# A Practical Grammar of the Pāli Language 

by Charles Duroiselle

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PUBLICATION DATA: This book was first published in 1906 at the "Rangoon College" of Britishoccupied Burma; the second edition followed in 1915. An electronic text released into the public domain constituted the 3rd edition in 1997. The present edition of the electronic text has been extensively re-formatted to display the Pali text with Unicode compliant characters, and should not require any special fonts to display properly on a contemporary computer. I have made corrections to typographical errors, and have made aesthetic changes to the layout and sequence of the tables, but I have refrained from substantially revising or editing the text.

Eisel Mazard, Xishuangbanna, Yunnan, P.R.C., 2007

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## PREFACE TO THE FOURTH EDITION

In 1906, Duroiselle was writing during a brief period of frenetic English-language scholarship on the Pāli language in general, and its classical grammar in particular. This was spurred by the research conducted by James D'Alwis in the 1850s and published in 1863 as An Introduction to Kachchayana's Grammar of the Pali Language. We might say that the period of scholarship set in motion by D'Alwis's pioneering work ended at about the time of the First World War. Although I would not attempt a complete list of European language publications on Pāli grammar in the period, we may name some of the major works as follows: D'Alwis (1863), Mason (1868), Senart (1871), Gray (1883), Tha Do Oung (1899), Tilby (1899), Vidyabhusana (1901), Franke (1902), Duroiselle (1906), and DeSilva (1915). Each of the authors named in this sequence was aware of the earlier (and sometimes simultaneous) work of the others; however, a large number of journal articles and works of early lexicography are omitted from this short list. This was followed by a century of relative abeyance in English-language studies in this field.

I found a copy of the seminal work by James D'Alwis (now very rare) work in January of 2006 while looking through the many editions that the Rhys-Davids family had bequeathed to the Peradeniya University, Sri Lanka (then the National University of Ceylon). These had all the marks of ex libris editions, ranging from scholarly marginalia to sentimental personal effects folded into the pages (and in some cases, evidently, these had not been disturbed by any readers before myself). I recall in particular a clipping from a newspaper that was pasted into one of these old (and rotting) tomes, preserving a "letter to a the editor" that C.A.F. Rhys-Davids had written, requesting a correction to her husband's obituary: apparently the newpaper had mistakenly stated that the scholar was survived by his son -but the latter had already died in the First World War.

Everything about D'Alwis's Introduction... reflected the tone of frontier scholarship in its day. It is a patchwork of hastily made observations, notes, and "hearsay" about texts that were, in some cases, not even correctly identified. However, it served its purpose well: what had been an utterly obscure area of scholarship became the subject of several articles in major journals (e.g., that of the Royal Asiatic Society of Bengal) and a number of researchers took up the challenge. Francis Mason had already been investigating Pāli grammar from his remote garret in Burma, and his (much more instructive) study of the subject followed in 1868. The frenetic pace of the work was partly inspired by the fear that whatever texts could not be secured in short order might soon cease to be extant, and, in Pāli grammar in particular, both D'Alwis and Mason thought that they were racing against the clock to find some of the last Kaccāyana manuscripts, or else the work would be lost forever:
[D'Alwis] drew attention to some of the Pali works formerly extant in Ceylon, and amongst them, to Kaccāyana's grammar, which he then regarded as extinct.
[Mason, op cit., p. i, cf. D'Alwis, op cit., p. ii]

Were these fears well founded? They were founded in the observed brutality of European colonialism, with its "Scorched Earth Policy", the looting and burning of temples, and the indifferent destruction of all things "native" in the tides of rebellion and repression that swept over the Theravāda colonies in that generation. It is indeed remarkable that a text as common as the Kaccāyana Vyākaraña could be considered endangered in the mid-19th century, but the real danger to all "native" culture and literature had been demonstrated all too often in living memory. The abominable murder of thousands of Sinhalese, and the reduction of their material culture to ashes, in the repression of the 1817-8 Uva Rebellion, was re-enacted in smaller scale in the Matale rebellion of 1848 (an uprising punctuated with the British execution of a Buddhist monk). We need not rehearse the timeline of the three Anglo-Burmese wars that defined this same period on the mainland; in these wars, Buddhist texts were not only looted by the British, but also burned in pyres to break the spirit of native resistance.

Thus, in looking back on a period of extraordinary European scholarly activity, we must be aware that it was also a period of all-too-ordinary European brutality. The expectation of some of these scholars was that they were studying a culture that would soon be dead, viz., one that they had a hand in killing. This is most infamously the case with Max Müller, and was also true of the less-renowned F. Mason.

All of this suffices to say that the present work by Duroiselle was not written in the rarefied atmospohere of an obscure study, but, in fact, in the context of much more lively competition in this field than there is at present. As it has been my excruciating duty to become familiar with much of the scholarship from that era, and to sift several volumes of it for errata, I should here draw attention to several distinctive features of Duroiselle's work:

- Duroiselle made extensive use of the Jātakas and post-canonical Pāli literature in forming his idea of the "correct" use of the language. Thus, e.g., he lists many forms of declension and conjugation that are not included in the tables of other authors. This can be very useful as a scholar's reference, but it can also be more confusing (or even slightly deceptive) for a beginner.
- Although most of Duroiselle's grammatical observations are based on the close reading of classical sources, he took some very modern liberties in assigning (English) grammatical terms and in changing the order of the cases. The latter is especially confusing as the traditional names of the Pāli cases are ordinal numbers (thus, any change in their order throws the traditional terminology into confusion).
- Duroiselle sometimes conflates Sanskrit and Pāli roots (and rules), although, to give due credit, he also makes some keen observations as to how the languages differ, and tries to explain irregularities in Päli with reference to Vedic, etc., to an extent that was certainly impressive in its day. The obverse of this is that it is likely to
cause a great deal of confusion, as Duroiselle seems to make references back and forth between Sanskritic and Pāli concepts (and roots) with the assumption that his reader will be able to readily distinguish and interpret them separately.

I have prepared this edition largely as a labour of re-formatting, re-aligning, and introducing minor corrections to the third edition (primarily at the behest of the Reverend Nyanatusita, the Rector of the Forest Hermitage, currently serving as the editor of the BPS, in Kandy). In less than ten years, encodings and digital file formats have changed so much that this was indeed a necessary labour. It may well be complained that the tables are utilitarian to the point of being rather ugly, however this fourth edition is well suited to one purpose at least: the rapid search and reference that a digital format allows.

Fully one hundred years after its first publication, Duroiselle's Practical Grammar remains a highly useful resource, and there are (as of yet) quite possibly no publications that can rival its compendious treatment of the subject matter, or that demonstrate a comparable level of conversance with the classical grammatical literature. This is a lasting testament to its assiduous author, and, perhaps, reflects the neglect of this area of study in the generations that followed after him.

Eisel Mazard, Vientiane, Lao P.D.R., 2006
PREFACE TO THE THIRD EDITION
Most introductory Pāli grammar books consist of lessons that teach the elements of the language in stages, but because of that they are also very difficult to use as a reference when you need to look up a noun's declension, or a verb's conjugation. This book because of its practical and comprehensive coverage of the elements of the Palli language in complete chapters is a very useful reference. This book was also not written for linguistics experts, but for students with little experience studying Pāli grammar. For these reasons I have found it extremely useful and I recommend it to people who have already completed one of the many books that have graduated exercises intended to introduce the basics of Pāli grammar. After you have completed one of those preliminary books and move on to really read Pāli texts you will find this book to be a really good friend.

Unfortunately, this book having been out of print for many years few people know of its existence and the copies that people who know about it are using are mainly photocopied versions like mine. So I thought that entering the text into a computer would be useful for both myself and also for other people interested in studying the Pāli language.

In producing this edition I have made some corrections and changes to the original. I have kept most of the archaic english spelling and usage. This is because it has a certain charm to it and is itself a lesson in language. Pāli has not changed in the last 80 years, but the reader will soon see how much English has changed. The corrections I made where mainly to errors in layout editing and punctuation that existed in the original book. Still, I have
probably left a few and made some new ones for the editors of the fourth edition to correct when they update the English used.

I would like to thank Sayadaw U. Jotika who originally showed me the book and Miss Goh Poay Hoon who made a photocopy of it for me. Also Sean Doyle who generously let me use his scanner and optical character recognition software to scan the original in and then create a rough text to be edited; Gary Dellora who initially did the first editing of the scanned text; and Aniek Ley who donated the computer on which this text was edited. May any merit made by all concerned be a condition for our attainment of Nibbāna
U. Dhamminda, 1997, Mawlamyine.

PREFACE TO THE SECOND EDITION
This grammar was written at a time when it was urgently needed for schools and colleges, and as a consequence was conceived, written and seen through the press within the short space of a little over three months. Not-withstanding a few errors which had crept in - and which have now been corrected - the favour with which this work was received and reviewed in Europe, exceeded the author's expectations, if indeed he had any. Such favourable criticism it did not find in India:* its great defect in the opinion of some Indian gentlemen being twofold; it does not enough adhere to the very ancient Hindu system of grammatical exposition; this venerable system was, it is readily recognized by every scholar, the most suitable - in fact the only suitable system for the method of imparting knowledge current in the times in which the earliest Sanskrit grammars and, modelled on them, the first Pāli grammars were composed. But, other times, other methods; and I am not alone in thinking that the old Hindu system, whatever its undeniable merits, could not be with success adapted to the clearer, more rapid and rational western methods of teaching. But the more unpardonable departure from the beaten track is, that the author has not thought it necessary constantly to refer to the Sanskrit forms and with them compare and from them deduce the Pāli ones. It must be remembered that this comparative method, however excellent and useful to persons already acquainted with Sanskrit who desire to take up the study of Pāli, does not answer in a practical manner to the needs of the class of students for whom this book has been written; that is, young students totally ignorant of the first principles of Sanskrit, and who do not, for the most part, in the least intend taking up such study. Moreover, to those who may later on, take up such a course, the close relation between the two languages will become easily apparent.
*[Note: the disapproving remarks alluded to here are, apparently, those found in the introduction to H.T. De Silva's 1915 edition of the Bālavātāro:

The work by Prof. Duroiselle is considered an irregular edition... and has in many places gone contrary to the principles of the Original Päli Grammars. [p. vi]
The latter text was prepared in Colombo and Galle, Sri Lanka (viz., not in India, as stated in Duroiselle's riposte) but it was published in Pegu, Burma, where Duroiselle was sure to take notice or hear of it while it was going through the presses. --E.M., 2007]

In section §603, mention is made of a so called "Nominative Absolute"; it is explained in a Pāli work called the Niruttidīpanī, printed in Rangoon. M. Monier Williams also mentions it in the preface to his Sanskrit Grammar.

Much official and literary work in connection with duties did not allow me to see this second edition through the press. Professor Maung Tin, of the Rangoon College, has most graciously undertaken this onerous work, and he has read and corrected every single proof. Persons who have had experience in proof-reading, above all of a book of such a character as the present one, will readily understand the magnitude of the service done me by my old pupil, and for which I beg here to thank him most sincerely.

Chas. Duroiselle, 1915, Mandalay.

## PREFACE TO THE FIRST EDITION

This grammar was written for my pupils in the Rangoon College, to facilitate their work and make the study of the Pāli language easier for them. There is, to my knowledge no Pāli grammar suited to the requirements of students who do not know even the elements of Sanskrit, and to place into their hands grammars such as that of Muller of Frankfurter and of Minayef, which are intended for Sanskrit dilettanti, would serve rather to puzzle, than to help them; moreover, these grammars are not quite complete, consisting merely of the inflections of nouns and verbs. Mr James Gray's grammar, which was written with the same purpose as the one now presented to the public has long been out of stock; it had two drawbacks; the Pāli was all in Burmese characters, and it was too elementary to help the student in acquiring a thorough mastery of the language.

It is, I think, the first time, that Derivation has been treated systematically and fully in a European work; the chapter on Syntax. too, though not quite exhaustive (to make it so would require a special volume) is a novel feature, considering that Syntax has never as yet been treated of, except in one single instance (Pāli Grammar by H. H. Tilby, Rangoon Baptist College, 1899.), and very briefly and with no examples whatever given in illustration of the rules.

One of the greatest difficulties experienced has been to explain some forms (principally in Assimilation and Verbs), without the help of Sanskrit; scholars well understand how Pāli forms, thus explained, seem arbitrary, not to say incomprehensible in some cases; so that, although my avowed object was to write for students who do not know the first elements of Sanskrit grammar, I have thought it advisable to scatter here and there in the body of the work, a few explanations bearing on Sanskrit grammar, to make some forms better understood. But the student is perfectly free to skip them over and to assume the Pāli forms just as they are given; I would, however recommend him to peruse them at a second reading.

Each rule, throughout, is profusely illustrated with examples taken from the jātakas and from other books, and indigenous Pāli grammars. The paragraphs have been numbered
and, to facilitate reference in looking up the rules, they are quoted whenever necessary, to render more easy the study of that part of the grammar which the student is actually reading.

Grammatical discoveries are not to be expected, but scholars will find in the work now issued, a few things which have never before appeared in European grammars of Pāli.

The following indigenous Pāli grammars have been consulted: Saddanīti, Mahārūpasiddhi, Mahārūpasiddhi-Ṭikā, Akhyātapadamālā, Moggallāna, Kaccāyana, Galon Pyan.

I have availed myself of all the grammars published in Europe to which I could have access. Chas. Duroiselle, Rangoon, 20th December, 1906.

ABBREVIATIONS.

| Masc. $=$ Masculine. | Adj. $=$ Adjective. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Fem. $=$ Feminine. | Nom. $=$ Nominative. |
| Neut. = Neuter. | Gen. $=$ Genitive. |
| Sk. $=$ Sanskrit. | Dat. $=$ Dative. |
| P.P.P. $=$ Passive Perfect Participle. | Acc. $=$ Accusative. |
| P.P.A. $=$ Perfect Participle Active. | Inst. $=$ Instrumentive. |
| F.P.P. $=$ Future Passive Participle. | Abl. = Ablative. |
| V $=$ Root. | Loc. $=$ Locative. |

Masc. = Masculine.
Fem. = Feminine

Sk. = Sanskrit.
P.P.P. = Passive Perfect Participle.
F.P.P. = Future Passive Participle. $\sqrt{ }=$ Root

Adj. = Adjective.
= Nominative.

Dat. = Dative.
Acc. = Accusative.

Abl. = Ablative.
Loc. $=$ Locative.

## CHAPTER I

THE ALPHABET.
§1. The Pāli Alphabet consists of 41 letters; namely: 6 vowels, 2 diphthongs, 32 consonants and one accessory nasal sound called Niggahïta ( $\eta$ ).
§2. The vowels are divided into short and long; the short vowels are: $a, i, u$; the long vowels are $\bar{a}, \bar{i}, \bar{u}$.
§3. The value of a long vowel is about twice that of a short one, so that it takes twice as much time to pronounce a long vowel as to pronounce a short one.
§4. The sign of a long vowel is a dash placed over it. Besides the above three long vowels, all short vowels are prosodically long that come before a conjunct or double consonant: for instance in bhikkhu, ratṭha and puppha, the -i before kkh the -a, before țṭh and the -u, before pph are said to be long.

Long also are $a, i, u$ when followed by $\eta$ (niggahīta), as in: pupphay, a flower; cakkhuŋ, eye; kapiy, monkey.
§5. The two diphthongs are $e$ and $o$, which are always long. They are diphthongs only grammatically, because they are supposed to be the product of the meeting and contraction of two vowels ( $a+i=e$; and $a+u=0$ ). In reality and practically they are simple vowels.
§6. The consonants are divided into: 25 mutes, 5 semi-vowels, one sibilant and one spirant. The 25 mutes are divided, according to the place of their formation and utterance, into 5 groups of 5 letters each. The following table shows at a glance the classification of all the letters [note: the lower set of four charts showing the South-East Asian scripts now used for Pāli are my own, later addition to the text --E.M.]:

|  |  | Gutterals | Palatals | Linguals | Dentals | Labials |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Surds | Unaspirate | k | c | $t$ | $t$ | $p$ |
|  | Aspirate | kh | ch | th | th | ph |
| Sonants＊ | Unaspirate | 9 | $j$ | d | d | $b$ |
|  | Aspirate | gh | jh | dh | dh | bh |
|  | Nasals | $n$ | $\tilde{n}$ | n | $n$ | $m$ |
|  | Liquids |  | $y$ | $r!$ |  | $v$ |
|  | Spirant | h |  |  |  |  |
|  | Sibilant |  |  |  | $s$ |  |
|  | Vowels | $a \bar{a}$ | $i \overline{ }$ |  |  | $u \bar{u}$ |
|  |  |  |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | 0 |  |  |  |  |

＊And＂ y ＂（the niggahīta）is classified as a sonant

| Sinhalese Script |  |  |  |  | Romanized Transliteration |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 2） | வ | $\bigcirc$ | es | ® | k | kh | $g$ | $g h$ | $\wedge$ |
| O | 6 | 6 | $\approx 0$ | 島 | C | ch | j | jh | $\tilde{n}$ |
| $\bigcirc$ | $\omega$ | ญ | $\omega$ | 0 | $t$ | th | d |  | $\cdots$ |
| 0 | $\bigcirc$ | $\xi$ | ๑ | 0 | $t$ | th | d |  | $n$ |
| 3 | $\theta$ | อ | 2） | （－） | $p$ | ph | $b$ |  | m |
|  |  |  |  |  | $y r l v s h l y$ |  |  |  |  |
| Khmer（＂Cambodian＂）Script |  |  |  |  | Mon／Burmese Script |  |  |  |  |
| \％ | 2 | ค | 25 | © | $\infty$ | $\bigcirc$ | $\bigcirc$ | ข | C |
| $\mathfrak{*}$ | คั๋ | $\pm$ | 255 | 0 0ู\％ | $\bigcirc$ | $\infty$ | O | Q | 2 |
| $\approx$ | \％ | ¢ | 95 | 208 | $\hat{¢}$ | 9 | 2 | こ | $\infty$ |
| \％ | ษี | 3 | 20 | § | $\infty$ | $\infty$ | 3 | Q | $\uparrow$ |
| \％ | む | 68 | รู | \％ | 0 | 0 | $\theta$ | $\infty$ | 6 |
| 近 \％ 25 \％\％\％ |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |  |

§7．$l$ is now generally considered to be a semi－vowel and it is a liquid，a modification of $l$ ；in palm－leaf MSS $l$ and $l$ are constantly interchanged．$l$ is not seldom the substitute of $d$ ；It is a lingual because it is pronounced as the letters of that class（ $t, t, t h, ~ e t c$, ，）．
§8．$\eta$ or niggahita，comports，properly speaking no classification；it is merely a nasal breathing found only after the short vowels：ay，iy，uy．
§9．［The classification of letters followed by Duroiselle is as follows：］
The Gutterals are so called from their being pronounced in the throat；
The Palatals，from being uttered by pressing the tongue on the front－palate； The Linguals are formed by bringing the up－turned tip of the tongue in contact with the back of the palate；
The dentals are so called from their being pronounced with the aid of the teeth；
The Labials are formed by means of the lips；
The Nasals are sounded through the nose；
The Sibilant has a hissing sound；and，
The Spirant a strong aspirated breathing．
The Mutes are so called on account of their not being readily pronounced without the aid of a vowel；
Surds，are hard，flat，and toneless；
The Sonants are soft and uttered with a checked tone；
The Liquids，readily combine with other consonants：（except，perhaps，！）； The Aspirates are pronounced with a strong breathing or h sound added to them； The Unaspirates are pronounced naturally，without effort and without the $h$ sound．

## PRONUCIATION． <br> THE VOWELS．

§10．
$a$ is pronounced like $a$ in art． $\bar{a}$ is pronounced like $a$ in father $i$ is pronounced like $i$ in $\sin$ ，pin $\bar{i}$ is pronounced like ee in been，sheen． $u$ is pronounced like $u$ in put，bull $\bar{u}$ is pronounced like oo in fool，boon． $e$ is pronounced like $a$ in table，fate． $o$ is pronounced like o in bone，stone．

## THE CONSONANTS.

§11.

## Remark.

In all cases, the aspirates are pronounced like the unaspirates, but with the addition of a strong $h$ sound; hence the pronunciation of the unaspirates only is given.
$k$ is pronounced like k in king.
$g$ is pronounced like garden, go.
$n$ is pronounced like ng in king, bring.
$c$ is pronounced like ch in church, chip.
$j$ is pronounced like jail, jar.
$\tilde{n}$ is pronounced like ny in banyan.
$t$ is pronounced like table, tack.
Th, it must be borne in mind, is never pronounced like the English th, in such words as: the, thin, etc. It is merely $t$, uttered with an effort.
$d$ is pronounced like $d$ in deed.
$n$ is pronounced like $n$ in nag.
$p$ is pronounced like $p$ in part.

Ph, it must be remarked, is simply the aspirate of $p$, and ought not to be pronounced like $f$ (as in: philosophy).
$b$ is pronounced like $b$ in book.
$m, y, r, l, s, h$ are pronounced like the corresponding English letters.
$v$, not preceded by a consonant has the sound of $v$, in vine, vile. But
preceded by a consonant, it is sounded like $w$ in wind, win; tv $\bar{a}$, therefore,
is pronounced twā.
$\eta$, (niggahita), found always at the end of words is, in Burma, pronounced like $m$ in, jam, ram; in Ceylon, it is given the sound of $n g$ in, bring, king.
CONJUNCT CONSONANTS.
§12. Two consonants coming together form what is called a conjunct or double consonant. For instance, in: vassa, kattha and pandāpeti, the $s s, t t h$, and $n d$, are conjunct consonants.
§13. Only the letters of a same vagga or group (viz., the five divisions of the mutes: gutterals, palatals, etc.), can be brought together to form a conjunct consonant: the first and second, and the third and fourth only: the fifth letter of each group, that is the nasal, can be coupled with any of the other four consonants in its group.

CHAPTER II.
SANDHI (EUPHONY)
§14. Sandhi (union) is that part of the grammar which treats of the euphonic changes that occur when one word is joined to another.
§15. Generally these changes occur
(a) When a word ending in a vowel is joined to a word beginning with a vowel.
(b) When a word ending in a vowel is joined to another word beginning with a consonant.
(c) When a word ending in niggahitta $(\eta)$ is followed by a word beginning either with a vowel or with a consonant.
§16. From the above it will be seen that sandhi is of three kinds:
(i) Vowel-sandhi, (ii) Mixed sandhi, and (iii) Niggahīta-sandhi.

## Remarks

It is not absolutely necessary that the student should master thoroughly the rules of sandhi before beginning the study of the other chapters; but he should read them once carefully, and always refer to them whenever in the course of his reading he finds forms and combinations that puzzle him.

> §1. VOWEL- SANDHI.
§17. A vowel before another vowel is elided.

## Examples.

Elision of $a, \quad y a s s a+$ indriyāni = yassindriyāni. ajja + uposatho $=$ ajjuposatho.
 tadā + utthahi $=$ tadutthahi.
Elision of $i, \quad$ udadhi $+\bar{u} m i y o=$ udadhūmiyo. aggi $+\bar{a} h i t o=$ aggāhito.
Elision of $\bar{i}, \quad$ bhikkhunī + ovādo $=$ bhikkhunovādo migī $+i v a=$ migiva.
Elision of $u, \quad d h a ̄ t u+\bar{a} y a t a n a \bar{n} i=$ dhātāyatanāni. dhātu + indriyāni $=$ dhātindriyāni.
Elision of $\bar{u}, \quad j a m b \bar{u}+\bar{a} d i ̄ n i=j a m b a ̄ d i ̄ n i . ~$ jambū $+\overline{\text { inita }}$ vātena $=$ jambīrita vātena.
Elision of $e, \quad$ laddho $m e+$ okāso = laddho m'okāso. gāthā $m e+u d i \bar{r} i t \bar{a}=g a ̄ t h a ̄ ~ m ' u d i ̄ r i t a ̄ . ~$
Elision of $o, \quad e s o+\bar{a} v u s o ~ a ̄ y a s m a \bar{a}=e s ' a ̄ v u s o ~ a ̄ y a s m a ̄ . ~$

## Remarks.

When $\bar{i}$ is followed by a vowel it is very seldom elided: in the expression tunhassa, however, we have an example of its elision; tuṇhass $\alpha=$ tuṇh $\bar{\imath}+a s s a$; [whereas] tuṇhī ahesuy, remains without change.
§18. A vowel coming after another vowel may, if it is dissimilar, be elided.
Examples.
(i) cakkhu + indriyay $=$ cakkhundriyay.
(ii) yassa + idāni = yass'idāni.
§19. The first vowel having been elided the following vowel may be lengthened.
Examples.
(i) tatra + ayay = tatrāyay.
(ii) $s a+$ atthika $=$ sātthika.
(iii) $k i k i+i v a=k i k i v a$.
(iv) kamma + upanissayo $=$ kammūpanissayo.
(Note: A short vowel, $a, i, u$, is lengthened by putting $a$ "-" (Dash [or 'Macron']) over it).
§20. Sometimes, the second vowel having been elided, the preceding vowel is lengthened.
Examples.
(i) $v i+$ atimānenti $=v i \bar{t} t i m a ̄ n e n t i$.
(ii) kiysu +idha vittay $=$ kiysūdha vittay.
§21. Generally:
(i) $a$ or $\bar{a}+i$ or $\bar{l}=e$.
(ii) $a$ or $\bar{a}+u$ or $\bar{u}=0$.
§1. $a$ or $\bar{a}+i$ or $\bar{l}:$
(i) upa $+i k k h a t i=u p e k k h a t i$.
(ii) jina + īritanayo $=$ jineritanayo.
(iii) $a v a+e c c a=a v e c c a$.
(iv) bandhussa+iva = bandhusseva.

## Exceptions:

(a) iti preceded by a becomes āti, as:
(i) tassa $+i t i=$ tassāti.
(ii) tissa $+i t i=t i s s a ̄ t i$.
(b) $i$ may be elided after $a$, as:
(i) pana +ime = pana'me.
(ii) tena + ime $=$ tena'me.
(c) Sometimes $\bar{a}+i$ becomes $i$, as: seyyath $\bar{a}+$ iday $=$ seyyathiday.
II. $a$ or $\bar{a}+u$ or $\bar{u}$.
(i) canda + udayo = candodayo.
(ii) na + upeti $=$ nopeti.
(iii) udaka $+\bar{u} m i=u d a k o m i$.
(iv) yathā+ udaka = yathodaka.
§22. When two vowels of the same organ meet, the result is generally long: that is,

| $a+a=\bar{a}$ | $a+\bar{a}=\bar{a}$ | $\bar{a}+a=\bar{a}$ | $\bar{a}+\bar{a}=\bar{a}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $i+i=\bar{l}$ | $i+\bar{l}=i$ | $\bar{\imath}+i=\bar{l}$, | $\bar{l}+\bar{l}=\bar{\imath}$ |
| $u+u=\bar{u}$ | $u+\bar{u}=\bar{u}$ | $\bar{u}+u=\bar{u}$ | $\bar{u}+\bar{u}=\bar{u}$ |

Examples.
(i) $\tilde{n} a ̄ n a+a \bar{l}$ loken $a=\tilde{n} a ̄ n a ̄$ loken $a$.
(ii) $\mathrm{demi}+i t i=$ demīti.
$i$ and $u$ may, before verbs beginning with a vowel, remain unchanged.

## Examples.

(i) gāthāhi ajjhabhāsi.
(ii) adhivāsesi avihaññamāno.
(iii) satthu adāsi.
§23. A final vowel may remain unchanged before any other vowel when not followed by iti, in the following cases:
(a) In nouns in the vocative case:
kassappa etay...
(b) In a word ending in a long vowel if it does not form a compound with
the following word:
bhagavā uțthāyāsanā.
(c) After particles, vowels remain unchanged. [Examples:]
(i) atho + anto $c a=$ atho anto ca.
(ii) atha kho $+\bar{a} y a s m \bar{a}=$ atha kho āyasmā.
(iii) no + atikkamo = no atikkamo.
(d) $i$ and $u$ before a verb may remain unchanged (see $\$ 22$ ).
Remarks.

The particles, called nipāta, are indeclinable; they are rather numerous. The following are a few of them and the most common:
atho, atha, yeva, adho, yathā, tathā, tāva, yāva, eva, ivā, va, re, are, ca, hi, tu, kacci, kho, khalu, kira, pana, ce, nanu, nūna, nāma, etc., etc.*
*There are two kinds of indeclinable words: the nipāta or adverbs and the upasagga, or prepositions. The latter number only $20: \bar{a}, u, a t i, ~ p a t i, ~ p a, ~ p a r i, ~ a v a, ~ p a r a ̄, ~ a d h i, ~ a b h i, ~ a n u, ~ u p a, ~$ apa, api, san, vi, ni., $n \overline{1}, s u, d u$, (Saddanīti: catupadavibhāga). All the other indeclinables are of course nipāta.
Note.

Final vowels before particles beginning with $a, i, e$, as: atha, iva, eva, follow the rules of sandhi, as;
(i) $i t t h \bar{\imath}+i t i=i t t h \bar{t} t$.
(ii) $s a b b e+e v a=s a b b e^{\prime} v a$.
(iii) so + eva $=$ sveva.
(iv) $n a+$ etth $a=n ' e t t h a$.
§25. The vowel $e$, when followed by a long dissimilar vowel and also when followed by a short dissimilar vowel followed by a conjunct consonant, may be elided.

## Examples.

(i) $m e+\bar{a} s i=m^{\prime} \bar{a} s i$.
(ii) sace + assa $=$ sac'assa.
§26. After o, a vowel is usually elided.

## Examples.

(i) yo + ahay = yo'hay.
(ii) cattāro + ime $=$ cattāro'me.

Transformation of vowels into Semi-vowels.
§27. The vowels $i, u, e, o$, when followed by another vowel may be transformed into their semi-vowels.
(i) The semi-vowel of $i$, and $e$, is $y$.
(ii) The semi-vowel of $u$ and $o$, is $v$.

$$
\text { Transformation of } i \& e \text { into } y
$$

(a) Final $i$, before a dissimilar vowel, is changed to $y$.
(i) $v i+\bar{a} k a ̄ s i=v y a ̄ k a ̄ s i$.
(ii) vitti + anubhuyyate = vittyanubhuyyate.
(iii) dāsi + ahay = dāsyāhay.
(b) In such words as: $m e, t e, k e, y e$, etc., $e$ is changed to $y$, and, if the a following $e$ stands before a single consonant it is lengthened to $\bar{a}$.

## Remarks

$i t i+e v a=i t v e v a$.

## Examples.

(i) $m e+$ ahay $=$ myāhay.
(ii) me + ayay = myāyay.
(iii) te + ayay = tyāyay.
(iv) te + ahay = tyāhay.
(v) $k e+$ ass $a=$ kyassa (cf. §34).

Exceptions:
(a) Final $e$ may be elided before a long vowel: $m e+\bar{a} s i=m ' a ̄ s i$.
(b) Final e may be elided before a short vowel followed by a double consonant:
sace + assa = sac'assa.
(c) Final e sometimes elides a following vowel:
(i) te + ime = te'me.
(ii) sace + ajja = sace'jja
(d) Final $e+a$ may give $\bar{a}$ : sace + ayay $=$ sacāyay.

Transformation of the $u$ into $v$
[Rule:] When $u$, is followed by a dissimilar vowel, it is changed to $v$. Examples.
(i) anu $+e t i=$ anveti.
(ii) dhātu + anta = dhātvanta.
(iii) dhātu + attha $=$ dhātvattha
(iv) bahu $+\bar{a} b \bar{a} d h o=b a h v a ̄ b a ̄ d h o$.
(v) $s u+\bar{a} g a t a y=s v a ̄ g a t a y$.
(vi) anu + adḍhamāsay = anvaḍ̣hamāsay.

Exceptions. (a) Final $u$ may be elided before a dissimilar vowel:
sametu $+\bar{a} y a s m \bar{a}=$ samet'āyasmā.
(b) Not seldom, $u+i$ gives $\bar{u}$ :
sādhu $+i t i=s a ̄ d h u ̄ t i$.
(c) Final $o$, may be changed to $v$ before a dissimilar vowel.

## Examples.

(i) $k o+$ attho $=$ kvattho.
(ii) agamā nu kho $+i d h a=$ agamā $n u$ khvidha.
(iii) yato + adhikaraṇay $=$ yatvadhikaraṇay.
(iv) $y o+a y a y=y v a ̄ y a y$.

Exception: final o before a long vowel or a short vowel followed by a double consonant, is generally elided:
(i) kuto + ettha $=$ kut'ettha.
(ii) tato + uddhay = tat'uddhay.
(iii) tayo + assu $=$ tay'assu.

## Remarks.

§1. The change of $u$ and $o$ to $v$ occurs chiefly when $u$ or o comes after one of the following

$$
\text { consonants: } k, k h, t, t h, d, n a, y, s \text { and } h \text { (Saddanititi, part III sandhisuttamālā). }
$$

§2. Sometimes, after $i$ or $\bar{i}, y$ is inserted before a word beginning with a vowel, to avoid hiatus:
(i) $\operatorname{aggi}+\bar{a} g a ̄ r e=a g g i y a ̄ g a ̄ r e$.
(ii) sattam $\bar{l}+$ atthe $=$ sattamiyatthe.
§3. Similarly, to avoid a hiatus, a $v$ is inserted between final $u$ and another vowel:
(i) $d u+$ angikay $=$ duvangikay.
(ii) bhikkhu + äsane = bhikkhuvāsane.
(See below, re: "Consonantal Insertions".)

## CONSONANTAL INSERTIONS

§28. (a). Not seldom, to avoid a hiatus, a consonant is inserted between two vowels. (b). The consonants thus inserted are: $y, v, m, d, n, t, r, l(=l)$, and $h$. (Saddanītī gives also h.)
(c). Of these, the most frequently used are: $d, r, m, y$, and $v$.

## Remarks.

Some of these consonants are mere revivals from the older language, as in: puna + eva $=$ punareva.
Here the $r$ is simply revived.
EXAMPLES OF INSERTION OF CONSONANTS. Insertion of $y$ :
(i) $n a+$ imass $a=$ nayimass $a$.
(ii) mā + evam $=$ māyevay.
(iii) santi + eva $=$ santiyeva.

Insertion of $v$ :
(i) bhū $+\bar{a} d \overline{d a y a}=$ bhūvādāya.
(ii) migī bhantā + udikkhati $=$ migī bhantā vudikkhati.
(iii) $p a+u c c a t i=p a v u c c a t i$.

Insertion of $m$ :
(i) idha $+\bar{a} h u=i d h a m a ̄ h u$.
(ii) lahu + essati = lahumessati.
(iii) bhāyati + eva = bhāyatimeva.

Insertion of $d$ :
(i) saki + eva = sakideva.
(ii) tāva +eva = tāvadeva.
(iii) samm $\bar{a}+a n ̃ n ̃ \bar{a}=s a m m \bar{a} d a n ̃ \tilde{n} \bar{a}$.

Insertion of $n$ :
(i) ito $+\bar{a} y a t i=i t o n a ̄ y a t i$.
(ii) ciran + āyati = ciray nāyati or cirannāyati (cf. §30).

Insertion of $t$ :
(i) yasmā + iha $=$ yasmātiha.
(ii) ajja + agge $=$ ajjatagge

Insertion of $r$ :
(i) ni + antaray $=$ nirantaray.
(ii) $n i+$ ojay $=$ nirojay.
(iii) du + atikkamo = duratikkamo.
(iv) $d u+\bar{a} j a ̄ n o=d u r a ̄ j a ̄ n o$.
(v) pātu + ahosi $=$ pāturahosi.
(vi) catu $+\bar{a} r a k k h \bar{a}=c a t u r a ̄ r a k k h \bar{a}$.

Insertion of $l=$ l:
(i) cha + angām = chalangay
(ii) cha + aysa $=$ chalays $a$.

Insertion of $h$
(i) $s u+$ ujuca $=$ suhujuca
(ii) $s u+u t t+h i t a \eta=s u h u t t ̣ h i t a \eta . ~$

## Remarks.

(i) The insertion of $d$ is constant after the particle $u$, and very frequent after: sakiy, kenaci, kiñci, kinniñci, koci, sammā, yāva, tāva, puna; as well as after the bases of pronouns such as: ya, $t a$, sa, etc., as:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
u+\text { aggo = udaggo; } & u+\text { apādi }=\text { udapādi; } \\
\text { kenaci }+ \text { eva }=\text { kenacideva; } & \text { yāva }+ \text { atthay = yāvadatthay; } \\
\text { puna }+ \text { eva }=\text { punadeva; } & \text { ta + atthay = tadatthay; } \\
\text { ta + antaro = tadantaro; } & \text { eta + atthay = etadatthay. }
\end{array}
$$

[This derives from the] Mahārū̄pasiddhi['s chapter on] sandhi. It must, however, be remarked that the $d$ is, in most words, a survivance from the older language; Sanskrit has invariably preserved it. Thus $u$, of the native Päli grammarians is but the Sansk. ud; so [too Pali] ci [is equivalent to Sansk.] cid., etc.
(ii) The insertion of $t$, mostly takes place after the words: yāva, tāva, ajja, before iha and agga.
(iii) Between tath $\bar{a}$ eva and yath $\bar{\alpha}$ eva, $r$ i is often inserted; the $\bar{a}$ preceding is shortened and the $e$ of eva elided: tathariva, yathariva.
(iv) The consonant $r$, is generally inserted after the particles: ni, du, pātu, puna, dhi, pāta, catu, and a few others. In most cases it is simply revived.
(v) $l=l$ is generally inserted after cha (six).
II. CONSONANTAL SANDHI.
§29. Consonantal sandhi occurs when a word ending in a vowel is followed by a word beginning with a consonant.
§30. In the majority of cases, Consonantal sandhi is resorted to, to meet the exigencies of [poetic] metres but not always.
§31. Before a consonant, a long vowel may be shortened:
(i) yath $\bar{a}+b h \bar{a} v i+$ gunena $=$ yathabhāvigunena.
(ii) yitṭhay $v \bar{a}$ hutay $v \bar{a}$ loke $=$ yitṭhay $v$ a hutay $v a$ loke.
§32. A vowel, before a consonant, if short, may be lengthened:
(i) evay gāme muni care = evay gāme muni care
(ii) $d u+$ rakkhay $=$ dūrakkhan.
(iii) $s u+$ rakkhay $=s u \bar{r} a k k h a \eta$.
§33. A consonant following a word or a particle ending in a vowel, is generally reduplicated.

> Examples.
(i) idh $a+$ pamādo $=$ idhappamādo.
(ii) $s u+$ patțhito $=$ suppatṭhito.
(iii) $v i+$ payutto $=$ vippayutto.
(iv) $a+$ pativattiyo $=$ appativattiyo.
(v) pa + kamo $=$ pakkamo.
(vi) yathā + kamay = yathakkamay (34).
(vii) anu + gaho $=$ anuggaho.
(viii) $v i+$ jotati $=$ vijjotati.
(ix) kata $+\tilde{n} \bar{u}=$ kataññ̄u.
(x) $d u+$ labho $=$ dullabho.
(xi) $d u+$ silo $=$ dussilo.

## Remarks.

(a) v , after a vowel becomes bb :
(i) $n i+v a \overline{n a y}=$ nibbānay.
(ii) $n i+v a \bar{y} a t i=$ nibbāyati.
(iii) $d u+$ vinicchayo $=$ dubbinicchayo.
(b) Reduplication of the consonants takes place generally after the prefixes:
$u$, upa , pari, ati, pa, a, anu, etc.
(c) The constant rule in reduplication is that an aspirate is reduplicated by an unaspirate, and an unaspirate by an unaspirate. That is to say, an unaspirate is reduplicated by itself.
§34. The vowel preceding a conjunct consonant being prosodically long, the naturally long vowels: $\bar{\alpha}, \bar{i}, \bar{u}$, are not allowed to stand before a double consonant.
§35. When, according to para (33), a consonant is reduplicated after a particle ending in a long vowel, this vowel is shortened:
(i) $\bar{a}+$ kamati $=$ akkamati.
(ii) parā + kamo $=$ parakkamo.

Exceptions. There are, however, a few exceptions to paras 34,35. The following are the most common examples:
(i) $n a+a \tilde{n} \tilde{n} a=n a ̄ \tilde{n} \tilde{n} a$.
(ii) $n a+a s s a=n \bar{s} s s a$
(iii) $n a+a s s u=n a \overline{s s u}$.
(iv) kasmā + ass $a=$ kasmāssa,
(v) tatra + ass $a=$ tatrāssa. (vi) sa + antevāsiko $=$ sāntevāsiko.
(vii) $s a+$ atth $i=s a \bar{t} t h i$.
(viii) vedanā + khandho $=$ vedanākkhandho, etc.
§36. (a) Before a consonant, the o in: so, eso, may be changed to a:
(i) eso dhammo or esa dhammo.
(ii) so muni or sa muni.
(b) Sometimes, this change occurs even before a vowel, thus creating a hiatus, which is allowed to remain: so attho or sa attho.
(c) The same change (of o to a), occurs also, but not so frequently, in: ayo (iron), mano (the mind), tamo (darkness), paro (other), tapo (penance, mortification), and a few others: ayopattan or ayapattay, etc.

## III. NIGGAHĪTA SANDHI

§37. niggahita sandhi takes place when a word ending; in $\eta$ (niggahita), is followed by a word beginning with a vowel, or with a consonant.
§38. Niggahïta when followed by a consonant, may, remain unchanged.

## Examples.

(i) tay dhammay katan
(ii) tan khanay.
(iii) tay patto.
§39. Niggahita, followed by a consonant, may be transformed to the nasal of the class to which that consonant belongs.

## Examples.

(i) ranau + jaho $=$ ranañjaho.
(ii) tanhan + karo = tanhankaro.
(iii) say + ṭhito = saṇṭhito.
(iv) jutiy + dharo $=$ jutindharo.
(v) say + mato = sammato.
(vi) evay + kho = evan kho.
(vii) dhammay $+c a=$ dhammañca.
(viii) tay + niccutay = tanniccutay.

## Remarks.

Before initial $l$, the niggahita of say and puy is changed to $l$ :
(i) san + lakkhaṇā = sallakkhaṇā.
(ii) pați + say + linno $=$ pațisallīno.
(iii) $s a y+l e k k o=s a l l e k h o$.
(iv) puy + lingay $=$ pullingay .
§40. Niggahīta, followed by e or $h$ is changed to $\tilde{n} \tilde{n}$ and $n ̃ h$ respectively.
(i) $\operatorname{tay}+e v a=\operatorname{tañ} \tilde{n} e v a$.
(ii) paccantaray + eva $=$ paccantaraññeva.
(iii) evay + hi kho = evañhi kho.
(iv) tay + hitassa = tañhitassa
§41. Y following niggahita becomes assimilated to it, and both together may become ñ̃̃:
(i) say + yuttay $=$ saññuttay.
(ii) saŋ + yogo = saññogo.

## Remarks

Not seldom, no coalescence takes place, and both letters remain unchanged: sayyuttay; sayyojanay.
§42. When preceding a vowel, niggahita becomes $m$ :
(i) tay + atthay $=$ tam atthay.
(ii) yay + āhu = yam āhu.
(iii) $k$ iy + etay $=$ kim etay.

## Remarks.

Rules 39 and 42, are not strictly adhered to in texts edited in Roman characters; in prose above all, niggahīta is allowed to remain unchanged before a vowel or a consonant, even in the middle of a word sometimes; in poetry, the retention of niggahīta or its change to $m$ before a vowel, is regulated by the exigencies of the metres.
§43. Sometimes, niggahīta before a vowel, may become $d$ :
(i) etay + attho $=$ etadattho.
(ii) etay + eva = etadeva.
(iii) etay + avoca = etadavoca.
(iv) yay + anantaray = yadanantaray.
(v) yay + iday = yadiday.

## Remarks.

The change of niggahīta into $d$ is more fictitious than real; in most examples, the $d$ is simply a survivance [i.e., reflects an etymologically older form of the word, from the Vedic period, etc.]. (See Insertion of consonants).
§44. Niggahīta, before a vowel or a consonant may be elided:
(i) tāsay + ahay santike = tāsähay santike.
(ii) ariyasaccānay + dassanay = ariyasaccānadassanay.
(iii) etay buddhānay + sāsanay = etay buddhānasāsanay.
§45. A niggahīta may sometimes be inserted before a vowel or a consonant:
(i) ava siro = avaysiro.
(ii) manopubba gam $\bar{a}=$ manopubbangam $\bar{a}$
(iii) cakkhu + udapādi $=$ cakkhuŋ udapādi.
(iv) yāva c'idha bhikkhave = yāvañc'idha.
§46. After niggahīta, a vowel may be elided:
(i) kiy $+i t i=$ kinti.
(ii) iday + api = iday pi.
(iii) cakkay +iva = cakkay va.
(iv) kaliy + idāni = kaliŋ 'dāni or kalin dāni

INTERCHANGE OF LETTERS.
§47. Not infrequently an interchange of letters takes place:
(i) dh becomes $h$; rudhira = ruhira.
(ii) $d$ becomes $t$; sugado $=$ sugato.
(iii) $t$ becomes ț; pahato = pahaṭo.
(iv) $t$ becomes $d$; gantabba $=$ gandabba .
(v) $g$ becomes $k$; hatthupaga $=$ hatthupaka.
(vi) $r$ becomes l; paripanno = palipanno.
(vii) y becomes j; gavayo = gavajo.
(viii) $k$ becomes $y$; sake pure = saye pure.
(ix) $j$ becomes $y$; nijayputtay = niyayputtay.
(x) $t$ becomes $k$; niyato $=$ niyako.
(xi) $k$ becomes kh; nikamati $=$ nikhamati.

SIGNS.
§48. As has already been said a dash (-) indicates a long vowel:
(i) ahay sakkhī ahay sakkhī = I am witness!
(ii) pajjalantāni pabbatakūțāni mālāgulabhāvan āpannāni disvā
= seeing the blazing mountain peaks had turned into nosegays...
§49. Crasis, the contraction of two syllables into one, is shown by the circumflex accent $(\wedge)$ :
(i) sādhu hoti, lacchasâti, all right! you'll get it.
(ii) taŋ...gaṇhissāmâti, I'll seize him!

Remarks.
In most texts, crasis is expressed by a ( - ) dash, as used for the long vowels [i.e., the long vowel is marked with a macron, and the reader is left to infer the crasis].
§50. The elision of a vowel is expressed by an apostrophe (').
(i) eken'ūno = ekena ūno,
(ii) idān'eva = idāni eva,
(iii) pi'ssa = pi assa.
(iv) tass'ekadivasay = tassa ekadivasay,

## CHAPTER III. <br> ASSIMILATION.

§51. The matter included in this chapter should perhaps have come under the head of "sandhi," for assimilation is nothing but changes that occur for the sake of euphony.

I have remarked that, although the rules of sandhi, as explained in the preceding chapter, are readily understood and applied by the young students, the laws of assimilation puzzle them not a little, and retard their reading much more than is necessary. The difficulty thus experienced arises from their ignorance of Sanskrit, without at least a slight knowledge of which, the study of Pāli becomes sensibly more difficult.

In the following paragraphs, I shall try and explain as succinctly and as clearly as possible, the rules of assimilation. The student cannot be too much recommended to study thoroughly this chapter and to refer to it constantly in the course of his studies.
§52. Assimilation is the blending into one of two consonantal sounds. It involves the change of one sound to another of the same series, but sometimes also to a sound of another series. (See chart at end of para 6).
§53. Assimilation is of two kinds:
(i) The initial consonant is assimilated to the final consonant of the preceding word.
This is called Progressive Assimilation.
(ii) The final consonant of the preceding word is assimilated to the initial
consonant of the word that follows. This is called Regressive Assimilation.

## I.PROGRESSIVE ASSIMILATION.

EXAMPLES:
(a) $\sqrt{ } \operatorname{lag}($ to cling $)+n a=$ lagna $=$ lagga (clung).
(b) $\sqrt{ }$ budh (to know) + ta $=$ budhta $=$ buddha (known).

It will be remarked that in example (a) the $n$ (dental) has been assimilated to the $g$ which belongs to another series (gutteral).
In (b), the $t$, become $d$, assimilates to the preceding $d h$, both being sounds of the same series (dentals).

## II. REGRESSIVE ASSIMILAT1ON.

EXAMPLES: (a) $\sqrt{ }$ lip $($ to smear $)+t a=l i p t a=l i t t a($ smeared $)$.
(b) $\sqrt{ }$ dam (to subdue) $+t a=d a m t a=d$ anta (subdued).

In these two examples, $p$, in (a), is assimilated to initial $t$ and passes to another series of sounds.
In (b), $m$ likewise passing to another series, assimilates itself to $t$ and becomes $n$.
GENERAL RULES OF ASSIMILATION.
§54. Assimilation takes place mostly in the formation of the Passive Voice, the Passive Perfect Participle, the base of verbs of the third conjugation, of the Infinitive, Gerund the Potential Passive Participle and in the formation of the Desiderative; also under the influence of certain suffixes in the derivation of words
§55. In Pāli, regressive Assimilation is the more common.
§56. When a mute meets with an initial mute (non-nasal), there is regressive assimilation generally, that is the first consonant is assimilated to the second:
(i) $s a k+t a=s a k t a=s a t t a$.
(ii) sak + thi $=$ sakth $=$ satthi.
§57. A gutteral assimilates the following dental:
(i) lag $+n a=$ lagna $=$ lagg $a$
(ii) $s a k+n o=s a k n o=s a k k o+t i=s a k k o t i$.
§58. A gutteral assimilates a final dental:
(i) ud + kamāpeti $=u k k a m a ̄ p e t i$.
(ii) tad + karo $=$ takkaro.
(iii) $u d+$ gacchati $=$ uggacchati.
§59. A final palatal* being followed by a dental surd or sonore, assimilates it into a lingual:
(i) $\sqrt{ }$ maj $+t a=$ matṭha or matṭa.
(ii) $\sqrt{ }$ pucch + ta $=$ putth $a$.
(iii) $\sqrt{ }$ icch + ta $=i$ itth $h$.
(a) $j$ however sometimes is assimilated to the following $t$ :
(iv) $\sqrt{ } b h u j+t a=b h u t t a$.
(b) $c$ also becomes assimilated to $t$ :
(v) $\sqrt{ } m u c+t a=m u t t a$.
*To better understand these changes, the student ought to bear in mind that no word can end in a palatal nor in $h$, because these letters are not primitive letters the palatals have sprung into existence from the contact of gutteral consonants with certain vowels; and $h$ represents an old gh and is the aspirate of $j$; the original gutterals, therefore, reappear at the end of words either pure or transformed into a lingual, and then assimilate or are assimilated by the following dental. For instance:
$\sqrt{ }$ pucch $=$ puṭh + ta $=$ putṭha, but, $\sqrt{ } m u c=m u k+t a=m u k t a=m u t t a ;$
bhuj $=$ bhuk + ta $=$ bhukta $=$ bhutta;
again, $\sqrt{ }$ maj $=$ mat $(t=S k . s)+t a=$ mattca.
In Sk., $\sqrt{ } m r j+t a=m r s ̣ t a=$ Pāli: matṭa.
§60. But an initial palatal assimilates a final dental in palatal: $u d+$ cinati $=$ uccinati.
$u d+$ ched $\bar{\imath}=u c c h e d \bar{\imath}$.
ud + jala $=$ ujjala .
$u d+j h a ̄ y a t i=u j j h a ̄ y a t i$.
§61. A final lingual assimilates a following surd dental, $(t)$ :
$\sqrt{ }$ kutt + ta $=$ kutt $h a$.
§62. A final dental is assimilated to the following consonant:
(i) ud + gaṇhāti $=u g g a n h a \bar{t} t i$.
(ii) ud + khipati $=$ ukkhipati.
(iii) ud + chindati = ucchindati.
(iv) ud + jhāyati $=$ ujjhāyati.
(v) ud + sāha = ussāha.
(vi) ud + tinṇa = uttiṇ̣a.
(vii) ud + loketi $=$ ulloketi.
§63. When initial $t$, follows a sonant aspirate, the assimilation is progressive: the final sonant aspirate loses its aspiration, the following $t$ (surd) becomes sonant, viz. $d$, and taking the aspiration which the final sonant has lost, becomes $d h$.

EXAMPLE: $\quad \sqrt{ } r u d h+t a=r u d h+d a=r u d+d h a=r u d d h a$.

## Remark.

In the case of final bh, initial $t$ having become $d h$, regressive assimilation takes place;
$\sqrt{l} a b h+t a=l a b h+d=l a b+d h a=l a d d h a$.
§64. Before an initial dental surd, a gutteral or a labial surd unaspirate is generally assimilated:
(i) tap + ta $=$ tapt $a=$ tatta .
(ii) sak + ta $=$ sakt $a=$ satta.
(iii) sakt + hi $=$ sakthi $=$ satthi.
(iv) $k a m+t a=k a m t a=k a n t a$.
§65. An initial labial generally assimilates a preceding dental surd or sonant unaspirate:
(i) tad + purisa $=$ tappurisa.
(ii) ud + bhijjati $=u b b h i j j a t i$.
(iii) ud + pajjati = uppajjati.
(iv) ud + majjati $=$ ummajjati.
§66. A final labial may assimilate an initial nasal:
$p \bar{a} p+n o+t i=p \bar{a} p n o+t i=p a p p o t i$

## ASSIMILATION OF NASALS.

§67. Final $m$ before $t$ is assimilated:
$\sqrt{ } g a m+t v \bar{a}=g a m t v \bar{a}=g a n t v \bar{a}$.
§68. The group sm is preserved:
tasmiv, bhasmā, asmā, usmā.
§69. An initial nasal assimilates a preceding dental:
$u d+$ magg $a=u n+$ magg $a=u m m a g g a$.
Remark.
Here final $d$, being before a nasal, is first changed to the nasal of its class, that is $n$, and this $n$ (dental) is then assimilated to $m$ (labial). So for gantvā in $\S 67$.
(i) ud + nadati $=$ unnadati.
(ii) $\sqrt{ }$ chid $+n a=$ chinna.

## ASSIMILATION OF Y.

§70. $Y$ is regularly assimilated to the preceding consonant by Progressive Assimilation.
§71. The assimilation of $y$ takes place principally in the Passive Voice in the formation of verbal bases of the 3rd conjugation, of some gerunds and of numerous derived nouns.
(i) $\sqrt{ } g a m+y a=$ gamy $a=$ gamma .
(ii) $\sqrt{ } p a c+y a=p a c y a=p a c c a$.
(iii) $\sqrt{ }$ mad $+y a=$ mady $a=$ majja.
(iv) $\sqrt{ }$ bhan $+y a=b h a n y a=b h a n ̃ n ̃ a$.
(v) $\sqrt{ } \operatorname{div}+y a=d i v v a=d i b b a$.
(vi) $\sqrt{ } k h \bar{a} d+y a=k h a ̄ d y a=k h a j j a(\S 34)$.
(vii) $\sqrt{ }$ khan + ya $=k h a n y a=k h a n ̃ \tilde{n} a$.
§72. This rule holds good also in the middle of a compound word: final $i$ having become $y$ by Rule 27 (i) (a), is assimilated to the preceding, consonant, and the following word is joined on to form a compound.

## Examples.

(i) pali* ${ }^{*}$ anko $=$ paly ankso $=$ pallanko.
(ii) vipali* $+\bar{a} s o=$ vipaly $\bar{s} s o=$ vipallāso.
(iii) vipali + atthay $=$ vipaly atthay $=$ vipallatthay.
(iv) api + ekacce $=$ apy ekacce $=$ appekacce
(v) api $+e k a d \bar{a}=$ apy ekad $\bar{a}=$ appekad $\bar{a}$.
(vi) abhi + uggacchati $=$ abhy uggacchati $=$ abbhuggacchati.
(vii) abhi + okiranay $=a b h y$ okiranay $=a b b h o k i r a n a y$.
(viii) $a b h i+a n ̃ j a n a y=a b h y$ añjanay $=a b b h a n ̃ j a n a y$.
(ix) $\bar{a} n i+\bar{a} y o=\bar{a} n v$ āyo $=$ anñāyo $(\$ 34,35)$.

* The preposition pari, is often changed into pali.
§73. By far the most common changes occurring through the assimilation of $y$ (final as in the above examples) or of $y$ (initial as in §71), take place when the dental surd unaspirate $t$ or the dental sonore aspirate or unaspirate $d$, $d h$, precedes. To state the rule shortly:
§74.
(i) final $t i+$ any dissimilar vowel becomes $c c+$ that vowel.
(ii) final dhi + any dissimilar vowel becomes jjh + that vowel.
(iii) final $d i+$ any dissimilar vowel becomes $j j$ + that vowel.
(iv) final $t+y=c c$.
(v) final $d+y=j j$.
(vi) final $d h+y=j j h$.


## Examples.

(i) ati + antay = aty antay = accantay.
(ii) pati + ayo = paty ayo = paccayo.
(iii) pati + eti $=$ paty eti $=$ pacceti.
(iv) iti + assa $=$ ity ass $a=i c c a s s a$.
(v) iti $+\bar{a} d i=i t y ~ \bar{a} d i=i c c \bar{a} d i$.
(vi) jāti + andho $=$ jāty andho $=$ jaccandho $(34,35)$.
(vii) adhi $+\bar{a} g a m o=$ adhy $\bar{a} g a m o=$ ajjhāgamo.
(viii) adhi +ogāhitv $\bar{a}=$ adhy ogāhitv $\bar{a}=$ ajjhogāhitv $\bar{a}$.
(ix) adhi + upagato $=$ adhy upagato $=$ ajjhupagato.
( x ) adhi + eti $=$ adhy eti $=$ ajjheti.
(xi) nad $\overline{+}+\bar{a}=n a d y \bar{a}=n a j j \bar{a}$.
(xii) yadi + evay = yady evay = yajjevay.
(xiii) sat + ya = satya = sacca.
(xiv) paṇdita + ya = paṇditya $=$ paṇdicca.
(Xv) $\sqrt{\mathrm{mad}}+y a=$ madya $=$ majja .
(Xvi) $\sqrt{ } v a d+y a=v a d y a=v a j j a$.
$(\mathrm{xvii}) \sqrt{ } r u d h+y a=r u d h y a=r u j j h a$.
§75. Final $t h+y=c c h$ :

$$
\text { tath }+y a=\text { tathy } a=\text { tacch } a
$$

§76. A final sibilant may assimilate a following y:
(i) $\sqrt{p a s}+y a=p a s y a=p a s s a$.
(ii) $\sqrt{ }$ dis $+y a=$ disy $a=$ diss $a$.
$\S 77 . v+y$ becomes $b b:$

$$
\text { (i) } \sqrt{ } d i v+y a=d i v y a=d i b b a \text {. }
$$

(ii) $\sqrt{ } s i v+y a=s i v y a=s i b b a$.
Remarks.

At the beginning of a word, however, the $y$ (the semi-vowel of $i$ ) is retained, and $v$ is changed to $b$ :

> (i) $v i+\bar{a} k a r a n a y=v y a ̄ k a r a n a y ~=~ b y a ̄ k a r a n a y . ~$
> (ii) $v i+$ añjanay $=$ vyañjanay $=$ byañjanay.
§78. When $y$ follows $h$, metathesis, the transposition of letters, takes place:
(i) $\sqrt{ }$ sah $+y a=$ sahya, and by metathesis = sayha.
(ii) $\sqrt{ }$ guh $+y a=$ guhya $=$ guyha.
§79. Initial $y$, may assimilate a final dental, non-nasal:
(i) ud + yuñjati = uyyuñjati.
(ii) ud + yāti = uyyāti.
(iii) ud + yāna = uyyāna.

## ASSIMILATION OF R.

§80. Final $r$ is often assimilated to a following mute:
(i) $\sqrt{ } k a r+t a b b a=k a t t a b b a$.
(ii) $\sqrt{ } k a r+t \bar{a}=k a t t \bar{a}$.
(iii) $\sqrt{ } k a r+y a=k a y y a$.
(iv) $\sqrt{ }$ dhar $+m a=$ dhamma .
§81. Very often too, final $r$ is dropped:
(i) $\sqrt{m a r}+t a=m a t a$.
(ii) $\sqrt{ } k a r+t a=k a t a$.
§82. Sometimes, $r$ having been dropped, the vowel $a$ before it, is lengthened:
(i) $\sqrt{ } k a r+t a b b a=k \bar{a} t a b b a$.
(ii) $\sqrt{ } k a r+t u \eta=k a ̄ t u \eta$.
§83. $R$ followed by $n$, lingualizes the $n$, and then becomes assimilated to it: $\sqrt{ } c a r+n a=$ carna $a=$ cinn $a$

The student will understand the insertion of i when reading the chapter on Passive Perfect Participles.
§84. Final $r$ may be assimilated to a following $l$ :
$\operatorname{dur}(=d u)+$ labho = dullabho.

## ASSIMILATION OF S

§85. $S$ (or $s a$ ) is assimilated by the preceding consonant, having first been transformed into a gutteral or a palatal.
§86. Final $j+s a=k k h a$ :
(i) titij $+s a=$ titikkha.
(ii) bubhuj $+s a=b u b h u k k h a$.
§87. Final $p+s a=c c h a$ :
jigup + sa = jigucch $a$.
§88. Final $t+s a=c c h$ :
tikit $+s a=$ tikicch $a$.
§89. Final $s+s a=c c h a$ :
jighas + sa = jighacch $a$.
§90. Final $s$ assimilates a following $y$ :
$\sqrt{n a s}+y a=$ nassa. (See para 76).
§91. But sometimes the combination remains unchanged:
alasa $+y a=$ ālasya.
§92. Final $s$, assimilates an initial $t$ into a lingual:
(i) $\sqrt{ }$ kas + ta $=$ katṭha.
(ii) $\sqrt{ }$ kilis + ta $=$ kilițtha
(iii) $\sqrt{ }$ das $+t a=$ datṭha.
§93. Initial $s$ assimilates a preceding dental:
(i) $u d$ (or ut) + sāh $a=u s s a ̄ h a$.
(ii) ud (or ut) + suka $=$ ussuka.
§94 Pretty often, $s+t=t$ :

$$
\sqrt{ } \text { jhas }+ \text { ta }=\text { jhatta. }
$$

§95. Sometimes too, $s+t=t$ th:

$$
\sqrt{ } v a s+t a=v u t t h a .
$$

## ASSIMILATION OF H.

§96. Initial $h$ sometimes is changed to the mute aspirate of the class of the preceding final consonant:
(i) ud + harati = uddharati.
(ii) $u d+$ haraña $=$ uddharaṇa.
(iii) ud + hata ( $\sqrt{\text { han }) ~=~ u d d h a t a . ~}$
§97. When final $h$ is followed by a nasal, the group generally undergoes metathesis (see 78, note):
$\sqrt{ } g a h+n ̣ a=$ gahṇa $=$ gaṇh $a$.
§98. Metathesis also occurs in the groups hy and hv:
(i) mahyay becomes mayhay.
(ii) oruh + ya becomes oruyha.
(iii) jihvā becomes jivhā.

## Remarks.

Very seldom, $h$ is assimilated to the following $y$, leh $+y a=$ leyya .
§99. $h$ is sometimes changed to $g h ;\left({ }^{*}\right)$ principally in the root han, to kill.
hanati, to kill, or ghateti, to kill.
ghañña, killing, from,$\sqrt{ }$ han (han or ghan $+y a=$ ghañña).
ghammati to go = hammati, to go.

* It must be remembered that $h$ is the aspirate of $j$, since it now represents an ancient $g h$ (cf. 59, note), and therefore, in euphony, it is treated exactly as $j$, that is to say when final it becomes sometimes $k$ and sometimes $t$. The above rules, which may seem arbitrary are familiar to the Sanskritist.
§100. Final $h+t$ becomes generally ddha:

$$
\sqrt{ } d u h+t a=d u d d h a .
$$

§101. Sometimes also $h+t=d h$ :

$$
\sqrt{ } \text { lih }+ \text { tuy }=\text { ledhuy. }
$$

$$
\text { (For the change of } i \text { to e see " } n \text { Strengthening } n ̣^{n} \text { ) }
$$

§102 It has been said above (7) that $l$ is very often interchangeable with $d$; when the $d$ is aspirate viz, $d \mathrm{~h}$, its substitute also becomes aspirate, viz., ! l .

Now, according to para (101), we have seen that $h+t$ becomes $d h$; for this $\underset{C h}{ }$ may be substituted !lh, so that we have the following form:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sqrt{ } m u h+t a=m \bar{u} d h a=m \bar{u} l h a . \\
& \sqrt{ } r u h+t a=r u \bar{d} h a=r \bar{l} l h a .
\end{aligned}
$$

## CHAPTER IV.

(a) STRENGTHENING PROCESS.
§103. Strengthening is the process of changing a vowel sound into another vowel sound.
§104. The vowels which undergo strengthening are: $a, i, \bar{i}, u$ and $\bar{u}$.
§105. Thus: a being strengthened, becomes ā. i being strengthened, becomes e. $\bar{i}$ being strengthened, becomes e. $u$ being strengthened, becomes $o$. $\bar{u}$ being strengthened, becomes o.
§106. The result thus obtained is also called guna (quality).
§107. Therefore, the guna of $a$ is $\bar{a}$, that of $i$ and $\bar{i}$ is e, that of $u$ and $\bar{u}$ is $o$.
§108. Further, as we already know (by rules 27 (i) a, 27 (ii) b.), final e and o when followed by a vowel may be changed into their semi-vowel + that vowel.
\$109. The following table of these very useful changes should be borne in mind.

| Simple Vowel | Strengthening or Guṇa | Vowel \& Semi-Vowel |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $a$ | $\bar{a}$ | [none] |
| $i, \bar{\imath}$ | $e$ | ay |
| $u, \bar{u}$ | $o$ | av |

§110. Strengthening occurs frequently in the formation of verbal bases, of Verbals (See chapter on Verbs) and in the derivation of words under the influence of certain suffixes.
Remarks.

In the derivation of Primary and Secondary Nouns (see Derivation), it will simplify matters to assume at once that:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { i or } \overline{1}+a=\text { aya. } & \text { u or } \bar{u}+a=\text { ava. } \\
e+a=a y a . & o+a=a v a .
\end{array}
$$

(b) METATHESIS
§111. Examples of metathesis have already (78) been given.
§112. Metathesis is the transposition of letters or of syllables in a word; the following are further instances of this transposition:
(i) pariyudāhāsi becomes payirudāhāsi.
(ii) ariya becomes ayira.
(iii) kariyā becomes kayirā.
(iv) masaka becomes makasa.
(v) rasmi becomes ransi.
(vi) na abhineyya becomes anabhineyya.
(vii) cilimikā becomes cimilikā.

> (c) EPENTHESIS.
§113. Epenthesis is the insertion of a letter in the middle of a word.
§114. Epenthesis is resorted to mostly to avoid a hiatus of the collocation of consonants of different organs:

## Examples.

(i) klesa becomes kilesa.
(ii) ācārya becomes ācāriya.
(iii) tiangula becomes tivangula.
(iv) hyo becomes hīyo or hiyyo.
(v) barhisa becomes barihisa.
(vi) hrada becomes harada.
(vii) arhati becomes arahati.
(viii) srī becomes Sirī.
(ix) hrī becomes hirī.
(X) plavati becomes pilavati.

## (d) DROPPING OF SYLLABLES.

§115. Sometimes, for the sake of the metre, or to facilitate pronunciation, whole syllables are dropped:
(i) abhiññāya sacchikatvā, becomes, abhiññ̄a sacchikatvā.
(ii) jambudīpay avekkhanto addasa, becomes, jambudīpay avekkhanto adda.
(iii) dasasahassī, becomes, dasahassi.
(iv) chadangula, becomes, changula.

## CHAPTER V

DECLENSION.
§116. (a) Declension is the adding to the stems of Nouns and Adjectives certain suffixes which show, case, gender and number.
(b) The stem or base of a noun is that noun as it stands before any suffix has been added to it.
(c) Päli has three genders: the Masculine, the Feminine and the Neuter.
(d) Pāli does not strictly follow the natural division of male, female, etc, in assigning gender to nouns, many nouns which are Masculine in English are Feminine or Neuter in Pāli and vice-versa; a great number of nouns which we consider as neuter are, some
Masculine, some Feminine in Päli. This is called grammatical gender
(e) There are two numbers: the singular and the plural.
(f) There are eight cases.
§1. Nominative, showing the subject of the sentence.
§2. Genitive, showing possession (of 's).
§3. Dative, showing the object or person to or for whom something is given or done.
§4. Accusative, this is the object of the sentence.
§5. Instrumentive, shows the object or person with or by whom something is performed.
§6. Ablative, generally showing separation, expressed by from.
§7. Locative, showing place (in, on at, upon, etc.).
§8. Vocative, used in addressing persons.

## Remarks

The student will find fuller explanations of the uses of the cases in the chapter on Syntax.
§117. The declension of nouns is divided into two great divisions:
(a) Vowel-declension, comprising all the stems that end in a vowel
(b) Consonantal, declension, in which are included all the stems ending in a consonant.
(c) Vowel-declension is generally, for the sake of clearness, divided again into three classes:
(i) the declension of stems ending in, a or, ā.
(ii) the declension of stems ending in, i or, $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$.
(iii) the declension of stems ending in, $u$ or, $\bar{u}$.
§118. (a) Native grammarians give the following as the regular case endings or suffixes for all nouns.

|  | Singular. |  | Plural. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. | s. | Nom | yo. |
| Gen. | ssa. | Gen. | nay. |
| Dat. | ssa. | Dat. | nay. |
| Acc. | ay. | Acc. | yo. |
| Ins. | $\bar{a}$. | Ins. | hi. |
| Abl. | smā. | Abl. | hi. |
| Loc. | smin. | Loc. | su. |
| Voc. | (like the stem of Nom.) | Voc. | (like the Nom.) |

(b) Most of the above suffixes are theoretical only, in practice they differ considerably according to gender and case. The actual suffixes will be given with each declension.

## VOWEL DECLENSION

Declension of stems ending in a (short)
§119. (a) The great bulk of nouns and adjectives belong to this declension, and as the other declensions have borrowed several of its suffixes, its thorough mastery is most important and will greatly facilitate the study of the other declensions.
(b) Nouns ending in a, are all masculine or neuter.
§120. The following are the suffixes of masculine nouns the stem of which ends in a:

| Singular. |  | Plural. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. | o. | Nom. | ā, āse. |
| Gen. | ssa. | Gen. | nay. |
| Dat. | ssa, āya. | Dat. | nay. |
| Acc. | y. | Acc. | e. |
| Ins. | ina. | Ins. | ehi, ebhi. |
| Abl. | $\bar{a}$, smā, mhā, to. | Abl. | ehi, ebhi. |
| Loc. | i, smiy, mhi. | Loc. | su |
| Voc. | (like the stem) and $\bar{a}$ | Voc. | a |

§121. These suffixes have to be attached to the stems, taking care to observe the sandhi rules which may apply when suffixes begin with a vowel; in every case the student should accustom himself to look up the rules, which will be referred to by their numbers, and accustom himself to account for every form he meets with, whether nominal, verbal or derivative. He should remember that a systematic study from the start will ensure thoroughness and eventually save him a great deal of labour and time.
§122. DECLENSION OF DEVA, GOD, ANGEL
Singular.

Nom. devo, a god. devā, gods.
Gen. devassa, a god's. devānay, gods', of gods.
Dat. devassa, to or for a god.
Acc. devay, a god.
Ins. devena, by, with or
on account of, a god.
Abl. devā, from a god devasmā, from a god. devamhā, from a god. devato, from a god.
deve, in, on, or upon a god. devesu, in on, or upon gods.
devasmin on, or upon a god.
devamhi on, or upon, a god.
Voc. deva, devā, O god! devā, O gods!

## EXERCISE.

Decline like deva (masc.)
nara, man.
byaggha, tiger.
miga, deer.
gandhabba, musician.
kacchapa, tortoise.
satta, being.
suysumāra, crocodile.

## mātanga, elephant.

sīha, lion.
orodha, a seraglio.
dhamma, doctrine, right.
putta, son.
kūpa, a mast.
makara, a sea.monster.

## Remarks.

(a) The true Dat. sing. in āya has now generally been displaced by the suffix of the gen. ssa; the Dat. āya is almost equal to an lnfinitive and mostly denotes intention.
(b) smā and mhā of the Abl. and smin and mhi of the Loc. have been borrowed from the pronominal declension (see Declension of Pronouns).
(c) so is sometimes used also as an Abl. sing. suffix:
vaggaso, by groups, bhāgaso, by share.
(d) sā is also found as an Ins. sing. suffix, as: balasā, by force, forcibly, talasā, with the sole of the foot.
(e) The Nom. plur.in āse, very scarce, corresponds to the Vedic Nom. plur.
(f) ebhi, of the Ins. and Abl. plural, is mostly used in poetry, and probably comes from the Vedic ebhis.
(g) Before o, Nom. sing., ehi, ebhi, Ins. and Abl. plur. and e, Acc. plur. final a of the stem is dropped:
deva $+\mathrm{o}=\operatorname{dev}+\mathrm{o}=$ devo, deva $+\mathrm{ehi}=\operatorname{dev}+$ ehi $=$ devehi.
(h) Before su, Loc. plur. final a of stem is changed to $e$
(i) In the Dat., Ins., Abl. and Loc. sing.; and in Nom. and Voc. plur. the usual rules of sandhi are regularly followed:

EXAMPLES:

| Singular Instrumentive. | deva + ina $=\operatorname{devena,~}$ | $(21, \mathrm{i})$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Singular Dative. | $\operatorname{deva}+\bar{a} y a=\operatorname{devā} y a$ | $(22)$. |
| Singular Loc. | $\operatorname{deva}+\bar{i}=\operatorname{deve}$ | $(21, \mathrm{i})$. |
| Singular Abl. | $\operatorname{deva}+\overline{\mathrm{a}}=\operatorname{dev} \bar{a}$ | $(22)$. |
| Plural Nom. | $\operatorname{deva}+\mathrm{a}=\operatorname{deva}$ | (ibid). |
|  | $\operatorname{deva}+\overline{a ̄ s e}=\operatorname{devāse}$ | (ibid). |
| Plural Loc. | $\operatorname{deva}+\mathrm{a}=\operatorname{deva} \mathrm{a}$ | (ibid). |

(j) Before nay, Gen. and Dat. plur., final a of the stem is lengthened. deva + nay = devā + nay = devānay.
§123. Neuter nouns ending in a (short).
SUFFIXES

|  | Singular. | Plural. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. | $\eta$ | ni, a. |
| Gen. | ssa | nay. |
| Dat. | ssa, āya. | nay. |
| Acc. | $\eta$ | ni, e. |
| Ins. | ina | ehi, ebhi. |
| Abl. | $\bar{a}$, smā, mhā, to. | ehi, ebhi. |
| Loc. | i, smi, mhi. | su. |
| Voc. | (like the stem) | ni, a. |

§124. DECLENSION OF RŪPA (NEUTER), FORM

|  | Singular. | Plural. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. | rūpay | rūpāni, rūpā. |
| Gen. | rūpassa | rūpānay. |
| Dat. | rūpassa, rūpāya. | rūpānay. |
| Acc. | rūpay | rūpāni, rūpe. |
| Ins. | rūpena | rūpehi, rūpebhi. |
| Abl. | rupā, rūpasmā, | rūpehi, rūpebhi. |
|  | rūpamhā, rūpato. |  |
| Loc. | rūpe, rūpasmiy, rūpamhi. | rūpesu. |
| Voc. | rūpa | rūpāni, rūpā. |

## Remarks

(a) ni is essentially the distinctive sign of Neuter nouns in the Nom. Acc., and Voc. plur. in all declensions.
(b) The final vowel of the stem is lengthened before ni.

## EXERCISE

| $\quad$ Decline like rūpa. |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| citta, mind. | sota, ear. |
| mūla, root, price. | veluriya, coral. |
| upatțthāna, service. | ahata, cloth (new). |
| jala, water. | osāna, end. |
| lona, salt. | savana, hearing. |
| vajira, diamond. | sāṭaka, garment. |
| vāta, wind. | pesana, despatch, sending. |
| yotta, rope. | pațṭana, a sea port. |
| yuddha, fight. | paṇna, leaf. |

## Remarks

(a). It will be noticed that neuter nouns in a differ from the masculine in a, in the Nom. sing. and in the Nom. Acc. and Voc. plur.; all the other cases are identical.
(b) In the plur. the Nom. Acc. and Voc. have the same form.
(c) The form in āni, of the Nom. Acc. and Voc. plur. is the most common.
§125. Declension of nouns ending in $\bar{a}$ (long).
All nouns ending in ā are Feminine.
§126.
SUFFIXES.

|  | Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. | - | à, yo. |
| Gen. | āya | nay |
| Dat. | āya | nay |
| Acc. | $\bar{y}$ | $\bar{a}$, yo |
| Ins. | $\bar{a}$ àa | hi, bhi |
| Abl. | āya, to | hi, bhi |
| Loc. | āyay, āya | su |
| Voc. | e | $\bar{a}$, yo |


| Nom. | kaññā | kaññā, kaññāyo. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Gen. | kaññāya | kaññānay. |
| Dat. | kaññāya | kaññānay. |
| Acc. | kaññay | kaññā, kaññāyo. |
| Ins. | kaññāya | kaññāhi, kaññābhi. |
| Abl. | kaññāya, kaññato. | kañn̄̄̄h, kaññābhi. |
| Loc. | kaññāyay, kaññāya. | kaññāsu. |
| Voc. | kaññā, kaññe. | kaññā, kaññāyo. |

## Remarks.

(a) Before to of the Abl. sing. the final vowel, if long, is shortened. So also before $\eta$ of Acc. sing.
(b) The following words all meaning mother have two forms in the Voc. sing: ammā, ambā, annā, tātā.
ammā, ambā, annā, tātā.
amma, amba, anna, tāta
(c) In the Acc. sing. final ā is shortened.

EXERCISE
Decline like kañ̃̃ā:

| saddhā, faith. | medhā, intelligence. |
| :--- | :--- |
| vijjā, science. | pañn̄ā, wisdom. |
| tanhā̄, lust, thirst. | mettā, love. |
| icchā, desire. | bhinkhāa, begged-food, |
| gāthā, stanza, | māā̄, garland. |
| khiḍdāā, play, sport. | pūjā, honour. |
| senā, army. | chāyā, shadow |
| nāvā, boat. | pipāsā, thirst. |
| gīvā, throat. | velā, time. |

§127. DECLENSION OF KAÑÑĀ (FEM.), A VIRGIN
§128. It has been said above (125) that all nouns ending in $\bar{a}$ are feminine; but there are a very few examples of masculine nouns ending in $\bar{a}$. We give below their declension.

|  | Masculine | ding in $\bar{a}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | DECL | OF SĀ (DOG). |
|  | Singular. | Plural |
| Nom. | sā. | sā. |
| Gen. | sassa. | sānay. |
| Dat. | sassa, sāya. | sānay. |
| Acc. | say. | sāne. |
| Ins. | sena. | sāhi, sābhi. |
| Abl. | sā, sasmā, samhā. | sāhi, sābhi. |
| Loc. | se, sasmiy, samhi. | sāsu. |
| Voc. | sa. | sā. |

Remark. (a) the declension above given is according to rūpasiddhi grammar book.
(b) The declension given in the Saddaniti differs slightly:

|  | Singular. | Plural. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. | sā | sā, sāno |
| Gen. | sassa | sāna |
| Dat. | sassa | sānay |
| Acc. | sānay | sāne |
| Ins. | sānā | sānehi, sānebhi |
| Abl. | sānā | sānehi, sānebhi |
| Loc. | sāne | sānesu |
| Voc. | sa | sāā, sāno |

The following are declined like sā:
paccakkhadhammā, one to whom the Doctrine is evident.
gaṇ̣̄̄vandhavā, Arjuna.
mā, the moon.
rahā,* $\sin$.

* [As according to the] Niruttidīpanī, a scholium on moggallānavyākaraṇa, a grammar held in high esteem in Ceylon and Burma.


## Remarks.

Masculine nouns in ā belong to the Consonantal declension, but native grammarians, consider them as stems ending in a vowel.
§129. Declension of nouns in i (short)
Nouns the stem of which ends in $i$ are Masculine, Feminine, and Neuter. They do not form a very numerous class.
§130. Masc. nouns in i (suffixes)

|  | Singular. | Plural. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. | - | $\overline{1}$, yo |
| Gen. | ssa, no | nay |
| Dat. | ssa, no | nay |
| Acc. | y | $\overline{1}$, yo |
| Ins. | nā | hi, bhi |
| Abl. | nā, smā, mhā | hi, bhi |
| Loc. | smiy, mhi | su |
| Voc. | - | $\overline{1}$, yo |

§131. DECLENSION OF KAPI (Masc.), MONKEY.

## Singular.

Nom. kapi
Gen. kapissa, kapino
Dat. kapissa, kapino.
Acc. kapiy.
Ins. kapinā.
Abl. kapinā, kapismā,
kapimhā.
Loc. kapismin, kapimhi.
Voc. kapi.

Plural.
kapī, kapayo.
kapīnay.
kapīnay.
kapī, kapayo.
kapīhi, kapībhi.
kapīhi, kapībhi.
kapīsu.
kapī, kapayo.

## Remarks

(a) The Nom. and Voc. sing. are like the stem.
(b) In the Nom. Acc. and Voc. plur, final i , is changed to a before suffix yo
(c) However final i is sometimes preserved before yo, so that we also have the form kapiyo (rare).
(d) In the plural, before suffixes: nay, hi bhi, su final is lengthened.
(e) Some rare and old forms are sometimes found:
(i) Gen. sing. ending in -e, as: mune.
(ii) Loc. sing. ending in -o, as: ādo, and also
(iii) Loc. sing. ending in -e, as: gire.
(iv) Ins. sing. ending in -ena, as: raysena.
(v) Nom. plur. ending in -no, as: saramatino.
(f) Not seldom, the stem itself is used for almost all the cases in the singular.

## EXERCISE.

Words declined like kapi (masc).

| aggi, fire. | kali, sin. |
| :--- | :--- |
| sandhi, union. | nidhi, a depository. |
| sārathi, a charioteer. | yati, a monk |
| añjali, salutation. | ari, an enemy. |
| bondi, body. | giri, a mountain. |
| ūmi, a wave. | bali, oblation. |
| senāpati, a general. | gahapati, householder. |

Feminine nouns ending in i (short).
§132. SUFFIXES

| Singular. | Plural. |
| :---: | :---: |
| * | $\overline{1}$, yo. |
| $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$. | nay. |
| à. | nay. |
| y. | $\overline{1}$, yo. |
| $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$. | hi, bhi. |
| à. | hi, bhi. |
| $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$, ay. | su. |
| * | $\overline{1}$, yo. |

[In showing a blank entry in the table of suffixes, Duroiselle means to indicate that the unmodified form of the base is used; cf., the following table for the paradigm Ratti --E.M.]
§133.

| (a) DECLENSION OF RATTI (FEM.), NIGHT. |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Singular. | Plural. |
| ratti. | rattī, rattiyo, ratyo. |
| rattiyā, ratyā. | rattīnaŋ. |
| rattiyā, ratyā. | rattīnay. |
| rattiy. | rattī, rattiyo, ratyo. |
| rattiyā,ratyā. | rattīhi, rattībhi. |
| rattiyā, ratyā. | rattīhi, rattībhi. |
| ratiyā, ratyā, | rattīsu. |
| rattiyaŋ, ratyaŋ. |  |
| ratti. | rattī, rattiyo, ratyo. |

Remarks.
(a) There is an ancient Loc. sing. in o: ratto.
(b) An Abl. sing in to, is also found: rattito.
(c) In the Gen., Dat., Ins., Abl. and Loc. sing. a y is inserted between the stem and the suffix ā to avoid a hiatus, (See 27 (ii) Remark 2.); so also in the Loc. sing. before an.
(d) Before ā, of the same cases, final i of the stem may become y by rule 27 (i), a; and as in Pāli there can be no group of three consonants (except ntr, as in antra, etc.) one $t$ is dropped. Hence we get: ratti $+\bar{a}=$ rattyā $=$ ratyā.
(e) Before suffixes, nay, hi, bhi, su of the plural, the i of the stem is lengthened.

|  | (b) DECLENSION OF JĀTI (FEM.), BIRTH. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | Singular. | Plural. |
| Nom. | jāti. | jātī jātiyo, jatyo, jacco. |
| Gen. | jātiyā, jatyā, jaccā. | jātīnay. |
| Dat. | jātiyā, jatyā, jaccā. | jātīnay. |
| Acc. | jatiy. | jātī, jātiyo, jatyo, jacco. |
| Ins. | jātiyā, jatyā, jaccā. | jātīhi, jātībhi. |
| Abl. | jātiyā, jatyā, jaccā. | jātīhi, jātībhi. |
| Loc. | jātiyā, jatyā, jaccā, | jātīsu. |
|  | jātiyay, jatyan, jaccay. |  |
| Voc. | jāti. | jātī, jātiyo, jatyo, jacco. |

## Remarks

(a) For the forms, jaccā and jaccay see rule (74).
(b) Jacco is obtained by the assimilation of y after the elision of final i. (71, 74).
(c) It will be remarked that, whereas in Masc. nouns in $i$ the $i$ of the stem is changed to a before yo, in Fem. nouns it is retained.

EXERCISE
Nouns declined like ratti (fem).

| bhūmi, earth. | keḷi, amusement. |
| :--- | :--- |
| satti, ability. | nandi, joy. |
| patti, attainment. | mati, understanding. |
| tutṭhi, satisfaction. | mutti, deliverance. |
| āsatti, attachment. | vuddhi, increase. |
| dhūli. dust. | ruci, splendour. |
| tanti, a string. | chavi, the skin. |
| gati, going, rebirth. | cuti, disappearance. |
| sati, recollection. | ditṭhi, sight, belief. |

Neuter Nouns ending in i (short).

|  | Neuter Nouns ending in i ( <br> §134 . SUFFIXES. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. | Singular. | Plural. |
| Gen. | - | ssa, no. |
| Dat. | ssa, no. | ni, $\overline{1}$. |
| Acc. | y. | nay. |
| Ins. | nā. | nay. |
| Abl. | nā, smā, mhā. | ni, $\overline{1}$. |
| Loc. | smiy, mhi. | hi, bhi. |
| Voc. | - | su |
|  |  | nī, $\bar{i}$. |


| DECLENSION OF VĀRI (NEUT.), WATER |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Singular. | Plural. |
| Nom. | vāri. | vārīni, vārī. |
| Gen. | vārissa, vārino. | vārinay. |
| Dat. | vārissa, vārino. | vārinay. |
| Acc. | vāriŋ. | vārīni, vārī. |
| Ins. | vārinā. | vārīhi, vārībhi. |
| Abl. | vārinā, vārismā, | vārīhi, vārībhi. |
|  | vārimhā. |  |
| Loc. | vārismiŋ, vārimhi. | vārīsu. |
| Voc. | vāri. | vārini, vārı̄. |

Remarks.
(a) There is also found a Nom. sing. in $\eta$ like the Acc., as, atṭhiy, bone, akkhiy, eye, etc.
(b) As usual, final i is lengthened before ni, nay, hi, bhi and su in the plural.

EXERCISE

|  | Decline like vāri (neut). |
| :--- | :---: |
| atṭhi, bone. | satthi, the thigh. |
| akkhi, eye. | dadhi, milk curds. |
| sappi, ghee. | acchi, eye. |
| chadi, roof. | rūpi, silver. |

§135. Declensions of Nouns ending in ī (Iong)
There are no Neuter nouns ending in $\overline{1}$ (long).
Masculine Nouns ending in $\overline{1}$ (long)
§136.
SUFFIXES.

|  | Singular. | Plural. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. | $\overline{1}$. | $\overline{1}$, no. |
| Gen. | ssa, no. | nay. |
| Dat. | ssa, no. | nā. |
| Acc. | y, nay. | $\overline{1}$, no. |
| Ins. | nā. | hi, bhi. |
| Abl. | nā, smā, mhā. | hi, bhi. |
| Loc. | smiy, mhi. | su. |
| Voc. $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$. | $\overline{1}$, no. |  |

DECLENSION OF DANḌĪ (MASC.), MENDICANT. [Literally, a man with a walking-stick --E.M.]
Singular.
Plural.

| Nom. | dandī | daṇ̣̣ī daṇ̣̣ino |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Gen. | daṇdissa, daṇdino. | daṇdinay. |
| Dat. | daṇdissa, daṇ̣̣ino. | daṇ̣inay. |
| Acc. | daṇdiy, daṇdinay. | daṇḍī daṇ̣̣ino. |
| Ins. | daṇ̣inā. | daṇ̣̣īhi, daṇ̣̣ībhi. |
| Abl. | dandinā, daṇ̣ismā | daṇ̣̣īhi, daṇ̣̣īhi. |
| Loc. | daṇdismin, daṇ̣̣imhi | daṇdīsu. |
| Voc. | daṇ̣̣ī. | daṇdī, daṇdino. |

(a) A Nom sing. in i (Short) is sometimes met with: dandi.
(b) Voc. sing. in ni is also found: daṇ̣ini.
(c) Note that in all the oblique cases of the singular the final i of the stem is shortened before the suffixes.
(d) In the Nom. plur. a rare form in yo is found formed on the analogy of Masc. in i (short) as daṇ̣iyo.
(e) An Acc. plur. in ye is occasionally met with: daṇdiye.
(f) It should be noticed that before no of the Nom. Acc. and Voc. plur. $\overline{1}$ of the base is shortened.
(g) An Acc. sing. in ay with the semi-vowel y developed before it is met with: daṇdiyay.
(h) An Abl. sing. in to is found pretty frequently daṇdito.

EXERCISE

\[

\]

§137. Most Masc. nouns in ī are not pure substantives, they are adjectives used substantively; their true stem is in in, the Nom. sing. being $\overline{1}$. The true stem of daṇḍ $\overline{1}$ therefore is daṇdin. Properly, all these words belong to the consonantal declension.

|  | Feminine Nouns ending in $\overline{1}$ |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | §138. SUFFIXES. |
|  | Singular | Plural. |
| Nom. | $\overline{1}$. | $\overline{1}$, yo. |
| Gen. | $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$. | nay. |
| Dat. | $\bar{a}$. | nay. |
| Acc. | $\overline{1}$. | $\overline{1}$, yo. |
| Ins. | $\bar{a}$. | hi, bhi. |
| Abl. | $\bar{a}$. | hi, bhi. |
| Loc. | a, ay. | su. |
| Voc. | $\overline{1}$. | $\overline{1}$, yo. |

§139. DECLENSION OF NADĪ. (Fem.), RIVER.

|  | Singular. | Plural. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. | nadī. | nadī nadiyo, najjo. |
| Gen. | nadiyā, nadyā, najjā. | nadīnā. |
| Dat. | nadiyā, nadyā, najjā. | nadīnay. |
| Acc. | nadiy. | nadī nadiyo, najjo. |
| Ins. | nadiyā, nadyā, najjā. | nadīhi, nadībhi. |
| Abl. | nadiyā, nadyā, najjā. | nadīhi, nadībhi. |
| Loc. | nadiyā, nadyā, najjā, <br> nadiyan, nadyā, najjay. <br> nadīu. |  |
| Voc. | nadī. | nadī, nadiyo, najjo. |

Remarks. (a) There is a Gen. plur. in ānay, nadiyānay.
(b) In all the oblique cases of the sing, final $\overline{1}$ of the base is shortened; also before yo in the plural.
(c) For insertion of y before suffixes beginning with a vowel, see 27,

Remark 2.
(d) For the forms nadyā, najjā, and najjay see Rules 71, 74.
(4) In the form najjo, yo is assimilated after the elision of final i.

EXERCISE.


Masculine Nouns in $u$ (short)
§141.
SUFFIXES.
Plural
$\overline{\mathrm{u}}, \mathrm{o}$.

| Nom. | - | Plural. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Gen. | ssa, no. | u. o. |
| Dat. | ssa, no. | nay |
| Acc. | y | nay |
| Ins. | nā. | $\overline{\mathrm{u}}, \mathrm{o}$. |
| Abl. | nā, smā, mhā. | hi bhi. |
| Loc. | smiy, mhi. | hi bhi. |
| Voc. | - | su. |
|  |  | $\overline{\mathrm{u}}, \mathrm{o}, \mathrm{e}$. |

DECLENSION OF BHIKKHU (MASC), MONK.

|  | Singular. | Plural. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. | bhikkhu. | bhikkhū, bhikkhavo. |
| Gen. | bhikkhussa, bhikkhuno. | bhikkhūnay. |


| Dat. | bhikkhussa, bhikkhuno | bhikkhūnay. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Acc. | bhikkhuy. | bhikkhū, bhikkhavo. |
| Ins. | bhikkhunā. | bhikkhūhi, bhikkhūbhi. |
| Abl. | bhikkhunā, bhiskhusmā, bhikkhumhā. | bhikkhūhi, bhikkhūbhi. |
| Loc. | bhikkhumhi, bhikkhusmiy. | bhikkhūsu. |
| Voc. | bhikkhu. | bhikkhū,bhikkhavo, |
|  |  | bhikkhave. |

## Remarks

(a) A Nom. and an Acc. plural, in yo are sometimes met with in some words: jantuyo, hetuyo.
(b) Before suffixes o and e, in the plural, $u$ of the stem. or base is strengthened and becomes av. (27 (ii) a).

EXERCISE

| Nouns declined like bhikkhu (Masc.) |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| pasu, goat. | velu, bamboo. |
| bandhu, relative. | bhāṇu, the sun. |
| maccu, death. | ucchu, sugar-cane. |
| bāhu, arm. | setu, bridge. |
| ketu, flag. | katu, sacrifice. |
| pharasu, axe. | ruru, a deer. |
| taru, tree. | hetu, cause. |

Feminine Nouns ending in $u$ (Short).
§142. SUFFIXES.

|  | Singular | Plural |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. | - | ū, yo. |
| Gen. | yā. | nay. |
| Dat. | yā. | nay. |
| Acc. | m. | ū, yo. |
| Ins. | yā. | hi, bhi. |
| Abl. | yā. | hi, bhi. |
| Loc. | yā, yā. | su. |
| Voc. | - | $\bar{u}, y o$. |

§43. DECLENSION OF DHENU (FEM.), COW.

|  | Singular. | Plural. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. | dhenu. | dhenū, dhenuyo. |
| Gen. | dhenuyā. | dhenūnaŋ. |
| Dat. | dhenuyā. | dhenūnay. |
| Acc. | dhenuy. | dhenū, dhenuyo. |

dhenūhi, dhenūbhi dhenūhi, dhenūbhi. dhenūsu. dhenuyo

Remarks.
(a) An Abl. sing. in to is common: dhenuto, jambuto.
(b) A Nom. plur. in o occurs without strengthening of final $u$ but with insertion of $v$ : dhenūvo.
(c) Final $u$ is, in the plural, lengthened before nay, hi, bhi, and su.

EXERCISE

§146. DECLENSION OF CAKKHU (Neut ), EYE.

Singular.
Nom. cakkhu.
Gen. cakkhussa, cakkhuno.
Dat. cakkhussa, cakkhuno.
Acc. cakkhuy.
Ins. cakkhunā.
Abl. cakkhunā, cakkhusmā, cakkhumhā.
Loc. cakkhusmiy, cakkhumhi.
Voc. cakkhu.

Plural. cakkhūni, cakkhū. cakkhuno, cakkhūnay cakkhūnay. cakkhūni, cakkhū. cakkhūhi, cakkhūbhi. cakkhūhi, cakkhūbhi. cakkhūsu. cakkhūni, cakkhū.

## Remarks

There is a form of the Nom. sing. in $y$ cakkhuy.

## EXERCISES.

Words declined like cakkhu, (Neut.)

| dhanu, a bow. | ambu, water. |
| :--- | :--- |
| dāru, wood. | aru, a wound. |
| madhu, honey. | janu, the knee. |
| massu, the beard. | vatthu, a story. |
| matthu, whey. | āyu, age. |
| assu, a tear. | vasu, wealth. |

Declension of Nouns ending in $\bar{u}$ (long).
§146. Declension of Nouns in ū:.
(a) This declension includes Masculine and Feminine nouns only.
(b) The Suffixes are much the same as those of the $u$ (short) declension, and present no difficulty.
§147. DECLENSION OF SAYAMBHŪ (MASC.), AN EPITHET OF THE BUDDHA.

Singular.
Nom. sayambhū.
Gen. sayambhussa, sayambhuno.
Dat. sayambhussa, sayambhuno.
Acc. sayambhuy.
Ins. sayambhunā.
Abl. sayambhunā, sayambhusmā,
sayambhumhā.
Loc. sayambhusmiy, sayambhumhi.
Voc. sayambhū.

Plural.
sayambhū, sayambhuvo.
sayambhūnay.
sayambhūnay.
sayambhū, sayambhuvo.
sayambhūhi, sayambhūbhi.
sayambhūhi, sayambhūbhi.
sayambhū.
sayambhū, sayambhuvo.

## Remarks.

(a) In the Nom. Acc. and Voc. Plur., v is inserted between the suffix $o$ and the stem after the shortening of $\bar{u}$.
(b) Final $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ of the stem is shortened to u in the oblique cases of the singular.
§148. DECLENSION OF VADHU, (FEM.) A WIDOW.
Singular.

Plural.

| Nom. | vadhū. | vadhū, vadhuyo. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Gen. | vadhuyā. | vadhūnay. |
| Dat. | vadhuyā. | vadhūnay. |
| Acc. | vadhuy. | vadhū, vadhuyo. |
| Ins. | vadhuyā | vadhūhi vadhūbhi. |
| Abl. | vadhyyā. | vadhūhi, vadhūbhi. |
| Loc. | vadhuȳ̄a, vadhuyay. | vadhūsu. |
| Voc. | vadhū. | vadhū, vadhuyo. |

Remarks.
(a) As in the Masc., final $\bar{u}$ is shortened in the oblique cases of the sing.
(b) A form in to is also found in the Abl. sing., vadhuto.
(c) In the plural, before yo, final $\bar{u}$ is shortened.
\$149. Stems ending in a diphthong.
All diphthongic stems have disappeared in Pāli; only one such stem remains, it is the word go, a cow.

SPECIAL NOUNS
§160. (i) DECLENSION OF GO (DIPHTHONGIC STEM), A COW

|  | Singular. | Plural. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. | go. | gavo, gāvo. |
| Gen. | gavassa, gāvassa. | gavay gonay, gunnay. |
| Dat. | gavassa, gāvassa. | gavay, gonay, gunnay. |
| Acc. | gavay, gāvay. gavo, gāvo. gavuy, gāvuy. |  |
| Ins. | gavena, gāvena. | gohi, gobhi, gavehi. |
| Abl. | gavā, gāvā, <br> gavasmā, gāvasmā, <br> gavamhā, gāvamhā. | gohi, gobhi, gavehi. |
| Loc. | gave, gāve, gavasmiŋ, gāvasmiŋ, gavamhi, gāvamhi. | gosu, gavesu, gāvesu. |
| Voc. | go. | gavo |

§151. (ii) DECLENSION OF SAKHĀ, A FRIEND. (Sk. sakhi. The stem is irregular. Masc.)
Singular.
Plural.

Nom. sakhā. $\quad$ sakhino, sakhissa

Dat. sakhino, sakhissa.
Acc. sakhānay, sakhay, sakhāray. sakhinā.

Abl. sakhinā, sakhārā, sakharasmā.
sakhāyo, sakhāno, sakhino, sakhā.
sakhārānay, sakhīnay,
sakhānay.
sakhārānaŋ, sakhīnay,
sakhānay.
sakhī, sakhāyo,
sakhāno, sakhino.
sakhārehi, sakhārebhi,
sakhehi, sakhebhi.
sakhārehi, sakhārebhi,
sakhehi, sakhebhi.
Loc. sakhārasmin, sakhārimhi.
Voc. sakha, sakhā,
sakhāresu, sakhesu
sakhāyo, sakhāno, sakhino, sakhā.
sakhi, sakhī, sakhe.

## Remarks

The student will perceive that sakhā has forms belonging to stems in ar and others to stems in in. (See: Consonantal Declension.)
§152. CONSONANTAL DECLENSION.
(a) The Consonantal Declension includes all nouns and adjectives whose stem ends in a consonant.
(b) Nouns the stem of which ends in a consonant, are rather few and special, the majority of the words included in this declension being adjectives ending in vat or mat, and all words ending in a nasal ( n ) being considered as belonging to the Vowel Declension, by native grammarians.
(c) Most of the words of the Consonantal Declension seem to follow two declensions; some suffixes belong to the vowel, and others to the Consonantal Declension.
§153. (i) Stems ending in a nasal (n).
§154. DECLENSION OF ATTĀ (STEM ATTAN), SELF.
(Stem in an., Masc.)

|  | Singular. | Plural. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. | attā. | attāno, attā. |
| Gen. | attano, attassa. | attānay. |
| Dat. | attano, attassa. | attānay. |
| Acc. | attānay, attay, attanay. | attāno, atte. |
| Ins. | attanā, attena. | attanehi, attanebhi. |
| Abl. | attanā, attasmā, attamhā. | attanehi, attanebhi. |
| Loc. | attani, attasmiy, attamhi. | attanesu. |
| Voc. | atta, attā. | attāno, attā. |

Like attā (stem: attan) are declined:
ātumā, self. muddhā, head.
asmā, stone. addhā, road, distance, time.
§155. DECLENSION OF BRAHMĀ (STEM BRAHMAN, MASC.), BRAHMA.

| Som. | Singular. | Plural. <br> brahmā. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| brahmāno, brahmā. |  |  |
| Gen. | brahmuno, brahmassa. | brahmānam, brahmunay. |
| Dat. | brahmuno, brahmassa. | brahmānam, brahmunay. |
| Acc. | brahmānay, brahmay. | brahmāno. |
| Ins. | brahmanā, brahmunā. | brahmehi, brahmebhi, <br> brahmūhi, brahmūbhi. |
| Abl. | brahmanā, brahmunā. | brahmehi, brahmebhi, <br> brahmūhi, brahmūbhi. <br> brahmesu. |
| Loc. | brahme, brahmani. | brahmāno, brahmā. |
| Voc. | brahme. |  |

(a) In the Loc. Sing. we meet with the forms in - smin, mhi: brahmasmin, brahmamhi.
§156. DECLENSION OF RĀJĀ, (STEM RĀJAN MASC.), A KING.

|  | Singular. | Plural. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. | rājā. | rājāno, rājā. |
| Gen. | rañño, rājino, rājassa. | raññam, rājūnay, rājānay. |
| Dat. | rañño, rājino, rājassa. | raññam, rājūnaŋ, rājānay. |
| Acc. | rājānay, rājay. | rājāno. |
| Ins. | rañn̄ā, rājena, rājinā | rājūhi, rājūbhi, rājehi, rājebhi. |
| Abl. | raññā, rājasmā, rājamhā. | rājūhi, rājūbhi, rājehi, rājebhi. |
| Loc. | raññe, raññi, rājini, rājimhi, rājismiy. | rājūsu, rājesu. |
| Voc. | rāja, rājā. | rājāno, rājā. |

(a) When the word rājā is used by itself in a sentence, it follows the above declension, but when it forms the last part of a compound as for instance in dhammarājā, mahārājā, etc., it follows the declension of Masculine nouns in a, like deva.
(b) The forms of the plural seem to point to a base or stem in, u: rāju.
(c) A few nouns the stem of which ends in an, follow the a declension of Masc. nouns like deva; they are:

Vissakamma, the architect of the gods.
Vivattacchaddo, He by whom the veil (of ignorance) is rolled back (from this world).
Puthuloma, a fish.
Yakana, the liver.
Athabbana, the fourth veda, and some others.
§157. DECLENSION OF PUMĀ, (STEM PUMAN), A MAN

| Nom. | Singular. pumā. | Plural. pumāno, pumā. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Gen. | pumuno, pumassa. | pumānay. |
| Dat. | pumuno, pumassa. | pumānay. |
| Acc. | pumānay, pumay. | pumāno, pume. |
| Ins. | pumānā, pumunā, pumena. | pumānehi, pumānebhi, pumehi, pumebhi. |
| Abl. | pumunā, pumānā, pumā, pumasmā, pumamhā. | pumānehi, pumānebhi, pumehi, pumebhi. |
| Loc. | pumāne, pume, pumasmin, pumamhi. | pumānesu, pumāsu, pumesu. |
| Voc. | pumay, puma. | pumāno. pumā. |

## Remarks.

(a)The influence of the a declension Masculine, is clearly discernible throughout.
(b) The word sā a dog, given at (128), properly belongs to this declension; this gives the stem, san, from Sanskrit śvan.

The declension of nouns the stem of which ends in -in, has already been given (130); these words declined like daṇ̣i, (stem daṇ̣in) and rather numerous, form the transition between the pure vowel declension and the declension of consonantal-stems.
§158. (ii) Stems ending in s
§159. DECLENSION OF MANO, (STEM MANAS), THE MIND.

|  | Singular. | Plural. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. | mano, manaŋ. | manā. |
| Gen. | manaso, manassa. | manānaŋ. |
| Dat. | manaso, manassa. | maninaŋ. |
| Acc. | mano, manaŋ. | mane. |
| Ins. | manasā, manena. | manehi, manebhi. |
| Abl. | manasā, manasmā, | manehi, manebhi. |
|  | manamhā, manā. |  |
| Loc. | manasi, mane, <br> manasmin, manamhi. | manesu. |
| Voc. | mano, manaŋ, <br>  | manā, mana. |

(a) It should be borne in mind that mano is never used in the plural, although the forms are given by some grammarians.
(b) The influence of the a declension is here also clearly seen, principally in the plural, of which in fact, all tbe forms are after the a declension.
(c) There is also a Neuter form in ni in the plural: manāni.
§160. Native grammarians give the following nouns as belonging to the manas declension, their stems ending in as:

| vaco, discourse. | tejo, power. |
| :--- | :--- |
| vayo, age. | tapo, heat. |
| ceto, thought. | tamo, darkness. |
| yaso, glory, fame. | ayo, iron. |
| payo, a beverage. | siro, the head. |
| chando, metrics, prosody. | saro, a lake. |
| uro, breast. | raho, solitude, privacy. |
| aho, day. rajo, dust, passion. <br> ojo, splendour; strength.  <br> vāso, cloth, clothing.  | thāmo, strength, vigour. |

## Remarks.

(a) aha, day, in the Loc. sing. has the following forms: ahasmin, ahamhi, ahe, ahu, ahasi, ahuni.
(b) The words: rajo, ojo, thāmo and vāso are included in the manas declension by the Sinhalese grammarians.
(c) The comparative adjectives ending in yo, iyyo, as for instance seyyo, gariyo, follow the manas, declension.
§16l. DECLENSION OF ĀYU (STEM ĀYUS), LIFE.

|  | Singular. | Plural. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. | āyu, ayuy. | āyū, āyūni. |
| Gen. | āyussa, āyuno. | āyūnay, āyusay. |
| Dat. | āyussa, āyuno. | āyūnay, āyusay. |
| Acc. | āyu, āyuy. | āyū, āyūni. |
| Ins. | āyunā, āyusā. | āyūhi, āyūbhi. |
| Abl. | āyunā, āyusā. | āyūhi, āyūbhi. |
| Loc. | āyuni, āyusi. | āyūsu. |
| Voc. | āyu, āyuy. | āyū, āyūni. |

§162. III. Stems ending in ar ( = Sansk re).
§163. DECLENSION OF SATTHā, THE TEACHER (BUDDHA).

## (STEM SATTHAR, SANSK ŚASTR)

Singular.
Nom. satthā.
Gen. satthu, satthussa, satthuno.
Dat. satthu, satthussa satthuno. satthāray, sattharay.
sattharā, satthārā, satthunā. sattharā, satthārā, satthunā. satthari. sattha, satthā.

Plural.
satthāro, satthā.
satthānay, satthārānay, satthūnay. satthānay, satthārānay, satthūnay. satthāro, satthāre. satthārehi, satthārebhi. satthārehi, satthārebhi. satthāresu, satthūsu. satthāro, satthā

## Remarks

(a) The form of the Gen. sing. in $u$ : satthu, is the base employed in the formation of compound words.
(b) Stems ending in ar (Sk. ṛ) have their Nom. sing. in ā as pitar ( = Sk. pitṛ), Nom. sing. pitā; so mātar ( = mātṛ), Nom.sing. mātā. Their base in composition is generally in u.
(c) Before suffix to of the Abl. sing. stems in ar often take the vowel i; as pitito, mātito, and sometimes a base piti, māti is used in composition: pitipakkhe.
(d) Some words whose stem is in ar, follow the a declension, (of deva), for instance: sallakatta (stem sallakattar), a physician; kattara (stem kattarar), a weak person; sota (stem sotar), a hearer.

EXERCISE.
Decline like satthā

| netā, a guide. | nattā, a grandson. |
| :--- | :--- |
| mātā, mother. | pitā, father. |
| jetā, a conqueror. | dātā, a giver. |
| kattā, an agent. | bhātā, brother. |

The words pitā and mātā present some peculiarities.
§164. DECLENSION OF MāTā, MOTHER.(STEM MāTAR) (Sk. MāT³)
Singular. Plural.
Nom. mātā. mātaro, mātā
Gen. mātu, mātuyā, mātyā. mātarānay, mātānay,
mātūnay, mātunnan mātarānay, mātānay, mātūnaŋ, mātunnaŋ. mātaro, matare. mātarehi, mātārebhi, mātūhi, mātūbhi. mātarehi, mātārebhi, mātūhi, mātūbhi. mātaresu, mātūsu. mātaro, mātā.

Remark.
(a) In the oblique cases of the singular, the student will readily recognize the influence of the Feminine declension in the suffixes ā and $\mathfrak{y}$.
(b) There is also found, rarely, a Gen. sing. in ssa: mātussa.
DECLENSION OF PITĀ. (STEM PITAR) (Sk. PITR), FATHER.
Singular.

## Remarks.

In the Dat. and Gen. plur. of mātā and pitā the n is doubled to compensate for the shortening of $\bar{u}$ (long); hence: mātunnay, mātūnay and pitunnay, pitūnay.
§165. (iv) The words ending in: at (or ant), vat (or vant), mat (or mant), are mostly adjectives and their declension will be given in the chapter on Adjectives.

We shall, however, give here the declension of a few nouns, in at or vant.
§166. DECLENSION OF BHAVAŋ, SIR. STEM IN AT, (OR ANT.)

|  | Singular. | Plural. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. | bhavay, bhanto | bhavanto, bhavantā, bhonto. |
| Gen. | bhavantassa, bhavato, bhoto. | bhavatay, bhavantā̄ay. |
| Dat. | bhavantassa, bhavato, bhoto. | bhavatay, bhavantānay. |
| Acc. | bhavantay, bhotay. | bhavante, bhonte. |
| Ins. bhavantena, bhavatā, bhotā. | bhavantehi, bhavantebhi. |  |
| Abl. bhavatā, bhavantā, bhotā. | bhavantehi, bhavantebhi. |  |
| Loc. bhavati, bhavante | bhavantesu. |  |
| Voc. bho, bhonta, bhante. | bhavanto, bhonto, bhante, |  |
|  |  | bhavantā. |

Remarks.
(a) Bhavan is a polite term of address, and it may be translated by "Your Honour."
(b) Native grammarians invariably use it as the sign of the Vocative case.
(c) The Feminine, bhotī, "madam" is regularly declined after the ī declension Feminine, (adī).
§167. DECLENSION OF ARAHAŋ, SAINT. STEM IN AT, (OR ANT).

| Nom. | Singular. arahay arahā. | Plural. arahanto, arahā. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Gen. | arahato, arahantassa. | arahatay, arahantānay. |
| Dat. | arahato, arahantassa. | arahatay, arahantānay. |
| Acc. | arahantay. | arahante. |
| Ins. | arahatā, arahantena. | arahantehi, arahantebhi |
| Abl. | arahatā, arahantā, arahantasmā, arahantamhā. | arahantehi, arahantebhi |
| Loc. | arahati, arahante, arahantasmiy, arahantamhi. | arahantesu. |
| Voc. | arahanta. | arahanto. |

Similarly is declined santa, meaning, a good man.

CHAPTER VI
FORMATION OF FEMININE BASES OF NOUNS AND ADJECTIVES,
Note: This chapter has for the most part been adopted from the Niruttĩdipanī.
§168. From what has been already said (116, d) about grammatical gender, it will be easily understood that the gender of substantives will be better learned from the dictionary. The student will already have remarked, however, that:
§169. All nouns the stem of which ends in a , and the Nom. sing in o , are Masculine.
Examples.

| Stem. | Nom. Sing Masc. |
| :--- | :--- |
| sīha, lion. | sīho. |
| assa, horse. | asso. |
| hattha, the hand. | hattho. |
| dāra, wife. | dāro. |

§170. All nouns the stem of which ends in o, and the Nom. sing. in ay, are Neuter.
Examples.

| Stem. | Nom. Sing. Neuter. |
| :--- | :--- |
| citta, the mind. | cittay. |
| rūpa, an image. | rūpay. |
| bhatta, rice. | bhattay. |
| hita, benefit. | hitay. |
| bhaya, fear. | bhayay. |

§171. All nouns the stem of which ends in $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$, and the Nom. sing. in $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ are Feminine.

## Examples.

| Stem. | Nom. Sing. Fem. |
| :--- | :--- |
| vācā, a word. | vācā. |
| nāvā, a boat. | nāvā. |
| sālā, a hall. | sālā. |
| gāthā, a stanza. | gāthā. |
| pūjā worship. | pūjā. |

Remarks.
The Masculine nouns with stems in $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ (128) are very few in number and rarely met with. Although included by all native grammarians, as has already been remarked, in the Voweldeclension, they properly belong to the Consonantal-declension. For instance, the true
stem of sā, a dog is san (Sanskrit śvan); that of mā, the moon, is mas (Sk. mās); again, the true stem of gaṇḍīvadhanva, Arjuna, is gaṇḍivadhanvan.
§172. All nouns whose stem ends in $\overline{1}$ and the Nom. sing. also in $\overline{1}$ are Feminine.
Examples.

| Stem. | Nom. Sing. Fem. |
| :--- | :--- |
| mahī, the earth. | mahī. |
| sī̄̄̄, lioness. | sīhī. |
| bhisī, a mat. | bhisī. |
| rājin̄̄, a queen. | rājin̄̄. |
| bhūmī the earth. | bhūmī. |

§173. There are also some Masculine nouns whose Nom. sing ends in ī. As a general rule, the Masc. nouns of this class are adjectives used substantively; they properly belong to the Consonantal-declension, and their stems end in -in.
§174. There are no Neuter nouns in ī.
§175. Nouns the stem of which ends in $u$, are either Masculine, Feminine or Neuter. The gender is best learned from the dictionary.
§176. All pure substantives whose stem ends in $\bar{u}$ and the Nom sing, also in $\bar{u}$ are Feminine.

## Examples.

| Stem. | Nom. Sing. Fem. |
| :--- | :--- |
| camū, an army. | camū. |
| pādū, a shoe. | pādū. |
| sassū, a mother-in-law. | sassū. |
| bhū, the earth. | bhū. |
| vadhū, daughter-in-law. | vadhū. |

## Remarks.

## This class is not numerous

§177. Masculine nouns the stem of which ends in $u$ and the Nom. sing. in $\bar{u}$, are properly not pure substantives, but adjectives, sometimes used substantively.

Examples.

| Stem [and associated <br> verbal meaning] | Meaning of the Adjective/ <br> Substantive use. | Nom. sing. Masc. form |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| abhibhū, mastering. | chief, conqueror. | abhibhū. |
| vedagū, knowing the <br> vedas. | a sage, a savant. | vedagū. |
| maggaññū, knowing the <br> Way. | a saint. | maggaññ̄ $\bar{u}$ |

§178. There are no Neuter nouns the stem of which ends in ū.
§179. The above rules, though meagre, will somewhat help the student to discriminate the gender of nouns.
§180. As in other languages, many Feminine substantives are derived from the base or stem of Masculine substantives by means of certain suffixes.
§181. The suffixes used in Pāli to form Feminine bases are:

1. ā, ikā, akā.
2. ì ikinī.
3. nī, inī.
4. ā, nī.

## §182. FEMININE BASES OF SUBSTANTIVES.

§183. Many Feminine bases are derived from Masculine ones ending in a by means of ā and $\overline{1}$.

## §184. EXAMPLES WITH Ā.

Masc. base.
mānusa a man.
assa, a horse.
kumbhakāra, a potter.
kaṭapūtana, a demon.
vallabha, a favourite.

Fem. base.
mānusā, a woman.
assā, a mare.
kumbhakārā, a potter's wife.
kaṭapūtanā, a she-demon.
vallabhā, a favourite woman.

Remarks
Feminine bases formed with $\bar{a}$, are not very numerous, and most of them can also be formed with ī or inī, or ikā

## §185. EXAMPLES WITH Ī

Masc. base.
sīha, lion.
miga, deer.
kumāra, boy, prince.
māṇava, a young man.
sāmanera, a novice.

Fem. base.
sīhī, lioness.
migī, doe.
kumāri, girl, princess.
māṇavī, a young woman.
sāmaṇerī, a novice (fem.)

## Remarks

Feminine bases derived from the Masculine by means of $\overline{1}$ are very numerous.
§186 The Feminine of many patronymics is also formed by means of $\overline{1}$.

| Masc. base. | Fem. base. |
| :--- | :--- |
| Kaccāyana. | kacchāyanī. |
| vāsetṭha. | vasetṭhī. |
| gotama. | gotamī. |

§187. Nouns in ka (mostly adjectives used substantively) form their Feminine in ikā or ikinī.

Masc. base.
nāvika, a boatman.
paribbājaka, a wandering ascetic.
paysukūlika, a monk wearing
robes made of picked-up rags.
kumāraka, a boy.

## §188 EXAMPLES WITH INī.

Masc. base.
rājā, king.
kumbhakāra, potter.
miga, deer.
sīha, lion.
yakkha, an ogre.

Fem. base.
nāvikā, nāvikinī.
paribbājikā, paribbājikinī
paysukūlikinī, paysukūlikā,
a nun wearing, etc.
kumārikā, a girl.

Fem. base.
rājinī, queen.
kumbhakārinī, potter's wife.
miginī, doe.
sīhinī, lioness.
yakkhinī, an ogress.

## §189. EXAMPLES WITH Nī.

Masc. base.
bhikkhu, Buddhist monk.
bandhu, a relative.
pațu, a wise man.
dhammaññū, a pious man.
daṇ̣ī a mendicant.
brahmacārī, one who lives
the higher life.
hatthi, an elephant.

Fem. base.
bhikkhunī, Buddhist nun.
bandhunī, a female relative.
pațunī, a wise woman.
dhammaññunī, a pious woman.
daṇdinī, a female mendicant.
brahmacārinī, a woman who lives the higher life, a religious student.
hatthinī, female elephant.

The suffix $\bar{n} \overline{1}$ is used after Masculine bases ending in $\bar{i}, \overline{1}$, and $u, \bar{u}$. The $\overline{1}$ and $\bar{u}$ of the base are shortened before nī.

## §190 EXAMPLES WITH ĀN̄̄.

§191. A few nouns form their Feminine by means of the suffix ānī.
Masc. base.
mātula, uncle.
vāruṇa, Vāruṇa.
khattiya, a nobleman.
ācariya, a teacher.
gahapati, householder.

Fem. base.
mātulānī, aunt.
varuṇānī.
khattiyānī, a noblewoman.
ācariyānī.
gahapatānī,* householder's wife.
*Note that in gahapati, final i is dropped before ānī.
§192. Some nouns assume two or more Feminine forms.

Examples.
Masc. base.
Fem. base.
atthakāma one wishing to be useful.
kumbhakāra, potter.
yakkha, ogre.
nāga, snake, elephant.
miga, deer.
sīha, lion.
byaggha, tiger.
kākā, a crow.
mānusa, a man.
atthakāmā, atthakāmī, tthakāminī.
kumbhakārā, kumbhakārī, kumbhakārinī.
yakkhī, yakkhinī.
nāgī, nāginī.
migī, miginī.
sīhī, sīhinī.
byagghī, byagghinī
kākī, kākinī.
mānusā, mānusī, mānusinī.
§193. The suffixes used for the formation of Adjectival Feminine bases are the same as those given above (181), that is;-
§194. Of Adjectives the stem of which ends in a, some form their Feminine in $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$, some in $\overline{\mathrm{i}}$.
§195. Adjectives ending in $\bar{i}, \bar{i}$, and $u, \bar{u}$, form their Feminine by adding $n \bar{i}$ (189), before which long $\overline{1}$ and $\bar{u}$ are shortened.
(For examples see Chapter VII. Adjectives.)
CHAPTER VII.
ADJECTIVES

DECLENSION .
§196. Adjectives, like nouns, may be divided into those whose stem ends in a vowel and those the stem of which ends in a consonant.

To the student who has mastered the declension of nouns, that of Adjectives will present no difficulties.

## Declension of Adjectives in a.

§197. Adjectives in a form their Feminine by means of ā mostly; some by means of $\overline{1}$.
§198. The Neuter is obtained by adding $\eta$ to the stem.
§199. The Masculine is declined like deva (122); the Feminine like kaññā (127), and the Neuter like rūpay (124). Feminines in i are declined like nadī (139).
§200. DECLENSION OF BĀLA (STEM), FOOLISH.

| Singular. |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Masculine | Feminine. | Neuter. |
| Nom. | bālo. | bālā. | bālay. |
| Gen. | bālassa. | bālāya. | bālassa. |
| Dat. | bālassa, bālāya. | bālāya. | bālassa, bālāya. |
| Acc. | bālay. | bālay. | bālay. |
| Ins. | bālena. | bālāya. | bālena. |
| Abl. | bālā, | bālāya. | bālā, |
|  | bālasmā, | bālasmā, |  |
|  | bālamhā, | bālamhā, |  |
|  | bālato. | bālato. |  |
| Loc. | bāle, | bālāya, bālāyay. | bāle, |
|  | bālasmin, |  | bālasmiy, |
|  | bālamhi. |  | bālamhi. |
| Voc. | bāla, bālā. | bālā, bāle. | bāla. |
| Plural. |  |  |  |
|  | Masculine. | Feminine. | Neuter. |
| Nom. | bālā. | bālā, bālāyo. | bālāni, bālā. |
| Gen. | bālānay. | bālānay. | bālānay. |
| Dat. | bālānay. | bālānay. | bālānay. |
| Acc. | bāle. | bālā, bālāyo. | bālāni, bāle. |
| Ins. | bālehi, bālebhi. | bālāhi, bālābhi. | bālehi, bālebhi. |
| Abl. | bālehi, bālebhi. | bālāhi, bālābhi. | bālehi, bālebhi. |
| Loc. | bālesu. | bālāsu. | bālesu. |
| Voc. | bālā. | bālā, bālāyo. | bālāni, bālā. |

EXERCISE. Adjectives declined like deva, kaññā and rūpay.

| Stem. | Masc. | Fem. | Neut |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| dūra, far. dūro | dūrā | dūray |  |
| taruṇa, young. | taruṇo | taruña | taruṇay |
| dīgha, long. | dīgho | dīghā | dīghay |
| rassa, short. | rasso | rassā | rassay |
| gambhīra, deep. | gambhīro | gambhīrā | gambhīray |
| pharusa, harsh. | pharuso | pharusā | pharusay |
| sukkha, dry. | sukkho | sukkhā | sukkhay |
| āmaka, raw. | āmako | āmakā | āmakay |
| pāpa, evil. pāpo | pāpā | pāpay |  |
| khema, calm. | khemo | khemā | khemay |

§201. We give here only a few examples of Feminine adjectives formed by means of ī from stems in a.

| pāpa, evil. | pāpo, | pāpī. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| taruṇa, young. | taruṇo, | tarun̄ī. |
| dīpana, illuminating. | dīpano, | dīpanī. |

Remarks.
As said above these adjectives are declined like nadī and therefore present no difficulty. §202 Adjectives In I (short).
§203. Adjectives ending in i are declined like kapi, in the Masculine, and like vāri, in the Neuter. The Feminine formed by means of ni is declined like nadī.
§204. DECLENSION OF BHŪRI (STEM), ABUNDANT.

| Singular. |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom.Gen. | Masculine. | Feminine. | Neuter. |
|  | bhūri. | bhūrinī. | bhūri. |
|  | bhūrissa, | bhūriniyā. | bhūrissa, |
|  | bhūrino. |  | bhūrino. |
| Dat. | bhūrissa, | bhūriniyā. | bhūrissa, |
|  | bhūrino. |  | bhūrino. |
| Acc. | bhūriy. | bhūriniy. | bhūriy. |
| Ins. Abl. | bhūrinā. | bhūriniyā. | bhūrinā. |
|  | bhūrinā, | bhūriniyā. | bhūrinā, |
|  | bhūrismā, |  | bhūrismā, |
|  | bhūrimhā. |  | bhūrimhā. |
| Loc. | bhūrismiy, | bhūriniyā, | bhūrismin, |
|  | bhūrimhi. | bhūriniyay. | bhūrimhi. |
| Voc. | bhūri. | bhūrini. | bhūri. |


| Plural |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. | Masculine. <br> bhūrī, <br> bhūrāyo. | Feminine. bhūrinī, bhūriniyo. | Neuter. bhūrinī, bhūrī. |
| Gen. | bhūrīnay. | bhūrinīnay. | bhūrinay. |
| Dat. | bhūrīnay. | bhūrinīnay. | bhūrinay. |
| Acc. | bhūrī, | bhūrinī, | bhūrinī, |
|  | bhūrāyo. | bhūriniyo. | bhūrī. |
| Ins. | bhūrīhi, | bhūrinīhi, | bhūrīhi, |
|  | bhūrībhi. | bhūrinībhi. | bhūrībhi. |
| Abl. | bhūrīhi, | bhūrinīhi, | bhūrīhi, |
|  | bhūrībhi. | bhūrinībhi. | bhūrībhi. |
| Loc. | bhūrīsu. | bhūrinīsu. | bhūrīsu. |
| Voc. | bhūrī, | bhūrini, | bhūrini, |
|  | bhūrayo. | bhūrinīyo. | bhūrī. |

§205. Adjectives In Ī (long).
§206. A numerous class of Masculine adjectives are derived from nouns by means of suffix i (an adjectival suffix not to be confounded with the Feminine suffix î)(181, 2; 185).

## Examples.

| Substantives. | Adjectives. |
| :--- | :--- |
| pāpa, sin. | pā$\overline{1}$, sinful. |
| dhamma, religion. | dhammī̀, religious, pious. |
| māna, pride. | mān̄̄, proud. |
| soka, sorrow. | sokī, sorrowful. |
| roga, sickness. | rogī, sick. |
| makkha, hypocrisy. | makkhī, hypocritical. |

§207. The Masculine is declined like dandi.
§208. The Feminine is formed by adding ni, before which final $\overline{\mathrm{I}}$ is shortened; it is declined like nadī.
§209. In the Neuter final $\overline{1}$ is shortened to i and is declined like vāri
§210. DECLENSION OF ESĪ, WISHING.

| Singular. |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. | Masculine. esī. | Feminine. esinī. | Neuter. esi. |
| Gen. | esissa, esino. esiniyā. | esissa, esino. |  |
| Dat. | esissa, esino. esiniyā. | esissa, esino. |  |
| Acc. | esiy. | esiniy. | esiy. |
| Ins. | esinā. | esiniyā. | esinā. |
| Abl. | esinā, esismā, esiniyā. esimhā. | esinā, esismā, esimhā. |  |
| Loc. Voc. | esismiy, esimhi. esi. | esiniyā, esiniyaŋ. esinī. | esismin, esimhi. esi. |
| Plural. |  |  |  |
| Nom. | Masculine. esī, esino. | Feminine. <br> esinī, esiniyo. | Neuter. <br> esīni, esī. |
| Gen. | esīnay. | esinīnay. | esinay. |
| Dat. | esīnay. | esinīnay. | esīnay. |
| Acc. | esī. | esinī, esiniyo. | esīni, esi. |
| Ins. | esīhi, esībhi. | esinīhi, esinībhi. | esīhi, esībhi. |
| Abl. | esīhi, esībhi. | esinīhi, esinībhi | esihi, esibhi. |
| Loc. | esīsu. | esinīsu. | esīsu. |
| Voc. | esī. | esinī. | esī. |


|  | Decline like esī |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Masculine | Feminine. | Neuter. |
| ekākī, solitary. | ekākin̄̄, | ekāki. |
| cārī, roaming. | cārinī, | cāri. |
| ekakkhī, one eyed. | ekakkhinī, | ekakkhi. |
| maccharī, niggardly. | maccharin̄̄, | macchari. |
| sūrī, wise. | sūrin̄̄, | sūri. |
| jayī, victorious. | jayin̄̄, | jayi. |
|  |  |  |

§212. These are declined in the Masculine like bhikkhu, in the Feminine like nadī, and in the Neuter like cakkhu.
$\S 213$. The Feminine base is formed by the addition of ni.
§214. DECLENSION OF GARU (STEM.), HEAVY.

| Singular. |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. | Masculine. garu. | Feminine. garunī. | Neuter. garu. |
|  |  |  |  |
| Gen. | garussa, | garuniyā. | garussa, |
|  | garuno. |  | garuno. |
| Dat. | garussa, | garuniyā. | garussa, |
|  | garuno. |  | garuno. |
| Acc. | garuy. | garuniy. | garuy. |
| Ins. | garunā. | garuniyā. | garunā. |
| Abl. | garunā, garusmā, garumhā. | garuniyā. | garunā, garusmā, |
|  |  |  | garumhā. |
| Loc. | garusmiy, garumhi. | garuniyā, garuniyay. | garusmiy, |
|  |  |  | garumhi. |
| Voc. | garu. | garunī. | garu. |
|  | Plural. |  |  |
|  | Masculine. | Feminine. | Neuter. |
| Nom. | garū, garavo. | garunī, garuniyo. | garūni, garū. |
| Gen. | garūnay. | garunīnay. | garūnay. |
| Dat. | garūnay. | garunīnay. | garūnay. |
| Acc. | garū, garavo. | garunī, garuniyo. | garūni, garū. |
| Ins. | garūhi, garūbhi. | garunīhi, garunībhi. | garūhi, garūbhi |
| Abl. | garūhi, garūbhi. | garunīhi, garunībhi. | garūhi, garūbhi |
| Loc. | garūsu. | garunīsu. | garūsu. |
| Voc. | garū, garavo. | garunī, garuniyo. | garūni, garū. |


| Masculine. | Feminine. | Neuter. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| bahu, many. | bahunī, | bahu. |
| sādu, agreeable. | sādunī, | sādu. |
| sādhu, good. | sādhunī, | sādhu. |
| dattu, stupid. | dattunī, | dattu. |

§215. Adjectives in $\bar{u}$ (long)
§216. Adjectives in $\bar{u}$ form their Feminine by means of $n \bar{i}, \bar{u}$ being shortened before it.
§217. They are declined, in the Masc. like sayambhū, and in the Feminine like nadī and in the Neut. like cakkhu.
§218. DECLENSION OF VIÑÑŪ, WISE.

| Singular. |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Masculine. | Feminine. | Neuter. |
| Nom. | viñ̃n̄. | viññunī. | viññu. |
| Gen. | viññussa, viññuno. | viññuniyā. | viññussa, viññuno. |
| Dat. | viññussa, viññuno. | viññuniyā. | viññussa, viññuno. |
| Acc. | viññuy. | viñ̃nuniy. | viñก̃uy. |
| Ins. | viññunā. | viññuniyā. | viññunā. |
| Abl. | viññunā, | viññuniyā. | viññunā |
|  | viññusmā, |  | viññusmā, |
|  | viññumhā. |  | viññumhā. |
| Loc. | viññusmin, | viññuniyā, | viññusmin, |
|  | viññumhi. | viññuniyay. | viññumhi. |
| Voc. | viññū. | viññunī. | viññū. |
| Plural |  |  |  |
| Nom | Masculine. | Feminine. | Neuter. |
| Gen. | viññūnay. | viññunīnaŋ. | viññūnaŋ. |
| Dat. | viññūnay. | viññunīnay. | viññūnay. |
| Acc. | viññū, viññuvo. | viññunī, viññuniyo. | viññūni, viññū. |
| Ins. | viññūhi, | viññunīhi, | viññūhi, |
|  | viññūbhi. | viññunībhi. | viññūbhi. |
| Abl. | viññūhi, | viññunīhi, | viññūhi, |
|  | viññūbhi. | viññunībhi. | viññūbhi. |
| Loc. | viññūsu. | viññunīsu. | viññūsu. |
| Voc. | viññū, viññuvo. | viññunī, viññuniyo. | viññūni, viññū. |
| Decline like viñ̃nū, in the Masculine, Feminine and Neuter. |  |  |  |
|  | niddālū, sleepy. | pabhū, powerful. |  |
|  | mattaññū, temperat | kataññū, grateful. |  |

§219. ADJECTIVES WITH CONSONANTAL BASES.
§220. Adjectives with consonantal bases are of three kinds:
(1) those the stem of which ends in at or ant.
(2) those the stem of which ends in mat or mant
(3) those the stem of which ends in vat or vant.
§221. All the adjectives in mat, mant, and vat, vant, are formed from nouns by means of suffixes mā and vā, (whose original base is mat and vat), which express possession of the quality or state indicated by the noun to which they are affixed.
§222. It must, however, be remarked that vā and mā are not affixed indiscriminately. The following rule is invariable.
(a) Suffix vā is added only to nouns ending in a.
(b) Suffix mā is always added to nouns ending in $i$ and $u$.
Noun.
māna, pride.
guna, virtue.
bhoga, wealth.
bala, strength.
Noun
suci, purity.
sati, mindfulness.
khanti, patience.
hetu, cause.
bandhu, relative.

Adj.
mānavā, having pride, viz, proud.
gunavā, having virtue, viz., virtuous.
bhogavā, possessing wealth, viz., wealthy. balavā, possessing strength,viz., strong.

Adj.
sucimā, endowed with purity, viz., pure. satimā, possessed of mindfulness, viz., mindful. khantimā, endowed with patience, viz., patient. hetumā, having a cause, causal bandhumā, having a relative.
§213. The Feminine is formed by adding $\overline{1}$ to either of the bases viz, mat, mant or vat, vant for instance:

| Stem.  <br> guṇavat. Masculine. <br> guṇavant. guṇavā. <br> jutimat. guṇavantī. | Feminine. <br> gunavatī. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| jutimant. | jutimā. | jutimatī. |

§224, In the Nom., Acc., and Voc. sing. the Neuter is formed by adding $\eta$ after vā and mā, the long ā being shortened ( 4,34 ); and ni to the stem in vant and mant, for the Nom., Acc., and Voc. plural.

| Stem | Masculine. |  | ine. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| jutimant. guṇavant. | jutimā. <br> gunavā. |  | Plural. jutimantāni. guṇavantāni. |

§224. DECLENSION OF ADJECTIVES IN AT OR ANT.
§226. DECLENSION OF MAHĀ (STEM, MAHAT, MAHANT.)

| Singular. |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. | Masculine. mahay, mahanto. | Feminine. mahatī, mahantī. | Neuter. mahay, mahantan. |
| Gen. | mahato, mahantassa. | mahatiyā, mahantiyā. | mahato, mahantassa. |
| Dat. | mahato, mahantassa. | mahatiyā, mahantiyā. | mahato, mahantassa. |
| Acc. | mahantay. | mahatiy, mahantiy. | mahantay. |
| Ins. | mahatā, mahantena. | mahatiyā, mahantiyā. | mahatā, mahantena. |
| Abl. | mahatā, mahantasmā, mahantamhā. | mahatiyā, mahantiyā. | mahatā, mahantasmā, mahantamhā. |
| Loc. | mahati, mahante, mahantasmiy, mahantamhi. | mahatiyā, mahantiyā, mahatiyan, mahantiyay. | mahati, mahante, mahantasmiy mahantamhi. |
| Voc. | mahay, <br> mahā, <br> maha. | mahatī, mahantī. | mahay <br> mahā, <br> maha. |


| Plural. |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. | Masculine. mahanto, mahantā. | Feminine. mahatī, mahatiyo, mahantī, mahantiyo. | Neuter. mahantāni. mahantā. |
| Gen. | mahatay, mahantānay. | mahatīnam, mahantīnay. | mahatay, mahantānay. |
| Dat. | mahatay, mahantānay. | mahatīnam, mahantīnay. | mahatay, mahantānay. |
| Acc. | mahante, mahantā, mahanto. | mahatī, mahatiyo, mahantī, mahantiyo. | mahantāni, mahantā. |
| Ins. | mahantehi, mahantebhi. | mahantīhi, mahantībhi, mahatīhi, mahatībhi. | mahantehi, mahantebhi. |
| Abl. | mahantehi, mahantebhi. | mahantīhi, mahantībhi, mahatīhi, mahatībhi. | mahantehi, mahantebhi. |
| Loc. | mahantesu. | mahatīsu, mahantīsu. | mahantesu. |
| Voc. | mahantā, mahanto. | mahatī, mahatiyo, mahantī, mahantiyo. | mahantāni, mahantā. |

## Remarks

(a) The declension of mahā should be carefully studied, as all the Present Participles, in at and ant, as for instance gacchay or gacchanto, karay or karanto, pacay or pacanto, are declined like it.
(b) We have already given (167) the declension of arahay which, in the Nom. sing, has also the form arahā.
(c) The word santo (167) meaning a good man, is similarly declined; the form sabbhi, however, is also found in the Ins. and Abl. plural.

## EXERCISE

Decline like mahan (stem: mahat, mahant),in the Masculine, Feminine and Neuter. caray, caranto (stem carat, carant) walking, roaming. bhuñjay, bhuñjanto (stem bhuñjaț, bhuñjant) eating. karay, karanto (stem karat, karant) doing. saray, saranto (stem: sarat, sarant) remembering. vasay, vasanto (stem vasat, vasant) living. pucchay, pucchanto (stem pucchat, pucchant) asking.
§227. Declension of Adjectives in mat or mant.
§228. DECLENSION OF DHĪMĀ, WISE. (STEM: DHĪMAT, DHĪMANT).

| Singular. |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. | Masculine. dhīmā, | Feminine. dhīmatī, | Neuter. dhīmay, |
|  | dhīmanto. | dhīmantī. | dhīmantay. |
| Gen. | dhīmato, | dhīmatiyā, | dhīmato, |
|  | dhīmantassa. | dhīmantiyā. | dhimantassa. |
| Dat. | dhīmato, | dhīmatiyā, | dhīmato, |
|  | dhīmantassa. | dhīmantiyā. | dhimantassa. |
| Acc. | dhīmay, | dhīmatiy, | dhīmay, |
|  | dhīmantay. | dhīmantig. | dhīmantay. |
| Ins. | dhīmatā, | dhīmatiyā, | dhīmatā, |
|  | dhīmantena. | dhīmantiyā. | dhīmantena. |
| Abl. | dhīmatā, | dhīmantiyā, | dhīmatā, |
|  | dhīmantā, | dhīmatiyā. | dhīmantā, |
|  | dhīmantasmā, |  | dhīmantasmā, |
|  | dhīmantamhā. |  | dhīmantamhā. |
| Loc. | dhīmati, | dhīmatiyā, | dhīmati, |
|  | dhīmante, | dhīmantiyā, | dhīmante, |
|  | dhīmantasmin, | dhīmatiyan, | dhīmantasmin, |
|  | dhīmantamhi. | dhīmantiyay. | dhīmantamhi. |
| Voc. | dhīmay, | dhīmatī, | dhīmay, |
|  | dhīmā, | dhīmantī. | dhīmā, |
|  | dhīma, |  | dhīma, |
|  | dhīmantā, |  | dhīmanta, |
|  | dhīmanta. |  | dhīmantā. |

Plural.


EXERCISE.
Decline like dhimā. (stem dhīmat, dhīmant), in the Masculine, Feminine and Neuter: gomā (stem gomat, gomant,) a cattle owner. puttimā (stem puttimat, puttimant,) having sons. khānumā (stem khānumat, khānumant,) having stumps.
ketumā (stem ketumat, ketumant,) glorious, victorious lit., having banners. hetumā (stem hetumat, hetumant ) having a cause. cakkhumā (stem cakkhumat cakkhumant,) enlightened
§229. Declension of adjectives in vat or vant.
Remarks.
The declension of Adjectives in vat, vant is the same as that of those in mat, mant; the only difference being that, of course, $v$ replaces $m$ throughout.
§230. DECLENSION OF GUNAVĀ, VIRTUOUS. (stem guṇavat, guṇavant)

| Singular. |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. | Masculine. guṇavā, guṇavanto. | Feminine. gunavatī, guṇavantī. | Neuter. guṇavay, guṇavanta. |
| Gen. | guṇavato, guṇavantassa. | guṇavatiyā, gunavantiyā. | guṇavato, gunavantas |
| Dat. | guṇavato, guṇavantassa. | guṇavatiyā, guṇavantiyā. | guṇavato, guṇavantassa. |
| Acc. | guṇavay, gunavantay. | guṇavatiy, guṇavantiy. | guṇavay, gunavantay. |
| Ins. | gunavatā, guṇavantena. | guṇavatiyā, guṇavantiyā. | guṇavatā, guṇavantena. |
| Abl. | guṇavatā, guṇavantā, guṇavantasmā, guṇavantamhā. | guṇavantiyā, guṇavatiyā. | guṇavatā, guṇavantā, guṇavantasmā, guṇavantamhā. |
| Loc. | guṇavati, <br> guṇavante, guṇavantasmin, guṇavantamhi. | guṇavatiyā, <br> guṇavatiyay, <br> guṇavantiyā, <br> guṇavantiyay. | gunavati, <br> guṇavante, guṇavantasmiy, guṇavantamhi. |
| Voc. | guṇavay, <br> guṇavā, <br> guṇava, <br> guṇavantā, <br> gunavanta. | guṇavatī, guṇavantī. | guṇavay, <br> guṇavā, <br> guṇava, <br> guṇavanta, <br> gunavantā. |

Plural.

| Nom. | Masculine. guṇavantā, guṇavanto, guṇavā. | Feminine. <br> gunavatī, <br> guṇavatiyo, <br> guṇavantī, <br> gunavantiyo. | Neuter. <br> guṇavantāni, guṇavantā. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Gen. | guṇavatay, gunavantānay. | guṇavatīnay, guṇavantīnay. | gunavatay, guṇavantānay |
| Dat. | guṇavatay, guṇavantānay. | guṇavatīnay, guṇavantīnay. | guṇavatay, guṇavantānay |
| Acc. | guṇavante. | guṇavatī, <br> guṇavatiyo, <br> guṇavantī, <br> guṇavantiyo. | guṇavantāni, guṇavantā. |
| Ins. | guṇavantehi, guṇavantebhi. | gunavatīhi, guṇavatībhi, guṇavantīhi, guṇavantībhi. | guṇavantehi, guṇavantebhi. |
| Abl. | guṇavantehi, guṇavantebhi. | gunavatīhi, guṇavatībhi, guṇavantīhi, guṇavantībhi. | guṇavantehi, guṇavantebhi. |
| Loc. | guṇavantesu. | guṇavantīsu, guṇavatīsu. | guṇavantesu. |
| Voc. | guṇavantā, guṇavanto, guṇavā. | gunavatī, guṇavatiyo, guṇavantī, guṇavantiyo. | guṇavantāni, guṇavantā. |

§231. There is another not very numerous class of Adjectives formed from nouns and roots by means of suffixes āvī and vī.
§232. The original stem of āvī and vī is āvin and vin and they therefore belong to the Consonantal declension. $V_{\overline{1}}$ is used after nouns, and āvī after roots.
§233. The Feminine is formed by adding the Feminine suffix nī, before which final long $\overline{1}$ is shortened.
§234. In the Neuter, final $i$ is shortened in the Nom. and Voc. singular; in the plural, before Neuter suffix ni final ī remains unchanged.
§235. vī, like mā and vā, expresses possession.

## Examples.

|  |  | Neuter. |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Noun. | Adj. Masc. | Adj. Fem. | Singular. | Plural. |
| medhā, wisdom. | medhāvī. | medhāvinī. | medhāvi. | medhāvīnī. |
| V pass, to see. | passāvī. | passāvinī. | passāvi. | passāvīnī. |

The declension of these Adjectives presents no difficulty. They are declined in the Masculine like daṇ̣̣ī, in the Feminine like nadī and in the Neuter like vāri.
§236. NEGATIVE ADJECTIVES.
§237. Negative Adjectives are obtained by prefixing to affirmative Adjectives the prefix a and ana.

## Remarks.

a is used before a consonant, and ana before a vowel.
Examples.
dīgha, long.
adīgha, not long.
ākula, turbid. anākula, not turbid, clear.

## COMPARISON.

§238. The Comparison of Adjectives is formed in two ways:
(1) by adding tara for the comparative and tama for the Superlative, to the

Masculine bases of the Positive.
(2) by adding iya or iyya for the comparative, and itṭha, issika for the Superlative, to the Masculine bases of the Positive.
§239. The Comparative and Superlative are declined in the Masculine like deva, in the Feminine like kañña and in the Neuter like rūpay.
Examples.
(1) tara, tama

Positive. Comparative. Superlative.
suci, pure. sucitara, purer. sucitama, purest. pāpa, evil. pāpatara, more evil. omaka, vile. omakatara, viler. hari, green. haritara, greener. pāpatama, most evil. omakatama, vilest. haritama, greenest.

## Remarks.

Of the above Comparative and Superlative bases, the Masculine is, sucitaro, sucitamo; the Feminine, sucitarā, sucitamā, and the Neuter, sucitaray, etc., etc.
[Examples of] iya (iyya), itṭha, \& issika.

| Positive. pāpa, evil. | Comparative. | Superlative. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | pāpīya, more evil. | pāpitțha, most evil. |
|  | pāpiyya more evil. | pāpissika, most evil. |
| khippa, quick. | khippiya, quicker. | khippitṭha, quickest. |
|  | khippiyya, quicker. | khippissika, quickest. |
| katṭha, bad. | katṭhiya, worse. | katṭhitțha, worst. |
|  | katṭhiyya, worse. | katṭhissika, worst. |

§240. With many, we should say most, adjectives, the suffixes of (238-1) tara, tama or of (2) iya, iyya, itṭ̣ha, issika, may be used interchangeably.

Examples.
pāpatara or pāpiya.
khippatara or khippiya.
pāpatama or pāpitṭha or pāpissika, etc.
§241. The comparatives in iya, iyya, are declined like mano (159).
It will be remarked that, before iya, iyya, itțtha and issika, the final vowel of the Positive Adjective is dropped.
§243. Adjectives formed by means of the possessive suffixes, ma (mat), vā (vat) (221), and vī, vin (231), drop these suffixes and the vowel which precedes them, before iya, iyya itṭha and issika.

## Examples.

(a) guṇavā + iyo = guṇa + iyo = guṇ + iyo = guṇiyo. Similarly: guṇ + iyyo, guṇiyyo: guṇ-ițṭha, etc.
(b) medhāvī + iyo $=$ medh $\bar{a}+$ iyo $=$ medh + iyo $=$ medhiyo Similarly: medh-iyyo, medhiyyo; medh-itṭha, medhitṭha, etc.
(c) satimā + iyo $=$ sati + iyo $=$ sat $+i y o=$ satiyo

Similarly: sat-iyyo = satiyyo; sat-itṭha = satitṭ̣ha, etc.
§244. Tara may be superadded to the Superlative ittetha, as, pāpitṭthatara.
§245. The Acc. sing. of most Adjectives is used adverbially.

Adjective.
khippa, quick. sukha, happy. sīgha, swift. manda, stupid.

Adverb.
khippan, quickly.
sukhay, happily.
sīghay, swiftly.
manday, stupidly.
§246. The Absolute Superlative is formed by prefixing ati to the Positive adjective:
atikhippa, very quick, extremely quick, too quick.
atippasattha, very excellent.
atithoka, very little, too little, excessively little.
§247. Some Adjectives form their Comparison irregularly.

| Positive | Comparative. | Superlative |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| antika, near. | nediya, nearer. | nedițṭha, nearest. |
| bālha, strong. | sādhiya, stronger. sādhiyya, stronger. | sādhitṭha, strongest. |
| appa, few. | kaṇiya, fewer. | kanițtha, fewest. |
| yuva, young. | kaniya, younger. | kanitṭha, youngest. |
| vuḍdha, old. | jeyya, older. | jettetha, oldest. |
| pasattha, excellent, good. | seyya, better. | setṭha, most excellent, best. |
| garu, heavy. | gariya, heavier. | garițṭha, heaviest. |

§248. Any substantive is used in the sense of an adjective when it is the last member of a bahubbihi compound (see chapter on compounds, bahubbihi) qualifying a noun or a pronoun expressed or understood.
§249. The noun thus used, whether Feminine or Neuter, assumes the form of the Masculine.

Examples.

Noun.
(i) dassanay, (neut) Looking.
(ii) janghā (fem.) leg.
(iii) paññā (fem.) wisdom,
(iv) sīlay (neut) morality.
(v) hattho (masc.) hand.
as Adjective.
ruddadassano kumbhīlo a fierce-looking crocodile.
dīghajangho puriso, a long-legged man. mahāpañño, having great wisdom, very wise.
sampannasīlo, one who is full of morality: moral, virtuous.
chinnahatthena purisena kato, done by a man whose hands have been cut off.

## CHAPTER VIII.

NUMERALS.
§250. The Numerals are as follows:

| §251. | Cardinals. | Ordinals. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | 1 eka, one. | patthama, first. |
|  | 2. dve, two. | dutiya, second. |
|  | 3. tayo, three. | tatiya, third. |
|  | 4. cattāro. | catuttha, turīya. |
|  | 5. pañca. | pañcatha, pañcama. |
|  | 6. cha. | chatṭha, chatthama. |
|  | 7 satta. | sattha, sattama. |
|  | 8. atṭha. | atṭhama. |
|  | 9. nava. | navama. |
|  | 10. dasa, rasa, lasa, lasa. | dasama. |
|  | 11. ekārasa, ekādasa. | ekarasama. |
|  | 12.bārasa, dvārasa. | bārasama. |
|  | 13. tedasa, terasa, telasa. | tedasama. |
|  | 14. catuddasa, cuddasa, coddasa. | catuddasama. |
|  | 15. pañcadasa, paṇṇarasa, pannarasa. | pañcadasama. |
|  | 16. solasa, sorasa. | solasama. |
|  | 17. sattadasa sattarasa. | sattadasama. |
|  | 18. atṭhādasa ațthārasa. | ațthādasama. |
|  | 19. ekūnavīsati ekūnavīsay. | ekūnavīsatima. |
|  | 20 vīsati, vīsay. | vīsatima. |
|  | 21. ekavīsati ekavīsay. | ekavisatima. |
|  | 22. dvāvīsati. | dvāvīsatima. |
|  | 23. tevīsati. | tevīsatima. |
|  | 24. catuvīsati. | catuvīsatima. |
|  | 25. pañcavīsati. | pañcavīsatima. |
|  | 26. chabbīsati. | chabbīsatima. |
|  | 27. sattabīsati sattavīsati. | sattabīsatima. |
|  | 28. atṭhavīsay. | atṭhavīsatima. |
|  | 29. ekūnatiysati ekūnatiysay. | ekūnatiysatima. |
|  | 30. tiysati, tiysay. | tiysatima. |
|  | 31. ekatiysati. | ekatinsatima. |
|  | 32. dvattiysati. | dvattiysatima. |
|  | 40. cattālīsay, cattārīsay. | cattālisatīma. |
|  | 50. paññ̄̄a, paññāsay. | paññāsama. |
|  | 60. sattethi. | satṭhima. |
|  | 70. sattati. | sattatima. |
|  | 80. asitit. | asītima. |

90. navuti.
91. satay.
92. bāsatay. dvāsatay.
93. sahassay.

10,000. dasasahassay.
10,000,000 koṭi.
navutima.
satama.
bāsatama.
sahassama.
dasasahassama.
koṭima.

Loc. ekesu.
Voc. eke.
ekāsu.
ekā, ekāyo
ekesu.
ekāni.

Remark. The above declension is chiefly pronominal, (See Pronouns, Chapter IX).
§256. DECLENSION OF TAYO, THREE.
Plural. (No Singular.)
§252. (i) CARDINALS
§253. Eka, one, is in the singular very often used in an indefinite sense, meaning: a certain, a; as,

> eko nāviko, a boatman, a certain boatman.
> ekā kumārikā, a princess, a certain princess.

In the plural, it means: some, as,
eke purisā, some men...
ekā mānusini, some women...
§254. The Cardinals, eka, taya and cattāro are declined in the plural in the three genders; eka, alone of course, having singular forms.
§255. DECLENSION OF EKA, ONE.


|  | Masculine. | Feminine. | Neuter. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. | tayo. | tisso. | tiṇi. |
| Gen. | tiṇnaŋ, | tissannay, | tiṇṇay, |
|  | tiṇ̣̣annay. | tissay. | tiṇnannay. |
| Dat. | tiṇṇa, | tissannay, | tiṇṇaŋ, |
|  | tiṇ̣annay. | tissay. | tiṇṇannay. |
| Acc. | tayo. | tisso. | tīṇi. |
| Ins. | tīhi, tībhi. | tīhi, tībhi. | tīhi, tībhi. |
| Abl. | tīhi, tībhi. | tīhi, tībhi. | tīhi, tībhi. |
| Loc. | tīsu. | tīsu. | tīsu. |

§257. DECLENSION OF CATTĀRO, CATURO, FOUR.

\$258. (a) In composition, the base of tayo, is ti, as, tilokahitada, bestowing benefits on the three worlds. (b) Not seldom, tri also is met with: trikumbhanagaray, the "three-HillockCity" (Rangoon) (c) The base of cattāro in composition is catu before a consonant, the consonant being often reduplicated; and catur before a vowel:
catumukho, having four faces.
catuppado, a quadruped.
catuparisay, the four assemblies.
caturangī (catu . r. aggī), having four divisions.
caturasso (catu . r. asso), having four corners, quadrangular.
§259. The Dual has completely disappeared in Pāli; the only two vestiges that have come down to us being dve or duve, two, and ubho, both. But even in these two words, the student will remark that the inflection of the plural has almost entirely superseded that of the dual.
§260. Dve or duve and ubho, are of the three genders, and used in the plural only.

|  | DVE, TWO. | UBHO, BOTH. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. | dve, duve. | ubho, ubhe. |
| Gen. | dvinnay, duvinnay. | ubhinnay. |
| Dat. | dvinnay, duvinnay. | ubhinnay. |
| Acc. | dve, duve. | ubho, ubhe. |
| Ins. | dvīhi, dvībhi. | ubhohi, ubhobhi. <br> ubhehi, ubhebhi. <br> ubhohi, ubhobhi. <br> ubhehi, ubhebhi. <br> ubhosu, ubhesu. |
| Abl. | dvīhi, dvībhi. |  |

§261. (a) The base of dve, duve in composition is dvi and also di, du and dve:
dvijo, twice.born, a brahmin. dvijivho, double-tongued, a snake
dvipo, drinking twice, an elephant. dipado, two-legged, a biped.
diguṇo, two-fold.
duvidho, of two kinds.
dvepakkho, two factions or parties.
(b) dva, dvā are also used as the bases of dve, but chiefly in composition with other numbers:
dvattikkhatuy (dva-ti-khattuy), two or three times.
dvatiysati, thirty.two.
dvāsaṭ̣hi, sixty-two.
dvāvīsati, twenty-two.
(c) bā is similarly used as a base.
bārasa, bādasa, twelve.
bāvīsati, twenty-two.
§262. Pañca, five, is, like dve, of the three genders. It is declined as follows:
Nom. pañca.
Gen. pañcannay.
Dat. pañcannay.
Acc. pañca.
Ins. pañcahi.
Abl. pañcahi.
Loc. pañcasu.
§263. The other numbers up to 18 included, are also of the three genders, and are declined as follows:

| Nom. \& Voc. | Acc. | Gen.\& Dat. | Ins.\& Abl. | Loc. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| six, | cha. | channay. | chahi. | chasu. |
| seven, | satta. | sattannay. | sattahi. | sattasu. |
| eight, | atṭha. | atṭhannay. | atṭhahi. | atṭhasu. |
| nine, | nava. | navannay. | navahi. | navasu. |
| ten, | dasa. | dasannay. | dasahi. | dasasu. |

§264. The numerals from 11 to 18 are declined in exactly the same way.
§265. Here it must be observed that 10 has three forms: dasa, rasa, lasa, the last two being used only in composition with other numerals; lasa is also found.
§266. The numerals from 19 to 99 are Feminine; as they are formed by prefixing the numerals from 1 to 9 to the decades, the decades are here given separately.

| 20, vīsati, vīsa. | 50, paññāsa, paṇṇāsa. |
| :--- | :--- |
| 30, tiysati, tiysa | 60, sațṭhi. |
| 40, cattālīsa, cattālisa, | 70, sattati. |
| cattārisa, | 80 , asiti. |
| tālisa, tālisa. | 90, navuti. |

§267. The numerals ending in i are declined like the Feminines in $i$ (jāti, ratti).
§268. Those in a take in the Nom. sometimes the form in ā, like kaññā, but usually they assume in the Nom. the Neuter form in ay.
§269. The following will serve as a model for the declension of numerals from 20 to 99 :
DECLENSION OF VĪSATI, 20.
Nom, \& Voc. Acc.

1st form.
vīsay, vīsa. visay.
2nd form.
vīsati. vīsatiy.

> Gen. \& Dat. Ins. \& Abl. Loc.

Remark. Numerals in i follow the 2nd form and those in a the 1st form.
§270. To express full decades but one, as 19, 29, 39. etc ekūna (eka, one + ūna, deficient by) is prefixed to the decades, as:
ekūnavīsati, 19, viz., 20 deficient by one.
ekūnatiysa, 29 viz. 30 deficient by one, etc.
§271. The very high numerals as, koṭi, ten millions, pakoṭi, one hundred billions, etc., are declined like vīsati.
§272. Satay 100, sahassay, 1000, lakhay, 100,000, are Neuter substantives, and therefore declined as such on the model of rūpay (124).
§273.
(ii) ORDINALS.
§274. The Ordinals are formed from the Cardinals, from 5 upwards, by means of the suffix ma:

| Cardinal. | Ordinal. |
| :--- | :--- |
| 5, pañca, | pañcama 5th. |
| 6, cha, | chama, 6th. |
| 7, satta, | sattama, 7th. |
| 8, atṭha, | atṭhama, 8th.,etc,. |

§275. Ordinals 5th, 6th and 7th, have two forms:
5th, pañcatha, pañcama.
6th, chatṭha, chațṭhama.
7th, satta, sattama.
§276. From 5 upwards, the Ordinals form their Feminine by means of suffix ī $(181,2)$ and their Neuter is formed in ay. They are therefore declined like devo, nadī and rūpay.

Examples.

| Masc. Nom. | Fem. Nom. | Neut. Nom |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| pañcamo. | pañcamī. | pañcamay. |
| chatṭhamo. | chatṭhamī. | chatṭhamay. |
| sattamo. | sattamī. | sattamay. |
| atṭhamo. | aț̣̂hamī. | atṭhamay, etc,. |

§277. From 11 upwards, however, the Cardinals themselves are not seldom used as Ordinals; so that we have the choice of two forms, and can say either,
ekārasa, 11th, or ekārasama, 11th.
pañcadasa, 15th, or pañcadasama, 15th.
catuvīsati 24th, or catuvīsatima, 24th, etc,.
§278. The first four Ordinals are as follows:
Masc. Nom. Fem. Nom. Neut.Nom
paṭhamo. paṭhamā. paṭhamay
dutiyo. dutiyā. dutiyay.
tatiyo. tatiyā. tatiyay.
catuttho. catutthā. catutthay.

## Remark.

They are consequently declined like deva, kaññā and rūpay.
§279. (iii) ADVERBIAL DERIVATIVES FROM NUMERALS.
§280. Many important adverbs are derived from numerals by means of some suffixes.
§281. By means of suffix dhā are formed adverbs signifying: ways, times, fold and sometimes kinds.

Examples.
ekadhā, once.
dvidhā, in two ways; in two; of two kinds.
tidhā, in three ways; three-fold, in three parts.
§282. The word guna, though not a suffix, is often employed like dhā with the meanings of times, fold. In the sense of times, it generally takes the Neuter form in ay.
Examples.
dasagunan, ten times; or ten-fold. tiguṇay, three times; or three-fold. catuguṇay, four times; or, four-fold.

## Remark.

In the sense of fold, the compound being an adjective, is treated as such and is declined like deva, kaññā and rūpay.
§283. dhā is also used in the same way after a few adjectives: bahudhā, in many ways. anekadhā, in more than one way.
§284. Distributive adverbs are formed from numerals by means of suffix so (Sk. śas).

## Examples.

ekaso, one by one. pañcaso, five by five.
§285. From khattuy, multiplicative adverbs are formed.
Examples.
dvikkhattun, twice.
sattakkhattuy, seven times.
satasahassakkhattuy. one hundred thousand times.
§286. The two following suffixes, from substantives and adjectives ka and ya, form collective nouns and adjectives.

## Examples.

catukka, four.fold, consisting of four, a collection of four things; a place where four roads meet.
dvaya, of two sorts, consisting of two a pair.
dvika, duka, consisting of two, a pair.
tika, taya, tayi, consisting of three, a triad, etc.
§287. There is an adverb, meaning once, at once, never used in composition with numerals, it is sakiy, (Sansk, sakrt). When used before words beginning with a vowel it sometimes takes the forms sakid or sakad.

> Examples.
sakiy passanto, seeing (him) once sakiy yeva, at once, simultaneously.
sakid eva, at once, simultaneously.
sakadāgamī (āgami), returning once only.

CHAPTER IX.
PRONOUNS, PRONOMINAL ADJECTIVES, AND PRONOMINAL DERIVATIVES.

## §288. (i) PERSONAL PRONOUNS.

§289. DECLENSION OF AHAŋ, I.

|  | Of All Genders. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. | Singular. ahay, I. | Plural. <br> mayay, we. amhe, we. |
| Gen. | mama, my, mine. mayhay, my, mine. mamay, my, mine. amhay, my, mine. | amhākay, our, ours. amhay, our, ours. asmākay, our, ours. no, our, ours. |
| Dat. | mama, to me, for me. mayhay, to me, for me. mamay, to me, for me. amhay, to me, for me. me, to me, for me. | amhākay, to us, for us amhay, to us, for us. asmākam, to us, for us, no, to us, for us. |
| Acc. | may, me. mamay. me. | amhe, us, amhākam, us. asme, us. amhe, us. |
| Ins. | mayā, me, by me, | no, us. amhehi, by us. amhebhi, by us no, by us |
| Abl. | mayā. me, from me. | amhehi, from us. amhebhi, from us. no, from us. |
| Loc. | mayi, in, on, upon me. | amhesu, in, on, upon us asmāsu, in, on, upon us. asmesu, in, on upon us. |

## Remark

(a) The singular base of ahay is mad according to Sanskrit commentators; it is properly ma and may. Pronominal derivatives are, however, formed from the three bases: mad, mam and ma, the latter sometimes with the a lengthened: mā (See Pronominal Derivation at the end of the present chapter.)
(b) The form me, of the Gen., Dat., Ins., Abl., Sing., is enclitic; it is never used at the beginning of a sentence.
(c) The form no, of the same cases in the plural is also enclitic, and never used at the beginning of a sentence.
(d) The plural base is amha, or amhad.
§290. DECLENSION OF TVAŋ, THOU.

|  | Of All Genders. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. | Singular. tvay, thou. tuvay, thou. tay, thou. | Plural. tumhe, you. |
| Gen. | tava, thy, thine. tavay, thy, thine. tuyhay, thy, thine. tumhay, thy, thine. te, thy, thine. | tumhākay, your, yours. tumhay, your, yours. vo, your, yours. |
| Dat. | tava, to thee, for thee. tavay, to thee, for thee. tuyhay, to thee, for thee. tumhay, to thee, for thee. te, to thee, for thee. | tumhākay, to you, for you tumhay, to you, for you. vo, to you, for you. |
| Acc. | tavan, thee. <br> tay, thee. <br> tuvay, thee. <br> tvay, thee. <br> tyay, thee. | tumhe, you. tumhākay, you. vo, you. |
| Ins. | tvayā, by thee. tayā, by thee. te, by thee. | tumhehi, by you. tumhebhi, by you. vo, by you. |
| Abl. | tvayā, from thee. tayā, from thee. tvamhā, from thee. te, from thee. | tumhehi, from you. tumhebhi, from you. vo. from you. |
| Loc. | tvayi, in, on, upon thee. tayi in, on, upon thee. | tumhesu, in, on, upon you. |

## Remarks.

(a) The bases are tad and ta (sometimes lengthened to tā, in the singular).
(b) tumha (tumhad), is the plural base.
(c) te like me of ahay, is an enclitic form and never begins a sentence; so is vo for the plural.
(d) vo is also found in the Nom. plural.
(e) lt will be remarked that Pronouns have no forms for the Vocative case.
§291. (ii) DEMONSTRATIVE PERSONAL PRONOUNS.
§292. DECLENSION OF SO, SĀ, TAŋ: THIS, THAT, HE, SHE, IT.
Masculine: so, he, this, that.

|  | Singular. | Plural. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. | so, sa. | te. |
| Gen. | tassa. | tesay, tesānay. |
| Dat. | tassa. | tesay, tesānay. |
| Acc. | tay. | te. |
| Ins. | tena. | tehi, tebhi. |
| Abl. | tasmā,tamhā. | tehi, tebhi. |
| Loc. | tasmiy, tamhi. | tesu. |

§293.
Feminine: sā, she, this, that.

| Nom. | Singular. <br> sā. <br> Gen. <br> tassā, <br> tassāya, <br>  <br> tissā, | Plural. <br> tā, tāyo. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | tisāāy, | tāsay, tāsānay. |

§294.
Neuter: tay, it, this, that.

|  | Singular. | Plural |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. | tay, tad. | tāni. |
| Gen. | tassa. | tesay, tesānay. |
| Dat. | tassa. | tesay, tesānay. |
| Acc. | tay, tad. | tāni. |
| Ins. | tena. | tehi, tebhi. |
| Abl. | tasmā, tamhā. | tehi, tebhi. |
| Loc. | tasmiy, tamhi. | tesu. |

## Remarks.

(a) In the Gen., Dat., Abl., and Loc. singular for the Masc, and Neut, a form from pronominal stem: a, is also used: assa, asmā, asmin in the Feminine too, for the Gen., Dat. and Loc, singular: assā, assay (Loc.),
(b) In the Neuter, the form tad is used mostly in compound words, as
tad ( = tay) karo = takkaro, "doing this", and also before a vowel
(c) It will have been remarked that the stem ta, 3rd personal pronoun (so, sā, tay), is also used as a demonstrative.
(d) ta is the base or stem of so, sā, tay; as above said (Note b), the form tad of the base is also used.
(e) Very often, the above pronoun may be translated as the Definite Pronoun.
(f) It is, too, often used pleonastically with the pronouns ahay and tvay, as are, in fact, most Demonstrative Pronouns; for instance:
so'hay = this I, viz., I.
tassa me (Dat.) = to this me, viz., to me.
sā'yam ( = sā ayay) taṇhā = This longing.
(g) attā self; own (154), is, in its oblique cases, very much used in a reflexive sense, instead of the three Personal Pronouns.
§295. There is a common substitute of so, sā, tay, obtained by replacing $t$ wherever it occurs, by n, for the three genders. Thus we have:

| Masculine. | Feminine. | Neuter. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| nassa = tassa. | nāya = tāya. | nay = tay |
| nena = tena. | nassā = tassā. | nena $=$ tena. |
| nay = tay. | nassāya = tassāya. | nay = tay. |
| nasmā = tasmā. | nassay = tassay. | nasmā = tasmā. |
| nasmin = tasmin. | nāyay = tāyay. | nasmin = tasmin. |
| ne = te. | nā = tā,tāyo. | ne $=$ te . |
| nehi $=$ tehi. | nāhi = tāhi. | nehi $=$ tehi. |
| nesay = tesay. | nāsay = tāsay. | nesay = tesay. |
| nesu = tesu. | nāsu = tāsu. | nesu = tesu. |

§296. The forms with n as above given are generally used when a noun which has been already mentioned, is referred to; as, tay khādāpessāmi nan 'ti, I'll make you eat him (viz., a monkey previously mentioned).

## §297. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS.

## §298. DECLENSION OF ESO, ESĀ ETAŋ, THIS

§299. The student will readily perceive that the above Demonstratives are formed simply by prefixing e to so, sā and tay, They are declined exactly like so, sā, tay.
§300. As in the case of so, sā and tan, so also with eso, esā and etan, the t may be replaced all through by $n$, so that we obtain the forms: enena, enay, enāya, etc., whose declension presents no difficulty whatever. These forms are also used in referring to a noun aleady mentioned.
§301. eso, esā, etay may be translated by "that " sometimes.
§302. The Neuter etad ( = etay) is used in composition before a vowel.
§303. This Pronoun is also used pleonastically with a Personal Pronoun (294, f).
§304. e, is considered as the base of Pronouns ena, eta etc. It is much used in derivation.

DECLENSION OF AYAŋ: THIS; THIS HERE.
§305. Masculine.

|  | Singular. | Plural. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Nom. Gen. | ayay. | ime. |
|  | assa, | imesānay, imesay. |
|  | imassa. | esānay, esay. |
| Dat. | assa, | imesānay, imesay. |
|  | imassa. | esānay, esay. |
| Acc. | imay. | ime. |
| Ins. | anena, | imehi, imebhi, |
|  | iminā. | ehi, ebhi. |
| Abl. | asmā, imasmā, | imehi, imebhi, |
|  | imamhā. | ehi, ebhi. |
| Loc. | asmiy, imasmiy, | imesu, esu. |
|  | imamhi. |  |


(a) Some native grammarians also give amu for the Nom. Sing. in the Masculine and Feminine.
(b) It will be noticed that the stem is amu; in the Neuter, there are a few forms on the stem adu.
(c) To express: such, so and so ka is added to the stem, as, asuka, amuka
(d) The forms asuka and amuka are often used to express some contempt.
(e) These two forms have in the plural Masc. and Neut acc. asuke, amuke.
§311. RELATIVE PRONOUNS
DECLENSIONS OF YO, YĀ, YAŋ.
§312. Masculine yo who; he who; whoever; what,

|  | Singular. | Plural. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. | yo. | ye. |
| Gen. | yassa. | yesay. |
| Dat. | yassa. | yesay. |
| Acc. | yay. | ye. |
| Ins. | yena. | yehi, yebhi. |
| Abl. | yasmā, yamhā. | yehi, yebhi. |
| Loc. | yasmiy, yamhi. | yesu. |

§313. Feminine, yā, she; she who; whoever; what.

Singular.

| Nom. | yā. | yā, yāyo. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Gen. | yāya, yassā. | yāsay. |
| Dat. | yāya, yassā. | yāsay. |
| Acc. | yan. | yā, yāyo. |
| Ins. | yāāa. | yāhi, yābhi. |
| Abl. | yāaa. | yāhi, yābhi. |
| Loc. | yāyay, yassay. | yāsu. |

§314. Neuter, yay, it; which; that which

|  | Singular. | Plural. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. | yan, yad. | yāni. |
| Gen. | yassa. | yesay. |
| Dat. | yassa. | yesay. |
| Acc. | yay, yad. | yāni. |
| Ins. | yena. | yehi, yebhi. |
| Abl. | yasmā, yamhā. | yehi, yebhi. |
| Loc. | yasmiy, yamhi. | yesu. |

(a) For the sake of greater emphasis, the Personal Pronouns, and also so ayay and eso are used pleonastically with yo.
(b) Yo is used with koci (323), in the three Genders as yo koci, yena kenaci, yay kiñci, etc., both pronouns together meaning: whosoever, whoever, whatever, anyone, anything, etc.
(c) The form yad of the Neuter singular, is used before vowels and in composition
(d) The base of yo is ya.
§315. INTEROGATIVE PRONOUNS.
DECLENSION OF KO, KĀ, KIŋ.
§316. Masculine, ko, who ? what?

|  | Singular. | Plural. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Nom. | ko. | ke. |
| Gen. | kassa, kissa. | kesay, kesānay. |
| Dat. | kassa, kissa. | kesay, kesānay. |
| Acc. | kay. | ke. |
| Ins. | kena. | kehi, kebhi. |
| Abl. | kasmā, kamhā. | kehi, kebhi. |
| Loc. | kasmiy, kamhi, | kesu |
|  | kismiy, kimhi. |  |
|  |  |  |
|  | Feminine, kā, who ? what? $?$ |  |
| Nom. | Singular. | Plural. |
| Gen. | kāya, kassā. | kā, kāyo. |
| Dat. | kāya, kassā. | kāsay, kasānay. |
| Acc. | kay. | kāsay, kasānay. |
| Ins. | kāya. | kā, kāyo. |
| Abl. | kāya. | kāhi, kābhi. |
| Loc. | kāya, kassā, | kāhi, kābhi. |
|  | kāyay, kassay. | kāsu. |
|  |  |  |

§318.

|  | Neuter, kiy, what? |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Singular. |  |  |
| Nom. | kiy. | Plural. |
| Gen. | kissa, kassa. | kāni. |
| Dat. | kissa, kassa. | kesay, kesānay. |
| Acc. | kiy. | kesay, kesānay. |
| Ins. | kena. | kāni. |
| Abl. | kasmā, kamhā. | kehi, kebhi. |
| Loc. | kasmiy, kamhi, <br> kismiy, kimhi. | kehi, kebhi. |
|  |  |  |

## Remarks.

(a) The base of ko assumes several forms: ka, ku (kud), ki (kid).
(b) kud and kid are used before vowels and in composition.
§319. INDEFINITE PRONOUNS.
§320. The Indefinite Pronouns are formed by adding ci (cid), api and cana, to the Interrogative Pronouns.
§321. ci, or, before a vowel cid is the suffix most commmonly used to form these pronouns.
§322. canay = cana, is also found; both are sometimes shortened to ca.
DECLENSION OF KOCI, KĀCI AND KI,,CI.
§323.
Masculine koci, any, some, anyone.
Singular. Plural.
Nom. koci. keci.

Gen. kassaci. kesañci.
Dat. kassaci. kesañci.
Acc.
Abl. kasmāci. kehici.
Loc. kasmiñci, kamhici, kesuci.
§324.
Feminine kāci, any, some, anyone.
Singular.
$\begin{array}{lll}\text { Nom. } & \text { kāci. } & \text { kāci, kāyoci. } \\ \text { Gen. } & \text { kāyaci, kassāci. } & \text { kāsañci. }\end{array}$
Dat. kāyaci, kassāci. kāsañci.
Acc. kañci. kāci, kāyoci
Ins. kāyaci. kāhici.
Abl. kāyaci. kāhici.
Loc. kāyaci, kāyañci. kāsuci. kassañci.
§325.
Neuter, kiñci, any, some, anything.
The Neuter is declined like the Masculine, except:
Singular. Plural.
Nom. \& Acc. kiñci kānici.
§326. By placing na, not, before the Indefinite Pronouns we get the meanings: none, no one, nothing, etc.
§327. ci, cana may also be placed after adverbs, to give them an indefinite sense, as: kuhiy, where? kudā, when? kadā, when? kuhiñci, kuhiñcanay, anywhere kudācanay, ever, sometimes.
kadāci, sometimes.

## OTHER PRONOUNS.

§328. attā, self, own, oneself (154), is very much used as a Reflexive Pronoun; so also are: ātumā, self, own, etc., which is but another form of attā, and very rarely used in Buddhist writings: tuma, having the same meaning, is still less frequent.
§329. In composition the bases are: atto, atuma and tuma.
§330. sayay. oneself, by oneself and sāmay self, both indeclinable, are often used as Reflexive Emphatic Pronouns.
§331. attā, ātumā and tuma are properly nouns used pronominally.
§332. A few other nouns are thus used pronominally; the following are the most usual.
§333. bhavay, lord, sir, (166). It is a very respectful term of address, used for the Second Pers. Pronoun; the verb is put in the Third Person.
§334. Ayya, lord, master; a Buddhist monk; it is used chiefly in addressing Buddhist monks, and is then often used with bhante (166).
§335. āvuso, friend, brother; is also used as a pronoun sometimes. It is used mostly by senior monks to junior monks, āvuso is indeclinable.

## PRONOMINAL DERIVATIVES

Possessive Pronouns.
§336. A few Possessive Pronouns are formed from the bases of the first and second Personal Pronouns by means of suffixes: īya and aka, the vowel of the bases being sometimes lengthened before aka.

Base
Possessive Pronoun.
$\operatorname{mad}(289$, a) madīya, mine, my, my own.
$\operatorname{mam}(289$, a) māmaka, mamaka, mine, my, my own. amhad (289, d)
amhadiya, ours, our own
$\operatorname{tad}(290, ~ a)$ tadiya, thine, thy, thy own, tava (Gen.) tāvaka, thine, thy, thy own.

## Remarks.

(a) āmaka, mamaka, as well as tāvaka, may be derived from the singular genitive form by the addition of ka.
(b) The above Pronouns are declined like deva, kaññā and rūpay.
§337. A great number of adjectives and adverbs are derived from pronominal bases by means of suffixes, the principal of which are the following:
(a) di (dī), disa, disaka, risa, tara, tama, ka.
(b) dā, dāni, tra, tha, thā, thay, ti, to, va(vat), rahi, hay, ha, hiy, va, vay, di.

The former (a) are used to form adjectives, and the latter, (b), adverbs.
The following are the principal derivatives by means of the above suffixes.
§338. ADJECTIVES.
§339. di (dī), disa, disaka and risa, express likeness, resemblance; the vowel of the stem being lengthened before them.

## Examples.

| Pronominal base. <br> ma (289, a) | Adjective. mādī, mādisa, mārisa, like me,such as I. |
| :---: | :---: |
| ta (290, a) | tādi, tādisa, tādisaka, like him, like that, such |
| amha (289, d) | amhādisa, like us. |
| tumha (290, b) | tumhādisa, like you. |
| i (307, a) | ìdī, îdisa, îrisa, ìdisako, like this, such as this. |
| e (304) | edī, edisa, erisa, like this, such as this. |
| eta $(298,302)$ | etādisa, etārisa, such as this or that, such. |
| ki ( $318, \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{b}$ ) | kīdī, kīdisa,kīrisa, like what? of what kind? |

§340. The suffix dikkha, has the same meaning as disa, etc. It is obtained by assimilation from the Sanskrit dṛkṣa
Hence we have also the forms:
tādikkha = tādisa
kīdikkha = kīdisa,
edikkha = edisa,
īdikkha = īdisa. etc,
§341. In edi, edisa, etc., the stem i is strengthened (105), in īdisa, etc., it is merely lengthened (19).
§342. Tara and tama, which are used for the comparison of adjectives (238), are also added to the interogative stem to form Pronominal Adjectives which, in meaning, differ but little from the single stem. Hence we have:

## katara, which? what?

katama, which? what?
§343. Some adjectives assume a rather anomalous form; such are, for instance: kittaka, tattaka, yattaka, ettaka, etc. A glance will suffice to show that they are formed on pronominal bases: ya, eta, ki, (ka), etc. The difficulty is to account (for most of them) for the double tt . It is obvious these adjectives were formed by adding the adjectival suffix ka to the Adverbial Instrumentive in tā (from vat, vant: cf., Sk. tāvātā from tāvat; yāvatā from yāvat). The Pāli forms are simply contractions from the Sanskrit forms; as: tāvatā $+\mathrm{ka}=$ tāvatāka: the loss of medial va being compensated by the doubling of the last tā; the ā being shortened before ka, and the ā of the first tā as well, according to euphonic laws. So that:

> kittaka, how much ? How many ? How great?
> kittaka, = kīvatāka.
> ettako, so great, so much, so many.
> ettako, = etāvatāka.
> yattaka, however much; however big or large.
> yattaka, = yāvatāka.
> tattaka, as many, as great, as big or large.
> tattaka, = tāvatāka.
> But see also such Sk. forms as: iyattaka (i-yad-ta-ka); kiyattaka (ki-yad-ta-ka).

The form etta = ettaka, may be accounted for by the further dropping of final ka, the adverb etto, thence, is probably a contracted form etato (Abl. of etan); in ettavatā, = etāvat, the consonant of the base is doubled.
§344. (b) Adverbial Derivatives.
Adverbial derivatives from pronominal bases constitute a large and useful class of words.
The principal suffixes used to form these adverbs have been given above (337, b). We will give here a few examples of such formation.
§345. dā, dāni, rahi express time.

## Examples.

| Pronominal base. | Adverb. |
| :--- | :--- |
| ka $(318$, a) | karahi, kadā, when. |
| $\mathrm{i}(307$, a) | idāni, now; at this time. |
| ta $(290$, a) | tarahi, tadā, tadāni, then; at that time. |
| eta $(298), 302)$ | etarahi. now. |

§346. to, tra, tha, dha, ha, hay, hiy, form adverbs of place. Before a short vowel the $t$ of tha is doubled.

Examples.
ka, ku (318, a)
ya ( $314, \mathrm{~d}$ )
ya
e(304.)
a $(307$, a)
ta (290, a)
Pronominal base.
ta
i (307, a)
i
eta $(298,302)$
Adverb.
kattha, kutra, kuttha, kahay, kuhay, kuhiy, where? whither? wherein? in what place? yatra, yattha, where, wherein, whither. yato, from what.
ettha, here, herein
atra, attha, here.
tattha, tatra, tahay, tahiy, there, thither. Adverb.
tato, thence, from that place.
iha, idha, here in this place.
ito, hence, from this place.
etto, through etato (343), hence.
§347. thā, va, vay, thay, ti, form adverbs of manner.
Examples.

| Pronominal base. | Adverb. |
| :--- | :--- |
| ta | tathā, thus, so, like that. |
| ka | kathay, how? |
| i | itthay, thus, in this manner. |
| i | iva, like this, as, as it were. |
| i | iti, thus, in this manner. |
| e | eva, evay, so, just so. |
| ya | yathā, as, like. |

§348. Another suffix va, from vat, ( = Sk. vat), forms adverbs of time and cause from the Pronominal bases ta, ya, ki. The final $t$ of vat is dropped according to the phonetic laws obtaining, in Pāli, which do not suffer any consonant to remain at the end of a word, except $\eta$; before a vowel however, the final $t$ is revived in the form of a $d$; as for instance: tāva; but; tāvad eva.

Pronominal base.
ya
ta

Adverb.
yāva, until; as long as; in order that.
tāva, so long, still, yet.

Remarks.
Final a of the base is lengthened before va (vat), which, as we have seen already, (219), forms adjectives from nouns.

The Abl. sing. suffix tā, is also added to such forms as the above.
Examples.
yāvatā, as far as, because.
tāvatā, so far, to that extent, on that account.
From other pronominal bases we have:

| Pronominal base. | Adverb. |
| :--- | :--- |
| eta (298) | ettāvatā, to that extent, so far, thus. |
| ki $(318, a)$ | kittāvatā, to what extent? how far? |

§349. It has been seen that by adding ka to these forms we obtain adjectives of cognate meaning.
§350. The suffix di, expressing condition, is found only in yadi, if.
§351. The suffix ti, is found in: kati, how many? yati, as many, and tati, so many.

> ADJECTIVES DECLINED PRONOMINALLY.
§353. A few adjectives take the pronominal declension. They are:
katara, which ? what? añña, other. para, distant, other. uttara, upper, higher. adhara, lower, inferior amuka, so and so, such. (310, c) pubba, first, former.

CHAPTER X.
VERBS.
§354. Conjugation, or the inflection of verbs, consists in making the verbal root undergo certain changes in form, by the addition to it of certain prefixes and terminations to show the difference of Voice, of Tense, of Mode, of Person, and of Number.
§355. There are two voices:
(1) The Active, called in Pāli: parassapada (lit. a word for another) and
(2) The Reflective in Pāli called attanopada (lit. a word for one's self).
§356. The Active Voice, or parassapada may be said to be used, when the fruit or consequence of the action; expressed by the verb passes on to another person or thing other than the subject or agent; the Reflective Voice or attanopada, is used when the fruit
or the consequence expressed by the verb accrues to no one else but to the the agent. The Reflective voice merely implies that the agent has the ability to do that action or suffer that state which is denoted by the Root.
§357. It must here be remarked that the Reflective Voice has lost very much of its importance, and that the distinction between Active and Reflective has been almost if not altogether effaced, and that the choice between the Active or Reflective is mostly determined now by metrical exigencies. It therefore follows the Reflective Voice or the "Middle Voice," as it is also called, is confined to poetry, and is but rarely found in prose.
§358. There are six Tenses:
(1) The Present; and its preterite.
(2) The Imperfect; used originally to express a definite past.
(3) The Aorist, expressing time recently past. This is now the only true past tense in Pāli, and is very extensively used.
(4) The Perfect, originally an indefinite past. This tense is of very rare occurrence.
(5) The Future, expressing future time in general and its preterite.
(6) The Conditional, expressing future time relatively to something that is past, and an action unable to be performed on account of some difficulty in the way of its execution.
§359 There are three Modes of the Present Tense:
(1) The Indicative.
(2) The Imperative.
(3) The Optative.
§360. The Present, the Perfect and the Future Tenses, have each a Participle, called after them:
(1) The Present Participle.
(2) The Perfect Participle.
(3) The Future Participle.

## Remarks

The Perfect Participle, mostly formed from the root, is principally of past and passive meaning; sometimes also of Neuter meaning.
§361. There is also a Participle of Necessity, also called Future Passive Participle and Potential Participle, which is but a Verbal Adjective.
§362. According to the Base on which they are formed the Present and the Future Participles may be active or Passive in sense.
§363. There are two Verbal Nouns:
(1) The Infinitive, in the Accusative Case-form; sometimes (rarely), in the Dative Case-form; which has nothing to do with the Conjugation and the Tense Systems; and has the sense of a regular infinitive.
(2) A Gerund so-called, which is but the Case-form of a derivative noun having the force of an absolute participle.
§364. There are two Numbers: the Singular and the Plural.
§365. There are three Persons: the First, Second and Third Persons
§366. From what has been said above, it will be seen that the tenses group themselves into four well defined classes or systems.
(1) The Present System, composed of:
(a) The Present Indicative, and its preterite.
(b) The Imperfect.
(c) The Present Imperative.
(d) The Present Optative.
(e) The Present Participle.
(2) The Aorist System, composed of:
(a) The Aorist Tense only.
(3) The Perfect System, comprising:
(a) The Perfect Tense.
(b) The Perfect Participle.
(4) The Future System composed of:
(a) The Future Tense.
(b) The Conditional.
(c) The Future Participle.
§367. There is a division of the tenses, more fictitious than real, into "Special Tenses" and "General Tenses". From such a division, one would be inclined to think that the former are formed on a special base or modified form of the root, and the latter, therefore, from the root itself. But such in fact is not the case, for it will later on be, remarked that the special and the general tenses not seldom interchange their bases.
§368 As, however the Present System is by far the most important, and as it is made the basis of the different Conjugations or Classifications of Verbs, we will in the next section explain the formation of the several stems or bases of the Present System (otherwise called "Special Tenses") of which there are ten, divided into Seven Conjugations.
These bases are in consequence called "Special Bases."
§369. The Conjugation of Verbs is furthermore divided into Primitive and Derivative Conjugations.

## (A) PRIMITIVE VERBS.

Formation of the special bases of the Present System.

## Conjugation.

§370. The verbs of the First Conjugation form the Present stem or base in four ways, as follows:
(1) The roots end in a Consonant, and, to form the base or stem, simply add A. Examples.

| Roots. | Bases. |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{\text { pac, to cook. }}$ | paca. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ labh, to obtain. |  |
| $\sqrt{\text { mar, to die. }}$ | labha. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ rakkh, to keep, guard. |  |
| $\sqrt{\text { yāc, to entreat beg. }}$ |  |
| $\sqrt{\text { vad, to tell, say. }}$ | rakkha. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ tar, to cross. | yāca. |
| $\sqrt{\text { jjīv, to live. }}$ | vada. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ bhar, to carry. | tara. |
|  | jīva. |
|  | bhara. |

§371. To this division belong those roots which, ending in a consonant preceded by i or $u$, sometimes do, and sometimes do not strengthen the vowel $(i, u)$.

## Examples.

(Without Strengthening.)

| Roots. | Bases. |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ tud, to know, destroy. | tuda. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ phus, to touch. | phusa. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ likh, to write. | likha. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ nud, to remove. | nuda. |


| (With Strengthening). |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Roots. | Bases. |
| gup, to keep, watch. | gopa. |
| subh, to shine, be beautiful. | sobha. |

(2) The roots of this division do not take the conjugation sign a: the personal endings of the tenses are added directly to the root.

## Examples.

| Roots. | Bases. |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\sqrt{\text { yā, }}$ to go. | yā |
| $\sqrt{\text { vā, to blow. vā }}$ |  |
| $\sqrt{ }$ țhā, to stand. | țhā |
| $\sqrt{ }$ khyā, to tell ( with prefix $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ ). | khyā |
| $\sqrt{ }$ brū, to speak. | brū. |

(a) To this class may be said to belong the roots ending in $\mathrm{i}, \overline{1}$ or u , u which, when a is added
to them, do not take their semi-vowel substitute, but are merely gunated (109, 104-107).

## Examples.

| Roots. | Bases. |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ nī, to lead. | ne (or naya) (3rd Division). |
| $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{ji}$, to conquer. | je (or java) (3rd Division). |
| $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{hu}$, to be. | ho. |
| $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{ku}$, to sound. | ko (or kava) (3rd Division). |

## Remarks.

(b) To these transformed roots, which at first sight appear to be pure roots, the personal endings are added, as after the roots: yā, vā, ṭhā, etc., (2nd Division).
(c) So that these roots assume two special bases: one in e or aya, and one in o or ava, according as the last vowel is $\mathrm{i}, \overline{\mathrm{i}}$ or $\mathrm{u}, \overline{\mathrm{u}}$.
(3) The roots of this division end in $\bar{i}, \bar{i}$ or $u, \bar{u}$ which, before the conjugational sign a , are respectively changed to ay and av (103-110).

## Examples.

| Roots. |  | Bases. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\sqrt{ }$ nī, to lead, guide. | $(\sqrt{ } \mathrm{n} \overline{1}+\mathrm{a}=)$ | naya. |
| $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{ji}$, to conquer. | $(\sqrt{ } \mathrm{ji}+\mathrm{a}=)$ | jaya. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ bhū, to be. | $(\sqrt{ } \mathrm{bh} \overline{\mathrm{u}}+\mathrm{a}=)$ bhava. |  |
| $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{ku}$, to make a sound. | $(\sqrt{ } \mathrm{ku}+\mathrm{a}=)$ | kava. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ khi, to govern. | $(\sqrt{ } \mathrm{khi}+\mathrm{a}=$ ) | khaya. |

(4) The verbs of the Fourth division of the First Cojugation form their special bases by reduplicating the root.

|  | Examples. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Roots. |  | Bases. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ thā, to stand. |  | titṭhā. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ dā, to give. |  | dadā |
| $\sqrt{ }$ dhā, to hold. |  | dadhā |
| $\sqrt{\text { ha, to forsake. }}$ |  | jahā. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ hu, to sacrifice. |  | juho. |

These retain the long ā before the personal endings of the present and of the Imperative.
§372. The Rules of Reduplication are as follows:
(1) Reduplication consists in the doubling of the first consonant in a root together with a vowel that follows it. If the root begins with a vowel, that vowel alone is reduplicated.
(2) A gutteral is reduplicated by its corresponding palatal.
(3) An unaspirate is always reduplicated by an unaspirate (See chart para 9) which means that an unaspirate is reduplicated by itself.
(4) The initial $h$ of a root, is reduplicated by $j$.
(5) An aspirate is reduplicated by its unaspirate.
(6) $v$ is generally reduplicated by $u$
(7) A long vowel is shortened in the reduplicated syllable. That is:
(a) a or ā takes a in reduplication, and sometimes:
(b) i or ī takes i.
(c) $u$ or $\bar{u}$ takes $u$ but sometimes $a$.
(d) $i$ is occasionally changed to $e$.
(e) $u$ is changed to $o$, sometimes.
(f) a of the root, following the first consonant, is sometimes lengthened to $\bar{a}$.

Simple Roots.
$\sqrt{ }$ dhā, to hold.
$\sqrt{ }$ dā, to give.
$\sqrt{ }$ kit, to cure.
$\sqrt{ }$ gam, to go.
$\sqrt{ }$ khan, to dig.
$\sqrt{ }$ har, to bear.
$\sqrt{ }$ has, to laugh.
$\sqrt{ }$ budh, to know.
$\sqrt{ }$ suc, to mourn.
$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{pac}$, to cook.
$\sqrt{ }$ chid, to cut.

Examples.

|  | Reduplicated Bases. |
| :--- | :--- |
| (Rule 372, 5, 7-a) | dadhā. |
| (Rule 372, 3, 7-a) | dadā. |
| (Rule372, 2, 7-b; 88) | cikiccha. |
| (Rule 372, 2, 7-a) | jagama. |
| (Rule 372, 2, 7-a) | cakhana. |
| (Rule 372, 4, 7-a, f) | jahāra. |
| (Rule 372, 4, 7-a, f) | jahāsa. |
| (Rule 372, 3, 7-e) | bubodha. |
| (Rule 372, 3, 7-e) | susoca. |
| (Rule 372, 3, 7-a) | papaca. |
| (Rule372, 5, 7-d) | cicheda. |


| $\sqrt{ }$ bhū, to be. | (Rule 372, 5, 7-c) | babhuva. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ vas, to live. | (Rule 372, 6, 7-f) | uvāsa. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ vad, to say. | (Rule 372, 6, 7-f) | uvāda. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ ah, to say. | (Rule 372, 1; 22) | āha. |

## Remarks.

The above rules of reduplication apply as well to the perfect tense; but as the perfect is very seldom used in Pāli, the student ought not to assume existence of any form unless it be actually found in the course of his reading.
§373 The Verbs Of the Second Conjugation form their Special Bases by inserting niggahīta before the last consonant of the root, and then adding a, as in the 1st conjugation. niggahīta follows the usual rules of sandhi (39).

Examples.

| Roots. | Bases. |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ rudh, to restrain. | rundha. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ muc, to free. | muñca. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ chid, to cut. | chinda. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ lip, to smear. | limpa. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ bhuj, to eat. | bhuñja. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ pis, to grind. | pimsa. |

§374. The sign of the Third Conjugation is ya, which is added to the root; the rules for the Assimilation of ya ( 70 ff .), are regularly applied.

Examples.

| Roots. | Bases. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{\text { yudh, to fight. }}$ | $\sqrt{ }$ yudh + ya $(74$, vi $)$ | $=$ yujjha. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ budh, to know. | $\sqrt{ }$ budh + ya $(74$, vi) | $=$ bujjha. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ pas, to see. | $\sqrt{ }$ pas + ya $(76, \mathrm{i})$ | $=$ passa. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ dus, to vex. | $\sqrt{ }$ dus + ya $(76, \mathrm{i})$ | $=$ dussa. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ gā, to sing. | $\sqrt{ }$ gā + ya $)$ | $=$ gāya |
| $\sqrt{\text { j } h \bar{a}, \text { to think. }}$ | $\sqrt{ }$ jhā + ya $)$ | $=$ jhāya. |

Remarks.
The roots of this conjugation ending in long ā are sometimes given under the form of e also; thus:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ge }=\text { gā, to sing. } \\
& \text { ve }=\text { vā, to weave. } \\
& \text { jhe }=\text { jhā, to think, meditate. }
\end{aligned}
$$

§375. The forms in $\bar{a}$ (gā, etc.) belong, as we have already seen, to the Third Conjugation, but those in e belong to the First Conjugation (3rd Division), and form their bases by the addition of a. Thus:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { ge + a = gāya. } \\
& \text { ve + a = vāya. }
\end{aligned}
$$

## Remarks.

Note well that final $\mathrm{e}+\mathrm{a}=$ āya with lengthening of the first a .
§376. The Verbs of the Fourth Conjugation form the present Stem or Base by the addition of ṇu, or ṇa if the root end in a vowel; but uṇu, or uṇā, if the root end in a consonant.

## Remarks.

(a) The $u$ of nuu and uṇu may be strengthened to o.
(b) This $u$ or o may, before a personal ending beginning with a vowel, be changed to va (27, ii $a, b)$.

Examples.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Roots. } & \text { Bases. } \\
\sqrt{ } \text { su, to hear. } & \text { suṇā or suṇo. } \\
\sqrt{ } \bar{a} p \text { (with prefix pa = pāp) attain } & \text { pāpuṇā or pāpuṇo. }
\end{array}
$$

(c) The long ā of ṇā, uṇā is retained before the personal endings of the Present and of the Imperative except the 3rd Person Plural. Occasionally, however, it is found shortened.
(d) In a few cases the $n$ is de-lingualized and changed to the dental nasal, viz., $n$, following in this the analogy of the Sanskrit.
§377. Verbs of the Fifth Conjugation form their bases by adding nā to the root, which as a rule ends in a vowel.

## Remarks.

(a) If the final vowel of the root is long (2), it is shortened before nā.
(b) Under the influence of a preceding Sanskrit $r$ or $r$, this nā is sometimes lingualised and becomes nā.

Examples.

| Roots. | Bases. |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{ci}$, to heap, collect. | cinā. |
| $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{k} \overline{\mathrm{i}}$, to buy, barter. (Sk. krī) | kīn̄ā, or kiṇā. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ dhū, to shake. | dhunā. |
| $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{ji}$, to conquer, win. | jinā. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ as, to eat. | asnā. |
| $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{j}$ a, to know. jānā. |  |
| $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{yu}$, to mix, associate. | yunā. |

The long $\bar{a}$ of nā is retained in all the persons of the Present and Imperative, except in the 3rd Plural. The short form in na is also often found.
§378. The Verbs of the Sixth Conjugation form their Special Bases by adding $u$ to the root; this $u$ generally strengthens to $o$, which before an ending beginning with a vowel is changed to va (27).

Examples.

| Roots. | Bases. |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ kar, to do, make. | karo. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ tan, to stretch, expand. | tano. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ kun, to make a sound. | kuṇo. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ van, to beg, ask for. | vano. |

## Remarks

(a) The conjugation of $\sqrt{ }$ kar is highly irregular and formed on several bases and will be given in full later on.
(b) The roots belonging to this Conjugation are remarkably few.
§379. The Verbs of the Seventh Conjugation form their Special bases by adding to the root aya, which by contraction may be replaced by e. The forms in e are more commonly met than those in aya. (Compare: 1st conjugation 3rd Division).

## Remarks

The following should be carefully noted:
(a) When the radical vowel is $u$, it is changed to o, provided it be not followed by a Conjunct Consonant.
(b) Radical a, if followed by a single consonant, is generally lengthened, in some cases, however, it remains short.
(c) It will be perceived from the above that the verbs of the Seventh Conjugation have two bases: one in e and one in aya (Compare: 1st Conjugation, 3rd division.)

## Examples.

Root.
$\sqrt{ }$ cur, to steal.
$\sqrt{ }$ gup, to guard, shine.
$\sqrt{ }$ pus, to nourish.
$\sqrt{ }$ bandh, to bind.
$\sqrt{ }$ tīr, to finish, accomplish. tire or tīraya.
$\sqrt{ }$ chaḍ, to throw away.
/kath, to say. kathe or kathaya.
§380. A great many roots can form their bases according to two or three or even most Conjugations, in which case the meaning of each Special Base from the same root, differs, in most instances, from the original meaning of the root itself. This will be better understood by several examples. The numbers after the bases refer to the conjugations.

## Examples.

| Roots. |  | Bases. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| subh | sobha (1), to shine. | $\sqrt{\text { subh }}+\mathrm{a}=$ sobha |
| subh | sumbha (2), strike. | $\sqrt{\text { subh }}+\mathrm{y}+\mathrm{a}=$ sumbha |
| kus | kosa (1), to call, cut. | $\sqrt{\text { kus }}+\mathrm{a}=$ kosa. |
| kus | kussa (3), to embrace. | $\sqrt{ }$ kus + ya, kusya $=$ kussa (76) |
| tik | teka (1), to go. | $\sqrt{\text { tik }}+\mathrm{a}=$ teka. |
| tik | tikuṇā (4), to oppress. | $\sqrt{\text { tik }}+$ uṇā $=$ tikuṇā. |
| rī | re (1), to expand. | $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{r} \overline{1}+\mathrm{a}=\mathrm{re}$. |
| rī | riṇa, (5), to inform. | $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{r} \overline{1}+$ ṇā $=$ rīnā. |
| lī | laya (1) to liquify. | $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{l} \overline{1}+\mathrm{a}=$ laya |
| lī | līnā (5), to approach. | $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{l} \overline{\mathrm{l}}+\mathrm{nā}=$ līnā |
| $\tan$ | tana (1), to aid, assist. | $\sqrt{ } \tan +\mathrm{a}=\tan \mathrm{a}$ |
| $\tan$ | tano (6), to expand, stretch | $\sqrt{\tan }+\mathrm{u}(=0)=$ tano. |
| vaḍ̣h | vaḍdha (1), to grow, increase. | $\sqrt{\text { vaddh }}+\mathrm{a}=$ vaḍ̣ha. |
| vaḍdh | vaḍ̣̣he (7), to pour from one vessel into another. | $\sqrt{ }$ vaḍ̣̣h $+\mathrm{e}=$ vaḍ̣he . |
| vid | vida (1). to know. | $\sqrt{\text { vid }}+\mathrm{a}=$ vida. |
| vid | vijja (3) to be, have. | $\sqrt{\text { vid }}+\mathrm{ya}=$ vidya $=$ vijja. |
| vid | vind (2), to find, get, enjoy. | $\sqrt{\text { vid }}+\mathrm{y}+\mathrm{a}=$ vinda. |
| vid | vede, vedaya (7), to feel, speak. | $\sqrt{ }$ vid $+e=$ vede or vedaya |

## CONJUGATION OF THE PRESENT SYSTEM

## First Conjugation.

§381. The bases of the verbs having been formed according to the rules given in the preceding paragraphs, there only remains to add to them the appropriate Personal Endings. We now give the Personal Endings for the tense of the Present-System, which is by far the most important, omitting the Present Participle, which will be treated in a special chapter.

Present Indicative
Pres. Active Voice.
Pres. Reflective Voice.

|  |  |  |  |  |  | Pres. |  | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sing. | mi | ma | e | mhe |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 2. | si | tha | se | vhe |  |  |  |  |  |  |
| 3. | ti | nti | te | nte, re |  |  |  |  |  |  |

Imperfect.

|  | Pres. Active Voice. |  | Pres. Reflective Voice. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| 1. | a, aŋ | amhā | in | mhase |
| 2. | o | ttha | se | vhaŋ |
| 3. | a | u | ttha | tthuŋ |

Imperative
Pres. Active Voice.
Pres. Reflective Voice.

|  | Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. | mi | ma | e | ämase |
| 2. | hi | tha | ssu | vho |
| 3. | tu | ntu | tay | ntay |

Optative.
Pres. Active Voice.
Pres. Reflective Voice.

|  | Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1. | eyyāmi | eyyāma | eyyaŋ | eyyāmhe |
| 2. | eyyāsi | eyyātha | etho | eyyavho |
| 3. | eyya | eyyuŋ | etha | eraŋ |

## Remarks.

(a) In the singular Optative Active Voice, e may be substituted for eyyāmi, eyyāsi and eyya.
(b) The vowel of the base is dropped before a Personal Ending beginning with a vowel.
(c) Before mi and ma of the Present Indicative, the a of the base is lengthened.
(d) In the 2nd person singular Active of the Imperative, hi may be dropped and the base or stem alone used. Note that before hi the a of the base is lengthened.
§382. As has been said above (370) the First conjugation has four divisions. The roots ending in a consonant and adding a to form the base, are extremely numerous.
§383. The following is the paradigm of $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{pac}$, to cook.
Present Indicative
I cook, We cook, Thou cook, You cook, He cooks, They cook

|  | Pres. Active Voice. | Pres. Reflective Voice. |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| 1. | pacāmi | pacāma | pace | pacāmhe |
| 2. | pacasi | pacatha | pacase | pacavhe |
| 3. | pacati | pacanti | pacate | pacante, |
|  |  |  | pacare |  |

## Imperfect.

I cooked, etc.

| 1. | Pres. Active Voice. |  | Pres. Reflective Voice. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Sing. <br> apaca <br> apacay | Plur. apacamhā | Sing. apacin | Plur. apacāmhase apacamhase |
| 2. | apaco | apacattha | apacase | apacavhay |
| 3. | apaca | apacu | apacattha | apacatthuy |

Imperative
Let me cook, etc.

|  | Pres. Active Voice. | Pres. Reflective Voice. |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| 1. | pacāmi | pacāma | pace | pacāmase |
| 2. | pacāhi | pacatha | pacassu | pacavho |
|  | paca |  |  |  |
| 3. | pacatu | pacantu | pacatan | pacantan |

## Optative.

I may, should, can, could cook. etc.

|  | Pres. Active Voice. <br> Sing. | Plur. | Pres. Reflective Voice. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1. | paceyyāmi <br> pace | paceyyāma | paceyyay | | Plur. |
| :--- |
| paceyyāmhe |

Remarks.
(a) The Augment a of the Imperfect may be omitted, so that we also have the forms: paca, pacay, paco, etc.
(b) The final vowel of the 3rd person singular active may also be long: apacā, apacū.
§384. The above Personal-Endings of the Special Tenses are affixed to the Special Base of the seven Conjugations, after the model of $\sqrt{ }$ pac.
§385. Roots of the Ist Conjugation in $\mathrm{i}, \overline{\mathrm{i}}$ and $\mathrm{u}, \overline{\mathrm{u}}$, require no explanations. The base being obtained, $(371,3)$ the above Endings are merely added to it.

Examples.
$\sqrt{ }$ bhū, to be, base; bhava. $\sqrt{ }$ nī, to lead, base naya.

|  | Present Active |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1. Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |  |
| 2. bhavāmi | bhavāma | nayāmi | nayāma |  |
| 3. bhavasi | bhavatha | nayasi | nayatha |  |
|  | bhavati | bhavanti | nayati | nayanti |


| Present Reflective |  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\begin{aligned} & 1 . \\ & 2 . \\ & 3 . \end{aligned}$ | Sing. <br> bhave <br> bhavase <br> bhavate | Plur. <br> bhavāmhe bhavavhe bhavante | Sing. naye nayase nayate | Plur. nayāmhe nayavhe nayante |
| Imperfect Active |  |  |  |  |
| 1. | Sing. abhava abhavay | Plur. <br> abhavamhā | Sing. anaya anayaŋ | Plur. anayamhā |
| 2. | abhavo | abhavattha | anayo | anayattha |
| 3. | abhava | abhavu | anaya | anayu |
| Imperfect Reflective. |  |  |  |  |
|  | Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| 1. | abhaviy | abhavāmhase | anayin | anayāmhase |
| 2. | abhavase | abhavavhay | anayase | anayavhay |
| 3. | abhavattha | abhavatthuy | anayattha | anayatthuy |
| Imperative Active |  |  |  |  |
|  | Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| 1. | bhavāmi | bhavāma | nayāmi | nayāma |
| 2. | bhavāhi | bhavatha | nayāhi | nayatha |
|  | bhava |  | naya |  |
| 3. | bhavatu | bhavantu | nayatu | nayantu |
| Imperative Reflective |  |  |  |  |
|  | Sing. | Plur. | Sing. |  |
| 1. | bhave | bhavāmase | naye | nayāmase |
| 2. | bhavassu | bhavavho | nayassu | nayavho |
| 3. | bhavatay | bhavantay | nayatay | nayantay |
| Optative Active. |  |  |  |  |
|  |  | Plur. |  | Plur. |
| 1. | bhaveyyāmi bhave | bhaveyyāma | nayeyyāmi naye. | nayeyyāma |
| 2. | bhaveyyāsi | bhaveyyātha | nayeyyāsi | nayeyyātha. |
|  | bhave |  | naye. |  |
| 3. | bhaveyya | bhaveyyuy | nayeyya | nayeyyun |
|  | bhave |  | naye |  |


|  | Optative Reflective. |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |  |
| 1. | bhaveyyan | bhaveyyāmhe | nayeyyam | nayeyyāmhe |
| 2. bhavetho | bhaveyyavho | nayetho | nayeyyavho |  |
| 3. bhavetha | bhaveray | nayetha | nayeray |  |

§386. The roots of the first conjugation which take the Personal Endings directly $(371,2)$ are not numerous.
§387 It must be here noted that in Pāli, all the roots are not conjugated in the Active and the Reflective voice for all the tenses. Especially so is the case with the roots that take the personal endings directly. E.g.,

|  | Vyā, to go. |  | V vā, to blow. |  | $\sqrt{c}$ bhā, to shine. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| 1. | yāmi | yāma | vāmi | vāma | bhāmi | bhāma |
| 2. | yāsi | yātha | vāsi | vātha | bhāsi | bhātha |
| 3. | yāti | yanti | vāti | vanti | bhāti | bhanti |

## Remarks

Before nti, 3rd. Plural, ā of the root is shortened.
§388. In the Optative, a y is inserted before the Personal Endings:
yāyeyyāmi, yāpeyya, vāyeyya, vāye, etc.
§389. Some roots of this class are gunated (110) generally in the Reflective and 3rd Plural Pres. Active: $\sqrt{ }$ brū, to speak.

|  | Active. | Reflective. |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |  |
| 1. | brūmi | brūma | brave | brūmhe |
| 2. | brūsi | brūtha | brūse | brūvhe |
| 3. | brūti | bravanti | brute | bravante |

nayeyyāmi nayeyyāma
naye.
naye.
naye
§390. Other roots of this conjugation are:
$\sqrt{ }$ han, to strike, kill, 3rd singular $=$ hanti. but 3rd plural = hananti. In the Aorist we have: ahani, hani, etc.
$\sqrt{ }$ i to go, strengthened to e; the weak base ya is also used (cf. 1st Conjugation 3rd division, such roots as $\sqrt{ }$ nī, strong base ne and weak base naya. Similarly: $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{ji}$, strong base je and weak base jaya.). We therefore obtain:

| 1. | emi | ema |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 2. | esi | etha |
| 3. | eti | enti and yanti. |

$\sqrt{ }$ thha, to stand, țhāti, țhāsi, etc.
$\sqrt{ }$ pā, to guard, protect, pāti, pāsi, etc.

## Remarks

(a) Roots of this class may like others belonging to different conjugations, be compounded with verbal prefixes

Examples.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sqrt{ } \text { khyā, to tell }+\overline{\mathrm{a}}=\bar{a} k h y \bar{a}+\mathrm{ti}=\text { ākhyāti. } \\
& \sqrt{ } \text { thhā }+ \text { ni }=\text { nitṭhā }+\mathrm{ti}=\text { nitṭthāti, to be finished. } \\
& \sqrt{\mathrm{h}} \text { han }+ \text { ni }=\text { nihan }+\mathrm{ti}=\text { nihanti, to strike down. } \\
& \sqrt{ } \mathrm{i}+\text { upa }=\text { upe }(21)+\mathrm{ti}=\text { upeti, to approach. }
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) the $\bar{a}$ of $\sqrt{ }$ thā is shortened to a when the root is reduplicated(1st Conjugation, 4th division).
(c) $\sqrt{ }$ thā , in composition with Verbal Prefixes, often assumes the Special base ṭhaha.

## Examples.

$\sqrt{ }$ ṭhā + say $=$ sanṭthāti, or saṇṭhahati, or santițṭhati (See Niggahīta sandhi), to stand.
$\sqrt{ }$ țhā + pati $=$ patițṭhāti or patitṭ̣hahati, to stand fast, firmly. $\sqrt{\text { tthā }}+$ ud $=u t t$ ṭhāti or uțṭhahati, to stand up.
§391. Similarly, $\sqrt{ }$ dhā, which at first sight would appear to belong to the 1st Conjugation, 2nd Division, de-aspirates itself into daha, and migrates into the $\sqrt{ }$ pac class (370, I).
Moreover it is used only with Verbal Prefixes. This root also belongs to the reduplicatingclass (372) and consequently has also the base dadhā. A base dhe, of the same root, is extensively used.

## Examples.

$\sqrt{ }$ dhā to carry bear, hold + ni $=$ nidahati, or nidadhāti, or nidheti, to put down, hold aside, lay aside.
$\sqrt{ }$ dhā $+\mathrm{abhi}=$ abhidahati, or abhidadhāti, or abhidheti, to declare, point out.
§392. Some roots belonging to the Reduplicating Class (371, 4th Division), also take the
Personal Endings directly in the Present Tense and the Imperative.*
*Throughout all this chapter many Pāli grammars have been consulted, such as: Saddanīti, Niruttidīpanī, Galonpyan, Akhyātapadamāla, etc.
§393. By false analogy, some roots in i, (371, 3rd division), seem to belong to the class of roots which take the endings directly; but in reality, these roots belong not to the 2nd division, but to the 3rd division, the endings being added, not after the root, but after the strengthened base (105), i or ī having first been changed to e under the influence of a (21, i). Those bases are conjugated exactly like $\sqrt{ }$ cur, base core, the paradigm of which is given below. The Reflective Voice of such roots is formed from the base in aya.

Examples.
$\sqrt{ }$ nī, base ne or naya.
Present

| Active |  | Reflective |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| nemi | nema | naye | nayāmhe |
| nesi | netha | nayase | nayavhe |
| neti | nenti. | nayate | nayante |

Imperative.

| Active |  | Reflective |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sing. | Plur. | Sing. |
| nemi | nema | naye |
| nehi | netha | nayassu |
| netu | nentu | nayatan |

Plur. nayāmase nayavho nayantan

The Optative may also be formed on the base in ne as:

Optative.

| Active |  | Reflective |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| neyyāmi | neyyāma | neyyaŋ | neyyāmhe |
| neyyāsi | neyyātha | netho | neyyavho |
| neyya | neyyun | nayetha | nayeray |

§394. Other roots are:
$\sqrt{ }$ sī, to lie down, base: se or saya.
$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{ji}$, to conquer, base: je or jaya.
$\sqrt{\text { dit, to set a net, base: ḍe (in oḍdeti). }}$

## Remark.

The most important root of the Root-Class is $\sqrt{ }$ as, to be; which is rather defective; it will be given a special chapter (See Defective Verbs).

## REDUPLICATING CLASS.

§395. The verbs of this class are characterised by taking a reduplicating syllable: the rules have been given above (372). The conjugation presents no difficulty, e.g. $\sqrt{ }$ dā, to give.

|  | Present. Active |  | Imperfect Active. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1. | Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| 1. | dadāmi | dadāma | adada | adadamha |
| 2. | dadāsi | dadātha | adado | adadattha |
| 3. | dadāti | dadanti | adada | adadu |

§396. Some tenses of this verb are formed directly from the base; they will be given in their proper place.
Remarks.
(a) Of $\sqrt{ }$ dā, we also find the bases dajj and de, formed by false analogy: dajjāmi, dajjasi, dajjati, dajjāma, dajjatha, dajjanti, etc., demi, desi, deti; dema, detha, denti, etc.
(b) There is an anomalous form of the singular present very probably formed on the analogy of the plural: dammi, dasi, dati.
(c) The Reflective forms do not exist for most of the tenses, only a very few are met with: the first singular. and first plural: dade, dadāmase.
(d) In the root $\sqrt{ }$ tha the final $\bar{a}$ of the base is preserved long only in the first singular and plural present.

| Sing. | Plur |
| :---: | :---: |
| tițṭhāmi | tițṭhāma |
| tittethasi | tițṭhatha, ṭhātha. |
| titthati | titthanti. |

It will be remarked that thātha, 2nd person plural, is formed directly from the root
§397. The conjugation of the 2nd, 3rd, 4th, 5th, 6th and 7th Classes does not present any difficulty; the Personal endings are added as has already been shown for the First Conjugation.

## Second Conjugation

§398. $\sqrt{ }$ chid, base: chinda (373). to cut

| Present Active. | Present Reflective. |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Singular. | Plural. | Singular. | Plural. |
| chindāmi | chindāma | chinde | chindāmhe |
| chindasi | chindatha | chindase | chindavhe |
| chindati. | chindanti | chindate | chindante |

§399. The other Tenses are formed regularly, as:
chindeyyāmi, chindeyyāsi, chindeyya,
or: chinde; chindeyyāma, chindāyyatha, chindeyyun
And so on for the other Tenses.
Remark.

The root $\sqrt{ }$ rudh, to obstruct, has five bases: rundhati, rundhiti; rundhīti, rundheti and rundhoti

## Third Conjugation.

§400. $\sqrt{ }$ div, base: dibba (77), to play

| Present Active. | Present Reflective. |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Singular. | Plural. | Singular. | Plural. |
| dibbāmi | dibbāma | dibbe | dibbāmhe |
| dibbasi | dibbatha | dibbase | dibbavhe |
| dibbati | dibbanti | dibbate | dibbante |

The other Tenses are formed regularly, as: Imperfect adibba, adibbo, adibba, adibbamhā adibbattha, adibbu.
Optative: dibbe, dibbeyya, dibbeyyāmi, dibbeyyāsi, etc.
Fourth Conjugation.
§401. $\sqrt{ }$ su, base: suñā (376), or suño, to hear. [NB: this table does not conform to the same pattern as those above --E.M.]

| Present Active. [1. base suṇā] | Present Active. [2. base suṇo] |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |  |
| sun̄āmi | sunāma | suṇomi | suṇoma |  |
| suṇāsi | sunaātha | suṇosi | suṇotha |  |
| suṇāti | suṇanti | suṇoti | suṇonti, sunvanti |  |
|  |  |  | Remarks. |  |

(a) The other Tenses are formed on the base: suṇā final ā being dropped before initial i and e, as: suṇeyyami, suṇeyyāsi etc, suṇissāmi, suṇissāma, suṇissasi, etc.
(b) $\sqrt{ }$ sak, to be able, belongs to this conjugation, but has developed several bases: sakkuṇāti with the k doubled;
sakkoti, by assimilation (cf. §57) sak + no $=$ sakno, sakko $+\mathrm{ti}=$ sakkoti.
Similarly, there is a form sakkāti obtained by the same process:
sak + nā = sakna, sakkā + ti = sakkāti; and still another form occurs, with short a: sakkati
(c) $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{a} p$, to attain, with prefix pa ( $\mathrm{pa}+\mathrm{a} \mathrm{p}=\mathrm{pā}$ ), shows 3 forms: pappoti, pāpuṇāti, pāpuṇoti. $\sqrt{ }$ gah, to take, seize has for [its] base: gaṇhā with metathesis (111, p.35): gaṇhāmi, gaṇhāsi, etc.
(d) We have already said that the $n$ is very often de-lingualised (cf. §376, d). That is to say, many of the roots belonging to the 4th Conjugation form their bases according to the 9th Conjugation of Sk. verbs, by adding nā to the root. For instance from $\sqrt{ }$ ci, to collect, to heap, we have: cināti, to gather; ocināti, ocinati, to pick up, to gather.
Remark that the base may be with short a as well as with long and that this is the case with many of the roots of this conjugation, cf. sañcinati, sañcinoti, sañcināti, to accumulate.
(e) From $\sqrt{ }$ bhū we have a verb abhisambhunati and abhisambhunoti, to obtain. The root of this verb is said by some grammarians to be Sk. $\sqrt{ }$ bhrī , but this is most improbable. Some native grammarians give a root sambhū, found only in the Dhammapada, not perceiving it is merely a compound of prefix sam $+\sqrt{ }$ bhu.

Fifth Conjugution.
§402. $\sqrt{ }$ dhū to shake; base dhunā, (377).

| Active. | Slur. | Reflective. |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |  |
| 1. | dhunāmi | dhunāma | dhune | dhunāmhe |
| 2. | dhunāsi | dhunātha | dhunase | dhunavhe |
| 3. | dhunāti | dhunanti | dhunate | dhunante, dhunare. |

## Remark.

(a) Other Verbs belonging to this class are:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sqrt{ } \text { jñā, jā, ñā, to know, base: jāna. } \\
& \sqrt{\text { as, to eat, base }: \text { asnā. }} \\
& \sqrt{ } \text { mun }=\sqrt{ } \text { man, to think, base: munā. }
\end{aligned}
$$

(b) The student will have remarked that the 4th and 5th Conjugations very often interchange their bases. This is owing to the false analogy of Sk. roots.

## Sixth Conjugation.

$\S 403 \sqrt{ }$ kar, to make, to do, base karo (378).

## Present.

Sing.
karomi karoma
karosi karotha
karoti karonti

## Remarks.

(a) There are several bases of the root $\sqrt{ }$ kar as: karo, kara, kubb; the conjugation of this verb, as already said $(378, ~ a)$ will be given in full in the chapter on Defective Verbs.
$\sqrt{ } \tan$, to stretch, base: tano (strong); weak base $=$ tanu.

|  | Present Active. | Reflective. |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
|  | Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| 1. | tanomi | tanoma | tanve* | tanumhe |
| 2. | tanosi | tanotha | tanuse | tanuvhe. |
| 3. | tanoti | tanonti | tanute | tanvante* |

*cf. §27 [re: the permutation of the vowel into the semi-vowel "v"]
(b) The roots belonging to this Class are very few.

## §7th Conjugation.

§404. The roots of the 7th Conugation, as has been remarked above (379), have two bases: one in e and one in aya, which are conjugated exactly like the roots of the 1st Conjugation, 3rd Class, (See 393).

## Irregular Bases.

Some roots form their Special bases according to none of the above given rules; and they are in consequence called Irregular. The principal are here given.

| $\sqrt{ }$ gam, to go | Special base gaccha. |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ yam, to restrain | Special base yaccha. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ guh, to hide | Special base gūhe. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ dhā, to hold | Special base daha, dhe (391). |
| $\sqrt{ }$ dā, to give | Special base dajja. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ jā, jan, to be born | Special base jāya. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ pā, to drink | Special base piva. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ dans, to bite | Special base ḍasa. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ dhmā, to blow | Special base dhama. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ vyadh, ( $=$ vadh) | Special base vadha. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ sad, to sit | Special base sīda. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ thā, to stand | Special base tittthā. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ is, to wish | Special base iccha. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ vad, to speak, say | Special base vajja, vajje, vada, vāde. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ mar, to die | Special base miya, miyya, mara. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ gah to take, seize | Special base gheppa.* |
| $\sqrt{ }$ gam, to go | Special base ghamma, gaggha.* |
| $\sqrt{ }$ jir, to gow old, decay | Special base jiya, jiyya. |
| $\sqrt{\text { dis, das to see }}$ | Special base dakkha, daccha.* |

*These forms are given by the Saddanīti and the Akhyatapadamālā. They are regularly conjugated like gaccha: ghammāmi, ghammasi ghammati;, etc,. ghagghami ghagghasi ghagghati; etc. ghammeyya, gagghe, gaggheyya, etc. The bases dakkha and daccha from $\sqrt{ }$ da, $\sqrt{ }$ dis are formed on the false analogy of the future base, which we shall see when treating of the future. Most of the changes noticed above correspond to similar changes which occur in the 1st, 4th and 6th Conjugations of Sanskrit verbs.

## The Aorist

§405. The Aorist is the only true past tense in Päli. The Personal Endings of the Imperfect and those of the Aorist have become hopelessly mixed up and the native grammarians are at a loss to differentiate between the Imperfect and the Aorist; but the Aorist has generally superseded the Imperfect. There are many anomalies which the student cannot possibly understand without a slight knowedge of Sanskrit grammar; he need not however, be detained by these considerations just now. The usual Endings of the Imperfect have already been given (381); much will be achieved if he, for the present, devotes his attention to the following paragraphs.
§406. The Aorist is supposed to be formed from the root but as a matter of fact, it is formed indifferently either from the root or from the base.
§407. The desinences (endings) of the Aorist are:

| Active. |  | Reflective. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| ay, y, in, a, ā. | imha, imhā. | a. | imhe. |
| i, o, à. | ttha. | se. | vhay. |
| $\overline{\mathrm{a}}, \mathrm{i}, \mathrm{i}$. | uy, insu, $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ | ā, a | tthuy, atthuy. |

(a) The student will remark, on comparing the above Endings with those of the Imperfect, that it is difficult to make out the Imperfect from the Aorist (the blending of Imperfect and Aorist is well known to students of Comparative Philology); the only criterion is, that the Imperfect is generally formed on the Special Base, and the Aorist, on the root. But even this is not an absolute criterion, and the fact remains that these two tenses can scarcely be differentiated.
(b) Of the above Endings, however, the most commonly used and most distinctively Aoristic are:*

| Sing. | Plur. |
| :--- | :--- |
| in | imha, imhā. |
| i | ittha. |
| i | iysu, (isuy). |

*[cf. Mason, 1868, ch. 7, where the list of endings for the Aorist (following Kaccāyana) has only a few in common with this chart provided by Duroiselle. The notion of what is "commonly used" depends largely on the corpus of texts taken to be definitive, and Duroiselle seems to have work empirically from a broader range of texts than other authors in establishing these norms --E.M.]
(c) The nasal of ay is often omitted, and a alone remains
(d) The Aorist of the great majority of verbs is formed with the desinences given in (b).
§408. The Aorist may be divided into three types:
(i) Radical Aorist.
(ii) Stem or Base Aorist.
(iii) Sigmatic Aorist.

Remarks.
(a) As its name indicates, the Radical Aorist is formed directly from the root.
(b) The Stem Aorist is formed on the Special Base.
(c) The Sigmatic Aorist is distinguished by an s that comes between the root and the personal endings given in $(\$ 407$, b).

## (i) The Radical aorist.

§409. This Aorist is not very common. We will give a few examples. Let it be first remarked that the Aorist may also take the augment a before it, as does the imperfect.
§410. from $\sqrt{ }$ gam, and $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{ga}$ and $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{gu}$ (subsidiary forms of $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{gam}$,) to go, we have:

|  | (a) Sing. | Plur. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1. | agā, agamā, agamin | agumha |
| 2. | agā, agamā | aguttha |
| 3. | agā, agami | aguy, agaminsu. |


| (b) $\sqrt{ }$ as, to be(With augment a) |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Sing. | Plur. |
| āsiy | āsimha. |
| āsi | āsittha. |
| āsi | āsuy, āsiysu. |

§411. $\sqrt{ }$ ṭhā.

| Sing. | Plur. |
| :--- | :--- |
| atṭhay | atṭhamha. |
| attho | atṭhattha |
| atṭha | atṭhaysu, atṭhuy. |

Remark.
For the doubling of initial ṭh see $\$ 33$.
§412. From $\sqrt{ }$ kar we find: akay (1st singular), no doubt formed on the analogy of: akā (1st, 2nd and 3rd singular); akā being itself from the Vedic form: akar, the loss of the $r$ is compensated by the lengthening of the final a.

In the 1st singular we also have: akaray, akariy.
In the plural: $\quad$ 2. akattha; 3. akaruy, akarū, akariysu.
§413. $\sqrt{ }$ hū (a form of $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{bh} \overline{\mathrm{u}}$ ) to be.
3rd singular: ahū, ahu, and before a vowel, ahud.
1st plural: ahumhā; 3rd plural: ahuy.
§414. $\sqrt{ }$ da.
1st singular: adā, which is also 2nd and 3rd singular. In the plural we find: 3rd aduy, adaysu, adāsuy.
§415. The augment a is not inseparable from the Aorist, so that we meet with such forms as: $g \bar{a}=\mathrm{ag} \overline{\mathrm{a}}, \mathrm{etc}$.
(ii) Stem Aorist.
§416. As has already been said, this aorist is formed on the stem or base, not on the root. The augment may or may not be retained.

| $\sqrt{ }$ pā, base: piva, to drink. |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Sing. | Plur. |
| pivin | pivimha |
| pivi | pivittha |
| pivi | pivinsu |

For the Reflective;

|  | Sing. | Plur. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| 1. | pive | pivimhe |
| 2. | pivise | pivivhay |
| 3. | piva, pivā | pivu, pivuy, pivigsu, pivisuy. |

§417. The great bulk of Primitive Verbs (369) form their Aorist according to the above (piva); it is therefore extremely common, both with and without the augment; let it be stated once for all that this augment is of much more frequent occurence in prose than in poetry; in the latter its retention or rejection is regulated by metrical exigencies. We will now give a few more examples:

| 1. | $\sqrt{ }$ bhuj, to eat base: bhuñja |  | $\sqrt{ }$ gam, to go, base gaccha |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
|  | bhuñjin | bhuñijimha | gacchin | gacchimha, |
|  | bhuñjimhā |  |  | gacchimhā. |
| 2. | bhuñji | bhuñjittha | gacchi | gacchittha |
| 3. | bhuñji | bhuñjimsu | gacchi | gacchiysu |
|  |  |  | gañchi |  |

(iii) Sigmatic Aorist
§418. Sigmatic Aorist is formed by inserting s between the radical vowel or the vowel of the base and the personal endings given above $(407, b)$.
§419. So that we obtain the following desinences:

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Sing. } & \text { Plur. } \\
\sin (=s+i \eta) . & \operatorname{simha}(=s+i m h a) . \\
\operatorname{si}(=s+i) . & \operatorname{sittha}(=s+i t t h a) . \\
\operatorname{si}(=s+i) . & \operatorname{su\eta }(=s+u \eta) .
\end{array}
$$

§420. As will be readily understood, this formation of the Aorist is used with roots ending in vowels, and the $s$ is inserted to join the endings to the root or to the base. It will be seen lower down, however, that they are added also to some roots ending in a consonant when the $s$ becomes assimilated to that consonant.
§421. The sigmatic desinences are used mostly with the Derivative Verbs, principally the Causative Verbs (See: Derivative Conjugation [§478]), which end in the vowel e. The verbs of the 7 th Conjugation, which also end in e , form their Aorist in the same way.

> Examples.
(Causative Verbs).
§422. $\sqrt{ }$ hā, to abandon, Causative base: hāpe. $\sqrt{ }$ tas, to tremble, Causative base: tāse.

| Sing. | Plur. |  | Sing. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| hāpesin | hāpesimha | tāsesin | tāsesimha |
| hāpesi | hāpesittha | tāsesi | tāsesittha |
| hāpesi | hāpesuy | tāsesi | tāsesuy |

Remarks.
In the 3rd plural the form in insu is also frequent: hāpesinsu. tāsesiysu.
(Verbs of the 7th conjugation).
§423. $\sqrt{ }$ cur, to steal, base: core. $\sqrt{ }$ kath, to tell, base: kathe.

| Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| coresiy | coresimha | kathesiy | kathesimha |
| coresi | coresittha | kathesi | kathesittha |
| coresi | coresuy | kathesi | kathesuy |
| coresinsu |  | kathesinsu |  |

Remarks
(a) To the base in aya endings given in $(407, b)$ may be added directly without the Insertion of sigmatic $s$, so that we have also:

| Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| corayiy | corayimha | kathayin | kathayimha |
| corayi | corayittha | kathayi | kathayittha |
| corayi | corayuy | kathayi | kathayuy |
| corayiysu |  | kathayiysu |  |

(b) This holds good for the Causative Verbs which have also a base in aya.
§424. The Sigmatic Aorist desinences are placed after some roots which do not belong to the 7th conjugation or to the derivative verbs:
(i) After roots ending in a vowel, with or without the augment a. [For example:] $\sqrt{ }$ dā, to give: adāsiy, adāsi, adāsimha, etc.
$\sqrt{ }$ ṭha, to stand: atṭhāsiy, atṭhāsimha, etc.
$\sqrt{ }$ hā, to abandon: ahāsiy, ahāsi, ahāsimha, etc.
$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{su}$, to hear, assosiy, assosi, assosimha, etc.
$\sqrt{ }$ yā, to go: yāsim, yāsi, yāsimha, etc.
(ii) After some roots ending in a Consonant, in which case the usual rules of assimilation (85) are strictly applied.

Remark.
From an illusory $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{k}$ ā ( $=\sqrt{ }$ kar, to do), we find: akāsiy, akāsi, akāsimha, etc.
From $\sqrt{ }$ ñā, to know: aññāsiy, aññāsi, aññāsimha, etc.
§425. At a first reading, the student had perhaps better leave unnoticed the few references. to Sanskrit Grammar which will be found in the next few paragrahs. Let him merely assume the forms as they are given: the more advanced student ought, of course, to read them with attention.
§426. The s (initial) of Sigmatic desinences, as above given (419), assimilates itself to the last consonant of the root according to the usual rules of assimilation:
(a) From $\sqrt{ }$ dis $=$ Sanskrit.$\sqrt{ }$ dréś, we find addakki $=$ Sanskrit adrak-ş-is.

The following forms are also found: addakkhī, adakkhi, dakkhi.
(b) From $\sqrt{ }$ sak, to be able $=$ Sankrit $\sqrt{ }$ śak, we have sakkhi, asakkhi, Sanskrit $=$ śak-s-is.
(c) $\sqrt{ }$ kus, to revile $=$ Sanskrit $\sqrt{ }$ kruś, gives akkocchi, but akkosi, without the sigmatic s, is also met with.
(d) $\sqrt{ }$ bhañj, to break, gives Aorist bhanki.

## Remark.

The above examples will, I think, be sufficient to make the student understand the nature of the changes which occur in the formation of the Sigmatic Aorist when the roots end in a consonant; this consonant is generally s ( = Sanskrit ś) and sometimes j. In Sanskrit, final ś ( = Pāli s) is regularly changed to $k$ before the initial s of verbal endings thus giving the group kṣa, which in Pāli becomes kkha. Again, by another rule of Sanskrit phonetics, final $j$ becomes g , and as no word can end in a mute sonant, this g is changed to its corresponding surd, that is to k .

This class of the Sigmatic Aorist, however, is not numerous.

## SYSTEM OF THE PERFECT.

§427. As has been seen, the perfect system consists of the Perfect tense and the Perfect Participle. The participle will be treated of in the chapter on Participles.
§428.The Perfect is characterised by the reduplication of the root. The rules have already been given (372) and should now be read over carefully.
§429. The endings are:

| Active. |  | Reflective. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| a | mha | i | mhe |
| e | ttha | tho | vho |
| a | u | ttha | re |
|  |  |  |  |
|  |  | Remarks. |  |

(a) Roots ending in a consonant insert an before the above endings beginning with a consonant.
(b) The Perfect is of very rare occurence.
§430. [The paradigms $\sqrt{ }$ pac and $\sqrt{ }$ bhū are declined in the perfect as follows:]

| V pac, Perfect base: papac. | Vhū, Perfect base: babhūv. <br> Active. | Active |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |

## THE FUTURE SYSTEM.

§431. This system includes the Future, the Conditional and the Future Participle. The Participle will be considered in a special chapter.
§432. The Future System has for special characteristic the sign: ssa inserted between the root and the personal endings.

## Remarks.

(a) The Future System is frequently formed on the Present base.
(b) The vowel i is often inserted between the ssa and the root or base; in this case the final vowel of the root or base is dropped.
(c) When the ssa is added directly to a root ending in a consonant, the same changes which occur in the Aorist occur also in the Future System, through the assimilation of the initial s of ssa.
§433. The Personal Endings for the Future are:

| Active. |  | Reflective. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| mi | ma | y | mhe |
| si | tha | se | vhe |
| ti | nti | te | nte, re |
|  |  |  |  |
|  |  | Remarks. |  |

(a) It will be seen that in the active the endings are the same as those of the present indicative.(381)
(b) Before mi, ma and mhe the a of ssa is lengthened.

Examples without connecting vowel i.
§434.
$\sqrt{ }$ i, to go, special base e (390), future base: essa

| $\sqrt{ }$ i, to go, special base e (390), future base: essa |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Active | Reflective |  |  |
| Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| essāmi | essāma | essay | essāmhe |
| essasi | essatha | essase | essavhe |
| essati | essanti | essate | essante |

$\sqrt{ }$ nī to lead, special base ne $(371,3)$ future base: nessa Singular. Plural.
nessāmi nessāma
nessasi nessatha
nessati nessanti, etc.

| $\sqrt{\text { theā }}$, to stand. |  |
| :---: | :---: |
| Singular. | Plural |
| hassāmi | thassāma |
| thassasi | thassatha |
| thassati | thassant |

## Remarks

In the above, ssa is added directly to the root; for the shortening of radical a see (§34) Again:

| لā, give. |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Singular. | Plural. |
| dassāmi | dassāma |
| dassasi | dassatha |
| dassati | dassanti, etc. |

## Examples with the connecting vowel i

$\sqrt{ }$ bhū, to be, special base: bhava, future base: bhavissa.

| Active. | Reflective. |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| bhavissāmi | bhavisssāma. | bhavissay | bhavissāmhe |
| bhavissasi | bhavissatha | bhavissase | bhavissavhe |
| bhavissati | bhavissanti | bhavissate | bhavisante |

Examples with the assimilation of -ssa
$\sqrt{ }$ bhuj to eat. gives bhokkha as future base.
(sk. $\sqrt{ }$ bhuj $=$ bhok + șya $=$ bhokṣya) and we have :
bhokkhati. bhokkhate, bhokkhan, etc.
$\sqrt{ }$ chid. to cut, gives: checcha (Sk. $\sqrt{ }$ chid $=$ chet + ṣya $=$ cetṣya) ) then:
checchāmi, checchasi, checchati etc.
$\sqrt{ }$ dis, to see, gives a future: dakkha; ( = Sans. $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{dr} s$ = drak + șya $=$ draksya $)$ from this we find dakkhati, but more frequently dakkhiti. Similarly from the root $\sqrt{ }$ sak to be able, is obtained sakkhiti.
§435. A double future is also found formed from bases like bhokkha, dakka, which, as has been just now explained are already future, by adding to them ssa with the connection vowel -i

## Examples.

$\sqrt{ }$ sak, future base: sakkha, sakkhissāmi, sakkhissasi sakkhissati, sakkhissāma, etc.
§436. From hoti, the contracted form of bhavati, to be, we find the following numerous forms for the future

Singular
hemi, hehāmi, hohāmi, hessāmi, hehissāmi, hohissāmi, I shall be. hesi. hehisi, hohisi, hessasi, hehissasi, hohissasi, Thou will be heti, hehiti, hohiti, hessati, hehissati, hohissati, He will be.

Plural.
hema, hehāma, hohāma, hessāma, hehissāma, hohissāma. We shall be. hetha, hehitha, hohitha, hessatha, hehissatha, hohissatha. You will be. henti, hehinti, hohinti, hessanti; hehissanti hohissanti. They will be.

| $\sqrt{ }$ kar. to do, gives: |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Sing. | Plur. |
| kāhāmi, I shall do. | kāhāma, we shall do. |
| kāhasi, kāhisi, thou wilt do. | kāhatha, you will do. |
| kāhati, kāhiti, he will do. | kāhanti, kāhinti, they will do. |

## THE CONDITIONAL.

§437. The Conditional takes the augment a before the root
§438. The personal endings are as follows:

| Active. |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sing. | Plur. | Reflexive. |  |
| ssa | Sing. | Plur. |  |
| sse, ssa, ssasi. ssatha | ssay | ssāmhase |  |
| ssā, ssa, ssati. ssaysu | ssase | ssavhe |  |
|  |  | ssatha | ssiŋsu |

Remark.
The above endings are generally joined to the root or the base by means of the connecting vowel i.

(a) The conditional may be translated by "if I could cook," or " If I should cook," etc.
(b) The conditional is not very frequently used.

## THE PARTICIPLES

THE PRESENT PARTICIPLE ACTIVE.
§439. All participles are of the nature of verbal adjectives, and must agree with their nouns, in number, gender and case.
$\S 440$. The terminations of the present participle active are: nta, aŋ or $\eta$; nta and $\eta$ are added to the base, an is added to the root.

Examples.

| Root. | Base. | Present. Part. | Active Base. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ pac, to cook, | paca, | pacay, pacanta, | cooking. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ kar, to do, | kara, | karay, karonta, | doing. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ chid, to cut, | chinda, | chinday, chindanta, | cutting. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ bhaṇ, to say, | bhana, | bhaṇay, bhaṇanta, | saying. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ bhū, to be, | bhava, | bhavay, bhavanta, | being. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ pā, to drink, | piva, | pivay, pivanta, | drinking. |

§441. Verbal bases ending in e ( 1 st Conj. 3rd. Division; 7th. Conj. and causal bases. See "Derivative or secondary conjugation") which have also another base in aya take only the termination $n$ ta after the base in e , and both ota and g after the base in aya.

## Examples.

(1st and 7th Conjugations)

| Root. | Base. | Pres. Part. Act. Base. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ cur, to steal. | core, coraya. | corenta, corayay, corayanta. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ kath, to tell. | kathe, kathaya. | kathenta, kathayay, kathayanta. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ nī, to lead. | ne, naya. | nenta, nayay, nayanta. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ ji, to conquer. | je, jaya. | jenta, jayan, jayanta. |


| (Causative.) |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Root | Causative Base | Present participle active (base) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ dhar to hold | dhāre, dhāraya. <br> dhārāpe, dhārāpaya. | dhārenta, dhārayay, dhārayanta. dhārāpenta dhārāyay, dhārāpayanta. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ mar, to die | māre, māraya, mārāpe, mārāpaya, | mārenta, mārayay, mārayanta. mārāpenta, mārāpayay, mārāpayanta. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ chid, to cut | chede, chedaya. <br> chedāpe, chedāpaya. | chedenta, chedayay, chedayanta. chedāpenta, chedāpayay, chedāpayanta. |

§442. Bases in ṇā, no, uṇā, uṇo (4th Conj.) and nā (5th Conj.) generally take the termination nta.

Examples.

| Root. | Base. | Pres. Part. Act. Base. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ su, to hear, | suṇā, suṇo, | suṇanta, suṇonta. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ k $\overline{1}$, to buy, | kiṇā, | kiṇanta. |

§443. The stem or base of this Present Participle is in at, or ant as: Pres Part.

| Root. | Stem. Nom. | Sing. Masc. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ pac, | pacat, pacant. | pacaŋ, pacanto. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ car, | carat, carant. | caray, caranto. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ bhaṇ, | bhaṇat, bhaṇant. | bhaṇaŋ, bhaṇanto. |

$\S 444$. The Feminine is formed by adding $\overline{1}$ to the stems or bases in at and nta.
§445. The Neuter is in $n$ like the masculine.
Examples.

| Root. | Stem. | Masc. | Fem. | Neut. |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ pac | pacat | pacaŋ | pacatī | pacaŋ. |
|  | pacant | pacanto | pacantī | pacantaŋ |
| $\sqrt{ }$ chid | chindat | chindaŋ | chindatī | chindaŋ. |
|  | chindant | chindanto | chindantī | chindantaŋ. |

§446. These participles are declined like mahā (226) in the Masculine, Feminine and Neuter.
The Present Participle may often be translated by " when ..., while ..."etc.

## THE PRESENT PARTICIPLE REFLECTIVE.

§447. The Reflective Participle is formed by the addition of māna to the base. It is declined like purisa, kaññā, and rūpay.

Examples.
Reflective Participle.

| Root. | Masc. | Fem. | Neuter. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ pac | pacamāno | pacamānā | pacamānay |
| $\sqrt{ }$ car | caramāno | caramānā | caramānay |
| $\sqrt{ }$ dā | dadāmāno | dadāmānā | dadāmānaŋ |
| $\sqrt{ }$ su | suṇamāno | suṇamānā | suṇamānay |

§448. Another Reflective Participle, much less frequent than the above, is formed by adding āna to the root. It is declined like that in māna.

| Examples. |  |  |  |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Reflective |  |  |  |
| Rorticiple. |  |  |  |
| Root. | Masc. | Fem. | Neuter. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ pac | pacāno | pacānā | pacānay |
| $\sqrt{ }$ car | carāno | carānā | carānay |
| $\sqrt{ }$ dā | dadāno | dadānā | dadānay |

## Remarks.

As may be seen from the last example, dadāna, this participle may also be formed from the base.

## The Future Participle

§449. The future participle is either active or reflective.
(a) In the active, it takes the endings of the present participle active, nta, y (or ay), and is declined like mahā.
(b) $\ln$ the reflective, the endings are māna and āna, and it is declined like purisa, kaññā and rūpay.
(c) All these endings are added to the future base.

## Examples.

(i) Future Participle Active.

| Root. Masc. | Fem. | Neuter. |  |
| :---: | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ pac pacissay | pacissatī | pacissay |  |
| pacissanto | pacissantī | pacissantay |  |
| $\sqrt{ }$ car | carissay | carissatī | carissay |
|  | carissanto | carissanti | carissantam |
| $\sqrt{ }$ su | sunissay | suṇissatī | suṇissay |
|  | suṇissanto | suṇissantī | suṇissantay. |

(ii) Future Participle Reflective.

| Root. | Masc. | Fem. | Neuter. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ pac | pacissamāno | pacissamāna | pacissamānay |
| pacissāno | pacissānā | pacissānay |  |
| $\sqrt{ }$ car | carissamāno | carissamānā | carissamānay |
|  | carissāno | carissānā | carissānay. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ su | sunuissamāno <br>  <br>  <br> sunissāno | sunissamānā | sunissānā |

The Passive Perfect participle.
§450. This participle is very widely used. It is formed from the root by affixing to it the suffix ta or the suffix na.
Remarks.
The suffix ta is by far the most commonly used in the formation of this participle.
§451. ta is affixed in several ways:
(i) If the root ends in a vowel, it is added directly without any change taking place in the root.
(ii) When the root ends in a consonant, ta may be joined to it by means of connecting vowel i.
(iii) When the root ends in a consonant, ta may become assimilated to it according to the usual rules.

## Remarks.

At this stage the student ought to read carefully the chapter on Asssmilation (\$51).

## Examples.

§452. (i) Roots ending in a vowel. Root.

## $\sqrt{ }$ nahā, to bathe.

 $\sqrt{ }$ bū, to be, become. $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{n}$, to lead.$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{ji}$, to conquer. $\sqrt{ }$ ci, to collect. $\sqrt{ }$ bhī, to be afraid. $\sqrt{ }$ yā, to go undergo. $\sqrt{ }$ ñā, to know.

Present. nahāyati, he bathes. bhavati, he is,becomes. neti, nayati, he leads. jeti, jayati, he conquers. cināti, he collects. bhāyati, he is afraid. yāti, he goes. jānāti, he knows. Remarks.

Pass. Perf. Part. nahāta, bathed. bhūta, been, become. nīta, led. jita, conquered. cita, collected. bhīta, afraid, frightened. yāta, gone, undergone. ñāta, known.

There are a few exceptions to roots in final ā.
$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{p}$, to drink, makes pita, drunk.
$\sqrt{ }$ ṭhā, to stand, makes ṭhita, stood, standing.
$\sqrt{ }$ dhā, to hold, becomes hita, held.
$\sqrt{ }$ dā, to give, dinna, given.
(ii) Roots ending in a consonant and taking vowel i before ta.

| Root. | Present. | Pass. Perf. Part. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ pac, to cook. | pacati, he cooks. | pacita, cooked. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ cal, to shake. | calati; he shakes. | calita, shaken. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ gah, to take. | gaṇhāti, he takes. | gahita, taken. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ kapp, to arrange. | kappeti, he arranges. | kappita arranged. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ khād, to eat. | khādati, he eats. | khadita, eaten. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ likh, to write. | likhati, he writes. | likhita, written. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ mañ, to adorn. | maṇdeti, he adorns. | mañdita, adorned. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ gil, to swallow. | gilati, he swallows. | gilita, swallowed. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ kath, to tell. | katheti, he tells. | kathita, told. |
|  | Remarks. |  |
|  |  |  |

(a) Participles like pacita, calita, etc, are declined like purisa, kaññā and rūpay.
(b) In the Neuter these participles are often used as nouns:
$\sqrt{ }$ has, to smile, Passive Perfect Participle: hasita, smiled, Neuter: hasitay, a smile. $\sqrt{ }$ gajj, to thunder, Passive Perfect participle: gajjitta, thundered, Neuter: gajjitay, the thunder.
$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{jiv}$, to live, Passive Perfect Participle: jīvita, lived, Neuter: jīvitay, life.
(iii) ta assimilated to the root.
§453. The suffix ta assimilates, or is assimilated to the last consonant of the root:

| Root. | P. P. P. | Rules of Assimilation. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\sqrt{ }$ bhuj, to eat | bhutta, eaten | $(59, ~ a)$ |
| $\sqrt{ }$ muc, to free | mutta, freed | $(59$, b) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ is, to wish | itțha, wished | (59, ii-iii) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ kas, to plough | katṭha, ploughed | (92) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ das, to bite | dattetha, bitten | (92) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ dam, to tame | danta, tamed | (67) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ kam, to proceed | kanta, proceeded, gone | (67) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ rudh, to obstruct | ruddha, obstructed | (63) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ budh, to know | buddha, known | (63) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ labh, to obtain | laddha, obtained | (63, Remark.) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ majj, to polish | mațṭha (also mattea), polished | $(59, \mathrm{i})$ |
| $\sqrt{ }$ muh, to err | mulha, erred, also muddha | $(100,101,102)$ |
| $\sqrt{ }$ ruh, to ascend | rūlha, ascended | $(100,101,102)$ |
| $\sqrt{ }$ lih, to lick | liḷha, licked | $(100,101,102)$ |
| $\sqrt{ }$ jhas, to hurt | jhatta, hurt | (94) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ pat, to fall, | patta, fallen | (62) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ tap, to burn | tatta, burned | $(64, \mathrm{i})$ |
| $\sqrt{ }$ duh, to milk | duddha, milked | (100) |

§454. (a) Roots in $r$ generally drop the $r$ before ta.

## Examples.

| Root. | P. P. P. | Rules of Assimilation. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ kar, to make | kata made | (81). |
| $\sqrt{ }$ sar, to remember | sata, remembered | (81). |
| $\sqrt{ }$ mar, to die | mata, dead | (81). |

§455. (b) Roots in $n$ generally drop final $n$ before ta.
Examples.

| $\sqrt{ }$ man, to think | mata, thought. |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ khan, or khan, to dig | ${\text { khata,* }{ }^{2} \text { dug }}^{\sqrt{ } \text { han, to kill }} \quad$ hata, killed. |

* (also: khāta, from a collateral form khā = khan, dug.)
§456. (c) sometimes final $\eta$ is also dropped.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\sqrt{ } \text { gam, to go } & \text { gata, gone. } \\
\sqrt{ } \text { ram, to sport } & \text { rata, amused, delighted. }
\end{array}
$$

§457. (d) In a few cases, final $r$ lingualizes the following $t$, as:
$\sqrt{ }$ har, to seize, carry; haṭa, seized, carried.
§458. Pass. Perf. Part. which take na.
The suffix na is much less common than ta, and like it:
(i) It may be joined to the root by means of connecting vowel i , or
(ii) it may be joined directly to roots ending in a vowel;
(iii) when added directly to roots ending in a consonant, that consonant is assimilated to n of na, and sometimes the n of na is assimilated to the final consonant.

## Remarks.

na is added generally to roots in d and r .
§459. EXAMPLES OF (i) [viz., the suffix na is connected by permuting the root's vowel]

| Root | Pass P. P. | Rules of Assimilation. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ sad, to settle | sinna, settled | $(69$, ii, iii). |

## Remarks.

The form sinna is found only for the verb nisīdati, to sit down $=\sqrt{ }$ sad + ni (prefix); when $\sqrt{ }$ sad is preceded by other prefixes, the Passive Perfect Participle assumes the form; sanna, as:

| Root | Pass P. P. | Rules of Assimilation. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\sqrt{ }$ chid, to cut | chinna, cut | (69, ii, iii). |
| $\sqrt{ }$ chad, to cover | channa, covered | ( 69, ii, iii). |
| $\sqrt{ }$ dā, to give | dinna, given | (69 ii, iii). |

In this last example, $\bar{a}$ of the root has been dropped, and the n doubled to compensate for its loss; the form datta given. ( = dā + ta, with the $t$ doubled to make for the shortening of $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ ), is found sometimes.

## Remarks.

It will be seen from the above four examples that the insertion of i is to a great extent optional.
$\sqrt{ }$ tar, to cross
tinna, crossed
(83)
$\sqrt{ }$ car, to wander ciṇṇ, wandered
$\sqrt{ }$ kir, to scatter kinna, scattered

## Remarks

In these examples, i is inserted and then reduplicated and lingualized according to rule (83).
§460. EXAMPLES OF (ii) [viz., the suffix na is joined directly to the root]
$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{l} \overline{\text {, }}$, to cling to,
$\sqrt{ }$ lu, to cut, reap, $\sqrt{ }$ khi, to decay, cease, $\sqrt{ }$ gilā (glā 113), to be ill, $\sqrt{ }$ hā, to be weak, low,
In the last example, radical ā is replaced by $\overline{1}$.
§461. EXAMPLES OF (iii) [viz., the suffix na added permuting the root's final consonant]

| Root | Pass P. P. | Rules of Assimilation. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ bhaj, to break | bhagga, broken | (57) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ vij, to be agitated | vigga, agitated | $(57)$ |

In these two examples, final $j$ of the root, having become, against the usual phonetic laws g , the n of suffix na, is assimilated to it by rule 57 (426, Remark).

$$
\sqrt{ } \text { lag, to adhere lagga, adhered }
$$

§462. A few Passive Perfect Participles are irregular, such as: jhāma, burnt, from $\sqrt{ }$ jhā, to burn; phulla, expanded, split, from $\sqrt{ }$ phal, to expand, split; but these are properly speaking derivative adjectives used as participles.
§463. Sometimes two forms of the Passive Perfect Participles for the same root are met with:

| $\sqrt{ }$ lag, to adhere, | P.P. P. lagga and lagita. |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ gam, to go, | P. P. P. gata and gamita. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ dā, to give, | P.P. P. dinna and datta. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ kas, to plough, | P.P. P. kattẹha and kasita. |

§464. The participles in ta and na are declined like purisa, kaññā and rūpay.

## PERFECT PARTICIPLE ACTIVE

§465. The Perfect Participle Active, is formed by adding vā to the Passive Perfect Participle.

## Examples.

| Root. | P. P. P. |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ pac, to cook, | pacita, cooked, |
| $\sqrt{ }$ bhuj, to eat, | bhutta, eaten, |
| $\sqrt{ }$ kar, to do, | kata, made, |

P.P.A.
pacitavā, having cooked.
bhuttavā, having eaten.
katavā, having made.

## Remarks.

(a) These Perfect Participles Active are declined like gunavā.

Ex. pacitavā, pacitavatī or pacitavantī, pacitavay or pacitavantay.
(b) The P. P. Active is also formed with suffix $v \overline{1}$ (231), in this case the a before $v \overline{1}$ is
lengthened to ā. They are declined like medhāvi, (235) (that is, like daṇdī nadī and vāri as: pacitāvī having cooked; bhuttāvī, having eaten.

## FUTURE PASSIVE PARTICIPLE.

§466. This participle, also called participle of necessity, potential participle and gerundive, is formed by adding to the root the suffixes: tabba [see §467], ya [see §468], anīya and īya.

## Remarks.

(a) Roots ending in $u, \bar{u}$, generally form the Future P. P. from the special base.
(b) This participle is passive in sense, expresses suitability, fitness, propriety and may be translated by "fit to be..." "must be..." "ought to be..." "to be..." that which is expressed by the root.
(c) These participles, like those already treated of, are adjectives and are treated as such; they are declined like purisa, kañ̃nā and rūpay.
§467. [The suffix -tabba] is the most common. It is added:
(i) Directly to roots ending in a vowel.
(ii) To roots ending in a consonant, it may be joined by means of [the] connecting vowel i.
(iii) When added directly without [the] connecting vowel ito roots ending in a consonant, initial $t$ of tabba is assimilated to or assimilates the last consonant of the root in exactly the same manner as in the formation of the Passive Perfect Participle.

EXAMPLES OF (i). [viz., -tabba added directly to the root]
Root. Future P.P.
$\sqrt{ }$ hā, to abandon, hātabba, fit to be, that ought to be, that must be abandoned.
$\sqrt{ }$ dā, to give,
$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{pa}$, to drink,
dātabba, fit to be, that ought to be, that must be given pātabba, fit to be, that ought to be drunk.

Remarks.
(a) Roots ending in $\mathrm{i}, \overline{\mathrm{i}}$, change $\mathrm{i}, \overline{\mathrm{i}}$, to e before tabba:
Root. Future P.P.
$\sqrt{ }$ nī, to lead, netabba, fit to be, that must be led.
$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{ji}$ to conquer, jetabba fit to be, that must be conquered.
$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{i}$, to go, etabba, fit to be, that must be gone to.
(b) Roots in $u$, $\bar{u}$ form the Future P. P. on the Special Base:

Root. Future P.P.
$\sqrt{ }$ bhū, to be, bhavitabba, fit to be, that ought to, that must be.
$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{ku}$, to sing kavitabba, fit to be, that ought to be, that must be sung
In the case of root su, to hear, we find the $u$ merely strengthened: sotabba, fit, etc., to be heard.

EXAMPLES OF (ii) [viz., -tabba added to a root by means of the connecting vowel "i"] Root. Future P.P.
$\sqrt{\text { pac, to cook, pacitabba, fit to be, that ought to be, that must be }}$ cooked.
$\sqrt{ }$ khan, to dig, khanitabba, fit to be, that ought to be, that must be dug.
$\sqrt{ }$ pucch, to ask, pucchitabba fit to be, that ought to be, that must be asked.

EXAMPLES of (iii) [viz., -tabba added with permutation of the consonant]
Root. Future P.P.
$\sqrt{ }$ gam to go, gantabba, fit, etc., to be gone to(67).
$\sqrt{ }$ kar, to do, kattabba, (80); kātabba (82), fit to be done, etc.
$\sqrt{ }$ labh, to receive,
laddhabba, fit etc., to be received(63, Remark).
§468. [With the addition of the suffix $y a$, the] initial y becomes assimilated to the last consonant of the root according to the usual rules of assimilation (79) Sometimes the radical vowel is strengthened.

| Root. | Future P.P. | Rules of Assimilation |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :---: |
| $\sqrt{ }$ gam, to go, | gamma, fit, proper, etc, to be gone to. | $(71$, i.) |  |
| $\sqrt{ }$ sak, to be able, | sakka, able to be done. | $(71)$. |  |
| $\sqrt{ }$ khād, to eat, chew, | khajja, that can be chewed. | $(71$, vi) |  |
| $\sqrt{ }$ vaj, to avoid, | vajja, that ought to be avoided. | $(71,74)$ |  |

$\sqrt{ }$ vaj, to avoid,
$\sqrt{ }$ bhū, to be,
vajja, that ought to be avoided.
$(71,74)$
bhabba, that ought to be, proper, possible. (77.) In this last example, the radical vowel $\bar{u}$ has been strengthened before ya: bhū + ya $=$ bhav + $y a=$ bhavya = bhabba.

## Root. <br> $\sqrt{ }$ labh, to obtain,

$\sqrt{ }$ bhuj, to eat,
$\sqrt{ }$ bhid, to break,
$\sqrt{ }$ lih, to lick, sip,
$\sqrt{ }$ has, to laugh,
$\sqrt{ }$ gah, to take,

Future P.P.
labbha, fit worthy to be obtained.
bhojja, to be eaten, eatables, food. bhijja, to be broken.
$\begin{array}{ll}\text { bhijja, to be broken. } & \text { (71, vi.) } \\ \text { leyya, to be licked, sipped. } & (98, \text { Rem }\end{array}$ ked, sipped.
hassa, fit to be laughed at.
gayha, that can be taken, seized.

Rules of Assimilation
(71.)
(98, Remark.)
(76.)
(78, iii.)
(a) ya is, in a few cases, cases, joined to the root by means of vowel i. For instance:
$\sqrt{ }$ kar, to do, make, we have:
kāriya that ought to be, or can be done, with lengthening of radical a.
kayya, that ought, etc., to be done, with assimilation of final $r$ to ya.
kayīra, that ought, etc, with metathesis (iii).
$\sqrt{ }$ bhar, to support:
bhāriya, that ought to be maintained, with lengthening of radical a.
(b) After roots ending in ā long initial y of ya is doubled and final a of the root is changed to $e$.

| Root. | Future P.P. |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ hā, to abandon, | heyya, to be abandoned, that ought to be abandoned. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ pā, to drink, | peyya that can, may, or ought to be drunk. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ dā to give, | deyya, to be given, that ought to or can be given. |

(c) ya is likewise doubled after roots in $\mathrm{i}, \overline{1}$ and the i or $\overline{1}$ is changed to e . $\sqrt{ }$ nī, to lead, neyya, to be led, that ought to be led.
$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{ji}$, to conquer, jeyya, to be conquered that can be conquered.

ANĪYA.
§469. The suffix anīya is added to the root or to the base.

| Root. | Future P.P. |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ pac, to cook | pacanīya, fit to be cooked |
| $\sqrt{ }$ puj, to honour | pujanīya, worthy to bo honoured. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ kar, to do, make | karan̄iya,* that ought to be made or done. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ bhū, to be (base: bhava) | bhavanīya, that ought to be. |

* (Observe that the $n$ is lingualised through the influence of radical $r, 83$ ).


## The Gerund.

§470. The gerund is formed by means of suffixes: tvā, tvāna, tūna, ya, and tya. It is indeclinable and partakes of the nature of a participle.

## Remarks.

(a) The suffix tvā is most commonly met with; tvāna, tūna, and sometimes tūnay are used as substitutes of tvā and are met with in poetry much more than in prose.
(b) ya is not so restricted in use as tvāna and tūna.
(c) tya which becomes regularly cca ( 74 , iv), is merely a form of ya, initial t being inserted between the gerundian, suffix ya and a root ending in a vowel.
(e.g. $\mathrm{pa}+\sqrt{ } \mathrm{i}$, to depart $+\mathrm{ya}=\mathrm{pa}+\mathrm{i}+\mathrm{t}+\mathrm{ya}=$ petya $=$ pecca having departed, $\S 110$ ). In Pāli ya is added indiscriminately to simple roots or to roots compounded with prefixes; but, as in Sk. (in which it is never used after simple roots), it is much more common after compound verbs.

> [The Gerund Suffixes] Tvā, Tvāna, Tūna.
§471. The suffix tvā may be:
(i) Joined to the root by means of connecting vowel i.
(ii) The initial $t$ of the suffix is, in a few cases assimilated to the last consonant of the root.
(iii) The vowel of the root is gunated
(iv) Sometimes the last consonant of the root is dropped before suffixes tvā, tvāna and tūna
(v) The final long vowel of a root is shortened before these suffixes.
(vi) The suffixes are added to the special base as well as to the root.

## Examples.

Root.
$\sqrt{ }$ pac, to cook,
$\sqrt{ }$ khād, to eat,
$\sqrt{ }$ Iabh, to obtain,
$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{nī}$, to lead,
$\sqrt{ }$ chid, to cut,
$\sqrt{ }$ kar, to make,
$\sqrt{ }$ țhā, to stand, remain,
$\sqrt{ }$ bhī, to fear,
$\sqrt{ }$ dā, to give,
$\sqrt{ }$ bhuj, to eat,
$\sqrt{\text { āp-pa }}=\mathrm{pā} p$, to get,
$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{ji}$, to conquer,

Gerund.
pacitvā, having cooked (i).
khāditvā having eaten (i).
laddhā, obtained (ii) (63, Remark).
labhitvā, having obtained. (i).
netvā, having led (iii).
chetvā, having cut (iii, iv)
katvā, having made (iv).
ṭhitvā, having stood, remained (i).
bhitvā, having feared, fearing (v).
datvā, having given (v).
bhutvā, having eaten (iv).
patvā having got. (iv; v).
jitvā, jetvā, having conquered (iii).

Remarks.
From root $\sqrt{ }$ ṭā, we have also: ṭhatvā.
From $\sqrt{ }$ dā, daditvā, daditvāna.
From $\sqrt{ }$ kar: kātūna, kattūna.
From $\sqrt{ }$ kam, to step, to proceed,: nikkamitvā, nikkamitūna.
From $\sqrt{ }$ su, to hear; sutvā, sotūnay, suṇitvā, suṇitvāna.

> [The Gerund Suffixes] Ya, Tya.
§472.
(i) ya is used mostly with roots compounded with prefixes.
(ii) In a few cases it is used with simple roots.
(iii) tya is regularly changed cca.
(iv) ya is added directly to roots ending in long ā.
(v) ya may be added to the Special Base.
(vi) ya is assimilated to the last consonant of the root.
(vii) ya may be joined to the root or to the base by means of i.

## Examples.

$\sqrt{ }$ sic, to sprinkle,
$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{j}$ à, to know,
$\checkmark$ ikkh, to see, $\sqrt{ }$ cint, to think,
$\sqrt{ }$ bhuj, to eat,
$\sqrt{ }$ dā, to give,
nisiñciya, having besprinkled. (i, vii) vijāniya, having known, discerned.(i, v, vii) samekkhiya, having reflected. (i, vii) cintiya, having thought. (ii, vii). bhuñjiya, having eaten. (v, ii, vii) ādāya, having given. (i, iv).
$\sqrt{ }$ hā, to abandon, $\sqrt{ }$ ñā, to know, $\sqrt{ }$ gah, to take, $\sqrt{ }$ gam, to go,
$\sqrt{ }$ vis, to enter,
$\sqrt{ }$ sad, to sit down.
$\sqrt{ }$ sad, to sit down,
$\sqrt{ }$ kam, to tread,
$\sqrt{ }$ i to go,
$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{i}$, to go,
$\sqrt{ }$ han, to strike,
$\sqrt{ }$ han, to strike,
$\sqrt{ }$ han, to strike,
$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{i}$, to go,
$\sqrt{ }$ har, to take away,
vihāya, having abandoned. (i, iv). abhiñ̃ñaya, having known. (i, iv). gayha, having taken. (ii, iii).
gamma, having gone. (vi, 71; ii). pavissa, having entered. (vi, i).
nisajja, having sat. (vi, 71, 74).
nisīdiya, having sat. (i, vii, v). (See 459. Remark).
akkamma, having trodden. (vi, 71, 33, 35)
pecca, having gone, departed, = pa $+\mathrm{i}+$ tya. $(21, \mathrm{i} ; 74, \mathrm{iv})$ abbisamecca, having comprehended,
abhi + sam + $\bar{a}+\mathrm{i}+$ tya. (21, i).
āhacca, having struck, $=\bar{a}+$ han + tya, final $n$ being dropped before initial $t$. ( $n$, dropped before $t$ ). upahacca, having vexed, = upa + han + tya. (See last remark).
uhacca, having destroyed, $=u+$ han + tya. (See last remark).
pațicca, following upon, from, = paṭi $+i+$ tya. āhacca, having reached, attained, = $\overline{\mathrm{a}}+\mathrm{har}+$ tya. (81).

This last should not be confounded with gerund, from $\sqrt{ }$ han, given above.

## Remarks.

(a) Sometimes the gerund having been formed by means of ya, the ya is dropped, the root alone remaining, as in;
abhiññā, having known, = abhiñ̃ñāya.
pațisankhā, having pondered, = paṭisankhāya.
anupādā, not having clung, not clinging, $=$ anupādāya (an + upa $+\bar{a}+\sqrt{ } d \bar{a}+$ ya $)$.
(b) Some roots seem to take a compound gerundial suffix, made up of ya and tvā, and joined to the root by means of $i$, as:
āruyhitvā ( $\sqrt{ }$ ruh), having ascended.
ogayhitvā ( $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{g}$ āh $=\mathrm{gah})$, having dived $=$ ogayha $=$ ogāhitvā.
(c) There are some anomalous forms:
disvā, from $\sqrt{ }$ dis to see $=$ having seen.
datțhu = disvā.
anuvicca, from $\sqrt{ }$ vid, to know $=$ having known, final d being dropped before tya.
pappuyya, from $\sqrt{ } \bar{a} p+p a=p a ̄ p$, to obtain $=$ pāpayitvā.
vineyya. from $\sqrt{ }$ nī, having removed.
niccheyya, from $\sqrt{ }$ ni $=$ having ascertained.
In these last three examples the y has undergone reduplication.
atisitvā, from $\sqrt{ }$ sar $=$ Sanskrit sr!.(?), having approached, having excelled.
(d) The student will have remarked that several forms are met with from the same root, as: $\sqrt{ }$ dā, datvā, daditvā, daditvāna, dāya.
$\sqrt{ }$ kar, kariya, karitvā, katvā, katvāna, kātūna, kattūna.
$\sqrt{ }$ gah, gayha, gaṇhiya, gaṇhitvā.
Most roots can thus have several forms.

## The Infinitive.

§473. The Infinitive is generally formed by means of suffix tuy.
§474 The suffixes tave, tuye and tāye are also met with, but seldom.
§475. Tun, like the suffix of the P.P.P. (450) may be:
(i) joined to the root or to the base by vowel i.
(ii) to the roots in $\bar{a}$, it is added directly.
(iii) roots ending in $\mathrm{i}, \overline{\mathrm{i}}$, change final $\mathrm{i}, \overline{\mathrm{i}}$ to e ; and roots in $\mathrm{u}, \overline{\mathrm{u}}$, change $\mathrm{u}, \bar{u}$ to o.
(iv) Initial $t$ of tuy is assimilated to the last consonant of the root; the last
consonant may also be assimilated to $t$.
(v) tuy is also added to the Special Base.

Examples.

| $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{pac}$, to cook, | pacituy, to cook.(i) |
| :---: | :---: |
| $\sqrt{ }$ khād, to eat, | khādituy, to eat.(i) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ thar, to spread, | tharituy, to spread.(i) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ dā, to give | dātuy. (ii) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ thā , to stand, | țhātuy (ii) |
| $\sqrt{\text { yā, to go, }}$ | yātuy. (ii) |
| $\checkmark$ ji, to conquer, | jetuy. (iii) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ nī, to lead, | netuy. (iii) |
| $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{su}$, to hear, | sotuy. (iii) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ labh, to obtain, | laddhuy: to obtain. (iv, 63, remark) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ bhuj, to eat, | bhottuy, to eat, (iii, iv, 59a) |
| $\sqrt{\text { äp }}$, to obtain + pa, | pattuy, to obtain. (iv, 64, i) |
| $\sqrt{\text { gam, to go, }}$ | gantuy, to go. (iv; 67). |
| $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{i}$, to go, | etuy, to go. (iii). |
| $\sqrt{ }$ su, to hear, | sunituy, to hear. (v) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ budh, to know, | bodhituy, to know, (i, iii) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ budh, to know, | bujjhituy, to know. (i, v) . |
| $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{si}$, to lie down | setuy, to lie down. (iii). |
| $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{s}$, to lie down, | sayituy, (v). |
| $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{j}$ a, to know, | jānituy, to know(v). |
| $\sqrt{ }$ chid, to cut, | chindituy, to cut.(v). |
| $\sqrt{ }$ chid, to cut, | chettuy, to cut. (iii, iv; 62, vi) |

Tave, Tuye, Tāye.
§476. These suffixes are Vedic and but seldom used in Pāli; tave, however, is more frequently met with than the other two.

| $\sqrt{ }$ nī, to lead, | nitave, to lead. |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ hā, to abandon,. | vippahātave, to abandon, $=v i+p a+h \bar{a}+$ tave. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ nam, to bend, | unnametave, to ascend, rise $=u d+n a m+e+$ tave. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ dhā, to hold, | nidhetave, to hide, bury, $=$ ni + base dhe $(391)+$ tave. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ mar, to die, | marituye, to die, Joined by vowel i. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ gan, to count, | ganetuye, to count. Added to the base gane. |
| $\sqrt{\text { dis, to see, }}$ | dakkhitāye, to see (cf. §404). |

§477. The student will have remarked that several forms for the same root are often met with.

## Remarks.

(a) The Infinitive is used both passsively and actively.
(b) The Dative of nouns in āya is often used with an infinitive sense.
(c) The Infinitive expresses purpose and may be translated by: "for the purpose of, in order to."

## (B) Derivative or secondary Conjugation.

§478. The Derivative Conjugation includes:
(1) the Passive;
(2) the Causative;
(3) the Denominative;
(4) the Desiderative and,
(5) the Intensive.
§479. It is called the derivative conjugation because the above named five kinds of verbs are derived from the simple root with a well-defined modification of the sense of the root itself.
§480. Except for the Causative, Derivative verbs are not conjugated in all the tenses and in all voices.

## (i) THE PASSIVE.

§481. The Passive Conjugation is formed by adding the suffix ya to the root.
§482. The suffix ya having been added and the Passive Base obtained, the Personal Endings of either the Active Voice or of the Reflective Voice are added to the base.
§483. Ya is affixed to the root in three ways:
(i) Directly after roots ending in a vowel.
(ii) To roots in a double consonant, ya is joined by means of $i$, this i being
lengthened to $\overline{1}$. It is also joined by means of i when a root ends in a consonant that does not generally reduplicate ( $\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{h}$ and r ).
(iii) It may be added directly to roots ending in a consonant; in this case the y of ya becomes assimilated to the last consonant of the root according to the Rules of Assimilation. (70.)
(iv) Ya is also added to the Special Base by means of $i$, lengthened.
Examples of (i) [viz., Ya directly affixed after roots ending in a vowel].
(a) When ya is added to roots ending in a vowel, the vowel of the root undergoes some change, especially vowels: $a, i$ and $u$.
(b) Radical ā is changed to ī before ya and radical i, $u$, are lengthened to $\bar{i}, \bar{u}$.

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { Root. } \\
& \sqrt{ } \text { dā, to give, }
\end{aligned}
$$

$$
\sqrt{ } \mathrm{p} \overline{\mathrm{a}}, \text { drink, }
$$

$\sqrt{ }$ dha, to hold,
$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{ji}$, to conquer,
$\sqrt{ }$ ci, to heap,
$\sqrt{ }$ ku to sing,
$\sqrt{ }$ su, to hear,
(c) Radical long $\overline{1}$ and $\bar{u}$, remain unaffected:
$\sqrt{ }$ bhū, to become,
$\sqrt{ }$ lū to reap,
$\sqrt{ }$ nī, to lead,

Passsve Base.
dīya, to be given.
pīya, to be drunk.
dhīya, to be held.
jī̀y, to be conquered.
cīya, to be heaped up.
kūya, to be sung.
sūya, to be heard.
bhūya, to have become.
lūya, to be reaped.
nīya, to be led.
(d) In some instances, the long vowel before ya is shortened, in which case the y is doubled.

| $\sqrt{ } n \overline{,}$, to lead, | nīya, or niyya. |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ su to hear, | sūya, or suyya. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ dā, to give, | dīya, or diyya. |

§484. To the above bases the Active or Reflective Personal Endings being added, we obtain, for instance from $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{ji}$, to conquer, base jīya(or jiyya).

| Present: Active |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| Sing. | Plur. |
| jīyāmi, I am conquered. | jīyāma, we are conquered. <br> jīyasi, thou art conquered. <br> jīyatha, you are conquered. <br> jīyati, he is conquered. |
| jīyanti, they are conquered. |  |

## Present: Reflective

| Sing | Plur. |
| :---: | :---: |
| jī̀e, I am conquered. | jīyāmhe, we are conquered. |
| jiyase, thou art conquered. | jīyavhe, you are conquered. |
| jīyate, he is conquered. | jīyante, they are conquered. |

Optative: (1) jīyeyyan, jīyeyyāmi; (2) jīyetho, jīyeyyāsi (3) jīyetha, jīyeyya, etc., etc. Imperative: (1) jīye, jīyāmi; (2) jīyassu, jīyāhi; (3)jīyatay, jīyatu.

Examples of (ii) [viz., Ya joined by means of $\bar{i}$ to a root with a double consonant].

| Root. | Passive Base. |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ pucch, to ask, | pucchīya, to be asked. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ has, to laugh, | hasīya, to be laughed at. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ vas to live, | vasīya, to be lived upon. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ kar, to make, | karīya, to be made. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ sar, to remember, | sarīya to be remembered. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ mah, to honour, | mahīya, to be honoured. |

Examples of (iii) [viz., Ya affixed directly after a root ending in a consonant].

| Vlabh, to obtain, | labbha, to be obtained. $(70,71)$ |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ pac, to cook, | pacca, to be cooked. $(70,71)$ |
| $\sqrt{ }$ bhañ, to speak, | bhañña, to be spoken. $(70,71)$ |
| $\sqrt{ }$ khād, to eat, | khajja, to be eaten. $(70,71,34)$ |

$\sqrt{ }$ han; to kill,hañña, to be killed. $(70,71)$
$\sqrt{ }$ bandh, to bind, bajjha, to be bound. (70, 71, 74)
Examples of (iv) [viz., Ya added to a special base by means of $\bar{i}$ ]

| $\sqrt{ }$ gam, to go, | gacchīya, to be gone to. |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ budh to know, | bujjhīya, to be known. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ is, to wish, desire, | icchīya, to be wished for. |

§485. Long ī, before ya of the Passive, is sometimes found shortened, as: mahīyati or mahiyati, to be honoured.
§486. It is usual to form the Passive of roots ending in a consonant preceded by long ā, by means of $\overline{1}$ :

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { } \sqrt{\text { yac, to beg }=\text { yācīyati; }} \\
& \sqrt{ } \text { aj, to drive }+ \text { prefix pa }=\text { pāj, to drive }=\text { pājīyati, to be driven. }
\end{aligned}
$$

§487. Ya may be added directly after some roots ending a consonant without assimilation taking place and without the insertion of connecting vowel $\overline{1}$; as:
$\sqrt{ }$ lup, to cut, elide $=$ lupya $+\mathrm{ti}=$ lupyati, to be elided, cut off.
$\sqrt{ }$ gam, to go $=$ gamya $+\mathrm{ti}=$ gamyati, to be gone to.

## Remarks.

(a) We have already said that when the ī before ya is shortened, initial y is reduplicated by way of compensation (483, d).
(b) The Perfect, thc Aorist, the Future and the Conditional (which four tenses are called: General Tenses; see, 367), of the Reflective Voice, are often used in a passive sense.
§488. The Passive may assume several forms from the same root:
$\sqrt{ }$ kar, to do, make, gives Passive: karīyati, kariyyati, kayirati (with metathesis),
kayyati (with asssimilation of $\mathrm{r}, \mathrm{cf}$. §80).
$\sqrt{ }$ gam, to go, gives; gamīyati, gacchīyati, gamyati.
$\sqrt{ }$ gah, to take, gives: gayhati (metathesis); gheppati, quite an anomalous form.
$\sqrt{ }$ hā, to abandon: hāyati, hiyati.
§489. Anomalous form of the Passive.
$\sqrt{ }$ vah, to carry, Passive Base = vuyh: vuyhāmi, vuyhasi, vuyhati, vuyhe, vuyhase, vuyhate, etc.

$\sqrt{ }$ yaj, to sacrifice, Passive base $=\mathrm{ijj}$, to be sacrificed $\mathrm{ijjämi}$, ijjasi, ijjati, etc.
$\sqrt{ }$ vac, to speak, Passive Base $=$ ucc: uccāmi, uccasi uccati, etc.
$\sqrt{ }$ vac, to speak, Passive Base $=$ vucc :vuccāmi, vuccasi vuccati etc.
§490. Final s of a root, which is not usually susceptible of reduplication is, however, sometimes found reduplicated as:
$\sqrt{ }$ dis, to see, becomes, dissati, to be seen.
$\sqrt{ }$ nas, to destroy $=$ nassati, to be destroyed.

## CAUSATIVE VERBS.

§491. Causal or Causative verbs are formed by adding to the root the suffixes:
(i) aya, which is often contracted to e.
(ii) āpaya, which likewise may be contracted to āpe
§492.
(i) The radical vowel of the root is gunated or strengthened before these suffixes, if followed by one consonant only.
(ii) It remains unchanged when it is followed by two consonants.
(iii) In some cases, radical a is not lengthened although followed by a single consonant.
(iv) Roots in $\mathrm{i}, \overline{1}$ and $u$, $\bar{u}$ form their causal from the Special Base.
(v) Other verbs, too, may form the causal from the Special Base.
(vi) Some roots in a take āpe, āpaya.

Examples.

| $\sqrt{ }$ pac, to cook, | pāce, pācaya, pācāpe, pācāpaya, to cause to cook. (i) |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ kar, to do, | kāre, kāraya, kārāpe, kārāpaya, to cause to do. (i) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ gah, to take | gāhe, gāhaya, gāhāpe, gāhāpaya, to cause to take. (i) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ mar, to kill, | māre, māraya, mārāpe, mārāpaya, to cause to kill. (i) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ sam, to be appeased, | same, samaya, samāpe, samāpaya, to cause to be appeased. (iii) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ gam, to go | game, gamaya, to cause to go, (iii): we find also; gāme. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ chid, to cut, | chede, chedaya, chedāpe, chedāpaya, to cause to cut. (i) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ bhuj, to eat | bhoje, bhojaya, bhojāpe, bhojāpaya, to cause to eat. (i) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ rudh, to hinder, | rodhe, rodhaya, rodhāpe; rodhāpaya, to cause to hinder. (i) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ bhid, to break, | bhede bhedaya, bhedāpe, bhedāpaya, to cause to break. (i) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ su, to hear, | sāve, sāvaya, sāvāpe, sāvāpaya, to cause to hear. (iv) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ bhū, to be, | bhāve bhāvaya, etc. (iv) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ sī, to lie down, | sāye. sāyaya, sayāpe, sayāpaya to cause to lie down. (iv, iii) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ nī, to lead, | nāyaya nayāpe nayāpaya, to cause to lead. (iv, iii) |
| $\sqrt{ }$ pucch, to ask, | pucchāpe, pucchāpaya, to cause to ask. (ii). |
| $\sqrt{ }$ dhā, to place, | pidhāpe, pidhāpaya, to cause to shut. (vi). |
| with prefix pi, | pidahāpe, pidahāpaya, to cause to shut. (v, ii). |
| $\sqrt{ }$ dā, to give, | dāpe dāpaya, to cause to give. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ thhā, to stand, | țhape, țhapaya, to place (vi, with a shortened a-vowel). |

## DOUBLE CAUSAL

§493. There is a double causal formed by adding āpāpe to the root.

## Examples.

| Root. | Simple Causal. |
| :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ pac, to cook, | pāce, pācāpe, etc., |
| $\sqrt{ }$ chid, to cut, | chede, chedāpe, ctc., |
| $\sqrt{ }$ bhuj, to eat, | bhoje, bhojāpe, etc., |

Double Causal. pācāpāpe, pācāpāpaya. chedāpāpe, chedāpāpaya. bhojāpāpe, bhojāpāpaya.

## Remarks.

The double causal may be translated by "to get to, or, to make to cause to." For instance: So purisay dāsay odanay pācāpāpeti. "He causes the man to cause the slave to cook the food." or "He got the man to make the slave to cook the food."

Note that the first accusative or object purisan may be and is often, replaced by an Instrumentive.
§494 The causative verbs are declined like the verbs in $\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{i}$ of the 1 st conjugation, 3rd Division $(393,385)$ and like the verbs of the 7 th conjugation.(379)

## Examples.

$\sqrt{ }$ pac, to cook, causative base pāce, pācaya, pācāpe, pācāpaya, to cause to cook.
PRESENT.
Singular.

1. pācemi, pācayāmi, pācāpemi, pācāpayāmi, I cause to cook.
2. pācesi, pācayasi, pācāpesi, pācāpayasi, thou causest to cook.
3. pāceti, pācayati, pācāpeti, pācāpayati, he causes to cook.

Plural.

1. pācema, pācayāma, pācāpema, pācāpayāma, we cause to cook.
2. pācetha, pācayatha, pācāpetha, pācāpayatha, you cause to cook.
3. pācenti, pācayanti pācāpenti, pācāpayanti, they cause to cook.
optative.
Singular.
4. pāceyyāmi, pācayeyyāmi, pācāpeyyāmi, pācāpayeyyāmi, I should cause to cook.
5. pāceyyāsi, pācayeyyāsi, pācāpeyyāsi, pācāpayeyyāsi, thou shouldst cause to cook.
6. pāceyya, pācayeyya, pācāpeyya, pācāpayeyya, he should cause to cook.

## Plural.

1. pāceyyāma, pācayeyyāma, pācāpeyyāma, pācāpayeyyāma, we should cause to cook.
2. pāceyyātha pācayeyyātha pācāpeyyātha, pācāpayeyyātha, you should cause to cook.
3. pāceyyuy, pācayeyyuy, pācāpeyyuy, pācāpayeyyuy, they should cause to cook

And so on for the other tenses.

## Remarks.

(a) The bases in e and pe take the Sigmatic Aorist Endings $(418,419)$.
(b) The bases in aya take the other Endings (407, b). As, pācesiy, pācesi, pācāpesiy, pācayiy, pācayi, pācāpayiy, pācāpayi, etc.

## Causal Passive.

§405. The passive of a causal verb is formed by joining the suffix ya of the Passive to the Causative Base, by means of i , lengthened to $\overline{1}$, final vowel e of the Causative base having been dropped first. The Causal Passive may be translated by "caused to... , made to do..." the action expressed by the root.

Examples.

| Root. | Simple Verb | Causal | Causal Passive |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ pac, to cook | pacati | pāceti, | pācīyati, to be caused to cook. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ bhuj, to eat | bhuñjati, | bhojeti, | bhojīyati, to be caused to eat. |
| $\sqrt{\text { kar, to do }}$ | karoti | kāreti, | kārīyati, to be caused to do. |
| Remark. |  |  |  |

Connective vowel i may also be found short.
§496. Some verbs, although in the Causative, have merely a transitive sense as: $\sqrt{ }$ car, to go, Causative cāreti, to cause to go $=$ to administer (an estate). $\sqrt{ }$ bhū , to be, Causative bhāveti, to cause to $=$ to cultivate, practise.
§497. Verbs of the 7th Conjugation form their causal by adding āpe or āpaya to the base, the final vowel of the base having first been dropped.

| Root. | Base | Simple Verb | Causal Passive |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ cur, to steal, | core. | coreti, corayati, | corāpeti, corāpayati. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ kath, to tell, | kathe. | katheti, kathayati, | kathāpeti, kathāpayati. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ tim, to wet, | teme. | temeti, temayati, | temāpeti, temāpayati. |

## DENOMINATIVE VERBS

§498. So called because they are formed from a noun stem by means of certain suffixes.
§499. The meaning of the Denominative Verb is susceptible of several renderings in English; it generally expresses:
(a) "to act as, to be like, to wish to be like" that which is denoted by the noun.
(b) "to wish for, to desire" that which is signified by the noun.
(c) "to change or make into" that which is denoted by the noun.
(d) "to use or make use of" that which is expressed by the noun.
§500. The suffixes used to form Denominative Verbal Stems are:
(i) āya. aya, e,
(ii) 1 ya , iya.
(iii) a.
(iv) āra, āla. (These two rather rare).
(v) āpe.
§501. The base or stem having been obtained by means of the above suffixes, the Personal Endings of the tenses are added exactly as they are after other verbs.

Examples.

| Noun Stem | Denominative Verbs. |
| :---: | :---: |
| pabbata, a mountain. <br> macchara, avarice. <br> samudda, the ocean. <br> nadī, river. <br> arañña, forest. <br> dhana, riches. <br> putta, a son. <br> patta, a bowl. <br> cīvara, monk's robe. <br> dolā, a palankin. <br> vīṇā, a lute. <br> upakkama, diligence, plan. <br> gaṇa, a following. <br> samodhāna, a connection. <br> sārajja, modesty. <br> taṇhā, craving. | pabbatāyati, to act like a mountain. macchārayati, to be avaricious (lit. to act avariciously). <br> sammuddāyati, to be or act like the ocean. nadiyiti, to do, act like a river. arañ̃̃̄̄yati, to act (in town) as in the forest. dhanayati, dhanāyati, to desire riches. puttīyati, to desire, or treat as a son. pattīyati, to wish for a bowl. cīvarīyati, to desire a robe. dolāyati, to desire a, or wish for one's own palankin. <br> vīn̄āyati, to use the lute, to play on the lute. upakkkamālati, to make diligence, to devise plans. <br> ganayati, to wish for a following or disciples. samodhāneti, to connect, join. sārajjati, to be shy, nervous shyness. taṇhāyati, taṇhīyati, to crave. |


| mettan, love. | mettāyati, to love. |
| :--- | :--- |
| karuṇa, mercy, pity. | karun̄āyati, to pity. |
| sukha, happiness. | sukhāpeti, to make happy. |
| dukkha, misery. | dukkhāpeti, to make miserable. |
| uṇha, heat. | uṇhāpeti, to heat, warm. |
| jaṭā, matted hair, | vijatāayati, disentangle, comb out. Tangled <br> branches. <br> pariyosāna, end. |

§502. Denominatives can also be formed from the stems of adjectives and adverbs; as:
daḷha, firm, strong,
santay, being good,
daḷhāyati, to make firm, strong. santarati to act well, or handsomely. atṭayati, to hurt, afflict.

## Remarks

(a) Suffixes āra and āla are simply modifications of aya.
(b) There is an uncommon way of forming Denominative Verbs from nouns: the 1st, 2nd or 3rd syllable of the noun is reduplicated and the suffix iyyisa or yisa added to the word thus reduplicated; the vowel u or i may or may not be inserted between the reduplication. (Niruttidīpanī).

| Noun Stem |  |
| :--- | :--- |
| putta, son, | pupputtīyisati, to wish to be (as) a son. <br> puttittiyisati, to wish to be (as) a son. <br> puta son, <br> kakamalāyisati or kamamalāyisati or <br> kamalalāyisati, to wish to be (as) a flower. |
| kamalan, flower, |  |

(c) The Causal and Passive of all Denominatives are formed in the usual manner.

## DESIDERATIVE VERBS.

§503. As its very name indicates, the Desiderative Conjugation expresses the wish or desire to do or be that which is denoted by the simple root.
§504. The Desiderative is not extensively used in Pāli; however, it is frequent enough to warrant a careful perusal of the rules for its formation.
§505. The suffix sa is the characteristic sign of this conjugation; another characteristic is the reduplication of the root according to the rules already given (372). The student ought first to look carefully over those rules.

| Root. | Desiderative Base. | Desiderative Verb. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $\sqrt{ }$ su, to hear, | sussusa | sussusati, to desire to hear = listens. <br> $(33,372-7 \mathrm{c})$. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ bhuj, to eat | bubhukkha, | bubhukkhati, to wish to eat. (86, 372-5). <br> titikkhati, to endure, be patient. (86, |
| $\sqrt{ }$ tij, to bear, | titikkha, | $372-7 b)$. <br> jighacchati, to desire to eat. (89, 372-7a). <br> ghas, to eat, |
| jighaccha, |  |  |
| $\sqrt{ }$ pā, to drink, | pipāsati, pivāsa desire to drink. (372-7a). |  |
| (pivāsa, from the root). |  |  |
| cikicchati, to desire to cure, to treat. (88; |  |  |
| lkit, to cure, | cikiccha, | cik2-2). |

§506. It will be remarked that the initial s of sa is mostly assimilated.
§507 The bases being obtained, the personal endings are added as usual.

## Remarks.

The Causal and Passive are formed in the usual way

## INTENSIVE VERBS

§508. The Intensive Verbs also called Frequentative Verbs, express the frequent repetition or the intensification of the action denoted by the simple root. The characteristic of the Intensive Conjugation is the reduplication of the root according to the usual rules (372).
§509. These verbs are not very frequent in Pāli.
Examples.
Root. Intensive Verb.
$\sqrt{ }$ lap, to talk. lālappati, lālapati, to lament.
$\sqrt{ }$ kam, to go.
$\sqrt{ }$ gam, to go.
$\sqrt{ }$ cal, to move. cankamati, to walk to and fro. jangamati, to go up and down. cañcalati to move to and fro, to tremble.
The personal endings are added as usual.

## DEFECTIVE AND ANOMALOUS VERBS.

§510. $\sqrt{ }$ as , to be Present System: Present
Singular.
asmi, amhi, I am.
asi, thou art.
atthi, he is.

Plural. asma, amha, we are. attha, you are. santi, they are.

Imperative.

| Singular. <br> asmi, amhi, let me be. | Plural. <br> asma, amha, let us be. <br> ahi, be thou. |
| :--- | :--- |
| atthu, let him, her, it be. | attha, be ye. |
| santu, let them be. |  |

Present Participle.

Active
Masc. santo, being.
Fem. santī, being.
Neut. santay, being.

Reflective. samāno, being. samānā, being. samānaŋ, being.

Aorist.

## Active Reflective.

1. āsiy, I was, I have been. āsimhā, āsimha, we were, we have been.
2. āsi, thou wast, thou hast been. āsittha, you were, you have been.
3. āsi, he was, he has been. āsuy, āsinsu, they were, they have been.

## Conditional.

|  | Active | Reflective. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| §1. | assay, if I were or should be. | assāma, if we were or should be. |
| §2. | assa, if thou wert or should be. | assatha, if you were or should be. |
| §3. | assa, siyā, if he were or should be. | assu, siyun, if they were or should be. |

§511. $\sqrt{ } h \bar{u}$, to be. (hū is a contracted form of root bhū).
Present System.

| 1. | Present. |  | Imperfect. |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
|  | homi, | homa. | ahuva, | ahuvamha, |
|  |  |  | ahuvay, | ahuvamhā. |
| $\begin{aligned} & 2 . \\ & 3 . \end{aligned}$ | hosi, | hotha. | ahuvo, | ahuvattha. |
|  | hoti, | honti. | ahuva, ahuvā, | , ahuvu. |
| 1.2.3. | Imperative. |  | Optative. |  |
|  | Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
|  | homi, | homa. | heyyāmi, | heyyāma. |
|  | hohi, | homa. | heyyāsi, | heyyātha. |
|  | hotu, | hontu. | heyya | heyyun. |
|  |  | Present Participle. |  |  |

Masc. honto. Fem. hontī. Neut. hontay.

Singular.
ahosiy, ahuy,
ahosi,
ahosi, ahu,

Plural.
ahosimhā, ahumhā.
ahosittha.
ahesuy, ahuy.
The Future has already been given (436).

| Infinitive. | Gerund. | Future. P.P. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| hotuy. | hutvā. | hotabbo. |

§512. $\sqrt{ }$ kar, to do, make.
The present Active has already been given (403).

> Present System: Present.

Reflective.

| $\begin{aligned} & \text { \$1. } \\ & \$ 2 . \\ & \text { §3. } \end{aligned}$ | Singular. <br> kubbe. <br> kubbase, kuruse. <br> kubbate, kurute, kubbati. | Plural. <br> kubbamhe, kurumhe kubbavhe, kuruvhe. kubbante, kurunte. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Optative. |  |  |
|  | Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. | kare, kubbe, kubbeyya, kareyya, kayirā, kayirāmi. | kareyyāma, kubbeyyāma, kayirāma. |
| 2. | kare, kubbe, kubbeyyāsi, kareyyāsi, kayirā, kayirāsi. | kareyyātha, kubbetha, kayirātha. |
| 3. | kare, kubbe, kayirā, kubbeyya, kareyya. | kareyyay, kubbeyyay, kayiray |

Imperfect.
Active
Sing.
akara,

akaray. $\quad$\begin{tabular}{l}
Plur. <br>
akaramhā.

$\quad$

Reflective. <br>
Sing. <br>
akariy,

$\quad$

Plur. <br>
akaramhase.
\end{tabular}

The Aorist has been given (412).

| Imperative. |  |  |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Active |  | Reflective/Passive |  |  |
|  | Singular. | Plural. | Singular. | Plural. |
| 1. | karomi, | karoma. | kubbe, | kubbāmase. |
| 2. | kuru, karohi, | karotha. | kurussu, | kuruvho. |
| 3. | karotu, kurutu, | karontu, kubbantu. | kurutay, | kubbantay. |

Future.
Besides the usual Future in ssāmi: karissāmi, karissasi, there is another form given in (436).

Active.
Masc. karay, karonto.
Fem. karontī,
Neut. karay, karontay,
Present Participle.
Reflective.
karamāno, kurumāno, karāno, kubbāno.
karamānā, kurumānā, karānā, kubbānā.
karamānaŋ, kurumānay, karānay, kubbānay.

Future Passive Participle.
kattabbo, kātabbo, kāriyo, kayiro, kayyo, karaṇīyo.

Remarks.
All the forms in yira are obtained through metathesis, in kayyo the $r$ has been assimilated.

## Present Passive Part.

karīyamāno, kariyyamāno, kayīramāno, kariyamāno.

## Passive Base

The Passive Base has several forms:
karīya, kariyya, kariya, kayira.
§513. $\sqrt{ }$ da, to give.
The Present Optative and Imperative have already been given.(395). The student will remark that some of the tenses are formed directly on the root: the Radical Aorist, the Sigmatic Aorist, the Future and the Conditional.

| Radical Aorist. | Sigmatic Aorist. |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| adaŋ, | adamhā. | adāsiŋ, | adāsimhā. |
| ado, | adattha. | adāsi, | adāsittha. |
| ada, | adaŋsu, aduŋ. | adāsi, | adāsuŋ, adāsiŋsu. |

Future.
a. From the Base. b. From the Root.

Sing. Plur. Sing. Plur.

1. dadissāmi, dadissāma. dassāmi, dassāma.
2. dadissasi, dadissatha. dassasi, dassatha.
3. dadissati, dadissanti. dassati, dassanti.

## Conditional.

| Sing. | Plur. |
| :--- | :--- |
| adassaŋ, | adassamhā. |
| adasse, | adassatha. |
| adassā, | adassaysu. |



## VERBAL PREFIXES

§514. The Prefixes or Prepositions, called in Pāli: Upasagga [cf. the remark to §23] are prefixed to verbs and their derivatives; they have been, on that account, called Verbal Prefixes. They generally modify the meaning of the root, or intensify it, and sometimes totally alter it; in many cases, they add but little to the original sense of the root.
§515. The usual rules of sandhi apply when these prefixes are placed before verbs. When a prefix is placed before a tense with the augment a, the augment must not change its position, but remain between the prefix and the root, as; agā + ati = accagā (74, i), and not; aatigā
§516. These prefixes are as follows:
$\bar{a}$ - to, at, towards, near to, until, as far as, away, all round.
e.g., $\sqrt{ }$ kaḍḍh, to drag, draw = ākaḍ̣hati, to draw towards, to drag away.
$\sqrt{ }$ kir, to pour, scatter = ākirati, to scatter all over or around, to fill.
$\sqrt{ }$ cikkh, to show, tell $=$ ācikkhati, to point out, tell to (to communicate).
$\sqrt{ }$ chad, to cover $=$ acchādeti, to cover over or all around, to put on clothes $(33,35)$.

## Remarks.

This prefix reverses the meaning of some roots;
$\sqrt{ }$ dā, to give, but ādāti, to take.
$\sqrt{ }$ gam, to go, base: gaccha $=$ āgacchati, to come .
ati (before vowel = acc.) beyond, across, over, past, very much, very; it expresses excess.
e.g., $\sqrt{ }$ kam, to step, go $=$ atikkamati (33), to step over to go across, go past, to escape, overcome, transgress, excell, to elapse.
$\sqrt{ }$ nī, to lead $=$ atineti, to lead over or across, to irrigate.
$\sqrt{ }$ car, to act, $=$ aticarati, to act beyond, too much, in excess $=$ to transgress.
adhi (before vowels = ajjh), over, above, on, upon, at, to in, superior to, great, it expresses sometimes superiority.
e.g., $\sqrt{ }$ vas, to live $=$ adhivasati, to live in, to inhabit.
$\sqrt{ }$ gam, to go $=$ ajjhagamā, he approached $=$ adhi + augment $\mathrm{a}+$ gamā(Aorist) .
$\sqrt{ }$ bhās, to speak $=$ adhibhāsati, to speak to, to address.
anu, after, along, according to, near to, behind, less than, in consequence of, beneath.
e.g., $\sqrt{ }$ kar, to do $=$ anukaroti, to do like, viz., to imitate, to ape.
$\sqrt{ }$ kam, to go $=$ anukkamati, to go along with, to follow.
$\sqrt{ }$ dhāv, to run $=$ anudhāvati, to run after to pursue.
$\sqrt{ }$ gah, to take $=$ anugaṇhati, to take near, beneath $=$ to protect.
apa, off, away, away from, forth: it also implies detraction, hurt, reverence.
e.g., $\sqrt{ }$ ci, to notice, observe $=$ apacāyati, to honour, respect; apaciti, reverence.
$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{ni}$, to lead = opaneti, to lead away, viz., to take away, remove.
$\sqrt{ }$ gam, to go, = apagacchati, to go away.
$\sqrt{ }$ man, to think $=$ apamaññati, to despise.
api, on, over, unto, close upon. This prefix is very seldom used; it is prefixed mostly to the roots: $\sqrt{ }$ dhā, to put, set, lay, and $\sqrt{ }$ nah, to bind, join. It is moreover found abbreviated to pi in most instances.
e.g., $\sqrt{ }$ dhā, to put, set, lay = pidahati, to cover, close, shut. apidhanay, pidahanay, pidhānay, covering, lid, cover.
$\sqrt{ }$ nah, to bind, join = pinayhati, to bind on, join on.
abhi, to, unto, towards, against, in the direction of. lt also expresses excess, reverence, particularity. (Before a vowel = abbh).
e.g., $\sqrt{ }$ gam, to $\mathrm{go}=\mathrm{abhigacchati}$, to go towards, approach.
$\sqrt{ }$ kankh, to desire, abhikankhati $=$ to desire particularly, to long for, yearn.
$\sqrt{ }$ jal to blaze $=$ abhijalati, to blaze excessively, viz, fiercely.
$\sqrt{ }$ vand, to salute $=$ abhivandati, to salute reverentially.
ava, down, off, away, back, aside, little, less. Implies also: disrespect, disregard.
Remarks.
ava, is often contracted to o.
e.g., $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{j}$ ā, to know $=$ avajānāti, to despise. $\sqrt{ }$ har, to take $=$ avaharati, to take away. avahāro, taking away.
$\sqrt{ }$ khip, to throw $=$ avakhipati, to throw down.
$\sqrt{ }$ lok, luk, to look $=$ oloketi, to look down $=$ avaloketi.
ud ( = the $u$ of native grammarians; for the assimilation of final $d$ to the following consonants see $58,60,62,65$. Before $h$, sometimes final $d$ is lost and the $u$ lengthened.) Upwards, above, up, forth, out.
e.g., $\sqrt{ }$ khip, to throw $=u k k h i p a t i$, to throw up, get rid of; ukkhepanay, excommunication.
$\sqrt{ }$ chid, to cut $=$ ucchindati, to cut off.
$\sqrt{ }$ ṭhā, to stand $=u t t ̣ h a h a t i ~ t o ~ s t a n d ~ u p, ~ r i s e, ~ u t ̦ t ̣ h a ̄ n a y, ~ r i s i n g . ~$
$\sqrt{ }$ har, to take $=$ uddharati (96) to draw out. uddharaṇay, pulling out.
Remark. ud reverses the meaning of a few verbs
$\sqrt{ }$ pat, to fall $=$ uppatati, to leap up, spring up.
$\sqrt{ }$ nam, to bend $=$ unnamati, to rise up, ascend.
upa unto, to, towards, near, with, by the side of, as, like, up to, (opposed to apa), below, less.
e.g., $\sqrt{ }$ kaḍ̣h to drag $=$ upakaḍḍhati, to drag or draw towards, to draw below or
down.
$\sqrt{ }$ kar, to do = upakaroti, to do something towards unto; viz, to help, upakāro, help, use; upakaranay, instrument (lit. doing with).
$\sqrt{ }$ kam to step, go $=$ upakkamati, to attack, (lit. to go towards).
ni (sometimes lengthened to nī, and before a vowel = nir) out, forth, down, into, downwards, in, under.
e.g., $\sqrt{ }$ kam, to go $=$ nikkhamati, to go out, to depart.
$\sqrt{ }$ dhā, to place $=$ nidahati or nidheti, to deposit, hide.
$\sqrt{ }$ har, to take $=$ nīharati, to take out.
$\sqrt{ }$ han, to strike $=$ nihanti, to strike down.
pa, onward, forward to, forth, fore, towards, with. It expresses beginning.
e.g., $\sqrt{ }$ bhā, to shine $=$ pabhāti to shine forth, to dawn. pabhā, radiance.
$\sqrt{ }$ bhū, to be $=$ pabhavati, to begin to be, viz., to spring up, to originate.
$\sqrt{ }$ jal, to burn $=$ pajjalati, to burn forth, to b1aze.
pati, paṭi against, back to, in reverse direction, back again in return, to, towards, near.
e.g., $\sqrt{ }$ bhās, to speak $=$ paṭibhāsati. to speak back, to reply.
$\sqrt{ }$ khip, to throw $=$ paṭikkhipati, to refuse. paṭikkhepo, refusing.
$\sqrt{ }$ kam, to step $=$ paṭikkamati, to step back, to retreat.
parā, away, back, opposed to, aside, beyond.
e.g., $\sqrt{ }$ kam, to go = parakkamati, to strive, put forth effort.
$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{ji}$, to conquer $=$ parājeti, to overcome.
pari, around, all around, about, all about, all over. Expresses completeness, etc.
e.g., $\sqrt{ }$ car, to walk = paricarati, to walk around, viz,. to serve, honour. paricāro, attendance; paricca, having encircled ( = pari + i + tya).
$\sqrt{ }$ chid, to cut $=$ paricchindati, to cut around, to limit, mark out.
$\sqrt{ }$ dhāv, to run $=$ paridhāvati, to run about.
$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{j} \overline{\mathrm{a}}$, to know $=$ parijānāti, to know perfectly, exactly.
vi, asunder, apart, away, without. Implies separation, distinctness, dispersion.
e.g., $\sqrt{ }$ chid, to cut $=$ vicchindati, to cut or break asunder, to break off, interrupt.
$\sqrt{ }$ jā to know = vijānāti, to know distinctly, to discern; vijānay, knowing.
$\sqrt{ }$ kir, to scatter $=$ vikirati, to scatter about, to spread.
sam, with, along, together, fully, perfectly.
$\sqrt{ }$ bhuj, to eat $=$ sambhuñjati, to eat with.
$\sqrt{ }$ vas, to live $=$ sayvasati, to live together with; sayvāso, living with.

## Remarks.

It should be borne in mind that two, and sometimes three, of the above prefixes may combine. The most common combinations are:
vyā, written byā ( $=$ vi $+\bar{a})$; vyākaroti, to explain ( $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{kar}$ ); vyāpajjati, to fall away (pad, to go).
ajjho ( = adhi $+\mathrm{o}, \mathrm{o}=\mathrm{ava}$ ), ajjhottharati, to overwhelm ( $\sqrt{ }$ thar, to spread).
ajjhā ( = adhi +a ), ajjhāvasati, to dwell in (vas) ajjhāseti, to lie upon ( $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{s} \overline{\mathrm{I}}$ ).
anupa ( = anu + pa), anupakhādati, to eat into (khad); anupabbajati to give up the world ( $\sqrt{ }$ vaj, to go).
anupari ( = anu + pari), anuparidhāvati, to run up and down (dhav); anupariyāti, to go round and round ( $\sqrt{ }$ yā).
anusam ( = anu + sam) anusangito, chanted together rehearsed; anusañcarati, to cross.
samud ( $=$ sam $+u d$ ), samukkaysati, to exalt; samucchindati, to extirpate ( $\sqrt{ }$ chid); samudeti, to remove $(\sqrt{ } \mathrm{i})$.
samudā (sam $+u d+\bar{a})$ samudācarati, to address, practise ( $\sqrt{ }$ car); samudāhaṭo, produced ( $\sqrt{ }$ har); samudāgamo, beginning ( $\sqrt{ }$ gam).
samupa( = sam + upa) samupeti, to approach ( $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{i}$ ); samupagacchati: to approach.
$\operatorname{sama}(=\operatorname{sam}+\overline{\mathrm{a}})$, samāharati, to gather ( $\sqrt{ }$ har); samāgamo, assembly ( $\sqrt{ }$ gam $)$.
samabhi ( = sam + abhi), samabhisiñcati, to sprinkle ( $\sqrt{ }$ siñc).
upasam ( $=$ upa + sam $)$ upasayharati, to bring together ( $\sqrt{ }$ har); upasayvasati, to take up one's abode in ( $\sqrt{ }$ vas, to live).

## Remark.

The student must be prepared to meet with some other combinations; the general meaning of a word can always be traced from the sense of the several combined prefixes.
§517. It is important to note that the prefixes or prepositions are used, not only with verbs, but also with verbal derivatives, nouns and adjectives, as: anutire, along the bank; adhicittay, high thought; abhinīlo, very black.
§518. pari is often written: pali (cf., §72).
§519 pari, vi and sam very often add merely an intensive force to the root.
§520. After prefixes, sam upa, parā, pari, and the word pura, in front, $\sqrt{ }$ kar sometimes assumes the form: khar. E.g. purakkharoti, to put in front, to follow $=$ pura $+\sqrt{ }$ kar: parikkharo, surrounding $=$ pari $+\sqrt{ }$ kar.
§521. A few adverbs are used very much in the same way as the Verbal Prefixes, but their use is restricted to a few verbs only. They are:
āvi = in full view, in sight, in view, manifestly, visibly. It is prefixed to the verbs: bhavati ( $\sqrt{ }$ bhū) and karoti ( $\sqrt{ }$ kar). E.g., āvibhavati to become manifest, visible, to appear, be evident; āvikaroti, to make manifest, clear, evident; to explain, show.
antara $=$ among within, between, used with $\sqrt{ }$ dhā, to put, place; e.g. antaradhāyati, to vanish, disappear, hide; antaradhāpeti, to cause to vanish or disappear.
atthay (adv. and noun) = home; disappearance, disappearing, setting; used with verbs of going = to set, disappear (of moon, sun and stars). Mostly used with the verbs gacchati and eti $(\sqrt{ } \mathrm{i})$, to go. E.g. atthangacchati, to disappear, to set; atthameti, to set (of the sun).
pātu (before a vowel: patur) = forth to view, manifestly, evidently, used with bhavati and karoti. E.g. pātubhavati, to become manifest, evident, clear, to appear, to arise; pātubhāvo, appearance, manifestation; pātukaroti, to manifest, make clear, evident; to produce.
pura, in front, forward, before, used almost exclusively with karoti, (520). E.g. purakkharoti, to put or place in front, to appoint or make a person (one's) leader, and thence: to follow, to revere.
alay, fit, fit for, used with verb karoti in the sense of decorating. E.g. alankaroti, to adorn, embellish, decorate.
tiro, out of sight; across, beyond, prefixed to roots kar and dhā, in the sense of covering, hiding, etc. E.g. tirodhāpeti, to veil, to cover, put out of sight; tirodhānay, a covering, a veil; tirokaroti, to veil, to screen; tirokaraṇi, a screen, a veil.
§522. Prefixes du and su are never used with verbs. (See Chapter on Adverbs), and prefix a (an), is very seldom so used.
§523. To finish this chapter on Verbs, we will now give the paradigm of a verb fully conjugated:


|  | PresentParticiple. <br> Active |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Masc. | peflective <br> pacay, <br> pacanto, | pacamāno. <br> pacāno. |
| Fem. | pacatī, <br> pacantī, <br> pacay, <br> pacantay, | pacamānā. <br> pacānā. <br> pacamānay. <br> pacānay. |

Aorist System.
Aorist (Stem pac).. I cooked, or, I have cooked, etc.

| Active Voice. | Reflective Voice. |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| apaciy, | apacimhā. | apaca, | apacimhe. |
| apaci, | apacittha. | apacise, | apacivhay. |
| apaci, | apacuy. | apacā, | apacuy. |
| apacī, | apaciysu. | apacū, | apaciysu. |

Remarks.
The augment a may be left out.

## Perfect System.

Perfect (Stem: papac). I cooked, etc.

|  | Active Voice. | Reflective Voice. |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |  |
| 1. | papaca, | papacimha. | papaci, | papacimhe. |
| 2. | papace, | papacittha. | papacittho, | papacivho. |
| 3. | papaca, | papacu. | papacittha, | papacire. |

Perfect Participle Active. Having cooked.

Active Voice.
Masc. pacitavā,
pacitavanto, pacitāvī,
Fem. pacitavatī, pacitavantī, pacitāvinī,
Neut. pacitavay, pacitavantay, pacitāvi,

Reflective Voice.
pacitavā.
pacitavanto.
pacitāvī
pacitavatī. pacitavantī.
pacitāvinī.
pacitavay.
pacitavantay.
pacitāvi.

Remark.
§524. A Paradigm of $\sqrt{ }$ cur, to steal. Base coraya or core.

The Perfect Participle is the same for the Reflective as for the Active Voice. (For formation, see 465).

## Future System.

Future. I shall cook, etc. (Stem: pacissa)


Future Participle.

| Masc. | Active Voice. | Reflective Voice |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | pacissan, | pacissamāno. |
|  | pacissanto, | pacissāno. |
| Fem. | pacissatī, | pacissamānā. |
|  | pacissantī, | pacissānā. |
| Neut. | pacissay, | pacissamānay. |
|  | pacissantay, | pacissānay. |

Infinitive: pacituy.
Gerund: pacitvā, pacitvāna, pacitūna, paciya.
Fut. P.P.: pacitabba, pacanīya.
P.P.P.: pacita.

Present System.
Active Voice

| First form. (base, coraya). | Second form (base, core) |  |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| corayāmi, | corayāma. | coremi, | corema. |
| corayasi, | corayatha. | coresi, | coretha. |
| corayati, | corayanti. | coreti, | corenti. |

Imperfect. ( from base coraya only).

| Sing. | Plur. |
| :--- | :--- |
| acoraya, | acorayamhā. |
| acorayay, | acorayamha. |
| acorayo, | acorayattha. |
| acoraya, | acorayu. |

Imperative.
First form. (base, coraya). Second form (base, core)

| Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| corayāmi, | corayāma. | coremi, | corema. |
| corayāhi, | corayatha. | corehi, | coretha. |
| corayatu, | corayantu. | coretu, | corentu. |

Optative.
First form. (base, coraya). Second form (base, core).
Sing. Plur. Sing. Plur.

1. corayeyyāmi, corayeyyāma. coreyyāmi, coreyyāma.
2. corayeyyāsi, corayeyyātha. coreyyāsi, coreyyātha.
3. corayeyya, corayeyyuŋ. coreyya, coreyyuŋ.
coraye.
Present Participle
First form. (base, coraya). Second form (base, core).
Masc. corayan, corayanto.
Fem. corayatī, corayantī.
corento.

Neut. corayay, corayantay.
corentī.
corentay.

Aorist System.

| First form. (base, coraya). | Second form (base, core). <br> Sing. | Plur. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |$\quad$| Sing. |
| :--- |$\quad$ Plur.

(The Perfect Tense of these verbs is not generally met with but it would be: cucora, cucore, cucorimha, etc).


Future System.
Future.
First form. (base, coraya). Second form (base, core).
Sing. Plur. Sing. Plur.
corayissāmi, corayissāma. coressāmi, coressāma.
corayissasi, corayissatha. coressasi. coressatha. corayissati, corayissanti. coressati, coressanti.

Conditional.
First form. (base, coraya). Second form (base, core).
acorayissay, acorayissamhā.
acorayisse, acorayissatha.
acorayissā, acorayissaysu.

Future Participle.

## Active.

| First form. (base, coraya). | Second form (base, core). |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Masc. | corayissay, <br> corayissanto, | coressay. <br> coressanto. |
| Fem. | corayissatī, <br> corayissantī, | coressatī. <br> coressantī. |
| Neut. | corayissay, <br> corayissantay, | coressay. <br> coressantay. |

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Masc. } & \text { corayamāno, corayāno. } \\
\text { Fem. } & \text { corayamānā, corayānā. } \\
\text { Neut. } & \text { corayamānaŋ, corayānaŋ. }
\end{array}
$$

Infinitive. corayituŋ, coretuŋ.
Gerund. corayitvā, coretvā.
P.P.F. corayitabbo, coretabbo
P.P.P. corito, coritā, coritay

Reflective.
§525. The Reflective Voice presents no difficulty; it is generally formed on the base in aya:

| Present. |  | Imperfect. |  |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| Sing. | Plur. | Sing. | Plur. |
| coraye, | corayāmhe. | acorayay, acorayāmhase. |  |
| corayase, | corayavhe. | acorayase, acorayavhay. |  |
| corayate, | corayante. | acorayattha, acorayatthuy. |  |

## Passive Voic

§526. The Passive Voice is formed in the usual way by joining ya to the base by means of vowel i lengthened to $\overline{1}$, the final vowel of the base being dropped before $\overline{1}$.

Present.

| Singular. | Plural. |
| :--- | :--- |
| corīyāmi, I am robbed. | corīyamā, we are robbed. |
| corīyasi, thou art robbed. | corīyatha, you are robbed |
| corīyati, he is robbed. | corīyanti, they are robbed. |

And so on for the other tenses.
§527. The Causal and the Denominative Verbs are conjugated exactly like coreti.
§528 The following paradigm will familiarize the student with the changes which take place in the principal forms of the Verb:

| Root | Special <br> Base | Active | Reflect. | Passive | Causal | $\begin{aligned} & \text { Causal } \\ & \text { Passive } \end{aligned}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $\sqrt{ }$ pac, to cook | paca | pacati | pacate | paccate, paccati | pāceti, pācāpeti, pācayati, pācāpayati. | pāciyati, pācāpiyati. |
| $\sqrt{ }$ dā, <br> to give | dadā | dadāti | dadate | diyate, diyati | dāpati, dāpāpeti | dāpiyati |
| $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{ni}$ <br> to lead | ne, naya | neti, nayati | nayate | niyate, niyati, niyyati | nāyayati, nayāpeti, nayāpayati | nayāpiyati |
| $\sqrt{ }$ han, to kill | hana | hanati, hanti | hanate | haññate, haññati | haneti, hanāpeti, hanayati, hanāpayati | hanāpiyati, hanayiyati |
| $\sqrt{ }$ khād, to eat | khāda | khādati | khādate | khājjate, khājjati | khādeti, khādayati, khādāpeti, khādāpayati | khādapiyati <br> khādāpiyati |
| $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{lu},$ <br> to cut | lunā | lunāti | lunate | lūyate, lūyati | lāveti, lāvayati | lāviyati |
| $\sqrt{ }$ bhū, to be | bhava | bhavati | bhavate | bhūyate, bhūyati | bhāveti, bhāvayati, bhāvāpeti, bhāvāpayati | bhāviyati |
| $\sqrt{ }$ labh, to get | labha | labhati | labhate | labbhate, labbhati | labheti, labhayati, labhāpeti, labhāpayati | labhāpiyati |
| $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{su}$, to hear | suṇā, <br> suṇo | suṇāti, suṇoti | suṇate | sūyate, sūyati | sāveti, suṇapeti | sāviyati |

## CHAPTER XI.

## INDECLINABLES.

§529. Under the term "indeclinables" are included all those words which are incapable of any grammatical declension, that is: Adverbs, Prefixes, Propositions, Conjunctions and Interjections.

## ADVERBS.

§530. Adverbs may be divided into three groups:
(i) Derivative Adverbs, formed by means of suffixes.
(ii) Case-form Adverbs.
(iii) Pure Adverbs.
§531. (i) Derivative Adverbs.
(a) These are formed by the addition to pronominal stems, and to the stems of nouns and adjectives, of certain suffixes.
(b) Under this head come the "Adverbial Derivatives from numerals" given in (279), and the "Pronominal Derivatives" given in (336). The student ought now to read again these two classes of Adverbs.
(c) The suffix to (346), is also added to prepositions, nouns and adjectives, to form a very large class of adverbs; to is an ablative suffix (120) and therefore the adverbs formed with it have an ablative sense.
(i) From prepositions: abhito, near; parato, further.
(ii) From nouns:
dakkhinato, southerly, on the south; pācinato, easterly, on the east; pittehito, from the surface, from the back, etc., pārato, from the further shore;
orato, from the near shore.
(iii) From adjectives: sabbato, everywhere.
(d) Suffixes tra and tha (346), showing place, are also used with adjectives: aññatha or aññatra, elsewhere; sabbatha, everywhere; ubhayattha, in both places.
(e) Suffix dā (345), is likewise used with adjectives and numerals: ekadā, once; sadā = sabbadā, at all times, always.
(f) dhi is used like dhā ( 28,283 ): sabbadhi, everywhere.
( g ) Suffixes so and sā (122, c, d) likewise form adverbs: bahuso, in a great degree; atthaso, according to the sense; balasā, forcibly.
(h) iti, (347) is extensively used as the particle of quotation; it is often abbreviated to ti (See Syntax).

## §532. (ii) Case-form Adverbs.

(a) Some cases of pronouns, and adjectives, are used adverbially.
(b) Accusative Case. This case is very much used adverbially: kiy, why?; tay, there; iday
here; yay because, since; from pronouns.
(c) From nouns; divasay during the day; rattiy at night; raho, in secret; saccay truly; atthay for the purpose of.
(d) For adjectives: ciray, a long time; khippay, quickly; manday, stupidly.
(e) Some adverbs of obscure origin may be classed as the accusative case of nouns or
adjectives long obsolete. Such are:
mitho, mithu, one another, mutually; aray, presently;
sajju, immediately; tuṇhī, silently;
alay, enough;
isay a little, somewhat;
sāyay, in the evening;
jātu, surely, certainly;

The Instrumentive Case.
This case also is much used adverbially.
From pronouns: tena, therefore; yena; because.
From nouns: divasena, in a day; māsena, in a month; divā by day; sahāsā, suddenly. From adjectives: cirena, long; dakkhinena, to the south; uttarena, to the north; antarena, within.

The Dative Case.
The adverbial use of the dative is restricted to atthāya, for the sake of, for the purpose of; cirāya, for a long time; hitāya, for the benefit of.

The Ablative Case.
The Ablative Case is used frequently in an adverbial sense; especially so is the case with pronouns: kasmā, why?; yasmā, because; tasmā, therefore; pacchā, behind; after; ārā, afar off; hetṭhā, below.

The Genitive Case.
The Genitive Case is seldom used adverbially; from pronouns we have: kissa why? From adjectives: cirassa, long. From nouns: hetussa, causally.

The Locative Case
The Locative is very often used adverbially: bāhire, outside; dūre, far; avidūre, not far; samīpe, santike, near; rahasi, privately, in secret; bhuvi, on earth, on the earth.

## (iii) Pure adverbs

By these are understood the adverbs which are not obtained by derivation and which are not case-forms ; such are :
kira, kila, they say, we are told that;
hi, certainly, indeed;
khalu, indeed;
tu, now, indeed;
atha, atho, and, also, then; etc.
na, expressing simple negation; mā, expressing prohibition; mā is often used with the Aorist. nanu, used in asking questions to which an affirmative answer is expected. nu used in asking simple questions; no, not; nūna surely, perhaps; nānā, variously.

The particle kva, where?
The above particles are called nipātā by the grammarians, they number about two hundred.

Verbal Prefixes; have already been treated of (514).

## Inseparable Prefixes.

(a) a, and before a vowel an, not, without, free from.
e.g. abhaya, free from fear; abāla, not foolish; apassanto, not seeing; anāloketva, without looking.
(b) du and before a vowel dur, bad, ill, hard difficult.
e.g. dubbaṇno (33. Remark), ugly, ill-favoured; dubbinīto ill conducted; duddamo, difficult to tame; duggo, difficult to pass; dujjano, a bad man; dukkaro, difficult to perform;
dujjīvay, a hard life.
(c) su has the contrary meaning of du :good, well, easy. It implies excess, facility, excellence.
e.g. subhāsito, well-spoken; subahu, very much; sudanto, well-tamed; sukaro, easy to perform; sulabho, easy to be obtained.

## Remarks.

After du, the initial consonant is generally reduplicated; reduplication seldom takes place after su.
(d) sa, which is used instead of sam, (516), expresses the ideas of "possession, similarity; with, and; like; including."
e.g. sabhāriya, with (his) wife; salajja, having shame, ashamed; sabhoga, wealthy; savihārī, living with: sadevaka, including the worlds of gods.

The particle sa is the opposite of particle $a$, an.

## Preposition.

§533. It has been seen that Verbal prefixes are properly prepositions and are used with nouns as well as verbs
§534. Many adverbs are used with a prepositional force along with nouns. Those of class (ii) Case form adverbs, are seldom used as prepositions, except perhaps those in to.
§535. Prepositions, or words used prepositionally may govern any case, except the Nominative and Vocative.
§536. Most of the Verbal Prefixes require the noun to be in one case or other.
§537. The cases mostly used with prepositions or prepositional Adverbs are: the genitive, the instrumentive and the accusative.
But only a few are used separately from the noun they govern.
For examples see "Syntax of Substantives."

## Conjunctions.

§538. Indeclinables distinctly conjunctive are very few. The principal are:
(a) Copulative: ca , and, also, but, even. It is never used as the first word in a
sentence; atha, and, then, now; atho; and also then.
(b) Disjunctive: vā, (never at the start of a sentence) uda, uda vā, or vā ... vā, either or; yadi vā, whether; yadi vā ... yadi vā, whether or; atha vā, or else, rather; na vā, or not; tathā pi, nevertheless.
(c) Conditional: yadi sace, if; ce (never at the beginning of a sentence) if; yadi evay, yajj'evay, if so.
(d) Causal: hi, for, because; certainly.

## Interjections.

Ahaha, alas! oh! aho! ah!; are, sirrah! I say! here!; bho, friend! sir! I say!; maññe, why! methinks!; sādhu, well! very well! very good!
General Remarks.

The use of some particles will be given in the chapter on Syntax.

CHAPTER XII. COMPOUNDS
§539. Declinable stems are frequently joined to one another to form compounds. In the older language, compounds are simple and rarely consist of more than 2 or 3 stems, but the later the language (i.e. in the commentaries and sub-commentaries) the more involved they become.
§540. Compounds may also have an indeclinable as the first member; there are even a few compounds made up entirely of indeclinables.

## Remarks

The Case Endings of the first member or members of a compound are generally dropped; only in a few instances are they preserved.
§541. There are six kinds of Compound Words:
(i) dvanda, Copulative or Aggregative Compounds.
(ii) tappurisa, Dependent Determinate Compounds.
(iii) kammadhāraya, Descriptive Determinate Compounds.
(iv) digu, Numeral Determinate Compounds.
(v) abyayibhāva, Adverbial Compounds.
(vi) bahubbihi, Relative Or Attributive Compounds.

## Remarks

Native grammarians distribute the above into four classes by making. Nos. iii and iv subdivisions of No. ii, tappurisa; but this classification, through lack of sufficient distinctness, confuses the student unnecessarily. We shall therefore follow the above division (541).

> Dvanda (Copulative or Aggregative Compounds).
§542. The members of these compounds are co-ordinate syntatically, in their uncompounded state; each member would be connected with the other by means of the conjunction ca, and.
§543. Dvanda Compounds are of two kinds:
(i) The compound is a plural and takes the gender and declension of its last member.
(ii) The compound takes the form of a neuter singular and, whatever the number of its members, becomes a collective. This is the case generally with the names of: birds, parts of the body, persons of different sexes, countries, trees herbs, the cardinal points, domestic animals, things that form an antithesis, etc.

## Remarks

The following rules are given as to the order of the members of dvanda compounds (a) words in $i$ and $u$ are placed first;
(b) shorter words are placed before longer ones;
(c) $\overline{1}$ and $\bar{u}$ (long), are generally shortened in the middle of the compound;
(d) sometimes a feminine noun, in the middle of the compound, takes the masculine form (candimasuriyā) sometimes, or remains unchanged (jarāmaraṇay).

## EXAMPLES OF (i).

samaṇā ca brāhmaṇā ca = samaṇabrāhmanā, samanas and brahmins. devā ca manussā ca = devamanussā, gods and men. devānañ ca manussānañ ca = devamanussānay, of gods and men. candimā ca suriyo $\mathrm{ca}=$ candimasuriyā, the sun and the moon. aggi ca dhūmo $\mathrm{ca}=$ aggidhūmā, fire and smoke.
dhammo ca attho $\mathrm{ca}=$ dhammatthā, the spirit and the word.
sāriputte ca moggallāne ca = sariputtamoggallāne, in Sariputta and in Moggallana.

## EXAMPLES OF (ii).

Note that the compounds which come under no. (ii) sometimes assume the form of the plural like those of no.(i).
mukhanāsikay = mukhañ ca nāsikā ca, the mouth and the nose. chavimaysalohitay = chavi ca maysañ ca lohitañ ca, the skin, flesh and blood. jarāmaraṇay = jarā ca maranañ ca, old age and death. hatthapādan or hatthapādā = hatthā ca pādā ca, the hands and feet. hatthiassay = hatthino ca assā ca, elephants and horses.
kusalākusalay or kusalākusalā = kusalay akusalañ ca, good and evil, vajjimallay or vajjimallā = vajjī ca mallā ca, the Vajjians and the Mallians.
§544. The compounds which take the plural form are called: itaritara, because the members of the compound are considered separately; those that take the neuter singular form: samāhāra, because the several members are considered collectively, those that take either the plural or the neuter, are called: vikappasamāhāra.

Tappurisa. (Dependent Determinate Compounds).
§545. In these compounds the first member is a substantive in any case but the Nominative and the Vocative, qualifying, explaining or determining the last member.
(a) The Case-ending of the first member is elided.
(b) In a few cases, the Case-ending is not elided; these compounds are called: alutta tappurisa.
(c) The ā of such words as: rājā, mātā, pitā, bhāta, etc, is shortened in the first member.
(d) Generally, a tappurisa follows the gender of the last member.
(i) tappurisa with accusative case. (dutiya tappurisa). e.g., araññagato = araññay gato, gone to the forest. sukhappatto $=$ sukhay patto, attained happiness. saccavādi = saccay vādi, speaking the truth. kumbhakāro = kumbhay kāro; a pot-maker, a potter. pattagāho = pattay gāho, receiving a bowl. atthakāmo = atthay kāmo, wishing the welfare of.
(ii) tappurisa with instrumentive case. (tatiya tappurisa). e.g., buddhabhāsito = buddhena bhāsito, spoken by the Buddha. viññugarahito = viññūhi garahito, censured by the wise. sukāhaṭay = sukehi āhaṭay, brought by parrots. jaccandho = jātiyā andho, blind by (from) birth. urago = urena go, going on the breast, a snake. pādapo = pādena po, drinking with the foot (root), a tree

Remarks.
In some tappurisa compounds, a word, necessary to express properly the full meaning, is altogether elided.
e.g., gulodano = gulena saysatte odano, rice mixed with molasses .
assaratho $=$ assena yutto ratho $=$ a carriage yoked with horses, a horse carriage. asikalaho = asinā kalaho, a combat with swords.
(iii) tappurisa with dative case (catutthī tappurisa)
e.g., kathinadussay = kathinassa dussay, cloth for the kathina robe,
(this is a robe sewn on a fixed day, each year as a meritorious act.).
sanghabhattay = sanghassa bhattay, rice (prepared) for the clergy.
buddhadeyyay = buddhassa deyyay, worthy to be offered to the Buddha.
rājārahay = rañño arahay, worthy of (lit., to) the king.

## Remark

(a) In these compounds, the last member designates the object destined for or attributed to that which is expressed by the first member.
(b) Compounds formed by adding kāmo "desirous of" to an infinitive are considered to be tappurisas in the Dative relation. (nīruttadīpanī, saddanīti).
e.g., kathetukāmo = kathetuy kāmo, desirous to speak.
sotukāmo = sotuy kāmo, desirous to hear.
gantukāmo = gantuy kāmo, desirous to go.
(iv) tappurisa with ablative case. (pañcamī tappurisa).
e.g., nagaraniggato = nagaramhā niggato, gone out from town.
rukkhapatito $=$ rukkhasmā patito, fallen from the tree .
sāsanacuto = sāsanamhā cuto, fallen away from religion.
corabhīto = corābhïto, afraid of the thief.
pāpabhīruko = pāpato bhīruko, fearing sin.
pāpajigucchī = pāpato jigucchī; loathing evil.
bandhanamokkho = bandhanasmā mokkho, freedom from bonds or fetters.
lokaggo $=$ lokato aggo, greater than the world.
mātujo = mātito jo, born from a mother.

## Remarks.

These express: fear of, separation or going away from, fredom from, etc.
(v) tappurisa with genitive case. (chatṭha tappurisa).
e.g., rājaputto $=$ rañño putto, the king's son, a prince.
dhaññarāsi = dhaññānay rāsi, a heap of grains.
naditīray = nadiyā tiray, the river-bank. (from nadī).
bhikkhunisangho = bhikkunīnay sangho, the assembly of the nuns (from bhikkunī).
naruttamo = narānay uttamo, the greatest of men .

## Remarks.

(a) tappurisas in the Genitive relation are by far the most common.
(b) Final $\overline{1}$ and $\bar{u}$ of the first member are as a rule shortened to $i$ and $u$ respectively.
(c) The word: ratti, night, takes the form rattay at the end of a tappurisa.
(vi) tappurisa with locative case. (sattāni tappurisa).
e.g., araññavāso = araññe vāso, living in the forest.
dānajjhāsayo = dāne ajjhāsayo, inclined to alms-giving.
dhammarato $=$ dhamme rato, delighting in the Law.
vanacaro = vane cāro, walking in the woods.
thalatt + ho $=$ thale tho, standing on firm ground.
pabbatattetho = pabbatasmin tho, standing on a mountain.
Anomalous tappurisa.
(a) Sometimes the first member of a tappurisa is placed last.
e.g., rājahayso = haysānay rājā, the swan-king, but also: haysarājā.
alutta tappurisa.
(b) In these the Case-endings are not dropped:
e.g., pabhankaro = pabhay karo, making light, the sun.
vessantaro = vessay taro, crossing over to the merchants (a king's name).
parassapaday = parassa paday, word for another, Active Voice.
attanopaday = attano paday, word for one's self, Reflective Voice.
kutojo = kuto jo, sprung whence?
antevāsiko $=$ ante vāsiko, a pupil within, a resident pupil
urasilomo = urasi (loc.) lomo, having hair on the breast, hairy-breasted.
The student will remark that the case of the first member may be any case but the Nominative and Vocative.
§546. (iii) Kammadhāraya. Descriptive Determinate Compounds

## Remarks

(a) In kammadhāraya compounds, the adjective: mahanta assumes the form: mahā, and, if the consonant which follows is reduplicated, the form: maha.
(b)The word: santa, good, being, takes the form; sa (Sk. sat).
(c) The word: puma, a male, rejects its final a.
(d) When the two members of a kammadhāraya are feminine, the first one assumes the form of the masculine.
(e) The Prefix na, not, is replaced by a before a consonant and by an before a vowel,
(f) Prefix ku, meaning bad, little, may become ka before a consonant, and kad before a vowel.
(g) In their uncompounded state, the two members of a kammadhāraya are in the same case.
(i) The kammadharaya compound (which is also called: missakatappurisa) is divided into nine classes:
(1) visesanapubbapada kammadharaya, in which the determining or qualifying word is placedfirst.
e.g., mahāpuriso = mahanto puriso, a great man.
mahānadī = mahantī nadī, a large river.
mahabbhayay = mahantay bhayay, great fear.
aparapuriso $=$ aparo puriso, the other man.
kaṇhasappo = kaṇho sappo, a black snake.
nīluppalay = nīlay uppalay, a blue lotus.
(2) visesanaparapada, or visesanuttarapada-kammadhāraya; in this, the second member determines the first.
narasetṭho = naro setṭho, the oldest man.
purisuttamo = puriso uttamo, the greatest man.
buddhaghosācariyo = buddhaghoso ācariyo, the teacher Buddhaghosa. sāriputtathero = sāriputto thero, the Elder Sāriputta.
(3) visesanobhayapada-kammadhāraya, the two members of which are determinate.
e.g., sïtuṇhay $=\operatorname{sit} a \eta$ ( $\operatorname{tañ} \mathrm{ca}$ ) unhhay, heat and cold.
khañjakhujjo = khañjo (ca so) khujjo, (he is) lame (and) hump-backed. andhabadhiro $=$ andho (ca so) badhiro, (he is) blind (and) deaf.
katākatay = katay (ca tay) akatay, (what is) done (and) not done.

## Remarks.

A word, as for instance, so, he, is generally understood between the two members of these compounds.
(4) sambhāvanāpubbapada-kammadhāraya; in which the first member indicates the origin of the second term, or the relation in which the second term stands to the first. In these compounds such words as: iti namely, thus called; evay thus, called; sankhāto, called, named; hutvā, being are generally understood, in order to bring out the full meaning of the compound.
e.g., hetupaccayo = hetu (hutvā) paccayo, the term (middle term) being, or considered as, the cause, the term which is the cause or condition. aniccasaññ̄̄ = anicca iti saññā, the idea, namely, Impermanence. hinasamato = hino hutvā samato, equal in being low, unworthy. dhammabuddhi = dhammo iti buddhi, knowledge (arising from) the Law. attadițṭhi $=$ attā iti dițṭhi the (false) doctrine of Self.
(5) upamā-or upamānuttarapada-kammadhāraya, in these compounds, analogy is expressed between the two terms. The word: viya, like, is understood between the two members.
e.g., buddhādicco = ādicco viya buddho, the sun-like-Buddha.
munisīho = sīho viya muni, lion-like-sage, lion-sage.
munipungavo, sage-bull.
buddhanāgo, Buddha-elephant.
saddhammaransi = raysi viya saddhammo, Light-like-Good Law, the Light of the Good Law.

> Remarks.

The words: ādicca, sun, sīha, lion; pungava, usabha, bull; naga, elephant, are frequently used as in the above examples, to denote: superiority, greatness excellence, eminence, so that buddhādicco may be translated: the eminent Buddha; munisīho, the great sage; munipungavo, the eminent sage, etc.
(6) avadhāranapubbapada-kammadhāraya, in which the first member specifies a general term. Native grammarians, in resolving these compounds, insert the word eva, just, even (but which in these examples cannot be translated into English), between the two terms of the compounds. In English, these compounds must be translated as if they were in the Genitive relation.
e.g., guṇadhanay = guno eva dhanay, wealth of virtues.
silladhanay = sillay eva dhanay, treasure of morality or of piety.
paññāsatthay = pañña eva satthay, the sword of wisdom.
paññāpajjoto = paññā eva pajjoto, the lamp of wisdom.
avijjāmalā = avijjā eva malay, the stain of ignorance.
(7) kunipātapubbapada kammadhāraya, the first member of which is: ku, (see f). e.g., kuputto $=k u+$ putto, a bad son.
kudāsā = ku + dāsā, bad slaves.
kadannay = kad + annay, bad food.
kāpuriso = kā + puriso, a bad man.
kadariyo $=$ kad + ariyo, badly noble, not noble, ignoble, miserly, stingy.
kalavaṇay = ka + lavaṇay, a little salt.
(8) nanipātapubbapada-kammadhāraya, (see e).
e.g., anariyo = na + ariyo, ignoble .
anīti $=$ na + iti free from calamity, secure.
anūmi $=$ na $+\bar{u} m i$, not having waves, waveless.
anatikkamma $=$ na + atikkamma (gerd.), not transgressing or trespassing. anatthakāmo $=$ na + atthakāmo, not wishing for the welfare of.
(9) pādipubbapada-kammadhāraya, in which the first member is pā, pa or any other prefix. e.g., pāvacanay = pa + vacanay, the excellent word, Buddha's word.
(Native grammarians take $p$ a to be the abbreviation of the word: pakattho = excellent).
pamukho $=\mathrm{pa}+$ mukho (having the face towards), facing, in front of, chief. vikappo = vi + kappo (thought, inclination), option. atidevo $=$ ati + devā, Supreme deva or God. (note that devā becomes: devo). abhidhammo $=\mathrm{abhi}+$ dhammo (Law, doctrine), transcending Doctrine. uddhammo $=u d+$ dhammo, wrong or false doctrines. ubbinayo $=u d+$ vinayo (Discipline for the monks), wrong Discipline. sugandho $=s u+$ gandho, good smell, fragrance.
dukkatay = du + katay, a bad, sinful act.

## Remarks

(a) These compounds have for first member an indeclinable (529).
(b) The abyayibhāva generally assumes the form of the accusative singular in $\mathfrak{y}$, and is indeclinable.
(c) If the final vowel of the last member is ā long ā is replaced by ay; other long vowels (except $\bar{a}$ ), are shortened.
(i) e.g., upagangay = upa + gangāyay (loc.), near the Ganges. upanagaray $=$ upa + nagaray, (loc.), near the town. upagu = upa + gunnay (plural,) close to the cows. anurathay $=$ anu + rathe, behind the chariot. yāvajīvay = yāva + jīvā (abl.), as long as life lasts. antopāsāday = anto + pāsādassa, within the palace. anuvassay = anu + vassay, year after year, every year. anugharay = house after house, in every house. yathābalay = yathā + balena, according to (one's) power. pativātay = pati + vātay (acc.), against the wind. tiropabbatay = pabbatassa tiro, across the mountain. uparipabbatay = pabbatassa + upari, upon the mountain. pațisotay = sotassa + paṭilomay, against the stream. adhogangan = gangāya + adho, below the Ganges. upavadhu $=$ upa + vadhū, near (his) wife. adhikumāri $=$ adhi + kumāri, the young girl.
(ii) Sometimes, however, the case-ending is retained; the cases thus retained being mostly the Ablative and the Locative. But in most cases, the Neuter form is also met with for the same compound. The Ablative termination may be retained when the indeclinable is: pari, apa, ā, bahi, yāva etc. e.g., yāvajivā or yāvajivan, as long as life lasts. apapabbatā or apapabbatan, away from the mountain.
bahigāmā or bahigāman, outside the village.
ābhavaggā or ābhavaggay, to the highest state of existence.
purāruṇā or purāruṇay, ( = aruṇamhā pure), before daylight.
pacchābhattā, or pacchābhattan, after meal.
tiropabbatā or tiropabbate (loc.) or tiropabbatay,
beyond, on the other side of, the mountain.
anto avīcimhi (loc.), in hell.
anutire, along the bank.
antaravithiyay (loc.), in the street.
bahisāniyay (loc.), outside the curtain.
§550. (vi) Relative or Attributive Compounds. (bahubbīhi)

## Remarks.

(a) A bahubbihi compound, when resolved into its component parts, requires the addition of such relative pronouns as: "he, who, that, which," etc., to express its full meaning; a bahubbihi is therefore used relatively, that is, as an adjective, and consequently, the final member assumes the forms of the three genders, according to the gender of the noun which it qualifies. A bahubbihi is equal to a relative clause.
(b) All the Compounds explained above (dvanda, tappurisa, kammadhāraya, dīgu, abyayibhāva), become, if used as adjectives, bahubbihi Compounds.
(c) babubbihi being used as adjectives qualifying nouns, must agree in gender, number and case with the nouns which they qualify.
(d) It follows from (c) that a bahubbihi may be in any case relation but the Vocative.

The following are the different kinds of bahubbihi.
(1) pathamā-bahubbihi, Relative in the Nominative Case.
e.g., chinnahattho puriso = hand-cut man, a man whose hands have been cut off.
Here, chinnahattho is the bahubbihi qualifying the noun puriso.
lohitamakkhitay mukhay = lohitena makkhitay mukhay, the mouth besmeared with blood; lohita makkhitan is the bahubbihi.
susajjitay puray, a well-decorated city; susajjitay is the bahubbihi.
(2) dutiyā-bahubbihi, Relative in the Accusative Case; that is, the bahubbihi gives
to the word which it determines or qualifies the sense of the Accusative relation.
e.g., āgatasamaṇo sanghārāmo = iman sanghārāman samaṇo āgato, this monastery the priest came to, the monastery into which the priest came; āgatasamaṇo is the bahubbihi.
ārūḷhanaro rukkho = so naro imay rukkhay ārūḷho the tree into which the man climbed. ārūlhanaro is the bahubbihi.
(3) tatiya-bahubbīhi, Relative in the Instrumentive Case; in which the bahubbihi gives to the word it determines the sense of the Instrumentive relation.
e.g., jitindriyo samano = yena jitāni indriyāni so samaṇo, the samana by whom the senses have been conquered. jitindriyo is the bahubbihi. vijitamāro bhagavā = so bhagavā yena māro vijito, the Blessed One by whom Mara was vanquished, the Blessed One who vanquished Mara. vijitamāro is the bahubibhi.
(4) catutthī bahubbihi, Relative in the Dative Case; in which the bahubbihi gives to the word it determines the sense of the Dative relation.
e.g., dinnasunko puriso = yassa sunko dinno so, he to whom tax is given. dinnasunko is the bahubbihi.
upanītabhojano samaṇo = so samaṇo yassa bhojanay upanītay, the priest to whom food is given. upanitabhojano is the bahubbihi.
(5) pañcamī-bahubbihi, Relative in the Ablative case; in which the compound gives to the word determined the sense of the Ablative relation.
e.g., niggatajano gāmo = asmā gāmasmā janā niggatā, that village from which the people have departed, an abandoned village. niggatajano is the bahubbihi.
apagatakālakay vatthay = iday vatthay yasmā kālakā apagatā, the cloth from which (the) black spots have departed = a cloth free from black
spots. apagatakālakay is the bahubbihi.
(6) chattenī-bahubbīhi, Relative in the Genitive Case; in which the compound gives to the word it determines the sense of the Genitive relation.
e.g., chinnahattho puriso = so puriso yassa hattho chinno, the man whose hands are cut off. chinnahattho is the babhubbihi.
visuddhasīlo jano = so jano yassa sīlay visuddhay, that person whose conduct is pure, a moral person. visuddhasilo is the bahubbihi.
(7) sattama-bahubbīhi, Relative in the Locative Case; that is, in which the bahubbihi gives to the determined word the sense of the Locative case.
e.g., sampannasasso janapado = yasmiy janapade sassāni sampannāni, a
district in which the crops are abundant, a fertile district. sampannasasso is the bahubbibi.
bahujano gāmo = yasmin gāme babū janā honti, a village in which are
many persons, a populous village. bahujano is the bahubbihi.
(e) The word determined by the bahubbihi Compound is often understood or implied and not expressed.
e.g., dinnasunko (4) = he who receives taxes, a tax collector.
jitindriyo (3) = he who has subdued his senses.
lohitamakkhito (1) = besmeared with blood.
sattahaparinibbuto $=$ dead since a week.
somanasso = joyful (lit., he to whom joy has arisen).
chinnahattho (6) = he whose hands have been cut off.
māsajato = a month old (lit., he who is born since one month).
vijitamāro (3) = he who has conquered Mara, the Buddha.
(f) In some bahubbihi, the determining word may be placed either first or last without changing the meaning:
e.g., hatthachinno or chinnahattho.
jātamāso of māsajāto.
(g) Feminine nouns ending in $\overline{1}, \bar{u}$ as well as stems ending in $t u(=t \bar{a}$, see, 163, words declined like satthā,) generally take the suffix ka, when they are the last member of a bahubbihi; possession is then implied:
e.g., bahukattuko deso $=$ a place in which there are many artisans.
bahukumārikan kulan =a family in which there are many girls.
bahunadiko janapado $=$ a district with many rivers.
Note that long $\overline{1}$ is shortened before ka; the same remark applies to long $\overline{\mathrm{u}}$.
(h) When a feminine noun is the last member of a babubbihi, it takes the masculine form if determining a masculine noun, and the first member, if also feminine, drops the sign of the feminine:
e.g., dīghā janghā, a long leg; dīghajanghā itthī, a long-legged woman, but: dïghajangho puriso a long-legged man.
(i) The adjective mahā, may be used as the first member of a bahubbihi: e.g., mahāpañño, of great wisdom, very wise.
(j) Sometimes ā is added, to the words: dhanu, a bow, dhamma, the Law, and a few others, when last members of a bahubbihi:
e.g., gandhivadhanu = gandhivadhanvā (27, ii), Arjuna, he who has a strong bow.
paccakkhadhammā, but also paccakkhadhammo, to whom the Doctrine is apparent.
§551. The student will have remarked that all the examples given above of bahubbihi, are digu, tappurisa, kammadhāraya, dvanda and abyayibhāva, used relatively. To make the matter clearer, however a few examples are here given.
dvanda used relatively.
e.g., nahātānulitto, bathed and anointed.
kusalākusalāni kammāni, good and bad actions.
tappurisa used relatively.
e.g., buddhabhāsito dhammo, the Doctrine spoken by the Buddha = Buddhena bhāsito dhammo.
sotukāmo jano, a person desirous to hear, one desirous to hear. nagaraniggato, one or he who has gone out of town.
kammadhāraya used relatively.
e.g., guṇadhano = rich in virtues.
sugandho = fragrant.
khañjakhujjo puriso $=$ a lame and hump backed man.
digu used relatively.
e.g., dvimūlo rukkho = a two rooted tree.
pañcasatāni sakaṭāni = five hundred carts.
sahassaransi = the thousand rayed $=$ the sun.
abyayibhāva used relatively.
e.g., saphala = saha phala, fruitful (lit., having fruits).
savāhano māro, Māra with his monture.
niraparādho bodhisatto, the faultless Bodhisatta.

## Upapada Compounds

§552. When the second member of a dutiyā tappurisa Compound is a kita noun or Primary derivative, (see Chapter XIII, Primary and Secondary Derivation), and the first member a noun in the Accusative relation, the compound is called upapada. Such a compound may therefore be called indifferently: upapada or upapadatappurisa. or simply: tappurisa.
(niruttidīpanī)

## Examples.

atthakāmo = atthay kāmo, wishing for the welfare of, (kāmo is a kita derivative). kumbhakāro = kumbhan + kāro, a pot-maker, a potter, (kāro is a kito derivative). pattagāho = pattay gāho, receiver of the bowl.
rathakāro = rathay kāro, carriage maker, cartwright.
brahmacār̄̄ = brahmay cārī, one who leads the higher life.
dhammaññū = dhammay ñū, he who knows the Law.

## Anomalous Compounds.

§553. A few compounds are found which are quite anomalous in their formation, that is, they are made up of words not usually compounded together. These compounds must probably be considered as of very early formation, and be reckoned amongst the oldest in
the language. We give a few examples:
e.g., vitatho $=v i+$ tathā, false, unreal.
yathātatho = yathā + tathā real, true, as it really is.
itihā ( = iti, thus + ha, lengthened to $\overline{\mathrm{a}}$ ), thus indeed, introduction, legend.
itihāsa ( $=$ iti, thus + ha, indeed $+\overline{\text { āsa, was), thus indeed it was }=i t i h a \bar{~} . ~}$
itihītihā $(=$ itiha + itihā $)=$ itihā, itihāsa.
itivuttay ( = iti, thus + vuttay P P.P. of vatti, to say), thus it was said; the name of a book of the Buddhist Scriptures.
itivuttaka ( = iti + vuttay + kasuffix) = itivutta.
aññamaññay ( = aññay + aññay), one another.
paramparo ( = paray + para), successive.
ahamahamikā ( = ahay, I + ahay + ika suffix), egoism, arrogance, the conceit of superiority lit., connected with I.

## Complex Compounds

§554. Compounds, as above explained, may themselves become either the first or the last member of another compound, or two compounds may be brought together to form a new one, and this new one again may become a member of another compound, and so on to almost any length, thus forming compounds within compounds. These compounds are mostly used relatively that is, they are bahubbihi. The student ought to bear in mind that, the older the language is, the fewer are these complex compounds, and the later the language, the more numerous do they become; it therefore follows that long compounds are a sign of decay and, to a certain extent, a test as to the relative age of a text.

## Examples.

varanarukkhamūle, at the foot of the varana tree, is a tappurisa compound in the genitive relation, and is resolved as follows: varaṇarukkhassa mūle; varaṇarukkhassa is itself a kammadharaya compound = varaṇa eva rukkha. It is therefore a tappurisa compound, the first member of which is a kammadharaya compound.
maranabhayatajjito, terrified by the fear of death, a bahubbihi qualifying a noun understood, and is a tappurisa in the instrumentive relation: maraṇabhayena tajjito; maraṇabhaya is itself a tappurisa in the ablative: maranā bhaya.
sīhalaț̣̣hakathāparivattanay, the translation of the Singhalese Commentaries, is first: a tappurisa compound = sihalaṭṭhakathāya parivattanay, second, another tappurisa: sihalāya atṭhakathā = the Commentaries of Ceylon, the Singhalese Commentaries.
aparimitakālasañcitapuññabalanibbattāya, produced by the power accumulated during an immense period of time, the whole is a bahubbihi feminine in the Instrumentive. We resolve it as:
aparimitakālasañcitapuññabala, a tappurisa determining nibbattāya; aparimitakālasañcitapuñña, a kammadharaya determining bala; aparimitakālasañcita, a kammadharaya determining puñña; aparimitakāla, a kammadharaya determining sañcita; lastly aparimita is a kammadharaya $=\mathrm{a}+$ parimita.
In its uncompounded state, it would run as follows: aparimite kāle sañcitassa puññassa balena nibbattāya.

## Remark.

The student should follow the above method in resolving compounds.

Changes of certain words in compounds.
§555. Some words, when compounded, change their final vowel; when last members of a bahubbihi, they, of course, assume the ending of the three genders, according to the gender of the noun they determine. The most common are here given:
go, a cow, bullock, becomes gu, gavo or gavay:
pañcagu, bartered with five cows (pañcahi gohi kito); rājagavo the king's bullock (rañño go); dāragavay, wife and cow (dāro ca go); dasagavay, ten cows.
bhūmi, place, state, stage, degree, storey becomes bhūma:
jātibhūmay, birth place (jātiyā bhūmi); dvibhūmay, two stages (dvi bhūmiyo); dvibhūmo, two storeyed. Ka, is sometimes superadded, as: dvibhūmako = dvibhūmo.
nadī, a river, is changed to nada:
pañcanadaŋ, five rivers; pañcanado, having five rivers.
anguli, finger, becomes angula (see, 548, a).
ratti, night, is changed to ratta (see, 548, a); here are a few more examples: dīgharattan for a long time (lit. long nights = dīghā rattiyo; ahorattan, Oh! the night! (aho ratti); aḍ̣̆haratto, midnight (rattiyā aḍ̣̣hay = the middle of the night).
akkhi, the eye, changes to akkha:
visālakkho, large eyed (visālāni akkhīni yassa honti); virūpakkho, having horrible eyes, name of the Chief of the Nagas (virūpāni akkhīni yassa, to whom (are) horrible eyes); sahassakkho, the thousand-eyed, a name of Sakka (akkhīni sahassāni yassa); parokkhaŋ, invisible, lit., "beyond the eye" (akkhinaŋ tirobhāgo).
sakhā, (masc.) friend, companion, becomes sakho:
vāyusakho, the breeze's friend, fire (vayuno sakhā so); sabbasakho, the friend of all (sabbesay sakhā).
attā, self, one's self becomes atta:
pahitatto, resolute, whose mind is bent upon, lit, directed towards (pahito pesito attā yena, by whom the mind is directed upon); ṭhitatto, of firm mind (țhito attā assa, whose mind is firm).
pumā = male, a man, becomes puy, and final $\eta$ is assimilated to the following consonant according to the usual rules:
pullingay, the male sex: manhood, the masculine gender (puy + lingay, characteristic, sign); punkokilo, a male cuckoo (puy + kokilo).
saha, with, is abbreviated to sa, which is placed at the beginning of compounds ka is sometimes superadded:
sapicuka, of cotton, with cotton, as -sapicukay maṇḍalikay, a ball of cotton, cotton ball; sadevako, with the deva worlds; saha is used in the same sense: sahodaka, with water, containing water (saha udaka).
santa, good, being, is also abbreviated to sa (see, 546, b):
sappurisa, a good man; sajjano, well-born, virtuous (sa + jana, a person).
samāna, same, similar, equal; is likewise shortened to sa: sajāti or sajātika, of the same species, of the same class (samānajāti); sajanapado; of, or belonging to, the same district (samānajanapado); sanāmo, of the same name (samāno nāmo); sānābhi, of the same navel, uterine
mahanta, becomes mahā (see 546, a).
jāyā, wife, takes the forms jāni, jay, tudaŋ*, jayay, before the word pati, lord, husband: jayāpati, jayampati, jānipati, jampati, tudampati, husband and wife.
*The niruttidīpanī has the following interesting note on the word tuday:"yathā ca sakkațaganthesu 'dāro ca pati ca dampatī' ti" And lower down: "tattha 'tu' saddo padapūraṇamatte yujjati".
Verbal Compounds.
§556. Many nouns and adjectives are compounded with $\sqrt{ }$ kar, to do and $\sqrt{ }$ bhū, to be, or with their derivatives very much in the manner of Verbal Prefixes.
§557. The noun or adjective stems thus used change final a or final ito $\overline{1}$.

## Examples.

dalha, hard, firm, dalhikaroti, to make firm.
dalhikaraṇay, making firm, strengthening.
bahula, abundant, bahulikaroti, to increase, to enlarge.
bahulīkaraṇay, increasing; bahulīkato, increased.
bhasma, ashes, bhasmibhavati, to be reduced to ashes, bhasmibhūto, reduced to ashes.
§558. We have now come to a most important part of the grammar; the formation of nouns and adjectives otherwise called Derivation.
§559. In Pāli, almost every declinable stem can be traced back to a primary element called a Root.
§560. A root is a primitive element of the language incapable of any grammatical analysis, and expressing an abstract idea. It is common in European languages to express the idea contained in the root by means of the infinitive, e.g. $\sqrt{ }$ gam, to go, but it must be borne in mind that the root is not an infinitive, nor indeed a verb or noun, but simply a primary element expressing a vague indefinite idea. This indefinite idea is developed out of the root and is made to ramify into a diversity of meanings, both abstract and concrete, by means of suffixes.
§561. The roots of the Pāli language, with slight variations in form, easily recognizable to the trained eye, are common with those of Sanskrit and consequently with many of the roots of the Indo-European Languages.
§562. Every true root is monosyllabic as: $\sqrt{ }$ nas, to perish; $\sqrt{ }$ bhā, to shine; $\sqrt{ }$ ruh, to grow; $\sqrt{ }$ pac, to cook. Roots which have more than one syllable are the result of (a) the union of a verbal prefix with the root itself, both having become inseparable in the expression of a particular idea; for instance: $\sqrt{ }$ sangam: to fight, $=$ sam $+\sqrt{ }$ gam, lit, to come together, to close in upon; and (b) of reduplication (372ff) as $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{j}$ āgar, to be wakeful, from $\sqrt{ }$ gar (Sanks. $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{gr}$ ) to awake.
§563. There are two great divisions of Derivation:
(i) kita (krt), or Primary.
(ii) taddhita, or Secondary.
§564. Primary Derivatives are formed from the root itself and Secondary Derivatives from the Primary Derivatives.
§565. Native grammarians recognise a third derivation, which they call uṇādi (uṇ + ādi), from the suffix uṇ by which a few words are derived. But the uṇādi derivation is very arbitrary, and the connection between the noun and the root is not clear, either in meaning or in form. These uṇādi derivatives are included in the kita Derivation; uṇādi suffixes are therefore included in the kita-Suffixes and will be distinguished by an asterisk (*).
§566. We shall therefore in the present chapter, treat of Primary and Secondary derivation. A few hints only will be given on the unādi derivation.
§567. When Suffixes, both primary (kita) and secondary (taddhita) are added to roots, nouns or adjectives guṇa (cf. §103-6) frequently takes place; that is, a may be lengthened to $\bar{a}$, and $i$ and $u$ be respectively changed to $e$ and $o$.
§568. Whenever guṇa takes place by the addition of a suffix, native grammarians put an indicatory sign before or after the suffix to show that guna is to take place; this indicatory sign is generally the letter $n$ and sometimes the letter r. For instance: $\sqrt{ }$ cur, to steal, + suffix $n \mathrm{a}=$ cora, a thief. Here, the true suffix is a, the letter $n$ being simply indicatory that guna change must take place; again, $\sqrt{ }$ kar, to do, + ṇ $=$ kāra, a doer. But $\sqrt{ }$ kar + suffix $a=$ kara, a doer; in this last example no guna takes place and therefore, the suffix has not the indicatory sign. This sign is called by grammarians: anubandha. It is therefore clear that the anubandha or "indicatory sign of guna" is not part of the suffix.
§569. European grammarians as a rule do not note the anubandha, but in this book it will be noted and put within brackets, and in small type, after the true suffix, thus: (ṇ)a, or kā (n). the true suffixes will come first, printed in bold type. [The format has been changed slightly in this edition, as will be seen below --E.M.]
§570. Again, some suffixes are shown by native grammarians by means of some conventional signs; e.g. ṇvu is the conventional sign for suffix aka; yu is that for anay. Such conventional signs will be shown within brackets, after the true suffix, as; anay(yu); this means that anay is the true suffix, yu the conventional sign used by native grammarians to represent the suffix anay.
§571. It must be remembered that sometimes even some of the prefixes explained in (514) undergo guṇa as: virajja $+\mathrm{ka}=$ virajjaka; paṭipada $+(\mathrm{n}) \mathrm{a}=$ pāṭipāda; vinaya $+(\mathrm{n}) \mathrm{ika}=$ venayika.
§572. Before some suffixes, (generally those with the indicatory n final cof the root is changed to k , and final j to g ; as

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sqrt{ } \mathrm{pac}+(\mathrm{n}) \mathrm{a}=\text { pāka, a cook } \\
& \sqrt{ } \mathrm{ruj}+(\mathrm{n}) \mathrm{a}=\text { roga, disease } .
\end{aligned}
$$

§573. The final vowel of a stem may be elided before a suffix.
§574. The rules of sandhi and assimilation are regularly applied.
(i) Primary Derivatives (kita).
§575. As has been said already Primary Derivatives are formed directly from the roots by means of certain suffixes; these suffixes are called kita suffixes.
§576. The kita suffixes are given below in alphabetical order to faciliate reference.
a- (a) (n) (a). By means of this suffix are formed an extremely large number of derivatives, some of which take guṇa and some of which do not. It forms nouns, (substantive and adjective) showing:

## 1st-action:

$\sqrt{ }$ pac, to cook $+a=p a \bar{k}$, the act of cooking; $\sqrt{ }$ caj, to forsake $+a=c a ̄ g a$, forsaking, abandonment;
$\sqrt{ }$ bhaj, to divide $+\mathrm{a}=$ bhāga, dividing;
$\sqrt{ }$ kam, to love $+\mathrm{a}=$ kāma, love.
2nd- the doer or agent:
$\sqrt{ }$ car, to roam $+\mathrm{a}=$ cāra and cara, a spy;
$\sqrt{ }$ har, to take, captivate, $+a=$ hara, the Captivator, a name of Shiva;
$\sqrt{ }$ kar, to do, make $+\mathrm{a}=$ kara, that which does, the hand; also kāra, a doer, maker.
§3rd- abstract nouns of action:
$\sqrt{ }$ kar $+\mathrm{a}=$ kara, action, making;
$\sqrt{ }$ kam to step, proceed $+\mathrm{a}=$ kama, step, succession, order; $\sqrt{ }$ kamp, to shake $+a=$ kampa, shaking, trembling;
$\sqrt{ }$ yuj, to join $+a=$ yoga, joining.
§4th- It forms adjectives:
$\sqrt{ }$ kar $+\mathrm{a}=$ kāra, doing, making, also kara, causing, making; $\sqrt{ }$ car, to walk, roam, cāra, walking, roaming, and also cara, do; $\sqrt{ }$ plu, to swim, float $+\mathrm{a}=$ plava, swimming, floating.

The student will readily understand that the root may be preceded by any prefix:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \text { sam }+\sqrt{ } \text { gam }+\mathrm{a}=\text { sangāma, assembly; } \\
& \mathrm{pa}+\sqrt{ } \text { vis, to enter }+\mathrm{a}=\text { pavesa, entrance; } \\
& \mathrm{anu}+\sqrt{ } \text { sar to go, move, walk }+\mathrm{a}=\text { anusara, following. }
\end{aligned}
$$

The same remark applies to all the other suffixes.
§577. From the adjectives formed by this suffix (4th), are formed the upapada compounds (552):
kammakāro = kammay kāro (kammay karotī' ti), the doer of the act;
kumbhakāro = khumbhay kāro (kumbhay karotī'ti), the maker of the pot, potter.
§578. Very similar in nature with the upapada compounds are those compounds which are the names of persons. In our opinion they are purely and simply upapadas, but Kaccāyana has the following rule: "saññāyay a nu" that is, to form a proper name, suffix nu ( $=y=$ Accus. case) is added to the 1st member of the compound, which is the direct object of the root which forms the 2nd member and after which the suffix a is added to denote the agent: arindama, the subduer of his enemies $=$ ari, enemy $+y(n u)+\sqrt{ }$ dam, to subdue $+a$. So vessantara, who has crossed over to the merchants, (vessa $+\mathfrak{y}(\mathrm{nu})+\sqrt{ }$ tar, to cross + a);
tanhhankara, creating desire $=$ tanhā, desire $+\mathfrak{y}(n u)+$ kar $+a$. The name of a Buddha.

It will be seen from the above examples that the 1st member is in the Acc. case and is governed by the 2nd member which is an agent-noun formed by the suffix a. Remark. The nouns formed by a are masculine: they form the feminine according to rules (183), and the same applies to the adjectives (197).
abha*- Used to form the names of some animals; the derivation is obscure.
kalabha, or kalabha, a young elephant, from $\sqrt{ }$ kal, to drive, to sound; usabha, a bull from $\sqrt{ }$ us, (Sk. rṣ), to go, flow, push;
sarabha, a fabulous eight-legged kind of deer, from $\sqrt{ } \operatorname{sar}(S k$. śr), to injure, break, tear;
karabha, a camel, from $\sqrt{ }$ kar, to do.
aka (nv)-forms a numerous class of action-nouns and adjectives with guṇa of the radical vowel:
$\sqrt{ }$ kar, to make, do + aka = karaka, making, causing or maker, doer;
$\sqrt{ }$ gah, to take, receive + aha = gahaka, taking, receiving, a receiver: sometimes a-y is inserted between aka and a root ending in a vowel, especially long à:
$\sqrt{ }$ dā, to give + aka = dāyaka, a giver.
Remark.
The feminine of these derivatives is generally in kā or ikā.
ala*-forming a few nouns of doubtful derivation from, it is said, the roots:
$\sqrt{ }$ paṭ, to split, slit; $\sqrt{ }$ kus, to heap, bring together, cut;
$\sqrt{ }$ kal, to drive, sound, throw, etc.; paṭala, covering, membrane, roof; kusala, that which is capable of cutting sin, meritorious act.
These nouns are neuter.
an- only a few words are derived from this suffix:
$\sqrt{ }$ rāj, to rule + an $=$ rājan, a king, ruler.

## Remark.

Nouns in an have the Nom.Sing. in $\bar{a}$ (156).
ana ( yu )- this suffix forms an immense number of derivative nouns and adjectives. The nouns are neuter, or fem. in ā; the adjectives are of the three genders. Guna may or may not take place; it is however, more common with the adjectives.
Nouns:
$\sqrt{ }$ pac, to cook + ana $=$ pacanay, the cooking; $\sqrt{ }$ gah, to take + ana $=$ gahanay, the seizing, taking; $\sqrt{ }$ ṭā, to stand + ana $=$ ṭhānay, a place.
Adjectives:
$\mathrm{pa}+\sqrt{ }$ nud, to push, move + ana $=$ panudano, removing, dispelling; $\sqrt{ }$ ghus, to sound + ana = ghosano, sounding; $\sqrt{ }$ kudh, to be angry + ana $=$ kodhano, angry.
The fem. of these adjectives is sometimes in $\bar{a}$, sometimes in $\overline{1}$.
Fem. $\sqrt{ }$ sev, to serve, stay by + ana $=$ sevanā, also, sevanay, service, following; $\sqrt{ }$ kar, to execute + ana = kāranā, agony, torture.
as- This suffix forms a not very large, but important class of words, which have already been explained (160); guṇa sometimes takes place; they are declined like manas (59); their Nom. Sing. is in 0 .
$\sqrt{ }$ vac, to say, speak + as = vacas (vaco), speech, word; $\sqrt{ }$ tij, to be sharp + as $=$ tejas (tejo), sharpness, splendour [or: heat, flame, fire, etc. --E.M.]
āni*-Rarely found, it properly does not form nouns, but a vituperative negative imperative, with the prohibitive particle a $(242$, a) before the root, and a dative of the person who is forbidden to act:
agamāni $=a+\sqrt{ }$ gam + āni, you are not to go! as in "paradesay te agamāni", "You are not to go elsewhere!" "te iday kammay akarāni ( $a+\sqrt{ }$ kar $+\bar{a} n i)$.
āvi = vi (tāvi)- is used as has already been seen, to form participles (231) so also: āna (448), also at, ant = nta (440) so that the Perf. Active, the Pres. Active and the Reflective Participles are considered by native grammarians as coming under the head of kita Derivatives. The same remark applies to the P.P.P.
dhu- so given by native grammarians is, properly adhu; it forms but a few derivatives and is only another form of thu = athu (see below).
i- forms a large class of derivatives, Masc., Fem. and Neuter, as well as a few adjectives. The nouns may be agent-nouns or abstract. But the derivation is not always quite clear (principally of neuter nouns), hence, some grammars include this suffix among the unādi. Strengthening takes place in a few roots.

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\(\sqrt{ } \mathrm{ku}\), to sound sing \(+\mathrm{i}=\) kavi, one who sings \(=\) a poet;
    \(\sqrt{ }\) mun \(=\) man to think \(+\mathrm{i}=\) muni, one who thinks \(=\) a sage.
    Fem. \(\sqrt{ }\) lip, to smear, rub \(+\mathrm{i}=\) lipi, a rubbing over, writing;
            \(\sqrt{ }\) ruc, to shine, to please \(+\mathrm{i}=\) ruci, light, pleasure.
Neut. akkhi, eye; aggi, fire, atṭhi, bone, and a few others, of very doubtful derivation.
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Adj. $\sqrt{ }$ suc, to beam, glow, burn $+\mathrm{i}=$ suci, beaming, clear, pure.

By means of this suffix is formed from $\sqrt{ }$ dhā, to bear, hold, a derivative: dhi, which forms many compounds, mostly masculine:
$\mathrm{sam}+\mathrm{dhi}=$ sandhi, connection, union (in grammar $=$ euphony);
udadhi, the ocean $=u d a$, water + dhi, holding $(u d a+\sqrt{ }$ dhā +i$)$;
others are:
nidhi, a receptacle ( $n i+\sqrt{ }$ dhā +i );
paridhi, circle, halo (pari $+\sqrt{ }$ dhā +i ).
Similarly, from, $\sqrt{ }$ dā to give with prefix $\bar{a}$, we obtain: $\overline{\text { and }}(=\bar{a}+\sqrt{ } d \bar{a}+i)=$ and so forth, and so on, etc, lit. = beginning. The word ādi is much used at the end of compounds.
icca (ricca), and iriya(ririya),-are given by Kaccāyana as kita prefixes, but in reality they are not: both are suffixes of the F.P.P. (466); they are found only in the two examples: kicca and kiriya, (lit., what is to be done) business:
$\sqrt{ }$ kar + icca $=$ kicca (with elision of radical a and of r$) \sqrt{ }$ kar + iriya $=$ kiriya with elision of radical a and of r ).
But the true derivation* is kar + tya = kitya (with elision of ar and insertion of $i$ ) = kicca, according to the usual rules (74).
[*Sans. $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{kr}+$ tya $=$ krtya $; \mathrm{kr}+\mathrm{ya}=\mathrm{krya}=$ kriya.]
ika- is given for the only root:
$\sqrt{ }$ gam, to go: gamika, one who goes.
in $=\overline{1}(n \overline{1})-$ This forms a very great number of derivatives whose stem ends in in, and the Nom. Sing. $\overline{1}$ (see 137, 173); they are properly possessive adjectives, sometimes used substantively. Guṇa as a rule takes place.
$\sqrt{ }$ gah, to take, receive + in = gāhin (gāhi), taking, catching;
$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{kra}+\mathrm{in}=$ kārin (kār̄̄), doing; pāpakārī, a sinner:
$\sqrt{ }$ yā, to go, yāyin ( $y a ̄ y \overline{1}$ ), going; nagarayāyī1, going to the town;
$\sqrt{ }$ dā, to give, dāyin, (dāyī), giving, a giver.
Note that a y is inserted between the suffix and the roots ending in ā long. The Feminine is formed according to rules (189).
ina- A few nouns are formed by this suffix; there is no guṇa:
$\sqrt{ }$ sup, to sleep + ina $=$ supinay (Neut.), a dream, sleep. The derivation of some nouns and adjectives from this suffix is not apparent and clear, and it is also classed as an uṇādi; $\sqrt{ }$ dakkh, to be able, skilful + ina $=$ dakkhiṇa, able, southern.
ira-The derivitives from this, nouns and adjectives, are few; there is no guna:
$\sqrt{ }$ ruc, to shine + ira $=$ rucira, brilliant, beautiful;
$\sqrt{ }$ vaj, to be strong + ira = vajira, thunderbolt.
iya, itțtha- are the suffixes used for the comparison of adjectives (238).
isa*-forms a few nouns, mostly Masc., of rather obscure derivation:
$\sqrt{ }$ pūr, to fill + isa = purisa, a man, person;
$\sqrt{ }$ sun, to oppress + isa $=$ sunisa, an oppressor;
$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{il}$, to shake, come + isa $=$ ilisa, one who shakes;
$\sqrt{ }$ mah to be great + isa $=$ mahisa, mighty, a buffalo.
itta* (nitta)- is said to express multitude (?): the root is gunated:
$\sqrt{ }$ vad, to speak, to play (music) $+\mathrm{itta}=$ vādittay, the multitude of those that play music, an orchestra.
This suffix and its derivatives are incomprehensible; but see -tta,-tra where its probable formation will be explained.
īvara*-forms a few Neut. nouns of doubtful connection with the roots from which they are derived:
$\sqrt{ }$ ci, to gather, to depend upon $+\overline{1} v a r a=$ cīvaray, a monk's garment, that which is heaped upon or depended upon;
$\sqrt{ }$ pā, to drink + ìvara = pīvaray, beverage, that which is to be drunk.
ka is added to very few roots which take guṇa; it forms agent-nouns and adjectives: $\sqrt{ }$ vad, to speak + ka $=$ vādaka, one who speaks, a musician; playing (adj.); $\sqrt{ }$ dah, to burn $+\mathrm{ka}=$ dähaka, burning (adj). Note that these two words would be better derived from suffix aka (see above)
$\sqrt{ }$ sukh (Sk. cus) + ka $=$ sukkha, dry, dried up;
$\sqrt{ }$ thu (Sk. stu) to dribble, drop $+\mathrm{ka}=$ thoka, a little, ka often takes a connecting vowel i or $u$ before a root, and forms the suffixes ika, uka (see also).
la generally with connecting vowels: a , or i before it. la is but another form of ra (see also): $\sqrt{ }$ thu, to be thick, strong + la $=$ thūla, thick, fat;
$\sqrt{ }$ cap to waver, tremble + (a) la $=$ capala, tremulous, fickle, giddy;
$\sqrt{ }$ pā, to keep, guard + la $=$ pala, a guardian;
$\sqrt{ }$ an, to breathe, blow softly + (i) la $=$ anila, wind, breeze.
lāna- as well as yāṇa given as primary suffixes, are not at all suffixes; the true suffix is āṇa, which is a taddhita suffix (see also).
ma- forms some abstract nouns, agent-nouns, and some adjectives: $\sqrt{ }$ bhī, to fear, be afraid of $+\mathrm{ma}=$ bhïma, terrible, fearful;
$\sqrt{ }$ ghar (Sk. ghr) to be warm, to glow $+\mathrm{ma}=$ gharma $=$ ghamma, heat, warmth.
(Note the assimilation of $\mathrm{r}(80)$;
$\sqrt{ }$ thu, to praise, thoma, praise;
$\sqrt{ }$ dhū, to shake, move hither and thither $+\mathrm{ma}=$ dhūma smoke.
This suffix, in Päli, becomes nearly confounded with the next: man, and native grammarians are often at a loss in choosing between these two suffixes: the reason is that no word in Pāli being allowed to end in a consonant, they have included the stems in "an" in the vowel declension ( $152,156-\mathrm{c}, 157-\mathrm{a}$ ).
man- (given as ramma as well as man by Kaccāyana) forms action nouns, Masc. and Neuter; in a few cases the noun being both Masc. and Neut.; the stems are in an the Nom, in $\overline{\mathrm{a}}, \mathrm{o}$, or घ:
$\sqrt{ }$ dhar; to hold, bear + man $=$ dhammo, dhammay, nature, characteristic, duty, the Law; $\sqrt{ }$ kar + man $=$ kammay, action, karma (Note the assimilation of $r$ ), $\sqrt{ }$ bhī to fear + man $=$ bhemo, fearful, terrible;
$\sqrt{ }$ khi, to destroy, make an end of $+\mathrm{ma}=$ khemo, secure, peaceful, khemay, safety, happiness.
Most of the derivatives from man, have migrated to the class of those formed by the last suffix (ma).
māna- This is the suffix of the Pres. Part. Reflective already seen (447). (See, āna, above).
mi- The number of derivatives from this suffix is very restricted, they are Masc. or Fem. There is no guna.
$\sqrt{ }$ bhū, to exist, become $+m i=$ bhūmi, the earth, ground, a place;
$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{u}(\mathrm{sk} . \mathrm{v})$, to roll, turn from side to side $+\mathrm{mi}=\overline{\mathrm{u}} \mathrm{mi}$ (ūrmi, note the elision of radical r), a wave.
na- The use of this suffix in forming a certain number of P.P.P. has been explained (458); it also forms a few nouns; the root takes no guna, but through assimilation, the root is not always recognisable:
$\sqrt{ }$ var, to cover enclose + na $=$ vaṇ̣a $(80,83)$, colour, external appearance;
$\sqrt{ }$ sup (Sk. svap) to sleep $+\mathrm{na}=$ soppa ( $=$ Sk. svapna), sleep;
$\sqrt{ }$ phar (also phur $=$ Sk. sphur, sphr), to shake, to make a jerky motion $+\mathrm{na}=$ paṇ̣a a feather, wing.
From $\sqrt{ }$ tās (sk. trs), taṇhā, thirst, craving;
$\checkmark \mathrm{jii}$, to conquer $+\mathrm{na}=\mathrm{jina}$, conqueror.
Connected with this na, are the suffixes ina, una (see also); also: tana, ( =Sk. tna), from this last is derived the word ratana, gift, blessing, jewel, from $\sqrt{ }$ rā, to bestow + tna $=$ tana (note that radical ā is shortened through the influence of the double consonant to tna see 34).
ni- from this we obtain but a few nouns.
Fem. $\sqrt{ }$ hā, to quit, forsake $+n i=h a ̄ n i$, abandonment, loss, decay;
$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{yu}$, to fasten, to unite $+\mathrm{ni}=$ yoni, womb, origin, a form of existence.
nu- forms a few words mostly Masc., some abstract and some concrete: $\sqrt{ }$ bhā. to shine, to be bright + nu = bhānu, beam, light, the sun;
$\sqrt{ }$ dhe, to drink $+\mathrm{nu}=$ dhenu, yielding milk, a milch-cow.
ta 1-This suffix has been explained in the formation of the P. P. P. (450). It also forms a few concrete nouns:
$\sqrt{ }$ dū, to go far, to a certain distance + ta $=$ duta, messenger;
$\sqrt{ }$ sū to impel, to set in motion $+\mathrm{ta}=$ sūta, a charioteer. The student will remark that even these nouns look very much like P.P.P. (see. 452 remarks). The suffix ita, also connected with the- P.P.P. ( 452 , ii), forms a few derivatives of doubtful
connection with roots: palita, grey; lohita, red; harita, green, etc.
ta 2 (sk.- tas)- forms a few nouns
$\sqrt{ }$ su to go, pass + ta $=$ sota, a stream;
$\sqrt{ }$ su, to hear + tar $=$ sota, the ear.
tā (ritu, rātu) (Sk. tr or tar)- This suffix forms a pretty large number of agent-nouns; See §162). [I would r]emark that the base is in $u$, and the nominative in $\bar{a}$;
$\sqrt{ }$ mā, to measure, mete out (food, etc.) + tā = matā, mother;
$\sqrt{ }$ vad, to speak, say + tā $=$ vattā, one who says, tells, a speaker.
ti- This forms a very numerous class of action nouns, Fem., agent-nouns, and a limited number of adjectives.
$\sqrt{ }$ bhaj, to divide + ti $=$ bhatti $(=$ bhakti, $\S 426$ remark, 59, a), division;
$\sqrt{ }$ kitt, to praise $+\mathrm{ti}=$ kitti ( with one t dropped), praise;
Fem. $\sqrt{ }$ gam, go $+\mathrm{ti}=$ gati (§456), a going, journey.
From $\sqrt{ }$ muc, mutti, deliverance;
from $\sqrt{ }$ man, to think, mati ( $\$ 455$ ), thought, etc.

$$
\begin{array}{ll}
\text { Adj. } & \sqrt{ } \text { thāa, stand, last }+ \text { ti }=\text { t thiti, lasting; } \\
& \sqrt{ } \text { pad, to go, step }+\operatorname{ti}=\text { patti }(64), \text { going, a foot soldier. }
\end{array}
$$

tu 1- This is properly the suffix of the Infinitive, which has become an Accusative (363-i): but it also forms nouns chiefly Masc., but of the other genders too:
$\sqrt{ }$ dhā, to lay, put + tu $=$ dhātu, Masc, and Fem., that which lay (at the bottom), a primary element, a root, principle;
$\sqrt{ } \tan$, to stretch $+\mathrm{tu}=$ tantu, a thread, Masc; $\sqrt{ } \mathrm{si}$, to bind $+\mathrm{tu}=$ setu, a tie, bridge.
tu 2- The same as tā (ritu rātu) above.
tra, ta (tran, ta)- forms a large number of derivatives chiefly denoting the agent, and concrete nouns:
$\sqrt{ }$ chad, to cover over $+\operatorname{tra}, \mathrm{ta}=$ chatray, chattay, an umbrella (in chatra d has been
dropped to avoid the collocation of three consonants; in chatta it is assimilated);
$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{ga}$ (a collateral form of $\sqrt{ }$ gay), to move + tra, ta $=$ gattay, limb;
$\sqrt{ }$ nī, to lead + tra, ta $=$ netray, nettay, the eye, that which leads.
tha- The derivatives from this are not very numerous:
$\sqrt{ }$ gā, to sing + tha = gāthā, a song, stanza, verse;
$\sqrt{ } \operatorname{tar}(\mathrm{Sk} . \operatorname{tr})$, to cross + tha $=$ titthay, ford, landing place (with connecting i).
thu and also dhu- give only a few derivatives, and have generally the form atthu, adhu.
$\sqrt{ }$ vip; $\sqrt{ }$ vep, to shake, tremble + thu, dhu = vepathu, vepadhu, trembling;
$\sqrt{ }$ vam to throw up, vomit + thu,$d h u=$ vamathu, vamadhu vomitting.
ra- Forms some nouns and adjectives; there is no guṇa, mostly found in the forms: ira, ura (see also), and ara.
bhand $\sqrt{ }$ bhad, to receive, praise, $+\mathrm{ra}=$ bhadra, bhadda, (adj.) laudable, good, worthy;
$\sqrt{ }$ dhī, to think $+\mathrm{ra}=$ dhīra (adj.) wise, a wise man;
$\sqrt{ }$ bham, to flutter, move in circles + (a) ra = bhamara, a bee.
ri- gives very few derivatives:
$\sqrt{ }$ bhū + ri $=$ bhūri (adj.), abundant, much.
ru- forms some nouns and adj.:
$\sqrt{ }$ bhī, to fear, be afraid + ru $=$ bhīru, timid;
$\sqrt{ }$ can, to rejoice in, to gladden $+\mathrm{ru}=\mathrm{ca}$ ru ( (with elision of n ), dear, gladsome.
$u$ (ru and $u$ )- Although making a large number of derivatives, substantive and adjectives, as the connection of the meaning with the root, is, in many, cases, not easily traced, this suffix is classed with the uṇādi; guna may or may not take place.
$\sqrt{ }$ bandh, to bind $+u=$ bandhu, a kinsman;
$\sqrt{ }$ kar $+\mathrm{u}=$ karu, a doer, maker, artisan;
$\sqrt{ } \tan$, to continue, extend $+u=\tan u$, a son;
$\sqrt{ }$ vas, to light up, shine $+u=$ vasu, a gem; good.
uka (ṇuka)- forms a few nouns and adj. denoting the agent; there is guṇa;
$\sqrt{ }$ pad, to tread, step $+u k a=$ pāduka (Fem.), a shoe;
$\sqrt{ } \mathrm{kar}+\mathrm{uka}=$ kāruka (Masc.), a maker, artisan.
una- Forms a few derivatives.
$\sqrt{ }$ tar, to cross, pass away + una $=$ taruṇā, just begun, young, fresh,
$\sqrt{ }$ kar, to love, pity + una = karunā, (Fem.) compassion;
$\sqrt{ }$ pis, to grind, hurt, destroy + una $=$ pisuno (adj.), backbiting, malicious; a talebearer.
$\overline{\mathrm{u}}$ - forms some adj. and nouns mostly Fem.
$\sqrt{ }$ vid, to know $+\bar{u}=$ vidū, knowing; vi $+\sqrt{ } \tilde{n} \bar{a}$, to know $+\bar{u}=$ viññ̄ū, knowing.
ūra-A few nouns only.
$\sqrt{ }$ und, to wet, moisten + ūra. $=$ undūra, a rat.
usa,* ussa- The derivatives from this, very few, are doubtful:
$\sqrt{ }$ man, to think + usa, ussa = manussa, mānusa, man.
vā-This, as the suffix of the P.P.A., has already been noticed (\$465).
ya- This forms Neut. nouns, most of them abstract in meaning. Assimilation takes place regularly.
$\sqrt{ }$ rāj, rule + ya $=$ rajjay, kingship, kingdom;
$\sqrt{ }$ vaj, to avoid + ya = vajjay, a fault, what is to be avoided;
$\sqrt{ }$ yuj, to yoke, harness + ya = yogay, a carriage, conveyance.
It will be remarked that ya is also the suffix of the F. P. P. (\$466) which often, in the Neut. Sing. makes nouns.
yāṇa (see remark under: laṇa).

## Remarks.

(a) The student will have remarked that the participles Pres. Active, Pres. Reflective; the P.P.P. the Perf Active and the F.P.P. are considered as belonging to the Primary derivation.
(b) Suffixes: tabba, anīya, ya(nya), and icca are by native grammarians called kicca suffixes. (cf. §466).

Secondary Derivatives. (taddhita).
§579. (ii)

## Remarks.

(a) These derivatives are called "Secondary" because they are formed by means of suffixes from the the "Primary" derivatives explained in the kita derivation above.
(b) Secondary derivatives are also formed from pronominal bases (336).
(c) As in kita, guṇa may or may not take place.
§580. The following remarks about the meaning of the secondary derivation, should be well noted:
(i) The great bulk of taddhita suffixes form adjectives from nouns.
(ii) These adjectives are very freely used as substantives, the Masc. and Fem being generally nouns denoting the agent, while in the Neut they are abstract.
(iii) The final vowel of a word is often elided before a taddhita suffix.
(iv) The guna affects mostly the first syllable of the word to which the suffix is added.
§581. The following is a list in alphabetical order of the taddhita suffixes.
a (na, and a)- An extremely large number of derivatives are formed by means of this suffix. It is added to nouns and to adjectives used substantively; these derivatives are essentially adjectives, used in most cases substantively. They primarily express connection with,
relations with or dependence on that denoted by the "primary derivatives"; this relation is necessarily of many kinds, as:
(1) patronymics; the Masc. denotes the son of, the Fem., the daughter of and the Neuter the consanguinity or relation of,
vasitṭtha + a = vāsitṭho, the son of Vasițṭha,
vāsitṭhī, the daughter of Vasițṭha,
vāsițṭhay, the relation of Vasițṭha.
So [too, similarly,] from visamitta $+\mathrm{a}=$ vesamitto, the son of Visamitta
vesamitta, the daughter of Visamitta
vesamittay, the relation of Visamitta
manu $+a=$ mānavo, the son of Manu,
mānavī, the daughter of Manu,
mānavaŋ, the relation of Manu,(cf. §110, Remark)
(2) that which is dyed with:
kasāva, a reddish-yellow dye + a = kāsāvo, reddish-yellow, yellow; kāsāvay, a monk's robe (which is dyed with such dye).
So [too, similarly,] haliddā, turmeric $+\mathrm{a}=$ hāliddo, yellow, dyed with turmeric.
(3) the flesh of:
sūkara, a pig + a = sokaray pork;
mahisa, buffalo $+\mathrm{a}=$ māhisay, buffalo's flesh.
As adj. = sokaro, relating to pigs;
māhiso, relating to buffaloes.
(4)belonging to:
vidisā (a foreign country [or, cf. the Davids \& Stede dictionary: "an intermediate point of the compass" --E.M.]) $+\mathrm{a}=$ vediso belonging to a foreign country, a foreigner;
magadhā (Southern Bihar) $+\mathrm{a}=$ māgadho, belonging to, born in, Magadhā.
(5) a collection of:
kapota, a dove pigeon $+\mathrm{a}=$ kāpoto a group of doves, or, relating to doves;
mayūra a peacock $+\mathrm{a}=$ māyūro, a group of peacocks;
adj., belonging to, relating to peacocks.
(6) Study, knowledge of, knowing:
nimitta, an omen $+\mathrm{a}=$ nemitto, a knower of omens, a fortune teller;
veyyā karaṇan, exegesis, grammar + a = veyyākaraṇo, a grammarian; muhutta, a while $+\mathrm{a}=$ mohutto, one who studies for a while only; also: relating to a moment, momentary.
(7) The locality in which something or some one is or exists:
sakuṇa, a bird + a = sākuṇay, the place wherein birds roost or resort to;
udumbara, a fig-tree $+\mathrm{a}=$ odumbaray, a place where fig-trees grow.
(8) Possession of:
paññā, wisdom + a = pañño, possessing wisdom, wise, a wise man;
saddhā, faith + a = saddho, one who has faith, believing, faithful, a believer.
aka (naka)- Is said to denote the property of: manussa, a man $+a=$ manussakay, that which belongs to man, the property of man, human. (See ka).
aya- For this, see ya.
ālu- (This is suffix lu, preceded by $\bar{a}$ (See lu); denotes the tendency, and forms some past participial adj.
dayā, sympathy, compassion + ālu = dayālu, compassionate;
abhijjhā, covetousness + alu = abhijjhālu, covetous, whose tendency is to be covetous;
sīta, cold + ālu sītālu, chilled, cold.
āna (nāna)- Forms patronymics:
kacca (a proper name) + āna = kaccāno, kaccānī, kacccānay, the son, daughter, offspring of Kacca;
cora, a thief + āna = corāno, corānī, corānam, the son, etc.
āṇa- (given as a kita Suffix in the forms: lāṇa, yāṇa (see kita suffixes above) forms a very few derivatives;
kalya, and by assimilation kalla, healthy, remembering, thinking of, + āṇa =
kalyāno, kallāno, happy, blessed with health, good.
āyana (ṇāyana)- Also forms patronymics:
kacca + āyana = kaccāyano, kacāyanī, kaccāyanay, the son, etc, of Kacca: vaccha + āyana = vacchāyano, vacchāyānī, vacchāyanay, the son, etc, of Vaccha.
bya- is said to denote: the state of:
dāsa, a slave + bya = dāsabyay, the state of being a slave, slavery.
dhā- Has already been noted (see kita suffixes above).
era (nera)- Patronymics; the final vowel of the word is elided.
vidhava + era = vedhavera, the son of Vidhava; nalika + era = nalikero, the son of Naḷika; samaṇa, a monk + era = sāmaṇera, the son,viz. the disciple of the monk, a novice.
eyya 1 (ṇeyya)- The state or nature of:
alasa, idle + eyya = ālaseyyay idleness; sāpateyyay, property (lit., one's own property) = sa, own + pati, master, owner + eyya (note the elision of i in pati).
eyya 2 (neyya)- Patronymics; with guṇa.
vinata + eyya = venateyyo, the son of Vinata; mālī, a gardener + eyya = māleyya, the gardener's son.
eyya 3- Denotes the nature of, the origin, the place where a thing is made, or a person or animal reared up.

Pabbateyya, whose place or abode is in the mountain, belonging to mountains $=$ pabbata + eyya;
suci, purity + eyya = soceyyay, the state of him who is pure, also, purification;
kula, family + eyya = koleyyo, belonging to, reared up in a (noble) family, of good family;
bārāṇasī, Benares + eyya = bārānaseyyan; that which is made in Benares, lit., that the origin of which is in Benares.
eyya 4-Fitness, worthiness. This is a form of the F.P.P. already explained (cf. §468).
i 1 (ṇi)- Forms a few patronymics, from nouns in a:
duna $+i=$ doni, the son of Duna;
anuruddhā $+\mathrm{i}=$ Anuruddhi, the son of Anuruddhā;
jinadattha $+\mathrm{i}=$ jinadatthi, the son of Jinadattha.
i 2- After the word pura, town, city, indicates that which belongs or is proper to a city: pori, urbane, polite, affable.
ika (nika)- Is of very wide application and is added after nouns and adjectives; guṇa generally takes place. It denotes:
(1) Patronymics:
nādaputta $+\mathrm{ika}=$ nādaputtiko, the son of Nadiputta;
jinadattha $+\mathrm{ika}=$ jinadatthiko, the son of Jinadattha.
(2) Living by means of:
nāvā, a boat +ika = nāviko, one who goes or lives by means of a boat $=\mathrm{a}$ boatman;
balisa, a fish-hook + ika = bālisiko, a fisherman;
vetana, wages $+\mathrm{ika}=$ vetaniko, one who lives upon wages, a labourer.
(3) Going by means of:
pada, the foot + ika = pādiko, one who goes with his feet, a pedestrian; sakaṭa, a cart + ika = sākaṭiko, one who goes in a cart.
(4) Relating to:
samudda, the sea $+\mathrm{ika}=$ sāmuddiko, relating to the sea, marine;
sakaṭa, cart, sākaṭiko, relating to carts.
(5) Playing upon:
vīn̄ā, a lute, veniko, playing upon a lute, lute player (§27, ii, Remark 2); bheri, a drum, bheriko, a drummer, or, relating to a drum.
(6) Mixed with:
tela, oil, telikay, that which is mixed with oil, oily; dadhi, curds, dadhikay, that which is mixed with curds, and dadhiko, mixed with or relating to curds.
(7) Making, the maker:
tela, oil, teliko, an oil manufacturer.
(8) Connected with:
dvāra, a door, dvāriko, one who is connected with a door, a door-keeper.
(9) Carrying upon:
khanda, the shoulder, khandiko, who carries on the shoulder; anguli, finger, anguliko, who carries on the finger.
(10) Born in or belonging to a place, or living in a place:
sāvatthi, sāvatthiko, of, born in, or, living in Sāvatthi;
kapilavatthu, kapilavatthiko, of, born, in, or, living in Kapilavatthu.
(11) Studying, learning:
vinaya, the Discipline, venayiko, one who studies the vinaya; suttanta, a discourse (of the Buddha), suttantiko, one who studies, or knows Discourses, viz., the Suttapiṭaka.
(12) That which is performed by:
mānasa, the mind, mānasiko, mental, and mānasikay, the act performed by mind;
sarira, the body, sārīriko, bodily, corporeal, sārīrikay, the act performed by the body.
(13) That which is bartered for:
suvaṇna, gold, sovaṇṇikay, that which is bartered for gold;
sovaṇ̣iko, relating to gold;
vattha, cloth, vatthikay, that which is exchanged for cloth; vatthiko, relating to cloth.
(14) Possession:
daṇdo, a staff, daṇiliko, one who has a staff, a mendicant;
mālà wreath, māliko, one having a wreath;
puttiko, who has sons.
(15) A collection, herd, group:
kedāra, a field, kedārikay, a collection of fields;
hatthi, elephant, hatthikay, herd of elephants.
(16) Measure:
kumbha, a pot, kumbhiko, containing a big measure, viz., as much as a pot; kumbhikay, that which is contained in a pot.
imā- Denotes position or direction in space or time; it also shows relation: pacchā, behind, western, pacchimo hindermost, western; anta, limit, end; antimo, last, final.
[So too:] majjhimo, middling, from majjha, middle.
imā- Forms a limited number of possessive adj.:
putta, son, puttimā, who has sons;
papā, evil, sin, pāpimā sinful, evil.

This suffix is the same as that noticed in $\$ 221 \& 222$, with connecting vowels before it.
in (ṇi)- Forms a numerous class of possessive adj., very often used substantively (137); the stems are in in, and the nominative sing in $\bar{i}$; daṇ̣a, a staff, daṇdī, possessed of a staff; manta, design, plan, mantī, one replete with plans, a minister, adviser; pāpa, evil + in = pāpī, having evil, evil.
ina- A few possessive adj.;
mala, dirt, taint + ina = malina, dirty, tainted.
issika- This is the sign of the Superlative (238).
iya- A few abstract nouns; issara, lord, chief + iya = issariyay, dominion; alasa, lazy, ālasiyay, idleness.
īya- like ima above.
iya, as īya noticed in (466), is essentially a suffix of the F.P.P. The proper form of the suffix, it should be noted is: īya.
ī1-See in, above.
$\overline{1}$ 2-Is used after the cardinals from 11 upwards to form ordinals expressing the day of the month, but also mere ordinals sometimes:
ekādasa, $11+\overline{1}=$ ekādasī, the 11th day or simply, the 11th;
catuddasa, $14+\overline{1}=$ catuddasī, the 14th day, or the 14th.
ka (kan)- Is much used to form adjectives, which in Neut. become abstract nouns; besides, it also forms a certain number of nouns Masc. which, however, are adjectives used as substantives. Guṇa often takes place:
rakkhā, protection $+\mathrm{ka}=$ rakkhako, protecting, a guard;
rakkhana, defence $+\mathrm{ka}=$ rakkhanako, a guard;
ramaṇeyya, pleasurable + ka = rāmaṇeyyako, delightful, rāmaṇeyyakay, delightfulness.

It [viz., the suffix ka (kaṇ)] has a few other meanings;
(1) Collection, group;
rājaputta, prince $+\mathrm{ka}=$ rājaputtaka, a group or band of princes; manussa, man $+\mathrm{ka}=$ mānussakay, an assembly or group of men.
(2) Diminutives, with, sometimes, a certain amount of contempt implied; pāda, foot, pādako, a small foot;
rāja, king, rājako, a princeling; putta, son, puttako, a little son; luddha, hunter, luddhako, a young hunter.
[An instructive example of Duroiselle's point here: munda (shaven, bare) becomes muṇdaka, "a mere shaveling", viz., meaning a shaven-headed man with "a certain amount of contempt implied" --E.M.]
(3) Not seldom, ka adds nothing whatever to the primary meaning of the word; kumāra, child, young prince $+\mathrm{ka}=$ kumārako; nava, young, junior $+\mathrm{ka}=$ navaka.
(4) It is much used after compounds, above all, after bahubbīhī, to form poseessives, but often also redundantly.
(5) The use of ka after numerals has been noticed (cf. §286).
kata- Is considered as a suffix by some grammarians; It is used with prefixes: ni + kaṭa = nikaṭa, near;
vi + kaṭa = vikaṭa, changed;
pa + kaṭa = pākaṭa, evident, public, clear;
sam + kaṭa = sankaṭa, narrow.
It will be remarked that kaṭa forms adjectives differing very little or even not at all from the meaning of the suffix to which it is added. It is probably a form of kata (P.P.P.), from $\sqrt{ }$ kar, to do, make.
kiya- Forms adj. denoting relation, connection (it is made up, no doubt, of ka + iya): Andha, the Andhra country + kiya = andhakiya, relating or belonging to the Andhra country;
jāti, birth + kiya = jātikiya, relating to birth, congenital.
la- Forms a few adj. and nouns; it is often preceded by the vowels: $i$, and $u$ : bahu, many + la = bahulo, abundant;
vācā, word + la = vācālo, talkative, garrulous;
phena, froth = phenila, frothy, the soap plant, soap;
mātā, mother + ula = mātulo, maternal uncle;
vatța, a circle + ula = vatțulo, circular;
kumbhī, a pot, jar + la = kumbhīlo, a crocodile, one who has (a belly like) a jar.
la is another form of ra (see also below.); r and l often interchange ( $47, \mathrm{vi}$ ).
lu- For this see: ālu above.
ma- Forms ordinals (see 274); ma has sometimes a superlative meaning (see, ima, above). ima is the suffix ma with preceding vowel i
mā (mantu) (mant)- is much used in forming adj. of possession. It has been explained already ( $\$ 220,221,222,223,224$ ).
maya- With this suffix are formed adjectives denoting made of, consisting of: suvaṇṇa, gold + maya = suvaṇṇamaya, made of gold, golden; rajata, silver + maya = rajatamaya, made of silver.
$\min =m i-$ This forms a few possessive adjectives; the stems are in in and the Nominative Sing in $\overline{1}$ (see, in and $\overline{1}$ ).
go, cow $+\min =$ gomin, (gomī) possessing oxen, cattle, a possessor of cattle; sa, own $+\min =\operatorname{samin}(s a \overline{m i ̄})$ owner, master, lord.
mī- See last.
ra- From this are made a few adjectives; guṇa, in some examples, takes place. It is often preceded by the vowels a and $i$.
madhu, honey $+\mathrm{ra}=$ madhura, sweet, sweetness; [also: intoxicating; flattery.] sikhā, a peak + ra = sikhāra, having a peak, peaked, a mountain;
susa, empty, hole + (i)ra = susira, full of holes;
kamma, act, work + ara = kammāro, having or doing work, an artificer, smith.
so- same meaning as ra; medhā, wisdom + so = medhāso having wisdom, wise; loma, hair + so = lomaso, hairy.
si, ssi- See below (vin = vi).
ta- Forms a few nouns and adj. it is a possessive suffix:
pabba, a knot, joint, fulness + ta = pabbata, a mountain, that which has joints or fulness;
vanka, bent + ta = vankata, bent, crooked.
tama- Is the suffix used in forming the Superlative. See $\S 238$, i.
tana- This suffix forms, from adverbs, a few adjectives:
svā (sve, suve), tomorrow + tana = svātano, of tomorrow, belonging to tomorrow; sanay (Sk. sanā), of old, always + tana = sanantano, ancient, old, perpetual; nū, now + tana = nūtano fresh, new.
tara- As the suffix of the comparative, tara has already been explained ( $238, \mathrm{i}$ ).
tā 1- This suffix forms a numerous class of feminine abstract nouns from adjectives and nouns, and expresses the state, nature or quality of being that which is denoted by the adj. or noun.
lahu, light + tā = lahutā, lightness;
sāra, pith, marrow + tā = sāratā, essence, strength;
ati (prefix ). very, great + sūra, a hero + tā $=$ atisūratā great heroism.
tā 2- Denotes multitude, collection:
jana, person, man + tā $=$ janatā, a multitude of persons, folk, people; gāma, village + tā = gāmatā, a collection of villages.
[So too:] nagaratā, bandhutā etc.
ti- Is used in forming the words expressing decades (see 251).
tta- (Sk. tva). Forms Neuter nouns of the same import as tā (i):
puthujjana, a common man $+\mathrm{tta}=$ puthujjanattay; the state of being a common man;
buddha, a buddha + tta = buddhattay, Buddhahood;
atthi he is $+\mathrm{tta}=$ atthittay the state of "he is", existence.
ttana- Used in the same sense as the last (Sk. tvana):
puthujjana + ttana $=$ puthujjanattanay, state of being a common man; vedanā, sensation + ttana $=$ vedanattanay, sensitiveness.
tya $=$ cca- (sk. tya). Forms a few adjectives from indeclinables:
ni, in + cca = nicca, inward, inmate, own, eternal, perpetual;
amā, with, at home $+c c a=$ amacco, inmate, minister (for tya $=c c a$, see 74).
tha- used in forming the ordinals: 4th, 5th, 6th, and 7th. (see 251).
thay- Makes adverbs from pronominal stems; it has been noticed in (337).
thā- This also has been noticed in (337)
vā (vantu)(vant)- This suffix makes a very large class of possessive adjectives.
It is similar in character to mā (mant). See (220).
va- Forms a small number of adjectives:
aṇna, wave + va = aṇnavo, billowy, also, the ocean;
kesa, hair + va = kesavo; hairy (a name of Viṣnu).
$\mathrm{v} \overline{\mathrm{I}}=\mathrm{vin}-$ Used to form adjectives of possession. The stems are in in, and the Nominative Sing. in $\overline{1}$. It has been explained in (231).

It is used also after some words the stem of which ends in $s(158,160)$ : tapas (tapo), austerity, devotion $+\mathrm{vi}=$ tapassī (tapasvi), austere, a hermit; yasas (yaso), fame $+\overline{v i}=$ yasassī (yasasvi), renowned, famous.
Note that initial $v$ of $v \overline{1}$ is assimilated to final $s$, thus giving $s s \overline{1}$; the suffix as given by native grammarians is ssī, which the student should assume as being the true suffix.
ya (nya)- This forms a very large class of nouns, mostly Neuter abstract. Guṇa takes place in most cases, and assimilation is regular.
alasa, lazy + ya = ālasyay, ālassay, laziness; kusala, skilful + ya = kosallay, skill, mastery; paṇdita, learned, clever + ya = paṇdiccay, learning, scholarship; vipula, broad, large + ya = vepullay development; samāna, equal, same + ya = samañño common, general; dakkhiṇa, affable + ya = dakkhiñño, affable, kind; dakkhiññay affability, kindness.

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Roots used as suffixes. (kvi.)
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§582. "kvi" is an imaginary suffix denoting that the root itself is to be considered as the suffix. When a root ends in a consonant, this consonant is elided:

$$
\begin{aligned}
& \sqrt{ } \text { gam }=\text { ga. } \\
& \sqrt{ } \text { ghan, to kill }=\text { gha. }
\end{aligned}
$$

As these form primarily adjectives, they assume, in certain cases, but not always, the endings of the three genders.
§583. The student must bear in mind that native grammarians include kvi in kita. As, however, they are used as suffixes added after Primary and Secondary derivatives and indeclinables, I have preferred to treat them separately.
§584. A list of the principal roots used as suffixes is here given.
bhū- ( $\sqrt{ }$ bhū,to be), has generally the meaning denoted by the verb itself: abhi $+b h \bar{u}=$ abhibhū, mastering, overcoming, a conqueror (abhibhavi ,to overcome);
vi $+b h \bar{u}=v i b h u$, arising, expanding, ruler, lord (vibhavati, to arise, expand); sam + bhū = sambhū, offspring, progeny;
sambhavati, to be produced, to spring from.
da- ( $\sqrt{ }$ dā, to give, bestow):
amata, imortality $+\mathrm{da}=$ amatado, he who bestows or confers immortality, conferring immortality; lokahita, the world's welfare $+\mathrm{da}=$ lokahitado, bestowing, or wishing for, the world's welfare.

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ga-(\sqrt{}{Vgm} to go):
    pāra, the further shore + ga = parago, gone to the further shore, viz. to Nirvana;
    kula, family + upa, near + ga = kulupago, one who goes near a family, a family
    adviser.
gū- (a collateral form of \sqrt{ }{gam):}
    addhā, distance + gu = addhagū, going to a distance, a traveller;
    pāra + gu\overline{u}= pāragū, as above, pārago.
gha- ( \sqrt{ ghan = han [59, note] ):}{}\mathrm{ ;}
    to strike, kill; pați, back, in return + gha = paṭigho, hatred.
ja-( \sqrt{ }{ jā, jan, to be born, produced):}
    panka, mud + ja = pankaja, produced in the mud, a lotus;
    aṇ̣a, an egg + ja = aṇdaja,born from an egg = a bird.
ji- (\sqrt{}{ji},\mathrm{ to conquer):}
    māra, the enemy of Buddha + ji = māraji, conqueror of Mara.
pa-(\sqrt{}{}\textrm{p}\mathrm{ à, to drink):}
    pada,a foot + pa = pādapo, drinking by the foot (root), a tree.
pa-( \sqrt{}{}\mathrm{ pā, to guard, keep):}
    go, cow + pa = gopo, cowkeeper.
tha- (\sqrt{}{}\mathrm{ thā, to stand; exist):}
    nāvā, boat + ṭha = nāvatṭho, stored in a boat;
    ākāsa, the sky, air, + tha = ākasatteho, standing, resting, abiding in the sky.
kha- (\sqrt{}{}khā, a collateral form of \sqrt{}{}khan, to dig):
    pari, round + kha = parikha, that which is dug all round = a moat.
dada- properly the base (371-4) of \(\sqrt{ }\) dā, but considered as a root by some grammarians, is used in the same way as da above:
sabbakāmadaday kumbhay = an all-desire-granting vessel, a vessel which grants all desires.
§585. The taddhita suffixes may be classified as follows:
- Patronymics- a, āna, āyana, era, eyya, \(\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{ika}\).
- Possessive- aka, ika, imā, in = \(\overline{1}\), ra, (ara, ira), so, ssī, mā(mat, mant), \(\min =m \overline{\mathrm{I}}, \mathrm{va}\), vā, (vat, vant), vī = vin, ta, ina, la
- Group, collection, multitude- a, ika, ka, tā.
- State of, quality, abstract idea: bya, eyya, iya, tā, tta, ttana, ta.
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- Relation (relating to): a, i, ika, ima, kiya.

The others may be classified as miscellaneous.
§586. It will have been remarked that some suffixes are merely made up of a principal one which has taken the vowel a or i or $u$ before it. Such are: aka, ika from ka; aya, iya, from ya; ara, ira, ura from ra; ila from la.

## CHAPTER XIV. <br> SYNTAX. (Kāraka).

§587. Syntax, in Pāli, does not offer any difficulty for nearly all the relations of the substantives, adjectives and pronouns which will be explained in this chapter are very often obviated by compounding them as has already been explained in the chapter on Compounds. The student who has carefully read and mastered the Compounds has therefore done much and will understand ordinary prose without too much difficulty. However, there are peculiar uses of the Cases, without a knowledge of which a thorough mastery of the language would be impossible; we therefore invite the learner to read attentively the present chapter.

## (i) ORDER OF SENTENCES

§588. The order of the Pāli sentence is very simple in character, compound sentences being rather the exception than the rule:
(1) Whether the sentence be Simple, Compound or Complex, the predicate must always come last.
(2) In a simple sentence containing an object, the order is:
(i) Subject;
(ii) object and
(iii) predicate,
[e.g.,] dāso kammay karoti, the slave does the work.
(3) Words qualifying the subject or the object come before the subject and the object respectively, and adverbs before the verb:
etetayo purisā mahantay siriy sīghay pāpuṇinsu,
these three men quickly attained to great glory.
(4) The conjunctions, pana, but; udāhu, or, are used to form compound sentences; ce, yadi and sace, if, complex sentences.

## Remark.

Adverbs of time always come first in the sentence.

## (ii) THE ARTICLE.

§589. There are no words in Päli corresponding to the English articles; the words eko, ekacce, "one", "a certain...", are often used in the sense of the indefinite article (cf. §253); and so, eso, "that", "this", do the function of the definite article: so puriso, the man; sā itthī, the woman.

## Remark.

Substantives not preceded by the above words may, according to the context, be translated as if preceded by the articles: puriso = a man, or, the man.
(iii) CONCORD.
\$590. Concord of subject and predicate.
(1) The predicate may be:
(i) a finite verb: bhikkhu gahapatiy ovādi, the monk admonished the householder;
(ii) a substantive with the verb "hoti" understood after it: yadi ete guṇā,
if these (are = honti) virtues;
(iii)An adjective with "hoti" also understood: tvan atibālo, thou (art = asi) very foolish;
(iv) A P.P.P.used as a finite verb; so pi gato, he too went, lit. he too gone. (2) When a finite verb is used as predicate, it must agree with the subject in number and person. When there are several subjects of different persons, the verb is put in the first person plural: so ca tvay ahay gacchatha, he thou, and I go. Should there be no subject of the first person, the verb is put in the 2nd person plural: so ca tvan gacchatha, he and thou go.
(3) In the case of an adjective or a P.P.P. taking the place of the predicate, the adj. and the P.P.P. must agree with the subject in gender and number: so gato, he went; sā gatā, she went; tay gatay, it went; so taruṇo, he is young; sā taruṇā, she is young; tay taruṇay, it is young.
(4) But if a substantive stands in the place of a verb, no such concord of gender or number needs take place; appamado nibbanapaday ( = nibbānassa padayo), vigilance is the path to Nirvana.

Concord of Adjective and Substantive.
§591. An adjective, or participle (which is of the nature of an adj.) when not compounded with the noun it qualifies, must agree with it in gender, number and case.

## Concord of the Relative and its Antecedent.

§592. The relative must agree with its antecedent in gender, number and person.
(1) The relative may be used by itself, without the noun: yo janāti so iman gaṇhātu, he who knows let him take this. Note, that in the above the demonstrative pronoun so is used as a correlative.
(2) The relative is used instead of a preceding noun: ahay ekay upāyay janāmi, yena amhe gaṇhituy no sakkissati, I know an expedient by which he will not able to seize us.
(3) With the noun expressed: yassa purisassa buddhi hoti so mahaddhano ti vuccati, to whom there is wisdom, he is called very wealthy, he who has wisdom is said to be very wealthy.
(4) Note that the clause containing the relative is put first; sometimes the clause containing the correlative is placed first for the sake of emphasis: na so pitāyena putto na sikkhāpiyati, he is no father by whom the son is not made to learn.

## (iv) SYNTAX OF SUBSTANTIVES.

§593. This is properly government, for the term "kāraka" expresses the relation between the noun and the verb, so that any relation existing between words not connected with a verb cannot be called a kāraka; consequently the Genitive and the Vocative are not considered as cases, for they have no relation whatever with the verb; they are therefore called akāraka, non-cases.

## 1. THE NOMINATIVE.

§594. The Nominative is used very much in the same way as in English; it is the subject of the verb and the latter must agree with it in number and person; see Concord of subject and predicate (590).
(i) The Nominative is used in apposition: malliko kosalarājā, Mallika, king of Kosala.
(ii) It is used absolutely in titles of books, that is, it does not take the termination proper to the nominative; māhajānakajātaka, the birth.story of Mahajanaka.

## 2. GENITIVE.

§595. The true force of the genitive is "of" and "-'s" expressing possession.
(i) The genitive therefore is used primarily to denote possession: suvaṇṇassa rāsi, a heap of gold; rukkhassa sākhā, the branch of the tree.
(ii) In such examples as the above, the genitive is often compounded with the noun it qualifies: suvaṇnarāsi.
(iii) It denotes the whole of which a part only is taken; this is called "partitive genitive": brāhmāṇay so paṇ̣ito, he is clever among brahmins; sabbayodhānay
atisūro, the bravest of all warriors; tumhākay pana ekenā, but even not one of you.
(iv) The genitive is used also with words expressing, difference, equality, inequality: tassa antaray na passiysu, they did not see the (its) difference; sadiso pitu, the same as (his) father; tulyo pitu equal to his father.
Remark.

In these examples the ablative may also be used: sadiso pitarā.
(v) Words meaning. dear or the reverse, take a genitive: sā brāhmaṇassa manāpā, she (was) dear to the brahmin.
(vi) Likewise words denoting: honour, veneration etc.: gāmassa pūjito honoured of the village; rañño mānito, revered by (of) the king.
Remark.

In these examples the Inst. may also be used: gāmena pūjito
(vii) Words of: skill, proficiency, etc., and their opposites, govern the genitive: kusalā naccagitassa, clever in dancing and singing.
(viii) It is used with words indicating: locality, time, distance: amhākay buddhassa pubbe, before our Buddha; gāmassa avidure, not far from the village; upari tesay, above them.
(ix) Believing in or well disposed towards: budhassa pasanno, he has faith in the Buddha.

Remark.
Here the Loc. may also be used: buddhe pasanno.
(x) It is used also with words of remembering or thinking of (with sorrow), pitying, wishing for, giving or apportioning, honouring, cleaning, filling, fearing and a few others: mātussa sarati, he remembers his mother (with sorrow); na tesa koci sarati, nobody remembers them; telassa davati, he gives oil; pūrati bālo pāpassa, the fool is full of evil; sabbe tasanti dandassa, all fear punishment.
In these examples the Acc. may be used: telay davati.

## Remark.

Words of fearing also govern the Abl.: kin nu kho ahay sunakhā bhāyami? Why should I fear the dog?
(xi) A genitive with a participle in agreement is called a Gen. Absolute. It generally denotes some attendant circumstance: tassa bhattay bhuttassa udakay aharanti, when he had finished his meal they fetched him water.
(xii) Some other relations of the genitive will present no difficulty, as they have their exact parallel in English.
§596. It will be seen from the remarks above that the genitive is often used instead of the Accusative, the Ablative, the Instrumentive and the Locative. It is also used adverbially, as kissa, why? It will also be remarked that whenever the genitive is dependent on a verb, it is so on account of its being used instead of another case, as in: mātussa sarati.
3. THE DATIVE.
§597. The person or object to or for whom, something is given or done, is put in the Dative case. The Dat. is consequently used also as indirect object with transitive verbs having an Acc. as direct object.
(i) The Dat., then, expresses the relations which, in English, are usually denoted by the words to, for: bhikkhussa civaray deti, he gives a robe to the priest; yuddhāya paccuggacchāmi; I will set out for battle.
(ii) The Dat. is governed by verbs expressing praise or blame, anger, believing, disbelieving, assent, envy, pleasure or displeasure, injury, benefit, approval, forgiveness, salutation, blessing, hatred, abuse, concealing, worshipping, carrying. Examples:

Buddhassa silāghate, he praises the Buddha;
yadi'hay tassa kuppeyya, if I should be angry with him;
duhayati disānay ogho, the flood has injured the country;
tuyhay saddahāmi, I believe thee;
svāgatay te, hail to thee!
sotthi tuyhay hotu, fare thee well!
khama me, forgive me!
mayhay sapate he swears at or, reviles me;
tassa sampaṭicchi, he assented to it;
ussuyanti dujjanā guṇav antānay wicked people envy the virtuous; tassa atītaŋ āhari, he told him a story;
devā pi tesay pihayanti, even the gods desire them, envy them;
samaṇassa rocate saccay: truth pleases a monk.
(iii) The Dat. is commonly used with the verb "to be" to express possession: puttā me n'atthi, no sons are to me, I have no sons.

## Remark.

When the verb "hoti" is used with the Dat. to express possession, it is generally put in the singular, even when, as in the above example what is possessed is plural.
(iv) The word, alay, enough, fit, governs the Dat.: alay kukkuccāya, enough of doubt! alay mallo mallassa, sufficient is a warrior for a warrior! A warrior is match for a warrior.
(v) The words, attha, object, purpose; hita, benefit, blessing; and sukha, happiness, are used in the Dat. with the meaning respectively of: for the purpose of, for; for the benefit of; for the happiness of; and they govern a Gen.: ropanassa atthāya, or, ropanatthāya, for the purpose of sowing; devamanussānay hitāya, for the benefit of gods and men; tassa sukhāya, for his hapiness.
(vi) The Dat. may denote the purpose for which, and then governs a Gen: dārassa bharanāya for the purpose of maintaining a wife, for the maintenance of a wife, to maintain a wife.

## Remark.

It will be seen from this example that the Dat. in āya has the force of an Infinitive.
(vii) The Dat. is also used with the verb maññati, to consider, esteem, when contempt is implied: kalingarassa tuyhay maññe, I consider thee as chaff, a fig for you! jīvitan tiṇaya na maññe, I do not consider life (so much) as grass, I do not care in the least for life.
(viii) The place to which motion is directed is sometimes put in the Dat: appo saggāya gacchati, (only) the few go to heaven; nirayāya upakaḍ̣̣hati, drags down to hell; so may udakāya neti, he takes me to the water.
(ix) The Dat. is often used instead of the Accusative, and also of the Locative.
§538
4. THE ACCUSATIVE.
(i) The Accusative Case is generally governed by transitive verbs: rathay karoti, he makes a carriage; āhāro balay janeti, food produces ( = gives strength).
(ii) All verbs implying motion govern the Acc.: nagaray gacchati; he goes to town; bhagavantay upasankamitvā, having approached the Blessed One.
(iii) Verbs having the meaning of, to choose to name, to call, to appoint, to ask, to make, to know, to consider, etc. take two accusatives, one a direct object and the other a factitive or indirect object:
puriso bhāray gamay vahati, the man carries the load to the village; purisay gacchantay passati, he sees the man going
(here gāmay and gacchantay are the factitive objects.)
(iv) Causative Verbs likewise govern two Accusatives: puriso purisay gāmay gamāyati: the man causes the man to go to the village; ācariyo sisay dhammay pātheti, the preceptor causes the disciple to read the Doctrine.

## Remark.

In such examples the Instrumentive may be used instead of the factitive object: sāmiko dāsena (or dāsay) khajjay khādāpeti. The master causes the slave to eat the food; purisena (or purisay) kammay kāreti, he causes the slave to do the work.
(v) When the roots: $\sqrt{ }$ vas, to live; $\sqrt{ }$ thā, to stand; $\sqrt{ }$ si, to lie down; $\sqrt{ }$ pad to go step; and $\sqrt{ }$ vis to enter; are preceded by the verbal prefixes: anu, upa, abhi, adhi, ā and ni, they govern the Acc: gāmay upavasati, he lives near the village; nagaray adhivasanti, they dwell in the village; mañcay abhinsideyya; he ought to sit on the cot; sakkassa sahabyatay upapajjati, got into companionship with Sakka, she went to Sakka's heaven.
(vi) The Acc. is used for the Loc.: nadiy pivati = nadiyay pivati, he drinks in the river; gāmay carati = gāme carati he roams in the village.
(vii) The [following] indeclinables [are associated with the accusative case]:
abhito, near, in the presence of, on both sides;
dhi, dhī, Woe! Fie! Shame! as well as the expression: dhi-r-atthu, Woe, shame be to!
antarā, between, on the way;
parito, around, everywhere, on every side;
anu by the side of, inferior;
pati, to, towards, for, near;
pari, around;
upa, inferior to;
antarena, except, without;
abhi, before, [...]
abhito gāma vasati, he lives near the village;
dhī brāhmanassa hantāray, woe to whom strikes a brahmin!
dhī-ratthu may pūtikayay, shame on that foul body of mine!
upāyay antarena, without expedient;
may antarena, excepting me;
antarā ca rājagahay, and on the way to Rajagaha;
parito nagaray, around the village;
sadhu devadatto mātaray anu, Devadatta is kind to his mother;
anu sāriputtay, inferior to Sariputta;
pabbattay anu, by the side of the mountain;
sādhu devadatto mātaray pati, Devadatta is kind to his mother;
nadiy nerañjaray pati, near the river Nerañjara;
upa sāriputtay, inferior to Sariputta.
(viii) Duration of time is put in the Acc.: divasay, the whole day; $\operatorname{tay}$ khanana, at that moment; ekay samayay, once upon a time.
(ix) Ordinals in the Acc., denote "number of times" dutiyan, for the second time; tatiyan, for the 3rd time.
(x) Distance is also expressed by the Acc.: yojanay gacchati, he goes one league.
(xi) The Acc. is very often used adverbially: khippay gacchati he goes quickly; hatthanillehakay bhuñjati, he eats "licking his hands."

## Remark.

This is called the adverbial accusative.
§599.
5. THE INSTRUMENTATIVE.
(i) The agent by whom or the insutrument with which .an action is performed is put in the Inst.: cakkhunā rupay passati, (one) sees forms with the eye; hatthena kammay karoti (one) does work with the hands; dāsena kato, done by the slave.
(ii) The Inst. shows cause or reason: rukkho vātena oṇamati, the tree bends down on account of the wind; kammuna vasalo hoti, he is a pariah by reason of his work. The Inst. can therefore be translated by such expressions as: by means of; on account of; through; by reason of; owing to.
(iii) The conveyance in or on which one goes is put in the Inst.: yānena gacchati, he goes in a cart; vimānena, gacchiysu they went in a flying mansion; hatthina upasankamati, he approached on his elephant.
(iv) The price at which a thing is bought or sold is put in the Inst. kahāpanena no detha, give it to us for a kahāpaṇa (a small piece of money); satasahassena kiṇitvā having bought it for 100,000 (pieces of money).
(v) The direction or route, or the way by which one goes is shown by the Inst.: tā sāladvārena gacchanti, they went by the gate of the hall; kena maggena so gato, (by) which way did he go?
(vi) It is used to denote infirmity or bodily defects, the member or organ affected being in the Inst.: akkhinā so kāno, he is blind of one eye; hatthena kuṇi, having a crooked hand.
(vii) Words expressing, birth, lineage, origin, nature are put in the Inst.: jātiyā khattiyo buddho, Buddha is a kșatriya by birth: pakatiyā bhaddako, good by nature.
(viii) The Inst. expreses the time in which: divasena patto, arrived in one day; ekena māsena nagaray gacchi, he went to the city in a month.
(ix) Also the time at which: tena samayena, at that time...
( x ) It expresses companionship, and is then generally used with the indeclinables, saha or saddhiy, with, together with: nisīdi bhagavā saddhiy bhikkhusanghena, the Blessed One sat together with the assembly of the monks.
(xi) The expressions "what is the use of," "what use to ..."," what benefit by ...", etc., are expressed in Pāli by the Inst. of the thing and the Dat. of the person: kin te jatāhi dummedha, what good to thee, $O$ fool, by matted hair? kin nu me buddhena, what need have I of Buddha? What do I care for a Buddha?
(xii) The word attho, desire, need, want, takes an Inst. of the object desired or wanted and a Dat. of the person: maninā me attho, I want a jewel (lit., to me is need of, or desire for, a jewel).
(xiii) alay, enough, governs also this case: alay idha vāsena enough of living here: alan buddhena, Buddha is sufficient for me.
(xiv) Words denoting "separation" are generally construed with the Inst.: piyehi vippayogo dukkho, separation from those we love is painful.
(xv) The indeclinables, saha, saddhiy, samay, with at: vinā, without, except, govern the Inst.: vinādosena, without fault.

## Remark.

saha, sometimes expresses "equality":
puttena saha dhanavā pitā, a father as rich as his son.
(xvi) Verbs meaning "to convey, to carry, to fetch" etc., take the Inst. of the place of carrying: sisena dārukalāpay ucchangena paṇṇam ādāya, taking a bunch of firewood on her head and greens at her hips...
(xvii) The Inst. is often used adverbially (see above).
(xviii) It is also governed by many prepositions.
§600.
6. THE ABLATIVE.
(i) The primary meaning of the Ablative is that expressed by the word "from"; that is, it expresses separation; it expresses also many other relations, in which the principal idea of separation is more or less discernible.
(ii) Separation: gāmā apenti, they left the village; so assā patati, he fell from the horse.
(iii) Direction from: avīcito upari above the Avici Hell; uddhay padatala, (from) above the sole of the foot.
(iv) The place "wherein" an action is performed is put in the Abl.; in such cases a gerund is sometimes understood according to native grammarians, but the student will remark that these expressions have their exact parallel in English: pāsādā oloketi, he looks from the palace, is said to be equivalent to: pāsāday abhiruhitvā pāsādā oloketi, having ascended the palace he looks from the palace.
(v) Measure of length, breadth or distance is put in the Abl: dīghaso navavidatthiyo nine spans long, yojanaŋ āyāmato, a league in length; yojanay vittharato, a league in breadth.
Remark.

In these examples the Inst. may also be used: yojanay āyāmena, yojanay vitthārena.
(vi) That from which a person or animal is warded or kept off is put in the Abl: yavehi gāvo rakkhati, he keeps off the cows from the barley; taṇ̣ulā kāke vāreti, he wards off the crows from the rice.
(vii) With verbs meaning to hide, conceal, "the person from whom one wishes to hide is in the Abl: upajjhāya antaradhāyati sisso, the pupil hides himself from his preceptor.

## Remark.

In such expressions, the Gen. may also be used: antaradhāyissāmi samaṇassa gotamasssa, I will hide myself from the samana Gotama.
(viii) When the verb "antaradhāyati" means, to vanish, to disappear, the place from which one vanishes is put in the Locative: jetavane antaradhāyitvā, having disappeared from the Jetavana Monastery.
(ix) But when "natural phenomena" are referred to, the Nom. is used: andhakāro antaradhāyati, darkness disappears.
(x) Verbs meaning "to abstain, to avoid, to release, to fear, to abhor", also govern the Abl.: pāpadhammmato viramati, he refrains from sin; so parimuccati jātiyā he is released from existence: corehi bhāyāmi, I am afraid of thieves.
(xi) The Abl. also shows "motive, cause, reason" and can be translated by for, on account of, by reason of, through , etc.: vācāya marati, he died on account of his speech: sillato nay pasaysanti, they praise him for his virtue.

## Remark.

In these examples, the Inst. may be used as well: sīlena pasaysanti.
(xii) It is used with words showing proximity, gāmā samīpay, near the village

## Remark.

in these examples, the Gen. may also be used.
(xiii) Verbs meaning "to be born, to originate from" etc. govern the Abl.: corā jāyati bhayay, from a thief fear arises.
(xiv) The following indeclinables govern the Abl.: araka, far from, afar, ārakā tehi bhagavā, far from them is the Blessed One; upari, above, over: upari pabbatā, over the mountain; So: pati, against, instead, in return; rite, except, without; aññatra, vinā, without, except; nānā, different, away from; puthu and, before a vowel, puthag, separately, without, except; ā, till, as far as; yava, till, as far as; saha, with; buddhasmā pati sāriputto, Sariputta takes the place of the Buddha; rite saddhamma, without the true Doctrine, etc.
( Xv ) It should be noted that the Abl. is very frequently used, instead of the Inst., Accus., the Gen. and the Loc., e.g. vināsaddhammā, or vinā saddhammay or vinā saddhammena.
§601.
7. THE LOCATIVE.
(i) The Locative shows the place in or on which a thing or person is, or an action performed; it is therefore expressed in English by "in, on, upon, at." kate nisīdati puriso, the man is sitting on the mat; thaliyay odanay pacati; he cooks the food in a cooking-pot.
(ii) The Loc. shows the "cause, reason, or motive" of an action: dīpīcammesu haññante, the panther is killed for its skin; kuñjaro dantesu haññate, the elephant is killed for his tusks.
(iii) It denotes time when an action takes place; sāyaṇhasamaye āgato, he came in the evening.
(iv) When the pre-eminence of an individual (thing or person) over the whole class to which he belongs is implied, as well as with adjectives in the superlative degree, the noun with respect to which such pre-eminence or such superlative degree of excellence is shown is put in the Loc. or in the Gen.: manussesu khattiyo sūratamo, the kṣatriya is the most valiant of men; manussānay khattiyo sūratamo; kaṇhā gāvisu sampannakhīratamā, of cows, the black one abounds most in milk, or, kaṇhā gāvinay sampannakhīratamā.
(v) The following words govern the Loc. and the Gen. as well: sāmī, an owner, master; issaro, king, lord; adhipati, chief, lord; dāyādo, an heir; patibhū, substitute, surety; pasūto, offspring, child; kusalo, clever, expert; gonesu sāmī, an owner of oxen, or gonānay sāmī, etc.
(vi) Words signifying "to be happy, contented, eager", govern the Loc., as well as the Inst.:
ñāṇasmiy ussuko, eager for wisdom, or ñāṇena ussako; ñāṇasmiy pasīdito, contented with wisdom, ñāṇena pasīdito.
(vii) Words signifying "reverence, respect, love, delighting in, saluting, taking, seizing, striking, kissing, fond of, adoring," govern the Loc.: pāpasmiy ramati mano, the mind delights in evil; bhikkhūsu abhivādenti, they salute the monks; pāde gahetvā papāte khipati, took him by the feet and threw him in the precipice; purisay sīse paharati, struck the man on the head.
(viii) The Loc. is used sometimes to show that one does not take any account of something or person: rudantasmin dārake pabbaji, he left the world in spite of his son weeping. The Genitive also may be used: rudantassa ārakassa pabbaji (See: Locative and Genitive Absolute).
(ix) The Loc. is employed to denote superiority or inferiority, with the words "upa" and "adhi" respectively. upa khāriyay doṇo, a doṇa is inferior to a khāri; adhi brahmadatte pañcalā, the Pancalas are under Brahmadatta's supremacy; adhi devesu buddho, the Buddha is above the gods.
(x) It is used to denote "proximity": nadiyay sassay, corn near the river; tassa paṇnasālāya hatthimaggo hoti, near his leaf hut there is an elephant-track.
(xi) The Loc. is used absolutely with a participle in the same case as itself (see, Absolute Construction).
(xii) In lexicons, the Loc. is used to signify "in the sense of"; ru sadde, (the root) ru, is used in the sense of "making noise." [This example is apparently quoted from the Mahārūpasiddhi --E.M.]
(xiii) Words denoting "fitness, suitability" govern the Loc.: tayi na yuttay, not fit for thee; the Gen. is used in the same sense: tava na yuttan.
(xiv) The Loc. is extensively used instead of other Cases, and the student must be prepared to meet the Loc. where very often he would expect to find some other case. Let him note that in almost all instances, the Case for which the Loc. stands may be and is, used:
(xv) The Loc. in used for the Gen, (see, above, v).
(xvi) It is used for the Inst.: pattesu piṇdāya carānti, they go about with bowls for their food.
(xvii) It is also used instead of the Dat.: sanghe dinnay mahapphalay, offering to the Clergy are very meritorious.
(xviii) The Loc. is used for the Ablative: kadalīdesu gaje rakkhanti, they keep off the elephants from the plantain-trees.
(xix) The Loc. is frequently used adverbially; atīte, formerly.
§602.
8. THE VOCATIVES.

The Vocative Case does not require any explanations: it is used exactly as in English.
§603.
9. THE GENITIVE AND LOCATIVE ABSOLUTE.
(i) When a noun or a pronoun in the Locative or Genitive is used with a participle in the same case as itself, the construction is called, Locative Absolute and Genitive Absolute respectively. The Locative Absolute construction is met with much more often than the Genitive absolute. There is also found, now and then, a Nominative Absolute construction, but far less common than the other two.
(ii) The Locative, Genitive and (sometimes) the Nominative Absolute, may often be translated by "when, while, since" and sometimes by "although":
tesu vivadantesu bodhisatto cintesi, while they were disputing, the Future Buddha thought;
suriye atthangate, when the sun had set, after sunset;
gavisu duyhamānāsu gato, he went when the cows were being milked; asaniyā pi sīse patantiyā, although the thunderbolt was falling on their head.
(iii) sati, the Locative singular of santo, Pres. part of the verb atthi, to be, besides having the above meanings may also often be translated by "if, such being the case":
atthe sati, if there be need;
evan sati, such being the case;
payoge sati, when there is occasion.
With Feminine words, sati is also used, although it should be, satiyā (Fem.): pucchāya sati, if the question be asked; ruciyā sati, had he the desire, if he had the wish.
(iv) The Genitive Absolute is not quite so frequently used as the Loc. Absolute although found often enough:
sākuṇakassa gumbato jālay mocentass'eva, even while the fowler was disengaging the net from the bush;
tesaŋkilantānaŋ yeva suriyatthanigatavelā jātā, while even they were sporting, it became dusk.
(v) There is also mentioned a so-called Nominative Absolute:
gacchanto bhāradvājo so, addasā ajjhutay isiy, Bharadvaja having gone he... etc.,
yāymāno mahārājā, addāsī tantarena ge, as the king was going, he.... etc.

## Remark

The Gen. Absolute is frequently used to show "disregard, contempt", it can then be translated by "in spite of, notwithstanding". For example see above (601, viii).
§604.
(v) SYNTAX OF THE ADJECTIVE.
(i) As has already been said, whenever an adjective is not in composition with another word, it must agree with the word it qualifies in number, gender and case.
(ii) Adjectives in the comparative degree require an Ablative: sīlay eva sutā seyyo, virtue is better than learning.
(iii) Comparison is also expressed by an Abl. followed by an adjective in the positive degree: mādhurā pātaliputtakehi abhirupā, the people of Madhura are more handsome than those of Pātaliputta.
(iv) It is also expressed by the indeclinable varay, better, with an Abl.: tato varay; better than that.
(v) When "the better of two" is to be expressed, a Gen. is used with the positive degree: tumhakay dvinnay ko bhaddako of you two who is the better?
(vi) Superlative adjectives are used with the Gen. or the Loc, for examples see above (601, section iv).
§605. (1.) Personal Pronouns
(i) The personal pronouns are used much in the same way as in English, and do not call for particular remarks, except, perhaps, the enclitic forms of ahay and tvay; (289-b, c; 290, c).
(ii) The enclitic forms of ahay: me and no, and those of tvay: te and vo, are never used at the beginning of a sentence nor immediately before the particles ca, tā and eva:
detu me, let him give to me; tava vā me hotu, be it thine or mine;
kammay no niț̣hitay, our task is finished;
ko te doso, what is thy fault?
kahay vo rājā, where is your king?
(iii) With verbs, the personal pronouns are frequently understood, as the endings of the tenses clearly indicate also the person as: gacchati (he) goes = so gacchati; gaccheyyāmi, (i) should go = ahay gaccheyyāmi etc.
(iv) The personal pronoun so, sā, $\tan$ is also used as a demonstrative and as an article. See Concord (589). Therefore, so puriso may mean according to the context: the man, or, that man.
(v) Tasmā (abl), is used adverbially in the sense of "therefore accordingly, thereby": with the same meanings it is also followed by hi and ti ha ( = iti ha):
tasmā hi paññā ca dhanena seyyo, and therefore is wisdom better than riches; tasmā ti ha bhikkhave, accordingly, O monks!
(vi) The Inst. tena is used with the same meanings as tasmā: tena $\tan$ madhuray, therefore, on that account, it is sweet.
Tena followed by hi means "well! very well! all right! well then!": tena hi khādāpessāmi nan ti, very well, then, I'll make you devour him.
(vii) Nay and enay $(295,300)$, are used when something or someone already mentioned is referred to. See (296).
§606. (2.) Demonstrative Pronouns.
(i) eso, esā, etay (298), refer to what is near, and mean "this": esā itthī, this woman;
nirupakāro esā, this (fellow) is useless.
The same remarks apply to ayan and asu, this.
esa is often used for eso, sa for so.
(ii) The neuter etad ( = etay, 302), is used with the verb hoti and the Gen. of the person, and the expression is then equivalent to "to think":
tassa etad ahosi, he thought...(lit = of his this was).
§607. (3.) The Relative.
(i) We have already explained the Relative (592); only a few of its most important peculiar uses need be mentioned here:
(ii) Yo (311) is used with the Indefinite koci (319): yo koci, whoever, anyone; yay kiñci, whatsoever, anything. See (314-a, b).
(iii) The Neut. Sing. yay is frequently used adverbially in the sense of "as; that, because, since, seeing that, If, when "tay bahuy yay pi jīvasi, it is much that thou livest.
(iv) The Inst. yena is used as an adverb, meaning "whereby, by which, for which, because": yena nay gaṇhissāmi, by which I shall catch him.
(v) When motion to a definite place is expressed, yena, where, is used with tena, there: yena bhagavā, ten'upasankati, he went to Buddha (lit. where was Buddha there he approached).
(vi) Yasmā (Abl.), is used in the sense of "because" and is then generally followed by tasmā, therefore; yasmā tvan na jānāsi tasmā bālo'sī ti, because thou doth not understand, therefore art thou a fool.
§608. (4.) The Interrogative.
(i) The interrogative pronoun ko (316), may be used by itself or with a noun or pronoun:
ko pana tvay, who art thou?
ke ete, who are these?
kā dārikā, which girl?
(ii) kena (Inst.) used with attho and the Dat. of the person, forms such expressions as "what do you want?" etc,:
kena te attho, what are you in need of?
(iii) kena (Inst.) kasmā (Abl.) and kissa (Gen.) are used adverbially with the meaning of "why? wherefore?"
(iv) kiy is much used with the Inst. to express "what is the use of?"
kiy me jīvitena, what is the use to me of life?
§609. (5.) The indefinite.
The indefinite pronoun (319), does not present any peculiarity: mā idha koci pāvisi, let nobody enter here; kiñci bhayay, any danger.

## (vii) REPETITION.

§610. To express "plurality, totality, distribution, variety, multiplicity," etc., words are

## sometimes repeated

tesu tesu ṭhānesu in various places;
$\operatorname{tay} \tan$ kathaya mānā, saying this and this.
yo, thus repeated means "whoever, whatever, whichever":
yay yay gāman, whatever village;
itarā ten'eva niyāmena yā yā. kiñci katheti tassa tassa upari kacavaray chaḍḍesi, and in this way the other (woman) threw the refuse on whomsoever said anything;
so dițṭhadițṭhamanusse jīvitakkhayay pāpeti, he kills all whom he sees; gatagataṭthāne, in every place;
yena kena, by whatever ...;
ubbahīyati so so, every one is put to flight.

## (vii) SYNTAX OF VERBS.

## §611.

(i) The Concord of the verb with its subject has already been noticed ( $590,1 \mathrm{st}$ ).
(ii) The Present Tense denotes an action taking place now, a fact existing at the present time:
so bhāyati, he is afraid;
sā pacati, she cooks.
(iii) The present tense often expresses the continuance of an action and is equivalent to the present progressive: sā gabbhe nisīdati, she is sitting in her private room.
(iv) Habit, custom and general truths are expressed by the present tense:
sabbe maranti, all (men) die;
bhikkhu sīlay ācarati: a monk practises virtue.
(v) The present is sometimes used with a future signification: kiy karomi, what shall I do?
(vi) The present is extremely frequent in narrations when recounting past events as if they were actually happening, this is called the Historical Present:
so pañcamānavakasatāni sippay uggaṇhāpeti, he taught five hundred young men (lit. he teaches).
(vii) When no interrogative particle is used, interrogation is sometimes expressed by placing the present tense at the beginning of the sentence: socasi tvay upāsaka, grievest thou, O layman?

Remark.
Other tenses may also be used in the same way to mark interrogation.

## THE PAST TENSE.

§612. Perfect, Imperfect and Aorist.
(i) The Perfect and the Imperfect tenses present no difficulty, they are as a rule used in the sense of a general past, and they do not require any notice. Let it be borne in mind, however, that the Perfect is but seldom used; that the Imperfect, though more frequent than the Perfect, does seldom differ from it in meaning and last, that the Aorist has generally displaced these two tenses and superseded them.
(ii) The Aorist is the principal past tense in Pāli and is therefore extensively used; it expresses indefinite past time, but also includes the Present day. The Aorist may be translated by the Present Perfect or the Past Indefinite (See 405):
catuppādū pi ekay sīhay rājānay akaysu, the quadrupeds made a lion king;
mukhe pahari, struck him on the mouth;
kena kāraṇena rodi, why did you cry?
brāhmano eḷakena saddhiy vicari, the brahmin walked about with the goat.
(iii) The indeclinable mā is used with the Aorist to express prohibition:
eḷaka, mā bhāyi, o! goat, fear not!
mā puna evarūpay akāsi, do not do so again;
tāta, mā gami, dear son, do not go.

## THE FUTURE TENSE

## §613. (i) The Future expresses simple futurity:

ahay gacchissāmi, I shall go; te marissanti, they will die.
(ii) The future is also used as a mild form of the Imperative, when courteously giving a command:
tvay tassa bandhanay dantehi khādissasi, cut his bonds with thy teeth.
(iii) The future is used to express simple condition, with the particles ce, sace and yadi: yadi tvay yāguy pacissasi ahay pivissāmi, if thou wilt cook the gruel, I shall drink it;
so tañ ce labhissati, tena saddhin gaccha, if he gets it, go with him.
(iv) bhavissati, the 3rd. pers. sing. of bhavati, to be, is often used in the sense of "it must be that....":
corā pathamay ñeva bherisadday sutvā issarabheri bhavissatī ti palāyitvā, the theives on first hearing the beating of the drum, (said) "It must be the drum of an official" and fled;
ayay me putto bhavissati, he must be my son.
(v) bhavissati preceded by the negative particle na may be translated by "it cannot be": nāyay issarabheri bhavissati. This cannot be an official's drum.
(vi) jānissāmi, the 3rd. pers sing of jānāti, to know, is often used idiomatically in the sense of "I'll see":
hotu, pacchā jānissāmi, let it be, I'll see (to it) afterwards.

THE OPTATIVE.
§614 (i) The Optative expresses "probability, capability, fitness, assent or permission, command, wish, condition" and is also used in laying down rules and precepts.
(ii) Fitness:
tvay tattha gaccheyyāsi, you should go there. [Examples follow:]
(iii) Wish:
ahay imay tumhākay bhājetvā dadeyyay, I would divide and give it to you, but...
(iv) Command:
tvan pana ito pațṭāya ovādānusāsaniyay dadeyyāsi, but thou hence forward, give us instructions and admonitions; udarena nipajjeyyāsi, lie on thy belly.
(v) Probability:
api ca nāma gaccheyyāmi, I may go.
(vi) When expressing condition, it is usually preceded by ce, sace or yadi, if: sāmi, sace imāya velāya tava sapattay passeyyāsi kin ti tay kareyyāsi? Lord, if, at this time thou should see thy enemy, what would thou do to him?
(vii) To express supposition, the word yathā is sometimes used with the Optative: yathā mahārāja kocideva puriso padīpay padīpeyya, were, maharaja, a man to light a lamp...
(viii) Assent:
tvay idāni gaccheyyāsi, thou may now go.

## THE CONDITIONAL.

§615. The Conditional expresses an action unable to be performed on account of some impediment in the way of its execution:
so ce tay yānay alabhissa agacchissā, he would go if he could get that vehicle; bho satthavāsino, sace esa rukkhamūle cankamanatāpaso ajja nābhavissā, sabbe mahāvilopay patta abhavissatha, 0 ! merchants, had not today this ascetic been walking to and fro at the foot of this tree you should all have been completely pillaged.

## THE IMPERATIVE.

§616. (i) The Imperative is used in giving commands:
tena hi, gaccha, very well, go!
(ii) It expresses entreaty:
bhante bhagavā apposukko viharatu, Lord, let the Blessed One now live free from cares.
(iii) Benedictions, blessings:
vassasataŋ, jīva, may you live a hundred years!
(iv) With mā prefixed, the Imperative 2nd person expresses simple prohibition (see Aorist 612, iii):
mā evay karotha, do not do so!
(v) The Imperative 3rd person sing. of bhavati, to be, is often used idiomatically, with the meaning of "very well":
hotu, ahay janissāmi, very well I'll see (to it).

## THE INFINITIVE

§617. (i) The Infinitive shows "purpose, motive intention". It is used actively as well as passively.
ūyyānapālo chaḍḍetuy upāyay na passati, the gardener saw no means of throwing (them) away;
tay gantuy, na dassāmi, I will not let him go.
(ii) The Infinitive is used with verbs meaning "to wish to try or strive, to begin, to be able": sā rodituy, ārabhi, she began to cry;
na koci mayā saddhin sallapituy sakkoti, no one can converse with me sā pavisituy na icchati, she did not wish to enter;
so tay ukkhipituy ussahati, he endeavoured to lift it.
(iii) The verb dadāti to give, after an Inf. means "to let, to allow" and the verb labhati, to obtain, means"to be allowed":
tay paharituy na dassāmi, I will not allow him to be struck;
gehabahi nikkhamituy alabhanto, not being allowed to go out of the house.
(iv) Verbs like vaṭtati, to behove, to be fit, proper, and adjectives like yutto, having the same meaning, are much used with the Inf.; in the case of vattati, the Instrumentive is used of the person who ought to do the act:
ettha dāni mayā vasituy vattati, it now behoves me to live
it is used also impersonally:
tay harituy vatṭati, the best is to kill him, it is proper, fit, to kill him. evaŋ kathetun na yutṭay, it is not proper to speak thus.
(v) The indeclinable labbha, possible, allowable and sakkā, possible, able, are used wih the Inf.: sakkā is used much in the same way as vatteati, that is, actively or passively, and often with the Inst. of the person; the verb hoti frequently follows sakkā:
sakkā hoti methunaŋ dhammay pațisevituy, it is possible to practise fornication etasmin thāne na sakkā vasituy, it is impossible to live in this place;
day na labbhhā evaŋ katuy, it is not possible to do it in this way.
(vi) When kāmo, willing, desirous, is compounded with an Inf., final $\eta$ of the Inf. is dropped:
devatāya balikammaŋ kāretukāmo, wishing to make an offering to the god.

## THE GERUND

§618. (i) The Gerund always denotes an action completed before another; it may be translated by the word "having" followed by a past participle as: gantvā, having gone;
or by the past tense followed by the conjunction "and" : gantvā, he went and...
The gerund, therefore, being very extensively used, is the most common connective in Pāli, and practically does away with the Pāli conjunction equivalent to the English "and" connecting two sentences.
so tay ukkhipitvā gharay netvā catudhā vibhajitvā dānādīni puññāni katvā yathākammay gato, He lifted it up, took it home, divided into four parts and, practising alms-giving and other good deeds, went according to his deeds.
(ii) The word va ( = eva) following a gerund, may be translated by "as soon as": tay vacanay sutvā va, as soon as he heard these words...; so vāndro attano puttay disvā va, the monkey, as soon as he saw his offspring...
(iii) The particle "api" coming after a gerund, may be translated by "although": akataññū puggalo cakkavattirajjay datvā pi tosetuy na sakkā, an ungrateful man cannot be satisfied although he be given universal sovereignty.
(iv) Before a gerund, a may be translated by "without": papañcaŋ akatvā, without making delays, without any delay; ekay pi akilametvā, without harming even one person.
(v) Some gerunds are used prepositionally; the principal of them are patthāya since, beginning from, from, after; sandhāya, with reference to, concerning; ārabbha concerning, with reference to; sañcicca intentionally; asallakkhetvā, inadvertently, unawares; nissāya, upanissāya, on account of, through, near; ādāya, with; paticca by, through, on account of; thapetvā, except, excepting.
(vi) The Gerund may sometimes be translated by the present participle: idha āgantvā ahay coray passiy, coming here I saw the thief
(vii) The Gerund may have a passive signification: corajetthakena gahetvā, having been seized by the robber chief.

## THE PARTICIPLES.

§619. The Present Participle.
(i) The Present Participle may generally be translated by "while, whilst," which sense is
inherent in it; this participle always expresses contemporaneity of action: attano gāmay gacchanto corāṭaviy patvā, while going to his village he came upon a forest inhabited by thieves;
tattha gantvā mātaray patijagganto vāsan kappesi, he went and, taking care of his mother, took up his abode there.
(ii) It must be remembered that participles are of the nature of adjectives (439) and must agree with the word they qualify in the same way as adjectives:
avīcinirayaŋ gacchantā sattā..., persons going to the Avici Hell;
āgacchantay tay disvā pi, although he saw him coming.
(iii) The present participle is sometimes used substantively, and may be translated by "he who" (does the action expressed by the verb):
iday pana paralokay gacchantassa patheyyay bhavissati, but this will be provisions for him who goes to the other world;
paralokay gacchanto ekay kahāpaṇay pi gahetvā na gacchati, he who goes to the other world does not take even one cent with him.
(iv) The present participle may also sometimes be translated by a conditional clause: taŋ labhanto jīvissami alabhanto idh' eva marissāmi, if I obtain her I shall live, if not, in this very spot shall I die;
addhamāse sahassaŋ labhanto upaṭṭhahissāmi deva, if I get a thousand every fortnight, I'll serve thee, Lord;
evaŋ karonto lacchasi akaronto na lacchasi, if you do so you'll get it, if not, you will not get it.
(v) The particle pi ( = api) following a pres. part. may be rendered by "although": pitarā vāriyamāno pi, although prevented by his father;
$\operatorname{tay}$ apassanto pi; although not seeing him.
§620. The Past Participles.
(i) There are two past participles, the Perfect Active $(231,465)$ and the Passive Perfect (450).
(ii) The perfect active participle presents no difficulty whatever: so sīhaŋ ādinnavā, he having captured the lion; bhattay bhuttāvī, having taken his meal.
(iii) The passive perfect participle is very often used as a predicate instead of a finite verb (See Concord of Subject and Predicate 590); it can then be translated by a past tense.
(iv) The P.P.P. of roots implying motion, and of transitive roots, takes an accusative; sakanivāsay eva gato, he went to his own place.
(v) When the P.P.P. is thus used predicatively, the verb "hoti," to be, is generally understood after it.
(vi) The agent of a P.P.P. is as a rule put in the Instrumentive case: tayā pañhay putṭhaŋ, by her the question was asked, she asked the question; sāsanaŋ mayā likkhitaŋ, a letter has been written by me, I have etc.
(vii) Not seldom the P.P.P. may be translated by a pres. participle: tato uppatito vijjullata viya vijjotamāno paratīre atṭhāsi, springing from there, he reached the other shore as a lightning flash.
§621. The Future Participle.
(i) The future Participle (449) denotes that the agent is about to perform the action or undergo the state expressed by the root:
ratțhā ratṭhay vicarissan, I am going ( = I am about to go) from kingdom to kingdom;
tay ganthay racissay ahay; I am about to compose that book.
(ii) It also shows purpose, intention, as may be seen by the 2nd example in (i) above.
(iii) It shows simple futurity:
nāhay puna upessay gabbhaseyyan, I shall not be reborn again.
§622. The Future Passive Participle
(i) The Future Passive Participle conveys the idea of "fitness, necessity, obligation;" it denotes that what is expressed by the root is to be, or ought to be, or is fit to be or must be done or undergone:
mayā kattabbay kammay nițthitay the work which was to be done by me is finished;
sace so deso uklāpo hoti so deso sammajjitabbo, if the place be dirty it ought to be swept;
na navā bhikkhū āsanena pațibāhetabbā, young monks should not be ousted from their seat.
(ii) From the above examples, it will be seen that the F.P.P. must agree with the subject in gender, case and number.
(iii) It is much used impersonally:
kinnu kattabbay, what is to be done?
ettha ca imāni suttāni dassetabbāni, and in this connection these passages (from the Scriptures) should be pointed out; iminā nayena veditabbo, it must be understood in this way.
(iv) It will be, from the above examples, remarked, that the agent is put in the Instrumentive.
(v) bhavitabbay, used with the Inst. of the thing or person, is frequently used in the sense of "it must be that, one should or ought to": majjhatten'eva bhavitabbay, one should be indifferent to ...; visayojitāya etāya bhavitabbay, this must have been mixed with poison.

## §623. SYNTAX OF INDECLINABLES.

(i) The following are used correlatively:

| yathā, as... | tathā, so; |
| :--- | :--- |
| yavā, so long... | tavā, that long, as long as |
| yadā, when... | tadā, then; |
| yattha, where... | tattha, there |

yattha, where...
tattha, there
(ii) [Pāli indeclinables used in correlative pairs:]

| ca...ca... | both...and | so ca ahañ ca | both he and I. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| $v \bar{a} . . . v \bar{a} . .$. | whether...or | bhāsati vā karoti $v \bar{a}$ | whether he speaks or <br> acts. |
| pi...pi... | both...and | siñcati pi siñcāpetipi | both sprinkles and <br> causes to sprinkle. |

(iii) [The paired usage of] ca... ca... and $v \bar{a} . . . v \bar{a} . . .$, , when in a negative sentence, are equivalent to: neither... nor.
(iv) ca and vā used singly, never come at the beginning of a sentence.
(v) eva, and, before a vowel yeva is used to emphasize the idea expressed by a word, and may be translated by "very, just, quite, exactly, as soon as":
idāni eva, just now;
attano yeva, one's very own.
Yeva, coming after a verb, is not always easy to translate into English, but in the majority of cases, it may be rendered by "on, to go on, continue," etc.: kathenti yeva, they went on talking.
(vi) yadi if, is used in conditional sentences with the Present, the Future, the Optative and the Conditional:
yadi evay, yajj' evan, if so, in that case;
vā...yadi vā..., whether...or;
gāme vā yadi v'āraññe, whether in the village or in the forest.
Remark.
The syntax of the most important indeclinables has been given in "Syntax of Substantives."
§624. Direct and Indirect Narration
(i) The oblique construction in Pāli is expressed by placing the particle iti, so, thus, after the words in the direct construction as they would stand in English, that is, at the end of the words quoted:
kahay so etarahi ti pucchi, he asked, "Where is he now?"
(ii) iti is generally abbreviated to: ti, and the last vowel of the quotation, if short, is lengthened before it:
sādhū ti, he said " very well!"
(iii) Verbs of "saying, telling, asking, naming, knowing, thinking," are generally used with iti; those verbs may be:
(1) Placed after the particle iti: te "sādhū" ti vatvā, they said "Very well."
(2) Before the words quoted: so pucchi "kiy jānāsi tvan" ti, he asked "What do
you know?"
(3) The verb is frequently omitted altogether: māressāmi nan" ti, (he thought, or said) " I'll kill him!"
(4) When iti or ti, is followed by a vowel, sandhi takes place regularly: iti + evay = iccevan; kvaci + iti = kvacīti.
(5) Often, iti has the sense of "because, with the intention of "showing "cause, motive, intention, purpose:" "jīvituy asakkontā" ti because (we) are unable to make a living; "makasay paharissāmi" ti pitu matthakay dvidhā bhindi, intending to kill the mosquito he broke his father's head in two.
§625. Interrogation and Negation.
(i) The negative particle is na:
imasmin sare sudakay n'atthi, there is no water in this lake;
na aññāsi, did not thou know?
seṭthinā saddhiy kathetuy na sakkomi, I am unable to speak with the banker.
(ii) With an Optative, na is used in prohibition:
na hatthisālay gaccheyya, let him not go to the elephant-shed.
(iii) na may form the first part of a compound:
nāgamanay ( = na + āgamanam), non-arrival;
na bhikkhu, a non-monk, a layman.
(iv) Two negatives make an affirmative:
bherin na na vādeyyā, not that he may not beat the drum (he may therefore beat it).
(v) no, is also used in negation in the same way as na: no janāti, he does not know.
(vi) no, followed by na, expresses a strong affirmative: no na dhameyya, he should surely blow (the conch); no nappahoti, he is most certainly able.
(vii) Interrogation is expressed by using interrogative adverbs or pronouns as: kasmā, why? wherefore?
kissa, kena, why?
ko, who? etc.
(viii) [Interrogation is] also [expressed] by means of interrogative particles [such as the following]:
(ix) api, when used in interrogation, is always placed first in the sentence: ap'avuso, amhākam satthāray jānāsi, do you, Sir, know our Teacher?
(x) followed by nu kho, it expresses a very emphatic interrogation:
api nu kho koci upaddavo hoti, well, have you any cause of distress?
(xi) nu, I wonder! Pray? nu, is often followed by kho:
kīdiso nu kho paraloko, I wonder what the next world is like? corā nu atthi, are there thieves?
(xii) Preceded by na, it expresses emphatic interrogation: na nu'hay yodho, am I not a warrior?
(xiii) Interrogation is also expressed by placing the verb first in the sentence: socasi upāsaka, grievest thou layman?
(xiv) Sometimes the mere tone of voice is sufficient to express interrogation: supan labhi, did thou get broth?

## INTERJECTIONS.

(i) The principal interjections are: hā, alas! ah! handa, come! anga, indeed! oh! bho, friend! Sir! I say! amā, yes! truly! indeed!
hare, sirrah!
aho, alas! oh! (538).
(ii) bhaṇe, first pers. sing. reflective of bhanati, to say, is used as an interjection with the meaning of "to be sure! I say there!"
(iii) maññe, 1st. pers. sing. reflective of maññati, to think, is also used as an interjection in the sense of "methinks! I dare say! I suppose!"

CHAPTER XV.
PROSODY.
§626. Prosody is that part of Grammar which treats of the laws of versification.

- A gāthā in Pāli poetry, is a stanza.
- A pāda is the fourth part of a stanza, called also a quarter verse.
- A vanṇa is a syllable in a pāda.
- A short syllable is termed lahu.
- A long syllable is called garu.
- A foot is termed gana.
§627. The mark ` represents a short syallable, and the mark \({ }^{`}\) a long syllable. A foot containing two long syllables is termed $g \bar{a}$, that is, $g a+g a$, the initial syllable $g a$ of the word garu being used to represent a long syllable. A foot of two short syllables is termed $l \bar{a}$, that is $l a+l a$, the initial syllable of the word lahu being employed to represent a short syllable.
§628. The following are the four varieties of a disyllabic foot.

| Syllables | Pāli | English. |
| :--- | :--- | :--- |
| -- | la la or lā | Pyrrhic. |
| -- | ga ga or gā | Spondee. |
| -- | la ga | Lambus. |
|  | ga la | Trochee. |

§629. The eight-syllable feet, known in Pāli as the attethagaṇa are as follows:

| Syllables | Pali | English. |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  | ma. | Molossus. |
|  | na. | Tribach. |
|  | bhā. | Dactyl. |
|  | ya. | Bacchic. |
|  | ja. | Amphibrach. |
|  | sa. | Anapaest. |
|  | ra. | Cretic. |
|  | ta. | Antibacchic. |

## SHORT AND LONG SYLLABLES.

§630. The short vowels in Pāli are $a, i, u$, the long vowels are $\bar{a}, \bar{l}, \bar{u}, e, o$. When $a, i$ or $u$ is followed by a double consonant, it is prosodically long. For instance, the first as well as the second $a$ in cakkañca, is long because followed by $k k$ and $\tilde{n} c$ respectively. Before niggahīta $(\eta)$ a short vowel is also always prosodically long. Thus in saccay, the a before $\eta$ is long. In poetry, a naturally short vowel is occasionally lengthened and a naturally long one shortened to meet the exigencies of the metre. In order to make a short vowel long, the consonant following it is sometimes doubled.

VARIETIES OF METERS.
§631. There are three classes of metres, termed sama, addhasama, and visama. When the syllables in all the pādas are exactly alike the metre is called sama; when those in the first and third and those in the second and fourth pādas are alike it is addhasama; and when all the pādas or verses are different, the metre is termed visama.
§1. THE SAMA CLASS.
§632. In gāthas of this class, the syllables in each pāda may range from six up to twentytwo. The names of the seventeen kinds of metres are as follows:

| gāyatti | 6 syllables | atisakkarī | 15 syllables |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| uṇhi | 7 syllables | atṭhi | 16 syllables |
| anuțthubhay | 8 syllables | atyatṭhi | 17 syllables |
| brahati | 9 syllables | dhuti | 18 syllables |
| panti | 10 syllables | atidhuti | 19 syllables |
| tuțthubhan | 11 syllables | kati | 20 syllables |
| jagati | 12 syllables | pakati | 21 syllables |
| atijagati | 13 syllables | akati | 22 syllables |
| sakkari | 14 syllables |  |  |

§633. These are again subdivided according to the kind of feet employed in each stanza; as the four pādas are similar, the scheme of only one pāda is given for each kind of metre:
§1. gāyatti, having pādas of six syllables. There is one variety:

$$
\text { tanumajjh } \bar{a} \quad--\cup \mid \smile-
$$

§2. unhi having pādas of seven syllables. There is one variety: kumāralatitā
§3．anutṭhubhay having pādas of eight syllables．There are five varieties．

| （i）citrapadā | －し | $\checkmark$ | － |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| （ii）vijjummala | －－－ | －－－ | －－ |
| （iii）māṇavakay | －し | －－し | $\checkmark-$ |
| （iv）sāmaṇika | －ᄂ－ | －－ | － |
| （v）pāmaṇikā |  | －ᄂ－ | －－ |

§4．brahati having pādas of nine syllables．There are two varieties．

| （i）halamukhī | $-\cup-$ | $\smile u-$ | $\smile--$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| （ii）bhujagasusu | $\smile \smile$ | $\smile \smile$ | --- |

§5．panti having pādas of ten syllables．There are seven varieties．

§6．tutṭhubhay having pādas of eleven syllables．There are eleven varieties．

| （i）upatțhit $\bar{a}$ |  | $\smile$－u | $\checkmark$－ | －－ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| （ii）indavajirā | $\checkmark$ | － | $\checkmark$－ | －－ |
| （iii）upavajirā | $\checkmark-\checkmark$ | － | －－〕 | －－ |
| （iv）sumukkhī | 乞－－ | $\checkmark-\checkmark$ | $\checkmark-\checkmark$ | $\checkmark-$ |
| （v）dodhakay | －し | －ఒ | $\smile$ 〕 | －－ |
| （vi）sālinī | －－－ | － | － | －－ |
| （vii）vātummiss $\bar{a}$ | －－－ | －ᄂ | － | －－ |
| （viii）surasasirī | －〕 | －－ | $\smile$ し | －－ |
| （ix）rathoddhatā | －ᄂ－ | し | －－－ | $\checkmark-$ |
| （X）svāgata | －－－ | し し | し | －－ |
| （xi）bhaddikā | $\smile$ し | し し | － | $\checkmark$ |

## Remarks．

§1．When the quarter－verses of indavajirā and upavajirā are mixed together in a stanza in any order，the stanza is them called upajāti．
§2．There are pauses after the fourth and seventh syllables［in some（？）tutṭhubhay verses］．
§7．jagati having pādas of twelve syllables．There are fourteen varieties．


Remark．
［The first five varieties have］pauses after the fourth and twelfth syllables． ［Varieties six through twelve have］pauses after the fifth and twelfth syllables．
§8．atijagati having pādas of thirteen syllables．There are two varieties．
（i）pahāsinī
（ii）rucirā


## Remark.

[Pahāsinī has] pauses after the third and thirteenth syllables. [Rucirā has] pauses after the fourth and thirteenth syllables.
§9. sakkarī having pādas of fourteen syllables. There are three varieties.
(i) aparājitā

| (ii) paharanakalik $\bar{a}$ | $\smile$ | $\ddots$ | $-u$ | $\ddots$ | $\ddots$ |
| :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- | :--- |
| (iii) vasantatilak $\bar{a}$ | -- | $-u$ | $\ddots-u$ | $\ddots-$ | $-\ldots$ |

Remark.
[Aparājitā has] pauses after the seventh and fourteenth syllables. [Paharanakalikā has] pauses after the seventh and fourteenth syllables.
§10. atisakkarī [with] fifteen syllables. There are four varieties.

[The first two varieties have] pauses after the eighth and fifteenth syllables. [Malinī has] a pause after the eighth syllable.
§11. attethi having pādas of sixteen syllables. There is one variety.

§12. atyatṭhi having pādas of seventeen syllables. There are three varieties.


## Remark

[Vānini has] pauses after the sixth and seventeenth syllables.
[The second and third varieties have] pauses after the fourth, tenth and seventeenth syllables.
§13. dhuti having pādas of eighteen syllables. There is one variety.

§14. atidhuti having pādas of nineteen syllables. There are two varieties.
(i) meghavipphujjitā
(ii) saddūlavikkīt̄̄


Remarks.
[Meghavipphujiitā has] pauses after the sixth and thirteenth, and nineteenth syllables. [Saddūlavikkitī has] pauses after the twelfth and nineteenth syllables.
§15. kati having pādas of twenty syllables. There is one variety.
(i) vita

§16. pakati having pādas of twenty-one syllables. There is one variety.
(i) saddharā
-- -

$\cdots \cdots-1$
§17. akati having pādas of twenty-two syllables. There is one variety.
(i) bhaddaka



## 2. THE ADDHASAMA CLASS

§634. In the addhasama class of metres, the first and the third, and the second and fourth pādas are similar. The following table shows eleven kinds of metres that come under this head:

| Name of Metre | Odd quarter-verses. $\left(1^{\text {stt }} \cdot \& 3^{\text {rd }}\right)$ | Even quarter-verses $\left(2^{\text {nd }} \cdot \& 4^{\text {th }} .\right)$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: |
| upacitta | $\checkmark$ - | _ |
| ratamajjhā | _ ${ }^{\text {U _ }}$ - _ _ ${ }^{\text {u }}$ |  |
| vegavati |  | _ ${ }^{\text {〕 }}$ |
| bhaddavirājay | - - - - | --- - - |
| ketumati | $\checkmark$ | _ ${ }^{\text {u }}$ _ _ _ ${ }^{\text {U }}$ |
| akhyānikā | $\checkmark$ |  |
| viparitapubba |  | $\checkmark$ |
| hariṇapaluta | $\checkmark$ _ | $\checkmark$ |
| aparavutta | - - - | - - - |
| pubbittaggā | - - - - | - - - - |
| yavādikāmatī |  | _ `_ _ _ _` _ |

Remark.
The aparavutta corresponds to the vetāliya explained, referred to lower down.
§641. In the first of these, the ariyā, the first two pādas of half a gāthā contain seven and a half feet; in the even, that is, in the second, fourth, and sixth feet, any of the following, namely, $b a, j a, s a, g \bar{a}$, or four short syllables may be employed, but $j a$ must not be used in the odd feet, that is, in the first, third, and fifth. The sixth foot may be la or four short syllables. The second-half stanza must fulfil the same conditions. It is necessary to observe that in the jāti metre a foot consists of four syllabic instants, the time taken up in pronouncing a short syllable being taken as an instant of time; thus a long syllable being taken equal to two short ones, each foot used in the ariyā is equal to four syllabic instants. The following is an illustration of an ariyā stanza:

| Foot: | $1^{\text {st }}$ | $2^{\text {nd }}$ | $3^{\text {rd }}$ | $4^{\text {th }}$ | $5^{\text {th }}$ | $6^{\text {th }}$ | $7^{\text {th }}$ | $8^{\text {th }}$ |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $1^{\text {st }}$ half stanza | -- | $\smile$ し | -- | $\smile$ - | -- |  | _ ${ }^{\text {u }}$ | - |
| $2^{\text {nd }}$ half stanza | $\checkmark$ | $\smile \smile \checkmark$ | -- |  | - - | $\checkmark$ | -- | - |

§642. The vetäliya is so formed that it usually consists of fourteen syllabic instants in the odd quarters and sixteen in the even, while the mattāsamaka consists of sixteen syllabic instants in each quarter. The metres of the jāti class furnish many varieties, but it is not within the scope of this work to treat of them in detail. As, however, the vetāliya is of rather frequent occurrence, we give below the scheme of it. Each pāda is divided into three seats; the first seat in the first and third pādas must have six syllabic instants; the first seat of the second and fourth pādas must contain eight syllabic instants; the second seat must be a cretic foot and the third a lambic foot:

| Foot: | 1st seat (Number of syllabic instants) | 2nd seat (Cretic) | 3rd seat (Lambus) |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| 1st Pāda | 6 syllabic instants | - | - |
| 2nd Pāda | 8 syllabic instants | - | ${ }^{-}$ |
| 3rd Pāda | 6 syllabic instants | - - | ${ }^{-}$ |
| 4th Pāda | 8 syllabic instants | $\checkmark$ | - |

Remarks.
(a) The above is a perfect vețāliya. In the third seat, the following feet may be found instead of the lambus:

| $\smile \smile$ | pyrrhic |
| :---: | :---: |
| -- | spondee |
| $\smile^{-}-$ | bacchic |
| $\smile^{-}{ }^{-}$ | amphibrac |

(b) the sign of the long syllable (-) must be counted as 2 since it is equal to two short syllables.

## Finis.

