



Sanskrit as an Indo-European Language

Harald Wiese

Sanskrit as an Indo-European Language

Sanskrit as an Indo-European Language

Harald Wiese



Bibliographic information published by the Deutsche Nationalbibliothek

The Deutsche Nationalbibliothek lists this publication in the Deutsche Nationalbibliografie; detailed bibliographic data are available in the Internet at <http://dnb.dnb.de>.



This book is published under the Creative Commons Attribution License CC BY-SA 4.0. The cover is subject to the Creative Commons License CC BY-ND 4.0.



Published by Heidelberg Asian Studies Publishing (HASP), 2023

Heidelberg University / Heidelberg University Library
Heidelberg Asian Studies Publishing (HASP),
Grabengasse 1, 69117 Heidelberg, Germany
<https://hasp.ub.uni-heidelberg.de>

The electronic open access version of this work is permanently available on the website of Heidelberg Asian Studies Publishing: <https://hasp.ub.uni-heidelberg.de>
urn: urn:nbn:de:bsz:16-hasp-1238-3
doi: <https://doi.org/10.11588/hasp.1238>

Text © 2023, Harald Wiese

ISBN 978-3-948791-7-66 (Softcover)
ISBN 978-3-948791-7-59 (PDF)

Contents

Foreword	xi
Preface	xiii
A. Introduction	1
A.1. Historical highlights	1
A.2. Language trees	3
A.3. Sound laws	5
A.4. Analogy and levelling	7
A.5. Back-formation	7
A.6. Borrowing	8
A.7. Conventions	9
A.8. Overview	10
A.9. Abbreviations	10
A.9.1. Cases	10
A.9.2. Numbers	11
A.9.3. Genders	11
A.9.4. Languages	11
A.9.5. Sounds	12
A.9.6. Sound laws	14
A.9.7. Additional grammatical terms	16
A.9.8. Other abbreviations	18
B. Sound laws	19
B.1. Indo-European phonemes	19
B.1.1. Vowels	19
B.1.2. Consonants	19
B.1.3. Semivowels and syllabic nasals and liquids	20
B.1.4. Laryngeals	20
B.2. Vowel sound laws, laryngeal sound laws, and vowel gradation	21
B.2.1. Old Indic <i>a</i> and \bar{a}	21
B.2.2. Semivowels	22
B.2.3. Diphthongs	24
B.2.4. Vowel gradation (ablaut)	26

Contents

B.2.5. Sanskrit representation of IE syllabic nasals and liquids, without laryngeals	29
B.2.6. Resolution of syllabic conflicts	29
B.2.7. Laryngeal sound laws	30
B.2.8. Vowel sandhi rules	32
B.2.9. Lengthening of Indo-European <i>o</i> in open syllables (according to Brugmann)	35
B.3. Consonants	36
B.3.1. Old Indic consonants	36
B.3.2. Primary and secondary palatalisation	37
B.3.3. Aspiration laws (due to Bartholomae, due to Grassmann)	39
B.3.4. Assimilations	41
B.3.5. Consonant clusters and word-final consonants	46
B.3.6. Minor sound laws	48
B.3.7. Compensatory lengthenings	50
B.3.7.1. Compensatory lengthening for suppression of <i>z</i>	50
B.3.7.2. Word-final compensatory lengthening	53
B.3.7.3. Compensatory lengthening for suppression of <i>d</i>	54
B.3.8. Visarga rules	54
B.3.9. Laryngeal sound laws	55
B.4. Middle and New Indic	56
B.4.1. Introductory remark	56
B.4.2. Vowels and diphthongs	57
B.4.3. Consonants	59
B.4.4. A few New Indic developments	67
B.5. Sound laws of other IE languages	68
B.5.1. Vowels and diphthongs	68
B.5.2. Syllabic Indo-European nasals and liquids	69
B.5.3. Ablaut in English and German	71
B.5.4. Consonants: From Indo-European to Greek, Latin, and Germanic	72
B.5.5. Consonants: From Germanic to New High German	74
B.5.6. Consonants: From Indo-European to Germanic and English	78
C. Word formation	81
C.1. Roots	81
C.2. Ten verbal classes, overview	84
C.2.1. Thematic versus athematic classes	84
C.2.2. The four thematic classes	85
C.2.3. The second class	89
C.2.4. The third class	92
C.2.5. The nasal infix classes	93
C.2.6. The fifth class	96

C.2.7. The seventh class	96
C.2.8. The eighth class	96
C.2.9. The ninth class	97
C.3. Infinitive and other normal-grade forms	97
C.3.1. General rule	97
C.3.2. OI roots ending in a nasal	98
C.3.3. Aspiration and cerebralisation	99
C.3.4. Laryngeals	102
C.3.5. Agent nouns, instrument nouns, and action nouns	103
C.3.6. Comparative and superlative	109
C.3.7. Future in <i>sy</i>	109
C.3.8. Causatives	113
C.3.9. Gerunds in <i>am</i> and <i>yam</i>	114
C.4. Past participle and other zero-grade forms	115
C.4.1. Root nouns	115
C.4.2. General rule for PPP	117
C.4.3. OI roots ending in a nasal	119
C.4.4. Aspiration and cerebralisation	119
C.4.5. Laryngeals	124
C.4.6. Nouns and adjectives	127
C.4.7. Passive voice	132
C.4.8. Desideratives	136
C.4.9. Compound-final “zero grades”	145
C.5. Lengthened-grade forms and forms using several grades	147
C.5.1. Rare lengthened grade in action nouns	147
C.5.2. Derivatives	147
C.5.3. Frequentatives	148
C.5.4. Gerundives	151
C.6. Miscellanea	152
C.6.1. Derivatives	152
C.6.2. Ātmanêpada present-tense participles	154
D. Conjugations	155
D.1. Thematic and athematic verbs	155
D.1.1. Thematic verbs	155
D.1.2. Athematic verbs	159
D.1.3. The second class	163
D.1.4. The third class	179
D.1.5. The fifth class	187
D.1.6. The seventh class	191
D.1.7. The eighth class	197
D.1.8. The ninth class	200

D.2.	Reduplicative perfect	203
D.2.1.	General remarks	203
D.2.2.	Strong forms	203
D.2.3.	Weak forms	207
D.2.4.	Conjugation	212
D.3.	Aorist	213
D.3.1.	General remarks	213
D.3.2.	Thematic aorist	213
D.3.3.	Reduplicated aorist	214
D.3.4.	Root aorist	215
D.3.5.	Sigmatic aorist with <i>sa</i>	215
D.3.6.	Sigmatic aorist with <i>iṣ</i>	216
D.3.7.	Sigmatic aorist with <i>siṣ</i>	217
D.3.8.	Sigmatic aorist with <i>s</i>	217
E.	Declensions	221
E.1.	Nouns: categories	221
E.1.1.	Distribution of weak and strong forms	221
E.1.2.	Characteristics of vocalic and consonantal nouns	221
E.1.3.	Consonantal nouns	222
E.1.4.	Vocalic nouns	222
E.1.5.	Hybrid nouns	223
E.2.	Nouns: endings	223
E.2.1.	A few general remarks	223
E.2.2.	Locative singular	225
E.2.3.	Locative pl. with <i>su</i>	226
E.2.4.	Genitive plural	227
E.2.5.	Accusatives with <i>m</i>	228
E.3.	Nouns: weak and strong forms	229
E.3.1.	Introductory remark and overview	229
E.3.2.	One stem, only	229
E.3.3.	Neuter stems in <i>as</i> , <i>is</i> , and <i>us</i>	234
E.3.4.	Stems in <i>mant</i> , <i>vant</i> , <i>ant</i> , and <i>ans</i>	237
E.3.5.	<i>an</i> and <i>in</i> stems like <i>rāj-an</i> and <i>yôg-in</i>	245
E.3.6.	Agent and kinship nouns like <i>nê-tar</i> and <i>pitar</i>	251
E.3.7.	Stems in diphthongs	254
E.3.8.	Feminine <i>ī</i> and <i>ū</i> stems	256
E.3.9.	<i>i</i> and <i>u</i> stems	261
E.3.10.	<i>a</i> and <i>ā</i> stems	267
E.4.	Adverbs from fossilised case endings	270
E.4.1.	Accusative	270
E.4.2.	Instrumental	271

E.4.3.	Ablative	271
E.4.4.	Locative	271
E.4.5.	<i>tas</i> suffix	271
E.4.6.	<i>śas</i> suffix	272
E.4.7.	<i>vat</i> suffix	272
E.4.8.	<i>dhā</i> suffix	272
F.	Selective etymological dictionary	273
F.1.	Introductory remarks	273
F.2.	Vowels	274
F.2.1.	<i>a</i>	274
F.2.2.	<i>ā</i>	289
F.2.3.	<i>i</i>	290
F.2.4.	<i>ī</i>	292
F.2.5.	<i>u</i>	293
F.2.6.	<i>ū</i>	296
F.2.7.	<i>ṛ</i>	297
F.2.8.	<i>ê, âi</i>	298
F.2.9.	<i>ô, âu</i>	298
F.3.	Velar stops	299
F.3.1.	<i>k</i>	299
F.3.2.	<i>g</i>	304
F.3.3.	<i>gh</i>	310
F.4.	Palatal stops	311
F.4.1.	<i>c</i>	311
F.4.2.	<i>ch</i>	314
F.4.3.	<i>j</i>	314
F.5.	Dental stops and nasal	319
F.5.1.	<i>t</i>	319
F.5.2.	<i>d</i>	325
F.5.3.	<i>dh</i>	336
F.5.4.	<i>n</i>	341
F.6.	Labial stops and nasal	346
F.6.1.	<i>p</i>	346
F.6.2.	<i>ph</i>	357
F.6.3.	<i>b</i>	357
F.6.4.	<i>bh</i>	361
F.6.5.	<i>m</i>	366
F.7.	Semivowels	371
F.7.1.	<i>y</i>	371
F.7.2.	<i>r</i>	373
F.7.3.	<i>l</i>	376

Contents

F.7.4. <i>v</i>	379
F.8. Sibilants	386
F.8.1. <i>ś</i>	386
F.8.2. <i>ṣ</i>	392
F.8.3. <i>s</i>	393
F.9. Aspirant <i>h</i>	404
Bibliography	411
Index	415

Foreword

Harald Wiese's book on "Sanskrit as an Indo-European Language" fills an urgent need in the field of Sanskrit-related materials. While scholarly books on this topic can indeed be found, his book is the first one to take the didactic challenges and opportunities seriously.

I have been teaching courses in Spoken Sanskrit for many years. Part of the success story behind Spoken Sanskrit courses lies in the pattern drill employed in the class room. The students learn by heart the perfect past participles like *gata*, *labdha*, *ūḍha*, and others. These and many other, often bewildering forms, just get into their ears and are quickly memorized without too much pain and effort. And that is fine, I think, because learning should be *kaṇṭhastha* (based in the throat, learned by heart) to a large extent.

Learning should also be *buddhistha*, an intellectual affair. Students like to understand the forms they are learning. And here, Harald Wiese's book is extremely useful. He explains how and why *gata* and *ūḍha* employ the zero grade of the verbal roots *gam* and *vah*, respectively. And why the suffix *ta* (clearly seen in *gata*) is also present in both *labdha* and *ūḍha*. Indeed, *ūḍha* is the perfectly regular past perfect participle of *vah*! This book deals with words and grammatical forms from an Indo-European point of view. The author explains certain words, their sound laws, sound changes, word derivation and their etymology with much clarity. This not only helps us to understand Sanskrit better but also to understand our mother tongues and their connection with Sanskrit with much clarity.

To give an example, the Sanskrit root *ad* (to eat) is historically related to both English *eat* and German *essen*. There are many such exciting examples which Wiese explains in his book in detail. I am tempted to give another example here that even certain grammar rules are also similar in Sanskrit and in German languages. For example in the case of remembering we use accusative case and genitive case in Sanskrit, and German retains the same as well. "I remember my mother" in Sanskrit would be "ahaṃ mātaraṃ (Acc.)/mātuḥ (Gen.) smarāmi" and in German we may say "Ich erinnere mich an meine Mutter (Acc.)" or "Ich denke an meine Mutter (Acc.)" or "Ich erinnere mich meiner Mutter (Gen.)".

The way Wiese explains certain topics such as word formation, Sandhi rules, rules about visarga, thematic and athematic verbal conjugations, rules on declensions, root nouns, desiderative, gerundive and other forms with much clarity, it will certainly be a great help for the students of Sanskrit and Linguistics to master Sanskrit.

I think that learning needs to bring pattern drill and intellect together and thus it should be both *kaṇṭhastha* and *buddhistha*. The Indo-European perspective brings exciting intellectual insights to students. Insights that may go unnoticed to students all over the world. I am sure this book will help the students of Sanskrit as well as linguistics (both Indian and European) to understand Sanskrit and some other European languages and their back-

Foreword

ground better and will be an asset especially for the Sanskrit learners. Spoken Sanskrit and Sanskrit as an Indo-European Language seem perfect complements to me. That is why I highly recommend Harald Wiese's wonderful book and congratulate him for his hard and valuable work.

Sadananda Das

Institute of Indology and Central Asian Studies, Leipzig University, Germany

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 Goldman¹, mentions “the intricacies and frustrations of *sandhi* and the other terrors of Sanskrit” inflicted on successive student generations. 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 (abbreviated by E) *eat* and New High German (NHG) *essen*. There was an Indo-European root **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, **h₁ed*). Cross connections of this and other sorts might be as interesting for the Sanskrit newbie as for the more advanced student of Sanskrit.

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:

“[...] the author would be pleased if he succeeded [...] in re-establishing the ties – loosened in recent decades – between linguistics and Sanskrit philology”²

While Wackernagel did put together the (in his time) state-of-the-art Indo-European outlook on Old Indic, 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.

¹Goldman and Goldman (2011, p. xix)

²“[...] der Verfasser würde sich freuen, wenn es ihm gelänge [...] die in den letzten Jahrzehnten gelockerten Bande zwischen Sprachwissenschaft und Sanskritphilologie wieder fester zu knüpfen”

However, readers interested in the current state-of-the-art Indo-Aryan or Indo-European phonology and morphology will not find this book best suited. They had better turn to new Wackernagels (of sorts) that have been written by Goto (2013), Kobayashi (2004), and Kümmel (2014). While my book may be considered a new Burrow (3rd edition, 1973), its purpose is mainly and predominantly a didactic one.

The knowledge of other Indo-European languages is not necessary. In particular, knowledge of Latin and Old Greek is not vital. Instead, Latin or Old Greek words found in Modern English are often cited. The focus is on Sanskrit, but briefly Middle Indic languages are also addressed. While Vedic grammar is ignored, Vedic vocabulary is occasionally mentioned. Accents (important in Vedic) are regularly ignored. German words, and more rarely and unsystematically, French, Italian, or Irish words are adduced. The reasons for including words are often rather subjective.

Thanks and apologies for not citing appropriately are due to the above-mentioned authors and also to many other authors³ of textbooks/grammars/dictionaries/articles. Brugmann (2009, p. V)'s excuse holds true here also: "The procedure of stating in every single instance the authors dealing with them, and the first originator of the opinion I presented, seemed to me on the one hand not to be required by the purpose of the book, but on the other hand excluded due to lack of space."⁴ This general practice is sometimes disregarded. I 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. Katharina Lotzen undertook the laborious work of producing the index. Maria Näther and Alexander Singer proved very efficient with LaTeX and Lyx. Tyler Neill offered constructive criticism. Jan Warzok carefully read a later version.

Ideally, and borrowing from Kobayashi (2004, p. 1), the current author enjoys, and hopes that other (more or less advanced) learners of Sanskrit may also enjoy, "a conspiracy-like tendency behind apparently unrelated phenomena".

Leipzig, April 2023

Harald Wiese

³In many different ways, Beekes (1995, 2010), Brugmann (2009), Burrow (2001), Clackson (2007), Dudenredaktion (2006), Dunkel (2014a,b), Fortson IV (2004), Hock (1991), Kluge (2002), Kroonen (2013), Kulikov (2017), Lazzeroni (1998), Lubotsky (1995, 2018), Macdonell (2010), Rix (2001), Schmitt-Brandt (1998), Sihler (1995, 2000), Szemerényi (1989), de Vaan (2008), Watkins (1998), Zentralinstitut für Sprachwissenschaft (1997), Wiese (2010), Ziegler (2012), and, of course, Mayrhofer (1978, 1992, 1996) have been useful. With respect to Middle Indic, I have benefitted from Hinüber (1986), Masica (1991), Oberlies (2003), and Woolner (1996). Alas, I could not benefit from Lubotsky's eagerly awaited Etymological Dictionary of Proto-Indo-Iranian.

⁴"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."

A. Introduction

A.1. Historical highlights

The idea of this manual is to make Sanskrit easier to learn and to produce a deeper understanding of material already memorised, by taking the Indo-European perspective. The profit is twofold. First, Sanskrit is to be linked to other languages. Second, Sanskrit peculiarities can often be explained. In taking the Indo-European point of view, I am not undertaking anything new or innovative. 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 the 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 Sanskrit and Indian philosophy in Germany. He suggests a new renaissance. In the 15th and 16th centuries, the study of Greek language and culture grew prominent. Similarly, the Indian cultural heritage could 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 monograph, 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 suggest 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 Prague 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 visualise how languages evolve or 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 bunch of scholars grouped around Schleicher's pupil August Leskien (1840 – 1916), a renowned Slavicist, 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 Fortson’s own 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” (exceptionlessness of sound laws).

Ferdinand de Saussure

An important chapter for both Indology and Indo-European studies was written by Ferdinand de Saussure (1857-1913). The young Swiss student was in 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 Indic verbal classes. While his revolutionary ideas took quite a while to gain acceptance, laryngeal theory is well established 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 postulated 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 as the founder of modern linguistics, but that is a different story.

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 Basque, Estonian, Finnish, and Hungarian) 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 language trees. The Indo-European language tree is shown in figure A.1.

A. Introduction

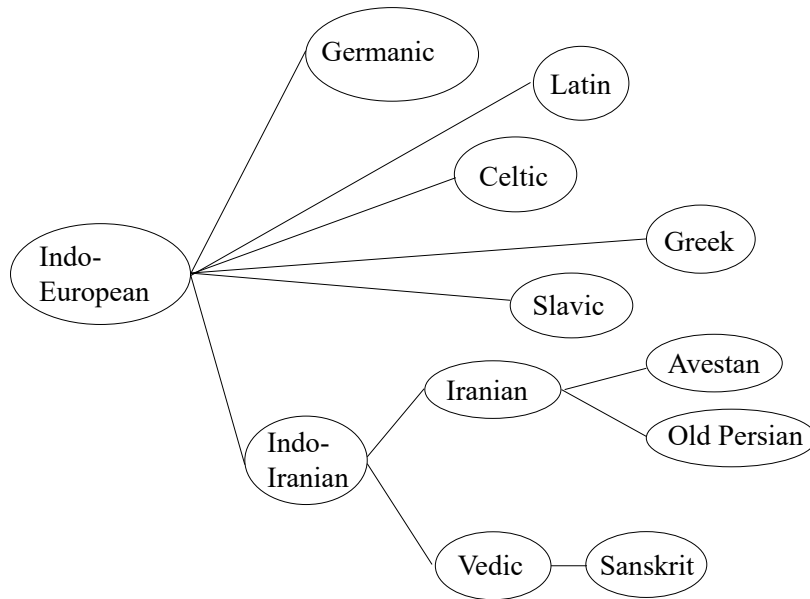


Figure A.1.: The Indo-European Language Tree

It shows the most important language families that stem from Indo-European. Zooming in on the Germanic branch, one obtains the language tree of figure A.2. Germanic itself is not attested, but Gothic comes close.

Of special relevance for this manual, is, of course, the Indo-Iranian subtree. Old Indic (often called Indo-Aryan elsewhere) can be Vedic or Classical Sanskrit. There are several Middle Indic languages, the oldest one being Pali which was primarily used in Buddhist scriptures. Other Middle Indic languages are Śaurasenī, Māghadhī, and Māhārāṣṭrī. These languages are normally called Prakrit or Prakrits. The sound laws that differentiate Middle Indic (MI) from Old Indic (OI) are complicated and differ between the Middle Indic languages. Pali (Pa.) is mostly used for Middle Indic examples, but sometimes also Prakrit (Pkt.). While Classical Sanskrit is not a predecessor of Pali or of (a) Prakrit, it is surely more conservative than these Middle Indic languages in most respects. However, one can find examples where Pali is more conservative than Vedic. Neither Vedic nor Sanskrit are predecessors of Pali. But they are close to a predecessor one tries to reconstruct. Many new Indic languages exist, such as Hindi, Bengali, Marathi, Gujarati, and others.

Just a few words on the (debatable) chronology of these languages:

- ◇ The oldest Vedic texts are preserved in the Ṛgveda, roughly 1500-1000 before the common era (BCE),

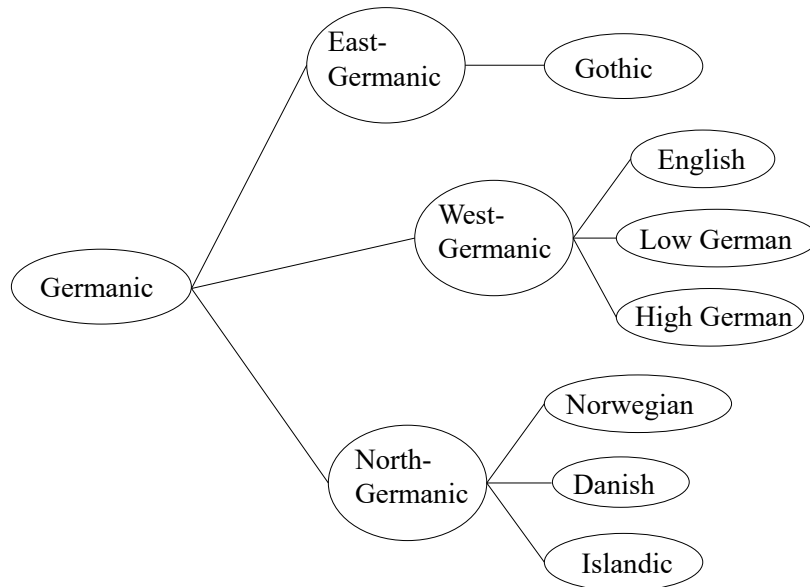


Figure A.2.: The Germanic Language Tree

- ◇ the period of classical Sanskrit spans from 500 BCE until 500 CE (common era) and reaches up to the present time,
- ◇ the Middle Indic period is sometimes dated 600 BCE until 1000 CE, while Apabhramṣa develops later, as of 500 CE,
- ◇ the New Indic languages show their earliest traces from 1000 CE onwards.

A.3. Sound laws

The Junggrammatiker’s dictum was the exceptionlessness or regularity principle:

“All sound change, as far as it happens mechanically, takes place according to laws without exception, i.e., the direction of the sound movement is always the same for all members of a language community, except in the case of a dialectal split [...]”⁵

⁵“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 [...]”

A. Introduction

Sound changes that are not mechanical come under two headings. First, analogy and leveling mean that a pattern gets transferred from one occurrence to another. Second, foreign words or loan words have migrated from another language.

The Junggrammatiker had a different view on the Indo-European vowel system than their teachers. August Pott and Georg Curtius assumed that the Indo-European language knew the 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 would tell under which conditions Indo-European *a* turned into Greek *a*, *e*, or *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 Indic (or Sanskrit).

As in the above example, arrows are employed 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 is reconstructed as **ūdher* (the asterisk * signals a reconstructed form).
- ◇ It developed into Old Indic *ūdhar*.
- ◇ In a parallel fashion (see figure 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 neither NHG *Euter* \rightarrow E *udder* nor the inverse arrow hold. This is clear from figure A.2 above.
- ◇ Incidentally, I distinguish between “E” and “English”. Words in the English language that result from Germanic sound laws are addressed by “E”, while words without the involvement of Germanic sound laws are addressed by “English”. Examples are loan words like *yoga* and *mathematics*. Similar differences hold between “Fr.” versus “French” and “Lat.” versus “Latin”.

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 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) summarises, “the neo-grammarians regularity principle still remains a heuristically useful and important criterion for historical linguistic research.” 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 memorise.

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 paradigmatic regularity. See 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”.

The word “analogy” often refers to both kind of changes. Sometimes, (proportional) analogy is visualised by the following pattern:

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

where $? = B$ is the “solution”. Levelling can be depicted by

	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*.

A. Introduction

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*, one can safely assume a noun *monkey*. This is called back-formation. Applying the same procedure (leaving out the indefinite article) to *a lert*, the noun *lert* is obtained. Indeed, back-formation is mostly used for wrong applications of these procedures, as in the following pattern:

<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*). Compare

- ◇ *sura* (“god”) and
- ◇ *asura* (“demon”)

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

<i>a-dêva</i> (“demon”)	with negating <i>a</i> from:	<i>dêva</i> (“god”)
just as		
<i>asu-ra</i> (“demon”)	falsely as <i>a-sura</i> with negating <i>a</i> from:	<i>sura</i> (“god”)

A.6. Borrowing

Many E words go back to IE ones, as *udder*:

$$\text{OI } \bar{u}dhar \leftarrow \text{IE } * \bar{u}dher \rightarrow \text{E } udder \sim \text{NHG } Euter$$

Many other words are borrowed from other languages. Borrowings are indicated by “B”. An example is “B English *plant*” or just “B *plant*” where *plant* has been borrowed from Lat. *planta*. A careful distinction is made between two types of expressions:

- ◇ “E *udder*” refers to an English word that has developed according to sound laws and goes back to Indo-European (or sometimes only Germanic).
- ◇ “B English *plant*” refers to a borrowing with only minor or late application of sound laws.

Similarly, words marked by “NHG” have been produced by the sound laws **NHG** and possibly **GER**. In contrast, “German” points to Modern German words that have not come about through applications of **NHG**.

A.7. Conventions

In this book, the convention used to quote nouns depends on the type of noun:

- ◇ Nouns where the stem and the nominative singular (nom. sg.) coincide:
 - feminine nouns like *sênā* (“army”)
 - feminine nouns like *nadī* (“river”)
 - consonantal-stem nouns like *tapas* (“heat”) or *havis* (“offering”)
 - ◇ Vocalic nouns other than the *sênā* or *nadī* type:
 - masculine nouns like *dhūrta* (“rogue”)
 - masculine nouns like *muni* (“sage”)
 - feminine nouns like *mati* (“mind”)
 - feminine nouns like *camū* (“army”)
 - feminine monosyllabic nouns like *dhī* (“intellect”)
 - feminine monosyllabic nouns like *bhū* (“earth”)

but the nom. sg. marker *s* is added whenever appropriate
 - ◇ Neuter *a* noun: *phalam* (“fruit”) with the ending *m*
 - ◇ Vocalic *a* adjectives like *dhūrta* (“cunning”) without the ending
 - ◇ Consonantal-stem *an* nouns:
 - masculine *rāj-an* (“king”)
 - neuter *karm-an* (“act”)
 - ◇ Consonantal-stem *in* nouns like masculine *yôg-in* (“devotee, yogi”)
 - ◇ Hybrid *tar*-nouns like masculine *nê-tar* (“leader”)
 - ◇ Hybrid kinship nouns:
 - masculine *pît-ar* (“father”)
 - feminine *māt-ar* (“mother”)
 - ◇ Nouns ending in long diphthong:
 - masculine or feminine *râi* (“wealth”)
 - masculine *glâu* (“moon”)
- With these conventions in place, genders need not always be indicated. The meaning is indicated by quotation marks where
- ◇ “not going → tree” is employed rather than
 - ◇ “not going” → “tree”.

A.8. Overview

The rest of the book is structured along the following five chapters:

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.

Chapter “word formation”

This basic chapter introduces the concept of a verbal root and the different grades that a root can take. Then, in line with the grades, different word formations are introduced and explained in detail.

Chapter “conjugation”

The conjugation chapter introduces a verb’s tenses and modes. On the basis of the ten verbal classes, building patterns and endings are explained.

Chapter “declension”

Turning from verbs to nouns, the chapter on declensions tries to make sense of nouns and their endings.

Chapter “etymological dictionary”

The last chapter presents selected Sanskrit words which have interesting cognates in other languages. The focus is not on defending this or that reconstructed form, but to build a net of words from different Indo-European languages. The usual Indian rank order is obeyed in the dictionary. (In contrast, the extensive index pretty much uses the order of the Latin alphabet.)

A.9. Abbreviations

A.9.1. Cases

- ◇ abl. = ablative
- ◇ acc. = accusative
- ◇ dat. = dative
- ◇ gen. = genitive

- ◇ instr. = instrumental
- ◇ loc. = locative
- ◇ nom. = nominative
- ◇ voc. = vocative
- ◇ NVA = nom., voc., or acc.

A.9.2. Numbers

- ◇ sg. = singular
- ◇ pl. = plural

A.9.3. Genders

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

A.9.4. Languages

Germanic

- ◇ E = Modern English (**GER** and **NHG__E**)
- ◇ English = Modern English (not **GER**)
- ◇ Germ. = Germanic (**GER**)
- ◇ German = Modern German (not **NHG**)
- ◇ Gth. = Gothic (**GER**)
- ◇ NHG = New High German (**NHG** and possibly **GER**)
- ◇ NLG = New Low German (**GER**)
- ◇ OE = Old English (**GER**)
- ◇ OHG = Old High German (**GER** and most of **NHG**)

A. Introduction

Indo-Aryan

- ◇ Hi. = Hindi
- ◇ MI = Middle Indic
- ◇ OI = Old Indic
- ◇ Pa. = Pali
- ◇ Pkt. = Prakrit
- ◇ Skt. = Sanskrit (only used in the form of “Skt./Pkt.” for MI words)
- ◇ Ved. = Vedic

Others

- ◇ IE = Indo-European
- ◇ It. = Modern Italian, when based on Lat. or Latin
- ◇ Fr. = Modern French, when based on Lat. or Latin
- ◇ French = Modern French, when based neither on Lat. nor on Latin
- ◇ Lat. = Classical Latin (**LAT**)
- ◇ Latin = Classical Latin (not **LAT**)
- ◇ NIr. = New Irish
- ◇ OGr. = Old Greek
- ◇ OIr. = Old Irish
- ◇ OLat. = Old Latin
- ◇ Sp. = Modern Spanish, when based on Lat. or Latin

A.9.5. Sounds

- ◇ +asp = aspirated
- ◇ +lab = labial
- ◇ +pal = palatal
- ◇ +v = voiced

- ◇ -asp = unaspirated
- ◇ -lab = other than labial
- ◇ -pal = other than palatal
- ◇ -v = voiceless
- ◇ C = consonants
 - C^{+lab} = labial consonants
 - C^{-lab} = consonants other than labial ones
 - C^{+v} = voiced consonants
 - C^{-v} = voiceless consonants
 - C^{+asp} = aspirated consonants
 - C^{-asp} = unaspirated consonants
- ◇ D = dentals
 - D^{+v} = voiced dentals
 - D^{-v} = voiceless dentals
- ◇ Di = diphthongs
 - OI short diphthongs \hat{e}/ay (usually written e/ay)
 - OI long diphthongs $\hat{a}i/\bar{a}y$ (usually written $ai/\bar{a}y$)
 - MI/Pa./Pkt.: i or \ddot{u} (instead of i or u) after another vowel
- ◇ Fg = full-grade (vowel)
- ◇ H = laryngeals h_1, h_2, h_3
- ◇ L = liquids r, l
- ◇ Lg = lengthened-grade (vowel)
- ◇ N = nasals $\acute{n}, \tilde{n}, \eta, n, m, \eta$
- ◇ P = plosives (stops)
 - P^{+pal} = palatal plosives
 - P^{-pal} = plosives other than palatal ones
 - P^{+v} = voiced plosives
 - $P^{+v, -asp}$ = voiced, unaspirated plosives
 - P^{-v} = voiceless plosives

A. Introduction

- ◇ R = resonants (L , N , SV)
- ◇ S = sibilants:
 - voiceless: \acute{s} , \mathring{s} , s (palatal, cerebral, and dental, respectively)
 - voiced: \acute{z} , \mathring{z} , z (for intermediate steps)
- ◇ SV = semivowels
- ◇ V = vowels
- ◇ \bar{V} = long vowels
 - IE/Lat./OGr. \bar{a} , \bar{i} , \bar{u} , \bar{e} , \bar{o}
 - OI \bar{a} , \bar{i} , \bar{u} , \hat{e} , \hat{o} , \bar{r}
 - MI/Pa./Pkt. \bar{a} , \bar{i} , \bar{u} , \bar{e} , \bar{o}
- ◇ \check{V} = short vowels
 - IE a , i , u , e , o , n_{\circ} , m_{\circ} , r_{\circ} , l_{\circ}
 - Lat./OGr. a , i , u , e , o
 - OI a , i , u , r , l
 - MI/Pa./Pkt. a , \check{e} , \check{o}
- ◇ Zg = zero-grade (vowel)
- ◇ β = voiceless interdental spirant

A.9.6. Sound laws

- ◇ $a\bar{a}$ = IE to OI vowel changes (p. 21)
- ◇ **AFP** = consonants in **Absolute Final Position** (p. 47)
- ◇ **ASh** = (Bartholomae's) **Aspiration Shift** (p. 39)
- ◇ **BA** = **Backward Assimilation** (p. 41)
- ◇ **CCl** = simplification of **Consonant Clusters** (p. 46)
- ◇ **Cern** = **Cerabralisation of n** (p. 44)
- ◇ **CerD** = **Cerabralisation of Dentals** (p. 44)
- ◇ **CpL** = **Compensatory Lengthening**, in particular
 - **CpLd \acute{k}** for clusters $d\acute{k}$ (p. 54)

- **CpLr** for *r* (p. 53)
 - **CpLs** for *s* (p. 53)
 - **CpLz** for *z* (p. 50)
 - **CpL_***an-in-ar* in nominative singular after special suffixes (p. 54)
- ◇ **DA** = (Grassmann's) Old Indic **DeAspiration** (p. 40)
 - ◇ **DIPH** = **DIPH**thong before vowel and before consonant (p. 24)
 - ◇ **DzD** = *z* sprouting or vanishing between **Dentals** (p. 49)
 - ◇ **GER** = first consonant shift (from IE to **GER**manic) (p. 73)
 - ◇ **IE_SY_N** = **SY**llabic **Nasals**, representation in some IE languages (p. 69)
 - ◇ **IE_SY_L** = **SY**llabic **Liquids**, representation in some IE languages (p. 70)
 - ◇ **Lar** = **Laryngeal** sound laws (p. 55), in particular
 - **Lar_CH**, relating to laryngeals after a consonant and before a vowel (p. 55)
 - **Lar_V**, lengthening or producing vowels in the absence of syllabic nasals or liquids (p. 30)
 - **Lar_SY**, relating to laryngeals after syllabic nasals and liquids (p. 30)
 - **Lar_MTh**, metathesis of a laryngeal and a semivowel (p. 31)
 - ◇ **LAT** = **LAT**in sound laws, in particular
 - **LAT_DD** = **LAT**in dental-plus-dental sequence (p. 73)
 - **LAT_f** = **LAT**in *f* (p. 73)
 - **LAT_sr** = **LAT**in *r* from IE *s* (p. 73)
 - **LAT_V** = **LAT**in sound laws concerning vowels and diphthongs (p. 68)
 - **LAT_v** = **LAT**in *v* from IE labiovelar *g^w* (p. 73)
 - ◇ **LawOfMorae** = Middle Indic **Law of Morae** (p. 58)
 - ◇ **Lg_Ry** = lengthened grade of *vy* and *ny* (p. 25)
 - ◇ **Lo** = (Brugmann) **Lengthening** of IE *o* in open syllable (p. 35)
 - ◇ **MET_rSP** = metathesis of a vowel with *r* in order to prevent the sequence *rSP* (p. 48)
 - ◇ **Ns** = anusvāra of *m* or *n* before *s* (p. 49)
 - ◇ **NHG** = **New High German** sound laws, in particular

A. Introduction

- **NHG_V**, concerning vowels (p. 69)
- **NHG_C**, concerning consonants (p. 74)
- **NHG_E**, where **New High German** is more conservative than **English** (p. 77)
- ◇ **OGR** = **Old GR**eek sound laws (p. 72)
- ◇ **OGR_DA** = **Old GR**eek (**Grassmann**) **DeAspiration** (p. 73)
- ◇ **PPal** = **Primary Palatalisation** (p. 37)
- ◇ **RUKI** = cerebralisation of *s* (p. 43)
- ◇ *rl* = dialectal confusion of *r* and *l* (p. 48)
- ◇ **SI** = **Syllable-Initial** assimilations (p. 45)
- ◇ **SIB** = **SIBilant** clusters and palatal-sibilant clusters (p. 45)
- ◇ **SPal** = **Secondary Palatalisation** (p. 38)
- ◇ *sP(h)* = Possible aspiration of *P*losive after root-initial *s* (p. 49)
- ◇ **SV** = **SemiVowel** before vowel, vowel before consonant (p. 22)
- ◇ **SY_Conf** = **SYllabic Conflict** (p. 29)
- ◇ **SY_N** = **SYllabic Nasals**, representation in **OI** (p. 28)
- ◇ *sz* = voiceless *s* and voiced *z* before plosives (p. 42)
- ◇ **VER** = **VER**ner's law (p. 78)
- ◇ **Vis** = **Visarga** rules (p. 54)
- ◇ **VS** = **Vowel Sandhi** (p. 32)
- ◇ *V+SV* = emergence of semivowel after the corresponding vowel (p. 23)

A.9.7. Additional grammatical terms

- ◇ ac./ag. noun = action/agent noun
- ◇ adj. = adjective
- ◇ adv. = adverb
- ◇ athem. = athematic
- ◇ ātm. = ātmanêpada

- ◇ augm. = augment
- ◇ B = borrowing, i.e., foreign or loan word
- ◇ cons. = consonant, consonantal
- ◇ f.g. = full grade
- ◇ fut. = future tense
- ◇ impf. = imperfect
- ◇ imper. = imperative
- ◇ ind. = indicative
- ◇ lev. = levelling
- ◇ l.g. = lengthened grade
- ◇ 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. = present (tense)
- ◇ pres. tense = present tense
- ◇ pret. = preterite, i.e., imperfect, aorist, or perfect
- ◇ PRII = present indicative, imperfect, and imperative
- ◇ prim. end. = primary ending
- ◇ pron. = pronoun
- ◇ prop. = proposition
- ◇ redup. = reduplicated

A. Introduction

- ◇ sec. end. = secondary ending
- ◇ them. = thematic
- ◇ u.at. = unattested
- ◇ v. = verb
- ◇ voc. = vocalic
- ◇ w.-i. = word-initial
- ◇ w.-f. = word-final
- ◇ z.g. = zero grade
- ◇ \surd = OI root (typically in zero grade) or IE root (typically in full grade)
- ◇ \emptyset = no ending, no phoneme
- ◇ \rightarrow = “develops into”
- ◇ \leftarrow = “originates from”
- ◇ \sim = “cognate with”

A.9.8. Other abbreviations

- ◇ BCE = before the common era
- ◇ CE = common era
- ◇ p. = page
- ◇ pp. = pages
- ◇ sec. = second
- ◇ s.v. = sub verbo (i.e., dealt with in the dictionary chapter)

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}

Remember the abbreviations

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

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 , SV), where semivowels (SV) are explained in the following subsection
- ◇ S = sibilants: voiceless s

The Indo-European plosives (P) can be depicted in a table, where voiceless is abbreviated by $-v$ and voiced by $+v$. Similarly, $+asp$ and $-asp$ point to aspirated and unaspirated plosives, respectively.

B. Sound laws

	-v/-asp	+v/-asp	+v/+asp
velars	k	g	gh
palatals	k'	g'	$g'h$
dentals	t	d	dh
labials	p	b	bh
labio-velars	k^w	g^w	$g^w h$

- ◇ 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 $g^w h$. k^w might have been pronounced similar to w.-i. E *queen*.
- ◇ The IE palatal sounds were pronounced as k together with a y -sound. They are indicated by 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. Old Indic occurrences 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*.

B.1.3. Semivowels and syllabic nasals and liquids

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

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

	consonants	vowels
nasals	n	n _o
	m	m _o
liquids	r	r _o
	l	l _o
(semi)vowels	y	i
	v	u

B.1.4. Laryngeals

Now, the so-called laryngeals need to be addressed. Since laryngeal theory is very helpful for understanding and learning Sanskrit, it will be applied (most of the time). Laryngeals

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

are not 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. In that early stage, Indo-European did not know the vowel *a*. Vowel *o* was only present as the result of qualitative ablaut (see section B.2.4). Beyond this instance of qualitative ablaut, vowels *a* and *o* developed from *e* under the influence of an appropriate laryngeal. Most historical linguists 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 summarised below by the sound laws beginning with **Lar**. The capital-letter *H* without any index is employed whenever 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 work with laryngeal theory in one form or another.⁶ 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 Indic *a* and \bar{a}

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 in OI 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 Indic *a*, short and long, respectively:

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \mathbf{a\bar{a}} & \text{IE } a/e/o & \rightarrow \text{OI } a \\ & \text{IE } \bar{a}/\bar{e}/\bar{o} & \rightarrow \text{OI } \bar{a} \end{array}$$

⁶See the collection of articles in Bammesberger (1988), where some authors express their critical distance.

B. Sound laws

Note that bold-faced abbreviations refer to sound laws. See pp. 14. Examples for IE *e* abound:

◇ The Indo-European word for “honey” is

$$\text{IE } *medhu \rightarrow \begin{cases} \text{OI } madhu \\ \text{OGr. } methu \rightarrow \text{B } methane \end{cases}$$

◇ The “middle one” is expressed by

$$\text{IE } *medhyo \rightarrow \begin{cases} \text{OI } madhya \\ \text{OGr. B } Meso-potamia \\ \text{Lat. } medius \end{cases}$$

For IE *o*, one can 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

$$\text{IE } *rḗg \rightarrow \begin{cases} \text{OI } rā́jan \\ \text{Lat. } rḗx \end{cases}$$

B.2.2. Semivowels

Along with the vowels *a*, *e*, and *o*, the Indo-European language as well as Sanskrit know the semivowels *i* and *u*. They obey the sound law:

$$\mathbf{SV} \quad \begin{array}{l} \text{IE } i \rightarrow \text{OI } \begin{cases} i, \text{ before consonant} \\ y, \text{ before vowel} \end{cases} \\ \text{IE } u \rightarrow \text{OI } \begin{cases} u, \text{ before consonant} \\ v, \text{ before vowel} \end{cases} \end{array}$$

In fact, the rules are a bit more complicated (see below), but **SV** in the present formulation is already very helpful. The hybrid nature of semivowels clearly shows in the sandhi rules:

◇ with *i*:

- *phalāni*, but *phalāny akhādat* (“he ate fruit”)
- *gacchāmi*, but *gacchāmy aham* (“I go”)

◇ with *u*:

- *bhavatu*, but *evam bhavatu iti* (“so let it be”), where *iti* stands for “end of quote”

- *jayatu*, but *jayatv āryaputraḥ* (“may my lord be victorious”)

SV also shows up in these examples:

- ◇ *anv-artha* (“appropriate”) ← *anu* (“along”) + *artha* (“purpose, sense, wealth”)
- ◇ *vy-artham* (“in vain”) ← *vi* (“apart, away”) + *artha* (“purpose, sense, wealth”)
- ◇ *āśv-aśva* (“to have fast horses”) ← *āśu* (“fast”) + *aśva* (“horse”)

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

- ◇ *nārī âikṣata* → *nāry âikṣata* (“the woman saw”)
- ◇ *bhv-ādi-gaṇa* (“*gaṇa* consisting of *bhū* etc.”) ← *bhū* (“to be”) + *ādi* (“beginning”) + *gaṇa* (“cohort, flock, word group”, see pp. 85)

Thus, one obtains the rules

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{IE } i/\bar{i} \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{OI} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} i/\bar{i}, \text{ bef. consonant} \\ y, \text{ bef. vowel} \end{array} \right. \\ \text{IE } u/\bar{u} \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{OI} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} u/\bar{u}, \text{ bef. consonant} \\ v, \text{ bef. vowel} \end{array} \right. \end{array}$$

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

- ◇ *dhī* f. (“intellect”) with acc. sg. *dhīy-a-m* (not u.at. alternative *dhīyam*).
- ◇ *bhū* f. (“earth”) with acc. sg. *bhuv-a-m* (not u.at. *bhvam*).

This change (see the first two lines in the sound law below) prevents awkward vowel clusters:

V+SV				example
	$P\bar{i}V$	→	$PiyV$	<i>dhīy-a-m</i>
	$P\bar{u}V$	→	$PuvV$	<i>bhuv-a-m</i>
	$CR\bar{i}V$	→	$CRiyV$	<i>mriy-a-tê</i>
	$CR\bar{u}V$	→	$CRuvV$	<i>ā-pnuv-an-ti</i>

The last two lines may have a similar motivation. Note that 4. class verbs and passive forms are built with the *ya* suffix. An example for the third line is *mr-iy-a-tê* (“he dies”) which is a 4. class verb with root *mṛ* 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-tê* (“he is taken”) ← 1. class verb *hṛ*, *har-a-ti*
- ◇ *sr-iy-a-tê* (“it is moved (by)”) ← 1. class verb *sṛ*, *sar-a-ti*

B. Sound laws

in contrast to *budh-y-a-tê* or *pat-y-a-tê*.

An example for the fourth line is given by *āp-nuv-an-ti*, where *u* cannot stand directly before a vowel and needs the semivowel *v* to stand in between. The comparison of *su-nv-an-ti* or *kur-v-an-ti* with *āp-nuv-an-ti* prompts us to revisit the sound laws **SV** and **V+SV**:

			example	
SV	<i>VRiV</i>	→	<i>VRyV</i>	<i>a-vy-aya</i>
	<i>VRuV</i>	→	<i>VRvV</i>	<i>anv-artha, kur-v-an-ti</i>
V+SV	<i>CRiV</i>	→	<i>CRiyV</i>	<i>mr-iy-a-tê</i>
	<i>CRuV</i>	→	<i>CRuvV</i>	<i>āp-nuv-an-ti</i>

In the examples of *gacchāmy aham* and *su-nv-an-ti* or *kur-v-an-ti* the clusters *RiV* or *RuV* are preceded by a **(bold)** vowel so that one obtains the corresponding semivowel. In contrast, *mr-iy-a-tê* and *āp-nuv-an-ti* exhibit the same clusters *RiV* or *RuV*, but they follow a **(bold)** consonant. Therefore, one does not obtain sound law **SV** but **V+SV**. Finally, note that **V+SV** is also applied if *RuV* occurs word-initial as in *nuv-an-ti* (p. 178).

B.2.3. Diphthongs

Remember that IE *a*, *e*, and *o* coalesce into OI *a*. Nevertheless, *e* and *o* exist also in Sanskrit, but they go back to Indo-European diphthongs:

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

See the following summary of the diphthong sound laws:

DIPH	IE <i>ai/ei/oi</i>	→	OI	{	<i>ê</i> , bef. consonant <i>ay</i> , bef. vowel
	IE <i>au/eu/ou</i>	→	OI	{	<i>ô</i> , bef. consonant <i>av</i> , bef. vowel
DIPH	IE <i>āi/ēi/ōi</i>	→	OI	{	<i>âi</i> , bef. consonant <i>āy</i> , bef. vowel
	IE <i>āu/ēu/ōu</i>	→	OI	{	<i>âu</i> , bef. consonant <i>āv</i> , bef. vowel

The reader notes that my transliteration of Sanskrit words does not always conform with the usual one:

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

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

- sarvê iti* (without sandhi)
- *sarvay iti* (**DIPH**)
- and then mostly
- *sarva iti* (*y* is weak and drops here between vowels)

With respect to long diphthongs, **DIPH** (the last two lines) explains why long *ā* results from the diphthongs *âi* and *âu*. Consider

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

and

- ubhau eva* (usual spelling without sandhi)
- *ubhâu êva* (our spelling without sandhi)
- *ubhāv êva* (**DIPH**)

Finally, an extra rule for lengthened grade (not within a root) is needed. It concerns OI word-initial clusters *viV* or *niV*. One might be tempted to apply **DIPH** and would then obtain *vāyV* or *nāyV*, respectively. However, the rule for lengthened grade of the resonant+*y* cluster is as follows:

- Lg_Ry** OI lengthened grade of *vyV* → OI *vâiyV*
- OI lengthened grade of *nyV* → OI *nâiyV*

Important examples for lengthened grades of these prepositional prefixes *vi* and *ni* are

B. Sound laws

- ◇ *vyākaraṇa* (“grammar”) versus *vâiyākaraṇa* (“relating to grammar”)
- ◇ *nyāya* (“rule, norm”, one of the six philosophical systems) versus *nâiyāyika* (“relating to *nyāya* philosophy”)

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, Indo-European roots in full grade always contained the vowel *e* (that will become *a* in Sanskrit). Within Indo-European, this *e* can undergo two types of gradation (see also figure 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, full grade).
 - Finally, the lengthened *o*-grade \bar{o} (which may also be considered a quantitative ablaut) sometimes occurs.

Vowel gradation in Sanskrit

In Sanskrit, *e/o* and \bar{e}/\bar{o} coalesce into *a* or \bar{a} , depending on whether they are short or long (sound law ***aā***, p. 21). Therefore, the traditional Indian grammarians did not consider the qualitative ablaut. Instead, they taught the three-fold distinction:

- ◇ *svara* (this is our zero grade)
- ◇ *guṇa* (normal grade)
- ◇ *vṛddhi* (lengthened grade)

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

Beautifully, vowel gradation is pretty transparent in Sanskrit. That is why a firm grasp of its workings is indispensable. Importantly (and true cum grano salis):

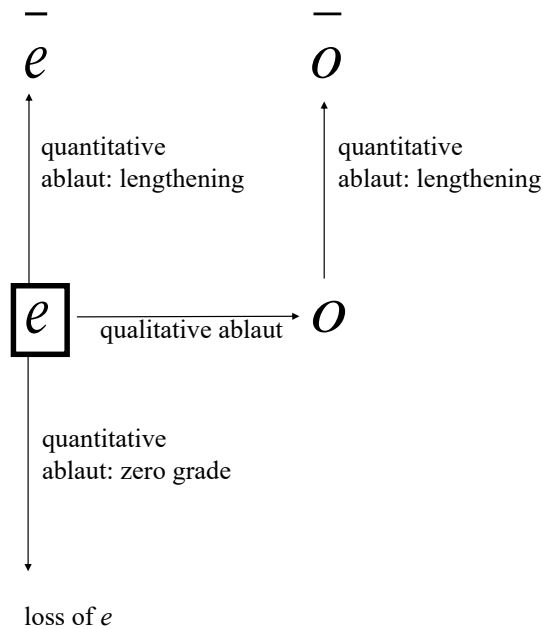


Figure B.1.: Indo-European Vowel Gradation (Ablaut)

- ◇ Strong forms (in the nominal declension as well as in the verbal conjugation, in particular the athematic classes) 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 Sanskrit for “to be awake”. In Indo-European times, *ô* went back to *eu* before consonants (**DIPH**, p. 24). Also in Indo-European times, the *e* was dropped to obtain the zero grade *budh* (in fact, IE **bhudh* but that is another story). Certainly not *bvdh* because syllables need a vowel (p. 20).

A second example: “remember” in Sanskrit is

<i>smṛ</i>	the OI root in zero grade
<i>smar-a-ti</i>	the 3. pers. sg. pres. ind. in f.g. (see pp. 10)

In the zero grade, without *a* (representing IE *e*), one does not have *smar* but *smṛ*. For example, the past perfect participle (PPP) is normally formed from the zero grade, here *smṛ-ta* (“remembered”). The dot under the *r* indicates that *r* is syllabic, i.e., it has vowel quality. Indo-European syllabic *r* is denoted by a larger circle: IE *r̥* (p. 20).

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:

B. Sound laws

SY__N	IE $\underset{\circ}{n}C$	→	OI aC
	IE $\underset{\circ}{m}C$	→	OI aC
	IE $\underset{\circ}{n}V$	→	OI anV
	IE $\underset{\circ}{m}V$	→	OI amV

The vowel-gradation table

IE and OI vowel gradations can now be summarised in one table:

	just e	semivowel y	semivowel v
z.g.	IE $- \rightarrow$ OI $-$	IE $i \rightarrow$ OI i	IE $u \rightarrow$ OI u
f.g.	IE $e \rightarrow$ OI a (aā)	IE $ei \rightarrow$ OI \hat{e}/ay (DIPH)	IE $eu \rightarrow$ OI \hat{o}/av (DIPH)
l.g.	IE $\bar{e} \rightarrow$ OI \bar{a} (aā)	IE $\bar{e}i \rightarrow$ OI $\hat{a}i/\bar{a}y$ (DIPH)	IE $\bar{e}u \rightarrow$ OI $\hat{a}u/\bar{a}v$ (DIPH)

	r	n
z.g.	IE $\underset{\circ}{r} \rightarrow$ OI $\underset{\circ}{r}$	IE $\underset{\circ}{n} \rightarrow$ OI a (SY__N)
f.g.	IE $er \rightarrow$ OI ar (aā)	IE $en \rightarrow$ OI an (aā)
l.g.	IE $\bar{e}r \rightarrow$ OI $\bar{a}r$ (aā)	IE $\bar{e}n \rightarrow$ OI $\bar{a}n$ (aā)

Look at a few other examples about ablaut laws:

- ◇ IE $*es$ (“to be”) clearly shows in the full grade $as-ti$ (“he is”, compare Lat. *est*) and zero grade $s-anti$ (“they are”, compare Lat. *sunt*).
- ◇ OI i (“to go”) has full grade $\hat{e}-ti$ (“he goes”, with \hat{e} 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 $b\hat{a}ud-dha$ (“concerning understanding, Buddhist”).
- ◇ The Sanskrit term for lengthened grade vṛddhi goes back to vṛdh , $\text{vardh-a-t}\hat{e}$ (“to grow”). Funnily, vṛd-dhi is an example of the zero grade.
- ◇ Lat. *mens*, *mentis* (known from borrowed or foreign word *mental*) is cognate with Sanskrit zero grades $mati$ (“thought, idea”) and the past participle $mata$, where a stems from syllabic $\underset{\circ}{n}$ (**SY__N**). The full grade is represented by the neuter noun *manas*, while $m\bar{a}na$ (“opinion, intent”) shows the lengthened grade.
- ◇ English and German examples of ablaut are presented at pp. 71 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. Restricting attention to short syllabic nasals and liquids, the rule for syllabic nasals can be written as

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

Consider the OI examples *an-anta* (“without end”) and *a-gatika* (“without way out”), respectively. For syllabic liquids, the sound law reads

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

Examples are presented on pp. 69. Laryngeals affected these developments in particular manners as can be seen on pp. 30.

B.2.6. Resolution of syllabic conflicts

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

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

and then

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

or

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

Apparently, the following rule applies:

$$\mathbf{SY_Conf} \quad \text{Make the last syllabifiable sound syllabic!}$$

A second example is *karm-a-bhis* rather than u.at. *karanbhis* (p. 249).

This rule can be applied several times. Consider *yuv-a-ti* from (something like) IE *yuv-n-ti*, where, from right to left, the following development might be postulated:

$$\text{IE } *yuv-\underset{\circ}{n}-ti \\ \rightarrow yuv-a-ti \text{ (SY_Conf with respect to } \underset{\circ}{n} \text{)} \\ \rightarrow yu-v-ati \text{ (SV with respect to } v \text{)} \\ \rightarrow y-u-vati \text{ (SY_Conf with respect to } u \text{)} \\ \rightarrow y-uvati \text{ (SV with respect to } y \text{)}$$

B.2.7. Laryngeal sound laws

The sound laws

Laryngeals did not survive in OI as such. 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 $h_1 e/h_2 e/h_3 e$	→	IE $e/a/o$
	IE $iH/uH/eH/oH$	→	$\bar{i}/\bar{u}/\bar{a}/\bar{a}$
	IE $eiH/euH/\bar{e}iH/\bar{e}uH$	→	IE $ei/eu/\bar{e}i/\bar{e}u$ → DIPH
	IE CHC	→	CiC or CC (unclear conditions)

The first line is understandable from pp. 20. 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 $bh\bar{u}-ta$ (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 $bhav-i-tum$ (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 $da-dh-mas$ (“we set”) from IE $*de-dhh_1-mes$. The conditioning factors are difficult to discern. Compare s.v. $d\bar{a}$ (“to bind”) ← IE $*deH$ with the two zero grades

- ◇ $d-ya-ti \leftarrow$ IE $*dH-ye-ti$ and
- ◇ $a-di-ti \leftarrow$ IE $*\overset{\circ}{n}-dH-ti$

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

Lar__SY	IE $C\overset{\circ}{n}HC$	→	$C\bar{a}C$
	IE $C\overset{\circ}{m}HC$	→	$C\bar{a}mC$ (or $C\bar{a}C$)
	IE $C\overset{\circ}{m}HV$	→	$CamV$
	IE $C^{+lab}\overset{\circ}{r}H$	→	$C\bar{u}r$
	IE $C^{-lab}\overset{\circ}{r}H$	→	$C\bar{r}$

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

jan, *jāyatê* (“to be born”) is often considered a very irregular verb, with the PPP *jāta* and the agent noun *janitar* (“creator, progenitor”). Compare

- ◇ long \bar{a} 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) $*\acute{g}enH$ so that one regularly obtains

- ◇ zero grade OI PPP $j\bar{a}-ta \leftarrow \acute{g}\underset{\circ}{n}H-to$ according to sound law IE $C\underset{\circ}{n}H \rightarrow C\bar{a}$,
- ◇ zero grade OI $j\bar{a}-ya-tê \leftarrow \acute{g}\underset{\circ}{n}H-ye/o-tei$,
- ◇ full grade *jan-i-tar*, where the laryngeal turns into *i* between the consonants *n* and *t*.

The only “problem” may be the root *jan* itself. However, would you prefer to memorise $j\bar{a}$, *jāyatê* instead of *jan*, *jāyatê*?

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

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \mathbf{Lar_MTh} & \text{IE } CHiC & \rightarrow CiHC \\ & \text{IE } CHuC & \rightarrow CuHC \end{array}$$

The laryngeal vowel-gradation table

In line with the above sound laws, reconsider the table from pp. 28, but here with laryngeals:

	just $e+H$	semivowel $y+H$	semivowel $v+H$
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 $C^{+lab}\underset{\circ}{r}H \rightarrow$ OI $C\bar{u}r$ IE $C^{-lab}\underset{\circ}{r}H \rightarrow$ OI $C\bar{r}$	IE $C\underset{\circ}{n}H \rightarrow$ 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, one often encounters “*sêṭ* roots”. The word *sêṭ* derives from

B. Sound laws

◇ OI *sa* (“with”) and

◇ *iṭ* (which is the usual manner in which traditional Indian grammarians refer to the vowel *i*)

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

Many of the *sêṭ* roots ended in a laryngeal, like OI *bhū* or *jan*. In some grammatical forms, *i* is a reflex of the laryngeal (see the infinitives *bhav-i-tum* or *jan-i-tum*). Roots without *i* are “*an-iṭ* roots”, where *an-iṭ* ← *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 “*vêṭ* roots”, with *vā* (“or”).

B.2.8. Vowel 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 Indic. For these, the advantage of the modified transliteration will again be obvious:

VS	OI $\check{V}/\bar{V} + \check{V}/\bar{V}/SV$	→	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 $\hat{a}u$
	pret. augment $a + i/\bar{i}$	→	OI $\hat{a}i$
	pret. augment $a + u/\bar{u}$	→	OI $\hat{a}u$

VS rules partly contradict the IE-OI sound laws **DIPH** (p. 24). This is no problem because the latter refer to the development from Indo-European to Old Indic, while the former describe inner-Indic sound changes.

Consider the fourth line of **VS** and *atraiva* (as the standard spelling goes):

	<i>atra êva</i> (without vowel sandhi)
→	<i>atra aiva</i> (<i>ai</i> as short diphthong with <i>i</i>)
→	<i>atrâiva</i> (two short <i>a</i> have become one long \bar{a})
=	<i>atraiva</i> (usual spelling)

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

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

sā ôdanam pacati (without vowel sandhi)
 → *sā audanam pacati* (*au* as short diphthong with *u*)
 → *sâudanam pacati* (by $\bar{a} + a = \bar{a}$)
 = *saudanam pacati* (usual spelling)

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

êvam bhava iti vadati (without vowel sandhi)
 → *êvam bhavêti vadati* ($a + i = ê$)

or

ca iti (without vowel sandhi)
 → *cêti* ($a + i = ê$)

or

dêva-îśvara (compound, without vowel sandhi)
 → *dêvêśvara* ($a + \bar{i} = ê$)

or

mêgha-udakam (compound “cloud water → rain”, without vowel sandhi)
 → *mêghôdakam* ($a + u = ô$)

or

a-va-uc-a-t (aorist “he spoke”, without vowel sandhi)
 → *a-vôc-a-t* ($a + u = ô$)

Against the above rules, if the preterite augment short (!) *a* precedes *i/î/u/û*, one does not observe *ê* or *ô*, but *âi* and *âu*, respectively (see the last two lines of **VS**). Examples:

na îkṣatê (“he does not see”, without vowel sandhi) → *nêkṣatê* (**VS** 2. line)
 but *a-îkṣat* (“he did not see”, without vowel sandhi) → *âîkṣat* (**VS** 6. line)

or

têna uktam (“he said”, without vowel sandhi) → *tênôktam* (**VS** 3. line)
 but *a-uṣ-ma* (“we wished”, without vowel sandhi) → *âuṣ-ma* (**VS** 7. line)

In some aorist forms, we observe the same phenomenon, as in *âiṣīt* (“he wished”) from root *iṣ*.

For the first five lines of **VS**, many additional examples are easily found:

B. Sound laws

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

- ◇ *jalāśaya* (“stay of water → lake”) ← *jala* (“water”) + *āśaya* (“stay, sojourn”)
- ◇ *vêdānta* (“end of Vedic literature”) ← *vêda* (“theological knowledge, Veda”) + *anta* (“end”)
- ◇ *vātāyanam* (“window”) ← *vāta* (“wind”) + *ayanam* (“going, motion, hallway”) ← *i*
- ◇ *rāmāyaṇa* (name of an Indian epic) ← *rāma* (“name of Indian hero”) + *ayanam* (“going, motion, hallway”)
- ◇ *sārtha* (“caravan”) ← *sa* (“together with”) + *artha* (“wealth”)
- ◇ *sānanda* (“he with delight”) ← *sa* (“together with”) + *ānanda* (“delight”)
- ◇ *bhūtārtha* (“fact, issue”) ← *bhūta* (PPP of *bhū*) + *artha* (“meaning, purpose”)
- ◇ *êkāgra* (“one-pointed, focussed”) ← *êka* (“one, single”) + *agra* (“top, summit, beginning”)
- ◇ *gatāsu* (“with life gone away, dead”) ← *gata* (PPP of *gam*) + *asu* (“life”)

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

- ◇ *atīta* (“gone by”) ← *ati* + *i-ta* (PPP of *i*)
- ◇ *atīva* (“exceedingly, very”) ← *ati* + *iva*
- ◇ *vi-parīta* (“perverse, false”) ← *vi* + *pari* + *ita* (PPP of *i*)

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

- ◇ *sūкта* (“well said”) ← *su* (“good”) + *ukta* (PPP of *vac*, “to say”)
- ◇ *bāhūtkêpam* (“having thrown up ones arms”) ← *bāhu* (“arm”) + *ud* (preposition, “up”) + full grade of *kṣip* (“to throw”) + gerund suffix *am* (pp. 114)
- ◇ from *yuv-an* m. (“youngster”) instr. sg. *yū-n-ā* ← *yuv-n-ā*

$a/\bar{a} + i/\bar{i} \rightarrow ê$ (VS 2. line)

- ◇ *sam-upêta* (“provided with”) ← *sam* + *upa* + *i-ta* (PPP of *i*)
- ◇ *sêṭ* (“with *i*”) ← *sa* (“together with”) + *iṭ* (traditional expression for OI *i*)
- ◇ *vêṭ* (“with or without *i*”) ← *vā* (“or”) + *iṭ* (traditional expression for OI *i*)
- ◇ *prêtyêha* (“in the hereafter and here”) ← *pra-i* (“to go forward, to die”) + *tya* (gerundive suffix) + *iha* (“here”)

a/ā + u/ū → ô (VS 3. line)

- ◇ *êkônaviṃśati* (“20-1 = 19”) ← *êka* (“one, single”) + *ūna* (“incomplete”) + *viṃśati* (“twenty”)
- ◇ *hitôpadêśa* (name of a fable collection, “instruction on well-being”) ← *hita* (“well-being”, PPP of *dhā*) + *upa-dêśa* (“teaching”, see *diś*)
- ◇ *a-vôc-a-t* (aorist, 3. pers. sg. of *vac*, “he said”) ← **a-va-uc-a-t*

a/ā + ê → âi (VS 4. line)

- ◇ *êkâikaśas* adv. (“one by one”) ← *êka* (“one”) + *êka* + *śas* (adverbial suffix)

a/ā + ô → âu (VS 5. line)

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

$$\text{Lo} \quad \text{IE } oCV \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{OI } \bar{a}CV$$

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 IE vowels *a*, *e*, and *o* turn into OI *a*.
- ◇ Second, the syllable has to be open, i.e., 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.

B. Sound laws

Differently put, one obtains IE $o \rightarrow$ OI \bar{a} unless the syllable is heavy already, i.e., heavy by the existence of two consonants after o . Consider four classes of examples: First, 1. pers. pl. forms like *bhar-ā-mas* ← IE **bher-o-mes* show the long \bar{a} before m in an open syllable. (However, 1. pers. sg. forms like *bharāmi* do not fall under this heading because of Greek *pherō* and Latin *ferō*. Apparently, *mi* was added in Sanskrit after long \bar{o} which already indicates the 1. pers. sg.)

Second, causatives (with causative marker IE o) do also sometimes show long \bar{a} , this time before the liquid r :

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{IE } *mor\text{-}ey\text{-}e\text{-}ti \text{ (“he makes die, he kills”)} & \rightarrow m\bar{a}r\text{-}ay\text{-}a\text{-}ti \\ \text{but IE } *g\bar{o}nH\text{-}ey\text{-}e\text{-}ti \text{ (“she begets”)} & \rightarrow jan\text{-}ay\text{-}a\text{-}ti \end{array}$$

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, compare

√	1. pers. sg.		3. pers. sg.	
	IE	OI	IE	OI
<i>kr</i>	<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 the Sanskrit alternatives *ja-gām-a*, *ta-tān-a*, or *ca-kār-a*, respectively. However, these **L_o**-violating variants do not show up in the older Vedic language.

Fourth and finally, Brugmann does not apply in open syllables in absolute auslaut. See OI *pra* ← IE **pro* and OI *sa* ← IE **so*.

B.3. Consonants

B.3.1. Old Indic consonants

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

	-v/-asp	-v/+asp	+v/-asp	+v/+asp	nasals	sibilants
velars	<i>k</i>	<i>kh</i>	<i>g</i>	<i>gh</i>	<i>ṅ</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, voiceless (abbreviation: $-v$) and voiced ($+v$) representatives, both aspirated ($+asp$) and unaspirated ($-asp$), are found. 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 palatalisation

Reconsider a part of the IE table of plosives:

	$-v/-asp$	$+v/-asp$	$+v/+asp$
velars	k (SPal?)	g (SPal?)	gh (SPal?)
palatals	$k̑ \rightarrow$ OI s (PPal)	$g̑ \rightarrow$ OI j (PPal)	$gh̑ \rightarrow$ OI h (PPal)
dentals	t	d	dh
labials	p	b	bh
labio-velars	k^w (SPal?)	g^w (SPal?)	g^wh (SPal?)

Dentals and labials are basically unaffected by IE-OI sound changes. Both the IE table (see p. 20) and the OI table of plosives have palatals in their second rows. The development from IE palatals to OI ones is called primary palatalisation:

PPal	IE $k̑V$	\rightarrow	OI sV
	IE $g̑V$	\rightarrow	OI jV
	IE $gh̑V$	\rightarrow	OI hV
but SIB (p. 45)	IE $k̑s$ /IE $g̑s$	\rightarrow	OI $ks \rightarrow k̑s$ (RUKI)
	IE $s̑$	\rightarrow	OI cch
but BA	IE $k̑D^{-v}$	\rightarrow	OI kD^{-v}
but sz	IE $g̑P^{+v}$	\rightarrow	OI zP^{+v}
	IE $g̑P^{-v}$	\rightarrow	OI sP^{-v}

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

$$\text{IE } k̑mtóm \rightarrow \begin{cases} \text{OI } s̑atám \\ \text{OGr. } he-katon \\ \text{Lat. } centum \\ \text{Gth. } hund \end{cases}$$

or the one for “knee”:

$$\text{OI } j̑ānu \leftarrow \text{IE } *g̑enu/g̑onu \rightarrow \text{Lat. } genu \sim \text{E } knee$$

B. Sound laws

The following three verbs confirm the fifth line: OI *ch* (with *cch* within words after short vowels) goes back to IE **s^hk* as in

- ◇ *iṣ, icchati* (“to wish”) ~ E *ask* ~ OHG *eiscōn* → NHG *er-heischen* (“to ask for, to demand”)
- ◇ *gam, gacchati* (“to go”) ~ OGr. *baskō* ← IE **g^wm-s^hk*
- ◇ *pracch, pṛcchati* ~ NHG *forschen* ~ Lat. *pōscere, pōscō* (“to claim, to demand”) ← IE **pr^hk-s^hk* (where **CCI** gets applied before IE *s^hk* → OI *cch*)

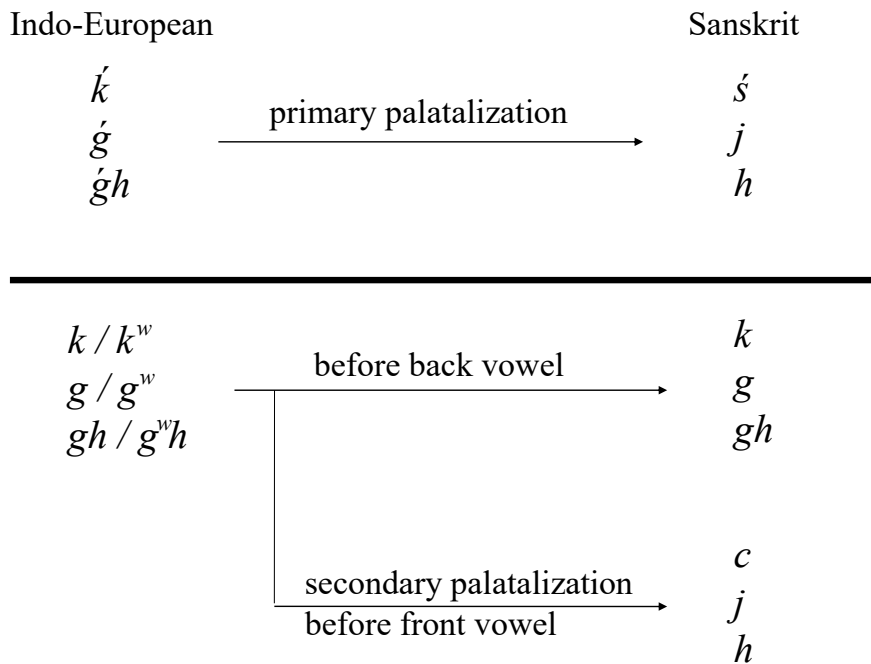


Figure B.2.: Primary and secondary palatalisation

Later on, within the Indo-Iranian language group, secondary palatalisation (**SPal**) set in. While **PPal** invariably occurs, **SPal** depends on whether an IE (!) front vowel (IE *e* or *i*) follows. Figure B.2 on p. 38 summarises the most important palatalisation laws. Secondary palatalisation is most clearly seen in reduplicated forms, for example in the reduplicated perfect:

√	3. pers. sg.	
	IE	OI
<i>kṛ</i>	<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 palatalisation are provided by

- ◇ OI *ca* ← IE **k^we* → Lat. *que*
- ◇ OI *jīva* ← IE **g^wīvo* (“living”) → Lat. *vīvus*
- ◇ OI *jahi* ← IE **g^wh_ṅ-hi*, which is difficult (see p. 176)

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 earned 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/ǵh-s</i>	→	<i>g-s</i> → <i>k-s</i> (BA) → <i>k-ṣ</i> (RUKI)
	IE <i>dh-s/th-s</i>	→	<i>d-s/t-s</i> → OI <i>t-s</i> (BA)
	IE <i>bh-s</i>	→	<i>b-s</i> → OI <i>p-s</i> (BA)

Some PPPs exhibit both aspiration shift and forward assimilation (voiceless *t* becoming voiced *d* which is then aspirated):

- ◇ *bud-dha* ← *budh-ta*
- ◇ *lab-dha* ← *labh-ta*

B. Sound laws

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 sibilants do not exist in Sanskrit. Therefore, two problems are encountered:

- ◇ 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 3. pers. sg.

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{IE } *lebh\text{-}sy\text{-}e\text{-}toi \text{ (f.g. with future in } sy) \\ \rightarrow & \text{ } labh\text{-}sy\text{-}a\text{-}tê \\ \rightarrow & \text{ } lap\text{-}sy\text{-}a\text{-}tê \text{ (ASh)} \end{aligned}$$

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. 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:

$$\text{DA} \quad \text{IE } C^{+asp} VC^{+asp} (V) \rightarrow \text{OI } C^{-asp} VC^{+asp} (V)$$

Reduplicated forms provide examples.

- ◇ From OI *bhū* (“to be”), one obtains the perfect *ba-bhūva* (“he was”).
- ◇ Verbs of class 3 are reduplicated and provide 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:

The second (originally aspirated) consonant *dh* is not aspirated any more. Therefore, deaspiration did not take place.

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**).

B.3.4. Assimilations

Introductory remark

All languages have assimilation rules. In the context of the Old Indic 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 cerebralisation. 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 palatalise or dentalise the preceding sound), a stalemate results: no assimilation takes place in *ṣaṭ-cakra* (“six chakras”) or *ṣaṭ-triṃśat* (“thirty-six”).

Backward assimilations

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

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>grāmād vanam</i> ← <i>grāmāt</i> + <i>vanam</i>
	nasalising of dentals	<i>tan mītram</i> ← <i>tad</i> + <i>mītram</i> <i>un-mārga m.</i> (“a wrong or evil way”) ← <i>ud-mārga</i> <i>annam</i> ← <i>ad-nam</i> (OI root <i>ad</i>) <i>ṣaṇ-māsa m.</i> (“period of six months”) ← <i>ṣaṭ-māsa</i>
	palatalisation	<i>tac chrutvā</i> ← <i>tad</i> + <i>śrutvā</i> <i>uccarati</i> ← <i>ud-carati</i>
	dentalisation	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.

B. Sound laws

Backward assimilation: *sz* soundlaw

For intermediate steps, three so-called *sz* laws are needed. *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. 50. An example for the third law, is provided by PPP *iṣ-ṭa* of OI *yaj* (“to sacrifice”):

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

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:

<i>a-bhar-an ca</i>	→	<i>a-bhar-aṃ-ś ca</i> (Ns)
<i>has-an ṭīkatê</i>	→	<i>has-aṃ-ṣ ṭīkatê</i>
<i>dêvān tatra</i>	→	<i>dêvāṃ-s tatra</i>

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. 53). 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. Consider these main classes:

1. Aspiration shift **ASh** (p. 39):

A prominent example is PPP *budh-ta* → *bud-dha*. Both aspiration and voice go forward.

2. Cerebralisation:

- ◇ of *s* after *i* and other sounds (**RUKI**, p. 43) as in loc. pl. *nadīṣu* of *nadī* (“river”)
- ◇ of dentals after *ś*, *ṣ*, or *z* (**CerD**, p. 44), for example, PPP *dṛṣ-ṭa* of OI root *dṛś* (“to see”)

- ◇ of *n* after *r* (**Cern**, p. 44) as in *maraṇam* (“death”)
- 3. Palatalisation of *n* after *j*:
 - ◇ The stem for “king” is *rāj-an* and the instr. sg. is *rāj-ñ-ā*.
 - ◇ The OI root *jñā* goes back to IE **ǵneh₃* (“to know”).

Forward cerebralisation: RUKI

One famous cerebralisation law is called after the sounds that precede OI *s*, leading to cerebralisation. 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. 24) 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*

The first line of the **RUKI** sound law is a summary of the above developments:

RUKI	OI <i>r/ṛ/u/ô/k/i/ê</i> + <i>s/z</i> not w.f., not bef. <i>P^{+v}</i>	→	OI <i>r/ṛ/u/ô/k/i/ê</i> + <i>ṣ/z</i>
	IE <i>ks</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 *duḥ-kham* (“misfortune”) does not fit the first line.

The second line seems clear from an example like *vaś* (“to wish”) with 2. pers. sg. pres. ind. *vak-ṣi* ← IE **vek^s-si*.

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

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

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

B. Sound laws

Forward cerebralisation: **CerD**

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

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \mathbf{CerD} & \text{OI } \text{\textit{s}}/\text{\textit{s}} + t/th & \rightarrow \text{OI } \text{\textit{s}} + \text{\textit{t}}/th \\ & \text{OI } \text{\textit{z}} + d/dh & \rightarrow \text{OI } \text{\textit{z}} + \text{\textit{d}}/dh \end{array}$$

The first line shows up in these examples:

- ◇ PPP *dr̥ṣ-ta* of OI root *dr̥s* (“to see”)
- ◇ OI *aṣṭā* ← IE *oktō* (“eight”)

Remember also PPP *iṣ-ta* of OI *yaj*, *yajatê* (“to sacrifice”):

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{IE } *i\acute{g}\text{-}to \text{ (z.g. with PPP marker } to) \\ \rightarrow \text{ } i\text{-}ta \text{ (} \mathbf{sz} \text{ before voiceless cons.)} \\ \rightarrow \text{ } i\text{\textit{s}}\text{-}ta \text{ (} \mathbf{RUKI} \text{)} \\ \rightarrow \text{ } i\text{\textit{s}}\text{-}ta \text{ (} \mathbf{CerD} \text{)} \end{array}$$

For the second line consider

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{IE } *misdho \\ \rightarrow \text{ } mizdha \text{ (} \mathbf{sz} \text{ before voiced cons.)} \\ \rightarrow \text{ } mi\text{\textit{z}}dha \text{ (} \mathbf{RUKI} \text{)} \\ \rightarrow \text{ } mi\text{\textit{z}}dha \text{ (} \mathbf{CerD} \text{)} \\ \rightarrow \text{ } m\bar{i}dha \text{ (} \mathbf{CpLz} \text{ 2. line)} \end{array}$$

Forward cerebralisation: **Cern**

The rules for the cerebralisation of *n* are complex. A rough summary is

$$\mathbf{Cern} \quad \text{OI } n \text{ after } r/\text{\textit{r}}/\bar{\text{\textit{r}}} \text{ not word-final} \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{OI } \text{\textit{n}}$$

Compare

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

Apparently, *r* 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, or cerebral, manner. If other sounds intervene between the *r* sounds and the *n*, cerebralisation may still occur. This is the case when the other sounds do not employ the tip of the tongue. Compare

- ◇ *rathēna* (instr. sg. of *ratha* (“carriage”)), where 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 <i>ś..s</i>	→	OI <i>ś..ś</i>
	OI <i>s..ś</i>	→	OI <i>ś..ś</i>
	OI <i>s..ş</i>	→	OI <i>ş..ş</i>

For the first line see IE **kasó* → u.at. *śasa* → *śaśa* (“hare”), by forward-assimilation. Backward assimilation is involved in the second line, where IE **svekuro* → u.at. *svaśura* → *śvaśura* (“father in law”) provides an example. For the third line, see s.v. *şat/şaş*.

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>şs</i>	→	OI <i>kş</i>
	PPal	← IE <i>k̑</i> , IE <i>k̑s</i>	→	OI <i>kş</i>
	SPal	← IE <i>k^w</i> , IE <i>k^ws</i>	→	OI <i>kş</i>
	PPal, sz	← IE <i>ǵ</i> , IE <i>ǵs</i>	→	OI <i>kş</i>
		IE <i>tǵ</i>	→	OI <i>kş</i>
		IE <i>dhǵh/dhǵ^wh</i>	→	OI <i>kş</i>
		IE <i>k^wk̑</i>	→	OI <i>kş</i>
	PPal	← IE <i>k̑</i> , IE <i>Vsk̑/Csk̑</i>	→	OI <i>Vcch/Cch</i>
		<i>sk̑</i> w.-i./ <i>sk</i> w.-i.	→	<i>ch</i> w.-i.
		IE <i>ȓsr</i>	→	OI <i>řcch</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>tuş</i>	to enjoy	<i>tôş-ţum</i>	<i>tôk-şy-a-ti</i>
<i>sprś</i>	to touch	<i>sparş-ţum, spraş-ţum</i>	<i>spark-şy-a-ti, sprak-şy-a-ti</i>
<i>vac</i>	to say	<i>vak-tum</i>	<i>vak-şy-a-ti</i>
<i>yaj</i>	to sacrifice	<i>yaş-ţum</i>	<i>yak-şy-a-ti</i>

B. Sound laws

Now turn to the dental-palatal clusters IE tk' and IE $dhgh$ in the 6. and 7. lines. By a series of regular, but not obvious sound laws, one obtains the two sound laws in the above table:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{IE } *tk' \\ \rightarrow & \quad t\acute{s} \text{ (PPal)} \\ \rightarrow & \quad \dot{t}s \text{ (a backward version of CerD)} \\ \rightarrow & \quad k\dot{s} \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{IE } *dhgh \\ \rightarrow & \quad dh\acute{z}h \text{ (some version of } sz) \\ \rightarrow & \quad d\acute{z} \text{ (ASH, } \acute{z} \text{ cannot be aspirated)} \\ \rightarrow & \quad \dot{t}s \text{ (a backward version of CerD, but unclear loss of voice)} \\ \rightarrow & \quad k\dot{s} \end{aligned}$$

They justify the derivations

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{IE } *h_2r\acute{t}k'o \\ \rightarrow & \quad \text{OI } r\acute{k}\acute{s}a \text{ ("bear"),} \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{IE } *dhghom \\ \rightarrow & \quad \text{Ved. } k\acute{s}am \text{ ("ground, earth")} \end{aligned}$$

respectively. For $dhg^wh \rightarrow k\dot{s}$, see s.v. *dah*.

For the fourth line from the bottom, see s.v. *cakṣ*. For the third last one, see *iṣ*, *gam*, or *pracch* in subsection B.3.2. In these three examples, there is a vowel (*i*, *m̐*, or *r̐*) before IE $(k)sk'$. 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 *kr̥cch-ra* from the OI root *kr̥ṣ* (see p. 130).

B.3.5. Consonant clusters and word-final consonants

Simplification of consonant clusters (CCI)

Old Indic 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:

$$\begin{array}{llll} \text{CCI} & \text{OI } VC_1C_2 \text{ word-final} & \rightarrow & \text{OI } VC_1 \\ & \text{OI } VC_1C_2C_3V \text{ word-interior} & \rightarrow & \text{OI } VC_2C_3V \end{array}$$

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 u.at. *marut-s* is expected. Instead, one finds nom. sg. *marut* (“wind”).
- ◇ Parasmâipada imperfect sg. of athematic verbs also present suitable examples:

√ 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 *bhikṣu* (“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**)
 → *bhik-ṣ-u* (**RUKI**)

Admissible 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	-v/-asp	-v/+asp	+v/-asp	+v/+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>kṣ</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>ḥ</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, pp. 115) 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>*leiǵh</i>	<i>madhu-liṭ</i> ← IE <i>*medhu-liǵh-s</i>	honey lick, bee
<i>mṛd</i>	<i>mṛt</i>	clay

B. Sound laws

OI stem	nom. sg.	translation
<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-rāt</i>	ruler

The loss of voice and aspiration is not surprising. Furthermore, the palatals may turn into *k* or *ṭ*. From the point of view of **PPal** and **SPal** (see pp. 37), the change into *k* is the expected one because these palatals originate from IE velar or IE palatals. Indeed, the palatalisation 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*, the development might have been

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

Avoidance of consonant clusters with resonant

Consonant clusters are simplified by **CCI** (see above) or by metathesis:

$$\text{MET_rSP} \quad \text{OI arSP} \rightarrow \text{OI raSP}$$

For example, the infinitive of *darś* is not *darṣtum*, but *draṣtum*. In this manner, the cluster *rṣṭ* 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, in case of OI *r* or *l*, one 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-a-ti* (“he wanders”) versus *cal-a-ti* (“he moves, he swings”)
- ◇ *rēkh-ā* (“line, strip, picture”) versus *lēkh-ā* (“line, strip, picture”), both of which are related to *likh-a-ti* (“he writes”)

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

Roots with and without initial *s*

A number of IE roots come in two versions, with and without word-initial *s*, which is then called *s* mobile. See OI *krt*, *carman*, *paśyati*, *nāga*, *lih*, and *stan* in the dictionary chapter.

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

Sprouting or deletion of sibilants between dentals

Furthermore, two odd rules for sibilants between dentals can be deduced. On the one hand, *z* (voiced sibilant) spontaneously emerges between voiced dentals (symbolised by D^{+v}). On the other hand, *s* (voiceless sibilant) is deleted between a plosive and a dental if at least one of them is not voiced:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \mathbf{DzD} & \text{IE } D^{+v}D^{+v} \rightarrow \text{OI } D^{+v}zD^{+v} \\ & \text{IE } PsD \rightarrow \text{OI } PD \end{array}$$

The first sound law (sprouting of *z* between voiced dentals) is exemplified on p. 52. The second one is obvious from the gerund *ut-thāya* from *ud-sthā*. It also has the support of the PPP *a-gdha* (“not eaten”) from the alpha privativum *a-* and from the OI root *ghas* or the IE root *ghes*

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{IE } *n\text{-ghs-to (z.g. with PPP marker to)} \\ \rightarrow a\text{-gh-ta (SY_N, DzD)} \\ \rightarrow a\text{-gdha (ASh)} \end{array}$$

The third example is the aorist *a-śap-dhvam* for u.at. *a-śap-s-dhvam* (p. 219).

anusvāra of *m* or *n* before *s*

Quite regularly, *m* or *n* before *s* turns into anusvāra:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \mathbf{Ns} & \text{OI } ms \rightarrow \text{OI } ṁs \\ & \text{OI } ns \rightarrow \text{OI } ṁs \end{array}$$

See the futures

◇ *raṁ-sy-a-tê* from root *ram* and

◇ *haṁ-sy-a-ti* from root *han*

B. Sound laws

Old Indic *h*

In contrast to the usual procedure (from IE to OI), consider the origins of Old Indic *h*. The following long list is somewhat disconcerting. OI *h* may regularly originate

- ◇ from IE palatal *ǵh* (**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*)

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 palatal (IE **kerd*)

And, finally, see the laryngeal subsection for *aham*, *duhitar*, and *mahi* (pp. 55).

B.3.7. Compensatory lengthenings

B.3.7.1. Compensatory lengthening for suppression of *z*

DIPH shows how OI *ê* and *ô* go back to IE diphthongs. There is another source for *ê* and *ô*, compensatory lengthening for the suppression of (voiced) *z* (in intermediate steps). The latter originates from (voiceless) *s* before vowels or voiced consonants by **sz** (p. 42). Here is a long list of sound laws, not all of them involving compensatory lengthening:

CpLz	OI <i>as</i> + <i>C^{+v}</i>	→ OI	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \hat{o}, \text{ w.-f.} \\ \hat{o}, \text{ not w.-f.} \\ \hat{e}, \text{ not w.-f., bef. } i \end{array} \right. \quad C^{+v}$
	OI <i>is</i> + <i>C^{+v}</i>	→ OI	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} ir, \text{ sandhi} \\ \bar{i}, \text{ not sandhi} \end{array} \right. \quad C^{+v}$
	OI <i>us</i> + <i>C^{+v}</i>	→ OI	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} ur, \text{ sandhi} \\ \bar{u}, \text{ not sandhi} \end{array} \right. \quad C^{+v}$
	OI <i>ās</i> + <i>C^{+v}/V</i>	→ OI	<i>ā</i> + <i>C^{+v}/V</i>
	OI <i>êz</i> or <i>ôz</i> not w.-f. + <i>C^{+v}/V</i>	→ OI	<i>ê</i> or <i>ô</i> + <i>C^{+v}/V</i>
	OI <i>as</i> + <i>a</i>	→ OI	<i>ô</i> + ∅ (sec. w.-i. <i>a</i> is deleted)
	OI <i>as</i> + <i>i/ī/u/ū/âi</i> etc.	→ OI	<i>a</i> + <i>i/ī/u/ū/âi</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

$$\begin{aligned} & naras\ dhāvati \text{ (without sandhi)} \\ \rightarrow & naraz\ dhāvati \text{ (sz before voiced stop)} \\ \rightarrow & narô\ dhāvati \text{ (CpLz)} \end{aligned}$$

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

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

and “thirteen” :

$$*trayas-daśa \rightarrow trayô-daśa$$

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

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

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

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{IE } *veǵh-tum \text{ (full grade and infinitive marker } tum) \\ \rightarrow & vaǵh-tum \text{ (aā)} \\ \rightarrow & vaǵ-dhum \text{ (ASh)} \\ \rightarrow & vaz-dhum \text{ (sz)} \\ \rightarrow & vô-dhum \text{ (CpLz)} \\ \rightarrow & vô-ḍhum \text{ (leveling with PPP } ūḍha, \text{ see below)} \end{aligned}$$

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

$$*as-dhi \rightarrow êdhi$$

Together with sound law **DzD**, consider par. imper. 2. pers. sg. of *dā* (“to give”):

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{IE } *da-dh_3-dhi \\ \rightarrow & da-ddhi \text{ (Lar_ V, p. 30)} \\ \rightarrow & da-dzdhi \text{ (DzD, p. 49)} \end{aligned}$$

B. Sound laws

- *da-zdhi* (**CCI**, p. 46)
- *daz-dhi*
- *dê-dhi* (**CpLz**)
- *dê-hi* (analogy)

The sandhi rules in the second and third lines may also apply within words, as in *hāvīrbhis* (see p. 236) or *dur-ga* (s.v. *dus*). In an earlier word-formation stage, compensatory lengthening applies. Consider *sīdati* from the root *sad* (“to sit”):

- sī-sd-ati* (reduplication with *i* and zero grade, without sandhi)
- *sī-zd-ati* (**sz** law before voiced cons.)
- *sī-zd-ati* (**RUKI**)
- *sī-zd-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 *nīḍam* or *mīḍham*.

Still with respect to the third line, consider this development that leads to the PPP of *vah* ← IE **veǵh*:

- IE **vǵh-to* (z.g. with PPP marker *to*)
- *uǵh-ta* (**SV**)
- *uǵ-dha* (**ASh**)
- *uz-dha* (**sz**)
- *uz-dha* (**RUKI**)
- *uz-ḍha* (**CerD**)
- *ū-dha* (**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. pres. ind. 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 ikṣantê* (without sandhi)
 → *narāz ikṣantê* (**sz**)
 → *narā ikṣantê* (**CpLz**, *ā* is already long)

The fifth line is seen in examples such as *lê-dhum* or *gô-dhum* (pp. 101). As in the first line, OI *as* turns to *ô* also before OI *a* (sixth line), but the latter is then deleted as in

- naras atra* (without sandhi)
 → *naraz atra* (**sz**)
 → *narô atra* (**CpLz**)
 → *narô 'tra* (*a* of second word drops)

In the seventh line (similar to the fourth one), before vowels other than *a*, *s* simply vanishes, without any lengthening:

- naras ikṣatê* (without sandhi)
 → *naraz ikṣatê* (**sz**)
 → *nara ikṣatê* (*z* drops)

B.3.7.2. Word-final compensatory lengthening

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

- | | | | |
|-------------|------------------|---|------------------|
| CpLr | OI <i>Vr + r</i> | → | OI <i>V̄ + r</i> |
| CpLs | OI <i>VCs</i> | → | OI <i>V̄ + C</i> |

The first line is exemplified by

- **punar rāmaḥ* → OI *punā rāmaḥ*

and partly explains

- **nêtar-s* → OI *nêtā* pp. 251

The second line is present in

B. Sound laws

* <i>bala-vant-s</i>	→	OI <i>bala-vān</i>	pp. 237
* <i>su-manas-s</i>	→	OI <i>su-manās</i>	pp. 235
* <i>gir-s</i>	→	OI <i>gīr</i>	
acc. pl. IE * <i>deiv-o-n-s</i>	→	<i>dēv-ān</i>	pp. 228
acc. pl. IE * <i>nei-tr_o-n-s</i>	→	<i>nê-tṛ-n</i>	pp. 251

Against **CpLs**, observe nom. sg.

* <i>bhar-ant-s</i>	→	OI <i>bhar-an</i> (CCI)	pp. 240
* <i>rāj-an-s</i>	→	OI <i>rāj-ā</i>	pp. 245
* <i>yôg-in-s</i>	→	OI <i>yôg-ī</i>	pp. 249
* <i>nê-tar-s</i>	→	OI <i>nê-tā</i>	pp. 251
* <i>pit-ar-s</i>	→	OI <i>pit-ā</i>	pp. 253

I do not have any explanation why *bhar-an* does not exhibit compensatory lengthening. Neither do I know why the nom. sg. *rāj-ā* through *pit-ā* lose the final consonants. This phenomenon is so evident that I suggest the label **CpL_{an-in-tar}** for it. After the suffixes mentioned, we witness compensatory lengthening in nominative singular, but also loss of the only remaining consonant:

$$\mathbf{CpL}_{an-in-ar} \quad an-s/in-s/ar-s \quad \rightarrow \quad \bar{a}/\bar{i}/\bar{a}$$

B.3.7.3. Compensatory lengthening for suppression of *d*

A rather special rule can be described as

$$\mathbf{CpL}d\acute{k} \quad Vd\acute{k} \quad \rightarrow \quad \bar{V} + \acute{k} \rightarrow \mathbf{PPal}$$

For examples, see the dictionary entries for OI desiderative root *dīkṣ* (s.v. *daśas*) 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 ensue.

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

- ◇ *s* following any vowel but *a* or *ā*
 - absolute final position: *agnis* → *agnih*

- before non-voiced initial that is
 - ⊙ a palatal stop: *haris* + *calati* → *hariś calati* (**BA**)
 - ⊙ a cerebral stop: *haris* + *ṭīkām karoti* → *hariṣ ṭīkām karoti* (**BA**)
 - ⊙ a dental stop: *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*
 - ⊙ *gatis* + *nāsti* → *gatir nāsti* (**CpLz** 2. line)
- ◇ *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 sound that is
 - ⊙ a consonant: *rāmas* + *gacchati* → *rāmo gacchati* (**CpLz** 1. line)
 - ⊙ vowel *a*: *rāmas* + *ayam* → *rāmo 'yam* (**CpLz** 6. line)
 - ⊙ other vowels: *rāmas* + *uvāca* → *rāma uvāca* (**CpLz** 7. line)
- ◇ *s* following *ā*
 - before voiced initial: *hatās* + *vīrās* → *hatā vīrāḥ* (**CpLz** 4. line)
 - otherwise (absolute final position, before non-voiced initial): *āḥ*

These rules bear the designation **Vis**.

B.3.9. Laryngeal sound laws

Laryngeals were involved in modifying some consonants:

Lar__CH	in general:	IE <i>CHV</i>	→	<i>CV</i>
	special cases:	IE <i>P^{+v}-asp h₂</i>	→	<i>P^{+v}+asp</i>
		IE <i>th₂/k^w h₂</i>	→	<i>th/kh</i>
		IE <i>ph₃</i>	→	<i>b</i>

B. Sound laws

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

- Lat./OGr. *egō*
- ← IE * $h_1 e\acute{g}oh_2/h_1 e\acute{g}oh_2m$
- *h₁eḡh₂om* (metathesis of *o* and h_2 , similar to **Lar_MTh**)
- *eḡhom* (**Lar_V**, **Lar_CH**)
- *ehom* (**PPal**)
- *aham* (**aā**)

and in the difficult cases of

- IE **dhug-h₂ter*
- *dhughiter* (**Lar_CH**, **Lar_V**, with two effects from one laryngeal)
- *dughiter* (**DA**)
- *dughitar* (**aā**)
- *duhitar* (**SPal**)

and

- OGr. *mega*
- ← IE **meḡh₂-os/meḡh₂*
- *meḡhi* (**Lar_CH**, **Lar_V**, with two effects from one laryngeal)
- *mehi* (**PPal**)
- *mahi* (**aā**)

For the second to last line, see *sthā*, *tiṣṭhati* (“to stand”) on p. 86 and *sakhi* in the dictionary. For the last line, see *pā*, *pi-ba-ti* (“to drink”) on p. 86.

B.4. Middle and New Indic

B.4.1. Introductory remark

The sound laws that differentiate Middle Indic (MI) from Old Indic (OI) are complicated and differ between the Middle Indic languages. When looking for Middle Indic examples, Pali (Pa.) is mostly adduced, but sometimes also Prakrit (Pkt.). Classical Sanskrit is not a predecessor of Pali or of (a) Prakrit, but is more conservative than these Middle Indic languages in most respects. Counterexamples exist such as Pa. *idha* (“here”) versus OI (even Ved.) *iha* which is “newer” (see the origins of OI *h* on p. 50). Or consider the thematic present tense participle OI and Ved. *a-māna* (see p. 154). While acknowledging

that Middle Indic is sometimes more conservative than Sanskrit, I still feel justified to use the arrow \rightarrow in

$$\text{OI } \textit{ava} \rightarrow \text{MI } \textit{o}$$

or

$$\text{OI } \textit{dugdha} \rightarrow \text{Pa. } \textit{duddha}$$

In contrast to my usual procedure of citing neuter *a* nouns like *phalam* with the ending *m*, I just employ the stem form *phala* in the upcoming comparisons with Middle and New Indic.

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 *ê* and *ô* are also preserved. Remember that these OI vowels are long. In Middle Indic, one finds both short and long *e* and *o* that are here distinguished in writing by *ě* or *ē*, and *ō* or *ō̄*, respectively.

Now, MI *ē* and *ō̄* basically have three origins:

$$\text{OI } \textit{ê}/\textit{âi}/\textit{aya} \rightarrow \text{MI } \textit{ē}$$

$$\text{OI } \textit{ô}/\textit{âu}/\textit{ava} \rightarrow \text{MI } \textit{ō̄}$$

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

$$\text{OI } \textit{tâila} \text{ (“oil”) } \rightarrow \text{Pa. } \textit{tēla} \sim \text{Pkt. } \textit{tēlla}$$

Since OI *p* may develop into MI *v*, the following corollary to the above sound law results:

$$\text{OI } \textit{apa} \rightarrow \text{MI } \textit{ō̄}$$

MI *ē* has additional sources:

$$\text{OI } \textit{āyi}/\textit{ayi}/\textit{avi} \rightarrow \text{MI } \textit{ē}$$

Thus, OI long diphthongs *âi* or *âu* are not preserved in Middle Indic.

B. Sound laws

The law of morae

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

- ◇ Pa. *upēkkhā* (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. *ēkka*
- ◇ OI *ēvam* (“thus”) → Pkt. *ēvvaṃ*
- ◇ OI *tāila* (“oil”) → Pkt. *tēlla*
- ◇ OI *yâuvana* (“youth”) → Pkt. *jôvvaṇa*

In summary:

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \text{LawOfMorae} & \text{OI } \bar{V}CC & \rightarrow \text{MI } \check{V}CC/\bar{V}C \\ & \text{OI } \bar{V}C & \rightarrow \text{MI } \check{V}CC \end{array}$$

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 semivowel (*SV*). The inserted vowel is often *i*:

$$\begin{array}{lcl} \text{OI } RC & \rightarrow & \text{MI } RiC \\ \text{OI } CR & \rightarrow & \text{MI } CiR \end{array}$$

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

- ◇ near semivowel *v* or
- ◇ near labials

This phenomenon is called anaptyxis or, in Sanskrit, svarabhakti. Consider these examples:

- ◇ OI *klinna* (PPP of *klid*, “to get wet”) → Pkt. *kiliṅṇa* (see also p. 60)
- ◇ OI *varṣa* (“year”) → Pkt. *varisa* (together with OI *ś/ṣ/s* → MI *s*)
- ◇ OI *padma* (“lotus”) → Pa. *paduma* ~ Pkt. *paüma*
- ◇ OI *śvas* (“tomorrow”) → Pkt. *suvo* (near semivowel *v*)
- ◇ OI *smarati* (“he remembers”) → Pa. *sarati* ~ Pkt. *sumaradi* (near labial *m*)
- ◇ OI *harṣa* (“joy, delight”) → Pkt. *harisa*

Vocalic \dot{r}

OI \dot{r} turns into *i*, *a*, or *u*:

$$\text{OI } \dot{r} \rightarrow \text{MI } \begin{cases} i, & \text{after or before light vowel} \\ u, & \text{after labial} \\ i/a, & \text{otherwise} \end{cases}$$

as can be seen in these examples:

- ◇ OI \dot{r} → MI *i* after or before front vowel
 - OI $\dot{r}\dot{s}i$ (“seer”) → Pa. *isi*
 - OI $k\dot{r}mi$ (“worm”) → Pa. *kimi* (see also pp. 65)
 - u.at. $\acute{s}r\dot{t}hra$ (“loose”, *ra*-adjective of $\acute{s}rath$ (“to loosen, to resolve”)) → Pkt. *sithira* (in the R̥gveda!), also a svarabhakti example
- ◇ OI \dot{r} → MI *u* after labial
 - OI $p\dot{r}c\dot{c}hati$ (“he asks”) → Pa. *pucchati*
- ◇ OI \dot{r} → MI *i/a* otherwise
 - OI $\dot{r}\dot{n}a$ (“debt”) → Pa. *iṇa*
 - OI $k\dot{r}ta$ (PPP of $k\dot{r}$) → Pkt. *kida*
 - OI $g\dot{r}ha$ (“house”) → Pa. *gaha*
 - OI $bh\dot{r}ta$ (“servant”) → Pa. *bhata* (but *u* after labial expected)

B.4.3. Consonants**General rules**

Turning to consonants, their development is often complicated and differs between Middle Indic languages. A rough outline of major phonetic changes is given, before turning to examples:

- ◇ *n* is typically cerebralised, *d* and *t* are often cerebralised near *r* or \dot{r} .
- ◇ 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.

B. Sound laws

- ◇ Intervocalic non-aspirated gutturals, palatals and dentals, both unvoiced and voiced, often disappear.
- ◇ In clusters,
 - when two plosives meet, backward assimilation is applied;
 - when different types of sounds meet, assimilation (backward or forward) occurs according to some hierarchy given below.

The following individual rules roughly follow the above order.

Cerebralisation

- ◇ Dentals often become cerebral:
 - OI *patita* (PPP of *pat*, “to fall”) → Pkt. *paḍida*
 - OI *prathama* (“first, prior, principal”) → Pkt. *paḍhama*
- ◇ *n* is often cerebralised as in
 - OI *nayana* (“driving, eye”) → Pkt. *ṇaṇa*
 - OI *bhōjana* (“eating, nutrition”) → Pkt. *bhoṇa*

Other cerebral peculiarities

Sometimes lenition occurs, as in

$$\text{MI } t/\text{ṭh}/\text{th} \rightarrow \text{MI } ḍ/\text{ḍh}/\text{dh}$$

This development is best seen as one occurring within Middle Indic:

- ◇ 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. *kīḷā*

Convergence of the three sibilants

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

$$\text{OI } ś/\text{ṣ}/\text{s} \rightarrow \text{MI } s$$

Examples are

- ◇ OI *pra-viś-a-ti* (“he enters”) → Pa. *pa-vis-a-ti*
- ◇ OI *bhāṣatê* (“he speaks”) → Pa. *bhāṣati*
- ◇ OI *śaśa* (“hare”) → Pa. *sasa*
- ◇ OI *śiṣya* (“pupil”) → Pa. *sissa* (see also pp. 65)

Aspiration, compensatory and otherwise

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

$$\begin{aligned} \text{OI } sp &\rightarrow \text{MI } ph \\ \text{OI } k\dot{s} &\rightarrow \text{MI } kh \end{aligned}$$

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

- ◇ OI *kṣatriya* (“warrior”) → Pkt. *khattia*
- ◇ OI *kṣipta* (PPP of OI *kṣip*) → Pkt. *khitta*
- ◇ OI *sprśati* (“touches”) → Pa. *phusati* ~ Pkt. *phusai*

Alternatively, one finds *ch* rather than *kh*, as in

- ◇ OI *kṣatta* (“wounded”) → Pa. *khatta* → Pkt. *chaya/khaya*
- ◇ OI *kṣetra* (“field”) → Pa. *khētta* → Pkt. *chētta/khētta*

After a vowel, both compensatory aspiration for deleted *s* and compensatory doubling are witnessed:

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

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

- ◇ OI *kubja* (“crooked, bent”) → Pkt. *khujja*
- ◇ Skt./Pkt. *vaṭa* (“fig tree”) → u.at. *vaṭha* → Pkt. *vaḍha*

Intervocalic lenition or loss of non-aspirated plosives

Between vowels, observe

$$\begin{aligned} \text{OI } g/j/d &\rightarrow \text{MI } \emptyset \\ \text{OI } k/c/t &\rightarrow \text{MI } \emptyset \end{aligned}$$

Note that these plosives sometimes remain or that the unvoiced ones become voiced as in

$$\text{OI } t \rightarrow \text{MI } d$$

Examples:

- ◇ OI *avalōkita* (“looked at”) → Pkt. *ōlōia*

B. Sound laws

- ◇ OI *ēti* (“he goes”) →
 - Śaurasenī Pkt. *ēdi*
 - Māhārāṣṭrī Pkt. *ēi*
- ◇ OI *nakula* (“mongoose”) → Pkt. *naūla*
- ◇ OI *nagara* (“town”) → Pkt. *naɣara* (where *y* occurs to avoid hiatus)
- ◇ OI *bhōjana* (“eating, nutrition”) → Pkt. *bhoṇa*
- ◇ OI *latā* (“creeper”) →
 - Śaurasenī Pkt. *ladā*
 - Māhārāṣṭrī Pkt. *laā*
- ◇ OI *lōka* (“world”) →
 - Śaurasenī Pkt. *lōga*
 - Māhārāṣṭrī Pkt. *lōa*
- ◇ OI *śāuca* (“cleanness”) → Pkt. *sōa*
- ◇ OI *sakala* (“total, complete”) → Pkt. *saala*
- ◇ OI *hita* (PPP of *dhā*) →
 - Śaurasenī Pkt. *hida*
 - Māhārāṣṭrī Pkt. *hia*

Examples for voiced consonants that replace 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

OI *k/c/t* → MI ∅

OI *g/j/d* → MI ∅

the following corollary results:

OI *kh/gh* → MI *h*
 OI *th/dh* → MI *h*
 OI *ph/bh* → MI *h*

Consider these examples:

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

But *ph* may be retained at the beginning of a second member of a compound:

- ◇ OI *citra-phalaka* (“painting”) → Pkt. *citta-phalaa*

In the OI root *bhū*, observe MI *h* for *bh*:

- ◇ OI and Pa. *bhav-a-ti* (“he is”) versus Pkt. *hō-ti* or even *hō-ī*
- ◇ OI *bhav-i-ṣy-a-ti* (“he will be”) → Pkt. *hav-i-ss-a-di* (see pp. 65)

Consonants: initial palatalisation

In the beginning of words, palatal sounds evolve in Middle Indic through different avenues. The sound law

OI *y* → MI *j*

can readily be witnessed in

- ◇ OI *yathā* → Pkt. *jathā*
- ◇ OI *yuddha* (“battle”) → Pkt. *juddha*
- ◇ OI *yôgī* → Pkt. *jôgī*

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

B. Sound laws

Dentals together with *y* may also produce palatals:

OI <i>ty</i>	→	MI <i>c</i>
OI <i>dy</i>	→	MI <i>j</i>
OI <i>dhy</i>	→	MI <i>jh</i>

Consider these examples:

- ◇ OI *tyāga* (“abandonment”) → Pa. *cāga*
- ◇ OI *dyūta* (“gambling”) → Pa. *jūta*
- ◇ OI *dhyāna* (“meditation”) → Pa. *jhāna*

Consonants: other peculiarities

OI *p* may develop into *v* or may be dropped:

- ◇ OI *rūpa* (“form, beauty”) → Pkt. *rūa*

OI *y* tends to be dropped:

- ◇ OI *priya* (“dear, pleasant”) → Pkt. *pīa*
- ◇ OI *vi-yôga* (“disjunction, separation”) → Pkt. *vi-ôa*

Clusters: Backward assimilation for non-palatal plosives

If two non-palatal plosives meet, the first is assimilated to the second as in the sound law

OI <i>pt</i>	→	MI <i>tt</i>
--------------	---	--------------

It is easy to find examples, such as

- ◇ 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. It turns out that a hierarchy of sounds provides a generalisation of many different sound laws. This is the hierarchy:

$$P^{-\text{pal}} > S > N > P^{+\text{pal}} > l > v > y > r$$

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.

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 *tri-lôka* (“three worlds”) → Pkt. *ti-lôa*
- ◇ OI *dur-bala* (“weak”) → Pkt. *dub-bala*
- ◇ OI *dr̥ṣ-ti* (“sight”) → Pkt. *diṭ-ṭhi*
- ◇ OI *dr̥ś-ya* (“visible”) → Pkt. *das-sa*
- ◇ OI *dvi-ja* (“twice born”) → Pa. *di-ja*
- ◇ OI *pakva* (“cooked, ripe”) → Pa. *pakka*
- ◇ OI *bhartā* → MI *bhatta*
- ◇ OI *yôg-yā* (“exercise”) → Pa. *yôg-gā* (law of morae)
- ◇ OI *rātri* (“night”) → Pa. *ratti* (law of morae)
- ◇ OI *śak-nô-ti* (“he is able”) → Pa. *sak-kô-ti*

Palatals are weaker than nasals:

- ◇ OI *ā-jñā-p-aya-ti* (“he orders”) → Pkt. *ā-ṇā-v-ē-di*
- ◇ OI *yaj-ñā* (“sacrifice”) → Pkt. *jaṇ-ṇa*

B. Sound laws

Sibilants occupy second position in hierarchy:

- ◇ OI *īśvara* (“lord”) → Pa. *issara*
- ◇ OI *drś-ya* (“visible”) → Pkt. *das-sa*
- ◇ OI *varṣa* (“year”) → 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-tīrṇa* (“come down”, PPP of *tīr*, see p. 127) → Pkt. *ō-īṇṇa*
- ◇ OI *karṇa* (“ear”) → Pa. *kaṇṇa*
- ◇ OI *priya* (“dear, pleasant”) → Pa. *pia*
- ◇ OI *grāma* (“village”) → Pa. *gāma*
- ◇ OI *cakra* (“wheel”) → Pa. *cakka*
- ◇ OI *dur-labha* (“difficult to obtain”) → Pa. *dul-labha*
- ◇ OI *dharma* (“religion, duty”) → Pa. *dhamma*
- ◇ OI *putra* (“son”) → Pa. *putta*
- ◇ OI *mārga* (“path”) → Pkt. *magga*
- ◇ OI *vajra* (“thunderbold”) → Pkt. *vajja*
- ◇ OI *varga* (“class, tribe”) → Pa. *vagga*
- ◇ OI *vipra* (“Brahmin”) → Pa. *vippa*
- ◇ OI *vyagra* (“indifferent, undisturbed”) → Pa. *vagga*
- ◇ OI *vrihi* (“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*
 - ◇ OI *dyūta* (“gambling”) → Pa. *jūta*
 - ◇ OI *dhyāna* (“meditation”) → Pa. *jhāna*
2. Cluster *kṣ* may yield *kh* as in OI *kṣatriya* (“warrior”) → Pkt. *khattia*
3. Nasals before plosives remain:
 - ◇ OI *aṅka* (“mark, sign”) → Pa. *aṅka*
 - ◇ OI *kampa* (“tremble”) → Pa. *kampa*
 - ◇ OI *danta* (“tooth”) → Pa. *danta*
 - ◇ OI *pañca* (“five”) → Pa. *pañca*
 - ◇ OI *mantra* (“spell”) → Pa. *manta*

B.4.4. A few New Indic developments

Building on MI features, the modern Indic languages developed. With respect to Hindi (Hi.), three major developments occurred:

1. Middle Indic double consonants are simplified with two effects:
 - a) The preceding vowel is lengthened (compensatory lengthening).
 - b) In Hindi, 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.
3. In Apabhraṃśa, Middle Indic final long vowels are shortened. In New Indic, final short vowels are lost.

Together, these three developments clearly show in these examples.

- ◇ Double consonants simplified without nasalisation:
 - OI *dug-dha* (“milk”) → Pa. *dud-dha* → Hi. *dūdh*
 - OI *rātri* (“night”) → Pa. *ratti* → Hi. *rāt*
 - OI *sapta* (“seven”) → Pa. *satta* → Hi. *sāt*
- ◇ Double consonants simplified with nasalisation (where \tilde{a} stands for nasalised \bar{a}):
 - OI *akṣi* n. (“eye”) → Pkt. *akkhi* → Hi. $\tilde{a}kh$

B. Sound laws

- OI *sarpa* (“serpent”) → Pa. *sappa* → Hi. *sāp*
- ◇ Nasal lost under nasalisation and compensatory lengthening:
- OI *aṅka* (“mark, sign”) → Pa. *aṅka* → Hi. *āṅk*
 - OI *kampa* (“tremble”) → Pa. *kampa* → Hi. *kāp*
 - OI *danta* (“tooth”) → Pa. *danta* → Hi. *dāt*
 - OI *pañca* (“five”) → Pa. *pañca* → Hi. *pāc*

B.5. Sound laws of other IE languages

Linking Sanskrit words to words in English or German, or to Latin and Old Greek foreign words is helpful in learning the abundant Sanskrit vocabulary. Therefore, a summary of the important sound laws involving these languages is in order. Many of the sound laws for Old Indic have already been considered in the previous sections.

B.5.1. Vowels and diphthongs

The most dramatic vowel change 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,

$$\text{IE } *bher \rightarrow \begin{cases} \text{OI } bhar- \\ \text{OGr. } pher- \\ \text{Lat. } fer- \\ \text{E } bear \end{cases}$$

Concentrating on a few vowel changes, note, for Latin, the sound law:

$$\begin{array}{ll} \text{LAT_V} & \text{IE } e \text{ before } u \text{ or } v \rightarrow \text{Lat. } o \\ & \text{OLat. } ei \rightarrow \text{Lat. } \bar{i} \end{array}$$

With respect to the first line, consider the example of IE **nevos* (“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 *Neo-lithic*.

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

On top, consider these developments for New High German:

NHG_V	IE <i>a/o</i> → NHG <i>a</i>
	IE <i>ā/ō</i> → NHG <i>ū</i>
	IE <i>e</i> → NHG <i>i</i>

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 in the pronounced, not the written, German:

- ◇ Lat. *cārus* (“dear”, Fr. *cher*) ~ E *whore* ~ NHG *Hure*
- ◇ IE **bhrātēr* → Lat. *frāter* ~ NHG *Bruder*

And here two examples for the third line:

- ◇ IE **bhendh* → OI *bandh* ~ NHG *binden*
- ◇ IE **esti* → Lat. *est* ~ OI *asti* ~ NHG *ist*

B.5.2. Syllabic Indo-European nasals and liquids

Here come the sound laws for short syllabic nasals:

IE_SY_N	IE $\overset{\circ}{n}/\overset{\circ}{m}$ →	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{OI} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} an/am \text{ bef. vowel} \\ a/a \text{ otherwise} \end{array} \right. \\ \text{OGr.} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} an/am \text{ bef. vowel} \\ a/a \text{ otherwise} \end{array} \right. \\ \text{Lat.} \left\{ \begin{array}{l} in/im \text{ word-initial} \\ en/em \text{ otherwise} \end{array} \right. \\ \text{E } un/um \sim \text{NHG } un/um \end{array} \right.$
----------------	--	---

A very instructive example is the negating prefix IE $\overset{\circ}{n}$.

- ◇ Sanskrit examples between consonants or word-initial before consonant: *a-gatika* (“without way out”), *a-putra* (“without son”)
- ◇ Sanskrit examples before vowel: *an-anta* (“without end”), *an-ātma-jñā* (“not knowing oneself”)

B. Sound laws

- ◇ Germanic examples: NHG *un-gläubig*, E *un-happy*, E *un-believable*
- ◇ OGr. B English *a-theist*, *an-archy*
- ◇ Lat. B English *in-effective*, *im-perfect*

Sometimes, mixtures are encountered such as

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

The past participle is built with the zero grade. Compare NHG *ge-bund-en* with OI *bad-dha*, both from IE **bh₀ndh*.

Syllabic liquids follow these sound laws:

$$\text{IE_SY_L} \quad \text{IE } r_{\circ}/l_{\circ} \rightarrow \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{OI} \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} r \text{ or } l (!) & \text{between cons.} \\ ur/ur & \text{before vowels, after labials} \\ ir/ir (?) & \text{before vowels, not after labials} \end{array} \right. \\ \text{OGr.} \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} ar/al & \text{bef. vowel} \\ (ra, ar)/(la, al) & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right. \\ \text{Lat.} \left\{ \begin{array}{ll} (or, ur)/(ol, ul) & \text{betw. cons.} \\ er/el & \text{otherwise} \end{array} \right. \\ \text{E } or/ol \sim \text{NHG } or/ol \end{array} \right.$$

Consider a few examples:

- ◇ IE **wr₀k^w* → OI *vṛka* ~ E *wolf* ~ NHG *Wolf*
- ◇ IE **dr₀k̑* → OI *dȓs*
- ◇ IE **g^wr₀u* → OI *guru* ~ OGr. *baru* as in the B *baro-meter*
- ◇ IE **plh₁u* → OI *puru*

Note the remaining word-initial *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, weak and strong verbs are distinguished. 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 NHG *werden* with

full grade *er*: *werden* (“to become”)

o-grade *or*: *ward* (“he became”), *a* as in IE **oktō* → NHG *acht*

zero grade *r̥*: *geworden* (PPP “become”), *o* as in NHG *Wolf* above

According to this pattern, the following forms might be due to sound laws or analogy:

◇ *werben, warb, geworben*

◇ *werfen, warf, geworfen*

◇ *bergen, barg, geborgen*

◇ *sterben, starb, gestorben*

◇ *helfen, half, geholfen*

With *n* instead of *r*, compare

full grade *en*: *finden* (“to find”)

o-grade *on*: *fand* (“he found”), *a* as in IE **oktō* → NHG *acht*

zero grade *n̥*: *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. Sound laws

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. Here are the more interesting sound laws:

OGR	IE <i>bh/dh/gh</i>	→ OGr. <i>ph/th/ch</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. \emptyset
	IE <i>s</i>	→ OGr. <i>h</i>

The first line is responsible for the fact that Old Greek foreign words (B stands for borrowing) are recognisable by *ph/th/ch*:

- ◇ *ph*: B *philosophy*, *phobia*
- ◇ *th*: B *theology*, *theatre*, *mathematics*
- ◇ *ch*: B *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. For example, *g^wh* before *e* finally turns into *th* as in OGr. B *thermic* (s.v. *gharma*).

For the fifth line of **OGR** compare

- ◇ Lat. *vox* with OGr. B *epic* (s.v. *vac*)
- ◇ Lat. B *vicinity* with OGr. B *economics*
- ◇ OI *kravis* with OGr. *kreas* ← IE **kreh₂s-*

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

Lat. <i>sex</i>	~	OGr. <i>hex</i> (as in <i>hexagon</i>)
Lat. <i>septem</i>	~	OGr. <i>hepta</i> (as in <i>heptagon</i>)
it. B <i>sal-to</i>	~	OGr. <i>hal-ma</i> (also a board game)
E <i>same</i>	~	OGr.-Lat. B <i>homo-sexual</i>

Lat. B *semi-final* ~ OGr. B *hemi-sphere*

Lat. B *serpent* ~ OGr. B *herpes* (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:

OGR_DA IE $C^{+asp} VC^{+asp}$ → OI $C^{-asp} VC^{+asp}$

In Latin, the development IE *bh/dh/gh* is complicated. It pays to remember

LAT_f IE *bh/dh/gh* word-initial → Lat. *f*

For example, IE **bhreg* leads to the Lat. Bs *frag-ile* or *fraction*. Second, IE g^w lost the velar element:

LAT_v IE g^w word-initial → Lat. *v*

See Lat. B *vital* (s.v. *jīv*).

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

LAT_sr IE *s* intervocalic → Lat. *r*

See Lat. B *vīrus* (s.v. *viṣa*).

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

LAT_DD IE *DD* → 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:

GER IE $p/t/k$ → Germ. $f/þ/h$
 IE $b/d/g$ → Germ. $p/t/k$
 IE $bh/dh/gh$ → Germ. $b/d/g$

where $þ$ (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*
 - It. *gelato* (“ice”) ~ E *cold*
- ◇ Voiced aspirated sounds lose the aspiration as in IE **bhreg* → Lat. B *frag-ile* ~ E *break*.

B.5.5. Consonants: From Germanic 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 Germanic 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	{	<i>s/ss</i> after vowel <i>ts</i> (written <i>z</i>) otherwise	
	Germ. <i>k</i>	→	NHG	{	<i>ch</i> after vowel <i>k</i> otherwise	
	Germ. <i>p</i>	→	NHG	{	<i>f/ff</i> after vowel <i>pf</i> otherwise	
	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, English (rather than Germanic or Gothic) can be fruitfully compared 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> (“fence”)	E <i>timber</i> ~ NHG <i>Zimmer</i> (“room”)
E <i>tide</i> ~ NHG <i>Zeit</i> (“time”)	E <i>tongue</i> ~ NHG <i>Zunge</i>
E <i>tear</i> ~ NHG <i>zerren</i>	E <i>fif-ty</i> ~ NHG <i>fünf-zig</i>
E <i>till</i> ~ NHG <i>Ziel</i> (“aim”)	E <i>ten</i> ~ NHG <i>zehn</i>

The second line of **NHG_C** concerns Germ. *k*. A word-initial change is observed in Switzerland. For other High German speakers, a change occurs only “after vowel”:

E <i>weak</i> ~ NHG <i>weich</i> (“soft”)	E <i>break</i> ~ NHG <i>brechen</i>
E <i>duck</i> ~ NHG <i>tauchen</i> (“to dive”)	E <i>seek</i> ~ NHG <i>suchen</i>
E <i>lock</i> ~ NHG <i>Loch</i> (“hole”)	E <i>spoke</i> ~ NHG <i>Speiche</i>
Lat. <i>cocus</i> → B <i>cook</i> ~ NHG <i>Koch</i>	Lat. <i>sīcilis</i> → B <i>sickle</i> ~ NHG <i>Sichel</i>

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

Now turn to the remaining unvoiced unaspirated sound, *p*. Similar to *t*, there are 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>

If a clear Latin-Germanic equation involving the second consonant shift exists, the borrowing occurred after the first consonant shift, but before the second consonant shift as in

- ◇ Lat. *planta* → B English *plant* ~ NHG *Pflanze*
- ◇ Latin *piper* → B English *pepper* ~ NHG *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, 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 <i>dünkt</i>)	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* consider these examples:

E <i>bed</i> ~ NHG <i>Bett</i> (“bed”)	E <i>drink</i> ~ NHG <i>trinken</i>
E <i>bed</i> ~ NHG <i>Beet</i> (“bed, patch”)	E <i>duck</i> ~ NHG <i>tauchen</i> (“to dive”)
E <i>board</i> ~ NHG <i>Brett</i>	E <i>deer</i> ~ NHG <i>Tier</i> (“animal”)
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> (“courage”)
E <i>deep</i> ~ NHG <i>tief</i>	E <i>daughter</i> ~ NHG <i>Tochter</i>

B. Sound laws

E <i>door</i> ~ NHG <i>Tür</i>	E <i>tide</i> ~ NHG <i>Zeit</i> (“time”)
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 (leading to new, refined rules):

1. Germ. *t* remains after *f*, *s*, or *ch*:
 - ◇ Lat. *captivus* ~ NHG *Haft*
 - ◇ E *stone* ~ NHG *Stein*, but not u.at. *stsein* (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)
 - ◇ E *to fight* ~ NHG *fechten* (“to fence”)
 - ◇ E *eight* ~ NHG *acht*
2. Germ. *t* remains before *r*: E *tree*, *true* ~ NHG *Treue* (“loyalty”), *Trost* (“consolation”) (*t* → *ts* is repressed—just try to pronounce u.at. *tsreue* or u.at. *tsrost*)
3. Germ. *d* remains after *n*: E *hound* ~ NHG *Hund*
4. Germ. *k* or *t* are not shifted if *r* follows immediately
 - ◇ E *acre* ~ NHG *Acker* (“field”)
 - ◇ E *bitter* ~ 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> (“body”)	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>	E <i>leaf</i> ~ NHG <i>Laub</i> (“foliage”)
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> (“to die”)
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:

E to <i>fight</i> ~ NHG <i>fechten</i> (“to fence”)	E <i>night</i> ~ NHG <i>Nacht</i>
E <i>knight</i> ~ NHG <i>Knecht</i> (“farmhand”)	E <i>weight</i> ~ NHG <i>Ge-wicht</i>
E <i>plight</i> ~ NHG <i>Pflicht</i> (“duty”)	E <i>eight</i> ~ NHG <i>acht</i>

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-faltig</i> (“manifold”)
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*

E *g* is also found in this position, like in E *forget* ~ NHG *vergessen*. This is an Old Nordic import into the English language.

B. Sound laws

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**), the loss *n* or *m* in E can be observed:

E <i>five</i> ~ NHG <i>fünf</i>	E <i>tooth</i> ~ NHG <i>Zahn</i>
E <i>wish</i> ~ NHG <i>wünschen</i>	E <i>other</i> ~ NHG <i>anderer</i>
E <i>us</i> ~ NHG <i>uns</i>	E <i>goose</i> ~ NHG <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*
- ◇ OGr. 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*
- ◇ OGr. 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, one obtains

VER	IE <i>p/t/k/s</i> not word-initial, not immediately after IE accent
→	Germ. $b^{\text{fric}}/d^{\text{fric}}/g^{\text{fric}}/r$
→	$\left\{ \begin{array}{l} \text{E } v/th/g/r \\ \text{NHG } b/t/g/r \end{array} \right.$

where “fric” stands for fricative. These sounds are consonants produced by forcing air through a narrow channel. Sibilants (like OI *s* or *ś*) 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 NHG *t* that goes back to either Germ. *d* or Germ. d^{fric} :

NHG__C	Germ. <i>d</i>	→	E <i>d</i> (example <i>red</i>)	~	NHG <i>t</i> (ex. <i>rot</i>)
VER	Germ. d^{fric}	→	E <i>th</i> (ex. <i>father</i>)	~	NHG <i>t</i> (ex. <i>Vater</i>)

The fricative nature shows more clearly in E 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 Germ. d^{fric} results.

Otherwise, observe the (more common) development

NHG_ C	IE $p/t/k/s$ word-initial or immediately after IE accent
	→ Germ. $f/p/h/s$
	→ NHG $f/d/h/s$
	~ E $f/th/h/s$

where the example of IE $*bhr\acute{a}t\bar{e}r$ yields E *brother* ~ NHG *Bruder*.

C. Word formation

C.1. Roots

This chapter is on how roots, transformed or added to, are used to form various grammatical forms. The forms covered in his chapter comprise infinitives, PPPs, desideratives, and others. The reader might also expect to learn about the word formation of aorists and perfects in this chapter. I decided to relegate that information to the next chapter, where formation and conjugation are dealt with in “one go”.

Learners of Sanskrit are used to memorising

budh, bôdhati

vas, vasati

pat, patati

...

where

- ◇ *budh, vas,* and *pat* are referred to as OI roots and
- ◇ *bôdhati* etc. are the forms for the 3. pers. sg. pres. ind.

There is, of course, nothing wrong with memorising *pat, patati*. Note, however, that the OI root is nothing but a (helpful) grammatical fiction. It is regularly used to derive root nouns (pp. 115), the passive voice (pp. 132), and the past participle (pp. 117).

For verbs in the first class, the 3. pers. sg. pres. ind. is normally given in the full grade and the OI root in the zero grade, as shown by *budh, bôdhati* (see pp. 26). One does 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 as *pt*, the zero grade of *pat*, but neither *p* nor *t* can become syllabic. (But even here, consider 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 *uṣ*.

In most textbooks, what we call “OI roots” are simply called “roots”. Distinguish

- ◇ a root with IE *e*, i.e., a full-grade root or a normal-grade root or just a root (in Sanskrit with root vowel *a*, or, if a semivowel follows, *ê* or *ô*, respectively), from

C. Word formation

◇ a root where IE *e* was lost, i.e., the zero-grade root (for Sanskrit see pp. 26)

Typically, IE roots are monosyllabic and of one of the following forms

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

Nowadays, IE roots like **ed* are not accepted any more. Instead, laryngeals are thought to come before the *e*. Thus, one would reconstruct **h₁ed* instead of just **ed*. Similarly, IE **aǵ* with root vowel *a* is replaced by **h₂eǵ*, where *h₂* 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 semivowels) and the root vowel is *e*.

There exist two additional reasons why OI roots may not be in zero grade. Both concern IE roots ending in a laryngeal:

3. roots such as *mā* (second class) do not distinguish between strong forms (typically full grade) and weak forms (typically zero grade), but use *mā* throughout although *mā* ← IE root **meh₁* is full grade.
4. given IE zero-grade root may give rise to two different OI verbs, such as *ê-ti* versus *yā-ti* or *ḵay-a-ti* versus *ḵyā-ti*.

Turning to the third reason, consider the syllable structure *C-e-C*. If the final consonant is a laryngeal, *C-e-H* results so that one obtains long *ā* as in

√ (f.g.)	3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>pā</i>	<i>pā-ti</i>	to protect
<i>bhā</i>	<i>bhā-ti</i>	to shine
<i>mā</i>	<i>mā-ti</i>	to measure
<i>yā</i>	<i>yā-ti</i>	to go
<i>vā</i>	<i>vā-ti</i>	to blow

With respect to the fourth reason, OI roots sometimes come in two full-grade forms. It is helpful to distinguish three groups (according to Kulikov (2011, p. 310)). The first group features a resonant and a laryngeal (in that order) in the root. By a process called “schwebeablaut” (floating vowel gradation), one postulates two IE full grades:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{IE } *CeRH(V/C) &\rightarrow \text{OI } CaRV/CaRiC \\ \text{IE } *CReH &\rightarrow \text{OI } CR\bar{a} \end{aligned}$$

Both of these IE full-grade roots have one and the same IE zero grade. For the zero grade, remember the effects of laryngeals according to **Lar__V**. The following table shows the most relevant examples of the first group.

$\sqrt{\quad}$	f.g. IE root	$\sqrt{\quad}$	f.g. IE root
<i>jan</i> (f.g.) (“to produce”)	* <i>ǵenh</i> ₁	not <i>jñā</i> (“to know”)	* <i>ǵneh</i> ₃
<i>tṛ</i> (“to cross”)	* <i>terh</i> ₂	<i>trā</i> (“to protect, to save”)	* <i>treh</i> ₂
<i>dham</i> (f.g.) (“to exhale”)	* <i>dhemH</i>	<i>dhmā</i> (“to exhale”)	* <i>dhmeH</i>
<i>dhī</i> (“to think, to reflect”)	* <i>dheiH</i>	<i>dhyā</i> (“to contemplate”)	* <i>dhyeH</i>
<i>pī</i> (“to become fat”)	* <i>peiH</i>	<i>pyā</i> (“to swell”)	* <i>pyeH</i>
<i>pṛ</i> (“to fill”)	* <i>pelh</i> ₁	<i>prā</i> (“to fill”)	* <i>pleh</i> ₁
<i>mṛ</i> (“to crush”)	* <i>merh</i> ₂	<i>mlā</i> (“to wither”)	* <i>mreh</i> ₂
<i>hū</i> (“to call”)	* <i>ǵheuH</i>	<i>hvā</i> (“to call”)	* <i>ǵhveH</i>

The very first example does not fit etymologically because *jan* ← IE **ǵenh*₁ and *jñā* ← IE **ǵneh*₃ are produced from different laryngeals. Nevertheless, in the speakers’ minds, the pair *jan/jñā* may have been considered analogous to other pairs such as *dham/dhmā*. Based on *dham*, there exists the full-grade instrumental noun *dhami-tram* which clearly shows *mīt* for *RiC* ← **RHC* in the sound law above.

The second and third groups do not feature laryngeals, but are produced according to a similar model. The second group is built by the rule

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

while the third group follows

$$\text{root-initial consonant (cluster)} + \bar{a}$$

The zero-grade (second group) is seen in the following table:

C. Word formation

√	√
<i>i</i> (“to go”), <i>ê-ti</i>	<i>y-ā</i> (“to go out, to go forth”), <i>y-ā-ti</i>
<i>ghṛ</i> (“to sprinkle, to wet”), <i>ji-ghar-ti</i>	<i>ghr-ā</i> (“to smell”), <i>ghr-ā-ti</i>
<i>ji</i> (“to conquer, to overcome”), <i>jay-a-ti</i>	<i>jy-ā</i> (“to suppress, to grow old”), <i>jy-ā-ti</i>
<i>dah</i> (f.g.) (“to burn”), <i>dah-a-ti</i>	<i>kṣ-ā</i> (“to burn”) (see s.v. <i>dah</i>)
<i>bhas</i> (f.g.) (“to chew”)	<i>ps-ā</i> (“to devour”), <i>ps-ā-ti</i>
<i>man</i> (f.g.) (“to think”), <i>man-ya-tê</i>	<i>mn-ā</i> (“to remember, to praise”), <i>mn-ā-ti</i>

while the root-initial consonant (cluster) in the third group is present in the last table:

√	√
<i>i</i> (“to go”), <i>ê-ti</i>	<i>y-ā</i> (“to go out, to go forth”), <i>yā-ti</i>
<i>gam</i> (“to go”) (f.g.), <i>gacch-a-ti</i>	<i>g-ā</i> (“to go”), <i>gā-ti</i>
<i>dru</i> (“to run”), <i>drav-a-ti</i> , s.v. <i>dram</i>	<i>dr-ā</i> (“to run”), <i>drā-ti</i>
<i>bhan</i> (“to speak”), <i>bhan-a-ti</i>	<i>bh-ā</i> (“to shine”), <i>bhā-ti</i>

It is unclear whether *i/yā* belongs to the second or the third group. The very last example is semantically difficult.

According to Kulikov (2011), the first verb in the pairs of all three groups is more flexible with respect to transitivity, while the second verb is either transitive or intransitive. Unrelated to this observation, one might suggest that the long-*ā* roots have a consequential meaning:

- ◇ He goes (*ê-ti*) so that he escapes (*yā-ti*).
- ◇ He conquers (*jay-a-ti*) so that he suppresses (*jyā-ti*).
- ◇ He chews (root *bhas*) so that he devours (*psā-ti*).

C.2. Ten verbal classes, overview

C.2.1. Thematic versus athematic classes

Sanskrit is famous for its ten verbal classes, some of which are thematic, while others are athematic. In this chapter, a rough overview of these classes is presented. With many examples and much more detail, these classes are taken up again in the next chapter.

Verbs belonging to the thematic classes are characterised by a thematic vowel between OI root (which may be put into the full grade) and ending. Without such a vowel, athematic verbs show an alternation of strong forms (mostly full grade) and weak forms (zero grade). In order to provide examples, the 3. pers. sing. (which usually takes a strong form) and the 1. pers. pl. (where the weak form is expected) are often presented.

C.2.2. The four thematic classes

The first class

Four out of the ten verbal classes use the thematic vowel. One good example for the first class is given by

\underbrace{budh}	,	$\underbrace{bôdh}$	-	\underbrace{a}	-	\underbrace{ti}
OI root		root		thematic		ending
in zero grade		in full grade		vowel		3. pers. sg.

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

√	3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>kṛṣ</i>	<i>karṣ-a-ti</i>	he ploughs
<i>klp</i>	<i>kalp-a-tê</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 recognisable.

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, one obtains *sîd-ati* by way of

C. Word formation

- **si-sd-ati* (reduplication with *i* and zero grade, without sandhi)
- *si-zd-ati* (**sz** before voiced stop)
- *si-ṣd-ati* (**RUKI**)
- *si-ṣd-ati* (**CerD**)
- *sīd-ati* (**CpLz** 2. line), see *pīd*

whence finally *sīd-ati* through leveling:

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

- ◇ *sthā*, *ti-ṣtha-ti* (“to stand”) is thought to go back to IE **steh*₂. Note that *t* in the IE full-grade root is not aspirated. Thus, *ti-ṣtha-ti* is not an instance of Grassmann’s law (although the final result does not contradict that law). Instead, the aspiration is a reflex of the laryngeal. Reduplicating with *i* and just the consonant immediately before *i* yields

- IE **ti-sth*₂-*eti* (reduplication with *i* and zero grade)
- *ti-sth-eti* (**Lar__CH**: *h*₂ aspirates *t*)
- *ti-ṣth-ati* (**RUKI**)
- *ti-ṣth-ati* (**CerD**)

The full grade form should be **steh*₂ → *stā*, but the OI root *sthā* is aspirated (as in the infinitive *sthā-tum*). Leveling provides an easy explanation.

- ◇ While *h*₂ has caused aspiration, *h*₃ may have caused voicedness in *pā*, *pi-ba-ti* (“to drink”):

- IE **pi-ph*₃-*eti* (reduplication with *i* and zero grade)
- *pi-b-eti* (**Lar__CH**: *h*₃ makes *p* voiced)
- *pi-b-ati*

The first class also contains verbs where

- ◇ both OI root and present indicative 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. 140)	he begs

- ◇ both OI root and present indicative contain *ī*:

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

The fourth class

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

\underbrace{sidh}	,	\underbrace{sidh}	–	\underbrace{y}	–	\underbrace{a}	–	\underbrace{ti}
OI root		root		suffix		thematic		ending
in zero grade		in zero grade				vowel		3. pers. sing.

Consider these cases (zero-grade OI root, present indicative in zero grade plus suffix *y*):

√	3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>kup</i>	<i>kup-y-a-ti</i>	he is angry
<i>kṣubh</i>	<i>kṣubh-y-a-ti</i>	he is agitated
<i>tuṣ</i>	<i>tuṣ-y-a-ti</i>	he is pleased
<i>trp</i>	<i>trp-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>snih</i>	<i>snih-y-a-ti</i>	he loves

Some verbs exhibit full-grade OI root with nasal. Then **SY_N** applies:

√	3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>bhramś</i>	<i>bhramś-y-a-ti</i> ← * <i>bhrṃś</i>	he falls
<i>rañj</i>	<i>rañj-y-a-ti</i> ← * <i>rñj</i>	he reddens

But this rule is not always adhered to. In the following example, the resulting u.at. *ma-y-a-tê* would have been too difficult to understand:

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

Finally, consider verbs with laryngeals. A clear instance of full-grade OI root and zero-grade present indicative is given by

√	3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>jan</i>	<i>jā-y-a-tê</i> ← IE * <i>ǵnH-y-e-toi</i>	he is born

C. Word formation

where the laryngeal sound law **Lar_SY** (p. 30) is applied. The laryngeal in this case is clear from infinitive *jan-i-tum*. Laryngeals are also responsible for the following examples with full-grade OI root and zero grade (!) present indicative:

√	3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>kram</i>	<i>krām-ya-ti</i> ← IE * <i>kr̥m̥H-ye ti</i>	he strides
<i>dam</i>	<i>dām-ya-ti</i> ← IE * <i>d̥m̥H-ye-ti</i>	he tames
<i>śam</i>	<i>śām-ya-ti</i> ← IE * <i>k̥m̥H-ye-ti</i>	he gets quiet
<i>śram</i>	<i>śrām-ya-ti</i> ← IE * <i>kr̥m̥H-ye-ti</i>	he toils

The sixth class

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

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

Look, first, at the following cases (zero-grade OI root, zero-grade present indicative):

√	3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>kr̥ṣ</i>	<i>kr̥ṣ-a-ti</i>	he ploughs
<i>k̥ṣip</i>	<i>k̥ṣip-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, observe the following verbs with nasal infix in the present indicative:

√	3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>muc</i>	<i>mu-ñ-c-a-ti</i>	he frees
<i>lip</i>	<i>li-m-p-a-ti</i>	he smears

√	3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>lup</i>	<i>lu-m-p-a-ti</i>	he bites off, he steals
<i>vid</i>	<i>vi-n-d-a-ti</i>	he finds

Third, consider the verbs which (from the Indo-European point of view) use *sk̄* to form the present indicative:

√	3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>iṣ</i>	<i>icch-a-ti</i>	he wishes
<i>pracch</i>	<i>pr̥cch-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^wm-sk̄-e-ti* (**SY_N**, **SIB**). Thus, *gacch-a-ti* is in zero grade.

The tenth class

For the tenth class, the leading example is

<u><i>cur</i></u>	,	<u><i>côr</i></u>	–	<u><i>ay</i></u>	–	<u><i>a</i></u>	–	<u><i>ti</i></u>
OI root		root		suffix		thematic vowel		ending
in zero grade		in full grade						3. pers. sg.

with a full-grade root in the present indicative. Another frequently cited example is provided by⁷

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

Causatives look similar, but are treated elsewhere, on pp. 113.

C.2.3. The second class

Leaving the thematic group of verbs, the athematic classes 2, 3, 5, 7, 8, and 9 are now covered. In the third class, one finds reduplication, in the classes 5, 7, 8, and 9 a nasal infix occurs. The remaining class 2 contains many often-used verbs. For example, the zero grade of *ê* is *i* so that Sanskrit for “to go” is

<u><i>i</i></u>	,	<u><i>ê</i></u>	–	<u><i>ti</i></u>
OI root		root		ending
in zero grade		in full grade		3. pers. sg.

⁷Perhaps, a nasal infix (similar to *lup* just above) may be present here. Compare the OI root *cit*.

C. Word formation

Consider:

√	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 $\text{ş}/\acute{\text{s}} + t \rightarrow \text{ş}\acute{\text{t}}$ (**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* (**DIPH**)
 → *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 is 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 *sêt* 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

Some *sêt* 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>śvas</i> (f.g.)	<i>śvas-i-ti</i>	<i>śvas-i-mas</i>	to blow, to snuffle

Sometimes *âu* is found in sg. and *u* in pl. (so-called Narten present forms, see pp. 178):

√	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

They can be explained with a laryngeal. For *nu*, one can postulate the IE f.g. root **neHv*. One then obtains regularly formed

- ◇ f.g. (!) 3. pers. sg. IE **neHv-ti* → OI *nâu-ti* versus
- ◇ z.g. 3. pers. pl. IE **nHv-mes* → OI *nu-mas*

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. Word formation

C.2.4. The third class

Remember the first-class verbs *sīd-a-ti* (“he sits”) and *ti-ṣṭha-ti* (“he stands”) that are formed by reduplication. (Reduplication is also used for perfect and for desiderative forms.) Consider now the third class which contains only reduplicating verbs. It does not have many representatives. The basic idea is that the former part of the root is repeated. The repeated root vowel is often “reduced” and *i* seems to be the preferred reduplication vowel. In particular, observe the following pattern:

OI root vowels	\bar{a}	\bar{i}	<i>u</i>	\check{r}
	↓	↓	↓	↓
reduplication vowel	<i>a</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>u</i>	<i>i</i>

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

\underbrace{bhr}	,	\underbrace{bi}	-	\underbrace{bhar}	-	\underbrace{ti}
OI root		reduplication		root		ending
in zero grade		syllable		in full grade		3. pers. sg.

Grassmann’s law (**DA**, pp. 39) is regularly applied. For example, the OI root *hu* (“to sacrifice”) goes back to IE **ǵheu* and one derives

- IE **ǵhu-ǵheu-ti*
- *ǵu-ǵhō-ti* (**DA**)
- *ju-hō-ti* (**PPal**, p. 37)

Here is a list with third-class verbs:

√	3. pers. sg.	1. pers. pl.	translation
<i>gā</i>	<i>ǵi-gā-ti</i>	<i>ǵi-ǵī-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-bhī-ti</i>	<i>bi-bhī-mas</i>	to be afraid
<i>bhr̥</i>	<i>bi-bhar-ti</i>	<i>bi-bhr̥-mas</i>	to carry
<i>hā</i>	<i>ja-hā-ti</i>	<i>ja-hā-mas</i>	to abandon
<i>hu</i>	<i>ju-hō-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 *yuḥ*, *yunakti* which is best understood as

\underbrace{yu}	-	\underbrace{na}	-	\underbrace{k}	-	\underbrace{ti}
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

This first impression is misleading from a historical point of view.

The ninth class as a special instance of the seventh class

It was a close look at classes 7 and 9 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>yuḥ</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>

The present indicative 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 hypothesised that both verbs are similarly constructed. If that hypothesis is correct, two differences need to be addressed:

1. The ninth class has long *nā*, rather than short *na* in the seventh class.
2. The future and the infinitive forms of *pū* show *i* which seems to come out of nowhere. Traditional Sanskrit grammarians call *pū* an OI *sêt* root (*sêt* ← *sa-it*). The OI root does not exhibit *i*, but the latter shows up in some verbal forms.

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

C. Word formation

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>yeug-tum</i>
9	* <i>ne</i>	* <i>puH</i>	* <i>pu-ne-H-ti</i>	* <i>pev-H-sy-e-ti</i>	* <i>pevH-tum</i>

Thus, the classes 7 and 9 turn out to obey the same pattern. The only remaining problem is long \bar{i} in the weak class sign, see *pu-nā-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, *śṛ-ṇô-ti* (“he hears”).

One should understand this verb as one where, originally, the root-final consonant is the semivowel v . Then, before consonants, IE **ne-v* should regularly turn into Sanskrit $nô$. This is, indeed, what happens here. The pres. ind. sg. is best understood by this comparison:

class	*gaṇa sign	IE root	3. pers. sg.	gaṇa sign
7	* <i>ne</i>	IE * <i>yug</i>	IE * <i>yu-ne-g-ti</i> → <i>yu-nak-ti</i>	<i>na</i>
5	* <i>ne</i>	IE * <i>k̑lu</i> → <i>śru</i>	IE * <i>k̑l-ne-u-ti</i> → <i>śṛ-ṇô-ti</i>	<i>nô</i>

Thus, originally, one has the na -infix as in *yu-na-k-ti*. The speakers, however, imagined an OI root $śṛ$ to which $nô$ was added.

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	IE * <i>ne</i>	IE * <i>k̑l-ne-u-ti</i> → <i>śṛ-ṇô-ti</i>	<i>nô</i>
8	IE * <i>ne</i>	IE * <i>tṇ-ne-u-ti</i> → <i>ta-nô-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. 28).

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, the following pattern emerges:

class	strong gaṇa sign	3. pers. sg.	weak gaṇa sign	1. 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-u-mas</i>
9	<i>nā</i>	<i>pu-nā-ti</i>	<i>nī</i>	<i>pu-nī-mas</i>

If you like, you may also understand the weak signs of the classes 5, 7, and 8 from section B.2.4 (pp. 26). It is not clear why, in the 9. class, one finds *nī* from *nH* which should lead to *nī* instead.

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

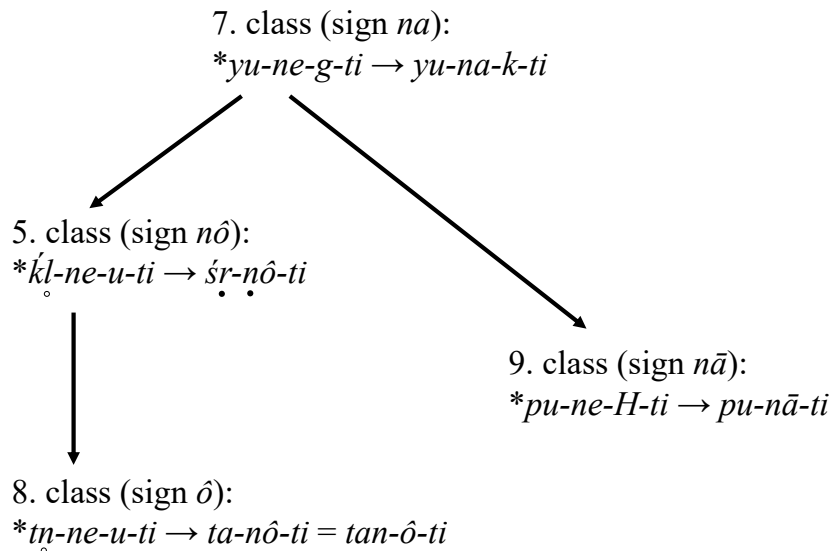


Figure C.1.: The nasal infix classes

C. Word formation

C.2.6. The fifth class

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

√	3. pers. sg.	1. 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 infixes into the OI root, for example,

√	3. pers. sg.	1. pers. pl.	translation
<i>chid</i>	<i>chi-na-t-ti</i>	<i>chi-n-d-mas</i>	to cut
<i>piṣ</i>	<i>pi-na-ṣ-ti</i>	<i>pi-ṇ-ṣ-mas</i>	to grind
<i>bhid</i>	<i>bhi-na-t-ti</i>	<i>bhi-n-d-mas</i>	to break
<i>yuḥ</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 *kṛ* (“to make”) is traditionally counted among the 8. class verbs. Remember

√	3. pers. sg.	1. pers. pl.	translation
<i>kṛ</i>	<i>kar-ô-ti</i>	<i>kur-mas</i>	to make

While this root does not show a nasal infix, one might observe that

- ◇ *kar-ô-ti* is similar to *tan-ô-ti* and
- ◇ *kur-mas* 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 ninth class:

$\sqrt{\quad}$	3. pers. sg.	1. pers. pl.	translation
$kr\bar{i}$	$kr\bar{i}\text{-}\eta\bar{a}\text{-}ti$	$kr\bar{i}\text{-}\eta\bar{i}\text{-}mas$	to buy
$p\bar{u}$	$pu\text{-}n\bar{a}\text{-}ti$	$pu\text{-}n\bar{i}\text{-}mas$	to purify
$v\bar{r}$	$v\bar{r}\text{-}\eta\bar{a}\text{-}ti$	$v\bar{r}\text{-}\eta\bar{i}\text{-}mas$	to choose

In $pu\text{-}n\bar{a}\text{-}ti$ observe expected short u . Long \bar{i} in $kr\bar{i}\text{-}\eta\bar{a}\text{-}ti$ is unexpected.

C.3. Infinitive and other normal-grade forms

C.3.1. General rule

The formation of the infinitive follows the general pattern

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

Consider these examples where the full grade clearly shows:

$\sqrt{\quad}$	3. pers. sg.	infinitive	translation
kr	$kar\text{-}\hat{o}\text{-}ti$	$kar\text{-}tum$	to make
bhr	$bhar\text{-}a\text{-}ti$	$bhar\text{-}tum$	to carry
$m\bar{r}$	$mri\text{-}y\text{-}a\text{-}t\hat{e}$	$mar\text{-}tum$	to die
vas (f.g.)	$vas\text{-}a\text{-}ti$	$vas\text{-}tum$	to dwell
$sm\bar{r}$	$smar\text{-}a\text{-}ti$	$smar\text{-}tum$	to remember
$h\bar{r}$	$har\text{-}a\text{-}ti$	$har\text{-}tum$	to take, to rob

Also, roots with i regularly have full grade \hat{e} :

$\sqrt{\quad}$	3. pers. sg.	infinitive	translation
i	$\hat{e}\text{-}ti$	$\hat{e}\text{-}tum$	to go
$k\bar{s}ip$	$k\bar{s}ip\text{-}a\text{-}ti$	$k\bar{s}\hat{e}p\text{-}tum$	to throw
$\bar{j}i$	$\bar{j}ay\text{-}a\text{-}ti$	$\bar{j}\hat{e}\text{-}tum$	to defeat

while roots with u exhibit \hat{o} :

C. Word formation

√	3. pers. sg.	infinitive	translation
<i>śru</i>	<i>śr-ṇô-ti</i>	<i>śrô-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 backward assimilation is often encountered:

√	3. pers. sg.	infinitive	translation
<i>khid</i>	<i>khid-y-a-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. 85)	<i>sat-tum</i>	to sit

C.3.2. OI roots ending in a nasal

The OI root is full grade in all the examples below. The labial nasal *m* becomes dental *n* before dental *t*:

√ in f.g.	3. pers. sg.	infinitive	translation
<i>gam</i>	<i>gacch-a-ti</i>	<i>gan-tum</i>	to go
<i>tan</i>	<i>tan-ô-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 cerebralisation

Applying aspiration laws

If an OI root ends in a voiced aspirate, the addition of *tum* necessitates the aspiration shift 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: Of two aspirated sounds, the first one becomes deaspirated:

DA	IE $C^{+asp} VC^{+asp}$ → OI $C^{-asp} VC^{+asp}$
-----------	---

Mixing these sound laws with the palatalisation laws **SPal** (pp. 38), one finds

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

In more detail, the following developments are postulated:

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

and

	IE $*dheugh-tum$ (full grade and infinitive marker <i>tum</i>)
→	<i>dhôgh-tum</i>
→	<i>dôgh-tum</i> (DA)
→	<i>dôg-dhum</i> (ASh)

C. Word formation

Applying cerebralisation sound laws

In a few verbs, the infinitive comes with cerebralisation. In this subsection, several cerebralisation laws are needed. First, cerebralisation occurs not only after *ṣ*, but also after *ś*:

$$\text{CerD} \quad \text{OI } \mathfrak{s}/\mathfrak{ś} + t \rightarrow \text{OI } \mathfrak{s}t$$

This is clearly seen in these verbs:

√	3. pers. sg.	infinitive	translation
<i>kṛṣ</i>	<i>kṛṣ-a-ti</i>	<i>karṣ-ṭum, kraṣ-ṭum</i>	to plough
<i>kruś</i>	<i>krôś-a-ti</i>	<i>krôṣ-ṭum</i>	to cry out
<i>tuṣ</i>	<i>tuṣ-y-a-ti</i>	<i>tôṣ-ṭum</i>	to enjoy
<i>damś</i> (f.g.)	<i>daś-a-ti</i> (z.g.!)	<i>damṣ-ṭum</i>	to bite
<i>diś</i>	<i>diś-a-ti</i>	<i>dêṣ-ṭum</i>	to show
<i>dṛś</i>	(<i>paś-y-a-ti</i>)	<i>draṣ-ṭum</i>	to see
<i>dviṣ</i>	<i>dvêṣ-ti</i>	<i>dvêṣ-ṭum</i>	to hate
<i>naś</i> (z.g.!)	<i>naś-y-a-ti</i> (z.g.!)	<i>namṣ-ṭum</i> ← IE * <i>h₂nenk-tu</i>	to perish
<i>puṣ</i>	<i>puṣ-y-a-ti</i>	<i>pôṣ-ṭum</i>	to nourish
<i>pracch</i> (f.g.)	<i>pr̥cch-a-ti</i>	<i>praṣ-ṭum</i>	to ask
<i>vṛṣ</i>	<i>varṣ-a-ti</i>	<i>varṣ-ṭum</i>	to rain
<i>sr̥j</i>	<i>sr̥j-a-ti</i>	<i>sraṣ-ṭum</i>	to throw, to let loose
<i>sprś</i>	<i>sprś-a-ti</i>	<i>spars-ṭum, spraṣ-ṭum</i>	to touch

In contrast to section B.2.4 (pp. 26) and different from OI root *kṛ* with infinitive *kar-tum*, some verbs above exhibit *ra* rather than *ar*: *kraṣ-ṭum*, *draṣ-ṭum*, and *spraṣ-ṭum* by the sound law **MET_rSP**. Indeed, *rṣ-t* (as in *karṣ-ṭum*, *varṣ-ṭum* or *spars-ṭum*) is a rather heavy combination of consonants.

The infinitive of *yaj* (“to sacrifice”) is *yaṣ-ṭum*, but should not be: IE **yeǵ* should yield

$$\begin{aligned} &\text{IE } *yeǵ-tum \text{ (full grade and infinitive marker } tum) \\ &\rightarrow yas-tum \text{ (sz before voiceless consonant)} \end{aligned}$$

Presumably, leveling (from the PPP) has done the rest (see p. 122):

	<i>yas-tum</i>	
influenced by	<i>iṣ-ta</i>	with cerebral <i>ṣ-t</i>
turns into	<i>yaṣ-ṭum</i>	with cerebral <i>ṣ-t</i>

... both aspiration and cerebralisation laws

Turning to a second variant of the above sound law, one obtains

$$\mathbf{CerD} \quad \text{OI } z + d/dh \rightarrow \text{OI } z + \dot{d}/\dot{d}h$$

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

- IE **veǵh-tum* (full grade and infinitive marker *tum*)
- *vaǵ-dhum* (**ASh**)
- *vaz-dhum* (**sz** before voiced consonant)
- *vô-dhum* (**CpLz** 1. line, pp. 53)

Here, leveling from regularly formed PPP *ū-dha* is responsible for *vôḍhum*, with cerebral *dh*. In contrast, the following two examples show regular cerebralisation. First, consider the infinitive of *guh*, *gūhati* (“to hide”):

- IE **gheuǵh-tum* (full grade and infinitive marker *tum*)
- *geuǵ-dhum* (**DA, ASh**)
- *geuz-dhum* (**sz** before voiced consonant)
- *geuz-dhum* (**RUKI**)
- *gôz-dhum* (**DIPH, CerD**)
- *gô-dhum* (**CpLz** 5. line, where *ô* is already long)

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

- IE **leiǵh-tum* (full grade and infinitive marker *tum*)
- *leiǵ-dhum* (**ASh**)
- *leiz-dhum* (**sz** before voiced consonant)
- *leiz-dhum* (**RUKI**)
- *lêz-dhum* (**DIPH, CerD**)
- *lê-dhum* (**CpLz** 5. line, where *ê* is already long)

There exist additional examples of cerebral sounds which are not justified by sound laws, but by analogy. The infinitive of *ruh*, *rôhati* (“to climb”) is *rôḍhum*, but the IE root is **h₁leudh* (IE *dh* can produce OI *h* according to subsection B.3.6, pp. 50), which should have lead to *rôddhum* (similar to *dôgdhum* or *bôddhum*) instead. Also, observe *sah*, *sahati* (“to tolerate”) with infinitive *sô-dhum* although the sound laws show a different result:

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

C. Word formation

Here, the analogy with verbs like *guh* above is responsible for cerebralisation.

C.3.4. Laryngeals

The infinitive of quite a few number of verbs can be explained by laryngeal theory, either in line with 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 the infinitive marker *tum*.

√	3. pers. sg.	infinitive	translation
<i>av</i> (f.g.)	* <i>h₂evH-e-ti</i> → <i>av-a-ti</i>	* <i>h₂ev-H-tum</i> → <i>av-i-tum</i>	to help
<i>khan</i> (f.g.)	* <i>khenH-e-ti</i> → <i>khan-a-ti</i>	* <i>khen-H-tum</i> → <i>khan-i-tum</i>	to dig
<i>jan</i> (f.g.)	* <i>ǵ_nH-y-e/o-toi</i> → <i>jā-y-a-tê</i>	* <i>ǵen-H-tum</i> → <i>jan-i-tum</i>	to be born
<i>nī</i>	* <i>neyH-e-ti</i> → <i>nay-a-ti</i>	* <i>ney-H-tum</i> → <i>nay-i-tum</i>	to lead
<i>bhū</i>	* <i>bhevH-e-ti</i> → <i>bhav-a-ti</i>	* <i>bhev-H-tum</i> → <i>bhav-i-tum</i>	to be

Many other roots, even if there is no laryngeal excuse, use *i-tum* rather than just *tum* as the infinitive suffix. This *i* prevents sandhi between the (normal-grade or, more rarely, zero-grade) root and the infinitive marker *tum*: *paṭh-i-tum*, *paṭ-i-tum*, *cumb-i-tum*, *bhāṣ-i-tum*, *êṣ-i-tum*, *cōray-itum*, *kôp-i-tum*, *kart-i-tum*, *kathay-i-tum*, *lêkh-i-tum*

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:

√ in f.g.	3. pers. sg.	infinitive	translation
<i>dā</i>	* <i>de-deh₃-ti</i> → <i>da-dā-ti</i>	* <i>deh₃-tum</i> → <i>dā-tum</i>	to give
<i>dhā</i>	* <i>de-dheh₁-ti</i> → <i>da-dhā-ti</i>	* <i>dheh₁-tum</i> → <i>dhā-tum</i>	to place
<i>pā</i>	<i>pi-b-a-ti</i> (p. 86)	* <i>peh₃-tum</i> → <i>pā-tum</i>	to drink
<i>śās</i>	<i>śās-ti</i>	* <i>keHs-tum</i> → <i>śās-tum</i>	to teach
<i>sthā</i>	<i>ti-ṣṭh-a-ti</i>	* <i>steh₂-tum</i> → <i>sthā-tum</i> (levelling!)	to stand

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

Masculine action nouns in *a*

Turning to masculine action nouns, many examples can be found with OI *a* added to the full-grade root. The simplest examples are those without semivowels:

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

and

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

If the roots contain the semivowels *i* or *u*, the diphthongs *ê* or *ô* show up:

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

and

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

If a root ends in *i*, note the operation of **SV** before the thematic vowel *a*:

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

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

C. Word formation

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

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

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

Consider

√	3. pers. sg.	translation	m. action noun in f.g.	translation
<i>yuḥ</i>	<i>yu-ñ-j-a-tê</i> ← IE <i>*yung-e-toi</i>	he yokes	<i>yôg-a</i> m. ← IE <i>*yeug-o</i>	joining

Secondary palatalisation (**SPal**) lies behind

- ◇ palatal consonant *j* in *yu-ñ-j-a-tê* (here, the IE thematic vowel is *e*) versus
- ◇ non-palatal consonant *g* in *yôg-a* (the vowel *a* goes back to IE *o*)

This pattern can also be seen in

√	3. pers. sg.	translation	m. action noun in f.g.	translation
<i>arc</i> (f.g.)	<i>arc-a-ti</i>	he shines	<i>ark-a</i>	sun
<i>bhaj</i> (f.g.)	<i>bhaj-a-ti</i>	he divides	<i>bhag-a</i>	wealth

√	3. pers. sg.	translation	m. action noun in f.g.	translation
<i>bhuj</i>	<i>bhu-na-k-ti</i>	he enjoys	<i>bhôg-a</i>	enjoyment
<i>mih</i>	<i>mêh-a-ti</i>	he urinates	<i>mêgh-a</i>	rain
<i>yuj</i>	<i>yu-na-k-ti</i>	he yokes	<i>yôg-a</i>	joining
<i>vi-vic</i>	<i>vi-vi-na-k-ti</i>	he sifts	<i>vi-vêk-a</i>	discrimination
<i>śuc</i>	<i>śôc-a-ti</i>	he grieves	<i>śôk-a</i>	grief
<i>sṛj</i>	<i>sṛj-a-ti</i>	he releases	<i>sarg-a</i> (but see p. 122)	letting go

Neuter nouns in *ana*

Many neuter action nouns in *ana* are found. The first *a* seems to go back to an IE front vowel, i.e., IE **eno* → OI *ana*. Otherwise secondary palatalisation in *bhôj-ana-m* or *vac-ana-m* in the following table could not be explained:

√	translation	n. action noun in f.g.	translation
<i>kṛ</i>	to make	<i>kar-aṇa-m</i>	producing
<i>gam</i> (f.g.)	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> (f.g.)	to speak	<i>vac-ana-m</i>	speech
<i>vad</i> (f.g.)	to speak	<i>vad-ana-m</i>	speaking (→ mouth)
<i>vi-as</i> (f.g.)	to dissipate	<i>vy-as-ana-m</i>	vice
<i>śru</i>	to hear	<i>śrav-aṇa-m</i>	hearing
<i>su</i>	to press	<i>sav-ana-m</i>	pressing, Soma
<i>sū</i>	to beget	<i>sav-ana-m</i>	childbirth

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>	approaching
<i>pra-i</i>	to set off, to die	<i>pra-ay-ana-m</i> → <i>prāy-aṇa-m</i>	going forth, beginning

C. Word formation

Remember also $rāma-ay-ana-m \rightarrow rāmāy-aṇa-m$.

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

$$dā-ana \rightarrow \text{OI } dā-na$$

and similarly

√ in f.g.	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

Masculine nouns in *ana*

Rarely, 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</i>	delighter
<i>pū</i>	to purify	<i>pav-ana</i>	purifier → wind

Neuter nouns in *as*

Very common neuter words 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> (f.g.)	to burn	<i>tap-as</i>	austerity
<i>tij</i>	to make sharp	<i>têj-as</i>	sharpness, heating
<i>nam</i> (f.g.)	to bow	<i>nam-as</i>	bowing, homage
<i>pī</i>	to become fat	<i>pay-as</i>	milk
<i>man</i> (f.g.)	to think	<i>man-as</i>	thought
<i>vac</i> (f.g.)	to speak	<i>vac-as</i>	speech

Neuter nouns in *is*

Neuter nouns in *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 in *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>kṛ</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>ji</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
<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>budh</i>	<i>bôd-dhum</i>	to be awake	<i>bôd-dhar</i>	one who knows
<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-dhar</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>hô-tum</i>	to sacrifice	<i>hô-tar</i>	priest

Sometimes, the zero grade is taken instead. IE **khen-H* has zero grade *khā* by the sound law “IE $C_nH \rightarrow$ OI $C\bar{a}$ ”. This is the form seen in *khā-tar* (“digger”) ← *khan* (“to dig”), besides the expected full-grade form *khan-i-tar* ← **khen-H-tor*.

C. Word formation

Instrument nouns in *tra*

The instruments used by the agents from the previous subsection are characterised by the suffix *tra* + neuter ending *m*. For example, the “drinker” *pā-tar* uses the “drinking-vessel” *pā-tram*.

√	infinitive	translation	n. instrum. noun in f.g.	translation
<i>kṛ</i>	<i>kar-tum</i>	to make	<i>kar-tra-m</i>	spell, charm
<i>gā</i> (f.g.)	<i>gā-tum</i>	to go	<i>gā-tra-m</i>	body limb
<i>chad</i> (f.g.)	<i>chat-tum</i>	to cover	<i>chat-tra-m/chatra-m</i>	umbrella
<i>duh</i>	<i>dôg-dhum</i>	to milk	<i>dôg-dhra-m</i>	milk-pail
<i>dham</i> (f.g.)		to exhale	<i>dhami-tra-m</i> (p. 83)	kindling instr.
<i>nī</i>	<i>nê-tum</i>	to lead	<i>nê-tra-m</i>	eye
<i>pat</i> (f.g.)	<i>pat-i-tum</i>	to fly	<i>pat-tra-m/patra-m</i>	wing, leaf
<i>pā</i> (f.g.)	<i>pā-tum</i>	to drink	<i>pā-tra-m</i>	cup, vessel
<i>yam</i> (f.g.)	<i>yan-tum</i>	to hold up/back	<i>yan-tra-m</i>	band, instrument
<i>vac</i> (f.g.)	<i>vak-tum</i>	to speak	<i>vak-tra-m</i>	mouth
<i>vas</i> (f.g.)	<i>vas-i-tum</i>	to clothe	<i>vas-tra-m</i>	clothing
<i>śas</i> (f.g.)	<i>śas-tum</i>	to kill	<i>śas-tra-m</i>	weapon
<i>śās</i> (f.g.)	<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>hô-tum</i>	to sacrifice	<i>hô-tra-m</i>	sacrifice

Agent or action nouns in *tu*

There exist a few agent or action nouns in *tu*:

√	infinitive	translation	<i>tu</i> noun	translation
<i>gā</i> (f.g.)	<i>gā-tum</i>	to go	<i>gā-tu</i> m.	going, motion
<i>vas</i> (f.g.)	<i>vas-tum</i>	to dwell, to be	<i>vas-tu</i> n.	substance
<i>hi</i>	<i>hê-tum</i>	to send, to impel	<i>hê-tu</i> m.	reason, argument

Nouns in *man*

Nouns in *man* are also derived from the full grade. They seem to indicate the result of an action:

√	infinitive	translation	n. noun in f.g.	translation
<i>kr</i>	<i>kar-tum</i>	to make	<i>kar-man</i>	action
<i>chad</i> (f.g.)	<i>chat-tum</i>	to cover	<i>chad-man</i>	roof, protection
<i>jan</i> (f.g.)	<i>jan-i-tum</i>	to beget	<i>jan-i-man, jan-man</i>	birth

C.3.6. Comparative and superlative

Comparative and superlative forms are often formed with *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 one finds the full grade in both comparative and superlative. This may hold for *uru* and *guru* above and is quite clear in the following table:

√	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>mrad-īyas</i> (2)	<i>mrad-iṣṭha</i> (2)

1. One class of adjectives is built from the zero grade plus *ra* (as shown on pp. 130). This *r* is not present in the comparative and superlative forms.
2. In contrast to *mard-ana-m* (p. 105) with *ar*, here one finds *ra* for unclear reasons.

C.3.7. Future in *sy*

Forms with and without RUKI

The future meaning has developed from a desiderative one. See 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 on pp. 136. The future is formed from the full grade of the root:

C. Word formation

full-grade root + *sy* + *a* + ending

Long- \bar{a} roots (although stemming from laryngeals) provide obvious 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>

Consider next full grade OI roots with vowel *a*:

√ in f.g.	translation	infinitive	future, 3. sg.
<i>man</i>	to think	<i>man-tum</i>	<i>maṃ-sy-a-ti (Ns)</i>
<i>yaj</i>	to sacrifice	<i>yaṣ-tum</i>	<i>yak-ṣy-a-ti</i>
<i>ram</i>	to enjoy	<i>ran-tum</i>	<i>raṃ-sy-a-tê (Ns)</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-ṣy-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>haṃ-sy-a-ti (Ns)</i>

In all these examples, backward assimilation to the unvoiced *s* is operative. **RUKI** is encountered after *k* in *vak-ṣy-a-ti*. Also, *labh* and *lap-sy-a-tê* show that the *s* cannot become aspirated, i.e., the aspiration is shifted forward, but has no effect.

Roots with *i* lead to full grade \hat{e} and hence to

√	translation	infinitive	future, 3. sg.
<i>i</i>	to go	<i>ê-tum</i>	<i>ê-ṣy-a-ti</i>
<i>kṣîp</i>	to throw	<i>kṣêp-tum</i>	<i>kṣêp-sy-a-ti</i>
<i>ji</i>	to defeat	<i>jê-tum</i>	<i>jê-ṣy-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

√	translation	infinitive	future, 3. sg.
<i>muc</i>	to liberate	<i>môk-tum</i>	<i>môk-ṣy-a-ti</i>
<i>yuj</i>	to join	<i>yôk-tum</i>	<i>yôk-ṣy-a-ti</i>
<i>śru</i>	to listen	<i>śrô-tum</i>	<i>śrô-ṣy-a-ti</i>
<i>stu</i>	to praise	<i>stô-tum</i>	<i>stô-ṣy-a-ti</i>

Laryngeal roots are responsible for *i-ṣy-a-ti*:

√	translation	infinitive	future, 3. sg.
<i>jan</i> (f.g.)	to be born	* <i>ǵen-H-tum</i> → <i>jan-i-tum</i>	<i>jan-i-ṣy-a-ti</i>
<i>bhū</i>	to be	* <i>bhev-H-tum</i> → <i>bhav-i-tum</i>	<i>bhav-i-ṣy-a-ti</i>

By analogy, this convenient quasi-thematic *i* spreads to other roots without any laryngeal justification:

√	translation	infinitive	future, 3. sg.
<i>kr̥</i>	to make	<i>kar-tum</i>	<i>kar-i-ṣy-a-ti</i>
<i>gam</i> (f.g.)	to go	<i>gan-tum</i>	<i>gam-i-ṣy-a-ti</i>
<i>tan</i> (f.g.)	to stretch	<i>tan-tum</i>	<i>tan-i-ṣy-a-ti</i>
<i>budh</i>	to be awake	<i>bôdh-i-tum</i>	<i>bôdh-i-ṣy-a-ti</i>
<i>bhṛ</i>	to carry	<i>bhar-tum</i>	<i>bhar-i-ṣy-a-ti</i>
<i>man</i> (f.g.)	to think	<i>man-tum</i>	<i>man-i-ṣy-a-ti/tê</i>
<i>smṛ</i>	to remember	<i>smar-tum</i>	<i>smar-i-ṣy-a-ti</i>
<i>likh</i>	to write	<i>lêkh-i-tum</i>	<i>lêkh-i-ṣy-a-ti</i>
<i>vad</i> (f.g.)	to speak	<i>vad-i-tum</i>	<i>vad-i-ṣy-a-ti</i>
<i>vṛt</i>	to turn round	<i>vart-i-tum</i>	<i>vart-i-ṣy-a-tê</i>
<i>vṛdh</i>	to grow	<i>vardh-i-tum</i>	<i>vardh-i-ṣy-a-tê</i>

One motivation for the use of “thematic” *i* is clear from the last two verbs in the table above. Without quasi-thematic *i*, they show identical future forms:

√	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>

Aspiration laws (revelation of aspirated root initial)

The aspiration laws lead to interesting future forms:

1. The aspiration shift **ASh** cannot affect *s* or *sy*.
2. Then, there is no need for root-initial deaspiration and IE aspiration becomes apparent:

C. Word formation

√	translation	infinitive	future, 3. sg.
<i>gāh</i> (f.g.)	to dive	<i>gā-dhum</i>	<i>ghāk-ṣy-a-tê</i>
<i>dah</i> (f.g.)	to burn	<i>dag-dhum</i>	<i>dhak-ṣy-a-ti</i> ← * <i>dheg^wh-s</i>
<i>dih</i>	to smear	<i>dêg-dhum</i>	<i>dhêk-ṣy-a-ti</i> ← * <i>dheigh-s</i>
<i>duh</i>	to milk	<i>dôg-dhum</i>	<i>dhôk-ṣy-a-ti</i> ← * <i>dheugh-s</i>
<i>bandh</i> (f.g.)	to bind	<i>bad-dhum</i> (z.g.!)	<i>bhant-sy-a-ti</i> ← * <i>bhendh-s</i>
<i>budh</i>	to be awake	<i>bôdh-i-tum</i>	<i>bhôt-sy-a-ti</i> ← * <i>bheudh-s</i>

Primary palatalisation (revelation of root-final)

Primary palatalisation is seen in the sound law

$$\text{IE } \acute{k} \rightarrow \text{OI } \acute{s}.$$

Now, IE \acute{k} is still visible in OI future forms as OI k :

√	translation	infinitive	future, 3. sg.
<i>damś</i> (f.g.!)	to bite	<i>damṣ-ṭum</i>	<i>damk-ṣy-a-ti</i> ← * <i>denk[́]-s</i>
<i>dīś</i>	to show	<i>dêṣ-ṭum</i>	<i>dêk-ṣy-a-ti</i> ← * <i>deik[́]-s</i>
<i>drś</i>	to see	<i>draṣ-ṭum</i>	<i>drak-ṣy-a-ti</i> ← * <i>derk[́]-s</i>
<i>naś</i> (z.g.!)	to perish	<i>namṣ-ṭum</i>	<i>namk-ṣy-a-ti</i> ← * <i>h₂ne(n)k[́]-s</i>
<i>pracch</i> (f.g.)	to ask	<i>praṣ-ṭum</i>	<i>prak-ṣy-a-ti</i> ← * <i>prek[́]-s</i>
<i>spṛś</i>	to touch	<i>spraṣ-ṭum, spras-ṭum</i>	<i>spark-ṣy-a-ti</i> ← * <i>sperk[́]-s</i>

A second origin of k - $\acute{s}y$ 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>kṛṣ</i>	to plough	<i>karṣ-ṭum, kraṣ-ṭum</i>	<i>kark-ṣy-a-ti</i>
<i>tuṣ</i>	to enjoy	<i>tôṣ-ṭum</i>	<i>tôk-ṣy-a-ti</i>
<i>dviṣ</i>	to hate	<i>dvêṣ-ṭum</i>	<i>dvêk-ṣy-a-ti</i>
<i>puṣ</i>	to nourish	<i>pôṣ-ṭum</i>	<i>pôk-ṣy-a-ti</i>

Finally, remember the **SIB** rule

$$\text{OI } s + s \rightarrow \text{OI } t + s$$

with the following example:

√	translation	infinitive	future, 3. sg.
<i>vas</i>	to dwell	<i>vastum</i>	<i>vat-sy-a-ti</i>

C.3.8. Causatives

As a rule, causatives are built from the full grade. Let us first consider *i*-roots such as

\underbrace{vis}	,	$\underbrace{vêś}$	-	\underbrace{ay}	-	\underbrace{a}	-	\underbrace{ti}
OI root		root		suffix		thematic		ending
in zero grade		in full grade				vowel		3. pers. sg.

and roots with *u*:

- ◇ *bôdh-ay-a-ti* (“causes to be awake → awakens”) ← *budh* (“to be awake”)
- ◇ *kôp-ay-a-ti* (“causes to be angry → enrages”) ← *kup* (“to be angry”)
- ◇ *śôbh-ay-a-ti* (“causes to shine → decorates”) ← *śubh* (“to shine”)

OI roots ending on long vowel \bar{a} (full grade due to a 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 → makes pay”) ← *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”)

Since the IE root vowel is *o* for causatives, Brugmann’s law applies. Therefore, one often observes \bar{a} :

- ◇ *kār-ay-a-ti* (“causes to do → orders”) ← *kṛ* (“to make”)
- ◇ *tyāj-ay-a-ti* (“causes to abandon → expels”) ← *tyaj* (“to abandon”)
- ◇ *pāṭh-ay-a-ti* (“causes to read → teaches”) ← *paṭh* (“to read”)
- ◇ *mār-ay-a-ti* (“causes to die → kills”) ← *mṛ* (“to die”)
- ◇ *vāc-ay-a-ti* (“makes [a text] speak → read”) ← *vac* (“to speak”)

C. Word formation

- ◇ *śrāv-ay-a-ti* (“causes to hear → proclaim”) ← *śru* (“to hear”)
- ◇ *sād-ay-a-ti* (“causes to sit → places”) ← *sad* (“to sit”)

Application of Brugmann’s law is regularly prevented by laryngeals. In the first of these examples, the two consonants *n* and *H* follow IE *o*:

√	3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>jan</i>	<i>jan-ay-a-ti</i> ← IE * <i>ǵonH-ey-e-ti</i>	he begets
<i>dam</i>	<i>dam-ay-a-ti</i> ← IE * <i>domH-ey-e-ti</i> (s.v. <i>dam</i>)	he tames

In contrast, observe “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**,
- ◇ *cumb-aya-ti* (“causes to kiss”) ← *cumb* (“to kiss”), where the two consonants following *u* might be responsible for the zero grade.

C.3.9. Gerunds in *am* and *yam*

There exists a rare gerund that is formed with *am*. It mostly uses the full grade:

√	translation	gerund in <i>am</i> , 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>bhuj</i>	to enjoy	<i>bhôj-am</i>

By **Lo**, one often witnesses long *ā* in open syllables:

√	translation	gerund in <i>am</i> , lengthened grade
<i>kṛ</i>	to make	<i>kār-am</i>
<i>grah</i> (f.g.)	to grab	<i>grāh-am</i>
<i>taḍ</i> (f.g.)	to hit	<i>tād-am</i>
<i>dah</i> (f.g.)	to burn	<i>dāh-am</i>
<i>paṭh</i> (f.g.)	to read	<i>pāṭh-am</i>

√	translation	gerund in <i>am</i> , lengthened grade
<i>vah</i> (f.g.)	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 *dhyâi* (but see p. 82) regularly lead to *dhyāy-am*:

√	translation	gerund in <i>am</i> , 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>

The root *dhyâi* seems to be a misunderstanding in the sense that *dhyāy-a-ti* was considered a 1. class verb from root *dhyâi*. Historically, it might be more correct to consider the root *dhyā*. Of course, *dhyā-am* → *dhyām* would hardly be recognisable. In any case, *dhyāy-am* might (on the basis of the root *dhyā*) be segmented as *dhyā-yam*. And hence a gerund marker *yam* came into being:

√	translation	gerund in <i>yam</i> , 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, the so-called root nouns are presented. Here, 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. Since nom. sg. m. and f. are usually characterised by *s*, the latter would have been lost here due to **CCI**. The root-final consonant is characterised by loss of both voice and aspiration as explained on pp. 47.

C. Word formation

Dental root-final consonant

In the case of dental root-final consonant, the “no voice, no aspiration” rule yields the obvious results:

- ◇ nom. sg. *yut* (stem *yudh*) (“battle”)
- ◇ nom. sg. *mṛt* (stem *mṛd*) (“clay”)
- ◇ nom. sg. *vidyut* (stem *vidyut*) (“flash of lightning”)

Full grade

The root may sometimes be in full grade, for pretty obvious reasons (see pp. 81):

- ◇ nom. sg. *upa-ni-ṣat* (stem *upa-ni-ṣad*) ← IE **sed* (post-Vedic, preclassical literature)
- ◇ nom. sg. *saṃ-sat* (stem *saṃ-sad*) (“assembly”) ← IE **sed*
- ◇ nom. sg. *pari-ṣat* (stem *pari-ṣad*) (“assembly”) ← IE **sed*
- ◇ nom. sg. *ā-pat* (stem *ā-pad*) (“calamity”) ← IE **ped*

k or ṭ as root-final consonants

When the root ends in OI *ś*, one should not be surprised to see OI *k* instead because OI *ś* goes back to IE palatal *k̑* (p. 37):

- ◇ nom. sg. *dṛk* (stem *dṛś*) (“sight”) ← IE root **derk̑*

But one also finds *ṭ*:

- ◇ nom. sg. *viṭ* (stem *viś*) (“house, people”) ← IE root **veiḱ̑*

Examples for root-final velars are

- ◇ nom. sg. *bhuk* (stem *bhuj*) (“enjoyment, utility”) ← IE root **bheug*
- ◇ nom. sg. *miṭ* (stem *mih*) (“mist, haze, fog”) ← IE root **meigh*
- ◇ nom. sg. *śuk* (stem *śuc*) (“flame, grief”) ← IE root **keuk̑*

See subsection B.3.5, pp. 47 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 \bar{r} in both OI root and PPP:

\checkmark	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
$k\bar{r}$	<i>kar-ô-ti</i>	<i>k\bar{r}-ta</i>	made
$bh\bar{r}$	<i>bhar-a-ti</i>	<i>bh\bar{r}-ta</i>	carried
$m\bar{r}$	<i>mri-ya-tê</i>	<i>m\bar{r}-ta</i>	dead
$sm\bar{r}$	<i>smar-a-ti</i>	<i>sm\bar{r}-ta</i>	remembered
$h\bar{r}$	<i>har-a-ti</i>	<i>h\bar{r}-ta</i>	taken

Roots with i preserve this i in the PPP:

\checkmark	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
i	<i>ê-ti</i>	<i>i-ta</i>	gone
$k\bar{s}ip$	<i>k\bar{s}ip-a-ti</i>	<i>k\bar{s}ip-ta</i>	thrown
$j\bar{i}$	<i>jay-a-ti</i>	<i>j\bar{i}-ta</i>	defeated

Regarding i with prefixes, consider:

\checkmark	translation	PPP	translation
<i>adhī-i</i>	to study	<i>adhī-ta</i>	well read, learned
<i>upā-i</i>	to go towards	<i>upê-ta</i>	endowed with
<i>prā-i</i>	to set off, to die	<i>prê-ta</i>	gone forth → dead
<i>vī-i</i>	to diverge, to disappear	<i>vī-ta</i>	gone, freed from

Likewise, roots with u (or f.g. root with initial v) preserve this u in the PPP:

C. Word formation

√	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
<i>muc</i>	<i>muñc-a-ti</i>	<i>muk-ta</i>	liberatee
<i>yuj</i>	<i>yu-na-k-ti</i>	<i>yuk-ta</i>	joined
<i>vac</i> (f.g.)	<i>vak-ti</i>	<i>uk-ta</i>	spoken
<i>vap</i> (f.g.)	<i>vap-a-ti</i>	<i>up-ta</i>	sowed
<i>śru</i>	<i>śṛ-ṇô-ti</i>	<i>śru-ta</i>	listened
<i>stu</i>	<i>stâu-ti</i> (Narten)	<i>stu-ta</i>	praised
<i>hu</i>	<i>ju-hô-ti</i>	<i>hu-ta</i>	sacrificed

Instead of the *ta* marker, a few verbs use *na*. All the roots in the table below end in *d* so that the expected backward assimilation results:

√	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
<i>ud</i>	<i>u-na-t-ti</i>	<i>un-na</i>	wet
<i>khid</i>	<i>khid-ya-ti</i>	<i>khin-na</i>	depressed
<i>tud</i>	<i>tud-a-ti</i>	<i>tun-na</i>	hurt
<i>nud</i>	<i>nud-a-ti</i>	<i>nun-na</i>	pushed
<i>pad</i>	<i>pad-ya-tê</i>	<i>pan-na</i>	fallen, gone
<i>bhid</i>	<i>bhi-na-t-ti</i>	<i>bhin-na</i>	broken
<i>vā</i>	<i>vāyati</i>	<i>ū-na</i> ← IE * <i>h₁uh₂-no</i>	less, deficient
<i>sad</i> (f.g.)	<i>sīd-a-ti</i>	<i>san-na</i>	set down

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>	broken
<i>majj</i>	<i>majj-a-ti</i>	<i>mag-na</i>	sunk

In contrast to the PPP, the infinitive (pp. 97) is normally formed by adding OI *tum* to the full-grade root. Since the suffixes begin 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 does the PPP. However, in many verbs, the infinitive seems to have influenced the formation of the gerund. Hence, there exist 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. An important class concerns the OI roots ending in a nasal. According to subsection B.5.2 (pp. 69), 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 * <i>g_{m̥}-to</i> → <i>ga-ta</i>	gone
<i>tan</i>	<i>ta-nô-ti</i>	IE * <i>t_{n̥}-to</i> → <i>ta-ta</i>	stretched

and this list:

√ in f.g.	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
<i>nam</i>	<i>nam-a-ti</i>	<i>na-ta</i>	bent
<i>man</i>	<i>man-ya-tê</i>	<i>ma-ta</i>	believed
<i>yam</i>	<i>yacch-a-ti</i>	<i>ya-ta</i>	restrained
<i>ram</i>	<i>ram-a-tê</i>	<i>ra-ta</i>	pleased
<i>han</i>	<i>han-ti</i>	<i>ha-ta</i>	struck

The last example goes back IE **g^when* (“to kill, to hit”), where secondary palatalisation (before IE *e*) produces *han-ti*. Secondary palatalisation cannot be invoked for the zero grade, where one should have obtained **g^wh_{n̥}-to* → *gha-ta*. *ha-ta* is easily explained by proportional analogy:

<i>tan</i>	with root-initial consonant <i>t</i> :	<i>ta-ta</i>
just as		
<i>han</i>	with root-initial consonant <i>h</i> :	<i>ha-ta</i>

C.4.4. Aspiration and cerebralisation

Applying aspiration laws

If an OI root ends in a voiced aspirate, the addition of *ta* necessitates the aspiration shift **ASh** (see section B.3.3, pp. 39):

C. Word formation

√	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
<i>kṣubh</i>	<i>kṣubh-ya-ti</i>	<i>kṣub-dha</i>	upset
<i>yudh</i>	<i>yudh-ya-tê</i>	<i>yud-dha</i>	fought
<i>labh</i> (f.g.)	<i>labh-a-tê</i>	<i>lab-dha</i> (f.g.!)	obtained
<i>vṛdh</i>	<i>vardh-a-tê</i>	<i>vṛd-dha</i>	grown

Note that *lab-dha* is full grade. While *l* might become syllabic, the resulting u.at. *!b-dha* would be unusual.

Sometimes, Grassmann's law is also applied. Nice examples are provided by these PPP:

√	future 3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
<i>bandh</i> (f.g.)	<i>bhant-sy-a-ti</i> ← * <i>bhendh-s-</i>	<i>bad-dha</i> ← * <i>bhṇdh-to</i>	bound
<i>budh</i>	<i>bhôt-sy-a-ti</i> ← * <i>bheudh-s-</i>	<i>bud-dha</i> ← * <i>bhudh-to</i>	awake

where

- ◇ the root initial *bh* becomes deaspirated (**DA**)
- ◇ the root final *dh* undergoes the aspiration shift (**ASh**) due to Bartholomae.

Consider, now, OI f.g. root *dah* that leads to the PPP

IE **dheg^wh-to* (f.g. with PPP marker *to*)
 → *dhegh-to* (no **SPal** before consonant *t*)
 → *dhag-dha* (**aā**, **ASh**)
 → *dag-dha* (**DA**)

OI z.g. root *snih* leads to

IE **snig^wh-to* (z.g. with PPP marker *to*)
 → *snigh-to* (no **SPal** before *t*)
 → *snig-dha* (**ASh**, **aā**)

Consider these examples:

√	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
<i>dah</i> (f.g.)	<i>dah-a-ti</i>	* <i>dheg^wh-to</i> → <i>dag-dha</i> (f.g.!)	burned
<i>dih</i>	<i>dêg-dhi</i>	* <i>dhigh-to</i> → <i>dig-dha</i>	smeared

√	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
<i>duh</i>	<i>dôg-dhi</i>	* <i>dhugh-to</i> → <i>dug-dha</i>	milked
<i>sniĥ</i>	<i>sniĥ-y-a-ti</i>	* <i>snig^wh-to</i> → <i>snig-dha</i>	loved

A small mystery is provided by *nah* (“to bind”) with PPP *nad-dha*. Presumably, *nadh* is the “correct” OI full-grade stem from which *nah* was produced as a dialectal variant (see pp. 50). 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 u.at. *addha* is not found in the dictionaries. Also unattested is a hypothetic full-grade root *nandh* which could have produced the PPP *nad-dha* just like *bandh* (“to bind”) leads to *bad-dha*.

Applying cerebralisation sound laws

In a number of verbs, the PPP involves cerebralisation, in particular due to

$$\begin{array}{l} \mathbf{CerD} \quad \text{OI } \text{ṣ}/\text{ś} + t \rightarrow \text{OI } \text{ṣ}t \\ \quad \quad \quad z + d/dh \quad \rightarrow \quad z + \text{ḍ}/\text{dh} \end{array}$$

First, consider OI roots that end in *ś* (that goes back to IE *k̑*):

- ◇ *damś* (“to bite”) ← IE **denk̑* with
 - IE **dn̑k̑-to* (z.g. with PPP marker *to*)
 - *daś-to* (syllabic *ṅ* → *a*, **PPal**)
 - *daṣ-ṭa* (**CerD**, *aā*)
- ◇ *drś* (“to see”) ← IE **derk̑* with
 - IE **dȓk̑-to* (z.g. with PPP marker *to*)
 - *drś-to* (**PPal**)
 - *drṣ-ṭa* (**CerD**, *aā*)
- ◇ *pracch* (“to ask”) ← IE **prek̑-sk̑* with
 - IE **pȓk̑-to* (z.g. with PPP marker *to*)
 - *prś-to* (**PPal**)
 - *prṣ-ṭa* (**CerD**, *aā*)
- ◇ *viś* (“to enter”) ← IE **veik̑* with
 - IE **vik̑-to* (z.g. with PPP marker *to*)
 - *viś-to* (**PPal**)
 - *viṣ-ṭa* (**CerD**, *aā*)

C. Word formation

A second important cerebralisation rule is the **RUKI** rule. It combines with **CerD** in these examples:

- ◇ *iṣ* (“to wish”) ← IE **h₂eis* with
 - IE **h₂is-to* (z.g. with PPP marker *to*)
 - *iṣ-to* (**RUKI**)
 - *iṣ-ṭa* (**CerD**, *aā*)
- ◇ *kṛṣ* (“to plough”) ← IE **kers* with
 - IE **kṛs-to* (z.g. with PPP marker *to*)
 - *kṛṣ-to* (**RUKI**)
 - *kṛṣ-ṭa* (**CerD**, *aā*)
- ◇ *dviṣ* (“to hate”) ← IE **dveis* with
 - IE **dvis-to* (z.g. with PPP marker *to*)
 - *dviṣ-to* (**RUKI**)
 - *dviṣ-ṭa* (**CerD**, *aā*)
- ◇ *vṛṣ* (“to rain”) ← IE **vers* with
 - IE **vṛs-to* (z.g. with PPP marker *to*)
 - *vṛṣ-to* (**RUKI**)
 - *vṛṣ-ṭa* (**CerD**, *aā*)

Finally, before application of **RUKI**, a **sz** rule is applied in the PPP *iṣ-ṭa* of OI *yaj* (“to sacrifice”):

- IE **iǵ-to* (z.g. with marker *to*)
- *is-to* (**sz** before voiceless cons.)
- *iṣ-to* (**RUKI**)
- *iṣ-ṭa* (**CerD**, *aā*)

One might think that the PPP of *sṛj* (“to throw, to create”) functions similarly:

- IE **sṛǵ-to* (z.g. with PPP marker *to*)
- *sṛs-to* (**sz** before voiceless cons.)
- *sṛṣ-to* (**RUKI**)
- *sṛṣ-ṭa* (**CerD**, *aā*)

But the contrast

- ◇ *sṛj-a-ti* ← IE **sṛg-e-ti*

◇ *sarg-a* ← IE **serg-o*

points to IE velar *g* and secondary palatalisation in *sr̥j-a-ti*. This discrepancy of IE palatal *ǵ* in *sr̥ṣṭa* versus IE velar *g* in *sarga* is a serious difficulty.

Interestingly, *iṣ-ta* is the regularly formed PPP of both

◇ OI *iṣ* (“to wish”) ← IE full grade **h₂eis* (see p. 122) and

◇ OI *yaj* (“to sacrifice”) ← IE full grade **yeǵ* (see above)

... both aspiration and cerebralisation 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* (**SV**) so that one obtains

IE **uǵh-to* (z.g. with PPP marker *to*)
 → *uǵ-dho* (**ASh**)
 → *uz-dho* (**sz** before voiced stop)
 → *uz-dho* (**RUKI**)
 → *uz-d̥ha* (**CerD**, **aā**)
 → *ū-d̥ha* (**CpLz** 3. line)

A very parallel development leads to the past participle *l̄dha* of *lih*, *lihati* (“to lick”), this time lengthening *i* rather than *u*:

IE **liǵh-to* (z.g. with PPP marker *to*)
 → *liǵ-dho* (**ASh**)
 → *liz-dho* (**sz** before voiced stop)
 → *liz-dho* (**RUKI**)
 → *liz-d̥ha* (**CerD**, **aā**)
 → *l̄-d̥ha* (**CpLz** 2. line)

Similarly, but with Grassmann’s law, *guh* (“to hide”) goes back to IE **gheuǵh* and one gets

C. Word formation

- IE **ghuǵh-to* (z.g. with PPP marker *to*)
- *guǵ-dho* (**DA** and **ASh**)
- *guz-dho* (**sz** before voiced stop)
- *guz-dho* (**RUKI**)
- *guz-ḍha* (**CerD**, **aā**)
- *gū-ḍha* (**CpLz** 3. line)

Also, with root vowel ḷ rather than *i* or *u*, one finds IE **dlǵh* (“to be fix”) with PPP

- IE **dlǵh-to* (z.g. with PPP marker *to*)
- *drǵ-dho* (**rl** and **ASh**)
- *drz-dho* (**sz** before voiced stop)
- *drz-dho* (**RUKI**)
- *drz-ḍha* (**CerD**, **aā**)
- *dr-ḍha* (loss of voiced *z* without expected **CpLz**)

As in similar infinitive cases, one finds cerebral sounds which are not justified by sound laws. For example, the PPP of *ruh*, *rōhati* (“to climb”) is *rūḍha*, but the IE root is **h₁leudh* (IE **dh* can produce OI *h* according to subsection B.3.6, pp. 50) 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-ḍha*, where the sound laws do not justify cerebral *ḍh*:

- IE **seǵh-to* (full grade (!) and PPP marker *to*)
- *seǵ-dho* (**ASh**)
- *saz-dha* (**sz** before voiced stop, **aā**)
- *sô-dha* (**CpLz** 1. line)

Here, as in *rūḍha* above, 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

IE 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 $C^{+lab}\underset{\circ}{r}$	IE $C^{+lab}\underset{\circ}{r}H \rightarrow C\bar{u}r$
after $C^{-lab}\underset{\circ}{r}$	IE $C^{-lab}\underset{\circ}{r}H \rightarrow C\bar{r}$
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} :

$\sqrt{\quad}$	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
$n\bar{i}$	* $neyH-e-ti \rightarrow nay-a-ti$	* $ni-H-to \rightarrow n\bar{i}-ta$	led
$bh\bar{i}$	* $bhi-bheiH-ti \rightarrow bi-bh\hat{e}-ti$	* $bhiH-to \rightarrow bh\bar{i}-ta$	afraid
$bh\bar{u}$	* $bhevH-e-ti \rightarrow bhav-a-ti$	* $bhu-H-to \rightarrow bh\bar{u}-ta$	been
$p\bar{u}$	* $pu-ne-H-ti \rightarrow pu-n\bar{a}-ti$	* $pu-H-to \rightarrow p\bar{u}-ta$	purified

Now come PPP formed with the marker na rather than ta :

$\sqrt{\quad}$	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
$\bar{l}i$	* $liH-y- \rightarrow \bar{l}i-ya-t\hat{e}$	* $liH-no \rightarrow \bar{l}i-na$	attached
$\bar{l}u$	* $lu-ne-H-ti \rightarrow lu-n\bar{a}-ti$	* $luH-no \rightarrow \bar{l}u-na$	cut off

Rather difficult is

$\sqrt{\quad}$ in f.g.	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
$p\bar{a}$	* $pi-ph_3-e-ti \rightarrow pi-b-a-ti$ (p. 86)	* $ph_3i-to \rightarrow *pih_3-to \rightarrow p\bar{i}-ta$	drunk

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 $CHC \rightarrow CiC$ ”:

$\sqrt{\quad}$ in f.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)	given
$dh\bar{a}$	* $de-dheh_1-ti \rightarrow da-dh\bar{a}-ti$	* $dhh_1-to \rightarrow hi-ta$ (2)	set, placed
$sth\bar{a}$	$ti-ṣṭh-a-ti$	* $sth_2-to \rightarrow sthi-ta$ (3)	stood

C. Word formation

1. $dā$ has two different PPP, the regular $dī-ta$ given in the list above and the irregular (but more common) $dat-ta$. Perhaps, $da-dā-mi$ was misunderstood as $dad-ā-mi$, where a PPP $datta \leftarrow dad-ta$ might be expected.
2. The word initial dh from $dhā$ sometimes turns into h (see p. 50).
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.

Laryngeals can lengthen syllabic nasals:

√ in f.g.	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
<i>kam</i>	no present tense	* $k\underset{\circ}{m}H-to \rightarrow k\bar{n}-ta$ (2)	loved
<i>kram</i>	* $k\underset{\circ}{r}mH-ye-ti \rightarrow k\bar{r}\bar{a}m-ya-ti$ (1)	* $k\underset{\circ}{r}mH-to \rightarrow k\bar{r}\bar{a}n-ta$ (1)	walked
<i>khan</i>	* $k\underset{\circ}{h}enH-e-ti \rightarrow k\bar{h}an-a-ti$	* $k\underset{\circ}{h}nH-to \rightarrow k\bar{h}\bar{a}-ta$	dug
<i>jan</i>	* $\underset{\circ}{j}nh_1-ye-toi \rightarrow j\bar{a}-ya-t\hat{e}$	* $\underset{\circ}{j}nh_1-to \rightarrow j\bar{a}-ta$	born
<i>dam</i>	* $d\underset{\circ}{m}H-ye-ti \rightarrow d\bar{a}m-ya-ti$ (1)	* $d\underset{\circ}{m}H-to \rightarrow d\bar{a}n-ta$ (1)	tamed
<i>śam</i>	* $\underset{\circ}{k}mH-ye-ti \rightarrow ś\bar{a}m-ya-ti$ (1)	* $\underset{\circ}{k}mH-to \rightarrow ś\bar{a}n-ta$ (1)	quiet
<i>śram</i>	* $\underset{\circ}{k}r\underset{\circ}{m}H-ye-ti \rightarrow ś\bar{r}\bar{a}m-ya-ti$ (1)	* $\underset{\circ}{k}r\underset{\circ}{m}H-to \rightarrow ś\bar{r}\bar{a}n-ta$ (1)	tired

1. $k\bar{r}\bar{a}m-ya-ti$ belongs to the 4. class, i.e., it is built on the zero-grade root. Here, “IE $C\underset{\circ}{m}H \rightarrow C\bar{a}m$ ” (**Lar_SY**) is regularly applied.
2. $k\bar{a}n-ta$ is readily explained by this laryngeal rule and by **BA**.

In contrast, $j\bar{n}\bar{a}-ta$ from the root $j\bar{n}\bar{a}$ (IE * $\underset{\circ}{j}neh_3$) can only be explained by levelling. See the dictionary.

Finally, some comments on a group of verbs where long vowels \bar{i} or \bar{u} go back to $\underset{\circ}{r}H$:

$$\begin{aligned} \text{IE } C^{+\text{lab}}\underset{\circ}{r}H &\rightarrow C\bar{u}r \\ \text{IE } C^{-\text{lab}}\underset{\circ}{r}H &\rightarrow C\bar{i}r \end{aligned}$$

All these forms have na as the PPP marker (as do $\bar{l}\bar{i}-na$ and $\bar{l}\bar{u}-na$ above):

√	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
$k\bar{r}$	IE root * $kerH$ (no SPal !)	* $kr\underset{\circ}{-}H-no \rightarrow k\bar{i}r-\eta a$	scattered

√	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
$j\bar{r}$	* $g\bar{r}H\text{-}ye\text{-}ti \rightarrow j\bar{i}r\text{-}ya\text{-}ti$	* $j\bar{r}H\text{-}no \rightarrow j\bar{i}r\text{-}\eta a$	wasted away
$t\bar{r}$	* $terH\text{-}e\text{-}ti \rightarrow tar\text{-}a\text{-}ti$	* $t\bar{r}H\text{-}no \rightarrow t\bar{i}r\text{-}\eta a$	passed
$d\bar{r}$	* $d\bar{r}H\text{-}ne\text{-}H\text{-}ti \rightarrow d\bar{r}\text{-}\eta\bar{a}\text{-}ti$	* $d\bar{r}H\text{-}no \rightarrow d\bar{i}r\text{-}\eta a$	torn
$p\bar{r}$	* $pl\text{-}ne\text{-}H\text{-}ti \rightarrow p\bar{r}\text{-}\eta\bar{a}\text{-}ti$	* $pl\text{-}H\text{-}no \rightarrow p\bar{u}r\text{-}\eta a$	filled

It seems that *str*, *str̄ṇôti* (“to spread”) also belongs to this list because one has the PPP *st̄ir̄-ṇa* similar to *t̄ir̄ṇa*. Presumably, the IE root is **sterH*. But note the second PPP *str̄ta*.

As a final (almost regular) example, turn to

√	3. pers. sg.	PPP	translation
div	* $diHv\text{-}ye\text{-}ti \rightarrow d\bar{i}v\text{-}ya\text{-}ti$	* $dyHv\text{-}to \rightarrow *dyuH\text{-}to \rightarrow dy\bar{u}\text{-}ta$	to play

Here, starting with IE **deiHv*, the zero-grade present indicative *d̄iv-ya-ti* is regular. Sound-law **Lar_MTh** yields the PPP.

Note that many verbs show quasi-thematic vowel *i* between the root (zero or even full grade) and the infinitive marker *ta*: *paṭh-i-ta*, *cumb-i-ta*, *bhāṣ-i-ta*, *uṣ-i-ta* (from *vas* with **RUKI**). Inserting *i* makes the forms more transparent.

C.4.6. Nouns and adjectives

Feminine action nouns in *ti*

Having dealt with feminine action nouns with zero suffix above (see pp. 115), consider now derivations with suffixes. For many verbs, the PPP provides a model of how to form the noun in *ti*. Pretty obvious cases are

√	PPP	translation	noun in <i>ti</i>	translation
$k\bar{r}$	$k\bar{r}\text{-}ta$	to make	$k\bar{r}\text{-}ti$	doing, deed
$kṣip$	$kṣip\text{-}ta$	to throw	$kṣip\text{-}ti$	throwing
$bh\bar{r}$	$bh\bar{r}\text{-}ta$	to carry	$bh\bar{r}\text{-}ti$	support
muc	$muc\text{-}ta$	to liberate	$muc\text{-}ti$	liberation
$m\bar{r}$	$m\bar{r}\text{-}ta$	to die	$m\bar{r}\text{-}ti$	death
yuj	$yuk\text{-}ta$	to join	$yuk\text{-}ti$	connection
vac (f.g.)	$uk\text{-}ta$	to speak	$uk\text{-}ti$	speech
vap (f.g.)	$up\text{-}ta$	to sow	$up\text{-}ti$	sowing seeds

C. Word formation

√	PPP	translation	noun in <i>ti</i>	translation
<i>śru</i>	<i>śru-ta</i>	to listen	<i>śru-ti</i>	vedic text
<i>stu</i>	<i>stu-ta</i>	to praise	<i>stu-ti</i>	praise, hymn
<i>smṛ</i>	<i>smṛ-ta</i>	to remember	<i>smṛ-ti</i>	tradition

Furthermore, *s-ti* (“being (close to a master) → dependent, vassal”) is the regular noun in *ti* from *as* (“to be”). One also finds Ved. *sti-pā* (“protecting the dependents”). The very common root *i* (“to go”) is contained in these nouns in *ti*:

√ <i>i</i>	PPP	translation	noun in <i>ti</i>	translation
<i>adhi-i</i>	<i>adhī-ta</i>	to study	<i>adhī-ti</i>	study
<i>anu-i</i>	<i>anv-i-ta</i>	to follow	<i>anv-i-ti</i>	following after
<i>abhi-i</i>	<i>abhī-ta</i>	to arrive	<i>abhī-ti</i>	attack
<i>ud-i</i>	<i>ud-i-ta</i>	to go up	<i>ud-i-ti</i>	sunrise
<i>upa-i</i>	<i>upê-ta</i>	to go towards	<i>upê-ti</i>	approach
<i>pra-i</i>	<i>prê-ta</i>	to set off	<i>prê-ti</i>	escape

OI roots ending in a nasal lead to the feminine noun in *ti* seen in the following table:

√ in f.g.	PPP	translation	noun in <i>ti</i>	translation
<i>gam</i>	<i>ga-ta</i>	to go	<i>ga-ti</i>	path
<i>tan</i>	<i>ta-ta</i>	to stretch	<i>ta-ti</i>	mass, crowd
<i>nam</i>	<i>na-ta</i>	to salute	<i>na-ti</i>	salutation
<i>man</i>	<i>ma-ta</i>	to think	<i>ma-ti</i>	thought
<i>yam</i>	<i>ya-ta</i>	to restrain	<i>ya-ti</i>	control
<i>ram</i>	<i>ra-ta</i>	to enjoy	<i>ra-ti</i>	pleasure
<i>han</i>	<i>ha-ta</i>	to hit	<i>ha-ti</i>	killing

As is the case for PPP, the aspiration shift **ASh** leaves its expected traces. For example, *vṛdh* (“to grow”) has PPP *vṛd-dha* and the feminine noun *vṛd-dhi*. Funnily, *vṛd-dhi* (“growth, lengthened grade”) is in zero grade! Cerebralisation is involved in these examples:

C.4. Past participle and other zero-grade forms

√	PPP	translation	noun in <i>ti</i>	translation
<i>iṣ</i>	<i>iṣ-ṭa</i>	to wish	<i>iṣ-ṭi</i>	wish
<i>krṣ</i>	<i>krṣ-ṭa</i>	to plough	<i>krṣ-ṭi</i>	ploughing, harvest
<i>drś</i>	<i>drś-ṭa</i>	to see	<i>drś-ṭi</i>	sight
<i>yaj</i> (f.g.)	<i>iṣ-ṭa</i>	to sacrifice	<i>iṣ-ṭi</i>	sacrifice
<i>vah</i> (f.g.)	<i>ū-dha</i>	to flow, to carry	<i>ū-dhi</i>	carrying
<i>viś</i>	<i>viś-ṭa</i>	to enter	<i>viś-ṭi</i>	compulsory work
<i>vṛṣ</i>	<i>vṛṣ-ṭa</i>	to rain	<i>vṛṣ-ṭi</i>	rain
<i>sr̥j</i>	<i>sr̥ṣ-ṭa</i>	to create	<i>sr̥ṣ-ṭi</i> (see p. 122)	creation

Furthermore, consider these two groups of laryngeal roots. The first one is without a nasal:

√	PPP	translation	noun in <i>ti</i>	translation
<i>jṛ̥</i>	<i>jṛ̥-ṇa</i>	to waste away	<i>a-jṛ̥-ti</i>	indigestibleness
<i>dā</i> (f.g.)	<i>di-ta</i>	to give	<i>di-ti</i>	offering, largess
	<i>dat-ta</i>	to give	<i>dat-ti</i>	giving, gift
<i>dā</i> (f.g.)	<i>di-ta</i>	to bind	<i>a-di-ti</i>	freedom, name of a goddess
<i>dhā</i> (f.g.)	<i>hi-ta</i>	to set, to place	<i>hi-ti</i>	mission, mandate
<i>nī</i>	<i>nī-ta</i>	to lead	<i>nī-ti</i>	conduct, policy
<i>pā</i> (f.g.)	<i>pī-ta</i>	to drink	<i>pī-ti</i>	drinking, tavern
<i>pū</i>	<i>pū-ta</i>	to purify	<i>pū-ti</i>	purity
<i>pṛ̥</i>	<i>pṛ̥-ṇa</i>	to fill	<i>pṛ̥-ti</i>	filling, reward
<i>bhī</i>	<i>bhī-ta</i>	to be afraid	<i>bhī-ti</i>	fear, danger
<i>bhū</i>	<i>bhū-ta</i>	to be	<i>bhū-ti</i>	existence, welfare
<i>sthā</i> (f.g.)	<i>sthi-ta</i>	to stand	<i>sthi-ti</i>	rule, standing

The second group contains a nasal together with a laryngeal. Observing the sound laws

$$\begin{array}{|l} \text{IE } C_{\overset{\circ}{n}}H \rightarrow C\bar{a} \\ \text{IE } C_{\overset{\circ}{m}}H \rightarrow C\bar{a}m \end{array}$$

one obtains:

C. Word formation

√ in f.g.	PPP	translation	noun in <i>ti</i>	translation
<i>kam</i>	<i>kān-ta</i>	to love	<i>kān-ti</i>	desire, female beauty
<i>kram</i>	<i>krān-ta</i>	to walk	<i>krān-ti</i>	going, attacking
<i>khan</i>	<i>khā-ta</i>	to dig	<i>khā-ti</i>	digging
<i>jan</i>	<i>jā-ta</i>	to be born	<i>jā-ti</i>	birth, caste
<i>dam</i>	<i>dān-ta</i>	to tame	<i>dān-ti</i>	self-restraint, subjection
<i>śam</i>	<i>śān-ta</i>	to get quiet	<i>śān-ti</i>	quietness, ease
<i>śram</i>	<i>śrān-ta</i>	to toil	<i>śrān-ti</i>	fatigue, weariness

Adjectives with *ra*

Quite a few adjectives exist that are built by adding *ra* to the zero grade of the verb:

√	PPP	translation	adjective in <i>ra</i>	translation
<i>ukṣ</i> or <i>vaj</i>		to get strong	<i>ug-ra</i>	powerful
<i>ud</i>	<i>un-na</i>	to make wet	<i>ud-ra</i>	otter
<i>krś</i> or <i>krṣ</i> ?	<i>krṣ-ṭa</i>	to moan	<i>kr̥cch-ra</i> (SIB?)	painful
<i>krū</i> (1)		to form a crust	<i>krū-ra</i>	bloody
<i>kṣip</i>	<i>kṣip-ta</i>	to throw	<i>kṣip-ra</i>	fast, quick
<i>kṣud</i>	<i>kṣun-na</i>	to crunch	<i>kṣud-ra</i>	mean
<i>gṛdh</i>	<i>gṛd-dha</i>	to be greedy	<i>gṛdh-ra</i>	greedy, vulture
<i>cit</i>	<i>cit-ta</i>	to observe	<i>cit-ra</i>	bright
			<i>cit-ra-m</i>	picture
<i>chid</i>	<i>chin-na</i>	to cut	<i>chid-ra</i>	leaky, hole
<i>dhī</i>	<i>dhī-ta</i>	to reflect	<i>dhī-ra</i>	steady
<i>nādh</i> (f.g.)		to be needy	<i>ādh-ra</i> (2)	poor, weak
<i>miś</i>	<i>miś-ṭa</i>	to mix	<i>miś-ra</i>	diverse
<i>rud</i>	<i>rud-i-ta</i>	to roar	<i>rud-ra</i>	terrific
<i>vip</i>		to tremble	<i>vip-ra</i>	excited, wise
<i>śvit</i>		to be white	<i>śvit-ra</i>	whitish
<i>sidh</i>	<i>siddha</i>	to succeed	<i>sidh-ra</i>	perfect, good
<i>sthā</i> (f.g.)	<i>sthi-ta</i>	to stand	<i>sthi-ra</i>	steady, durable

C.4. Past participle and other zero-grade forms

√	PPP	translation	adjective in <i>ra</i>	translation
<i>sphāy</i> (f.g.)		to grow fat	<i>sphi-ra</i>	abundant, vast
<i>hiṃs</i>	<i>hiṃs-i-ta</i>	to hurt	<i>hiṃs-ra</i>	hurting, vicious

1. See *kravis* in dictionary chapter.
2. **nHdh-ro* → *ādh-ra* (**Lar_SY**)

If the OI root begins with *a*, one observes the full grade instead. Thus, *asra* (“throwing, painful”) is built 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, consider these adjectives in *ra* from full grades:

√ in f.g.	translation	adjective in <i>ra</i>	translation
<i>as</i>	to throw	<i>as-ra</i>	throwing, painful
<i>dabh</i>	to destroy	<i>dabh-ra</i>	little, deficient
		also <i>dah-ra</i> (see pp. 50)	small, tender
<i>vak</i>	to go crookedly	<i>vak-ra</i>	crooked, curved
<i>vaj</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.

Masculine nouns in *āna*

According to an as-yet unpublished paper by Kulikov, sound law **Lo** may underlie the following very few masculine agent nouns in *āna*, i.e., IE **ono* → OI *āna*.

√	translation	m. (!) agent (!) noun in f.g.	translation
<i>budh</i>	to be awake	<i>budh-āna</i>	prudent, spiritual guide
<i>yudh</i>	to fight	<i>yudh-āna</i>	warrior → enemy

See s.v. *ghṛ* and s.v. *carman*.

C. Word formation

C.4.7. Passive voice

Zero grades

The general rule for the passive voice is this:

$$\text{OI root} + y + a + \bar{\text{ātmanêpada ending}}$$

In many cases, the zero grade can readily be recognised:

	√	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>srj</i>	<i>srj-a-ti</i>	<i>srj-y-a-tê</i>	to create
IE root with <i>ei</i>	<i>iṣ</i>	<i>icch-a-ti</i>	<i>iṣ-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 be 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 $\bar{\text{ātmanêpada}}$ forms of the 4. class (with *ya*) cannot be told apart from the passive voice.

The zero grade is also obvious for some OI roots with initial *ya* or *va*:

√ in f.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

In the following examples, **SY__N** is responsible for *a* in the zero grades:

C.4. Past participle and other zero-grade forms

√ 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 compile
<i>bandh</i>	<i>badh-nā-ti</i>	<i>badh-y-a-tê</i>	to bind
<i>manth</i>	<i>math-nā-ti</i>	<i>math-y-a-tê</i>	to stir, to shake

From subsection B.2.2 (pp. 22), remember the *mr-iy-a-tê* rule:

$$CryV \rightarrow CriyV$$

The following passive forms fall under this rule:

√	3. pers. sg. active	3. pers. sg. passive	translation
<i>kṛ</i>	<i>kar-ô-ti</i>	<i>kr-iy-a-tê</i>	to make
<i>bhṛ</i>	<i>bhar-a-ti</i>	<i>bhr-iy-a-tê</i>	to carry
<i>mṛ</i>	<i>mr-iy-a-tê</i> (1)	<i>mr-iy-a-tê</i> (1)	to die
<i>vṛ</i>	<i>vṛ-ṇā-ti</i>	<i>vr-iy-a-tê</i>	to choose
<i>sṛ</i>	<i>sar-a-ti</i>	<i>sr-iy-a-tê</i>	to flow, to move
<i>hṛ</i>	<i>harati</i>	<i>hr-iy-a-tê</i>	to take, to rob

1. Same forms in ātmanêpada and passive.

Let us now turn to laryngeal verbs where both PPP and passive use the zero grade:

√	PPP	3. pers. sg. passive	translation
<i>kṝ</i>	<i>kṝ-ṇa</i>	<i>kṝ-y-a-tê</i>	to scatter
<i>ḹ</i>	<i>ḹ-ṇa</i>	<i>ḹ-y-a-tê</i>	to waste away
<i>tṝ</i>	<i>tṝ-ṇa</i>	<i>tṝ-y-a-tê</i>	to pass
<i>dṝ</i>	<i>dṝ-ṇa</i>	<i>dṝ-y-a-tê</i>	to tear, to pierce
<i>pṝ</i>	<i>pṝ-ṇa</i>	<i>pṝ-y-a-tê</i>	to fill

Knowing the PPP (here with *ta*) is also very helpful for these laryngeal words:

C. Word formation

√	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

Observe

√	PPP	3. pers. sg. passive	translation
<i>pā</i> (f.g.)	<i>pī-ta</i>	<i>pī-y-a-tê</i>	to drink

where long \bar{i} might be explainable by metathesis $*ph_3i \rightarrow *pih_3$.

Passive forms like $nī-y-a-tê$ or $pī-y-a-tê$ with long \bar{i} are responsible for those forms where long \bar{i} is not, etymologically, justified:

√ in f.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>hi-ta</i>	<i>dhī-y-a-tê</i>	to set, to place
<i>sthā</i>	<i>sthi-ta</i>	<i>sthī-y-a-tê</i>	to stand
<i>hā</i> (f.g.)	<i>hī-na/hā-ta</i>	<i>hī-y-a-tê</i>	to abandon

It seems that long \bar{u} that is expected in $pūr-y-a-tê$, $pū-y-a-tê$, or $bhū-y-a-tê$ above might also be responsible for the following forms by analogy:

√	PPP	3. pers. sg. passive	translation
<i>stu</i> (see pp. 178)	<i>stu-ta</i>	<i>stū-y-a-tê</i>	to praise
<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-ṭa</i>	<i>ghôṣ-y-a-tê</i> (1)	to proclaim
<i>cur</i>		<i>côr-y-a-tê</i> (1)	to steal

C.4. Past participle and other zero-grade forms

√	PPP	3. pers. sg. passive	translation
<i>paṭh</i> (f.g.)	<i>paṭh-i-ta</i> (2, 3)	<i>paṭh-y-a-tê</i> (3)	to read
<i>pat</i> (f.g.)	<i>pat-i-ta</i> (2, 3)	<i>pat-y-a-tê</i> (3)	to fall
<i>tyaj</i> (f.g.)	<i>tyak-ta</i> (4a)	<i>tyaj-y-a-tê</i> (4a)	to abandon
<i>labh</i> (f.g.)	<i>lab-dha</i> (4b)	<i>labh-y-a-tê</i> (4b)	to obtain
<i>sad</i> (f.g.)	<i>san-na</i> (3)	<i>sad-y-a-tê</i> (3)	to sit
<i>smṛ</i>	<i>smṛ-ta</i>	<i>smar-y-a-tê</i> (5)	to remember

1. U.at. zero grades *ghuṣ-y-a-tê* or *cur-y-a-tê* would not pose any problem.
2. Some verbs like *pat* use *i-ta* as the PPP marker without etymological justification.
3. In roots like *pat*, neither the root-initial nor the root-final consonant can become syllabic. Therefore, the full grade cannot be avoided.
4. Sometimes, the regularly formed PPP and the passives would be difficult to understand:
 - a) While possible, *tik-ta* or *tij-y-a-tê* would have been confused with the corresponding forms from the root *tij*, *têjati* (“to be sharp, to become sharp”).
 - b) In root *labh*, *l* might become syllabic. Levelling might have rectified the u.at. outcomes *ḷb-dha* and *ḷbh-y-a-tê*.
5. At a first glance, u.at. *smṛ-ya-tê* seems possible. However, it would violate the *mr-iy-a-tê* rule (pp. 22):

$$CryV \rightarrow CriyV$$

which would then lead to u.at. and difficult to recognise *smṛ-iy-a-tê* → *sar-iy-a-tê*.

Full grades are consistently present in nasal roots:

√ in f.g.	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>na-ta</i>	<i>nam-y-a-tê</i>	to salute
<i>man</i>	<i>ma-ta</i>	<i>man-y-a-tê</i>	to think
<i>yam</i>	<i>ya-ta</i>	<i>yam-y-a-tê</i>	to restrain
<i>ram</i>	<i>ra-ta</i>	<i>ram-y-a-tê</i>	to enjoy
<i>han</i>	<i>ha-ta</i>	<i>han-y-a-tê</i>	to hit

C. Word formation

There are very good reasons for the irregular full grade here. For example, the regularly built passive form from *nam* is not *nam-y-a-tê* but *na-y-a-tê* ← **nm̥-* (where *a* derives from syllabic *m̥*). And this *na-y-a-tê* might easily be understood as *nay-a-tê* from *nī* (“to lead”).

C.4.8. Desideratives

Reduplication

Desideratives use reduplication. Additionally, reduplications are found in four other grammatical instances as well:

- ◇ The reader is invited to compare the verbs of the third class (pp. 92), which also function with reduplication.
- ◇ Sanskrit perfect forms are mostly formed in a reduplicative fashion (see pp. 203).
- ◇ One of the aorist formations is by way of reduplication (see pp. 213).
- ◇ Frequentative verbs also use reduplication (see pp. 148).

Simple examples from the zero grade or, occasionally, the full grade

Roughly speaking, desideratives are built according to this rule:

IE root	→	OI desiderative
$C_1 Fg C_2$	→	$C_1 Zg - C_1 Zg C_2 - s -$

Consider the quite transparent example of *yuj* with

- ◇ *u*-reduplication,
- ◇ zero grade, and
- ◇ *s* marker:

**yu-yug-s-*
→ *yu-yuk-s-* (**BA**)
→ *yu-yuk-ṣ-* (**RUKI**) → *yu-yuk-ṣ-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

**yu-yudh-s-*
→ *yu-yuth-s-* (**BA**)
→ *yu-yut-s-* (**ASH**, but *s* cannot be aspirated) → *yu-yut-s-a-ti* he wishes to fight
→ *yu-yut-s-u* combative
→ *yu-yut-s-ā* desire to fight

C.4. Past participle and other zero-grade forms

Instead of the reduplication with *u*, one finds reduplication with *i*, which is more common. This is the rule:

Desiderative reduplication with *u* if *u* is the root vowel
 with *i* otherwise

Similarly, but with some difficulties here and there, compare

√	3. pers. sg.	adjective	noun
<i>jñā</i> (f.g.)	<i>ji-jñā-s-a-tê</i> (1) he wants to know	<i>ji-jñā-s-u</i> inquisitive	<i>ji-jñā-s-ā</i> curiosity
<i>tij</i>	<i>ti-tik-ṣ-a-tê</i> he wants to become sharp	<i>ti-tik-ṣ-u</i> enduring patiently	
<i>tyaj</i> (f.g.)	<i>ti-tyak-ṣ-a-ti</i> (1a) he wants to abandon		
<i>pā</i> (f.g.)	<i>pi-pā-s-a-tê</i> (1) he wants to drink	<i>pi-pā-s-u</i> thirsty	<i>pi-pā-s-ā</i> thirst
<i>man</i> (f.g.)	<i>mi-māṃ-s-a-tê</i> (1c) he examines		<i>mī-māṃ-s-ā</i>
<i>miś</i>		<i>mi-mik-ṣ-u</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> (f.g.)	<i>vi-vak-ṣ-a-ti</i> (1b) he wants to say	<i>vi-vak-ṣ-u</i> (1) wanting to say	<i>vi-vak-ṣ-ā</i> (1) desire to speak
<i>vṛt</i>	<i>vi-vṛt-s-a-ti</i> (2) he wishes to turn		
	<i>vi-vart-i-ṣ-a-ti</i> (3) he wishes to turn		
<i>vṛdh</i>	<i>vi-vṛt-s-a-ti</i> (2) he wants to grow		
<i>vardhay</i> (4)	<i>vi-varḍhay-i-ṣ-a-ti</i> (1, 3) he wants to augment	<i>vi-varḍhay-i-ṣ-u</i> (1, 3) wishing to augment	

1. In order to bring out the root most clearly, one sometimes sees the full grade. For example:

C. Word formation

- a) *ti-tik-ṣ-a-tê* is desiderative from *tij*, *têjati* (“to be sharp, to become sharp”), but would also be the regularly formed desiderative from *tyaj*.
 - b) *vi-vak-ṣ-a-ti* follows the pattern of *C₁Zg-C₁FgC₂-s-*. 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**.
 - c) *mi-māṃ-ṣ-a-tê* is irregular with long \bar{a} . The zero-grade desiderative of *man* is u.at. *mi-ma-s-a-tê*, where syllabic \bar{n} would have turned into *a*. See p. 144. If built with the full grade, one should expect u.at. *mi-maṃ-ṣ-a-tê*, similar to the future *maṃ-sy-a-ti* by **Ns**.
2. The desideratives from roots *vrt* and *vrdh* coincide (backward assimilation, *s* not aspiratable).
 3. In order to avoid difficult forms, quasi-thematic *i* is sometimes introduced.
 4. Causative of *vrdh*

Applying Grassmann's deaspiration

A close look at a few desiderative examples is in order. The following desideratives involve Grassmann's deaspiration. From OI *bhid* ← IE **bheid* one obtains

$$\begin{aligned}
 & *bhi-bhid-s- \\
 \rightarrow & \quad bi-bhid-s- \text{ (DA)} \\
 \rightarrow & \quad bi-bhit-s- \text{ (BA)} \quad \rightarrow \quad bi-bhit-s-a-ti \quad \text{he wishes to split} \\
 & \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \rightarrow \quad bi-bhit-s-u \quad \text{wishing to split} \\
 & \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \rightarrow \quad bi-bhit-s-\bar{a} \quad \text{desire to split}
 \end{aligned}$$

from OI *bhuj* ← IE **bheug*:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & *bhu-bhug-s- \\
 \rightarrow & \quad bu-bhug-s- \text{ (DA)} \\
 \rightarrow & \quad bu-bhuk-s- \text{ (BA)} \\
 \rightarrow & \quad bu-bhuk-ṣ- \text{ (RUKI)} \quad \rightarrow \quad bu-bhuk-ṣ-a-ti \quad \text{he wishes to eat} \\
 & \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \rightarrow \quad bu-bhuk-ṣ-u \quad \text{hungry} \\
 & \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \rightarrow \quad bu-bhuk-ṣ-\bar{a} \quad \text{hunger}
 \end{aligned}$$

and from OI *bhū* ← IE **bheuH*:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & *bhu-bhuH-s- \\
 \rightarrow & \quad bu-bhū-s- \text{ (DA, Lar__ V)} \\
 \rightarrow & \quad bu-bhū-ṣ- \text{ (RUKI)} \quad \rightarrow \quad bu-bhū-ṣ-a-ti \quad \text{he wishes to be} \\
 & \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \rightarrow \quad bu-bhū-ṣ-u \quad \text{wishing to be} \\
 & \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \quad \rightarrow \quad bu-bhū-ṣ-\bar{a} \quad \text{desire of being}
 \end{aligned}$$

Consider now a few examples that involve root-final velars and palatals, such as *lih* ← IE **leiǵh*:

**li-liǵh-s-*
 → *li-lik-s-* (**ASh, BA**)
 → *li-lik-š-* (**RUKI**) → *li-lik-š-a-ti* he wishes to lick

OI *guh* ← IE **gheuǵh*:

**ghu-ghuǵh-s-*
 → *gu-ghuǵh-s-* (**DA**)
 → *gu-ghuk-s-* (**ASh, BA**)
 → *gu-ghuk-š-* (**RUKI**) → *gu-ghuk-š-a-ti* he wishes to hide
 → *gu-ghuk-š-u* wishing to hide
 → *gu-ghuk-š-ā* desire of hiding

and *duh* ← IE **dheugh*:

**dhu-dhugh-s-*
 → *du-dhugh-s-* (**DA**)
 → *du-dhuk-s-* (**ASh, BA**)
 → *du-dhuk-š-* (**RUKI**) → *du-dhuk-š-a-ti* he wishes to milk
 → *du-dhuk-š-u* wishing to milk
 → *du-dhuk-š-ā* desire of milking

Later desideratives may not contain the root-initial aspiration, undoubtedly by levelling. An example is *du-duk-š-* in contrast to *du-dhuk-š-* from the root *duh*.

From IE **ghrebh₂* → OI *grah* (**Lar**__**CH**) one obtains the desiderative *ji-ghṛk-š-u* which is a bit difficult because the IE root-final is labial:

**ghi-ghṛh-s-*
 → *gi-ghṛh-s-* (**DA**)
 → *ji-ghṛh-s-* (**SPal**)
 → *ji-ghṛk-š-* (analogy with roots like *guh* above) → *ji-ghṛk-š-a-ti* he wishes to grab
 → *ji-ghṛk-š-u* wishing to rob
 → *ji-ghṛk-š-ā* desire to rob

Merging of the reduplication syllable with the zero-grade root

In contrast to these examples, deaspiration in the reduplication syllable does not take place for *bhaj* (“to allot, to divide”) ← IE **bheǵ*:

C. Word formation

- **bhi-bhǵ-s-*
 → *bhi-bj-s-* (**ASh**, but *s* not aspiratable)
 → *bhi-pk-s-* (**BA**)
 → *bhi-k-s-* (**CCI**)
 → *bhi-k-ṣ-* (**RUKI**)
- *bhik-ṣ-a-ti* he wishes to share
 → *bhik-ṣ-u* beggar
 → *bhik-ṣ-ā* the act of begging

Here are 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 **kék*:

- **śi-śk-s-* (**PPal**)
 → *śi-k-s-* (**CCI**)
 → *śi-k-ṣ-* (**RUKI**)
- *śik-ṣ-a-ti* he learns
 → *śik-ṣ-u* desirous of learning
 → *śik-ṣ-ā* science

āp (a reduplicated present form, see dictionary) ← IE **h₁ep*:

- **h₁i-h₁p-s-*
 → *īp-s-* (IE *iH* → OI *ī*)
- *īp-s-a-ti* he wishes to obtain
 → *īp-s-u* desirous of
 → *īp-s-ā* desire to obtain

akṣi n. (“eye”) ← IE **h₃ek^w*:

- **h₃i-h₃k^w-s-*
 → *īk^w-s-* (IE *iH* → OI *ī*)
 → *īk-s-* (see pp. 37)
 → *īk-ṣ-* (**RUKI**)
- *īk-ṣ-a-tê* he watches over
 → *īk-ṣ-ā* sight

IE **h₂neḱ*:

- **h₂i-h₂nḱ-s-*
 → *īak-s-* (**Lar_V**, **SY_N**, **SY_Conf**, **SIB**)
 → *iyak-s-* (**V+SV**)
 → *iyak-ṣ-* (**RUKI**)
- Ved. *iyak-ṣ-a-ti* he wishes to reach

an (“to breath”) ← IE **h₂enh₁*:

- **h₂i-h₂nh₁-s-*
- *āni-s-* (twice **Lar__V**)
- *āni-ṣ-* (**RUKI**)
- *anini-ṣ-* (by levelling with *an*) → *anini-ṣ-a-ti* he wishes to breathe

dā ← IE **deh₃*:

- **di-dh₃-s-*
- *di-d-s-* (**Lar__V**: just loss of laryngeal)
- *di-t-s-* (**BA**)
- *dit-s-a-ti* he wishes to give
- *dit-s-u* desirous of giving
- *dit-s-ā* desire to give

dhā ← IE **dheh₁*:

- **dhi-dhh₁-s-*
- *dhi-dh-s-* (**Lar__V**: just loss of laryngeal)
- *dhi-th-s-* (**BA**)
- *dhi-t-s-* (**ASh**) → *dhit-s-a-ti* he wishes to set

and *dabh* ← IE **dhebh*:

- **dhi-dhbh-s-*
- *dhi-bh-s-* (**CCI**)
- *dhi-ph-s-* (**BA**)
- *dhi-p-s-* (**ASh**) → *dhip-s-a-ti* he wishes to injure

(besides levelled *dipsati*)

And the three final examples *daś* (see s.v. *daśas*) ← IE **dek* :

- **di-dk-s-*
- *dīk-s-* (**CpLdk**)
- *dīk-ṣ-* (**SIB**) → *dīk-ṣ-a-tê* he consecrates
- *dīk-ṣ-ā* consecration

pad ← IE **ped*:

- **pi-pd-s-*
- *pi-pd-s-* (**CCI**)
- *pi-t-s-* (**BA**) → *pit-s-a-ti* he wishes to go
- *pit-s-u* desirous of going
- *pit-s-ā* desire to go

C. Word formation

and *labh* ← IE **lebh*

	* <i>li-lbh-s-</i>	
→	<i>li-bh-s-</i> (CCI)	
→	<i>li-ph-s-</i> (BA)	
→	<i>li-p-s-</i> (ASh)	
	→	<i>lip-s-a-ti</i> he wishes to obtain
		→ <i>lip-s-u</i> desirous of obtaining
		→ <i>lip-s-ā</i> desire to obtain

Secondary palatalisation

Some desideratives are instances of secondary palatalisation:

√	3. pers. sg.	adjective	noun
<i>kṛ</i>	<i>ci-k̄r-ṣ-a-ti</i> (1) he wants to make	<i>ci-k̄r-ṣ-u</i> (1) intending to make	<i>ci-k̄r-ṣ-ā</i> (1) desire to make
<i>gam</i>	<i>ji-gam-i-ṣ-a-ti</i> (2, 3) he wants to go	<i>ji-gam-i-ṣ-u</i> (2, 3) intending to go	<i>ji-gam-i-ṣ-ā</i> (2, 3) intending to go
<i>granth</i>	<i>ji-granth-i-ṣ-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 *ti-t̄r-ṣ-u* in the next table).
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** line 1

Laryngeal roots ending on *rH*

Roots with long syllabic \bar{r} ← IE *rH* form the desiderative from the full grade or from the zero grade.

C.4. Past participle and other zero-grade forms

$\sqrt{\text{CerH}}$	3. pers. sg.	adjective
$k\bar{r}$	<i>ci-kar-i-ṣ-a-ti</i> (1, 2) he wants to pour out	<i>ci-kar-i-ṣ-u</i> (1, 2) desirous to pour out
$t\bar{r}$	<i>ti-tīr-ṣ-a-ti</i> ← IE * <i>ti-tr_oH-s</i> (3) he wants to cross	<i>ti-tīr-ṣ-u</i> (3) desirous of crossing
$d\bar{r}$	<i>di-dīr-ṣ-a-ti</i> (3) he wants to tear	<i>di-dīr-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-pūr-ṣ-a-ti</i> ← IE * <i>pu-pr_oH-s</i> (4) he wants to spend completely (time)	

1. **SPal**
2. Full grade plus *i*, reflecting a laryngeal
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:

$\sqrt{\text{ }}$	3. pers. sg.	adjective	noun
$j\bar{i}$	<i>jī-gī-ṣ-a-ti</i> (1) he wants to conquer	<i>jī-gī-ṣ-u</i> (1) imperialist	<i>jī-gī-ṣ-ā</i> (1) desire to conquer
$m\bar{r}$	<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
$śru$	<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
$s\bar{r}$	<i>si-ṣīr-ṣ-a-ti</i> (3) he wants to run		

C. Word formation

1. Long \bar{i} in $j\bar{i}-g\bar{i}-\zeta-a-ti$ may be explainable by a suffix Hs rather than just s . Similarly, long \bar{u} in $\acute{s}u-\acute{s}r\bar{u}-\zeta-a-t\hat{e}$ may also be due to suffix Hs .
2. The same laryngeal is responsible for $mu-m\bar{u}r-\zeta-a-ti$. In $pu-p\bar{u}r-\zeta-a-ti$ above, the laryngeal stems from the root. Here, the laryngeal would originate in the suffix. In both cases, the labial (!) m is responsible for producing $m\bar{u}r$ in the main syllable and hence mu as the reduplicative syllable.
3. Similar to $ti-t\bar{r}-\zeta-a-ti$ above, one obtains $\bar{u}r-\zeta$ from rHs , but note
 - a) IE root $*terH$ and desiderative $*ti-trH-s-$ → $ti-t\bar{r}-\zeta-$ versus
 - b) IE root $*ser$ and desiderative $*si-sr-Hs-$ → $si-\zeta\bar{r}-\zeta-$

Perhaps, this explanation overuses laryngeals. Analogy may be an alternative explanation.

There exist several desideratives for *man* (“to think”) ← 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:

$*mi-m\bar{n}-Hs-$	
→ $*mi-m\bar{n}H-s-$	
→ $mi-m\bar{a}-s-$ (laryngeal after syllabic \bar{n})	
→ $mi-m\bar{a}\bar{m}-s-$ (lev. from $ma\bar{m}-sy-a-ti?$)	
→ $m\bar{i}-m\bar{a}\bar{m}-s-$ (long \bar{i} for unclear reasons)	→ $m\bar{i}-m\bar{a}\bar{m}-s-a-t\hat{e}$ he doubts
	→ $m\bar{i}-m\bar{a}\bar{m}-s-\bar{a}$ investigation

There exist two different desideratives for *han* (“to kill”) ← IE $*g^when$, depending on the suffix. On the one hand, one finds the Hs -desiderative:

$*g^whi-g^wh\bar{n}-Hs-$	
→ $g^whi-g^wh\bar{a}-s-$ (laryngeal after syllabic \bar{n})	
→ $g^wi-g^wh\bar{a}-s-$ (DA)	
→ $j\bar{i}-gh\bar{a}-s-$ (SPal)	
→ $j\bar{i}-gh\bar{a}\bar{m}-s-$ (lev. from $ha\bar{m}-sy-a-ti?$)	→ $j\bar{i}-gh\bar{a}\bar{m}-s-a-ti$ he wishes to kill
	→ $j\bar{i}-gh\bar{a}\bar{m}-s-u$ revengeful
	→ $j\bar{i}-gh\bar{a}\bar{m}-s-\bar{a}$ revenge

On the other hand, the *s* suffix yields:

	$*g^w hi-g^w hn-s-$	
→	<i>hi-g^whn-s-</i> (SPal)	
→	<i>hi-n-s-</i> (CCI)	
→	<i>hi-ṛ-s-</i> (Ns)	→ <i>hiṛ-s-a-ti</i> he injures
		→ <i>hiṛ-s-ā</i> injury

C.4.9. Compound-final “zero grades”

At the end of compounds, forms like *dvi-ja* or *kha-ga* vaguely resemble zero grades. Some can be understood as employing only the root-initial consonant. Remember the consequentials of the second subgroup (pp. 82) that are derived in a similar fashion. Let us call the forms to be presented now ultra-zero grades. A few might indeed be 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-dhi* 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”)
 - *sēnā-nīs* m. (“army leader, general”)
 - *grāma-ṇīs* m. (“village leader”)
 - *agra-ṇīs* m. (“leader”)
- ◇ *vid*, *vêt-ti* (“to know”) with PPP *vit-ta*, *vid-i-ta*
 - *vêda-vit* (“Veda knowing”)
 - *ātma-vit* (“knower of the self”)

Three odd examples add *t* (perhaps in analogy to *vêda-vit*):

- ◇ *ji*, *jayati* (“to conquer”) with PPP *ji-ta*
 - *indra-jit* m. (“conqueror of *Indra*”)
 - *apsu-jit* (“conquering in the region of the clouds, i.e., *Indra*”), with loc. pl. of *ap* (“water”) instead of stem form (see also *apsu-ja* below)
- ◇ *bhr*, *bharati* (“to bear”) with PPP *bhr-ta*

C. Word formation

- *śastra-bhṛt* (“weapon bearer → warrior”)
- ◇ *kr̥, karōti* with PPP *kr̥-ta*
 - *duṣ-kr̥t* (“acting in an evil manner”) ← *duṣ* (“bad, evil”)

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 a sandhi rule), also a common Hindi word as *a-cchā*
- ◇ *jan, jāyatê* (“to beget, to be born”) with PPP **ǵn̥-h₁-to* → *jā-ta*
 - *dvi-ja* (“twice-born”) with *dvi-ja* m. (“brahmin, bird, tooth”)
 - *ātma-ja* (“self-produced, son”) and *ātma-jā* (“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, jānāti* (“to know”) with f.g. (!) PPP IE **ǵneh₃-to* → *jñā-ta*
 - *sarva-jñā* (“all-knowing”)
- ◇ *dā, dadāti* (“to give”) with PPP **dh₃-to* → *dī-ta* besides *dat-ta*
 - *vara-da* (“giving boons, *Brahmā*”)
 - *ab-da* (“water giver → cloud”, “when clouds reappear → year”) ← *ap* (“water”) by **BA**
- ◇ *pā, pibati* 1. class (“to drink”) with PPP **ph₃i-to* → **pih₃-to* → *pā-ta*
 - *sōma-pa* (“drinking *Soma*”)
 - *pāda-pa* (“foot-drinker → tree”)
- ◇ *pā, pā-ti* (“to protect”) with PPP *pā-ta*
 - *pra-jā-pa* (“protecting the subjects → king”)
 - *nṛ-pa* (“man protecting → king”)
- ◇ *sthā, ti-ṣṭh-a-ti* (“to stand”) with PPP **sth₂-to* → *sthi-ta*
 - *gṛha-stha* (“householder”)
 - *sattva-stha* (“established in *sattva*, firm in purity”)
 - *grantha-stha* (“(knowledge) present in a book”)
 - *kaṇṭha-stha* m. (“(knowledge) present in the throat → known by heart”)

One might try to explain

- ◇ *pra-bhu* m. (“lord, master”)
- ◇ *a-bhv-a* (“not being (good) → monstrous, powerful”)

by positing the zero grade of IE root **bheuH* 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. Rare lengthened grade in action nouns

On pp. 103, some derivatives on *a* are mentioned like

- ◇ *jay-a* (“victory”) ← *ji* (“to conquer”)
- ◇ *bhav-a* (“being, state”) ← IE **bhevH-o* (OI z.g. root *bhū*)

Building on the same verbal roots, one also finds 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-ṣāda* 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. Word formation

C.5.3. Frequentatives

Two patterns and six constructions

Frequentative verbs work with reduplication similar to desideratives. In the latter forms, the reduplicated syllable is “emphasised” more strongly. Frequentatives mostly follow one of two patterns:

marker	frequentative
<i>ya</i> marker	reduplication syllable + root + <i>ya</i> + ātm.
\bar{i} marker	reduplication syllable + root + \bar{i} + par.

Observe:

- ◇ Any given verb might exhibit 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. *car* (“to go, to stir”) ← IE $*k^{w}el$ has the frequentative adjective *ca-kr-a* (“unsteady → wheel”).

First construction

For each of the six constructions, the general model is described together with a few examples. The first construction involves semivowels:

1. construction		IE root	→	OI frequentative
	<i>ya</i> marker	$C_1 FgC_2$	→	$C_1 Fg-C_1 ZgC_2-ya$ + ātm.
	\bar{i} marker	$C_1 FgC_2$	→	$C_1 Fg-C_1 ZgC_2-\bar{i}$ + 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, consider

√	3. sg. ātm. (<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 be awake
<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>šuc</i>	<i>šô-šuc-ya-tê</i>	<i>šô-šuc-\bar{i}-ti</i>	to grieve
<i>šubh</i>	<i>šô-šubh-ya-tê</i>	<i>šô-šubh-\bar{i}-ti</i>	to shine

C.5. Lengthened-grade forms and forms using several grades

√	3. sg. ātm. (<i>ya</i> suffix)	3. sg. par. (\bar{i} suffix)	translation
<i>svap</i> (f.g.)	<i>sô-ṣup-ya-tê</i>	see 2. construction	to sleep

Second construction

The first construction uses the sequence *Fg-Zg*, the second construction employs higher grades, namely *Lg-Fg*:

2. construction		IE root	→	OI frequentative
	<i>ya</i> marker	C_1FgC_2	→	$C_1Lg-C_1FgC_2-ya + \bar{a}tm.$
	\bar{i} marker	C_1FgC_2	→	$C_1Lg-C_1FgC_2-\bar{i} + par.$
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 pretty transparent. But note: as in desideratives like *śu-śrū-ṣ-u*, only the first root-initial consonant gets reduplicated in *jval* and *svap*, (i.e., resonants as second root-initial consonants are not reduplicated) in contrast to *smṛ*:

√ in f.g.	3. sg. ātm. (<i>ya</i> suffix)	3. sg. par. (\bar{i} suffix)	translation
<i>jval</i>	<i>jā-jval-ya-tê</i>	<i>jā-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> (z.g.)	<i>smā-smar-ya-tê</i>	<i>smā-smar-\bar{i}-ti</i>	to remember
<i>svap</i>	see 1. construction	<i>sā-svap-\bar{i}-ti</i>	to sleep

Third construction

In contrast to the first and second construction, the third one repeats the full-grade root:

3. construction		IE root	→	OI frequentative
	<i>ya</i> marker	C_1FgC_2	→	$C_1FgC_2-C_1FgC_2-ya + \bar{a}tm.$
	\bar{i} marker	C_1FgC_2	→	$C_1FgC_2-C_1FgC_2-\bar{i} + par.$
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>

C. Word formation

Here are a few examples:

√	3. sg. ātm. (<i>ya</i> suffix)	3. sg. par. (<i>ī</i> suffix)	translation
<i>kram</i>	<i>cañ-kram-ya-tê</i> (1, 2, 3)	<i>cañ-kram-ī-ti</i> (1, 2, 3)	to walk
<i>gam</i>	<i>jañ-gam-ya-tê</i> (2, 3)	<i>jañ-gam-ī-ti</i> (2, 3)	to go
<i>car</i>		<i>car-car-ī-ti</i> (2)	to walk
<i>bhram</i>	<i>bam-bhram-ya-tê</i> (1, 4)	<i>bam-bhram-ī-ti</i> (1, 4)	to roam

1. Regularly, only the first word-initial consonant gets reduplicated. The resonant *r* as the second root-initial consonant is not reduplicated. Therefore: *cañ-kram-ya-tê* and *bam-bhram-ya-tê*.
2. Secondary palatalisation seems behind *cañ-kram-ya-tê* and *jañ-gam-ya-tê*. But the evidence is far from clear. Perhaps, other explanations using analogy might be more convincing.
3. The verbs that end in a nasal show expected backward assimilation where the suitable class nasal (here: the velar one) is used.
4. 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	→	OI frequentative
	<i>ya</i> marker	C_1FgC_2	→	$C_1Fg-N-C_1FgC_2-ya + \bar{a}tm.$
	<i>ī</i> marker	C_1FgC_2	→	$C_1Fg-N-C_1FgC_2-\bar{i} + par.$
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>

That is, omitting the root-final consonant, a nasal is infixes after the reduplication syllable. This is relevant for understanding frequentatives like

√	3. sg. ātm. (<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-n-dah-ya-tê</i>	<i>da-n-dah-ī-ti</i>	to burn

Fourth construction

In the fourth construction, long *ī* is inserted after the reduplication syllable:

C.5. Lengthened-grade forms and forms using several grades

4. construction		IE root	→	OI frequentative
	<i>ya</i> marker	$C_1 erC_2$	→	$C_1 ar-\bar{i}-C_1 rC_2-ya + \bar{a}tm.$
	\bar{i} marker	$C_1 erC_2$	→	$C_1 ar-\bar{i}-C_1 rC_2-\bar{i} + par.$
example	<i>ya</i> marker	<i>serp</i>	→	<i>sar-\bar{i}-sr̥p-ya-tê</i>
	\bar{i} marker	<i>serp</i>	→	<i>sar-\bar{i}-sr̥p-\bar{i}-ti</i>

Consider these examples that are exactly formed like *sar- \bar{i} -sr̥p-ya-tê*:

√	3. sg. $\bar{a}tm.$ (<i>ya</i> suffix)	3. sg. par. (\bar{i} suffix)	translation
<i>nṛt</i>	<i>nar-\bar{i}-nṛt-ya-tê</i>	see 5. construction	to dance
<i>vṛt</i>	<i>var-\bar{i}-vṛt-ya-tê</i>	<i>var-\bar{i}-vṛt-\bar{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 \bar{i} suffix:

5. construction	IE root	→	OI frequentative
	$C_1 erC_2$	→	$C_1 ar-\bar{i}-C_1 arC_2- + par.$
examples	<i>vert</i>	→	<i>var-\bar{i}-vart-ti</i>
	<i>nert</i>	→	<i>nar-\bar{i}-nar-ti</i>

Sixth construction

The sixth construction is applied to long \bar{a} roots with laryngeal origin:

√	3. sg. $\bar{a}tm.$ (<i>ya</i> suffix)	3. sg. par.	translation
<i>dā</i>	<i>dê-d\bar{i}-ya-tê</i>	<i>dā-dā-ti</i>	to give
<i>pā</i>	<i>pê-p\bar{i}-ya-tê</i>	<i>pā-pā-ti</i>	to drink

Similarly, compare *jê-j \bar{r} -ya-tê* from root *jṛ* (to decay).

C.5.4. Gerundives

Gerundives are formed with *tavya*, *an \bar{v} ya*, or *(t)ya*. They occur in all grades:

√	translation	f.g.	z.g.	l.g.
<i>kṛ</i>	to make	<i>kar-tavya</i> (1), <i>kar-aṇ\bar{v}ya</i>	<i>kṛ-tya</i>	<i>kār-ya</i>
<i>gam</i>	to go	<i>gan-tavya</i> (1), <i>gam-an\bar{v}ya</i> , <i>gam-ya</i>		

C. Word formation

√	translation	f.g.	z.g.	l.g.
<i>jī</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 in *tum* or the agent nouns in *tar* (pp. 97).
2. *jê-ya* versus *jay-ya* is not totally clear. Since the *ya*-form begins with a consonant, *jê-ya* is expected by **DIPH**. In contrast, *jay-ya* is difficult.
3. *bhav-i-tavya* is regular as is the infinitive *bhav-i-tum* due to the laryngeal root IE **bheuH*.

Some gerundives surprisingly exhibit *ê*, such as

√	translation		
<i>dā</i>	to give	<i>dê-ya</i>	<i>ā-dê-ya</i> (“to be taken”)
<i>dhā</i>	to set, to place	<i>dhê-ya</i>	<i>vi-dhê-ya</i> (“to be determined, 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:

$$\begin{aligned}
 & *peh_3i-yo \\
 \rightarrow & pāi-ya \text{ (Lar_V)} \\
 \rightarrow & pê-ya \text{ (like } vêt \text{ according to VS 2. line, pp. 32)}
 \end{aligned}$$

while the other long *ā* verbs do not exhibit *i* in the root and are built by analogy with *pê-ya*.

C.6. Miscellanea

C.6.1. 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. 147) but the first syllable. Consider these examples:

lengthened 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>lāuk-ik-a</i>	worldly	<i>lōk-a</i> (“world”)

Rarely, alpha privativum is lengthened in similar instances:

lengthened 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 forms also occur in neuter nouns in *ya* indicating “-ness” or “-ity”.

lengthened 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>jād-ya-m</i>	stupidity	<i>jad-a</i> (“stupid”)
<i>trâigun-ya</i>	pertaining to the three <i>guṇas</i>	<i>trigun-a</i> (“with three <i>guṇas</i> ”)
<i>dārīdr-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>mādhur-ya-m</i>	sweetness	<i>madhur-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>śūr-a</i> (“brave”)
<i>svā-sth-ya-m</i>	health	<i>sva-stha</i> (“well at ease”) ← <i>sthā</i>

C.6.2. Ātmanêpada present-tense participles

The ātmanêpada present-tense participles vary according to whether thematic or athematic verbs are concerned.

- ◇ For athematic verbs, the ending *āna* is attached to the weak present stem. For example, the present participle from *duh*, *duh-mas* (“to milk”) is *duh-āna*.
- ◇ For thematic verbs, the thematic vowel OI *a* and the ending *māna* is attached to the present stem. For example, the present participle from *man*, *man-y-a-tê* (“to think”) is *man-y-a-māna*.

It is argued that

$$\text{IE } *mh_1no$$

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 stem causing *m* to become syllabic. Then **Lar__SY** (IE $CmHC \rightarrow CāC$) regularly produces *āna*.
- ◇ By **Lar__V**, thematic verbs should have produced *a-mīna* (a Prakrit form *mīna* does indeed exist). Analogy was then responsible for producing OI and even Ved. *a-māna*:

	<i>a-mīna</i>	
influenced by	<i>āna</i> in athematic verbs	with long <i>ā</i> before <i>n</i>
turns into	<i>a-māna</i> in thematic verbs	with long <i>ā</i> before <i>n</i>

The suffix *āna* may have a second (confounded?) origin, see p. 131.

D. Conjugations

D.1. Thematic and athematic verbs

D.1.1. Thematic verbs

Short introduction

The reader is invited to revisit section C.2 on pp. 84. 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: $\sqrt{bhṛ}$	athematic: $\sqrt{bhī}$	
1	<i>bhar-ā-mi</i>	<i>bi-bhê-mi</i>	present
2	<i>bhar-a-si</i>	<i>bi-bhê-ṣi</i>	indicative
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 indicatives of present and future tenses. Secondary endings are used for imperfect, imperative, and optative.

Endings for thematic verbs, parasmâipada

The thematic endings are given in the following table:

D. Conjugations

thematic verbs parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>mi</i> (1, 2)	<i>vas</i> (5)	<i>mas</i> (1)	present
2	<i>si</i> (1, 2)	<i>thas</i>	<i>tha</i>	indicative
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> (5)	<i>ma</i> (1)	imper-
2	<i>s</i> (1)	<i>tam</i>	<i>ta</i>	fect
3	<i>t</i> (1)	<i>tām</i>	<i>n</i> (3, 4)	(secondary ending)
1	<i>ni</i>	<i>va</i> (5)	<i>ma</i> (1)	imper-
2	∅ (6)	<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* characterise the 1., 2., and 3. pers. sg., 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* (impf.) or *mi* (pres. ind.) is also seen in OI gen. sg. *mama* and OI gen./dat. enclitic *mê* (and even in E *me*).
 - b) pl. *mas* ← IE **mes* as the IE enclitic 1. pers. pl. pronoun (but *nas* is the OI enclitic 1. pers. pl. pronoun)
2. Both the thematic and athematic verbal classes show *i* in the pres. ind. 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. Impf. 3. pers. pl. ending is *n* instead of *nt* by **CCl**. The drop of *t* is regular: at the end of a word, only the first consonant of a consonant cluster remains (p. 46).
5. Dual *vas* is still seen in OI gen./dat./acc. 2. pers. pl. (!) enclitic *vas*.
6. ∅ indicates the zero ending.

The thematic parasmâipada forms are built according to the formula

present stem
 + thematic vowel
 + ending

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>	indicative
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 Indo-European, it is, of course, *a* in Sanskrit:

$\sqrt{bhṛ}$ 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>bhar-a-tha</i>	indicative
3	<i>bhar-a-ti</i>	<i>bhar-a-tas</i>	<i>bhar-a-n-ti</i>	(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 thematic vowel *a*, note \bar{a} in *bhar-ā-mi*. Historically, IE * \bar{o} indicates 1. pers. sg. for thematic verbs. See the table for IE forms above. At first, *mi* was present only in athematic verbs. From these athematic verbs, *mi* spread to thematic ones. Thus, the OI 1. pers. sg. has two markers.
2. **Lo:** OI *bhar-ā-mas* \leftarrow 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, the thematic vowel *a* is presented together with the thematic endings in the following table:

D. Conjugations

thematic verbs ātmanêpada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>ê</i> (1, 2)	<i>ā-vahê</i> (3)	<i>ā-mahê</i> (1, 3)	present
2	<i>a-sê</i> (1, 2)	<i>êthê</i>	<i>a-dhvê</i>	indicative
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, 3)	imper-
2	<i>a-thās</i>	<i>êthām</i>	<i>a-dhvam</i>	flect
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, the ātmanêpada endings have *m*, *s* and *t* to characterise the 1., 2., and 3. pers., respectively. However, just *ê* is observed in the 1. pers. sg. pres. ind. and impf. (see 4.).
2. Similar to the parasmâipada endings, the “here and now” particle *i* is encountered in the pres. ind. sg.: *ê* goes back to IE *oi*.
3. As in the parasmâipada case, observe *ā* resulting from Brugmann’s law.
4. Think of 1. pers. sg. impf. *ê* as *a-i* (just *i* in the athematic paradigm).

The corresponding paradigm reads

$$\begin{array}{l} \text{present stem} \\ + \text{ thematic vowel } a \text{ together with ending} \end{array}$$

One obtains

$\sqrt{\text{labh}}$ ātmanêpada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>labh-ê</i>	<i>labh-ā-vahê</i>	<i>labh-ā-mahê</i>	present
2	<i>labh-a-sê</i>	<i>labh-êthê</i>	<i>labh-a-dhvê</i>	indicative
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>	<i>labh-ā-mahâi</i>	imper-
2	<i>labh-a-sva</i>	<i>labh-êthām</i>	<i>labh-a-dhvam</i>	ative
3	<i>labh-a-tām</i>	<i>labh-êtām</i>	<i>labh-a-n-tām</i>	(secondary ending)

Parasmaipada			Atmanepada			
1	2	3	1	2	3	p r e s e n t t e n s e
1	2	3	1	2	3	
1	2	3	1	2	3	i m p e r f e c t
1	2	3	1	2	3	
1	2	3	1	2	3	i m p e r a t i v e
1	2	3	1	2	3	
1	2	3	1	2	3	o p t a t i v e
1	2	3	1	2	3	

Figure D.1.: Strong forms in the present-system of athematic verbs

D.1.2. 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 figure D.1, where the strong forms are marked. The others are weak. Thus, strong forms are present

- ◇ in par. pres. ind. sg.
- ◇ in par. impf. sg.
- ◇ in 1. pers. imper., both par. and ātm.
- ◇ in par. 3. pers. sg. imper.

Weak and strong forms are important because

D. Conjugations

- ◇ weak forms are defined by the zero grade and
- ◇ strong form are defined by the normal grade.

Endings for athematic verbs, parasmâipada

The athematic endings are very similar to the thematic ones:

		them. verbs par.			athem. verbs par.			
		sg.	dual	pl.	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>mī</i>	<i>vas</i>	<i>mas</i>	<i>mī</i>	<i>vas</i>	<i>mas</i>		present
2	<i>si</i>	<i>thas</i>	<i>tha</i>	<i>si</i>	<i>thas</i>	<i>tha</i>		indicative
3	<i>ti</i>	<i>tas</i>	<i>n-ti</i>	<i>ti</i>	<i>tas</i>	<i>(a)n-ti</i> (2)		(primary ending)
1	<i>m</i>	<i>va</i>	<i>ma</i>	<i>am</i> (1)	<i>va</i>	<i>ma</i>		imper-
2	<i>s</i>	<i>tam</i>	<i>ta</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>tam</i>	<i>ta</i>		fect
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)		(secondary ending)
1	<i>nī</i>	<i>va</i>	<i>ma</i>	<i>ānī</i> (4)	<i>āva</i> (4)	<i>āma</i> (4)		imper-
2	∅	<i>tam</i>	<i>ta</i>	<i>dhi/hi/∅</i> (5)	<i>tam</i>	<i>ta</i>		ative
3	<i>tu</i>	<i>tām</i>	<i>n-tu</i>	<i>tu</i>	<i>tām</i>	<i>(a)n-tu</i> (2)		(secondary ending)

- Although the above paradigm concerns athematic verbs, the 1. pers. sg. impf. ending is always *am*. (This holds for Sanskrit, but in IE times, the ending was just *m*.) There is a good reason for this ending. With *m* instead of *am*, irrecongnisable forms would arise due to $m \rightarrow a$:

1. pers. sg. impf.		
	ending $m \rightarrow a$	ending <i>am</i>
\sqrt{yuj} (7. class)	u.at. <i>a-yu-na-j-a</i>	<i>a-yu-na-j-am</i>
\sqrt{vid} (2. class)	u.at. <i>a-vêd-a</i>	<i>a-vêd-am</i>

- Spreading of the thematic *a* often occurs in par. 3. pers. pl. forms. This spreading occurs in all athematic classes, but not in the third class. In the 2. class, spreading is only present in the verb *śās* (“to rule”).
- The variant *us* is often seen in 3. pers. pl. impf.
- The imper. 1. pers. endings do **not** differ between
 - “lengthened thematic 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.

5. The \emptyset -ending is also seen in some athematic verbs, where you find *kur-u* (“make!”) or *su-nu* (“press!”). Otherwise, the parasmâipada imper. 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-ñ-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>pu-nū-hi</i>
	<i>bhī</i>	3	to be afraid	<i>bī-bhī-hi</i>
	<i>yā</i>	2	to go	<i>yā-hi</i>

In Old Greek, the suffix is *thi* (in *i-thi*, “go!”). Thus, OI *dhi* can be considered 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 development from older u.at. *i-dhi* (see p. 50). 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. verbs ātm.			athem. verbs ātm.				
sg.	dual	pl.	sg.	dual	pl.		
1	<i>ê</i>	<i>ā-vahê</i>	<i>ā-mahê</i>	<i>ê</i> (2)	<i>vahê</i> (1)	<i>mahê</i> (1)	present indicative (prim. end.)
2	<i>a-sê</i>	<i>êthê</i>	<i>a-dhvê</i>	<i>sê</i> (1)	<i>āthê</i> (3)	<i>dhvê</i> (1)	
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)	
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- fect (sec. end.)
2	<i>a-thās</i>	<i>êthām</i>	<i>a-dhvam</i>	<i>thās</i> (1)	<i>āthām</i> (3)	<i>dhvam</i> (1)	
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)	
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- ative (sec. end.)
2	<i>a-sva</i>	<i>êthām</i>	<i>a-dhvam</i>	<i>sva</i> (1)	<i>āthām</i> (3)	<i>dhvam</i> (1)	
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)	

D. Conjugations

1. Within the $\bar{a}tman\hat{e}pada$ 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 \bar{a} before 1. pers. m - or v -endings).
2. Observe \hat{e} and $\hat{a}i$ in both thematic and athematic 1. pers. sg., pres. ind. 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. impf. i (athematic) clearly corresponds to the thematic $\hat{e} \leftarrow a-i$.
5. The imper. 1. pers. endings do **not** differ between
 - a) “(lengthened) thematic 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 $parasm\hat{a}ipada$ (above). Thus, the thematic vowel has also spread in these cases.

The 2. and 3. person duals are confusing. It may be helpful to compare the present indicative (primary endings) with the imperfect (secondary endings):

		t h e m a t i c		v e r b s		
		pres. ind.		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}
<hr/>						
		a t h e m a t i c		v e r b s		
		\downarrow pres. ind.	\downarrow	\downarrow	impf.	\downarrow
		par.	$\bar{a}tm.$	par.	$\bar{a}tm.$	
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, here are the dual forms for $\sqrt{bh\hat{r}}$ and $\sqrt{k\hat{r}}$:

		pres. ind.		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

D.1.3. The second class

Introductory remark and overview

The 3. pers. sg. is often characterised 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 indicative
<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-ṅ-toi</i>	present indicative
<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. 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-an-ti</i>	present indicative
<i>a-vak</i> ← u.at. <i>a-vak-t</i>	<i>a-vac-a-n</i> ← u.at. <i>a-vac-an-t</i>	imperfect
<i>vak-tu</i>	<i>vac-an-tu</i>	imperative

D. Conjugations

Second-class verbs produce many challenging forms where the verbal root directly gets into contact with the personal endings. The following verbs are considered in detail:

- ◇ *vac* (“to speak”) on pp. 164
- ◇ *yā* (“to go”) on pp. 165
- ◇ *vid* (“to know”) on pp. 166
- ◇ *as* (“to be”) on pp. 166
- ◇ *i* (“to go”) on pp. 167
- ◇ *duh* (“to milk”) on pp. 168
- ◇ *lih* (“to lick”) on pp. 170
- ◇ *vaś* (“to wish”) on pp. 173
- ◇ *han* (“to hit, to kill”) on pp. 175
- ◇ *brū* (“to speak”) on pp. 176
- ◇ *śās* (“to rule, to instruct”) on pp. 177
- ◇ *nu* (“to praise”) on pp. 178

vac (“to speak”)

Our first verb, *vac* (“to speak”), is special in not distinguishing weak and strong forms. All the forms are strong:

$\sqrt{vac} \leftarrow$ IE * <i>vek</i> ^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)	indicative
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**

3. In *vag-dhi*, observe expected **BA** before *dhi*, the regular ending.
4. In the above paradigm, observe *c* (as in the OI root *vac*) in all forms where the endings start with a vowel or a resonant.
5. In the impf. sg., compare
 - ◇ 3. pers. *a-vak* ← IE **vek^w-t* and
 - ◇ 2. pers. *a-vak* ← IE **vek^w-s*
 by **CCI**, no **SPal**, and **AFP**.
6. In all verbs of the second class (except *śās* (“to rule, to instruct”)), par. 3. pers. pl. forms borrow *a* from the thematic classes, as seen here with *vac-an-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. 82). *yā* (“to go”) has the second peculiarity in that the root ends in a vowel. This makes consonant-initial endings transparent.

√ <i>yā</i> parasmâipada				
	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>	indicative
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 *ā* from root *yā* is confounded with an ending that (by analogy or other) begins with *a* or *ā*. Then, the obvious effect results.
2. *a-y-us* uses the alternative ending *us* (instead of (*a*)*n*). And, observe *a-y-us*, not u.at. *a-yâus* (which would be difficult to understand).
3. Note the *hi* rather than the *dhi* imperative.

D. Conjugations

vid (“to know”)

Now turn to *vid* (“to know”) which shows the regular distribution of strong and weak forms:

$\sqrt{\text{vid}} \leftarrow \text{IE } *veid, \text{ parasmâipada}$				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>vêd-mi</i>	<i>vid-vas</i>	<i>vid-mas</i>	present
2	<i>vêt-si</i> (1)	<i>vit-thas</i> (1)	<i>vit-tha</i> (1)	indicative
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.)

- The backward assimilation $d \rightarrow t$ is clearly seen before the many endings with t or th and before (voiceless) s in *vêt-si*.
- In the impf. sg., **CCI** and **AFP** are responsible for
 - ◇ 3. pers. $a-vêt \leftarrow \text{IE } *e-veid-t$ and
 - ◇ 2. pers. $a-vêt \leftarrow \text{IE } *e-veid-s$

a-vês is an alternative 2. pers. sg. which is clearly due to analogy with forms like $a-yā-s$.
- vid-dhi* is the regular 2. pers. sg. imperative.
- a-vid-us* shows the alternative ending *us* (instead of $(a)n$).

as (“to be”)

Next comes *as* (“to be”):

$\sqrt{as} \leftarrow \text{IE } *h_1es, \text{ parasmâipada}$				
	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>	indicative
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-ī-s</i> (4)	<i>ās-tam</i> (3)	<i>ās-ta</i> (3)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>ās-ī-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>ê-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. 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 strong, in contradiction to figure D.1 (p. 159). Instead of strong $\bar{a}s-ma \leftarrow a-as-ma$ one should expect weak $a-s-ma$.
4. Originally, $\bar{a}s-\bar{i}s$ and $\bar{a}s-\bar{i}t$ are aorist forms that migrated to the imperfect.
5. One finds $\hat{e}-dhi \leftarrow \text{u.at. } as-dhi$ (see $dê-dhi$ on p. 52), a strong form in contradiction to figure D.1.

***i* (“to go”)**

Another parasmâipada example from the second class is the Sanskrit word for “to go”:

D. Conjugations

$\sqrt{i} \leftarrow \text{IE } *ei, \text{ parasmâipada}$				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>ê-mi</i> (1)	<i>i-vas</i> (2)	<i>i-mas</i> (2)	present
2	<i>ê-ṣi</i> (1)	<i>i-thas</i> (2)	<i>i-tha</i> (2)	indicative
3	<i>ê-ti</i> (1)	<i>i-tas</i> (2)	<i>y-an-ti</i> (2)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>āy-am</i> (3)	<i>âi-va</i> (4)	<i>âi-ma</i> (4)	imperfect
2	<i>âi-s</i> (3)	<i>âi-tam</i> (4)	<i>âi-ta</i> (4)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>âi-t</i> (3)	<i>âi-tām</i> (4)	<i>āy-an</i> (4)	with augm.
1	<i>ay-āni</i> (1)	<i>ay-āva</i> (1)	<i>ay-āma</i> (1)	imper-
2	<i>i-hi</i> (2, 5)	<i>i-tam</i> (2)	<i>i-ta</i> (2)	ative
3	<i>ê-tu</i> (1)	<i>i-tām</i> (2)	<i>y-an-tu</i> (2)	(sec. end.)

- By **DIPH**, strong forms (imperfect see below) regularly differ between vowel ending (*ay-āni*) and consonant ending (*ê-mi*).
- Weak forms (imperfect see below) regularly show *i* before a consonant (see *i-mas*) and *y* before a vowel (*y-an-ti*).
- Imperfect forms seem to obey the prescribed distribution of weak and strong forms. Compare the strong forms
 - ◇ *āy-am* ← *a-ay-am* before a vowel ending
 - ◇ *âi-t* ← *a-êt* before a consonant ending
- The weak forms before consonant endings are similar to the strong forms, but produced by a different rule:
 - âi-ma* ← *a-i-ma* is regular by **VS** 6. line (pp. 32).
- i-hi* from older **i-dhi* (p. 50). From forms like *i-hi* the new ending *hi* spread to other verbs.

***duh* (“to milk”)**

Consider now OI root *duh* (“to milk”). The IE full-grade root is **dheugh*. The distribution of strong and weak forms is regular. Weak forms have the zero grade *u* and strong forms show the full grade *ô* (see pp. 26). Here is the parasmâipada paradigm. The explanations also refer to the ātmanêpada paradigm below.

$\sqrt{duh} \leftarrow$ 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-ṣi</i> (2a, 6)	<i>dug-dhas</i> (1b)	<i>dug-dha</i> (1b)	indicative
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. 39). In particular, three cases need to be distinguished:
 - a) *gh-t* → *g-dh* (aspiration shift, forward assimilation) is seen in IE **dheugh-ti* → *dôg-dhi*.
 - b) *gh-th* → *g-dh* (no double aspiration, forward assimilation) is seen in IE **dhugh-th* → *dug-th* (par. 2. pers. dual pres. ind. *dug-dhas* or ātm. 2. pers. sg. impf.)
 - c) *gh-dh* → *g-dh* (no double aspiration, no forward assimilation) is seen in par. 2. sg. imper. IE **dhugh-dhi* → *dug-dhi* and in ātm. 2. pl. pres. ind. *dhug-dhvê*.
dug-dhas is an example of either 1a (par. 3. pers. dual pres. ind.) or 1b (par. 2. pers. dual pres. ind.).
2. Grassmann's deaspiration is seen in most forms. But it has been undone (or, rather, has not been carried out in the first place) in these cases:
 - a) before *s* as in par. pres. ind. 2. pers. sg. *dhôk-ṣi*, 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. ind. 2. pers. pl. *dhug-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.

D. Conjugations

3. Before an IE front vowel, secondary palatalisation $gh \rightarrow h$ as seen in figure B.2 (p. 38) is applied. This is most clearly seen in $\bar{a}tm$. 1. pers. sg. impf. $a-duh-i$. Apparently, h spread to many forms where an IE front vowel was not present. In the above paradigm, h (as in the OI root duh) features in all forms where the endings start with a vowel or a resonant.
4. In both thematic and athematic 3. pers. pl. forms, observe a :
 - a) In par. 3. pers. pl. forms like $duh-an-ti$, see an due to borrowing of a from the thematic classes.
 - b) In contrast, $\bar{a}tman\hat{e}pada$ forms like $duh-a-t\hat{e}$ do without this borrowing and a goes back to syllabic η : $duh-a-t\hat{e} \leftarrow IE *dhugh-\eta-toi$.
5. In par. impf. sg. forms $a-dh\hat{o}k$, aspiration shift is not possible and the sound laws **CCI** and **AFP** operate. In the 2. pers., s has been dropped, and in the third, t .
6. In $dh\hat{o}k-\dot{s}i$, after the newly formed k , **RUKI** applies.

And here you see the $\bar{a}tman\hat{e}pada$ paradigm, where the numbers are explained above:

$\sqrt{duh} \leftarrow IE *dheugh$, $\bar{a}tman\hat{e}pada$				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	$duh-\hat{e}$ (3)	$duh-vah\hat{e}$ (3)	$duh-mah\hat{e}$ (3)	present
2	$dhuk-\dot{s}\hat{e}$ (2a, 6)	$duh-\bar{a}th\hat{e}$ (3)	$dhug-dhv\hat{e}$ (1c, 2b)	indicative
3	$dug-dh\hat{e}$ (1a)	$duh-\bar{a}t\hat{e}$ (3)	$duh-a-t\hat{e}$ (3, 4b)	(prim. end.)
1	$a-duh-i$ (3)	$a-duh-vahi$ (3)	$a-duh-mahi$ (3)	imperfect
2	$a-dug-dh\bar{a}s$ (1b)	$a-duh-\bar{a}th\bar{a}m$ (3)	$a-dhug-dhvam$ (1c, 2b)	(sec. end.)
3	$a-dug-dha$ (1a)	$a-duh-\bar{a}t\bar{a}m$ (3)	$a-duh-a-ta$ (3, 4b)	with augm.
1	$d\hat{o}h-\hat{a}i$ (3)	$d\hat{o}h-\bar{a}vah\hat{a}i$ (3)	$d\hat{o}h-\bar{a}mah\hat{a}i$ (3)	imper-
2	$dhuk-\dot{s}va$ (2a, 6)	$duh-\bar{a}th\bar{a}m$ (3)	$dhug-dhvam$ (1c, 2b)	ative
3	$dug-dh\bar{a}m$ (1a)	$duh-\bar{a}t\bar{a}m$ (3)	$duh-a-t\bar{a}m$ (3, 4b)	(sec. end.)

lih (“to lick”)

A somewhat more complicated (and hence even more interesting) example is *lih* (“to lick”):

$\sqrt{\text{lih}} \leftarrow \text{IE } *leigh, \text{ parasmâipada}$				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>lêh-mi</i>	<i>lih-vas</i>	<i>lih-mas</i>	present
2	<i>lêk-ṣi</i> (2)	<i>lī-dhas</i> (5b)	<i>lī-dha</i> (5b)	indicative
3	<i>lê-dhi</i> (1)	<i>lī-dhas</i> (5a)	<i>lih-an-ti</i> (6a)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-lêh-am</i>	<i>a-lih-va</i>	<i>a-lih-ma</i>	imperfect
2	<i>a-lêṭ</i> (4)	<i>a-lī-dham</i> (5a)	<i>a-lī-dha</i> (5a)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-lêṭ</i> (3)	<i>a-lī-dhām</i> (5a)	<i>a-lih-an</i> (6a)	with augm.
1	<i>lêh-āni</i>	<i>lêh-āva</i>	<i>lêh-āma</i>	imper-
2	<i>lī-dhi</i>	<i>lī-dham</i> (5a)	<i>lī-dha</i> (5a)	ative
3	<i>lê-dhu</i> (1)	<i>lī-dhām</i> (5a)	<i>lih-an-tu</i> (6a)	(sec. end.)

Notes are given below. The ātmanêpada paradigm reads:

$\sqrt{\text{lih}} \leftarrow \text{IE } *leigh, \text{ ātmanêpada}$				
	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-dhvê</i> (5c)	indicative
3	<i>lī-dhê</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>lêh-âi</i>	<i>lêh-āvahâi</i>	<i>lêh-āmahâi</i>	imper-
2	<i>lik-ṣva</i> (2)	<i>lih-āthām</i>	<i>lī-dhvam</i> (5c)	ative
3	<i>lī-dhām</i>	<i>lih-ātām</i>	<i>lih-a-tām</i> (6b)	(sec. end.)

1. The par. 3. pers. sg. pres. ind. can be explained by

IE $*leigh-ti$ (full grade)
 → *lêg-dhi* (**ASh**)
 → *lêz-dhi* (**sz** before voiced stop)
 → *lêz-dhi* (**RUKI**)
 → *lêz-dhi* (**CerD**)
 → *lê-dhi* (**CpLz** 5. line, where *ê* is already long)

2. The par. 2. pers. sg. pres. ind. is *lêk-ṣi* which has developed regularly (and similarly two z.g. ātm. forms):

D. Conjugations

IE **leígh-si* (full grade)

→ *lég-si* (**ASh**, but *s* cannot be aspirated)

→ *lêk-si* (**BA**)

→ *lêk-ṣi* (**RUKI**)

3. Par. impf. sg. has *a-lêṭ* in both the 2. and 3. pers. For the 3. pers., observe

IE **e-leiǵh-t* (f.g. with IE impf. marker *e*)

→ *a-lég-dh* (**ASh**)

→ *a-lêz-dh* (*sz* before voiced stop)

→ *a-lêz-dh* (**RUKI**)

→ *a-lêz-dh* (**CerD**)

→ *a-lê-dh* (**CpLz** 5. line, where *ê* is already long)

→ *a-lê-t* (**AFP**, p. 47)

4. Remember *madhu-liṭ* ← IE **medhu-liǵh-s* on p. 47. The 2. pers. par. impf. sg. is also regular:

IE **a-leiǵh-s*

→ *a-lég-s* (**ASh**, but *s* cannot be aspirated)

→ *a-lêk-s* (**BA**)

→ *a-lêk-ṣ* (**RUKI**)

→ *a-lêṭ* (**AFP**)

5. Quite a few regular (!) forms have long \bar{i} plus cerebralisation of a dental ending. Distinguish between three cases:

a) *iǵh-t* → \bar{i} -*dh* as, for example, the \bar{a} tm. 3. pers. sg. pres. ind. \bar{l} *i-dhê*:

IE **liǵh-toi* (z.g. with marker *toi*)

→ *liǵh-tê*

→ *liǵ-dhê* (**ASh**)

→ *liz-dhê* (*sz* before voiced stop)

→ *liṣ-dhê* (**RUKI**)

→ *liṣ-dhê* (**CerD**)

→ \bar{l} *i-dhê* (**CpLz** 2. line)

b) $i\acute{g}h-th \rightarrow \bar{i}-\acute{d}h$ as, for example par. 2. pers. dual $\bar{l}\bar{i}-\acute{d}has$:

- * $li\acute{g}h-thas$ (z.g. with OI (!) marker $thas$)
- $li\acute{g}-\acute{d}has$ (**ASh**, but no further aspiration)
- $li\acute{z}-\acute{d}has$ (**sz** before voiced stop)
- $li\acute{z}-\acute{d}has$ (**RUKI**)
- $li\acute{z}-\acute{d}has$ (**CerD**)
- $\bar{l}\bar{i}-\acute{d}has$ (**CpLz** 2. line)

c) $i\acute{g}h-dhv \rightarrow \bar{i}-\acute{d}hv$ as, for example $\bar{a}tm.$ 2. pers. pl. pres. ind. $\bar{l}\bar{i}-\acute{d}hv\hat{e}$:

- * $li\acute{g}h-dhv\hat{e}$ (z.g. with OI (!) marker $dhv\hat{e}$)
- $li\acute{g}-\acute{d}hv\hat{e}$ (**ASh**, but no further aspiration)
- $li\acute{z}-\acute{d}hv\hat{e}$ (**sz** before voiced stop)
- $li\acute{z}-\acute{d}hv\hat{e}$ (**RUKI**)
- $li\acute{z}-\acute{d}hv\hat{e}$ (**CerD**)
- $\bar{l}\bar{i}-\acute{d}hv\hat{e}$ (**CpLz** 2. line)

Par. 2. and 3. dual pres. ind. are identical: $\bar{l}\bar{i}-\acute{d}has$ (b) with OI ending $thas$ and $\bar{l}\bar{i}-\acute{d}has$ (a) with OI ending tas .

6. In both thematic and athematic 3. pers. pl. forms, note a :

- a) In par. 3. pers. pl. forms like $lih-an-ti$, observe an due to borrowing of a from the thematic classes.
- b) In contrast, $\bar{a}tman\hat{e}pada$ forms like $lih-a-t\hat{e}$ do without this borrowing and a goes back to syllabic η : $lih-a-t\hat{e} \leftarrow IE *li\acute{g}h-\eta-toi$.

vaś (“to wish”)

Now, let us turn to $vaś$ (“to wish”):

D. Conjugations

$\sqrt{vas} \leftarrow$ IE * <i>vek</i> , parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>vas-mi</i>	<i>us-vas</i>	<i>us-mas</i>	present
2	<i>vak-si</i> (3)	<i>us-thas</i> (2)	<i>us-tha</i> (2)	indicative (prim. end.)
3	<i>vas-ti</i> (1)	<i>us-tas</i> (2)	<i>us-an-ti</i> (7)	
1	<i>a-vas-am</i>	<i>âus-va</i> (6)	<i>âus-ma</i> (6)	imperfect
2	<i>a-vaṭ</i> (5)	<i>âus-tam</i> (2, 6)	<i>âus-ta</i> (2, 6)	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-vaṭ</i> (4)	<i>âus-tām</i> (2, 6)	<i>âus-an</i> (6, 7)	with augm.
1	<i>vas-āni</i>	<i>vas-āva</i>	<i>vas-āma</i>	imper-
2	<i>ud-dhi</i> (8)	<i>us-tam</i> (2)	<i>us-ta</i> (2)	ative
3	<i>vas-tu</i> (1)	<i>us-tām</i> (2)	<i>us-an-tu</i> (7)	(sec. end.)

1. *vas-ti* and *vas-tu* follow **PPal** and **CerD**.
2. Similarly, but in zero grade, consider forms like *us-thas* (pres. ind. 2. pers. dual).
3. **SIB** line 3
4. Par. impf. sg. has *a-vaṭ* in both the 2. and 3. pers. For the 3. pers., consider

IE **e-vek-t* (f.g. with IE impf. marker *e*)
 → *a-vas-t*
 → *a-vas-t* (as in *vas-ti*)
 → *a-vaṭ* (**CCL**, **AFP**)

5. The 2. pers. par. impf. sg. is also regular:

IE **e-vek-s* (f.g. with IE impf. marker *e*)
 → *a-vas-s*
 → *a-vas* (**CCL**)
 → *a-vaṭ* (**AFP**)

6. Luckily, the other imperfect forms present no great mystery. They are weak (zero grade) and then, in line with the sound law

preterite augment *a* + *u/ū* → *âu*

consider

- a) forms like *âus-va* with *ś* from IE *k* and
 - b) forms like *âus-tam*, where the rules **PPal** and **CerD** have been applied again.
7. 3. pers. pl. forms show *an-*, the thematic *a* being borrowed from thematic classes.

8. *ud-dhi*, the imperative 2. pers. sg. is difficult, but explainable:

- IE **uk'-dhi* (z.g. with imper. ending *dhi*)
- *uǵ-dhi* (**BA**)
 - *uz-dhi* (**sz**)
 - *uẏ-dhi* (**RUKI**)
 - *uȓ-dhi* (**CerD**)
 - *ū-dhi* (**CpLz** 3. line)
 - *ud-dhi* (**LawOfMorae**)

han (“to hit, to kill”)

As another example, consider *han* (“to hit, to kill”):

$\sqrt{han} \leftarrow$ IE * <i>g^when</i> , parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>han-mi</i> (1)	<i>han-vas</i> (2)	<i>han-mas</i> (2)	present
2	<i>han-ṣi</i> (1)	<i>ha-thas</i> (4)	<i>ha-tha</i> (4)	indicative
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> (4)	<i>ha-ta</i> (4)	ative
3	<i>han-tu</i> (1)	<i>ha-tām</i> (4)	<i>ghn-an-tu</i> (3)	(sec. end.)

- Secondary palatalisation (section B.5, pp. 37) produces *han-ti* from *g^when-ti*.
- For the first person, the strong forms also migrated to pres. ind. and impf. both dual and pl., where they should not be seen according to p. 159.
- 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 palatalisation is not relevant because *g^wh* does not stand before a front vowel.
- If the zero-grade stem came in immediate contact with a *t*-ending, the *n* had to become syllabic. Then, u.at. *gha-tas* (pres. ind., 3. pers. dual) and the like should have been expected. Instead, one finds *ha-tas*, undoubtedly due to leveling. This is similar to the (zero grade!) PPP *ha-ta* in subsection C.4.3 (p. 119).

D. Conjugations

5. Identical par. impf. 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 palatalisation. Perhaps, the *i* from the ending makes the syllabic nasal also a front vowel? In any case, the likely development is

* $g^w h\eta$ -*hi* (z.g. with OI imper. marker *hi*)
 → $g^w a$ -*hi* (**DA**)
 → *ja-hi* (difficult **SPal**)

brū (“to speak”)

For *brū* (“to speak”), the IE root is *breuH*, whence one finds

◇ the strong forms with *brav* (**DIPH**)

◇ the weak forms (**V+SV**)

- before vowel endings *bruv*
- before consonant endings *brū*

With these expected developments in mind, the conjugation pattern is not too surprising:

$\sqrt{brū} \leftarrow$ IE * <i>breuH</i>						
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. Long \bar{i} in present sg. like *brav- \bar{i} -ti* is surely connected to the laryngeal, but one should have expected short *i* instead.
2. Imperfect sg. *a-brav- \bar{i} s* and *a-brav- \bar{i} t* are somewhat mysterious. One should expect u.at. *a-brô-s* and u.at. *a-brô-t*. These forms may have been too alien compared with the rest of the paradigm. Also, long \bar{i} is seen in the sg. These are aorist forms as $\bar{a}s-\bar{i}t$ from *as* (“to be”, see pp. 167).
3. Par. *bruv-an-ti* versus $\bar{a}tm.$ *bruv-a-tê* is explained as in *duh* (4a and 4b, p. 170) above.

$\acute{s}\bar{a}s$ (“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 $\acute{s}i\acute{s}$.

Consider

$\sqrt{\acute{s}\bar{a}s} \leftarrow \text{IE } *k\acute{e}Hs, \text{ parasmâipada}$				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	$\acute{s}\bar{a}s-mi$	$\acute{s}i\acute{s}-vas$ (1)	$\acute{s}i\acute{s}-mas$ (1)	present
2	$\acute{s}\bar{a}s-si$	$\acute{s}i\acute{s}-\acute{t}has$ (1, 2)	$\acute{s}i\acute{s}-\acute{t}ha$ (1, 2)	indicative
3	$\acute{s}\bar{a}s-ti$	$\acute{s}i\acute{s}-\acute{t}as$ (1, 2)	$\acute{s}\bar{a}s-a-ti$ (6)	(prim. end.)
1	$a-\acute{s}\bar{a}s-am$	$a-\acute{s}i\acute{s}-va$ (1)	$a-\acute{s}i\acute{s}-ma$ (1)	imperfect
2	$a-\acute{s}\bar{a}s/a-\acute{s}\bar{a}t$ (3)	$a-\acute{s}i\acute{s}-\acute{t}am$ (1, 2)	$a-\acute{s}i\acute{s}-\acute{t}a$ (1, 2)	(sec. end.)
3	$a-\acute{s}\bar{a}t$ (3)	$a-\acute{s}i\acute{s}-\acute{t}\bar{a}m$ (1, 2)	$a-\acute{s}\bar{a}s-us$ (4, 6)	with augm.
1	$\acute{s}\bar{a}s-\bar{a}ni$	$\acute{s}\bar{a}s-\bar{a}va$	$\acute{s}\bar{a}s-\bar{a}ma$	imper-
2	$\acute{s}\bar{a}-dhi$ (5)	$\acute{s}i\acute{s}-\acute{t}am$ (1, 2)	$\acute{s}i\acute{s}-\acute{t}a$ (1, 2)	ative
3	$\acute{s}\bar{a}s-tu$	$\acute{s}i\acute{s}-\acute{t}\bar{a}m$ (1, 2)	$\acute{s}\bar{a}s-a-tu$ (6)	(sec. end.)

1. **RUKI**
2. By forward assimilation **CerD**, one obtains $\acute{s}i\acute{s}-\acute{t}as$ and the like.
3. In the imperfect, **CCI** should produce
 - ◇ 2. pers. sg. $a-\acute{s}\bar{a}s \leftarrow a-\acute{s}\bar{a}s-s$
 - ◇ 3. pers. sg. u.at $a-\acute{s}\bar{a}s \leftarrow a-\acute{s}\bar{a}s-t$

The forms $a-\acute{s}\bar{a}t$ for both 2. and 3. pers. sg. are probably formed by analogy, presumably with $a-v\acute{e}t$ from *vid* (“to know”), which is regular. Note that teaching leads to knowing so that the analogy was also helped by close association.

D. Conjugations

4. Impf. 3. pers. pl. *a-śās-us* is special in using the more rare ending *us* instead of *(a)n*.

5. Irregularly, imper. 2. pers. sg. *śādhi* is strong:

- IE **keHs-dhi* (full grade with IE imper. marker *dhi*)
- *śās-dhi*
- *śāz-dhi* (**sz** before voiced stop)
- *śā-dhi* (**CpLz** 4. line, with *ā* long already)

6. Quite unusual for the 2. class, the thematic *a* in par. 3. pers. pl. forms does **not** show. Also the 3. pers. pl. forms are irregularly strong.

Narten verbs

The so-called Narten presents exhibit unusual forms:

$\sqrt{nu} \leftarrow$ IE * <i>neHu</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>	indicative
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 Indo-European reconstruction is far from certain. Assuming that IE **neHu* is correct, the full (!) grade before consonant endings like *ti* can be explained by IE **neHv-ti* → OI *nâu-ti* from **Lar_V** and **DIPH**.
- The full grade before vowel ending would have produced forms like 1. pers. sg. impf. u.at. *a-nāv-am* ← IE **e-neHv-V-*. Instead, observe *a-nav-am*, perhaps by analogy with forms like *a-su-nav-am* from *su* (“to press”).
- From the postulate of IE **neHu*, the weak forms in *nu* like *nu-mas* are perfectly regular by **Lar_CH** and IE **nHu-mes* → OI *nu-mas*.
- Forms like *nuv-an-ti* exhibit the intervening *v* according to the rule

$V+SV$	$CRyV$	\rightarrow	$CRiyV$	example
				<i>mr-iy-a-tê</i>
	$CRuV$	\rightarrow	$CRuvV$	<i>āp-nuv-an-ti</i>

Brief comments on two other verbs

Two verbs with a *sêt*-root are now mentioned. The *i* acts as a sort of thematic vowel in case of consonant endings. Compare

- ◇ *svap-i-ti* (“he sleeps”) with *svap-an-ti* (“they sleep”) with strong forms throughout the paradigm
- ◇ *rôd-i-ti* (“he weeps”), *rud-an-ti* (“they weep”) with regular distribution of strong and weak forms

D.1.4. The third class

Introductory remark and overview

Third-class verbs are characterised by reduplication. Here, 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 *ā* use IE *e* (OI *a*) as the reduplication vowel. This concerns *dā* (“to give”), *dhā* (“to set, to put”), and *hā* (“to abandon”).

Take close looks at

- ◇ *bhṛ* (“to support, to hold”) on pp. 180
- ◇ *bhī* (“to be afraid”) on pp. 181
- ◇ *hu* (“to sacrifice”) on pp. 183
- ◇ *hā* (“to abandon”) on pp. 184
- ◇ *dā* (“to give”) on pp. 184
- ◇ *dhā* (“to set”) on pp. 186

D. Conjugations

bhṛ (“to support, to hold”)

First, consider *bhṛ* (“to support”). The strong forms build on *bi-bhar* and the weak ones on *bi-bhṛ*. One obtains the quite regular pattern:

$\sqrt{bhṛ} \leftarrow$ IE * <i>bher</i> , parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>bi-bhar-mi</i>	<i>bi-bhṛ-vas</i>	<i>bi-bhṛ-mas</i>	present
2	<i>bi-bhar-ṣi</i>	<i>bi-bhṛ-thas</i>	<i>bi-bhṛ-tha</i>	indicative
3	<i>bi-bhar-ti</i>	<i>bi-bhṛ-tas</i>	<i>bi-bhr-a-ti</i> (2)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-bi-bhar-am</i>	<i>a-bi-bhṛ-va</i>	<i>a-bi-bhṛ-ma</i>	imperfect
2	<i>a-bi-bhar</i> (3)	<i>a-bi-bhṛ-tam</i>	<i>a-bi-bhṛ-ta</i>	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-bi-bhar</i> (3)	<i>a-bi-bhṛ-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-bhṛ-hi</i>	<i>bi-bhṛ-tam</i>	<i>bi-bhṛ-ta</i>	ative
3	<i>bi-bhar-tu</i>	<i>bi-bhṛ-tām</i>	<i>bi-bhr-a-tu</i> (2)	(sec. end.)

- As is usual in the third class, the par. 3. pers. pl. impf. *a-bi-bhar-us* is characterised by two features:
 - Its form is strong.
 - 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.
- In contrast to all the other athematic classes, there is no borrowing of thematic vowel *a* in par. 3. pers. pl. PR II 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!

observe

$$bi-bhr-ṅ-ti \rightarrow bi-bhr-a-ti$$

- By simplification of consonant clusters (**CCI**), the imperfect forms are regular:
 2. pers. sg. *a-bi-bhar* \leftarrow *a-bi-bhar-s*
 3. pers. sg. *a-bi-bhar* \leftarrow *a-bi-bhar-t*

Apart from imper. 1. pers., the ātmanêpada forms are all weak (as they should be):

$\sqrt{bhṛ} \leftarrow$ IE * <i>bher</i> , ātmanêpada				
	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)	indicative
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. Observe syllabic *ṛ* in the weak forms before consonant endings, for example *bi-bhr-tê*.
2. Note *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”), the forms for *bhī*, *bi-bhê-ti* (“to be afraid”) are not difficult. The IE root is *bheih₂*. The full grade and the zero grade of both roots are formed regularly:

	$\sqrt{bhṛ} \leftarrow$ IE * <i>bher</i>	$\sqrt{bhī} \leftarrow$ IE * <i>bheih₂</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:

D. Conjugations

$\sqrt{bh\bar{i}} \leftarrow \text{IE } *bheih_2$, parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>bi-bhê-mi</i>	<i>bi-bh̄i-vas</i> (4)	<i>bi-bh̄i-mas</i> (4)	pres.
2	<i>bi-bhê-ṣi</i> (2)	<i>bi-bh̄i-thas</i> (4)	<i>bi-bh̄i-tha</i> (4)	ind.
3	<i>bi-bhê-ti</i> (1)	<i>bi-bh̄i-tas</i> (4)	<i>bi-bhy-a-ti</i> (5)	
1	<i>a-bi-bhay-am</i> (3)	<i>a-bi-bh̄i-va</i> (4)	<i>a-bi-bh̄i-ma</i> (4)	impf.
2	<i>a-bi-bhê-s</i> (2, 7)	<i>a-bi-bh̄i-tam</i> (4)	<i>a-bi-bh̄i-ta</i> (4)	(sec.
3	<i>a-bi-bhê-t</i> (7)	<i>a-bi-bh̄i-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)	imper.
2	<i>bi-bh̄i-hi</i> (4)	<i>bi-bh̄i-tam</i> (4)	<i>bi-bh̄i-ta</i> (4)	(sec.
3	<i>bi-bhê-tu</i> (1)	<i>bi-bh̄i-tām</i> (4)	<i>bi-bhy-a-tu</i> (5)	end.)

- bi-bhê-ti* is the expected full-grade form before a consonant (**DIPH**).
- bi-bhê-ṣi* shows the regular application of **RUKI**, while *a-bi-bhê-s* does not admit **RUKI** because the *s* is word-final.
- Before a vowel, **DIPH** produces forms like *a-bi-bhay-a-m* with *ay* rather than *ê*.
- All weak forms testify for the sound law $\bar{i} \leftarrow iH$ as *bi-bh̄i-vas*. However, all these forms admit an irregular alternative with a short *i*, for example *bi-bhi-vas*.
- bi-bhy-a-ti* is 3. pers. pl. (!). Indeed, observe

IE $*bhi-bh̄ih_2-\bar{\eta}-ti$ (reduplication, zero grade)
→ <i>bi-bh̄i-ṅ-ti</i> (DA , Lar $_V$)
→ <i>bi-bhy-a-ti</i> (SY $_Conf$)
- Just as *a-bi-bhar-us*, par. 3. pers. pl. impf. *a-bi-bhay-us*
 - uses the strong form in violation of figure D.1 and
 - exhibits the ending *us*.
- In spite of all the similarities between *bh̄i* and *bh̄r*, the impf. sg. 2. and 3. persons differ:

	imperfect singular	
	2. pers.	3. pers.
$\sqrt{bh\bar{r}} \leftarrow \text{IE } *bher$	<i>a-bi-bhar</i>	<i>a-bi-bhar</i>
$\sqrt{bh\bar{i}} \leftarrow \text{IE } *bheiH$	<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* so that one finds the 3. pers. sg. pres. ind.

- IE **ǵhu-ǵheu-ti* (reduplication, full grade)
 → *ǵu-ǵhō-ti* (**DA**, **DIPH**)
 → *ju-hō-ti* (**PPal**, pp. 37)

Consider the paradigm:

$\sqrt{hu} \leftarrow$ IE * <i>ǵheu</i> , parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	ju-hō-mi	<i>ju-hu-vas</i> (4)	<i>ju-hu-mas</i> (4)	present
2	ju-hō-ṣi (2)	<i>ju-hu-thas</i> (4)	<i>ju-hu-tha</i> (4)	indicative
3	ju-hō-ti (1)	<i>ju-hu-tas</i> (4)	<i>ju-hv-a-ti</i> (5)	(prim. end.)
1	a-ju-hav-am (3)	<i>a-ju-hu-va</i> (4)	<i>a-ju-hu-ma</i> (4)	imperfect
2	a-ju-hō-s (2)	<i>a-ju-hu-tam</i> (4)	<i>a-ju-hu-ta</i> (4)	(sec. end.)
3	a-ju-hō-t (2)	<i>a-ju-hu-tām</i> (4)	a-ju-hav-us (6)	with augm.
1	ju-hav-āni (3)	ju-hav-āva (3)	ju-hav-āma (3)	imper-
2	<i>ju-hu-dhi</i> (4, 7)	<i>ju-hu-tam</i> (4)	<i>ju-hu-ta</i> (4)	ative
3	ju-hō-tu (1)	<i>ju-hu-tām</i> (4)	<i>ju-hv-a-tu</i> (5)	(sec. end.)

Compare the forms for *bhī* (“to be afraid”) and *hu* (“sacrifice”):

- The pres. ind. 3. pers. sg. *bi-bhê-ti* and *ju-hō-ti* are both full-grade forms.
- The pres. ind. 2. pers. sg. *bi-bhê-ṣi* and *ju-hō-ṣi* show **RUKI**, while their impf. counterparts *a-bi-bhê-s* and *a-ju-hō-s* do not (at the end of words).
- Before vowel endings, impf. 1. pers. sg. *a-bi-bhay-a-m* and *a-ju-hav-a-m* have *ay* and *av* rather than *ê* or *ô*, respectively.
- Pres. ind. 1. pers. pl. *bi-bhī-mas* and *ju-hu-mas* use the zero grade (with laryngeal explanation of long *ī*).
- Pres. ind. 3. pers. pl. *bi-bhy-a-ti* corresponds very nicely to *ju-hv-a-ti*, both showing the sound law $\eta \rightarrow a$ and the sandhi rule **SV** given on p. 22.
- Impf. 3. pers. pl. *a-bi-bhay-us* is full grade as is *a-ju-hav-us* (peculiarity of the 3. class).
- The only real difference is imperative 2. pers. sg. *ju-hu-dhi* in contrast to *bi-bhī-hi*.

D. Conjugations

hā (“to abandon”)

The paradigm for the OI root *hā* (“to abandon”) from IE root **ǵheH* works similar to the one for *hu* (“to sacrifice”). This is how to derive the 3. pers. sg. pres. ind. of *hā*:

IE **ǵhe-ǵheH-ti* (reduplication with IE *e*, zero grade)
 → *ǵe-ǵhā-ti* (**DA**)
 → *ja-hā-ti* (**PPal**)

Consider the paradigm:

$\sqrt{hā} \leftarrow$ IE * <i>ǵheH</i> , 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)	indicative
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 pres. ind. 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**).
3. The 2. pers. sg. imperative uses the *hi* marker.
4. The pres. ind. 3. pers. pl. *ja-h-a-ti* is yet another example of the sound law $\eta \rightarrow a$. The laryngeal regularly drops after a consonant and before a vowel.
5. Similarly, the laryngeal drops in impf. 3. pers. pl. *a-ja-h-us*. Note the regular zero grade in contrast to the irregular 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)	indicative
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 one obtains *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 pres. ind. 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. 126 for the PPP *dat-ta*.

3. Par. imper. 2. pers. sg. *dê-hi* is difficult, but quite regular:

IE $*de-dh_3-dhi$

→ *da-d-dhi* (**Lar_V**, no i)

→ *da-dzdhi* (**DzD**)

→ *da-zdhi* (**CCl**)

→ *daz-dhi*

→ *dê-dhi* (**CpLz** 1. line, before consonant + i)

→ *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. ind. *dad-a-ti* is formed similar to the 2. class *sās-a-ti* (compare p. 178).

5. The impf. 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 *bhṛ*), but *a-da-d-us* is clearly zero grade.

D. Conjugations

6. In the weak forms, one sees the expected backward assimilation.

dhā (“to set”)

And, now, the similar root *dhā*:

$\sqrt{dhā} \leftarrow \text{IE } *dheh_1, \text{ parasmâipada}$				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	da-dhā-mi	<i>da-dh-vas</i> (2)	<i>da-dh-mas</i> (2)	present
2	da-dhā-si	<i>dha-t-thas</i> (2, 6)	<i>dha-t-tha</i> (2, 6)	indicative
3	da-dhā-ti (1)	<i>dha-t-tas</i> (2, 6)	<i>da-dh-a-ti</i> (4)	(prim. end.)
1	a-da-dhā-m	<i>a-da-dh-va</i> (2)	<i>a-da-dh-ma</i> (2)	imperfect
2	a-da-dhā-s	<i>a-dha-t-tam</i> (2, 6)	<i>a-dha-t-ta</i> (2, 6)	(sec. end.)
3	a-da-dhā-t (1)	<i>a-dha-t-tām</i> (2, 6)	<i>a-da-dh-us</i> (5)	with augm.
1	da-dhā-ni	da-dhā-va	da-dhā-ma	imper-
2	<i>dhê-hi</i> (3)	<i>dha-t-tam</i> (2, 6)	<i>dha-t-ta</i> (2, 6)	ative
3	da-dhā-tu (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, *da-dhā-ti* etc. result.
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. Par. imper. 2. pers. sg. *dhê-hi* may be regular:

IE **dhe-dhh₁-dhi*
 → *dha-dh-dhi* (**Lar__V**: loss of laryngeal)
 → *dha-d-dhi* (**ASh**, but *dh* cannot be aspirated any further)
 → *dha-dzdhi* (**DzD**)
 → *dha-zdhi* (**CCl**)
 → *dhaz-dhi*
 → *dhê-dhi* (**CpLz** 1. line, before consonant + *i*)
 → *dhê-hi* (analogy)

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 $\eta \rightarrow a$, 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, Grassmann’s deaspiration could not work in the closed syllable *dha-d*, where an ending beginning with *t* or *th* follows. In all these forms, the non-application of **ASh** is difficult. Should one not expect aspiration shift and forward lenition **dha-dhh₁-t-* → **dha-d-dh-* instead of observed *dha-t-t*? Perhaps, the laryngeal prevents **ASh**.

Finally, see the reduplicative verb *bhas* in the dictionary.

D.1.5. The fifth class

Introductory remark and overview

In subsection C.2.5 (pp. 93), the nasal classes 5, 8, and 9 have been explained as special subcases of the seventh class. Remember the class signs for strong and weak forms:

class	strong gaṇa sign	3. pers. sg.	weak gaṇa sign	1. pers. pl.
5	<i>nô</i>	<i>śṛ-ṇô-ti</i>	<i>nu</i>	<i>śṛ-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-u-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, three features are pointed out:

1. In line with sound law **DIPH** (pp. 24), the strong class sign *nô* turns into *nav* when a vowel follows:

√	1. pers. sg. pres. ind.	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>a-su-nav-am</i>	to press

2. The weak class sign *nu* shows predictable variations (see **SV**) depending on whether a consonant or a vowel follows:

√	3. pers. dual pres. ind.	3. pers. pl. pres. ind.	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

D. Conjugations

While *su-nv-an-ti* is very clear, the other two examples are more difficult. Note that u.at. *śak-nv-an-ti* would be quite impossible. *n* would be syllabified, with difficult-to-understand outcome u.at. *śak-av-an-ti*. Hence, the rule

$$\begin{array}{rcll}
 \mathbf{V+SV} & CRyV & \rightarrow & CRiyV \quad \text{example} \\
 & CRuV & \rightarrow & CRuvV \quad \bar{a}p\text{-}nuv\text{-}an\text{-}ti
 \end{array}$$

is applied and *śak-nuv-an-ti* results.

3. The weak class sign *nu* is often reduced to *n* in the 1. pers. dual and pl., present indicative and imperfect:

√	1. pers. pl. pres. ind.		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 u.at. *śak-n-mas* do not work. *n* would be syllabified.

Now consider some verbs of the 5. class, in particular

- ◇ those ending in *u* like
 - *su* (“to press”) on pp. 188 and
 - *śru* (“to hear”) on pp. 189
- ◇ those ending in a consonant like
 - *āp* (“to get”) on pp. 190 and
 - *aś* (“to get, to enjoy”) on pp. 191

***su* (“to press”)**

First, consider *su* (“to press”).

$\sqrt{su} \leftarrow$ 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
2	<i>su-nô-ṣi</i> (1, 6)	<i>su-nu-thas</i>	<i>su-nu-tha</i>	indicative
3	<i>su-nô-ti</i> (1)	<i>su-nu-tas</i>	<i>su-nv-an-ti</i> (3)	(prim. end.)
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
2	<i>a-su-nô-s</i> (1)	<i>a-su-nu-tam</i>	<i>a-su-nu-ta</i>	(sec. end.)
3	<i>a-su-nô-t</i> (1)	<i>a-su-nu-tām</i>	<i>a-su-nv-an</i> (3)	with augm.
1	<i>su-nav-āni</i> (2)	<i>su-nav-āva</i> (2)	<i>su-nav-āma</i> (2)	imper-
2	<i>su-nu</i> (5)	<i>su-nu-tam</i>	<i>su-nu-ta</i>	ative
3	<i>su-nô-tu</i> (1)	<i>su-nu-tām</i>	<i>su-nv-an-tu</i> (3)	(sec. end.)

1. The strong forms have the strong class sign *nô* before consonant endings (**DIPH**).
2. The strong forms have the strong class sign *nav* before vowel endings (**DIPH**).
3. The weak forms before vowel endings are *nv* (**SV**).
4. In the four weak forms with *m* and *v* endings, alternatively *n* for *nu*, i.e., *su-n-vas* besides *su-nu-vas* etc.
5. Thematic parasmâipada paradigms show the stem as 2. pers. sg. imper., as in *bhara* (“carry!”). This holds for the 5. class verbs ending in *u*, but not for the 5. class verbs ending in a consonant:
 - ◇ *su-nu* (“press!”) and *śṛ-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. 94) once again. For the purpose of the following paradigm, assume *śṛ* (“to hear”) rather than *śru*. The paradigm for *śṛ* closely follows the *su* paradigm above. Observe cerebralisation of the class signs after *ṛ*. For the numbers, see those under the *su* table above.

D. Conjugations

$\sqrt{\acute{s}r/\acute{s}ru} \leftarrow \text{IE } *k\acute{l}eu, \text{ parasmâipada}$				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	$\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}\hat{o}\text{-}mi$ (1)	$\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}(u)\text{-}vas$ (4)	$\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}(u)\text{-}mas$ (4)	present indicative (prim. end.)
2	$\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}\hat{o}\text{-}\acute{s}i$ (1, 6)	$\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}u\text{-}thas$	$\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}u\text{-}tha$	
3	$\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}\hat{o}\text{-}ti$ (1)	$\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}u\text{-}tas$	$\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}v\text{-}an\text{-}ti$ (3)	
1	$a\text{-}\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}av\text{-}am$ (2)	$a\text{-}\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}(u)\text{-}va$ (4)	$a\text{-}\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}(u)\text{-}ma$ (4)	imperfect (sec. end.) with augm.
2	$a\text{-}\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}\hat{o}\text{-}s$ (1)	$a\text{-}\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}u\text{-}tam$	$a\text{-}\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}u\text{-}ta$	
3	$a\text{-}\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}\hat{o}\text{-}t$ (1)	$a\text{-}\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}u\text{-}tâm$	$a\text{-}\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}v\text{-}an$ (3)	
1	$\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}av\text{-}\bar{a}ni$ (2)	$\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}av\text{-}\bar{a}va$ (2)	$\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}av\text{-}\bar{a}ma$ (2)	imper- ative (sec. end.)
2	$\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}u$ (5)	$\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}u\text{-}tam$	$\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}u\text{-}ta$	
3	$\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}\hat{o}\text{-}tu$ (1)	$\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}u\text{-}tâm$	$\acute{s}r\text{-}\acute{n}v\text{-}an\text{-}tu$ (3)	

$\bar{a}p$ (“to get”)

And here the somewhat similar paradigm for $\bar{a}p$:

$\sqrt{\bar{a}p} \leftarrow \text{IE } *h_1ep, \text{ parasmâipada}$				
	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 indicative (prim. end.)
2	$\bar{a}p\text{-}n\hat{o}\text{-}\acute{s}i$ (1, 6)	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nu\text{-}thas$	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nu\text{-}tha$	
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)	
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 (sec. end.) with augm.
2	$\bar{a}p\text{-}n\hat{o}\text{-}s$ (1)	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nu\text{-}tam$	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nu\text{-}ta$	
3	$\bar{a}p\text{-}n\hat{o}\text{-}t$ (1)	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nu\text{-}tâm$	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nuv\text{-}an$ (3)	
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- ative (sec. end.)
2	$\bar{a}p\text{-}\acute{n}u\text{-}hi$ (5)	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nu\text{-}tam$	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nu\text{-}ta$	
3	$\bar{a}p\text{-}n\hat{o}\text{-}tu$ (1)	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nu\text{-}tâm$	$\bar{a}p\text{-}nuv\text{-}an\text{-}tu$ (3)	

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 **V+SV** on pp. 23 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 no alternative forms. Indeed, while $\bar{a}p\text{-}nu\text{-}ma$ is quite transparent, $\bar{a}p\text{-}n\text{-}ma \rightarrow \text{u.at. } \bar{a}p\text{-}a\text{-}ma$ is not (see p. 188).

5. In contrast to *su*, observe the (nearly) regular 2. pers. sg. imper. marker of parasmâipada verbs *hi*.
6. **RUKI**.

***aś* (“to get, to enjoy”)**

Turn now to an *ātmanêpada* verb:

$\sqrt{aś} \leftarrow \text{IE } *He\acute{k}$, <i>ātmanêpada</i>				
	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)	indicative
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+SV** (pp. 23).
3. A specific example of *nuv* before vowel endings is provided by pres. ind. 3. pers. pl. *aś-nuv-atê*, where *a* goes back to η .
4. The strong forms like *aś-nav-âi* have the class sign *nav* before vowel endings (**DIPH**).
5. **RUKI**

D.1.6. 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. 93). Have a look at these verbs:

D. Conjugations

√	3. pers. sg.	1. pers. pl.	pp.
<i>yuj</i>	<i>yu-na-k-ti</i>	<i>yu-ñ-j-mas</i>	192
<i>rudh</i>	<i>ru-ṛa-d-dhi</i>	<i>ru-n-dh-mas</i>	193
<i>bhid</i>	<i>bhi-na-t-ti</i>	<i>bhi-n-d-mas</i>	195
<i>hi-ṛ-s</i>	<i>hi-na-s-ti</i>	<i>hi-ṛ-s-mas</i>	196

Here, the infixes into the root

◇ *na* for strong forms

◇ *n* for weak forms

are clearly seen. The OI root does not, normally, contain the nasal infix, but the desiderative (!) *hiṛs* (p. 145) 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*):

√ <i>yuj</i> ← IE * <i>yeug</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)	indicative
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> (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> (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*, voiced *g* is seen before voiced dentals (**BA**).
3. Instead of *j*, nonvoiced *k* shows before nonvoiced consonants (**BA**).
4. The impf. sg. forms *a-yu-na-k* reflect sound laws **BA** and **CCI**, i.e., *a-yu-na-k* results from u.at. *a-yu-na-g-s* or u.at. *a-yu-na-g-t*, respectively. Alternatively, one would get the same result by applying **CCI** and **AFP**, in that order.

5. In 3. pers. pl. forms, *a* is present in both parasmâipada and ātmanêpada forms:
- In par. 3. pers. pl. forms like *yu-ñ-j-an-ti* (paradigm above), one finds *an* due to regularly occurring borrowing of *a* from the thematic classes.
 - In contrast, ātmanêpada forms like *yu-ñ-j-a-tê* (see below) do without this borrowing and *a* goes back to syllabic η : *yu-ñ-j-a-tê* ← IE **yu-n-g- η -toi*.

And here you see the ātmanêpada paradigm, where the numbers are explained above:

\sqrt{yuj} ← IE * <i>yeug</i> , ātmanêpada				
	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)	indicative
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), Bartholomae’s law is applied. First, consider the parasmâipada paradigm:

\sqrt{rudh} ← IE * <i>reudh</i> , 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)	indicative
3	<i>ru-ṇa-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.)

D. Conjugations

1. Many forms show aspiration shift **ASh** (pp. 39). In particular, distinguish between three cases:
 - a) $dh-t \rightarrow d-dh$ (aspiration shift and forward assimilation) is seen in *ru-ṅa-d-dhi*.
 - b) $dh-th \rightarrow d-dh$ (forward assimilation, but no double aspiration) is seen in *ru-n-d-dhas*.
 - c) $dh-dh \rightarrow d-dh$ (dh is already voiced and aspirated) is seen in *ru-n-d-dhvê* (see ātmanêpada paradigm below).The pres. ind. dual form *ru-n-d-dhas* reflects both endings *thas* (case b) and *tas* (case a).
2. dh loses its aspiration in these cases:
 - a) before s as in par. pres. ind. 2. pers. sg. *ru-ṅa-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. ind. 2. pers. pl. *ru-n-d-dhvê*, where
 - ◇ the root-final dh lost its aspiration,
 - ◇ dh is already aspirated so that no 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, a is observed in both parasmâipada and ātmanêpada forms:
 - a) In par. 3. pers. pl. forms like *ru-n-dh-an-ti* (paradigm above), an is present 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 η .
5. The impf. 3. pers. sg. can be explained by

$$\begin{aligned} & *a-ru-ṅa-dh-t \\ \rightarrow & a-ru-ṅa-dh \text{ (CCI)} \\ \rightarrow & a-ru-ṅa-t \text{ (AFP)} \end{aligned}$$

This also works for the 2. pers., with ending s rather than ending t . However, the 2. pers. admits a variant *a-ru-ṅa-s*, which restores the usual marker s .

And here you see the ātmanêpada paradigm, where the numbers are explained above:

$\sqrt{rudh} \leftarrow \text{IE } *reudh, \text{ \u0101tman\u0113pada}$				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>ru-n-dh-\u00e9</i> (3)	<i>ru-n-dh-vah\u00e9</i> (3)	<i>ru-n-dh-mah\u00e9</i> (3)	present
2	<i>ru-n-t-s\u00e9</i> (2a)	<i>ru-n-dh-\u00e1th\u00e9</i> (3)	<i>ru-n-d-dhv\u00e9</i> (1c, 2b)	indicative
3	<i>ru-n-d-dh\u00e9</i> (1a)	<i>ru-n-dh-\u00e1t\u00e9</i> (3)	<i>ru-n-dh-a-t\u00e9</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-dh\u00e1s</i> (1b)	<i>a-ru-n-dh-\u00e1th\u00e1m</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-\u00e1t\u00e1m</i> (3)	<i>a-ru-n-dh-a-ta</i> (3, 4b)	with augm.
1	<i>ru-\u00f1a-dh-\u00e1i</i> (3)	<i>ru-\u00f1a-dh-\u00e1-vah\u00e1i</i> (3)	<i>ru-\u00f1a-dh-\u00e1-mah\u00e1i</i> (3)	imper-
2	<i>ru-n-t-sva</i> (2a)	<i>ru-n-dh-\u00e1th\u00e1m</i> (3)	<i>ru-n-d-dhvam</i> (1c, 2b)	ative
3	<i>ru-n-d-dh\u00e1m</i> (1a)	<i>ru-n-dh-\u00e1t\u00e1m</i> (3)	<i>ru-n-dh-a-t\u00e1m</i> (3, 4b)	(sec. end.)

bhid (“to break”)

Turn now to *bhid* (“to break”):

$\sqrt{bhid} \leftarrow \text{IE } *bheid, \text{ parasm\u00e1ipada}$				
	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-t-thas</i> (3)	<i>bhi-n-t-tha</i> (3)	indicative
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> (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> (4)	<i>a-bhi-n-t-t\u00e1m</i> (3)	<i>a-bhi-n-d-an</i> (1, 5a)	with augm.
1	<i>bhi-na-d-\u00e1ni</i> (1)	<i>bhi-na-d-\u00e1va</i> (1)	<i>bhi-na-d-\u00e1ma</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-t\u00e1m</i> (3)	<i>bhi-n-d-an-tu</i> (1, 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. Root-final *d* and ending-initial *dh* of par. 2. pers. sg. imper. and \u00e1tm. 2. pers. pl. are dental.
3. Instead of *d*, nonvoiced *t* shows before nonvoiced consonants (**BA**).

D. Conjugations

4. The impf. sg. forms *a-bhi-na-t* reflect sound laws **BA** and **CCI**, i.e., *a-bhi-na-t* results from u.at. *a-bhi-na-d-s* or u.at. *a-bhi-na-d-t*, respectively. Alternatively, one would get the same result by applying **CCI** and **AFP**. However, the 2. pers. admits a variant which restores the usual marker *s*.
5. In 3. pers. pl. forms, *a* is again present in both parasmâipada and ātmanêpada forms:
 - a) In par. 3. pers. pl. forms like *bhi-n-d-an-ti* (paradigm above), *an* is 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 η .

And here you see the ātmanêpada paradigm, where the numbers are explained above:

$\sqrt{bhid} \leftarrow \text{IE } *bheid, \text{ \u00e1tman\u00e9pada}$				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>bhi-n-d-\u00e9</i> (1)	<i>bhi-n-d-vah\u00e9</i> (1)	<i>bhi-n-d-mah\u00e9</i> (1)	present
2	<i>bhi-n-t-s\u00e9</i> (3)	<i>bhi-n-d-\u00e1th\u00e9</i> (1)	<i>bhi-n-d-dhv\u00e9</i> (2)	indicative
3	<i>bhi-n-t-t\u00e9</i> (3)	<i>bhi-n-d-\u00e1t\u00e9</i> (1)	<i>bhi-n-d-a-t\u00e9</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-th\u00e1s</i> (3)	<i>a-bhi-n-d-\u00e1th\u00e1m</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-\u00e1t\u00e1m</i> (1)	<i>a-bhi-n-d-a-ta</i> (1, 5b)	with augm.
1	<i>bhi-na-d-\u00e1i</i> (1)	<i>bhi-na-d-\u00e1-vah\u00e1i</i> (1)	<i>bhi-na-d-\u00e1-mah\u00e1i</i> (1)	imper-
2	<i>bhi-n-t-sva</i> (3)	<i>bhi-n-d-\u00e1th\u00e1m</i> (1)	<i>bhi-n-d-dhvam</i> (2)	ative
3	<i>bhi-n-t-t\u00e1m</i> (3)	<i>bhi-n-d-\u00e1t\u00e1m</i> (1)	<i>bhi-n-d-a-t\u00e1m</i> (1, 5b)	(sec. end.)

hi\u0304ms (“to injure”)

In contrast to the usual convention, *hi\u0304ms* (“to injure”) shows the weak nasal sign in the OI root. The derivation of *hi\u0304ms* as a desiderative from *han* is shown on p. 145. Here, as a 7. class verb, the strong sign is *na*, while the weak sign is η (by **Ns** expected *sandhi* before *s*):

$\sqrt{hiṃs}$ parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>hi-na-s-mi</i>	<i>hiṃs-vas</i> (2)	<i>hiṃs-mas</i> (2)	present indicative (prim. end.)
2	<i>hi-na-s-si</i>	<i>hiṃs-thas</i> (2)	<i>hiṃs-tha</i> (2)	
3	<i>hi-na-s-ti</i>	<i>hiṃs-tas</i> (2)	<i>hiṃs-an-ti</i> (2)	
1	<i>a-hi-na-s-am</i>	<i>a-hiṃs-va</i> (2)	<i>a-hiṃs-ma</i> (2)	imperfect (sec. end.) with augm.
2	<i>a-hi-na-s/a-hi-na-t</i> (1)	<i>a-hiṃs-tam</i> (2)	<i>a-hiṃs-ta</i> (2)	
3	<i>a-hi-na-t</i> (1)	<i>a-hiṃs-tām</i> (2)	<i>a-hiṃs-an</i> (2)	
1	<i>hi-na-s-āni</i>	<i>hi-na-s-āva</i>	<i>hi-na-s-āma</i>	imper- ative (sec. end.)
2	<i>hi-n-dhi</i> (3)	<i>hiṃs-tam</i> (2)	<i>hiṃs-ta</i> (2)	
3	<i>hi-na-s-tu</i>	<i>hiṃs-tām</i> (2)	<i>hiṃs-an-tu</i> (2)	

1. For the impf. 2. pers. sg. observe

$$\begin{aligned} & *a-hi-na-s-s \\ \rightarrow & a-hi-na-s \text{ (CCI)} \end{aligned}$$

The same form should be produced in the 3. pers., u.at. $a-hi-na-s-t \rightarrow a-hi-na-s$. 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. Sound law *Ns*.
3. The form *hi-n-dhi* for expected $*hi-ṃ-s-dhi$ is mysterious.

D.1.7. 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. 94. The focus is on *tan* (“to stretch, to extend”). In presenting the *tan* paradigms, assume the gaṇa signs \hat{o} and u , respectively, in line with traditional Indian grammar. Additionally, the paradigm for the very frequent verb *kr* (“to do, to make”) is presented on pp. 199.

tan (“to stretch, to extend”)

First, the parasmâipada paradigm of *tan* (“to stretch, to extend”):

D. Conjugations

$\sqrt{\text{tan}} \leftarrow \text{IE } *ten, \text{ parasmâipada}$				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>tan-ô-mi</i> (1)	<i>tan-(u)-vas</i> (4)	<i>tan-(u)-mas</i> (4)	present indicative (prim. end.)
2	<i>tan-ô-ṣi</i> (1, 6)	<i>tan-u-thas</i>	<i>tan-u-tha</i>	
3	<i>tan-ô-ti</i> (1)	<i>tan-u-tas</i>	<i>tan-v-an-ti</i> (3)	
1	<i>a-tan-av-am</i> (2)	<i>a-tan-(u)-va</i> (4)	<i>a-tan-(u)-ma</i> (4)	imperfect (sec. end.) with augm.
2	<i>a-tan-ô-s</i> (1)	<i>a-tan-u-tam</i>	<i>a-tan-u-ta</i>	
3	<i>a-tan-ô-t</i> (1)	<i>a-tan-u-tām</i>	<i>a-tan-v-an</i> (3)	
1	<i>tan-av-āni</i> (2)	<i>tan-av-āva</i> (2)	<i>tan-av-āma</i> (2)	imper- ative (sec. end.)
2	<i>tan-u</i> (5)	<i>tan-u-tam</i>	<i>tan-u-ta</i>	
3	<i>tan-ô-tu</i> (1)	<i>tan-u-tām</i>	<i>tan-v-an-tu</i> (3)	

1. The strong forms have the strong class sign \hat{o} 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 (borrowed from the thematic classes) have the weak class sign *v* (see **SV**).
4. In the four weak forms with *m* and *v* endings, alternatively \emptyset for *u*, i.e., *tan-mas* besides *tan-u-mas* etc.
5. Thematic parasmâipada paradigms show the stem as 2. pers. sg. imper., as in *bhara* (“carry!”). This holds here for *tan-u* (“stretch!”) as for some verbs from the 5. class like *su-nu*.
6. **RUKI**.

Turn now to the ātmanêpada paradigm:

$\sqrt{\text{tan}} \leftarrow \text{IE } *ten, \text{ ātmanêpada}$				
	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 indicative (prim. end.)
2	<i>tan-u-ṣê</i> (1, 6)	<i>tan-v-āthê</i> (2)	<i>tan-u-dhvê</i> (1)	
3	<i>tan-u-tê</i> (1)	<i>tan-v-ātê</i> (2)	<i>tan-v-a-tê</i> (2, 3)	
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 (sec. end.) with augm.
2	<i>a-tan-u-thās</i> (1)	<i>a-tan-v-āthām</i> (2)	<i>a-tan-u-dhvam</i> (1)	
3	<i>a-tan-u-ta</i> (1)	<i>a-tan-v-ātām</i> (2)	<i>a-tan-v-a-ta</i> (2, 3)	
1	<i>tan-av-âi</i> (4)	<i>tan-av-ā-vahâi</i> (4)	<i>tan-av-ā-mahâi</i> (4)	imper- ative (sec. end.)
2	<i>tan-u-ṣva</i> (1, 6)	<i>tan-v-āthām</i> (2)	<i>tan-u-dhvam</i> (1)	
3	<i>tan-u-tām</i> (1)	<i>tan-v-ātām</i> (2)	<i>tan-v-a-tām</i> (2, 3)	

1. Expectedly, the weak class signs before consonants are *u*, for example *tan-u-tê*.
2. The weak forms before vowels are *v*, for example *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 η .
4. The strong forms have the class sign *av* before vowel endings (**DIPH**), for example *tan-av-âi*.
5. In the four weak forms with *m* and *v* endings, alternatively no class sign instead of class sign *u*, similar to some verbs from the 5. class (*su-n(u)-mahê*).
6. **RUKI**

***kr* (“to do, to make”)**

kr (“to do, to make”) has OI *k* throughout the paradigm, disregarding any secondary palatalisation. The paradigm differs somewhat from the paradigm for nasal verbs like *tan*:

\sqrt{kr} , 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>	indicative
3	<i>kar-ô-ti</i> (1a)	<i>kur-u-tas</i>	<i>kur-v-an-ti</i> (2)	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-kar-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.)

1. The strong forms use the full-grade *kar*. In contrast, other verbs like *tan* originally use the zero grade (see pp. 94). The class sign is
 - a) *ô* before consonant endings.
 - b) *av* before vowel endings.
2. The weak form is *kur-u*, but *v* before vowel endings (**SV**), for example *kur-v-an-ti*.
3. In the four weak forms with *m* and *v* endings, the zero marker is employed. Thus,
 - ◇ for *tan*, *tan-vas* contrasts with *tan-u-vas*

D. Conjugations

◇ but *kṛ* shows only *kur-vas*.

4. Similar to *su-nu* (5. class) and *tan-u* (8. class), note *kur-u* (“do!”).

5. RUKI

Now consider the ātmanêpada paradigm:

$\sqrt{kṛ} \leftarrow \text{IE } *k^w er, \text{ ātmanêpada}$				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>kur-v-ê</i> (2)	<i>kur-vahê</i> (5)	<i>kur-mahê</i> (5)	present
2	<i>kur-u-ṣê</i> (1, 6)	<i>kur-v-āthê</i> (2)	<i>kur-u-dhvê</i> (1)	indicative
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> (5)	<i>a-kur-mahi</i> (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>kar-av-âi</i> (4)	<i>kar-av-ā-vahâi</i> (4)	<i>kar-av-ā-mahâi</i> (4)	imper-
2	<i>kur-u-ṣva</i> (1, 6)	<i>kur-v-āthām</i> (2)	<i>kur-u-dhvam</i> (1)	ative
3	<i>kur-u-tām</i> (1)	<i>kur-v-ātām</i> (2)	<i>kur-v-a-tām</i> (2, 3)	(sec. end.)

1. Expectedly, the weak forms before consonants are *u*, for example *kur-u-tê*.
2. The weak forms before vowels are *v*, for example *kur-v-ê*.
3. Forms like 3. pers. pl. *kur-v-atê* show $a \leftarrow \eta$.
4. The strong forms have the class sign *av* before vowel endings (see **DIPH**), for example *kar-av-âi*.
5. In the four weak forms with *m* and *v* endings, observe the zero class sign.
6. **RUKI**

D.1.8. The ninth class

The class signs for the 9. class are *nā* (strong forms) and *nī* (weak forms). Revisit pp. 93. Since both class signs end in a vowel, the forms do not present any particular difficulties. Consider the parasmâipada paradigm of *pū* (“to purify”):

$\sqrt{pu} \leftarrow$ IE * <i>puH</i> , parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>pu-nā-mī</i>	<i>pu-nī-vas</i>	<i>pu-nī-mas</i>	present indicative (prim. end.)
2	<i>pu-nā-si</i>	<i>pu-nī-thas</i>	<i>pu-nī-tha</i>	
3	<i>pu-nā-ti</i>	<i>pu-nī-tas</i>	<i>pu-n-an-ti</i> (3)	
1	<i>a-pu-nā-m</i> (1)	<i>a-pu-nī-va</i>	<i>a-pu-nī-ma</i>	imperfect (sec. end.) with augm.
2	<i>a-pu-nā-s</i>	<i>a-pu-nī-tam</i>	<i>a-pu-nī-ta</i>	
3	<i>a-pu-nā-t</i>	<i>a-pu-nī-tām</i>	<i>a-pu-n-an</i> (3)	
1	<i>pu-n-āni</i> (2)	<i>pu-n-āva</i> (2)	<i>pu-n-āma</i> (2)	imper- ative (sec. end.)
2	<i>pu-nī-hi</i> (4)	<i>pu-nī-tam</i>	<i>pu-nī-ta</i>	
3	<i>pu-nā-tu</i>	<i>pu-nī-tām</i>	<i>pu-n-an-tu</i> (3)	

1. Consider *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-an-ti*) have been modelled on the many other athematic forms like *duh-an-ti* (2. class) or *kur-v-an-ti* (8. class). The weak class sign is just *n*, not *nī*. This is expected by **Lar_CH** from IE **pu-n-H-on-ti*.
4. Observe imperative *pu-nī-hi* instead of **pu-nī-dhi*.

The ātmanêpada paradigm is also not spectacular:

$\sqrt{pu} \leftarrow$ 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 indicative (prim. end.)
2	<i>pu-nī-ṣê</i> (5)	<i>pu-n-āthê</i> (2)	<i>pu-nī-dhvê</i>	
3	<i>pu-nī-tê</i>	<i>pu-n-ātê</i> (2)	<i>pu-n-a-tê</i> (3)	
1	<i>a-pu-n-i</i> (4)	<i>a-pu-nī-vahi</i>	<i>a-pu-nī-mahi</i>	imperfect (sec. end.) with augm.
2	<i>a-pu-nī-thās</i>	<i>a-pu-n-āthām</i>	<i>a-pu-nī-dhvam</i>	
3	<i>a-pu-nī-ta</i>	<i>a-pu-n-ātām</i>	<i>a-pu-n-a-ta</i> (3)	
1	<i>pu-n-âi</i> (6)	<i>pu-n-ā-vahâi</i> (6)	<i>pu-n-ā-mahâi</i> (6)	imper- ative (sec. end.)
2	<i>pu-nī-ṣva</i> (5)	<i>pu-n-āthām</i> (2)	<i>pu-nī-dhvam</i>	
3	<i>pu-nī-tām</i>	<i>pu-n-ātām</i> (2)	<i>pu-n-a-tām</i> (3)	

1. The weak class sign *nī* is not present in *pu-n-ê* but reduced to just *n*.
2. A similar reduction is obvious in weak forms like *pu-n-āthê*. This loss of a laryngeal between consonant and vowel may be a regular development (**Lar_CH**).

D. Conjugations

3. The 3. pers. pl. forms (example: *pu-n-a-tê*) 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 is just *n*, not *n̄*.
4. *a-pu-n-i* is modelled on 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 resulting from *pu-nā-ā-mahâi*.

Verbs like *krī* (“to buy”) or *prī* are formed similar to *pū*, with two exceptions:

- ◇ cerebral *ṇ* (due to **Cern**, pp. 44) in all class signs: *krī-ṇā-ti* and *krī-ṇā-mas*
- ◇ irregular *krī* (with long *ī*) in forms with weak or strong class sign:

$\sqrt{krī} \leftarrow$ IE * <i>kreih</i> ₂ , parasmâipada				
	sg.	dual	pl.	
1	<i>krī-ṇā-mī</i>	<i>krī-ṇī-vas</i>	<i>krī-ṇī-mas</i>	present
2	<i>krī-ṇā-sī</i>	<i>krī-ṇī-thas</i>	<i>krī-ṇī-tha</i>	indicative
3	<i>krī-ṇā-ti</i>	<i>krī-ṇī-tas</i>	<i>krī-ṇ-an-ti</i>	(prim. end.)
1	<i>a-krī-ṇā-m</i>	<i>a-krī-ṇī-va</i>	<i>a-krī-ṇī-ma</i>	imperfect
2	<i>krī-ṇā-s</i>	<i>a-krī-ṇī-tam</i>	<i>a-krī-ṇī-ta</i>	(sec. end.)
3	<i>krī-ṇā-t</i>	<i>a-krī-ṇī-tām</i>	<i>a-krī-ṇ-an</i>	with augm.
1	<i>krī-ṇ-āni</i>	<i>krī-ṇ-āva</i>	<i>krī-ṇ-āma</i>	imper-
2	<i>krī-ṇā-hi</i>	<i>krī-ṇā-tam</i>	<i>krī-ṇā-ta</i>	ative
3	<i>krī-ṇā-tu</i>	<i>krī-ṇā-tām</i>	<i>krī-ṇ-an-tu</i>	(sec. end.)

Many other verbs differ only with respect to par. 2. pers. imper.:

$\sqrt{\quad}$	pres. ind. 3. pers. sg.	imper., 2. pers. sg.	translation
<i>aś</i> (f.g.)	<i>aś-nā-ti</i> (f.g.)	<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>grh-ṇā-ti</i>	<i>grh-āṇa</i>	grab!
<i>puṣ</i>	<i>puṣ-ṇā-ti</i>	<i>puṣ-āṇa</i>	strengthen!
<i>bandh</i> (f.g.)	<i>badh-nā-ti</i> (z.g.)	<i>badh-āna</i> (z.g.)	bind!
<i>muṣ</i>	<i>muṣ-ṇā-ti</i>	<i>muṣ-āṇa</i>	rob!
<i>stambh</i> (f.g.)	<i>stabh-nā-ti</i> (z.g.)	<i>stabh-āna</i> (z.g.)	support!

D.2. Reduplicative perfect

D.2.1. General remarks

The reduplicative perfect is mainly attested for the 3. pers. sg. It is

- ◇ strong for par. sg.,
- ◇ weak for dual, pl., or ātm.

Reduplication for the perfect works similar to that of 3. class verbs (p. 179). Interestingly, the par. 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. 185)

In roots without semivowels, the initial consonant plus *a* ← IE *e* (!) is placed before the full-grade root (strong forms) or the zero-grade root (weak forms). Roots with semivowels use the semivowel for reduplication:

- ◇ *u* roots (such as *yuj*) always reduplicate with *u*.
- ◇ *i* roots (such as *lih*) always reduplicate with *i*.

D.2.2. Strong forms

Qualitative ablaut

First, consider the strong forms. They are built with the qualitative ablaut, the *o*-grade. Then, one obtains

- ◇ 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 enter
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

D. Conjugations

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.

When the root initial is an aspirated consonant, Grassmann's law (**DA**) applies:

√	perfect, 3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>chid</i>	<i>ci-cchêd-a</i>	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**:

$$\mathbf{Lo} \quad \text{OI } oCV \rightarrow \text{OI } \bar{a}CV$$

In the above examples, this law was not applied. For example, *o* in **bhi-bhoid-e* is not in an open syllable because both the semivowel *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

In 1. pers. sg., the syllable is not open due to the IE ending so that **Lo** does not apply there (pp. 35).

Samprasāraṇa

Now consider roots with initial vowel or initial semivowel. They reduplicate with this vowel or semivowel (samprasāraṇa), totally in line with our general reduplication rule above. Except for *iṣ*, the examples in the following table result from **Lo**:

√	perfect, 3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>i</i>	<i>iy-āy-a</i> (V+SV)	to go
<i>iṣ</i>	<i>iy-êṣ-a</i> (V+SV)	to wish
<i>yaj</i> (f.g.)	<i>i-yāj-a</i>	to sacrifice
<i>vac</i> (f.g.)	<i>u-vāc-a</i>	to say
<i>vad</i> (f.g.)	<i>u-vād-a</i>	to say
<i>vap</i> (f.g.)	<i>u-vāp-a</i>	to sow
<i>vas</i> (f.g.)	<i>u-vās-a</i>	to dwell
<i>vah</i> (f.g.)	<i>u-vāh-a</i>	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 result:

√ full grade	IE 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>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

Palatalisation

Primary palatalisation (**PPal**), secondary palatalisation (**SPal**), and analogical palatalisation are involved in the formation of the perfect forms. For *hu* (“to sacrifice”), see

- IE **ǵhu-ǵhou-e* (reduplication, *o*-grade)
- *ǵu-ǵhou-e* (**DA**)
- *ǵu-hov-e* (**PPal**, **SV**)
- *ǵu-hōv-e* (**Lo**)
- *ǵu-hāv-a* (**āā**)

D. Conjugations

Similarly,

√	perfect, 3. pers. sg.	translation
<i>has</i> (f.g.)	<i>ja-hās-a</i>	to laugh
<i>hṛ</i>	<i>ja-hār-a</i>	to take

You may have noticed that secondary palatalisation 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 the front vowel IE *e* (see figure B.2, p. 38). For the root-initial consonant, secondary palatalisation happens for the reduplication consonants *i* and *a* ← IE *e* (!). For *han* (“to hit”), consider

IE **g^whe-g^whon-e* (reduplication, *o*-grade)
 → *g^we-g^whon-e* (**DA**)
 → *je-ghon-e* (**SPal**)
 → *ja-ghōn-e* (**Lo**)
 → *ja-ghān-a* (**aā**)

Similarly, see

√	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. 126). Hence, *ca-khān-a* ← IE **khe-khonH-e* does not work because the syllable *khonH* ends in two consonants and is not open so that **Lo** does not apply.

Apparently, secondary palatalisation 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, proportional analogy was operative, for example

<i>kṣîp</i>	with palatal reduplication:	<i>cî-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-povH-e</i>	to clean
<i>bhī</i>	<i>bi-bhāy-a</i>	<i>bi-bhay-a</i> ← IE * <i>bhi-bhoyH-e</i>	to fear
<i>bhū</i>	<i>ba-bhūv-a</i>	<i>bu-bhav-a</i> ← IE * <i>bhu-bhovH-e</i>	to be

where the conditions for **Lo** (syllables need to be open) are not fulfilled. On top, *ba-bhūv-a* exhibits an 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*:

√	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>ñā</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.

D.2.3. Weak forms

Examples for root vowels *i*, *u* or *a*

The weak forms are built with the zero grade. First, consider root vowel *i*:

D. Conjugations

√	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>	<i>ci-cchid-us</i>	to cut
<i>ji</i>	<i>ji-ghāy-a</i>	<i>ji-ghy-us (SV)</i>	to conquer
<i>dviṣ</i>	<i>di-dvêṣ-a</i>	<i>di-dviṣ-us</i>	to hate
<i>bhid</i>	<i>bi-bhêd-a</i>	<i>bi-bhid-us</i>	to split
<i>lih</i>	<i>li-lêh-a</i>	<i>li-lih-us</i>	to lick
<i>viś</i>	<i>vi-vêś-a</i>	<i>vi-viś-us</i>	to cut
<i>vyadh</i> (f.g.)	<i>vi-vyādh-a</i>	<i>vi-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 (Lo)</i>	<i>śu-śruv-us (V+SV)</i>	to hear
<i>su</i>	<i>su-ṣāv-a (RUKI, Lo)</i>	<i>su-ṣuv-us (RUKI, V+SV)</i>	to press
<i>svap</i> (f.g.)	<i>su-ṣvāp-a (RUKI, Lo)</i>	<i>su-ṣup-us (RUKI)</i>	to sleep

Finally, here are some examples for roots without semivowels:

√	perfect, 3. pers. sg.	perfect, 3. pers. pl.	translation
<i>kr̥</i>	<i>ca-kār-a (Lo)</i>	<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 (Lo)</i>	<i>ja-gm-us</i>	to go
<i>bhṛ̥</i>	<i>ba-bhār-a (Lo)</i>	<i>ba-bhr-us</i>	to bear
<i>hṛ̥</i>	<i>ja-hār-a (Lo)</i>	<i>ja-hr-us</i>	to take

Exceptionally, one finds irregular 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 (**VS** 1. line).

√	perfect, 3. pers. sg.	perfect, 3. pers. pl.	translation
<i>i</i>	<i>iy-āy-a</i>	$\bar{i}y-us$	to go
<i>iṣ</i>	<i>iy-êṣ-a</i>	$\bar{i}ṣ-us$	to wish
<i>yaj</i> (f.g.)	<i>i-yāj-a</i>	$\bar{i}j-us$	to sacrifice
<i>vac</i> (f.g.)	<i>u-vāc-a</i>	$\bar{u}c-us$	to say
<i>vad</i> (f.g.)	<i>u-vād-a</i>	$\bar{u}d-us$	to say
<i>vap</i> (f.g.)	<i>u-vāp-a</i>	$\bar{u}p-us$	to sow
<i>vas</i> (f.g.)	<i>u-vās-a</i>	$\bar{u}ṣ-us$	to dwell
<i>vah</i> (f.g.)	<i>u-vāh-a</i>	$\bar{u}h-us$	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:

√	perfect, 3. pers. sg.	perfect, 3. pers. pl.	translation
$\bar{a}p$ (see dictionary)	$\bar{a}p-a$	$\bar{a}p-us$	to obtain
<i>aś</i> (f.g.)	$\bar{a}ś-a$	$\bar{a}ś-us$ (“wrong”)	to eat
<i>as</i> (f.g.)	$\bar{a}s-a$	$\bar{a}s-us$ (“wrong”)	to be
<i>ah</i> (f.g.)	$\bar{a}h-a$	$\bar{a}h-us$ (“wrong”)	to say

D. Conjugations

Difficult reduplications

Turn now to the sizable number of instances where the perfect seems to be formed without reduplication. A first group surprisingly has \hat{e} turn up in the root:

$\sqrt{\text{in f.g.}}$	pf., 3. pers. sg., par.	pf., 3. pers. pl., par.	pf., 3. pers. sg., \bar{a} 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
<i>sah</i>			<i>sêh-ê</i>	to endure

Importantly, regular reduplication is indeed present in *yat*, *sad*, and *sah*. In that order, see

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{IE } *ye-it- \text{ (reduplication, zero grade)} \\ \rightarrow & \text{ } yêt- \text{ (DIPH)} \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{IE } *se-sd- \text{ (reduplication, zero grade)} \\ \rightarrow & \text{ } sa-zd- \text{ (} \mathbf{a\bar{a}}, \mathbf{sz} \text{ before voiced consonant)} \\ \rightarrow & \text{ } sêd- \text{ (CpLz 1. line, perhaps before consonant + } i \text{)} \end{aligned}$$

and

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{IE } *se-sgh- \text{ (reduplication, zero grade)} \\ \rightarrow & \text{ } sa-zgh- \text{ (} \mathbf{a\bar{a}}, \mathbf{sz} \text{ before voiced consonant)} \\ \rightarrow & \text{ } sêh- \text{ (CpLz 1. line, perhaps before consonant + } i \text{)} \end{aligned}$$

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>

Three additional difficult reduplications need to be tackled. First, the verbal root of the 2. class **takṣ**, **tāṣ-ṭi** goes back to a reduplicated perfect from IE root **tek* (“to produce”):

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{IE } *te-tk'-V \text{ (reduplication syllable + z.g. root)} \\ \rightarrow & \text{ } ta-kṣ-V \text{ (} \mathbf{a\bar{a}}, \mathbf{SIB} \text{ line 6)} \end{aligned}$$

with perfect 3. pers. pl. Ved. *takṣus*. OI *ta-takṣ-a* is then the (strong) perfect of *takṣ*, a second-order perfect of u.at. *taś*. More difficult is *tāṣ-ṭi* which seems to have come about by

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{IE } *te-tk'-ti \text{ (reduplication syllable + z.g. root)} \\ \rightarrow & \text{ } t-etk'-ti \\ \rightarrow & \text{ } t-\bar{a}k'-ti \text{ (} \mathbf{a\bar{a}}, \text{ irregular application of } \mathbf{CpLdk'}) \\ \rightarrow & \text{ } t\bar{a}\dot{\text{ṣ}}-ti \text{ (} \mathbf{PPal}) \\ \rightarrow & \text{ } t\bar{a}\dot{\text{ṣ}}-\dot{\text{ṭ}}i \text{ (} \mathbf{CerD}) \end{aligned}$$

Second, the verb of the 2. class **dāś**, **dāṣ-ṭi** originates from a weak perfect that builds on IE root **dek* (“to receive, to embellish”):

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{IE } *de-dk' \text{ (reduplication syllable + z.g. root)} \\ \rightarrow & \text{ } d\bar{a}k' \text{ (} \mathbf{a\bar{a}}, \mathbf{CpLdk'}) \\ \rightarrow & \text{ } d\bar{a}\dot{\text{ś}} \text{ (} \mathbf{PPal}) \end{aligned}$$

The corresponding pf.P is *dāśva* which is corrupted from *dāś-va(n)s* (“liberal, a donor”). However, *da-dāś-a* might either be the strong perfect of u.at. *daś* or, alternatively, a second-order of *dāś* (s.v. *daśas*, p. 326).

Third, consider *sah*, *sahati* (“to tolerate”) with pf.P Ved. *sāh-va(n)s* which can be derived as follows:

$$\begin{aligned} & \text{IE } *se-sgh-v \text{ (reduplication syllable + z.g. root + pfP marker)} \\ \rightarrow & \text{ } sas-ghv- \text{ (} \mathbf{a\bar{a}}) \\ \rightarrow & \text{ } saz-ghv- \text{ (} \mathbf{sz} \text{ before voiced consonant)} \\ \rightarrow & \text{ } s\bar{a}-ghv- \text{ (} \mathbf{CpLz} \text{ 1. line, perhaps before consonant + } i) \\ \rightarrow & \text{ } s\bar{a}-hv- \text{ (} \mathbf{PPal}) \end{aligned}$$

D. Conjugations

D.2.4. Conjugation

For *tud* (“to hit”), consider

$\sqrt{tud} \leftarrow \text{IE } *teud$			
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-ṣê</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 pres. ind. *bhar-ê* and *bhar-a-sê*.
4. Compare pres. ind. *bhar-â-mahê* and *bhar-â-vahê*.
5. Compare pres. ind. *bhar-a-dhvê*.
6. Compare pres. ind. *bhar-ê-thê* and *bhar-ê-tê*.

The conjugation for *tud* is similar to the one for *dâ* (“to give”) with the notable exception of 1. and 3. pers. sg.:

$\sqrt{dâ} \leftarrow \text{IE } *deh_3$						
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-ṣê</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>

D.3. Aorist

D.3.1. General remarks

Aorist is yet another form of past tense. The aorist formation does not use any present-stem 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, compare these aorist 3. sg. forms:

aorist	√	augm.	redupl.	root.	infix	them. vow./infix	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</i>	<i>t</i>

The following table offers examples for seven different aorists:

aorist	√	3. sg.	3. pl.	pp.	
thematic	<i>yuj</i>	<i>a-yuj-a-t</i>	<i>a-yuj-a-n</i>	213	
reduplicated	<i>pat</i>	<i>a-pa-pt-a-t</i>	<i>a-pa-pt-a-n</i>	214	
root	<i>bhū</i>	<i>a-bhū-t</i>	<i>a-bhūv-an</i>	215	
sigmatic	<i>s</i>	<i>yuj</i>	<i>a-yâuk-ṣ-ī-t</i>	<i>a-yâuk-ṣ-us</i>	217
	<i>sa</i>	<i>diś</i>	<i>a-dik-ṣ-a-t</i>	<i>a-dik-ṣ-a-n</i>	215
	<i>iṣ</i>	<i>vad</i>	<i>a-vad-ī-t</i>	<i>a-vad-iṣ-us</i>	216
	<i>siṣ</i>	<i>snā</i>	<i>a-snā-sī-t</i>	<i>a-snā-siṣ-us</i>	217

D.3.2. Thematic aorist

The thematic aorist is formed by this formula:

$$\text{augment} + \text{zero-grade root} + a + \text{ending}$$

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:

D. Conjugations

$\sqrt{\text{lubh}} \leftarrow \text{IE } *leubh, \text{ aorist parasmâipada}$			
	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. 155).

Some of the aorists explained below also use the thematic *a*.

D.3.3. Reduplicated aorist

The reduplicated aorist is formed by this formula:

augment + reduplicated zero-grade root + *a* + ending

Consider these three examples for the 3. pers. sg.:

reduplicated aorist	$\sqrt{\text{in f.g.}}$	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 becomes *a-vôc-a-t* (**VS 3.** line).

The parasmâipada paradigm for *muc* shows difficult lengthening of the reduplication syllable:

$\sqrt{\text{muc}}, \text{ aorist parasmâipada}$			
	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*, note the thematic secondary ātmanêpada endings (p. 157).

$\sqrt{\text{vac}}, \text{ aorist } \bar{\text{a}}\text{tmanêpada}$			
	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-an-ta</i>

You need to replace *vôc* by *mū-muc* if you want to know the ātmanêpada for *muc*.

D.3.4. Root aorist

The root aorist obeys the simple formula of

augment + zero-grade or full-grade root + ending

Consider the three examples for the 3. pers. 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>

First, consider the parasmâipada for *dā*:

√ <i>dā</i> , 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. 160, secondary athematic endings often have the variant *us* in 3. pers. pl. This is also the case here. After all, u.at. *dā-us* and hence *dôs* would have been unrecognisable. Instead, the actual form is *a-d-us*.

Consider, now, the root aorist for *bhū*. Before vowel endings (*am* and *an*, respectively, see 160), **V+SV** would lead us to expect *bhuv*, but not the attested *bhūv*:

√ <i>bhū</i> , 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>

D.3.5. Sigmatic aorist with *sa*

There are four sigmatic aorists. The *sa*-aorist is formed by

augment + zero-grade root + *s* + *a* + ending

For example, **SIB** yields these 3. pers. sg. examples:

<i>sa</i> -aorist	√	augm.	root	infix	them. vow.	end.
	<i>dīś</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>dīk</i>	<i>ṣ</i> (SIB 3. line)	<i>a</i>	<i>t</i>
	<i>dviṣ</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>dvīk</i>	<i>ṣ</i> (SIB 2. line)	<i>a</i>	<i>t</i>
	<i>viś</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>vīk</i>	<i>ṣ</i> (SIB 3. line)	<i>a</i>	<i>t</i>

D. Conjugations

The endings are the expected ones. The parasmâipada paradigm for *diś* is given by

√ <i>diś</i> , 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>

D.3.6. Sigmatic aorist with *iṣ*

Next, consider the *iṣ*-aorist:

augment + full-grade root + *iṣ* + ending

Originally, *iṣ* has been used in *sêt* verbs, but this formation spread to other verbs, similar to the future tense. For example, see these 3. pers. sg. forms:

<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 becomes *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. $a-bôdh-i\bar{s}-t$ results from leveling:

	$a-bôdh-i\bar{s}-t$	
influenced by	$a-bôdh-i\bar{s}$	with \bar{i} by secondary ending
turns into	$a-bôdh-i\bar{i}-t$	with \bar{i}

These two singular forms with “ \bar{i} 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.

D.3.7. Sigmatic aorist with $si\bar{s}$

A few 2. class roots ending in \bar{a} use the $si\bar{s}$ -aorist and obey this formula:

augment + full-grade root + $si\bar{s}$ + ending

Consider these 3. pers. sg. examples:

$si\bar{s}$ -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 $si\bar{s}$ is not clearly visible in these sg. forms. Compare the *budh* paradigm above. Here, then, $s\bar{i}$ (rather than \bar{i}) plus par. secondary ending lead to forms like $a-y\bar{a}-s\bar{i}-t$, not expected u.at. $a-y\bar{a}-si\bar{s}-t$ which would then be subject to **CCI**. In any case, here comes the paradigm for $y\bar{a}$:

√ $y\bar{a}$, aorist parasmâipada			
	sg.	dual	pl.
1	$a-y\bar{a}-si\bar{s}-am$	$a-y\bar{a}-si\bar{s}-va$	$a-y\bar{a}-si\bar{s}-ma$
2	$a-y\bar{a}-s\bar{i}-s$	$a-y\bar{a}-si\bar{s}-tam$	$a-y\bar{a}-si\bar{s}-ta$
3	$a-y\bar{a}-s\bar{i}-t$	$a-y\bar{a}-si\bar{s}-tām$	$a-y\bar{a}-si\bar{s}-us$

D.3.8. Sigmatic aorist with s

Finally, turn to the s -aorist which follows this pattern for parasmâipada:

augment + lengthened root + s + ending

Consider these examples for 3. pers. pl.:

D. Conjugations

s-aorist	√	augm.	root	infix	end.
	<i>kṛ</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>kār</i>	<i>ṣ</i> (2)	<i>us</i>
	<i>bandh</i> (f.g.)	<i>a</i>	<i>bhānt</i> (4)	<i>s</i>	<i>us</i>
	<i>bhaj</i> (f.g.)	<i>a</i>	<i>bhāk</i> (1)	<i>ṣ</i> (2)	<i>us</i>
	<i>tap</i> (f.g.)	<i>a</i>	<i>tāp</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>us</i>
	<i>yuj</i>	<i>a</i>	<i>yâuk</i> (1)	<i>ṣ</i> (2)	<i>us</i>
	<i>vas</i> (f.g.)	<i>a</i>	<i>vāt</i> (3)	<i>s</i>	<i>us</i>
	<i>vah</i> (f.g.)	<i>a</i>	<i>vāk</i> (1)	<i>ṣ</i> (2)	<i>us</i>
	<i>śap</i> (f.g.)	<i>a</i>	<i>śāp</i>	<i>s</i>	<i>us</i>

1. *s* is voiceless so that backward assimilation operates as expected. *k* in *a-vāk-ṣ-us* is due to IE **veǵh*.
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. 40).

In the above table, the 3. pers. pl. forms are listed. Contrasting the sg. and pl. forms yields

s-aorist	√	3. sg.	3. pl.
	<i>kṛ</i>	<i>a-kār-ṣ-ī-t</i>	<i>a-kār-ṣ-us</i>
	<i>bandh</i> (f.g.)	<i>a-bhānt-s-ī-t</i>	<i>a-bhānt-s-us</i>
	<i>bhaj</i> (f.g.)	<i>a-bhāk-ṣ-ī-t</i>	<i>a-bhāk-ṣ-us</i>
	<i>tap</i> (f.g.)	<i>a-tāp-s-ī-t</i>	<i>a-tāp-s-us</i>
	<i>yuj</i>	<i>a-yâuk-ṣ-ī-t</i>	<i>a-yâuk-ṣ-us</i>
	<i>vas</i> (f.g.)	<i>a-vāt-s-ī-t</i>	<i>a-vāt-s-us</i>
	<i>vah</i> (f.g.)	<i>a-vāk-ṣ-ī-t</i>	<i>a-vāk-ṣ-us</i>
	<i>śap</i> (f.g.)	<i>a-śāp-s-ī-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 *ī* as a possible “thematic vowel” for the two sg. forms and applied them here, were u.at. *a-yâuk-s-t* would have produced u.at. *a-yâuk* by **CCI**.

The parasmâipada paradigm for $k\bar{r}$ is now easy:

$\sqrt{k\bar{r}}$, 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-ṣī-s</i>	<i>a-kār-ṣ-ṭam</i>	<i>a-kār-ṣ-ṭa</i>
3	<i>a-kār-ṣī-t</i>	<i>a-kār-ṣ-ṭām</i>	<i>a-kār-ṣ-us</i>

The ātmanêpada forms (full grade, not lengthened grade) for $\acute{s}ap$ are

$\sqrt{\acute{s}ap}$, 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** 2. line
2. Regularly, the athematic ending 3. pl. is *a-ta* from IE η -to (or later analogy from similar cases).

E. Declensions

E.1. Nouns: categories

E.1.1. Distribution of weak and strong forms

A nominal “stem” is the basis from which (many) other forms are derived. As an example, consider the adjective with stem *bala-vant*. It can be used to build the accusative singular *bala-vant-am* (which is a “strong form”) and the instrumental singular *bala-vat-ā* (a “weak form”). Here, “strong” and “weak” refer to suffixes, not to verbal roots. Nouns whose stem ends in a consonant often distinguish between weak and strong forms. Strong forms typically take the full grade of a suffix and weak forms the zero grade of the suffix. In particular, masculine (m.) and feminine (f.) nouns show strong forms in nominative (nom.), vocative (voc.), and accusative (acc.) with the exception of 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 figure E.1 the strong forms are marked.

E.1.2. Characteristics of vocalic and consonantal nouns

For the purposes of this book⁸, I distinguish between vocalic and consonantal nouns in the following manner:

	stem ends in	weak/strong	acc. pl. m.	acc. pl. f.	gen. pl.
cons. nouns	a consonant	sometimes	<i>as</i>	<i>as</i>	<i>ām</i>
voc. nouns	a vowel <i>V</i>	never	$\bar{V}n$ (1)	$\bar{V}s$	$\bar{V}nām$ (2)

1. $\bar{V}n \leftarrow Vns$ (**CpLs**)
2. $\bar{V}nām \leftarrow VHnōm$ (**Lar__V**)

It seems that the f. sg. endings are characterised by

	acc.	dative	abl./gen.	locative
cons. nouns	<i>am</i> (as also m. nouns)	<i>ê</i>	<i>as</i>	<i>i</i>
voc. nouns	<i>m</i> (as also m. nouns)	$\hat{a}i \leftarrow a + \hat{e}$	$\bar{a}s \leftarrow a + as$	$\bar{a}m$

⁸Note, however, that Fortson IV (2004, chapter 6) and other Indo-European scholars use the term “thematic nouns” in the sense of *a* and \bar{a} stems (subsection E.3.10).

masculine / feminine			
	sing.	dual	plural
nominative	—————		
vocative	—————		
accusative	—————		
...			
neuter			
	sing.	dual	plural
nominative			
vocative			
accusative			
...			

Figure E.1.: Strong forms in consonant-final nouns

E.1.3. Consonantal nouns

Quite a few classes of nouns have stems ending in consonants. Distinguish between consonantal nouns with

- ◇ one stem, such as *marut* (“wind”) (no weak-strong alternation)
- ◇ stems in *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 *râi* (“wealth”) and *glâu* (“moon”)

E.1.4. Vocalic nouns

Many classes of nouns exhibit stems ending in vowels or, very rarely, diphthongs. They do not show the weak-strong alternation indicated by the above figure. Remember the convention for citing nouns given in subsection A.7, pp. 9:

- ◇ *a* stems
 - *dêva*

- *phalam*
- ◇ \bar{a} stems, such as *sênā*
- ◇ *i* stems
 - m., such as *muni*
 - f., such as *mati*
- ◇ *u* stems
 - m., such as *guru*
 - f., such as *dhênu*
- ◇ \bar{i} stems, such as *nadī*
- ◇ \bar{u} stems, such as *camū*

E.1.5. Hybrid nouns

\bar{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 consonantal and vocalic nouns:

	stem ends in	weak/strong	acc. pl. m.	acc. pl. f.	gen. pl.
cons. nouns	<i>C: pitar</i>	yes			
voc. nouns	<i>V: pīṛ</i>		<i>pīṛṇ</i>	<i>mātīṣ</i>	<i>pīṛṇām</i>

E.2. Nouns: endings

E.2.1. A few general remarks

Endings found in all declensions

In all declensions, observe

any stem	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.		iden- tical	iden- tical
	voc.			
	acc.			

E. Declensions

any stem	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	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, similarities found across declensions are highlighted. Thus prepared, individual declensions can be dealt with.

Neutral endings NVA

With the exception of neuter *a* nouns (like *phalam*), 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, consider

<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> (1)	<i>jagant-i</i>
	acc.	<i>jagat</i>	<i>jagat-ī</i> (1)	<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</i> (2)	<i>van-ê</i> (1)	<i>van-āni</i>
	acc.	<i>van-a-m</i>	<i>van-ê</i> (1)	<i>van-āni</i>
	instr.	<i>van-êna</i>	<i>van-ā-bhyām</i>	<i>van-âis</i>

1. \bar{i} from IE dual ending ih_2 is typical for dual NVA. Compare *jagat-ī* with *vanê* ← *vana-ī* (VS 2. line).
2. Voc. sg. *vana* equals the stem, but not nom. sg.

s in masculine and feminine nominative singular

Originally, *s* was the IE marker for nom. sg., both m. and f. When this *s* was joined to a final consonant, compensatory lengthening (CpLs) could result. Note that n. sg. had no special ending. The following examples concern only m. nouns:

u.at. *bala-vant-s* → u.at. *bala-vann-s* → OI *bala-vān*
 u.at. *su-man-as-s* → OI *su-man-ās*
 u.at. *gir-s* → OI *gīr*

Unfortunately, this model does not always work:

u.at. *gach-ant-s* → OI *gach-an* (CCI)
 u.at. *nêt-ar-s* → OI *nêt-ā* (CpL_*an-in-ar*)
 u.at. *rāj-an-s* → OI *rājā* (CpL_*an-in-ar*)
 u.at. *yôg-in-s* → OI *yôgī* (CpL_*an-in-ar*)

E.2.2. Locative singular

Locative singular with *i*

Across many declensions, both vocalic and consonantal, the loc. sg. is expressed by *i* (the here-and-now particle). See

- ◇ stem *tvad* pers. pronoun (“you”) with loc. sg. *tvayī*
- ◇ stem *mad* pers. pronoun (“I”) with loc. sg. *mayī*
- ◇ stem *man-as* n. (“mind”) with loc. sg. *man-as-i*
- ◇ 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., apply **VS** (line 2) and find

- ◇ *dêv-a* m. (“god”) with loc. sg. *dêv-ê* ← u.at. *dêv-a-i*
- ◇ *van-a-m* n. (“forest”) with loc. sg. *van-ê* ← u.at. *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 *mat-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. sg. ending *ām*:

- ◇ stem *nad-ī* f. (“river”) with loc. sg. *nad-y-ām*
- ◇ stem *lat-ā* f. (“vine”) with loc. sg. *lat-ā-y-ām*
- ◇ stem *vadh-ū* f. (“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*

E.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. *yuṣmā-su*
- ◇ stem *nad-ī* f. (“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 *man-as* n. (“mind”) with loc. pl. *man-as-su/man-aḥ-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* f. (“vine”) with loc. pl. *lat-ā-su*
- ◇ stem *vadh-ū* f. (“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., note *ê* instead of *a*:

- ◇ *dêv-a* m. (“god”) with loc. pl. *dêv-ê-ṣu*
- ◇ *van-a-m* n. (“forest”) with loc. pl. *van-ê-ṣu*

E.2.4. Genitive plural

There two different genitive forms:

- ◇ *ām* for consonantal nouns
- ◇ *nām* for vocalic nouns including those on *ṛ*. Since *nām* lengthens the thematic vowels, *nām* may go back to IE *Hnōm* (**Lar__V**).

Thus, consider the consonantal genitive plurals:

- ◇ stem *manas* n. (“mind”) with gen. pl. *manas-ām*
- ◇ stem *marut* m. (“wind”) with gen. pl. *marut-ām*
- ◇ stem *rāj-an* m. (“king”) with gen. pl. *rāj-ñ-ām* with forward assimilation
- ◇ stem *hast-in* m. (“elephant”) with gen. pl. *hast-in-ām*

and the vocalic genitive plurals

- ◇ stem *gur-u* m. (“teacher”) with gen. pl. *gur-ū-ṇām*
- ◇ stem *dêv-a* m. (“god”) with gen. pl. *dêv-ā-nām*
- ◇ stem *nad-ī* f. (“river”) with gen. pl. *nad-ī-nām* (where *ī* is long anyway)
- ◇ stem *pat-i* m. (“husband”) with gen. pl. *pat-ī-nām*
- ◇ stem *mat-i* f. (“mind”) with gen. pl. *mat-ī-nām*
- ◇ stem *mun-i* m. (“wise man”) with gen. pl. *mun-ī-nām*
- ◇ stem *lat-ā* f. (“vine”) with gen. pl. *lat-ā-nām* (where *ā* is long anyway)
- ◇ stem *vadh-ū* f. (“bride”) with gen. pl. *vadh-ū-nām* (where *ū* is long anyway)
- ◇ *van-a-m* (“forest”) n. with gen. pl. *van-ā-nām*

Pronouns are often different:

- ◇ stem *tad* 3. pers. pronoun (“he, she, that”) with gen. pl.

E. Declensions

- m. and n. *têṣām*
 - f. *tāsām*
- ◇ stem *tvad* pers. pronoun (“you”) with gen. pl. *yuṣmā-kam*
- ◇ stem *mad* pers. pronoun (“I”) with gen. pl. *asmā-kam*

E.2.5. Accusatives with *m*

For the m. nouns, observe

	singular		plural	
	vocalic	consonantal	vocalic	consonantal
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)

1. Nom. sg. of both m. (here) and f. are characterised by *s* which
 - ◇ is clearly seen in vocalic nouns, such as *dêv-a-s*, but
 - ◇ is often lost in consonantal nouns due to **CCI**, for example *marut-s* → *marut*
2. Acc. sg. m. (here) and f. are characterised by m. *marut-am* borrows thematic vowel in order to avoid unrecognisable u.at. *maruta* ← *marutṃ*. Just consider an analogy such as

<i>vāt-a-s</i> (“wind”)	with acc. sg.:	<i>vāt-a-m</i>
just as		
<i>marut</i> (“wind”)	with acc. sg.:	<i>marut-am</i>

3. The nom. pl. forms can be explained by

marut-as ← stem + IE pl. marker *e* + IE nom. marker *s*
dêv-ās ← stem + IE them. *o* + IE pl. marker *e* + IE nom. marker *s*

4. The acc. pl. forms are derived by

marut-as ← stem + IE acc. marker *ṅ* + IE pl. marker *s*
dêv-ān ← stem + IE them. *o* + IE acc. marker *n* + IE pl. marker *s*

where *-ons → -ān follows from **CpLs**. Note that *s* is still present in the sandhi rule described on p. 42.

E.3. Nouns: weak and strong forms

E.3.1. Introductory remark and overview

Most nouns in the list below differentiate between strong and weak forms:

- ◇ one-stem nouns with three categories:
 - the most simple case like *marut* (“wind”)
 - nouns like *sam-rāj* (“ruler”), *vāc* (“voice, word”), *kāma-duh* (“wish-granting cow”), and *a-budh* (“fool”) on pp. 231
 - neuter *as* nouns like *man-as* on pp. 234
- ◇ stems in *ant* like *bala-vant* (“he who has strength”), *mahant* (“great”), *bhar-a-nt* (pres.P), *jagat* (“world”), and *bhav-ant* (“your honor”) on pp. 237
- ◇ *an* stems like m. *rāj-an* (“king”), n. *nām-an* (“name”), and n. *karm-an* (“deed”) on pp. 245
- ◇ *in* stems like *yôg-in* (“yogi”) and *tapas-vin* (“ascetic”) on pp. 249
- ◇ m. nouns like *nê-tar* (“leader”) on pp. 251
- ◇ kinship nouns like *pitar* (“father”) and *mātar* (“mother”) on pp. 252
- ◇ stems in long diphthongs like *râi* (“wealth”) and *glâu* (“moon”) on pp. 254
- ◇ f. *ī-* and *ū* stems like *nad-ī* (“river”), *vadh-ū* (“bride”), *bhū* (“earth”), *dhī* (“intellect”), and *strī* (“woman”) together with the two m. (!) compounds *su-dhī* (“intelligent”) and *prati-bhū* (“guarantor”) on pp. 256
- ◇ *i* and *u* stems like m. *mun-i* (“wise man”), f. *mat-i* (“mind”), m. *gur-u* (“teacher”), f. *dhên-u* (“cow”), n. *madh-u* (“honey”), and m. *pat-i* (“husband”) on pp. 261
- ◇ n. *ṛ* stems like *gant-ṛ* on pp. 267
- ◇ *a* and *ā* stems like m. *dêv-a*, n. *phal-am*, and f. *sênā* on pp. 267

E.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”:

E. Declensions

<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., both m. and f., are usually characterised by *s*. Here, note *marut-s* → *marut* due to **CCI**.
2. As is the case here, the voc. sg. often equals the stem.
3. The acc. sg. marker is *m* in many declensions. Here, *a* is borrowed from vocalic declensions in order to avoid u.at. *marut-a*.
4. *ā* is the instr. sg. marker in many other declensions, too.
5. *ê* is the dat. sg. marker in many other declensions, too.
6. Observe *as* in
 - ◇ abl. and gen. sg. and
 - ◇ NVA pl.
 This is often the case in consonantal declensions, m. (as here) and f.
7. For the pl. *marut-as* forms, see pp. 228.
8. *i* is the typical loc. sg. marker in consonantal declensions for all three genders.
9. *âu* is the typical ending for NVA dual in consonantal declensions for m. and f. It also shows in m. *a* declension (*dêv-âu*) and in pronouns like *t-âu* and *sarv-âu*.
10. *t* is made voiced before voiced *bh* in some dual and pl. cases.
11. Some forms shown in *marut* are seen in every declension whatsoever (p. 223):
 - ◇ dual instr., dat., and abl. *bhyām*
 - ◇ dual gen. and loc. *ôs*
 - ◇ pl. dat. and abl. *bhyas*

- ◇ pl. gen. $\bar{a}m$ (for consonantal nouns, while $\bar{V}n\bar{a}m$ is seen in vocalic ones as in *phalānām*)
- ◇ pl. loc. *su*

12. *bhis* is very typical for instr. pl. for any kind of declensions. (However, m. and n. *a* declension use *âis* instead, see *dêv-âis* and *van-âis*. The same holds for most pronouns. *t-âis* and *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>sarīd-bhis</i>	river
	<i>sarva-śak</i>	<i>sarva-śak</i>	<i>sarva-śag-bhis</i>	all-rounder

***samrāj* etc. with soundlaw AFP**

According to **AFP** (pp. 47), the following word-final consonants are disallowed:

- ◇ voiced stops
- ◇ aspirated stops
- ◇ palatals *c* (also 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, one obtains paradigms close to the one for *marut*.

Consider *samrāj* m. (“ruler”) and *vāc* f. (“voice, word”). Both show astonishing long \bar{a} . One explanation may be

- ◇ compensatory lengthening for nom. sg. *s* together with
- ◇ spreading to the other forms.

For *samrāj*, consider

<i>samrāj</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>samrāṭ</i> (2)	<i>samrāj-âu</i> (1)	<i>samrāj-as</i> (1)
	voc.	<i>samrāṭ</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)

E. Declensions

<i>samrāj</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	instr.	<i>samrāj-ā</i> (1)	<i>samrāḍ-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>samrāḍ-bhis</i> (3)
	dat.	<i>samrāj-ê</i> (1)	<i>samrāḍ-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>samrāḍ-bhyas</i> (3)
	abl.	<i>samrāj-as</i> (1)	<i>samrāḍ-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>samrāḍ-bhyas</i> (3)
	gen.	<i>samrāj-as</i> (1)	<i>samrāj-ô</i> s (1)	<i>samrāj-ām</i> (1)
	loc.	<i>samrāj-i</i> (1)	<i>samrāj-ô</i> s (1)	<i>samrāṭ-su</i> (3)

1. The stem *samrāj* occurs before the vowel endings.
2. Unvoiced *samrāṭ* is seen in word-final position (nom. and voc. sg.).
3. *Samrāḍ-bhyām* and *samrāṭ-su* are instances of backward assimilation before consonantal endings.

Similar to *samrāj*, one obtains

<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-ô</i> s (1)	<i>vāc-ām</i> (1)
	loc.	<i>vāc-i</i> (1)	<i>vāc-ô</i> s (1)	<i>vāk-ṣu</i> (4)

1. The stem *vāc* is lengthened from *vac* ← IE *vek^w*, perhaps due to **CpLs**. 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 $c \rightarrow k$	<i>ṛc</i>	<i>ṛk</i>	<i>ṛg-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 $j \rightarrow k$	<i>vaṇij</i>	<i>vaṇik</i>	<i>vaṇig-bhis</i>	merchant
	<i>bhiṣaj</i>	<i>bhiṣak</i>	<i>bhiṣag-bhis</i>	doctor
with $ś \rightarrow k$	<i>diś</i>	<i>dik</i>	<i>dig-bhis</i>	direction

and

	stem	nom. sg.	instr. pl.	translation
with $d \rightarrow t$	<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 $ś/s/h \rightarrow t$	<i>dviṣ</i>	<i>dvit</i>	<i>dvid-bhis</i>	enemy
	<i>pari-vrāj</i>	<i>pari-vrāṭ</i>	<i>pari-vrāg-bhis</i>	mendicant
	<i>prā-vṛṣ</i>	<i>prā-vṛt</i>	<i>prā-vṛd-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 also seen in future forms on pp. 111. 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**, one obtains the stem *kāma-duh*, where the second part originates from IE **dheugh* (*h* due to **SPal** before front vowels or levelling).

E. Declensions

2. IE *dh* is retained in forms where *gh* was replaced by unaspirated (!) velar before a consonant or in word-final position. Hence, **DA** does not apply.
3. *k* in word-final position (**AFP**)
4. *g* before voiced endings (**BA**)
5. *k* before loc. pl. ending with voiceless *s* (**BA**) which would then turn into *ṣ* by **RUKI**

Turn to the second example where Grassmann's law and its undoing play a role:

<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> (1, 2, 4)	<i>a-bhud-bhis</i> (1, 2, 4)
	dat.	<i>a-budh-ê</i> (1)	<i>a-bhud-bhyām</i> (1, 2, 4)	<i>a-bhud-bhyas</i> (1, 2, 4)
	abl.	<i>a-budh-as</i> (1)	<i>a-bhud-bhyām</i> (1, 2, 4)	<i>a-bhud-bhyas</i> (1, 2, 4)
	gen.	<i>a-budh-as</i> (1)	<i>a-budh-ôś</i> (1)	<i>a-budh-ām</i> (1)
	loc.	<i>a-budh-i</i> (1)	<i>a-budh-ôś</i> (1)	<i>a-bhut-su</i> (2)

1. By **DA**, one obtains the stem *a-budh*, where the second part originates from IE **bheudh*. These forms closely follow the *marut* pattern.
2. IE *bh* is retained in forms where *dh* was replaced by unaspirated (!) dental before a consonant or where *dh* was in word-final position. Hence, **DA** does not apply.
3. *t* in word-final position (**AFP**)
4. *d* before voiced endings (**BA**). Aspiration shift, but *bh* aspirated already.

E.3.3. Neuter stems in *as*, *is*, and *us*

Similar to *marut* are neuter nouns like *manas* or *havis*. They are two-stem nouns and exhibit strong forms in the pl. forms of NVA cases.

<i>manas</i> n.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>manas</i> (1)	<i>manas-ī</i> (3)	<i>manāṃś-i</i> (4)
	voc.	<i>manas</i> (1)	<i>manas-ī</i> (3)	<i>manāṃś-i</i> (4)

<i>manas</i> n.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	acc.	<i>manas</i> (1)	<i>manas-ī</i> (3)	<i>manāṃs-i</i> (4)
	instr.	<i>manas-ā</i> (2)	<i>mano-bhyām</i> (2, 5)	<i>mano-bhis</i> (2, 5)
	dat.	<i>manas-ê</i> (2)	<i>mano-bhyām</i> (2, 5)	<i>mano-bhyas</i> (2, 5)
	abl.	<i>manas-as</i> (2)	<i>mano-bhyām</i> (2, 5)	<i>mano-bhyas</i> (2, 5)
	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> (2, 6)

1. The stem *manas* serves as NVA singular.
2. Building on the stem, many forms follow the *marut* pattern (p. 230).
3. Expected long \bar{i} in n. dual NVA
4. NVA pl. is difficult, but partly explainable by sound law **Ns** and by analogy with other n. pl. NVA forms like *karm-āṅ-i*, *gant-ṛṅ-i*, *tapas-vīn-i*, *phal-ā-ni*, *madh-ūn-i*, and *vid-vāṃs-i*, all of them with long vowel followed by nasal plus *i*. See also the analogical “nasal infix” on p. 242.
5. **CpLz**, 1. line
6. Two sandhi variants.

With *su* prefixed, one obtains the bahuvrīhi *su-manas* (“good-hearted man/woman”). Most endings are the same, but some exhibit male/female, rather than neuter endings:

<i>su-manas</i> m./f.	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> (2, 3)	<i>su-mano-bhyām</i> (2, 3)	<i>su-mano-bhis</i> (2, 3)

1. Nom. sg. *su-manās* is from u.at. *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 the *manas* paradigm.

Now, turn to *havis*.

E. Declensions

<i>havis</i> n.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>havis</i> (1)	<i>haviṣ-ī</i> (3)	<i>havīṃṣ-i</i> (4)
	voc.	<i>havis</i> (1)	<i>haviṣ-ī</i> (3)	<i>havīṃṣ-i</i> (4)
	acc.	<i>havis</i> (1)	<i>haviṣ-ī</i> (3)	<i>havīṃṣ-i</i> (4)
	instr.	<i>haviṣ-ā</i> (2)	<i>havir-bhyām</i> (2, 5)	<i>havir-bhis</i> (2, 5)
	dat.	<i>haviṣ-ê</i> (2)	<i>havir-bhyām</i> (2, 5)	<i>havir-bhyas</i> (2, 5)
	abl.	<i>haviṣ-as</i> (2)	<i>havir-bhyām</i> (2, 5)	<i>havir-bhyas</i> (2, 5)
	gen.	<i>haviṣ-as</i> (2)	<i>haviṣ-ôś</i> (2)	<i>haviṣ-ām</i> (2)
	loc.	<i>haviṣ-i</i> (2)	<i>haviṣ-ôś</i> (2)	<i>haviṣ-ṣu/haviḥ-su</i> (2, 6)

1. The stem *havis* serves as sg. NVA.
2. Building on the stem, many forms follow the *marut* pattern (p. 230). **RUKI**.
3. Expected long \bar{i} in n. dual NVA. **RUKI**.
4. NVA pl. is difficult, but partly explainable by sound law **Ns** and by analogy with other n. pl. NVA forms like *karm-āṇ-i*, *gant-ṛṇ-i*, *tapas-vīn-i*, *phal-ā-ni*, *madh-ūn-i*, *manāṃs-i*, and *vid-vāṃs-i*, all of them with long vowel followed by nasal plus *i*. **RUKI** despite of intervening η . See also the analogical “nasal infix” on p. 242.
5. **Vis** or **CpLz** (2. line): compare *gatis nāsti* → *gatir nāsti*
6. Two sandhi variants, the first with forward assimilation

Consider, finally, *āyus*, where most forms follow the *havis* pattern above. The numbers are also from that pattern.

<i>āyus</i> n.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>āyus</i> (1)	<i>āyuṣ-ī</i> (3)	<i>āyūṃṣ-i</i> (4)
	voc.	<i>āyus</i> (1)	<i>āyuṣ-ī</i> (3)	<i>āyūṃṣ-i</i> (4)
	acc.	<i>āyus</i> (1)	<i>āyuṣ-ī</i> (3)	<i>āyūṃṣ-i</i> (4)
	instr.	<i>āyuṣ-ā</i> (2)	<i>āyur-bhyām</i> (2, 5)	<i>āyur-bhis</i> (2, 5)
	dat.	<i>āyuṣ-ê</i> (2)	<i>āyur-bhyām</i> (2, 5)	<i>āyur-bhyas</i> (2, 5)
	abl.	<i>āyuṣ-as</i> (2)	<i>āyur-bhyām</i> (2, 5)	<i>āyur-bhyas</i> (2, 5)
	gen.	<i>āyuṣ-as</i> (2)	<i>āyuṣ-ôś</i> (2)	<i>āyuṣ-ām</i> (2)
	loc.	<i>āyuṣ-i</i> (2)	<i>āyuṣ-ôś</i> (2)	<i>āyuṣ-ṣu/āyuh-su</i> (2, 6)

E.3.4. Stems in *mant*, *vant*, *ant*, and *ans**bala-vant* etc.

Stems in *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
- ◇ the weak suffix $*vnt \rightarrow vat$.

<i>bala-vant</i> m.	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-ôś</i>	<i>bala-vat-ām</i>
	loc.	<i>bala-vat-i</i>	<i>bala-vat-ôś</i>	<i>bala-vat-su</i>

1. *bala-vā-n* is an instance of compensatory lengthening:

$$\text{CpLs} \quad \text{OI } VC_s \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{OI } \bar{V} + C$$

i.e.,

$$*bala-vant-s \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{OI } *bala-vānt \text{ (CpLs)} \quad \rightarrow \quad \text{OI } bala-vān \text{ (CCI)}$$

2. Forms like *bala-vant-as* are regular strong forms.
3. The sg. voc. *bala-van* is the full-grade stem, simplified by CCI.
4. *bala-vad-bhis* exhibits backward assimilation.

The neuter forms typically show strong forms in pl. NVA:

<i>bala-vant</i> n.	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>

E. Declensions

<i>bala-vant</i> n.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	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-ôś</i>	<i>bala-vat-ām</i>
	loc.	<i>bala-vat-i</i>	<i>bala-vat-ôś</i>	<i>bala-vat-su</i>

From instrumental onwards, the neuter forms equal the masculine ones. Remember also:

$$\text{n. dual NVA} = \text{f. sg. nom.} = \textit{bala-vat-ī}$$

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. Consider the paradigm for masculine:

<i>mah-ant</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>mah-ān</i> (1)	<i>mah-ānt-âu</i> (3)	<i>mah-ānt-as</i> (3)
	voc.	<i>mah-an</i> (2)	<i>mah-ānt-âu</i> (3)	<i>mah-ānt-as</i> (3)
	acc.	<i>mah-ānt-am</i> (3)	<i>mah-ānt-âu</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-ê</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-ôś</i>	<i>mah-at-ām</i>
	loc.	<i>mah-at-i</i>	<i>mah-at-ôś</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 the sound law **CpLs** on pp. 53). **CCl**.
2. Voc. sg. m. *mah-an* is regular: stem together with **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. Alternatively, the second regular long *ā* in *rāj-ān-as* may have provided a motivation.

The migration of *ā* just mentioned also holds for the neuter paradigm:

<i>mah-ant</i> n.	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 onward like masculine		

Note f. sg. nom. *mahat-ī* (like n. dual NVA).

Present participles, general remarks

The strong form of any present participle (pres.P) can be found by looking at the 3. person pl. present indicative:

		pres.P, m. nom.		
class	√	3. pers. pl. pres. ind.	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* → *at*.

<i>bhar-ant</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>bhar-an</i> (1)	<i>bhar-ant-āu</i>	<i>bhar-ant-as</i> (2)
	voc.	<i>bhar-an</i> (3)	<i>bhar-ant-āu</i>	<i>bhar-ant-as</i>
	acc.	<i>bhar-ant-am</i>	<i>bhar-ant-āu</i>	<i>bhar-at-as</i>
	instr.	<i>bhar-at-ā</i>	<i>bhar-ad-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>bhar-ad-bhis</i> (4)

E. Declensions

<i>bhar-ant m.</i>	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	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-ôś</i>	<i>bhar-at-ām</i>
	loc.	<i>bhar-at-i</i>	<i>bhar-at-ôś</i>	<i>bhar-at-su</i>

1. *bhar-a-n* goes back to *bhar-a-nt-s* in line with **CCI**. However, one might have expected compensatory lengthening due to **CpLs** (compare *bala-vā-n*).
2. Forms like *bhar-ant-as* are regular strong forms.
3. The sg. voc. *bhar-an* is the full-grade stem, simplified by **CCI**.
4. **BA**

Turn now to the neuter paradigm. Dual NVA are sometimes in the strong form although they should be weak according to the distribution indicated in figure E.1, p. 222:

<i>bhar-ant n.</i>	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>bhar-at</i>	<i>bhar-ant-ī</i> (!)	<i>bhar-ant-i</i>
	voc.	<i>bhar-at</i>	<i>bhar-ant-ī</i> (!)	<i>bhar-ant-i</i>
	acc.	<i>bhar-at</i>	<i>bhar-ant-ī</i> (!)	<i>bhar-at-as</i>
	instr.	from here like masculine		

Again, observe

$$\text{f. sg. nom.} = \text{n. dual NVA} = \textit{bhar-ant-ī}$$

Present participles with *bala-vant* formation

Two interesting pres.P 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*, *ji-gā-ti* (“to go”):

<i>ja-g-ant n.</i>	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.P of *bhū* (“to be”) follows *bala-vant*:

<i>bhav-ant</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>bhav-ān</i>	<i>bhav-ant-âu</i>	<i>bhav-ant-as</i>
	voc.	<i>bhav-an</i>	<i>bhav-ant-âu</i>	<i>bhav-ant-as</i>
	acc.	<i>bhav-ant-am</i>	<i>bhav-ant-âu</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.

A summary of the present-participle declension may be helpful:

- The nom. sg. m. (like *gacch-an* ← *gacch-ants*) is without compensatory lengthening (in line with **CCI** but contradicting **CpLs**). An exception is *bhav-ān* which follows *bala-vān*.
- The neuter forms tend to exhibit strong forms in dual NVA in the classes 1, 4, and 10, against figure E.1, p. 222. However, the regular weak dual NVA
 - ◇ is always seen in *ja-g-at-ī* from *jagat* n. (“world”) and
 - ◇ is typically present in the athematic verbal classes 2, 3, 5, 7, 8, and 9
 - ◇ and sometimes occurs in pres.P of the 6. class, where one finds
 - weak *tudatī bālâu* (“the two hitting boys”) beside
 - strong *tudantī bālâu*.
- Feminine forms are derivable from neuter dual ones:

$$\text{f. sg. nom.} = \text{n. dual NVA}$$

as in

stem	category	nom. sg. m.	NVA 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.P	<i>bhar-an</i>	<i>bhar-ant-ī</i>	<i>bhar-ant-ī</i>
<i>bhav-ant</i>	pres.P	<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>

The feminine declensions like *bala-vat-ī* or *bhav-at-ī* exactly follow *nad-ī* (pp. 256).

Analogical “nasal infix” in neuter plural NVA

Remember the n. pl. forms for NVA such as these

stem	category	nom. sg. m.	NVA pl. n.
<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.P	<i>bhar-an</i>	<i>bhar-ant-i</i>

In the last column, *n* appears because of the full grade. However, to the speakers of Sanskrit this *n* seemed to signal NVA pl. n. in general. Using the analogy

<i>bala-vat</i>	= nom. sg. with NVA pl. n.:	<i>bala-vant-i</i>
just as		
<i>manas</i>	= nom. sg. with NVA pl. n.:	<i>manāṃs-i</i>

one obtains NVA pl. n. forms like

stem	nom. sg. n.	NVA pl. n.
<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>havīṃs-i</i> (RUKI)

Similar to forms like *karm-ān-i*, *gant-ṛṇ-i*, *tapas-vñ-i*, *phal-ā-ni*, *madh-ūn-i*, and *vid-vāṃs-i*, we witness long vowel here (see again figure E.1), except for *asṛñj-i*. See the above patterns of *manas*, *havis*, and *āyus*.

***kṣôd-īyans* etc.**

It may be best to cover comparative adjectives here. Consider the paradigm for *kṣôd-īyans* m. (“smaller”):

<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> (3, 4)	<i>kṣôd-īyô-bhis</i> (3, 4)
	dat.	<i>kṣôd-īyas-ê</i> (3)	<i>kṣôd-īyô-bhyām</i> (3, 4)	<i>kṣôd-īyô-bhyas</i> (3, 4)
	abl.	<i>kṣôd-īyas-as</i> (3)	<i>kṣôd-īyô-bhyām</i> (3, 4)	<i>kṣôd-īyô-bhyas</i> (3, 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** + **CCI**, here from **kṣôd-īyans-s* with nom. sg. marker *s*.
2. Like in *mah-ant*, note migration of long *ā* from nom. sg. to all the other strong forms except for voc. sg. which is explained by the formula “stem + **CCI**”. **Ns**.
3. Weak forms like *kṣôd-īyas-ā* exhibit loss of vowel and expected **SY_N**.
4. In weak forms like *kṣôd-īyô-bhis*, see expected **CpLz** (1. line) of *yas* before voiced consonant *bh*.

The neuter 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		

ca-kṛ-va(n)s etc.

Now turn to the difficult forms of reduplicated perfect active participle (pf.P), for example *ca-kṛ-va(n)s* (“one who did”). It is best to assume two stems, one with *n*, the other without:

<i>ca-kṛ-va(n)s</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>ca-kṛ-vān</i> (1)	<i>ca-kṛ-vāṃs-āu</i> (2)	<i>ca-kṛ-vāṃs-as</i> (2)
	voc.	<i>ca-kṛ-van</i> (2)	<i>ca-kṛ-vāṃs-āu</i> (2)	<i>ca-kṛ-vāṃs-as</i> (2)
	acc.	<i>ca-kṛ-vāṃs-am</i> (2)	<i>ca-kṛ-vāṃs-āu</i> (2)	<i>ca-kṛ-uṣ-as</i> (3)
	instr.	<i>ca-kṛ-uṣ-ā</i> (3)	<i>ca-kṛ-vad-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>ca-kṛ-vad-bhis</i> (4)
	dat.	<i>ca-kṛ-uṣ-ê</i> (3)	<i>ca-kṛ-vad-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>ca-kṛ-vad-bhyas</i> (4)
	abl.	<i>ca-kṛ-uṣ-as</i> (3)	<i>ca-kṛ-vad-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>ca-kṛ-vad-bhyas</i> (4)
	gen.	<i>ca-kṛ-uṣ-as</i> (3)	<i>ca-kṛ-uṣ-ôṣ</i> (3)	<i>ca-kṛ-uṣ-ām</i> (3)
	loc.	<i>ca-kṛ-uṣ-i</i> (3)	<i>ca-kṛ-uṣ-ôṣ</i> (3)	<i>ca-kṛ-vat-su</i> (4, 5)

1. *ca-kṛ-vān* builds on *ca-kṛ-vans-s* (with *n*) and **CpLs** + **CCI**.
2. As in *mah-ant* and *kṣôd-īyans*, 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* + **CCI**”. **Ns**.

E. Declensions

3. Weak forms like *ca-kr-uṣ-ā* build on *caḥṛvas* (without *n*), where the loss of vowel *a* forces *v* to become vocalic (**SV**).
4. Perhaps, forms like *ca-kr-vad-bhis* are best explained by analogy with forms like *bala-vad-bhis* or *bhav-ad-bhis*. And similarly *ca-kr-vat-su*.
5. One may surmise that *ca-kr-vat-su* is regular from *ca-kr-vas-su* by the sound law **SIB** (which produces *vat-sy-a-ti* from u.at. *vas-sy-ati*). And then, the cases explained in 4 are analogous from loc. pl.? However, this explanation does not seem valid in view of *manas-su* (p. 235).

The neuter forms regularly show strong forms in pl. NVA:

<i>ca-kr-va(n)s</i> n.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>ca-kr-vat</i> (4)	<i>ca-kr-uṣ-ī</i> (3)	<i>ca-kr-vāṃs-i</i> (2)
	voc.	<i>ca-kr-vat</i> (4)	<i>ca-kr-uṣ-ī</i> (3)	<i>ca-kr-vāṃs-i</i> (2)
	acc.	<i>ca-kr-vat</i> (4)	<i>ca-kr-uṣ-ī</i> (3)	<i>ca-kr-vāṃs-i</i> (2)
	instr.	from here like masculine		

where the numbers are explained above.

Often, *vidva(n)s* (“learned person”) is considered reduplicated perfect active, too, although there is no reduplication. This is also true for the 3. sg. perf. *vêda* (see p. 384).

<i>vid-va(n)s</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>vid-vān</i> (1)	<i>vid-vāṃs-âu</i> (2)	<i>vid-vāṃs-as</i> (2)
	voc.	<i>vid-van</i> (2)	<i>vid-vāṃs-âu</i> (2)	<i>vid-vāṃs-as</i> (2)
	acc.	<i>vid-vāṃs-am</i> (2)	<i>vid-vāṃs-âu</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* ← **vid-vans-s* (with *n*) by **CpLs** + **CCl**.
2. As in *mah-ant*, *kṣôd-īyans*, and *ca-kr-va(n)s*, 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 *vid-vans* + **CCl**”. **Ns**.

- Weak forms like *vid-uṣ-ā* build on *vid-vas* (without *n*), where the loss of vowel *a* forces *v* to become vocalic (**SV**).
- Similar to forms like *ca-kṛ-vad-bhis*, one might explain forms like *vid-vad-bhis* and *vid-vat-su* by analogy (see *bhar-ad-bhis* or *mah-at-su*).

The neuter forms regularly show strong forms in pl. NVA:

<i>vid-va(n)s</i> n.	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.

E.3.5. *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*:

<i>rāj-an</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>rāj-ā</i> (2)	<i>rāj-ān-âu</i> (1)	<i>rāj-ān-as</i> (1)
	voc.	<i>rāj-an</i> (3)	<i>rāj-ān-âu</i> (1)	<i>rāj-ān-as</i> (1)
	acc.	<i>rāj-ān-am</i> (1)	<i>rāj-ān-âu</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-ôs</i> (4)	<i>rāj-ñ-ām</i> (4)
	loc.	<i>rāj-ñ-i/rāj-an-i</i> (4, 6)	<i>rāj-ñ-ôs</i> (4)	<i>rāj-a-su</i> (5)

- 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**.

E. Declensions

2. Nom. sg. $rāj-\bar{a}$ is difficult because IE **reǵ-on-s* should result in $rāj-\bar{a}n$ by **CpLs**. I summarise under the heading **CpL__an-in-tar** (see p. 54).
3. The strong form voc. sg. $rāj-an$ regularly equals the stem.
4. The weak forms before vowel-initial ending like instr. sg. $rāj-\tilde{n}-\bar{a}$ 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 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 $\bar{a}tm-an-i$ (see below).

The paradigm of $\acute{s}v-an$ ("dog") follows the one of $rāj-an$ closely:

$\acute{s}v-an$ m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	$\acute{s}v-\bar{a}$ (2)	$\acute{s}v-\bar{a}n-\hat{a}u$ (1)	$\acute{s}v-\bar{a}n-as$ (1)
	voc.	$\acute{s}v-an$ (3)	$\acute{s}v-\bar{a}n-\hat{a}u$ (1)	$\acute{s}v-\bar{a}n-as$ (1)
	acc.	$\acute{s}v-\bar{a}n-am$ (1)	$\acute{s}v-\bar{a}n-\hat{a}u$ (1)	$\acute{s}u-n-as$ (4)
	instr.	$\acute{s}u-n-\bar{a}$ (4)	$\acute{s}v-a-bhy\bar{a}m$ (5)	$\acute{s}v-a-bhis$ (5)
	dat.	$\acute{s}u-n-\hat{e}$ (4)	$\acute{s}v-a-bhy\bar{a}m$ (5)	$\acute{s}v-a-bhyas$ (5)
	abl.	$\acute{s}u-n-as$ (4)	$\acute{s}v-a-bhy\bar{a}m$ (5)	$\acute{s}v-a-bhyas$ (5)
	gen.	$\acute{s}u-n-as$ (4)	$\acute{s}u-n-\hat{o}s$ (4)	$\acute{s}u-n-\bar{a}m$ (4)
	loc.	$\acute{s}u-n-i$ (4)	$\acute{s}u-n-\hat{o}s$ (4)	$\acute{s}v-a-su$ (5)

1. **Lo** (see $rāj-an$)
2. Nom. sg. $\acute{s}v-\bar{a}$ corresponds to $rāj-\bar{a}$. See **CpL__an-in-tar** on p. 54.
3. The strong form voc. sg. $\acute{s}v-an$ regularly equals the stem.
4. The weak forms before vowel-initial ending like instr. sg. $\acute{s}u-n-\bar{a}$ are zero-grade forms (just nasal without vowel) and with expected vowel u for semivowel v before consonant n (**SV**).
5. By **SY__N** and **SY__Conf** one obtains weak forms like $\acute{s}v-a-bhis$, but not u.at. $\acute{s}u-n-bhis$.

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-âu</i> (1)	<i>yuv-ān-as</i> (1)
	voc.	<i>yuv-an</i> (3)	<i>yuv-ān-âu</i> (1)	<i>yuv-ān-as</i> (1)
	acc.	<i>yuv-ān-am</i> (1)	<i>yuv-ān-âu</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-ê</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-ôś</i> (4)	<i>yū-n-ām</i> (4)
	loc.	<i>yū-n-i</i> (4)	<i>yū-n-ôś</i> (4)	<i>yuv-a-su</i> (5)

1. **Lo** (see *rāj-an*)
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 (semi)vowel before consonant *n* (**VS** 1. line).
5. By **SY_N** and **SY_Conf** (see 29) one obtains weak forms like *yuv-a-bhis* (rather than u.at. *ivunbhis*).

The n. (!) noun *nām-an* (“name”) can be explained similarly. Consider

<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)

E. Declensions

1. *nām-a* is regular weak stem without ending from IE **nom-n̥*.
2. *nām-a* is regular by the rule that NVA neuter are the same (with the exception of voc. sg. *phala* etc.), within sg., within dual, and within pl. In contrast, the voc. sg. alternative *nām-an* equals 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 *karm-an* ("action"), see below.
3. **Lo** (see *rāj-an*)
4. Before vowel endings, observe *n* as the weak suffix. The dual forms NVA are formed with the marker *ī* known from the consonantal paradigms.
5. Observe forms like *nām-a-bhis* that result from **SY_N**.

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-âu</i> (1)	<i>ātm-ān-as</i> (1)
	voc.	<i>ātm-an</i> (3)	<i>ātm-ān-âu</i> (1)	<i>ātm-ān-as</i> (1)
	acc.	<i>ātm-ān-am</i> (1)	<i>ātm-ān-âu</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)
	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>ātm-an-ām</i> (4)
	loc.	<i>ātm-an-ī</i> (4)	<i>ātm-an-ôś</i> (4)	<i>ātm-a-su</i> (5)

1. **Lo** (see *rāj-an*)
2. Nom. sg. *ātm-ā* is difficult, as is *rāj-ā*. See **CpL__an-in-tar** on p. 54.
3. Again, the strong form voc. sg. *ātm-an* equals the stem.
4. One might expect instr. sg. u.at. *ātm-n-ā*. However, *m* would become syllabic and u.at. *āta-n-ā* would have been the final result. In order to prevent this outcome, the suffix *an* is used.
5. By **SY_N** one obtains weak forms like *ātm-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, 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-ê</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-ôś</i> (4)	<i>karm-aṇ-ām</i> (4)
	loc.	<i>karm-aṇ-i</i> (4)	<i>karm-aṇ-ôś</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, observe alternative forms for voc. sg. The second one *karm-an* equals the stem as in the masculine paradigm.
3. **Lo** (see *rāj-an*)
4. Before vowel endings, one would expect *n* as the weak suffix, for example instr. sg. u.at. *karm-n-ā*. However, *karm-n-ā* could not have survived for long (compare *ātm-an-ā*) and would easily have been confused with *kar-aṇa-m* (pp. 105).
5. Observe forms like *karm-a-bhis* that result from **SY_N** and **SY_Conf**.

in stems (*yôg-in, tapas-vin*)

After one has mastered *rāj-an*, it is not too difficult to understand *yôg-in* m. (“yogi”) and other *in* stems. They do not show any strong-weak alternation:

<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>	<i>yôg-in-âu</i> (1)	<i>yôg-in-as</i>
	acc.	<i>yôg-in-am</i>	<i>yôg-in-âu</i> (1)	<i>yôg-in-as</i> (1)
	instr.	<i>yôg-in-ā</i>	<i>yôg-i-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>yôg-i-bhis</i> (3)
	dat.	<i>yôg-in-ê</i>	<i>yôg-i-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>yôg-i-bhyas</i> (3)
	abl.	<i>yôg-in-as</i>	<i>yôg-i-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>yôg-i-bhyas</i> (3)
	gen.	<i>yôg-in-as</i>	<i>yôg-in-ôś</i>	<i>yôg-in-ām</i>
	loc.	<i>yôg-in-i</i>	<i>yôg-in-ôś</i>	<i>yôg-i-ṣu</i> (3, 4)

E. Declensions

1. 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* with loss of final *n*. See **CpL** *an-in-tar* on p. 54.
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

Some *in* stems are built on neuter *as* stems (p. 106), such as *tapas* (“heat”). However, the stem is *tapas-vin*, not *tapas-in*. Indeed, *tapas-in* would lead to confusing forms:

u.at. n. nom. sg. *tapas-i* ← u.at. *tapas-in*
 loc. sg. *tapas-i* ← *tap-as*

It seems that the declension of *tapas-vin* (“ascetic”) is a rather late development, where analogy was probably more important than sound laws. Apart from the suffix *vin* instead of *in*, the masculine paradigm is the same as in *yôg-in* above. See the neuter *vin* paradigm for *tapas-vin*:

<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-ôs</i> (4)	<i>tapas-vin-ām</i> (4)
	loc.	<i>tapas-vin-i</i> (4)	<i>tapas-vin-ôs</i> (4)	<i>tapas-vi-ṣu</i> (6)

1. Note nom. sg. neuter *tapas-vi* versus nom. sg. masculine *tapas-vī*.
2. Again, observe 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*. Note that the 1. line of **CpLz** is not applied. It would have produced *tapô-vi-bhis* like *manô-bhis* and, indeed, throughout the paradigm (*tapô-vin-ā* etc.).
6. **RUKI**

E.3.6. Agent and kinship nouns like *nê-tar* and *pitar*

tar stems (*nê-tar*, *kar-tar*)

Now turn to hybrid nouns (p. 223), the (usually called) *r* stems that I prefer to call *tar* 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*.

- ◇ The strong forms exhibit this suffix *tar*. 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, see *tr* before vowels or *tṛ* before consonants.

First consider 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-âu</i> (1)	<i>nê-tār-as</i> (1)
	voc.	<i>nê-tar</i> (3)	<i>nê-tār-âu</i> (1)	<i>nê-tār-as</i> (1)
	acc.	<i>nê-tār-am</i> (1)	<i>nê-tār-âu</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-t-us</i> (4, 10)	<i>nê-tṛ-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>nê-tṛ-bhyas</i> (5)
	gen.	<i>nê-t-us</i> (4, 10)	<i>nê-tr-ôs</i> (4)	<i>nê-tṛ-ṇām</i> (7)
	loc.	<i>nê-tar-i</i> (9)	<i>nê-tr-ôs</i> (4)	<i>nê-tṛ-ṣu</i> (5, 8)

1. **Lo**

E. Declensions

2. Nom. sg. *nê-tā* may be due to **CpLs**: *tor-s* → *tōr* → *tār*. Finally, in line with **CpL__an-in-tar**, the *r* is dropped after the long *ā* (similarly, observe *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, for example instr. sg. *nê-tr-ā*.
5. Before a consonant-initial ending, one obtains forms like *nê-tr-bhis*.
6. The vocalic IE acc. pl. marker *ns* is cerebralised after *r*-sounds, but not in a word-final position (see **Cern**). Syllabic \bar{r} is long by **CpLs** or by analogy with forms like *dêv-ān*. See pp. 221.
7. *nê-tṛ-ṇām* has long \bar{r} because the vocalic 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>

10. The ending *us* in abl. and gen. sg. *nê-t-us* seems to go back to *r_s*, (see MI sound laws on pp. 59).

Be careful: *bhar-tar* (“husband”) is best understood as agent nouns, and not as kinship nouns (see next subsection). Finally, two comments on the other two genders:

- ◇ Feminine agent nouns are formed with long \bar{i} , for example *nê-trī* (“woman leader”). They are declined like *nad-ī* (“river”), see pp. 256.
- ◇ Neuter agent nouns are often used as neuter adjectives. They are treated on pp. 265.

Kinship nouns (*pitar*, *mātar*)

Kinship nouns (such as *pitar*, “father”) are very similar to agent nouns:

<i>pīt-ar</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>pīt-ā</i> (2)	<i>pīt-ar-âu</i> (1)	<i>pīt-ar-as</i> (1)
	voc.	<i>pīt-ar</i> (3)	<i>pīt-ar-âu</i> (1)	<i>pīt-ar-as</i> (1)

<i>pit-ar</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	acc.	<i>pit-ar-am</i> (1)	<i>pit-ar-âu</i> (1)	<i>pit-ṛ-n</i> (6)
	instr.	<i>pit-r-ā</i> (4)	<i>pit-ṛ-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>pit-ṛ-bhis</i> (5)
	dat.	<i>pit-r-ê</i> (4)	<i>pit-ṛ-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>pit-ṛ-bhyas</i> (5)
	abl.	<i>pit-us</i> (10)	<i>pit-ṛ-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>pit-ṛ-bhyas</i> (5)
	gen.	<i>pit-us</i> (10)	<i>pit-r-ôś</i> (4)	<i>pit-ṛ-ṇām</i> (7)
	loc.	<i>pit-ar-i</i> (9)	<i>pit-r-ôś</i> (4)	<i>pit-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* → *ēr* → *ār*. Again, consult **CpL_an-in-tar** on p. 54.
3. As usual, voc. sg. *pit-ar* equals the stem.
4. The weak forms before vowel-initial endings build on the zero-grade suffix as in instr. sg. *pit-r-ā*.
5. Before a consonant-initial ending, one obtains forms like *pit-ṛ-bhis* (pp. 20).
6. The vocalic IE acc. pl. marker *ns* is cerebralised after *r*-sounds, but not in a word-final position (see **Cern**). Syllabic \bar{r} is long by **CpLs** or by analogy with forms like *dêv-ān*. See pp. 221.
7. *pit-ṛ-ṇām* has long \bar{r} because the vocalic 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* seems to go back to ṛ_s , (see MI sound laws on pp. 59).

An example for a f. kinship term is *mātar* (“mother”):

<i>māt-ar</i> f.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>māt-ā</i>	<i>māt-ar-âu</i>	<i>māt-ar-as</i>
	voc.	<i>māt-ar</i>	<i>māt-ar-âu</i>	<i>māt-ar-as</i>
	acc.	<i>māt-ar-am</i>	<i>māt-ar-âu</i>	<i>māt-ṛ-s</i> (!)

E. Declensions

<i>māt-ar</i> f.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	instr.	<i>māt-r-ā</i>	<i>māt-ṛ-bhyām</i>	<i>māt-ṛ-bhis</i>
	dat.	<i>māt-r-ê</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-ôś</i>	<i>māt-ṛ-ṇām</i>
	loc.	<i>māt-ar-i</i>	<i>māt-r-ôś</i>	<i>māt-ṛ-ṣu</i>

On the basis of *pit-ar* (“father”), the only difference in feminine *māt-ar* (“mother”) concerns the acc. pl. *māt-ṛ-s*. Compare

	vocalic <i>a</i> declension	hybrid declension
masculine	<i>dêv-ā-n</i>	<i>pit-ṛ-n</i>
feminine	<i>dêv-ā-s</i>	<i>māt-ṛ-s</i>

Finally, *svas-ar* f. (“the female own one, sister”) is declined as masculine *nê-tar* with the notable exception of acc. pl. *svas-ṛ-s*. Or, inversely, *svas-ar* follows *māt-ar*, but has *ār* (not *ar*) in the strong forms acc. sg. *svas-ār-am* through voc. pl. *svas-ār-as*.

E.3.7. Stems in diphthongs

In this section, stems in short and long diphthongs are covered. They are consonantal, but do not reflect any IE weak-strong alternation. First, short-diphthong *gô* m./f. (“cow”) is dealt with. Its pattern is very difficult:

<i>gô</i> m./f.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>gâu-s</i> (2)	<i>gāv-âu</i> (2)	<i>gāv-as</i> (2)
	voc.	<i>gâu-s</i> (2)	<i>gāv-âu</i> (2)	<i>gāv-as</i> (2)
	acc.	<i>gām</i> (1)	<i>gāv-âu</i> (2)	<i>gās</i> (1)
	instr.	<i>gav-ā</i> (3)	<i>gô-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>gô-bhis</i> (3)
	dat.	<i>gav-ê</i> (3)	<i>gô-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>gô-bhyas</i> (3)
	abl.	<i>gôs</i> (4)	<i>gô-bhyām</i> (3)	<i>gô-bhyas</i> (3)
	gen.	<i>gôs</i> (4)	<i>gav-ôś</i> (3)	<i>gav-ām</i> (3)
	loc.	<i>gav-i</i> (3)	<i>gav-ôś</i> (3)	<i>gô-ṣu</i> (3, 5)

1. OI *gô* goes back to IE **g^wou*/**g^wov*. It is surmised that

a) acc. sg. $g\bar{a}m \leftarrow \text{IE } *g^w ovm$ and

b) acc. pl. $g\bar{a}s \leftarrow \text{IE } *g^w ovms$

involve compensatory lengthening after the drop of v .

2. These long \bar{a} in the accusatives spread to nom. and voc. forms in the singular and plural and, furthermore, to the dual NVA forms.
3. Sound law **DIPH** can account for av before vowels and \hat{o} before consonants.
4. Difficult
5. **RUKI**

Turn now to long-diphthong stems like $r\hat{a}i$ m./f. (“wealth”) and $gl\hat{a}u$ m. (“moon”). Beginning with the $\hat{a}u$ nouns, consider

$gl\hat{a}u$ m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	$gl\hat{a}u-s$ (2, 3)	$gl\bar{a}v-\hat{a}u$ (1)	$gl\bar{a}v-as$ (1)
	voc.	$gl\hat{a}u-s$ (2, 4)	$gl\bar{a}v-\hat{a}u$ (1)	$gl\bar{a}v-as$ (1)
	acc.	$gl\bar{a}v-am$ (1)	$gl\bar{a}v-\hat{a}u$ (1)	$gl\bar{a}v-as$ (1)
	instr.	$gl\bar{a}v-\bar{a}$ (1)	$gl\hat{a}u-bhy\bar{a}m$ (2)	$gl\hat{a}u-bhis$ (2)
	dat.	$gl\bar{a}v-\hat{e}$ (1)	$gl\hat{a}u-bhy\bar{a}m$ (2)	$gl\hat{a}u-bhyas$ (2)
	abl.	$gl\bar{a}v-as$ (1)	$gl\hat{a}u-bhy\bar{a}m$ (2)	$gl\hat{a}u-bhyas$ (2)
	gen.	$gl\bar{a}v-as$ (1)	$gl\bar{a}v-\hat{o}s$ (1)	$gl\bar{a}v-\bar{a}m$ (1)
	loc.	$gl\bar{a}v-i$ (1)	$gl\bar{a}v-\hat{o}s$ (1)	$gl\hat{a}u-\text{ṣ}u$ (2)

1. $gl\bar{a}v$ before vowels by **DIPH**
2. $gl\hat{a}u$ before consonants by **DIPH**
3. Nom. sg. marker s is clearly observable
4. Voc. sg. irregularly differs from the stem.

The $gl\hat{a}u$ pattern is also followed by $n\hat{a}u$ f. (“boat”). Turning to the $\hat{a}i$ stem, consider the paradigm

E. Declensions

<i>râi</i> m./f.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>rā-s</i> (2, 3)	<i>rāy-âu</i> (1)	<i>rāy-as</i> (1)
	voc.	<i>rā-s</i> (2, 4)	<i>rāy-âu</i> (1)	<i>rāy-as</i> (1)
	acc.	<i>rāy-am</i> (1)	<i>rāy-âu</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 u.at. *râi-bhis* rather than *rā-bhis*.
3. Nom. sg. marker *s* is clearly observable
4. Voc. sg. irregularly differs from the stem.

E.3.8. Feminine \bar{i} and \bar{u} stems

nadī and *vadhū*

There exist two feminine 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-ô-s</i> (4)	<i>nad-ī-nām</i> (1)
	loc.	<i>nad-y-ām</i> (4, 6)	<i>nad-y-ô-s</i> (4)	<i>nad-ī-ṣu</i> (1, 7)

The *nadī* model can be used for many f. \bar{i} -nouns, such as *bala-vat-ī* or *bhar-a-nt-ī*. For m. nouns, consider *sēnā-nīs* m. (“army general”) s.v. *nī* (“to lead”). The numbers in the *nadī* paradigm are the same as in 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 feminine 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*, observe the usual nom. sg. marker *s* in *vadhūs*. (Irregularly, marker *s* shows in nom. sg. *lakṣmīs*.)
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, **SV** leads to forms like *nad-y-ā* or *vadh-v-ā*.
5. Instr. sg. ending \bar{a} as usual for m. and f. consonantal declensions.
6. These two paradigms consistently use vocalic feminine endings in line with this table:

	singular			plural	
	dative	abl./gen.	locative	acc.	gen.
voc. f. nouns	<i>âi</i>	<i>ās</i>	<i>ām</i>	$\bar{V}s$	$\bar{V}nām \leftarrow *VHnōm$

7. RUKI

E. Declensions

dhī and bhū

Apart from *nadī* and *vadhū*, there exist monosyllabic stems in long *ī* and long *ū*, respectively. They 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, 5)
	instr.	<i>dh-iy-ā</i> (4)	<i>dh-ī-bhyām</i> (1)	<i>dh-ī-bhis</i> (1, 7)
	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, 6)

The numbers are explained below the *bhū* paradigm. The same pattern is followed by the feminine nouns

◇ *bh-ī* (“fear”)

◇ *śr-ī* (“wealth”)

◇ *hr-ī* (“shame”)

In a parallel fashion (replace *ī/i/y* by *ū/u/v*), observe *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 marker *s*.
3. The voc. sg. is not formed from the stem but equals the nom. sg.
4. Before vowel-initial endings, **V+SV** (pp. 23) leads to forms like *dh-iy-ā* or *bh-uv-ā*. Observe the variants in both the *dhī* and the *bhū* paradigms.
5. Consider this table for feminine endings of both consonantal and vocalic nouns:

	singular			plural	
	dative	abl./gen.	locative	acc.	gen.
cons. nouns	<i>ê</i>	<i>as</i>	<i>i</i>	<i>as</i>	<i>ām</i>
voc. nouns	<i>âi</i>	<i>ās</i>	<i>ām</i>	<i>Ṽs</i>	<i>Ṽnām</i> ← * <i>VHnōm</i> (Lar _ <i>V</i>)

Both *dhī* and *bhū* show the vocalic (*nadī*) endings except for acc. pl., where the consonantal ending prevails.

6. RUKI

7. *dh-ī-bhis* and *bh-ū-bhis* are peculiar in not reflecting **DA**. Perhaps, Grassmann’s law was not operative any more when these forms were built. Levelling might also have come into play.

strī and *punar-bhū*

Another f. noun is *str-ī* (“woman”) that exhibits forms similar to those of *dh-ī* and *nadī*:

<i>str-ī</i> f.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>str-ī</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/str-ī-m</i> (!)	<i>str-iy-âu</i>	<i>str-iy-as/str-ī-s</i> (!)
	instr.	<i>str-iy-ā</i>	<i>str-ī-bhyām</i>	<i>str-ī-bhis</i>
	dat.	<i>str-iy-âi</i>	<i>str-ī-bhyām</i>	<i>str-ī-bhyas</i>
	abl.	<i>str-iy-ās</i>	<i>str-ī-bhyām</i>	<i>str-ī-bhyas</i>
	gen.	<i>str-iy-ās</i>	<i>str-iy-ôs</i>	<i>str-ī-nām</i>
	loc.	<i>str-iy-ām</i>	<i>str-iy-ôs</i>	<i>str-ī-ṣu</i>

E. Declensions

After taking $V+SV$ into account, the only difference to the $nadī$ paradigm concerns the accusatives. The first one is consonantal, the second one is vocalic.

Finally, turn to $punar-bh-ū$ f. (“remarried widow”), which belongs to $bhū$ (“to be”). This noun does not apply $V+SV$ by replacing $ū$ by uv before vowel endings. Instead, one observes forms like instr. sg. $punar-bh-v-ā$, very much like $vadh-v-ā$. The only differences in comparison with $vadh-ū$ are seen in the acc. sg. and pl., where the consonantal forms are $punar-bh-v-a-m$ and $punar-bh-v-as$, similar to the first alternatives in the $str-ī$ paradigm.

Related masculine compounds

There exist two compounds related with $dhī$ (“intellect”) and $bhū$ (“earth”). Both are masculine:

- ◇ $su-dhī$ (“intelligent”) and
- ◇ $prati-bhū$ (“guarantor”)

Being masculine, they employ the first alternative in the $dhī$ and $bhū$ paradigm, respectively:

$su-dhī$ m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	$su-dh-ī-s$	$su-dh-īy-âu$	$su-dh-īy-as$
	voc.	$su-dh-ī-s$	$su-dh-īy-âu$	$su-dh-īy-as$
	acc.	$su-dh-īy-am$	$su-dh-īy-âu$	$su-dh-īy-as$
	instr.	$su-dh-īy-ā$	$su-dh-ī-bhyām$	$su-dh-ī-bhis$
	dat.	$su-dh-īy-ê$	$su-dh-ī-bhyām$	$su-dh-ī-bhyas$
	abl.	$su-dh-īy-as$	$su-dh-ī-bhyām$	$su-dh-ī-bhyas$
	gen.	$su-dh-īy-as$	$su-dh-īy-ôs$	$su-dh-īy-ām$
	loc.	$su-dh-īy-i$	$su-dh-īy-ôs$	$su-dh-ī-ṣu$

and

$prati-bhū$ m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	$prati-bh-ū-s$	$prati-bh-uv-âu$	$prati-bh-uv-as$
	voc.	$prati-bh-ū-s$	$prati-bh-uv-âu$	$prati-bh-uv-as$
	acc.	$prati-bh-uv-am$	$prati-bh-uv-âu$	$prati-bh-uv-as$
	instr.	$prati-bh-uv-ā$	$prati-bh-ū-bhyām$	$prati-bh-ū-bhis$
	dat.	$prati-bh-uv-ê$	$prati-bh-ū-bhyām$	$prati-bh-ū-bhyas$

<i>prati-bhū</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	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-ôś</i>	<i>prati-bh-uv-ām</i>
	loc.	<i>prati-bh-uv-i</i>	<i>prati-bh-uv-ôś</i>	<i>prati-bh-ū-ṣu</i>

E.3.9. *i* and *u* stems

i stems (*mun-i*, *mat-i*)

Consider *i* stems, for example

- ◇ m. *muni*
- ◇ f. *mati*
- ◇ n. *vāri*

and *u* stems, for example

- ◇ m. *guru*
- ◇ f. *dhēnu*
- ◇ 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-ôś</i> (1)	<i>mun-ī-nām</i> (8)
	loc.	<i>mun-âu</i> (4)	<i>mun-y-ôś</i> (1)	<i>mun-i-ṣu</i> (3, 9)

with

E. Declensions

<i>mat-i</i> f.	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-ô-s</i> (1)	<i>mat-ī-nām</i> (8)
	loc.	<i>mat-âu</i> (4)/ <i>mat-y-ām</i> (10)	<i>mat-y-ô-s</i> (1)	<i>mat-i-ṣu</i> (3, 9)

- From the sound law **SV**, *i* before consonant versus *y* before vowel is expected.
- Some forms are “strong” in the sense of having the strong declension signs in line with **DIPH**:
 - ê* before consonants or in word-final position (voc. sg.) and
 - ay* before vowels.

The distribution of these “strong” forms has nothing to do with the strong forms in the sense of figure E.1, p. 222.
- Some endings are very familiar (for example from *marut*): instr. sg. *ā*, dat. sg. *ê*, or instr. pl. *bhis*.
- 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.
- The ending *âu* occurs as the or as a loc. sg. It is not used in the dual forms NVA. There, observe the long thematic vowel instead, as in *mun-ī* or *mat-ī*. Compare dual NVA *jagatī* and *vanê* ← *vana-ī* (**VS**, 2. line).
- Instr. sg. m. *mun-i-n-ā* exhibits additional *n*, presumably modelled on *in* stems, for example *yôg-in-ā*.
- Compare acc. pl.
 - ◇ *mun-ī-n* m. versus *mat-ī-s* f. with
 - ◇ *dêv-ā-n* m. versus *sên-ā-s* f.

Revisit subsection E.1.2, p. 221.

8. Gen. pl. are vocalic as might be expected. The long vowels are explained by the laryngeal in the IE ending *Hnōm*.
9. **RUKI**
10. The f. paradigm alternatively allows the vocalic *nadī* endings in dative through locative singular.

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. 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-ô-s</i>	<i>pat-ī-nām</i>
	loc.	<i>pat-y-âu</i> (4)	<i>pat-y-ô-s</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. 253)
 - ◇ *tar* nouns like *nê-t-us* (pp. 251)
 where (as a MI development) the *r̥* is replaced by *u* after labials (pp. 59).
4. Loc. sg.
 - ◇ *pat-y-âu* still exhibits the semivowel *y*, while
 - ◇ *mun-âu* can strangely do without.

E. Declensions

***u* stems (*gur-u*, *dhên-u*)**

The *u* stems, m. and f., are just as the *i* stems. One only needs to 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> f.	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. ***SV***

2. **DIPH**, but strong declension signs unrelated to figure E.1, p. 222.
3. Familiar endings: instr. sg. \bar{a} , dat. sg. \hat{e} and instr. pl. *bhis*.
4. Loc. sg. ending $\hat{a}u$ differs from the usual ending i encountered in *marut-i* or *dêv-ê* ← **dêv-a-i*.
5. The ending $\hat{a}u$ occurs as the or as a loc. sg. It is not used in the dual forms NVA. There, observe the long thematic vowel instead: *gur-ū* or *dhên-ū*.
6. Instr. sg. m. *gur-u-ṇ-ā* exhibits additional n , presumably modelled on *in* stems, for example *yôg-in-ā*. It is parallel to *mun-i-n-ā*.
7. Compare acc. pl.
 - ◇ *gur-ū-n* m. versus *dhên-ū-s* f. with
 - ◇ *mun-ī-n* m. versus *mat-ī-s* f. and with
 - ◇ *dêv-ā-n* m. versus *sên-ā-s* f.
8. Gen. pl. are vocalic as might be expected. The long vowels are explained by the laryngeal in the IE ending *Hnōm*.
9. **RUKI**
10. Vocalic *nadī* and *vadhū* endings in dative through locative singular as alternatives
11. **Cern**

Neuter *i(n)*, *u(n)*, or *ṛ(ṇ)* stems

The neuter u stems like *madh-u* (“honey”) have been strongly influenced by neuter (v)*in* stems like *tapas-vin* (p. 250). 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. 249).

<i>madh-u/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-ôś</i> (2)	<i>madh-ū-nām</i> (6)
	loc.	<i>madh-un-i</i> (2)	<i>madh-un-ôś</i> (2)	<i>madh-u-ṣu</i> (7)

E. Declensions

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 m. voc. sg. *gur-ô*.
4. Compare
 - ◇ nom. dual *tapas-vin-ī* with *madh-un-ī* and
 - ◇ nom. pl. *tapas-vīn-i* with *madh-ūn-i*.

where 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 are 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. 250).
6. The long vowel \bar{u} is easily explained by the laryngeal in the IE ending *Hnōm*.
7. **RUKI**

Neuter *i* stems like *vār-i* (“water”) or the adjective *śuc-i* are formed in the same manner. Similarly, one may introduce neuter agent nouns at this junction because their declension resembles neuter *madh-u* or *vār-i* very closely. Apply the copy-paste operations

- ◇ *u* by *i* (for *vār-i*) or by *ṛ* (for *gant-ṛ*),
- ◇ *un* by *in* or by *ṛṇ* and,
- ◇ $\bar{u}n$ by $\bar{i}n$ or by $\bar{r}\bar{\eta}$

and refer to the numbers above. Observing **Cern** after *r* yields

<i>vār-i/vār-in</i> n.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>vār-i</i> (1)	<i>vār-iṇ-ī</i> (2, 4)	<i>vār-īṇ-i</i> (4)
	voc.	<i>vār-i/ê</i> (1, 3)	<i>vār-iṇ-ī</i> (2, 4)	<i>vār-īṇ-i</i> (4)
	acc.	<i>vār-i</i> (1)	<i>vār-iṇ-ī</i> (2, 4)	<i>vār-īṇ-i</i> (4)
	instr.	<i>vār-iṇ-ā</i> (2)	<i>vār-i-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>vār-i-bhis</i> (5)
	dat.	<i>vār-iṇ-ê</i> (2)	<i>vār-i-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>vār-i-bhyas</i> (5)
	abl.	<i>vār-iṇ-as</i> (2)	<i>vār-i-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>vār-i-bhyas</i> (5)
	gen.	<i>vār-iṇ-as</i> (2)	<i>vār-iṇ-ôś</i> (2)	<i>vār-ī-ṇām</i> (6)
	loc.	<i>vār-iṇ-i</i> (2)	<i>vār-iṇ-ôś</i> (2)	<i>vār-i-ṣu</i> (7)

on the one hand and

<i>gant-ṛ/gant-ṛṇ</i> n.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>gant-ṛ</i> (1)	<i>gant-ṛṇ-ī</i> (2, 4)	<i>gant-ṛṇ-i</i> (4)
	voc.	<i>gant-ṛ/ar</i> (1, 3)	<i>gant-ṛṇ-ī</i> (2, 4)	<i>gant-ṛṇ-i</i> (4)
	acc.	<i>gant-ṛ</i> (1)	<i>gant-ṛṇ-ī</i> (2, 4)	<i>gant-ṛṇ-i</i> (4)
	instr.	<i>gant-ṛṇ-ā</i> (2)	<i>gant-ṛ-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>gant-ṛ-bhis</i> (5)
	dat.	<i>gant-ṛṇ-ê</i> (2)	<i>gant-ṛ-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>gant-ṛ-bhyas</i> (5)
	abl.	<i>gant-ṛṇ-as</i> (2)	<i>gant-ṛ-bhyām</i> (5)	<i>gant-ṛ-bhyas</i> (5)
	gen.	<i>gant-ṛṇ-as</i> (2)	<i>gant-ṛṇ-ôś</i> (2)	<i>gant-ṛ-ṇām</i> (6)
	loc.	<i>gant-ṛṇ-i</i> (2)	<i>gant-ṛṇ-ôś</i> (2)	<i>gant-ṛ-ṣu</i> (7)

on the other hand. In particular, the voc. singulars also fit. Taking the declension signs without the nasal, compare

	z.g. of declension sign	f.g. of declension sign
<i>madh-u</i>	<i>madh-u</i>	<i>madh-ô</i>
<i>gant-ṛ</i>	<i>gant-ṛ</i>	<i>gant-ar</i>
<i>vār-i</i>	<i>vār-i</i>	<i>vār-ê</i>

E.3.10. *a* and *ā* stems

Finally, turn to the most common paradigms. For the *a* stems, compare

<i>dēva</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>dēv-a-s</i> (1)	<i>dēv-âu</i> (6a)	<i>dēv-ā-s</i> (9a)
	voc.	<i>dēv-a</i> (2)	<i>dēv-âu</i> (6a)	<i>dēv-ā-s</i> (9a)
	acc.	<i>dēv-a-m</i> (3)	<i>dēv-âu</i> (6a)	<i>dēv-ā-n</i> (9a)
	instr.	<i>dēv-êna</i> (4)	<i>dēv-ā-bhyām</i> (7)	<i>dēv-âis</i> (10)
	dat.	<i>dēv-āya</i>	<i>dēv-ā-bhyām</i> (7)	<i>dēv-ê-bhyas</i> (11)
	abl.	<i>dēv-ât</i> (4)	<i>dēv-ā-bhyām</i> (7)	<i>dēv-ê-bhyas</i> (11)
	gen.	<i>dēv-a-sya</i> (4)	<i>dēv-ay-ôś</i> (8)	<i>dēv-ā-nām</i> (12)
	loc.	<i>dēv-ê</i> (5)	<i>dēv-ay-ôś</i> (8)	<i>dēv-ê-ṣu</i> (13)

E. Declensions

with

<i>phalam</i> n.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>phal-a-m</i> (1)	<i>phal-ê</i> (6b)	<i>phal-ā-ni</i> (9b)
	voc.	<i>phala</i> (2)	<i>phal-ê</i> (6b)	<i>phal-ā-ni</i> (9b)
	acc.	<i>phal-a-m</i> (3)	<i>phal-ê</i> (6b)	<i>phal-ā-ni</i> (9b)
	instr.	<i>phala-êna</i> (4)	<i>phal-ā-bhyām</i> (7)	<i>phal-âis</i> (10)
	dat.	<i>phal-āya</i>	<i>phal-ā-bhyām</i> (7)	<i>phal-ê-bhyas</i> (11)
	abl.	<i>phal-āt</i> (4)	<i>phal-ā-bhyām</i> (7)	<i>phal-ê-bhyas</i> (11)
	gen.	<i>phal-a-sya</i> (4)	<i>phal-ay-ôś</i> (8)	<i>phal-ā-nām</i> (12)
	loc.	<i>phal-ê</i> (5)	<i>phal-ay-ôś</i> (8)	<i>phal-ê-ṣu</i> (13)

1. The nom. sg. marker is *s* for masculine forms and, singularly, *m* for neuter forms. The *s* is quite common for masculine **and** feminine, as in m. u.at. *su-manas-s* → *su-manās* and u.at. *marut-s* → *marut*, in f. *vadh-ū-s* and in the m. and f. nouns mentioned on pp. 261. *m* as a marker for nom. sg. neuter nouns can be explained by pointing to the acc. sg. which has to be identical. See 3.
2. The vocative is just the stem. Thus, neuter nom. sg. differs from voc. sg. Compare *gur-ô* and *mat-ê*, where the stem shows the strong declension sign.
3. Acc. sg. regularly shows *m* in most declensions (see *marut-am*, *bala-vant-am*).
4. From *tad*, compare *t-êna*, *tasm-āt*, and *t-a-sya*.
5. Locative sg. with marker *i* (here $\hat{e} \leftarrow a-i$) is quite common, see pp. 225.
6. Dual NVA differ between m. and n.:
 - a) In masculine *a* stems, observe $\hat{a}u$ as, for example, in m. *nê-tār-âu*, *pit-ar-âu*, *bharant-âu*, *yôg-in-âu*, and *rāj-ān-âu* and in f. *nad-y-âu*. From *tad*, see also m. *t-âu*.
 - b) In neuter *a* stems, note \hat{e} from thematic vowel *a* together with IE dual ending \bar{i} . The latter is quite common for dual NVA. See m. *pat-ī* and *mun-ī*, f. *mat-ī* and n. *karm-aṇ-ī*, *gant-ṛṇ-ī*, *jagat-ī*, *tapas-vin-ī*, and *madh-un-ī*. From *tad*, see also $t-\hat{e} \leftarrow t-a\bar{i}$.
7. *bhyām* as in all declensions, but here with unexpected long \bar{a} before that marker
8. $\hat{o}s$ as in all declensions, but here with *ay* before that marker, perhaps in order to prevent *a-ôś*

9. Turning to the plural forms,
- consult pp. 228 for masculine NVA,
 - remember that neuter NVA are identical. *phal-ā-ni* with long vowel followed by nasal plus *i* is similar to forms like *karm-āṇ-i*, *gant-ṛṇ-i*, *tapas-vīn-i*, *madh-ūn-i*, *manāṃs-i*, and *vid-vāṃs-i*.
10. From *tad*, compare *t-âis*.
11. *bhyas* as in all declensions, but here with curious *ê* before that marker
12. *ām* as in all declensions, but here the vocalic variant $\bar{V}n-ām$
13. *su* as in all declensions, but here with curious *ê* (perhaps from the here-and-now particle *i* joined to thematic *a*?) before that marker. **RUKI**

For the feminine *sênā*, consider the paradigm

<i>sênā</i> f.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>sên-ā</i> (1)	<i>sên-ê</i> (6)	<i>sên-ā-s</i> (9)
	voc.	<i>sên-ê</i> (2)	<i>sên-ê</i> (6)	<i>sên-ā-s</i> (9)
	acc.	<i>sên-ā-m</i> (3)	<i>sên-ê</i> (6)	<i>sên-ā-s</i> (9)
	instr.	<i>sên-ayā</i> (4)	<i>sên-ā-bhyām</i> (7)	<i>sên-ā-bhis</i> (10)
	dat.	<i>sên-ā-yâi</i> (5)	<i>sên-ā-bhyām</i> (7)	<i>sên-ā-bhyas</i> (11)
	abl.	<i>sên-ā-yās</i> (5)	<i>sên-ā-bhyām</i> (7)	<i>sên-ā-bhyas</i> (11)
	gen.	<i>sên-ā-yās</i> (5)	<i>sên-ay-ôs</i> (8)	<i>sên-ā-nām</i> (12)
	loc.	<i>sên-ā-yām</i> (5)	<i>sên-ay-ôs</i> (8)	<i>sên-ā-su</i> (13)

- The nom. sg. marker is *s* for masculine and feminine nouns, but observe the exception of long *ā*.
- Difficult vocative form, perhaps modelled on forms like *mat-ê*.
- m* is the acc. sg. marker not just for masculine, but also for feminine nouns.
- From *tad*, compare *t-ayā*. Note unexpected short *a* before *y*.
- Compare the corresponding forms of f. *nadī*: *nad-y-âi*, *nad-y-âs*, and *nad-y-ām*, respectively.
- As in neuter *a* stems, note *ê* from thematic vowel *a* together with IE dual ending \bar{i} . Compare f. *mat-ī*.

E. Declensions

7. *bhyām* as in all declensions, here with expected long \bar{a} before that marker
8. *ôs* as in all declensions, but here with unexpected *ay* before that marker, perhaps in order to prevent *a-ôs*
9. Turning to the plural forms, observe the NVA endings \bar{a} -s.
10. From *tad*, compare *t-ā-bhis*. The ending *bhis* is very common for instr. pl. across all other declensions, except for short *a* declensions masculine and neuter such as the *dēva*, *phalam*, or *tad* paradigms above.
11. *bhyas* as in all declensions, but here with expected long \bar{a} before that marker
12. $\bar{a}m$ as in all declensions, but here the vocalic variant $\bar{V}n-\bar{a}m$ (but the long \bar{a} is already present in the stem)
13. *su* as in all declensions, but here with expected long \bar{a} before that marker

E.4. Adverbs from fossilised case endings

E.4.1. Accusative

Many adverbs stem from fossilised case endings. Consider, first, adverbs based on the accusative.

- ◇ *a-vaśya-m* (“not to be wished, not to be controllable → necessarily, indeed”) ← *a* + *ya*-gerundive of *vaś* (“to wish”)
- ◇ *ī-ṣ-at* (“being in that manner → a bit, somewhat”) ← \bar{i} + n. pres.P of *as* (“to be”)
- ◇ *cira-m* (“for a long time, long ago”) from *cira* (“long”)
- ◇ *taras* (“fast”) from *taras* n. (“ferry, advancement, energy”)
- ◇ *nāma* (“by name”), see the declension on p. 247
- ◇ *nir-bhara-m* (“completely”) ← *nis* + *bhara*
- ◇ *prati-dina-m* (“every day”) ← *prati* + *dinam*
- ◇ *praty-aha-m* (“every day”) ← *prati* + *ahar* (but here as if acc. from some n. *aham*, which does not exist)
- ◇ *yathākāma-m* (“according to desire, at will”) ← *yathā* + *kāma* (“desire”)
- ◇ *sādhu* (“well”), see s.v. *sidh* (“to have success, to be valid”)
- ◇ *sukha-m* (“happily”)

E.4.2. Instrumental

- ◇ *a-khil-êna* (“in its entirety, all in all”) ← *a* + *khila* (“wasteland, rest”)
- ◇ *a-cir-êṇa* (“for a short time”) ← *a* + *cira* (“long”)
- ◇ *ucc-ais* (“loud”) ← *ucca* (“high”)
- ◇ *tar-êṇa* (“fast, by force”) ← *tara* m. (“the crossing”)
- ◇ *cir-êṇa* (“after a long time”) from *cira* (“long”)
- ◇ *prāy-êṇa* (“usually, probably”) ← *pra-aya* (“quantity, a state or condition of life like youth, death”)
- ◇ *vi-star-êṇa* (“at length”) ← *vi-stara* (“extension, detail”, see *stṛ* in the dictionary)
- ◇ *sahas-ā* (“with might → forcibly, suddenly”) from *sahas* n. (“might, power”)

E.4.3. Ablative

- ◇ *a-cir-āt* (“for a short time”) ← *a* + *cira* (“long”)
- ◇ *dūr-āt* (“from afar”) ← *dūra* (“far”)

E.4.4. Locative

- ◇ *cir-ê* (“in a long time → finally”) ← *cira* (“long”)
- ◇ *dūr-ê* (“far away”) ← *dūra* (“far”)
- ◇ *sa-pad-i* (“immediately”) ← *sa* (“together”) + *pad* m. (“foot”)

E.4.5. *tas* suffix

The *tas* suffix is used in the ablative sense.

- ◇ *agra-tas* (“first, in front”) ← *agram* (“top, summit, beginning”)
- ◇ *grāma-tas* (“from the village”) ← *grāma* (“village”)
- ◇ *tvat-tas* (“from you”) ← *tvad* (“you”)
- ◇ *prṣṭha-tas* (“behind”) ← *prṣṭham* (“back”)
- ◇ *śāstra-tas* (“according to the *śāstras*”) ← *śāstram* (“text, manual”)
- ◇ *sva-tas* (“with one’s own power”) ← *sva* (“own”)

E. Declensions

E.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”)

E.4.7. *vat* suffix

Probably related to *vant* in forms like *bala-vant* (pp. 237), many nouns can take the *vat* suffix:

- ◇ *kapi-vat* (“like a monkey”) ← *kapi* (“monkey”)

E.4.8. *dhā* suffix

dhā can often be translated as “-fold”

- ◇ *dvi-dhā* (“twofold”) ← *dvi* (“two” in compounds)
- ◇ *bahu-dhā* (“manifold”) ← *bahu* (“many”)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

F.1. Introductory remarks

Expressions with bold letters, such as **VER** or **NHG**, point to sound laws, which are listed on pp. 14. “E *word*”, “OE *word*”, and “NLG *word*” refer to words based on Germanic, where the sound laws **GER** have been applied. Words marked by “E *word*” may also have undergone the sound laws **NHG_E**. Words marked by “NHG *word*” are produced by the sound laws **NHG** and possibly **GER**. I use “German *word*” for Modern German words that have not come about through applications of **NHG**. And “English *word*” refers to Modern English words without the involvement of **GER**. The expression “Lat. B English *word*” means that *word* is employed in Modern English and has been borrowed from Lat. Instead of “B English *word*” I often just write “B *word*”. Similarly, “Fr. *word*” refers to words that go back Latin, while “French *word*” marks words from Modern French that are based on another language (usually OGr.). Finally, “Latin *word*” is employed for words that have migrated from Greece to Latium, while “Lat. *word*” is reserved for words that stem from IE ones via the sound laws **LAT**.

For nouns and their gender, consult section A.7 (pp. 9) on the conventions used in this book. For verbs, important forms are often recorded, usually in the following pattern:

OI root (meaning)		
present indicative	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

F.2. Vowels

F.2.1. a

a- negating prefix (p. 69)

before *C*: **a-ga** (“not going → tree”) with second part *ga* from *gam* (pp. 145)

before *V*: **an-ā-gata** (“not having come → future”) with last part PPP *gata* of *gam*

← IE * $\overset{\circ}{n}$ (**SY__N**), see IE **ne* s.v. *na*

→ OGr. B English *a*-theist, *an*-archy (just like OI before *C* or *V*, respectively)

~ Lat. B English *in*-effective, *im*-possible

~ E *un*-true, *un*-believable

~ NHG *un*-gläubig (“unbelieving”)

aṃh-as n. (“fear, distress”)

aṃh-u (“straight, narrow”)

← IE root * $h_2emǵh$

→ Lat. *ang-ere* (“to stangle, to choke”) with B English *anxious*

~ NHG *eng* (“narrow”) ~ NHG *Ang*-st (“fear”)

ak-ṣa (“axis, pole of a car”), see *aj*

← IE * $h_2eǵ-s$

→ Lat. B English *axis*

~ E *axle* ~ NHG *Achse*

akṣ-i n. (“eye”), **akṣ-an** n. (“eye”)

an-akṣ-a (“blind”), see p. 69

an-īk-a (“face”) ← IE * $h_1eni-h_3k^w-o$ (**Lar__V**, for first part, see E *in* ~ NHG *in*)

īkṣ 1. class: **īkṣ-a-tê** (“to see”), originally a desiderative (p. 140)

← IE root * $h_3ek^w-s/*h_3ok^w-s$

→ OGr. B English *op-tics*

~ Lat. *oc-ulus* (“eye”) with B English *oc-ular* (“lense”)

~ E *eye* ~ NHG *Auge* (difficult, perhaps a version of **VER**)

agn-i m. (“fire”)

aṅgāra (“coal”)

← IE * $h_1n_g^w n-i$ (“fire”)

→ Lat. *ignis*, B English to *ignite*

aṅka (“hook, curve”)

← IE **Honk-o* (“curvature”)

→ OGr. B English *onco-logy* (perhaps because swelling leads to a curved shape?)

aj 1. class: **ajati** (“to drive”)

aj-man n. (“path, move”)

āj-i m./f. (“race course, contest”)

sam-ā-ja (“meeting, gathering”)

← IE root * h_2e_g (“to drive, to do”)

→ OGr. B English *dem-ag-ogue*, *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 *nâu*)

◇ before voiceless *t* (turning *ag* into *ac*) *ac-t*, *ac-tion*, *ac-tive*, *ac-tual*, *re-act*

See *akṣa*, *ajra*, *êj*.

ajira (“fast”) (**SY__N**, **Lar__V**, **rl**)

← IE * $h_2n_gh_1 lo$

→ OGr. *aggelos* (with pronunciation as if we had OGr. *angelos*, “messenger”) ← IE * $h_2en_gh_1 lo$ with B English *angel* and B German *Engel*

ajra (“cattle ground”), see *aj*

← IE * h_2e_g-ro (“where something is driven to → cattle ground”)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

→ Lat. adj. *agrarius* whence B *agrarian*

~ E *acre* (“cattle ground → field → surface measure of about 4000 square meters”)

~ NHG *Acker* (“field”) (p. 76)

añc 1. class: **añcati** or

ac 1. class: **acati** (“to bend, to go”)

añka (“hook, curve”), see s.v. *añka*

← IE root **Henk*

See the *ac/añc* words (where “dir.” stands for directed):

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>apañc</i> (“dir. backward, western”)	<i>apāk</i> (“in or from the west”)
<i>ava</i> (“off, away”)	<i>avañc</i> (“dir. downward, southern”)	<i>avāk</i> (“downward”)
<i>ud</i> (“out”)	<i>ud-añc</i> (“dir. upward, northern”)	<i>ud-ak</i> (“in or from the north”)
		<i>prāg-ud-ak</i> (“north-eastern”)
<i>tiras</i> (“across, over”)	<i>tiry-añc</i> (“sideward”)	
<i>ni</i> (“into”)	<i>ny-añc</i> (“downward”)	
<i>pra</i> (“before”)	<i>prañc</i> (“dir. forward, eastern”)	<i>prāk</i> (“in front, in the east”)

ad 2. class: **atti** (“to eat”)

annam (“food”) ← u.at. *ad-nam*

<i>ad</i> (“to eat”)		
present indicative	<i>at-ti</i> (1)	<i>ad-an-ti</i>
infinitive	<i>at-tum</i> (1)	
future	<i>at-sy-a-ti</i> (1)	
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. $\bar{a}d$ regularly from $a-ad$ with preterite augment $a \leftarrow$ IE e . The thematic vowel is unusual in 3. sg., but common in 3. pl. (pp. 163). See 3.
3. Perhaps regular from weak form IE $*e-h_1d-$. Expected thematic vowel.
4. $\bar{a}d$ regularly from $a-ad$ by reduplication.
5. Compare $ca-kr-us$. Perhaps $\bar{a}d-us$ is regular from weak form IE $*h_1e-h_1d-$.

\leftarrow IE root $*h_1ed$

\rightarrow Full-grade representatives

- ◇ E to *eat* (**GER**)
- ◇ NHG *essen* (**NHG_C**)

\sim Zero-grade representatives: Present participles derived from IE $*h_1d-ent/*h_1d-ont$ (“eating, eater”):

- ◇ OI *danta* (“an elephant’s tusk”)
- ◇ OGr. B *dont-ology*
- ◇ Lat. B *dent-al*
- ◇ E *tooth* (**NHG_E**) \sim NHG *Zahn* (**NHG_C**)

a-di-ti f. (“liberation”)

also: name of a goddess, mother of the $\bar{a}dityas$, like *mitra*, *varuṇa*
See p. 69 and $\bar{d}\bar{a}$ (“to bind”).

adhara (“low, inferior”)

adhas (“under”)

\leftarrow IE $*H\bar{n}dhero/*H\bar{n}dhes$

\rightarrow Lat. B *infrastructure*

\sim E *under* \sim NHG *unter* (but compare E *hound* \sim NHG *Hund* on p. 76, where Germ. d is not changed to NHG t after n)

an-as n. (“vehicle for heavy burdens, cart”)

\leftarrow IE $*h_3enos$ (IE $o \leftarrow h_3e$ and hence non-application of **Lo**)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

→ Lat. *onus* (gen. *oneris*) as in “*onus* of proof”, Lat. B *oner-ous*, to *ex-oner-ate*

an 2. class: **anīti** (“to breathe”) and perhaps **anīla** (“wind”)
ana (“breath”)

◇ **āna** ← *ā* + *ana* (“inhalation, mouth”)

◇ **apāna** ← *apa* + *ana* (“downward breath, elimination”)

◇ **udāna** ← *ud* + *ā* + *ana* (“upward breath”)

◇ **prāṇa** ← *pra* + *ana* (“vital breath”)

◇ **vyāna** ← *vi* + *ā* + *ana* (“moving breath, circulation”)

◇ **samāna** ← *sama* + *ana* (“even breath, digestion”)

◇ **aniniṣati** desiderative (difficult, see p. 141)

← 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* and pp. 145

anv-añc (“folloing”), see *añc* above

anv-ak (“behind”)

ant-a (“border, ending”)

vêdānta (“end of Vedic literature”), see *vid*

← IE **h₂ent-o*

→ E *end* ~ NHG *Ende* (not straightforward in view of **GER**)

See *antara* (“another”).

antar (“within”)

antar-a (“interior, intimate”)

antar-ikṣam/antar-īkṣam (“transparent space → airspace”) with second part from *īkṣ*

antar-uṣya (“station, dwelling place”) with second part from *vas* (“to dwell”)

antas-tyam (“intestines”) ← *antar* (sandhi *r* → *s* before *t*) + suffix *-tya* (compare *apa-tyam* s.v. *apa* and *amā-tya* s.v. *amā*)

← IE **h*₁*enter/h*₂*ntér*

→ Lat. *inter* as in B *inter*-national

~ Lat. B *intestines* ← IE **h*₁*enter-sth*₂*-o* (for second part, see s.v. *sthā*)

~ NHG *unter* (“among”)

The IE stress was on the second syllable, at least in IE *h*₂*ntér*. Then, *t* in NHG *unter* is expected as in NHG *Vater* (see s.v. *pi-tar*). Compare the other NHG *unter* s.v. *adhara*.

anta-ra (“another”)

anta-ma (“next, nearest”)

← IE **h*₁*ente-ro*

→ 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”.

ant-i (“opposite, in the face of”), locative of a root noun

anti-mitra (“surrounded by friends”)

← IE **h*₂*ent* (“front, face”)

→ OGr.

◇ B *anti-pode* (“who has his feet against ours on opposite spots of the globe”), for second part see s.v. *pad*

◇ B *anti-biotics*, for second part see s.v. *jv̄*

~ Lat. *ante* as in *ante Christum natum*

anya (“other”)

← IE **an-yo*/**al-yo*

~ OGr. *allos* and OGr. B *allergy*, *allegory*

~ Lat. *alius* and Lat. B *alibi* (see *iha*)

anyônyas (“one another”) is petrified from nom. sg. *anyas anyas* by **CpLz** 1. line. The acc. sg. is **not** *anyam-anyam*, but *anyônya-m*.

See also *ari*.

ap f. (“water”), only pl.

with compound-final “zero-grades” (pp. 145):

F. Selective etymological dictionary

- ◇ **apsu-ja** (“born in the waters”) formed with loc. pl. rather than the usual stem, see *jan*
- ◇ **apsu-jit** (“vanquishing in the region of the clouds”), 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 at the end of the first part produced by laryngeal in 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* (p. 229).
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-tara (superlative: “farther off”)

apāñc (“backward, western”), see *añc*

apa-tyam (“child, offspring”), for suffix *tya* compare *antas-tyam* s.v. *antar* and *amā-tya* s.v. *amā*)

← IE **h₂ep-ó* (“off”)

→ OGr. *apo* and OGr. B *apocalypse* (for second part see *kulam*)

~ Lat. B *ab*-straction or *ab*-duction (where voicing may be due to Lat. words like *ab-dūcere*)

~ Germ.

◇ E *of* and E *off* ~ NHG *ab* (**VER**)

◇ NHG *aber* (**VER**) (“but”) ~ OI *apara*

◇ E *after* (“but”) ~ OI *apataram*

ap-as n. (“action, deed, rite”)

← IE **opes/h₃epes* (with regular non-application of **Lo**)

→ Lat. *opus* with B *opera* and *opulent* and NHG *opfern* (“to sacrifice”) with unclear **NHG_C** (for expected u.at. *offern*)

~ Lat. *officium* ← **opi-fak-io* with B *official*

~ NHG *üben* (“to exercise”), *üblich* (**VER**) (“normal, usual”)

api (“at, by around”)

← IE **h₁opi*

→ OGr. *epi* in OGr. 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 **h₂m̥bhi*

→ OGr. B *amphi*-theater

~ Lat. B *ambi*-ence, *ambi*-valent, *ambi*-guous

See also *ubha* (“both”).

am 2. class: **am̄ti** (“to grab, to harm, to swear”)

ama-tram (“instrument for grabbing (?) → 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*

amā (“home, at home”)

amāt (“from home”)

amā-tya (“house companion, minister”), compare *apa-tya* s.v. *apa*

See *svāmin*.

ay-as n. (“ore, iron”)

← IE **h₂eyes/ayes* n. (“bronze”)

→ Lat. *aes*, *aeris* n. (“copper, bronze”)

~ E *ore*

~ NHG *ehern* (“brazen, iron”)

ar (“to fit, to connect”)

ara (“spoke of a wheel”)

r-ta (“fitting, true”) PPP, but see *r*

an-ṛta (“not well fitted → not true”) with alpha privativum, but see *r*

r-tu m. (“time of year, right time”) and

r-tv-ij m. (“offering at the right time → priest”) ← *rtu* (“time of year, right time”) + zero grade of *yaj* (“to sacrifice”)

ara-mati f. (“right mind → piety”)

aram/alam adv. (“sufficient, properly”) (**rl**)

alakam adv. (“in vain”) (**rl**)

← IE root **h₂er*

→ Lat. B *art* (“the fitting → skill”), with *m*-extension Lat. B *arma-ture*, *arma-ment* (“what is fitted together → tool → weapon”)

aratni m. (“elbow”) (**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* (see s.v. *bhuḡ* (“to bend”))

ari m. (“enemy”)

arya/ārya (“lord”)

aryaman m. (name of a Vedic god, “associated with guests”) with *mant* suffix as in *matimant* (“with intellect → clever”)

Semantics (see Thieme (1938, 1957)):

- ◇ *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 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*

aritar (“rower”)

← IE root **h₁reh₁* (“to oar”)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

→ E *to row* ~ NHG *Ruder* (“rudder”)

arj-una (“white, silvery”)

arj-ata (“white, silvery”)

← IE **h₂erǵ-u* (“white”)/**h₂rǵ-nt-o* (“silver”)

→ Lat.

◇ *arg-entum* (“silver”) → Fr. *arg-ent*

◇ B *arg-ument* (“what makes clear”)

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*

→ OGr. B *orphan* (**OGR**)

~ NHG *Erbe* (“what the orphan obtains, bequest”), *Arbeit* (“done by the orphan → labour”), *arm* (“being without parents → poor”)

ars-as n. (“hemorrhoids”)

← IE **h₁elk-es*

→ OGr. *helk-os* (“abcess, ulcer”)

~ Lat. *ulc-us* and B *ulc-er*

av 1. class: **avati** (“to help”)

ūta ← IE **h₂uH-to* PPP (**Lar_V**), also in *indrōta* ← *indra* + *ūta* (“helped by Indra”)

ūti f./m. (“help”) ← IE z.g. **h₂uH-ti* (**Lar_V**)

avitum ← **h₁evH-tum* infinitive (**Lar_V** between consonants)

ô-man m. (“protection, grace”) ← **h₁euH-m-*

← IE root **h₁euH*

→ Lat. *iuvāre*

av 1. class: **avati** (“to enjoy”)

avasa (“refreshment, protecting”)

aviṣyu (“desirous”)

avitum ← **h₂evH-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-sā 4. class: **ava-syati** (“to finish, to accomplish”),

ava-sānam (“place of dismounting from a horse”)

ava-sātar (“deliverer, liberator”)

← IE **seh₂*

→ 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”)

~ E *ewe*

aś-ri f. (“angle, edge”)

aś-man m. (“stone”)

← IE **h₂ok*

F. Selective etymological dictionary

→ OGr. *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* (p. 76)

aśva (“horse”)

aśv-in (“having horses”, PN of the two gods who use horses to pull the sun across the sky)

āśu (“fast”) ← reduplicated IE **h₁o-h₁k-u* (unclear)

āśv-aśva ← *āśu* + *aśva* (“having fast horses”)

← IE **h₁ek²vo*

→ OGr. B *hippo*, *hippo-drome*

~ Lat. B *equestrian*

aśvattha (“banyan tree ← horse food”) ← *aśva* (“horse”) + *d* (zero grade of *ad*, “to eat”) + *tha* (suffix)

aṣṭā/aṣṭâu (“acht”)

← IE **h₃ek²to*/**ok²to*

→ OGr. B *octo-pus* (“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-ta f.g. (!) PPP

as-ra (“throwing, painful”), f.g. (!), see p. 131

as-i m. (“sword”)

abhy-as-ta (“repeated, practised”) ← *abhi* (“around, on both sides, toward”) + PPP

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. 167

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

◇ **ī-ṣat** (“being in that manner → a bit, somewhat”) ← *ī* + *sat* (n. pres.P)

◇ **sat-tvam** (“being, nature, living being”) ← *sat* + *tva* (suffix)

◇ **sat-ya** (“true, real”) ← *sat* + *ya* (suffix)

astam (“where someone is → home, home country”) may be related, used in **astam gac-chati** (“he dies”, “it (the sun) sets”)

asura (“lord of life, god, demon”) ← *asu* + *ra* (suffix) may also belong here. In any case, misunderstanding this as *a* + *sura*, **sura** (“god”) has been created by back-formation, where *a-sura* would be understood as “not a god”

upa-s-ti m. (“servant”) with first part preposition *upa*

abhi-ṣ-ti m. (“protector”)/**abhi-ṣ-ti** 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. *śri*)), *inter-es-t*

~ E *is* ~ NHG *ist*

See *su*.

asthi n. (“bone”)

← IE **h₃ost-h₂*

→ OGr. B *osteo-porosis*

~ Lat. B *osseous* (“concerning bones”), to *ossify*

aham

← IE **h₁eǵoh₂m*

→ Lat. *egō* with B *egotism*

~ Berlin Low German *icke* (**GER**)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

~ 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-rātram (“day and night”), see remark 4 below

praty-aham (“daily, every day”), see section E.4, pp. 270

<i>ahar/ahan/ahas</i> n.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>ahar</i> (1)	<i>ahn-ī/ahan-ī</i> (2, 3)	ahān-i (6)
	voc.	<i>ahar</i> (1)	<i>ahn-ī/ahan-ī</i> (2, 3)	ahān-i (6)
	acc.	<i>ahar</i> (1)	<i>ahn-ī/ahan-ī</i> (2, 3)	ahān-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. 247).
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 6). Instead, they have spilled over from words like the *karm-an* (p. 249).
4. Taking *ahas* as a third stem, one obtains *aho-bhis* and similar forms (p. 235) by **CpLz** 1. line.
5. The third stem is also in use in loc. pl. Compare *manas-su/manah-su* (p. 235).
6. **Lo**

F.2.2. \bar{a}

ādhra (“needy, weak, poor”), see **Lar__SY**, see pp. 130

nādh 1. class: *nāthatê* (“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)

← IE root **h₁ep*

→ Lat.

◇ B *op*-t-ion, to ad-*op*-t

◇ B ad-*ep*-t, in-*ep*-t (p. 69)

~ E *to gi-ve* ~ NHG *ge-ben* ← ie **ko(m)-h₁ep* (doubtful derivation, see s.v. *gabha*)

ā-yus n. (“life”), paradigm on p. 236

ā-yur-veda (“medical science”) (**Vis**, see *vid*)

yuvan m. (“youngster”) ← IE zero-grade **h₂yu* (paradigm on p. 236)

← IE **h₂oy-u-*

→ OGr. 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 **h₂ev-is* (“clearly”)

→ Lat.

◇ B *audition* ← Lat. *audīre* (“to hear”) ← IE **h₂evīs-dhh₁-*, similar to Lat. *dīvidere* (s.v. *dhā*)

◇ B *obedient* (by a complicated development)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

~ E *ear* ~ NHG *Ohr* ← IE **h₂eu-s*

āsa (“ashes”)

← IE **h₂eh₁sh₂*

→ Lat. B *ar-id*, *ar-dour*, *ar-dent* (**LAT__sr**)

~ E *ash* ~ NHG *Asche*, E *Ash* Wednesday ~ NHG *Aschermittwoch*

~ NHG *Esse* (“hearth”)

F.2.3. i

i 2. class: *êti* (“to go”), pp. 167

i-ta PPP

palāy 10. class: *palāyatê* (“to go away → to flee”) (**rl**) ← **parāyatê* ← **parā-ayatê*

sahāya (“companion, helper”) ← *saha* + *aya* and

sāhāyya (“fellowship, help”) (see pp. 152)

ay-ana/ay-ana-m (“going, motion, hallway”) as final part in

◇ *vātāyanam* (“window”) ← *vāta* (“wind”)

◇ *rāmāyaṇam* (name of Indian epic) ← *rāma* (name of Indian hero)

◇ *samavāya* (“inherence, cooccurrence” in philosophy) ← *sam* (“together”) + *ava* (“down”)

<i>i</i> (“to go”)		
present indicative	<i>ê-ti</i>	<i>y-an-ti</i>
infinitive	<i>ê-tum</i>	
PPP	<i>i-ta</i>	
future	<i>ê-ṣy-a-ti</i>	<i>ê-ṣy-a-n-ti</i>
imperfect	<i>âi-t</i> (1)	<i>āy-an</i> (2)
perfect	<i>īy-āy-a</i> (3)	<i>īy-us</i> (3)

1. *âi-t* ← *a-ê-t* is regular by **VS** line 6 (pp. 32).

2. Difficult. The 3. pers. pl. impf. should be in zero grade, but perhaps again **VS**.

3. See section D.2, pp. 203.

← IE root $*h_1ei$

→ Lat. B *i*-teration, *ex-i-tus*, *in-i-tial*, *i-tinerary*, *trans-i-tion*

See $yā$

itara (“the other (of the two)”)

← IE $*h_1i-tero$

~ Lat. *iterum* (“again, for a second time”) and B *iteration*

iti (“in this way → thus”, indicates quotes or thoughts), perhaps from *i* above

iti-hāsa (“thus, indeed, it was → history, legend”) ← *iti* + *ha* (“indeed”) + *āsa* (3. pers. sg. perfect of *as*, p. 205)

~ Lat. *ita* (“in this manner”)

idh/indh 1. class: **indhatê** (“to set fire to”)

êdha (“kindling, fire wood”)

iddha (“inflamed”) PPP (**ASh**)

← IE root $*h_2eidh$

→ OGr. *aithō* (“I set on fire”)

~ Lat. *aedificium* (“fireplace → room with a fireplace → building”)

iṣ 1. class: **icchatī** (“to wish”)

On the one hand: **gav-iṣ** m./f./n. (“wishing cows, greedy”)

← IE root $*h_2eis$ (“to seek, to desire”)

→ Lat. B to *esteem*

On the other hand, with s_k suffix: **icchā** (“wish”) (**CCI**, **SIB**)

← IE $*h_2is-s_k$

→ E to *ask* ~ OHG *eiscōn* → NHG *er-heisch-en* (“to demand”)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

Compare *gam*, *gacchati* (“to go”), *pracch*, *pr̥cchati* (“to ask”), and *yam*, *yacchati* (“to hold, to restrain”).

iṣ 1. class: *êṣati*/4. class: *iṣyati*/9. class: *iṣnāti* (“to press, to send”)
iṣu m. (“arrow”)

← IE root **h₁eis* (“to set in motion”)

→ Lat. *īra* (“anger”) (**LAT__V**) as in B *irate*

If the laryngeals would not differ, one might suggest 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. 50

→ Lat. *ibī* (“there”) (with **LAT__V** ← IE variant **i-bhei*) with *alibī* (“elsewhere”) and B suspect’s *alibi* (see s.v. *anya*)

F.2.4. *ī*

īkṣ 1. class: *īkṣatê* (“to see”), see *ak-ṣi* n. (“eye”)

← IE root **h₃ek^w*

īkṣ is originally a desiderative (see pp. 136).

īrma (“arm, forequarter of an animal”), with **Lar__SY** from z.g.

← IE **h₂erH-mo*

→ Lat. *armilla* (“arm-band, bracelet”) with B *armillary sphere* (“sort of celestial globe”)

~ E *arm* ~ NHG *Arm*

īś 2. class: *īśṭe* (“to own, to rule”)

abhīśu m. (“rein, bridle”), for first part see *abhi*

īś-vara “god, lord”

← IE root **h₂eik*

→ E own ~ NHG *eigen* (**VER**)

F.2.5. *u*

ukṣ 1. class: *ukṣati* (“to grow, to get strong”)

ug-ra (“powerful, mightly”), see p. 130

ōj-as (“power”) with IE suffix *-es* and **SPal**

← IE root **h₂eug-/*h₂euks-* with *s*-extension

→ 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 or schwebe-ablaut)

Difficult if 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 from *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*

F. Selective etymological dictionary

an-ut-tama (bahuvrīhi compound: “that in relation to which there is no supreme → unsurpassed”)

ud-ac (“directed upward, northern”), see *añc*

ud-ak (“in or from the north”)

un-mārga (“a wrong or evil way”) ← *ud* + *mārga*

← IE **ud*

→ OGr. 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”)

ud-ra (“otter”), see p. 130

ôd-man n. (“floods, rain”)

← IE **ved-n*/**ved-r*

→ OGr. B *hydrate*

~ Lat. *unda* “wave”

~ E *water* ~ NHG *Wasser*

udaram (“belly”)

sôdara (“brother”) ← *sa* + *udara*

← IE **Hud-er*

→ Lat. (B) *uterus*, but *t* difficult

upa (“to, near”)

upa-ni-ṣad 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*

→ OGr. B *hypo*-thesis (for second part see *dhā*), *hypo*-crite

~ Lat. *sub* (with Lat. *s* as in *super*, see *upari*) with B *sub*-mit, *sub*-ject, *sub*-set

but not related to E *of* or *off* (s.v. *apa*)

upari (“over”)

← IE *(s)upér(i)

→ OGr. B *hyper-bola*, *hyper-active* (second part Lat., see *aj*), *hyper-tension* (second part Lat.)

~ Lat. *super* (with Lat. *s* as in *sub*, see *upa*) with B *superman*, *supervision*, *superficial*

~ E *over* ~ NHG *über* (**VER**)

upa-stha (“womb, genitals, sheltered place”) with several options:

◇ *upa* (“to, near”) + *stha* (← *sthā*, compare p. 146) or

◇ *upas* (“womb”) +

- *stha* (← *sthā*) or
- *tha* (suffix)

ubha (“both”), probably related to *abhi* (“around, on both sides, toward”)

~ E *both* ~ NHG *beide*

ulūka (“owl”)

← IE *ul/*ulul

→ Lat. *ulul-āre* (“to howl”)

~ E owl ~ NHG Eule

uṣ 1. class **ôṣati** (“to burn, to shine”), the same root as *vas*²

uṣ-ṇa (“hot”)

uṣ-as f. (“dawn, aurora”)

← IE root **Heus*

→ Lat.

◇ B *aurora*

◇ *amb-ūrere* (“to burn around”, see *abhi*) (**LAT__sr**) → *am-būrere* and hence B combustion

~ the southern direction: Lat. *auster* (“south wind, south”) with

F. Selective etymological dictionary

◇ 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*

F.2.6. *ū*

ūdhar n. (“udder”)

← IE **ūd̥h* (“abundant”)

→ Lat. B *ex-ub-erant*

~ E *udder* ~ NHG *Euter*

ūrṇā (“wool”)

← IE **wl̥Hn*

→ E *wool* ~ NHG *Wolle*

ūrdhva (“tending upwards, raised, elevated”)

ūrdhvam adv. (“upwards, beyond”)

← IE **h₃r̥dh-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”)

sam-ūh (“to heap together”) and *sam-ūha* (“heap, bulk, union”)

ūh goes back to *vah* (“to drive, to bring”) with PPP *ūḍha*, p. 123. Long *ū* in *ūh* may result from *ūḍha* or perfect 3. pers. pl. *ūh-us* (p. 209) through levelling.

ūh 1. class: *ōhatê* (“to consider”)

ōh-as n. (“praise”) with IE suffix *-es* and **SPal**

← IE root **Heug^wh*

→ Lat. B *vo-tum, de-vou-t*

F.2.7. *ṛ*

ṛ 1. class: **ṛ-cchati**/3. class: **iyarti**/5. class: **ṛ-ṇô-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, **ṛcchati** with *sk̄* suffix:

← IE zero grade **h₃r-sk̄-e-ti* (**SIB**)

Compare *iṣ, icchati* (“to wish”), *gam, gacchati* (“to go”), and *pracch, pṛcchati* (“to ask”).

ṛkṣa (“bear”)

← IE **h₂rtk̄o* (**SIB**)

→ OGr. 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. 46.

ṛtê (“without”) is a loc. of some noun **ṛta**, but is not clear whether it belongs to *ṛ* or to *ar*

ṛṣ 1. class: **arṣ-a-ti** (“to flow, to stream”)

rasa (“sap or juice of plants”)

a-lasa (“inert, languid”) ← *a* + *rasa* (**rl**)

← IE root **h₁ers/*h₁res* (“to flow”)

→ Lat. *rōs, rōris* (“dew”)

F.2.8. ê, âi

ê-ka (“one, single”)

ê-kākīn (“single, alone”) ← *êka* + *ak* (suffix) + *in* (suffix)

← IE **Hoi*

→ Lat. *ū-nus* (“one”) with B *unity*

~ E *one* ~ NHG *ein*

êj 1. class: *êjatê/ījatê* (“to stir”)

← IE root **h₂eǵ-* (like *aj*)

Formation of Ved. *ījatê* by reduplication, like *sīd-ati* (p. 85):

- IE **h₂i-h₂ǵ-e-toi* (reduplication with *i* and zero grade)
- *īǵ-e-toi* (**Lar_V**)
- *īj-e-toi* (**PPal**)
- *īj-a-tê* (**aā, DIPH**)

ījatê then lead to f.g. *êjate*. See *aj*.

F.2.9. ô, âu

ôk-as n. (“resting place, home”)

vanâukas (“forest dweller”), see *vanam* and **VS** line 5

ôj-as n. (“power”), see *ukṣ* (“to get strong”)

ôj-man m. (“strength, power”), see *vaj* (“to get strong”)

ôd-man n. (“floods, rain”), see *ud* (“to make wet”)

ô-man m. (“protection, grace”), see *av* (“to help, to promote”)

ôh-as n. (“praise”), see *ūh* (“to consider”)

F.3. Velar stops

F.3.1. *k*

kanyā (“girl, daughter”)

kanā (“girl”)

kanī (“girl”)

← IE **ken-*

→ Lat. B *re-cent*

kad (“what”), Vedic for Sanskrit *kim*

← IE **k^wod*

→ Lat. *quod*

~ E *what* ~ NHG *was*

See the related *kas*, *kiyad*, *kim* below.

kam (“to wish, to desire”)

ca-kam-ê (“he wished”) pf. with **SPal**, but without **Lo** because IE *o*-ablaut root **komh₂* has two root-final consonants

ci-kam-i-ṣatê (“he wishes to desire”) desiderative

kānta (“beloved”) (**BA**) ← u.at. *kām-to* (**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”), Vedic for Sanskrit *kim*

cid as in *kaś-cid* (“someone”) by **BA**

kiyad (“how large, how long”) and *kiyan-mātra* (“measuring how much → small”)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

ku (“wherever → unknown origin/source → bad, little”) as in **ku-sakhī** (“bad female friend”)

kū (“where”), variant of *ku* as in **kū-cid** (“somewhere, anywhere”)

ku-tas (“from where”) with adverbial suffix *tas*

kīm (“what”) where

◇ *k* instead of expected *c* (**SPal**) stems from levelling with *kas* or *ku* and

◇ *kīm* (with *m* as in many other neuter forms like *phalam*)

kuv-id (“whether indeed, whether perhaps”) ← *kū* + *id* (see *cêd* s.v. *ca*)

← IE **k^we*/**k^wo*

→ Lat. B (saying in several languages) *quid pro quo* (“reward, return service”)

~ E *what, who* ~ NHG *was, wer*

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* with **SPal** (“to turn”) because “The Times They Are A-Changin” (Bob Dylan)

kās 1. class: **kāsatê** (“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”)

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 **klHv*

→ Lat. B *calvary* (skull-shaped hill in Jerusalem, the site of Jesus’ crucifixion)

kū 1. class **kav-a-tê**/2. class **kâu-ti/kav-ī-ti** (“to cry, to sound”), difficult and perhaps not a Narten verb (see pp. 178)

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”)

kūpa (“pit, hole”)

← IE **kupa/kūpa*

→ Lat. *cūpa* with B *cup*

~ E (bee) *hive*

F. Selective etymological dictionary

kr̥ 8. class: **karôti** (“to make”)

kara (“maker → hand”)

su-kara (“doable”)

sam-s-kr̥ta with *s* before *k* due to *s* mobile?

See *sū-kara*.

kr̥t 7. class: **kr̥natti** (“to spin”)

MI **kaṭa** (“mat”) ← **karta**, where *r* is dropped while cerebralising *t* (pp. 60)

kr̥t 6. class: **kr̥ntati** (“to cut”)

← IE root **(s)ker(t)* (*s* mobile)

→ E to *shear* ~ NHG *scheren*

~ maybe E *hard* ~ NHG *hart* (see s.v. *kratu*)

See also *carman* (“leather”).

kr̥p f. (“look, beauty”)

kr̥t-s-na (“bodily → complete, whole”) ← **kr̥p-s-na** (by **BA** because *s* is a dental sound!)

← IE root **kerp*

~ Lat. *corpus* with

◇ B English *corps*, *corporation*

◇ B German *Körper* (“body”)

kr̥p 1. class: **kr̥patê** (“to lament, to moan, to beg”)

kr̥pā (“compassion”)

kr̥cchra (“difficult, dangerous”) ← u.at. *kr̥p-ra* (“difficult”), see pp. 130

← IE root **krep*

→ Lat. *crepāre* (“to make a sharp loud noise”) with B *dis-crep-ancy* (“difference in sound or opinion”)

kôvida (“experienced”) ← *kas vida* (“who knows”) by **CpLz** 1. line

krat-u m. (“power, energy”)

← IE **kret* (“to be strong”)

→ OGr. B *demo-cracy*

~ maybe E *hard* ~ NHG *hart* (see s.v. *krt*)

krand 1. class: ***krandati*** (“to lament, to cry”) (***rl***)

← IE root **kel*

→ Lat.

◇ *clārus* (“loud, clear, famous”), *calāre* (“to call out, to call together”), *clamare*, *conciliāre* (“to join, to make friends with”)

◇ B *clear*, to *clarify*, *clarinet*, *declaration*, *council*, to *claim*, *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* (“bright”), *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 **kreh₂-* (“to freeze, to form a crust”)

→ OGr. *kreas* (“meat”) (**OGR**) with OGr. B *crystal* (originally “fossilised ice”)

~ Lat. *cru-or* (“blood”) and

◇ *crūdus* (“raw, clotted”) with Lat. B *crude*, *cruel*

◇ *crūsta* (“crust, bark”) with Lat. B English *crust* and German *Kruste*

~ E *raw* ~ NHG *roh* ← OHG *hrō*

klōman m./n. (“right lung”), possibly assimilated (both *p* and *m* are labial) from u.at. *plōman*, see *plu*

← IE **pleumon* (“swimmer → lung”)

→ Lat. B *pulmonary*, Lat./OGr. *pulmology*

kṣam f. (“earth”)

← IE **dhǵhom* (**SIB**, see p. 46)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

→ OGr. *khthōn* 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*

~ NHG *Bräutigam* (the initial dental plosive of the cluster drops, “bridegroom”)

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* (“to push”), *Schub* (“boost, impetus”) (**GER**) and also somehow *Schaufel* (“shovel”) and *Schippe* (“scoop, shovel”)

F.3.2. g

gabha (“grabber of penis → vulva”) (**DA**)

gabhasti m. (“arm, hand”) (**DA**), difficult second part

← IE root **ghebh*/**gheb* (“to grab, to hold”)

→ Lat.

◇ *habere* with B *habit*, *habilitation*, *in-hibition* (p. 69), *ex-hib-ition*

◇ *habitāre* (frequentative of *habere*) with B *habitation*

~ E to *give* ~ NHG *geben* (but see s.v. *āp*)

and finally 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* (“gable”), *Gabel* (“fork”)

But **not** E to *have* ~ NHG *haben*, see *śap*

gam 1. class: *gacchati* (“to go”)

gā 3. class: *jigāti* (“to go”) ← IE root **g^w-eh₂*, consequential of *gam*, see pp. 82

gā-tram (“instrument for going → body limb”)

gā-tu m. (“place for going → course, lane”)

<i>gam</i> (“to go”)		
present indicative	<i>gacch-a-ti</i>	<i>gacch-an-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 D.2, pp. 203).

5. Thematic aorist, but in full grade

On the one hand: *gam*

← IE **g^wem* (see also *gā* below)

→ OGr. B *basis* with zero grade (**IE_SY_N**) and OGr. B *acro-bat* (“someone who tip-toes”) (for *akro* (“top, summit, castle”) see *aśman*)

~ Lat. (**LAT_v**) *venīre* with B *inter-ven-tion*, *con-vent*, *con-ven-tion*, *ad-vent* (“coming of Jesus Christ”), *e-vent*, *pre-ven-tion*

~ E to *come* ~ NHG *kommen*, *bequem* (“comfortable”)

On the other hand, with *sḱ* suffix: *gacchati* (**SIB**)

← IE **g^wm-sḱ*

F. Selective etymological dictionary

→ OGr. *ba-sk-ō*

Compare *iṣ*, *icchati* (“to wish”), *pracch*, *pr̥cchati* (“to ask”), and *yam*, *yacchati* (“to hold, to restrain”).

garbha (“womb, embryo”) (*rl*)

← IE **g^wolbh* (“to grab, to hold”)

→ OGr. *a-delphos* (“from the same womb → brother”) with place name *Phil-a-delphia*, where OGr. *a* is related to OI *sam*

guru (“heavy”) with **guru** m. (“teacher”)

gar-īyans (comparative, “heavier”)

gar-iṣṭha (superlative, “heaviest”)

gārvan m. (“heavy object → stone”)

← IE **g^wrh₂u*

→ OGr. B *barometer*

~ Lat. B *gravity*

guh 1. class: **gūhati** (“to hide”)

<i>guh</i> (“to hide”)		
present indicative	<i>gūh-a-ti</i> (3)	<i>gūh-a-n-ti</i> (3)
infinitive	<i>gôḍhum</i> (1)	
PPP	<i>gūḍha</i> (2)	
imperfect	<i>a-gūh-a-t</i> (3)	<i>a-gūh-a-n</i> (3)
perfect	<i>ju-gūh-a</i> (3, 4)	<i>ju-guh-us</i> (4, 5)
<i>sa</i> -aorist	<i>a-ghuk-ṣ-a-t</i> (6)	
desiderative	<i>ju-ghuk-ṣ-a-ti</i> (7)	<i>ju-ghuk-ṣ-u</i> (7)

1. Infinitive PPP *gôḍhum* is regular:

- IE **gheuǵh-tum* (f.g. with infinitive marker *tum*)
- *geuǵ-dhum* (**DA** and **ASh**)
 - *geuz-dhum* (**sz** before voiced stop)
 - *geuz-dhum* (**RUKI**)
 - *gôz-dhum* (**CerD**, **DIPH**)
 - *gô-dhum* (**CpLz** 5. line)
2. PPP *gūḍha* is perfectly regular:
- IE **ghuǵh-to* (z.g. with PPP marker *to*)
 - *guǵ-dho* (**DA** and **ASh**)
 - *guz-dho* (**sz** before voiced stop)
 - *guz-dho* (**RUKI**)
 - *guz-dha* (**CerD**, **aā**)
 - *gū-dha* (**CpLz** 3. line)
3. *gūh-a-ti* for expected full grade *gôh-a-ti*. Levelling may be responsible, see PPP *gūḍha*.
4. The perfect reduplication with *ju* is analogical secondary palatalisation as in *cu-kṣôbh-a* (p. 207). However, one should expect the strong form 3. pers. sg. *ju-gôh-a*.
5. Expected weak form *ju-guh-us*.
6. *sa*-aorist with expected appearance of aspiration from IE root **gheuǵh*. Similar to future forms like *bhôt-sy-a-ti* (pp. 40, 112) and, closer to home, *ghôk-ṣy-a-ti*.
7. See 5. Palatalisation of the reduplicated syllable may be due to analogy from desideratives with *i*.
- ← IE root **gheuǵh*

gṛham (“house”) from IE **ghr̥dho* (**DA** and p. 50)

← 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*

F. Selective etymological dictionary

◇ E to *gird*, *girdle* ~ NHG *Gurt* (“belt”)

gṛ 9. class: **gṛṇāti** (“to mention with praise”)

gūrta (“agreeable, welcome”)

gūrti f. (“praise”) (**Lar_SY**)

← IE root **g^werH* (“to welcome”)

→ Lat. B *grate-ful*, *grat-uitous*, *con-grat-ulation*, *grac-ious*

gô m./f. (“bull, cow”), declension on p. 254

Ved. **gô-pā** m. (“herdsman, cow protector”)

gô-pa m. (“herdsman, cow protector”), for second part, see *pā* and pp. 145

gô-pāla (“herdsman, cow protector”), for second part, see *pṛ*

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*

gup 10. class: **gôpāyati** (“to protect cows → to protect”)

gô-pā-yati is a denominative derived from Ved. *gôpā*. This explains long *ā*, which is otherwise not seen 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>	with 10. class:	<i>gôpāyati</i>

← IE **g^wou*

→ OGr. *bou-kolos* (“cowherd”) ~ OIr. *bua-chail* (for second parts, see *cal*)

~ Lat. dialectal *bōs*, *bovis* with B *bovine spongiform encephalopathy* (short: BSE) and *beef* (English, but from Norman invasion)

~ E *cow* ~ NHG *Kuh*

granth 9. class: **grathnāti** (“to bind, to wind”)

granth-a (“knot, text, book”) (**Lar_CH**)

grathita PPP (**SY_N**, two effects of laryngeal)

← IE root **grent*₂ and more basically IE **ger* (“turning, to bend, to braid”)

→ Germ.

- ◇ NHG *krenzen* (“to produce or attach something wound”) and hence NHG *Kranz* (“crest, collar”)
- ◇ NHG *Kringel* (“small circle”)
- ◇ NHG *krank* (“bent, buckled → ill”)
- ◇ NHG *Krampf* ~ E *cramp*

Similar to *grabha* (“capture”, see *grabh* below), observe

IE **grent*₂-*o*
 → **grent*-*o* (**Lar**_CH)
 → *granth*-*a* (**aā**)

Revisit subsection C.2.5 (pp. 93) and compare *granth* with *pū*:

class	*gaṇa sign	√ (f.g.)	3. pers. sg.
7	* <i>ne</i>	* <i>yeug</i>	* <i>yu-ne-g-ti</i>
9	* <i>ne</i>	* <i>peuH</i>	* <i>pu-ne-H-ti</i>
9	* <i>ne</i>	* <i>grentH</i>	* <i>grnt_o-ne-H-ti</i>

The last line should yield **gratnāti* by **SY**_N and **Lar**_CH instead of *grathnāti* above. The latter is to be explained by levelling, for example by

	<i>gratnāti</i>	
influenced by	<i>grantha</i>	with aspirated <i>t</i>
turns into	<i>grathnāti</i>	with aspirated <i>t</i>

grabh (later ***grah***) 9. class: ***grbhṇāti***/***grḥṇāti*** (“to seize, to take”), see pp. 50
grabha (“capture”)

grabhīta PPP with unexpected full grade and unusual long *ī*

grabhītar (“capturer”) with expected full grade (pp. 107), but unusual long *ī*

← IE root **ghrebh* ← IE **ghrebh*₂

→ Germ.

- ◇ E to *engrave*, *grave*
- ◇ NHG *graben* (“to dig”), *Grab* (“grave”), *Grube* (“pit”), *grübeln* (“to brood”)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

- ◇ iterative variants E to *grobe* ~ NHG *greifen* and NHG *Graft* (out of use, “canal”) ~ 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 the following development:

IE **ghrebh*₂-*o*
 → **ghrebh*-*o* (**Lar**_CH)
 → *ghrabh*-*a* (**aā**)
 → *grabh*-*a* (**DA**)

Similar to *grathnāti* (see *granth*), observe

class	*gaṇa sign	√ (f.g.)	3. pers. sg.
7	* <i>ne</i>	* <i>yeug</i>	* <i>yu-ne-g-ti</i>
9	* <i>ne</i>	* <i>peuH</i>	* <i>pu-ne-H-ti</i>
9	* <i>ne</i>	* <i>grentH</i>	* <i>gr_ont-ne-H-ti</i>
9	* <i>ne</i>	* <i>ghrebH</i>	* <i>gh_or_ob-ne-H-ti</i>

By **SY**_N and **Lar**_CH, one should expect u.at. *gr̥bṇāti* rather than *gr̥bhṇāti* above. Levelling of the form

	<i>gr̥bṇāti</i>	
influenced by	<i>grabha</i>	with aspirated <i>b</i>
turns into	<i>gr̥bhṇāti</i>	with aspirated <i>b</i>

is responsible. It looks as if the laryngeal caused both the aspiration of *b* and the gaṇa sign *nā*. Remember a somewhat similar phenomenon with *sthā*, *tiṣṭhati* (“to stand”), where the laryngeal of IE **steh*₂ produced both the aspiration of *t* and, on top, *i* in the PPP form *sthita* (p. 86).

grāma (“troop, village”) (**Lo**)

← IE **h*₂*grom*-*o*

→ Lat. *gremium* (“lap, interior”) and Lat. B German *Gremium* (“interior → committee”)

F.3.3. *gh*

gharma (“heat”)

← IE * g^w herm/* g^w horm

→ OGr. B *thermic*, *thermos* bottle (**OGR**)

~ Lat. *fur-nace*

~ E *warm*

ghr̥ 2. class: **ji-ghar-ti** (“to sprinkle, to oint”)

ghrā 2. class: **ghrāti** (“to smell”) ← IE **ghr-eH* (consequential, see pp. 82)

← IE root **gher*

→ OGr. *khronos* (“time”) with B *chronometer*. Time may be like a river that flows around immobile objects and anoints them. Compare

◇ OGr. *khrono* ← IE **ghr-ono* with OGr. *krono* (“cutting”) ← IE **kr-ono* (s.v. *carman*)

◇ OGr. *throno* (“throne”) ← IE **dhr-ono* (s.v. *dhr̥*)

See unpublished paper by Kulikov and see p. 131.

F.4. Palatal stops

F.4.1. *c*

ca (“and”)

cêd (“if”) ← *ca* + *id* (see *kuv-id* s.v. *kas*)

← IE * k^w e

→ OGr. *te* (**OGR**)

~ Lat. *que* which is also enclitic: *senātus populusque rōmānus* (abbreviation: SPQR, “the Roman senate and people”)

See *tu*, *na*, and, *pañca*.

caḥs 1. class: **caḥsatê**/2. class: **caḥtê** (“to see, to appear”)

caḥs-us n. (“eye”)

Probably, **caḥs** is the reduplicated form * k^w e- k^w ê (**SPal**, **SIB**)

← IE * k^w eê (“to appear, to shine”)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

One obtains

- IE **k^we-k^wǵ-toi* (3. pers. sg. pres. ind. ātm.)
- *ce-k^wǵ-toi* (**SPal**)
- *caḱs-tê* (**SIB** 8. line)
- *caṣ-tê* (**CCl**)

cakram (“wheel, circle”)

← IE **k^we-k^wlo*, a reduplicated form from IE **k^wel* (see *cal*)

→ OGr. B *cycle*, *en-cycl-ical*, *(en)cyclo-pedia*, *bi-cycle*, *re-cycle*

catvāras (nom. pl. m.) “four”

catur (“four times”)

← IE **k^wetvor* (**SPal**, **Lo**)

→ OGr. B *tetra-hedron*

~ Lat. *quattuor* with B German *Quadrat*

~ E *four* ~ NHG *vier*

See *turīya* (“fourth”). For f. *catasras* see s.v. *vasar* (p. 403).

cand 1. class (“to be white, to glow, to shine”)

candra (“shining, moon”)

chand 10. class: **chand-aya-ti** (“to seem good, to please”)

chand-as n. (“desire, delight, hymn”)

← IE root *(*s*)*kend* (“to shine, to appear”) (*s* mobile and **SIB/sP(h)**)

→ Lat.

◇ *incendere* (“set on fire”) with B *incense*

◇ B *candid* (“white → frank”), *candle*, *candidate* (men standing for elections in ancient Rome wore white *togas*)

cal 1. class: **calati** (“to move”)

car 1. class: **carati** (“to go”) (**rl**), see *cakram*

ca-ñ-cal-ya-tê frequentative (p. 150) (“to stir, to quiver”)

ca-ñ-cal-a (“unsteady”).

← IE root $*k^w elh_1$

→ OGr. *bou-kolos* (“cowherd”) ~ OIr. *bua-chail* (for first part, see *gô*)

~ Lat.

◇ *colere* (“to 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 Fr. *collier* (“necklace”)

◇ *an-cul-us* (“man-servant”) ← IE $*h_2 m̥bhi-k^w olh_1-os$ (for first part, see *abhi*) with Lat. *ancilla* (“woman-servant”) and the B *ancilla-ry* (*services*)

~ NHG *Hal-s* (“the mover, the turner → neck”)

kr̥s̥ (“to pull, to drag”) may also be related, from IE $*k^w ol-s$.

carman n. (“leather”) (**SPal**)

← IE $*(s)ker-men$ (“torn skin”) (*s* mobile)

→ with *s* mobile: E *sharp* ~ NHG *scharf*, NHG *Schirm* (“umbrella”), *Schere* (“scissors”)

~ without *s* mobile: E *harvest* ~ NHG *Herbst* (“autumn”)

kr̥t (“to cut”) is a *t*-extension.

ci 3. class: ***cikêti***/5. class: ***cinôti***/1. class: ***cayatê*** (“to notice, to sift through”)

nis-ci (“to decide”)

nis-cay-a (“decision, certainty”) (**DIPH**)

nis-ci-tam (“surely”)

← IE root $*k^w ei$

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.

F.4.2. *ch*

chad 1. class: *chad-a-ti* (“to cover”)
a-ccha (“uncovered”) (p. 69)
sv-a-ccha (“pure, transparent”), see *su*

chāyā (“shade”)

← IE root **skeh*₂ (**SIB**)

→ E to *shine* ~ NHG *scheinen*

chid 7. class: *chi-na-t-ti* (“to split, to cut”)
chid-ra (“with holes, damaged”), see pp. 130

← IE root **skeid* (**sP(h)**)

→ OGr. 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”)

chô 4. class: *chyati* (“to cut open, to skin”)

← IE root **skeH* (“to split”)

→ Lat. B *con-scious*, *science*

F.4.3. *j*

jan 4. class: *jāyatê* (“to beget, to be born”)
jana (“man”)
janitar (“father”)

<i>jan</i> (“to beget”)		
present indicative	<i>jā-y-a-tê</i> (1)	<i>jā-y-a-n-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-n-tê</i> (2)
imperfect	<i>a-jā-y-a-ta</i> (1)	<i>a-jā-y-an-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>ji-jan-i-ṣ-a-ti</i> (2)	<i>ji-jan-i-ṣ-u</i> (2)

1. The IE full grade root is **ǵenh*₁. The 4. class builds on the zero grade. By **Lar**_SY, *jā-y-a-tê* is regular from IE **ǵnh*₁-*ye-toi*. Similarly, see zero grades in imperfect and PPP.
2. By **Lar**_V or by analogy, the laryngeal shows up as *i* between consonants in *jan-i-tum* ← **ǵenh*₁-*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 **ǵenh*₁

→ OGr.

◇ *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-ous*

◇ B *pre-gn-ant*

◇ B *genus* and pl. *genera* (**LAT**_sr)

◇ *natus* in *ante Christum natum* (“before Christ was born”) and in the B *nation*, *nature*

◇ B *indi-gen-ous*

F. Selective etymological dictionary

◇ B *primo-gen-iture*

◇ B *co-gn-ate* (“to be born with, related”)

~ E *kin*(ship)

~ NHG *Kind* (“begotten”, formally a PPP)

See also *jānu* and *jñā*.

janī f./**janī** (“woman, wife”)

← IE **g^wenh₂* (**Lar**__**V**)

→ OGr. B *miso-gyn-y*

~ E *queen* (compare *quick* s.v. *jīv*)

~ OIr. *ben* (“woman”)

jānu n. (“knee”) (**Lo**)

← IE **ǵenu/ǵonu*

→ Lat. B *genu-flection*

~ E *knee* ~ NHG *Kníe*

Related to *jñā* and *jan*? Alternatively, the basic meaning of IE **ǵenu/ǵonu* might be “curve” and this word is the same as *hanu* (“chin”).

jī 1. class: **jayati** (“to conquer”)

jāyā (“who has been captured → woman”) or from *jan*?

jyā 2. class: **jyāti** (“suppress”) ← IE **ǵy-eH* (consequential, see pp. 82)

← IE **ǵei*

jīhvā (“Zunge”), difficult

← IE **d_ṛǵ-vh₂*

~ Lat. *lingua* with B *linguist* and *language* via Fr.

~ E *tongue* ~ NHG *Zunge*

~ NIr. *mo theanga féin* (“my own language”, i.e., Irish)

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)*

→ OGr. B *bio*-logy (**OGR**)

~ Lat. B *vital*, *vitamin* and, in Germany: *Konvikt* (a flat shared by catholic students of theology), *Viktualienmarkt* (market place in Munich)

~ Germ.

◇ E *quick*

◇ NLG *erquicken* (“to refresh”), *quicklebendig* (“very lively”)

◇ NHG *keck* (“bold”)

jūṣ 6. class: **jūṣatê** (“to like, to enjoy”)

jôṣa (“satisfaction”)

← IE root **ǵeus* (“to choose, to enjoy”)

→ Lat. *gūstus* in “with *gusto*” and Fr. “chacun à son *goût*”, where the circumflex is reminiscent of eliminated *s* (as in *hôpital*)

~ E to *choose* ← OE *ceosan* ~ NHG *kiesen* (old for “examine, choose”) (**NHG_E**)

~ NHG *kosten* (“to taste, to enjoy”) versus *erkoren* (old for “chosen, elected”), *Kür* (“voluntary exercise”) and *Kurfürst* (“electoral prince”) by **VER**

jīr̄ 1. class: **jarati** (“to waste away”)

jīr̄ṇa PPP (“wasted, aged”)

jarā (“age”)

← IE root **ǵ_or̄H-no* (“having become old, ripe”)

→ Lat. *grānum* (in “*cum grāno salis*”) ← IE **ǵ_or̄H-no* (**IE_SY_L**) and B English *pomegranate* (Lat. *pomum* (“fruit”)) or B German *Granatapfel* (NHG *Apfel* ~ E *apple*)

~ Germ.

◇ z.g. E *corn* ~ NHG *Korn* ← IE **ǵ_or̄H-no* (**IE_SY_L**)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

◇ f.g. NHG *Kern* (“core”)

jñā 9. class: ***jānāti*** (“to know”)

<i>jñā</i> (“to know”)		
present indicative	<i>jā-nā-ti</i> (1)	<i>jā-n-an-ti</i> (1, 2)
infinitive	<i>jñā-tum</i> (3)	
PPP	<i>jñā-ta</i> (4)	
future	<i>jñā-sy-a-ti</i> (3)	<i>jñā-sy-a-n-ti</i> (3)
imperfect	<i>a-jā-nā-t</i> (1)	<i>a-jā-n-an</i> (2)
perfect	<i>ja-jñ-âu</i> (5)	<i>ja-jñ-us</i> (5)
<i>siṣ</i> -aorist	<i>a-jñā-sī-t</i>	<i>a-jñā-siṣ-us</i>
desiderative	<i>ji-jñā-s-a-tê</i> (4)	<i>ji-jñā-su</i> (4)

1. The IE root is **ǵneh*₃. Consider

class	*gaṇa sign	√ (f.g.)	3. pers. sg.
9	* <i>ne</i>	* <i>peuH</i>	* <i>pu-ne-H-ti</i>
9	* <i>ne</i>	* <i>ǵneH</i>	* <i>ǵñ-ne-H-ti</i>

One should expect **ja-nā-ti* rather than *jā-nā-ti* above. Note that *jā* regularly occurs in infinitive and future forms.

2. For 9. class verbs, the class signs are

◇ *nā* for strong forms and

◇ *nī* for weak forms.

However, the 3. pers. pl. is always like here: *pu-na-nti*, *krī-ṇa-nti*, *jā-na-nti*

3. The infinitive and the future are formed regularly from the full grade *ǵneh*₃ → *jñā*.

4. Unusually, the PPP is formed with the full grade. The regular weak form would have been **ǵñH-to* → **jā-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., as in *da-d-âu* from *dā* (“to give”).

← IE root **ǵneh*₃

→ OGr. B *gnosis* (“knowledge of God”), *a-gno-stic* (for the first part, see p. 69)

~ Lat. B

◇ with *g*: *co-gn-ition* and *re-co-gn-ise* (compare *co-gnate* s.v. *jan*)

◇ without *g* in word-initial position: to *note*, *notion*, *no-bility*

~ E to *know* ← OE *cnáwan*

~ NHG *kennen* (“to know”, originally causative, see Gth. *kannjan*)

jñā looks like a consequential verb (pp. 82) derived from *jan* which might somehow be connected to *jānu*: The father recognises his child by setting it on his *knee*. However, the laryngeals differ between *jñā* and *jan*. Therefore, one cannot argue with a schwebeablaut (floating vowel gradation) and the two IE full grades **ǵenh₁* and **ǵneh₁*. The latter IE word is **not** the basis of *jñā* ← IE root **ǵneh₃*. The two roots are historically unrelated although they might have “come close” later.

F.5. Dental stops and nasal

F.5.1. *t*

takṣ 1. class: *takṣati*/2. class: *tāṣ-ṭi*/5. class: *takṣṇōti* (“to form by cutting”). Originally a reduplicated perfect, see p. 211

takṣ-an m. (“carpenter”)

← IE root **tek[́]* (“to produce”) with IE reduplicated root **te-tk[́]* (SIB line 6)

→ OGr. B *technical* from *tekhne* (← *tek[́]-sneh₂*, where *s* is lost under aspiration of *k*)

~ Lat. B *tex-tile*

tad

← IE **tod*

→ Lat. *is-tud*

~ E *that*

~ NHG *das*

F. Selective etymological dictionary

tan 8. class: *tanôti* (“to stretch”)

tanu (“thin”)

tanu m./f. /*tanū* f. (“body”)

tan-tram (“loom, teaching, manual”)

<i>tan</i> (“to stretch”)		
present indicative	<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>tên-us</i> (6)
<i>iş</i> -aorist	<i>a-tan-ī-t</i>	<i>a-tan-iş-us</i>
desiderative	<i>ti-taṃ-s-a-ti</i> (7)	<i>ti-taṃ-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. 94 for an analysis of the 8. class.
4. 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. 160).
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. 203.
6. *tên-us* or *pêt-us* (the latter from *pat*, “to fall”) are analogically built on zero-grade forms like
 - ◇ *sêd-* ← IE **se-sd-* (root *sad*) or
 - ◇ *yêt-* ← IE **ye-it-* (root *yat*), see p. 210.

7. Similar to *ti-tyak-ṣ-a-ti* (p. 137), *ti-taṃ-s-a-ti*

- ◇ is build irregularly from the full grade (the regular zero-grade desiderative of *tan* would be **ti-ta-s-a-ti* by **SY__N**)
- ◇ shows anusvāra before *s* (**Ns**)

← IE root **ten*

→ OGr. B *tone* (strings of musical instruments 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”)

tap-as n. (“heat, asceticism”)

tapo-ja (“born from heat”) (**CpLz** 1. line)

← IE root **tep*

→ Lat. B *tepid*

-tama superlative suffix (**Lar__SY**)

ut-tama (see *ud*)

← IE **tmH-o*

→ Lat. *in-timus* (“inner”)

tam-as n. (“darkness”)

tamisram (“darkness”) (no **RUKI** because of *r* after *s*)

← IE **temHs*

→ Lat.

- ◇ *tenebrae* (pl., only), perhaps by a process like *temHs-r* → *temes-r* → *teneb-r*

F. Selective etymological dictionary

◇ B *temerity* (“acting in the dark → audacity”)

tark 10. class: **tarkayati** (“to consider, to ponder”)

tarka (“science of reasoning, logic, consideration”)

tarku m. (“spindle”)

← IE root **terk*^w

→ Lat. *torquere* with PPP *tortus* (by regular simplification) and B English *torture*, *retort* and B German *torkeln* (from Lat. *torculum* („winepress“))

~ NHG *drechseln* (“to work the wood lathe”)

-tas ablative suffix, p. 271

← IE **-tos*

→ Lat. *-tus* in *fundi-tus* (“from the bottom”), see s.v. *budhnam*

tij 1. class: **têjati** (“to become sharp”)

têj-as n. (“sharpness, heating”)

tig-ma (“sharp”)

tīkṣṇa (“sharp”) (difficult long *ī*)

← IE root *(*s*)*teig* (“to prick, to sting”) (*s* mobile)

→ OGr. B *stigma*

~ Lat. B *in-stig-ation*

~ E *thistle* ~ NHG *Distel*

tiras prop. (“through”)

tīryañc (“sideward, horizontal”), see *añc*

tu (“but”)

← IE **tu*

→ NHG *doch* (“still, however”), where *ch* might well be cognate with OI *ca*

tud 6. class: **tudati** (“to strike, to hit”)

← IE root **(s)teud* (*s* mobile)

→ Lat. B *studēre* (“to be thrusting → to strive after”) with B *study*

~ NHG *stoßen* (“to bump, to thrust”)

tumra (“big, powerful”) ← u.at. OI root *tum* (see pp. 130)

← IE root **teum*

→ Lat. B *tumid*, *tumour*, *tumult*

Perhaps related to *tū*.

tur̄ya “fourth” (CCI, 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: **tâuti** (“to be strong, to have authority”), probably not a Narten verb

← IE **teuh₂*

→ Lat. B *tutor*, *tutelage*

~ E *thumb* ~ NHG *Daumen*

tr̄ṣ 4. class: **tr̄ṣyati** (“to thirst”)

MI **tasati/tasyati** with expected *r* → *a* and *ṣ* → *s*

← IE root **ters* (“be dry”)

→ Lat.

◇ Lat. *terra* (“the dry one, the earth”) with B *terrarium*, *territory*, Fr. *sou-terrain*

◇ B *toast* ← Lat. *tostus* ← u.at. *torstos* (“dried”)

~ E *thirst* ~ NHG *Durst*

F. Selective etymological dictionary

tṛ 1. class: **tarati**/4. class: **tīrati** (“to cross, to rescue”)

tīrṇa PPP

tītīrṣati desiderative

tīram (“bank, shore”)

tīrtha/tīrtham (“ford, passage → ritual bath place”)

trā 2. class: **trāti**/4. class: **trā-ya-tê** (“to save”). Traditionally **trāy-a-tê** is considered a 1. class verb from root **trâi**. But it is better considered a consequential of **tṛ**, see pp. 82. By schwebeablaut (floating vowel gradation), one postulates the two IE full grades ***terh₂** and ***treh₂** → **trā**.

← IE root ***terh₂**

→ OGr. **tor-nos** → Lat. **tornus** → B German **Turnus** (“cycle, rotation”), and, via Fr. **tourner**, B English **tour**, **tourist** and B German **Turnier** (“having horses run in a cycle → competition”), whence **Turner** (“young fighter → gymnast”)

~ Lat. **trāns** (“across, through”) ← pres.P IE ***treh₂nt-s** (“crossing”) with B English **transnational**, **transgender**, etc.

~ E **to throw**, E **thread** ~ NHG **Draht** (“wire”), NHG **drehen** (“to twist”)

tê enclitic for pers. pron. 2. pers. sg. both gen. (for non-enclitic **tava**) and dat. (for non-enclitic **tubhyam**)

← IE ***toi**

→ OGr. **toi**

tê 1. pers. pl.m. of **tad**

← IE ***toi**

→ Lat. **is-tī**

~ NHG **die**

trayas (nom. pl. m.) (“three”)

← IE ***treyes**

→ OGr. B **triad**

~ Lat. B **triumvirate** (for second part see **vīra**)

~ E **three** ~ NHG **drei**

For f. **tisras** see s.v. **svasar** (p. 403).

tras 1. class: **trasati** (“to tremble”)

MI **tasati** with expected *tr* → *t*

← IE root **tres/*ters*

→ Lat. B *terror*, *terrible*

tvam (“you”)

← IE **t-*

→ Lat. *tū*

~ E *thou* ~ NHG *du*

F.5.2. *d*

dakṣa (“fit, able”) (SIB)

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 cerebralised *ṇḍ*.

← IE **dendr-o*

→ OGr. *dendron* (“tree”) with B *rhododendron*

dabh 1. class: **dabhati**/5. class: **dabhnôti** (“to hurt, to destroy”)

dabh-ra (“little, deficient”), see p. 131

dah-ra (“small, fine”), see pp. 50

dhip-s-a-ti (pp. 141) desiderative

← IE root **dhebh* (“to destroy”)

dam 4. class: **dāmyati** (“to tame”)

dānta PPP, see p. 126

dama (“house”)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

← IE root **demH* (“to build, to fit”)

→ OGr. B *despot* ← **dems potis* (“lord of the house”, for second part see *pati*)

~ Lat. B *dome*, *dominate*, *domesticate*, It. *madonna* (← *mea domina*, “Maria, the mother of Jesus”), Fr. *madame*

~ Germ.

◇ E *tame* ~ NHG *zahm*

◇ E *timber* ~ NHG *Zimmer* (“room made from wood”)

◇ NHG *ziemlich* (“fairly, tolerably” and, rarely, “properly”)

daś-as n. (“grace, favour”) hinting towards u.at. OI root **daś**

dāś 1. class: **dāśati**/2. class: **dāṣṭi** (**CerD**)/5. class: **dāśnôti** (“to venerate, to consecrate”). Originally a reduplicated form, probably perfect (see p. 211)

da-dāś-a either the strong perfect of u.at. *daś* or, alternatively, a second-order perfect of *dāś*

dīkṣ 1. class: **dīkṣ-a-tê** (“to initiate, to consecrate”), originally desiderative (see p. 141), which has produced a second-order desiderative **dī-dīkṣ-i-ṣ-a-tê**

← IE root **dek* (“to receive, to embellish”)

→ Lat.

◇ B *decor*, *dig-nity*

◇ Lat. *discere*, a frequentative (“to take in repeatedly → to learn”) with iterative suffix *ské* (see *gam*, *vāñch*)

◇ causative: Lat. *docere* (← IE causative **dek-eye-*) (“to make perceive → to teach”) with B *docile*, *document*, *doctor*

daśa (“ten”)

← IE **dek*_ṃ

→ 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 **dekm̥t* (“a tenner”) in *pañcāśat*. See *śatám*.

dah 1. class: **dahati** (“to burn”)

kṣā (“to burn”), not well attested consequential (see pp. 82) ← IE **dhg^wh-eh₁* (**SIB** 7. line)

<i>dah</i> (“to burn”)		
present indicative	<i>dah-a-ti</i> (1)	<i>dah-an-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-ṣ-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 IE 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 *bhōt-sy-a-ti* (p. 40). 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. 203 to see how Brugmann’s law **Lo** produces long *ā*.
6. Irregularly, this *iṣ*-aorist (pp. 216) 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*

F. Selective etymological dictionary

dā 3. class: **da-dā-ti** (“to give”)

<i>dā</i> (“to give”)		
present indicative	<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)

- The sg. *da-dā-ti* is a strong form (in full grade) and goes back to **de-deh₃-ti*.
- 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):
 - ◇ *bi-bhr-a-ti* ← **bi-bhr-ṅ-ti* or
 - ◇ *da-d-a-ti* ← **de-dh₃ṅ-ti* (**Lar_CH**: the laryngeal *h₃* leaves no effect before the vowel *ṅ*).
- The infinitive and the future show expected full grade.
- The PPP *di-ta* is regular, where the laryngeal turns into *i* between consonants. The irregular *datta* may have this explanation: The pres. ind. 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.
- In the third class, the impf. 3. pers. pl. has ending *us* so that zero grade *a-da-d-us* results. By **Lar_CH**, the laryngeal *h₃* drops between consonant *d* and vowel *u*. Indeed, impf. 3. pers. pl. of *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 *bhṛ*.
- The perfect *da-d-âu* exhibits 3. pers. sg. ending *âu*. For similar examples like *ta-sth-âu* from *sthā*, see p. 207.
- The desiderative (see pp. 136) is formed by reduplication with *i*, zero grade and suffix *s*:

- **di-dh₃-s-*
 → *di-d-s-* (**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-ā* desire to give

An irregular alternative desiderative *didāsati* exists, where *ā* has been taken from *da-dā-ti* or other forms with long *ā*.

- ← IE root **deh₃*
 → OGr. B English *dose* (in German, closer to the original: *Dosis*) also OGr. 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 **ṇdH-ti* (**SY__N**, **Lar__V**)

← IE **deH*

dāru n. (“wood”) (**Lo**)

← IE **doru*

→ E *tree*, *true*

~ NHG *Treue* (“loyalty”), *Trost* (“consolation”), *trauen* (“to trust”) (p. 76)

div 4. class: ***dīv-y-a-ti*** (“to play”) ← **diHv-ye-ti*
dyū-ta PPP (“gambling, gaming”) ← **dyuH-to* (**Lar__MTh**)

← IE root **deiHv*

See *siv* and *mīv*.

dīś 6. class: ***dīśati*** (“to show”)

dīś f. (“hint, direction”)

deśa (“region, land”)

← IE root **deik*

F. Selective etymological dictionary

→ 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 It., in German

◇ *ver-male-deit* (“accursed”) and,

◇ from the rosary prayer “*ge-bene-deit* ist die Frucht deines Leibes, Jesus”.

~ Germ.

◇ NHG *ver-zeihen* (“to forgive”) and also, by **VER**: *zeigen* (“to show”), *Zeigefinger* (“index finger”)

◇ 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 indicative	<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-îrê</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.

3. Although athematic, 3. pers. pl. PRII exhibit *an*. This holds for all verbs in the 2. class (except *śās*, see 177).

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 **CCI** and **AFP** (pp. 46). **AFP** is then followed by non-application of **DA** (similar to 4).

6. The perfect forms are *ātmanêpada* and hence weak (pp. 203).

7. It is not clear what type of aorist *a-dhikş-us* might be.

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. *ingere* (“to build”) with present-stem nasal infix that is still present in

◇ English to *feign*

◇ German *fingieren* (“to feign”), and

◇ German *Finte* (“trick”, via It.)

~ Lat. without the nasal infix: B English *figure, fiction* (backward assimilation)

~ NHG *Teig* ~ E *dough* (also in *doughnut* = *donut*)

~ E *la-dy* ← OE *hlæf-dīge* (“woman who kneads dough → woman whose bread one eats”), where the first part *hlæf* is cognate with E *loaf* ~ NHG *Laib*.

dīrgha (“long”), z.g. (*rl*, **Lar_SY**)

← IE **dleHgh*

→ Lat. B *longus* with B *long-itude*

~ E *long* ~ NHG *lang*

Schwebeablaut connection with *dṛh*?

duh 2. class: ***dôgdhi*** (“to milk”)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

<i>duh</i> (“to milk”)		
present indicative	<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)

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.
3. Although athematic, 3. pers. pl. P_{RII} exhibit *an*. This holds for all verbs in the 2. class (except *śās*, see 177).
4. The future, the aorist, and the desiderative reflect failed **DA** in the main syllable, then **BA** and **RUKI** (which explain *k-ṣ*).
5. *a-dhôk* is explained by **CCI** and **AFP** (pp. 46). **AFP** is then followed by non-application of **DA** (similar to 4).
6. The sg. perfect form is in parasmâipada and hence strong (pp. 203). The plural is regularly weak.
7. *du-dhuk-ṣ-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. *tukhē* f. (“hazard, luck”) (**OGR**, **OGR_DA**)

It has been surmised that OI *duh* is back-formation from *duhitar* (“daughter”).

duhitar f. (“daughter”)

← IE **dhug-h₂ter* (p. 56)

→ 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*

dṛh 1. class: **darh-a-ti** (“to make firm”) (*rl*)

di-darh-i-ṣa-ti (“he wishes to make firm”) desiderative, irregularly with full grade and “thematic” *i*

dṛdha (“fixed, firm, tough”) PPP (p. 124)

← IE root **delǵh*

→ Lat. B *in-dulg-ent* (for *in* see p. 69)

Schwebeablaut connection with *dīrgha*?

dṛ 9. class: **dṛ-ṇā-ti** (“to break, to tear”), see pp. 93

didīrṣati (“he wishes to tear”) desiderative (p. 143)

← IE root **derH*

→ OGr. B *der-mis*, *der-matology*

~ E to *tear* ~ NHG *zerren*

dêva (“god”)

divya (“heavenly, divine”)

dina (“day”)

prati-dinam (“every day”) ← *prati* + *dinam*

a-dya (“today”)

dyâuṣ-pitar (“father of the heaven”)

← IE **dei*

→ OGr. god *Zeus* (“god of heaven and daylight”)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

~ Lat.

- ◇ B *divine*, *divinity*, Lat. phrase “*deus ex machina*” (with *v*-extension like OI *dēva* and *divya*)
- ◇ god *Iū-piter* ~ OI *dyâuš-pitar*

~ NIr. *Dia dhuit* (“God be with you → hello”)

See *hyas*.

dram 1. class: **dram-a-ti** (“to run, to move about”)

dru 1. class: **drav-a-ti** (“to haste”)

dr-ā 2. class: **dr-ā-ti** (“to run”) ← IE **dr-eh*₂ (consequential of third group, see pp. 82)

← IE root **der*/**drem*/**drev*

dvā (“two”), see *dvi* below

dvādaśa (“twelve”)

← IE **du(v)ō* (**V+SV**)

→ OGr. 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 *p̄r* (“to fill”)) with B English *double* and B German *doppelt*

~ Germ.

- ◇ E *two* ~ NHG *zwei*
- ◇ E *twig* ~ NHG *Zweig*

dvi (see *dvā* above) used in combinations:

- ◇ **dvi-pad** (“with two feet”) and similar in
 - OGr. *dí-pous*
 - Lat. B *bi-ped* and
 - OE *twi-féte*
- ◇ **dvi-ja** (“twice born → Brahmin, bird”), for second part see *jan*

← IE **dvis*/**dvi*

→ OGr. *di* and *dí-pous* (“with two feet”) and OGr. 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 Lat. *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”)

dvāra (“door”) (with *d* instead of *dh* because of *dvā̄*?), with Vedic ***dvār***

← IE **dhwer*/**dhur*

→ Lat. B *forum*

~ E *door* ~ NHG both *Tür* (“door”) and *Tor* (“gate”)

dviṣ 2. class: ***dvêṣti*** (“to hate”)

<i>dviṣ</i> (“to hate”)		
present indicative	<i>dvêṣ-ti</i> (1)	<i>dviṣ-an-ti</i> (3)
infinitive	<i>dvêṣ-ṭum</i> (1)	
PPP	<i>dviṣ-ṭa</i> (1)	
future	<i>dvêk-ṣy-a-ti</i> (2)	<i>dvêk-ṣy-a-n-ti</i> (2)
imperfect	<i>a-dvêṭ</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*, one obtains the present indicative, 3. pers. sg.

F. Selective etymological dictionary

**dveis-ti* (full grade)

→ *dvêš-ti* (**DIPH**)

→ *dvêš-ti* (**RUKI**)

→ *dvêš-ti* (**CerD**)

The infinitive *dvêš-tum* and the PPP *dviš-ta* (zero grade) can be explained in very much the same manner.

2. **RUKI** and **SIB** 2. line

3. *a-dvêť* is regular:

**e-dveis-t* (full grade)

→ *e-dvêš-t* (**DIPH**)

→ *e-dvêš-t* (**RUKI**)

→ *a-dvêš-ť* (**CerD**, *aā*)

→ *a-dvêť* (**AFP**)

4. The perfect forms *di-dvêš-a* (strong form) and *di-dviš-us* (weak form) present no problems (see pp. 203).

← IE root **dveis*

dviš may well be related to *dvis/dvi* (“twice”). Compare NHG “sich entzweien” (“to fall out with”).

F.5.3. *dh*

dhan 3. class: *da-dhan-ti* (“to run, to bear fruit”)

dhanya (“rich”)

← IE root **dhenh*₂

→ OGr. B *eu-thanasia* (see *su*), *thanatology* (with euphemism “to run away → to die”)

~ Lat. B *foun-tain*

dham 1. class: *dham-a-ti* (“to exhale”)

dhmā (“to exhale”). Consequential of *dham*, see pp. 82. By schwebeablaut (floating vowel gradation), one postulates the two IE full grades **dhemH* and **dhmeH* → *dhmā*.

dhmā-kāra (“blacksmith”)

← IE root **dhemH*

dhā 3. class: ***da-dhā-ti*** (“to set, to put”)

dhā-tar m. (“founder, preserver, fate”), see p. 107

śrad-dhā (“belief, trust”), see s.v. *śraddhā*

sva-dhā (“custom, home”) ← *sva* + *dhā*

dvi-dhā (“twofold”)

vi-dhā (“to distribute, to determine”) with

◇ *vi-dhi* m. (“regulation, method, rite”)

◇ *vi-dhêya* (“to be determined”), gerundive

◇ *vi-dhêyam* (“duty, obligation”)

<i>dhā</i> (“to set, to put”)		
present indicative	<i>da-dhā-ti</i> (1)	<i>da-dh-a-ti</i> (2)
infinitive	<i>dhā-tum</i> (3)	
PPP	<i>hi-ta</i> (4)	
future	<i>dhā-sy-a-ti</i> (3)	<i>dhā-sy-a-n-ti</i> (3)
imperfect	<i>a-da-dhā-t</i> (1)	<i>a-da-dh-us</i> (5)
perfect	<i>da-dh-âu</i> (6)	<i>da-dh-us</i>
root aorist	<i>a-dhā-t</i>	<i>a-dh-us</i>
desiderative	<i>dhi-t-s-a-ti</i> (7)	

1. The sg. *da-dhā-ti* is a strong form (in full grade) and originates from IE **dhe-dheh₁-ti* by **DA**
2. In contrast, the pl. *da-dh-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). Compare *bi-bhr-a-ti* ← **bi-bhr-ṇ-ti* or *da-d-a-ti* ← **de-dh₃ṇ-ti* (**Lar__CH**: the laryngeal drops between consonant *d* and vowel *ṇ*).
3. The infinitive and the future show expected full grade.
4. For the PPP *hi-ta*, remember
 - ◇ occasionally, word initial *dh* → *h* (p. 50) and

F. Selective etymological dictionary

◇ **Lar__V** between consonants

5. In imperfect pl., see the expected zero grade, as in *a-da-d-us* from *dā* (“to give”).
6. The perfect *da-dh-âu* exhibits 3. pers. sg. ending *âu*, just as *ta-sth-âu* from *sthā* (see p. 207).
7. The desiderative (see pp. 136) is formed by reduplication with *i*, zero grade and suffix *s*:

**dhi-dhh₁-s-*
 → *dhi-dh-s-* (see **Lar__V**)
 → *dhi-d-s-* (**ASh**, but *s* not aspiratable)
 → *dhi-t-s-* (**BA**) → *dhi-t-s-a-ti* he wishes to set

An also regular (!) alternative desiderative *didhiṣati* exists, where the laryngeal does not drop:

**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. ind. 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”. Instead, 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**)
 → u.at. *da-d-dhê* (**DA**)

However, proportional analogy produced

<i>dā</i>	with 3. pers. sg. pres. ind. ātm.	<i>dat-tê</i> ← * <i>dad-tê</i>
just as		
<i>dhā</i>	with 3. pers. sg. pres. ind. ātm.	<i>dhat-tê</i>

Alternatively, one may surmise that a laryngeal somehow prevented **ASh** to affect the *tê*-ending.

← IE root **dheh*₁ (“to put”)

→ OGr. *ti-thē-mi* (**OGR**, **OGR_DA**)

- ◇ with *k*-extension (archaic) B *apothecary* (B German *Apotheke*), B German *Bibliothek*, *Theke* (“counter, bar”)
- ◇ with other extensions *thesis* and *theme*
- ◇ OGr. *ēthos* in B *ethics* (**OGR_DA** twice, **OGR_DA**) ← IE **s(v)edhus* (see s.v. *svadhā*)

~ Lat.

- ◇ *facere* (“to make, to do”) with B *af-fect*, *perfect*, *efficient*, *deficit*, *fak-simile*, *dif-ficult*, *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*) with B *division*, *dividend*
- ◇ B *multi-fa-rious*, compare OI *dvi-dhā*

~ Fr. *façon*, hence English *fashion*

~ Germ.

- ◇ E *to do* ~ NHG *tun*
- ◇ E *deed* ~ NHG *Tat*
- ◇ ending E *-dom* ~ NHG *-tum* in *Christen-dom/Christen-tum*

See also *dhê*.

dhū 5. class: *dhū-nô-ti*/6. class: *dhuvatī*/(“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

→ OGr. B *thyme*

~ Lat. B *fume* (**LAT_f**), *per-fume*, Fr. *par-fumé* (“perfumed”)

~ Germ.

- ◇ E *deer* ~ NHG *Tier* (“animal”, semantically similar *animal* s.v. *an*)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

- ◇ 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”)/Ved. **dhār-man** m. (“upholder”)

← IE root **dher* with *m*-extension

→ OGr. *thr-onos* (“throne”) with B *throne*. A chair or throne holds and keeps the person sitting on it. Compare

- ◇ OGr. *thr-ono* (“throne”) ← IE **dhr-ono*

- ◇ OGr. *khr-ono* ← IE **ghr-ono* with OGr. *kr-ono* (“cutting”) ← IE **kr-ono* (s.v. *carman*)

See unpublished paper by Kulikov and see p. 131.

~ Lat. B *firm* (**LAT__f**), to *con-firm*, *firm-ament*

dhṛṣ 5. class: **dhṛṣṇôti** (“to dare”)

← IE root **dhers*

→ E to *dare* (but **not** NHG *trauen*, see *dāru*)

dhê 1. class: **dhayati** (“to suck, to slurp”)

dhênā, **dhênu** f. (“milk cow”)

dhātrī (“nurse”), but see *dhātar* s.v. *dhā*

gôdhā (“sucking cows” → name for a kind of lizard), for first part see *gô*

← IE root **dheh₁-i* (*i*-extension of IE **dheh₁* s.v. *dhā*, here baby is put to mother’s breast)

→ Lat. (**LAT__f**)

- ◇ B *fe-cundity*
- ◇ B *fe-licity*
- ◇ B *fe-minine*
- ◇ *fi-lius* (“son”)
- ◇ B *fe-tus*
- ◇ B *fe-llatio*

dhyā 4. class: **dhyā-ya-ti** (“to think, to contemplate”)

dhyā 2. class: **dhyā-ti** (“to think, to contemplate”)

dhyā-nam (“meditation”) → Pa. *jhāna* → *Zen* (buddhism)

Traditionally *dhyāy-a-ti* is considered a 1. class verb from root *dhyāi*. But it is better considered a consequential of *dhī*, see pp. 82. By schwebeablaut (floating vowel gradation), one postulates the two IE full grades **dheiH* and **dhyeH* → *dhyā*.

dhru-ti f. (“leading astray, corruption, deception”)

← IE root **dhreu*

→ Lat. B *frau-d* (**LAT_f**)

F.5.4. *n*

na (“not, no”)

← IE **ne*, full grade of IE **n̥* (see alpha privativum *a*)

→ Lat. *ne* in B *ne-gative*, to *ne-gate*

→ Lat. *neque* ~ OI *na ca* (“and not”) ← IE **nek^we* (see *ca*)

~ NHG *nie* (“never”) ← IE **ne + i* (deictic particle, see *iha*)

naktam (“at night”)

← IE **nok^wt*

→ Lat. B *noct-urnal*

~ E *night* ~ NHG *Nacht*

nagna (“naked, bare”)

← IE **no-g^w-no*

→ difficult: OGr. *gymnos* with OGr. B *gymnastics*

~ with a dental suffix

◇ Lat. B *nude*

◇ E *naked* ~ NHG *nackt*

F. Selective etymological dictionary

nap-tar m. (“grandson”)

← IE **nepot* (“male descendant other than son”)

→ Lat. B *nepotism*

~ Germ.

◇ E *nephew* ~ NHG *Neffe*

◇ E *niece* ~ NLG *Nichte* ← IE **neptī* f. (with *cht* for Germ. *ft*, as in Dutch *gracht* s.v. *grabh*)

It is thought that IE **ne-pot* might mean “not master → minor” (see *pati*).

nabh 1. class: **nabhatê** (“to burst”)

nabh-as n. (“sky, mist”)

← IE root **nebh*

→ Lat. *nebula* with B *nebulous*

~ NHG *Nebel* (“fog”)

nabhya (“nave”)

← IE **h₃nebh*

→ Lat. B *umbilicus*

~ E *nave* ~ NHG *Nabel*

nara (“man”)

nārāyaṇa (epithet for Viṣṇu, “going to a man, going to something human”?) with second part *ayana* (s.v. *i*)

sūnara (“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*

→ OGr. B *neo-liberal*, *Neolithic* (**OGR**)

~ Lat. *novus* (**LAT_V**) with B *nov-ice*, *re-nov-ate*, *in-nov-ate*, *nov-elty*

~ 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 perish”)

naṃs-ṭum, p. 112 (**Ns**, **CerD**)

naṣṭa PPP (**CerD**)

← IE root **h₂ne(n)k̑*

→ OGr. 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: **nasatê** (“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 s.v. *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 to *nourish*

nāsā (“nose”)

← IE **Hneh₂-s*

→ E *nose* ~ NHG *Nase*

F. Selective etymological dictionary

nas enclitic gen./dat./acc. (“us, our”)

← IE **nas*

→ Lat. B *paternoster* (“lift” where the cabins are like the pearls on a rosary)

~ Germ. E *us* ~ NHG *uns* ← IE **ns* (IE_SY_N, NHG_E)

nāga (“snake”)

← IE root *(*s*)*nēgo*/*(s)nōgo* (*s* mobile)

→ E *snake*

nāman n. (“name”) (Lo), see pp. 247

← IE **nomn*

→ OGr. *o-nomastic* with difficult word-initial *o*

~ Lat. *nōmen* (long *ō* by “wrong” levelling with (*g*)*nō*, see *ĵnā*) with B *nominal*

~ E *name* ~ NHG *Name*

ni (“down, into”)

ni-tarām adv. (“down from, completely”)

ny-ac (“directed downward”) ← *ni-añc*, see *añc*

ny-ag-rôdha-pāda-pa (“fig tree”) ←

◇ *nyac*

◇ + *rôdha* (“climbing, growing”, but here *dh* instead of *h*, see *rudh* 1. class)

◇ + *pāda* (“foot”, see *pad*)

◇ + *pa* (“drinking”, see *pā*)

nyak kṛ (“to humiliate”)

nyag bhū (“to debase oneself”)

nī 1. class: **nayati** (“to lead”)

sênā-nī-s m. (“army general”)

grāma-ñī-s m. (“village leader”)

agra-ñī-s m. (“leader”)

← IE root **neyH*

The three agent nouns *sênā-nī-s* 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, the *marut* endings are obtained in many cases:

<i>sênānīs</i> m.	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>sênā-nī-s</i> (1)	<i>sênā-ny-âu</i> (4)	<i>sênā-ny-as</i> (4)
	voc.	<i>sênā-nī-s</i> (2)	<i>sênā-ny-âu</i> (4)	<i>sênā-ny-as</i> (4)
	acc.	<i>sênā-ny-am</i> (3)	<i>sênā-ny-âu</i> (4)	<i>sênā-ny-as</i> (3)
	instr.	<i>sênā-ny-ā</i> (5)	<i>sênā-nī-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>sênā-nī-bhis</i> (4)
	dat.	<i>sênā-ny-ê</i> (5)	<i>sênā-nī-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>sênā-nī-bhyas</i> (4)
	abl.	<i>sênā-ny-as</i> (5)	<i>sênā-nī-bhyām</i> (4)	<i>sênā-nī-bhyas</i> (4)
	gen.	<i>sênā-ny-as</i> (5)	<i>sênā-ny-ôs</i> (4)	<i>sênā-ny-ām</i> (5)
	loc.	<i>sênā-ny-ām</i> (6)	<i>sênā-ny-ôs</i> (4)	<i>sênā-nī-ṣu</i> (4)

1. Observe nom. sg. marker m./f. here in *sênā-nī-s*, in contrast with nom. sg. *nadī*.
2. The voc. sg. equals the nom. sg. *sênā-nī-s*, while short *i* is seen in 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 instr. sg. *sênā-ny-ā* versus *nady-âi* and four other forms.
6. The loc. sg. is the feminine form *sênā-ny-ām* instead of **sênā-ny-i*, which would presumably turn into *sênā-nī*.

nīdam (“nest”) (see *sad*)

← IE **nizdo*

→ E *nest*

nīda (and very similarly *mīdha*) can be explained by a series of sound laws:

F. Selective etymological dictionary

- 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** 2. line)

nu 1. class: **nâu-ti** (“to praise”)

← IE root **neHu*

→ Lat. *nuere* (“to nod”) with B *innuendo*

nu belongs to the class of Narten verbs. See pp. 178 for a suggestion of how to explain *nâu-ti* versus *nu-mas*.

nūnam (“now”)

← IE **nu*/**nū*

→ E *now* ~ NHG *nun*

nâu f. (“ship”)

← IE **neh₂-u*

→ OGr. *nautēs* m. (“seefarer”), OGr. B *nautical*, *Nautilus* (fictitious ship in novels by Jules Verne)

~ Lat. B *nav-ig-ation* (for second part, see *aj*)

ny-ā-ya (“rule, norm”, one of the six philosophical systems)

naiy-ā-yi-ka (“relating to *nyāya* philosophy”). See p. 104 and see **Lg_Ry** on p. 25.

F.6. Labial stops and nasal

F.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”)

pak-va (“cooked, ripe”) is difficult PPP

← IE root **pek^w*

→ Lat.

◇ *coquus/cocus* (“cook”) (assimilation *p..k^w* → *qu..qu*, similar to *quinque*, s.v. *pañca*) with B English *cook* ~ NHG *Koch* (**NHG_C**)

◇ *prae-cox* (“premature”), B to con-*coc*-t

◇ B English *kitchen* ~ NHG *Küche*

pañca (“five”)

B **punch** (“drink with 5 components”)

← IE **penk^we* (← *penk-k^we* (“and five”), see *pank-ti* and *ca*)

→ OGr. 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^{mt}* (**CpLdk^{mt}**)

← *penk^we* (“five”) + *dk^{mt}* (“tenners”), see *pañca* and *daśa*.

Compare *viṃśati*.

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*

F. Selective etymological dictionary

- ◇ *penna* (“feather”) ← IE **pet-neh*₂. In Germany, 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*.

~ E *feather* ~ NHG *Feder*

pati m. (“lord, husband”)

gô-pati m. (“lord of cows, ruler, bull”), for first part, see *gup* s.v. *gô*

← IE **poti*

→ OGr. B *despot* ← **dems poti* (“lord of the house”, for first part see *dam*)

~ Lat. *pot-esse* and B *potent*, *potential*

See *na-ptar*. See also

◇ *pr̥thvī-pati* s.v. *pr̥thu*

◇ *bṛhas-pati* s.v. *bṛh*

◇ *vanas-pati* s.v. *vanam*

pad 4. class: **pad-ya-atê** (“to go”)

pad m. (“foot”)

pāda m. (“foot, chapter, verse”) with

◇ **pāda-pa** (“foot drinker → tree”), for second part, see *pā* (“to drink”)

◇ **pāda-ja** (“śūdra”). In the *puruṣa* hymn (*puruṣasūkta*, see *sūkta* s.v. *vac*) from the Ṛgveda, the four social classes are said to derive from the Man (*puruṣa*), who is split into four different parts. The brahmin (*brāhmaṇa* s.v. *bṛh*) stems from the mouth, the ruler (*rājanya* s.v. *raji*) from the arms, the freeman (*vaiśya* s.v. *viś*) from the thighs, and the servant (*śūdra*) from the feet. For the second part, see *jan* (“to be born”) and pp. 145.

◇ **pāda-rajās** (“dust at the feet”)

← IE **pod*/**ped* (two dialectal variants)

→ OGr. B (with *o*-grade) *anti-pode*, *podium* (with Lat. ending), *polyp* ← OGr. *poly-pous* (for first part see *pṛ̥*)

~ Lat. B (with *e*-grade) *ped-al*, *pedi-curist* (for second part see *sicher*, p. 75), *pedestrian*, *centi-pede* (for first part see *śatám*), *ex-ped-ition*, *im-ped-iment*

~ E *foot* ~ NHG *Fuß*

panth m. (“path”) with declension

<i>panth-an/panth m.</i>	case	sg.	dual	pl.
	nom.	<i>panth-ās</i> (2)	<i>panth-ān-âu</i> (1)	<i>panth-ān-as</i> (1)
	voc.	<i>panth-ās</i> (2)	<i>panth-ān-âu</i> (1)	<i>panth-ān-as</i> (1)
	acc.	<i>panth-ān-am</i> (1)	<i>panth-ān-âu</i> (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-ôś</i> (3)	<i>path-ām</i> (3)
	loc.	<i>path-i</i> (3)	<i>path-ôś</i> (3)	<i>path-i-ṣu</i> (4)

1. On the basis of the stem *panth-an*, 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 are formed like *rāj-an*.

2. Nom. and voc. sg. *panth-ās* is difficult. While \bar{a} can be explained by compensatory lengthening, one would expect *panth-ā-n* or *panth-ā*.
3. On the basis of the stem *panth*, by **SY_N**, one obtains the weak forms before vowel-initial endings as seen in instr. sg. *path-ā*.
4. *path-i-bhis* may be explained similar to *sthita*, where the laryngeal is responsible for both *i* and the aspiration. Originally, one might have a form like *pat-i-bhis*, where the laryngeal between consonants would have produced *i*. Then, levelling would 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. 339)

not related are E *path* ~ NHG *Pfad*

pari (“around”)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

← IE **peri*

→ OGr. B *perimeter*, *periphery* (see *bhr*)

~ Lat. *per* as in *pay-per-view*, *per se*

pard 1. class: **pardatê** (“to fart”)

← IE **perd*

→ E to *fart* ~ NHG *furzen*

paśu m. (“cattle”)

← IE **peḱu*

→ Lat.

◇ *pecus* (“cattle”)

◇ *pecūnia* (“wealth”) with B *pecuniary*

◇ *pecūlium* (“money in possession”) with B *peculiar*

~ E *fee* ~ NHG *Vieh* (“cattle”)

paś-ya-ti with OI root *drś*

← IE root *(*s*)*peḱ* (*s* mobile)

→ OGr. 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”)

gô-pā m. (“herdsman, cow protector”)

← IE root **peh*₂

→ Lat. *pāstor* (“shepherd”) with B *pastor*

pā 1. class: **pibati** (“to drink”)

$p\bar{a}$ (“to drink”)		
present indicative	$pi-b-a-ti$ (1)	$pi-b-a-n-ti$ (1)
infinitive	$p\bar{a}-tum$ (2)	
PPP	$p\bar{i}-ta$ (3)	
future	$p\bar{a}-sy-a-ti$ (2)	$p\bar{a}-sy-a-n-ti$ (2)
imperfect	$a-pi-b-a-t$ (1)	$a-pi-b-a-n$ (1)
perfect	$pa-p-\hat{a}u$ (4)	$pa-p-us$ (5)
root aorist	$a-p\bar{a}-t$	$a-p-us$ (5)
desiderative	$pi-p\bar{a}-s-a-ti$	$pi-p\bar{a}-s-u$

1. $pi-b-a-ti$ is a reduplicated form, somewhat similar to $ti-ṣṭh-a-ti$. From the IE root $*peh_3$, one obtains

$*pi-ph_3-eti$ (reduplication with i and zero grade)
 $\rightarrow *pi-b-eti$ (**Lar** CH: h_3 makes p voiced)
 $\rightarrow pi-b-ati$

Similarly, observe the imperfect $a-pi-b-a-t$.

2. The long- \bar{a} forms $p\bar{a}-tum$ and $p\bar{a}-sy-a-ti$ are both regular full-grades from the same IE root $*peh_3 \rightarrow p\bar{a}$.
3. $p\bar{i}-ta$ 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** V. The same explanation may hold for the passive $p\bar{i}-y-at\hat{e}$.
4. See section D.2, pp. 203.
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 $*peh_3/*peh_3i$

→ OGr. B *symposium* (with Lat. ending)

~ Lat.

◇ B (magic) *potion*

◇ B German *Pokal* (“cup, trophy”)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

pāśa (“snare, noose”)

← IE **peh₂k*

→ Lat. *pax* (“peace”) and B *pact*

~ NHG *fügen* (“to join”), *Fuge* (“joint, seam”), *be-fug-t* (“authorised”) (**VER**)

pika (“Indian cuckoo”) (**sP(h)**)

← IE **spiko*

→ NHG *Specht* (“woodpecker”)

pitar m. (“father”)

pitr-vya (“father’s brother”)

← IE **ph₂tér*

→ OGr. *patér* with B *patriot*, *patriarch* (clear indication of *h₂*, see pp. 20)

~ Lat. B English *patron*, *patrician*, German *Patrone* (“cartridge”)

~ E *father* ~ NHG *Vater* (**VER**)

Connection with *pā* (“to protect”) unclear.

piś 6. class: **piṃś-a-ti** (“to adorn”)

← IE root **pei(n)k*

→ Lat. B *pig-ment*, *pic-ture*

pī (“to become fat”)

pyā (“to swell”). Consequential of *pī*, see pp. 82. By schwebeablaut (floating vowel gradation), one postulates the two IE full grades **peiH* and **pyeH* → *pyā*.

pī-van (“swelling, fat”) (z.g.)

pay-as n. (“milk”) (f.g.), see p. 106

← IE root **peiH*

pīd 1. class: **pīdatê** (“to pinch, to oppress”)

Either from OI root *piš* ← IE **pis* (s.v. *piš*, 7. class) with *d*-extension
or from *pi-sd* ← *pi* (preposition) + *sd* (zero grade of *sad*)

In any case:

- pisd-etoī*
- *pizd-etoī* (**sz** before voiced stop)
- *pizd-etoī* (**RUKI**)
- *pi-žd-atê* (**CerD**)
- *pīd-atê* (**CpLz** 2. line)

Compare *sīd-ati* (p. 85) and *nīda* (dictionary).

putra (“son”) (**rl**), uncertain

pāutra (“related to one’s son, grandson”)

← IE **pu-tló*

→ OGr. B *pe-dagogue*

~ Lat. B *puerile*

~ E *foal* ~ NHG *Fohlen*

pumant (“male, man”)

← IE difficult

→ Lat. B *puberty*

puš 1. class **poš-a-ti** (“to thrive, to flourish”)

← IE **peus*

→ Lat. B *pustule*

pū 9. class **pu-nā-ti** (“to clean”), see pp. 93

← IE root **peuH*

→ Lat. *pūrus* with B *pure*

F. Selective etymological dictionary

pūrva (“front, former”)

← IE **pr̥vo*/**pr̥mo*

→ E *former*

pr̥ 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*

→ OGr. B *pore* and *porous* (both via Latin), PN *Bos-porus* (“ford of the cow”)

~ Lat. B to *deport*, to *export*, to *report*, *port*,

~ Germ.

◇ without dental extension:

- NHG *fahren* (“to drive”)/*Fuhre* (“load”)/*führen* (“to lead”)
- E to *fare*/*farewell*

◇ with dental extension:

- E *ford* ~ NHG *Furt*
- towns E *Oxford* (England) ~ NHG *Ochsenfurt* (near Würzburg, Germany)

prt (“to battle”)

prt f. (“battle, contest”)

← IE root **per-t* (“to press”)

→ Lat. B to *express*, to *compress*, *impression*

pr̥thu (“wide, large”) (**Lar** **CH**)

pr̥thvī/**pr̥thivī** (“earth, land”), also in

◇ **pr̥thvī-pati** m. (“king”)

◇ **pr̥thvī-talam** (“earth, ground”)

← IE **pl̥th₂v-ih₂*

→ OGr. (via Lat.) B *plate*

pṝ 9. class: **pṛṇāti** (“to fill, to fulfill”) (**rl**)

pūrṇa PPP (p. 127) ← IE **plh₁-no* (**Lar_SY**)

pur f. (“plentitude”) with inst. pl. **pūrbhis**

puru (“much, plenty”) (**Lar_CH**) ← IE **plh₁-v*

prā (“to fill”). Consequential of **pṝ**, see pp. 82. By schwebeablaut (floating vowel gradation), one postulates the two IE full grades **pelh₁* and **pleh₁* → **prā** (**rl**).

← IE root **pelh₁*

→ OGr. 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 *plus*

~ Germ.

◇ E *full* ~ NHG *voll*

◇ E *folk/folklore* ~ NHG *Volk* (“people”)

plu 1. class: **plav-a-tê** (“to swim, to float”)

plava (“floating, boat”) (**V+SV**)

← IE root **plh₁ev* (*v*-extension from **pelh₁*, s.v. **pṝ**)

→ Lat. B *pluv-ial* (“rainy”)

See *klôman*.

pra (“before, in front of”), without **Lo** because *o* is word-final here

prāc (“directed forward, eastern”), see *añc*

prāk (“in front, in the east”)

prātar (“early in the morning”)

pra-bhu m. (“lord, master”), see p. 147

← IE **pro*

→ OGr. B *pro-biotic*, *pro-hecy* (see *bhan*), *pro-phylactic*

~ Lat. B *pro-verb*, *pro-test*, *pro-duct*

F. Selective etymological dictionary

~ NHG *ver* as in *ver-laufen* (“to go astray”)

pracch 6. class: **pr̥cchati** (“to ask”)

On the one hand:

◇ full grade nouns **praś-na** (“question”) and, with **CerD**, **praṣ-ṭar** (“questioner”)

◇ zero-grade PPP **pr̥ṣ-ṭa**

← IE full grade **prek* (“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 *sk* suffix: zero-grade **pr̥cchati** (**CC1**, **SIB**)

← IE zero grade **pr̥k-sk*

→ NHG *er-forsch-en* (“to research”) (**IE_SY_L**)

Besides, one has full grade **pracchā** (“inquiry”) ← IE full grade **prek-sk*-. Compare *murchā* s.v. *m̄*.

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”).

← IE *preti*

→ Lat. *pretium* (“reward, prize”) with B *precious*

praś-na (“basket-work, a plaited basket”) (**rl**)

← IE root **plek*

→ Lat. B *com-plex*, *im-plic-ation*

~ NHG *flechten* (“to weave, to plait”)

See also s.v. *pracch*.

prī 9. class: **prīṇāti** (“to please, to love”)

prīya (“beloved, dear”) (**V+SV**)

← 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”)

pl̥han m. (“spleen” as in “liver and spleen”), difficult

← IE **spleǵh*

→ OGr. B *spleen*

pluʃi m. (“insect”)

← IE **plus*

→ E *flea* ~ NHG *Floh*

F.6.2. *ph*

phêna (“foam”) (*sP(h)*)

← IE *(*s*)*poi* (*s* mobile)

→ Lat. B *spume*

~ E to *foam*

F.6.3. *b*

bandh 9. class: ***badh-nā-ti*** (“to bind”)

bandh-u m. (“relative”)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

<i>bandh</i> (“to bind”)		
present indicative	<i>badh-nā-ti</i> (2)	<i>badh-n-an-ti</i> (2)
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)

- 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 forms like infinitive *bad-dhum*, which should be in full grade. By **SY_N**, the PPP shows correct zero grade. As in *bud-dha* from *budh* (“to be awake”), witness the effect of both aspiration laws **DA** and **ASh**.
- badh-nā-ti* is modelled on verbs like *pu-nā-ti* (“he cleans”), see pp. 93.
- Similar to
 - ◇ *bhôt-sy-a-ti* ← IE **bheudh-s* from *budh* (“to be awake”) or
 - ◇ *dhôk-ṣy-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**.
- The desiderative forms exhibit **DA**, not in the main syllable, but in the reduplication syllable. Irregularly, the desiderative employs the full grade.
- 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. 203).

← IE root **bhendh*

→ E to *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*

balam (“strength, power”)

bāla (“strong one → boy”)

← IE **belo*

→ Lat. B *de-bil-ity*

bah-u (“much, many”) (z.g., **DA**, **PPal**)

← IE **bhengh* (“dense”)

→ OGr. *pakhus* (“thick, plumb”) (**OGR** 1. line, **OGR_DA**) 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”). After all, the arm is a forelimb.

budh 1. class: ***bôdhati*** (“to be awake”)

<i>budh</i> (“to be awake”)		
present indicative	<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-ī-t</i> (6)	<i>a-bôdh-iṣ-us</i> (6)
desiderative	<i>bu-budh-i-ṣ-a-ti</i> (7)	<i>bu-budh-i-ṣ-u</i> (7)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

1. The origin is IE **bheudh*. The full grade shows OI *ô* (**DIPH**) and Grassmann's **DA**.
2. The infinitive is regularly in full grade. The *i* does 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 **dhugh-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* remains (no **DA** possible).
5. The perfect forms are *ātmanêpada* and hence weak (pp. 203).
6. *a-bôdh-ī-t* is an *iṣ*-aorist which can be clearly seen from the pl. *a-bôdh-iṣ-us*. For "thematic" *ī* see section D.3, pp. 213.
7. Desiderative *bu-budh-iṣ-a-ti* shows *i* borrowed from *sêt* roots.

← IE root **bheudh*

→ Lat. *fidēs, fideī* ("trust, credit, belief") in

◇ "*defensor fideī*" ("defender of faith"), a title for the English kings

◇ B *fideli*, *dif-fid-ent*, to *con-fide*, to *de-fy*, *faith*

~ E to *bid* ~ NHG *bieten* ("to bid, to offer")

budh-nam ("depth, ground") (**DA**)

← IE **bhudh-no*

→ Lat. *fundament* (**LAT__f**), *fundī-tas* ("from the bottom", see s.v. *tas*), and *pro-found*, where *n* and *d* are interchanged (as in Lat. *unda*, see *udan* s.v. *ud*)

~ E *bottom* ~ NHG *Boden* ("ground"), where both E *tt* and NHG *d* are unclear

Perhaps, *budhnam* is related to *budh*.

br̥h 6. class: ***br̥h-a-ti*** ("to grow, to increase") (**DA**)

br̥h-as-pati m. ("lord of the prayer"), where *br̥has* is gen. sg. of a root noun ***br̥h***, see *vanam*

bṛh-ant pres.P (“thick, large, abundant”)

pari-bṛḍha (“firm, dense”) PPP (compare p. 124)

brah-man n. (“the absolute”)/*brah-man* m. (“the creator god”) (from u.at. *barh-man* by a sound law similar to **MET_rSP?**)

brāhmaṇa m. (“priest, brahmin”)

← IE root **bherh*

→ Lat. B *for-titude* (**LAT_f**)

F.6.4. *bh*

bhaj 1. class: *bhajati* (“to divide, to allot”)

bhag-a (“wealth, happiness”)

bhag-inī (“sister”)

bhak-tī f. (“allotment, division, love, devotion”)

bhāg-a (“part”)

bhikṣ 1. class: *bhikṣ-a-tê* (“to wish to share, to beg”), originally a desiderative (p. 140)

← IE root **bheg*

→ OGr. B bacterio-*phage*

~ NHG *Backe* (“eater → cheek”)

bhan 1. class: *bhanati* (“to speak”), later form *bhaṇ*

← IE root **bheh₂*/**bhen*

→ OGr. B (**OGR**)

◇ *blas-phemy*, where the origin of the first part is dubious, but has lead to Fr. *blâmer*, whence German *blamieren* (“to disgrace oneself”)

◇ *eu-phemism*, where OGr. *eu* ~ OI *su*

◇ *a-phasis* with alpha privativum (p. 69)

◇ *prophet*

◇ *phone, phonetics, phoneme*

~ Lat. B (**LAT_f**)

◇ *fame, famous, in-famous*, where Lat. *in* ~ OI *a* ~ E *un*

F. Selective etymological dictionary

- ◇ *fate* (“spoken by gods → destiny”), *fatal*. Via Fr.: English *fairy*, German *Fee* (“fairy”) and *ge-feit* (“immune”)
- ◇ *fable*, *fabulous*
- ◇ *profession*, *professor*
- ◇ *in-fant*, *in-fantile* (“who does not speak → baby”, semantically compare *puerile* s.v. *putra*), *infantryman* (“child → boy → foot soldier”)

~ Germ.

→ E *ban* ~ NHG *Bann*

~ Fr. *banal*

~ It. *bandito*

See *bhā*.

bhas 3. class: **ba-bhas-ti** (“chew”) with 3. pers. pl. **ba-ps-a-ti** (nearly parallel to *bi-bhr-a-ti* from *bhr̥*)

psā 2. class: **psāti** (“to devour”) ← IE **bhs-eH* (consequential, see pp. 82)

← IE root **bhes*

bharg-as n. (“radiance, lustre”) (**rl**)

← 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 **bh-eH(s)*

→ OGr. B *phenomenon*, *photo*, *phos-phor* (“which carries light”, for second part see *bhr̥*)

~ NHG *bohnern* (“to make shiny → to polish (the floor)”)

Although semantically a difficult connection, *bhā* might be a (third-group) consequential of *bhan* (see pp. 82).

bhid 7. class: **bhi-na-t-ti** (“to split”)

bhin-na PPP (p. 118)

bhid-ra (“thunderbolt”), see pp. 130

← IE root **bheid*

→ Lat. B *fissure*, *fission* (**LAT_f**, **LAT_DD**)

~ Germ.

◇ E *bite* ~ NHG *Biss*

◇ E *bitter* ~ NHG *bitter* (p. 76)

bh̄i 3. class: **bi-bh̄e-ti** (“to be afraid”)

bhay-a-m (“fear, danger”)

bi-bh̄i-vans/bi-bh̄i-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** (“to enjoy, to consume”) (**SPal**)

bhōg-a (“enjoyment, suffering”)

bhōg-in m. (“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** (“to bend, to make crooked”)

bhōg-a (“expanded hood of a snake, snake”)

bhōg-in m. (“snake”)

← IE root **bheug*

→ OGr. 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 *to bow* ~ NHG *biegen* (“to bend”)

◇ E *elbow* ~ NHG *Ellenbogen*

F. Selective etymological dictionary

bhū 1. class: *bhavati* (“to be”)

punar-bhū f. (“remarried widow”)

bhū f. (“earth”)

pra-bhu m. (“lord, master”), see p. 147

a-bhva (“not being (good) → monstrous, powerful”) ← IE **n̥bhv-o*, see p. 147

<i>bhū</i> (“to be”)		
present indicative	<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-n-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 (**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 produces long *ū* in zero grade.
4. **DA**, see p. 138.
5. *ba-bhūv-a* is irregular. The “correct” form is **bu-bhav-a* ← IE **bhu-bhovH-e*, with reduplication vowel *u* and with full grade. Note that **Lo** would not apply because the syllable is not open (two consonants *v* and *H*).

← IE root **bheuH*

→ OGr. B *physics*

~ Lat.

◇ B *future* (**LAT__f**), *super-b*, *fiat* money

◇ *probus* (“excellent, good”) ~ OI *prabhu* (p. 147)

~ Germ.

◇ E *to be* ~ NHG (ich) *bin*/ (du) *bist* (“I am/ you are”)

◇ NHG *bauen* (“to build), *Bauer* (“farmer”)

bhūrja (“birch”) (PPal)

← IE **bherǵH*

→ E *birch* ~ NHG *Birke*

bhūṣ 1. class: ***bhūṣati*** (“to strive after”), perhaps desiderative of *bhū* (p. 138) without reduplication?

bhr̥ 1. class: ***bhar-a-ti***/3. class: ***bi-bhar-ti*** (“to carry”)

← IE root **bher*

→ OGr. B

◇ *peri-phery*, where first part is cognate with OI *pari*

◇ *meta-phor*

◇ PN *Christo-pher* (with Lat. ending *Christo-phorus*)

◇ *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 to *bear*

◇ E *bier* ~ NHG *Bahre* (“stretcher”)

◇ NHG *ge-bären* (“to give birth”), *Zu-ber* (“tub”), *Ge-bär-de* (“gesture”)

bhr̥ṣ-ti f. (“point, edge”)

← IE root **bhers*

→ E to *burst* ~ NHG *bersten*

F. Selective etymological dictionary

bhrātar m. (“brother”)

← IE **bhrāter*/**bhr-eh₂-ter* (see IE **bher* s.v. *bhr*)

→ Lat. B to *fraternise*, *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*”.

bhrū (“eyebrow”)

← IE root **bhrevh₁* (or similarly)

→ Lat. *frōns* (compare **CpLs**), *frontis* (**LAT__f**) with B *front*, to *con-front*

~ E *eyebrow* ~ NHG *Augenbraue*

F.6.5. m

majj 6. class: **majjati** (“to sink into”)

← IE root **mesg*

→ Lat. B to *merge* (**LAT__sr**)

madhu n. (“sweet drink, honey”)

← IE **medhu*

→ OGr. B *methane*

~ E *mead* ~ NHG *Met*

madhya (“middle”)

← IE **medhyo*

→ OGr. B *Mesopotamia* (“between two rivers”)

~ Lat. B *medium*, *media*, *medi-ocre* (second part s.v. *aśri*)

~ E *mid*, *middle* ~ NHG *Mitte*, but **not** NHG *mit* (“with”)

man 4. class: **manyatê** (“to think”)

man-as n. (“mind”)

mnā 2. class: **mnāti** (“to mention”) ← IE **mn-eh₂*. Consequential of *man*, see pp. 82 and 70

ma-ti f. (“thought, mind”) (**SY_N**)

a-mati f. (“not knowing, poverty”). Someone is considered poor because he is not thought of, or not borne in mind, by human or divine benefactors.

a-mnas adv. (“without thinking → immediately, unawares”)

← IE root **men*

→ Lat.

◇ *mēns* (compare **CpLs**), *mentis* with B *ment-al* and *de-ment-ia*

◇ (reduplicated) *me-min-ī* (“to remember”) with B *me-mory*, *com-me-moration*

◇ B (causative) *de-mon-stration*, *mon-strance*

~ E *mind*

See *amati*, *amnas*

mahi (“great”), used in Vedic as an adj. in nom. and acc. sg. n.

mahant (“great”), pp. 238

← IE **meǵh₂* (p. 56)

→ OGr. 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.

mā 3. class: **mi-mā-ti** (“to measure”)

pra-māṇam (“proof”)

anu-mānam (“inference”)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

← IE root **meh*₁

→ OGr. B English *me-ter* (via French *mètre*), *geometry*

~ Lat. B *meas-ure*, *di-mens-ion*, *im-mense* (“unmeasurable”, see p. 69)

~ NHG *l*-extension *ma-l* (“from time to time”), *Ma-l* (“moment”) ← OHG *māl* ← IE **meh*₁-*lo*

See *mās*.

māṁsa (“meat”) (*Ns*)

← IE **meh*₁(*n*)*s* (“body part”)

→ Lat. B *member*

mās m. (“moon, month”)

← IE **meh*₁(*n*)*s*

→ Lat. *mēnsis* (“month”) ← IE **meh*₁-*n*-*s* with B *menstruation*, *se-mester* (for first part, see *ṣat*), *tri-mester* (for first part, see *trayas*)

~ Germanic languages use related forms for the two meanings:

◇ E *moon* ~ NHG *Mond*

◇ E *month* ~ NHG *Monat*

mātar f. (“mother”)

← IE **meh*₂*tér*

→ Lat. B *maternity*

~ E *mother* ~ NHG *Mutter*

As in *pitar*, the IE accent follows the *t* so that **VER** applies.

mīth 1. class: ***mēthati*** (“to meet, to quarrel”)

← IE root **meith*₂

→ 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*

miś (“to mix”)

miś-ra (“mixing, diverse”), see pp. 130

miś-la (“mixing, diverse”) (*rl*)

mi-mik-ṣ-u (“desiring for mixing”) (**SIB** line 3)

On the one hand, the above words

← IE root **meik̑*

On the other hand, with *śk̑* suffix, *micch* as in pres.P *micchamāna* (**SIB** thirdlast line)

← IE zero grade **mik̑-sk̑* (**SIB**)

→ Lat. *misc-ere* (“to mix, to blend”) with B *to mix, mixture, pro-misc-uity*, B 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**, thirdlast line.

mih 1. class: *mêh-a-ti* (“to urinate”) (**SPal**)

mih f. (“mist, haze, fog”)

mêgh-a (“cloud”)

← ie. root **meigh*

Compare *mīdha*.

mī 9. class: *mī-nā-ti* (“to lessen, to diminish”)

← IE root **meih₁*

→ Lat. B *mi-nus, mi-nute, di-mi-nish, mi-nister*

mīdham (“wage, price”)

← IE **mīzdho*

→ E *meed* ~ NHG *Miete* (“rent”)

mīdha (and very similarly *nīda*) can be explained by a series of sound laws:

IE **mīzdho*

→ *mīzdho* (**RUKI**)

→ *mīzdha* (**CerD**, *aā*)

→ *mīdha* (**CpLz** 2. line)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

mādhā might be a PPP of *mih* (“to urinate”). One would regularly have

◇ IE **mīgh-to* → *miz-dho* → *mādhā* just as

◇ IE **liǵh-to* → *liz-dho* → *lādhā* (p. 123)

Perhaps, rain as a price for sacrifice? However, above the IE root **meigh* is postulated for *mih*, which would produce the PPP u.at. *mig-dha*.

māv 1. class: ***māvatī*** (“to move”) ← **mih₁v-e-ti*

mūta in ***kāma-mūta*** (“strongly affected by love”) from u.at. *myūta* ← **myuh₁-to* (**Lar_MTh**)

← IE root **meih₁v*

→ Lat. B to *move*, *movement*, *mobility*

See *div* and *siv*.

māsa (“mouse”)

← IE **muHs*

→ E *mouse* ~ NHG *Maus*

mṛ 1. class: ***marati***/4. class: ***mri-ya-tê*** (“to die”) (p. 23)

← IE root **mer*

→ OGr. B *a-mbr-osia* with OGr. alpha privativum *a* (p. 69). *b* has been introduced in order to facilitate pronunciation.

~ Lat. B *mor-tal*, *mor-bid*, to *amortise* (“to make dead → to redeem a loan”)

~ E *murder* ~ NHG *Mord*

See *mār-ay-a-ti* on p. 36. See *mṛ* with laryngeal extension.

mṛd 1. class: ***mardati***/9. class: ***mṛdnāti*** (“to press, to destroy”) (**rl**)

mṛd f. (“mud, clay”)

mṛdu (“soft, mild”)

← IE root **meld*

→ Lat. B German

- ◇ *a-Moll* (“A minor”)
- ◇ *mollig* (“chubby”)

mṛ 9. class: **mṛṇāti** (“to bruise, to smash”)

mlā (“to wither”). Consequential of **mṛ**, see pp. 82. By schwebeablaut (floating vowel gradation), one postulates the two IE full grades **merh₂* and **mreh₂* → **mlā** (**rl**).

On the one hand, **mṛṇāti** ← IE **mṛ-ne-h₂-ti* (**Lar**__**V**)

← IE root **mer-h₂* (*h₂*-extension of **mer*, see *mṛ*)

→ Lat.

- ◇ *mora* (“delay, lapse of time”), see law of morae on p. 58
- ◇ *mor-tārium* (“bowl, mortar”) with B English *mor-tar*, German *Mör-ser* (“mortar”) and *Mör-tel* (“mortar, grout”)

~ NHG *mürbe*, *morsch*

On the other hand, **mūrchā** f. (“delusion, fainting”), with *sk̑* suffix

← IE zero grade **mṛh₂-sk̑* (**Lar**__**SY**, **SIB**)

Compare *pracchā* (s.v. *pracch*).

F.7. Semivowels

F.7.1. *y*

yaj 1. class: **yajati** (“to sacrifice”)

iṣ-ta PPP (**RUKI**)

iṣ-ti f. (“offering”)

ṛtv-ij m. (“offering at the right time → priest”) ← *ṛtu* (“time of year, right time”, see *ar*)

+ z.g. of *yaj*

← IE root **Hyeǵ*

→ OGr. B *hag-iography*

yam 1. class: **yacchati** (“to hold, to restrain”)

On the one hand:

F. Selective etymological dictionary

◇ full grade noun **yam-a** (“restraining”)

◇ zero-grade PPP **ya-ta**

← IE full grade **Hyem*

On the other hand, **yacchati** with *sk̑* suffix:

← IE zero grade **ym̑-sk̑* (SIB)

Compare *iṣ*, *icchati* (“to wish”), *gam*, *gacchati* (“to go”), and *pracch*, *ṛcchati* (“to ask”).

yama/yamala (“a twin, one of a pair or couple”)

← IE root **yemH*

→ Lat. B *geminare*, with analogical *g* from *genus* (s.v. *jan*)

yā 2. class: **yā-ti** (“to go”), consequential of *i*, see pp. 82

← IE **h₁i-eh₂*

→ Lat. *iānus* (“doorway”, name of a god) with B *janu-ary*

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”)

◇ **ava-yava** (“part”), see *ava*

← IE root **yeu*

On the other hand, zero-grade **yu-ccha-ti** with *sk̑* suffix:

← IE zero grade **yu-sk̑* (SIB)

Compare *iṣ*, *icchati* (“to wish”), *gam*, *gacchati* (“to go”), *pracch*, *ṛcchati* (“to ask”), and *yam*, *yacchati*.

yu 2. class **yâuti**/9. class **yunâti** (“to unite, to mix”)

yūṣa (“soup, broth”) ← IE **yHu-Hs-o*

← IE root **yeHu*

→ OGr. B *en-zy-me*

yu belongs to the class of Narten verbs. See pp. 178 for a suggestion of how to explain *yâu-ti* versus *yu-mas*.

yuj 7. class: ***yu-na-k-ti*** (“to yoke”)

yugam (“yoke”)

yôga (“yoking”)

a-yôg-û (“girl without brothers (and sisters)”), see alpha privativum on p. 69

← IE root **yeug*

→ Lat. B *junction*, *adjunct*, *conjugation*, Spanish and Portuguese *junta* (“council, meeting”)

~ E *yoke* ~ NHG *Joch*

yuv-an m. (“youngster”), declension on p. 247

yuv-at (“young”)

yav-īyans (comparative, “younger”)

yav-iṣṭha (superlative, “youngest”)

yuv-aśa (“young”)

← IE **yuv*

→ Lat. B *iuvenile*

~ E *young* ~ NHG *jung*

F.7.2. *r*

ratha (“charriot”)

← IE **rotH*

→ Lat. B *rotate*

~ NHG *Rad* (“wheel”)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

raji f. (“line, direction”)

rājanya (“ruler”), see s.v. *pad*

rājan m. (“king”), declension on p. 245

rāṣṭram (“kingdom”)

← IE **reǵ* (“to extend in a straight line, to direct”)

→ Lat. *regere* (“to direct, to guide”) and *rēgula* (“line, rule”) with B

◇ PN *Regina* from Lat. *rēgīna* (“queen”)

◇ B 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. 77)

◇ B German *reg-ieren* (“to govern”), *Reg-el* (“rule”), *Reg-isseur*

~ NHG *richtig* (“correct”), *recht* (“right”)

~ Germanic, but of Celtic origin: E *rich* ~ NHG *reich*, German *Reich* (“kingdom”), PNs *Heinrich*, *Richard*

randhra (“vent, cavity”) (**rl**)

← IE **londh-r-o*/IE **londh-v-o*

→ Lat. *lumbus* (“hips, loins”) with B *loins*

~ NHG *Lenden* (“loins”)

ric 7. class **ri-ṇa-k-ti** (“to empty, to leave behind”) (**rl**)

← IE root **lei(n)k^w*

→ Lat. B *de-liqu-ent*, *re-lic*

~ Germ.

◇ E to *loan* ~ NHG *leihen* (“to borrow, to lend”), *Darlehen* (“loan”)

◇ E *loan* word ~ NHG *Lehnwort*

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 to *run* ~ NHG *rinnen* (“to flow, to trickle”)

ru 2. class: **râuti** (“to cry, to roar”)

rava (“roaring”)

with dental extension: **rud** 2. class: **rôditi** (“to cry, to roar”), **rud-ra** (“terrible, crying”)

← IE root **h₃reHu*

→ lat B *rumour*

ru belongs to the class of Narten verbs. See pp. 178 for a suggestion of how to explain *râu-ti* versus *ru-mas*.

ruc 1. class: **rôcatê** (“to shine, to please”) (**rl**)

← IE root **leuk*

→ OGr. B *lynx*, *leuk-emia*

~ Lat. B *Lucifer* (“carrier of light” → PN of angel, see *bhṛ*), *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 *lôka*.

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*

F. Selective etymological dictionary

râi 1. class: **rāyati** (“to bark”) (**rl**)

← IE root **leh₂(y)*

→ Lat. B to *la-ment*

It is unclear whether it might be better to postulate a root *rā*, just as *trā* (s.v. *tṛ*)

râi f. (“possession, wealth”), declension on p. 256 (with very complicated details in Lubotsky (1995))

rāyas-kāma (“desirous of property”) with gen. sg. (!) *rāyas*

← 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

F.7.3. /

laghu (“small”)

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: **lēdhi** (“to lick”)

<i>lih</i> (“to lick”)		
present indicative	<i>lē-ḍhi</i> (1)	<i>lih-an-ti</i> (3)
infinitive	<i>lē-ḍhum</i> (1)	

<i>lih</i> (“to lick”)		
PPP	<i>lī-d̥ha</i> (1, 2)	
future	<i>lêk-ṣy-a-ti</i> (4)	<i>lêk-ṣy-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> (7)	
desiderative	<i>li-lik-ṣ-a-ti</i> (8)	

1. *lê-d̥hi* is to be explained by

IE* *leiǵh-ti* (full grade)
 → *lêǵh-ti*
 → *lêǵ-d̥hi* (**ASh**)
 → *lêz-d̥hi* (**sz** before voiced stop)
 → *lêz-d̥hi* (**RUKI**)
 → *lêz-d̥hi* (**CerD**)
 → *lê-d̥hi* (**CpLz** 5. line, with *ê* already long)

The infinitive follows a similar development.

2. Along very similar lines, observe the PPP

IE **liǵh-to* (z.g. with PPP marker *to*)
 → *liǵ-d̥ha* (**ASh**)
 → *liz-d̥ha* (**sz** before voiced stop)
 → *liz-d̥ha* (**RUKI**)
 → *liz-d̥ha* (**CerD**)
 → *lī-d̥ha* (**CpLz** 2. line)

3. Although athematic, 3. pers. PRII exhibit *an*. This holds for all verbs in the 2. class (except *sās*, see 177).
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., consider

F. Selective etymological dictionary

IE **e-leiǵh-t* (full grade with IE preterite augment)

→ *a-lêǵ-dh* (**ASh**)

→ *a-lêz-dh* (*sz* before voiced stop)

→ *a-lêz-dh* (**RUKI**)

→ *a-lêz-dh* (**CerD**)

→ *a-lê-dh* (**CpLz** 5. line, where *ê* is already long)

→ *a-lê-t* (**AFP**, p. 47)

6. *li-lêh-a* is par. and hence regularly strong (pp. 203). *li-lîh-us* is *ātm.* and hence regularly weak.

7. Difficult lengthening of root vowel, but the same phenomenon is evident in *a-mū-muc-a-t* (p. 214).

8. *li-lik-š-a-ti* is expected desiderative in zero grade.

← IE root *(*s*)*leiǵh* (*s* mobile)

→ E *lick*

~ NHG *lecken* and also *schlecken* with *s* mobile (p. 49)

lī 9. class: *lināti*/4. class: *lī-ya-tê* (“to nestle, to stick to, to hide”)

li-lī-š-a-ti desiderative

lī-na PPP

← IE root **leiH* (“to hide oneself”)

→ perhaps E *lime* ~ NHG *Leim*

lū 9. class: *lunāti* (“to cut, to destroy”), see pp. 93

← IE root **leuH*

→ OGr. B ana-*ly*-sis

~ Lat. so-*lv*-ere (“to release”) with first part *so* ← *se* as in *sēcūrus* (p. 75), B English *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 (“place, earth”) (see *ruc*) from *o*-grade

← IE **louko*

~ PN *Waterloo*

Probably not related to Lat. B *local*.

F.7.4. v

vac 2. class: **vakti** (“to speak”), conjugation on p. 164

ukta PPP

sūktam (“well said, hymn”) ← *su* (“good”) + *ukta*

vāc f. (“word, voice”), declension on p. 232

← IE root **vek^w*

→ OGr. B *epic* (twice **OGR**)

~ Lat. B

◇ *English* to pro-*v*oke, ad-*v*oc-ate, *v*oc-ative, *v*owel, *v*oice

◇ German *Vogt* (“(dike) reeve”) ← Middle Lat. *vocātus*

vaj 1. class: **vajati** (“to get strong”)

vaj-ra (“the hard or mighty one”), see p. 131

ôj-as n. (“power”)

ôj-man m. (“strength, power”)

vāj-a (“fight, strength”)

← IE root **h₂veg*

→ Lat. B *vig*-orous, *veg*-etation, *veg*-ilant

~ E to *wake* ~ NHG *wachen* and causative *wecken*, *wacker* (“brave”) (p. 76)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

Difficult. Palatal *j* in *ôjas* (s.v. *ukṣ*) explainable by **SPal** and *ôjman* then by levelling. *vajra* and *vāja* would need to be explained by levelling from *vajati* and other forms. Alternatively, one might work with an IE root **h₂veǵ*, but then *ug-ra* (s.v. *ukṣ*) would not be related.

vadhū (“bride, daughter in law”)

← IE root **vedh* (“to pledge (a girl for marriage)”)

→ 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* ~ NHG *gewinnen*, NHG *Wonne* (“bliss”), *wohnen* (“to reside”), PN *Winfred*, *Erwin*

See *vāñch*.

vanam (“forest”)

van consonantal noun (“tree, wood”), hence with genitive *vanas in*

vanas-pati m. (“lord of the forest, tree”), see *pati*

vanâukas, see *ôkas* and **VS** line 5

vam 1. class: **vamiti** (“to vomit”)

← IE root **vem*

→ Lat. B to *vomit*

vas¹ 2. class: **vastê** (“to clothe”)

← IE root **ves*

→ Lat. B to *invest*, *investiture* and German *Weste*

~ E to *wear*

*vas*² (“to shine”), probably the same as *uṣ*.

uṣ-as f. (“dawn”) ← IE **Hvs-es*

ucchati f. (“dawn”) ← IE **Hu-sk̑-* (SIB thirdlast line)

← IE root **Hves*

*vas*³ 1. class: *vasati* (“to live, to be”)

uṣita/uṣta/vasita PPP

vat-sy-a-ti future, SIB 1. line

← IE root **h₂ves*

→ E *was*

~ NHG *ge-wes-en* (“been”)

vah 1. class: *vahati* (“to drive, to bring”)

anad-vah n. (“ox, draught animal ← pulling a cart”) with first part *anas* (difficult cerebralisation)

<i>vah</i> (“to drive”)		
present indicative	<i>vah-a-ti</i>	<i>vah-an-ti</i>
infinitive	<i>vôḍhum</i> (2)	
PPP	<i>ū-ḍha</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)
<i>s</i> -aorist	<i>a-vāk-ṣī-t</i>	<i>a-vāk-ṣ-us</i>
desiderative	<i>vi-vak-ṣ-a-ti</i> (3, 6)	

1. The IE root of *vah* is **veǵh*. *ū-ḍha* is regular by

IE **uǵh-to* (z.g. with PPP marker *to*)

→ *uǵ-dha* (A*Sh*)

→ *uz-dha* (**sz** before voiced stop)

→ *uz-dha* (R*UKI*)

→ *uṣ-ḍha* (C*erD*)

→ *ū-ḍha* (C*pLz* 3. line)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

2. The infinitive *vôḍhum* is not quite regular. One should have obtained

IE* *veǵh-tum* (full grade and infinitive marker *tum*)

→ *vaǵ-dhum* (**ASh**)

→ *vaz-dhum* (*sz* before voiced consonant)

→ *vô-dhum* (**CpLz** 1. line., pp. 53)

Here, levelling from regularly formed PPP *ū-dha* is responsible for *vôḍhum*, 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 **VS** line 1, the reduplicative vowel *u* combines with the same vowel from the zero-grade root to produce *ū*.

6. Irregularly strong desiderative.

← IE root **veǵh* (“to carry”)

→ Lat. B *veh*-icle, *vec*-tor, *con*-*ve*x

~ NHG *weg* ~ E *a-way* ← OE *onweg*

~ E *way* ~ NHG *Weg*

~ E *weigh* ~ NHG *wiegen*

~ NHG *be-weg-en* (“to move”), *Wagen* (“carriage”), *Wiege* (“cradle”), *Woge* (“wave”)

See *ūh* (“to carry, to modify”).

vā 2. class: *vāti* (“to blow”)

vāta (“wind”), see *vātāyanam* s.v. *i* (“to go”)

vāyu m. (“wind”)

← IE root **h₂veh₁*

→ Lat. B *velocity*, to *ventilate*

~ NHG *wehen* (“to breeze, to blow”)

vā 6. class: **vā-ya-ti** (“to be dry, to be extinguished”)

nīr-vāṇa (“extinguished, extinction”)

ū-na (“empty, deficient”), z.g. PPP, see pp. 118. *ūna* known from *ūna-viṃśati* (“20 - 1 = 19”)

← IE root **h₁veh₂*

→ Lat. B *vane*, *vanity*

Traditionally *vāy-a-ti* is considered a 1. class verb from root *vāi*.

vāñch 1. class: **vāñchati** (“to wish”) with analogic insertion of *n* (otherwise **vā* by **Lar_SY** and with **SIB** thirdlast line)

← IE **vnH-ské* (“to like, to get used to”)

→ E to *wish* ~ NHG *wünschen*

vār n. (“rain”)

← IE **veh₁r* (“water”)

← Lat. B *ur-ine*

viṃśati (“twenty”) f., not dual (for first part, see *dvi*)

← IE **dvi-dk_mt-ih₂* (“two tenners”), with IE dual ending *ih₂* (p. 224)

Compare *pañcāśat*. *ṃ* in *viṃśati* difficult.

vid 2. class: **vêṭ-ti** (“to know”)

vêḍānta (“end of Vedic literature”), see *anta*

vind 1. class: **vind-a-ti** (“to find”)

← IE root **vei(n)d*

→ OGr. B *idea*, *ideology* by **OGR**

~ Lat. B *video*, Lat. B *visa* (requirements) from Lat. *visus* (“seen”)

~ Germ.

◇ Swedish *vetenskap* ~ NHG *Wissenschaft* (“science”)

◇ E *wise* ~ NHG *weise*

F. Selective etymological dictionary

◇ NHG *gewiss* (“certainly”), *bewusst* (“consciously”)

vêda (“he knows”), an old “perfect” (with stative meaning, not with a temporal one) without reduplication

vid-va(n)s, perfect active participle, again without reduplication, see p. 244

vidhavā (“widow”)

← IE **vidhevā*

→ E *widow* ~ NHG *Witwe*

vip 1. class: *vêpatê* (“to tremble, to be excited”)

vip-ra (“excited, wise, learned brahmin”) (p. 130)

vêp-anam (“trembling”)

← IE root **veip*/**veib* (difficult)

→ Lat. B *vibr-ant*

viś 6. class: *viśati* (“to enter”)

viś f. (“house, people”) z.g., see pp. 115

vâiś-ya (“man of the people: merchant, agriculturalist, or trader”) f.g., see s.v. *pad*

← IE root **veik*

→ OGr. B *economics* (**OGR**)

~ Lat. *vīcus* (**LAT_V**) (“village”) and hence Fr. *voisin* (“neighbor”) and B English *vicinity*

viśam (“poison”)

← IE **veis*

→ Lat. *vīrus* (**LAT_V**, **LAT_sr**) (“venom, poison”)

◇ B *virus*

◇ B *virulent*

vīra (“man”)

← IE **vīr-o*

→ Lat. B *vir*-ile, trium-*vir*-ate (for first part see *trayas*)

~ E *were-wolf* ~ NHG *Werwolf*, NHG *Wergeld* (“expiation money” in Germanic law)

vr̥ 9. class: **vr̥ṇātê** (“to choose”) (**rl**)

vara (“choice, boon”)

← IE root **velh*₁

→ Lat. B bene-*vol*-ent (for bene see s.v. *diś*), *vol*-untary

~ Germ.

◇ E *will* ~ NHG *wollen* (“to want”), *Wille* (“will, intention”), *Will-kür* (“arbitrariness”) (for second part, see s.v. *juṣ*)

◇ NHG *Wahl* (“choice, election”)

vr̥ka (“wolf”) (**rl**)

← IE **wlk*^w*o* (**SY_Conf**)

→ 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 turn away, to exclude”)

vr̥k-ta PPP (“excluded”)

varg-a (“division, group”)

← IE root **verg*

→ Lat. B to di-*verge*, to con-*verge*, on the *verge*

vr̥t 1. class: **vartatê** (“to turn, to roll, to be”)

← IE root **vert*

→ Lat. B *vertical*, *versus*, *verse*. Regarding the last two words, **LAT_DD** is responsible for *rtt* → *rss*. Finally, *rss* gets simplified to *rs*.

~ NHG *werden* (“to become”), *Wurm* (“worm”)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

vy-adhi-karaṇa (“subsisting or inhering in different receptacles”)
vaiy-adhi-karaṇ-ya-m (“fact of *vy-adhi-karaṇa*”). See **Lg_Ry** on p. 25.

vy-arth-a (“useless”)
vaiy-arth-ya-m (“uselessness”) (**Lg_Ry**)

vy-ā-karaṇa-m (“grammar”)
vaiy-ā-karaṇa (“grammatical”) (**Lg_Ry**)

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* (**IE_SY_L**)

F.8. Sibilants

F.8.1. ś

śams 1. class: *śamsati* (“to declare, to recite”)

← IE root **śens*

→ Lat. B *census*, *ensorship*, *censure*

śanik 1. class: *śanikatê* (“to doubt, to hesitate”)

← IE root **kenk*

→ Lat. *cunctāri* (“to be slow, to hesitate”)

~ E *to hang* ~ NHG *hängen* and also NHG *Verhängnis* (“doom”), *Hängepartie* (“adjourned game”)

śatām (“hundred”)

← IE **śmtóm* ← IE **dkmtóm* (“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. (**Lo**)

← 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 B *cap-sule*

◇ Lat. *dē-cip-ere* with B to *de-ceive*

◇ Lat. *re-cip-ere* with B to *re-ceive*

◇ B *inter-cep-t*, to *ac-cep-t*, *cap-able*

◇ B *prin-cip-al*, *parti-cip-ation*, *parti-cip-le*

~ Germ.

◇ E to *heave* ~ NHG *heben*

◇ E to *have* ~ NHG *haben*

◇ NHG *Haf-t* (“imprisonment”), also *sündhaft* (“sinful”) and *wahrhaftig* (“truthful”)

śaraṇam (“protection”) (**rl**)

śarman n. (“shelter”)

āśāra (“shelter”)

śara (“skin on milk → fresh butter”)

śālā (“hall, large room”)

← IE root **kel* (“to cover, to hide”)

→ OGr.

◇ B *cal-yx*, *eu-cal-yptus* (“well-hidden calyx” → name of a tree) (first part see *su*)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

- ◇ B *apo-cal-ypse* (“uncovering, revelation, end of the world”, part of the bible), first part see *apa*

~ Lat.

- ◇ *cella* with B English *cell* and

- German *Keller* (“cellar”): early borrowing reflect pronunciation of Lat. *c* as *k*
- German *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 *Helm*, E *hall* ~ NHG *Halle*, NHG *Hehler* (“receiver of stolen goods”), *verhüllen* (“to cover”), PN *Wil-helm*, *Hel-mut*

śaśa (“hare”) (with OI forward assimilation $\acute{s}..s \rightarrow \acute{s}..\acute{s}$)

← IE **ǵasó* (“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 **ǵes*

→ Lat. B to *castrate*

śās 2. class: **śāsti** (“to teach, to rule”)

śāstram (“rule, manual, teaching”)

<i>śās</i> (“to teach”)		
present indicative	<i>śās-ti</i> (1)	<i>śās-a-ti</i> (7)
infinitive	<i>śās-tum</i> (1)	
PPP	<i>śiṣ-ṭa</i> (2)	
future	<i>śās-i-ṣy-a-ti</i> (4)	<i>śās-i-ṣy-a-n-ti</i> (4)
imperfect	<i>a-śāt</i> (5)	<i>a-śās-us</i> (3, 8)
perfect	<i>śa-śās-a</i> (1, 6)	<i>śa-śās-us</i> (3, 6)

<i>śās</i> (“to teach”)		
thematic aorist	<i>a-śiṣ-a-t</i> (2)	
desiderative	<i>śi-śās-i-ṣ-a-ti</i> (4, 9)	

The IE root **keHs* leads to

- ◇ the strong forms with *śās* (**Lar_V** 2. line)
- ◇ the weak forms *śis* (**Lar_V** 4. line) and, after applying **RUKI**, finally *śiṣ*.

However, the strong form is used several times where the weak form is expected.

1. The full grade is regularly present in some forms.
2. The zero grade is regularly present in other forms.
3. The 3. pers. pl. perfect and imperfect forms (*ś*)*a-śās-us* are irregularly strong.
4. Luckily, the desiderative and the future forms use “thematic” *i* (without laryngeal excuse).
5. In the 3. pers. sg. impf., **CCI** should produce sg. *a-śās* ← *a-śās-t*. Instead, we find *a-śāt*, formed by analogy, perhaps from *a-vêt* from *vid* (“to know”) which is regular.
6. The perfect forms use full grade, but irregularly so in 3. pers. pl.
7. *śās* is an exception within the 2. class with respect to pres. ind. par. 3. pers. pl.:
 - ◇ **no** thematic *a* in par. 3. pers. pl. form
 - ◇ strong form, compare 3
8. Impf. 3. pers. pl. *a-śās-us* is special in using the more rare ending *us* instead of (*a*)*n*.
9. The desiderative indicated in the table uses the strong form, against the general rule.

← IE root **keHs*

śiras n. (“skull, head”)

← IE **kerh₂*

→ Lat. B *cer-ebral*

~ NHG *Hir-n*

F. Selective etymological dictionary

Related to *śṛṅgam*.

śiva (“favourable”)

← IE **keivo* (“friendly, intimate, dear”)

→ Lat. B *civ-il*, *civ-il-isation*

Perhaps related to *śī*.

śī 2. class: *śêtê*/1. class: *śayatê* (“to lie, to sleep”)

śayu (“lying, taking a rest”)

śayyā (“bed”) gerundive

ā-śaya (“stay, sojourn”), *jalāśaya* (“stay of water → lake”)

← IE root **keyH*

→ 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*

śūnya (“empty”)

← IE root *keuh₁*

→ NHG *hohl*, but see s.v. *kulam*.

śṛṅgam (“peak, horn”)

← IE **kr̥no*

→ Lat. B *corner*

~ E *horn* ~ NHG *Horn* and furthermore NHG *Hirsch* (“who carries a horn → stag”)

Related to *śiras*.

śrad-dhā (“belief, trust”)

← IE **kr̥ed-dheh₁* (“to place in the heart → to believe”)

→ Lat. B *cred-it*, *cred-ible*, *cred-o* (literally 1. pers. sg.: “I believe”).

Compare *hřd* and also *dīvidere* s.v. *dhā*.

śri 1. class: **śrayati** (“to resort to, to lean”)

← IE root *klei* (which is *i*-extension of a root found s.v. *śar-aṇam*)

→ OGr.

◇ B *cli-max* (OGr. “ladder” → 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 **klī-ent-* (“leaning”), see *ab-s-ent* (p. 287)

◇ B *climate* (named after the position (inclination) of the sun)

◇ B with *v*-extension *pro-clip-ity*

◇ B with *n*-extension: *in-clip-ed*, *de-clip-ne*, *de-clip-n-ation*

~ Germ., where w.-i. IE *kr/kl* → E/NHG *r/l* (similar to Germanic words s.v. *śru*)

◇ with *n*-extension: E to *lean* ~ NHG *lehnen*

◇ E *ladder* ~ NHG *Leiter* (compare *climax* in this entry)

śru 5. class: **śrṇōti** (“to hear”) (see pp. 94) (**rl**)

śrav-as n. (“fame”)

śrō-matam (“fame, renown”), see *man*

ślōka (“verse, praise”)

← IE root **kleu*

→ Germ., where w.-i. IE *kr/kl* → E/NHG *r/l* (similar to Germanic words s.v. *śri*)

◇ E *loud* ~ NHG *laut*, *läuten* (“to ring, to toll”)

◇ NHG *lauschen* (“to listen”)

◇ NHG *Leumund* (“reputation”)

◇ NHG PN *Lud-wig* ← OHG PN *Chlod-wig* (“who is famous (in battles)”), the latter with reflex of IE *k*

F. Selective etymological dictionary

ślakṣṇa (“slippery, meagre, thin”), difficult: perhaps from *slakṣ*

← IE **slenǵ*

→ Lat. B *languid*, *lax*

~ E *slack*

śvan m. (“dog”), declension on p. 246

śvāna (“dog”) (from IE **kvóno* with **Lo**)

← IE **kvón*

→ OGr. B *cynic*

~ Lat. *canis* in the Lat. warning “cave *canem*” (“beware of the dog”)

~ E *hound* ~ NHG *Hund*

śvas 2. class: **śvas-i-ti** (“to hiss, to snort”)

śvāsa (“sighing, breathing”)

← IE root **kvēs*

→ Lat. *querī* (“to complain, to protest”) with B *querulous*

śvêta (“white”)

śvit-ra (“whitish, white leprosy”), see pp. 130

← IE root *kvēit*

~ E *white* ~ NHG *weiß*. Compare *lean* s.v. *śri* and *loud* s.v. *śru*.

F.8.2. ṣ

ṣat/ṣaṣ (“six”)

ṣôḍaśa (“sixteen”), see p. 51

← IE **svekís*

→ OGr. B *hexagon*

~ Lat. *sex* with B *sextet*

~ E *six* ~ NHG *sechs*

Note:

- ◇ For final consonant, see **AFP** (pp. 47).
- ◇ For initial consonant, see **SI** line 3 (p. 45)

stīv 1. class: **stīvati** (“to spit”)

← IE root **spieuh/*speiHu/*tspieuh* (various suggestions, unclear)

→ Lat. *PPP spūtum* with B *sputum*

~ E to *spew* ~ NHG *speien*

F.8.3. s

sakhi m. (“friend”) **Lar__CH**

← IE **sok^w-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”), *second* (part of a minute)

~ E to *see* ~ NHG *sehen* (i.e., “to follow with the eyes”)

See *o*-grade *sakhi*.

sad 1. class: **sīdati** (“to sit”) (p. 85 and *nīḍa*)

upa-ni-ṣad f. (according to one interpretation: “what is taught when sitting down and close to”, see *upa*)

vi-ṣāda (“sorrow”)

← IE root **sed*

→ OGr. B via Latin *cat-hedra* (**OGR**):

F. Selective etymological dictionary

- ◇ German *Kat-heder* (“lectern”)
- ◇ English *cathedral* (i.e., “a bishop’s seat”)
- ◇ Fr. *chaire* (“rocking chair”)

~ Lat.

- ◇ *sīdere* ~ OI *sīdati* (similar, but independent development)
- ◇ B *sed*-entary, *pre-sid-ing*, *re-sid-ing*
- ◇ *ses-sion*, *ob-ses-sion* (**LAT_DD**)

~ E to *sit* ~ NHG *sitzen*

san 8. class **sanôti** (“to obtain, to possess”)

sā-ta PPP (**Lar_SY**)

gô-ṣaṇi (“acquiring cattle”), for first part see *gô*

← IE root *senh₂*

→ Lat. B *sin-ister*

See *snā*.

sana (“old”)

← IE **seno*

→ Lat. B *senate*, *senator*

sap 1. class: **sapati** (“to worship”)

← IE root **sep*

→ Lat. B *sep-ulture*

sapta (“seven”)

← IE **septm*_o

→ OGr. *hepta* with B *heptagon*

~ Lat. *septem*

~ E *seven* ~ NHG *sieben*

sam (“together”)

← IE **sem* (“one”)

→ OGr. B *homo-sexual*

~ Lat.

◇ *sem*-per (“always”) with B *sempiternal* ← *semper* + *eternal*

◇ B *sim*-ilar, *sim*-ple

~ Germ.

◇ E *same*

◇ NHG *sam*-meln (“to collect”), *sam*-t (“including”), *sämtlich* (“all of them”)

◇ E *-some* ~ NHG *-sam*, both meaning “of same quality”, as in

- E *tire-some*, *whole-some*
- NHG *kleid-sam* (“becoming, flattering”), *gleich-sam* (“quasi”)

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*

→ OGr. B *holo-caust*, *holo-gram*

~ Lat. *salūs*, *salūtis* (“health, well-being”) with B to *salute* (i.e., “to wish health”), *safe*

~ NIr. *slān* (“good-bye”)

sā 4. class: **syati**, see *ava-sā*

sāmi (“in one → one of the two → half”)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

← IE **sēmi* loc. sg. (“in one”)

→ OGr. 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 (pp. 130)

sādh 1. class: **sādhati** (“to be successful, to lead to one’s goal”), regular causative in full grade

sādh-u (“able, noble, obedient”)

← IE root **seHdh*

sv 4. class: **sīv-ya-ti** (“to stitch”) ← **siHv-ye-ti*

syū-ta PPP (“bag”) ← **syuH-to* (**Lar_MTh**)

← IE root **seiHv*

See *div* and *mīv*.

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”)

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*)

sū 2. class: **sūtê** (“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 from *su* (“to press”)?

savi-tar m. (“activator, father”)

← IE root **seuH*

sū-kara (“pig”), see *kṛ*

← IE **suHs*

~ E *sow* ~ NHG *Sau*

sūnu m. (“son”)

← IE **sūnu*

~ E *son* ~ NHG *Sohn*

sṛ 1. class: *sar-a-ti* (“to go, to flow”) (**rl**)

← IE root **sel*, perhaps related to *u*-extension IE **srev* s.v. *sru*

→ OGr. *hal-ma* (a board game) (**OGR**)

~ Lat.

◇ *sal-īre* (“to jump”) with B *sal*-to via It.

◇ B *serum*

sṛj 6. class: *sṛj-a-ti* (“to throw, to create”)

sṛṣ-ṭi f. (“letting loose, creation”)

sar-ga (“letting loose, creation”)

← IE root **serǵ* or **serg*

Difficult because the forms point to either primary or secondary palatalisation:

◇ *sṛṣṭi* points to palatal IE *ǵ* and hence **PPal** by

IE **sṛǵ-to* (z.g. with PPP marker *to*)

→ *sṛs-to* (**sz** before voiceless cons.)

→ *sṛṣ-to* (**RUKI**)

→ *sṛṣ-ṭa* (**CerD**, *aā*)

◇ *sarga* ← IE **serg-o* versus *sṛjati* ← IE **sṛg-e-ti* provide a nice example of **SPal**.

sṛp 1. class: *sarp-a-ti* (“to crawl, to creep”)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

← IE root **serp*

→ OGr. B *herpes* (“spreading skin condition”)

~ Lat. B *serpent*

skand 1. class: **skand-a-ti** (“to jump”)

← IE root **skend*

→ Lat. B to *de-scend*, to *tran-scend*

stan 1. class: **stan-a-ti** (“to thunder, to hum”)

← IE root *(*s*)*ten* (*s* mobile)

→ Germ.

◇ with *s* mobile: NHG *stöhnen* (“to groan”) (see pp. 76)

◇ without *s* mobile: E to *thunder* ~ NHG *donnern*

starī (“a barren cow”)

← IE **ster*

→ Lat. B *ster-ile*

stigh 5. class: **stighnôti** (“to step, to mount”)

← IE root **steigh*

→ NHG *steigen* (“to rise, to increase”), *Steg* (“footbridge”)

stṛ 5. class: **strṇôti**/9. class: **strṇāti**, (“to spread”)

stṛṇa PPP

vi-stara (“extension, detail”)

← IE root **sterH*

→ OGr. B *a-stro*-logy, *a-stro*-nomy, *des-aster*

~ Lat.

◇ *stēlla* ← **stēr-la* with B *con-stella-tion*, *stellar*

◇ B *sub-stratum*

~ NHG *Stern* (“star”),

sthag 10. class: **sthagayati** (“to hide, to cover”)

← IE root **(s)th₂eg* (*s* mobile)

→ Lat.

◇ (B) *toga*

◇ *tēgula* (“tile”) → B English *tile*, NHG *Ziegel* (“brick”)

~ E *thatcher* ~ NHG *Dach* (“roof”)

See other instances of *s* mobile at *carman* and *lih*.

sthā 1. class: **tiṣṭhati** (“to stand”)

sthāman n. (“station, position, strength”)

ut-thāya gerund (“standing up”) (**DzD**)

sthi-ra (“steady, durable”), see pp. 130

sthūra (“strong”), see below s.v. *sthūra*

yudh-i-ṣṭhira PN with loc. case ending in compound

su-ṣṭhu adv. (“well”), see *su*

stiyā (“standing water”) (see 3 below)

<i>sthā</i> (“to stand”)		
present indicative	<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)

1. The IE root is **steh₂*. **DA** is not involved, but one obtains *tiṣṭhati* from

F. Selective etymological dictionary

- **ti-sth₂-e-ti* (reduplication with *i*, z.g. root, thematic vowel)
- **ti-sth-e-ti* (**Lar_CH**: *h₂* aspirates *t*)
- *ti-ṣth-a-ti* (**RUKI**)
- *ti-ṣth-a-ti* (**CerD**)

2. The aspirated OI root *sthā* is in full grade, as are infinitive *sthā-tum* and the future forms. The laryngeal **seems** to have caused both aspiration and lengthening of the vowel. However, IE **steh₂-sy-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-ṣtha-ti</i>	with aspirated <i>t̥</i>
turns into	<i>sthā-sy-a-ti</i>	with aspirated <i>t</i>

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.

3. Similar to the future form, *sthi-ta* also shows double reflex of the laryngeal (both **Lar_CH** and **Lar_V**). Without aspiration, see *stiyā* (“standing water”).
4. The perfect *ta-sth-âu* is similar to *da-d-âu* from *dā* (“to give”). See p. 207.
5. 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*
- ◇ B *status, station*

~ E to *stand* ~ NHG *stehen*

sthūra (“strong”)

sthūla (“big, fat”) (**rl**)

← IE **sth₂u-ro* (from IE **steh₂* s.v. *sthā* above), difficult

→ Lat. B *re-staur-ation*, to *restore*

~ NLG *stur* (“stubborn”)

snā 1. class: **snāti** (“to take a bath, to purify oneself”), consequential of u.at. *san* (or from *san* above, but then the original meaning has nothing to do with bathing, but with obtaining knowledge)

ni-ṣṇāta, **ni-ṣṇa** (“having plunged into → experienced”)

← IE root **sn-eh*₂

snāvan m. (“muscle, sinew”)

← IE **sneh*₁-*ur*/**sneh*₁-*ven*

→ OGr. B *neuron*, *neurology*

~ Lat. B *nervous* with metathesis *ur* → *ru*

snih 4. class: **snih-ya-ti** (“to stick, to adhere, to like”)

snig-dha PPP (“attached, lovely”)

snêh-a (“love, oil”) with unexpected **SPal** (why not *snêgh-a* as in *mêgh-a*, see p. 105)

← IE root **sneig*^w*h*

→ E *snow* ~ NHG *Schnee*

smi 1. class: **smay-a-tê** (“to smile, to laugh”)

smêra (“smiling”)

← IE root **smei*

→ Lat. *mīrus* (“laughter → remarkable”), also B *miracle*

spr̥h 10. class: **spr̥h-aya-ti** (“to long for, to desire intensely”) (**PPal**)

← IE root **sperǵh*

→ with nasal infix E to *spring* ~ NHG *springen*

sphāy 1. class: **sphāyatê** (“to grow large or fat”)

sphi-ra (“fat”) (**sP(h)**, *ra* adjective)

← IE root **speh*₁

→ Lat. *spēs* f. (“hope”) with Sp. *esperanza*

F. Selective etymological dictionary

~ Lat. B *pro-sper*, *pro-sper-ity*

srū 1. class: **srav-a-ti** (“to flow, to stream”)

← IE root **srev*, which is perhaps *u*-extension of IE root **sel* s.v. *sṛ*

→ OGr. B *rhy-thm*, *rheu-ma*

~ E *stream* ~ NHG *Strom*

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, by itself, unique”)

~ OIr. *féin* ← **sve-(de)sin* (“own, self”). *Sinn Féin* (“we ourselves”) is a political party in Ireland. See also NIr. *mo theanga féin* (“my own language”) s.v. *jihvā*

~ NHG *sich*

See *svadhā* and *svasar*.

svad 1. class: **svad-a-tê** (“to taste, to be sweet or pleasant to the taste”)

svād-u (“sweet”)

← IE root **sveh₂du* (with difficult to explain short *a* in *svad*)

→ OGr. B *hedonic* (**OGR**)

~ Lat. B *suave*

~ E *sweet* ~ NHG *süß*

svadhā (“custom, home”) ← *sva* + *dhā*

← IE **s(v)edhus*

→ OGr. *ēthos* in B *ethics* by IE *s* → OGr. *h* (compare s.v. *sapta*) → ∅ (**OGR__DA**)

~ NHG *Sitte* (“custom”)

svan 1. class: **svan-a-ti** (“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: **svap-i-ti** (“to sleep”)

← IE root **svep*

→ OGr. B *hyp-nosis* (**OGR**)

~ Lat. *somnus* (by *p* → *m* before nasal) with B *somnambulant*, *somniferous* (for second part see *bhr*)

svar 1. class: **svar-a-ti** (“to sound”)

svara (“sound, voice, vowel”)

su-svar-am adv. (“very sweetly”)

← IE **sver*

→ Germ.

◇ E to *an-swer* ← OE *and-swaru* (“to sound against”) ~ NHG *Antwort*

◇ E to *swear* ~ NHG *schwören*

svar (“the space above the sun”) ← IE **sh₂vel*, related to **sūrya** (“sun”) (**Lar_CH**, **rl**) ← IE **suh₂l-yo*

← IE **seh₂vel-*

→ OGr. B *helio-centric*

~ Lat. *sōl* (“sun”) in famous Neapolitan song: *o sole mio*

sva-sar f. (“the female own one, sister”), see *sva*

← IE **svesōr*

→ Lat. *sorōr* (by *sve* → *swo* → *so* as in *sonare*, see *svan*) with B *sorority*

F. Selective etymological dictionary

~ E *sister* ~ NHG *Schwester*

zero grade of *sar* serves as a feminine suffix as in f. nom. pl.

◇ *ti-sr-as* (“three”)

◇ *cata-sr-as* (“four”)

svāmīn m. (“master, owner”) ← *sva* + (perhaps) *amā* + *in* (see *amā*)

svīd 1. class: *svēd-a-tê* (“to sweat”)

← IE root **sveid*

~ E *sweat* ~ NHG *Schweiß*

F.9. Aspirant *h*

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. 145

vṛtra-han (“*Vṛtra* killer, *Indra*”) with Ved. nom. sg. *vṛtra-hā* (**CpL__an-in-ar**)

a-ghnyā gerundive: pp. 151 (“not to be killed → cow”)

hiṃsā (“violence”, see pp. 136)

<i>han</i> (“to hit”)		
present indicative	<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-ghāṃ-s-a-ti</i> (7)	<i>ji-ghāṃ-s-u</i> (7)

1. *han-ti* is regularly produced from IE **g^when-ti* (**SPal**). The strong form *han* is also seen in the infinitive.
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*. A second future form is *ham-sy-a-ti* (**NS**).
3. **SPal** does not occur before consonants. Thus, one finds (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__N**, because one should expect *gha-ta*, without **SPal**. Analogy with forms like *na-ta* (p. 119) or similar forms may be responsible.
5. Identical parasmâipada impf. 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 palatalisation because of IE root vowel *o* in strong perfect form.
7. There exist two different desideratives for *han* (“to kill”) ← IE **g^when*, depending on the suffix. See pp. 145.

← IE root **g^when*

→ Lat. B to *de-fen-d*

ham̐sa (“goose”) (**PPal**)

← 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”)

← IE **ǵen-u*

→ E *chin* ~ NHG *Kinn*

Perhaps, the basic meaning of IE **ǵenu/ǵonu* is “curve” and this word is the same as *jānu* (“knee”)? In any case, OI *h* here is as difficult to explain as OI *h* in *hṛd*.

hari/hiri (“golden, yellow”, name of Viṣṇu)

F. Selective etymological dictionary

← IE **ǵhelh*₃

→ OGr. B *chl-orine*

~ Lat. *helvus* (“yellow”) in the Lat. name for Switzerland: Confoederatio *Helvetica* (abbreviation: CH)

~ E *yellow* ~ *gelb*

hary 1. class: **haryati** (“to desire, to yearn after”) (PPal)

← IE **ǵher*

→ OGr. B *char-isma*

~ NHG *gern(e)* (“gladly, willingly”)

has 1. class: **has-a-ti** (“to laugh”)

jaks 2. class: Ved. **jaks̥iti** (“to laugh”), probably reduplicated form **ghe-ghs* (DA, SPal, SIB)

← IE root **ghes* (SPal)

hasta (“hand”)

← IE **ǵhes-/*ǵhes-r*

→ OGr. B *chir-urgy*

hima (“winter, snow”) with B *Himalaya* (PPal)

← IE **ǵheim*

→ Lat. B to *hi-bernate*

hu 3. class: **juhôti** (“to sacrifice”)

juh-ū (“ladle”)

<i>hu</i> (“to sacrifice”)	
present indicative	<i>ju-hô-ti</i> (3) <i>ju-hv-a-ti</i> (4)

<i>hu</i> (“to sacrifice”)		
infinitive	<i>hō-tum</i> (1)	
PPP	<i>hu-ta</i> (5)	
future	<i>hō-ṣy-a-ti</i> (2)	<i>hō-ṣy-a-n-ti</i> (2)
imperfect	<i>a-ju-hō-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-ṣī-t</i>	<i>a-hâu-ṣ-us</i>
desiderative	<i>ju-hū-ṣ-a-ti</i> (8)	<i>ju-hū-ṣ-u</i> (8)

1. From IE **ǵheu*, one regularly obtains the full-grade infinitive *hō-tum* by **DIPH** and **PPal**.
2. The future forms are also in full grade, with the application of **RUKI**.
3. The pres. ind. 3. pers. sg. *ju-hō-ti* is, of course, in full grade:

IE **ǵhu-ǵheu-ti*
 → *ǵu-ǵhō-ti* (**DA**)
 → *ju-hō-ti* (**PPal**)

Similarly, impf. sg.

4. *ju-hv-a-ti* (and, similarly, *bi-bhy-a-ti*) regularly reflect **SY_N** and **SV**.
5. The expected zero grade is present in PPP *hu-ta*.
6. As a peculiarity of the 3. class, the impf. 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 *bhī*.
7. *ju-hāv-a* is regular:

IE **ǵhu-ǵhou-e* (reduplication, *o*-grade)
 → *ǵu-ǵhou-e* (**DA**)
 → *ju-hov-e* (**PPal**, **SV**)
 → *ju-hōv-e* (**Lo**)
 → *ju-hāv-a* (**aā**)

By **V+SV**, pf. pl. *ju-huv-us* is regular.

F. Selective etymological dictionary

8. *ju-hū-ṣ-a-ti* shows irregular (but not isolated) long \bar{u} where the zero grade would be expected.

← IE root **ǵheu* and IE **ǵheud*

→ Lat. B *fondue*, *con-fus-ion*, *in-fus-ion* (**LAT__f**)

~ NHG *gießen* (“to pour, to water”)

hurch 1. class: *hūrchatī* (“to be crooked, to deceive”)

hūrchanam (“the act of going crookedly, crookedness”)

On the one hand, full-grade *hvar-as* n. (“crookedness, dishonesty”) ← IE **hwHer-es* (**Lar__CH**)

← IE root **hwHer*

On the other hand, *hūr-ch-a-tī*, with *sḱ* suffix

← IE zero grade **huHr-sḱ-e-ti* (**Lar__V**, **SIB**)

Compare *gam*, *gacchati*.

hū (“to call”)

hvā (“to call”). Consequential of *hū*, see pp. 82. By schwebeablaut (floating vowel gradation), one postulates the two IE full grades **ǵheuH* and **ǵhveH* → *hvā*.

← IE root **ǵheuH*

hr 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. *gr̥ham*)

hr̥d n. (“heart”) with mysterious OI *h*

su-hr̥d m./f. (“having a good heart → friend”)

← IE **ǵkerd*

→ OGr. B *cardiology*

~ Lat. *cor*, *cordis* with B English *dis-cord*, Fr. *cordialement* (“best regards”)

~ E *heart* ~ NHG *Herz*

See also *śraddhā*.

hr̥ṣ 1. class: *har̥ṣ-a-ti*/4. class *hr̥ṣ-ya-ti* (“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 *horrific* (for second part, see Lat. *facere* s.v. *dhā*)

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. *dēva*.

Bibliography

- Alfred Bammesberger, editor. *Die Laryngaltheorie*. Carl Winter, Heidelberg, 1988.
- Robert S. Beekes. *Comparative Indo-European Linguistics*. John Benjamins Publishing Company, 1995.
- Robert S. Beekes. *Etymological Dictionary of Greek*. Brill Academic Publisher, 2010. 2 volumes.
- Karl Brugmann. *Grundriss der vergleichenden Grammatik der indogermanischen Sprachen, Erster Band: Einleitung und Lautlehre*. Cambridge University Press, 2009. First published in 1886.
- Thomas Burrow. *The Sanskrit Language*. Motilal Banarsidass Publishers, 2001. First published in 1955.
- James Clackson. *Indo-European Linguistics*. Cambridge University Press, 2007.
- Michiel de Vaan. *Etymological Dictionary of Latin and the other Italic Languages*. Brill Academic Publisher, 2008.
- Madhav M. Deshpande. *A Sanskrit Primer*. Centers for South and Southeast Asian Studies, University of Michigan, 2007.
- Dudenredaktion. *Das Herkunftswörterbuch*. Dudenverlag, 4 edition, 2006.
- George E. Dunkel. *Lexikon der indogermanischen Partikeln und Pronominalstämme, Band 1*. Universitätsverlag C. Winter, 2014a.
- George E. Dunkel. *Lexikon der indogermanischen Partikeln und Pronominalstämme, Band 2*. Universitätsverlag C. Winter, 2014b.
- Thomas Egenes. *Introduction to Sanskrit, Part One*. Motilal Banarsidass Publishers, 4. edition, 2011.
- Thomas Egenes. *Introduction to Sanskrit, Part Two*. Motilal Banarsidass Publishers, 2. edition, 2012.
- Benjamin W. Fortson IV. *Indo-European Language and Culture*. Blackwell, 2004.

Bibliography

- Robert P. Goldman and Sally J. Sutherland Goldman. *Devavāṇīpraveśikā: An Introduction to the Sanskrit Language*. Motilal Banarsidass Publishers, 2011.
- Toshifumi Goto. *Old Indo-Aryan Morphology and its Indo-Iranian Background*. Verlag der Österreichischen Akademie der Wissenschaften, 2013.
- Walter Harding Maurer. *The Sanskrit Language*. Routledge, 2009.
- Oskar von Hinüber. *Das ältere Mittelindisch im Überblick*. Verlag der Österreichischen Akademie der Wissenschaften, 1986.
- Hans Henrich Hock. *Principles of Historical Linguistics*. Mouton de Gruyter, 2 edition, 1991.
- Friedrich Kluge. *Etymologisches Wörterbuch der deutschen Sprache*. Walter de Gruyter, 24 edition, 2002.
- Masato Kobayashi. *Historical Phonology of Old Indo-Aryan Consonants*. Tokyo University of Foreign Studies, 2004.
- Guus Kroonen. *Etymological Dictionary of Proto-Germanic*. Brill Academic Publisher, 2013.
- Leonid Kulikov. The Vedic root variants of the type CaC//C(C)ā: Morphophonological features and syntactic patterns. In Thomas Krisch and Thomas Lindner, editors, *Indogermanistik und Linguistik im Dialog*, 310–320. Reichert Verlag, 2011.
- Leonid Kulikov. Indo-Aryan. In Mate Kapović, editor, *The Indo-European Languages*, 214–262. Routledge, 2 edition, 2017.
- Martin Joachim Kümmel. *Urindoiranische Grammatik*. Verlag der Österreichischen Akademie der Wissenschaften, 2014.
- Romano Lazzeroni. Sanskrit. In Anna Giacalone Ramt and Paolo Ramat, editors, *The Indo-European Languages*, 98–124. Routledge, 1998.
- Alexander Lubotsky. Reflexes of intervocalic laryngeals in sanskrit. In W. Smoczynski, editor, *Kurylowicz Memorial Volume. Part One*, 213–233. Universitas, Cracow, 1995.
- Alexander Lubotsky. The phonology of Proto-Indo-Iranian. In Brian Joseph Jared Klein and Matthias Fritz, editors, *Handbook of Comparative and Historical Indo-European Linguistics, 1875–1888*. De Gruyter Mouton, 2018.
- Arthur Anthony Macdonell. *A Vedic Grammar for Students*. Motilal Banarsidass Publishers, 2010.
- Colin P. Masica. *The Indo-Aryan Languages*. Cambridge University Press, 1991.

- Manfred Mayrhofer. *Sanskrit-Grammatik mit Sprachvergleichenden Erläuterungen*. Walter de Gruyter, 3 edition, 1978.
- Manfred Mayrhofer. *Etymologisches Wörterbuch des Altindoarischen, I. Band*. Carl Winter Universitätsverlag, 3 edition, 1992.
- Manfred Mayrhofer. *Etymologisches Wörterbuch des Altindoarischen, II. Band*. Universitätsverlag C. Winter, 3 edition, 1996.
- Thomas Oberlies. Aśokan Prakrit and Pāli. In George Cardona and Dhanesh Jain, editors, *The Indo-Aryan Languages*, 161–203. Routledge, 2003.
- Felix Otter. *Grundkurs Sanskrit*. Hempen Verlag, 2017.
- Helmut Rix. *Lexikon der indogermanischen Verben*. Ludwig Reichert Verlag, 2001.
- Sergej Romaschko. Aus dem Leben eines Lautgesetzes – Das Grassmann’sche Gesetz, sein Ursprung und sein Schicksal. *Historiographia Linguistica*, 27:1–22, 2000.
- Antonia M. Ruppel. *The Cambridge Introduction to Sanskrit*. Cambridge University Press, 2017.
- Robert Schmitt-Brandt. *Einführung in die Indogermanistik*. A. Francke Verlag, 1998.
- Andrew L. Sihler. *New Comparative Grammar of Greek and Latin*. Oxford University Press, 1995.
- Andrew L. Sihler. *Language History*. John Benjamins Publishing Company, 2000.
- Ulrich Stiehl. *Sanskrit-Kompendium*. Hüthig GmbH & Co. KG, 5 edition, 2011.
- Oswald Szemerényi. *Einführung in die vergleichende Sprachwissenschaft*. Wissenschaftliche Buchgesellschaft, 3 edition, 1989.
- Paul Thieme. *Der Fremdling im Rgveda*. Abhandlungen für die Kunde des Morgenlandes, XXIII 2. Kommissionsverlag F. A. Brockhaus, 1938.
- Paul Thieme. Mitra and arya. *Transactions of The Connecticut Academy of Arts and Sciences*, 41:1–96, 1957.
- Jakob Wackernagel. *Altindische Grammatik, Teil I*. Vandenhoeck u. Ruprecht, 1896.
- Calvert Watkins. Proto-Indo-European: Comparison and reconstruction. In Anna Giacalone Ramt and Paolo Ramat, editors, *The Indo-European Languages*, 25–73. Routledge, 1998.
- Harald Wiese. *Eine Zeitreise zu den Ursprüngen unserer Sprache - Wie die Indogermanistik unsere Wörter erklärt*. Logos Verlag, Berlin, 2010.

Bibliography

Alfred C. Woolner. *Introduction to Prakrit*. Motilal Banarsidass Publishers, 2 edition, 1996.
First published in 1928.

Zentralinstitut für Sprachwissenschaft. *Etymologisches Wörterbuch des Deutschen*.
Deutscher Taschenbuch Verlag, 2 edition, 1997.

Sabine Ziegler. *Klassisches Sanskrit*. Reichert Verlag, 2012.

Index

- ādhra*, 130, 131, 289
ādi, 23
āhus, 209
āji, 275
ājñāpayati, 65
ākḥ, 67
ākūta, 301
āna, 278
āṇāvēdi, 65
ānanda, 34
āp, 96, 187, 188, 190, 191, 289
āpad, 116
āpat, 116
āpnōti, 96, 289
āpnuhi, 189
āpnumas, 96
āpus, 209
ārya, 283
āryaputra, 63
ās, 53
āsa, 286, 290, 291
āsam, 167
āsāra, 387
āsāya, 390
āśiṣṭa, 216
āśu, 23, 286
āśus, 209
āśvaśva, 23, 286
āsīs, 167
āsīt, 167
āsus, 209
ātmaja, 146
ātman, 248
ātmanêpada, 157–159, 161, 162
ātmavit, 145
āuṣṭam, 174
āvis, 289
āyam, 168
āyus, 289
ab, 281
abda, 280, 282
abdas, 146
abdhi, 280
abdhis, 145
abduction, 281
aber, 281
abhāntsus, 218
abhi, 282, 286, 293
abhīśu, 293
abhīta, 128
abhīti, 128
abhiṣṭi, 287
abhva, 147, 364
abhyāsa, 286
abhyasta, 286
abhyaya, 104
abibhar, 180
abibhayam, 182, 183
abibhayus, 183, 407
abibhês, 182, 183
ablaut, 26–28, 71
abôdhīs, 216
abôdhīt, 360
abôdhiṣus, 360
abortion, 297
abravīs, 177

Index

- abravīt*, 177
absent, 287
absolute, 378
abstraction, 281
abudh, 234
abôdhīt, 217
ac, 276
acati, 276
accept, 387
accha, 146, 314, 396
accident, 387
accusatives, 228
Achse, 274
acht, 69, 76, 77, 286
acirāt, 271
acirêna, 271
Acker, 76, 276
acre, 76, 276
acrobat, 305
act, 275
action, 275
active, 275
actual, 275
ad, 90, 276, 286
adadhus, 338
adadus, 328
aḍḍha, 65
addha, 65, 66
adelphos, 306
adept, 289
adha, 63
adhākṣīt, 327
adhara, 277
adhas, 277
adhêk, 331, 332
adhidi, 62
adhīta, 117, 128
adhīti, 128
adhôk, 170
adhyaya, 104
adhyayanam, 105
aditi, 129, 329
adjudicate, 289
adjunct, 373
admas, 90
adopt, 289
aduhi, 170
adus, 215
advent, 305
adverbs, 270–272
 ablative, 271
 accusative, 270
 dhā suffix, 272
 instrumental, 271
 locative, 271
 śas suffix, 272
 tas suffix, 271
 vat suffix, 272
advêt, 336
advocate, 379
adya, 333
aedificium, 291
aeris, 282
aes, 282
aeviternus, 289
affect, 339
after, 281
aga, 145, 274
agatika, 29, 69
agenda, 275
agent, 275
agent nouns, 251–253
aggelos, 275
aggha, 66
aggi, 65
aghnān, 405
aghnnyā, 404
agile, 275
agitate, 275
agni, 65, 275
agra, 34
agranī, 145
agranīs, 344
agrarian, 276

- agrarius*, 276
agratas, 271
aha, 63
aham, 287
ahan, 176, 288, 405
ahar, 288
ahinas, 197
ahorātra, 288
âima, 168
Aird Mhór, 296
âit, 168, 290
aithō, 291
aj, 275
ajati, 275
ajīrti, 129
ajira, 275
ajjāutta, 63
ajman, 275
ajra, 275
ajuhavam, 183
ajuhavus, 183
ajuhōs, 183
akkhilēna, 271
akkhi, 61, 67
akropolis, 286
akṣa, 274
akṣan, 274
akṣi, 61, 67, 274, 292
alakam, 283
alam, 283
alasa, 297
alert, 7
alêt, 172, 377
alibi, 279, 292
alibī, 292
alius, 279
allegory, 279
allergy, 279
allos, 279
alpa, 65, 109
alp̄vyas, 109
alpiṣṭha, 109
am, 282
amā, 282
amāt, 282
amātya, 282
amateur, 282
amati, 367
amatra, 282
ambience, 282
ambiguous, 282
ambivalent, 282
ambrosia, 370
aṃhas, 274
aṃhu, 274
amicable, 282
amīcus, 282
amīti, 282
amnas, 367
a-Moll, 371
amortise, 370
amphitheater, 282
an, 91, 278
anīka, 274
ana, 278
anaḍvah, 381
anāgata, 274
anātmañña, 69
anakṣa, 274
analogical change, 7
analogy, 7
analysis, 378
ananta, 29, 69
anaptyxis, 58
anarchy, 70, 274
anas, 277
añc, 276
añcati, 276
anculus, 313
anderer, 78, 279
andrology, 342
andros, 342
anecdote, 329
anēr, 342

Index

- aṅgara*, 275
angel, 275
angere, 274
Angst, 274
anīla, 278
anima, 278
animal, 278
animas, 91
animated, 278
animus, 278
aniti, 91, 278
aṅka, 67, 68, 275, 276
anna, 276
anṛta, 283, 297
answer, 403
anta, 34, 278
antama, 279
antar, 278
antara, 278, 279
antarīkṣa, 278
antarikṣa, 278
antarūṣya, 278
antastya, 278
ante, 279
anti, 279
antibiotics, 279
antimitra, 279
antipode, 279, 348
Antwort, 403
anu, 23, 278, 280
anuja, 278
anumāṅgam, 367
anutāpa, 147
anuttama, 294
anūpa, 280
anvak, 276, 278
anvañc, 278
anvartha, 23
anvaya, 104
anvita, 128
anviti, 128
anxious, 274

anya, 279
anyōnya, 279
anyōnyam, 279
aorist, 213–218
 root aorist, 215
 sigmatic aorist, 215–218
 thematic aorist, 213, 214
ap, 279
apa, 281
apāk, 276
apāna, 278
apāñc, 281
apama, 281
apaptat, 81
apara, 281
apas, 281
apataram, 281
apatya, 281
aphasia, 361
api, 281
apo, 281
apocalypse, 281, 388
apodictic, 330
apothecary, 339
Apotheke, 339
appa, 65
appetite, 347
apsuja, 146, 280
apsujit, 145, 280
apunām, 201
apuni, 202
apus, 351
aputra, 69
ar, 103, 283
aṛṣati, 297
ara, 103, 283
aram, 283
aramati, 283
aratni, 283
Arbeit, 284
arbha, 284
arc, 104

- arcati*, 104
arctic, 297
ardent, 290
ardha, 65, 66, 284
ardour, 290
ardous, 296
argent, 284
argentum, 284
argha, 66
argument, 284
ari, 283
arid, 290
aritar, 283
arjata, 284
arjuna, 284
arka, 104
Arm, 292
arm, 284, 292
armament, 283
armature, 283
armilla, 292
armillary, 292
arśas, 284
artha, 23, 34
aruṇas, 194
aruṇat, 194
arya, 283
aryaman, 283
as, 90, 128, 131, 166, 286, 287
Asche, 290
Aschermittwoch, 290
aś, 191, 202
ash, 290
aśāna, 202
aśāsus, 178, 389
aśāt, 177
aśman, 285
aśnāti, 202
aśnutê, 191
aśnuvatê, 191
aśnuvê, 191
aśri, 285, 286
aṣṭā, 44, 286
aṣṭāu, 286
aśva, 23, 286
aśvattha, 286
aśvin, 286
asi, 167, 286
ask, 38, 291
asmākam, 228
asmāsu, 226
asocial, 70
aspect, 350
aspiration dissimilation, 39
aspiration laws, 39–41, 99, 101, 111
aspiration shift, 39, 42, 99
asra, 131, 286
assimilation, 41, 42
asta, 286
astam, 287, 343
astam gacchati, 343
asthi, 287
asti, 28, 61, 69, 76, 90, 287
astrology, 398
astronomy, 398
asu, 34, 287
asura, 8, 287
asyati, 131, 286
atha, 63
atheist, 70, 274
athematic classes, 89–95
athematic verbs, 155, 159–162, 164, 174
 endings, 160–162
athiti, 62
ati, 34
atīta, 34
atīva, 34
atthi, 61
atti, 90, 276
atyaya, 104
auction, 293
auctoritas, 293
audacity, 285
Auge, 275

Index

- Augenbraue*, 366
augment, 293
Augustus, 293
aurora, 295
aus, 74, 294
âśva, 174
auster, 295
Australia, 296
Austria, 296
authority, 293
av, 102, 107, 284, 285
ava, 285
avāk, 276, 285
avākṣus, 218
avāñc, 285
avak, 165
avalōkita, 61
avama, 285
avara, 285
avarice, 285
avasā, 285
avasānam, 285
avasātar, 285
avaśyam, 270
avasyati, 285
avaṭ, 174
avati, 102, 284, 285
avatīrṇa, 66
avayava, 372
avês, 166
avêt, 166
avi, 285
avid, 285
avidus, 166
avitar, 107
avitum, 102, 107, 284, 285
avôcat, 35
avyaya, 104
avyayam, 104
away, 382
axis, 274
axle, 274
ayāsīt, 217
ayana, 34, 290
ayas, 282
áyôgū, 373
ayus, 165
bāhu, 34, 359
bāhūtkśêpam, 34
bāla, 359
babandha, 358
babandhus, 358
babhāra, 320
babhru, 358
babhūva, 40
back-formation, 7, 8
Backe, 361
backward assimilation, 41
bacteriophage, 361
Bad, 75
baddha, 120
badhāna, 202
badhnāti, 133, 202, 357, 358
badhyatê, 133
Bahre, 365
bahu, 359
bahudhā, 272
balam, 359
balavān, 237
balavadbhis, 237
balavant, 222, 237
ban, 362
banal, 362
bandh, 69, 112, 114, 120, 133, 202, 357, 358
bandito, 362
Bann, 362
bapsati, 362
barg, 71
barometer, 70, 306
Bartholomae's law, 39
Bartholomae, Christian, 39
basis, 305

- baskō*, 38, 306
bath, 75
bâuddha, 28
bauen, 365
Bauer, 365
be, 364
bear, 365
beaver, 359
beben, 363
bêbhidīti, 148
bêbhidīyatê, 148
bed, 75
beef, 308
Beet, 75
befugt, 352
beide, 295
Belgrade, 307
believe, 77
bellum, 335
ben, 316
benevolent, 385
bequem, 305
bergen, 71
bersten, 365
Bett, 75
bewegen, 382
bewusst, 384
bhā, 82, 84, 91, 207, 362
bhāga, 147, 361
bhāmas, 91
bhās, 362
bhāsati, 60, 362
bhāṣatê, 60
bhāṣita, 127
bhāṣitum, 102
bhāskara, 103
bhāti, 84, 91, 362
bhāva, 147
bhāvayati, 114
bhaga, 104, 361
bhaginī, 361
bhagna, 118
bhaj, 104, 361
bhajati, 104, 361
bhakti, 361
bhambhramīti, 150
bhambhramyatê, 150
bhan, 84, 361
bhanakti, 118
bhanati, 84, 361
bhandam, 114
bhariga, 103
bhañj, 103, 118
bhantsyati, 112, 120, 358
bharāmas, 157
bharan, 240
bharant, 239, 240
bharati, 97, 117, 133, 365
bhargas, 362
bharta, 65
bhartar, 107, 251, 252
bhartum, 97, 107, 111
bhas, 84
bhata, 59
bhatta, 65
bhava, 104, 147
bhavān, 241
bhavant, 241
bhavati, 30, 63, 85, 102, 125, 364
bhaviṣyati, 63
bhavitavya, 152
bhavitum, 30, 102, 111
bhavya, 152
bhayam, 104, 363
bhêda, 103
bhêjus, 210
bhêttum, 98, 110
bhid, 96, 98, 103, 110, 118, 148, 192, 195,
363
bhidra, 363
bhī, 92, 104, 125, 129, 134, 181, 182, 258,
363
bhīyatê, 134
bhikṣ, 86, 361

Index

- bhikṣatê*, 361
bhikṣu, 140
bhinatti, 96, 98, 118, 192, 363
bhindanti, 196
bhindatê, 196
bhindmas, 96, 192
bhinna, 118, 363
bhoṇa, 60, 62
bhōdati, 85, 132
bhōditum, 111, 112
bhōga, 105, 363
bhōjam, 114
bhōjana, 60, 62
bhōjanam, 105
bhōtsyati, 112, 120, 360
bhr̥, 92, 97, 107, 111, 117, 127, 133, 145,
180, 181, 365
bhrātar, 366
bhram, 150
bhraṃś, 87
bhraśyati, 87
bhriyatê, 133
bhr̥ṣṭi, 365
bhr̥ta, 59, 117, 127, 145
bhr̥ti, 127
bhrū, 259, 366
bhud, 85
bhuj, 105, 114, 116, 363
bhuk, 116
bhunakti, 105, 363
bhū, 23, 85, 102, 104, 111, 114, 125, 129,
134, 152, 241, 258, 364
bhūṣati, 365
bhūrja, 365
bhūṣ, 365
bhūta, 30, 34, 125
bhūtārtha, 34
bhūti, 129
bhūyatê, 134
bhuvam, 23
bhvādigaṇa, 23
bhōga, 363
bhōgin, 363
bi, 335
biannual, 335
bibbern, 363
Biber, 359
bibharti, 92, 365
bibhêṣi, 182, 183
bibhêti, 92, 125, 181–183, 363
bibhāhi, 183
bibhīmas, 92, 183
bibhīvans, 363
bibhīvas, 182, 363
bibhītsu, 138
bibhivas, 182
bibhrati, 328, 337
bibhrê, 181
bibhr̥mas, 92
bibhr̥tê, 181
bibhyati, 29, 182, 183, 407
Bibliothek, 339
bicycle, 312
bid, 360
biegen, 363
bier, 365
bieten, 360
bhīta, 125
bhīti, 129
bilateral, 335
bin, 364
bind, 358
binden, 69, 358
biology, 317
biped, 334
birch, 365
Birke, 365
bisexual, 335
Biss, 76, 363
bist, 364
bite, 363
bitter, 76, 363
blâmer, 361
blamieren, 361

- blasphemy*, 361
Blech, 362
blechen, 362
board, 75
bôbudhîti, 148
bôbudhyatê, 148
bôddhar, 107
bôddhum, 107
Boden, 360
bôdhati, 81, 359
bôdhayati, 113
bohnern, 362
bôs, 308
Bopp, Franz, 2
Bosporus, 354
both, 295
bottom, 360
bovis, 308
bow, 363
brāhmaṇa, 361
brahman, 361
brahmaṇā, 44
braun, 359
Bräutigam, 304
bravîti, 177
break, 74
brechen, 74
Brennessel, 74
Brett, 75
bṛh, 360
bṛhaspati, 360
bṛhant, 361
bṛhati, 360
brother, 75, 366
brown, 359
Bruder, 69, 75, 366
Brugmann, Karl, 2, 35, 36
brū, 176, 177
bubhukṣu, 138, 139
bubhūṣu, 138
bubudhe, 360
bubudhire, 360
bubudhiṣati, 360
bubudhiṣu, 360
buddha, 39, 120, 360
budh, 81, 107, 111–113, 120, 131, 132, 148, 359, 360
budhāna, 131
budhna, 360
budhyatê, 132
Bug, 359
burst, 365

ca, 39, 311
cāga, 64, 67
cārus, 69, 299
cadaver, 387
cakamê, 299
cakka, 66
cakra, 66, 312
cakruṣā, 244
cakrvaṇ, 243
cakṛvadbhis, 244, 245
cakṛva(n)s, 243–245
cakṛvas, 243–245
caḥṣ, 311
caḥṣatê, 311
caḥṣus, 311
cal, 150, 312
calāre, 303
calati, 48
carali, 312
calender, 303
calvary, 301
calyx, 387
camū, 223, 257
cañcalyatê, 150
cand, 312
candid, 312
candidate, 312
candle, 312
candra, 312
canis, 392
caṅkramîti, 150

Index

- caṅkramyatê*, 150
capable, 387
capsula, 387
capsule, 387
caption, 387
captive, 387
captivus, 76
capture, 387
car, 150, 300, 312
carati, 48, 312
carcarîti, 150
cardiology, 78, 408
carman, 313
caṣṭê, 312
castrate, 388
catasras, 312, 404
cathedra, 393
cathedral, 394
catur, 312
catvāras, 312, 323
causatives, 113
caution, 301
cayatê, 313
cêd, 311
cell, 388
cella, 388
censorship, 386
censure, 386
census, 386
centimeter, 386
centipede, 348, 386
centum, 37
ceosan, 317
cephalic, 304
cephalogram, 304
cerebral, 389
cerebralisation, 42, 100, 101, 121
 laws, 43, 44
cerebrals, 44
cêtas, 106
chādayati, 90
chāyā, 314
chad, 108, 109, 312, 314
chadati, 314
chadman, 109
chaire, 394
chand, 312
chandas, 312
chandayati, 312
charisma, 406
chatram, 108
chattram, 108
chattum, 108, 109
chaya, 61
cher, 69, 299
chëtta, 61
chid, 96, 130, 314
chidra, 130, 314
chin, 78, 405
chinatti, 96, 314
chindmas, 96
chinna, 130
chirurgy, 406
Chlodwig, 391
chlorine, 406
chô, 314
choose, 78, 317
Christendom, 339
Christentum, 339
Christopher, 365
Christophorus, 365
chronometer, 311
chthonic, 304
church, 78
chyati, 314
ci, 313
cid, 299
cikamiṣatê, 299
cikariṣati, 143
cikariṣu, 143
cikêti, 313
cikîrṣā, 142
cikîrṣati, 142
cikîrṣu, 142

- cinôti*, 313
cint, 89
cintayati, 89
ciram, 270
cirê, 271
cirêna, 271
cit, 106, 130
citra, 130
citraphalaka, 63
citta, 130
cittaphalaa, 63
civil, 390
civilisation, 390
clārus, 303
clamare, 303
clarify, 303
clarinet, 303
class signs, 95
clear, 303
client, 391
climate, 391
climax, 391
clinic, 391
clown, 313
cnáwan, 319
cogigation, 275
cognate, 316
cognition, 319
cohort, 307, 408
cold, 73
colere, 313
collāre, 313
collar, 313
collarbone, 313
collier, 313
colony, 313
colour, 388
combustion, 295
come, 305
commemoration, 367
comparative, 109
compensatory lengthening, 50, 51, 53, 224
compete, 347
complement, 355
complete, 355
complex, 356
compliment, 355
compound-final zero grades, 145, 146
compress, 354
conciliāre, 303
concoct, 347
confer, 365
confide, 360
confirm, 340
confront, 366
confusion, 408
congratulation, 308
conjugation, 373
conscious, 314
consonantal nouns, 221, 222
consonants, 36, 37, 47, 72, 73, 75–78
constellation, 398
constraint-based approach, 7
continue, 321
continuous, 321
convent, 305
convention, 305
converge, 385
convex, 382
cook, 74, 347
cor, 50, 408
côrayati, 89
côrayitum, 102
cordialement, 78, 408
cordis, 408
corn, 317
corner, 390
corporation, 302
corps, 302
corpus, 302
correct, 374
côryatê, 134
council, 303
cow, 308

Index

- cramp*, 309
credible, 391
credit, 391
credo, 391
crepere, 302
crude, 303
cruel, 303
cruor, 303
crust, 303
crūdus, 303
crūsta, 303
crystal, 303
cukṣôbha, 307
cult, 313
culture, 313
cumb, 86, 114
cumbayati, 114
cumbita, 127
cumbitum, 102
cunctāri, 386
cupid, 300
cupidity, 300
cupiō, 300
cur, 89, 134
Curtius, Georg, 3
cūnae, 390
cycle, 312
cynic, 392
- dā*, 51, 92, 102, 106, 110, 113, 115, 125,
129, 134, 151, 152, 184, 207, 328,
329
dādāti, 151
dāham, 114
dāmyati, 88, 325
dānam, 106
dānta, 126, 130, 325
dānti, 130
dāpayati, 113
dāru, 329
dās, 211, 326
dāśva, 211
dāśva(n)s, 211
dāsyati, 328
dātum, 102, 110, 328
dāyam, 115
dabh, 131, 325
dabhati, 325
dabhnôti, 325
dabhra, 131
Dach, 69, 399
dadāha, 327
dadāśa, 211, 326
dadāti, 92, 102, 125, 328
dadati, 328, 337
dadâu, 328
dadhāti, 40, 92, 102, 125
dadhanti, 336
dadhāti, 337, 339
dadhâu, 338
dadhmas, 30, 92
dadmas, 92, 185
dagdha, 120
dagdhum, 99, 112, 327
dêgdhum, 112
dah, 84, 85, 99, 112, 114, 120, 150, 327
dahati, 84, 85, 99, 120, 327
dakṣa, 325
dakṣiṇa, 325
dam, 88, 114, 126, 130, 325
dama, 325
damayati, 114
daṃkṣyati, 112
daṃś, 100, 112, 121
daṃṣṭum, 100, 112
daṇḍa, 325
dandahīti, 150
dandahyatê, 150
danta, 67, 68, 277
dare, 340
darhati, 333
Darlehen, 374
darśam, 114
das, 75, 319

- daśa*, 51, 326
daśas, 326
daśati, 100
dass, 75
dassa, 65, 66
data, 329
date, 329
datta, 129, 146, 328
datti, 129
daughter, 75, 333
Daumen, 323
davīyans, 333
daviṣṭha, 333
day, 75, 77
 de Saussure, Ferdinand, 3, 21, 93
dead, 76
deaf, 77
dean, 326
dear, 76
debility, 359
decade, 326
deceive, 387
decem, 326
deciliter, 326
decimate, 326
dēcipere, 387
declaration, 303
declination, 391
decline, 391
decor, 326
dēdīyatē, 151
deed, 339
deep, 75
deer, 75, 339
defend, 405
deficit, 339
defy, 360
dēgdhī, 90, 99, 120, 330
dēgdhum, 99, 330
dēhi, 52
dehnen, 321
deicere, 68
deiknumi, 330
deka, 326
dēkṣyati, 112
delinquent, 374
demagogue, 275
dementia, 367
democracy, 303
demonstration, 367
dental, 78, 277
dentals, 75, 76
deport, 354
derivatives, 147, 152
dermatology, 78, 333
dermis, 333
desaster, 398
descend, 398
dêśa, 103, 329
dêṣṭum, 100, 112
desiderative, 136
desist, 400
despot, 326, 348
detension, 321
dêva, 43, 222, 225, 227, 333
dêvānām, 227
dêvas, 8, 228
dêvê, 225
dêvêṣu, 227
devout, 297
dexterity, 325
dêya, 152
dhā, 92, 102, 106, 110, 115, 125, 129, 134, 145, 152, 207, 337–339
dhānam, 106
dhāsyati, 337
dhātar, 337
dhātrī, 340
dhātum, 102, 110, 337
dhāyam, 115
dhakṣyati, 112
dham, 108, 336
dhamati, 83, 336
dhamma, 66

Index

- dhan*, 336
dhanya, 336
dharati, 340
dharma, 66, 340
dharman, 340
dhayati, 340
dhê, 340
dhêkṣyati, 112, 330
dhênā, 340
dhênāu, 226
dhênu, 223, 226, 340
dhênvām, 226
dhêya, 152
dhī, 23, 83, 130, 258
dhīra, 130
dhīta, 130
dhīyatê, 134
dhīpsati, 141, 325
dhītsati, 141
dhīyam, 23
dhmā, 83, 336
dhmākāra, 336
dhôkṣi, 169, 170
dhôkṣyati, 112
dhṛ, 340
dhṛṣ, 340
dhṛṣṇôti, 340
dhugdhvê, 169
dhūnôti, 339
dhū, 339
dhūli, 339
dhūma, 339
dhuvati, 339
dhya, 83, 341
dhyaî, 115
dhyaṇa, 64, 67, 341
dhyaṭi, 341
dhyaṃyam, 115
dhyaṃyati, 341
di, 335
dialectology, 6
dictator, 330
dictum, 68
didāsati, 329
didarhiṣati, 333
didhiṣati, 338
didīhe, 331
didihire, 331
didīrṣati, 143
didīrṣati, 333
didīrṣu, 143
didvêṣa, 336
didviṣus, 336
die, 324
Dieb, 75
diffier, 365
difficult, 339
diffident, 360
dīgdha, 120, 330
dignity, 326
dih, 90, 99, 112, 120, 330, 331
dihmas, 90
dīcere, 68, 330
dīkṣ, 326
dīksā, 141
dīkṣatê, 326
dīrgha, 331
dīrṇa, 127, 133
dīryatê, 133
dīv, 329
dīvyati, 127, 329
dīyatê, 134
dīja, 65
dimension, 368
diminish, 369
dīna, 333
Ding, 75
diphthongs, 24, 25, 68
dīpous, 334, 335
dīpsati, 141
direct, 374
discord, 408
discrepancy, 302
diś, 88, 100, 103, 112, 329

- dīśati*, 100, 329
Distel, 322
dīta, 125, 129, 134, 146, 328
diti, 129
ditsati, 328, 338
ditsu, 141, 328, 338
ditthi, 65
div, 127
diva, 35
divâukas, 35
diverge, 385
dividend, 339
divine, 334
divinity, 334
division, 339
divya, 333
do, 76, 339
doch, 322
docile, 326
doctor, 326
document, 326
dösen, 340
Döskopp, 340
dôgdhar, 107
dôgdhi, 90, 99, 121, 169, 331
dôgdhram, 108
dôgdhum, 99, 107, 108, 112, 332
dome, 326
domesticate, 326
dominate, 326
donnern, 398
dontology, 277
door, 76, 335
doppelt, 334
Dorn, 75
dose, 329
Dosis, 329
double, 334
doubt, 334
dough, 331
dove, 77
doze, 340
dozen, 334
drā, 84, 334
drāti, 84, 334
Draht, 324
draksyati, 112
dram, 334
dramati, 334
draṣṭum, 45, 100, 112
dravati, 84, 334
dr̥dha, 333
drechseln, 322
drehen, 324
drei, 75, 78, 324
dr̥h, 333
drink, 75
dr̥k, 47, 116
dr̥ṇāti, 127, 333
dṝ, 127, 133, 143, 333
dr̥ś, 70, 100, 112, 114, 116, 121, 129, 132
dr̥ṣṭi, 65, 129
dr̥śya, 65, 66
dr̥śyatê, 132
dru, 84, 334
du, 78, 325
dualism, 334
dubbala, 65
duck, 74, 75
duddha, 64, 67
duett, 334
dugdha, 64, 67, 121, 332
dugdhas, 169
duh, 90, 99, 107, 108, 112, 121, 168–170, 332, 360
duhanti, 170
duhatê, 170
duhitar, 332
duḥkha, 43
duhmas, 90
dullabha, 66
Dun Laoghaire, 78
dünken, 75
dünn, 321

Index

- duo*, 334
duodecim, 334
duopoly, 334
duplus, 334
duration, 333
durbala, 65
durch, 75
durlabha, 66
Durst, 75, 323
duṣkṛt, 146
Dutzend, 334
dūdh, 67
dūra, 333
dūrāt, 271
dūrê, 271
duvā, 334
dvā, 334
dvādaśa, 334
dvāra, 335
dvêkṣyati, 112
dvellum, 335
dvêṣṭi, 90, 100, 335, 336
dvêṣṭum, 100, 112, 335
dvêṣya, 152
dvi, 280, 334
dvidhā, 272, 337, 339
dvīpa, 280
dvīja, 65, 146, 334
dvīpad, 280, 334
dviṣ, 90, 100, 112, 122, 152, 335, 336
dviṣmas, 90
dviṣṭa, 336
dvivacana, 280
dyati, 329
dyâuspitar, 333
dyôtatê, 85
dyut, 85
dyūta, 64, 67, 127, 329
- ear*, 290
earth, 75
east, 296
Easter, 296
eat, 74, 277
economics, 72, 384
êdha, 291
êdhi, 51, 167
edict, 330
edit, 329
ēdi, 62
ēi, 62
efficient, 339
egō, 73, 287
ehern, 282
Eid, 75
eigen, 293
eight, 76, 77, 286
eighth class, 94, 95
eighth class, 197–200
ein, 298
eiscōn, 38, 291
êj, 298
êjate, 298
êka, 34, 35, 58, 298
êkāgra, 34
êkākin, 298
êkâikaśas, 35, 272
êkka, 58
elbow, 283, 363
elkos, 284
Ellbogen, 283
Elle, 283
Ellenbogen, 283, 363
emission, 368
emit, 368
encyclical, 312
encyclopedia, 312
end, 278
Ende, 278
eng, 274
Engel, 275
engrave, 309
enzyme, 373
eon, 289

- epic*, 72, 379
epidermis, 281
equestrian, 286
Erbe, 284
Erde, 75
erforschen, 356
erkoren, 317
erlaucht, 375
erquicken, 317
Erwin, 380
êşati, 292
êşitum, 102
esperanza, 401
Esse, 290
essen, 74, 277
est, 28, 69, 287
esteem, 291
eternal, 289
ethics, 339, 402
êti, 28, 62, 84, 89, 97, 117, 167, 290
êtum, 97, 110
 etymological dictionary
 dental stops, 345
 semivowels, 379
eucalyptus, 387
Eule, 295
euphemism, 361, 396
euphoric, 365
Euter, 296
êvam, 58
evangelic, 396
Evangelium, 396
event, 305
evil, 77
ëvvaṃ, 58
ewe, 285
ewig, 289
exanimate, 278
exhibition, 304
exitus, 291
expedition, 348
export, 354
express, 354
expect, 350
exuberant, 296
eye, 275
eyebrow, 366

fable, 362
fabulous, 362
facere, 339
façon, 339
faculty, 339
fahren, 354
fairy, 362
faith, 360
faksimile, 339
falten, 76
fame, 361
famous, 361
fare, 354
farewell, 354
fart, 350
fashion, 339
fatal, 362
fate, 362
father, 352
Faust, 347
feather, 348
fechten, 76, 77
fecundity, 340
Feder, 348
Fee, 362
fee, 73, 350
feign, 331
féin, 402
felicity, 340
fellatio, 340
feminine, 340
ferō, 36
fertile, 365
fetus, 340
fever, 327
fiction, 331

Index

- fidēs*, 360
fideī, 360
fidelity, 360
fifth class, 94–96, 187–191, 198
fifty, 74
fight, 76, 77
figure, 331
filius, 340
ingere, 331
ingieren, 331
Finte, 331
firm, 340
firmament, 340
first class, 85, 86
first consonant shift, 73
fission, 363
fissure, 363
fist, 347
five, 78, 347, 393
flea, 357
flechten, 356
Floh, 357
foal, 353
foam, 357
Fohlen, 353
fold, 76
folk, 355
folklore, 355
fondue, 408
foot, 73, 348
ford, 354
former, 354
forschen, 38
fortitude, 361
fortunate, 365
forum, 335
forward assimilation, 42
fountain, 336
four, 312
fourth class, 87, 88
frāter, 69
fraternise, 366
fraternity, 366
free, 357
frei, 357
freien, 357
Freitag, 357
Freund, 357
fricative, 78
Friday, 357
Friede, 357
friend, 357
front, 366
Fuge, 352
fugitive, 363
Fuhre, 354
führen, 354
full, 355
full grade, 26
full-grade root, 81, 85
fulminant, 362
fume, 339
fundament, 360
fünf, 78, 347
fünzig, 74
fungible, 363
furnace, 311
Furt, 354
furzen, 350
Fuß, 348
future, 109–111
future, 364
fügen, 352

gā, 84, 92, 108, 240, 305
gāḍhum, 112
gāh, 112
gâi, 115
gāma, 66
gārvan, 306
gātra, 305
gātram, 108
gātu, 108, 305
gātum, 108

- gāyam*, 115
Gabel, 304
gabha, 304
gabhasti, 304
gable, 304
gacchati, 38, 46, 84, 98, 119, 145, 305
gada, 62
gaha, 59
gāhnen, 77, 405
gam, 38, 46, 84, 98, 103, 105, 107, 111,
 119, 128, 135, 142, 145, 150, 151,
 305
gamanam, 105
gamaṇīya, 151
gamya, 151
gamyatê, 135
gaṇa, 23
gaṇgamīti, 150
gaṇgamyatê, 150
Gans, 78, 405
gantar, 107
gantavya, 151
gantum, 98, 107, 111
garbha, 306
garden, 307
garīyans, 306
garīyas, 109
gariṣṭha, 109, 306
Garten, 307
gata, 34, 62, 119, 145, 287
gatāsu, 34, 287
gati, 128
gavā, 25
gaviṣ, 291
gaya, 317
Gebärde, 365
gebären, 365
geben, 289, 304
gebenedeit, 330
geborgen, 71
gefeit, 362
geholfen, 71
Geiß, 74
gelangen, 376
gelato, 73
gelb, 77, 405, 406
gelingen, 376
gena, 50
genealogy, 315
general, 315
genera, 315
genesis, 315
genitive plural, 227, 228
genuflection, 316
genus, 315
geometry, 368
gern, 406
gerundives, 152
gestern, 409
gestorben, 71
gewesen, 381
Gewicht, 77
gewinnen, 380
gewiss, 384
geworben, 71
geworfen, 71
ghāksyatê, 112
gharma, 310
ghas, 142
ghna, 404
ghmanti, 175
ghôṣyatê, 134
ghṛ, 84
ghrā, 84, 311
ghrāti, 311
ghuṣ, 134
ghuṣṭa, 134
Giebel, 304
gießen, 408
gird, 308
girdle, 308
give, 289, 304
glāu, 222, 255
glauben, 77

Index

- gleichsam*, 395
gnosis, 319
gô, 25, 308
goat, 74
gôbhîs, 25
gôdhā, 308, 340
good, 76
goose, 78, 405
gôpa, 308
gôpā, 308, 350
gôpāla, 308, 354
gôpāyati, 308
gôpati, 308, 348
gôṣaṇi, 394
gôṣṭha, 43, 308
gôtama, 308
gôtra, 308
grāham, 114
grāma, 66, 310
grāmaṇī, 145
grāmaṇīs, 344
grāmatas, 271
grānum, 317
ghrāti, 84
Grab, 309
graben, 309
grabh, 309
grabha, 309, 310
grabhīta, 309
grabhītar, 309
gracht, 310
gracious, 308
Graft, 310
grah, 114, 202, 309
Granatapfel, 317
granth, 133, 142, 308
grantha, 308
granthastha, 146
Grassmann's law, 39, 41
grateful, 308
grathita, 308
grathnāti, 133, 308, 309
grathyatê, 133
gratuitous, 308
grave, 309
gravity, 306
ṛbhñāti, 309
ṛddha, 130
ṛdh, 130
ṛdhra, 130
greifen, 310
Gremium, 310
gremium, 310
ṛha, 59, 307
ṛhāna, 202
ṛhastha, 146
ṛhñāti, 202, 309
ṛñāti, 308
grobe, 310
gṛ, 308
Grube, 309
grübeln, 309
guh, 101, 123, 306
guṇa, 26
gup, 308
gurâu, 225
Gurt, 308
guru, 70, 109, 223, 225–227, 306
guruṣu, 226
gurūṇām, 227
gut, 76
gūhati, 101, 306, 307
gūrti, 308
gūstus, 317
variṣṭha, 109
gymnastics, 341
gymnos, 341
ha, 291
hā, 92, 134
hāta, 134
haben, 77, 387
habere, 304
habilitation, 304

- habit*, 304
habitāre, 304
habitation, 304
Haft, 76, 387
hagiography, 371
half, 71
Hall, 303
hall, 388
Halle, 388
halma, 72, 397
Hals, 313
ham̄sa, 405
ham̄syati, 405
han, 90, 98, 110, 119, 128, 135, 175, 206,
 404, 405
hang, 386
Hängepartie, 386
han̄ṣyati, 405
han̄mas, 90
hanti, 90, 98, 119, 175, 404
hantum, 98, 110
hanu, 50, 405
hanyatê, 135
harati, 23, 97, 117, 133, 408
hard, 302, 303
hare, 388
hari, 405
harisa, 58
har̄ṣa, 58
har̄ṣati, 409
hart, 302, 303
hartum, 97
harvest, 313
hary, 406
haryati, 406
has, 406
hasati, 406
Hase, 388
hasta, 61, 406
hastin, 225, 227
hastinām, 227
hastini, 225
hastiṣu, 227
hata, 405
hataṣ, 175
hati, 128
hattha, 61
Haufen, 75
have, 77, 387
havis, 43, 107
havissadi, 63
heap, 75
heart, 78, 408
heave, 387
heben, 387
hedonic, 402
Hehler, 388
Heim, 390
Heinrich, 374
heischen, 38, 291
heiß, 74
helfen, 71
heliocentric, 403
hell, 303
Helm, 388
helmet, 388
Helmut, 388
helvus, 406
hemisphere, 73, 396
hepta, 72
heptagon, 72, 394
Herbst, 313
herpes, 73, 398
Herz, 78, 408
hêtu, 108
hêtum, 108
hex, 72
hexagon, 72, 392
hi, 108
hia, 62
hibernate, 406
hida, 62
hīna, 134
hīyatê, 134

Index

- hima*, 406
Himalaya, 406
hims, 131, 192, 196, 197
himsā, 145, 404
himsita, 131
himsmas, 192
himsra, 131
hinasti, 192
hindhi, 197
hip, 75
hippo, 286
hippodrome, 286
Hirn, 389
Hirsch, 390
hita, 35, 62, 125, 129, 134, 145, 337
hiti, 129
hitôpadêśa, 35
Hittite, 3
hive, 301
hohl, 301, 390
hōi, 63
hole, 301
holen, 303
hollow, 301
holocaust, 395
hologram, 395
home, 390
hominis, 304
homō, 304
homosexual, 72, 395
homunculus, 304
Horn, 390
horn, 390
horrific, 409
horror, 409
horticulture, 307
hortus, 307
hot, 74
hōti, 63
hôtar, 107
hôttram, 108
hôtum, 98, 107, 108
hound, 76, 392
hr̥, 23, 97, 117, 133, 408
hr̥d, 50, 408
hr̥i, 258
hriyatê, 23, 133
hr̥ṣ, 409
hr̥ṣyati, 409
hr̥ta, 117
hu, 92, 98, 107, 108, 118, 134, 183, 205, 406, 408
Hüfte, 75
human, 304
humble, 304
humility, 304
humus, 304
Hund, 76, 392
hund, 37
hundert, 387
hundred, 387
hurch, 408
Hure, 69, 299
husten, 300
huta, 118, 134, 407
hū, 83, 408
hūrchanam, 408
hūrchatī, 408
hūyatê, 134
hvā, 83, 408
hvaras, 408
hyas, 409
hydrate, 294
hygiene, 396
hyperactive, 295
hyperbola, 295
hypertension, 295
hypnosis, 403
hypocrite, 294
hypothesis, 294
hysteria, 294
hängen, 386
I, 288

- i*, 28, 84, 89, 90, 97, 110, 117, 128, 167, 168, 290
iānus, 372
ibī, 292
icchā, 291
icchati, 38, 46, 89, 291
icchyatê, 132
ich, 288
icke, 73, 287
iddha, 291
idea, 383
ideology, 383
idh, 291
idha, 292
ignis, 275
ignite, 275
iha, 34, 292
ihī, 161, 168
ījatê, 298
ījus, 209
īkṣ, 274, 292
īkṣā, 140
īkṣatê, 274, 292
īpsu, 140
īra, 292
īrma, 292
īs, 293
īṣat, 270, 287
īṣṭe, 293
īṣus, 209
īśvara, 66, 293
īyus, 209
ījyatê, 132
imas, 90
immense, 368
impediment, 348
imperfect, 70
impetus, 347
implication, 356
impossible, 274
impression, 354
in, 274
īna, 59
incendere, 312
incense, 312
inclined, 391
incunable, 390
indhatê, 291
indigenous, 315
 Indo-European, 3
 Indogermanisch, 3
indrajit, 145
indrôta, 284
indulgent, 333
ineffective, 70, 274
inept, 289
infamous, 361
infant, 362
infantile, 362
infantryman, 362
 infinitive, 97–102
infrastructure, 277
infusion, 408
ingeneous, 315
inhibition, 304
initial, 291
innocence, 343
innovate, 343
innuendo, 346
instigation, 322
inter, 279
intercept, 387
international, 279
internecine, 343
interregnum, 374
intervention, 305
intestines, 279
invest, 380
investiture, 380
irate, 292
irritation, 375
is, 76, 287
iṣ, 38, 46, 89, 122, 123, 129, 132, 291, 292
iṣnāti, 292

Index

- iṣṭa*, 42, 44, 122, 371
iṣṭi, 129, 371
iṣu, 292
iṣyati, 292
isi, 59
issara, 66
ist, 69, 76, 287
istī, 324
istud, 319
it, 32, 34
ita, 34, 117, 291
itara, 291
iteration, 291
iterum, 291
iti, 291
itihāsa, 291
itinerary, 291
Iūpiter, 334
iuvāre, 285
iuvenile, 373
iva, 34
iyarti, 297

jānāti, 318
jānu, 37, 316, 319
jāta, 31, 126, 130, 146
jñāta, 146
jāti, 130
jāyā, 147, 316
jāyatê, 31, 87, 102, 126, 314
jagat, 240, 241
jagatī, 241
jahāti, 92
jahi, 165, 176
jahīmas, 92
jaks, 406
jakṣiti, 406
jala, 34
jalāsaya, 34, 390
jan, 31, 87, 102, 109, 111, 114, 126, 130,
314, 316, 319
jana, 314

janayati, 114
jani, 316
janī, 316
janīman, 109
janītar, 31, 314
janitum, 102, 109, 111
janñjapīti, 150
janñjapyatê, 150
janman, 109
january, 372
jap, 150
jarā, 317
jarati, 317
jathā, 63
jaya, 103, 147
jayati, 84, 97, 117, 316
jayya, 152
jêjīryatê, 151
jêtar, 107
jêtavya, 152
jêtum, 97, 107, 110
jêya, 152
jhāna, 64, 67
ji, 84, 97, 103, 107, 110, 117, 143, 145, 152,
316
jigāti, 92, 240, 305
jigamiṣā, 142
jigamiṣati, 142
jigamiṣu, 142
jighāṃsā, 144
jigharti, 84
jighatsā, 142
jighatsati, 142
jighatsu, 142
jighṛkṣu, 139
jigīmas, 92
jigīṣā, 143
jigīṣati, 143
jigīṣu, 143
jigranthiṣati, 142
jīhvā, 316
jīrṇa, 127, 133, 317

- jūryatê*, 133
jūryati, 127
jīv, 317
jīva, 39, 317
jīvana, 44
jīvati, 317
jijñāsā, 137
jijñāsatê, 137
jijñāsu, 137
jīta, 117, 145
jñā, 113, 137, 152, 207, 316, 318, 319
jñāpayati, 113
jñêya, 152
Joch, 373
 Jones, William, 1
jōgī, 63
jōṣa, 317
jōvvaṇa, 58
jṛ, 127, 129, 133, 317
juddha, 63
juhōṣi, 183
juhōti, 92, 98, 118, 183, 406, 407
juhudhi, 183
juhūmas, 92, 183
juhū, 257, 406
juhvati, 183
junction, 372, 373
jung, 373
 Junggrammatiker, 3, 5
junta, 373
jurisdiction, 289
juṣ, 317
juṣatê, 317
just, 289
jūta, 64, 67
jvājvalīti, 149
jvājvalyatê, 149
jval, 149
jyā, 84, 316
jyāti, 84, 316
jyôtis, 107
jyut, 107
kāla, 300
kālāntaka, 300
kāma, 299
kāmadhuk, 41
kāmaduh, 233
kānikṣ, 299
kānta, 126, 130, 299
kānti, 130
kāram, 114
kārayati, 113
kārya, 151
kās, 300
kāsa, 300
kāsā, 300
kāsātê, 300
kad, 299
kadham, 63
kaham, 63
kalpa, 65
kalpatê, 85
kam, 126, 130, 299
kamp, 85
kampa, 67, 68
kampatê, 85
kanā, 299
kanī, 299
kaṇṇa, 66
kannjan, 319
kaṇṭhastha, 146
kanyā, 299
kapivat, 272
kappa, 65
kara, 103, 302
karaṇam, 105
karaṇīya, 151
karavāi, 200
Karitas, 299
karkṣyati, 112
karman, 109, 248
karna, 66
karōti, 96, 97, 117, 133, 302
karṣa, 43

Index

- karṣati*, 85
karṣtum, 100, 112
kartar, 107, 251
kartavya, 151
kartitum, 102
kartram, 108
kartum, 97, 107–109, 111
kas, 299
kaścid, 299
kaṭa, 302
katham, 63
kathayitum, 102
Katheder, 394
kâuti, 301
kavatê, 301
kavi, 301
kavîti, 301
keck, 317
Keller, 388
kennen, 319
kephalê, 304
Kern, 318
khā, 107
khāta, 126, 130, 134
khātar, 107
khāti, 130
khāyatê, 134
khaga, 145
khan, 102, 126, 130, 134
khanati, 102, 126
khanitar, 107
khanitum, 102
khatta, 61
khattia, 61, 67
khaya, 61
khêda, 103
khêtta, 61
khêttum, 98
khid, 98, 103, 118
khidyati, 98, 118
khinna, 118
khitta, 61
khronos, 311
kṣud, 130
kṣip, 97, 109, 110, 117, 127, 130, 132
kṣipati, 132
kṣud, 109
khthōn, 304
khujja, 61
khyā, 91
khyāmas, 91
khyāti, 91
kida, 59, 62
kiesen, 78, 317
kīlā, 60
kīrṇa, 126, 133
kīryatê, 133
kilīṇṇa, 58
kim, 300
kimi, 59
Kind, 316
Kinn, 50, 78, 405
kinship, 316
kinship nouns, 251–253
Kirche, 78
kitchen, 347
kiyad, 299
kiyanmātra, 299
kleidsam, 395
klinna, 58
kliš, 132, 202
klišāna, 202
klišnāti, 202
klišyatê, 132
klōman, 303
klp, 85
Knecht, 77
knee, 316
Knie, 316
knicht, 77
know, 319
Koch, 74, 347
Köln, 313
kommen, 305

- Konvikt*, 317
kôpa, 103, 300
kôpayati, 113
kôpitum, 102
Korn, 317
Körper, 302
kosten, 317
kôvida, 302
kṛ, 96, 97, 103, 105, 107–109, 111, 113,
 114, 117, 127, 133, 142, 146, 151,
 199, 200, 300, 302
krāmyati, 88
krānta, 126, 130
krānti, 130
kram, 88, 126, 130, 150
Krampf, 309
krand, 303
krandati, 303
krank, 309
Kranz, 309
kraṣṭum, 100, 112
kratu, 302
kravis, 303
kravya, 303
kr̥cchra, 46, 130, 302
kreas, 303
krenzen, 309
krī, 97, 202
prī, 202
krīd, 86
krīdā, 60
krīṇāti, 97, 202
krīṇāmas, 97, 202
Kringel, 309
kriyatê, 133
kr̥mi, 59
kr̥nati, 302
kr̥natti, 302
kr̥ṇôti, 96
krôdha, 103
krôṣati, 100
krôṣtar, 107
krôṣṭum, 100, 107
kr̥p, 302
kr̥pā, 302
kr̥patê, 302
kṝ, 126, 133, 143
kr̥ṣ, 85
kr̥ṣ, 46, 88, 100, 112, 122, 129, 132, 313
kr̥ṣati, 100, 132
kr̥ṣṇa, 43
kr̥ṣṭi, 129
kr̥ṣyatê, 132
kr̥t, 302, 313
kr̥ta, 59, 62, 117, 127, 146
kr̥ti, 127
kr̥tsna, 302
kr̥tya, 151
krudh, 103
kruś, 100, 107
Kruste, 303
krūra, 130, 303
kṣā, 84, 327
kṣam, 46, 303
kṣatriya, 61, 67
kṣatta, 61
kṣêpam, 114
kṣêp̄yas, 109
kṣêpiṣṭha, 109
kṣêptum, 97, 110
kṣetra, 61
kṣîp, 34, 88, 114
kṣîpati, 97, 117
kṣîpra, 109, 130
kṣîpta, 61, 117, 127, 130
kṣîpti, 127
kṣîpyatê, 132
kṣôbdhum, 99
kṣôbhatê, 304
kṣôd̄iyān, 243
kṣôd̄iyans, 242
kṣôd̄iyas, 109
kṣôd̄iyasā, 243
kṣôd̄iyôbh̄is, 243

Index

kṣôdiṣṭha, 109
kṣubdha, 120, 304
kṣubh, 87, 99, 120, 304
kṣubhyati, 99, 120, 304
kṣudra, 109, 130
ku, 300
kubja, 61
kuḍumba, 60
Kuh, 308
kula, 301
kulāla, 301
kulālacakram, 301
kulva, 301
kumbhakāra, 103
kup, 23, 87, 103, 113, 300
kupyati, 23, 300
Kür, 317
Kurfürst, 317
kurmas, 96
kuru, 161, 199, 200
kurutê, 200
kurvanti, 199
kurvas, 200
kurvatê, 200
kurvê, 200
Kurylowicz, Jerzy, 3
kusakhī, 300
kutas, 300
kuṭumba, 60
kū, 300, 301
kūcid, 300
kūpa, 301
kuvid, 300
Küche, 347

laā, 62
labdha, 39, 64, 120, 135
labdhum, 99, 110
labh, 99, 110, 120, 135
labhatê, 99, 120
labhyatê, 135
labio-velars, 20

ladā, 62
ladder, 76, 391
laddha, 64
lady, 331
laghu, 376
Laib, 77, 331
lament, 376
lang, 331
language tree, 3
languid, 392
laryngeal theory, 3, 21, 31, 32
laryngeals, 21, 31, 32, 102
lassen, 74
latā, 62, 226, 227
latānām, 227
latāsu, 226
latāyām, 226
Laub, 77
laufen, 75
lauschen, 391
laut, 391
läuten, 391
law of morae, 58
lax, 392
lead, 75
leaf, 77
lean, 391
leap, 75
leather, 75
leben, 77
lêbhê, 210
lecken, 378
Leder, 75
lêḍhi, 90, 171, 376–378
lêḍhum, 101
lehnen, 391
Lehnwort, 374
Leib, 77
leicht, 376
leihen, 374
Leim, 378
Leipzig school, 3

- leiten*, 75
Leiter, 76, 391
lêkhā, 48
lêkhitum, 102, 111
lêkṣi, 171
lêlihīti, 148
lêlihyatê, 148
Lenden, 374
lengthened *e*-grade, 26
lengthened grade, 113, 147
 causatives, 113
 derivatives, 147
lengthened *o*-grade, 26
Leskien, August, 2
let, 74
leukemia, 375
Leumund, 391
levelling, 7
levitate, 376
levity, 376
libido, 379
Licht, 375
lichterloh, 375
lick, 378
lie, 77
lieben, 77, 379
liegen, 77
life, 77
light, 375, 376
lih, 90, 123, 148, 170, 171, 173, 376, 378
lihati, 101
lihmas, 90
lī, 125, 378
līdha, 123, 377
līdhas, 173
līdhê, 172
līdhvê, 173
līna, 125
līyatê, 125
likh, 88, 111
likhati, 48
līlikṣati, 139
lime, 378
limpati, 88
lināti, 378
lip, 88
lipsā, 142
lipsu, 142
litigation, 275
live, 77
loaf, 77, 331
loan, 374
loan word, 374
lōbha, 103
locative
 plural, 226, 227
 singular, 225, 226
Loch, 74
lock, 74
lōga, 62
lohita, 375
loins, 374
lōka, 62, 379
long, 331
longitude, 331
lōa, 62
loud, 391
love, 77, 379
lubh, 103, 378
lubhyati, 378
Luchs, 375
Lucifer, 365, 375
Ludwig, 391
lügen, 77
lumbus, 374
lumpati, 89
lunāti, 125, 378
lup, 89
lupus, 385
lū, 125, 378
lūna, 125
lynx, 375
mā, 82, 91, 115, 207, 367

Index

- māmas*, 91
māṃsa, 368
māna, 28
mānasa, 147
mārayati, 113
mārga, 66
mās, 368
mātar, 223, 253, 254, 368
māti, 91
māyam, 115
mad, 225, 226, 228
madhu, 22, 263, 265, 366
madhuliṭ, 47
madhunī, 266
madhūni, 266
madhya, 22, 366
madonna, 326
magga, 66
magister, 367
magna, 118
magnate, 367
magnitude, 367
mahān, 238
mahant, 109, 238, 239, 367
mahatī, 239
mahattama, 109
mahattara, 109
mahi, 367
mahren, 69
majesty, 367
majj, 118, 366
majjati, 366
man, 84, 87, 98, 106, 110, 111, 119, 128, 135, 137, 367
manas, 28, 106, 147, 225–227, 367
manasām, 227
manasi, 225
manassu, 226
mandate, 329
manipulation, 355
mannigfaltig, 77
manta, 67
manth, 133
mantra, 67
mantum, 98, 110, 111
many, 77
manyatê, 84, 87, 98, 119, 135, 367
maraṇa, 44
marati, 370
mardanam, 105, 109
mardati, 370
martum, 97
marut, 222, 225–227, 229–231
marutām, 227
marutam, 228
maruti, 225
marutsu, 226
master, 367
mata, 28
matâu, 225, 226
maternity, 368
mathnāti, 133
mathyatê, 133
mati, 28, 128, 223, 225–227, 262, 264, 265, 367
matī, 262, 265
matīnām, 227
matīs, 262
matimant, 283
matiṣu, 226
matyām, 226
Maus, 370
mayi, 225
mead, 366
measure, 368
media, 366
mediocre, 286, 366
medium, 366
meed, 369
mēha, 63
mēns, 367
megabyte, 367
megafon, 367
megageil, 367

- megawatt*, 367
mêgha, 63, 105, 369
mêhati, 85, 105, 369
member, 368
meminā, 367
memory, 367
mênê, 210
mens, 28
menstruation, 368
mental, 28, 367
mentis, 367
mentor, 251
merge, 366
Mesopotamia, 22, 366
Met, 366
metaphor, 365
meter, 368
methane, 22, 366
mêthati, 368
mid, 367
middle, 367
 Middle Indic, 5, 56–66
 - anaptyxis, 58
 - consonants, 58–60
 - diphthongs, 57–59
 - law of morae, 58
 - svarabhakti, 58
 - vocalic *r*, 59
 - vowels, 57–59*Miete*, 369
mih, 85, 105, 116, 369, 370
mī, 369
mīdha, 44, 369
mīmāṃsā, 137, 144
mīv, 370
mīvati, 370
miks, 369
mimāti, 367
mimikṣu, 137, 369
mināti, 369
mind, 367
minister, 369
minus, 369
minute, 369
miracle, 401
mischen, 369
miś, 130, 137, 369
miśla, 369
miśra, 130, 369
miṣṭa, 130
misogyny, 316
missile, 368
miṭ, 116
mith, 368
Mitte, 367
mix, 369
mixture, 369
mlā, 83, 371
mnā, 84
mnāti, 84
mobility, 370
môdati, 132
môktum, 98, 110
Moll, 371
mollig, 371
Monat, 368
Mond, 368
monere, 69
monkey, 8
monstrance, 367
month, 368
mood, 75
moon, 368
mora, 371
morbid, 370
Mord, 370
morsch, 371
Mörser, 371
mortal, 370
mortar, 371
Mörtel, 371
mother, 368
mouse, 370
movement, 370

Index

- move*, 370
mṛ, 23, 97, 113, 117, 127, 133, 143, 370
mradyas, 109
mradiṣṭha, 109
mṛd, 105, 109, 116, 370
mṛdnāti, 370
mṛdu, 109, 370
mriyatê, 23, 97, 117, 133, 370
mṛṇāti, 371
mṝ, 371
mṝ, 83
mṛt, 116
mṛta, 117, 127
mṛti, 127
muc, 88, 98, 110, 118, 127, 137
much, 367
mud, 132
mudyatê, 132
muha, 63
mukha, 63
mukta, 118, 127
mukti, 127
multifarious, 339
mumukṣā, 137
mumukṣati, 137
mumukṣu, 137
mumūrṣā, 143
mumūrṣati, 143
mumūrṣu, 143
munâu, 225
muñcati, 88, 98, 118
muni, 223, 225–227, 262, 264, 265
munī, 262, 265
munīn, 262
munīnām, 227
muṇiṣu, 226
mūrbe, 371
murder, 370
muṣ, 202
muṣāṇa, 202
muṣṇāti, 202
Mut, 75
Mutter, 368
mūrchā, 371
hūrchatī, 408
mūsa, 370
nūnam, 346
na, 341
nādh, 130, 289
nādhātê, 289
nāga, 344
nāma, 270
nāman, 247, 248, 344
ṇaṇa, 60
nārāyaṇa, 342
nāsā, 343
nāth, 289
nāthātê, 289
nâu, 255
Nabel, 342
nabh, 342
nabhas, 342
nabhatê, 342
nabhya, 342
naca, 341
Nacht, 77, 341
nackt, 341
naddha, 121
nadī, 223, 226, 227, 256, 257
nadīnām, 227
nadīṣu, 226
nadyām, 226
nagara, 62
Nagel, 77
nagna, 341
nah, 121
ṇaha, 63
nāhren, 343
nail, 77
naiyāyika, 346
naked, 341
nakha, 63
nakta, 341

- naktam*, 341
nakula, 62
nam, 98, 106, 119, 128, 135
namas, 106
namati, 98, 119
Name, 344
name, 344
naṃṣtum, 100, 112, 343
namyatê, 135
nand, 106
nandana, 106
nantum, 98
naptar, 342
nara, 342
narapati, 263
narīṅṛtyatê, 151
Narten verbs, 178
nas, 343, 344
nasal infix classes, 93–95
nasatê, 343
Nase, 343
naś, 100, 112, 343
naṣṭa, 343
naśyati, 100, 343
nation, 315
nati, 128
nature, 315
nâu, 346
naūla, 62
nâuti, 91, 346
nautical, 346
Nautilus, 346
nava, 343
nave, 342
navigation, 275, 346
nayanam, 105
nayana, 60
nayara, 62
nayati, 25, 102, 125, 145, 344
nayitum, 102
ne, 341
Nebel, 342
nebula, 342
nebulous, 342
necrology, 343
need, 76
Neffe, 342
negate, 341
negative, 341
neoliberal, 68, 343
Neolithic, 68, 343
nephew, 342
nepotism, 342
neque, 341
Nerō, 342
nervous, 401
nêśus, 210
nest, 345
Nestor, 343
nêtā, 252
nêtar, 25, 107, 223, 251, 252
nêtari, 252
nêtrā, 252
nêtram, 108
nêtrbhis, 252
nêtrī, 252
nettle, 74
nêtum, 107, 108
neu, 343
neun, 343
neurology, 401
neuron, 401
neuter action nouns, 105, 131
neuter *r* stems, 266
new, 68, 343
New Indic, 67, 68
ni, 280, 344
Nichte, 342
nie, 341
niece, 342
night, 77, 341
nī, 102, 105, 107, 108, 125, 129, 134, 145,
257, 344
nīda, 345

Index

- nāpa*, 280
nāta, 125, 145
nāti, 129
nāyatê, 134
nine, 343
ninth class, 93, 94, 97, 200
nirbharam, 270
nirvāṇa, 383
nisci, 313
niścaya, 313
niścitam, 313
niṣṇa, 401
niṣṇāta, 401
nitarām, 344
nobility, 319
nocturnal, 341
nominal, 344
nōmen, 344
normal grade, 97–102
normal-grade root, 81
nose, 343
Not, 76
note, 319
notion, 319
nōttum, 98
nouns, 221–233, 237, 241–245, 250–253,
255, 257–260, 263, 264
 compensatory lengthening, 224
 consonantal nouns, 221, 222
 endings, 223
 genitive plural, 227, 228
 locative plural, 226, 227
 locative singular, 225, 226
 strong form, 221, 229–233, 237, 239,
 241–245, 251–253, 257–259, 263,
 264
 vocalic nouns, 221–223
 weak form, 229–233, 237, 239, 241–
 245, 251–253, 257–259, 263, 264
 word-final consonants, 231, 233
novelty, 343
November, 343
novice, 68, 343
novus, 68, 343
now, 346
nṛpa, 146
nṛt, 87, 151
nu, 91, 178, 346
nud, 88, 98, 118, 132
nudatê, 132
nudati, 98, 118
nude, 341
nudyatê, 132
numas, 91, 178
nun, 346
nunna, 118
nuvanti, 178
nyāya, 104, 346
nyac, 344
nyagrôdhapādapa, 344
nyag bhū, 344
nyak kṛ, 344

o-grade, 26
oath, 75
obedient, 289
obnoxious, 343
obsession, 394
occasion, 387
Ochse, 293
Ochsenfurt, 354
octave, 286
October, 286
octopus, 286
ocular, 274
oculus, 274
ôdman, 294, 298
of, 281
off, 281
official, 281
officium, 281
ôhatê, 296
Ohr, 290
ōñna, 66

- ôjas*, 35, 293, 296, 298, 379
ôjman, 298, 379
ôkas, 35, 298
occult, 388
ôman, 284, 298
one, 298
onerate, 278
onerous, 278
onomastic, 344
onus, 278
onweg, 382
ôlôia, 61
opera, 281
opfern, 281
optimus, 281
option, 289
opulent, 281
opus, 281
orbis, 284
orbit, 284
ore, 282
orient, 297
origin, 297
orphan, 284
ôṣati, 295
osseous, 287
ossify, 287
Ost, 296
osteoporosis, 287
Ostern, 296
other, 78, 279
out, 74, 294
over, 295
ovine, 285
ovis, 285
owl, 295
own, 293
ox, 293
Oxford, 354

pā, 82, 86, 91, 102, 106–108, 110, 115, 125,
129, 134, 137, 146, 151, 152, 207,
344, 350, 351
pācaka, 147
pāda, 344, 348
pādaja, 348
pādapa, 146, 348
pādarajas, 348
pāmas, 91
pāna, 146
pānam, 106
pāpāti, 151
pāpacīti, 149
pāpacyatê, 149
pāra, 354
pāśa, 352
pāstor, 350
pāsyati, 351
pāṭam, 114
pātar, 107
pāṭhayati, 113
pāti, 91, 350
pātram, 108
pātum, 102, 107, 108, 110, 351
pāyam, 115
pac, 98, 149, 347
pacati, 98, 347
pact, 352
pad, 118, 348
padhama, 60
paḍida, 60
padma, 58
paduma, 58
padyatê, 118, 348
pakka, 65
paktum, 98
pakva, 65, 347
pal, 366
palāy, 290
palāyatê, 290
palatalisation, 43
palatals, 20, 38
pañca, 67, 68, 347
pañcāśat, 347

Index

- pañkti*, 346
panna, 118
panth, 349
papāta, 320
papus, 351
paradigm, 330
parasmâipada, 155–157, 160, 161
pard, 350
pardatê, 350
parfumé, 339
pari, 34, 349
paribr̥dha, 361
pariṣad, 116
pariṣat, 116
participation, 387
participle, 387
paśu, 350
paśyati, 350
passive voice, 136
past participle, 119, 122
pastor, 350
pat, 81, 108, 135, 347
patati, 347
paternoster, 344
path, 75
paṭh, 113, 114, 135
path, 75, 349
paṭhita, 127, 135
paṭhitum, 102
paṭhyatê, 135
pati, 225–227, 263, 348
patinām, 227
paṭiṣu, 226
patita, 60, 135
patitum, 102, 108
patnī, 145
patram, 108
patriarch, 352
patrician, 352
patriot, 352
patron, 352
Patrone, 352
pattram, 108, 347
patyatê, 135
patyâu, 225, 263
patyus, 263
paüma, 58
pautra, 353
pavana, 106
pavisati, 60
pax, 352
pay-per-view, 350
payas, 106, 352
peculiar, 350
pecunia, 350
pecuniary, 73, 350
pecus, 350
peculium, 350
pedagogue, 275, 353
pedal, 73, 348
pedestrian, 348
pedicurist, 348
penna, 348
Pennäler, 348
pentagon, 347
pêp̥yâtê, 151
pepper, 75
per, 350
per se, 350
percent, 386
perfect, 339
perfume, 339
perimeter, 350
periphery, 350, 365
permit, 368
pernicious, 343
petere, 347
petition, 347
pêtus, 210, 320
pêya, 152
Pfad, 75, 349
Pfeffer, 75
Pflanze, 75
Pflicht, 77

- phala*, 223
phêna, 357
phenomenon, 362
pherō, 36
Philadelphia, 306
phone, 361
phoneme, 361
phonetics, 361
phosphor, 362, 365
photo, 362
phugoid, 363
phusai, 61
phusati, 61
physics, 364
pia, 64, 66
pibati, 86, 102, 125, 350, 351
picture, 352
pigment, 352
pī, 83, 106, 352
pīd, 353
pīdatê, 353
pīta, 125, 146, 351
pīti, 129
pīvan, 352
pīyatê, 134
pika, 352
pimśati, 352
pimśmas, 96
pīnaṣṭi, 96
pipāsā, 137
pipāsati, 137
pipāsu, 137
pīparīṣati, 143
pīparti, 354
piś, 352
piṣ, 96
pītā, 253
pitar, 223, 252, 253, 352
pitari, 253
pitrā, 253
pitṛbhis, 253
pitṛvya, 352
pitsu, 141
plant, 75
plate, 354
plava, 355
plavatê, 355
plebiscite, 355
plēbs, 355
plēnus, 355
plenary, 355
plenitude, 355
plenty, 355
plenum, 355
plight, 77
plīhan, 357
plu, 355
plus, 355
pluṣi, 357
pluvial, 355
podium, 348
Pokal, 351
pōksyati, 112
polygamy, 355
polyp, 348, 355
polyphony, 355
polypous, 355
pomegranate, 317
pontifex, 339, 349
pontiff, 339
pōscere, 38
porcelain, 356
porcellus, 356
porcus, 356
pore, 354
porous, 354
port, 354
poṣati, 353
pōṣṭum, 100, 112
potent, 348
potential, 348
potesse, 348
potion, 351
Pott, August Friedrich, 2

Index

- pr̥*, 354
pra, 355
prā, 83, 355
prāc, 355
prāgudac, 276
prāk, 276, 355
prāṇa, 278
prātar, 355
prāyaṇam, 105
prāyaśas, 272
prāyêṇa, 271
prabhu, 355, 364
pracch, 38, 46, 89, 100, 112, 121, 356
pracchā, 356
praecos, 347
praghnātayati, 404
prajā, 146
prajāpa, 146
prakṣyati, 112
pramāṇam, 367
praśna, 356
praṣtar, 356
praṣtum, 100, 112
prathama, 60
prati, 280, 356
pratibhū, 260
pratidinam, 270, 333
pratikāra, 356
pratīpa, 280, 356
pratikāra, 356
pratyaham, 270, 288
praviśati, 60
pr̥cchati, 59, 89, 100, 356
precious, 356
prêtyêha, 34
prefecture, 339
prefer, 365
pregnant, 315
present, 287
presiding, 394
prêta, 117, 128
pretension, 321
prêti, 128
pretium, 356
prevention, 305
prī, 356
prīṇāti, 356
primary endings, 155
primary palatalisation, 37, 38, 112
primogeniture, 316
principal, 387
priya, 64, 66, 109, 356
priyatama, 109
priyatara, 109
pr̥ṇāti, 127, 355
probiotic, 355
probus, 364
proclivity, 391
product, 355
profession, 362
professor, 362
profound, 360
promiscuity, 369
prophecy, 355
prophet, 361
prophylactic, 355
propriety, 357
prosper, 402
prosperity, 402
protest, 355
proverb, 355
provoke, 379
p̥r̥, 83, 127, 129, 133, 143, 355
pr̥ṣta, 356
pr̥ṣthatas, 271
pr̥t, 354
pr̥thivī, 354
pr̥thu, 354
pr̥thvī, 354
pr̥thvīpati, 354
pr̥thvītalām, 354
psā, 84, 362
psāti, 84, 362
puberty, 353

- pucchati*, 59
puerile, 353
pulmology, 303
pulmonary, 303
pumant, 353
punāni, 201
punāti, 93, 97, 125, 353
punanti, 201
punarbhū, 260, 364
punarbhvā, 260
punarbhvam, 260
punarbhvas, 260
punatê, 202
punê, 201
punīhi, 201
punīmas, 93, 97
pupūrṣati, 143
pur, 355
pure, 353
puru, 70, 355
puṣ, 100, 112, 202, 353
puṣāṇa, 202
puṣṇāti, 202
puṣyaṭi, 100
pustule, 353
putra, 66, 353
putta, 66
pū, 93, 97, 106, 125, 129, 134, 200, 353
pūrbhis, 355
pūrṇa, 127, 129, 133, 355
pūrti, 129
pūrus, 353
pūrva, 354
pūryatê, 133
pūta, 125
pūti, 129
pūyatê, 134
pyā, 83, 352

Quadrat, 312
 qualitative ablaut, 26
 quantitative ablaut, 26

quattuor, 312
que, 39, 311
queen, 316
querī, 392
querulous, 392
quick, 317
quicklebendig, 317
quīnque, 347
quintessence, 347
quintet, 347
quod libet, 379

r, 297
ṛṣ, 297
râi, 222, 255
rājan, 248
rājan, 222, 225–227, 245, 246, 374
rājani, 246
rājñām, 227
rāma, 34, 290
rāmāyaṇa, 34, 290
rāmāyaṇam, 106
rāṣṭram, 374
rāt, 67
rātri, 65, 67
rāyaskāma, 376
rāyati, 376
Rad, 373
raghú, 376
râi, 376
railroad, 374
rain, 77
raji, 374
ram, 98, 110, 119, 128, 135
ramatê, 98, 119
ramyatê, 135
randhra, 374
rañj, 87
rantum, 98, 110
rasa, 297
ratha, 373
rathêna, 44

Index

- rati*, 128
ratti, 65, 67
râuti, 91, 375
rava, 375
raw, 303
ṛcchati, 297
react, 275
real, 376
realtor, 376
receive, 387
recent, 299
recht, 374
recipere, 387
recognise, 319
recycle, 312
red, 76, 375
reduplicated roots, 85
reduplicative perfect, 203, 204, 206, 207,
210
 strong forms, 203, 204, 206, 207
 weak forms, 207, 210
rēgīna, 374
rēgula, 374
rēs, 376
Regel, 374
Regen, 77
regere, 374
regieren, 374
regime, 374
Regina, 374
region, 374
Regisseur, 374
regularity principle, 5, 6
Reich, 374
reich, 374
reiten, 75
rêkhā, 48
relic, 374
rêmê, 210
renovate, 68, 343
repeat, 347
report, 354
residing, 394
resist, 400
resolute, 378
resonance, 403
resonant, 58
restauration, 400
restore, 400
retort, 322
reus, 376
rheuma, 402
rhythm, 402
ric, 374
rich, 374
Richard, 374
richtig, 374
ride, 75
rī, 374
rīvus, 375
riṇāti, 374
riṇakti, 374
rinnen, 375
rival, 375
ṛkṣa, 46, 297
ṛṇa, 59
ṛṇōti, 297
rôcatê, 375
rôdha, 344
rôdhum, 101
rôditi, 91, 179, 375
roh, 303
rôhati, 101, 124
rōris, 297
rōs, 297
root aorist, 215
root nouns, 115, 116
roots, 81
 full-grade root, 81
 normal-grade root, 81
 reduplicated roots, 85
rot, 76, 375
rotate, 373
row, 284

- ṛṣi*, 59
ṛta, 283, 297
ṛtê, 297
ṛtvij, 283, 371
ru, 91, 375
ruber, 375
Rubin, 375
rubric, 375
Rubrik, 375
ruby, 375
ruc, 375
rud, 91, 130, 375
rudanti, 179
Ruder, 284
rudh, 192–194
rudhira, 375
rudimas, 91
rudita, 130
rudra, 130, 375
ruh, 101, 124
rule, 374
rumas, 91
rumour, 375
run, 375
ruṇaddhi, 192, 194
ruṇatsi, 194
runddhas, 194
runddhvê, 194
rundhanti, 194
rundhatê, 194
rundhmas, 192
rūa, 64
rūḍha, 124
rūpa, 64

s-z laws, 42
sa, 32, 34
sā, 395
sādayati, 114
sādh, 396
sādhati, 396
sādhu, 270, 396

sāhāyya, 290
sāhva(n)s, 211
saala, 62
sāma, 66
sāmi, 395
sānanda, 34
sāp, 68
sārtha, 34
sāsvapīti, 149
Saat, 76
sāt, 67
sāta, 394
sac, 393
sacatê, 393
sad, 52, 85, 98, 110, 114, 118, 135, 393
sadda, 64
sadyatê, 135
safe, 395
sagen, 77
sah, 101, 124, 211
sahāya, 290
sahasā, 271
sahasra, 66
sahassa, 66
sahati, 101, 124, 211
sakala, 62
sakhi, 393
sakkōti, 65
sakta, 64
Salbe, 395
salīre, 397
salto, 72, 397
salute, 395
salve, 395
sam, 34, 280, 395
samāgama, 103
samāja, 275
samāna, 278
samavāya, 290
same, 72, 395
samīpa, 280
sammeln, 395

Index

- samrāj*, 231, 232
samrāt, 232
samsad, 116
samsat, 116
samskrta, 302
samt, 395
sämtlich, 395
samupêta, 34
samūh, 296
samūha, 296
san, 394
sana, 394
sandhi rules, 23, 34, 35, 42
sane, 285
sanna, 118, 135
sanôti, 394
santi, 28
sap, 394
sapadi, 271
sapati, 394
sappa, 68
sapta, 64, 67, 394
sarati, 23, 58, 133, 397, 402
sarga, 105, 397
sarpa, 68
sarpati, 397
sarpís, 395
sarva, 395
sarvajña, 146
sasa, 60
sat, 287
satta, 64, 67
sattum, 98, 110
sattva, 287
sattvastha, 146
satya, 287
Sau, 397
Saussure, Ferdinand, 3
savanam, 105, 396
savati, 66
savitar, 107, 396
savitum, 107
say, 77
Schaf, 75
scharf, 313
Schaukel, 304
Scheibe, 314
scheinen, 314
schießen, 314
Schere, 313
scheren, 302
scheu, 301
scheuchen, 301
Scheusal, 301
schieben, 304
Schiefer, 314
schießen, 74
Schippe, 304
Schirm, 313
schism, 314
schlafen, 75
schlecken, 378
Schlegel, Friedrich, 1
Schleicher, August, 2
Schmied, 75
Schnee, 401
Schub, 304
Schulter, 76
schwebeablaut, 82, 83, 293, 319, 324, 331, 333, 336, 341, 352, 355, 371, 408
Schweiß, 404
Schwester, 404
schwören, 403
science, 314
scope, 350
sechs, 393
second, 393
second class, 89–91, 163, 164
second consonant shift, 74
secondary
 endings, 155
 palatalisation, 37, 38
sedentary, 394
sêdus, 210

- see*, 393
seed, 76
seek, 74
sêhê, 210
sem, 395
semi-final, 73, 396
semivowel, 22, 23
semper, 395
sempiternal, 395
sênā, 223
sênānī, 145
sênānīs, 257, 344
sênānyas, 345
sênānyê, 345
senate, 394
senator, 394
sinister, 394
septem, 72, 394
sepulture, 394
sequence, 393
sequi, 393
serpent, 73, 398
serum, 397
session, 394
sêṭ, 31, 34
seven, 77, 395
seventh class, 93, 94, 96, 191–197
sex, 72, 392
sextet, 392
śādhi, 178
śālā, 387
śāmyati, 88
śānta, 126, 130
śānti, 130
śās, 102, 108, 160, 177, 178, 388, 389
śāsti, 102, 388
śāstram, 108, 388
śāstratas, 271
śāstum, 102, 108
śabda, 64
śad, 387
śak, 93, 96, 187, 188
śaknôti, 65, 93, 96
śaknuhi, 189
śaknumas, 93, 96
śam, 88, 126, 130
śams, 386
śamsati, 386
śank, 386
śankatê, 386
śap, 387
śapati, 387
śaraṇa, 387
śarman, 387
sharp, 313
śas, 108, 388
śaṣ, 392
śaśa, 45, 60, 388
śaśāda, 387
śasti, 388
śastrabhṛt, 146
śastram, 108, 388
śastum, 108
śaṭ, 392
śatam, 37
śatām, 386
śataśas, 272
śatrughna, 404
śâuca, 62
śayatê, 390
śayu, 390
śayyā, 390
shear, 302
sheep, 75
śêtê, 390
śī, 390
śīghra, 131
śikṣu, 140
shine, 314
śiras, 389
śiṣya, 60
shit, 314
śithira, 59
śiva, 390

Index

- ślakṣṇa*, 392
ślōka, 391
śōbhayati, 113
śōcati, 85, 105
ṣōḍaśa, 392
śōka, 105
shoot, 74
śōśubhīti, 148
śōśubhyatê, 148
śōśucīti, 148
śōśucyatê, 148
shoulder, 76
shove, 304
shovel, 304
show, 301
śrāmyati, 88
śrānta, 126, 130
śrānti, 130
śrāvam, 115
śrāvayati, 114
śraddhā, 337, 390
śram, 88
śravaṇam, 105
śravas, 391
śrayati, 391
śrī, 391
śrī, 258
śṛṅga, 390
śṛṅōti, 94, 98, 118, 391
śṛṅu, 189
śrōmatam, 391
śrōtar, 107
śrōtram, 108
śrōtum, 98, 107, 108, 110
śru, 94, 98, 105, 107, 108, 110, 114, 115,
118, 128, 143, 189, 391
śruta, 118, 128
stuta, 134
śruti, 128
ṣṭīv, 393
ṣṭīvati, 393
subh, 148
śuc, 85, 105, 116, 148
śuk, 116
śuśrūṣā, 143
śuśrūṣatê, 143
śuśrūṣu, 143
śūnya, 390
śvān, 392
śvāna, 392
śvāsa, 392
śvas, 58, 91, 392
śvaśura, 45
śvasimas, 91
śvasīti, 91, 392
śvêta, 392
śvit, 130
śvitra, 130, 392
shy, 301
śyāma, 66
ṣōḍaśa, 51
sibilants, 42, 49
sich, 402
Sichel, 74
sicher, 75
siddha, 130
sidh, 87, 130, 396
sidhra, 130, 396
sidhyati, 87, 396
sieben, 77, 395
sigmatic aorist, 215–218
sīdati, 52, 85, 98, 118, 393
sīdere, 394
sīvyati, 396
similar, 395
simple, 395
siṣṛṣati, 143
sissa, 60
sister, 404
sistere, 400
sit, 394
Sitte, 403
siv, 396
sixth class, 88, 89

- skand*, 398
skandati, 398
skepticism, 350
slack, 392
sleep, 75
smāram, 115
smāsmarīti, 149
smāsmaryatê, 149
smarati, 58, 85, 97, 117
smartum, 97, 111
smaryatê, 135
smas, 90
smayatê, 401
smêra, 401
smith, 75
smṛ, 85, 97, 111, 115, 117, 128, 135, 149,
401
smṛta, 117, 128, 135
smṛti, 128
snā, 113, 401
snāpayati, 113
snāti, 401
snāvan, 401
snake, 344
snêgdhum, 99
snêha, 401
snigdha, 121, 401
snih, 87, 99, 121, 401
snihyati, 99, 121, 401
snow, 401
social, 393
sociolinguistics, 6
sôdara, 294
sôḍha, 124
Sohn, 397
solvere, 378
sômapa, 146
somnambulant, 403
somniferous, 403
somnus, 403
son, 397
sonare, 403
sonata, 403
sonic, 403
sōa, 62
sōl, 403
sorōr, 403
sorority, 403
sôṣupyatê, 149
sound laws, 6, 7, 19, 21–28, 31, 32, 34–37,
39–44, 48, 50, 51, 53, 68–71, 73,
75, 76, 78, 79, 400
souterrain, 323
sow, 397
spade, 76
spāhen, 350
sparkṣyati, 45, 112
sparṣtum, 45, 100, 112
Spaten, 76
Specht, 352
spectrum, 350
Speiche, 74
spew, 393
sphāy, 131, 401
sphāyatê, 401
sphira, 131, 401
spleen, 357
spoke, 74
sprakṣyati, 45
spraṣtum, 45, 100, 112
sprh, 401
sprhayati, 401
sprießen, 74
spring, 401
springen, 401
sprout, 74
sprś, 45, 100, 112
sprśati, 61, 100
spume, 357
sputum, 393
spūtum, 393
spy, 350
sr, 23, 133, 143, 397
śram, 126, 130

Index

- sraṣṭum*, 100
sravati, 66
sriyatê, 23, 133
sr̥j, 100, 105, 122, 129, 132, 397
sr̥jati, 100, 105, 397
sr̥jyatê, 132
sr̥p, 397
sr̥ṣṭi, 129, 397
sru, 402
stabhāna, 202
stabhnāti, 202
stan, 398
stanati, 398
stand, 400
starb, 71
starī, 398
starve, 76, 77
station, 400
status, 400
stâuti, 91, 98, 118
stēlla, 398
Steg, 398
stehen, 400
steigen, 398
Stein, 76
stellar, 398
sterben, 71, 76, 77
sterile, 398
Stern, 399
sthā, 86, 102, 106, 110, 113, 125, 129, 130, 134, 152, 207, 295, 399, 400
sthāman, 399
sthānam, 106
sthāpayati, 113
sthātum, 102, 110
sthag, 399
sthagayati, 399
sthêya, 152
sthīyatê, 134
sthira, 130, 399
sthita, 125, 129, 130, 134, 146, 400
sthitī, 129
sthūla, 400
sthūra, 399, 400
sti, 128
stigh, 398
stighnôti, 398
stigma, 322
stīr̥ṇa, 127, 398
stiyā, 399
stōhnen, 398
stone, 76
stops, 37, 47
stoßen, 323
stōtum, 98, 110
str̥, 127
st̄r̄, 398
stream, 402
strī, 259
str̥ṇāti, 398
str̥ṇôti, 398
str̥nôti, 127
Strom, 402
strong form, 27, 159, 160, 203, 204, 206, 207, 221, 229–233, 237, 239–245, 251–253, 257–259, 263, 264
 agent nouns, 251–253
 neuter *r̥* stems, 266
strong verbs, 71
stu, 91, 98, 110, 118, 128, 134
studēre, 323
study, 323
stumās, 91
stur, 400
stuta, 118, 128
stuti, 128
stūyatê, 134
su, 34, 96, 105, 187–189, 379, 396
suave, 402
sub, 294
śubh, 113
subject, 294
submit, 294
subset, 294

- subsist*, 400
substratum, 399
suchen, 74
sudhī, 260
sukara, 302
sukha, 396
sukham, 270
sulphur, 395
sumaradi, 58
sündhaft, 387
sunôti, 96
sunt, 28
sunu, 161, 189, 198
sunumas, 96
sunuvas, 189
sunvas, 189
super, 295
superb, 364
superficial, 295
superlative, 109
superman, 295
supervision, 295
sura, 8, 287
suṣṭhu, 399
süß, 402
sustain, 321
sustenance, 321
susvaram, 403
sū, 105, 107, 396
sūkara, 397
sūkta, 34, 379, 396
sūnu, 397
sūrya, 403
suus, 402
sūtā, 396
sūtê, 396
suvo, 58
sva, 402
svādu, 402
svāmin, 404
svad, 402
svadatê, 402
svadhā, 337, 402
svan, 403
svanati, 403
svanna, 396
svap, 91, 149, 403
svapanti, 179
svapimas, 91
svapiti, 91, 179, 403
svar, 403
svara, 403
svara, 26
svarabhakti, 58
svarati, 403
svasar, 254, 403
svaśrū, 257
svatas, 271
svêdatê, 404
svid, 404
swear, 403
sweat, 404
sweet, 402
syati, 395
syllabic
 liquids, 69, 70
 nasals, 69, 70
symposium, 351
syndicate, 330
syūta, 396

tādam, 114
tāpasa, 147
tāsām, 228
tāṣṭi, 211, 319
tad, 227, 319, 324
taḍ, 114
Tag, 75, 77
tāila, 57, 58
takṣ, 211, 319
takṣan, 319
takṣati, 319
takṣṇôti, 319
tama, 321

Index

- tamas*, 321
tame, 326
tamisra, 43, 321
tan, 93, 98, 111, 119, 128, 135, 197, 199, 320, 321
tanavâi, 199
tanmas, 96, 198
tanôti, 93, 96, 98, 119, 320
tantra, 320
tantum, 98, 111
tanu, 198, 320
tanumas, 93, 198
tanutê, 199
tanū, 320
tanvatê, 199
tanvê, 199
tanyatê, 135
tap, 106, 321
tapas, 106, 147, 250, 321
tapasvin, 250
tapati, 321
tapoja, 321
taras, 270
tarati, 127, 324
tarêṇa, 271
tark, 322
tarka, 322
tarkayati, 322
tarku, 322
tas, 322
Tat, 339
tata, 119
tatāna, 320
tatakṣa, 211
tati, 128
taub, 77
Taube, 77
tauchen, 74, 75
tâuti, 323
tava, 324
te, 311
tê, 324
tear, 74, 78, 286, 333
tēgula, 399
tēla, 57
Teig, 331
têjas, 106, 322
têjati, 322
tekhnē, 319
tēlla, 57, 58
temerity, 322
ten, 74, 326
tenacious, 321
tenebrae, 321
tension, 321
tenth class, 89
tênus, 210, 320
tepid, 321
terra, 323
terrarium, 323
terrible, 325
territory, 323
terror, 325
têṣām, 228
tetrahedron, 312
teuer, 76
textile, 319
that, 75, 319
thatcher, 399
Theke, 339
thematic
 aorist, 213, 214
 classes, 85, 88, 89
 verbs, 155–158
 endings, 155–158
thematic classes, 87
thematic verbs, 155
 endings, 157
theme, 339
thermic, 311
thesis, 339
thief, 75
thin, 321
thing, 75

- think*, 75
 third class, 92, 179–186
thirst, 75, 323
thistle, 322
thorn, 75
thou, 78, 325
thread, 324
three, 75, 78, 324
throne, 340
thronos, 340
through, 75
throw, 324
thumb, 323
thunder, 398
thyme, 339
tide, 74, 76
tief, 75
Tier, 75, 339
tigma, 322
tīk, 86
tīkṣṇa, 322
tīra, 324
tīrna, 127, 133, 324
tīrtha, 324
tīryatê, 133
tīvra, 131
tij, 106, 137, 322
till, 74
tilōa, 65
timber, 74, 326
tirac, 322
tiras, 322
tirati, 324
tiresome, 395
tiṣṭhati, 86, 102, 125, 399
tisras, 324, 404
tithēmi, 339
titīrṣati, 143, 324
titīrṣu, 143
titikṣatê, 137
titikṣu, 137
tityakṣati, 137
toast, 323
Tochter, 75, 333
toe, 330
toga, 69, 399
toi, 324
token, 330
tôkṣyati, 45, 112
tone, 321
tongue, 74, 316
tooth, 78, 277
Tor, 335, 340
tor stems, 251
torculum, 322
torkeln, 322
torquere, 322
torture, 322
tôṣṭum, 45, 100, 112
tostus, 323
tot, 76
tôttum, 98
tour, 324
tourist, 324
tourner, 324
town, 74, 78
trā, 83, 324
trâi, 115
trāns, 324
trâti, 324
trāyam, 115
trāyatê, 324
tradition, 329
transcend, 398
transfer, 365
transition, 291
transmit, 368
tras, 325
trasati, 325
trauen, 329
trayas, 51, 324
trayôdaśa, 51
tree, 76, 329
trēs, 78

Index

- Treue*, 329
triad, 324
trilôka, 65
trinken, 75
triumvirate, 324, 385
Trost, 329
trp, 87
tṛ, 66, 83, 127, 133, 143, 324
tṛṣ, 323
tṛṣyati, 323
true, 76, 329
Träne, 286
tu, 322
tubhyam, 324
tud, 88, 98, 118, 323
tudati, 88, 98, 118, 323
tumid, 323
tumour, 323
tumra, 323
tumult, 323
tun, 76, 339
tunna, 118
Tür, 76, 335
turīya, 312, 323
Turner, 324
Turnier, 324
Turnus, 324
tus, 45, 87, 100, 112
tusyati, 100
tutelage, 323
tutor, 323
tū, 78, 323
tvad, 225, 226, 228
tvam, 325
tvattas, 271
tvayi, 225
twiféte, 334
twig, 334
two, 334
tyāga, 64, 67
tyājayati, 113
tyājya, 152
tyaj, 85, 98, 113, 135, 137, 152
tyajati, 85, 98
tyajyatê, 135
tyakta, 135
tyaktum, 98
übel, 77
üben, 281
über, 295
ubha, 295
üblich, 281
uccais, 271
ucyatê, 132
ud, 34, 118, 130, 293, 294
udāna, 278
udac, 294
udak, 276, 294
udaka, 294
udan, 294
udara, 294
udayas, 104
udaya, 104
udayanam, 105
udder, 296
uḍdhi, 175
udita, 128
uditi, 128
udra, 130, 294
udyatê, 132
ugra, 130, 293
uhyatê, 132
ukkamati, 64
ukṣ, 130, 293
ukṣan, 293
ukṣati, 293
ukta, 34, 118, 127, 379
ukti, 127
ulcer, 284
ulcus, 284
ululāre, 295
ulūka, 295
umbilicus, 342

- unatti*, 118, 294
unbelievable, 70, 274
und, 294
unda, 294
undati, 294
under, 76, 277
uneffektiv, 70
ungläubig, 70, 274
unhappy, 70
unity, 298
unmārga, 294
unna, 118, 130, 294
uns, 78, 344
unter, 76, 277, 279
untrue, 274
upa, 34, 294, 295
upāya, 104
upāyanam, 105
upadēśa, 35, 294
upaniṣad, 116, 294, 393
upaniṣat, 116
upari, 295
upas, 295
upastha, 295
upasti, 287
upēkhā, 58
upēkkhā, 58
upēkṣā, 58
upēta, 117, 128
upēti, 128
upta, 118, 127
upti, 127
urine, 383
Urs, 297
Ursula, 297
ursus, 297
uru, 109
us, 78, 344
uṣ, 295
uṣas, 295
uṣita, 127, 381
uṣmas, 90
uṣṇa, 295
uṣṭa, 381
uṣṭhas, 174
uṣyatê, 132
uterus, 294
utkramati, 64
uttama, 35, 293, 321
uttamāujas, 35
uttara, 293, 294
utthāya, 399
ūcus, 209
ūḍha, 52, 123, 296, 381
ūdhar, 296
ūdhi, 129
ūdus, 209
ūh, 296
ūhati, 296
ūhus, 209
ūna, 35, 118, 383
ūnaviṃśati, 383
ūnus, 298
ūpus, 209
ūrdhva, 296
ūrdhvam, 296
ūrṇā, 296
ūṣus, 209
ūta, 284
ūti, 284
uvāca, 206

vā, 34, 82, 91, 118, 382, 383
vāc, 43, 232, 379
vācayati, 113
vāham, 115
vāja, 379
vākpatirāja, 64
vāmas, 91
vāñch, 383
vāñchati, 383
vār, 383
vāri, 266
vāta, 290, 382

Index

- vātāyana*, 34, 290
vāta, 34
vāti, 91, 382
vāvadīti, 149
vāvadyatê, 149
vāyati, 118, 383
vāyu, 382
vac, 45, 90, 98, 105–108, 110, 113, 118,
127, 132, 137, 164, 165, 232, 379
vacanam, 105
vacanti, 165
vacas, 106
vacmas, 90
vad, 105, 111, 132, 149
vaḍa, 60
vadanam, 105
vadati, 132
vadhū, 63, 226, 227, 257, 380
vadhūnām, 227
vadhūṣu, 226
vadhvām, 226
vaditum, 111
vagdhi, 165
vagga, 66
vah, 52, 101, 107, 115, 123, 129, 132, 381
vahati, 101, 132, 381
vahū, 63
vaiyākaraṇa, 386
vaiyadhikaraṇa, 386
vaiyarthyam, 386
vaj, 130, 131, 379
vajati, 379
vajja, 66
vajra, 66, 131, 379
vak, 131
vakra, 131
vakṣi, 165
vakṣyati, 45
vaktar, 107
vakti, 90, 98, 118, 132, 379
vaktam, 108
vaktum, 45, 98, 107, 108, 110
vam, 380
vamiti, 380
van, 380
vana, 35, 225, 227, 380
vanānām, 227
vanaspati, 263, 380
vanâukas, 35, 298, 380
vane, 383
vanê, 225
vanêṣu, 227
vanity, 383
vanôti, 380
vap, 118, 127
vapati, 118
vappaïrāa, 64
vara, 103, 385
varada, 146
vardhatê, 28, 120
vardhitum, 111
varga, 66, 385
varivṛtīti, 151
varivṛtyatê, 151
varīyas, 109
varisa, 58
varṣa, 58, 66
varṣati, 100
vartatê, 385
vartitum, 111
vas, 45, 81, 85, 90, 97, 108, 113, 132, 278,
380, 381
vasati, 85, 97, 132, 381
vaś, 43, 90, 173, 174
vaṣṭi, 90, 174
vaṣṭu, 174
vasīta, 381
vasitum, 108
vasmahe, 90
vassa, 66
vastê, 90, 380
vastram, 108
vastu, 108
vastum, 45, 97, 108, 113

- vāta*, 60, 61
Vater, 352
vatsyati, 45, 113, 381
vṛddhi, 26
vector, 382
vêda, 34, 103, 384
vêdānta, 34, 278, 383
vêdavit, 145
vêt, 34
vegetation, 379
vehicle, 382
velocity, 382
venîre, 305
ventilate, 382
Venus, 380
vêpana, 384
vêpatê, 384
verb, 386
verbal, 386
 verbal classes, 84–88, 91–95, 155
 athematic classes, 89–95
 class signs, 95
 eighth class, 94, 95
 fifth class, 94–96
 first class, 85, 86
 fourth class, 87, 88
 nasal infix classes, 93–95
 ninth class, 93, 94, 97
 second class, 89–91
 seventh class, 93, 94, 96
 sixth class, 88, 89
 tenth class, 89
 thematic classes, 85, 87–89
 third class, 92
 verbal system, 81, 85–88, 91–95, 97–100,
 102, 110, 114, 121, 136, 145, 146,
 155–166, 169–175, 177–179, 181–
 184, 187, 188, 191–194, 196, 197,
 199–201, 203–207, 209, 210, 213–
 217, 219
verdict, 330
verge, 385
Verhängnis, 386
verhüllen, 388
verlaufen, 356
vermaledeit, 330
 Verner's law, 78
verse, 385
versus, 385
vertical, 385
verzeihen, 330
vetenskap, 383
vêtsi, 166
vêtti, 90, 145, 383
vi, 23, 34
vibrant, 384
vicinity, 72, 384
vid, 89, 90, 103, 145, 166, 383
viddhi, 161, 166
video, 383
vidhā, 337
vidhavā, 384
vidhêya, 152, 337
vidhêyam, 337
vidhi, 337
vidita, 145
vidmas, 90
vidva(n)s, 244
vidvas, 244
vidyut, 116
Vieh, 350
vier, 312
vigilant, 379
vigorous, 379
vīcus, 384
vīhi, 66
vīra, 384
vīta, 117
vīvus, 39
Viktualienmarkt, 317
vimśati, 383
vind, 383
vindati, 89, 383
viōa, 64

Index

- vip*, 130, 384
viparīta, 34
vippa, 66
vipra, 66, 130, 384
virile, 385
virulent, 384
virus, 384
viś, 88, 116, 121, 129, 132, 384
vâśya, 384
viśāda, 147, 393
viṣam, 384
viśati, 132, 384
viśyatê, 132
vistara, 398
vistarêṇa, 271
viṣṭi, 129
viṭ, 48, 116
vital, 317
vitamin, 317
vitta, 145
vivakṣā, 137
vivakṣati, 137
vivakṣu, 137
vivardhayiṣati, 137
vivardhayiṣu, 137
vivartiṣati, 137
vivêka, 105
vivic, 105
vivinakti, 105
vivr̥tsati, 137
vīyôga, 64
vocalic
 nouns, 221–223
vocative, 379
vôḍhar, 107
vôḍhum, 51, 101, 107, 382
Vogt, 379
voice, 379
voisin, 384
Volk, 355
voll, 355
voluntary, 385
vomit, 380
von Schlegel, Friedrich, 1
totum, 297
vowel, 379
vowels, 21, 68
 gradation, 26–28
 sandhi rules, 23, 34, 35
vṛ, 97, 103, 133, 385
vrata, 386
vṛddha, 120, 128
vṛddhi, 128
vṛdh, 28, 111, 120, 128, 137
vrihi, 66
vriyatê, 133
vṛj, 385
vṛka, 385
vṛkta, 385
vṛṇāti, 97, 133
vṛṇakti, 385
vṛṇāmas, 97
vṛṇitê, 385
vṛs, 100, 122, 129
vṛṣṭi, 129
vṛt, 111, 137, 151, 385
vṛtrahan, 404
vyākaraṇam, 386
vyāna, 278
vyadhikaraṇa, 386
vyagra, 66
vyartha, 386
vyartham, 23
vyasanam, 105
vyaya, 104

wachen, 379
wachsen, 293
wacker, 379
Wagen, 382
Wahl, 385
wahrhaftig, 387
wake, 379
warb, 71

- warf*, 71
warm, 311
was, 74, 299, 300, 381
Wasser, 294
water, 294
Waterloo, 379
wax, 293
way, 77, 382
weak, 74
 weak form, 27, 159, 160, 207, 210, 229–
 233, 237, 239–245, 251–253, 257–
 259, 263, 264
 agent nouns, 251–253
 kinship nouns, 251–253
 neuter *r* stems, 266
 weak verbs, 71
wear, 380
wecken, 379
wed, 380
Weg, 77, 382
weg, 382
wehen, 382
weich, 74
weigh, 382
weight, 77
weise, 383
weiß, 74, 392
weit, 76
wer, 300
werben, 71
werden, 385
werewolf, 385
werfen, 71
Wergeld, 385
Werwolf, 385
Weste, 380
wetten, 380
what, 74, 299, 300
white, 74, 392
who, 300
wholesome, 395
whore, 69, 299
wide, 76
widow, 76, 384
Wiege, 382
wiegen, 382
Wilhelm, 388
will, 385
Wille, 385
Willkür, 385
win, 380
Winfred, 380
wise, 383
wish, 78, 383
Wissenschaft, 383
Witwe, 76, 384
Woge, 382
wohnen, 380
Wolf, 70, 385
wolf, 385
Wolle, 296
wollen, 385
Wonne, 380
wool, 296
word, 386
 word-final consonants, 47, 231, 233
Wort, 386
wünschen, 78
Wurm, 385

yā, 84
yā, 82, 84, 91, 165, 372
yāmas, 91
yathākāmam, 270
yāti, 91, 372
yāyacīti, 149
yāyacyatê, 149
yac, 149
yacchati, 98, 119, 371, 372
yaj, 42, 44, 45, 100, 110, 122, 123, 129,
 132, 283, 371
yajati, 132, 371
yajatê, 44
yajña, 65

Index

- yakṣyati*, 45
yam, 98, 108, 119, 128, 135, 371
yama, 372
yamala, 372
yamyatê, 135
jaṇṇa, 65
yanti, 28
yantram, 108
yantum, 98, 108
yaṣṭum, 100, 110
yata, 372
yathā, 63
yati, 128
yâuti, 372
yâuvana, 58
yava, 372
yavīyans, 373
yaviṣṭha, 373
yawn, 77, 405
yellow, 77, 405, 406
yesterday, 409
yêtê, 210
yôddhum, 99
yôga, 104, 105, 373
yôggā, 65
yôgī, 63, 250
yôgin, 222, 249
yôgyā, 65
yoke, 373
yôktum, 98, 110
young, 373
yu, 372
yucchati, 372
yuddha, 63, 120
yudh, 47, 99, 116, 120, 131
yudhāna, 131
yudhiṣṭhira, 399
yudhyatê, 99, 120
yuga, 373
yuj, 93, 96, 98, 104, 105, 110, 118, 127,
136, 192, 193, 373
yukta, 118, 127
yukti, 127
yunāti, 372
yunakti, 93, 96, 98, 105, 118, 192, 373
yuñjanti, 193
yuñjatê, 104, 193
yuñjmas, 96, 192
yuṣmākam, 228
yuṣmāsu, 226
yut, 116
yūṣa, 372
yuvan, 289, 373
yuvaśa, 373
yuvat, 373
yuyôja, 206
yuyôti, 372

zahn, 326
Zahn, 78, 277
Zähre, 286
Zaun, 74, 78
Zehe, 330
zehn, 74, 326
Zeichen, 330
Zeigefinger, 330
zeigen, 330
Zeit, 74, 76
Zelle, 388
Zen, 341
zero grade, 26, 115
zero-grade root, 85
zerren, 74, 78, 333
Zeus, 333
Ziegel, 399
Ziel, 74
ziemlich, 326
Zimmer, 74, 326
Zuber, 365
Zunge, 74, 316
zwei, 334
Zweig, 334
Zwieback, 335
Zwiesprache, 335

Zwilling, 335
Zwirn, 335
zwischen, 335
Zwitter, 335

Printing and Binding
Books on Demand GmbH
In de Tarpen 42, 22848 Norderstedt, Germany

Students of Sanskrit can choose among several good manuals. Whichever they may choose, learning Sanskrit is a daunting task. 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 (abbreviated by E) *eat* and New High German (NHG) *essen*. There was an Indo-European (IE) root *ed* that branched out into all these words over some millennia. Even E *tooth* and NHG *Zahn* stem from IE *ed*.

Comparative Indo-European philology and the study of Sanskrit have been going their separate ways for too long. What students of Sanskrit would greatly profit from is a book that points out the parallels between Sanskrit and early European languages like Latin or Greek that they know, for example, from loanwords present in English and many other languages.

“Sanskrit as an Indo-European Language” does this in all the detail one could hope for: it offers systematic comparative accounts on all relevant levels of language, from phonology to morphology and lexicology, and gives readers the background knowledge that will also let them recognise all the parallels that are not immediately obvious. This comprehensive study will be of great benefit to students of Indo-European and Sanskrit alike.

Antonia Ruppel, author of “The Cambridge Introduction to Sanskrit”

