

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.

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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.

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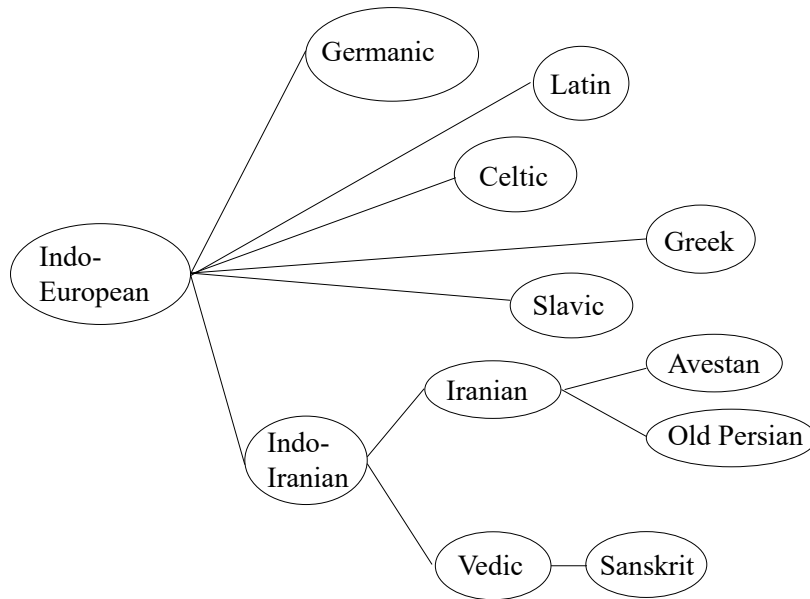


Figure A.1.: The Indo-European Language Tree

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),

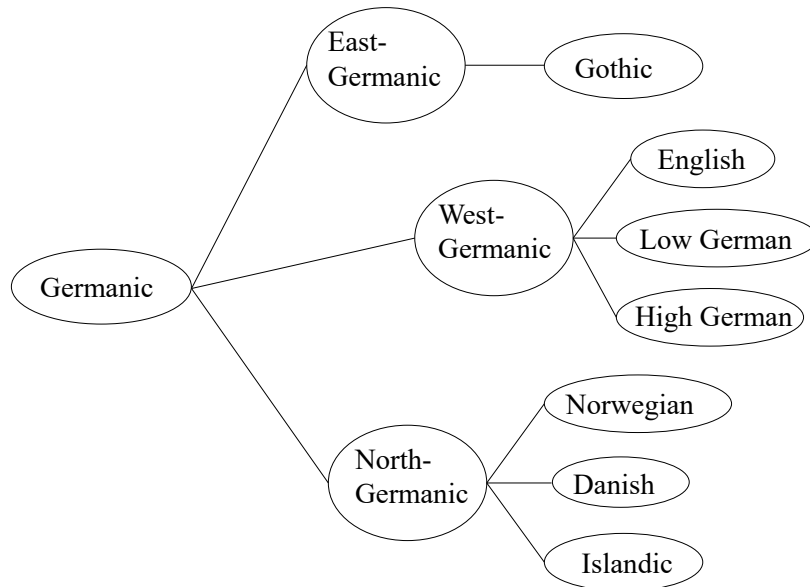


Figure A.2.: The Germanic Language Tree

- ◇ 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 [...]”

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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*.

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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**)

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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

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- ◇ R = resonants (L, N, SV)
- ◇ S = sibilants:
 - voiceless: $\acute{s}, \mathfrak{s}, s$ (palatal, cerebral, and dental, respectively)
 - voiced: $\acute{z}, \mathfrak{z}, z$ (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)
- ◇ \mathfrak{p} = 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

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- **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

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- ◇ 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)