vyākaraṇa-praveśaḥ

An introduction to traditional Sanskrit grammar



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Preface to the print edition

This is the print edition of the *vyākaraṇa-praveśaḥ* guide hosted at learnsanskrit.org. This PDF contains all of the same content as our online guide.

We generated this PDF document on 4 June 2022 by processing our website with a special program. This program is not perfect, and its output does not always look clean and professional. Even so, we hope that you find this PDF useful for your needs.

If you have any questions or comments about the material, please reach out to us at learnsanskrit.org/contact.

Introduction

About our guide

This guide describes the fundamentals of the *Aṣṭādhyāyī*, the core text of the Pāṇinian school of Sanskrit grammar.

At heart, the <code>Aṣṭādhyāyī</code> is a practical system that serves a practical need: to decide which Sanskrit expressions are valid and which are not. In this guide, we focus on <code>how</code> the system works and avoid digressions into theory and minute details. We discuss all of of the text's major systems, including nominal and verbal derivation, the root and nominal suffix systems, and compounding.

Our guide expects a basic familiarity with Sanskrit grammatical concepts. But interested beginners will still be able to follow along with a bit of extra work.

If you have never studied grammar before, or if you just want a general overview of Sanskrit grammar, please use our <u>Sanskrit for Beginners</u> guide instead.)

Origins of the Pāṇinian school

The **Vedas**, the oldest of all Sanskrit compositions, have been passed down through a continuous oral tradition that is thousands of years old.

As time passed and cultures changed, six disciplines called the *vedānga* evolved to protect the Vedas in their structure and function. There is *śikṣā*, the study of speech sounds and their correct pronunciation; *chandas*, the study of meter and poetic form; *nirukta*, the study of etymological interpretation; *jyotiṣa*, the study of timekeeping and the stars; *kalpa*, the study of correct ritual; and *vyākaraṇa*, the most prestigious of the six, which is the study of grammar and linguistic analysis.

Though there have been many schools of *vyākaraṇa*, there is only one that is truly pre-eminent. That is *pāṇinīya-vyākaraṇa*, the tradition of the grammarian **Pāṇini**. Pāṇini lived sometime around the 5th century BCE, and we know little about his life beyond that. But what we *do* have is the system he developed and perfected. Pāṇini's treatment of Sanskrit is so thorough and so precise that no

older schools of *vyākaraṇa* survive. Evidently, they were no longer worth retaining.

The core of the Pāṇinian system is the *Aṣṭādhyāyī* ("the eight chapters"), a list of around 4000 rules divided into eight chapters. Together, these rules generate grammatically valid Sanskrit expressions. And if an expression is *not* grammatically valid, then it cannot be generated by the system of rules.

The *Aṣṭādhyāyī* is so comprehensive that essentially all later Sanskrit literature is consistent with its model of Sanskrit. Perhaps Pāṇini's greatest achievement is that he "froze" Sanskrit and preserved the form it has today.

The later tradition

The Aṣṭādhyāyī is the core of the system, but it depends on a number of secondary texts, including:

- the *Dhātupāṭha*, which is a list of all basic verb roots with their meanings;
- the *Gaṇapāṭha*, which is a "list of lists" of various words and stems;
- the *Uṇādipāṭha*, which contains rules for ad-hoc derivations

In addition, there are important texts later in the tradition that clarify the overall system and fix omissions and oversights from the original text. The most important of these are the *Vārttika* by Kātyāyana and the *Mahābhāṣya* by Patañjali. These two texts are so vital that Pāṇini, Kātyāyana, and Patañjali are together called the *munitraya* ("the triad of sages") responsible for the tradition.

This is not to mention the centuries of commentary and exposition that followed later, most notably in the *Kāśikāvrtti* and the *Vaiyākaranasiddhāntakaumudī*.

In this guide, however, we focus squarely on the *Aṣṭādhyāyī* with occasional reference to the *Dhātupāṭha* and the *Gaṇapāṭha*.

Why study the Astādhyāyī?

The *Aṣṭādhyāyī* has an obvious appeal to anyone who is intellectually curious. If you are interested in linguistics, mathematics, computer science, information theory, philosophy of language, Indian intellectual traditions, or all of the above: welcome! Feel free to skip to the next section below.

There is also an obvious appeal to those who want to preserve traditional Indian practices and knowledge systems. If this applies to you, we think you should proceed in the traditional way and find a teacher, perhaps through the classes from Vyoma-Saṃskṛta-Pāṭhaśālā.

Otherwise, the common-sense reason to study the *Aṣṭādhyāyī* is that it will improve your Sanskrit. But is that actually true?

It's true if you are an advanced learner who wants to understand subtle points of usage and become an authority on correct Sanskrit. Then the $Astadhyāy\bar{\imath}$ will be of tremendous value to you.

But for beginning and intermediate learners, we do not think that studying the *Aṣṭādhyāyī* will meaningfully improve your Sanskrit. Research on second language acquisition is clear: we acquire proficiency in a language by hearing or listening to meaningful content. Engaging with meaningful content is much more important, and much more effective, than studying grammar rules. (See our <u>resources page</u> for tips on where to find such content.)

Entering the Astādhyāyī

The *Aṣṭādhyāyī* is exceptionally difficult to understand without help. This is for several reasons:

- It follows the **sutra** style, which is aphoristic, terse, and only truly accessible through expert commentaries. (The advantage of the sutra style is that its texts are compact and easier to memorize.)
- It uses highly technical Sanskrit that is more like a computer program than a piece of natural language. Even someone fluent in Sanskrit will struggle to understand it.

• Its core rules are often mutually dependent: to know one, we must understand several others.

It is only natural, then, that an entire tradition of Sanskrit commentaries has arisen to make the Astadhyayt accessible. Even so, the true beginner finds these texts complex and overwhelming. And of course, they presume a thorough knowledge of Sanskrit.

There are also translations and non-Sanskrit commentaries available. But these, too, are often too complex to be useful to the novice. Likewise, the various popular resources are often too vague or basic to say anything useful about how the system really works.

Our approach

The Aṣṭādhyāyī constantly raises fascinating theoretical questions. But at its core, it is a practical system that serves a practical need: to decide which expressions are valid Sanskrit and which are not. Our approach is likewise a practical one that builds up the Pāṇinian system from scratch.

Each lesson starts with a specific problem that we need to address. Then, the lesson introduces the specific rules and concepts that the Pāṇinian system uses to solve the problem. By solving one problem, we often catch sight of another, which we address in the next lesson. In this way, we work through the system as a whole.

Our guide is split into different **units**, each of which focuses on a major component of Sanskrit grammar. Within each unit, we focus on different functional areas of the text. We cover each area with enough detail to give a useful sense of what it is like, but not in so much detail that the reader is lost in minor exceptions.

Here is what the units ahead contain:

1. We start with the problem of modeling different sounds and sound rules. In the process, we learn about some of the core devices that the *Aṣṭādhyāyī* uses to stay expressive and concise.

- 2. Once we have a clear high-level view of the system, we look at the principles of verb derivation. Starting from an initial set of semantic conditions, we apply the rules of the system to create complete words.
- 3. We then do the same for nominal derivation. We also take a detour into how the $Astadhyay\bar{\imath}$ handles the semantics of sentences.
- 4. Next, we investigate the root suffixes (*kṛt*) that create various verbal nouns and adjectives.
- 5. As follow-up, we investage the nominal suffixes (*taddhita*) that extend and modify nominal stems.
- 6. Finally, we investigate the compound system.

Digressions

These blue boxes contain extra discussion on a specific point of interest. These discussions are solely for your interest, and you can skip them entirely if you so choose.

Our hopes for this guide

If you want to deepen your Sanskrit knowledge, we hope our guide will provide a smooth and useful entrance into the world of $vy\bar{a}karaṇ a$. If you are curious about the $Ast\bar{a}dhy\bar{a}y\bar{\imath}$ itself, we hope our guide will reveal the core of the system and give you a sense of how its ancient creators approached the world of word and language.

Not everyone can master the Astadhyayt, but everyone can appreciate its profound and ingenious design. We hope that our guide will make it easier than ever to do so.

A summary of Sanskrit

If you know **zero** Sanskrit, you can still follow along with our series. But it certainly helps to have a basic sense of what Sanskrit is like and how it works. That's what we hope to give you here.

The alphabet

We're still adding audio to our website. For now, you can listen to all of these sounds through this resource from the University of British Columbia.

Sanskrit is written phonetically. Each sound has one symbol, and each symbol corresponds to one sound. The sounds below are provided in both the usual Devanagari script (संस्कृतम्) and in romanized Sanskrit (saṃskṛtam). All Devanagari in our lessons will be displayed next to its romanized version.

These sounds are colored according to where in the mouth they are pronounced. We will explain this system in the lessons to come.





Given all of these sounds, we have the first question that the *Aṣṭādhyāyī* aims to answer: which phonetic distinctions are relevant to grammar?

Sandhi

In every spoken language, native speakers make subconscious changes to their speech so that they can speak more quickly and fluently. For example, some native English speakers might drop the final "g" of words like "running" or "drinking." These kinds of changes are called **sandhi**.

Sanskrit sandhi changes are extensive, and they are almost always written down. These changes occur both within words and between words, and they depend both on specific sounds and on the semantics of different words and suffixes.

Given these sandhi changes, we have a second question: which sandhi changes apply in which contexts?

Basic words

Roughly, Sanskrit has three types of words. These are **nominal** words (nouns, adjectives, participles, and the like), **verbs**, and a broad third category we can call **uninflected words**. The example below uses each of these three word types:

रामो न जगाम।

rāmo na jagāma.

Rama didn't go.

Sanskrit also relies on something called **inflection**. Inflection is when we change part of a word to express a new meaning. English uses inflection in a limited way: we have one *cat* but two *cats*. Or perhaps you *ate* yesterday but will *eat* today. But Sanskrit nominals and verbs use inflection much more extensively:

नयसि

nayasi

You lead

नीयेरन

nīyeran

They might be led.

नेष्यताम्

neṣyatām

of those about to lead

निनीषन्तः

ninīṣantaḥ

those who want to lead

गजाय

gajāya

for the elephant

गजेषु

gajeșu

among the (many) elephants

and in much more elaborate patterns, with multiple sandhi changes:

लभे

labhe

I obtain.

रुणध्मि

runadhmi

I obstruct.

This raises a third question: Which inflectional patterns apply in which contexts, and with what semantics?

Sentences

Because Sanskrit words are highly inflected, Sanskrit does not usually depend on a specific word order. For example, the two sentences below have the same semantics:

रामो रावणं हन्ति

rāmo rāvaṇaṃ hanti Rama kills Ravana.

रावणं रामो हन्ति

rāvaṇaṃ rāmo hanti Rama kills Ravana.

Since word order is relatively unimportant in Sanskrit, the *Aṣṭādhyāyī* focuses instead on a fourth question: *how do words with different semantics combine to express sentence-level semantics?*

The human constraint

Finally, we should remember that the $Astadhyay\bar{t}$ is part of a culture that values oral tradition and memorization. So a fifth question it tries to address is a pragmatic one: how can this system be compressed to the smallest possible form, so that it is easy to memorize and easy to recall?

With this basic framing, we are ready to begin.

An overview of the Aṣṭādhyāyī

Feel free to skip this lesson and come back to it later.

The shape of the text

Adult learners of the $A s t \bar{a} dh y \bar{a} y \bar{\iota}$ often think that the text's rules have an unusual or unintuitve ordering. Why do the rules of the $A s t \bar{a} dh y \bar{a} y \bar{\iota}$ have the ordering that they do? There are two basic factors that are responsible.

The first factor is that the $A\underline{s}\underline{t}\bar{a}dhy\bar{a}y\bar{t}$ is part of a long oral tradition. This fact has several important implications:

- In traditional Sanskrit education, students chant and memorize several works by rote. Many students don't even understand what they're chanting! So there is less reason to make the rules follow an intuitive order.
- Older students begin to study and unlock the *contents* of what they have memorized with the help of a skilled teacher. At every point in the education process, the student can rely on an expert who has memorized and understood the entire text.
- A memorized rule can be recalled at a moment's notice regardless of where it is in the text, so there is less pressure to rearrange rules into a specific order.
- Oral compositions tend to be more fluid than written compositions: they borrow heavily from past works, and they generally change over the generations.

The second factor is that the $A s t \bar{a} dh y \bar{a} y \bar{\imath}$ aims for overall concision ($l \bar{a} g h a v a$) in its total length. Again, this fact has several important implications:

- Two rules that share a similar context might be grouped together even if the operations they describe are conceptually different.
- Two rules that are conceptually quite similar might be split apart if their contexts are different enough.

- Some interpretations of the text would make a rule purposeless (*vyartha*), which contradicts the general spirit of *lāghava*. On this basis, an interpretation of the system is invalid if it makes a rule purposeless.
- Likewise, rules are usually stated the way they are for a specific reason. Often, that reason is an indicator $(j\tilde{n}\bar{a}paka)$ of a critical principle of interpretation.

To some extent, these factors are in tension. The *Aṣṭādhyāyī*'s origin in an oral tradition means that a particular rule's ordering is relatively less important. But the *Aṣṭādhyāyī*'s emphasis on overall concision means that a rule's ordering can be vitally important.

Sections of rules

In practice, the result is that the $Ast\bar{a}dhy\bar{a}y\bar{\imath}$ is a set of **sections**, where the specific ordering of sections is not very important but the ordering of rules *within* a section is highly important.

Likewise, the eight chapters of the *Aṣṭādhyāyī* generally follow a logical flow:

- 1. Definitions and rules of interpretation.
- 2. The compound system.
- 3. Root suffixes: verb endings, derived roots ($san\bar{a}di$), suffixes that make nominal bases (krt), and auxiliary suffixes (vikarana) inserted between the root and the verb suffix.
- 4. Nominal suffixes (part 1).
- 5. Nominal suffixes (part 2).
- 6. Duplication (*dvitva*), vowel sandhi, and accent.
- 7. Various suffix substitutions, as well as sound changes caused by suffixes.
- 8. Various sandhi rules.

So although there are some exceptions, the derivation of a specific word usually flows smoothly from book 1 to book 8.

More specifically, the derivation often follows this basic structure:

- 1. Add and define the base of the derivation. For verbs, this is a verb root. For nominals, this is a nominal stem. (Chapters 1 and 2)
- 2. Add any suffixes needed in the derivation. (Chapters 3, 4, and 5)
- 3. Apply sound changes caused by the specific suffixes. (Chapters 6 and 7)
- 4. Apply sandhi changes to merge all terms together into a single expression. (Chapter 8)

Sounds

Introduction

Sanskrit words and sentences undergo many different kinds of **sound changes**. Vowels might combine or become consonants. Consonants might shift from one class to another. And even more extensive transformations are possible. Together, these sound changes are called **sandhi**.

Many Sanskrit students learn a basic version of sandhi in the course of their studies. But Pāṇini is not content with modeling the basics. Instead, his goal is to model *all* of Sanskrit's sandhi rules as fully as he can. And to do so, he creates several devices that let him express these rules clearly and concisely.

In this unit, we will learn about the specific techniques and devices that Pāṇini uses to model Sanskrit's sounds and sandhi rules. Starting from scratch, we will build up his core system step by step. And by the end, we will have a simple but complete system that contains most of the *Aṣṭādhyāyī*'s essential components. Once we have that basic system in hand, we can explore the rest of the grammar and see how the Pāṇinian system works in practice.

Sounds for beginners

The notes below provide a summary of the Sanskrit sound system. If you know Sanskrit already, you can continue to the next lesson.

Most Sanskrit sounds are pronounced with five **places of articulation** within the mouth. You can see these five points marked in the image below:



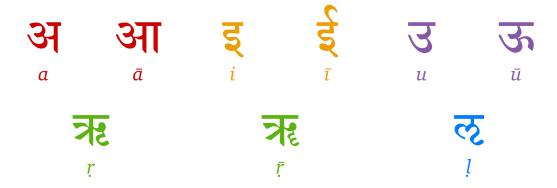
From right to left, these five points are:

- the soft palate
- the hard palate
- the alveolar ridge
- the base of the teeth
- the lips

All of the sounds below are colored according to which place of articulation they use. Sounds that use multiple places of articulation, or that use places of articulation other than the five above, are left black.

The colors below differ from the ones used in the image. The image uses red, orange, yellow, green, and blue. Respectively, we use red, orange, green, blue, and purple below.

First are the **vowels**. The first nine vowels are called **simple vowels**:



And the others are called **compound vowels** since they are made from combinations of the simple vowels:



Of these vowels, five (a, i, u, r, l) are called **short**. The others are called **long** and are pronounced for twice the duration of the short vowels. There is also a third length, *pluta* (prolated), that is much longer and much rarer.

All Sanskrit vowels can take one of three **accents**: $ud\bar{a}tta$ (high), $anud\bar{a}tta$ (low), and svarita (mixed). And they can be either nasal or non-nasal. So each of the vowels above has $3 \times 2 = 6$ variants.

Next, we have the first twenty-five consonants.

क ka	स्व kha	ga	E gha	na
च ca	es cha	آر ja	झ jha	ج ña
Z	T	رط da	Z ḍha	U ṇa
<mark>ব</mark>	U tha	d a	U dha	na
प	T pha	ba	H bha	H

This is a grid with five rows and five columns. Each row in the grid uses a different place of articulation, and each column encodes different properties:

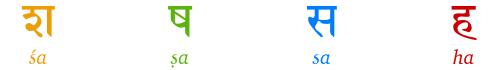
- The first two columns (*ka*, *kha*) are **unvoiced** sounds, meaning that we pronounce them without using our vocal cords. (Compare "p" and "b" in English.) All the others are **voiced**. Vowels are also voiced.
- The second and fourth columns (*kha*, *gha*) are **aspirated** sounds, meaning that we pronounce them with an extra puff of air. All the others are **unas pirated**.
- The fifth column ($\dot{n}a$) contains **nasal** consonants, and the other columns contain **stop** consonants.

Next are the **semivowels**, which have a close relationship to the vowel sounds. All of them are voiced:



(Technically, *va* uses two points of pronunciation. But this is a minor detail, and it can essentially be treated as if pronounced only with the lips.)

Finally, we have the **sibilants**. *ha* is voiced, but the rest are unvoiced:



Sandhi for beginners

When sounds are pronounced continuously, they can change each other's pronunciation. *Sandhi* is the name for these sound changes.

Most sandhi changes are between two sounds that appear next to each other in continuous speech. Here are some examples of common sandhi changes:

$$\mathbf{\xi} + \mathbf{3} \to \mathbf{\xi}$$

$$i + u \to yu$$

$$\mathbf{3} + \mathbf{\xi} \to \mathbf{\xi}$$

$$a + i \to e$$

$$\mathbf{4} + \mathbf{3} \to \mathbf{7}$$

$$k + a \to ga$$

Some sandhi changes are optional and are applied at the speaker's preference. Also, sandhi changes might be allowed or blocked in different environments, such as:

- at the end of a word
- at the end of a word that expresses the dual number

- at the end of specific words
- at the end of a verb prefix

In other words, sandhi changes are not purely phonetic. We must also understand *what* is being said so that we can apply sandhi changes correctly.

The Shiva Sutras

Many of Sanskrit's sandhi rules apply only to specific groups of sounds. Some might apply only to simple vowels. Others might apply only to consonants that are neither semivowels nor nasals. And still others apply to more specific groups.

So as we begin to create our system, we must answer a vital and fundamental question: *How might we refer to different groups of sounds concisely?*

Let's enter the Pāṇinian system by seeing how it answers this question.

A list of sounds

Suppose we visit a fruit shop that sells different kinds of fruits. Perhaps it sells the following:

- mangoes
- coconuts
- jackfruit
- oranges
- apples
- lychee fruits
- papayas

Suppose that we want to buy mangoes, coconuts, jackfruit, and oranges. One way to ask for these fruits would be to just name each fruit we want. That would be fine, but it would take a long time to say the name of each fruit.

If the clerk at the store knows the list above, however, we can just say "mangoes to oranges" to get the fruits we want. Doing so is faster and more convenient.

In contrast, suppose instead that we want to buy just mangoes, jackfruit, and papayas. These items are spread out far apart in our list. Now we can't say something like "mangoes to papayas" because that would include too many fruits that we don't want.

What we see from this simple exercise is that the *ordering* of fruits in our list is important. If we order our list well, we ensure that we can quickly make the requests we care about. If we order it poorly, we create extra work for ourselves (and for the poor clerk).

Pāṇini organizes the Sanskrit sounds in a similar way to this list of fruits. By ordering the Sanskrit sounds carefully, he can easily and efficiently make the groups he needs. And if we know how to use his list, we can use it to concisely refer to different groups of Sanskrit sounds.

First, here is the list:

अइउण् aiuņ ऋ ल क ŗ ļ **k** ए ओ ङ eon ऐ औ च ai au c ह य व र ट् ha ya va ra t ल ण la n ञ म ङ ण न म् ña ma na na m झभ ज jha bha ñ घ ह ध ष् gha dha dha 5

```
जबगडद्श्
ja ba ga ḍa da ś
खफ छठथचटतव्
kha pha cha ṭha tha ca ṭa ta v
कप्य्
ka pa y
श्व सस्र्
śa ṣa sa r
हल्
```

Some say that this arrangement was inspired by the beat of Shiva's drum. So these rules are often called the **Shiva Sutras**. But how do the Shiva Sutras actually work?

How the Shiva Sutras work

Each rule in this list has two parts. The black letters are ordinary sounds. And the red letters at the end of each rule are special letters called *its*. These *it* letters are not part of our list of sounds. Instead, they just mark the end of each rule.

Suppose that we want to refer to all of the vowels. We start by choosing the first item we want, which is a. Then we choose one of the it letters to mark the end of our list. So we would choose c, since c follows the last vowel in the list. The combination of these two is ac. So that is the name for all of the Sanskrit vowels: ac.

Likewise, we can quickly refer to other groups of sounds:

अल् al all letters



hal

all consonants

झश्

jha**ś**

all voiced stop consonants

झष्

jha**ş**

all voiced aspirated stop consonants

खर्

khar

all unvoiced sounds

But before we continue, perhaps you've noticed a few strange features of this list:

- The vowels \bar{a} , $\bar{\imath}$, \bar{u} , and \bar{r} are missing. We will explain this in the next lesson. For now, just know that a refers to both the short vowel a and the long vowel \bar{a} . Likewise for the other vowels.
- ha appears twice. The second ha makes it easier to quickly refer to the four sibilant sounds (śal). And when we use this list, any new name we create must include more than one sound. So hal will always refer to all consonants, and never to just the sound ha.
- *n ends two different rules*. This is a real ambiguity, and we must rely on context and commentaries to make the usage clear. Perhaps Pāṇini ran out of *it* letters and was forced to reuse one.

Review

Overall, the Shiva Sutras give us a clean and concise way to refer to different groups of Sanskrit sounds. How well does it actually work for the rest of the Pāṇinian system? According to one mathematician, this arrangement is mathematically optimal.

Even so, we still have some important open questions:

- In the Shiva Sutras, why does the sound a refer to both short a and long \bar{a} ?
- What is an *it* letter, really?

The next two lessons will answer each of these questions in turn.

savarņa sounds

The previous lesson described how the Shiva Sutras let us refer to different sound groups concisely. But we still have some important open questions:

- In the Shiva Sutras, why does the sound a refer to both short a and long \bar{a} ?
- What is an it letter, really?

This lesson will answer the first question, and the next lesson will answer the second question. As we answer these questions, we will also see some actual rules from the Astadhyayi and enter the system more deeply.

A new problem

To start the discussion, here is a small sandhi change:

सीता अश्वम् इच्छित
$$\rightarrow$$
 सीताश्वम् इच्छित $s\bar{t}t\bar{a}$ aśvam icchati \rightarrow s $\bar{t}t\bar{a}$ śvam icchati

The vowels \bar{a} and a combine to a single shared vowel \bar{a} . And there are other combinations possible, too:

$$3 + 3 \rightarrow 31$$

$$a + a \rightarrow \bar{a}$$

$$3 + 31 \rightarrow 31$$

$$a + \bar{a} \rightarrow \bar{a}$$

$$31 + 31 \rightarrow 31$$

$$\bar{a} + \bar{a} \rightarrow \bar{a}$$

Sita wants a horse.

All four of these combinations are part of the same general idea: if any two "a" vowels combine, the result is \bar{a} :

$$3/31 + 3/31 \rightarrow 31$$

 $a/\bar{a} + a/\bar{a} \rightarrow \bar{a}$

How can we refer to the category of "a" vowels concisely? More generally, some sounds are *similar* to each other in an important way. *How can we concisely refer to similar sounds?*

Our first rule

To address the question above, we need several rules. Pāṇini starts by introducing this rule:

तुल्यास्यप्रयतं सवर्णम्। १.१.९

tulyāsyaprayatnam savarņam (1.1.9)

tulya-āsya-prayatnam savarnam

[Sounds with] the same āsya (place of articulation) and prayatna (articulatory effort) are called savarna (similar).

This is the first rule we've seen from the Astadhyayt, so let's dwell on it for a moment:

- The numbers 1.1.9 mean that this is chapter 1, part 1, rule 9. The Aṣṭād-hyāyī has eight chapters, and each chapter has four parts. You can click on these numbers to see the rule's traditional interpretation and commentary, as collected on ashtadhyayi.com.
- First, we show the original rule in Devanagari and Roman script.
- Next, we show the rule with its sandhi changes removed and with its compound separated, so that it is easier to understand. To save space on your screen, we've written this version in just Roman script.
- In the translation, the words in (parentheses) are short translations of the Sanskrit terms they follow.
- In the translation, the words in [brackets] are not explicitly in the rule and must be provided from context. Context may come either from prior rules or from our prior knowledge of the system.

Now, what does this rule actually mean?

• $\bar{a}sya$ refers to one of the places of articulation in the mouth: the soft palate (where we pronounce ka), the hard palate (ca), the alveolar ridge (ta), the teeth (ta), or the lips (pa).

• prayatna refers to how these sounds are pronounced: with full contact between places of articulation (as with ka), with partial contact (ya), or with no contact (a).

So, sounds with the same $\bar{a}sya$ and prayatna are called savarṇa, which means "similar." This rule defines the term savarṇa, which can then be used in the rest of the system. Rules that define a term are called $saṇj\bar{n}\bar{a}$ ("designation") rules.

However, this rule is too general. By 1.1.9, the sounds i and \acute{s} could be counted as savarṇa with each other. This definition will cause many problems later. Has Pāṇini made a mistake?

Counteracting a rule

Pāṇini has not made a mistake. In the $Aṣṭādhyāy\bar{\imath}$, it is common for one rule to state a general principle and for another to counteract it. To counteract the overapplication of 1.1.9, we have rule 1.1.10:

नाज्झलौ। १.१.१०

nājjhalau (<u>1.1.10</u>)

na ac-halau

But vowels and consonants are not [savarṇa with each other].

Notice that the phrase "savarṇa with each other" is inferred from the context of rule 1.1.9 above. This extension of context from one rule to another is called anuvṛtti. There are specific principles that we can use to define anuvṛtti. But for now, let's just focus on understanding this rule.

Rule 1.1.10 refers to ac and hal, which we learned about in the previous lesson: ac refers to all vowels, and hal refers to all consonants.

With the extra context and these two definitions in mind, the meaning of the rule is clear. Rule 1.1.10 prevents sounds like i and śa from being savarṇa with each other. Together, 1.1.9 and 1.1.10 give us a complete definition of the term savarna.

Defining groups of sounds

Now that we have a complete definition of *savarṇa*, we can return to our original problem: *how can we concisely refer to similar sounds*?

Pāṇini's solution is to provide these two rules:

स्वं रूपं शब्दस्याशब्दसंज्ञा। १.१.६८

svam rūpam śabdasyāśabdasamjñā (<u>1.1.68</u>) svam rūpam śabdasya a-śabda-samjñā

A word [denotes] its own form if it is not a definition ($samj\tilde{n}\bar{a}$).

अणुदित् सवर्णस्य चाप्रत्ययः। १.१.६९

aṇudit savarṇasya cāpratyayaḥ (1.1.69) an-udit savarnasya ca a-pratyayaḥ

The an sounds and udit [sounds] also [denote] their savarna [sounds], if they are not pratyaya (suffixes).

Rule 1.1.68 does not define a term or counteract a rule. Instead, it is an instruction for *us* as we read the grammar. Such rules are called *paribhāṣā* ("explanation") rules. *paribhāṣā* rules usually apply throughout the entire system, so it's important to understand them well.

What does rule 1.1.68 actually mean? We can make the rule clear with an example. Suppose that we see some rule about the word *agni*, which means "fire." The point of rule 1.1.68 is that such a rule is about the specific form *agni*, and *not* about any other word that means "fire."

Rule 1.1.69 then borrows this context to define another *paribhāṣā*. (That is, it inherits some context by *anuvṛtti* from rule 1.1.68). Rule 1.1.69 also uses two interesting terms:

- an has two interpretations, as we learned in the previous lesson. Here, it is the an that includes all vowels and semivowels.
- *udit* will be explained in the next lesson. For now, treat "*udit* sounds" as meaning "sounds followed by *u*."

With these terms defined, we can see what 1.1.69 does for us:

- In the grammar, a will refer to both itself and \bar{a} , which is savarna to it. Likewise for i, u, and so on.
- In the grammar, ku^* will refer to both ka and the four sounds kha, ga, gha, and $\dot{n}a$, all of which are savarna to ka. And likewise for cu^* , tu^* , tu^* , and pu^* . (u^* is a nasal u. Why is this vowel nasal? We'll explain in the next lesson.)

So with these four rules, we can now refer to similar sounds simply and concisely. But this system also creates a new problem. What if we want to refer to short a but not long \bar{a} ? It seems that we can't do that anymore. Has Pāṇini made a mistake?

Referring to short and long vowels

Pāṇini has not made a mistake. We have one more rule to consider:

तपरस्तत्कालस्य। १.१.७०

taparastatkālasya (1.1.70)

ta-paraḥ tat-kālasya

[A sound] bordered by *t* [refers to the sound] with that duration.

Rule 1.1.70 follows right after rule 1.1.69, which we saw above. Note that it continues to use context provided from 1.1.69.

What does this rule actually mean? It means that at refers to the short vowel a but not to \bar{a} . Similarly, it means that $\bar{a}t$ refers to \bar{a} but not to the short vowel a. With this new rule, we can always tell these vowels apart.

This rule also explains part of the term udit, which we saw in 1.1.69 above. udit is ut-it: a term that has the vowel ut (short u) as an it letter. (But what is an it letter, really? We will answer that question soon.)

Different kinds of vowels

As a closing thought, perhaps you are wondering if rule 1.1.70 is worth the extra effort. Is this rule really necessary?

Yes. Sanskrit vowels make many important distinctions. They can differ in length:

```
ऊकालो ऽज्झस्वदीर्घप्रुतः। १.२.२७
```

ūkālo 'jjhrasvadīrghaplutaḥ (1.2.27)

ū-kālaḥ ac hrasva-dīrgha-plutaḥ

The three lengths u, \bar{u} , and $\bar{u}3$ [are called] *hrasva* (short), $d\bar{v}$ (long), and *pluta* (prolated, overlong).

अचश्च। १.२.२८

acaśca (<u>1.2.28</u>)

acaḥ ca

And they occur in the context of vowels.

accent:

उचैरुदात्तः। १.२.२९

uccairudāttaḥ (1.2.29)

uccaih udāttah

[In the context of vowels], a high [tone is called] udātta (acute accent);

नीचैरनुदात्तः। १.२.३०

nīcairanudāttaḥ (1.2.30)

nīcaih anudāttah

a low [tone is called] anudātta (grave accent);

समाहारः स्वरितः। १.२.३१

samāhārah svaritah (1.2.31)

samāhārah svaritah

and a mix [of the two is called] svarita (circumflex),

तस्यादित उदात्तमर्धह्रस्वम्। १.२.३२

tasyādita udāttamardhahrasvam (1.2.32)

tasya āditah udāttam ardha-hrasvam

of which the beginning is *udātta* for half the length of a short [vowel].

And nasality:

मुखनासिकावचनो ऽनुनासिकः। १.१.८

 $mukhan\bar{a}sik\bar{a}vacano$ 'nun $\bar{a}sika\dot{h}$ ($\underline{1.1.8}$)

mukha-nāsikā-vacanaḥ anunāsikaḥ

An utterance [made with] the mouth and nose is called *anunāsika* (nas-al).

So in the context of grammar, a refers to *eighteen* variants (three lengths \times three accents \times two options for nasality). And even at refers to six variants (3 accents \times 2 nasality options).

Review

With the Shiva Sutras and the rules above, we now have a powerful framework for referring to different Sanskrit sounds.

But there is still an important open question: what is an it letter, really? The next lesson answers this question and starts to explain the core of the Pāṇinian system.

it letters

Before we talk about it letters, let's first understand one of the problems that Pāṇini was facing. Since we are not ancient grammarians, let's put the problem in simple and concrete terms.

Suppose we run a clothing store that sells all kinds of shirts and saris. And when our customers arrive, they want to find exactly what they're looking for. How might we organize this store?

One obvious idea is to group similar items together: shirts with shirts, large items with large items, and so on. Pāṇini uses a similar device to organize lists of verb roots, lists of pronouns, and various other terms.

But one problem with this approach is that there is a limit to how much information it can easily convey. For example, which shirts must be washed in cold water? Which have been imported? Which are on sale? It can be difficult to manage all of these different groupings.

One elegant solution is to add a paper *tag* to each item we sell. This small tag can tell us about the price, the country of origin, and whatever other information we need to know. The tag is not part of the shirt; it's just a label that tells us what the shirt is like.

Pāṇini probably didn't run a clothing store, but he certainly faced a similar problem. He wanted to organize all of the terms in Sanskrit grammar so that their roles and functions were clear. Most of these terms are grouped in large lists, just as we might group shirts together in our store. But there are too many important properties that need to be conveyed. Some of these properties are:

- whether certain verbs are allowed specific suffixes
- whether certain suffixes cause any unusual sound changes
- whether certain terms have any unusual accents

Just as we might add tags to items in our store, Pāṇini adds tags to the different terms in the grammar. These tags are not part of the terms they attach to; they're just labels that tell us what the term is like.

And since the $Astadhyay\bar{t}$ is part of an oral tradition, it's only fitting that these tags are other sounds. The technical term for these sounds is it.

In eight rules, Pāṇini defines which sounds are *it* and which are not. These rules are so critical to the rest of the grammar that we will list all eight of them here. If you know some Sanskrit, we recommend memorizing them.

Nasal vowels

उपदेशे ऽजनुनासिक इत्। १.३.२

upadeśe 'janunāsika it (<u>1.3.2</u>) upadeśe ac anunāsikah it

In *upadeśa*, nasal vowels are [called] it.

The term

upadeśa ("instruction, teaching") here refers to the teaching context of *vyākaraṇa* and the Pāṇinian system. Specifically, it refers to the technical language used within the system. So within this technical context, nasal vowels are called *it*.

With this rule, we can better understand the term udit that was used in the previous lesson. For example, we learned previously that ku refers to the five sounds ka, kha, ga, gha, and $\dot{n}a$. More properly, this is ku with a nasal u vowel.

By rule 1.3.2, ku^* is the consonant k with the vowel u as an it. By rule 1.1.70, the short vowel u is called ut. So, we can say that k is udit (ut-it, "having u as an it"). And since k is udit, it is in scope for rule 1.1.69 (anudit savarnasya capratyayah), which lets us concisely refer to savarna (similar) sounds.

Final consonants

हलन्त्यम्। १.३.३

halantyam (1.3.3)

hal antyam

Final consonants [are called it in upadeśa].

With this rule, we can better understand the terms from the Shiva Sutras. In the term ac, for example, the final c is an it sound. Then we can apply rule 1.1.71, which we haven't seen yet. First, we bring in rule 1.1.68 for context:

```
स्वं रूपं शब्दस्याशब्दसंज्ञा। १.१.६८
svam rūpam śabdasyāśabdasamjñā (1.1.68)
svam rūpam śabdasya a-śabda-samjñā
A word [denotes] its own form if it is not a definition (samjñā).
```

Then, we can define rule 1.1.71:

```
आदिरन्त्येन सहेता। १.१.७१
ādirantyena sahetā (1.1.71)
ādiḥ antyena saha itā
An initial [item denotes its own form and intermediates] up to the final it.
```

Rule 1.1.71 defines the basic mechanism of the Shiva Sutras: an initial term is paired with an *it* and includes all of the terms between them:

अण्
$$\rightarrow$$
 अ इ उ
 $an \rightarrow a i u$
इक् \rightarrow इ उ ऋ ल
 $ik \rightarrow i u r !$

Terms that follow this mechanism are called *pratyāhāra*s, and we will see more of them in later lessons.

Minor rules

For our current needs, the next five rules are minor, and we've left only minor comments on them. Notice the context that carries over from one rule to the next. The order of rules here is *not* arbitrary; it is arranged to express as much as possible in as little space as possible.

न विभक्तौ तुस्माः। १.३.४

na vibhaktau tusmāḥ (1.3.4)

na vibhaktau tu-s-māḥ

The tu*sounds, s, and m are not [called it in upadeśa] when they are in a vibhakti (verb or nominal ending).

This rule applies to the inflectional endings that we use for verbs and nominals. It will be useful later, but not right now.

आदिर्जिटुडवः। १.३.५

 \bar{a} dirñițuḍavaḥ (1.3.5)

ādiḥ ñi-ṭu-ḍavaḥ

Initial $\tilde{n}i$, tu, and du [are called it in upadeśa].

These rules are mainly found on verb roots and usually allow specific suffixes. The new word $\bar{a}dih$ ("initial") cancels the force of na ("not") from rule 1.3.4.

Interpreting tu°

Notice that tu here literally refers to the sound tu, not to the five sounds ta, tha, da, dha, and na that we would get from rule 1.1.69. How do we know that tu here doesn't refer to these five sounds? Part of the reason is that if it did, then the tu in rule 1.3.7 below would become pointless.

The sutra style is concise and compact; nothing is said carelessly. If we know and remember this fact, then we can reason more clearly about what rules mean and what they do.

षः प्रत्ययस्य। १.३.६

sah pratyayasya (1.3.6)

sah pratyayasya

The [initial] *s* of a *pratyaya* (suffix) [is called *it* in *upadeśa*].

Much of the *Aṣṭādhyāyī* focuses on *pratyayas* and their properties. We will explore the various *pratyayas* later on.

चुटू। १.३.७

cuțū (1.3.7)

cu-ṭū

The [initial] *cu* sounds and *ţu* sounds [of a *pratyaya* are called *it* in *upadeśa*].

cu refers to the five sounds ca, cha, ja, jha, and $\tilde{n}a$, and likewise for tu. For the interpretation of tu, see our note above on rule 1.3.5.

लशकतिखते। १.३.८

laśakvataddhite (1.3.8)

la-śa-ku*a-taddhite

The [initial] l, δ , and the ku^* sounds [of a pratyaya are called it in $upade \delta a$] when not in a taddhita (nominal suffix).

A taddhita suffix is used to create nominal stems. We will revisit this rule later.

lopa

Finally, we see what happens to these *it* letters:

```
तस्य लोपः । १.३.९
tasya lopaḥ (<u>1.3.9</u>)
tasya lopaḥ
That [i.e. any it letter] undergoes lopa.
```

And what is lopa?

अदर्शनं लोपः। १.१.६०

adarśanam lopah (1.1.60)

a-darśanam lopah

Disappearance is [called] lopa.

Rule 1.3.9 emphasizes a simple fact: these it letters are just a helpful notation. They are not "real" Sanskrit and have no meaning outside the technical world of the Pāṇinian system. In our clothing store, a tag's role is to tell us something about the clothes it is attached to; and in the world of grammar, an it letter's role is to tell us something about the terms it is attached to.

Review

With the rules above, we have cleaned up some of the loose ends that earlier lessons left behind. We now have a complete and compact system for defining different groups of Sanskrit sounds.

With this system in hand, we can now turn to the task of using it. In the next lesson, we will see how this system can model sandhi changes clearly and concisely. We will also learn about substitution rules, which are the last major piece of the system's formal language.

vidhi rules

In the previous lessons, we defined a simple, concise, and expressive system for defining various groups of Sanskrit sounds. But our system is missing something obvious: a way to use the terms we've defined. It's as if we have a gourmet kitchen with the finest tools, the freshest ingredients, the most wonderful patrons — and no chef.

So in this lesson and the two that follow, we'll apply our system to a real problem: how to model and describe Sanskrit's sandhi changes. We'll do so by learning how to apply basic *vidhi* rules. And by learning how to do this, we will complete our small system and be ready to examine the rest of the *Aṣṭādhyāyī*.

vidhi literally means "rule" or "command." Unlike *saṃjñā* rules that merely assign a label, or *paribhāṣā* rules that help us interpret rules correctly, *vidhi* rules are the core operations of the grammar. They add, remove, and modify different terms. And by applying them in the correct sequence, we create a correct Sanskrit expression.

How do we apply *vidhi* rules in the correct sequence? This simple question is surprisingly deep and profound, and we cannot give a proper answer to it for some time. A good rule of thumb is that we should apply the most specific rule we can.

But for now, let's focus on more concrete matters: what *vidhi* rules are, how we define them, and how we can use them to define sandhi rules.

Conditions for sandhi

As a reminder, *sandhi* is the name for Sanskrit's various sound changes. Sandhi occurs only in specific circumstances:

परः संनिकर्षः संहिता। १.४.१०९

paraḥ saṃnikarṣaḥ saṃhitā (<u>1.4.109</u>)

parah samnikarsah samhitā

Extremely close contact [of sounds] is called *saṃhitā*.

संहितायाम्। ६.१.७२

saṃhitāyām (6.1.72) saṃhitāyām In saṃhitā, ...

Rule 1.4.109 is a simple *saṃjñā* rule. But rule 6.1.72 is a new and different kind of rule. What does this rule do? Simply, it adds extra context for the rules that follow it. Such rules are called *adhikāra* ("government") rules.

How many rules does an *adhikāra* apply to? Each *adhikāra* has a specific scope, which we can usually determine from context or from the rule itself. When in doubt, we can rely on expert commentaries to help us.

And as a quick note, perhaps you're wondering: how many different rule types are there? Different authors classify them in different ways, but in this series, we will use just five basic types: *vidhi* (operation), *saṃjñā* (definition), *adhikāra* (government), *paribhāṣā* (interpretation), and a fifth type called *atideśa* (analogy) that we will use later on.

Our first sandhi rule

Let's start the discussion with some small sandhi changes:

द्रौपदी अश्वम् इच्छति → द्रौपद्यश्वम् इच्छति

 $draupad\bar{\iota}$ aśvam icchati $\rightarrow draupadyaśvam$ icchati Draupadi wants a horse.

मधु अस्ति → मध्वस्ति

madhu asti → madhvasti

There is honey.

The basic idea is that if two non-similar vowels are in close contact ($samhit\bar{a}$), then the first vowel should become a semivowel.

How might we capture this change? Pāṇini offers the following rule, but it is difficult to understand:

pratyāhāras:

इको यणचि। ६.१.७७

iko yaṇaci (<u>6.1.77</u>)
ikaḥ yaṇ aci
Of ik, there is yaṇ in ac [in saṃhitā].

Let's start with what we do know. We know that ik, yaṇ, and ac are all

- *ik* refers to one of the vowels *i*, *u*, *r*, and *l*, and to any vowels similar to these four.
- yan refers to one of the four semivowels: y, v, r, and l.
- *ac* refers to any vowel.

We also know that Sanskrit words express meanings through *inflection*. All three of these *pratyāhāras* are Sanskrit nouns, and they express different **grammatical cases** through different noun endings. (Roughly, a noun's case is the role it plays in the sentence.) So we have:

- the sixth case (ik-ah), which can be translated as "of."
- the first case (yan), which is usually the subject of a sentence.
- the seventh case (ac-i), which can be translated as "in."

Because we know what the rule *should* be, we can guess what the rule is trying to express. But this guesswork doesn't feel satisfying. It feels like something crucial is missing.

How to interpret cases in formal grammar

The solution is to rely on three new *paribhāṣā* rules. Together, they describe how we should interpret these cases in the context of formal grammar:

षष्ठी स्थानेयोगा। १.१.४९

sasthī sthāneyogā (1.1.49) sasthī sthāne-yogā

The sixth case can signify $sth\bar{a}ne$ (in the place of).

तिसमिन्निति निर्दिष्टे पूर्वस्य। १.१.६६

tasminniti nirdiste pūrvasya (1.1.66)

tasmin iti nirdişte pūrvasya

When the seventh case is specified, [substitution is] of the previous.

तस्मादित्युत्तरस्य। १.१.६७

tasmādityuttarasya (1.1.67)

tasmāt iti uttarasya

When the fifth case [is specified, substitution is] of the next.

What do these rules mean? It's simple. In the context of a substitution:

- the sixth case marks the term that will be replaced
- the fifth case marks the term that must appear before the substitution
- the seventh case marks the term that must appear after it

And by normal Sanskrit semantics, the first case will define the replacement. With these principles in mind, we can reinterpret the case semantics in rule 6.1.77:

- *ik* is in the sixth case (*ikaḥ*), so it will be replaced.
- yan in the first case (yan), so it is the substitute.
- *ac* in the seventh case (*aci*), so it follows the substitution.

Now rule 6.1.77 has a clearer meaning:

इको यणचि। ६.१.७७

iko yaṇaci (<u>6.1.77</u>)

ikah yan aci

An ik vowel is replaced with yan when a vowel follows [in $samh\bar{t}\bar{t}$].

Substitution with two lists

There is still a subtle problem with rule 6.1.77 above: which yan sound do we use? We know that y is the right choice, but the rule does not say so explicitly. So it would be legal to produce this incorrect result:

द्रौपदी अश्वम् इच्छति → * द्रौपद्रश्वम् इच्छति

 $draupad\bar{\iota}$ aśvam icchati \to * draupadraśvam icchati Draupadi wants a horse.

Our rule is too loose. How do we fix this?

Pāṇini offers several rules for performing a substitution correctly, but just one is relevant to us here:

यथासंख्यमनुदेशः समानाम्। १.३.१०

yathāsaṃkhyamanudeśaḥ samānām (1.3.10)

yathā-saṃkhyam anudeśaḥ samānām

Substitution of [items with] the same [size] is according to their relative number.

More plainly, rule 1.3.10 states that if a rule says to replace one list (call it A) with another (call it B) of the same size, what it really means is that we replace the item 1 of A with item 1 of B, item 2 of A with item 2 of B, and so on for the rest of the list.

Now rule 6.1.77 has a clear, consistent meaning:

इको यणचि। ६.१.७७

iko yaṇaci (6.1.77)

ikah yan aci

An ik vowel is replaced by its respective yan sound when a vowel follows [in sanhita].

If we return to our original example, we know that ik denotes the four vowels i, u, r, and l. And we know that yan denotes the four semivowels y, v, r, and l. So by rule 1.3.10, we see what the correct replacements are:

$$\xi \to \chi$$

$$3 \rightarrow q$$

$$u \rightarrow v$$

Therefore, the replacement for i is y, and we get our desired result:

 $draupad\bar{\iota}$ aśvam icchati $\to draupady$ aśvam icchati Draupadi wants a horse.

Review

Understanding rule 6.1.77 took a lot of work and several extra rules. But these new rules give us a precise and concise way to define different operations. We will use these rules over and over as we continue to explore the $Astadhyay\bar{t}$.

There's just one small catch: rule 6.1.77 has an important flaw. In the next lesson, we will fix this flaw and build a basic model for vowel sandhi.

ac sandhi

ac sandhi is the general name for sandhi changes that involve two vowels. For example, the rule we studied in the previous lesson is an example of *ac* sandhi:

इको यणिच। ६.१.७७

iko yaṇaci (<u>6.1.77</u>)

ikaḥ yaṇ aci

An ik vowel is replaced by its respective yan sound when a vowel follows [in $sanhit\bar{a}$].

ac sandhi has many rules of varying importance. Some are truly minor, and others are important general patterns. Here, we will focus on the important general patterns and complete our basic picture of ac sandhi.

But there is also an important issue we should address: rule 6.1.77 has a serious flaw. In Sanskrit, two similar vowels should combine and become long:

 $draupad\bar{\imath}\ indram\ apaśyat
ightarrow draupad\bar{\imath}ndram\ apaśyat$ Draupadi saw Indra.

But rule 6.1.77 will produce an error:

 $draupad\bar{\iota}$ indram apaśyat \to * draupadyindram apaśyat Draupadi saw Indra.

So in addition to completing our basic picture of *ac* sandhi, we will also ensure that our system handles the example above correctly.

As in the previous lesson, the rules below will borrow context from the *adhikāra* rule 6.1.72:

संहितायाम्। ६.१.७२

saṃhitāyām (6.1.72)

saṃhitāyām

In saṃhitā, ...

ec as first vowel

Once we understand rule 6.1.77 (iko yaṇaci), we can easily understand 6.1.78:

एचो ऽयवायावः। ६.१.७८

eco 'yavāyāvaḥ (6.1.78)

ecah ay-av-āy-āvah

An *ec* vowel becomes ay, av, $\bar{a}y$, or $\bar{a}v$, respectively [when a vowel follows in $samhit\bar{a}$].

So we get sandhi changes like this:

 $ne + a \rightarrow naya$

lead

भो
$$+$$
 अ \rightarrow भव

 $bho + a \rightarrow bhava$

become

Rule 6.1.78 is nice and simple. Now let's turn to the rules where *a* is first:

a as first vowel

In Sanskrit, *a* will combine with most vowels to form a compound vowel:

 $s\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}$ indram apaśyat \rightarrow $s\bar{\imath}tendram$ apaśyat

Sita saw Indra.

Here, one vowel (e) replaces two vowels (\bar{a} and i). How might we model this behavior with our rules?

Pāṇini approaches this problem by creating a new adhikāra rule:

```
एकः पूर्वपरयोः । ६.१.८४
ekaḥ pūrvaparayoḥ (6.1.84)
ekaḥ pūrva-parayoḥ
A single [term] is substituted for the previous and following.
```

What does this rule mean? Recall that we represent "previous" terms with the fifth case and "following" terms with the seventh. So, this rule means that in the scope of this *adhikāra* rule, terms in the fifth and seventh case are both replaced by a single term.

With this context in place, we can model what happens when *a* is the first vowel. In general, the change is simple. With the help of a new term:

```
अदेशुणः। १.१.२
adeṅguṇaḥ (<u>1.1.2</u>)
at-eṅ guṇaḥ
The vowels a, e, and o are called guṇa.
```

we can define our rule:

```
आदुणः। ६.१.८७
ādguṇaḥ (6.1.87)
āt guṇaḥ
a [and the following vowel] become [a single] guṇa [in saṃhitā].
```

But if the second vowel is a compound vowel, we use a slightly different rule. Again, we define a new term:

```
वृद्धिरादेच्। १.१.१
vṛddhirādaic (1.1.1)
vṛddhiḥ āt-aic
The vowels ā, ai, and au are called vṛddhi.
```

And use it in our rule:

वृद्धिरेचि। ६.१.८८

vṛddhireci (<u>6.1.88</u>) vṛddhiḥ eci

[a and the following] ec vowel become [a single] vṛddhi [in saṃhitā].

The terms *guṇa* and *vṛddhi* are important and will be used throughout the grammar. We will return to them later on.

Some notes on rule 1.1.1

Let's pause on rule 1.1.1 for a moment. This is the first rule of the entire *Aṣṭādhyāyī*. And to understand it, we must understand all of the following:

- the Shiva Sutras
- the definition of a pratyāhāra
- the fact that a (in the pratyāhāra) refers to both short a and long \bar{a}
- the definition of *t* when it follows a vowel

This is part of why it is so difficult to enter into the Pāṇinian system and understand how it works. (If we have made it easier, please do let us know.)

Substitution with the closest option

Unfortunately, rules 6.1.87 and 6.1.88 have a problem that we've seen before: these rules don't tell us which specific vowel to use. We know what the correct result should be, but these rules allow some clearly incorrect results. For example, we could apply rule 6.1.87:

 $s\bar{t}t\bar{a}$ indram apaśyat \rightarrow * $s\bar{t}tondram$ apaśyat Sita saw Indra.

To prevent such results, Pāṇini offers this rule to help us perform the correct substitution:

स्थाने उन्तरतमः। १.१.५०

sthāne 'ntaratamaḥ (1.1.50) sthāne antaratamaḥ

In substitution, the closest [is preferred].

Roughly, "closeness" refers to properties like places of articulation, semantics, and so on. Since these rules are about sounds, the closest replacement is the one that matches the places of articulation of the sounds being replaced.

If we return to our example above:

 $s\bar{t}t\bar{a} \ indram \ apaśyat \rightarrow ???$

Sita saw Indra.

We must choose which guna vowel to use, per 6.1.87 ($\bar{a}dguna\hbar$). Since \bar{a} is pronounced at the soft palate and i is pronounced at the hard palate, we just need to find which sound is the best match:

- short *a* uses just one of these places of articulation, so it is not a good match.
- et uses both of these places of articulation, so it is a good match.
- *o* uses the soft palate, but it uses the lips instead of the hard palate. So *o* is not a good match.

Thus *e* is the best option:

$$3 + \xi \rightarrow V$$

 $a + i \rightarrow e$

And likewise, o is better if the combination is a and u:

$$3 + 3 \rightarrow 3$$
i $a + u \rightarrow o$

Addition of r

The rules above seem to work as intended. But if we test this rule against our Sanskrit knowledge, we find another problem. In Sanskrit, r has no compound vowel. Instead, it combines with a with some help from the semivowel r:

सीता ऋच्छति
$$\rightarrow$$
 सीतर्च्छति $sīt\bar{a}$ rcchati \rightarrow s \bar{s} ttarcchati Sita goes.

But with our current system, rule 6.1.87 (ādguṇaḥ) can hardly function. at seems like the closest guṇa vowel, but this produces a bad result:

सीता ऋच्छति
$$\rightarrow$$
 * सीतच्छति $s\bar{t}a$ rcchati \rightarrow * $s\bar{t}a$ cchati Sita goes.

The fix is another *paribhāṣā* about how to perform a substitution:

```
उरण्रपरः। १.१.५१

uraṇraparaḥ (1.1.51)

uḥ aṇ ra-paraḥ

[In substitution,] an aṇ vowel that replaces an ṛ is followed by r.
```

And with this rule in hand, we can perform the substitution correctly and get the desired result.

Two similar vowels

Finally, we can return to the example from the start of this lesson and complete our basic picture of vowel sandhi. Recall the example we wish to model:

द्रौपदी इन्द्रम्
$$\rightarrow$$
 द्रौपदीन्द्रम् d raupadī indram \rightarrow d raupadīndram

To handle this special case, we just need a new rule:

```
अकः सवर्णे दीर्घः। ६.१.१०१
akaḥ savarṇe dīrghaḥ (6.1.101)
akaḥ savarṇe dīrghaḥ
ak and a following savarṇa [vowel] become a dīrgha (long) [in saṃhitā].
```

The meaning of this rule is clear. And with rule 1.1.50 (*sthāne'ntaratamaḥ*), it is also clear what the result should be for each vowel:

$$3 + 3 \rightarrow 31$$

$$a + a \rightarrow \bar{a}$$

$$\xi + \xi \rightarrow \xi$$

$$i + i \rightarrow \bar{i}$$

$$3 + 3 \rightarrow 35$$

$$u + u \rightarrow \bar{u}$$

$$7 + \mu \rightarrow \bar{\mu}$$

$$7 + \mu \rightarrow \bar{\mu}$$

Review

With just a few short rules, we have fully characterized the basic patterns of *ac* sandhi. This is the power the Pāṇinian system gives us. As a quick review, here are the main rules of vowel sandhi:

```
इको यणिच। ६.१.७७
```

iko yaṇaci (<u>6.1.77</u>)

ikah yan aci

An ik vowel is replaced by its respective yan sound when a vowel follows [in $samhit\bar{a}$].

आद्गुणः। ६.१.८७

ādguṇaḥ (6.1.87)

āt guṇaḥ

a [and the following vowel] become [a single] guṇa [in saṃhitā].

वृद्धिरेचि। ६.१.८८

vŗddhireci ($\underline{6.1.88}$)

vṛddhiḥ eci

[a and the following] ec vowel become [a single] vṛddhi [in saṃhitā].

अकः सवर्णे दीर्घः। ६.१.१०१

akaḥ savarṇe dīrghaḥ (<u>6.1.101</u>)

akaḥ savarṇe dīrghaḥ

ak and a following savarṇa [vowel] become a dīrgha (long) [in saṃhitā].

In the next lesson, we will explore a critical problem with our current system and learn how Pāṇini decides to solve it.

The asiddha section

Most of the *Aṣṭādhyāyī*'s sandhi rules are in an unusual section of the text. To understand that section, we must first understand how the Pāṇinian system works at a high level. We'll then discuss a major problem with its approach and how Pānini solves it.

prakriyā

When we use the Astadhyayt, we start with an incomplete expression. We then apply one rule at a time. The output of one rule is the input to the next. And as we keep applying rules, our result gets closer and closer to a valid Sanskrit expression.

This full process, including the rules we apply and the results we get, is called a *prakriyā* ("procedure", "derivation"). When we use the *Aṣṭādhyāyī*, we must know not only what rules mean but also how to apply them to generate a correct *prakriyā*.

What do we mean by a "correct" *prakriyā*? At each step in the *prakriyā*, multiple rules could apply, and we must choose which one to use. There are a few basic principles that help us here. (For example, we should prefer more specific rules to less specific rules.) And **when we can no longer apply any rules**, the *prakriyā* is complete.

Finishing a prakriyā

Let's focus on the phrase "when we can no longer apply any rules." What does this mean? For example, we might have this incomplete expression that has had no sandhi rules applied:



te icchanti

They want.

If we use rule 6.1.78 from the previous lesson:

एचो ऽयवायावः। ६.१.७८

eco 'yavāyāvaḥ (<u>6.1.78</u>)

ecaḥ ay-av-āy-āvaḥ

An *ec* vowel becomes ay, av, $\bar{a}y$, or $\bar{a}v$, respectively [when a vowel follows in *samhitā*].

then we can create a new result:

te icchanti → tay icchanti

But if you know Sanskrit, you know that this isn't the typical result. The *e* at the end of a word usually becomes *a* when it is followed by a vowel. There is a *vidhi* rule that makes the appropriate change. And by applying that rule, we get the correct result:

tay icchanti → ta icchanti

A serious problem

The problem is that the $prakriy\bar{a}$ is not actually complete, because another rule can now be applied. Specifically, it's rule 6.1.87, which we saw in the previous lesson:

```
आद्गुणः। ६.१.८७
```

ādguṇaḥ (<u>6.1.87</u>)

āt guṇaḥ

a [and the following vowel] become [a single] guṇa [in saṃhitā].

6.1.87 *can* apply, and there is no other rule that takes priority over it. So it *must* and *will* apply, which gives us a bad result:

ta icchanti \rightarrow * tecchanti

It is as if a good man and a thief both come to us to ask for food. We want to give our food to the good man and not to the thief. But if we give our food to the good man, the thief will beat him and steal it. We must ensure that once we give our food to the good man, the thief will not be able to take it from him.

Pāṇini's solution

Pāṇini's solution to this problem is to offer this rule:

```
पूर्वत्रासिद्धम्। ८.२.१

pūrvatrāsiddham (8.2.1)

pūrvatra a-siddham

... is asiddha (inert) in the previous [area].
```

Rule 8.2.1 is an *adhikāra* that lasts until the very end of the *Aṣṭādhyāyī*. So, all rules that follow rule 8.2.1 will be in its scope. But what does rule 8.2.1 mean, and what does it do?

Understanding rule 8.2.1

First, let's understand the two words *pūrvatra* and *asiddham*.

 $p\bar{u}rvatra$ literally means "in the previous (area)." Here, it refers to all previous rules in the grammar. Every rule after 8.2.1 will inherit the word $p\bar{u}rvatra$. So for each of these rules, *every* rule before it is $p\bar{u}rvatra$.

asiddham literally means "not accomplished" or "not enacted." Here, it essentially means that the rule cannot be used.

We can update our translation like so:

```
पूर्वत्रासिद्धम्। ८.२.१

pūrvatrāsiddham (8.2.1)

pūrvatra a-siddham

... is disabled with respect to prior rules.
```

What does this mean? Let's return to the example of the good man and the thief. Once we give our food to the good man, it is as if he becomes invisible. Try as he might, the thief cannot find him.

But rule 8.2.1 also has an interesting implication: we must apply the rules of the *asiddha* section in order. If we have two rules A and B, and if A comes before B, then once we apply A, we can no longer apply B.

Rule 8.2.1 for programmers

If you are familiar with computer programs, rule 8.2.1 is straightforward. All prior rules are a kind of *event-driven programming*, where we select the rules that best match our current context. Then rule 8.2.2 is the start of an *iterative program*, where we apply each rule in sequence.

As far as we can tell, this observation was first made by <u>Professor Amba Kulkarni</u> in 2008, in her presentation titled *Pāṇini's Aṣṭādhyāyī: A Computer Scientist's viewpoint*.

The practical meaning of rule 8.2.1

Rules after 8.2.1 should be applied in order, and they should be applied after all other rules. This means that all of our *prakriyā*s should have this structure:

- 1. First, we apply rules before 8.2.1.
- 2. Then, we apply rules after 8.2.1. But these rules must be applied in order; we cannot go back and apply an earlier rule.

To return to our example above, the *vidhi* rule that changes *te* to *ta* is after rule 8.2.1. So once we apply it, we cannot go back and apply 6.1.78 ($\bar{a}d gunah$). We thus get the result we were aiming for:

 $te\ icchanti \rightarrow ta\ icchanti$

and our *prakriyā* is complete.

Occasional exceptions to the asiddha section

A *very* small number of rules can be applied after the rules in the *asiddha* section. How is this possible?

Simply, these are rules that would be purposeless (vyartha) otherwise. As for why they are stated outside of the asiddha section, that is part of a much longer discussion about rule inference (anuvrtti) and concision ($l\bar{a}ghava$) in the $Ast\bar{a}dhy\bar{a}y\bar{\iota}$.

hal sandhi

hal sandhi is the general name for sandhi changes where the first sound is a consonant. Here are some simple examples:

$$\frac{\mathbf{p}}{k} + \mathbf{3} \rightarrow \mathbf{J}$$

$$k + a \rightarrow ga$$

$$\mathbf{q} + \mathbf{d} \rightarrow \mathbf{g}$$

$$s + ta \rightarrow sta$$

Many of the rules of *hal* sandhi appear after rule 8.2.1 (*pūrvatrāsiddham*), so they are *asiddha* with respect to prior rules. In plain English, this means that we must apply these rules in order.

hal sandhi is much more extensive than ac sandhi, and there is no simple picture of it we can provide. Instead, we will focus on four kinds of changes that we will see repeatedly throughout this series. These are:

- changes involving the anusvāra
- changes involving the visarga
- changes of s to s
- changes of *n* to *n*

This lesson will focus on the first two.

adhikāra rules

We have this new adhikāra:

```
पद्य्स। ८.१.१६
padaysa (<u>8.1.16</u>)
padaysa
Of a pada (word), ...
```

The rules below also inherit the word *saṃhitāyām* ("in *saṃhitā*") by *anuvṛtti* from an earlier rule.

Changes involving the anusvāra

Generally, the *anusvāra* is a sound that appears only due to sandhi. In the $Ast\bar{a}d-hy\bar{a}y\bar{\imath}$, the sound m and n become the *anusvāra* under different conditions.

First is a general rule about m at the end of a word. This rule inherits the term hali ("when a consonant follows") from the rule before it:

मो ऽनुस्वारः। ८.३.२३

mo 'nusvāraḥ (<u>8.3.23</u>)

maḥ anusvāraḥ

m becomes the $anusv\bar{a}ra$ [at the end of a pada in $samhit\bar{a}$ when a consonant follows].

By this rule, we get results like this:

नगरम् गच्छामि → नगरं गच्छामि

 $nagaram\ gacchāmi \rightarrow nagaram\ gacchāmi$ I go to the city.

We also have a second rule about m and n when they are not at the end of a pada:

नश्चापदान्तस्य झिल। ८.३.२४

naścāpadāntasya jhali (8.3.24)

naḥ ca a-pada-antasya jhali

[m] and n [become the anusvāra in saṃhitā] if not at the end of a pada, when followed by a jhal consonant.

By this rule, we get results like these:

मन्स्यसे → मंस्यसे

 $mansyase \rightarrow mamsyase$ You will think.

रम्स्यसे → रंस्यसे

 $ramsyase \rightarrow ramsyase$ You will delight. But the *anusvāra* itself might be changed by later rules. These rules appear after the scope of 8.1.16 (*padasya*) has ended:

अनुस्वारस्य ययि परसवर्णः। ८.४.५८

anusvārasya yayi parasavarņaḥ (8.4.58)

anusvārasya yayi para-savarņaḥ

[In *saṃhitā*], the *anusvāra* becomes *savarṇa* to the following [sound] when followed by a *yay* sound,

वा पदान्तस्य। ८.४.५९

vā padāntasya (8.4.59)

vā pada-antasya

[but] optionally at the end of a pada.

yay includes all consonants except for the sibilants (s, s, s, h). So the following changes are mandatory by rule 8.4.58:

aṃkita → aṅkita

रुंधन्ति → रुन्धन्ति

rumdhanti → rundhanti

And the following changes are optional, by rule 8.4.59:

नगरं गच्छामि → नगरं गच्छामि , नगरङ् गच्छामि

nagaraṃ gacchāmi ightarrow nagaraṃ gacchāmi ightarrow nagaraṃ gacchāmi

aham pṛcchāmi ightarrow aham pṛcchāmi ightarrow aham pṛcchāmi

There are two ideas worth noting here. First, 8.4.59 is the first rule we've seen where we can choose whether to apply the rule or not. Many rules in the $Ast\bar{a}d-hy\bar{a}y\bar{\iota}$ are optional, though certain choices do tend to become conventions over time.

Second, notice how the word *rundhanti* is treated by these rules. Since we must apply these rules in order, we have a derivation like this, where *rundhanti* is first changed by rule 8.3.23:

rundhanti → rumdhanti

and then converted back to its original form by rule 8.4.58:

rumdhanti → rundhanti

This kind of behavior is common in the asiddha section.

A note on anusvāra usage

The *Aṣṭādhyāyī* is clear that rule 8.4.58 is mandatory. Printed texts, however, will occasionally use the *anusvāra* rather than laboriously write out the correct nasal sound.

Rules that use the visarga

Like the *anusvāra*, the *visarga* is also a sound that appears only due to sandhi. In the $A \underline{s} \underline{t} \overline{a} dh y \overline{a} y \overline{t}$, the sounds s and r become the *visarga* under different conditions.

Let's focus on how s changes, since those changes are more common. Our first rule is still in the scope of 8.1.16 (padasya) above:

ससजुषो रुः। ८.२.६६

sasajuso ruḥ (<u>8.2.66</u>)

sa-sajusoh ruh

The s [at the end of a pada] and the [last letter of the word] sajus are replaced with ru.

sajus is a rare word that we can set aside. ru, meanwhile, is a temporary symbol that we will replace in later rules. For example, it might be replaced by rule 8.3.15 below:

रो रि। ८.३.१४

ro ri (8.3.14)

raḥ ri

The r [at the end of a pada is replaced with lopa] when r follows.

खरवसानयोर्विसर्जनीयम्। ८.३.१५

kharavasānayorvisarjanīyam (8.3.15)

khar-avasānayoḥ visarjanīyam

[The r at the end of a pada] is replaced with the $visarjan\bar{i}ya$ (visarga) when khar or $avas\bar{a}na$ follows.

Let's discuss both of these rules in more detail. Rule 8.3.14 accounts for changes like the following:

द्वार् रोहिता → द्वा रोहिता

dvār rohitā → dvā rohitā

The door is red.

And the *raḥ* of rule 8.3.14 also includes *ru*.

What are *khar* and *avasāna*? *khar* is a *pratyāhāra* that refers to any unvoiced consonant. And *avasāna* is defined in rule 1.4.110:

विरामोऽवसानम्। १.४.११०

virāmo'vasānam (1.4.110)

virāmaḥ avasānam

Cessation [of speech] is called avasāna.

So r becomes the visarga when at the end of an utterance or when followed by an unvoiced consonant:

राम स् \rightarrow राम रूँ \rightarrow रामः

 $r\bar{a}ma s \rightarrow r\bar{a}ma ru^* \rightarrow r\bar{a}mah$

रामस् खादित \rightarrow राम रूँ खादित \rightarrow रामः खादित

rāmas khādati → rāma ru*khādati → rāmaḥ khādati

Rama eats.

Review

In addition to describing some common changes, the rules above also give a clearer idea of how rules in the *asiddha* section work. In the next lesson, we will finish our tour through sounds and sandhi by learning about two common changes that occur within a single word.

satva and natva

In the previous lesson, we learned about various small changes involving the *anusvāra* and the *visarga*. These changes also gave a clearer demonstration of how rules in the *asiddha* section work.

Here, we will take a quick look at two common changes that we will use repeatedly throughout our series. These are:

- the change of *s* to *s*. This is commonly called *satva* (*sa*-ness).
- the change of n to n. This is commonly called natva (na-ness).

Both *ṣatva* and *ṇatva* have many exceptions and minor rules. So as usual, we will focus on just the common patterns.

Change of s to s

The consonant *s* can become *ṣ* in several different circumstances. Here we'll look at just one. To understand this rule, we must first consider four rules that are either *adhikāra* rules or rules that establish *anuvṛtti*:

```
अपदान्तस्य मूर्घन्यः। ८.३.५५
apadāntasya mūrdhanyaḥ (8.3.55)
a-pada-antasya mūrdhanyaḥ
Of a non-word-final, ... a retroflex.

सहेः साडः सः। ८.३.५६
saheḥ sāḍaḥ saḥ (8.3.56)
saheḥ sāḍaḥ saḥ
[The non-word-final] s [of sah in the form sāḍ] becomes a retroflex [ṣa in saṃhitā]. (This rule is minor, but the term saḥ will continue through anuvṛtti.)

इणकोः। ८.३.५७
iṇkoḥ (8.3.57)
iṇ-koḥ
After the letters iṇ (i, u) or ku²(k, kh, g, gh, ṅ), ...
```

नुम्विसर्जनीयशर्व्यवायेऽपि। ८.३.५८

numvisarjanīyaśarvyavāye'pi (8.3.58) num-visarjanīya-śar-vyavāye api Even if separated by num, the visarjanīya, or śar, ...

Rule 8.3.59 is our focus:

आदेशप्रत्यययोः। ८.३.५९

ādeśapratyayayoḥ (<u>8.3.59</u>) ādeśa-pratyayayoḥ

[The non-word-final s that follows in or ku becomes a retroflex sa in $samhit\bar{a}$] when it is of an $\bar{a}desa$ (substitution) or pratyaya (suffix) [even if separated by num, the $visarjan\bar{t}ya$, or a sar sound].

Rule 8.3.59 inherits different pieces from each of the four rules before it. So in addition to teaching us a useful rule, rule 8.3.59 shows how much the $Astad-hy\bar{a}y\bar{t}$ relies on the context of prior rules.

Now, what does rule 8.3.59 actually mean? For now, let's set aside certain pieces of this rule. We will return to $\bar{a}de\dot{s}a$ in a future lesson, and likewise for $nu\dot{m}$. So, let's work with this simplified version of the rule:

आदेशप्रत्यययोः। ८.३.५९

ādeśapratyayayoh (8.3.59)

ādeśa-pratyayayoḥ

In $saṃhit\bar{a}$, the non-final s of a pratyaya (suffix) becomes s when it follows in or ku, even if separated by the $vi\acute{s}arga$ or a $\acute{s}ar$ sound.

The interpretation of this rule is quite clear. We get changes like the following:

अग्नि
$$+$$
 सु \rightarrow अग्निषु agni $+$ su \rightarrow agnișu

 $guru + su \rightarrow guruşu$

वाक्
$$+$$
 सु \rightarrow वाक्षु

 $v\bar{a}k + su \rightarrow v\bar{a}ksu$

Even if certain other sounds intervene:

हिवः
$$+ सु \rightarrow हिवः पु$$

havi $h + su \rightarrow havihsu$

Change of n to n

Similarly, we have this change of n to n:

रषाभ्यां नो णः समानपदे। ८.४.१

raṣābhyāṃ no ṇaḥ samānapade (8.4.1)

ra-ṣābhyām naḥ ṇaḥ samāna-pade

When following r or s in the same pada (word), n becomes n [in $sanhit\bar{a}$],

अद्भुप्वाङ्गुम्व्यवायेऽपि। ८.४.२

aṭkupvāṅnumvyavāye'pi (8.4.2)

aṭ-ku-pu-ān-num-vyavāye api

even if they are separated by at sounds, ku and pu sounds, ān, or num.

Rule 8.4.1 is straightforward. And rule 8.4.2 includes all kinds of sounds:

- the pratyāhāra aṭ (a, ā, i, ī, u, ū, ṛ, ṭ̄, ḷ, e, ai, o, au, h, y, v, r)
- ku or pu (k, kh, g, gh, n, p, ph, b, bh, m);
- the word \bar{a} , which is called $\bar{a}\dot{n}$ in the Aṣṭādhyāyī. \bar{a} is the prefix used in words like $\bar{a}gacchati$, but it has other uses as well.
- num will be discussed in a later lesson.

If rule 8.3.59 (ādeśapratyayayoḥ) shows the power of anuvṛtti, rule 8.4.2 shows the power of Pāṇini's notation. Pāṇini describes a complex set of conditions in just 8 syllables. And by applying these rules, we get changes like the following:

रामेन
$$\rightarrow$$
 रामेण

rāmena → rāmeņa

By Rama

पत्नानि → पत्नाणि pattrāni → pattrāṇi The leaves

Review

The other sandhi rules follow the same principles we've seen already. Studying more sandhi rules might be interesting for its own sake, but it won't teach us anything fundamental about the Pāṇinian system.

Therefore, now is a good time for us to review what we've learned and consolidate our knowledge. Once we've done so, we'll be ready to explore the rest of the Pāṇinian system.

Review

In this unit, we built up the basics of the Pāṇinian system from scratch. These fundamental rules and concepts apply to nearly every part of the Astadhyāyī and will serve as an invaluable foundation as we go forward.

Before we move on, let's take a moment to review what we've learned.

We learned about *it* letters, which let us concisely add extra information to terms in the grammar:

उपदेशे ऽजनुनासिक इत्। १.३.२

upadeśe 'janunāsika it (1.3.2)

upadeśe ac anunāsikah it

In upadeśa, nasal vowels are [called] it.

हलन्त्यम्। १.३.३

halantyam (1.3.3)

hal antyam

Final consonants [are called it in upadeśa].

न विभक्तौ तुस्माः। १.३.४

na vibhaktau tusmāḥ (1.3.4)

na vibhaktau tu-s-māh

The *tu* sounds, *s*, and *m* are not [called *it* in *upadeśa*] when they are in a *vibhakti* (verb or nominal case ending).

आदिर्जिटुडवः। १.३.५

ādirñitudavah (1.3.5)

ādih ñi-tu-davah

Initial ñi, țu, and du [are called it in upadeśa].

षः प्रत्ययस्य। १.३.६

şaḥ pratyayasya (1.3.6)

sah pratyayasya

The [initial] s of a pratyaya (suffix) [is called it in upadeśa].

चुटू। १.३.७

cuțū (<u>1.3.7</u>)

cu-țū

The [initial] *cu* sounds and *ţu* sounds [of a *pratyaya* are called *it* in *upadeśa*].

लशकतिखते। १.३.८

laśakvataddhite (1.3.8)

la-śa-ku a-taddhite

The [initial] l, s, and the ku sounds [of a pratyaya are called it in upadesa] when not in a taddhita (nominal suffix).

तस्य लोपः। १.३.९

tasya lopah (1.3.9)

tasya lopah

It [i.e. any it letter] undergoes lopa.

By using these *it* sounds, we can then create *pratyāhāra*s and define a simple notation for describing *savarṇa* letters:

तुल्यास्यप्रयत्नं सवर्णम्। १.१.९

tulyāsyaprayatnam savarņam (1.1.9)

tulya-āsya-prayatnam savarnam

[Sounds with] the same āsya (place of articulation) and prayatna (articulatory effort) are called savarna (similar).

नाज्झलौ। १.१.१०

nājjhalau (<u>1.1.10</u>)

na ac-halau

But vowels and consonants are not [savarna with each other].

स्वं रूपं शब्दस्याशब्दसंज्ञा। १.१.६८

svam rūpam śabdasyāśabdasamjñā (1.1.68)

svam rūpam śabdasya a-śabda-samjñā

A word [denotes] its own form if it is not a definition ($sam j n \bar{a}$).

अणुदित् सवर्णस्य चाप्रत्ययः। १.१.६९

aņudit savarņasya cāpratyayaḥ (1.1.69)

aņ-udit savarņasya ca a-pratyayaḥ

The an sounds and udit [sounds] also [denote] their savarna [sounds], if they are not pratyaya (suffixes).

तपरस्तत्कालस्य। १.१.७०

taparastatkālasya (1.1.70)

ta-paraḥ tat-kālasya

[A sound] bordered by t [refers to the sound] with that duration.

We then created a variety of sandhi rules by applying these fundamental *paribhāṣā* rules:

षष्ठी स्थानेयोगा। १.१.४९

ṣaṣṭhī sthāneyogā (1.1.49)

şaşthī sthāne-yogā

The sixth case can signify *sthāne* (in the place of).

स्थाने उन्तरतमः। १.१.५०

sthāne 'ntaratamaḥ (1.1.50)

sthāne antaratamaḥ

In substitution, the closest [is preferred].

उरण्रपरः। १.१.५१

uranraparah (1.1.51)

uḥ aṇ ra-paraḥ

[In substitution,] an an vowel that replaces an r is followed by r.

तस्मिन्निति निर्दिष्टे पूर्वस्य। १.१.६६

tasminniti nirdiste pūrvasya (1.1.66)

tasmin iti nirdiste pūrvasya

When the seventh case is specified, [substitution is] of the previous.

तस्मादित्युत्तरस्य। १.१.६७

tasmādityuttarasya (1.1.67)

tasmāt iti uttarasya

When the fifth case [is specified, substitution is] of the next.

यथासंख्यमनुदेशः समानाम्। १.३.१०

yathāsaṃkhyamanudeśaḥ samānām (1.3.10)

yathā-saṃkhyam anudeśaḥ samānām

Substitution of [items with] the same [size] is according to their relative number.

We also learned about the basic types of rules: *vidhi* (operation), *saṃjñā* (definition), *adhikāra* (government), *paribhāṣā* (interpretation), and a fifth type called *atideśa* (analogy) that we will use later on.

Finally, we learned about the basics of a $prakriy\bar{a}$ and how we should choose which rules to apply during the derivation. We will learn much more about this in the lessons to come.

tiṅanta

Introduction

In the previous unit, we started from scratch and built up a basic version of the *Aṣṭādhyāyī*'s core. We first learned about *it* sounds, *pratyāhāras*, and other devices that let us refer to sounds concisely. We then applied that knowledge by defining various sandhi rules.

Now that we have a basic understanding of the Pāṇinian system, we can explore the rest of the $Astadhyay\bar{t}$. We'll start by exploring how the $Astadhyay\bar{t}$ creates different words. Sanskrit words can be classified in many different ways, but the $Astadhyay\bar{t}$ uses a simple system:

सुप्तिङन्तं पदम्। १.४.१४

suptinantam padam (1.4.14)

sup-tin-antam padam

That which ends in sup or tin [is called] a pada (word).

sup and tin are both pratyāhāras that refer to different word endings. tin refers to the endings used for verbs. So in the Pāṇinian system, verbs are called tinanta ("ending in a tin suffix").

In this unit, we will learn how the *Aṣṭādhyāyī* creates *tiṅantas*. We will also create complete *prakriyās* (derivations) for a variety of basic verbs.

Basics of tinanta-prakriyā

At a high level, here is what a *tinanta-prakriyā* is like. We start with the specific semantics we wish to express. Perhaps we want the semantics of the root $bh\bar{u}$ in the present tense as applied to a single third-person entity. Based on those semantic conditions, we can follow the rules of the grammar to introduce specific terms:

Here, *la*^{*} is an abstract suffix that usually expresses the present tense. Based on our semantic conditions, we then replace with a specific ending:

This suffix allows other operations to apply. For example, here we should introduce a new affix a between the root and the ending:

$$\mu + 3 + 6$$

bhū + a + ti

Then we should apply the sound changes that are conditioned by the affix:

Finally, we apply normal sandhi changes and get a complete word:

भवति

bhavati

(He) becomes.

Of course, this isn't the full *prakriyā* for the word *bhavati*. There are several small but important steps that we've left out. But in the lessons to come, we will learn how to create a complete and correct *prakriyā* for *bhavati* and for many other verbs.

Verbs for beginners

The notes below provide a summary of the Sanskrit verb system. If you know Sanskrit already, you can continue to the next lesson.

Verbs usually describe some kind of action, such as running, thinking, or deciding. Sanskrit verbs express many different kinds of information at once, and their underlying structure is complex.

Sanskrit verbs start with a basic **verb root**. Here are some example verb roots:

नी

пī

lead

कृ

kr

do, make

By adding prefixes and suffixes to this root, we create different verbs forms. Here are some examples:

नेष्यति

neșyati

(Someone) will lead.

कुर्याम्

kuryām

I might do.

Sanskrit verbs are highly expressive. They can express three different **persons** (third person, second person, first person), three different **numbers** (singular, dual, plural), and ten different **tense-mood** combinations.

Sanskrit verbs also express something called *prayoga*, which loosely corresponds to the active/passive voice distinction in English. We have *kartari prayoga* ("agent usage," similar to the active voice), *karmaṇi prayoga* ("object usage", similar to the passive voice), and *bhāve prayoga* ("stative usage", used only by intransitive verbs).

For a given prayoga, we have 3 persons \times 3 numbers \times 10 tense-moods = 90 standard forms. But in addition, we can use certain verb suffixes to create derived roots:

नी → निनीष

 $n\bar{\iota} \rightarrow nin\bar{\iota}sa$

lead → want to lead

कृ
$$\rightarrow$$
 कारि

 $kr \rightarrow k\bar{a}ri$

 $do \rightarrow make \ do$

And these derived roots can themselves be used in different persons, numbers, tenses, and *prayogas*:

निनीष → निनीषसि

 $nin\bar{\imath}$ sa $\rightarrow nin\bar{\imath}$ sasi

want to lead \rightarrow you want to lead

कारि \rightarrow कारयेयुः

 $k\bar{a}ri \rightarrow k\bar{a}rayeyuh$

make $do \rightarrow they might make (someone) do$

dhātu

Our $prakriy\bar{a}$ begins with a $dh\bar{a}tu$ ("element," "verb root"). If we think of the $Ast\bar{a}dhy\bar{a}y\bar{t}$ as a factory that makes metal sculptures, then $dh\bar{a}tus$ are like the ores and metals that enter the factory. We then apply various procedures to convert the $dh\bar{a}tu$ into the shape we desire.

Here is how dhātus are defined:

```
भूवाद्यो धातवः। १.३.१
bhūvādayo dhātavaḥ (1.3.1)
bhū-ādayaḥ dhātavaḥ
The items bhū, etc. [are called] dhātu.
```

The word $bh\bar{u}v\bar{a}dayah$ refers to a list of items starting with $bh\bar{u}$. But where do we find that list?

The Dhātupāṭha

The *Dhātupāṭha* is one of the secondary texts that we use with the *Aṣṭādhyāyī*. It is a list of roughly 2000 different *dhātus*, and it also contains a small number of extra rules that describe these *dhātus*.

Each *dhātu* is listed with its basic meaning:

```
भू सत्तायाम्। १.१
bhū sattāyām (<u>1.1</u>)
bhū in the sense of existing
```

This is the first entry we've seen from the $Dh\bar{a}tup\bar{a}tha$, so let's dwell on it for a moment. First is the $dh\bar{a}tu$ ($bh\bar{u}$). Next is its meaning, given as an abstract noun ($satt\bar{a}$) in the seventh case. The 1.1 means that this is the first root of the first gana ("collection") of the text. There are ten ganas in all, and each corresponds to a different class of Sanskrit verb.

You can click on the 1.1 to see this *dhātu*'s entry on ashtadhyayi.com. There, you can see many of the forms that derive from this *dhātu*, and you can click on a form to view a computer-generated *prakriyā*.

The $dh\bar{a}tus$ in the $Dh\bar{a}tup\bar{a}tha$ are provided in their upadeśa forms. $bh\bar{u}$ above is also an upadeśa, and it looks quite simple. But other upadeśas might seem especially strange:

डुकृञ् करणे। ८.१०

 $dukr\tilde{n}$ karane (8.10) kr in the sense of doing

षहँ मर्षणे। १.१८८

saha marsane (1.188) sah in the sense of enduring

णीञ् प्रापणे। १.१०४९

nīñ prāpaṇe (<u>1.1049</u>)

 $n\bar{\iota}$ in the sense of obtaining or leading

विदं अभिवादनस्तुत्योः। १.११

vadi abhivādanastutyoḥ (<u>1.11</u>)

vand in the sense of greeting or praising

An *upadeśa* may look strange, but it has a deliberate design and conveys plenty of useful information. In the sections below, we will convert these *upadeśas* into their more recognizable forms. Along the way, we will learn more about why these *upadeśas* have the strange forms they do.

it sounds

Do you remember where we first saw the word *upadeśa*? It was a part of rule 1.3.2 (*upadeśe'janunāsika it*), which defines which sounds are *it* and which are not. By applying the rules from this section, we can remove the *its* from the *dhātus* above and create more recognizable forms:

dukŗñ

kṛ <u>1.3.3</u> halantyam <u>1.3.5</u> ādirñiṭuḍavaḥ <u>1.3.9</u> tasya lopaḥ

Although it is incomplete, this is our first look at a *prakriyā*. When we write a *prakriyā*, the left side shows the result and the right side shows which rules we applied to get that result. As usual, you can click on the numbers for some rule to see some information about that rule on ashtadhyayi.com.

The root kr has the it sounds du and \tilde{n} . In other words, we can say that it is dvit ("having du as an it") and dvit roots are allowed to use the -tri nominal suffix, which is minor and rare. And $\tilde{n}it$ roots have a special function that we will study in our lesson on parasmaipada and dtit and dtit roots have a special function that we will study in our lesson on parasmaipada and dtit roots have a special function that we will

Not all *it* letters have some special meaning. For example:

ṣahaˇṣah1.3.2 upadeśe'janunāsika it1.3.9 tasya lopah

If a were absent, then the last h of sah would become an it sound by 1.3.3 (halantyam). So we use a to protect the root's last consonant sound.

As for $n\bar{t}n$, it is $n\bar{t}$ just like kr:

and *vadi* is *idit* ("having short *i* as an *it*"), which we will discuss further below:

vadi

```
vad <u>1.3.2</u> upadeśe'janunāsika it <u>1.3.9</u> tasya lopaḥ
```

Even after applying these rules, the roots sah, $n\bar{t}$, and vad still seem strange. Let's apply some more rules to convert them to a more recognizable form.

satva and natva

We can handle sah and $n\bar{t}$ by using these two rules:

```
धात्वादेः षः सः। ६.१.६४

dhātvādeḥ ṣaḥ saḥ (6.1.64)

dhātu-ādeḥ ṣaḥ saḥ

The ṣ that begins a dhātu is replaced with s;

णो नः। ६.१.६५

no naḥ (6.1.65)

ṇaḥ naḥ

and likewise, ṇ with n.
```

The replacement of s with s is sometimes called *satva* ("*sa*-ness"), and likewise for *natva*. We can cause *satva* for sah:

```
şaha*1.3.2 upadeśe'janunāsika it1.3.9 tasya lopaḥsah6.1.64 dhātvādeḥ ṣaḥ saḥ
```

and natva for nī:

```
    ṇīñ
    ṇī 1.3.3 halantyam
    1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ
    nī 6.1.65 ṇo naḥ
```

But why were these roots stated in such a strange way in the first place? To answer that question, let's return to a rule from the previous unit:

आदेशप्रत्यययोः। ८.३.५९

ādeśapratyayayoḥ (8.3.59)

ādeśa-pratyayayoh

[The non-word-final s that follows in or ku becomes a retroflex sa in $samhit\bar{a}$] when it is of an $\bar{a}desa$ (substitution) or pratyaya (suffix) [even if separated by num, the $visarjan\bar{i}ya$, or a sar sound].

The \bar{a} deśa in this rule refers to the result of a rule like 6.1.64 ($dh\bar{a}$ tv \bar{a} deh, sah). If the first s of a $dh\bar{a}$ tu was created by rule 6.1.64, then we can apply rule 8.3.59 to make changes like this:

वि सह्
$$\rightarrow$$
 विषह् $vi sah \rightarrow visah$

But several roots don't make this kind of change, even though they start with s. In order to distinguish which roots are which, Pāṇini thought of a clever way to concisely split the roots that start with s into two classes:

- If a $dh\bar{a}tu$'s first s is able to become s, replace the s with s in the upade sa.
- If a *dhātu*'s first *s* is *not* able to become *s*, do nothing.

With this split, some of these roots will be in scope for rule 8.3.59 and some of these roots won't. A similar line of thought applies for the change from n to n.

ทบรัท

Last but not least, here is how we handle *idit* roots:

इदितो नुं धातोः। ७.१.५८

idito num dhātoh (7.1.58)

it-itaḥ num dhātoḥ

Roots that are *idit* take *num* as a substitute.

num is stated as an upadeśa. Once we apply 1.3.2 ($upadeśe'janunāsika\ it$) and 1.3.3 (halantyam) to it, all that we are left with is n. u has no special meaning here, but m does:

आद्यन्तौ टिकतौ। १.१.४६

ādyantau ṭakitau (1.1.46)

ādi-antau ţa-kitau

[Substitutes that are] *țit* or *kit* are placed before and after [the substitution], respectively.

मिदचोऽन्त्यात् परः। १.१.४७

midaco'ntyāt paraḥ (1.1.47)

mit acah antyāt parah

[Substitutes that are] *mit* are placed after [the substitution's] last vowel.

What does rule 1.1.47 mean? It means that when the grammar asks us to replace a term with $nu\check{m}$, what we really do is insert an n after the term's last vowel. You can see this insertion in the $prakriy\bar{a}$ below. Note the use of rules 8.3.24 and 8.4.58, which are from the asiddha section of the $Ast\bar{a}dhy\bar{a}y\bar{\imath}$:

vadi	
vad	1.3.2 upadeśe'janunāsika it
	1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ
va num d	7.1.58 idito nuṃ dhātoḥ
	1.1.47 midaco'ntyātparaḥ
va n d	1.3.2 upadeśe'janunāsika it
	1.3.3 halantyam
	1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ
va ṃ d	8.3.24 naścāpadāntasya jhali
va n d	8.4.58 anusvārasya yayi parasavarņaḥ

Why do we use $nu\check{m}$ at all? Ultimately, it is for reasons similar to why we use s and n in our roots.

sanādyanta-dhātus

On the subject of dhātus, there is one more type of dhātu worth knowing about:

सनाद्यन्ता धातवः। ३.१.३२

sanādyantā dhātavah (3.1.32)

san-ādi-antāḥ dhātavaḥ

Terms ending with [the suffixes] san etc. are [also] called dhātu.

This rule refers to various "derived" *dhātus* that we create by adding suffixes to the basic *dhātus* we discussed above. Specifically, the rule refers to various suffixes listed from rules 3.1.5 to rules 3.1.31. These suffixes include *san*, which usually creates verbs that express "wanting" to do something:

नी
$$+$$
 सन् \rightarrow निनीष \rightarrow निनीषति

 $n\bar{\iota} + san \rightarrow nin\bar{\iota}sa \rightarrow nin\bar{\iota}sati$

He wants to lead.

पा
$$+$$
 सन् \rightarrow पिपास \rightarrow पिपासित

 $p\bar{a} + san \rightarrow pip\bar{a}sa \rightarrow pip\bar{a}sati$

He wants to drink.

and nic, which usually creates causal verbs:

नी
$$+$$
 णिच् \rightarrow नायि \rightarrow नाययित

 $n\bar{\iota} + nic \rightarrow n\bar{a}yi \rightarrow n\bar{a}yayati$

He makes (someone) lead.

Once we add such suffixes, we can treat the result like any other root. That is why these results are called *dhātu* as well.

Review

In this lesson, we learned how to read roots in the *Dhātupāṭha* and convert a root's raw *upadeśa* form into a form we can more easily recognize and understand:

nīñ

ņī	1.3.3 halantyam
	<u>1.3.9</u> tasya lopaḥ
nī	<u>6.1.65</u> ṇo naḥ

Now that we have our $dh\bar{a}tu$, it's time to start using it. In the next lesson, we will begin the process of verb derivation by adding a verb suffix to our root.

lakāra

In the previous lesson, we learned about the *dhātus* in the *Dhātupāṭha* and how to convert their *upadeśa* forms into something more usable. But to create a verb, a *dhātu* alone is not enough. We must also add a suffix to express the semantics we have in mind.

The verb suffixes in the $Ast\bar{a}dhy\bar{a}y\bar{t}$ have names like lat, lin, and so on. And because all of these suffixes start with the sound l, they are called the $la-k\bar{a}ras$ ("the letters la").

The rules below describe some of the basic semantics associated with each $lak\bar{a}ra$. Most of these $lak\bar{a}ras$ have special uses outside of the basic ones here. But rather than getting lost in details right now, let's focus on the bigger picture.

adhikāra rules

All of the *lakāras* are defined under the following *adhikāra* rules:

```
प्रत्ययः। ३.१.१
pratyayaḥ (3.1.1)
pratyayaḥ
... is a pratyaya (suffix).

परश्च। ३.१.२
paraśca (3.1.2)
paraḥ ca
... and [it is inserted] after [the base].

धातोः। ३.१.९१
dhātoḥ (3.1.91)
dhātoḥ
After a dhātu ...
```

कृदतिङ्। ३.१.९३

kṛdatin (3.1.93)

kṛt a-tin

... is called *kṛt* (a kind of nominal suffix), excepting the *tin* suffixes.

In other words, a *lakāra* is a *pratyaya* that is inserted after a *dhātu*. And since a *lakāra* will later be replaced by a *tin* suffix, it will not be called *kṛt*. (*kṛt* is a suffix that combines with *dhātus* to make nominal stems.)

Since we have a $dh\bar{a}tu$, let's select the right $lak\bar{a}ra$ to use. Six of the $lak\bar{a}ras$ refer to specific tenses ($k\bar{a}la$), and four refer to specific moods (arthas).

The six *kālas*

Generally, lun, lan, and lit describe the past tense:

भूते। ३.२.८४

bhūte (3.2.84)

bhūte

In *bhūta* (the past tense), ...

लुङ्। ३.२.११०

lun (3.2.110)

lun

[The pratyaya] lun [is added after a dhātu in the sense of past action]

अनद्यतने लङ्। ३.२.१११

anadyatane lan (3.2.111)

anadyatane lan

[The *pratyaya*] *lan* [is added after a *dhātu* in the sense of past action] that did not occur today.

परोक्षे लिट्। ३.२.११५

parokse lit (3.2.115)

parokse lit

[The *pratyaya*] *lit* [is added after a *dhātu* in the sense of past action] that was unwitnessed.

lat describes the present tense:

```
वर्तमाने लट् । ३.२.१२३
vartamāne laṭ (<u>3.2.123</u>)
vartamāne lat
```

[The pratyaya] lat [is added after a dhātu] in the sense of present action.

And *lṛṭ* and *luṭ* describe the future tense. Rule 3.3.13 here inherits the word *bhaviṣyati* ("in the future") from a prior rule:

लृट् शेषे च। ३.३.१३

lṛṭ śeṣe ca (3.3.13)

lṛṭ śeșe ca

[The *pratyaya*] *lṛt* [is added after a *dhātu* in the sense of future action], and in the other [minor senses described in previous rules].

अनद्यतने लुट्। ३.३.१५

anadyatane lut (3.3.15)

anadyatane luț

[The *pratyaya*] *luṭ* [is added after a *dhātu* in the sense of future action] that will not occur today.

Here are examples of all six $k\bar{a}las$, as well as their meanings within the Pāṇinian system:

अभूत्

abhūt

He was. (lun)

अभवत्

abhavat

He (before yesterday) was. (lan)

बभूव

babhūva

He (long ago) was. (lit)

भवति

bhavati

He is or becomes. (lat)

भविष्यति

bhavişyati

He will be. (lṛṭ)

भविता

bhavitā

He will (eventually) be. (lut)

The four arthas

lṛn has the sense of "would" or "would have". Rule 3.3.139 below has the word *bhaviṣyati* ("in the future") through *anuvṛtti*:

लिङ्गिमित्ते लुङ्कियातिपत्तौ। ३.३.१३९

linnimitte lṛnkriyātipattau (3.3.139)

lin-nimitte lṛn kriyā-atipattau

[The pratyaya] $lr\bar{n}$ [is added after a $dh\bar{a}tu$] in a cause-effect relationship [$li\bar{n}$ -nimitta] in the future [bhavisyati] when the action is not accomplished.

भूते च। ३.३.१४०

bhūte ca (3.3.140)

bhūte ca

and [likewise] in the past.

This complex description is easier to understand with an example:

दक्षिणेन चेद् आयास्यन् न शकटं पर्याभविष्यत्

dakşinena ced ayasyan na sakatam paryabhavişyat

If he would come by the southern road, the cart would not overturn.

lin and *lot* have several senses in common:

विधिनिमन्त्रणामन्त्रणाधीष्टसंप्रश्नप्रार्थनेषु लिङ्। ३.३.१६१

vidhinimantraṇāmantraṇādhīṣṭasaṃpraśnaprārthaneṣu liṅ (3.3.161) vidhi-nimantraṇa-āmantraṇa-adhīṣṭa-saṃpraśna-prāṛthaneṣu liṅ [The pratyaya] liṅ [is added after a dhātu] in the sense of vidhi (injunction), nimantraṇa (pressing invitation), āmantraṇa (permission), adhīṣṭa (respectful or ceremonial request), sampraśna (courteous questioning), and prārthanā (supplication),

लोट् च। ३.३.१६२

lot ca (<u>3.3.162</u>) lot ca as is lot.

This overlap has a counterpart in English. For example, depending on the context, we might say either "Eat!" or "You should eat." The second statement is softer than the first one, but it often expresss the same semantics:

खाद

khāda eat! (lot)

खादेः

khādeḥ

You should (or could, or might) eat. (lin)

lin has many different senses, but here are two more worth knowing about:

शकि लिङ्ग। ३.३.१७२

śaki linca (3.3.172)

śaki lin ca

[The pratyayas] lin and [some suffixes from an earlier rule are added after a $dh\bar{a}tu$] in the sense of $\acute{s}ak$ (be able to).

आशिषि लिङ्लोटौ। ३.३.१७३

āśiṣi liṅloṭau (3.3.173)

āśiși lin-loțau

[The *pratyayas*] $li\dot{n}$ and $lo\dot{t}$ [are added after a $dh\bar{a}tu$] in the sense of $\bar{a}\dot{s}\bar{t}\dot{h}$ (blessing or benediction).

In the sense of $\bar{a}\dot{s}\bar{l}h$, $li\dot{n}$ uses special forms. Usually, we say that these forms use $\bar{a}\dot{s}\bar{l}r$ - $li\dot{n}$ (" $li\dot{n}$ in the sense of $\bar{a}\dot{s}\bar{l}h$ ") as opposed to the regular vidhi- $li\dot{n}$ (" $li\dot{n}$ in the sense of vidhi"):

भवेत्

bhavet

He might be. (vidhi-lin)

भूयात्

bhūyāt

May you be. (āśīr-lin)

Finally, we have *let*, which is used only in Vedic compositions. *let* has a meaning similar to *lin*:

लिङर्थे लेट्। ३.४.७

linarthe let (3.4.7)

lin-arthe let

[The pratyaya] let [is added after a dhātu] in the sense of lin.

Review

By adding a $lak\bar{a}ra$ to the end of our $dh\bar{a}tu$, we continue the process of deriving our verb:

 nī
 1.3.3 halantyam

 nī
 1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

 nī
 6.1.65 ņo naḥ

 nī laḥ
 3.2.123 vartamāne laḥ

A $lak\bar{a}ra$ is abstract, and we need to convert it into a suffix we can recognize and understand. In the next lesson, we will learn how to do so and get one step closer to completing our $prakriy\bar{a}$.

tin-pratyāhāra

In the previous lesson, we learned about the abstract verb endings called $lak\bar{a}ras$. If we use the $lat-lak\bar{a}ra$, which usually implies action in the present tense, we can extend our example $prakriy\bar{a}$ one more step:

 nī
 1.3.3 halantyam

 nī
 1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

 nī
 6.1.65 ṇo naḥ

 nī laṭ
 3.2.123 vartamāne laṭ

Since *la*^{*} is an *upadeśa*, we can apply rules 1.3.2 (*upadeśe'janunāsika it*) and 1.3.3 (*halantyam*) to remove its *it* sounds:

nī l 1.3.2 upadeśe'janunāsika it
1.3.3 halantyam
1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

We could also remove *l* by 1.3.8 (*laśakvataddhite*), but this will make it difficult to use rule 3.4.77 later:

```
लस्य। ३.४.७७
lasya (<u>3.4.77</u>)
lasya
la is replaced by ...
```

So we keep this *l* and don't apply rule 1.3.8.

Avoiding rule 1.3.8

Why can't we apply 1.3.8 (laśakvataddhite) and remove l?

If we do, we will no longer be able to use rule 3.4.77 above. Rule 3.4.77 would thus become a useless rule, and we would not be able to derive any verbs. So we should avoid deleting l.

This is part of an important principle when using the Astadhyayī: if a certain approach to $prakriy\bar{a}$ would make a rule useless, that approach is invalid. Every rule in the $Astadhyay\bar{\imath}$ is present for a reason.

tin-pratyāhāra

लस्य। ३.४.७७

lasya (3.4.77)

lasya

la is replaced by ...

तिप्तस्झिसिप्थस्थिमप्वस्मस्-तातांझथासाथांध्विमङ्गिहिङ्। ३.४.७८

tiptasjhisipthasthamipvasmas-tātāmijhathāsāthāmdhvamidvahimahinasthamijhathāsāthāmidvahimahinasthamijhat

tip-tas-jhi-sip-thas-tha-mip-vas-mas-ta-ātām-jha-thās-āthām-dhvam-iḍ-vahimahin

[the pratyayas] tip, thas, jhi, sip, thas, tha, mip, vas, mas, ta, ātām, jha, thās, āthām, dhvam, iṭ, vahi, and mahin.

The \dot{n} at the end of *mahin* is present just so we can make a *pratyāhāra*. If we take the first term and use \dot{n} , we have $ti\dot{n}$, the set of all verb endings in Sanskrit.

We can also make some minor observations about these *tin* suffixes:

- Many of these endings are marked with various *it* sounds. \dot{n} lets us create the *pratyāhāra*. p causes vowel changes for certain kinds of verb stems. And the \dot{t} on $i\dot{t}$ is so that we can more easily refer to this specific ending later.
- We also notice the strange endings *jhi* and *jha*. *jh* has a special role that we will discuss two lessons from now. For the time being, rest assured that these will become the more regular endings *nti* and *nta*.

More importantly, however, notice that there are eighteen endings to choose from. It is not obvious which one we should choose for our verb. How do we choose the correct one?

We do so by adding different $samj\tilde{n}as$ (designations) to these suffixes. Each of these $samj\tilde{n}as$ implies different semantics. Based on the semantics we wish to express, we can then choose the correct suffix.

adhikāra rules

These samjñās are defined under the following adhikāra:

आ कडारादेका संज्ञा। १.४.१

ā kaḍārādekā saṃjñā (1.4.1)

ā kaḍārāt ekā saṃjñā

Up to the *kaḍāra* rule (rule 2.2.38), one *saṃjñā* [is allowed].

And the following paribhāṣā:

विप्रतिषेधे परं कार्यम्। १.४.२

vipratiședhe param kāryam (1.4.2)

vipratisedhe param kāryam

In matters of conflict, the later [rule] should be applied.

The idea of the first rule is that if one $samj\tilde{n}a$ is a subset of another, only one of these two $samj\tilde{n}as$ applies. We will see a concrete example of this further below.

purusa and vacana

First, we have distinctions of *puruṣa* (person) and *vacana* (number):

तिङस्त्रीणि त्रीणि प्रथममध्यमोत्तमाः। १.४.१०१

tinastrīņi trīņi prathamamadhyamottamāḥ (1.4.101)

tinah trīṇi trīṇi prathama-madhyama-uttamāḥ

Taken three by three, the *tin* [suffixes] are called *prathama* (first), *madhyama* (middle), and *uttama* (last).

तान्येकवचनद्विवचनबहुवचनान्येकशः। १.४.१०२

tānyekavacanadvivacanabahuvacanānyekaśaḥ (1.4.102)

tāni ekavacana-dvivacana-bahuvacanāni ekaśah

They [i.e. these triples] are called *ekavacana* (singular), *dvivacana* (dual), and *bahuvacana* (plural) when taken one by one.

सुपः। १.४.१०३

supah (1.4.103)

supah

[ekavacana, dvicana, and bahuvacana also apply for the triples] of sup (i.e. the nominal endings).

विभक्तिश्च। १.४.१०४

vibhaktiśca (1.4.104)

vibhaktih ca

And [these triples are each called] vibhakti.

Before we move on, note that rule 1.4.104 is vital. Normally, we would remove the final s and m sounds of all of the $ti\dot{n}$ suffixes by rule 1.3.3 (halantyam). But if these endings are called vibhakti, then rule 1.3.4 ($na\ vibhaktau\ tusm\bar{a}\dot{h}$) blocks rule 1.3.3 and leaves our endings intact.

Now: what are the semantics of *prathama*, *madhyama*, and *uttama*? They are defined in next few rules:

युष्मद्युपपदे समानाधिकरणे स्थानिन्यपि मध्यमः। १.४.१०५

yuṣmadyupapade samānādhikaraṇe sthāninyapi madhyamaḥ (1.4.105) yuṣmadi upapade samāna-adhikaraṇe sthānini api madhyamaḥ When yuṣmad (you) is coreferent with the verb, even if implicitly so, madhyama [is used].

अस्मद्युत्तमः। १.४.१०७

asmadyuttamah (1.4.107)

asmadi uttamah

When asmad (I, we) [is coreferent with the verb, even if implicitly so,] uttama [is used].

शेषे प्रथमः। १.४.१०८

śese prathamah (1.4.108)

śeșe prathamaḥ

Otherwise, prathama [is used].

And what are the semantics of vacana? These two rules define them:

बहुषु बहुवचनम्। १.४.२१

bahuşu bahuvacanam (1.4.21)

bahuşu bahu-vacanam

In the sense of many, bahuvacana [is used].

द्येकयोर्द्विवचनैकवचने। १.४.२२

dvyekayordvivacanaikavacane (1.4.22)

dvi-ekayoh dvivacana-ekavacane

In the sense of two or one, *dvivacana* and *ekavacana* [are used, respectively].

By choosing a *puruṣa*, we narrow down eighteen endings to six. By choosing a *vacana*, we narrow down six endings to two. That leaves us with one last distinction to make:

parasmaipada and ātmanepada

लः परस्मैपदम्। १.४.९९

lah parasmaipadam (1.4.99)

lah parasmaipadam

[The replacements for] lah are called parasmaipada.

तङानावात्मनेपदम्। १.४.१००

tanānāvātmanepadam (1.4.100)

tan-ānau ātmanepadam

The tan suffixes and (the suffix) and are called atmanepada.

tan is a pratyahara formed with the tenth tin suffix ta. By 1.4.1 (\bar{a} kadaradeka samina) and 1.4.2 (vipratisedhe param karyam), the first nine tin suffixes are called parasmaipada and the rest are called $\bar{a}tmanepada$.

The terms *parasmaipada* and *ātmanepada* refer to a concept that is more complicated than *puruṣa* or *vacana*. Since it's hard to convey in a concise way, let's continue our discussion in the next lesson.

Review

In the next lesson, we will discuss *parasmaipada* and *ātmanepada* properly and finally choose an ending for our verb.

parasmaipada and ātmanepada

There are eighteen *tin* suffixes in total. By choosing a particular person (*prathama*, *madhyama*, or *uttama*), we reduce eighteen to six. And by choosing a particular number (*ekavacana*, *dvivacana*, or *bahuvacana*), we reduce six to two.

To finally choose an ending, there is one last distinction we should make: whether to use a *parasmaipada* ending or an *ātmanepada* ending.

There are two important questions we should answer here:

- 1. What does it mean for an ending to be parasmaipada or ātmanepada?
- 2. How do we decide which of these types to use?

The first question has a complex answer. *parasmai-pada* literally means "word for another," and *ātmane-pada* literally means "word for oneself." So a naive guess is that *parasmaipada* endings are used for general actions and *ātmanepada* endings are used for self-interested actions.

But although this may have been true at one point in time, it is only half-true in the *Aṣṭādhyāyī*. While some verbs do express the idea of self-interested action, many verbs use *ātmanepada* endings with no special semantics at all. And in later Sanskrit, the distinction is almost entirely absent.

The second question is a little easier. To decide which ending to use, we can refer to a specific section of the $Astadhyay\bar{\imath}$, which starts at rule 1.3.12. Based on those rules and the semantics we want to express, here are the outcomes we might have:

Outcome 1: only ātmanepada

अनुदात्तिङत आत्मनेपदम्। १.३.१२

anudāttanita ātmanepadam ($\underline{1.3.12}$)

anudātta-nitaḥ ātmanepadam

ātmanepada is used [after a dhātu that is] either anudāttet (i.e. having anudātta on an it vowel) or nit.

anudātta is one of the three vowel accents, along with udātta and svarita. Here, it refers to the accent an it vowel has in the upadeśa. nit, meanwhile, refers to roots with n as an it.

Accents in the Astādhyāyī

Originally, the *Aṣṭādhyāyī* and its secondary texts were all accented. They used *udāttas*, *anudāttas*, and *svaritas* extensively to encode different kinds of information. But we no longer have these texts in an accented form.

Thankfully, the many commentaries on the *Aṣṭādhyāyī* clarify where the original accents were placed. With the help of these commentaries, we still have the information we need.

Note that rule 1.3.12 does not imply any special semantics; there is no sense of "for oneself" being implied. But there are other conditions where we might use *ātmanepada* endings with a clearer semantic difference:

भावकर्मणोः। १.३.१३

bhāvakarmanoh (1.3.13)

bhāva-karmanoh

[ātmanepada is used after a dhātu] in bhāve [prayoga] or karmaṇi [prayoga].

कर्तरि कर्मव्यतिहारे। १.३.१४

kartari karmavyatihāre (1.3.14)

kartari karma-vyatihāre

[ātmanepada is used after a dhātu] in kartari [prayoga] in the sense of mutual action,

न गतिहिंसार्थेभ्यः। १.३.१५

na gatihimsārthebhyaḥ (1.3.15)

na gati-himsā-arthebhyaḥ

but not [in the sense of mutual action] after $[dh\bar{a}tus]$ that denote motion or violence,

इतरेतरान्योन्योपपदाच। १.३.१६

itaretarānyonyopapadācca (1.3.16)

itaretara-anyonya-upapadāt ca

nor when the words *itaretara* (each other) or *anyonya* (each other) are *upapadas* (i.e. used with the verb).

Here are examples of rules 1.3.13 and 1.3.14:

त्वया सुप्यते

tvayā supyate

You sleep. (*bhāve*: "There is sleeping by you.")

कटः क्रियते

kaṭaḥ kriyate

The mat is being made.

व्यतिलुनते

vyatilunate

They cut each other.

After rule 1.3.16, the *Aṣṭādhyāyī* continues with a list of small exceptions, usually for specific combinations of verbs and prefixes:

नेर्विशः। १.३.१७

nerviśah (1.3.17)

neh viśah

[ātmanepada is used after dhātu] viś with the prefix ni [in kartari prayoga].

Since these exceptions are quite minor, let's skip them and consider the second outcome we could have:

Outcome 2: optional ātmanepada

A select number of roots can use *ātmanepada* optionally. And when they do so, they express extra semantics:

स्वरितञितः कर्त्रभिप्राये क्रियाफले। १.३.७२

svarita \tilde{n} ita \tilde{n} kartrabhipr \tilde{n} ye kriy \tilde{n} phale (1.3.72)

svarita-ñitah kartṛ-abhiprāye kriyā-phale

[\bar{a} tmanepada is used after a *dhātu* that is either] *svaritet* (i.e. having *svarita* on an *it* vowel) or \tilde{n} it when the fruit of the action serves the intention of the *kartṛ* (agent).

The distinction, in theory, is that if the agent performs the action for their own benefit, we may optionally use *ātmanepada* for certain roots. Here is the classic example:

देवदत्त ओदनं पचति।

devadatta odanam pacati.

Devadatta cooks rice (for others).

देवदत्त ओदनं पचते।

devadatta odanam pacate.

Devadatta cooks rice (for himself).

This is why roots like $n\bar{n}$ and $duk\bar{n}$ are marked with $n\bar{n}$ as an it. Because they are $n\bar{i}t$, they can use $n\bar{i}t$ are marked endings per rule 1.3.72.

Rule 1.3.72 is again followed by some minor exceptions. So let's skip them and consider the third outcome we could have:

Outcome 3: Only parasmaipada

All other roots use parasmaipada by default:

शेषात् कर्तरि परस्मैपदम्। १.३.७८

śesāt kartari parasmaipadam (1.3.78)

śeṣāt kartari parasmaipadam

After any other [dhātu] in kartari [prayoga], parasmaipada [is used].

For example, the first root in the $Dh\bar{a}tup\bar{a}tha$ is $bh\bar{u}$. $bh\bar{u}$ is neither $anud\bar{a}tta$ nor svarita, and it has no it sounds attached to it. So by rule 1.3.78, it uses parasmaipada endings.

Review

By considering person and number, we narrow eighteen endings down to just two. And by appling the procedure above, we can finally select the right ending.

For our example root $n\bar{n}$, we have two choices. We can either reject rule 1.3.72 and use a *parasmaipada* ending by rule 1.3.78 (*śeṣāt kartari parasmaipadam*):

ņīñ	
ņī	<u>1.3.3</u> halantyam
	<u>1.3.9</u> tasya lopaḥ
nī	<u>6.1.65</u> ṇo naḥ
nī la <u></u> ţ	3.2.123 vartamāne laṭ
nī tip	<u>1.3.78</u> śeṣāt kartari parasmaipadam
	$\underline{3.4.78}$ tiptasjhisipthasthamibvasmastātāmijhathāsāthā
nī ti	<u>1.3.3</u> halantyam
	<u>1.3.9</u> tasya lopaḥ

Or we can accept rule 1.3.72 and use an ātmanepada ending:

ṇīñ	
ņī	<u>1.3.3</u> halantyam
	1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ
nī	<u>6.1.65</u> ņo naḥ
nī la <u></u> ţ	3.2.123 vartamāne laṭ
nī ta	1.3.72 svaritañitaḥ kartrabhiprāye kriyāphale
	3.4.78 tiptasjhisipthasthamibvasmastātāmijhathāsāthā

But if you know some Sanskrit, perhaps you've noticed a small problem. For the ātmanepada form, we should expect nayate, but the prakriyā above looks like it will give us the incorrect *nayata instead. How do we ensure that our prakriyā give us the correct result? In the next lesson, we will learn about the rules that help us do so.

tin-siddhi

In the previous lesson, we noticed a small problem with one of our $prakriy\bar{a}s$. When using an $\bar{a}tmanepada$ suffix, what we expect is te, but what we actually receive is ta. This ending will give us the incorrect *nayata instead of the correct nayate.

How do we ensure that our ending is correct? The answer is a set of rules near the end of chapter 3 of the *Aṣṭādhyāyī*. These rules transform the basic endings in the *tin pratyāhāra* to suit the specific semantics we wish to express. We can call the process of applying these rules *tin-siddhi* ("*tin* completion").

As you read the rules below, keep this critical paribhāṣā in mind:

स्थानिवदादेशो ऽनल्विधौ। १.१.५६

 $sth\bar{a}nivad\bar{a}de\'so$ 'nalvidhau (1.1.56)

sthānivat ādeśaḥ an-al-vidhau

An *ādeśa* (replacement) is [treated] like its *sthānin* (replaced term) [in terms of the properties it inherits, etc.], excluding rules that concern a single sound.

This is an *atideśa* ("analogy," "extension") rule. The idea is that even if the suffix *ta* replaces *lat*, *ta* should still be treated *as if* it were *lat*.

Creating lat ātmanepada suffixes

Using rule 1.1.56 (*sthānivadādeśo'nalvidhau*) above, we can transform the basic endings in the *tin pratyāhāra* into the form we expect. First, we have this *adhikāra*, which we saw earlier:

लस्य। ३.४.७७

lasya (3.4.77)

lasya

la is replaced by ...

To convert our *ātmanepada* suffixes to the right form, we need to first define a new term:

अचोऽन्त्यादि टि। १.१.६४

aco'ntyādi ți (<u>1.1.64</u>) acaḥ antya-ādi ți

From the last vowel onward [is called] ti.

Now we can use this term to create the changes we need:

टित आत्मनेपदानां टेरे। ३.४.७९

țita ātmanepadānām țere (3.4.79)

țitah ātmanepadānām țeh e

For the ātmanepada endings of a la that is tit, ti is replaced by e,

थासस्से। ३.४.८०

thāsasse (3.4.80)

thāsaḥ se

[but] thās is replaced by se.

Simply, rule 3.4.79 means that for each tit ending, we replace all letters from the last vowel onward with e. Rule 3.4.80 is an exception for the ending $th\bar{a}s$.

laț is *țit* by rule 1.3.3 (*halantyam*). And even if *laț* has been replaced by *ta*, rule 3.4.79 still applies due to rule 1.1.56 (*sthānivadādeśo'nalvidhau*).

By applying rules 3.4.79 and 3.4.80, we get the following results:

त आताम् झ थास् आथाम् ध्वम् इट् वहि महिङ्

ta ātām jha thās āthām dhvam iṭ vahi mahiṅ (default endings)

→ ते आते झे से आथे ध्वे ए वहे महे

 \rightarrow te āte jhe se āthe dhve e vahe mahe (after 3.4.79 and 3.4.80)

Rule 3.4.81 to 3.4.112 are all transformation rules similar to the ones above. We don't have any plans to cover them, but if you are interested, <u>let us know</u> and we'll add them.

Some extra samjnās

At the end of this section, there are four rules that add some extra $samj\tilde{n}as$ to our endings:

तिङ्गित्सार्वधातुकम्। ३.४.११३

tińśitsārvadhātukam (3.4.113)

tin-śit sārvadhātukam

tin suffixes and śit (with ś as an it) kṛt suffixes are called sārvadhātuka.

आर्घघातुकं शेषः। ३.४.११४

ārdhadhātukaṃ śeṣaḥ (3.4.114)

ārdhadhātukam śeṣaḥ

All others are called ārdhadhātuka.

लिट् च। ३.४.११५

lit ca (3.4.115)

liţ ca

And lit [is also called ardhadhatuka],

लिङाशिषि। ३.४.११६

lināśiṣi (3.4.116)

lin āśisi

[as well as] lin in the sense of $\bar{a} \pm \bar{b}$ (benediction).

Like *parasmaipada* and *ātmanepada*, *sārvadhātuka* and *ārdhadhātuka* refer to complex concepts that are hard to summarize concisely. So let's pause our discussion here and continue in the next lesson.

Review

The rules in this section of the $Ast\bar{a}dhy\bar{a}y\bar{\iota}$ transform our basic set of verb endings into the precise endings we need for our specific $lak\bar{a}ra$.

In the next lesson, we will examine what the term *sārvadhātuka* means and what implications it has for our *prakriyā*.

vikaraņa

In the previous lesson, we continued our *prakriyā* by replacing la^*_{t} with the ending ti:

ņīñ	
ņī	1.3.3 halantyam
	1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ
nī	<u>6.1.65</u> ņo naḥ
nī la <u></u> ţ	3.2.123 vartamāne laṭ
nī tip	1.3.78 śeṣāt kartari parasmaipadam
nī ti	1.3.3 halantyam
	<u>1.3.9</u> tasya lopaḥ

This *ti* ending is called *sārvadhātuka* by 3.4.113 (*tinsitsārvadhātukam*). And a *sārvadhātuka* ending can cause various kinds of changes to the term before it.

One common change is that a *sārvadhātuka* causes a new *pratyaya* to be added to the derivation. It is through these *pratyayas* that we get the various **classes** of Sanskrit verbs. In the examples below, you can see an example of each verb class in the present tense:

भू
$$\rightarrow$$
 भवति

 $bh\bar{u} \rightarrow bhavati$

अद् \rightarrow अति

 $ad \rightarrow atti$
 $g \rightarrow gila$
 $hu \rightarrow juhoti$

दिव् \rightarrow दीव्यति

 $div \rightarrow d\bar{v}yati$

सु \rightarrow सुनोति

 $su \rightarrow sunoti$

```
तुद् → तुद्
ति
tud \rightarrow tudati

रुध् → रुणद्धि
rudh \rightarrow ruṇaddhi

तन् → तनोति
tan \rightarrow tanoti

स्री → स्रीणाति
krī \rightarrow krīṇāti

चुर् → चोर्यति
cur \rightarrow corayati
```

These affixes are commonly called *vikaraṇa*s. In this lesson, we will learn how to continue our *prakriyā* by adding the appropriate *vikaraṇa* after the root.

adhikāra rules

The rules below are within the scope of these *adhikāra* rules:

```
प्रत्यय: 1 3. 8. 8

pratyayaḥ (3.1.1)

pratyayaḥ

... is a pratyaya (suffix).

「マ梨 1 3. 8. 8

paraśca (3.1.2)

paraḥ ca

... and [it is inserted] after [the base].
```

The vikaraņas

We start with the general case:

सार्वधातुके यक्। ३.१.६७

sārvadhātuke yak (3.1.67)

sārvadhātuke yak

[The kṛt pratyaya] yak [is added after the dhātu] when a sārvadhātuka [suffix] follows.

कर्तरि शप्। ३.१.६८

kartari śap (3.1.68)

kartari sap

[The *kṛt pratyaya*] *śap* [is added] in *kartari-prayoga* (agentive usage) [after the *dhātu* when a *sārvadhātuka* suffix follows].

Rule 3.1.68 is a restriction on rule 3.1.67. We use *śap* by default in *kartari prayoga*, and we use *yak* in the other *prayogas*.

The rules that follow add further restrictions to the rules above. For example, this rule defines the correct *vikaraṇa* for *div* and some other roots:

दिवादिभ्यः इयन्। ३.१.६९

 $div\bar{a}dibhyah$ $\acute{s}yan$ (3.1.69)

div-ādibhyaḥ śyan

[The *kṛt pratyaya*] *śyan* [is added in *kartari-prayoga* after the *dhātus*] in the list beginning with *div* [when a *sārvadhātuka* suffix follows].

How do we know which roots are in the div list? Ultimately, we must consult the $Dh\bar{a}tup\bar{a}tha$. When we do, we see that div is the first rule of the fourth major list (gana):

दिवुँ क्रीडाविजिगीषाव्यवहारद्युतिस्तुतिमोदमदस्वप्नकान्तिगतिषु। ४.१

divu krīḍāvijigīṣāvyavahāradyutistutimodamadasvapnakāntigatiṣu (4.1) div in the senses of: krīḍā (play), vijigīṣā (desire to win), vyavahāra (transaction), dyuti (glowing or shining), stuti (praising), moda (pleasing), mada (boasting), svapna (sleeping), kānti (desiring), or gati (motion)

So, all of the roots in the div list will use the vikaraṇa śyan instead of śap.

Next we have the su class:

स्वादिभ्यः श्रुः। ३.१.७३

svadibhyah śnuh (3.1.73)

su-ādibhyaḥ śnuḥ

[The *kṛt pratyaya*] *śnu* [is added in *kartari-prayoga* after the *dhātus*] in the list beginning with *su* [when a *sārvadhātuka* suffix follows].

श्रुवः श्रच। ३.१.७४

śruvah śr ca (3.1.74)

śruvah śr ca

And [likewise] of δru [which becomes] δr .

The tud class:

तुदादिभ्यः शः। ३.१.७७

tudādibhyah śah (3.1.77)

tud-ādibhyaḥ śaḥ

[The *kṛt pratyaya*] śa [is added in *kartari-prayoga* after the *dhātus*] in the list beginning with *tud* [when a *sārvadhātuka* suffix follows].

And the rudh class:

रुधादिभ्यः श्रम्। ३.१.७८

rudhādibhyaḥ śnam (3.1.78)

rudh-ādibhyaḥ śnam

[The *kṛt pratyaya*] *śnam* [is added in *kartari-prayoga* after the *dhātus*] in the list beginning with *rudh* [when a *sārvadhātuka* suffix follows].

Note that the *rudh* roots use the *vikaraṇa śnam*. The actual suffix is *na*, which is *śit* and *mit*. By rule 1.1.47 (*midaco'ntyātparaḥ*), *na* will be inserted after the last vowel of the root:

रुध्
$$\rightarrow$$
 रु न ध्

 $rudh \rightarrow ru na dh$

Next we have the tan class:

तनादिकुञ्भ्य उः। ३.१.७९

tanādikṛñbhya uḥ (3.1.79)

tan-ādi-kṛñbhyaḥ uḥ

[The $krt\ pratyaya$] u [is added in kartari-prayoga after the $dh\bar{a}tus$] in the list beginning with tan, and also after kr, [when a $s\bar{a}rvadh\bar{a}tuka$ suffix follows].

And the *krī* class:

क्यादिभ्यः श्रा। ३.१.८१

kryādibhyaḥ śnā (3.1.81)

krī-ādibhyah śnā

[The $krt\ pratyaya$] $śn\bar{a}$ [is added in kartari-prayoga after the $dh\bar{a}tus$] in the list beginning with $kr\bar{\iota}$ [when a $s\bar{a}rvadh\bar{a}tuka$ suffix follows].

The ad, hu, and cur classes

The other three classes use a slightly different approach.

The *ad* class replaces *śap* with *luk*, which causes *lopa*. In the rule below, *luk* is available through *anuvṛtti* from a previous rule:

अदि-प्रभृतिभ्यः शपः। २.४.७२

adi-prabhṛtibhyaḥ śapaḥ (2.4.72)

adi-prabhṛtibhyaḥ śapaḥ

[luk] replaces śap when it follows [the dhātus in the list] starting with ad.

The *hu* class uses the suffix $\pm iu$, which causes *lopa* and also causes the root sound to be doubled $(hu \rightarrow juhu)$:

जुहोत्यादिभ्यः श्रुः। २.४.७५

juhotyādibhyaḥ śluḥ (2.4.75)

juhoti-adibhyah śluh

[The deletion suffix] δlu replaces δap when it follows [the $dh\bar{a}tus$ in the list] starting with hu.

The *cur* class, meanwhile, uses the suffix *nic*, which will come before *śap*. This is the same suffix used by causal verbs:

सत्यापपाशरूपवीणातूलश्लोकसेनालोमत्वचवर्मवर्णचूर्णचुरादिभ्यो णिच्। ३.१.२५

satyāpapāśarūpavīṇātūlaślokasenālomatvacavarmavarṇacūrṇacurādibhyo ṇic (3.1.25)

satyāpa-pāśa-rūpa-vīṇā-tūla-śloka-senā-loma-tvaca-varma-varṇa-cūrṇa-curādibhyaḥ ṇic

[The suffix] nic is added after satyāpa, pāśa, rūpa, vīṇā, tūla, śloka, senā, loma, tvaca, varma, varṇa, cūrṇa, and [the dhātus in the list] starting with cur;

हेतुमति च। ३.१.२६

hetumati ca (3.1.26)

hetumati ca

and likewise in the sense of causal action.

Review

We can now continue our *prakriyā* a few more steps:

<u>1.3.1</u> bhūvādayo dhātavaḥ
1.3.3 halantyam
<u>1.3.9</u> tasya lopaḥ
<u>6.1.65</u> ņo naḥ
<u>3.2.123</u> vartamāne laṭ
1.3.2 upadeśe'janunāsika it
1.3.3 halantyam
<u>1.3.9</u> tasya lopaḥ
3.4.78 tiptasjhisipthasthamibvasmastātāṃjhathāsāthā
1.3.3 halantyam
<u>1.3.9</u> tasya lopaḥ
3.4.113 tinśitsārvadhātukam
<u>3.1.68</u> kartari śap

nī a ti <u>1.3.3</u> halantyam

1.3.8 laśakvataddhite

1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

3.4.113 tinśitsārvadhātukam

(Note that $\dot{s}ap$ is called $\dot{s}arvadh\bar{a}tuka$ by rule 3.4.113 because it has \dot{s} as an it.)

Our verb is almost ready. In the next lesson, we will learn the last few rules we need to complete the $prakriy\bar{a}$ and get our finished verb.

guṇa

Now that our suffixes are in place, it is time to apply any rules that are conditioned by these suffixes. For *sārvadhātuka* suffixes specifically, there is one particular operation we should learn about: the replacement of the root vowel with its *guṇa* form. Here is an example:

नी अ ते
$$\rightarrow$$
 ने अ ते $n\bar{\imath}$ a te \rightarrow ne a te

In this lesson, we will learn more about guṇa and some of the rules that use it.

The first six rules

The first six rules of the Astadhyayt are all about guna and vndhi. The first two rules define the terms guna and vndhi, and the next four then define how guna and vndhi interact with other terms:

```
वृद्धिरादेच्। १.१.१
vṛddhirādaic (1.1.1)
vṛddhiḥ āt-aic
The vowels ā, ai, and au are called vṛddhi.
अदेङ्गुणः। १.१.२
adeṅguṇaḥ (1.1.2)
at-eṅ guṇaḥ
The vowels a, e, and o are called guṇa.
इको गुणवृद्धी। १.१.३
iko guṇavṛddhī (1.1.3)
ikaḥ guṇa-vṛddhī
guṇa and vṛddhi replace the ik vowels,
```

न धातुलोप आर्घधातुके। १.१.४

na dhātulopa ārdhadhātuke (1.1.4)

na dhātulope ārdhadhātuke

but not when followed by an *ārdhadhātuka* that causes [partial] *lopa* of the *dhātu*,

क्डिति च। १.१.५

kniti ca (1.1.5)

k-niti ca

or when followed by [terms that are] kit or nit,

दीधीवेवीटाम्। १.१.६

 $d\bar{\imath}dh\bar{\imath}vev\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}m$ (1.1.6)

dīdhī-vevī-iţām

or when applied to [the roots] dīdhī and vevī, or [the augment] iṭ.

Let's set some of these rules aside. We saw rules 1.1.1 and 1.1.2 in a previous lesson, so we don't need to dwell on them further. And rules 1.1.4 and 1.1.6 are minor, so we can set them aside as well. That leaves us with rules 1.1.3 and 1.1.5.

Rule 1.1.3 defines the basic function of guna and vrddhi vowels: they replace the ik vowels (i, u, r, l). And rule 1.1.5 restricts this substitution: the substitution is blocked if the following term is nit or kit.

Which kinds of terms are *kit* or *nit*? As a small example, the common suffix *-ta* is stated as *kta* in the *Aṣṭādhyāyī*. Because *kta* is *kit*, it will not cause *guṇa* or *vṛddhi* changes.

Interpreting rule 1.1.5

The traditional interpretation of rule 1.1.5 is that it refers not only to kit and $\dot{n}it$ but also to git, which is hidden by sandhi. This interpretation is part of a series of small changes that fixes one of the incorrect words that the $Ast\bar{a}dhy\bar{a}y\bar{\imath}$ would otherwise produce.

Here, we use the more straightforward interpretation. *git* is a minor point, and there are also strong arguments that Pāṇini did not intend to imply *git* here.

nittva

There are also several suffixes that are treated *as if* they are *nit* suffixes. Those suffixes are defined in the following four *atideśa* ("analogy", "extension") rules. All of these rules are useful, but rule 1.2.4 is our focus here:

```
गाङ्कटादिभ्योऽञ्णिन्ङित्। १.२.१
gānkutādibhyo'ñninnit (1.2.1)
gān-kuṭ-ādibhyaḥ a-ñ-ṇit nit
The following are \dot{n}it: [a term] after g\bar{a}\dot{n} and the root list starting with
kut, if the term is not ñit or nit;
विज इट्। १.२.२
vija iţ (1.2.2)
vijah it
the it after the [root] vij;
विभाषोणीं:। १.२.३
vibhāsornoh (1.2.3)
vibhāṣā ūṛṇoḥ
optionally, [the it after the root] ūrṇu;
सार्वधातुकमपित्। १.२.४
sārvadhātukamapit (1.2.4)
sārvadhātukam a-pit
and sārvadhātuka [suffixes] that are not pit.
```

More plainly: a *sārvadhātuka* affix that is not *pit* will be treated as *nit*. And since it is treated as *nit*, it will not be able to cause any *guṇa* changes to the root sound.

Since *śap* is *pit*, rule 1.2.4 will not apply to it, and it will still be able to cause *guṇa* changes by rule 7.3.84, which we discuss further below.

adhikāra rules

There is one relevant adhikāra here:

```
अङ्गस्य। ६.४.१
aṅgasya (<u>6.4.1</u>)
aṅgasya
Of an aṅga, ...
```

And what is an anga?

यस्मात् प्रत्ययविधिस्तदादि प्रत्ययेऽङ्गम्। १.४.१३

yasmāt pratyayavidhistadādi pratyaye'ngam (1.4.13)
yasmāt pratyaya-vidhiḥ tat-ādi pratyaye angam
If a rule introduces a pratyaya after some specific term, everything from that term up to the pratyaya [is called] an anga.

So if a *pratyaya* is introduced after a *dhātu*, that *dhātu* is called *aṅga* with respect to the *pratyaya*.

Replacement by guṇa

Rule 7.3.84 contains the word guna by anuvṛtti from a previous rule:

```
सार्वधातुकार्धधातुकयोः। ७.३.८४
sārvadhātukārdhadhātukayoḥ (7.3.84)
sārvadhātuka-ārdhadhātukayoḥ
[An aṅga is replaced with guṇa] when followed by a sārvadhātuka or
ārdhadhātuka suffix.
```

But to properly understand this rule, we must refer to two other rules. First, we know from rule 1.1.3 ($iko\ guṇavṛddh\bar{\imath}$) that $guṇa\ and\ vṛddhi$ sounds can replace only an ik vowel. But which ik vowel do we replace? We can decide which vowel to replace by referring to a new $paribh\bar{a}ṣ\bar{a}$:

येन विधिस्तदन्तस्य। १.१.७२

yena vidhistadantasya (1.1.72)

yena vidhiḥ tat-antasya

[A term] by which a rule [is specified refers to an item that] ends in that [term].

In other words, the rule applies to the final sound of the *aṅga*. If we use rules 1.1.3 and 1.1.72, we can properly understand rule 7.3.84:

सार्वधातुकार्धधातुकयोः। ७.३.८४

sārvadhātukārdhadhātukayoḥ (7.3.84)

sārvadhātuka-ārdhadhātukayoḥ

[An aṅga's last ik vowel is replaced with guṇa] when followed by a sārvadhātuka or ārdhadhātuka suffix.

Then we can continue with our *prakriyā*:

nī a ti <u>1.3.3</u> halantyam

1.3.8 laśakvataddhite

1.3.9 tasya lopah

ne a ti 7.3.84 sārvadhātukārdhadhātukayoḥ

laghu and guru

There is another important instance where guna can apply. If we define the terms laghu:

हलोऽनन्तराः संयोगः। १.१.७

halo'nantarāḥ saṃyogaḥ (1.1.7)

halaḥ anantarāḥ saṃyogaḥ

Consonants without an interval between them are called *saṃyoga* (conjunct).

हस्वं लघु। १.४.१०

hrasvam laghu (1.4.10)

hrasvam laghu

A hrasva (short vowel) is called laghu,

संयोगे गुरु। १.४.११

saṃyoge guru (1.4.11)

saṃyoge guru

but it is called guru when followed by saṃyoga.

दीर्घं च। १.४.१२

dīrgham ca (1.4.12)

dīrgham ca

And dīrgha is also [called guru].

and upadhā:

अलोऽन्त्यात् पूर्व उपधा। १.१.६५

alo'ntyāt pūrva upadhā (1.1.65)

alah antyāt pūrvah upadhā

The sound before the last sound is called *upadhā* (penultimate).

Then we can understand rule 7.3.86, which follows rule 7.3.84 (*sārvadhātukārdhadhātukayoh*):

पुगन्तलघूपधस्य च। ७.३.८६

pugantalaghūpadhasya ca (7.3.86)

puk-anta-laghu-upadhasya ca

And [the last *ik* vowel of an *aṅga*] ending with *puk* or whose *upadhā* (penultimate sound) is *laghu* (a light syllable) [is replaced with *guṇa* when followed by a *sārvadhātuka* or *ārdhadhātuka suffix*].

Let's set aside puk, since it is a minor point. Then the rule has a plain meaning: if the penultimate sound of the anga is laghu, then we can replace that sound with its guna.

Together, rules 7.3.84 and 7.3.86 cause *guṇa* in a variety of roots:

and leave others alone:

निन्द् + शप्
$$\rightarrow$$
 निन्द् अ
 $nind + śap \rightarrow nind a$
($upadh\bar{a}$ is not a vowel.)
जीव् + शप् \rightarrow जीव् अ
 $j\bar{v} + śap \rightarrow j\bar{v} a$
($upadh\bar{a}$ is long.)

Review

We now have all of the essential components we need to complete our $prakriy\bar{a}$. In the next lesson, we will generate all eighteen forms of the root $n\bar{\iota}$ in the present tense ($la\underline{\iota}$) with $kartari\ prayoga$.

prakriyā

At last, we are ready to complete our *prakriyā*. Using everything we've learned in the previous lessons, we can now fully derive the word *nayati*. And with the help of three new rules, we can derive all eighteen of the forms of $n\bar{\imath}$ in *kartari prayoga* with lat- $lak\bar{a}ra$.

Here are the basic steps we will follow:

- 1. Choose a dhātu from the Dhātupāṭha.
- 2. Choose the right *lakāra*.
- 3. Determine whether the root uses parasmaipada or ātmanepada endings.
- 4. Replace the *lakāra* with the appropriate *tin* ending.
- 5. Add a vikarana as needed.
- 6. Apply guṇa changes as needed.
- 7. Apply sandhi rules.

Our first prakriyā

We wish to express the idea of *leading* someone. We want to express this for some third-party agent and express a sense of the present tense.

Based on these meaning conditions, we select a root. We start with the $dh\bar{a}tu\;n\bar{t}\tilde{n}$ as given in the $Dh\bar{a}tup\bar{a}tha$:

```
णीञ् प्रापणे। १.१०४९
nīñ prāpaņe (1.1049)
nī in the sense of obtaining or leading
```

We then apply rules to remove the *it* letters and obtain *natva* of the initial n:

```
      nīñ
      1.3.1 bhūvādayo dhātavaḥ

      nī
      1.3.3 halantyam

      1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ
      6.1.65 ņo naḥ
```

We can then add *lat* to denote the present tense:

nī lat 3.2.123 vartamāne lat

This is then replaced with the appropriate ending, according to our semantic conditions:

nī l <u>1.3.2</u> upadeśe'janunāsika it

1.3.3 halantyam1.3.9 tasya lopah

nī tip 3.4.78 tiptasjhisipthasthamibvasmastātāmijhathāsāthā...

nī ti <u>1.3.3</u> halantyam

1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

Then we introduce the appropriate vikaraṇa:

nī śap ti <u>3.4.113</u> tinśitsārvadhātukam

3.1.68 kartari sap

nī a ti 1.3.3 halantyam

1.3.8 laśakvataddhite 1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

Finally, we apply the necessary sound changes:

ne a ti 7.3.84 sārvadhātukārdhadhātukayoḥ

nayati <u>6.1.78</u> eco'yavāyāvaḥ

Here is our complete *prakriyā* from start to finish:

nīñ 1.3.1 bhūvādayo dhātavaḥ

 $n\bar{t}$ 1.3.3 halantyam

1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

nī 6.1.65 ņο naḥ

nī laţ 3.2.123 vartamāne laţ

nī l <u>1.3.2</u> upadeśe'janunāsika it

1.3.3 halantyam

1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

nī tip 3.4.78 tiptasjhisipthasthamibvasmastātāmijhathāsāthā...

nī ti <u>1.3.3</u> halantyam

1.3.9 tasya lopah

nī śap ti 3.4.113 tińśitsārvadhātukam

3.1.68 kartari śap

nī a ti <u>1.3.3</u> halantyam

1.3.8 laśakvataddhite

1.3.9 tasya lopah

ne a ti <u>7.3.84</u> sārvadhātukārdhadhātukayoḥ

nayati <u>6.1.78</u> eco'yavāyāvaḥ

A more experienced grammarian will skip the low-level steps and use something like this:

nīñ 1.3.1 bhūvādayo dhātavaḥ

nī lat 3.2.123 vartamāne lat

nī ti 3.4.78 tiptasjhisipthasthamibvasmastātāmihathāsāthā...

 $n\bar{i}$ śap ti 3.1.68 kartari śap

ne a ti 7.3.84 sārvadhātukārdhadhātukayoḥ

nayati <u>6.1.78</u> eco'yavāyāvaḥ

Some miscellaneous rules

Here are a few miscellaneous rules that we will refer to further below. First, a simple one:

लोपो व्योर्विल। ६.१.६६

lopo vyorvali (6.1.66)

lopah v-yoh vali

The letters v and y are replaced with lopa when followed by a val sound (i.e. any consonant except y).

Next, a rule that depends on several terms from anuvṛtti:

- ekaḥ pūrvaparayoḥ ("A single replaces the previous and following")
- apadāntāt ("non-word-final")
- para-rūpam ("the form of the second")
- aci ("when a vowel follows")

अतो गुणे। ६.१.९७

ato gune (6.1.97)

ataḥ guṇe

[Non-word-final] a and a following guna [vowel] are both replaced with the guna (i.e. the a is deleted).

Then rule 7.1.3, which replaces the *jh* in *jhi* and *jha*. Rule 7.1.3 uses *pratyayādīnām* ("of the beginning of a *pratyaya*") by *anuvṛtti*:

झोऽन्तः। ७.१.३

jho'ntaḥ (<u>7.1.3</u>)

jhah antah

The [initial] *jh* [of a *pratyaya*] is replaced with *ant*.

Why does $P\bar{a}$ nini use jh in the first place? It is because some verbs will use replacements other than ant. But for now, that's a minor point.

Finally, we have two rules that inherit *sārvadhātuke* ("when a *sārvadhātuka* follows") by *anuvṛtti* and *aṅgasya* ("of an *aṅga*") from an *adhikāra* rule. Rule 7.2.81 also inherits *ataḥ* ("after *a*") by *anuvṛtti*:

आतो ङितः। ७.२.८१

āto nitah (7.2.81)

ātaḥ nitaḥ

[After a], the \bar{a} [of a following] $\dot{n}it$ [sārvadhātuka is replaced with iy].

अतो दीर्घो यञि। ७.३.१०१

ato dīrgho yañi (7.3.101)

atah dīrghah yañi

The final a of an anga is replaced with $d\bar{\imath}rgha$ (long) when followed by a $va\tilde{n}$ sound.

For the specific usages of these two rules, see the *prakriyā*s further below.

nī and lat (parasmaipada)

Now let's derive the other eight forms of $n\bar{t}$ in lat with parasmaipada endings.

nayatah is like nayati, with some extra sandhi rules from the asiddha section:

nī tas 3.4.78 tiptasjhisipthasthamibvasmastātāmihathāsāthā...

nī śap tas 3.4.113 tińśitsārvadhātukam

3.1.68 kartari sap

nī a tas 1.3.3 halantyam

1.3.8 laśakvataddhite

1.3.9 tasya lopah

ne a tas <u>7.3.84</u> sārvadhātukārdhadhātukayoḥ

nay a tas <u>6.1.78</u> eco'yavāyāvaḥ nayata ru <u>8.2.66</u> sasajuṣo ruḥ

nayataḥ 8.3.15 kharavasānayorvisarjanīyaḥ

nayanti is like nayati, but there are some extra rules to modify *jhi*. Rule 6.1.97 (ato guṇe) deletes the extra a. Note the rules from the asiddha section, which apply then revert a sandhi change:

nī jhi 3.4.78 tiptasjhisipthasthamibvasmastātāmijhathāsāthā...

nī śap jhi 3.4.113 tinśitsārvadhātukam

3.1.68 kartari śap

nī a jhi <u>1.3.3</u> halantyam

1.3.8 laśakvataddhite

1.3.9 tasya lopah

nī a anti <u>7.1.3</u> jho'ntaḥ

ne a anti 7.3.84 sārvadhātukārdhadhātukayoḥ

nay a anti <u>6.1.78</u> eco'yavāyāvaḥ

nay anti <u>6.1.97</u> ato guņe

nay aṃti <u>8.3.24</u> naścāpadāntasya jhali

nayanti <u>8.4.58</u> anusvārasya yayi parasavarṇaḥ

nayasi is like nayati, nayathaḥ like nayataḥ, and nayatha like nayati again. Then we come to nayāmi, which lengthens the vowel of the aṅga:

nī mip 3.4.78 tiptasjhisipthasthamibvasmastātāmijhathāsāthā...

nī mi <u>1.3.3</u> halantyam

1.3.9 tasya lopah

nī śap mi 3.4.113 tinśitsārvadhātukam

3.1.68 kartari śap

nī a mi 1.3.3 halantyam

1.3.8 laśakvataddhite

1.3.9 tasya lopah

ne a mi 7.3.84 sārvadhātukārdhadhātukayoḥ

nay a mi <u>6.1.78</u> eco'yavāyāvaḥ nayāmi <u>7.3.101</u> ato dīrgho yañi

nayāvaḥ is like nayāmi, with some extra sandhi rules from the asiddha section:

nī vas 3.4.78 tiptasjhisipthasthamibvasmastātāmijhathāsāthā...

nī śap vas 3.4.113 tinśitsārvadhātukam

3.1.68 kartari śap

nī a vas <u>1.3.3</u> halantyam

1.3.8 laśakvataddhite

1.3.9 tasya lopah

ne a vas 7.3.84 sārvadhātukārdhadhātukayoḥ

 ne ā vas
 7.3.101 ato dīrgho yañi

 nay ā vas
 6.1.78 eco'yavāyāvaḥ

 nay ā va ru*
 8.2.66 sasajuṣo ruḥ

nayāvaḥ 8.3.15 kharavasānayorvisarjanīyaḥ

And nayāmaḥ is like nayāvaḥ.

nī and laṭ (ātmanepada)

The prakriyās with ātmanepada endings are similar:

nī ta <u>1.3.72</u> svaritañitaḥ kartrabhiprāye kriyāphale

<u>3.4.78</u> tiptasjhisipthasthamibvasmastātāmijhathāsāthā...

nī te 3.4.79 țita ātmanepadānām țere nī śap te 3.4.113 tinśitsārvadhātukam

3.1.68 kartari śap

 $n\bar{l}$ a te 1.3.3 halantyam

1.3.8 laśakvataddhite

1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

ne a te 7.3.84 sārvadhātukārdhadhātukayoḥ

nayate <u>6.1.78</u> eco'yavāyāvaḥ

For nayete, the rules 7.2.81 (āto nitaḥ) and 6.1.66 (lopo vyorvali) apply to change āte to ite:

nī ātām 1.3.72 svaritañitaḥ kartrabhiprāye kriyāphale

3.4.78 tiptasjhisipthasthamibvasmastātāmjhathāsāthā...

nī āte3.4.79 țita ātmanepadānāṃ țerenī śap āte3.4.113 tiṅśitsārvadhātukam

3.1.68 kartari śap

$n\bar{\iota}$ a \bar{a} te $\underline{1.3.}$	<u>3</u> halantyam
--	--------------------

1.3.8 laśakvataddhite

1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

 $n\bar{t}$ a iy te 7.2.81 āto nitaļ

 $n\bar{\iota}$ a i te <u>6.1.66</u> lopo vyorvali

ne a i te <u>7.3.84</u> sārvadhātukārdhadhātukayoḥ

nay a i te <u>6.1.78</u> eco'yavāyāvaḥ

nayete <u>6.1.87</u> ādguṇaḥ

nayante is like nayanti, but with an ātmanepada ending instead. For nayase, we replace the ending with 3.4.80 (thāsasse) then continue as normal:

nī thās	1.3.72 svaritañitah	kartrabhiprāye .	kriyāphale

3.4.78 tiptasjhisipthasthamibvasmastātāmihathāsāthā...

nī se 3.4.80 thāsasse

nī śap se 3.4.113 tinśitsārvadhātukam

3.1.68 kartari śap

nī a se <u>1.3.3</u> halantyam

1.3.8 laśakvataddhite

1.3.9 tasya lopah

ne a se 7.3.84 sārvadhātukārdhadhātukayoḥ

nayase <u>6.1.87</u> ādguṇaḥ

nayethe is like nayete, and nayadhve is like nayate. naye is a little trickier and requires the application of rule 6.1.97 (ato guṇe):

_ ·.	-1	-	70		•. ~•. 7	1 .	1 . 1	7	1	7	1 7	
nī it	- 1	-≺	-/-	/	svaritañital	7	kartrah	١h	inrave l	crivant	ากเ	0
ILL LI	4.	0.	. / /	4 .	oval Hallia	L 1	nui ii uu	' I L	LUIUVCI	CILVUDI	LULL	•

<u>3.4.78</u> tiptasjhisipthasthamibvasmastātāmijhathāsāthā...

nī i 1.3.3 halantyam

1.3.9 tasya lopah

nī e 3.4.79 țita ātmanepadānām țere nī śap e 3.4.113 tińśitsārvadhātukam

3.1.68 kartari sap

nī a e <u>1.3.3</u> halantyam

1.3.8 laśakvataddhite

1.3.9 tasya lopah

ne a e <u>7.3.84</u> sārvadhātukārdhadhātukayoḥ

nay a e <u>6.1.78</u> eco'yavāyāvaḥ

naye <u>6.1.97</u> ato guņe

nayāvahe is like nayāvaḥ but without the asiddha rules:

nī vahi 3.4.78 tiptasjhisipthasthamibvasmastātāmijhathāsāthā...

nī vahe <u>3.4.79</u> țita ātmanepadānāṃ țere

nī śap vahe 3.4.113 tinśitsārvadhātukam

3.1.68 kartari śap

nī a vahe 1.3.3 halantyam

1.3.8 laśakvataddhite

1.3.9 tasya lopah

ne a vahe 7.3.84 sārvadhātukārdhadhātukayoḥ

ne ā vahe 7.3.101 ato dīrgho yañi nayāvahe 6.1.78 eco'yavāyāvaḥ

And nayāmahe is like nayāvahe.

Review

In this unit, we applied our basic system to the task of deriving Sanskrit verbs. We saw that the process has a few basic steps:

- 1. Choose a dhātu from the Dhātupāṭha.
- 2. Choose the right *lakāra*.
- 3. Determine whether the root uses parasmaipada or ātmanepada endings.
- 4. Replace the *lakāra* with the appropriate *tin* ending.
- 5. Add a vikarana as needed.
- 6. Apply guṇa changes as needed.
- 7. Apply sandhi rules.

This unit focused on verbs created with *laṭ-lakāra*, but all verbs will follow this basic framework.

Index of rules

Rules	Topic
1.3.12 - 1.3.93	Use of parasmaipada and ātmanepada
3.1.5 - 3.1.32	Use of san-ādi suffixes, which create derived dhātus
3.4.77 - 3.4.117	tiṅ-siddhi

subanta

Introduction

In the previous unit, we built on our basic system and learned about how to use the $Ast\bar{a}dhy\bar{a}y\bar{\imath}$ to create different tinantas (verbs). As a reminder, tinantas are one of the two major word types in the $Ast\bar{a}dhy\bar{a}y\bar{\imath}$:

```
सुप्तिङन्तं पदम्। १.४.१४
suptinantam padam (1.4.14)
sup-tin-antam padam
That which ends in sup or tin [is called] a pada (word).
```

We know already that *tin* is a *pratyāhāra* that refers to different verb endings. *sup*, meanwhile, is a *pratyāhāra* that refers to different nominal endings. So in the Pāṇinian system, nominals are called *sub-anta* ("ending in a *sup* suffix").

In this unit, we will learn how the *Aṣṭādhyāyī* creates *subantas*. We will also create complete *prakriyās* for a variety of basic nominal words.

What is a subanta?

The term *subanta* refers to a wide variety of different words, including nouns, adjectives, and pronouns:

```
rāmaḥ
Rama
રાક્ષા
śuklā
white
```

रामः

अहम् aham

Ι

But perhaps more surprisingly, it also refers to indeclinable words:

अपि

api

also

च

са

and

मन्दम्

mandam

slowly

Our main focus in this unit will be on nouns and adjectives. But at the end of this unit, we will return to why indeclinables are considered *subantas* and how this decision makes sense within the Pāṇinian system.

Basics of subanta-prakriyā

Roughly, we derive a *subanta* as follows. We start with the specific semantics we wish to express. For example, perhaps we want to express that Rama is acting as the subject of our sentence.

Based on the meaning we want to express, we choose a stem and an ending:

 $r\bar{a}ma + s$

We then apply extra substitution rules as needed. (For the example above, no extra rules are necessary.) Then we combine the stem and the ending and apply normal sandhi rules. The result is a complete Sanskrit word:

रामः

rāmaḥ

Choosing a stem is simple, and we already know how to apply sandhi rules. But what is more interesting here is how we decide which ending to choose. To choose an ending, we must understand how the *Aṣṭādhyāyī* models the meanings

of different words. In the lessons to come, that is where we will focus our time and energy.

Nominals for beginners

The notes below are a brief summary of the Sanskrit nominal system. If you know Sanskrit already, you can continue to the next lesson.

Sanskrit nominals have two main parts: a **stem** and an **ending**. The stem carries the word's basic meaning, and the ending modifies that basic meaning to create a complete word.

Sanskrit nominals are highly expressive. They can express three different **genders** (masculine, feminine, and neuter) and three different **numbers** (singular, dual, plural). In Western terms, they also express eight different **cases** (nominative, accusative, instrumental, dative, ablative, genitive, locative, and vocative).

Sanskrit nouns generally use a single fixed gender. So for a given noun, we usually have 3 numbers \times 8 cases = 24 different forms.

What we call "case" in English does not have a counterpart in *vyākaraṇa*. Instead, *vyākaraṇa* uses the two concepts of *kāraka* and *vibhakti*, which we will explore in the next few lessons.

prātipadika

Our *prakriyā* begins with a *prātipadika* ("pre-word," "nominal stem"). We then find an appropriate ending for the *prātipadika*, apply any necessary operations, and obtain our final word.

How do we define a *prātipadika*? First, we should remember this important *paribhāṣā*:

येन विधिस्तद्न्तस्य। १.१.७२

yena vidhistadantasya (1.1.72)

yena vidhih tat-antasya

[A term] by which a rule [is specified refers to an item that] ends in that [term].

We previously used this rule to define *guṇa* substitutions of the last vowel of an aṅga:

 $n\bar{\iota} + a \rightarrow ne a$

But here, we will use it to refer to different suffixes instead:

अर्थवद्धातुरप्रत्ययः प्रातिपदिकम्। १.२.४५

 $arthavadadh\bar{a}turapratyaya \rlap/ h\ pr\bar{a}tipadikam\ (\underline{1.2.45})$

arthavat a-dhātuḥ a-pratyayaḥ prātipadikam

A meaningful [term] that is neither a *dhātu* (verb root) nor a *pratyaya* (suffix), [nor a term ending in a *pratyaya*, is called] *prātipadika*,

कृत्तद्धितसमासाश्च। १.२.४६

krttaddhitasamāsāśca (1.2.46)

kṛt-taddhita-samāsāḥ ca

and [terms ending with] *kṛt* or *taddhita* [suffixes], as well as *samāsas* (compounds), [are called *prātipadika*].

kṛt suffixes attach to verb roots (as in $man + tra \rightarrow mantra$), **taddhita** suffixes attach to other $pr\bar{a}tipadikas$ ($amṛta + tva \rightarrow amṛtatva$), and $sam\bar{a}sas$ are just compounds.

As a reminder, Sanskrit noun stems all express a certain gender, and the nominal endings we use with that stem should match the stem's gender. For example, if we want to use the masculine stem $r\bar{a}ma$, we should not apply endings associated with the feminine gender. But how do we know the gender associated with the $pr\bar{a}tipadika$?

In some instances, we don't have enough information to decide. But in general, we can look at the different *pratyayas* that were used to create the *prātipadika*. Based on these affixes, we can determine which gender is associated with the *prātipadika* and which endings to use.

Review

In the next lesson, we will continue the process of creating a *subanta*.

sup-pratyāhāra

In the previous lesson, we learned about the *prātipadika*. By combining a *prātipadika* with one of the *sup* suffixes, we create a complete *subanta*.

In this lesson, we'll learn about the basic *sup* endings.

adhikāra rules

The *sup* endings are defined in the scope of three *adhikāra* rules. The first two are familiar:

```
प्रत्ययः। ३.१.१

pratyayaḥ (3.1.1)

pratyayaḥ

... is a pratyaya (suffix).

परश्च। ३.१.२

paraśca (3.1.2)

paraḥ ca

... and [it is inserted] after [the base].
```

And the last is new:

```
ज्याप्रातिपदिकात्। ४.१.१
nyāpprātipadikāt (4.1.1)
nī-āp-prātipadikāt
After [the suffixes] nī or āp, or after a prātipadika (stem), ...
```

 $\dot{n}\bar{t}$ and $\bar{a}p$ are pratyayas that create feminine bases, and we can set them aside for now.

sup-pratyāhāra

Here are the endings in the *sup pratyāhāra*:

स्वौजसमौद्वष्टाभ्यांभिरुङेभ्यांभ्यरुङसिभ्यांभ्यरुङसोसाम्ङ्योरसुप्। ४.१.२

svaujasamautchastabhyambhisnebhyambhyasnasibhyambhyasnasosamnyossup (4.1.2)

su-au-jas-am-auṭ-śas-ṭā-bhyām-bhis-ne-bhyām-bhyas-nasi-bhyām-bhyām-bhyas-nasi-bhyām-bhyas-nasi-bhyām-bhyas-nasi-bhyām-bhyas-nasi-bhyām-bhyas-nasi-bhyām-bhyas-nasi-bhyām-bhyas-nasi-bhyām-bhyas-nasi-bhyām-bhyām-bhyas-nasi-bhyas-bhyām-bhyas-nasi-bhyām-bhyas-nasi-bhyām-bhyas-nasi-bhyām-bhyas-nasi-bhyām-bhyas-nasi-bhyām-bhyas-nasi-bhyām-bhyas-nasi-bhyām-bhyas-nasi-bhyām-bhyas-nasi-bhyas-bhyām-bhyas-nasi-bhyām-bhyas-nasi-bhyām-bhyas-nasi-bhyas-nasi-bhyas-nasi-bhyas-

su, au, jas, am, aut, śas, tā, bhyām, bhis, ne, bhyām, bhyas, nasi, bhyām, bhyas, nas, os, ām, ni, os, and sup.

There are several points worth noticing here.

First, notice that many of these endings have it sounds attached to them:

- Some of these *it* letters are for the sake of making *pratyāhāras*. For example, *suṭ* uses the *ṭ* of *auṭ* to refer to just the first five of these endings. Likewise, *sup* uses the *su* from *su* and the *p* of the final *sup* to refer to all twenty-one of these endings.
- Some are labeled systematically. For example, the $\dot{n}it$ endings that is, the endings with \dot{n} as an it are often replaced, depending on the $pr\bar{a}tipadika$ and its gender.
- Some of these *it* letters are for the sake of easier pronunciation, or they have other miscellaneous functions. Thus we have *su*, *nasi*, and the like.

Second, notice that these endings are not the standard endings we would use for a stem like $r\bar{a}ma$. Pāṇini examined many different nominal ending patterns and chose this set to represent what they have in common. Then we can apply various vidhi rules to get the endings we need, as we did for the tin endings.

How do we choose which ending to use? In part, we can reuse these rules from when we studied the *tin* endings:

तिङस्त्रीणि त्रीणि प्रथममध्यमोत्तमाः। १.४.१०१

tinastrīņi trīņi prathamamadhyamottamāḥ (<u>1.4.101</u>)

tinaḥ trīṇi trīṇi prathama-madhyama-uttamāḥ

Taken three by three, the *tin* [suffixes] are called *prathama* (first), *madhyama* (middle), and *uttama* (last).

तान्येकवचनद्विवचनबहुवचनान्येकशः। १.४.१०२

tānyekavacanadvivacanabahuvacanānyekaśaḥ (1.4.102)

tāni ekavacana-dvivacana-bahuvacanāni ekaśaḥ

They [i.e. these triples] are called *ekavacana* (singular), *dvivacana* (dual), and *bahuvacana* (plural) when taken one by one.

सुपः। १.४.१०३

supah (1.4.103)

supah

[ekavacana, dvicana, and bahuvacana also apply for the triples] of sup (i.e. the nominal endings).

विभक्तिश्च। १.४.१०४

vibhaktiśca (1.4.104)

vibhaktiḥ ca

And [these triples are each called] vibhakti.

By choosing a specific *vacana* (number), we narrow twenty-one endings down to seven. That leaves us with a very important distinction to make:

vibhakti

The different *sup vibhaktis* don't have any special names. They are simply called *prathamā* (first), *dvitīyā* (second), and the like:

सु औ जस्

su au jas

(prathamā)

अम् औट् शस्

am auț śas

(dvitīyā)

How do we choose which *vibhakti* to use? As you might guess, these *vibhakti*s imply different semantics. But the route we take from semantics to a specific *vibhakti* is an interesting one. The next two lessons will focus on this process.

kāraka

The Pāṇinian school assumes that sentences have a basic structure. There is a verb, like *gacchati* ("goes"), that describes some action. And there are different components involved in this action:

रामः सीतायै वने मार्गेण कुट्या मृगं गच्छति।

rāmah sītāyai vane mārgeņa kutyā mṛgam gacchati.

Rama goes to the deer in the forest from the hut via the path for Sita.

The different components of some action are called $k\bar{a}raka$ s. Roughly, you can think of a $k\bar{a}raka$ as an intermediate idea between the meaning we want to express and the actual sup ending we use.

For more information on $k\bar{a}raka$, see the "Further reading" section of our Review lesson.

adhikāra rules

The Aṣṭādhyāyī describes six main kārakas and does so within the scope of these two rules, which we've seen before:

आ कडारादेका संज्ञा। १.४.१

ā kaḍārādekā saṃjñā (1.4.1)

ā kadārāt ekā samjñā

Up to the *kaḍāra* rule (rule 2.2.38), one *saṃjñā* [is allowed].

विप्रतिषेधे परं कार्यम्। १.४.२

vipratiședhe param kāryam (1.4.2)

vipratisedhe param kāryam

In matters of conflict, the later [rule] should be applied.

The *kāraka* section then begins with this *adhikāra*:

कारके। १.४.२३

kārake (1.4.23)

kārake

In the context of a *kāraka*, ...

The six kārakas

Below, we present the basic semantics of the six $k\bar{a}rakas$. We also include some common secondary semantics. Most of these six $k\bar{a}rakas$ can convey several other kinds of semantics, but we have omitted them here to keep this lesson at a reasonable length.

The first $k\bar{a}raka$ is $ap\bar{a}d\bar{a}na$, which is usually expressed by the fifth ("ablative") case:

ध्रुवमपाये ऽपादानम्। १.४.२४

dhruvamapāye 'pādānam (1.4.24)

dhruvam apāye apādānam

In the sense of movement away, [a $k\bar{a}raka$ that is] the fixed point is called $ap\bar{a}d\bar{a}na$ (ablation).

भीत्रार्थानां भयहेतुः। १.४.२५

bhītrārthānām bhayahetuḥ (1.4.25)

bhī-trā-arthānām bhaya-hetuḥ

For [roots] meaning $bh\bar{\iota}$ (to fear) or $tr\bar{a}$ (to protect), [a $k\bar{a}raka$ that is] the source of fear [is called $ap\bar{a}d\bar{a}na$].

Here are some examples of these two rules:

नरो वनादु ग्रामं गच्छति।

naro vanād grāmam gacchati.

The man goes from the forest to the village.

रावणो रामादु भीतः।

rāvano <mark>rāmād</mark> bhītah.

Ravana is afraid of Rama.

रामः सीतां राक्षसात् त्रायते।

rāmaḥ sītāṃ rākṣasāt trāyate.

Rama protects Sita from a rakshasa.

Next is sampradana, which is usually expressed by the fourth ("dative") case:

कर्मणा यम् अभिप्रैति स सम्प्रदानम्। १.४.३२

karmaṇā yam abhipraiti sa sampradānam (1.4.32)

karmanā yam abhipraiti sa sampradānam

[A kāraka that is] whom one aims to benefit with the action is called sampradāna (beneficiary).

रुच्यर्थानां प्रीयमाणः। १.४.३३

rucyarthānām prīyamāṇaḥ (1.4.33)

ruci-arthānām prīyamaņaḥ

For [roots] meaning ruc (please), [a $k\bar{a}raka$ that is] the one being pleased [is called $samprad\bar{a}na$].

श्राघहुङ्स्थाशपां ज्ञीप्स्यमानः। १.४.३४

ślāghahnunsthāśapām jñīpsyamānah (1.4.34)

ślāgha-hnun-sthā-śapām jñīpsyamānah

For the roots $śl\bar{a}gh$ (praise), hnu (hide), $sth\bar{a}$ (stay, stand), and śap (vow, curse), [a $k\bar{a}raka$ that is] the one whom one wishes to be informed [of the action is called $samprad\bar{a}na$].

Here are some examples of these three rules:

देवदत्ताय फलं ददाति

devadattāya phalam dadāti

He gives a fruit to Devadatta. (1.4.32)

देवदत्ताय रोचते फलम्।

devadattāya rocate phalam.

Devadatta likes the fruit. (1.4.33)

देवदत्ताय श्राघते

devadattāya ślāghate

He praises Devadatta. (1.4.34)

Next is *karaṇa*, which is usually expressed by the third ("instrumental") case:

साधकतमं करणम्। १.४.४२

sādhakatamam karaṇam (1.4.42)

sādhakatamam karanam

[A kāraka that is] the most effectual means [is called] karaṇa (means).

And an example:

रामो धनुषा रावणं हन्ति।

rāmo dhanuṣā rāvaṇam hanti.

Rama kills Ravana with his bow.

Then adhikaraṇa, which is usually expressed by the seventh ("locative") case:

आधारो ऽधिकरणम्। १.४.४५

ādhāro 'dhikaraṇam (1.4.45)

ādhārah adhikaranam

[A kāraka that is] the locus of action [is called] adhikaraṇa (locus).

And an example:

अर्जुनः क्षेत्रे युध्यते।

arjunah ksetre yudhyate.

Arjuna fights in the field.

Then *karma*, which is usually expressed by the second ("accusative") case:

कर्तुरीप्सिततमं कर्म। १.४.४९

karturīpsitatamam karma (1.4.49)

kartuh īpsitatamam karma

[A kāraka that is] what the agent most desires [is called] karma (object),

तथायुक्तं चानीप्सितम्। १.४.५०

tathāyuktam cānīpsitam (1.4.50)

tathā-yuktam ca an-īpsitam

and likewise for what is not desired but similarly related [to what is most desired].

What does rule 1.4.50 mean? To help us understand, here is an ancient example:

ओदनं भुञ्जानो विषं भुङ्के

odanam bhuñjāno visam bhunkte

While eating rice, he eats poison.

Here, *odanam* ("rice") is what the eater desires by his action, so it is *karma* by rule 1.4.49. *viṣam* ("poison") is not desired; perhaps the eater doesn't know that the poison is present. So *viṣam* is out of scope in rule 1.4.49. However, *viṣam* has a similar relation to *odanam*, since it is connected with *odanam* by being mixed with it. Thus *viṣam* can be called *karma* by rule 1.1.50.

Our last *kāraka* is *kartṛ*, which is usually expressed in either the first ("nominative") or the third ("instrumental") case, depending on the verb's *prayoga*:

स्वतन्त्रः कर्ता। १.४.५४

svatantrah kartā (1.4.54)

sva-tantrah kartā

[A kāraka that is] independent [is called] kartṛ (agent),

तत्प्रयोजको हेतुश्च। १.४.५५

tatprayojako hetuśca (1.4.55)

tat-prayojakah hetuh ca

[A $k\bar{a}raka$ that is] the instigator of that [action is called kartr] as well as hetu (cause).

Here are some examples of these rules:

देवदत्त ओदनम् पचति।

devadatta odanam pacati.

Devadatta cooks rice.

राम ओदनं देवदत्तेन पाचयति।

rāma odanaṃ devadattena pācayati. Rama makes Devadatta cook rice.

Review

 $k\bar{a}raka$ is a complex concept, but we hope the rules above give you some intuition for what it represents. Even so, we're still left with two questions:

- How do we map a *kāraka* to a specific ending?
- What if we want to express something that isn't a *kāraka*?

In the next lesson, we will answer these questions and finally select a vibhakti.

vibhakti

Sanskrit resources written in English often say that Sanskrit nominals use eight different **cases**. Roughly, the English concept of *case* is like a combination of two Sanskrit categories: *kāraka* and *vibhakti*.

vibhakti is simply a group of three endings, as we saw previously. The *sup* pratyāhāra has twenty-one endings, so it has seven *vibhakti*s in total.

A given vibhakti can express multiple $k\bar{a}rakas$, and it can also express relationships that aren't $k\bar{a}rakas$. By using the rules below, we can pick the right vibhakti for our $pr\bar{a}tipadika$ and get one step closer to our completed word.

adhikāra rules

There is only one *adhikāra* we should consider here, but it is a significant one:

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अनिभिहिते। २.३.१

anabhihite (2.3.1)

anabhihite

When not otherwise expressed, ...
```

The idea is that the rules below can only be applied if their information has not been expressed already. To understand what this means, we can start by examining the use of the second *vibhakti*:

The second *vibhakti*

The first rule after rule 2.3.1 (anabhihite) is about the second vibhakti:

```
कर्मणि द्वितीया। २.३.२
karmaṇi dvitīyā (2.3.2)
karmaṇi dvitīyā
[When not otherwise expressed,] the second [vibhakti is used] in the sense of karma.
```

Suppose the verb in our sentence is *gacchati* ("goes"). *gacchati* is in *kartari prayoga*, which means that expresses the *kāraka* of *kartṛ*. *gacchati* does not ex-

press any information about the *karma*, so we can apply rule 2.3.2 and create a valid sentence:

ग्रामं गच्छति

grāmam gacchati

He goes to the village.

But suppose that the verb in our sentence is *gamyate* ("is gone to"). *gamyate* is in *karmaṇi prayoga*, which means that it expresses the $k\bar{a}raka$ of *karma*. Since *karma* is already expressed, we cannot apply rule 2.3.2. So we are prevented from saying **grāmaṃ gamyate*, which would be an error. This is the purpose of rule 2.3.1 (*anabhihite*).

The fourth *vibhakti*

Continuing on, we see some rules about the fourth *vibhakti*:

चतुर्थी सम्प्रदाने। २.३.१३

caturthī sampradāne (2.3.13)

caturthī sampradāne

[When not otherwise expressed,] the fourth [vibhakti is used] in the sense of sampradāna.

तुमर्थाच भाववचनात्। २.३.१५

tumarthācca bhāvavacanāt (2.3.15)

tum-arthāt ca bhāva-vacanāt

And after words that express $bh\bar{a}va$ (state) in the sense of (the pratyaya) - tum.

Rule 2.3.13 is straightforward. Rule 2.3.15 refers to usages like the one below:

दर्शनाय गच्छति।

darśanāya gacchati.

He goes to see ("for seeing").

The third *vibhakti*

Next we have the third *vibhakti*:

कर्तृकरणयोस्तृतीया। २.३.१८

kartṛkaraṇayostṛtīyā (2.3.18)

kartṛ-karaṇayoḥ tṛtīyā

[When not otherwise expressed,] the third [vibhakti is used] in the sense of kartr or karaṇa.

सहयुक्ते ऽप्रधाने। २.३.१९

sahayukte 'pradhāne (2.3.19)

saha-yukte a-pradhāne

[When not otherwise expressed, the third *vibhakti* is used] with the word *saha* in the sense of a secondary [idea].

Rule 2.3.18 has the same behavior as *karmaṇi dvitīyā* above. If the verb is in *kartari prayoga (gacchati*), it may express the *karaṇa*:

अश्वेन गच्छति।

aśvena gacchati.

He goes by horse.

And if the verb is in karmaṇi prayoga (gamyate), it may express the kartṛ:

नरेण ग्रामो गम्यते।

narena grāmo gamyate.

The man goes to the village. ("The village is gone to by the man.")

The fifth vibhakti

Next we have the fifth vibhakti:

अपादाने पञ्चमी। २.३.२८

apādāne pañcamī (2.3.28)

apādāne pañcamī

[When not otherwise expressed,] the fifth [vibhakti is used] in the sense of apādāna.

This is straightforward.

The seventh *vibhakti*

Next is the seventh *vibhakti*. It inherits some context from a previous rule. This extra context is minor, but we include it for the sake of completeness:

सप्तम्यधिकरणे च। २.३.३५

saptamyadhikarane ca (2.3.35)

saptamī adhikaraņe ca

[When not otherwise expressed,] the seventh [vibhakti] is used in the sense of adhikaraṇa, [and after words that mean dūra (far) or antika (near)].

The first vibhakti

The first *vibhakti* has a surprising definition. This rule, especially, makes clear the difference between case and *vibhakti*:

प्रातिपदिकार्थिलङ्गपरिमाणवचनमात्रे प्रथमा। २.३.४६

prātipadikārthaliṅgaparimāṇavacanamātre prathamā (2.3.46)
prātipadika-artha-liṅga-parimāṇa-vacana-mātre prathamā
[When not otherwise expressed,] the first [vibhakti] is used only to express the prātipadika meaning, gender, measure, and number.

Let's leave aside "measure," which is a minor point. What this rule says is that the first *vibhakti* does not express any *kāraka* at all!

Why is this so? Once again, consider the verb that would be used with this *subanta*. If the verb is *gacchati*, then *kartṛ* is already expressed. So the only new information that the first *vibhakti* can express is the basic information listed in the rule above. And the same applies if the verb is *gamyate*:

रामो गच्छति।

rāmo gacchati.

Rama goes.

रामो गम्यते।

rāmo gamyate.

Rama is gone to.

Finally, the first *vibhakti* can express the same semantics as the vocative case:

सम्बोधने च। २.३.४७

sambodhane ca (2.3.47)

sambodhane ca

[When not otherwise expressed, the first *vibhakti*] is also used in the sense of *sambodhana* ("calling out")

एकवचनं सम्बुद्धिः। २.३.४९

ekavacanam sambuddhih (2.3.49)

ekavacanam sambuddhih

[When not otherwise expressed, the first *vibhakti*] *ekavacanam* (singular) [is called] *sambuddih*.

The sixth *vibhakti*

Finally, we have the sixth vibhakti:

षष्ठी शेषे। २.३.५०

sasthī sese (2.3.50)

şaşthī śeşe

[When not otherwise expressed], the sixth [vibhakti] is used in all remaining senses.

Thus the sixth *vibhakti* is a "catch-all" that expresses all sorts of complex relationships.

Review

In the next lesson, we will use what we have learned so far to generate different forms of the feminine stem *nau*.

Forms of nau

To consolidate what we've learned so far, let's see how the rules we've learned so far will let us generate the various forms of the stem *nau*, which means "boat."

nau is called *prātipadika* by rule 1.2.45 (*arthavadadhāturapratyayaḥ prātipadikam*), so we can add *sup* endings to it. If we have a verb that expresses *kartari prayoga*, then we can use *prathamā-vibhakti* by rule 2.3.46 (*prātipadikārthaliṅgaparimāṇavacanamātre prathamā*).

Once we have applied these rules, we can create our pada:

nau su* 4.1.2 svaujasamauṭchaṣṭābhyāmbhisnebhyāmbhyasnasi...

nau s <u>1.3.2</u> upadeśe'janunāsika it

1.3.9 tasya lopah

nau ru 8.2.66 sasajuso ruḥ

nauḥ 8.3.15 kharavasānayorvisarjanīyaḥ

The dual is simple:

nau au 4.1.2 svaujasamauţchaşţābhyāmbhisnebhyāmbhyasnasi...

nāvau <u>6.1.78</u> eco'yavāyāvaḥ

As is the plural:

nau jas 4.1.2 svaujasamauţchaṣṭābhyāmbhisnebhyāmbhyasnasi...

nau as <u>1.3.7</u> cuṭū

1.3.9 tasya lopah

 nāv as
 6.1.78 eco'yavāyāvaḥ

 nāv a ru*
 8.2.66 sasajuṣo ruḥ

nāvaḥ 8.3.15 kharavasānayorvisarjanīyaḥ

We select $dvit\bar{\imath}y\bar{a}$ -vibhakti with rule 2.3.2 ($karmani\ dvit\bar{\imath}y\bar{a}$) and can follow similar steps to the ones above. We can follow a similar approach for $tri\bar{\imath}y\bar{a}$, $caturth\bar{\imath}$, $pancam\bar{\imath}$, and $sasih\bar{\imath}$.

The plural of *saptamī-vibhakti* has a small complication due to *ṣatva*. We can obtain *ṣatva* because rule 8.3.59 (*ādeśapratyayayoḥ*) also includes *pratyayas*:

nau su <u>4.1.2</u> svaujasamauṭchaṣṭābhyāmbhisṅebhyāmbhyasṅasi...
nauṣu <u>8.3.59</u> ādeśapratyayayoḥ

Finally, the condition of *sambodhana* selects *prathamā-vibhakti*, which produces the forms we saw above.

avyaya

Uninflected words are called *avyaya* ("unchanging"). In the Paṇinian system, they are treated like a kind of *subanta*, which makes them a type of *pada*:

```
सुप्तिङन्तं पदम्। १.४.१४
```

suptinantam padam (1.4.14)

sup-tin-antam padam

That which ends in *sup* or *tin* [is called] a *pada* (word).

Although it may seem strange that an *avyaya* is treated as a *subanta*, doing so simplifies some other aspects of the grammar. Let's see how the system models *avyayas*.

What is an avyaya?

The avyaya is a large category that includes many different kinds of terms:

स्वरादिनिपातमव्ययम्। १.१.३७

svarādinipātamavyayam (1.1.37)

svar-ādi-nipātam avyayam

The words in the list beginning with svar, as well as a nipāta, are called avyaya.

तद्धितश्चासर्वविभक्तिः। १.१.३८

taddhitaścāsarvavibhaktih (1.1.38)

taddhitaḥ ca a-sarva-vibhaktiḥ

Likewise for taddhita suffixes not used in all vibhaktis;

कृन्मेजन्तः। १.१.३९

kṛnmejantaḥ (<u>1.1.39</u>)

kṛt m-ec-antaḥ

krt suffixes that end in *m* or an *ec* vowel;

```
त्तवातोसुन्कसुनः। १.१.४०
```

ktvātosunkasunaḥ (1.1.40)

ktvā-tosun-kasunah

the suffixes tvā, tosun, and kasun;

अव्ययीभावश्च। १.१.४१

avyayībhāvaśca (1.1.41) avyayībhāvaḥ ca and the avyayībhāva.

svarādi refers to a list of words in the *Gaṇapāṭha*, one of the secondary texts used with the *Aṣṭādhyāyī*. The svarādi list includes words like svar, antar, and hyas, among many others. nipāta refers to a subtype of avyaya that includes words like ca, pra, and so on.

The other rules are more straightforward:

- Rule 1.1.38 refers to various minor *taddhita* suffixes, as used for words like *tatra* and *tadā*.
- Rule 1.1.39 refers to various minor *kṛt* suffixes. The most common of these is the suffix *tumuň*, as in *gantum* ("to go").
- Rule 1.1.40 refers to the common suffix *ktvā* and a few minor suffixes used mainly in Vedic works.
- Rule 1.1.41 refers to the *avyayībhāva*, a type of compound.

How do we derive an avyaya?

Since an *avyaya* is a *prātipadika*, we first add a *sup* affix. We then immediately replace it with the *luk* suffix by 2.4.82:

अव्ययादाप्सुपः। २.४.८२

avyayādāpsupaḥ (2.4.82)

avyayāt āp-supah

After an avyaya, $\bar{a}p$ and sup [are replaced with luk].

And *luk* will then cause *lopa* of the *sup* affix:

अद्र्शनं लोपः। १.१.६०

adarśanaṃ lopaḥ (<u>1.1.60</u>) a-darśanam lopaḥ Disappearance is [called] lopa.

प्रत्ययस्य लुक्शुलुपः। १.१.६१

pratyayasya lukślulupaḥ (<u>1.1.61</u>)
pratyayasya luk-ślu-lupaḥ

[lopa of] a pratyaya by (the words) luk, ślu, and lup (is referred to by those terms, respectively).

Review

In this unit, we extended our basic system to the task of deriving Sanskrit nominals. We saw that the process has a few basic steps:

- 1. Choose or create a prātipadika.
- 2. Choose the appropriate *kāraka* (if applicable) and *vibhakti*.
- 3. Select an appropriate *sup-pratyaya*.
- 4. Apply any relevant changes to the sup-pratyaya.
- 5. Apply sandhi rules.

Index of rules

Rules	Topic
1.4.23 - 1.4.55	Use of kāraka
2.3.1 - 2.3.73	Use of vibhakti

For further reading

The closest English counterpart to $k\bar{a}raka$ is the theta role (Wikipedia). But we should be very careful about understanding Indian categories through a Western lens.

Matilal, B. K. <u>Bhavānanda on "What is Kāraka?"</u> Pāṇinian Studies: Professor
 S. D. Joshi Felicitation Volume (1991).

kṛt

Introduction

Almost all of chapter 3 of the $Astadhyay\bar{\imath}$ focuses specifically on the pratyayas (suffixes) that we add directly to a $dh\bar{a}tu$. These pratyayas come in four main types.

The first type is the sanādi-pratyaya, which creates new dhātus:

गम् + सन्
$$\rightarrow$$
 जिगमिष
 $gam + san \rightarrow jigamiṣa$
want to go
 $\mathbf{p} + \mathbf{vec} \rightarrow \mathbf{ant}$
 $kr + \mathbf{nic} \rightarrow k\bar{a}ri$
cause to do or make

The second type is the *tin-pratyaya*, which creates *tinantas* (verbs):

गम् + तिप्
$$\rightarrow$$
 गच्छति
 $gam + tip \rightarrow gacchati$
(someone) goes
 $p + vec \rightarrow ant$
 $kr + nal \rightarrow cakara$
(someone) did

The third type is the *vikaraṇa*, which we add between a *dhātu* and the *pratyaya* that follows it:

And the fourth type, the *kṛt-pratyaya*, is any other *pratyaya* we can add. *kṛt-pratyaya*s create *prātipadikas* (stems) that eventually become *subantas*:

In this unit, we will learn about some of common *kṛt-pratyayas* and understand some of the sandhi changes they cause.

General rules for kṛt-pratyayas

All kṛt-pratyayas are declared within the scope of these four adhikāra rules:

```
प्रत्यः। ३.१.१
pratyayaḥ (3.1.1)
pratyayaḥ
... is a pratyaya (suffix).

परश्च। ३.१.२
paraśca (3.1.2)
paraḥ ca
... and [it is inserted] after [the base].

धातोः। ३.१.९१
dhātoḥ (3.1.91)
dhātoḥ
After a dhātu, ...
```

कृदतिङ्। ३.१.९३

kṛdatin (3.1.93)

kṛt a-tin

... is called kṛt if it is not tin.

Together, these four *adhikāra* rules mean "... is added as a *kṛt-pratyaya* after a *dhātu*, if it is not a *tin-pratyaya*."

Further, these two *samjñā* rules will add extra labels to any *pratyaya* we introduce within the scope of these rules:

तिङ्गित्सार्वधातुकम्। ३.४.११३

tińśitsārvadhātukam (3.4.113)

tin-śit sārvadhātukam

tin and [kṛt-pratyayas that are] śit (i.e. with ś as an it) are called sārvadhātuka.

आर्घधातुकं शेषः। ३.४.११४

ārdhadhātukam śeṣaḥ (3.4.114)

ārdhadhātukam śeşaḥ

All other [kṛt-pratyayas] are called ārdhadhātuka.

That is, *kṛt-pratyaya*s are generally labeled *ārdhadhātuka*; but if they have *ś* as an *it* letter, they are labeled *sārvadhātuka* instead.

Sound changes

*kṛt-pratyaya*s cause various sound changes. Generally, they cause *guṇa* changes by the following rules:

अङ्गस्य। ६.४.१

angasya (6.4.1)

aṅgasya

Of an anga (the base before a suffix), ...

मिदेर्गुणः। ७.३.८२

miderguṇaḥ (<u>7.3.82</u>)

mideḥ guṇaḥ

The *i* of *mid* [as an *aṅga*] becomes *guṇa*.

सार्वधातुकार्धधातुकयोः। ७.३.८४

sārvadhātukārdhadhātukayoḥ (7.3.84)

sārvadhātuka-ārdhadhātukayoḥ

[The final of an *aṅga* is replaced with *guṇa*] when followed by a *sārvadhātuka* or *ārdhadhātuka* suffix.

पुगन्तलघूपधस्य च। ७.३.८६

pugantalaghūpadhasya ca (7.3.86)

puk-anta-laghu-upadhasya ca

And [the last ik vowel of an anga] ending with puk or whose $upadh\bar{a}$ (penultimate sound) is laghu (a light syllable) [is replaced with guna when followed by a $s\bar{a}rvadh\bar{a}tuka$ or $\bar{a}rdhadh\bar{a}tuka$ suffix].

But if they have \tilde{n} or n as it letters, they can cause vrddhi changes instead:

मृजेर्वृद्धिः। ७.२.११४

mrjervrddhih (7.2.114)

mrjeh vrddhih

The *r* of *mrj* [as an *anga*] becomes *vṛddhi*.

अचो ञ्णिति। ७.२.११५

aco ñṇiti (7.2.115)

acaḥ ñṇiti

The ac [of an anga becomes vṛddhi] if followed by ñit or nit.

अत उपधायाः। ७.२.११६

ata upadhāyāḥ (7.2.116)

ataḥ upadhāyāḥ

The penultimate at [of an anga becomes vṛddhi if followed by ñit or nit].

And as a reminder, *guṇa* and *vṛddhi* substitutions are defined only for specific vowels:

इको गुणवृद्धी। १.१.३

iko guṇavṛddhī (<u>1.1.3</u>)
ikaḥ guṇa-vṛddhī
guṇa and vṛddhi replace the ik vowels,

And they are blocked if the *pratyaya* has k or n as an it letter:

क्डिति च। १.१.५

kniti ca (1.1.5)

k-niti ca

but [not] when followed by [terms that are] kit or nit.

iţ

Sometimes, an *i* vowel will be added between the *dhātu* and the *pratyaya*:

$$\frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{$$

This i vowel is called it (not to be confused with it, which refers to the "tag" letters on a term in upadeśa). Certain roots use it, certain roots don't, and some roots use it optionally.

The specific rules for using it are complex and detailed, but two rules sum up the general idea. Generally, any $\bar{a}rdhadh\bar{a}tuka$ suffix that starts with a consonant other than y will use it:

आर्घधातुकस्येङ्वलादेः। ७.२.३५

ārdhadhātukasyeḍvalādeḥ (7.2.35)

ārdhadhātukasya it val-ādeh

[$i\dot{t}$ is added] to an $\bar{a}rdhadh\bar{a}tuka$ (pratyaya) that starts with val (any consonant other than y).

But if the *dhātu* has an *anudātta* accent in its *upadeśa* form, then *it* is not used:

एकाच उपदेशेऽनुदात्तात्। ७.२.१०

ekāca upadeśe'nudāttāt (<u>7.2.10</u>)

eka-acaḥ upadeśe anudāttāt

After [a dhātu] that has exactly one vowel and that has an anudātta accent in upadeśa, [iṭ is not used].

kṛtya

Let's begin by studying a subtype of the *kṛt-pratyaya* called *kṛtya*. *kṛtya-pratyaya*s include common suffixes like *-tavya* and *-anīya*. They generally convey the sense that something "should be done" or "must be done."

Defining the pratyaya

We start with a new adhikāra:

```
कृत्याः । ३.१.९५
kṛtyāḥ (<u>3.1.95</u>)
kṛtyāḥ
... is a kṛtya suffix.
```

The rules that follow this *adhikāra* define all of the members of the class, but since the list is quite long, we include only a few of the more common ones:

```
तव्यत्तव्यानीयरः। ३.१.९६
tavyattavyānīyaraḥ (3.1.96)
tavyat-tavya-anīyaraḥ
[The following are called kṛtya, kṛt, and pratyaya and follow a dhātu]:
tavyat, tavya, and anīyar;
अचो यत्। ३.१.९७
aco yat (3.1.97)
acaḥ yat
After vowels, yat;
ऋहलोण्यंत्। ३.१.१२४
ṛhaloṛṇyat (3.1.124)
ṛ-haloḥ ṇyat
After ṛ, ṛ, or a consonant, ṇyat.
```

All of these *pratyayas* are stated in their *upadeśa* form. Here, the last *t* on *tavyat*, *yat*, and *nyat* is stated for accent purposes; by rule 6.1.185 (*titsvaritam*), all three of these *pratyayas* will have a *svarita* on their first vowels.

Meanwhile, the meaning of the *kṛtya-pratyayas* is defined later in chapter 3:

आवश्यकाधमण्ययोणिनिः। ३.३.१७०

āvaśyakādhamarņyayorņinih (3.3.170)

āvaśyaka-ādhamarnyayoh ninih

The [pratyaya] nini is used in the sense of āvaśyaka (necessity) or ādhamarnya (owing a debt).

कृत्याश्च। ३.३.१७१

kṛtyāśca (3.3.171)

kṛtyāḥ ca

Likewise for the *kṛtya* [*pratyayas*],

शकि लिङ्ग। ३.३.१७२

śaki linca (3.3.172)

śaki lin ca

which, along with *lin*, also has the sense of *śak* (to be capable of).

kṛtya expresses only karmaṇi and bhāve prayoga, per rule 3.4.69 below:

लः कर्मणि च भावे चाकर्मकेभ्यः। ३.४.६९

laḥ karmaṇi ca bhāve cākarmakebhyaḥ (3.4.69)

laḥ karmaṇi ca bhāve ca akarmakebhyaḥ

The *lakāras* denote [*kartari prayoga*] as well as *karmaṇi* and *bhāve* prayoga when the verb is *akarmaka* (intransitive).

तयोरेव कृत्यक्तखलर्थाः। ३.४.७०

tayoreva kṛtyaktakhalarthāḥ (3.4.70)

tayoh eva kṛtya-kta-khalarthāḥ

kṛtya, kta, and [a pratyaya] having the meaning of khal express these two [i.e. karmaṇi and bhāve prayoga].

Sound changes

*kṛṭya-pratyaya*s follow the normal pattern of all *kṛṭ-pratyaya*s and generally cause *guṇa* changes to the vowel in the *aṅga*.

For *pratyayas* that start with t, such as tavya, various sandhi changes might occur between that t and the $dh\bar{a}tu$'s last consonant. Those changes are complicated and detailed, so we will omit them from this lesson.

Sample prakriyās

Here are some example $prakriy\bar{a}s$ that use the rules above. Typically, only the essential rules of a $prakriy\bar{a}$ are provided. But for clarity, we will include all of the applicable rules here.

First, an example with $k\underline{r}$ and tavya-pratyaya. Since $k\underline{r}$ has an $anud\bar{a}tta$ accent in its $upade\acute{s}a$ form, it is prevented from using the connecting $i\underline{t}$ vowel by rule 7.2.10:

dukṛñ 1.3.1 bhūvādayo dhātavaḥ

kṛ <u>1.3.3</u> halantyam

1.3.5 ādirñiṭuḍavaḥ

1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

kṛ tavya 3.3.171 kṛtyāśca

3.1.96 tavyattavyānīyarah

3.4.114 ārdhadhātukam śesah

kṛ tavya 7.2.10 ekāca upadeśe'nudāttāt

kartavya 7.3.84 sārvadhātukārdhadhātukayoḥ

1.1.51 uran raparah

Next, an example with $bh\bar{u}$ and tavya-pratyaya again. Since $bh\bar{u}$ does not have an $anud\bar{a}tta$ accent in its $upade\acute{s}a$ form, it uses the connecting $i\dot{t}$ vowel by rule 7.2.35:

bhū 1.3.1 bhūvādayo dhātavaḥ

bhū tavya 3.3.171 kṛtyāśca

3.1.96 tavyattavyānīyaraḥ

3.4.114 ārdhadhātukam śesah

bhū iṭ tavya 7.2.35 ārdhadhātukasyeḍ valādeḥ

bhū i tavya 1.3.3 halantyam

1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

bho i tavya 7.3.84 sārvadhātukārdhadhātukayoḥ

bhavitavya <u>6.1.78</u> eco'yavāyāvaḥ

Third, an example with $bh\bar{u}$ and $an\bar{\imath}ya$ -pratyaya. Since $an\bar{\imath}ya$ starts with a vowel, it is not in scope for 7.2.35 ($\bar{a}rdhadh\bar{a}tukasye\dot{q}$ $val\bar{a}de\dot{h}$), which would otherwise add a connecting it vowel:

bhū 1.3.1 bhūvādayo dhātavaḥ

bhū anīya 3.3.171 kṛtyāśca

3.1.96 tavyattavyānīyaraḥ

3.4.114 ārdhadhātukaṃ śeṣaḥ

bho anīya <u>7.3.84</u> sārvadhātukārdhadhātukayoḥ

bhavanīya <u>6.1.78</u> eco'yavāyāvaḥ

Fourth, an example with kr and nyat-pratyaya. Since nyat has n as an it, it causes a vrddhi change instead of a guna change:

dukṛñ 1.3.1 bhūvādayo dhātavaḥ

kṛ <u>1.3.3</u> halantyam

1.3.5 ādirñiṭuḍavaḥ

1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

kṛ ṇyat <u>3.3.171</u> kṛtyāśca

<u>3.1.124</u> *ṛhalorṇyat*

3.4.114 ārdhadhātukaṃ śeṣaḥ

kṛ ya <u>1.3.3</u> halantyam

1.3.7 cuṭū

1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

kārya 7.2.115 aco ñniti

1.1.51 uraņ raparaḥ

Finally, an example with $bh\bar{u}$ and yat-pratyaya:

bhū 1.3.1 bhūvādayo dhātavaḥ

bhū yat <u>3.3.171</u> kṛtyāśca

<u>3.1.97</u> aco yat

3.4.114 ārdhadhātukaṃ śeṣaḥ

bhū ya <u>1.3.3</u> halantyam

1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

bho ya 7.3.84 sārvadhātukārdhadhātukayoḥ

bhavya <u>6.1.79</u> vānto yi pratyaye

For *bhavya*, we use rule 6.1.79, which we have not previously seen:

एचो ऽयवायावः। ६.१.७८

eco 'yavāyāvaḥ (<u>6.1.78</u>)

ecah ay-av-āy-āvah

An *ec* vowel becomes ay, av, $\bar{a}y$, or $\bar{a}v$, respectively [when a vowel follows in $samhit\bar{a}$].

वान्तो यि प्रत्यये। ६.१.७९

vānto yi pratyaye (6.1.79)

va-antaḥ yi pratyaye

(The changes ending in) v (i.e. o to av and au to $\bar{a}v$) (take effect) when followed by the y of a pratyaya.

ghañ

In the previous lesson, we learned about *kṛtya-pratyaya*s, which cause relatively simple sound changes in the *dhātu*. Here we will learn about a slightly more complicated suffix: the *ghan-pratyaya*.

Defining the pratyaya

ghañ has many specific uses. Here are three:

```
पदरुजिवशस्पृशो घञ्। ३.३.१६

padarujaviśaspṛśo ghañ (3.3.16)

pada²-ruja²-viśa²-spṛśaḥ ghañ

ghañ is used [after the dhātus] pad, ruj, viś, and spṛś;

स्रिप्रे। ३.३.१७

sṛ sthire (3.3.17)

sṛ sthire

after sṛ in the sense of a fixed agent;

भावे। ३.३.१८

bhāve (3.3.18)

bhāve

and in the sense of abstract action.
```

Examples:

रुज्
$$\rightarrow$$
 रोग
 $ruj \rightarrow roga$
be sick \rightarrow disease (3.3.16)
 $\frac{1}{4}$ + घञ् \rightarrow सार
 $\frac{1}{4}$ sṛ + ghañ \rightarrow sāra
flow \rightarrow essence (3.3.17)

त्यज् \rightarrow त्याग

tyaj → tyāga

abandon \rightarrow relinquishment (3.3.18)

Sound changes

ghañ has gh and \tilde{n} as it letters. Or to put it another way, ghañ is ghit and \tilde{n} it.

Because it is $\tilde{n}it$, $gha\tilde{n}$ causes vrddhi of a final vowel or a penultimate a. If neither of these conditions apply, $gha\tilde{n}$ causes the usual krt guna change.

Because it is *ghit*, *ghañ* causes a final c or j to become k or g, respectively:

चजोः कु घिण्ण्यतोः। ७.३.५२

cajo \dot{h} ku ghi \dot{n} \dot{n} yato \dot{h} (7.3.52)

ca-joḥ ku ghit-ṇyatoḥ

A [final] c or j is replaced by [the corresponding] ku*sound when a ghit pratyaya or [the pratyaya] nyat follows.

Sample prakriyas

roga, showing the use of rule 3.3.16 (padarujaviśaspṛśo ghañ) and rule 7.3.52 (cajoḥ ku ghinnyatoḥ):

rujo [*]	<u>1.3.1</u> bhūvādayo dhātavaḥ
ruj	1.3.2 upadeśe'janunāsika it
	<u>1.3.9</u> tasya lopaḥ
ruj ghañ	3.3.16 padarujaviśaspṛśo ghañ
ruj a	<u>1.3.3</u> halantyam
	1.3.8 laśakvataddhite
	<u>1.3.9</u> tasya lopaḥ
rug a	<u>7.3.52</u> cajoḥ ku ghinṇyatoḥ
roga	7.3.86 pugantalaghūpadhasya ca

sāra, showing the use of rule 3.3.17 (sṛ sthire):

sṛ <u>1.3.1</u> bhūvādayo dhātavaḥ

sṛ ghañ 3.3.17 sṛ sthire sṛ a 1.3.3 halantyam

1.3.8 laśakvataddhite

1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

sāra <u>7.2.115</u> aco ñņiti

<u>1.1.51</u> uraņ raparaḥ

bhāva, showing the use of rule 3.3.18 (bhāve):

bhū 1.3.1 bhūvādayo dhātavaḥ

bhū ghañ 3.3.18 bhāve

bhū a <u>1.3.3</u> halantyam

1.3.8 laśakvataddhite

1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

bhau a <u>7.2.115</u> aco ñṇiti

bhāva <u>6.1.78</u> eco'yavāyāvaḥ

tyāga, showing the use of rule 7.2.116 (ata upadhāyāḥ):

tyaja <u>1.3.1</u> bhūvādayo dhātavaḥ

tyaj <u>1.3.2</u> upadeśe'janunāsika it

1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

tyaj ghañ 3.3.18 bhāve

tyaj a <u>1.3.3</u> halantyam

1.3.8 laśakvataddhite

1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

tyag a <u>7.3.52</u> cajoḥ ku ghinṇyatoḥ

tyāga <u>7.2.116</u> ata upadhāyāḥ

kta

In this lesson, we will learn about a slightly more complicated *pratyaya*: the *kta-pratyaya*.

kta has a k as an it, which means that it prevents guṇa changes. Additionally, kta causes certain dhātus to undergo a change called **samprasāraṇa**, which we describe further below.

Defining the pratyaya

The definition of *kta* is somewhat roundabout. First, both *kta* and *ktavatu* are labeled as *niṣṭhā* by this *saṃjñā* rule:

```
क्तक्तवतू निष्ठा । १.१.२६
ktaktavatū niṣṭhā (<u>1.1.26</u>)
kta-ktavatū niṣṭhā
The (pratyayas) kta and ktavatu are called niṣṭhā.
```

Through this definition, both of these *pratyayas* are defined as referring to the past tense in chapter 3:

```
भूते। ३.२.८४
bhūte (3.2.84)
bhūte
In the past tense, ...
निष्ठा। ३.२.१०२
niṣṭhā (3.2.102)
niṣṭhā
The niṣṭhā pratyayas [are used in the sense of the past tense].
```

However, *kta* (but not *ktavatu*) additionally implies *bhāve* or *karmaṇi prayoga* (roughly, stative or passive action), through rule 3.4.70, which we saw in the lesson on *krtya-pratyayas*:

तयोरेव कृत्यक्तखलर्थाः। ३.४.७०

tayoreva kṛtyaktakhalarthāḥ (3.4.70)

tayoh eva kṛtya-kta-khal-arthāḥ

kṛtya, *kta*, and [a *pratyaya*] having the meaning of *khal* express these two [i.e. *karmaṇi* and *bhāve prayoga*].

As well as some minor usages in kartari prayoga:

आदिकर्मणि क्तः कर्तरि च। ३.४.७१

ādikarmaņi ktaḥ kartari ca (3.4.71)

ādi-karmani ktah kartari ca

In [the sense of] the start of an action, kta also expresses kartari prayoga.

गत्यर्थाकर्मकश्चिषशीङ्स्थासवसजनरुहजीर्यतिभ्यश्च। ३.४.७२

gatyarthākarmakaśliṣaśīnsthāsavasajanaruhajīryatibhyaśca (3.4.72) gatyartha-akarmaka-śliṣa-śsīn-sthā-āsa-vasa-jana-ruha-jīryatibhyaḥ ca Likewise after [dhātus] that imply motion or are intransitive, as well as the [dhātus] śliṣ, śī, sthā, ās, vas, jan, ruh, and jṛ.

Sound changes

As a reminder, kṛt-pratyayas generally cause a guṇa change based on rule 7.3.84:

सार्वधातुकार्धधातुकयोः। ७.३.८४

 $s\bar{a}rvadh\bar{a}tuk\bar{a}rdhadh\bar{a}tukayoh$ (7.3.84)

sārvadhātuka-ārdhadhātukayoh

[An aṅga is replaced with guṇa] when followed by a sārvadhātuka or ārdhadhātuka suffix.

But since kta has k as an it — or to put it another way, because kta is kit — this change is blocked by rule 1.1.5:

क्ङिति च। १.१.५

kniti ca (1.1.5)

k-niti ca

[guṇa and vṛddhi replace the ik vowels, but not] when followed by [terms that are] kit or nit.

So in general, the vowel change here is simple: there isn't one! But in addition to this general behavior, *kit pratyayas* can also cause specific *dhātus* to undergo extra changes.

One change is that certain roots ending in a nasal sound lose that nasal sound:

अनुदात्तोपदेशवनतितनोत्यादीनामनुनासिकलोपो झलि क्ङिति। ६.४.३७

anudāttopadeśavanatitanotyādīnāmanunāsikalopo jhali kniti (6.4.37) anudātta-upadeśa-vanati-tanoti-ādīnām anunāsika-lopaḥ jhali k-niti A dhātu with an anudātta vowel in upadeśa, as well as [the dhātu] van and [the dhātus]in the list starting with tan, lose their final anunāsika when followed by a kit or nit [pratyaya] starting with a jhal consonant.

An example:

गम्
$$+ \overline{d} \rightarrow \overline{d}$$

 $gam + ta \rightarrow gata$
gone (to)

Another change is sometimes called *samprasāraṇa*. Through this process, the semivowel in a *dhātu* first becomes a vowel:

```
इग्यणः सम्प्रसारणम्। १.१.४५
```

igyanah samprasāranam (1.1.45)

ik yanah samprasāranam

The substitution of an *ik* sound in place of a *yan* sound is called *samprasāraṇa*.

And then deletes the following vowel, through a rule of *ac-sandhi*:

सम्प्रसारणाच्च। ६.१.१०८

samprasāraņācca (6.1.108)

samprasāraņāt ca

Additionoally, [the first of two vowels is retained] when the first vowel is *samprasāraṇa*.

Here are some examples of the change:

वच्
$$+$$
 त \rightarrow उअच् $+$ त \rightarrow उच् $+$ त
 $vac + ta \rightarrow uac + ta \rightarrow uc + ta$
spoken
 \mathbf{u} \mathbf{v} $\mathbf{$

And here are the *dhātus* that use *samprasāraṇa* when a *kit pratyaya* follows:

वचिस्वपियजादीनां किति। ६.१.१५

 $vacisvapiyaj\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}n\bar{a}m$ kiti (6.1.15)

vaci-svapi-yajādīnām kiti

[The *dhātus*] *vac*, *svap*, and those in the list beginning with *yaj* [undergo *samprasāraṇa*] when followed by a *kit* [*pratyaya*].

ग्रहिज्यावियव्यिधविधिवचितवृश्चितपृच्छितभृज्जतीनां ङिति च। ६.१.१६

grahijyāvayivyadhivaṣṭivicativṛścatipṛcchatibhṛjjatīnāṃ ṅiti ca (6.1.16) grahi-jyā-vayi-vyadhi-vaṣṭi-vicati-vṛścati-pṛcchati-bhṛjjatīnām ṅiti ca This applies to grah, jyā, vay [as a substitution for veñ], vyadh, vaś, vyac, vrasc, pracch, and bhrasj as well, which all also make the same change when followed by a ṅit [pratyaya].

Sample prakriyās

First, an example with kr. Since kr has an anudātta accent in its upadeśa form, it is prevented from using the connecting it vowel by rule 7.2.10:

dukṛñ1.3.1bhūvādayo dhātavaḥkṛ1.3.3halantyam1.3.5ādirñiṭuḍavaḥ

1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

kṛ kta <u>3.2.102</u> niṣṭhā

3.4.70 tayoreva kṛtyaktakhalarthāḥ

kṛ ta <u>1.3.8</u> laśakvataddhite

1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

kṛta 7.2.10 ekāca upadeśe'nudāttāt

Next, an example with *gam* showing *lopa* of the final *m*. *gam* also has an *anudātta* accent in its *upadeśa* form, so it likewise has no connecting *iţ* vowel:

gamļ <u>1.3.1</u> bhūvādayo dhātavaḥ

gam <u>1.3.2</u> upadeśe'janunāsika it

1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

gam kta <u>3.2.102</u> niṣṭhā

3.4.72 gatyarthākarmakaślişaśīnsthāsavasajanaruhajīr...

gam ta <u>1.3.8</u> laśakvataddhite

1.3.9 tasya lopah

gam ta 7.2.10 ekāca upadeśe'nudāttāt

gata 6.4.98 gamahanajanakhanaghasām lopaḥ knityanani

Finally, an example with *sup* showing *samprasāraṇa*. As in the examples above, *iţ* is not used:

ñiṣvapa <u>1.3.1</u> bhūvādayo dhātavaḥ

<u>svap</u> <u>1.3.2</u> upadeśe'janunāsika it

1.3.5 ādirñiṭuḍavaḥ

1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

svap <u>6.1.64</u> dhātvādeḥ ṣaḥ saḥ

svap kta <u>3.2.102</u> niṣṭhā

3.4.72 gatyarthākarmakaśliṣaśīnsthāsavasajanaruhajīr...

svap ta <u>1.3.8</u> laśakvataddhite

1.3.9 tasya lopah

svap ta <u>7.2.10</u> ekāca upadeśe'nudāttāt suap ta <u>6.1.15</u> vacisvapiyajādinām kiti

supta <u>6.1.108</u> samprasāraṇācca

śatr and śānac

To conclude this unit, let's learn about the *pratyayas śatṛ* and *śānac*, which create words like the following:

गच्छन्

gacchan while going

लभमानः

labhamānaḥ while obtaining

śatṛ and *śānac* are *sārvadhātuka pratyayas*, so the changes they cause differ slightly from the changes caused by the *ārdhadhātuka kṛt-pratyayas* that we have seen so far.

Defining the *pratyayas*

śatṛ and śānac are replacements for lat and lṛt:

वर्तमाने लट्। ३.२.१२३

vartamāne la(3.2.123)

vartamāne laț

[The pratyaya] lat [is added after a dhātu] in the sense of present action.

लटः शतृशनचावप्रथमासमानाधिकरणे। ३.२.१२४

laṭaḥ śatṛśanacāvaprathamāsamānādhikaraṇe (3.2.124)

laţaḥ śatṛ-śānacau a-prathamā-samānādhikaraņe

lat is replaced by śatr or śānac when not coreferent with a [nominal] in the first [vibhakti],

लक्षणहेत्वोः क्रियायाः। ३.२.१२६

lakṣaṇahetvoḥ kriyāyāḥ (3.2.126)

lakṣaṇa-hetvoḥ kriyāyāḥ

or when it is a sign or cause of the action.

तौ सत्। ३.२.१२७

tau sat (3.2.127)

tau sat

These two [pratyayas] are called sat.

लृटः सद्वा। ३.३.१४

lṛṭaḥ sadvā (3.3.14)

lṛṭaḥ sat vā

sat optionally replaces lṛṭ.

But how do we decide whether to use *śatṛ* or *śānac*? Simply, we use the one that matches the *pada* that the *dhātu* requires. Recall these two rules:

लः परस्मैपदम्। १.४.९९

laḥ parasmaipadam (1.4.99)

lah parasmaipadam

[The replacements for] lah are called parasmaipada.

तङानावात्मनेपदम्। १.४.१००

tanānāvātmanepadam (1.4.100)

tan-ānau ātmanepadam

The tan pratyayas and [the pratyaya] āna are called ātmanepada.

By rule 1.4.99, śatṛ is parasmaipada and replaces a parasmaipada pratyaya. And likewise, śānac is ātmanepada by rule 1.4.100 and replaces an ātmanepada pratyaya.

The āna in rule 1.4.100 includes śānac and related pratyayas like śānan and cānaś.)

Adding vikaraņas

Since *śatṛ* and *śānac* are both *śit*, they are both *sārvadhātuka pratyayas*:

तिङ्गित्सार्वधातुकम्। ३.४.११३

tińśitsārvadhātukam (3.4.113)

tin-śit sārvadhātukam

tin pratyayas and śit kṛt pratyayas are called sārvadhātuka.

which means that they allow the normal *vikaraṇa* rules to apply. For example:

कर्तरि शप्। ३.१.६८

kartari śap (<u>3.1.68</u>)

kartari sap

[The *kṛt pratyaya*] *śap* [is added] in *kartari-prayoga* (agentive usage) [after the *dhātu* when a *sārvadhātuka* suffix follows].

For a larger list of such rules, refer back to our lesson on vikaranas.

Otherwise, these pratyayas cause the standard sound changes.

Sample prakriyas

bhavat is derived as follows:

bhū 1.3.1 bhūvādayo dhātavaḥ bhū lat 3.2.123 vartamāne lat

bhū l 1.3.2 upadeśe'janunāsika it

1.3.3 halantyam1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

bhū l 1.3.78 śeṣāt kartari parasmaipadam

bhū śatṛ 3.2.124 laṭaḥ śatṛśanacāvaprathamāsamānādhikaraņe

bhū at 1.3.2 upadeśe'janunāsika it

1.3.8 laśakvataddhite

1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

bhū śap at 3.1.68 kartari śap bhū a at 1.3.3 halantyam

1.3.8 laśakvataddhite

1.3.9 tasya lopah

bho a at 7.3.84 sārvadhātukārdhadhātukayoḥ

bhav a at 6.1.78 eco'yavāyāvah

bhavat 6.1.97 ato gune

This *prakriyā* uses rule 6.1.97, which prevents the bad result **bhavāt*:

अतो गुणे। ६.१.९७

ato guṇe (<u>6.1.97</u>)

ataḥ guṇe

[Non-word-final] *a* is deleted when a *guṇa* [vowel] follows.

śrnvat is derived as follows:

śru 1.3.1 bhūvādayo dhātavaḥ

śru lat 3.2.123 vartamāne lat

śru l 1.3.2 upadeśe'janunāsika it

1.3.3 halantyam

1.3.9 tasya lopah

śru l 1.3.78 śeṣāt kartari parasmaipadam

śru śatŗ* 3.2.124 laţaḥ śatṛśanacāvaprathamāsamānādhikaraņe

śru at 1.3.2 upadeśe'janunāsika it

1.3.8 laśakvataddhite

1.3.9 tasya lopah

3.1.74 śruvaḥ śṛ ca śṛ śnu at

śṛ śnu at 1.3.8 laśakvataddhite

1.3.9 tasya lopah

1.2.4 sārvadhātukamapit śṛ nu at

śṛ nv at 6.1.77 iko yanaci

śrnyat 8.4.1 raṣābhyāṃ no ṇaḥ samānapade

This *prakriyā* uses rule 1.2.4, which prevents the bad result **śarnyat*:

सार्वधातुकमपित्। १.२.४

 $s\bar{a}rvadh\bar{a}tukamapit~(\underline{1.2.4})$ $s\bar{a}rvadh\bar{a}tukam~a-pit$ $s\bar{a}rvadh\bar{a}tuka~[suffixes]$ that are not $pit~[are~treated~as~\dot{n}it].$

Review

Index of rules

kṛt-pratyayas are defined from rule 3.1.91 to 3.4.76.

Rules	Topic
3.1.95 - 3.1.132	Definition of kṛtya
3.3.16 - 3.3.55	Definition of ghañ
3.2.124 - 3.2.133	Definition of satr and related pratyayas

taddhita

Introduction

Almost all of chapters 4 and 5 of the $Astadhyay\bar{t}$ focuses specifically on the pratyayas (suffixes) that we add directly to a pratipadika. As a reminder, a pratipadika is defined as follows:

अर्थवद्धातुरप्रत्ययः प्रातिपदिकम्। १.२.४५

arthavadadhāturapratyayaḥ prātipadikam ($\underline{1.2.45}$)

arthavat a-dhātuḥ a-pratyayaḥ prātipadikam

A meaningful [term] that is neither a *dhātu* (verb root) nor a *pratyaya* (suffix), [nor a term ending in a *pratyaya*, is called] *prātipadika*,

कृत्तिद्धितसमासाश्च। १.२.४६

kṛttaddhitasamāsāśca (1.2.46)

kṛt-taddhita-samāsāḥ ca

and [terms ending with] *kṛt* or *taddhita* [*pratyayas*], as well as *samāsas* (compounds), [are called *prātipadika*].

We can add three types of *pratyayas* to a *prātipadika*. The first type is the *sup-pratyaya*, which creates *subantas* (nominals):

राम + सुँ
$$\rightarrow$$
 रामः
 $r\bar{a}ma + su \rightarrow r\bar{a}mah$
Rama
नौ + टा \rightarrow नावा
 $nau + t\bar{a} \rightarrow n\bar{a}v\bar{a}$
with a boat

The second type is the *strī-pratyaya*, which creates feminine *prātipadikas* to which we can add *sup-pratyayas*:

कर्तृ + ङीप्
$$\rightarrow$$
 कर्त्री $kartr_i + n\bar{t}p \rightarrow kartr\bar{t}$ (female) doer

And the third type, the *taddhita-pratyaya*, is any other *pratyaya* we could add. *taddhita-pratyayas* create *prātipadikas* (stems) that eventually become *subantas*:

```
अदिति + अण् \rightarrow आदित्य

aditi + an \rightarrow \bar{a}ditya

a descendant of Aditi; a deva

सुन्दर + तरप् \rightarrow सुन्दरतर

sundara + tarap \rightarrow sundaratara

more beautiful
```

General rules for taddhitas

taddhita-pratyayas are introduced under the two pratyaya adhikāras that we've already seen:

```
प्रत्यय: 1 3. 9. 8

pratyayaḥ (3.1.1)

pratyayaḥ

... is a pratyaya (suffix).

「「大窓」 3. 9. 8

paraśca (3.1.2)

paraḥ ca

... and [it is inserted] after [the base].
```

In addition, *taddhita-pratyayas* are scoped to appear only after *prātipadikas* and feminine bases:

```
ज्याप्रातिपदिकात्। ४.१.१

nyāpprātipadikāt (4.1.1)

nī-āp-prātipadikāt

After [the strī-pratyayas] nī or āp or after a prātipadika, ...

तिद्धताः। ४.१.७६

taddhitāḥ (4.1.76)

taddhitāḥ

... is called taddhita.
```

Traditionally, a *taddhita* is a way to condense a multi-word expression. For example, if we start with an expression like:

Then we can replace the helping word with a taddhita:

By using rule 2.4.71, we can delete the *sup-pratyaya* in *upagoh*:

```
सुपो धातुप्रातिपदिकयोः। २.४.७१
supo dhātuprātipadikayoḥ (2.4.71)
supaḥ dhātu-prātipadikayoḥ
A sup followed by a dhātu or a prātipadika [is replaced by luk].
```

to create the following result:

उपगोः
$$+$$
 अण् \rightarrow उपगु $+$ अण् $upagoh + an \rightarrow upagu + an$ a descendant of Upagu

Then we apply the normal sound change rules for *taddhitas* to get our final result:

उपगुः
$$+$$
 अण् \rightarrow औपगवः $upaguh + an \rightarrow aupagavah$ a descendant of Upagu

But if we start with such a multi-word expression, which word do we add the *taddhita* to? Simply, it is the subordinate one:

समर्थानां प्रथमाद्वा। ४.१.८२

samarthānām prathamādvā (4.1.82)

samarthānām prathamāt vā

Among syntactically related [terms], optionally after the first ...

Together, these five *adhikāra* rules mean "... is optionally added as a *taddhita-pratyaya* after either a *prātipadika* or the *pratyayas* $n\bar{\imath}$ and $\bar{a}p$, if that term is subordinate in the syntactic relationship."

Sound changes

taddhita-pratyayas are neither sārvadhātuka nor ārdhadhātuka, so they do not cause guṇa changes by 7.3.84 (sārvadhātukārdhadhātukayoḥ). By default, they cause no sound changes.

However, *taddhitas* are still able to cause *vṛddhi* changes, per rules 7.2.117 and 7.2.118:

तद्धितेष्वचामादेः। ७.२.११७

taddhitesvacāmādeh (7.2.117)

taddhiteşu acām ādeḥ

The first vowel [of an anga becomes vrddhi] if followed by a taddhita-pratyaya [that is $\tilde{n}it$ or nit],

किति च। ७.२.११८

kiti ca (<u>7.2.118</u>)

kiti ca

Likewise if [the taddhita-pratyaya] is kit.

Additionally, taddhitas might cause some small changes to the vowel they follow. The three rules below use a $samj\tilde{n}a$ called bha, which roughly refers to an anga followed by a vowel or y:

ओर्गुणः। ६.४.१४६

orgunah (6.4.146)

oḥ guṇaḥ

[The last sound of a *bha* followed by a *taddhita*], if it is u, is replaced with its guna.

ढे लोपोऽकद्याः। ६.४.१४७

dhe lopo'kadrvāḥ (6.4.147)

dhe lopaḥ a-kadrvāḥ

Except for $kadr\bar{u}$, [the last u of a bha followed by a taddhita] undergoes lopa when followed by [a pratyaya beginning with] dha.

यस्येति च। ६.४.१४८

yasyeti ca (<u>6.4.148</u>)

i-a-sya īti ca

The last i and a [of a bha followed by a taddhita] undergoes lopa, [and likewise] when followed by [a pratyaya beginning with] $\bar{\iota}$.

We will see examples of these rules in the lessons to come.

apatya

Many different *taddhitas* convey the sense of *apatya* ("offspring"). In this lesson, we'll consider some of these *taddhitas* and learn about the sound changes they cause.

adhikāra rules

In addition to the usual $adhik\bar{a}ras$ for taddhitas, we have two more to consider. The first states that an is a "default" pratyaya when no other is specified:

```
प्राग्दीव्यतोऽण्। ४.१.८३

prāgdīvyato'ṇ (4.1.83)

prāk dīvyataḥ aṇ

Up to the rule containing dīvyati (i.e. 4.4.2), aṇ-pratyaya ...
```

And the second starts the apatya section:

```
तस्यापत्यम्। ४.१.९२
tasyāpatyam (4.1.92)
tasya apatyam
In the sense of "the offspring of," ...
```

an

Because it is nit, an will cause vrddhi changes to the base's first vowel.

iñ

 $i\tilde{n}$ is used in the sense of apatya after bases ending with short a:

```
अत इज्। ४.१.९५
ata iñ (4.1.95)
ataḥ iñ
After [a base ending in] a, iñ [is an optional taddhita-pratyaya conveying
the sense of "offspring"].
```

Because it is *ñit*, *iñ* will cause *vṛddhi* changes to the base's first vowel.

dhak

स्त्रीभ्यो ढक्। ४.१.१२०

strībhyo ḍhak (<u>4.1.120</u>)

strībhyaḥ ḍhak

After feminine [stems], *dhak* [is an optional *taddhita-pratyaya* conveying the sense of "offspring"].

Here, the *d* in *dhak* is a shorthand that we can expand with rule 7.1.2:

आयनेयीनीयिनः फढखच्छघाम् प्रत्ययादीनां। ७.१.२

āyaneyīnīyinaḥ phaḍhakhacchaghām pratyayādīnāṃ (7.1.2) āyan-ey-īn-īy-inaḥ pha-ḍha-kha-cha-ghām pratyaya-ādīnām The initial pha, ḍha, kha, cha, and gha of a pratyaya are replaced, respectively, with āyan, ey, īn, īy, and in.

Thus the true *pratyaya* is *eya*, with *k* as an *it* letter. This *taddhita* will then cause a *vṛddhi* change to the first vowel of the base, like so:

विनता + ढक्
$$\rightarrow$$
 वैनतेय
 $vinat\bar{a} + dhak \rightarrow vainateya$
offspring of Vinata

dhak and the it-samjnā rules

By rule 1.3.7 ($cut\bar{u}$) and 1.3.9 ($tasya\ lopah$), we would normally delete the first dh of dhak. But if we did so, then rule 7.1.2 above would have no scope to apply and would be worthless (vyartha).

Since every rule in the system is stated for a reason, we infer that rule 1.3.7 does not apply to any *pratyayas* that are in scope for rule 7.1.2.

Sample prakriyās

Our first example uses an and rule 6.4.146 (orgunah):

upagoh apatyam

upagoḥ aṇ 4.1.92 tasyāpatyam

upagu aṇ <u>2.4.71</u> supo dhātuprātipadikayoḥ

upagu a <u>1.3.3</u> halantyam

1.3.9 tasya lopah

aupagu a 7.2.117 taddhiteşvacāmādeḥ

aupago a <u>6.4.146</u> orguņaņ

aupagava <u>6.1.78</u> eco'yavāyāvaḥ

Our next uses iñ and rule 6.4.148 (yasyeti ca):

daśarathasya apatyam

daśarathasya iñ 4.1.95 ata iñ

daśaratha iñ 2.4.71 supo dhātuprātipadikayoḥ

daśaratha i <u>1.3.3</u> halantyam

1.3.9 tasya lopah

dāśaratha i 7.2.117 taddhitesvacāmādeḥ

dāśarathi <u>6.4.148</u> yasyeti ca

And this one uses *dhak* and again uses rule 6.4.148:

vinatāyāḥ apatyam

vinatāyāḥ ḍhak 4.1.120 strībhyo ḍhak

vinatā dhak 2.4.71 supo dhātuprātipadikayoḥ

vinatā ḍha 1.3.3 halantyam

1.3.9 tasya lopah

vinatā eya 7.1.2 āyaneyīnīyiyaḥ phaḍhakhacchaghāṃ pratyayādīn...

vainatā eya <u>7.2.118</u> kiti ca

vainateya <u>6.4.148</u> yasyeti ca

atiśāyana

Four taddhitas convey the sense of atiśāyana ("excellence" or "excess"): tarap, tamap, īyasun, and iṣṭhan.

These four *taddhitas* are specified in the following rules:

अतिशायने तमबिष्ठनौ। ५.३.५५

atiśāyane tamabiṣṭhanau (<u>5.3.55</u>)

atiśāyane tamap-isthanau

In the sense of supremacy, tamap or iṣṭhan [is optionally added as a taddhita-pratyaya].

तिङश्च। ५.३.५६

tinaśca (5.3.56)

tinah ca

And [they can also be used in the same sense] after a tin-pratyaya.

द्विवचनविभज्योपपदे तरबीयसुनौ। ५.३.५७

dvivacanavibhajyopapade tarabīyasunau (5.3.57)

dvivacana-vibhajya-upapade tarap-īyasunau

[Under the same conditions], when describing two [concepts] or when making a distinction, *tarap* or *īyasuň* (is used).

अजादी गुणवचनादेव। ५.३.५८

ajādī guņavacanādeva (5.3.58)

ac-ādī guņavacanāt eva

The two starting with vowels (i.e. iṣṭhan and īyasuň) are used only after [prātipadikas] denoting quality.

Sound changes

tarap and tamap follow the general rules and cause no extra sound changes.

īyasuň and *iṣṭhan* cause *lopa* of the *prātipadika*'s last segment. First, recall the definition of the term *ṭi*:

अचोऽन्त्यादि टि। १.१.६४

aco'ntyādi ṭi (<u>1.1.64</u>)

acaḥ antya-ādi ți

From the last vowel onward is called *ți*.

With this term, we can define the relevant lopa rules:

तुरिष्ठेमेयस्सु। ६.४.१५४

turisthemeyassu (6.4.154)

tuḥ iṣtha-iman-īyassu

The final tṛ [pratyaya] [of an aṅga undergoes lopa] when followed by [the pratyayas] iṣṭha, iman, or īyas.

टेः। ६.४.१५५

țeḥ (<u>6.4.155</u>)

teh

[Otherwise, these *pratyayas* condition *lopa*] of the *ți* [of the *aṅga*].

Rule 6.4.155 will cause changes like the following:

 $laghu + iṣṭhan \rightarrow laghiṣṭha$

lightest

Sample prakriyās

For *tarap*:

sundara <u>1.2.45</u> arthavadadhāturapratyayaḥ prātipadikam

sundara tarap <u>5.3.57</u> dvivacanavibhajyopapade tarabīyasunau

sundaratara 1.3.3 halantyam

1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

For tamap:

sundara 1.2.45 arthavadadhāturapratyayaḥ prātipadikam

sundara tamap 5.3.55 atiśāyane tamabiṣṭhanau

sundaratama <u>1.3.3</u> halantyam

1.3.9 tasya lopaḥ

For *īyasu*n:

laghu <u>1.2.45</u> arthavadadhāturapratyayaḥ prātipadikam

laghu īyasun 5.3.57 dvivacanavibhajyopapade tarabīyasunau

laghu īyas <u>1.3.2</u> upadeśe'janunāsika it

<u>1.3.3</u> halantyam

1.3.9 tasya lopah

laghīyas <u>6.4.155</u> ţeḥ

For *iṣṭhan*:

laghu <u>1.2.45</u> arthavadadhāturapratyayaḥ prātipadikam

laghu iṣṭhan 5.3.55 atiśāyane tamabiṣṭhanau

laghu iṣṭha 1.3.3 halantyam

1.3.9 tasya lopah

laghiṣṭha <u>6.4.155</u> ṭeḥ

matup

The *matup-pratyaya* creates common words like *hanumān* and *bhagavān*. It has many specific use cases, but here is the general pattern:

तद्स्यास्त्यस्मिन्निति मतुप्। ५.२.९४

tadasyāstyasminniti matup (5.2.94)

tat asya asti asmin iti matup

[The taddhita-pratyaya] matup [is optionally introduced after a pratipadika or the $n\bar{\imath}$ and $\bar{a}p$ pratyayas after a term denoting] that which one possesses or contains.

Sound changes

matup generally causes no sound changes. The major exception is that mat becomes vat when it follows certain sounds.

Here is the specific rule from the *asiddha* section of the *Aṣṭādhyāyī*:

मादुपधायाश्च मतोर्वोऽयवादिभ्यः। ८.२.९

mādupadhāyāśca matorvo'yavādibhyaḥ (8.2.9)

m-āt upadhāyāḥ ca matoḥ vaḥ a-yavādibhyaḥ

After the sounds m, a, and \bar{a} , even if penultimate, [the first letter of the pratyaya] $matu^*$ becomes v if not following an item in the list beginning with yava.

And some examples:

Sample *prakriyā*s

With *mat*:

mati <u>1.2.46</u> kṛttaddhitasamāsāśca

matimat 5.2.94 tadasyāstyasminniti matup

With *vat* and a penultimate *a*:

yaśas <u>1.2.46</u> kṛttaddhitasamāsāśca

yaśas mat <u>5.2.94</u> tadasyāstyasminniti matup

yaśasvat 8.2.9 mādupadhāyāśca matorvo'yavādibhyaḥ

With *vat* and a final *a*:

bhaga <u>1.2.46</u> kṛttaddhitasamāsāśca

bhaga mat 5.2.94 tadasyāstyasminniti matup

bhagavat 8.2.9 mādupadhāyāśca matorvo'yavādibhyaḥ

Review

Index of rules

taddhita-pratyayas are defined from rule 4.1.76 to the end of chapter 5.

Rules	Topic
4.1.83 - 4.3.168	Definition of an and other pratyayas
4.1.92 - 4.3.120	Scope of tasyāpatyam
5.2.94 - 5.2.140	Definition of <i>matup</i>

samāsa

Introduction

In this unit, we will extend the knowledge we've built up and focus on *samāsas* (compounds). Most of the rules for *samāsas* are in sections 2.1 and 2.2 of the *As-*<u>tādhyāyī</u>.

The *samāsa* is one of Sanskrit's most notable features. Simple *samāsa*s generally have just two words. But *samāsa*s can themselves be combined to make longer *samāsas*, so there is no hard limit on how long they can be.

Since we have a basic understanding of *subantas*, we can understand the *samāsa*'s core principles fairly easily. Generally, the idea is that if two *subantas* have some kind of semantic relationship:

गजस्य वनम्

gajasya vanam the elephant's forest

then we can remove the *sup-pratyaya* from the first *subanta* and combine the two into a single word:

```
गजस्य वनम् \rightarrow गजवनम् gajasya vanam \rightarrow gajavanam the elephant's forest \rightarrow elephant forest
```

But there are two subtleties here. First, not all semantic relationships are allowed to be expressed as *samāsas*. Second, some semantic relationships exist *only* as *samāsas* and cannot be expressed any other way. So in the lessons to come, we will learn how the system defines which are which.

adhikāra rules

All samāsas are defined under the following two adhikāra rules:

प्राक्कडारात्समासः। २.१.३

prākkaḍārātsamāsaḥ (2.1.3)

prāk kaḍārāt samāsaḥ

Up to the rule containing kaḍāra (2.2.38), the samāsa ...

सह सुपा। २.१.४

saha supā (2.1.4)

saha supā

[A samāsa] is [of a sup] with (another) sup.

Rule 2.1.4 inherits the term *sup* by *anuvṛtti* from rule 2.1.2, which is unrelated to *samāsas*. Together, rules 2.1.3 and 2.1.4 define a *samāsa* as a combination of two *subantas*.

Word ordering in a samāsa

How do we ensure that we order the words in a *samāsa* correctly? Simple, we use the following two rules:

प्रथमानिर्दिष्टं समास उपसर्जनम्। १.२.४३

prathamānirdiṣṭaṃ samāsa upasarjanam (1.2.43)

prathamā-nirdistam samāse upasarjanam

In (the context of) a samāsa, the (term) stated in the first (vibhakti) is called upasarjana.

उपसर्जनं पूर्वम्। २.२.३०

upasarjanam pūrvam (2.2.30)

upasarjanam pūrvam

[In a samāsa], the upasarjana is (placed) before.

In the rules to come, anything stated in the first *vibhakti* is placed first in the compound, and anything in the third *vibhakti* is placed second.

sup deletion in a samāsa

Finally, we use this rule to delete the *sup* ending of the first *subanta*:

सुपो धातुप्रातिपदिकयोः। २.४.७१

supo dhātuprātipadikayoḥ (2.4.71)
supaḥ dhātu-prātipadikayoḥ

A sup followed by a dhātu or a prātipadika [is replaced by luk].

However, a very small number of *samāsas* do not use *luk* here. Fittingly, they are called *aluk-samāsas*. For example, the word *ātmanepadam* is an *aluk-samāsa*.

avyayībhāva

The *avyayībhāva* is a compound whose first member is an *avyaya* (uninflected word). An example:

यथाशक्ति

yathāśakti according to (one's) power

Defining the avyayībhāva

We first introduce another adhikāra:

```
अव्ययोभावः। २.१.५
avyayībhāvaḥ (2.1.5)
avyayībhāvaḥ
... is an avyayībhāva.
```

Then the definition begins. First, the general case:

अव्ययं विभक्तिसमीपसमृद्ध्य्व्यृद्ध्-अर्थाभावात्ययासम्प्रति-शब्दप्रादुर्भावपश्चाद्-यथानुपूर्व्ययौगपद्य-सादृश्यसम्पत्तिसाकत्यान्तवचनेषु। २.१.६

 $avyayam vibhaktisam \bar{\imath} pasam rddhyvyrddhy-arth\bar{a}bh\bar{a}v\bar{a}tyay\bar{a}sam prati-sabda pr\bar{a}durbh\bar{a}vapa sc\bar{a}d-yath\bar{a}nup \bar{u}rvyayau gapadya-$

sādṛśyasampattisākalyāntavacaneṣu (2.1.6)

avyayam vibhakti-samīpa-samṛddhi-vyṛddhi-arthābhāva-atyaya-asampratiśabdaprādurbhāva-paścāt-yathā-anupūrvya-yaugapadya-sādṛśya-sampattisākalya-antavacaneṣu

An *avyaya* [used with a related *subanta* becomes an *avyayībhāva samāsa*] when the *avyaya* has the sense of: a *vibhakti*, nearness, prosperity, loss, absence, expiry, non-presence, appearance of a word, later, accordance, sequence, simultaneity, similarity, entirety, or limit.

Rule 2.1.6 is massive and allows examples like *upakumbham* ("near the pot"), *nirmakṣikam* ("without flies"), and *satṛṇam* ("along with the grass"). The other rules for an *avyayībhāva* are more straightforward:

यथासादृश्ये। २.१.७

yathāsādṛśye (2.1.7)

yathā a-sādṛśye

yathā when not in the sense of sādṛśya (similarity) [becomes an avyayībhāva samāsa when used with a related subanta].

यावद्वधारणे। २.१.८

yāvadavadhāraņe (2.1.8)

yāvat avadhāraņe

Likewise for *yāvat* in the sense of equal quantity;

सुप्रतिणा मात्रार्थे। २.१.९

suppratiņā mātrārthe (2.1.9)

sup pratinā mātra-arthe

a sup [used] with prati when in the sense of "a small amount";

अक्षरालाकासंख्याः परिणा। २.१.१०

akṣaśalākāsaṃkhyāḥ pariṇā (2.1.10)

akṣa-śalākā-saṃkhyāḥ pariṇā

and the words akṣa (dice), śalākā (stick), and numerals with the word pari.

Examples:

यथावृद्धम् बाह्मणान् आमन्त्रयस्व

yathāvṛddham brāhmaṇān āmantrayasva Invite the brahmins who are old (vṛddha) (2.1.7)

यावत्फलम

yāvatphalam as many as there are fruits (2.1.8)

सूपप्रति

sūpapratia little bit of soup(2.1.9)

अक्षपरि

akṣapari missed by (one) die (2.1.10)

tatpurușa

The *tatpuruṣa* is a versatile compound whose first member desribes its second:

```
राज्ञः पुत्रः \rightarrow राजपुत्रः r\bar{a}j\bar{n}ah putrah \rightarrow r\bar{a}japutrah the king's son; a prince
```

adhikāra rules

Most of the system's *samāsa* rules are specifically about the *tatpuruṣa*. These rules are within the scope of the following two *adhikāra* rules:

```
विभाषा। २.१.११

vibhāṣā

Optionally, ...

तत्पुरुषः। २.१.२२

tatpuruṣaḥ (2.1.22)

tatpuruṣaḥ

... is a tatpuruṣa.
```

The first rule states that the *tatpuruṣa* is optional. For example, both *rājñaḥ putraḥ* and *rājaputraḥ* express the same semantics. In comparison, the *avyayībhāva* is an obligatory (*nitya*) compound; we cannot break the compound into separate words while keeping the same semantics.

The second rule, meanwhile, just states that the following rules define a tatpuruṣa.

The tatpurusa with different vibhaktis

Generally, the first word of the *tatpuruṣa* can appear in any *vibhakti* in relation to the second. But some of these *vibhakti*s are more restricted than others:

द्वितीया श्रितातीतपतितगतात्यस्तप्राप्तापन्नैः। २.१.२४

dvitīyā śritātītapatitagatātyastaprāptāpannaiķ (2.1.24)

dvitīyā śrita-atīta-patita-gata-atyasta-prāpta-āpannaih

[A *subanta* ending in] the second (*vibhakti* used with the words) *śrita*, *atīta*, *patita*, *gata*, *atyasta*, *prāpta*, *āpanna* [optionally creates a *tatpuruṣa*].

तृतीया तत्कृतार्थेन गुणवचनेन। २.१.३०

tṛtīyā tatkṛtārthena guṇavacanena (2.1.30)

tṛtīyā tat-kṛta-arthena guṇa-vacanena

[Likewise for a *subanta* ending in] the third (*vibhakti*) with a word denoting a quality (*guṇavacana*) when it is the cause of it becoming so;

कर्तृकरणे कृता बहुलम्। २.१.३२

kartṛkaraṇe kṛtā bahulam (2.1.32)

kartṛ-karaṇe kṛtā bahulam

[a *subanta* ending in] the third (*vibhakti*), variously, with a *kṛt* in the sense of *kartṛ* (agent) or *karaṇa* (instrument);

चतुर्थी तदर्थार्थबलिहितसुखरिक्षतैः। २.१.३६

 $caturth\bar{\iota}\ tadarth\bar{a}rthabalihitasukharak sitai \cite{h}\ (\underline{2.1.36})$

caturthī tadartha-artha-bali-hita-sukha-rakṣitaiḥ

[a *subanta* ending in] the fourth (*vibhakti*) with [a *subanta*] denoting the reason, or that is the word *artha*, *bali*, *hita*, *sukha*, or *raksita*;

पञ्चमी भयेन। २.१.३७

pañcamī bhayena (2.1.37)

pañcamī bhayena

[a subanta ending in] the fifth (vibhakti) with the word bhaya (fear);

सप्तमी शौण्डैः। २.१.४०

saptamī śaundaih (2.1.40)

saptamī śauṇḍaiḥ

[a subanta ending in] the seventh (vibhakti when used with the words in the list starting with) śauṇḍa;

Examples:

शरणं गतः \rightarrow शरणगतः

 $\text{saraṇaṃ gataḥ} \rightarrow \text{saraṇagataḥ}$ gone to shelter (2.1.24)

शङ्कलया खण्डः → शङ्कलाखण्डः

śankulayā khaṇḍaḥ \rightarrow śankulākhaṇḍaḥ a piece (cut off) by shears (2.1.30)

अग्निना दग्धः → अग्निदग्धः

agninā dagdha $h \rightarrow$ agnidagdhahburned by the fire (2.1.32)

कुण्डलाय हिरण्यम् → कुण्डलहिरण्यम्

 $kundalaya hiranyam \rightarrow kundalahiranyam$ gold for earrings (2.1.36)

चौरात् भयम् → चौरभयम्

caurāt bhayam \rightarrow caurabhayam fear from thieves (2.1.37)

अक्षेषु शौण्ड → अक्षषौण्ड

akṣeṣu śauṇḍa \rightarrow akṣaṣauṇḍa fond of dice (2.1.40)

In comparison, the first and sixth *vibhakti*s are less restricted. The sixth *vibhakti* has no restriction at all:

षष्टी। २.२.८

sasthī (2.2.8)

şaşţhī

[A subanta ending in] the sixth (vibhakti) [optionally creates a tatpuruṣa].

And the first *vibhakti* is acceptable whenever the first word qualifies the second in some way:

विशेषणम् विशेष्येण बहुलम्। २.१.५७

viśeṣaṇam viśeṣyeṇa bahulam (2.1.57) viśeṣaṇam viśeṣyeṇa bahulam

An adjective with its qualified term variously [forms a tatpuruṣa].

Examples:

राज्ञः पुत्रः → राजपुत्रः

 $r\bar{a}j\tilde{n}a\dot{p}$ putra \dot{p} \rightarrow $r\bar{a}japutra\dot{p}$ the king's son; a prince (2.2.8)

नीलः उत्पलः → नीलोपतलः

 $n\bar{\imath}la\dot{h}$ utpala $\dot{h}\to n\bar{\imath}lopatala\dot{h}$ blue lotus (2.1.57)

bahuvrīhi

Generally, the *bahuvrīhi* is a compound whose members describe a third idea that is not explicitly stated:

बहुव्रीहिः (स्त्री)

bahuvrīhih (strī)

(a woman) who has much rice

The *bahuvrīhi* is much less complicated than the *tatpuruṣa*, and we can account for most of its behavior with just a few rules:

शेषो बहुव्रीहिः। २.२.२३

śeșo bahuvrīhiḥ (2.2.23)

śesah bahuvrīhih

The remaining samāsas are called bahuvrīhi.

अनेकमन्यपदार्थे। २.२.२४

anekamanyapad \bar{a} rthe (2.2.24)

anekam anya-pada-arthe

Many related (padas) denoting a separate pada [optionally become a bahuvrīhi].

तेन सहेति तुल्ययोगे। २.२.२८

tena saheti tulyayoge (2.2.28)

tena saha iti tulya-yoge

The word *saha* [with a *subanta*] that has the same relation to the action (as the word it describes) [optionally becomes a *bahuvrīhi*].

Examples:

महान् रथो यस्य → महारथः

 $mah\bar{a}n \ ratho \ yasya \rightarrow mah\bar{a}rathah$ whose chariot is great (2.2.24) सपुत्रः (आगतः)

saputraḥ (āgataḥ)

(came) with his son (2.2.28)

dvandva

The *dvandva* is just a collection of words that would otherwise be connected with the word *ca* ("and"):

```
रामो लक्ष्मणश् \overline{\mathbf{q}} \to \mathbf{v} रामलक्ष्मणौ
```

rāmo lakṣmaṇaś ca → rāmalakṣmaṇau

Rama and Lakshmana

With the following two rules as context:

विभाषा। २.१.११

vibhāṣā (2.1.11)

vibhāṣā

Optionally, ...

अनेकमन्यपदार्थे। २.२.२४

anekamanyapadārthe (2.2.24)

anekam anya-pada-arthe

Many related (padas) denoting a separate pada [optionally become a bahuvrīhi].

We can define a dvandva quite simply:

चार्थे द्वन्द्वः। २.२.२९

cārthe dvandvaḥ (2.2.29)

ca-arthe dvandvaḥ

[Many related *padas*] (connected) in the sense of "and" [optionally become a *dvandva*].

Review

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