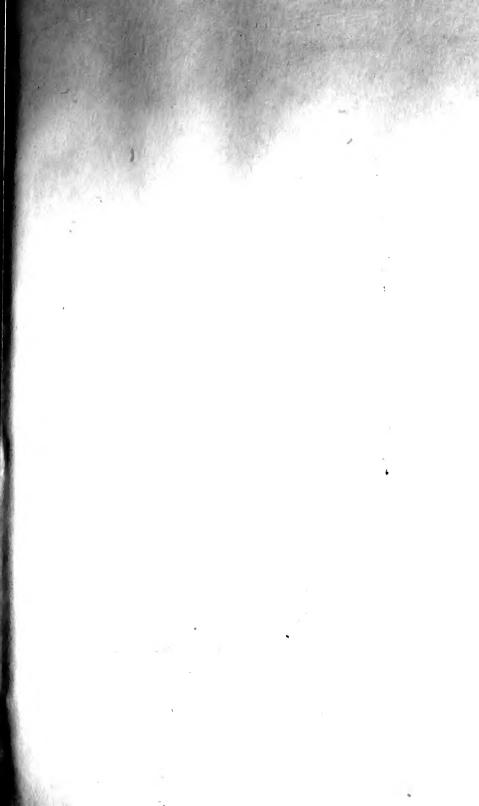


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BIBLIOTHEK

INDOGERMANISCHER GRAMMATIKEN

BEARBEITET VON

F. BÜCHELER, H. HÜBSCHMANN, A. LESKIEN, G. MEYER, E. SIEVERS, H. WEBER, W. D. WHITNEY, E. WINDISCH.

BAND II.

A SANSKRIT GRAMMAR, INCLUDING BOTH THE CLASSICAL LANGUAGE, AND THE OLDER DIALECTS, OF VEDA AND BRAHMANA

BY WILLIAM DWIGHT WHITNEY.

LEIPZIG,

DRUCK UND VERLAG VON BREITKOPF UND HÄRTEL. 1879.

SANSKRIT GRAMMAR,

INCLUDING BOTH THE CLASSICAL LANGUAGE, AND THE OLDER DIALECTS, OF VEDA AND BRAHMANA.

BY

WILLIAM DWIGHT WHITNEY,

PROFESSOR OF SANSKRIT AND COMPARATIVE PHILOLOGY IN YALE COLLEGE, NEW-HAVEN;
CORRESPONDENT OF THE ACADEMIES OF BERLIN AND ST. PETERSBURG, AND OF THE
INSTITUTE OF FRANCE, ETC. ETC.

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SANSKRIT GRAMMAR,

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Printers: Breitkopf & Härtel, Leipzig.

PREFACE.

It was in June, 1875, as I chanced to be for a day or two in Leipzig, that I was unexpectedly invited to prepare the Sanskrit grammar for the Indo-European series projected by Messrs. Breitkopf and Härtel. After some consideration. and consultation with friends, I accepted the task, and have since devoted to it what time could be spared from regular duties, after the satisfaction of engagements earlier formed. If the delay seems a long one, it was nevertheless unavoidable; and I would gladly, in the interest of the work itself. have made it still longer. In every such case, it is necessary to make a compromise between measurably satisfying a present pressing need, and doing the subject fuller justice at the cost of more time: and it seemed as if the call for a Sanskrit grammar on a somewhat different plan from those already in use — excellent as some of these in many respects are — was urgent enough to recommend a speedy completion of the work begun.

The objects had especially in view in the preparation of this grammar have been the following:

To make a presentation of the facts of the language primarily as they show themselves in use in the literature, and only secondarily as they are laid down by the native grammarians. The earliest European grammars were by the necessity of the case chiefly founded on their native predecessors; and a traditional method was thus established which has been perhaps somewhat too closely adhered to, at the expense of clearness and of proportion, as well as of scientific truth. Accordingly, my attention has not been directed toward a profounder study of the grammatical science of the Hindu schools: their teachings I have been contented to take

as already reported to Western learners in the existing Western grammars.

To include also in the presentation the forms and constructions of the older language, as exhibited in the Veda and the Brāhmana. Grassmann's excellent Index-Vocabulary to the Rig-Veda, and my own manuscript one to the Atharva-Veda (which I hope soon to be able to make public), gave me in full detail the great mass of Vedic material; and this, with some assistance from pupils and friends, I have sought to complete, as far as the circumstances permitted, from the other Vedic texts and from the various works of the Brāhmana period, both printed and manuscript.

To treat the language throughout as an accented one, omitting nothing of what is known respecting the nature of the Sanskrit accent, its changes in combination and inflection, and the tone of individual words — being, in all this, necessarily dependent especially upon the material presented by the older accentuated texts.

To cast all statements; classifications, and so on, into a form consistent with the teachings of linguistic science. In doing this, it has been necessary to discard a few of the long-used and familiar divisions and terms of Sanskrit grammar - for example, the classification and nomenclature of "special tenses" and "general tenses" (which is so indefensible that one can only wonder at its having maintained itself so long, the order and terminology of the conjugation-classes, the separation in treatment of the facts of internal and external euphonic combination, and the like. But care has been taken to facilitate the transition from the old to the new: and the changes, it is believed, will commend themselves to unqualified acceptance. It has been sought also to help an appreciation of the character of the language by putting its facts as far as possible into a statistical form. In this respect the native grammar is especially deficient and misleading.

Regard has been constantly had to the practical needs of the learner of the language, and it has been attempted, by due arrangement and by the use of different sizes of

type, to make the work as usable by one whose object it is to acquire a knowledge of the classical Sanskrit alone as those are in which the earlier forms are not included. The custom of transliterating all Sanskrit words into European characters, which has become usual in European Sanskrit grammars, is, as a matter of course, retained throughout; and, because of the difficulty of setting even a small Sanskrit type with anything but a large European, it is practiced alone in the smaller sizes.

While the treatment of the facts of the language has thus been made a historical one, within the limits of the language itself, I have not ventured to make it comparative, by bringing in the analogous forms and processes of other related languages. To do this, in addition to all that was attempted beside, would have extended the work, both in content and in time of preparation, far beyond the limits assigned to it. And, having decided to leave out this element, I have done so consistently throughout. Explanations of the origin of forms have also been avoided, for the same reason and for others, which hardly call for statement.

A grammar is necessarily in great part founded on its predecessors, and it would be in vain to attempt an acknowledgment in detail of all the aid received from other scholars. I have had at hand always especially the very scholarly and reliable brief summary of Kielhorn, the full and excellent work of Monier Williams, the smaller grammar of Bopp (a wonder of learning and method for the time when it was prepared, and the volumes of Benfey and Müller. As regards the material of the language, no other aid, of course, has been at all comparable with the great Petersburg lexicon of Böhtlingk and Roth, the existence of which gives by itself a new character to all investigations of the Sanskrit language. What I have not found there or in the special collections made by myself or by others for me, I have called below "not quotable" — a provisional designation, necessarily liable to correction in detail by the results of further researches. For what concerns the verb, its forms and their classification and uses, I have had, as every one

must have, by far the most aid from Delbrück, in his Altindisches Verbum and his various syntactical contributions. Former pupils of my own, Prof. Avery and Dr. Edgren, have also helped me, in connection with this subject and with others, in a way and measure that calls for public acknowledgment. In respect to the important matter of the declension in the earliest language, I have made great use of the elaborate paper in the Journ. Am. Or. Soc. (printing contemporaneously with this work, and used by me almost, but not quite, to the end of the subject) by my former pupil Prof. Lanman; my treatment of it is founded My manifold obligations to my own teacher, Prof. Weber of Berlin, also require to be mentioned: among other things, I owe to him the use of his copies of certain unpublished texts of the Brāhmana period, not otherwise accessible to me; and he was kind enough to look through with me my work in its inchoate condition, favoring me with valuable suggestions. For this last favor I have likewise to thank Prof. Delbrück — who, moreover, has taken the trouble to glance over for a like purpose the greater part of the proof-sheets of the grammar, as they came from the press. To Dr. L. Schröder is due whatever use I have been able to make (unfortunately a very imperfect one) of the important Mātriāvanī-Sanhitā.

Of the deficiencies of my work I am, I think, not less fully aware than any critic of it, even the severest, is likely to be. Should it be found to answer its intended purpose well enough to come to another edition, my endeavor will be to improve and complete it; and I shall be grateful for any corrections or suggestions which may aid me in making it a more efficient help to the study of the Sanskrit language and literature.

GOTHA, July 1879.

INTRODUCTION.

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BRIEF ACCOUNT OF THE INDIAN LITERATURE.

It seems desirable to give here such a sketch of the history of Indian literature as shall show the relation to one another of the different periods and forms of the language treated in the following grammar, and the position of the works there quoted.

The name "Sanskrit" (samskrta, 1087 d, 'adorned, elaborated, perfected'), which is popularly applied to the whole ancient and sacred language of India, belongs more properly only to that dialect which, regulated and established by the labors of the native grammarians, has led for the last two thousand years or more an artificial life, like that of the Latin during most of the same period in Europe, as the written and spoken means of communication of the learned and priestly caste; and which even at the present day fills that office. It is thus distinguished, on the one hand, from the later and derived dialects - as the Prakrit, forms of language which have datable monuments from as early as the third century before Christ, and which are represented by inscriptions and coins, by the speech of the uneducated characters in the Sanskrit dramas (see below), and by a limited literature; the Pali, a Prakritic dialect which became the sacred language of Buddhism in Farther India, and is

still in service there as such; and yet later and more altered tongues forming the transition to the languages of Modern India. And, on the other hand, it is distinguished, but very much less sharply and widely, from the older dialects or forms of speech presented in the canonical literature, the Veda and Brāhmaṇa.

This fact, of the fixation by learned treatment of an authorized mode of expression, which should thenceforth be used according to rule in the intercourse of the educated, is the cardinal one in Indian linguistic history; and as the native grammatical literature has determined the form of the language, so it has also to a large extent determined the grammatical treatment of the language by European scholars.

Much in the history of the learned movement is still obscure, and opinions are at variance even as to points of prime consequence. Only the concluding works in the development of the grammatical science have been preserved to us; and though they are evidently the perfected fruits of a long series of learned labors, the records of the latter are lost beyond recovery. The time and the place of the creation of Sanskrit are unknown; and as to its occasion, we have only our inferences and conjectures to rely upon. seems, however, altogether likely that the grammatical sense of the ancient Hindus was awakened in great measure by their study of the traditional sacred texts, and by their comparison of its different language with that of contemporary use. It is certain that the grammatical study of those texts (çākhās, lit'ly 'branches'), phonetic and other, was zealously and effectively followed in the Brahmanic schools; this is attested by our possession of a number of phonetico-grammatical treatises, prātiçākhyas (prati çākhām, 'belonging to each several text', one having for subject each principal Vedic text, and noting all its peculiarities of form; these, both by the depth and exactness of their own researches and by the number of authorities which they quote, speak plainly of a lively scientific activity continued during a long time. What part, on the other hand, the notice of differences between the correct speech of the learned and the altered dialects of the vulgar may have borne in the same movement is not easy to determine; but it is not customary that a language has its proper usages fixed by rule until the danger is distinctly felt of its undergoing corruption.

The labors of the general school of Sanskrit grammar

reached a climax in the grammarian Pānini, whose text-book, containing the facts of the language cast into the highly artful and difficult form of about four thousand algebraicformula-like rules (in the statement and arrangement of which brevity alone is had in view, at the cost of distinctness and unambiguousness, became for all after time the authoritative, almost sacred, norm of correct speech. Respecting his period, nothing really definite and trustworthy is known; but he is with much probability held to have lived some time (two to four centuries) before the Christian era. He has had commentators in abundance, and has undergone at their hands some measure of amendment and completion; but he has not been overthrown or superseded. The chief and most authoritative commentary on his work is that called the Mahābhāshya, 'great comment', in which Kātyāyana's strictures on his rules are examined and discussed by Patanjali.

A language, even if not a vernacular one, which is in tolerably wide and constant use for writing and speaking, is, of course, kept in life principally by direct tradition, by communication from teacher to scholar and the study and imitation of existing texts, and not by the learning of grammatical rules; yet the existence of grammatical authority, and especially of a single one, deemed infallible and of prescriptive value, could not fail to exert a very strong regulative influence, leading to the avoidance more and more of what was, even if lingering in use, inconsistent with his teachings, and also, in the constant reproduction of texts. to the gradual effacement of whatever they might contain that was unapproved. Thus the whole more modern literature of India has been Paninized, so to speak, pressed into the mould prepared by him and his school. What are the

limits of the artificiality of this process is not yet known. The attention of special students of the Hindu grammar (and the subject is so intricate and difficult that the number is exceedingly small of those who have mastered it sufficiently to have a competent opinion on such general matters) has been hitherto mainly directed toward determining what the Sanskrit according to Pānini really is, toward explaining the language from the grammar. And, naturally enough, in India, or wherever else the leading object is to learn to speak and write the language correctly - that is, as authorized by the grammarians — that is the proper course to This, however, is not the way really to understand pursue. the language. The time must soon come, or it has come already, when the endeavor shall be instead to explain the grammar from the language; to test in all details, so far as shall be found possible, the reason of Panini's rules (which contain not a little that seems problematical, or even sometimes perverse; to determine what and how much genuine usage he had everywhere as foundation, and what traces may be left in the literature of usages possessing an inherently authorized character, though unratified by him.

By the term "classical" or "later" language, then, as constantly used below in the grammar, is meant the language of those literary monuments which are written in conformity with the rules of the native grammar: virtually, the whole proper Sanskrit literature. For although parts of this are doubtless earlier than Pānini, it is impossible to tell just what parts, or how far they have escaped in their style the levelling influence of the grammar. The whole, too, may be called so far an artificial literature as it is written in a phonetic form (see grammar, 103) which never can have been a truly vernacular and living one. Nearly all of it is metrical: not poetic works only, but narratives, histories (so far as anything deserving that name can be said to exist), and scientific treatises of every variety, are done into verse; a prose and a prose literature (except in the commentaries) hardly has an existence. Of linguistic history there is next to nothing in it all; but only a history of style, and this

for the most part showing a gradual depravation, an increase of artificiality and an intensification of certain more undesirable features of the language — such as the use of passive constructions and of participles instead of verbs, and the substitution of compounds for sentences.

This being the condition of the later literature, it is of so much the higher consequence that there is an earlier literature, to which the suspicion of artificiality does not attach, or attaches at least only in a minimal degree, which has a truly vernacular character, and abounds in prose as well as verse.

The results of the very earliest literary productiveness of the Indian people are the hymns with which, when they had only crossed the threshold of the country, and when their geographical horizon was still limited to the riverbasin of the Indus with its tributaries, they praised their gods, the deified powers of nature, and accompanied the rites of their comparatively simple worship. At what period these were made and sung cannot be determined with any approach to accuracy: it may have been as early as 2000 B.C. They were long handed down by oral tradition, preserved by the care, and increased by the additions and imitations, of succeeding generations; the mass was ever growing, and, with the change of habits and beliefs and religious practices, was becoming variously applied - sung in chosen extracts, mixed with other material into liturgies, adapted with more or less of distortion to help the needs of a ceremonial which was coming to be of immense elaboration and intricacy. And, at some time in the course of this history, there was made for preservation a great collection of the hymn-material, mainly its oldest and most genuine part, to the extent of over a thousand hymns and ten thousand verses, arranged according to traditional authorship and to subject and length of hymn: this collection is the Rig-Veda, 'Veda of verses (rc) or hymns'. Other collections were made also out of the same general mass of traditional material: doubtless later, although the interrelations of this period are as yet too unclear to allow of

our speaking with entire confidence as to anything concerning them. Thus, the Sama-Veda, 'Veda of chants (saman', containing only about a sixth as much, its verses nearly all found in the Rig-Veda also, but appearing here with numerous differences of reading; these were passages put together for chanting at the soma-sacrifices. Again, collections called by the comprehensive name of Yajur-Veda, 'Veda of sacrificial formulas (yajus)': these contained not verses alone, but also numerous prose utterances, mingled with the former. in the order in which they were practically employed in the ceremonies; they were strictly liturgical collections. Of these, there are in existence several texts, which have their mutual differences: the Vājasaneyi-Samhitā (in two slightly discordant versions, Mādhyandina and Kānva, sometimes also called the White Yajur-Veda; and the various and considerably differing texts of the Black Yajur-Veda, namely the Tāittirīya-Samhitā, the Māitrāyanī-Samhitā, and the Kāthaka (the two last not yet published). Finally, another historical collection, like the Rig-Veda. but made up mainly of later and less accepted material. and called (among other less current names) the Atharva-Veda, 'Veda of the Atharvans (a legendary priestly family)'; it is somewhat more than half as bulky as the Rig-Veda, and contains a certain amount of material corresponding to that of the latter, and also a number of brief prose passages. To this last collection is very generally refused in the orthodox literature the name of Veda; but for us it is the most interesting of all. after the Rig-Veda, because it contains the largest amount of hymn-material (or mantra, as it is called, in distinction from the prose $br\bar{a}hmana$, and in a language which, though distinctly less antique than that of the other, is nevertheless truly Vedic. Two versions of it are extant, one of them only in a single known manuscript.

A not insignificant body of like material, and of various period (although doubtless in the main belonging to the latest time of Vedic productiveness, and in part perhaps the imitative work of a yet more modern time), is scattered through the texts to be later described, the $Br\bar{a}lmanas$ and

the Sutras. To assemble and sift and compare it is now one of the pressing needs of Vedic study.

The fundamental divisions of the Vedic literature here mentioned all have had their various schools of sectaries, each of these with a text of its own, showing some differences from those of the other schools: but those mentioned above are all that are now known to be in existence; and the chance of the discovery of others grows every year smaller.

The labor of the schools in the conservation of their sacred texts was extraordinary, and has been crowned with such success that the text of each school, whatever may be its differences from those of other schools, is virtually without various readings, preserved with all its peculiarities of dialect, and its smallest and most exceptional traits of phonetic form, pure and unobscured. It is not the place here to describe the means by which, in addition to the religious care of the sectaries, this accuracy was secured: forms of text, lists of peculiarities and treatises upon them, and so on. When this kind of care began in the case of each text, and what of original character may have been effaced before it, or lost in spite of it, cannot be told. But it is certain that the Vedic records furnish, on the whole. a wonderfully accurate and trustworthy picture of a form of ancient Indian language (as well as ancient Indian beliefs and institutions) which was a natural and undistorted one, and which goes back a good wav behind the classical Sanskrit. Its differences from the latter the following treatise endeavors to show in detail.

Along with the verses and sacrificial formulas and phrases in the texts of the Black Yajur-Veda are given long prose sections, in which the ceremonies are described, their meaning and the reason of the details and the accompanying utterances are discussed and explained, illustrative legends are reported or fabricated, and various speculations, etymological and other, are indulged in. Such matter comes to be called $br\bar{a}hmana$ (apparently 'relating to the brahman or worship'). In the White Yajur-Veda, it is separated into

a work by itself, beside the samhita or text of verses and formulas, and is called the Catapatha-Brāhmana, Brāhmana of a hundred ways'. Other similar collections are found, belonging to various other schools of Vedic study, and they bear the common name of Brāhmaņa, with the name of the school, or some other distinctive title, prefixed. Thus, the Aitareya and Kāushītaki-Brāhmaņas, belonging to the schools of the Rig-Veda, the Pañcavinça and Shadvinça-Brāhmanas and other minor works, to the Sāma-Veda; the Gopatha-Brāhmana, to the Atharva-Veda; and a Jāimini-Brāhmana, to the Sāma-Veda, has just (Burnell) been discovered in India; the Taittiriya-Brahmana is a collection of mingled mantra and brahmana, like the samhita of the same name, but supplementary and later. These works are likewise regarded as canonical by the schools, and are learned by their sectaries with the same extreme care which is devoted to the sainhitas, and their condition of textual preservation is of a kindred excellence. To a certain extent, there is among them the possession of common material: a fact the bearings of which are not yet fully understood.

Notwithstanding the inanity of no small part of their contents, the Brāhmaṇas are of a high order of interest in their bearings on the history of Indian institutions; and philologically they are not less important, since they represent a form of language in most respects intermediate between the classical and that of the Vedas, and offer specimens on a large scale of a prose style, and of one which is in the main a natural and freely developed one — the oldest and most primitive Indo-European prose.

Beside the Brāhmanas are sometimes found later appendices, of a similar character, called $\bar{A}ranyakas$ ('forest-sections'): as the $\bar{A}itareya-\bar{A}ranyaka$, $T\bar{a}ittir\bar{\imath}ya-\bar{A}ranyaka$, $Brhad-\bar{A}ranyaka$, and so on. And from some of these, or even from the Brāhmanas, are extracted the earliest Upa-nishads ('sittings, lectures on sacred subjects') — which, however, are continued and added to down to a comparatively modern time. The Upanishads are one of the lines

by which the Brāhmana literature passes over into the later theological literature.

Another line of transition is shown in the Sutras ('lines, rules'). The works thus named are analogous with the Brāhmanas in that they belong to the schools of Vedic study and are named from them, and that they deal with the religious ceremonies: treating them, however, in the way of prescription, not of dogmatic explanation. Thev. too, contain some mantra or hymn-material, not found to occur elsewhere. In part (crāuta or kalpa-sūtras), they take up the great sacrificial ceremonies, with which the Brāhmanas have to do; in part (gṛhya-sūtras), they teach the minor duties of a pious householder; in some cases (samayācārika-sūtras) they lay down the general obligations of one whose life is in accordance with prescribed duty. And out of the last two, or especially the last, come by natural development the law-books (dharma-çāstras), which make a conspicuous figure in the later literature: the oldest and most noted of them being that called by the name of Manu (an outgrowth, it is believed, of the Manava Vedic school); to which are added that of Yājnavalkya, and many others.

Respecting the chronology of this development, or the date of any class of writings, still more of any individual work, the less that is said the better. All dates given in Indian literary history are pins set up to be bowled down again. Every important work has undergone so many more or less transforming changes before reaching the form in which it comes to us, that the question of original construction is complicated with that of final redaction. It is so with the law-book of Manu, just mentioned, which has well-founded claims to being regarded as one of the very oldest works of the proper Sanskrit literature, if not the oldest (it is variously assigned, to periods from six centuries before Christ to soon after Christ). It is so, again, in a still more striking degree, with the great legendary epic of the Mahābhārata. The ground-work of this is doubtless of very early date; but it has served as a text into which

materials of various character and period have been inwoven, until it has become a heterogeneous mass, a kind of cyclopedia for the warrior-caste, hard to separate into its constituent parts. The story of Nala, and the philosophical poem Bhagavad-Gītā, are two of the most noted of its episodes. The Rāmāyaṇa, the other most famous epic, is a work of another kind: though also worked over and more or less altered in its transmission to our time, it is the production, in the main, of a single author (Valmiki); and it is generally believed to be in part allegorical, representing the introduction of Aryan culture and dominion into Southern India. By its side stand a number of minor enics. of various authorship and period, as the Raghuvança (ascribed to the dramatist Kālidāsa), the Māghakāvya, the Bhattikāvya (the last, written chiefly with the grammatical intent of illustrating by use as many as possible of the numerous formations which, through taught by the grammarians, find no place in the literature).

The *Purāṇas*, a large class of works mostly of immense extent, are best mentioned in connection with the epics. They are pseudo-historical and prophetic in character, of modern date, and of very small value. Real history finds no place in Sanskrit literature, nor is there any conscious historical element in any of the works composing it.

Lyric poetry is represented by many works, some of which, as the *Meghadūta* and *Gītagovinda*, are of no mean order of merit.

The drama is a still more noteworthy and important branch. The first indications of dramatical inclination and capacity on the part of the Hindus are seen in certain hymns of the Veda, where a mythological or legendary situation is conceived dramatically, and set forth in the form of a dialogue — well-known examples are the dialogue of Saramā and the Panis, that of Yama and his sister Yamī, that of Vasishtha and the rivers, that of Agni and the other gods — but there are no extant intermediaries between these and the standard drama. The beginnings of the latter date from a period when in actual life the higher and educated

characters used Sanskrit, and the lower and uneducated used the popular dialects derived from it, the Prakrits; and their dialogue reflects this condition of things. Then, however, learning (not to call it pedantry) intervened, and stereotyped the new element; a Prakrit grammar grew up beside the Sanskrit grammar, according to the rules of which Prakrit could be made indefinitely on a substrate of Sanskrit; and none of the existing dramas need to date from the time of vernacular use of Prakrit, while most or all of them are undoubtedly much later. Among the dramatic authors, Kālidāsa is incomparably the chief, and his Cakuntalā as distinctly his masterpiece. His date has been a matter of much inquiry and controversy; it is doubtless some centuries later than our era. The only other work deserving to be mentioned along with Kālidāsa's is the Mrchakaţī of Cudraka, also of questionable period, but believed to be the oldest of the extant dramas.

A partly dramatic character belongs also to the fable, in which animals are represented as acting and speaking. The most noted works in this department are the Pañcatantra, which through Persian and Semitic versions has made its way all over the world, and contributes a considerable quota to the fable-literature of every European language, and, partly founded on it, the comparatively recent and popular Hitopadeça ('salutary instruction').

Two of the leading departments of Sanskrit scientific literature, the legal and the grammatical, have been already sufficiently noticed; of those remaining, the most important by far is the philosophical. The beginnings of philosophical speculation are seen already in some of the later hymns of the Veda, more abundantly in the Brāhmanas and Āraṇyakas, and then especially in the Upanishads. The evolution and historic relation of the systems of philosophy, and the age of their text-books, are matters on which much obscurity still rests. There are six systems of primary rank, and reckoned as orthodox, although really standing in no accordance with approved religious doctrines. All of them seek the same end, the emancipation of the soul from the

necessity of continuing its existence in a succession of bodies, and its unification with the All-soul; but they differ in regard to the means by which they seek to attain this end.

The astronomical science of the Hindus is a reflection of that of Greece, and its literature is of recent date; but as mathematicians, in arithmetic and geometry, they have shown more independence. Their medical science, although its beginnings go back even to the Veda, in the use of medicinal plants with accompanying incantations, is of little account, and its proper literature by no means ancient.

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VI. Neuconatas et a constante virginia virginia virginia

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ABBREVIATIONS.

AB. Aitareya-Brāhmana,

APr. Atharva-Prātiçākhya.

AV. Atharva-Veda.

BR. Böhtlingk and Roth (Petersburg Lexicon).

Ç or Çak. Çakuntalā.

ÇB. Çatapatha-Brāhmana.

ÇGS. Çānkhāyana-Grihya-Sūtra.

GB. Gopatha-Brāhmana.

H. Hitopadeça.

K. Kāthaka.

KB. Kāushītaki-Brāhmana.

KSS. Kathā-Sarit-Sāgara.

M. Manu.

MBh. Mahābhārata.

Megh. Meghadūta.

MS. Māitrāyanī-Sanhitā.

PB. Pancavinça-Brāhmana.

R. Rāmāyana.

Ragh. Raghuvança.

RPr. Rigveda-Prātiçākhya.

RV. Rig-Veda.

SB. Shadvinça-Brāhmana.

SV. Sāma-Veda.

TA. Tāittirīya-Aranyaka.

TB. Tāittirīya-Brāhmana.

TPr. Tāittirīya-Prātiçākhya.

Tribh. Tribhāshyaratna.

TS. Täittirīya-Sanhitā.

V. Veda.

VPr. Vājasaneyi-Prātiçākhya.

VS. Vājasaneyi-Sanhitā.

CHAPTER I.

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ALPHABET.

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1. The natives of India write their ancient and sacred language in a variety of alphabets — generally, in each part of the country, in the same alphabet which they use for their own vernacular. The mode of writing, however, which is employed throughout the heart of Aryan India, or in Hindustan proper, is alone adopted by European scholars: it is called the devanāgarī.

This name is of doubtful origin and value. A more comprehensive name is $n\bar{a}gar\bar{\imath}$ (perhaps, 'of the city'); and $deva-n\bar{a}gar\bar{\imath}$ is ' $n\bar{a}gar\bar{\imath}$ of the gods,' or 'of the Brahmans.'

2. Much that relates to the history of the Indian alphabets is still obscure. The earliest written monuments of known date in the country are the inscriptions containing the edicts of Açoka or Piyadasi, of about the middle of the third century B. C. They are in two different systems of characters, of which one shows distinct signs of derivation from a Semitic source, while the other is also probably, though much less evidently, of the same origin (Burnell). From the latter, the Lath, or Southern Açoka character (of Girnar), come the later Indian alphabets, both those of the northern Aryan languages, and those of the southern Dravidian languages. The nāgarī, devanāgarī, Bengālī, Guzerātī, and others, are varieties of its northern derivatives; and with them are related some of the alphabets of peoples outside of India — as in Tibet and Farther India — who have adopted Hindu culture or religion.

There is reason to believe that writing was first employed in India for practical purposes — for correspondence and business and the like — and only by degrees came to be applied also to literary use. The literature, to a great extent, and the more fully in proportion to its claimed sanctity and authority, ignores all written record, and assumes to be kept in existence by oral tradition alone.

3. Of the $devan\bar{a}gar\bar{\imath}$ itself there are minor varieties, depending on differences of locality or of period, as also of individual hand (see examples

in Weber's catalogue of the Berlin Sanskrit MSS., in Rajendralāla Mitra's notices of MSS. in Indian libraries, in the published fac-similes of inscriptions, and so on); and these are in some measure reflected in the type prepared for printing, both in India and in Europe. But a student who makes himself familiar with one style of printed characters will have little difficulty with the others, and will soon learn, by practice, to read the manuscripts. A few specimens of types other than those used in this work will be given in an Appendix.

On account of the difficulty of combining them with the smaller sizes of our Roman and Italic type, the devanāgarī characters will be used below only in connection with the first or largest size. And, in accordance with the laudable usage of recent grammars, they will, wherever given, be also transliterated in italic letters; while the latter alone will be used in the other sizes.

- 4. The student may be advised to try to familiarize himself from the start with the *devanāgarī* mode of writing. At the same time, it is not necessary that he should do so until, having learned the principal paradigms, he comes to begin reading and analysing and parsing; and many will find the latter the more practical, and in the end equally or more effective, way.
- 5. The characters of the *devanāgarī* alphabet, and the European letters which will be used in transliterating them, are as follows:

Vowels:
 |
$$\pi a = 2 \pi a$$

- ar a ofther

| midw glue J | palatal | 42 | य | y | simulas situdadala |
|---------------|-------------------|----|----|---|---|
| Laridanos, 10 | lingual | 43 | 7 | r | forms a syllable be ceding representate: |
| Semivowels | dental | 44 | ल | l | cedius; muscommi: |
| with a come | labial | 45 | а | v | Jewest and men and |
| | palatal | 46 | হা | ç | |
| Sibilants | lingual dental | 47 | ष | ş | |
| aromado a | dental | 48 | स | s | |
| Aspiration | | 49 | क् | h | |

To these may be added a lingual $l \equiv 0$, which in some of the Vedic texts takes the place of Ξ d when occurring between two vowels (54).

- 6. A few other sounds, recognized by the theories of the Hindu grammarians, but either having no separate characters to represent them, or only very rarely and exceptionally written, will be noticed below (71, 230). Such are the guttural and labial breathings, the nasal semivowels, and others.
- 7. The order of arrangement given above is that in which the sounds are catalogued and described by the native grammarians; and it has been adopted by European scholars as the alphabetic order, for indexes, dictionaries, etc. (to the Hindus, the idea of an alphabetic arrangement for such practical uses is wanting).

In some works (as the Petersburg lexicon), a visarga which is regarded as equivalent to and exchangeable with a sibilant (172) is, though written as visarga, given the alphabetic place of the sibilant.

- 8. The theory of the devanāgarī, as of the other Indian modes of writing, is syllabic and consonantal. That is to say, it regards as the written unit, not the simple sound, but the syllable (aksara); and further, as the substantial part of the syllable, the consonant (or the consonants) preceding the vowel — this latter being merely implied, or. if written, being written by a subordinate sign attached to the consonant.
 - 9. Hence follow these two principles:
 - A. The forms of the vowel-characters given in the

alphabetic scheme above are used only when the vowel forms a syllable by itself, or is not combined with a preceding consonant: that is, when it is initial, or preceded by another vowel. In combination with a consonant, other modes of representation are used.

B. If more consonants than one precede the vowel, forming with it a single syllable, their characters must be combined into a single compound character.

Ordinary Hindu usage does not divide the words of a sentence, any more than the syllables of a word; a final consonant is combined into one syllable with the initial vowel or consonant of the next following word.

- 10. Under A, it is to be noticed that the modes of indicating a vowel combined with a preceding consonant are as follows:
- a. The short Ξ a has no written sign at all: the consonant-sign itself implies a following Ξ a, unless some other vowel-sign is attached to it (or else the $vir\bar{a}ma:11$). Thus the consonant-signs as given above in the alphabetic scheme are really the signs of the syllables ka, kha, etc. etc. (to ha).
- b. The long হা \bar{a} is written by a perpendicular stroke after the consonant: thus, না $k\bar{a}$, ঘা $dh\bar{a}$, হা $h\bar{a}$.
- c. Short ξ *i* and long $\hat{\xi}$ $\bar{\imath}$, by a similar stroke, which for short *i* is placed before the consonant and for long $\bar{\imath}$ is placed after it, and in either case is connected with the consonant by a hook above the upper line: thus, कि ki, की $k\bar{\imath}$; भि bhi, भी $bh\bar{\imath}$; ति ni, नी $n\bar{\imath}$.

The hook above, turning to the left or to the right, is historically the essential part of the character, having been originally the whole of it; the hooks were only later prolonged, so as to reach all the way down beside the consonant. In the MSS., they almost never have the horizontal stroke drawn across them above, though this is added in all the printed forms of the characters *.

^{*} Thus, originally क ki, क ki; in the MSS., कि, की; in print, की, की.

- d. The *u*-sounds, short and long, are written by hooks attached to the lower end of the consonant-sign: thus, \mathfrak{F}_{ku} , $\mathfrak{F}_{k\bar{u}}$; $\mathfrak{F}_{k\bar{u}}$, $\mathfrak{F}_{k\bar{u}}$,
- e. The r-vowels, short and long, are written by a subjoined hook, single or double, opening toward the right: thus, क् kr, क् $k\bar{r}$; $\bar{\epsilon}$ dr, $\bar{\epsilon}$ $d\bar{r}$. In the h-sign, the hooks are usually attached to the middle: thus, $\bar{\epsilon}$ $h\bar{r}$, $\bar{\epsilon}$ $h\bar{r}$.

As to the combination of r with preceding r, see below, 14.

- f. The *l*-vowel is written with a reduced form of its full initial character: thus, কু k!: the corresponding long has no real occurrence (23), but would be written with a similar reduced sign.
- g. The diphthongs are written by strokes, single or double, above the upper line, combined, for म्रो o and म्री $\bar{a}u$, with the \bar{a} -sign after the consonant: thus, के ke, के $k\bar{a}i$; को ko, की $k\bar{a}u$.

In some devanāgarī MSS. (as in the Bengālī alphabet), the single stroke above, or one of the double ones, is replaced by a sign like the \bar{a} -sign before the consonant: thus, \overline{A} ke, \overline{A} kāi, \overline{A} ko, \overline{A} kāu.

11. A consonant-sign, however, is capable of being made to signify the consonant-sound alone, without an added vowel, by having written beneath it a stroke called the $vir\bar{a}ma$ ('rest, stop'): thus, \overline{A} , \overline{A} , \overline{A} , \overline{A} , \overline{A} , \overline{A} , \overline{A} .

Since, as was pointed out above, the Hindus write the words of a sentence continuously, like one word (9, end), the $vir\bar{a}ma$ is in general called for only when a final consonant occurs before a pause. But it is also occasionally resorted to by scribes, or in print, in order to avoid an awkward or difficult combination of consonant-signs; and it is used freely in published texts which for the convenience of beginners have their words printed separately.

12. Under B, it is to be noticed that the consonant combinations are for the most part not at all difficult to

make or to recognise for one who is familiar with the simple signs. The characteristic part of a consonant-sign that is to be added to another is taken (to the exclusion of the horizontal or of the perpendicular framing-line, or of both), and they are put together according to convenience, either side by side, or one above the other: in some combinations either arrangement is allowed. The consonant that is to be pronounced first is set before the other in the one order, and above it in the other order.

Examples of the side-by-side arrangement are: $\pi\eta gga$, ज्ञ jja, प्य pya, न्म nma, त्य ttha, भ्य bhya, स्क ska, प्पा sna, त्य tka.

Examples of the above-and-below arrangement are: ক্রা kka, হা cca, রা ñja, হ্ dda, ম pta, না tna.

13. In some cases, however, there is more or less abbreviation or disguise of the independent form of a consonant-sign in combination.

Thus, of 雨 k in 雨 kta, 雨 kla; and in 森矶 kṇa etc.; of 雨 t in 雨 tta;

of ξ d in ξ dga, ξ dna, etc.;

of म m and য y, when following other consonants: thus, কা kya, কা kma, হা nma, হা nya, বা dma, ঘ dya, হা hma, কা hya, হা chya, ঘ dhya;

of π c, which generally becomes π when followed by a consonant: thus, π ca, π ca, π ca, π ca, π ca, π ca. The same change is usual when a vowel-sign is added below: thus, π ca, π ca.

Other combinations, of not quite obvious value, are আ গ্ৰান, হা lla, হা ddha, হা dbha, হা sta, ফ stha; and the compounds of ক h: as হা hṇa, হা hna.

In a case or two, no trace of the constituent letters is recognisable: thus, \vec{a} $k \cdot a$, \vec{a} $j \cdot a$.

14. The semivowel ζ r, in making combinations with

When τ r is to be combined with a following π r, it is the vowel which is written in full, with its initial character, and the consonant in subordination to it: thus, π rr.

15. Further combinations, of three, or four, or even five consonant-signs, are made according to the same rules. Examples are:

of three consonants, র ttva, আ ddhya, আ dvya, য drya, আ dhrya, দের psva, হ্রা çcya, আ sṭya, আ hvya;

of four consonants, ऋष ktrya, ङ्गा क्रिश्यa, छूप इंtrya, हम्मा tsmya;

of five consonants, तस्त्यं rtsnya.

The manuscripts, and the type-fonts as well, differ from one another more in their management of consonant combinations than in any other respect, often having peculiarities which one needs a little practice to understand. It is quite useless to give in a grammar the whole series of possible combinations (many of them excessively rare) which are provided for in any given type-font, or even in all. There is nothing which due familiarity with the simple signs and with the above rules of combination will not enable the student to analyse and explain.

16. A sign called the avagraha ('separator') — namely, 5 — is used in the manuscripts, sometimes in the manner of a hyphen, sometimes as a mark of hiatus, sometimes to mark the elision of initial Ξ a after final $\overline{\zeta}$ e or $\overline{\Xi}$ o (135). In printed texts, especially European, it is ordinarily limited

to the use last mentioned: thus, ते ऽज्ञुवन् te 'bruvan, सो ऽज्ञवीत् so 'bravīt, for te abruvan, so abravīt.

The sign o is used to mark an omission of something. In some texts, it has also the value of a hyphen.

Signs of punctuation are I and II.

17. The numeral figures are

9 1, 2 2, 3 3, 8 4, U 5, & 6, b 7, T 8, \$ 9, O 0.

In combination, to express larger numbers, they are used in precisely the same way with European digits: thus, $54\ 25$, $50\ 630$, $900\ 1000$, $950\ 1879$.

18. The Hindu grammarians call the different sounds, and the characters representing them, by a $k\bar{a}ra$ ('maker') added to the sound of the letter, if a vowel, or to the letter followed by a, if a consonant. Thus, the sound or character a is called $ak\bar{a}ra$; k is $kak\bar{a}ra$; and so on. But the $k\bar{a}ra$ is also omitted, and a, ka, etc. are used alone. The r, however, is never called $rak\bar{a}ra$, but only ra or repha ('snarl': the only example of a specific name for an alphabetic element of its class). The anu- $sv\bar{a}ra$ and visarga are also known by these names alone.

CHAPTER II.

SYSTEM OF SOUNDS: PRONUNCIATION.

I. Vowels.

- 19. The a, i, and u-vowels. The Sanskrit has these three earliest and most universal vowels of Indo-European language, in both short and long form Ξ a and Ξ \bar{a} , \bar{a} and \bar{a}
 - 20. The a is the openest vowel, an utterance from the ex-

panded throat; it stands, therefore, in no relation of kindred with any of the classes of consonantal sounds. The i and u are close vowels, made with marked approach of the articulating organs to one another: i is palatal, and shades through y into the palatal and guttural consonant-classes; u is similarly related, through v, to the labial class, as involving in its utterance a narrowing and rounding of the lips.

The Paninean scheme (commentary to Pāṇini's grammar, i. 1. 9) classes a as guttural, but apparently only in order to give that series as well as the rest a vowel: no one of the Prātiçākhyas puts a into one class with k etc. All these authorities concur in calling the i and u-vowels respectively palatal and labial.

- 21. The short a is not pronounced in India with the full openness of \bar{a} , as its corresponding short, but usually as the "neutral vowel" (English so-called "short u", of but, son, blood, etc.). This peculiarity appears very early, being acknowledged by Pāṇini and by two of the Prātiçākhyas (APr.i. 36; VPr.i. 72), which call the utterance sanverta, 'covered up, dimmed'. It is, however, of course not original; and it is justly wont to be ignored by Western scholars (except those who have studied in India).
- 22. The α -vowels are the prevailing vowel-sounds of the language, being about twice as frequent as all the others (including diphthongs) taken together. The i-vowels, again, are about twice as numerous as the u-vowels. And, in each pair, the short vowel is more than twice $(2^1/2)$ to 3 times as common as the long.

For more precise estimates of frequency, of these and of the other alphabetic elements, and for the way in which they were obtained, see below, 75.

Some of the Hindu grammarians add to the alphabet also a long l; but this is only for the sake of an artificial symmetry, since the sound does not occur in a single genuine word in the language.

24. The vowel π r is simply a smooth or untrilled r-sound, assuming a vocalic office in syllable-making —

as, by a like abbreviation, it has done also in certain Slavonic languages. The vowel $\frac{1}{2}$ is an *l*-sound similarly uttered — like the English *l*-vowel in such words as able, angle, addle.

The modern Hindus pronounce these vowels as ri, $r\bar{i}$, $l\bar{i}$ (or even lri), having long lost the habit and the facility of giving a vowel value to the pure r and l-sounds. Their example is widely followed by European scholars; and hence also the (distorting and quite objectionable) transliterations $r\bar{i}$, $r\bar{i}$, $l\bar{i}$. There is no real difficulty in acquiring and practising the true utterance.

Some of the grammarians (see APr. i. 37, note) attempt to define more nearly the way in which, in these vowels, a real r or *l*-element is combined with something else.

- 25. Like their corresponding semivowels, r and l, these vowels belong respectively in the general lingual and dental classes; the euphonic influence of r and \bar{r} (180) shows this clearly. They are so ranked in the Paninean scheme; but the Prātiçākhyas in general strangely class them with the $jihv\bar{a}m\bar{u}\bar{h}ya$ sounds, our "gutturals".
- 26. The short r is found in every variety of word and of position, and is not rare, being just about as frequent as long \bar{u} . Long \bar{r} is very much more unusual, occurring only in certain plural cases of noun-stems in r [374, 378]. The l is met with only in some of the forms and derivatives of a single not very common verbal root (klp).
- 27. The diphthongs. Of the four diphthongs, two, the $\overline{\zeta}$ e and $\overline{\Re i}$ o, are in great part original Indo-European sounds. In the Sanskrit, they wear the aspect of being products of the increment or strengthening of $\overline{\xi}$ i and $\overline{\Im}$ u respectively; and they are called the corresponding gunavowels to the latter (see below, 235). The other two, $\overline{\zeta}$ $\overline{a}i$ and $\overline{\Re u}$, are by the prevalent and preferable opinion held to be of peculiar Sanskrit growth (there is no certain trace of them to be found even in the Zend); they are also in general results of another and higher increment of ξ i and Ξ u, to which they are called the corresponding vrddhivowels (below, 235). But all are likewise sometimes gene-

rated by euphonic combination (127); and श्रो o, especially, is common as result of the alteration of a final श्रम as (175).

28. The te and 知 o are, both in India and in Europe, usually pronounced as they are transliterated — that is, as long e (English "long a", or e in they) and o-sounds, without diphthongal character.

Such they apparently already were to the authors of the Prātiçākhyas, which, while ranking them as diphthongs (sandhyakṣara), give rules respecting their pronunciation in a manner implying them to be virtually unitary sounds. But their euphonic treatment (131-4) clearly shows them to have been still at the period when the euphonic laws established themselves, as they of course were at their origin, real diphthongs, $ai \ (a+i)$ and $au \ (a+u)$. From them, on the same evidence, the heavier or vrddhi diphthongs were distinguished by the length of their a-element, as $\bar{a}i \ (\bar{a}+i)$ and $\bar{a}u \ (\bar{a}+u)$.

The recognisable distinctness of the two elements in the v_7ddhi -diphthongs is noticed by the Prātiçākhyas (see APr. i. 40, note); but the relation of those elements is either defined as equal, or the a is made of less quantity than the i and u.

- **29.** The lighter or guna-diphthongs are much more frequent (6 or 7 times) than the heavier or vrddhi-diphthongs, and the e and $\bar{a}i$ than the o and $\bar{a}u$ (a half more). Both pairs are somewhat more than half as common as the simple i and u-vowels.
- 30. The general name given by the Hindu grammarians to the vowels is svara, 'tone'; the simple vowels are called samānākṣara, 'homogeneous syllable', and the diphthongs are called sandhyakṣara, 'combination-syllable'. The position of the organs in their utterance is defined to be one of openness, or of non-closure.

As to quantity and accent, see below, 76 ff., 80 ff.

II. Consonants.

- 31. The Hindu name for 'consonant' is vyañjana, 'manifester'. The consonants are divided by the grammarians into sparça, 'contact' or 'mute', antaḥsthā, 'intermediate' or 'semivowel', and ūṣman, 'spirant'. They will here be taken up and described in this order.
- 32. Mutes. The mutes, sparça, are so called as involving a complete closure or contact (sparça), and not an approximation

only, of the mouth-organs by which they are produced. They are divided into five classes or series (varga), according to the organs and parts of organs by which the contact is made; and each series is composed of five members, differing according to the accompaniments of the contact.

- 33. The five mute-series are called respectively guttural, palatal, lingual (or cerebral), dental, and labial; and they are arranged in the order as just mentioned, beginning with the contact made furthest back in the mouth, coming forward from point to point, and ending with the frontmost contact.
- 34. In each series there are two surd members, two sonant, and one nasal (which is also sonant): for example, in the labial series, $\P p$ and $\P ph$, $\P b$ and $\P bh$, and $\P m$.

The members are by the Hindu grammarians called respectively 'first', 'second', 'third', 'fourth', and 'last' or 'fifth'.

The surd consonants are known as aghoşa, 'toneless', and the sonants as ghoṣavant, 'having tone'; and the descriptions of the grammarians are in accordance with these terms. All alike recognise a difference of tone, and not in any manner a difference of force, whether of contact or of expulsion, as separating the two great classes in question. That the difference depends on $viv\bar{u}ra$, 'opening', or $samv\bar{u}ra$, 'closure' (of the glottis), is also recognised by them.

- 35. The first and third members of each series are the ordinary corresponding surd and sonant mutes of European languages: thus, $\frac{\pi}{2}$ k and $\frac{\pi}{2}$ g, $\frac{\pi}{2}$ t and $\frac{\pi}{2}$ d, $\frac{\pi}{2}$ p and $\frac{\pi}{2}$ b.
- 36. Nor is the character of the nasal any more doubtful. What π m is to π p and π b, or π n to π t and π d, that is also each other nasal to its own series of mutes: a sonant expulsion into and through the nose, while the mouthorgans are in the mute-contact.

The Hindu grammarians give distinctly this definition. The nasal $(anun\bar{a}sika, 'passing through the nose')$ sounds are declared to be formed by mouth and nose together; or their nasality $(\bar{a}nun\bar{a}sikya)$ to be given them by unclosure of the nose.

37. The second and fourth of each series are aspirates: thus, beside the surd mute \overline{q} k we have the corresponding

surd aspirate $\exists kh$, and beside the sonant ηg , the corresponding sonant aspirate $\exists gh$. Of these, the precise character is more obscure and difficult.

That the aspirates, all of them, are real mutes or contact sounds, and not fricatives (like European th and ph and ch, etc.), is beyond question.

It is also not doubtful in what way the surd th, for example, differs from the unaspirated t: such aspirates are found in many Asiatic languages, and even in some European: they involve the slipping-out of an audible bit of *flatus* or aspiration between the breach of mute-closure and the following sound, whatever it may be. They are accurately enough represented by the th etc., with which, in imitation of the Latin treatment of the similar ancient Greek aspirates, we are accustomed to write them.

The sonant aspirates are generally understood and described as made in a similar way, with a perceptible h-sound after the breach of sonant mute-closure. But there are insuperable theoretical difficulties in the way of accepting this explanation; and some of the best phonetic observers (as A. J. Ellis) deny that the modern Hindu pronunciation is of such a character, and define the element following the mute as a "glottal buzz", rather, or an emphasized utterance of the beginning of the succeeding sound. The question is one of great difficulty, and upon it the opinions of the highest authorities are still much at variance. Sonant aspirates are still in use in India, in the pronunciation of the vernacular as well as of the learned languages.

By the Prātiçākhyas, the aspirates of both classes are called sosman: which might mean either 'accompanied by a rush of breath' (taking $\bar{u}sman$ in its more etymological sense), or 'accompanied by a spirant' (below, 59). And some authorities define the surd aspirates as made by the combination of each surd non-aspirate with its own corresponding surd spirant; and the sonant aspirates, of each sonant non-aspirate with the sonant spirant, the h-sound (below, 65). But this would make the two classes of aspirates of quite diverse character, and would also make th the same as ts, th as ts, ch as cc—which is in any measure plausible only of the last. Pāṇini has no name for aspirates; the scheme given in his comment (to i. 1.9) attributes to them $mah\bar{u}pr\bar{u}na$, 'great expiration', and to the non-aspirates alpapr $\bar{u}na$, 'small expiration'.

It is usual among European scholars to pronounce both classes of aspirates as the corresponding non-aspirates with a following h: for example, \exists th nearly as in English boathook, \exists ph as in haphazard, \exists dh as in madhouse, and so on. This is (as we have seen above) confessedly accurate only as regards the surd aspirates.

38. The sonant aspirates are (in the opinion of most), or at least represent, original Indo-European sounds, while the surd

aspirates are generally regarded as a special Indian development. The former are more than twice as common as the latter. The unaspirated (non-nasal) mutes are very much more frequent (5 times) than the aspirates (for the special frequency of bh and original gh, see 50 and 66); and among them the surds are more numerous $(2^{1}/_{2}$ times) than the sonants. The nasals (chiefly n and m) are nearly as frequent as the surd non-aspirates.

We take up now the several mute-series.

39. Guttural series: \overline{n} k, \overline{n} k, \overline{n} g, \overline{n} g, \overline{n} . These are the ordinary European k and g-sounds, with their corresponding aspirates and nasal (the last, like English ng in singing).

The gutturals are defined by the Prātiçākhyas as made by contact of the base of the tongue with the base of the jaw, and they are called, from the former organ, $jihv\bar{a}m\bar{u}l\bar{v}a$, 'tongue-root sounds'. The Paninean scheme describes them simply as made in the throat (kantha). From the euphonic influence of a k on a following s (below, 180), we may perhaps infer that in their utterance the tongue was well drawn back into the hinder mouth.

- 40. The k is by far the commonest of the guttural series, occurring considerably more often than all the other four taken together. The nasal, except as standing before one of the others of the series, is found only as final (after the loss of a following k), and in a very small number of words.
- 41. The Sanskrit guttural series represents only a minority of Indo-European gutturals; these last have suffered more and more general corruption than any other class of consonants. By processes of alteration which are proved to have begun in the Indo-European period, since the same words exhibit connected changes also in other languages of the family, the palatal mutes, the palatal sibilant c, and the aspiration h, have come from gutturals. See these various sounds below.

in the Vedic texts, and not half-a-dozen times in the Brāhmanas); where found, it is either onomatopoetic or of anomalous or not Indo-European origin (in the so-called root ujh, it comes from j and h). The nasal, \tilde{n} , never occurs except immediately before — or, in a small number of words, also after (201) — one of the others of the series.

- 43. Hence, in the euphonic processes of the language, the treatment of the palatals is in many respects peculiar. In some situations, the original unaltered guttural shows itself or, as it appears from the point of view of the Sanskrit, the palatal reverts to its original guttural. No palatal ever occurs as a final. The j is differently treated, according as it represents the one or the other degree of alteration. And c and j (except artificially, in the algebraic rules of the grammarians) do not interchange, as corresponding surd and sonant.
- 44. The palatal mutes are by European scholars, as by the modern Hindus also, pronounced with the compound sounds of English ch and j (in church and judge).

Their description by the old Hindu grammarians, however, gives them a not less absolutely simple character than belongs to the other mutes. They are called $t\bar{a}lavya$, 'palatal', and declared to be formed against the palate by the middle of the tongue. They seem to have been, then, brought forward in the mouth from the guttural point, and made against the hard palate at a point not far from the lingual one (below, 45), but with the upper flat surface of the tongue instead of its point. Such sounds, in all languages, pass easily into the (English) ch and j-sounds. The value of the ch as making the preceding vowel "long by position" (227), and its frequent origination from t+c (203), lead to the suspicion that it, at least, may have had this character from the beginning: compare 37, above.

45. Lingual series: \overline{z} t, \overline{z} th, \overline{z} d, \overline{v} dh, \overline{v} n. The lingual mutes are by all the native authorities defined as uttered with the tip of the tongue turned up and drawn back into the dome of the palate (somewhat as the usual English smooth r is pronounced). They are called by the grammarians $m\overline{v}rdhanya$, literally 'head-sounds, capitals, cephalics'; which term is in many European grammars rendered by 'cerebrals'. In practice, among European Sanskritists, no attempt is made to distinguish them from the dentals: \overline{z} t is pronounced like \overline{z} t, \overline{z} d like \overline{z} d, and so with the rest.

46. The linguals are another non-original series of sounds, coming mainly from the phonetic alteration of the next series, the dentals, but also in part occurring in words that have no traceable Indo-European connection, and are perhaps derived from the aboriginal languages of India. The tendency to lingualization is a positive one in the history of the language: dentals easily pass into linguals under the influence of contiguous or neighboring lingual sounds, but not the contrary; and all the sounds of the class become markedly more frequent in the later literature. The conditions of their ordinary occurrence are briefly these: a. s comes from s, much more rarely from c, j, ks, in euphonic circumstances stated below (180, 218, etc.); b. a dental mute following s is assimilated to it, becoming lingual (t, th, n); c. n is often changed to n after a lingual vowel or semivowel or sibilant in the same word (189 etc.); d. dh, which is of very rare occurrence, comes from assimilation of a dental after s (198 a) or h (222); e. t and d come occasionally by substitution for some other sound which is not allowed to stand as final (142, 145). When originated in these ways, the lingual letters may be regarded as normal; in any other cases of their occurrence, they are either products of abnormal corruption, or signs of the non-Indo-European character of the words in which they appear.

In a certain number of passages numerically examined (below, 75), the abnormal occurences of lingual mutes were less than half of the whole number (74 out of 159), and most of them (43) were of n: all were found more frequent in the later passages. In the Rig-Veda, only 15 words have an abnormal t; only 6, such a th; only 1, such a dh; about 20 (including 9 roots, nearly all of which have derivatives) show an abnormal d, besides 9 that have nd; and 30 (including 1 root) show a n.

Taken all together, the linguals are by far the rarest class of mutes (about $1^1/2$ per cent. of the alphabet) — hardly half as frequent even as the palatals.

47. Dental series: $\overline{\eta}$ t, $\overline{\eta}$ th, $\overline{\eta}$ d, $\overline{\eta}$ d, $\overline{\eta}$ n. These are called by the Hindus also dantya, 'dental', and are described as formed at the teeth (or at the roots of the teeth), by the tip of the tongue. They are practically the equivalents of our European t, d, n.

But the modern Hindus are said to pronounce their dentals with the tip of the tongue thrust well forward against the upper teeth, so that these sounds get a slight tinge of the quality belonging to the English and Modern Greek th-sounds. The absence of that quality in the European (especially

the English) dentals is doubtless the reason why to the ear of a Hindu the latter appear more analogous with his linguals, and he is apt to use the linguals in writing European words.

- 48. The dentals are one of the three Indo-European original mute-classes. In their occurrence in Sanskrit they are just about as frequent as all the other four classes taken together.
- 49. Labial series: प्p, দ্ph, ষ্b, ম্bh, ম্m. These sounds are called osthya, 'labial', by the Hindu grammarians also. They are, of course, the equivalents of our p, b, m.
- 50. The numerical relations of the labials are a little peculiar. Owing to the absence (or almost entire absence) of b in Indo-European, the Sanskrit b also is greatly exceeded in frequency by bh, which is the most common of all the sonant aspirates, as ph is the least common of the surd. The nasal m (notwithstanding its frequent euphonic mutations when final: 212 ff.) occurs just about as often as all the other four members of the series together.
- 51. Semivowels: \overline{Q} y, $\overline{\chi}$ r, \overline{eq} l, \overline{q} v. The name given to this class of sounds by the Hindu grammarians is antalisth \overline{a} , 'standing between'— either from their character as utterances intermediate between vowel and consonant, or (more probably) from the circumstance of their being placed between the mutes and spirants in the arrangement of the consonants.

The semivowels are clearly akin with the several mute series in their physical character, and they are classified along with those series — though not without some discordances of view — by the Hindu grammarians. They are said to be produced with the organs "slightly in contact" (isatspṛṣṭa), or "in imperfect contact" (duḥṣpṛṣṭa).

52. The χ r is clearly shown by its influence in the euphonic processes of the language to be a lingual sound, or one made with the tip of the tongue turned up into the dome of the palate. It thus resembles the English smooth r, and, like this, seems to have been untrilled.

The Paninean scheme reckons r as a lingual. None of the Prātiçākhyas, however, does so; nor are they entirely consistent with one another in its description. For the most part, they define it as made at 'the roots of the teeth'. This would give it a position like that of the vibrated r; but no authority hints at a vibration as belonging to it.

In point of frequency, r stands very high on the list of consonants; it is about equal with v, n, m, and y, and only exceeded by t.

53. The eq l is a sound of dental position, and is so defined and classed by all the native authorities.

The peculiar character of an *l*-sound, as involving expulsion at the sides of the tongue along with contact at its tip, is not noticed by any Hindu phonetist.

It is a disputed question whether r and l were distinguished from one another in Indo-European speech; in the Sanskrit, at any rate, they are very widely interchangeable, both in roots and in suffixes: there is hardly a root containing an l which does not show also forms with r; words written with the one letter are found in other texts, or in other parts of the same texts, written with the other. In the later periods of the language they are more separated, and the l becomes decidedly more frequent, though always much rarer than the r (only as 1 to 7 or 8 or 10).

- 54. Some of the Vedic texts have another l-sound, written with a slightly different character (it is given at the end of the alphabet, 5), which is substituted for a lingual d (as also the same followed by h for a dh) when occurring between two vowels. It is, then, doubtless a lingual l, one made by breach (at the sides of the tongue) of the lingual instead of the dental muteclosure.
- 55. The \overline{u} y in Sanskrit, as in other languages generally, stands in the closest relationship with the vowel ξ i (short or long); the two exchange with one another in cases innumerable.

And in the Veda (as the metre shows) an i is very often to be read where, in conformity with the rules of the later Sanskrit euphony, a y is written. Thus, the final i-vowel of a word remains i before an initial vowel; that of a stem maintains itself unchanged before an ending; and an ending of derivation — as ya, tya — has i instead of y. Such cases will be considered in more detail later, as they arise. The constancy of the phenomenon in certain words and classes of words shows that this was no merely optional interchange. Very probably, the Sanskrit y had everywhere more of an i-character than belongs to the corresponding European sound.

- 56. The y is by its physical character a palatal utterance; and it is classed as a palatal semivowel by the Hindu phonetists. It is one of the most common of Sanskrit sounds.
- 57. The $\exists v$ is pronounced as English or French v (German w) by the modern Hindus except when pre-

ceded by a consonant in the same syllable, in which case it has the sound of English w; and European scholars follow the same practice (with or without the same exception).

By its whole treatment in the euphony of the language, however, the v stands related to an u-vowel precisely as y to an i-vowel. It is, then, a v only according to the original Roman value of that letter — that is to say, a w-sound in the English sense: though (as was stated above for the y) it may well have been less markedly separated from u than English w, more like French ou in oui etc. But, as the original w has in most European languages been changed to v (English), so also in India, and that from a very early time: the Paninean scheme and two of the Prātiçākhyas (VPr. and TPr.) distinctly define the sound as made between the upper teeth and the lower lip which, of course, identifies it with the ordinary modern v-sound. As a matter of practice, the usual pronunciation need not be seriously objected to; yet the student should not fail to note that the rules of Sanskrit euphony and the name of "semivowel" have no application except to a w-sound in the English sense: a v-sound (German w) is no semivowel, but a spirant, standing on the same articulate stage with the English th-sounds and the f.

58. V is classed as a labial semivowel by the Hindu phonetical authorities. It has a somewhat greater frequency than the y.

In the Veda, under the same circumstances as the y (above, 55), v is to be read as u.

59. Spirants. Under the name \bar{u} sman (literally 'heat, steam, flatus'), which is usually and well represented by 'spirant', some of the Hindu authorities include all the remaining sounds of the alphabet; others apply the term only to the three sibilants and the aspiration — to which it will here also be restricted.

The term is not found in the Paninean scheme; by different treatises the guttural and labial breathings, these and the visarga, or all these and anusvāra, are called ūṣman (see APr. i. 31 note). The organs of utterance are described as being in the position of the mute-series to which each spirant belongs respectively, but unclosed, or unclosed in the middle.

60. The \overline{H} s. Of the three sibilants, or surd spirants, this is the one of plainest and least questioned character:

it is the ordinary European s— a hiss expelled between the tongue and the roof of the mouth directly behind the upper front teeth.

- It is, then, dental, as it is classed by all the Hindu authorities. It is the one primitive Indo-European sibilant. Notwithstanding the great losses which it suffers in Sanskrit euphony, by conversion to the other sibilants, to r, to visarga, etc., it is still very high among the consonants in the order of frequency, or considerably more common than both the other two sibilants together.

Its lingual character is shown by its whole euphonic influence, and it is described and classed as lingual by all the Hindu authorities (the APr. adds, i. 23, that the tongue in its utterance is trough-shaped). In its audible quality, it is a sh-sound rather than a s-sound; and, in the considerable variety of sibilant-utterance, even in the same community, it may coincide with some people's sh. Yet the general and normal sh is palatal (see below, 63); and therefore the sign s, marked in accordance with the other lingual letters, is the only unexceptionable transliteration for the Hindu character.

In modern pronunciation in India, 3 is much confounded with kh; and the MSS, are apt to exchange the characters. Later grammatical treatises, too, take note of the relationship (see Weber's Prātijñā, p. 84).

62. This sibilant (as was noticed above, 46, and will be more particularly explained below, 180 ff.) is no original sound, but a product of the lingualization of s under certain euphonic conditions. The exceptions are extremely few (9 out of 145 noted occurrences: 75), and of a purely sporadic character. The Rig-Veda has (apart from γ sah, 182) only twelve words which show a s under other conditions.

The final s of a root has in some cases attained a more independent

value, and does not revert to s when the euphonic conditions are removed, but shows anomalous forms (225).

63. The \mathfrak{A} \mathfrak{C} . This sibilant is by all the native authorities classed and described as palatal, nor is there anything in its history or its euphonic treatment to cast doubt on its character as such. It is, then, made with the flat of the tongue against the forward part of the palatal arch—that is to say, it is the usual and normal sh-sound. By European scholars it is variously pronounced—more often, perhaps, as s than as sh.

The two sh-sounds, s and c, are made in the same part of the mouth (the s probably rather further back), but with a different part of the tongue; and they are doubtless not more unlike than, for example, the two t-sounds, written t and t; and it would be not less proper to pronounce them both as one sh than to pronounce the linguals and dentals alike. To neglect the difference of s and c is much less to be approved. The very near relationship of s and c is attested by their euphonic treatment, which is to a considerable extent the same, and by their not infrequent confusion by the writers of manuscripts.

- **64.** As was mentioned above (41), the f, like c, comes from the corruption of an original k-sound, by loss of mutecontact as well as forward shift of the articulating point. In virtue of this derivation, it sometimes (though less often than c) "reverts" to k—that is, the original k appears instead of it; while, on the other hand, as a sh-sound, it is to a certain extent convertible to f. In point of frequency, it slightly exceeds the latter.
- 65. The remaining spirant, $\overline{\mathfrak{S}}$ h, is ordinarily pronounced like the usual European surd aspiration h.

This is not, however, its true character. It is defined by all the native authorities as not a surd element, but a sonant (or else an utterance intermediate between the two); and its whole value in the euphony of the language is that of a sonant: but what is its precise value is very hard to say. The Paninean scheme ranks it as guttural, as it does also a: this means nothing. The Prātiçākhyas bring it into no relation with the guttural class: one of them quotes the opinion of some authorities that "it has the same position with the beginning of the following vowel" (TPr. ii. 47) — which so far identifies it with our h. There is nothing in its euphonic influence to mark it as retaining any trace of gutturally articulated character. By some of the native phonetists it is identified with the aspiration of the sonant aspirates

— with the element by which, for example, gh differs from g. This view is supported by the derivation of h from the aspirates (next paragraph), by that of l+h from dh (54), and by the treatment of initial h after a final mute (163).

- 66. The h, as already noticed, is not an original sound, but comes in nearly all cases from an older gh (for the few instances of its derivation from dh and bh, see below, 223). It is a vastly more frequent sound than the unchanged gh (namely, as 7 to 1): more frequent, indeed, than any of the guttural mutes except k. It appears, like j (219), to include in itself two stages of corruption of gh: one corresponding with that of k to c, the other with that of k to c; see below, 223, for the roots belonging to the two classes respectively. Like the other sounds of guttural derivation, it sometimes exhibits "reversion" to its original.
- 67. The: h, or visarga (visarjanīya, as it is uniformly called by the Prātiçākhyas and by Pāṇini, probably as 'belonging to the end' of a word), appears to be merely a surd breathing, a final h-sound (in the European sense of h), uttered in the articulating position of the preceding vowel.

One Prātiçākhya (TPr. ii. 48) gives just this last description of it. It is by various authorities classed with h, or with h and a: all of them are alike sounds in whose utterance the mouth-organs have no definite shaping action.

- 68. The visarga is not original, but always only a substitute for final s or r, neither of which is allowed to maintain itself unchanged. It is a comparatively recent member of the alphabetic system; the other euphonic changes of final s and r have not passed through visarga as an intermediate stage. And the Hindu authorities are considerably discordant with one another as to how far h is a necessary substitute, and how far a permitted one, alternative with a sibilant, before a following initial surd.
- 69. Before a surd guttural or labial, respectively, some of the native authorities permit, while others require, conversion of final s or r into the so-called $jihv\bar{a}m\bar{u}l\bar{v}ya$ and $upadhm\bar{a}n\bar{v}ya$ spirants. It may be fairly questioned, perhaps, whether these two sounds are not pure grammatical abstractions, devised (like the long l-vowel: 23) in order to round out the alphabet to greater symmetry. At any rate, neither printed texts nor manuscripts (except in the rarest and most sporadic cases) make any account of them. Whatever individual character they may have must be,

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it would seem, in the direction of the (German) ch and f-sounds. When written at all, they are wont to be transliterated by χ and φ .

- 70. The $= anusv\bar{a}ra$, \dot{n} or \dot{m} , is a nasal sound lacking that closure of the organs which is required to make a nasal mute (36); in its utterance there is nasal resonance along with some degree of openness of the mouth.
- 71. There is discordance of opinion both among the Hindu phonetists and their modern European successors respecting the real character of this element: hence a little detail is necessary here with regard to its occurrence and their views of it.

Certain nasals in Sanskrit are of servile character, always to be assimilated to a following consonant, of whatever character that may be. are final m in sentence-combination (213), the penultimate nasal of a root, and a nasal of increment (255) in general. If one of these nasals stands before a contact-letter or mute, it becomes a nasal mute corresponding to the latter — that is, a nasal utterance in the same position of the mouth-organs which gives the succeeding mute. If, on the other hand, the following consonant does not involve a contact (being a semivowel or spirant), the nasal element is also without contact: it is a nasal utterance with unclosed mouthorgans. The question is, now, whether this nasal utterance becomes merely a nasal infection of the preceding vowel, turning it into a nasal vowel (as in French on, en, un, etc., by reason of a similar loss of a nasal mute); or whether it is an element of more individual character, having place between the vowel and the consonant; or, once more, whether it is sometimes the one thing and sometimes the other. The opinions of the Prātiçākhyas and Pānini are briefly as follows:

The Atharva-Prātiçākhya holds that the result is everywhere a nasalized vowel, except when n or m is assimilated to a following l_i in that case, the n or m becomes a nasal l: that is, the nasal utterance is made in the l-position, and has a perceptible l-character.

The other Prātiçākhyas teach a similar conversion into a nasal counterpart to the semivowel, or nasal semivowel, before y and t and v (not before r also). In most of the other cases where the Atharva-Prātiçākhya acknowledges a nasal vowel — namely, before r and the spirants — the others teach the intervention after the vowel of a distinct nasal element, called the anusvāra, 'after-tone'.

Of the nature of this nasal afterpiece to the vowel no intelligibly clear account is given. It is said (RPr.) to be either vowel or consonant; it is declared (RPr., VPr.) to be made with the nose alone, or (TPr.) to be nasal like the nasal mutes; it is held by some (RPr.) to be the sonant tone of the nasal mutes; in its formation, as in that of vowel and spirant, there is (RPr.) no contact. As to its quantity, see farther on.

There are, however, certain cases and classes of cases where these other

authorities also acknowledge a nasal vowel. So, especially, wherever a final n is treated (208) as if it were ns (its historically older form); and also in a small number of specified words. They also mention the doctrine of nasal vowel instead of anusvāra as held by some (and TPr. is uncertain and inconsistent in its choice between the one and the other).

In Pāṇini, finally, the prevailing doctrine is that of anusvāra everywhere; and it is even allowed in many cases where the Prātiçākhyas prescribe only a nasal mute. But a nasal semivowel is also allowed instead before a semivowel, and a nasal vowel is allowed in the cases (mentioned above) where some of the Prātiçākhyas require it by exception.

It is evidently a fair question whether this discordance and uncertainty of the Hindu phonetists is owing to a real difference of utterance in different classes of cases and in different localities, or whether to a different scholastic analysis of what is really everywhere the same utterance. If anusvāra is a nasal element following the vowel, it cannot well be any thing but either a prolongation of the same vowel-sound with nasality added, or a nasalised bit of neutral-vowel sound (in the latter case, however, the altering influence of an i or u-vowel on a following s ought to be prevented, which is not the case: see 183).

72. The assimilated nasal element, whether viewed as nasalized vowel, nasal semivowel, or independent $anusv\bar{a}ra$, has the value of something added, in making a heavy syllable, or length by position (79).

The Prātiçākhyas (VPr., RPr.) give determinations of the quantity of the anusvāra combining with a short and with a long vowel respectively to make a long syllable.

73. Two different signs, = and =, are found in the MSS., indicating the nasal sound here treated of. Usually they are written above the syllable, and there they seem most naturally to imply a nasal affection of the vowel of the syllable, a nasal (anunāsika) vowel. Hence some texts (Sāma and Yajur Vedas), when they mean a real anusvāra, bring one of the signs down into the ordinary consonant-place; but the usage is not general. As between the two signs, some MSS. employ, or tend to employ, the = where a nasalized (anunāsika) vowel is to be recognized, and elsewhere the =; and this distinction is consistently observed in many European printed texts; and the former is called the anunāsika sign: but it is very doubtful whether the two are not originally and properly equivalent.

It is a very common custom of the manuscripts to write the anusvāra-sign for any nasal following the vowel of a syllable, either before another consonant or as final (not before a vowel), without any reference to whether it is to be pronounced as nasal mute, nasal semivowel, or anusvāra. Some printed texts follow this slovenly and undesirable habit; but most write a nasal mute

whenever it is to be pronounced — excepting where it is an assimilated m (213).

It is convenient also in transliteration to distinguish the assimilated m by a special sign, \dot{m} , from the $anusv\bar{a}ra$ of more independent origin, \dot{n} ; and this method will be followed in the present work.

- 74. This is the whole system of sounds recognised by the written character; for certain transitional sounds, more or less widely recognised in the theories of the Hindu phonetists, see below, 230.
- 75. The whole spoken alphabet, then, may be arranged in the following manner, so as to show, so far as is possible in a single scheme, the relations and important classifications of its various members:

The figures set under the characters give the average percentage of frequency of each sound, found by counting the number of times which it occurred in an aggregate of 10,000 sounds of continuous text, in 10 different passages, of 1,000 sounds each, selected from different epochs of the literature: namely, two from the Rig-Veda, one from the Atharva-Veda, two from different Brāhmaṇas, and one each from Manu, Bhagavad-Gītā, Çakuntalā, Hitopadeça, and Vāsavadattā*.

III. Quantity of sounds and syllables.

- 76. The Hindu grammarians take the pains to define the quantity of a consonant (without distinction among consonants of different classes) as half that of a short vowel.
- 77. They also define the quantity of a long $(d\bar{\imath}rgha)$ vowel or diphthong as twice that of a short vowel making no distinction in this respect between the guna and the vrddhi-diphthongs.
- 78. Besides these two vowel-quantities, the Hindus acknowledge a third, called *pluta* (literally 'swimming'), or protracted, and having three *moras*, or three times the quantity of a short vowel. A protracted vowel is marked by a following figure 3: thus, $\pi \ \bar{a} \ \bar{a} \ \bar{a} \ \bar{a}$.

The protracted vowels are practically of rare occurrence (in RV., three cases; in AV., fifteen; in the Brāhmaṇa literature, rather more frequent). They are used in cases of questioning, especially of a balancing between two alternatives, and also of calling to a distance or urgently. The protraction is of the last syllable in a word, or in a whole phrase; and the protracted syllable has usually the acute tone, in addition to any other accent the word may have; sometimes it takes also anusvāra, or is made nasal.

Examples are: adháh svid āsí3d upári svid āsí3t (RV.), 'was it, forsooth, below? was it, forsooth, above?' idám bháyá3 idá3m íti (AV.), 'saying, is this more, or is that?' ágná3i pátnīvá3h sómam piba (TS.), 'oh Agni! thou with thy spouse! drink the soma'.

A diphthong is protracted by prolongation of its first or a-element: thus, e to $\bar{a}3i$, o to $\bar{a}3u$.

^{*} See J. A. O. S., vol. X.

The sign of protraction is also sometimes written as the result of accentual combination, when so-called kampa occurs: see below, 90b.

79. For metrical purposes, syllables (not vowels) are distinguished by the grammarians as 'heavy' (guru) or 'light' (laghu). A syllable is heavy if its vowel is long, or short and followed by more than one consonant ("long by position"). Anusvāra and visarga count as full consonants in making a heavy syllable. The last syllable of a $p\bar{a}da$ (primary division of a verse) is reckoned as either heavy or light.

The distinction in terms between the difference of long and short in vowel-sound and that of heavy and light in syllable-construction is valuable, and should be retained.

IV. Accent.

- 80. The phenomena of accent are, by the Hindu grammarians of all ages alike, described and treated as depending on a variation of tone or pitch; of any difference of stress involved, they make no account.
- 81. The primary tones (svara) or accent-pitches are two: a higher (udātta, 'raised'), or acute; and a lower (anudātta, 'not raised'), or grave. A third (called svarita: a term of doubtful meaning), is always of secondary origin, being (when not enclitic: see below, 85) the result of actual combination of an acute vowel and a following grave vowel into one syllable. It is also uniformly defined as compound in pitch, a union of higher and lower tone within the limits of a single syllable. It is thus identical in physical character with the Greek and Latin circumflex, and fully entitled to be called by the same name.
- 82. Strictly, therefore, there is but one distinction of tone in the Sanskrit accentual system: the accented syllable is raised in tone above the unaccented; while then further, in certain cases of the fusion of an accented and an unaccented element

into one syllable, that syllable retains the compounded tone of both elements.

83. The svarita or circumflex is only rarely found on a pure long vowel or diphthong, but almost always on a syllable in which a vowel, short or long, is preceded by a y or v re-

presenting an originally acute i or u-vowel.

In transliteration, in this work, the $ud\bar{a}tta$ or acute will be marked with the ordinary sign of acute, and the *svarita* or circumflex (as being a downward slide of the voice forward) with what is usually called the grave accent: thus, \dot{a} , acute, $y\dot{a}$ or $v\dot{a}$, circumflex.

- 84. The Prātiçākhyas distinguish and name separately the circumflexed tones arising by different processes of combination: thus, the circumflex is called
- a. $Ks\bar{a}ipra$ ('quick'), when an acute i or u-vowel (short or long) is converted into y or v before a dissimilar vowel of grave tone: thus, $vy\bar{a}pta$ from $vi-\bar{a}pta$, apsvantar from apsa antar.
- b. $J\bar{a}tya$ ('native') or nitya ('own'), when the same combination lies further back, in the make-up of a stem or form, and so is constant, or belongs to a word in all circumstances of its occurrence: thus, $kv\dot{a}$ (from $k\dot{u}a$), $sv\dot{a}r$ ($s\dot{u}ar$), $ny\dot{a}k$ ($nt\dot{a}k$), $budhny\dot{a}$ ($budhnt\dot{a}$), $kany\dot{a}$ ($kant\bar{a}$), $nady\dot{a}s$ ($nad\bar{t}-as$), $tanv\dot{a}$ ($tan\dot{u}-\bar{a}$).

The words of both these classes are in the Veda, in the great majority of cases, to be read with restoration of the acute vowel as a separate syllable: thus, apsû antûr, sûar, nadîas, etc. In some texts, part of them are written correspondingly: thus, sûvar, tanûvā, budhnīya.

- c. Praclista, when the acute and grave vowels are of such character that they are fused into a long vowel or diphthong (128): thus div^i 'va (RV. and AV.), from div^i iva; $s\bar{u}dg\bar{a}t\bar{a}$ (TS.), from $s\dot{u}$ -udg $\bar{u}t\bar{a}$; $na\dot{r}$ 'v \bar{u} ' $cn\bar{v}y\bar{a}t$ (CB.), from $n\hat{a}$ ev \hat{a} acn $\bar{v}y\bar{a}t$.
- 85. But further, the Hindu grammarians agree in declaring the (naturally grave) syllable following an acute, whether in the same or in another word, to be *svarita* or circumflex unless, indeed, it be itself followed by an acute or circumflex; in which case it retains its grave tone. This is called by European scholars the enclitic or dependent circumflex.

Thus, in téna and té ca, the syllable na and word ca are regarded and marked as circumflex; but in téna té and té ca svàr they are grave.

but

This seems to mean that the voice, which is borne up at the higher pitch to the end of the acute syllable, does not ordinarily drop to grave pitch by an instantaneous movement, but descends by a more or less perceptible slide in the course of the following syllable. No Hindu authority suggests the theory of a middle or intermediate tone for the enclitic, any more than for the independent circumflex. For the most part, the two are identified with one another, in treatment and designation. The enclitic circumflex is likewise divided into a number of sub-varieties, with different names: they are of too little consequence to be worth reporting.

- 86. The essential difference of the two kinds of circumflex is shown clearly enough by these facts: a. the independent circumflex takes the place of the acute as the proper accent of a word, while the enclitic is the mere shadow following an acute, and following it in another word precisely as in the same word; b. the independent circumflex maintains its character in all situations, while the enclitic before a following circumflex or acute loses its circumflex character, and becomes grave; moreover, c. in many of the systems of marking accent (below, 88, the two are quite differently indicated.
- 87. The accentuation is marked in manuscripts only of the older literature: namely, in the different Vedic texts, in two of the Brāhmaṇas (Tāittirīya and Çatapatha), and in the Tāittirīya-Āraṇyaka. There are a number of methods of writing accent, more or less different from one another; the one found in MSS. of the Rig-Veda, which is most widely known, and of which most of the others are only slight modifications, is as follows: the acute syllable is left unmarked; the circumflex, whether independent or enclitic, has a brief perpendicular stroke above; and the grave next preceding an acute or (independent) circumflex has a brief horizontal stroke below. Thus,

मृग्निम् agnim; जुक्तिति juhóti; तुन्त्री tanvā; क्ते kvā.

The introductory grave stroke below, however, cannot be given if an acute syllable is initial, whence an unmarked syllable at the beginning of a word is to be understood as acute; and hence also, if several grave syllables precede an acute at the beginning of a sentence, they must all alike have the grave sign. Thus,

इन्द्रेः índraḥ; ते té; क्रियमि kariṣyási; तुविक्ञाता tuvijātá.

All the grave syllables, however, which follow a marked circumflex are left unmarked, until the occurrence of another accented syllable causes the one which precedes it to take the preparatory stroke below. Thus,

मुद्रशीकासंदक् sudíçīkasamdrk; सुद्रशीकासंदुग्गवीम् sudíçīkasamdrg gávām.

- 88. The other methods it is not worth while to attempt to set forth. They may be found illustrated in the different texts, and explained by the editors of them. In part, their peculiarities consist in other forms or places given to the grave and circumflex signs. In some methods, the acute is itself marked, by a slight stroke above. In several, the independent circumflex is distinguished from the enclitic. The most peculiar systems are the scanty and imperfect one of the Çatapatha-Brāhmana, with a single sign, written below; and the highly intricate one of the Sāma-Veda, with a dozen different signs, written above.
- 89. In this work, as everything given in the $devan\bar{a}gari$ characters is also given in transliteration, it will in general be unnecessary to mark the accent except in the transliterated form; where, however, the case is otherwise, there will be adopted the method* of marking only the accented syllables, the acute and the independent circumflex: the latter by the usual svarita-sign, the former by a small u (for $ud\bar{a}tta$) above the syllable: thus,

इन्द्र indra, मामे ágne, स्वीत् svàr, नेखेस nadyàs.

These being given, everything else which the Hindu theory recognises as dependent on and accompanying them can readily be understood as implied.

- 90. The theory of the Sanskrit accent, as here given (a consistent and intelligible body of phenomena), has been overlaid by the Hindu theorists, especially of the Prātiçākhyas, with a number of added features, of a much more questionable character. Thus:
- a. The unmarked grave syllables, following a circumflex (either at the end of a sentence, or till the near approach of another acute), are declared to have the same high tone with the (also unmarked) acute. They are called pracaya or pracita ('accumulated': because liable to occur in an indefinite series of successive syllables).
- b. The circumflex, whether independent or enclitic, is declared to begin on a higher pitch than acute, and to descend to acute pitch in ordinary cases: the concluding instant of it being brought down to grave pitch, however, in the case of an independent circumflex which is immediately followed by another ascent of the voice to higher pitch (in acute or independent circumflex).

This last case, of an independent circumflex followed by acute or circumflex, receives peculiar written treatment. In the Rig-Veda method, a figure 1 or 3 is set after the circumflexed vowel, according as it is short or long, and the signs of accent are thus applied:

^{*} Introduced by Böhtlingk, and used in the Petersburg lexicon and elsewhere.

म्रटस्वर्ताः apsv dIntah from apsú antah;

रायो्र्विनिः rāyò3 'vániḥ from rāyó avániḥ.

The other methods, more or less akin with this, need not be given.

In the scholastic utterance of such a syllable is made a peculiar quaver or roulade of the voice, which is called kampa or vikampana.

- c. Pāṇini gives the ambiguous name of ekaçruti ('monotone') to the pracita syllables, and says nothing of the uplifting of the circumflex to a higher plane: he teaches, however, a depression below the grave pitch for the marked grave syllable before acute or circumflex, calling it sannatara (otherwise anudāttatara).
- 91. The system of accentuation as marked in the Vedic texts has assumed in the traditional recitation of the Brahmanic schools a peculiar and artificial form, in which the designated syllables, grave and circumflex (equally the enclitic and the independent circumflex), have acquired a conspicuous value, while the undesignated, the acute, has sunk into insignificance*.
- 92. The Sanskrit accent taught in the native grammars and represented by the accentuated texts is essentially a system of word-accent only. No general attempt is made (any more than in the Greek system) to define or mark a sentence-accent, the effect of the emphasis and modulation of the sentence in modifying the independent accent of individual words. The only approach to it is seen in the treatment of vocatives and personal verb-forms.

A vocative is usually without accent except at the beginning of a sentence: for further details, see the chapter on Declension.

A personal verb-form is usually accentless in an independent clause, except when standing at the beginning of the clause: for further details, see the chapter on Conjugation.

- 93. Certain other words also are, usually or always, without accent.
- a. The particles ca, $v\bar{a}$, u, sma, iva, cid, svid, ha, are always without accent.
- b. The same is true of certain pronouns and pronominal stems: $m\bar{a}$, $m\epsilon$, $n\bar{a}u$, nas, $tv\bar{u}$, te, $v\bar{a}m$, vas, ena-, tva-.
- ${f c.}$ The cases of the pronominal stem a are sometimes accented and sometimes accentless.

An accentless word is not allowed to stand at the beginning of a sentence: also not of a $p\bar{a}da$ or primary division of a verse; a $p\bar{a}da$ is, in all matters relating to accentuation, treated like an independent sentence.

^{*} Haug, Wedischer Accent, in Abh. d. Bayr. Akad., vol. XIII, 1874.

- 94. Some words have more than a single accented syllable. Such are:
 - a. Dual collective compounds: as indrāvaruṇāu.
- b. A few other compounds, in which each member irregularly retains its own accent: as tûnûnûpût, vûnaspûti, bṛhaspûti. In a rare case or two, also their further compounds, as bṛhaspûtipraņutta.
 - c. Infinitive datives in tavāl: as étavāl.
- d. A word naturally barytone, but having its final syllable protracted: see above, 78.
 - e. The particle vava (in the Brahmanas).
- 95. On the place of the accented syllable in a Sanskrit word there is no restriction whatever depending upon either the number or the quantity of the preceding or following syllables. The accent rests where the rules of inflection or derivation or composition place it, without regard to any thing else.

Thus, indre, agnāú, indreṇa, agninā, agnīnām, bāhúcyuta, ánapacyuta, parjányajinvita, abhimātiṣāhá, ánabhimlātavarṇa, abhiçasticātana, hiraṇyavāçīmattama.

- 96. Since the accent is marked only in the older literature, and the statements of the grammarians, with the deduced rules of accentuation, are far from being sufficient to settle all cases, the place of the stress of voice for a considerable part of the vocabulary is undetermined. Hence it is a general habit with European scholars to pronounce Sanskrit words according to the rules of the Latin accent.
- 97. In this work, the accent of each word and form will in general be marked, so far as there is authority determining its place and character. Where specific words and forms are quoted, they will only be so far accentuated as they are found with accent in accentuated texts.

CHAPTER III.

RULES OF EUPHONIC COMBINATION.

Introductory.

- 98. THE individual elements composing a language as actually used are its words. These are in part uninflected vocables (indeclinables, particles); in the main, they are inflected forms.
- 99. The inflected forms are analysable into inflective endings, of declension or of conjugation, and inflected stems to which those endings are added.
- 100. The inflected stems, again, are for the most part as are also in part the uninflected words analysable into derivative endings or suffixes, and roots, to which, either directly or through more primary stems, those endings are added.

But, not a few stems and particles are irreducible to roots; and, on the other hand, roots are often used directly as inflected stems, in declension as well as in conjugation.

- 101. The roots are, in the condition of the language as it lies before us, the ultimate attainable elements; to a great extent not actually ultimate, but, where otherwise, the result of processes of development too irregular and obscure to be made the subject of treatment in a grammar.
- 102. The formative processes by which both inflectional forms and derivative stems are made, by the addition of endings to bases and to roots, are more regular and transparent in Sanskrit than in any other Indo-European language, and the grammatical analysis of words into their component elements is correspondingly complete. Hence it became the method of the native grammarians, and has continued to be that of their European successors, to teach the language by presenting the endings and stems and roots in their analysed forms, and laying down the ways in which these are to be combined together to make words. And hence a statement of the euphonic rules which govern the combination of elements occupies in Sanskrit grammar a more prominent and important place than in other grammars.
- 103. Moreover, the formation of compound words, by the putting together of two or more stems, is a process of very exceptional frequency in Sanskrit; and this kind of combination also has its own euphonic rules. And once more, in the form

in which the language is handed down to us by the literature, the words composing a sentence or paragraph are adapted to and combined with each other by nearly the same rules which govern the making of compounds, so that it is impossible to take apart and understand the simplest sentence in Sanskrit without understanding those rules. Hence also a greatly added degree of practical importance belonging to the subject of euphonic combination.

This euphonic interdependence of the words of a sentence, which is unknown to any other language in anything like the same degree, is shown to be at least in considerable measure artificial, implying an erection into necessary and invariable rules of what in the living language were only optional practices, by the evidence of the older dialect of the Vedas and the younger Prakritic dialects, in both of which these rules (especially as regards hiatus: 113) are very often violated.

- 104. We have, therefore, in the first place to consider the euphonic principles and laws which govern the combination of the elements of words (and the elements of the sentence); and then afterward to take up the subject of inflection, under the two heads of declension and conjugation; to which will succeed some account of the classes of uninflected words.
- 105. The formation of conjugational stems (tense and mode-stems, etc.) will be taught, as is usual, in connection with the processes of conjugational inflection; that of uninflected words, in connection with the various classes of those words. But the general subject of derivation, or the formation of declinable stems, will be taken up by itself later for a brief presentation; and it will be followed by an account of the formation of compound stems.

Although, namely, the general plan of this series of grammars excludes the subject of derivation, yet, because of the comparative simplicity and regularity of the principal processes of derivation in Sanskrit, and the importance to the student of accustoming himself from the beginning to trace those processes, in connection with the analysis of derived forms, back to the root, an exception will be made in regard to the subject in the present work.

- 106. We assume, then, for the purposes of the present chapter, the existence of the material of the language in a grammatically analysed condition, in the form of roots, stems, and endings.
- 107. What is to be taken as the proper form of a root or stem is not in all cases clear. Very many of both classes show in a part of their derivatives a stronger and in a part a weaker form (260). This is, in most cases, the only difficulty affecting

stems — whether, for example, we shall speak of derivatives in mat or in mant, of comparatives in yas or in $y\bar{a}ns$, of a perfect participle in vat or in $v\bar{a}ns$ or in us. The Hindu grammarians usually give the weaker form as the normal one, and derive the other from it by a strengthening change; some European authorities adopt the one form and some the other: the question is an unessential one, giving rise to no practical difficulty.

- 108. As regards the roots, the difficulty is greater, partly because complicated with other questions, arising from practices of the Hindu grammarians, which have been more or less widely followed by their European successors. Thus:
- a. More than half of the whole number of roots given by the Hindu authorities (which are over 2000) have never been found actually used in the literature; and although some of these may yet come to light, or may have existed without finding their way into any of the preserved literary documents, it is certain that most are fictitious, made in part for the explanation of words claimed to be their derivatives, and in part for other and perhaps unexplainable reasons. Of the roots unauthenticated by traceable use no account will be made in this grammar or, if at all considered, they will be carefully distinguished from the authenticated.
- b. Those roots of which the initial n and s are regularly converted to n and s after certain prefixes are by the Hindu grammarians given as beginning with n and s: no European authority follows this example.
- c. A number of roots ending in \bar{a} which is irregularly treated in the inflection of the present-system are written in the Hindu lists with diphthongs e or $\bar{a}i$ or o; and so, after this example, by many Western scholars. Here they will be regarded as \bar{a} -roots: compare below, 251. The o of such roots, especially, is purely arbitrary; no forms made from the root justify it.
- d. The roots showing interchangeably r, ar, and ir and $\bar{\imath}r$ or ur and $\bar{\imath}u$ forms are written by the Hindus with r, or with \bar{r} , or with both. Here also the \bar{r} is arbitrary and indefensible. As between r and ar, even the latest European authorities are at variance, and it may be left to further research to settle whether the one or the other is alone worthy to be accepted. Here (mainly as a matter of convenience: compare below, 237) the r-forms will be used.
- e. In the other cases of roots showing a stronger and a weaker form, choice is in great measure a matter of minor consequence unless further research and the settlement of pending phonetic questions shall show that the one or the other is decidedly the truer and more original. From the point of view of the Sanskrit alone, the question is often impossible to determine.
- **f.** The Hindus classify as simple roots a number of derived stems: reduplicated ones, as $d\bar{\imath}dh\bar{\imath}$, $j\bar{a}gr$, $daridr\bar{a}$; present-stems, as $\bar{u}r\eta u$; and denominative stems, as $avadh\bar{\imath}r$, $kum\bar{a}r$, $sabh\bar{a}j$, mantr, $s\bar{a}ntv$, arth, and the like. These are in European works generally reduced to their true value.
 - g. But it is impossible to draw any definite line between these cases

and others in which root-forms evidently of secondary origin have attained a degree of independent value in the language which almost or quite entitles them to rank as individual roots. Even the weak and strong forms of the same root - as vad and vand, cit and cint, mah and manh - may have such a difference of use that they count as two; or a difference of inflection combined with a difference of meaning in a root has the same effect - as in vr vrnoti and vr vrnīte, in hā jahāti and hā jihīte; or an evident presentstem becomes a separate root - as jinv and pinv. Not a few roots occur in more or less clearly related groups, the members of which are of various degrees of independence. Thus, a considerable class of roots show an added \bar{a} ; and such as $mn\bar{a}$ and $dhm\bar{a}$ are reckoned only as side-forms of man and dham; while trā, prā, pyā, psā, and others, presumably made in the same manner, figure as separate from their probable originals. Many final consonants of roots have the value of "root-determinatives", or elements of obscure or unknown origin added to simpler forms. A class of derivative roots show signs of reduplication, as cake, jake, dudh; or of a desiderative development, as bhaks and bhiks, crus, aks, naks. Yet another class seem to contain a preposition fused with a root, as vyac, ap, and the later ujh and vyas.

With most of such cases it is not the part of a Sanskrit grammar, but rather of a general Indo-European comparative grammar, to deal according to their historical character. We must be content to accept as roots what elements seem to have on the whole that value in the existing condition of the language; with due recognition of authorized differences of opinion on many points, as well as of the fact that further knowledge will set many things now doubtful in a clearer light.

Principles of Euphonic Combination.

- 109. The rules of combination are in some respects different, according as they apply
- a. to the internal make-up of a word, by the addition of derivative and inflectional endings to roots and stems;
- b. to the more external putting together of stems to make compound stems, and the yet looser and more accidental collocation of words in the sentence.

Hence they are usually divided into rules of internal combination (or *sandhi*, 'putting together'), and rules of external combination.

110. In both classes of cases, however, the general principles of combination are the same — and likewise, to a great extent, the specific rules. The differences depend in part on

the occurrence or non-occurrence of certain combinations in the one class or the other; in part, on the difference of treatment of the same sound as final of a root or of an ending, the former being much more persistent than the latter; in part, on the occurrence in external combination of certain changes which are apparently phonetic but really historical; and, most frequent and conspicuous of all, on the fact that (157) vowels and semivowels and nasals exercise a sonantizing influence in external combination, but not in internal. Hence, to avoid unnecessary repetition as well as the separation of what really belongs together, the rules for both kinds of combination will be given below in connection with one another.

111. Moreover, before case-endings beginning with bh and s (namely, bhis, bhyas, bhyām, su), the treatment of the finals of stems is in general the same as in the combinations of words (pada) with one another — whence those endings are sometimes called pada-endings, and the cases they form are known as padacases. And with some of the suffixes of derivation the same is the case.

The importance of this distinction is somewhat exaggerated by the ordinary statement of it. In fact, dh is the only sonant mute initial of an ending occurring in conjugation, as bh in declension; and the difference of their treatment is in part owing to the one coming into collision usually with the final of a root and the other of an ending, and in part to the fact that dh, as a dental, is more assimilable to palatals and linguals than bh. A more marked and problematic distinction is made between su and the verbal endings si, sva, etc., especially after palatal sounds and s.

112. The leading rules of internal combination are those which are of highest and most immediate importance to a beginner in the language, since his first task is to master the principal paradigms of inflection; the rules of external combination may better be left untouched until he comes to dealing with words in sentences, or to translating. Then, however, they are indispensable, since the proper form of the words that compose the sentence is not to be determined without them.

The general principles of combination underlying the euphonic rules, and determining their classification, may be stated as follows:

113. Hiatus. A hiatus is avoided.

There are but two or three words in the language which in their accepted written form exhibit successive vowels forming different syllables: they are titaü, 'sieve' (perhaps for titasu, BR.) and prääga, 'wagon-pole' (for prayuga?); and, in RV., suūti. For the not infrequent instances of composition and sentence combination where the recent loss of s or y or v leaves a permanent hiatus, see below, 132ff., 175 b, 177.

It has been already noticed that in the Veda, as the metrical form of the hymns plainly shows, there is no avoidance of hiatus, either as between the stem-finals and endings of words, between the members of compounds, or between the words composing a sentence. In cases innumerable, a y and v (especially after two consonants, or a long vowel and consonant) are to be read as i and u. But also a long vowel is sometimes to be resolved into two syllables — oftenest, \bar{a} into a-a: this resolution is sometimes historical, but ordinarily purely metrical. For details, see below. It is with regard to the hiatus that the rules of the grammatically regulated classical Sanskrit are most demonstrably and conspicuously different from the more living usages of the sacred dialect.

- 114. Deaspiration. An aspirate mute is liable to lose its aspiration, being allowed to stand unchanged only before a vowel or semivowel or nasal.
- changes in Sanskrit, as elsewhere, falls under the general head of assimilation which takes place both between sounds which are so nearly alike that the difference between them is too insignificant to be worth preserving, and between those which are so diverse as to be practically incompatible.
- one sound to another of the same series, without change of articulating position; in part, it involves a change of position, or transfer to another series.
- 117. Of changes within the series, the most frequent and important occur in the adaptation of surd and sonant sounds to one another; but the nasals and l have also in certain cases their special assimilative influence. Thus:
- a. In the two classes of non-nasal mutes and spirants, surd and sonant are wholly incompatible; no surd of either class can either precede or follow a sonant of either.

A mute, surd or sonant, is assimilated by being changed to its correspondent of the other kind; of the spirants, the surd s is the only one having a sonant correspondent, namely r, to which it is convertible in external combination.

b. The nasals are more freely combinable: a nasal may either precede or follow a mute of either kind, or the sonant spirant h_i ; it may also follow a surd spirant (sibilant); no nasal, however, ever precedes a sibilant in the

interior of a word (it is changed instead to anusvāra); and in external combination their concurrence is usually avoided by insertion of a surd mute.

c. A semivowel has still less sonantizing influence; and a vowel least of all*: both are freely preceded and followed by sounds of every other class, in the interior of a word.

Before a sibilant, however, is found, of the semivowels, only r and very rarely l. Moreover, in external combination, r is often changed to its surd correspondent s.

But

- d. In composition and sentence-collocation, initial vowels and semivowels and nasals also require the preceding final to be sonant. And
- e. Before a nasal and l, the assimilative process is sometimes carried further, by the conversion of a final mute to a nasal or l respectively.
- 118. Of conversions involving a change of articulate position, the most important are those of dental sounds to lingual, and, less often, to palatal. Thus:
- a. The dental s and n are very frequently converted to s and n by the assimilating influence of contiguous or neighboring lingual sounds: the s, even by sounds namely, i and u-vowels and k which have themselves no lingual character.
- b. A non-nasal dental mute is [with a few exceptions in external combination] made lingual when it comes into collision with a lingual sound.
 - c. The dental mutes and sibilant are made palatal by a contiguous palatal. But also:
- ${\bf d.}~{\bf A}~m~({\rm not~radical})$ is assimilated to a following consonant, of whatever kind.
- 119. The euphonic combinations of the palatal mutes, the palatal sibilant, and the aspiration, as being sounds derived by phonetic alteration from more original gutturals (42 ff.), are made peculiar and complicated by two circumstances: their reversion to a guttural form (or the appearance of the unaltered guttural instead of them); and the different treatment of j and h according as they represent one or another degree of alteration—the one tending, like c, more to the guttural reversion, the other showing, like c, a more sibilant and lingual character.
- 120. The lingual sibilant s, also of derivative character (from dental s), shows as radical final a peculiar and problematic mode of combination.
- 121. Extension and abbreviation of consonant-groups. The native grammarians allow or require certain extensions, by duplication or insertion, of groups of consonants. And, on the other hand, abbreviation of cer-

^{*} In conformity with general phonetic law: see Sievers, Lautphysiologie, p. 140.

tain other groups is allowed, and found often practised in the manuscripts.

- 122. Permitted Finals. The permitted occurrence of consonants at the end of a word is quite narrowly restricted. In general, only one consonant is allowed after the last vowel; and that must be neither the aspiration, nor a sibilant, nor a semivowel (save rarely $\exists (l)$), nor an aspirate mute, nor a sonant mute if not nasal, nor a palatal.
- 123. Increment and Decrement. Besides these more or less regular changes accompanying the combination of the parts that make up words, there is another class of a somewhat different character, not consisting in the mutual adaptations of the parts, but in strengthening or weakening changes of the parts themselves.
- 124. It is impossible to carry through a perfectly systematic arrangement of the detailed rules of euphonic combination, because the different varieties of euphonic change more or less overlap and intersect one another. The order followed below will be as follows:
 - 1. Rules of vowel combination, for the avoidance of hiatus.
- 2. Rules as to permitted finals (since these underlie the farther treatment of final consonants in external combination).
 - 3. Rules for loss of aspiration of an aspirate mute.
- 4. Rules of surd and sonant assimilation, including those for final s and r.
- 5. Rules for the conversion of dental sounds to lingual and palatal.
- 6. Rules for the changes of final nasals, including those in which a former final following the nasal reappears in combination.
- 7. Rules regarding the special changes of the derivative sounds the palatal mutes and sibilant, the aspiration, and the lingual sibilant.
- 8. Rules as to extension and abbreviation of consonant groups.
 - 9. Rules for strengthening and weakening processes.

Everywhere, rules for more sporadic and less classifiable cases will be given in the most practically convenient connection; and the Index will render what help is needed toward finding them.

Rules of Vowel Combination.

diphthong, without intervening consonant, is forbidden by the euphony of the later or classical language. It is avoided, according to the circumstances of the case, either by fusion of the two concurrent sounds into one, by the reduction of one of them to a semivowel, or by development of a semi-vowel between them.

The texts of the older or Vedic dialect are written according to the euphonic rules of the later, although in them (as was pointed out above, 113) the hiatus is really of very frequent occurrence. Hence they are not to be read as written, but with almost constant reversal of the processes of vowel combination which they have artificially undergone.

The rules of vowel combination, as regards both the resulting sound and its accent, are nearly the same in internal and in external sandhi.

126. Two similar simple vowels, short or long, coalesce and form the corresponding long vowel: thus, two a-vowels (either or both of them short or long) form \overline{a} ; two i-vowels, $\overline{\xi}$ \overline{i} ; two u-vowels, \overline{s} \overline{u} ; and, theoretically, two r-vowels form \overline{t} \overline{r} , but it is questionable whether the case ever practically occurs. Examples are:

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स चाप्रजः sa cā 'prajaḥ (ca + aprajaḥ);
म्रतीव atī 'va (ati + iva);
सूक्तम् sūktam (su-uktam);
राजासीत् rājā "sīt (rājā + āsīt);
म्रधीभ्राः adhīçvaraḥ (adhi-īçvaraḥ).
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As the above examples indicate, it will be the practice everywhere in this work, in transliteration (but not in the $devan\bar{a}gar\bar{\imath}$ text), to separate independent words; and if an initial vowel of a following word has coalesced with a final of the preceding, this will be indicated by an apostrophe—single if the initial vowel be the shorter, double if it be the longer, of the two different initials which in every case of combination yield the same result.

127. An a-vowel combines with a following i-vowel to \overline{a} e; with an u-vowel, to \overline{a} o; with \overline{a} r, to \overline{a} ar; with

ल् (theoretically), to म्रल् al; with ए e or ऐ āi, to ऐ āi; with म्रो o or म्री āu, to म्री āu. Examples are:

राजेन्द्र rājendra (rāja-indra);
व्हितीपदेश: hitopadeçaḥ (hita-upadeçaḥ);
मर्कार्ष: maharṣiḥ (mahā-ṛṣiḥ);
सेव sai 'va (sā + eva);
राजेश्यर्यम् rājāiçvaryam (rāja-āiçvaryam);
रिवीकसः divāukasaḥ (divā-okasaḥ);
व्यरीपधम् jvarāuṣadham (jvara-āuṣadham).

In some of the Vedic texts, the vowel r is written unchanged after the a-vowel, which, if long, is shortened: thus, maharsih instead of maharsih. The two vowels, however, are usually pronounced as one syllable.

When successive words like indra \bar{a} ihi are to be combined, the first combination, to indra, is made first, and the result is indre "'hi (not indrai" 'hi, from indra e 'hi).

- 128. As regards the accent of these vowel combinations, it is to be noticed that, a. as a matter of course, the union of acute with acute yields acute, and that of grave with grave yields grave: that of circumflex with circumflex cannot occur; b. a circumflex with following acute yields acute, the final grave element of the former being raised to acute pitch; a grave with following acute does the same, as no upward slide of the voice on a syllable is acknowledged in the language; but, c. when the former of the fused elements is acute and the latter grave, we might expect the resulting syllable to be in general circumflex, to represent both the original tones. Pānini in fact allows this accent in every such case; and in a single accentuated Brāhmana text (CB.), the circumflex is regularly written. But the language shows, on the whole, an indisposition to allow the circumflex to rest on either long vowel or diphthong as its sole basis, and the acute element is suffered to raise the other to its own level of pitch, making the whole syllable acute. The only exception to this, in most of the texts, is the combination of i and i, which becomes i: thus, divi va, from divi iva; in the Taittirīya texts alone such a case follows the general rule, while u and u, instead, make u: thus, sudgata from sú-udgata.
- 129. The *i*-vowels, the *u*-vowels, and π r, before a dissimilar vowel or a diphthong, are regularly converted each into its own corresponding semivowel, π y or π v or π r. Examples are:

इत्याक् ity āha (iti + āha); मधिन madhv iva (madhu + iva); इक्तिर्श्च duhitrarthe (duhitr-arthe); ह्यस्य stry asya (strī + asya); नधे vadhvāi (vadhū-āi).

But in internal combination (never in external) the *i* and *u*-vowels are not seldom changed instead to *iy* and *uv* — and this especially in monosyllables, or after two consonants, where otherwise a group of consonants difficult of pronunciation would be the result. The cases will be noticed below, in explaining inflected forms.

A radical *i*-vowel is converted into y even before i in perfect tense-inflection: so ninyima $(nin\bar{\imath} + ima)$.

130. As regards the accent — here, as in the preceding case (128), the only combination requiring notice is that of an acute i or u-vowel with a following grave: the result is circumflex; and such cases of circumflex are many times more frequent than any and all others. Examples are:

ट्युंष्टि vyùṣṭi (vi-uṣṭi); म्रभ्यंचित abhyàrcati; नयी nadyāù (nadi-āu); स्विष्ट svìṣṭa (sú-iṣṭa); तन्वम् tanvàs (tanú-as).

Of a similar combination of acute i' with following grave, only a single case has been noted in accented texts: namely, $vij\tilde{n}\tilde{a}tr$ $\hat{c}t\hat{a}t$ (QB. xiv. 6. 8 11): the accentuation is in accordance with the rules for i and u.

d 131. Of a diphthong, the final i or u-element is changed to its corresponding semivowel, \underline{v} y or \underline{a} v, before any vowel or diphthong: thus, \underline{v} e (really ai: 28) becomes म्र्य ay, and म्रो o (that is, au) becomes म्र्य av; \overline{v} $\overline{a}i$ becomes म्राय $\overline{a}y$, and म्रो $\overline{a}u$ becomes म्रय $\overline{a}v$.

No change of accent, of course, occurs here; each original syllable retains its syllabic identity, and hence also its own tone.

Examples can be given only for internal combination, since in external combination there are further changes: see the next paragraph. Thus,

नय naya (ne-a); नाय nāya (nāi-a);

ਮਕ bhava (bho-a); ਮਾਕ bhāva (bhāu-a).

\(\) 132. In external combination, we have the important additional rule that the semivowel resulting from the conversion of the final element of a diphthong is in general

dropped; and the resulting hiatus is left without further change.

133. That is to say, a final ∇e (by far the most frequent case) becomes simply Ξ a before an initial vowel (except Ξ a: see 135, below), and both then remain unchanged; and a final $\nabla \bar{a}i$, in like manner, becomes (everywhere) \bar{a} . Thus,

त द्यागताः ta āgatāḥ (te + āgatāḥ); नगर् इक् nagara iha (nagare + iha); तस्मा द्रद्रात् tasmā adadāt (tasmāi + adadāt); स्त्रिपा उक्तम् striyā uktam (striyāi + uktam).

The later grammarians allow the y in such combinations to be either retained or dropped; but the uniform practice of the MSS., of every age, in accordance with the strict requirement of the Vedic grammars (Prātiçākhyas), is to omit the semivowel and leave the hiatus.

The persistence of the hiatus caused by this omission is a plain indication of the comparatively recent loss of the intervening consonantal sound. Instances of the combination of the remaining final and initial are not unknown, but they are of sporadically rare occurrence.

134. The diphthong o (except as phonetic alteration of final as: see 175a) is an unusual final, appearing only in the stem go (356), in the voc. sing. of u-stems, in words of which the final a is combined with the particle u, as atho, and in a few interjections. In the last two classes it is uncombinable (below, 138); the vocatives sometimes retain the v and sometimes lose it (the practices of different texts are too different to be briefly stated); go (in composition only) does not lose its final element, but remains gav or go. A final as becomes a, with following hiatus, before any vowel save a (for which, see the next paragraph).

The व्v of म्राव् $\bar{a}v$ from म्री $\bar{a}u$ is usually retained: thus, तावव $t\bar{a}v$ eva $(t\bar{a}u + eva)$;

उभाविन्द्रामी $ubh\bar{a}v$ $indr\bar{a}gn\bar{\imath}$ $(ubh\bar{a}u + indr\bar{a}gn\bar{\imath})$.

In some texts, however, it is lost before an u-vowel, the \bar{u} alone remaining, with hiatus; in at least one text (Kāṭhaka), it is dropped before every vowel. The later grammarians allow it to be either retained or dropped.

135. After final ∇e or $\Re o$, an initial $\Re a$ disappears.

The resulting accent is as if the a were not dropped, but rather absorbed into the preceding diphthong, having its tone

duly represented in the combination. If, namely, the e or o is grave or circumflex and the a acute, the former becomes acute; if the e or o is acute and the a grave, the former becomes circumflex, as usually in the fusion of an acute and a grave element. If both are acute or both grave, no change, of course, is seen in the result. Examples are:

ते ऽब्रुवन् tè 'bruvan (té abruvan); मो ऽब्रवीत् sò 'bravīt (sáḥ abravīt); हिंमितच्यो ऽग्नि: hinsitavyò 'gniḥ (hinsitavyàḥ agnih); यदिन्द्रो ऽब्रवीत् yád indró 'bravīt (yád indraḥ ábravīt); यदाजन्यो ऽब्रवीत् yád rājanyó 'bravīt (yád rājanyàḥ ábravīt).

As to the use of the avagraha sign in the case of such an elision, see above, 16. In transliteration, the reversed apostrophe, or rough breathing, will be used in this work to represent it.

This elision or absorption of initial a after final e or o, which in the later language is the invariable rule, is in the Veda only an occasional occurrence; and there is no close accordance with regard to it between the written and the spoken form of the Vedic texts. In the Atharvan, for example, the a is omitted in writing in about one third of the cases, but is to be omitted in reading in less than one fifth (including a number in which the written text preserves it). See APr. iii. 54, note.

To the rules of vowel combination, as above stated, there are certain exceptions. Some of the more isolated of these will be noticed where they come up in the processes of inflection etc.; a few require mention here.

136. In internal combination:

- **a.** The augment a makes with the initial vowel of a root the combinations $\bar{a}i$, $\bar{a}u$, $\bar{a}r$ (vrddhi-vowels), instead of e, o, ar (guna-vowels), as required by 127.
- **b.** The final o of a strengthened stem (238b) becomes av before the suffix ya (originally ia);
- c. The final vowel of a stem is often dropped when a secondary suffix is added.

For the weakening and loss of radical vowels, and for certain insertions, see below, 249 ff., 257-8.

137. In external combination:

- **a.** The final a or \bar{a} of a preposition, with initial r of a root, makes $\bar{a}r$ instead of ar.
- b. The final a of a preposition before roots beginning with e or o is usually omitted.
 - c. A final a in composition may be cut off before otu and ostha.
 - d. The form uh from Vvah sometimes makes the heavier (vrddhi)

diphthongal combination with a preceding a; thus, $pr\bar{a}uha$, $pr\bar{a}udha$, $aks\bar{a}uhin\bar{i}$ (from $pra-\bar{u}ha$ etc.).

- 138. Certain final vowels, moreover, are uncombinable (pragrhya), or maintain themselves unchanged before any following vowel. Thus,
- a. The vowels $\bar{\imath}$, \bar{u} and e as dual endings, both of declensional and of conjugational forms. Thus, $bandh\bar{u}$ $\bar{a}s\bar{a}te$ $im\bar{a}u$; $qir\bar{\imath}$ $\bar{a}rohatam$.
- b. The pronoun ami (nom. pl.); and the Vedic pronominal forms asmé, yusmé, tvé.
- c. A final o made by combination of a final a-vowel with the particle u: thus, atho, mo, no.
 - d. A final $\bar{\imath}$ or \bar{u} of a Vedic locative case.
 - e. A protracted final vowel (78).
 - f. The final, or only, vowel of an interjection, as aho, he, \bar{a} , i, u.

Permitted Finals.

139. The sounds allowed to occur as finals in Sanskrit words, standing by themselves (not in euphonic combination with something following), are closely limited, and those which would etymologically come to occupy such a position are often variously altered, in general accordance with their treatment in other circumstances, or are sometimes omitted altogether.

The variety of consonants that would ever come at the end of either an inflected form or a derivative stem in the language is very small: namely, in forms, only t (or d), n, m, s; in derivative stems, only t, d, n, r, s (and, in a few rare words, j). But almost all consonants occur as finals of roots; and every root is liable to be found, alone or as last member of a compound, in the character of a declined stem.

140. All the vowel sounds, both simple and diphthongal, may be sounded at the end of a word.

But neither \bar{r} nor l ever actually occurs; and r is very rare (only as neuter sing, of a stem in r or ar, or as final of such a stem in composition).

Thus, indra, çiváyā, ákāri, naďi, dắtu, camú, janayitṛ, ágne, çivấyāi, vấyo, agnāú.

141. Of the non-nasal mutes, only the first in each series, the non-aspirate surd, is allowed; the others — surd

aspirate, and both sonants — whenever they would etymologically occur, are converted into this.

Thus, agaimát for agaimáth, suhrt for suhrd, virút for virúdh. In a few roots, when their final (sonant aspirate) thus loses its aspiration, the original sonant aspiration of the initial reappears: compare Ξ h, below, 147.

Thus, dagh becomes dhak, budh becomes bhut, and so on.
The roots exhibiting this change are stated below, 155.

There was some question among the Hindu grammarians as to whether the final mute is to be estimated as of surd or of sonant quality; but the great weight of authority, and the invariable practice of the MSS., favor the surd.

- 142. The palatals, however, form here (as often elsewhere) an exception to the rules for the other mutes. No palatal is allowed as final. The च c reverts to its original क् k: thus, वाक vāk, ग्रेक्शमुक anhomúk. The क ch (extremely rare: perhaps only in the root प्रक् prach) becomes र t: thus, प्रार् prāt. The ज j either reverts to its original guttural or becomes र t, in accordance with its treatment in other combinations (219): thus, भिषक bhiṣāk, virāt. The ज jh does not occur. but is by the native grammarians declared convertible to र t.
- 143. Of the nasals, the $\overline{\eta}$ m and $\overline{\eta}$ n are extremely common, especially the former ($\overline{\eta}$ m and $\overline{\eta}$ s are of all final consonants the most frequent); the $\overline{\eta}$ n is allowed, but is quite rare; \overline{g} \overline{n} is found (remaining after the loss of a following $\overline{\eta}$ k) in a very small number of words; $\overline{\eta}$ never occurs.

But the final m of a root is changed to n (compare 212, below): thus, $\acute{a}gan$ from gam, $\acute{a}n\bar{a}n$ from nam.

- 144. Of the semivowels, the \overline{e} , l alone is an admitted final, and it is very rare. The $\overline{\chi}$ r is (like its nearest surd correspondent, \overline{q} s: 145) changed as final to visarga. Of \overline{q} y and \overline{q} v there is no occurrence.
- 145. Of the sibilants, none may stand unaltered at the end of a word. The Ξ s (which of all final consonants

would otherwise be the commonest) is like \mathfrak{T} r changed to a breathing, the visarga. The \mathfrak{T} c either reverts to its original \mathfrak{T} k, or, in some roots, is changed to \mathfrak{T} t (in accordance with its changes in inflection and derivation; see below, 218). The \mathfrak{T} s is likewise changed to \mathfrak{T} t.

The change of s to t is of very rare occurrence: see below, 226.

Final radical s is said by the grammarians to be changed to t: thus, dhvat from dhvas: but no example of the conversion appears to occur: see 168.

146. The compound \overline{a} ks is prescribed to be treated as simple \overline{a} s (not becoming \overline{a} k by 150, below). But the case is a rare one, and its actual treatment in the older language irregular.

In the only RV. cases where the ks has a quasi-radical character — namely $an\hat{a}k$ from $an\hat{a}ks$, and $\hat{a}myak$ from $\gamma myaks$ — the conversion is to k. Also of forms of the s-aorist (see this aorist below) we have $adh\hat{a}k$, $asr\hat{a}k$, $ar\hat{a}ik$, etc. for $(adh\hat{a}ks-t$ etc.); but also $apr\hat{a}t$, $abhr\hat{a}t$, $ay\hat{a}t$ (for $apr\hat{a}ks-t$ etc.). And AV. has in two cases $sr\hat{a}k$ (i. e. $sr\hat{a}s$), apparently for $asr\hat{a}ks-s$, from γsrj (wrongly referred by BR. to $\gamma sra\hat{a}s$).

The numeral sas, 'six', is perhaps better to be regarded as saks, with its ks treated as s, according to the accepted rule.

- 147. The aspiration $\overline{\mathfrak{T}}$ h is not allowed to maintain itself, but (like $\overline{\mathfrak{T}}$ j and $\overline{\mathfrak{T}}$ p) either reverts to its original guttural form, appearing as $\overline{\mathfrak{T}}$ k, or is changed to $\overline{\mathfrak{T}}$ t—both in accordance with its treatment in inflection; see below, 222. And, also as in inflection, the original sonant aspiration of a few roots (given at 155) reappears when their final thus becomes unaspirated. Where the $\overline{\mathfrak{T}}$ h is from original $\overline{\mathfrak{T}}$ dh (223), it becomes $\overline{\mathfrak{T}}$ t.
- 148. The visarga and anusvāra are nowhere etymological finals; the former is only the substitute for an original final \mathfrak{H} s or \mathfrak{T} r; the latter occurs as final only so far as some later grammarians allow it to be substituted for \mathfrak{H} m.
- 149. Apart from the vowels, then, the usual finals, nearly in the order of their frequency, are: 1, \(\bar{n}\), \(\bar{n}\) m, \(\bar{n}\),

त् t, क् k, प् p, र् t; those of only sporadic occurrence are \bar{x} \bar{n} , \bar{n} l, \bar{y} n; and, by permitted substitution, \dot{x} \dot{n} .

150. In general, only one consonant, of whatever kind, is allowed to stand at the end of a word; if two or more would etymologically occur there, the last is dropped, and again the last, and so on, till only one remains.

Thus, tudants becomes tudant, and this tudan; uda $\bar{n}c$ -s becomes $uda\bar{n}k$, and this $uda\bar{n}$; and $ach\bar{a}ntst$ (s-aor., 3d sing., of Vchand) is in like manner reduced to $ach\bar{a}n$.

But a non-nasal mute, if radical and not suffixal, is retained after r: thus, $\acute{u}rk$ from $\~urj$, $v\acute{u}rk$ from $\~vvj$, $\acute{u}m\~art$ from $\rlap/vmrj$, $suh\~art$ from $suh\~ard$. The case is not a common one.

For relics of former double finals, preserved by the later language under the disguise of apparent euphonic combinations, see below, 207 ff.

- 151. Anomalous conversions of a final mute to one of another class are occasionally met with. Examples are:
- a. Of final t to k, in a few words that have assumed a special value as particles: thus, $jy\delta k$, $t\bar{a}j\acute{a}k$ (beside $t\bar{a}j\acute{a}t$), $p_{1}^{\prime}thak$, $f^{\prime}dhak$; but also now and then in a verbal form, as $s\bar{a}visak$ (AV. and VS. Kāṇ.), avisyak (Pārask.); and in the feminines in $kn\bar{\imath}$ (as $asikn\bar{\imath}$ beside asita). SV. has once $p_{1}^{\prime}ks\acute{\imath}$ for $p_{1}^{\prime}ts\acute{\imath}$.
- b. Of k or j to t, in an isolated example or two, as samy $\acute{a}t$ and $\acute{a}s_{7}t$ (TS., K.).
- c. In Tāittirīya texts, of the final of anustúbh and tristúbh to a guttural: as, anustúk ca, tristúgbhis (Weber, Ind. St., xiii. 109 ff.).
- d. Of a labial to a dental: in $kak\hat{u}d$ for and beside $kak\hat{u}bh$; in $sams_i^idbhis$ (TS.) from vsrp; and in $adbh\hat{u}s$, $adbhy\hat{u}s$, from ap or ap (chap. V). Excepting the first, these look like cases of dissimilation; yet examples of the combination bbh are not unknown in the older language: thus, $kakubbhy\bar{u}m$, tristubbhis, anustub bhi.
- 152. For all the processes of external combination that is to say, in composition and sentence-collocation a stemfinal or word-final is in general to be regarded as having, not its etymological form, but that given it by the rules as to permitted finals. From this, however, are to be excepted the s and r: the various transformations of these sounds have nothing to do with the visarga to which as finals before a pause they have come doubtless at a comparatively recent period of phonetic history to be reduced. Words will everywhere in this work be written with final s or r instead of h; and the rules of combination will be stated as for the two more original sounds, and not for the visarga.

Deaspiration.

153. An aspirate mute is changed to its corresponding non-aspirate before another non-nasal mute or before a sibilant; it stands unaltered only before a vowel or semi-vowel or nasal.

Such a case can only arise in internal combination, since the processes of external combination presuppose the reduction of the aspirate to a non-aspirate surd (152).

Practically, also, the rules as to changes of aspirates concern almost only the sonant aspirates, since the surd, being of later development and rarer occurrence, are hardly ever found in situations that call for their application.

154. Hence, if such a mute is to be doubled, it is doubled by prefixing its own corresponding non-aspirate.

But in the MSS., both Vedic and later, an aspirate mute is not seldom found written double — especially, if it be one of rare occurrence: for example (RV.), akhkhalī, jājhjhatī.

155. In a few roots, when a final sonant aspirate $(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{h}, \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{h}, \mathbf{h}; \mathbf{also} \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{h}, \mathbf{as}$ representing an original $\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{h}$ thus loses its aspiration, the initial sonant consonant $(\mathbf{q}, \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{h})$ or \mathbf{g}, \mathbf{d} or \mathbf{q}, \mathbf{h} becomes aspirate.

That is to say, the original initial aspirate of such roots is restored, when its presence does not interfere with the euphonic law, of comparatively recent origin, which (in Sanskrit as in Greek) forbids a root to both begin and end with an aspirate.

The roots which show this peculiar change are:

in gh — dagh;

in h (for original gh) — dah, dih, duh, druh, drh, guh; and grah (in the later desiderative jighrksa);

in dh - bandh, bādh, budh;

in bh - dabh (but only in the later desiderative dhipsa, for which the older language has dipsa).

The same change appears when the law as to finals causes the loss of the aspiration at the end of the root: see above, 141.

But from dah, duh, and guh are found in the Veda also forms without the restored initial aspirate: thus, dakṣat; adukṣat, dudukṣa etc.; jugukṣa.

The same analogy is followed by dadh, the abbreviated substitute of the present-stem $dadh\bar{a}$, from $\sqrt{dh\bar{a}}$, in some of the forms of conjugation; thus, dhatthas from dadh+thas, adhatta from adadh+ta, etc.

Surd and Sonant Assimilation.

156. Under this head, there is especially one very marked and important difference between the internal combinations of a root or stem with suffixes and endings, and the external combinations of stem with stem in composition and of word with word in sentence-making: namely,

157. In internal combination, the initial vowel or semivowel or nasal of an ending of derivation or inflection exercises no altering influence upon a final consonant of the root or stem to which it is added.

To this rule there are a few exceptions only: thus, a reverted palatal sometimes before a nasal (216.4,5); d before the participle-suffix na (161); a final consonant before maya (161).

In external combination, on the other hand, an initial sonant of whatever class, even a vowel or semivowel or nasal, requires the conversion of a final surd to sonant.

It has been pointed out above (152) that in the rules of external combination only admitted finals, along with s and r, need be taken account of, all others being regarded as reduced to these before combining with initials.

158. Final vowels, nasals, and \overline{eq} l are nowhere liable to change in the processes of surd and sonant assimilation.

The r, however, has a corresponding surd in s, to which it is changed in external combination under circumstances that favor a surd utterance.

159. With the exceptions above stated, the collision of surd and sonant sounds is avoided in combinations — and, regularly and usually, by assimilating the final to the following initial.

Thus, in internal combination: átsi, átti, atthás, attá ($\sqrt{ad} + si$ etc.); çagdhi, çagdhvám ($\sqrt{cak} + dhi$ etc.); — in external combination, ábhūd ayám, jyóg jīva, ṣáḍ açītáyaḥ, triṣṭúb ápi; diggaja, ṣaḍahá, bṛhádbhānu, abjá.

160. If, however, the final sonant aspirate of a root is followed by π t or π th of an ending, the assimilation is in

the other direction: the combination is made sonant, and the aspiration of the final (lost according to 153, above) is transferred to the initial of the ending.

Thus, gh with t or th becomes gdh; dh with the same becomes ddh, as $baddh\acute{a}$ ($\bigvee badh + ta$), runddhás ($\bigvee rundh + thas$ or tas); bh with the same becomes bdh, as $labdh\acute{a}$ ($\bigvee labh + tv\bar{a}$), $labdh\acute{a}$ ($\bigvee labh + tv\bar{a}$).

Moreover, h, as representing original gh, is treated in the same manner: thus, $dugdh\acute{a}$, $dogdh\acute{u}m$ from duh — and compare

 $r\bar{u}dh\acute{a}$ and $l\bar{i}dh\acute{a}$ from ruh and lih etc., 222.

In this combination, as the sonant aspiration is not lost but transferred, the restoration of the initial aspiration (155) does not take place.

In dadh from $\gamma dh\bar{a}$ (155, end), the more normal method is followed; the dh is made surd, and the initial aspirated: thus, dhatthas, dhattas. And RV. has dhaktam instead of dagdham from $\gamma dagh$.

161. Before a nasal in external combination, a final mute may be simply made sonant, or it may be still further assimilated, being changed to the nasal of its own class.

Thus, either tád námas or tán námas, vág me or ván me, bád mahán or bán mahán, tristúb nūnám or tristúm nūnám.

In practice, the conversion into a nasal is almost invariably made in the MSS., as, indeed, it is by the Prātiçākhyas required and not permitted merely. Even by the general grammarians it is required in the compound $s\bar{a}n\bar{n}avati$, and before $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$, and the suffix maya (really a noun in composition): thus, $v\bar{a}\bar{n}m\hat{a}ya$, $mrnm\hat{a}ya$.

Even in internal combination, final d of a root becomes n before the participle-suffix na: thus, $bhinn\acute{a}$, $sann\acute{a}$, $tunn\acute{a}$.

- 162. Before l, a final t is not merely made sonant, but fully assimilated, becoming l: thus, t'al labhate, 'ulluptam.
- 163. Before কু h (the case occurs only in external combination), a final mute is made sonant; and then the h may either remain unchanged or be converted into the sonant aspirate corresponding with the former: thus, either নাফ্লি tád hi or নাফ্লি tád dhi.

In practice, the latter method is almost invariably followed; and the grammarians of the Prātiçākhya period are nearly unanimous in requiring it. The phonetic difference between the two is very slight.

Examples are: $v\dot{a}g$ $ghut\dot{a}h$, $s\dot{a}ddhot\bar{a}$ $(sat + hot\bar{a})$, tad-dhita (tat + hita), $anust\dot{u}b$ bhi.

Combinations of final s and r.

164. The euphonic changes of \mathbb{H} s and \mathbb{T} r may best be considered together, because of the practical relation of the two sounds, in composition and sentence-collocation, as corresponding surd and sonant: in a host of cases \mathbb{H} s becomes \mathbb{T} r in situations requiring or favoring the occurrence of a sonant; and, less often, \mathbb{T} r becomes \mathbb{H} s where a surd is required.

In internal combination, the two are far less exchangeable with one another: and this class of cases may best be taken up first.

- 165. Final r radical or quasi-radical (that is, not belonging to an ending of derivation) remains unchanged before both surd and sonant sounds, and even before su in declension: thus, piparsi, caturthá, catúrṣu, pūrṣú.
- 166. Final radical s remains before a surd in general, and usually before s, as in $\varsigma assi$, $\varsigma assva$, $a\varsigma issu$ (but the last is also written $a\varsigma issu$. 172): it is however dropped in assi (for assi: $\surd as + si$). Before a sonant (that is, bh) in declension, it is treated as in external combination: thus, $a\varsigma irbhis$. Before a sonant (that is, dh) in conjugation, it is dropped: thus, $\varsigma adhi$, adhva (but cases like the latter may be by abbreviation [232] for addhva): in adhi (as + dhi), the preceding vowel is anomalously altered.
- 167. In a very few cases, final radical s before s is changed to t (perhaps by dissimilation): they are, from \sqrt{vas} , the future $vatsy\vec{a}mi$ and a orist $\hat{a}v\bar{a}tsam$; from \sqrt{ghas} , the desiderative stem jighatsa.
- 168. According to the grammarians, the final s of certain other roots, used as noun-stems, becomes t at the end of the word, and before bh and su: thus, dhvat, dhvadbhis, sradbhyas, sratsu. But genuine examples of such change do not appear to have been met with in use.

Sporadic cases of a like conversion are found in the Veda: namely, $m\bar{a}dbh's$ and $m\bar{a}dbhyas$ from $m\dot{a}s$; $us\dot{a}dbhis$ from $us\dot{a}s$; $sv\dot{a}tavadbhyas$ from $sv\dot{a}tavas$; $sv\dot{a}tavadbhis$ etc. (not found in use), from $sv\dot{a}vas$. But the reality of the conversion here is open to grave doubt; it rather seems the substitution of a t-stem for a s-stem. The same is true of the change of $v\bar{a}ns$ to vat in the declension of perfect participles (chap. V.).

In the compounds $ducchún\bar{u}$ $(dus-cun\bar{u})$ and p'arucchepa (parus-cepa), the final s of the first member is treated as if a t (203).

For t as apparent ending of the 3d sing, in s-verbs, see chap. VIII.

169. As the final consonant of derivative stems and of inflected forms, both of declension and of conjugation, s is extreme-

ly frequent; and its changes form a subject of first-rate importance in Sanskrit euphony. The r, on the other hand, is quite rare, being found only in certain forms of r-stems and in a few particles.

The euphonic treatment of s and r yielding precisely the same result after all vowels except a and \bar{a} , there are certain forms with regard to which it is uncertain whether they end in s or r, and opinions differ respecting them. Such are us (or ur) of the gen.-abl. sing. of r-stems, and us (or ur) of the 3d plur. of verbs.

- 170. a. The \overline{H} s, as already noticed (145), becomes visarga before a pause.
- b. It is retained unchanged only when followed by ন t or য th, the surd mutes of its own class.
- c. Before the palatal and lingual surd mutes $\exists c$ and $\exists ch$, $\exists t$ and $\exists th$ it is assimilated, becoming the sibilant of either class respectively, namely $\exists c$ or $\exists c$.

Examples are: to b. tatas te, cakṣus te; to c. tataç ca, ta-syāç chāyā; to d. nalaḥ kāmam, puruṣaḥ khanati; yaçaḥ prāpa, vṛkṣaḥ phalavān.

171. The first three of these rules are almost universal; to the last there are numerous exceptions, the sibilant being retained (or, by 180, converted into s), especially in compounds; but also, in the Veda, even in sentence combination.

In the Veda, the retention of the sibilant in compounds is the general rule, the exceptions to which are detailed in the Vedic grammars.

In the later language, the retention is mainly determined by the intimacy or the antiquity and frequency of the combination. Thus, the final sibilant of a preposition or a word filling the office of a preposition before a verbal root is wont to be preserved; and that of a stem before a derivative of \sqrt{kr} , before pati, before kalpa and $k\bar{a}ma$, and so on. Examples are $namask\bar{a}ra$, $v\bar{a}caspati$, $\bar{a}yusk\bar{a}ma$, payaskalpa.

The Vedic retention of the sibilant in sentence-collocation is detailed in full in the Prātiçākhyas. The chief classes of cases are: **a.** the final of a preposition or its like before a verbal form; **b.** of a genitive before a governing noun: as divás putráh, idás padé; **c.** of an ablative before pári: as

himávatas pári; d. of other less classifiable cases: as dyūús pitá, trís pūtvá, yás pátih, paridhís pátūti, etc.

172. Before an initial sibilant — प्र, ष्र, स्र — स्र is either assimilated, becoming the same sibilant, or it is changed into visarga.

The native grammarians are in some measure at variance (see APr. ii. 40, note) as to which of these changes should be made, and in part they allow either at pleasure. The usage of the MSS. is also discordant; the conversion to visarga is the prevalent practice, though the sibilant is also not infrequently found written. European editors generally write visarga; but the later dictionaries and glossaries make the alphabetic place of a word the same as if the sibilant were read instead.

Examples are: manuh svayam or manus svayam; indrah çūrah or indraç çūrah.

173. There are one or two exceptions to these rules:

a. If the initial sibilant has a surd mute after it, the final s may be dropped altogether — and by some authorities is required to be so dropped. Thus, $v\bar{a}yava$ stha or $v\bar{a}yavah$ stha; catustanām or catuhstanām.

With regard to this point the usage of the different MSS, and editions is greatly at variance.

b. Before ts, the s is allowed to become visarga, instead of being retained.

174. Before a sonant, either vowel or consonant (except τ r: see 179), τ is changed to the sonant τ r — unless, indeed, it be preceded by π a or π \bar{a} .

Examples are: devapatir iva, çrīr iva; manur gacchati, tanūr apsu; tayor adrstakāmaḥ; sarvāir guṇāiḥ; agner manve.

For a few cases like $d\bar{u}d\bar{a}ca$, $d\bar{u}n\bar{a}ca$, see below, 199.

The endings म्रम् as and म्राम् ās (both of which are extremely common) follow rules of their own, as follows:

175. a. Final मन् as, before any sonant consonant and before short nalpha, is changed to nalpha o — and the nalpha a after it is lost.

The resulting accentuation, and the fact that the loss of a is only occasional in the older language of the Veda, have been pointed out above, 135.

Examples are: nalo nāma, brahmanyo vedavit; hantavyo 'smi.

b. Final म्रम् as before any other vowel than π a loses its π s, becoming simple π a; and the hiatus thus occasioned remains.

That is to say, as is treated as an original o, or an e, would be treated in the same situation: see 132—4.

Examples are: vrhadaçva uvāca, āditya iva, námaükti.

- 176. Exceptions to the rules as to final as are:
- a. The pronouns sas and eshas (also syas in the Veda) lose their s before any consonant: thus, sa dadarça, esha puruṣaḥ; but sadā tu saḥ, so 'bravīt. The exclamation bhos loses its s before all vowels and all sonant consonants.
- b. In the Veda, and more rarely in the later language, the rule for the maintenance of the hiatus is sometimes violated, and the remaining contiguous vowels are combined into one: for example, se'd agne, se'mām, sāu 'ṣadhīḥ (for sa id agne, sa imām, sa oṣadhīḥ).
- c. A few instances are found (almost all Vedic) of s apparently changed to r after a, as after other vowels: but in nearly every case there is to be assumed, rather, a stem in ar beside that in as, evidences of the former being sometimes found in the kindred languages: thus, in forms of udhas and ahas (see chap. V.); in amnas (no occurrence); in bhavas (second of the trio bhus, bhuvas, svar), except in its oldest occurrences; in avas (once, in RV.); in usas (voc., and in usarbudh); in vadhar and vadhary (RV.); in vanargu, anarvic, vasarhan, sabardugha, and one or two other more doubtful words; and in a series of words in a single passage of TS. and K., viz. jinvar, ugrar, bhumar, tvesar, crutar, bhutar, and (K. only) putar.

In aharpáti (VS.), and vanarsád and vanarsád (RV.), we see the same change even before a surd consonant.

- ${f d.}$ Final as is once changed to o in RV. before a surd consonant: thus, ado pito.
- 177. Final \overline{a} \overline{a} s before any sonant, whether vowel or consonant, loses its \overline{a} s, becoming simple \overline{a} ; and the hiatus thus occasioned remains.

The maintenance of the hiatus in these cases, as in that of o and e and $\bar{a}i$ (above, 133—4), seems to indicate a recent loss of the intermediate sound. Opinions are divided as to what this should have been. Some of the native grammarians assimilate the case of $\bar{a}s$ to that of $\bar{a}i$, assuming the conversion to $\bar{a}y$ in both alike — but probably only as a matter of formal convenience in rule-making.

- 178. Final \mathfrak{T} r, in general, shows the same form which \mathfrak{H} s would show under the same conditions. But
- a. Original final r, after a or \bar{a} , maintains itself unchanged before a sonant: thus, púnar eti, pr \bar{a} tar-jít, áh \bar{a} r dámn \bar{a} , ákar jyótih.
- b. Also before a surd, r is preserved in a few Vedic compounds: thus, svàrcanas, svàrcaksas, svàrpati, svarsa, svàrsati; dhūrsad, dhūrsah; pūrpati,

 $v\bar{a}rk\bar{a}ry\dot{a}$, $\bar{a}c\dot{t}rpada$, punartta. In some of these, the r is optionally retained even in the later language.

c. On the other hand, r is lost, like s, in one or two Vedic cases: akṣā induḥ, āha evā.

179. A double r is nowhere admitted: if such would occur, either by retention of an original r or by conversion of s to r, one r is omitted, and the preceding vowel, if short, is made long by compensation.

In some Vedic texts, however (Yajur-Veda), ar becomes o before initial r: thus, svò rohāva.

Conversion of स्s to ष्s.

180. The dental sibilant H s is changed to the lingual H s, if immediately preceded by any vowel save H a and H \bar{a} , or by \bar{a} k or \bar{a} r — unless the H s be final, or followed by \bar{a} r.

The assimilating influence of the preceding lingual vowels and semi-vowel is obvious enough; that of k and the other vowels appears to be due to a somewhat retracted position of the tongue in the mouth during their utterance, causing its tip to reach the roof of the mouth more easily at a point further back than the dental one.

The general Hindu grammar prescribes the same change after a l also; but the Prātiçākhyas give no such rule, and phonetic considerations, the l being a dental sound, are decidedly against it. Actual cases of the combination, if they occur at all, are excessively rare.

The vowels that cause the alteration of s to s may be called for brevity's sake "alterant" vowels.

As a consequence of this rule,

181. In the interior of a Sanskrit word, the dental s is not usually found after any vowel save a and \bar{a} , but, instead of it, the lingual s. But

a. A following r prevents the conversion: thus, usra, tisras, tamisra. And it is but seldom made in the forms and derivatives of a root containing an r-element (whether r or r), whatever the position of that element: thus, sisarti, sisrtam, sarisrpa, tistire, parisrat. To this rule there are a few exceptions, as vistara, nistra, vispardhas, gavisthira, etc. In ajusran the final s of a root is preserved even immediately before r.

This dissimilating influence of a following r, as compared with the invariable assimilating influence of a preceding r, is peculiar and problematical.

b. The recurrence of s in successive syllables is sometimes avoided by

leaving the former s unchanged: thus, sisaksi, but sisakti; yāsisīsthās, but yāsisīmahi. Similarly, in certain desiderative formations: see below, 184c.

- c. Other cases are sporadic: RV. has the forms sisice and sisicus (but sisicatus), and the stems rbisa, kīstā, bisa, busā, bisaya; a single root pis, with its derivative pesuka, is found once in CB.; for puns and the roots nins and hins, see below, 183.
- 182. On the other hand (as was pointed out above, 62), the occurrence of s in Sanskrit words is nearly limited to cases falling under this rule: others are rather sporadic anomalies except where s is the product of s or s before a dental, as in drastum, caste, trastar: see 218, 221). Thus, we find:
- a. Four roots, kas, las, las, bhas, $bh\bar{a}s$, of which the last is common and is found as early as the Brāhmaṇas.
- b. Further, in RV., áṣa, kaváṣa, caṣāla, cāṣa, jālāṣa, pāṣṣù, baṣkáya, vāṣaṭ (for vakṣat?), kāṣṭhā (for kaksta, Fick); and, by anomalous alteration of original s, -ṣāh (turāṣāh, etc.), áṣāḍha, upaṣṭút, and probably apāṣṭhā and aṣṭhōvānt. Such cases grow more common later.

The numeral sas, as already noted, is more probably saks.

183. The nasalization of the alterant vowel — or, in other words, its being followed by anusvāra — does not prevent its altering effect upon the sibilant: thus, havīnsi, parūnsi. And the alteration takes place in the initial s of an ending after the final s of a base, whether the latter be regarded as also changed to s or as converted into visarga: thus, havissu or havihsu, parussu or paruhsu.

But the s of $pu\dot{n}s$ (chap. V.) remains unchanged, apparently on account of the retained sense of its value as pums; also that of $\gamma / hi\dot{n}s$, because of its value as hins (hinasti etc.); $\gamma / ni\dot{n}s$ (RV. only) is more questionable (perhaps nims, from nam).

- 184. The principal cases of alteration of s in internal combination are:
- a. In endings, inflectional or derivative, beginning with s—su; si, se, sva; s of sibilant-aorist, future, and desiderative; suffixes sna, snu, sya, etc. after a final alterant vowel or consonant of root or stem, or a union-vowel: thus, juhoṣi, çeṣe, anāiṣam, bhaviṣyāmi, çuçrūṣe, deṣṇa, jiṣṇu, vikṣu, akārṣam.
- b. The final s of a stem before an ending or suffix: thus, haviṣā, haviṣas, etc., from havis; çakṣuṣmant, çociṣka, mānuṣa, manuṣya.

Roots having a final sibilant (except g) after an alterant vowel are — with the exception of fictitious ones and pis, nins, hins — regarded as ending in s, not s; and concerning the treatment of this s in combination, see below, 225 ff.

c. The initial s of a root after a reduplication: thus, si-syade, susvāpa, sisāsati, coskūyate, sanisvaņat.

Excepted is in general an initial radical s in a desiderative stem, when the desiderative-sign becomes s: thus, sisanisati from γ san, sisanisati from γ sanisati from γ s

185. But the same change occurs also, on a considerable scale, in external combination, especially in composition: thus,

Both in verbal forms and in derivatives, the final i or u of a preposition or other like prefix ordinarily lingualizes the initial s of the root to which it is prefixed; since such combinations are both of great frequency and of peculiar intimacy, analogous with those of root or stem and affix: thus, abhişāc, pratisthā, niṣikta, viṣita; anuṣvadhām, suṣēka.

The principal exceptions are in accordance with the principles already laid down: namely, when the root contains an r-element, and when a recurrence of the sibilant would take place. But there are also others, of a more irregular character; and the complete account of the treatment of initial radical s after a prefix would be a matter of great detail, and not worth giving here.

In a few cases, the initial s, usually altered after a certain prefix, retains the altered sibilant even after an interposed a of augment or reduplication: thus, abhy asthām, pary asasvajat, vy asahanta, ny asadāma, abhy asiñcan, vy astabhnāt; vi tasthe, vi tasthire.

Much more anomalous is the occasional alteration of initial radical s after an a-element of a prefix. Such cases are ava stambh (against ni stambh and prati stambh) and (according to the grammarians) ava svan.

186. In other compounds, the final alterant vowel of the first member not infrequently (especially in the Veda) lingualizes the initial s of the second: for example, yudhisthira, pitrsvasr, gosthá, agnistomá, anustúbh, trisandhi, divisád, paramesthin, abhisená, pitrsád, purustutá.

A very few cases occur of the same alteration after an a-element: thus, $savyasth\dot{a}$, $ap\ddot{a}sth\dot{a}$, $upast\dot{a}t$; also \sqrt{sah} , when its final, by 146, becomes t: thus; $satr\ddot{a}s\dot{a}t$ (but $satr\ddot{a}s\dot{a}ham$).

- 187. The final s of the first member of a compound often becomes s after an alterant vowel: thus, the s of a prepositional prefix, as niṣṣidhvan, duṣṭára (for duṣṣṭára), āviṣkṛta; and, regularly, a s retained instead of being converted to visarga before a labial or guttural mute (171), as haviṣpá, jyotiṣkṛt; tapuṣpā.
- 188. Once more, in the Veda, the same alteration, both of an initial and of a final s, is not infrequent even between the words composing a sentence. The cases are detailed in the Prātiçākhya belonging to each text, and are of very various character. Thus,
 - a. The initial s, especially of particles: as \bar{u} sú, hí sma, kám u svít;

— also of pronouns: as hí súh; — of verb-forms, especially from Vas: as hí sthá, diví stha; — and in other scattering cases: as u stuhi, nú sthirám, trí sadhásthā.

b. A final s, oftenest before pronouns (especially toneless ones): as agnis tvā, nis te, īyūs tē, cūcis tvām, sādhis tāva; — but also in other cases, and wherever a final s is preserved, instead of being turned into visarga, before a guttural or labial (171): as trīs pūtvā, āyus krnotu, vāstos pātih, dyūūs pitā.

Conversion of n to n.

by a vowel or by $\overline{\gamma}$ n or $\overline{\gamma}$ m or $\overline{\gamma}$ y or $\overline{\gamma}$ v, is turned into the lingual $\overline{\gamma}$ n if preceded in the same word by the lingual sibilant or semivowel or vowels — that is to say, by $\overline{\gamma}$ s, $\overline{\gamma}$ r, or $\overline{\gamma}$ r or $\overline{\gamma}$ $\overline{\gamma}$ —: and this, not only if the altering letter stands immediately before the nasal, but at whatever distance from the latter it may be found: unless, indeed, there intervene (a consonant moving the front of the tongue: namely) a palatal (except $\overline{\gamma}$ y), a lingual, or a dental.

We may thus figure to ourselves the rationale of the process: in the marked proclivity of the language toward lingual utterance, especially of the nasal, the tip of the tongue, when once reverted into the loose lingual position by the utterance of a non-contact lingual element, tends to hang there and make its next nasal contact in that position: and does so, unless the proclivity is satisfied by the utterance of a lingual mute, or the organ is thrown out of adjustment by the utterance of an element which causes it to assume a different posture. This is not the case with the gutturals or labials, which do not move the front part of the tongue (and, as the influence of k on following s shows, the guttural position favors the succession of a lingual): and the s is too weakly palatal to interfere with the alteration (as its next relative, the s-vowel, itself lingualises a s).

This is a rule of constant application; and (as was pointed out above) the great majority of occurrences of n in the language are the result of it.

190. The rule has force especially

a. When suffixes, of inflection or derivation, are added to roots or stems containing one of the altering sounds: thus, rudrėna, rudrėnām, vārine, vārinī, vārīni, dūtṛni, hārāni, dvēshāni, krīnāmi, cṛnóti, kṣubhānā, ghṛnā, kārṇa, vṛkṇā, rugṇā, drāviṇa, iṣāṇi, purāṇā, rēkṇas, cākṣaṇa, cīkīrṣamāṇa, kṛpamāṇa.

- b. When the final n of a root or stem comes to be followed, in inflection or derivation, by such sounds as allow it to feel the effect of a preceding altering cause: thus, from \(\structuran \) rananti, rananti, ranana, aranisus; from \(brahman, \) brahmana, \(brahmana, \) brahmana, \(brahmanana, \) brahmanan, \(brahmanana, \) brahmananan.
- 191. This rule (like that for the change of s to s) applies strictly and especially when the nasal and the cause of its alteration both lie within the limits of the same integral word; but (also like the other) it is extended, within certain limits, to compound words and even, in the Veda, to contiguous words in the sentence.
- 192. Especially, a preposition or similar prefix to a root, if it contain r or end in euphonic r for s (174), very often lingualizes the n of a root or of its derived stems and forms. Thus:
- a. The initial n of a root is usually and regularly so altered, in all forms and derivatives, after parā, pari, pra, nir (for nis), antar, dur (for dus): thus, pārā naya, pāri nīyate, prā nudasva; parānutti, parināma, pranava, nirnīj, durnāça.

Roots suffering this change are written with initial n in the native rootlists. The only exceptions of importance are nrt, nabh, nand (very rare), and nac when its c becomes s (as in $pr\acute{a}nasta$).

- b. The final n of a root is lingualized in some of the forms of an and han: thus, prā 'niti, prānā, prā hanyate, prahānana.
- c. The class-signs nu and $n\bar{u}$ are altered after the roots hi and mi: thus, $p\acute{a}ri$ hinomi, $pr\acute{a}$ minanti (but the latter not in the Veda).
- d. The 1st sing, impv. ending $\bar{a}ni$ is sometimes altered: thus, $pr\hat{a}$ $bhav\bar{a}ni$.
- e. Derivatives by suffixes containing n sometimes have n by influence of a preposition: thus, praydna.
- f. The n of the preposition ni is sometimes altered, like the initial of a root, after another preposition: thus, pranipāta, pranidhi.
- 193. In compound words, an altering cause in one member sometimes lingualizes a n of the next following member either its initial or final n, or n in its inflectional or derivative ending. The exercise of the altering influence can be seen to depend in part upon the closeness or frequency of the compound, or its integration by being made the base of a derivative. Examples are: grāmaṇi, triṇāman, urūṇasā; vrṭrahāṇam etc. (but vṛṭraghnā tc.: 195), nṛmāṇas, drughaṇā; pravāhaṇa, nṛpāṇa, pūryāṇa, piṭṛyāṇa; svargēṇa, durgāṇi, usrāyāmṇe, tryangāṇām.
- 194. Finally, in the Veda, a n (usually initial) is lingualized even by an altering sound in another word. The toneless pronouns nas and ena- are oftenest thus affected: thus, $p\acute{a}ri$ nas, $pr\~{a}i$ ' $n\~{a}n$, $\'{i}ndra$ enam; but also the particle $n\acute{a}$, 'like': thus, $v\acute{a}r$ $n\acute{a}$; and a few other cases, as $v\acute{a}r$ $n\'{a}ma$, $p\'{u}nar$ $nay\~{u}masi$, $agn\'{e}r$ $\'{a}vena$.

195. The immediate combination of a n with a preceding guttural or labial seems in some cases to hinder the conversion to n: thus, vṛtraghna etc. ksubhnāti, tṛpnoti (but in Veda tṛṇṇu).

Conversion of dental mutes to linguals and palatals.

196. When a dental mute comes in contact with a lingual or palatal mute or sibilant, the dental is usually assimilated, becoming lingual or palatal respectively.

The cases are the following:

197. A dental surd mute or nasal, or the dental sibilant, when immediately preceded by a s, is everywhere converted into the corresponding lingual.

Under this rule, the combinations st, sth, and sn are very common; ss is rarely so written, the visarga being put instead of the former sibilant: thus, jy6tihsu instead of jy6tissu.

Those cases in which final s becomes t before su (226 b) do not, of course, fall under this rule.

- 198. In the other (comparatively infrequent) cases where a dental is preceded by a lingual in internal combination, the dental (except of su loc. pl.) becomes lingual. Thus:
 - a. A dh after d from s of a root or stem (226 b): as ádviddhvam etc.
- b. Only a very few other instances occur: itte and $\acute{a}itta$ from $\surd id$; $saddh\acute{a}$ (also $saddh\acute{a}$ and $sodh\acute{a}$), and $sann\acute{a}m$ ($sas+n\ddot{a}m$: anomalous gen. pl. of sas); $trnn\acute{a}$ ($\surd trd+na$). A small number of words follow the same rule in external combination: see below, 199.

But $t\bar{a}dhi$ (Vedic: $\gamma tad+dhi$) shows loss of the final lingual after assimilation of the dental, and compensatory lengthening.

Some of the cases of abnormal occurrence of d are explained in a similar way, as results of a lingualized and afterward omitted sibilant before d: thus $n\bar{\imath}dd$ from nisda, $\sqrt{p\bar{\imath}d}$ from pisd, \sqrt{mrd} from mrsd (Zend $marezhd\bar{a}$). For words exhibiting a like change in composition, see below, 199b.

199. In external combination,

- a. A final t is directed to be assimilated to an initial lingual mute: thus, $tat-tik\bar{a}$, tad dayate, $tat-tik\bar{a}tin\bar{\imath}$, tad $dh\bar{a}ukate$: but the case never occurs in the older language, and very rarely in the later. For final n before a lingual, see 205.
- b. An initial dental after a final lingual usually remains unchanged; and su of the loc. pl. follows the same rule: thus, satsu, $r\bar{a}tsu$.

Exceptions are: a few compounds with sas, 'six': namely, sannavati, sannabhi (and one or two others not quotable from the literature).

In a few compounds, moreover, there appears a lingualized dental, with compensatory lengthening, after a lost lingual sibilant or its representative: namely, in certain Vedic compounds with dus: dūdábha, dūdáç, dūdht, dūnáça, dūnáça; and, in the language of every period, certain compounds of sas, with change of its vowel to an alterant quality (as in vodhum and sodhum: 224b): sódaça, sodhá (also saddhá and saddhá), sodant.

- c. Between final t and initial s, the insertion of a t is permitted or, according to some authorities, required: thus, sat sahasrāh or satt sahasrāh.
- 200. The cases of assimilation of a dental to a contiguous palatal occur almost only in external combination, and before an initial palatal. There is but one case of internal combination, namely:
- 201. A $\overline{\uparrow}$ n coming to follow a palatal mute in internal combination is itself made palatal:

Thus, $y\bar{a}c\tilde{n}\dot{a}$ (the only instance after c), $yaj\tilde{n}\dot{a}$, $jaj\tilde{n}\dot{e}$, $aj\tilde{n}ata$, $r\dot{a}j\tilde{n}\bar{a}$, $r\dot{a}j\tilde{n}\bar{i}$.

202. An final $\vec{\eta}$ t before an initial palatal mute is assimilated to it, becoming $\vec{\eta}$ c before $\vec{\eta}$ c or \vec{p} ch, and $\vec{\eta}$ before $\vec{\eta}$ \vec{j} ($\vec{\eta}$ \vec{j} h does not occur).

A final $\overline{\gamma}$ n is assimilated before $\overline{\gamma}$ j, becoming $\overline{\gamma}$ \overline{n} .

All the grammarians, of every period, require this assimilation of n; but it is more often neglected, or only sporadically made, in the MSS.

For n before a surd palatal, see below, 208.

203. Before the palatal sibilant πc , both πt and πn are assimilated, becoming respectively πc and πn ; and then the following πc may be, and in practice almost always is, converted to πch .

Some authorities regard the conversion of c to ch as everywhere obligatory, others as only optional; some except, peremptorily or optionally, a c followed by a mute. And some require the same conversion after every mute save m, reading also $v\ell p\bar{a}t$ chutudr \bar{t} , ánat chúci, anustup chārad \bar{c} , cuk chuci. The MSS, generally write ch, instead of cch, as result of the combination of t and c.

Combinations of final n.

204. Final radical n is assimilated in internal combination to a following sibilant, becoming $anusv\bar{a}ra$.

Thus, vánsi, vánsva, vánsat, mansyáte, jíghānsati.

According to the grammarians, it is treated before bh and su in declen-

sion as in external combination. But the cases are extremely rare, and RV. has rānsu and vānsu (the only Vedic examples).

Final n of a derivative suffix is regularly and usually dropped before a consonant in inflection and composition — in composition, even before a vowel; and a radical n occasionally follows the same rule.

For assimilation of n to a preceding palatal, see 201.

The remaining cases are those of external combination.

205. The assimilation of n in external combination to a following sonant palatal and the palatal sibilant c have been already treated (202, 203).

The n is also declared to be assimilated (becoming n) before a sonant lingual (d, dh, n), but the case hardly ever occurs.

206. A n is also assimilated to a following initial l, becoming (like m: 213c) a nasal l.

The MSS, in general attempt to write the combination in accordance with this rule.

207. Before the lingual and dental sibilants, s and s, final n remains unchanged; but a t may also be inserted between the nasal and the sibilant: thus, $t \dot{a} n s \dot{a} t$ or $t \dot{a} n t s \dot{a} t$; $m a h \dot{a} n s \dot{a} n$ or $m a h \dot{a} n t s \dot{a} n$.

According to most of the grammarians of the Prātiçākhyas (not RPr.), the insertion of the t in such cases is a necessary one. In the MSS, it is very frequently made, but not uniformly. It is probably a purely phonetic phenomenon, a transition-sound to ease the double change of sonant to surd and nasal to non-nasal utterance — although the not infrequent cases in which final n stands for original nt (as bharan, abharan, $agnim\bar{a}n$) may have aided to establish it as a rule. Its analogy with the conversion of n ς into $\tilde{n}ch$ (203) is palpable.

208. Before the surd palatal, lingual, and dental mutes, there is inserted after final n a sibilant of each of those classes respectively, before which the n becomes $anusv\bar{a}ra$: thus, \dot{n} ; \dot{c} ; \dot{n} ; \dot{c} ; \dot{n} ; \dot{r} .

This rule, which in the classical language has established itself in the form here given, as a phonetic rule of unvarying application, really involves a historic survival. The large majority of cases of final n in the language (not far from three quarters: see APr. ii. 26, note) are for original ns; and the retention of the sibilant in such cases, when once its historical ground had been forgotten, was extended by analogy to all others.

Practically, the rule applies only to n before c and t, since cases involving the other initials occur either not at all, or only with extreme rarity (the Veda does not present an example of any of them). In the Veda, the insertion is not always made, and the different texts have with regard to it different usages, which are fully explained in their Prātiçākhyas; in general,

it is less frequent in the older texts. When the c does not appear between n and c, the n is assimilated, becoming \tilde{n} (as before j: 202).

- **209.** The same retention of original final s after a nasal, and consequent treatment of (apparent) final $\bar{u}n$, $\bar{i}n$, $\bar{u}n$, $\bar{r}n$ as if they were $\bar{u}n$ s, $\bar{v}n$ s, $\bar{v}n$ s, $\bar{r}n$ s (long nasalized vowel with final s), shows itself also in other Vedic forms of combination, which, for the sake of unity, may be briefly stated here together:
- a. Final $\bar{a}n$ becomes $\bar{a}n$ (nasalized \bar{a}) before a following vowel: that is to say, $\bar{a}ns$, with nasal vowel, is treated like $\bar{a}s$, with pure vowel (177): thus, $dev\hat{a}n \in h\hat{a}$, $upabaddh\bar{a}n$ $ih\hat{a}$, $mah\hat{a}n$ asi. This is an extremely common case, especially in RV. Once or twice, the s appears as h before p: thus, $sv\hat{a}tav\hat{a}nh$ $p\bar{a}y\hat{a}h$.
- **b.** In like manner, s is treated after nasal $\bar{\imath}$, \bar{u} , \bar{r} as it would be after those vowels when pure, becoming r before a sonant sound (174), and (much more rarely) h before a surd (170): thus, racmin r iva, $s\bar{u}n\dot{u}nr$ $yuvany\dot{u}nr$ ut, $n\dot{r}nr$ abht; $n\dot{r}nh$ $p\dot{a}tram$.
- **210.** The nasals n, n, \bar{n} , occurring as finals after a short vowel, are doubled before any initial vowel: thus, $praty d\bar{n}\bar{n}$ úd e s i, u dy dnn $\bar{a} dity dh$.

This is also to be regarded as a historical survival, the second nasal being an assimilation of an original consonant following the first. It is always written in the MSS., although the Vedic metre seems to show * that the duplication was sometimes omitted.

211. The nasal \bar{n} and n before a sibilant are allowed to insert respectively k and t — as n (207) inserts t: thus, $praty-d\bar{n}k$ $s\acute{o}mah$.

Combinations of final m.

212. Final radical $\underline{\eta}$ m, in internal combination, is assimilated to a following mute or spirant — in the latter case, becoming anusvāra; in the former, becoming the nasal of the same class with the mute.

Before m or v (as when final: 143), it is changed to n: thus, from vgam, aganma, aganmah, ganvah, jaganvan (which appear to be the only quotable cases). According to the grammarians, the same change is made in the inflection of root-stems, before bh and su: thus, $prac\bar{a}nbhis$, $prac\bar{a}nsu$ (from $prac\bar{a}m$: pra+vcan). No derived noun-stem ends in m.

ÇB. has once the anomalous kámvant, from the particle kám.

213. Final $\overline{\eta}$ m in external combination is a servile sound, being assimilated to any following consonant. Thus:

^{*} Kuhn, in his Beiträge etc., iii. 125.

a. It remains unchanged only before a vowel or a labial mute.

But also, by an anomalous exception, before r of the root $r\bar{a}j$ in $samr\dot{a}j$ and its derivatives $samr\dot{a}j\tilde{n}\bar{i}$ and $s\dot{a}mr\bar{a}jya$.

- b. Before a mute of any other class than labial, it becomes the nasal of that class.
- c. Before the semivowels y, l, v it becomes, according to the Hindu grammarians, a nasal semivowel, the nasal counterpart of each respectively (see 71).
- d. Before r, a sibilant, or h, it becomes $anusv\bar{a}ra$ (see 71). The MSS, and the editions in general make no attempt to distinguish the nasal tones arising from the assimilation of m before a following semivowel from that before a spirant.
- e. But if h be immediately followed by another consonant (which can only be a nasal or semivowel), the m is allowed to be assimilated to that following consonant.

This is because the h has no position of the mouth-organs peculiar to itself, but is uttered in the position of the next sound. The Prātiçākhyas do not take any notice of the case.

It has been pointed out above (73) that the assimilated m is generally represented in texts by the $anusv\bar{a}ra$ -sign, and that in this work it is transliterated by \dot{m} (instead of a nasal mute or \dot{n}). Also, that the general grammarians allow m to be pronounced before any and every consonant as $anusv\bar{a}ra$.

The palatal mutes and sibilant, and h.

- 214. These sounds show in some situations a reversion to the original gutturals from which they are derived. The treatment of j and h, also, is different, according as they represent the one or the other of two different degrees of alteration from their originals.
- 215. The palatals and h are the least stable of alphabetic sounds, undergoing, in virtue of their derivative character, alteration in many cases where other similar sounds are retained.
- 216. Thus, in derivation, even before vowels, semivowels, and nasals, reversion to guttural form is by no means rare. The cases are the following:
- 1. Before a of suffix a, final c becomes k in ankā, arkā, pākā, vākā, parka, markā, vṛka, prātīka etc., reka, séka, moka, rokā, cóka, tokā, mrokā, vraskā: final j becomes g in tyāgā, bhāga, bhāgā, yāga, bhangā, sanga, varga, mārga, mṛgā, sarga, vega, bhóga, yugā, yóga, róga: final h becomes gh in aghā, maghā, arghā, dīrghā (and drāghīyas, drāghiṣṭha), meghā, dógha, drógha, mógha; and in dūghāna.

In another series of derivatives with a, the altered sound appears: examples are $aj\hat{a}$, $y\bar{a}ja$, $yac\hat{a}$, yca, yca, yca, ya, ya,

Before the suffixes as and ana, the guttural only rarely appears: namely, in āākas, ókas, rókas, cókas, bhárgas; and in rogaņa.

- 2. Before an i-vowel, the altered sound appears (except in the doubtful ābhogī): e. g. ājī, tujī, rúci, cácī, vívici, rocisnú.
- 3. Before u, the guttural reappears, as a rule (the cases are few): thus, anku, vanku, reku, bhrgu.
- 4. Before n, the examples of reversion are few, except of j (becoming g) before the participial ending na: thus, réknas, vagna (with the final also made sonant); and participles bhagna, rugna, etc.; and apparently prgna from $prodef{prodef}{prodef}$.
- 5. Before m (of ma, man, min), the guttural generally appears: thus, rukmá, tigmá, cagmá (with sonant change); vákman, sákman, rukmán; rymín and vāgmín (with sonant change): but ájman, ojmán, bhujmán.
- 6. Before y, the altered sound is used: thus, pacya, yajya, yajya, yujya, bhujyu. Such cases as bhogya and yogya are doubtless secondary derivatives from bhoga and yoga.
- 7. Before r, the cases are few, and the usage apparently divided: thus, cukrá, ugrá, mṛgra; but vájra and pajrá(?).
- 8. Before v (of the suffixes va, vun, vin, etc., and participial $v\bar{u}ns$) the guttural is regularly preserved: thus, $\tau kv\hat{a}$, $pakv\hat{a}$; $\tau kvan$, $\tau ikvan$, cukvan, mrgvan, yugvan; $v\bar{a}gv\hat{i}n$ (with further sonant change); ririkvan, rurukvan, cucukvan, cucukvan

The reversion of h in derivation is exhibited only before the suffix a (and in the participle $d\acute{u}gh\bar{a}na$, RV.). The final j which is analogous with c (219) shows much less proclivity to reversion than that which corresponds with c.

- 9. A like reversion shows itself also to some extent in conjugational stem-formation and inflection. Thus, the initial radical becomes guttural after the reduplication in the present or perfect or desiderative or intensive stems of the roots ci, cit, ji, hi, han; and han becomes ghn on the elision of a. The RV. has vivakmi from vvac. And before vac etc. of 3d pl. mid. we have vac for radical vac in vac as vac as vac as vac and vac as vac and vac as vac and vac and vac and vac vac and vac vac
- 217. Final \overline{q} c of a root or stem, if followed in internal combination by any other sound than a vowel or semivowel or nasal, reverts to its original guttural value, and shows everywhere the same form which a \overline{q} k would show in the same situation.

Thus, vákti, uváktha, vákşi, vakşyámi, vagdhi; vāgbhis, vākşú; uktá, ukthá, vaktár.

And, as final c becomes k (above, 142), the same rule applies also to c in external combination: thus, vak ca, vag api, vag api, vag api, vag api, vag

Examples of c remaining unchanged in inflection are: ucyáte, riricré, $v\bar{a}ci$, mumucmáhe.

218. Final \mathfrak{A} \mathfrak{C} reverts to its original \mathfrak{A} k, in internal combination, only before the \mathfrak{A} \mathfrak{S} of a verbal stem or ending (whence, by 180, \mathfrak{A} $k\mathfrak{S}$); before \mathfrak{A} \mathfrak{L} and \mathfrak{A} \mathfrak{L} \mathfrak{L} , it everywhere becomes \mathfrak{A} \mathfrak{S} (whence, by 197, \mathfrak{S} \mathfrak{S} and \mathfrak{S} \mathfrak{S} \mathfrak{L} \mathfrak{L}); before \mathfrak{L} \mathfrak{L}

Thus, ávikṣata, vekṣyāmi; váṣṭi, viṣṭá, dideṣṭu; didiḍḍhi, viḍbhis.

Examples of q remaining unchanged before vowels etc. are:

viçi, viviçyās, aviçran, açnomi, vaçmi, uçmási.

A c remains irregularly unchanged before p in the compound viçpáti.

219. Final $\vec{\eta}$ j is in one set of words treated like $\vec{\eta}$ c, and in another set like $\vec{\eta}$ c.

Thus, from yuj: áyukthās, áyukta, yunkté, yukti, yóktra, yokṣyāmi, yukṣú; yungdhi, áyugdhvam, yugbhis.

Again, from mrj etc.: ámrksat, sraksyámi; mársti, mrstá, srsti,

rāstrá; mṛḍḍhi, mṛḍḍhvám, rāḍbhis, rātsú, rất.

To the former or yuj-class belong (as shown by their quotable forms) about twenty roots and radical stems: namely, bhaj, saj, tyaj (not V.), raj 'color', svaj, majj, nij, tij, vij, 1 and 2 bhuj, yuj, ruj, vrj, añj, bhañj, ciñj; ūrj, sraj, bhisáj, ásrj; — also, stems formed with the suffixes aj and ij [383. 5), as tṛṣṇáj, vaṇij: and ṛtvij, though containing the root yaj.

To the latter or mrj-class belong only about one third as many: namely, yaj, bhrajj, vraj, rāj, bhrāj, mrj, srj.

A considerable number of j-roots are not placed in circumstances to exhibit the distinction; but such roots are in part assignable to one or the other class on the evidence of the related languages*. The distinction appears, namely, only when the j occurs as final, or is followed, either in inflection or in derivation, by a dental mute (t, th, dh), or, in noun-inflection, by bh or su. In derivation (above, 216) we find a g sometimes from the mrj-class: thus, $m\bar{a}rga$ (in $ap\bar{a}m\bar{a}rga$) and sarga; and before r of Vedic 3d pl. mid. endings, asrgram, assrgram, assrgram (beside sasrjrire) — while from the yuj-class occur only yuyujre, ayujran, bubhujrire, with j.

^{*} See Hübschmann, in KZ. xxiii. 384ff.

220. Final ch falls under the rules of combination almost only in the root prach, in which it is treated as if it were g (and prace is perhaps its more original form): thus, praksyāmi, prstá; and also the derivative pracná. As final and in noun-inflection (before bh and su), it is directed to be changed to the lingual mute.

 $M\bar{u}rt\hat{u}$ is called the participle of $m\bar{u}rch$, and a gerund $m\bar{u}rtv\hat{a}$ is given to the same root. They (with $m\hat{u}rti$) must doubtless come from a simpler form of the root.

Of jh there is no occurrence: the grammarians declare it to be treated like c.

221. The compound $k_{\bar{s}}$ is not infrequent as final of a root (generally of demonstrably secondary origin), or of a tense-stem (s-aorist: see below, chap. XI.); and, in the not very frequent cases of its internal combination, it is treated as if a single sound, following the rules for c: thus, $cdk_{\bar{s}e}$ ($cak_{\bar{s}} + se$), $cdk_{\bar{s}va}$; $cds_{\bar{s}e}$, $dcas_{\bar{s}e}$, $dsr_{\bar{a}s}$, $dsr_{\bar{a}s}$, $dsr_{\bar{s}e}$

In the single anomalous root vrace, the compound cc is said to follow the rule for simple c: thus, vraksyáti, ávrāksam; vrástum, vrastá. Its c reverts to k in vraska. Its participle is vrkná; it has a Vedic gerund vrktví.

222. The roots in final \overline{a} , h, like those in \overline{a} , fall into two classes, exhibiting a similar diversity of treatment, appearing in the same kinds of combination.

In the one class, as duh, we have a reversion of h (as of c) to a guttural form, and its treatment as if it were still its original gh: thus, $\acute{a}dhuk$ sam, dhoksy $\acute{a}mi$; $dugdh\acute{a}m$, $dugdh\acute{a}$; $\acute{a}dhok$, $dh\acute{u}k$, $dhugbh\acute{s}$, dhuks \acute{u} .

lih with tas or thas comes līḍhás, from lih with dhvam comes līḍhvám, etc.

This is as if we had to assume as transition sound a sonant aspirate lingual sibilant zh, with the euphonic effects of a lingual and of a sonant aspirate (160), itself disappearing under the law of the existing language which admits no sonant sibilant.

223. The roots of the two classes, as shown by their forms found in use, are:

of the first or duh-class: dah, dih, duh, druh, muh, snih (and the final of uṣṇih is similarly treated);

of the second or ruh-class: vah, sah, mih, rih or lih, guh, ruh, druh, truh, brh, banh, sprh (?).

But muh forms also (not in RV.) the participle $m\bar{u}dha$ and agent-noun $m\bar{u}dha$, as well as mugdha and mugdha; and druh and snih are allowed by the grammarians to do likewise: such forms as $dr\bar{u}dha$ and $sn\bar{u}dha$, however, do not appear to have been met with in use.

From roots of the ruh-class we find also in the Veda the forms $gart\bar{a}r\dot{a}k$, nom. sing., and $pr\bar{a}nadh\dot{r}k$ and $dadh\dot{r}k$; and hence $purusp\dot{r}k$ (the only occurrence) does not prove ysph to be of the duh-class.

A number of other h-roots are not proved by their occurring forms to belong to either class; they, too, are with more or less confidence assigned to the one or the other by comparison with the related languages*.

In derivation, before the suffix a, we have (216.1) $megh\acute{a}$ and $d\bar{\imath}rgh\acute{a}$ from roots of the ruh-class. Before the r verb-endings, we have examples only from duh, with h: thus, duduhre etc.

The root nah comes from original dh instead of gh, and its reversion is accordingly to a dental instead of a guttural mute: thus, $natsy\acute{a}mi$, $naddh\acute{a}$, $up\bar{u}n\acute{a}dbhis$, $up\bar{u}nad-yuga$.

224. Irregularities of combination are:

a. The vowel r is not lengthened to compensate for the loss of the h-element: thus, $drdh\dot{a}$, $trdh\dot{a}$, $brdh\dot{a}$ (the only cases; and in the Veda their first syllable has metrical value as heavy or long).

b. The roots vah and sah change their vowel to o instead of lengthening it: thus, $vodh\acute{a}m$, $vodh\acute{a}m$, $vodh\acute{a}r$, $s\acute{o}dhum$. But from sah in the older language forms with \bar{a} are more frequent: thus, $s\bar{a}dh\acute{a}$, $\acute{a}s\bar{a}dha$ (also later), $s\acute{a}dhar$. The root $tr\dot{n}h$ changes the vowel of its class-sign na into e instead of lengthening it: thus, trnedhi, trnedhu, atrnet (the grammarians teach also trnehmi and trneksi: if such forms are actually in use, they must have been made by false analogy with the others).

These anomalous vowel-changes seem to stand in connection with the fact that the cases showing them are the only ones where other than an

^{*} See Hübschmann, as above.

alterant vowel (180) comes before the lingualised sibilant representative of the h. Compare sódaça etc.

Apparently by dissimilation, the final of vah in the anomalous compound anadvah is changed to d instead of d: see 404.

to coming by wind the MSS, some The lingual sibilant s.

225. Since the lingual sibilant, in its usual and normal occurrences, is (182) the product of lingualization of s after certain alterant sounds, we might expect final radical s, when (in rare cases) it comes to stand where a s cannot maintain itself, to revert to its original, and be treated as a s would be treated under the same circumstances. That, however, is only true in a very few instances.

Namely, in the prefix dus (evidently identical with \sqrt{dus}); in sajus dus(adverbially used case-form from \(\sigmu jus\); in (RV.) vivés and \(\delta vives\), from \(\psi vis\); in $\bar{a}iyes$ (RV.), from \sqrt{is} ; and in $\bar{a}cis$, from cis as secondary form of \sqrt{cas} . All these, except the first two, are more or less open to question.

- 226. In general, final lingual \(\bar{q} \) is treated in the same manner as palatal प्र. Thus:
- a. Before t and th it remains unchanged, and the latter are assimilated: e. g. dvistas, dvisthas, dvéstum.

This is a common and perfectly natural combination.

b. Before dh, bh, and su, as also in external combination (145), it becomes a lingual mute; and dh is made lingual after it: thus, pinddhi, viddhi, vividdhi, dviddhvam, dvidbhis, dvitsu.

The same holds good of the altered s of a tense-sign: thus, astoddhvam (from astos-dhvam).

The conversion of s to t (or d) as final and before bh and su is parallel with the like conversion of c, and of j and h in the mrj and ruh classes of roots, and perhaps with the occasional change of s to t (167-8). It is a very infrequent case, occurring (save as it may be assumed in the case of sas) only once in RV. and once in AV. (-dvit and -prut), although those texts have more than 40 roots with final s; in the Brāhmanas, moreover, has been noticed further only -clit. From pins, RV. has the irregular form pinak (2d and 3d sing., for pinas-s and pinas-t).

c. Before s in internal combination (except su of loc. pl.) it becomes k: thus, dvéksi, dveksyámi, údviksam.

This change is of anomalous phonetic character, and difficult of explanation. It is also practically of very rare occurrence. examples (apart from pinak, above) are viveksi, from vvis, and the desid. stem ririkşa from Vris; AV. has only dviksat and dviksata, and the desid. stem cicliksa from Velis. Other examples are quotable from VVkrs (CB. etc.), cis (ÇB.), and pis (Khand. Up.); and they are by the Hindu grammarians prescribed to be formed from about half-a-dozen other roots.

Extension and Abbreviation.

227. As a general rule, ch is not allowed by the grammarians to stand in that form after a vowel, but is to be doubled, becoming cch (which the MSS. sometimes write chch).

The various authorities disagree with one another in detail as to this duplication. According to Pāṇini, ch is doubled within a word after either a long or a short vowel; and, as initial, necessarily after a short and after the particles \dot{a} and $m\dot{a}$, and optionally everywhere after a long. In RV., initial ch is doubled after a long vowel of \dot{a} only, and certain special cases after a short vowel are excepted. For the required usage in the other Vedic texts, see their several Prātiçākhyas. The Kāṭhaka writes for original ch (not ch from combination of t and n with c: 203) after a vowel everywhere ch.

Opinions are still at variance as to how far this duplication has an etymological ground, and how far it is only an acknowledgment of the fact that ch makes a heavy syllable even after a short vowel (makes "position": 79).

228. After r, any consonant (save a spirant before a vowel) is by the grammarians either allowed or required to be doubled (an aspirate, by prefixing the corresponding non-aspirate: 154).

Some of the authorities include, along with r, also h or l or v, or more than one of them, in this rule.

A doubled consonant after r is very common in MSS, and inscriptions, as also in native text-editions and in the earlier editions prepared by European scholars — in later ones, the duplication is universally omitted.

229. The first consonant of a group — whether interior, or initial after a vowel of a preceding word — is by the grammarians either allowed or required to be doubled.

This duplication is allowed by Pāṇini and required by the Prātiçākhyas—in both, with mention of authorities who deny it altogether. For certain exceptions, see the Prātiçākhyas: the meaning of the whole matter is too obscure to justify the giving of details here.

- 230. Other cases of extension of consonant-groups, required by some of the grammatical authorities, are the following:
- a. Between a non-nasal and a nasal mute, the insertion of so-called yamas ('twins'), or nasal counterparts, is taught by the Prātiçākhyas (and assumed in Pāṇini's commentary): see APr. i. 99, note.
- b. Between h and a following nasal mute the Prātiçākhyas teach the insertion of a nasal sound called $n\bar{a}sikya$: see APr. i. 100, note.
- c. Between r and a following consonant the Prātiçākhyas teach the insertion of a svarabhakti or 'vowel-fragment': see APr. i. 101—2, note.

Some authorities assume this insertion only before a spirant; the others regard it as twice as long before a spirant as before any other consonant

— namely, a half or a quarter mora before the former, a quarter or an eighth before the latter. One (VPr.) admits it after l as well as r. It is variously described as a fragment of the vowel a or of r (or l).

The RPr. puts a svarabhakti also between a sonant consonant and a following mute or spirant; and APr. introduces an element called sphotana ('distinguisher') between a guttural and a preceding mute of another class.

For one or two other cases of yet more doubtful value, see the Prātiçākhyas.

231. After a nasal, the former of two non-nasal mutes may be dropped, whether homogeneous only with the nasal, or with both: thus, yundhi for yungdhi, yundhvam for yungdhvam, antam for anktam, chintam for chintam, bhintha for bhintha, indhé for inddhé.

This abbreviation, allowed by Pāṇini, is required by APr. (the other Prātiçākhyas take no notice of it). It is the usual practice of the MSS., though the full group is also often written.

232. In general, a double mute (including an aspirate which is doubled by the prefixion of a non-aspirate) in combination with any other consonant is by the manuscripts written as simple.

That is to say, the ordinary usage of the MSS. makes no difference between those groups in which a phonetic duplication is allowed by the rules given above (228, 229) and those in which the duplication is etymological. As every tv after a vowel may also be properly written ttv, so $dattv\acute{a}$ and $tatv\acute{a}$ may be, and almost invariably are, written as $datv\acute{a}$ and $tatv\acute{a}$. As $k\acute{a}rtana$ is also properly $k\acute{a}rttana$, so $k\~arttika$ (from krtii) is written as $k\~artika$. So in inflection, we have always, for example, $maj\~n\acute{a}$ etc., not $majj\~n\acute{a}$, from $majj\acute{a}n$. Even in composition and sentence-collocation the same abbreviations are made: thus, $hrdyot\acute{a}$ for $hrddyot\acute{a}$; $chin\acute{a}ty$ asya for $chin\acute{a}tty$ asya. Hence it is impossible to determine by the evidence of written usage whether we should regard $\~adhvam$ or $\~addhvam$ (from $\surd asya$), $\~advidhvam$ or $\~advidhvam$ (from $\surd dvis$) as the true form of a second person plural.

233. Among occasional omissions of an etymologically justified member of a consonant-group, is of importance enough to be here noticed that

A s is sometimes lost (perhaps after assimilation) between two surd mutes: thus,

a. The initial s of the roots $sth\bar{a}$ and stabh after the preposition ut: thus, $utth\dot{a}tum$ for $utsth\dot{a}tum$, $\dot{u}ttabhnoti$ for $\dot{u}tstabhnoti$.

b. The tense-sign s of the s-aorist (chap. XI.) after a final consonant of a root before the initial consonant of an ending: thus, achāntta (and for this, by 231, achānta) for achāntsta, çāpta for çāpsta, tāptam for tāpstam.

c. Other instances are only sporadic: thus, the compound $rkth\bar{a}$ ($rc + sth\bar{a}$: PB.); the collocations $tasm\bar{a}t$ tute (for stute) and puroruk tuta- (for stuta-: K.).

Strengthening and Weakening Processes.

234. Under this head, we take up first the changes that affect vowels, and then those that affect consonants — adding,

for convenience's sake, in each case, a brief notice of the vowel and consonant elements that have come to bear the apparent office of connectives.

Guna and Vrddhi.

235. The so-called *guna* and *vrddhi*-changes are the most regular and frequent of vowel-changes, being of constant occurrence both in inflection and in derivation.

236. The series of corresponding degrees is then as follows:

There is nowhere any occurrence of \bar{r} in a situation to undergo either guna or vrddhi-change; nor does l (26) ever suffer change to vrddhi. Theoretically, \bar{r} would have the same changes as r; and the vrddhi of l would be $\bar{a}l$.

237. The historical relations of the members of each vowel-series are still matters of some difference of opinion. From the special point of view of the Sanskrit, the simple vowels wear the aspect of being in general the original or fundamental ones, and the others of being products of their increment or strengthening, in two several degrees — so that the rules of formation direct a, i, u, r, l to be raised to guna or vrddhi respectively, under specified conditions. But r is so clearly seen to come by abbreviation or weakening from an earlier ar (or ra) that many European grammarians prefer to treat the guna-form as the original and the other as the derivative. Thus, for example: instead of assuming certain roots to be bhr and vrddh, and making from them bharati and vrdhati, and bhrta and vrddha, by the same rules which from $bh\bar{u}$ and $n\bar{\imath}$ and from budh and cit form bhavati and nayati, bodhati and cetati, $bh\bar{u}ta$ and $n\bar{\imath}ta$, buddha and citta — they assume

bhar and vardh to be the roots, and give the rules of formation for them in reverse. Both methods have their advantages, and the question between them is one of minor consequence, which may fairly be settled by considerations of convenience. Mainly from such considerations, the r-form is generally assumed in this work, though not without constant recognition of the other.

- 238. The guna-increment is an Indo-European phenomenon, and is in many cases seen to occur in connection with an accent on the increased syllable. It is found:
- **a.** In root-syllables: either in inflection, as $dv\acute{e}s\acute{t}i$ from $\sqrt{dv\acute{e}s}$, $d\acute{o}hmi$ from \sqrt{duh} ; or in derivation, as $dv\acute{e}s\acute{a}$, $d\acute{o}has$, $dv\acute{e}s\acute{t}um$, $d\acute{o}gdhum$.
- b. In formative elements: either conjugational class-signs, as tanòmi from tanu; or suffixes of derivation, in further derivation or in inflection, as agnáye from agni, bhānávas from bhānú, pitáram from pitŕ, hantavyà from hántu.
- **239.** The *vrddhi*-increment is specifically Indian (being unshared, save in a few doubtful cases, even by the Zend), and its occurrence is more infrequent and irregular. It is found:
- **a.** In root and suffix-syllables, instead of guṇa: thus, stāúti from Vstu, sákhāyam from sákhi, ánāiṣam from Vnī, ákārṣam and kāráyati and kāryà from Vkṛ (or kar), dātáram from dātṛ.
- b. Especially often, in initial syllables in secondary derivation: thus, mānasá from mánas, vāidyutá from vidyút, bhāumá from bhūmi, pārthiva from prthiví.

But

240. The guṇa-increment does not usually take place in a heavy syllable ending with a consonant: that is to say, the rules prescribing guṇa in processes of derivation and inflection do not apply to a short vowel which is "long by position", nor to a long vowel unless it be final: thus, cétati from \sqrt{rit} , but nindati from \sqrt{nind} ; náyati from $\sqrt{n\bar{t}}$, but jivati from \sqrt{jiv} .

The vrddhi-increment is not liable to this restriction.

Exceptions to the rule are occasionally met with: thus, $did\acute{e}va$ from \sqrt{div} ; $h\acute{e}das$ from $\sqrt{h}id$; 6hate from $\sqrt{u}h$.

And a few cases occur of prolongation instead of increment: thus, $d\bar{u}_{i}\dot{q}u_{i}$ from Vdus, $g\dot{u}hati$ from Vguh.

The changes of r (more original ar or ra) are so various as to call for further description.

241. The increments of r are sometimes ra and $r\bar{a}$, instead of ar and $\bar{a}r$: namely, especially, where by such reversal a difficult combination of consonants is avoided: thus, from $\sqrt{dr_c}$, $draksy\dot{a}mi$ and $ddr\bar{a}ksam$; but also $prth\dot{u}$ and prath, prch and prath, $krp\dot{a}$ and dkrapista.

242-

242. In a number of roots (about a dozen quotable ones) ending in r (for more original ar), the r exchanges both with ar, and, more irregularly, in a part of the forms, with ir— or also with ur (especially after a labial, in pr, mr, vr, sporadically in others): which ir and ur, again, are liable to prolongation into $\bar{v}r$ and $\bar{u}r$. Thus, for example, from tr (or tar), we have tarati, titarti, $tat\bar{u}ra$, $at\bar{u}risam$, by regular processes; but also tirati, tiryati, $tirtv\bar{u}$, $-t\bar{v}rya$, tirna, and even (V.) $tury\bar{u}ma$, $tutury\bar{u}t$, $tartur\bar{u}na$. The treatment of such roots has to be described in speaking of each formation.

For the purpose of artificially indicating this peculiarity of treatment, such roots are by the Hindu grammarians written with long \bar{r} , or with both r and \bar{r} : no \bar{r} actually appears anywhere among their forms.

The (quotable) \bar{r} -roots are 3kr 'strew', 1gr 'praise', 2gr 'swallow', 1jr 'wear out', tr, 1gr 'crush'*.

The (quotable) r and \bar{r} -roots are r, $1\,dr$ 'burst', $1\,pr$ 'fill', $2\,mr$ 'die', $2\,vr$ 'choose', $str.\ hvr$.

243. In a few cases, r comes from the contraction of other syllables than ar and ra: thus, in trta and trtīya from ri; in crnu from ru; in trca, even from rir (or ryr).

Vowel-lengthening.

- 244. Vowel-lengthening has regard especially to i and u, since the lengthening of a is in part (except where in evident analogy with that of i and u) indistinguishable from its increment, and r is made long only in certain plural cases of stems in r (or ar: chap. V.). Lengthening is a much more irregular and sporadic change than increment, and its cases will in general be left to be pointed out in connection with the processes of inflection and derivation: a few only will be mentioned here.
- **245.** a. Final radical i and u are especially liable to prolongation before y: as in passive and gerund and so on.
- b. Final radical ir and ur (from r-roots: 242) are liable to prolongation before all consonants except those of personal endings: namely, before y and $tv\bar{u}$ and na: and in declension before bh and s (392). Radical is and us have the same prolongation in declension.
- 246. Compensatory lengthening, or absorption by a vowel of the time of a lost following consonant, is by no means common. Certain instances of it have been pointed out above (179, 198b, 199b, 222). Perhaps such cases as $pit\bar{a}$ for pitars and $dhan\bar{i}$ for dhanins (chap. V.) are to be classed here.
- 247. The final vowel of a former member of a compound is often made long, especially in the Veda. Prolongations of final a, and before v, are most

^{*} Numbers prefixed to roots denote the order in which, there being more than one of the same form, the root intended is given in the Petersburg lexicon.

frequent; but cases are found of every variety. Examples are devūvī, vayunāvīd, prāvṛṣ, ṛtāvasu, indrāvant, sadanāsād, çatāmagha, viçvānara, kkādaça; apījū, parīṇāh, vīrūdh, tuvīmaghā, tviṣīmant, çāktīvant; vasūjū, anūrūdh, sūmāya, purūvāsu.

248. In the Veda, the final vowel of a word — generally a, much less often i and u — is in a large number of cases prolonged. Usually the prolongation takes place where it is favored by the metre, but sometimes even where the metre opposes the change (for details, see APr. iii. 16 note, Benfey, Abh. Gött. Ges. xix.—xxi. [1874—6], and the various Prātiçākhyas).

Words of which the finals are thus treated are:

- a. Particles: namely, áthū, ádhū, evá, utá, ghá, hū, ihá, ivū, cū, smū, angá, ktlū, átrū, yátrū, tátrū, kútrū, anyútrū, ubhayátrū, adyá, áchū, ápū, prá; yádī, nahí, abhí; ū, tú, nú, sú, makṣú.
- b. Case-forms: especially instr. sing., as $en\acute{a}$, $t\acute{e}n\ddot{a}$, $y\acute{e}n\ddot{a}$, $sv\acute{e}n\ddot{a}$, and others; rarely gen. sing., as $asy\ddot{a}$, $harin\acute{a}sy\ddot{a}$. Cases besides these are few: so $s\acute{e}m\ddot{a}$ (voc.); $tanv\grave{i}$ (loc.), and $ur\acute{u}$ and (not rarely) $pur\acute{u}$.
- c. Verb-forms ending in a, in great number and variety: thus (nearly in the order of their comparative frequency), 2d sing. impv. act., as $pib\bar{a}$, $sy\bar{a}$, $gamay\bar{a}$; 2d pl. act. in ta and tha, as $sth\bar{a}$, $att\bar{a}$, $bibhrt\bar{a}$, $jayat\bar{a}$, $crnut\bar{a}$, $anadat\bar{a}$, $nayath\bar{a}$, $j\bar{i}vayath\bar{a}$ (and one in $tana: avistan\bar{a}$); 1st pl. act. in ma, as $vidm\bar{a}$, $ris\bar{a}m\bar{a}$, $rdhy\bar{a}m\bar{a}$, $ruhem\bar{a}$, $vanuy\bar{a}m\bar{a}$, $cakrm\bar{a}$, $marmrjm\bar{a}$; 2d sing. impv. mid. in sva, as $yuksv\bar{a}$, $idisv\bar{a}$, $dadhisv\bar{a}$, $vahasv\bar{a}$; 1st and 3d sing. perf. act., as $ved\bar{a}$, $vivec\bar{a}$, $jagrabh\bar{a}$; 2d sing. perf. act., $vetth\bar{a}$; 2d pl. perf. act., $anaj\bar{a}$, $cakr\bar{a}$. Of verb-forms ending in i, only the 2d sing. impv. act., as $crudh\bar{i}$, $crnuh\bar{i}$, $d\bar{i}dih\bar{i}$, $jah\bar{i}$.

To these may be added the gerund in ya, as $abhig\dot{u}ry\bar{a}$, $\dot{a}cy\bar{a}$.

Vowel-lightening.

- **249.** The alteration of short a to an i or u-vowel in the formative processes of the language, except in r or ar roots (as explained above), is a sporadic phenomenon only.
- **250.** But the lightening of a long \bar{a} especially to an \dot{i} -vowel (as also its loss), is a frequent process: no other vowel is so unstable.
- a. Of the class-sign $n\bar{a}$ (of the $kr\bar{i}$ -class of verbs: chap. IX.), the \bar{a} is in "weak" forms changed to \bar{i} , and before vowel-endings dropped altogether. The final \bar{a} of one or two roots is treated in the same manner: thus $m\bar{a}$, $h\bar{a}$. And from some roots, \bar{a} and \bar{i} or i-forms so interchange that it is difficult to classify them or to determine the true character of the root.
- b. Radical \bar{a} is weakened to the semblance of the union-vowel i in certain verbal forms: as perfect dadima from $\sqrt{d\bar{a}}$ etc.; arist $adhith\bar{a}s$ from $\sqrt{dh\bar{a}}$ etc.; present jahimas from $\sqrt{h\bar{a}}$ etc.
 - c. Radical \bar{a} is shortened to the semblance of stem-a in a number of

reduplicated forms, as tistha, piba, dada, etc.: see chap. IX.; also in a few aorists, as ahvam, akhyam, etc.: see chap. XI.

- d. Radical \bar{a} sometimes becomes e, especially before y: as, sthey \bar{a} sam, deya.
- 251. Certain \bar{a} -roots, because of their peculiar exchanges with $\bar{\imath}$ and i-forms, especially in forming the present stem, are given by the Hindu grammarians as roots ending in e or $\bar{a}i$ or o. Thus, from $2dh\bar{a}$ 'suck' (dhe) come the present $dh\bar{a}yati$ and participle and gerund $dh\bar{\iota}t\dot{a}$, $dh\bar{\iota}tv\dot{a}$; the other forms are made from $dh\bar{a}$, as dadhus, $adh\bar{a}t$, $dh\bar{u}syati$, $dh\dot{u}tave$, $dh\bar{u}payati$. From $2g\bar{u}$ 'sing' $(g\bar{u}i)$ come the present $g\dot{a}yati$, the participle and gerund $g\bar{\iota}t\dot{a}$ and $g\bar{\iota}tv\dot{a}$, and passive $g\bar{\iota}y\dot{a}te$, and the other forms from $g\bar{u}$. From $3d\bar{u}$ 'cut' (do) come the present $dy\dot{u}ti$ and participle $dit\dot{a}$ or $din\dot{a}$, and the other forms from $d\bar{u}$. The irregularities of these roots will be treated below, under the various formations.
- **252.** By a process of abbreviation essentially akin with that of ar or ra to r, the va (usually initial) of a number of roots becomes u, and the ya of a much smaller number becomes i, in certain verbal forms and derivatives. Thus, from vac come $uv\ddot{a}ca$, $ucy\dot{a}sam$, $uktv\dot{a}$, $ukt\dot{a}$, ukti, $ukt\dot{a}$, ukti, $ukt\dot{a}$, etc.; from yaj come $iy\dot{a}ja$, $ijy\dot{a}sam$, $istv\dot{a}$, $ist\dot{a}$, $ist\dot{a}$, $ist\dot{a}$, etc. See below, under the various formations.

To this change is generally given by European grammarians the name of samprasāraņa, by adaptation of a term used in the native grammar.

- **253.** A short a, of root or ending, is not infrequently lost between consonants in a weakened syllable: thus, in verb-forms, ghnánti, ápaptam, jagmús, jajňús, ájňata; in noun-forms, rájňe, rájňi.
- 254. Union-vowels. All the simple vowels come to assume in certain cases the aspect of union-vowels, or insertions between root or stem and ending of inflection or of derivation.

That character belongs oftenest to i, which is very widely used: a. before the s of a orist and future and desiderative stems, as in $aj\bar{\imath}visam$, $j\bar{\imath}visy\bar{\imath}mi$, $jij\bar{\imath}vis\bar{\imath}mi$; b. in tense-inflection, especially perfect, as $jij\bar{\imath}vima$; occasionally also present, as ainti, róditi; c. in derivation, as $j\bar{\imath}vita$, khanitum, janit, rocisna, etc. etc.

Long $\bar{\imath}$ is used sometimes instead of short: thus, $\bar{a}grah\bar{\imath}_sam$, $grah\bar{\imath}_sy\bar{a}mi$; $brav\bar{\imath}ti$, $v\bar{a}vad\bar{\imath}ti$; $tar\bar{\imath}tf$, $sav\bar{\imath}tf$; it is also often introduced before s and t of the 2d and 3d sing. of verbs: thus, $\dot{a}s\bar{\imath}s$, $\dot{a}s\bar{\imath}t$.

For details respecting these, and the more irregular and sporadic occurrences of u and a-vowels in the same character, see below.

Nasal Increment.

255. Both in roots and in endings, a distinction of stronger and weaker forms is very often made by the presence or absence of a nasal element, mute or $anusv\bar{a}ra$, before a following consonant. In general, the stronger form is doubtless the more original; but in the present condition of the language.

the nasal has come in great measure to seem, and to some extent also to be used, as an actually strengthening element, introduced under certain conditions in formative and inflective processes.

Examples are, of roots: ac and añc, grath and granth, vid and vind, dac and danc, sras and srans, drh and drinh: of endings, bhárantam and bháratā, mánasī and mánānsi.

- **258.** A final n, whether of stem or of root, is less stable than any other consonant, where a weaker form is called for: thus, from $r\dot{a}jan$ we have $r\dot{a}j\ddot{a}$ and $r\dot{a}jabhis$, and in composition $r\ddot{a}ja$; from dhanin, dhani and dhanibhis and dhani; from γhan we have $hath\dot{a}$ and $hat\dot{a}$, etc. A final radical m (m does not occur as final of a stem) is sometimes treated in the same way: thus, from γgam , gahi, gatam, gata, gati.
- 257. Inserted n. On the other hand, the nasal n has come to be used with great and, in the later history of the language, with increasing frequency as a union-consonant, inserted between vowels: thus. from agní, agnínā and agnīnām; from mádhu, mádhunas, mádhunī, mádhūni; from çivā, çivēna, çivānī, çivānām.
- **258.** Inserted y. After long \bar{a} , a y is not very infrequently found as apparently a mere union-consonant before another vowel: thus, in derivation, $y\bar{a}y\ell n$, $svadh\bar{a}y\ell n$, $dh\dot{a}yas$, $sth\dot{a}yuka$; in inflection, $\hat{a}dh\bar{a}yi$, $\varsigma\bar{a}y\hat{a}yati$, and perhaps $\varsigma iv\dot{a}y\bar{a}s$ and $g\dot{a}yati$.

Reduplication.

- 259. Reduplication of a root (originating doubtless in its complete repetition) has come to be a method of radical increment or strengthening in various formative processes: namely,
 - a. in present-stem formation: as dádāmi, bibhármi;
 - b. in a orist-stem formation: as ádīdharam, ácucyavam;
- **c.** in perfect-stem formation, almost universally : as tatana. dadhau, cakana;
- d. in intensive and desiderative-stem formation, throughout: as jänghanti, jöhavīti, marmrjyāte, pipāsati, jighānsati;
- e. in the formation of derivative noun–stems: as $p\acute{a}pri$, $c\acute{a}rcara$, $s\ddot{a}sah\acute{i}$, $cikit\acute{u}$, $malimhuc\acute{a}$.

Rules for the treatment of the reduplication in these several cases will be given in the proper connection below.

260. As, by reason of the strengthening and weakening changes indicated above, the same root or stem not seldom exhibits, in the processes of inflection and derivation, varieties of stronger and weaker form, the distinction and description of these varieties forms an important part of the subjects hereafter to be treated.

CHAPTER IV.

DECLENSION.

- 261. The general subject of declension includes nouns, adjectives, and pronouns, all of which are inflected in essentially the same manner. But while the correspondence of nouns and adjectives is so close that they cannot well be separated in treatment, the pronouns, which exhibit many peculiarities, will be best dealt with in a separate chapter; and the words designating number, or numerals, also form a class peculiar enough to require to be presented by themselves.
- 262. Declensional forms show primarily case and number; but they also indicate gender since, though the distinctions of gender are made partly in the stem itself, they also appear, to no inconsiderable extent, in the changes of inflection.
- 263. Gender. The genders are three, namely masculine, feminine, and neuter, as in the other older Indo-European languages; and they follow in general the same laws of distribution as, for example, in Greek and Latin.

The only words which show no sign of gender-distinction are the personal pronouns of the first and second person (along with the numerals above 'four': chap. VI.).

264. Number. The numbers are three — singular, dual, and plural.

A few words are used only in the plural: as $d\bar{a}r\bar{a}s$, 'wife', $a\bar{a}pas$, 'water'; the numeral dva, 'two', is dual only; and, as in other languages, many words are, by the nature of their use, found to occur only in the singular.

265. As to the uses of the numbers, it needs only to be remarked that the dual is found without the addition of the numeral dva, 'two', wherever the duality of the objects spoken of is a thing well understood: thus, açvināu, 'the two (horsemen) Açvins'; indrasya hárī, 'Indra's (two) bays'; devadattasya hastāu, 'Devadatta's two hands'; but devadattasya dvāv açvāu staḥ, 'Devadatta has two horses'.

266. Case. The cases are (including the vocative) eight: nominative, accusative, instrumental, dative, ablative, genitive, locative, and vocative.

The order in which they are here mentioned is that established for them by the Hindu grammarians, and accepted from these by Western scholars. The Hindu names of the cases are founded on this order: the nominative is called $pratham\bar{a}$, 'first', the accusative $dvit\bar{\imath}y\bar{a}$, 'second', the genitive $sasih\bar{\imath}$, 'sixth' (se. vibhakti, 'division', i. e. 'case'), etc. The object sought in the arrangement is simply to set next to one another those cases which are to a greater or less extent, in one or another number, identical in form; and, putting the nominative first, as leading case, there is no other order by which that object could be attained. The vocative is not considered and named by the native grammarians as a case like the rest; in this work, it will be given in the singular (where alone it is ever distinguished from the nominative otherwise than by accent) at the end of the series of cases.

A brief compendious statement of the uses of the cases is given in the following paragraphs:

- 267. Uses of the Nominative. The nominative is the case of the subject of the sentence, and of any word qualifying the subject, whether attributively, in apposition, or as predicate.
- 268. As somewhat peculiar constructions may be mentioned a predicate nominative with manye etc., 'think one's self to be', and with bruve etc., 'call one's self': thus, sómam manyate papiván (RV.), 'he thinks he has been drinking soma'; sá manyeta purāṇavít (AV.), 'he may regard himself as wise in ancient things'; 'indro brāhmaṇó brúvānaḥ (TS.), 'Indra calling himself (pretending to be) a Brahman'; and with rūpám kṛ: thus, kṛṣṇó rūpám kṛtvá (TS.), 'taking on a black form' (making shape for himself as one that is black).
- 269. Uses of the Accusative. The accusative is especially the case of the direct object of a transitive verb, and of any word qualifying that object, as attribute or appositive or objective predicate. The construction of the verb is shared, of course, by its participles and infinitives; but also, in Sanskrit, by a number of other derivatives, having a more or less participial or infinitival character, and even sometimes by nouns and adjectives. A few prepositions are accompanied by the accusative. As more indirect object, the accusative is construed especially with verbs of approach and address. It is found used yet more adverbially as adjunct of place or time or manner; and a host of adverbs are accusative cases in form. Two accusatives are often found as objects of the same verb.
 - 270. The use of the accusative as direct object of a transitive verb Whitney, Grammar.

and of its infinitives and participles hardly needs illustration: an example or two are: agnim āde, 'I praise Agni'; námo bhárantah, 'bringing homage'; bhūyo dātum arhasi, 'thou shouldst give more'. Of predicate words qualifying the object, an example is tâm ugrâm kṛṇomi tâm brâhmāṇam (RV.), 'him I make formidable, him a priest'.

- 271. Of verbal derivatives having so far a participial character that they share the construction of the verb, the variety is considerable: thus,
- a. Derivatives in u from desiderative stems have wholly the character of present participles: thus, $damayant\bar{u}m$ $abh\bar{v}psavah$ (MBh.), 'desiring to win Damayanti': $r\bar{u}j\bar{u}nam$ didrksuh (MBh.), 'desiring to see the king'.
- b. So-called primary derivatives in in have the same character: thus, mām kāminī (AV.), 'loving me'; enam abhibhāsinī (MBh.), 'addressing him'.
- c. Derivatives in aka, in the later language: as, bhavantam abhivādakaḥ (MBh.), 'intending to salute you'.
- d. Nouns in tar, very frequently in the older language, and as periphrastic future forms (chap. XII.) in the later: thus, hântā yó vṛtrâm sânito 'tâ vājam dắtā maghāni (RV.), 'who slayeth the dragon, winneth booty, bestoweth largesses'.
- e. The root itself, in the older language, used with the value of a present participle at the end of a compound: thus, yâm yajñâm paribhấr âsi (RV.), 'what offering thou surroundest (protectest)'.
- f. The derivative in i from the (especially the reduplicated) root, in the older language: thus, babhrir vájram papih sómam dadir gáh (RV.), 'bearing the thunderbolt, drinking the soma, bestowing kine'.
- g. Derivatives in uka, very frequently in the Brāhmana language: thus, vatsānç ca ghātuko vikah (AV.), 'and the wolf destroys his calves'; véduko vāso bhavati (TS.), 'he wins a garment'.
- h. Other cases are more sporadic: thus, derivatives in a, as indro dṛḍhā cid ārujāḥ (RV.), 'Indra breaks up even what is fast'; in atnu, as vīḍū cid ārujatnūbhiḥ (RV.), 'with the breakers of whatever is strong'; in ana, as tan nivārane (MBh.), 'in restraining him'.
- **272.** Examples of an accu ative with an ordinary noun or adjective are only occasional: anuvrata is so used: thus, damayant \bar{m} anuvrata (MBh.), 'devoted to Damayanti'; and $k\bar{a}ma$, as $m\dot{a}m$ $k\dot{a}mena$ (AV.), 'through loving me'.
- 273. The direct construction of cases with prepositions is comparatively restricted in Sanskrit (see the subject of Prepositions, chap. XVI.). With the accusative is oftenest found prati, 'opposite to, in reference to', etc.; also anu, 'after, in the course of'; antar or antarā, 'between'; rarely ati, 'across'; abhi, 'against, to'; and others. Case-forms which have assumed a prepositional value are also often used with the accusative: as antarena, uttarena, daksinena, avarena, ūrdhvam, rte.
- 274. The accusative is very often found also as object of verbs which in the related languages are not transitive.
 - a. It stands especially as the goal of motion, with verbs of going, bring-

ing, sending, and the like: thus, vidarbhān agaman (MBh.), 'they went to Vidarbha'; divam yayuḥ (MBh.), 'they went to heaven'; vanagulmān dhāvantaḥ (MBh.), 'running to woods and bushes'; apo divam ad vahanti (AV.), 'they carry up waters to the sky'; devān yaje (AV.), 'I make offering to the gods'.

With verbs meaning 'go', this is an extremely common construction; and the use of such a verb with an abstract noun makes peculiar phrases of 'becoming': thus, samatām eti, 'he goes to equality' (i. e. 'becomes equal'); sa gached badhyatām mama (MBh.), 'he shall become liable to be slain by me'; sa pañcatvam āgatah (H.), 'he was resolved into the five elements' (underwent dissolution, died).

b. Verbs of speaking follow the same rule: thus, tam abravīt, 'he said to him'; prūkrocad uccāir nāisadham (MBh.), 'she cried out loudly to the Nishadhan'; yās tvo 'vāca (AV.), 'who spoke to thee'.

275. The cognate accusative or accusative of the implied object, is, of course, found also in Sanskrit: as, capatham cepe, 'he swore an oath'.

276. As a yet more adverbial adjunct to a verb, the accusative is used to denote space traversed: as yojanaçatam gantum (MBh.), 'to go a hundred leagues'; much more often, duration of time: as tisró rátrīr dīkṣitāḥ syāt (TS.), 'let him be consecrated three nights'; sá samvatsarám ūrdhvò 'tiṣṭhat (AV.), 'he stood upright for a year'; gatvū trīn ahorātrūn (MBh.), 'having travelled three complete days'. But the point of place or time also is occasionally found represented by the accusative (instead of the locative).

The same case is used adverbially to express manner or accompanying circumstance; and many adverbs have the accusative form (see Adverbs, chap. XVI.): this is especially true of compound words, even to such an extent as to form a class of adverbial compounds (below: chap. XVIII.).

277. The accusative is freely used along with other cases as objects of the same verb, wherever the sense admits. And when it is usable with a verb in two different constructions, the verb may take two accusatives, one in each construction. Thus, especially, verbs of having recourse, appealing, asking: as, tvām vayam çaranam gatāh (MBh.), 'we have resorted to thee for succor'; apó yācāmi bheṣajām (RV.), 'I ask the waters for medicine'; — and verbs of sending, bringing, imparting, saying: as, gurutvam naram nayanti (H.), 'conduct a man to respectability'; tām idam abravīt (MBh.), 'she said this to her'; — other less usual cases are, for example, tām viṣām evā 'dhok (AV.), 'he milked from her poison'; jitvā rājyam nalam (MBh.), 'having won the kingdom from (i. e. by beating) Nala'.

A causative verb, naturally, takes a double accusative: thus, $t\bar{a}\dot{m}$ grham pravecayati, 'he makes her enter the house'.

278. Uses of the Instrumental. The instrumental is originally the 'with'-case: it denotes adjacency, accompaniment, association — passing over into the expression of means and instrument (by the same transfer of meaning which appears in our prepositions with and by).

Nearly all the uses of the case are readily deducible from this fundamental meaning, and show nothing anomalous or difficult.

- 279. The instrumental is often used to signify accompaniment: thus, agnír devébhir á gamat (RV.), 'may Agni come hither along with the gods'; dvāpareṇa sahāyena kva yāsyasi (MBh.), 'whither wilt thou go, with Dvāpara for companion?' kathayan nāiṣadhena (MBh.), 'talking with the Nishadhan'. But the relation of simple accompaniment is more often helped to plainer expression by prepositions.
- 280. The instrumental of means or instrument or agent is yet more frequent: thus, bhadrán kárnebhih crnuyāma (RV.), 'may we hear with our ears what is propitious'; castrena nidhanam (MBh.), 'death by the sword'; kecit padbhyām hatā gajāih (MBh.), 'some were slain by the elephants with their feet'. And this passes easily over into the expression of occasion or reason (for which the ablative is more frequent): thus, krpayā, 'through pity'; tena satyena, 'by reason of that truth'.
 - 281. Of special applications, the following may be noticed:
- a. Accordance, equality, likeness, and the like: thus, samām jyótiḥ sū́ryena (AV.), 'a brightness equal with the sun'; yeshām na pādarajasā tulyaḥ (MBh.), 'to the dust of whose feet I am not equal'.
- b. Price (by which obtained): thus, $daç \hat{a}bhir kr\bar{\imath}n\bar{a}ti dhen \hat{a}bhih$ (RV.), 'he buys with ten kine'; $gav\bar{a}m$ sahasrena vikr $\bar{\imath}n\bar{\imath}te$, 'he sells for a thousand cattle'.
- c. Medium, also space or distance or road, traversed; and hence also time passed through: thus, $udn\acute{a}$ $n\acute{a}$ $v\acute{a}$ $v\acute{$
- d. The part of the body on (or by) which anything is borne is usually expressed by the instrumental: as, kukkurah skandheno 'hyate (H.), 'a dog is carried on the shoulder'; and this construction is extended to such cases as $tulay\bar{a}$ kṛtam (H.), 'put on (i. e. so as to be carried by) a balance'.
- 282. The construction of a passive verb (or participle) with an instrumental of the agent is common from the earliest period, and becomes decidedly more so later, the passive participle with instrumental taking to no small extent the place of an active verb with its subject. Thus, yaména dattáh (RV.), 'given by Yama'; 'rṣibhir 'īdyaḥ (RV.), 'to be praised by sages'; vyādhena jālam vistīrnam (H.), 'by the hunter a net [was] spread'; teno 'ktam, 'by him [it was] said'; mayā gantavyam (H.), = 'I shall go'.

The second object of a causative verb is sometimes put in the instrumental instead of the accusative: as, pakṣibhiḥ piṇḍān khādayati, 'he causes the cakes to be eaten by the birds'.

283. Many instrumental constructions are such as call in translation for

other prepositions than 'with' or 'by'; yet the true instrumental relation is usually to be traced, especially if the etymological sense of the words be carefully considered.

More anomalously, however, the instrumental is used interchangeably with the ablative with words signifying separation: thus, vatsātr viyutāḥ (RV.), 'separated from their calves'; mā 'hām ātmānā vī rādhiṣi (AV.), 'let me not be severed from the breath of life'; sa tayā vyayujyata (MBh.), 'he was parted from her' (compare English parted with).

284. The prepositions taking the instrumental are those signifying 'with' and the like: thus, saha, with the adverbial words containing sa as an element, as sākam, sārdham, saratham; — and, in general, a word compounded with sa, sam, saha takes an instrumental as its regular and natural complement.

But also the preposition $vin\bar{a}$, 'without' (along with the compounds of vi spoken of in the preceding paragraph), takes sometimes the instrumental.

285. Uses of the Dative. The dative is the case of the indirect object — of that toward or in the direction of or in order to or for which anything is or is done (either intransitively or to a direct object).

In more physical connections, the uses of the dative approach those of the accusative (the more proper 'to'-case), and the two are sometimes interchangeable; but the general value of the dative as the 'for'-case is almost everywhere distinctly to be traced.

286. Thus, the dative is used with

- a. Words signifying give, share out, assign, and the like: thus, yố nã đầdāti sắkhye (RV.), 'who gives not to a friend'; yắchā 'smāi çắrma (RV.), 'bestow upon him protection'.
- b. Words signifying show, announce, declare, and the like: thus, āvir ebhyo abhavat sūryaḥ (RV.), 'the sun was manifested to them'; rtuparṇam bhīmāya pratyavedayan (MBh.), 'they announced Rituparna to Bhima'; tebhyaḥ pratijñāya (MBh.), 'having promised to them'.
- c. Words signifying give attention, have a regard or feeling, and the like: thus, niveçāya mano dadhuḥ (MBh.), 'they set their minds upon encamping'; māté 'va putrébhyo mṛḍa (AV.), 'be gracious as a mother to her sons'; kim asmābhyam hṛṇīṣe (RV.), 'why art thou angry at us?'
- d. Words signifying inclination, obeisance, and the like: thus, máhyam namantām pradiçaç cátasraḥ (RV.), 'let the four quarters bow themselves to me'; devebhyo namaskṛtya (MBh.), 'having paid homage to the gods'.
- e. Words signifying hurling or casting: as $y \ell na$ $d\bar{u} d\dot{\tau} ce$ $\Delta syasi$ (AV.), 'with which thou hurlest at the impious'.

In some of these constructions the genitive and locative are also used: see below.

287. In its more distinctive sense, as signifying for, for the benefit of, with reference to, and the like, the dative is used freely, and in a great variety of constructions. And this use passes over into that of the dative of

end or purpose, which is extremely common. Thus, isum kṛṇvānắ âsanāya (AV.), 'making an arrow for hurling'; gṛṇṇẩmi te sāubhagatváya hâstam (RV.), 'I take thy hand in order to happiness'; rāṣṭrấya māhyam badhyatān sa-pātnebhyah parābhūve (AV.), 'be it bound on in order to royalty for me, in order to destruction for my enemies'. Such a dative is much used predicatively (and oftenest with the copula omitted), in the sense of 'makes for', 'tends toward'; also 'is intended for', and so 'must'; or 'is liable to', and so 'can'. Thus, upadeço mūrkhāṇām prakopāya na cāntaye (H.), 'good counsel [tends] to the exasperation, not the conciliation, of fools'; sa ca tasyāh samtosāya nā 'bhavat (H.), 'and he was not to her satisfaction'; sugopá asi nā dābhāya (RV.), thou art a good herdsman, not one for cheating' (i. e. not to be cheated).

These uses of the dative are in the older language especially illustrated by the dative infinitives, for which see chap. XIII.

- 288. The dative is not used with prepositions.
- 289. Uses of the Ablative. The ablative is the 'from'-case, in the various senses of that preposition: it is used to express removal, separation, distinction, issue, and the like.
- **290.** The ablative is used where expulsion, removal, distinction, release, protection, and other kindred relations are expressed: thus, $t\acute{e}$ sedhanti pathó $v\acute{r}kam$ (AV.), 'they drive away the wolf from the path'; $m\acute{a}$ prå gāma patháh (RV.), 'may we not go away from the path': $\bar{a}r\acute{e}$ asmád astu hetíh (AV.), 'far from us be your missile'; $p\bar{a}t\acute{a}m$ no $v\acute{r}k\bar{a}t$ (RV.), 'save us from the wolf'.
- 291. The ablative is used where procedure or issue from something as from a source or starting-point is signified: thus, cukrā kṛṣṇād ajaniṣta (RV.), 'the bright one has been born from the black one'; tobhāt krodhaḥ prabhavati (MBh.), 'passion arises from greed'; vātāt te prāṇām avidam (AV.), 'I have won thy life-breath from the wind'; yé prācyā dicó abhidāsanty asmān (AV.), 'who attack us from the eastern quarter'; tac chrutvā sakhīgaṇāt (MBh.), 'having heard that from the troop of friends'; vāyur antarikṣād abhāṣata (MBh.), 'the wind spoke from the sky'.

Hence also, procedure as from a cause or occasion is signified by the ablative: this is especially frequent in the later language, and in technical phraseology is a standing construction; it borders on instrumental constructions. Thus, vájrasya cásnād dadāra (RV.), 'from (by reason of) the fury of the thunderbolt he burst asunder; yasya danādabhayāt sarve dharmam anurudhyanti (MBh.), 'from fear of whose rod all are constant to duty'; akāramicritatvād ekārasya (Tribh.), 'because e contains an element of a'.

Perhaps by a further modification of this construction (the effect following the cause), the ablative also in technical language signifies 'after': thus, $sak\bar{a}r\bar{a}t$, 'after s'.

- 292. One or two special applications of the ablative construction are to be noticed:
 - a. The ablative with words implying fear (terrified recoil from): thus,

tásyā jātáyāḥ sárvam abibhet (AV.), 'everything was afraid of her at her birth'; yásmād réjanta kṛṣṭâyaḥ (RV.), 'at whom mortals tremble'; yuṣmâd bhiyá (RV.), 'through fear of you'.

b. The ablative of comparison (distinction from): thus, prå ririce divå indrah pṛthivyāh (RV.), 'Indra is greater than the heaven and the earth'. With a comparative (or other word used in a kindred way), the ablative is the regular and almost constant construction: thus, svādôh svādāyah (RV.), 'sweeter than the sweet'; kim tasmād duhkhataram (MBh.), 'what is more painful than that?' mitrād anyah (H.), 'any other than a friend'; nāiṣadhād anyam (MBh.), 'another than the Nishadhan'; sa matto mahān, 'he is greater than l'; tâd anyātra tvān nī dadhmasi (AV.), 'we set this down elsewhere (away) from thee'; pūrvā vīçvasmād bhūvanāt (RV.), 'earlier than all beings'.

Occasionally, a partitive genitive is used with the comparative (as with the superlative); or an instrumental (of holding together the things compared).

- 293. The ablative is used with a variety of prepositions and words sharing a prepositional character; but all these have rather an adverbial value, as strengthening or defining the 'from'-relation, than any proper governing force. Thus:
- a. In the Veda, ádhi and pári are much used as directing and strengthening adjuncts with the ablative: as, jūtó himávatas pári (AV.), 'born from the Himalaya (forth)'; samudrád ádhi jajñiṣe (AV.), 'thou art born from the ocean'; cárantam pári tasthúṣaḥ (RV.), 'moving forth from that which stands fast'.
- b. Also purá (and purás), in the sense of 'forward from', and hence 'before': as, purá járasaḥ (RV.), 'before old age': and hence also, with words of protection and the like, 'from': as cacamānāḥ purá nidāḥ (RV.), 'setting in security from ill-will'.
- c. Also \dot{a} , in the sense of 'hither from, all the way from': as, \dot{a} $m\dot{a}l\bar{a}d$ and cusyatu (AV.), 'let it dry completely up from the root'; $t\dot{a}sm\bar{a}d$ \dot{a} nadyù $n\dot{a}ma$ stha (AV.), 'since that time ye are called rivers'. But usually, and especially in the later language, the measurement of interval implied in \dot{a} is reversed in direction, and the construction means 'all the way to, until': as, \dot{a} 'syá yajñásyo 'drcah (VS.), 'until the end of this sacrifice'; \ddot{a} sodaçāt (M.), 'till the sixteenth year'; \ddot{a} pradānāt (\dot{Q} .), 'until her marriage'.
- d. Other prepositional constructions offer little subject for remark: $vin\bar{a}$ takes the ablative as well as instrumental (284); rte in the older language usually has the ablative, in the later the accusative.
- 294. Uses of the Genitive. The proper value of the genitive is adjectival; it belongs to and qualifies a noun, designating something relating to the latter in a manner which the nature of the case, or the connection, defines more nearly. Other genitive constructions, with adjective or verb or preposition, appear to arise out of this by a more or less distinctly traceable connection.

The use of the genitive has become much extended, espe-

cially in the later language, by attribution of a noun-character to the adjective, and by pregnant verbal construction, so that it often bears the aspect of being a substitute for other cases — as dative, instrumental, locative.

295. The genitive in its normal adjective construction is classifiable into the usual varieties, as: genitive of possession or appurtenance, including the complement of implied relation — this is, as elsewhere, the commonest of all; the so-called partitive genitive; the subjective and objective genitives; and so on. Genitives of appellation ('city of Rome'), material, and characteristic ('man of honor'), do not occur. Examples are: indrasya vājraḥ, 'Indra's thunderbolt'; pitā putrāṇām, 'father of sons'; putraḥ pituḥ, 'son of the father'; pituḥ kāmaḥ putrasya, 'the father's love of the son'; ke naḥ, 'which of us'; catam dāsīnām, 'a hundred female slaves'.

The expression of possession etc. on the part of pronouns is made almost entirely by the genitive case. and not by a derived possessive adjective (516).

296. The genitive is dependent on an adjective:

- a. In part, by a construction similar to that of verbs which take a genitive object: thus, $abhij\tilde{n}\bar{a}$ $r\bar{a}jadharm\bar{a}n\bar{a}m$, 'understanding the duties of a king'.
- b. In great part, by a transfer of the possessive genitive from noun to adjective, the adjective being treated as if it had noun-value: thus, tasya samah or anurūpah or sadrçah, 'resembling him' (i. e. his like); tasya priyā, 'dear to him' (his dear one); tasyā 'viditam, 'unknown to him' (his unknown thing); hāvyaç carsaṇēnām (RV.), 'to be sacrificed to by mortals' (their object of sacrifice); ēpsito naranārēṇām (MBh.), 'desired of men and women' (their object of desire); yasya kasya prasūtah (H.), 'of whomsoever born' (his son).
- c. The so-called partitive genitive with a superlative, or another word of similar value, is a matter of course: thus, crestham vīrānām, 'best of heroes'; vīrūdhām vīryavatī (AV.), 'of plants the mighty (mightiest) one'.
- d. Adjectives meaning 'capable', 'worthy', 'full', and a few others, take the genitive by a more original and proper right.

297. The genitive as object of a verb is:

a. A possessive genitive of the recipient, by pregnant construction, with verbs signifying give, impart, communicate, and the like: thus, $var\bar{a}n$ $pra-d\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ 'sya (MBh.), 'having bestowed gifts upon him' (made them his by bestowal); $r\bar{a}j\tilde{n}o$ niveditam (H.), 'it was made known to the king' (made his by knowledge).

This construction, by which the genitive becomes substitute for a dative or locative, abounds in the later language, and is extended sometimes to problematic and difficult cases.

b. A (in most cases, probably) partitive genitive, as a less complete or less absolute object than an accusative: thus, with verbs meaning partake (eat, drink, etc.), as piba sutasya (AV.), 'drink (of) the Soma'; madhvah pāyaya (RV.), 'cause to drink the sweet draught'; — with verbs meaning

impart (of the thing imparted) etc., as dådātā no amṛtasya (RV.), 'bestow upon us immortality'; — with verbs meaning enjoy, be satisfied or filled with: as mātsy āndhasaḥ (RV.), 'do thou enjoy the juice'; — with verbs meaning to perceive, note, care for, regard with feelings of various kinds: as, vāsiṣṭhasya stuvatā indro acrot (RV.), Indra listened to Vasishtha who was praising him'; yāthā māma smārāt (AV.), 'that he may think of me'; tasya cukopa (MBh.), 'he was angry at him'; bibhīmas tava (MBh.), 'we are afraid of thee'.

- c. A genitive of more doubtful character, with verbs meaning to rule or have authority, as $tv\acute{a}m$ icise $v\acute{a}s\~{u}n\~{a}m$ (RV.), 'thou art lord of good things'; $y\acute{a}th\~{a}$ 'h\acute{a}m $es\acute{a}m$ $vir\acute{a}j\~{a}ni$ (AV.), 'that I may rule over them'; with verbs meaning throw at, injure, as $y\acute{a}s$ ta $\acute{a}syat$ (AV.), 'whoever hurled at thee'; and with some others.
- 298. A genitive in its usual possessive sense is often found as predicate, and not seldom with the copula omitted: thus, yáthá 'so máma kévalaḥ (AV.), 'that thou mayest be wholly mine'; sarvāḥ sampattayas tasya samtuṣṭam yasya mānasam (H.), 'all good fortunes are his who has a contented mind'.
- 299. The prepositional constructions of the genitive are for the most part with such prepositions as are really noun-cases, and have the government of such: thus, agre, arthe, krte, and the like; also with other prepositional words which, in the general looseness of use of the genitive, have become assimilated to these. A few more real prepositions take the genitive: either usually, like upári, 'above', or occasionally, like adhás, antár, áti.

A genitive is used in the older language with certain adverbs of time: thus, sakrd āhnaḥ (RV.), 'once a day'; trih samvatsarasya, 'thrice a year'; idānīm āhnaḥ (RV.), 'at this time of the day'.

300. The genitive is used adverbially hardly at all; a few genitives of time occur in the older language: as aktos, 'by night', vastos, 'by day'.

A genitive of accompanying circumstance, with a qualifying word, is sometimes used absolutely, instead of a locative (303 b); but this construction is unknown in the earlier language, and rare in the later. It is said by the grammarians to convey an implication of contempt: thus, $v\bar{a}idarbhy\bar{a}l$, $preksam\bar{a}n\bar{a}y\bar{a}h$ panakālam amanyata (MBh.), 'he thought it a time for staking at play, while the Vidarbhan was looking on' (or, in spite of it); but it is found without any such implication: thus, $sankhy\bar{a}sy\bar{a}mi$ phalāny asya pacyatas te (MBh.), 'I will count its fruits while you look on'.

301. Uses of the Locative. The locative is properly the 'in'-case, the case expressing situation or location; but its sphere of use has been somewhat extended, so as to touch and overlap the boundaries of other cases, for which it seems to be a substitute.

Unimportant variations of the sense of 'in' are those of 'amid' or 'among', 'on', and 'at'. Of course, also, situation in time as well as place is indicated by the case; and it is applied

to yet less physical relations, to sphere of action and feeling and knowledge, to state of things, to accompanying circumstance; and out of this last grows the frequent use of the locative as the case absolute.

Moreover, by a pregnant construction, the locative is used to denote the place of rest or cessation of action or motion ('into' or 'on to' instead of 'in' or 'on'; German in with accusative instead of dative: compare English there for thither).

302. The locative of situation in space hardly needs illustration. An example or two are: $y \in dev \acute{a} \ divi \ sth \acute{a} \ (AV.)$, 'which of you gods are in heaven'; na devesu na yaksesu tūdrk (MBh.), 'not among gods or Yakshas is such a one'; párvatasya prsthé (RV.), 'on the ridge of the mountain'; vidáthe santu deváh (RV.), 'may the gods be at the assembly'; daçame pade (MBh.), 'at the tenth step'.

The locative of time indicates the point of time at which anything takes place: thus, asyā uṣāso vyūṣṭāu (RV.), 'at the shining forth of this dawn'; etasminn eva kāle (MBh.), 'at just that time'; dvādaçe varshe (MBh.), 'in the tenth year'. But the accusative is occasionally used in this sense, instead of the locative.

- **303.** The locative of sphere or condition or circumstance is of very frequent use: thus, máde áhim índro jaghāna (RV.), 'in fury Indra slew the dragon'; mitrásya sumatāú syāma (RV.), 'may we be in the favor of Mitra'; te vacane ratam (MBh.), 'delighted in thy words'.
- a. This construction is, on the one hand, generalized into an expression for 'in the matter or case of', or 'with reference to, respecting', and takes in the later language a very wide range, touching upon genitive and dative constructions: thus, ϵ 'mâm bhaja grầme âçvesu gosu (AV.), 'be generous to him in retainers, in horses, in cattle'; tâm ît sakhitvâ $\bar{\imath}$ mahe (RV.), 'him we beg for friendship'; $ny\bar{a}yo$ 'yam mayā drsta \bar{a} nayane tava (MBh.), 'this means was devised by me for (with reference to) bringing thee hither'; satītve $k\bar{\alpha}$ raṇam striyāḥ (H.), 'the cause of (in the case of) a woman's chastity'; na çakto 'bhavan nivāraṇe (MBh.), 'he was not capable of preventing'.
- b. On the other hand, the expression by the locative of a condition of things in which anything takes place, or of a conditioning or accompanying circumstance, passes over into a well-marked absolute construction, which is known even in the earliest stage of the language, but becomes more frequent later.

Transitional examples are: have tvā sara addite have madhyandine divah (RV.), 'I call to thee at the arisen sun (when the sun has risen), I call at midtime of the day'; aparādhe kṛte 'pi ca na me kopaḥ (MBh.), 'and even in case of an offense committed, there is no anger on my part'.

The normal condition of the absolute construction is with a participle accompanying the noun: thus, stīrné barhísi samidhāné agnāu (RV.), 'when the barhis is strewn and the fire kindled'; kāle cubhe prāpte (MBh.), 'a propitious time having arrived'; avasannāyām rātrāv astācalacūdāvalambini can-

dramasi (H.), 'the night having drawn to a close, and the moon resting on the summit of the western mountain'.

But the noun may be wanting, or may be replaced by an adverbial substitute (as evam, tathā, iti): thus, asmābhih samanujñāte (MBh.), '[it] being fully assented to by us'; evam ukte kalinā (MBh.), 'it being thus spoken by Kali'; tathā 'nuṣṭhite (H.), 'it being thus accomplished'. So likewise the participle may be wanting (a copula sati or the like being to be supplied): thus, dūre bhaye, 'the cause of fear being remote'; while, on the other hand, the participle sati etc. is sometimes redundantly added to the other participle: thus, tathā kṛte sati, 'it being thus done'.

- c. The locative is frequently used adverbially or prepositionally: thus, arthe or krte, 'in the matter of, for the sake of'.
- 304. The pregnant construction by which the locative comes to express the goal or object of motion or action or feeling exercised is not uncommon from the earliest time. It is by no means to be sharply distinguished from the ordinary construction; the two pass into one another, with a doubtful territory between. It occurs:
- a. Especially with verbs, as of arriving, sending, placing, communicating, bestowing, and many others, in situations where an accusative or a dative (or a genitive, 297a) might be looked for, and exchangeable with them: thus, så id devėsu gachati (RV.), 'that, truly, goes to (to be among) the gods'; imám no yajňám amítesu dhehi (RV.), 'set this offering of ours among the immortals'; yá āsiñcánti rásam óṣadhīṣu (AV), 'who pour in the juice into the plants' (or, the juice that is in the plants); mā prayache "çvare dhanam (H.), 'do not offer wealth to a lord'; papāta medinyām (MBh.), 'he fell to (so as to be upon) the earth'; skandhe kṛtvā (H.), 'putting on the shoulder'; saṃçrutya pūrvam asmāsu (MBh.), 'having before promised us'.
- b. Often also with nouns and adjectives in similar constructions (the instances not always easy to separate from those of the locative meaning 'with reference to': above, 303 a): thus, $day\bar{a}$ $sarvabh\bar{u}tesu$, 'compassion toward all creatures'; $anur\bar{a}ga\dot{m}$ $n\bar{a}isadhe$ (MBh.), 'affection for the Nishadhan'; $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}$ samyagvrttah $sad\bar{a}$ tvayi (MBh.), 'the king always behaved properly toward thee'.
- 305. The prepositions construed with the locative stand to it only in the relation of adverbial elements strengthening and directing its meaning.

In the Veda, such locative constructions are most frequent with \dot{a} and $\dot{a}dhi$: thus, $m\dot{a}rtyesv$ \dot{a} , 'among mortals'; $prthivy\dot{a}m$ $\dot{a}dhy$ $\dot{o}sadh\bar{u}t$, 'the plants upon the earth'; $t\dot{e}jo$ $m\dot{a}yi$ $dh\bar{a}ray\dot{a}$ 'dhi (AV.), 'establish glory in me': — less often, $\dot{u}pa$ and $\dot{u}pi$ are used in the same way. In all ages of the language, $ant\dot{a}r$, 'within, among', is construed with the locative.

306. Declensional forms are made by the addition of endings to the stem, or base of inflection.

The stem itself, however, in many words and classes

of words, is liable to variation, especially as assuming a stronger form in some cases and a weaker in others.

And between stem and ending are sometimes inserted connecting elements (or what, in the recorded condition of the language, have the aspect of being such).

Respecting all these points, the details of treatment, as exhibited by each class of words or by single words, will be given in the following chapters. Here, however, it is desirable also to give a brief general view of them.

307. Endings: Singular. In the nominative, the usual masc. and fem. ending is s— which, however, is wanting in derivative \bar{a} and $\bar{\imath}$ -stems; it is also euphonically lost (150) by consonant-stems. Neuters in general have no ending, but show in this case the bare stem; a-stems alone add m (as in the accus. masc.). Among the pronouns, am is a frequent masc. and fem. nom. ending (and is found even in du. and pl.); and neuters show a form in d.

In the accusative, m or am is the masc, and fem. ending — am being added after a consonant and r and after $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{u} in the radical division, and m elsewhere after vowels. The neuter accusative is like the nominative.

The instrumental ending for all genders alike is \bar{a} . With final i and u-vowels, the \bar{a} is variously combined, and in the older language it is sometimes lost by contraction with them. Stems in a make the case end in ena (sometimes $en\bar{a}$ in V.), and those in \bar{a} make it end in $ay\bar{a}$; but instances occur, in the early language, of immediate addition of \bar{a} to both a and \bar{a} .

The dative ending is in general e; and with it likewise the modes of combination of i and u final are various (and disappearance by contraction not unknown in the oldest language). The a-stems are quite irregular in this case, making it end in $\bar{a}ya$ — excepted is the pronominal element sma, which combines (apparently) with e to $sm\bar{a}i$. In the personal pronouns is found bhyam (or hyam).

A fuller ending $\bar{a}i$ (like gen.-abl. $\bar{a}s$ and loc. $\bar{a}m$: see below) belongs to feminine stems only. It is taken (with interposed y) by the great class of those in derivative \bar{a} ; also by those in derivative \bar{i} , and (as reckoned in the later language) in derivative \bar{u} . And later it is allowed to be taken by feminine stems in radical \bar{i} and \bar{u} , and even by those in i and u: such have it in the earliest language in only rare and exceptional instances.

The ablative has a special ending, d (or t), only in

a-stems, masc. and neut., the a being lengthened before it (except in the personal pronouns of 1st and 2d person; and these have the same ending in the pl., and even, in the old language, in the dual). Everywhere else, the ablative is identical with the genitive.

The genitive of a-stems (and of one pronominal u-stem, amu) adds sya. Elsewhere, the usual abl.-gen. ending is as: but its irregularities of treatment in combination with a stem-final are considerable. With i and u, it is either directly added (only in the old language), added with interposed n, or fused to es and os respectively. With r (or ar) it yields us (or ur: 169, end).

The fuller $\bar{a}s$ is taken by feminine stems precisely as $\bar{a}i$

is taken in the dative: see above.

The locative ending is i in consonant and r and a-stems (fusing with a to e in the latter). The i and u-stems (unless the final vowel is saved by an interposed n) make the case end in $\bar{a}u$; but the Veda has some relics or traces of the older forms $(ay-i\ [?]$ and av-i) out of which this appears to have sprung. Vedic locatives from i-stems end also in \bar{a} and $\bar{\imath}$. The pronominal element sma makes the locative smin. Stems in an in the older language often lose the i, and use the bare stem as locative.

The ending $\bar{a}m$ is the locative correspondent to dat. $\bar{a}i$ and abl.-gen. $\bar{a}s$, and is taken under the same circumstances: see above.

The vocative (unless by accent: 314) is distinguished from the nominative only in the singular, and not quite always there. In a-stems, it is the unaltered stem; and so also in most consonant-stems: but neuters in an and in may drop the n; and the oldest language has sometimes a vocative in s from stems in nt and ins. Stems in r change this to ar. In masc. and fem. i and u-stems, the case ends respectively in e and o; in neuters, in the same or in i and u. Stems in \bar{u} change \bar{u} to e; derivative \bar{i} and \bar{u} are shortened; radical stems in long vowels use the nominative form.

308. Dual. The dual has — except so far as the vocative is sometimes distinguished from nom. and accus. by a difference of accent: 314 — only three case-forms: one for nom., accus., and voc.; one for instr., dat., and abl.; and one for gen. and loc. (occasional confusion of the uses of the second and third is seen earlier).

But the pronouns of 1st and 2d person in the older language distinguish five dual cases: see 492.

The masc. and fem. ending for nom.-accus.-voc. is in the later language usually $\bar{a}u$; but instead of this the Veda has prevailingly \bar{a} . Stems in \bar{a} make the case end in e. Stems in i and u, masc. and fem., lengthen those vowels; and derivative \bar{i} in

the Veda remains regularly unchanged, though later it adds $\bar{a}u$. The neuter ending is only \bar{i} ; with final a this combines to e.

The universal ending for the instr.-dat.-abl. is $bhy\bar{a}m$, before which final a is made long. In the Veda, it is often to be read as two syllables, $bhi\bar{a}m$.

The universal ending of gen.-loc. is os: before this, a and \bar{a} alike become e (ai).

309. Plural. In the nominative, the general masc. and fem. ending is as. The old language, however, often makes the case in $\bar{a}sas$ instead of $\bar{a}s$ from a-stems, and in a few examples also from \bar{a} -stems. From derivative $\bar{\imath}$ -stems, $\bar{\imath}s$ instead of yas is the regular and usual Vedic form. Pronominal a-stems make the masc. nom. in e.

The neuter ending (which is accusative also) is in general i; and before this the final of a stem is apt to be strengthened, by prolongation of a vowel, or by insertion of a nasal, or by both. But in the Veda the hence resulting forms in $\bar{a}ni$, $\bar{i}ni$, $\bar{u}ni$ are frequently abbreviated by loss of the ni, and sometimes by further shortening of the preceding vowel.

The accusative ending is also as in consonant-stems and in the radical division of $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{u} -stems (and in the old language even elsewhere). Stems in short vowels lengthen those vowels and add in the masculine n (for ns, of which abundant traces remain), and in the feminine s. In the neuter, this case is like the nominative.

In the instrumental, the case-ending is everywhere bhis except in a-stems, where in the later language the case always ends in $\bar{a}is$, but in the earlier either in $\bar{a}is$ or the more regular ebhis ($\bar{a}bhis$ in the two personal pronouns; and the pronominal stem a [501] makes ebhis only).

The dative and ablative have in the plural the same form, with the ending bhyas (in Veda often bhias), before which only a is altered, becoming e. But the two personal pronouns distinguish the two cases, having for the ablative the singular ending (as above pointed out), and for the dative the peculiar bhyam (almost never in V. bhiam), which they extend also into the singular.

Of the genitive, the universal ending is $\bar{a}m$; which (except optionally after radical $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{u} , and in a few scattering Vedic instances) takes after final vowels an inserted consonant, s in the pronominal declension, n elsewhere; before n, a short vowel is lengthened; before s, a becomes e. In the Veda, it is very frequently to be pronounced in two syllables, as a-am.

The locative ending is su, without any exceptions, and the only change before it is that of a to e.

The vocative, as in the dual, differs from the nominative only by its accent.

310. The normal scheme of endings, as recognized by the native grammarians (and conveniently to be assumed as the basis of special descriptions), is this:

| slidw . | Singular. | Dual. | Plural. |
|----------------|-----------|---------------------------|------------|
| | m.f. n. | m.f. n. | m.f. n. |
| N. | s m | $\vec{a}u$ \vec{i} | as i |
| \mathbf{A} . | am | $\bar{a}u$ $\bar{\imath}$ | as i |
| I. | \bar{a} | $bhy\bar{a}m$ | bhis |
| D. | e | bhyām | bhyas |
| Ab. | as | $bhy\bar{a}m$ | bhyas |
| G. | as | 08 | $\bar{a}m$ |
| $\mathbf{L}.$ | i | os | su |
| | | | |

It is taken in bulk by the consonantal stems, and by the radical division of $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{u} -stems; by other vowel-stems, with more or less considerable variations and modifications. The endings which have almost or quite unbroken range, through stems of all classes, are $bhy\bar{a}m$ and os of the dual, and bhis, bhyas, $\bar{a}m$, and su of the plural.

311. Variation of Stem. By far the most important matter under this head is the distinction made in large classes of words (chiefly those ending in consonants) between strong and weak stem-forms - a distinction standing in evident connection with the phenomena of accent. nom. and accus. sing. and du. and the nom. pl. (the five cases whose endings are never accented: 316a, the stem often has a stronger or fuller form than in the rest: thus, for example: राजानम् rājān-am, राजानी rājān-āu, राजानम् rājān-as, against राज्ञा rājñ-ā and राजिभस् rāja-bhis; or मङ्गलम् mahant-am and त्र्तम् tudant-am against महता mahat-a and तदता tudat-ā. These five, therefore, are called the cases with strong stem, or, briefly, the strong cases; and the rest are called the cases with weak stem, or the weak cases. And the weak cases, again, are in some classes of words to be distinguished into cases of weakest stem, or weakest cases, and cases of middle stem, or middle cases: the former

having endings beginning with a vowel (instr. to loc. sing., gen.-loc. du., gen. pl.); the latter, with a consonant (inst.-dat.-abl. du., instr., dat.-abl., and loc. pl.).

The class of strong cases, as above defined, belongs only to masculine and feminine stems. In neuter inflection, the only strong cases are the nom.-acc. pl.; while, in those stems that make a distinction of weakest and middle form, the nom.-acc. du. belong to the weakest class, and the same cases sing. to the middle: thus, for example, compare प्रत्यांच pratyañc-i, nom.-acc. pl. neut., and प्रत्याचम pratyañc-as, nom. pl. masc.; प्रतीची pratīc-ī, nom.-acc. du. neut., and प्रतीचोम pratīc-os, gen.-loc. du.; प्रत्याच pratyak, nom.-acc. sing. neut., and प्रत्यागम pratyag-bhis, instr. pl.

Even in words which exhibit no variation of stem, it is often convenient to distinguish the same groups of cases by the names strong and weak and so on.

312. Other variations concern chiefly the final vowel of a stem, and may be mainly left to be pointed out in detail below. Of consequence enough to mention here is only the guna-strengthening of a final i or u, which in the later language is always made before as of nom. pl. and e of dat. sing. in masc. and fem.; in the Veda, it does not always take place; nor is it forbidden in dat. sing. neut. also; and it is seen sometimes in loc. sing. Final r has guna-strengthening in loc. sing.

313. Insertions between Stem and Ending. After vowel-stems, an added n often makes its appearance before an ending. This appendage is of least questionable origin in nom.-acc. pl. neut., where the interchange in the old language of the forms of a and i-stems with those of an and in-stems is pretty complete; and the u-stems follow their analogy. Elsewhere, it is most widely and firmly established in the gen. pl., where in the great mass of cases, and from the earliest period, the ending is virtually $n\bar{a}m$ after a vowel. In the i and u-stems of the later language, the instr. sing. of masc. and neut. is separated by its presence from the fem., and it is in the other weakest cases made a usual distinction of neuter forms from masculine; but the aspect of the matter in the Veda is very different; there the appearance of the n is everywhere sporadic; the neuter shows no special inclination to take it, and it is not excluded even from the feminine. In the ending ena from a-stems (later invariable, earlier predominating), its presence appears to have worked the most considerable transformation of original shape.

The place of n before gen. pl. $\bar{a}m$ is taken by s in pronominal a and \bar{a} -stems. The y after \bar{a} before the endings $\bar{a}i$, $\bar{a}s$, and $\bar{a}m$ is most probably an insertion, such as is made elsewhere (258).

Accent in Declension.

314. As a rule without exception, the vocative, if accented at all, is accented on the first syllable.

And in the Veda (the case is a rare one), whenever a syllable written as one is to be pronounced as two by restoration of a semivowel to vowel form, the first element only has the vocative accent, and the syllable as written is circumflex (by 84a): thus, $dy\bar{a}us$ (i. e. $dt\bar{a}us$) when dissyllable, but $dy\bar{a}us$ when monosyllable; $jy\bar{d}ke$ when for $jt\bar{a}ke$.

But the vocative is accented only when it stands at the beginning of a sentence — or, in verse, at the beginning also of a metrical division or $p\bar{a}da$; elsewhere it is accentless or enclitic: thus, $\acute{a}gne~y\acute{a}m~yaj\~{n}\acute{a}m~paribh\acute{a}r~\acute{a}si~(RV.)$, 'O Agni! whatever offering thou protectest'; but $\acute{u}pa~tv\bar{a}$ 'gna \acute{e} 'masi (RV.), 'unto thee, Agni, we come'.

A word qualifying a vocative — usually an adjective, but not seldom also a noun in the genitive (very rarely in any other case) — constitutes, so far as accent is concerned, a unity with it: thus, såkhe vaso or våso sakhe, 'excellent friend'; sūno sahasah or sāhasah sūno, 'oh son of might'; and sudītī sūno sahaso didīhi (RV.), 'with excellent brightness, son of might, shine forth'.

Two coördinate vocatives, whether noun or adjective, have usually the same accent; but the Vedic texts furnish not a few irregular exceptions to this rule.

For brevity, the vocative dual and plural will be given in the paradigms below along with the nominative, without taking the trouble to specify in each instance that, if the latter be accented elsewhere than on the first syllable, the accent of the vocative is different.

315. As regards the other cases, rules for change of accent in declension have to do only with monosyllables and with stems of more than one syllable which are accented on the final; for if a stem be accented on the penult, or any other syllable further back — as in sárpant, vári, bhágavant, sumánas, sahásravāja — the accent remains upon that syllable through the whole inflection (except in the vocative, as explained in the preceding paragraph).

The only exceptions are a few numeral stems: see below, chap. VI.

- 316. Stems accented on the final (including monosyllables) are subject to variation of accent in declension chiefly in virtue of the fact that some of the endings have, while others have not, or have in less degree, a tendency to draw the accent forward upon themselves. Thus:
- a. The endings of the nominative and accusative singular and dual and of the nominative plural have no tendency to take the accent away from the stem, and are therefore only accented when a final vowel of the stem and the vowel of the ending are blended together into a single vowel or diphthong. Thus, from dattā come dattā $(= datta + \bar{a}u)$ and dattās (= datta + as); but from nadt come nadyau (= nadt + au) and nadyau (= nadt + as).

b. All the other endings sometimes take the accent; but those beginning with a vowel do so more readily than those beginning with a consonant. Thus, from $n\bar{a}u\dot{s}$ come $n\bar{a}v\dot{a}$ and $n\bar{a}ubh\dot{s}$; from $mah\dot{a}nt$, however, come $mahat\dot{a}$ but $mah\dot{a}dbhis$.

The general rules of accent, then, may be thus stated:

317. In the declension of monosyllabic stems, the accent falls upon the ending in all the weak cases (without distinction of middle and weakest): thus, $n\bar{a}v\dot{a}$, $n\bar{a}ubhy\dot{a}m$, $n\bar{a}v\dot{a}m$, $n\bar{a}u\dot{s}u\dot{s}$; $v\bar{a}c\dot{i}$, $v\bar{a}gbh\dot{i}s$, $v\bar{a}c\dot{a}m$, $v\bar{a}k\dot{s}u\dot{s}$.

But some monosyllabic stems retain the accent throughout: thus, gobhis, $g\acute{a}v\bar{a}m$, $g\acute{o}su$. For such cases, see below, 350, 361 c, d, 375, 390, 427.

- 318. Of polysyllables ending in consonants, only a few shift the accent to the ending, and that in the weakest (not the middle) cases. Such are:
- a. Present participles in ant or at: thus, from tudant, tudata and tudatos and tudatam; but tudadbhyam and tudatsu.
- b. A few adjectives having the form of such participles, as $mahat \dot{a},$ $brhat \dot{a}s.$
- c. Bases of which the accented final loses its syllabic character by syncopation of the vowel: thus, $majj\tilde{n}\dot{a}$, $m\bar{u}rdhn\acute{e}$, $d\bar{a}mn\acute{a}s$ (from $majj\acute{a}n$ etc.: 423).

Other sporadic cases will be noticed under the different declensions.

Case forms used adverbially sometimes show a changed accent: see chap. XVI. $(1110\,\mathrm{ff.})$.

319. Of polysyllabic stems ending in accented short vowels, the final of the stem retains the accent if it retains its syllabic identity: thus, datténa and dattáya from dattá; agninā and agnáye from agni; and also dattébhyas, agnibhis, and so on. Otherwise, the accent is on the ending: and that, whether the final and the ending are combined into one, as in dattāis, dhenāú, agnin, dhenás, and so on; or whether the final is changed into a semi-vowel before the ending: thus, dhená, pitrá.

But $\bar{a}m$ of the gen. pl. from stems in i and i and i may, and in the older language always does, take the accent, though separated by n from the stem: thus, $agn\bar{i}n\dot{a}m$, $dhen\bar{u}n\dot{a}m$, $pit\bar{r}n\dot{a}m$. In RV., even derivative $\bar{\imath}$ -stems show usually the same shift: thus, $bahv\bar{i}n\dot{a}m$. Of stems in i, only numerals (chap. VI.) follow this rule: thus, $sapt\bar{a}n\dot{a}m$, $dac\bar{a}n\dot{a}m$.

320. Root-words in $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{u} as final members of compounds retain the accent throughout, not shifting it to any of the endings. And in the older language there are polysyllable words in long final vowels which follow in this respect as in others the analogy of the root-declension (below, 355 ff.). Apart from these, the treatment of stems in derivative long vowels is, as regards accent, the same as of those in short vowels — save that the tone is not thrown forward upon the ending in gen. plural.

CHAPTER V.

COVAL world religious and the second consequence of

NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES.

of and the light had required out our significance by

321. The accordance in inflection of substantive and adjective stems is so complete that the two cannot be separated in treatment from one another.

They may be classified, for convenience of description, as follows:

- I. Stems in 羽 a;
- II. Stems in \mathfrak{z} i and \mathfrak{Z} u;
- III. Stems in \overline{a} , $\overline{\xi}$ \overline{i} , and \overline{s} , \overline{u} : namely, A. radicalstems (and a few others inflected like them); B. derivative stems;
 - IV. Stems in য় r (or মারু ar);
 - V. Stems in consonants.

There is nothing absolute in this classification and arrangement; it is merely believed to be open to as few objections as any other. No general agreement has been reached among scholars as to the number and order of Sanskrit declensions. The stems in a are here treated first because of the great predominance of the class.

- 322. The division-line between substantive and adjective, always an uncertain one in early Indo-European language, is even more wavering in Sanskrit than elsewhere. There are, however, in all the declensions as divided above unless we except the stems in r or ar words which are distinctly adjectives; and, in general, they are inflected precisely like nounstems of the same final: only, among consonant-stems, there are certain sub-classes of adjective bases with peculiarities of inflection to which there is among nouns nothing corresponding. But there are also two considerable classes of adjective-compounds, requiring special notice; namely:
- 323. Compound adjectives having as final member a bare verbal root, with the value of a present participle: thus, $su-dr'\varphi$, 'well-looking'; pra-budh, 'foreknowing'; a-dr'uh, 'not hating'; veda-vid, 'Veda-knowing'; vrtra-hu, 'Vritra-slaying'; upastha-sud, 'sitting in the lap'. Every root is liable to be used in this

way, and such compounds are not infrequent in all ages of the language: see chapter on Compounds, below (XVIII.).

This class is originally and essentially only a special class of compound adjectives, since in the earliest Veda the simple as well as the compounded root was sometimes used adjectively. But the compounded root was from the beginning much more often so used, and the later the more exclusively, so that practically the class is a separate and important one.

324. Compound adjectives having a noun as final member, but obtaining an adjective sense secondarily, by having the idea of 'possession' added, and being inflected as adjectives in the three genders. Thus, $praj\bar{a}k\bar{a}ma$, 'desire of progeny', becomes an adjective meaning 'desirous (i. e. having desire) of progeny'; $sabh\bar{a}rya$ ($sa+bh\bar{a}ry\bar{a}$), 'having one's wife along'; and so on.

In a few cases, also, the final noun is syntactically object of the preceding member: thus, atimātra, 'immoderate' (ati mātram, 'beyond measure'); yūvayúddveṣas, 'driving away enemies'.

325. Hence, under each declension, we have to notice how a root or a noun-stem of that declension is inflected when final member of an adjective compound.

As to accent, it needs only to be remarked that a monosyllabic word ending a compound loses the peculiarity of monosyllabic accentuation, and does not throw the tone foward upon the ending.

Declension I.

Stems (masculine and neuter) in a.

326. This declension contains the majority of all the declined stems of the language.

Its endings deviate more widely than any others from the normal.

327. Endings: Singular. The nom. mass. has the normal ending $s_{\rm s}$

The acc. (masc. and neut.) adds m (not am); and this form has the office also of nom. neuter.

The instr. changes a to ena uniformly in the later language; and even in the oldest Vedic this is the predominant ending (in RV., eight ninths of all cases). Its final is in Vedic verse not infrequently made long $(en\bar{a})$, where favored by the metre. But the normal ending \bar{a} — thus, $yaj\tilde{n}\dot{a}$, $suh\hat{a}v\bar{a}$, $mahitv\dot{a}$ (for $yaj\tilde{n}\dot{e}na$ etc.) — is also not rare in the Veda.

The dat, has $\bar{a}ya$ (as if by adding $\bar{a}ya$ to a), alike in all ages of the language.

The abl. has t (or more probably d: it is impossible from the evidence

of the Sanskrit to tell which is the original form of the ending), before which \bar{a} is made long: this ending is found in no other noun declension, but only in the personal pronouns (of all numbers).

The gen. has sya added to the final a; and this ending is also limited to a-stems (with the single exception of the pronoun $am\acute{u}sya$: chap. VII.). Its final a is in only three cases made long in the Veda; and its y is vocalized (asia) almost as rarely.

The loc. ends in e (as if by combining the normal ending i with the final of the stem), without exception.

The voc. is the bare stem.

328. Dual. The dual endings in general are the normal ones.

The nom., acc., and voc. masc. end in the later language always in $\bar{a}u$. In the Veda, however, the usual ending is simple \bar{a} (in RV., in seven eighths of the occurrences). The same cases in the neut. end in e, which appears to be the result of fusion of the stem-final with the normal ending $\bar{\imath}$.

The instr., dat., and abl. have $bhy\bar{a}m$ (in only one or two Vedic instances resolved into $bhi\bar{a}m$), with the stem-final lengthened to \bar{a} before it.

The gen. and loc. have a y inserted after the stem-final before os (or as if the a had been changed to e). In one or two (doubtful) Vedic instances (as also in the pronominal forms enos and yos), os is substituted for the final a.

329. Plural. The nom. masc, has in the later language the normal ending as combined with the final a to $\bar{a}s$. But in the Veda the ending $\bar{a}sas$ instead is frequent (one third of the occurrences in RV., but only one twenty-fifth in the peculiar parts of AV.).

The acc. masc. ends in $\bar{a}n$ (for earlier $\bar{a}ns$, of which abundant traces are left in the Veda, and, under the disguise of apparent euphonic combination, even in the later language: see above, 208 ft.).

The nom. and acc. neut. have in the later language always the ending $\bar{a}ni$ (like the an-stems: see 421; or else with n as in the gen. pl. before normal i). But in the Veda this ending alternates with simple \bar{a} (which in RV. is to $\bar{a}ni$ as three to two, in point of frequency; in AV., as three to four).

The instr. ends later always in $\bar{a}is$; but in the Veda is found abundantly the more normal form ebhis (in RV., nearly as frequent as $\bar{a}is$; in AV., only one fifth as frequent).

The dat. and abl. have *bhyas* as ending, with e instead of the final a before it (as in the Vedic instr. ebhis, the loc. pl., the gen. loc. du. [?], and the instr. sing.). The resolution into ebhias is not infrequent in the Veda.

The gen. ends in $\bar{a}n\bar{a}m$, the final a being lengthened and having n inserted before the normal ending. The \bar{a} of the ending is not seldom (in less than half the instances) to be read as two syllables, aam: opinions are divided as to whether the resolution is historical or metrical only. A very small number (half-a-dozen) of examples of simple $\bar{a}m$ as ending instead of $\bar{a}n\bar{a}m$ occur in RV.

The loc. ends in esu — that is to say, with the normal ending, before which the stem-final is changed to e (with consequent change of s to s: 180).

Of accent in this declension, nothing requires to be said; the syllable accented in the stem retains its own accent throughout.

330. Examples of declension. As examples of the inflection of a-stems may be taken काम kắma, m., 'love'; देव devá, m., 'god'; श्रास्य āsyà, n., 'mouth'.

| Sing | gular: | | . (|
|----------|------------------------------------|----------------------|-------------------------------|
| N. | <u>कामस</u> | देवस | म्रास्यम् |
| | kámas | devás | āsyàm |
| A. | कामम् | देवम् | म्रास्यम् |
| | kåmam | devám | $ar{a}$ syà m |
| 1. | कामेन | देवेन | म्रास्येन |
| | $k \stackrel{\prime}{a} mena$ | devéna | āsyèna |
| D. | कामाय | देवाय | म्रास्याय |
| | k and a m ar a y a | deváya | $ar{a}sy\grave{a}ya$ |
| Ab. | कामात् | देवात् | म्रास्यात् |
| | $k \stackrel{\prime}{a} m ar{a} t$ | devlpha t | āsyat |
| G. | कामस्य | देवस्य | म्रास्यस्य |
| | kämasya | devásya | $ar{a}$ sy \grave{a} sy a |
| L. | कामे | देवे | म्रास्ये |
| | $k \stackrel{\prime}{a} m e$ | devé | $ar{a}sy\grave{e}$ |
| v. | काम | देव | म्रास्य |
| | $k \stackrel{\prime}{a} m a$ | $\dot{d}\acute{e}va$ | ásya |
| Dua | 1: | | |
| N. A. V. | कामी | देवी | म्रास्ये |
| | kämāu | $devar{a}\acute{u}$ | $ar{a}sy\grave{e}$ |
| I.D.Ab. | कामाभ्याम् | देवाभ्याम् | म्रास्याभ्याम् |
| | kamābhyām | $devlpha bhyar{a}m$ | āsy à bhyām` |
| G. L. | कामयोम् | देवयोस | म्रास्ययोस् |
| | kämayos | $dev\'{a}yos$ | āsyàyos |
| Plur | al: | | |
| N.V. | कामाम् | देवास् | म्रास्यानि |
| | kämās` | dev'ás` | āsy à ni |

| A . | कामान् 🌙 | देवान् | म्रास्यानि |
|------------|-----------------------------------|------------------|--------------------|
| | kämān | deván | $ar{a}sy\dot{a}ni$ |
| I. I. | कामैस् | देवीम् | ग्रा स्यैस् |
| | kāmāis | $devar{a}is$ | āsyāis |
| D. Ab. | कामेभ्यम् | देवेभ्यम् | म्रास्येभ्यस् |
| ann owns | kämebhyas | devébhyas | āsyèbhyas |
| G. | कामानाम् | देवानाम् | म्रास्यानाम् |
| | $k \dot{ar{a}} m ar{a} n ar{a} m$ | devänām | āsyānām |
| L. | कामेष् | देवेषु devéşu | म्रास्येषु |
| | kāmeșu | devéşu | āsyèṣu |

Examples of the peculiar Vedic forms are:

Sing.: instr. $ravathen\bar{a}$, $yaj\tilde{n}\tilde{a}$ (such genitive forms as accent constant constan

Du.: nom. etc. masc. $dev\vec{a}$; gen.-loc. pastyòs (stem pastyò).

Pl.: nom.-voc. masc. $dev\acute{a}sas$; neut. $yug\acute{a}$; instr. $dev\acute{e}bhis$; gen. $car\acute{a}th\bar{a}m$, $dev\acute{a}naam$.

331. Among nouns, there are no irregularities in this declension. For irregular numeral bases in a (or an), see the next chapter. For the irregularities of pronominal stems in a, which are more or less fully shared also by a few adjectives of pronominal kindred, see the chapter on Pronouns.

Adjectives.

- 332. Original adjectives in a are an exceedingly large class, probably the majority of all adjectives. There is, however, no such thing as a feminine stem in a; for the feminine, the a is changed to \bar{a} or often, though far less often, to $\bar{\imath}$; and its declension is then like that of $s\acute{e}n\bar{a}$ or dev^{i} (365). An example of the complete declension of an adjective a-stem in the three genders will be given below (371).
- **333.** There are no verbal roots ending in a. But a is sometimes substituted for the final \bar{a} of a root (and, more rarely, for final an or am), and it is then inflected like an ordinary adjective in a (see below, **354**).
- **334.** A noun ending in a, when occurring as final member of an adjective compound, is inflected like an original adjective in a, making its feminine likewise in \bar{a} or \bar{i} .

On the other hand, a feminine noun ending in derivative \bar{a} shortens its final to a to form a masculine and neuter base.

Declension II.

Stems (of all genders) in i and u.

335. The stems in ξ *i* and \exists *u* are inflected in so close accordance with one another that they cannot be divided into two separate declensions. They are of all the three genders, and tolerably numerous — those in ξ *i* more numerous than those in \exists *u*, especially in the feminine (there are more neuters in \exists *u* than in ξ *i*).

The endings of this declension also differ frequently and widely from the normal, and the Vedic irregularities are numerous.

336. Endings: Singular. The nom. mase, and fem. adds to the stem the normal ending s. The nom. and acc. neut. is the bare stem, without ending. In the Veda, the final u of a few neuters is lengthened (248 b): thus, $ur\dot{u}$, $pur\dot{u}$.

The acc. masc. and fem. adds m to the stem. Vedic forms in iam and uam, and, with n, inam and unam, are excessively rare, and doubtful.

The instr. fem. in the later language takes the normal ending \bar{a} simply, while the mase, and neut insert n before it, making $in\bar{a}$ and $un\bar{a}$. But in the Veda, forms in $y\bar{a}$ and $v\bar{a}$ (or $i\bar{a}$ and $u\bar{a}$) are not infrequent in mase, and neut also; while $in\bar{a}$ is found, very rarely, as a fem. ending. Moreover, fem. $y\bar{a}$ is often (in two thirds of the occurrences) contracted to \bar{i} ; and this is even sometimes shortened to i. An adverbial instr. in $uy\dot{a}$ from half-adozen stems in u occurs.

The dat. masc. and fem. gunates the final of the stem before the ending e, making aye and ave. These are the prevailing endings in the Veda likewise; but the more normal ye and ve also occur; and the fem. has in this case, as in the instr., sometimes the contracted form $\bar{\imath}$. In the later language, the neuter is required in this, as in all the other "weakest" cases, to insert n before the normal ending: but in the Veda such forms are only sporadic; and the neut. dat. has also the forms ue, ave, aye, like the other genders.

The abl. and gen. masc. and fem. have regularly, both earlier and later, the ending s with gunated vowel before it: thus, es, os; and in the Veda, the neut. forms the cases in the same way; although unas, required later, is also not infrequent (inas does not occur). But the normal forms yas (or ias) and vas (or uas) are also frequent in both masc. and neut. As masc. ending, unas occurs twice in RV.

The loc. masc. and fem. has for regular ending in the later language $\bar{a}u$, replacing both finals, i and u. And this is in the Veda also the most frequent ending; but, beside it, the i-stems form (about half as often in RV.) their loc. in \bar{a} : thus, $agn\dot{a}$; and this is found once even in the neut.

The RV. has a number of examples of mase, and neut, locatives in avi (the normal ending and the u gunated before it) from u-stems; and certain doubtful traces of a corresponding ayi from i-stems. Half-a-dozen locatives in $\bar{\imath}$ (regarded by the Vedic grammarians as pragrhya or uncombinable: 138 d) are made from i-stems. The later language requires the neuter locatives to be made ini and uni; but the former never occurs in the oldest texts, and the latter only very rarely.

The later grammar allows the dat., abl.-gen., and loc. fem. to be formed at will with the fuller fem. terminations of long-vowel stems, namely $\bar{a}i$, $\bar{a}s$, $\bar{a}m$. Such forms are quite rare in the older language even from *i*-stems (less than 40 occurrences altogether in RV.; three times as many in AV.); and from u-stems they are almost unknown (five in RV. and AV.).

The voc. gunates the final of the stem, in masc. and fem., alike in the earlier and in the later language. In the neut., it is later allowed to be of the same form or the unaltered stem: and this was probably the usage in the older time also; not instances enough are quotable to determine the question (AV. has u once, and VS. o once).

337. Dual. The later and earlier language agree in making the nom.-acc.-voc. masc. and fem. by lengthening the final of the stem. The same cases in the neuter (according to the rule given above) end later in $in\bar{\imath}$ and $un\bar{\imath}$; but these endings are nearly unknown in the Veda (as, indeed, the cases are of only rare occurrence): AV. has $in\bar{\imath}$ twice (RV. perhaps once); VS. has $un\bar{\imath}$ once; RV. has $u\bar{\imath}$ from one u-stem, and $\bar{\imath}$, once shortened to i, from one or two i-stems.

The unvarying ending of instr.-dat.-abl., in all genders, is $bhy\bar{a}m$ added to the unchanged stem.

The gen.-loc. of all ages adds os to the stem in masc. and fem.; in neut., the later language interposes, as elsewhere in the weakest cases, a n; probably in the earlier Vedic the form would be like that of the other genders; but the only occurrence noted is one unos in AV.

338. Plural. The nom.-voc. masc. and fem. adds the normal ending as to the gunated stem-final, making ayas and avas. The exceptions in the Veda are very few: one word (ari) has ias in both genders, and a few feminines have $\bar{\imath}s$ (like $\bar{\imath}$ -stems); a very few u-stems have uas. The neut. nom.-acc. ends later in $\bar{\imath}ni$ and $\bar{u}ni$ (like $\bar{a}ni$ from a:329); but the Veda has $\bar{\imath}$ and i (about equally frequent) much oftener than $\bar{\imath}ni$; and \bar{u} and (more usually) u, more than half as often as $\bar{u}ni$.

The accus. masc. ends in $\bar{\imath}n$ and $\bar{u}n$, for older $\bar{\imath}ns$ and $\bar{u}ns$, of which plain traces remain in the Veda in nearly half the instances of occurrence, and even not infrequently in the later language, in the guise of phonetic combination (208 ff.). The accus. fem. ends in $\bar{\imath}s$ and $\bar{u}s$. But both masc. and fem. forms in ias and uas are found sparingly in the Veda.

The inst. of all genders adds bhis to the stem.

The dat.-abl. of all genders adds bhyas (in V., almost never bhias) to the stem. The gen. of all genders is made alike in $\bar{\imath}n\bar{a}m$ and $\bar{u}n\bar{a}m$ (of which the

Singular:

 \bar{a} is not seldom, in the Veda, to be resolved into aam). Stems with accented final in the later language may, and in the earlier always do, throw forward the accent upon the ending.

The loc. of all genders adds su (as su: 180) to the stem-final.

The accent is in accordance with the general rules already laid down, and there are no irregularities calling for special notice.

339. Examples of declension. As models of *i*-stems may be taken স্থাম agni, m., 'fire'; গানি gáti, f., 'gait'; বাহি vắri, n., 'water'.

| 2111 | guiar: | | |
|----------------|-------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| N. | श्र िप्रम् | गतिम् | वारि |
| | agnis | $gcute{a}tis$ | v lpha r i |
| Α. | म्रग्निम् | गतिम् | वारि |
| | agnim | gátim` | $v \dot{a} r i$ |
| I. | म्रग्निना | गत्या | वारिणा |
| | $agninar{a}$ | $glpha tyar{a}$ | $v lpha r i n ar{a}$ |
| D. | म्रग्नये | गतये, गत्यै | वारिणे |
| | agnáye | $glpha taye, glpha tyar{a}i$ | vlphariņe |
| Ab. G. | म्रग्नेम् | गतेम्, गत्याम् | वारिणम् |
| | agnés | gátes, gátyās | v ariņas 🔪 |
| L. | म्रग्नी | गती, गत्याम् | वारिणि |
| | $agnar{a}u$ | gátāu, gátyām | $v \dot{a} r i n i$ |
| \mathbf{v} . | ग्रो | गते | वारि, वारे |
| | $\acute{a}gne$ | $gcute{a}te$ | $vlpha ri,\ vlpha re$ |
| Dua | al : | | |
| N. A. V. | श्रमी | गती | वारिणी |
| | agn'i | $glpha tar{\imath}$ | $vlpha rinar{\imath}$ |
| 1. D. Ab. | म्रग्निभ्याम् | गतिभ्याम् | वारिभ्याम् ं |
| | $agnibhyar{am}$ | $glpha tibhyar{a}m$ | váribhyām |
| G. L. | ग्र म्योस् | गत्योम् | वारिणोस् |
| | agnyós | gátyos | váriņos |
| Plu | ral: | | |
| N.V. | ग्रग्रयस् | गतयस | वारीणि |
| | agnáyas | gátayas | $v alpha r ar{\imath} n i$ |
| | | - | |

| A. | 短期行 | गतीम् | वारीणि |
|--------|---------------|-----------|-----------|
| | agnin | gátīs | vārīṇi |
| I | म्रिग्रिभिम् | गतिभिम् | वारिभिम् |
| | agnibhis | gátibhis | vāribhis |
| D. Ab. | म्रिग्रिभ्यम् | गतिभ्यम् | वारिभ्यम् |
| | agnibhyas | gátibhyas | väribhyas |
| G. | म्रग्नीनाम् | गतीनाम् | वारीणाम् |
| | agnīnām | gátīnām | vårīṇām |
| L. | म्रिप्सिषु | गतिषु | वारिषु |
| | agnișu | gátiṣu | vāriṣu |

340. In order to mark more plainly the absence in Vedic language of some of the forms which are common later, all the forms of Vedic occurrence are added below, and in the order of their frequency.

Singular. Nom. agnis etc., as above.

Acc.: masc. agnim, yayiam, urminam(?); fem. and neut. as above.

Instr.: masc. $agnin\bar{a}$, $rayy\dot{a}$ and $\bar{u}rmi\dot{a}$; fem. $\acute{a}citt\bar{\iota}$, $\bar{u}ti\dot{a}$, $anuv_rkt\dot{\iota}$, $dh\bar{a}sin\bar{a}$; neut. wanting.

Dat.: masc. agnáye; fem. tujáye, ūtī, crútyāi; neut. cúcaye.

Gen.-abl.: masc. agnés; fem. ádites, hetyás and bhúmias; neut. bhúres.

 $\label{loc:masc.agnau} \mbox{Loc.: masc. } agn\bar{a}\acute{u}, \ agn\acute{a}, \ \bar{a}j\acute{a}yi(?); \ \mbox{fem. } \acute{a}gat\bar{a}u, \ \acute{u}dit\bar{a}, \ dh\acute{a}nas\bar{a}tayi(?), \\ v\acute{e}d\bar{\imath}, \ bh\acute{u}my\bar{a}m; \ \mbox{neut. } aprat\acute{a}, \ sapt\acute{a}racm\bar{a}u.$

Voc.: as above (neut. wanting).

Du al: Nom.-acc.-voc.: masc. $h\hat{a}r\bar{i}$; fem. $yuvat\hat{i}$; neut. $c\hat{u}c\bar{i}$, $m\hat{a}hi$, $h\hat{a}rin\bar{i}$ (?). Instr.-dat.-abl.: as above.

Gen.-loc.: masc. $h\acute{a}rios$; fem. $yuvaty\acute{o}s$ and $j\bar{a}mi\acute{o}s$; neut. wanting.

Plural. Nom.: masc. agnáyas; fem. matáyas, bhúmīs; neut. çúcī, bhúrī, bhúrīni.

Accus.: masc. agnīn; fem. kṣitīs, cúcayas(?).

Instr., dat.-abl., and loc., as above.

Gen.: masc. kavīnām, rsīņaam etc.

341. As models of u-stems may be taken হারু çátru, m., 'enemy'; धेनु dhenú, f., 'cow'; मधु mádhu, n., 'honey'.

Singular:

| N. | शत्रुम् | घेनुम् | मधु |
|----|---------|-------------------|---------|
| | çátrus | dhenús | mádhu |
| A. | शत्रुम् | धेनुम् | मधु |
| | çátrum | dhenúm | mádhu |
| I. | शत्रुणा | धेन्वा | मधुना |
| | çátruṇā | ^{dhenvá} | mádhunā |

| D. | शत्रवे | धेनवे, धेन्वै | मध्ने |
|-----------|--------------------------------|----------------------------|------------------|
| | çátrave | dhenáve, dhenvāí | mådhune |
| Ab. G. | शत्रोम् | धेनोम्, धेन्वाम् | मधुनम् |
| | çátros | dhenós,dhenvás | mádhunas |
| L, | शत्री | धेनी, धेन्वाम् | मधुनि |
| | çátrāu | dhenāú,dhenvām | mádhuni |
| v. | शत्रो | धेनो | मधु, मधो |
| | çátro | dhéno | mádhu,mádho |
| Du | al: | _ | 7 |
| N. A. V. | शत्रू $_{ar{c}	ext{d}trar{u}}$ | ยิ กุ dhenti | मधुनी mádhunī |
| I. D. Ab. | शत्रुभ्याम् | घेनुभ्याम् | मधुभ्याम् |
| | çátrubhyām | ^{dhenúbkyām} | mádhubhyām |
| G. L. | शच्चोम् | धन्वोम् | मधुनोम् |
| | çátrvos | dhenvós | mádhunos |
| Plu | ral: | | |
| N. V. | शत्रवम् | धेनवम् | मधूनि |
| | çátravas | dhenávas | mådhūni |
| A. | शत्रून् | धेनूम् | मधूनि |
| | çátrūn | dhenás | mádhūni |
| I. | शत्रुभिम् | धेनुभिम् | मधुभिम् |
| | çátrubhis | dhenúbhis | mádhubhis |
| D. Ab. | शत्रुभ्यम् | घेनुभ्यम् | मपुभ्यम् |
| | çátrubhyas | dhenúbhyas | mádhubhyas |
| G. | शत्रूणाम् | धेनूनाम् | मधूनाम् |
| | çátrūṇām | dhenūnām | mádhūnām |
| L. | शत्रुषु | धेनुषु | मधुषु |
| | çátruşu | dhenúṣu | mádhuṣu |

342. The forms of Vedic occurrence are given here for the u-stems in the same manner as for the i-stems above.

Singular. Nom.: masc. and fem. as above; neut. urú, urú.

Accus.: masc. ketúm, ábhīruam, sucetúnam(?); fem. dhenúm.

Instr.: masc. $ketún\bar{a}$, paçvá and $krátu\bar{a}$; fem. $ådhenu\bar{a}$ and panvá, $\bar{a}çuyá$; neut. $mådhun\bar{a}$, $mådhv\bar{a}$.

Dat.: masc. ketáve, cícve; fem. cárave, ísvāi; neut. uráve, mádhune.

Abl.-gen.: masc. manyós, pitvás, sánunas; fem. síndhos, íṣvās; neut. mádhvas and mádhuas, mádhos, mádhunas.

Loc.: masc. pūrāń, sūnávi; fem. síndhāu, rájjvām; neut. sắnāu, sánavi, sáno, sánuni.

Voc.: as above.

Dual. Nom.-acc.-voc.: masc. and fem. as above; neut. urvi, jánunī.
Instr.-dat.-abl.: as above.

Gen.-loc.: as above (but -vos or -uos).

Plural. Nom.: masc. rbhávas, múdhuas and múdhvas; fem. dhenávas, catakratvas; neut. purúni, purú, purú.

Accus.: masc. rtun, paçvás; fem. íṣūs, mádhvas.

Instr., dat.-abl., and loc., as above; also gen. (but with the resolution -ūnaam in part).

- 343. Irregular declension. There are no irregular u-stems, and only a very few i-stems.
- **a.** Såkhi, m., 'friend', has for the five strong cases a peculiarly strengthened base (vriddhied), namely $såkh\bar{a}y$, which in the nom. sing. is reduced to $såkh\bar{a}$ (without ending), and in the other cases takes the normal endings. The instr. and dat. sing. have the normal endings simply, without inserted n or guna; the abl.-gen. sing. adds us; and the loc. sing. adds $\bar{a}u$: the rest is like agni. Thus:

Sing. sákhā, sákhāyam, sákhyā, sákhye, sákhyus, sákhyāu, sákhe; Du. sákhāyāu, sákhibhyām, sákhyos; Pl. sákhāyas, sákhīn, etc. etc.

The Veda has usually $s\hat{a}kh\bar{a}y\bar{a}$ du., and often resolves the y to i, in $s\hat{a}khi\bar{a}$, $s\hat{a}khius$, etc. The compounds are usually declined like the simple word, unless sakha be substituted.

- b. Páti, m., is declined regularly in composition, and when it has the meaning 'lord, master'; when uncompounded and meaning 'husband', it is inflected like sákhi in the instr., abl.-gen., and loc. sing., forming pátyā, pátye, pátyus, pátyāu. There are occasional instances of confusion of the two classes of forms.
 - c. Jáni, f., 'wife', has the gen. sing. jányus in the Veda.
- d. Arí, 'eager, greedy, hostile', has in the Veda aryás in pl. nom. and accus., masc, and fem.
 - e. Ví, 'bird', has in RV. the nom. vés (beside vís).
- f. The stems aksi, 'eye', asthi, 'bone', dadhi, 'curds', and sakthi, 'thigh', are defective, their forms exchanging with and complementing forms from bases in an (aksin etc.): see the bases in an, below (431).
- g. The stem pathi, 'road', is used to make up part of the inflection of panthan: see below, 433.
- **h.** Króstu, m., 'jackal', lacks the strong cases, for which the corresponding forms of krostr' are substituted.

Adjectives.

344. Original adjective stems in i are few; those in u are much more numerous (many derivative verb-stems forming a

participial adjective in u). Their inflection is like that of nouns, and has been included in the rules given above; the stem is in general the same in all the three genders. In those weak cases, however — namely, the dat., abl.-gen., and loc. sing., and the gen.-loc. dual — in which neuter nouns differ from masculines in the later language by an inserted n (we have seen above that this difference does not exist in the Veda), the neuter adjective is allowed to take either form.

But adjectives in u preceded by one consonant sometimes form a derivative feminine stem by adding $\bar{\imath}$: thus, bahvi, urvi, pṛthvi, vibhvi, and so on. More rarely, the u is prolonged to \bar{u} to make a feminine-stem, which is then inflected like vadhū (below, 365). Some adjectives form their feminine in two of these ways, or even in all the three: thus, $b\bar{\imath}bhats\dot{u}$ and $b\bar{\imath}bhats\dot{u}$; $tan\dot{u}$, $tan\dot{u}$, and $tanv\dot{\imath}$.

345. Roots ending in i or u (or r: 380) regularly add a t when used as root-words or as root-finals of compounds; and hence there are no adjectives of the root-class in this declension.

Yet, in the Veda, a few words ending in a short radical u are declined as if this were suffixal: thus, asmrtadhru, susta; and the AV. has $prtan\bar{u}jt$ (once). Roots in \bar{u} sometimes also shorten \bar{u} to u: thus, prabha, vibha, etc. (354); go (361) becomes gu in composition; and re perhaps becomes ri (362); while roots in \bar{u} sometimes apparently weaken \bar{u} to i (in -dhi from $\sqrt{dh\bar{u}}$).

346. Compound adjectives having nouns of this declension as final member are inflected like original adjectives of the same endings.

Declension III.

Stems in long vowels: $\bar{a}, \ \bar{\imath}, \ \bar{u}.$

347. The stems ending in long vowels fall into two well-marked classes or divisions: A. monosyllabic stems — mostly bare roots — and their compounds, with a comparatively small number of others inflected like them; B. derivative feminine stems in π \bar{a} and $\bar{\xi}$ $\bar{\imath}$, with a small number in $\bar{\tau}$ \bar{u} which in the later language have come to be inflected like them. The latter division is by far the larger and more important, since most feminine adjectives, and considerable classes of feminine nouns, ending in $\bar{\tau}$ \bar{a} or $\bar{\xi}$ $\bar{\imath}$, belong to it.

A. Root-words, and those inflected like them.

- 348. The inflection of these stems is by the normal endings throughout, or in the manner of consonant-stems (with $\pi \eta$ am, not η m, in the accus. sing.); peculiarities like those of the other vowel-declensions are wanting. The simple words are, as nouns, with few exceptions feminine; as adjectives (rarely), and in adjective compounds, they are alike in masculine and feminine forms. They may, for convenience of description, be divided into the following subclasses:
- 1. Root-words, or monosyllables having the aspect of such. Those in \bar{a} are so rare that it is hardly possible to make up a whole scheme of forms in actual use; those in $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{u} are more numerous, but still very few.
- 2. Compounds having such words, or other roots with long final vowels, as last member.
- 3. Polysyllabic words, of various origin and character, including in the Veda many which later are transferred to other declensions.
- 4. As an appendix to this class we may most conveniently describe the half-dozen bases, mostly of irregular inflection, ending in diphthongs.
- 349. Monosyllabic stems. Before the endings beginning with vowels, final $\bar{\imath}$ is changed to iy and \bar{u} to uv; while final \bar{a} is dropped altogether, except in the strong cases and in the acc. pl., which is like the nominative (according to the grammarians, \bar{a} is lost here also: no instances of the occurrence of such a form appear to be quotable). Stems in \bar{i} and \bar{u} are in the later language allowed to take optionally the fuller endings $\bar{a}i$, $\bar{a}s$, $\bar{a}m$ in the singular (dat., abl.-gen., loc.); but no such forms are ever met with in the Veda (except bhiyāi [?], RV., once). Before $\bar{a}m$ of gen. pl., n may or may not be inserted; in the Veda it is regularly inserted, with a single exception $(dhiy\dot{a}m, once)$. The vocative is like the nominative in the singular as well as the other numbers; but instances of its occurrence in uncompounded stems are not found in the Veda, and must be extremely rare everywhere. The earlier Vedic dual ending is \bar{a} instead of $\bar{a}u$.
- 350. To the $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{u} -stems, the rules for monosyllabic accent apply: the accent is thrown forward upon the endings in all the weak cases except the accus. pl., which is like the

nom. But the \bar{a} -stems appear (the instances are extremely few) to keep the accent upon the stem throughout.

351. Examples of declension. As models of monosyllabic inflection we may take $\pi j\dot{a}$, f., 'progeny'; $t\hat{l}$ $dh\dot{t}$, f., 'thought'; and H $bh\dot{u}$, f., 'earth'.

The first of these is rather arbitrarily extended from the four cases which actually occur: of the loc. sing. and gen. etc. du., no Vedic examples of \bar{a} -stems are found.

Singular:

| | N. | जास् | धीम् । | भूम् |
|---|-----------|--------------------|----------------|----------------|
| | | jās | dh'is | bhus |
| | Α. | जाम <u>ु</u> | धियम् | भुवम् |
| | | $j\dot{a}m$ | dhiyam | bhúvam |
| | I. | রা | धिया | भुवा |
| | | $j \dot{ar{a}}$ | dhiy á | bhuvá |
| | D. | ার | धिये, धियै | भुवे, भुवै |
| | | $jcute{e}$ | dhiyé, dhiyāi | bhuvé, bhuvāí |
| | Ab. G. | ज म् | धियस्,धियास् | भ्वम्, भ्वाम् |
| | | jás | dhiyás, dhiyás | bhuvás, bhuvás |
| | L. | ন্নি | धियि,धियाम् | भ्वि, भ्वाम् |
| | • | ji | dhiyi , dhiyam | bhuví, bhuvám |
| | V. | जा म् | धीस् 🕝 | भस |
| | | jäs | dhis | भूम् bhás |
| | Dual | : | | |
| | N. A. V. | <u>जी</u> | धियौ | भवी |
| | | $jar{a}u$ | dhiyāu | bhúvāu |
| | I. D. Ab. | ज्ञाभ्याम <u>्</u> | धीभ्याम् | भभ्याम |
| | | jābhyām | dhībhyam | อ็โกนิbhyล่าก |
| • | G. L. | जोस् _' | धियोस | भवोस |
| | | jós | dhiyós | bhuvós |
| | Plura | ıl: | | |
|] | N. | जाम् | धियम् | भुवस् |
| | | j'ās ` | dhiyas | bhúvas |
| | A. | नाम् (नम् १) | धियस् | भ्वम् |
| | | jās, jās | dhiyas | bhúvas |
| | | | | |

| I. | ज्ञाभिम् | धीभिम् | મૂમિમ્ |
|--------|--------------------|---------------------|----------------|
| | jäbhis | dhībhís | bhūbhis |
| D. Ab. | ज्ञाभ्यम् | धीभ्यम् | भू-यम् |
| | jábhyas | ^{dhībhyás} | bhūbhyás |
| G. | ज्ञानाम् (ज्ञाम्?) | धियाम्, धीनाम् | भुवाम्, भूनाम् |
| | jánām, jám | dhiyām, dhīnām | bhuvám, bhūnám |
| L. | जामु | घीषु | भूप |
| | jäsu | _{dhīṣú} | bhūșú |

352. Monosyllabic stems in composition. When the nouns above described occur as final member of a compound. or when any root in \bar{a} or \bar{i} or \bar{u} is found in a like position, the inflection of an \bar{a} -stem is as above. But $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{u} -stems follow a divided usage: the final vowel before a vowel-ending is either converted into a short vowel and semivowel (iy or uv, as above) or into a semivowel simply (y or v). The accent is nowhere thrown forward upon the endings; and therefore, when \bar{i} and \bar{u} become y and v, the resulting syllable is circumflex. Thus:

| Singular: | |
|-----------|--|
|-----------|--|

| SIII | guiai: | | | |
|-----------|------------------------|------------------|-------------------------------|--------------------------|
| N. V. | -d | $h\overline{i}s$ | -8 | $h \dot{\overline{u}} s$ |
| A. | -dhíyam | $-dhy\grave{a}m$ | $-bh\'uvam$ | -bhvàm |
| I. | -dhíy $ar{a}$ | $-dhy\dot{a}$ | - $bh\hat{u}var{a}$ | $-bhv\dot{a}$ |
| D. | -dhíye | -dhyè | $-bh\'uve$ | -bhvè |
| Ab. G. | -dhíyas | -dhy as | -bhúvas | -bhvàs |
| L. | -dhíyi | -dhyì | $-bh\hat{u}vi$ | -bhvì |
| Du | al: | | | |
| N. A. V. | - dh í $yar{a}u$ | - $dhyar{a}u$ | - $bh\hat{u}var{a}u$ | $-bhv\bar{a}u$ |
| I. D. Ab. | -dh i bi | hyām | $-bh\ddot{m{u}}b$ | $hy\bar{a}m$ |
| G. L. | -dhíyos | $-dhy \delta s$ | $-bh \hat{u}vos$ | -bhvòs |
| Plu | ral: | | | |
| N. A. V. | -dhíyas | -dhy as | -bhūvas | -bhvàs |
| I. | -dhī | bhis | $-bh\dot{u}$ | bhis |
| D. Ab. | -dh'i | bhya s | $-bh\dot{\overline{u}}$ | bhyas |
| G. | ∖-dhíyām (-dhi̇́nām | -dhyam | (-bhúvām (-bh ú nām | $-bhv\dot{a}m$ |
| L. | $-dh'_{1}$ | su | $-bh\ddot{u}$ | 3u |
| | | | | |

As to the admissibility of the fuller endings $\bar{a}i$, $\bar{a}s$, and $\bar{a}m$ in the singular (feminine), grammatical authorities are somewhat at variance; but they are never found in the Veda, and have been omitted from the above scheme as probably unreal.

If two consonants precede the final $\bar{\imath}$ or \bar{u} , the dissyllabic forms, with iy and uv, are regularly written; after one consonant, the usage is varying. The grammarians prescribe iy and uv when the monosyllabic stem has more the character of a noun, and y and v when it is more purely a verbal root with participial value. No such distinction, however, is to be seen in the Veda - where, moreover, the difference of the two forms is only graphic. since the $y\bar{a}$ and $v\bar{a}$ forms and the rest are always to be read as dissyllabic: iā or īā and uā or ūā, and so on.

353. A few further Vedic irregularities or peculiarities may be briefly noticed.

Of the \bar{a} -stems, the forms in $\bar{a}s$, $\bar{a}m$, \bar{a} (du.) are sometimes to be read as dissyllables, aas, aam, aa. The dative of the stem used as infinitive is in $\bar{a}i$ (as if $\dot{a} + e$): thus, prakhy $\bar{a}i$, pratim $\bar{a}i$, par $\bar{a}d\bar{a}i$.

Irregular transfer of the accent to the ending in compounds is seen in a case or two: thus, avadyabhiya (RV.), adhia (AV.).

354. But compounds of the class above described are not infrequently transferred to other modes of inflection: the \bar{a} shortened to a for a masculine stem, or declined like a stem of the derivative \bar{a} -class (below, 365) as feminine; the \bar{i} and \bar{u} shortened to i and u, and inflected as of the second declension.

Thus, compound stems in -ga, -ja, -da, -stha, -bhu, and others, are found even in the Veda, and become frequent later; and sporadic cases from yet others occur: for example, crtapan, vayodhāis and ratnadhébhis, dhanasāis (all RV.); and, from $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{u} compounds, vesacris (TS.), ahrayas (RV.), gaņacrībhis (RV.), rtanībhyas (RV.) and senānībhyas (VS.) and grāmanībhis (TB.), supúnā (AV.), citibhráve (TS.). Still more numerous are the feminines in \vec{a} which have lost their root-declension: examples are $praj\vec{a}$ (of which the further compounds in part have root-forms), svadha, craddha, pratima. and others.

355. Polysyllabic Stems. Stems of this division of more than one syllable are very rare indeed in the later language, and by no means common in the earlier. The Rig-Veda, however, presents a not inconsiderable body of them; and as the class nearly dies out later, by the disuse of its stems or their transfer to other modes of declension, it may be best described on a Vedic basis.

a. Of stems in \bar{a} , masculines, half-a-dozen occur in the Veda: $p \hat{a} n t h \bar{a}$, $m\acute{a}nth\vec{a}$, and $rbhuk\dot{s}\dot{a}$ are otherwise viewed by the later grammar: see below, 433-4; ucana (nom. pr.) has the anomalous nom. sing. ucana (and loc. as well as dat. uçáne; mahá, 'great', is found only in accus. sing. and abundantly in composition: $\dot{a}t\bar{a}$, 'frame', has only $\dot{a}t\bar{a}su$ not derivable from $\dot{a}ta$.

b. Of stems in $\bar{\imath}$, over seventy are found in the Veda, nearly all feminines, and all accented on the final. Half of the feminines are formed from masculines with change of accent: thus, kalyānā (m. kalyāna), puruṣi (m. púruṣa); others show no change of accent: thus, yamī (m. yamā); others still have no corresponding masculines: thus, $nad\vec{i}$, $laksm\vec{i}$, $s\bar{u}rm\vec{i}$. The masculines are about ten in number: for example, $rath\vec{i}$, $pr\vec{a}v\vec{i}$, $star\vec{i}$, $ah\vec{i}$, $\bar{a}path\vec{i}$.

c. Of stems in \bar{u} , the number is smaller: these, too, are nearly all feminines, and all accented on the final. The majority of them are the feminine adjectives in \acute{u} to masculines in \acute{u} or u (above, 344): thus, $carany\acute{u}$, $carisn\acute{u}$, $jighats\acute{u}$, $madh\acute{u}$. A few are nouns in \acute{u} , with change of accent: thus, $agr\acute{u}$ (ágru), $prd\ddot{u}k\acute{u}$ ($p\acute{r}d\ddot{u}ku$), $cvacr\acute{u}$ ($cv\acute{u}cura$); or without change, as $nrt\acute{u}$. And a few have no corresponding masculines: thus, $tan\acute{u}$, $vadh\acute{u}$, $can\acute{u}$. The masculines are only two or three; namely, $pr\ddot{u}c\acute{u}$, $krkad\ddot{u}c\acute{u}$. $maks\acute{u}$ (?); and their forms are of the utmost rarity.

356. The mode of declension of these words may be illustrated by the following examples: $rath_i^i$, m., 'charioteer'; nad_i^i , f., 'stream'; $tanh_i^i$, f., 'body'.

No one of the selected examples occurs in all the forms: forms for which no example at all is quotable are put in brackets. No loc. sing. from any $\bar{\imath}$ -stem occurs, to determine what the form would be. The stem $nad\tilde{\iota}$ is selected as example partly in order to emphasize the difference between the earlier language and the later in regard to the words of this division: $nad\tilde{\iota}$ is later the model of derivative inflection.

| Singular: | | | |
|----------------|---|-----------------------------|--|
| N. | rath'is | $nad\overline{i}s$ | tan u's |
| A. | rathí am | $oldsymbol{n}adiam$ | $tan \'uam$ |
| Ι. | rathia | $m{nadia}$ | $oldsymbol{t}aoldsymbol{n}ar{u}ar{a}$ |
| D. | rathíe | n adíe | tanúe |
| Ab. G. | rathías | nadias | tanúas |
| L. | | • • • • • | tanúi |
| \mathbf{v} . | râthi (?) | ná di | tánu |
| Dual: | | | |
| N. A. V. | rathia | nadia | tanar uar a |
| I.D.Ab. | [$rath ibhyar{a}m$] | $m{n}adar{\imath}bhyar{a}m$ | [$tanar{u}bhyar{a}m$] |
| G. L. | [rathios] | nad los | tanú os |
| Plural: | | | |
| N.A. | rath ias | nadias | ta núa s |
| Ι. | [$rath\dot{\imath}bhis$] | nadibhis | $tanoldsymbol{\dot{u}}bhis$ |
| D. Ab. | [rathibhyas] | $m{n}adar{\imath}bhyas$ | $tan\dot{\overline{u}}bhyas$ |
| G. | $rath \dot{\tilde{\imath}} n \tilde{a} m$ | $nad\dot{\imath}nar{a}m$ | $tanoldsymbol{\dot{u}}oldsymbol{n}ar{a}m$ |
| L. | $[\mathit{rath} \dot{i} \dot{s} u]$ | nadiș u | $taoldsymbol{n}oldsymbol{u}oldsymbol{s}oldsymbol{u}$. |
| | | | |

The cases — nadiam, tanúam, etc. — are written above according to their true phonetic form, almost invariably belonging to them in the Veda: in the written text, of course, the stem-final is made a semivowel, and the resulting syllable is circumflexed: thus, nadyam, tanvam, etc.; only, as usual, after two consonants the resolved forms iy and uv are written instead; and also where the combination yv would otherwise result: thus, $cakriy\bar{a}$, $[agrava\bar{a}i,]$ and $mitr\bar{a}yavas$. The RV. really reads staryam etc. twice, and tanvas etc. four times; and such contractions are more often made in the AV. The ending \bar{a} of the nom.-acc.-voc. du. is the equivalent of the later $\bar{a}u$. The nom. sing. in s from \bar{s} -stems is found in the older language about sixty times, from over thirty stems.

- 357. Irregularities of form, properly so called, are very few in this division: $cam\dot{u}$ as loc. sing. (instead of $camv\dot{v}$) occurs a few times; and there is another doubtful case or two of the same kind; the final \dot{u} is regarded as pragrhya or uncombinable (138); $tanu\dot{v}$ is lengthened to $tanv\dot{v}$ in a passage or two; $-y\dot{u}vas$ is once or twice abbreviated to $-y\dot{u}s$.
- 358. The process of transfer to the other form of $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{u} -declension (below, 363 ff.), which has nearly extinguished this category of words in the later language, has its beginnings in the Veda; but in RV. they are excessively scanty: namely, $d\bar{u}ti\dot{a}m$, loc. sing., once, and $cvacru\dot{a}m$, do., once, and $cvacru\dot{a}m$, instr. sing., with two or three other doubtful cases. In the Atharvan, wo find the acc. sing. $cvacru\dot{a}m$, $cvacru\dot{a}m$, the instr. sing. $cvacru\dot{a}m$ and one or two others; the dat. sing. $cvacru\dot{a}m$, $cvacru\dot{a}m$,
- **359.** Adjective compounds from these words are very few; those which occur are declined like the simple stems: thus, hiranyavāçīs and sahásrastarīs, átaptatanūs and sārvatanūs, all nom. sing. masculine.

Stems ending in diphthongs.

360. There are certain monosyllabic stems ending in diphthongs, which are too few and too diverse in inflection to make a declension of, and which may be most appropriately disposed of here, in connection with the stems in $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{u} , with which they have most affinity. They are:

stems in $\bar{a}u$: $n\bar{a}\acute{u}$ and $gl\bar{a}\acute{u}$;

stems in $\bar{a}i$: $r\bar{a}i$;

stems in o: gó and dyó (or dyú, div).

361. a. The stem $n\bar{a}\acute{u}$, f., 'ship', is entirely regular, taking the normal endings throughout, and following the rules for monosyllabic accentuation (317) — except that the accus. pl. is said (it does not appear to occur in accented texts) to be like the nom. Thus: $n\bar{a}\acute{u}s$, $n\acute{a}vam$, $n\bar{a}v\acute{a}$, $n\bar{a}v\acute{a}$, $n\bar{a}v\acute{a}s$, $n\bar{a}v\acute{a}s$, $n\bar{a}u\acute{a}s$, $n\bar{a}u\acute{$

The stem $gl\bar{u}\dot{u}$, m., 'ball', is apparently inflected in the same way; but few of its forms have been met with in use.

b. The stem $r\bar{a}i$, f. (or m.), 'wealth', might be better described as $r\bar{a}$ with a union-consonant y (258) interposed before vowel endings, and is regularly inflected as such, with normal endings and monosyllabic accent. Thus: $r\dot{a}s$, $r\dot{a}yam$, $r\bar{a}y\dot{a}$, $r\bar{a}y\dot{e}$, $r\bar{a}y\dot{a}s$, $r\bar{a}y\bar{a}u$, $r\bar{a}bhy\dot{a}m$, $r\bar{a}y\dot{o}s$; $r\dot{a}yas$, $r\bar{a}y\dot{a}s$, $r\bar{a}bh\dot{s}s$, $r\bar{a}bhy\dot{a}s$, $r\bar{a}y\dot{a}s$, $r\bar{a}y\dot{s}s$, $r\bar{$

(which alone is of Vedic occurrence) and $r \dot{a}s$; and the gen. sing. is sometimes anomalously accented $r \dot{a}yas$.

- c. The stem $g\delta$, m. or f., 'bull' or 'cow', is much more irregular. In the strong cases, except accus. sing., it is strengthened to $g\bar{a}u$, forming (like $n\bar{a}u$) $g\bar{a}us$, $g\bar{a}v\bar{a}u$, $g\bar{a}vas$. In accus. sing. and pl. it has (like $r\bar{a}i$) the brief forms $g\bar{a}m$ and $g\bar{a}s$. The abl.-gen. sing. is $g\delta s$ (as if from gu). The rest is regularly made from go, with the normal endings, but with accent always remaining irregularly upon the stem: thus, $g\delta v\bar{a}v\bar{a}$, $g\delta ve$, $g\delta vi$; $g\delta vs$, $g\delta v\bar{a}m$; $g\delta bhy\bar{a}m$, $g\delta bhy\bar{a}m$, $g\delta bhyas$, $g\delta su$. In the Veda, another form of the gen. pl. is $g\delta n\bar{a}m$; the nom. etc. du. is (as in all other such cases) also $g\delta v\bar{a}v\bar{a}$; and $g\delta m$, $g\delta s$, and $g\delta s$ are not infrequently to be pronounced as dissyllables.
- **d.** The stem $dy\delta$, f. (but in V. usually m.), 'sky, day', is yet more anomalous, having beside it a simpler stem dyu, which becomes div before a vowel-ending. The native grammarians treat the two as independent words, but it is more convenient to put them together. The stem $dy\delta$ is inflected precisely like $g\delta$, as above described. The complete declension is as follows (with forms not actually met with in use bracketed):

| | Sing | gular. | Dua | ıl. | Pl | ural. |
|-----|------------------|--------------------------|----------------------------|----------------------|-------------------------------------|----------------------|
| N. | dy | āús | $\{[div\bar{a}u]$ | $dy\dot{a}v\bar{a}u$ | divas | $dy \dot{a} vas$ |
| A. | divam | $dy \dot{\bar{a}} m$ | ([aivau] | ayavaa | $divlpha s, dyoldsymbol{\dot{u}} n$ | $[dy \dot{ar{a}} s]$ |
| I. | divlpha | $[dy \hat{a} v \bar{a}]$ |) | | $dy \hat{u}bhis$ | [dy 6bhis] |
| D. | divé | dyá v e | $[dy \hat{u}bhy \bar{a}m]$ | $dy 6bhy \bar{a}m]$ | [dyúbhyas | dy6bhyas] |
| Ab. | $div\'as$ | $dy \acute{a}s$ | , | | , | |
| G. | $div \acute{a}s$ | $dy \delta s$ | $\{[div \'os$ | dyávos] | [$divlpha m$ | dy á $v\bar{a}m]$ |
| L. | div i | dyá v i | Laivos | agavos | [dyúṣu | $dy \delta su]$ |

The dat. sing. $dy \hat{a}ve$ is not found in the early language. Both $d\hat{v}vas$ and $div\hat{a}s$ occur as accus. pl. in V. As nom. etc. du., $dy \hat{a}v\bar{a}$ is, as usual, the regular Vedic form: once occurs $dy \hat{a}v\bar{v}$ (du.), as if a neuter form; and $dy\bar{a}us$ is found once used as ablative. The cases $dy\bar{a}us$, $dy\bar{a}m$, and $dy\bar{u}n$ (once) are read in V. sometimes as dissyllables; and the first as accented vocative then becomes $dy\bar{u}us$ (i. e. $dt\bar{a}us$: see 314.

e. Adjective compounds having diphthongal stems as final member are not numerous. For go we have gu in such a position in $\acute{a}gu$, $sug\acute{u}$, and a few others; and, correspondingly, $r\vec{a}\ell$ seems to be reduced to ri in $brh\acute{a}draye$ and $rdh\acute{a}drayas$ (RV.). In $rev\acute{a}nt$ (unless this is for rayivant), $r\vec{a}\ell$ becomes $r\acute{e}$. In a few compounds, dyu or dyo is anomalously treated as first member: thus, $dy\~{a}\'{u}sa\acute{m}cita$ (AV.), $dy\~{a}urd\~{a}$ (K.), $dy\~{a}urlok\acute{a}$ (\Cappa).

B. Derivative stems in \bar{a} , \bar{i} , \bar{u} .

2 362. To this division belong all the \bar{a} and \bar{i} -stems

which have not been specified above as belonging to the other or root-word division; and also, in the later language, most of the $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{u} -stems of the other division, by transfer to a more predominant mode of inflection. Thus:

a. The great mass of derivative feminine \bar{a} -stems, substantive and adjective.

The inflection of these stems has maintained itself with little change through the whole history of the language, being almost precisely the same in the Vedas as later.

b. The great mass of derivative feminine i-stems.

This class is without exception in the later language. In the earlier, it suffers the exception pointed out above (355b): that feminines made with change of accent follow this mode of declension only when the accent is not on the i: thus, $t \hat{a} v i s \bar{i}$, $p \hat{a} r u s \bar{n} \bar{i}$, $p \hat{a} t u s \bar{i}$, $p \hat{a} t u s \bar{n} \bar{i}$, $p \hat{a} t u s \bar{i}$, $p \hat{a} t u s \bar{n} \bar{i}$, $p \hat{a} t u s \bar{i}$,

The $\bar{\imath}$ -stems of this division in general are regarded as made by contraction of an earlier ending in $y\bar{a}$. Their inflection has become in the later language somewhat mixed with that of the other division, and so far different from the Vedic inflection: see below, 364, end.

Very few derivative stems in $\bar{\imath}$ are recognized by the grammarians as declined like the root-division; the Vedic words of that class are, if retained in use, transferred to this mode of inflection.

A very small number of masculine $\bar{\imath}$ -stems (half-a-dozen) are in the Veda declined as of the derivative division: they are a few rare proper names, $m\dot{a}tal\bar{\imath}$ etc.; and $r\dot{a}str\bar{\imath}$ and $sir\bar{\imath}$ (only one case each).

- c. The \bar{u} -stems are few in number, and are transfers from the other division, assimilated in inflection to the great class of derivative $\bar{\iota}$ -stems (except that they retain the ending s of the nom. sing.).
- 363. Endings. The points of distinction between this and the other division are as follows:

In nom, sing, the usual s-ending is wanting: except in the \bar{u} -stems and a very few $\bar{\imath}$ -stems — namely, $laksm\bar{\imath}$, $tar\bar{\imath}$, $tantr\bar{\imath}$ — which have preserved the ending of the other division.

The accus. sing. and pl. add simply m and s respectively.

The dat., abl.-gen., and loc. sing. take always the fuller endings $\bar{a}i$, $\bar{a}s$, $\bar{a}m$; and these are separated from the final of the \bar{a} -stems by an interposed y.

Before the endings \bar{a} of instr. sing. and os of gen.-loc. du., the final of \bar{a} -stems is treated as if changed to e; but in the Veda, the instr. ending \bar{a} very often (in nearly half the occurrences) blends with the final to \bar{a} . The $y\bar{a}$ of $\bar{\imath}$ -stems is in a few Vedic examples contracted to $\bar{\imath}$, and even to i. A loc. sing. in $\bar{\imath}$ occurs a few times.

In all the weakest cases above mentioned, the accent of an $\bar{\imath}$ or \bar{u} -stem having acute final is thrown forward upon the ending. In the remaining case of the same class, the gen. pl., a n is always interposed between stem and ending, and the accent remains upon the former (in RV., however, it is usually thrown forward upon the ending, as in i and u-stems).

In voc. sing., final \bar{a} becomes e; final \bar{i} and \bar{u} are shortened.

In nom.-acc.-voc. du. and nom. pl. appears in $\bar{\imath}$ (and \bar{u})-stems a marked difference between the earlier and later language, the latter borrowing the forms of the other division. The du. ending $\bar{a}u$ is unknown in RV., and very rare in AV.; the Vedic ending is $\bar{\imath}$ (a corresponding dual of \bar{u} -stems does not occur). The regular later pl. ending as has only a doubtful example or two in RV., and a very small number in AV.; the case there (and it is one of very frequent occurrence) adds s simply; and though yas-forms occur in the Brāhmaṇas, along with $\bar{\imath}s$ -forms, both are used indifferently as nom. and accus. Of \bar{a} -stems, the du. nom. etc. ends in e, both earlier and later; in pl., of course, s-forms are indistinguishable from as-forms. The RV. has a few examples of $\bar{a}sas$ for $\bar{a}s$.

The remaining cases call for no remark.

364. Examples of declension. As models of the inflection of derivative stems ending in long vowels, we may take सेना sénā, f., 'army'; कन्या kanyā, f., 'girl'; देवी devi, f., 'goddess'; व्य vadhū, f., 'woman'.

Singular:

| N. < | मेना | कन्या 🥤 | देवी | वधूम् |
|--------|---------------------------|------------------------|--------------------|-------------------|
| | $s\acute{e}n\overline{a}$ | $kany \grave{a}$ | dev'i | $vadh\dot{u}s$ |
| A. | मेनाम् | कन्याम् | देवीम् | वधूम् |
| | sénām | kany am | dev'im | vadhūm |
| I. | सेनया | कन्यया | देव्या | वध्वा |
| | $s\acute{e}nayar{a}$ | $kany$ à $yar{a}$ | devylpha | $vadhv \nota$ |
| D. | सेनायै | कन्यायै | देव्यै | वध्वै |
| | sénāyā i | kany a y $ar{a}$ i | $devyar{a}i$ | $vadhvar{a}i$ |
| Ab. G. | मेनायाम् | कन्यायास् | देव्याम् | वध्वाम् |
| | sénāyās` | kany à yās` | devyās | vadhvás |
| L. | मेनायाम् | कन्यायाम् | देव्याम् | वध्वाम् |
| | sénāyām | kanyà y ā m | $devy \acute{a} m$ | $vadhv ac{a}{m}$ |
| v. | मेने | कन्ये | देवि | वधु |
| | séne | kánye | dévi | $v\acute{a}dhu$ |

| 1010 109 | Dual: | James was 1971 | MA PLAN LONDON | OU AT MAKEURA |
|-----------|------------|----------------|------------------|-----------------------|
| N. A. V. | मेने | कन्ये | देव्यी | वध्वी |
| | séne | kanyè | devyāù | vadhvāù |
| I. D. Ab. | सेनाभ्याम् | कन्याभ्याम् | देवीभ्याम् | वधूम्याम् |
| | sénābhyām | kanyàbhyām | devibhyām | vadhábhyām |
| G. L. | सेनयोम् | कन्ययोम् | देव्योम् | वध्वोम् |
| | sénayos | kanyàyos | devyós | vadhvós |
| | Plural: | | | |
| N. V. | मेनाम् | कन्यास् | देव्यम् | वध्वम् |
| | sénās | kanyàs | devyàs | vadhvàs |
| A. | मेनाम् | कन्याम् | देवीम् | वधूम् |
| | sénās | kanyās | ^{devis} | vadh ú s |
| I. | सेनाभिम् | कन्याभिम् | देवीभिम् | वधूभिम् |
| | sénābhis | kanyàbhis | devibhis | _{vadhábh} is |
| D. Ab. | सेनाभ्यम् | कन्याभ्यम् | देवीभ्यम् | वधूभ्यम् |
| | sénābhyas | kanyàbhyas | devibhyas | vadhābhyas ः |
| G. | मेनानाम् | कन्यानाम् | देवीनाम् | वधूनाम् |
| | sénānām | kanyànām | devinām | vadhānām |
| L. | सेनामु | कन्यामु | देवीषु | वधूष् |
| | sénāsu | kanyàsu | devișu | vadhū́s़ग |

In the Veda, $vadh\hat{u}$ is a stem belonging to the other division (like $tan\hat{u}$, above, 356).

365. Examples of Vedic forms are:

- 1. \bar{a} -stems: instr. sing. $man\bar{\imath}s\bar{a}$ (this simpler form is especially common from stems in $t\bar{a}$ and $i\bar{a}$); nom. pl. $vac\bar{a}sas$ (about twenty examples: Lanman, p. 362); accus. pl. $aramgam\bar{a}sas$ (a case or two). Half the *bhyas*-cases are to be read as *bhias*; the $\bar{a}m$ of gen. pl. is a few times to be resolved into aam; and the \bar{a} and $\bar{a}m$ of nom. and accus. sing. are, very rarely, to be treated in the same manner.
- 2. $\bar{\imath}$ -stems: instr. sing. $c\hat{a}m\bar{\imath}$, $c\hat{a}mi$; loc. $gaur\hat{\imath}$; nom. etc. du. $dev\hat{\imath}$; nom. pl. $dev\hat{\imath}s$; gen. pl. $bahv\bar{\imath}n\hat{a}m$. The final of the stem is to be read as a vowel (not y) frequently, but not in the majority of instances: thus, $devi\hat{a}$, $devi\hat{a}s$, $devi\hat{a}m$, $r\hat{\imath}dasios$.

The sporadic instances of transfer between this division and the preceding have been already sufficiently noticed.

3. In the language of the Brāhmaṇas, the abl.-gen. sing. ending $\bar{a}s$ is almost unknown, and instead of it is used the dat. ending $\bar{a}i$. The assumption of the same substitution is suggested, but not required, in a few RV.

passages; and it is necessary once in AV. (iv. 5, 6): svápantv asyāi jñātáyah, 'let her relatives sleep'. Brāhmana examples are: tásyāi diçâh (TS.), 'from that direction'; striyāi payah (AB.), 'woman's milk'; dhenvāt va etad rétah (TB.), 'that, forsooth, is the seed of the cow'; jyāyasī yājyāyāi (AB.), 'superior to the yājyā'.

366. The noun stri, f., 'woman' (probably contracted from sūtri, 'generatress'), follows a mixed declension: thus, stri, striyam or strim, striya, striyāt, striyās, striyām, strí; stríyāu, strībhyām, striyós; stríyas, stríyas or strīs, strībhís, strībhyás, strīnam, strīsú (but the accusatives strīm and strīs are not found in the older language, and the voc. stri is not quotable). The accentuation is that of a root-word; the forms (conspicuously the nom. sing.) are those of the other division.

Adjectives.

367. a. The occurrence of original adjectives in long final vowels, and of compounds having as final member a stem of the first division, has been sufficiently treated above, so far as masculine and feminine forms are concerned. To form a neuter stem in composition, the rule of the later language is that the final long vowel be shortened; and the stem so made is to be inflected like an adjective in i or u (339, 341).

Such neuter forms are very rare, and in the older language almost unknown. Of neuters from i-stems have been noted in the Veda only haricriyam, acc. sing. (a masc. form), and suadhias, gen. sing. (same as masc. and fem.); from \bar{u} -stems, only a few examples, and from stem-forms which might be masc. and fem. also: thus, vibhú, subhú, etc. (nom.-acc. sing.: compare 354); $sup u\bar{a}$ and $mayobh uv\bar{a}$, instr. sing.; and mayobh u, acc. pl. (compare $pur\hat{u}$: 342); from \bar{u} -stems occur only half-a-dozen examples of a nom. sing. in $\bar{a}s$, like the masc. and fem. form.

- b. Compounds having nouns of the second division as final member are common only from derivatives in \bar{a} ; and these shorten the final to a in both masculine and neuter: thus, from a, 'not', and $praj\bar{a}$, 'progeny', come the masc. and neut. stem apraja, fem. $apraj\bar{a}$, 'childless'. Such compounds with nouns in \bar{i} and \bar{u} are said to be inflected in masc. and fem. like the simple words (only with $\bar{i}n$ and $\bar{u}n$ in acc. pl. masc.); but the examples given by the grammarians are fictitious. The stem strī is directed to be shortened to -stri for all genders.
- 2 368. It is convenient to give a complete paradigm, for all genders, of an adjective-stem in Ξ a. We take for the purpose $qq p\bar{a}p\dot{a}$, 'evil', of which the feminine is usually made in $\pi \bar{a}$ in the later language, but in $\bar{\xi}$ \bar{i} in the older.

| | Singular: | 0000 | And Comment | in the sea of the sea |
|-----------|---------------------|-------------------------------|---------------------------|---------------------------|
| anni del | m. | n. | f. 1 | f. |
| N. | पापस् | पापम् | पापा | पापी |
| meday, it | pāpás | $p\bar{a}p\acute{a}m$ | $par{a}par{a}$ | $par{a}p'ar{i}$ |
| A. | पाप | म् । | पापाम् | पापीम् |
| | $p\bar{a}p$ | ám | $p \bar{a} p \acute{a} m$ | $p \bar{a} p \dot{i} m$ |
| I. | पापे | ৰ | पापया | पाप्या |
| | $p\bar{a}p$ | éna | $par{a}p\dot{a}yar{a}$ | $par{a}pyar{a}$ |
| D. | पाप | ाय | पापायै | पाप्य |
| | | 'a ya | $par{a}par{a}yar{a}i$ | $par{a}pyar{a}i$ |
| Ab. | पाप | | पापायास् | प्राप्यास् |
| | $p\bar{a}p$ | . ~ | pāp ā yās | , pāpyās |
| G. | पाप | स्य | पापायास् | पाप्यास् |
| | $p\bar{a}p$ | óásya | $par{a}par{a}yar{a}s$ | $par{a}pyar{a}s$ |
| L. | पापे | | पापायाम् | पाप्याम् |
| | $p\bar{a}p$ | \dot{e} | pāp á yām | $par{a}pyar{a}m$ |
| v. | पाप | | पापे | पापि |
| | $p \dot{\bar{a}} p$ | a | $p \not a p e$ | $p \overleftarrow{a} p i$ |
| | Dual: | | | |
| N. A. V. | पापी | पापे | पापे | पाप्यी |
| | $p\bar{a}p\bar{a}u$ | $p \bar{a} p \acute{e}$ | $par{a}pcute{e}$ | $par{a}pyar{a}ù$ |
| I, D, Ab. | . पाप | भ्याम् | पापाभ्या म् | पापीभ्याम |
| | | ābhyām | $par{a}p\dot{a}bhyar{a}m$ | $par{a}p'ibhyar{a}m$ |
| G. L. | पाप | योस | पापयोम | पाप्योम |
| | | áyos | pāpáyos | pāpyós |
| | Plural: | | | |
| N. | पापास | पापानि | पापास | पाप्यम् |
| | $p\bar{a}p\dot{a}s$ | $p \overline{a} p \not a n i$ | $par{a}par{a}s$ | $par{a}py\grave{a}s$ |
| Α, | पापान | पापानि | पापास | पापीस |
| | $p\bar{a}p\dot{a}n$ | pāpāni | $p\bar{a}p\dot{a}s$ | $p\bar{a}p\dot{\bar{i}}s$ |
| I. | ं . पांपी | | यापाभिस <u>्</u> | पापीभिस् |
| | $p\bar{a}p$ | . ~ | $par{a}par{a}bhis$ | $par{a}par{t}bhis$ |
| D, Ab. | _ | भ्यम | यापाभ्य स | पापीभ्य स |
| | | rébhyas | $p\bar{a}p\dot{a}bhyas$ | $p\bar{a}p\dot{t}bhyas$ |
| | 1 1 | v | 1 1 0 | 1 1 |

| G. | पापानाम् | पापानाम् | पापीनाम् |
|----|----------|----------|-------------------------------------|
| | pāpānām | pāpanām | $par{a}par{n}ar{a}m$ |
| L. | पापेषु | पापामु . | पापीषु |
| | pāpéşu | pāpāsu | $p\bar{a}p\dot{\bar{\imath}}$ ș u |

the sea draw it is quantities at the season as all

Declension IV.

Stems in r (or ar).

369. This declension is a comparatively limited one, being almost entirely composed of derivative nouns formed with the suffix η tr (or η tar), which makes masculine nomina agentis (used also participially), and a few nouns of relationship.

But it includes also a few nouns of relationship not made with that suffix: namely dev_r' , m., $sv\acute{asr}$ and $n\acute{a}n\bar{a}nd_r$, f.; and, besides these, $n\acute{r}$, m., $st\acute{r}$ (in V.), m., $us\acute{r}$ (in V.), f., $savyas\rlap{.}th_r$, m., and the feminine numerals tisr and catasr (for which, see chap. VI.). The feminines in tr are only $m\bar{a}t\acute{r}$, $duhit\acute{r}$, and $y\acute{a}tr$.

The inflection of these stems is quite closely analogous with that of stems in i and u (second declension); its peculiarity, as compared with them, consists mainly in the treatment of the stem itself, which has a double form, fuller in the strong cases, briefer in the weak ones.

370. Forms of the Stem. In the weak cases (excepting the loc. sing.) the stem-final is r, which in the weakest cases, or before a vowel-ending, is changed regularly to r (129). But as regards the strong cases, the stems of this declension fall into two classes: in one of them — which is very much the larger, containing all the nomina agentis, and also the nouns of relationship náptr and svásr, and the irregular words str and savyasthr — the r is vriddhied, or becomes $\bar{a}r$; in the other, containing most of the nouns of relationship, with nr and usr, the r is gunated, or changed to ar. In both classes, the loc. sing. has ar as stem-final.

371. Endings. These are in general the normal, but with the following exceptions:

The nom, sing, (masc, and fem.) ends always in \bar{a} (for original ars). The voc. sing. ends in ar.

The accus, sing, adds am to the (strengthened) stem; the accus. pl. has (like i and u-stems) n as mass, ending and s as fem. ending, with the r lengthened before them.

The abl.-gen. sing. changes r to ur (or us: 169, end).

The gen. pl. (as in *i* and *u*-stems) inserts *n* before $\bar{a}m$, and lengthens the stem-final before it. But the *r* of n'r may also remain short.

The above are the rules of the later language. The older presents certain deviations from them. Thus:

The ending in nom, etc. du. is (as universally in the Veda) regularly \bar{a} instead of $\bar{a}u$ (only ten $\bar{a}u$ -forms in RV.).

The i of loc. sing. is lengthened to i in a few words: thus, kartári.

In the gen. pl., the RV. has once $sv\'{a}sr\~{a}m$, without inserted n; and $nar\'{a}m$ instead of $nrn\'{a}m$ is frequent.

Other irregularities of n_1^r are the sing, dat. n are, gen. n are, and loc. n are. The Veda writes always n_1^r n in gen. pl., but its r is in a majority of cases metrically long.

The stem usi', f., 'dawn', has the voc. sing. usar, the gen. sing. usrás; and the accus. pl. also usrás, and loc. sing. usrám (which is metrically trisyllabic: usrám), as if in analogy with $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{u} -stems. Once occurs usri in loc. sing., but it is to be read as if the regular trisyllabic form, usini (for the exchange of s and s, see 181 a).

From str come only taras (apparently) and strbhis.

In the gen.-loc. du., the r is almost always to be read as a separate syllable, r, before the ending os: thus, pitros, etc. On the contrary, $n\acute{a}n\ddot{a}ndari$ is once to be read $n\acute{a}n\ddot{a}ndri$.

For neuter forms, see below, 378.

- 372. Accent. The accentuation follows closely the rules for i and u-stems: if on the final of the stem, it continues, as acute, on the corresponding syllable throughout, except in the gen. pl., where it may be (and in the Veda always is) thrown forward upon the ending; where, in the weakest cases, \dot{r} becomes r, the ending has the accent. The two monosyllabic stems, $n\dot{r}$ and $st\dot{r}$, do not show the monosyllabic accent: thus (besides the forms already given above), $n\dot{r}bhis$, $n\dot{r}su$.
- 373. Examples of declension. As models of this mode of inflection, we may take from the first class (with আফ ār in the strong forms) the stems হান্ dātṛ, m., 'giver', and स्वस् svásṛ, f., 'sister'; from the second class (with আফ ar in the strong forms) the stem ি থান্ pitṛ, m., 'father'.

| Sir | igular : | | |
|-----|-------------------------------|----------------------|-------------------|
| N. | दाता | स्वमा | पिता |
| | $dar{a}t'ar{a}$ | $svlpha sar{a}$ | pitlpha |
| A. | दातारम् ^{dātáram} | स्वसारम् svásāram | पितरम् pitáram |

| N. | I. | दात्रा | स्वस्रा | पित्र <u>ा</u> |
|------------|-------------|-------------------------------------|-------------------|------------------|
| | (S) (J) (S) | dātrā | svásrā | pitrá |
| | D. | दात्रे | स्वम्रे | पित्रे |
| | don Lanis | dātrė . | svásre | pitré |
| | Ab. G. | दात्र | स्वस्र | पितुर् |
| one out | | dātúr | svásur | pitúr |
| | L. | दातरि | स्वमरि | पितिरि |
| | | dātári | svásari | pitári |
| | v. | दात्र | स्वस्र | पित्र |
| | | dåtar | svásar | pitar |
| | Dual: | | | |
| | N. A. V. | रातामी | स्वसारी | पितरी |
| , | | dātārāu | svásārāu | pitárāu |
| | I. D. Ab. | दात्भ्याम् | स्वस्याम् | - पित्रभ्याम् |
| | | dātrbhyām | svásrbhyām | pitrbhyām |
| | G. L. | दात्रोस | स्वस्रो स | पित्रोस |
| | | $d\bar{a}tr \delta s$ | svásros | pitrós |
| | Plural | l: | | |
| | N. V. | दातारम् | स्वसारम् | पितरम् |
| | | dātāras | svásāras | pitáras |
| | A. | दातृन् | स्वसुस् | पितृन् |
| | | dātṛn | svás <u>r</u> s | pitrn |
| | I. | दातृभिम् | स्वसृभिस् | पितभिस |
| | | dātṛbhis | svásrbhis | pitrbhis |
| | D. Ab. | दात्भ्यम् | स्वस्थस् | पित्भ्यस् |
| | | dātrbhyas | svásrbhyas | pitr bhyas |
| | G. | दातृणाम् | स्वमुणाम् | पितृणाम् |
| | | $d\bar{a}t_{r}^{\epsilon}n\dot{a}m$ | svás <u>r</u> nām | pitṛṇām |
| | L. | दातष | स्वसष | पितष |
| | | dātṛsu | svásrsu | pitṛṣu |
| | | | | |

The feminine stem मातृ $m\bar{a}t\dot{r}$, 'mother', is inflected precisely like पितृ $pit\dot{r}$, excepting that its accusative plural is मातॄम् $m\bar{a}t\dot{r}s$.

The peculiar Vedic forms have been sufficiently instanced above; the only ones of other than sporadic occurrence being the nom. etc. du. $d\bar{a}t\acute{a}r\bar{a}$, $sv\acute{a}s\ddot{a}r\ddot{a}$, $pit\acute{a}r\ddot{a}$, and the gen. pl. of nr, $nar\acute{a}m$.

- 374. The stem krosti, m., 'jackal' (lit'ly 'howler'), substitutes in the middle cases the corresponding forms of króstu.
- 375. Neuter forms. The grammarians prescribe a complete neuter declension also for bases in tr, precisely accordant with that of vari or madhu (above, 339, 341). Thus, for example:

| | Sing. | Du. | Plur. |
|-------|-----------------------------------|----------------------------------|-----------------------|
| N. A. | dhāt ' r | dhātṛṇī | dh ūt †ni |
| I. | $dh\bar{a}t_{1}^{\prime}n\bar{a}$ | $dhar{a}t_{1}^{\prime}bhyar{a}m$ | dhātŕbhis |
| G. | dhātṛṇas | $dh\bar{a}t\dot{r}\dot{n}os$ | dhātṛṇấm |
| v. | dhấtṛ, dhấtar | $dhlpha trar{n}ar{\imath}$ | $dhlpha tar{	au}ni$. |

The weakest cases, however (as of i and u-stems used adjectively: 344), are allowed also to be formed like the corresponding masculine cases: thus, $dh\bar{a}tr\dot{a}$ etc.

No such neuter forms chance to occur in the Veda, but they begin to appear in the Brāhmaṇas, under influence of the common tendency (compare Germ. Retter, Retterin; Fr. menteur, menteuse) to give the nomen agentis a more adjective character, making it correspond in gender with the noun which it (appositively) qualifies. Thus, we have in TB. bharti and janayiti, qualifying antārikṣam; and bhartini and janayitini, qualifying nākṣatrāṇi; as, in M., grahītēṇi, qualifying indriyāṇi.

When a feminine noun is to be qualified in like manner, the usual feminine derivative in $\bar{\imath}$ is employed: thus, in TB., bhartryùs and bhartryūù, janayitryùs and janayitryūù, qualifying $\dot{a}pah$ and ahor $\bar{a}tr\dot{\epsilon}$; and such instances are not uncommon.

The RV. shows the same tendency very curiously once in the accus. pl. $m\bar{u}t\bar{\tau}n$, instead of $m\bar{u}t\bar{\tau}s$, in apposition with masculine nouns (RV. x. 35.2).

Other neuter forms in RV. are sthātúr, gen. sing., dhmātúrī, loc. sing.; and for the nom. sing., instead of -tr, a few more or less doubtful cases, sthātar, sthātúr, dhartári (Lanman, p. 422).

Adjectives.

- 376. a. There are no original adjectives of this declension: for the quasi-adjectival character of the nouns composing it, see above (378). The feminine stem is made by the suffix $\bar{\imath}$: thus, $d\bar{a}tr\dot{\imath}$, $dh\bar{a}tr\dot{\imath}$.
- b. Roots ending in r (like those in i and u: 345) add a t to make a declinable stem, when occurring as final member of a compound: thus, $karmak\acute{r}t$ (\sqrt{kr}), $vajrabh\acute{r}t$ (\sqrt{bhr}), $balih\acute{r}t$ (\sqrt{hr}). From some r-roots, also, are made stems in ir and ur: see below, 383a, b.

c. Nouns in r as finals of adjective compounds are inflected in the same manner as when simple, in the masculine and feminine; in the neuter, they would doubtless have the peculiar neuter endings in nom.-acc.-voc. of all numbers.

Declension V.

Stems ending in Consonants.

377. All stems ending in consonants may properly be classed together, as forming a single comprehensive declension; since, though some of them exhibit peculiarities of inflection, these have to do almost exclusively with the stem itself, and not with the declensional endings.

378. In this declension, masculines and feminines of the same final are inflected precisely alike; and neuters are peculiar (as usually in the other declensions) only in the nom.-acc.-voc. of all numbers.

The majority of consonantal stems, however, are not inflected in the feminine, but form a special feminine derivative stem in $\frac{\xi}{\bar{z}}$ (never in \bar{z}), by adding that ending to the weak form of the masculine.

Exceptions are in general the stems of divisions A and B — namely, the radical stems etc., and those in as and is and us. For special cases, see below.

379. Variations, as between stronger and weaker forms, are very general among consonantal stems: either of two degrees (strong and weak), or of three (strong, middle, and weakest): see above, 311.

The peculiar neuter forms, according to the usual rule (311), are made in the plural from the strong stem, in singular and dual from the weak — or, when the gradation is threefold, in singular from the middle stem, in dual from the weakest.

As in the case of stems ending in short vowels (āsyàni, vắrīṇi, mádhūni, dātṛṇi, etc.), a nasal sometimes appears in the

special neuter plural cases which is found nowhere else in inflection. Thus, from the stems in as, is, us, the nom. etc. pl. in $-\bar{a}nsi$, $-\bar{i}nsi$, $-\bar{u}nsi$ are very common at every period. According to the grammarians, the radical stems etc. (division A) are treated in the same way; but examples of such neuters are of excessive rarity in the older language; no Vedic text offers one, and in the Brāhmanas have been noted only -hunti (AB. vii. 2), -vṛnti (PB. xvi. 2. 7 et al.), and -bhānji (KB. xxvii. 7): it may be questioned whether they are not late analogical formations.

380. The endings are throughout those given above (310) as the "normal".

By the general law as to finals (150), the s of the nom. sing. masc. and fem. is always lost; and irregularities of treatment of the final of the stem in this case are not infrequent.

The gen. and abl. sing. are never distinguished in form from one another — nor are, by ending, the nom. and accus. pl.: but these sometimes differ in stem-form, or in accent, or in both.

381. Change in the place of the accent is limited to monosyllabic stems and the participles in *ant* (accented on the final). For details, see below, under divisions A and E.

A few of the compounds of the root $a\bar{n}c$ or ac show an irregular shift of accent in the oldest language: see below, 410.

- 382. For convenience and clearness of presentation, it will be well to separate from the general mass of consonantal stems certain special classes which show kindred peculiarities of inflection, and may be best described together. Thus:
 - B. Derivative stems in as, is, us;
 - C. Derivative stems in an (an, man, van);
 - D. Derivative stems in in (in, min, vin);
 - E. Derivative stems in ant (ant, mant, vant);
 - F. Perfect active participles in $v\bar{a}ns$;
 - G. Comparatives in yas.

There remain, then, to constitute division A, especially radical stems, or those identical in form with roots, together with a comparatively small number of others which are inflected like these.

They will be taken up in the order thus indicated.

A. Root-stems, and those inflected like them.

383. The stems of this division may be classified as follows:

a. Root-stems, having in them no demonstrable element added to a root: thus, rc, 'verse'; gir, 'song'; pád, 'foot'; diç, 'direction'; máh (V.), 'great'.

Such stems, however, are not always precisely identical in form with the root: thus, $v\acute{a}c$ from v/vac, $sr\acute{a}j$ from v/srj, $m\acute{u}s$ from v/mus, $vr\ell c$ from v/vac (?), $u\acute{s}s$ from v/vas 'shine'; — and from roots in final r come stems in ur: thus, $g\acute{e}r$, $u\acute{a}-c\acute{e}r$, $st\acute{u}r$; $u\acute{u}r$, $u\acute{u}r$,

With these may be ranked the stems with reduplicated root, as cikst, yavīyúdh, vánīvan, sasyád.

Words of this division in uncompounded use are tolerably frequent in the older language: thus, in RV. are found more than a hundred of them; in AV., about sixty; but in the classical Sanskrit the power of using any root at will in this way is lost, and the examples are comparatively few. In all periods, however, the adjective use as final of a compound is very common (see below, 401).

b. Stems made by the addition of t to a final short vowel of a root.

No proper root-stem ends in a short vowel, although there are (above, 354) examples of transfer of such to vowel-declensions; but i or u or r adds a t to make a declinable form: thus, $-j\hat{u}t$, $-cr\hat{u}t$, $-k\dot{r}t$. Roots in r, however, as has just been seen, also make stems in ir or ur.

As regards the frequency and use of these words, the same is true as was stated above respecting root-stems. The Veda offers examples of nearly thirty such formations, a few of them $(m\hat{u}, r\hat{t}t, st\hat{u}t, hr\hat{u}t, v^i_t, and dy\hat{u}t$ if this is taken from dyu) in independent use. Of roots in r, kr, dhr, dhvr, bhr, vr, sr, spr, hr, hvr add the t. The roots $g\bar{u}$ (or gam) and han also make $-g\hat{u}t$ and $-h\hat{u}t$ by addition of the t to an abbreviated form in a (thus, $adhvag\hat{u}t$, $dyug\hat{u}t$, $navag\hat{u}t$, and $samh\hat{u}t$).

As to the infinitive use of various cases of the root-noun in these two forms, see chap. \mathbf{XIII} .

c. Monosyllabic (also apparently reduplicated) stems not certainly connectible with any verbal root in the language, but having the aspect of root-stems, as containing no traceable suffix: thus, tvác, 'skin'; páth, 'road'; hṛd, 'heart'; áp, 'water'; ás, 'mouth'; kakúbh and kakúd, 'summit'.

Thirty or forty such words are found in the older language, and some of them continue in later use, while others have been transferred to other modes of declension or have become extinct.

d. Stems more or less clearly derivative, but made with suffixes of rare or even isolated occurrence. Thus:

- 1. derivatives (V.) from prepositions with the suffix vat: arvāvát, āvát, udvát, nivát, parāvát, pravát, samvát;
- derivatives (V.) in tāt (perhaps abbreviated from tāti), in a few isolated forms: thus, uparātāt, devātāt, vrķātāt, satyātāt, sarvātāt;
- 3. other derivatives in t, preceded by various vowels: thus, vehát, vahát, sravát, saçcát, vághat; nápāt; tadít, divít, yosít, rohít, sarít, harít; marút; yákrt, çákrt; and the numerals for '30, 40, 50', trinçát etc. (475);
 - 4. stems in ad: thus, dṛṣád, dhṛṣád, bhasád, vanád, carád;
- 5. stems in j, preceded by various vowels: thus, tṛṣṇāj, dhṛṣāj, sanāj; ucij, vanij, bhurij, ninij (?); áṣṛj;
- 6. a few stems ending in a sibilant apparently formative: thus, $j\tilde{n}\dot{a}s$, $-d\bar{a}s$, $bh\dot{a}s$, $m\dot{a}s$, $bh\dot{t}s$;
- 7. a remnant of unclassifiable cases, such as viṣṭāp, vipāç, kāpṛth, curūdh, iṣidh, pṛkṣūdh, raghāṭ (?).
- 384. Gender. The root-stems are regularly feminine as nomen actionis, and masculine as nomen agentis (which is probably only a substantive use of their adjective value: below, 400). But the feminine noun, without changing its gender, is often also used concretely: e. g., druh f. (\sqrt{druh}, 'be inimical') means 'harming, enmity', and also 'harmer, hater, enemy' thus bordering on the masculine value. And some of the feminines have a completely concrete meaning. Through the whole division, the masculines are much less numerous than the feminines, and the neuters rarest of all.

The independent neuter stems are $h\dot{r}d$ (also $-h\bar{a}rd$), $d\hat{a}m$, $v\dot{a}r$, $sv\dot{a}r$, $m\dot{a}s$ 'flesh', $\dot{a}s$ 'mouth', $bh\dot{a}s$, $d\hat{o}s$, and the indeclinables $c\hat{a}m$ and $y\hat{o}s$: also the derivatives $y\hat{a}krt$, $c\hat{a}krt$, asrj.

- 385. Strong and weak stem-forms. The distinction of these two classes of forms is usually made either by the presence or absence of a nasal, or by a difference in the quantity of the stem-vowel, as long or short; less often, by other methods.
- 386. A nasal appears in the strong cases of the following words:
- a. Compounds having as final member the root ac or $a\tilde{n}c$: see below, 407 ff.; b. The stem yuj, sometimes (V.): thus, nom. sing. $yu\bar{n}$ (for $yu\bar{n}k$), accus. $yu\tilde{n}jam$, du. $yu\tilde{n}j\bar{a}$ (but also yujam and $yuj\bar{a}$); c. The stem -drc, as final of a compound (V.); but only in the nom. sing. masc., and not always: thus, $any\bar{u}d\dot{r}n$, $\bar{i}d\dot{r}n$, $k\bar{i}d\dot{r}n$, $sad\dot{r}n$ and $pratisad\dot{r}n$: but also $\bar{i}d\dot{r}k$, $t\bar{u}d\dot{r}k$, $svard\dot{r}k$, etc.; d. For path and pums, which substitute more extended stems, and for dant, see below, 394—6.
 - 387. The vowel a is lengthened in strong cases as follows:

a. Of the roots vac, sac, sac, nabh, cas, in a few instances (V.), at the end of compounds; — b. Of the roots vah and sah, but irregularly: see below, 403-5; — c. Of ap 'water' (see 393); also in its compound $r\bar{\imath}ty\bar{\imath}p$; — d. Of pad, 'foot': in the compounds of this word, in the later language, the same lengthening is made in the middle cases also; and in RV. and AV. the nom. sing. neut. is both -pat and $-p\bar{\imath}t$, while $-p\bar{\imath}dbhis$ and $-p\bar{\imath}tsu$ occur in the Brāhmanas; — e. Of nas, 'nose'; — f. Sporadic cases (V.) are: $y\bar{\imath}j$ (?), voc. sing.; $p\bar{\imath}thas$ and $-r\bar{\imath}pas$, accus. pl.; $van\bar{\imath}v\bar{\imath}nas$, nom. pl. The strengthened forms $bh\bar{\imath}j$ and $r\bar{\imath}j$ are constant, through all classes of cases.

388. Other modes of differentiation, by elision of a or contraction of the syllable containing it, appear in a few stems:

a. In -han: see below, 402; — b. In k sam (V.), along with prolongation of a: thus, k s am a du., k s am a pl.; k s am a instr. sing., k s am a loc. sing., k s am a abl. sing.; — c. In dv a, contracted (V.) to dur in weak cases (but with some confusion of the two classes); — d. In sv a, which becomes (RV.) s a in weak cases: later it is indeclinable.

389. The endings are as stated above (380).

Respecting their combination with the final of the stem, as well as the treatment of the latter when it occurs at the end of the word, the rules of euphonic combination (chap. III.) are to be consulted; they require much more constant and various application here than anywhere else in declension.

Attention may be called to a few exceptional cases of combination (V.): $m\bar{u}dbhis$ and $m\bar{u}dbhyas$ from $m\dot{a}s$ 'month'; the wholly anomalous padbhis (RV. and VS.: AV. has always padbhis) from $p\dot{u}d$; and $sar\dot{u}d$ and $sar\dot{u}dbhyas$ corresponding to a nom. pl. $sar\dot{u}dh$ (instead of $sar\dot{u}das$: 222). $D\dot{u}n$ is apparently for $d\dot{u}m$, by 143, end. Agnidh is abbreviated from ayni-idh.

According to the grammarians, neuter stems, unless they end in a nasal or a semivowel, take in nom.-acc.-voc. pl. a strengthening nasal before the final consonant. But no such cases from neuter noun-stems appear ever to have been met with in use; and as regards adjective stems ending in a root, see above, 379.

390. Monosyllabic stems have the regular accent of such, throwing the tone forward upon the endings in the weak cases.

But the accusative plural has its normal accentuation as a weak case, upon the ending, in only a minority (hardly more than a third) of the stems: namely in datás, pathás, padás, nidás, apás, uṣás, jñāsás, puṁsás, māsás, mahás; and sometimes in vācás, srucás, hrutás, sridhás, kṣapás, vipás, durás, iṣás, dviṣás, druhás (beside vácas etc.).

Exceptional instances, in which a weak case has the tone on the stem, occur as follows: $s\hat{a}d\bar{a}$, $n\hat{a}dbhyas$, $t\hat{a}n\bar{a}$ (also $tan\hat{a}$) and $t\hat{a}ne$, $r\hat{a}ne$ and $r\hat{a}nsu$, $v\hat{a}nsu$, $sv\hat{a}ni$, $v\hat{i}pas$, $ks\hat{a}mi$, $s\hat{u}r\bar{a}$ and $s\hat{u}ras$ (but $s\bar{u}r\hat{e}$), $\hat{a}nhas$, and $v\hat{a}nas$ and $b\hat{r}has$ (in $v\hat{a}nasp\hat{a}ti$, $b\hat{r}hasp\hat{a}ti$). On the other hand, a strong case is accented

on the ending in mahás, nom. pl., and kāsám (AV.: perhaps a false reading). And presá, instr. sing., is accented as if prés were a simple stem, instead of pra-is. Vimrdháh is of doubtful character. For the sometimes anomalous accentuation of stems in ac or añc, see 410.

(391. Examples of inflection. As an example of normal monosyllabic inflection, we may take the stem বাঘ vāc, f., 'voice' (from vবঘ vac, with constant prolongation); of inflection with strong and weak stem, पহ pád, m., 'foot'; of polysyllabic inflection, দানা marút, m., 'wind' or 'wind-god'; of a monosyllabic root-stem in composition, বিষয়ে trivit, 'three-fold', in the neuter. Thus:

| | Singular: | 1 | | |
|-----------|--|---------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------|
| N. V. | वाक् $v\acute{a}k$ | पा <u>र</u> pád | मरुत् marút | त्रिवृत् trivṛt |
| A. | वाचम् vácam | पार्म् pádam | महतम् marútam | त्रिवृत् trivṛ́t |
| I. | वाचा ^{vācā} | पदा padá | मह्ता marútā | त्रिवृता trivṛ́tā |
| D. | वाचे _{vācé} | पदे padé | मक्ते marúte | त्रिवृते trivṛte |
| Ab. G. | वाचम् ^{vācás} | पदम् padás | महतम् marútas | त्रिवृतम् trivṛtas |
| L. | वाचि _{vāci} | पदि padi | महाति marúti | त्रिवृति trivŕti |
| N. A. V. | Dual : वाची vācāu | पादी pádāu | मृत्ती marútāu | · त्रिवृती trivṛtī |
| I. D. Ab. | वारभ्याम् ^{vāgbhyá} m | पद्माम् padbhyām | मरुद्धाम् marúdbhyām | त्रिवृद्धाम् trivṛdbhyām |
| G. L. | वाचोम् $var{a}c\delta s$ | पदोंस् padós | मह्तीम् marútos | त्रिवृतोम् trivṛtos |
| N. V. | ^{Plural :} वाचम् <i>vācas</i> | पाट्स् pādas | मरूतम् marútas | त्रिवृत्ति trivṛnti |
| Α. | वाचम् vācás, vácas | पद्म् padás | मरूतम् marútas | त्रिवृत्ति trivṛnti |
| | | | | |

| T. | वाग्भिम् $var{a}gbhis$ | पद्मिम् padbhis | मरुद्धिम् marúdbhis | त्रिवृद्धिम् trivṛdbhis |
|--------|------------------------|--------------------|------------------------|----------------------------|
| D. Ab. | वाग्भ्यम् | पद्मम् | मरुद्धाम् | त्रिवृद्यम् |
| | vāgbhyás | padbhyás | marúdbhyas | trivṛ́dbhyas |
| G. | वाचाम् | पदाम् | मरुताम् | त्रिवृताम् |
| | ^{vācām} | padám | marútām | trivṛtām |
| L. | वातु | पत्सु | मरूत्मु | त्रिवृत्मु |
| | ^{vākṣú} | patsú | marútsu | trivṛtsu |

392. The stems in *ir* and *ur*, and *is* and *us*, lengthen their vowel (245 b) when their final is followed by another consonant, and also in the nom. sing. (where the following *s* is lost): thus, from gir, f., 'song', gir (gih), giram, $gir\dot{a}$ etc.; $gir\bar{a}u$, $g\bar{i}rbhy\dot{a}m$, $gir\dot{s}s$; giras, $g\bar{i}rbhis$, $g\bar{i}rbhy\dot{s}s$, $gir\dot{s}m$, $g\bar{i}rs\dot{s}u$ (165); and so $p\ddot{u}r$, $p\ddot{u}ram$, $p\bar{u}rbhis$, $p\bar{u}rs\dot{u}$; and $\bar{a}c\dot{s}s$, $\bar{a$

393. The stem dp, f., 'water', is inflected only in the plural, and with dissimilation of its final before bh to d (151d): thus, dpas, apds, adbhis, adbhyds, apdm, apsd.

But RV. has the sing, instr. $ap\ddot{a}$ and gen. $ap\ddot{a}s$. In AV. often, and in an instance or two in RV., the nom, and accus. pl. forms are confused in use, $\ddot{a}pas$ being employed as accus., and (in an instance or two) $ap\ddot{a}s$ as nominative.

394. The stem p'ums, m., 'man', is very irregular, substituting $p\'um\~a\~ns$ in the strong cases, and losing its s (necessarily) before initial bh of a case-ending, and likewise (by analogy with this, or by an abbreviation akin with that noticed at **231**) in the loc. plural. The vocative is (in accordance with that of the somewhat similarly inflected perfect participles: below, **462a**) p'uman in the later language, but p'umas in the earlier. Thus: $p\'um\~an$, $p\'um\~aisam$, pums'ai, pums'ai, pums'ai, p'ums'ai, p'ums'ai, p'ums'ai, p'ums'ai, p'ums'ai, p'umbh'y'am, p'ums'ai, p'ums'ai, p'ums'ai, p'ums'ai, p'umbh'ai, p'umbh'ai, p'umbh'ai, p'umbh'ai, p'ums'ai, p'ums'ai, p'ums'ai, p'umbh'ai, p'umbh'ai, p'umbh'ai, p'umbh'ai, p'umbh'ai, p'umbh'ai, p'umbh'ai, p'um'ai, p'um'ai,

The accentuation of the weak forms, it will be noticed, is that of a true monosyllabic stem. The forms with bh-endings nowhere occur in the older language, nor do they appear to have been cited from the later. As to the retention of s unlingualized in the weakest cases (whence necessarily follows that in the loc. pl.), see 183.

395. The stem path, m., 'road', is defective in declension, forming only the weakest cases, while the strong are made from $p \acute{a}nth \bar{a}$ or $p \acute{a}nth an$, and the middle from path i: see under anstems, below, **433.**

- 396. The stem dánt, m., 'tooth', is perhaps of participial origin, and has, like a participle, the forms dánt and dát, strong and weak: thus (V.), dán, dántam, datá, etc.; datás acc. pl. etc. But in the middle cases it has the monosyllabic and not the participial accent: thus, dadbhis, dadbhyás. In nom. pl. occurs also -datas instead of -dantas. By the grammarians, the strong cases of this word are required to be made from dánta.
- 397. A number of other words of this division are defective, making part of their inflection from stems of a different form.

Thus, $h_{1}^{\prime}d$, n., 'heart', $m\dot{a}ns$ or $m\dot{a}s$, n., 'meat', $m\dot{a}s$, m., 'month', $n\dot{a}s$, f., 'nose', nic, f., 'night' (not found in the older language), $p_{1}^{\prime}t$, f., 'army', are said by the grammarians to lack the nom. of all numbers and the accus. sing. and du. (the neuters, of course, the acc. pl. also), making them respectively from $h_{1}^{\prime}daya$, $m\ddot{a}ns\dot{a}$, $m\dot{a}sa$, $n\dot{a}sik\ddot{a}$, $nic\ddot{a}$, $p_{1}^{\prime}tan\ddot{a}$. But the usage in the older language is not entirely in accordance with this requirement: thus, we find $m\dot{a}s$, 'flesh', accus. sing.; $m\dot{a}s$, 'month', nom. sing.; and $n\ddot{a}s\ddot{a}$, 'nostrils', du. From $p_{1}^{\prime}t$ occurs only the loc. pl. $p_{1}ts\dot{u}$ and (RV., once) the same case with double ending, $p_{1}ts\dot{u}su$.

398. On the other hand, certain stems of this division, allowed by the grammarians a full inflection, are used to fill up the deficiencies of those of another form.

Thus, asrj, n., 'blood', cakrt, n., 'ordure', yakrt, n., 'liver', dos, n. (also m.), 'fore-arm', have beside them defective stems in an: see below, 432. Of none of them, however, is anything but the nom.-acc. sing. found in the older language, and other cases later are but very scantily represented.

Of ds, n., 'mouth', and ud, 'water', only a case or two are found, in the older language, beside ds and ds are ds and ds and ds and ds and ds and ds are ds and ds and ds are ds are ds and ds are ds are ds are ds and ds are ds are ds and ds are ds and ds are ds and ds are ds are ds and ds are ds are ds are ds are ds and ds are ds and ds are ds and ds are ds are ds and ds are ds and ds are ds are ds and ds are ds are ds are ds are ds and ds are ds and ds are ds are ds are ds are ds and ds are ds are ds and ds are ds are ds and ds are ds and ds are ds are ds are ds are ds are ds are ds and ds are ds and ds are ds are ds are ds are ds and ds are ds are

399. Some of the alternative stems mentioned above are instances of transition from the consonant to a vowel declension: thus, $d\hat{a}nta$, $m\dot{a}sa$. A number of other similar cases occur, sporadically in the older language, more commonly in the later. Such are $p\dot{a}da$, $-m\bar{a}da$, $-d\bar{a}ca$, $bhr\bar{a}j\dot{a}$, vistapa, $dv\bar{a}ra$ and dura, pura, dhura, -drca, $n\dot{a}s\bar{a}$, $nid\bar{a}$, $kstp\bar{a}$, $ksap\dot{a}$, $\bar{a}c\dot{a}$, and perhaps a few others.

 \mathbf{A} few irregular stems will find a more proper place under the head of Adjectives.

Adjectives.

400. Original adjectives having the root-form are comparatively rare even in the oldest language.

About a dozen are quotable from the RV., for the most part only in a few scattering cases. But mah, 'great', is common in RV., though it dies out rapidly later. It makes a derivative feminine stem, $mah\tilde{t}$, which continues in use, as meaning 'earth' etc.

401. But compound adjectives, having a root as final member, with the value of a present participle, are abundant

in every period of the language.

Possessive adjective compounds, also, of the same form, are not very rare: examples are yatásruc, 'with offered bowl'; súryatvac, 'sun-skinned'; cátuspad, 'four-footed; suhárd, 'kindhearted, friendly'; rītyàp (i. e. rīti-ap), 'having streaming waters'; sahásradvār, 'furnished with a thousand doors'.

The inflection of such compounds is like that of the simple root-stems. masculine and feminine being throughout the same, and the neuter varying only in the nom.-acc.-voc. of all numbers.

Only rarely is a derivative feminine stem in i formed; in the older language, only from the compounds with ac or anc (407 ff.), those with han (402), and those with pad, as ékapadī, dvipádī,

Irregularities of inflection appear in the following:

402. The root han, 'slay', as final of a compound, is inflected somewhat like a derivative noun in an (below, 420 ff.), becoming $h\bar{a}$ in the nom. sing., and losing its n in the middle cases and its a in the weakest cases (but only optionally in the loc. sing.). Further, when the vowel is lost, h in contract with following n reverts to its original gh. Thus:

| | Singular. | Dual. | Plural. |
|------|--------------------------------|----------------------------------|---------------------------------------|
| N. | vṛtrahā́ | vṛtraháṇā u | v ṛtrah \hat{a} ṇ as |
| A. | vṛtraháṇam | Loinanairea | vṛtraghnás |
| I. | v ṛ t r $aghn \dot{ar{a}}$ | 1 | v ŗ t r a h $\acute{a}b$ h is |
| D. | v ṛtr agh n é | v ṛtr ahábhyām | vṛtrahábhyas |
| Ab. | vṛtragh n ás | | , |
| G. ∫ | oțiraginas | vṛtragh n ós | v ṛt ragh n ấm |
| L. | vṛtraghní, -háṇi | \ oitragnnos | v ṛtrah $\hat{a}su$ |
| v | v <u>ŕ</u> traha n | $v \dot{r} t raha ar{n} ar{a} u$ | $v_{r}^{\prime}trahanas.$ |

As to the change of n to n, see 193, 195.

A feminine is made by adding \bar{i} to, as usual, the stem-form shown in the weakest cases: thus, vrtraghni.

An accus. pl. -hánas (like the nom.) also occurs. Vṛtrahábhis (RV., once) is the only middle case-form quotable from the older language. Transitions to the a-declension begin already in the Veda: thus, to -ha (RV., AV.), -ghná (RV.), -hana.

403. The root vah, 'carry', at the end of a compound is said by the grammarians to be lengthened to $v\bar{a}h$ in both the strong and middle cases, and contracted in the weakest cases to $\bar{u}h$, which with a preceding a-vowel becomes $\bar{a}u$ (137d): thus, from havyaváh, 'sacrifice-bearing' (epithet of Agni), havyavát, havyaváham, havyāúhā, etc.; havyaváhāu, havyavádbhyām, havyāúhos; havyaváhas, havyaúhas, havyavádbhis, etc. And çvetaváh (not quotable) is said to be further irregular in making the nom. sing. in $v\bar{a}s$ and the vocative in vas or $v\bar{a}s$.

In the earlier language, only strong forms of compounds with vah have been found to occur: namely, $-v \dot{a}t$, $-v \dot{a}ham$, $-v \dot{a}h\bar{a}u$ or $-v \dot{a}h\bar{a}$, and $-v \dot{a}has$. TS. has the irregular nom. sing. $pasthav \dot{a}t$.

404. Of very irregular formation and inflection is one common compound of vah, namely anadváh (anas+vah, 'burdenbearing' or 'cart-drawing': i. e. 'ox'). Its stem-form in the strong cases is anadváh, in the weakest anadváh, and in the middle anadváh (perhaps by dissimilation from anadvád). Moreover, its nom. and voc. sing. are made in $v\bar{a}n$ and van (as if from a vant-stem). Thus:

| | Singular. | Dual. | Plural. |
|-----|-----------------|-------------------------------|-----------------------------|
| N. | a naḍvấn | anadváhāu | ana $dvlpha^\prime$ has |
| A. | anaḍvāˈham |) anaavanaa | anaduhas |
| I. | $anaduhar{a}$ |) | anadúdbhis |
| D. | anadúhe | a na d ú db h $yar{a}m$ | anadúdbhyas |
| Ab. | anadúhas | | janaņaaonyas |
| G. | f anaqunas | anadúhos | $anaduhar{a}m$ |
| L. | anadúhi | anagunos | anaḍútsu |
| v. | anadvan | ánadvāhāu | $\acute{a}nadv \ddot{a}has$ |

 ${\it Anaduabhyas}~({\rm AV}_{\:\raisebox{1pt}{\text{\circle*{1.5}}}},~{\rm once})$ is the only middle case-form quotable from the older language.

The corresponding feminine stem (of very infrequent occurrence) is either $anaduh\vec{i}$ (QB.) or $anadv\bar{a}h\bar{\imath}$ (K.).

- 405. The root sah, 'overcome', has in the Veda a double irregularity: its s is changeable to s even after an a-vowel as also in its single occurrence as an independent adjective (RV., $tv\acute{a}m$ $s\acute{a}t$) while it sometimes remains unchanged after an i or u-vowel; and its a is either prolonged or remains unchanged, in both strong and weak cases. The quotable forms are: $-s\acute{a}t$, $-s\acute{a}ham$ or $-s\acute{a}ham$ or $-s\acute{a}ham$, $-s\acute{a}h\acute{a}$, $-s\acute{a}he$ or $-s\acute{a}has$ or $-s\acute{a}has$ or $-s\acute{a}has$; $-s\acute{a}has$ or $-s\acute{a}has$ or $-s\acute{a}has$.
- **406.** The compound $avay \dot{a}j$ (γyaj , 'make offering'), 'a certain priest' or (BR.) 'a certain sacrifice', is said to form the nom. and voc. sing. $avay \dot{a}s$, and to make its middle cases from $avay \dot{a}s$.

Its only quotable form is $avay\dot{a}s$, f. (RV. and AV., each once). If the stem is a derivative from $ava + \gamma yaj$, 'conciliate', $avay\dot{a}s$ is probably from $ava + \gamma y\bar{a}$, which has the same meaning.

407. Compounds with $a\tilde{n}c$ or ac. The root ac or $a\tilde{n}c$ makes, in combination with prepositions and other words, a considerable class of familiarly used adjectives, of quite irregular formation and inflection, in some of which it almost loses its character of root, and becomes an ending of derivation.

A part of these adjectives have only two stem-forms: a strong in $a\tilde{n}e$ (yielding $a\tilde{n}$, from $a\tilde{n}ks$, in nom. sing. masc.),

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and a weak in ac; others distinguish from the middle in ac a weakest stem in c, before which the a is contracted with a preceding i or u into $\bar{\imath}$ or \bar{u} .

The feminine is made by adding \bar{i} to the stem-form used in the weakest cases, and is accented like them.

408. As examples of inflection we may take $pr\tilde{a}\tilde{n}c$, 'forward, east'; pratyáñe, 'backward, west'; visvañe, 'going apart'.

pratuak

อร์สอสที

Singular:

 $nr\bar{a}\bar{n}$

prák

| 14. A. | pran pran | praigan praigak | visvan visvan |
|-----------|-----------------------|-----------------------------|--------------------------|
| A. | práñcam prák | pratyáñcam pratyák | vísvañcam vísvak |
| I. | $prar{a}car{a}$ | $m{pratar{i}c\dot{a}}$ | v í $sar{u}car{a}$ |
| D. | prlpha ce | pratīcé | v í s $ar{u}ce$ |
| Ab. G. | $m{pr}ar{a}cas$ | pratīcás | v í s $ar{u}cas$ |
| L. | $pr \dot{ar{a}}ci$ | $pratar{\imath}ci$ | v í $sar{u}ci$ |
| Dua | l: | | |
| N. A. V. | práñcāu prácī | pratyáñcāu pratīci | víșvañcāu víșūcī |
| I. D. Ab. | . $prar{a}gbhyar{a}m$ | $pratylpha gbhyar{a}m$ | v í $svagbhyar{a}m$ |
| G. L. | $prar{a}cos$ | $pratar{\imath}c\acute{o}s$ | v í s $ar{u}$ cos |
| Plur | al: | | |
| N. V. | práñcas práñci | pratyáñcas pratyáñci | vísvañcas vísvañci |
| A. | prácas práñci | pratīcās pratyānci | víṣūcas víṣvañci |
| I. | prdge gbhis | $praty\'agbhis$ | ví s v $agbhis$ |
| D. Ab. | $pr \acute{a}gbhyas$ | $praty\'agbhyas$ | vísvagbhyas |
| G. | $prar{a}car{a}m$ | $pratar{\imath}ccute{a}m$ | v í s $ar{u}car{a}m$ |
| L. | $prcute{a}ksu$ | $praty\'ak$ ṣ u | ví $svaksu$ |

The feminine stems are $pr\bar{a}c\bar{i}$, $prat\bar{i}c\dot{i}$, $vis\bar{u}c\bar{i}$, respectively.

No example of the middle forms excepting the nom, etc. sing, neut. (and this generally used as adverb) is found either in RV. or AV. In the same texts is lacking the nom. etc. pl. neut. in nci; but of this a number of examples occur in the Brāhmaņas: thus, prainci, pratyanci, arvanci, samyáñci, sadhryañci, anvañci.

- **409.** a. Like pranc are inflected apanc, avanc, paranc, arvanc, adharanc, and others of rare occurrence.
- b. Like pratyáñe are inflected nyàñe (i. e. níañe), samyáñe $(sam + a\tilde{n}c, \text{ with irregularly inserted } i)$, and $uda\tilde{n}c$ (weakest stem $\dot{u}d\bar{i}c: ud + a\tilde{n}c$, with i inserted in weakest cases only), with a few other rare stems.
- c. Like visvaño is inflected anváño, also three or four others of which only isolated forms occur.
- d. Still more irregular is tiryáñc, of which the weakest stem is tiráce (tirás + ac: the other stems are made from $tir + a\tilde{n}c$ or ac, with the inserted i).
- 410. The accentuation of these words is irregular, as regards both the stems themselves and their inflected forms. Sometimes the one element has

the tone and sometimes the other, without any apparent reason for the difference. If the compound is accented on the final syllable, the accent is shifted in RV. to the ending in the weakest cases provided their stem shows the contraction to $\bar{\imath}$ or \bar{u} : thus, $pr\acute{a}c\bar{a}$, $arv\acute{a}c\bar{a}$, $adhar\acute{a}cas$, but $prat\bar{\imath}c\acute{a}$, $an\bar{u}c\acute{a}s$, $sam\bar{\imath}c\acute{\imath}$. But AV. and later texts usually keep the accent upon the stem: thus, $prat\acute{\imath}c\bar{\imath}$, $sam\acute{\imath}c\bar{\imath}$, $an\acute{u}c\bar{\imath}$ (RV. has $prat\acute{\imath}c\bar{\imath}m$ once). The change of accent to the endings, and even in polysyllabic stems, is against all usual analogy.

B. Derivative stems in as, is, us.

- 411. The stems of this division are prevailingly neuter; but there are also a few masculines, and a single feminine.
- 412. The stems in मन् as are quite numerous, and mostly made with the suffix मन् as (a small number also with तम् tas and नम् nas, and some are obscure); the others are few, and almost all made with the suffixes इम् is and उम् us.
- (413. Their inflection is almost entirely regular. But masculine and feminine stems in \overline{n} as lengthen the vowel of the ending in nom. sing.; and the nom.-acc.-voc. pl. neut. make the same prolongation (of \overline{n} a or \overline{n} i or \overline{n} u) before the inserted nasal (anusvāra).
- 414. Examples of declension. As examples we may take দানদ্ mánas, n., 'mind'; ঘারিংদা ángiras, m., 'Angiras'; হ্ৰিন্ havís, n., 'libation'.

| ular: | - | |
|--------------------|---|--|
| मनम् | म्रङ्गिराम् | क्विम् |
| mánas | $angirar{a}s$ | havis |
| मनम् | म्रङ्गिरसम् | क्विम् |
| mánas | $aar{n}girasam$ | havis |
| मनमा | ग्रङ्गिरमा | क्विषा |
| $mcute{a}nasar{a}$ | $aar{n}girasar{a}$ | $havi$ ṣ $ar{a}$ |
| मनमे | म्रङ्गिरमे | क्विषे |
| mánase | $d\overline{n}girase$ | havi șe |
| मनसम् | म्रङ्गिरसम् | क् विषम् |
| mánasas | $aar{n}girasas$ | haviṣas |
| | मनम् mánas मनम् mánas मनमा mánasā मनमे mánase मनमम् | मनम् म्राङ्गराम् mánas ángirās मनम् म्राङ्गरमम् mánas ángirasam मनमा म्राङ्गरमा mánasā ángirasā मनम म्राङ्गरमे mánase ángirase मनमम् म्राङ्गरमम् |

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| 9 | | , | | , |
|---|-----------|------------------------|---|---|
| | L. | मनिम mánasi | म्रङ्गिर्मि angirasi | क्विपि havlşi |
| | v. | मनम् mánas | म्रङ्गिरम् angiras | क्विम् hávis |
| | Dual | Andrews - | | |
| | N. A. V. | मनमी mánasī | म्रङ्गिर्मी angirasāu | रुविषी havişī |
| | I. D. Ab. | मनोभ्याम् mánobhyām | म्रङ्गिरोभ्याम् काgirobhyām | क्विर्म्याम् havirbhyām |
| | G. L. | मनसोम् mánasos | म्रङ्गिरमोम् ángirasos | रुविषोम् havişos |
| | Plura | 1: | | |
| | N. A. V. | मनांसि mánāṅsi | म्रङ्गिर्मम् angirasas | क्वीषि havinsi |
| | I. | मनोभिम् mánobhis | ग्रङ्गिभिम् angirobhis | रुविर्भिम् havirbhis |
| | D. Ab. | मनोभ्यम् mánobhyas | म्रङ्गिरोभ्यम् ^{(angirobhyas} | रुविभ्र्यम् havirbhyas |
| | G. | मनसाम् mánasām | ग्रङ्गिरसाम् ^{ángirasām} | कृविषाम् havíṣām |
| | L. | मनःमु mánaḥsu | म्रङ्गिरःमु ángiraḥsu | रुविःषु havíḥṣu |
| | | | | |

In like manner, चत्म् cákṣus, n., 'eye', forms चत्पा cákṣuṣā, चत्-र्याम् cákṣurbhyām, चतुंचि cákṣūṅṣi, and so on.

- 415. Vedic irregularities. a. The masc. and fem. du. ending \bar{a} instead of $\bar{a}u$ is as usual elsewhere; — b. The fem. uṣás, 'dawn', often prolongs its a in the other strong cases (besides nom. sing.): thus, $us\dot{a}sam$, usasa, usasas. In instr. pl. occurs (RV., once) usadbhis instead of usobhis (only quotable example of a middle case). From toçás is once found (RV.) in like manner the du. $toc\bar{a}s\bar{a}$; — c. Janús has the nom. sing. masc. $jan\bar{u}s$, like an as-stem; — d. From svávas and svátavas occur in RV. nom. sing. masc. in $v\bar{a}n$; — e. One or two apparently contracted forms — thus, $vedh\bar{a}m$ for vedhásam, and surádhās for surádhasas, nom. pl. — are met with.
- 416. The grammarians regard uçánas, m., as regular stem-form of the proper name noticed above (355 a), but give it the irregular nom. $ucan\bar{a}$ and the voc. uçanas or uçana or uçanan. Forms from the as-stem, even nom., are sometimes met with in the later literature.

As to forms from as-stems to ahan or ahar and udhan or udhar, see below, 430.

Adjectives.

417. A few neuter nouns in as with accent on the radical syllable have corresponding adjectives or appellatives in as, with accent on the ending: thus, for example, apas, 'work', apas, 'active'; taras, 'quickness', taras, 'quick'; yaças, 'beauty', yaças, 'beauteous'. A few other similar adjectives — as tavas, 'mighty', vedhas, 'pious' — are without corresponding nouns.

Original adjectives in is do not occur. But in us are found as many adjectives as nouns (about ten of each class); and in several instances adjective and noun stand side by side, without difference of accent such as appears in the stems in as: e. g.

tápus, 'heat' and 'hot'; vápus, 'wonder' and 'wonderful'.

418. Adjective compounds having nouns of this division as final member are very common: thus, sumánas, 'favorably minded'; dīrghāyus, 'long-lived'; cukrācocis, 'having brilliant brightness'. The stem-form is the same for all genders, and each gender is inflected in the usual manner, the stems in as making their nom. sing. masc. and fem. in ās (like áñgiras, above). Thus, from sumánas, the nom. and accus. are as follows:

singular. dual. plural.

m. f. n. m. f. n. m. f. n.

N. sumánās -nas
A. sumánasam -nas

sumánasāu -nasī sumánasas -nāńsi
and the other cases (save the vocative) are alike in all genders.

From dīrghayus, in like manner:

N. dīrghāyus
A. dīrghāyuṣam -yus
dīrghāyuṣāu -yuṣī dīrghāyuṣas -yūṅṣi
I. dīrghāyuṣā dīrghāyurbhyām dīrghāyurbhis
etc. etc. etc.

419. The stem anehás, 'unrivalled' (defined as meaning 'time' in the later language), forms the nom. sing. masc. and fem. anehá.

C. Derivative stems in an.

- 420. The stems of this division are those made by the three suffixes হান an, নন man, and হান van, together with a few of more questionable etymology which are inflected like them. They are masculine and neuter only.
- 421. The stem has a triple form. In the strong cases of the masculine, the vowel of the ending is prolonged to

बा \bar{a} ; in the weakest cases it is in general struck out altogether; in the middle cases, or before a case-ending beginning with a consonant, the final $\bar{\gamma}$ n is dropped. The $\bar{\gamma}$ n is also lost in the nom. sing. of both genders (leaving $\bar{\alpha}$ \bar{a} as final in the masculine, $\bar{\beta}$ a in the neuter).

The peculiar cases of the neuter follow the usual analogy (311): the nom.-acc.-voc. pl. have the lengthening to \overline{a} , as strong cases; the nom.-acc.-voc. du., as weakest cases, have the loss of \overline{a} — but this only optionally, not necessarily.

In the loc. sing. also, the a may be either rejected or retained (compare the corresponding usage with r-stems: 373). And after the m or v of man or van, when these are preceded by another consonant, the a is always retained, to avoid a too great accumulation of consonants.

- 422. The vocative sing is in masculines the pure stem; in neuters, either this or like the nominative. The rest of the inflection requires no description.
- **423.** As to accent, it needs only to be remarked that when, in the weakest cases, an acute \acute{a} of the suffix is lost, the tone is thrown forward upon the ending.
- (424. Examples of declension. As such may be taken নারান্ råjan, m., 'king'; সান্দান্ ātmán, m., 'soul, self'; নানন্ nåman, n., 'name'. Thus:

| Si | ngular : | | |
|--------|-------------------------------|-----------------------|-------------------------------|
| N. | राजा | म्रात्मा | नाम |
| | rājā | \bar{a} $tm\dot{a}$ | $n \dot{\overline{a}} m a$ |
| A. | राजानम् | म्रात्मानम् | नाम |
| | rājānam | ātmānam | $n \dot{\bar{a}} m a$ |
| I. | राज्ञा | म्रात्मना | नाम्ना |
| | $r\dot{a}j\widetilde{n}ar{a}$ | $ar{a}tmlpha nar{a}$ | $n \dot{\bar{a}} m n \bar{a}$ |
| D. | राज्ञे | म्रात्मने | नाम्ने |
| | $r \dot{a} j 	ilde{n} e$ | $ar{a}$ t m á ne | $n \dot{\bar{a}} m n e$ |
| Ab. G. | राज्ञम् | ग्रात्मनम् | नाम्नम् |
| | rājñas | ātmánas | nāmnas |

| L. m ak | राज्ञि, राजनि | म्रात्मिन | नाम्नि, नामनि |
|-----------|--------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------|
| | rájñi, rájani | ātmáni | námni, námani |
| v. Joy | राजन् | म्रात्मन् | नामन्, नाम |
| | rájan | åtman | náman, náma |
| Du | al: | B miliments (vil | mi facilitate la |
| N. A. V. | राजानी | ฆเกาเกิ | नाम्री, नामनी |
| | rājānāu | atmánāu | námnī, námanī |
| I. D. Ab. | राजभ्याम् | घात्मभ्याम् | नामभ्याम् |
| | rájabhyām | ātmábhyām | námabhyām |
| G. L. | राज्ञीम् | म्रात्मनोस् | नाम्रोस् |
| | rājños | ^{ātmános} | nāmnos |
| Plu | ıral: | | |
| N. | राजानम् råjānas | म्रात्मानस् $ar{a}tmar{a}nas$ | าเมาโา กล็māni |
| Α. | राजम् rājñas | म्रात्मनम् $ar{a}tm$ ánas | नामानि námāni |
| I. | राजभिम् | म्रात्मभिम् | नामभिम् |
| | rājabhis | ^{ātmábhis} | nāmabhis |
| D. Ab. | राजभ्यम् | म्रात्मभ्यम् | नामभ्यम् |
| | råjabhyas | ātmábhyas | nāmabhyas |
| G. | राज्ञाम् | म्रात्मनाम् | नाम्राम्। |
| | råjñām | ātmánām | กล์mnām |
| L. | राजम् | न्रात्ममु | नाममु |
| | rájasu | ātmásu | nāmasu |

The weakest cases of $m\bar{u}rdh\acute{n}n$, m., 'head', would be accented $m\bar{u}rdhn\acute{a}$, $m\bar{u}rdhn\acute{e}$, $m\bar{u}rdhn\acute{o}s$, $m\bar{u}rdhn\acute{a}s$ (acc. pl.), $m\bar{u}rdhn\acute{a}m$, etc.; and so in all similar cases (loc. sing., $m\bar{u}rdhn\acute{u}$ or $m\bar{u}rdh\acute{n}n$).

425. Vedic Irregularities. a. Here, as elsewhere, the ending of the nom.-acc.-voc. du. masc. is usually \bar{a} instead of $\bar{a}u$.

b. The briefer form (with ejected a) of the loc. sing., and of the neut. nom. etc. du., is almost unknown to the older language. RV. writes once $catad\hat{a}vni$, but it is to be read $catad\hat{a}vani$; and a few similar cases occur in AV. In the Brāhmaṇas also, such forms as $dh\bar{a}mani$ and $s\bar{a}man\bar{i}$ are much more common than such as ahni and $lomn\bar{i}$.

c. But throughout both Veda and Brāhmaṇa, an abbreviated form of the loc. sing., with the ending i omitted, or identical with the stem, is common (in RV., of considerably more frequent occurrence than the regular form): thus, $m\bar{u}rdh\hat{a}n$, $k\hat{u}rman$, $\hat{u}dhvan$, beside $m\bar{u}rdh\hat{a}ni$ etc.

- d. In the nom.-acc. pl. neut., also, an abbreviated form is common, ending in \bar{a} or (twice as often) a, instead of $\bar{a}ni$: thus, $br\hat{a}hma$ and $br\hat{a}hm\bar{a}$, beside $br\hat{a}hm\bar{a}ni$: compare the similar series of endings from a-stems, 329.
- e. From a few stems in man is made an abbreviated inst. sing., with loss of m as well as of a: thus, mahina, prathina, varina, dūna, prena, bhūna, for mahimna etc. And drāghma (RV., once) is perhaps (Grassmann) for drūghmanā.
- f. Other of the weakest cases than the loc. sing. are sometimes found with the a of the suffix retained: thus, for example, $bh\'aman\~a$, d'amane, y'amanas, uks'anas (accus. pl.), etc. In the infinitive datives tr'amane, vidm'ane, $d\~av\'ane$, etc. the a always remains. Still more numerous are the instances in which the a, omitted in the written form of the text, is, as the metre shows, to be restored in reading.
- g. The voc. sing. in vas, which is the usual Vedic form from stems in vant (below, 453 b), is found also from a few in van, perhaps by a transfer to the vant-declension: thus, rtavas, evayavas, khidvas (?), prataritvas, matariçvas, vibhavas.

For words of which the a is not made long in the strong cases, see the next paragraph, **b**.

- 426. A few stems do not make the regular lengthening of a in the strong cases (except the nom. sing.). Thus:
- a. The names of divinities, $p\bar{u}s\hat{a}n$ and $aryam\hat{a}n$: thus, $p\bar{u}s\hat{a}$, $p\bar{u}s\hat{a}n$, $p\bar{u}s\hat{a}n$, etc.
- b. In the Veda, ukṣān, 'bull' (but RV. ukṣāṇam once); yōṣan, 'maiden'; $v_f san$, 'virile, bull' (but $v_f san$ am and $v_f san$ as are also met with); tman, abbreviation of $\bar{a}tman$; and two or three other scattering forms: anarvanam, $j\epsilon man\bar{a}$. And in a number of additional instances, the Vedic metre seems to demand a where \bar{a} is written.
- **427.** The stems $cv\acute{a}n$, m., 'dog', and $y\acute{u}van$, 'young', have in the weakest cases the contracted form $c\acute{u}n$ and $y\acute{u}n$ (with retention of the accent); in the strong and middle cases they are regular. Thus, $cv\acute{a}n$, $cv\acute{a}nam$, $c\acute{u}n\bar{a}$, $c\acute{u}ne$, etc., $cv\acute{a}bhy\bar{a}m$, $cv\acute{a}bhis$, etc.

In dual, RV. has once $y \dot{\bar{u}} n \bar{a}$ for $y \dot{u} v \bar{a} n \bar{a}$.

428. The stem maghávan, 'generous' (later, almost exclusively a name of Indra), is contracted in the weakest cases to maghón: thus, maghávā, maghávānam, maghónā, maghóne, etc.

The RV. has once the weak form maghónas in nom. pl.

Parallel with this is found the stem maghavant (division E); and from the latter alone in the older language are made the middle cases: thus, maghavadbhis, maghavatsu, etc. (not maghavabhis etc.).

429. A number of an-stems are more or less defective, making a part of their forms from other stems. Thus:

430. a. The stem áhan, n., 'day', is in the later language used only in the strong and weakest cases, the middle (with the nom. sing., which usually follows their analogy) coming from áhar or áhas: namely, áhar nom.-acc. sing., áhobhyām, áhobhis, etc. (PB. has aharbhis); but áhnā etc., áhni or áhani, áhnī or áhanī, áhāni (and, in V., áhā). In composition, only ahar or ahas is used as preceding member; as final member, ahar, ahas, ahan, or the derivatives aha, ahna.

In the oldest language, the middle cases ahabhis, ahabhyas, ahasu also occur.

- b. The stem udhan, n., 'udder', exchanges in like manner, in the old language, with udhar and udhas, but has become later an as-stem only (except in the fem. $udhn\bar{\imath}$ of adjective compounds): thus, udhar or udhas (so RV.: AV. only the latter), udhas, udhan or udhan or udhan, udhah, udhah.
- 431. The neuter stems aksian, 'eye', asthian, 'bone', dadhian, 'curd', sakthian, 'thigh', form in the later language only the weakest cases, aksinia, asthian, dadhias, sakthia or sakthian, and so on; the rest of the inflection is made from stems in i, aksinian etc.: see above, 343f.

In the older language, other cases from the an-stems occur: thus, $aks\acute{a}ni$ and $aks\acute{a}bhis$; $asth\acute{a}ni$, $asth\acute{a}bhis$, and $asth\acute{a}bhyas$; $sakth\acute{a}ni$.

432. The neuter stems $as\acute{a}n$, 'blood', $yak\acute{a}n$, 'liver', $cak\acute{a}n$, 'ordure', $\bar{a}s\acute{a}n$, 'mouth', $ud\acute{a}n$, 'water', $dos\acute{a}n$, 'fore-arm', $y\bar{u}s\acute{a}n$, 'broth', are required to make their nom.-acc.-voc. in all numbers from the parallel stems $\acute{a}srj$, $y\acute{a}krt$, cakrt, $\bar{a}sy\grave{a}$, $\acute{u}daka$ (in older language $udak\acute{a}$), $d\acute{o}s$, $y\bar{u}s\acute{a}$, which are fully inflected.

Earlier occurs also the dual dosani.

433. The stem pánthan, m., 'road', is reckoned in the later language as making the complete set of strong cases, with the irregularity that the nom.-voc. sing. adds a s. The corresponding middle cases are made from pathi, and the weakest from path. Thus:

from pánthan — pánthās, pánthānam; pánthānāu; pánthānas; from pathi — pathibhyām; pathibhis, pathibhyas, pathiṣu;

from path — pathā, pathé, pathás, pathí; pathós; pathás (accus.), pathám.

In the oldest language (RV.), however, the strong stem is only $p\hat{a}nth\bar{a}$: thus, $p\hat{a}nth\bar{a}s$, nom. sing.; $p\hat{a}nth\bar{a}m$, acc. sing.; $p\hat{a}nth\bar{a}s$, nom. pl.; and even in AV., $p\hat{a}nth\bar{a}nam$ and $p\hat{a}nth\bar{a}nas$ are rare compared with the others. From $path\hat{a}$ occur also the nom. pl. $path\hat{a}yas$ and gen. pl. $path\bar{n}\hat{a}m$. RV. has once $p\bar{a}th\hat{a}s$, acc. pl., with long \bar{a} .

434. The stems manthan, m., 'stirring-stick', and rbhuksan, m., an epithet of Indra, are given by the grammarians the same inflection with panthan; but only a few cases have been found in use. In V. occur from

the former the acc. sing. mantham, and gen. pl. mathinam (like the corresponding cases from panthan); from the latter, the nom. sing. rbhuksas and voc. pl. rbhuksas, like the corresponding Vedic forms of panthan; but also the acc. sing. rbhuksanam and nom. pl. rbhuksanas, which are after quite another model.

Adjectives.

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- 435. Original adjective stems in an are almost exclusively those in van, as yájvan, 'sacrificing', sútvan, 'pressing the soma', jitvan, 'conquering'. The stem is masc. and neut. only (two or three sporadic cases of its use as fem. occur in RV.); the corresponding fem. stem is made in varī: thus, yájvarī, jitvarī.
- **436.** Adjective compounds having a noun in an as final member are inflected after the model of noun-stems; and the masculine forms are said to be allowed in use also as feminine; but usually a special feminine is made by adding $\bar{\imath}$ to the weakest form of the masculine stem: thus, $durn\bar{a}mn\bar{\imath}$, $s\acute{o}mar\bar{a}j\tilde{m}\bar{\imath}$.
- 437. But nouns in an occuring as final members of compounds often lose the n, or substitute a stem in a for that in an: thus, $-r\bar{a}ja$, -adhva, -aha; the corresponding feminine is in \bar{a} . And feminines in \bar{a} , replacing an, are allowed to be widely formed in the compounds of this division.

The remaining divisions of the consonantal declension are made up of adjective stems only.

D. Derivative stems (adjective) in in.

438. The stems of this division are those formed with the suffixes হন in, দিন্ min, and নিন্ vin. They are masculine and neuter only; the corresponding feminine being made by adding ξ i.

The stems in in are numerous, since almost any noun in a in the language may form a possessive derivative adjective with this suffix: thus, bála, 'strength', balin, m. n., balinī, f., 'possessing strength, strong'. Stems in vin, however, are very few, and those in min still fewer.

139. Their inflection is quite regular, except that they lose their final π in the middle cases (before an initial consonant of the ending), and also in the nom. sing., where the masculine lengthens the ξ i by way of compensation. The voc. sing. is in the masculine the bare stem; in the neuter, either this or the nominative.

In all these respects, it will be noticed, the *in*-declension agrees with the *an*-declension; it differs from the latter only in never losing the vowel of the ending.

440. Example of inflection. As such may be taken विश्वन balin, 'strong'. Thus:

| | Singular. | Du | al. | Plu | ral. |
|-----|--------------|--|---------------------|---------|---------|
| | m. n. | m. | n. | m. | n. |
| N. | बली बलि | 1 | | | nt send |
| | bali bali | बलिनी | बलिनी | बलिनम् | बलीनि |
| A. | बलिनम् बलि | <i>balināu</i> | $balin\bar{\imath}$ | balinas | batini |
| | balinam bali | J | | | 011.0 |
| I. | बलिना | | | बर्लि | भिम् |
| | $balinar{a}$ | | | balib | his |
| D. | वलिने | विलभ | याम् |) | |
| | baline | balibh | hyām` | विल | |
| Ab. | विलिनम् | | | bahb | hyas |
| G. | balinas |) | | बलि | राजा |
| G. | ı | 1 | | balin | |
| | | बिलिन | | | |
| L. | विलिनि | baline | 08 | वलि | षु |
| | balini | , | | balis | |
| v | | <u>e </u> | | | |

V. विलिन् विलिन्, बिलि विलिनी विलिनी बिलिनम् विलीनि bálin bálin, báli bálināu bálinī bálinas bálīni

The derived feminine stem in $in\bar{i}$ is inflected, of course, like any other feminine in derivative \bar{i} (365).

441. There are no irregularities in the inflection of instems, in either the earlier language or the later — except the usual Vedic dual ending in \bar{a} instead of $\bar{a}u$.

E. Derivative stems (adjective) in ant (or at).

442. These stems fall into two sub-divisions: 1. those made by the suffix স্থান্ন ant (or সান্ at), being, with a very few exceptions, active participles, present and future; 2. those made by the possessive suffixes দন্ mant and বান্ vant (or দান্ mat and বান্ vat). They are masculine and neuter only; the corresponding feminine is made by adding $\frac{5}{5}$ $\bar{\imath}$.

1. Participles in ant or at.

443. The stem has in general a double form, a stronger and a weaker, ending respectively in হান ant and হান at. The former is taken in the strong cases of the masculine, with, as usual, the nom.-acc.-voc. pl. neuter; the latter is taken by all the remaining cases.

But, in accordance with the rule for the formation of the feminine stem (below, 449), the future participles, and the present participles of verbs of the tud-class or accented \hat{a} -class (752), and of verbs of the ad-class or root-class ending in \bar{a} , are by the grammarians allowed to make the nom.-acc.-voc. du. from either the stronger or the weaker stem; and the present participles from all other present-stems ending in a are required to make the same from the strong stem.

444. Those verbs, however, which in the 3d pl. pres. active lose $\overline{\uparrow}$ n of the usual ending $\widehat{f}\overline{n}$ nti (550) lose it also in the present participle, and have no distinction of strong and weak stem.

Such are the verbs forming their present-stem by reduplication without added a: namely, those of the reduplicating or hu-class (655) and the intensives (1012): thus, from Vhu, present-stem juhu, participle-stem juhvat; intensive-stem johu, intensive participle-stem johvat. Further, the participles of roots apparently containing a contracted reduplication: namely, caksat, caks

Even these verbs are allowed by the grammarians to make the nom.-acc.-voc. pl. neut. in anti.

- 445. The inflection of these stems is quite regular. The nom. sing. masc. comes to end in হান an by the regular (150) loss of the two final consonants from the etymological form হাল্ম ants. The vocative of each gender is like the nominative.
- 446. Stems accented on the final syllable throw the accent forward upon the case-ending in the weakest cases (not in the middle also).

In the dual neut. (as in the feminine stem) from such participles, the accent is ant if the n is retained, at if it is lost.

447. Examples of declension. As such may serve

भवत् bhávant, 'being'; म्रहत् adánt, 'eating'; तुद्धत् júhvat, 'sacrificing'. Thus:

| SO TOR | form dun (THE mi 7) | ding respective | and a weaker, en |
|------------|--------------------------------------|------------------|--------------------------------------|
| | भवन भवत् | म्रदन् मदत् | बुद्धत् बुद्धत् júhvat júhvat |
| Α. | भवतम् भवत् | म्रदत्तम् म्रदत् | नुद्धतम् नुद्धत् |
| | bhávantam bhávat | adántam adát | júhvatam júhvat |
| I. | भवता | म्रद्ता | जुद्धता |
| | bhávatā | adatá | júhvatā |
| D. | ਮਕ ਨੇ | म्रद्ते | नुद्धते |
| | bhávate | adaté | júhvate |
| Ab. G. | भवतम् | म्रद्तम् | जुद्धतम् |
| | bhávatas | adatás | júhvatas |
| L. | भवति | म्रद्ति | नुद्धति |
| | bhávati | ^{adati} | júhvati |
| v. | भवन् भवत् | म्रदन् म्रदत् | जुद्धत् |
| | bhávan bhávat | ádan ádat | júhvat |
| | Dual: | | |
| N. A. V. | भवती भवती | म्रद्सी म्रद्ती | जुद्धतौ जुद्धती |
| | bhávantāu bhávantī | adántāu adati | júhvatāu júhvatī |
| I.D.Ab. | भवद्याम् | म्रदङ्गाम् | नुद्धद्माम् |
| | bhávadbhyām | adádbhyām | júhvadbhyām |
| G. L, | भवताम् | म्रद्तीम् | जुद्धतोम् |
| | bhávatos | adatós | jühvatos |
| | Plural: | | |
| N. V. | भवत्तम् भवत्ति bhávantas bhávanti | | जुद्धतम् जुद्धति júhvatas júhvati |
| A . | भवतम् भवति | म्रदतम् म्रदित | जुद्धतम् जुद्धति |
| | bhávatas bhávanti | adatás adánti | júhvatas júhvati |
| I. | भवद्भिम् | म्रदिसम् | जुद्धिद्मि |
| | bhávadbhis | adádbhis | júhvadbhis |
| D. Ab. | भवद्मम् | श्रदद्माम् | नुद्धम् |
| | bhávadbh y as | adádbhyas | júhvadbhyas |

449

The future participle bhavisyánt may form in nom. etc. dual neuter either bhavisyántī or bhavisyatī; tudánt, either tudántī or tudatī; yánt (\sqrt{ya}) , either yántī or yātī. And júhvat, in nom. etc. plural neuter, may make also júhvanti (beside júhvati, as given in the paradigm above).

But these strong forms (as well as bhåvantī, du., and its like from present-stems in unaccented a) are quite contrary to general analogy, and of somewhat doubtful character. No Vedic example of them is found; nor have they been noticed anywhere in the older language. The cases concerned, indeed, would be everywhere of rare occurrence.

- 448. The Vedic deviations from the model as above given are few. The dual ending $\bar{a}u$ is only one sixth as common as \bar{a} . Anomalous accent is seen in a case or two: $acod\acute{a}te$ and $rathir\bar{a}y\acute{a}t\bar{a}m$. The only instance in V. of nom. etc. pl. neut. is $s\acute{a}nti$, with lengthened \bar{a} : compare the forms in $-m\bar{a}nti$ and $-v\bar{a}nti$, below, 454 c.
- 449. The feminine participle-stem, as already stated, is made by adding $\frac{\xi}{\xi}$ $\bar{\imath}$ to either the strong or the weak stem-form of the masc.-neut. The rules as to which of the two forms shall be taken are the same with those given above respecting the nom. etc. dual neuter; namely:
- a. Participles from tense-stems ending in unaccented a add $\bar{\imath}$ to the strong stem-form, or make their feminine in $ant\bar{\imath}$.

Such are the $bh\bar{u}$ or unaccented a-class and the $d\bar{v}v$ or ya-class of present-stems (chap. IIX.), and the desideratives and causatives (chap. XIV.): thus, from $\gamma'bh\bar{u}$ (stem $bh\hat{u}va$), $bh\hat{u}vant\bar{i}$; from $\gamma'd\bar{i}v$ (stem $d\bar{i}vya$), $d\bar{i}vyant\bar{i}$; from $b\hat{u}bh\bar{u}sa$ and $bh\bar{u}va$ (desid. and caus. of $\gamma'bh\bar{u}$), $b\hat{u}bh\bar{u}sant\bar{i}$ and $bh\bar{u}va$ (and caus.)

Exceptions to this rule are rare. RV. has $t\hat{a}ksat\bar{\imath}$ and $j\hat{a}rat\bar{\imath}$; Bopp (Gr., 530) quotes a few cases from the Nala. The AV. $j\bar{\imath}vant\bar{\imath}$, with irregular accent, is doubtless to be regarded as a proper name.

b. Participles from tense-stems in accented \acute{a} may add the feminine-sign either to the strong or to the weak stem-form, or may make their feminines in $\acute{a}n \ell \bar{\imath}$ or in $a \ell \bar{\imath}$ (with accent as here noted).

Such are the present-stems of the tud or accented \hat{a} -class (chap. IX.), the s-futures (chap. XII.), and the denominatives (chap. XIV.): thus, from Vtud (stem $tud\hat{a}$), $tud\hat{a}nt\bar{i}$ or $tudat\hat{i}$; from $bhavisy\hat{a}$ (fut. of $Vbh\bar{u}$), $bhavisy\hat{a}nt\bar{i}$ or $bhavisyat\hat{i}$; from $devaya\hat{a}$ (denom. of $dev\hat{a}$), $devayant\bar{i}$ or $devayat\hat{i}$.

The forms in anti from this class are the prevailing ones. No future fem. participle in ati is quotable from the older language. From pres.-stems in a are found there rajati and sincati (RV.), tudati and pinvati (AV.). From denominatives, devayati (RV.), durasyati and catruyati (AV.).

Verbs of the ad or root-class (chap. IX.) ending in a are given by the grammarians the same option as regards the feminine of the present participle: thus, from \sqrt{ya} , yanti or yati. The older language affords no example

of the former, so far as noted.

c. From other tense-stems than those already specified that is to say, from the remaining classes of present-stems and from the intensives — the feminine is formed in ati (or, if the stem be otherwise accented than on the final, in ati) only.

Thus, adati from Vad; júhvati from Vhu; yunjati from Vyuj; sunvati from Vsu; kurvatí from Vkr; krinatí from Vkri; dédicati from dédic (intens.

Exceptions are occasionally met with in the later language, as dvisanti (M.), rudantī and kurvantī (N.). And AV. has yantī once.

- 450. A few words are participial in form and inflection, though not in meaning. Thus:
- a. brhánt (often written vrhánt in the later language), 'great': it is inflected like a participle (with brhati and brhanti in du. and pl. neut.).
- b. mahánt, 'great'; inflected like a participle, but with the irregularity that the a of the ending is lengthened in the strong forms: thus, mahān, mahāntam; mahāntāu (neut. mahatī); mahäntas, mahänti: instr. mahatä etc.
 - c. preant, 'speckled', and (in Veda only) ruçant, 'shining'.
- d. jagat, 'movable, lively' (in the later language, as neuter noun, 'world'), a reduplicated formation from \sqrt{gam} , 'go'; its nom. etc. neut. pl. is allowed by the grammarians to be only jáganti.
 - e. rhánt, 'small' (only once, in RV., rhaté).

All these form their feminine in atī only: thus, brhatī, mahatí, pṛṣatī and rúçatī (contrary to the rule for participles), jágatī.

For dant, 'tooth', which is perhaps of participial origin, see above, 396.

451. The pronominal adjectives iyant and kiyant are inflected like adjectives in mant and vant, having (452) iyan and kiyān as nom. masc. sing., iyatī and kiyatī as nom. etc. du. neut. and as feminine stems, and iyanti and kiyanti as nom. etc. plur. neut.

But the neut. pl. iyanti and the loc. sing. (?) kiyati are found in RV

2. Possessives in mant and vant.

452. The adjectives formed by these two suffixes are

inflected precisely alike, and very nearly like the participles in $\mathfrak{A}_{\overline{a}}$ ant. From the latter they differ only by lengthening the \mathfrak{A} a in the nom. sing. masc.

The voc. sing. is in an, like that of the participle (in the later language, namely: for that of the oldest, see below, 454b). The neut. nom. etc. are in the dual only $at\bar{\imath}$ (or $at\bar{\imath}$), and in the plural anti (or anti).

The feminine is always made from the weak stem: thus,

matī, vatī (or mátī, vátī).

The accent, however, is never (as in the participle) thrown forward upon the case-ending or the feminine ending.

453. To illustrate the inflection of such stems it will be sufficient to give a part of the forms of বসুমন্ paçumánt, 'possessing cattle', and মাৰন্ bhágavant, 'fortunate, blessed'. Thus:

| | Singular: m. | n. | m. | n. | | |
|----------|---------------------|-------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------|--|--|
| N. | पश्मान् | प्रमृत् | भगवान् | भगवत् | | |
| | paçumān | paçumà t | $bh\'agavar{a}n$ | bhágavat | | |
| A., | पश्रमत्तम् | पश्रुमत् | भगवत्तम् | भगवत् | | |
| | paçumántam | paçumát | $bh\'agavan tam$ | $bh\'agavat$ | | |
| | पश्रुम | ता | भगवता | भगवता | | |
| | paçu | $m \acute{a} t \bar{a}$ | $bh\'agav$ | $atar{a}$ | | |
| | et | te. | eto | etc. | | |
| V. | पश्मन्। | प्रमृत् | ਮਸਕਰ੍ | भगवत् | | |
| | páçuman | páçumat | $bh\'agavan$ | $bh\'agavat$ | | |
| | Dual: | A. | _ | | | |
| N. A. V. | प्रमृतनी | प्रमृती | भगवती | भगवती | | |
| | paçumán t āu | paçumátī | bhágavant ā u | $bh\'agavat\~i$ | | |
| | eto | | etc. | | | |
| | Plural: | | | | | |
| N. V. | पृष्रुमत्तस् | पशुमात्त | भगवत्तम् | भगवित | | |
| | paçumántas | paçumánti | bhágavantas | bhágavanti | | |
| A. | प्रमृतस् | पशुमित | भगवतस् | भगवित | | |
| | paçumátas | paçumánti | $bh\'agava\'tas$ | bhágavan tí | | |
| I. | पश्मिद्धिम् | | भगवद्भिम् | | | |
| | paçumádbhis | | bhágavadbhis | | | |
| | etc. | | etc. | | | |

454. Vedic Irregularities. a. In dual masc. nom. etc., a (for

āu) is the greatly prevailing ending.

b. In voc. sing. masc., the ending in the oldest language (RV.) is almost always in as instead of an (as in the perfect participle: below, 462 a): thus, adrivas, harivas, bhānumas, havismas. Such vocatives in RV. occur more than a hundred times, while not a single unquestionable instance of one in an is to be found. In the other Vedic texts, vocatives in as are extremely rare (but bhagavas and its contraction bhagos are met with, even in the later language); and in their reproduction of RV. passages the as is usually changed to an.

It was pointed out above (425 g) that the RV. makes the voc. in as also apparently from a few an-stems.

- c. In RV., the nom. etc. pl. neut., in the only two instances that occur, ends in anti instead of anti: thus, ghṛtavanti, paçumanti. No such forms have been noted elsewhere in the older language: the SV, reads anti in its version of the corresponding passages, and a few examples of the same ending are quotable from the Brāhmanas: thus, tāvanti, etavanti, yavanti, pravanti, rtumanti, yugmanti. Compare 448, 451.
- d. In a few (eight or ten) more or less doubtful cases, a confusion of strong and weak forms of stem is made: they are too purely sporadic to require reporting. The same is true of a case or two where a masculine form appears to be used with a feminine noun (see Lanman).
- 455. The stem arvant, 'running, steed', has the nom. sing. $drv\bar{a}$, from drvan; and in the older language also the voc. arvan and accus. árvānam.
- **456.** Besides the participle bhávant, there is another stem bhávant, frequently used in respectful address as substitute for the pronoun of the second person (but construed, of course, with a verb in the third person), which is formed with the suffix vant, and so declined, having in the nom. sing. bhávān; and the contracted form bhos of its old-style vocative bhavas is a common exclamation of address: 'you, sir!' Its origin is variously explained; it is most probably a contraction of bhágavant.
- 457. The pronominal adjectives tavant, etavant, yavant, and the Vedic ivant, mavant, tvavant, etc., are inflected like ordinary derivatives from nouns.

F. Perfect Participles in $v\bar{a}\dot{n}s$.

458. The active participles of the perfect tense-system are quite peculiar as regards the modifications of their stem. In the strong cases, including the nom.-acc.-voc. pl. neut., the form of their suffix is $\exists i \in v \bar{a} \dot{n} s$, which becomes, by regular process (150), van in the nom. sing., and which is shortened to বন্ van in the voc. sing. In the weakest cases, the suffix is contracted into उप uş. In the middle cases, including the nom.-acc.-voc. neut. sing., it is changed to বন্ vat.

A union-vowel i, if present in the strong and middle cases, disappears in the weakest, before us.

- 459. The forms as thus described are masculine and neuter only; the corresponding feminine is made by adding $\frac{5}{8}$ i to the weakest form of stem, ending thus in 30 úṣī.
- < 460. The accent is always upon the suffix, whatever be its form.
- (461. Examples of inflection. To show the inflection of these participles, we may take the stems বিহান্
 vidvāns, 'knowing' (which has irregular loss of the usual
 reduplication and of the perfect meaning) from Vবিহ vid;
 and নাম্যান tasthivāns, 'having stood', from Vম্যা sthā.

| | Singular: | |
|--------------|---|--|
| N. | m. n. विद्वान् विद्वत् vidván vidvát | m. n. त्रस्थियान् तस्थियत् tasthiván tasthivát |
| A. | विद्यांसम् विद्वत् vidvánsam vidvát | तस्थिवांमम् तस्थिवत् tasthiváisam tasthivát |
| I. | विद्वषा vidúṣā | तस्युषा tasthúṣā |
| D. | विद्वपे vidúṣe | तस्युपे tasthúse |
| Ab. G. | विद्वषम् vidúṣas | तस्युपम् tasthúsas |
| L. | विद्धि vidúsi | तस्युपि tasthúsi |
| , V . | विद्वत् vidvan vidvat | तस्थिवन् तस्थिवत् tásthivan tásthivat |
| N. A. V. | Dual : विद्वांसी विद्वषी vidvánsāu vidúṣī | तस्यिवांसी तस्युषी tasthivánsāu tasthúṣī |

| I. D. Ab. | विद्वद्याम् vidvádbhyām | तस्थिवद्याम् tásthivádbhyām |
|-----------|---|--|
| G. L. | विडिषाम् vidúṣos | तस्युषास् tasthúṣos |
| N. V. | Plural: विद्यांसम् विद्यांसि | तस्थिवांसम् तस्थिवांसि tasthivārsas tasthivārsi |
| A. | vidvānsas vidvānsi विद्वषम् विद्वांमि | तस्युषम् तस्यिवांमि |
| I, | vidúṣas vidváṅsi चिद्वद्विम् vidvádbhis | tasthúṣas tasthiváṅsi तस्यिवद्मिम् tasthivádbhis |
| D. Ab. | विद्वद्मम् vidvádbhyas | तस्यिवद्यम् tasthivadbhyas |
| G. | विद्वषाम् vidúṣām | तस्युषाम् tasthúṣām |
| L. | विद्यत्मु vidvátsu | तस्थिवत्मु tasthivátsu |
| | | |

The feminine stems of these two participles are विद्वर्षी vidús and तस्त्र्यो tasthús.

Other examples of the different stems are:

from \sqrt{kr} — cakrvāns, cakrvát, cakrús, cakrúsī;

from $\sqrt{n\bar{\imath}}$ — $nin\bar{\imath}v\dot{a}\dot{n}s$, $nin\bar{\imath}v\dot{a}t$, $niny\dot{\imath}s$, $niny\dot{\imath}s\bar{\imath}$;

from $\sqrt{bh\bar{u}}$ — $babh\bar{u}v\bar{a}\dot{n}s$, $babh\bar{u}v\acute{a}t$, $babh\bar{u}v\acute{u}s$, $babh\bar{u}v\acute{u}s\bar{i}$;

from Vtan — tenivāns, tenivāt, tenus, tenusī.

462. a. In the oldest language (RV.), the vocative sing. masc. (like that of vant and mant-stems: above, 454 b) has the ending vas instead of van: thus, cikitvas (changed to -van in a parallel passage of AV.), titirvas, dīdivas, mīdhvas.

b. Forms from the middle stem, in vat, are extremely rare earlier: only three (tatanvát and vavrtvát, neut. sing., and jägrvádbhis, instr. pl.), are found in RV., and not one in AV. And in the Veda the weakest stem and not the middle one, as later, is made the basis of comparison: thus, vidúsṭara, mīḍhúsṭama.

c. An example or two of the use of the weak stem-form for cases regularly made from the strong are found in RV.: they are cakrasam, acc. sing., and abibhyusas, nom. pl.; emusam, by its accent (unless an error), is rather from a derivative stem emusa: and QB. has prosasam. Similar instances, especially from vidvansams, are now and then met with later (see BR., under vidvansams).

d. The AV. has once bhaktivānsas, as if a participial form from a noun; but K. and TB. give in the corresponding passage bhaktivānas; cakhvānsam (RV., once) is of doubtful character; okivānsā (RV., once) shows a reversion to guttural form of the final of /uc, elsewhere unknown.

G. Comparatives in yas.

463. The comparative adjectives of primary formation (below, 467) have a double form of stem for masculine and neuter: a stronger, ending in यांस् yāns (usually ईयांस् रंप्रवेगs), in the strong cases, and a weaker, in यस yas (or ईयम् रंप्रवा), in the weak cases (there being no distinction of middle and weakest). The voc. sing. masc. ends in यन् yan (but for the older language see below, 465 a).

The feminine is made by adding ξ $\bar{\imath}$ to the weak masc.-neut. stem.

464. As models of inflection, it will be sufficient to give a part of the forms of घोषस् çréyas, 'better', and of गरीयस् gárīyas, 'heavier'. Thus:

| | Singular: | | _ | _ |
|--------|--------------------|----------------|-------------------------|-----------------------------|
| N. | श्रेयान् | श्रेयम् | गरीयान् | गरीयम् |
| | çréyān | çréyas | gárīyān | $glpha rar{\imath} yas$ |
| A. | ब्रेयां सम् | श्रेयम् | गरीयांसम् | गरीयस् |
| | çréyānsam | çréyas | gárīyāṅsam | $glpha r$ īyas $\hat{\ \ }$ |
| I. | म्रे | यसा | गरीयस | π |
| | çr | éyasā | $gcute{a}rar{\imath}ya$ | $s\overline{a}$ |
| | | etc. | etc. | |
| v. | श्रेयन् | श्रेयस् | गरीयन् | गरीयम् |
| | çréyan | çréyas | gárīyan | gárīyas |
| | Dual: | | | 0 0 |
| N.A.V. | <u>श्रेयांसी</u> | श्र यसी | गरीयांसी | गरीयसी |
| | çréyāṅsāu | çréyasī | gárīyānsāu | glpha rī yas ī |
| | etc. | etc. | etc. | etc. |
| | Plural: | 2 .0 | | · · · |
| N.V. | श्रे यांसस् | श्रेयांसि | गरायांसस् | गरायास |
| | çréyānsas | çréyānsi | gárīyānsas | gárīyāns i |

| A. | श्रेयसम् | श्रेयांसि | गरीयसस् | गरीयांसि |
|--------|----------|------------------|-----------|-----------|
| minant | çréyasas | çréyānsi | gárīyasas | gárīyānsi |
| I. | म्रेयोभि | itį i inidenta į | , | ग्रीभिस् |
| | çréyob | his | gariy | yobhis |
| | etc. | ratives in yes | G. Comps | etc. |

The feminine stems of these adjectives are भ्रेयमी çréyasī and म्रीयमी gárīyasī.

465. a. The Vedic voc. masc. (as in the two preceding divisions: **454b**, **462a**) is in yas instead of yan: thus, $oj\bar{\imath}yas$, $jy\bar{a}yas$ (RV.: no examples elsewhere have been noted).

b. No example of a middle case occurs in RV. or AV.

c. In the later language are found a few apparent examples of strong cases made from the weaker stem-form: thus, $kan\bar{\imath}yasam$, acc. masc., $kan\bar{\imath}yas\bar{a}u$ du. They are perhaps rather to be viewed as transition-forms to an adeclension.

Comparison.

466. Derivative adjective stems having a comparative and superlative meaning — or often also (and more originally) a merely intensive value — are made either directly from roots (by primary derivation), or from other derivative or compound stems (by secondary derivation).

The subject of comparison belongs properly to the chapter of derivation; but it stands in such near relation to inflection that it is, in accordance with the usual custom in grammars, conveniently and properly enough treated briefly here.

467. The suffixes of primary derivation are types for the comparative and the superlative. The root before them is accented, and usually strengthened by gunating, if capable of it — or, in some cases, by nasalization or prolongation. They are much more frequently and freely used in the oldest language than later; in the classical Sanskrit, only a limited number of such comparatives and superlatives are accepted in use; and these attach themselves in meaning for the most part to other adjectives from the same root, which seem to be their corresponding

positives: but in part also they are artificially connected with other words, unrelated with them in derivation.

Thus, from $\sqrt{k \sin p}$, 'hurl', come $k \sin p \sin a$ and $k \sin p \sin h a$, which belong in meaning to $k \sin p a$, 'quick'; from $\sqrt{v r}$, 'encompass', come $v \sin p a$ and $v \sin h a$, which belong to $u \sin a$, 'broad'; while, for example, $k \sin p a$ and $k \sin h a$ are attached by the grammarians to $y \sin a$, 'young', or $\sin a a$, 'small'; and $v \sin a a$ and $v \sin a a$, 'sight to $v \sin a a$, 'old'.

468. From Veda and Brāhmana together, rather more than a hundred instances of this primary formation in īyas and istha (in many cases only one of the pair actually occurring) are to be quoted. About half of these (in RV., the decided majority) belong, in meaning as in form, to the bare root in its adjective value, as used especially at the end of compounds, but sometimes also independently: thus, from Vtap, 'burn', comes tápistha, 'excessively burning'; from \(\psi yaj\), 'offer', come \(\psi ajiyas\) and yajistha, 'better and best (or very well) sacrificing'; from \(\sqrt{yudh}\), 'fight', comes yódhīyas, 'fighting better'; — in a few instances, the simple root is also found used as corresponding positive: thus, ju, 'hasty, rapid', with javiyas and javistha. In a little class of instances (eight), the root has a preposition prefixed, which then takes the accent: thus, agamistha, 'especially coming hither'; vicayistha, 'best clearing away'; — in a couple of cases (ácramistha, áparāvapistha, ástheyas), the negative particle is prefixed; — in a single word (cámbhavistha), an element of another kind. The words of this formation often take an accusative object: thus, nábhas tárīyān (RV.), 'traversing rapidly the cloud'; vrtrám hánisthah (RV.), 'best slayer of Vritra'.

But even in the oldest language appears not infrequently the same attachment in meaning to a derivative adjective which (as pointed out above) is usual in the later speech. Besides the examples that occur also later, others are met with like váristha, 'choicest' (vára, 'choice'), bárhistha, 'greatest' (brhánt, 'great'), ósistha, 'quickest' (ósam, 'quickly'), and so on. Probably by analogy with these, like formations are in a few cases made from the apparently radical syllables of words which have no otherwise traceable root in the language: thus, kradhīyas and kradhistha (K.) from krdhú, stháviyas and sthávistha from sthūrá, cácīyas (RV.) from cácvant, anīyas (AV.) and anistha (TS.) from anú; and so on. And yet again, in a few exceptional cases, the suffixes iyas and istha are applied to stems which are themselves palpably derivative: thus, acistha from açú (RV.: only case), tiksniyas (AV.) from tiksná, bráhmiyas and bráhmistha (TS.) from bráhman, dhármistha (TA.) from dhárman, drádhistha (TB.:

instead of dárhistha) from dṛḍhá, rághīyas (TS.) from raghu. These are beginnings, not followed up later, of the extension of the formation to unlimited use.

In náviyas or návyas and návistha, from náva, 'new', and in sányas from sana, 'old' (all RV.), we have also formations unconnected with verbal roots.

- 469. The stems in istha are inflected like ordinary adjectives in a, making their feminines in \bar{a} ; those in iyas have a peculiar declension, which has been described above (463 ff.).
- 470. Of peculiarities and irregularities of formation, the following may be noticed.

The suffix $\bar{\imath}yas$ has in a few instances the briefer form yas, generally as alternative with the other: thus, $t\acute{a}v\bar{\imath}yas$ and $t\acute{a}vyas$, $n\acute{a}v\bar{\imath}yas$ and $n\acute{a}vyas$, $v\acute{a}\bar{\imath}yas$ and $v\acute{a}syas$, $p\acute{a}n\bar{\imath}yas$ and $p\acute{a}nyas$; and so from rabh and sah; $s\acute{a}nyas$ occurs alone. From $bh\bar{u}$ come $bh\acute{u}yas$ and $bh\acute{u}yisiha$, beside which RV. has also $bh\acute{a}v\bar{\imath}yas$.

Of roots in \bar{a} , the final blends with the initial of the suffix to e: thus, sthéyas, dhéṣṭha, yéṣṭha; but such forms are in the Veda generally to be resolved, as dháïṣṭha, yáïṣṭha. The root $jy\bar{a}$ forms $jy\acute{e}$ ṣṭha, but $jy\acute{a}yas$ (like $bh\acute{a}yas$).

The two roots in $\bar{\imath}$, $pr\bar{\imath}$ and $cr\bar{\imath}$, form $pr\acute{e}yas$ and $pr\acute{e}s\rlap{t}ha$ and $cr\acute{e}yas$ and $cr\acute{e}stha$.

From the root of rjú come, without strengthening, rjīzus and rjistha; but in the older language also, more regularly, rájīzus and rájistha.

and तम tama. They are of almost unrestricted application, being added to adjectives of every form, simple and compound, ending in vowels or in consonants — and this from the earliest period of the language until the latest. The accent of the primitive remains (with rare exceptions) unchanged; and that form of stem is generally taken which appears before an initial consonant of a case-ending (weak or middle form).

Examples (of older as well as later occurrence) are: from vowel-stems, priyátara, váhnitama, rathítara and rathítama (RV.), cárutara, potrítama; — from consonant-stems, cámtama, cácvattama, tavástara and tavástama, tuvistama, vápustara, tapasvitara, bhágavattara, hiranyavāçīmattama; — from compounds, ratnadhátama, abhibhátara, sukrttara, pūrbhittama, bhūridāvattara, cúcivratatama. strīkāmatama.

But in the Veda the final n of a stem is regularly retained: thus, madintara and madintama, vrsantama; and of a perfect participle the weakest stem is taken: thus, vidastara, $m\bar{u}dhastara$. A feminine final $\bar{\imath}$ is shortened: thus, $devitam\bar{a}$ (RV.), $tejasvinitam\bar{a}$ (K.).

In the older language, the words of this formation are not much more frequent than those of the other: thus, in RV. the stems in tara and tama are to those in $\bar{\imath}yas$ and istha as three to two; in AV., only as six to five: but later the former win a great preponderance.

- 472. These comparatives and superlatives are inflected like ordinary adjectives in a, forming their feminine in \bar{a} .
- 473. That (especially in the Veda) some stems which are nouns rather than adjectives form derivatives of comparison is natural enough, considering the uncertain nature of the division-line between substantive and adjective value. Thus, we have mātṛtama, nṛtama, maruttama, and others.

The suffixes tura and tuma also make forms of comparison from some of the pronominal roots, as ka, ya, i (see below, 520); and from certain of the prepositions, as ut; and the adverbial accusative (older, neuter; later, feminine) of a comparative in tura from a preposition is used to make a corresponding comparative to the preposition itself (below, 1111 c).

The Hindu grammarians even allow the suffixes of comparison in the adverbial accusative feminine, $tar\bar{a}m$ and $tam\bar{a}m$, to be appended to conjugational forms: thus, pacati, 'he cooks', $pacatitar\bar{a}m$, 'he cooks better': but such are barbarous combinations, having no warrant in the earlier uses of the language.

The suffixes of secondary comparison are occasionally added to those of primary, forming double comparatives and superlatives: thus, garīyastara, crēsthatama.

The use of tama as ordinal suffix is noted below (487); with this value, it is accented on the final, and makes its feminine in $\bar{\imath}$: thus, catatamá, m. and n., catatamí, f., 'hundredth'.

474. From a few words, mostly prepositions, degrees of comparison are made by the briefer suffixes ra and ma: thus, ádhara and adhamá, ápara and apamá, ávara and avamá, úpara and upamá, ántara, ántama, paramá, madhyamá, caramá. And ma is also used to make ordinals (below, 487).

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CHAPTER VI. In the older language, the words of the fembelon are but much more

treatment than there of the other; thus, in UV. the cutted in term and trans-NUMERALS.

475. The simple cardinal numerals for the first ten numbers (which are the foundation of the whole class), with their derivatives, the tens, and with some of the higher members of the decimal series, are as follows:

| 1 | ह्न éka | 10 | द्श dáça | 100 | शत çatá |
|----|----------------|------------|--------------------------|------------|---------------------|
| 2 | द्व dvá | 20 | विंशति vinçatí | 1000 | सरुम्र sahásra |
| 3 | त्रि tri | 30 | त्रिंशत् trinçát | 10,000 | म्रयुत ayúta |
| 4 | चतुर् catúr | 4 0 | चलारिंशत् catvāriņçāt | 100,000 | लद <i>lak</i> şá |
| 5 | पञ्च páñca | 50 | पञ्चाशत् pañcāçát | 1,000,000 | प्रयुत práyuta |
| 6 | षष् | 60 | <u>पष्टि</u> | 10,000,000 | कोटि kóti |
| 7 | इर्थड़ सप्त | 70 | sasti सप्तति | 108 | मर्जुर क्रिकेट |
| 8 | saptá .ਸ਼ੲ | 80 | saptati म्रशीति | 109 | मकार्बुद |
| 9 | astá नव | 90 | açīti नवति | 1010 | mahārbuda ভার্ব |
| 10 | náva द्रश | 100 | navati ঘন | 1011 | kharvá निखर्व |
| | dáça | | çatá | | nikharva |
| | | | | | |

The accent saptá and astá is that belonging to these words in all accentuated texts; according to the grammarians, they are sapta and asta in the later language. See below, 483.

The series of decimal numbers may be carried still further; but there are great differences among the different authorities with regard to their names; and there is more or less of discordance even from ayúta on.

Thus, in the TS., we find ayúta, niyúta, prayúta, árbuda, nyàrbuda, samudrá, mádhya, ánta, parārdhá; K. reverses the order of niyúta and prayúta, and inserts badva after nyarbuda (reading nyarbudha): these are probably the oldest recorded series.

In modern time, the only numbers in practical use above 'thousand' are laksa ('lac' or lakh') and koţi ('crore'); and an Indian sum is wont to be pointed thus: 123,45,67,890, to signify '123 crores, 45 lakhs, 67 thousands, eight hundred and ninety'.

As to the stem-forms $pa\tilde{n}can$ etc., see below, 484. As to the form saks instead of sas, see above, 146 end. The stem dva appears in composition and derivation also as $dv\bar{a}$ and dvi; $cat\hat{u}r$ in composition is accented $c\tilde{a}tur$. The older form of asta is $ast\bar{a}$: see below, 483. Forms in -cat and -cat for the tens are occasionally interchanged.

The other numbers are expressed by the various composition and syntactical combination of those given above. Thus:

476. The odd numbers between the even tens are made by prefixing the (accented) unit to the ten to which its value is to be added: but with various irregularities. Thus:

eka in '11' becomes $ek\bar{a}$, but is elsewhere unchanged;

dva becomes everywhere $dv\bar{a}$; but in '42'—'72' and in '92' it is interchangeable with dvi, and in '82' dvi alone is used;

for tri is substituted its nom. pl. masc. $tr\acute{a}yas$; but tri itself is also allowed in '43'—'73' and in '93', and in '83' tri alone is used;

sas becomes so in '16', and makes the initial d of daga lingual (199 b); elsewhere its final undergoes the regular conversion (226 b) to t or d or n; and in '96' the n of navati is assimilated to it (199 b);

asta becomes [ast \bar{a} (483) in '18'—'38', and has either form in the succeeding combinations. Thus:

| suc | ceeding combinat | non | s. Inus: | | | |
|-----|----------------------------------|------------|--------------------------------|---|----|-------------------------------|
| 11 | $\acute{e}k\ddot{a}daça$ | 31 | $\acute{e}katri\dot{n}$ ç at | 61 ékaşaşti | 81 | ékāçīti |
| 12 | $dv \dot{a} da ca$ | 32 | $dvlpha tri\dot{n}$ ç at | $_{62}^{}egin{cases} dvlphasasti\ dvlphasasti \end{cases}$ | 82 | dvyàçīti |
| 13 | tráyodaça | 33 | tráyastrińcat | 63 tráyaḥṣaṣṭi tríṣaṣṭi | 83 | $try lpha ar{c}ar{\imath} ti$ |
| 14 | $c\'aturdaça$ | 34 | cátustrinçat | 64 cátuh sasti | 84 | $c\'atura ç\bar{\imath}ti$ |
| 15 | $p\'a\~ncadaça$ | 35 | páñcatriṅçat | 65 páñcaṣaṣṭi | 85 | páñcāçīti |
| 16 | sódaça | 36 | sáttrinçat | 66 sátsasti | 86 | sádaçīti. |
| 17 | saptádaça | 37 | $sapt \'atri \dot{n} cat$ | 67 saptásasti | 87 | sa p tā́çīti |
| 18 | a ṣṭ $\dot{ar{a}}$ d a ç a | 38 | aṣṭấtriṅcat | $_{68} igg\{ egin{array}{l} ast lpha sast i \ ast lpha sast i \ \end{matrix} igg\}$ | 88 | aș t á c ī t i |
| 19 | návadaça | 3 9 | n ávatrinçat | 69 návasasti | 89 | návāçīti. |

The numbers '21'—'29' are made like those for '31'—'39'; the numbers '41'—'49', '51'—'59', '71'—'79', and '91'—'99' are made like those for '61'—'69'.

The forms made with $dv\bar{a}$ and trayas are more usual than those with dvi and tri, which are hardly to be quoted from the older literature (V. and Br.). The forms made with $ast\bar{a}$ (instead of asta) are alone found in the older literature (483), and are usual in the later.

- 477. The above are the normal expressions for the odd numbers. But equivalent substitutes for them are also variously made. Thus:
- a. By use of the adjectives $\bar{u}na$, 'deficient', and adhika, 'redundant', in composition with lesser numbers which are to be subtracted or added, and either independently qualifying or (more usually) in composition with larger numbers which are to be increased or diminished by the others: thus, tryūna-saṣṭi, 'sixty deficient by three' (i. e. '57'); aṣṭādhikanavaṭi, 'ninety increased by eight' (i. e. '98'); ekādhikan çaṭam, 'a hundred increased by one' (i. e. '101'); pañconam çaṭam, '100 less 5' (i. e. '95'). For the nines, especially, such substitutes as ekonavincati, '20 less 1', or '19', are not uncommon; and later the eka, '1', is left off, and ūnavincati etc. have the same value.
- b. A case-form of éka, 'one', is connected by ná, 'not', with a larger number from which one is to be deducted: thus, ékayā ná trinçât (ÇB. PB. KB.), 'not thirty by one' (i. e. '29'); ékasmān ná pañcāçát (in ordinal), '49' (TS.); ékasyāi (abl. fem.: 366.3) ná pañcāçát, '49' (TS.); most often, ékān (i. e. ékāt, irregular abl. for ékasmāt) ná vinçatí, '19'; ékān na çatām, '99'. This last form is admitted also in the later language: the others are found in the Brāhmaṇas.
- c. Instances of multiplication by a prefixed number are occasionally met with: thus, trisaptá, 'thrice seven'; trinavá, 'thrice nine'; tridaçá, 'thrice ten'.
- d. Of course, the numbers to be added together may be expressed by independent words, with connecting 'and': thus, náva ca navatíc ca, or náva navatím ca, 'ninety and nine'; dvāú ca vincatíc ca, 'two and twenty'. But the connective is also (at least, in the older language) not seldom omitted: thus, navatír náva, '99'; trincátam trím, '33'; acitír astāú, '88'.
- 478. The same methods are also variously used for forming the odd numbers above 100. Thus:
- a. The added number is prefixed to the other, and takes the accent: for example, ékaçatam, '101'; astāçatam, '108'; trincachatam, '130'; astāvincaticatam, '148'; cātuhsahasram (RV.: unless the accent is wrong), '1004'.
- b. Or, the number to be added is compounded with adhika, 'redundant', and the compound is either made to qualify the other number or is further compounded with it: thus, pañcādhikam çatam or pañcādhikaçatam, '105'.

Of course, $\bar{u}na$, 'deficient' (as also other words equivalent to $\bar{u}na$ or adhika), may be used in the same way: thus, $pa\tilde{n}cona\dot{m}$ catam, '95'.

- c. Syntactical combinations are made at convenience: for example, dáça çatâm ca, '110'; çatâm ékam ca, '101'.
- 479. Another usual method (beginning in the Brāhmanas) of forming the odd numbers above 100 is to qualify the larger

number by an adjective derived from the smaller, and identical with the briefer ordinal (below, 487): thus, dvādaçám çatám, '112' (lit'ly, 'a hundred of a 12-sort, or characterised by 12'); catiquativārinçám çatám, '124'; şaṭṣaṣṭám çatám, '166'.

480. To multiply one number by another, among the higher or the lower denominations, the simplest and least ambiguous method is to make of the multiplied number a dual or plural, qualified by the other as any ordinary noun would be; and this method is a common one in all ages of the language. For example: páñca pañcāçátas, five fifties ('250'); náva navatáyas, 'nine nineties' ('810'); açītíbhis tisŕbhis, 'with three eighties' ('240'); páñca çatāni, 'five hundreds'; trimi sahásrāni, 'three thousands'; sastim sahásrāni, '60,000'; daça ca sahasrāny asṭāu ca çatāni, '10,800': and, combined with addition, trini çatāni trāyastrinçatam ca, '333'; sahasre dve pañconam çatam eva ca, '2095'.

By a peculiar and wholly illogical construction, such a combination as $tr\bar{\imath}ni$ sasticatāni, which ought to signify '480' (3>100+60), is frequently used in the Brāhmanas to mean '360' (3>100+60); so also $dv\ell$ catustrince cate, '234' (not '268'); and other like cases.

481. But the two factors, multiplier and multiplied, are also, and in later usage more generally, combined into a compound (accented on the final); and this is then treated as an adjective, qualifying the numbered noun; or else its neuter or feminine (in $\bar{\imath}$) singular is used substantively: thus, daçaçatás, '1000'; satçatāih padātibhih (MBh.), 'with 600 foot-soldiers'; tráyastrinçat triçatāh satsahasráh (AV.), '6333'; dviçatám or dviçati, '200'; astādaçaçatī, '1800'.

In the usual absence of accentuation, there arises sometimes a question as to how a compound number shall be understood: whether astacatam, for example, is astacatam, '108', or astacatam, '800', and the like.

- 482. Inflection. The inflection of the cardinal numerals is in many respects irregular. Gender is distinguished only by the first four.
- a. Eka, '1', is declined after the manner of a pronominal adjective (like sárva, below, 524); its plural is used in the sense of 'some, certain ones'. Its dual does not occur.

Occasional forms of the ordinary declension are met with: thus, $\acute{e}ke$ (loc. sing.), $\acute{e}k\bar{a}t$.

In the late literature, eka is used in the sense of 'a certain', or even sometimes almost of 'a', as an indefinite article. Thus, eko vyāghrah (H.), 'a certain tiger'; ekasmin dine, 'on a certain day'; haste dandam ekam ādāya (H.), 'taking a stick in his hand'.

b. Dva, '2', is dual only, and is entirely regular: thus, N.A.V. dvāú (V. dvā), m., dvé, f. n.; I.D.Ab. dvābhyām;

G. L. dváyos.

c. Tri, '3', is in masc. and neut. nearly regular, like an ordinary stem in i; but their genitive is as if from $tray \acute{a}$ (only in the later language: the regular $tr\bar{\imath}n\acute{a}m$ occurs once in RV.). For the feminine it has the peculiar stem $tis\acute{r}$, which is inflected in general like an r-stem; but the nom. and accus. are alike, and show no strengthening of the r; and the r is not prolonged in the gen. (excepting in the Veda). Thus:

| | m. | n. | f. |
|--------|----------------------|----------------------------------|---------------------|
| N. | tráyas | $tr \dot{\overline{t}}$ ņ $m{i}$ | tisrás |
| A. | $tr\dot{t}n$ | tr i ni | tisrás |
| I. | trib | hís | tisrbhis |
| D. Ab. | tribhyás | | tisrbhyas |
| G. | $trayar{a}n\dot{a}m$ | | $tisr$ ņ $\dot{a}m$ |
| L. | triși | ā | tisŕsu. |

The Veda has the abbreviated neut. nom. and accus. $tr\bar{t}$. The accentuation tisrbhis, tisrbhyis, $tisr\bar{t}n\bar{u}m$, and tisrsi is said to be also allowed in the later language.

The stem tisr occurs in composition in $tisrdhanv\acute{a}$ (Br.), 'a bow along with three arrows'.

d. Catúr, '4', has catvár (the more original form) in the strong cases; in the fem. it substitutes the stem cátasr, apparently akin with tist, and inflected like it (but with anomalous change of accent, like that in the higher numbers: see below, 483). Thus:

| | m. | n. | f. |
|-----------|------------------|---------|------------------------|
| N. | $catv\'aras$ | catvári | $c\'atas ras$ |
| A. | $cat\'uras$ | catvári | $clpha tas m{r} as$ |
| I. | catúr | bhis | catas <u>ŕ</u> bhis |
| D. Ab. | $cat \'urbhy as$ | | catasibhyas |
| G. | caturņ $lpha$ m | | $catas r$ ņ $\dot{a}m$ |
| L. | catúrșu | | catasṛṣu. |

The use of n before $\bar{a}m$ of the gen. masc. and neut. after a final consonant of the stem is (as in sas: below, 483) a striking irregularity. The more regular gen. fem. $catas\bar{r}n\bar{a}m$ also sometimes occurs. In the later language, the accentuation of the final syllable instead of the penult is allowed in inst., dat.-abl., and loc.

483. The numbers from '5' to '19' have no distinction of gender, nor any generic character. They are inflected, somewhat irregularly, as plurals, save in the nom.-acc., where they have no proper plural form, but show the bare stem instead. Of sas (as of catúr), $n\bar{a}m$ is the gen. ending, with mutual assimilation (198b) of stem-final and initial of the termination. Astá (as

accented in the older language) has an alternative fuller form, $ast\dot{a}$, which is almost exclusively used in the older literature (V. and Br.), both in inflection and in composition (but some compounds with asta are found as early as the AV.); its nom.-acc. is $ast\dot{a}$ (usual later: found in RV. once, and in AV.), or $ast\dot{a}$ (RV.), or $ast\dot{a}\dot{u}$ (most usual in RV.; also in AV., Br., and later).

The accent is in many respects peculiar. In all the accented texts, the stress of voice lies on the penult before the endings bhis, bhyas, and su, from the stems in a, whatever be the accent of the stem: thus, pañcábhis from páñca, navábhyas from náva, daçásu from dáça, navadaçábhis from návadaça, ekādaçábhyas from ékādaça, dvādaçásu from dvádaça; according to the grammarians, either the penult or the final is accented in these forms in the later language. In the gen. pl., the accent is on the ending (as in that of i, u, and r-stems). The cases of sas, and those made from the stemform astā, have the accent throughout upon the ending.

Examples of the inflection of these words are as follows:

| N. A. | p á $	ilde{n}$ ca | ș á ț | așțāú | așțá |
|--------|---------------------------------|------------------|------------------------|--------------|
| I. | $pa	ilde{n}c	ilde{a}bhis$ | sadbh is | a ṣṭ $ar{a}bh$ í s | aṣṭábhis |
| D. Ab. | $pa	ilde{n}c	ilde{a}bhyas$ | $sadbhy \'as$ | aṣṭābhyás | astábhyas |
| G. | $pa	ilde{n}car{a}n\dot{ar{a}}m$ | $sann\acute{a}m$ | aștā | $in\dot{a}m$ |
| L. | pañcásu | satsu | $astar{a}su$ | astásu. |

Saptá (in the later language sápta, as ásta for astá) and náva and dáça, with the compounds of dáça ('11'—'19'), are declined like páñca, and with the same shift of accent (or with alternative shift to the endings, as pointed out above).

- 484. The Hindu grammarians give to the stems for '5' and '7'—'19' a final n: thus, pañcan, saptan, aṣṭan, navan, daçan, and ekādaçan etc. This, however, has nothing to do with the demonstrably original final nasal of '7', '9', and '10' (compare septem, novem, decem; seven, nine, ten); it is only owing to the fact that, starting from such a stem-form, their inflection is made to assume a more regular aspect, the nom.-acc. having the form of a neut. sing. in an, and the instr., dat.-abl., and loc. that of a neut. or masc. pl. in an: compare nāma, nāmabhis, nāmabhyas, nāmasu the gen. alone being like that, rather, of a a-stem: compare daçānām with indrāṇām and nāmnām or ālmānām. No trace whatever of a final n is found anywhere in the language, in inflection or derivation or composition, from any of these words.
- 485. The tens, vinçati and trinçat etc., with their compounds, are declined regularly, as feminine stems of the same endings, and in all numbers.

Cath and sahdsra are declined regularly, as neuter (or, rarely, in the later language, as masculine) stems of the same final, in all numbers.

The like is true of the higher numbers — which have, indeed, no proper numeral character, but are ordinary nouns.

- 486. Construction. As regards their construction with the nouns enumerated by them:
- a. The words for '1' to '19' are used adjectively, agreeing in case, and, if they distinguish gender, in gender also, with the nouns: thus, daçábhir vīrāiḥ, 'with ten heroes'; yé devá divy ékādaça sthá (AV.), 'what eleven gods of you are in heaven'; pañcásu jánesu, 'among the five tribes'; catasibhir gīrbhiḥ, 'with four songs'.
- b. The numerals above '19' are construed usually as nouns, either taking the numbered noun as a dependent genitive, or standing in the singular in apposition with it: thus, catain dāsīh or catain dāsīnām, 'a hundred slaves' or 'a hundred of slaves'; vincatyā háribhis, 'with twenty bays'; saṣṭyām carátsu, 'in 60 autumns'; catena pācāih, 'with a hundred fetters'; catān sahāsram ayútain nyàrbudam jaghāna cakró dásyūnām (AV.), 'the mighty [Indra] slew a hundred, a thousand, a myriad, a hundred million, of demons'.

Occasionally they are put in the plural, as if used more adjectively: thus, $pa\bar{n}c\bar{a}cadbhir\ v\bar{a}n\bar{a}i\hbar$, 'with fifty arrows'.

- c. In the older language, the numerals for '5' and upward are sometimes used in the nom.-acc. form (or as if indeclinably) with other cases also: thus, páñca kṛṣṭṭṣu, 'among the five races'; saptá ṛṣṭṇām, 'of seven bards'; sahásram ṛṣṭbhiḥ, 'with a thousand bards'; çatám pūrbhiḥ, 'with a hundred strongholds'.
- 487. Ordinals. Of the classes of derivative words coming from the original or cardinal numerals, the ordinals are by far the most important; and the mode of their formation may best be explained here.

Some of the first ordinals are irregularly made: thus,

éka, '1', forms no ordinal; instead is used pratham a (i. e. pra-tama, 'foremost'); $\bar{a}di$ is rare in the Brāhmaṇas, and $\bar{a}dya$ even in the Sūtras;

from dvá, '2', and trí, '3', come dviťiya and trťiya (secondarily, through dvita and abbreviated trita);

catúr, '4', sás, '6', and saptá, '7', take the ending tha: thus, caturthá, sasthá, saptátha; but for 'fourth' are used also turiya and túrya, and saptátha belongs to the older language only: pañcatha, for 'fifth', is excessively rare;

the numerals for '5' and '7' usually, and for '8', '9', '10', add ma, forming pañcamá, saptamá, astamá, navamá, daçamá;

for '11th' to '19th', the forms are $ek\bar{a}da_{\zeta}\dot{a}$, $dv\bar{a}da_{\zeta}\dot{a}$, and so on (the same with the cardinals, except change of accent);

for the tens and intervening odd numbers from '20' onward, the ordinal has a double form — one made by adding the full (superlative) ending tamá to the cardinal: thus, vinçatitamá, trinçattamá, açītitamá, etc.; the other, shorter, in a, with abbreviation of the cardinal: thus, vinçá, '20th'; trinçá, '30th'; catvārinçá, '40th'; pañcāçá, '50th'; saṣṭá, '60th'; saptatá, '70th'; açītá, '80th': navatá, '90th'; and so likewise ekavinçá, '21st', catustrinçá, '34th'; aṣṭācatvārinçá, '48th'; dvāpañcāçá, '52d'; ekaṣaṣṭá, '61st'; and ekānnavinçá and ūnavinçá and ekonavinçá, '19th'; — and so on. Of these two forms, the latter and briefer is by far the more common, the other being not quotable from the Veda, and extremely rarely from the Brāhmanas. From '50th' on, the briefer form is allowed by the grammarians only to the odd numbers, made up of tens and units; but it is sometimes met with, even in the later language, from the simple ten.

Of the higher numbers, catá and sahásra form catatamá and sahasratamá; but their compounds have also the simpler form:

thus, ekaçatá, '101st'.

Of the ordinals, prathamá (and $\bar{a}dya$), dviáya, trtiya, and turiya (with turya) form their feminine in \bar{a} ; all the rest make it in $\bar{\imath}$.

488. The ordinals, as in other languages, have other than ordinal offices to fill; and in Sanskrit especially they are general adjectives to the cardinals, with a considerable variety of meanings, as fractionals, as signifying 'composed of so many parts' or 'so-many-fold', or 'containing so many', or (as was seen above, 479) 'having so many added'.

In a fractional sense, the grammarians direct that their accent be shifted to the first syllable: thus, $dvt\bar{t}ya$, 'half'; $t\bar{r}t\bar{t}ya$, 'third part'; $c\bar{a}turtha$, 'quarter', and so on. But in accented texts only $t\bar{r}t\bar{t}ya$, 'third', and $t\bar{u}r\bar{t}ya$, 'quarter', are found so treated; for 'half' occurs only $ardh\bar{a}$; and $caturth\bar{a}$, $pa\bar{n}cam\bar{a}$, and so on, are accented as in their ordinal use.

489. Other numeral derivatives — thus,

multiplicative adverbs, as dvis, tris, catús, 'twice', thrice', 'four times';

adverbs with the suffixes $dh\bar{a}$ and cas: for example, $ekadh\dot{a}$, 'in one way', $catadh\dot{a}$, 'in a hundred ways'; ekacas, 'one by one', catacas, 'by hundreds';

collectives, as dvitaya or dvayá, 'a pair', dáçataya or daçát,

'a decade' —

belong rather to the dictionary, or to the chapter of derivation.

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CHAPTER VII. I mercarder, and confidence out of home petition existing a

to putting, opinions, star the other sharter, in my mild above-PRONOUNS.

490. THE pronouns differ from the great mass of nouns and adjectives chiefly in that they come by derivation from another and a very limited set of roots, the so-called 'pronominal' or 'demonstrative' roots. But they have also many and marked peculiarities of inflection - some of which, however, find analogies also in a few adjectives; and such adjectives will accordingly be described at the end of this chapter.

Personal Pronouns.

491. The pronouns of the first and second persons are the most irregular and peculiar of all, being made up of fragments coming from various roots and combinations of roots. They have no distinction of gender.

Their inflection in the later language is as follows:

Singular:

| 2d pers. |
|---|
| वम् |
| tvám |
| वाम्, वा |
| त्नाम्, त्ना $\mathit{tv\'am},\ \mathit{tv\~a}$ |
| वया |
| $tvlpha yar{a}$ |
| तुभ्यम्, ते |
| तुभ्यम्, ते túbhyam, te |
| वत |
| त्नत् tvát |
| |

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(No. otherwis)

| G. | मम, मे | तव, ते. táva, te |
|------------|------------------------|--|
| - (I) - v | máma, me | táva, te |
| L. 111 | मिय | ा ्विय कार्य कर्ने क्षेत्रकाल कर्ने |
| - organiza | máyi | tváyi |
| Dual: | Los and the second | |
| | ^{र.} म्रावाम् | युवाम् |
| | $\bar{a}v\dot{a}m$ | yuvám |
| I. D. A | b. म्रावाभ्याम् | युवाभ्याम् |
| | $ar{a}var{a}bhyar{a}m$ | yuvábhyām |
| G. L. | म्रावयोम् | युवयोस् |
| | āváyos | yuváyos |
| andA.I | D.G. กิ | वाम् |
| | $nar{a}u$ | $v\bar{a}m$ |
| Plural: | | |
| N. | वयम् | यूयम् |
| | vayám | $y\overline{u}y\acute{a}m$ |
| A. | ग्रस्मान्, नस् | युष्मान्, वस् |
| | asmān, nas | yuṣmắn, vas |
| I. | ग्रस्माभिस् | युष्माभिम् |
| | asmābhis 🗎 | yuṣmā́ bh is |
| D. | ग्रस्मभ्यम्, नस् | युष्मभ्यम्, वम् |
| | asmábhyam, nas | yuṣmábhyam, vas |
| Ab. | ग्रस्मत् | युष्मत् |
| | $asm\'at$ | yuşmât |
| G. | म्रस्माकम्, नस् | युष्माकम्, वस् |
| | asmákam, nas | yuṣmākam, vas |
| L. | ग्रस्मास् | यूष्मास् |
| | asmásu | युष्मान् yuṣmāsu |
| a hriofe | or gosond forms for a | ages dot and con in all |

The briefer second forms for accus., dat., and gen., in all numbers, are accentless; and hence they are not allowed to stand at the beginning of a sentence, or elsewhere where any emphasis is laid.

The ablative mat is accentless in one or two AV. passages (xi. 4.26; xii. 3.46).

492. Forms of the older language. All the forms

given above are found also in the older language; which, however, has also others that afterward disappear from use.

Thus, the Veda (RV.) has a few times the instr. sing. $tv\acute{a}$ (like $man\bar{\imath}s\acute{a}$ for $man\bar{\imath}s\acute{a}v\bar{\imath}a$); further, the loc, sing. $tv\acute{e}$, the dat. pl. (less often loc.) $asm\acute{e}$, and the loc. pl. $yusm\acute{e}$: the final e of these forms is uncombinable (or $prag_{\bar{i}}hya$: 138b). The datives in bhyam are in RV. not seldom to be read as if in bhya, with loss of the final nasal; $asm\acute{a}kam$ and $yusm\acute{a}kam$ suffer the same loss only in a rare instance or two. The usual resolutions of semivowel to vowel are made, and are especially frequent in the forms of the second person ($tu\acute{a}m$ for $tv\acute{a}m$, etc.).

But the duals, above all, wear a very different aspect earlier. In Veda and Brāhmaṇa, the nominatives are $\bar{a}v\acute{a}m$ and $yuv\acute{a}m$, and only the accusatives $\bar{a}v\acute{a}m$ and $yuv\acute{a}m$ (but in RV. the dual forms of 1st pers. chance not to occur, unless in $v\acute{a}m$ [?], once, for $\bar{a}v\acute{a}m$); the instr. in RV. is either $yuv\acute{a}bhy\bar{a}m$ (not elsewhere found) or $yuv\acute{a}bhy\bar{a}m$; an abl. $yuv\acute{a}t$ appears once in RV., and $\bar{a}v\acute{a}t$ twice in TS.; the gen.-loc. is in RV. (only) $yuv\acute{o}s$ instead of $yuv\acute{a}yos$. Thus we have here a distinction (elsewhere unknown) of five different dual cases by endings, in part accordant with those of the other two numbers.

- 493. Peculiar endings. The ending am, appearing in the nom. sing. and pl. (and Vedic du.) of these pronouns, will be found often, though only in sing., among the other pronouns. The bhyam (or hyam) of dat. sing. and pl. is met with only here; its relationship with the bhyam, bhyas, bhis of the ordinary declension is palpable. The t (or d) of the abl., though here preceded by a short vowel, is doubtless the same with that of the a-declension of nouns and adjectives. That the nom., dat., and abl. endings should be the same in sing. and pl. (and in part in the earlier du. also), only the stem to which they are added being different, is unparalleled elsewhere in the language. The element sma appearing in the plural forms will be found frequent in the inflection of the singular in other pronominal words: in fact, the compound stem asma which underlies the plural of aham seems to be the same that furnishes part of the singular forms of ayam (501), and its value of 'we' to be a specialisation of the meaning 'these persons'. The genitives singular, mama and tava, have no analogies elsewhere; the derivation from them of the adjectives māmaka and tāvaka (below, 516) suggests the possibility of their being themselves stereotyped stems. The gen. pl., asmākam and yusmākam, are certainly of this character: namely, neuter sing. case-forms of the adjective stems asmāka and yuṣmāka, other cases of which are found in the Veda.
- 494. Stem-forms. To the Hindu grammarians, the stems of the personal pronouns are mad and asmad, and tvad and yuṣmad, because these are forms used to a certain extent, and allowed to be indefinitely used, in derivation and composition (like tad, kad, etc.: see below, under the other pronouns). Words are thus formed from them even in the older language

— namely, mátkṛta, mátsakhi, asmátsakhi, tvádyoni, mattás (AV.), tvátpitṛ (TS.), yuváddevatya (CB.); but much more numerous are those that show the proper stem in a, or with the a lengthened to \bar{a} : thus, mávant; asmatrá, asmadrúh, etc.; tvádatta, tvānid, tvávasu, tváhata, etc.; yuṣmádatta, yuṣméṣita, etc.; yuvádhita, yuvádatta, yuvánīta, etc. And the later language also has a few words made in the same way, as $m\bar{a}drc$.

The Vedas have certain more irregular combinations, with complete forms: thus, tvánkāma, māmpaçyá, mamasatyá, asméhiti, ahampūrvá, ahamuttará, ahamyú, ahamsana.

From the stems of the grammarians come also the derivative adjectives madiya, tvadiya, asmadiya, yuşmadiya, having a possessive value: see below, 516.

For sva and svayám, see below, 513.

Demonstrative Pronouns.

495. The simplest demonstrative, π ta, which answers also the purpose of a personal pronoun of the third person, may be taken as model of a mode of declension usual in so many pronouns and pronominal adjectives that it is fairly to be called the general pronominal declension.

But this root has also the special irregularity that in the nom. sing. masc. and fem. it has $s\acute{a}s$ (for whose peculiar euphonic treatment see **176a**) and $s\acute{a}$, instead of $t\acute{a}s$ and $t\acute{a}$ (compare Gr. \acute{b} , $\acute{\eta}$, $\acute{\tau}o$, and Goth. sa, so, thata). Thus:

Singular:

| | m, n. | f. |
|-----|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| N. | मम् तत् sás tát | सा |
| | sás tát | $s rac{d}{a}$ |
| A. | तम् तत् | ताम् |
| | तम् तत् tám tát | $t \stackrel{.}{a} m$ |
| I. | तेन | तया |
| | téna | $t \acute{a} y ar{a}$ |
| D. | तस्मै | तस्यै |
| | $t \dot{a} s m ar{a} i$ | $tcute{a}syar{a}i$ |
| Ab. | तस्मात् | तस्यास् |
| | तस्मात् tásmāt | तस्याम् tásyās |
| | | |

| G. L. | तस्य tásya तस्मि tásm | ন্ | All administration of the second of the seco | तस्याम् tásyās तस्याम् tásyām | - namely hidroity (T Lose that to at the hidroids of |
|-------------------|--------------------------------|-------------------|--|--|--|
| Dual: N. A. V. | กำ _{tāú} | ते | tee And Illianie way as state way as | ते ते | yandalada waxda xan The Vi |
| I. D. Ab. | tau ताभ्य tábhy | | | ताभ्याम् tåbhyām | ander Amerik Korto Areskir Arrist |
| G. L. | तयो। táyos | - | | तयोम् táyos | |
| Plural: | _ | _ | | | |
| N. | તે té | तानि táni | | ताम् tās | |
| A. | तान् tān | নানি $t lpha n i$ | | ताम् $t \dot{a} s$ | |
| I. | तैम् tāis | | | ताभिम् tábhis | |
| D. Ab. | तेभ्य tébhy | | | ताभ्यम् tābhyas | |
| G. | तेषा téṣān | न् | | तामाम् $t\dot{a}sar{a}m$ | |
| L. | તે યુ téşu | | | तामु tåsu | |
| ** 1 | _ | | | | |

The Vedas show no other irregularities of inflection than those which belong to all stems in a and \bar{a} : namely, $t \in n\bar{a}$ sometimes; usually $t \notin \bar{a}$ for $t = \bar{a} \hat{u}$, du.; often $t\dot{a}$ for $t\dot{a}ni$, pl. neut.; usually $t\dot{e}bhis$ for $t\bar{a}is$, instr. pl.; and the ordinary resolutions. The RV. has one more case-form from the root sa, namely sásmin (occurring nearly half as often as tásmin).

496. The peculiarities of the general pronominal declension, it will be noticed, are these:

In the singular, the use of t (properly d) as ending of nom.-acc. neut.; the combination with the root of another element sma in masc. and neut. dat., abl., and loc., and of sy in fem. dat., abl.-gen., and loc.; and the masc. and neut. loc. ending in, which is restricted to this declension (except in the anomalous yādircmin, RV., once).

The dual is precisely that of noun-stems in a and \bar{a} .

In the plural, the irregularities are limited to $t\dot{e}$ for $t\dot{a}s$ in nom. masc., and the insertion of s instead of n before $\bar{a}m$ of the gen., the stem-final being treated before it in the same manner as before su of the loc.

- 497. The stem of this pronoun is by the grammarians given as tad; and from that form come, in fact, the derivative adjective tadiya, with tattvá, tadvat, tanmaya; and numerous compounds, such as tacchīla, tajjīa, tatkara, tadanantara, tanmātra, etc. These compounds are not rare even in the Veda: so tádanna, tadvid, tadvaçá, etc. But derivatives from the true root ta are also many: especially adverbs, as tátas, tátra, táthā, tadā; the adjectives távant and táti; and the compound tādṛc etc.
- 498. Though the demonstrative root ta is prevailingly of the third person, it is also freely used, both in the earlier language and in the later, as qualifying the pronouns of the first and second person, giving emphasis to them: thus, sò 'hám, 'this I', or 'I here'; sá tvám, 'thou there'; te vayam, 'we here'; and so on.
- **499.** Two other demonstrative stems appear to contain ta as an element; and both, like the simple ta, substitute sa in the nom. sing. masc. and fem.
- **a.** The one, $ty\acute{a}$, is tolerably common (although only a third of its possible forms occur) in RV., but rare in AV., and almost unknown later: its nom. sing., in the three genders, is $sy\acute{a}s$, $sy\acute{a}$, $ty\acute{a}t$, and it makes the accusatives $ty\acute{a}m$, $ty\acute{a}m$, $ty\acute{a}t$, and goes on through the remaining cases in the same manner as ta. It has in RV. the instr. fem. $ty\acute{a}$ (for $ty\acute{a}y\~{a}$).
- b. The other is the usual demonstrative of nearer position, 'this here', and is in frequent use through all periods of the language. It prefixes e to the simple root, forming the nominatives esás, esá, etát and so on through the whole inflection.

The stem tya has neither compounds nor derivatives. But from eta are formed both, in the same manner as from the simple ta, only much less numerous: thus, etadda (CB.), etadartha, etc., from the so-called stem etat; and etadre and etavant from eta.

500. There is a defective pronominal stem, ena, which is accentless, and hence used only in situations where no emphasis falls upon it. It does not occur elsewhere than in the accusative of all numbers, the instr. sing., and the gen.-loc. dual: thus,

Sing. A. ϵ n. n. f. ϵ n. Sing. A. ϵ nam ϵ nat ϵ na \bar{u} m ϵ nav \bar{u}

Du. A. enāu ene ene G. L. enayos enayos Pl. A. enān enāni enās

The RV. has enos instead of enayos, and in one or two instances accents a form: thus, $en\acute{a}m$, $en\acute{a}s(?)$.

This stem forms neither derivatives nor compounds.

501. Two other demonstrative declensions are so irregularly made up that they have to be given in full. The one, श्रयम् ayám etc., is used as a more indefinite demonstrative, 'this' or 'that'; the other, श्रसी asāú etc., signifies especially the remoter relation, 'yon' or 'yonder'.

They are as follows:

| | Singular: | | | |
|--------|------------------------------------|-------------------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------|
| N. | m. n. म्रयम् इदम् ayám idám | ^{f.} इयम् iyám | m. n. म्रसी म्रद्स asāú adás | f. म्रसी asāú |
| Α. | इमम् इदम् imám idám | इमाम् $im 	ilde{a}m$ | म्रमुम् म्रदम् amúm adás | मम्म् amam |
| I. | म्रनेन anéna | म्रनया anáyā | म्रमुना amúnā | म्रमुया amúyā |
| D. | म्रस्मै asmāi | म्रस्यै asyāi | म्रमुष्मि amúṣmāi | म्रमुष्यै amúṣyāi |
| Ab. | म्रमात् $asmlpha t$ | म्रस्याम् asyās | म्रमुष्मात् amúṣmāt | म्रमुष्याम् amúṣyās |
| G. | म्रस्य asyá | म्रस्याम् asyās | म्रमुष्य amúṣya | म्रमुष्यास् amúsyās |
| L. | म्रह्मिन् asmin | म्रस्याम् asyām | म्रमुष्मिन् amúṣmin | म्रमुष्याम् amúṣyām |
| | Dual: | | | |
| N. A. | इमी इमे imāú imé | इमे imé | म्रम् amu | |
| I.D.Ab | $ar{a}$ म्याम् $ar{a}bhy \dot{a}m$ | | म्रम्भ ama | याम् bhyām |
| G. L. | म्रनयोम् ^{anáyos} | | . श्रमुर amú | गिम् ^{yos} |

| N. | Plural : इमे इमानि imé imáni | इमाम् imás | म्रमी म्रमूनि ami amini | म्रम्म amās |
|-----------|------------------------------------|------------------|--------------------------------|----------------------|
| A. | इमान् इमानि | इमाम् | म्रमून् म्रमूनि | म्रमूस् |
| | imán imáni | imās | amun amuni | amus |
| 1. | रिभम् | म्राभिस् | म्रमीभिस् | श्रमूभिस् |
| | ebhis | ābhis | amibhis | amābhis |
| D. Ab. | एभ्यम् | म्राभ्यम् | म्रमीभ्यम् | म्रमूभ्यम् |
| | ebhyás | ābhyás | amtbhyas | amābhyas |
| G. | ट्याम् eṣām | म्रासाम् āsām | म्रमीषाम् am^{i} ङ् $ar{a}m$ | म्रमूषाम् amtisām |
| L. | रृषु | म्रामु | म्रमीषु | म्रमूष् |
| | _{eşú} | āsú | amtsu | amáşu |

The same forms are used in the older language, without variation, except that $im\dot{a}$ occurs for $im\ddot{a}\dot{u}$ and $im\dot{a}ni$, and $am\dot{u}$ for $am\dot{u}ni$; $amuy\ddot{a}$ when used adverbially is accented on the final, $amuy\dot{a}$; $as\bar{a}u$ (with accent, of course, on the first, $as\bar{a}u$) is used also as vocative.

502. The former of these two pronouns, $ay\acute{a}m$ etc., plainly shows itself to be pieced together from a number of defective stems. The majority of forms come from the root a, with which, as in the ordinary pronominal declension, sma (f. sy) is combined in the singular. All these forms from a have the peculiarity that in their substantive use they are either accented, as in the paradigm, or accentless (like ena and the second forms from $ah\acute{a}m$ and $tv\acute{a}m$). The remaining forms are always accented. From $an\acute{a}$ come, with entire regularity, $an\acute{e}na$, $an\acute{a}y\ddot{a}$, $an\acute{a}yos$. The strong cases in dual and plural, and in part in singular, come not less regularly from a stem $im\acute{a}$. And $ay\acute{a}m$, $iy\acute{a}m$, $iu\acute{a}m$ are evidently to be referred to a simple root i ($iu\acute{a}m$ being apparently a double form: id, like tad etc., with ending am).

The Veda has from the root a also the instrumentals $en\acute{a}$ and $ay\acute{a}$ (used in general adverbially), and the gen. loc. du. $ay\acute{o}s$; from ima, $im\acute{a}sya$ occurs once in RV. The RV. has in a small number of instances the irregular accentuation $\acute{a}sm\ddot{a}i$, $\acute{a}sya$, $\acute{a}bhis$.

In analogy with the other pronouns, $id\acute{a}m$ is by the grammarians regarded as representative stem of this pronominal declension; and it is actually found so treated in a very small number of compounds ($idamm\acute{a}ya$ and $id\acute{a}mr\~{u}pa$ are of Brāhmaṇa age). As regards the actual stems, ana furnishes nothing further; from ima comes only the adverb $im\acute{a}th\~{a}$ (RV., once); but a and i furnish a number of derivatives, mostly adverbial: thus, for example, $\acute{a}tas$, $\acute{a}tra$, $\acute{a}tha$; $it\acute{a}s$, id (Vedic particle), $id\~{a}$, $ih\acute{a}$, itara, $\~{i}m$ (Vedic particle), $\~{i}d\~{i}c$, perhaps $ev\acute{a}$ and $ev\acute{a}m$, and others.

503. The other pronoun, $as\bar{a}u$ etc., has amu for its leading stem, which in the singular takes in combination, like the a-stems, the element sma (f. sy), and which shifts to $am\bar{\imath}$ in part of the masc. and neut. plural. In part, too, like an adjective u-stem, it lengthens its final in the feminine. The gen. sing. amusya is the only example in the language of the ending sya added to any other than an a-stem. The nom. pl. amu is unique in form; its $\bar{\imath}$ is (like that of a dual) pragrhya, or exempt from combination with a following vowel (138b). $As\bar{a}u$ and $ad\hat{a}s$ are also without analogies as regards their endings.

The grammarians, as usual, treat adás as representative stem of the declension, and it is found in this character in an extremely small number of words, as adomūla; adomáya is of Brāhmana age. The ÇB. has also asāunāman. But most of the derivatives, as of the cases, come from amu: thus, amútas, amútra, amúthā, amúrhi, amuvát, amuka.

In the older language occurs the root tva (accentless), meaning 'one, many a one'; it is oftenest found repeated, as 'one' and 'another'. It follows the ordinary pronominal declension.

Fragments of another demonstrative root or two are met with: thus, δmas , 'he', occurs in a formula in AV. and in Brāhmanas etc.; $\alpha v \delta s$ as gen.-loc. dual is found in RV.; the particle u points to a root u.

Interrogative Pronoun.

504. The characteristic part of the interrogative pronominal root is क् k; it has the three forms क $k\alpha$, कि ki, क् ku; but the whole declensional inflection is from क $k\alpha$, excepting the nom.-acc. sing. neut., which is from कि ki, and has the anomalous form कि kim (not elsewhere known in the language from a neuter i-stem). The nom. and accus. sing., then, are as follows:

and the rest of the declension is precisely like that of π ta (above, 495).

The Veda has its usual variations, $k\dot{a}$ and $k\dot{e}bhis$ for $k\dot{a}ni$ and $k\bar{a}is$. It also has, along with kim, the pronominally regular neuter $k\dot{a}d$; and $k\dot{a}m$

(or kam) is a frequent particle. The masc. form kis, corresponding to kim, occurs as a stereotyped case in the combinations nakis and makis.

- 505. The grammarians treat kim as representative stem of the interrogative pronoun; and it is in fact so used in a not large number of words, of which a few kimmáya, kimkará, kimkāmyá, kimdevata, and the peculiar kimyú go back even to the Veda and Brāhmaṇa. In closer analogy with the other pronouns, the form kad, a couple of times in the Veda (katpayá, kádartha), and not infrequently later, is found as first member of compounds. Then, from the real roots ka, ki, ku are made many derivatives; and from ki and ku, especially the latter, many compounds: thus, káti, kathá, kathám, kadá, katará, katamá, kárhi; kiyant, kīdṛç; kútas, kútra, kúha, kvà, kucará, kukarman, kumantrin, etc.
- **506.** Various forms of this pronoun, as kad, kim, and ku (and, rarely, ko), at the beginning of compounds, have passed from an interrogative meaning, through an exclamatory, to the value of prefixes signifying an unusual quality either something admirable, or, oftener, something contemptible. This use begins in the Veda, but becomes much more common in later time.

Relative Pronoun.

- 508. The root of the relative pronoun is \overline{u} ya, which from the earliest period of the language has lost all trace of the demonstrative meaning originally (doubtless) belonging to it, and is used as relative only.
- 509. It is inflected with entire regularity according to the usual pronominal declension: thus,

| | VII. | Pronouns. | | [509— |
|-------|-------------------------|-------------------------------------|--|--|
| घेन | यया | water About | ग्र म् | याभिस् |
| yéna | yáyā | याभ्याम् | yāls | s yābhis |
| यस्मै | यस्यै | yābhyām | येभ | |
| | | etc. | yébi - etc. | SACILIAL SECTION |
| | yéna यस्मै yásmāi | घेन यया yéna yáyā यस्मै यस्यै | yéna yáyā याभ्याम् यस्मै यस्यै yábhyām yásmāi yásyāi | घेन यया यैस् yéna yáyā याभ्याम् yāk यस्मै यस्यै yábhyām येभ yásmāi yásyāi yéb |

The Veda shows its usual variations of these forms: $y\ddot{a}$ for $y\ddot{a}n$ and for $y\ddot{a}n$, and $y\dot{e}bhis$ for $y\ddot{a}s$; $y\dot{o}s$ for $y\dot{a}yos$ also occurs once; $y\dot{e}n\ddot{a}$, with prolonged final, is in RV. twice as common as $y\dot{e}na$. Resolutions occur in $y\dot{a}bhias$, and $y\dot{e}saam$ and $y\dot{a}saam$.

- **510.** The use of $y \dot{a}t$ as representative stem begins very early: we have $y \dot{a}tk\bar{a}ma$ in the Veda, and $yatk\bar{a}rin$, $yaddevaty\dot{a}$ in the Brāhmana; later it grows more general. From the proper root come also a considerable series of derivatives: $y \dot{a}tas$, $y \dot{a}ti$, $y \dot{a}tra$, $y \dot{a}th\bar{a}$, $y \dot{a}d\bar{a}$, $y \dot{a}di$, $y \dot{a}vant$, $yatar\dot{a}$, $yatam\dot{a}$; and the compound $y\bar{a}d\dot{r}c$.
- 511. The combination of ya with ka to make an indefinite pronoun has been noticed above (507). Its own repetition as $y\acute{a}d-yat$ gives it sometimes a like meaning, won through the distributive.
- 512. One or two marked peculiarities in the Sanskrit use of the relative may be here briefly noticed:
- a. A very decided preference for putting the relative clause before that to which it relates: thus, yâh sunvatâh sâkhā tâsmā îndrāya gāyata (RV.), 'who is the friend of the soma-presser, to that Indra sing ye'; yâm yajñâm paribhūr âsi sâ îâ devēṣu gachati (RV.), 'what offering thou protectest, that in truth goes to the gods'; yé triṣaptāh pariyânti bâlā téṣām dadhātu me (AV.), 'what thrice seven go about, their strength may he assign to me'; asāū yô adharād gṛhâs tâtra santv arāyyàh (AV.), 'what house is yonder in the depth, there let the witches be'; sahā yân me âsti têna (TB.), 'along with that which is mine'; hansānām vacanam yat tu tan mām dahati (MBh.), 'but what the words of the swans were, that burns me'; sarvasya locanam çāstram yasya nā 'sty andha eva sah (H.), 'who does not possess learning, the eye of everything, blind indeed is he'. The other arrangement is comparatively unusual.

b. A frequent conversion of the subject or object of a verb by an added relative into a substantive clause: thus, mé 'mám prá "pat pāūruseyo vadhó yāḥ (AV.), 'may there not reach him a human deadly weapon' (lit'ly, 'what is such a weapon'); pāri no pāhi yād dhānam (AV.), 'protect of us what wealth [there is]'; apāmārgó 'pa mārṣṭu kṣetriyām çapāthaç ca yāḥ (AV.), 'may the cleansing plant cleanse away the disease and the curse'; puṣkareṇa hṛtam rājyam yac cā 'nyad vasu kimcana (MBh.), 'by Pushkara was taken away the kingdom and whatever other property [there was]'.

Emphatic Pronoun.

513. The isolated and uninflected pronominal word स्वयम् svayam (from the root sva) signifies 'self, own self'. By its form it appears to be a nom. sing., and it is oftenest used as nominative, but along with words of all persons and numbers; and not seldom it represents other cases also.

Svayam is also used as a stem in composition: thus, svayamjā, svayambhā. But sva itself (usually adjective: below, 516) has the same value in composition: and even its inflected forms are (in the older language very rarely) used as reflexive pronoun.

Nouns used pronominally.

514. The noun ātmán, 'soul', is widely employed, in the

singular, as reflexive pronoun of all three persons.

The adjective *bhavant*, f. *bhavatī*, is used (as already pointed out: **456**) in respectful address as substitute for the pronoun of the second person. Its construction with the verb is in accordance with its true character, as a word of the third person.

Pronominal Derivatives.

515. From pronominal roots and stems, as well as from the larger class of roots and from noun-stems, are formed by the ordinary suffixes of adjective derivation certain words and classes of words, which have thus the character of pronominal adjectives.

Some of the more 'important of these may be briefly noticed here.

516. Possessives. From the representative stems mad etc. are formed the adjectives madiya, asmadiya, tvadiya, yuşmadiya, tadiya, and yadiya, which are used in a possessive sense: 'relating to me, mine', and so on.

Other possessives are $m\bar{a}mak\acute{a}$ (also $m\acute{a}maka$, RV.) and $t\bar{a}vak\acute{a}$, from the genitives mama and tava.

An analogous derivative from the genitive $am\hat{u}_{\hat{s}}ya$ is $\bar{a}mu_{\hat{s}}y\bar{a}ya\hat{n}\hat{a}$ (AV. etc.), 'descendant of such a one'.

It was pointed out above (493) that the "genitives" asmákam and yu-smákam are really stereotyped cases of possessive adjectives.

Corresponding to svayám (513) is the possessive sva, meaning 'own', as relating to all persons and numbers. The RV. has once the corresponding simple possessive of the second person, tvá, 'thy'.

For the use of sva as reflexive pronoun, see above, 513, end.

All these words form their feminines in \bar{a} .

Other derivatives of a like value have no claim to be mentioned here. But (excepting sva) the possessives are so rarely used as to make but a small figure in the language, which prefers generally to indicate the possessive relation by the genitive case of the pronoun itself.

517. By the suffix vant are formed from the pronominal roots, with prolongation of their final vowels, the adjectives maxant, travant, yuşmavant, yuvavant, tavant, etavant, yavant, meaning of my sort, like me', etc. Of these, however, only the last three are in use in the later language, in the sense of tantus' and quantus'. They are inflected like other adjective stems in vant, making their feminines in vatī (452 ff.).

Words of similar meaning from the roots i and ki are iyant and kiyant, inflected in the same manner: see above, **451**.

- 518. The pronominal roots show a like prolongation of vowel in combination with the root drc, 'see, look', and its derivatives drc and (quite rarely) drc a: thus, $m\bar{a}drc$, $m\bar{a}drc$, $m\bar{a}drc$, $asm\bar{a}drc$ etc.; $yusm\bar{a}drc$ etc.; $t\bar{u}drc$ etc.; $t\bar{u}drc$ etc.; $t\bar{u}drc$, $t\bar{c}drc$, $t\bar$
- 519. From ta, ka, ya come $t\acute{a}ti$, 'so many', $k\acute{a}ti$, 'how many?' $y\acute{a}ti$, 'as many'. They have a quasi-numeral character, and are inflected (like the numerals $p\acute{a}\~{n}ca$ etc.: above, 483) only in the plural, and with the bare stem as nom. and accus.: thus, N.A. $t\acute{a}ti$; I. etc. $t\acute{a}tibhis$, $t\acute{a}tibhyas$, $t\acute{a}t\bar{t}n\bar{a}m$, $t\acute{a}tisu$.
- **520.** From ya (in V. and Br.) and ka come the comparatives and superlatives $yatar\acute{a}$ and $yatam\acute{a}$, and $katar\acute{a}$ and $katam\acute{a}$; and from i, the comparative itara. For their inflection, see below, **523.**
- **521.** Derivatives with the suffix ka, sometimes conveying a diminutive or a contemptuous meaning, are made from certain of the pronominal roots and stems (and may, according to the grammarians, be made from them all): thus, from ta, takám,

takát, takás; from sa, saká; from ya, yakás, yaká, yaké; from asāú, asakāú; from amu, amuka.

For the numerous and frequently used adverbs formed from pronominal roots, see Adverbs (below, chapter XVI.).

Adjectives declined pronominally.

- 522. A number of adjectives some of them coming from pronominal roots, others more or less analogous with pronouns in use are inflected, in part or wholly, according to the pronominal declension (like 71 ta, 495). Thus:
- **523.** The comparatives and superlatives from pronominal roots namely, $katar\acute{a}$ and $katam\acute{a}$, $yatar\acute{a}$ and $yatam\acute{a}$, and itara; also $any\acute{a}$, 'other', and its comparative $anyatar\acute{a}$ are declined like ta throughout. Their feminine stems are in \bar{a} .

But even from these words forms made according to the adjective declension are sporadically met with (e. g. $itar\bar{u}y\bar{u}m$, K.).

524. Others words are so inflected except in the nom.-acc.-voc. sing. neut., where they have the ordinary adjective form am, instead of the pronominal at (ad). Such are $s\acute{a}rva$, 'all', $v\acute{i}cva$, 'all, every', $\acute{e}ka$, 'one'.

These, also, are not without exception, at least in the earlier language (e. g. vicvaya, vicvat, RV.; éke loc. sing., AV.).

525. Yet other words follow the same model usually, or in some of their significations, or optionally; but in other senses, or without known rule, lapse into the adjective inflection.

Such are the comparatives and superlatives from prepositional stems: ádhara and adhamá, ántara and ántama, ápara and apamá, ávara and avamá, áttara and uttamá, úpara and upamá. Of these, pronominal forms are decidedly more numerous from the comparatives than from the superlatives.

Further, the superlatives (without corresponding comparatives) paramá, caramá, madhyamá; and also anyatama (whose positive and comparative belong to the class first mentioned: 523).

Further, the words $p\acute{a}ra$, 'distant, other'; $p\acute{u}rva$, 'prior, east'; $d\acute{a}ksina$, 'right, south'; $ubh\acute{a}ya$ (f. $ubh\acute{a}y\bar{\imath}$ or $ubhay\bar{\imath}$), 'of both kinds or parties'; and the rare sama (accentless), 'any or every one', $sim\acute{a}$, 'each, all', $n\acute{e}ma$, 'the one, half'; and the possessive $sv\acute{a}$.

526. Occasional forms of the pronominal declension are met with from numeral adjectives: e. g. prathamásyās, trtīyasyām: and from other words having an indefinite numeral character: thus, álpa, 'few': ardhá, 'half'; kévala, 'all'; dvítaya, 'of the two kinds'— and others.

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CHAPTER VIII.

CONJUGATION.

527. The subject of conjugation or verbal inflection involves, as in the other languages of the family, the distinctions of voice, tense, mode, number, and person.

Then, besides the simpler or ordinary conjugation of a verbal root, there are certain more or less fully developed secondary or derivative conjugations.

- 528. Voice. There are (as in Greek) two voices, active and middle, distinguished by a difference in the personal endings. This distinction is a pervading one: there is no active personal form which does not have its corresponding middle, and vice versa; and it is extended also in part to the participles (but not to the infinitive).
- 529. An active form is called by the Hindu grammarians parasmāi padam, 'a word for another', and a middle form is called ātmane padam, 'a word for one's self': the terms might be best paraphrased by 'transitive' and 'reflexive'. And the distinction thus expressed is doubtless the original foundation of the difference of active and middle forms: in the recorded condition of the language, however, the antithesis of transitive and reflexive meaning is in no small measure blurred, or even altogether effaced.
- 530. Some verbs are conjugated in both voices, others in one only; sometimes a part of the tenses are inflected only in one voice, others only in the other or in both; of a verb usually inflected in one voice sporadic forms of the other occur; and sometimes the voice differs according as the verb is compounded with certain prepositions.
- 531. The middle forms outside the present-system (for which there is a special passive inflection: see below, 768),

and sometimes also within that system, are liable to be used likewise in a passive sense.

532. Tense. The tenses are as follows: 1. a present, with 2. an imperfect, closely related with it in form, having a prefixed augment; 3. a perfect, made with reduplication (to which in the Veda is added, 4. a so-called pluperfect, made from it with prefixed augment); 5. an aorist, of three different formations: a. simple; b. reduplicated; c. sibilant; 6. a future, with 7. a conditional, an augment-tense, standing to it in the relation of an imperfect to a present; and 8. a second, a periphrastic, future (not found in the Veda).

The tenses here distinguished (in accordance with prevailing usage) as imperfect, perfect, pluperfect, and aorist receive those names from their correspondence in mode of formation with tenses so called in other languages of the family, especially in Greek, and not at all from differences of time designated by them. In no period of the Sanskrit language is there any expression of imperfect or pluperfect time — nor of perfect time, except in the older language, where the "aorist" has this value; later, imperfect, perfect, and aorist (of rare use) are so many undiscriminated past tenses or preterits: see below, under the different tenses.

533. Mode. In respect to mode, the difference between the classical Sanskrit and the older language of the Veda — and, in a less degree, of the Brāhmanas — is especially great.

In the Veda, the present tense has, besides its indicative inflection, a subjunctive, of considerable variety of formation, an optative, and an imperative (in 2d and 3d persons). The same three modes are found, though of much less frequent occurrence, as belonging to the perfect; and they are made also from the aorists, being of especial frequency from the simple aorist. The future has no modes (an occasional case or two are purely exceptional).

In the classical Sanskrit, the present adds to its indicative an optative and an imperative — of which last, moreover, the first persons are a remnant of the old subjunc-

tive. And the acrist has also an optative, of somewhat peculiar inflection, usually called the precative (or benedictive).

- 534. The present, perfect, and future tenses have each of them, alike in the earlier and later language, a pair of participles, active and middle, sharing in the various peculiarities of the tense-formations; and in the Veda are found such participles belonging also to the aorist.
- 535. Tense-systems. The tenses, then, with their accompanying modes and participles, fall into certain well-marked groups or systems:
 - I. The present-system, composed of the present tense with its modes, its participle, and its preterit which we have called the imperfect.
 - II. The perfect-system, composed of the perfect tense (with, in the Veda, its modes and its preterit, the so-called pluperfect) and its participle.
 - III. The aorist-system, or systems, simple, reduplicated, and sibilant, composed of the aorist tense along with, in the later language, its "precative" optative (but, in the Veda, with its various modes and its participle).
 - IV. The future-systems: a. the old or sibilant future, with its accompanying preterit, the conditional, and its participle; and b. the new periphrastic future.
- 536. Number and Person. The verb has, of course, the same three numbers with the noun, namely singular, dual, and plural; and in each number it has the three persons, first, second, and third. All of these are made in every tense and mode except that the first persons of the imperative numbers are supplied from the subjunctive.

- 537. Verbal adjectives and nouns: Participles. The participles belonging to the tense-systems have been already spoken of above (534). There is besides, coming directly from the root of the verb, a participle, prevailingly of past and passive (or sometimes neuter) meaning. Future passive participles, or gerundives, of several different formations, are also made.
- 538. In finitives. In the older language, a very considerable variety of derivative abstract nouns only in a few sporadic instances having anything to do with the tensesystems are used in an infinitive or quasi-infinitive sense; most often in the dative case, but sometimes also in the accusative, in the genitive and ablative, and (very rarely) in the locative. In the classical Sanskrit, there remains a single infinitive, of accusative case-form, having nothing to do with the tense-systems.
- 539. Gerund. A so-called gerund (or absolutive) being, like the infinitive, a stereotyped case-form of a derivative noun is a part of the general verb-system in both the earlier and later language, being especially frequent in the latter. In the Veda it has a somewhat various form; in the later language, it has only two forms, one for simple verbs, and the other for compound. Its value is that of an indeclinable active participle, of indeterminate but prevailingly past tense-character.

A second gerund, an adverbially used accusative in form, is found, but only rarely, both earlier and later.

540. Secondary conjugations. The secondary or derivative conjugations are as follows: a. the passive; b. the intensive; c. the desiderative; d. the causative. In these, a conjugation-stem, instead of the simple root, underlies the whole system of inflection. Yet there is clearly to be seen in them the character of a present-system, expanded

into a more or less complete conjugation; and the passive is so purely a present-system that it will be described in the chapter devoted to that part of the inflection of the verb.

Under the same general head belongs the subject of denominative conjugation, or the conversion of noun and adjective-stems into conjugation-stems. Further, that of compound conjugation, whether by the prefixion of prepositions to roots or by the addition of auxiliary verbs to noun and adjective-stems. And finally, that of periphrastic conjugation, or the looser combination of auxiliaries with verbal nouns and adjectives.

541. The characteristic of a proper (finite or personal) verb-form is its personal ending. By this alone is determined its character as regards number and person — and in part also as regards mode and tense. But the distinctions of mode and tense are mainly made by the formation of tense and mode-stems, to which, instead of to the pure root, the personal endings are appended.

In this chapter will be given a general account of the personal endings, and also of the formation of mode-stems from tense-stems, and of those elements in the formation of tense-stems — the augment and the reduplication — which are found in more than one tense-system. Then, in the following chapters, each tense-system will be taken up by itself, and the methods of formation of its stems, both tense-stems and mode-stems, and their combination with the endings, will be described in detail.

Personal Endings.

542. The endings of verbal inflection are, as was pointed out above, different throughout in the active and middle voices. They are also, as in Greek, usually of two somewhat varying forms for the same person in the same voice: one fuller, called primary; the other briefer, called secondary. There are also less pervading differences, depending upon other conditions.

A condensed statement of all the varieties of ending for each person and number here follows.

543. Singular: First person. The primary ending in the active is mi. The subjunctive, however (later imperative), has ni instead; and in the oldest Veda this ni is sometimes wanting, and the person ends in \bar{a} (as if the ni of $\bar{a}ni$ were dropped). The secondary ending is m; and to this m an a has come to be so persistently prefixed, appearing always where the tense-stem does not itself end in a (vam for varm or varam in RV., once, is an isolated anomaly), that it is necessary to reckon am as ending, alternate with m. But the perfect tense has neither mi nor m; its ending is simply a (sometimes \bar{a} : 248 c): or, from \bar{a} -roots, $\bar{a}u$.

The primary middle ending, according to the analogy of the other persons, would be regularly me. But no tense or mode, at any period of the language, shows any relic whatever of a m in this person: the primary ending, present as well as perfect, from a-stems and others alike, is e; and to it corresponds i as secondary ending, which blends with the final of an a-stem to e. The optative has, however, a instead of i; and in the subjunctive (later imperative) appears $\bar{a}i$ for e.

544. Second person. In the active, the primary ending is si, which is shortened to s as secondary: as to the loss of this s after a final radical consonant, see below, **555**. But the perfect and the imperative desert here entirely the analogy of the other forms. The perfect ending is invariably tha (or $th\bar{a}$, **248c**). The imperative is far less regular. The fullest form of its ending is dhi; which, however, is more often reduced to hi; and in the great majority of verbs (including all a-stems, at every period of the language) no ending is present, but the bare stem stands as personal form. In a very small class of verbs (**722**) $\bar{a}na$ is the ending. The Veda has also an ending $t\bar{a}t$; and this is even used sporadically in other persons of the imperative (see below, **570**—1).

In the middle voice, the primary ending, both present and perfect, is se. The secondary stands in no apparent relation to this, being $th\bar{a}s$; and in the imperative is found only sva (or $sv\bar{a}: 248c$), which in the Veda is not seldom to be read as sua. In the older language, se is sometimes strengthened to $s\bar{a}i$ in the subjunctive.

545. Third person. The active primary ending is ti; the secondary, t: as to the loss of the latter after a final radical consonant, see below, **555.** But in the imperative appears instead the peculiar ending tu; and in the perfect no characteristic consonant is present, and the third person has the same ending as the first.

The primary middle ending is te, with ta as corresponding secondary. In the older language, te is often strengthened to $t\bar{a}i$ in the subjunctive. In the perfect, the middle third person has, like the active, the same ending with the first, namely e simply; and in the older language, the third person present also often loses the distinctive part of its termination, and comes to coincide in form with the first. To this e perhaps corresponds, as secondary, the i of the acrist 3d pers. passive (842 ff.). The imperative has $t\bar{a}m$ (or, in the Veda, rarely $\bar{a}m$) for its ending.

- **546.** Dual: First person. Both in active and in middle, the dual first person is in all its varieties precisely like the corresponding plural, only with substitution of v for the m of the latter: thus, vas (no vasi has been found to occur), va, vahe, $vah\bar{a}i$. The person is, of course, of comparatively rare use, and from the Veda no form in vas, even, is quotable.
- 547. Second and Third persons. In the active, the primary ending of the second person is thas, and that of the third is tas; and this relation of th to t appears also in the perfect, and runs through the whole series of middle endings. The perfect endings are primary, but have u instead of a as vowel; and an a has become so persistently prefixed that their forms have to be reckoned as athus and atus. The secondary endings exhibit no definable relation to the primary in these two persons; they are tam and $t\bar{a}m$; and they are used in the imperative as well.

In the middle, a long \bar{a} — which, however, with the final a of a-stems becomes e — has become prefixed to all dual endings of the second and third persons, so as to form an inseparable part of them. The primary endings, present and perfect, are $\bar{a}the$ and $\bar{a}te$; the secondary (and imperative) are $\bar{a}th\bar{a}m$ and $\bar{a}t\bar{a}m$ (or, with stem-final a, ethe etc.).

The Rig-Veda has a very few forms in $\bar{a}ithe$ and $\bar{a}ite$, apparently from ethe and ete with subjunctive strengthening (they are all detailed below: see 615, 701, 737, 752, 836, 1008, 1043).

548. Plural: First person. The earliest form of the active ending is masi, which in the oldest language is more frequent than the briefer mas (in RV., as five to one; in AV., however, only as three to four). In the classical Sanskrit, mas is the exclusive primary ending; but the secondary abbreviated ma belongs also to the perfect and the subjunctive (imperative). In the Veda, ma often becomes $m\bar{a}$ (248c), especially in the perfect.

The primary middle ending is mahe. This is lightened in the secondary form to mahi; and, on the other hand, it is regu-

larly (in the Veda, not invariably) strengthened to mahāi in the subjunctive (imperative).

549. Second person. The active primary ending is tha. The secondary, also imperative, ending is ta (in the Veda, $t\bar{a}$ only once in impv.). But in the perfect any characteristic consonant is wanting, and the ending is simply a. In the Veda, the syllable na, of problematic origin, is not infrequently added to both forms of the ending, making thana (rarely $than\bar{a}$) and tana. The forms in which this occurs will be detailed below, under the different formations: the addition is very rarely made excepting to persons of the first general conjugation.

The middle primary ending is dhve, which belongs to the perfect as well as the present. In the subjunctive of the older language it is sometimes strengthened to $dhv\bar{a}i$. The secondary (and imperative) ending is dhvam (in RV., once dhva); and $dhv\bar{a}t$ is once met with in the imperative (570). In the Veda, the v of all these endings is sometimes resolved into u, and the ending becomes dissyllabic.

550. Third person. The full primary ending is anti in the active, with ante as corresponding middle. The middle secondary ending is anta, to which should correspond an active ant; but of the t only altogether questionable traces are left, in the euphonic treatment of a final n (207); the ending is an. In the imperative, antu and antām take the place of anti and ante. The initial a of all these endings is like that of am in the 1st sing., disappearing after the final a of a tense-stem.

Moreover, anti, antu, ante, antām, anta are all liable to be weakened by the loss of their nasal, becoming ati etc. In the active, this weakening takes place only after reduplicated stems (and after a few roots which are treated as if reduplicated: 639 ff.); in the middle, it occurs after all tense-stems save those ending in a.

Further, for the secondary active ending an there is a substitute us (or ur: 169, end), which is used in the same reduplicating verbs that change anti to ati etc., and which accordingly appears as a weaker correlative of an. The same us is also used universally in the perfect, in the optative (not in the subjunctive), in those forms of the aorist whose stem does not end in a, and in the imperfect of roots ending in \bar{a} , and a few others (621).

The perfect middle has in all periods of the language the peculiar ending re, and the optative has the allied ran, in this person. In the Veda, a variety of other endings containing a r as distinctive consonant are met with: namely, re (and ire) and rate in the present; rata in the optative (both of present and of

aorist); rire in the perfect; ranta, ran, and ram in aorists (and in an imperfect or two); rām and ratām in the imperative. The three rate, ratām, and rata are found even in the later language in one or two verbs (629).

- 551. Below are given, for convenience, in tabular form, the schemes of endings as accepted in the classical or later language: namely, a. the regular primary endings, used in the present indicative and the future (and the subjunctive in part); and b. the regular secondary endings, used in the imperfect, the conditional, the aorist, the optative (and the subjunctive in part); and further, of special schemes, c. the perfect endings (chiefly primary, especially in the middle); and d. the imperative endings (chiefly secondary). To the so-called imperative endings of the first person is prefixed the \bar{a} which is practically a part of them, though really containing the mode-sign of the subjunctive from which they are derived.
- 552. Further, a part of the endings are marked with an accent, and a part are left unaccented. The latter are those which never, under any circumstances, receive the accent; the former are accented in considerable classes of verbs, though by no means in all. It will be noticed that, in general, the unaccented endings are those of the singular active; but the 2d sing, imperative has an accented ending; and, on the other hand, the whole series of 1st persons imperative, active and middle, have unaccented endings (this being a characteristic of the subjunctive formation which they represent).

553. The schemes of normal endings, then, are as follows:

Primary Endings

| | | | a. Filmary | Enuings. | | |
|---|----------|--|-----------------|---------------------|-------------------------------|----------------|
| | | active. | | | middle | |
| | s. | d. | р. | s. | d. | р. |
| 1 | mi | $oldsymbol{v}oldsymbol{a}oldsymbol{s}$ | $m \acute{a} s$ | é | $v\'ahe$ | máhe |
| 2 | si | thás | $th\acute{a}$ | sé | $\dot{ar{a}}the$ | $dhv\acute{e}$ |
| 3 | ti | tás | ánti, áti | té | lpha te | ánte, áte |
| | | 4 | | | | , |
| | | | b. Secondary | Endings. | | |
| 1 | am | $v\acute{a}$ | mlpha | í, á | váhi | máhi |
| 2 | 8 | $t \delta m$ | tá | $th\dot{ec{lpha}}s$ | $lpha thar{a}m$ | $dhv\'am$ |
| 3 | t | $t \acute{ar{a}} m$ | án, ús | $t\hat{a}$ | $\dot{\bar{a}}$ t \bar{a} m | ánta, áta, rán |
| | | | 1 | | | |
| | | | c. Perfect I | Indings. | | |
| 1 | α | vá | má | é | vá he | måhe |
| 2 | tha | athus | á | 8€ | άthe | $dhv\acute{e}$ |
| 3 | a | átus | ús | é | lpha'te | ré |
| | | | | | | |

d. Imperative Endings.

| 1 | āni | āva | āma | āi | $ar{a}vahar{a}i$ | āmahāi |
|---|------------|-----|-----------|---------------------|------------------|-------------|
| 2 | dhí, hí, - | tám | tá | svá | áthām | dhvám |
| 3 | tu | tắm | ântu, âtu | $t \dot{\bar{a}} m$ | ātām | ántām, átām |

554. In general, the rule is followed that an accented ending, if dissyllabic, is accented on its first syllable — and the constant union-vowels are regarded, in this respect, as integral parts of the endings. But the 3d pl. ending ate of the pres. indic. middle has in RV. the accent ate in a number of verbs (see 613, 685, 699, 718); and an occasional instance is met with in other endings: thus, mahe (see 719, 735).

555. The secondary endings of the second and third persons singular, as consisting of an added consonant without vowel, should regularly (150) be lost whenever the root or stem to which they are to be added itself ends in a consonant. And this rule is in general followed; yet not without exceptions. Thus:

a. A root ending in a dental mute sometimes drops this final mute instead of the added s in the second person; and, on the other hand, a root or stem ending in s sometimes drops this s instead of the added t in the third person — in either case, establishing the ordinary relation of s and t in these persons, instead of s and s, or t and t. A similar loss of any other final consonant before the ending is exceedingly rare. For instances, see below, **692.**

b. Again, a union-vowel is sometimes introduced before the ending, either a or $\bar{\imath}:$ see below, 621, 631, 819, 880.

In a few isolated cases in the older language, this $\bar{\imath}$ is changed to $\bar{a}i$: see below, 904 b, 1068.

556. The changes of form which roots and stems undergo in their combinations with these endings will be pointed out in detail below, under the various formations. Here may be simply mentioned in advance, as by far the most important among them, a distinction of stronger and weaker form of stem in large classes of verbs, standing in relation with the accent — the stem being of stronger form when the accent falls upon it, or before an accentless ending, and of weaker form when the accent is on the ending.

Of the endings marked as accented in the scheme, the ta of 2d pl. is not infrequently in the Veda treated as unaccented, the tone resting on the stem, which is strengthened. Much less often, the tam of 2d du. is treated in the same way: other endings, only sporadically.

Subjunctive Mode.

557. Of the subjunctive mode (as was pointed out above) only fragments are left in the later or classical language: namely, in the so-called first persons imperative, and in the use (580)

of the imperfect and aorist persons without augment after $m\acute{a}$ prohibitive. In the oldest period, however, it was a very frequent formation, being three or four times as common as the optative in the Rig-Veda, and nearly the same in the Atharvan; but already in the Brāhmaṇas it becomes comparatively rare. Its varieties of form are considerable, and sometimes perplexing.

- 558. In its most normal and regular formation, a special mode-stem is made for the subjunctive by adding to the tense-stem an a which combines with a final a of the tense-stem to \bar{a} . The accent rests upon the tense-stem, which accordingly has the strong form. Thus, from the strong present-stem doh(Vduh) is made the subjunctive-stem doha; from juho(Vhu), juhava; from yunaj(Vyuj), yunaja; from $bhava(Vbh\bar{u})$, $bhav\bar{a}$; from tuda(Vtud), tuda; from ucya(pass., Vvac), ucya; and so on.
- 559. The stem thus formed is inflected in general as an a-stem would be inflected in the indicative, with constant accent, and \bar{a} for a before the endings of the first person (733) but with the following peculiarities as to ending etc.:
- **560.** In the active, the 1st sing. has ni as ending: thus, $d\delta h\bar{a}ni$, $yun\dot{a}j\bar{a}ni$, $bh\dot{a}v\bar{a}ni$. But in the Rig-Veda sometimes \bar{a} simply: thus, $\dot{a}y\bar{a}$, $br\dot{a}v\bar{a}$.

In 1st du., 1st pl., and 3d pl., the endings are always the secondary: thus, $d\delta h\bar{a}va$, $d\delta h\bar{a}ma$, $d\delta han$; $bh\dot{a}v\bar{a}va$, $bh\dot{a}v\bar{a}ma$, $bh\dot{a}v\bar{a}ma$.

In 2d and 3d du. and 2d pl., the endings are always primary: thus, $d\delta hathas$, $d\delta hathas$, d

In 2d and 3d sing., the endings are either primary or secondary: thus, dóhasi or dóhas, dóhati or dóhat; bhávāsi or bhávās, bhávāti or bhávāt.

Occasionally, forms with double mode-sign \bar{a} (by assimilation to the more numerous subjunctives from tense-stems in a) are met with from non-a-stems: thus, $\delta s \bar{a} t h a$ from a s; $\delta y \bar{a} s$, $\delta y \bar{a} t$, $\delta y \bar{a} n$ from e (Vi).

561. In the middle, forms with secondary instead of primary endings are very rare, being found only in the 3d pl. (where they are more frequent than the primary), and in a case or two of the 3d sing.

The striking peculiarity of subjunctive middle inflection is the frequent strengthening of e to $\bar{a}i$ in the endings. This is less general in the very earliest language than later. In 1st sing., $\bar{a}i$ alone is found as ending, even in RV.; and in 1st du. also (of rare occurrence), only $\bar{a}vah\bar{a}i$ is met with. In 1st pl., $\bar{a}mah\bar{a}i$ prevails in RV. and AV. ($\bar{a}mahe$ is found a few times), and is alone known later. In 2d sing., $s\bar{a}i$ for se does not occur in RV., but is the only form in AV. and the Brāhmaṇas. In 3d sing., $t\bar{a}i$ for te occurs once in RV., and is the predominant form in AV., and the only one later. In 2d pl., $dhv\bar{a}i$ for dhve is found in one word in RV., and a few times in the Brāhmaṇas. In 3d pl., $nt\bar{a}i$ for nte is the Brāhmaṇa form (of far from frequent occurrence); it occurs neither in RV. nor AV. No such

dual endings as $th\bar{a}i$ and $t\bar{a}i$, for the and te, are anywhere found; but RV. has in a few words (nine: above, 527, end) $\bar{a}ithe$ and $\bar{a}ite$, which appear to be a like subjunctive strengthening of ethe and ete (although found in one indicative form, $krnv\bar{a}ite$). Before the $\bar{a}i$ -endings the penultimate vowel is regularly long \bar{a} ; but $ant\bar{a}i$ instead of $\bar{a}nt\bar{a}i$ is two or three times met with, and once (TS.) $at\bar{a}i$ for $\bar{a}t\bar{a}i$.

562. The subjunctive endings, then, in combination with the subjunctive mode-sign, are as follows:

| | | active. | | | middle. | |
|---|---|-----------|-------------|--|-------------------|-----------------------|
| | s. | d. | p. | s. | d. | p. |
| 1 | āni | $ar{a}va$ | $\bar{a}ma$ | $ar{a}$ i | ∫āvahāi {āvahe | ∫āmahāi \āmahe |
| 2 | asi as | athas | atha | {ase {āsāi | $ar{a}$ ithe | ∫adhve ādhvāi |
| 3 | $\left\{egin{aligned} ati \ at \end{aligned} ight.$ | atas | an | $\left\{egin{array}{l} ate \ ar{a}tar{a}i \end{array} ight.$ | āite | ∫ante, anta {āntāi |

And, in further combination with final a of a tense-stem, the initial a of all these endings becomes \bar{a} : thus, for example, in 2d pers.: $\bar{a}si$ or $\bar{a}s$, $\bar{a}thas$, $\bar{a}tha$, $\bar{a}se$, $\bar{a}dhve$.

563. Besides this proper subjunctive, with mode-sign, in its triple form — with primary, with strengthened primary, and with secondary endings — there is in the older language another, without mode-sign and with secondary endings, or in all respects coinciding with the forms of an augment-tense (imperfect or aorist) save for the absence of the augment. Subjunctives of this character are frequent in RV., decidedly less common in later Vedic, and very little used in the Brāhmaṇas except after $m\dot{a}$ prohibitive (580) — after which they stand also in the later language.

These forms are sometimes called "imperfect subjunctive", but the appellation is an evident misnomer: "improper subjunctive" is preferable. Since (below, 587) the forms of augmented tenses are also freely used in an indicative sense without augment in the oldest Veda, the distinction of the two classes of use is often difficult to make.

As to the uses of the subjunctive, see below, 572 ff.

Optative Mode.

564. As has been already pointed out, the optative is of comparatively rare occurrence in the language of the Vedas; but it gains rapidly in frequency, and already in the Brāhmanas greatly outnumbers the subjunctive, which still later it comes almost entirely to replace.

Its mode of formation is the same in all periods of the language.

565. The optative mode-sign is in the active voice a different one, according as it is added to a tense-stem ending in a, or in some other final. In the latter case, it is $y\dot{a}$, accented; this $y\bar{a}$ is appended to the weaker form of the tense-stem, and takes the regular series of secondary endings, with, in 3d plur., us instead of an, and loss of the \bar{a} before it. After an a-stem, it is $\bar{\imath}$, unaccented; this $\bar{\imath}$ blends with the final a to e (which then is accented or not according to the accent of the a); and the e is maintained unchanged before a vowel-ending (am, us), by means of an interposed euphonic y.

In the middle voice, the mode-sign is $\bar{\imath}$ throughout, and takes the secondary endings, with a in 1st sing., and ran in 3d pl. After an a-stem, the rules as to its combination to e, the accent of the latter, and its retention before a vowel-ending with interposition of a y, are the same as in the active. After any other final, the weaker form of stem is taken, and the accent is on the ending (except in one class of verbs, where it falls upon the tense-stem: see 645); and the $\bar{\imath}$ (as when combined to e) takes an inserted y before a vowel-ending.

It is, of course, impossible to tell from the form whether i or $\bar{\imath}$ is combined with the final of an a-stem to e; but no good reason appears to exist for assuming i, rather than the $\bar{\imath}$ which shows itself in the other class of stems in middle voice.

566. The combined mode-sign and endings of the optative, then, are as follows, in their double form, for α -stems and for others:

| 1 | a. | for | non-a-stems. |
|---|----|-----|--------------|

| active. | | | | middle. | | | |
|---------|------------------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------|--|------------------------------|--|
| | 8. | d. | p. | s. | d. | p. | |
| 1 | $y\acute{a}m$ | $y \dot{a} v a$ | $y \dot{a} m a$ | $ar{\imath} y m{\acute{a}}$ | $ar{\imath}v\acute{a}hi$ | $ar{\imath} m \acute{a} h i$ | |
| 2 | $oldsymbol{y} \dot{ar{a}} s$ | $y \dot{\bar{a}} tam$ | $y \dot{\bar{a}} t a$ | $ar{\imath}thlpha's$ | $ar{\imath} y \dot{ar{a}} t h ar{a} m$ | $ar{\imath}dhv\acute{a}m$ | |
| 3 | $y \dot{\bar{a}} t$ | $y \dot{a} t \tilde{a} m$ | yús | $ar{\imath} t ar{a}$ | $\bar{\imath} y \dot{\bar{a}} t \bar{a} m$ | īrán | |

b. combined with the final of a-stems.

| 1 | eyam | eva | ema | eya | evahi | emahi |
|---|------|--------------|-------------|-------------|----------------------|--------|
| 2 | es | etam | et a | $ethar{a}s$ | $eyar{a}thar{a}m$ | edhvam |
| 3 | et | $et ar{a} m$ | eyus | eta | $ev\bar{a}t\bar{a}m$ | eran |

The $y\bar{a}$ is in the Veda not seldom resolved into $i\bar{a}$.

The Vedic 3d pl. middle forms in rata will be detailed below, under the various formations.

567. Precative. Precative forms are such as have a sibilant inserted between the optative-sign and the ending. They are made almost only from the acrist stems, and, though allowed by the grammarians to be formed from every root — the active

precative from the simple agrist, the middle from the sibilant agrist — are practically of rare occurrence at every period of the language, and especially later.

The inserted s runs in the active through the whole series of persons; in the middle, it is allowed only in the 2d and 3d persons sing. and du., and the 2d pl., and is quotable from the older literature only for the 2d and 3d sing. In the 2d sing. act., the precative form, by reason of the necessary loss of the added s, is not distinguishable from the simple optative; in the 3d sing. act., the same is the case in the later language, which (above, 555) saves the personal ending t instead of the precative-sign s; but the RV. usually, and the other Vedic texts to some extent, have the proper ending $y\bar{a}s$ (for $y\bar{a}st$).

The accent is as in the simple optative.

568. The precative endings, then, accepted in the later language (including, in brackets, those which are identical with the simple optative), are as follows:

| active. | | | | middle. | | | |
|---------|------------------------|------------------------|-----------------------|--------------------------------|--|----------------------|--|
| | ε. | d. | p. | s. | d. | p. | |
| 1 | $y \dot{ar{a}} sam$ | $y \acute{a} sva$ | $y \acute{a} sma$ | $[ar{\imath}yar{a}]$ | [īváhi] | [ĩmáhi] | |
| 2 | $[y \dot{ar{a}} s]$ | $y\dot{ar{a}}stam$ | $y\dot{\vec{a}}sta$ | $ar{\imath}$ s t h $ar{a}$ s | $ar{\imath} y \dot{ar{a}} sth ar{a} m$ | $\bar{\imath}dhv$ ám | |
| 3 | $[y \dot{	ilde{a}} t]$ | $y\dot{ar{a}}star{a}m$ | $y \dot{ar{a}} s u s$ | ĩṣṭá | $ar{\imath} y lpha s t ar{a} m$ | [īrán] | |

As to the uses of the optative, see below, 572 ff.

Imperative Mode.

569. The imperative has no mode-sign; it is made by adding its own endings directly to the tense-stem, just as the other endings are added to form the indicative tenses.

Hence, in 2d and 3d du. and 2d pl., its forms are indistinguishable from those of the augment-preterit from the same stem with its augment omitted.

The rules as to the use of the different endings — especially in $2d \sin g$, where the variety is considerable — will be given below, in connection with the various tense-systems. The ending $t\bar{a}t$, however, has so much that is peculiar in its use that it calls for a little explanation here.

570. The Imperative in $t\bar{a}t$. This is nowhere a frequent form, though found from the earliest period of the language, and allowed to be made in the latest; in the five leading Vedic texts it is formed from nearly fifty verbs, and has less than seventy occurrences. Its usual value is that of a second person singular; but it occurs as 1st sing. once, in AV. $(\bar{a}vyu-sam) j\bar{a}grt\bar{a}d aham$, 'let me watch till day-break'); as 3d sing., toward a dozen times (e. g. panar ma' "viçatād rayth, TS., 'let wealth come again to me'; ayam tyasya raja murdhanam vi patayatat, ÇB., 'the king here shall make

his head fly off); and as 2d pl. several times in TS. (e. g. āpaḥ... devésu naḥ sukito brūtāt, 'ye waters, announce us to the gods as well-doers'), and many times in a Brāhmaṇa passage (repeated in K. xvi. 21. TB. iii, 6. 1, and AB. ii. 6, 7) — in which, moreover, two authorities (K. and AB.) have once vārayadhvāt for vārayatāt: no other occurrence of dhvāt has been noted.

571. As regards its meaning, this form has been shown (Delbrück) to have prevailingly in the Brāhmanas, and traceably but much less distinctly in the Vedic texts, a specific tense-value added to its mode-value — as signifying, namely, an injunction to be carried out at a later time than the present: it is (like the Latin forms in to and tote) a posterior or future imperative.

Examples are: $i\hbar \bar{u}$ 'vá mā tiṣṭhantam abhyèhī 'ti brūhi tấm tá na ágatām pratiprābrūtāt (ÇB.), 'say to her "come to me as I stand just here", and [afterward] announce her to us as having come'; yád ūrdhvás tiṣṭhā drávine 'há dhattāt (RV.), 'when thou shalt stand upright, [then] bestow riches here' (and similarly in many cases); utkūlam udvahó bhavo 'dúhya práti dhāvatāt (AV.), 'be a carrier up the ascent; after having carried up, run back again'; vánaspátir ádhi tvā sthūsyati tásya vittāt (TS.), 'the tree will ascend thee, take [then] note of it'.

According to the grammarians, the form in $t\bar{a}t$ may be used when benediction is intended.

Uses of the Modes.

572. Of the three modes, the imperative is the one most distinct and limited in office, and most unchanged in use throughout the whole history of the language. It signifies a command or injunction — an attempt at the exercise of the speaker's will upon some one or something outside of himself.

This, however (in Sanskrit as in other languages), is by no means always of the same force; the command shades off into a demand, an exhortation, an entreaty, an expression of earnest desire. The imperative also sometimes signifies an assumption or concession; and occasionally, by pregnant construction, it becomes the expression of something conditional or contingent; but it does not acquire any regular use in dependent-clause-making.

573. The optative appears to have as its primary office the expression of wish or desire; in the oldest language, its prevailing use in independent clauses is that to which the name "optative" properly belongs.

The so-called precative forms (567) are restricted to this use, but are not otherwise distinguished from the simple optatives.

But the expression of desire, on the one hand, passes naturally over into that of request or entreaty, so that the optative becomes a softened imperative; and, on the other hand, it comes to signify what is generally desirable or proper, what should or ought to be, and so becomes the mode of prescription; or, yet again, it is weakened into signifying what may or can be, what is likely or usual, and so becomes at last a softened statement of what is.

Further, the optative in dependent clauses, with relative pronouns and conjunctions, becomes a regular means of expression of the conditional and contingent, in a wide and increasing variety of uses.

574. The subjunctive, as has been pointed out, becomes nearly extinct at an early period in the history of the language; there are left of it in classical usage only two relics; the use of its first persons in an "imperative" sense, or to signify a necessity or obligation resting on the speaker, or a peremptory intention on his part; and the use of its other persons, with the negative particle Π $m\dot{a}$, in a prohibitive or negative imperative sense.

And the general value of the subjunctive from the beginning was what these relics would seem to indicate: its fundamental meaning is perhaps that of requisition, less peremptory than the imperative, more so than the optative. But this meaning is liable to the same modifications and transitions with that of the optative; and subjunctive and optative run closely parallel with one another in the oldest language in their use in independent clauses, and are hardly distinguishable in dependent. And instead of their being (as in Greek) both maintained in use, and endowed with nicer and more distinctive values, the subjunctive gradually disappears, and the optative assumes alone the offices formerly shared by both.

575. The difference, then, between imperative and subjunctive and optative, in their fundamental and most characteristic uses, is one of degree: command, requisition, wish: and no sharp line of division exists between them; they are more or less exchangeable with one another, and combinable in coördinate clauses.

Thus, in AV., we have in impv.: catám jīva çarádah, 'do thou live a hundred autumns'; ubhāu tāu jīvatām jarádasṭī, 'let them both live to attain old age'; — in subj., adyá jīvāmi, 'let me live this day'; çatám jīvāti çarádah, 'he shall live a hundred autumns'; — in opt., jīvema çarádām çatáni, 'may we live hundreds of autumns'; sárvam áyur jīvyāsam (prec.), 'I would fain live out my whole term of life'. Here the modes would be interchangeable with a hardly perceptible change of meaning.

Examples, again, of different modes in coordinate construction are: iyám agne nắrī pátim videsṭa... súvānā putrắn máhiṣī bhavāti gatvā pátim subhágā ví rājatu (AV.), 'may this woman, O Agni! find a spouse; giving birth to sons she shall become a chieftainess; having attained a spouse let her rule in happiness'; gopāyā naḥ svastāye prabūdhe naḥ pūnar dadaḥ (TS.), 'watch over us for our welfare, grant unto us to wake again'; syān naḥ sūnūḥ... sā te sumatir bhūtv asmé (RV.), 'may there be to us a son; let that favor of thine be ours'. It is not very seldom the case that versions of the same passage in different texts show different modes as various readings.

There is, in fact, nothing in the earliest employment of these modes to prove that they might not all be specialized uses of forms originally equivalent — having, for instance, a general future meaning.

576. As examples of the less characteristic use of subjunctive and optative in the older language, in independent clauses, may be quoted the following: \acute{a} $gh\bar{a}$ $t\acute{a}$ $gach\bar{a}n$ $\acute{u}ttar\bar{a}$ $yug\acute{a}ni$ (RV.), 'those later ages will doubtless come'; $y\acute{a}d$... $n\acute{a}$ $mar\bar{a}$ $\acute{t}ti$ $m\acute{a}nyase$ (RV.), 'if thou thinkest "I shall not die"'; $n\acute{a}$ $t\acute{a}$ nacanti $n\acute{a}$ $dabh\bar{a}ti$ $t\acute{a}skarah$ (RV.), 'they do not become lost; no thief can harm them'; $k\acute{a}sm\bar{a}i$ $dev\acute{a}ya$ $havis\bar{a}$ vidhema (RV.), 'to what god shall we offer oblation?' $agnin\bar{a}$ rayim acanavat ... $div\acute{e}-dive$ (RV.), 'by Agni one may gain wealth every day'; $ut\bar{a}i$ ' $n\bar{a}m$ $brahm\acute{a}ne$ $dady\bar{a}t$ $t\acute{a}th\bar{a}$ $syon\acute{a}$ $civ\acute{a}$ $sy\bar{a}t$ (AV.), 'one should give her, however, to a Brahman; in that case she will be propitious and favorable'; $\acute{a}har-ahar$ $dady\bar{a}t$ (CB.), 'one should give every day'.

577. The uses of the optative in the later language are of the utmost variety, covering the whole field occupied jointly by the two modes in earlier time. A few examples from a single text (MBh.) will be enough to illustrate them: uchiṣṭam nāi 'va bhuñjiyām na kuryām pādadhāvanam, 'I will not eat of the remnant of the sacrifice, I will not perform the foot-lavation'; jñātīn vrajet, 'let her go to her relations'; nāi 'vam sā karhicit kuryāt, 'she should not act thus at any time'; katham vidyām nalam nṛpam, 'how can I know king Nala?' utsarge samçayaḥ syāt tu

vindetā 'pi sukhain kvacit, 'but in case of her abandonment there may be a chance; she may also find happiness somewhere'; kathain vāso vikarteyain na ca budhyeta me priyā, 'how can I cut off the garment and my beloved not wake?'

- 578. The later use of the first persons subjunctive as so-called imperative involves no change of construction from former time, but only restriction to a single kind of use: thus, $d\bar{\imath}vy\bar{a}va$, 'let us two play'; kim $karav\bar{a}m$ te, 'what shall I do for thee?'
- 579. The subjunctive with $m\dot{a}$ is in the oldest language almost the sole form of prohibitive expression, and is very common. The kind of subjunctive employed is that which corresponds to the augmentless forms of a past tense; and in the great majority of cases (five sixths in RV., nine tenths in AV.) it is the augmentless aorist that is chosen. Thus: $pr\dot{a}$ pata $m\dot{e}$ 'h\u00e1 ransth\u00e1\u00e1h\u00e1 (AV.), 'fly away; do not stay here'; $dvis\dot{a}n\dot{c}$ ca $m\dot{a}$ -hyam r\u00e1dhyatu $m\dot{a}$ c\u00e1 'h\u00e1m dvisat\u00e9 radham (AV.), 'both let my foe be subject to me, and let me not be subject to my foe'; urv \u00e1c\u00e9 \u00e7 abhayam jy\u00e9 tir indra $m\dot{a}$ no $d\bar{i}rgh\dot{a}$ abhi naçan tamisr\u00e1h (RV.), 'I would win broad fearless light, O Indra; let not the long darknesses come upon us': $m\dot{a}$ na \u00e1\u00e9 u\u00e9 h\u00e9 pr\u00e9 mos\u00e7\u00e9 h\u00e9 (RV.), 'do not steal away our life'; $m\dot{a}$ bibher (impf.) n\u00e9 marisyasi (RV.), 'do not fear; thou wilt not die'; $m\dot{a}$ sm\u00e7 in \u00e4n\u00e7 in \u00e4n \u00e7 in \u00e7 in \u00e4n \u00e7 in \u0

Only one optative (bhujema) is used prohibitively with $m\dot{a}$ in RV., and only once (in a probably corrupted passage) an imperative; neither construction is found in AV.; and the cases in the later language are rare.

580. This very definite and peculiar construction, of an augmentless past tense with $m\bar{a}$, has preserved itself in use, and is occasionally met with in the later language: thus, $sam\bar{a}cvasihi$ $m\bar{a}$ cucah, 'be comforted, do not grieve'; $m\bar{a}$ $bh\bar{a}ih$, 'do not fear' (both MBh.).

But the use of the optative with ná, 'not', in a prohibitive sense appears even (very rarely) in the Veda, and becomes later the prevalent construction; thus, ná risyema kadá caná (RV.), 'may we suffer no harm at any time'; ná cā 'tisrjén ná juhuyāt (AV.), 'and if he do not grant permission, let him not sacrifice'; tád u táthā ná kuryāt (CB.), 'but he must not do that so'; na divā çayīta (CGS.), 'let him not sleep by day'; na tvām vidyur janāḥ (MBh.), 'let not people know thee'. This in the later language is the correlative of the prescriptive optative, and both are extremely common; so that in a text of prescriptive character the optative forms may come to outnumber the indicative and imperative together (as is the case, for example, in Manu).

581. In all dependent constructions, it is still harder even

in the oldest language to establish a distinction between subjunctive and optative: a method of use of either is scarcely to be found to which the other does not furnish a practical equivalent — and then, in the later language, such uses are represented by the optative alone. A few examples will be sufficient to illustrate this:

- a. After relative pronouns and conjunctions in general: yā vyūchūr yāç ca nūnām vyuchān (RV.), 'which have shone forth [hitherto], and which shall hereafter shine forth'; yō 'to jāyātā asmākam sā éko 'sat (TS.), 'whoever shall be born of her, let him be one of us'; yō vāi tān vidyāt pratyākṣam sā brahmā véditā syāt (AV.), 'whoever shall know them face to face, he may pass for a knowing priest'; putrānām... jātānām jandyāç ca yān (AV.), 'of sons born and whom thou mayest bear'; yāsya... ātithir grhān āgāchet (AV.), 'to whosesoever house he may come as guest'; yatamāthā kāmāyeta tāthā kuryāt (ÇB.), 'in whatever way he may choose, so may he do it'; yārhi hótā yājamānasya nāma grhnīyāt tārhi brūyāt (TS.), 'when the sacrificing priest shall name the name of the offerer, then he may speak'; svarūpam yadā draṣṭum ichethāḥ (MBh.), 'when thou shalt desire to see thine own form'.
- b. In more distinctly conditional constructions: yájāma deván yádi çaknávāma (RV.), 'we will offer to the gods if we shall be able'; yád agne syấm ahám tvám tvám vā ghã syấ ahám syúṣ te satyấ ihấ ''çiṣaḥ (RV.), 'if I were thou, Agni, or if thou wert I, thy wishes should be realized on the spot'; yó dyấm atisárpāt parástān ná sá mucyātāi váruṇasya rấjñaḥ (AV.), 'though one steal far away beyond the sky, he shall not escape king Varuna'; yád ánāçvān upaváset kṣódhukaḥ syād yád açnīyād rudrò 'sya paçūn abhi manyeta (TS.), 'if he should continue without eating, he would starve; if he should eat, Rudra would attack his cattle'; prārthayed yadi mām kaçcid daṇḍyaḥ sa me pumān bhavet (MBh.), 'if any man soever should desire me, he should suffer punishment'. These and the like constructions, with the optative, are very common in the Brāhmanas and later.
- e. In final clauses: yáthā 'hám çatruhó 'sāni (AV.), 'that I may be a slayer of my enemies'; gṛṇānā yáthā pibātho ándhaḥ (RV.), 'that being praised with song ye may drink the draught'; urān yáthā táva çárman mádema (RV.), 'in order that we rejoice in thy wide protection'; úpa jānīta yáthe 'yám púnar āgáchet (ÇB.), 'contrive that she come back again'; kṛpām kuryād yathā mayi (MBh.), 'so that he may take pity on me'. This is in the Veda one of the most frequent uses of the subjunctive; and in its correlative negative form, with ned, 'in order that not' or 'lest', it continues not rare in the Brāhmanas.

The indicative is also used in final clauses after $yath\bar{a}$: thus, $yath\bar{a}$ 'yam nacyati $tath\bar{a}$ vidheyam (H.), 'it must be so managed that he perish' (and thus usually in H.).

With the conditional use of subjunctive and optative is further to be compared that of the so-called "conditional" tense: see below, chap. XII.

582. No distinction of meaning has been established between the modes of the present-system and those (in the older language) of the perfect and aorist-systems.

Participles.

- 583. Participles, active and middle, are made from all the tense-stems except the periphrastic future, and, in the later language, the agrist (and agrist participles are rare from the beginning).
- 584. The general participial endings are মন্ ant (weak form মন্ at; fem. মনা antī or মনা atī: see above, 449) for the active, and মান āna (fem. মানা ānā) for the middle. But:
- **a.** After a tense-stem ending in a, the active participial suffix is virtually nt, one of the two a's being lost in the combination of stem-final and suffix.
- **b.** After a tense-stem ending in a, the middle participial suffix is $m\bar{a}na$ instead of $\bar{a}na$.
- c. The perfect has in the active the peculiar suffix $v\bar{a}is$ (weakest form $u\bar{s}$, middle form vat; fem. $u\bar{s}\bar{\imath}$: see, for the inflection of this participle, above, 458 ff.).

For details, as to form of stem etc., and for special exceptions, see the following chapters.

Augment.

585. The augment is a short a, prefixed to a tense-stem — and, if the latter begin with a vowel, combining with that vowel irregularly into the heavier or vrddhi diphthong (136a). It is always (without any exception) the accented element in the verbal form of which it makes a part.

In the Veda, the augment is in a few forms long \bar{a} : thus, $\bar{a}nac$, $\bar{a}var$, $\bar{a}vrni$, $\bar{a}vrnak$, $\bar{a}vidhyat$, $\bar{a}yunak$, $\bar{a}yukta$, $\bar{a}rinak$, $\bar{a}r\bar{a}ik$.

586. The augment is a sign of past time. And an augment-preterit is made from each of the tense-stems from which

the system of conjugation is derived: namely, the imperfect, from the present-stem; the pluperfect (in the Veda only), from the perfect-stem; the conditional, from the future-stem; while in the aorist such a preterit stands without any corresponding present indicative.

587. In the older language (mainly in the Veda; the usage is a rare one in the Brāhmana) the augment is often lost, and the augmentless forms have the same value as if they were complete; or, rather more often, they are used as subjunctives (above, 563).

The accentuation of the augmentless forms is throughout accordant with that of the corresponding unaugmented tense — that is to say, where such a tense exists (which is not the case with the varieties of sibilant aorist).

Reduplication.

588. The derivation of conjugational and declensional stems from roots by reduplication, either alone or along with other formative elements, has been already spoken of (259), and the formations in which reduplication appears have been specified: they are, in primary verb-inflection, the present (of a certain class of verbs), the perfect (of nearly all), and the aorist (of a large number); and the intensive and desiderative secondary conjugations contain in their stems the same element.

589. The general principle of reduplication is the prefixion to a root of a part of itself repeated — if it begin with consonants, the initial consonant and the vowel; if it begin with a vowel, that vowel, either alone or with a following consonant. The varieties of detail, however, are very considerable. Thus, especially as regards the vowel, which in present and perfect and desiderative is regularly shorter and lighter in the reduplication than in the root-syllable, in aorist is longer, and in intensive is strengthened. The differences as regards an initial consonant are less, and chiefly confined to the intensive; for the others, certain general rules may be here stated, all further details being left to be given in connection with the account of the separate formations.

- 590. The consonant of the reduplicating syllable is in general the first consonant of the root: thus, पप्रक् paprach from $\sqrt{3}$ সূচ্ prach; যিস্লিষ্ çiçliş from $\sqrt{3}$ সূত্ prach; যিস্লিষ্ çiçliş from $\sqrt{3}$ সূত্ bubudh from $\sqrt{3}$ But:
- a. A non-aspirate is substituted in reduplication for an aspirate: thus, হ্যা dadhā from γ ্যা; নিম্ bibhr from γ ম্ bhr.
- b. A palatal is substituted for a guttural or for হু h: thus, चक् cakṛ from v ক্ kṛ; चिलिद cikhid from v লিহ khid; রম্ jagrabh from v ম্ মৃ grabh; রহু jahṛ from v হু hṛ.

. The occasional reversion, on the other hand, of a palatal in the radical syllable to guttural form has been noticed above (216.9).

c. Of two initial consonants, the second, if it be a non-nasal mute preceded by a sibilant, is repeated instead of the first: thus, तस्या tasthā from $\sqrt{\ }$ स्था $sth\bar{a}$; चस्त्रन्दू cask and form $\sqrt{\ }$ स्था skand; पस्पूम् pasprdh from $\sqrt{\ }$ स्पूम् sprdh:— but सस्म् sasmr from $\sqrt{\ }$ स्मृ.

Accent of the Verb.

591. The statements which have been made above, and those which will be made below, as to the accent of verbal forms, apply to those cases in which the verb is actually accented.

But, according to the grammarians, and according to the invariable practice in accentuated texts, the verb is in the great majority of its occurrences unaccented or toneless.

That is to say, of course, the verb in its proper forms, its personal or so-called finite forms. The verbal nouns and adjectives, or the infinitives and participles, are subject to precisely the same laws of accent as other nouns and adjectives.

592. The general rule, covering most of the cases, is this: The verb in an independent clause is unaccented, unless it stand at the beginning of the clause — or also, in metrical text, at the beginning of a $p\bar{a}da$.

For the accent of the verb, as well as for that of the vocative case (above, 314), the beginning of a $p\bar{u}da$ counts as that of a sentence, whatever be the logical connection of the $p\bar{u}da$ with what precedes it.

Examples of the unaccented verb are: agnim ide purchitam, 'I praise

Agni, the house-priest'; sá id devésu gachati, 'that, truly, goes to the gods'; ágne sūpāyanó bhava, 'O Agni, be easy of access'; idám indra crnuhi somapa, 'hear this, O Indra, soma-drinker'; námas te rudra krnmas, 'homage to thee, Rudra, we offer'; yájamānasya paçūn pūhi, 'protect the cattle of the sacrificer'.

Hence, there are two principal situations in which the verb retains its accent:

593. First, the verb is accented when it stands at the beginning of a clause — or, in verse, of a $p\bar{a}da$.

Examples of the verb accented at the head of the sentence are, in prose, candhadhvam dātvyāya kārmaņe, 'be pure for the divine ceremony'; āpnotī 'mām lokām, 'he wins this world'; — in verse, where the head of the sentence is also that of the pāda, syāmé 'd indrasya cārmaṇi, 'may we be in Indra's protection'; darcāya mā yātudhānān, 'show me the sorcerers'; gāmad vājebhir ā sā naḥ, 'may he come with good things to us'; — in verse, where the head of the clause is within the pāda, tēṣām pāhi crudhī hāvam, 'drink of them, hear our call'; sāstu mātā sāstu pitā sāstu cvā sāstu vicpātiḥ, 'let the mother sleep, let the father sleep, let the dog sleep, let the master sleep'; vīcvakarman nāmas te pāhy āsmān, 'Vicvakarman, homage to thee; protect us!' yuvām... rājāa ūce duhitā prehé vām narā, 'the king's daughter said to you "I pray you, ye men"; vayām te vāya indra viddhī su naḥ prā bharāmahe, 'we offer thee, Indra, strengthening; take note of us'.

Examples of the verb accented at the head of the $p\bar{a}da$ when this is not the head of the sentence are: áthā te ántamānām vidyāma sumatīnām, 'so may we enjoy thy most intimate favors'; dhātā 'syā agrāvāi pātim dādhātu pratikāmyām, 'Dhātar bestow upon this girl a husband according to her wish'; yātudhānasya somapa jahí prajām, 'slay, O Soma-drinker, the progeny of the sorcerer'.

594. Certain special cases under this head are as follows:

- a. As a vocative forms no syntactical part of the sentence to which it is attached, but is only an external appendage to it, a verb following an initial vocative, or more than one, is accented, as if it were itself initial in the clause or $p\bar{a}da$: thus, $\acute{a}crutkarna\ crudh\acute{a}\ h\acute{a}vam$, 'O thou of listening ears, hear our call!' site $v\acute{a}nd\bar{a}mahe\ tv\bar{a}$, 'O $S\bar{1}t\bar{a}$, we reverence thee'; $v\acute{a}cve\ dev\bar{a}$ $v\acute{a}savo\ r\acute{a}ksate\ 'm\acute{a}m$, 'all ye gods, ye Vasus, protect this man'; $ut\acute{a}\ ''gac\ cakr\acute{a}sam\ dev\bar{a}\ d\acute{e}v\bar{a}\ j\bar{v}\acute{a}yath\bar{a}\ p\acute{u}nah$, 'likewise him, O gods, who has committed crime, ye gods, ye make to live again'.
- b. If more than one verb follow a word or words syntactically connected with them all, only the first loses its accent, the others being treated as if they were initial verbs in separate clauses, with the same adjuncts understood: thus, tarânir ij jayati kṣéti púṣyati, 'successful he conquers, rules, thrives'; amîtrān... párāca indra prá mṛṇā jahī ca, 'our foes, Indra, drive far away and slay'; asmābhyam jeṣi yótsi ca, 'for us conquer and fight'; ágnīṣomā havṣaḥ prásthitasya vītīm háryatam vṛṣaṇā juṣéthām, 'O Agni and Soma, of the oblation set forth partake, enjoy, ye mighty ones, take pleasure'.

- c. In like manner (but much less often), an adjunct, as subject or object, standing between two verbs and logically belonging to both, is reckoned to the first alone, and the second has the initial accent: thus, jahi prajām nāyasva ca, 'slay the progeny, and bring [it] hither'; crnotu nah subhāgā bodhatu tmānā, 'may the blessed one hear us, [and may she] kindly regard [u-].
- d. As to cases in which a single verb standing between two adjuncts has the initial accent perhaps as being in the division of the sentence reckoned to the second rather than the first, see below, 597.
- 595. Second, the verb is accented, whatever its position, in a dependent clause.
- a. The dependency of a clause is in the very great majority of cases conditioned by the relative pronoun ya, or one of its derivatives or compounds. Thus: yām yajñām paribhūr āsi, 'what offering thou protectest'; ō tê yanti yê aparīsu paçyān, 'they are coming who shall behold her hereafter'; sahā yān me āsti têna, 'along with that which is mine'; yātra naḥ pūrve pitāraḥ pareyūḥ, 'whither our fathers of old departed'; adyā murīya yādi yūtudhāno āsmi, 'let me die on the spot, if I am a sorcerer'; yāthā 'hāny anupūrvām bhāvanti, 'as days follow one another in order'; yāvad idām bhūvanam víçvam āsti, 'how great this whole creation is'; yātkāmās te juhumās tān no astu, 'what desiring we sacrifice to thee, let that become ours'; yatamās tūtṛpsāt, 'whichever one desires to enjoy'.

The presence of a relative word in the sentence does not, of course, accent the verb, unless this is really the predicate of a dependent clause: thus, $\acute{a}pa$ $ty\acute{e}$ $t\ddot{u}y\acute{a}vo$ $yath\ddot{a}$ yanti, 'they make off like thieves (as thieves do)'; $y\acute{a}t$ $sth\ddot{a}$ $j\acute{a}gac$ ca rejate, 'whatever [is] movable and immovable trembles'; $yath\ddot{a}$ - $k\ddot{a}mam$ $n\acute{t}$ padyate, 'he lies down at his pleasure'.

- b. The particle ca when it means 'if', and $c\acute{e}d$ (ca+id), 'if', give an accent to the verb: thus, $brahm\dot{a}$ $c\acute{e}d$ $dh\acute{a}stam$ $\acute{a}grah\bar{\imath}t$, 'if a Brahman has grasped her hand'; $tv\acute{a}m$ ca soma no $v\acute{a}co$ $j\bar{\imath}v\acute{a}tum$ $n\acute{a}$ $mar\bar{a}mahe$, 'if thou, Soma, willest us to live, we shall not die'; \acute{a} ca $g\acute{a}ch\bar{u}n$ $mitr\acute{a}m$ $en\bar{a}$ $dadh\bar{a}ma$, 'if he will come here, we will make friends with him'.
- c. There are a very few passages in which the logical dependence of a clause containing no subordinating word appears to give the verb its accent: thus, sâm âçvaparnāç câranti no nâro 'smākam indra rathīno jayantu, 'when our men, horse-winged, come into conflict, let the chariot-fighters of our side, O Indra, win the victory'. Rarely, too, an imperative so following another imperative that its action may seem a consequence of the latter's is accented; thus, tāyam ā gahi kāṇveṣu sū sācā pība, 'come hither quickly; drink along with the Kanvas' (i. e. in order to drink).
- d. A few other particles give the verb an accent, in virtue of a slight subordinating force belonging to them: thus, especially hi (with its negation nahi), which in its fullest value means 'for', but shades off from that into a mere asseverative sense; the verb or verbs connected with it are always accented: thus, vi ti municantām vimuco hi santi, 'let them release him, for they are releasers'; yac cid dhi... anāçastā iva smāsi, 'if we, forsooth, are

as it were unrenowned'; — also $n\acute{e}d$ $(n\acute{a}+id)$, meaning 'lest, that not': thus, $n\acute{e}t$ $t\acute{v}\bar{u}$ $t\acute{a}p\bar{a}ti$ $s\acute{u}ro$ $arcis\bar{a}$, 'that the sun may not burn thee with his beam'; $vir\acute{a}jam$ $n\acute{e}d$ $vichin\acute{a}d\bar{a}n\acute{t}$ 'ti, 'saying to himself, "lest I cut off the $vir\bar{a}j$ "'; — and the interrogative kuvid, 'whether?' thus, $ukth\acute{e}bhih$ kuvid $\bar{a}g\acute{a}mat$, 'will he come hither for our praises?'

596. But further, the verb of a prior clause is not infrequently accented in antithetical construction.

Sometimes, the relation of the two clauses is readily capable of being regarded as that of protasis and apodosis; but often, also, such a relation is very indistinct; and the cases of antithesis shade off into those of ordinary coördination, the line between them appearing to be rather arbitrarily drawn.

597. Where the verb would be the same in the two antithetical clauses, it is not infrequently omitted in the second: thus, beside complete expressions like urvi $c\bar{a}$ 'si vasvi $c\bar{a}$ 'si, 'both thou art broad and thou art good', occur, much oftener, incomplete ones like agnir amasmin loka asid yamo 'smin, 'Agni was in yonder world, Yama [was] in this'; asthna 'nyāh prajāh pratitisthanti mansena 'nyāh, 'by bone some creatures stand firm, by flesh others'; dvipac ca saivam no raksa catuspad yac ca nah svam, 'both protect everything of ours that is biped, and also whatever that is quadruped belongs to us'.

Examples from the Brāhmanas like the first of those here given (with the second verb expressed), and like the third (in composition with a preposition), show that this explanation of the verbal accent is preferable to the one formerly given — namely, that the verb is to be regarded as understood in the first clause and initial in the second.

598. In a very small number of more or less doubtful cases, the verb appears to be accented for emphasis.

Thus, before caná, 'in any wise'; in connection with the asseverative particles id, id, kid, $a\bar{n}g\acute{a}$, $ev\acute{a}$, but sporadically; and so on. The detail and examination of the cases is not worth while here*.

^{*} The specialities and irregularities of the RV. as regards verbal accent are discussed by A. Mayr in Sitzungsb. d. Wiener Akad. for 1871; of the AV., by W. D. Whitney in J. A. O. S., vol. v. (and Kuhn's Beiträge, vol. i.); of the TS., by A. Weber in Ind. Stud., vol. xiii.

CHAPTER IX.

THE PRESENT-SYSTEM.

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599. The present-system, or system of forms coming from the present-stem, is composed (as was pointed out above) of a present indicative tense, along with a subjunctive (mostly lost in the classical language), an optative, an imperative, and a participle, and also a past tense, an augment-preterit, to which we give (by analogy with the Greek) the name of imperfect.

These forms generally go in Sanskrit grammar by the name of "special tenses", while the other tense-systems are styled "general tenses" — as if the former were made from a special tense-stem or modified root, while the latter came, all alike, from the root itself. There is no reason why such a distinction and nomenclature should be retained; since, on the one hand, the "special tenses" come in one set of verbs directly from the root, and, on the other hand, the other tense-systems are mostly made from stems — and, in the case of the aorist, from stems having a variety of form comparable with that of present-stems.

600. Practically, the present-system is the most prominent and important part of the whole conjugation, since, from the earliest period of the language, its forms are very much more frequent than those of all the other systems together.

Thus, in the Veda, the occurrences of personal forms of this system are to those of all others about as three to one; in the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa, as five to one; in the Hitopadeça, as six to one; in the Çakuntalā, as eight to one; in Manu, as thirty to one.

601. And, as there is also great variety in the manner in which different roots form their present-stem, this, as being their most conspicuous difference, is made the basis of their principal classification; and a verb is said to be of this or of that conjugation, or class, according to the way in which its present-stem is made.

602. In a small minority of verbs, the present-stem is identical with the root. Then there are besides (excluding the passive and causative) eight more or less different ways of forming a present-stem from the root, each way being followed by a larger or smaller number of verbs. These are the "classes" or "conjugation-classes", as laid down by the native Hindu grammarians. They are arranged by the latter in a certain wholly artificial and unsystematic order (the ground of which has never been pointed out); and they are wont to be designated in European works according to this order, or else, after Hindu example, by the root standing at the head of each class in the Hindu lists. A different arrangement and nomenclature will be followed here, namely as below - the classes being divided (as is usual in European grammars) into two more general classes or conjugations, distinguished from one another by wider differences than those which separate the special classes.

603. The classes of the First Conjugation are as follows:

I. The root-class (second class, or ad-class, of the Hindu grammarians); its present-stem is coincident with the root itself: thus, मह ad, 'eat'; इ i, 'go'; या $y\bar{a}$, 'go'; हिष् dvis, 'hate'; इक् duh, 'milk'.

II. The reduplicating class (third or huclass); the root is reduplicated to form the present-stem: thus, বুক্ত juhu from v ক hu, 'sacrifice'; ব্বা dadā from v বা, 'give'; নিম্ bibhṛ from vম, 'bear'.

III. The nasal class (seventh or rudh-class); a nasal, extended to the syllable न na in strong forms, is inserted before the final consonant of the root: thus, कृन्य rundh (or कृषास् ruṇadh) from v क्य rudh; युज्ज yuñj (or युज्ज yunaj) from v युज्ज yuj.

IV. a. The nu-class (fifth or su-class); the syl-

lable নু nu is added to the root: thus, सुनु sunu from
γম্ব; ষাত্ৰ āpnu from γয়াব্ āp.

b. A very small number (only half-a-dozen) of roots ending already in ন n, and also one very common and quite irregularly inflected root not so ending (ক্ kṛ, 'make'), add उ u alone to form the present-stem. This is the eighth or tan-class of the Hindu grammarians; it may be best ranked by us as a sub-class, the u-class: thus, বন tanu from van tan.

V. The $n\bar{a}$ -class (ninth or $kr\bar{\imath}$ -class); the syllable ना $n\bar{a}$ (or, in weak forms, नी $n\bar{\imath}$) is added to the root: thus, क्रीणा $kr\bar{\imath}n\bar{a}$ (or क्रीणी $kr\bar{\imath}n\bar{\imath}$) from γ क्री $kr\bar{\imath}$, 'buy'; स्त्रम् $stabhn\bar{a}$ (or स्त्रम् $stabhn\bar{\imath}$) from γ स्त्रम् stabh, 'establish'.

604. These classes have in common, as their most fundamental characteristic, a shift of accent: the tone being now upon the ending, and now upon the root or the classsign. Along with this goes a variation in the stem itself, which has a stronger or fuller form when the accent rests upon it, and a weaker or briefer form when the accent is on the ending: these forms are to be distinguished as the strong stem and the weak stem respectively (in part, both have been given above). The classes also form their optative active, their 2d sing. imperative, and their 3d pl. middle, in a different manner from the others.

605. In the classes of the Second Conjugation, the present-stem ends in a, and the accent has a fixed place, remaining always upon the same syllable of the stem, and never shifted to the endings. Also, the optative, the 2d sing. impv., and the 3d pl. middle are (as just stated) unlike those of the other conjugation.

606. The classes of this conjugation are as follows:

VI. The a-class, or unaccented a-class (first Whitney, Grammar.

or $bh\bar{u}$ -class); the added class-sign is a simply; and the root, which has the accent, is strengthened by guṇa throughout: thus, भन्न $bh\dot{a}va$ from vમ $bh\bar{u}$, 'be'; नय $n\dot{a}ya$ from vनी $n\bar{\imath}$, 'lead'; नाय $b\dot{o}dha$ from vन्य budh, 'wake'; नर्•váda from vन्य vad, 'speak'.

VII. The \acute{a} -class, or accented a-class (sixth or tud-class); the added class-sign is a, as in the preceding class; but it has the accent, and the unaccented root remains unstrengthened: thus, तुद् $tud\acute{a}$ from \surd तुद्, 'thrust'; सूज्ञ $srj\acute{a}$ from \surd $srj\acute{a}$ from $srj\acute{a}$ from $srj\acute{a}$ from $srj\acute{a}$ from $srj\acute{a}$ from $srj\acute$

VIII. The ya-class (fourth or div-class); ya is added to the root, which has the accent: thus, दीच्य divya from $\sqrt{$ दिव् div (more properly दीव् div: see 765); नका náhya from $\sqrt{$ नक् nah, 'bind'; कुट्य krúdhya from $\sqrt{$ कुट्य krudh, 'be angry'.

IX. The passive conjugation is also properly a present-system only, having a class-sign which is not extended into the other systems; though it differs markedly from the remaining classes in having a specific meaning, and in being formable in the middle voice (only) from all transitive verbs. Its inflection may therefore best be treated next to that of the ya-class, with which it is most nearly connected, differing from it as the á-class from the a-class. It forms its stem, namely, by adding an accented yá to the root: thus, All adyá from Vaz ad; Fell rudhyá from Vaz ad; Tell rudhyá from Vaz tudh; Jell budh; Tell tudyá from Vaz tud.

607. The Hindu grammarians reckon a tenth class or curclass, having a class-sign $\dot{a}ya$ added to a strengthened root (thus, cor $\dot{a}ya$ from $\sqrt{c}ur$), and an inflection like that of the other astems. Since, however, this stem is not limited to the present-system, but extends also into the rest of the conjugation — while it also has to a great extent a causative value, and may

be formed in that value from a large number of roots — it will be best treated along with the derivative conjugations (chap. XIV.).

608. A small number of roots add in the present-system a ch, or substitute a ch for their final consonant, and form a stem ending in cha or chá, which is then inflected like an astem. This is historically, doubtless, a true class-sign, analogous with the rest; but the verbs showing it are so few, and in formation partly so irregular, that they are not well to be put together into a class, but may best be treated as special cases falling under the other classes.

Roots adding ch are r and yu, which make the stems rchá and yúcha.

Roots substituting ch for their final are is, us (or vas 'shine'), gam, yam, which make the stems ichá, uchá, gácha, yácha.

Of so-called roots ending in ch, several are more or less clearly stems, whose use has been extended from the present to other systems of tenses.

- 609. Roots are not wholly limited, even in the later language, to one mode of formation of their present-stem, but are sometimes reckoned as belonging to two or more different conjugation-classes. And such variety of formation is especially frequent in the Veda, being exhibited by a considerable proportion of the roots there occurring; already in the Brāhmaṇas, however, a condition is reached nearly agreeing in this respect with the classical language. The different present-formations sometimes have differences of meaning; yet not more important ones than are often found belonging to the same formation, nor of a kind to show a difference of value as originally belonging to the separate classes of presents. If anything of this kind is to be established, it must be from the derivative conjugations, which are separated by no fixed line from the present-systems.
- 610. We take up now the different classes, in the order in which they have been arranged above, to describe more in detail, and with illustration, the formation of their present-systems, and to notice the irregularities belonging under each class.

I. Root-class (second, ad-class).

611. In this class there is no class-sign; the root itself is also present-stem, and to it are added directly the personal endings — but combined in subjunctive and optative with the respective mode-signs, and in the imperfect taking the augment prefixed to the root.

The accented endings (552) regularly take the accent—except in the imperfect, where it falls on the augment — and before

them the root remains unchanged; before the unaccented endings, the root takes the guna-strengthening.

It is only in the first three classes that the endings come immediately in contact with a final consonant of the root, and that the rules for consonant combination have to be noted and applied.

1. Present Indicative.

612. The endings are the primary (with দ্বন áte in 3d pl. mid.), added to the bare root. The root takes the accent, and has guṇa, if capable of it, in the three persons sing. act.

Examples of inflection: a. root ξ i, 'go': strong form of root-stem, ∇ é; weak form, ξ i.

b. root दिष् dvis, 'hate'; strong stem-form, देष् $dv\acute{e}s$; weak, दिष् dvis.

For rules of combination for the final s, see 226.

| 1 | द्वेष्मि | द्विष्ठस् | द्विष्मस् | द्विषे | द्विष्ठके | द्विष्मक् |
|---|----------------------------|-----------|------------------------|----------------------|------------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| | $dv\acute{e}smi$ | dvisvás | dviṣmás | dvi e \acute{e} | dvis v á he | dvi s m \acute{a} he |
| 2 | द्वीत | द्विष्ठम् | द्विष्ठ | द्वित | द्विषावे | हिड्छे |
| | $dv\acute{e}k$ ș i | dviṣṭhás | dvist h $lpha$ | $dvik$ ș \acute{e} | dvi s $\stackrel{\prime}{a}the$ | $dvi ec{d} \dot{d} hv \acute{e}$ |
| 3 | द्वेष्टि | द्विष्टस् | द्विषत्ति | हिष्टे | द्विषाते | द्विषते |
| | $dv\acute{e}$ ș $\dot{t}i$ | dvistás | dvi ș $\acute{a}nti$ | $dvist \acute{e}$ | dvi s $\overset{\prime}{a}$ te | dvisá te |

c. root दुक् duh, 'milk': strong stem-form दोक् dóh; weak, दुक् duh.

For rules of combination for the final h, and for the conversion of the initial to dh, see 222, 155, 160.

ı दोल्मि इन्हम् इल्मम् इक् इन्हरू इल्मके dóhmi duhvás duhmás duhé duhváhe duhmáhé

^{*} Used in the middle with the preposition adhi, to signify 'go over for one's self', i. e. 'repeat, learn, read'.

- 2 पोति ड्राप्यम् ड्राप्य धुते डुक्वि धुर्म्घे dhókṣi dugdhás dugdhá dhukṣé duhắthe dhugdhvé 3 दोग्पि ड्राप्यम् डुक्ति ड्राप्ये डुक्ति डुक्ते dógdhi dugdhás duhánti dugdhé duháte duháte
- 613. Examples of the 3d sing. mid. coincident in form with the 1st sing. are not rare in the older language (both V. and Br.): the most frequent examples are ice, duhe, vide, caye: more sporadic are cite, bruve, huve. The irregular accent of the 3d pl. mid. is found in RV. in rihate, duhate. Examples of the same person in re and rate also occur: thus (besides those mentioned below, 629—30, 635), vidre, and, with auxiliary vowel, arhire (unless these are to be ranked, rather, as perfect forms without reduplication: 790b).

2. Present Subjunctive.

614. Subjunctive forms of this class are not uncommon in the older language, and nearly all those which the formation anywhere admits are quotable, from Veda or from Brāhmana. A complete paradigm, accordingly, is given below, with the few forms not actually quotable for this class enclosed in brackets. We may take as models, for the active the root i, 'go', and for the middle the root $\bar{a}s$, 'sit', of both of which numerous forms are met with (although neither for these nor for any others can the whole series be found in actual use).

The mode-stems are $\dot{a}ya$ ($\dot{e}+a$) and $\dot{a}sa$ respectively.

| | | | 0 \ | • / | | |
|---|-------------------------|---------|--------------|--|-------------------------------|----------------------------------|
| | | active. | | | middle. | |
| | s. | d. | p. | s. | d. | р. |
| | ∫áyāni ∖áyā | áyāva | áyāma | $\dot{\bar{a}}sar{a}i$ | ∫ā́sāvahāi | ∫á́sāmahāi |
| 1 | $\lambda \dot{a}yar{a}$ | ayava | ayama | | $\setminus [lpha sar{a}vahe]$ | $\setminus [lpha sar{a}mahe]$ |
| | {âyasi {âyas | áyathas | áyatha | $\left\{ egin{array}{l} \dot{ar{a}}sase \ \dot{ar{a}}sar{a}sar{a}i \end{array} ight.$ | $[lpha sar{a}ithe]$ | $\int [\dot{a}sadhve]$ |
| 2 | $\lambda ayas$ | againas | ayama | $\lambda \dot{a}sar{a}sar{a}i$ | [usunne] | $\lambda \dot{a}sar{a}dhvar{a}i$ |
| | ∫áyati | áyatas | áya n | ∫ásate | ά́sāite | $\int [\dot{a}sante]-nta$ |
| 3 | \áyat | ayatas | ayan | $\delta \dot{a}sar{a}tar{a}i$ | asanc | $igl(rac{d}{d}sar{a}ntar{a}i$ |

615. The RV. has no middle forms in $\bar{a}i$ except those of the first person. The 1st sing. act. in \bar{a} occurs only in RV., in $ay\bar{a}$, $brav\bar{a}$, $st\hat{a}v\bar{a}$. The 2d and 3d sing. act. with primary endings are very unusual in the Brāhmaṇas. Forms irregularly made with long \bar{a} , like those from present-stems in a, are not rare in AV. and Br.: thus, $ay\bar{a}s$, $ay\bar{a}t$, $ay\bar{a}n$; $as\bar{a}t$, $brav\bar{a}t$; $as\bar{a}tha$, $brav\bar{a}tha$, $ban\bar{a}tha$; $ad\bar{a}d\bar{n}$, $adb\bar{a}n$. Of middle forms with secondary endings are found $ad\bar{a}nanta$, 3d pl., and $ac\bar{a}ta$, 3d sing. (after $m\dot{a}$ prohibitive), which is an isolated example. The only dual person in $ac\bar{a}tta$ is $ac\bar{a}tta$.

3. Present Optative.

616. The personal endings combined with the modesigns of this mode (AT $y\bar{a}$ in act., $\bar{\xi}$ $\bar{\imath}$ in mid.) have been

given in full above (566). The stem-form is the unaccented and unstrengthened root. The whole formation is so regular that a single example of inflection will be enough.

| | | active. | neb adami | To Bridge | middle. | Mount |
|---|-----------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------------|-----------------------|------------------------------|-------------------------|
| 1 | s. द्विष्याम् | _{ब.} हिष्याव | _p . द्विष्याम | s. हिषीय | _{ब.} द्विषीवव्हि | हिषीम दि |
| | dvisyam | dvişy ava | dvişy á ma | dviṣīyá | $dvisar{\imath}v\acute{a}hi$ | dviṣīmáhi |
| 2 | द्विष्याम् dvisyás | द्विष्यातम् dvisyátam | द्विष्यात dvisyáta | दिषीयाम् dviṣīthás | द्विषीयायाम् dviṣīyāthām | द्विषीधम् dviṣīdhvám |
| 3 | द्विष्यात् | द्विष्याताम् dvisyatām | दिष्युस् | द्विषीत dviṣītá | हिषीयाताम् dviṣīyātām | द्विषीरन् |
| | ~ | | | | | |

So likewise, from \sqrt{i} , $iy\dot{a}m$ and $iy\bar{i}y\dot{a}$; from \sqrt{duh} , $duhy\dot{a}m$ and $duh\bar{i}y\dot{a}$; and so on.

The RV. has once tana in 2d pl. act. (in syātana).

4. Present Imperative.

to the root-stem. The stem is accented and strengthened in 3d sing. act.; elsewhere, the accent is on the ending and the root remains unchanged. The first persons, so called, of the later language are from the old subjunctive, and have its strengthened stem and accent; they are repeated here from where they were given above (614). In the 2d sing. act., the ending is regularly (as in the two following classes) it dhi if the root end with a consonant, and it if it end with a vowel. As examples we take some of the roots already used for the purpose.

| | | 100 | | | | |
|---|-------------|---------------------|--------|----------------------|------------|-----------|
| | | active. | | | middle. | |
| | s | d. | p. | 8. | d. | р. |
| 1 | म्रयानि | म्रयाव | म्रयाम | म्रामी | म्रामावकै | म्रासामकै |
| | áyāni | $\acute{a}yar{a}va$ | áyāma | $\dot{ar{a}}sar{a}i$ | ásāvahāi | άsāmahāi |
| 2 | इक्टि | इतम् | इत | म्रास्स्व | म्रासायाम | म्राह्वम् |
| | ihí | itám | ìtá | āssvá | āsā́thām | āddhvám |
| 3 | ए तु | इताम् | यस् | म्रास्ताम् | म्रासाताम् | म्रासताम् |
| | étu | it á m | yántu | āstām 🗋 | ās atām | āsátām |

| 1 | दोक्हानि dóhāni | | दोक्ाम dóhāma | दो है dóhāi | दोक्।वरै dóhāvahāi | दोक्।मकै dóhāmahāi |
|---|--------------------|----------------------|------------------|---------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------|
| 2 | | डुग्धम् dugdhám | हुम्ध dugdhá | पुत्त्व dhukṣvá | इक्षायाम् duhāthām | धुम्धम् dhugdhvám |
| 3 | दोग्धु dógdhu | ड्रग्धाम् dugdhām | इस्तु duhántu | हुम्धाम् dugdhām | द्वकाताम् duhātām | इक्ताम् duhátām |

618. The 2d sing. act. ending $t\bar{a}t$ is found in the older language in a few verbs of this class: namely, $vitt\dot{a}t$, $v\bar{t}t\dot{a}t$, $br\bar{u}t\bar{u}t$. In 3d sing. mid., two or three verbs have in the older language the ending $\bar{a}m$: thus, $duh\dot{a}m$ (only RV. case), $vid\bar{u}m$, $cay\bar{u}m$; and in 3d pl. mid. AV. has $duhr\dot{a}m$ and $duhrat\bar{u}m$. The use of tana for ta in 2d pl. act. is quite frequent in the Veda: thus, itana, $y\bar{u}t\dot{u}na$, hantana, etc. And in stota, etana, sotana, we have examples in the same person of a strong (and accented) stem.

5. Present Participle.

619. The active participle has the ending হান্ ánt (weak stem-form হান্ at) added to the unstrengthened root. Mechanically, it may be formed from the 3d pl. by dropping the final ξ i. Thus, for the verbs inflected above, the active participles are যন্ yánt, হুক্ন duhánt, হিঘন dviṣánt. The feminine stem ends usually in হানী ati: thus, যানী yati, হুক্নী duhati, হিঘনী dviṣati: but, from roots in ā, in হানিনী ántī or হানী āti (449).

The middle participle has the ending দ্বান $\bar{a}n\acute{a}$, added to the unstrengthened root: thus, হ্যান $iy\bar{a}n\acute{a}$, হ্ৰহান $duh\bar{a}n\acute{a}$, হিষামা $dvis\bar{a}n\acute{a}$.

But a number of these participles in the older language have a double accent, either on the ending or on the radical syllable: thus, $duh\bar{a}n\acute{a}$ and $d\acute{u}h\bar{a}na$ (also $d\acute{u}gh\bar{a}na$), $v\acute{t}d\bar{a}n\acute{a}$ and $v\acute{t}d\bar{a}na$, $suv\bar{a}n\acute{a}$ and $s\acute{t}v\bar{a}na$, $stuv\bar{a}n\acute{a}$ and $s\acute{t}dv\bar{a}na$ — the last having also a stronger form of the root when accented. The root $\bar{a}s$, 'sit', forms the unique $\acute{a}s\bar{s}na$ (along with, in the Veda, $\bar{a}s\bar{a}n\acute{a}$).

6. Imperfect.

620. This tense adds the secondary endings to the root as increased by prefixion of the augment. The root has the guna-strengthening (if capable of it) in the three persons of

the singular, although the accent is always upon the augment. Examples of inflection are:

| | | FFE | active. | 199 | 177 | middle. | FIFE : |
|----|-------------|---------------|-------------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|--------------------------|
| - | 1 | इ. म्रायम् | | हेम - | म्राप्ति ४ : | ग्रास्विह 4 | म्रास्मिहि र् |
| | 7 | äyan | n ālva | ālma | άsi | asvahi | āsmahi |
| | 2 | रेम् āls | ऐतम् āltam | ऐत ālta | म्रास्थाम् ásthās | म्रासायाम् asāthām | म्राड्वम् åddhvam |
| 0 | 3 | हेत् āit | ऐताम् altam | म्रायन् äyan | म्रास्त ásta | म्राप्ताताम् कंsātām | म्रासत ásata |
| an | ıd, | from | the root | दुङ्क duh: | | | |
| 1 | म्बद áde | हिम् oham | श्रह्य áduhva | म्रहुस् áduhma | म्रहिस् áduhi | म्रहकृहि áduhvahi | म्रडुव्हािक् áduhmahi |
| 2 | | ोक् ‱ | म्रहुग्धम् ádugdham | म्रहुग्ध ádugdha | म्रहुग्धास् ádugdhās | श्रद्धकायाम् áduhāthām | म्रधुग्धम् ádhugdhvam |
| 3 | म्रध ádi | ोक् lok | म्रहुग्धाम् ádugdhām | म्रहरून् áduhan | म्रहुम्ध ádugdha | म्रडुकाताम् áduhātām | श्रहरूत áduhata |
| | | | T) / 1 | | | 1 4 1 | . • |

621. Roots ending in \bar{a} may in the later language optionally take us instead of an in 3d pl. act. (the \bar{a} being lost before it); and in the older they always do so: thus, dyus from $Vy\bar{a}$, dpus from $Vp\bar{a}$ 'protect'. The same ending is also allowed and met with in the case of a few roots ending in consonants: namely vid, 'know', caks, dvis, duh, mrj.

The ending tana, 2d pl. act., is found in the Veda in ayatana, asastana, asastana.

To save the characteristic endings in 2d and 3d sing. act., the root ad inserts a: thus, $\dot{a}das$, $\dot{a}dat$; the root as inserts $\bar{\imath}:$ thus, $\dot{a}s\bar{\imath}s$, $\dot{a}s\bar{\imath}t$ (see below, 636).

- 622. The use of the persons of this tense, without augment, in the older language, either in the same sense as with augment, or as subjunctives, has been noticed above (587). Augmentless imperfects of this class are rather uncommon in the Veda: thus, hán, ves, 2d sing.; han, vet, stäut, dán (?), 3d sing.; bruvan, duhás, cakşus, 3d pl.; vasta, sūta, 3d sing. mid.
- 623. The first or root-form of agrist is identical in its formation with this imperfect: see below, 829 ff.
- 624. In the Veda (but almost limited to RV.) are found certain second persons singular, made by adding the ending si to the (accented and strengthened) root, and having an imperative value. There is some difference of view as to their formal character; but the most acceptable opinion regards them as isolated indicative persons of this class, used imperatively. They

are: ksési (1 kṣi 'rule'), jéṣi, jóṣi (for jóṣṣi, from ψ juṣ), dárṣi, dhakṣi, nakṣi (2 naç 'attain'), néṣi, párṣi (2 pr 'set across'), prási, bhakṣi, mátsi, mātsi (2 mā 'measure'), yākṣi, yāmsi, yāsi, yótsi, rátsi, rási, vākṣi, véṣi (1 vī 'strive after'), cróṣi, sakṣi, sátsi, hoṣi.

Irregularities of the Root-class.

- 625. It is impossible (at least at present) to determine with accuracy how many of the actually used roots of the language are inflected in the present-system according to this class, or according to any of the other classes, because the older language especially, and the later in less degree, has sporadic forms which are either of doubtful classification or too isolated to determine the character of the root to which they belong. The root-class may be said, however, to include from seventy to ninety roots. A considerable number of them present irregularities of inflection, a brief account of which (not claiming exhaustive completeness) is given in the following paragraphs.
- **626.** The roots of the class ending in u have in their strong forms the vrddhi instead of the guna-strengthening before an ending beginning with a consonant: thus, from \sqrt{stu} , $st\bar{a}umi$, $dst\bar{a}ut$, and the like: but dstavam, $stdv\bar{a}ni$, etc.

Roots found to exhibit this peculiarity in actual use are ksnu, yu, sku, stu, snu (these five in the earlier language), nu, ru, su 'impel', and hnu.

627. The root mrj also has the vrddhi-vowel in its strong forms: thus, $m\dot{a}rjmi$, $\dot{a}m\bar{a}rjam$, $\dot{a}m\bar{a}rt$; and the same strengthening is allowed in weak forms before endings beginning with a vowel: thus, $m\bar{a}rjantu$, $am\bar{a}rjan$: but this is not found to occur in the older language.

In the other tense-systems, also, and in derivation, mrj shows often the vrddhi instead of the guna-strengthening.

- **628.** A number of roots accent the radical syllable throughout, both in strong and in weak forms: thus, all those beginning with a long vowel, $\bar{a}s$, $\bar{\imath}d$, $\bar{\imath}r$, $\bar{\imath}e$; and also caks, taks, $tr\bar{a}$, nins, vas 'clothe', eins, $e\bar{\imath}$, and $s\bar{\imath}$ 'generate'. All these, except taks and $tr\bar{a}$ (and $tr\bar{a}$ in the only Vedic forms, are ordinarily conjugated in middle voice only. Forms with the same irregular accent occur now and then in the Veda from other verbs: thus, matsva, $rac{r}{i}dhat$. Middle participles so accented have been noticed above (619).
- 629. Of the roots mentioned in the last paragraph, $c\bar{i}$ has the guna-strengthening throughout: thus, $c\dot{a}ye$, $c\dot{e}se$, $c\dot{a}y\bar{i}ya$, $c\dot{a}y\bar{a}na$, and so on. Other irregularities in its inflection (in part already noticed) are the 3d pl. persons $c\dot{e}rate$ (AV. etc.

have also çére), çératām, áçerata (RV. has also áçeran), the 3d sing. pres. çáye (R.) and impv. çáyām. The isolated active form áçayat is common in the older language.

- 630. Of the same roots, \$\bar{i}q\$ and \$\bar{i}c\$ insert a union-vowel \$i\$ before endings beginning with \$s\$, \$sv\$, \$th\$: thus, \$\bar{i}cise\$, \$\bar{i}cidhve\$, \$\bar{i}disva\$ (these three being the only forms noted in the older language); but RV. has \$\bar{i}kse\$ beside \$\bar{i}cise\$. The 3d pl. \$\bar{i}cire\$ (on account of its accent) is also apparently present rather than perfect.
- 631. The roots rud (not in Veda), svap, an, and cvas insert a union-vowel i before all the endings beginning with a consonant, except the s and t of 2d and 3d sing. impf., where they insert instead either a or $\bar{\imath}$: thus, svapimi, cvasisi, anit, and anat or anit. And in the remaining forms, the last three are allowed to accent either root or ending: thus, svapantu and cvasantu (AV.), or svapantu etc.

In the older language, γ vam makes the same insertions: thus, vamiti, avamīt; and other cases occasionally occur: thus, janiṣva, vasiṣva (γ vas 'aim'), cnathihi, stanihi (all RV.). On the other hand, an sometimes makes forms from an a-stem: thus, ánati (AV.); pple ánant (GB.); opt. anet (AB.).

- **632.** The root $br\bar{u}$ (of very frequent use) takes the union-vowel $\bar{\imath}$ after the root when strengthened, before the initial vowel of an ending: thus, $br\acute{a}v\bar{\imath}mi$, $br\acute{a}v\bar{\imath}si$, $br\acute{a}v\bar{\imath}ti$, $\acute{a}brav\bar{\imath}s$, $\acute{a}brav\bar{\imath}t$; but $br\bar{u}m\acute{a}s$, $br\bar{u}y\acute{a}m$, $\acute{a}bravam$, $\acute{a}bruvan$, etc. Special occasional irregularities are $br\bar{u}mi$, $brav\bar{\imath}hi$, abruvam, $abr\bar{u}van$, $bruy\bar{a}t$, and sporadic forms from an a-stem. The subj. dual $br\acute{a}v\bar{a}ite$ has been noticed above (615).
- **633.** Some of the roots in u are allowed to be inflected like $br\bar{u}$: namely, ku, tu, ru, and stu; and an occasional instance is met with of a form so made (in V., only $tav\bar{\imath}ti$ noted).
- 634. The root am (hardly found in the later language) takes $\bar{\imath}$ as union-vowel: thus, am $\bar{\imath}$ si (RV.), am $\bar{\imath}$ ti and \bar{a} m $\bar{\imath}$ t and am $\bar{\imath}$ sva (TS). From γ cam occur cam $\bar{\imath}$ sva (VS.: TS. camisva) and cam $\bar{\imath}$ dhvam (TB. etc.).
- 635. The irregularities of $\gamma'duh$ in the older language have been already in part noted: the 3d pl. indic. mid. $duhat\acute{e}$, $duhr\acute{e}$, and $duhr\acute{a}te$; 3d sing. impv. $duh\acute{a}m$, pl. $duhr\acute{a}m$ and duhratām; impf. act. 3d sing. dduhat (which is found also in the later language), 3d pl. aduhran (beside $\acute{a}duhan$ and $duh\acute{a}s$); the mid. pple $d\acute{u}gh\ddot{a}na$; and (quite unexampled elsewhere) the opt. forms $duh\ddot{v}y\acute{a}t$ and $duh\ddot{v}y\acute{a}n$ (RV. only).

Some of the roots of this class are abbreviated or otherwise weakened in their weak forms: thus —

(636. The root म्रस् as, 'be', loses its vowel in weak forms (except where protected by combination with the augment).

Its 2d sing. indic. is \overline{x} in asi (instead of assi); its 2d sing. impv. is $\overline{\chi}$ if asi (irregularly from asdhi). The insertion of $\bar{\chi}$ i in 2d and 3d sing. impf. has been noticed already above.

The forms of this extremely common verb are, then, as follows:

| 110 | *** | | | | (| |
|-----|-----------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------|--------------------------------------|---|---------------------------------|
| | | Indicative. | | | Optative. | |
| 1 | s. म्रह्मि ásmi | ^{d.} स्वम् svás | ^{p.} स्मम् smás | ^{s.} स्याम् syåm | ^{d.} स्याव syáva | _{p.} स्याम syáma |
| 2 | म्रसि ási | स्यम् sthás | स्थ sthá | स्याम् syás | स्यातम् syátam | स्यात syāta |
| 3 | म्रस्ति ásti | स्तम् stás | मित sánti | स्यात् syåt | स्याताम् syātām | स्युम् syús |
| | : | Imperative. | | | Imperfect. | |
| 1 | म्रमानि ásāni | म्रमाव ^{ásāva} | श्रसाम ásāma | म्रासम् $rac{\dot{a}sam}{}$ | म्रास्व ásva | म्रास्म āsma |
| 2 | रुधि edhí | स्तम् stám | स्त stá | म्रासीम् _{र्वंऽर} ेऽ | म्रास्तम् $rac{\dot{a}stam}{}$ | म्रास्त ásta |
| 3 | म्रस्तु ástu | स्ताम् ståm | मतु sántu | म्रामीत् $rac{\dot{a}sar{\imath}t}$ | म्रास्ताम् $\stackrel{\dot{a}star{a}m}{}$ | म्रासन् asan |
| | | D4:4: | .l. ./. | /£ - | | |

Participle ਜਗ sánt (fem. ਜਗੀ satí).

The Vedic subjunctive forms are the usual ones, made upon the stem $\hat{a}sa$. They are in frequent use, and appear (asat especially) even in late Brāhmaṇas where the subjunctive is almost lost. The resolution $si\vec{a}m$ etc. (opt.) is common in Vedic verse. In 2d and 3d sing. impf. is a few times met with the more normal $\bar{a}s$ (for $\bar{a}s-s$, $\bar{a}s-t$).

Middle forms from γ as are also given by the grammarians as allowed with certain prepositions (vi+ati), but they do not appear to have been met with in use. A middle present indicative is compounded (in 1st and 2d persons) with the nomen agentis in tr (tar) to form the periphrastic future in the middle voice (see below, 942 ff.). The 1st sing, indic is he; the rest is in the usual relation of middle to active forms (in 2d pers., se, dhve, sva, dhvam, with total loss of the root itself).

The only other tense of this verb in use is the perfect, which is entirely regular in its inflection.

637. The root han, 'strike, slay', is treated somewhat after the manner of noun-stems in an in declension (421): in weak

forms, it loses its n before an initial consonant (except m and v) of an ending, and its α before an initial vowel — and in the latter case its h, in contact with the n, is changed to gh (compare 402). Thus, for example:

| Present Indicative. | | | | e. | Imperfect. | | | |
|---------------------|-------|--------|---|---------|------------|--------|----------------|--|
| | s. | đ. | | p. | ε. | d. | p. | |
| 1 | hánmi | hanvás | 1 | hanmás | áhanam | áhanva | åhan ma | |
| 2 | hánsi | hathás | | hathá | áhan | áhatam | áhata | |
| 3 | hánti | hatás | | ghnánti | åhan | áhatām | åghnan | |

Its participle is ghnánt (fem. ghnán). Its 2d sing, impv. is jahí (by anomalous dissimilation, on the model of reduplicating forms).

Middle forms from this root are frequent in the Brāhmaṇas, and those that occur are formed according to the same rules: thus, hate, hanmahe, ghnate; ahata, aghnātām, aghnata (in AB., also ahata); ghnīta (but also hanīta).

638. The root vac, 'wish', is in the weak forms regularly and usually contracted to uc (as in the perfect: see chap. X.): thus, ucmasi (V.: once apparently abbreviated in RV. to cmasi, ucanti; pple ucant, ucanti. Middle forms (except the pple) do not occur; nor do the weak forms of the imperfect, which are given as aucanti, aucanti, etc.

RV. has in like manner the participle usaná from the root vas 'clothe'.

639. The root $c\bar{a}s$, 'command', shows some of the peculiarities of a reduplicated verb, lacking (646) the n before t in all 3d perss. pl. and in the active participle. A part of its active forms — namely, the weak forms having endings beginning with consonants (including the optative) — come from a stem with weakened vowel, cis (as do the aorist, 854, and some of the derivatives). Thus, for example:

| | Pı | resent Indica | tive. | Imperfect. | | | |
|---|---------------------|---------------|-----------------|---------------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------------|--|
| | s. | d. | p. | ε. | d. | p. | |
| 1 | ç $\dot{ar{a}}smi$ | çişvás | çişmás | áçāsam | \acute{a} çis va | áçisma | |
| 2 | ç $\dot{ar{a}}ssi$ | çişthás | çisthá | $\hat{a}_{\hat{c}}ar{a}s$ | ácistam | \acute{a} cista | |
| 3 | ç $\dot{ar{a}}$ sti | çistás | ç $cute{a}sati$ | \hat{a} ç $ar{a}t$ | \acute{a} çist \ddot{a} m | $\hat{a}_{\hat{c}}\bar{a}sus$ | |

In 2d sing impf., $ac\bar{a}t$ is said to be also allowed. If it is actually so used, the t must be the sporadic conversion of final radical s to t (167); and then it would be open to question whether the t of 3d sing. is radical or of the ending (according to 555). The optative is $cisy\dot{a}m$ etc. The 2d sing. impv. is $c\bar{a}dh\dot{t}$ (with total loss of the s); and RV. has the strong 2d pl. $c\bar{a}st\dot{a}na$ (with anomalous accent). But no cis-forms of the present-system occur in the Veda.

The root $d\bar{a} \epsilon$, 'worship', has in like manner (RV.) the pple $d\dot{a} \epsilon a t$ (not $d\dot{a} \epsilon a n t$).

- **640.** The double so-called root jaks, 'eat, laugh', is an evident reduplication of ghas and has. It has the absence of n in act. 3d perss. pl. and pple, and the accent on the root before vowel-endings, which belong to reduplicated verbs; and it also takes the union-vowel i in the manner of rud etc. (above, **631**). A 2d pers. impv. jagdhi from it occurs.
- 641. Other obviously reduplicated verbs are treated by the native grammarians as if simple, and referred to this conjugation: such are the intensively reduplicated $j\bar{a}g_{I}$, $daridr\bar{a}$, and $vev\bar{v}$ (chap. XIV.), $d\bar{v}dh\bar{v}$ etc. (676), and $cak\bar{a}s$ (677).

II. Reduplicating Class (third, hu-class).

- 642. This class forms its present-stem by prefixing a reduplication to the root.
- 643. a. As regards the consonant of the reduplication, the general rules which have already been given above (590) are followed.
- b. A long vowel is shortened in the reduplicating syllable: thus, ইহা $dad\bar{a}$ from ν হা $d\bar{a}$; बिभी $bibh\bar{\imath}$ from ν भी $bh\bar{\imath}$; বৃহ $juh\bar{u}$ from ν হা $h\bar{u}$. The vowel য় r never appears in the reduplication, but is replaced by $\bar{\imath}$ i: thus, बिभ् $bibh\bar{r}$ from ν भ $bh\bar{r}$; पिप्च piprc from ν प्च prc.

For verbs in which a and \bar{a} also are irregularly represented in the reduplication by i, see below, 660.

- c. The only root of this class with initial vowel is r (or ar); it takes as reduplication i, which is held apart from the root by an interposed y: thus, iyar and iyr (the latter has not been found in actual use).
- 644. The present-stem of this class (as of the other classes belonging to the first conjugation) has a double form: a stronger form, with gunated root-vowel; and a weaker form, without guna: thus, from \sqrt{s} hu, the two forms are বুকা juho and বুক্ত juhu; from \sqrt{n} bhī, they are ফি bibhe and ফিন্ম bibhī. And the rule for their use is the same as in the other classes of this conjugation: the strong stem is found before the unaccented endings (552), and the weak stem before the accented.

645. According to all the analogies of the first general conjugation, we should expect to find the accent upon the rootsyllable when this is strengthened. That is actually the case, however, only in a small minority of the roots composing the class: namely, in hu, bhī (no test-forms in the older language), hrī (not found in the older language), mad and dhan (both very rare), jan (no forms of this class found to occur), ci 'notice' (in V.), yu 'separate' (in older language only), and in bhr in the later language (in V. it goes with the majority: but RV. has bibhárti once; and this, the later accentuation, is found also in the Brāhmanas). In all the rest - apparently, by a recent transfer - it rests upon the reduplicating instead of upon the radical syllable. And in both classes alike, the accent is anomalously thrown back upon the reduplication in those weak forms of which the ending begins with a vowel; while in the other weak forms it is upon the ending.

Apparently (the cases with written accent are too few to determine the point satisfactorily) the middle optative endings, $\bar{\imath}ya$ etc. (566), are reckoned throughout as endings with initial vowel, and throw back the accent upon the reduplication.

646. The verbs of this class lose the 7 n in the 3d pl. endings in active as well as middle, and in the imperfect have 34 us instead of 14 an — and before this a final radical vowel has guna.

1. Present Indicative.

647. The combination of stem and endings is as in the preceding class.

Examples of inflection: a. \sqrt{g} hu, 'sacrifice': strong stem-form, जुङ्गे juhó; weak form, जुङ्ग juhu (or jühu).

| | | , | _ | | _ | |
|---|----------|-------------------|-------------------|--------------------|------------------|--------------------|
| | | active. | | | middle. | |
| | s | d. | р. | s. | d | p |
| 1 | जुद्दोमि | जुङ <u>्</u> जवम् | जु <u>ङ</u> ्गमम् | बुद ्धे | बुक्जवके | <u>जुङ्गमक्</u> रे |
| | juhómi | juhuvás | juhumás | $j\'uhve$ | juhuváhe | juhumáhe |
| 2 | बुद्दोषि | <u>जु</u> ङ्गयम् | जुङ्गय | जुङुषे | जुद्धांये | बुद्धधे |
| | juhóși | juhuthás | juhuthá | juhușé | júhvāthe | juhudhvé |
| 3 | बुक्होति | बुक्डतम् | बुद्धति | बुक्रते | बुद्धाते | <u>ज़्द्</u> तते |
| | juhóti | juhutás | $j\'uhvati$ | juhuté | $j\'uhvar{a}$ te | júhvate |
| | _ | | | | | |

b. Root মৃ bhṛ, 'bear' (given with Vedic accentuation): strong stem-form, নিম্ম bibhar; weak, নিম্ bibhṛ (or bibhṛ).

| 1 | बिभर्मि | बिभृवम् | विभृमम् | बिधे | विभृवक्टे | बिभृमक् |
|---|----------|-----------|----------|---------|-----------|-----------|
| | blbharmi | bibhṛvás | bibhṛmás | bibhre | bibhṛváhe | bibhṛmáhe |
| 2 | बिभर्षि | बिभृयम् | ਕਿਮ੍ਹ | विभृषे | विभावे | बिभुधे |
| | bíbharși | bibhṛthás | bibhṛthá | bibhṛṣé | bibhrāthe | bibhṛdhvé |
| 3 | ਕਿਮਨਿੰ | बिभृतम् | विभ्रति | बिभृते | विभाते | ਕਿਮਨੇ |
| | blbharti | bibhṛtás | bíbhrati | bibhṛté | blbhrāte | bibhrate |

The u of hu (like that of the class-signs nu and u: see below, 697) is said to be omissible before v and m of the endings of 1st du. and pl.: thus, juhv ds, juhv dhe, etc.

2. Present Subjunctive.

- 648. It is not possible (at least, at present) to draw a distinct line between those subjunctive forms of the older language which should be reckoned as belonging to the present-system and those which should be assigned to the perfect even, in some cases, to the reduplicated agrist and intensive. Here will be noticed only those which most clearly belong to this class; the more doubtful cases will be treated under the perfect-system. Except in first persons (which continue in use as "imperatives" down to the later language), subjunctives from roots having unmistakably a reduplicated present-system are of far from frequent occurrence.
- **649.** The subjunctive mode-stem is formed in the usual manner, with the mode-sign a and guna of the root-vowel, if this is capable of such strengthening. The evidence of the few accented forms met with indicates that the accent is laid in accordance with that of the strong indicative forms: thus, from \sqrt{hu} , the stem would be $juh\acute{a}va$; from \sqrt{bhr} , it would be $bibh\acute{a}ra$ (but $bibh\acute{a}ra$ later). Before the mode-sign, final radical \bar{a} would be, in accordance with analogies elsewhere, dropped: thus $d\acute{a}da$ from $\sqrt{d\bar{a}}$, $d\acute{a}dha$ from $\sqrt{dh\bar{a}}$ (all the forms actually occurring would be derivable from secondary roots, as dad and dadh).
- 650. Instead of giving a theoretically complete scheme of inflection, it will be better to note all the examples quotable from the older language (accented when found so occurring).

Thus, of 1st persons, we have in the active juhávāni, bibharāni, dadāni, dadhāni, jahāni; juhavāma, dádhāma, jáhāma; — in the middle, dadhāi, mimāi, dadhāvahāi; juhavāmahāi, dadāmahe, dadāmahāi, dadhāmahāi.

Of other persons, we have with primary endings in the active bibharāsi (with double mode-sign: 560, end), dádhathas, juhavātha (do.) and juhavatha: in the middle, dádhase; dádhate, rárate, dádhātāi, dadātāi: — with secondary endings, dádhas, vívesas, juhavat, bibharat, yuyávat, dádhat, dadhánat, babhasat; dadhan, yuyavan, juhavan.

3. Present Optative.

651. To form this mode, the optative endings given above (566), as made up of mode-sign and personal endings, are added to the unstrengthened stem. The accent is as already stated (645). The inflection is so regular that it is unnecessary to give here more than the first persons of a single verb: thus,

active. middle.
s. d. p. s. d. p.
1 बुद्धियाम् बुद्धियाम् बुद्धीयाः बुद्धीयिहः बुद्धीमिहः
juhuyam juhuyava juhuyama juhvīya juhvīvahi juhvīmahi
etc. etc. etc. etc. etc.

4. Present Imperative.

with the root, have been already given. In 2d sing. act., the ending is to hi after a vowel, but to dhi after a consonant: so hu, however, forms such juhudhi (apparently, in order to avoid the recurrence of to h in two successive syllables): and other examples of to dhi after a vowel are found in the Veda.

653. Example of inflection:

| | S. | active. | 70 | 8. | middle. | , n |
|---|------------------|-------------------|---------------------|----------------|-----------------------|-------------------|
| 1 | जुक् वानि | <u>जु</u> रुवाव | _{जु} रुवाम | <u>जु</u> क्वे | जुक् वावकै | जुरुवाम रे |
| | Juhávāni - | juhávāva | juhávāma | juhávāi | juhávāvahāi | juhávāmahāi |
| 2 | <u>जु</u> क्जिधि | <u> बुक्</u> जतम् | ज़् क़त | <u> तुद्धघ</u> | जुद्धायाम् | जु क्डधम् |
| | juhudhi | juhutám | juhutá | juhusvá | $j\'uhvar{a}thar{a}m$ | juhudhvám |
| 3 | बुक्तातु | बुङ्कताम् | बुद्धतु | बुक्कताम् | <u>जुद्धाताम्</u> | जु व्हताम् |
| | juhótu | juhutam | júhvatu | juhutam | júhvātām | júhvatā m |

The other division of this class differ here, as in the indicative, in the accentuation of their strong forms only: namely, in all the first persons (borrowed subjunctives), and in the 3d sing. act.: thus (in the older language) bibharāṇi etc., bibhartu, bibharāi etc.

654. Vedic irregularities of inflection are: a. the occasional use of strong forms in 2d persons: thus, yuyodhi, çiçādhi (beside çiçīhi); yuyotam (beside yuyutâm); iyarta, dâdāta, dâdhāta and dâdhātana (see below, 673),

pipartana, juhóta and juhótana, yuyótana; b. the use of dhi instead of hi after a vowel (only in the two instances just quoted); c. the ending tana in 2d pl. act. (in the instances just quoted and in others, as mamáttana, jigātana, dhattana, etc.); d. the ending tāt in 2d sing. act., in dattāt, dhattāt, piprtāt.

5. Present Participle.

655. As elsewhere, the active participle-stem may be made mechanically from the 3d pl. indic. by dropping হ i: thus, বুলুন júhvat, বিশ্বন bibhrat. In inflection, it has no distinction of strong and weak forms (444). The feminine stem ends in দ্বনী atī. The middle participles are regularly made: thus, বুলুন júhvāna, বিশ্বাম bibhrāṇa.

6. Imperfect.

656. As already pointed out, the 3d pl. act. of this class takes the ending 3H us, and a final radical vowel has guna before it. The strong forms are, as in pres. indic., the three sing. act. persons.

657. Example of inflection:

active. middle.
s. d. p. s. d. p.
1 म्रजुङ्वम् म्रजुङ्जव म्रजुङ्गम म्रजुङ्क्वाह्य म्रजुङ्गमिक्
djuhavam djuhuva djuhuma djuhvi djuhuvahi djuhumahi
2 म्रजुङ्गोम् म्रजुङ्गतम् म्रजुङ्गत म्रजुङ्ग्वाम् म्रजुङ्ग्वाम् म्रजुङ्ग्वाम् म्रजुङ्ग्वाम् प्रजुङ्ग्वाम् म्रजुङ्ग्वाम् प्रजुङ्ग्वाम् म्रजुङ्ग्वाम् म्रजुङ्गतः म्रजुङ्गतः म्रजुङ्गतः म्रजुङ्गतः म्रजुङ्गतः म्रजुङ्गतः म्रजुङ्गतः व्यापोभयविकः djuhutām djuhuta djuhuta djuhvātām djuhvata

From γ म् bhr, the 2d and 3d sing. act. are म्बिम् abibhar (for abibhar-s and abibhar-t) — and so in all other cases where the strong stem ends in a consonant. The 3d pl. act. is म्बिम्म abibharus; and from γ भी $bh\bar{\imath}$, it is म्बिम्मुस् abibhayus.

658. The usual Vedic irregularities in 2d pl. act. — strong forms, and the ending tana — occur in this tense also: thus, adadata, adadhata; adatatana, ajagantana, ajahatana. The RV. has also once apiprata for apiprata in 3d sing. mid., and abibhran for abibharus in 3d pl. act. Examples of augmentless forms are ciçās, vivés, jígāt; jíhāta, cíçīta, jihata.

Irregularities of the Reduplicating Class.

- 659. It is still more difficult to determine the precise limits of this class than of the root-class, because of the impossibility (referred to above, under subjunctive: 648) of always separating its forms from those of other reduplicating conjugations and parts of conjugations. In the RV., about forty roots may be confidently assigned to it; in the AV., less than thirty; many of them have irregularities (besides those in tense-inflection already pointed out).
- 660. Besides the roots in r or ar namely, r, ghr (usually written ghar), tr, pr, bhr, sr, prc the following roots having a or \bar{a} as radical vowel take i instead of a in the reduplicating syllable: $g\bar{a}$ 'go', $3p\bar{a}$ 'rise', $m\bar{a}$ 'measure', $m\bar{a}$ 'bellow', $c\bar{a}$, $h\bar{a}$ 'remove' (mid.), $c\bar{a}$, $c\bar{a}$, $c\bar{a}$ (as both $c\bar{a}$) and $c\bar{a}$; $c\bar{a}$ has $c\bar{a}$ once in RV.: for $c\bar{a}$ 1, $c\bar{a}$ 3 'drink', $c\bar{a}$ 4, $c\bar{a}$ 6, see below (670—4).
- 661. Several roots of this class in final \bar{a} change the \bar{a} in weak forms to $\bar{\imath}$ (occasionally even to \imath), and then drop it altogether before endings beginning with a vowel.

This is in close analogy with the treatment of the vowel of the class-sign of the $n\bar{a}$ -class: below, 717.

These roots are:

- **662.** $\varsigma \bar{a}$, act. and mid.: thus, $\varsigma i \varsigma \bar{a} t i$, $\varsigma i \varsigma \bar{\imath} m a s i$, $\varsigma i \varsigma \bar{\imath} h \bar{\imath}$ (also $\varsigma i \varsigma \bar{a} d h i$: above, **654**), $\varsigma i \varsigma \bar{a} t u$, $a \varsigma i \varsigma \bar{a} t$, $\varsigma i \varsigma \bar{\imath} t e$.
- **663.** $m\bar{a}$ 'bellow', act., and $m\bar{a}$ 'measure', mid. (rarely also act.): thus, mimāti, mimanti, mim \bar{i} yāt; mim \bar{i} te, mimate, âmim \bar{i} ta; mim \bar{i} hi, mim \bar{i} tu.
- **664.** $h\bar{a}$ 'remove', mid.: thus, $j(h\bar{\imath}te, jh\bar{\imath}dhve, j(hate; jih\bar{\imath}sva, jihat\bar{a}m; \acute{a}jih\bar{\imath}ta, ajihata.$
- **665.** $h\bar{a}$ 'quit', act. (originally identical with the former), may further shorten the $\bar{\imath}$ to i: thus, $jah\bar{a}ti$, $jah\bar{\imath}ta$, $jah\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}t$ (AV.); jahimas (AV.), jahitas (TB.), jahitam (TA.), $ajahit\bar{a}m$ (TS.). In the optative, the radical vowel is lost altogether; thus, $jahy\bar{a}m$, jahyus (AV.). The 2d sing. impv. is $jah\bar{\imath}hi$ or jahihi.

Compare with this the forms in dhi from $\gamma dh\bar{a}$ (below, 669).

666. $r\bar{a}$ 'give', mid.: thus, $rar\bar{\imath}dhvam$, $rar\bar{\imath}th\bar{a}s$ (impf. without augment): and, with i in reduplication, $rir\bar{\imath}hi$.

In all these verbs, the accent is constant on the reduplicating syllable.

667. The two roots $d\bar{a}$ and $dh\bar{a}$ (the commonest of the class) lose their radical vowel altogether in the weak forms, being shortened to dad and dadh. In 2d sing. impv. act., they form respectively dehi and dhehi. In combination with a following t or th, the final dh of dadh does not follow the special rule of combination of a final sonant aspirate (becoming ddh with the t or th: 160), but — as also before s and dhv — the

more general rules of aspirate and of surd and sonant combination; and its lost aspiration is thrown back upon the initial of the root.

668. The inflection of $\sqrt{dh\bar{a}}$ is, then, as follows:

| | | active. | Present In | dicative. | middle. | |
|---|--------------------------|-------------------------|-------------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------------------|------------------------------------|
| 1 | s. dádhāmi | d. dadhvás | p. dadhmás | s. dadhé | d. dådhvahe | p. dådhmah e |
| 2 | $d\acute{a}dh\ddot{a}si$ | $dhatth\'as$ | $dhatth\acute{a}$ | $dhats\acute{e}$ | $dadhar{a}the$ | dhaddhve |
| 3 | dádhāti | $dhat t\'as$ | $d\acute{a}dhati$ | $dhatt\'e$ | dadh lpha'te | $d\acute{a}dhate$ |
| | | | Present O | ptative. | | |
| 1 | $dadhy \acute{a}m$ | $dadhy \acute{a}va$ | $dadhy \acute{a}ma$ | $d\acute{a}dh\bar{\imath}ya$ | $d\acute{a}dh \bar{\imath} vah i$ | dádhīmahi |
| | etc. | etc. | etc. | etc. | etc. | etc. |
| | | | Present Im | perative. | | |
| 1 | dádhāni | $d\acute{a}dh\bar{a}va$ | $d\acute{a}dh\bar{a}ma$ | $d\acute{a}dh\bar{a}i$ | $d\acute{a}dh\bar{a}vahai$ | $d\acute{a}dh\ddot{a}mah\ddot{a}i$ |
| 2 | dhehí | dhattám | $dhatt \hat{a}$ | dhatsva | $dadhar{a}thar{a}m$ | dhaddhvam |
| 3 | $d\acute{a}dh\ddot{a}tu$ | $dhatt \acute{a}m$ | $d\acute{a}dhatu$ | $dhatt\bar{a}m$ | $dadh\bar{a}t\bar{a}m$ | $dadhat\bar{a}m$ |
| | | | Imper | fect. | | |
| 1 | $adadh \bar{a}m$ | $\acute{a}dadhva$ | adadhma | ádadhi | ádadhvahi | ádadhmahi |
| 2 | $\acute{a}dadh\bar{a}s$ | $\acute{a}dhattam$ | $\acute{a}dhatta$ | $\acute{a}dhatthar{a}s$ | $\acute{a}dadhar{a}thar{a}m$ | $\acute{a}dhaddhvam$ |
| 3 | $\acute{a}dadhar{a}t$ | $\hat{a}dhattar{a}m$ | $\acute{a}dadhus$ | $\hat{a}dhatta$ | $\hat{a}dadhar{a}tar{a}m$ | $\acute{a}dadhata$ |
| | Participle | es: act. dádha | at; mid. dádh | hāna. | | |

In the middle (except impf.), only those forms are here accented for which there is authority in the accentuated texts, as there is discordance between the actual accent and that which the analogies of the class would lead us to expect. RV. has once dhâtse: dadhé and dadhâte might be perfect, so far as the form is concerned. RV. accents dadhītā once (dâdhīta thrice); TS. and TB. have dâdhīran.

The root $d\bar{a}$ is inflected in precisely the same way, with change everywhere of dh to d.

- 669. The older language has irregularities as follows: a. the usual strong forms in 2d pl., dådhāta and ådadhāta, dådāta and ådadāta; b. the usual tana endings in the same person, dhattana, dådātana, etc.; c. the 3d sing. indic. act. dadhé (like 1st sing.); d. the 2d sing. impv. act. dadhé (for both dehi and dhehi); e. the middle forms dadhidhvé, dadhiṣvā, dadhidhvam (in RV.), with vowel weakened to i instead of being dropped.
- 670. A number of roots have been transferred from this to the a-class (class VI., below, 749), their reduplicated root becoming a stereotyped stem inflected after the manner of a-stems. These roots are as follows:
- 671. In all periods of the language, from the roots $sth\bar{a}$ 'stand', $p\bar{a}$ 'drink', and $ghr\bar{a}$ 'smell', are made the presents

tisthāmi, pibāmi (with irregular sonantizing of the second p: later often written pivāmi), and jighrāmi — which then are inflected not like mimāmi, but like bhávāmi, as if from the present-stems tistha, piba, jighra.

672. In the Veda, the reduplicated roots $d\bar{u}$ and $dh\bar{u}$ are also sometimes turned into the a-stems $d\hat{u}da$ and $d\hat{u}dha$, or inflected as if roots dad and dadh of class VI.; and single forms of the same character are made from other roots: thus, mimanti ($\sqrt{m}\bar{u}$ 'bellow'), rârate ($\sqrt{r}\bar{u}$ 'give': 3d sing. mid.).

673. In the Veda, also, a like secondary root, jighn, is made from $\sqrt[4]{han}$ (with omission of the radical vowel, and conversion, usual in this root, of h to gh when in contact with n); and some of the forms of sacc, from $\sqrt[4]{sac}$, show the same conversion to an a-stem, sacca.

674. In AB. (viii. 28), a similar secondary form, jighy, is given to Vhi: thus, jighyati, jighyatu.

675. A few so-called roots of the first or root-class are the products of reduplication, more or less obvious: thus, jaks (640), and probably $c\bar{a}s$ (from \sqrt{cas}) and caks (from $\sqrt{k\bar{a}c}$ or a lost root kas, 'see'). In the Veda is found also sacc, from \sqrt{sac} .

676. The grammarians reckon (as already noticed, **641**) several roots of the most evidently reduplicate character as simple, and belonging to the root-class. Some of these $(j\bar{u}gr,\ daridr\bar{u},\ vev\bar{\imath})$ are regular intensive stems, and will be described below under Intensives (chap. XIV.); $d\bar{\imath}dh\bar{\imath}$, 'shine', along with Vedic $d\bar{\imath}d\bar{\imath}$ 'shine' and $p\bar{\imath}p\bar{\imath}$ 'swell', are sometimes also classed as intensives; but they have not the proper reduplication of such, and may perhaps be best noticed here, as reduplicated present-stems with irregularly long reduplicating vowel.

Of pres. indic. occurs in the older language only $d\bar{\iota}dyati$, 3d pl., with the pples $d\bar{\iota}dyat$ and $d\bar{\iota}dhyat$, and mid. $d\bar{\iota}dye$, $d\bar{\iota}dhye$, $d\bar{\iota}dhy\bar{\iota}th\bar{\iota}m$, with the pples $d\bar{\iota}dy\bar{\iota}dna$, $d\bar{\iota}dhy\bar{\iota}dna$, $p\bar{\iota}py\bar{\iota}ana$. The subj. stems are $d\bar{\iota}ddya$, $d\bar{\iota}dhaya$, $p\bar{\iota}p\dot{\iota}ya$, and from them are made forms with both primary (from $d\bar{\iota}ddya$) and secondary endings (and the irregularly accented $d\bar{\iota}dayat$ and $d\bar{\iota}ddayat$ and $d\bar{\iota}ddayan$). No opt. occurs. In impv. we have $d\bar{\iota}dihi$ (and $did\bar{\iota}hi$) and $p\bar{\iota}pihi$, and pipyatam, pipyatam, pipyatam, pipyatam. In impf., $ad\bar{\iota}des$ and $p\bar{\iota}pes$, $ad\bar{\iota}det$ and $ad\bar{\iota}dhet$ and $ap\bar{\iota}pet$ (with augmentless forms), $ap\bar{\iota}pema$ (with strong form of root), and $ad\bar{\iota}dhayus$ and (irregular) $ap\bar{\iota}pyan$.

A few forms from all the three show transfer to an a-inflection: thus, $d\bar{\imath}dhaya$ and $p\bar{\imath}paya$ (impv.), $dp\bar{\imath}payat$, etc.

Similar forms from \sqrt{mi} 'bellow' are amimet and mimayat.

677. The stem $cak\bar{u}s$ (sometimes $cak\bar{u}e$) is also regarded by the grammarians as a root, and supplied as such with tenses outside the present-system — which, however, hardly occur in genuine use. It is not known in the older language.

678. The root bhas, 'chew', loses its radical vowel in weak forms, taking the form baps: thus, bābhasti, but bāpsati (3 pl.), bāpsat (pple).

679. The root $bh\bar{\imath}$, 'fear', is allowed by the grammarians to shorten its vowel in weak forms: thus, $bibh\bar{\imath}mas$ or $bibh\bar{\imath}y\bar{u}m$ or $bibh\bar{\imath}y\bar{u}m$.

- **680.** Forms of this class from V jan, 'give birth', with added i thus, jajñise, jajñidhve are given by the grammarians, but do not appear to have been found in use.
- 681. The roots ci and cit have in the Veda reversion of c to k in the root-syllable after the reduplication: thus, cikéşi, cikéthe (anomalous, for cikyáthe), cikitām, aciket, cîkyat (pple); cikiddhi.
- 682. The root vyac has i in the reduplication (from the y), and is contracted to vic in weak forms: thus, viviktās, āviviktām. So the root hvar (if its forms are to be reckoned here) has u in reduplication, and contracts to hur: thus, juhūrthās.

III. Nasal Class (seventh, rudh-class).

683. The roots of this class all end in consonants. And their class-sign is a nasal preceding the final consonant: in the weak forms, a nasal simply, adapted in character to the consonant; but in the strong forms expanded to the syllable $\vec{\tau}$ $n\dot{a}$, which has the accent.

In a few of the verbs of the class, the nasal extends also into other tense-systems: they are $a\tilde{n}j$, $bha\tilde{n}j$, hins: see below, 694.

1. Present Indicative.

(684. Examples of inflection: a. the root যুর্ yuj, 'join': strong stem-form, যুনর yunáj; wcak, যুর্ yuñj.

For the rules of combination of final j, see 219.

| | | active. | | | middle. | |
|---|-----------|-----------------|----------|--------|----------------|-----------|
| | s. | d. | р. | S. | d. | р. |
| 1 | युनन्मि | युङ्चम् | युङमस् | युञ्जे | युङ्गवद्हे | युङ्गम्हे |
| | yunájmi | yuñjvás | yuñjmás | yuñjé | yuñjváhe | yuñjmáhe |
| 2 | युनित | <u>यं</u> क्यम् | युंक्य | युङ्ग | युञ्जावे | युंग्धे |
| | yunáksi | yunkthás | yuñkthá | yuākṣé | $yu\~nj\'athe$ | yungdhvé |
| 3 | युनिक्त | यंक्तम <u>्</u> | युञ्जिति | युंके | युञ्जाते | युञ्जते |
| # | yunákti - | yunktás | yuñjánti | yunkté | yuñjäte | yuñjáte |

b. the root ह्यं rudh, 'obstruct'; bases हिपायं ruṇadh and रूप rundh.

For rules of combination of final dh, see 153, 160.

1 फ्रापिम फ्रन्धम् फ्रन्थमम् फ्रन्थे फ्रन्थिक् फ्रन्थमक् runádhmi rundhvás rundhmás rundhé rundhváhe rundhmáhe 2 क्रणित्स कृन्डम् कृन्ड कृन्से कृन्धाये कृन्द्वे rundtsi runddhás runddhá runtsé rundháthe runddhvé 3 क्रणिडि कृन्डम् कृन्धित्त कृन्डे कृन्धाते कृन्धते rundddhi runddhás rundhánti runddhé rundháte rundháte

Instead of yunkthas, yungdhve, and the like (here and in the impv. and impf.), it is allowed and more usual (231) to write yunthas, yundhve, etc.; and, in like manner, rundhas, rundhe, for runddhas, runddhe; and so in other like cases.

685. Vedic irregularities of inflection are: a. the ordinary use of a 3d sing. mid. like the 1st sing., as vṛnje; b. the accent on té of 3d pl. mid. in anjaté, indhaté, bhunjaté.

2. Present Subjunctive.

686. The stem is made, as usual, by adding a to the strong present-stem: thus, $yun\acute{a}ja$, $run\acute{a}dha$. Below are given as if made from γyuj all the forms for which examples have been noted as actually occurring in the older language.

| | active. | | | | • | |
|---|------------------|-------------------|-------------------|---------------|----|----------------------|
| | s. | d. | р. | 8. | d. | p. |
| 1 | yunájāni | yu n ájāva | y unáj āma | $yunajar{a}i$ | | y un ájāmahāi |
| 2 | yunájas | | | | | yunajādhvāi |
| 3 | y un ájat | yunájatas | yunájan | yunájate | | |

687. The RV. has once $a\tilde{n}jatas$, which is anomalous as being made from the weak tense-stem. Forms with double mode-sign are met with: thus, $tr\bar{n}ah\bar{u}n$ (AV.), $yunaj\bar{u}n$ (ζB .); and the only quotable example of 3d du. act. (besides $a\tilde{n}jatas$) is $hinas\bar{u}tas$ (ζB .). ζB . has also $hinas\bar{u}vas$ as 1st du. act.: an elsewhere unexampled form.

3. Present Optative.

688. The optative is made, as elsewhere, by adding the compounded mode-endings to the weak form of present-stem. Thus:

| active. | | | middle. | | | |
|------------|-----------|----------|---------|-----------|-----------|--|
| 8. | d. | р. | s. | d. | p. | |
| 1 युङ्याम् | युङ्याव | युङ्याम | युञ्जीय | युञ्जीविद | युञ्जीमिक | |
| yuñjyām | yuñjyaˈva | yuñjyama | yuñjīyá | yuñjīváhi | yuñjīmáhi | |
| etc. | etc. | etc. | etc. | etc. | etc. | |

4. Present Imperative.

689. In this class (as the roots all end in consonants) the ending of the 2d sing. act. is always to dhi.

| | active. | | | middle. | |
|----------------------|----------------------|---------------------|-------------------------------|-------------------------|-----------------------|
| s. | d. | p. | s. | d. | p. |
| 1 युनज्ञानि | युनजाव | युनजाम | युनज्ञ | युनजावहै | युनजामकै |
| yundjāni | yunájāva | yundjāma | yunájāi | yunájāvahāi | yunájāmahāi |
| 2 युंग्धि yungdhi | युंक्तम् yuāktám | युंक yuāktá | युं द व yuñkṣvá | युज्जायाम् yuñjāthām | युंग्धम् yuāgdhvám |
| 3 युनक्त yunáktu | युंक्ताम् yuāktām | युञ्जनु yuñjántu | युंक्ताम् yuāktām | युञ्जाताम् yuñjātām | युज्जताम् yuñjátām |

690. There is no occurrence, so far as noted, of the ending $t\bar{a}t$ in verbs of this class. The Veda has, as usual, sometimes strong forms, and sometimes the ending tana, in the 2d pl. act.: thus, $un\acute{a}tta$, $yun\acute{a}kta$, anaktana, pinastana.

5. Present Participle.

(691. The participles are made in this class as in the preceding ones: thus, act. যুদ্ধন্ yunjánt (fem. যুদ্ধনী yunján); mid. যুদ্ধান yunjáná (but RV. has indhāna).

6. Imperfect.

692. The example of the regular inflection of this tense needs no introduction:

| | | active. | | | middle. | |
|---|------------|----------------------|------------------|-----------------------------|---------------------|-------------------|
| | s. | d. | p. | s. | d. | р. |
| 1 | म्रयुन्जम् | ग्र युड्व | म्र युङ्ग | म्रयुङ्गि | ग्र युङ्चिह् | म्रयुङमिक् |
| | áy ua jam | áyuñjva | áyuñjma | áyuñji | áyuñjvahi | áyuñjmahi |
| 2 | म्रय्नक् | ग्र यंक्तम् | म्र यंक | म्रयुंक्याम् | म्रयुज्जायाम् | ग्रयंग्धम् |
| | áyunak | áyunktam | áyuñkta | $\acute{a}yuar{n}kthar{a}s$ | áyuñjāthām | áyungdhvam |
| 3 | म्रयुनक् | म्रयुंकाम् | म्रयुञ्जन् | म्र युंक | म्रयुञ्जाताम् | म्रयुञ्जत |
| | áyunak | áyunktām | _ \ | áyuñkta | áyuñjātām | áyuñjata |

The endings s and t are necessarily lost in the nasal class throughout in 2d and 3d sing. act., unless saved (555) at the expense of the final radical consonant: which is a case of very rare occurrence: in the older language have been noted only ahinat (TB.), 3d sing., for ahinas (Vhins), and once in AV. abhanas, 2d sing., for abhanak (Vhins); this last is a case of the utmost rarity.

693. The Veda shows no irregularities in this tense. Occurrences of augmentless forms are found, especially in 2d and 3d sing. act., showing an accent like that of the present: for example, bhinát, pṛṇák, vṛṇák, piṇák, riṇak.

Irregularities of the Nasal Class.

- 694. The roots which thus expand a penultimate nasal in the strong forms of the present-system into a syllable ná are about twenty-five: namely, tac, prc, ric, vic, añj, bhañj, vrj, bhuj, yuj, krt 'spin', chrd, trd, chid, bhid, ud, rdh, idh, rudh, ubh, aç (anaçāmahāi, once, RV.), piş, çiş, hins, trh. Those here written with the nasal namely añj, bhañj, hins have that addition also in the other tense-systems. Two, rdh and ubh, make present-systems also of other classes with nasal class-signs: thus, rdhnoti (cl. IV.), ubhnāti (cl. V.). Several have a-stems with penultimate nasal: thus, prīcā, çinsā, trīhā, umbhā; and occasional a-forms, especially in the later language, are met with from others: thus, bhuñjet, chindeta, apinṣat, arundhat (compare the nasalized roots of the á-class, below, 758).
- 695. The root trh combines trnah with ti, tu, etc. into trnedhi, trnedhu; and, according to the grammarians, has also such forms as trnehmi: see above, 224b.
- **696.** The root hins (by origin apparently a desiderative from \sqrt{han}) accents irregularly the root syllable in the weak forms: thus, hinsanti, hinste (but hinasat etc.).

IV. Nu and u-classes (fifth and eighth, su and tan-classes).

- 697. A. The present-stem of the nu-class is made by adding to the root the syllable $\frac{\pi}{3}$ nu, which then in the strong forms receives the accent, and is strengthened to $\frac{\pi}{1}$ $n\delta$.
- B. The few roots of the u-class (about half-a-dozen) end in $\overline{\uparrow}$ n, with the exception of the later irregular $\overline{\uparrow}$ kr (or kar) for which, see below, 714. The two classes, then, are closely correspondent in form; and they are wholly accordant in inflection.

The u of either class-sign is allowed to be dropped before v and m of the 1st du. and 1st pl. endings, except when the root (nu-class) ends in a consonant; and the u before a vowel-ending becomes v or uv, according as it is preceded by one or by two consonants (129).

1. Present Indicative.

(698. Examples of inflection: A. nu-class; root मु su, 'press out': strong form of stem, मुनो sunó; weak form, मुन् sunu.

| | active. | | | middle. | |
|-----------------|----------|----------------|--------|---------------------------|-----------------|
| s. | d. | p. | 8. | d. | p. |
| 1 मुनोमि | मुनुवम् | मुनुमम् | मुन्वे | मुनुव क्टे | मुनुम क् |
| sunómi | sunuvás | sunumás | sunvé | sunuváhe | sunumáhe |
| 2 मुनोषि | सुनुबस् | मु नुय | मुनुषे | मु न्वां <u>ये</u> | मु नुधे |
| sunóși | sunuthás | sunuthá | sunușé | sunv athe | sunudhvé |
| 3 मुनोति | मुनुतम् | मुन्वित | मुनुते | मुन्वाते | मुन्वते |
| sunóti | sunutás | sunvánti | sunuté | sunväte | sunváte |

The forms sunvás, sunváhe, sunmáhe are alternative with those given here for 1st du. and pl., and in practice are more common (no examples of the fuller forms have been noted from the older language). From \sqrt{ap} , however (for example), only the forms with u can occur: thus, $\bar{apnuvás}$, $\bar{apnumáhe}$; and also only $\bar{apnuvánti}$, $\bar{apnuvé}$, $\bar{apnuváte}$.

B. u-class; root নন্ tan, 'stretch': strong form of stem, ননা tanó; weak, নন্ tanu.

| ₁ तनोमि | तन्वस् | तन्मस् | तन्वे | तन्बङ् | तन्मक् |
|---------|--------|--------|-----------------|-------------|---------|
| tanómi | tanvás | tanmás | $tanv\acute{e}$ | $tanv\'ahe$ | tanmáhe |
| etc. | etc. | etc. | etc. | etc. | etc. |

The inflection is so precisely like that given above that it is not worth writing out in full. The abbreviated forms in 1st du. and pl. are presented here, instead of the fuller, which rarely occur (as no double consonant ever precedes).

699. In the older language, no strong 2d perss. du. or pl., and no thana-endings, chance to occur (but they are numerous in the impv. and impf.: see below). The RV. has several cases of the irregular accent in 3d pl. mid.: thus, tanvaté, manvaté, sprnvaté.

In RV. occur also several 3d pll. mid. in ire from present-stems of this class: thus, invire, rnvire, pinvire, crnviré, sunviré, hinviré. Of these, pinvire and hinviré might be perfects without reduplication from the secondary roots pinv and hinv (below, 716). The 2d sing. mid. (with passive value) crnvisé (RV.) is of anomalous and questionable character.

2. Present Subjunctive.

700. The subjunctive mode-stem is made in the usual manner, by adding a to the gunated and accented class-sign: thus, sunáva, tanáva. In the following scheme are given all the forms of which examples have been met with in actual use in the older language from either division of the class: some of them are quite numerously represented there.

| active. | | | | middle. | | | |
|---------|----------|----------|-----------|-------------------------|-------------|-------------|--|
| | . s. | d. | p. | s. | d. | p. | |
| 1 | sunávāni | sunávāva | sunávāma | sunávāi | sunávävahāi | sunávāmahāi | |
| 2 | sunávas | | sunávatha | sunávase | sunáväithe | A minimum | |
| 3 | sunávat | unag | sunávan | {sunávate {sunávātāi | | sunávanta | |

701. Of the briefer 1st sing. act., RV. has kṛṇavā and hinavā. Forms with double mode-sign occur (not in RV.): thus, kṛṇāvāt and karavāt (AV.); acṇavātha (K.), kṛṇavātha (VS.; but -vatha in Kāṇva-text), karavātha (ÇB.). On the other hand, acṇavatāi is found once (in TS.). RV. has in a single passage kṛṇvātte (instead of kṛṇāvātte): the only form in āthe is acṇāvāthe.

3. Present Optative.

702. The combined endings (566) are added, as usual, to the weak tense-stem: thus,

| | | active. | | | middle. | |
|---|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|------|-------------------------|------------------------|
| | s. | d. | p. | 5. | d. | p. |
| 1 | मुनुयाम् sunuyām | मुनुयाव sunuyáva | मुनुयाम sunuyāma | _ | मुन्वीविह् sunvīvāhi | मुन्वीमिह sunvīmáhi |
| | etc. | etc. | etc. | etc. | etc. | etc. |

From $\sqrt{a}p$, the middle optative would be $\bar{a}pnuv\bar{i}y\dot{a}$ — and so in other like cases.

4. Present Imperative.

703. The inflection of the imperative is in general like that in the preceding classes. As regards the 2d sing. act., the rule of the later language is that the ending to hi is taken whenever the root itself ends in a consonant; otherwise, the tense- (or mode-) stem stands by itself as 2d person (for the earlier usage, see below, 704). Example of inflection is:

| | | active. | | middle. | | | |
|---|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|---------------------|-------------------------|---------------------------|--|
| | s. | d. | p. | Б. | d. | р. | |
| 1 | मुनवानि sunávāni | मुनवाव sunávāva | मुनवाम sunávāma | मुनवै sunávāi | | मुनवामन्है sunávāmahāi | |
| 2 | सुन् sunú | मुनुतम् sunutám | मुनुत sunutá | मुनुघ sunușvá | मुन्वायाम् sunvåthām | मुनुधम् sunudhvám | |
| 3 | मुनोतु sunótu | मुनुताम् sunutám | मुन्वतु sunvántu | मुनुताम् sunutám | मुन्वाताम् sunvåtām | मुन्वताम् sunvátām | |

From \sqrt{ap} , the 2d sing. act. would be $\bar{a}pnuhl$; from \sqrt{aq} , aqnuhl; from \sqrt{dhq} , dhṛṣṇuhl; and so on. From \sqrt{ap} , too, would be made $\bar{a}pnuvantu$, $\bar{a}pnuvant$

704. In the earliest language, the rule as to the omission of hi after a root with final vowel does not hold good: in RV., such forms as inuhi, kṛṇuhi, cinuhi, cinuhi, cṛṇuhi, sṛṇuhi, hinuhi, and tanuhi, sanuhi, are thrice as frequent in use as inu, cṛṇu, sunu, tanu, and their like; in AV., however, they are not more than one third as frequent; and in the Brāhmanas they appear only sporadically; even cṛṇudhi (with dhi) occurs several times in RV. The ending tāt is found in kṛṇutāt and hinutāt, and kurutāt. The strong stem-form is found in 2d du. act. in hinotam; and in 2d pl. act. in kṛṇota and kṛṇotana, cṛṇota and cṛṇotana, sunota and sunotana, hinota and hinotana, and tanota, karota. The ending tana occurs only in the forms just quoted.

5. Present Participle.

705. The endings म्रत् ánt and मान āná are added to the weak form of tense stem: thus, from एमु su come act. मुन्चत्त sunvánt (fem. मुन्चती sunvatí), mid. मुन्चान sunvāná; from एतन् tan, तन्चत्त tanvánt (fem. तन्वती tanvatí), तन्चान tanvāná. From एम्राप् कृ, they are म्राप्नुवत् कृष्णापर्वंगरं and म्राप्नुवान कृष्णापर्वातं.

6. Imperfect.

706. The combination of augmented stem and endings is according to the rules already stated: thus,

active. middle. म्रम्नविक म्रसन्ब $\acute{a}sunvi$ ásunuvahi ásunavam ásunuva ásunuma म्रमुनुयाम् म्रमुन्वायाम् म्रमुनुधम् 2 ग्रमुनाम् ásunutam ásunuta ásunuthās ásunvāthām ásunudhvam ásunos ₃ भ्रमुनात् म्रमुनुताम् म्रमुन्वन् ग्रमुनुत **ग्रम्**न्वाताम् ग्रम्न्वत ásunutām ásunvan ásunuta ásunvātām ásunvata ásunot

Here, as elsewhere, the briefer forms ásunva, ásunva, ásunvahi, ásunmahi are allowed, and more usual, except from roots with final consonant, as dhṛṣ; which makes, for example, always ádhṛṣṇuma etc., and also ádhṛṣṇuvan, ádhṛṣṇuvi, ádhṛṣṇuvātām, ádhṛṣṇuvāta.

707. Strong stem-forms and tana-ending are found only in RV., in akrnota, akrnotana. Augmentless forms with accent are minván, hinván, rnutá.

Irregularities of the nu and u-classes.

- 708. Less than thirty roots form their present-system in the manner set forth above, by the addition of the class-sign nu to the root: they are aks, aç 'attain', taks, dabh, çak, sagh, āp, dāç, r, kr 'make', vr (ūr), str, spr, rdh, trp, dhrs, i 'send' (or in: see below, 716), ksi 'destroy', ci, dhi, mi 'prop', hi, u, du, cru, su, sku, prus, dhū: and of these, several (as taks, sagh, $d\bar{a}c$, u, sku) have only isolated forms of this class.
- 709. The root trp, 'enjoy', is said by the grammarians to retain the n of its class-sign unlingualized in the later language - where, however, forms of conjugation of this class hardly occur; while in the Veda the regular change is made: thus, trpnu.
- 710. The root gru, 'hear', is contracted to gr before the class-sign, forming crno and crnu as stem. Its forms crnvisé and *çṛṇviré* have been noted above (699).
- 711. The root $dh\bar{u}$ in the later language shortens its vowel, making the stem-forms $dhun\acute{o}$ and dhunu (earlier $dh\bar{u}n\acute{o}$, $dh\bar{u}nu$).
- 712. The so-called root $\bar{u}rnu$, treated by the native grammarians as dissyllabic and belonging to the root-class (I.), is properly a present-stem of this class, with anomalous contraction, from the root vr (or var). In the Veda, it has no forms which are not regularly made according to the nuclass; but in the Brahmana language are found sometimes such forms as $\bar{u}rn\bar{u}uti$, as if from an u-root of cl. I. (626); and the grammarians make for it a perfect, agrist, future, etc. Its 2d sing. impv. act. is urnu or urnuh; its impf., āúrņos, āurņot; its opt. mid., ūrņuvīta (K.) or ūrņvīta (TS.).
- 713. The roots of the other division, or of the u-class, are extremely few: they are tan, man, van, san; also kṣan (not in V.: in CB., and very rarely later), and kr 'make' (in late Vedic and later); and BR. assume in of the u-class instead of i of the nu-class.
- 714. The extremely common root a kr (or kar), 'make', is in the later language inflected in the present-system exclusively according to the u-class (being the only root of that class not ending in $\overline{\gamma}$ n. It has the irregularity that in the strong form of stem it (as well as the class-sign) has the guṇa-strengthening, and that in the weak form it is changed to kur, so that the two forms of stem are नारे karó and क्र kuru. The class-sign उ u is always dropped before $\exists v$ and $\exists m$ of the 1st du. and pl., and also before $\mathbf{u} y$ of the opt. act. Thus:

?3 ! i

.ve

a \acute{e}

such as bhāvanta (which are very common) are, of course, properly augmentless imperfects. The Brāhmanas (especially QB.) prefer the 2d sing. act. in $\bar{a}si$ and the 3d in $\bar{a}t$. A 3d pl. in $ant\bar{a}i$ (vartant $\bar{a}i$, KB.) has been noted once. RV. has an example, $arc\bar{a}$, of the briefer 1st sing. act.

3. Present Optative.

738. The scheme of optative endings as combined with the final of an a-stem was given in full above (566).

| | | active. | | | middle. | |
|---|----------|-------------|------------------|-------------|---------------|------------------|
| | 8. | d. | p. | s. | d. | p. |
| 1 | भवेयम् | भवेव | भवेम | भवेय | भवेविह | भवेमिह |
| | bháveyam | $bh\'aveva$ | $bh\'{a}vema$ | $bh\'aveya$ | $bh\'avevahi$ | <i>bhávemahi</i> |
| 2 | भवेस् | भवेतम् | भवेत | भवेबास् | भवेघायाम् | भवेधम् |
| | bháves | bhávetam | bháveta | | bháveyāthām | bhávedhvam |
| 3 | भवेत् | भवेताम् | भवेयुम् | भवेत | भवेयाताम् | भवेरन् |
| | bhávet | bhávetūm | bháveyu s | $bh\'aveta$ | bháveyātām | bháveran |
| | | | | | | |

The RV. has once the 3d pl. mid. bharerata (for one other example, see 752).

4. Present Imperative.

739. An example of the imperative inflection is:

| | | active. | _ | | middle. | |
|---|---------------------|-----------------|-------------------|--------------------|----------------------------------|--------------------------|
| | s. | d. | р. | s. | d. | p |
| 1 | भवानि | भवाव | भवाम | ਮਕੈ | भवावहै | ^{ग्र} भवामकै |
| | bh á $v\bar{a}ni$ | $bh\'avar{a}va$ | $bh\'{a}v\={a}ma$ | $bhcute{a}var{a}i$ | $bh\acute{a}v\bar{a}vah\bar{a}i$ | bhávāmahāi - |
| 2 | ਮਕ | भवतम् | भवत | भवस्व | भवेद्याम् | भवधम् |
| | $bh\'ava$ | | $bh\'avata$ | $bh\'avas va$ | bh áve th $ar{a}m$ | bhávadhvam |
| 3 | भवत् | भवताम् | भवतु | भवताम् | भवेताम् | भवन्ताम् |
| | bhávatu | bhávatām | bhávantu | bhávatām | bhávetām | bhávantām |

740. The ending tana in 2d pl. act. is as rare in this whole conjugation as is thana in the present: the V. affords only bhajatana in the a-class (and nahyatana in the ya-class: 760). The ending tāt of 2d sing. act., on the other hand, is not rare; the RV. has avatāt, oṣatāt, dahatāt, bhavatāt, yachatāt, yācatāt, rākṣatāt, vahatāt; to which AV. adds jinvatāt, dhāvatāt; and the Brāhmaṇas bring other examples.

5. Present Participle.

741. The endings মন্ ant and দান māna are added to the present-stem, with loss, before the former, of the final stem-vowel: thus, act. भवत् bhávant (fem. भवती bhávantī); mid. भवमान bhávamāna.

6. Imperfect.

742. An example of the imperfect inflection is:

s. d. p. s. d. p. 1 ग्रभवम् ग्रभवाव ग्रभवाम ग्रभवे ग्रभवाविङ् ग्रभवामिङ् ábhavam ábhavāva ábhavāma ábhave ábhavāvahi ábhavāmahi

- 2 ग्रभवम् ग्रभवतम् ग्रभवत ग्रभवद्याम् ग्रभवद्याम् ग्रभवद्यम् ábhavas ábhavatam ábhavata ábhavathās ábhavethām ábhavadhvam
- 3 ग्रभवत् ग्रभवताम् ग्रभवन् ग्रभवत ग्रभवताम् ग्रभवत ábhavat ábhavatām ábhavan ábhavata ábhavetām ábhavanta
- 743. No forms in tana are made in this tense from any a-class. Examples of augmentless forms (which are not uncommon) are: cyávam, ávas, dáhas, bódhat, bhárat, cáran, náçan; bādhathās, várdhata, cócanta. The subjunctively used forms of 2d and 3d sing. act. are more frequent than those of either of the more proper subjunctive persons.

Irregularities of the a-class.

- 744. A far larger number of roots form their present-system according to the a-class than according to any of the other classes: in the RV., they are about two hundred and forty (nearly two fifths of the whole body of roots); in the AV., about two hundred (nearly the same proportion); to tell precisely, or very nearly, how many they are in the later language is not possible (of the number "about a thousand", as usually stated, the greater part are fictitious: see 108a). Among them are no roots ending in long \bar{a} except a few which make an a-stem in some anomalous way: below, 749a.
- 745. A few verbs have irregular vowel-changes in forming the present-stem: thus,
 - a. $\bar{u}h$ 'notice' has guṇa-strengthening (against 240): thus, ohate.
- b. k r p (or k r a p), 'lament', on the contrary, remains unchanged: thus, k r p a t e.
 - c. guh, 'hide', has prolongation instead of guna: thus, guna!
- d. kram, 'stride', lengthens its vowel in the active, but not in the middle: thus, $kr \dot{a}mati$, $kr \dot{a}mate$; klam, 'tire', is said to form $kl \bar{a}mati$ etc., but hardly occurs; cam with the preposition \bar{a} , 'rinse the mouth', forms $\dot{a}c\bar{a}mati$.
- e. In the later language are found occasional forms of this class from mrj, 'wipe'; and they show the same vrddhi (instead of guna) which belongs to the root in its more proper inflection (627): thus, $m\bar{u}rjasva$.
- f. The grammarians give a number of roots in urv, which they declare to lengthen the u in the present-stem. Only three are found in (quite

limited) use, and they show no forms anywhere with short u. All appear to be of secondary formation from roots in r or ar. The root murch or murch, 'coagulate', has likewise only \bar{u} in quotable forms.

- g. The onomatopoetic root sthiv, 'spew', is written by the grammarians as sthiv, and declared to lengthen its vowel in the present-system.
- 746. The roots danc, 'bite', ranj, 'color', sanj, 'hang', svanj, 'embrace', of which the nasal is in other parts of the conjugation not constant, lose it in the present-system: thus, dacati etc.; sanj forms both sajati and sajjati (probably for sajyati, or for sasjati from sasajati); math or manth has mathati later. In general, as the present of this class is a strengthening formation, a root that has such a nasal anywhere has it here also.
- 747. The roots gam, 'go', and yam, 'furnish', make the present-stems gácha and yácha: thus, gáchāmi etc.: see 608.
- 748. The root sad, 'sit', forms stda (conjectured to be contracted from sisd for sisad): thus, stdami etc.
- 749. Transfers to this class from other classes are not rare, as has been already pointed out above, both throughout the present-system and in occasional forms. The most noticeable cases are the following:
- a. The roots in \bar{a} , $sth\bar{a}$, 'stand', $p\bar{a}$, 'drink', and $ghr\bar{a}$, 'smell', form the present-stems tistha ($tisth\bar{a}mi$ etc.), piba or (later) piva ($pib\bar{a}mi$ etc.), and jighra ($jighr\bar{a}mi$ etc.); and, in the Veda, $d\bar{a}$, 'give', and $dh\bar{a}$, 'place', form sometimes $d\dot{a}da$ and $d\dot{a}dha$, han, 'slay', forms sometimes jighna, and hi, 'impel', forms jighya— all these by transfer from the reduplicating class: see 671—4.
- b. Secondary root-forms like inv, jinv, pinv, from simpler roots of the nu-class, are either found alongside their originals, or have crowded these out of use: see 716.
- **750.** On the other hand, the root dham or $dhm\bar{a}$, 'blow', forms its present-stem from the more original form of the root: thus, $dh\acute{a}mati$ etc.

VII. Accented \acute{a} -class (sixth, tud-class).

751. The present-stem of this class has the accent on the class-sign Ξ \dot{a} , and the root remains unstrengthened. In its whole inflection, it follows so closely the model of the preceding class, that to give the paradigm in full will be unnecessary (only for the subjunctive, all the forms found to occur will be instanced).

(752. Example of inflection: root বিস্*viç*, 'enter'; stem, বিহা *viçá:*

1. Present Indicative.

| | activ | 7e. | Par l'energy l'é | | mic | ldle. |
|---|--------|---------|------------------|------|----------|----------|
| | s. | d. | р. | 8. | d. | р. |
| 1 | | विशावम् | विशामस् | | | विशामक् |
| | viçāmi | viçavas | viçamas | viçé | viçavahe | viçamahe |
| | etc. | etc. | etc. | etc. | etc. | etc. |

2. Present Subjunctive.

| 1 | viç án i | viç $lpha va$ | viç $lpha ma$ | viçāí | viç á vahāi | viç $\dot{ar{a}}$ mah $ar{a}$ i |
|---|--|---------------|------------------|---------------------|------------------------|---------------------------------|
| 2 | {viçάsi {viçάs | | viç á tha | {viçáse {viçásāi | v iç $ar{a}$ íth e | |
| 3 | $\left\{ egin{array}{l} viç \dot{a}ti \ viç \dot{a}t \end{array} ight.$ | viçlpha tas | viçá n | {viçáte {viçátāi | v iç $ar{a}$ íte | viç án tāi |

A single example of the briefer 1st sing. act. is $mrk_s\dot{a}$. The only forms in $\ddot{a}ithe$ and $\ddot{a}ite$ are $prn\ddot{a}tthe$ and $yuv\ddot{a}tte$.

3. Present Optative.

विशेयम् विशेव विशेम विशेय विशेवहि विशेमहि viçéyam viçéva viçéma viçéya viçévahi viçémahi etc. etc. etc. etc. etc.

The RV. has the ending tana once in tiretana 2d pl. act., and rata in juserata 3d pl. mid.

4. Present Imperative.

The first persons having been given above as subjunctives, the second are added here:

2 विश विशतम् विशत विशस्य विशियाम् विशधम् viçá viçátam viçáta viçásva viçéthām viçádhvam etc. etc. etc. etc. etc.

The ending $t\bar{u}t$ is found in RV. and AV. in $mrdat\bar{u}t$, $vrhat\bar{u}t$, $suvat\bar{u}t$; other examples are not infrequent in the Brāhmana language: thus, $khidut\bar{u}t$, $srjat\bar{u}t$.

5. Present Participle.

The active participle is বিহান viçánt; the middle is বিহানান viçámāna.

The feminine of the active participle is usually made from the strong stem-form: thus, vicanti; but sometimes from the weak: thus, sincanti and sincanti (RV. and AV.), tudanti and tudati (AV.): see above, 449 b.

6. Imperfect.

म्रविशम् म्रविशाव म्रविशाम म्रविशे म्रविशाविक् म्रविशामिक् åviçam åviçāva åviçāma åviçe åviçāvahi åviçāmahi etc. etc. etc. etc. etc.

Examples of augmentless forms accented are srjús, srjút, tirúnta.

The a-aorist (846 ft.) is in general the equivalent, as regards its form, of an imperfect of this class.

Irregularities of the lpha-class.

- 753. It is impossible to determine closely the limits of this class, partly because of the occurrence of forms unaccented, or in unaccentuated texts, which might belong either to it or to the preceding class, partly because its modes and imperfect are accordant in form with those of the a-aorist (below, chap. XI.), and their separation is not always practicable, and partly for other reasons. With considerable confidence may be reckoned as belonging to it about seventy roots: namely, ksi, yu 'join', ru 'roar', su (or $s\bar{u}$) 'stir up', $dh\bar{u}$, $h\bar{u}$, kr 'strew', gr 'swallow', tr, rikh or likh, sic, ich, vij, khid, vid 'find', vidh, ksip, lip, riph, die, pie, rie, vie, is, tvis, mis, muc, uch, ubj, tuj, ruj, khud, tud, nud, rud, lup, ubh, çubh, gur, jur, tur, bhur, sphur, jus, prus, rus, cus, uks, vrcc (or vrace), rch, prch (or prach), rñj, srj, bhrjj (or bhrajj), mrd, prn, mrn, krt 'cut', crt, rd, trp, mrc, sprc, rs 'push', krs 'plough', mrks, vrs, drh, vrh or brh. Some even of these have either only isolated or very rare occurrences of \acute{a} -forms. The roots ich, uch, and rch are reckoned as substitutes in the present-system for is 'wish', vas 'shine', and r 'go to' (608). Prn and mrn have been noticed above (731) as secondary roots from present-stems of the $n\bar{a}$ -class (V.).
- **754.** Certain peculiarities of this body of roots are very noticeable: it contains only one or two roots with long vowels, and none with long interior vowels; very few with final vowels; and none with a as radical vowel, except as this forms a combination with r, which is then reduced in the present-system, as in the weak forms generally, to r or some of the usual substitutes of r.
- 755. The roots in i and u and \bar{u} change those vowels into iy and uv before the class-sign: thus, $k \sin \alpha t$, $suv \alpha t$ (sva instead of suva occurs in AV.; and the Brāhmanas have forms in $k \sin \alpha t$).
- **756.** The three roots in r form the present-stems $kir\acute{a}$, $gir\acute{a}$, $tir\acute{a}$, and they are sometimes written as kir etc.; and gur, jur, tur are really only varieties of gr, jr, tr; and bhur and sphur are evidently related with other ar or r root-forms.

- 757. Two other roots which are used only in middle forms, and in combination with the preposition \bar{a} (sometimes further combined), make the present-stems \bar{a} - $driy\hat{a}$ and \bar{a} - $priy\hat{a}$, and are reckoned as r or ar roots: dr, 'regard', and pr, 'be busy' (neither is found in V.). It is a question whether they are more properly reckoned to this class or as passives; and the same question arises as to the stems $mriy\hat{a}$ and $dhriy\hat{a}$, from the roots mr, 'die', and dhr, 'hold': see below, 773.
- 758. Although the present-stem of this class shows in general a weak form of the root, there are nevertheless a number of roots belonging to it which are strengthened by a penultimate nasal. Thus, the stem muñcá is made from \$\sum \nu nuc, \text{release}'; \sinc\text{sincá} from \$\sum \sinc, \text{sprinkle}'; \sinc\text{vindá} from \$\sum \nu vid \text{find}'; \skrnt\text{krntá} from \$\sum \nu krt \text{ 'cut'}; \sinc\text{pincá} from \$\sum \nu pic, \text{ 'adorn'}; \text{trmpá} from \$\sum \nu trp, \text{ 'enjoy'}; \shimp\text{humpá} from \$\sum \nu lup, \text{ 'break'}; \shimp\text{ limpá} from \$\sum \nu lup, \text{ 'smear'}; \text{ and occasional forms of the same character are met with from a few others, as \$tund\text{a}\$ from \$\sum \nu tud, \text{ 'thrust'}; \sum \nubh\text{a}\$ from \$\sum \nu bh, \text{ 'hold'}; \shimp\text{brih\text{a}}\$ from \$\sum \nu brh, \text{ 'strengthen'}; \shimp\text{drih\text{a}}\$ (beside \$\sim \nu bh, \text{ 'shine'}. TS. has \$\sigm \nu that \text{ from \$\sum \nu crath}\$ (instead of \$\sigm \nu that \nu \nu \nu that \nu \nu \nu that \nu that \nu that \nu \nu that \nu

VIII. Ya-class (fourth, div-class).

- 759. The present stem of this class adds \overline{u} ya to the accented but unstrengthened root. Its inflection is also precisely like that of the a-class, and may be presented in the same abbreviated form as that of the \dot{a} -class.
- (760. Example of inflection: root নকু nah, 'bind'; stem নকা náhya.

1. Present Indicative.

| active. | | | | middle. | | | |
|---------|-------------------------|----------|----------|-----------|-------------------------|-------------------------|--|
| | s. | d. | p. | s. | đ. | р. | |
| 1 | नङ्गामि | नह्यावस् | नङ्गामस् | નફ્યે | नह्यावहे | नन्धामक् | |
| | $n\acute{a}hy\bar{a}mi$ | náhyāvas | náhyāmas | $n\'ahye$ | $n\acute{a}hyar{a}vahe$ | $n\acute{a}hyar{a}mahe$ | |
| | etc. | etc. | etc. | etc. | etc. | etc. | |

2. Present Subjunctive.

| 1 | n áhyāni | | náhyāma | $m{n} \hat{a} h y ar{a} i$ | n áhyāvahāi | n áhyāmahāi |
|---|-------------------------------------|----------|---------|----------------------------|--------------------|--------------------|
| 2 | { n áhyāsi n áhyās | | | n áhyāsāi | | n áhyādhvāi |
| | ∫náhyāti náhyāt | náhyātas | náhyān | náhyātāi | | náhyāntāi |

A 3d pl. mid. in antāi (jāyantāi) occurs once in TS.

3. Present Optative.

नक्रोयम् नक्षेव नक्षेम नक्षेय नक्षेविह नक्षेमिह náhyeyam náhyeva náhyema náhyeya náhyevahi náhyemahi etc. etc. etc. etc. etc.

4. Present Imperative.

्र नन्ध्र नन्ध्रतम् नन्ध्रतः नन्ध्रस्य नन्ध्रियाम् नन्ध्रधम् náhya náhyatam náhyata náhyasva náhyethām náhyadhvam etc. etc. etc. etc. etc.

Of the ending tana, RV. has one example, nahyatana; the ending $t\bar{a}t$ is found in asyatāt, chyatāt.

5. Present Participle.

The active participle is নক্মন্ náhyant (fem. নক্মন্নী náhyantī); the middle is নক্মনান náhyamāna.

6. Imperfect.

1 म्रनस्मम् म्रनस्माव म्रनस्माम म्रनस्मे म्रनस्माविह म्रनस्मामिह ánahyam ánahyāva ánahyāma ánahye ánahyāvahi ánahyāmahi etc. etc. etc. etc. etc.

Examples of augmentless forms showing the accent belonging to the present-system are $g\dot{a}yat$, $p\dot{a}cyat$, $p\dot{a}cyat$, $j\dot{a}yath\ddot{a}s$.

Irregularities of the ya-class.

761. The roots of the ya-class are more than a hundred in number. They may be grouped as follows:

a. Roots signifying a state of feeling, or a condition of mind or body. These are nearly half the whole class. They are (alphabetically) as follows: uc, 'be pleased'; kup, 'be angry'; kre, 'be lean'; klam, 'be weary'; krudh, 'be angry'; ksam, 'be patient'; ksudh, 'be hungry'; ksubh, 'be agitated'; grdh, 'be greedy'; jas, 'be worn out'; tam, 'be exhausted'; tus, 'be satisfied'; trp, 'be pleased'; trs, 'be thirsty'; tras, 'be alarmed'; dam, 'be submissive'; dus, 'be spoiled'; drp, 'be crazed'; druh, 'be hostile'; pus, 'be in good condition'; budh, 'be awake'; bhram, 'be unsteady'; mad, 'be excited'; man, 'be minded'; muh, 'be confused'; mrs, 'be forgetful'; mrit, 'be in ill condition'; med, 'be fat'; yas, 'be ardent'; yudh, 'be hostile'; raj, 'be colored'; radh, 'be subject'; ran, 'be happy'; rādh, 'be successful'; ris, 'be hurt'; rup, 'be in pain'; lubh, 'be lustful'; cam, 'be quiet'; cuc, 'be in pain'; cus, 'be dry'; cram, 'be weary'; har, 'be gratified'; hrs, 'be excited'; and we may perhaps add das, 'be deficient', and nac, 'be missing'. Some of these are of only early use, some only of later; and some have only sporadic forms of this class, made perhaps under the influence of the analogy of the others.

- b. Roots which have a more or less distinctly passive sense, and which are in part evident and in part presumable transfers from the passive or yá-class, with change of accent, and sometimes also with assumption of active endings. It is not possible to draw precisely the limits of the division, or determine in all cases where passive form and meaning pass into intransitive; but there are a number of clear cases, where in the older language the accent wavers and changes, and the others are to be judged by their analogy. Thus, muc forms múcyate once or twice, beside usual mucyate, in RV. and AV.; and in the Brahmanas the former is the regular accent: and similar changes are found in other verbs: thus, ji or jyā, kṣi 'destroy', hā 'leave', pac, dr 'burst', chid, bhid. Cases closely analogous with these are miyate etc. from Vmi or mī, 'lessen'; rícyate etc. from Vric, 'leave'; vīyate etc. from Vvī, 'impregnate'; ciyante from \sqrt{cya} , 'coagulate'; cisyate etc. from \sqrt{cis} , 'leave'; drhyasva from \(\sqrt{drh}\), 'make firm'; puryate etc. from \(\sqrt{pr}\), 'fill'; and l\(\psi\)pyate, tápyate, tīryate, klícyate, rdhyate, may be ranked along with them. forms are early made sporadically from some of these — thus, drhya (RV.), kṣīyati and pūryati (TA.); and dīryati, kliçyati, and other like cases, are found later. The AV. has jīryati, 'grows old' (later also jīryate); and CB. has aprusyat, 'was sprinkled'. And from the earliest period $j\dot{a}yate$ etc., 'is born', is either altered passive or original ya-formation from \sqrt{ja} , serving as complement to \sqrt{jan} , 'give birth'.
- c. A small body of roots are either transitive, or not intransitive in a way that clearly connects them with either of the above classes: thus, as 'throw'; is 'send'; $tr\bar{a}$, 'save'; nah, 'bind'; pac, 'see'; vyadh, 'split'; $s\bar{v}v$, 'sew'; $d\bar{v}v$, 'play'; tur, 'overcome' (RV., once); tan, 'thunder' (RV., once), rj, 'press on'; nrt, 'dance'; pad, 'go'; $v\bar{a}c$, 'bleat'; $d\bar{v}$, 'hover'; $r\bar{v}$, 'flow'; $sr\bar{v}v$, 'fail'; clis, 'hang on'; bhrac, 'fall'; sidh, 'succeed'; $d\bar{v}p$, 'shine' (and perhaps das and nac are better classed here than under a).
- d. A body of roots, of various meaning, and of somewhat questionable character and relations, which are by the native grammarians reckoned as ending with diphthongs: thus,
- 1. Roots reckoned as ending in $\bar{a}i$ and belonging to the a-class: thus, $g\dot{a}yati$ from $\gamma g\bar{a}i$. As these show abundantly (and in most cases exclusively) \bar{a} -forms outside the present-system, there seems no reason why they should not be regarded as \bar{a} -roots of the ya-class. They are: $g\bar{a}$ 'sing'; $gl\bar{a}$, 'be wearied or disgusted'; $dhy\bar{a}$, 'think'; $py\bar{a}$, 'swell'; $ml\bar{a}$, 'wither'; $r\bar{a}$, 'bark'; $v\bar{a}$, 'droop'; $cy\bar{a}$, 'coagulate'; $cr\bar{a}$, 'cook'; $sty\bar{a}$, 'be coagulated'; and, in one or two sporadic forms, $k\bar{s}\bar{a}$, 'burn'; $d\bar{a}$ 'cleanse'; $st\bar{a}$, 'be hidden'; $sph\bar{a}$, 'be fat'. $Tr\bar{a}$, 'save', was given in the preceding division. Many of these are evident extensions of simpler roots with added \bar{a} . With them may be mentioned $t\bar{a}y$, 'extend' (compare pass. $t\bar{a}yate$ from γtan : 772), and $c\bar{a}y$, 'be shy or anxious' (which connects itself with uses of γci).
- 2. Roots reckoned as ending in e and belonging to the a-class: thus, $dh \hat{a} y a t i$ from y dh e. These, too, have \bar{a} -forms, and sometimes $\bar{\imath}$ -forms, outside the present-system, and must be regarded as \bar{a} -roots, either with \bar{a} weakened to a before the class-sign of this class, or with \bar{a} weakened to $\bar{\imath}$ or i and

inflected according to the a-class. They are: $dh\bar{a}$, 'suck'; $v\bar{a}$, 'weave'; $vy\bar{a}$, 'hide'; $hv\bar{a}$, 'call' (one of the forms of $\gamma/h\bar{u}$); and a late example or two are found from $m\bar{a}$, 'exchange'. With them may be mentioned day, 'share, sympathize, pity'; vyay, 'be wasted' (denom. of vyaya?); cay, 'visit with retribution' (probably a form of ci).

- 3. Roots artificially marked with a final o (108c) and reckoned to this class, the radical vowel being declared dropped before the class-sign: thus, dyâti from do. They have, as showing an accented $y\hat{a}$, no real right to be classed here at all, but seem more accordant in formation with the present-stems sva and ksya, noticed under the preceding class (755). Outside these present-systems, they show \bar{a} and i-forms; and the ya in the only RV. occurrence, and in most of the AV. occurrences, is resolved into ia which in the true class-sign ya is the case only in very rare and purely sporadic instances. They might, then, perhaps be best viewed as \bar{a} -roots with \bar{a} weakened to i, and inflected by the \hat{a} -class, but without the usual conversion of i to iy (755). They are: $d\bar{a}$ 'cut', $d\bar{a}$ 'bind'; $c\bar{a}$, 'sharpen'; $s\bar{a}$, 'bind'; $ch\bar{a}$, 'cut off'.
- **762.** The ya-class is the only one thus far described which shows any tendency toward a restriction to a certain variety of meaning. In this tendency, as well as in the form of its sign, it appears related with the class of distinctly defined meaning which is next to be taken up the passive, with $y\hat{a}$ -sign. Though very far from being as widely used as the latter beside other present-systems, it is in no very small number of cases an intransitive conjugation by the side of a transitive of some other class.
- 763. The roots of this class ending in am lengthen their vowel in forming the present-stem: they are tam, dam, bhram (but bhramyāt also occurs), çam, çram, klam (hardly found in use), and kṣam (but kṣamyate also): for example, çámyati, çrámyati.
 - **764.** The root mad has the same lengthening: thus, $m\dot{a}dyati$.
- 765. The roots in $\bar{\imath}v$ namely, $d\bar{\imath}v$, $s\bar{\imath}v$, $sr\bar{\imath}v$ (or $cr\bar{\imath}v$) are written by the grammarians with iv, and a similar lengthening in the present-system is prescribed for them.

They appear to be properly $d\bar{\imath}\bar{u}$ etc., since their vocalized final in other forms is always $\bar{u}:d\bar{\imath}v$ is by this proved to have nothing to do with the assumed root div, 'shine', which changes to dyu (361 d): compare also the desiderative stem $jujy\bar{u}sa$ from $\gamma/\bar{\imath}v$ (1028 h).

- **766.** From the roots j_{I}^{*} and t_{I}^{*} (also written as jur and tir or tur) come the stems jirya and tirya, and jurya and turya (the last two only in RV.); from p_{I}^{*} comes pura var.
- 767. The root vyadh is abbreviated to vidh: thus, vídhyati. And any root which in other forms has a penultimate nasal loses it here: thus, drhya from drhh or drh; bhrácya (also bhrcya) from bhranc or bhrac; rajya from rañj or raj.

IX. Accented $y\acute{a}$ -class: Passive conjugation.

768. A certain form of present-stem, inflected with middle endings, is used only with a passive meaning, and is formed from all roots for which there is occasion to make a passive conjugation. Its sign is an accented য yá added to the root: thus, হৃত্য hanyá from $\sqrt{হৃত্য}$ han, সাঘে āpyá from $\sqrt{স্থা }$ āp, স্কা grhyá from \sqrt{N} হু grh (or grah): and so on, without any reference to the class according to which the active and middle forms are made.

769. The form of the root to which the passive-sign is added is (since the accent is on the sign) the weak one: thus, a penultimate nasal is dropped, and any abbreviation which is made in the weak forms of the perfect (794), in the aorist optative (922b), or before ta of the passive participle (954), is made also in the passive present-system: thus, ajya from \sqrt{anj} , badhya from \sqrt{bandh} , ucya from \sqrt{vac} , iya from \sqrt{vaj} .

770. On the other hand, a final vowel of a root is in general liable to the same changes as in other parts of the verbal system where it is followed by y: thus,

- a. i and u final are lengthened: thus, $m\bar{\imath}y\acute{a}$ from \sqrt{mi} ; $s\bar{u}y\acute{a}$ from \sqrt{su} ; b. \bar{a} final is usually changed to $\bar{\imath}$: thus, $d\bar{\imath}y\acute{a}$ from $\sqrt{d\bar{a}}$; $h\bar{\imath}y\acute{a}$ from $\sqrt{h\bar{a}}$: but $j\tilde{n}\bar{a}y\acute{a}$ from $\sqrt{j\tilde{n}}\bar{a}$, $khy\bar{a}y\acute{a}$ from $\sqrt{khy\bar{a}}$;
- c. r final is in general changed to ri: thus, $kriy\hat{a}$ from \sqrt{kr} ; but if preceded by two consonants (and also, it is claimed, in the root r), it has instead the guna-strengthening: thus, $smary\hat{a}$ from \sqrt{smr} , $stary\hat{a}$ from \sqrt{str} ;— and in those roots which show a change of r to ir and ur (so-called \bar{r} -verbs: see 242), that change is made here also, and the vowel is lengthened: thus, $c\bar{t}ry\hat{a}$ from \sqrt{cr} ; $p\bar{u}ry\hat{a}$ from \sqrt{pr} .
- 771. The inflection of the passive-stem is precisely like that of the other a-stems; it differs only in accent from that of the class last given. It may be here presented, therefore, in the same abbreviated form:

Example of inflection: root क् kr, 'make'; passivestem क्रिय kriyá:

1. Present Indicative.

| | s. | d. | p. |
|---|--------|-----------|-----------|
| ı | क्रिये | क्रियावके | क्रियामक् |
| | kriyé | kriyavahe | kriyamahe |
| | etc. | etc. | etc. |

2. Present Subjunctive.

The forms noticed as occurring in the older language are alone here instanced:

2 | kriyáte | 3 | kriyátāi | mtā kriyamahai kriyādhvāi kriyantai

The 3d pl. ending antāi is found once (ucyantāi, K.).

3. Present Optative.

क्रियेविक kriyéya kriyévahi krivémahi

No forms of the passive optative chance to occur in RV. or AV.; they are found, however, in the Brahmanas.

4. Present Imperative.

2 क्रियस्व क्रियेथाम kriyásva kriyéthām

5. Present Participle.

This is made with the suffix मान māna: thus, क्रियमाण kriyámāņa.

In use, this participle is well distinguished from the other passive participle by its distinctively present meaning: thus, kṛtâ, 'done'; but kriyâmāṇa, 'in process of doing', or 'being done'.

6. Imperfect.

1 म्रक्रिये म्रक्रियाविह् åkriye åkriyāvahi म्रक्रियामिह ákriye ákriyāmahi

The passive-sign is never resolved into ia in the Veda.

772. The roots tan and khan usually form their passives from parallel roots in \bar{a} : thus, $t\bar{a}y\acute{a}te$, $kh\bar{a}y\acute{a}te$ (but also $tany\acute{a}te$, khanyáte). The corresponding form to \sqrt{jan} , namely jayate (above, 761 b), is apparently a transfer to the preceding class.

773. By their form, mriyáte, 'he dies', and dhriyáte, 'he maintains himself, is steadfast', are passives from the roots mr, 'die', and dhr, 'hold'; although neither is used in a proper passive sense, and mr is not transitive except in the derivative form mṛṇ (above, 731). With them are to be compared the stems \bar{a} -drivá and \bar{a} -privá (above, 757), which may possibly be

peculiar adaptations of meaning of passives from the roots p_r , 'fill', and dr, 'scatter'.

- 774. Instances are occasionally found in the later language of an apparent assumption of active instead of middle endings by passive persons of the present-system. Probably, however, these are rather to be regarded as examples of transfer to the ya-class, such as were considered above (761b).
- 775. As was pointed out above (607), the formation and inflection of stems in áya (the tenth or cur-class of the Hindu grammarians) will be treated under the head of secondary conjugation (chap. XIV.), along with the intensive and desiderative formations, because, in all alike, the stem is not a present-stem merely, but has been extended also into other tense-systems.

Uses of the Present and Imperfect.

- 776. The uses of the mode-forms of the present-system have been already briefly treated in the preceding chapter (572 ff.). The tense-uses of the two indicative tenses, present and imperfect, call here for only a word or two of explanation.
- 777. The present has, besides its strictly present use, the same side-uses which belong in general to the tense: namely, the expression of habitual action, of future action, and of past in lively narration.
- a. Examples of future meaning are: abruvan hṛṣṭā gachāmo vayam api (MBh.), 'they said with gladness, "we will go too"; agnir ātmabhavam prādād yatra vānchati nāiṣadhaḥ (MBh.), 'Agni gave his own presence wherever the Nishadhan should desire'.
- b. Examples of past meaning are: áttarā sắr ádharaḥ putrā āsīd dắnuḥ çaye sahāvatsā nā dhenāḥ (RV.), 'the mother was over, the son under; there Dānu lies, like a cow with her calf'; prahasanti ca tām kecid abhyasūyanti cā 'pare akurvata dayām kecit (MBh.), 'some ridicule her, some revile her. some pitied her'; tato yasya vacanāt tatrā 'valambitās tam sarve tiraskurvanti (H.), 'thereupon they all fall to reproaching him by whose advice they had alighted there'.
- 778. In connection with certain particles, the present has rather more definitely the value of a past tense. Thus:
- a. With pura, 'formerly': thus, saptarsin u ha sma vāt pura rkshā ity ácakṣate (ÇB.), 'the seven sages, namely, are of old called the bears'; tanmātram api cen mahyam na dadāti purā bhavān (MBh.), 'if you have never before given me even an atom'.
- b. With the asseverative particle sma: thus, crámena ha sma vāl tád devā jayanti yád esām jāyyam ásā rsayac ca (CB.), 'for, in truth, both gods and sages were wont to win by penance what was to be won'; $\bar{a}vistah$ kalinā dyūte jīyate sma nalas $tad\bar{a}$ (MBh.), 'then Nala, being possessed by Kali, was beaten in play'.

No example of this construction is found in either RV. or AV., or elsewhere in the metrical parts of the Veda. In the Brāhmaṇas, only habitual action is expressed by it (Delbrück). In all periods of the language, the use of sma with a verb as pure asseverative particle, with no effect on the tense-meaning, is very common; and the examples later are hardly to be distinguished from the present of lively narration — of which the whole construction is doubtless a form.

779. The imperfect has remained unchanged in value through the whole history of the language: it is the tense of narration; it expresses simple past time, without any other implication.

Compare what is said later (end of chap. X. and chap. XI.) as to the value of the other past tenses, the perfect and agrist.

CHAPTER X.

THE PERFECT-SYSTEM.

(780. The perfect-system in the later language, as has been seen above (535), consists only of an indicative tense and a participle — both of them in the two voices, active and middle.

In the oldest language, the perfect has also its modes and its augment-preterit, or pluperfect, or is not less full in its apparatus of forms than is the present-system.

- 781. The formation of the perfect is essentially alike
 in all verbs, differences among them being of only subordinate consequence, or having the character of irregularities.

 The characteristics of the formation are these:
 - a. a stem made by reduplication of the root;
- b. a distinction between stronger and weaker forms of stem, the former being used (as in presents of the First conjugation) in the singular active, the latter in all other persons;
- c. endings in some respects peculiar, unlike those of the present;
- d. the frequent use, especially in the later language, of a union-vowel \bar{z} i between stem and endings.

782. Reduplication. In roots beginning with a consonant, the reduplication which forms the perfect-stem is of the same character with that which forms the present-stem of the reduplicating conjugation-class (II.: see 643) — but with this exception, that radical Ξ a and Ξ and Ξ and Ξ are (or Ξ are have only Ξ a, and never Ξ i, as vowel of the reduplicating syllable: thus, from \sqrt{q} pr, 'fill', comes the present-stem \boxed{qq} pipr, but the perfect-stem \boxed{qq} papr; from \sqrt{q} \boxed{qq} , 'measure', comes the present-stem \boxed{qq} papr; but the perfect-stem \boxed{qq} papr; and so on.

Irregularities of roots with initial consonants will be given below, 784.

783. For roots beginning with a vowel, the rules of reduplication are these:

The root $\Re r$ forms likewise throughout $\Im (\bar{a}r)$ (as if from $\Im (\bar{a}r)$).

b. A root with \bar{z} i or \bar{z} u before a single final consonant follows the same analogy, except in the strong forms (sing. act.), where the vowel of the radical syllable has guṇa, becoming \bar{v} e or \bar{m} o; before this, the reduplicating vowel maintains its independent form, and is separated from the radical syllable by its own semivowel: thus, from v इप $i\bar{s}$ comes \bar{s} \bar{u} \bar{v} in weak forms, but \bar{s} \bar{u} \bar{u} \bar{u} \bar{v} in strong; from v \bar{s} \bar{u} \bar{u} \bar{v} in like manner, come \bar{s} \bar{u} \bar{u} and \bar{s} \bar{u} \bar{u} \bar{v} \bar{v} \bar{u} \bar{u} \bar{v} \bar

The root \bar{z} i, a single vowel, falls under this rule, and forms $\bar{z}\bar{u}$ $\bar{i}y$ and $\bar{z}\bar{u}$ iye.

c. Roots which begin with vowels long by nature or by position do not in general make a perfect-system, but use instead a periphrastic formation, in which the perfect tense

of an auxiliary verb is added to the accusative of a verbal noun (see below, chap. XV.: 1070 ff.).

To this rule, however, \sqrt{ap} (probably originally ap: 1087 f) constitutes an exception, making the constant perfect-stem $\bar{a}p$ (as if from ap: above, a).

For the peculiar reduplication $\bar{a}n$, belonging to certain roots with initial vowels, see below, 788.

784. A number of roots beginning with va and ending with a single consonant, which in various of their verbal forms and derivatives abbreviate the va to u, do it also in the perfect, and are treated like roots with initial u (above, **783b**), except that they retain the full form of root in the strong persons of the singular active. Thus, from \sqrt{vac} come $\bar{u}c$ and uvac; from \sqrt{vas} come $\bar{u}s$ and uvas; and so on.

The roots showing this abbreviation are vac, vad, vap, vaç, vas, vah; and $v\bar{a}$, 'weave' (so-called ve: 761 d, 2), is said to follow the same rule.

A single root beginning with ya, namely yaj, 'offer', has the same contraction, forming the stems iyaj and $\bar{y}i$.

785. A number of roots having ya after a first initial consonant take i (from the y) instead of a in the reduplicating syllable: thus, from \sqrt{vyac} comes vivyac; from $\sqrt{py\bar{a}}$ comes $pipy\bar{a}$.

These roots are vyac, vyath, vyadh, $vy\bar{a}$, $jy\bar{a}$, $py\bar{a}$; and, in the Veda, also tyaj, with cyu and dyu, which have the root-vowel u.

A single root with va is treated in the same way: namely svap, which forms susvap.

These roots are for the most part abbreviated in the weak forms: see below, 794.

786. A considerable number of roots have in the Veda a long vowel in their reduplication.

Thus, of roots reduplicating with \bar{a} : kan, k!p, gr 'wake', grdh, tan, trp, trs, dhr, dhrs, nam, mah, mrj, mrc, ran, radh, rabh, vak, van, vac, vas 'attack', vrj, vrt, vrdh, cad, sah, skambh. Some of these occur only in isolated cases; some have also forms with short vowel. Most are Vedic only; but $d\bar{a}dh\bar{a}ra$ is common also in the Brāhmaṇa language, and is even found later. For $j\bar{a}gr$, see 1020 below.

Of roots reduplicating with $\bar{\imath}$: the so-called roots (676) $d\bar{\imath}dh\bar{\imath}$ and $d\bar{\imath}d\bar{\imath}$, which make the perfect from the same stem with the present: thus, $d\bar{\imath}d\acute{e}tha$, $d\bar{\imath}d\acute{a}ya$; $d\bar{\imath}dhima$, $d\bar{\imath}dhyus$ (also $d\bar{\imath}dhiyus$, $d\bar{\imath}diyus$). But $p\bar{\imath}p\bar{\imath}$ has pipye, pipyus, etc., with short i. In AV. occurs once $j\bar{\imath}h\bar{\imath}da$.

Of roots reduplicating with \bar{u} : $j\bar{u}$ and $c\bar{u}$ (or $cv\bar{a}$).

787. A few roots beginning with the (derivative: 42) palatal mutes and aspiration show a reversion to the more original guttural in the radical

syllable after the reduplication: thus, γci forms ciki; γcit forms cikit; γfi forms figi; γfi forms figi; γfi forms fi forms fi

788. A small number of roots with initial a or r (ar) show the anomalous reduplication $\bar{a}n$ in the perfect.

Thus, in the Veda:

 $\gamma a\tilde{n}j$ or aj, which forms the pres. $an\tilde{a}kti$ (cl. III.), has the perfect $\bar{a}naj\dot{e}$ etc. (with $anaj\bar{a}$ and $anajy\bar{a}t$);

 γac , 'attain' (from which comes once $anac\bar{a}mah\bar{a}i$), has the weak forms $\bar{a}nacma$ etc. (with opt. $\bar{a}nacy\bar{a}m$), and the strong forms $\bar{a}na\hat{a}nc$ and $\bar{a}n\bar{a}ca$ — along with the regular $\bar{a}ca$ etc.;

Vrdh (from which comes once rnádhat) has ānrdhe;

Vrc or arc has anreus and anree;

Varh has (in TS.) annhus;

 $an\bar{a}ha$ (RV., once) has been referred to a root ah, elsewhere unknown, and explained as of this formation; but with altogether doubtful propriety.

The later grammar, then, sets up the rule that roots beginning with a and ending with more than one consonant have $\bar{a}n$ as their regular reduplication; and such perfects are taught from roots like aks, arj, and $a\tilde{n}c$ or ac; but the only other quotable forms appear to be $\bar{a}narchat$ (MBh.) and $\bar{a}narsat$ (TA.); which are accordingly reckoned as "pluperfects".

- 789. One or two individual cases of irregularity are the following:
- a. The extremely common root $bh\bar{u}$, 'be', has the anomalous reduplication ba, forming the stem $babh\bar{u}$; and, in the Veda, $\sqrt{s\bar{u}}$ forms in like manner $sas\bar{u}$.
- b. The root bh_T , 'bear', has in the Veda the anomalous reduplication ja (as also in intensive: 1002 b): but RV. has once also the regular babhre.
 - c. The root sthīv, 'spew', forms either tisthīv (CB. et al.) or tisthīv.
- d. $Vivakv\acute{a}n$ (RV., once) is doubtless participle of γvac , with irregular redublication (as in the present, 660).
- 790. Absence of reduplication is met with in the following cases:
- **a.** The root vid 'know' has, from the earliest period to the latest, a perfect without reduplication, but otherwise regularly made and inflected: thus, $v\acute{e}da$, $v\acute{e}ttha$, etc., pple $vidv\acute{a}ns$. It has the meaning of a present. The root vid 'find' forms the regular $viv\acute{e}da$.
- b. A few other apparently perfect forms lacking a reduplication are found in RV:: they are taksathus, yamātus, skambhāthus and skambhus, nindima (for ninidima?), dhise and dhire (? $Vdh\bar{a}$), and vidré and arhire (? see 613). And AV. has cetatus. The participial words $d\bar{a}_{\bar{c}}v\dot{a}n\dot{s}$, $m\bar{c}dhv\dot{a}n\dot{s}$, $s\bar{a}hv\dot{a}n\dot{s}$ are common in the oldest language.

c. One or two sporadic cases have been quoted from the later language: namely, cansus and cansire (MBh.).

791. For an anomalous case or two of reduplicated preposition, see below, 1087f.

792. Strong and weak stem-forms. In the three persons of the singular active, the root-syllable is accented, and exhibits usually a stronger form than in the rest of the tense-inflection. The difference is effected partly by strengthening the root in the three persons referred to, partly by weakening it in the others, partly by doing both.

/ 793. As regards the strengthening:

a. A final vowel takes either the guṇa or vṛddhi change in 1st sing. act., guṇa in 2d, and vṛddhi in 3d: thus, from vभी bhī, 1st बिभे bibhé or बिभे bibhāi; 2d बिभे bibhé; 3d बिभे bibhāi; from vम् kṛ, 1st चक्रा cakár or चकार cakár, 2d चक्रा cakár, 3d चक्रा cakár.

But the \bar{u} of $\sqrt{bh\bar{u}}$ remains unchanged, and adds v before a vowel-ending: thus, $babh\bar{u}va$ etc.

b. Medial য় a before a single final consonant follows the analogy of a final vowel, and is lengthened or vriddhied in the 3d. sing., and optionally in the first: thus, from ৴ন্য্ tap, 1st নন্য্ tatáp or ননায্ tatáp, 2d নন্য্ tatáp, 3d ননায্ tatáp.

In the Veda, however, the weaker of the two forms allowed by these rules in the first person is almost exclusively in use: thus, 1st only $bibh\acute{a}ya$, $tat\acute{a}pa$, 3d $bibh\acute{a}ya$, $tat\acute{a}pa$. The only exceptions noticed are $cak\acute{a}ra$ and $jagr\acute{a}ha$ (doubtful reading) in AV.

c. A medial short vowel has in all three persons alike the guṇa-strengthening (where this is possible: 240): thus, from $\sqrt{3}$ ন্দু druh comes হ্রান্ত্ dudróh; from $\sqrt{3}$ ন্দ্ vivéç; from $\sqrt{3}$ ন্ন্ kṛt comes বর্মন্ cakárt.

d. These rules are said by the grammarians to apply to the 2d sing. always when it has simple tha as ending; if it has itha (below, 797), the accent is allowed to fall on any one of the syllables of the word, and the root-syllable if unaccented has sometimes the weak form (namely, in contracted stems with e for medial a: below, 794 e; and in certain other verbs: thus, vivijithá.

The earlier language, however, appears to afford no example of a 2d sing., whatever its ending, accented on any other than the radical syllable, or failing to conform to the rules of strengthening as given above (in a, b, c).

- e. Sporadic instances of a strengthening in other than the singular persons are found in RV.: thus, yuyopimā, viveçus. And the roots cr, pr, and dr 'tear' are said by the grammarians to have the strong stem in the weak forms; and jr 'decay' to be allowed to do the same.
- f. The root mrj has (as in the present-system: 627) vrddhi instead of guna in strong forms: thus, $mam\acute{a}rja$; and γguh (also as in present: 745 c) has \bar{u} instead of o.

794. As regards the weakening in weak forms:

- a. It has been seen above (783b) that roots beginning with i or u fuse reduplicating and radical syllable together to $\bar{\imath}$ or \bar{u} in the weak forms; and (784) that roots contracting va and ya to u or i in the reduplication do it also in the root in weak forms, the two elements here also coalescing to \bar{u} or $\bar{\imath}$.
- b. A few roots having ya and va after a first initial consonant, and reduplicating from the semivowel (785), contract the ya and va to i and u: thus, vivic from $\bigvee vyac$, vividh from $\bigvee vyadh$, susup from $\bigvee svap$. The extended roots $jy\bar{u}$, $py\bar{u}$, $vy\bar{u}$, $cy\bar{u}$, $hv\bar{u}$ show a similar apparent contraction, making their weak forms from the simpler roots ji, $p\bar{i}$, $v\bar{i}$, $c\bar{u}$, $h\bar{u}$, while $hv\bar{u}$ must and $cv\bar{u}$ may get their strong forms also from the same (and it is questionable whether from the others strong forms occur).
- c. The root grabh or grah (if it be written thus) contracts to grh, making the three forms of stem $jagr\acute{a}h$ (1st and 2d sing. act.), $jagr\acute{a}h$ (3d), and jagrh; but prach (if it be so written) remains unchanged throughout.
- d. A number of roots having medial a between single consonants drop that vowel. These are, in the later language, gam, khan, jan, han, ghas: they form the weak stems jagm, jakhn, $jaj\tilde{n}$, jaghn (compare 637), jaks (compare 640): but RV. has once jajanus.

In the old language are found in like manner $mamn\bar{u}the$ and $mamn\bar{u}te$ from γman ; $vavn\acute{e}$ from γvan ; $vavn\acute{e}$ from van; $vavn\acute{e}$ from van; $vavn\acute{e}$ from van; $vavn\acute{e}$ from van; van; van van

e. Roots in general having medial a before a single final consonant, and beginning also with a single consonant that is repeated unchanged in the reduplication — that is, not an aspirate, a guttural mute, or h — contract their root and reduplication together into one syllable, having e as its vowel: thus, \sqrt{sad} forms the weak stem sed, \sqrt{pac} forms pec, \sqrt{yam} forms yem; and so on.

Certain roots not having the form here defined are declared by the grammarians to undergo the same contraction — most of them optionally;

and examples of them all are of rare occurrence (of one only, bhaj, quotable from the older language). They are as follows: $r\bar{a}j$ (occurs in MBh.) and $r\bar{a}dh$ (radh?), notwithstanding their long vowel; phan, phal, bhaj (occurs in RV. etc.), though their initial is changed in reduplication; trap, tras (occurs in MBh.), syam, svan, though they begin with more than one consonant; dambh (forming debh from the weaker dabh), though it ends with more than one; and bhram (occurs in KSS.), bhrāj, granth, cranth, svañj, in spite of more reasons than one to the contrary.

This contraction is allowed also in 2d sing, act, when the ending is ithâ: thus, tenitha beside tatantha (but no examples are quotable from the older language).

The roots eae and dad (from $d\bar{a}$: 672) are said to reject the contraction: but no perfect forms of either appear to have been met with in use.

From vtr (or tar) occurs terus (R.); and jerus from vtr is authorized by the grammarians — both against the general analogy of roots in r.

- f. Roots ending in \bar{a} lose their \bar{a} before all endings beginning with a vowel, including those that assume the union-vowel i (796) unless in the latter case it be preferable to regard the i as a weakened form of the \bar{a} .
- 795. Endings, and their union with the stem. The general scheme of endings of the perfect indicative has been already given (553); and it has also been pointed out (543) that roots ending in \overline{a} have \overline{a} $\overline{a}u$ in 1st and 3d sing. active.
- (796. Those of the endings which begin with a consonant namely য tha, য va, ম ma in active; ম se, বই vahe, মই mahe, ই dhve, ই re in middle are very often, and in the later language usually, joined to the base with the help of an interposed union-vowel \ i.

The union-vowel i is found widely used also in other parts of the general verbal system: namely, in the sibilant aorist, the futures, and the verbal nouns and adjectives (as also in other classes of derivative stems). In the later language, a certain degree of correspondence is seen among the different parts of the same verb, as regards their use or non-use of the connective; but this correspondence is not so close that general rules respecting it can be given with advantage; and it will be best to treat each formation by itself.

The perfect is the tense in which the use of i has established itself most widely and firmly in the later language.

797. The most important rules as to the use of ξ *i* in the later language are as follows:

- a. The 7 re of 3d pl. mid. has it always.
- b. The other consonant-endings, except a tha of 2d sing. act., take it in nearly all verbs.

But it is rejected throughout by eight verbs — namely kr 'make', bhr 'bear', sr 'go', vr 'choose', dru 'run', cru 'hear', stu 'praise', sru 'flow'; and it is allowably (not usually) rejected by some others, in general accordance with their usage in other formations.

c. In 2d sing. act., it is rejected not only by the eight verbs just given, but also by many others, ending in vowels or in consonants, which in other formations have no ξ i; but it is also taken by many verbs which reject it in other formations; — and it is optional in many verbs, including those in Ξn \bar{a} (of which the Ξn \bar{a} is lost when the ending is Ξn itha), and most of those in Ξ i, $\bar{\xi}$ $\bar{\imath}$, and Ξ u.

The rules of the grammarians, especially as regards the use of tha or itha, run out into infinite detail, and \overline{a} re not wholly consistent with one another; and, as the forms are by no means frequent, it is not possible at present to criticise the statements made, and to tell how far they are founded on the facts of usage.

With this i, a final radical i or $\bar{\imath}$ is not combined, but changed into y or iy. The \bar{u} of $\sqrt{bh\bar{u}}$ becomes $\bar{u}v$ throughout before a vowel.

798. In the older language, the usage is in part quite otherwise. Thus:

a. In the RV., the union-vowel i is taken by roots ending in consonants provided the last syllable of the stem is a heavy one, but not otherwise: thus, $\acute{a}sitha$, $uv\acute{c}citha$, $viv\acute{e}ditha$, but $tat\acute{a}ntha$ and $vivy\acute{a}ktha$; $\bar{u}cim\acute{a}$, paptima, sedima, $yuyopim\acute{a}$, but jaganma and yuyujma; $\bar{u}cis\acute{e}$, $jaj\~{n}is\acute{e}$, $sas\~{a}his\acute{e}$, but $vivits\acute{e}$ and $dad\r{r}ks\acute{e}$; $bubhujm\acute{a}he$ and $c\~{a}cadmahe$ etc. (no examples of ivahe or imahe chance to occur, nor any of either idhve or dhve); $ijir\acute{e}$, $jaj\~{n}ir\acute{e}$, $yetir\acute{e}$, $tataksir\acute{e}$, but $c\~{a}klpr\acute{e}$, $vividr\acute{e}$, $duduhr\acute{e}$, $pasprdhr\acute{e}$, $tatasr\acute{e}$ (and so on: twenty-two forms). The only exception in RV. is $v\'{e}ttha$ from v'vid, without i (in Br., also $\~{a}ttha$ from v'ah: below, v'ah. The other Vedic texts present nothing inconsistent with this rule, but in the Br $\~{a}$ hmanas v'ad v'allables also: thus, v'asv'allables also: thus, v'asv'allables also: thus, v'asv'allables also: thus, v'asv'allables.

b. In roots ending with a vowel, the early usage is more nearly like the later. Thus: for roots in \bar{a} the rule is the same (except that no 2d sing. in *itha* is met with), as $dadhim\hat{a}$, $dadhis\hat{\epsilon}$, $dadhidhv\hat{\epsilon}$, $dadhir\hat{\epsilon}$ (the only persons with i quotable from RV. and AV.); — roots in r appear also to follow

the later rule: as cakṛṣé, papṛṣe, vavṛṣé, vavṛmáhe, but dadhriṣe and jabhriṣe, and in 3d pl. mid. both cakriré and dadhrire; — $Vbh\bar{u}$ has both babhatha (usually) and babhavitha, but only babhavima (AV.). But there are found against the later rules, suṣuma, cicyuṣe, juhuré, and juhūré, without i: the instances are too few to found a rule upon.

- 799. The ending riré of 3d pl. mid. is found in RV. in six forms: namely, cikitrire, jagrbhriré, dadrire, bubhujriré, vividrire, sasrjrire; to which SV. adds duduhrire.
- 800. Examples of inflection. By way of illustration of the rules given above, may be given in full the perfect indicative inflection of the following verbs:
- a. As example of the normal inflection of a root with final consonant, we take the root बुध् budh, 'know': its strong form of perfect-stem is बुबाध् bubódh; weak form, बुब्ध् bubudh.

s. d. p. s. d. p.

agiu agiua agiua agiua agiua agiua agiuare agiuare bubódha bubudhivá bubudhimá bubudhé bubudhiváhe bubudhimáhe

agiua agiua agiua agiua agiua agiua agiua agiua agiua bubódhitha bubudháthus bubudhá bubudhisé bubudháthe bubudhidhvé

agiu agiua agiua agiua agiua agiua agiur
bubódha bubudhátus bubudhús bubudhé bubudháte bubudhiré

The asserted variety of possible accent in 2d sing. act. (above, 793 d)

The asserted variety of possible accent in 2d sing. act. (above, $793\,d$) needs to be noted both in this and in the remaining paradigms.

- b. As example of the normal inflection of a root with final i or u-vowel, we may take the root নী $n\bar{\imath}$, 'lead': its forms of stem are নিন্যু $nin\acute{a}y$ or নিনাযু $nin\acute{a}y$, and নিনী $nin\bar{\imath}$.
- 1 निनय, निनाय निन्यिव निन्यिम निन्ये निन्यिवके निन्यिमके nináya, nináya ninyivá ninyimá ninyé ninyiváhe ninyimáhe
- 2 निनेय, निनयिय निन्ययुम् निन्य निन्यिषे निन्याये निन्यिधे ninétha, nináyitha ninyáthus ninyá ninyisé ninyáthe ninyidhvé
- 3 निनाय निन्यतुम् निन्युम् निन्यो निन्याते निन्यिरे nináya ninyátus ninyús ninyé ninyáte ninyiré

The root $kr\bar{\imath}$ would make in weak forms $cikriyiv\acute{a}$, $cikriy\acute{a}tus$, $cikriy\acute{a}s$, etc.; $\sqrt{bh\bar{\imath}}$ makes $babh\acute{a}va$, $babh\acute{a}tha$ (V.) or $babh\acute{a}vitha$,

 $babh\bar{u}viv\acute{a}$, $babh\bar{u}vi\acute{s}$; $babh\bar{u}v\acute{e}$, $babh\bar{u}vir\acute{e}$, etc.; other roots in \bar{u} or u change this to uv before the initial vowel of an ending.

c. As example of the inflection of a root ending in π \bar{a} , we may take $\bar{\epsilon}$ \bar{l} \bar{d} \bar{d} (rigive': its forms of stem are $\bar{\epsilon}$ \bar{l} \bar{l}

| 1 | द्दी | द्दिव | | | दिवके | |
|---|---------------------|---------------|--------------|-----------------------------|--------------|--------------------|
| | $dadar{a}\acute{u}$ | dadivá | dadim s | $dad\acute{e}$ | $dadiv\'ahe$ | dadimáhe |
| 2 | द्दाय, द्दिय | ददघुम् | दद | | ददाघे | |
| | dadatha, daditha | dadáthus | $dadcute{a}$ | $dadi$ $\acute{s}\acute{e}$ | dadathe | $dadidhv\acute{e}$ |
| 3 | द्दी | ददतुम् | दडस् | ददे | द्दाते | दिरि |
| | $dadar{a}u$ | dadátus | dadús | $dad\acute{e}$ | dadlpha'te | dadiré |
| | The RV. has once | paprlpha' for | paprāú (a | nd jahá | for jahāú?) | |

d. As example of a root with medial হা a showing fusion of root and reduplication, resulting in medial হ e, in the weak forms (794e), we may take নন্ tan, 'stretch': its forms of stem are ননন্ tatán or ননান্ tatán, and নন্ ten.

| 1 | ततन, ततान | तेनिव | तेनिम | तेने | तेनिवक् | तिनिमक्टे |
|---|-------------------|----------------|----------------|----------------|-----------------|--------------|
| | tatána, tatána | $tenivcute{a}$ | $tenimcute{a}$ | $ten\acute{e}$ | $teniv\'ahe$ | $tenim\'ahe$ |
| 2 | ततन्य, तेनिय | तेनयुम् | तेन | | तेनावे | |
| | tatántha, tenithá | tenáthus | tená | tenișé | $ten \nota the$ | $tenidhv\'e$ |
| 3 | กกาา | तेनतुम् | तेनुम् | तेने | तेनाते | तेनिरे |
| | tatana | tenátus | tenús | $ten\acute{e}$ | $ten\dot{a}te$ | tenirė |

The root jan, with the others which expel medial a in weak forms (794 d), makes jajántha or jajňithá, jajňivá, jajňús; jajňé, jajňimáhe, jajňiré; and so on.

e. As example of a root with initial $\exists va$ contracted to $\exists u$ in the reduplication, and contracted with the reduplication to $\exists \bar{u}$ in weak forms (784), we may take $\exists \bar{u}$ vac, 'speak': its forms of stem are $\exists a \bar{u} uv\dot{a}c$ or $\exists a \bar{u} uv\dot{a}c$, and $\exists \bar{u} \bar{u}c$.

| 1 | | ऊचिव | ऊचिम | | ऊचिवहे | |
|---|---------------------------------|---------------------|----------------|---------------------|-------------------|-----------------------|
| | $uv\acute{a}ca,\;uv\acute{a}ca$ | $ar{u}civcute{a}$ | $ar{u}cimlpha$ | | $ar{u}$ civá he | |
| 2 | उवक्य, उवचिय | | | | <u> ज्</u> चाये | |
| | uváktha, uvácitha | ar u c lpha t h u s | $ar{u}clpha$ | $ar u cis \acute e$ | $ar{u}clpha'the$ | $ar{u}cidhv\acute{e}$ |

3 उवाच जचतुम् जचुम् जचे जचाते जचिरे uvāca ūcátus ūcús ūcé ūcáte ūciré

In like manner, $\bigvee yaj$ forms $iy\dot{a}ja$ or $iy\dot{a}ja$, $iy\dot{a}stha$ or $iy\dot{a}jitha$; $i\dot{y}\dot{e}$, $i\dot{y}\dot{e}s\dot{e}$, and so on; $\bigvee uc$ has $uv\dot{c}ca$ and $uv\dot{c}citha$ in the strong forms, and all the rest like vac.

- f. Of the four roots in \mathbb{R} ? mentioned at 797b, the first persons are made as follows:

Of the roots in π r in general, the first persons are made as follows:

- 1 द्धर, द्धार द्धिव द्धिम द्धे द्धिवक् द्धिमके dadhára,dadhára dadhrivá dadhrimá dadhré dadhriváhe dadhrimáhe
- 801. A few miscellaneous irregularities call still for notice:
- a. The root ah, 'speak', occurs only in the perfect indicative, and only in the 3d persons of all numbers and in the 2d sing. and du., in active (and in 2d sing. the h is irregularly changed to t before the ending): thus, $\bar{a}ttha$, $\dot{a}ha$; $\bar{a}hathus$, $\bar{a}hatus$; $\bar{a}his$ (in V., only $\dot{a}ha$ and $\bar{a}his$ are met with).
- b. From $\gamma v \bar{a}$ 'weave', the 3d pl. act. $\bar{u}vus$ occurs in RV., and no other perfect form appears to have been met with in use. It is allowed by the grammarians to be inflected regularly as $v\bar{a}$; and also as vay (the present-stem is $v\hat{a}ya: 761 \, d, 2$), with contraction of va to u in weak forms; and further, in the weak forms, as simple u.
- c. The root $vy\bar{a}$, 'hide', has in RV. the perfect-forms vivyathus and $vivy\ell$, and no others appear to have been met with in use; the grammarians require the strong forms to be made from vyay, and the weak from $v\bar{\imath}$.
- d. The root i, 'go', forms in RV. and AV. the 2d sing. act. $iy\acute{a}tha$ beside the regular $iy\acute{e}tha$.
- e. The AV. has once $v\bar{a}vrdh\acute{e}te$ (for $-dh\acute{a}te$), and once jaharus (for jahrus): both are perhaps false readings.
- f. Persons of the perfect from the ir-forms of roots in changeable r (242) are titirus and tistire (both RV.); and they have corresponding participles.
- g. The bastard root $\bar{u}rnu$ (712) is said by the grammarians to make the perfect-stem $\bar{u}rnunu$.
 - h. The roots majj and nac are said to insert a nasal in the 2d sing.

active, when the ending is simple tha: thus, mamanktha, nananstha (also mamajjitha and necitha).

i. The anomalous ajagrabhāiṣam (AB. vi. 35) seems a formation on the perfect-stem (but perhaps for ajigrabhiṣan, desid.?).

Perfect Participle.

802. The ending of the active participle is বান্ váns (that is to say, in the strong forms: it is contracted to তথ্ is in the weakest, and replaced by বন্ vát in the middle forms: see above, 458 ff.). It is added to the weak form of the perfect stem — as shown, for example, in the dual and plural of the active inflection of the given verb; and, mechanically, the weakest participle-stem is identical with the 3d pl. active. Thus, ব্ৰুঘান্ bubudhváns, নিনীবান্ ninīváns, বন্বান্ cakṛváns.

803. If the weak form of the perfect stem is monosyllabic, the ending takes the union-vowel ξ i (which, however, disappears in the weakest cases): thus, तिनवाम् $teniv\acute{a}ns$, उचिवाम् $uciv\acute{a}ns$, जिन्नवाम् $jajniv\acute{a}ns$, आदिवाम् $adiv\acute{a}ns$ (from \sqrt{n} श्वद् ad: 783a), and so on; दिवाम् $dadiv\acute{a}ns$ and its like, from roots in ह्या \bar{a} , is to be reckoned in the one class or the other according as we view its ξ i as weakened root-vowel or as union-vowel (794 f).

But participles of which the perfect-stem is monosyllabic by absence of the reduplication do not take the union-vowel: thus, $vidv\acute{a}ns$, and, in V., $d\bar{a}_{\bar{v}}v\acute{a}ns$, $m\bar{\iota}dhv\acute{a}ns$, $s\bar{\iota}hv\acute{a}ns$; and RV. has also $dadv\acute{a}ns$ (AV. $dadiv\acute{a}ns$ and once $dad\bar{u}v\acute{a}ns$) from $\sqrt{d\bar{a}}$ (or dad: 672) and AV. has $viciv\acute{a}ns$ and $varjiv\bar{a}ns$ (in negative fem. $\acute{a}varjus\bar{\iota}$).

804. Other Vedic irregularities calling for notice are few. The long vowel of the reduplication (786) appears in the participle as in the indicative: thus, $v\bar{a}vrdhv\dot{a}n\dot{s}$, $s\bar{a}sahv\dot{a}n\dot{s}$, $j\bar{u}juv\dot{a}n\dot{s}$. RV. and AV. have $sasav\dot{a}n\dot{s}$ from γsan or $s\bar{a}$. RV. makes the participlal forms of γtr or tar from different modifications of the root: thus, $titirv\dot{a}n\dot{s}$, but $tatar\dot{a}sas$. Respecting the occasional exchanges of strong and weak stem in inflection, see above, 462 c.

805. From roots gam and han the Veda makes the strong stems $jaganv\acute{a}ns$ (as to the n, see 212) and $jaghanv\acute{a}ns$; the later language allows either these or the more regular $jagmiv\acute{a}ns$ and $jaghniv\acute{a}ns$ (the weakest stem-forms being everywhere $jagm\acute{u}s$ and $jaghn\acute{u}s$).

806. From three roots, vid 'find', viç, and dṛç, the later language allows strong participle-stems to be made with the union-vowel, as well as in the regular manner without it: thus, viviçiváns or viviçváns. PB. has once cichidivāns.

807. The ending of the middle participle is ānā. It is added to the weak form of perfect-stem, as this appears in the middle inflection: thus, বুবুঘান bubudhānā, নিন্মান ninyānā, হ্যান dadānā, নিনান tenānā, রন্নান jajñānā, ক্রান ūcānā.

In the Veda, the long reduplicating vowel is shown by many middle participles: thus, $v\bar{a}vrdh\bar{a}n\acute{a}$, $v\bar{a}vas\bar{a}n\acute{a}$, $d\bar{a}drh\bar{a}n\acute{a}$, $c\bar{u}cuv\bar{a}n\acute{a}$, etc. RV. has $cacay\bar{a}n\acute{a}$ from $\sqrt{c\bar{c}}$ (with irregular guna, as in the present-system: 629); $tistir\bar{a}n\acute{a}$ from \sqrt{str} ; and once, with $m\bar{a}na$, $sasrm\bar{a}n\acute{a}$ from \sqrt{str} .

Modes of the Perfect.

808. Modes of the perfect belong only to the Vedic language, and are even rarely found outside of the Rig-Veda.

To draw the line surely and distinctly between these and the mode-forms from other reduplicated tense-stems — the present-stem of class II., the reduplicated aorist, and the intensive — is not possible, since no criterion of form exists which does not in some cases fail, and since the general equivalence of modal forms from all stems (582), and the common use of the perfect as a present in the Veda (823), deprive us of a criterion of meaning. There can be no reasonable doubt, however, that a considerable body of forms are to be reckoned here: optatives like $\bar{a}nacy\bar{a}m$ and $babh\bar{u}y\bar{a}s$ and $babh\bar{u}y\bar{a}t$, imperatives like $babh\bar{u}tu$, subjunctives like $jabh\bar{a}rat$, show such distinctive characteristics of the perfect formation that by their analogy other similar words are confidently classed as belonging to the perfect.

809. The normal method of making such forms would appear to be as follows: from a reduplicated perfect-stem, as (for example) mumuc, an imperative would be made by simply appending, as usual, the imperative endings; the derived subjunctive mode-stem would be $mum\delta ca$ (accented after the analogy of the strong forms of the perfect indicative), and would take either primary or secondary endings; and the optative modestems would be $mumucy\dot{a}$ in the active, and $mumuc\bar{\imath}$ (accent on personal endings) in the middle.

And the great majority of the forms in question (about three quarters) are made in these ways. Thus:

810. Examples of the regular subjunctive formation are:

a. with secondary endings, active: 2d sing., papráthas, māmáhas, pipráyas, bubodhas; 3d sing., jabhárat, sāsáhat, paspárçat, pipráyat, cikétat;

1st pl., tatánāma, çūçûvāma; 3d pl., tatánan, papráthan (other persons do not occur). This is the largest class of cases.

- b. with primary endings, active: here seem to belong only dadharshati and vavartati: compare the formation with different accent below, 811 a.
- c. of middle forms occur only the 3d sing. tatapate, cacamate, yuyojate, jujosate (SV.; RV. has jujosate); and the 3d pl. tatananta (and perhaps two or three others: below, 811 b, end).
 - 811. But not a few subjunctives of other formation occur; thus:
- a. with strengthened root-syllable, as above, but with accent on the reduplication (as in the majority of present-forms of the reduplicating class: above, 645). Here the forms with primary endings, active, preponderate, and are not very rare: for example, jújosasi, jújosati, jújosathas, jújosatha (other persons do not occur). With secondary endings, jújosas, jújosat, and jújosan are the forms that belong most distinctly here (since dádāças and súsūdas etc. are perhaps rather aorists). And there is no middle form but jújosate (RV.: see above, 810 c).
- b. with unstrengthened root-syllable occur a small body of forms, which are apparently also accented on the reduplication (accented examples are found only in 3d pl. mid.): thus, active, for example, mumucas; vavṛtat, vividat, cūçuvat; the only middle forms are dadhṛṣate, vāvṛdhate, 3d sing.; and cākramanta, dādhṛṣanta, rūrucanta (with dadabhanta, paprathanta, māmahanta, juhuranta, which might also belong elsewhere: 810 c).
- c. accented on the ending are $v\bar{a}vrdh\hat{a}nta$ and $cakrp\hat{a}nta$ (which are rather to be called augmentless pluperfects).

As to forms with double mode-sign, or transfers to an a-conjugation, see below, 815.

812. Examples of the regular optative formation are:

a. in active: 1st sing., ānacyām, jagamyām, paproyām, riricyām; 2d sing., vavṛtyās, viviçyās, cucrūyás, babhūyās; 3d sing., jagamyāt, vavṛtyāt, tutujyát, babhūyát; 2d du., jagamyātam, cucrūyátam; 1st pl., sāsahyāma, vavṛtyāma, cūcuyāma; 3d pl., tatanyus, vavṛtyus. The forms are quite numerous.

b. in middle, the forms are few: namely, 1st sing., vavṛtīya; 2d sing., vāvṛdhīthás, cakṣamīthās; 3d sing., jagrasīta, vavṛtīta, māmṛjīta, cucucīta; 1st pl., vavṛtīmahi. And sāsahīṣṭhās and ririṣīṣṭa appear to furnish examples of precative optative forms.

There is no irregular mode of formation of perfect optatives. Individual irregularities are shown by certain forms: thus, $cakriy\bar{u}s$, $pap\bar{\imath}y\bar{u}t$, $cucr\bar{u}y\dot{a}s$ and $cucr\bar{u}y\dot{a}tam$, with treatment of the final as before the passive-sign $y\dot{a}$ (770); $anajy\bar{u}t$ with short initial; $jak\bar{\imath}\bar{\imath}y\bar{a}t$ is anomalous; $riri\bar{\imath}ses$ is the only form that shows a union-vowel a.

813. Of regular imperative forms, only a very small number are to be quoted: namely, active, cikiddhi, mumugdhi, cucugdhi, and piprihi; mumoktu and babhūtu; mumuktam and vavrktam; jujustana and vavrttana (unless we

are to add mamaddhí, mamattu, mamáttana); — middle, vavṛtsva and vavṛddhvam.

- 814. As irregular imperatives may be reckoned several which show a union-vowel a, or have been transferred to an a-conjugation. Such are, in the active, mumócatam and jujosatam (2d du.), and mumócata (2d pl.); in the middle, pipráyasva (only one found with accent), and mümahasva, vāvṛdh-asva, vāvṛsasva (2d sing.), and māmahantūm (3d pl.: probably to be accented -ásva and -ántūm).
- 815. Such imperatives as these, taken in connection with some of the subjunctives given above (and a few of the "pluperfect" forms: below, 820), suggest as plausible the assumption of a double present-stem, with reduplication and added a (with which the desiderative stems would be comparable: below, chap. XIV.): for example, jujosa from Vjus, from which would come jújosasi etc. and jújosate (811 a) as indicative, jújosas etc. as subjunctively used augmentless imperfect, and jujosatam as imperative. Most of the forms given above as subjunctives with primary ending lack a marked and constant subjunctive character, and would pass fairly well as indicatives. And it appears tolerably certain that from one root at least, vrdh, such a double stem is to be recognized; from vāvrdha come readily vāvrdhate, vāvrdhanta, and from it alone can come regularly $v\bar{a}vrdhasva$, $v\bar{a}vrdh\acute{e}te$ (above, 801e), and vāvrdhāti (once, RV.) — and, yet more, the participle vavrdhánt (once, RV.: an isolated case): yet even here we have also $v\bar{a}vrdh\bar{\imath}th\dot{\alpha}s$, not $v\bar{a}vrdh$ éthas. To assume double present-stems, however, in all the cases would be highly implausible; it is better to recognize the formation as one begun, but not carried out.

Only one other subjunctive with double mode-sign — namely, $paprc\bar{a}si$ — is found to set beside $v\bar{a}vrdh\bar{a}ti$.

816. Forms of different model are not very seldom made from the same root: for example, from Vmuc, the subjunctives $mum\acute{o}cas$, $m\'{u}mocati$, and mumucas; from Vdhrs, $dadh\'{a}rsati$ and $dadh\r{r}sate$; from $Vpr\bar{\imath}$, the imperatives $pipr\'{i}h\'{\iota}$ and $pipr\'{a}yasva$.

Pluperfect.

817. Of an augment-preterit from the perfect-stem, to which the name of pluperfect is given on the ground of its formation (though not of its meaning), the Veda presents a few examples; and one or two forms of the later language (mentioned above, 788, end) have also been referred to it.

There is something of the same difficulty in distinguishing the pluperfect as the perfect-modes from kindred reduplicated formations. Between it and the aorist, however, a difference of meaning helps to make a separation.

818. The normal pluperfect should show a strong stem in the singular active, and a weak one elsewhere — thus, mumoc and mumuc — with augment prefixed and secondary endings added (us in 3d pl. act., ata in 3d pl. mid.).

Of forms made according to this model, we have, in the active: 1st sing., ajagrabham and acacakṣam (which, by its form, might be acrist: 860); 2d sing. ájagan; 3d sing., ajagan and aciket; 2d du., amumuktam; 2d pl. ajaganta, and ajagantana and ajabhartana (a strong form, as so often in this person: 556); 3d pl. (perhaps), amamandus and amamadus. To these may be added the augmentless cikétam and cakaram. In the middle, the 3d pl. acakriran and ajagmiran (with iran instead of ata), and the augmentless 2d sing. jugūrthās and suṣupthās, are the most regular forms to be found.

- 819. Several forms from roots ending in consonants save the endings in 2d and 3d sing. act. by inserting an $\tilde{\imath}$ (555 b): thus, ábubhojīs, aviveçīs; arirecīt, ájagrabhīt (avāvarīt and avāvaçītām are rather intensives); and the augmentless jíhinsīs (accent?) and dadharsīt belong with them.
- 820. A few forms show a stem ending in a: they are, in the active: 3d sing., asasvajat, acakrat; in the middle: 3d sing., ápiprata; 2d du., ápasprdhethām; 3d pl., atitviṣanta (which by its form might be aorist), ádadrhanta; and cakradat, cakrpánta, vāvrdhánta, juhuranta, would perhaps be best classified here as augmentless forms (compare 811, above).

Uses of the Perfect.

- 821. In the later language, the perfect is simply a preterit or past tense, equivalent to the imperfect, and interchangeable with it. Except as coming from a few often used verbs (especially $\bar{a}ha$ and $uv\bar{a}ca$), it is much more rarely employed than the imperfect.
- 822. In the Brāhmaṇa language, very nearly the same thing is true. In most Brāhmaṇas, the imperfect is the usual tense of narration, and the perfect only occasional; in the Çatapatha Brāhmaṇa, the perfect is much more widely used.
- 823. In the Veda, the case is very different. The perfect is used as past tense in narration, but only rarely; sometimes also it has a true "perfect" sense, or signifies a completed past; but oftenest it has a value not distinguishable in point of time from the present. It is thus the equivalent of imperfect, aorist, and present; and it occurs coördinated with them all.

Examples are: of perfect with present, nå crāmyanti nå vi muñcanty éte vâyo nå paptuh (RV.), 'they weary not nor stop, they fly like birds'; sé 'd u rājā kṣayati carṣaṇīnām arān nā nemih pāri tā babhūva (RV.), 'he in truth rules king of men; he embraces them all, as the wheel the spokes'; — of perfect with aorist, ûpo ruruce yuvatīr nā yōsā... ābhūd agnih samīdhe mānusānām ākar jyōtir bādhamānā tāmānsi (RV.), 'she is come beaming like a young maiden; Agni has appeared for the kindling of mortals; she hath made light, driving away the darkness'; — of perfect with imperfect, āhann āhim ānv apās tatarda (RV.), 'he slew the dragon, and penetrated to the waters'. This last combination is of constant occurrence in the later language.

Harma world yursels or a

CHAPTER XI.

THE AORIST SYSTEMS.

- 24. Under the name of a rist are included (as was pointed out above, 532) three quite distinct formations, each of which has its sub-varieties: namely,
- I. A SIMPLE-AORIST (equivalent to the Greek "second aorist"), analogous in all respects as to form and inflection with the imperfect. It has two varieties: 1. the root-aorist, with a tense-stem identical with the root (corresponding to an imperfect of the root-class, I.); 2. the a-aorist, with a tense-stem ending in Ξ \acute{a} , or with union-vowel Ξ a before the endings (corresponding to an imperfect of the \acute{a} -class, VII.).
- II. 3. A REDUPLICATED AORIST, perhaps in origin identical with an imperfect of the reduplicating class (II.), but having come to be separated from it by marked peculiarities of form. It usually has a union-vowel Ξ α before the endings, or is inflected like an imperfect of one of the α -classes; but a few forms occur in the Veda without such vowel.
- III. A SIBILANT-AORIST (corresponding to the Greek "first aorist"), having for its tense-sign a \mathbf{H} s added to the root, either directly or with a preceding auxiliary $\mathbf{\xi}$ i; its endings are usually added immediately to the tense-sign, but in a small number of roots with a union-vowel \mathbf{H} a; a very few roots also are increased by \mathbf{H} s for its formation; and according to these differences it falls into four varieties: namely, A. without union-vowel \mathbf{H} a before endings: 4. s-aorist, with \mathbf{H} s alone added to the root; 5. is-aorist, the same with interposed $\mathbf{\xi}$ i; 6. sis-aorist, the same as the preceding with \mathbf{H} s added at the end of the root; B. with union-vowel \mathbf{H} a, 7. sa-aorist.

825. All these varieties are bound together and made into a single complex system by certain correspondences of form and meaning. Thus, in regard to form, they are all alike, in the indicative, augment-preterits to which there does not exist any corresponding present; in regard to meaning, although in the later or classical language they are simply preterits, exchangeable with imperfects and perfects, they all alike have in the older language the general value of a completed past or "perfect", translatable by 'have done' and the like.

826. The aorist-system is a formation of very infrequent occurrence in the classical Sanskrit (its forms are found, for example, only twenty-one times in the Nala, eight in the Hitopadeça, seven in Manu, six each in the Bhagavad-Gītā and Çakuntalā), and it possesses no participle, nor any modes (excepting in the prohibitive use of its augmentless forms: see 580; and the so-called precative: see 921 ff.); in the older language, on the other hand, it is quite common, and has the whole variety of modes belonging to the present, and sometimes participles. Its description, accordingly, must be given mainly as that of a part of the older language, with due notice of its restriction in later use.

827. In the RV., nearly half the roots occurring show acrist forms, of one or another class; in the AV., rather less than one third; and in the other texts of the older language comparatively few acrists occur which are not found in these two.

More than fifty roots, in RV. and AV. together, make a rist forms of more than one class (not taking into account the reduplicated or "causative" aorist); but no law appears to underlie this variety; of any relation such as is taught by the grammarians, between active of one class and middle of another as correlative, there is no trace discoverable.

Examples are: of classes 1 and 4, $adh\bar{a}m$ and $dh\bar{a}sus$ from $\sqrt{dh\bar{a}}$, ayuji and ayukṣata from \sqrt{yyj} ; — of 1 and 5, agrabham and $agrabh\bar{i}sma$ from \sqrt{grabh} , $mrsih\bar{a}s$ and $marsisih\bar{a}s$ from \sqrt{mrs} ; — of 1 and 2, $\bar{a}rta$ and $\bar{a}rat$ from \sqrt{r} ; — of 2 and 4, avidam and avitsi from \sqrt{vid} 'find', anijam and $an\bar{a}iks\bar{i}t$ from \sqrt{nij} ; — of 2 and 5, $san\acute{e}ma$ and $as\bar{a}nisam$ from \sqrt{san} ; — of 2 and 7, aruham and aruksat from \sqrt{ruh} ; — of 4 and 5, amatsus and $am\bar{a}disus$ from \sqrt{mad} ; — of 4 and 6, $h\bar{a}smahi$ and $h\bar{a}sisus$ from $\sqrt{h\bar{a}}$; — of 1 and 2 and 4, atnata and atanat and $at\bar{a}n$ from \sqrt{tan} ; — of 1 and 4 and 5, abudhran and abhutsi and bodhisat from \sqrt{budh} , astar and strsiva and $astar\bar{i}s$ from \sqrt{str} . Often the second, or second and third, class is represented by only an isolated form or two.

I. Simple Aorist.

828. This is, of the three principal divisions of aorist, the one least removed from the analogy of forms already explained; it is like an imperfect, of the root-class or of the á-class, without a corresponding present indicative, but with (more or less fragmentarily) all the other parts which go to make up a complete present-system.

1. Root-aorist.

829. This formation is in the later language limited to a few roots in $\pi \bar{a}$ and the root $\pi bh\bar{u}$, and is allowed to be made in the active only, the middle using instead the s-aorist (4), or the $i\bar{s}$ -aorist (5).

The roots in द्या \bar{a} take उम् us as 3d pl. ending, and, as usual, lose their द्या \bar{a} before it; भू $bh\bar{u}$ (as in the perfect: 793 a) retains its vowel unchanged throughout, inserting \bar{a} v after it before the endings द्यम am and \bar{a} an of 1st sing. and 3d pl. Thus:

| | s. | d. | p. | s. | d. | p. |
|---|-----------------------|------------------------------|-----------------------|-----------------------------------|-------------------------------------|--|
| 1 | म्रदाम् | ग्रदाव | म्रदाम | अ भूवम् | ग्र भूव | ग्र भूम |
| | $\acute{a}d\bar{a}m$ | $\acute{a}d\bar{a}va$ | $\acute{a}d\bar{a}ma$ | $\acute{a} b h \bar{u} v a m$ | $\acute{a} b \grave{h} \bar{u} v a$ | $\acute{a}b\mathring{h}\overline{u}ma$ |
| 2 | म्रदास् | म्रदातम् | म्रदात | म्रभूम् | ग्र भूतम् | ग्रभूत |
| | $\acute{a}dar{a}s$ $$ | $\acute{a}d\bar{a}tam$ | $ad\bar{a}ta$ | $\acute{a} b \grave{h} \bar{u} s$ | $\acute{a} b h \bar{u} t a m$ | $\acute{a} b \grave{h} \bar{u} t a$ |
| 3 | ग्रदात् | ग्रदाताम् | ग्रइस् | ग्रभूत् | ग्रभूताम् | ग्रभूव न् |
| | $\acute{a}d\bar{a}t$ | $\acute{a}d\bar{a}t\bar{a}m$ | ádus ` | abhut | $\acute{a} b h \bar{u} t \bar{a} m$ | ábhūvan |

For the classical Sanskrit, this is the whole story.

830. In the Veda, these same roots are decidedly the most frequent and conspicuous representatives of the formation: especially the roots $g\bar{a}$, $d\bar{a}$, $dh\bar{a}$, $p\bar{a}$ 'drink', $sth\bar{a}$, $bh\bar{u}$; while sporadic forms are made from $j\tilde{n}\bar{a}$, $pr\bar{a}$, $s\bar{a}$, $h\bar{a}$. As to their middle forms, see below, **834 a**.

Instead of abhuvam, RV. has twice abhuvam.

831. But agrists of the same class are also made from a number of roots in r, and a few in i and u (short or long) — with, as required by the analogy of the tense with an imperfect of the root-class, guna-strengthening in the three persons of the singular.

Thus (in the active), from γcru , acravam and acrot; from γcri , acras and acret; from γkr 'make', akaram and akar (for akars and akar-t); from

vr 'enclose', āvar (585); and so adar, astar, aspar. Dual and plural forms are much less frequent than singular; but for the most part they also show an irregular strengthening of the root-vowel: thus (including augmentless forms); akarma and akarta, vartam, spartam, ahema and ahetana, bhema, homa, açravan; regular are only avran, akran, ahyan, açriyan, and anītām.

832. Further, from a few roots with medial (or initial) vowel capable of *guna*-strengthening, and having in general that strengthening only in the singular.

Thus, abhet (2d and 3d sing.) from \(\nsigma\)bhid; amok (3d sing.) from \(\nsigma\)muc; avart from \(\nsigma\)vrt; vark from \(\nsigma\)vrj (AV. has once avrk); adarçam from \(\nsigma\)drc; and adrçan, avrjan, açvitan. But chedma, with guna, from \(\nsigma\)chid.

833. Again, from a larger number of roots with a as radical vowel:

Of these, gam (with n for m when final or followed by m: 143, 212) is of decidedly most frequent occurrence, and shows the greatest variety of forms: thus, agamam, agan (2d and 3d sing.), agamma, aganta (strong form), agman. The other cases are akran from \(\nu\)kram; atan from \(\nu\)tan; askan from \(\nu\)skand; \(\delta\)srat from \(\nu\)srais (? VS.); \(dak\) und \(daghma\) from \(\nu\)dagh; \(\overline{a}\) and \(ana\)stanf from \(\nu\)nac (?); \(aksan\) (for \(agh-san\), like \(agman\)) from \(\nu\)flas; and the 3d pll. in \(us\), \(\dag{a}k\)ramus, \(kramus\), \(kramus\), \(ayamus\), \(yamus\), \(using f.?): \(mand\)\(\overline{a}s\) and \(tak\)sus are perhaps rather to be reckoned as perfect forms without reduplication (790 b).

- 834. So far only active forms have been considered. In the middle, a considerable part of the forms are such as are held by the grammarians (881) to belong to the s-aorist, with omission of the s: they doubtless belong, however, mostly or altogether, here. Thus:
- a. From roots ending in vowels, we have adhith $\bar{a}s$ and adhita; adita and adimahi (and ad $\bar{a}mahi$ from $\sqrt{d\bar{a}}$ 'cut'); asthith $\bar{a}s$ and asthita and asthiran, forms of \bar{a} -roots (ar $\bar{a}dhvam$ is doubtless for ar $\bar{a}sdhvam$); of r-roots, akri, akrth $\bar{a}s$, akria, akr $\bar{a}t\bar{a}m$, akrata; avri, avrth $\bar{a}s$, avrta; \bar{a} rta (with augmentless arta), \bar{a} rata; mrth $\bar{a}s$, amrta; dhrth $\bar{a}s$, drth $\bar{a}s$, astrta; asprta; g \bar{u} rta; of i and u roots, the only examples are ahvi (?AV., once) and acidhvam. The absence of any analogies whatever for the omission of a s in such forms, and the occurrence of avri and akri and akrata, show that their reference to the s-aorist is without sufficient reason.
- b. As regards roots ending in consonants, the case is more questionable, since loss of s after a final consonant before $th\bar{a}s$ and ta (and, of course, dhvam) would be in many cases required by euphonic rule (233). We find, however, such unmistakable middle inflection of the root-aorist as ayuji, $ayukth\bar{a}s$, ayukta, ayujmahi, ayugdhvam, ayujran; $\bar{a}sta$ and $\bar{a}cata$; apadi (1st sing.) and apadmahi and apadran; amanmahi; aganmahi and agmata; atnata; ajani (1st sing.) and $aj\bar{n}ata$ (3d pl.); from \sqrt{gam} are made $agath\bar{a}s$ and agata, and from \sqrt{man} , amata, with treatment of the final like that of han in present inflection (637). The ending ran is especially frequent in

- 3d pl., being taken by a number of verbs which have no other person of this aorist: thus, agrbhran, asrgran, adrçran, abudhran, avrtran, ajusran, akrpran, asprdhran, avasran, aviçran; and ram is found beside ran in adrçram, abudhram, asrgram.
- c. From roots of which the final would combine with s to ks, it seems more probable that a rist-forms showing k (instead of s) before the ending belong to the root-aorist: such are amukthās (and amugdhvam), apṛkthās and apṛkta, abhakta, avṛkta, asakthās and asakta, rikthās, vikthās and vikta; aspaṣṭa, aṣṛṣṭa, mṛṣṭhās would be the same in either case.
- d. There remain, as cases of doubtful belonging: amatta, arabdha, asrpta, atapthās, chitthās, patthās, and nutthās.

Modes of the Root-aorist.

- 835. In subjunctive use, forms identical with the augmentless indicative of this agrist are much more frequent than the more proper subjunctives. Those to which no corresponding form with augment occurs have been given above; the others it is unnecessary to report in detail.
- 836. Of true subjunctives, the forms with primary endings are quite few. In the active, $g\bar{a}ni$ is the only example of 1st sing. (as to $bhuv\bar{a}ni$, see below); of 3d sing. occur $sth\bar{a}ti$, and $d\dot{a}ti$ and $dh\dot{a}ti$, which are almost indicative in use; of dual persons, $sth\dot{a}thas$, darcathas, cravathas and cravathas. In the middle, 3d sing. $idhat\dot{e}$ (? anomalous accent), 2d du. $dh\dot{e}the$ and $dh\bar{a}ithe$, and 1st pl. $dh\bar{a}mahe$.

Forms with secondary endings are, in the active, dârçam; târdas, pârcas, yâmas; karat, garat, daghat, yamat, yodhat, çrâvat, spârat, sâghat; dârçan, garan, yaman. No middle forms are classifiable with confidence here.

The series bhuvam, bhúvas, bhúvat, bhúvan, and $bhuv\bar{a}ni$ (compare abhuvam: 830, end), and the isolated crúvat, are of doubtful belongings; with a different accent, they would seem to be of the next class; here, a guna-strengthening would be more regular (but note the absence of guna in the aorist indicative and the perfect of $\sqrt{bh\bar{u}}$).

837. As regards the optative, we have to distinguish between pure optatives and optatives with s inserted before the endings, or precatives.

Pure optative forms, both active and middle, are made from a number of roots. From roots in \bar{a} occur in the active, with change of \bar{a} to e before the y, $dey\bar{a}m$, $dhey\bar{a}m$ and dheyus, $sthey\bar{a}ma$, and $j\tilde{n}ey\bar{a}s$ (which might also be precative); in the middle, only $s\bar{i}mahi$ and $dh\bar{i}mahi$ (which might be augmentless preterit, as $adh\bar{i}mahi$ also occurs once, and $adh\bar{i}t\bar{a}m$ once: but $\sqrt{dh\bar{a}}$ shows nowhere else conversion of its \bar{a} to long $\bar{\imath}$). From $bh\bar{u}$, $bh\bar{u}y\dot{a}s$ and $bh\bar{u}y\bar{a}t$ (possible precatives), and $bh\bar{u}y\bar{a}ma$. From roots in r, the middle forms $ar\bar{\imath}ta$, $mur\bar{\imath}ya$, $vur\bar{\imath}ta$. From roots ending in consonants, $acy\bar{a}m$ and $acy\bar{a}ma$ and $acy\bar{a$

838. Precative optative forms of this agrist active are in the later language allowed to be made from every verb (922). In RV., however, they do not occur from a single root which does not show also other agrist forms of the same class. They are, indeed, of very limited use: thus, in 3d sing. act. (ending in -yas for -yast), we find avyas, acyas, daghyas, bhūyās, yamyās, yūyās, vrjyās, crūyās, sahyās (RV. has no 3d sing. in -yāt); and besides these and the 2d sing. in yas (given in the preceding paragraph), which might be of either formation, occur in the active only bhūyāsam (beside bhūyāma) and kriyāsma, each once. In the middle, RV. furnishes the three forms grabhīsta, padīsta, mucīsta; nothing additional is found in any other text. From the AV. on, the active precative forms are more frequent than the pure optative (which are not wholly unknown, however); they are nowhere common, excepting as made from $\sqrt{bh\bar{u}}$; and from no other root is anything like a complete series of persons quotable (only bhūyāsva and bhūyāstām being wanting; and these persons having no representative from any root). Including the cases already given, they have been noticed as made from about twenty roots, as follows: crūyāsam etc., kriyāsam etc., priyāsam, bhriyāsam, saghyāsam, bhrājyāsam, udyāsam etc. (\(\nu vad\), rdhyāsam etc., rādhyāsam etc., badhyāsam etc., trpyāsma, jīvyāsam, pusyāsam etc. AV. has once bhūyāstha, with primary ending, but it is doubtless a false reading (TB. has -sta in the corresponding passage). TS. has didyāsam, from the quasi-root didi (676).

839. Imperative forms of the root-aorist are not rare in the early language. In the middle, indeed, almost only the 2d sing, occurs: it is accented either regularly, on the ending, as kṛṣvá, dhiṣvá, yukṣvá, or on the root, as mátsva, yáksva, vánsva, rásva, sáksva; māsva is not found with accent; the 2d pl. is represented by krdhvam, vodhvam. In the active, all the persons (2d and 3d) are found in use; examples are: 2d sing., kṛdhi, çrudhi, gadhi, yandhí, gahi, māhi, mogdhi; 3d sing., dātu, astu, sótu; 2d du., dātam, jitam, çrutam, bhūtám, spṛtám, gatam, riktám; 3d du., only gantām, vodhām; 2d pl., gātá, bhūtá, cruta, kṛta, gata, dhātana; 3d pl., only dhāntu, cruvantu. These are the most regular forms; but irregularities both as to accent and strengthening are not infrequent. Thus, strong forms in 2d du. and pl. are varktam, vartam; kárta, gánta, yanta, vartta, heta, cróta, sóta; and, with tana, kártana, gantana, yantana, sotana. Much more irregular are yódhi (instead of yuddhi) from Vyudh, and bodhi from both Vbudh and Vbhū (instead of buddhi and bhudhi). A single form (3d sing.) in tat is found, namely castat.

As to 2d persons singular in si from the simple root used in an imperative sense, see above, 624.

Participles of the Root-aorist.

840. In the oldest language, of the RV., are found a number of participles which must be reckoned as belonging to this formation.

In the active, they are extremely few: namely kránt, sthánt, and bhidánt, and probably rdhánt.

In the middle, they are much more numerous: examples are arānā, idhānā, krānā, juṣāṇā, dṛṣānā, pṛcānā, bhiyānā, vrāṇā, spṛdhānā, hiyānā.

Such formations are extremely rare in the later Veda and in the Brāhmana.

841. All together, the roots exhibiting in the older language forms which are with fair probability to be reckoned to the root-aorist-system are very nearly a hundred (more than ninety); about eighty of them make such forms in the RV.

Passive Aorist third person singular.

842. A middle third person singular, of peculiar formation and prevailingly passive meaning, is made from many verbs in the older language, and has become a recognized part of the passive conjugation, being, according to the grammarians, to be substituted always for the regular third person of any aorist middle that is used in a passive sense.

843. This person is formed by adding ξ *i* to the root, which takes also the augment, and is usually strengthened.

The ending i belongs elsewhere only to the first person; and this third person apparently stands in the same relation to a first in i as do, in the middle voice, the regular 3d sing. perfect, and the frequent Vedic 3d sing. present, which are identical in form with their respective first persons. That a fuller ending has been lost off is extremely improbable; and hence, as an aorist formation from the simple root, this is most properly treated here, in connection with the ordinary root-aorist.

844. Before the ending ξ *i*, a final vowel, and usually also a medial Ξ *a* before a single consonant, have the *vyddhi*-strengthening; other medial vowels have the *guṇa*-strengthening if capable of it (240); after final Ξ is added Ξ *y*.

Examples (all of them quotable from the older language) are: from roots ending in \bar{a} , $aj\bar{n}\bar{a}yi$, $adh\bar{a}yi$, $ap\bar{a}yi$; in other vowels, $acr\bar{a}yi$, $ast\bar{a}vi$, $ah\bar{a}vi$, $ak\bar{a}ri$, $ast\bar{a}ri$; — from roots with medial i, u, r, aceti, achedi, acesi, abodhi, amoci, acesi, adarci, asarji, varhi; from roots with medial a strengthened, $ag\bar{a}mi$, $ap\bar{a}di$, $ay\bar{a}mi$, $av\bar{a}ci$, $v\bar{a}pi$, $as\bar{a}di$ (these are all the earlier cases): with a unchanged, only acesi, acesi,

According to the grammarians, certain roots in am, and Vbadh, retain the a unchanged: thus, adami, abadhi; and there are noted besides, from roots sometimes showing a nasal, arambhi, aramdhi, ajambhi, $abha\bar{n}ji$ or $abha\bar{n}ji$, alambhi (always, with prepositions) or $al\bar{a}bhi$: CB. has $asa\bar{n}ji$.

Augmentless forms, as in all other like cases, are met with, with either indicative or subjunctive value: examples (besides the two or three already

given) are: dhấyi, crấvi, bhāri, reci, védi, roci, júni, pắdi, sắdi, ardhi. The accent, when present, is always on the root-syllable.

845. These forms are made in RV. from forty roots, and all the other earlier texts combined add only about fifteen to the number; in the later language they are (like all the kinds of aorist) very rare. When they come from roots of neuter meaning, like gam, pad, sad, bhrāj, sañj, etc., they have (like the so-called passive participle in ta: 952) a value equivalent to that of other middle forms; in a case or two (RV. vii. 73.3[?]; VS. xxviii. 15) they appear even to be used transitively.

2. The a-aorist.

846. This agrist is in the later language allowed to be made from a large number of roots (near a hundred). It is made in both voices, but is rare in the middle, most of the roots forming their middle according to the s-class (4) or the is-class (5).

Its closest analogy is with the imperfect of the \dot{a} -class (VII.); its inflection is the same with that in all particulars; and it takes in general a weak form of root — save the roots in π r (three or four only), which have the *guna*-strengthening.

As example of inflection may be taken the root सिच्sic, 'pour': thus,

middle. active. 🗓 ग्रसिचम् ग्रसिचाव श्रीसंचाम म्रामिचे. श्रासेचार्वाक श्रासेचामकि ásicam ásicāva $\acute{a}sic\bar{a}ma$ ásice ásicāvahi ásicāmahi म्रिमिचत 2 म्रिसिचस् म्रिसिचतम् म्रितिच्यास मिनेच्याम मिन्छम ásicatam ásicas ásicata $\acute{a}sicathar{a}s$ ásicethām ásicadhvam म्रिमिचत अिंसिचत् असिचताम् असिचन् ásicat

847. The a-aorist makes in the RV. a small figure beside the rootaorist, being represented by less than half the latter's number of roots. It becomes, however, more common later (it is the only form of aorist which is made from more verbs in AV. than in RV.); and in Veda and Brāhmaṇa together about seventy roots exhibit the formation more or less fully. Of these a large number (fully half) are of the type of the roots which make their present-system according to the a-class (VII.), having a vowel capable of guṇa-strengthening before a final consonant (753): thus, with i, chid, bhid, nij, pis,

ris, vid, 1cis $(c\bar{a}s)$, 2cis, cvit, sic, sridh; — with u, krudh, ksudh, dus, dyut, druh, pus, budh, bhuj, muc, mus, yuj, rudh, muh, ruh, cuc; — with r, rdh, krt, grdh, trp, trs, trh, drp, drc, mrs, vrj, vrt, vrdh, srp. A small number end in vowels: thus, r, kr, gr, sr (which have the guna-strengthening throughout), hi (? ahyat once in AV.), stu (? $stuvat\bar{u}m$, 3d sing. impv. mid., once in AV.); and several in \bar{a} , apparent transfers from the root-class by the weakening of their \bar{a} to a: thus, $khy\bar{a}$, $hv\bar{a}$, $vy\bar{a}$, $cv\bar{a}$, and (in RV. only) $d\bar{a}$ and $dh\bar{a}$. A few have a penultimate nasal in the present and elsewhere, which in this acrist is lost: thus, $bhra\dot{n}c$, $sra\dot{n}s$, krand, manth, randh. Of less classifiable character are kram, gam, tam, cam, cram, tan, van, san, sad, $r\bar{a}dh$, dabh, sap, $\bar{a}p$, $\bar{i}r$, das, cak. The anomalous $\bar{a}stham$ is the acrist of as 'throw'. The roots pat, nac, vac form the tense-stems papta, neca, voca, of which the first is palpably and the other two are probably the result of reduplication; but the language has lost the sense of their being such, and makes other reduplicated acrists (3) from the same roots (see below, 854).

848. The inflection of this agrist is in general so regular that it will be sufficient to give only examples of its Vedic forms. We may take as model avidam, from \(\psi \)vid 'find', of which the various persons and modes are more frequent and in fuller variety than those of any other verb. Only the forms actually quotable are instanced; those of which the examples found are from other verbs than vid are bracketed. Thus:

| | active. | | | middle. | | | |
|---|------------------|-----------------------|-----------|-----------------------|-------------|-------------------------|--|
| | s. | d. | p. | s. | d. | p. | |
| 1 | $\acute{a}vidam$ | $\acute{a}vid\~{a}va$ | avidama | $\acute{a}vide$ | [ávidāvahi] | $\acute{a}vidar{a}mahi$ | |
| 2 | $\acute{a}vidas$ | | [avidata] | $[lpha vidathar{a}s]$ | | | |
| 3 | $\acute{a}vidat$ | | ávidan | [avidata] | [avidetām] | $\acute{a}vidanta$ | |

The middle forms are rare in the earlier language, as in the later: we have ahve etc., akhye etc., avide (?) and avidanta, avocathas and avocavahi (and avidamahe GB. and asicamahe KB. are doubtless to be amended to mahi).

Augmentless forms, with indicative or subjunctive value, are not infrequent. Examples, showing accent on the tense-sign, according to the general analogies of the formation, are ruhâm, srpas, bhujât, vidât, aratām, vocata, çakan; vidata (3d sing.), arāmahi, çiṣāmahi, vidânta, budhânta, mṛṣanta (for exceptions as regards accent, see below, 853).

Modes of the a-aorist.

849. The subjunctive forms of this agrist are few; those which occur are instanced below, in the method which was followed for the indicative:

| 1 | | [vid a'va] | $vidar{a}ma$ | | $[vid\bar{a}mahe]$ |
|---|---|----------------|---------------|-------------|--------------------|
| 2 | $\begin{cases} vid\dot{a}si \\ vid\dot{a}s \end{cases}$ | $vidar{a}thas$ | $vidar{a}tha$ | | |
| 3 | $vid\dot{a}t$ | | | [vidātāi ?] | |

The ending thana is found once, in riṣāthana. Of middle forms occur only cṭṣūtāi (AV.: but doubtless misreading for cṭṣyātāi) and cɨṣāmahe (AV., for RV. cɨṣāmahi).

850. The optatives are few in the oldest language, but become more frequent, and in the Brāhmaṇas are not rare. Examples are: in active, vidéyam, sanéyam; vidés, games; gamet, vocet; gametam; çakéma, sanéma; vareta; in middle, (only) videya; gamemahi, vanemahi.

A single middle precative form occurs, namely videsta (AV., once); it is so isolated that how much may be inferred from it is very questionable.

851. A complete series of active imperative forms are made from \(\nslant^2\)sad (including \(sadatana\), 2d pl.), and the middle \(sadant\bar{u}m\). Other imperatives are very rare: namely, \(sataa\), \(ruha\); \(ruha\)tam, \(vid\)atam; \(khy\)ata; and, in middle, \(stuvat\bar{u}m\) (?).

Participles of the a-aorist.

852. The active participles tṛpánt, rudhánt, vṛdhánt, cịsánt, cucánt, huvánt, sávant, and (in participial compounds, 1309) kṛtant-, guhant-, vidant- (all RV.) are to be assigned with plausibility to this acrist.

Likewise the middle participles $vrdh\bar{a}n\acute{a}$, $sridh\bar{a}n\acute{a}$, $huv\bar{u}n\acute{a}$; and perhaps also $vip\bar{u}n\acute{a}$ and $cubh\bar{u}n\acute{a}$, although no personal forms corresponding to them occur.

Irregularities of the a-aorist.

853. A few irregularities and peculiarities may be noticed here.

The roots in r, which (847) show a strengthening like that of the present of the sixth or unaccented a-class, have also the accent on the radical syllable, like that class: thus, from V_I , $\acute{a}ranta$ (augmentless 3d pl.), $\acute{s}\acute{a}rat$ and $\acute{s}\acute{a}rat$. The root sad follows the same rule: thus, $\acute{s}\acute{a}datam$; and from $\surd san$ are found $\acute{s}\acute{a}nas$ and $\acute{s}\acute{a}nat$ and $\acute{s}\acute{a}nema$, beside $\acute{s}an\acute{e}yam$ and $\acute{s}an\acute{e}ma$. It is questionable whether these are not true analogues of the sixth-class (unaccented a-class) present-system. On the other hand, $\acute{r}\acute{u}hat$ (beside $\emph{ru}\acute{h}\acute{a}m$, $\emph{ru}\acute{h}\acute{a}va$, $\emph{ru}\acute{h}\acute{a}tam$) and $\emph{r}\acute{e}sat$ (only accented form) are anomalies. From $\surd vac$, the optative is accented $\emph{voc}\acute{e}yam$, $\emph{voc}\acute{e}ma$, $\emph{voc}\acute{e}yus$; elsewhere the accent is on the root-syllable: thus, $\emph{voc}e$, $\emph{voc}ati$, $\emph{voc}ati$, $\emph{voc}ati$

854. The stem voc has in Vedic use well-nigh assumed the value of a root; its forms are very various and of frequent use, in RV. especially far outnumbering in occurrences all other forms from γvac . Besides those already given, we find $voc\bar{a}$ (1st sing. impv.) and $voc\bar{a}ti$, $voc\bar{a}vah\bar{a}i$; voces, voceya, vocemahi; $vocat\bar{a}t$ (2d sing.), vocatu, vocatam, vocata.

Of the stem neça from \sqrt{na} only neçat occurs.

The root $c\bar{a}s$ (as in some of its present forms: 639) is weakened to cis, and makes acisam.

855. Isolated forms which have more or less completely the aspect of indicative presents are made from some roots beside the aorist-systems of the first two classes. It must be left for maturer research to determine how far they may be relics of original presents, and how far recent productions, made in the way of conversion of the aorist-stem to a root in value.

II. (3) Reduplicated Aorist.

856. The reduplicated aorist is different from the other forms of aorist in that it has come to be attached in almost all cases to the derivative (causative etc.) conjugation in AU áya, as the aorist of that conjugation, and is therefore liable to be made from all roots which have such a conjugation, beside the aorist or aorists which belong to their primary conjugation. Since, however, the connection of the two is no formal one (the aorist being made directly from the root, and not from the causative stem), but rather a matter of established association, owing to kinship of meaning, the formation and inflection of this kind of aorist is best treated here, along with the others.

857. Its characteristic is a reduplication of the radical syllable, by which it is assimilated, on the one hand, to the imperfect of the reduplicating class (II.), and, on the other hand, to the so-called pluperfect. But the agrist reduplication has taken on a quite peculiar character, with few traces left even in the Veda of a different condition which may have preceded this.

858. As regards, indeed, the consonant of the reduplication, it follows the general rules already given (590). And the quality of the reduplicated vowel is in general as in the formations already treated: it needs only to be noted that an a-vowel and r (or ar) are usually (for exceptions, see below, 860) repeated by an i-vowel — as they are, to a considerable extent, in the reduplicated present also (660).

But in regard to quantity, this aorist aims always at establishing a diversity between the reduplicating and radical syllables, making the one heavy and the other light. And the preference is very markedly for a heavy reduplication and a light root-syllable — which relation is brought about wherever the conditions allow. Thus:

859. If the root is a light syllable (having a short vowel followed by a single consonant), the reduplication is made heavy.

And this, usually by lengthening the reduplicating vowel, with $\bar{\imath}$ for radical a or r or l (in the single root containing that vowel): thus, $ar\bar{\imath}ri\bar{\imath}am$, $ad\bar{\imath}du\bar{\imath}am$, $a\bar{\jmath}ijanam$, $av\bar{\imath}vrdham$, $ac\bar{\imath}klpam$. The great majority of arrists are of this form.

If, however, the root begins with two consonants, so that the reduplicating syllable will be heavy whatever the quantity of its vowel, the vowel remains short: thus, aciksipam, acukrudham,

atitrasam, apisprçam.

860. If the root is a heavy syllable (having a long vowel, or a short before two consonants), the vowel of the reduplication is short: and, in this case Ξ α or Ξ $\bar{\alpha}$, and Ξ γ (if it occurs), are reduplicated by Ξ α .

Thus adidīkṣam, abubhūṣam, adadakṣam, adadhūvam, atatansam. And, in the rare cases in which a root both begins and ends with two consonants, both syllables are necessarily heavy, notwithstanding the short vowel in the former: thus, apapraccham, acaskandam (neither, apparently, found in use).

These agrists are not distinguishable in form from the so-called pluper-fects (817 $\rm ft$.).

In those cases in which (1047) an acrist is formed directly from a causal stem in $\bar{a}p$, the \bar{a} is abbreviated to i: thus, atisthip-am etc., ajijnipat, jihipas, ajijipata (but VS. ajijapata); but from

çrap comes açiçrapāma (ÇB.).

862. Examples of this agrist from roots with initial vowel are very rare; the older language has only $\bar{a}mamat$ (or amamat) from γam , and arpipam (augmentless) from the causative stem arp of γr — in which latter the root is excessively abbreviated. The grammarians give other similar formations, as $\bar{a}rcicam$ from γarc , $\bar{a}ubjijam$ from γubj , $\bar{a}rjiham$ from γarc , $\bar{a}ubjijam$ from γubj , $\bar{a}rjiham$ from γubj , $\bar{a}rdidham$ from γubj . Compare the similar reduplication in desiderative stems: 1029 b.

863. Of special irregularities may be mentioned:

From \sqrt{dyut} is made adidyutam (taking its reduplicating vowel from the y instead of the u); \sqrt{plu} makes apiplavam (CB. etc.).

Some verbs with radical a or r are by the grammarians allowed to reduplicate with either i (\bar{i}) or a, or even with a only. Others are allowed either to retain or shorten a long root-vowel. Details are unnecessary, the whole formation being so rare, and the forms instanced having never been met with in use.

As to apaptam, avocam, and aneçam, see above, 847.

864, The inflection of the reduplicated aorist is like that of an imperfect of the second general conjugation: that is to say, it has the union-vowel π a before the endings, with all the peculiarities which the presence of that vowel conditions. Thus, from $\sqrt{3\pi}$ jan, 'give birth':

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865. The middle forms are quite rare in the older language (the 3d pl. is decidedly the most common of them, being made from eleven roots; the 3d s. from seven); but all are quotable except 1st and 2d du. — and of the 1st du. no active example occurs.

Atitape appears to be once used (RV.) as 3d sing., with passive sense.

- 866. A final r has the guna-strengthening before the endings: thus, apīparam, atītaras, adīdharat, avīvaran. Of similar strengthened forms from $\bar{\imath}$ and u-roots are found apiprayan (TS.), abībhayanta (RV.), apiplavam (CB.), acucyavat (K.); of unstrengthened, açuçruvat (GB.). Few roots ending in other vowels than r make this agrist: see below, 868.
- 867. Forms of the inflection without union-vowel are occasionally met with: namely, from roots ending in consonants, sisvap (2d sing., augmentless) from Vsvap, and acienat from Venath; from roots in r or ar, didhar (2d sing.), and ajīgar (2d and 3d sing.). Of 3d pl. in us are found almost only a form or two from i and u-roots, with guṇa before the ending: thus, acierayus, acueyavus, acueravus, asusavus (? AB.); but also abībhajus (ÇB.). And the 3d pl. mid. avavitran and avavitranta and asasigram seem to belong here rather than to the pluperfect.

868. In the later language, a few roots are said by the grammarians to make this agrist as a part of their primary conjugation: they are *cri* and *cvi*, *dru* and *sru*, *kam*, and *dhā* 'suck' (*cvi* and *dhā* optionally).

In the older language are found from \sqrt{cri} acicret and acicrayus (noticed in the preceding paragraph); from \sqrt{dru} , adudrot and adudruvat (TB.: not used as acrist); from \sqrt{sru} , asusrot and (augmentless) susros and susrot. Of forms analogous with these occur a number from roots in u or \bar{u} : thus, anūnot and nūnot from \sqrt{nu} ; yūyot from \sqrt{yu} 'repel'; dūdhot from $\sqrt{dh\bar{u}}$; apupot from $\sqrt{p\bar{u}}$; tūtos and tūtot from \sqrt{tu} ; and one or two from roots in i or $\bar{\imath}$: thus, siset from \sqrt{si} (or $s\bar{a}$) 'bind'; apipres (with apiprayan, noticed above) from $\sqrt{pr\bar{\imath}}$ (and the "imperfects" from $d\bar{\imath}dh\bar{\imath}$ etc., 678, are of corresponding form). And from \sqrt{cyu} are made, with union-vowel $\bar{\imath}$, acucyav $\bar{\imath}$ t and acucyav $\bar{\imath}$ tana. None of these forms possess a necessarily causative or a decidedly acristic value, and it is very doubtful whether they should not all be assigned to the perfect-system.

Modes of the Reduplicated Aorist.

869. As in other preterit formations, the augmentless indicative persons of this agrist are used subjunctively, and they are very much more frequent than true subjunctives.

Of the latter are found only $r\bar{\imath}radh\bar{a}$ (1st sing.); $t\bar{\imath}tap\bar{a}si$; $c\bar{\imath}klp\bar{a}ti$ and $s\bar{\imath}sadh\bar{a}ti$, and pisprçati (as if corresponding to an indicative apisprk, like acicnat); and perhaps the 1st sing. mid. $cacvac\bar{a}t$.

The augmentless indicative forms are accented in general on the reduplication: thus, didharas, ninaças; jijanat, piparat; jijanan; also sisvap; but, on the other hand, we have cicráthas and cicnáthat; and dudrávat, cucrávat, tuṣṭávat (which perhaps belong rather to the perfect: compare 810). According to the native grammarians, the accent rests either on the radical syllable or on the one that follows it.

- 870. Optative forms are even rarer. The least questionable case is the middle "precative" $r\bar{r}ris\bar{i}sta$ ($riris\bar{i}sta$ has been ranked above with $s\bar{u}sah\bar{i}sta$, as a perfect: 812b). Cucyuv $\bar{i}mahi$ and cucyav $\bar{i}rata$ belong either here or to the perfect-system.
- 871. Of imperatives, we have the indubitable forms $p\bar{u}purantu$ and cicrathantu. And $jigrt\hat{u}m$ and $jigrt\hat{u}n$ and didhrtam and didhrtam and didhrtam and didhrtam and didhrtam (all RV. only), are doubtless to be referred hither, as corresponding to the indicatives (without union-vowel) $aj\bar{v}gar$ and $ad\bar{v}dhar$: their short reduplicating vowel and their accent assimilate them closely to the reduplicated imperfects (cl. II.), with which we are probably to regard this acrist as ultimately related.
 - 872. No participle is found belonging to the reduplicated acrist.
- 873. The number of roots from which this agrist is met with in the earlier language is about ninety. In the classical Sanskrit it is very unusual; in the whole series of later texts mentioned above (826) it occurs only once.

III. Sibilant-Aorist.

874. The common tense-sign of all the varieties of this agrist is a H s (convertible to H s) which is added to the root in forming the tense-stem.

This sibilant has no analogues among the class-signs of the present-system; but it is to be compared with that which appears (and likewise with or without the same union-vowel i) in the stems of the future tense-system (chap. XII.) and of the desiderative conjugation (chap. XIV.).

To the root thus increased the augment is prefixed and the secondary endings are added.

- 875. In the case of a few roots, the sibilant tensestem (always ending in π ks) is further increased by an π a, and the inflection is nearly like that of an imperfect of the second general conjugation.
- 876. In the vast majority of cases, the sibilant is the final of the tense-stem, and the inflection is like that of an imperfect of the first general conjugation.

And these, again, fall into two nearly equal and strongly marked classes, according as the sibilant is added immediately to the final of the root, or with an auxiliary vowel ξ i, making the tense-sign ξq i s. Finally, before this ξq i s the root is in a very small number of cases increased by a H s, making the whole addition H si s.

- 877. We have, then, the following classification for the varieties of sibilant-aorist:
 - A. With endings added directly to the sibilant:
 - 4. with $\exists s \text{ simply after the root: } s\text{-aorist;}$
 - 5. with 3 i before the A s: is-aorist;
 - 6. the same, with H s at end of root: sis-aorist.
 - B. With A a added to the sibilant before the endings:
 - 7. with sibilant and Ξ a: sa-aorist.

As regards the distinction between the fourth and fifth forms, it may be said in a general way that those roots incline to take the auxiliary i in the aorist which take it also in other formations; but it is impossible to lay

down any strict rules as to this accordance, and also, considering the rarity of a rist-forms in the later language, practically quite useless to attempt the task. See below, 903.

and not hence at doing. The s-agrist will be a straight

- 878. The tense-stem of this agrist is made by adding H s to the augmented root, of which also the vowel is usually strengthened.
- 879. The general rules as to the strengthening of the root-vowel are these:
- a. A final vowel (including π r) has the vrddhi-change in the active, and (excepting π r) guna in the middle: thus, from γ तो, active stem मौतेष् $an\bar{a}i$, middle stem मौतेष् ane; from γ मु cru, ममीष् $acr\bar{a}u$, and ममोष् acros; from γ त् kr, मनाष् $ak\bar{a}r$, and मन् $ak\bar{a}r$, and मन् $ak\bar{a}r$, and मन्
- b. A medial vowel has the vṛddhi-change in the active, and remains unaltered in the middle: thus, from γ कृन्द् chand, active stem मक्त्म achānts, middle stem मक्त्म achānts; from γ रिच् ric, मिन् arāikṣ and मिन् arikṣ; from γ रिच् rudh, मिन् arāuts, and मिन् aruts; from γ सूज् sṛj, ममान् asrākṣ and ममन् asṛkṣ.
- 880. The endings are the usual secondary ones, with ভন্*us* (not শ্বন্ an) in 3d pl. act., and শ্বন ata (not শ্বন anta) in 3d pl. mid.

But before म s and त्t of 2d and 3d sing. act. is in the later language always inserted an ξ $\bar{\imath}$, making the endings ξ म् $\bar{\imath}$ s and ξ त् $\bar{\imath}$ t.

This insertion is unknown in the earliest language (of the RV.): see below, 888.

881. Before endings beginning with t or th, the tensesign s is (233b) omitted after the final consonant of a root — unless this be r, or n or m (converted to $anusv\bar{a}ra$).

The same omission is of course made before dhvam, after either vowel or consonant; and the ending becomes dhvam, provided the sibilant, if retained, would have been s: thus, astodhvam and avridhvam (beside astosata and avrsata), but arādhvam (beside arāsata). These three are the only test-cases for the form of the ending which have been noted in the older language,

except drdhvam (Vdr 'regard': CB., once), which is to drthās (2d sing.) as avrdhvam and avrsata to avri and avrthās.

According to the grammarians, the omission of s before t and th takes place also after a short vowel (the case can occur only in the 2d and 3d sing. mid.); but we have seen above (834a) that this is to be viewed rather as a substitution in those persons of the forms of the root-aorist. Neither in the earlier nor in the later language, however, does any example occur of an aorist-form with s retained after a short vowel before these endings.

882. As examples of the inflection of this variety of sibilant agrist we may take the roots \overline{hu} rudh, 'obstruct', and \overline{fu} $n\overline{i}$, 'lead'. 'Thus:

| | | active. | | | middle. | |
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| 1 | s. म्रशात्सम् | _{ब.} ग्रहीतस्व | म्र री त्स्म | s. म्रफ्तिस | _{व.} ग्र फ् तस्विह | _ग ्र ग्र र् तस्मिव्हि |
| | $lpha r ar{a} u t s a m$ | $lpha rar{a}utsva$ | $lpha rar{a}utsma$ | lpha rutsi | árutsvahi | lpha rutsmahi |
| 2 | म्र गित्सीस् | ग्र रीत्तम् | | ग्र क्तयास् | म रुत्साथाम् | ग्र रा डुम् |
| | $arar{a}utsar{\imath}s$ | árāuttam | lpha rar a utta | $lpha rutth ar{a}s$ | árutsāthām | áruddhvam |
| 3 | | ग्र रीत्ताम् | ग्र रीत्मुम् | म्र मृत | ग्रफ्तिताम् | ग्र क्तसत |
| | $lpha rar{a}utsar{\imath}t$ | árāuttām | $lpha r ar{a} u t s u s$ | árutta | árutsātām | árutsa t a |
| 1 | ग्र नैषम् | মূনীঘ | ग्र नैष्म | म्रनेषि | म्रनेष्ठक्टि | ग्र नेष्मिक् |
| | ánāiṣam | $lpha nar{a}i$ ș va | án $ar{a}$ iṣ m a | $\acute{a}nesi$ | áneșvahi | áneșmahi |
| 2 | म्र नैषीस् | म्रनैष्टम् | য়৾ঀ৾৾ੲ | ग्रनेष्ठास् | म्र नेपायाम् | म्र नेढुम् |
| | ánāiṣīs | án $ar{a}$ isṭa m | $\acute{a}nar{a}i$ ș ta | ánesthās | áneṣāthām | ánedhvam |
| 3 | ग्र नैषीत् | म्रतैष्टाम् | म्रनैषुम् | म्रनेष्ट | ग्र नेपाताम् | म्रनेषत |
| | án $ar{a}iar{s}ar{\imath}t$ | án $ar{a}$ ist $ar{a}$ m | ánāisus | $\acute{a}nesta$ | áne $ar{s}ar{a}tar{a}m$ $\hat{\ }$ | áneṣata |

883. The omission of s in the active forms is a case of very rare occurrence. In the older language have been noted only $ach\bar{a}ntta$ (RV.; written $ach\bar{a}nta$, by 231), $abh\bar{a}kta$ (AB.), and the augmentless $t\bar{a}ptam$ and $c\bar{a}pta$ (repeatedly in the Brāhmaṇas). The middle forms with omission are indistinguishable from the corresponding ones of the root-aorist; and whether, in the older language, a given form is to be assigned to the one aorist or to the other is a question difficult to settle. Above (834 b—d) were given all the older forms of belongings thus questionable.

884. Certain roots in \bar{a} weaken the \bar{a} in middle inflection to i (as also in the root-aorist: above, 834a): these are said to be $sth\bar{a}$, $d\bar{a}$ ($d\bar{a}$ 'give', and $d\bar{a}$ 'cut' and 'share'), and $dh\bar{a}$ ($dh\bar{a}$ 'put', and $dh\bar{a}$ 'suck'); in the older language have been noted only adisi and adisata (from $d\bar{a}$ 'give') and asthisata. TA. has $ag\bar{s}sata$ from $\sqrt{g\bar{a}}$ 'sing'.

The middle inflection of the agrist of $\sqrt{d\bar{a}}$ would be, then,

according to the grammarians; ádisi, ádithas, ádita; ádisvahi, ádisātham, ádisātām; ádismahi, ádidhvam, ádisata.

- 885. Roots ending in changeable r (so-called roots in \bar{r} : 242) are said by the grammarians to convert this vowel to $\bar{\imath}r$ in middle forms: thus, $ast\bar{\imath}rsi$, $ast\bar{\imath}rsith\bar{\imath}as$, etc. (from νstr): hardly any such forms, however, have been found in the older language (only $ak\bar{\imath}rsata$, PB.; and, on the contrary, astrsi occurs once, AB.).
- 886. The s-aorist is made in the older language from somewhat over a hundred roots (in RV., from about seventy; in AV., from about fifty, of which fifteen are additional to those in RV.; and the other texts add about twenty more not counting in any case those of which the forms may be from the rootaorist). It has there certain peculiarities of stem-formation and inflection, and also the full series of modes of which the optative middle is retained also in the later language as "precative".
 - 887. Irregularities of stem-formation are:
- a. The roots $h\bar{u}$, $dh\bar{u}$, and $n\bar{u}$ have \tilde{u} instead of o in the middle: thus, $ah\bar{u}sata$, $adh\bar{u}sata$, $an\bar{u}si$ and $an\bar{u}sata$ and $an\bar{u}sata$; $\gamma dhur$ (or $dh\bar{u}rv$) makes $adh\bar{u}rsata$.
 - b. From \(\strummad\) and occurs amatsus (RV., once), with unstrengthened vowel.
- c. From γ/gam occurs agasmahi, apparently for $aga\dot{n}smahi$ (compare $mas\bar{\imath}ya$, below, 895).
- 888. The principal peculiarity of the older language in regard to inflection is the frequent absence of $\bar{\imath}$ in the endings of 2d and 3d sing. act., and the consequent loss of the consonant-ending, and sometimes of root-finals (150). The forms without $\bar{\imath}$ are the only ones found in RV. and K., and they outnumber the others in AV. and TS.; in the Brāhmanas they grow rarer (only one, $adr\bar{a}k$, occurs in GB. and ÇB.; PB. has none).
- **889.** If the root ends in a vowel, only the consonant of the ending is necessarily lost: thus, $apr\bar{a}s$ (for both $apr\bar{a}s$ -s and $apr\bar{a}s$ -t) from $\sqrt{pr\bar{a}}$: and in like manner $ah\bar{a}s$ from $\sqrt{h}\bar{a}$; $aj\bar{a}is$ (for $aj\bar{a}is$ -t) from \sqrt{pi} ; and in like manner $ac\bar{a}is$ from $\sqrt{c}i$, and $n\bar{a}is$ (augmentless) from $\sqrt{n}\bar{i}$; and $y\bar{a}us$ (for $ay\bar{a}us$ -t) from $\sqrt{y}u$.

But (as in other like cases: 555) in 3d sing, the ending t is sometimes preserved at the expense of the tense-sign; and we have $aj\bar{a}it$ (beside $aj\bar{a}is$ and $aj\bar{a}is\bar{i}t$) from γji ; and in like manner $ac\bar{a}it$, $acr\bar{a}it$, $ah\bar{a}it$, $n\bar{a}it$: no examples have been noted except from roots in i and \bar{i} .

890. If the root (in either its simple or strengthened form) ends in a consonant, the tense-sign is lost with the ending. Thus, $abh\bar{a}r$ (for $abh\bar{a}rst$: beside $abh\bar{a}rstam$, $abh\bar{a}rst\bar{a}m$) from bhr; other like cases are $ah\bar{a}r$, and (from roots in ar) $aks\bar{a}r$, $ats\bar{a}r$, $asv\bar{a}r$, $hv\bar{a}r$. Further, $\bar{a}r\bar{a}ik$ (585, end: for $ar\bar{a}ikst$) from br; like cases are $acv\bar{a}it$ from br; and (from roots with medial br) adb adb

abhāk from \sqrt{bhaj} , adrāk from \sqrt{drc} , adhāk from \sqrt{dah} ; but, with a different change of the final, $ay\bar{a}t$ from \sqrt{yaj} , aprāt from \sqrt{prch} , and $av\bar{a}t$ from \sqrt{vah} ; and (above, 146) $sr\bar{a}s$ appears to stand twice in AV. for $sr\bar{a}s$ -t from \sqrt{srj} : RV. has also twice $ay\bar{a}s$ from \sqrt{yaj} . Further, from roots ending in a nasal, $at\bar{a}n$ from \sqrt{tan} , $kh\bar{a}n$ from \sqrt{khan} , $ay\bar{a}n$ and $an\bar{a}n$ from \sqrt{yam} and nam (143).

If, again, the root ends in a double consonant, the latter of the two is lost along with tense-sign and ending: thus, $ach\bar{a}n$ (for $ach\bar{a}nts-t$; beside $ach\bar{a}ntta$ and $ach\bar{a}ntsus$) from $\gamma chand$; and other like cases are $akr\bar{a}n$, $ask\bar{a}n$, and $asy\bar{a}n$.

A relic of this peculiarity of the older inflection has been preserved to the later language in the 2d sing. $bh\bar{a}is$, from $\gamma'bh\bar{\imath}$.

891. Irregularities of inflection do not occur further: avesam from \sqrt{vi} is too great an anomaly to be accepted.

Modes of the s-aorist.

- 892. The indicative forms without augment are used in a subjunctive sense, especially after $m\dot{a}$ prohibitive, and are not uncommon. Examples with accent, however, are extremely rare; there has been noted only $v\dot{a}\dot{n}si$, middle; judging from this, the tone would be found on the radical syllable. According to the Hindu grammarians, it may be laid on either root or ending.
- 893. Proper subjunctive forms are not rare in RV., but are markedly less common in the later Vedic texts, and very seldom met with in the Brāhmanas. They are regularly made with guna-strengthening of the radical vowel, in both active and middle, and with accent on the root.

The forms with primary endings are: in active, stoṣāṇi; darṣasi; neṣati, parṣati, pāsati, matsati, yoṣati, vakṣati, sakṣati; dásathas, dhāsathas, pārṣathas, vakṣathas, varṣathas; pāsatas, yamṣatas, yakṣatas, vakṣatas; dhāsatha, neṣatha, pārṣatha, mātsatha; — in middle, namṣāi, manṣāi; mānsase; kramṣate, trāsate, darṣate, mānṣate, yakṣate, rāsate, vanṣate, sākṣate, hāsate; trāsāthe (not trāsāithe, as we should rather expect); nāmṣante, mānṣante: and, with the fuller ending in 3d sing., māsātāi.

The forms with secondary endings are (active only): jésas, vákṣas; dárṣat, néṣat, pákṣat, yákṣat, yóṣat, vánsat, vákṣat, véṣat, sátsat, chantsat, etc. (14 others); yakṣatām; stoṣāma; parṣan, yamsan, yoṣan, rásan, vakṣan, céṣan, cróṣan. Of these, yakṣat and vakṣat are found not rarely in the Brāhmaṇas; any others, hardly more than sporadically.

894. Of irregularities are to be noted the following:

a. The forms diksase and piksase (2d sing, mid.) lack the guna-strengthening.

b. Jesam, stosam, and yosam (AV. yūsam, with ū for o as in anūsata Whitney, Grammar. etc.) appear to be first persons formed under government of the analogy of the second and third — unless they are relics of a state of things anterior to the *vrddhi*-strengthening: in which case *jeşma* is to be compared with them (we should expect *jāiṣma* or *jeṣāma*).

- c. From roots in \bar{a} are made a few forms of problematic character: namely, yeşam (only case in RV.), khyeşam, jñeşam, geşam and geşma, deşma, stheşam and stheşas. Their value is optative. The analogy of jeşam and jeşma suggests the possibility of their derivation from i-forms of the \bar{a} -roots; or the sibilant might be of a precative character (thus, $y\bar{a}$ - \bar{a} -s-am). That they are to be reckoned to the is-aorist appears highly improbable.
- d. The RV. has a few difficult first persons middle in se, which are perhaps best noted here. They are: 1. from the simple root, krse, hise (and ohise?), stusé; 2. from present-stems, arcase, rñjase, yajase, gāyise, gṛṇēṣé and punēṣé. They have the value of indicative present. Compare below, 897.
- 895. Optative forms of this agrist are made in the middle only, and they have in 2d and 3d sing. always the precative s before the endings. Those found to occur in the older language are: disīya, dhisīya, bhakṣīyā, masīya (for mansīya), mukṣīya, rāsīya, sākṣīya, striṣīya; mansīṣthās; darṣīṣta, bhakṣīṣta, mansīṣta, mṛkṣīṣta; bhakṣīmahi, dhukṣīmahi, mansīmahi, vansīmahi, sakṣīmahi; mansīrata. PB. has bhukṣiṣīya, which should belong to a siṣ-agrist. The RV. form trāsīthām (for trāsīyāthām or trāsāthām) is an isolated anomaly.

This optative makes a part of the accepted "precative" of the later language: see below, 921 ff.

896. Imperative persons from this agrist are extremely rare: we find only the 2d sing. act. neṣa and parṣa (both from a-stems, and showing rather, therefore, a treatment of the agrist-stem as a root), and the 3d sing. mid. $r\bar{a}sat\bar{a}m$ and pl. $r\bar{a}sat\bar{a}m$ (of which the same may be said).

Participles of the s-Aorist.

897. Active participles are dâkṣat or dhâkṣat, and sâkṣat (both RV.). If ṛñjase (above, 894 d) is to be reckoned as an s-aorist form, ṛñjasānâ is an s-aorist participle; and of a kindred character, apparently, are arçasānā, 6hasāna, jrayasānā, dhiyasānā, mandasānā, yamasānā, rabhasānā, vṛdhasānā, sahasānā, çavasānā, all in RV.; with namasānā, bhiyāsāna, in AV.

5. The is-aorist.

- 898. The tense-stem of this agrist adds the general tense-sign $\exists s$ by help of a prefixed auxiliary vowel $\exists i$, making $\exists u$ is, to the root, which is usually strengthened, and which has the augment.
- 899. The rules as to the strengthening of the root are as follows:

- a. A final vowel has vṛddhi in the active, and guṇa in the middle: thus, अपाविष apāvis and अपविष apavis from । पू pū; अतारिष atāris, act., from । तृ tṛ; अशिष्य açayis, mid., from । शी çī.
 - b. An interior vowel has guṇa, if capable of it, in both voices: thus, মনীয়াৰ্ aleçis, act. and mid., from γ লিম্ liç; ম্যাঘিষ্ arocis from γ দ্ব্ ruc; ম্বার্ষিষ্ avarṣis from γ বৃষ্ v rṣ; but ম্ব্রাবিষ্ ajīvis from γ রাব্ jīv.
 - c. Medial π a is sometimes lengthened in the active; but it more usually remains unchanged in both voices.

The roots in the older language which show the lengthening are kan, san, ran, stan, tans, vraj, vad, mad, car, tsar, hvar, jval, das. From svan and sah occur forms of both kinds.

900. Of exceptions may be noted: \sqrt{mrj} has (as elsewhere: **627**) vrddhi instead of guna: thus, $am\bar{a}rjisam$; \sqrt{str} has $astar\bar{\imath}s$, and \sqrt{cr} has $acar\bar{\imath}t$ (also $acar\bar{\imath}it$ in AV.), with guna in active.

The root grabh or grah has (as in future etc., below, $935\,\mathrm{d}$, 956) long $\bar{\imath}$ instead of i before the sibilant: thus, $agrab\bar{\imath}\bar{\imath}sma$, $agrab\bar{\imath}\bar{\imath}ta$, $agrab\bar{\imath}\bar{\imath}ata$. The roots in changeable r (so-called roots in \bar{r} : 242), and r/vr are said by the grammarians to do the same optionally; but no forms with long $\bar{\imath}$ from such roots are found in the older language.

901. The endings are as in the preceding formation (ত্রন্ us and মান ata in 3d pl.). But in 2d and 3d sing., the combination iṣ-s and iṣ-t are from the earliest period of the language contracted into হুঁন্ is and হুঁন্ it.

The 2d pl. mid. should end always in idhvam (or iddhvam, from is-dhvam: 232); and this is in fact the form in the only examples quotable from the older language, namely ajanidhvam and artidhvam and aindhidhvam; but the grammarians give rules by which the lingual dh is optional only, and that after i preceded by g, r, l, v, h.

902. As examples of the inflection of the is-aorist may be taken the roots $q p \bar{u}$, 'purify', and q u budh, 'awake'. Thus:

s. d. p. s. d. p.

अपाविषम् अपाविष्य अपाविष्म अपविषि अपविषक्ति अपविष्मिक्ति अपविष्

- $_2$ শ্বपावीम् श्रपाविष्टम् भ्रपाविष्ट श्रपविष्ठाम् श्रपविषायाम् भ्रपविष्ठम् apavistam apavistam apavistam apavistam apavistam apavistam
- 3 म्रपावीत् म्रपाविष्टाम् म्रपाविषुत् म्रपविष्ट म्रपविषाताम् म्रपविषत क्ष्रवेरार क्ष्रवेरांइतंक क्ष्रवेरांइतः क्ष्रवेरांइतः क्ष्रवेरांइतः क्ष्रवेरांइतः
- 1 म्रबोधिषम् म्रबोधिष म्रबोधिष म्रबोधिष म्रबोधिषक् म्रबोधिष्मिक् ábodhişam ábodhişva ábodhişma ábodhişi ábodhişvahi ábodhişmahi etc. etc. etc. etc. etc. etc.
- 903. The number of roots from which forms of this aorist have been noted in the older language is about a hundred and twenty (in RV., about eighty; in AV. more than thirty, of which a dozen are additional to those in RV.; in the other texts, nearly thirty more). Among these are no roots in \bar{a} ; but otherwise they are of every variety of form (rarest in final i and \bar{i}). Active and middle persons are freely made; but very sparingly from the same root (only about fifteen roots have both active and middle forms, and of these a part only exceptionally in the one voice or the other).

No rule appears to govern the choice of usage between the is and the s-aorist; and in no small number of cases (more than a fifth of all), the same root shows forms of both classes.

- 904. Irregularities of the older language are to be noticed as follows:
- a. The contracted forms $akram\bar{\imath}m$, $agrabh\bar{\imath}m$, and $avadh\bar{\imath}m$ (with augmentless $v\acute{u}dh\bar{\imath}m$) are found in 1st sing. act.
- b. For áçarīt occurs in AV. áçarāit; also (in a part of the MSS.) çarāis for çarīs: agrahāiṣam is found in AB. (also the monstrous form ajagrabhāiṣam: see 801i).
- c. From $\gamma'vad$ is found vadisma (once, AB.), with short root-vowel. AV. has $nudisth\bar{a}s$, without guna.
- d. The forms $at\bar{a}rima$ (RV.) and $av\bar{a}diran$ (AV.), though they lack the sibilant, are perhaps to be referred to this agrist.
 - e. Ajayit, with short i in the ending, occurs in TS.

Modes of the is-aorist.

905. As usual, augmentless indicative forms of this agrist are more common than proper subjunctives. Examples, of all the persons found to occur (and including all the accented words), are, in the active: cansisam, vadhīm; mathīs, vadhīs, yavīs, savīs; avīt, jūrvīt, mathīt, vadhīt, vecīt; mardhistam, dosistam, hinsistam; avistām, janistām, bādhistām; cramisma, vādisma; vadhista and vadhistana, mathistana, hinsista; hvārisus, grahīsus;— in the middle: rādhisi; janisthās, marsisthās, vyathisthās; kramista, janista, pavista, prathista, mandista; vyathismahi. The accent is on the root-syllable (tārisās, AV. once, is probably an error).

906. Of subjunctive forms with primary endings occur only the 1st sing, act. davisāni, and the 1st pl. mid. (with unstrengthened e) yāciṣāmahe and saniṣāmahe.

Forms with secondary endings are almost limited to 2d and 3d sing. act. There are found: avisas, kánisas, tūrisas, raksisas, vádhisas, vádisas, vésisas, cansisas; kárisat, jambhisat, jósisat, tūrisat, níndisat, párisat, bódhisat, márdhisat, yūcisat, yodhisat, raksisat, vanisat, vyathisat, cansisat, sanisat, sūvisat. They are made, it will be noticed, with entire regularity, by adding a to the tense-stem in is before the endings. The only other persons found to occur are the 3d pl. act. sanisan and mid. sánisanta, which are also regular. Bhavisāt (AB. once) is a solitary example of a form with double mode sign. The radical syllable always has the accent, and its vowel usually accords with that of the indicative: but we have san- in the subjunctive against asūnisam (as to cay- and ran-, see below, 908).

907. The middle optative of this aorist also forms a part of the accepted "precative" of the later language. It is very rare at all periods, being made in RV. from only five roots, and in AV. from two of the same and from three additional ones (six of the eight have other is-forms); and the remaining texts add, so far as noticed, only four other roots. All the forms found to occur are as follows: janisīya, indhiṣīya, edhiṣīya, ruciṣīya and rociṣīya, gmiṣīya; modiṣīṣthūs; janiṣīṣta, vaniṣīṣta; sahiṣīvahi; edhiṣīmāhi, janiṣīmahi, tūriṣīmahi, mandiṣīmahi, vandiṣīmāhi, vardhiṣīmāhi, sahiṣīmahi and sāhiṣīmāhi. The accent is on the ending, and this would lead us to expect a weak form of root throughout; but the usage in this respect appears to be various, and the cases are too few to allow of setting up any rule.

908. Of imperative forms, we have from γav a series: namely, $aviddh\ell$, avistu, avistam, avita (if this, as seems probable, stands anomalously for avista) and avistana: two of these are of unmistakably imperative form. Other forms occur only in 2d du. and 2d pl., and are accordingly such as might also be subjunctives used imperatively (which is further made probable for two of them by their accentuation on the root-syllable): they are kramistam, gamistam, cayistam (against $ac\bar{a}yisam$), taristam, yodhistam, vadhistam, cnathistam; ranistana (against aranisus), cnathistana.

909. No words having a participial ending after is are found anywhere to occur.

910. This is the only agrist of which forms are made in the secondary and denominative conjugations: see below, chap. XIV. (1019, 1035, 1048, 1068).

6. The sis-aorist.

911. According to the grammarians, this agrist is made from roots in $\pi \bar{a}$ (including \bar{H} mi 'establish', \bar{H} mi 'diminish', and $\bar{e}\bar{n}$ $l\bar{\imath}$ 'cling', which substitute forms in \bar{a} , and

from नम् nam, यम् yam, and रम् ram, and is used only in the active; the corresponding middle being of the s-form (4). Its inflection is precisely like that of the iş-aorist; it is unnecessary, then, to give more than its first persons, which we may form from the roots या $y\bar{a}$, 'go', and नम् nam, 'bend'. Thus:

912. The sis-aorist is properly only a sub-form of the is-aorist, having the tense-sign and endings of the latter added to a form of root increased by an added s. It is of extreme rarity in the older language, being made in RV. only from the roots $g\bar{a}$ and $y\bar{a}$, and in AV. only from $h\bar{a}$, and probably from $py\bar{a}$ and van (see below, **914**): the remaining texts add $j\tilde{n}\tilde{a}$ (TB.) and $dh\bar{a}$ (CB.); the forms $adr\bar{a}s\bar{\imath}t$ (K.) and $ahv\bar{a}s\bar{\imath}t$ (GB.) might be either from this or from the s-aorist.

The participle $h\bar{a}sam\bar{a}na$ and causative $h\bar{a}sayanti$ (RV.) show that $h\bar{a}s$ had assumed, even at a very early period, the value of a secondary root beside $h\bar{a}$ for other forms than the agrist.

913. The whole series of quotable indicative forms is as follows: $ay\bar{a}sisam$, $adh\bar{a}sisam$; $ag\bar{a}s\bar{\imath}s$; $ag\bar{a}s\bar{\imath}s$, $ay\bar{a}s\bar{\imath}s$ (and $adr\bar{a}s\bar{\imath}t$ and $ahv\bar{a}s\bar{\imath}t^2$); $ay\bar{a}sist\bar{\imath}am$; $aj\bar{n}\bar{a}sisma$; $aj\bar{n}\bar{a}sista$, $ay\bar{a}sista$; $ag\bar{a}sista$, $ay\bar{a}sista$, $ay\bar{a}sista$. ($\bar{a}ksista$) is from \sqrt{aks}).

Forms without augment are these. $h\bar{a}sisam$; $h\bar{a}s\bar{i}s$; $h\bar{a}s\bar{i}s$; $h\bar{a}sis$;

914. Of proper subjunctives are found two, $g\bar{a}sisat$ and $y\bar{a}sisat$ (both RV.). Optatives are not less rare: namely, $y\bar{a}sis\bar{s}ih\bar{a}s$ and $py\bar{a}sis\bar{s}mahi$ (for which the AV. manuscripts read $py\bar{a}cis\bar{s}mahi$, altered in the edition to $py\bar{a}yis$ -); and doubtless $va\dot{n}cis\bar{s}ya$ (AV., twice) is to be corrected to $va\dot{n}sis\bar{s}ya$, and belongs here.

The accent of $y\bar{a}sistam$ (like avistam, 908) shows it to be a true imperative form; and $y\bar{a}s\bar{i}sta$ (RV., once) is doubtless the same, with anomalous \bar{i} for i.

915. Middle forms of this agrist, it will be noticed, occur from the optative only; but, considering the great rarity of the whole formation, we are hardly justified in concluding that in the ancient language the middle persons in -sisi, -sisthās, etc., were not allowable, like those in -iṣi. -iṣthās, and the others of the iṣ-agrist.

7. The sa-aorist.

916. In the later language, the roots allowed to form

this agrist end in $\neg q$, $\neg q$, or $\neg q$, or $\neg q$ h — all of them sounds which in combination with the tense-sign make $\neg q$ ks; and they have $\neg q$ i, $\neg q$ u, or $\neg q$ r as radical vowel.

They are: dic, ric, lic, vic, klic, kruc, ruc, mrc, sprc; tvis, dvis, clis, vis, kṛṣ; dih, mih, lih, guh, duh, ruh, tṛh, vṛh, stṛh (Kielhorn). Some of them may, or with certain meanings must, take aorists of other forms. And a few are allowed to drop both tense-sign and union-vowel a in certain persons of the middle: that is, they may make instead forms of the root-aorist (1).

- 917. As the tense-stem ends in Ξ a, the inflection is in the main like that of an imperfect of the second general conjugation. But (according to the grammarians: the forms unfortunately have not been found in the older language) the 1st sing. mid. ends in Ξ i instead of ∇ e, and the 2d and 3d du. mid. in Ξ Ξ i instead of Ξ i in imperfects of the other conjugation. Both active and middle inflection is admitted. The root is throughout unstrengthened.
- 918. As example of inflection we may take the root दिश् diq, 'point out'. Thus:
- active.
 p.
 middle.
 p.
 d.
 p.
 s.
 d.
 s.
 d.
 p.
 d.
 d.
 p.
 d.
 d.
 p.
 d.
 d.
 p.
 d.
 d.
- **919.** In the earlier language, the forms of the sa-aorist are hardly more than sporadic, and are with much probability to be regarded as transfers of the s-aorist to an inflection after the manner of an a-stem. They are made in RV. from eight roots; in AV., from two of these and from two others; and the remaining texts add six more, making sixteen in all. As later, all have i or u or r as root-vowel, and a final consonant which combines with s to ks; but there are in the list also two ending in j (unless the forms ascribed to mrj and vrj be forced under mrc and vrh). All the examples noted are given below.
- 920. In the indicative, we find, in the active: avrksam; adruksas, aruksas, asprksas; adiksat, amiksat, aviksat, akruksat, aghuksat, aduksat and

ādhukṣat, ārukṣat, akṛkṣat, āmṛkṣat, āspṛkṣat; aghukṣatām; arukṣāma, amṛkṣāma, avṛkṣāma; ādhukṣan, apikṣan (Vpis), arukṣan; — in the middle, only akṛkṣathās (Vkṛs), ādhukṣata, and amṛkṣanta.

Forms without augment (no true subjunctives occur) are, in the active: dṛkṣam, mṛkṣam; dukṣas, rukṣas, mṛkṣas; dvikṣat; mṛkṣata; dhukṣan and dukṣan; — in the middle, dvikṣata, dukṣata and dhúkṣata, dhukṣanta.

There are no optative forms.

Imperative are: in the active, mṛkṣatam; in the middle, dhukṣásva.

The few accented forms without augment which occur have the tone on the tense-sign $s\hat{a}$, in analogy with the a-acrist (2) and the imperfect of the \hat{a} -class (VII.): a single exception is $dh\hat{u}ksata$, which probably needs emendation to dhuksata.

The aspiration of initial d and g, after loss of the aspirated quality of the root-final (155), is seen in forms from the roots duh and guh, but not from druh (only a single case, AB.); RV., however, has also aduksat and duksas, duksan, duksan, duksan.

Precative.

- 921. As the so-called precative is allowed by the grammarians to be made in the later language from every root, and in an independent way, without reference to the mode of formation of the aorist from the same root, it is desirable to put together here a brief statement of the rules given for it.
- 922. The precative active is made, by adding the active precative endings (above, 568) directly to the root. But:
- **a.** Of final root-vowels (as before the passive-sign $y\dot{a}: 770$), i and u are lengthened; r is usually changed to ri, but to $\bar{\imath}r$ and $\bar{u}r$ in those roots which elsewhere show ir and ur forms (so-called \bar{r} -roots: 242), and to ar in r and sm_r ; \bar{a} is changed to e in the roots $d\bar{a}$, $dh\bar{a}$, $sth\bar{a}$, $p\bar{a}$ 'drink', $g\bar{a}$ 'sing', and a few others, in part optionally.
- b. The root in general assumes its weakest form: a penultimate nasal is lost, as in $badhy\bar{a}sam$ from Vbandh; the roots which are abbreviated in the weak persons of the perfect (794) have the same abbreviation here, as in $ucy\bar{a}sam$, $ijy\bar{a}sam$, $vidhy\bar{a}sam$, $supy\bar{a}sam$, $grhy\bar{a}sam$; $Vc\bar{a}s$ forms $cisy\bar{a}sam$ (compare 639, 854): and so on.

In the older language also, as has been seen above (838), precative optative forms are made in the active only for the root-aorist, and in a manner accordant with that here described.

923. The precative middle is made by adding the middle precative endings (above, 568) to the root increased by \mathbf{H} s

or \overline{sq} is — that is, to the tense-stem of an s-aorist or of an is-aorist (but without augment).

The root is strengthened according to the rules that apply in forming the middle-stem of the s and of the is-aorists respectively: in general, namely, a final vowel is gunated in both formations; but a medial vowel, only before $\overline{54}$ is.

Other minor rules it is unnecessary to repeat here.

In the older language, as has been pointed out in detail above, precative optative forms of the middle voice are oftenest made from the s-aorist (895) and the is-aorist (907); but also from the root-aorist (838), the a-aorist (850), the reduplicated aorist (870), and the sis-aorist (914); and even from the perfect (812b).

924. As example of inflection, we may take the root $\not\vdash bh\bar{u}$, 'be', which is said (no middle aorist or precative is made from it in the older language) to form its middle on the *iş*-stem. Thus:

active. middle. р. भयासम् भविषीमिक भविषीय भयास्म भविषीविक भयास्व bhūyāsam bhūyāsva bhūyāsma bhaviṣīyá bhavisīváhi bhavisīmáhi भूयास्त भविषीष्ठाम् भविषीयास्याम् भविषीढुम् भूयास्तम् อี๊กินิyส์stam อ๊กินิyส์sta bhaviṣīṣṭhส์s bhaviṣīyส์stham bhaviṣīḍhvám $bh\bar{u}y\dot{a}s$ भूयास्ताम् भूयासुस् भविषीष्ट भविषीयास्ताम भविषीरन bhūyastam bhūyasus bhavisīsta bhavisīyastam bhavisīran $bh\bar{u}y\dot{a}t$

According to the grammarians, the dental or lingual character of the initial of the middle ending dhvam depends upon how the acrist tense-sign is preceded: in the s-form, it is dhvam if the $s\bar{s}$ is preceded by any other vowel than a or \bar{a} ; in the is-form, it may be optionally dhvam if the is is preceded by y, r, l, v, or h. This seems wholly irrational: the true question is, whether the precative s is to be regarded as really present in 2d pl. mid., as in all other 2d persons of both voices: if so — which is altogether probable, but in the absence of quotable forms from the older language cannot be pronounced certain — the ending is necessarily and always dhvam.

925. The precative is a form of rare occurrence in the classical language. In each of the texts already more than once referred to (Manu, Nala, Bhagavad-Gītā, Çakuntalā, Hitopadeça)

it occurs once and no more. Its value, as already stated (573), is purely optative: thus, sarvarāṣṭreṣv idain vaco brūyāsta (Nala), '[I beg that you] speak these words in all kingdoms'.

Uses of the Aorist.

926. The uses of the aorist mode-forms (as has been already pointed out: 582) appear to accord in general with those of the mode-forms of the present-system. The predilection of the earlier language, continued sparingly in the later, for the augmentless forms in prohibitive expression after $m\dot{a}$ was sufficiently stated and illustrated above (579).

The tense-value of the aorist indicative has also been more than once referred to, and calls only for somewhat more of detail and for illustration here.

927. The agrist of the later language is simply a preterit, equivalent to the imperfect and perfect, and frequently coordinated with them.

Thus, tatah sa gardabham lagudena tādayāmāsa; tenā 'sāu pañcatvam agamat (H.), 'thereupon he beat the donkey with a stick; and hereof the latter died'; tatah sā vidarbhān agamat punah; tām tu bandhujanah samapūjayat (MBh.), 'thereupon she went back to Vidarbha; and her kindred paid her reverence'; prītimān abhūt: uvāca cai 'nam (MBh.), 'he was filled with affection, and said to him'.

928. The agrist of the older language has the value of a proper "perfect": that is, it signifies something past which is viewed as completed with reference to the present; and it requires accordingly to be rendered by our tense made with the auxiliary have. In general, it indicates what has just taken place; and oftenest something which the speaker has experienced.

Examples from the Veda are: párī 'mê gắm aneṣata páry agním ahṛṣata, devéṣv akrata crávaḥ ká imấn ắ dadharṣati (RV.), 'these here have led about a cow, they have carried around the fire, they have done honor to the gods— who shall venture anything against them?' yấm āichāma mánasā sò 'yám ắ 'gāt (RV.), 'he whom we (formerly, impf.) sought with our mind has (now, aor.) come'; yéné 'ndro haviṣā kṛtvy ábhavad dyumny ùttamáḥ, idám tád akri devā asapatnáḥ kítā 'bhuvam (RV.), 'that libation by which Indra, making it, became (impf.) of highest glory, I have now made, ye gods; I have become free from enemies'.

Examples from the Brāhmaṇa language are: $s\bar{a}$ $h\bar{a}$ 'smin jyóg $uv\bar{a}sa...$ táto ha gandharvāh sám \bar{u} dire: jyóg $v\bar{a}$ iyám $uvv\hat{a}c\bar{i}$ manusyèsv $av\bar{a}ts\bar{i}t$ (ÇB.), 'she lived with him a long time. Then the Gandharvas said to one another, "this Urvaçi, forsooth, hath dwelt a long time among mortals"; tasya ha $dant\bar{a}h$ pedire: tam ho ' $v\bar{a}ca$: apatsata $v\bar{a}$ asya $dant\bar{a}h$ (AB.), 'his teeth fell

out. He said to him: "his teeth truly have fallen out"; indrasya vṛtrām jaghnūṣa indriyām vīryām pṛthivīm ānu vy àrchat tād ôshadhayo vīrūdho 'bhavan sā prajāpatim ūpā 'dhāvad vṛtrām me jaghnūṣa indriyām vīryām pṛthivīm ānu vy àrat tād ôshadhayo vīrūdho 'bhūvann īti (TS.), 'of Indra, when he had slain Vritra, the force and might went away into the earth, and became the herbs and plants: he ran to Prajāpati, saying: "my force and might, after slaying Vritra, have gone away into the earth, and have become the herbs and plants"; svayām enam abhyudētya brūyād vrātya kvà 'vūtsīh (AV., in prose passage), 'going up to him in person, let him say: "Vrātya, where hast thou abode"? yād idānīm dvāū vivādamānūv eyātām ahām adarçam ahām acrūuṣam īti yā evā brūyād ahām adarçam īti tāsmā evā crāddadhyāma (ÇB.), 'if now two should come disputing with one another, [the one] saying "I have seen", [the other] "I have heard", we should believe the one who said "I have seen".

929. This distinction of the agrist from the imperfect and perfect as tenses of narration is very common in the Brāhmaṇas, and is closely observed: neglect of it is very rare, and is to be regarded as either due to corruption of text or indicative of a late origin.

In the Vedic hymns, the same distinction is prevalent, but is both less clear and less strictly maintained: many passages would admit an interpretation implying either sense; and evident agricultations (especially of the simple agricultation) are sometimes used narratively, while imperfect-forms are also occasionally employed in the agricultations.

930. The boundary between that which has just been and that which now is is occasionally overstepped, and the aorist becomes nearly the equivalent of a present. Not very rarely, in the Veda, it is convenient to render the former as if it were the latter; and in the Brāhmaṇa the same is true especially of the aorist akar.

CHAPTER XII.

THE FUTURE-SYSTEMS.

931. The verb has two futures, of very different age and character. The one has for tense-sign a sibilant followed by \overline{u} ya, and is an inheritance from the time of Indo-European unity. The other is a periphrastic formation, made by appending an auxiliary verb to a derivative noun of

agency, and it is a recent addition to the verb-system; its beginnings only are met with in the earliest language. The former may be called the s-future (or the old future, or simply the future); the latter may be distinguished as the periphrastic future.

I. The s-future.

932. The tense-sign of this future is the syllable स्य syá, added to the root either directly or by an auxiliary vowel इ i (in the latter case becoming इच्य iṣyá). The root has the guṇa-strengthening. Thus, from $\sqrt{\xi}$ i is formed the future tense-stem दास्य dāsyá; from $\sqrt{\xi}$ i, the stem एट्य eṣyá; from $\sqrt{\xi}$ eṣyá; from $\sqrt{\xi}$ eṣyá; from $\sqrt{\xi}$ duh, the stem धोद्य dhokṣyá; from $\sqrt{\eta}$ bhū, the stem भविष्य bhaviṣyá; from $\sqrt{\eta}$ the stem भविष्य bhaviṣyá; and so on.

But from \sqrt{jiv} the stem is $jivisy\acute{a}$, from \sqrt{uk} , it is uk, $sisy\acute{a}$, and so on (240).

933. This tense-stem is then inflected precisely like a present-stem ending in Ξ a (second general conjugation). We may take as models of inflection the future of $\sqrt{\overline{a_i}} d\overline{a_i}$, 'give', and that of $\sqrt{\overline{a_i}} kr$, 'make'. Thus:

| | | active. | | | middle. | |
|---|-----------------|-----------|-----------------|-----------------|----------------------|---------------------|
| | s. | d. | р. | s. | d. | р. |
| 1 | दास्यामि | दास्यावस् | दास्यामस् | दास्ये | दास्यावक् | दास्यामक् |
| | dāsyāmi | dāsyāvas` | dāsyāmas` | d āsyé | $dar{a}syar{a}vahe$ | $dar{a}syar{a}mahe$ |
| 2 | दास्यमि | दास्यवस् | दास्यय | दास्यमे | दास्येवे | दास्यघे |
| | $dar{a}syst si$ | dāsyáthas | $dar{a}sy$ átha | dāsyáse | $dar{a}$ syéthe | $dar{a}sy\'adhve$ |
| 3 | दास्यति | दास्यतम् | दास्यित | दास्यते | दास्येते | दास्यन्ते |
| | $dar{a}syáti$ | dāsyátas` | dāsyánti | $dar{a}syst te$ | $dar{a}sy cute{e}te$ | $dar{a}sy$ ánte |
| | | _ | _ | | | |

1 करिष्यामि करिष्यावम् करिष्यामम् करिष्ये करिष्यावहे करिष्यामहे karişyami karişyavas karişyamas karişye karişyavahe karişyamahe etc. etc. etc. etc. etc.

934. With regard to the use or non-use of the auxiliary vowel i before the sibilant, there is a degree of general accordance between this tense and the other future and the desidera-

tive; but it is by no means absolute, nor are any definite rules to be laid down with regard to it (and so much the less, because of the infrequency of the two latter formations in actual use): between this and the aorist (s-aorist on the one side, or is-aorist on the other), any correspondence is still less traceable. Practically, it is necessary to learn, as a matter of usage, how any given root makes these various parts of its conjugational system.

- 935. Below is added a statement of the usage, as regards the auxiliary vowel, of the roots observed to form the s-future in the older language (more than a hundred and fifty: the collection is believed to be tolerably complete)— for the most part, in the form of a specification of the roots which add the tense-sign directly to the root; in brackets are further mentioned the other roots which according to the grammarians also refuse the auxiliary vowel.
- a. Of roots ending in vowels, the great majority (excepting those in r) take no i. Thus, all in \bar{a} (numerous, and unnecessary to specify); all in i i, $k\bar{s}i$, ci, ji except cri [and cvi]; all in $\bar{\imath}$ $kr\bar{\imath}$, $n\bar{\imath}$, $bh\bar{\imath}$, $m\bar{\imath}$, $vl\bar{\imath}$ except $c\bar{\imath}$ [and $d\bar{\imath}$]; all in u cyu, dru, plu, cru, dru except su 'press', and stu, which follow either method, as $stosy\bar{a}mi$ and $stavisy\bar{a}mi$ [and except $k\bar{s}u$, $k\bar{s}nu$, nu, yu, ru, snu]. But all in r (numerous, and unnecessary to specify) take i [and those in changeable r, or so-called \bar{r} -roots (242) are said to take either i or $\bar{\imath}$; no $\bar{\imath}$ -forms, however, are found in the older language]; and likewise those in \bar{u} namely $bh\bar{u}$, $dh\bar{u}$.
- b. Of roots ending in mutes, two thirds add sya directly. Thus, of roots in k, cak; in c (all but yāc: namely), muc, ric, vac, vrace, sic [and pac, vic]; in ch, prach (only case); in j (all but vraj: namely), bhaj, majj (maīkṣya), mṛj (mūrkṣya), yaj, yuj, vṛj, sṛj [also tyaj, bhrajj, bhañj, rañj, sañj, svañj, nij, vij, ruj, bhuj]; in t, kṛt and vṛt [kṛt, cṛt, nṛt optionally]; in d, ad, pad, cad, sad, skand, syand, chid, bhid, vid 'find', nud [also had, khid, svid, kṣud, tud, and chṛd and tṛd optionally]: only observed exceptions, vad, and vid 'know'; in dh, bandh, rādh, budh, yudh, rudh [also vyadh, sādh, sidh, krudh, kṣudh, cudh, vṛdh]: only observed exceptions, ṛdh and gṛdh; in n, tan and man (but man forms sometimes maniṣya); in p, tap, vap, āp, gup, dṛp, sṛp, kḷp [also cap, kṣip, lip, lup]: svap forms both svapṣya and svapṣya; in bh, yabh and labh [also rabh]: no exceptions observed; in m, nam, yam, ram: kram follows either method.
- c. Of roots ending in semivowels, all (they are very few) take the auxiliary i. The roots $v\bar{a}$ or vi ("ve") 'weave' and $hv\bar{a}$ or $h\bar{u}$ ("hve") 'call' take the forms vay and hvay, as before the a of their present-stem: thus, vayisya, hvayisya.
- d. Of roots ending in spirants, the minority (about a third) are without the auxiliary vowel. They are: roots in c, vic, drc (draksya), mrc (mraksya) [also danc, dic, ric, lic, kruc, ruc, sprc]; in s, cis, krs (kraksya) [also tvis, dvis, pis, vis, clis, tus, dus, pus, cus]; in s, vas 'dwell' (vatsya:

167) [also ghas]; — in h, dah, vah, mih, duh, ruh [also nah, dih, tih]: exceptions are grah (grahīṣya) and muh.

In the older language, a decided, though not a large, majority of simple roots add the sya without auxiliary i; in the classical Sanskrit, doubtless the contrary is the case, as i is generally taken by any root of late origin and derivative character — as it is also uniformly in secondary conjugation (chap. XIV.).

936. As the root is strengthened in forming the stem of this future, so, of a root that has a strong and a weak form, the strong form is used: thus, from \sqrt{nac} or nanc is made nanksya; from \sqrt{sras} or srans, sransisya, and the like.

Special irregularities in forming stems from certain roots have been noted in connection with those roots above (see majj, mrj, vay and hvay, grah).

The ζB . has once the monstrous form aconvisyāmahe, made upon the present-stem aconv (cl. IV.) of γac .

937. This future is comparatively rare in the oldest language — in part, apparently, because the uses of a future are to a large extent answered by subjunctive forms — but becomes more and more common later. Thus, the RV. has only seventeen occurrences of personal forms, from nine different roots (with participles from six additional roots); the AV. has fifty occurrences, from twenty-five roots (with participles from seven more); the TS. has occurrences (personal forms and participles together) from over sixty roots; and (as has been noticed above) forms from more than a hundred and fifty roots are quotable from the older texts.

Modes of the s-future.

938. Mode-forms of the future occur only sporadically. The sole Vedic example is kariṣyás, 2d sing. subj. act. (in RV., once or twice); GB. has eṣyāmahāi, taṅsyāmahāi, sthāsyāmahāi, all 1st pl. subj. mid.; and bhavi-ṣyadhvam, vetsyadhvam, saviṣyadhvam, 2d pl. impv. mid., are quoted (Bopp) from MBh.

Participles of the s-future.

939. Participles are made from the future-stem precisely as from a present-stem in म a: namely, by adding in the active the ending त्nt, in the middle the ending मान māna; the accent remains upon the stem. Thus, from the verbs instanced above, दास्यत् dāsyánt and दास्यमान dāsyánāna, किर्यम kariṣyánt and किर्यमाण kariṣyámāṇa.

According to the grammarians, the feminine of the active participle is made either in anti or in ati; but only the former has been noted as occur-

ring in the older language, and the latter, if met with at all, is very rare: see above, 449.

In RV. occurs once $susyant\bar{i}$, from $\sqrt{s\bar{u}}$, with anomalous accentuation.

Preterit of the s-future: Conditional.

940. From the future-stem is made an augment-preterit, by prefixing the augment and adding the secondary endings, in precisely the same manner as an imperfect from a present-stem in Ξa . This preterit is called the conditional.

It stands related to the future, in form and meaning, as the French conditional aurais to the future aurai, or as the English would have to will have — nearly as the German würde haben to werde haben.

Thus, from the roots already instanced:

s. d. p. s. चरास्याम् अदास्याम अदास्या

- यदास्यम् अदास्यतम् अदास्यत अदास्ययाम् अदास्ययाम् अदास्ययम् अदास्ययम् ádāsyas ádāsyatam ádāsyata ádāsyathās ádāsyethām ádāsyadhvam
- 3 म्रदास्यत् म्रदास्यताम् म्रदास्यन् म्रदास्यत म्रदास्यताम् म्रदास्यत ddāsyat ddāsyatām adāsyan adāsyata adāsyetām adāsyanta
- 1 अकिष्टियम् अकिष्टियाच अकिष्टियाम अकिष्टिय अकिष्टियाचिक अकिष्टियामिक åkarişyam åkarişyāva åkarişyāma åkarişye åkarişyāvahi åkarışyāmahi etc. etc. etc. etc. etc.
- 941. The conditional is the rarest of all the forms of the Sanskrit verb. The RV. has but a single example, åbharisyat, 'was going to carry off', and none of the Vedic texts furnishes another. In the Brāhmaṇas it is hardly more common (fifteen occurrences, of which several are in repetitions of the same passage) except in QB., where it is met with more than fifty times. Nor does it, like the future, become more frequent later: not an example occurs in Nala, Bhagavad-Gītā, or Hitopadeça; only one in Manu; and two in Qakuntalā.

II. The Periphrastic Future.

942. This formation contains only a single indicative tense, active and middle, without modes, or participle, or preterit.

Its consists in a derivative nomen agentis, having the

value of a future active participle, and used, either with or without an accompanying auxiliary, in the office of a verbal tense with future meaning.

943. The noun is formed by the suffix নৃ tr (or নায় tar); and this (as in its other than verbal uses: see chap. XVII.) is added to the root either directly or with a preceding auxiliary yowel ξ i, the root itself being strengthened by guna, but the accent resting on the suffix: thus, বান $d\bar{a}t\dot{r}$ from γ না $d\bar{a}$; নান $tart\dot{r}$ from $tart\dot{r}$ from $tart\dot{r}$ $tart\dot{r}$ from $tart\dot{r}$ $tart\dot{r}$ from $tart\dot{r}$ $tart\dot{r}$ from $tart\dot{r}$ $tart\dot{r}$

As regards the presence or absence of the vowel i, the usage is said by the grammarians to be generally the same as in the s-future from the same root (above, 935). The most important exception is that the roots in r take no i: thus, kartr (against karisya); roots han and gam show the same difference; while vrt, vrdh, and syand have i here, though not in the s-future. The few forms which occur in the older language agree with these statements.

944. In the third persons of both voices, the nom. masc. of the noun, in the three numbers respectively (373), is used without auxiliary: thus, भिवता bhavitá, 'he or she or it will be'; भिवतारी bhavitárau, 'both will be'; भिवतारी bhavitárau, 'they will be'. In the other persons, the first and second persons present of भूम्रस् as 'be' (636) are used as auxiliary; and they are combined, in all numbers, with the singular nom. masc. of the noun. As an independent verb, मस् as has no middle forms; but for this auxiliary use middle persons have been made by analogy, के he being used in 1st sing.

Thus, from $\gamma \, \bar{a} \, i \, d\bar{a}$, 'give':

| | | active. | | | middle. | |
|---|--------------------------|------------------------------|---------------------|------------------------|---------------------------------|-------------------------------|
| | s | d. | р. | s. | d | р. |
| 1 | दातास्मि | दातास्वम् | दातास्मम् | | दातास्वक् | |
| | $dar{a}t\dot{ar{a}}smi$ | dātasvas 🔪 | dātāˈsmas` | $dar{a}t\dot{ar{a}}he$ | $dar{a}t'ar{a}svahe$ | $dar{a}t'_{a}smahe$ |
| 2 | दातामि | दातास्यम् | दातास्य | | दातासावे | |
| | $dar{a}t\dot{ar{a}}si$ | dātasthas | dāt ä stha | $dar{a}tar{a}se$ | $dar{a}t'_{ar{a}}sar{a}the$ | $dar{a}t\dot{ar{a}}dhve$ |
| 3 | दाता | दातारी | दातारम् | दाता | दातारी | दातारम् ^{dātāras} |
| | $d\bar{a}t\dot{\bar{a}}$ | $dar{a}t \dot{ar{a}}rar{a}u$ | $dar{a}t\dot{a}ras$ | $d\bar{a}t\dot{a}$ | $dar{a}t\dot{ar{a}}rar{ar{a}}u$ | $dar{a}t\dot{ar{a}}ras$ |

Very rarely, other persons than the third are used without the auxiliary verb: thus, ahain draṣṭā, 'I shall see' (MBh.); tvam bhavitā (MBh. Megh.), 'thou shalt be'; and examples are not unknown of the auxiliary in the 3d person: thus, vaktā 'sti (MBh.), 'he will speak'; and of the use in dual and plural of the proper number-form with the auxiliary: thus, kartārāu svaḥ (MBh.), 'we two shall do'.

- 945. The accent in these combinations, as in all the ordinary cases of collocation of a verb with a preceding predicate noun or adjective (592), is on the noun itself; and, unlike all the true verbal forms, the combination retains its accent everywhere even in an independent clause: thus, then is a daināṣṭro bhavitāsmi (ÇB.), 'then I shall be out of danger' (where bhaviṣyāmi, if used, would be accentless). Whether in a dependent clause the auxiliary verb would take an accent (595), and whether, if so, at the expense of the accent of the noun (as in the case of a preposition compounded with a verb-form: 1083), we are without the means of determining.
- 946. In the Veda, the nomina agentis in tr or tar, like various other derivative nouns (271), but with especial frequency, are used in participial construction, governing the accusative if they come from roots whose verbal forms do so. Often, also, they are used predicatively, with or without accompanying copula; yet without any implication of time; they are not the beginnings, but only the forerunners, of a new tense-formation. The tenseuse begins, but rather sparingly, in the Brāhmanas (from which over thirty occurrences are quotable), and grows more common later, though the periphrastic future is nowhere so frequent as the s-future.
- **947.** Middle forms are extremely few in the older language. TS. has once $prayokt\vec{a}se$, which seems to be 1st sing. (the usual ending e added to the abbreviated root's); but TA. (i. 11) has once the later form $yast\vec{a}he$; $cayit\vec{a}se$ in CB. is clearly 2d sing.; TB. has once $yast\vec{a}smahe$, 1st pl.

Uses of the Futures and Conditional.

948. As the s-future is the commoner, so also it is the one more indefinitely used. It expresses in general what is going to take place at some time to come — but often, as in other languages, adding on the one hand an implication of will or intention, or on the other hand that of promise or threatening.

A few examples are: varşisyáty āiṣámaḥ parjányo vṛṣṭimān bhaviṣyati (ÇB.), 'it is going to rain; Parjanya is going to be rich in rain this year'; yás tán ná véda kím rcá kariṣyati (RV.), 'whoever does not know that, what will he do with verse?' á vāt vayám agní dhāsyāmaha átha yūyán kím kariṣyatha (ÇB.), 'we are going to build the two fires; then what will you do?' tám índro 'bhyádudrāva haniṣyán (ÇB.), 'him Indra ran at, intending to slay'; yády evá kariṣyátha sūkám devāír yajñíyāso bhaviṣyatha (RV.), 'if

ye will do thus, ye shall be worthy of the sacrifice along with the gods'; dántās te çatsyanti (AV.), 'thy teeth will fall out'; ná mariṣyasi má bibheḥ (AV.), 'thou shalt not die; be not afraid'; brūhi kva yāsyasi (MBh.), 'tell us; where are you going to go?' yadi mām pratyākhyāsyasi viṣam āsthāsye (MBh.), 'fi you shall reject me, I will resort to poison'. As in other languages, the tense is also sometimes used for the expression of a conjecture: thus: ko 'yam devo gandharvo vā bhaviṣyati (MBh.), 'who is this? he is doubtless a god, or a Gandharva'.

949. The periphrastic future is defined by the grammarians as expressing something to be done at a definite time to come. And this, though but faintly traceable in later use, is a distinct characteristic of the formation in the language where it first makes its appearance (Delbrück). It is especially often used along with condense co

A few examples are: yatarān vā ime çvah kamitāras te jetāras (K.), 'whichever of the two parties these shall choose tomorrow, they will conquer'; prātar yastāsmahe (TB.), 'we shall sacrifice tomorrow morning'; ityahé vah paktásmi (CB.), 'on such and such a day I will cook for you'; tán ma ékām rátrim ánte çayitáse jatá u te 'yám tárhi putró bhavitá (CB.), 'then you shall lie with me one night, and at that time this son of yours will be born'. In other cases, this definiteness of time is wanting, but an emphasis, as of special certainty, seems perhaps to belong to the form; thus, bibhrhí mā pārayisyāmi tvé 'ti: kāsmān mā pārayisyasī 'ty āughá imāh sārvāh prajā nirvodhā, tātas tvā pārayitāsmī 'ti (CB.), 'support me and I will save you, said it. From what will you save me? said he. A flood is going to carry off all these creatures; from that I will save you, said it'; paridevayām cakrire mahac chokabhayam prāptāsmas (GB.), 'they set up a lamentation: "we are going to meet with great pain and dread"; yaje 'yaksi yastahe ca (TA.), 'I sacrifice, I have sacrificed, and I shall sacrifice'. In yet other cases, in the older language even, and yet more in the later, this future appears to be equivalent to the other: thus, prajāyām enam vijnātāsmo yadi vidvān vā juhoty avidvān vā (AB.), 'we shall know him in his children whether he is one that sacrifices with knowledge or without knowledge'; vaktāsmo vā idam devebhyah (AB.), 'we shall tell this to the gods'; yadi svārtho mamā 'pi bhavitā tata evam svārtham karisyāmi (MBh.), 'if later my own affair shall come up, then I will attend to my own affair'; katham tu bhavitasy eka iti tvām nrpa çocimi (MBh.), 'but how will you get along alone? that, O king, is the cause of my grief about you'.

950. The conditional would seem to be most originally and properly used to signify that something 'was going to' be done. And this value it has in its only Vedic ocurrence, and occasionally elsewhere. But usually it has the sense ordinarily called "conditional"; and in the great majority of its occurrences it is found (like the subjunctive and the optative, when used with the same value) in both clauses of a conditional sentence.

Thus, yó vrtráya sínam átrá 'bharisyat prá tám jánitrī vidúsa uvāca (RV.), 'him, who was going here to carry off Vritra's wealth, his mother proclaimed to the knowing one'; çatāyum gām akarisyam (AB.), 'I was going to make (should have made) the cow live a hundred years' (in other versions of the same story is added the other clause, in which the conditional has a value more removed from its original: thus, in GB., 'if you, villain, had not stopped [pragrahisyah] my mouth'); táta eva 'sya bhayam vì 'yaya kasmad dhy ábhesyad dvitíyād vāt bhayam bhavati (CB.), 'thereupon his fear departed; for of whom was he to be afraid? occasion of fear arises from a second person'; útpapāta cirám tán mene yád vásah paryádhāsyata (CB.), 'he leaped up; he thought it long that he should put on a garment'; sá tád evá ná 'vindat prajāpatir yátrā 'hosyat (MS.), 'Prajāpati, verily, did not then find where he was to (should) sacrifice'; evam cen nā 'vaksyo mūrdhā te vyapatisyat (GB.), 'if you should not speak thus, your head would fly off'; sa yad dhai távad evá bhavisyad yávatyo hai vá gre prajáh srstás távatyo hai vá 'bhavisyan na pra 'janisyanta (CB.), 'if he had been only so much, there would have been only so many living creatures as were created at first; they would have had no progeny'; kim vā 'bhavisyad arunas tamasām vibhettā tam cet sahasrakirano dhuri nā 'karisyat (Çak.), 'would the Dawn, forsooth, be the scatterer of the darkness, if the thousand-rayed one did not set her on the front of his chariot?'

CHAPTER XIII.

VERBAL ADJECTIVES AND NOUNS: PARTICIPLES, INFINITIVES, GERUNDS.

951. Those verbal adjectives, or participles, which are made from tense-stems, and so constitute a part of the various tense-systems, have been already treated. It remains to describe certain others, which, being made directly from the root itself, belong to the verbal system as a whole, and not to any particular part of it.

The infinitive (with a few sporadic exceptions in the older language) also comes in all cases from the root directly, and not from any of the derived tense-stems.

The same is true of the so-called gerunds, or indeclinable participles.

Passive Participle in $t\acute{a}$ or $n\acute{a}$.

952. By the accented suffix π $t\dot{a}$ — or, in a comparatively small number of verbs, π $n\dot{a}$ — is formed a verbal

adjective which, when coming from transitive verbs, qualifies anything as having endured the action expressed by the verb: thus, दत्त dattá, 'given'; उत्त uktá, 'spoken'. Hence it is usually called the passive participle; or, to distinguish it from the participle belonging to the passive present-system (771), the past passive participle.

When made from an intransitive or neuter verb, the same participle, as in other languages, has no passive but only an indefinite past sense: thus, $\eta \pi gat\dot{a}$, 'gone'; $\eta \pi bh \bar{u}t\dot{a}$, 'been'; $\eta \pi \eta atit\dot{a}$, 'fallen'.

953. In general, this participle is made by adding π $t\acute{a}$ to the bare verbal root, with observation of the ordinary rules of euphonic combination.

Some roots, however, require the prefixion of the auxiliary vowel i to the suffix. For these, and for the verbs that add $n\acute{a}$ instead of $t\acute{a}$, see below, 956, 957.

As to the accent when the root is preceded by a preposition, see $1085\,a$.

- 954. The root before \vec{n} tá has usually its weakest form, if there is anywhere in the verbal system a distinction of weak and strong forms. Thus:
- a. A penultimate nasal is dropped: e. g. $akt \acute{a}$ from \surd $a\~{n}j$, $baddh \acute{a}$ from \surd bandh, $srast \acute{a}$ from \surd sras.
- b. Roots which in the weak forms of the perfect are abbreviated (794) suffer the same abbreviation here: thus, uktá from \sqrt{vac} , $\bar{u}dha$ from \sqrt{vah} , istá from \sqrt{yaj} , suptá from \sqrt{svap} ,

viddhá from V vyadh, prstá from V prach.

- c. Final \bar{a} is weakened to \bar{i} in $g\bar{\imath}t\ell$ from $\sqrt{g\bar{a}}$ 'sing', $p\bar{\imath}t\ell$ from $\sqrt{p\bar{a}}$ 'drink', $dh\bar{\imath}t\ell$ from $\sqrt{dh\bar{a}}$ 'suck', $sph\bar{\imath}t\ell$, $v\bar{\imath}t\ell$ from $\sqrt{vy\bar{a}}$, $j\bar{\imath}t\ell$ from $\sqrt{jy\bar{a}}$, $c\bar{\imath}t\ell$ from $\sqrt{cy\bar{a}}$; and it is weakened to i in $sthit\ell$, $hit\ell$ from $\sqrt{dh\bar{a}}$ 'put' (with dh also changed to h: but $dhit\ell$ is found also in compounds in V.), $dit\ell$ from $\sqrt{d\bar{a}}$ 'cut' and $\sqrt{d\bar{a}}$ 'bind'; $sit\ell$, $mit\ell$ from $\sqrt{m\bar{a}}$ 'measure', $cit\ell$ (or $c\bar{a}t\ell$), $chit\ell$ (or $ch\bar{a}t\ell$).
- **d.** A final m or n is lost after a in gata, nata, yata, rata (from \sqrt{gam} etc.); hata, mata, ksata, tata, vata (from \sqrt{han} etc.).
- e. More isolated cases are: $\bar{u}t\hat{u}$ from γuv , $ut\hat{u}$ from $\gamma v\bar{u}$ 'weave', $cist\hat{u}$ from $\gamma c\bar{u}s$, $m\bar{u}rt\hat{u}$ referred to $\gamma m\bar{u}rch$, $sy\bar{u}t\hat{u}$ from $\gamma s\bar{u}v$, $dy\bar{u}t\hat{u}$ from $\gamma d\bar{u}v$ 'play', $m\bar{u}t\hat{u}$ from $\gamma m\bar{u}v$, $dh\bar{u}ut\hat{u}$ from $\gamma dh\bar{u}v$ 'cleanse' (RV. has also $dh\bar{u}t\hat{u}$).

955. Of more irregular character are the following:

a. A number of roots ending in am retain the nasal and lengthen the radical vowel (as in others of their verbal forms): thus, $k\bar{a}nt\dot{a}$, $k\bar{r}\bar{a}nt\dot{a}$, $t\bar{a}nt\dot{a}$, $c\bar{a}nt\dot{a}$, $c\bar{a}nt\dot{a}$, $c\bar{a}nt\dot{a}$, from \sqrt{kram} etc.; \sqrt{dhvan} 'be covered' forms in like manner $dhv\bar{a}nt\dot{a}$.

b. Three roots in an make the participle from parallel roots

in \bar{a} : thus, $j\bar{a}t\dot{a}$, $kh\bar{a}t\dot{a}$, $s\bar{a}t\dot{a}$, from \sqrt{jan} etc.

- c. The root $d\bar{a}$ 'give' forms datts (from the derivative form dad), but $d\bar{a}ta$ also is found in composition in V. The contracted tta (as if for $d\bar{a}ta$, with the radical vowel lost) is widely found in composition, especially with prepositions (1087 e), but also with other elements: thus, dev atta (RV.); punartta (PB. vi. 5. 12); and, according to the grammarians, $s\bar{u}tta$. The root jaks (derivative of ghas: 675) forms jagdha, as if from jagh (once apparently abbreviated in composition to gdha in TS.: thus, agdhad; γ svad makes in Veda svatta (beside svadita).
- 956. The suffix with ξ i, or in the form $\xi \vec{n}$ $it\acute{a}$, is regularly used with the derivative verb-stems in secondary conjugation (chap. XIV.), also often with roots of a derivative character (as জিল্ম jinv, ক্রিম্ hins), and not infrequently with original roots (as पत् pat, च्यू car, मन्य manth, $\hat{\eta}$ \hat{v} \hat{i}).

In RV. and AV., the participles in ita from simple roots are more than a sixth of the whole number. Among them, $udit\hat{a}$ (γvad) is the only case of abbreviation of va to u. From cath comes cath (once). $Jahit\hat{a}$ from $\gamma h\bar{a}$ (by substitution of the present-stem as shown in $jah\bar{a}mi$) is an isolated irregularity. Cayita shows the same strengthening which appears in the present-system (629).

A few roots form the participle either with or without the auxiliary i: thus, guptá and gupitá, drptá and drpitá, dhṛṣṭá and dhṛṣṭá, mattá and maditá, vittá (also vinná) and viditá.

The root grabh or grah has, as elsewhere, long $\overline{\imath}\colon$ thus, $grbh\overline{\imath}t\acute{a},\ grh\overline{\imath}t\acute{a}$.

- 957. The suffix $\vec{\eta}$ $n\acute{a}$ (always without auxiliary ξ i) is taken instead of $\vec{\eta}$ $t\acute{a}$ by a number of roots. Thus:
- a. Certain roots in \bar{a} , and in i and u-vowels: namely, $cy\bar{u}n\hat{a}$ or $c\bar{i}n\hat{a}$ from $v/cy\bar{u}$, $cr\bar{u}n\hat{a}$ from $v/cr\bar{u}$, $f\bar{u}n\hat{a}$ (beside $f\bar{i}t\hat{a}$) from $v/fy\bar{u}$ or $f\bar{i}$, $c\bar{u}n\hat{a}$ from $v/cv\bar{u}$ or cvi, $h\bar{u}n\hat{u}$ and $h\bar{u}n\hat{u}$ from $v/h\bar{u}$, $din\hat{u}$ from $v/d\bar{u}$ 'bind' and 'cut', $ks\bar{u}n\hat{u}$ (beside $ks\bar{u}n\hat{u}$) from $v/ks\bar{u}$ 'destroy', $p\bar{u}n\hat{u}$ from $v/py\bar{u}$ or $p\bar{u}$, $v/l\bar{u}n\hat{u}$ from $v/l\bar{u}$, $l\bar{u}n\hat{u}$ from $v/l\bar{u}$, $l\bar{u}n\hat{u}$ from $v/l\bar{u}$ or dev 'lament', $l\bar{u}n\hat{u}$ from $v/l\bar{u}$ and some others.
- b. The roots in variable r (so-called \bar{r} -roots: 242), which before the suffix becomes $\bar{r}r$ or $\bar{u}r$: thus, $k\bar{r}rn\hat{a}$, $g\bar{r}rn\hat{a}$, $j\bar{r}rn\hat{a}$, $t\bar{r}rn\hat{a}$, $d\bar{r}rn\hat{a}$, $c\bar{r}rn\hat{a}$, $st\bar{r}rn\hat{a}$ (beside $strt\hat{a}$); $p\bar{u}rn\hat{a}$, $m\bar{u}rn\hat{a}$; and $j\bar{u}rn\hat{a}$.

- A few participial forms in $t\hat{a}$ from such roots are met with in the older language: thus, $g\bar{u}rt\hat{a}$, $p\bar{u}rt\hat{a}$, $c\bar{v}rt\hat{a}$.
- c. A few roots ending in j (which becomes g before the suffix: 216.4): thus, bhagná from Vbhaj, bhugná from Vbhaj, magná from Vmajj, rugná from Vruj. Also, one or two others that show a guttural before the na: thus, lagná from Vlag, vrkná from Vvracc, akná from Vac.
- d. A number of roots, some of them very common ones, in d (which becomes n before the suffix: 161, end): thus, channá, chinná, bhinná, vinná (beside vittá and viditá), skanná, syanná, svinná, tunná, panná, sanná (beside sattá, which alone is found in V.); and hlanná (according to the grammarians) from $Vhl\bar{a}d$; also traná from Vtrd and chraná from Vchrd, which show an irregular lingualization of the nasal; and others.
- 958. The grammarians reckon as participles of this formation a few miscellaneous derivative adjectives, coming from roots which do not make a regular participle: such are $k \bar{s} \bar{a} m a$, 'burnt', k r c a, 'emaciated', p a k v a, 'ripe', p h u l l a, 'expanded', $c u s a k \bar{s} a b a$, 'dry'.

Past Active Participle in tavant.

- 959. From the past passive participle is made, by adding the possessive suffix বন্ vant, a secondary derivative having the meaning and construction of a perfect active participle: for example, নন্ ক্নবান tát kṛtávān, 'having done that'. Its inflection is like that of other derivatives made with this suffix (452 ff.); its feminine ends in বনী vatī; its accent remains on the participle.
- 960. Derivative words of this formation are found in RV., but without anything like a participial value. The AV. has a single example, with participial meaning: acitāvaty ātithāu, 'one's guest having eaten' (loc. abs.). In the Brāhmaṇas also it is extremely rare. In the later language, however, it comes to be quite common. And there it is almost always used predicatively, and generally without copula expressed, or with the value of a personal verb-form in the perfect tense (like the derivative in tā in the future: 942 ff.). For example: mām na kaccid dṛṣṭavān, 'no one has seen me'; sa nakulam vyāpāditavān, 'he destroyed the ichneumon'; or, with copula, mahat kṛchram pṛāptavaty asi, 'thou hast fallen upon great misery'. Although originally and properly made only from transitive verbs (with an object, to which the participle in ta stands in the relation of an objective or factitive predicate), it is finally found also from intransitives: thus, cūtena samçritavatī (Çak.), 'has become united with the mango-tree'; gatavatī (ib.), 'she has gone'.

Future Passive Participles: Gerundives.

961. Certain derivative adjectives (for the most part

more or less clearly secondary derivatives) have acquired in the language a value as qualifying something which is to, or which ought to, suffer the action expressed by the root from which they come; and they are allowed to be made from every verb. Hence they are, like more proper participles, usually treated as a part of the general verbal system, and called future passive participles, or gerundives (like the Latin forms in *ndus*, to which they correspond in meaning).

962. The suffixes by which such gerundives are regularly and ordinarily made are three: namely য ya, নত্য tavya, and মনীয় anīya.

Derivatives in ya having this value are made in all periods of the language, from the earliest down; the other two are of more modern origin, being entirely wanting in the oldest Veda (RV.), and hardly known in the later. Other derivatives of a similar character, which afterward disappear from use, are found in the Veda.

963. The suffix ya in its gerundive use has nothing to distinguish it from the same suffix as employed to make adjectives and nouns of other character (see below, chap. XVIII.: 1213). And it exhibits also the same variety in the treatment of the root.

The original value of the suffix is ia, and as such it has to be read in the very great majority of its Vedic occurrences. Hence the conversion of e and o to ay and av before it (see below).

Thus: a. Final \bar{a} becomes e before the suffix: $d\acute{e}ya$, $khy\acute{e}ya$, $m\acute{e}ya$ (probably $d\acute{a}$ -ia etc., with euphonic y interposed): but RV. has once $-j\tilde{n}\bar{a}ya$. — b. The other vowels either remain unchanged, or have the guna or the vrddhi strengthening; and e usually and o always are treated before the ya as they would be before a vowel: thus, $j\acute{a}yya$, $b\acute{h}\acute{a}yya$, $l\bar{a}yya$; $n\acute{a}vya$, $b\acute{h}\acute{a}vya$, $h\acute{a}vya$, $b\bar{h}\bar{a}vy\acute{a}$; $v\acute{a}rya$: and, in the later language, $n\bar{i}ya$, jeya, $dh\bar{u}ya$ (such cases are wanting earlier). In a few instances, a short vowel adds t before the suffix: thus, itya, mitya, $cr\acute{u}tya$, $st\acute{u}tya$, krtya (the only Vedic examples). — c. Medial a remains unchanged or is lengthened: thus, $d\acute{a}bhya$, $v\acute{a}ndya$, $s\acute{a}dya$; $m\acute{a}dya$, $v\acute{a}cya$. — d. Medial i, u, and r-vowels are unchanged or have the guna-strengthening: thus, itya, $g\acute{u}hya$, dhrsya; $dv\acute{e}sya$, $y\acute{o}dhya$, $m\acute{a}rjya$.

The RV. has about forty examples of this gerundive, and the AV. adds half as many more. Except in $bh\bar{a}vi\acute{a}$ (once), the accent in RV. is always

on the root; AV. has several cases of accent on the i of the suffix (hence written $\bar{a}dy\dot{a}$, $\bar{a}cy\dot{a}$, $-vy\bar{a}dhy\dot{a}$, $-dharsy\dot{a}$). According to the grammarians, the accent is on the root or else the ending is circumflexed: always the former, if the ya follow a vowel.

964. The suffix tavya is a secondary adjective derivative from the infinitival noun in tu (below, 972), made by adding the suffix ya (properly ia, whence the accent ya), before which the final u, as usual, has guna-strengthening, and is resolved into av.

Hence, both as regards the form taken by the root and the use or omission of an auxiliary vowel i before the tavya, the rules are the same as for the formation of the infinitive (below, 968).

No example of this formation is found in RV., and in AV. occur only two, janitavyà and hinsitavyà. In the Brāhmana language it begins to be not rare, and is made both from the simple root and the derived conjugational stems (next chapter); in the classical language it is still more frequent. According to the grammarians, the accent of the word is either circumflex on the final or acute on the penult: thus, kartavyà or kartávya; in the accentuated texts, it is always the former.

As to the impersonal use of this gerundive, see below, under Passive (999).

965. The suffix $an\bar{\imath}ya$ is in like manner the product of secondary derivation, made by adding the adjective suffix $\bar{\imath}ya$ (1215) to a nomen actionis formed by the common suffix ana.

It follows, then, as regards its mode of formation, the rules for the suffix ana (below, chap. XVIII.: 1150).

This derivative also is unknown in RV., and in AV. is found only in $upaj\bar{\imath}van\bar{\imath}ya$ and $\bar{a}mantran\bar{\imath}ya$ (in both of which, moreover, its distinct gerundive value admits of question). In the Brāhmanas (where less than a dozen examples of it have been noted), and in the later language, it is much less common than the gerundive in tavya. Its accent, as in all the derivatives with the suffix $\bar{\imath}ya$, is on the penult: thus, $karan\bar{\imath}ya$.

- 966. Other formations of kindred value are found in the Veda as follows:
- a. Gerundives in tua or tva, apparently made from the infinitival noun in tu with the added suffix a (1209). They are $k \hat{a} r t u a$ (in two occurrences $k \hat{a} r t v a$), $j \hat{a} n t u a$, $n \hat{a} m t u a$, $n \hat{a} m$
- b. Gerundives in enia or enya (compare 1217): they are idénia, carénia, drcénia, bhūsénya, yudhénia, várenia; with one example from an apparent aorist-stem, yamsénya, and three or four from secondary verb-stems (see below, 1038).
- c. Gerundives in áyia (once áyya: compare 1218): they are daksáyia, panáyia, vidáyia, craváyia, hnavāyia; with a few from causative secondary conjugation-stems (below, chap. XIV.): and stuséyia is of close kindred with them.

- d. A few adjectives in elima, as sacelima, bhidelima (apparently not found in use) are reckoned as gerundives by the grammarians.
- 967. The division-line between participial and ordinary adjectives is less strictly drawn in Sanskrit than in the other Indo-European languages. Thus, adjectives in u, as will be seen later (chap. XVII.: 1178), from secondary conjugational stems, have participial value; and in the Brāhmanas (with an example or two in AV.) is found widely and commonly used a participial adjective formed with the suffix uka (ibid., 1180).

Infinitives.

968. The later language has a single infinitive, which is the accusative case of a verbal noun formed by the suffix নু tu, added to the root usually directly, but often also with aid of the preceding auxiliary vowel \(\xi\) i. The form of the infinitive ending, therefore, is নুদ tum or হনুদ itum. The root has the guna-strengthening, and is accented. Thus, for example, হনুদ étum from \sqrt{x} i; বানুদ kártum from \sqrt{x} kṛ; বানুদ cáritum from \sqrt{x} car; মবিনুদ bhávitum from \sqrt{x} bhū.

The rules as to the use or omission of the auxiliary i are the same as those that apply to the formation of the periphrastic future-noun in t_r or tar (943).

The same form, in a like use, is found also in the older language, back to its earliest recorded period; but it is there only one of a whole body of related formations, an account of which is in brief as follows:

- 969. In the Veda and Brāhmana, a number of verbal nouns, nomina actionis, in various of their cases, are used in constructions which assimilate them to the infinitive of other languages—although, were it not for these other later and more developed and pronounced infinitives, the constructions in question might pass as ordinary case-constructions of a somewhat peculiar kind.
 - 970. The nouns thus used infinitively are the following:
- a. The root-noun, without derivative suffix, is so used in its accusative in am, its dative in e or (from \bar{a} -roots) $\bar{a}i$, its genitive and ablative in as, and its locative in i.
- **b.** The verbal noun in tu is so used in its accusative in tum, its dative in tave or tavāi, and its ablative and genitive in tos.

Of other nouns, only single cases, generally datives, are reckoned as used with infinitive value; thus:

- c. From the verbal noun in as, the dative in ase; and also, in an extremely small number of instances, a dative in se (or se), from a noun formed with s simply.
 - d. From nouns in man and van, datives in mane and vane.
- e. From nouns in ti, datives in taye, or (from one or two verbs) in $ty\bar{a}i$.
 - f. From nouns in i, datives in aye.
 - g. From nouns in dhi and si, datives in dhyāi and syāi.
- h. A few infinitives in sani are perhaps locatives from nouns in an added to a root increased by s.
- i. From a single root, dhr, are made infinitively used forms in tári, of which the grammatical character is questionable.

Among all these, the forms which have best right to special treatment as infinitives, on account of being of peculiar formation, or from suffixes not found in other uses, or both, are those in se, sani, tari, dhyāi, and tavāi.

Except the various cases of the derivative in tu, and of the root-noun, these infinitives are almost wholly unknown outside the Rig-Veda.

Other suffixes and forms than those noticed above might be added; for it is impossible to draw any fixed line between the uses classed as infinitive and the ordinary case-uses; and the so-called infinitives are found coordinated in the same sentence with common nouns, and even with compound nouns.

More special rules as to the various formations are as follows:

971. The root-noun used as infinitive has the same form, and the same accent, both when simple and when combined with prepositions, as in its other uses. In the very great majority of instances, it is made from roots ending in a consonant; but also from a few in \bar{a} $(khy\bar{a}, d\bar{a}, dh\bar{a}, p\bar{a}?, m\bar{a}, y\bar{a})$, from two or three in i and u-vowels $(hi, m\bar{\imath}, bh\bar{u})$, and from one or two in changeable r, which takes the ir-form (tir, stir).

The roots in \bar{a} form the accus. in $\bar{a}m$ (pratidhám, AV.), the dat. in $\bar{a}i$, the abl. in $\bar{a}s$ (understanding avasá before \dot{a} as for avasás and not avasás in RV. iii. 53. 20), and the locative in e (only two examples, of which one is better understood as dative).

972. The infinitive noun in tu is made freely from roots of every form. The root takes the guna-strengthening, if capable of it, and often adds the auxiliary vowel i before the suffix (according to the rule already stated, 968). The root is accented, unless the noun be combined with a preposition, in which case the latter has the accent instead: thus, kartum, etave, hantos, but nikartum, niretave, nirhantos.

The dative in $tav\bar{a}i$ is in two respects anomalous: in having the heavy feminine ending $\bar{a}i$ along with a strengthened u; and in taking a double accent, one on the root or on the prefixed preposition, and the other on the ending $\bar{a}i$: thus, $\ell tav\bar{a}\ell$, $\hbar antav\bar{a}\ell$, $\hbar atyetav\bar{a}\ell$, $\hbar apabhartav\bar{a}\ell$.

The root grah makes (as in other kindred formations) $gr\acute{a}h\ddot{\imath}tu$; and long $\ddot{\imath}$ is shown also by $c\acute{a}r\ddot{\imath}tu$, $st\acute{a}r\ddot{\imath}tu$, $h\acute{a}v\ddot{\imath}tu$ (and compare $bh\acute{a}v\ddot{\imath}tva$, 966 a).

973. The infinitive in ase is made in RV. from about twenty-five roots; in AV. and later there have been noted no other examples of it. In near three quarters of the cases, the accent is on the suffix: thus, rñjáse, jīváse, bhiyáse, tujáse; the exceptions are cákṣase; dháyase (with y inserted before the suffix); and âyase, bhárase, spárase, hárase (with guṇa-strengthening of the root). Strengthening of the root is also shown by javáse, doháse, bhojáse, cobháse. In puṣyáse is seen, apparently, the present-stem instead of the root.

The ending se is extremely rare, being found only in jisé and perhaps stusé, and one or two still more doubtful cases.

- 974. Infinitives in mane are made from only five roots: thus, tr'amane, d'amane, d'amane, bh'armane, and (with different accent) vidm'ane. From $v/d\bar{a}$ comes $d\~av\'ane$; turv'ane may come directly from v/tr, or through the secondary root turv; dh'arvane is rather from $v/dh\bar{u}rv$ than from v/dhvr.
- 975. The infinitives in taye are istaye (\$\scrt{is}\$), \$\scrt{p\tilde{t}}\tilde{t}\tilde{q}\tilde{e}\tilde{\tilde{t}}\tilde{q}\tilde{e}\tilde{t}\tilde{q}\tilde{e}\tilde{e}\tilde{t}\tilde{q}\tilde{e}\tilde{e}\tilde{t}\tilde{q}\tilde{e}\tilde{e}\tilde{q}\tilde{e}\tilde{e}\tilde{e}\tilde{q}\tilde{e}\ti
- 976. The ending $dhy\bar{a}i$ is, more than any other, irregular and various in its treatment. It has always an a before it; and in the majority of cases it is accented upon this a, and added to a weak form of root: thus, $cuc-adhy\bar{a}i$, $prn\dot{a}dhy\bar{a}i$, $dhiy\dot{a}dhy\bar{a}i$, $huv\dot{a}dhy\bar{a}i$. But the form of root is the strong one in a few cases: namely, $cay\dot{a}dhy\bar{a}i$, $stav\dot{a}dhy\bar{a}i$, $tar\dot{a}dhy\bar{a}i$, $jar\dot{a}dhy\bar{a}i$, $mand\dot{a}dhy\bar{a}i$, $vand\dot{a}dhy\bar{a}i$. In half-a-dozen forms, again, the root has the accent: namely, $ks\dot{a}radhy\bar{a}i$, $g\dot{a}madhy\bar{a}i$, $y\dot{a}jadhy\bar{a}i$ (but once or twice also $yaj\dot{a}dhy\bar{a}i$), $v\dot{a}hadhy\bar{a}i$, $s\dot{a}hadhy\bar{a}i$, $bh\dot{a}radhy\bar{a}i$. In a single instance, $ptbadhy\bar{a}i$, the suffix is added distinctly to a present-stem; and in one, $v\bar{a}vrdh\dot{a}dhy\bar{a}i$, to a perfect stem. Finally, in a number of instances (ten), this infinitive is made from a causative stem in ay: thus, $m\bar{a}day\dot{a}dhy\bar{a}i$, $risay\dot{a}dhy\bar{a}i$, etc.

This infinitive is by no means rare in RV., being made in thirty-five different forms (with seventy-two occurrences). But it is hardly known outside of the RV.; the AV. has it but once (in a passage found also in RV.); and in the branches of the Yajur-Veda but two or three examples have been noticed (one of them TS. falsely reads gåmadhye); in the Brāhmaṇa language it appears to be entirely wanting.

- 977. An example or two are met with of an infinitive in syai: thus, $r\delta hisyai$ (TS.), avyathisyai (K.).
- 979. The only infinitive in tari is dhart 'ari (with its compound vidhart 'ari), from $\gamma'dhr$.

Uses of the Infinitives.

980. The uses of the so-called infinitives are for the most part closely accordant with those of the corresponding cases from other abstract nouns. Thus:

981. The accusative, which is made only from the root-noun and the noun in tu, is used as object of a verb.

Especially, of forms from the roots cak, 'be able', and arh, 'be worthy, have the right or the power'. Thus, cakéma tvā samīdham (RV.), 'may we accomplish thy kindling'; má cakan pratidhám isum (AV.), 'may they not be able to fit the arrow to the string'; máno vá imám sadyáh páryāptum arhati mánah páribhavitum (TS.), 'the mind, forsooth, can at once attain and surpass her'; kó hy ètásyá 'rhati gáhyam náma gráhītum (ÇB.), 'for who is worthy to take his secret name?' In the Veda, the construction with these verbs is only one among others; in the Brāhmaṇa, it becomes the greatly prevalent one (three quarters or more of all the cases).

Further, of verbs of motion (next most frequent case): thus, $d\dot{a}ksin\bar{a}nihotum$ eti (TS.), 'he goes to sacrifice things pertaining to sacrificial gifts'; indram pratiram emy $\dot{a}yuh$ (RV.), 'I go to Indra for (i. e. beseech of him) the lengthening out of life'; — of γ/dhr , 'persist in, undertake': as, sá idám jātāh sárvam evá dágdhum dadhre (ÇB.), 'he, as soon as born, began to burn this universe'; — of verbs meaning 'desire, hope, notice, know', and the like: as, páçān vicitam vettha sárvān (AV.), 'thou knowest how to loosen all bonds'; tásmād agnīm ná "driyeta párihantum (ÇB.), 'therefore one should not be careful to smother the fire'; — and of others.

982. Of the infinitive datives, the fundamental and usual sense is that expressed by 'for, in order to, for the purpose of'.

Examples are: víçvam jīvám caráse bodháyantī (RV.), 'awakening every living creature to motion'; tắn úpa yūta píbadhyāi (RV.), 'come to drink them'; nāi 'tắm te devá adadur áttave (AV.), 'the gods did not give her to thee for eating'; prūt ''d yudháye dásyum indrah (RV.), 'Indra went forward to fight the demon'; cákṣur no dhehi vikhyāt (RV.), 'give us sight for looking abroad'.

Some peculiar constructions, however, grow out of this use of the infinitive dative. Thus:

- a. The noun which is logically the subject or the object of the action expressed by the infinitive is frequently put beside it in the dative (by a construction which is in part a perfectly simple one, but which is stretched beyond its natural boundaries by a kind of attraction): thus, $cak\bar{a}ra$ súryāya pánthām ánvetavá u (RV.), 'he made a track for the sun to follow (made for the sun a track for his following)'; cícīte cṝnge rákṣobhyo vintkṣe (RV.), 'he whets his horns to pierce the demons'; rudráya dhânur á tanomi brahmadviṣe cárave hántavá u (RV.), 'I stretch the bow for Rudra, that with his arrow he may slay the brahma-hater'; asmábhyam dṛcâye súryāya púnar dātām ásum, 'may they grant life again, that we may see the sun'.
- b. An infinitive with \sqrt{kr} , 'make', is used nearly in the sense of a causative verb: thus, $pr\acute{a}$ 'ndhám cronám cákṣasa étave kṛthaḥ (RV.), 'ye make the blind and lame to see and go'; agnúm samídhe cakártha (RV.), 'thou hast made the fire to be kindled'. Of similar character is an occasional

construction with another verb: as, yád îm uçmási kártave kárat tát (RV.), 'what we wish to be done, may he do that'.

- c. A dative infinitive is not seldom used as a predicate, sometimes with, but more usually without, a copula expressed: thus, agnir iva nā pratidhṛṣe bhavati (TS.), 'like fire, he is not to be resisted'; mahimā te anyēna nā saṃnāce (VS.), 'thy greatness is not to be attained by another'; nākīm indro nīkartave nā cakrāḥ pāricaktave (RV.), 'Indra is not to be put down, the mighty one is not to be overpowered'.
- d. Sometimes an infinitive so used without a copula has pretty clearly the value of an imperative: thus, $ty\acute{a}$ me $yaç\^as\~a...\~aucij\^o$ huv\^adhyāi [asti] (RV.), 'these glorious ones shall the son of Uçij invoke for me'; $s\~ukt\^ebhir$ $va\^h...$ indr $\~a$ nv bgn'a åvase huvådhy $\~ai$ [staħ] (RV.), 'with your hymns shall ye call now on Indra and Agni for aid'; $vand\^adhy\~a$ agn'am namobhih [asmi] (RV.), 'let me greet Agni with homage'; $asm\'ak\~asac$ ca $s\~ur\~ayo$ $v\ievā$ åç $\~as$ $tar\~as\^ani$ (RV.), 'and let our sacrificers cross all regions'. The infinitives in $dhy\~ai$ and sani (which latter is in all its uses accordant with datives) are those in which the imperative value is most distinctly to be recognized.
- e. In the $\[\zeta B \]$. (with only a sporadic case or two elsewhere) the dative in $tav\bar{a}i$ is frequently used with a verb signifying 'speak' $(br\bar{u}, vac, ah)$, to express the ordering of anything to be done: thus, $t\acute{a}sm\bar{a}d$ $\acute{o}sadh\bar{i}n\bar{a}m$ $ev\acute{a}$ $m\acute{u}l\ddot{a}ny$ $\acute{a}cchettav\bar{a}t$ $br\bar{u}y\bar{a}t$, 'therefore let him direct the roots of the plants to be cut up (speak in order to cutting up)'.
- 983. The ablative infinitive which, like the accusative, is made only from the root-noun and that in tu is found especially with the prepositions \dot{a} , 'until', and $pur\dot{a}$, 'before'.

Thus, \dot{a} tâmitos (TS. etc.), 'until exhaustion'; $pur\dot{a}$ $v\bar{a}c\hat{a}h$ $pr\hat{a}vaditos$ (TS.), 'before utterance of the voice'. In the Brāhmaṇa language, this is the well-nigh exclusive construction of the ablative; in the Veda, the latter is used also after $rt\hat{e}$, 'without', and after several verbs, as $tr\bar{a}$ and $p\bar{a}$, yu, $bh\bar{\imath}$.

In two or three instances, by an attraction similar to that illustrated above for the dative (982 a), a noun dependent on this infinitive is put in the ablative beside it: thus, purā vāgbhyaḥ sampravaditoh (PB.), 'before the utterance together of the voices'; trádhvam kartád avapádaḥ (RV.), 'save us from falling down into the pit'.

984. The genitive infinitive (having the same form as the ablative) is in common use in the Brāhmana language as dependent on *īęvará*, 'lord, master', employed adjectively in the sense of 'capable' or 'likely' or 'exposed to'.

Examples are: $t\dot{a}$ [devátāḥ] $\bar{\imath}$ cvará enam pradáhaḥ (TS.), 'they are likely to burn him up'; átha ha $v\dot{a}$ $\bar{\imath}$ cvarò 'gnth citvá kthicid dāuritám ápattor ví $v\bar{a}$ hválitoḥ (ÇB.), 'so in truth he is liable, after piling the fire, to meet with some mishap or other, or to stagger'; $\bar{\imath}$ cvaram $v\bar{a}i$ rathantaram udgātuc cakṣuḥ pramathitoḥ (PB.), 'the rathantara is liable to knock out the eye of the chanter'.

The dative is once used in ÇB. instead of the genitive (in içvarāū jánayitavāt); and, in the later language, sometimes the accusative in tum. Occasionally the masc. sing. nom. içvarah is used, without regard to the gender or number of the word which it qualifies: thus, tásye "çvarāḥ prajā pāpīyasī bhāvitoḥ (ÇB.), 'his progeny is liable to deteriorate'. And in a few instances the word içvara is omitted, and the genitive has the same value without it: thus, dve madhyandinam abhi pratyetos (AB.), 'two may be added to the noon libation'; tāto dīkṣitāḥ pāmanó bhāvitoḥ (ÇB.), 'then the consecrated is liable to get the itch'.

This construction with $\bar{\imath}_{CVara}$, which is the only one for the genitive infinitive in the Brāhmana, is unknown in the Veda, where the genitive is found in a very small number of examples with $madhy\dot{\alpha}$, and with the root $\bar{\imath}_{C}$: thus, $madhy\dot{\alpha}$ kârtoḥ (RV.), 'in the midst of action'; $\dot{\imath}_{CC}$ $rac{a}y\delta$ d $\dot{\alpha}$ toḥ (RV.), 'he is master of the giving of wealth'.

- 985. Unless the infinitives in sani and tari are locative in form (their uses are those of datives), the locative infinitive is so rare, and has so little that is peculiar in its use, that it is hardly worth making any account of. An example is usaso budht (RV.), 'at the awakening of the dawn'.
- 986. In the Veda, the dative infinitive forms are very much more numerous than the accusative (in RV., their occurrences are twelve times as many; in AV., more than three times); and the accusative in tum is rare (only four forms in RV., only eight in AV.). In the Brāhmaṇas, the accusative has risen to much greater comparative frequency (its forms are nearly twice as many as those of the dative); but the ablative-genitive, which is rare in the Veda, has also come to full equality with it. The complete disappearance in the classical language of all excepting the accusative in tum is a matter for no small surprise.
- 987. The later infinitive in tum is oftenest used in constructions corresponding to those of the earlier accusative: thus, na vāṣpam açakat soḍhum, 'he could not restrain his tears'; tam draṣṭum arhasi, 'thou oughtest to see it'; prāptum ichanti, 'they desire to obtain'; samkhyātum ārabdham, 'having begun to count'. But also, not infrequently, in those of the other cases. So, especially, of the dative: thus, avasthātum sthānāntaram cintaya, 'devise another place to stay in'; tvām anveṣṭum ihā "gataḥ, 'he has come hither to seek for thee'; but likewise of the genitive: thus, samartho gantum, 'capable of going'; samdhātum īçvaraḥ, 'able to mend'. Even a construction as nominative is not unknown: thus, yuktam tasya mayā samāçvāsayitum bhāryām (MBh.), 'it is proper for me to comfort his wife'; na naptāram svayam nyāyyam çaptum evam (R.), 'it is not suitable thus to curse one's own grandson'.
- 988. In the later language, as in the earlier, the infinitive in certain connections has what we look upon as a passive value. Thus, kartum ārabāhaḥ,

'begun to be made': crotum na yujyate, 'it is not fit to be heard (for hearing)'. This is especially frequent along with the passive forms of V cak: thus, tyaktum na cakyate, 'it cannot be abandoned'; cakyāv ihā 'netum, 'they two can be brought hither'; na ca vibhūtayaḥ cakyam avāptum ūrjitāḥ, 'nor are mighty successes a thing capable of being attained'.

Gerunds.

989. The so-called gerund is a stereotyped case (doubtless instrumental) of a verbal noun, used generally, but in the later language not exclusively, as logical adjunct to the subject of a clause, denoting an accompanying or (usually) a preceding action to that signified by the verb of the clause. It has thus the virtual value of an indeclinable participle, present or past, qualifying the actor whose action it describes:

Thus, for example: crutvāi 'va cā 'bruvan, 'and hearing (or having heard) they spoke'; tebhyah pratijñāyā 'thāi 'tān paripapracha, 'having given them his promise, he then questioned them'.

990. The gerund is made in the later language by one of the two suffixes \overline{a} 1 $tv\overline{a}$ and \overline{u} ya, the former being used with a simple root, the latter with one that is compounded with a prepositional prefix — or, rarely, with an element of another kind, as adverb or noun.

Exceptions to this distribution of uses between the two suffixes are very rare: examples of simple roots with ya are arcya, grhya, usya (Vvas 'dwell'); of compounded roots with $tv\bar{a}$ are $anudhy\bar{a}tv\bar{a}$, $apatyaktv\bar{a}$, $pratyarpayitv\bar{a}$ (AV.: only case noticed in the Veda: TA. has $-rocayitv\bar{a}$). The gerund in $tv\bar{a}$, however, may have the negative particle prefixed to it: thus, $akrtv\bar{a}$, $an\bar{\imath}rayitv\bar{a}$.

Of compounds of the gerund in ya with other elements than the usual verbal prefixes, RV. has punardáya, karnagŕhya, pādagŕhya, hastagŕhya, aramkŕtya, akkhalīkŕtya, mithaspŕdhya; AV. has further namaskŕtya.

391. The suffix \overline{a} 1 $tv\overline{a}$ has the accent. It is usually added directly to the root, but sometimes with interposition of the auxiliary vowel ξ i— with regard to which, as well as to the form of the root before it, this formation closely agrees with that of the participle in \overline{a} ta (above, 952 ff.).

When i is used, the disposition to take a weak form of root is less marked. Roots which have na instead of ta as participial suffix usually reject the i.

2 992. The suffix य ya is added directly to the root, which is accented, but has its weak form. A root ending in a short vowel takes त्य tya instead of य ya: thus, जित्य -jitya, कृत्य -kṛ́tya.

Roots in am and an whose passive participle ends in ata (954 d) form this | gerund also in atya: thus, -gatya, -hatya. But such am-roots are allowed in the later language to preserve their nasal in the gerund: thus, -gamya (no such form occurs in the Veda). Final changeable r becomes $\bar{r}r$ or $\bar{u}r$: thus, $-g\bar{u}rya$, $-p\bar{u}rya$. Final \bar{a} remains unaltered: thus, $-g\bar{a}ya$, $-sth\bar{u}ya$; and mi 'establish' and mi 'diminish' take the form $m\bar{a}$; $l\bar{i}$ 'cling' is allowed to do the same.

- 993. The older language has the same two gerund formations, having the same distinction, and used in the same way.
- **a.** In RV., however, the final of ya is in the great majority of instances (fully two thirds) long (as if the instrumental ending of a derivative noun in i or ti). In AV., long \bar{a} appears only once, in a RV. passage.
- b. Instead of $tv\bar{a}$ alone, the Veda has three forms of the suffix, namely $tv\dot{a}$, $tv\dot{a}ya$, and $tv\dot{t}$. Of these three, $tv\dot{t}$ is decidedly the commonest in RV. (thirty-five occurrences, against twenty-one of $tv\bar{a}$); but it is unknown in AV., and very rare elsewhere in the older language; $tv\dot{a}ya$ is found nine times in RV. (only once outside the tenth Book), twice in AV., and but few times elsewhere. The historical relation of the three forms is obscure.
- c. Two other gerund suffixes, $tv\bar{u}nam$ and $tv\bar{v}nam$, are mentioned by the grammarians as of Vedic use, but they have nowhere been found actually to occur.
- 994. The use of this gerund, through not changing in its character, becomes much more frequent, and even excessive, in the later language.

Thus, in the Nala and Bhagavad-Gītā, which have only one tenth as many verb-forms as RV., there are more than three times as many examples of the gerund as in the latter.

Early examples are: vájrena hatvá nír apáh sasarja (RV.), 'striking with his thunderbolt, be poured forth the waters'; stríyam drstváya kitavám tatāpa (RV.), 'the gambler is distressed when he sees a woman'; pītvī sómasya vāvrāhe (RV.), 'having drunk of the soma, he waxed strong'. In the older language almost without exception, and in the later usually, it expresses an action or condition belonging to the subject of the sentence; but it is in some texts more loosely construed: thus, tatah cabdād abhijñāya sa vyāghrena hatah (H.), 'thereupon he was slain by the tiger, the latter having recognized him by his noise'; kim nu me syād idam kṛtvā (MBh.), 'what, I wonder,

would happen to me, having done this?' sucintya co 'ktam suvicarya yat kṛtam (H.), 'what is said after mature thought, and done after full deliberation'.

Adverbial Gerund in am.

995. The accusative of a derivative nomen action is in a, used adverbially, assumes sometimes a value and construction so accordant with that of the usual gerund that it cannot well be called by a different name.

No example of a peculiar gerundial construction with such a form occurs either in RV. or AV., although a few adverbial accusatives are probably to be classed as representing this formation: thus, $abhy\bar{u}kr\dot{u}mam$, $prat\dot{u}\bar{n}kam$, $pran\dot{o}dam$, $nil\dot{u}yam$, $abhisk\dot{u}ndam$. The gerund is found especially in the Brāhmaṇas (much oftenest in ÇB.), and sparingly later. In the classical language it is quite rare.

A final vowel has vrddhi-strengthening before the suffix; final \bar{a} adds y; a medial vowel has guna; but medial a is usually lengthened. The accent is on the radical syllable.

CHAPTER XIV.

DERIVATIVE OR SECONDARY CONJUGATION.

996. Secondary conjugations are those in which a whole system of forms, like that already described as made from the simple root, is made, with greater or less completeness, from a derivative conjugation-stem; and is also usually connected with a certain definite modification of the original radical sense.

We have seen, indeed, that the tense-systems are also for the most part made from derivative-stems; and even that, in some cases, such stems assume the appearance and value of roots, and are made the basis of a complete conjugational system. Nor is there any distinct division-line to be drawn between tense-systems and derivative conjugations — the latter are present-systems which have been expanded into conjugations by the addition of other tenses, and of participles, infinitives, and so on. In the earliest language, their forms outside of the present-system are still quite rare, hardly more than sporadic; and even later they are — with the exception of one or two formations which attain a comparative frequency — much less common than the corresponding forms of primary conjugation.

997. The secondary conjugations are: I. Passive; II. Intensive; III. Desiderative; IV. Causative; V. Denominative.

The passive is classed here rather as a matter of convenience and of general usage than because it is of the same kind with the others.

I. Passive.

- 998. The passive conjugation has been already in the main described. Thus, we have seen that:
- a. It has a special present-system, the stem of which is present only, and not made the basis of any of the remaining forms: this stem is formed with the accented class-sign $\pi y \dot{a}$, and it takes the middle endings. It is treated above, 768 ff.
- b. In the other tenses, the middle forms are used also in a passive sense. But:
- c. There is a special passive 3d sing. of the aorist, ending in ξ i: it is treated above, 842 ff. And:
- d. According to the grammarians, there may be formed from some verbs, for passive use, a special stem for the acrist and the two future systems, coinciding in form with the peculiar 3d sing. acrist.

Thus: from $\sqrt{d\bar{a}}$ (aor. 3d sing. $ad\bar{a}yi$), beside $\hat{a}d\bar{a}si$, $d\bar{a}sy\hat{e}$, $d\bar{a}t\hat{a}he$, also $\hat{a}d\bar{a}yisi$, $d\bar{a}yisy\hat{e}$, $d\bar{a}yit\hat{a}he$. The permission to make this double formation extends to all roots ending in vowels, and to grah, dre, and han. The duplicate forms have not been noticed in the older language, and they are, at the best, extremely rare in the later.

As to the prescribed passive inflection of the periphrastic perfect, see below, 1072.

e. Besides the participle from the present tense-stem (771.5), the passive has a past participle in π ta (952), or π na (957), and future participles, or gerundives, of various formation (961 ff.), made directly from the root.

999. The passive construction, with the logical subject in the instrumental case, is a frequent and favorite one, especially in the later language: thus, evam uktvā tena sarvesām bandhanāni chittāni (H.), 'thus saying, he cut the bonds of them all'. And, extremely frequently, an impersonal passive in the third person is used; and it may (as in other languages) be formed from intransitive as well as transitive verbs: thus, cruyatam, 'let it be heard' (i. e. hear ye!), ihā ''gamyatām, 'come hither'; sarvāir jālam ādāyo 'ddīyatām (H.), 'let all fly up, taking the net with them'; tac chrutvā jaradgaveno 'ktam, 'hearing that, Jaradgava said'; katham jīvitavyam, 'how is one to live?' yāvad anena muninā sthātavyam (H.), 'as long as that sage shall exist'. The predicate to the instrumental subject of such a construction is, of course, also in the instrumental: thus, adhunā tavā 'nucarena mayā sarvathā bhavitavyam (H.), 'henceforth I shall always be thy companion'; tena tvayā yāvajjīvam sukhinā bhavitavyam (H.), 'with that thou shalt be happy as long as thou livest'. The gerundive is common in this construction, and not seldom it has a purely future sense.

II. Intensive.

1000. The intensive (sometimes also called frequentative) is that one of the secondary conjugations which is least removed from the analogy of formations already described. It is, like the present-system of the second conjugation-class (642 ff.), the inflection of a reduplicated stem, but of one that is peculiar in having a strengthened reduplication. It is decidedly less extended beyond the limits of a present-system than any other of the derivative conjugations.

The intensive conjugation signifies the repetition or intensification of the action expressed by the primary conjugation of a root.

1001. According to the grammarians, the intensive conjugation may be formed from nearly all the roots in the language — the exceptions being: roots of more than one

syllable, those conjugated only causatively (below, 1058), and in general those beginning with a vowel.

In fact, however, intensives in the later language are extremely rare, so rare that it is hard to tell precisely what value is to be given to the rules of the native grammar respecting them. Nor are they at all common earlier, except (comparatively) in the RV., which contains about six sevenths of the whole number (rather over a hundred) quotable from Veda and Brāhmaṇa-texts (AV. has less than half as many as RV., and many of these in RV. passages).

Hence, in the description to be given below, the actual aspect of the formation, as exhibited in the older language, will be had primarily and especially in view; and the examples will be of forms found there in use.

- 1002. The strong intensive reduplication is made in three different ways:
- a. The reduplicating syllable is, as elsewhere, composed of a single consonant with following vowel, and, so far as the consonant is concerned, follows the rules for present and perfect reduplication (590); but the vowel is a heavy one, radical a and r (or ar) being reduplicated with \bar{a} , an i-vowel by e, and an u-vowel by o.

Examples are: $v\bar{u}vad$, $b\bar{u}badh$, $c\bar{u}cvas$, $r\bar{u}randh$; $d\bar{u}dr$, $d\bar{u}dh$; cekit, tetij, $nen\bar{\imath}$, $vevl\bar{\imath}$; cocuc, popruth, cosku, $joh\bar{u}$.

b. The reduplicating syllable has a final consonant, taken from the end of the root. With an exception or two, this consonant is either r (or its substitute l) or a nasal.

Examples are: carcar, calcal, sars, marmy, jarhys; co \bar{n} kram, ja \bar{n} ghan, tanstan, dandaç (Vdanç or daç), ja \bar{n} jabh (Vjambh or jabh), tantas (Vtans or tas), nannam (Vnam).

Only roots having a or r as vowel make this form of reduplication, but with such roots it is more common than either of the other forms.

Irregular formations of this class are: with a final other than r or n in the reduplication, badbadh; with a final nasal in the reduplication which is not found in the root, $ja\bar{n}gah$ (RV.), $ja\bar{n}jap$ (GB.: and the later language has dandah); with an anomalous initial consonant in reduplication, jarbhur from γbhr (compare the Vedic perfect $jabh\bar{a}ra$, 789b); with various treatment of an r or ar-element, dardar and dardir, carkar and carkir, tartar and tartur, carcar and carcur, jargur and jalgul and galgul.

The root r is the only one with vowel initial forming an intensive stem in the older language: it makes the irregular alar or alr.

c. The reduplication is dissyllabic, an *i*-vowel being added after a final consonant of the reduplicating syllable. This *i*-vowel is in the older language short before a double consonant, and long before a single.

Examples are: ganigam (but ganigmatam), varivit, vanivāh, caniskad,

sanisvan; navīnu, davidyut (and the participles davidhvat but tavītuat). A single exception as to the quantity of the i is davidhava.

This method of reduplication is followed in the older language by over twenty roots. Thus, of roots having final or penultimate n (once m), and n in the reduplicating syllable, pan, phan, san, svan, han; gam; krand, ccand, skand, syand; of roots having final or medial r, and r in the reduplicating syllable, kr 'make', tr, bhr, vr, mrd, vrj, vrt; — further, of roots assuming in the reduplication a n not found in the root, only vah (ζ B.: the grammarians allow also kas, pat, pad); finally, of roots having u or \bar{u} as radical vowel, with av before the i-vowel, tu, $dh\bar{u}$, nu, dyut.

In this class, the general rules as to the form of the reduplicating consonant (590) are violated in the case of ghanīghan and bharībhr, and of ganīgam, karīkr (but the regular carīkr also occurs), kanikrand, and kaniṣkand (but also caniṣkand occurs).

The reversion to more original gnttural form after the reduplication in cekit, and $ja\bar{n}ghan$ and $ghan\bar{i}ghan$, is in accordance with what takes place elsewhere (216.9).

1003. The same root is allowed to form its intensive stem in more than one way.

Thus, in the older language, $d\bar{a}dr$ and dardr; $d\bar{a}dhr$ and dardhr; $c\bar{a}cal$ and carcar (and carcur); tartar (and tartur) and $tar\bar{t}tr$; $ja\bar{n}ghan$ and $ghan\bar{g}han$; varvrt and $var\bar{v}vrt$; jarbhur and $bhar\bar{b}hr$; $dodh\bar{u}$ and $dav\bar{u}dh\bar{u}$; nonu and $nav\bar{u}u$; $b\bar{u}badh$ and badbadh.

1004. The model of normal intensive inflection is the present-system of the reduplicating conjugation-class (II.); and this is indeed to a considerable extent followed, in respect to endings, strengthening of stem, and accent. But deviations from the model are not rare; and the forms are in general of too infrequent occurrence to allow of satisfactory classification and explanation.

The most marked irregularity is the frequent insertion of an ξ $\bar{\imath}$ between the stem and ending. According to the grammarians, this is allowed in all the strong forms before an ending beginning with a consonant; and before the ξ $\bar{\imath}$ a final vowel has guṇa-strengthening, but a medial one remains unchanged.

Present System.

1005. We will take up the parts of the present-system in their order, giving first what is recognized as regular in the

later language, and then showing how the formation appears in the earlier texts. As most grammarians do not allow a middle inflection, and middle forms are few even in the Veda, no attempt will be made to set up a paradigm for the middle voice.

े 1006. As example of inflection may be taken the root विद् vid, of which the intensive stem is वेविद् vevid, or, in strong forms, वेवेद् véved.

Neither from this nor any other root are more than a few scattering forms actually quotable.

1. Present Indicative.

| 1 | वेवेद्गि, वेविदीमि | ^{ढ.} वेविद्दम् | ^{ृ.} वेविद्मम् |
|---|--------------------|----------------------------|----------------------------|
| | vévedmi, vévidīmi | vevidvás | vevidmás |
| 2 | वेवेतिस, वेविदीषि | वेवित्यम् | वेवित्य |
| | vévetsi, vévidīsi | vevitthás | $vevitthcute{a}$ |
| 3 | वेवेत्ति, वेविदीति | वेवित्तम् | वेविदति |
| | vévetti, vévidīti | vevittás` | $v\'evidati$ |

From \sqrt{gg} $\hbar \bar{u}$, the singular forms with auxiliary vowel would be जोक्वीमि $j\acute{o}hav\bar{\imath}mi$, जोक्वीपि $j\acute{o}hav\bar{\imath}si$, जोक्वीति $j\acute{o}-hav\bar{\imath}ti$.

1007. The forms found in the older language agree in general with the paradigm. Examples are: 1st sing., carkarmi, veveşmi; 2d sing., alarşi, dârdarşi; 3d sing., âlarti, veveti, nenekti, janghanti, kânikrantti, ganīgamti; 3d du., jarbhṛtâs; 1st pl., nonumas; 3d pl., nānadati, bharibhrati, várvṛtati, dâvidyutati, nênijati; and, with the auxiliary vowel, jôhavīmi, cākaçīmi; cākaçīti, nônavīti, dardarīti, jarbhurīti. No stem with dissyllabic reduplication takes the auxiliary $\bar{\imath}$ in any of its forms. AV. has jāgráti, with irregular accent.

A single dual form with $\bar{\imath}$ and strong stem occurs: namely, $tartar\bar{\imath}thas$. The middle forms found to occur are: 1st sing., jóguve, nenije; 3d sing., nenikté, sarsrte; and, with irregular accent, $t\acute{e}tikte$, $d\acute{e}diste$; with irregular union-vowel, $n\acute{a}nnate$; with ending e instead of te, $j\acute{a}ngahe$, $j\acute{o}guve$, yoyuve, $b\bar{a}badhe$, and (with irregular accent) $badbadh\acute{e}$; 3d du., sarsrate; 3d pl., $d\acute{e}dicate$.

2. Present Subjunctive.

1008. Subjunctive forms with primary endings are extremely rare: there have been noticed only $ja\bar{n}gh\acute{a}n\bar{a}ni$, $j\bar{a}gar\bar{a}si$ (AV.); and, in the middle, $tantas\bar{a}tte$ (3d du.).

Forms with secondary endings are more frequent: thus, 2d sing., jan-

ghanas, jalgulas; 3d sing., jāgarat, cárkṛṣat, jánghanat, bárbṛhat, mármṛjat, mármṛcat, parpharat, dardirat, caniṣkadat, davidyutat, saniṣvanat; 1st du., janghanāva; 1st pl., carkirāma, vevidāma; 3d pl., pápatan, cócucan, carkiran; and, with double mode-sign, cákaçān (AV.). Besides these, rārāṇas and rārāṇat, cākānas and cākānat and cākānāma, which their accent assimilates rather to perfect mode-forms with long reduplication, like māmāhas and sāsāhat etc. (810a). Of the middle are found only 3d persons plural: thus, jānghananta, jarhṛṣanta, marmṛjanta, nonuvanta, cocucanta; and cākānanta (and cakananta once).

3. Present Optative.

1009. This mode would show the unstrengthened stem, with the usual endings (566), accented. Thus:

| s. | d. | р. |
|-----------------------|------------------------|------------------------|
| वेविखाम् | वेविघाव | वेविग्वाम |
| vevidy á m | vevidy á va | vevidy á ma |
| etc. | etc. | etc. |

The optative is represented by only an example or two in the older language: thus, active, $vevisy\bar{a}t$ (AV.), $j\bar{a}gry\bar{a}t$ (AB.); RV. has only $c\bar{a}kany\bar{a}t$ (pft.?); middle, $nenij\bar{\imath}ta$ (K.).

4. Present Imperative.

1010. The regular forms of the imperative, including the usual subjunctive first persons, would be as follows:

| 1 | वेविदानि | ^{त.} वेविदाव | ^{⊉.} वेविदाम |
|---|---------------------------------|--------------------------|--------------------------|
| | v é v i d \bar{a} n i | $v\acute{e}vidar{a}va$ | vévidāma |
| 2 | वेविद्धि | वेवित्तम् | वेवित |
| | veviddhí | . vevittám | $vevittcute{a}$ |
| 3 | वेवेत्, वेविदीत् | वेवित्ताम् | वेविदत् |
| | vévettu, vévidītu | vevitt á m | vévidatu |

1011. Older imperative forms are less rare than optative. The first persons have been given above $(ja\bar{n}gh\acute{a}n\bar{a}ni)$, the only accented example, does not correspond with the model, but is in conformity with the subjunctive of the reduplicating present); the proper imperatives are: 2d sing., $d\bar{a}drhi$, dardrhi, carkrdhi, $j\bar{a}grhi$, nenigdhi, and $r\bar{a}randdhi$, $r\bar{a}randhi$, $c\bar{a}kandhi$, $v\bar{a}vandhi$; the ending $t\bar{a}t$ is found in $carkrt\bar{a}t$ and $j\bar{a}grt\bar{a}t$; and the latter (as was pointed out above, 570) is used in AV. as first person sing.; barbrhi shows an elsewhere unparalleled loss of h before the ending hi; $3d \sin g$, vevestu, dardartu, marmartu, and $r\bar{a}rantu$; 2d du., $j\bar{a}grtam$; 3d du., $j\bar{a}grtam$; 2d pl., $j\bar{a}grta$, and $r\bar{a}ranta$; $ca\bar{n}kramata$ (RV., once) has an anomalous union-vowel; 3d pl., only the anomalous $c\bar{a}kantu$ (RV., once), apparently for $c\bar{a}kanatu$. In the middle voice is found only neniksva (CB.).

Of imperative forms with auxiliary $\tilde{\imath}$, RV. has none; AV. has $v\tilde{a}vad\tilde{\imath}tu$ and $johav\tilde{\imath}tu$, and such are sometimes found in the Brāhmanas; AV. has also, against rule, $tanstan\tilde{\imath}hi$ and $ja\tilde{n}ghan\tilde{\imath}hi$.

5. Present Participle.

1012. The intensive participles, both active and middle, are comparatively common in the older language. They are formed and inflected like those of the reduplicating present, and have the accent on the reduplicating syllable.

Examples are: active, cákaçat, nánadat, cékitat, mémyat, cócucat, róruvat, dárdrat, mármrjat, jánghanat, nánnamat, pániphanat, kánikradat, dávidyutat; — middle, bábadhāna, mémyāna, cékitāna, yóyuvāna, rórucāna, járbhurāṇa, sársrāṇa, nánnamāna, dándaçāna. No middle participle shows the dissyllabic reduplication.

1013. On account of their accent, $r\bar{a}rah\bar{a}n\acute{a}$, $r\bar{a}raks\bar{a}n\acute{a}$, and $j\bar{a}hrs\bar{a}n\acute{a}$ (beside $j\acute{a}rhrs\bar{a}n\acute{a}$) are probably to be regarded as perfect participles, although no other perfect forms with heavy reduplication from the same roots occur. The inference is, however, rendered uncertain by the unmistakably intensive $badbadh\bar{a}n\acute{a}$ and $marmrj\bar{a}n\acute{a}$ (beside $m\acute{a}rmrj\bar{a}na$).

The RV. has once $j\bar{a}\bar{n}ghnatas$, gen. sing., with root-vowel cast out; $k\bar{a}nikrat$ appears to be used once for $k\bar{a}nikradat$; if $c\bar{a}k\bar{a}t$ is to be referred to $Vk\bar{a}$ (Grassmann), it is the only example of an intensive from a root in \bar{a} , and its accent is anomalous. Marmreantas (AB.) is probably a false reading.

6. Imperfect.

1014. The imperfect is regularly inflected as follows:

| | s. | d. | D. |
|---|--------------------------------|-------------------------|----------------|
| 1 | म्रवेविदम् | म्रवेविद | म्रवेविस |
| | ávevidam a | lpha vevidva | lpha vevidma |
| 2 | म्रवेवेत्, म्रवेविदीस् | म्रवेवित्तम् | ग्रवेवित |
| | ávevet, ávevidīs | ávevittam | $\it avevitta$ |
| 3 | म्रवेवेत्, म्रवेविदी त् | ग्रवेविताम् | ग्रवेविडम् |
| | ávevet, ávevidīt | $\acute{a}vevittar{a}m$ | ávevidus 🔌 |

1015. The imperfect forms found in the earlier texts are not numerous. They are, including those from which the augment is omitted, as follows: in active, 1st sing., acākaçam, dediçam; 2d sing., ajāgar, adardar, dárdar, cākán; 3d sing., adardar, adardhar, avarīvar, dardar, kániṣkan, dávidyot, návīnot, and cākán and rārán; 2d du., adardrtam; 1st pl., marmṛjmā; 3d pl., arāranus, anannamus, adardirus, acarkṛṣus, ájohavus, anonavus: and, with auxiliary ī, in 3d sing., ávāvaçīt, ávāvarīt, áyoyavīt, ároravīt, ájohavīt; and, irregularly, in 3d du., avāvaçītām. The middle forms are

extremely few: namely, 3d sing., ådedista, ånannata (with loss of the final radical in a weak form of root); 3d pl. marmrjata, and avāvaçanta (which, if it belongs here, shows a transfer to an a-stem).

1016. Derivative Middle Inflection. From every intensive stem, as above described, may be formed in the present-system a further derivative conjugation which is formally identical with a passive, being made by the accented sign $\nabla y \dot{a}$, along with middle endings only. It has not, however, a passive value, but is in meaning and use indistinguishable from the simpler conjugation.

A final vowel before this ya is treated as before the passive-sign ya (770).

The inflection is precisely like that of any other stem ending in a in the middle voice: thus, from \sqrt{mrj} , intensive stem marmrj, is made the present indicative marmrjyé, marmrjyáse, marmrjyáte, etc.; optative marmrjyéya, marmrjyéthās, marmrjyéta, etc.; imperative marmrjyásva, marmrjyátām, etc.; participle marmrjyámāna; imperfect ámarmrjye, ámarmrjyathās, ámarmrjyata, etc.; subjunctive forms do not occur.

1017. This kind of intensive inflection is said to be much more usual than the other in the later language; in the earlier, it is comparatively rare.

In RV., $y\hat{a}$ -forms are made from eight roots, five of which have also forms of the simpler conjugation; the AV. adds one more; the other earlier texts (so far as observed) only twelve more, and half of them have likewise forms of the simpler conjugation. Thus: from Vmrj, $marmrjy\hat{a}te$ etc., and $mar\bar{i}mrjyeta$; from Vtr, $tart\bar{u}ryante$; from Vcar, $carc\bar{u}ry\hat{a}m\bar{a}na$; from $Vn\bar{i}$, $nen\bar{i}y\hat{e}ran$ etc.; from $Vv\bar{i}$, $vev\bar{i}yate$; from Vrih, $rerihy\hat{a}te$ etc.; from Vvij, vevijyate; from Vsku, $cosk\bar{u}y\hat{a}se$ etc.; from Vdic, dedicyate; from $Vk\bar{a}c$, $c\bar{a}kacyate$; from Vvad, $v\bar{a}vadyam\bar{a}na$; from Vnam, nannamyadhvam; from Vvah, $van\bar{i}vahy\hat{e}ta$ etc. (with lengthened root-vowel, elsewhere unknown); from Vkrand, $kanikradyam\bar{a}na$; from Vvit, $var\bar{i}vartyam\bar{a}na$ ($Carcine{GB}$: should be $var\bar{i}vrity$ -); from Vmrc, $amar\bar{i}mrc$ cyanta ($Carcine{GB}$.? the text reads $amar\bar{i}mrisyanta$; from Vyup, yoyupyante etc.; from Vnud, anonudyanta; from $Vvl\bar{i}$, $avevl\bar{i}yanta$; from Vjabh, janjabhyate etc.; from Vap, $janjapyam\bar{a}na$.

Perfect.

1018. The grammarians are at variance as to whether a perfect may be formed directly from the intensive stem,

or whether only a periphrastic perfect (below, 1070 ff.) is to be admitted.

In the older language, no example of an intensive periphrastic perfect has come to light. A few unmistakable perfect forms are made from the intensively reduplicated root in RV.: namely, $davidh\bar{a}va$ and $nón\bar{a}va$, 3d sing., and nonuvus, 3d pl., and TS. has once $dodr\bar{a}va$. To these may be added $j\bar{a}gara$ 1st sing. and $j\bar{a}gdra$ 3d sing.: but as to these, see below, 1020.

Aorist, Future, etc.

1019. As to the remaining parts of a full verbal conjugation, also, the grammarians are not agreed (occurrences of such forms, apparently, being too rare to afford even them any basis for rules); in general, it is allowed to treat the intensive stem further as a root in filling up the scheme of forms, using always the auxiliary vowel ξ i where it is ever used in the simple conjugation.

Thus, from \sqrt{vid} , intensive stem vevid, would be made the aorist avevidisam with precative $vevidiy\bar{a}sam$, the futures $vevidisy\bar{a}mi$ and $vevidit\bar{a}smi$, the participles vevidita, veviditavya, etc., the infinitive veviditum, and the gerunds $veviditv\bar{a}$ and -vevidya. And, where the intensive conjugation is the derivative middle one, the aorist and futures would take the corresponding middle form.

Of all this, in the ancient language, there is hardly a trace. The RV. has carkṛṣe, 3d sing. mid., of a formation like hiṣe and stuṣė (894 d), and the gerundives vitantasāyya, and marmṛjénya and vāvṛdhénya; and ÇB. has the participle vanīvūhitā, and the infinitive dédīyitavāt. As to jāgariṣyánt and jāgaritā, see the next paragraph.

1020. There are systems of inflection of certain roots, the intensive character of which is questioned or questionable. Thus:

The root $g\bar{r}$ (or gar) 'wake' has from the first no present-system save one with intensive reduplication; and its intensive stem, $j\bar{a}gr$, begins early to assume the value of a root, and form a completer conjugation; while by the grammarians this stem is reckoned as if simple and belonging to the root-class (I.), and is inflected throughout accordingly. Those of its forms which occur in the older language have been given along with the other intensives above. They are, for the present-system, the same with those acknowledged as regular later. The older perfect is like the other intensive perfects found in RV:: namely, $j\bar{a}gara$ etc., with the participle $j\bar{a}grv\bar{a}ns$; and a future, $j\bar{a}garisyant$, and a passive participle $j\bar{a}garita$ are met with in the Brāhmaṇas. The old aorist (RV.) is the usual reduplicated or so-called causative aorist: thus, $aj\bar{a}gar$. The grammarians give it in the later language a perfect with

additional reduplication, $jaj\bar{a}g\bar{a}ra$ etc., an is-aorist, $aj\bar{a}garisam$, with precative $j\bar{a}gary\bar{a}sam$, and everything else that is needed to make up a complete conjugation.

1021. The stem *irajya* (active only), 'regulate', from which a number of forms are made in RV., has been viewed as an intensive from γraj or γj . It lacks, however, any analogy with the intensive formation. The same is true of iradh, 'propitiate' (only iradhanta and iradhyai, apparently for iradhanta).

The middle stem iya, not infrequent in the oldest language, is usually called an intensive of γi 'go', but with very doubtful propriety, as it has no analogy of form with any intensives. The isolated 1st pl. imahe, common in RV., is also of questionable character.

- 1022. The root $l\bar{\imath}$ 'totter', with constant intensive reduplication, $lel\bar{\imath}$, is quite irregular in inflection and accent: thus, pres., $lel\dot{a}yati$ and $lel\bar{a}yate$ pples $lel\bar{a}yant\bar{\imath}$ and $lel\dot{a}yatas$ (gen. sing.) and $lel\bar{a}yam\bar{a}na$, impf. $alel\bar{a}yat$, alelet and $alel\bar{\imath}yata$.
- 1023. The RV. anomalous form dart (or dard), 2d and 3d sing, from \sqrt{dr} or dar, is doubtfully referred to the intensive, as if abbreviated from dardar. RV. has once $avar\bar{\imath}vus$ (or -vur) where the sense requires a form from \sqrt{vrt} , as $avar\bar{\imath}vrtus$. The form $rar\bar{a}n\dot{a}t\bar{a}$ (RV., once) seems corrupt.
- 1024. A marked intensive or frequentative meaning is not always easily to be traced in the forms classed as intensive; and in some of them it is quite effaced. Thus, the roots cit, nij, vis use their intensive present-system as if it were an ordinary conjugation-class; nor is it otherwise with randh, ran, kan (of which, as noticed above, the forms admit of being referred to the perfect-system), and with gr ($j\bar{a}gr$). The grammarians reckon the inflection of nij and vis as belonging to the reduplicating present-system (II.), with irregularly strengthened reduplication; and they treat in the same way vic and vij; $j\bar{a}gr$, as we have seen, they account a simple root.

Also $daridr\bar{a}$, intensive of $\gamma/dr\bar{a}$ 'run', is made by the grammarians a simple root, and furnished with a complete set of conjugational forms: as $dadaridr\bar{a}u$; $adaridr\bar{a}s\bar{i}t$, etc. etc. It does not occur in the older language. The so-called root $vev\bar{i}$ 'flutter' is a pure intensive.

1025. It is allowed by the grammarians to make from the intensive stem also a passive, desiderative, causative, and so on: thus, from vevid, pass. vevidyé; desid. vévidiṣāmi; caus. vevidáyāmi; desid. of causative, vévidayiṣāmi. But such formations are not found in the older language, and, if they occur at all, are excessively rare in the later.

III. Desiderative.

1026. By the desiderative conjugation is signified a desire for the action or condition denoted by the simple root:

thus, पिवामि pibāmi, 'I drink', desid. पिपासामि pipāsāmi, 'I wish to drink'; जीवामि jivāmi, 'I live', desid. जिजीविषामि jiyī-viṣāmi, 'I desire to live'. Such a conjugation is allowed to be formed from any simple root in the language, and also from any causative stem.

The desiderative conjugation, although its forms outside the present-system are extremely rare in the oldest language, is earlier and more fully expanded into a whole verbal system than the intensive. Its forms are also of increasing frequency: much fewer than the intensives in RV., more numerous in the Brāhmanas and later; not one third of the whole number of roots (about ninety) noted as having a desiderative conjugation in Veda and Brāhmana have such in RV.

- 1027. The desiderative stem is formed from the simple root by the addition of two characteristics: **a**. a reduplication, which always has the accent; **b**. an appended $\forall sa$ which, however (like the tense-signs of aorist and future), sometimes takes before it the auxiliary vowel ξ i, becoming $\forall sa$.
- 1028. The root in general remains unchanged; but with the following exceptions:
- **a.** A final i or u is lengthened before sa: thus, $cik_{\bar{i}}\bar{s}_{\bar{a}}$, $cik_{\bar{i}}\bar{s}_{\bar{a}}$, $jig\bar{i}_{\bar{s}}a$; $cucr\bar{u}_{\bar{s}}a$, $juh\bar{u}_{\bar{s}}a$.
- **b.** A final r becomes $\bar{i}r$ or $\bar{u}r$ before sa: thus, $cik\bar{i}r\bar{s}a$, $sis\bar{i}r\bar{s}a$, $jih\bar{i}r\bar{s}a$; $bubh\bar{u}r\bar{s}a$, $tust\bar{u}r\bar{s}a$ (the only examples noted from the older texts).
- c. Before isa, the same finals necessarily, and a penultimate i or u or r optionally, have the guna-strengthening (no examples are quotable from the older texts).

More special exceptions are:

- **d.** A few roots in \bar{a} weaken this vowel to $\bar{\imath}$ or even i: thus, $pip\bar{\imath}_{\bar{\imath}}a$ (beside $pip\bar{a}sa$) from $\sqrt{p}\bar{a}$ 'drink', $jih\bar{\imath}_{\bar{\imath}}a$ (AV.) from $\sqrt{h}\bar{a}$ 'remove' ($jih\bar{\imath}te$: **664**); $didhi_{\bar{\imath}}a$ (beside $dhi_{\bar{\imath}}sa$) from $\sqrt{dh}\bar{a}$.
- e. A few roots in an or am lengthen the vowel: thus, jigānsa (beside jigamisa) from γ gam; jighānsa from γ han; mīmānsa from γ man; and γ tan is said to make titānsa.
- f. Reversion to guttural form of an initial after the reduplication is seen in $cik\bar{\imath}sa$ from ψci , cikitsa from ψcit , $jig\bar{\imath}sa$ from ψji , $jigh\bar{a}nsa$ from ψhan ; and ψhi is said to make $jigh\bar{\imath}sa$.

- g. The roots van and san make vivāsa and siṣāsa, from the root-forms $v\bar{a}$ and $s\bar{a}$.
- h. The root jīv forms jujyūṣa (ÇB.: jijīviṣa, VS.); and the other roots in īv (or iv: 765) are required to make the same change before sa, and to have guṇa before iṣa: thus, susyūṣa or siseviṣa. Svap forms suṣupsa. Dhūrv forms dudhūrṣa.
- i. Initial s is usually left unchanged to s after the reduplication when the desiderative sign has s $(184 \, e)$: thus, $sisa\bar{n}ksa$ (ÇB.: $\gamma sa\tilde{n}j$), and $susy\bar{u}sa$ and sisanisa, according to the grammarians.
- **k.** Further may be mentioned as prescribed by the grammarians: $nina\bar{n}ksa$ (or ninasisa) from Vnas, 'perish'; $mina\bar{n}ksa$ from Vmajj; $mim\bar{a}r-jisa$ (or mimrksa) from Vmrj.
- 1029. The consonant of the reduplication follows the general rules (590); the vowel is \bar{z} i if the root has an avowel, or \bar{z} r, or an i-vowel; it is \bar{z} u if the root has an u-vowel. But:
- a. A few roots have a long vowel in the reduplicating syllable: thus, $b\bar{b}bhatsa$ from $\gamma badh$ or $b\bar{a}dh$; $m\bar{b}m\bar{a}nsa$ from γman ; and $t\bar{u}t\bar{u}rsa$ (RV.) from γtur .
- b. From \sqrt{ac} is made (in \sqrt{CB}). acicisa (with a mode of reduplication like that followed sometimes in the reduplicating acrist: 862). The grammarians give other cases of the same kind: thus, arjihisa from \sqrt{arh} , $\bar{aci-ksisa}$ from \sqrt{riks} , undidisa from \sqrt{und} , ardidhisa from \sqrt{rdh} . In the older language, ac is the only root with initial vowel which forms a desiderative stem, except \bar{ap} and rdh, which have abbreviated stems: see the next paragraph.
- c. RV. has the stems inaksa and iyaksa, regarded as desideratives from $\gamma \gamma nac$ 'attain' and yaj, with mutilated reduplication.
- 1030. A number of roots, including some of very common use, form an abbreviated stem apparently by a contraction of reduplication and root together into one syllable: thus, $\frac{1}{3}$ CH $\bar{\imath}psa$ from $\sqrt{\pi}$ IQ $\bar{a}p$; $\frac{1}{3}$ CH $\bar{\imath}ditsa$ from $\sqrt{\pi}$ IQ $\bar{a}a$.

Such abbreviated stems are found in the older language as follows: dhitsa (beside didhisa) from $Vdh\bar{a}$; ditsa (beside didhisa) from $Vd\bar{a}$; dipsa from Vdabh; cikṣa from Vcak; sīkṣa from Vsah: these are found in RV.; in AV. are added $\bar{\imath}psa$ from $V\bar{\imath}ap$ (RV. has apsa once), and $\bar{\imath}rtsa$ from Vrah: the other texts furnish lipsa (CB.) or l $\bar{\imath}psa$ (TB.) from Vlabh, ripsa (GB.) from Vrabh, pitsa (CB.) from Vpadh, and dh $\bar{\imath}ksa$ (CB.) from Vdabh, instead of dipsa; they form pitsa from Vpadh as well as pad; and they add ritsa from Vpadh, j $\bar{\imath}psa$ (beside $jij\bar{\imath}apayisa$) from the causative quasi-root $j\bar{\imath}ap$ (below, 1042e), and mitsa from $VVm\bar{a}$ and $m\bar{\imath}$ and mi: this last could be only an anomalous

etc.

etc.

etc.

formation, made after the analogy of the others. Also moksa is reckoned as a desiderative stem from Vmuc (it is denominative, rather).

1031. The use of the auxiliary vowel ξ *i* is quite rare in the early language, but more common later; and it is allowed or prescribed by the grammarians in many stems which have not yet been found in actual use.

It is declared to follow in general, though not without exceptions, necessary or optional, the analogy of the futures (934, 943).

No example of the use of i is found in RV., and only one each in AV. (pipatiṣa), VS. (jijāviṣa), and TS. (jigamiṣa). The other examples noted in the early texts are aciciṣa, cikramiṣa, jigrahiṣa (with i for i, as elsewhere in this root), cicariṣa, jijaniṣa, didākṣiṣa, bibādhiṣa, rirādhiṣa, vividiṣa, jihinsiṣa: most of them are found only in CB. Stems also without the auxiliary vowel are made from roots gam, jiv, badh, vid.

1032. Inflection: Present-System. The desiderative stem is conjugated in the present-system with perfect regularity, like other a-stems, in both voices, in all the modes (including, in the older language, the subjunctive), and with participles and imperfect. It will be sufficient to give here the first persons only. We may take as active model র্নেন ipsa, 'seek to obtain', from গ্রাম্ āp; as middle নিনির titikṣa, 'endure', from গ্রাম্ tij, 'be sharp' (see below, 1040).

| , | | | | | | |
|---|---|---|--|--|---|--|
| 1. Present Indicative. active. middle. | | | | | | |
| s. ईप्सामि | _{ब.} ईप्सावम् | ^{ӯ.} ईप्सामस् | ^{s.} तितिन्ने | _{ब.} तितित्तावक् | ^{७.} तितित्तामक् | |
| $rac{d}{dp} s ar{a} m i$ etc. | ipsāvas etc. | $\overline{\imath}ps\overline{a}mas$ etc. | <i>titikșe</i> etc. | $\it titik$ ṣ $ar{a}vahe$ | titik $ar{s}ar{a}mahe$ etc. | |
| 2. Present Subjunctive. | | | | | | |
| ईप्सानि | ईप्साव | ईप्साम | तितित्तै | तितित्तावद्दै | तितिन्नामकै | |
| $rac{i}{p} s ar{a} n i$ etc. | $ar{\imath} p s ar{a} v a$ etc. | $ar{\imath} p s ar{a} m a$ etc. | $\it titikṣar{a}i$ etc. | <i>tí tikṣāvahāi</i> etc. | <i>ti tik şāma hā i</i> etc. | |
| 3. Present Optative. | | | | | | |
| ईप्सेयम् tpseyam | ईप्सेच ipseva | ईप्सेम ipsema | तितित्तेय titikşeya | तितित्तेविद्ध titikṣevahi | तितित्तेमिक् titikṣemahi | |
| | ईप्सामि शृंष्ठक्रकां etc. ईप्सानि शृंष्ठकां | इट्सामि ईट्सावम् शृष्ठवेतां शृष्ठवेरवड etc. etc. इट्सानि ईट्साव शृष्ठवेतां शृष्ठवेरव etc. etc. | ड्रिट्सामि ईट्सावस् ईट्सामस् र्गृष्ठकेतां गृष्ठकेत्रवे र्गृष्ठकेत्रवे राग्यवे र | ड्रिट्सामि ईट्सावस् ईट्सामस् तितित्ते र्गृष्ठकृताः गृष्ठकृत्वयः र्गृष्ठकृत्वयः titikşe etc. etc. etc. etc. 2. Present Subjunct इट्सानि ईट्साव ईट्साम तितित्ते र्गृष्ठकृताः गृष्ठकृत्वयः गृष्ठकृत्वयः titikşāi etc. etc. etc. etc. 3. Present Optat इट्सियम् इट्सेव इट्सेम तितित्ते | हिष्माम इंट्सायस इंट्सामस तितित्ते तितित्तावर् क्रिक्तां शृंकर्वे | |

etc.

etc.

etc.

4. Present Imperative.

इंट्रमत तितित्तस्य तितित्तेयाम् ipsata titikṣasva titikṣethām

titikṣadhvam

5. Present Participle.

ईप्सन् ipsant (f. ईप्सन्ती ipsanti) तितित्तमाण titikṣamāṇa.

6. Imperfect.

रिष्मम् रिष्माव रिष्माम ¹ āipsam āipsāva āipsāma etc. etc. etc.

हिप्ताम म्रतितित्ते म्रतितित्ताविक् म्रतितित्तामिक् āipsāma atitikṣe atitikṣāvahi atitikṣāmahi etc. etc. etc.

There are almost no irregularities of inflection to be reported from the older language. No 1st pl. in masi, or 2d pl. in thana or tana, or impv. in $t\bar{a}t$, is met with. The quotable subjunctive forms are those in $s\bar{a}ni$, $s\bar{a}t$ and sat, $s\bar{a}n$, and santa.

But the fem. pple $sis\bar{a}sat\bar{\imath}$ (instead of $sis\bar{a}sant\bar{\imath}$) occurs once or twice in the older texts.

1033. Desiderative forms outside the present-system are extremely rare in the oldest language. The RV. has only perfect forms from a stem mimiks—thus, mimiksáthus, mimiksátus, mimiksáts; mimikse, mimiksire—along with the present forms mimiksati, mimiksa etc., mimiksant (pple): they show that mimiks or miks has taken on the character of an independent root. In AV. are found two acrist forms, īrtsīs and acikitsīs, and a participle or two from mīmānsa (see below, 1037, 1039)—all of them from stems which have lost their distinct desiderative meaning, and come to bear an independent value. The forms noted from the other earlier texts will be given in full below.

In the later language, the complete system of verbal forms is allowed to be made in the desiderative conjugation, the desiderative stem, less its final vowel, being treated as a root. Thus:

1034. Perfect. The desiderative perfect is the periphrastic (1070 ff.).

Thus, $\bar{\imath}ps\bar{a}\dot{m}$ $cak\bar{a}ra$ etc.; $titik\bar{\imath}s\bar{a}\dot{m}$ cakre etc. Such forms are made in CB. from $\gamma\gamma$ kram, $dh\bar{\imath}urv$, $b\bar{a}dh$, ruh.

Apparent perfect forms of the ordinary kind made from mimiks in RV. have been noticed in the preceding paragraph. And AB. (viii. 21) has once didāsitha, 'thou hast desired to give'.

1035. Aorist. The aorist is of the iș-form (5): thus, रिट्सियम् āipsiṣam, म्रतितिशिष átitikṣiṣi.

The AV. has acikitsīs, and īrtsīs (augmentless, with má prohibitive: 579). TB. has āipsīt; and ÇB. ātrtsīt, ácikīrsīs and ajighānsīs, and amīmānsisthās.

A precative is also allowed — thus, $\bar{\imath}psy\bar{a}sam$, $titiksis\bar{\imath}ya$, but it probably never occurs.

1036. Futures. The futures are made with the auxiliary vowel इ i: thus, ईप्सिप्यामि $\bar{\imath}psiisyami$ and ईप्सितास्मि $\bar{\imath}psitasmi$; तितिन्निप्ये titiksisye and तितिन्निताहे titiksitahe.

The CB. has titiksisyate and didrksitaras.

1037. Verbal Nouns and Adjectives. These too are made with the auxiliary vowel ξ i, in all cases where that vowel is ever taken.

In the older language have been noted: participle in ta, $m\bar{\imath}m\bar{a}\dot{n}sit\hat{a}$ (AV., GB.), $jijy\bar{u}sita$ (AB.), $cucr\bar{u}sit\hat{a}$ and $dh\bar{\imath}ksit\hat{a}$ (QB.); — gerundive in tavya, $l\bar{\imath}psitavya$ (AB.), $didhy\bar{u}sitavy\hat{a}$ (QB.); — gerund in $tv\bar{u}$, $m\bar{\imath}m\bar{u}\dot{n}sitv\bar{u}$ (K.).

- 1038. A desiderative adjective in u for example, dipsa, $b\bar{t}bhatsa$, $sis\bar{a}sa$ is of frequent occurrence, and has the meaning and construction of a present participle. An abstract noun in \bar{a} for example, $jig\bar{\imath}sa$ is also a usual appendage to the desiderative conjugation. Adjectives in enya (having a gerundive character: 966 b) are occasionally met with from the earliest time: thus, didrksenya (RV.), $cucr\bar{u}senya$ (TS.), $nin\bar{\imath}senya$ (PB.); also, with irregular reduplication (apparently) paprksenya (RV.). RV. has also didhisayya (966 c).
- passive is allowed to be made, by adding the passive-sign य yá to the desiderative root (or stem without final a): thus, ईटस्यते गृष्ठश्वंसе, 'it is desired to be obtained'; and a causative by adding in like manner the causative-sign मय वंशव (1041): thus, ईटसयामि गृष्ठवंश्वंmi, 'I cause to desire obtainment'.

The only trace of such formations noticed in the older language is the participle $m\bar{n}m\bar{a}\dot{n}sy\acute{a}m\bar{a}na$ (apparently to be read instead of $m\bar{n}m\bar{a}\dot{n}s\acute{a}m\bar{a}na$, AV. ix. 6.24).

For the desiderative conjugation formed on causative stems, which is found as early as the Brāhmaṇas, see below, 1052b.

1040. Some stems which are desiderative in form have lost the peculiarity of desiderative meaning, and assumed the value of independent roots: examples are cikits, 'cure', jugups, 'despise', titiks, 'endure', bībhats, 'abhor', mīmāns, 'ponder'. Doubtless

some of the apparent roots in the language with sibilant final are akin with the desideratives in origin.

IV. Causative.

1041. In the later language is allowed to be made from every root a complete causative conjugation. The basis of this is a causative stem, formed by appending the causative-sign $\overline{a}u$ $\dot{a}ya$ to the, usually strengthened, root.

But by no means all conjugation-stems formed by the sign πu áya are of causative value; and the grammarians regard them as a conjugation-class, the tenth or cur-class, according to which roots may be inflected as according to the other classes, and either alone or along with others.

In RV., the proportion without causative value is fully one third. The formation is a more obviously denominative one than any of the other conjugation-classes, an intermediate between them and the proper denominatives. A causative meaning has established itself in connection with the formation, and become predominant, though not exclusive. A number of roots of late appearance and probably derivative character are included in the class, and some palpable denominatives, which lack only the usual denominative accent (below, 1055).

The causative formation is of much more frequent use, and more decidedly expanded into a full conjugation, than either the intensive or the desiderative. It is made from more than two hundred and fifty roots in the early language (in RV., from about one hundred and fifty); but in the oldest, its forms outside the present-system are (apart from the attached reduplicated aorist: 1046) exceedingly few.

1042. The treatment of the root before the causative-sign πu aya is as follows:

a. Medial or initial i, u, r, l have the guna-strengthening (if capable of it): thus, vedaya from \sqrt{vid} , codaya from \sqrt{cud} , tarpaya from \sqrt{trp} ; and kalpaya from \sqrt{klp} (only example).

But a few roots lack the strengthening: these are, in the older language, cit (citaya and cetaya), vip (vipaya and vepaya), is, il and il, ris (risaya and resaya), tuj, tur, dyut (dyutaya and dyotaya), mṛd, spṛh; and grabh makes in RV. gṛbhaya. Dus and guh lengthen the vowel instead. Mṛj sometimes has vṛddhi, as in other forms: thus, mārjaya (beside marjaya).

b. A final vowel has the *vṛddhi*-strengthening: thus, *cyāvaya*, *bhāvaya*, *dhāraya*, *sāraya*.

But no root in i or \bar{i} has vrddhi in the older language (unless $p\bar{a}yaya$ [d, below] comes from $p\bar{i}$ rather than $p\bar{a}$) — as, indeed, regular causatives from such roots are hardly quotable: only RV. has $k_i ayaya$ from l/ $k_i d$ 'dwell'; for a few alternatively permitted forms, see below, e.

A few roots have (generally in the older language only) a form also with guna-strengthening: thus, dru, yu 'ward off', cru, $p\bar{u}$, jr 'decay', dr 'burst', sr, hr; vr 'choose' makes varaya later (it is not found in V. or Br.).

c. A medial or initial a in a light syllable is sometimes lengthened, and sometimes remains unchanged: thus, $bh\bar{a}jaya$, $sv\bar{a}paya$, $\bar{a}daya$; janaya, crathaya, anaya.

The roots in the older language which keep their short a are an, jan, pan, svan, dhan, ran. stan, dhvan, gam (gāmaya once in RV.), tam, dam, nam, prath, crath, cnath, vyath, svad, nad, das, dhvas, mah, nabh, tvar, svar. Some have both forms: namely, pat, chad, mad, ram, cam; raj has rajaya (AV., once) and rañjaya. The roots which lengthen the vowel are decidedly the more numerous. If a nasal is taken in any of the strong forms of a root, it usually appears in the causative stem: thus, randhaya, lambhaya, rambhaya, skandaya.

d. Most roots in final \bar{a} , and the root r, add p before the conjugation-sign: thus, $d\bar{a}paya$, $dh\bar{a}paya$, $sth\bar{a}paya$; arpaya.

Such stems are made in the older language from the roots $khy\bar{a}$, $gl\bar{a}$, $ghr\bar{a}$, $j\tilde{n}\bar{a}$, $d\bar{a}$ 'give', $dr\bar{a}$ 'run', $dh\bar{a}$ 'put' and $dh\bar{a}$ 'suck', $m\bar{a}$ 'measure', $ml\bar{a}$, $v\bar{a}$ 'blow', and $v\bar{a}$ 'tire', $sth\bar{a}$, $sn\bar{a}$, $h\bar{a}$ 'remove' and $h\bar{a}$ 'leave'. From $j\tilde{n}\bar{a}$ and $sn\bar{a}$ are found in AV. and later the shortened forms $j\tilde{n}apaya$ and snapaya, and from $cr\bar{a}$ only crapaya (not in RV.). Also $gl\bar{a}$ forms in the later language glapaya.

Stems from \bar{a} -roots showing no p are, earlier, $p\bar{a}yaya$ from $\sqrt{p\bar{a}}$ 'drink' (or $p\bar{\imath}$), $py\bar{a}yaya$ from $\sqrt{py\bar{a}}$ or $py\bar{a}y$; $s\bar{a}yaya$ from $\sqrt{s\bar{a}}$ (or $s\bar{\imath}$); also, later, $c\bar{a}yaya$ from $\sqrt{c\bar{a}}$, $hv\bar{a}yaya$ from $\sqrt{hv\bar{a}}$; — and further, from roots $ch\bar{a}$, $v\bar{a}$ 'weave', and $vy\bar{a}$, according to the grammarians.

- e. The same p is taken also by a few i and $\bar{\imath}$ -roots, with various accompanying irregularities: thus, ksepaya from Vksi 'dwell' (RV., beside ksayaya); $ks\bar{a}paya$ (AV.) and ksapaya and ksayaya from Vksi 'destroy'; $j\bar{a}paya$ (VS. and later) from Vji; $l\bar{a}paya$ (TB. and later) from $Vl\bar{\imath}$; $adhy\bar{a}-paya$ from adhi+Vi; $sm\bar{a}paya$ (beside $sm\bar{a}yaya$, which does not occur) from Vsmi; hrepaya from $Vhr\bar{\imath}$; and, according to the grammarians. repaya from $Vr\bar{\imath}$, vlepaya from $Vvl\bar{\imath}$, $kr\bar{a}paya$ from $Vkr\bar{\imath}$, $bh\bar{a}paya$ (beside $bh\bar{a}yaya$ and $bh\bar{\imath}saya$) from $Vbh\bar{\imath}$, and $c\bar{a}paya$ (beside $c\bar{a}yaya$) from Vci. Moreover, Vruh forms later ropaya (earlier rohaya), and $Vkn\bar{u}$ or $kn\bar{u}y$ is said to form knopaya.
- f. More anomalous cases, in which the so-called causative is palpably the denominative of a derived noun, are: $p\bar{a}laya$ from $\sqrt{p}\bar{a}$ 'protect'; $pr\bar{t}naya$ from $\sqrt{p}r\bar{t}$; $l\bar{t}naya$ (according to grammarians) from $\sqrt{l}\bar{t}$; $dh\bar{u}naya$ (not causative in sense) from $\sqrt{d}h\bar{u}$; $bh\bar{t}saya$ from $\sqrt{b}h\bar{t}$; $gh\bar{a}taya$ from $\sqrt{h}an$; $sph\bar{a}vaya$ (according to grammarians) from $\sqrt{s}ph\bar{a}$ or $sph\bar{a}y$.

1043. Inflection: Present-System. The causative stem is inflected in the present-system precisely like other stems in Ξ a: it will be sufficient to give here in general the first persons of the different formations, taking as model the stem $\Xi \nabla U = dh \bar{a} r \dot{a} y a$, from $\nabla U = dh r$. Thus:

1. Present Indicative.

s. d. p. s. d. p.

धार्यामि धार्यावम् धार्यामम् धार्ये धार्यावक् धार्यामक्
dhāráyāmi dhāráyāvas dhāráyāmas dhāráye dhāráyāvahe dhāráyāmahe
etc. etc. etc. etc. etc. etc.

The 1st pll. act. in masi greatly outnumber (as 10 to 1) those in mas in both RV. and AV. No example occurs of 2d pl. act. in thana, nor of 3d sing. mid. in e for ate.

2. Present Subjunctive.

For the subjunctive may be instanced all the forms noted as occurring in the older language:

- 1 dhāráyāṇi dhāráyāva dhāráyāma dhāráyāi dhāráyāvahāi
- 3 \dharáyati \dharáyatas dharáyan \dharáyate \dharáyaite \dharáyaite \dharáyaite

Only one dual mid. form in $\bar{a}ite$ occurs: $m\bar{a}d\bar{a}y\bar{a}ite$ (RV.). The only RV. mid. form in $\bar{a}i$, except in 1st du., is $m\bar{a}day\bar{a}dhv\bar{a}i$. The primary endings in 2d and 3d sing. act. are more common than the secondary.

3. Present Optative.

1 धार्ययम् धार्येव धार्येम धार्येय धार्येवहि धार्येमहि dhāráyeyam dhāráyeva dhāráyema dhāráyeya dhāráyevahi dhāráyemahi etc. etc. etc. etc. etc. etc.

Optative forms are very rare in the oldest language (four in RV., two in AV.); they become more common in the Brāhmaṇas. AB. has once $k\bar{a}may\bar{\imath}ta$.

4. Present Imperative.

2 धार्य धार्यतम् धार्यत धार्यस्व धार्ययाम् धार्यधम् dhāráya dhāráyatam dhāráyata dhāráyasva dhāráyethām dhāráyadhvam etc. etc. etc. etc. etc. etc.

Imperative persons with the ending $t\bar{a}t$ occur: $dh\bar{a}rayat\bar{a}t$ (AV.) is 2d sing.; $gamayat\bar{a}t$ and $cy\bar{a}vayat\bar{a}t$ (K. etc.), and $v\bar{a}rayat\bar{a}t$ (TB.) are used as 2d pl.; $v\bar{a}rayadhv\bar{a}t$ (K. etc.) is 2d pl., and the only noted example (see above, 570).

5. Present Participle.

धार्यस् dhāráyant (f. ेयसी -yanti) धार्यमाण dhāráyamāṇa.

-nog at and oving a law 6. Imperfect.

म्रधार्यम् म्रधार्याव म्रधार्याम म्रधार्ये म्रधार्याविक् म्रधार्यामिक् ádhārayam ádhārayāva ádhārayāma ádhāraye ádhārayāvahi ádhārayāmahi etc. etc. etc. etc. etc.

For a few forms in $\bar{\imath}s$ and $\bar{\imath}t$ which perhaps belong to the imperfect, see below.

1044. As was above pointed out, the formations from the cansative stem in aya outside the present-system are in the oldest language very limited. In RV. are found two forms of the future in syāmi, and ten infinitives in dhyāi; also one or two derivative nouns in tr (bodhayitr, codayitrī), five in iṣṇu, seven in itnu, and a few in a (atipārayā, nidhārayā, vācamīnkhayā, viçvamejaya). In AV., also two s-future forms and four gerunds in tvā; and a few derivative noun-stems, from one of which is made a periphrastic perfect (gamayām cakāra). In the Brāhmaṇas, verbal derivative forms become more numerous and various, as will be noted in detail below.

1045. Perfect. The accepted causative perfect is the periphrastic (1070), the derivative noun in \overline{a} , in accusative form, to which the auxiliary is added, being formed from the causative stem: thus,

धार्यां चकार dhārayam cakāra धार्यां चक्रे dhārayam cakre.

Of this perfect no example occurs in RV. or SV. or VS., only one — $gamay \dot{a}\dot{m} \ cak \bar{a}ra$ — in AV., and but two or three in all the various texts of the Black Yajur-Veda, and these not in the mantra-parts of the text. They are also by no means frequent in the Brāhmaṇas, except in ÇB. (where they abound: chiefly, perhaps, for the reason that this work uses in considerable part the perfect instead of imperfect as its narrative tense).

1046. A orist. The agrist of the causative conjugation is the reduplicated, which in general has nothing to do with the causative stem, but is made directly from the root.

It has been already fully described (above, 856 ff.).

Its association with the causative is doubtless founded on an original intensive character belonging to it as a reduplicated form, and is a matter of gradual growth: in the Veda it is made from a considerable number of roots (in RV., more than a third of its instances; in AV., about a fifth) which have no causative stem in aya.

The causative agrist of $y \neq dhr$, then, is as follows:

1 म्रदीधरम् म्रदीधराव म्रदीधराम म्रदीधरे म्रदीधराविक म्रदीधरामिक ddidharam ádidharāva ádidharāma ádidhare ádidharāvahi adidharāmahi etc. etc. etc. etc. etc.

1047. In a few cases, where the root has assumed a peculiar form before the causative sign — as by the addition of a p or s (above, 1042 d ff.) — the reduplicated agrist is made from this form instead of from the simple root: thus, atisthipam from $sth\bar{a}p$ (stem $sth\bar{a}paya$) for $\sqrt{sth\bar{a}}$. Agrist-forms of this character from quasi-roots in $\bar{a}p$ are made from $sth\bar{a}p$, $j\bar{n}\bar{a}p$, $h\bar{a}p$, $j\bar{a}p$, and prap (above, 861); the only other example from the older language is $b\bar{\imath}bh\bar{\imath}sas$ etc. from $bh\bar{\imath}s$ for $\sqrt{bh\bar{\imath}s}$.

1048. A small number of Vedic forms having $\bar{\imath}s$ and $\bar{\imath}t$ after y of the causal stem are apparently sporadic attempts at making an is-aorist: thus, $wyathay\bar{\imath}s$ (AV.), $dhvanay\bar{\imath}t$ (RV.; TS. has instead the anomalous dhvanayit, and $\bar{a}ilay\bar{\imath}t$ (AV.). The two former are augmentless forms, used with $m\bar{a}$ prohibitive (compare the denom. $\bar{u}nay\bar{\imath}s$, RV., also with $m\dot{a}$).

1049. A precative is of course allowed by the grammarians to be made for the causative conjugation: in the middle, from the causative stem with the auxiliary ξ *i* substituted for its final Ξ a; in the active, from the form of the root as strengthened in the causative stem, but without the causative sign: thus,

धार्यासम् dhāryāsam etc. धार्यियीय dhārayiṣīya etc. This formation is doubtless to be regarded as purely fictitious.

1050. Futures. Both futures, with the conditional, are made from the causative stem, with the auxiliary ξ i, which takes the place of its final Ξ a. Thus:

S-Future.

धार्यिष्यामि dhārayişyāmi etc. धार्यिष्ये dhārayişyé etc.

Conditional.

मधार्यिष्यम् ádhārayişyam etc. मधार्यिष्ये ádhārayişye etc.

Periphrastic Future.

धार्यितास्मि dhārayitāsmi etc. धार्यिताक् dhārayitāhe etc.

The s-future participles are made regularly: thus, $dh\bar{a}rayi$ -syánt (fem. -yánti or -yati), $dh\bar{a}rayisyám\bar{a}na$.

It has been mentioned above that RV. and AV. contain only two examples each of the s-future, and none of the periphrastic. The former begin to appear in the Brāhmaṇas more numerously, but still sparingly, with participles, and conditional (only adhārayisyat, ÇB.); of the latter, ÇB. affords two examples (pārayitāsmi and janayitāsi).

1051. Verbal Nouns and Adjectives. These are in part formed from the causative stem in the same manner as the futures; in part — namely, the passive participle in $\exists ta$ and the gerundive and gerund in $\exists ya$ (and the root-infinitive) — from the causatively strengthened root-form. The auxiliary ξ i is taken in every formation which ever admits that vowel.

Thus, of formations permitted in the later language (but the examples taken from the earlier):

participle in ta: īritá, vāsitá, çrāvitá;

gerundive in tavya: tarpayitavyà, kalpayitavya, gamayitavya, bhakşayitavya;

gerundive in ya: sthāpya, yājya;

infinitive in tum: jóṣayitum, dharayitum, janayitum, pārayitum; gerund in tvā: kalpayitvā, sādayitvā, -arpayitvā (AV.: see 990), -rocayitvā (TA.), çrapayitvā (AB.);

gerund in $ya: -gh\bar{a}rya$, $-p\bar{a}dya$, $-v\bar{a}sya$, $-s\bar{a}dya$, $-sth\bar{a}pya$; gerund in $am: -sth\bar{a}pam$ (CB.).

Further, of formations found only in the older language:

 ${\tt root-inflnitive,\ accusative:\ \textit{-sth\bar{a}pam\ (PB.)$};}$

infinitive in $tav\bar{a}i$: $j\acute{a}nayitav\bar{a}\ell$, $t\acute{a}rpayitav\bar{a}\ell$, $p\acute{a}yayitav\bar{a}\ell$, -kalpayitav $\bar{a}\ell$, -cotayitav $\bar{a}\ell$ (all CB.);

infinitive in dhyāi: isayádhyāi, $\bar{\imath}$ rayádhyāi, taṅsayádhyāi, $n\bar{a}$ çayádhyāi, mandayádhyāi, mādayádhyāi, risayádhyāi, vartayádhyāi, vājayádhyāi, syandayádhyāi (all RV.);

gerundive in āyya: panayāyya, spṛhayāyya, trayayāyya (vtrā:?).

All these, it will be noticed, follow the same rule as to accent with the similar formations from the simple root, showing no trace of the special accent of the causative stem.

- 1052. Derivative or Tertiary Conjugations. From the causative stem may be made a passive and a desiderative conjugation. Thus:
- a. The passive-stem is formed by adding the usual passive-sign \overline{u} $y\dot{a}$ to the causatively strengthened root, the causative-sign being dropped: thus, ঘার্মন $dh\bar{a}ry\dot{a}te$.

Such passives are not found in the Veda, but they are met with here and there throughout the Brāhmana language: examples are jñapyā- (TS.), sādya- (K.), pādya- (AB.), vādya- (TB.), sthāpya- (GB.), and so on.

b. The desiderative stem is made by reduplication and addition of the sign इच iṣa, of which the initial vowel replaces the final of the causative stem: thus, दिधारियपति didhārayiṣati.

These, too, are found here and there in the Brāhmanas and later: examples are $pip\bar{u}yayisa$ (K.), $bibh\bar{u}vayisa$ and cikalpayisa and lulobhayisa (AB.), $didr\bar{u}payisa$ and $rir\bar{u}dhayisa$ and $\bar{u}pipayisa$ (CB.), and so on.

As to causatives made from the desiderative stem, see above, 1039.

V. Denominative.

1053. A denominative conjugation is one that has for its basis a noun-stem.

It is a view now prevailingly held that most of the present-systems of the Sanskrit verb, along with other formations analogous with a present-system, are in their ultimate origin denominative; and that many apparent roots are of the same character. The denominatives which are so called differ from these only in that their origin is recent and undisguised.

1054. The grammarians teach that any noun-stem in the language may be converted, without other addition than that of an π (as union-vowel enabling it to be inflected according to the second general conjugation) into a present-stem, and conjugated as such.

As examples of what is allowed in this way, are given kṛṣṇati, 'acts like Kṛishna'; mālāti, 'is like a garland (mālā)'; kavayati, 'plays the poet (kavi)'; bhavati, 'is like the earth (bhū)'; crayati, 'resembles Cri (goddess)'; pitarati, 'acts the father'; rājānati, 'is kingly'. But such formations are at the best of extreme rarity in actual use. The RV. has a few isolated and doubtful examples, the clearest of which is bhiṣākti, 'he heals', from bhiṣāj, 'physician'; it is made like a form of the root-class; abhiṣṇak seems to be its imperfect according to the nasal class. And pātyate, 'he rules', appears to be a denominative of pāti, 'master'. Other possible cases are (Delbrück) iṣaṇas etc., kṛpāṇanta, taruṣema etc., vanuṣanta, bhurajanta, vānanvati. None of the other Veda or Brāhmana texts has anything additional of the same character.

1055. In general, the base of denominative conjugation

is made from the noun-stem by means of the conjugationsign $\nabla y d$, which has the accent.

The identity of this ya with the ya of the so-called causative conjugation, as making with the final a of the noun-stem the causative-sign aya, is altogether probable. What relation it sustains to the ya of the ya-class (VIII.), of the passive, and of the derivative intensive stem, is more open to question.

1056. Intermediate between the denominative and causative conjugations stands a class of verbs, plainly denominative in origin, but having the causative accent. Examples, beginning to appear at the earliest period of the language, are mantrayate (from mantra, $\sqrt{man + tra}$) and $k\bar{\imath}rtdyati$ (from $k\bar{\imath}rti$, \sqrt{kr} 'praise'). These, along with like forms from roots which have no other present-system (though they may make scattering forms outside that system from the root directly), or which have this beside other present-systems without causative meaning, are reckoned by the grammarians as a separate conjugation-class (above, 607).

1057. Denominatives are formed at every period in the history of the language, from the earliest down.

They are most frequent in RV., which contains over a hundred, of all varieties; AV. has only half as many (and personal forms from hardly a third as many: from the rest, present participles, or derivative nouns); AB., less than twenty; QB., hardly more than a dozen; and so on. In the later language in general, they are far from numerous; and most of those which occur are "cur-class" verbs.

1058. The denominative meaning is, as in other languages, of the greatest variety; some of the most frequent forms of it are: 'be like, act as, play the part of', 'regard or treat as', 'cause to be, make into', 'use, make application of', 'desire, wish for, crave' — that which is signified by the noun-stem.

The modes of treatment of the stem-final are also various; and the grammarians make a certain more or less definite assignment of the varieties of meaning to the varieties of form; but this allotment finds only a dubious support in the usages of the words as met with even in the later language, and still less in the earlier. Hence the formal classification, according to the final of the noun-stem, and the way in which this is treated before the denominative sign $y\dot{a}$, will be the best one to follow.

1059. From stems in a. a. The final a of a nounstem oftenest remains unchanged: thus, amitrayáti, 'plays the enemy, is hostile'; devayáti, 'cultivates the gods, is pious'.

b. Final a is lengthened: thus, aghāyáti, 'plans mischief'; priyāyáte, 'holds dear'; açvāyáti, 'seeks for horses'; açanāyáti,

'desires food'.

In the Veda, forms of the same verb with short and long \bar{a} before ya sometimes exchange with one another.

c. It is changed to $\bar{\imath}$, or rarely i; thus, adhvar $\bar{\imath}$ yáti, 'performs the sacrifice'; tavis $\bar{\imath}$ yáti, 'is mighty'; putr $\bar{\imath}$ yáti or putr $\bar{\imath}$ yáti, 'desires a son'; $m\bar{a}$ ns $\bar{\imath}$ yáti, 'craves flesh'.

Denominatives of this form show a special proclivity toward the meaning 'desire'.

- **d.** It is dropped (after n or r): thus, turanyáti, 'is rapid'; adhvaryáti, 'performs the sacrifice'.
- **e.** Other modes of treatment are sporadic: thus, the addition of s, as in stanasyati, 'seeks the breast'; the change of a to e, as in vareyáti, 'plays the wooer'.
- **1060.** From stems in \bar{a} . Final \bar{a} usually remains, as in $gop\bar{a}ydti$, 'plays the herdsman, protects'; $prtan\bar{a}yati$, 'fights'; but it is sometimes treated in the other methods of an a-stem: thus, prtanyati, 'fights'.
- 1061. From stems in i, $\bar{\imath}$, and u, \bar{u} . Such stems are (especially those in u, \bar{u}) much less common. They show regularly $\bar{\imath}$ and \bar{u} before ya: thus, $ar\bar{a}t\bar{\imath}y\acute{a}ti$ (also -tiy-), 'plots injury'; $jan\bar{\imath}y\acute{a}ti$ (also -niy-), 'seeks a wife'; $sakh\bar{\imath}y\acute{a}ti$, 'desires friendship'; $catr\bar{u}y\acute{a}ti$, 'acts the foe'; $rj\bar{u}y\acute{a}ti$, 'is straight'; $vas\bar{u}y\acute{a}ti$, 'desires wealth'; $as\bar{u}y\acute{a}ti$, 'grumbles, is discontent': with short u, $g\bar{u}tuy\acute{a}ti$, 'sets in motion'.

More rarely, i is treated as a (or else is gunated, with loss of a y): thus, $dhunay\acute{a}ti$, 'comes snorting'. Sometimes, as to a (above, e), a sibilant is added: thus, $avisy\acute{a}ti$, 'is vehement'; $urusy\acute{a}ti$, 'saves'. From $dh\bar{\imath}$, RV. makes $dhiy\bar{a}y\acute{a}te$.

- 1062. From other vowel-stems. a. Final r is said to be changed to $r\bar{\imath}$: thus, $pitr\bar{\imath}y\acute{a}ti$, 'is fatherly': no example in use has been noted.
- b. The diphthongs, in the few cases that occur, have their final element changed to a semivowel: thus, $gavy\acute{a}t\dot{i}$, 'seeks cattle, goes a-raiding'.
- 1063. From consonant-stems. A final consonant usually remains before ya: thus, bhişajyáti, 'plays the physician, cures'; ukṣanyáti, 'acts like a bull'; apasyáti, 'is active'; namasyáti, 'pays reverence'; sumanasyáte, 'is favorably disposed'; taruṣyáti, 'fights'.

But a final n is said to be sometimes dropped, and the preceding vowel treated as a final: thus, $r\bar{a}j\bar{a}y\acute{a}te$ or $r\bar{a}j\bar{i}y\acute{a}ti$, 'is kingly', from $r\bar{a}jan$: $vrs\bar{a}y\acute{a}te$ from vrsan is the only example quotable from the older language. Sporadic cases occur of other final consonants similarly treated: thus, $oj\bar{a}y\acute{a}te$ from ojas; — while, on the other hand, an a-vowel is occasionally added to such a consonant before ya: thus, $isay\acute{a}ti$ from is, $satvan\bar{a}yati$ from satvan.

- 1064. By far the largest class of consonantal stems are those showing a s before the ya; and, as has been seen above, a sibilant is sometimes, by analogy, added to a final vowel, making the denominative-sign virtually sya or even, with a also added after an i or u-vowel, asya; and this comes to be recognised in the later language as an independent sign, forming denominatives that express desire: thus, madhusyati or madhvasyati, 'longs for honey'; kṣīrasyati, 'craves milk'.
- 1065. The grammarians reckon as a special class of denominatives in $k\bar{a}mya$ what are really only ordinary ones made from a compound noun-stem having $k\bar{a}ma$ as its final member: thus, $rathak\bar{a}myati$, 'longs for the chariot' (K.: only example noted from the older language); $putrak\bar{a}myati$, 'desires a son' coming from the possessive compounds $rathak\bar{a}ma$, $putrak\bar{a}ma$. And $saty\bar{a}payati$, 'declares true' (from satya), is an example of yet another formation declared to occur.
- 1066. a. A number of denominative stems occur in the Veda for which no corresponding noun-stems are found, although for all or nearly all of them related words appear: thus, $a\bar{n}k\bar{u}ya$, $stabh\bar{u}ya$, isudhya; dhisanya, risanya, ruvanya, huvanya, isanya; ratharya, cratharya, saparya; irasya, dacasya, makhasya, panasya, sacasya. Those in anya, especially, look like the beginnings of a new conjugation-class.
- b. Having still more that aspect, however, are a Vedic group of stems in $\bar{a}ya$, which in general have allied themselves to present-systems of the $n\bar{a}$ -class (V.), and are found alongside the forms of that class: thus, $grbh\bar{a}yati$ beside $grbhn\bar{a}ti$. Of such, RV. has $grbh\bar{a}ya$, $math\bar{a}ya$, $prus\bar{a}ya$, $mus\bar{a}ya$, $crath\bar{a}ya$, $skabh\bar{a}ya$, $stabh\bar{a}ya$. A few others have no $n\bar{a}$ -class companions: thus, $dam\bar{a}ya$, $crata\bar{a}ya$, $crata\bar{a}y$
- 1067. The denominative stems in RV. and AV. with causative accentuation are: RV. $a\bar{n}kh\dot{a}ya$, $arth\dot{a}ya$, $is\dot{a}ya$ (also isaya), $\bar{u}rj\dot{a}ya$, $rt\dot{a}ya$, $krp\dot{a}ya$, $mantr\dot{a}ya$, $mrg\dot{a}ya$, $vavr\dot{a}ya$, $v\bar{u}j\dot{a}ya$ (also $v\bar{u}jay\dot{a}$), $v\bar{v}l\dot{a}ya$, $susv\dot{a}ya$ (also $susvay\dot{a}$); AV. adds $k\bar{v}t\dot{a}ya$, $dh\bar{u}p\dot{a}ya$, $p\bar{u}l\dot{a}ya$, $v\bar{v}r\dot{a}ya$, $sabh\bar{a}g\dot{a}ya$.

The accent of ánniya and hástaya (RV.) is wholly anomalous.

1068. Inflection. The denominative stems are inflected with regularity like the other stems ending in Ξ a throughout the present-system. Forms outside of that sys-

tem — except from the stems which are reckoned to the causative or *cur*-class, and which follow in all respects the rules for that class — are of the utmost rarity.

In RV. occurs no form not belonging to the present-system, unless (as seems most likely) $\bar{u}nay\bar{\imath}s$ (with $m\dot{a}$ prohibitive) is to be regarded as 2d sing, of the is-aorist. Unquestionable examples of this aorist are $\bar{a}s\bar{u}y\bar{\imath}t$ (CB.), $p\bar{a}payista$ (TS. iii. 2.83: pl., with $m\dot{a}$ prohibitive) and $av\bar{\imath}s\bar{\imath}uisata$ (VS.). The form $asapary\bar{u}it$ (AV. xiv. 2.20), with $\bar{a}i$ for $\bar{\imath}$ (555b), might be aorist; but, as the metre shows, is probably a corrupt reading; $amanasy\bar{a}it$, certainly imperfect, appears to occur in TB. (ii. 3.83). CB. has the future $gop\bar{a}yisyati$, and TS. the participles $kand\bar{u}yisyant$ and $kand\bar{u}yita$. From roots assimilated to the causatives occur in the older language $mantray\bar{a}m$ $\bar{a}sa$ (AB., GB.), $mantray\dot{a}m$ cakratus and cakre (CB.), mantrita (CB., TA.), -mantraya (TB.), and one or two other like forms. The gerundival adjectives saparyenya and $atas\bar{u}ya$ also are met with.

CHAPTER XV.

PERIPHRASTIC AND COMPOUND CONJUGATION.

1069. One periphrastic formation, the periphrastic future, has been already described (942 ff.), since it has become in the later language a necessary part of every verbal conjugation, and since, though still remaining essentially periphrastic, it has been so fused in its parts and altered in construction as to assume in considerable measure the semblance of an integral tense-formation.

By far the most important other formation of the class is

The Periphrastic Perfect.

1070. This (though almost unknown in the Veda, and coming only gradually into use in the Brāhmanas) is a tense widely made and frequently used in the classical Sanskrit.

It is made by prefixing the accusative of a derivative noun-stem in Ξn (accented) to the perfect tense of an auxiliary verb: namely, of $V \Xi n$ (make', more often of $V \Xi n$ (se', and very rarely of $V \Pi n$ (bhū, 'be'.

In the older language, as is pointed out below, kr is used as auxiliary almost alone, and $bh\bar{u}$ not at all. Even in MBh., $bh\bar{u}$ hardly ever occurs (Holtzmann).

1071. The periphrastic perfect occurs as follows:

a. It is the perfect of the derivative conjugations: intensive, desiderative, causative, and denominative; the noun in मा å being made from the present-stem which is the general basis of each conjugation: thus, from $\sqrt{3}$ पृथि budh, intensive बाबुधाम् bobudhåm, desiderative बुभुत्साम् bubhutsåm, causative बाधयाम् bodhayåm; denominative मन्नयाम् mantray-åm.

The formation from causative stems, and from those denominatives which are assimilated to causatives, is by far the most frequent.

b. Most roots beginning with a vowel in a heavy syllable (long by nature or long by position) make this perfect only, and not the simple one: thus, স্থানান্ āsām from গ্রান্ ās, ইনান্ īkṣām from গ্রান্ īkṣām from গ্রান্ ubjām from গ্রান্ ubjām from গ্রান্ ubjām from গ্রান্

Excepted are the roots $\bar{a}p$ and $\bar{a}\tilde{n}ch$, and those beginning with a before two consonants (and taking $\bar{a}n$ as reduplication: 788).

c. The roots (that is, stems reckoned by the grammarians as roots) of more than one syllable have their perfect of this formation: thus, \overline{ahihi} $cak\overline{a}s\overset{\circ}{a}m$.

But $\bar{u}rnu$ (712) is said to form $\bar{u}rnon\bar{u}va$ only, and $j\bar{u}gr$ and $daridr\bar{u}$ (1020, 1024) to have a perfect of either formation.

d. A few other scattering roots: namely, ay, day, and $k\bar{a}s$, and optionally vid and $u\bar{s}$, and a few roots of the reduplicating class, $bh\bar{\imath}$, bhr, hu, and $hr\bar{\imath}$. All these make the derivative noun from their present-stem: thus, $day\bar{a}m$, $vid\bar{a}m$, $o\bar{s}m$, $bibhay\bar{a}m$, $juhav\bar{a}m$, $bibhar\bar{a}m$, $jihray\bar{a}m$ (these with $gun\bar{a}$ of the final vowel before the \bar{a}).

An occasional example is met with from other roots: thus, $nay\bar{a}m$ from $n\bar{\imath}$ (pres.-stem naya); $hvay\bar{a}m$ from $Vhv\bar{a}$ (pres.-stem hvaya).

1072. The periphrastic perfect of the middle voice is

made only with the middle inflection of $\sqrt{\eta}$ kr; that of the active, with any one of the three auxiliaries. For passive use, the auxiliaries मन् as and η $bh\bar{u}$ are also allowed to take a middle inflection.

It is unnecessary to give a paradigm of this formation, as the inflection of the auxiliaries is the same as in their independent use (for that of \sqrt{kr} , see 800 f); of $\sqrt{bh\bar{u}}$, see 800 b; of \sqrt{as} , see 636.

The connection of the noun and auxiliary is not so close that other words are not sometimes allowed to come between them: thus, tâm pātayām prathamam āsa, 'him he first made to fall'; prabhrancayām yo naghuṣam cakāra, 'who made Naghusha fall headlong' (both Raghuvança).

1073. The above is an account of the periphrastic formation with a derivative noun in $\bar{a}m$ as it appears in the later language; earlier, its aspect is quite different: namely, as that of a more general, but quite infrequent, combination of such a noun with various forms of the root kr. Thus:

a. Of forms with the perfect of the auxiliary occurs only a single example in the whole body of Vedic texts (metrical): namely, $gamay \dot{a}\dot{m}$ $cak\bar{a}ra$ (AV. xviii.). In the $br\bar{a}hmana$ parts of the Black Yajus texts are found $vid\dot{a}\dot{m}$ $cak\bar{a}ra$ (TS., K., MS.) and $vid\dot{a}\dot{m}$ cakrma (K.), and $y\bar{a}jay\dot{a}\dot{m}$ $cak\bar{a}ra$ (K.). In the Brāhmanas, examples from causative etc. stems in aya begin to prevail over others, and in CB. they are rather frequent. Examples from desiderative stems have been noted only from CB.: they are $cikramis\dot{a}m$, $ruruks\dot{a}m$, $dudh\bar{u}rs\dot{a}m$, $b\bar{b}bhats\dot{a}m$. From simple roots having the same formation in the later language, occur $vid\dot{a}m$ (TB., CB., GB.), $\bar{a}s\dot{a}m$ (CB., GB.), $\bar{c}ks\dot{a}m$ (CB., GB.), $ciks\dot{a}m$ (CB., $ciks\dot{a}m$ (CB.), $ciks\dot{a}m$ (CB.),

b. Forms with the aerist of the auxiliary are in the oldest Brāhmaṇas as numerous as those with the perfect. Thus, with akar occur $ramay\dot{a}m$ (K.), $janay\bar{a}m$ and $s\bar{a}day\dot{a}m$ and $svaday\dot{a}m$ and $sth\bar{a}pay\dot{a}m$ (MS.); and with akran, $vid\dot{a}m$ (TS., MS., TB.). With the aerist optative or precative has been noted only $p\bar{a}vay\dot{a}m$ $kriy\bar{a}t$ (MS.).

c. Like combinations with other tenses are excessively rare, but not entirely unknown: so, juhavām karoti (Çānkh. Cr. Sū.).

d. With any other auxiliary than \sqrt{kr} appears only $mantray \acute{a}m$ $\~asa$ (AB., GB.; in CB. the same noun is combined with \sqrt{kr} in $mantray \acute{a}m$ cakratus and $mantray \acute{a}m$ cakre).

As the examples show, the noun (as in the case of the periphrastic future: 945) has its independent accent.

Participial Periphrastic Phrases.

1074. Combinations of participles with auxiliary verbs, of condition or motion, forming phrases which have an office

analogous with that of verb-tenses, are not unknown in any period of the language.

They occur even in the Veda, but are far more common and conspicuous in the Brāhmanas, and become again of little account in the later language.

1075. Examples of the various formations are as follows:

- a. A (usually present) participle with the tenses of the verb i, 'go'. This is the combination, on the whole, of widest and most frequent occurrence. Thus: yathā sūcyā vāsaḥ samdadhad iyād evam evāi 'tābhir yajñasya chidram samdadhad eti (AB.), 'just as one would mend [habitually] a garment with a needle, so with these one mends any defect of the sacrifice'; agnir vā idam vāiçvānaro dahann āit (PB.), 'Agni Vaiçvanara kept burning this creation'; té 'surāḥ pārājitā yānto dyāvāpṛthivī ápāçrayan (TB.), 'those Asuras, getting beaten, took refuge with heaven and earth'; tè 'sya gṛhāḥ paçāva upamūryāmāṇā īyuḥ (ÇB.), 'the animals, his family, would be continually destroyed'.
- b. The same with the verb car, 'go (continually or habitually)', signifying still more distinctly than the preceding a continued or habitual action. Thus: agnáv agníc carati právistah (AV.), 'Agni is constantly present in the fire'; adandyam dandena ghnantac caranti (PB.), 'they make a practice of beating with a rod what is undeserving of punishment'.
- c. The same with the verbs $\bar{a}s$, 'sit', and $sth\bar{a}$, 'stand', with a like meaning. Thus, juhvata $\bar{a}sate$ (K.), 'they continue sacrificing'; te 'pakramya prativ $\bar{a}vadato$ 'tisthan (AB.), 'they, having gone off, kept vehemently refusing'.

In the later language, $sth\bar{a}$ is the verb oftenest used, with predicates of various kind, to make a verbal phrase of continuance.

d. A participle with as and $bh\bar{u}$, 'be'. The participle is oftenest a future one; as only is used in the optative, $bh\bar{u}$ usually in other forms. Thus: yah $p\bar{u}rvam$ $an\bar{i}j\bar{u}nah$ $sy\bar{a}t$ (AB.), 'whoever may not have made sacrifice before'; $sam\bar{u}vad$ eva $yaj\bar{n}e$ $kurv\bar{u}n\bar{a}$ $\bar{u}san$ (GB.), 'they did the same thing at the sacrifice'; $parikr\bar{i}danta$ $\bar{u}san$ (MS.), 'they were playing about'; $itar\bar{u}$ me kena $devat\bar{u}$ $up\bar{u}pt\bar{u}$ bhavisyanti (AB.), 'wherewith shall the other deities be won by me?' $y\bar{u}tra$ $suptv\bar{u}$ $p\bar{u}nar$ $n\bar{u}$ 'vadr $\bar{u}sy\bar{u}n$ bhavati (ÇB.), 'when, after sleeping, he is not going to fall asleep again'; havyam hi vaksyan bhavati (AB.), 'for he is intending to carry the sacrifice'; $d\bar{u}syant$ $sy\bar{u}t$ (K.), 'may be going to give'; $y\ell na$ $v\bar{u}hanena$ $syantsy\bar{u}nt$ $sy\bar{u}t$ (CB.), 'with what vehicle he may be about to drive'.

Composition with Prepositional Prefixes.

1076. All the forms, personal and other, of verbal conjugation — of both primary and secondary conjugation, and even to some extent of denominative (so far as the

denominative stems have become assimilated in value to simple roots) — occur very frequently in combination with certain words of direction, elements of an adverbial character (see the next chapter), the so-called prepositions, according to the original use of that term, or the verbal prefixes.

Practically, in the later language, it is as if a compounded root were formed, out of root and prefix, from which then the whole conjugation (with many derivatives: below, chap. XVII.) is made, just as from the simple root. Yet, even there (and still more in the older language: 1081), the combination is so loose, and the members retain so much of their independent value, that in most dictionaries (that of Monier Williams is an exception) the conjugation of each root with prefixes is treated under the simple root, and not in the alphabetic order of the prefix. Derivative words, however, are by universal agreement given in their independent alphabetic place, like simple words.

1077. Those verbal prefixes which have value as such throughout the whole history of the language are given below, in alphabetic order, with their fundamental meanings:

দ্মনি áti, 'across, beyond, past, over, to excess';

म्रधि ádhi, 'above, over, on, on to';

ন্নু ánu, 'after, along, toward';

ঘন্ত antár, 'between, among, within';

श्रप ápa, 'away, forth, off';

म्रपि ápi, 'unto, close upon or on';

म्रिने abhi, 'to, unto, against' (often with implied violence);

ম্বৰ áva, 'down, off';

म्रा \dot{a} , 'to, unto, at';

उद् úd, 'up, up forth or out';

उप úpa, 'to, unto, toward';

নি ní, 'down; in, into';

निस nis, 'out, forth';

प्रा párā, 'to a distance, away, forth';

परि pári, 'round about, around';

র prá, 'forward, onward, forth, fore';

ঘনি práti, 'in reversed direction, back to or against, against, in return';

वि vi, 'apart, asunder, away, out'; व्यक्ति क्रिक्ट विकास क्रिक्ट क्रिक क्रिक्ट क्रिक्ट क्रिक्ट क्रिक्ट क्रिक क्रिक क्रिक्ट क्रिक क्रिक क्रिक्ट क्रिक क

a. Some of these, of course, are used much more widely and frequently than others. In order of frequency in the older language (as estimated by the number of roots with which they are found used in RV. and AV.), they stand as follows: pra, \bar{a} , vi, sam, abhi, ni, ud, pari, anu, upa, prati, ava, nis, ati, apa, $par\bar{a}$, adhi, api, antar. Api is of very limited use as prefix in the later language, having become a conjunction, 'too, also'.

b. The meanings given are only the leading ones. In combination with the roots they undergo much modification, both literal and figurative — yet seldom in such a way that the steps of transition from the fundamental sense are not easy to trace. Sometimes, indeed, the value of a root is hardly perceptibly modified by the addition of the prefix. An intensive force is not infrequently given by pari, vi, and sam.

1078. Prefixes essentially akin with the above, but more distinctly adverbial, and of more restricted use, are these:

 \acute{a} cha (or \acute{a} chā), 'to, unto': tolerably frequent in RV. (used with over twenty roots), but already very rare in AV. (only two roots), and entirely lost in the later language;

 $\bar{a}vis$, 'forth to sight, in view': used only with the roots

 $bh\bar{u}$, as, and kr;

tirás, 'through, crossways; out of sight': hardly used except with kr, $dh\bar{a}$, $bh\bar{u}$ (in RV., with three or four others);

purás, 'in front, forward': used with only half-a-dozen roots, especially $kr,\ dh\bar{a},\ i$;

 $pr\bar{a}d\acute{u}s$, 'forth to view': only with $bh\bar{u}$, as, kr.

A few others, as bahis, 'outside', $vin\bar{a}$, 'without', $s\bar{a}k\bar{s}\bar{a}t$, 'in view', are still less removed from ordinary adverbs.

1079. Of still more limited use, and of noun rather than adverb-value are:

crad (or crath?), only with $dh\bar{a}$ (in RV., once also with kr): craddh \bar{a} , 'believe, credit';

 $hi\overline{n},$ only with kr (and obsolete in the classical language): $hi\overline{n}kr$, 'make the sound hing, low, murmur'.

And beside these stand yet more fortuitous combinations: see below, 1091.

1080. More than one prefix may be set before the same root. Combinations of two are quite usual; of three, much less common; of more than three, rare. Their order is in general determined only by the requirements of the meaning,

each added prefix bringing a further modification to the combination before which it is set. But πi is never allowed in the later language, and only extremely rarely in the older, to be put in front of any of the others.

1081. In classical Sanskrit, the prefix always stands immediately before the verbal form.

In the older language, however, of both Veda and Brāhmaṇa, its position is quite free: it may be separated from the verb by another word or words, and may even (much less often) come after the form to which it belongs; it may also stand alone, qualifying a verb that is understood, or conjointly with another prefix one that is expressed.

Thus, sắ đevắn ế 'há vakṣyati (RV.), 'he shall bring the gods hither'; prả na áyūnṣi tāriṣat (AV.), 'may he lengthen out our lives'; tắn á yātam ápa dravát (RV.), 'do ye two come hither quickly'; gắmad vắjebhir á sả naḥ (RV.), 'may he come with gifts hither to us'; pâri mắm pâri me prajắm pâri ṇaḥ pāhi yâd dhânam (AV.), 'protect me, my progeny, and what wealth we own'; yâtaḥ sadyâ á ca pârā ca yânti (AV.), 'from whence every day they advance and retire'; vy àhâm sârveṇa pāpmânā [avṛtam] vĩ yâkṣmeṇa sâm áyuṣā (AV.), 'I have separated from all ill-luck,from disease, [I have joined myself] with life'.

The separation of the prefix from a verbal noun or adjective is very much more difficult, and of quite rare occurrence.

1082. As regards the accent of verb-forms compounded with prefixes, only the case needs to be considered in which the prefix stands (as always in the later language) immediately before the verb; otherwise, verb and prefix are treated as two entirely independent words.

1083. A personal verbal form, as has been seen above (592), is ordinarily unaccented: before such a form, the prefix has its own accent; or, if two or more precede the same form, the one nearest the latter is so accented, and the others lose their accent.

If, however, the verb-form is accented, the prefix or prefixes lose their accent.

That is, in every case, the verb along with its normally situated prefix or prefixes so far constitutes a unity that the whole combination is allowed to take but a single accent.

Examples are: páre 'hi nāri púnar é 'hi kṣiprám (AV.), 'go away, woman; come again quickly'; áthá 'stam vipáretana (RV.), 'then scatter ye away to your home'; samácinuṣvā 'nusampráyāhi (AV.), 'gather together, go forth together after'; yád gṛhán upodātti (AV.), when he goes up to the

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house'; evá ca tvám sarama ājagántha (RV.), 'now that you, Saramā, have thus come hither'; yéná 'viṣṭitaḥ pravivéçithā 'páḥ (RV.), 'enveloped in which thou didst enter the waters'.

- 1084. A prefix, however, not seldom has a more independent value, as a general adverb of direction, or as a preposition (in the usual modern sense of that term), belonging to and governing a noun; in such case, it is not drawn in to form part of a verbal compound, but has its own accent. The two kinds of use shade into one another, and are not divisible by any distinct and fixed line.
- 1085. In combination with the non-personal parts of the verb-system, with participles, infinitives, and gerunds, the general rule is that the prefix loses its accent, in favor of the other member of the compound. But the prefix instead has sometimes the accent: namely, when combined —
- a. with the passive participle in ta or na: thus, páreta, 'gone forth'; antárhita, 'concealed'; ávapanna, 'fallen'; sámpūrņa, 'complete'.
- b. with the infinitive in tu (972), in all its cases: thus, $s\acute{a}mhartum$, 'collect'; $\acute{a}pidh\bar{a}tave$, 'to cover up'; $\acute{a}vagantos$, 'of descending'; the doubly accented dative in $tav\bar{a}\acute{\iota}$ retains its final accent, but throws the other back upon the prefix: thus, $\acute{a}nvetav\bar{a}\acute{\iota}$, 'for following'; $\acute{a}pabhartav\bar{a}\acute{\iota}$, 'for carrying off'.
- 1086. The closeness of combination between the root and the prefix is indicated not only by their unity of accent, but also by the euphonic rules (e.g. 185, 192), which allow the mutual adaptations of the two to be made to some extent as if they were parts of a unitary word.

1087. A few special irregularities call for notice:

- a. In the later language, api, adhi, and ava, in connection with certain roots, sometimes lose their initial vowel: namely, api with nah and $dh\bar{a}$, adhi with $sth\bar{a}$, ava with $g\bar{a}h$. In the Veda, on the other hand, is is in a few cases found instead of nis with \sqrt{kr} .
- b. The final vowel of a prefix, especially an i, is (oftenest in the older language) sometimes lengthened, especially in derivative words: thus, pratīkāra, nīvṛt, parīhāra, vīrūdh, adhīvāsā, āpīvṛta, abhīvartā; anūrūdh; prāvṛṣ, ūpāvasu.

In the Veda, the initial of anu is sometimes lengthened after negative an: thus, $an\bar{a}nud\bar{a}$.

c. In combination with γi 'go', the prefixes $parar{a},\ pari,\$ and pra sometimes change their r to l.

In this way is formed a kind of derivative stem $pal\bar{a}y$, 'flee', inflected according to the a-class, in middle voice, which is not uncommon from the Brāhmanas down, and has so lost the consciousness of its origin that it takes

the augment prefixed: thus, apalāyisthās; it makes the periphrastic perfect palāyām cakre. The stem palyay, similarly inflected, seems to occur only in QB.; and plāy has been found nowhere except in MS.

- d. The root kr 'make' sometimes assumes (or retains from a more original condition) an initial s after the prefixes sam, pari, and upa: thus, samskurute, samskurvan, samskrta, pariskrnvanti, pariskrta, upaskrta. And Vkr 'scatter' is said by the grammarians to add s in the same manner, under certain circumstances, after upa and prati.
- e. The passive participle of the roots $d\tilde{a}$ 'give' and $d\tilde{a}$ 'cut' has often the abbreviated form tta after a prefix of which the final vowel, if i, is lengthened (compare the similar contraction with other elements, above, 955 c, and that of the derivative in ti, below, chap. XVII.). Thus, in AV. are found from $d\tilde{a}$ 'give', $vy\tilde{a}tta$, $p\tilde{a}r\tilde{a}tta$, $p\tilde{a}rt\tilde{a}tta$: in Brāhmaṇas, from the same, $a\tilde{a}tta$, pratta, $ap\tilde{a}tta$; from $d\tilde{a}$ 'cut', $a\tilde{a}vatta$, arafvatta, arafvatta.
- f. The AB. has once niniyoja (instead of ni-yuyoja) from ni+yyuj, and udaprapatat; and in MBh. are found a few cases like $vivy\bar{u}sa$ from vi+y'as (where, however, an intentional play on the word may be assumed: Delbrück); and anvasamcarat (instead of anusamacarat). Such unifications of prefix and root, with treatment of the result after the manner of a simple root, are extremely rare.

Some hold, however, that certain of the apparent roots of the language are results of this unification: thus, $\bar{a}p$ from $\bar{a}+ap$, vyac from vi+ac, tyaj from ati+aj, etc. (see Weber, Ind. Stud., xiii. 61).

g. The loss of the initial s of $sth\bar{a}$ and stambh after the prefix ud has been noticed above (233a).

Also (137a, b), certain peculiarities of combination of a prefix with the initial vowel of a root.

1088. As to the more general adverbial uses of the prefixes, and their prepositional uses, see the next chapter.

1089. The adverbial prefixes su, 'well', and dus, 'ill', are said to be sometimes combined with verbal forms; but no examples of such combination are quotable from accentuated texts.

As to the addition of the comparative and superlative suffixes $tar\bar{a}m$ and $tam\bar{u}m$ to verbs, see above, 473.

Other Verbal Compounds.

1090. It has been seen above that some of the prepositional prefixes are employed in combination with only very small classes of roots, namely those whose meaning makes them best fitted for auxiliary and periphrastic uses — such as kr, 'make', $bh\bar{u}$ and as, 'be', $dh\bar{a}$, 'put', i, 'go' — and that the first three of these are widely used in combination with a derivative in $\bar{a}m$ to make a periphrastic conjugation. Such roots have also been, from the earliest period of the language, but with increasing frequency, used in somewhat analogous combinations with

other elements, substantive and adjective as well as adverbial; and this has become, in part, developed finally into a regular and indefinitely extensible method of increasing the resources of verbal expression.

1091. Most analogous with $hi\bar{n} + \gamma'kr$ (1079) are a few other onomatopoetic compounds in the Veda: $akkhal\bar{i}k\dot{r}tya$ (RV.), 'making a crackling sound', $ja\bar{n}jan\bar{a}bh\acute{a}vant$ (RV.), 'flimmering', and $alal\bar{a}bh\acute{a}vant$ (RV.), 'making merry'; and (in AB.) $babab\bar{a}kurvan$, 'crackling'. And AV. has $masmas\acute{a}$ with $\gamma'kr$ (TS. and VS., $masmas\acute{a}$), 'crush'.

Further, combinations of γkr with terms used at the sacrifice, as $v\acute{a}sat$, $sv\acute{a}h\ddot{a}$, $svadh\acute{a}$, $svag\acute{a}$: at first phrases only, and noun-compounds, but becoming verbal combinations in which the prefixed word is treated like a prepositional prefix: thus, $svag\bar{u}kar\acute{o}ti$ (CB.: but $svadh\acute{a}$ $kar\acute{o}ti$, TA.); and other prefixes are set before them, as $anuvasatkury\bar{a}t$.

- 1092. a. The noun namas, 'obeisance, homage', in a still more purely noun-value, becomes combined with \sqrt{kr} : in the Veda, only with the gerund, in namaskftya (beside hastagfhya and karnagfhya: above, 990.).
- b. A solitary combination with $\gamma'i$, 'go', is shown by the accusative &astam, 'home'; which, appearing only in ordinary phrases in RV., is in AV. compounded with the participles in astamy&ant, astamesy&ant, &astamita (with accent like that of ordinary compounds with a prefix) and in the Brāhmaṇas and the later language is treated quite like a prefix: thus, $astam\&astam\&astam\ensuremath{\&e}ti$ (QB.).
- c. Other ordinary accusative forms of adjectives in combination with verbal derivatives of kr and $bh\bar{u}$ are found here and there in the older language: thus, $crtamk\dot{r}tya$ and $nagnamk\dot{r}tya$ (TS.); $nagnambh\dot{a}vuka$, $p\bar{a}manambh\dot{a}vuka$, etc. (TS. et al.).
- 1093. In the early but not in the earliest language, a nounstem thus compounded with kr or $bh\bar{u}$, in verbal nouns and ordinary derivatives, and then also in verbal forms, begins to assume a constant ending $\bar{\imath}$ (of doubtful origin).

There is no instance of this in RV., unless the $\bar{\imath}$ of $akkhal\bar{\imath}k\dot{r}tya$ (above, 1091) is to be so explained. In AV., besides the obscure $v\bar{a}t\dot{\imath}krta$ and $v\bar{a}t\bar{\imath}k\bar{a}r\dot{a}$, is found only $phal\bar{\imath}k\acute{a}rana$. In the Brāhmana language, examples begin to occur occasionally — $cyet\bar{\imath}$ and $mithun\bar{\imath}$ in TS.; these and $phal\bar{\imath}, kr\bar{u}r\bar{\imath}, udv\bar{u}s\bar{\imath}$ in TB.; the first three, with $suphal\bar{\imath}, ek\bar{\imath}, sv\bar{\imath}, br\bar{a}hman\bar{\imath},$ and $daridr\bar{\imath}$ in CB.; and so on. The accent of the combination is in general accordance with the accent of compounds with the usual prefixes; and if the prefixed stem takes the tone, this rests upon the final $\bar{\imath}$. Sometimes a mere collocation takes place: thus, $mithun\bar{\imath}$ $bhavant\bar{\imath}s$ (TS.), $phal\bar{\imath}$ $kriyam\bar{\imath}n\bar{\imath}am\bar{\imath}m$ (TB.), $vajr\bar{\imath}$ bhutva (TA.). The $\bar{\imath}$ is variously treated: now as an uncombinable final, as in $cyet\bar{\imath}$ akuruta and $mithun\bar{\imath}$ abhavan (TS.); now as liable to the ordinary conversions, as in $mithuny \ cnay\bar{\imath}$ $sy\bar{\imath}m$ and svyakurvata (CB.).

The examples in accentuated texts, and especially those in which the

verb is entitled to the tone, are too few to furnish more than a fragmentary illustration of the formation.

Out of such beginnings has grown in the later language the following rule:

1094. Any noun or adjective stem is liable to be compounded with verbal forms or derivatives of the roots $1/\sqrt[n]{n}$ kr and $\frac{1}{2}bh\bar{u}$ (and, it is said, of \overline{n} as also; but such cases, if they occur, are at least extremely rare), in the manner of a verbal prefix. If the final of the stem be an a or i-vowel, it is changed to \bar{z} , if an u-vowel, it is changed to \bar{z} , \bar{u} .

It is prescribed also that a final r become $r\bar{\imath}$, and that as and an be changed to $\bar{\imath}$; but no genuine examples appear to be quotable.

Examples are: stambhībhavati, 'becomes a post'; ekacittībhūya, 'becoming of one mind'; upahārīkarosi, 'thou makest an offering'; nakhaprahārajarjarīkrta, 'torn to pieces with blows of the claws'; cithilībhavanti, 'become loose'; kuṇḍalīkrta, 'ring-shaped.'

1095. Of all the forms which constitute or are attached to the verbal system, the passive participle is the one most closely assimilated in its treatment as a combinable element to an ordinary adjective. Next to it come the gerund and the gerundives. Combinations of the kind here treated of are especially common with passive participles and gerunds.

CHAPTER XVI.

INDECLINABLES.

1096. The indeclinable words are less distinctly divided into separate parts of speech in Sanskrit than is usual elsewhere in Indo-European language — especially owing to the fact that the class of prepositions hardly has a real existence, but is represented by certain adverbial words which are to a greater or less extent used prepositionally. They will, however, be briefly described here under the usual heads.

Adverbs.

1097. Adverbs by Suffix. Classes of adverbs, sometimes of considerable extent, are formed by the addition of adverb-making suffixes especially to pronominal roots or stems, but also to noun and adjective stems.

There is no ultimate difference between these suffixes and the case-endings in declension; and the adverbs of this division sometimes are used in the manner of cases.

- 1098. With the suffix tas are made adverbs having an ablative sense, and not rarely also an ablative construction. Such are made:
- a. From pronominal roots, in átas, itás, tátas, yátas, kútas, amútas, svatas (not found earlier); and from the pronominal stems in t or d (494) of the personal pronouns: thus, mattás (only example in V.), tvattas, asmattas, yusmattas.
- b. From noun and adjective stems of every class, since the earliest period, but more freely later: thus, mukhatás, agratás, rbhutás, hṛttás, çīrṣatás, nastás, yajuṣṭas, pārátas, anyátas, sarvátas, dakṣiṇatás, abhīpatás (once, in RV., from a case-form: patsutás).
 - c. From a few prepositions: thus, abhitas, paritas, antitas.

Examples of ablative construction are: $t\hat{a}tah$ sasth $\hat{a}t$ (AV.), 'from that sixth'; $t\hat{a}to$ $jy\hat{a}y\bar{a}n$ (AV.), 'older than they'; kutac cid $dec\bar{a}d$ $\bar{a}gatya$ (H.), 'arriving from some region or other'.

But the distinctive ablative meaning is not infrequently effaced, and the adverb has a more locative value: thus, agratás, 'in front'; asmatsamīpatas, 'in our presence'; dharmatas, 'in accordance with duty'; chāgatas (H.), 'with reference to the goat'.

1099. With the suffix tra (in V. often $tr\bar{a}$) are made adverbs having a locative sense, and occasionally also a locative construction.

These adverbs are formed from pronominal roots, namely átra, tátra, yátra, kútra, amútra, asmatrá, satrá; and also from noun and adjective stems, as anyátra, viçvátra, samānátra, martyatrá, dakṣiṇatrá, devatrá, purutrá, bahutrá.

The words in (accented) $tr\dot{a}$ are Vedic only, except $satr\dot{a}$, 'altogether' (of which satram is also given as an alternative form).

Examples of quasi-locative or locative construction are: hásta á dakṣiṇatrá (RV.), 'in the right hand'; tatrā 'ntare (H.), 'in that interval'; prabhutvam tatra yujyate (H.), 'sovereignty is suited to him'; ekatra puruṣe (MBh.), 'in a single man'.

As the locative case is used also to express the goal of motion (304), so the adverbs in tra have sometimes an accusative as well as a locative value: thus, $tatra\ gacha$, 'go there or thither'; $path\delta\ devatr\acute{a}\ y\acute{a}n\bar{a}n\ (RV.)$, 'roads that go to the gods'.

1100. One or two other suffixes of locality are:

a. ha, in $ih\hat{a}$, 'here', $k\hat{u}ha$, 'where?' and the Vedic $vicv\hat{u}ha$ (also $vicv\hat{u}h\bar{a}$, $vicv\hat{u}h\bar{a}$), 'always' (compare below, "1104, end).

b. $t\bar{a}t$, which is added to words having already a local or directive value: thus, to adverbial accusatives, as $pr\acute{a}kt\bar{a}t$, $\acute{a}dakt\bar{a}t$; to adverbial ablatives, as $\bar{a}r\acute{a}tt\bar{a}t$, $uttar\acute{a}tt\bar{a}t$, $par\ddot{a}k\acute{a}tt\bar{a}t$; and to prepositional adverbs, as $adh\acute{a}st\bar{a}t$, $av\acute{a}st\bar{a}t$, $par\acute{a}st\bar{a}t$, $pur\acute{a}st\bar{a}t$, $bah\acute{s}st\bar{a}t$. Apparently by analogy with these last, the suffix has occasionally the form $st\bar{a}t$: thus, $up\acute{a}rist\bar{a}t$.

c. hi. in uttaráhi (CB.) and daksināhi (no occurrence).

1101. By the suffix $th\bar{a}$ are made adverbs of manner, especially from pronominal roots or stems.

Thus, $t\acute{a}th\ddot{a}$, $y\acute{a}th\ddot{a}$; $kath\acute{a}$ and $itth\acute{a}$ (by the side of which stand $kath\acute{a}m$ and $itth\acute{a}m$); and the rare $im\acute{a}th\ddot{a}$ and $am\acute{a}th\ddot{a}$. And $\acute{a}tha$ (V. often $\acute{a}th\ddot{a}$), 'so then', doubtless belongs with them. Further, from a few adjective and noun stems: as, $vicv\acute{a}th\ddot{a}$, $sarv\acute{a}th\ddot{a}$, $any\acute{a}th\ddot{a}$, $ubhay\acute{a}th\ddot{a}$, $itar\acute{a}th\ddot{a}$, $yatam\acute{a}th\ddot{a}$, $\ddot{u}rdhv\acute{a}th\ddot{a}$, $rtuth\acute{a}$, $n\ddot{a}m\acute{a}th\ddot{a}$ (once, AV.).

 $Yath\bar{a}$ becomes usually toneless in V., when used in the sense of iva after a noun forming the subject of comparison: thus, $t\bar{a}y\dot{a}vo\ yath\bar{a}$ (RV.), 'like thieves'.

1102. One or two other suffixes of manner are:

a. ti, in iti, 'thus', very commonly used, from the earliest period, as particle of quotation, following the words quoted.

Examples are: brahmajāyé 'yám tti céd ávocan (RV.), 'if they have said "this is a Brahman's wife"'; tám devá abruvan vrátya ktím nú tiṣthaṣt 'ti (AV.), 'the gods said to him: "Vratya, why do you stand?"' Often, the iti is used more pregnantly: thus, yáḥ craddádhāti sánti devá ti (AV.), 'whoever has faith that the gods exist'; tam vyāghram munir mūṣiko 'yam iti pacyati (H.), 'the sage looks upon that tiger as being really a mouse'; yūyam kim iti sīdatha (H.), 'why (lit'ly, alleging what reason) do you sit?' Or the iti marks an onomatopæia, or indicates a gesture: thus, bahíṣ te astu bắl tti (AV.), 'let it come out of you with a "splash"'; tty ágre kṛṣaty áthê 'ti (ÇB.), 'he ploughs first this way, then this way'. A word made by iti logically predicate to an object is usually nominative: thus, svargó loká tti yám vádanti (AV.), 'what they call "the heaveuly world"'; vidarbharājatanayām damayantī 'ti viddhi mām (MBh.), 'know me for the Vidarbha-king's daughter, Damayanti by name'; but ajñam bālam ity āhuḥ (M.), 'they call an ignorant man a child'.

With the suffix of iti is to be compared that of tati etc. (519).

b. va in iva (toneless), 'like, as', and $ev\acute{a}$ (in V. often $ev\acute{a}$), earlier 'thus', later a particle emphasizing the preceding word; for 'thus' is used later the related $ev\acute{a}m$, which hardly occurs in RV., and in AV. only with ψvid : as, $ev\acute{a}m$ $vidv\acute{a}n$, 'knowing thus'.

In later Vedic (AV. etc.) iva more often counts for only a single syllable.

1103. a. By the suffix $d\bar{a}$ are made adverbs of time, but almost only from pronominal roots.

Thus, $tad\acute{a}$, $yad\acute{a}$, $kad\acute{a}$, $id\acute{a}$ (only in V.); and $s\acute{a}d\bar{a}$, beside which is found earlier $s\acute{a}dam$. Besides these, in the older language, only $sarvad\acute{a}$; later a few others, as $anyad\bar{a}$, $ekad\bar{a}$, $nityad\bar{a}$.

b. By the perhaps related dānīm are made idānīm, tadānīm, viçvadānīm.

c. With rhi are made, from pronominal roots, tárhi, etárhi, yárhi, kárhi, amúrhi.

d. The suffix di, found only in $y\hat{a}di$, 'if', is perhaps related with $d\bar{a}$, in form as in meaning.

1104. By the suffix $dh\bar{a}$ are formed adverbs especially from numerals, signifying '-fold, times, ways', etc.

Thus, ekadhá, dvidhá (also dvídhā and dvedhá), trídhā (in the old language usually tredhá), saddhá (also sodhá and saddhā), dvādaçadhá, sahasradhá, and so on. Also, naturally, from words having a quasi-numeral character: thus, tatidhá, bahudhá, purudhá, viçvádhā, çaçvadhá, etāvaddhá. In a very few cases, also from general noun and adjective stems: thus, mitradhá (AV.), priyadhá (TS.), rjudhá (TB.), pariṣtubdhā (PB.).

The particle &dha or &dha, a Vedic equivalent of &dha, probably belongs here (purudh&a) and vicv&dha, with shortened final, occur a few times in RV.); also addh&a, 'in truth'; and perhaps sah&a, 'with', which has an equivalent sadha- in several Vedic compounds. And the other adverbs in ha (1100 a) may be of like origin.

1105. From a few numerals are made multiplicative adverbs with s: namely, dv(s, tr(s, and catúr (probably, for catúrs).

The corresponding word for 'once', sakrt, is a compound rather than a derivative; and the same character belongs still more evidently to pañcakrtvas, navakrtvas, aparimitakrtvas, etc., though krt and krtvas are regarded by the native grammarians as suffixes (AV. has dáça krtvas and saptá krtvas).

1106. By the suffix çás are made, especially from numeral or quantitative stems, adverbs of quantity or measure or manner, generally used distributively.

Thus, ekaçás, 'one by one', çataçás, 'by hundreds', rtuçás, 'season by season', pacchas, 'foot by foot', akṣaraçás, 'syllable by syllable', ganaçás, 'in crowds', stambaçás, 'by bunches', paruççás, 'limb by limb', tāvacchás, 'in such and such number or quantity': and, in a more general way, sarvaçás' 'wholly', mukhyaças, 'principally', kṛchraças, 'stingily'.

1107. By the suffix $v\acute{a}t$ are made with great freedom, in every period of the language, adverbs signifying 'after the manner of, like', etc.

Thus, $a\bar{n}girasv\acute{a}t$, 'like Angiras', $manusv\acute{a}t$ (RV.), 'as Manu did', $jamad-agniv\acute{a}t$, 'after the manner of Jamadagni'; $p\bar{u}rvav\acute{a}t$ or $pratnav\acute{a}t$ or $pur\bar{u}nav\acute{a}t$, 'as of old', $k\bar{a}kat\bar{a}l\bar{v}yavat$, 'after the fashion of the crow and the palm-fruit'.

This is really the adverbially used accusative (with adverbial shift of accent: below, 1111e) of the suffix vant (next chapter), which in the Veda makes certain adjective compounds of a similar meaning: thus, tvåvant, 'like thee', måvant, 'of my sort', etc.

1108. By the suffix $s\bar{a}t$ are made adverbs signifying 'into the condition of', which are used along with verbs of becoming and of making.

Thus, $agnis\bar{a}t + \gamma kr$, 'reduce to fire, burn up'; $bhasmas\bar{a}t + \gamma bh\bar{u}$, 'turn to ashes'; $\bar{a}tmas\bar{a}tkrta$, 'made one's own'.

These derivatives are unknown in the earlier language, and not common in the later. The s of $s\bar{a}t$ is not liable to conversion into s. The connection with the following verb is not so close as to require the use of the gerund in ya: thus, $bhasmas\bar{a}tkrtv\bar{a}$ (not -krtya: above, 990).

1109. Suffixes, not of noun-derivation or inflection, may be traced with more or less plausibility in a few other adverbs. Thus, for example, in $pr\bar{a}t\hat{a}r$, 'early', and $sanut\hat{a}r$, 'away'; in $daksin\hat{a}t$, 'with right hand', and $cikitv\hat{a}t$, 'with consideration'; in $n\bar{u}n\hat{a}m$, 'now', and $n\bar{a}n\bar{a}m\hat{a}m$, 'variously'. But the cases are in the main too rare and doubtful to be worth notice here.

The adverbs of this division are almost never used prepositionally. Those of the next division, however, are in many instances so used.

- 1110. Case-forms used as Adverbs. A large number of adverbs are more or less evidently cases in form, made from stems which are not otherwise in use. Also many cases of known stems, pronominal or noun or adjective, are used with an adverbial value, being distinguished from proper cases by some difference of application, which is sometimes accompanied by an irregularity of form.
- 1111. The accusative is the case most frequently and widely used adverbially. Thus:
- a. Of pronominal stems: as, $y\acute{a}d$, 'if, when, that', etc.; $t\acute{a}d$, 'then' etc.; $t\acute{k}m$, 'why, whether', etc.; $id\acute{a}m$, 'now, here'; $ad\acute{a}s$, 'yonder'; and so on. Of like value, apparently, are the (mostly Vedic) particles $k\acute{a}d$, $k\acute{a}m$ and kam(?), $t\acute{d}$, cid (common at every period), $sm\acute{a}d$ and $sum\acute{a}d$, $\bar{\imath}m$ and $s\bar{\imath}m$ (by some regarded as still possessing pronoun-value), $-k\bar{\imath}m$.

Compounds with id are $c\acute{e}d$, 'if', $n\acute{e}d$, 'lest', svid, kuvid; with cid, $k\acute{u}cid$; with $-k\bar{v}m$, $n\acute{a}k\bar{v}m$ and $m\acute{a}k\bar{v}m$, and $\acute{a}k\bar{v}m$.

- b. Of noun-stems: as, $n \dot{a}ma$, 'by name'; $s \dot{u}kham$, 'happily'; $k \dot{a}mam$, 'at will, if you please'; $n \dot{u}ktam$, 'by night'; $r \dot{u}has$, 'secretly'; $o \dot{s} \dot{u}m$, 'quickly' (V.); and so on.
- c. Of adjective stems, in great numbers: as, saty'am, 'truly'; cir'am, 'long'; n'aty am, 'constantly'; bh'ay as, 'more, again'; and so on.
- 1. The neuter singular is the case commonly employed in this way; and it is formed and used adverbially from a large class of compound stems which do not occur in adjective use (the so-called avyayibhāva-compounds: below, chap. XVIII.).

2. But the feminine singular also is sometimes used; especially in the so-called adverbial endings of comparison, $tar\bar{a}m$ and $tam\bar{a}m$, which are attached to particles, and even, as it is claimed (473), to verb-forms: thus, $pratar\dot{a}m$, $pratam\dot{a}m$, $ucc\bar{a}istar\dot{a}m$, $can\bar{a}istar\bar{a}m$, $jyoktam\dot{a}m$.

In the oldest language (RV. and AV.), the neuter instead of the feminine form of these suffixes is almost alone in use: see 1119.

- d. Many adverbs of obscure form or connection are to be explained with probability as accusatives of obsolete noun or adjective stems: examples are $t\bar{u}s,n\bar{t}m$, 'in silence'; $s\bar{u}y\acute{a}m$, 'at evening'; $\acute{a}lakam$, 'vainly'; $s\bar{u}k\acute{a}m$, 'together, with (prep.)'; $\acute{a}ram$ or $\acute{a}lam$, 'sufficient' (in the later language used with \rlap/kr in the manner of a preflx); $pr\bar{u}yas$, 'usually'; $\bar{\imath}s\acute{a}t$, 'somewhat'; $amn\acute{a}s$, 'unexpectedly'; $bah\acute{t}s$, 'outside'; $m\acute{t}thu$ and $mith\acute{a}s$, $m\acute{t}hu$ and $m\acute{u}hus$, $j\acute{a}tu$, and so on. $Madr\acute{t}k$ etc., and $nin\acute{t}k$ (in RV.), are perhaps contracted forms of adjectives having \rlap/acc or $a\~nc$ as their final (407 ff.); and $visun\acute{a}k$ and vithak, with pithak and idhak, may be of the same character. The presence of other roots as final members is also probable for $uc\acute{a}dhak$, $\~unus\acute{t}k$ and $\~ayus\acute{t}k$, $anus\acute{t}h\acute{u}$ and $sus\acute{t}h\acute{u}$, $yugap\acute{t}t$, etc. Compare also the forms in am beside those in $\~a$, above, 1099, 1101, 1103 a.
- e. In (Vedic) $drav\acute{a}t$, 'quickly', is to be seen a change of accent for the adverbial use (pple $dr\acute{a}vant$, 'running'); and $drahy\acute{a}t$, 'stoutly' (RV., once), may be another example. The comparative and superlative suffixes (above, c) show a like change; and it is also to be recognized in the derivatives with $v\acute{a}t$ (1107).
- 1112. The instrumental is also very often used with adverbial value: generally in the singular, but sometimes also in the plural. Thus:
- a. Of pronominal stems: as, $en\acute{a}$ and $ay\acute{a}$, $k\acute{a}y\ddot{a}$, $an\acute{a}$, $s\acute{a}n\ddot{a}$, $am\acute{a}$, $amuy\acute{a}$.
- b. Of noun-stems: as, kṣaṇena, 'instantly'; aceṣeṇa, 'completely'; viceṣeṇa, 'especially'; $div\bar{a}$, 'by day'; $diṣṭy\bar{a}$, 'fortunately'; sāhasā, 'suddenly'; aktubhis, 'by night'; and so on.
- c. Of adjectives, both neuter (not distinguishable from masculine) and feminine: as, dâksinena, 'to the south'; âttareṇa, 'to the north'; ântareṇa, 'within'; ciréṇa, 'long'; cânāis and cânakāis, 'slowly'; uccāis, 'on high'; parācāis, 'afar'; tâviṣībhis, 'mightily'; and so on.
- d. More doubtful cases, mostly from the older language, may be instanced as follows: tiracc'ata, dev'ata, $b\bar{a}h\'ata$, and sasv'arta (all RV.), homonymous instrumentals from nouns in $t\bar{a}$; dvit'a, $t\bar{a}d\'itn\bar{a}$, $\bar{\imath}rm\'a$, mrs'a, $v\'rth\bar{a}$, $s\'ac\bar{a}$, asth'a(?), $mudh\bar{a}$ (not V.), adhun'a (Br. and later).
- e. Adverbially used instrumentals are (in the older language), oftener than any other case, distinguished from normal instrumentals by differences of form: thus, especially, by an irregular accent: as, amá and divā (given above); perhaps gúhā; apākā, āsayā, kuhayā (?); naktayā, svapnayā, samanā; adatrayā, rtayā, ubhayā, sumnayā (?); daksinā, madhyā; nīcā, prūcā, uccā, paccā, tiraccā; in a few u-stems, by a y inserted before the ending,

which is accented: thus, $amuy\acute{a}$ (given above), $\ddot{a}cuy\acute{a}$, $s\ddot{a}dhuy\acute{a}$, $raghuy\acute{a}$, $dhrsnuy\acute{a}$, $anusthuy\acute{a}$, $mithuy\acute{a}$; — and $urviy\acute{a}$ (for $urvy\acute{a}$) and $vtcvy\ddot{a}$ (properly $vtcvay\ddot{a}$) are more slightly irregular.

- 1113. The dative has only very seldom an adverbial use. Examples are (from the later language only): $cir\bar{a}ya$, 'long'; $arth\bar{a}ya$, 'for the sake of'; $ahn\bar{a}ya$, 'presently'.
- 1114. The ablative is not infrequently used adverbially. Thus:
- a. Of pronominal stems: as, $k\acute{a}sm\bar{a}t$, 'why?' $akasm\bar{a}t$, 'casually, unexpectedly'; $\acute{a}t$, $t\acute{a}t$, $y\acute{a}t$ (V.: normal forms, instead of the pronominal $asm\bar{a}t$ etc.).
- **b.** Of noun-stems: as, $\bar{a}s\acute{a}t$, 'near'; $\bar{a}r\acute{a}t$, 'afar'; $bal\bar{a}t$, 'forcibly'; $kut\bar{u}-hal\bar{a}t$, 'emulously'; $sak\bar{u}c\bar{a}t$, 'on the part of'.
- **c.** Oftenest, of adjective stems: as, $d\bar{u}r\dot{a}t$, 'afar'; $n\bar{v}c\dot{a}t$, 'below'; $pacc\dot{a}t$, 'behind'; $s\bar{u}ks\dot{a}t$, 'plainly, actually'; $samant\bar{a}t$, 'completely'; $acir\bar{a}t$, 'not long'.
- **d.** In a few instances, adverbially used ablatives likewise show a changed accent in the early language: thus, $ap\bar{a}k\dot{a}t$, 'from afar'; $am\dot{a}t$, 'from near by'; $san\dot{a}t$, 'from of old' (but instr. $s\dot{a}n\bar{a}$); $uttar\dot{a}t$, 'from the north'; $adhar\dot{a}t$, 'below'.
 - 1115. The genitive is almost never used adverbially.

In the older language occur aktós, 'by night', and vástos, 'by day'; later, cirasya, 'long'.

1116. The locative is sometimes used with adverbial value. Thus:

From noun and adjective stems: $\bar{a}k\dot{e}$, 'near'; $\bar{a}r\dot{e}$ and $d\bar{u}r\dot{e}$, 'afar'; $abhisvar\dot{e}$, 'behind'; $astam\bar{k}k\dot{e}$, 'at home'; $rt\dot{e}$, 'without' (prep.); $\acute{a}gre$, 'in front'; $sth\bar{a}ne$, 'suitably'; sapadi, 'immediately'; -arthe and -krte (common in composition), 'for the sake of'; $apar\dot{t}su$, 'in after time'.

- 1117. Even a nominative form appears to be stereotyped into an adverbial value in (Vedic) kis, interrogative particle, and its compounds nâkis and mâkis, negative particles.
- 1118. Verbal Prefixes and kindred words. The verbal prefixes, described in the preceding chapter (1076 ff.), are properly adverbs, having a special office and mode of use in connection with verbal roots and their more immediate derivatives.

Their occasional looser connection with the verb has been noticed above (1084). In the value of general adverbs, however, they only very rarely occur (except as dpi has mainly changed its office from prefix to adverb or conjunction in the later language); but their prepositional uses are much more frequent and important: see below, 1125.

In composition with nouns, they (like other adverbial elements) not infrequently have an adjective value: see below, chap. XVIII.

1119. Several of the prefixes (as noticed above, 473—4) form comparative and superlative adjectives, by the suffixes tara and tama, or ra and ma: thus, úttara and uttamá; ádhara and adhamá, úpara and apamá, úvara and avamá, úpara and upamá; and prathamá is doubtless of the same character; also, úntara and úntama. And accusatives of such derivative adjectives (for the most part not otherwise found in use) have the value of comparatives, and rarely superlatives, to the prefixes themselves: thus, sámcitam cit samtarám sám ciçādhi (AV.), 'whatever is quickened, do thou still further quicken'; vitarám ví kramasva (RV.), 'stride out yet more widely'; prá tám naya pratarám vásyo ácha (RV.), 'lead him forward still further toward advantage'; úd enam uttarám naya (AV.), 'lead him up still higher'.

Besides those instanced, are found also nitarám, avatarám, parātarám, parastarám. In the Brāhmaṇas and later (above, 1111 c), the feminine accusative is used instead: thus, pratitarám, samtarám, nitarám, uttarám, pratarám and pratamám (and samtarám, RV., once).

- 1120. Kindred in origin and character with the verbal prefixes, and used like them except in composition with verbs, are a few other adverbs: thus, $av\dot{a}s$, 'down'; $adh\dot{a}s$, 'below'; $par\dot{a}s$, 'far off'; $pur\dot{a}$, 'before'; $antar\dot{a}$ (apparently, $ant\dot{a}r + \dot{a}$), 'among'; anti, 'near'; $up\dot{a}ri$, 'above': and $sah\dot{a}$ (already mentioned, 1104), 'along, with', and $s\dot{a}c\bar{a}$, 'together, with', may be noticed with them. $Vin\dot{a}$, 'without', and visu-, 'apart', appear to be related with vi.
- 1121. In separable Prefixes. A small number of adverbial prefixes are found only in combination with other elements. Thus:
- a. The negative prefix a or an an before vowels, a before consonants.

It is combined especially with innumerable nouns and adjectives; much more rarely, with adverbs, as akûtra and åpunar (RV.), ånadhas (TB.), akasmāt, asakṛt; and, according to the grammarians, sometimes also with pronouns (asas, anesas), and with verbs (apacati, 'does not cook'), but no such combinations appear to be quotable.

The independent negative adverbs, $n\acute{a}$ and $m\acute{a}$, are only in rare and exceptional instances used in composition: see below, 1122 b.

- **b.** The comitative prefix sa, used instead of the preposition sám, and exchangeably with sahá, before nouns and adjectives.
- c. The prefix of dispraise dus, 'ill, badly' (identical with \sqrt{dus} : 225).

It is combined in the same manner as a or an. Of combinations with a verbal form, at least a single example appears to be quotable: duccarati (R.), 'behaves ill' (BR.).

d. The corresponding laudatory prefix su, 'well', is in general so closely accordant in its use with the preceding that it is best mentioned here, through it occurs not rarely as an independent particle in the oldest language (in RV., more than two hundred times; in the peculiar parts of AV., only fourteen times), and even occasionally later.

No combination of su with a verbal form appears to be quotable from any accentuated text (though the worthless pada-text of AV. xix. reads su-āpāyati at 49.10). K. has na su vijnāyete and na vāi su viduḥ (or su-vijnāyete?).

- e. The exclamatory and usually depreciative prefixed forms of the interrogative pronoun (506) are most analogous with the inseparable prefixes.
- 1122. Miscellaneous Adverbs. Other words of adverbial character and office, not clearly referable to any of the classes hitherto treated, may be mentioned as follows:
- a. Asseverative particles (in part, Vedic only): thus, $ang \acute{a}$, $h\acute{a}nta$, $k\acute{i}la$, $k\acute{a}lu$, $t\acute{u}$ (rare in older language), $v\vec{a}t$, $v\acute{a}v\acute{a}$ (in Brāhmaṇa language only), $h\acute{i}$, $h\acute{i}n\acute{a}$, u, $\acute{a}ha$, ha, gha, samaha, sma, bhala.

Of these, $h \acute{a}nta$ is a word of assent; $h \acute{c}$ has won also an illative meaning, and accents the verb with which it stands in connection (595 d); sma sometimes gives a past meaning to a present tense (778 b); u is often combined with the final a of other particles: thus, $\acute{a}tho$, $n\acute{o}$, $m\acute{o}$, $ut\acute{o}$, $\acute{u}po$, $pr\acute{o}$; but also with that of verb-forms, as $datt\acute{o}$, $vidm\acute{o}$. The final o thus produced is pragrhya or uncombinable (138 c).

Particles of kindred value, already mentioned above, are id, $k\acute{a}m$ or kam, cid, $j\acute{a}tu$, $ev\acute{a}$.

Some of the asseverative particles are much used in the later artificial poetry with a purely expletive value, as devices to help make out the metre $(p\bar{u}dap\bar{u}rapa, \text{ 'verse-fillers'})$; so especially ha, hi, tu, sma.

b. Negative particles are: $n\acute{a}$, signifying simple negation; $m\acute{a}$, signifying prohibition.

As to the construction of the verb with $m\dot{a}$, see above, 579-80.

In the Veda, $n\acute{u}$ (or $n\acute{u}$: 248 a) has also sometimes a negative meaning. For the Vedic $n\acute{a}$ of comparison, see below, d.

In nahi, $n\acute{a}$ is combined with $h\acute{l}$, both elements retaining their full meaning; also with $\acute{l}d$ in $n\acute{e}d$, 'lest'. It is perhaps present in nanú and caná, but not in $hin\acute{a}$ (RV., once). In general, neither $n\acute{a}$ nor $m\acute{a}$ is used in composition to make negative compounds, but, instead, the inseparable negative prefix a or an (1121a): exceptions are the Vedic particles $n\acute{a}kis$ and $m\acute{a}kis$, $n\acute{a}k\bar{i}m$ and $m\acute{a}k\bar{i}m$; also naciram and $m\bar{a}ciram$, and a few others.

c. Interrogative particles are only those already given: $k\acute{a}d$, $k\acute{a}m$, $kuv\acute{a}d$, $sv\acute{a}d$, $nan\acute{u}$, of which the last introduces an objection or expostulation.

d. Of particles of comparison have been mentioned the toneless iva, and $yath\bar{a}$ (also toneless when used in the same way). Of frequent occurrence in the oldest language is also $n\dot{a}$, having (without loss of accent) the same position and value as the preceding.

Examples are: rsidvisa isum ná srjata dvisam (RV.), 'let loose your enmity like an arrow at the enemy of the singer'; váyo ná vrksám (AV.), 'as birds to the tree'; gāuró ná trsitáh piba (RV.), 'drink like a thirsty buffalo'. This use is generally explained as being a modification or adaptation of the negative one: thus, '[although, to be sure] not [precisely] a thirsty buffalo'; and so on.

- e. Of particles of place, besides those already mentioned, may be noticed $kv\dot{a}$ (in V., always to be read $k\dot{u}a$).
- f. Particles of time are: $n\dot{u}$, 'now' (also $n\dot{u}$: $n\bar{u}n\acute{a}m$ was mentioned above, 1109) $ady\acute{a}$ and $sady\acute{a}s$ and sadlvas (RV., once), 'today, at once' (all held to contain the element div or dyu, $hy\acute{a}s$, 'yesterday', $cv\acute{a}s$, 'tomorrow', $cv\acute{a}s$, '
- g. Of particles of manner, besides those already mentioned, may be noticed $n\dot{a}n\bar{a}$, 'variously' (for $n\bar{a}n\bar{a}n\acute{a}m$, its derivative, see 1109); $sasv\acute{a}r$ (RV.), 'secretly'.

In the above classifications are included all the Vedic adverbial words, and most of those of the later language: for the rest, see the dictionaries.

Prepositions.

1123. There is, as already stated, no proper class of prepositions (in the modern sense of that term), no body of words having for their exclusive office the "government" of nouns. But many of the adverbial words indicated above are used with nouns in a way which approximates them to the more fully developed prepositions of other languages.

If one and another of such words — as $vin\bar{a}$, rte — occurs almost solely in prepositional use, this is merely fortuitous, and of no consequence.

1124. Words are used prepositionally along with all the noun-cases excepting the dative. But in general their office is directive only, determining more definitely, or strengthening, the proper case-use of the noun. Sometimes, however, the case-use is not easy to trace, and the noun then seems to be more immediately "governed" by the preposition — that is, to have its case-form more arbitrarily determined by its association with the latter. This is oftenest true of the accusative; and of the

genitive, which has, here as elsewhere (294), suffered an extension of its normal sphere of use.

1125. The adverbs by derivative form (1097ff.) have least of a prepositional value (exceptions are especially a few made with the suffix tas: 1098).

Most of the verbal prefixes (exceptions are ud, ni, $par\bar{a}$, pra: and ava and ni are almost such) have their prepositional or quasi-prepositional uses with cases; but much more widely in the older time than in the later: in the classical language the usage is mainly restricted to prati, anu, and \bar{a} .

Most of the directive words akin with the more proper prefixes are used prepositionally: some of them — as saha, vinā,

upari, antarā, purā — freely, earlier and later.

The case-forms used adverbially are in many instances used prepositionally also: oftenest, as was to be expected, with the genitive; but frequently, and from an early time, with the accusative; more rarely with other cases.

We will take up now the cases for a brief exposition, beginning with those that are least freely used.

- 1126. The Locative. This case is least of all used with words that can claim the name of preposition. Of directives, $ant \acute{a}r$ and its later derivative $ant ar \acute{a}$, meaning 'within, in', are oftenest added to it, and in the classical language as well as earlier. Of frequent Vedic use with it are \bar{a} and adhi (illustrated above, 305); api and upa are much rarer: thus, $y \acute{a}$ $ap \acute{a}m$ $\acute{a}pi$ $vrat \acute{e}$ $[s \acute{a}nti]$ (RV.), 'who are in the domain of the waters'; $am \acute{u}r$ $y \acute{a}$ $\acute{u}pa$ $s \acute{u}rye$ $[s \acute{a}nti]$ (RV.), 'who are up yonder in the sun'; $s \acute{a}c \ddot{a}$, 'along with', is not rare in RV., but almost entirely unknown later: thus, pitroh $s \acute{a}c \ddot{a}$ $sat \acute{t}$, 'staying with her parents'.
- 1127. The Instrumental. The directives used with this case are almost only those which contain the associative pronominal root sa: as saha (most frequent), $s\bar{a}kam$, $s\bar{a}rdham$, samam, $samay\bar{a}$, saratham; and, in the Veda, the prefix sam: as, te sumatbhih sam $patn\bar{b}hir$ na visano $nas\bar{n}mahi$ (RV.), 'may we be united with thy favors as men with their spouses'. By substitution of the instrumental for the ablative of separation (283, $vin\bar{a}$, 'without' (not Vedic), takes sometimes the instrumental; and so, in the Veda, avas, 'down', and paras, 'beyond', with which the ablative is also, and much more normally, construed. And adhi, in RV., is used with the instrumentals snana and snabhis, where the locative would be expected.
- 1128. The Ablative. In the prepositional constructions of the ablative (as was pointed out and partly illustrated above, 293), the ablative value of the case, and the merely directive value of the added particle, are for the most part clearly to be traced. Many of the verbal prefixes are more or less frequently joined in the older language with this case: oftenest, adhi and pari; more sporadically, anu, apa, ava, prati, and the separatives nis and vi. The change of meaning of the ablative with \tilde{a} , 'hither', by which

it comes to fill the office of its opposite, the accusative, was sufficiently explained above (293c). Of directive words akin with the prefixes, many—as bahis, puras, avas, adhas, paras, purā, vinā, and tiras, 'out of knowledge of'—accompany this case by a perfectly regular construction. Also the case-forms arvāk, prāk, paccāt, ūrdhvam, pūrvam, param, parama, prabhṛti; and ṛte, 'without', of which the natural construction with an ablative is predominant earlier. Antikam, 'near', is said to take the ablative as well as its more normal companion the genitive.

1129. The Accusative. Many of the verbal prefixes and related words take an accompanying accusative. Most naturally (since the accusative is essentially the 'to'-case), those that express a motion or action toward anything: as abhi, prati, anu, upa, a, ati and adhi in the sense of 'over on to' or 'across, beyond', tiras, 'through', antar and antarā when meaning 'between', pari, 'around'. Examples are: yāh pradiço abhi sūryo vicaste (AV.), 'what quarters the sun looks abroad unto'; ábodhy agníh práty āyatím usásam (RV.), 'Agni has been awakened to meet the advancing dawn'; gached kadacit svajanam prati (MBh.), 'she might go somewhither to her own people'; imam praksyāmi nrpatim prati (MBh.), 'him I will ask with reference to the king'; máma cittám únu cittébhir é 'ta (AV.), 'follow after my mind with your minds'; \acute{e} 'hy \acute{a} nah (AV.), 'come hither to us'; $\acute{u}pa$ na \acute{e} 'hy $arv\acute{a}\vec{n}$ (RV.), 'come hither unto us'; yó devó mártyān áti (AV.), 'the god who is beyond mortals'; adhisthaya varcasa 'dhy anyan (AV.), 'excelling above others in glory'. Also abhitas and paritas, which have a like value with the simple abhi and pari; and upari, 'above' (oftener with genitive). Less accordant with ordinary accusative constructions is the use of this case with adhas, paras, puras, $vin\bar{a}$, beside other cases which seem more suited to the meaning of those particles. And the same may be said of most of the adverbial case-forms with which the accusative is used. Thus, a number of instrumentals of situation or direction: as yé 'vareṇā ''dityám, yé páreṇā ''dityám (TB.), 'those who are below the sun, those who are beyond the sun'; antarena yónim (CB.), 'within the womb'; te hī 'dam antarena sarvam (AB.), 'for all this universe is between them'; úttarena gárhapatyam (CB.), 'to the north of the householder's fire'; dákṣiṇena védim (CB.), to the south of the sacrificial hearth'; daksinena vṛkṣavātikām (Çak.), 'to the right of the orchard'; nikasā, 'near to'. Similarly, urdhvam and purvam have an accusative object as well as an ablative; and the same is true later of rte. Abhimukham, 'toward', has a more natural right to construction with this case; and $sam \acute{a} y \bar{a}$ (later $samay\bar{a}$), 'through between', is analogous with antar \bar{a} and tiras.

1130. The Genitive. The words which are accompanied by the genitive are mostly case-forms of nouns, or of adjectives used substantively, retaining enough of the noun-character to take this case as their natural adjunct. Such are the locatives agre, 'in front of', abhyāçe, 'near', arthe and krte, 'for the sake of', nimitte and hetāu, 'by reason of', madhye, 'in the midst of'; and other cases, as artham and arthāya, antikam and abhimukham (which have also other constructions), kāraṇāt, sakāçāt, hetos. And really, although

less directly and obviously, of the same character are other adjective cases (some of them showing other constructions, already noticed): as adharena, uttarena and uttarāt, dakṣiṇena and dakṣiṇāt, paçcāt, ūrdhvam, anantaram, samakṣam, sākṣāt. More questionable, and illustrations rather of the general looseness of use of the genitive, are its constructions (almost wholly unknown in the oldest language) with more proper words of direction: thus, with the derivative paritas, paratas, and antitas, and parastāt and purastāt (these found in the Brāhmana language: as, samvatsarasya parastāt, 'after a year'; sūktasya purastāt, 'before the hymn' [AB.]); with anti, adhas, avas, puras; with upari, 'above' (common later); and with antar.

Conjunctions.

1131. The conjunctions, also, as a distinct class of words, are almost wanting.

The combination of clauses is in Sanskrit in general of a very simple character; much of what in other Indo-European languages is effected by subordinating conjunctions is here managed by means of composition of words, by the use of the gerunds (994), and of *iti* (1102a), and so on.

1132. The relative derivative adverbs, already given (1098 ff.), may properly be regarded as conjunctions; and a few other particles of kindred value, as *ced* and *ned* (1111a).

1133. Purely of conjunctive value are \overline{a} ca, 'and', and \overline{a} , $v\overline{a}$, 'or' (both toneless, and never having the first place in a sentence or clause).

Of copulative value, along with ca, is in the older language especially uta (later it becomes a particle of more indefinite use); and api, tatas, $tath\bar{a}$, $ki\dot{m}$ ca, with other particles and combinations of particles, are used often as connectives of clauses.

Adversative is $t\dot{u}$, 'but' (rare in the older language); also, less strongly, u (toneless).

Of illative value is hi, 'for' (originally, and in great part at every period, asseverative only): compare above, 1122 a.

To ca (as well as to its compound $c\acute{e}d$) belongs occasionally the meaning 'if". It is needless to enter into detail with regard to those uses which may be not less properly, or more properly, called conjunctive than adverbial, of the particles already given, under the head of Adverbs.

Interjections.

1134. The utterances which may be classed as interjections are, as in other languages, in part voice-gestures, in part onomatopæias, and in part mutilations and corruptions of other parts of speech.

1135. a. Of the class of voice-gestures are, for example: \bar{a} , $h\bar{a}$, $h\bar{a}h\bar{b}$, ahaha, he, $h\bar{a}i$ (AV.), ayi, aye, hayé (RV.), aho, bát (RV.), bata (RV.) or vata, and (probably) hiruk and hurúk (RV.).

- b. Onomatopoetic or imitative utterances are, for example (in the older language): cicca, 'whiz' (of an arrow: RV.); $kikir\dot{a}$ (palpitation: RV.); $b\dot{a}l$ and phdt (phds?) or phdl, 'splash' (AV.); $b\dot{h}\dot{u}k$, 'bow-wow' (AV.); cal, 'pat' (AV.); $\bar{a}s$, $h\bar{s}s$, as, and has (PB.); and see the words already quoted in composition with the roots kr and $bh\bar{u}$, above, 1091.
- c. Nouns and adjectives which have assumed an interjectional character are, for example: bhos (for the vocative bhavas, 456); are or re (voc. of ari, 'enemy'); dhik, 'alas!' (may be mere voice-gesture, but perhaps related with \sqrt{dih} ; kastam, 'woe is me!' distyā, 'thank heaven!' svasti, 'hail!' susthu, sādhu, 'good, excellent!' None of these are Vedic in interjectional use.

CHAPTER XVII.

DERIVATION OF DECLINABLE STEMS.

1136. The formation from roots of conjugable stems — namely, tense-stems, mode-stems, and stems of secondary conjugation (not essentially different from one another, nor, it is believed, ultimately from the formation of declined stems) — was most conveniently treated above, in the chapters devoted to the verb. Likewise the formation of adverbs by derivation (not essentially different from case-formation), in the chapter devoted to particles. And the formation of those declinable stems — namely, of comparison, and of infinitives and participles — which attach themselves most closely to the systems of inflection, has also been more or less fully exhibited. But the extensive and intricate subject of the formation of the great body of declinable stems was best reserved for a special chapter.

Of course, only a brief and compendious exhibition of the subject can be attempted within the here necessary limits: no exhaustive tracing out of the formative elements of every period; still less, a complete statement of the varied uses of each element; least of all, a discussion of origins; but enough to help the student in that analysis of words which must form a part of his labor from the outset, giving a general outline of the field, and preparing for more penetrating investigation.

The material from accented texts, and especially the Vedic material, will be had especially in view (nothing that is Vedic being intentionally left unconsidered); and the examples given will be, so far as is possible, words found in such texts with their accent marked. No word not thus vouched for will be accented unless the fact is specifically pointed out.

1137. The roots themselves, both verbal and pronominal, are used in their bare form, or without any added suffix, as declinable stems.

As to this use of verbal roots, see below, 1147.

The pronominal roots, so-called, are essentially declinable; and hence, in their further treatment in derivation, they are in accordance with other declinable stems, and not with verbal roots.

- 1138. Apart from this, every such stem is made by a suffix. And these suffixes fall into two general classes:
- A. Primary suffixes, or those which are added directly to roots;
- B. Secondary suffixes, or those which are added to derivative stems (also to pronominal roots, as just pointed out, and sometimes to particles).

The division of primary suffixes nearly corresponds to the krt (more regular) and $un\bar{u}di$ (less regular) suffixes of the Hindu grammarians; the secondary, to their taddhita-suffixes.

- 1139. But this distinction, though one of high value, theoretically and practically, is not absolute. Thus:
- a. Suffixes come to have the aspect and the use of primary which really contain a secondary element that is to say, the earliest words exhibiting them were made by addition of secondary suffixes to words already derivative.

Sundry examples of this will be pointed out below: thus, the gerundival suffixes, tavya, anīya, etc., the suffixes uka and aka, tra, and others. This origin is probable for more cases than admit of demonstration; and it is possible for others which show no distinct signs of composition.

- b. Less often, a suffix of primary use passes over in part into secondary, through the medium of use with denominative "roots" or otherwise: examples are yu, iman, īyas and iṣṭha.
 - 1140. Moreover, primary suffixes are added not only

to original roots, but, generally with equal freedom, to elements which have come to wear in the language the aspect of such, by being made the basis of primary conjugation — and even, to a certain extent, to the bases of secondary conjugation, the conjugation-stems, and the bases of tense-inflection, the tense-stems.

- a. The most conspicuous examples of this are the participles, present and future and perfect, which are made alike from tense and conjugation-stems of every form. The infinitives (968 ff.) attach themselves only in sporadic instances to tense-stems, and even from conjugation-stems are made but sparingly earlier; and the same is true of the gerundives.
- b. General adjectives and nouns are somewhat widely made from conjugation-stems, especially from the base of causative conjugation: see below the suffixes a, \bar{a} , as, ani, u, ti, tr, tnu, snu.
- c. From tense-stems, the examples are far fewer, but not unknown: thus, from present-stems, occasional derivatives in a (1148.3b), \bar{a} (1149), u (1178e,g,h), ta (1176e), tu (1161c), tra (1185d), ru (1192), vin (or in: 1232, end); from stems in a s apparently of a oristic character (besides infinitives and gerundives), occasional derivatives in a (1148.3b), ana (1150.2b), ani (1159b), an (1160a), $\bar{a}na$ (1175), as (1151.1b), isiha (1184), u (1178e), us (1154), tr (1182c), in (1183).
- 1141. The primary suffixes are added also to roots as compounded with the verbal prefixes.

Whatever, namely, may have been originally and strictly the mode of production of the derivatives with prefixes, it is throughout the recorded life of the language as if the root and its prefix or prefixes constituted a unity, from which a derivative is formed in the same manner as from the simple root, with that modification of the radical meaning which appears also in the proper verbal forms as compounded with the same prefixes.

Not derivatives of every kind are thus made; but, in the main, those classes which have most of the verbal force, or which are most akin in value with infinitives and participles.

The occurrence of such derivatives with prefixes, and their accent, will be noted under each suffix below. They are chiefly (in nearly the order of their comparative frequency), besides root-stems, those in a, in ana, in ti, in tar and tra, and in in, ya, van and man, i and u, as, and a few others.

1142. The suffixes of both classes are sometimes joined to their primitives by a preceding union-vowel — that is to say, by one which wears that aspect, and, in our uncertainty as to its real origin, may most conveniently and safely be called by that name. The line between these vowels and such as de-

serve to be ranked as of organic suffixal character cannot be sharply drawn.

Each of the two great classes will now be taken up by itself, for more particular consideration.

A. Primary Derivatives.

- 1143. Form of root. The form of root to which a primary suffix is added is liable to more or less variation. Thus:
- a. By far the most frequent is a strengthening change, by guna or vrddhi-increment. The former may occur under all circumstances (except, of course, where guna-change is in general forbidden: 235, 240): thus, $v\acute{e}da$ from $\bigvee vid$, $m\acute{o}da$ from $\bigvee mud$, $v\acute{a}rdha$ from $\bigvee vrdh$: $\acute{a}yana$ from $\bigvee i$, $s\acute{a}vana$ from $\bigvee sv$, $s\acute{a}rana$ from $\bigvee sr$; and so on. But the latter is only allowed under such circumstances as leave long \bar{a} as the resulting vowel: that is, with non-final a, and with a final i or u-vowel and r, before a vowel: thus, $n\bar{a}d\acute{a}$ from $\bigvee nad$, $gr\bar{a}bh\acute{a}$ from $\bigvee grbh$ or grabh, $v\bar{a}h\acute{a}$ from $\bigvee vah$, $n\bar{a}y\acute{a}$ from $\bigvee n\bar{n}$, $bh\bar{a}v\acute{a}$ from $\bigvee bh\bar{u}$, $k\bar{a}r\acute{a}$ from $\bigvee kr$; such strengthening as would make $v\bar{a}ida$ and $m\bar{a}uda$ is entirely unknown in primary derivation.

No general rules can be given as to the occurrence of strengthening in derivation: it must be left to be pointed out for each suffix.

- **b.** Other vowel changes are more sporadic, and will be noticed in detail below: thus, occasional abbreviation of a root, as in *ukti* from ψvac ; change of final r to ir and ur; the loss of final \bar{a} , or its conversion to an i-vowel; and so on.
- **c.** The reversion of a final palatal or h to a guttural has been already noticed (216). A final n or m is occasionally lost, as in formations already considered.
- d. After a short final vowel is sometimes added a t: namely, where a root is used as stem without suffix (1147), and before a following y or v of van (1169), vara and $var\bar{\imath}$ (1171), yu once (1165 a), and ya (1213).

The presence of t before these suffixes indicates an original secondary derivation from derivatives in ti and tu.

- e. The root is sometimes reduplicated: rarely in the use without suffix: oftenest before i, a, u; in only a few cases each, also before other suffixes (ana, vana, van and varī, vani, vi, vii, ani, in, atu, tnu, ta, ti, tṛ, tra, $\bar{u}ka$ and $\bar{i}ka$, ma, ya).
- 1144. Accent. No general laws governing the place of the accent are to be recognized; each suffix must in this respect be considered by itself.

In connection with a very few suffixes is to be recognized a certain

degree of tendency to accent the root in case of a nomen actionis or infinitival derivative, and the ending in the case of a nomen agentis or participial derivative: see the suffixes a, ana, as, an, and man, below, where the examples are considered. Differences of accent in words made by the same suffix are also occasionally connected with differences of gender: see the suffixes as and man.

1145. Meaning. As regards their signification, the primary derivatives fall into two great classes, the one indicating the action expressed by the verbal root, the other the person or thing in which the action appears, the agent or actor — the latter, either substantively or adjectively. The one class is abstract, infinitival; the other is concrete, participial. All other meanings may be viewed as modifications or specializations of these two.

Even the words indicating recipience of action, the passive participles, are, as their use also as neuter or reflexive shows, only notably modified words of agency. The gerundives are, as was pointed out above (961), secondary derivatives, originally indicating only 'concerned with the action'.

1146. But these two classes, in the processes of formation, are not held sharply apart. There is hardly a suffix by which action-nouns are formed which does not also make agent-nouns or adjectives; although there are not a few by which are made only the latter. In treating them in detail below, we will first take up the suffixes by which derivatives of both classes are made, and then those forming only agent-nouns.

To follow an alphabetical arrangement, although in some respects more practically convenient, seems too artificial, and destructive of all natural connection. The Index will give what help is needed toward finding any particular suffix which is sought.

- 1147. Stems without suffix: Root-words. These words and their uses have been already pretty fully considered above (323, 348 ff., 383 ff., 400, 401).
- a. They are used especially (in the later language, almost solely) as finals of compounds, and have both fundamental values, as action-nouns (frequently as infinitives: 971), and as agent-nouns and adjectives (often governing an accusative: 271e). As action-nouns, they are chiefly feminines (384: in many instances, however, they do not occur in situations that determine the gender).
- b. In a small number of words, mostly of rare occurrence, the reduplicated root is used without suffix.

The Vedic cases are: with simple reduplication, sasyád, cikít, sasrát (irregular, for susrut), didyú and didyút, juhá, and perhaps cícu; with in-

tensive reduplication, -nenī, jogū, yavīyūdh, vānīvan (with the intensive instead of the usual radical accent). In dāridra is seen a transfer to the a-declension. Asūsū is probably to be understood as a compound, asū-sū.

c. If the root end in a short vowel, a t is regularly and usually added (383b).

Examples, and the exceptions found to occur, have been given at the place just quoted.

- d. Words of this form in combination with verbal prefixes are very numerous. The accent rests (as in combination of the same with other preceding elements) on the root-stem.
- e. In a single instance, cratkarna (RV.), 'of listening ears', a stem of this class occurs as prior member of a compound.
- 1148. $\[\] a$. With the suffix $\[\] a$ is made a very large and heterogeneous body of derivatives, of various meaning and showing various treatment of the root: guna-strengthening, vrddhi-strengthening, retention unchanged, and reduplication.

In good part, they are classifiable under the two usual general heads; but in part they have been individualized into more special senses.

- 1. With guna-strengthening of the root (where that is possible: 235, 240). These are the great majority, being more than twice as numerous as all others together.
- a. Many nomina actionis: as, cráma, 'weariness', gráha, 'seizure', áya, 'movement', véda, 'knowledge', háva, 'call', kródha, 'wrath', jósa, 'enjoyment', tára, 'crossing', sárga, 'emission'.
- b. Many nomina agentis: as, kṣamā, 'patient', svajā, 'constrictor', hinvā, 'impelling', jīvā, 'living', meghā, 'cloud', codā, 'inciting', plavā, 'boat', sarā, 'brook', sarpā, 'serpent', arcā, 'radiant'.
- c. Of the examples here given, those under a accent the radical syllable, and those under b the ending. And this is in a majority of cases the fact as regards the two classes of derivatives; so that, taken in connection with kindred facts as to other suffixes, it indicates such a difference of accent as a general tendency of the language. A few sporadic instances are met with of the same form having the one or the other value according to its accent: thus, $\dot{e}sa$, 'haste', $\dot{e}sa$, 'hasting'; $\dot{c}asa$, 'order', $\dot{c}asa$, 'orderer' (other examples are $k\bar{a}ma$, $c\bar{a}ka$, coka): compare a similar difference with other derivatives as, ana, an, man). But exceptions are numerous thus, for example, jaya, java, smara, action-nouns; crava, mogha, hinsa, agent-nouns and the subject calls for a much wider and deeper investigation than it has yet received, before the accentuation referred to can be set up as a law of the language in derivation.
 - 2. With vrddhi-strengthening of the root but only where

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 \bar{a} is the resulting radical vowel: that is, of medial a, and of final r (most often), u or \bar{u} , i or \bar{i} (rare).

- a. Examples of action-nouns are: $k \dot{a} m a$, 'love', $b h \ddot{a} g \dot{a}$, 'share', $n \ddot{a} d \dot{a}$, 'noise', $d \ddot{a} v \dot{a}$, 'fire', $t \ddot{a} r \dot{a}$, 'crossing'. Hardly any forms of clear derivation and meaning are quotable with accent on the root-syllable.
- **b.** Examples of agent-nouns are: $gr\bar{a}bh\bar{a}$, 'seizing', $v\bar{a}h\bar{a}$, 'carrying', $n\bar{a}y\bar{a}$, 'leading', $j\bar{a}r\bar{a}$, 'lover'.
- 3. With unstrengthened root, the examples are quite few: thus, kṛçá, 'lean', yugâ, 'yoke', sruvâ, 'spoon', priyâ, 'dear', vrâ, 'troop', çucâ, 'bright'.
- a. A number of words of this class, especially as occurring in composition, are probably results of the transfer of root-stems to the a-declension: thus, -ruja, -ghusa, -sphura.
- b. A few Vedic examples are made from conjugational stems: thus, from the causative stem, $k \hat{u} p a y a$ and $t \hat{u} n a y a$ and $m \hat{r} g a y a (?)$, -i n k h a y a, -e j a y a, $-d h \bar{u} r a y a$, $-p \bar{u} r a y a$; from present-stems of the nu-class (IV.), or secondary roots made from them (716), h i n v a, -i n v a, -j i n v a, -p i n v a, -s i n v a, -i n v a, -j i n v a, -j i
- 4. With reduplicated root, the derivatives in the older language are a class of some extent. They are made in a few instances with the simple reduplication: thus, cacará, 'movable'(?), cicayá, 'inciting', sasrá, 'flowing', vavrá, 'hiding'; much more often, with the intensive reduplication: thus, rerihá, 'licking', vevijá, 'hasting', -roruda, 'weeping', -caākrama, 'striding', carācará and calācalá, 'movable', kanikradá, 'noisy', panispadá, 'quivering', varīvṛtá, 'rolling'.

Only a single example of an action-noun has been noticed, namely cicnátha, 'attack', with accent on the root. Other examples of accent elsewhere than on the suffix are only the stems (of doubtful meaning or derivation) cárcara and gárgara.

5. Derivatives with this suffix from roots as compounded with the verbal prefixes are quite common, in all the modes of formation (in each, in proportion to the frequency of independent words): constituting, in fact, considerably the largest body of derivative stems with prefixes. They are of both classes as to meaning. The accent is, with few exceptions, on the ending — and that, without any reference to the value of the stem as action-noun or agent-noun.

Examples are: saingamā, 'assembly', nimeṣā, 'wink', abhidrohā, 'enmity', anukarā, 'assistance', udānā, 'inspiration', pratyūçrūvā, 'response'; — paricarā, 'wandering', sainjayā, 'victorious', vibodhā, 'wakeful', atiyājā, 'over-pious', udārā, 'inciting, elevated', uttudā, 'rousing', saingirā, 'swallowing', ūdardirā, 'crushing', adhicaākramā, 'elimbing'.

The only definable class of exceptions in regard to accent appears to be that of the adverbial gerunds in am (above, 995), which are accented on the root-syllable. A very few other stems have the same tone: for ex-

ample, $utp\dot{a}ta$, 'portent'; $\bar{a}cr\dot{e}sa$, 'plague'. A few others, mostly agent-nouns, have the accent on the prefix: for example, $vy\delta sa$ (i. e. vi-osa), 'burning', $pr\dot{a}tivega$, 'neighbor', $\dot{a}bhaga$, 'sharing'; but also $s\dot{a}mk\bar{a}ga$, 'appearance'.

For the remaining compounds of these derivatives, with the inseparable prefixes and with other elements, see the next chapter. It may be merely mentioned here that such compounds are numerous, and that the a-derivative has often an active participial value, and is frequently preceded by a case-form, oftenest the accusative.

Many words in the language appear to end with a suffix a, while yet they are referable to no root which can be otherwise demonstrated as such.

1149. $\[\] \bar{a}$. This suffix has, for the most part, the subordinate office of making corresponding feminines (especially adjective) to masculines in $\[\] a$ — in which use, of course, it might be open to question whether we should not regard it rather as an element of secondary character. It is comparatively little employed independently.

There are, however, a considerable number of feminine nouns in \bar{a} in the language to which no corresponding masculines exist; and many of them are distinctly traceable to roots. The latter are especially action-nouns, accented on the suffix: and such derivatives in \dot{a} form a distinct class, being made sometimes from simple roots, but especially, and at will, from conjugational stems, desiderative, causative, and denominative.

Examples from simple roots are: $\bar{\imath}c\dot{a}$, 'lordship', $kr\bar{\imath}d\dot{a}$, 'play', $jar\dot{a}$, 'old age', $nind\dot{a}$, 'reproach'.

Examples from desiderative stems are very few in the oldest language, but common later: thus, $jig\bar{\imath}_s\dot{\alpha}$ and $bhik_s\dot{\alpha}$ (RV.); the latter and $v\bar{\imath}rts\dot{\alpha}$ (AV.); $b\bar{\imath}bhats\dot{\alpha}$ (VS.); in Brāhmaņa language, $pip\bar{a}s\dot{\alpha}$, $bubhuk_s\dot{\alpha}$, $m\bar{\imath}m\dot{a}\dot{n}s\dot{\alpha}$, $cik_s\dot{\alpha}$ or $c\bar{\imath}ks\dot{\alpha}$, etc.

From causative stems, the only Vedic example is $gamay\dot{a}$ (compare the derivatives in -aya, above, 1148.3b); but the formation becomes common later, in the making-up of the periphrastic perfect (above, 1070 ff.). The derivatives from present-stems — thus, $vid\dot{a}$, $edh\dot{a}$, $juhav\dot{a}$, etc. — made for a similar office, have been mentioned in connection with this perfect (1073).

From denominative stems, the older instances are more numerous: for example, $acvay\dot{a}$, $sukrat\bar{u}y\dot{a}$, $apasy\dot{a}$, $urusy\dot{a}$, $as\bar{u}y\dot{a}$, $acanay\dot{a}$, $j\bar{\imath}vanasy\dot{a}$. Their y is not resolved into i.

1150. দ্বন ana. With this suffix (as with দ্ব a) are formed many derivatives, of both the principal classes of meaning, and with not infrequent specializations. The root has

usually guṇa-strengthening, but sometimes vṛddhi instead; and in a few cases it remains unstrengthened. Derivatives of this formation are frequent from roots with prefixes, and also in composition with other elements.

The normal and greatly prevalent accent is upon the root-syllable, without regard to the difference of meaning: but cases occur of accented final, and a few of accented penult (which last are possibly to be referred to another suffix of the same form but of a different origin).

The action-nouns are in general of the neuter gender. The feminine of adjectives is made either in \bar{a} or in $\bar{\imath}$ (for details, see below). And a few feminine action-nouns in $an\bar{a}$ and $an\bar{\imath}$ occur, which are to be ranked as belonging to this suffix.

- 1. With strengthened and accented root-syllable. Under this head fall, as above indicated, the great mass of forms.
- a. With guṇa-strengthening: examples of action-nouns are sádana, 'seat', râkṣaṇa, 'protection', dắna, 'giving', câyana, 'collection', vêdana, 'property', hâvana, 'call', bhójana, 'enjoyment', kâraṇa, 'deed', várdhana, 'increase'; of agent-nouns, tâpana, 'burning', cêtana, 'visible', códana, 'impelling'.

The derivatives $d\dot{u}_sa_na$ and $-m\dot{a}rjana$ have the same irregular strengthening which appears in their present-systems (627, 1042a), and other formations from the same roots.

- b. With vrddhi-strengthening (only in such circumstances that \bar{a} remains as vowel of the radical syllable): examples (all that have been noted in the older language) are $-c\dot{a}tana$, $n\dot{a}cana$, $m\dot{a}dana$, $-v\dot{a}cana$, $-v\dot{a}sana$, $-v\dot{a}hana$, $s\dot{a}dana$, $-sp\dot{a}cana$, $sv\dot{a}dana$, -dvana, $-v\dot{a}vana$, -rdvana, -rdv
- c. From roots with prefixes, the derivatives of this formation are very numerous, being exceeded in frequency only by those made with the suffix a (above, 1148.5).¹ A few examples are: $\bar{a}kr\bar{a}mana$, 'striding on', $udy\bar{a}na$, 'upgoing', $nidh\bar{a}na$, 'receptacle', $pr\bar{a}nana$, 'expiration', $vim\bar{a}cana$, 'release' and 'releasing', $samgr\bar{a}mana$, 'assembly' and 'assembler', $adhivik\bar{a}rtana$, 'cutting off', $avaprabhr\bar{a}ncana$, 'falling away down'.

For other compounds of these derivatives, showing the same accent (and the same feminine stem), see the next chapter (below, 1272).

- A few exceptions occur: $vicakṣaṇ\acute{a},~uparicayan\acute{a},~and~the~feminines~pramandan\'{t}~and~nirdahan\'{t}.$
- d. The adjectives of this formation, simple or compound, make their feminine usually in $\bar{\imath}$: thus, $c\acute{o}dan\bar{\imath}$, $p\acute{e}can\bar{\imath}$, $sp\acute{a}ran\bar{\imath}$, $j\acute{a}mbhan\bar{\imath}$; $praj\~n\acute{a}n\bar{\imath}$, $pr\acute{o}ksan\~i$, $sa\acute{m}gr\acute{a}han\~i$, $abhis\^avan\~i$, $vidh\^aran\~i$ (cetan \acute{i} is of doubtful meaning: below, 2a).

An adjective compound, however, having a noun in ana as final member, makes its feminine in \bar{a} : thus, $s\bar{u}pasarpan\dot{a}$, 'of easy approach', $s\bar{a}dvidh\bar{a}n\bar{a}$, 'of sextuple order', $anapav\bar{a}can\dot{a}$, 'not to be ordered away'.

2. The more irregular formations may be classed as follows:

a. With accent on the final: a small number of agent-nouns and adjectives, as karaná, 'active' (against kárana, 'fact'), tvaraná, 'hasting', rocaná, 'shining', kroçaná, 'yelling', svæpaná, 'sleepy', kṣayaná, 'habitable'.

These, unlike the more regular class, make their feminines in \bar{a} : thus, tvaraná, spandaná, etc. And a very few feminine action-nouns have the same form: jaraná, dyotaná (? RV. i. 123, 4), cvetaná (and compare kapaná, racaná).

Beside these may be mentioned a few feminines in $an\hat{t}$, of more or less doubtful character: $arsan\hat{t}$, $cetan\hat{t}$ (to cetana), $tapan\hat{t}$ (to tapana), $vrjan\hat{t}$ (with vrjana), $h\bar{a}yan\hat{t}$ (with $h\bar{a}yana$), $rajan\bar{t}$, $tedan\hat{t}$.

b. With accent on the penult: a very small number of adjectives: as dohána, 'milking', manána, 'considerate', manána, 'rejoicing', sakṣáṇa, 'overcoming', and perhaps vakṣáṇā, 'carrying' (with aoristic s); and a still smaller number of neuter action-nouns: daṅsána, 'great deed', vṛjāṇa, 'enclosure, town', kṛpāṇa, 'misery' (against kṛpaṇā, 'miserable'), with the masculine kirāṇa, 'dust'.

The only noticed example of a feminine is in \bar{a} : $turdn\bar{a}$. And a few feminine nouns have the same form: as $jardn\bar{a}$, $bhanddn\bar{a}$, $kanydn\bar{a}$, $vaksdn\bar{a}$, etc. (and compare the anomalous mass. name $ucdn\bar{a}$: 355 a).

- c. Without strengthening of the root are made a very small number of derivatives: namely (besides those already noted, kṛpāṇa and kṛpaṇā, vṛjāṇa and vṛjaṇī, kirāṇa, turāṇā), bhuraṇa, -sūvana and bhūvana (compare the perfects of the same roots, sasūva and babhūva, without the usual strengthening: 789 a): kṛcana, pṛcana, vṛṣaṇa are doubtful.
- d. A few isolated cases may be here mentioned: $j\bar{a}garan\hat{a}$ and $p\hat{a}lp\bar{u}lana$ from reduplicated root-forms; $s\hat{a}mana$ apparently from the prefix sam; $anh\bar{u}ran\hat{a}$ apparently from $anhur\hat{a}$; $y\hat{o}san\bar{a}$, 'woman' (beside $y\hat{o}san$, $y\hat{o}s\bar{a}$, etc.), and $p\hat{r}tan\bar{a}$, 'fight', are the only feminines with accented root-syllable.
- 1151. সন্ as. By this suffix are made (usually with guna-strengthening of the root-vowel) especially a large class of neuter nouns, mostly abstract (action-nouns), but sometimes assuming a concrete value; and also, in the older language, a few agent-nouns and adjectives, and a considerable number of infinitives.

The accent in words of the first class is on the root, and in the second on the ending; and in a few instances words of the two classes having the same form are distinguished by their accent; the infinitives have for the most part the accent on the suffix.

- 1. a. Examples of the first and principal class are: ávas, 'aid, favor', tápas, 'warmth', práyas, 'pleasure', téjas, 'splendor', çrávas, 'fame', dóhas, 'milking', káras, 'deed', práthas, 'breadth', cétas and mánas, 'mind', cákṣas, 'eye', sáras, 'pond', vácas, 'speech'.
 - b. A few words of this class are of irregular formation: thus, without

strengthening of the root, júvas, 'quickness' (beside júvas), úras, 'breast', mṛdhas, 'contempt'; and círas, 'head', is to be compared; — with vṛddhi-strengthening, -vācas, vásas, váhas; -svādas, -hāyas; — perhaps with an aoristic s, hésas, 'missile'.

c: After final \bar{a} of a root is usually inserted y before the suffix (258): thus, dháyas, gáyas.

But there are in the oldest language apparent remains of a formation in which as was added directly to radical \bar{a} : thus, $bh\bar{a}s$ and $-d\bar{a}s$ (often to be pronounced as two syllables), $j\tilde{n}\bar{a}s$, $m\bar{a}s$; and -jas and -dhas and -das, from the roots $j\bar{a}$ and $dh\bar{a}$ and $d\bar{a}$ (Benfey, Abh. Gött. Ges. xxiii., 1878).

- 2. a. The instances in which an agent-noun is differentiated by its accent from an action-noun are: âpas, 'work', and apâs, 'active'; yâças, 'beauty', and yaçâs, 'beauteous'; târas, 'quickness', and tarâs (SV., once), 'quick'; dâvas, 'worship', and duvâs, 'lively'(?); mâhas, 'greatness', and mahâs, 'great'; between râkṣas, n., and rakṣâs, m., both meaning 'demon', and between tyâjas, n., 'abandonment'(?), and tyajâs, m., 'descendant' (?), the antithesis is much less clear.
- b. Adjectives in ás without corresponding abstracts are: tavás, 'strong', vedhás, 'pious', probably āhanás, 'heady'; and a few other words of isolated occurence, as veçás, dhvarás. From a denominative stem is made mṛgayás, 'wild animal' (RV., ouce).
- c. But there are also a very few cases of abstract nouns, not neuter, accented on the ending: thus, jaras, 'old age', bhiyas, 'fear'; and doubtless also havas, 'call', and tvesas, 'impulse'. The feminine usas, 'dawn', might belong either here or under the last preceding head.
- d. Apparently containing a suffix as are the noun upás, 'lap', and certain proper names: ângiras, nodhás, bhalānás, arcanānás. The feminine apsarás, 'nymph', is of doubtful derivation.

The irregular formation of some of the words of this division will be noticed, without special remark.

- 3. The infinitives made by the suffix as have been explained above (973): they show various treatment of the root, and various accent (which last may perhaps mark a difference of gender, like that between sáhas and jarás).
- 4. The formation of derivatives in as from roots compounded with prefixes is very restricted if, indeed, it is to be admitted at all. No infinitive in as occurs with a prefix; nor any action-noun; and the adjective combinations are in some instances evidently, and in most others apparently, possessive compounds of the noun with the prefix used adjectively: the most probable exceptions are $-ny\partial kas$ and $v\ell spardhas$. As in these examples, the accent is always on the prefix.

In connection with this, the most common and important suffix ending in s, may be best treated the others, kindred in office and possibly also in origin, which end in the same sibilant.

- 1152. तम् tas, नम् nas, मम् sas. With these suffixes are made an extremely small number of action-nouns. Thus:
 - a. With tas are made rétas, 'seed', and srótas, 'stream'.
- b. With nas are made ápnas, 'acquisition', árṇas, 'wave', -bharṇas, 'offering', rékṇas, 'riches'; and in dráviṇas, 'wealth', and párīṇas, 'fulness', is apparently to be seen the same suffix, with prefixed elements having the present value of union-vowels. Probably the same is true of dâmūnas, 'house-friend'.
- c. With sas is perhaps made vapsas, 'beauty'(?); and tarūsas may be mentioned with it (rather tarus-a?).
- 1153. इस् is. With the suffix is is formed a small number (about a dozen) of nouns.

They are in part nouns of action, but most are used concretely. The radical syllable has the guna-strengthening, and the accent is on the suffix (except in jyótis, 'light', vyáthis (?), and ámis, 'raw meat'). Examples are: arcis, rocis, and çocis, 'light', havis, 'oblation', vartis, 'track'.

The forms tuvis- and surabhis- appear inorganically for tuvi and surabhi in a few compounds or derivatives.

1154. 3H us. With this suffix are made a few words, of various meaning, root-form, and accent.

They are words signifying both action and agent. A few have both meanings, without difference of accent: thus, $t\acute{a}pus$, 'heat' and 'hot'; $\acute{a}rus$, 'wound' and 'sore'; $c\acute{a}ksus$, 'brightness' and 'seeing, eye'; $v\acute{a}pus$, 'wonderful' and 'wonder'. The nouns are mostly neuter, and accented on the rootsyllable; exceptions are: in regard to accent, $jan\acute{u}s$, 'birth'; in regard to gender, $m\acute{a}nus$, 'man', and $n\acute{a}hus$, proper name. Of adjectives, are accented on the ending $jay\acute{u}s$, $van\acute{u}s$, $vid\acute{u}s$ (which alone shows an unstrengthened toot), and $daks\acute{u}s$, 'burning' (which appears to attach itself to the acrist-stem).

1155. \(\xi\) i. With this suffix are formed a considerable body of derivatives, of all genders: adjectives and masculine agent-nouns, feminine abstracts, and a few neuters. They show a various form of the root: strong, weak, and reduplicated. Their accent is also various.

Many words in i have meanings much specialized; and many (including most of the neuters) are hardly to be connected with any root elsewhere demonstrable.

1. The feminine action-nouns are of very various form: thus, with weak root-form, rúci, 'brightness', tvísi, 'sheen'; kṛṣi, 'ploughing', rṛṭi,

'dance', $yudh\ell$, 'fighting'; — with guna-strengthening (where possible), rópi, 'pain', rándhi, 'subjection', $coc\ell$, 'heat', $van\ell$ and $san\ell$, 'gain'; — with vrddhi-strengthening, $gr\acute{a}hi$, 'seizure', $dhr\acute{a}ji$, 'course', $\ddot{a}j\ell$, 'race'; from $\gamma'dus$ comes $d\acute{u}si$ (compare $d\ddot{u}sayati$, 1042 a). The variety of accent, which seems reducible to no rule, is illustrated by the examples given.

The few infinitively used words of this formation (above, 975) have a weak root-form, with accent on the ending.

- 2. The adjectives and masculine agent-nouns exhibit the same variety. Thus:
- a. With unstrengthened root: cuci, 'bright', bhrmi, 'lively' (\stackstar' bhram), grbhi, 'container'.
- b. With strengthened root (or root incapable of guṇa-change): ári, 'enemy', máhi, 'great', arcī, 'beam', granthī, 'knot', krīdī, 'playing'; and some words, of obscure connections, show an apparent vrddhi-increment: thus, drāpī, 'mantle', rācī, 'heap', pānī, 'hand', etc.
- c. With reduplicated root. This is in the older language a considerable class, of quite various form. Thus: with weak or abbreviated root, $c\acute{a}kri$, $j\acute{a}ghri$ ($\gamma ghar$), $p\acute{a}pri$, $s\acute{a}sri$, -mamri, babhri, vavri, $j\acute{a}gmi$, $j\acute{a}ghni$, $s\acute{a}sni$, $s\acute{a}svi$, -cicvi; and, with displacement of final \bar{a} (or its weakening to the semblance of the suffix), dadi, papi, yayi (with a case or two from yayi), -jajñi, $d\acute{a}dhi$; from the ur-form of roots in changeable r, $j\acute{a}guri$, $t\acute{a}turi$, $p\acute{a}puri$; with simple reduplication, $y\acute{a}yudhi$, $v\acute{v}vici$; with strengthened reduplication, -cācali, $t\acute{a}trpi$, $d\acute{a}dhrsi$, $v\acute{a}vahi$, $s\~{a}sahi$, $t\acute{a}tuji$ and $t\~{u}tuji$, $y\'{u}yuvi$, $y\'{u}yudhi$; and $jarbh\acute{a}ri$. And karkari, 'lute', and dunduhi, 'drum', have the aspect of belonging to the same class, but are probably onomatopoetic. The accent, it will be noticed, is most often on the reduplication, but not seldom elsewhere (only once on the root).

It was noticed above (271 f) that these reduplicated derivatives in i especially often take an object in the accusative, like a present participle.

d. Formations in i from the root compounded with prefixes are not at all numerous. They are accented usually on the suffix. Examples are: abhidroht, āyají, vyānaçí, nijaghní, parādadí, viṣāsahí; but also ājáni, āmúri, vívavri.

As compounded with other preceding words, the adjectives or agent-nouns in i are not rare, and are regularly accented on the root: see the next chapter, 1276.

- e. From $\gamma dh\bar{a}$ comes a derivative -dhi, forming many masculine compounds, with the value both of an abstract and a concrete: thus, with prefixes, antardhi, uddhi, nidhi, paridhi, etc. Opinions are divided as to whether it is to be regarded as formed with the suffix i, displacing the radical \bar{a} , or with weakening of \bar{a} to i.
- 3. Neuter nouns in i are few, and of obscure derivation: examples are ákṣi, 'eye', ásthi, 'bone', dádhi, 'curds', etc.
- 1156. ξ $\bar{\imath}$. The suffix ξ $\bar{\imath}$, like Ξ \bar{a} (above, 1149), has in general the office of making a feminine from a masculine stem. Thus:

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Especially, from consonant-stems in general; — from stems in r (or ar): 376a; — from some stems in u: 344; — from many stems in (for details, see the various suffixes ending in a): — stems in i very rarely have corresponding feminines in $\bar{\imath}$: an example is $k_{l}m_{l}^{r}$ (masc. $k_{l}^{r}m_{l}^{r}$).

In the oldest language, a few masculines also are made in final 7: they have been noticed, and their inflection described, above (355 ff.).

1157. \overrightarrow{la} ti. This suffix forms a large class of frequently used feminine nouns of action; and also a few agent-nouns (masculine) and adjectives. The root has in general the same form as before the suffix \overrightarrow{a} ta of the passive participle (952 ff.) — that is to say, a weak, and often a weakened or abbreviated, form.

The accent ought, in analogy with that of the participle, to rest always upon the suffix; and it does so in the (small) majority of words quotable from accented texts; but the exceptions are numerous. In the few words used as infinitives (975), the accent is on the suffix only.

1. a. Examples of the normal formation are: $r\bar{a}t\ell$, 'gift', $it\ell$, 'progress', $r\bar{t}t\ell$, 'flow', $stut\ell$, 'praise', $bh\bar{u}t\ell$, 'prosperity', $bhrt\ell$, 'bearing', $cakt\ell$, 'power', $k\bar{v}rt\ell$, 'fame', $p\bar{u}rt\ell$, 'bestowal', $mat\ell$, 'thought', $p\bar{v}t\ell$, 'drink' ($\sqrt{p}\bar{a}$; pple $p\bar{v}ta$), $dh\bar{a}ut\ell$, 'stream' ($\sqrt{d}h\bar{a}v$; pple $dh\bar{a}uta$); — and, with accented root, gati, 'motion', cant, 'repose', dat, 'division' ($\sqrt{d}a$; pple dita), treat, 'satisfaction', treat, 'offering' ($\sqrt{v}aj$: pple treat), -treat, 'speech' ($\sqrt{v}ac$: pple treat), treat, 'increase'.

b. The roots which form their participle in ita (956) do not have the i also before ti: thus, only gupti, -drpti (but AV. has once uditi, beside udita, from vvad). A few roots having their participle in na instead of ta (957), form the abstract noun also in ni (below, 1158). And from the roots tan and ran occur tanti and ranti, beside the more regular tati and ranti; also ahanti (once, VS.) beside ahanti. From roots having the form da, the derivative in composition is sometimes -tti (for dati with loss of radical vowel: compare the participle-form -tta, above, 955c): thus, niravatti (K.), vasutti, baayatti, maghatti (all RV.).

c. A few derivatives are made from reduplicated roots; their accent is various: thus, $carkrt\ell$, $d\vec{i}dhiti$ and $-d\vec{i}diti$, $j\ell yarti$, and perhaps the proper name $yay\dot{a}ti$.

d. Derivatives from roots with prefixes are numerous, and have (as in the case of the participles in ta, and the action-nouns in tu) the accent on the prefix: examples are $\acute{a}numati$, $abh\grave{t}ti$, $\acute{a}huti$, nirrti, $vy\grave{a}pti$, $s\acute{a}mgati$. The only exceptions noticed are $\~{a}sakti$ and $\~{a}suti$.

In other combinations than with prefixes, the accentuation is in general the same: see the next chapter.

2. The adjectives and agent-nouns — which, as masculines, are to be

connected with these instead of with the feminine abstracts — are very few: thus, $p\acute{u}ti$, 'putrid', vásti, 'eager', dh $\acute{u}ti$, 'shaker', $j\~{n}\~{a}ti$, 'relative', patti, 'footman'; and a few others, of more or less dubious character. The accent is various, as in the other class.

- 3. A few words show the same suffix ti preceded by a vowel, in which no organic character seems recognizable, and which may therefore pass for a "union-vowel". One, úditi, has been quoted above; another with i is sániti (RV., once); and snihitī and snēhitī, notwithstanding their long final, may be mentioned with them. With ati are made a few, variously accented: thus, the action-nouns anhati, dreati, vasati 'nest', ramâti, vratâti, amâti and âmati, -dhrajati; and the agent-words arati, khalati, vrkâti, râmati. With īti, rjīti and dâbhīti. In the Brāhmanas appear occasional derivatives from conjugational stems, like jânayati (TS.) and āgamayiti (K. xxviii. 6). The feminine yuvati, 'young (adj.), maiden', is of isolated character.
- 4. In some of the words instanced in the last paragraph, ti is perhaps applied as a secondary suffix. A kindred character belongs to it in the numeral derivatives from pronominal roots, $k\acute{a}ti$, $t\acute{a}ti$, $y\acute{a}ti$, and from numerals, as $vi\acute{n}cat$, $s\acute{a}st\acute{t}$, etc.; with $pa\bar{n}kt\acute{t}$ (from $p\acute{a}n\acute{c}a$); and in $addh\ddot{a}t\acute{t}$, from the particle $addh\dot{a}$.
- 1158. A mi. This suffix agrees in general in its uses and in the form of its derivatives with the preceding; but it makes a much smaller number of words, among which the feminine abstracts are a minority.
- 1. As was noticed above (1157.1b), a few verbs (ending in vowels) making their passive participle in na instead of ta make their action-noun in ni instead of ti. From the Veda are quotable only $-jy\bar{u}ni$, 'injury', and $j\bar{u}ni$, 'heat'; later occur $gl\bar{u}ni$, $j\bar{v}ni$, and others. Certain other feminine nouns of concrete meaning occur: thus, $j\dot{u}ni$, 'woman', etc.
- 2. Examples of words of the other class are: váhni, 'carrying', túrni, 'hasty', bhúrni, 'excited', prení, 'loving', vṛṣṇi and vṛṣṇi, 'virile'.

In preni, yoni, meni, créni, croni is seen a strengthening of the root, such as does not appear among the derivatives in ti.

Derivatives in ni from roots with prefixes do not appear to occur.

In the words ending in ani, the a has probably the same value with that of ati (above, 1157.3); but ani has gained a more independent status, and may be best treated as a separate suffix.

- 1159. দ্বনি ani. The words made by this suffix have the same double value with those made by the preceding ones. Their accent is various. Thus:
- a. Feminine action-nouns, sometimes with concreted meaning: as, iṣáṇi, 'impulse', caráṇi, 'injury', dyotanī, 'brightness', kṣipanī, 'blow', acáni, 'missile', vartanī, 'track', ājani (ā-ājani: the only example with prefix), 'goad'.

- b. Adjectives and other agent-words are such as caráni, 'movable', cakṣáni, 'enlightener', vakṣáni, 'strengthener'. From a reduplicated root-form comes -paptani. From desiderative stems are made rurukṣáni, siṣūṣáni, and (with prefix) ō-cucukṣáni. And a small number of words appear to attach themselves to an s-aorist stem: thus, parṣáni, sakṣáni, carṣanī.
- 3. It is questionable whether the infinitives in sani (978) are to be put here, as accusatives of a formation in ani, or under the next suffix, as locatives of a formation in an, from roots and stems increased by an aoristic s.
- 1160. হান an. Not many words appear to be made with a suffix of this form, and of these still fewer are plainly to be connected with roots. Certain rare neuters (along with the doubtful infinitives) are nouns of action; the rest are masculine and neuter agent-nouns. The accent is various.
- a. The infinitives which admit of being referred to this suffix, as locative cases, are those in sani, of which the sibilant appears to be the final of a tense-stem. They are all given above (978).
- b. The other action-nouns in an are $mah\acute{a}n$, 'greatness', $ma\grave{n}h\acute{a}n$ (?), 'liberality', $r\ddot{a}j\acute{a}n$, 'authority' (RV., once: compare $r\acute{a}jan$; the accent-relation is the reverse of the usual one), and $g\acute{a}mbhan$, 'depth' (VS., once).
- c. Examples of agent-nouns are: masc. $t\hat{a}ksan$, 'carpenter', $r\hat{a}jan$, 'king', $v\hat{r}san$, virile, bull', $uks\hat{a}n$, 'ox'; neut. $ud\hat{a}n$, 'water', $c\hat{a}ksan$, 'eye': with prefixes, $pratid\hat{v}van$, 'antagonist at play' ($\hat{a}tid\hat{v}van$, AV., is perhaps a bad reading), $vibhv\hat{a}n$, 'superior'.
- d. A few stems in an, running parallel with those in other suffixes and filling out their declension, were mentioned above (429 ff.).
- 1161. 71 tu. The great mass of the words of this formation are the infinitives accusatives in the later language, in the earlier likewise datives and ablative-genitives: see above, 970 b, 972. But a few are also used independently, as action-nouns or with concreted meaning; and an extremely small number, of somewhat questionable character, appear to have the value of agent-words. They are of all genders, but chiefly masculine. The root has the gunastrengthening.

The infinitive words are accented on the radical syllable when simple, and most of the others have the same accent; but a few have the tone on the ending.

a. Examples are: of the regular formation, masc., gántu, 'way', dhấtu, 'element', mántu, 'counsel'; fem. vástu, 'morning'; neut. vástu, 'abode'; —

with accent on the ending, jantú, 'being', gātú, 'way' and 'song', hetú, 'cause', ketú, 'banner' (all masc.); — with unstrengthened root, rtú, 'season', pitú, 'drink', sútu, 'birth'; with vrddhi-strengthening, vástu (above).

b. The infinitives in tu have (972) often the union-vowel i before the suffix, and this in a few cases is lengthened to \(\tilde{\ell}\). In other use occur also -tarītu and -dharītu (both with dus); turpharītu seems of the same formation, but is obscure.

The infinitives, when made from roots with prefixes, have (as was pointed out above, 972) the accent on the prefix. But the same words, when used (not infinitivally) in further combination (with su and dus), retain the radical accent which belongs to the simple word: thus, duratyétu, durniyamtu, dusparihantu, suprātu.

- c. In a few instances, the suffix tu appears to be added to a tense- or conjugation-stem in a: thus, $edhat\hat{u}$ and $vahat\hat{u}$; $tanyat\hat{u}$ and $tapyat\hat{u}$; and $sis\bar{a}s\hat{a}tu$. The accent of the last is paralleled only by that of $j\bar{v}v\hat{a}tu$, 'life', which is further exceptional in showing a long \bar{a} ; it is used sometimes in the manner of an infinitive.
- 1162. Jnu. This suffix forms a comparatively small body of words, generally masculine, and having both the abstract and the concrete value.

The accent is usually on the ending, and the root unstrengthened.

Examples are: bhānú, 'light' (later 'sun'), vagnú, 'sound', sūnú, 'son', dánu (with irregular accent), m. 'demon', n. 'drop, dew'; dhenú, f., 'cow'; — gṛdhnú, 'hasty', dhṛṣṇú, 'bold'.

This also (like tu), appears sometimes with a prefixed a: thus, $krandan\acute{u}$ and $nadan\acute{u}$, 'roaring', $nabhan\acute{u}$ (and $-n\acute{u}$, f.), 'fountain', $vibha\~njan\acute{u}$ (only instance with prefix), 'breaking to pieces'; and perhaps $kr_{\it f}\'anu$ belongs here.

- 1163. It tha. The words made with this suffix are almost without exception action-nouns (though some have assumed a concrete value). They are of all genders. The root is of a weak (or even weakened) form, and the accent usually on the suffix.
- a. Examples are: masc. $bh\bar{\tau}th\hat{a}$, 'offering', $-k\bar{\tau}tha$, 'making', -itha, 'going'; neut. $ukth\hat{a}$, 'saying', $n\bar{\imath}th\hat{a}$, 'song', $t\bar{\imath}tth\hat{a}$, 'ford'; fem. (with \bar{a}) $g\hat{a}th\bar{a}$, 'song', $n\bar{\imath}th\bar{a}$, 'way'. Radical \bar{a} is weakened to $\bar{\imath}$ in $-g\bar{\imath}th\hat{a}$ and $-p\bar{\imath}th\hat{a}$. Final m or n is lost in $-gath\hat{a}$ and $h\hat{a}tha$ (as sometimes in the verbal inflection of the same roots: 637, 834 b).

A few examples of combination with prefixes occur, with accent on the final: thus, $nirrth\hat{a}$, 'destruction', $samgath\hat{a}$, 'union', etc.

b. Still more common in the older language is a form of this suffix to which has become prefixed an \hat{a} , which is probably of thematic origin, though

become a union-vowel. Thus: masc. carátha, 'mobility', yajátha, 'offering', ravátha, 'cry', çapátha, 'curse', stavátha, 'praise'; neut. ucátha, 'speech', vidátha, 'ordering'. Before this, a root has sometimes guna: thus, çayátha, 'couch', tvesátha, 'vehemence'. With a prefix, the accent is thrown forward upon the final: thus, āvasathá, 'abode', pravasathá, 'absence'; prānátha, 'breath', is treated as if prān were an integral root.

c. Isolated combinations of tha with other preceding vowels occur: thus, varutha, 'protection', with another doubtful case or two; and matútha (Vman?).

1164. यु thu. This suffix has an म á attached to it (like य tha, above), and, in the very few derivatives which it makes, appears only as मय áthu.

The only Vedic examples are ejáthu, 'quaking', vepáthu, 'trembling', stanáthu, 'roaring'. Later cases are nandáthu (TS.), vamathu, çvayathu, etc.

- 1165. यु yu. With this suffix are made a very few nouns, both of agent and of action, with unstrengthened root and various accent. Thus:
- a. Abstracts (masc.) are $many \hat{v}$, 'wrath', $mrty \hat{u}$, 'death' (with t added to the short final of the root).
- b. Adjectives etc. are bhujyū, 'pliable', cundhyū, 'pure'; yājyu, 'pious', sāhyu, 'strong', dāsyu, 'enemy', and one or two more.

For other derivatives ending in yu, see the suffix u, below, 1178 g, h.

- 1166. न ma. The action-nouns made by this suffix are almost all masculine; and they are of various root-form and accent, as are also the agent-nouns and adjectives.
- a. Examples of the former class are: ajmå, 'course', gharmå, 'heat'; éma, 'progress', bhåma, 'brightness', sårma, 'flow', stóma, 'song of praise'.
- b. Examples of the latter class are: tigmā, 'sharp', bhīmā, 'terrible', cagmā, 'mighty'; idhmā, 'fuel', yudhmā, 'warrior'. A single instance from a reduplicated root is tūtumā, 'powerful'.
- 1167. \overrightarrow{H} mi. A very small number of nouns, masculine and feminine, formed with mi, may be conveniently noticed here.

Thus, from r-roots, $\bar{u}rm\ell$, 'wave', $-k\bar{u}rmi$, 'action', $s\bar{u}rm\ell$, f., 'tube'; from others, $j\bar{a}m\ell$ (?), 'relation', $bh\acute{u}mi$ or $bh\acute{u}m\bar{\iota}$, f., 'earth', $laksm\acute{t}$, 'sign'; also probably $racm\ell$, 'line, ray'.

1168. দান man. The derivatives made with this suffix are almost only action-nouns. The great majority of them are neuter, and accented on the root-syllable; a much smaller number are masculine, and accented on the suffix. The few agent-words are, if nouns, masculine, and have the

latter accent: in several instances, a neuter and a masculine, of the one and the other value and accent, stand side by side. The root has in general the guna-strengthening.

- 1. a. Examples of regularly formed neuters are: kárman, 'action', jánman, 'birth', náman, 'name', vártman, 'track', véçman, 'dwelling', hóman, 'sacrifice', -dyótman, 'splendor'.
- b. Examples of masculine abstracts are: ojmán, 'strength', jemán, 'conquest', svādmán, 'sweetness'.
- c. Corresponding neuter action-nouns and masculine agent-nouns are: bráhman, 'worship', and brahmán, 'priest'; dáman, 'gift', and dāmán, 'giver'; dhárman, 'rule', and dharmán, 'orderer'; sádman, 'seat', and sadmán, 'sitter'. Very few other agent-nouns occur; and all, except brahmán, are of rare occurrence.

On the other hand, varsman and svādman (and variman) have the difference of gender and accent without a corresponding difference of meaning.

The noun *acman*, 'stone', though masculine, is accented on the radical syllable; and two or three other questionable cases of the same kind occur.

The derivatives in man used as infinitives (974) have for the most part the accent of neuters: the only exception is vidmane.

- d. A few words, of either class, have an irregular root-form: thus, bhúman 'earth', syúman; bhūmán 'abundance', sīmán, bhujmán, vidmán; and kársman, bhárman, çákman.
- e. Derivatives in man from roots with prefixes are not numerous. They are usually accented on the prefix, whether action-nouns or adjectives: thus, pråbharman, 'forthbringing', pråyāman, 'departure'; ánuvartman, 'following after': the exceptions, vijāman, prativartman, visarman, are perhaps of possessive formation.
- 2. The same suffix, though only with its abstract-making value, has in a number of cases before it a union-vowel, i or $\bar{\imath}$; and $im\acute{a}n$ comes to be used as a secondary suffix, forming abstract nouns (masculine) from a certain number of adjectives.
- a. The neuters in iman and īman are all primary formations, belonging to the older language: thus, jániman and váriman (beside varimán, as noticed above); and dárīman, dhárīman, párīman (and páreman, SV., once), bhárīman, várīman, sárīman, sárīman, sávīman, and hávīman. Those in īman are hardly met with outside the Rig-Veda.
- b. The masculines in imán are in the oldest language less frequent than the neuters just described: they are jarimán, prathimán, mahimán, varimán (beside the equivalent váriman and várīman), varṣimán (beside the equivalent várṣman and varṣmán), harimán, and drāghimán (VS.) beside drāghmán (RV.). Some of these, as well as of the derivatives in simple man, attach themselves in meaning, or in form also, to adjectives, to which they seem the accompanying abstracts: compare the similar treatment of the primary comparatives and superlatives (above, 468): such are pāpmán (to pāpá,

pápīyas, etc.); drūghmán etc. (to dīrghá, drághīyas, etc.); váriman etc. (to urú, várīyas, etc.); práthiman (to pṛthú, práthiṣtha); harimán (to hári or hárita); várṣman etc. (to várṣīyas etc.); svádman etc. (to svādú, svádīyas, etc.). Then in the Brāhmaṇa language are found further examples: thus, dhūmrimán (TS., K.), dradhiman (K.: to dṛdhá, drādhīyas, etc.), taruṇiman (K.), lohitiman (KB.); and still later such as laghiman; while kṣepiman (to kṣiprá, kṣépīyas, etc.) and kṛṣṇiman, and so on, are allowed by the grammarians.

1169. বন্ van. By this suffix are made almost only agent-words, adjectives and nouns, the latter mostly masculines. The root is unstrengthened, and to a short final vowel is added a ন t before the suffix. The accent is almost always on the root, both in the simple words and in their compounds.

The insertion of t is an indication that the words of this form are originally made by the addition of an to derivatives in u and tu; yet van has the present value of an integral suffix in the language, and must be treated as such.

- 1. a. Examples of the usual formation are: masc. yájvan, 'offering', drúhvan, 'harming', çúkvan, 'capable', -ríkvan, 'leaving', -jítvan, 'conquering', sútvan, 'pressing', krtvan, 'active', -gútvan (like -gat, -gatya), 'going', sútvan (ysan), 'warrior', árvan (only example with strengthened root), 'courser'; neut. párvan, 'joint', dhánvan, 'bow'.
- b. Examples from roots with prefixes (which are not rare) are: atītvan, 'excelling', upahāsvan, 'reviler', sambhrtvan, 'collecting'; and probably vivāsvan, 'shining': abhtsatvan is a compound with governing preposition (1310).

For the compounds with other elements, which, except in special cases, have the same accent, see below, 1277.

- c. The stem muṣīván, 'robber' (RV., once), is the only one with a union-vowel, and is perhaps better regarded as a secondary derivative of which a few are made with this suffix: see below, 1234.
- d. From a reduplicated root are made $r\hat{a}r\bar{a}van$ and $cikitv\hat{a}n$ (and possibly $viv\hat{a}svan$).
- 2. The number of action-nouns made with the suffix van is extremely small: namely, $d\bar{u}v\hat{a}n$, 'giving', and $turv\hat{a}n$, 'overcoming', both used as infinitives (974), and $bhurv\hat{a}n$, 'unrest' (?); likewise $dh\hat{u}rvan$, 'injury', also used as infinitive (unless this is rather $dh\hat{u}rv-an$).

The feminines corresponding to adjectives in van are not made (apparently) directly from this suffix, but from vara, and end in $var\bar{\imath}$; see below, 1171 b.

1170. বন vana, বনি vani, বনু vanu. The very few words made with these suffixes may best be noticed here, in con-

nection with বন্ van (of which the others are probably secondary extensions).

- a. With vana are made vagvaná, 'talkative', satvaná, 'warrior' (beside sátvan, above); and, from a reduplicated root, cucukvaná, 'shining'.
- b. With vani are made from simple roots turváni, 'excelling', and bhurváni, 'restless' (compare turván and bhurván, just above); and, from reduplicated roots, cucukváni, 'shining', dadhṛṣváni, 'daring', tuturváni, 'striving after', and jugurváni, 'praising': arharisváni is obscure.
 - e. With vanu is made only vagvanú, 'tone, noise'.
- 1171. at vara. With this suffix are made a few derivatives, of all genders, having for the most part the value of agent-nouns and adjectives.

Much more common are the feminine stems in ব্যা varī, which, from the earliest period, serve as the corresponding feminines to the masculine stems in বন্van.

- a. A few masculine adjectives in $var\acute{a}$ occur, formally accordant (except in accent) with the feminines: thus, $itvar\acute{a}$, 'going', $-advar\acute{a}$, 'eating', $-sadvar\acute{a}$, 'sitting', $\bar{\imath}cvar\acute{a}$, 'ruler, lord'; and with them doubtless belongs $vidval\acute{a}$, 'knowing' (with l for r).
- b. The feminines in $var\bar{\imath}$ accord in treatment of the root and in accent with the masculines in van to which they correspond: thus, $y\bar{a}jvar\bar{\imath}$, $-j\bar{\imath}tvar\bar{\imath}$, $s_1^{\bar{\imath}}tvar\bar{\imath}$, $-c_1^{\bar{\imath}}var\bar{\imath}$, $-v_2^{\bar{\imath}}var\bar{\imath}$, and so on (about twenty-five such formations in RV.); from a reduplicated root, $-c_1\bar{\imath}cvar\bar{\imath}$.
- **c.** A very small number of neuters occur, with accent on the root: thus, $k \hat{a} r v a r a$, 'deed', $g \hat{a} h v a r a$, 'thicket'; and a feminine or two, with accent on the penult: $u r v \hat{a} r \bar{a}$, 'field', and $u r v \hat{a} r \bar{\imath}$, 'tow' (both of doubtful etymology).

We take up now the suffixes by which are made only stems having the value of agent-nouns and adjectives; beginning with a brief mention of the participial endings, which in general have been already sufficiently treated.

1172. দ্বন্ ant (or দ্বন্ at). The office of this suffix, in making present and future participles active, has been fully explained above, in connection with the various tense-stems and conjugation-stems (chaps. VIII.—XIV.), in combination with which alone it is employed (not directly with the root, unless this is also used as tense-stem).

With the same or a formally identical suffix are made from pronominal roots *tyant* and *klyant* (517). And *ádvayant*, 'not double-tongued' (RV., once), appears to contain a similar form-

ation from the numeral dvi - unless we are to assume a denominative verb-stem as intermediate.

Here may also be best mentioned the words made with the so-called suffix anta (fem. anta or anti), being evident transfers (Prakritic) of stems in ant to the a-declension.

Extremely few such words occur in the oldest language: namely, panta, 'draught' (RV.), vasantá, 'spring' (RV.: beside it also hemantá, 'winter'); vecanta or vecanti, 'tank' (AV.; CB. vecanta); jīvanti, a certain healing plant (RV.); and probably the proper name tarantá (RV.). A few others are instanced as admitted later: thus, nandanta and nandayanta, gadayanta, jayanta, jaranta, prananta, etc.; all are said to be accented on the final.

A different extension of the same suffix is exhibited in the proper names dhvasanti and cucanti (RV.), with which may be mentioned purusanti.

1173. वांस vāns (or वस vas). For the (perfect active) participles made with this suffix, see above, chaps. X. and XIV., and 458ff.

A few words of irregular and questionable formation were noticed at 462, above. Also, apparent transfers to a form us or usa.

The oldest language (RV.) has a very few words in vas, of doubtful relations: fbhvas, 'seizing', and cikvas, 'skilful' (beside words in va and van), and perhaps khidvas (\(\chi khad\)). The neuter abstract várivas, 'breadth, room' (belonging to urú, 'broad', in the same manner with várīyas and varimán), is quite isolated.

The unique tatanústi (RV., once) is possibly to be divided tatanús-ti, and connected with this suffix.

দান māna. The participles having this ending 1174. are, as has been seen, present and future only, and have the middle, or the derived passive, value belonging in general to the stems to which the suffix is attached.

1175. মান āna. The participles ending in মান āna are of middle and passive value, like those just noticed, and either present, perfect, or (partly with the form HIA sana: above, 897) aorist.

A few other words ending in the same manner in the old language may be mentioned here. The RV. has the adjectives vásavāna, 'well-endowed', and urdhvasana, 'uplifted', evidently made on the model of participial stems. Also the proper names ápnavāna, pṛthavāna, and cyávāna and cyávatāna. Párçāna, 'abyss', is doubtful.

1176. ਰ ta. The use of this suffix in forming participles directly from the root, or from a conjugational (not

a tense) stem, was explained above, chap. XIII. The participles thus made are in part intransitive, but in great part passive in value (like those made by the two preceding suffixes, but in much larger measure, and more decidedly.

For the frequent use of the connecting vowel i with the suffix, making its form ita, see also chap. XIII.

- a. A few general adjectives, or nouns with concrete meaning, are adaptations of this participle. Examples are: tṛṣtū, 'rough', cītū, 'cold', dṛḍhá (for dṛḍhá: 224 a), 'firm'; dūtá, 'messenger', sūtá, 'charioteer'; ṛtá, 'right', ghṛtá, 'ghee', jātá, 'kind', dyūtá, 'gambling', nṛttá, 'dance', jīvitá, 'life', caritá, 'behavior.'. The adjective tigitá (RV.), 'sharp', shows anomalous reversion of palatal to guttural before the i(216). $V\bar{u}v\acute{a}ta$, 'dear', is a single example from a reduplicated root.
- b. Doubtless after the example and model of participles from denominative stems (of which, however, no instances are quotable from the Veda), derivatives in ita are in the later language made directly from noun and adjective-stems, having the meaning of 'endowed with, affected by, made to be', and the like (compare the similar English formation in ed, as horned, barefooted, bluecoated). Examples are rathita, 'furnished with a chariot', etc.
- c. A few words ending in ta are accented on the radical syllable, and their relation to the participial derivatives is very doubtful: such are ásta, 'home', márta, 'mortal', váta, 'wind'; and with them may be mentioned gárta (?), nákta, 'night', hásta, 'hand'.
- d. Several adjectives denoting color end in ita, but are hardly connectible with roots of kindred meaning: thus, palita, 'gray', asita, 'black', róhita and lóhita, 'red', hárita, 'green'; akin with them are éta, 'variegated', çyetá, 'white'.

The feminines of these stems are in part irregular: thus, énī and cyénī; róhinī and lóhinī, and hárinī (but the corresponding masc. hárina also occurs); and ásiknī, páliknī, and háriknī.

- e. A small number of adjectives in the older language ending in ata are not to be separated from the participial words in ta, although their specific meaning is in part gerundive. They are: pacatá, 'cooked', darçatá and pacyata, 'seen, to be seen, worth seeing'; and so yajatá, haryatá, bharatá. The y of paçyata and haryatá indicates pretty plainly that the a also is that of a present tense-stem. Rajatá, 'silvery', is of more obscure relation to \(\strai\) 'color'.
- 1177. ন na (and রন ina, ত্রন una). The use of the suffix ন na in forming from certain roots participles equivalent to those in a ta, either alongside the latter or instead of them, was explained above, chap. XIII. (957).
 - a. With the same suffix are made a number of general adjectives, and

of nouns of various gender (fem. in $n\bar{a}$). The accent is on the suffix or on the root. A few examples are: $usn\hat{a}$, 'hot', $cun\hat{a}$, 'fortunate', dcna, 'ravenous', cviina, 'white'; masc. $pracn\hat{a}$, 'question', $yaj\tilde{n}\hat{a}$, 'offering', $ghrn\hat{a}$, 'heat', varna, 'color', svapna, 'sleep'; neut. $parn\hat{a}$, 'wing', raina, 'jewel' (?); fem. $trsn\hat{a}$, 'thirst', $y\bar{a}c\tilde{n}a$, 'supplication'. But many of the stems ending in na are not readily connectible with roots. An antithesis of accent is seen in karna, 'ear', and karna, 'eared'.

b. The very few words ending in ina are perhaps related with these (perhaps rather with those in ana): thus, aminā, 'violent', vrjinā, 'crooked', dākṣiṇa, 'right', and one or two others of questionable etymology.

c. Of the words in una, few are clearly referable to roots: thus, karūna, 'action', dharūna, 'bearing', -cetūna, 'showing'; ārjuna, 'white', tāruna, 'young', vāruna, 'Varuna'. In meaning and in accent they vary like the derivatives in ana.

These are all the proper participial endings of the language. The gerundives, later and earlier, are in so great part evident secondary formations, that they will be noticed farther on, under the head of secondary derivation.

We will take up now the other suffixes forming agent-nouns and adjectives, beginning with those which have more or less a participial value.

1178. $\exists u$. With this suffix are made a considerable body of derivatives, of very various character — adjectives, and agent-nouns of all genders, with different treatment of the root, and with different accent. It is especially used with certain conjugational stems, desiderative (particularly later) and denominative (mainly earlier), making adjectives with the value of present participles; and in such use it wins in part the aspect of a secondary suffix.

The root has oftenest a weak (or weakened) form; but it is sometimes vriddhied; least often (when capable of guna), it has the guna-strengthening — all without any apparent connection with either accent or meaning or gender. After final radical \bar{a} is usually added y (258) before the suffix. A few derivatives are made from the reduplicated root.

Many words ending in u are not readily, or not at all, connectible with roots; examples will be given only of those that have an obvious etymology.

a. Examples' of ordinary adjectives are: $ur\hat{u}$, 'wide', $rj\hat{u}$, 'straight', $prth\hat{u}$, 'broad', $mrd\hat{u}$, 'soft', $s\bar{u}dh\hat{u}$, 'good', $sv\bar{u}d\hat{u}$, 'sweet', $t\hat{u}pu$, 'hot', $v\hat{u}su$, 'good'; $j\bar{u}y\hat{u}$, 'conquering', $d\bar{u}r\hat{u}$, 'bursting'; $cay\hat{u}$, 'lying', $rek\hat{u}$, 'empty'; $dh\bar{u}y\hat{u}$, 'thirsty', $p\bar{u}y\hat{u}$, 'protecting'. Final \bar{u} appears to be lost before the suffix in -sthu (susthu, anusthu).

- b. Examples of nouns are: masc. aṅçů, 'ray', ripů, 'deceiver', vūyů, 'wind-god', ásu, 'life', mánu, 'man, Manu'; fem. işu (also masc.), 'arrow', sindhu (also masc.), 'river'; tanū, 'body'.
- c. Derivatives from reduplicated roots are: $cikit\acute{u}$, $jigy\acute{u}$, sisnu, -tatnu (unless this is made with nu or tnu), $y\acute{u}yu$ or $yay\acute{u}$ and $y\acute{t}yu$ (with final \vec{u} lost), $p\acute{t}pru$ (proper name), $-d\vec{u}dhayu$; and $babhr\acute{u}$, -raru ($ar\acute{u}ru$), $maliml\acute{u}$ (?) have the aspect of being similar formations.
- d. A few derivatives are made from roots with prefixes, with various accentuation: for example, $up\bar{a}y\acute{u}$, 'on-coming', $pramay\acute{u}$, 'going to destruction', viklindu, a certain disease, $abh\acute{t}cu$, 'rein (directer)', $s\acute{a}mvasu$, 'dwelling together'.
- e. From tense-stems, apparently, are made $tany\hat{u}$, 'thundering', and (with a ristic s) $d\hat{u}ksu$ and $dh\hat{u}ksu$ (all RV.).
- f. Participial adjectives in \hat{u} from desiderative "roots" (stems with loss of their final a) are sufficiently numerous in the ancient language (RV. has more than a dozen of them, AV. not quite so many) to show that the formation was already a regular one, extensible at will; and later such adjectives may be made from every desiderative. Examples (older) are: $dits\hat{u}$, $dips\hat{u}$, $ciklis\hat{u}$, $pipis\hat{u}$, $mumuks\hat{u}$, $cicliks\hat{u}$; and, with prefix, $abhidips\hat{u}$.

These adjectives, both earlier and later, may take an object in the accusative (271a).

g. A few similar adjectives are made in the older language from causatives: thus, $dh\bar{a}ray\hat{u}$ ('persistent'), $bh\bar{a}jay\hat{u}$, $bh\bar{a}vay\hat{u}$, $manhay\hat{u}$, $manhay\hat{u}$, $cramay\hat{u}$; and $mrgay\hat{u}$ from the caus.-denom. $mrg\hat{u}ya$.

h. Much more numerous, however, are such formations from the more proper denominatives, especially in the oldest language (RV. has toward eighty of them; AV. only a quarter as many, including six or eight which are not found in RV.; and they are still rarer in the Brahmanas). In a majority of cases, personal verbal forms from the same denominative stem are in use: thus, for example, to aghāyú, arātīyú, rjūyú, caranyú, manasyú, sanisyú, urusyú, saparyú; in others, only the present participle in yánt, or the abstract noun in $y\dot{a}$ (1149), or nothing at all. A few are made upon denominative stems from pronouns: thus, $tv\bar{a}y\hat{a}$ (beside $tv\bar{a}y\hat{a}nt$ and $tv\bar{a}y\hat{a}$), yuvayû or yuvayû, asmayû, svayû, and the more anomalous ahamyû and kimyú. Especially where no other denominative forms accompany the adjective, this has often the aspect of being made directly from the noun with the suffix yu, either with a meaning of 'seeking or desiring', or with a more general adjective sense: thus, yavayú, 'seeking grain', varāhayú, 'boar-hunting', stanasyú, 'desiring the breast'; ūrṇāyú, 'woolen', yuvanyú, 'youthful', bhīmayú, 'terrible'. And so the "secondary suffix yu" wins a degree of standing and application as one forming derivative adjectives (as in ahamyú and kimyú, above, and doubtless some others, even of the RV. words). In three RV. cases, the final as of a noun-stem is even changed to o before it: namely, anhoyú, duvoyú (and duvoyά; beside duvasyú), áskrdhoyu.

None of the words in yu show in the Veda resolution into iu.

1179. \overline{a} \overline{u} . The long \overline{u} is a vastly rarer suffix than the other long simple vowels, already described (1149, 1155). It makes a small number of feminines corresponding to masculines in u, a very few independent feminines, and two or three very rare masculines: as to all which, see above, 355 c.

1180. 37 uka. With this suffix are made derivatives having the meaning and construction (271g) of a present participle. The root is strengthened, and has the accent.

The derivatives in uka are hardly known in the Veda; but they become frequent in the Brāhmanas, of whose language they are a marked characteristic; and they are found occasionally in the later language. In all probability, they are originally and properly obtained by adding the secondary suffix ka (1222) to a derivative in u; but they have gained fully the character of primary formations, and in only an instance or two is there found in actual use an u-word from which they should be made.

The root is only so far strengthened that the radical syllable is a heavy (79) one; and it has the accent, whether the derivative is made from a simple root or from one with prefix.

a. Examples, from the Brāhmaṇa language, are: vắduka, nắcuka, upakrắmuka, prapắduka, upasthāyuka (258), vyāyuka, véduka, bhắvuka, kṣōdhuka, hắruka, váṛṣuka, samárdhuka, dáncuka, ālambuka, cikṣuka (GB.: RV. has cikṣú), pramáyuka (SB. has pramāyu).

b. Exceptions as regards root-form are: $nirm \dot{a}rguka$ (with vrddhi-strengthening, as is usual with this root: 627), -kasuka. AV. accents $s\dot{a}mkasuka$ (ÇB. has $samk\dot{a}suka$) and $v\dot{i}kasuka$: RV. has $s\bar{a}muk\dot{a}$ (which is its only example of the formation, if it be one; AV. has also $gh\dot{a}tuka$ from γhan , and $\dot{a}pram\bar{a}yuka$); $vasuk\dot{a}$ (TS. et al.) is probably of another character. Acanāyuka (PB. et al.) is the only example noticed from a conjugation-stem.

c. A formation in $\bar{u}ka$ (a suffix of like origin, perhaps, with uka) may be mentioned here: namely, from reduplicated roots, $j\bar{a}gar\hat{u}ka$, 'wakeful', $danda_{\zeta}\hat{u}ka$, 'biting', $y\bar{a}yaj\hat{u}ka$, 'sacrificing much', $v\bar{a}vad\bar{u}ka$ (later), 'talkative'; $salat\hat{u}ka$ is questionable.

 a. In RV. is found (besides $p\bar{u}vak\hat{a}$, which has a different accent, and which, as the metre shows, is usually to be pronounced $pav\bar{u}ka$) only $s\dot{u}yaka$, 'missile'; AV. adds $p\dot{v}yaka$ and $v\dot{u}dhaka$, and VS. abhikróçaka. But in the later language such derivatives are common, usually with raising of the root-syllable by strengthening to heavy quantity: thus, $n\bar{u}yaka$, $d\bar{u}yaka$ (258), $p\bar{u}aka$, $dr\bar{u}vaka$, drduaka, drduaka

That the derivatives in aka sometimes take an accusative object was pointed out above (271c).

The corresponding feminine is made sometimes in $ak\bar{a}$ or in $ak\bar{a}$, but more usually in $ik\bar{a}$: thus, $n\bar{a}yik\bar{a}$ (with $n\bar{a}yak\bar{a}$), $p\bar{a}cik\bar{a}$, $bodhik\bar{a}$, $dr\bar{a}vik\bar{a}$; compare secondary aka, below, 1222 d.

b. Derivatives in $\bar{a}ka$ are said to be made from a few roots: thus, $jalp\bar{a}ka$, $bhiks\bar{a}ka$; but they are not found in the Veda (unless in " $p\bar{a}vaka$ ": see above), and appear to be very rare at every period. With $\bar{a}ku$ is made in RV. $mr\dot{q}ay\dot{a}ku$, from the causative stem: $pr'd\bar{a}ku$ and the proper name $dksv\bar{a}ku$ are of obscure connection.

Derivatives in ika and $\bar{\imath}ka$ will be treated below, in connection with those in ka (1186).

1182. 7 tr (or 7. tar). The derivatives made by this suffix, as regards both their mode of formation and their uses, have been the subject of remark more than once above (see 369 ff., 942 ff.). Agent-nouns are formed with it at every period of the language; these in the oldest language are very frequently used participially, governing an object in the accusative (271 d); later they enter into combination with an auxiliary verb, and, assuming a future meaning, make a periphrastic future tense (942).

Their corresponding feminine is in trī.

a. The root has uniformly the guna-strengthening. A union-vowel i (very rarely, one of another character) is often taken: as regards its presence or absence in the periphrastic future forms, see above (943).

Without guna-change is only usti', 'plough-ox' (no proper agent-noun: apparently uks-ti': compare the nouns of relationship further on). The root grah has, as usual, $\bar{\imath}$ — thus, $-grah\bar{\imath}ti'$; and the same appears in $-tar\bar{\imath}ti'$ and $-mar\bar{\imath}ti'$. An u-vowel is taken instead by taruti and taruti', dhanuti, and sanuti; long in $var\bar{\imath}ti'$; strengthened to o in manoti and manoti'. From a reduplicated root comes vavati.

b. The accent, in the older language, is sometimes on the suffix and sometimes on the root; or, from roots combined with prefixes, sometimes on the suffix and sometimes on the prefix.

In general, the accent on the root or prefix accompanies the participial use of the word; but there are exceptions to this: in a very few instances (four), a word with accented suffix has an accusative object; very much more often, accent on the root appears along with ordinary noun value. The accent, as well as the form, of manotr is an isolated irregularity.

Examples are: jétā dhánāni, 'winning treasures'; yūyám mártam crótārah, 'ye listen to a mortal'; but, on the other hand, yamtá vásūni vidhaté, 'bestowing good things on the pious'; and jétā jánānām, 'conqueror of peoples'.

- c. The formation of these nouns in tr from conjugation-stems, regular and frequent in the later language, and not very rare in the Brāhmanas, is met with but once or twice in the Veda (bodhayitr' and codayitr', RV.). In $n\acute{e}sir$, a certain priest (RV. and later), is apparently seen the acristic s.
- d. The words of relationship which, in whatever way, have gained the aspect of derivatives in tr, are pitt', $m\bar{a}t\dot{r}$, $bhr\dot{a}tr$, $y\dot{a}tr$, duhit', $n\hat{a}ptr$, $j\dot{a}m\bar{a}tr$. Of these, only $m\bar{a}t\dot{r}$ and $y\dot{a}tr$ are in accordance with the ordinary rules of the formation in tr.
- e. Instead of tr is found tur in one or two RV. examples: $yamt ilde{u}r$, $sth\bar{a}t ilde{u}r$.
- **f.** Apparently formed by a suffix r (or ar) are usr, savyasthr, nanandr, devr, the last two being words of relationship. For other words ending in r, see 369.
- 1183. [37] in. This is another suffix which has assumed a primary aspect and use, while yet evidently identical in real character with the frequent secondary suffix of the same form denoting possession (below, 1230).

How far it had gained a primary value in the early language, is not easy to determine. Most of the words in in occurring in RV. and AV. are explainable as possessives; in many the other value is possible, and in a few it is distinctly suggested: thus, kevalādin, bhadravādin, nitodin, āçārāisin, ānāmin, vivyādhin; with aoristic s, saksin; and, with reduplication, niyayin. As the examples indicate, composition, both with prefixes and with other elements, is frequent; and, in all cases alike, the accent is on the suffix.

Later, the primary employment is unquestionable, and examples of it, chiefly in composition, are frequent. The radical syllable is usually strengthened, a medial a being sometimes lengthened and sometimes remaining unchanged. Thus, $satyav\bar{a}din$, 'truth-speaking', $abhibh\bar{a}sin$, 'addressing', $manoh\bar{a}rin$, 'soul-winning'. In $bh\bar{a}vin$ has established itself a prevailingly future meaning: 'about to be'.

The use of an accusative object with words in in was noticed above (271 b).

1184. Types and the isthm. These, which, from forming intensive adjectives corresponding to the adjective of root-form, have come to be used, within somewhat narrow limits, as suffixes of adjective comparison, have been already sufficiently treated above, under the head of comparison (466—470).

It may be further noticed that $jy \in stha$ has in the older language (only two or three times in RV.) the accent also on the final, $jy \in stha$; and that parsistha is made from a secondary from of root, with a ristic s added.

When the comparative suffix has the abbreviated form yas (470), its y is never to be read in the Veda as i.

No other suffixes make derivatives having participial value otherwise than in rare and sporadic cases; those that remain, therefore, will be taken up mainly in the order of their frequency and importance.

adjectives, and a considerable number of nouns, mostly neuter, and often having a specialized meaning, as signifying the means or instrument of the action expressed by the root. The latter has usually the guna-strengthening, but sometimes remains unchanged. The accent is various, but more often on the radical syllable.

Here, as in certain other cases above, we have probably a suffix originally secondary, made by adding a to the primary tr or tar (1182); but its use is like that of a primary suffix.

- a. Examples of neuter nouns are: $g\acute{a}tra$, 'limb', $p\'{a}ttra$, 'wing', $p\'{a}tra$, 'cup', $y\'{o}ktra$, 'bond', $v\'{a}stra$, 'garment', $cr\'{o}tra$, 'ear'; $astr\'{a}$, 'missile', $stotr\'{a}$, 'song of praise', $potr\'{a}$, 'vessel'; of more general meaning, $d\~{a}ttra$, 'gift', $ks\'{e}tra$, 'field', $m\'{a}tra$, 'urine', $hotr\'{a}$, 'sacrifice'. The words accented on the final have often an abstract meaning: thus, $ksatr\'{a}$, 'authority', $r\~{a}str\'{a}$, 'kingdom', $c\~{a}str\'{a}$, 'doctrine', $sattr\~{a}$, 'sacrificial session' (also $j\~{n}\~{a}tr\'{a}$, 'knowledge').
- b. Masculines are: dánṣṭra, 'tusk', māntra, 'prayer', attrā (or atrā: 232), 'devourer', āṣṭra, 'buffalo, camel', and a few of questionable etymology, as mitrā, 'friend', putrā, 'son', vṛtrā, 'foe'. Mitrā and vṛtrā are sometimes neuters even in the Veda, and mitra comes later to be regularly of that gender.
- **c.** Feminines (in $tr\bar{a}$) are: $\acute{a}str\bar{a}$, 'goad', $m\acute{a}tr\bar{a}$, 'measure', $h\acute{o}tr\bar{a}$, 'sacrifice' (beside $hotr\acute{a}$), $danstr\bar{a}$ (later, for $d\acute{a}nstra$); $n\ddot{a}str\acute{a}$, 'destroyer'.
- d. Not seldom, a "union-vowel" appears before the suffix; but this is not usually the equivalent of the union-vowel used with tr (above, 1182a).

For the words in itra have the accent on i: thus, artira, 'impelling, oar', khanitra, 'shovel', pavitra, 'sieve'; janitra, 'birth-place', sanitra, 'gift', etc.: the combination itra has almost won the character of an independent suffix. The preceding vowel is also sometimes a (sometimes apparently of the present-stem): thus, yájatra, 'venerable', kṛntátra, 'shred', gāyatrá (f. -trī), 'song', pátatra, 'wing'; but also ámatra, 'violent', -kṛtatrá, 'cutting-place', vádhatra, 'deadly weapon', and varatrá, 'strap'. Tárutra, 'overcoming', corresponds to tarutr.

The words still used as adjectives in tra are mostly such as have unionvowels before the suffix. A single example from a reduplicated root is johūtra, 'crying out'.

- e. A word or two in tri and tru may be added here, as perhaps of kindred formation with those in tra: thus, áttri, 'devouring', arcátri, 'beaming'; çátru (çáttru: 232), 'enemy'.
- 1186. का ka. The suffix का ka is of very common use in secondary derivation (below, 1222); whether it is directly added to roots is almost questionable: at any rate, extremely few primary derivatives are made with it.

The words which have most distinctly the aspect of being made from roots are cúska, 'dry', clóka (Vcru, 'hear'), 'noise, report', etc., and -sphāka, 'teeming'; and stúkā, 'flake', and stoká, 'drop', seem to belong together to a root stu. Other words in ka are of obscure connections, for the most part.

But ka enters, in its value as secondary, into the composition of certain suffixes reckoned as primary: see aka and uka (above, 1180, 1181).

A few words in which ika and $\bar{i}ka$ seem added to a root, though they are really of a kindred formation with the preceding, may be most conveniently noticed here: thus, vrccika (vvracc), 'scorpion'; ánīka (?), 'face', drcīka, 'aspect', mṛdīká, 'grace', vṛdhīká, 'increaser', açarīka and víçarīka, 'gripes', -rjīka, 'beaming'; and, from reduplicated root, parpharīka, 'scattering' (?). Compare secondary suffix ka (below, 1222).

- 1187. \(\overline{u}\) ya. It is altogether probable that a part of the derivatives made with this suffix are not less entitled to be ranked as primary than many of those which are above so reckoned. Such, however, are with so much doubt and difficulty to be separated from the great mass of secondary derivatives made with the same suffix that it is preferred to treat them all together under the head of secondary formation (below, 1210-13).
- 1188. 7 ra. With this suffix are made a considerable number of adjectives, almost always with weak root-form, and usually with accent on the suffix. Also, a few words used as nouns, of various gender.

In some cases, the suffix is found with a preceding vowel, having the aspect of a union-vowel.

- a. Examples of adjectives in ra of obvious derivation are: kṣiprā, 'quick', chidrā, 'split', turā, 'strong', bhadrā, 'pleasing', cakrā, 'mighty', cukrā, 'bright', hinsrā, 'injurious'; with accent on the root, gṛdhra, 'greedy', dhīra, 'wise' (secondary?), vīpra, 'inspired'.
- b. From roots with prefixes come only an example or two: thus, nicirá, 'attentive', nimrgra, 'joining on'.
- c. Nouns in ra are, for example: masc. $v\bar{v}r\dot{a}$, 'man', $v\dot{a}jra$, 'thunderbolt', $c\dot{u}ra$, 'hero'; neut. $k\bar{s}\bar{r}r\dot{a}$, 'milk', $ripr\dot{a}$, 'defilement'; fem. $dh\dot{a}r\bar{a}$, 'stream', $s\dot{u}r\bar{a}$, 'intoxicating drink'.

The forms of this suffix with preceding vowel may best be considered here, although some of them have nearly gained the value of independent endings. Thus:

- d. With ara are made a few rare words: the adjectives dravará, 'running', patará, 'flying', (with prefix) nyocará, 'suiting'; and the neuters gambhára, 'depth', tásara, 'shuttle', sánara, 'gain': bhārvará and vāsará are doubtless of secondary formation; and the same thing may be plausibly conjectured of others.
- e. With ira are made a few words, some of which are in common use: thus, $ajir\hat{a}$, 'quick', $isir\hat{a}$, 'lively', $madir\hat{a}$, 'pleasing', $dhvasir\hat{a}$, 'stirring up', $badhir\hat{a}$, 'deaf'; perhaps $sth\hat{a}vira$, 'firm'; and $sthir\hat{a}$, 'hard', and $sphir\hat{a}$, 'fat', with displacement of final radical \bar{a} ; also $sarir\hat{a}$, 'wave' (usually $salit\hat{a}$), and one or two other words of obscure derivation.

With $\bar{\imath}ra$ are made $gabh\bar{\imath}r\acute{a}$ or $gambh\bar{\imath}r\acute{a}$, 'profound', and $\varsigma\acute{a}v\bar{\imath}ra$, 'mighty'; and perhaps $\varsigma\acute{a}r\bar{\imath}ra$, 'body'.

f. With ura are made a few words, of which the secondary character is still more probable: thus, anhura (anhu-ra?), 'narrow', asura (asu-ra?), 'living', vithura, 'tottering', yādura, 'embracing'.

With $\bar{u}ra$, apparently, is made $sth\bar{u}ra$, 'stout' (compare sthavira).

1189. ल la. This suffix is only another form of the preceding, exchanging with it in certain words, in others prevalently or solely used from their first appearance.

Conspicuous examples of the interchange are çuklá, sthūlá, -miçla, çithilá, salilá.

Examples of the more independent use are: $p\bar{a}l\hat{a}$, 'protecting', $\hat{a}nila$ (or anila), 'wind', $trp\hat{a}la$, 'joyous'; later capala and tarala (said to be accented on the final), and harsula (the same). Many words ending in la are of obscure etymology.

1190. $\exists va$. Very few words of clear derivation are made with this suffix — too few to be worth classifying. They are of various meaning and accent, and generally show a weak root-form.

Examples are: rkvá, 'praising', pakvá, 'rípe', çikvá, 'artful', ranvá, 'joyful', ūrdhvá, 'lofty'; vákva, 'twisting'; ūrvá, 'stall', sruvá, 'spoon'; éva, 'quick, course', áçva, 'horse'.

The words in va exhibit only in sporadic cases resolution of the ending into ua.

1191. f_i ri. With this suffix are formed, directly or with preceding u, a small number of derivatives.

Thus, for example: cubhrí, 'beautiful', bhári, 'abundant'; and, with uri, jásuri, 'exhausted', dáçuri, 'pious', sáhuri, 'mighty'; angúri (or angúli), 'finger'.

1192. π ru. This suffix makes a few adjectives and neuter nouns, either directly or with a preceding vowel.

Thus: dhūrū, 'sucking', bhīrū, 'timid', caru, 'pleasant'; — with preceding a-vowel: patāru, 'flying', vandāru, 'praising', píyūru, 'scoffing', and (from causative stem, with l for r) patayūlū, 'flying', spṛhayūlū, 'desiring' (late); — with preceding e, maderū, 'rejoicing', sanéru, 'obtaining', and pēru (of doubtful meaning).

1193. वि vi. By this suffix are made:

Two or three derivatives from reduplicated roots: $j \dot{\alpha} g_f vi$, 'awake', $d \dot{\alpha} dh_f vi$, 'sustaining', $d \dot{i} divi$, 'shining'; and a very few other words; $gh \dot{f} svi$, 'lively', dh r uvi, 'firm' (and perhaps $j \ell vri$, 'worn out', for j i r vi: BR.).

Here may be mentioned cikitv tt (RV., once), apparently made with a suffix vit from a reduplicated root-form.

- 1194. ह्न snu. With this suffix, with or without a union-vowel, are made a few adjective derivatives from roots, but still more from causative stems.
- a. From simple roots: direct, jiṣṇḍ, 'victorious', daākṣṇḍ, 'biting', bhūṣṇḍ, 'thriving', ni-ṣatṣṇḍ, 'sitting down', sthāsnu, 'fixed'; with union-vowel i, cariṣṇḍ, 'wandering', rociṣṇḍ, 'shining', gamiṣṇḍ (TB.), 'going', -mariṣṇḍ, 'mortal', pra-janiṣṇḍ, 'generating'.
- b. From causative stems: for example, cyāvayiṣṇā (AV.), 'setting immotion', pārayiṣṇā, 'rescuing', posayiṣṇā, 'causing to thrive', abhi-cocayiṣṇā 'attacking with heat', pra-janayiṣṇā (K.), 'generating'.
- c. It seems not unlikely that the s of this suffix is originally that of s stem, to which nu is added. Such a character is still apparent in kravisnú 'craving raw flesh (kravis)'; and also in vadhasnu, 'murderous', and vrdhasnú (?), 'thriving'.

1195. য় sna. Extremely few words have this ending.

It is seen in tīkṣṇā, 'sharp', and perhaps in clakṣṇā, and -rūkṣṇā; and in deṣṇā (usually trisyllabic: daïṣṇa), 'gift'. Unless in the last, it is not found preceded by i; but it has (like snu, above) a before it in vadhaṣṇā, 'deadly weapon', karāṣṇa, 'fore-arm'.

- 1196. লু tnu. This suffix is used nearly in the same way with A snu (above, 1194).
- a. As used with simple roots, the t is generally capable of being considered the adscititious t after a short root-final, to which nu is then added: thus, kṛtnú, 'active', hatnú, 'deadly', -tatnu, 'stretching'; and, from reduplicated roots, jigatnú, 'hasting', and jighatnú, 'harming'; but also dartnú, 'bursting'. Also, with union-vowel, dravitnú, 'running'.
- b. With causative stems: for example, drāvayitnú, 'hasting', mādayitnú, 'intoxicating', stanayitnú, 'thunder', -āmayitnú, 'sickening'.
- c. With preceding a, in piyatnú, 'scoffing', ā-rujatnú, 'breaking into'; and kavatnú, 'miserly' (obscure derivation).
- 1197. H sa. The words ending in suffixal H sa, with or without preceding union-vowel, are a heterogeneous group, and in considerable part of obscure derivation. A few examples are:
- a. With sa simply: jesá, 'winning' (aoristic s?), rukṣá, 'shining'; útsa, n., 'fountain'; $bh\bar{i}s\dot{a}$, f., 'fear' (rather from the secondary root $bh\bar{i}s$).
- b. With preceding i-vowel: tavisá (f. távisī), 'strong', mahisá (f. máhisī), 'mighty', bharisá (?), 'seeking booty'; manīsā, f., 'devotion'.
- e. With preceding u-vowel: aruṣā (f. áruṣī), 'red', açúṣa, 'ravenous', tárusa, 'overcomer', púrusa and mánusa (-us-a?), 'man'; pīytisa, 'biestings'.
- 1198. मान asi. A few words in the oldest language are made with a suffix having this form (perhaps made by the addition of i to as).

Thus, atasí, 'vagabond', dharnasí, 'firm', sānasí, 'winning'; and dhāsí, m., 'drink', f., 'station'.

1199. And abha. A few names of animals, for the most part of obscure derivation, show this ending.

Thus, vṛṣabhā and ṛṣabhā, 'bull', çarabhā, a certain fabulous animal, cerabha, a certain snake, gardabhá and rāsabhá, 'ass'. AV. has the adjective sthūlabhá, equivalent to sthūlá.

- 1200. a. ਸ਼ੁਰ੍ਹ at, ਤ੍ਰ੍ਹ it, ਤਰ੍ਹ ut, ਜ਼ੁਰ੍ਹ rt. All the words with these endings were mentioned above (383 d). They have traceable root-connection only in part: those in at are probably related to the participles in ant.
 - b. হাই ad. The words in ad are also given above (ibid.).
- c. মূর্ aj, হুর্ ij, তুর্ ij. The words with these endings were given at the same place (to be added is bhisáj, 'healer', of which the etymology is disputed): tṛṣṇáj appears to be a secondary derivative, from $trsn\bar{a}$, 'thirst'.
- 1201. A number of other primary suffixes are either set up by the grammarians and supported with examples of questionable value, or doubtfully deducible from isolated words traceable to known roots, or from words of obscure connection.

A few such may be mentioned here: anda in karanda and varanda and certain unquotable words (prakritized a-forms from the present participle); era and ora in unquotable words, and elima (above, 966 d: perhaps a further derivative with secondary ima from era); mara (ma or man with secondary ra added) in ghasmara etc.; — sara in matsara, kara in paskara and other obscure words, pa in paspa and a number of other obscure words; and so on.

B. Secondary Derivatives.

1202. Words of secondary derivation are made by the addition of further suffixes to stems already ending in evident suffixes.

But also, as pointed out above (1137—8), to pronominal roots, and to verbal prefixes and a few other indeclinable words.

- 1203. Changes of the stem. The stem to which the suffix is added is liable to certain changes of form.
- a. Before a suffix beginning with a vowel or with y (which in this respect is treated as if it were i), final a and i-vowels are regularly lost altogether, while a final u-vowel has the guna-strengthening and becomes av; r and o and $\bar{a}u$ (all of rare occurrence) are treated in accordance with usual euphonic rule.

An u-vowel also sometimes remains unstrengthened.

Other alterations of a final are sporadic only.

b. A final n is variously treated, being sometimes retained and sometimes lost, even along with a preceding a; and sometimes an a is lost, while the n remains: thus, vrsanvant, vrsanva, vrsanva

1204. The most frequent change in secondary derivation is the *vṛddhi*-strengthening of an initial syllable of the stem to which a suffix is added.

The strengthened syllable may be of any character: radical, of a prefix, or of the first member of a compound: thus, $\bar{a}cvin\acute{a}$ ($acvin\acute{a}$), $s\bar{a}umy\acute{a}$ ($s\acute{o}ma$), $p\acute{a}rthiva$ ($prthiv\acute{i}$), $\bar{a}mitr\acute{a}$ (amitra), $s\acute{a}mr\ddot{a}jya$ ($samr\acute{a}j$), $s\ddot{a}\acute{u}krtja$ ($sukrt\acute{a}$), $m\ddot{a}itr\ddot{a}varun\acute{a}$ ($mitr\acute{a}v\acute{a}run\ddot{a}$), $\bar{a}ucc\bar{a}ih\dot{c}ravas\acute{a}$ ($ucc\bar{a}ih\dot{c}ravas\acute{a}$). As to the accompanying accent, see the next paragraph.

a. If a stem begins with a consonant followed by y or v, the semi-vowel is usually vriddhied, as if it were i or u, and the resulting $\bar{a}i$ or $\bar{a}u$ has y or v further added before the succeeding vowel.

This is most frequent where the y or v belongs to a prefix — as ni, vi, su — altered before a following initial vowel: thus, $n\bar{a}iy\bar{a}yika$ from

nyūya (as if niyūya), vūtyaçvá from vyàçva (as if víyaçva), sūúvaçvya from sváçva (as if suvaçva); but it occurs also in other cases, as sūuvará from svára, çūuva from çvan, against svūyambhuva (svayambhū), and so on.

AV. has irregularly $k\bar{a}verak\hat{a}$ from $k\hat{u}vera$ (as if from $kv\hat{e}ra$, without the euphonic y inserted).

- b. This strengthening takes place especially, and very often, before the suffixes a and ya; also regularly before i, $\bar{a}yana$ (with $\bar{a}yani$ and $k\bar{a}yani$), eya (with ineya), and later $\bar{i}ya$; before the compound aka and ika, and later aki; and, in single sporadic examples, before na, ena, $\bar{i}na$, ra, and tva (?): see these various suffixes below.
- c. In a few exceptional cases, both members of a compound word have the initial vrddhi-strengthening: thus, for example, sāumāpāusņā (VS.: somāpūsān), kāūrupāñcāla (ÇB., GB.: kurupañcāla), cāturvāidya (caturveda), āihalāukika (ihaloka). Again, the second member of a compound instead of the first is occasionally thus strengthened: for example, catácārada (RV., AV.), pañcacāradīya (TB. etc.), 'somārāudra (TS.), trisāhasrī, daçasāhasra, pūrvavārṣika (not quotable), caturādhyāya, gurulāghava.

The guna-strengthening (except of a final u-vowel: above, 1203 a) is nowhere an accompaniment of secondary derivation: for an apparent exception or two, see 1209 h,i.

1205. Accent. The derivatives with initial vrddhi-strengthening always have their accent on either the first or the last syllable. And usually, it is laid, as between these two situations, in such a way as to be furthert removed from the accent of the primitive; yet, not rarely, it is merely drawn down upon the suffix from the final of the latter; much less often, it remains upon an initial syllable without change. Only in the case of one or two suffixes is the distinction between initial and final accent connected with any difference in the meaning and use of the derivatives (see below, suffix eya: 1216).

No other general rules as to accent can be given. Usually the suffix takes the tone, or else this remains where it was in the primitive; quite rarely, it is thrown back to the initial syllable (as in derivation with initial vrddhi); and in a single case $(t\bar{a}: 1237)$, it is drawn down to the syllable preceding the suffix.

1206. Meaning. The great mass of secondary suffixes are adjective-making: they form from nouns adjectives indicating appurtenance or relation, of the most indefinite and varied character. But, as a matter of course, this indefiniteness often undergoes specialization: so, particularly, into designation of procedure or descent, so that distinctive patronymic and metronymic and gentile words are the result; or, again, into the designation of possession. Moreover, while the masculines and feminines of such adjectives are employed as appellatives, the neuter is also widely used as an abstract, denoting the quality

expressed attributively by the adjective; and neuter abstracts are with the same suffixes made from adjectives. There are also special suffixes (very few) by which abstracts are made directly, from adjective or noun.

A few suffixes make no change in the part of speech of the primitive, but either change its degree (diminution and comparison), or make other modifications, or leave its meaning not sensibly altered.

1207. The suffixes will be taken up below in the following order. First, the general adjective-making suffixes, beginning with those of most frequent use (a, ya) and its connections, (i, ka); then, those of specific possessive value (in, vant) and (in, vant) and their connections); then, the abstract-making ones $(t\bar{a})$ and (tva), and their connections); then, the suffixes of comparison etc.; and finally, those by which derivatives are made only or almost only from particles.

1208. \(\mathbf{A} \) a. With this suffix are made a very large class of derivatives, from nouns or from adjectives having a nounvalue. Such derivatives are primarily and especially adjectives, denoting 'having a relation or connection (of the most various kind) with' that denoted by the more primitive word. But they are also freely used substantively; the masculine and feminine as appellatives, the neuter, especially and frequently, as abstract. Often they have a patronymic or gentile value.

The regular and greatly prevailing formation is that which is accompanied with vrddhi-strengthening of the first syllable of the primitive word, simple or compound. Examples of this formation are:

a. From primitives ending in consonants: with the usual shift of accent, $\bar{a}yas\hat{a}$, 'of metal' $(\hat{a}yas)$, $m\bar{a}nas\hat{a}$, 'relating to the mind' $(m\hat{a}nas)$, $s\bar{a}umanas\hat{a}$, 'friendliness' $(sum\hat{a}nas)$, $br\bar{a}hman\hat{a}$, 'priest' $(br\hat{a}hman)$, $h\bar{a}imavat\hat{a}$, 'from the Himalaya' $(him\hat{a}vant)$, $\bar{a}\bar{n}giras\hat{a}$, 'of the Angiras family' $(d\bar{n}giras)$; $h\hat{a}stina$, 'elephantine' $(hast\hat{m})$, $m\hat{a}ruta$, 'pertaining to the Maruts' $(mar\hat{u}t)$; — with accent thrown forward from the final upon the suffix, $c\bar{a}rad\hat{a}$, 'autumnal', $v\bar{a}ir\bar{a}j\hat{a}$, 'relating to the $vir\bar{a}j$ ', $p\bar{a}usn\hat{a}$, 'belonging to Pushán'; $gairiksit\hat{a}$, 'son of Girikshít'; — with accent unchanged, $m\hat{a}nusa$, 'descendant of Mánus'.

The suffix is added (as above instanced) to the middle stem-form of stems in vant; it is added to the weakest in $m \acute{a}ghona$ nnd $v \acute{a}rtraghna$; the ending in remains unchanged; an usually does the same, but sometimes loses

its a, as in pāuṣṇā, trāivṛṣṇā, dāçarājñā; and sometimes its n, as in brāhmā, āukṣā, bārhatsāma.

- b. From primitives in r: jāūra, 'victorious' (jetr' or jétr, 'conqueror'), tvāṣṭrā, 'relating to Tváshtar', sāvitrā, 'descendant of the sun' (savitr').
- c. From primitives in u: usually with guna-strengthening of the u, as $v\bar{a}sav\hat{a}$, 'relating to the Vásus', $\bar{a}rtav\hat{a}$, 'concerning the seasons' (fu), $d\bar{a}nav\hat{a}$, 'child of Danu' ($d\hat{a}nu$), $s\bar{a}indhav\hat{a}$, 'from the Indus' (sindhu); but sometimes without, as $m\hat{a}dhva$, 'full of sweets' ($m\hat{a}dhu$), $p\bar{a}rcv\hat{a}$, 'side' ($p\hat{a}rcu$, 'rib'), $p\bar{a}idv\hat{a}$, 'belonging to Pedû', $t\hat{a}nva$, 'of the body' ($tan\hat{u}$).
- d. From primitives in i and $\bar{\imath}$, which vowels are supplanted by the added suffix: $p\acute{a}rthiva$, 'earthly' (prthivi), 'sārasvatā, 'of the Sárasvatā', āindrāgnā, 'belonging to Indra and Agni' $(indr\bar{a}gni)$; $p\acute{a}\bar{n}kta$, 'five-fold' $(pa\bar{n}ktt)$, $n\bar{a}irrt\acute{a}$, 'belonging to Nírrti': but $\bar{a}vay\acute{a}$, 'barrenness' (if from $a-v\bar{\imath}$).
- e. From primitives in \bar{a} , which in like manner disappears: $y\bar{a}mun\hat{a}$, 'of the Yamuna', $s\bar{a}ragh\hat{a}$, 'honey' etc. $(sar\hat{a}gh\bar{a}$, 'bee'), $k\bar{a}n\bar{n}n\hat{a}$, 'natural child' $(kan\bar{n}n\bar{a},$ 'girl').
- f. A large number (nearly as many as all the rest together) from primitives in a, of which the final is replaced by the suffix: for example, with the usual shift of accent, āmitrā, 'inimical' (amîtra, 'enemy'), vāruṇā, 'of Vāruṇā, 'vāiçvadevā, 'belonging to all the gods' (viçvādeva), nāirhastā, 'handlessness' (nīrhastā), vāiyaçvā, 'descendant of Vyaçva'; gārdabha, 'asinine' (gardabhā), dāīva, 'divine' (devā), mādhyandina, 'meridional' (madhyāndina), pāūtra, 'grandchild' (putrā, 'son'), sāūbhaga, 'good fortune' (subhāga), vādhryaçva, 'of Vadhryaçvā's race'; with unchanged accent (comparatively few), vāsantā, 'vernal' (vasantā, 'spring'), māitrā, 'Mitrā's', ātithigvā, 'of Atithigvā's race', dāīvodāsa, 'Dívodasa's'.

The derivatives of this form are sometimes regarded as made by internal change, without added suffix. Considering, however, that other final vowels are supplanted by this suffix, that a disappears as stem-final also before various other suffixes of secondary derivation, and that no examples of derivation without suffix are quotable from primitives of any other final than a, it seems far too violent to assume here a deviation from the whole course of Indo-European word-making.

- 1209. The derivatives made by adding Ξ a without vrddhichange of the initial syllable are not numerous, and are in considerable part, doubtless, of inorganic make, results of the transfer to an a-declension of words of other finals.
- a. A number of examples of stems in a made by transfer were noticed above (399). The cases of such transition occur most frequently in composition: thus, further, apa- (for ap or $\bar{a}p$, 'water'), -rca, -nara, -patha, -gava, -diva; from stems in an, -adhva, -astha, -aha, -vṛṣa, but also -ahna and -vṛṣṇa and vṛṣaṇa; from stems in i, -āngula and -rātra; from the weakest forms of ānc-stems (407) ucca, n̄ca, parāca.
 - b. Also occurring especially in composition, yet likewise as simple words

often enough to have an independent aspect, are derivatives in a from nouns in as (rarely is, us): thus, for example, tamasá, rajasá, payasá, brahmavarcasá, sarvavedasá, devāinasá, parusá, tryāyusá.

c. Similar derivatives from adjectives in in are reckoned by the grammarians as made with the suffix ina: thus, malina, 'polluted', crāgina, 'horned' (not quotable). The only Vedic instance noted is paramesthina (AV.).

d. From $a\tilde{n}c$ -stems (407) are made a few nouns in ka: thus, $an\tilde{u}ka$, $a\tilde{p}aka$, upaka, pratika, pratika, pratika, etc.

e. From stems in r, nestrá, potrá, praçāstrá, from titles of priests.

f. Other scattering cases are: savidyutá, āvyuṣá, vīrudha, kákuda, kakubhá.

g. The Vedic gerundives in tva (tua) have been already $(966\,a)$ pointed out as made by addition of a to abstract noun-stems in tu.

h. Trayā and dvayā come with guṇa-strengthening from numeral stems; nāva, 'new', perhaps in like manner from nā, 'now'; and āntara from antār (?).

i. Bheṣajā, 'medicine', is from bhiṣāj, 'healer', with guṇa-change; and perhaps devā, 'heavenly, divine, god', in like manner from div (compare āvayā, above, 1208 d).

One or two cases have been noticed above, in which the addition of α to another suffix has made a seemingly independent suffix.

1210. \overline{u} ya. With this suffix are made a very large class of words, both in the old language and later.

The derivatives in ya exhibit a great and perplexing variety of form, connection, and application; and the relations of the suffix to others containing a ya-element — iya, īya, eya, āyya, eyya, enya — are also in part obscure and difficult. In the great majority of instances in the oldest language, the ya when it follows a consonant is dissyllabic in metrical value, or is to be read as ia. Thus, in RV., 266 words (excluding compounds) have ia, and only 75 have ya always; 46 are to be read now with ia and now with ya, but many of these have ya only in isolated cases. As might be expected, the value ia is more frequent after a heavy syllable: thus, in RV., there are 188 examples of ia and 27 of ya after such a syllable, and 78 of ia and 96 of ya after a light syllable (the circumflexed ya — that is to say, ia - being, as will be pointed out below, more liable to the resolution than ya or ya). It must be left for further researches to decide whether in the ya are not included more than one suffix, with different accent, and different quantity of the i-element; or with an a added to a final i of the primitive. It is also matter for question whether there is a primary as well as a secondary suffix ya; the suffix at least comes to be used as if primary, in the formation of gerundives: but it is quite impossible to separate the derivatives into two such classes, and it has seemed preferable therefore to treat them all together here.

The derivatives made with ya may be first divided into those which do and those which do not show an accompanying vrddhi-increment of the initial syllable.

1211. Derivatives in ∇ya with initial vrddhi-strengthening follow quite closely, in form and meaning, the analogy of those in ∇a (above, 1208). They are, however, decidedly less common than the latter (in Veda, about three fifths as many).

Examples are: with the usual shift of accent, $d\bar{u}tvya$, 'divine' $(dev\hat{u})$, $p\hat{u}litya$, 'grayness' $(palit\hat{u})$, $gr\bar{u}tvya$, 'cervical' $(gr\bar{u}\hat{u})$, drtvijya, 'priestly office' (rtvi), $g\hat{u}rhapatya$, 'householder's' $(grh\hat{u}pati)$, $j\hat{u}nar\bar{u}jya$, 'kingship' $(janar\hat{u})$, $s\hat{u}mgr\bar{u}majitya$, 'victory in battle' $(samgr\bar{u}majit)$, $s\bar{u}wacvya$, 'wealth in horses' $(sv\hat{u}cva)$, $\bar{u}vpadrastrya$, 'witness' (upadrastr'); $\bar{u}ditya$, 'Aditya' (dditi), $s\bar{u}umya$, 'relating to soma', $\bar{u}tithya$, 'hospitality' (ditih), $pr\bar{u}j\bar{u}patya$, 'belonging to Prajápati', $v\bar{u}imanasya$, 'mindlessness' (vimanas), $s\hat{u}hadevya$, 'descendant of Sahadeva'; — with accent thrown forward from the final upon the ending, $l\bar{u}ukya$, 'of the world' (loka), $k\bar{u}vya$, 'of the Kaví-race', $\bar{u}rtvya$, 'descendant of Ritú', $v\bar{u}yavya$, 'belonging to the wind' $(v\bar{u}ya)$, $r\bar{u}ivatya$, 'wealth' (revant):— with unchanged accent (very few), ddhipatya, 'lordship' (ddhipati), $cr\bar{u}tytya$, 'excellence' (créstha), $v\bar{u}tcya$, 'belonging to the third class' (vtc, 'people'), $p\bar{u}umsya$, 'manliness' (pums).

The AV. has once $n\bar{a}irb\bar{a}dhy\bar{a}$, with circumflexed final; if not an error, it is doubtless made through $n\bar{a}irb\bar{a}dha$; $v\bar{a}is\bar{n}avy\bar{a}u$ (VS. i. 12) appears to be dual fem. of $v\bar{a}is\bar{n}av\bar{i}$.

1212. Derivatives in \overline{a} ya without initial vrddhi-strengthening are usually adjectives, much less often (neuter, or, in \overline{a}) yā, feminine) abstract nouns. They are made from every variety of primitive, and are very numerous (in Veda, three or four times as many as the preceding class).

The general mass of these words may be best divided according to their accent, into: **a.** Words retaining the accent of the primitive; **b.** Words with retracted accent; **c.** Words with acute $y\dot{a}$ ($i\dot{a}$); **d.** Words with circumflexed $y\dot{a}$ (la). Finally may be considered the words, gerundives and action-nouns, which have the aspect of primary derivatives.

a. Examples of derivatives in ya retaining the accent of their primitives are: áçvya, 'equine' (áçva), ángya, 'of the limbs' (ánga), műkhya, 'foremost' (műkha, 'month'), ávya, 'ovine' (ávi), gávya, 'bovine' (gó), víçya, 'of the people' (víç), dúrya, 'of the door' (dúr), nárya, 'manly' (nr), vrṣnya, 'virile' (vṛṣan), svarájya, 'autocracy' (svaráj), suvrrya, 'wealth in retainers' (suvra), viçvádevya, 'of all the gods' (viçvádeva), mayúracepya, 'peacock-tailed'.

In the last word, and in a few others, the ya appears to be used (like ka, 1222c, 2; ya, 1212d, 5) as a suffix simply helping to make a possessive compound: so suhástya (beside the equivalent suhásta), mádhuhastya, dáçamāsya, miçrádhānya.

- b. Examples with retraction of the accent to the first syllable (as in derivation with vrddhi-increment) are: kánthya, 'guttural' (kanthá), skándhya, 'humeral' (skandhá), vrátya, 'of a ceremony' (vratá), méghya, 'in the clouds' (meghá), prítrya, 'of the Fathers' (pitr), prátijanya, 'adverse' (pratijana). Hiranyáya, 'of gold' (híranya), is anomalous both in drawing the accent forward, and in retaining the final a of the primitive.
- c. Examples with acute accent on the suffix are: divyå, 'heavenly' (div), satyå, 'true' (sánt), vyāghryå, 'tigrine' (vyāghrá), kavyå, 'wise' (kavt); grāmyå, 'of the village' (grāma), somyå, 'relating to the sóma', bhūmyå, 'earthly' (bhūmi), sakhyå, friendship' (sákhi), jāspatyå, 'headship of a family' (jáspati).
- d. Of derivatives ending in circumflexed $y\dot{a}$ (which in the Veda are considerably more numerous than all the three preceding classes together), examples are as follows:
- 1. From consonant-stems: viçyà, 'of the clan' (RV.: viç), hrdyà, 'of the heart' (hrd), vidyutyà, 'of the lightning' (vidyût), rājanyà, 'of the royal class' (rājan), dosanyà, 'of the arm' (dosan), çīrṣanyà, 'of the head' (cīrṣān), karmanyà, 'active' (kārman), dhanvanyà, 'of the plain' (dhânvan), namasyà, 'reverend' (nāmas), tvacasyà, 'cuticular' (tvacas), barhiṣyà, 'of barhis', āyusyà, 'giving life' (āyus), bhasadyà, 'of the buttocks' (bhasād), prācyà, 'eastern' (prāñc), etc. Of exceptional formation is aryamyà 'intimate' (aryamān).
- 2. From u-stems: $hanavy\dot{\alpha}$, 'of the jaws' $(h\acute{a}nu)$, $v\ddot{a}yavy\dot{\alpha}$, 'belonging to $V\ddot{a}y\ddot{u}$ ', $paçavy\dot{\alpha}$, 'relating to cattle' $(pac\dot{\alpha})$, $isavy\dot{\alpha}$, 'relating to arrows' $(c\dot{s}u)$; $caravy\dot{\alpha}$, f., 'arrow' $(c\dot{a}ru$, do.); and there may be added $n\ddot{a}vy\dot{\alpha}$, 'navigable' (especially in fem., $n\ddot{a}vy\dot{\alpha}$, 'navigable stream': $n\ddot{a}v$, 'boat').

Under this head belong, as was pointed out above (chap. XIV., 964), the so-called gerundives in $tavy\grave{a}$ (later $t\^{a}vya$), as made by the addition of $y\grave{a}$ to the infinitive noun in tu. They are wholly wanting in the oldest language, and hardly found in later Vedic, although still later tavya wins the value of a primary suffix, and makes numerous derivatives. The RV. has $pr\~acavy\~a$, 'to be partaken of' (pra+Vac), without any corresponding noun $pr\~acu$; and also $\~urjavy\~a$, 'rich in nourishment' $(\~urj)$, without any intermediate $\~urju$.

- 3. From i and $\bar{\imath}\text{-stems}$ hardly any examples are to be quoted. VS. has $dundubhy \hat{\imath}$ from $dundubh \hat{\imath}$.
- 4. From a-stems: svargyà, 'heavenly' (svargà), devatyà, 'relating to a deity' (devātā), prapathyà, 'guiding' (prapathā), budhnyà, 'fundamental' (budhnā), jaghanyà, 'hindmost' (jaghāna), varunyà, 'Váruna's', vīryà, 'might' (vīrā), udaryà, 'abdominal' (udūra), utsyà, 'of the fountain' (ūtsa); and from ā-stems, urvaryà, 'of cultivated land' (urvārā), svāhyà, 'relating to the exclamation svāhā'.

The circumflexed yn is more generally resolved (into ℓa) than the other forms of the suffix: thus, in RV. it is never to be read as ya after a heavy syllable ending with a consonant; and even after a light one it becomes ℓa in more than three quarters of the examples.

5. There are a few cases in which $y\dot{a}$ appears to be used to help make

a compound with governing preposition (next chapter, 1310): thus, apikaksyà, 'about the arm-pit', upapaksyà, 'upon the sides', udāpyà, 'up stream'; and perhaps upatrnyà, 'lying in the grass' (occurs only in voc.). But, with other accent, ánvāntrya, 'through the entrails', ápamāsya, 'on each month'; abhinabhyá, 'up to the clouds', ádhigartya, 'on the chariot floor'.

- 1213. The derivatives in \overline{u} ya as to which it may be questioned whether they are not, a least in part, primary derivatives from the beginning, are especially the gerundives, together with action-nouns coincident with these in form; in the later language, the gerundive-formation (above, 963) comes to be practically a primary one.
- a. In RV. occur about 40 instances of gerundives in ya, of tolerably accordant form: the root usually unstrengthened (but $c\acute{e}tya$, $bh\acute{a}vya$, $-h\acute{a}vya$, $m\acute{a}rjya$, $y\acute{o}dhya$; also $-m\acute{a}dya$, $-v\acute{a}cya$, $bh\~{a}vy\acute{a}$); the accent on the radical syllable when the word is simple, or compounded with prepositions: thus, $prac\acute{a}sya$, $upas\acute{a}dya$, $vih\acute{a}vya$ (but usually on the final after the negative prefix: thus, $an\~{a}py\acute{a}$, $anapavrjy\acute{a}$) exceptions are only $bh\~{a}vy\acute{a}$ and the doubtful $\~{a}k\~{a}yya$; the ya resolved into ia in the very great majority of occurrences; a final short vowel followed by t (in $-\acute{t}tya$, -krtya, $-cr\acute{a}tya$, $-st\acute{a}tya$, and the reduplicated $cark\'_itya$, beside $cark\'_iti$: not in $n\acute{a}vya$ and $-h\acute{a}vya$), and $\~{a}$ changed to e (in -deya only). If regarded as secondary, they might be made with ya, in accordance with other formations by this suffix, in part from the rootnoun, as $anuk\'_it-ya$, in part from derivatives in a, as $bh\~{a}vy\acute{a}$ (from $bh\~{a}va$).
- b. The AV. has a somewhat smaller number (about 25) of words of a like formation; but also a considerable group (fifteen) of derivatives in $y\lambda$ with the same value: thus, for example, $\bar{a}dy\lambda$, 'eatable', $k\bar{a}ry\lambda$, to be done', $sam\bar{a}py\lambda$, 'to be obtained', $atit\bar{a}ry\lambda$, 'to be overpassed', $n\bar{v}vibh\bar{a}ry\lambda$, 'to be carried in the apron', $prathamav\bar{a}sy\lambda$, 'to be first worn'. These seem more markedly of secondary origin: and especially such forms as $parivargy\lambda$, 'to be avoided', $avimoky\lambda$, 'not to be gotten rid of', where the guttural reversion clearly indicates primitives in ga and ka (216.6).
- c. Throughout the older language are of common occurrence neuter abstract nouns of the same make with the former of these classes. They are rarely found except in composition (in AV., only citya and stéya as simple), and are often used in the dative, after the manner of a dative infinitive. Examples are: brahmajyéya, vasudéya, bhāgadhéya, pūrvapéya, cataséya, abhibhúya, devahúya,! mantracrútya, karmakŕtya, vṛtratúrya, hotṛvúrya, ahihátya, sattrasádya, cīrṣabhúdya, brahmacárya, nṛṣâhya. Of exceptional form are ṛtódya (\$\subsymbol{V}\$vad) and sahacéyya (\$\subsymbol{V}\$\sigmi\bar{z}\$); of exceptional accent, sadhástutya. And AV. has one example, raṇyà, with circumflexed final.
- d. Closely akin with these, in meaning and use, is a small class of feminines in $y\dot{a}$: thus, $krty\dot{a}$, $vidy\dot{a}$, $ity\dot{a}$, $mustihaty\dot{a}$, $devayajy\dot{a}$, and a few others.

e. There remain, of course, a considerable number of less classifiable words, both nouns and adjectives, of which a few from the older language may be mentioned, without discussion of their relations: thus, súrya (with fem. sūrya), ájya, púsya, nábhya; yújya, gráhya, trya, arya and árya, márya, mádhya.

The suffixes apparently most nearly akin with ya may best be next taken up.

1214. $\[\overline{\xi u} \]$ iya. This suffix is virtually identical with the preceding, being but another written form of the same thing. It is used only after two consonants, where the direct addition of ya would create a combination of difficult utterance.

It has the same variety of accent with ya. Thus:

- **a.** With accent iya (= ia or ya): for example, abhriya, 'from the clouds' (abhra), ksatriya, 'having authority' (ksatra), $yaj\tilde{n}iya$, 'reverend' ($yaj\tilde{n}a$), hotriya, 'libational' (hotra).
- b. With accent $iy\hat{a}$ (= $y\hat{a}$): for example, $agriy\hat{a}$, 'foremost' ($\hat{a}gra$), $indriy\hat{a}$, 'Indra's' (later, 'sense': $\hat{i}ndra$), $ksetriy\hat{a}$, 'of the field' ($ks\hat{e}tra$).
 - c. With accent on the primitive: crótriya, 'learned' (crótra).
- 1215. $\frac{\overline{\xi}}{\sqrt{u}}$ $\overline{i}ya$. This suffix also is apparently by origin a ya $(\overline{i}a)$ of which the first element has maintained its long quantity by the interposition of a euphonic y. It is accented always on the i.
- a. In RV. occur, of general adjectives, only $\bar{a}rjik\bar{t}ya$ and $grhamedh\bar{t}ya$, and examples in the later Vedic are very few: e. g. $parvat\bar{t}ya$, 'mountainous' (AV., beside RV. parvatya). In the Brāhmaṇas, a number of adjectives from phrases (first words of verses and the like) are made in $\bar{t}ya$: thus, $kay\bar{a}cubh\bar{t}ya$, $sv\bar{a}duskil\bar{t}ya$, $\bar{a}pohist\bar{t}ya$, etc.
- b. It was pointed out above (965) that derivative adjectives in $\bar{\imath}ya$ from action-nouns in ana begin in later Veda and in Brāhmaṇa to be used gerundivally, and are a recognized formation as gerundives in the classical language.
- c. Derivatives in $\bar{\imath}ya$ with initial vrddhi are sometimes made in the later language: e. g. $sv\bar{a}sr\bar{\imath}ya$, $p\bar{a}rvat\bar{\imath}ya$.
- d. The pronominal possessives $mad\tilde{t}ya$ etc. (516) do not occur either in Veda or Brāhmaṇa; but the ordinals $dvit\tilde{t}ya$ etc. (487: with fractionals $t\tilde{t}t\tilde{t}ya$ and $t\tilde{u}r\tilde{t}ya$: 488), are found from the earliest period.
- 1216. Qu eya. With this suffix, along with vṛddhi-increment of an initial syllable, are made adjectives, often having a patronymic or metronymic value. Their neuter is sometimes used as abstract noun.

The accent rests usually on the final in adjectives of descent, and on the first syllable in others.

a. Thus, ārṣeyā, 'descendant of a sage' (ṛṣi), sārameyā, 'of Sarámā's race', çātavaneyā, 'Çatavani's descendant', rāthajiteyā, 'son of Rathajit'; ásneya, 'of the blood' (asān), vásteya, 'of the bladder' (vasti), pāūruṣeya, 'coming from man' (pūruṣa), etc.

A more than usual proportion of derivatives in eya come from primitives in i; and possibly the suffix first gained its form by addition of ya to a gunated i, though afterward used independently.

The gerundive etc. derivatives in ya (above, 1213) from \bar{a} -roots end in $\acute{e}ya$; and, besides such, RV. etc. have $sabh\acute{e}ya$ from $sabh\acute{a}$, and $did_{7}k_{?}\acute{e}ya$, 'worth seeing', apparently from the desiderative noun $did_{7}k_{?}\acute{a}$, after their analogy.

b. Derivatives in the so-called suffix $iney\~a$ — as $s\=aubh\=aginey\~a$, $k\=aly\=an-iney\~a$ (neither quotable) — are doubtless made upon proximate derivatives in $-in\~a$ (fem.).

c. In eyya (i. e. eyia) end, besides the neuter abstract sahaçéyya (above, 1213c), the adjective of gerundival meaning stuséyya (with a oristic s added to the root), and capatheyyà, 'curse-bringing' (or 'accursed'), from capatha.

1217. $\nabla \overline{-u}$ enya. This suffix is doubtless secondary in origin, made by the addition of \overline{u} ya to derivatives in a nasuffix; but, like others of like origin, it is applied in some measure independently, chiefly in the older language, where it has nearly the value of the later $an\overline{v}ya$ (above, 1215b), as making gerundival adjectives.

The y of this suffix is almost always to be read as vowel, and the accent is (except in v'arenya) on the e: thus, -'enia.

The gerundives have been all given above, under the different conjugations to which they attach themselves (1019, 1038, 1068); except \$\bar{i}d\hat{e}nya\$, 'praiseworthy', and \$v\hat{a}renya\$, 'desirable', they are of only isolated occurrence (once or twice each). The RV. has also two non-gerundival adjectives, \$v\bar{i}r\hat{e}nya\$, 'manly' (\$v\bar{i}r\hat{a}\$), and \$k\bar{i}rt\hat{e}nya\$, 'famous' (\$k\bar{i}rt\hat{i}\$), and TS. has anabhicasteny\hat{a}\$ (abhicasti); vijeny\hat{a}\$ (RV.) is a word of doubtful connections.

A few adjectives without gerundival value, and neuter abstracts, also occur: thus, bahupáyya, 'protecting many', nrpáyya, 'men-guarding'; kuṇḍa-páyya and purumáyya, proper names; $p\bar{u}rvapáyya$, 'first drink', mahayáyya, 'enjoyment'; — and rasáyya, 'nervous', and uttamáyya, 'summit', contain no verbal root. Aláyya is doubtful; also $\bar{u}k\bar{u}ya$, which its accent refers to a different formation, along with $prah\bar{u}yya$ (AV.: \sqrt{hi}), 'messenger', and $pra-v\bar{u}ya$ (AV.), of doubtful value.

1219. সামন $\bar{a}yana$. In the Brāhmaṇas and later, patronymics made by this suffix are not rare. They come from stems in স a, and have vrddhi-strengthening of the first syllable, and accent on the final.

In RV., the only example of this formation is $k\bar{a}nv\bar{a}yana$ (voc.: $k\acute{a}nva$); AV. has in metrical parts $d\bar{a}ks\bar{a}yan\acute{a}$ and the fem. $r\bar{a}m\bar{a}yan\acute{t}$; and $\bar{a}musyayan\acute{a}$, 'son of so-and-so' (516), in its prose. The RV. name $uksany\acute{a}yana$ is of a different make, elsewhere unknown.

1220. ज्ञायों $\bar{a}y\bar{\imath}$. Only one or two words are made with this suffix, namely $agn\dot{a}y\bar{\imath}$ (agni), 'Agni's wife', and v_{I} , $\bar{\imath}akap\bar{a}y\bar{\imath}$, 'wife of Vrishákapi'.

They seem to be feminines of a derivative in a made with vrddhi-increment of the final i of the primitive.

- 1221. ξ i. Derivatives made with this suffix are patronymics from nouns in a. The accent rests on the initial syllable, which has the vrddhi-strengthening.
- a. In RV. are found half-a-dozen patronymics in i: for example, ágniveçi, pāūrukutsi, prātardani, sāmvarani; AV. has but one, prāhrādi; in the Brāhmanas they are more common: thus, in AB., sāuyavasi, jānamtapi, āruni, jānaki, etc. A single word of other value sārathi, 'charioteer' (sarātham) is found from RV. down.
- b. The words made with the so-called suffix aki as $v\bar{a}iy\bar{a}saki$, 'descendant of Vyāsa', are doubtless properly derivatives in i from others in ka or aka.

That the secondary suffix ika is probably made by addition of ka to a derivative in i is pointed out below (1222 e).

- c. RV. has tápusi, apparently from tápus with a secondary i added.

Hence, ka easily associates itself with the finals of deriv-

atives to which it is attached, and comes to seem along with them an integral suffix, and is further used as such. Of this origin are doubtless, as was seen above (1180, 1181), the so-called primary suffixes uka and aka; and likewise the secondary suffix ika (below, e).

The accent of derivatives in ka varies — apparently without rule, save that the words most plainly of diminutive character have the tone usually on the suffix.

- a. Examples (from the older language) of words in which the suffix has an adjective-making value are: ântaka (ânta), 'end-making', bâlhika (bâlhi), 'of Balkh', āṇḍika (āṇḍā), 'egg-bearing', sūcika (sūci), 'stinging', urvārukā, 'fruit of the gourd' (urvārū), paryāyikā (paryāyā), 'strophic'; from numerals, ekakā, dvakā, trikā, âṣṭaka; tṛṭāyaka, 'of the third day'; from pronoun-stems, asmāka, 'ours', yuṣmāka, 'yours', māmaka, 'mine' (516); from prepositions, ântika, 'near', ânuka, 'following' (later, âdhika, átka, âvakā); and, with accent retracted to the initial syllable (besides âṣṭaka and tṛṭāyaka, already given), rū́paka (rūpā), 'with form', bâbhruka (babhrū, 'brown'), a certain lizard.
- b. Of words in which a diminutive meaning is more or less probable: $a cvak \hat{a}$, 'nag', $kan \hat{i} nak a$ and $kum \hat{a} rak \hat{a}$, 'boy', $kan \hat{i} nak \hat{a}$ or $kan \hat{i} nik \hat{a}$, 'girl', $p \hat{a} dak \hat{a}$, 'little foot', $putrak \hat{a}$, 'little son', $r \hat{a} j ak \hat{a}$, 'princeling', $cakuntak \hat{a}$, 'birdling'. Sometimes a contemptuous meaning is conveyed by such a diminutive: for formations with this value from pronominal stems, see above, 521; another example is $anyak \hat{a}$ (RV.).

The diminutives in ka have the gender of their primitives.

- c. The derivatives in ka with unchanged meaning are made from primitives of every variety of form, simple and compound, and have the same variety of accent as the adjective derivatives (with which they are at bottom identical). Thus:
- From simple nouns and adjectives: astaka, 'home', nāsikā, 'nostril',
 mākṣikā, 'fiy', avikā, 'ewe', iṣukā, 'arrow', dūrakā, 'distant', sarvakā, 'all',
 dhēnukā (dhenū), 'cow', nāgnaka (nagnā), 'naked', bāddhaka (baddhā), 'captive', vamrakā, 'ant', arbhakā, 'small', cicukā, 'young', anīyaska, 'finer',
 ejatkā, 'trembling', patayiṣnukā, 'flying'.

Such derivatives in the later language are innumerable: from almost any given noun or adjective may be made an equivalent, ending in ka or $k\bar{a}$ (according to the gender).

2. From compound primitives: svalpaká, 'very small', vímanyuka, 'removing wrath', víkṣiṇatká, 'destroying', pravartamānaká, 'moving forward', vikṣiṇaká, 'destroyed'.

In the Brāhmanas and later, ka is often added to a possessive adjective compound (1307), sometimes redundantly, but usually in order to obtain a more manageable stem for inflection: thus, anaksika, 'eyeless', atvākka, 'skinless', aretāska, 'without seed', vyasthaka, 'boneless', saciraska, 'along with the head', $ekag\bar{a}yatr\bar{\imath}ka$, 'containing a single $g\bar{a}yatr\bar{\imath}verse$ ', $grh\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}vasat\bar{\imath}var\bar{\imath}ka$, 'one who has taken yesterday's water', $sapatn\bar{\imath}ka$, 'with his spouse', abhinavavayaska, 'of youthful age', $a\bar{n}gustham\bar{a}traka$, 'of thumb size'.

d. The vowel by which the ka is preceded has often an irregular character; and especially, a feminine in $ik\bar{a}$ is common beside a masculine in aka (as is the case with the so-called primary aka: above, 1181).

In RV. are found beside one another only $iyattak\hat{a}$ and $iyattik\hat{a}$; but AV. has several examples, and they become much more numerous later.

- e. Two suffixes made up of ka and a preceding vowel namely, aka and ika are given by the grammarians as independent secondary suffixes, requiring initial vrddhi-strengthening of the primitive. Both of them are doubtless in reality made by addition of ka to a final i or a, though coming to be used independently.
- 1. Of vrddhi-derivatives in aka no examples have been noted from the older language (unless $m\bar{a}mak\hat{a}$, 'mine', is to be so regarded); and they are not common in the later: thus, $\bar{a}\acute{a}maka$ (not quotable), 'flaxen', $m\acute{a}noj\~{n}aka$ (not quotable), 'attractiveness', $r\~{a}ma\~{n}\~{i}yaka$, 'delightfulness'.
- 2. Of vrddhi-derivatives in ika, the Veda furnishes a very few cases: $v\acute{a}santika$, 'vernal', $v\acute{a}rsika$, 'of the rainy season', $h\bar{a}\'{i}mantika$, 'wintry' (none of them in RV.); AV. has $kair\bar{a}tik\acute{a}$, 'of the Kirātas', apparent fem. to a mase. $k\bar{a}ir\bar{a}taka$, which is not found till later. Examples from a more recent period (when they become abundant) are: $v\bar{a}idika$, 'relating to the Vedas', $dh\bar{a}rmika$, 'religious', $\bar{a}hnika$, 'daily', $v\bar{a}inayika$, 'well-behaved', $d\bar{a}uv\bar{a}rika$, 'doorkeeper', $n\bar{a}iy\bar{a}yika$, 'versed in the Nyāya'.
- 1223. Several suffixes, mostly of rare occurrence and questionable character, contain a 7 n as consonantal element, and may be grouped together here.
- **a.** With $\bar{a}na$ are made, apparently, a pair of derivatives in RV. from primitives in u: thus, $bh_1'gav\bar{a}na$, $v\bar{a}sav\bar{a}na$.
- b. With $\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ (which is perhaps the corresponding feminine) are made a number of wife-names: thus, $indr\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$, $varun\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ (these, with $uc\bar{\imath}na\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$, $purukuts\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$, $mudgala\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$, are found in RV.), $rudr\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$, $m\bar{a}tul\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$, 'maternal uncle's wife', $k\bar{\imath}atriy\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$, 'wife of a kshatriya' (not quotable).
- c. The feminines in $n\bar{\imath}$ and $kn\bar{\imath}$ from masculine stems in ta have been already noticed above (1176 d). From $p\acute{a}ti$, 'master, husband', the feminine is $p\acute{a}tn\bar{\imath}$, both as independent word, 'spouse', and as final of an adjective compound: thus, $dev\acute{a}patn\bar{\imath}$, 'having a god for husband', $s\acute{i}ndhupatn\bar{\imath}$, 'having the Indus as master'. And the feminine of $paru\dot{s}\acute{a}$, 'rough', is in the older language sometimes $p\acute{a}ru\dot{s}n\bar{\imath}$.
- d. With *īna* are made a full series of adjective derivatives from the words with final $a\tilde{n}c$ (407 ff.); they are accented usually upon the penult, but sometimes on the final; and the same word has sometimes both accents: for example, $ap\bar{a}c\bar{c}na$, $n\bar{c}c\bar{c}na$, $pr\bar{a}c\bar{c}na$, $arv\bar{a}c\bar{c}na$ and $arv\bar{a}c\bar{c}na$, $pratic\bar{c}na$ and $pratic\bar{c}na$, $sam\bar{c}c\bar{c}na$. Besides these, a number of other adjectives, earlier and later: examples are $samvatsar\bar{c}na$, 'yearly', $pr\bar{a}vr\bar{c}na$, 'of the rainy season', $vicvajan\bar{c}na$, 'of all people', $j\bar{n}\bar{a}takul\bar{c}na$, 'of known family', $adhvan\bar{c}na$, 'traveller' (ádhvan, 'way'), $\bar{a}cv\bar{c}na$, 'day's journey on horseback' (ácva, 'horse').
 - e. With ena is made sāmidhenā, from samīdh, with initial strengthening.

- f. A few words in ina, having possessive meaning as malina, $cr\bar{n}gina$, (said to be accented on the final) are doubtless transfers of adjectives in in (1230) to the a-declension; compare 1209 c.
- g. The adjectives made with simple na fall under another head (below, 1245 d), except the almost isolated $str\bar{a}(na)$, 'woman's', from $str\bar{i}$, with initial strengthening (its correlative, $p\bar{a}u\dot{m}sna$, occurs late).
- 1224. Certain suffixes containing a H m may be similarly grouped.
- a. With ima are made a small number of adjectives from nouns in tra: thus, khanitrima, 'made by digging', kṛtrima, 'artificial', pūtrima, 'purified'. Also agrimā, 'foremost', (RV.: the ma having perhaps an ordinal value).
- b. The uses of simple ma in forming superlatives (474) and ordinals (487) have been already noticed, and the words thus made specified; $\bar{a}dim\bar{a}$ is further given by the grammarians, but is not quotable until a very recent period.
- c. A few neuter abstracts end in mna: thus, dyumnâ, 'brightness', nṛmṇâ, 'manliness'; and, from particles, nɨmnâ, 'depth', and sumnâ, 'welfare'. The suffix comes perhaps from man with an added a.
 - d. For the words showing a final min, see below, 1231.
- 1225. म्य maya. With this suffix are formed adjectives signifying 'made or composed or consisting of'.

The accent is always on the penult. Before the m, the final of the primitive is in general treated as in external combination: thus, $mrnm\tilde{a}ya$, 'made of earth' (mrd), $v\bar{a}\bar{n}m\tilde{a}ya$, consisting of utterance' $(v\bar{u}c)$, $tejom\tilde{a}ya$, 'made up of brightness', $adom\tilde{a}ya$, 'of the nature of what is yonder' ($\mathbb{C}B$.); but in the Veda are found $manasm\tilde{a}ya$ and $nabhasm\tilde{a}ya$, with $ayasm\tilde{a}ya$, which is allowed in the later language alongside $ayom\tilde{a}ya$. RV. has $s\bar{u}m\tilde{a}ya$, 'of good make' $(s\tilde{u},$ 'well'), and $kimm\tilde{a}ya$, 'made of what?'

The suffix maya is perhaps by origin a derivative noun $(\nu m\bar{a})$ in composition, but it has at any rate the full value of a suffix from the earliest period of the language.

- 1226. 7 ra. A few derivative adjectives are made with this suffix. Accent and treatment of the primitive are various.
- a. With simple addition of ra are made, for example: pānsurā, 'dusty', -çrīra (also -çlīla) in açrīrā, 'ugly', dhūmrā, 'dusky' (dhūmā, 'smoke'), madhura (late), 'sweet'.

In an example or two, there appears to be accompanying initial strengthening: thus, $\dot{a}gn\bar{\imath}dhra$, 'of the fire-kindler' $(agn\bar{\imath}dh)$, $c\bar{a}\bar{n}kura$, 'stake-like' $(ca\bar{n}ka)$.

b. With an inorganic vowel before the ending are made, for example, médhira, 'wise', rathirá, 'in a chariot'; karmāra, 'smith'; dantura (late), 'tusked'; and others of obscure connections.

c. The use of ra in forming a few words of comparative meaning was noticed above (474), and the words so made were given.

1227. \overline{e} la. This and the preceding suffix are really but two forms of the same. In some words they exchange with one another, and \overline{e} la is usually, but not always, the later form in use.

Examples are: bahula, 'abundant', madhula (later madhura) and $madh\bar{u}la$, 'sweet', $bh\bar{v}mala$, 'fearful', $j\bar{v}vala$, 'lively', $acl\bar{v}la$ (and $acr\bar{v}ra$), 'wretched; with \bar{u} , $v\bar{u}c\bar{u}la$, 'talkative' (late); with i, phenila, 'foamy' (late: phena); with u, $v\bar{u}tula$ and $v\bar{u}t\bar{u}la$, 'windy' (late: $v\bar{u}ta$); and $m\bar{u}tula$, 'maternal uncle', is a somewhat irregular formation from $m\bar{u}t'$, 'mother'.

The later language has a few adjectives in lu, as $krp\bar{a}lu$ and $day\bar{a}lu$, 'compassionate'.

1228. $\exists va.$ A small number of adjectives have this ending (accented, added to an unaltered primitive).

a. Thus, arnavá, 'billowy', keçavá, 'hairy'; rāsnāvá, 'girded'; añjivá, 'slippery', çantivá, 'tranquillizing', çraddhivá, 'credible'.

b. There are a very few adjectives in vala and vaya which may be noticed here: thus, kṛṣīvalā, 'peasant' (kṛṣi, 'ploughing'), cikhāvala and dantāvala (late); druvāya, 'wooden dish'.

c. With ${}^{*}vya$ are made two or three words from names of relationship: thus, $p\hat{u}trvya$, 'paternal uncle', $bhr\hat{a}trvya$, 'nephew, enemy'.

1229. \mathfrak{A} ca. A very few adjectives appear to be made by an added ending of this form.

Thus, romaçã or lomaçã, 'hairy', étaça, 'hasting', babhluçã or babhruçã, 'brownish', yuvaçã, 'youthful'.

Many of the adjective derivatives already treated have sometimes a possessive value, the general meaning of 'being concerned with, having relation to' being specialized into that of 'being in possession of'. But there are also a few distinctively possessive suffixes; and some of these, on account of the unlimited freedom of forming them and the frequency of their occurrence, are very conspicuous parts of the general system of derivation. These will be next considered.

1230. \overline{sq} in. Possessive adjectives of this ending may be formed almost unlimitedly from stems in \overline{sa} a or \overline{sa} and are sometimes (but very rarely) made from stems with other finals.

A final vowel disappears before the suffix. The accent is Whitney, Grammar.

always in. As to the inflection of these adjectives see above, 438 ff. They are to be counted by hundreds in the older language, and are equally or more numerous in the later.

- a. Examples from a-stems are: acvin, 'possessing horses', dhanin, 'wealthy', pakṣin, 'winged', balin, 'strong', bhagin, 'fortunate', vajrin, 'wielding the thunderbolt', cikhandin, 'crested', hastin, 'possessing hands', sodacin, 'of sixteen', gardabhanādin, 'having an ass's voice', brahmavarcasin, 'of eminent sanctity', sādhudevin, 'having luck at play', kūcidarthin, 'having errands everywhither'; from ā-stems, manīsin, 'wise', cikhin, 'crested', rtāyin, 'pious'.
- b. The examples from other stems are only sporadic: thus, from i-stems, abhimātin, 'plotting against', arcin, 'gleaming', ūrmin, 'billowy', khādin, 'spangled', and perhaps atithin, 'wandering'; in surabhintara, the nasal is rather a euphonic insertion, to break the succession of light syllables; from stems in an, varmin, 'cuirassed'; from stems in as. retin, 'rich in seed', probably varcin, n. pr.: and çavasin and sahasin (unless these come through stem-forms in -sa).
- c. It was noticed above (1183) that derivatives of this form often have a value equivalent to that of present participles; and that the suffix is used, both earlier and later, in the manner of a primary suffix, making words of such value directly from roots. The originally secondary character of the whole formation is shown, on the one hand, by the frequent use in the same manner of words bearing an unmistakably secondary form, as practin, garbhin, jūrņin, dhūmin, paripanthin, pravepanin, matsarin; and, on the other hand, by the occurrence of reverted palatals (216) before the in, which could only be as in replaced a: thus, arkin, -bhangin, -sangin, and -rokin.
- d. In three or four sporadic cases, a y, preceded by \bar{a} , appears before in: thus, $svadh\bar{a}y\bar{i}n$ (VS.: TB. $-v\bar{i}n$; the y is here evidently an insertion: 258), $srk\bar{u}y\bar{i}n$, $dhanv\bar{u}y\bar{i}n$, and $\bar{a}tat\bar{u}y\bar{i}n$ (VS.: TS. $-v\bar{i}n$), which is found also in the later language. RV. has only $mar\bar{a}y\bar{i}n$ (value?) and $rt\bar{u}y\bar{i}n$ (apparently through a $rt\bar{u}y\bar{i}n$ [1149] from the denominative $rt\bar{u}y$). To assume for these a suffix $y\bar{i}n$ is quite needless.
- 1231. দিন্ min. With this suffix are made an extremely small number of possessive adjectives.

In the old language, the words in min have the aspect of derivatives in in from nouns in ma, although in two or three cases — ismin, rgmin, krudhmin in RV., $v\bar{a}gmin$ in QB. — no such nouns are found in actual use beside them. In the later language, min is used as independent element in a very few words: thus, gomin, 'possessing cattle', $sv\bar{a}min$ (Sūtras and later), 'master, lord' (sva, 'own').

1232. বিন্ vin. The adjectives made with this suffix are also not at all numerous. They have the same meanings with those in হন্in.

The RV. has ten adjectives in vin (ayudhvin, so-called, is doubtless a

gerund in $tv\bar{\imath}: a-yudh-tv\bar{\imath});$ they become rather more common later. Though for them may be suspected a similar origin to those in yin and min (above), signs of it are much less clearly traceable.

The majority have vin added after as: thus, namasvin, 'reverential', tapasvin, 'heated', tejasvin, 'brilliant', yacasvin, 'beautiful'; and catasvin, 'possessing hundreds' (RV.), has an inserted s, by analogy with them. Others have \bar{a} (sometimes, by lengthening): thus, $medh\bar{u}vin$, $m\bar{u}y\bar{u}vin$, $astr\bar{u}vin$, 'obedient to the goad', $dvay\bar{u}vin$, 'double-minded', $ubhay\bar{u}vin$, 'possessing of both kinds'. More rarely, vin is added after another consonant than s; thus, $v\bar{u}gvin$, dhrsadvin. The doubtful word vyacnuvin (VS., once: TB. vyacnuvin) appears to add the ending (or in, with euphonic v) to a present tense-stem.

1233. वस vant. Very numerous possessive adjectives are made by this suffix, from noun-stems of every form, both in the earlier language and in the later.

The accent generally remains upon the primitive, without change; but an accent resting on a stem-final, if this be anything but \acute{a} or \acute{a} , is in the majority of cases thrown forward upon the suffix.

A final vowel — oftenest a, very rarely u — is in many words lengthened in the older language (247) before this ending, as in composition. Nouns in an retain the n.

a. Examples of the normal formation are: with unchanged accent, keçavant, 'hairy', putrávant, 'having a son', prajánanavant, 'procreative', puṇḍárīkavant, 'rich in lotuses', hứraṇyavant, 'rich in gold', apūpávant, 'having cakes'; prajávant, 'having progeny', ắrṇāvant, 'wooly', dákṣṇūvant, 'rich in sacrificial gifts'; sákhivant, 'having friends', saptarṣīvant, 'accompanied by the seven sages'; çácīvant, 'powerful', táviṣīvant, 'vehement', pátnīvant, 'with spouse', dhīvant, 'devoted', dyávāpṛthivīvant (94), 'with heaven and earth'; viṣṇuvant, 'accompanied by Viṣhnu'; āvṛtvant, 'hither turned', āçīrvant, 'mixed with milk', svārvant, 'splendid', çarádvant, 'full of years', páyasvant, 'rich', támasvant, 'dark', brāhmaṇvant, 'accompanied with worship', rómaṇvant, 'hairy'; but also lómavant and vṛtrahavant (PB.); — with accent on the suffix, agnivánt, 'having fire', rayivánt, 'wealthy', nṛvánt, 'manly', padvánt, 'having feet', nasvánt, 'with nose', āsanvánt, 'having a mouth', çīrṣanvánt, 'headed'.

b. With final stem-vowel lengthened: for example, áçvāvant (beside áçvavant), 'possessing horses', sutāvant, 'having soma expressed', vṛṣnyāvant, 'of virile force' (about thirty such cases occur in V.); çáktīvant, 'mighty', svádhitīvant, 'having axes', ghṛṇīvant, 'hot'; viṣūvánt, 'dividing' (vṛṣu, 'apart').

c. A few special irregularities are: indrasvant, with s added to the primitive; krçanāvant, with anomalous accent (if from kr̄çana, 'pearl'); and, from particles, antārvant, 'pregnant', and viṣūvānt (just quoted).

d. By the same suffix are made from pronominal roots and stems adjectives in which is shown another specialized meaning, that of 'like to, resembling'. They were given above (517: to be added are *ivant* and *kivant*).

And derivatives from nouns in the older language are perhaps occasionally to be understood in the same way: e. g. indrasvant, 'like Indra'.

It has also been pointed out (1107) that the adverb of comparison in $v\hat{a}t$ is doubtless to be understood as accusative neuter of a derivative of this class.

- e. In vivásvant or vívasvant, 'shining' (also proper name), is seen a side-formation to vivásvan (1169), having the aspect of a primary derivative.
- f. For the derivatives in vat from prepositions, which appear to have nothing to do with this suffix, see below, 1245 f.

None of the suffixes beginning with v show in the Veda resolution of v to u.

1234. বন্ van. The secondary derivatives in this suffix belong to the older language, and are a small number, of which extremely few have more than an occurrence or two.

They have the aspect of being produced under the joint influence of primary van and secondary vant. A final short vowel is usually lengthened before the suffix. The accent is various, but oftenest on the penult of the stem. The feminine (like that of the derivatives in primary van: 1169, end) is in vari.

The Vedic examples are: from a-stems, rnāván or rnaván, rtávan (and f. -varī), rghāvan, dhitávan, satyāvan, sumnāvárī, and maghávan; from ā-stems, sūnrtāvarī, svadhávan (and f. -varī); from i-stems, amatīván, arātīván, crustīván, musīván, and kṛṣīvan (only in the further derivative kársīvana); from consonant-stems, átharvan, samádvan, sáhovan (bad AV. variant to RV. sahávan). Somewhat anomalous are sahávan and sahasāvan, indhanvan (for indhanvan?), and sanitvan (for sánitivan?). The only words of more than sporadic occurrence are rtávan, maghávan, átharvan.

1235. দান mant. This is a twin-suffix to বান vant (above, 1233); their derivatives have the same value, and are to some extent exchangeable with one another. But possessives i দান mant are much less frequent (in the older language, about a third as many), and are only very rarely made from a-stems.

If the accent of the primitive word is on the final, it is in the great majority of instances (three quarters) thrown forward upon the added suffix; otherwise, it maintains its place unchanged. A final vowel before the suffix is in only a few cases made long. Examples are:

a. With the accent of the primitive unchanged: kāṇvamant, and yā-vamant, 'rich in barley' (these alone from a-stems, and the former only occurring once), āvimant, 'possessing sheep', açānimant, 'bearing the thunder-bolt', ōṣadhīmant, 'rich in herbs', vāçīmant, 'carrying an axe', vāsumant,

'possessing good things', mådhumant, 'rich in sweets', tvåstrmant, 'accompanied by Tvashtar', hótrmant, 'provided with priests', åyuşmant, 'long-lived', jyótişmant, 'full of brightness'; — ulkuşimant, 'accompanied with meteors', pīlúmant(?), prasimant, 'having young shoots', gómant, 'rich in kine', kakúdmant, 'humped', vidyúnmant (with irregular assimilation of t: VS. has also kakúnmant), 'gleaming', virúkmant, 'shining', havíşmant, 'with libations'.

- b. With the accent thrown forward upon the ending: agnimant, 'having fire', isudhimant, 'with a quiver', pacumant, 'possessing cattle', vāyumant, 'with wind', pitrmant (AV. pitrmant), 'accompanied by the Fathers', mātrmant, 'having a mother'; no long final vowels are found before the suffix in this division, and only once a consonant, in dasmat (RV., once).
- c. Protraction of a final vowel is seen in tvíṣīmant, dhrájīmant, hírī-mant; in jyótiṣīmant is irregularly inserted an ī (after the analogy of táviṣī-mant).
- 1236. It has been seen above (especially in connection with the suffixes a and ya) that the neuter of a derivative adjective is frequently used as an abstract noun. There are, however, two suffixes which have in the later language the specific office of making abstract nouns from adjectives and nouns; and these are found also, more sparingly used, in the oldest language, each having there one or two other evidently related suffixes beside it.

For derivatives of the same value made with the suffix iman, see above, 1168.2.

1237. \overline{All} $t\overline{a}$. With this suffix are made feminine abstract nouns, denoting 'the quality of being so and so', from both adjectives and nouns.

The form of the primitive is unchanged, and the accent is uniformly on the syllable preceding the suffix.

Examples (from the older language) are: $dev\hat{a}t\bar{a}$, 'divinity', $v\bar{i}r\hat{a}t\bar{a}$, 'manliness', $purus\hat{a}t\bar{a}$, 'human nature', $bandh\hat{a}t\bar{a}$, 'relationship', $vas\hat{a}t\bar{a}$, 'wealth'; $nagn\hat{a}t\bar{a}$, 'nakedness', $suv\bar{i}r\hat{a}t\bar{a}$, 'wealth in retainers', $anapaty\hat{a}t\bar{a}$, 'lack of descendants', $ag\hat{o}t\bar{a}$, 'poverty in cattle', $abrahm\hat{a}t\bar{a}$, 'lack of devotion', $apra-j\hat{a}st\bar{a}$, 'absence of progeny'; also doubtless $s\bar{u}n\dot{r}t\bar{a}$ (from $s\bar{u}n\hat{a}ra$), although the word is a few times used as an adjective (like $cant\bar{a}t\bar{a}$) and $cant\bar{a}t\bar{a}$: see next paragraph). In RV. is found $av\bar{i}rat\bar{a}$, with exceptional accent.

1238. $\overline{\text{Alia}}$ $t\overline{a}ti$, $\overline{\text{Alia}}$ $t\overline{a}t$. These suffixes are Vedic only, and the latter is limited to RV. Their relationship to the preceding is evident, but opinions are at variance as to its nature. The accent is as in the derivatives with $t\overline{a}$.

The quotable examples in tāti are: arishtātāti, 'uninjuredness', ayakş-mātāti, 'freedom from disease', grbhītātāti, 'the being seized', jyeṣthātāti, 'supremacy', devātāti, 'divinity', vasūtāti, 'wealth', cāmtāti, 'good-fortune',

sarvātāti, 'completeness'; and, with exceptional accent, āstatāti, 'home', and dāksatāti, 'cleverness'. Two words in tāti are used adjectively (inorganically, by apposition?): cāmtāti (RV., twice; and AV. xix. 44. 1, in MSS.), and satyatāti (RV., once: voc.).

The words in $t\bar{a}t$ (apparently made by abbreviation from $t\bar{a}ti$) occur only in a case or two: they were all mentioned above (383 d. 2).

1239. ব tva. With this suffix are made neuter nouns, of the same value as the feminines in না $t\bar{a}$ (above, 1237).

The neuter abstracts in tva are in the older language considerably more common than the feminines in $t\bar{a}$, although themselves also not very numerous. The accent is without exception on the suffix.

Examples (from the older language) are: amṛtatvá, 'immortality', devatvá, 'divinity', subhagatvá, 'good-fortune', ahamuttaratvá, 'struggle for precedency', cucitvá, 'purity', patitvá, 'husbandship', taraṇitvá, 'energy', dērghāyutvá, 'long life', catrutvá, 'enmity', bhrātṛtvá, 'brotherhood', vṛṣatvá, 'virility', sātmatvá, 'soulfulness', maghavattvá, 'liberality', rakṣastvá, 'sorcery'. In anā-gāstvá and aprajāstvá, there is a lengthening of the final syllable of the primitive; and in sāuprajāstvá (AV., once) this appears to be accompanied by initial vṛddhi (sāubhagatvá is doubtless from sāúbhaga, not subhága). In vasatīvaritvá (TS.) there is shortening of final feminine ī before the suffix.

In isitatvátā (RV., once), 'incitedness', and $purusatvát\bar{a}$ (RV., twice), 'human quality', appears to be a combination of the two equivalent suffixes tva and $t\bar{a}$.

The v of tva is to be read in Veda as u only once $(raksastu\hat{a})$.

1240. বান tvana. The derivatives made with this suffix are, like those in tva, neuter abstracts. They occur only in RV., and, except in a single instance (martiatvaná), have beside them equivalent derivatives in tva. The accent is on the final, and the tva is never resolved into tua.

The words are: kavitvaná, janitvaná, patitvaná, martiatvaná, mahitvaná, vasutvaná, vrsatvaná, sakhitvaná.

- 1241. A few suffixes make no change in the character as part of speech of the primitive to which they are added, but either are merely formal appendages, leaving the value of the word what it was before, or make a change of degree, or introduce some other modification of meaning.
- 1242. The suffixes of comparison and ordinal suffixes have for the most part been treated already, and need only a reference here.
- a. না tara and না tama are the usual secondary suffixes of adjective comparison: respecting their use as such, see above,

471-3; respecting the use of tama as ordinal etc. suffix, see 487; respecting that of their accusatives as adverbial suffixes to prepositions etc., see 1111 c.

In vrtratara (RV., once: perhaps an error) the accent is anomalous; in mrdayáttama, it is drawn forward to the final of the participle, as often in composition (1309); çaçvattamá (RV.) has the ordinal accent; samvatsaratamá (CB.) is an ordinal; divātara (RV., once: an error?) is an ordinary adjective, 'of the day'; in acvatará, 'mule', and dhenustari, 'cow losing her milk', the application of the suffix is peculiar and obscure; in rathamtara, name of a certain saman, it is the same,

- b. 7 ra and 4 ma, like tara and tama, have a comparative and superlative value; and the latter of them forms ordinals: see above, 474, 487.
- e. I tha, like tama and ma, forms ordinals from a few numerals: see 487.
- d. নিয় titha forms words of an ordinal character from bahu (bahutitha, 'many-eth') and tavant (with loss of a t in the combination: tavatitha, 'so-many-eth'); and, it is said, from other words meaning 'a number or collection' (gaṇa, pūga, saṁgha).
- 1243. Of diminutive suffixes there are none in Sanskrit with clearly developed meaning and use. The occasional employment of ka, in a somewhat indistinct way, to make diminutives, has been noticed above (1222).
- **1244.** Of the ordinary adjective-making suffixes, given above, some occasionally make adjectives from adjectives, with slight or imperceptible modification of value. The only one used to any considerable extent in this way is ka: as to which, see 1222.
- 1245. A few suffixes are used to make derivatives from certain limited and special classes of words, as numerals and particles. Thus:
- a. त्य taya makes a few adjectives, meaning 'of so many divisions or kinds' (used in the neuter as collectives), from numerals: thus, dvitaya, tritaya, cátustaya (AV.), saptátaya (CB.), astātaya (AB.), dáçataya (RV.).
- b. त्य tya makes a few adjectives from particles: thus, nitya, 'own', nistya, 'strange', amatya, 'companion', apatya (as neut. noun), 'descendants', āvistya, 'evident', sanutya, 'distant', tatratya (late), 'belonging there'; and, according to the grammarians, thatya and kvàtya.

The y of tya is in RV. always to be read as i after a heavy syllable.

c. त ta forms dvitá and tritá, also muhūrtá, 'moment', and apparently avatá, 'well (for water)'.

- d. With \overline{A} na are made purānā, 'ancient', visuņa, 'various', and perhaps samānā, 'like'.
- e. With 177 tana or 178 tana are made adjectives from adverbs, especially of time: thus, pratna, 'ancient', natana or natana, 'present', sanatana or sanatana, 'lasting', pratastana, 'early', divatana (late), 'of the day', cvastana (late), 'of the morrow'; PB. has also tvattana, 'belonging to thee'. In the late language the suffix is used sometimes with an adjective of time: thus, ciratna.
- f. বন্ vat makes from particles of direction the feminine nouns mentioned above (383 d. 1).
- g. कर kaṭa, properly a noun in composition, is reckoned by the grammarians as a suffix in utkaṭa, nikaṭa, prakaṭa, vikaṭa (RV., once, voc.), and saṅkaṭa (all said to be accented on the final).
- h. Occasional derivatives made with the ordinary suffixes of primary and secondary derivation from numerals and particles have been noted above: thus, see ana (1150.2d), ti (1157.4), ant (1172), u (1178h), $\bar{a}yya$ (1218), ka (1222a), mna (1224), maya (1225), vant (1233 e).

CHAPTER XVIII.

FORMATION OF COMPOUND STEMS.

1246. The frequent combination of declinable stems with one another to form compounds which then are treated as if simple, in respect to accent, inflection, and construction, is a conspicuous feature of the language, from its earliest period.

There is, however, a marked difference between the earlier and the later language as regards the length and intricacy of the combinations allowed. In Veda and Brāhmaṇa, it is quite rare that more than two stems are compounded together — except that to some much used and familiar compound, as to an integral word, a further element is sometimes added. But the later the period, and, especially, the more elaborate the style, the more a cumbrous and difficult aggregate of elements, abnegat-

ing the advantages of an inflective language, takes the place of the due syntactical union of formed words into sentences.

- 1247. Sanskrit compounds fall into three principal classes:
- I. Copulative or aggregative compounds, of which the members are syntactically coördinate: a joining together into one of words which in an uncompounded condition would be connected by the conjunction 'and'.

Examples are: indrāvárunāu, 'Indra and Varuna', satyānṛté, 'truth and falsehood', kṛtākṛtám, 'done and undone', devagan-dharvamānuṣoragarakṣasās, 'gods and Gandharvas and men and serpents and demons'.

The members of such a compound may obviously be of any number, two or more than two. No compound of any other class can contain more than two members — of which, however, either or both may be compound, or decompound (below, 1248).

II. Determinative compounds, of which the former member is syntactically dependent on the latter, as its determining or qualifying adjunct: being either, 1. a noun limiting it in a case-relation, or, 2. an adjective or adverb describing it. And, according as it is the one or the other, may be distinguished the two sub-classes: A. Dependent compounds; and B. Descriptive compounds; their difference is not an absolute one.

Examples are: of dependent compounds, amitrasená, 'army of enemies', pādodaka, 'water for the feet', āyurdá, 'life-giving', hástakrta, 'made with the hands'; of descriptive compounds, maharsí, 'great sage', priyasakhi, 'dear friend', amitra, 'enemy', súkrta, 'well done'.

These two classes are of primary value; they have undergone no unifying modification in the process of composition; their character as parts of speech is determined by their final member, and they are capable of being resolved into equivalent phrases by giving the proper independent form and formal means of connection to each member. That is not the case with the remaining class, which accordingly is more fundamentally distinct from them than they are from one another.

III. Secondary adjective compounds, the value of

which is not given by a simple resolution into their component parts, but which, though having as final member a noun, are themselves adjectives. These, again, are of two sub-classes: A. Possessive compounds, which are nouncompounds of the preceding class, with the idea of 'possessing' added, turning them from nouns into adjectives; B. Compounds in which the second member is a noun syntactically dependent on the first: namely, 1. Prepositional compounds, of a governing preposition and following noun; 2. Participial compounds (only Vedic), of a present participle and its following object.

The sub-class **B**. is comparatively quite small, and its second division (participial compounds) is hardly met with even in the later Vedic.

Examples are: $v\bar{\imath}rasena$, 'possessing a hero-army', $praj\bar{a}k\bar{a}ma$, 'having desire of progeny', $tigm\acute{a}cr\bar{n}ga$, 'sharphorned', $h\acute{a}ritasraj$, 'wearing green garlands'; $atim\bar{a}tr\acute{a}$, 'excessive'; $y\bar{a}vay\acute{a}ddve\bar{\imath}as$, 'driving away enemies'.

The adjective compounds are, like simple adjectives, liable to be used, especially in the neuter, as abstract and collective nouns, and in the accusative as adverbs; and out of these uses have grown apparent special classes of compounds, reckoned and named as such by the Hindu grammarians. The relation in detail of the classification given above to that presented in the native grammar, and widely adopted from the latter by the European grammars, will be made clear as we go on to treat the classes in detail.

1248. A compound may, like a single word, become a member in another compound, and this in yet another — and so on, without definite limit. The analysis of any compound, of whatever length (unless it be a copulative), must be made by a succession of bisections.

Thus, the dependent compound $p\bar{u}rvajanmakrta$, 'done in a previous existence', is first divisible into krta and the descriptive $p\bar{u}rvajanman$, then this into its elements; the dependent $sakalan\bar{\imath}tic\bar{a}stratattvaj\bar{\imath}a$, 'knowing the essence of all books of behavior', has first the root-stem $j\bar{\imath}a$ (for $Vj\bar{\imath}a$), 'knowing', separated from the rest, which is again dependent; then this is divided into tattva, 'essence', and the remainder, which is descriptive; this, again, divides into sakala, 'all', and $n\bar{\imath}tic\bar{\imath}astra$, 'books of behavior', of which the latter is a dependent compound and the former a possessive (sa and $kal\bar{\imath}a$, 'having its parts together').

- 1249. The final of a stem is combined with the initial of another stem in composition according to the general rules for external combination: they have been given, with their exceptions, in chap. III., above.
- a. If a stem has a distinction of strong and weak forms, it regularly enters into composition as prior member in its weak form; or, if it has a triple distinction (311), in its middle form.

That is, especially, stems in r or ar, at or ant, ac or $a\tilde{n}c$, etc., show in composition the forms in r, at, ac, etc.; while those in an and in usually lose their final n, and are combined as if a and i were their proper finals.

- b. Occasionally, a stem is used as prior member of a compound, which does not appear, or not in that form, as an independent word: examples are $mah\bar{a}$, 'great' (apparently used independently in V. in accusative), tuvi, 'mighty' (V.), dvi, 'two'.
- c. Not infrequently, the final member of a compound assumes a special form: see below, 1315.
- 1250. But a case-form in the prior member of a compound is by no means rare, from the earliest period of the language. Thus:
- a. Quite often, an accusative, especially before a root-stem, or a derivative in a of equivalent meaning: for example, patamgá, 'going by flight', dhanamjayá, 'winning wealth', abhayamkará, 'causing absence of danger', pustimbhará, 'bringing prosperity', vācamīnkhayá, 'inciting the voice'; but also sometimes before words of other form, as hṛdamsáni, 'heart-winning', áçvamisti, 'horse-desiring', çubhamyávan, 'going in splendor', subhāyamkáraṇa, 'making happy'.
- b. Much more rarely, an instrumental: for example, $gir\bar{u}v_T'dh$, 'increasing by praise', $v\bar{u}c\bar{u}stena$, 'stealing by incantation', $kr\bar{u}tv\bar{u}magha$, 'gladly bestowing', $bh\bar{u}s\bar{u}ketu$, 'bright with light', $vidman\bar{u}pas$, 'active with wisdom'.
- c. Not seldom, a locative; and this also especially with a root-stem or a-derivative: for example, $agreg\hat{a}$, 'going at the head', $diviks\hat{u}$, 'dwelling in the sky', $vanes\hat{a}h$, 'prevailing in the wood', $a\bar{n}gesth\hat{a}$, 'existing in the limbs', $prosthecay\hat{a}$, 'lying on a couch', $sut\hat{e}kara$, 'active with the soma', divicara, 'moving in the sky'; $\bar{a}r\hat{e}catru$, 'having enemies far removed', $sumn\hat{a}\bar{a}pi$, 'near in favor', $m\hat{a}deraghu$, 'hasting in excitement'; $apsuj\hat{a}$, 'born in the waters', $hrtsv\hat{a}s$, 'hurling at hearts'.
- d. Least often, a genitive: thus, $r\bar{a}y\hat{a}sk\bar{a}ma$, 'desirous of wealth'. But the older language has a few examples of the putting together of a genitive with its governing noun, both members of the combination keeping their own accent: see below, 1267 d.
- e. Excepting occasionally, where case-forms are used, there is no designation of plural meaning by plural form; but a feminine word, where clearness requires it, sometimes keeps its distinctive feminine form.
- 1251. The accent of compounds is very various, and liable to considerable irregularity even within the limits of the same

formation; and it must be left to be pointed out in detail below. All possible varieties are found to occur. Thus:

- a. Each member of the compound retains its own separate accent. This is the most anomalous and infrequent method. It appears in certain Vedic copulative compounds chiefly composed of the names of divinities (so-called devatā-dvandvas: 1255 ff.), and in a small number of aggregations partly containing a genitive case-form as prior member (1267 d).
- b. The accent of the compound is that of its prior member. This is especially the case in the great class of possessive compounds; but also in determinatives having the participle in ta or na as final member, in those beginning with the negative a or an, and in other less numerous and important classes.
- c. The accent of the compound is that of the final member. This is not on so large a scale the case as the preceding; but it is nevertheless quite common, being found in many compounds having a verbal noun or adjective as final member, in compounds beginning with the numerals dvi and tri or the prefixes su and dus, and elsewhere in not infrequent exceptions.
- d. The compound takes an accent of its own, independent of that of either of its constituents, on its final syllable (not always, of course, to be distinguished from the preceding case). This method is largely followed: especially, by the regular copulatives, and by the great mass of dependent and descriptive noun-compounds, by those having a root-stem as final, by most possessives beginning with the negative prefix; and by others.
- e. The compound has an accent which is altered from that of one of its members. This is everywhere an exceptional and sporadically occurring case, and the instances of it, noted below under each formation, do not require to be assembled here. Examples are: medhásāti (médha), tilâmiçra (ttla), khádihasta (khādi), yūvayáddveṣas (yūvâyant); çakadhūma (dhūmā), amṛta (mṛtā), suvīra (vīrā), tuvigrīva (grīvā). A few words as vīçva, pūrva, and sometimes sūrva take usually a changed accent as prior members of compounds.

I. Copulative Compounds.

1252. Two or more nouns — much less often adjectives, and, in an instance or two, adverbs — having a coördinate construction, as if connected by 'and', are sometimes combined into compounds.

This is the class to which the Hindu grammarians give the name of dvandva, 'pair, couple'; a dvandva of adjectives, however, is not recognized by them.

1253. The noun-copulatives fall, as regards their inflective form, into two classes:

a. The compound has the gender and declension of its final member, and is in number a dual or a plural, according to its logical value, as denoting two or more than two individual things.

Examples are: $pr\bar{a}n\bar{a}p\bar{a}n\bar{a}u$, 'inspiration and expiration', $vr\bar{i}hiyav\bar{a}u$, 'rice and barley', $rks\bar{a}m\acute{e}$, 'verse and chant', $kapotol\bar{u}k\bar{a}u$, 'dove and owl', $candr\bar{a}dity\bar{u}u$, 'moon and sun', $hastyacv\bar{u}u$, 'the elephant and horse'; $aj\bar{a}v\acute{a}yas$, 'goats and sheep', $dev\bar{a}sur\acute{a}s$, 'the gods and demons', $atharv\bar{a}ngir\acute{a}sas$, 'the Atharvans and Angirases', $samb\bar{u}dhatandry\grave{a}s$, 'anxieties and fatigues', $hastyacv\bar{u}s$, 'elephants and horses'; of more than two members (no examples quotable from the older language), $cavar{a}sanabhog\bar{u}s$, 'lying, sitting, and eating', $br\bar{u}hmanaksatriyavitc\bar{u}dr\bar{u}s$, 'a Brahman, Kshatriya, Vaicya, and Çūdra', rogacokaparvitapabandhanavyasanani, 'disease, pain, grief, captivity, and misfortune'.

b. The compound, without regard to the number denoted, or to the gender of its constituents, becomes a neuter singular collective.

Examples are: <code>iṣṭāpūrtám</code>, 'what is offered and bestowed', <code>ahorātrám</code>, 'a day and night', <code>krtākrtám</code>, 'the done and undone', <code>bhūtabhavyám</code>, 'past and future', <code>keṭaṣmaçrú</code>, 'hair and beard', <code>ahinakulam</code>, 'snake and ichneumon', <code>yūkāmakṣikamatkuṇam</code>, 'lice, flies, and bugs'.

- 1254. a. A stem in r as prior member sometimes takes its nominative form, in \bar{a} : thus, $pit\bar{a}putr\bar{a}u$, 'father and son', $hot\bar{a}pot\bar{a}r\bar{a}u$, 'the invoker and purifier (priests)'.
- **b.** A consonant-stem as final member sometimes adds an a to make a neuter collective: thus, $chattrop\bar{a}naham$, 'an umbrella and a shoe'.
- c. The grammarians give rules as to the order of the elements composing a copulative compound: thus, that a more important, a briefer, a vowel-initial member should stand first; and that one ending in a should be placed last. Violations of them all, however, occur.
- 1255. In the oldest language (RV.), copulative compounds such as appear later are quite rare, the class being chiefly represented by dual combinations of the names of divinities and other personages, and of personified natural objects.
- a. In these combinations, each name has regularly and usually the dual form, and its own accent; but, in the very rare instances (only 3 occurrences out of more than 300) in which other cases than the nom.-acc.-voc. are formed, the final member only is inflected.

Examples are: indrāsómā, indrāviṣṇū, indrābihaspátī, agniṣómāu, turvāçāyādū, dyávāpṛthivi, uṣásānāktā, sū́ryāmásā. The only plural is indrāmarutas (voc.). The cases of other than nominative form are mitráváruṇābhyām and mitráváruṇayos, and indrāváruṇayos (each once only).

From dyávāpṛthivī is made the very peculiar genitive diváspṛthivyós (4 times: AV. has dyávāpṛthivībhyām and dyávāpṛthivyós).

- b. In one compound, parjányavátā, the first member does not have the dual ending along with the double accent (indranāsatyā, voc., is doubtful as to accent). In several, the double accent is wanting, while yet the double designation of number is present; thus, indrāpūsnos (beside indrāpūsānā), somāpūsābhyām .(somāpūsanā occurs only as voc.), vātāparjanyá, sūryācandramásā, and indrāgni (with indrāgnibhyām and indrāgnyos): somārudrāu is accented only in QB. And in one, indravāyá, form and accent are both accordant with the usages of the later language.
- c. Of other copulatives, like those made later, the RV. has the plural ajāváyas, the duals rksāmé, satyānrté, sāçanānaçané; also the neuter collective iṣṭāpārtám, and the substantively used neuter of a copulative adjective, nīlalohitám. Further, the neuter plurals ahorātráni, 'nycthemera', and ukthārká, 'praises and songs', of which the final members as independent words are not neuter. No one of these words has more than a single occurrence.
- 1256. In the later Vedic (AV.), the usage is much more nearly accordant with that of the classical language, save that the class of neuter singular collectives is almost wanting.
- a. The words with double dual form are only a small minority (a quarter, instead of three quarters, as in RV.); and half of them have only a single accent, on the final: thus, besides those in RV., bhav \bar{a} rudrau, bhav \bar{a} rqudrau, bhav \bar{a} rqudrau, voc., is of anomalous form. The whole number of copulatives is more than double that in RV.
- b. The only proper neuter collectives, composed of two nouns, are keçaçmaçrû, 'hair and beard', āñjanābhyañjanâm, 'salve and ointment', and kaṇipūpabarhaṇâm, 'mat and covering', unified because of the virtual unity of the two objects specified. Neuter singulars, used in a similar collective way, of adjective compounds, are (besides those in RV.): kṛtākṛtâm, 'what is done and undone' (instead of 'what is done and what is undone'), cittākūtâm, 'thought and desire', bhadrapūpâm, 'good and evil', bhūtabhavyâm, 'past and future'.
- 1257. Copulative compounds composed of adjectives which retain their adjective character are made in the same manner, but are in comparison very rare.

Examples are: cuklakṛṣṇa, 'light and dark', sthalajāudaka, 'terrestrial and aquatic', used distributively; and vṛṭtapīna, 'round and plump', cāntānukūla, 'tranquil and propitious', hṛṣitasragra-johīna, 'wearing fresh garlands and free from dust', niṣekūdi-

çmaçānānta, 'beginning with conception and ending with burial', used cumulatively.

In the Veda, the only examples noted are the cumulative $n\bar{\imath}lalohit\hat{a}$ and $is\bar{\imath}\bar{a}p\bar{u}rt\hat{a}$ etc., used in the neut. sing. as collectives (as pointed out above), with $t\bar{a}mradh\bar{u}mr\hat{a}$, 'dark tawny'; and the distributive $dak\bar{\imath}inasavy\hat{a}$, 'right and left', $saptam\bar{a}stam\hat{a}$, 'seventh and eighth', and $bhadrap\bar{a}p\hat{a}$, 'good and bad' (beside the corresponding neut. collective). Such combinations as $saty\bar{a}mrt\hat{e}$, 'truth and falsehood', $priy\bar{a}priy\bar{a}ni$, 'things agreeable and disagreeable', where each component is used substantively, are, of course, not to be separated from the ordinary noun-compounds.

1258. In accentuated texts, the copulative compounds have uniformly the accent (acute) on the final of the stem.

Exceptions are only a case or two in AV., where doubtless the reading is false: thus, $v\bar{a}t\bar{a}parjany\dot{a}$ (once: beside $-ny\dot{a}yos$), $devamanusy\dot{a}s$ (once), $brahmar\bar{a}jany\dot{a}bhy\bar{a}m$ (once: part of the MSS.).

1259. An example or two are met with of adverbial copulatives: thus, áhardivi, 'day by day', sāyámprātar, 'at evening and in the morning'. They have the accent of their prior member.

1260. Repeated words. In all ages of the language, nouns and adjectives and particles are not infrequently repeated, to give an intensive, or a distributive, or a repetitional meaning.

Though these are not properly copulative compounds, there is no better connection in which to notice them than here. They are, as the older language shows, a sort of compound, of which the prior member has its own independent accent, and the other is without accent. Thus: jahy èṣām váram-varam, 'slay of them each best man'; divé-dive or dyávi-dyavi, 'from day to day'; prá-pra yajñápatim tira, 'make the master of the sacrifice live on and on'; bhūyo-bhūyah çváh-çvah, 'further and further, tomorrow and again tomorrow'; ékayāi-'kayā, 'with in each case one'.

Such combinations are called by the native grammarians $\bar{a}mre\dot{q}ita$, 'repeated'.

1261. Finally may be noticed in passing the compound numerals, $\ell k\bar{a}$ -daça, '11', $dv\dot{a}vincati$, '22', tricata, '103', $c\dot{a}tuhsahasram$, '1004', and so on (476 ff.), as a special and primitive class of copulatives. They are accented on the prior member.

II. Determinative Compounds.

1262. A noun or adjective is often combined into a compound with a preceding determining or qualifying word — a noun, or adjective, or adverb. Such a compound is conveniently called determinative.

1263. This is the class of compounds which is of most general and frequent occurrence in all branches of Indo-European language. Its two principal divisions have been already pointed out: thus, A. Dependent compounds, in which the prior member is a substantive word (noun or pronoun or substantively used adjective), standing to the other member in the relation of a case dependent on it; and B. Descriptive compounds, in which the prior member is an adjective, or other word having the value of an adjective, qualifying a noun; or else an adverb or its equivalent, qualifying an adjective. Each of these divisions then falls into two sub-divisions, according as the final member, and therefore the whole compound, is a noun or an adjective.

The whole class of determinatives is called by the Hindu grammarians tatpuruṣa (the term is a specimen of the class, meaning 'his man'); and the second division, the descriptives, has the special name of karmadhāraya (of obscure application: the literal sense is something like 'office-bearing'). After their example, the two divisions are in European usage generally known by these two names respectively.

A. Dependent Compounds.

1264. Dependent Noun-compounds. In this division, the case-relation of the prior member to the other may be of any kind; but, in accordance with the usual relations of one noun to another, it is oftenest genitive, and least often accusative.

Examples are: of genitive relation, devasenā, 'army of gods', yamadūtá, 'Yama's messenger', jīvalokā, 'the world of the living', indradhanús, 'Indra's bow', brahmagavī, 'the Brahman's cow', viṣagiri, 'poison-mount', mitralābha, 'acquisition of friends', mūr-khaçatāni, 'hundreds of fools', vīrasenasuta, 'Vīrasena's son', rā-jendra, 'chief of kings', asmatputrās, 'our sons', tadvacas, 'his words'; — of dative, pādodaka, 'water for the feet', māsanicaya, 'accumulation for a month'; — of instrumental, ātmasādrçya, 'likeness with self', dhānyārtha, 'wealth acquired by grain', dharmapatnī, 'lawful spouse', pitrbandhú, 'paternal relation'; — of ablative, apsaraḥsambhava, 'descent from a nymph', madviyoga, 'separation'

from me', cāurabhaya, 'fear of a thief': — of locative, jalakrīḍā, 'sport in the water', grāmavāsa, 'abode in the village'; — of accusative, nagaragamana, 'going to the city'.

1265. Dependent Adjective-compounds. In this division, only a very small proportion of the compounds have an ordinary adjective as final member; but usually a participle or a derivative of agency with the value of a participle. The prior member stands in any case-relation which is possible in the independent construction of such words.

Examples are: of locative relation, sthālīpakva, 'cooked in a pot', acvakovida, 'knowing in horses', vayahsama, 'alike in age', yudhisthira, 'steadfast in battle', tanúcubhra, 'beautiful in body'; — of instrumental, matrsadrça, 'like his mother'; — of dative, gohita, 'good for cattle'; - of ablative, bhavadanya, 'other than you', tarangacancalatara, 'more mobile than the waves'; - of genitive, bharatacrestha, 'best of the Bharatas', dvijottama, 'foremost of Brahmans': — with participial words, in accusative relation, vedavid, 'Veda-knowing', annāda, 'food-eating', tanūpana, 'body-protecting', satyavādin, 'truth-speaking', pattragata, 'committed to paper' (lit'ly 'gone to a leaf'); — in instrumental, madhupu, 'cleansing with honey', svayamkrta, 'self-made', indragupta, 'protected by Indra', vidyāhīna, 'deserted by (= destitute of) knowledge'; — in locative, hrdayāvidh, 'piercing in the heart', rtvij, 'sacrificing in due season', divicara, 'moving in the sky'; — in ablative, $r\bar{a}jya$ bhrasta. 'fallen from the kingdom', vrkabhīta, 'afraid of a wolf'; — in dative, caranagata, 'come for refuge'.

- 1266. We take up now some of the principal groups of compounds falling under these two heads, in order to notice their specialities of formation and use, their relative frequency, their accentuation, and so on.
- 1267. Compounds having as final member ordinary nouns (such, namely, as do not distinctly exhibit the character of verbal nouns, of action or agency) are quite common. They are regularly and usually accented on the final syllable, without reference to the accent of either constituent. Examples were given above (1264).
- a. A principal exception with regard to accent is páti, 'master, lord', compounds with which usually retain the accent of the prior member: thus, prajápati, vásupati, átithipati, gópati (compare the verbal nouns in ti, below, 1274). But in a few words páti retains its own accent: thus, vicpáti, paçupáti, etc.; and the more general rule is followed in apsarāpatí and vrājapatí (in AV.).

- b. Other exceptions are sporadic only: for example, janarájan, devavárman, hiranyatéjas, prtanāháva, çakadháma (but dhūmá); vācástena.
- c. The appearance of a case-form in such compounds is rare: examples are $v\bar{a}e\dot{a}stena$, $ucc\bar{a}thcravas$, $ucc\bar{a}trghosa$, $d\bar{u}r\dot{e}bh\bar{a}s$ (the three last in possessive application).
- d. A number of compounds are accented on both members: thus, cácīpáti, sádaspáti, bɨhaspáti, vánaspáti, ráthaspáti, jáspáti (also jáspati), nárāçánsa, tánūnápāt (tanú as independent word), cúnahcépa.
- 1268. The compounds having an ordinary adjective as final member are (as already noticed) comparatively few.

So far as can be gathered from the scanty examples occurring in the older language, they retain the accent of the prior member: thus, gavisthira (AV. gavisthira), maderaghu, yajñadhīra, samavipra, tilamiçra (but tla); but krstapacya, 'ripening in cultivated soil'.

- 1269. The adjective dependent compounds having as final member the bare root or, if it end in a short vowel, generally with an added t are very numerous in all periods of the language, as has been already repeatedly noticed (thus, 383 ff., 1147). They are accented on the root.
- a. In a very few instances, the accent of words having apparently this origin is otherwise laid: thus, $\acute{a}nsatra$, $\acute{a}narvic$, $sv\acute{a}vrj$.
- b. Before a final root-stem appears not very seldom a case-form: for example, pataingá, girāvṛdh, dhiyājúr, akṣṇayādrúh, hṛdispṛc, divispṛc, vanesáh, diviṣád, angeṣṭhá, hṛtsvás, pṛtsutúr, apsujá.
- c. The root-stem has sometimes a middle or passive value: for example, manoyúj, 'yoked (yoking themselves) by the will', hṛdayāvídh, 'pierced to the heart'.
- 1270. Compounds made with verbal derivatives in a, both of action and of agency, are numerous, and take the accent usually on their final syllable (as in the case of compounds with verbal prefixes: 1148.5).

Examples are: hastagrābhá, 'hand-grasping', devavandá, 'god-praising', haviradá, 'devouring the offering', bhuvanacyavá, 'shaking the world', vrātyabruvá, 'calling one's self a vrātya'; akṣaparājayá, 'failure at play', vaṣatkārá, 'utterance of vashat', gopoṣá, 'prosperity in cattle', aāgajvará, 'pain in the limbs'.

- a. In a few instances, the accent is (as in compounds with ordinary adjectives: above, 1268) that of the prior member: thus, marūdvṛdha, sutékara (and other more questionable words). And dūgha, 'milking, yielding', is so accented as final: thus, madhudūgha, kāmadūgha.
- b. Case-forms are especially frequent in the prior members of compounds with adjective derivatives in a, showing guṇa-strengthening of the root: thus, for example, abhayankarâ, yudhimgamâ, dhanamjayâ, puramdarâ, viçvambharâ, divākarâ, talpeçayâ, diviṣṭambhâ.

1271. Compounds with verbal nouns and adjectives in ana are very numerous, and have the accent always on the radical syllable (as in the case of compounds with verbal prefixes: 1150.1c).

Examples are: keçavárdhana, 'hair-increasing', āyuspratárana, 'life-lengthening', tanūpána, 'body-protecting', devahédana, 'hatred of the gods', pumsúvana, 'giving birth to males'.

- a. A very few apparent exceptions as regards accent are really cases where the derivative has lost its verbal character: thus, yamasādanā, 'Yama's realm', ūchādvidhāna, 'means of protection'.
- b. An accusative-form is sometimes found before a derivative in ana: thus, sarūpamkāraņa, ayakṣmamkāraṇa, subhūgamkāraṇa, vanamkāraṇa.
- 1272. a. The action-nouns in ya (1213) are not infrequent in composition as final member, and retain their own proper accent (as in combination with prefixes).

Sufficient examples were given above (1213).

b. The same is true of the equivalent feminines in $y\dot{a}$: see above, 1213d.

c. The gerundives in ya (1213) hardly occur in the older language in combination with other elements than prefixes. The two $n\bar{\imath}vibh\bar{u}ry\dot{a}$ and $prathamav\bar{u}sy\dot{a}$ (the latter a descriptive) have the accent of the independent words of the same form; $balavij\tilde{n}ay\dot{a}$ and acvabudhya (?) are inconsistent with these and with one another.

1273. Compounds made with the passive participle in ta or na have the accent of their prior member (as do the combinations of the same words with prefixes: 1085 a).

Examples are: hástakṛta, 'made with the hand', vīrájūta, 'born of a hero', ghóṣabuddha, 'awakened by noise', prajápatisṛṣṭa, 'created by Prajapati'; and, of participles combined with prefixes, indraprasūta, 'incited by Indra', bṛhaspátipraṇutta, 'driven away by Brihaspati', ulkábhihata, 'struck by a thunderbolt'.

- a. AV. has the anomalous apsúsamcita.
- b. A number of exceptions occur, in which the final syllable of the compound has the accent: for example, agnitaptá, indrotá, pitrvittá, ratha-krītá, kavipraçastá.
- c. One or two special usages may be noticed. The participle gata, 'gone to', as final of a compound, is used in a loose way in the later language to express relation of various kinds: thus, jagatīgata, 'existing in the world', tvadgata, 'belonging to thee', sakhīgata, 'relating to a friend', etc. The participle bhūta, 'been, become', is used in composition with a noun as hardly more than a grammatical device to give it an adjective form: thus, idam tamobhūtam, 'this creation, being darkness (existing in the condition of darkness)'; tām ratnabhūtām lokasya, 'her, being the pearl of the world'; and so on.

The other participles do not occur as finals of compounds except in rare and sporadic cases: thus, gāutamabruvāṇā, 'calling himself Gautama'.

1274. Compounds with derivatives in the have (like combinations with the prefixes: 1157.1d) the accent of the prior member.

Examples are: dhânasāti, 'winning of wealth', sómapīti, 'soma-drinking', devâhūti, 'invocation of the gods', nâmaükti, 'utterance of homage', havyādāti, 'presentation of offerings'.

In nemádhiti, medhásāti, vanádhiti (all RV.), the accent of the prior member is changed from penult to final.

Where the verbal character of the derivative is lost, the general rule of final accent (1267) is followed: thus, devahetí, 'weapon of the gods', devasumatí, 'favor of the gods'.

In $sarvajy\bar{a}nt$, 'loss of everything', the accent is that of compounds with ordinary nouns.

1275. Compounds with a derivative in in as final member have (as in all other cases) the accent on the in.

Thus, ukthaçansın, 'psalm-singing', vratacārın, 'vow-performing', rṣabha-dāyın, 'bullock-giving', satyavādın, 'truth-speaking', cronipratodın, 'thigh-pounding'.

1276. There is a group of compounds with derivatives in i, having the accent on the penult or radical syllable.

Thus, pathiráksi. 'road-protecting', havirmáthi, 'sacrifice-disturbing', ātmadási, 'soul-harming', pathisádi, 'sitting in the path', sahobhári, 'strength-bearing', vasuváni, 'winning good things', dhanasáni, 'gaining wealth'; and, from reduplicated root, urucákri, 'making room'.

Compounds with -sani and -vani are especially frequent in Veda and Brāhmaṇa. As independent words, nouns, these are accented sani and vani. Combinations with prefixes do not occur in sufficient numbers to establish a distinct rule, but they appear to be oftenest accented on the suffix $(1155.2 \, d)$.

From $\gamma'han$ are made in composition -ghni and -ghni, with accent on the ending: thus, sahasraghni, ahighni, cvaghni; -dhi from $\gamma'dh\bar{a}$ (1155.2e) has the accent in its numerous compounds: thus, isudhi, garbhadhi, puchadhi: δ_{sadhi} and puramdhi are probably of other derivation.

1277. Compounds with derivatives in van have (like combinations with prefixes: 1169.1b) the accent of the final member — namely, on the radical syllable.

Thus, somapávan, 'soma-drinking', baladávan, 'strength-giving', pāpa-kṛtvan, 'evil-doing', bahusávan, 'much-yielding', talpaçīvan, 'lying on a couch', drusádvan, 'sitting on a tree', agrétvarī, f., 'going at the head'.

- a. The accent of the (somewhat obscure) words $m\bar{a}tar\ell cvan$ and $m\bar{a}tar\ell bhvan$ is anomalous.
 - b. The few compounds with final man appear to follow the same rule

as those with van: thus, svādukṣádman, 'sharing out sweets', āçuhéman, 'steed-impelling'.

1278. Compounds with other derivatives, of rare or sporadic occurrence, may be briefly noticed: thus, in u, rūṣṭradipsū, devapīyū, govindū, vanargū (?): compare 1178 d; — in nu or tnu, tokakṛṭnū, surūpakṛṭnū: compare 1196; — in tṛ, nṛpātṛ́, mandhūṭṝ, haskartṛ́ (vasudhátaras, AV., is doubtless a false reading). The derivatives in as are of infrequent occurrence in composition (as in combination with prefixes: above, 1151.4), and appear to be treated as ordinary nouns: thus, yajñavacās (but hiranyatējas, AV.).

B. Descriptive Compounds.

1279. In this division of the class of determinatives, the prior member stands to the other in no distinct case-relation, but qualifies it adjectively or adverbially, according as it (the final member) is noun or adjective.

Examples are: nīlotpala, 'blue lotus', sarvaguṇa, 'all good quality', priyasakha, 'dear friend', maharṣt, 'great sage', rajata-pātra, 'silver cup'; djñāta, 'unknown', súkṛta, 'well done', duṣkṛt, 'ill-doing', puruṣṭuta, 'much praised', punarṇava, 'renewed'.

- a. The prior member is not always an adjective before a noun, and an adverb before an adjective; other parts of speech are sometimes used adjectively and adverbially in that position.
- b. The boundary between descriptive and dependent compounds is not an absolute one; in certain cases it is open to question, for instance, whether a prior noun, or adjective with noun-value, is used more in a case-relation, or adverbially.
- c. Moreover, where the final member is a derivative having both noun and adjective value, it is not seldom doubtful whether an adjective compound is to be regarded as descriptive, made with final adjective, or possessive, made with final noun. Sometimes the accent of the word determines its character in this respect, but not always.

A satisfactorily simple and perspicuous classification of the descriptive compounds is not practicable; we cannot hold apart throughout the compounds of noun and of adjective value, but may better group both together, as they appear with prefixed elements of various kinds.

1280. The simplest case is that in which a noun as final member is preceded by a qualifying adjective as prior member.

In this combination, both noun and adjective may be of any kind. The accent is (as in the corresponding class of dependent noun-compounds: 1267) on the final syllable.

Thus, ajñātayakṣmá, 'unknown disease', mahādhaná, 'great

wealth', kṛṣṇaçakuni, 'black bird', dakṣṇāgni, 'southern fire', urukṣiti, 'wide abode', adharahanu, 'lower jaw', itarajana, 'other folks', sarvātman, 'whole soul', ekavīra, 'sole hero', saptarṣi, 'seven sages', ekonavinçati, 'a score diminished by one', jāgratsvapna, 'waking sleep', yāvayatsakha, 'defending friend'.

- a. There are some exceptions as regards accent. Especially, compounds with viçva (in composition, accented viçva), which itself retains the accent: thus, viçvadevās, 'all the gods', viçvamānusa, 'every man'. For words in ti, see below, 1287 d. Sporadic cases are madhyandina, vṛṣakapi, both of which show an irregular shift of tone in the prior member; and a few others.
- b. Instead of an adjective, the prior member is in a few cases a noun used appositionally, or with a quasi-adjective value. Thus, $r\bar{a}jayakşma$, 'king-disease', brahmarşi, 'priest-sage', $r\bar{a}jarqsi$, 'king-sage', $r\bar{a}jadanta$, 'king-tooth', devajana, 'god-folk', duhitr-jana, 'daughter-person', $cam\bar{a}lat\bar{a}$, 'creeper named $cam\bar{a}$, 'jayacabda, 'the word "conquer"', ujjhitacabda, 'the word "deserted"'.

This group is of consequence, inasmuch as in possessive application it is greatly extended, and forms a numerous class of appositional compounds: see below, 1302.

- c. This whole subdivision, of nouns with preceding qualifying adjectives, is not uncommon; but it is greatly (in AV., for example, more than five times) exceeded in frequency by the sub-class of possessives of the same form: see below, 1298.
- 1281. The adverbial words which are most freely and commonly used as prior members of compounds, qualifying the final member, are the verbal prefixes and the words of direction related with them, and the inseparable prefixes, a or an, su, dus, etc. (1121). These are combined not only with adjectives, but also, in quasi-adjectival value, with nouns; and the two classes of combinations will best be treated together.
- 1282. Verbal adjectives and nouns with preceding adverbs. As the largest and most important class under this head might properly enough be regarded the derivatives with preceding verbal prefixes. These, however, have been here reckoned rather as derivatives from roots combined with prefixes (1141), and have been treated under the head of derivation, in the preceding chapter. In taking up the others, we will begin with the participles.
- 1283. The participles belonging to the tense-systems those in ant (or at), māna, āna, vāns are only very rarely

compounded with any other adverbial element than the negative a or an, which then takes the accent.

Examples are: ánadant, ádadat, ánaçnant, ásravant, álubhyant, ádāsyant, áditsant, ádevayant; ámanyamāna, áhinsāna, áchidyamāna; ádadivāns, ábibhīvāns; and, with verbal prefixes, ánapasphurant, ánāgamisyant, ávirādhayant, ávicācalat, ápratimanyūyamāna.

- a. Exceptions in regard to accent are very few: arundhati, ajaranti, acodant (RV., once: doubtless a false reading; the simple participle is codant); AV. has anipadyamāna for RV. anipadyamāna (and the published text has asanyant, with a part of the MSS.).
- b. Of other compounds than with the negative prefix have been noted in the Veda -punard $\bar{\imath}yam\bar{a}na$ (in apunard-) and $suvidv\bar{a}ns$. In $alal\bar{u}bh\bar{u}vant$ and $janjan\bar{u}bh\bar{u}vant$ (RV.), as in $astamy\bar{u}nt$ and $astamesy\bar{u}nt$ (AV.), we have participles of a compound conjugation (1091), in which, as has been pointed out, the accent is as in combinations with the verbal prefixes.
- 1284. The passive (or past) participle in ta or na is much more variously compounded, and in general (as in the case of the verbal prefixes: 1085 a) the preceding adverbial element has the accent.

Thus, with the negative a or an (by far the most common case): åkṛta, ådabdha, åriṣṭa, ånādkṛṣṭa, åparājita, åsamkhyāta, ånabhyārūḍha; — with su, sūjāta, sūhuta, sūsamcita, svòramkṛta; — with dus, dūccarita, dūrdhita and dūrhita; — with other adverbial words, dānsujūta, nāvajāta, sānacruta, svayāmkṛta, tripratiṣṭhita: āramkṛta and kakajākṛta are rather participles of a compound conjugation.

- a. Exceptions in regard to accent are: with a or an, anāçastā, apraçastā, and, with the accent of the participle retracted to the root, amṛta, adṛṣṭa, acɛtta, ayūta 'myriad', atūrta (beside átūrta), asūrta (?beside sūrta); with su (nearly half as numerous as the regular cases), subhūtā, sūktā, supraçastā, svākta, sukṛtā and sujātā (beside sūkṛta and sújāta), and a few others; with dus (quite as numerous as the regular cases), duritā, duruktā, duṣkṛtā, durbhūtā; with sa, sajātā; with other adverbs, amotā, ariṣṭutā, tuvijātā, prācīnopavītā, and the compounds with puru, purujūtā, puruprajātā, purupraçastā, puruṣṭutā, etc. The proper name aṣāḍhā stands beside áṣāḍha; and AV. has abhinnā for RV. ābhinna.
- 1285. The gerundives occur almost only in combination with the negative prefix, and have usually the accent on the final syllable.

Examples are: anāpyá, anindyá, asahyá, ayodhyá, amokyá; advisenyá; ahnavāyyá; and, along with verbal prefixes, the cases are asamkhyeyá, apramṛṣyá, anapavṛjyá, anatyudyá, anādhṛṣyá, avimokyá, anānukṛtyá (the accent of the simple word being samkhyéya etc.).

a. Exceptions in regard to accent are: ånedya, ådābhya, ågohya, åjosya, åyabhya. The two anavadharsyà and anativyādhyà (both AV.) belong to the

 $y\dot{a}$ -division (1213b) of gerundives, and have retained the accent of the simple word. And aghnya and aghnya occur together.

b. The only compounds of these words with other adverbial elements in V. are súyabhya (accented like its twin úyabhya) and prathamavāsyà (which retains the final circumflex), and perhaps ekavādyá.

c. The neuter nouns of the same form (1213c: except sadhástutya) retain their own accent after an adverbial prior member: thus, purvapáyya, pūrvapéya, amutrabhúya; and sahacéyya. And the negatived gerundives instanced above are capable of being viewed as possessive compounds with such nouns.

Some of the other verbal derivatives which have rules of their own as to accent etc. may be next noticed.

1286. The root-stem (pure root, or with t added after a short final vowel: 1147) is very often combined with a preceding adverbial word, of various kinds; and in the combination it retains the accent.

Examples are: with inseparable prefixes, $adr\hat{u}h$, 'not harming', $as\hat{u}$, 'not giving birth', $ar\hat{u}c$, 'not shining'; $suk\dot{r}t$, 'well-doing', $sucr\hat{u}t$, 'hearing well'; $dusk\dot{r}t$, 'ill-doing', $d\bar{u}d\dot{a}c$ (199 b), 'impious'; $say\hat{u}j$, 'joining together', $sam\hat{u}d$, 'conflict'; $sahaj\hat{a}$, 'born together', $sahav\hat{u}h$, 'carrying together'; — with other adverbs, $am\bar{a}j\hat{u}r$, 'growing old at home', $uparisp\dot{r}c$, 'touching upward', $punarbh\hat{u}$, 'appearing again', $pr\bar{u}tary\hat{u}j$, 'harnessed early', $sadyahkr\dot{r}$, 'bought the same day', $s\bar{u}kam\dot{v}\dot{r}dh$, 'growing up together', sadamdt, 'ever-binding', $vis\bar{u}v\dot{r}t$, 'turning to both sides', $vrth\bar{u}s\dot{u}h$, 'easily overcoming'; — with adjectives used adverbially, $uruvy\dot{u}c$, 'wide-spreading', $prathamaj\dot{u}$, 'first-born', $raghusy\dot{u}d$, 'swift-moving', $navas\dot{u}$, 'newly giving birth', $ekaj\dot{u}$, 'only born', cukraptc, 'brightly adorned', $dvij\dot{u}$, 'twice born', $triv\dot{r}t$, 'triple', $svar\dot{u}j$, 'self-ruling'; — with nouns used adverbially, $cambh\dot{u}$, 'beneficent', $s\bar{u}ryacv\dot{u}t$, 'shining like the sun', $\bar{v}c\bar{u}nak\dot{r}t$, 'acting as lord', $svayambh\dot{u}$, 'self-existent'; and, with accusative case-form, $patamy\dot{u}$, 'going by flight'.

- a. When, however, a root-stem is already in composition, whether with a verbal prefix or an element of other character, the further added negative itself takes the accent (as in case of an ordinary adjective: below, 1288 a): thus, for example, $\hat{a}n\bar{a}vrt$, 'not turning back', $\hat{a}vidvis$, 'not showing hostility', $\hat{a}duskrt$, 'not ill-doing', $\hat{a}nacvad\bar{a}$, 'not giving a horse', $\hat{a}pacuhan$, 'not slaying cattle' $(an\bar{a}g\dot{a}s$ would be an exception, if it contained $\sqrt{y}g\bar{a}$: which is very unlikely). Similar combinations with su seem to retain the radical accent: thus, $suprat\hat{u}r$, $sv\bar{a}bh\dot{u}$, $sv\bar{a}y\dot{u}j$: $sv\dot{a}vrj$ is an unsupported exception.
- b. A few other exceptions occur, mostly of doubtful character, as sadh-astha, adhrigu, and the words having añc as final member (407 ff.: if this element is not, after all, a suffix).
- 1287. Other verbal derivatives, requiring to be treated apart from the general body of adjectives, are few and of minor importance. Thus:

- . a. The derivatives in a are in great part of doubtful character, because of the possibility of their being used with substantive value to make a possessive compound. The least ambiguous, probably, are the derivatives from present-stems (1148.3b), which have the accent on the suffix: thus, asunvá, apacyá, aksudhyá, avidasyá, anāmṛná, sadāpṛná, punarmanyá; and with them belong such cases as atṛpá, avṛdhá, aramgamá, urukramá, evāvadá, satrāsahá, punahsará, purahsará; and the nouns sāyambhavá, sahacārá, prātahsāvá, mithoyodhá. Differently accented, on the other hand, although apparently of the same formation, are such as ánapasphura, ánavahvara (compare the compounds noticed at 1286a), sadávṛdha, sábharva, nyagródha, purodáca, sadhamáda, and others. Words like adábha, durhána, sukára, are probably possessives.
- b. The derivatives in van keep in general the accent of the final member, on the root (compare 1169.1b, 1277): thus, $\bar{a}_{c}up\acute{a}tvan$, 'swift-flying', puroy\'avan, 'going in front', sukftvan, 'well-doing'; and sut\^arman and suv\^ahman are probably to be classed with them. But the negative prefix has the accent even before these: thus, $\acute{a}yajvan$, $\acute{a}r\bar{a}van$, $\acute{a}prayutvan$; and $saty\^amadvan$ (if it be not possessive) has the accent of its prior member.
- c. A few words in i seem to have (as in dependent compounds: 1276) the accent on the radical syllable: thus, durgibhi, rjuváni, tuvisváni.
- d. The derivatives in ti are variously treated: the negative prefix has always the accent before them: as &acitti, $\&abhar{u}ti$, $\&anar{u}har{u}ti$; with su and dus, the compound is accented now on the prefix and now on the final, and in some words on both $(s\&anar{u}ti)$ and $sunar{u}ti$, d&stuti and dustuti; with other elements, the accent of the prefix prevails: thus, s&ahuti, sadh&stuti, pur&ahiti, $p\ar{u}r\&ahiti$, $p\ar{u}r\&ahi$
- e. The derivatives in in have, as in general, the accent on the suffix: thus, $p\bar{u}rv\bar{u}sin$, $bahuc\bar{u}rin$, $s\bar{u}dhudevin$, $sav\bar{u}sin$, $keval\bar{u}din$. But, with the negative prefix, $an\bar{u}min$, $avit\bar{u}rin$.
- f. Other combinations are too various in treatment, or are represented by too few examples in accentuated texts, to justify the setting up of rules respecting them.
- 1288. Of the remaining combinations, those made with the inseparable prefixes form in some measure a class by themselves.
- a. The negative prefix a or an, when it directly negatives the word to which it is added, has a very decided tendency to take the accent.

We have seen above (1283) that it does so even in the case of present and perfect and future participles, although these in combination with a verbal prefix retain their own accent (1085); and also in the case of a root-stem, if this be already compounded with another element (1286a). And the same is true of its other combinations.

Thus, with various adjective words: átandra, ádabhra, ádāçuri, ánṛju, ádevayu, átṛṣṇaj, átavyāns, ánāmin, ádvayūvin, ápracetas, ánapatyavant, ánupadasvant, ápramāyuka, ámamri, áprajajñi, ávidīdhayu, ánagnidagdha,

 $\acute{a}k\ddot{a}makarçana$, $\acute{a}pacc\ddot{a}ddaghvan$. Further, with nouns, $\acute{a}pati$, $\acute{a}kum\ddot{a}ra$, $\acute{a}br\ddot{a}hmana$, $\acute{a}vidy\ddot{a}$, $\acute{a}craddh\ddot{a}$, $\acute{a}vr\ddot{a}tya$.

But there are a number of exceptions, in which the accent is on the final syllable, without regard to the original accentuation of the final member: thus, for example, acitrá, acrīrá, aviprá, ayajñiyá, anāsmāká, asthūrí, anāçá, ajarayá, anāmayitná; and in amītra, 'enemy', and avīra, 'unmanly', there is a retraction of the accent from the final syllable of the final member to its penult.

b. The prefixes su and dus have this tendency in a much less degree, and their compounds are very variously accented, now on the prefix, now on the final syllable, now on the accented syllable of the final member.

Thus, for example, súbhadra, súvipra, súpakva, súbrāhmana, súbhiṣaj; sutīrthá, suvasaná, suṣārathí, supāçá, sucitrá; suçéva, suhótr: suvira is like avira; — durmitrá, duṣvápnya; and duchúnā (168), with irregular retraction of accent (cuná).

- c. The compounds with sa are too few to furnish occasion for separate mention; and those with the interrogative prefix in its various forms are also extremely rare in the Veda: examples are kucará, katpayá, kábandha, kunannamá, kumārá, káyava, kuṣáva.
- 1289. The verbal prefixes are sometimes used in a general adverbial way, qualifying a following adjective or noun.
- a. Examples of such combinations are not numerous in the Veda. Their accentuation is various, though the tone rests oftenest on the preposition. Thus, $\hat{a}dhipati$, 'over-lord', $\hat{a}par\bar{u}pa$, 'mis-form', $pr\hat{a}ticatru$, 'opposing foe', $pr\hat{a}pada$, 'fore part of foot', $pr\hat{a}nap\bar{a}t$, 'great-grandchild', vipakva, 'quite done', $s\hat{a}mpriya$, 'mutually dear'; $upajfhvik\bar{u}$, 'side tongue' (with retraction of the accent of $jihv\hat{a}$); $antardec\hat{a}$, 'intermediate direction', pradiv, 'forward heaven', $prapit\bar{a}mah\hat{a}$ (also $pr\hat{a}pit\bar{a}maha$), 'great-grandfather', $pratijan\hat{a}$, 'opponent', $vyadhv\hat{a}$, 'midway'. These compounds are more frequent with possessive value (below, 1305).
- b. This use of the verbal prefixes is more common later, and some of them have a regular value in such compounds. Thus, ati denotes excess, as in atidūra, 'very far', atibhaya, 'exceeding fear', âtipūruṣa (ÇB.), 'chief man'; adhi, superiority, as in adhidanta, 'upper tooth', adhistrī, 'chief woman'; ā signifies 'somewhat', as in ākuṭila, 'somewhat crooked', ānīla, 'bluish'; upa denotes something accessory or secondary, as in upapurāna, 'additional Purāna'; pari, excess, as in paridurbala, 'very weak'; prati, opposition, as in pratipakṣa, 'opposing side', pratipustaka, 'copy'; vi, variation or excess, as in vidūra, 'very far', vipāndu, 'greyish', vikṣudra, 'respectively small'; sam, completeness, as in sampakva, 'quite ripe'.
- 1290. Other compounds with adverbial prior members are quite irregularly accented.

Thus, the compounds with puru, on the final (compare the participles

with puru, 1284 a): as, purudasmá, purupriyá, puruçcandrá; those with púnar, on the prior member, as púnarnava, púnarvasu; those with satás, satīná, satyá, the same, as satómahant, satīnámanyu, satyámugra; a few combinations of nouns in tr and ana with adverbs akin with the prefixes, on the final syllable, as puraëti, purahsthūti, uparicayaná, prūtahsavaná; and miscellaneous cases are mithóävadyapa, háricandra, álpacayu, sūdhvaryá, and yūchresthá and yūváchresthá.

1291. The adjective $p\bar{u}rva$ is in the later language frequently used as final member of a compound in which its logical value is that of an adverb qualifying the other member (which is said to retain its own accent). Thus, $drstap\bar{u}rva$, 'previously seen', $parin\bar{\iota}tap\bar{u}rva$, 'already married', $somap\bar{\iota}tap\bar{u}rva$, 'having formerly drunk soma', $str\bar{\iota}p\bar{u}rva$, 'formerly a woman'.

III. Secondary Adjective Compounds.

1292. A compound having a noun as its final member very often wins secondarily the value of an adjective, being inflected in the three genders to agree with the noun which it qualifies, and used in all the constructions of an adjective.

This class of compounds, as was pointed out above (1247.III.), falls into the two divisions of A. Possessives, having their adjective character given them by addition of the idea of 'possessing'; and B. those in which the final member is syntactically dependent on or governed by the prior member.

A. Possessive Compounds.

1293. The possessives are noun-compounds of the preceding class, determinatives, of all its various subdivisions, to which is given an adjective inflection, and which take on an adjective meaning of a kind which is most conveniently and accurately defined by adding 'having' or 'possessing' to the meaning of the determinative.

Thus: the dependent $s\bar{u}ryatej\acute{a}s$, 'sun's brightness', becomes the possessive $s\acute{u}ryatej\acute{a}s$, 'possessing the brightness of the sun'; $yaj\~{n}ak\bar{a}m\acute{a}$, 'desire of sacrifice', becomes $yaj\~{n}\acute{a}k\bar{a}ma$, 'having desire of sacrifice'; the descriptive $b_Thadratha$, 'great chariot', be-

comes the possessive bṛhádratha, 'having great chariots', áhasta, 'not hand', becomes ahastá, 'handless', durgandhi, 'ill savor', becomes durgándhi, 'of ill savor'; and so on.

- a. Compounds of the copulative class do not appear to assume a possessive value unless (as has been suggested with some plausibility) we are to regard those of singular collective form as neuters of secondary adjectives.
- b. The name given by the native grammarians to the possessive compounds is bahuvrīhi: the word is an example of the class, meaning 'possessing much rice'.
- c. The name "relative", instead of possessive, sometimes applied to this class, is evidently not to be approved; since, though the meaning of such a compound (as of any attributive word) is easily cast into a relative form, its essential character lies in the possessive verb which has nevertheless to be added, or in the possessive case of the relative which must be used: thus, brhádratha, 'who has a great chariot', or 'whose is a great chariot'.
- 1294. That a noun, simple or compound, should be added to another noun, in an appositive way, with a value virtually attributive, and that such nouns should occasionally gain by frequent association and application an adjective form also, is natural enough, and common in many languages; the peculiarity of the Sanskrit formation lies in two things. First, that such use should have become a perfectly regular and indefinitely extensible one in the case of compounded words, so that any compound with noun-final may be turned without alteration into an adjective, while to a simple noun must be added an adjective-making suffix in order to adapt it to adjective use: for example, that while hasta must become hastin and $b\bar{a}hu$ must become bāhumant, hiraņyahasta and mahābāhu change from noun to adjective value with no added ending. And second, that the relation of the qualified noun to the compound should have come to be so generally that of possession, not of likeness, nor of appurtenance, nor of any other relation which is as naturally involved in such a construction: that we may only say, for example, mahābāhuh purusah, 'man with great arms', and not also mahābāhur manih, 'jewel for a great arm', or mahābāhavaḥ çākhāḥ, 'branches like great arms'.

There is, however, in the older language a little group of derivative adjectives involving the relation of appurtenance rather than of possession: thus, $viçv\acute{a}nara$, 'of or for all men, belonging to all'; and so $viçv\acute{a}krsti$, $viçv\acute{a}carsani$; also $viçv\acute{a}c\bar{a}rada$, 'of every autumn', $vipath\acute{a}$, 'for bad roads', $dvir\ddot{a}j\acute{a}$, '[battle] of two kings'. And some of the so-called dvigu-compounds, as dvigu itself in the adjective sense 'worth two cows', $dvin\ddot{a}u$, 'bought for two ships' (1312), may be compared with them (compare also the words in ana, 1296, end). It is at least open to question whether these are not survivals of an application independent of the possessive, and originally of an equal rank with it, rather than instances of a possessive modified to its opposite.

1295. The possessive compound is distinguished from its substrate, the determinative, generally by a difference of accent.

This difference is not of the same nature in all the divisions of the class; but oftenest, the possessive has as a compound the natural accent of its prior member (as in most of the examples given above).

1296. Possessively used dependent compounds, or possessive dependents, are very much less common than those corresponding to the other division of determinatives.

Further examples are: mayūraroman, 'having the plumes of peacocks', agnitejas, 'having the brightness of fire', jnatimukha, 'wearing the aspect of relatives', pátikāma, 'desiring a husband', hastipāda, 'having an elephant's feet'.

The accent is, as in the examples given, regularly that of the prior member, and exceptions are few and of doubtful character. A few compounds with derivatives in ana have the accent of the final member: thus, indrapana, 'serving as drink for Indra', devasadana, 'serving as seat for the gods', rayisthana, 'being source of wealth'; but they contain no implication of possession, and are perhaps in character, as in accent (1271), dependent. Also a few in as, as nrcaksas, 'men-beholding', nrvahas, 'men-bearing', ksetrasadhas, 'field-prospering', are probably to be judged in the same way.

1297. Possessively used descriptive compounds, or possessive descriptives, are extremely numerous and of every variety of character; and some kinds of combination which are rare in proper descriptive use are very common as possessives.

They will be taken up below in order, according to the character of the prior member — whether the noun-final be preceded by a qualifying adjective, or noun, or adverb.

- 1298. Possessive compounds in which a noun is preceded by a qualifying ordinary adjective are (as pointed out above, $1280\,c$) very much more common than descriptives of the same form.
- a. They regularly and usually have the accent of their prior member: thus, anyárūpa, 'of other form', ugrábāhu, 'having powerful arms', jīváputra, 'having living sons', dīrgháçmaçru, 'longbearded', bṛháchravas, 'of great renown', bhárimūla, 'many-rooted', mahávadha, 'bearing a great weapon', viçvárūpa, 'having all forms', çukrávarna, 'of bright color', çivábhimarçana, 'of propitious touch', satyásamdha, 'of true promises', sárvānga, 'whole-limbed', sváyaças, 'having own glory', háritasraj, 'wearing yellow garlands'.
- b. Exceptions, however, in regard to accent are not rare (a seventh or eighth of the whole number, perhaps). Thus, the accent is sometimes that

of the final member; especially with derivatives in as, as tuvirádhas, purupéças, pṛthupákṣas, and others in which (as above, 1296, end) a determinative
character may be suspected: thus, urujráyas beside urujrí, uruvyácas beside
uruvyác, and so on; but also with those of other final, as rjuhásta, citikákṣa,
kṛṣnakáṛṇa, citradṛcīka/tuviçūṣma, rjukrátu, pṛthupárçu, puruvártman, raghuyáman, vīdupátman. In a very few cases, the accent is retracted from the
final to the first syllable of the second member: thus, anhubhéda, tuvigrīva,
puruvīra, pururūpa, citibáhu (also citibāhū). The largest class is that of
compounds which take the accent upon their final syllable (in part, of course,
not distinguishable from that of those which retain the accent of the final
member): for example, bahvanná, nīlanakhá, puruputrá, viçvūngá, svapatí,
tuvipratí, pṛṣṇiparnī f., darçataṣrī, pūtirajjū, asitajñū, pṛthugmān, bahuprajās.

- c. The adjective $v\ell cva$, 'all', as prior member of a compound (and also in derivation), changes its accent regularly to vicva; sarva, 'whole, all', does the same in a few cases.
- 1299. Possessive compounds with a participle preceding and qualifying the final noun-member are numerous, although such a compound with simple descriptive value is almost unknown.

The accent is, with few exceptions, that of the prior member.

a. The participle is oftenest the passive one, in ta or na. Thus, chinnapakṣa, 'with severed wing', dhṛtārāṣṭra, 'of firmly held royalty', hatā-māṭr, 'whose mother is slain', iddhāgni, 'whose fire is kindled', uttānāhasta, 'with outstretched hand', prāyatadakṣṭṇa, 'having presented sacrificial gifts'; and, with prefixed negative, āriṣṭavīra, 'whose men are unharmed', ātaptatanu, 'of unburned substance', ānabhimlātavarṇa, 'of untarnished color'.

Exceptions in regard to accent are very few: there have been noticed only paryastākså, $vyastakes^i_t$ f., achinnaparnå.

- b. A few examples occur of a present participle in the same situation. In about half the instances, it gives its own accent to the compound: thus, dyutádyāman, dhṛṣádvarṇa etc., cucádratha, rúcadvatsa etc., bhrájajjanman etc., saṃyádvīra, stanáyadama, sádhadiṣti; in the others, the accent is drawn forward to the final syllable of the participle (as in the compounds with governing participle: below, 1309): thus, dravátpāṇi etc. (dravát also occurs as adverb), rapṣádūdhan, svanádratha, arcáddhūma, bhandádiṣti, krandádiṣti. With these last agrees in form jarádaṣti, 'attaining old age, long-lived'; but its make-up, in view of its meaning, is anomalous.
- c. The RV. has two compounds with the perfect middle participle as prior member: thus, $yuyuj\bar{a}n\acute{a}sapti$, 'with harnessed coursers' (perhaps rather 'having harnessed their coursers'), and $dadr_c\bar{a}n\acute{a}pavi$ (with regular accent, instead of $d\acute{a}dr_c\bar{a}na$, as elsewhere irregularly in this participle), 'with conspicuous wheel-rims'.
- d. Of a nearly participial character is the prior element in crátkarna (RV.), 'of listening ear'; and with this are perhaps accordant $d\vec{i}dyagni$ and $sth\vec{a}racman$ (RV., each once).

- 1300. Possessive compounds having a numeral as prior member are very common, and for the most part follow the same rule of accent which is followed by compounds with other adjectives: excepted are in general those beginning with dvi and tri, which accent the final member.
- a. Examples with other numerals than dvi and tri are: ékacakra, ékaçīrṣan, ékapad, cáturan̄ga, cátuṣpakṣa, pán̄cān̄guri, pán̄cāudana, ṣáḍaçva, ṣáṭpad, saptájihva, saptámātr, aṣṭápad, aṣṭáputra, návapad, návadvāra, dáçaçākha, dáçaçīrṣan, dvádaçāra, trinçádara, çatáparvan, çatádant, sahásranāman, sahásramūla.
- b. Exceptions in regard to accent are but few, and have the tone on the final syllable, whatever may be that belonging originally to the final member; they are mostly stems in final a, used by substitution for others in an, i, or a consonant: thus, caturakṣā etc. (akṣān or ākṣi: 431), ṣaḍahā etc. (āhan or āhar: 430a), daçavṛṣā etc. (vṛṣan), ekarātrā etc. (rātrī or rātrī), ekarcā etc. (rɔ́c); but also a few others, as ṣaḍyogā, aṣṭāyogā, catārghā, sahasrārghā, ekaparā(?).
- c. The compounds with dvi and tri for the most part have the accent of their final member: thus, for example, dvijanman, dvidhara, dvibandhu, dvivartani, dvipad, tritantu, trinabhi, tricoka, trivarutha, tricakra, tricoka, tricoka, trivarutha, tricoka, t
- d. The neuter, or also the feminine, of numeral compounds is often used substantively, with a collective or abstract value, and the accent is then regularly on the final syllable: see below, 1312.
- 1301. Possessive compounds having as prior member a noun which has a quasi-adjective value in qualifying the final member are very frequent, and show certain specialities of usage.

Least peculiar is a noun of material as prior member (hardly to be reckoned as regular possessive dependents, because the relation of material is not expressed by a case): thus, htranyahasta, 'gold-handed', htranyasraj, 'with golden garlands', âyaḥsthūṇa, 'having brazen supports', rajatānābhi, 'of silver navel'.

- 1302. Especially common is the use of a noun as prior member to qualify the other appositionally, or by way of equivalence (the occasional occurrence of determinatives of this character has been noticed above, 1280b). These may conveniently be called appositional possessives. Their accent is that of the prior member, like the ordinary possessive descriptives.
 - a. Examples are: acvaparna, 'horse-winged', or 'having horses as wings'

(said of a chariot), bhúmigṛha, 'having the earth as house', indrasakhi, 'having Indra for friend', agnihotṛ, 'having Agni as priest', gandharvapatnī, 'having a Gandharva for spouse', cūráputra, 'having hero-sons', jarámṛtyu, 'having old age as mode of death, living till old age', agnivāsas, 'fire-clad', tadanta, 'ending with that', cūracakṣus, 'using spies for eyes', viṣnuçarmanāman, 'named Vishnuçarman'; and, with pronoun instead of noun, tvādūta, 'having thee as nessenger', tādapas, 'having this for work'.

Exceptions in regard to accent occur here, as in the more regular descriptive formation: thus, agnijihvā, vṛṣaṇaçvā, dhūmaçikhā, pavīnasā, etc.

- b. Not infrequently, a substantively used adjective is the final member in such a compound: thus, indrajvestha, 'having Indra as chief', minal sastha, 'having the mind as sixth', somacrestha, 'of which soma is best', ekapara, 'of which the ace is highest' (?), asthibhūyas, 'having bone as the larger part, chiefly of bone', abhirūpabhūyistha, 'chiefly composed of worthy persons', daçāvara, 'having ten as the lowest number', cintāpara, 'having meditation as highest object or occupation, devoted to meditation', niḥçvāsaparama, 'much addicted to sighing'.
- c. Certain words are of especial frequency in the compounds here described, and have in part won a peculiar application.
- 1. Thus, with ādi or ādika or ādya, 'first', are made compounds signifying the person or thing designated along with others, such a person or thing et cetera. For example, devā indrādayaḥ, 'the gods having Indra as first', that is, 'the gods Indra etc.', marīcyādīn munīn, 'Marici and the other sages', svāyambhuvādyāḥ saptāi 'te manavaḥ, 'those seven Manus, Svayambhuva etc.', agnistomādhikān makhān, 'the sacrifices Agnishtoma and so on'. Or the qualified noun is omitted, as in annapānendhanādīni, 'food, drink, fuel, etc.', dānadharmādikah caratu bhavān, 'let your honor practise liberality, religious rites, and the like'. The particles evam and iti are also sometimes used by substitution as prior members: thus, evamādi vacanam, 'words to this and the like effect'; ato 'ham bravīmi kartavyaḥ samcayo nityam ityādi, 'hence I say "accumulation is ever to be made" etc.'

Used in much the same way, but less often, is prabhrti, 'beginning': thus, viçvāvasuprabhrtibhir gandharvāiḥ, 'with the Gandharvas Viçvavasu etc.'; especially adverbially, in measurements of space and time, as tatprabhrti, 'thenceforward'.

- 2. Words like pūrva, pūrvaka, purahsara, purogama, meaning 'foregoer, predecessor', are employed in a similar manner, and especially adverbially, to denote accompaniment.
- 3. The noun $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$, 'measure', stands as final of a compound which is used adjectively or in the substantive neuter to signify a limit that is not exceeded, and obtains thus the virtual value of 'mere, only': thus, jalamātreṇa vartayan, 'living by water only' (lit'ly, 'by that which has water for its measure or limit'), garbhacyutimātreṇa, 'by merely issuing from the womb', prāṇayātrikamātraḥ syāt, 'let him be one possessing what does not exceed the preservation of life'; uktamātre tu vacane, 'but the words being merely uttered'.

- 4. The noun artha, 'object, purpose', is used at the end of a compound, oftenest in the substantive neuter, to signify 'for the sake of' or the like: thus, yajñasiddhyartham, 'in order to the accomplishment of the sacrifice', damayantyartham, 'for Damayanti's sake'.
- 5. Other examples are $\bar{a}bh\bar{a}$, kalpa, in the sense of 'like, approaching': thus, $hem\bar{a}bha$, 'gold-like', mrtakalpa, 'nearly dead', pratipannakalpa, 'almost accomplished'; $vidh\bar{a}$, in the sense of 'kind, sort': thus, tvadvidha, 'of thy sort', $p\bar{u}rusavidha$, 'of human kind'; $pr\bar{a}ya$, in the sense of 'mostly, often', and the like: thus, $duhkhapr\bar{a}ya$, 'full of pain', $trnapr\bar{a}ya$, 'abounding in grass', $nirgamanapr\bar{a}ya$, 'often going out'; antara (in substantive neuter), in the sense of 'other': thus, $dec\bar{u}ntara$, 'another region' (lit'ly, 'that which has a difference of region'), $janm\bar{a}ntar\bar{a}ni$, 'other existences', $c\bar{a}kh\bar{a}ntare$, 'in another text'.

1303. In appositional possessive compounds, the second member, if it designates a part of the body, sometimes logically signifies that part to which what is designated by the prior member belongs, that on or in which it is.

Thus, ghṛtápṛṣtha, 'butter-backed', mádhujihva, 'honey-tongued', niská-grīva and manigrīva, 'necklace-necked', pátrahasta, 'vessel-handed', vájra-bāhu, 'lightning-armed', āṣṛāmukha, 'blood-faced', kīlálodhan, 'mead-uddered', vájajathara, 'sacrifice-bellied'; with irregular accent, dhūmākṣī f., 'smoke-eyed', açrumukhī f., 'tear-faced'; and khádihasta, 'ring-handed' (khādt). In the later language, such compounds are not infrequent with words meaning 'hand': thus, çastrapāṇi, 'having a sword in the hand', lagudahasta, 'carrying a staff'.

- 1304. Of possessive compounds having an adverbial element as prior member, the most numerous by far are those made with the inseparable prefixes. Their accent is various. Thus:
- a. In compounds with the negative prefix a or an (in which the latter logically negatives the imported idea of possession), the accent is prevailingly on the final syllable, without regard to the original accent of the final member. For example: anantâ, 'having no end', abalâ, 'not possessing strength', arathâ, 'without chariot', acraddhâ, 'faithless', amant, 'without ornament', acatrâ, 'without a foe', avarmân, 'not cuirassed', adânt, 'toothless', apâd, 'footless', atejâs, 'without brightness', anārambhaṇâ, 'not to be gotten hold of', apratimānâ, 'incomparable', aduchunâ, 'bringing no harm'.

But a number of examples (few in proportion to those already instanced) have the prefix accented (like the simple descriptives: 1288 a): thus, ākṣiti, 'indestructible', āgu, 'kineless', āgopā, 'without shepherd', ājīvana, 'lifeless', ānāpi, 'without friends', āçiçvī f., 'without young', āmṛtyu, 'deathless', ābrahman, 'without priest', āvyacas, 'without extension', āhavis, 'without oblation', and a few others: AV. has āprajās. but ÇB. aprajās. A very few have the accent on the penult: namely, açēṣas, ajāni, and avīra (with retraction, from vīrā); and AV. has abhrātṛ, but RV. abhrātṛ.

b. In compounds with the prefixes of praise and dispraise, su and dus, Whitney, Grammar.

the accent is in the great majority of cases that of the final member: thus, sukâlpa, 'of easy make', subhâga, 'well portioned', sunâkṣatra, 'of propitious star', suputrâ, 'having excellent sons', sugopā, 'well-shepherded', sukīrtī, 'of good fame', sugândhi, 'fragrant', subāhā, 'well-armed', suyântu, 'of easy control', sukrâtu, 'of good capacity', suhārd, 'good-hearted', susrāj, 'well-garlanded', suvârman, 'well-cnirassed', suvâsas, 'well-clad', suprânīti, 'well guiding'; durbhâga, 'ill-portioned', durdrēta, 'of evil aspect', durdhâra, 'hard to restrain', durgândhi, 'ill-savored', durādhā, 'of evil designs', durdhârtu, 'hard to restrain', dustârītu, 'hard to excel', duratyétu, 'hard to cross', durdhâr, 'ill-yoked', durnāman, 'ill-named', durvāsas, 'ill-clad'.

There are, however, a not inconsiderable number of instances in which the accent of these compounds is upon the final syllable: thus, suciprá, 'well-lipped', svapatyá, 'of good progeny', susankāçá, 'of good aspect', svañgurí, 'well-fingered', sviṣú, 'having good arrows', supīvás, 'well fatted'; and compounds with derivatives in ana, as suvijñāná, 'of easy discernment', sūpasarpaņá, 'of easy approach', duccyavaná, 'hard to shake'; and AV. has suphalá and subandhú against RV. suphála and subándhu. Like avīra, suvīra shows retraction of accent. Only dúrāçir has the tone on the prefix.

On the whole, the distinction by accent of possessive from determinative is less clearly shown in the words made with su and dus than in any other body of compounds.

c. The associative prefix sa or (less often) sahá is treated like an adjective element, and itself takes the accent in a possessive compound: thus, sākratu, 'of joint will', sānāman, 'of like name', sārūpa, 'of similar form', sāyoni, 'having a common origin', sāvācas, 'of assenting words', sātoka, 'having progeny along, with one's progeny', sābrāhmaṇa, 'along with the Brahmans', sāmūla, 'with the root', sāntardeça, 'with the intermediate directions'; sahāgopa, 'with the shepherd', sahāvatsa, 'accompanied by one's young', sahāpatnī, 'having her husband with her', sahāpūruṣa, 'along with our men'.

In RV. (save in a doubtful case or two), only saha in such compounds gives the meaning of 'having along with one, accompanied by'; and, since saha governs the instrumental, the words beginning with it might be of the prepositional class (below, 1310). But in AV. both sa and saha have this value (as illustrated by examples given above); and in the later language, the combinations with sa are much the more numerous.

There are a few exceptions, in which the accent is that of the final member: thus, $saj \acute{o}sa$, $saj \acute{o}sas$, $sad \acute{r}ra$, $sap \acute{r}athas$, $sab \acute{a}dhas$; and AV. shows the accent on the final syllable in $s\bar{a}\bar{n}g\acute{a}$ ($\c GB$. $s\acute{a}\bar{n}ga$) and the substantivized (1312) $savidyut\acute{a}$.

- d. Possessive compounds with the exclamatory prefixes ka etc. are too few in the older language to furnish ground for any rule as to accent: $k\hat{a}$ -bandha is perhaps an example of such.
- 1305. Possessive compounds in which a verbal prefix is used as prior member with adjective value, qualifying a noun as final member, are found even in the oldest language, and

are rather more common later (compare the descriptive compounds, above, 1289; and the prepositional, below, 1310). They usually have the accent of the prefix.

Most common are those made with pra, vi, and sam: thus, for example, prāmahas, 'having exceeding might', prācravas, 'widely famed'; vígrīva, 'of wry neck', vyānga, 'having limbs away or gone, limbless', víjāni, 'wifeless', víparva and víparus, 'jointless', vyādhvan, 'of wide ways', vímanas, both 'of wide mind' and 'mindless', vívūcas, 'of discordant speech'; sāmpatnī, 'having one's husband along', sāmmanas, 'of accordant mind', sāmsahasra, 'accompanied by a thousand', sāmokas, 'of joint abode'. Examples of others are: âtyūrmi, 'surging over', ādhivastra, 'having a garment on', ādhyardha, 'with a half over', ādhyakṣa, 'overseer', āpodaka, 'without water', abhīrūpa, 'of adapted character', āvatoka, 'that has aborted', āmanas, 'of favorable mind', idojas, 'of exalted power', nīmanyu, 'of assuaged fury', nīrmāya, 'free from guile', nīrhasta, 'handless'.

In a comparatively small number of cases, the accent is otherwise; and generally on the final: thus, avakeçá, upamanyú, viçaphá, viçikhá (AV. vícikha), vikarņá, sammātr, etc.; in an instance or two, that of the final member; thus, samçíçvarī, 'having a common young'.

1306. Possessive compounds with an ordinary adverb as prior member are also found in every period of the language. They usually have the accent which belongs to the adverb as independent word.

Examples are: ántyūti, 'bringing near help', avódeva, 'calling down the gods', itáūti, 'helping on this side', ihácitta, 'with mind directed hither', daksinatáskaparda, 'wearing the braid on the right side', nánādharman, 'of various character', purudhápratīka, 'of manifold aspect', viçvátomukha, 'with faces on all sides', sadyūūti, 'of immediate aid', vīṣurūpa, 'of various form', smádūdhan, 'with udder'.

An instance or two of irregular accent are met with: thus, purorathá, 'whose chariot is foremost'.

1307. It was pointed out in the preceding chapter (1222 c. 2) that the indifferent suffix ka is often added to a pure possessive compound, to help the conversion of the compounded stem into an adjective; especially, where the final of the stem is less usual or manageable in adjective inflection.

Also, the compound possessive stem occasionally takes further a possessive-making suffix, in (1230).

The frequent changes which are undergone by the final of a stem occurring at the end of a compound will be noticed further on (1315).

1308. The possessive compounds are not always used in the later language with the simple value of qualifying adjective; often they have a pregnant sense, and become the equivalents of dependent clauses; or the 'having' which is implied in

them obtains virtually the value of our 'having' as sign of past time.

Thus, for example, prāptayāuvana, 'possessing attained adolescence', i. e. 'having arrived at adolescence'; anadhigataçāstra, 'with unstudied books', i. e. 'who has neglected study'; kṛtaprayatna, 'possessing performed effort', i. e. 'on whom effort is expended'; aāgutīyakadarçanāvasāna, 'having the sight of the ring as termination', i. e. 'destined to end on sight of the ring'; uddhṛtaviṣādaçalyaḥ, 'having an extracted despair-arrow', i. e. 'when I shall have extracted the barb of despair'; crutavistāraḥ kriyatām, 'let him be made with heard details', i. e. 'let him be informed of the details'.

B. Compounds with Governed Final Member.

1309. Participial Compounds. This group of compounds, in which the prior member is a present participle and the final member its object, is a small one (toward thirty examples), and exclusively Vedic — indeed, almost limited to the oldest Vedic (of the Rig-Veda).

The accent is on the final syllable of the participle, whatever may have been the latter's accent as an independent word.

Examples are: vidádvasu, 'winning good things', kṣayádvīra, 'governing (kṣáyant) heroes', taráddveṣas, 'overcoming (tárant) foes', ābharádvasu, 'bringing good things', codayánmati, 'inciting (codáyant) devotion', mandayátsakha, 'rejoicing friends', dhārayátkavi, 'sustaining sages', maṅhayádrayi, 'bestowing wealth'.

In sādádyoni, 'sitting in the lap' (sādat quite anomalously for sādat or sadat), and spṛhayádvarṇa, 'emulous of color', the case-relation of the final member is other than accusative. In patayán mandayátsakham (RV.i. 4.7), patayát, with accent changed accordingly, represents patayátsakham, the final member being understood from the following word. Vidádaçva is to be inferred from its derivative vāldadaçvi. Of this formation appear to be jamādagni, pratádvasu (prathád?), and trasádasyu (for trasádasyu?). It was noticed above (1299 c) that yuyujānásapti is capable of being understood as a unique compound of like character, with a perfect instead of present participle; sādhadiṣṭi, on account of its accent, is probably possessive.

1310. Prepositional Compounds. By this name may be conveniently called those combinations in which the prior member is a particle having true prepositional value, and the final member is a noun governed by it.

Such combinations, though few in number as compared with other classes of compounds, are not rare, either in the earlier language or the later.

Their accent is so various that no rule can be set up respecting it.

- a. Examples are: átyavi, 'passing through the wool', atirātrá, 'overnight', atimātrā, 'exceeding measure'; ádhiratha, 'lying on the chariot', adhigavá, 'belonging to the cow'; adhaspadá, 'under the feet', adhoaksá, 'below the axle'; anupatha, 'following the road', anuvrata, 'according to direction' (but perhaps possessive?), anupūrvá, 'following the one preceding, one after another', anusatya, 'in accordance with truth', anukula, 'down stream', etc.; antaspatha (with anomalously changed accent of antar), 'within the way', antardavá, 'within the flame' (?), antarhastá, 'in the hand'; ántigrha, 'near the house'; ápavrata, 'out of due course' (possessive?); apiprána, 'accompanying the breath', apivrata, 'concerned with the ceremony', apicarvara, 'bordering on the night', apikarná, 'next the ear'; abhijnú, 'reaching to the knee', abhivīra and abhisatvan, 'overcoming heroes'; apathi, 'on the road', adeva, 'going to the gods', ajarasa, 'reaching old age', advadaça, 'up to twelve'; upakaksá, 'reaching to the arm-pits', upottamá, next to last, penultimate'; upáribudhna, 'above the bottom', upárimartya, 'rising above mortals'; tirojaná, 'beyond people'; niḥsālá, 'out of the house'; paripád, ('about the feet') 'snare', parihastá, 'about the hand, bracelet'; paróksa, 'out of sight', parómātra, beyond measure', parogavyūtí, 'beyond the fields', parahsahasrá (párahsahasra, CB.), 'above a thousand'; pratidosá, 'toward evening', pratilomá, 'against the grain', pratikūla, 'up stream', pratyūksa, 'before the eyes'; bahih paridhi, 'outside the enclosure'; vîpathi, 'outside the road'; samaksá, 'close to the eyes, in sight'.
- b. Compounds of this character are in the later language especially common with adhi: thus, adhyātma, 'relating to the soul or self', adhiyajña, 'relating to the sacrifice', etc.
- c. A suffixal a is sometimes added to a final consonant, as in $up\bar{a}nas\hat{a}$, 'on the wagon', $\bar{a}vyus\hat{a}$, 'until daybreak'. In a few instances, the suffix ya is taken (see above, 1212d.5); and in one word the suffix in: thus, paripanthin, 'besetting the path'.
- $\boldsymbol{d}.$ The prepositional compounds are especially liable to adverbial use: see below, $1313\,\boldsymbol{a}.$

Adjective Compounds as Nouns and as Adverbs.

1311. Compound adjectives, like simple ones, are freely used substantively as abstracts and collectives, especially in the neuter, less often in the feminine; and they are also much used adverbially, especially in the accusative neuter.

The matter is entitled to special notice only because certain forms of combination have become of special frequency in these uses, and because the Hindu grammarians have made out of them distinct classes of compounds, with separate names. There is nothing in the Veda which by itself would call for particular remark under this head.

1312. The substantively used compounds having a numera as prior member, along with, in part, the adjective compounds

themselves, are treated by the Hindus as a separate class, called dviqu.

The name is a sample of the class, and means 'of two cows', said to be used in the sense of 'worth two cows'; as also pañcagu, 'bought for five cows', dvināu, 'worth two ships', pañcakapāla, 'made in five cups', and so on.

Vedic examples of numeral abstracts and collectives are: $dvir\bar{a}j\hat{a}$, '[combat] of two kings', $triyug\hat{a}$, 'three ages', $triyojan\hat{a}$, 'space of three leagues', $tridiv\hat{a}$, 'the triple heaven', $pa\tilde{n}cayojan\hat{a}$, 'space of five leagues', $sadah\hat{a}$, 'six days' time', $dac\bar{a}\bar{n}gul\hat{a}$, 'ten fingers' breadth'; and, with suffix ya, $sahasr\bar{a}hny\hat{a}$, 'thousand days' journey'. Others, not numeral, but essentially of the same character, are, for example: $anamitr\hat{a}$, 'freedom from enemies', $nikilbis\hat{a}$, 'freedom from guilt', $savidyut\hat{a}$, 'thunderstorm', vthrdaya, 'heartlessness', and sahrdaya, 'heartiness', $sudiv\hat{a}$, 'prosperity by day', $sumrg\hat{a}$ and $sucakun\hat{a}$, 'prosperity with beasts and birds'. Feminines of like use are not quotable from RV. or AV.; later occur such as $tricat\bar{i}$, 'three hundred' (481), $trilok\bar{i}$, 'the three worlds', $pa\tilde{n}cam\bar{u}l\bar{i}$, 'aggregate of five roots'.

As the examples show, the accent of words thus used is various; but it is more prevailingly on the final syllable than in the adjective compounds in their ordinary use.

1313. Those adverbially used accusatives of secondary adjective compounds which have an indeclinable or particle as prior member are reckoned by the Hindu grammarians as a separate class of compounds, and called by the name avyayībhāva.

This term is a derivative from the compound verb (1094) made up of avyaya, 'uninflected', and $\gamma'bh\bar{u}$, and means 'conversion to an indeclinable'.

- a. The prepositional compounds (1310) are especially frequent in this use: thus, for example, anusvadhám, 'by one's own will', abhipūrvám, 'in succession', ādvādaçám, 'up to twelve', pratidosám, 'at evening', samakṣám, 'in sight'. Instances given by the grammarians are: adhihari, 'upon Hari', uparājam, 'under the king', upanadam or upanadi, 'near the river', pratyagni, 'toward the fire', pratiniçam, 'every night', nirmakṣikam, 'free from flies'.
- b. A large and important class is made up of words having a relative adverb, especially $yath\bar{a}$, as prior member. Thus, for example, $yath\bar{a}vac\hat{a}m$, 'as one chooses' $(v\hat{a}ca, \text{ 'will'})$, $yath\bar{a}krt\hat{a}m$, 'as done [before], according to custom', $yath\bar{a}n\bar{a}m\hat{a}$, 'by name', $yath\bar{a}bh\bar{a}g\hat{a}$, 'according to several portion', $yath\bar{a}\bar{n}g\hat{a}$ and $yath\bar{a}par\hat{a}$, 'limb by limb', $yatrak\bar{a}mam$, 'whither one will', $y\bar{a}vanm\bar{a}tr\hat{a}m$, 'in some measure', $y\bar{a}vajj\bar{v}v\hat{a}$, 'as long as one lives', $y\bar{a}vats\hat{a}bandhu$, 'according to the number of relations'.

These compounds are not common in the old language; RV. has with $yath\bar{a}$ only four of them, AV. only ten; and no such compound is used adjectively except $y\bar{a}chresth\hat{a}$ RV., $y\bar{a}vachresth\hat{a}$ AV., 'as good as possible'. ζ B. has $yath\bar{a}k\bar{a}r\hat{n}$, $yath\bar{a}c\bar{a}r\hat{n}$, $y\hat{a}th\bar{a}k\bar{a}ma$, $y\hat{a}th\bar{a}kratu$ as adjectives (followed in each case by a correlative $t\hat{a}th\bar{a}$). The adjective use in the later language also is quite rare as compared with the adverbial.

Other cases than the accusative occasionally occur: thus, instrumental,

as yathāsamkhyena, yathāçaktyā, yathepsayā, yathāpratigunāis; and ablative, as yathāucityāt.

c. Other adverbial compounds of equivalent character occur earlier, and are common later: for example, rtekarmám, 'according to sacrificial use', nānārathám, 'on different chariots', 'ubhayadyús, 'two days in succession'; citrapadakramam, 'with wonderful progress', pradānapūrvam, 'with accompaniment of a gift'; etc.

Anomalous Compounds.

- 1314. As in every language, compounds are now and then met with which are of anomalous character, as exhibiting combinations of elements not usually put together, or not after such a method, or for such a purpose. Some of these, especially of those occurring in the old language, may well be noticed here.
- a. Compounds having a particle as final member: as, aprati, 'having no equal', tuviprati, 'mightily opposing', átathā, 'refusing', vitatha, 'false', yathātathā, 'as it really is', súsaha, 'prosperity in companionship', etc.
- b. Agglomerations of two or more elements out of phrases: thus, aham-pūrvá, 'eager to be first', ahamuttará, 'contest for preëminence', mamasatyá, 'contest for possession', itihāsá, 'legend' (iti hā "sa, 'thus, indeed, it was'), naghamārá and naghāriṣá, 'not, surely, dying or coming to harm', kuvítsa, 'some unknown person', tadídartha, 'having just that as aim', kūcidarthín, 'having errands in every direction', kācitkará, 'doing all sorts of things', kuhacidvíd, 'wherever found', yadbhaviṣya, 'What-will-be', etc.
- c. Agglomerations in which the prior member retains a syntactic form: as, anyonya and paraspara, 'one another'.
- d. Aggregations with the natural order inverted: as, $pit\bar{a}mah\hat{a}$ and $tat\bar{a}mah\hat{a}$, 'grandfather'.
- e. Aggregations of particles were pointed out above (1111a); also (1122b) cases in which $n\hat{a}$ and $m\hat{a}$ are used in composition.
- f. In the later language, a preposition is occasionally preceded in composition by a case dependent on it: thus, dantāntaḥ, 'between the teeth', tadbahis, 'outside of it', satyavinā, 'without truth'.

Stem-finals altered in Composition.

- 1315. In all classes of compounds, certain changes of final are liable to appear in the concluding member; generally, they have the effect of transferring the compound to the a-declension. Thus:
- a. A stem in an often drops its final consonant: examples are akṣa, adhva, arva, astha, aha, takṣa, brahma, mūrdha, rāja, loma, vṛṣa, çva, saktha, sāma.
- b. An i or ī is changed to a: examples are angula, anjala, açra, kukṣa, khāra, nada, nābha, bhūma, rātra, sakha, hala.

c. An a is added after a final consonant, and sometimes after an u-vowel or a diphthong: examples are rea, tvaca; uda, pada, çarada; apa; dhura, pura; ahna, açmana, ūdhna, rājña; anasa, ayasa, āyusa, urasa, enasa, tamasa, manasa, yajusa, rajasa, rahasa, varcasa, vedasa, çreyasa, sarasa; bhruva, diva, gava, gāva, nāva.

Irregular Construction with Compounds.

1316. In the looseness of unlimited and fortuitous combination, in the later language, it is not rare that a word in composition has an independent word in the sentence depending upon it alone, rather than upon the compound of which it forms a part.

A few examples are: cittapramathini bata devanam api (MBh.), 'a girl disturbing the minds even of the gods'; jyotisam madhyacari (H.), 'moving in the midst of the stars'; bhagavata krtasamskare 'smin (Q.), 'in him, whose sacraments have been performed by the blessed one'; syandane dattadrstih (Q.), 'with his eye fixed on the chariot'.

Similar evidences of the looseness of composition are: na dṛṣṭapūrvā 'thavā çrutā, 'not seen nor heard of before'; dārupātram ca mṛnmayam, 'a wooden and an earthern vessel'.

APPENDIX.

A. The following text is given (as promised above, 3) in order to illustrate by an example the variety of Sanskrit type in use. It is given twice over, and a transliteration into European letters follows. The text is a fable extracted from the first book of the Hitopadeça.

The Hunter, Deer, Boar, and Jackal.

श्रामीत्कस्याणकटकवास्तव्यो भैरवो नाम व्याधः। स चै-कदा मांसलुब्धः सन्धनुरादाय विन्ध्याटवीमध्यं गतः। तच तेन मृग एको व्यापादितः। मृगमादाय गछता तेन घोराकृतिः सूकरो हष्टः। ततस्तेन मृगं भूमौ निधाय सूकरः शरेण हतः। सूकरेणाप्यागत्य प्रलयघनघोरगर्जनं कृत्वा स व्याधो मुष्कदेशे हतन्छिचदुम इव पपात। यतः।

> जलमियं विषं शस्त्रं शुद्धाधी पतनं गिरेः। निमित्तं किंचिदासाद्य देही प्राशिर्विमुच्यते॥

अनानारे दीर्घरावो नाम जम्नुकः परिश्रमन्नाहारार्थी तान्मृ-तान्मृगव्याधसूकरानपश्यत् । आलोक्याचिन्तयदसौ । अहो भाग्यम् । महङ्गीज्यं समुपस्थितम् । अथवा ।

मिचिनितानि दुःखानि यथैवायानि देहिनाम् । सुखान्यपि तथा मन्ये दैवमचातिरिच्यते॥

भवतु । एषां मांसैर्मासचयं समधिकं भोजनं मे भविष्यति । ततः प्रथमनुभु-चायां तावदिमानि खादूनि मांसानि विहाय कोदण्डाटनीलयं खायुनन्यं खा-दामीखुत्का तथाकरोत् । तति एक् क्षे खायुनन्ये द्वतमुत्पतितेन धनुषा हिंद भिन्नः स दोर्घरावः पञ्चलं गतः । ऋतो ६ हं ब्रवीमि ।

> कर्तव्यः संचयो नित्यं कर्तव्यो नातिसंचयः। ऋतिसंचयदोषेण धनुषा जम्बुको हतः॥

श्रासीत्कल्याणकरकवास्तव्यो भैर्वो नाम व्याधः। स चैकरा मांसलुब्धः सन्धनुरादाय विन्ध्यारवीमध्यं गतः। तत्र तेन मृग एको व्यापादितः। मृगमादाय गक्ता तेन घोराकृतिः सूकरो दृष्टः। ततस्तेन मृगं भूमौ निधाय मूकरः शरेण इतः। सूकरेणाच्यागत्य प्रलयधनघोर्गर्जनं कृवा स व्याधो मुष्कदेशे कृतश्कित्रद्रुम इव प्रपात। यतः।

जलमितं विषं शस्तं सुद्धाधी पतनं गिरेः।
निमित्तं किंचिदासाख देखी प्राणैर्विमुच्यते॥
ग्रज्ञान्तरे दीर्घरावो नाम जम्बुकः परिश्रमन्नाक्षारार्धी तान्मृता
न्मृगव्याधसूकरानपश्यत्। ग्रालोक्याचिन्तयदसौ। ग्रक्षो भाग्यम्।
मक्द्भोडयं समुपस्थितम्। ग्रथवा।

श्रचिन्तितानि दुःखानि यथैवायान्ति देहिनाम्। मुखान्यपि तथा मन्ये देवमत्रातिरिच्यते॥

भवतु । एषां मांसैमीसत्रयं समिधकं भोजनं मे भविष्यति । ततः प्रथमबुभुज्ञायां ताविदमानि स्वाटूनि मांसानि विद्याय कोदराडाटनीलग्नं स्नायुबन्धं खादामीत्युकत्वा तथाकरोत् । ततिश्किचे स्नायुबन्धे द्वतमुत्पतितेन धनुषा दृदि भिन्नः स दीर्घरावः पञ्चत्वं गतः । श्रती ४ हं व्रवीमि ।

कर्तव्यः संचयो नित्यं कर्तव्यो नातिसंचयः। श्रतिसंचयदीषेण धनुषा जम्बुको हतः॥

āsīt kalyāṇakaṭakavāstavyo bhāiravo nāma vyādhaḥ. sa cāi 'kadā mānsalubdhaḥ san dhanur ādāya vindhyāṭavīmadhyaṁ gataḥ. tatra tena mṛga eko vyāpāditaḥ. mṛgam ādāya gachatā tena ghorākṛtiḥ sūkaro dṛṣṭaḥ. tatas tena mṛgam bhūmāu nidhāya sūkaraḥ çareṇa hataḥ. sūkareṇā 'py āgatya pralayaghanaghoragarjanaṁ kṛtvā sa vyādho muṣkadeçe hataç chinnadruma iva papāta. yataḥ:

jalam agnim vişam çastram kşudvyādhī patanam gireh, nimittam kimcid āsādya dehī prānāir vimucyate. atrāntare dīrgharāvo nāma jambukaḥ paribhramann āhārārthī tān mṛtān mṛgavyādhasūkarān apaçyat. ālokyā 'cintayad asāu: aho bhāgyam. mahad bhojyam samupasthitam. athavā:

acintitāni duḥkhāni yathāi 'vā "yānti dehinām, sukhāny api tathā manye dāivam atrā 'tiricyate.

bhavatu; eṣām mānsāir māsatrayam samadhikam bhojanam me bhaviṣyati. tataḥ prathamabubhukṣāyām tāvad imāni svādūni mānsāni vihāya kodaṇḍāṭanīlagnam snāyubandham khādāmī 'ty uktvā tathā 'karot. tataç chinne snāyubandhe drutam utpatitena dhanuṣā hṛdi bhinnaḥ sa dīrgharāvaḥ pañcatvam gataḥ. ato 'ham bravīmi:

kartavyah samcayo nityam kartavyo $n\bar{a}$ 'tisamcayah; atisamcayadosena dhanus \bar{a} jambuko hatah.

B. The following text is given in order to illustrate by a sufficient example the usual method of marking accent, as described above (87, 90). In the MSS., the accent-signs are almost invariably added in red ink. The text is a hymn extracted from the tenth or last book of the Rig-Veda; it is regarded by the tradition as uttered by $V\bar{a}c$, 'voice' (i. e. the Word or Logos).

Hymn (X. 125) from the Rig-Veda.

मुक् कुद्रेभिर्वमुंभिश्चराम्यक्मीदित्येकृत विश्वदेवैः ।

ग्रुक् मित्रावर्रणोभा बिभम्य्क्मिन्द्राग्री मुक्मुश्चिनोभा ॥ १ ॥

ग्रुक् सोमेमाक्नसं विभम्य्क् वष्टारमृत पूषणं भर्गम् ।

ग्रुक् देधामि द्रविणं कृविष्मेते मुप्राच्ये्ड्रे यर्गमानाय मुन्वते ॥ २ ॥

ग्रुक् राष्ट्री मंगमेनी वर्मूनां चिकितुषी प्रवृमा युवियोनाम् ।

तां मी देवा व्यद्धः पुरुत्रा भूरिस्वात्रां भूर्यावे्ष्ययेतीम् ॥ ३ ॥

मया सो म्रन्नमित् यो विष्ण्यति यः प्राणिति य ई मृणित्युक्तम् ।

ग्रुम्तवो मां त उपं नियति स्रुधि स्रुत स्रिव्वं ते वदामि ॥ ३ ॥

ग्रुक्मेव स्वयमिदं वदामि नुष्टं देवेभिरुत मानुष्ठिभिः ।

यं कामये तंतेमुयं कृषोमि तं ब्रह्माणं तमृषिं तं सुंमेधाम् ॥ ५ ॥ ख्रहं रुद्राय धनुरा तेनोमि ब्रह्महिषे शर्रवे क्त्ववा उ । ख्रहं बनीय समदं कृषोम्युकं खावीपृष्यिवी द्या विवेश ॥ ६ ॥ ख्रहं सुंवे पितरेमस्य मूर्धन्मम् योनिर्प्स्वरेतः संमुद्रे । ततो वि तिष्ठे भुवनानु विद्योतामूं खां वर्ष्मणोपं स्पृशामि ॥ ७ ॥ ख्रक्मेव वातं ख्र प्र वीम्यारभमाणा भुवनानि विद्या । प्रो दिवा प्र एना पृष्टियौतावंती मिक्ना सं वभूव ॥ ८ ॥

ahám rudrébhir vásubhiç carāmy ahám ādityāír utá viçvádevāiḥ, ahám mitráváruṇo 'bhá bibharmy ahám indrāgni ahám açvino 'bhá. 1. ahám sómam āhanásam bibharmy ahám tváṣṭāram utá pūṣáṇam bhágam, ahám dadhāmi dráviṇam haviṣmate suprāvyè yájamānāya sunvaté. 2. ahám ráṣṭrī saṅngámanī vásūnām cikitúṣī prathamá yajñiyānām, tám mā devá vy àdadhuḥ purutrá bhúristhātrām bhúry āveçáyantīm. 3. máyā só ánnam atti yó vipáçyati yáḥ práṇiti yá īṁ çṛṇóty uktám, amantávo mắm tá úpa kṣiyanti çrudhi çruta çraddhivám te vadāmi. 4. ahám evá svayám idám vadāmi júṣṭam devébhir utá mánuṣebhiḥ, yám kāmáye tám-tam ugrám kṛṇomi tám brahmáṇam tám ṛṣim tám sumedhám. 5.

ahám rudrāya dhánur a tanomi brahmadvíse çárave hántavá u, ahám jánāya samádam kṛṇomy ahám dyávāpṛthiví a viveça. 6. ahám suve pitáram asya mūrdhán máma yónir apsv àntáh samudré, táto ví tiṣṭhe bhúvanā 'nu víçvo 'tā 'mum dyám varṣmánó 'pa spṛçāmi. 7. ahám evá vāta iva prá vāmy ārábhamāṇā bhúvanāni víçvā, paró divā pará enā pṛthivyāí 'tāvatī mahinā sám babhūva. 8.

SANSKRIT INDEX.

The references in both Indexes are to paragraphs. In this one, many abbreviations are used; but it is believed that they will be found self-explaining. For example, "pron." is pronunciation; "euph." points out anything relating to phonetic form or euphonic combination; "pres.", to present-system; "int." is intensive; "des." is desiderative; and so on. A prefixed hyphen denotes a suffix; one appended, a prefix.

a, pron. etc., 19-22; combination with following vowel, 126-7; loss of initial after e and o, 135, 175 a; resulting accent, 135; not liable to guna, 235; lightened to i or u, 249; lost in weakened syllable, 253. -a, prmy, 1148; scdry, 1208—9; — astems, dcln, 326—34; from rdcl a-st., 333, 354; in compsn, 1270, 1283 ff., 1287 a. a- or an-, negative, 1121 a; in compsn, 1288a, 1304a. -aka, prmy, 1181; scdry, 1222 e. -aki, see 1221 b. Vaks, 108g; pres., 708; pf., 788. aksara, 8. aksán, áksi, 343 f. 431. aghosa, 34. Vac or $a\tilde{n}c$, pf., 788; pple, 957c; stems ending with, 407-10. -aj, 219, 383 d.5, 1200 c. Vañc, see ac. $\sqrt{a\tilde{n}j}$ or aj, euph., 219; pres., 694, 687; pf., 788. -anda, 1201.-at, 383 d. 3, 1200 a — and see -ant. -ata, see 1176e. -ati, see 1157.3. -atu, see 1161 c. -atnu, see 1196c. -atra, see 1185 d. -atha, see 1163b.

-athu, see 1164.

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ERRATA.

The remark at the end of 721 belongs instead under 688.

At 612a, last line of paradigm, restore the lost i of itas; and, at 1156, 1. 5. the lost a at end of line.

Read l at 65, last line but one; vavá at 94e; esas and esa at 176, ll. 2, 3, svit at 188, 1. 5; gorátsu at 221, 1. 8; brúvānah at 268, 1. 5; tīryate at 761 b, 1. 15; dyut at 785, 1. 5; amoci at 844, 1. 8; arānisus at 908, l. 8; tanyú at 1178e, l. 1; dánçuka at 1180a, l. 3; rj (for uj) at 1200 c, 1. 1.

References to the paragraphs 361-76 are (owing to an unfortunately necessary renumbering) in several instances wrong by a difference of one to five. Also other references as follows; read 454 at 425 g, l. 2; 547 at 561, 1.5 from end; 672 at 654, 1.3; 1042 d at 1030, 1.13; and 1271 at 1150c, 1. 8.



