

svara (“sound, voice, vowel”)

su-svar-am adv. (“very sweetly”)

← ie. **sver*

→ e. *an-swer* ← Old English *and-swaru* (“to sound against”) ~ nhg. *Antwort*, e. *swear* ~ nhg. *schwören*

svar (“the space above the sun”) ← ie. **sh₂vel*, related to **sūrya** (“sun”) ← ie. **suh₂l-yo* by **Lar_CH**

← ie. **seh₂vel-*

→ gr. B *helio-centric*

~ lat. *sōl* (“sun”) in famous neapolitan song: *o sole mio*

svasar f. (“sister”)

← ie. **svesōr*

→ lat. *sorōr* (by *sve* → *swo* → *so* as in *sonare*, see *svan*) with B *sorority*

~ e. *sister* ~ nhg. *Schwester*

svad 1. class: **svadatê** (“to taste, to be sweet or pleasant to the taste”)
svādu (“sweet”)

← ie. root **sveh*₂*du* (with difficult to explain *a* in *svad*)

→ gr. B *hedonic* (**OGR**)

~ lat. B *suave*

~ e. *sweet* ~ nhg. *süß*

svāmin m. (“master, owner”) ← *sva* + (perhaps) *amā* + *in*

svid 1. class: **svēdatê** (“to sweat”)

← ie. root **sveid*

~ e. *sweat* ~ nhg. *Schweiß*

E.9. Aspirant h

ha (enclitic emphasizing particle meaning “indeed”), see s.v. *iti*

han 2. class: **han-ti** / 10. class: **pra-ghnātayati** (“to hit, to kill”)

ghna (“killing”) as in **śatru-ghna** (“killing the enemies”, one of Rāma’s brothers), see pp. 135

vṛtra-han (“*Vṛtra* killer, Indra”) with ved. nom. sg. **vṛtra-hā** (compare *rājā* on p. 50)

a-ghnyā gerundive: pp. 141 (“not to be killed → cow”)

himsā (“violence”, see pp. 126)

<i>han</i> (“to hit”)		
present tense	<i>han-ti</i> (1)	<i>ghn-an-ti</i> (3)
infinitive	<i>han-tum</i> (1)	
PPP	<i>ha-ta</i> (4)	
future	<i>han-i-ṣy-a-ti</i> (1, 2)	<i>han-i-ṣy-a-n-ti</i> (1, 2)
imperfect	<i>a-han</i> (1, 5)	<i>a-ghn-an</i> (3)
perfect	<i>ja-ghān-a</i> (6)	<i>ja-ghn-us</i> (3)
desiderative	<i>ji-ghām-s-a-ti</i> (6)	<i>ji-ghām-s-u</i> (6)

1. *han-ti* is regularly produced from ie. **g^when-ti* (**SPal**). The strong form *han* is also seen in the infinitive.

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2. The future forms also use the strong form. The *i* is a reflex of laryngeals, in this case By analogy with laryngeal verbs like *jan*, *i* has spread to other verbs like *han-i-sy-a-ti*. A second future form is *ham-sy-a-ti*.
3. **SPal** does not occur before consonants. Thus, we find (with the regular loss of the labial element) the weak (!) PRII 3. pers. pl. forms. Similarly perf. 3. pers. pl.
4. The PPP *ha-ta* is not fully explainable by **SY** $\underline{\text{N}}$, because one should expect *gha-ta*, without **SPal**. Analogy with forms like *na-ta* (see p. 112) may be responsible.
5. Identical parasmaipada imperfect 2. and 3. pers. sg. are common in athematic verbs. Due to **CCI**, the endings *s* (2. pers.) and *t* (3. pers.) are lost:
 - ◇ *a-han* ← *a-han-s*
 - ◇ *a-han* ← *a-han-t*
6. **Lo** and no secondary palatalization because of ie. root vowel *o* in strong perfect form.
7. There exist two different desideratives for *han* (“to kill”) ← ie. $*g^w hen$, depending on the suffix. On the one hand, we have the *Hs* desiderative shown in the table above:

$*g^w hi-g^w h\underset{\circ}{n}-Hs-$		
→	$g^w hi-g^w h\bar{a}-s-$	(laryngeal after syllabic $\underset{\circ}{n}$)
→	$g^w i-g^w h\bar{a}-s-$	(DA)
→	$ji-gh\bar{a}-s-$	(SPal)
→	$ji-gh\bar{a}\bar{m}-s-$	(lev. from <i>ham-sy-a-ti</i> ?)
	→	$ji-gh\bar{a}\bar{m}-s-a-ti$ he wishes to kill
	→	$ji-gh\bar{a}\bar{m}-s-u$ revengeful
	→	$ji-gh\bar{a}\bar{m}-s-\bar{a}$ revenge

On the other hand, the *s* suffix yields:

$*g^w hi-g^w hn-s-$		
→	$hi-g^w hn-s-$	(SPal)
→	$hi-n-s-$	(CCI)
→	$hi-\bar{m}-s-$	
	→	$hi\bar{m}-s-a-ti$ he injures
	→	$hi\bar{m}-s-\bar{a}$ injury

← $*ie.$ root $g^w hen$

→ lat. (B) to *de-fen-d*

hamsa (“goose”)

← ie. *ǵhans

→ germ.

◇ e. *goose* ~ nhg. *Gans* (**NHG_E**)

◇ e. *yawn* ~ nhg. *gähnen* (i.e. the *goose* is the *yawner*) (compare e. *yellow* ~ *gelb*)

hanu (“chin, jaw”) (**PPal**)

← ie. *ǵen-u

→ e. *chin* ~ nhg. *Kinn*

Perhaps, the basic meaning of ie. *ǵenu/*gonu* is “curve” and this word is the same as *jānu* (“knee”).

hari/ hiri (“golden, yellow”, name of Viṣṇu)

← ie. *ǵhelh₃

→ gr. B *chl-orine*

~ lat. *helvus* (“yellow”) in the Latin name for Switzerland: *Confoederatio Helvetica* (abbreviation: CH)

~ e. *yellow* ~ *gelb* (compare e. *yawn* ~ nhg. *gähnen*)

hary 1. class: **haryati** (“to desire, to yearn after”) (**PPal**)

← ie. *ǵher

→ gr. B *char-isma*

~ nhg. *gern(e)*

has 1. class: **hasati** (“to laugh”)

← ie. root *ǵhes (**SPal**)

See *jaks*.

hasta (“hand”)

← ie. *ǵhes-/ *ǵhes-r

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→ gr. B *chir-urgy*

hi 5. class: **hinôti** (“to push, to move, to promote”)

hê-tu (“reason, argument”)

hima (“winter, snow”) with B *Himalaya* (**PPal**)

← ie. **gheim*

→ lat. B to *hi-bernate*

hu 3. class: **juhôti** (“to sacrifice”)

juh-û (“ladle”)

<i>hu</i> (“to sacrifice”)		
present tense	<i>ju-hô-ti</i> (3)	<i>ju-hv-a-ti</i> (4)
infinitive	<i>hô-tum</i> (1)	
PPP	<i>hu-ta</i> (5)	
future	<i>hô-şy-a-ti</i> (2)	<i>hô-şy-a-n-ti</i> (2)
imperfect	<i>a-ju-hô-t</i> (3)	<i>a-ju-hav-us</i> (6)
perfect	<i>ju-hāv-a</i> (7)	<i>ju-huv-us</i> (7)
s-aorist	<i>a-hâu-şî-t</i>	<i>a-hâu-ş-us</i>
desiderative	<i>ju-hû-ş-a-ti</i> (8)	<i>ju-hû-ş-a-ti</i> (8)

1. From ie. **g^heu*, we regularly obtain the full-grade infinitive *hô-tum* by **DIPH** and **PPal**.

2. The future forms are also in full grade, with the application of **RUKI**.

3. The present tense 3. pers. sg. *ju-hô-ti* is, of course, in full grade:

ie. **ghu-ghēu-ti*

→ *ghu-ghô-ti* (**DA**)

→ *ju-hô-ti* (**PPal**)

Similarly, impf. sg.

4. *ju-hv-a-ti* (and, similarly, *bi-bhy-a-ti*) regularly reflect **SY_N** and **hV**.

5. The expected zero grade is present in the PPP *hu-ta*.

6. As a peculiarity of the 3. class, the imperfect 3. pers. pl.

a) is in full grade and

b) shows the ending *us*,

here in *a-ju-hav-us* and similarly in *a-bi-bhay-us* from *bhī̄*.

7. *ju-hāv-a* is regular:

- ie. **ǵhu-ǵhou-e* (reduplication, *o*-grade)
- *ǵu-ǵhou-e* (**DA**)
- *ju-hov-e* (**PPal**, ***hV***)
- *ju-hōv-e* (**Lo**)
- *ju-hāv-a* (***aā***)

By ***V*** + ***hV***, perfect pl. *ju-huv-us* is regular.

8. *ju-hū-ṣ-a-ti* shows irregular (but not isolated) long *ū* where the zero grade would be expected.

- ← ie. root **ǵ^heu* and ie. **ǵ^heud*
- lat. B *fondue*, *con-fus-ion*, *in-fus-ion* (**LAT_*****f***)
- ~ nhg. *gießen*

hurch 1. class: ***hūrchatī*** (“to be crooked, to deceive”)

hūrchana (“the act of going crookedly, crookedness”)

On the one hand, full-grade ***hvar-as*** n. (“crookedness, dishonesty”) ← ie. **hvHeres* (**Lar_*****CH***)

← ie. root **hvHer*

On the other hand, ***hūrchatī*** ← ie. **hr_oH-sk[́]-e-ti*, with *sk[́]*-suffix

← ie. zero grade ie. **huHr-sk[́]-e-ti* (**Lar_*****V***, **SIB**)

Compare *gam*, *gacchatī*.

hṛ 1. class: ***haratī*** (“to take, to rob”) (**PPal**)

← ie. root **ǵher* (“to take, to grab”)

→ lat. B *co-hor-t* (but may alternatively belong to lat. *hortus* s.v. *gr̥ha*)

hṛd n. (“heart”) with mysterious oi. *h*

su-hṛd m. (“having a good heart → friend”)

← ie. **k[́]erd*

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→ gr. B *cardiology*

~ lat. *cor*, *cordis* with B *dis-cord*, French *cordialement*

~ e. *heart* ~ nhg. *Herz*

See also *śraddhā*.

hṛṣ 1. class: **harṣati**/ 4. class **hṛṣyati** (“to bristle, to become erect (as the hair of the body)”) (PPal)

← ie. root **ǵhers* (“to be stiff, to be surprised”)

→ lat. (B) *horror* and lat. B *horrific*

hyas (“yesterday”)

← ie. **ǵh-di-es* (“yesterday”) (with simplification of initial cluster in most languages)

→ e. *yes-terday* ~ nhg. *ges-tern*

See *a-dya* s.v. *dêva*.

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