A compendious Sanskrit grammar

by

August Hjalmar Edgren

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Professor of Sanskrit in the University of Nebraska, U.S.A.;
formerly Lecturer on Sanskrit in the University of Lund, Sweden.
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A

COMPENDIOUS

SANSKRIT GRAMMAR,

WITH

A BRIEF SKETCH OF SCENIC PRĀKRIT.

BY

HJALMAR EDGREN, Ph.D.,

Professor of Sanskrit in the University of Nebraska, U.S.A.; formerly Lecturer on Sanskrit in the University of Lund, Sweden.

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PREFACE.

A CONCISE, synthetical exposition of the structure of the Sanskrit Language has been the object aimed at in the preparation of this brief manual. If I have tried to reconcile with the limited compass of the book rather more fullness of detail and stringency of method than might seem accordant with the general plan of the series of which it forms a part, it is because I have constantly had in view the fact that a large body of students take up Sanskrit mainly on account of the important relation it sustains to Indo-European philology, while all have an interest in that relation; and because I was not satisfied to leave the learner with a mere surface introduction into a language, of which no fruitful knowledge can be acquired except through the means of a nice analysis of its structure. It has been my constant endeavour not to sacrifice clearness for detail; and different types have been used to indicate to the learner what may be safely left out, or left for reference only, at a first reading.

With regard to authority and general principle, I have relied more on the invaluable grammar of Professor W. D. Whitney, my former teacher, than on any other used by me in the preparation of this manual; and I trust that my
independent treatment of various topics shall not render it difficult for the student to pass over to that work when he desires to extend his studies.

Considerations of a wholly practical nature have argued some reserve with reference to the latest revolutionizing theories about the historical relation between the vowels. As long as those theories, still in a state of evolution, have not been applied in any standard lexical or grammatical work on the language, it would certainly be precocious to do so in a beginner's manual, one of whose objects it must be to introduce the learner to such works. The old theories are therefore, in accordance with universal practice, on the whole retained, the modern ones being briefly referred to, however, in proper places (cf. 28. note 1, 33. note, etc.). Only that part of the modern argument which concerns the unquestioned antecedency of ar and at as to r and ɬ, being applied in two of our leading dictionaries and admitting of some practical advantages in the formulation of rules, is here, contrary to the usual practice of Sanskrit grammars, accepted.

Where, for the rest, in the mode of presenting the subject-matter—as in the treatment of Sandhi-laws, of nominal compounds, of anomalous verbs, in the declensional arrangement, etc.—I have departed more or less from the methods followed in other grammars, I hope it has been done to the benefit of those who are to use this book. It should be mentioned in this connection that I have completed the synopsis of root-verbs, § 314, by adding such forms as are found in Lanman's Sanskrit Reader, and which are there
based on Whitney's forthcoming collection of all authenticated verb-forms.

That my methods of exposition should in all respects meet with approval, I am not sanguine enough to hope; and that graver defects than those occasioned by the limited compass of the book can be pointed out, I am well aware.

H. E.

Lund, Oct. 1884.
ERRATA.

At 45. b, line 8: read 221. At 69. b: change the second t to f. At 96, line 3: after 'weak cases,' add 'except often in Acc. pl.,' At 122: in Loc. pl. of mādīr change צ to צ. At 164. I, line 8: read ʿapāṣṭ. At 164. I, note 2, last line: change '90' to '810'. At 287. c, note, line 2: change 'protect' to 'bind'.

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THE SANSKRIT LANGUAGE.

SANSKRIT is the language through which, mainly, Indian culture has found expression in past ages, and which the learned and priestly caste in India still use as their special means of written, or even oral, communication. It forms part of the Indo-European or Arian family of languages; and it is distinguished from its sister tongues by having, on the whole, a more transparent and primitive structure, and a much older literature, than any of them.

The growth of the language, as revealed to us in the extant literature, embraces two periods, the Vedic and the Classical, both connected and overlapped by the transition period of the older Brāhmaṇa literature. The Vedic Period counts from a time—conjecturally about four thousand years ago—when the language, as reflected in the oldest Vedic hymns, wears the aspect of an essentially untrammeled vernacular to the time when some certain dialect (not necessarily the Vedic, whatever its influence must have been) was gradually led off from the broad popular stream, and, at the side of it, as the correct and sacred speech, conducted into its own nicely regulated channel. The Classical Period counts from this transition time (which was definitely concluded by
Pāṇini’s for ever afterwards authoritative grammar, probably about three centuries before Christ) down to our own days. During this period, Sanskrit, like Latin during many centuries in Europe, the special property of the erudite, has flown on almost without interruption in its own channel, bearing on its bosom a rich literature of theologico-philosophical, esthetical, and more or less scientific nature.

In its widest sense, the term Sanskrit (sām-s-kṛta ‘adorned, perfected,’ probably at first applied to the language as ‘perfected’ or, perhaps, ‘rendered sacred’) comprises the language of both the Vedic and the classical period, but in a limited sense, only that of the classical. In this grammar it is the classical Sanskrit alone that is described.

[Summary of the Sanskrit Literature:—VEDA (‘knowledge’=The Sacred Books). Comprises: 1. Mantra (‘sacred speech, song’), of which oldest and most important the four Vedas, viz. Ṛg, Śāma, Yajur, and Atharva-Veda (each ‘collection’ called, as such, Samhitā); 2. Brāhmaṇa (‘relating to worship’), exegetical works of various kind attached to each of the four Vedas, and comprising Brāhmaṇa in a limited sense (with the Mantra called ṛṣtī ‘revelation’), Aranyakā, and Upaniṣad; and 3. Śūtra (‘rule’), likewise attached to the Vedas, and comprising Nirukta (glossarial explanation), Prātiṣṭhāna (phonetics etc.), Kalpa and Āreta-Śūtra (ritual), Gṛhya-Śūtra (rules for domestic rites), Jyoṭiṣa (astronomy), and others.—Later outcomes of the Śūtra-literature were Pāṇini’s grammar and the law-books (of which the most important is Māṇava-dharmaśāstra). To the religious literature belong also the Pūraṇas, sectarian works of comparatively modern date.—EPICS: Mahābhārata (of which Nala, Bhagavadgītā, and Sāvitrī are well-known episodes), Rāmāyaṇa, Rāghuvaṇa, and others.—FAHLE AND ETHOS: Pancatantra, Hitopadeśa, and Kathāsaritsāgara.—LYRIC POETRY: Meghadūta, Gitagovinda, etc.—DRAMA: Mrčchakatikā, Čakvantalā, Vikramorvaṇi, Mālevikā, Mālabhīravatā, Ratnāvali, etc.—PHILOSOPHY AND SCIENCE: aside from the works included in the Vedic literature, many others from various periods.]
**ELEMENTARY SOUNDS AND ACCENT.**

**FIRST CHAPTER.**

Elementary Sounds and Accent.

I. ELEMENTARY SOUNDS.

1. Sanskrit has the following alphabetical sounds, here arranged with reference to their formation:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vowels</th>
<th>Gutturals</th>
<th>Palatals</th>
<th>Linguals</th>
<th>Dentals</th>
<th>Labials</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Open</td>
<td>अ a</td>
<td>इ i</td>
<td>ई e</td>
<td>उ u</td>
<td>ऊ ŋ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ए ē</td>
<td>ऐ ā</td>
<td>ऋ ṛ</td>
<td>ऌ ू</td>
<td>ऌ ृ</td>
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<tr>
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<td>औ o</td>
<td>ए o</td>
<td>ऑ ō</td>
<td>ए ṭ</td>
<td>ऐ ॊ</td>
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<tr>
<td></td>
<td>घ g</td>
<td>ङ ै</td>
<td>छ ṭ</td>
<td>ञ ृ</td>
<td>ऩ ृ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>श s</td>
<td>ष ṣ</td>
<td>र r</td>
<td>ल l</td>
<td>व v</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ष ṣ</td>
<td>घ g</td>
<td>ङ ै</td>
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<td>ऩ ृ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Spirants**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Anusvāra * (or ऍ), cf. 10</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ए ṭ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Mutes**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ख kh</th>
<th>च ch</th>
<th>ण ṭ</th>
<th>त th</th>
<th>ड dh</th>
<th>ढ dh</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ग gh</td>
<td>ज jh</td>
<td>झ ḷ</td>
<td>झ ḷ</td>
<td>भ bh</td>
<td>ध dh</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Nasals**

<table>
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<tr>
<th>न n</th>
<th>न n</th>
<th>न n</th>
<th>न n</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

1) Also called *Cerebro*. Properly front-palatals.
2) The nasals, being, like the mutes, formed by a closure of the mouth-organs, are (as by the Hindus) conveniently arranged here.
3) Concerning the real nature of त and त, cf. 28, note 1.
SANSKRIT GRAMMAR.

The fourteen sounds enclosed within a frame are surd, all the others sonant. The mutes in $k$ ($kh$, $gh$, etc.) are called aspirates, and among the spirants, $ç$, $s$, $ç$ are, as usual, named sibilants.

2. THE LEXICAL ARRANGEMENT.—The preceding classification, though agreeing physiologically with that made by native grammarians, differs however from the conventional order followed by them, and adopted in European lexicography, chiefly in having the semi-open consonants placed between the open sounds (vowels) and the closed ones, instead of last.

The lexical order of arrangement is then as follows:—

$a$, $ā$; $i$, $ī$; $u$, $ū$; $r$, $ṛ$; $l$; $e$, $āi$; $o$, $āu$; $h$ (or it is arranged like the sibilant it represents: cf. 9 note); $anusvāra$ $k$, $kh$; $g$, $gh$; $ṅ$; $c$, $ch$; $j$, $jh$; $ṅ$; $t$, $ṭh$; $d$, $ḍh$; $n$; $p$, $ph$; $b$, $bh$; $m$; $y$, $r$, $l$, $v$; $s$, $ç$, $ç$; $h$.

Note.—Apparently as a means of filling out the scheme, native grammarians add to the preceding list a long dental vowel ($ṛ$), and a gutt. and lab. sibilant (rendered both by $h$ or, rarely, by the sign $ṅ$, and transmuted resp. by $ç$ an. $ϕ$).

PRONUNCIATION.

3. VOWELS.—The vowels are pronounced nearly as follows; $a$, $ā$ as in fat, far; $i$, $ī$ as in pin, pique; $u$, $ū$ as in put, rude; $r$ ($ṛ$) like $r$ in sabre; $l$ like $l$ in sable; $e$, $o$ as in they, fur, without glide; $āi$, $āu$, each simple element by itself.

4. CONSONANTS.—As an aid in uttering the separate consonants, an $a$-sound is added to each of them save $h$ and anusvāra ($k$-$a$, $t$-$a$, etc.). For the rest, their pronunciation proper is as follows:—
5. Those transliterated by ordinary characters, are practically pronounced as in English, except that \(c\) sounds like \(ch\) in \(chin\), and \(g\) always as in \(go\). All the aspirates are uttered as if consisting of two distinct elements (\(k-ha\) etc.).

The euphonic value of \(k, gh, dh, bh\) is really doubtful; and dentals are apt to be slightly lisped.

6. \(ç, ş\) are both pronounced nearly like \(sh\) in \(shall\), but \(ş\) more with the tip of the tongue in a lingual position (cf. 7).

The sibilant \(ç\), though by Hindu phoneticians described as palatal, is in Europe quite commonly pronounced as \(s\).

7. \(t, th, d, dh\) differ from the dentals only in being uttered with the tip of the tongue reverted further back into the forward part of the palate (in this nearly or quite coinciding with the English dentals as they are often pronounced).

8. \(n, ñ, ñ\) are nasals uttered with the tongue-position of their corresponding mutes (i.e. with gutt., pal., and lab. articulation).

9. \(h\) (\(visarga\), probably 'final sound') indicates a breathing (a toneless \(h\)) which, without change of the articulating position, follows the preceding vowel.

Note.—\(Visarga\) is a vicarious sound for the original finals \(s\) and \(r\) when uncombined, for the guttural and palatal sibilants (2. note), and optionally for any sibilants followed by another sibilant. But as finals, the more original sounds \(s\) and \(r\) are here, as in several other works, conveniently recognized as such, be it in paradigms or at the base of euphonic combinations.

10. \(ñ\) or \(ñ\) ('\(anusvara\) 'after-sound') indicates a nasal sound which accompanies a vowel, and whose value is determined by a following semi-open consonant (especially a spirant or \(r\)).
Concerning this sound and the signs for it, we may notice:

a. Anusvāra arises when, in certain combinations with semi-open consonants, a nasal is itself influenced by them and uttered with a semi-open articulation. This nasal is by native authorities very differently described, mostly, however, thus: when before a spirant or r, as a special, though variously defined, 'after-sound' (anuśvāra); when before y, l, or v, as a nasalized semivowel of their own type; and in certain exceptional cases as the preceding vowel itself 'nasalized' (anuśāsika).

b. Of the signs * and ṭ, placed above the syllable, the former is used almost exclusively; the latter only exceptionally to indicate a nasalized vowel or semi-vowel.

The sign * is also sometimes used for any nasal between a vowel and a mute, whether in internal or external combination, and for a final m in pousā.—Common is this usage only for an assimilated m in external combination (54).

11. In this book, a real anusvāra and an assimilated m in external combination (54) are rendered by *; placed above the nasalized syllable (चं अंच, संत्र सांत्वर, फिन व किन ca). In transliteration, n and ń are used to indicate whether the original sound was m or not.

Written Signs and Their Abbreviations.

12. Various alphabets are used by the Hindus in writing Sanskrit, but the most important among them, and the only one adopted in Europe, is that which is already given above. It is called the devanāgarī (a word of uncertain meaning: nāgarī, perhaps 'of the city, business,' and deva-nāgarī, 'the divine nāgarī'); and it is of disputed origin.

13. In writing, medial and final vowels and conjunct consonants are denoted, by abbreviation, as described below.

Vowels.

14. Unless replaced by some other vowel-character, ओ a is understood, without any written sign, after every separate
consonant (visarga and anusvāra excepted) or consonant-group. But a short stroke (\, virāma 'check') may be placed beneath the consonant to denote that it is to be pronounced alone:—

क ka, रक eka, नख nala, सः sah, सम saṃ, प्ल psva; but का (see below) kā, ख k, एक ek, etc.

15. Remaining vowels are denoted according to the scheme below:

चा राई ग ज च घ ख ग रे को की
by य तै (orig. यतै) ये ये ये ये

e.g. {का कि की कु कि कु कि कु कि के के को की}

Sometimes the signs are more disguised, as in दु du, दु dū, रु ru, रु ru. About र्र, cf. 17.

CONSONANTS.

16. When two or more consonants are combined, they are placed successively, in the order of utterance, either after or below each other, or sometimes both ways (the choice being in part optional). If placed side by side, the last consonant, otherwise the first, usually remains on the whole intact, while the others are mutilated, mostly by having the strokes इ, one or both, removed. Some examples follow:

a. after each other: ग्ग gg-a, प्य py-a, ज्ञ jj-a, झ sk-a,
ब्ह bhya, ल्प lp-a, द्ब्ह dbh-a, प्ल psv-a, भ्ब्ह bhya-a, त्त्त tsmy-a;

b. below each other: क्क kk-a, झ्झ cc-a, प्ट pt-a, झ्घ ghn-a,
द्ग dg-a, च्व cv-a, ि ि kkh-a, ि ि nkt-a, ि ktv-a, ि ptv-a;

b. both ways: च्च cc-a, झ्झ ghn-a, च्य cy-a, न्द्व ndhv-a,

ndhn-a, त्त्त tsm-a.
17. Among less obvious combinations are to be noticed:—
a. क kya-; न ny-; न dya-; न dhy-; न thy-; न hy-; 
न km-; न dm-; न hm-; —b. न kt-; न kl-; न tt-; 
न dg-; न dd-; न ddh-; न dn-; न dbh-; न ṣt-; 
न ṣh-; न db-; न dgh-; —and further, न ḷ-; न ḷ-; 
न ḷ-; न ḷa-; न ulla-; न ḷa-.

After another consonant, र r is denoted by a stroke at the 
foot of it (क kr-; ग gr-; च or ङ tr-; छ or ङ śr-; ङ dgr-; 
ङ dhry-; ङ ktry-; ङ dghr-), but before a consonant 
by the sign  placed above the last consonant of the group to 
which र belongs and to the right of any other sign that may be 
found there (के rk-; चे rsv-; चे ṛṣṇ-; चे ṛtv-; चे ṛkam, 
चे arken-).—Notice likewise चे ṛṛ.

Combinations of three or more consonants:—ङ śh-; 
ङ śhy-; ङ śry-; हस्त ksmy-; से ṛk-; से ṛks-; से 
ङ dbhy-; से dd-; से dr-; कङ kty-; से ṛtsnya; से ṛktry-; 
ङ hy-; etc.

OTHER GRAPHICAL SIGNS.

18. ह, called avagraha (‘remover’), denotes the elision of an 
initial a (39 b): हे लिये te ‗pi (for te api).

19. о denotes an abbreviation: ओष्ठे, ओष्ठे dhiye, (dhi)yōi.

20. ई and उ are signs of punctuation.

21. NUMERALS: १ 1, २ 2, ३ 3, ४ 4, ५ 5, ६ 6, ७ 7, ८ 8, 
९ 9, ० 0; १०, १०, etc. (combined like ours).

II. ACCENT (सvara ‘tone’).

22. The word-accent (indicated only in the older literature) 
is described as chromatic, produced by pitch, not stress.

Note.—The sentence-accent is merely hinted at in so far as a vocative
within any clause, a personal verb within an independent one, and everywhere certain enclitics are, as a rule, left unaccented.

23. The tone of the word seems to have varied essentially between the normal and one of a higher pitch, although an intermediate tone, produced when the voice descends from the higher key, is also recognized. The normal tone is called an-udatta (‘not raised’ = grave), the higher udatta (‘raised’ = acute), and the descending tone svarita (lit. ‘intonated,’ but of doubtful meaning = circumflex).

Original svarita belongs to a vowel before which an original acute vowel has lost its independence by later euphonic combination, and it occurs but rarely otherwise used. But an enclitic svarita is said to belong to every syllable (in the same or next word) following immediately upon an acute, unless, indeed, that syllable be itself followed by an acute or a circumflex.

Note.—The normal tone is said to be lowered somewhat before the acute, and is then called anudattātara (comparat. of anudatta). Accordingly, every acute should be accompanied by two dependent tones, one before (anudattātara) and one following (svarita) it.

24. Among several methods of indicating the accent, the following (used in the Rig-Veda) is the most common. The tones preceding and following the acute are alone marked: the former (anudattātara) by the sign placed beneath the syllable, and the latter, if svarita (in its widest sense), by the sign placed above it. The acute tone is, then, recognized by being preceded or followed (often both) by these signs. If a word preceded by no others begins with several anudattā-syllables, they are all marked with the anudattātara-sign. Thus, चरित्रि agni, इन्द्र indra, चरित्रिन्ति agnirn, कुम्भ kanyā (orig. kanta); गारियार्व kariyāsi.

Note.—In certain European works, only the acute and the (orig.) circumflex are marked, the former by a small उ u (for udatta) above the acc. syllable, and the latter as already described:—चरित्रि agni, ईन्द्र inā, कुम्भ kanyā.

The tone in this book marked only in the transliterated form: udatta by an acute, and original svarita by a grave accent. The accentual place being in a great number of cases
unknown, it is customary in Europe to pronounce Sanskrit words in accordance with the rules for the Latin accent, although, in fact, their high tone is nowise limited to certain syllables.

SECOND CHAPTER.

Phonetic Laws.

25. INTRODUCTORY.—According to the generally accepted theory, language, such as we know it, has grown out of monosyllabic roots. The Sanskrit language possesses altogether about 900 demonstrable radicals (more than 2000 are by native authorities claimed), of which many, however, are palpably secondary developments. Of the roots, simple or provided with prepositional prefixes, are formed, by means of suffixed derivative endings, primary stems; and of these, in the same way, secondary stems. Two or more roots or stems may, further, be united so as to form a new compound stem. The theoretical forms thus described receive in practical use, for the most part, a further extension by means of added inflectional endings, indicating their various relations in the sentence. And in Sanskrit, finally, all the words of a written sentence are combined so as to form one unbroken chain, which, however, is in European works more or less completely resolved.

Note.—About the discrepant methods of reporting roots that are here written with a final \( a (√gā, \text{ etc.}) \) or with the syllable \( ar (√kar, √mar, \text{ etc.}) \), cf. 227. a. note, 235, and 31. note 2.
26. In the formative and combinatory processes described above, many euphonic changes occur, which may be, conveniently though in part only arbitrarily, divided into two kinds:—

I. Functional Changes, which are connected on the whole with the relations of accent and sense, or caused sometimes by euphony alone; and

II. Formal or Combinatory Changes, which are caused directly by the required adaptation of incidentally meeting letters in the combination of the formative parts of a simple word (internal changes), or of members in a compound or words in a sentence (external changes).

I. Functional Changes.

27. The functional changes may be considered under three heads, viz.: A. Vowel-Changes; B. Nasal Increment and Loss; C. Reduplication.

Note.—An indication merely of the most important functional changes is here given, their laws being treated more fully in connection with the subject of word-formation and inflection.

Rather as an appendix is added the Law of permitted finals, which prepares the way for the treatment of combinatory changes.

A. Vowel-Changes.

28. Vowel-Increment.—According to the theory hitherto universally accepted in the arrangement of European grammars and dictionaries, the simple primitive vowels ə, ɨ, ʉ have, in the evolution of stems and inflectional forms, by means of a twice repeated prefixing of an ə-element—the
first process being called \textit{guna} ('quality'), and the second \textit{vrddhi} ('increment')—been developed, as shown below, to kindred long or diphthongal sounds:

\begin{array}{llll}
\text{Simple vowels} & \ldots & \ldots & a \quad i, \, i \quad u, \, \ddot{u} \\
(a + \text{simple}) \textit{guna}-vowels & \ldots & \ldots & e \quad o \\
(a + \textit{guna}) \textit{vrddhi}-vowels & \ldots & \ldots & \ddot{a} \quad \ddot{a} \quad \ddot{u} \\
\end{array}

Thus from \textit{\breve{v}id} 'know' is derived \textit{veda} 'knowledge,' and farther \textit{vaidya} 'wise'; from \textit{kar} 'do,' \textit{cakāra} 'did,' etc.

The vowel \textit{a} is said to be its own \textit{guna}, and \textit{\ddot{a}} its own \textit{guna} or \textit{vrddhi}.

\textit{Note 1.}—The theory above described, and in which native and most European authorities also include an analogous change of \textit{a}, \textit{i}, first to \textit{ar}, \textit{ai}, and then to \textit{ār}, \textit{āi}, is in modern linguistic science being partly inverted by another starting from the \textit{guna}-forms as the more primitive, which, by the loss of an \textit{a}-element (\textit{e}, \textit{o} being originally = \textit{āi}, \textit{āu}), have been later reduced to simple vowels, or even considering \textit{e} and \textit{o} as in some cases non-diphthongal. This theory, however plausible, is here followed only so far that the palpably radical sounds \textit{ar} and \textit{ai} are recognized as such instead of \textit{r} and \textit{i}.

\textit{Note 2.}—\textit{Guna} and \textit{vrddhi}, which are often seen to be connected with accent-stress, although, in the actual state of the language, that connection is in a large measure blurred or wanting, may occur in any part of the word; but most commonly it affects the radical syllable.

\textit{Note 3.}—An initial or medial vowel is not generally gapped except when prosodically short (i.e. short and followed by only one consonant).

29. Vowel-\textbf{Lengthening}.—Simple vowels are often lengthened: \textit{a} to \textit{ā} (not always distinguishable from the \textit{vrddhi}-vowel \textit{ā}); \textit{i} and \textit{u}, especially when radical and before \textit{y} or \textit{r}, to \textit{ī} and \textit{ū}; and rarely \textit{r} to \textit{ṛ} (121).

30. Vowel \textbf{Progression}.—As a progression, or, in accordance with the usual terminology, as a 'lightening' or 'weakening,' are to be counted the apparently irregular shifts from the guttural to the palatal or labial positions, by which \textit{ā} or \textit{a}, is altered to \textit{I} or, less often, to \textit{ḥ} or \textit{e} (cf. 31. note 2, 227. a. note, 235, 278, 287. c., 297, 306, etc.).

31. Vowel-\textbf{Loss}.—The frequent loss of an \textit{a} or \textit{ā}-vowel,
PHONETIC LAWS.

which is clearly seen to be due to an ultimate (often actual) shift of the accent, forms a very important part of the functional changes. If ā is preceded by a semivowel, that semivowel—unless, indeed, in the formation of the word it should be followed by another vowel—is itself, by a process usually called samprasāraṇa (‘mutual change’), after the loss of a, altered to a vowel of its own class, and generally with that quantity which belonged to the lost sound. Thus:—as ‘be’;

3 pl. s-ānti; mūrdhāna ‘head’; dat. mūrdhān-ē;—sampr., kar ‘do’: kr-tā (p. pple); vac ‘speak’: uc-; hvā ‘call’: ha-, vyā ‘enfold’: rī-, etc.

Note 1.—Roots liable to take samprasāraṇa are those containing the syllable or, al, or ra, and the following containing the syllable ed or yd: ca, vad, vas, vac, rā, rāk, vā, vād, yā, yād; yasya, vyā, vyāh, vyādha; jyā, pyā, vyā.

Note 2.—Roots like kar, marj, kulp, etc., containing the syllable ar or al, are in most works, after Hindu example, written in their contracted form as kr, marj, klpa, etc. (cf. 28. note 1). A few of them, being more often liable to weaken (30) their final ar to ār (ir), or, if preceded by a labial, to ār (ur), than to drop their a, are artificially written as if ending in ā. The most important of these ā- roots are: kā ‘strew,’ gā ‘praise,’ ār ‘swallow,’ ār ‘decay,’ ār ‘pass across,’ ār (or ār) ‘burst,’ ār (or ār) ‘pass across,’ ār ‘crush.’

B. Nasal Increment and Loss.

32. Before the final consonant of a root, or even of an ending, a nasal corresponding to that consonant sometimes appears. The occurrence of that nasal is generally called an ‘increment,’ but it cannot always be told when the nasal is original (probably the more common case) or inserted:—yū-ā-j ‘join,’ mān-ā-nāsī (acc. pl. of māna- ‘mind’), etc.

33. Final n and m are frequently dropped before the initial consonant of an ending:—ha-tā (p. pple of han ‘kill’); ātmā-bhis (instr. pl. of ātmān ‘self’); ga-tā (p. pple of gam ‘go’).

Note.—Recent theories account for the apparent loss of n in a different way, as follows. When a root or a stem in an or am shifts its accent to an added ending (or sometimes back to a redup. syllable), it is weakened (according to 31) by the loss of its a, and the nasal is vocalized instead, being turned into the
vowel a (ka-ta=ka'na-ta, ha-ta, ha-ta). Cases which do not accord with this theory are explained, in general, as owing to an original shift of the accent (originally aitwa-bhūs) or to analogy (ballīks of bali, where n is not preceded by a).

34. Reduplication.—The reduplication of the root—in the present state of the language more or less disguised—is a functional process which is very common in the inflexion of a verb, and which enters also in the formation of some nominal stems. E.g. tan 'stretch': ta-tan-; bhar 'bear': ba-bhar-; kas 'laugh': ja-ghas-; vad 'talk': u-rad- or ud-.

Law of Permitted Finals.

35. A Sanskrit word when uncombined with another is allowed to terminate in any vowel, but only in one of the following ten consonants: k, t, p, a kindred nasal (n, m), h or l; and that consonant, moreover, must in general (cf. note 1) be single.

Any word that would etymologically differ from the requirements of this law submits to it by retaining that consonant alone which follows after the last vowel, and by converting it to the required sound: a mute to its kindred mute (i.e. gutt. kh, g, gh to the gutt. k, etc.); a palatal (by origin a gutt.) usually to the gutt. k, but ch and sometimes j and q to ﬂ; s or r to h; the lingual g to the lingual t; and h (by origin a gutt. or dent. asp.) to the gutt. k, or the dental t, or often to irth—E.g. (bhavante reduced to) bhavan; (vācā) vāk; (likh) lik; (rudh) rnt; (ur) urk; (acās) acāh; (gas) gas; etc.

Note 1.—A radical mute is retained after r; and sometimes a suffixal t in 3rd sing. is saved by the loss of a preceding consonant.

Note 2.—The final m of an uncombined word is sometimes improperly marked as anusvāra.
36. When a final sonant aspirate or h thus loses its aspiration, an initial g, d, or b is in certain roots aspirated instead:—

\[(budh=) bhut; (dhu) dhuk.\]

*Note 1.*—The aspiration of the initial is a restored original aspiration. In inflection, the final may resume its aspiration or throw on a suffix (45, b.)

*Note 2.*—The initials g, d belong to roots in h (save in dogh, dañka), and b to roots in dh.

II. FORMAL OR COMBINATORY CHANGES.

[Usually termed Sandhi (sanc-dhi) ‘combination.’]

37. The combinatorial changes are, as indicated above (26, ii.), of two kinds: Internal, occurring when the formative parts of a single word are combined, and External, when the members of a compound or the words of a sentence are combined (and, it may be added, even in the combination of nom. stems with case-endings that begin with bh or s, and with certain derivative suffixes).

The general principle determining both of these changes is that the language eschews the juxtaposition of certain sounds, as especially of two vowels (hiatus), of a surd and a sonant mute (in external combination, of a surd and a following sonant of any kind), of a lingual and a dental, of m and an unrelated consonant, etc. Whenever, in the formation and combination of words, such sounds would meet, one or both of them are changed. Vowels coalesce, or one of them is resolved into a semivowel or develops such a sound. Other incompatible sounds are adapted to one another, mostly the preceding sound to that one which follows, sometimes inversely, or both ways, and generally so that guttural, lingual, and labial mutes remain within their resp. classes, while other sounds
may be shifted to different classes. Less often there is a loss or an insertion of certain letters.

38. The rules of combination will be given under two heads: A. Vowel Combination, and B. Consonant Combination. Under each will be described first the general law determining both kinds of combination, and then what is peculiar to either (internal or external).

A. Vowel Combination.

39. General Law.—The hiatus is prevented: (a), by a coalescence of the meeting vowels; and (b), by the resolution of one of them (or, if a diphthong, of its final element) into a semi-vowel.

a. Coalescence.—Simple vowels of one class are fused into one corresponding long vowel; and ā forms with ē or ū their guṇa-vowels e or o, and with ē, āē, or o, āu the vṛddhi-vowel āi or āu:—(a-asīt) āsīt, (i-iṣa) iṣa; (suzukta') sūkta; (ā antam), āntam, (nādi iva) nādīva, (kārtī rju) kārtīju; (aṣva-i) aṣve; (nalaupākkhyāna) naloāppkhya; (ekh eka) ekāika; (tathā eva) tahāika; (divāva rukṣa) divāukṣa: etc.

b. Resolution into a Semivowel.—The vowels ē, ū, and r are before a dissimilar vowel changed to their kindred semivowels y, v, and r; the vowel r is similarly changed also after a preceding a or ā, and ā is then shortened:—(pati-os) patyos, (dhanu-in) dhanvin; (duhitārthe) duhitārthe, (upari upari) uparyupari; (brahmaṛṣi) brahmaṛṣi; (mahārṣi) mahārṣi.

A diphthong likewise resolves its final element (always i or u, 29) into a semivowel: i.e. e, ē, o, āu are changed resp. to ay, āy, av, āv. But in the combination of words in

1) The sign = here used to combine compositional members.
Vowel Combination.

A sentence, e and o remain unchanged before a, which disappears; and before other vowels, the resolved diphthongs frequently lose their semivowel (əy always, av often, əv rarely), and the resulting hiatus remains. Thus:—int. comb’n (ue-a = nai-a) naya; (bho-a = bhau-a) bhava; (bhau-a) bhāva;—ext. comb’n: (te abruvan) te śbruvan (about s, cf. 18); (so abruvit) so śbravīt; (vane īste = vanayīste) vana āste; (viṣṇo iha) viṣṇa(v)iha; (tasmāi adadat) tasmā adadat; (tān eva) tāveva.

Note.—This usual way of explaining the peculiar treatment of the diphthongs in sentence-combination is really of doubtful value, but no other has as yet found general acceptance. The vowels e and o are before the lost a accented as if fused with it (əd abruvit=əd śbravīt).

40. Special Internal Changes.—The hiatus may be avoided also by one of the following three methods:—

a. The ā, ī, and ū- vowels often, especially when radical, develop a semivowel (resp. y, y, v) which combines them with a following dissimilar vowel, and ī and ū are then shortened:—(yā-in) yāyin, (dhi-ā) dhiyā; (bhū-i) bhūvi; (yu-anti) yuvanti.

Note.—Similarly ar (r), first weakened to ri, becomes ri.y.

b. A nasal is sometimes inserted, especially after final i or u of nominal stems:—(pati-ā) patinā.

c. Often one of the meeting vowels is lost:—(kriṣṇi-anti) kriṣanti.

41. Hiatus occurs in ītāu ‘sieve’ and prāyu ‘wagon-pole’ alone.

42. Special External Changes.—With radical r, a final a or i of proposition’s forms ār instead of ar; and before e or o it is often lost:—(pra-rjate) prājate, (pra-rjate) prajate.

Note.—Sporadically in a compound, ā forms vṛddhi with i and ā.

43. Duals in ī, ī and e, the plural-form ani (181. u), interjections, especially such as consist of a vowel or terminate in o, and particles in o, remain unchanged:—kaśi imāu, i indra.

About hiatus arising indirectly by a previous change, cf. 39 b and 59.
B. Consonant Combination

(consonant with consonant or vowel).

44. Preliminary.—The intricate laws of consonant combination are much simplified by observing, as fundamental, the following rules:

45. For Internal Combination:

a. Vowels, semivowels, and nasals do not affect a preceding consonant.

Note.—Exceptionally, a nasal may sonantize or assimilate a preceding consonant.

b. Before any other sound, the etymological final of a root or stem (s and r excepted) may be considered as reduced, on the whole, like the final of a word (35-6), observing also that a sonant aspirate or h in certain cases throws its lost aspiration back on the initial, or forward on the ending. (Cf. below.)

Or, more exactly:—aspirates lose their aspiration, a sonant asp. shifting it backward on an initial g, d, b, or forward on t, th (except in dadh, 220);—the palatal c reverts to k (+s=kṣ, 63. c);—j is mostly treated as k, but in some roots (bhrāj, bhṛāj, marj, yaj, rāj, vṛaj, sarj); owing to a different origin, as g7;—ch, ṭ, s before s in verb-forms change to k (the result kṣ, 63. c), before t or th always to ṭ (the result ṭṭ, ṭṭh, 63. a), and in other cases to t;—h becomes k or t (shifting its lost aspiration, 49. b);—y, r are unchanged or vocalized.

46. For External Combination.—The finals of the word, s and r excepted (8. note), must be considered reduced according to 35.

47. Starting from these conditions (45-6) as fundamental, the laws of consonant combinations are those treated under the following five heads: 1. Progressive Adaptation; 2. Regressive Adaptation; 3. Mutual Adaptation; 4. Insertion; 5. Abbreviation.
CONSONANT COMBINATION.

1. PROGRESSIVE ADAPTATION

(finals adapted to sequent initials).

A. WITHOUT CHANGE OF CLASS:—mites.

48. General Law.—A mute must be surd or sonant according as it is followed by a surd or sonant sound (observing 45. a):—(ad-bi) aṭṭi; (vāk-bhīś) vāgḥīś;—(āsūt rājā) adīd-rājā1; (vāk iti) vāgīti.

That is, the finals k, t, p remain before surds, but change before sonants (within a word only son. mutes) to g, ḍ, ḍ, b; and vice versa.

49. Special Internal Changes.—a. A sonant aspirate is not before t and th made surd, but it sonantizes those letters instead, and throws on t its lost aspiration (45. b):—(dabh-ta) lab-dha, (ṛṇādh-ti) ṛṇād-dhi; (ṛṇādh-tha) ṛṇād-dhaḥ.

b. Final k is treated in different ways:

In roots beginning with d (dark excepted), it is treated as if it were gh (its orig. value):—(dūk-bhīś, asc'g to 45. b =) dhug-bhīk; (dok-śi = ḍhok-śi = dhok-śi) dhok-śi; but (dak-ta, asc'g to 49. a) dug-dha; (dak-tha) dug-dhaḥ.

In other roots it is treated as gh only before s in verbal inflection; before t, th, ḍh it is lost, but these letters are then changed to ḍh, and a preceding vowel except r is lengthened or (in saḥ, saḥ) changed to o; before bh and ss in noun-inflection it is treated as ti:—(a-guk-sam) a-guk-sam; (rokh-sūm) rokh-sūm; (maḥ-ta) mūd-kha; (vāk-bhīś) vād-bhīk.

Note.—In druk, muḥ, sūḥ, ḍh is treated in either of these two ways. In saḥ 'bind' it is treated as if ḍh (its orig. value).

c. Radical d or ḍ before n become n or ni:—(pad-na) panna, (vad-nām) pannām.

50. Special External Change.—A mute before a nasal may be, and generally is, changed to a nasal of its own class; and t before l becomes l:—(vāk me) vāgme or generally vānme; (lād nu) tuṇn; (ṭat labhate) tallabhate.

1 Words are written separately, according to the prevailing usage, only when in devanagārī types that could be done without using the virāma.
B. Usually with Change of Class:—t; nasals, s, and r (or h: 9).

The dental t:—

51. External Change:—t assimilates with a following palatal or lingual mute (only not repeating its aspiration), and changes before the palatal č to c, both generally forming c-ch (61):—(tat ca) tacca; (tat chinatti) tacchinatti; (vedavit čuras) vedavichurah; (tat čayate) tāḍayate.

The nasal n:—

52. Internal Change.—Radical n is before a spirant converted into its kindred nasal, i.e. to anusvāra:—(han-si) ḫaṅsi.

Note.—About the loss of n and inserted nasals, cf. 32-3.

53. External Change.—n is before a sonant palatal or lingual mute, and before the palatal č (which generally itself changes to ch, 61) converted into a corresponding palatal or lingual nasal; and before l to anusvāra according to 10. a (i.e. to a nasalized l):—(tăn jayati) tāṅjayati; (tăn čardūlān) tāṅ-chordūlān; (tăn tunāti) tāḷunāti.

Note 1.—About the treatment of n before certain other consonants, cf. 69.

Note 2.—In composition the stem-final n is generally lost.

The nasal m:—

54. General Law:—m before a consonant appears as its corresponding nasal: i.e. (observ’g 45. a) before a closed const’ as ā, ī, ō, ū or m—all, however, in ext’l comb’n usually signed as anusvāra, and even allowed to be pronounced as such,—and before a semi-open const’ as anusvāra according to 10 a. Thus —(gamt-a) gantā, sometimes gamt-a (10. b); (kram-ye) krāṃsyā; (gam-ye: 45. a) gamye;—(grham jagāma) grhaṇjagāma, or gen’ly grhaṃ jagāma; (alam-kr) alaṅkr, or gen’ly alaṅkr; (tam veda) taṃ veda, or rarely taṅveda (10. b); (tam ċṛṇu) taṃ ċṛṇu.
CONSONANT COMBINATION.

55. Special Internal Change.—Radical "m" is before "m" and "r" (in spite of 45. a), as also before "bh" and "sw" in noun-infl., changed to "n". About its loss, cf. 33.

56. Special External Change.—Before "h" followed by a nasal or semivowel, "m" may assimilate with these:—(kim hunte) kim hunte (54) or kimhunte.

s and r (both at the end of a word = h, 9):

57. Internal Change.—r remains; but s is changed in certain cases.

Aside from the changes provided for by the special rules 63. a. and c., s before a sibilant is usually rendered by h (9. note), or it is changed before s (especially in the future tense) to t; and before dh, and sometimes th (cf. 264. b), in verb-inflation, it is dropped. Before bh and sw in noun-inflation, it is regularly (37) treated as in external combination.

58. External Change.—The general treatment of s and r is theoretically simple: before a surd they appear as a sibilant of the class to which that surd belongs, and before a sonant (vowel or consonant) as the sonant r. But this general theory—even when not restricted by 59 and 63. c—is practically modified in so far as s before a gutt. or lab. consonant, and before a sibilant, is rendered by h (9. note), in the former case, owing to the obsolescence and doubtful value of the gutt. and lab. sibilant-signs (2. note), invariably, and in the latter usually:—(tatas kāmas or punar kāmas, theoretically tataḥ or punah kāmas) tataḥ kāmaḥ, punah kāmaḥ; (tatas or punar ca) tataśca, punaśca; (tatas te etc.) tataste; (manuś svayam) manussvayam, or g'ly manuḥ svayam; (indras cūraś) indraçćūraḥ, or g'ly indraḥ cūraḥ;—(devapatiśiva or punariva) devapatisiriva, punarisiva; (sarvāś or punar guṇāś) sarvāśvānāś, punarguṇāś.

59. Exceptions.—a. The common endings as and ās lose their sibilant before any sonant; and if that sonant is the vowel a or a consonant, as, besides, changes its a to o, after
which (acc‘g to 39. b) the following a disappears. Except in the last case, a hiatus occasioned by the loss of s remains:—

(nalas uvāca) nala uvāca, (kas ēpas) ka ēpah; (hanśas ami) hanśa ami; (hanśas visārpaṇus or gatās) hanśa visārpaḥ, hanśa gatāḥ;—(nalas abhūt) nalo abhūt; (nalas nāma) nalo nāma; (upapannas guṇāḥ) upapanno guṇāḥ.

Note 1.—The pronouns soa and ēpas are treated before a as above; but in all other combinations they are reduced to so, ēpa, a resulting hiatus, except in a few sporadic cases, remaining.

Note 2.—The interj. bhūt changes before any sonant to bhū.

b. r, whether original or from s, is dropped before another r, and the preceding vowel, if short, is made long:—(punar rogī) punā rogi.

2. Regressive Adaptation

(sequent sounds, mostly finals, adapted to preceding sounds).

A. WITHOUT CHANGE OF CLASS:—t, th, ṣ.

60. Internal Change.—About the change of t, th after a sonant aspirate, cf. 49.

61. External Change.—Initial ṣ, having caused the conversion of a final t, n to c, ē (51, 53), is itself usually changed to ch:—(vedavicīrakṣa) vedavicīrakṣaḥ; (tān ērvrataḥ) tān ērvrataḥ.

Note.—Some authorities allow this change after any mute:—(vākṣatam) vākṣatāṁ or vākṣatam.

B. USUALLY WITH CHANGE OF CLASS:—dentals and h.

62. The changes here described chiefly consist in the adaptation within a word (or a compound) of a dental to a preceding lingual or palatal, even if these sounds do not directly as finals and initials combine the integral parts of the word, or, often, if they are separated by intervening sounds.
CONSONANT COMBINATION.

Dentals:—

63. General Law (in external combination only for compounds):—

a. A dental consonant after a lingual consonant (chiefly ś) is converted into the corresponding lingual:—(dvīṣ-tas) dvīṣṭaḥ; (haviś-su, acc'g to c., below, haviś-su) haviṣṣu or, g'ly (9. note), haviṣgu; (dvīṣ-dhi, acc'g to 45. b dvīṣ-dhi) dvīḍḍhi; (yuddhiṣṭhīra, acc'g to c.,ṣṭhīra) yuddhiṣṭhīra.

Note 1.—This change occurs chiefly in int. comb'n, where the conjuncta śt, ṣṭh, ṣv, ṣ( = ṭa) thus become very common; but it also is not rare when parts of a compound are combined (duṣṭara; or, indirectly, viṣṭhā).

b. The dental n, if followed by a vowel or by n, m, y or v, is, besides, lingualized by a preceding open or semi-open lingual (r, ṛ; ṛ, ś), even if separated from it by intervening sounds others than palatal (except y), lingual or dental consonants:—(ṛ-ṇoti) ṛṇoti; (var-na) varṇa; (viṣ-nu) viṃṣu; (nārī-nām) nārīṇām; (brahmaṇ-ya) brahmaṇya; (kṛpa-māṇa) kṛpaṃāṇa; (parīṇiṇaye) pariṇiṇaye; (eutrasṭhaṃ) eutraṣṭhaṃ; etc.

Note.—This common change occurs chiefly in int. comb'n, be it that the nasal belongs to a suffix (ṛ-ṇoti, kṛpa-māṇa) or is the final of the root or the stem (rāṇ-yati, brahmaṇ-ya); —but it also is not rare in compounds, when the altering lingual belongs to a prefix (parā, pari, pra, nir for nis, antar, dur for duṣ: e.g. pariṇiṇaye etc.) or to another member closely combined with that one which contains the nasal (aṃgaṃiṇi, eutrasṭhaṃ).

c. The dental s, if followed by any other sound than r (and cf. also 57), is lingualized by a preceding vowel save a or ā, even if anusvāra intervenes, and by k and r:—(ṛ-ce-ṛ)

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Note 1.—This common change occurs chiefly in int. comb'n, be it that the sibilant is the initial of a suffixal element (mahi-pa, gir-pa) or the final of a stem (kavi-pa);—but it also is not rare when members of a compound are combined, especially if the prior member is a prefix ending in i, in which case it is sometimes preserved even if the augment a or a reduplicative syllable intervenes (s initial: nisadha, yudhisthira, abhya-szat from abhi+-sth; s final: dvapaka).

Note 2.—A following r neutralizes the change; and it is rare in any form or derivative containing r or r:—ura; siruri.

64. Special Internal Change.—n is palatalized by a preceding palatal:—(jaj-na) jajña.

65. External Change.—The initial spirant h having sonant-ized a final surd, is itself usually converted into a corresponding sonant aspirate:—(vāk hi) vāggh; (tad-hila) taddhila.

3. Mutual Adaptation.

66. According to rules already given, a mutual change of meeting sounds may occur as follows:—gutt., pal., z or k+s (acc'g to 45. b, 63. c.) = ks; z, s, or s+t or th (45. b, 63. a) = st, sth; gh etc., or k+t or th (49 = gdh etc.; k etc. + h (48, 65) = gh etc.; t or n + g (51, 58, 61) = cch, stuck; as+a = o.

4. Insertion.

67. General Law.—a. Between a vowel (in external combination, a short vowel, or the particles ā, ma) and a following ch, the letter c is generally inserted:—(ga-chati) ga-c-chati (pr-chati) pr-c-chati; (tava-cyā) tava-c-chāyā.

b. The first consonant of a group, and any consonant (save a spirant before a vowel) preceded by r or k may or should be doubled in its unaspirated form:—putra or putra; artha or artha.

68. Internal Insertion.—Meeting consonants are often combined by some inserted vowel, among which i (sometimes i) is by far the most common. When thus used, it is conveniently called union-vowel.

Note.—The union-vowel i appears before various suffixes, and in verb-inflection before pers. endings (especially in perf.) and before the tense-sign s (in aorist,
CONSONANT COMBINATION.

69. External Insertion.—a. Between the dental \( n \) and any surd mute to which there is a corresponding sibilant (\( i.e. \) pal., ling., and dent. surd), such a sibilant (\( \varsigma, \zeta \) or \( s \)) is inserted, and \( n \) changes before it to \( \hat{n} \) :—(kumarān ca) kumarān-\( \varsigma \)-ca; (tapan tarus) tapan-s-tarūḥ.

Note.—The inserted sibilant, being in the Acc. pl. (orig'y. -us) of organic origin, has come to be used, by analogy, even where not historically justified.

b. Between \( s \) and \( \varsigma \) or \( s \), a \( t \), and between \( \bar{s} \) or \( n \) and a sibilant, a \( k \) or \( t \) may be inserted.

c. Any final nasal save \( m \) is after a short vowel doubled before an initial vowel :—(tudan i ti) tudanni ti.

The second nasal is in part of organic origin (tudan for tudant).

5. ABBREVIATION.

70. Several abbreviations occur, of which the most important are:

a. The loss of \( n \) or \( m \) is already referred to, 33. b.

b. \( s \) is sometimes lost (cf. 59, 188. C. I. b, 264 b).

k. \( k \) before a dental mute or \( s \) is reduced to \( \hat{s} \) :—(cakṣa-

d. Before or after another consonant, two mutes of the same class are, optionally or not, reduced to one :—dātā (optional for dat-tvā).

e. After a nasal, the first of two mutes may be dropped :—yuṅ(y)-dhi.
70. Synopsis of the Rules of Consonant Combination.

**General Law.**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Special internal changes</th>
<th>Special external changes</th>
</tr>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Preliminary.</strong>—Except before internal vowels, semivowels, and nasals, which do not affect a preceding consonant, finals are considered reduced according to G5-6.</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Without Change of Class (mutes).**

*Mutes* become surd or sonant according to the following sound [48].

**Sonant asp. + t (h) = sonant + dh [49].**

\( \text{h} \) treated as \( \text{gh} \) (\( \text{dh} \)) or \( t \), or lost [49].

\( d, \_ \) before \( \text{n} \) are assimilated [49, c].

*Mutes* before nasals are generally changed to nasals of their own class; and \( t \) before \( l \) is assimilated [60].

**Usually with Change of Class (\( t; \) nasals, \( r \)).**

\( t \) assimilates with pal. or ling. mutes, and changes before \( c \) to \( e \) [51].

\( n \) before son't pal. or ling. mutes, or \( c \), changes to a pal. or ling. nasal, and before \( t \) to \( l \) [59].

\( s \) before a sibilant becomes \( n \) [52].

\( s \) before \( m \) or \( v \) becomes \( n \) [55].

\( r \) unchanged [57].

\( s \) before a sibilant may become \( \_h \); in certain cases it becomes \( t \), or is lost [57].

**Without Change of Class (\( t, th, c \)).**

\( t, th, c \), after son't asp. become \( dh \) [49].

\( c \) after \( t \) and \( n \) may become \( ck \) [61].

**Usually with Change of Class (dentals and \( h \)).**

**Dental consonant after lingual consonant (chiefly \( s \))** linguizalized [68, a].

\( n \), on certain conditions, linguizalized by \( \tilde{r}, r, s \), even if not directly preceding [68 b].

\( s \), if followed by another sound than \( r \), linguizalized by any pure or nasalized vowel, save \( a \) or \( \_a \), and by \( h, r \) [68, c].

\( s \) palatalized after palatales [64].

\( h = \) preceding consonant's sonant asp. [65].

\( c \) between a vowel (in external combination, short or \( \_a, \_m \)) and \( ak \) [67].

\( t \) between consonants [68].

**Sibilant** between \( s \) and surd pal., ling., or dental mutes [69].

\( n, n, n \), between vowels doubled [69, c].
FORMATION OF NOUNS.

THIRD CHAPTER.

Formation and Inflection of Nouns
(Substantives and Adjectives).

I. FORMATION OF NOMINAL STEMS.

71. Nominal stems are of three principal kinds:—A. Root or Monosyllabic Stems, B. Derivative Stems, and C. Compound Stems.

Note.—Sanskrit dictionaries report nouns not in their Nominative form, but as naked stems.

A. ROOT OR MONOSYLLABIC STEMS.

72. These are to be described separately:—

a. Root-Stems.—A few verb-roots (single or compounded with a prefix) are used directly, without any suffixed element, as nominal stems; and almost any verb-root is liable to be thus used, in a participial sense, as the final member of a compound. The form of the root is either unchanged or slightly modified. The syllable ar is mostly contracted to r, and t is added to a short final vowel (i, u, r). Sporadically the root is found reduplicated. Thus:—dhi (√dhi ‘perceive’) ‘intellect’; dṛṣ (√dṛṣ ‘see’) ‘sight’; āpad (prep. ā+√pad ‘befall’) ‘mishap’; vdc (√vdc ‘speak’) ‘speech’; gīr (gar, ‘call’) ‘voice’; āvid (√āvid ‘know’) ‘knowing’; zhān (√zhān ‘kill’) ‘killing’; zjīt (√zjīt ‘conquer’) ‘conquering’; zjīt (√zjīt ‘make’) ‘making’; dī-ddy ‘arrow.’
b. Monosyllabic Stems, which, having no assignable suffix, appear like roots:—ḥṛḍ ‘heart,’ ṣāp ‘water,’ pāth ‘path.’

B. Derivative Stems.

73. These are of two kinds: a. Primary, and b. Secondary Derivatives.

74. a. Primary (or Verbal) Derivatives.—The single or compounded root, mostly in its strengthened form, but also otherwise changed or, often, unaltered, is extended by the addition of a derivative ending; the connection being sometimes made by means of an inserted element (mostly i, y, v, or t). Thus:—vṛd̐-a (√vṛd̐ ‘know,’ gunated and extended by a) ‘knowledge’; bēj-as (√bēj ‘be sharp’) ‘splendour’; kām-a (√kām ‘love’) ‘love’; būd-dhi (√būdh ‘know’ + -ṭi, 49) ‘intellect’; yā-y-īn (yā ‘go’) ‘walker’; kṛ-t-van (kar ‘make’) ‘active’; megh-ū (miḥ ‘sprinkle’) ‘cloud.’

Note.—Accepting the guna-form of the root as fundamental (29, note 1), the only assumed vṛddhi-increments that occur, ā, ār, āy, ās (the two last for āi, āu) would all be better explained as resulting from a lengthened ā.

75. Accent.—The accent shows a certain tendency (especially pronounced in the very common stems in a) to rest on the radical part of action-nouns (vṛd̐a, kāmā, above), and on the ending of agent-nouns (yāyīn, meghū, above), or to correspond with the accent of the present-stem; but this tendency is crossed and obscured by manifold exceptions.

76. According to the original sense of 1ry stems, their suffixes may be divided into two classes:—(a) Such as form both substantive-action-stems (denoting abstractly the state or action implied by the root, e.g. vṛd̐a, above) and substantive or adjective agent-stems (denoting the agent or recipient of that action, e.g. meghū, kṛt-vaṇ, above), though prevalingly, except perhaps for -vaṇ, the former; and (b) Such as form only agent-stems, chiefly adjectives, but in some instances (-ṭa, -ṭra) almost exclusively substantive.—These suffixes are here, for convenience of reference, reported in alphabetical order; those of the latter
FORMATION OF NOUNS.

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kind (b) being designated by 'b', and all the more common ones by small capital letters:—

A (158), aka b, ajet b, at b, ato b, atu, aturu b, atra b, atha, athu, ad b, an, 
ana, ani, ani, anii, anii, AN'IT b (pr. pple, 292), ania b, akha b, ar b, ara b, aru b, 
alu b, AS (116), A (158), aka b, XA b (pr. pple, 292), aru b, alu b; i (147), ika, 
Ika (tem. to aka) b, iy b, it b, ITI=tA, iinu b, itru b, IN b (118), iIna b, imuu, iru b, 
Ika b, iha b, ITHA b (superl. 160), isha b, is; i (158), ika b, ii, iin, iran, iyya b 
(compar. 160), iIna b, iha b, iha b; u b (147) ukha b, ut b, utru b, ura b, ura b, 
ura b, uro b, uro b, s; s b, saka b, siku, sru b, sru b; r b, rt b, eru b; kA b, ta b (pr. pple, 296), 
TAR b (121), Tos, T (147), tu, tU-M (inf., 313), tnu b, tra b, tri b, tru b, tha; 
TA b (pr. pple, 296), NOS, ni, nus; pa b; maa, man, Mara b, MUNA b (pr. pple, 292); 
y b, su; NA' b, ri b, ru b; la b, sa b; vaN b (pr. pple, 292), van (125) vana, 
van, vanu, vara; sa b, sara b, sus, susa b, susu b.

Note.—Dissyllabic suffixes are probably owing to the mere insertion after the stem of a 'union-voel' (as in i-ka, i-ta, i-tra, etc.), or to an original combination of 1ry and 2ry suffixes (as in a-lo, u-lo, etc.)—two phenomena that may be ultimately akin,— or to an extension (as in van,a, van,i, etc.). To the suffixes enumerated above might be added various feminine forms, described below under the head of declension.

77. b. SECONDARY (or Nominal) DERIVATIVES.—The primary stem, sometimes unaltered but mostly strengthened by a vṛddhi-change of the initial syllable, generally receives a new suffix either added directly to its ending or replacing it. But several stems in a are changed only by the vṛddhi-increment, without receiving any new suffix. Thus:—buddhi-mat (buddhi 'intellect') 'vis'; vaid-yā (véda 'knowledge') 'learned'; dāiv-ya (déva 'God') 'divine'; āyas-ā (āyas 'metal') 'metal', adj.; pārthiv-a (prthivi 'earth') 'earthly'; māitrā (mitrā) 'Mitra-like.'

Note 1.—Even compound words are developed by an analogous process, or exceptionally a double vṛddhi takes place:—sām-krda or sām-krda (sa-kṛd 'friend') 'friendship'.

Note 2.—In initial syllables, y and e are treated as i and u (their orig. value), being strengthened to ā-ya, ā-ya:—vālīyaHra (vāyābra 'tiger') 'relating to a tiger,' cūrāma (cūr 'dog') 'canine.'
Note 3.—Finals are sometimes changed. Thus, u before a vowel becomes ar, the nasal n before a consonant is lost, etc.

78. Accent.—Secondary derivatives having the vyddhi-increment accent either the first or the last syllable. As a rule, the primary accent when resting on a suffix which is replaced by a new suffix is shifted to initial syllable of the derivative, but in other cases to the final. To this rule there are, however, several exceptions. Derivatives formed without the vyddhi-increment mostly accent the final syllable or retain the primary accent.

79. Suffixes.—Secondary suffixes, usually forming adjectives which denote some relation to the idea expressed by the primary stem, though often, in special uses, stereotyped as nouns, are of three kinds: such as form adjectives or substantives of heterogeneous meanings (the great majority); such as form possessive adjectives: e.g. a'gyri (a'gya 'horse') 'possessing horses,' baliya (bali 'strength') 'strong' (the suffixes being ḫa, mī, vi, tan, man, vant); such as form comparatives (tan) and superlatives (tana); and, finally, such as form abstract substantives (tā, te). These suffixes here follow in alphabetical order:

śka, akā; anita (808) āni, āyana, āyya, āra, āla, āla; i, ika, iks (118), inā, inyati, is, iya, ira, ika; ḫ (155), ina, lya; ν, νa, νa; c, cya, cya; κ; tama (160), tara, τara (160). ι, ti, thia, ina, yta; ṣa; ma, man (138), maya, uma; ya, ya; ta; ta, tan, vant (138), tana, vah (fem. to vah, 126), tala, cya, ca.

Note.—To the suffixes enumerated above, should be added, as used also in secondary verbs, such 1ry suffixes as form verbal nouns (participles etc.), the various fem. suffixes in ḫ or i, and a few forming nouns from numerals and particles (tana, vya, tan, etc.).

C. Compound Stems.

80. By combining, as prior member, an unflected word of any kind with a nominal stem to which it bears some syntactical relation, a compound nominal stem of the simplest kind is formed; and by joining one or more such stems to a simple or compound noun-stem, complex compounds arise, themselves virtually consisting of but two principal members.

The whole subject of compound stems is here treated under two heads, viz. Form of the Compositional Members, and Meaning of Compound Stems.
FORMATION OF NOUNS.

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81. FORM OF THE COMPOSITIONAL MEMBERS.

a. Prior members generally appear in their stem-form or, if the stem is variable, in their weak or middle form (95). Occasionally they are inflected or otherwise modified.

They appear inflected chiefly as Accusatives or Locatives governed by a final member having a participial force, but also in other case-forms and otherwise combined:— Acc. aridāma ‘enemy-subduing,’ bhayaśākara ‘fear-inspiring’; Loc. sarvāśā (‘water-born’) ‘lily,’ yuddhiśṭhila (‘battle-form’) a proper name; Gen. pl. vijānapati ‘lord of men’; Nom. pitāśputra ‘father and son.’

The end-syllable has suffered some change, as in mañā for mañānt ‘great, dus for ded ‘two,’ gavaś for gō ‘cow,’ and in fem. stems, whose final vowel is conditionally shortened.

b. Final members not unfrequently change their ending, chiefly so that an a-stem arises (and the compound is then inflected according to its new termination). Thus:—

A final nasal is often dropped: spo (\(\sqrt{gam}\)) ‘going,’ svāja for svāja ‘king,’ etc.

A long final vowel, especially ā, is often shortened, and ī (i) changed to a:—
svāka (\(\sqrt{svā} ‘stand’\) ‘standing,’ ṣvāna (\(\sqrt{ḥō} ‘be’\) ‘being,’ svākha for ṣvāhi ‘friend,’ svāka for ṣvāji ‘eye,’ etc.

To a final consonant or a resolved vowel is frequently added an a; and sometimes (in adj.-compounds) one of the suffixes ka or in:— mana被认为是 mind;

svāda (\(\sqrt{svā} ‘know’\)) ‘knowing,’ gavaś for go ‘cow,’ sṛṣita for sṛi ‘splendor,’ svādkhin (\(\sqrt{yudh} ‘fight’\)) ‘fighting.’

A t is added after a short final vowel, cf. 72. a.

82. Accent. Compounds regularly accent only one of the members (sporadically two). Co-ordinatives, comp’ds with a root-final, transf. adjectives with the neg. pref. a(n), and many substantives accent the final syllable; other compounds retain the accent of the prior or final member, those with the pref. a(n) and most transf. adj., that of the prior.

MEANING OF COMPOUND STEMS.

This subject here requires a special attention, because Sanskrit compounds, being formed with great freedom, cannot all be in dictionaries reported.

83. According to the syntactical relation of the prior member to the final, compounds may be divided into two