

The Imperative in the Rigveda

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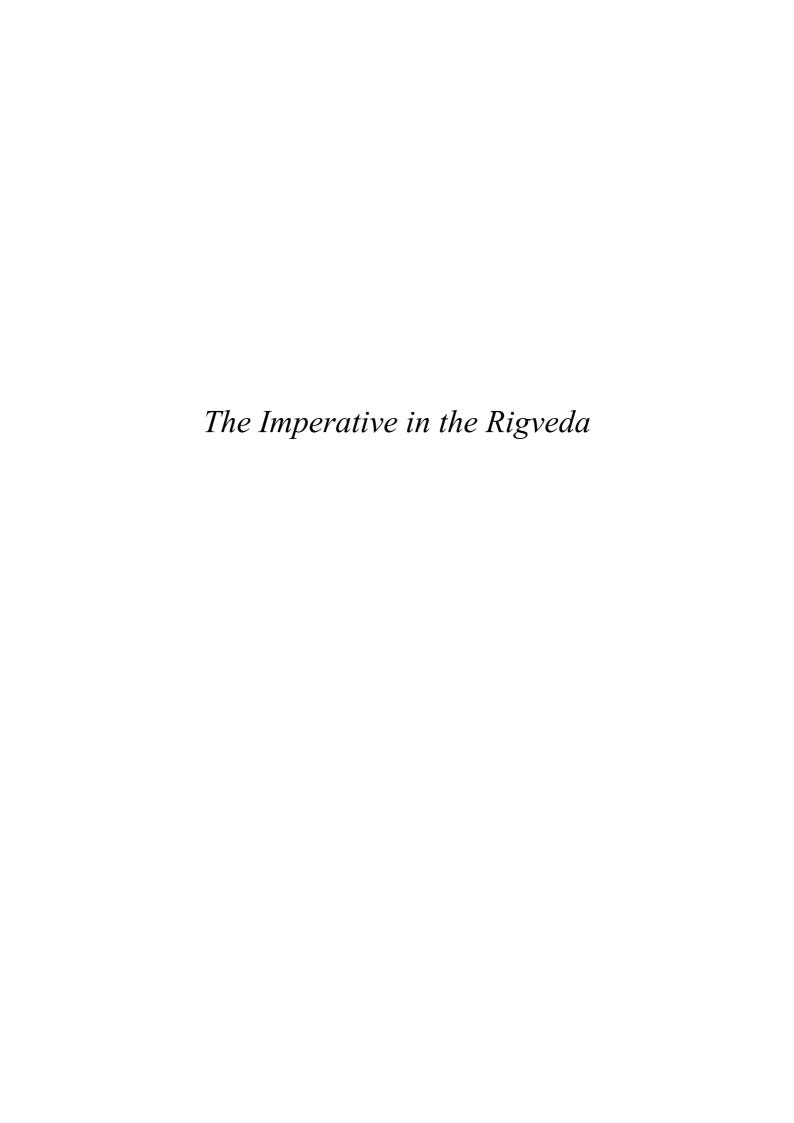
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The Imperative in the Rigveda

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Table of Contents

Acknowledgments	1
List of abbreviations	9
The place of the imperative in the Rigvedic verbal system	11
The third person imperative	13
The addressee of the second person imperative	15
The addressee of the third person imperative	15
Imperative vs. optative	17
The morphology of the imperative	21
The ending -dhí/-hí	23
dehí and dhehí	29
The ending -sva	29
The ending -tu	30
The second person plural: -ta and -tana	31
The second person dual	32
The third person plural ending $-a(n)tu$	32
Other endings	33
Thematicisation of athematic stems	34
The imperative of the desiderative	34
The stative ('t-less') middle-voice	35

The -tāt imperative	35
The modal aorist injunctive	37
The -si imperative	43
-si forms in relative clauses	59
Aorist versus present imperative	65
The aorist imperative as an archaism	66
The demise of the aorist imperative	67
The aor. impv. as a metrical variant	72
Limitations on the placement of words within the pāda	73
Traditional phraseology, metre, and linguistic	
considerations	79
Phraseological exceptions and archaisms	82
Further observations	87
Index of attested imperative forms	
in the Rigveda	91
Bibliography	185
Index of cited examples	199

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List of abbreviations

AB	Aitareya-Brāhmaṇa	abl.	ablative
AV	Atharvaveda	acc.	accusative
AVP	Atharvaveda	act.	active
_	Paippalāda recension	aor.	aorist
$Aar{A}$	Aitareya-Āraṇyaka	caus.	causative
GB	Gopatha-Brāhmaṇa	dat.	dative
JB	Jaiminīya-Brāhmaṇa	desid.	desiderative
KB	Kauṣītaki-Brāhmaṇa	impv.	imperative
MB	Mantra-Brāhmaṇa	inj.	injunctive
MS	Maitrāyaņi-Saṃhitā	instr.	instrumental
PB	Pañcavimsa-	int.	intensive
	Brāhmaṇa	loc.	locative
RV	Rigveda		
SB	Saḍviṃśa-Brāhmaṇa	med.	middle-voice
ŚBK	Śatapatha-Brāhmaṇa	opt.	optative
	Kāṇva recension	part.	participle
ŚBM	Śatapatha-Brāhmaṇa	pass.	passive
	Mādhyandina	perf.	perfect
	recension	ppp.	perfect passive
SV	Sāmaveda		participle
ΤĀ	Taittirīya-Āraņyaka	pres.	present
TB	Taittirīya-Brāhmaṇa	red.	reduplicated
TS	Taittirīya-Samhitā	subj.	subjunctive
YV	Yajur-Veda	voc.	vocative
	-		

The place of the imperative in the Rigvedic verbal system

The greatest challenge to those working on the Rigvedic verbal system is visualising it as a system. It is full of asymmetries, big functional gaps on the one hand, and functional overload – two or even more forms having seemingly identical functions, on the other. This makes any system-wide analysis – seeing the big picture, as it were – tricky. Moreover, and this is a point which can hardly be emphasized strongly enough, it is very difficult to appreciate the function of a single item within the system, without being able to understand how it relates to the rest of the system.

The imperatives are a good example of these gaps in the system. Whereas some verbs, as for instance $k_{\it l}$, $s_{\it l}$

Within the aorist system, the second person singular imperative has several endings - - $dh\acute{\iota}$ for root-aorists, -si for sigmatic aorists¹, and -a for thematic aorists, while the - $i\dot{s}$ -2, - $si\dot{s}$ -, and reduplicated aorists are prevented by a morphological limitation from forming an imperative that is differentiated from the injunctive – and the imperative is, after all, differentiated from the injunctive only in the second person singular, third person singular and third person plural – and thus uses the injunctive instead.

This creates a situation where some verbs have two or even three imperative stems – aorist, present, and perfect – while others only have one. Furthermore, within the aorist, some verbs have two forms, injunctive and imperative, which we would expect, as linguists, to have different functions, while others only have one, the injunctive. The implication of this situation is that all of the functions of the aorist imperative are, under certain circumstances, totally contained within the aorist injunctive. In other words, there is nothing that one can do with an imperative that cannot be done with an injunctive, although the opposite is not true.³

Even allowing for the possibility that many forms that may have existed are not attested, this is an anomalous situation.

Furthermore, two verbs, $d\bar{a}_1$ and $dh\bar{a}$, cannot differentiate the injunctive and imperative in the 2nd person singular but can in the 3rd: the forms $d\bar{a}s$ and $dh\bar{a}s$ function as both injunctive and imperative, while in the 3rd person we have both $d\bar{a}t$, $dh\bar{a}tu$ and $d\bar{a}tu$, $dh\bar{a}tu^4$.

The lack of distinction between the injunctive and imperative, even in cases where both exist as separate entities, is easily demonstrable. The following two sentences mean basically the same despite the use of the injunctive in one and the imperative in the other: 6.44.18b asmábhyam máhi várivaḥ sugáṃ kaḥ, and 1.102.4c asmábhyam indra várivaḥ sugáṃ kṛdhi 'For us, O Indra, make space, wide and

¹ See page 43ff.

² Except for the unique form *aviḍḍhí*. Some roots have 2nd pers. sing. root aor. impvs. ending in *-ihi* while the rest of the paradigm has *-iṣ*- aor. forms. See page 94.

³ See page 37ff.

⁴ The verbs *sthā* and $g\bar{a}$ have the same limitations. See pages 37ff and especially 42ff.

easily passable'5.

Furthermore, there is no possible distinction between the imperative and the injunctive in the negative, as the injunctive with the particle $m\tilde{a}$ functions as the negative of the imperative.

The third person imperative

The Rigvedic verbal system, in common with that of other ancient Indo-European languages, has both second and third person imperatives. Later Sanskrit also has what is described as a first person imperative, but this is in fact a relic of the Vedic first person subjunctive, which has joined the imperative paradigm in the later language.

The question needs to be asked what the province of the third person imperative is, and how it relates to the second person imperative.

Whether the third person imperative is indeed an imperative depends, of course, on the definition given to the imperative. The imperative mood, contrary to conventional wisdom, expresses far more than just commands and orders. Lyons (1977), rather than using the term 'command' for imperative expressions, terms them 'mands', and includes in the term not only commands, but also requests, entreaties, etc. He sees the mand as a subclass of the "directive", which can also include warnings, recommendations and exhortations.

The term mand actually originates with B.F. Skinner⁶, who gave it a far wider, if somewhat cryptic definition:

A verbal operant in which the response is reinforced by a characteristic consequence and is therefore under the functional control of relevant conditions of deprivation or aversive stimulation.

He later explains it in terms of formal grammar, giving it a very wide force:

⁵ See also page 41f.

⁶ Skinner (1957: 35ff.).

'The mand obviously suggests the *imperative* mood, but *interrogatives* are also mands, as are most *interjections* and *vocatives*, and some *subjunctives* and *optatives*.'

He also details various subclasses, one of which is the "magical mand", such as 'Would God I were a tender apple blossom', and other wishes, 'the consequences of which have never occurred as a result of similar verbal behaviour'.

Skinner's definition is psychological more than grammatical, and much too wide for our purposes, but a modification of Lyons' definition seems suitable for the Vedic imperative.

Lyons (1977: 745) emphasizes the connection between the imperative and the second person:

"... the imperative is intimately connected with the second person (or vocative). It is implicit in the very notion of commanding and requesting that the command or request is addressed to the person who is expected to carry it out. In so far as the imperative is the mood whose function is that of being regularly and characteristically used in mands, the subject of an imperative sentence will necessarily refer to the addressee."

and he is dubious about the status of Indo-European third person imperatives:

'What are traditionally described as first-person and third-person imperatives, however, in the Indo-European languages at least, are not true imperatives,... The subject of these so-called imperatives does not refer to the addressee.'

However, Lyons' definition of the mand is far narrower than that of Skinner, and I believe that a certain widening of Lyons' definition would allow the admission of third person imperatives as mands, somewhere between the very narrow definition of Lyons, and the very wide one of Skinner.⁷

_

⁷ Any categorical statement to the effect that "the imperative expresses mands" would therefore need to vary the definition of the mand accordingly. This would of course make the definition somewhat circular, as the answer to the question "what is a mand" would be

The addressee of the second person imperative

The addressee of the second person imperative in the Rigveda is almost always a living being. There are some examples of the 2nd pers. imperative addressing inanimate objects, but in these cases the objects are divine beings in their own right, such as sacrificial instruments, e.g. when the gambler addresses the dice at 10.34.14a mitrám kṛṇudhvaṃ khálu mṛḷátā no 'Grant us your friendship8, have mercy on us . . .'.

The Soma-stones also appear as the addressees of an imperative: 10.175.2 grấvāṇo ápa duchúnām, ápa sedhata durmatím / usrấḥ kartana bheṣajám 'You Pressing-stones, drive away harm, drive away malevolence. Make the cows⁹ into a medicine'.

The addressee of the third person imperative

Most examples of the third person imperative of transitive verbs such as kṛṇotu, kṛṇvantu or avatu, avantu are of a type which is analogous to a similar sentence with a second person imperative: e.g. 10.42.11cd indraḥ purástād utá madhyató naḥ, sákhā sákhibhyo várivaḥ kṛṇotu 'Let Indra from the front and from the middle as a friend to his friends make free space for us' is exactly parallel to 9.85.4c urúṃ no gātúṃ kṛṇu soma mīḍhvaḥ 'Make us a wide road, O generous Soma' as is 8.80.4c purástād enam [rátham] me kṛdhi 'Put it (my chariot) in front for me' with 8.45.9ab asmákaṃ sú rátham purá, indraḥ kṛṇotu sātáye 'Please let Indra put our chariot in front for booty' bearing in mind of course that the former has an aorist and the latter a present imperative.

Furthermore, we have 1.84.3cd *arvācīnaṃ sú te máno*, *grāvā kṛṇotu vagnúnā* 'Let the pressing-stone through its noise make your mind well-disposed', which has exactly the same ostensibly inanimate subject as 10.175.2 (above).

[&]quot;anything that can be expressed by an imperative", and to the question "what does the imperative express", the answer would be "mands". I use the term mand anyway, as a practical alternative to "commands, requests, wishes, entreaties, etc.".

⁸ or "make us into your friend".

⁹ This is the usual translation of this passage, as it appears, e.g., in Geldner. However, as the plural of words meaning 'cows' often means 'milk', such an interpretation for this passage would make far more sense.

In 6.69.2cd prá vāṃ gíraḥ śasyámānā avantu, prá stómāso gīyámānāso arkaíḥ 'Let the hymns being recited aid you (two), and the praises that are sung in songs', the subject of the verb is the poet's hymns and praises, which cannot be addressed directly.¹⁰

In addition to these, there are a great many examples of subjects which are inanimate objects or even abstracts, for which there is no 2nd person parallel, e.g. 1.8.5b *mahitvám astu vajríne* 'May there be greatness for the Vajra-bearer' or 1.24.9b *urví gabhīrá sumatís te astu* 'may your compassion be profound and broad'.

An interesting example is: 1.30.12 *táthā tád astu somapāḥ, sákhe vajrin táthā kṛṇu / yáthā ta uśmásīṣṭáye* 'May it be so, Soma drinker, our friend, the Vajra bearer, make it as we want, that you hurry,' which contains a third person mand which fits even Lyons' narrow definition. "May it be so" in (a) is an exact paraphrase for "make it so" in (b). Both are requests addressed to Indra, as shown by the vocatives *somapāḥ* (V.) and *sákhe vajrin* and are on exactly the same level. *kṛṇu* here could be seen semantically (but obviously not morphologically) as a causative of *astu*, thus making (b) the exact second person parallel of (a). This is not the same as the previous examples, in which the third person imperatives are wishes not addressed to anyone specific, of the type "may there be . . . ".

Given that the range of possible third person subjects is considerably wider than those of the second person, it is understandable that a strict syntactical paradigmatic relationship is not easy to demonstrate. This is however the same for any other forms in the second and third person. The second person environment, sometimes termed interlocutive, and the third person one, termed delocutive¹¹, cannot, by definition, have a one-to-one paradigmatic correspondence; each in many ways has its own grammar and language.

However, a semantic paradigmatic relationship is certainly demonstrable, provided that we accept the definition of the mand. Both the second and third person imperatives are used exclusively for the delivery of mands.

¹⁰ Indeed this use of the third person imperative may be a substitute for the direct addressing of a hymn or artifact found in other literature. This wish is fairly reminiscent of the Greek or Roman asking the Muse for success in composing his poem, a form which does not exist in the Rigveda.

¹¹ These terms date back to Damourette and Pichon (1952).

Imperative vs. optative

The next question that needs to be asked, having established the function of the imperative, is whether the above-mentioned functional overload really exists in the case of mands, or, in other words, did the Vedic poets have any other choice when they wanted to convey a mand but to use the imperative?

It is precisely the kind of wish or hope such as that expressed in 1.84.3cd or 6.69.2cd, which is supposed to be the province of the optative.

The imperative and the optative would seem, according to the conventional descriptions of their functions, to overlap quite considerably. This phenomenon has been recognised for quite some time. Macdonell (1916: 348), for instance, writes of the imperative:

'The impv. does not express commands only, but also a desire in the widest sense, such as a wish, a request, advice, a direction.'

and of the optative 12:

'The second person is much less common. It is almost exclusively used to express a wish or a request addressed to a god; ...We might here often rather expect the impv., which indeed frequently either precedes or follows the 2. opt. ...The third person is used in the three different senses of wish, precept, or supposition.'

One case where they do not overlap at all is where optatives are used in subordinate clauses to denote a specific kind of conditional clause, as in 6.47.15ab ká īṃ stavat káḥ pṛṇāt kó yajāte, yád ugrám ín maghávā viśváhāvet 'Who would (will) praise him, who would give abundantly, who would worship him, if the generous one always were only to help the powerful?'

Here, the optative is totally distinct from any imperative, as the latter cannot appear in subordinate clauses. 13

¹² op. cit.: 360.

¹³ For the few examples where *si*-imperatives supposedly occur in relative clauses, see p. 59f.

Another set of optatives which do not enter this discussion are the examples of the first person, simply because there is no first person imperative and thus no possible overlap in function.

Therefore where we apparently have a total or partial overlap in function is in the second and third person, present and aorist, between the imperative – including those injunctive forms which function as imperatives – and the optative.

It is quite easy to find examples of pairs of sentences, one of which has an optative and the other an imperative, which are extremely similar if not identical, e.g. 6.68.6-7 ...asmé sá [rayí] indrāvaruṇāv ápi ṣyāt ... utá naḥ ... sūríbhya indrāvaruṇā rayíḥ ṣyāt '[The riches that you (two) give to the sacrificer] ... may that belong to us . . . also may our patrons have ... riches ... O Indra and Varuna.' compared to 1.184.4a asmé sấ vām mādhvī rātír astu 'Let this gift of yours belong to us, O Sweet Ones'.

Occasionally one may feel that optative sentences have more emotional content, to be more pleading: 3.1.23cd syắn naḥ sūnús tánayo vijắvā, ágne sắ te sumatír bhūtv asmé 'May we have a son of our own, to carry on the clan. Agni, let us have your goodwill'. However, note the imperative in the same sentence. Furthermore, very often imperatives are not lacking emotion either: 1.16.7ab ayáṃ te stómo agriyó, hṛdispṛ́g astu śáṃtamaḥ 'Let this superior prayer touch your heart, and be most beneficial to you'.

In the case of the verb as, the distinction may be semantic; among the examples of the form $sy\bar{a}t$ there seems to be a preoccupation with riches and property; sentences whose basic theme is "make me rich", which are so commonly expressed elsewhere with the second person imperative.

In other words, the optative appears to be used for requests for tangible objects, as in 6.68.6c and 3.1.23c above, and the imperative for hopes and wishes, and intangibles, such as grace, kindness, well-being etc., as in 1.24.9b. These seem fairly typical of the average use of these forms. Further examples of the kind of environment typically occupied by astu are: 1.185.11ab idám dyāvāpṛthivī satyám astu, pítar mắtar yád ihópabruvé vām 'May this come true, O Heaven and Earth, Mother and Father, what I am asking you (two) for', 1.172.1a citró vo 'stu yấmaś 'May your path be bright' and 1.140.11ab idám agne súdhitam dúrdhitād ádhi,

priyấd u cin mánmanaḥ préyo astu te 'O Agni, may this well-formed (hymn) be better than the ill-formed hymn, and even dearer to thee than a dear hymn'. 14

There is perhaps a grey area with a certain amount of overlap, but for a good proportion of the examples, this distinction works.

Finally it is worth mentioning that in the absence of any injunctive forms for the verb *as* the only example of a negative contains an optative: 8.19.26cd *ná me stotámatīvá ná dúrhitaḥ*, *syád agne ná pāpáyā* 'Let my priest be neither poor nor wretched, O Agni, nor badly off.'

As to verbs other than as, the situation appears to be far different. The key lies in the extreme rarity of the optative. The table (below) shows the number of attestations of optatives versus imperatives for eight very common verbs in the Rigveda. It is obvious that the optatives are very uncommon. There are 1593 imperatives, vs. 76 optatives, of which 44 are from the verb as. Without as the score is 1344 vs 32, a ratio of exactly 1 to 42. Even as, which is the only verb in the group with a significant number of attested optatives, has nearly six times as many imperatives as optatives. In all of the other cases, only $dh\bar{a}$ reaches double figures.

In fact, the reality is that even the meagre numbers shown in the table inflate the actual number of attestations. There are no examples whatsover of the third person singular active optative of any of these verbs in main clauses. Two attestations of *avet* occur in subordinate clauses, while all of the others – and even these total less that ten examples – are in fact second and third person precatives ending in $-y\bar{a}s$. The rest of the examples are of isolated single middle-voice forms rather than full paradigms, as for instance $dad\bar{u}ran$, $krnv\bar{u}ta$ and $dadh\bar{u}ta$. 15

¹⁴ Translation from Klein (1978: 143).

¹⁵ This is confirmed in Michael Meier-Brügger's unpublished work on the subjunctive and optative, in which he lists no third person singular aorist optatives in $y\bar{a}t$, except for $vav_t vy\bar{a}t$, which can also be interpreted as a perfect form – and just a few in $-y\bar{a}s$, the ending $-y\bar{a}t$ thus being limited to the present and the perfect. Meier-Brügger also confirms that with the exception of the forms $sy\bar{a}s$ and $sy\bar{a}t$, the second and third present active present optative also appear only in a few isolated forms. Plural and middle voice forms appear to be even rarer, with 2nd person plural middle voice forms totally absent.

Forms which appear in grammar books, such as *bhavet*, $bh\bar{u}y\bar{a}t$ and $gamy\bar{a}t$ are in fact completely unattested in the Rigveda. ¹⁶

Whatever the explanation for the extreme rarity of the optative is, we can only reach one conclusion from the available data – that the chief and indeed virtually the only medium possessed by the language of the Rigveda for the expression of what Lyons call mands, in other words the spectrum of utterances between an order and an entreaty, is in fact the imperative.

Comparative number of examples, imperative vs. optative

(The table includes 2nd and 3rd persons active and middle, and excludes "syntactical" optatives, i.e. optatives in subordinate clauses)

Verb	Pres . impv.	Aor. impv.		Total impv.	Pres. opt.		Aor. Opt.	Total Opt.
kŗ	118	133		251	2		0	2
as_1	249	0		249	44		0	44
av	120	23		143	1		2	3
bhū	189	113		302	0		7	7
śru	84	91		175	0		1	1
$d\bar{a}_I$	43	2	*	45	2	**	0	2
gam	44	209		253	0		7	7
dhā	170	5	***	175	9	**	1	10
Totals				1593				76

Notes:

* $d\bar{a}_1$ has no 2nd pers. agrist imperative.

All numbers from Lubotsky (19971).

^{**}Examples of the present optative are med., imperatives are all active.

^{***} dhā has no 2nd pers. aorist imperative.

¹⁶ It would be fair to mention that this information is to be found in Whitney (1924: §§564-568), but is hidden, as all Vedic information is in his book, by the author's presentation of Vedic and Classical forms side by side, and by his quoting forms which are allowed by Indian grammarians, but are never attested in the actual texts.

The morphology of the imperative

The imperative is one of five moods of the Rigvedic verb. It is different to the subjunctive and the optative in that it doesn't have a separate stem, but rather a set of endings, which are, as mentioned above, differentiated morphologically from the injunctive only in the 2nd person singular active and middle, the 3rd person singular active and middle and the 3rd person plural, active and middle. It can be formed from all three of the main verbal stems: present, aorist and perfect. There is no 1st person imperative in the RV; the forms which are in later texts considered to be 1st person imperatives are part of the subjunctive paradigm in the RV.

All Vedic verb stems fall into one of two classes, thematic and athematic. Both present and aorist stems may belong to either one of these, and are conjugated in the same way in each case. In other words, there is no difference in conjugation between a thematic present and a thematic aorist, or a root (athematic) aorist and a root present.

The endings of the impv. are shown in the following table. Separate thematic endings are only shown when they are different to the corresponding athematic ones.

active			
	sing.	dual	pl.
2 athematic	Ø/-dhí/-hi/-tam	-ta / -tana	
2 thematic	Ø/-tāt		
3 athematic	-tu	-tām	-a(n)tu
3 thematic			-antu
middle			
	sing.	dual	pl.
2 athematic	-sva	-āthām	-dhvam
2 thematic		-ethām	
3 athematic	-tām	-ātām	-atām
3 thematic		-etām	-antām

Thematic stems are characterised by their lack of ablaut, so that the stem remains the same in all persons and numbers. A characteristic imperative conjugation of a thematic stem would be:

act.			
	sing.	dual	pl.
2	bhava	bhavatam	bhavata
3	bhavatu	bhavatām	bhavantu
mid.			
	sing.	dual	pl.
2	bhavasva	bhavethām	bhavadhvam
3	bhavatām	bhavetām	bhavantām

Athematic stems, on the other hand, have ablaut throughout, although the rules for its application are not entirely consistent.

The ending -dhí/-hí

The conditions which differentiate between the allomorphs -dhi and -hi are fairly simple, but there are a number of exceptions that need explaining¹⁷. For most of the attested forms the following is a general rule: all stems ending in a consonant take -dhi, while -hi normally appears after a vowel, e.g. addhi (ad), but $p\bar{a}hi$ ($p\bar{a}$). There are, however, a number of cases where -dhi occurs after a vowel:

- 1) Root forms containing an original *-zdh- or *-źdh- cluster: edhi (as), śādhi, śaśādhi (śās), tālhi (taks).
- 2) Disyllabic root agrists from roots ending in -r: krdhí (kr), vrdhi (vr), sprdhi (spr).
 - 3) The form $\pm i \pm \bar{a} dhi (\pm \bar{a})$, for which see p. 171.
- 4) The form śrudhí (śru), which is explained by Lubotsky (1995¹) as being due to the prevalence of the form in the interior of the pāda, and the high proportion of its occurrences in formulae, especially, śrudhí hávam. Likewise the form śṛṇudhí. As will be shown below, this latter form was coined especially to enable the use of the formula śrudhí hávam in certain metrical environments, we may actually entertain the notion that the form śrudhí itself is an archaism preserved due to the influence of this same formula, which appears to have had special ritual significance. For more on both of these forms see the chapter 'Aorist versus present imperative', especially pp. 82ff.
- 5) The forms *yódhi* (*yudh*) and *bodhi* (*budh*), which may not have the *-dhí* ending at all, and for which see p. 26.
 - 6) The form bodhi ($bh\bar{u}$), for which see p. 25, and yuyodhi (yu_2).

Stem-final consonants have regular sandhi before the -dhi ending, e.g. mumugdhi (muc), sagdhi (sak), etc., while stem-final consonant clusters are simplified so that *-nddhi > -ndhi and *-ng-dhi and *-nk-dhi > *-ngdhi >-ndhi. The examples of this development, most of which are derived from -n-infix presents, are andhi (anc), undhi (ud), chindhi (chid), trndhi (trd), prndhi (prc), bhandhi (bhanj), bhindhi (bhid) and vrndhi (vrj). The root anc is exceptional in also having a form angdhi.18

¹⁷ See also Lubotsky (19951).

¹⁸ See also Insler (1972²: fn 9).

The ending is always accented where the accent is preserved: andhi (anj), addhi (ad), ihi, inuhi (i), krnuhi, krdhi (kr), jagrhi (gr), grnihi (gr), cinuhi (ci), cikiddhi (cit), cihiddhi (chid), daddhi, dehi (dal), dlihi, didlihi, didlihi (dr), dadrhi (dr), dhehi (dhr), dhr, dhr

The second singular forms ending in -dhi/-hi usually have zero-grade of the stem. There are, however, a fairly large number of forms with full grade stems, a full list of which is: addhi (ad), edhi (as), $c\bar{a}kandhi$ (kan), $t\bar{a}\underline{l}hi$ ($tak\underline{s}$), $p\bar{a}hi$ ($p\bar{a}_1$ and $p\bar{a}_2$), bodhi (budh), $bh\bar{a}hi$ ($bh\bar{a}$), bodhi ($bh\bar{u}$), mamaddhi (mad), mamandhi (man_2), $m\bar{a}hi$ ($m\bar{a}_1$), yandhi (yam), $y\bar{a}hi$ ($y\bar{a}$), yuyodhi (yu_2), $y\acute{o}dhi$ (yudh), $r\bar{a}randhi$ (ran), randhi, $r\bar{a}randhi$ (randh), $v\bar{a}vandhi$ (van_2), $v\bar{a}hi$ ($v\bar{a}$), sagdhi (sak), $s\bar{a}dhi$, $sas\bar{a}dhi$ (sas), $sis\bar{a}dhi$ (sas), $sis\bar{a}dhi$ (sas), $sis\bar{a}dhi$ (sas), $sis\bar{a}dhi$ (sas), sashi (sas), sashi (sas), sashi (sash), sashi (sashi), sashi

The exceptions may be classified in a number of groups:

- 1) addhi and edhi are easily explained as analogical reconstructions of rootsyllables that would have been lost in zero-grade: $*h_{I}sdhi$ would have yielded *sdhi (a form which is attested in Avestan $zd\bar{\imath}$), and $*h_{I}d$ -dhi would likely have yielded *dhi. To this group must also be added mamaddhi, $\acute{s}agdhi$ and $t\bar{a}\underline{l}hi$, whose roots cannot form zero-grades.
- 2) $p\bar{a}h\acute{\iota}$, $v\bar{a}h\acute{\iota}$, $s\bar{a}h\acute{\iota}$, $y\bar{a}h\acute{\iota}$, $bh\bar{a}h\acute{\iota}$ and $m\bar{a}h\acute{\iota}$ show the generalisation of full-grade in root-stems of the type CeH. There are no exceptions to this in the second person singular root present and aorist, although there are zero-grade reduplicated-present forms like $rir\bar{\iota}h\acute{\iota}$ from $r\bar{a}$, $mim\bar{\iota}h\acute{\iota}$ from $m\bar{a}$, $s\acute{\iota}s\acute{\iota}h\acute{\iota}$ from $s\acute{a}^{20}$ and $jih\bar{\iota}sva$ from $h\bar{a}_1$. This generalisation of the full-grade in this type of root is carried through into the other persons and numbers too, although the retention of the pair $s\bar{a}h\acute{\iota}/sitam$ from the root $s\bar{a}$ shows that it is most likely an innovation.

¹⁹ For the possible existence of an archaic form *éhi* see footnote 141.

- 3) *śnathihi* and *stanihi* have -*iṣ* aorist forms in the rest of their paradigm. The form *aviddhi* may originally have belonged to this group. See page 94.
 - 4) The root \dot{sas} has no ablaut variation in its present stem. See also p. 26.
- 5) cākandhi, mamandhi, yuyodhí, rārandhí (from ran) and vāvandhi show that reduplicated perfects from seṭ and aniṭ bi-literal roots of the type Ceu and Cen(H) always have full-grade in the root in the second person singular impv. There are no exceptions to this. Roots of the form Cer have zero grade in the same forms: jāgṛhí, dādṛhí, pipṛhi. Insler (1972²: 554ff.), and later Kümmel (2001: 414) ascribe these forms to an analogy with unattested but very probable 3rd pl. forms such as *rāraṇúr, Kümmel adding the extra justification (already implied by Insler) that this is the regular ante-vocalic allomorph of a syllabic /n/ followed by a laryngeal, as in the sequence *-rṇH-ur. If this is the case, then this process must of course have begun with seṭ roots and spread to aniṭ roots later.
- 6) yandhi and bodhi ($bh\bar{u}$) are genuinely problematic. Insler (1972²: 551ff.) explains the former as being patterned after the 3rd pl. ind. aor. form ayamur, in the same way as both 2nd pers. sing. impv. gahi and 3rd pers. ind. aor. agman have zero grade. However, the problem is not only yandhi; there are no zero grade aorist forms of this verb at all. Thus, there is only yantam and yanta, where e.g. gam has both zero-grade and full-grade variants. Probably there was more than one influence that brought about this situation. The above rule, under which reduplicated forms of roots of type Cen(H) always have full grade in the second person singular imperative was one there were many forms ending in -andhi and almost none ending in -ahi. Likewise, bodhi could have come under the same influence from forms like yuyodhi, and again, there are few root-imperatives ending in -ahi. In the case of the verb yam, another influence was probably its sigmatic aorist forms, most notably the form yamsi, which also all have full-grade of the root.

As for *bodhí*, since Wackernagel (1896: 1-274) it has been accepted that the form *bodhí* is unoriginal. It is considered to be a redactional replacement for *būdhi. This theory is often accepted unquestioningly, e.g. by Insler (1972²: 559).

Jamison (1997) accepts that the form is unoriginal, but considers that original *bhava* would have been weakened in unemphatic position to **bho*, and then the impv. ending -*dhi* added, finally Grassmann's Law working to replace the initial aspiration. Thus she places *bodhi* in the present system, as an unemphatic variant of *bhava*. Gotō (1987: 218 fn. 454) is cautious, limiting himself to calling this form

"unklar", but suggesting that the diphthong may have come into being under the influence of such forms as edhi from as. He calls Wackernagel's idea "unconvincing".

Lubotsky (1995²: 224ff.), however, suggests another solution. Following Kortlandt, he reconstructs $bh\bar{u}$ as $*b^heH_2u$ - rather than $*b^heuH$ -, thus allowing bodhi to be explained as an original, full-grade root agrist impv. $*b^heH_2u$ - d^hi , of the same type as yandhi.

7) *yódhi*, *bodhi* (*budh*) and possibly *randhi* may not be conventional root-aorist imperatives at all.

Insler (1972²) explains $y \delta dhi$ as an acrostatic ("Narten") aorist. In the present he quotes the example of the root $\delta \bar{a}s - \delta \bar{a}sti - \delta \bar{a}dhi$, for which the accentuation of the imperative is unfortunately not preserved. Root aorist forms of this type are rarer, although Insler is able to quote the form $j \delta n i s v a$. Insler explains $b \delta dhi$ as an analogical formation on the basis of $v \delta dhi$.

Mayrhofer (1986²: 111f.) suggests that the form $y \acute{o} dhi$ is the result of a resyllabification of *i e u dh dhi to *i e u - dh dhi, with consequent simplification of the geminate. He makes no attempt, however, to explain this form's unique accentuation.

Jasanoff (2002: 292ff.) counters Insler's argument with two arguments. Firstly, quoting later studies than Insler's, Jasanoff denies the existence of Narten-style root aorists with $*\bar{e}: *\check{e}$ ablaut. Secondly, he states that even if it were to be shown that the root *yudh* did have such an aorist, it could not be shown that it would have an aorist imperative of the type $*\check{i}\acute{e}udh$ -dhi rather than the more conventional $*\check{i}udh$ -dhi, since the only actual example of a "Narten" present which has a imperative is $st\acute{a}uti$, whose imperative is $stuh\acute{i}.^{23}$ Jasanoff then goes on to suggest that the form $y\acute{o}dhi$ and bodhi were formed by analogy to the -si impv. $j\acute{o}si$ citing parallel forms throughout the conjugations of the two verbs. josi, he claims, was reanalysed by speakers as $j\acute{o}si$, and this i-imperative was extended to the parallel roots yudh and

²¹ On page 30 I suggest that the form *jániṣva* is the exact middle-voice equivalent of the forms of the type *stanihi*.

²² For more details see also p. 140.

²³ This form is considered secondary by Insler (1972²: 557), who posits original *stódhi. It is unclear to me why Jasanoff rejects Insler's example of the verb $\delta \bar{a}s$.

budh by analogy. A similar process took place in late Hittite, according to Jasanoff, where the -si imperative induced the creation of i imperatives such as $z\bar{a}hi$ 'fight' and $h\bar{a}ni$ 'draw water'.

Bammesberger (1983) reaches the opposite conclusions to those of Jasanoff, claiming that the i imperative is inherited from PIE. Bammesberger's idea seems to me to suffer from a lack of comparative data; there is no i imperative in any other IE language which cannot also be shown to have been formed by analogy (as, e.g. the late Hittite forms quoted above).²⁴

It is clear to me that the crux of any discussion of these forms must be the unique accentuation of the form $y \acute{o} dhi$. Nobody, as far as I can see, has ever explicitly called attention to the fact that every other impv. in -dhi whose accent is preserved is accented on the ending. The solutions of both Insler (1972²) and Jasanoff (2002) would account for the accent, but the problem with the former, as mentioned by Jasanoff, is that there are no other forms of this type to compare it to, and that even the examples that we do have of -dhi impvs. which have full-grade in the root are still accented on the ending.

Whatever the historical explanation, we have a pattern created on the basis of the form $j \delta s i$, by which impvs can be formed of the type * $C\acute{e}RC$ -i. The hitherto unexplained form $gh\acute{o}si$ is constructed in exactly the same way, as is $c\acute{a}ksi$, and the lack of the rest of the parallel forms, indeed the lack of any aorist at all for these verbs, indicates that it is constructed by analogy to $j\acute{o}si$. Furthermore, there is at least one other form of precisely this type: randhi, from the root randh. Unfortunately, the accentuation of this form has not been preserved.

Not least among the parallel forms in the conjugations of $y \acute{o}dhi$ and $j\acute{o}si$ are the aorist subjunctives yodhat and $j\acute{o}sat$, which alongside the imperative forms exhibit the ubiquitous -i/-at pattern seen througout the examples of the -si imperative.²⁵

There is one further attested step in the story of the analogically created -i imperative; some of them were at a later date replaced by forms in -a. Thus we have $j \acute{o} \acute{s} i : j \acute{o} \acute{s} a, p \acute{a} r \acute{s} i : p a r \acute{s} a, b o d h i : b \acute{o} d h a,$ and $n \acute{e} \acute{s} i : n e \acute{s} a$. This could have originated when some of the originally a orist subjunctive forms (see p. 34 and p.

²⁴ See also p. 45.

²⁵ Further afield, the intensive form *barbrhi*, which is plainly analogical, could have been derived from the subjunctive form *barbrhat*.

140), such as *bódhat*, were reanalysed as thematic presents, and thus would have developed thematic imperatives. Thereafter the other agrist forms of the same type followed suit.

The ending -dhi/-hi only occurs with athematic present stems, root aorists, with the exception of the unique form aviddhi, which is an is-aorist, 26 and perfects. However, not all athematic stems take it all the time, the exception being the present stems with the -nu and $-n\bar{a}$ suffixes. Thus occur both krnu and krnuhi, srnu and śrnuhi etc. There is no semantic difference between these forms; the difference is purely metrical and is part of the system described fully in the chapter on the aorist imperative. In the $-n\bar{a}$ - conjugation, two verbs with roots ending in laryngeals, as, and grh have 2nd pers. sing. forms – aśāna, grhāná.²⁷ Since, as has been known since de Saussure, punāti is constructed in the same way as yunakti, then the form punīhi²⁸ is constructed in the same way as bhandhi (< *bhangdhi) i.e. *punHdhi.²⁹ This is also, of course, exactly analogous to the form *śṛnuhi*. The forms such as grhāná are likewise probably analogous to forms such as śrnu. Gotō (1987: 331) claims that it is "universally accepted" that these forms arose through dissimilation from an original $*grhn\bar{a}n\acute{a}$, the ending -na being formed from the same particle that appears in the 2nd pers. pl. ending -tana. Beekes (1999) disputes this, asserting that the form was originally $*grbh\bar{a} < *ghrb hnH$, to which the above mentioned particle was added. While this explains the forms aśāna and grhāná, it does not explain two other forms, pṛṇā and mṛṇā.

These are usually explained as secondary thematisations, e.g. by Strunk 1967: 40, LIV 435 fn. 8, and Kellens 1984: 181. Rather, these too are most probably *-dhí*-less variants of the corresponding forms such as *mṛṇīhi* (**pṛṇīhi* is not attested in the

²⁶ See page 94.

²⁷ Other similar forms, such as $badh\bar{a}n\acute{a}$ and $stabh\bar{a}n\acute{a}$, are found in later Vedic but not in the RV.

²⁸ The attested forms of this type are: $g_r n_i h i$, from $g_r \bar{f}$, "to praise, welcome", $j \bar{a} n_i h i$, from $j \bar{n} \bar{a}$, "to know", $m_r n_i h i$, from $m_r \bar{f}$, "to crush", $pun_i h i$, from $p \bar{u}$, "to purify", $s_r n_i h i$, from $s_r \bar{f}$, "to crush", and $s_r \bar{f} n_i h i$, from $s_r \bar{f}$, "to prepare".

²⁹ For the possible conditions under which zero-grade laryngeals produced $\bar{\iota}$ in Indic see Jamison (1988).

RV), related in the same way as śṛṇu and śṛṇuhi. 30 As to their construction, we lack both internal and comparative evidence. The most likely explanation is that it is a full-grade form $*plneh_1$ of the same type as other PIE endingless imperatives from laryngeal-final stems. 31 If this is true, then Gotō's version of the reconstruction of the forms aśāna and gṛhāṇá must be correct – the form *gṛbhnaH-na was simplified to gṛhāṇá by dissimilation.

dehí and dhehí

These are two more highly problematic forms. Hoffmann (1956: 21) suggests that they are the result of dissimilation of an original *d(h)adzdhi, via intermediate forms *d(h)azdhi and *dhedhi. A further dissimilation of the two /dh/ sounds would have achieved the final forms, as noted by Lubotsky (19951: 34). This explanation is accepted by Mayrhofer (19862: 111). According to this theory, it is the presence of the three /d(h)/ sounds in the word that caused a different treatment to similar forms such as viddhi.

Thus, we need to suppose that 1) either this form was reconstructed on the basis of forms such as viddhi, or 2) that dehi was coined by analogy to the form dhehi. Basically, both scenarios are possible. In either case, we are missing an analogous form *dhaddhi form the verb $dh\bar{a}$ because Grassmann's Law would have acted on it, causing the creation of an identical form *daddhi.

The ending -sva

All second person singular middle-voice forms end in -sva, ablauting stems are usually zero-grade, and, where the accent is preserved, the ending is accented. A full list of examples is $\bar{\imath}rsva$, $\bar{\imath}rnusva$, krnusva, krsva, $jih\bar{\imath}sva$, tanusva, dhatsva, dhisva, dadhisva, dhuksva, mimiksva, vanusva, vanus

³⁰ Cf. Klingenschmitt (1982: 253), who calls the Avestan form $p \partial r \partial n \bar{a}$ 'endungslose Form . . . oder von einem thematisierten Stamm . . . '.

³¹ See page 42.

mátsva, māsva, rásva, sáksva, sáksva, trásva, vámsva, vásisva, yáksva.

The forms ilisva, jánisva and vásisva appear outwardly to belong to a single subclass, however upon further investigation it becomes clear that they are most likely quite different from each other.

The form $j\acute{a}ni\dot{s}va$ is probably a full grade root aorist, of the same type as $\acute{s}nathihi$ and stanihi, the rest of whose forms were replaced by $-i\dot{s}$ - aorist forms, as happened frequently with root-aorist forms from $se\dot{t}$ roots. It is also possible the usual zero-grade second person sing. form $*j\ddot{a}sva$ would have been replaced by levelling with the rest of the paradigm $-j\acute{a}ni\dot{s}\dot{t}a$ etc.³² On the other hand, $v\acute{a}si\dot{s}va$ is usually considered³³ to be an $-i\dot{s}$ -aorist form. The root vas is $ani\dot{t}$, thus precluding any possibility that this is a root-form.

îliṣva is more problematic. Narten (1964: 238) considers it to be an innovation constructed on the basis of the root present *îṭṭe*. Since a form **īṭṣva* is apparently phonetically impossible in Vedic, this explanation is probably correct. The stem is a reduplicated present $< *h_2 i - h_2 i s d$ -, with the accent on the reduplicated syllable, as it is throughout the entire paradigm of attested finite forms of this verb. There are very few parallel forms to compare. *mimikṣvá* is one, which has the accent on the suffix, but the closest comparison may be the form $s\bar{a}k s v a$, which could go back to $*s\acute{e}-s\acute{g}^h$ -, and which could thus be originally a perfect form.

The ending -tu

The third person singular ending -tu is never accented and always attaches to the full-grade stem, e.g. anaktu, ástu, etu, gantu, gṛṇātu, cinotu, jígātu, dádātu, dātu, dardartu, dádhātu, bravītu, vétu, hantu, etc. The only exceptions to this are the zero grade bhūtu and babhūtu.

³² See Narten (1964: 118) and p. 93 below, under *avi*.

³³ E.g. by Narten (1964: 238f.).

The second person plural: -ta and -tana

The 2nd pers. pl. may have both zero and full-grade, e.g. the forms gata and krta, which exist side-by-side with gánta and karta. A full list of full-grade second person plural forms, and full-grade/zero-grade second person plural variants is: f(x), f(x),

While the accent is usually on the stem when it is full-grade and on the ending when the stem is zero grade, there is a noteworthy exception to this in the forms $g\acute{a}nta$ and $gant\acute{a}$. The forms $p\bar{a}t\acute{a}$ and $y\bar{a}t\acute{a}$ exhibit the same accentuation, but they also have the characteristic generalisation of full-grade throughout the paradigm of CeH roots.

The following forms have the -tana ending: attana (ad), anaktana (añj), aviṣṭána (av), itana, étana (i), kártana, kṛṇótana (kṛ), gántana (gam), gātana, jigātana (gā1), citana (ci), jujuṣṭana (juṣ), dadātana (dā1), didiṣṭana (diś), dádhātana, dhattana, dhātana, dhetana (dhā), nahyatana (nah), pinaṣṭana (piṣ), punītána (pū), pipartana (pṛ), pṛṇītana (pṛ1), bravītana (bru), bhajatana (bhaj), bhūtana (bhū), mamattána (mad), yantana (yam), yātána (yā), yuyótana (yu2), rániṣṭana (ran), vavṛttana (vṛt), śāstána (śās), śnathiṣṭana (śnath), śrīnītana (śrī), śṛṇotana (śru), sadatana (sad), sunótana, sotana (su), hantana (han), hinotana (hi), juhótana (hu).

The -tana ending is generally attached to the full-grade stem, the exceptions being itana, citana, jujuṣṭana, didiṣṭana, dhattana, punītána, pṛṇītana, vavṛttana and śrīnītana. As can be seen all of these belong to one of three types: 1) those with the -nā-/-nī- suffix, 2) reduplicated perfects of roots ending in a consonant, and 3) forms which have three syllables. Thus, in four-syllable forms, even in cases where the ending is attached to the zero-grade stem, the syllable preceding the ending is long. The reason for this, as noted by Renou (1952: 264) and Lubotsky (2004) is metrical. If the ending were attached to a zero-grade stem like kṛṇu-, the resulting *kṛṇutana would have four consecutive short syllables and would be metrically awkward. Obviously the forms which have only three syllables are immune to this problem.

A special case is the three occasions in the entire RV where the -tana ending occurs with a thematic stem: the form bhajatana in 7.56.21c ā na spārhé bhajatanā vasavyè 'give us a share in the desirable riches', nahyatana in 10.53.7a akṣānáho nahyatanotá somyāḥ 'Bind fast the ties (straps) to the wagon shaft, O Soma-worshippers'³⁴ and sadatana, the aor. impv. of sad, at 2.36.3ab améva naḥ suhavā ā hí gántana, ní barhíṣi sadatanā ráṇiṣṭana, 'Come to us like you come home, sit down on the altar-grass and rejoice'. The last of these is formed to match the two -tana forms gántana and ráṇiṣṭana. In the second example the poet's intention seems to be to use the form nahyatana to gain another -na- syllable to enhance this line's consonance: akṣānáho nahyatanotá somyāḥ. In all cases the last syllable of the suffix is lengthened, thus solving the metrical problem.

There is no difference in meaning between the two endings; they are used where metrically convenient, and may allow the use of the same phrase in metres of different lengths, as in 10.78.8c *ádhi stotrásya sakhyásya gāta* and 5.55.9c *ádhi stotrásya sakhyásya gātana*, where the former appears in the cadence of a triṣṭubh pāda and the latter in that of a jagatī pāda. See also p. 72f.

The second person dual

Athematic dual active forms usually have zero grade and an accented ending, as e.g. *kṛtám*, but again, the verb *gam* has both *gatám* and *gantám*, while the verb *yam*, again, has only *yantám*.

A full list of full-grade dual forms, and stems which have both full and zero-grade forms in the dual are: $gant\acute{a}m$ (gam), $dh\bar{a}tam$ ($dh\bar{a}$), $p\bar{a}t\acute{a}m$ ($p\bar{a}_1$ and $p\bar{a}_2$), $yant\acute{a}m$ (yam), $y\bar{a}t\acute{a}m$ ($y\bar{a}$), $yuyut\acute{a}m/yuyotam$ (yu_2), $vo\underline{l}h\acute{a}m$ (vah), vartam (v_1), vartam (v_1), vartam (vah).

In those cases where the stem shows full-grade, the accent is still on the ending.

The third person plural ending -a(n)tu

While this ending would originally have undergone ablaut, there is in fact only one example of the zero-grade form -atu in the entire Rigveda: the form dadhatu $(dh\bar{a})$, which occurs at 7.51.1d.

³⁴ Trans. Klein (1985: 2-39). According to Klein, this is the only place in the RV with the sequence V_1 *utá* V_2 P *utá* V_3 (where P=preverb).

Of the attested forms which preserve accentuation, almost all have the accent on the ending and a zero-grade stem: $s\acute{a}ntu$ (as), $y\acute{a}ntu$ (i), $k\ref{r}nv\acute{a}ntu$ ($k\ref{r}$), $ciy\acute{a}ntu$ (ci), $pun\acute{a}ntu$ ($p\~u$), $vanv\acute{a}ntu$ (van_1), $vy\acute{a}ntu$ ($v\~t$), $s\'rnv\acute{a}ntu$ (s'ru).

The only exceptions to this are the root-present form sasántu (sas), whose root cannot form a zero grade but whose accentuation is regular, and gámantu (gam), in place of the expected *gmántu, which appears to be built on the aorist subjunctive stem, as in gámat.

Other endings

The rest of the athematic imperative endings are poorly attested. The 3rd pers. dual act. ending $-t\bar{a}m$ occurs with accentuation only in the forms $dhatt\bar{a}m$ $(dh\bar{a})$, $p\bar{a}t\bar{a}m$ $(p\bar{a}_1)$, $piprt\bar{a}m$ (pr) and $sast\bar{a}m$ (sas), while the 3rd sing. med. form occurs only in $krnut\bar{a}m$ (kr). As can be seen, the ending is always accented, while the stem behaves in a similar way as it does in the case of the -tam ending.

The 3rd du. med. athematic ending $-\bar{a}t\bar{a}m$ is only attested once in the entire Rigveda, in the form $jih\bar{a}t\bar{a}m$ ($h\bar{a}_1$), while the 2nd dual med. ending $-\bar{a}th\bar{a}m$ occurs in the forms $\bar{t}r\bar{a}th\bar{a}m$ (r_1), $m'(m\bar{a}th\bar{a}m)$ ($m\bar{a}_1$), r_1), r_2 r_3 r_4 r_4 r_4 r_5 r_6 r_6

The athematic 3rd pl. med. ending never occurs in a form whose accent is preserved, appearing only in the forms $indhat\bar{a}m$ (idh), $\bar{t}rat\bar{a}m$ (r_I), $j\bar{a}nat\bar{a}m$ ($j\tilde{n}\bar{a}$), $dadhat\bar{a}m$ ($dh\bar{a}$) and $jihat\bar{a}m$ ($h\bar{a}_I$).

³⁵ See p. 23.

Thematicisation of athematic stems

A small number of mostly perfect athematic stems have secondary thematic forms, seemingly derived from the subjunctive stem. Examples are: $d\bar{\imath}dayatam$ ($d\bar{\imath}$), $p\bar{\imath}paya$, $p\bar{\imath}payata$ ($p\bar{\imath}$), pipráyasva ($pr\bar{\imath}$), $m\bar{a}mahasva$ (mamh), mum'ocatam, mum'ocata (muc), $v\bar{a}vrdh\'asva^{36}$ (vrdh) and $v\bar{a}vrsasva$ (vrs).

From the present stem we have dadhantu $(dh\bar{a})$, and from the arrist we have the forms $b\acute{o}dha$, etc. from the root budh, for which see p. 26 and 140, $g\acute{a}mantu$ (gam), yakṣatām (yaj), and $r\bar{a}sat\bar{a}m$ $(r\bar{a})$.

The imperative of the desiderative

There are a very small number of desiderative impvs. in the RV. The most common is the stem $\pm ik \pm a$, which, although formally a desiderative of $\pm ak$ has to all intents and purposes become a separate root in its own right. Other attested forms are $\pm cikitsa$, from $\pm cikitsa$, from $\pm cikitsa$ and $\pm cikitsa$ from $\pm cikitsa$ and $\pm cikitsa$ from $\pm cikitsa$ from $\pm cikitsa$ from $\pm cikitsa$ and $\pm cikitsa$ from $\pm cikits$

The desiderative *cikitsa* appears at 6.47.20cd *bṛhaspate prá cikitsā gáviṣṭāv*, *itthá saté jaritrá indra pánthām* 'Bṛhaspati, strive to perceive the path for the singer who is so involved in searching for cows, O Indra' and the same formula appears later at 1.92.23d -*ubháyebhyaḥ prá cikitsā gáviṣṭau* 'for both sides (?) strive to perceive (the path?) in the search for cows' in a context where it seems to make far less sense. *vivāsa*- appears five times in the impv.; in the sing. only in the formula *vivāsa námasā*, 'seek to win (him) with homage', at 5.83.1b, 8.96.12b, and 10.63.5c. In the pl. it appears at 6.15.6c and 8.15.1c. The form *vivāsati* may, as suggested by LIV, indeed be due to an analogy with the form *síṣāsati*, the desid. of *sani*. However, it is also possible that there was a laryngeal in the desid. -*s*- suffix, as proposed e.g. by Rasmussen (1997: 254), and thus the proto-form is **yi-yn-Hse-* as

³⁶ This form may have been created to disambiguate the regular form $v\bar{a}v_r tsva$, which could have been misinterpreted as belonging to the root $v_r t$. See also p. 170.

³⁷ For the distinction between the roots van_1 'win' and van_2 (van^i) 'love', see p. 162.

³⁸ See page 125.

shown also by such forms as $cik\bar{\imath}r\bar{\imath}ati$ from k_r (* k^ui - k^ur -Hse-), $y\acute{u}y\bar{u}\bar{\imath}a$ -(*iu-iu-Hse-) from yu 'bind' and $cik\bar{\imath}sa$ - (* k^ui - k^ui -Hse-) from ci 'consider'.

The stative ('t-less') middle-voice

The form $duh\hat{a}m$, from the root duh 'to (give) milk' is the only imperative form attested in the RV³⁹ derived from the IE stative (t-less) middle conjugation,⁴⁰ corresponding to the third pers. sing. and pl. present med. forms $duh\hat{e}$ and $duhr\hat{e}$. A unique imperfect form $\acute{a}duha$ is attested in the MS. The form $duh\hat{a}m$ is attested twice at 4.57.7c $s\acute{a}$ nah $p\acute{a}yasvat\bar{\iota}$ $duh\bar{a}m$ 'Let the milk-laden one give us milk' and 1.164.27c $duh\acute{a}m$ $a\acute{s}v\acute{t}bhy\bar{a}m$ $p\acute{a}yo$ $aghny\acute{e}y\acute{a}m$ 'may this milch-cow give milk for the Aśvins.'

The *-tāt* imperative

The $-t\bar{a}t$ imperative is quite rare in the Rigveda, there being only 21 separate attested forms⁴¹, two of which occur more than once in repeated pādas.

Semantically, it is something of a wildcard. It is always 2nd person, except in the late funeral hymn 10.154, in which the form *gachatāt* appears several times, all of which are apparently 3rd person.⁴² It is in all cases singular, except for 10.24.5cd, *násatyāv abruvan deváḥ, púnar á vahatād íti*, 'The gods said to the Nāsatyas, "Bring them back here", where it is dual, addressed to the Aśvins. 5.60.6cd, although directly addressed to Agni, could also be addressed to the Maruts, which would

³⁹ The form $ś ay \bar{a}m$ is attested in the AV, and $pad \bar{a}m$ in the AVP.

 $^{^{40}}$ These forms were first identified by Wackernagel (1907: 310ff). See Narten (1969), Oettinger (1976). The latter disagrees with Wackernagel's basic premise, that the mid. impf. (or inj.) stative form ended in *o, claiming that such forms as $\acute{a}duha$ are actually later innovations. This is based entirely on its appearing only in post-Rigvedic texts, no explanation having been given on how such an irregular form came to be introduced.

⁴¹ The attested forms are: avatāt (8.3.2c), oṣatāt (4.4.4b), kṛṇutāt (2.30.5d), carkṛtāt (1.104.5c), gachatāt (10.154.1-4d. 10.154.5d), dattāt (10.16.2b), dahatāt (3.18.1d), dhattāt (3.8.1c), punītāt (10.30.5d), bhavatāt (3.23.2d), yachatāt (1.48.15c), yācatāt (9.86.41d), rakṣatāt (4.50.2d), vahatāt (10.24.5d), vocatāt (5.61.18a), vittāt (5.60.6d), vītāt (10.11.8d), vṛhatāt (1.174.5c, 4.16.12d, in identical pādas), hinutāt (10.16.1d).

⁴² Oldenberg (1909: *ad loc.*) believes it to be 2nd pers. but also raises the possibility that it is 3rd pers.

make it plural: áto no rudrā utá vā nv àsya / ágne vittấd dhavíṣo yád yájāma 'From there, O Rudrās or Agni, take note now of this oblation of ours, which we will sacrifice.'43

The $-t\bar{a}t$ ending is generally attached to the present stem, however it occurs once with an aorist $-vocat\bar{a}t$ – and once with a perfect stem $-vitt\bar{a}t$. Both of these roots have very scant attestation of their present stems, and these are the principle, or indeed only, imperative stems, and thus exactly equivalent to the present stems of the other roots.

The $-t\bar{a}t$ forms are considered by most scholars to be a 'future imperative', although this tendency is most pronounced in the Brāhmaṇas. Thus Macdonell (1916: 348) says: 'The form in $-t\bar{a}d$ has a tendency in V. to express the more remote future, and in B. does so distinctly' while Whitney (1924: 214) claims that 'this form appears to have prevailingly in the Brāhmaṇas, and traceably but much less distinctly in the Vedic texts, a specific tense-value added to its mode-value – as signifying, namely, an injunction to be carried out at a later time than the present...' Renou (1952: 368), on the other hand, is less positive, saying only that 'L'impératif en $-t\bar{a}t$ n'a pas de valeur distinctive: toutefois, en tel ou tel passage ..., il dépend d'une condition qui doit d'abord se réaliser.'

It is true that there is a tendency for the *-tāt* impv. to appear in the apodosis of conditional or temporal clauses; eight of the attested examples appear thus, e.g.: 10.30.5d yád āsiñcá óṣadhībhiḥ punītāt 'when you pour them in, purify with grass', or 10.16.1cd-10.16.2ab yadá śṛtáṃ kṛṇávo jātavedó, áthem enam prá hiṇutāt pitŕbhyaḥ / śṛtáṃ yadá kárasi jātavedó, áthem enam pári dattāt pitŕbhyaḥ 'when you make him ready (i.e. cooked), O Jātavedas, send him to the fathers. When you have made him ready, entrust him to the fathers.' The 'futurity' of this latter example is assured by the next clause 10.16.2cd yadá gáchāty ásunītim etām, áthā devānāṃ vaśanīr⁴⁴ bhavāti 'when he goes on that path of life, then he will be led by the will of the gods', which appears to be the same structure but in the third person.

That said, it is hardly difficult to find similar clauses with regular imperatives: 10.38.2d yáthā vayám uśmási tád vaso kṛdhi, 'as we wish, that you (will) do', or 4.16.17cd ghorấ yád arya sámṛtir bhávāty, ádha smā nas tanvò bodhi gopấḥ 'when

⁴³ Translation based on Klein (1985: 1-283).

⁴⁴ For the meaning of *vaśani*- see Scarlata (1999: 290).

the fearsome collision shall come, O protector of the stranger, then become the protector of our bodies'. 45

The rest of the examples of the $-t\bar{a}t$ imperative appear to show no special semantic features to differentiate them from other imperative forms: e.g. 3.23.2cd ágne ví paśya bṛhatấbhí rāyấ, iṣấṃ no netấ bhavatād ánu dyấn 'O Agni, look here with great wealth, be our leader to refreshment daily', or the previously quoted example at 10.24.5d.

The modal agrist injunctive

As noted elsewhere, sigmatic and reduplicated aorists do not form a second person singular aorist imperative, and instead employ the second person singular of the aorist injunctive in the same function.

More problematic are four root aorists from roots ending in $-\bar{a}$: $dh\bar{a}$, $d\bar{a}_I$, $g\bar{a}$ and $sth\bar{a}$, which have no attested 2nd pers. impv. forms, despite the fact that other verbs of a similar root structure do, e.g. $p\bar{a}hi$ (both aor. impv. of $p\bar{a}_2$ 'drink' and pres. impv. of $p\bar{a}_1$ 'protect'), $y\bar{a}hi$ ($y\bar{a}$), $s\bar{a}hi$ ($s\bar{a}$), $v\bar{a}hi$ ($v\bar{a}$), $m\bar{a}hi$ ($m\bar{a}_I$ 'measure'). These four roots appear to have nothing in common phonologically which would act as a constraint to forming a 2nd pers. impv. form, and differentiate them from those that do. While it is possible to claim that in the case of $dh\bar{a}$, Grassmann's Law would have reduced a form $*dh\bar{a}hi^46$ to $*d\bar{a}hi$, thus creating confusion with an equally unattested form from the verb $d\bar{a}_I$, this doesn't explain the absence of an imperative from $sth\bar{a}$, although Grassmann's Law might in this case have created a form such as $*st\bar{a}hi$. It certainly does not explain the absence of $*g\bar{a}hi$.

It is not always simple to decide whether any individual occurrence of the injunctive is modal. Hoffmann (1967: 255-264) cites many examples which he considers ambiguous. Most examples could, if taken individually, be interpreted either as being modal or as belonging to Hoffmann's "general" category (*loc. cit.*: 135-145) e.g. 6.26.1cd sáṃ yád víśó 'yanta śūrasātā, ugráṃ nó 'vaḥ pārye áhan dāḥ 'When the tribes meet each other in battle, you give us mighty help on the crucial day', or 'give us mighty help on the crucial day'.

⁴⁵ Translation Klein (1985: 2-105).

⁴⁶ Most certainly not **dhihi, **dihi as suggested, e.g. by Jamison (1997).

Ideally, it should be possible to find some kind of formal sign as to whether a form is modal or not. Often there is none. However, there are three particles which do seem to be associated with modality and which occur often with the aorist injunctives in examples of this kind; $s\acute{a}$ (of the type known as $s\acute{a}$ -figé), $s\acute{u}$, and $t\acute{u}$. While the status of the former is somewhat controversial, it is apparent that it occurs practically exclusively with imperatives and imperative-like forms⁴⁷. Likewise $s\acute{u}$ is confined virtually always to modal formations, while $t\acute{u}$ mostly is.⁴⁸

As they are so common with unambiguous imperatives, I think it is justifiable to consider these as markers of modal injunctives.

Thus of 39 occurrences of the form $d\bar{a}h$, 17^{49} could be considered to be positive modals, the rest being either negative modal⁵⁰ (which of course are always unambiguous) or else belong to Hoffmann's historical or mythological class of injunctives.⁵¹ Of these 17, five are verb initial, and are not marked by either $s\hat{u}$ or $t\hat{u}$ (as $s\hat{a}$ -figé always occurs at the beginning of a pāda it cannot occur here). Of the remaining 12, one occurs with $t\hat{u}$: 1.169.4a $tv\hat{a}m$ $t\hat{u}$ na indra $t\hat{a}m$ $ray\hat{i}m$ $d\bar{a}h$ 'You give us that property, O Indra', one with $s\hat{u}$: 6.33.1a $y\hat{a}$ $\delta jistha$ indra $t\hat{a}m$ $s\hat{u}$ no $d\bar{a}h$ 'That (exhilaration) which is mightiest, O Indra, give that to us', and two have $s\hat{a}$ -figé: 5.33.6cd $s\hat{a}$ na $\hat{e}n\bar{u}m$ $vasav\bar{u}no$ $ray\hat{u}m$ $d\bar{u}h$ 'Give us colourful property' and 9.97.25cd $s\hat{a}$ nah $sah\hat{a}sr\bar{u}$ $brhat\hat{u}r$ $\hat{u}sol$ $\hat{u}sol$

⁴⁷ Jamison (1992) finds that of 180 occurrences of $s\acute{a}$ -figé, approx. 160 are associated with imperatives and other modals. A further ten examples occur as correlatives for $y\acute{a}$ - relatives, and there is a further residue of approx. 10 cases which can be explained by "solutions of varying degrees of ad hoc-ness". See also Klein (1996: 22).

⁴⁸ Klein (1982: 12) counts 223 examples of $s\acute{u}$, of which 130 occur with imperatives, 19 with subjunctives, 11 with optatives and 20 with injunctives, all of which he considers to be modal. $t\acute{u}$ occurs in 46 different sentences, of which 28 are in imperative clauses with expressed verb. Klein details secondary meanings of both of these particles, but the most characteristic occurrences are undoubtedly with imperatives and other modals.

⁴⁹ Verb initial: 2.2.7a, 3.24.5a, 7.1.5a, 10.85.38d, 10.148.4b, Verb not initial: 1.169.4a, 2.4.8d, 5.24.2b, 5.33.6c, 6.13.6b, 6.19.6d, 6.26.1d, 6.33.1a, 7.100.2b, 9.97.25c, 10.30.4c, 10.47.1d.

⁵⁰ 1.104.5d, 1.104.8a, 1.189.5d, 7.1.19a, 7.46.4a, 8.2.15b, 8.48.8d, 8.71.7a, 10.59.4a, 10.128.8d.

^{51 1.121.4}a, 6.20.7d. 6.351b is possibly a subjunctive.

thousand-fold, great refreshment, be the property-finder as you are purified, O Soma.'

In addition to this, several of the examples appear together with unambiguous imperative forms, like 9.97.25 above. While this is not necessarily a guarantee that the forms are in fact modal, it is at least a strong indication that they are, e.g. 6.19.6 śáviṣṭham na ấ bhara śūra śáva, ójiṣṭham ójo abhibhūta ugrám / víśvā dyumnấ vṛṣṇyā mắnuṣāṇām, asmábhyaṃ dā harivo mādayádhyai 'Bring us the mightiest might, the strongest strong strength, O Exceller. Give us all the mighty strength of men, O Bay-rider, so we may rejoice.', 5.24.1-2 ágne tváṃ no ántama utá trātá, śivó bhavā varūthyàḥ / vásur agnír vásuśravā áchā nakṣi, dyumáttamaṃ rayíṃ dāḥ 'Agni you are the closest to us and our protector. Become our wholesome shelter-giver. 52 Come here, (being) good Agni, with good fame. Give us brilliant wealth', and 3.24.5 ágne dấ dāśúṣe rayíṃ, vīrávantam párīṇasam / śiśīhí naḥ sūnumátaḥ 'Agni, give the devout wealth, an abundance of heroes. Sharpen us for sons.'

Again, it would not be impossible to interpret some of these as belonging to Hoffmann's 'general' category, e.g. 3.24.5, 'Agni, you give the devout wealth'.

The verb with the greatest number of instances of the modal injunctive is $dh\bar{a}$. The form $dh\bar{a}h$ occurs 45 times, of which 40 are probably modal.⁵³ Of the other five, four are "historical",⁵⁴ while one appears to be a subjunctive.⁵⁵

⁵² For an alternative translation see Klein (1985: 1-315).

⁵³ Verb initial: 6.19.10d. Verb not initial: 1.26.10c, 1.48.12c, 1.54.11a, 1.54.11d, 1.61.16c, 1.72.7b, 1.171.5c, 2.4.9d, 3.8.3d, 3.17.5d, 3.29.8d, 3.31.19d, 3.36.1a, 3.36.10.c, 3.51.6d, 3.56.6d, 4.6.11.b, 4.17.18b, 4.32.12c, 5.7.9.d, 5.36.5d, 5.83.7a, 6.4.4c, 6.10.6a, 6.13.5b, 6.40.1d, 6.47.9a, 6.47.30a, 7.20.10a, 7.24.5d, 7.77.6c, 7.79.5c, 9.8.8c, 9.90.6c, 10.46.10c, 10.69.3d.

⁵⁴ Verb initial: 3.30.3c, Verb not initial: 1.63.1b, 5.32.5d, 8.96.16d.

⁵⁵ Both dhāḥ and dāḥ occasionally seem to be subjunctive forms, e.g.: 3.28.5 ágne tṛtíye sávane hí kắniṣaḥ, puroḷásaṃ sahasaḥ sūnav ấhutam / áthā devéṣv adhvaráṃ vipanyáyā, dhấ rátnavantam amṛteṣu jāgṛvim 'Agni, you will enjoy the offered rice cake at the third pressing, O son of might. Then you will place the sacrifice among the gods, among the immortals, with approval, full of gifts, awake. 4.6.11ab ákāri bráhma samidhāna túbhyaṃ, śáṃsāty uktháṃ yájate vy ù dhāḥ 'The prayer has been made for you, O inflamed one. He will recite the incantation, and you will distribute to the sacrificer. One example of dāḥ which could possibly be subjunctive is: 6.35.1ab kadā bhuvan ráthakṣayāṇi bráhma, kadā stotré sahasrapoṣyàṃ dāḥ 'when will the priests take their seats in the chariot, when will you give the praiser thousandfold nourishment', however see Hoffmann (1967: 246). The translation of bráhma in this example follows Geldner, ad loc.

Interestingly, the negative modal syntagma * $m\tilde{a}$ dhāh never occurs.

Of the modal examples, nine appear with $s\acute{a}$ -figé, 56 and a further one example with $s\acute{u}$, 57 and many appear together with unambiguous imperatives, e.g. the following example, which exemplifies two of the three: 10.69.3cd $s\acute{a}$ revác choca $s\acute{a}$ gíro juṣasva, $s\acute{a}$ vấjaṃ darṣi $s\acute{a}$ ihá śrávo dhāḥ 'Burn richly, enjoy the songs, break out the booty, bring glory here'.

In the case of $sth\bar{a}$, the root-aorist second person singular injunctive is only attested twice, one of which is modal: 58 6.24.9bc $pr\acute{e}s\acute{o}$ yandhi $sutap\bar{a}van$ $v\'{a}j\bar{a}n$ / $sth\'{a}$ \bar{u} $s\'{u}$ \bar{u} $t\'{u}$ $t\'{u}$ t'

Here we have not only the particle $s \hat{u}^{59}$ to mark the modality, but also the presence of a second agrist imperative.

The last of the imperative-less ' $-\bar{a}$ ' aorists, $g\bar{a}h$, is attested eight times in the RV, four of which are modal.⁶⁰ Of the other four, three are negative modals,⁶¹ and one is 'mythical'.⁶² Of the modal examples, one has $s\hat{a}$ -figé: 7.62.2a $s\hat{a}$ $s\bar{u}$ rya $pr\hat{a}$ ti $pur\hat{o}$ na $u\hat{d}$ $g\bar{a}h$ - 'O Sūrya, rise again in front of us'.⁶³

The other group of injunctives which are commonly employed modally are those of verbs which cannot, for morphological reasons, form a 2nd pers. sing. aor. impv. These are primarily $-i\dot{s}$ - aorist forms, of which Hoffmann (1967: 264) quotes examples for the forms $av\bar{t}h$, $t\bar{a}r\bar{t}h$ (3x), $yodh\bar{t}h$ and $s\bar{a}v\bar{t}h$ (3x). Of these 6.25.1c

⁵⁶ 1.48.12c, 1.54.11a, 1.171.5c, 4.6.11b, 6.4.4c, 7.20.10a, 7.77.6c, 10.46.10c, 10.69.3d.

^{57 3.36.1}a.

⁵⁸ The other example is at: 4.30.12c.

⁵⁹ The particle u here is a sentence connector. For the combination \bar{u} $s\hat{u}$ see Klein (1982: 16ff.).

^{60 1.67.6}b, 4.16.9a, 7.62.2a, 10.56.3b.

^{61 3.53.2}a, 4.3.13a, 10.108.9c.

^{62 10.1.2}d.

⁶³ This despite Geldner's translation: 'Du, Sūrya, gehst vor uns wieder auf'. I believe, on the basis of the evidence here and below, that the presence of $s\acute{a}$ -fig\'e is enough to classify the example as modal.

 $t ilde{a}bhir \ u \ s u \ v_r trah at ye 'v v r \ na$ 'with that help us in the slaying of obstacles' and 10.120.3d $adah \ s u \ m adhu \ m adhu m adhu v \ yodh v \ have the particle <math>s u$. Aside from this, the usual mixture of injunctives and imperatives in many of the other examples at least gives a strong indication that they are modal too.

The reduplicated aorist injunctive may also be used modally. There are no examples of a second person singular reduplicated aorist imperative, unless Kümmel (2000: 298ff.) is correct in classifying $p\bar{t}pih\hat{t}$ as such.⁶⁴ An example of such usage is the form tatanah, from the root stan/tan 'to sound'. For the sole example of this form see p.148.

The thematic aorist injunctive is used modally, despite the apparent ability of this type of aorist to form imperatives. Thus we have both sadah (6x) / sada (5x), vocah (9x) / voca (1x), and vidah (4x) / vida (1x), As can be seen, the injunctive is more common than the imperative, and furthermore there is a tendency for the imperative forms to appear in later parts of the RV, suggesting that for some reason the formation of imperatives from this class of aorists was inhibited in the earlier language.

At the other end of the scale are some verbs which have commonly attested root-aorist imperatives. The verb śru, for instance, has no attested aorist injunctive forms at all. gam has only one attestation of the form gan (7.50.1b), which is a negative modal.

A case in point is the verb kr, which has the very widely attested aor. impv. krdhi, the most commonly attested of all of the aorist imperatives with 100 attestations. The aorist injunctive form kah is attested 28 times, of which only two examples are modal. It never occurs with $s\acute{a}$ or with $s\acute{a}$ -figé. Conversely, the imperative form krdhi occurs with these two modality-markers numerous times. As Hoffmann correctly points out, one of the occurrences of modal kah is a metrical variation of an otherwise almost identical line which contains the form krdhi:

tristubh 6.44.18b asmábhyam máhi várivah sugám kah

jagatī 1.102.4c asmábhyam indra várivah sugám kṛdhi

⁶⁴ See p. 134.

The other modal example is 1.164.49d *sárasvati tám ihá dhấtave kaḥ*, 'Sarasvatī, bring it here (for us) to suck.' This is undoubtedly modal and is very similar to other expressions of more or less the same meaning such as *kṛdhi arvấnc*- etc.

Of the other examples of the form kah, probably 15 are in fact third person, seven are negative modals and the remainder are either 'mythical' injunctives or are ambiguous and unclear.

The form $bh\bar{u}h$, which Hoffmann says has no certain modal examples, does nevertheless occur once with $s\acute{a}$ -figé (6.15.3a), thus making at least one example which I would consider modal, besides the impv. form $bodh\acute{t}$.

The conclusion must be, as previously shown by Hoffmann, that on the whole there is a complementary distribution between the aor. inj. and aor. impv. in cases where the imperative, for whatever reason, is missing.

The forms $dh\bar{a}h$, $d\bar{a}h$, $sth\bar{a}h$, and $g\bar{a}h$, could have their origins in full-grade, endingless, 2nd pers. sing. imperatives, $*dh\bar{a}$, $*sth\bar{a}$, and $*g\bar{a}^{65}$. W. Schulze (1892)⁶⁶ identified other endingless full-grade imperatives in Greek dialects, such as $\pi\omega$ and $\iota\sigma\tau\eta$, and Latin ce-do, which he compares to Lithuanian duo-k. Two out of these three examples are exactly parallelled by two of our four Vedic injunctive forms; $sth\bar{a}h$ and $d\bar{a}h$. It is likewise noteworthy that the verbs corresponding to $dh\bar{a}$ and $d\bar{a}$ in Greek lack the - $\theta\iota$ imperative, instead exhibiting the unusual forms $\theta\acute{e}\zeta$ and $\delta\acute{o}\zeta$. On the other hand, both have genuine third person imperatives, $\theta\acute{e}\tau\omega$ and $\delta\acute{o}\tau\omega$, corresponding to the attested Vedic forms $d\bar{a}tu$ and $dh\acute{a}tu$. The Vedic evidence would seem to indicate 2nd pers. $*dh\bar{a}$, 3rd pers. $dh\bar{a}tu$, etc. While the two paradigms are not directly comparable they do at least indicate that the second person imperative did not end in -dhi, while the third person form had the same normal ending as all other verbs.

In favour of this hypothesis is the fact that there really is no reasonable explanation for the lack of these imperative forms. Besides, irregularities of this

⁶⁵ See also Insler (1972²: 559). Such forms are also discussed by Dunkel (1985), on which see further discussion on page 95.

⁶⁶ Quoted in Dunkel (1985).

kind are usually best explained as archaisms rather than innovations.⁶⁷ Furthermore, all four of them are very common forms, which are more likely to preserve archaic morphology than less common ones.

The corresponding negative modal injunctives must have also played a role in this process, since the negative counterpart of the imperative $*d\bar{a}$ was $m\bar{a}$ $d\bar{a}s$. Thus confusion was probably inevitable and the highly irregular endingless imperative a prime candidate for reanalysis. The imperative use of the injunctive *could* have originated in this way,⁶⁸ but this doesn't seem to be a necessary step in our argument, as the fact that the injunctive is used in negative modals, and the fact that the second person plural imperative and injunctive are always identical, means that it would only take the most simple of analogies to move the second person singular injunctive into the imperative paradigm. Once the practice of using the injunctive as an imperative had taken hold, it spread to those verbs which do have a separate imperative form, and thus we see examples of forms such as $bh\bar{u}h$ and kah occasionally used in this way.

The -si imperative

There is a group of verb forms, fairly common in the Rigveda, which are formed from the full-grade, accented root and the ending -si. They function as imperatives, and on the basis of various evidence, can be shown to be acrists. Quite common in Vedic, there is also one example in Avestan, $d\bar{o}i\check{s}\bar{\imath}$, at Y.33.13a, from the verb dis (Ved. $di\hat{s}$), 'to show'.⁶⁹

Cardona (1965) provides a quite comprehensive survey of the existing forms. After drawing up a list of forms which he considers belong to this category, he splits them into three groups. Group 1 consists of the roots mad, yaj, dah, sah, ji and $n\bar{\imath}$, which have thematic presents and sigmatic aorists, e.g. $yaja-/yak\bar{\imath}$. Group 2 consists of three further roots -pr, $p\bar{r}$, and $r\bar{a}$, which have other types of presents and

⁶⁷ Dunkel (1985: 66) explicitly says that these forms belong to an *earlier* morphological layer than the zero grade forms.

⁶⁸ Insler (1972^{2:} 559) suggests that the agrist injunctive form $yodh\bar{\imath}s$, used modally at 10.120.3cd is in fact formed on the basis of the anomalous imperative form $y\acute{o}dhi$.

⁶⁹ Kellens (1995: 30), under dis.

sigmatic aorists, e.g. $prn ilde{a}ti/pras$ -. His third group consists of dr, yam, $m\bar{a}$, ksi, r^{70} $v\bar{v}$, jus, sad, sru, yudh, hu, caks, nas and rad, which do not have sigmatic aorists. Despite the relatively large number of roots in the third group, the forms in the first and second groups account for 112 occurrences of the -si imperative, or over two thirds of the total number of attested instances. Thus, he justifies the classification of the -si imperative as part of the sigmatic aorist system.

Next, Cardona goes on to show that very often, third person commands or requests are made by means of the subjunctive. In particular, this is true in the case of the sigmatic aorist system, because of the lack of a third person aorist imperative form for these stems, and the forms of the type yaksi supply second person singular aorist imperatives corresponding to the third person singular aorist subjunctives of the type yaksat — a result of the levelling of the contrast between the subjunctive and the imperative which took place within the sigmatic system (1965: 10). This correlation, or, as Cardona sees it, the usage of an originally imperative form in a subjunctive function (1965: 9), is furthermore assured by the usage of -si forms in relative clauses, for which see p. 59 below.

Szemerényi (1966) takes the opposite view. While he accepts Cardona's basic premise that the -si imperative belongs to the sigmatic aorist, he suggests that these forms are originally subjunctives which have come to be used as imperatives, again primarily basing his argument on the fact that these forms may appear in subordinate clauses. More precisely, he claims that the -si forms are in fact the result of a haplology of the original -sasi subjunctive ending - this latter only being attested in one case – darṣasi. Thus, while the 3rd sing. may either end in -sat or -sati, the 2nd sing. regularly ends either in -sas or -si. In this, as he himself notes, he is accepting an idea which was specifically rejected by Cardona (1965: 9).

Watkins (1968: 140ff.) sees the *-si* imperative forms as inherited from Indo-European, and compares them to the Greek sigmatic aorist imperatives in $-\sigma ov$, as in, e.g. Homeric $\lambda \dot{\epsilon} \xi ov$, $\delta \dot{\epsilon} \iota \xi ov$, etc., noting that the Greek sigmatic aorist, like its Vedic counterpart, cannot take the 2nd sing. aor. impv. ending *-dhi/-θt*.

Watkins analyses the forms as full-grade root + s + i, where i is the deictic particle, presumably the same one as seen in the primary indicative endings -mi, -si

⁷⁰ See footnote 98, below.

and *-ti*. He considers these forms to be morphologically identical to the 3rd sing. medio-passive, both of which he describes, following Kuryłowicz, as 'zero-person'.

Bammesberger (1983) rejects Watkins analysis, on the grounds that the particle -i is found only in primary endings and is thus excluded both from the sigmatic aorist and from the imperative. However, he accepts the idea of the haplology of the subjunctive, but only in the cases where the -si forms occur in relative clauses. For the rest of the forms, Bammesberger suggests that there was an imperative morpheme -i, which was added to the full-grade stem to produce such forms as $y \circ dhi$, bodhi and $j \circ si$. This -i was then transferred to the sigmatic aorist by analogy.⁷¹

Further afield, Jasanoff (1986 and 1987) has claimed to have found similar forms in Old Irish, Tocharian, and possibly Hittite, Old Prussian and Messapic. See under *śroṣi, joṣi* and *nakṣi*, and page 62.

There are several difficulties with these forms, not the least of which is identifying them, as there are several other forms which can end in -si, such as the 2nd sing. of root presents, the 1st sing. s-aor. med., and the 3rd sing. aor. medio-passive, a fact considered significant by Watkins (1968) (see above). Some verbs have more than one of these homophonous forms.

Each scholar who has dealt with the subject has produced a different list of extant forms. This work will take as a starting point 26 of the 27 forms appearing in Lubotsky (1997)⁷².

⁷¹ Jasanoff (2002) comes to precisely the opposite conclusion, that the forms *bodhi* and *yódhi* were created by analogy to josi, and the -i subsequently reanalysed as an -i imperative morpheme. See page 26.

⁷² I am omitting consideration of the form $v\acute{a}msi$, which is not a -si imperative. This form appears neither in Cardona's list of forms, nor in other lists quoted by Cardona in his paper. It is however classified as a -si imperative by Lubotsky (1997¹).

Narten (1964: 235) and Geldner both consider it to be a 1st pers. middle injunctive, and indeed it is difficult to see how it can be considered an imperative. It occurs once at 5.70.1 purūrūnā cid dhy ásty, ávo nūnām vām varuna / mítra vāmsi vām sumatím 'Because it exists so widely, I would win your grace now, O Varuna, your goodwill, O Mitra.'

caksi 'show, look'

Root: caks; pres. caste; aor. -; no. of occurrences: 2

Occurs at 7.3.6d and 9.97.33a. This is one of only two active forms of this root, the other being the injunctive present form *cakṣur*. The examples are: 7.3.6cd *divó* ná te tanyatúr eti śúṣmaś, citró ná sắraḥ práti cakṣi bhānúm, 'Your hissing comes like thunder from heaven, show your brilliance, being bright like the sun,' and 9.97.33ab divyáḥ suparṇó 'va cakṣi soma, pínvan dhắrāḥ kármaṇā devávītau, 'Look (down) like the heavenly eagle, O Soma, fattening your streams with a sacrificial act at the divine feast'.

ghósi 'listen'

Root: ghus; pres. ghosati; aor. -; no. of occurrences: 2

This form is controversial. Cardona (1965) mentions it in a footnote, but as it has been considered an imperative in the past, especially by Geldner, and as it appears as an imperative in Lubotsky (1997¹), it should be considered here too.

The two passages in which it appears are 4.4.8a árcāmi te sumatím ghóṣy arvā́k 'I sing to your goodwill, listen here' and 6.5.6d táj juṣasva jaritúr ghóṣi mánma 'favour this (song) of the singer, listen to his prayer'.

Grassmann treats the first as a 3rd pers. sing. medio-passive, and the second as an adjective. Cardona (1965) agrees with Grassmann on the second example, as does Oldenberg (1909: 1, 270) who interprets both passages as 'lauttönend'. The small number of occurrences of this form and the large number of possibilites preclude a decisive definition.

It is possible that this is in both cases an imperative (see also page 27). However, as the verb has no other attested agrist forms we would have to resort to explaining it as having been formed by analogy from other imperatives of this type.

chantsi 'appear'

Root: *chand*; pres. *chadáyati*; aor. *achān*, *chantsat*; no. of occurrences: 1 The form *chantsi* only occurs once, at 1.163.4c *utéva me váruṇaś chantsy arvan*,

'and appear to me as Varuna, O swift horse'.

Earlier scholars, such as Whitney (1924) and Macdonell (1916) classed this form as a root present, but the existence of several s-aorist forms indicates that this is a *-si* imperative.⁷³

jési 'win'

Root: ji; pres. jáyati; aor. ajaiṣam, jeḥ; no. of occurrences: 7

This form is clearly derived from the sigmatic aorist stem *jaiṣ/jeṣ*. As usual, it bears a strong resemblance to the subj. aorist *jéṣat*. The form appears at 1.132.4, 2.30.8, 2.30.9, 3.54.22, 6.45.15, 9.4.1 and 9.44.6, e.g. 9.4.1ab *sánā ca soma jéṣi ca pávamāna máhi śrávaḥ*, 'Win and conquer great fame (for us), O purified Soma',74 where it is clearly an imperative.

jósi 'like'

Root: jus; pres. -; aor. jusa-; no. of occurrences: 3, of which two are repeated.

All the forms of this verb appear to be aorist, 75 with the addition of some perfect forms. A present stem *juṣa*- was later built on the basis of the aorist. 76

Given the pervasive association between the aorist subjunctive forms in -sat and the imperatives in -si, we can recognise the existence of a similar pattern here. Cardona (1965: 14) suggests that $j\acute{o}si$ is derived from $j\acute{o}sat$, which itself appears to be part of a root aorist system, as is the form $ajus_i ran$, whereas most other forms derive from a thematic aorist stem $jus_i a$ -. This derivation is possible, given the absence of any other sigmatic forms for this root. Others, the most recent of whom appears to be Narten (1964: 120), have attempted to explain $j\acute{o}sat$ as being derived from $j\acute{o}si$. Furthermore, it is possible that this form was created analogically on the basis of $j\acute{e}sat/j\acute{e}si$.

⁷³ See Narten (1964:115), Joachim (1978: 79).

⁷⁴ Translation Klein (1985: 2-72).

⁷⁵ As well as the common root agrist forms of this verb, one $-i\dot{s}$ agrist form exists, $j\acute{o}sisat$, at RV 2.35.1.

⁷⁶ Gotō (1987: 154, fn. 242).

The most far-reaching study of the origin of this form is that of Jasanoff (1986), who sees an exact cognate for this form in the Old Irish *tog*, which, he claims, derives from *togŏss with loss of final i. See also nakṣi and śroṣi.

Another imperative form from the same stem, $jos\bar{a}$, is attested once, for which see p. 27 and p. 113.⁷⁷

For the possibility that the form *jóṣi* gave rise to the forms *bodhi* (*budh*) and *yódhi* see also page 26.

dársi 'pierce'

Root: $dr/d\bar{r}$; Pres. -78; aorist: darsa-; No. of occurences: 10

The root d_r has several s-aorist forms, including darṣat and darṣasi, and also has what are classified as root aorist injunctive forms, dar, and $dart.^{79}$ The existence of these forms would seem to undermine the assertion of Cardona (1965: 8) that the possible classification of yakṣi, parṣi, satsi, yamṣi and darṣi (the -si imperative forms which can appear in relative clauses) as presents 'would have some support' in the case of darṣi, unless dar and dart were themselves considered to be present injunctives, as for one verb to have both a root present and a root aorist would be inconceivable. The verb would accordingly have a root present, with attested forms dar, dart and darṣi, and a sigmatic aorist with a -si imperative.

It is also conceivable that *dar* and *dart* are themselves sigmatic agrist forms, *dars-s and *dar-s-t.

Most of the examples of $dar si^{80}$ are to be classified as imperatives, e.g. $8.24.4~\tilde{a}$ nirekám utá priyám, índra dár si jánānām / dhṛ satā dhṛ sṇo stávamāna ā bhara, 'Boldly break out the exclusive and private (possession) of the people, O bold Indra, and, being praised, bring it here to us,' where the parallelism between the forms \bar{a} -dar si and \bar{a} -bhar \bar{a} is obvious.

⁷⁷ See under *parși* and *neși* for other, similar forms.

⁷⁸ Werba (1997: §414), gives *dṛṇāti*, although this form is not attested in the Rigveda. This verb does have an intensive present *dardarti*.

⁷⁹ The forms *dar-s and *dar-t would both regularly yield dah (cf. kah from *kar-s and *kar-t), so the latter form must have been rebuilt in a similar way to aprata (see prasi).

^{80 8.24.4; 1.110.9, 4.16.8; 5.39.3; 6.33.3; 8.6.23; 8.33.3; 9.68.7; 10.69.3.}

The one exception is 6.26.5ab, where the form *darṣi* occurs in a relative clause. See p. 59.

dhákṣi 'burn'

Root: dah; pres. dahati; aor. dhaksa-; no. of occurrences: 4

This form appears 3 times, together with the further appearance of a form daksi.

Examples are: 1.76.3ab prá sú vísvān rakṣáso dhákṣy agne, bhávā yajñắnām abhiśastipắvā, 'Burn up all the Rakṣasas, O Agni, become the defender of the sacrifices from curses', 4.4.4 úd agne tiṣṭha práty ấ tanuṣva, ny àmítrām oṣatāt tigmahete / yó no árātim samidhāna cakré, nīcấ tám dhakṣy atasám ná śúṣkam, 'O Agni, stand up, spread yourself wide, burn our enemies to the ground, sharp-projectile-wielder, he who committed a hostile act against us, O Ignited one, burn him to the ground like dry bushes.' The parallel between (b) and (d) shows again that this form was considered equivalent to an imperative. Strikingly similar is 6.18.10ab agnír ná súṣkaṃ vánam indra hetī, rákṣo ní dhakṣy aśánir ná bhīmấ, 'Like fire (or Agni) burns dry wood, Indra, with your weapon, burn to the ground the Rakṣas like a terrifying thunderbolt.'

Finally, in 2.1.10c appears the form dakṣi: tváṃ ví bhāsy ánu dakṣi dāváne, 'you shine out, ... to give'. Geldner thinks this is the -si form from dakṣ, translating 'sei bereit(?) zu schenken'. This interpretation is made difficult both by the fact that there is no s-aorist attested from this verb, and by the fact that there is no attested combination of anu-dakṣ. Although the combination anu-dah does exist, the semantics make this interpretation difficult. Grassmann suggests the form may be a vocative. For the present, at least, it seems this form must remain unclear.

naksi 'come, reach'

Root: naś; pres. aśnoti; aor. ānat (root aorist); no. of occurrences: 1

This form appears once, at 5.24.2b \acute{a} chā nakṣi dyumáttamaṃ rayíṃ dāḥ 'Come here, give us the most shining property'.

All the other attested aorist forms of this verb in the Rigveda are root aorists. However, there exists for this verb a derivative present stem *nakṣa*-. Gotō (1987: 191-192), citing the Young Avestan form *nāšəmna* (~ *nakṣa-māna*-), states that this form originated in the Proto-Indo-Iranian period, and quotes Narten (1964: 160): "Ob es sich hier um eine alte Wurzelerweiterung handelt oder ob das sa-Präs. vielleicht Weiterentwicklung eines ursprünglichen sa-Konj. darstellt, läßt sich aus

dem vedischen Material nicht mehr ersehen." Despite this, the presence of such 'sigmatic' forms as these, including the attested forms *nakṣat* and *nakṣati*, would provide an ideal environment for the creation of an imperative form in -si, on the basis of such pairs as *yakṣat/yakṣi*.81

Jasanoff (1986), meanwhile, assigns an even earlier, PIE, date to this form, comparing it directly to the Old Irish *tair*, which he derives from **to-ar-inksi*.

néși 'lead'

Root: nī; pres. nayati; aor. anaista, nesat; no. of occurrences: 10

This verb is conjugated, both in the present and the aorist, in a very similar way to the verb ji, and like $j\acute{e}si/j\acute{e}sat$ from ji, shows the pair $n\acute{e}si/n\acute{e}sat$. All aorist forms of this verb in the Rigveda are sigmatic, although in the Atharvaveda there is an -is aorist form $\acute{a}nay\bar{\imath}t$. Furthermore, two athematic forms exist, $neth\acute{a}$ and $\acute{a}n\bar{\imath}t\bar{a}m$, which have not been satisfactorily explained, although perhaps they should be classed together with the similarly difficult form jitam, from ji.

The form *neṣi* appears 10 times,⁸² e.g.: 3.15.3c *váso néṣi ca párṣi cấty áṃhaḥ* 'Lead us, O good one, and pass us over troubles', in which also note the presence of another *-si* imperative, *pársi*.

An imperative form *neṣa*, similar to *joṣa* and *parṣa*, is attested at Atharvaveda 7.97.2.

pársi 'pass, bring'

Root: pr; pres. piparti; aor. parṣat;83 no. of occurrences: 1684

This is one of the commoner examples of the -si imperative, which, in the light of the widely attested sigmatic agrist forms of the verb p_i , leaves little room for doubt

⁸¹ See śru(s) for a similar example.

^{82 1.31.18; 1.91.1; 1.129.5; 2.1.16; 2.2.13; 3.15.3; 5.42.4; 6.47.8; 6.61.14; 8.16.12.}

⁸³ As well as the sigmatic aorist, which is the most commonly attested, this verb has -is-aorist forms ($p\tilde{a}risat$) and redupliced aorist forms ($ap\bar{\imath}paran$). This latter form is the only indicative (augmented) form attested for this verb. All the others are subjunctives, and the -si imperatives.

^{84 1.129.5; 1.174.9; 2.7.2; 2.33.3; 3.15.3; 5.3.11; 5.4.9; 6.4.8; 6.20.12; 6.48.10; 7.23.2; 8.67.11; 8.97.15; 8.103.7; 9.1.3; 9.70.10.}

as to its morphological affiliation. All of the other attested sigmatic forms of this verb are subjunctives, a fact which has provided ammunition to those wishing to derive the -si forms from the aorist subjunctive. The ubiquitous pairing of -si/-sat forms is well attested for this verb too; parṣi/parṣat.

Another imperative is also attested, $parṣ\bar{a}$, at 1.97.8ab $s\acute{a}$ $na\rlap/n$ $s\acute{i}ndhum$ iva $n\bar{a}v\acute{a}y\bar{a}$ -, $-\acute{a}ti$ $parṣ\bar{a}$ $svast\acute{a}ye$ 'Bring us over like with a ship over a river for wellbeing'. The semantics, plus the fact that this form appears to occur in a $s\acute{a}$ +impv. construction, leave little doubt that this is an imperative.85

The form *parsi* occurs once in a relative clause, for which see p. 59.

prási 'fill'

Root: $p\bar{r}_1$; pres. $p_rn\bar{a}ti$; aor. $\acute{a}pr\bar{a}s$ (3rd sing. sigmatic); no. of occurrences: 2

This form is attested twice, 1.42.9 and 8.1.23, both times in the expression $pr\bar{a}sy$ udáram 'fill (our) stomach'. In the former example, the form is part of a remarkable string of imperatives, for which see p. 138.

In the light of the context in which it occurs, there can be little doubt either as to the root from which this form is derived, or that it is part of the sigmatic aorist system.

bhakşi 'share'

Root: bhaj; pres. bhajati/-te; aor. bhaks-; no. of occurrences: 1

The only occurrence of this form is at 7.41.2d:

prātarjítam bhágam ugrám huvema

vayám putrám áditer yó vidhartá l

ādhráś cid yám mányamānas turáś cid

rấjā cid yám bhágam bhaksíty ấha ||

'We would like to call Bhaga, the morning-victor, the mighty one, the son of Aditi, who is the distributor, to whom even he who considers himself weak, even he who is powerful, even a king says: "Share the fortune".

This is a somewhat ambiguous example. Geldner sees this as a first person middle injunctive, while the absence of this example from Hoffmann (1967) indicates that he probably considered it to be an imperative. Semantically, the

⁸⁵ For an account of these forms, see p. 26, Narten (1964: 48, 163,171), and Cardona (1966: 13-14, 17).

imperative strikes me as the better option. In later texts this root also has a reduplicating aorist.

mátsi 'exhilarate'

Root: mad; pres. mádati; aor. matsa-; no. of occurrences: 15

This verb has numerous sigmatic aorist forms, including the characteristic pair *matsat/matsi*. Fifteen obviously imperative examples exist.⁸⁶

As this verb is associated with Soma, it occurs mostly in Book 9, and almost all of the examples are contained within the two verses 9.90.5 and 9.47.42, which also share a line in common. For a translation of 9.90.5, and more on the semantics of the form *mátsi*, see p. 146.

māsi 'measure'

Root: mā; pres. mimīte; aor. māhi, māsi, māsva; no. of occurrences: 5

This form occurs 5 times.⁸⁷ The only attested agrist forms of this verb are the imperatives $m\bar{a}hi^{88}$ and $m\bar{a}sva$, and the form $m\bar{a}si$.

An example of māsi is 1.92.7cd prajāvato nrváto áśvabudhyān, úṣo góagrām úpa māsi vấjān 'measure out booty, rich in offspring and men, with horses at the bottom and with cows on top, O Uṣas', which is identical in meaning to the root-aorist imperative māhi, 4.22.10b asmábhyaṃ citrām úpa māhi vấjān 'to us, measure out shining booty.'

Māsi can occur among other imperatives, e.g. 2.17.7cd kṛdhí praketám úpa māsy á bhara, daddhí bhāgáṃ tanvò yéna māmáhaḥ 'Make light, share out, bring here, give a share of your self, with which you will be bountiful.' All the examples of both forms appear with the preverb upa.

In later texts, a sigmatic agrist arose for this verb, apparently on the basis of the form $m\bar{a}si.^{89}$

^{86 1.9.1; 1.175.1; 1.176.1; 9.90.5}a (x2); 9.90.5b; 9.90.5c (x2); 9.90.5d; 9.94.5b; 9.97.42a; 9.97.42b; 9.97.42c (x2); 9.97.42d.

^{87 1.92.7; 1.142.2; 2.17.7; 8.71.9; 9.76.3.}

⁸⁸ Three occurrences, at 4.22.10; 7.26.5 and 10.28.12.

⁸⁹ Narten (1964: 47).

yákşi 'sacrifice, worship'

Root: yaj; pres. yajati/te; aor. $ay\bar{a}h$ (2nd sing. ind.), $yak\bar{s}at$; no. of occurrences: 3390

Yakṣi is the most common *-si* imperative form, and like *vakṣi*, the second-most common, presents few problems.⁹¹ All of the aorist forms of this verb are sigmatic. For examples and further information see p. 153.

yámsi 'grant, extend'

Root: yam; pres. yachati; aor. áyāṃsam, yaṃsat, yamat; no. of occurrences: 4
This verb is well attested both in root and sigmatic aorists, and the form yaṃsi exists alongside the somewhat more common root aorist imperative yandhí.

This is another form which appears in the string of imperatives at 1.42.9 (see p. 138), thus cementing its status as an aorist imperative. The other two examples are at 5.36.4 and 3.1.22.

It also appears once in a relative clause, at 1.63.8, for which see p. 59.

yótsi 'fight'

Root: yudh; pres. yúdhyati; aor. yódhat, áyodhīt; no. of occurrences: 1

This verb has no sigmatic aorist forms at all in the Rigveda, and Narten (1964: 215) only quotes one form, *yutsmahi*, from the Atharvaveda. Even the eminently derivable form **yotsat* fails to appear, leaving the single attestation of *yotsi* as a lone, obviously analogically derived, oddity. The form appears at 1.132.4e *asmábhyam jeṣi yótsi ca* 'for us win and fight', together with the form *jeṣi*, on the basis of which it was probably derived ad hoc.

rátsi 'dig'

Root: rad; pres. radati; aor. -; no. of occurrences: 1

^{90 1.13.1; 1.14.1; 1.31.17; 1.36.6; 1.75.5; 1.105.13; 1.142.11; 2.3.3; 2.6.8; 2.36.4; 3.4.1; 3.14.5; 3.17.2; 3.17.3; 5.26.1; 5.28.5; 6.4.1; 6.16.2; 6.16.9; 6.16.24; 6.48.4; 7.9.5; 7.9.6; 7.11.3; 7.16.5; 7.17.3; 7.39.4; 8.102.16; 10.1.6; 10.70.4; 10.70.9; 10.110.3; 10.110.9.}

⁹¹ There is one attested occurrence of *yakşi* in a relative clause in Taittirīya-Saṃhitā 2.16.12.5, but not in the Rigveda. Also, for the very interesting 3rd dual form *yakṣatām*, see p. 153.

This verb, meaning 'to dig, to clear (a way)' has, apart from this form, no other attested aorist forms. Joachim (1978: 142) compares the forms of this verb to those of *mad*, which as well as the forms *madati* and *matsi* has other attested sigmatic aorist forms. This may, then, be a case where other sigmatic forms existed but our limited documentation of the language doesn't include them.

The one occurrence of the form $r\acute{a}tsi$ is at 5.10.1cd $pr\acute{a}$ no $r\bar{a}y\acute{a}$ $p\acute{a}r\bar{\iota}nas\bar{a}$, $r\acute{a}tsi$ $v\acute{a}j\bar{a}ya$ $p\acute{a}nth\bar{a}m$ 'with wealth and abundance⁹² clear the way to booty'. In this example the imperative nature of the form is also well supported by the appearance of \acute{a} bhara in (a).

rāsi 'give'

Root: rā; pres. rirīhi; aor. rāsat; no. of occurrences: 1093

The reduplicated present of this root is not particularly well attested, outside of the imperative $rir\bar{\imath}hi$. The verb has a strongly attested sigmatic aorist, which lacks indicative forms, but in which we find the usual threesome $r\bar{\imath}asat / r\bar{\imath}asi / r\bar{\imath}asva$. Beginning in the Rigveda, but more so in later texts, a new thematic present $r\bar{\imath}asa$ -was derived from the aorist subjunctive forms such as $r\bar{\imath}asate$. ⁹⁴

The passage 2.11.13-14 contains 4 examples of the form; almost half of those in existence:

2.11.13d asmé rayím rāsi vīrávantam

2.11.14a rấsi ksáyam rấsi mitrám asmé

rấsi śárdha indra mấrutam nah

'Give us property, consisting of men, give us a dwelling place, give us a covenant. Give us a Marut army, O Indra.'

⁹² For the meaning of $p\'{a}r\bar{n}as$, and for the formula $r\bar{a}y\'{a}$ $p\'{a}r\bar{n}as\bar{a}$, see Lubotsky (1988). Cf. p. 39.

^{93 1.140.12; 2.11.13; 2.11.14}a (2x); 2.11.14b; 2.33.12; 3.4.1; 6.4.8; 7.95.6; 9.9.9.

⁹⁴ Joachim (1978: 143-144), Cardona (1965: 17), Narten (1964: 219-221), Gotō (1986: 79, 83).

vaksi 'bring, carry'

Root: vah; pres. vahati/te; aor. ávāt, vakṣat; no. of occurrences: 2495

Narten (1964: 240), cites Lat. $v\bar{e}xi$, and Cypriot Greek $E_F \in E_E \in E$ to show that this is a very ancient sigmatic formation. To this LIV² adds Old Church Slavonic otb- $v\check{e}sta$. Nearer to hand we also have Avestan (uz-) $uua\check{z}a\underline{t}$, which corresponds exactly to Vedic (ud-)vaksat.

Virtually all of the existing agrist forms of this verb are sigmatic, 96 making this form both one of the best attested, and one of the least problematic.

Two examples of this form are listed under *satsi*. The addressee of these forms is usually Agni, requesting that he bring the gods to the sacrifice. Hence the prevalence of the formulations such as 2.36.4 *á vakṣi devám ihá vipra yákṣi ca*, which account for approx. half of the total occurrences of this form, and also the common proximity of other *-si* imperatives *satsi* and *yakṣi*, other actions associated with Agni in his sacrificial role.

vési 'pursue'

Root: $v\bar{i}$; pres. veti; aor. vesat; no. of occurrences: 5^{97}

Veṣi, strictly speaking, is the 2nd sing. pres. of the verb $v\bar{\imath}$ 'to pursue.' However, there is little doubt that it is sometimes used imperatively, and as witness to this, we have the aorist subjunctive form *veṣat*. These two are the only aorist forms existing for this verb.

⁹⁵ Lubotsky (1997¹) shows 24 examples of this form, while both Narten (1964) and Cardona (1965) mention 25 examples without listing them. The form *vakṣi* is also the second pers. sing. present of the verb *vaś*, and it is attested twice in the Rigveda, so it is possible that one of these occurrences was originally assigned to the list. The occurrences listed by Lubotsky (1997¹) are; 1.188.3; 2.3.11; 2.26.4; 3.4.1; 3.7.9; 3.14.2; 3.15.5; 5.1.11; 5.4.4; 5.9.1; 5.26.1; 5.43.10; 6.15.18; 6.16.2; 6.47.9; 7.1.18; 7.78.1; 8.54.6; 8.102.16; 10.3.7; 10.70.3; 10.70.10; 10.73.4

⁹⁶ A couple of root imperative forms also exist: $volh\acute{a}m$ and $volh\acute{a}m$. There have been attempts in the past (Debrunner, Nachtr. zu Wackernagel I 275, 8) to explain these forms as sigmatic. Narten disagrees with this on the grounds that the sigmatic forms should most likely have full-grade in the root. LIV² ascribes them to the root present, on semantic grounds. See also p. 164.

⁹⁷ Once again we have a disagreement on the number of attested forms, Lubotsky (1997¹) giving five, while Cardona (1965) mentions four. With a form this ambiguous, this is hardly surprising. The five forms mentioned by Lubotsky are: 1.76.4; 4.9.5; 4.9.6; 6.4.8; 7.16.5.

Examples include 6.4.8a-c nú no agne 'vṛkébhiḥ svastí, véṣi rāyáḥ pathíbhiḥ párṣy áṃhaḥ / tấ sūríbhyo gṛṇaté rāsi sumnám 'Now seek out for us on safe ('wolffree') roads well being, property. Bring us over troubles. Give these to our patrons, (and give) goodwill to the singer', where the presence of véṣi in the same sentence as two other -si imperatives would make it hard to interpret it any other way. Likewise 7.16.5d yákṣi véṣi ca vấryam 'Make an offering, and seek desirable things' is hardly mistakable as being an imperative.98

śrósi 'hear'

Root: śru; pres. śrnóti; aor. aśravam, aśrot; no. of occurrences: 1

This verb, in the Rigveda, has almost exclusively root aorist forms. The form śroṣi and the subjunctive form śroṣan, are the only sigmatic forms. In the later language, the root aorist dies out (Narten 1964: 260) and is replaced by sigmatic forms such as aśrausam, aśrausīs, etc.

Here, therefore, we must conclude that the -si imperative was formed by analogy. Jasanoff (1987) not only assumes this, but places the derivation in the PIE period, based on the existence of a Tocharian form $(p\ddot{a})klyau\dot{s}$, which he compares directly with Vedic śrosi.

Furthermore, he explains the secondary stem $\pm srosa$ - as having been derived from a sigmatic aorist subjunctive, in a similar way to the stems naksa- and $r\bar{a}sa$ -, but also as early as the PIE period. This extended root appears widely in other Indo-European languages, forms appearing in LIV² include, with varying levels of certainty, the unclear Avestan form $saraos\bar{a}n\bar{e}$, Lithuanian klausti (which is shown by its accentuation to be a desiderative and which actually means 'to ask'), and

klausýti, Tocharian B klyauṣāṃ, Old Church Slavic slyša, Old High German (h)losēn, etc.

The form śrośi is attested once at 6.4.7ab tvấm hí mandrátamam arkaśokaír, vavṛmáhe máhi naḥ śróṣy agne 'For we have chosen you, the most delightful, with bright flames (or 'song-flames?'), hear our great (song), O Agni'.

sátsi 'sit'

Root: sad; pres. sīdati; aor. asadat; no. of occurrences: 12

The forms *satsi* and *satsat* are the only sigmatic aorist forms existing for this verb. Narten (1964) and Cardona (1965: 11) both believe the latter to have been formed from the former on the basis of such pairs as *yakṣi / yakṣat. Satsat* occurs only once, and so perhaps is rightfully termed an *Augenblicksbildung* on the basis of *satsi* by Narten (*op. cit.*: 262).

The form appears in contexts such as 1.12.4c devaír á satsi barhíṣi 'With the gods, sit on the sacrificial grass'. The god sitting on the sacrificial grass is of course a recurring theme in the Rigveda, and this form satsi barhiṣi occurs in seven out of the ten occurrences of this form. In two of the remaining three, satsi occurs together with the form vakṣi, e.g. 3.14.2cd vidvām á vakṣi vidúṣo ní ṣatsi, mádhya á barhír ūtáye yajatra 'Being wise, bring the wise ones here, sit in the middle on the altar grass . . .' where the altar grass is of course also the object of satsi, albeit with slightly different wording.

The forms *satsi* occurs in a relative clause at 3.30.18bc. See p. 59.

saksi 'defeat'

Root: sah; pres. sahate; aor. asākṣi, sakṣat; no. of occurrences: 1

Most of the sigmatic agrist forms of these verbs derive from the stem $s\bar{a}k\bar{s}$ -,99 and, according to Narten (1964: 264ff.), those which derive from the stem $sak\bar{s}$ -originate from the -si imperative form $sak\bar{s}i$. These are (predictably) $sak\bar{s}at$ and $sak\bar{s}va$, 100 The verb also has root agrist forms, e.g. optative $sahy\bar{a}h$, and - $i\bar{s}$ - agrist forms, such as asahista.

⁹⁹ For the possibility that this was originally a perfect stem and that the aorist forms are analogically derived from it see p. 30 and p. 176.

¹⁰⁰ See also p. 176 for the possibility that the form sáksva may be derived from the root sac.

The sole appearance of the form <code>sakṣi</code> is at the unfortunately very unclear 5.33.2cd <code>yā</code> <code>itthā</code> <code>maghavann</code> <code>ánu</code> <code>jóṣaṃ</code>, <code>vákṣo</code> <code>abhí</code> <code>prāryáḥ</code> <code>sakṣi</code> <code>jánān</code>, translated by Geldner as 'Komm hierher, du Freigebiger, nach deinem Wohlgefallen; fahre her, werde mit den vornehmen (Nebenbuhlern), den (anderen) Leuten fertig!'. ¹⁰¹ Despite all the difficulties of this passage, <code>jánān</code> and <code>aryás</code> are probably the direct object of <code>prá-sakṣi</code>, the meaning being 'defeat the people of the stranger.' This translation is necessary since <code>ari</code> is not an adjective but a masculine noun, and thus <code>aryás</code> is best seen as being its gen. sing, rather than an acc. pl. in concord with <code>jánān</code>. It is possible that they are two nouns in apposition, but 'defeat the strangers, the people' makes far less sense than the previous alternative.

stoși 'praise'

Root: stu; pres. stumási, stuvánti; 102 aor. astosi, stosat; no. of occurrences: 1 All of the attested aorist forms of this verb are sigmatic, and thus it exhibits the

combination, which was rare in the early language, 103 of a root present and sigmatic aorist.

The form *stoṣi* occurs once in a difficult passage at 10.22.4d *sṛjāná stoṣy ádhvanaḥ* 'having freed (the horses) onto the roads, praise (them)'. Cardona (1965: 4) makes a case, following Oldenberg (1909: *ad loc*.) that the form is a 3rd singular med. injunctive instead.

¹⁰¹ For a summing up of the difficulties of this passage see Oldenberg (1909: ad loc.). The problem is the difficulty in identifying the form $y\tilde{a}(h)$. Oldenberg considers the possibility that it could either be a neuter or feminine plural relative pronoun, or a form of the verb $y\bar{a}$. In the first case the sandhi would most likely have resulted in $y\acute{e}tth\bar{a}$. If the last option is true, as Oldenberg admits, the difficulties are solved. This solution is also adopted by Geldner. If this were the case, then the form would have to be $y\acute{a}s$, the 2nd sing. pres. subj., which would correspond well with the subj. form vaksas which follows, and also would give some backing to the ultimate classifying of the -si forms as subjunctives. If this were a subjunctive, it could even be scanned as disyllabic (<*yaHas), which would solve the problem of this pāda having only ten syllables. Another problem with this passage, also recognised by Oldenberg, is the apparent need to supply an omitted direct object for the form vaksas, since the verb vah is always transitive (see page 164). This passage is not covered in Thieme (1938).

¹⁰² The forms staumi, stauti are attested in the Atharvaveda.

¹⁰³ Narten (1964: 276).

hosi 'sacrifice'

Root: hu; pres. juhoti; aor. -; no. of occurrences: 1

The verb hu has no other agrist forms in the Rigveda, except a medio-passive form $ah\bar{a}vi$, which occurs twice, at 5.86.6 and 10.91.15. Therefore this form was presumably derived by analogy to similar forms from other verbs. The form hosi itself only appears once, at 6.44.14cd $tam\ u\ pra\ hosi\ madhumantam\ asmai,\ somam\ .$., 'and sacrifice this sweet Soma to him,' which in itself is unproblematic in its interpretation as an imperative.

-si forms in relative clauses

As already mentioned, there are four examples in the RV¹⁰⁴ of forms ending in - si which occur in relative clauses. The attested examples are:

parṣi occurs in a subordinate clause at 1.174.9cd prá yát samudrám áti śūra párṣi, pāráyā turváśaṃ yáduṃ svastí 'When you cross the sea, O hero, then take T. and Y. across to well-being'.

satsi – at 3.30.18bc $s\acute{am}$ yán $mah\acute{tr}$ íṣa āsátsi $p\bar{u}rv\acute{th}$ / $r\bar{a}y\acute{o}$ vantắro $b_rhat\acute{ah}$ $sy\bar{a}ma$ 'when you gain the great, abundant refreshments, may we be the winners of great wealth'.

yaṃsi – at 1.63.8 tváṃ tyấṃ na indra deva citrấm, íṣam ấpo ná pīpayaḥ párijman / yáyā śūra práty asmábhyaṃ yáṃsi, tmánam űrjaṃ ná viśvádha kṣáradhyai 'You, O god Indra, will swell that shining refreshment like water all around for us, with which, O hero, you will bestow upon us our life's breath, so it will flow always like a strengthening drink'.

And finally darși at 6.26.5ab tvám tád ukthám indra barhánā kaḥ, prá yác chatấ sahásrā śūra dárṣi 'O Indra, you make this word powerful, when you destroy hundreds, thousands, O hero.'

Of these four forms, *darși* can, I believe, be disregarded, if it is indeed a root present¹⁰⁵. It is also different semantically from the other examples, in that it

¹⁰⁴ As well as one example of yákṣi in a relative clause at TS 2.6.12.5: yád agne kavyaváhana pitṛ́n yákṣy ṛtāvṛ́dhaḥ 'O Agni, when you sacrifice to the Fathers . . .' which, interestingly enough, corresponds to a third-person passage in the RV containing an aorist subjunctive yakṣat: 10.16.11a yó agnṭḥ kravyaváhanaḥ pitṛ́n yákṣad ṛtāvṛ́dhaḥ. 'Agni, who shall sacrifice to the Fathers . . .'.

¹⁰⁵ See p. 48.

denotes a habitual or inherent act (corresponding to the aorist injunctive kah), while the other three all denote future actions, in a manner corresponding to that of the subjunctive in relative clauses.

Hoffmann (1967: 183) takes the form *darṣi* to be a subjunctive, following Szemerényi (1966), and translates the passage: 'Du Indra, machst das Wort (*tád ukthám*) machtvoll (*barháṇā kaḥ* Inj. Aor.), damit (*yád*) du Hunderte, Tausende herausschlagest (*dárṣi*)'. Hettrich (1988: 391 and elsewhere) makes no mention of the imperative and always considers these *-si* forms to be subjunctives.

Narten (1964: 202) and Szemerényi (1966: 3) reach opposing conclusions from these examples; while Narten considers them to be a misuse of an imperative, Szemerényi believes that they prove that the -si forms are in fact subjunctives, 'both originally and in actual use'.

While 'in actual use' there is no doubt that these forms do behave like subjunctives, accepting that this is what they originally were involves accepting Szemerényi's conclusions concerning haplology of an original *-sasi* form. Given the almost complete absence of such forms, it has to be said that Szemerényi makes a compelling case. However, if Jasanoff and Dunkel are right (see below), and the *-si* imperative actually has an Indo-European origin, then the date for the haplology must be set in Indo-European times. However, the haplology is effectively ruled out by Beekes (1981), who claims that the use of primary endings in the subjunctive is an Indo-Iranian innovation. Thus, if the *-si* imperative is indeed of Indo-European age, then its origin must be something else. ¹⁰⁶

There can be no doubt that Cardona and Szemerényi are right in assigning the -si imperatives to the sigmatic aorist, at least synchronically; not only do most of the verbs discussed here have sigmatic aorists, but a majority of attested forms come from verbs whose aorist forms are exclusively sigmatic. It is, then, no accident that vaksi and yaksi account between them for over 50 instances.

This said, however, it must also be asked how many of the extant -si forms actually belong to verbs that have signatic agrist forms other than -si and -sat. These two forms unquestionably belong together. The existence of one implies the

¹⁰⁶ It has been suggested to me by Kortlandt, that the -si imperatives may be a sigmatic aorist in -s-dhi that has undergone assimilation to -si. While this is not impossible, it does raise issues of accentuation - all -dhi forms are accented on the ending - and ablaut, in that most imperatives in -dhi have zero grade stems.

existence of the other. However, once this became the case, then any verb to which was added a secondary *-si* imperative would also then receive as a side effect a signatic agrist injunctive in *-sat*.¹⁰⁷

Of the verbs in question, the following have other sigmatic agrist forms in addition to those in -si and -sat:

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chand – achān, áchāntsuḥ etc; chantsi : chantsat.
ji – ajaiṣam, ájaiḥ; jéṣi : jéṣat.
dah – adhāk; dhákṣi : dhákṣat
nī – naiṣṭa; néṣi : néṣat
pṛ – aprāḥ; prấsi. *prấsat is unattested.
bhaj – bhāk; bhakṣi : bhakṣat
mad – amatsuḥ etc.; mátsi : mátsat
yaj – ayāḥ, yāṭ; yákṣi : yákṣat
yam – áyāṃsam, ayān; yáṃsi : yáṃsat
vah – ávāṭ; vákṣi : vákṣat
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The following verbs have other sigmatic agrist forms, but only the -si and -sat forms are active:

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rā – árādhvam, árāsata etc.; rāsi, rāsat
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stu-astosi, astodhvam etc.; stosi: stosat. The present has both active and middle, the agrist active only subjunctive, and the agrist indicative only middle.

The following have only -si and -sat forms:

jus – jósi : jósat dr – dársi : dársat pr – pársi : pársat vī – vési : vésat śru – śrósi : śrósan sad – sátsi : sátsat

¹⁰⁷ Indeed, this mutual implication is so all-pervading that it may have played a role in the formation of the forms *yódhi* and *bodhi* on the basis of (*inter alia*) the aorist subjunctive forms *yodhat* and *bódhat* (see also p. 26). Furthermore we may bring into consideration the unquestionably analogical form *barbṛhi* and its probably subjunctive counterpart *bárbṛhat*.

sah - sak $\dot{s}i$: $s\acute{a}k$ $\dot{s}at$. Other agrist forms from the stem $s\ddot{a}k$ probably originate in a reduplicated stem.

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The following have other no sigmatic agrist forms:
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mā – only māhi, māsi and māsva.

yudh – only yótsi

rad – only rátsi

 $na\acute{s}-nak\dot{s}i$. Although an aorist subjuctive form is unattested there is a secondary present stem naksa- which is likely to be derived from it.

hu – hosi

Cardona (1965) has already shown that the large majority of *attestations*, as opposed to roots which have -si forms, come from roots which have other sigmatic aorist forms, thus cementing the connection between the -si forms and the sigmatic aorist. My grouping shows that once a -si form has been coined for a particular root, whether it has other sigmatic aorist forms or not, it is practically automatic that it will also develop a sigmatic aorist subjunctive form. Of those which do not have the subjunctive forms, all but $m\bar{a}si$ are hapax legomena. In the case of $m\bar{a}si$, the lack of a form $*m\bar{a}sat$ could easily simply be due to a random lack of attestation.

The lack of a form * $pr\bar{a}sat$ is most likely random, given the comparatively strong status of the sigmatic aorist of $p_{\bar{r}}$. Thus, the -si forms may have their origin in the sigmatic aorist, but also, at a later date, some sigmatic aorist forms have their origin in the corresponding -si forms.

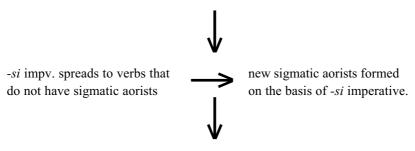
The question of the origin of these forms has undergone a certain shift since Cardona and Szemerényi. Dunkel (1992:¹⁰⁸ 1997) and Jasanoff have suggested a much earlier derivation, and a much more widespread occurrence of these forms than was originally assumed. Jasanoff's theories concerning the antiquity of these forms have already been mentioned under the forms *śroṣi*, *joṣi* and *nakṣi*. Dunkel (1997: 41) suggests that both the derivation of the *-si* forms by haplology from the subjunctive (if it indeed occurred) and the spreading of the *-si* imperative ending to

¹⁰⁸ In which he suggests that -si imperative forms are preserved in the first element of Greek and Latin nominal compounds such as τερψίμβροτος, versipellis and flexanimus. Furthermore, he compares $\pi\lambda\eta\sigma$ ίστιος with $pr\bar{a}si$, Κλευσιππος with śroṣi, 'Αναβησίνεως with Vedic $g\bar{a}si$, 'Ανεξικώμη with sakṣi, Γευσιστράτη with joṣi, and Ἡσίοδος with Vedic $y\bar{a}si$.

other aorist stems, in cases such as *kléu-si (śroṣi) actually occurred in what he terms the Middle Indo-European period. As already mentioned, the haplology theory has been seriously challenged by Beekes (1981).

Whatever the actual chronology may be, it seems there is a fairly complicated series of analogical derivations at work. The stages, roughly, were:

-si imperative formed during PIE period



Sigmatic present stems formed on basis of sigmatic aorist subjunctives – $r\bar{a}sa$ -, naksa-, śrosa-.

Formation of neṣa, parṣa and joṣa from sigmatic, thematic, subjunctives.

The existence of -si forms implies the existence of subjunctive forms in -sat. Conversely, bodhi formed on basis of bodhat.

Root presents reinterpreted as -si imperatives spawn new aorist systems, thus, veṣi > veṣat.

Of course, different processes can occur simultaneously and at differing rates with different verbs. However, the most important point is that first the -si ending became productive, and then spawned new aorist systems. On the basis of Jasanoff's theories, this may have already begun in the PIE period. Once this happened, other -si endings, such as root presents, could be reinterpreted and then spawn aorist systems, as in the case of veṣi. The three endings, -si / -sva / -sat became inextricably associated with each other, and the existence of one or two of them implied the other(s).

As to the place of the -si forms within the synchronic Vedic verbal system, there is ample evidence to place them as functionally identical to the root agrist imperatives in -dhi; they occur many times together with them and indeed in mixed chains of several forms, the most remarkable of which is at 1.42.9. There is also no other way for the sigmatic agrists to form a second person singular imperative. Thus

we have a case of complementary distribution, the root aorists forming the 2nd sing. imperative with -dhi, the thematic aorists with -a, and the sigmatic aorists with -si. The -is- aorists have no way of forming it (except for the isolated form aviddhi) and thus use other modal forms instead.

Aorist versus present imperative

The precise nature of the functional difference between the present and aorist imperative in the RV has never been properly defined.

The most likely difference between the aorist and present imperatives, should such a difference exist, would be aspectual; the present being imperfective and the aorist perfective. Although the basis for this assumption is principally that in the Greek verbal system this is the difference between them, the Indo-European verbal system seems to have been principally aspect-based rather than tense-based. The category of aspect was inherent in the present and aorist verbal stems.

In Greek this distinction exists from the earliest times and survives until today, so that e.g. τοὺς γονεῖς τιμᾶ (Isocrates 1.16) means 'honour thy parents' (now and forever more), while βλέψον πρὸς τὰ ὅρη (Xenophon, Anabasis 4.1.20) means 'Look (glance) towards the mountains'. An interesting example that illustrates the rather subtle nature of the relationship between the aorist and the present in Greek is the following from Xenophon's Cyropaedia 4.5.47: εἰ μὲν οὖν ἄλλους ἔχετε οἴστισιν ἄν δοίητε αὐτούς [τοὺς ἵππους] . . . ἐκείνοις δίδοτε· εἰ μέντοι ἡμᾶς βούλεσθε . . . ἡμῖν αὐτοὺς δότε, 'If you have someone else to whom you would rather give [the horses], then offer them to them. However, if you want us [as comrades], then give them to us'. Here the present imperative δίδοτε has an inchoative meaning, translated in all editions as "offer", while the aorist δότε is perfective 'give them to us (and have done with it)'.

Hoffmann (1967: 105f. and 269ff.) finds an aspectual distinction for the aorist and present injunctive, particularly when used as negative imperatives "prohibitively" and "inhibitively" respectively, in his terminology.

He also tentatively shows (270ff.) an aspectual distinction even when the injunctive is not used prohibitively, although he is fully aware that this is very difficult to prove.

This difficulty to prove the existence of a distinction is demonstrated even more clearly by Gonda (1962). While showing that the various imperative stems sometimes appear to behave in exactly the same way as in Greek, he is forced to admit that in other cases they behave in exactly the opposite manner. Despite a detailed study of individual verbs, he is unable to find a consistent aspectual distinction, although it seems that he would very much like one to exist.

Other scholars who have researched the matter have come to the conclusion that there is no difference, notably Bloomfield-Edgerton¹⁰⁹ and Whitney¹¹⁰.

This work will show that there is in fact no regular aspectual or semantic difference of the kind that exists within the Greek verbal system. The forms are used interchangeably and are in fact under most circumstances metrical variants. This situation exists, as the data suggests, because the aor. impv. was almost extinct at the time of the composition of the RV, existing only in formulae and as an archaism in places where it was metrically convenient to use it.

However, it will also be shown that the pre-Vedic Indo-European aspectual distinction between the present and aorist modal stems has been preserved in a number of frozen formulae, which were coined at a time when the distinction was still productive.

The aorist imperative as an archaism

The aor. impv. can be demonstrated to be moribund at the time that the RV was composed. It is less common in Book 10 than in the other books, and by the time of the composition of the Brāhmaṇa texts it was in fact completely extinct, only occurring in quotations.

In the RV, the aor. impv. is used interchangeably with the present, often occurring in the same or extremely similar sentences. The hypothesis that there is an

¹⁰⁹ Bloomfield-Edgerton (1930-34: 1-63, 130).

¹¹⁰ Whitney (1924: 220).

aspectual distinction between the two must be discounted, as they both appear in environments in which, if an aspectual distinction did exist, one or the other would be called for.

It is not hard to find instances where the two forms appear in practically the same sentence, as, e.g. 3.47.3a utá rtúbhir \ rtupāḥ pāhi sómam¹¹¹ and 2.37.1d hotrád sómam \ draviṇodaḥ píba rtúbhiḥ. This example is significant because the adverb rtúbhiḥ implies a repeated action; if the aorist truly denoted perfective aspect then it shouldn't appear in this environment.

The demise of the aorist imperative

The aorist imperative is a fairly common form in the Rigveda; it appears about 1100 times altogether. By the time of the Brāhmaṇa texts, it had disappeared as a living form, existing only in quotes from earlier texts and in a few mantra lines. The process of elimination of the aor. impv. can be seen to be gradual; by the time that Book 10 of the RV was composed it was rarer than it had been in the earlier books.

The total number of imperative forms in the RV is approximately 5500.¹¹² Of these, as already mentioned, about 1100 are aorists. The break-down by book is shown in Table 1:

Book	Present	Aorist	Total
1	732	196	928
2	161	82	243
3	259	102	361
4	187	53	240
5	265	80	345
6	354	95	449

¹¹¹ Throughout this work the backslash ('\') is used to denote the caesura.

¹¹² Where a pāda appears more than once, it is usually counted as more than one example. The only exception to this are the common ending of hymns of Book 7 $y\bar{u}y\acute{a}m$ $p\bar{a}ta$ $svast\acute{b}hi\dot{h}$ $s\acute{a}d\bar{a}$ $na\dot{h}$, which occurs dozens of times but which I counted as one example of the form $p\bar{a}ta$, and the examples of the form $n\acute{a}bhant\bar{a}m$, which although it has 40 attestations in the RV, only actually occurs in two related formulae: $n\acute{a}bhant\bar{a}m$ $anyak\acute{e}$ same and $n\acute{a}bhant\bar{a}m$ $anyak\acute{e}s\bar{a}m$. See also p. 128.

Book	Present	Aorist	Total
7	466	119	585
8	615	231	846
9	450	48	498
10	865	134	999
Total	4354	1140	5494

Table 1

These data will be examined in two different ways. First we will consider the average number of imperatives per hymn in each book, and more importantly, the percentage of imperatives in each book which are acrists.

For the first calculation the results are:

Book	Present	Aorist
1	3.83	1.03
2	3.74	1.91
3	4.18	1.65
4	3.22	0.91
5	3.05	0.92
6	4.72	1.27
7	4.48	1.14
8	5.97	2.24
9	3.95	0.42
10	4.53	0.70

Table 2

The main conclusions that can be gained from the data in Table 2 are: The imperative is by a long way more common in Book 8 than in any other book. This will be seen to be the case according to all forms of reckoning. However, the ratio between present and agrist imperatives in Book 8 is not significantly different to that in the other books. The agr. impv. is least common in Book 9, followed by Book 10.

This is of course significant because Book 10 is later than the other books, although a way must be found to explain the even greater rarity of the form in Book 9.

More pertinent information can be gathered from a comparison of the percentage of the total number of imperatives in each book which are aorists, as shown in Table 3. The number of pres. impvs. was added to the number of aor. impvs. in each book, to find the total number of imperatives, and then the percentage of this total number of imperatives comprised by the aorists was calculated:

Book	Percentage of aorists
1	21.12
2	33.74
3	28.25
4	22.08
5	23.19
6	21.16
7	20.34
8	27.30
9	9.64
10	13.41

Table 3

Here again we can see that the aor. impv. is actually the most common in Book 2, and the least common in Book 9, closely followed by Book 10. In the rest of the books the aorist imperatives are in the region of 20-30% of the total number of imperatives.

As we can see, the aor. impv. appears in every case to be least common in Book 9. This is a problem, because if we want to claim that it is rarer in Book 10 because Book 10 is later than the rest of the RV, then we must, on the face of it, make a similar claim for Book 9. No-one, as far as I am aware, has ever made this claim,

although there is a consensus that Book 9 was *compiled* after the other books from material that was originally contained in them.¹¹³

However, no such claim is in fact necessary, as the reason for the comparative rarity of the aor. impv. in Book 9 has nothing to do with the date that it was composed, but rather it is a result of the special vocabulary used in this book.

The most common imperative forms in Book 9 are shown in Table 4:

Form	Number of occurrences
pavasva	127
árṣa	38
srava	33
bhara	22
viśa	13
dhanva	11
bhava	10
jahi	10

Table 4

The first three of these forms, as well as *dhanva*, are highly characteristic Somavocabulary, which appear practically exclusively in Book 9. To this list may also be added a further 22 forms of the verb $p\bar{u}$, bringing the total to 149. So we have a highly dominant element of special vocabulary in this book and *none of them have any attested aor. impv. forms*. If we subtract the number of occurrences of these special key-words from the total number of pres. impvs. in Book 9 we are left with 219, and the percentage of aor. impvs. after this subtraction is 18%, which is only very slightly lower than the percentage in the other books, and higher than the

¹¹³ This is the idea behind Oldenberg's (1888: 251) statement: "Uebrigens ist ohne Weiteres klar, dass Buch IX nicht, wie die Bücher II-VII, vor der Vereinigung dieser Bücher eine Sonderexistenz geführt haben kann, sondern dass es selbst erst ein Product jener Vereinigung ist." One of the few scholars who has attempted to date the language of Book 9 is Wüst (1928: 170), who claims that it is the oldest in the entire RV. Bloomfield (1916: 644) is noncommittal, owing to the fact that most of the repetitions in this book are of verses from the same book. Among more recent scholars Oberlies (1998: 153 fn. 37) has no hesitation in placing Book 9 together with the family Books 2-7 in the earliest stratum of the RV, as does Witzel (1997: 262).

percentage of aorist imperatives in Book 10 There are other forms that only exist in Book 9, such as *kṣara* 'flow' (4 attestations), and the addition of these forms would get the percentage even closer to that of the rest of the books.

Thus we may conclude, on all of these grounds, that the aor. impv. is significantly less common in Book 10 than in all of the other books of the RV.

By the time of the Brāhmaṇa texts, the process of the extinction of the aor. impv. was far more advanced, to the point where it is found practically exclusively in quotes from earlier texts. For example, of the 27 examples 114 of the form k_rdhi in the entire Brāhmaṇa corpus – a paucity which in itself gives an indication of the status of this form at this period – 14 are quotes from the RV, 115 one from the Atharvaveda, and nine from the various texts of the Yajurveda. Of the residue of three examples, all are mantra verses of unknown provenance. 116 Likewise in the case of gahi, of 10 examples 117 (counting the two recensions of the Śatapathabrāhmaṇa as one example), four come from the RV, one from the SV and two from the YV. Of the remainder, two are mantra verses of unknown origin, 118 and one is a prose passage (ŚBM 1.1.4.12 and ŚBK 2.1.3.16): $t\acute{a}ni$ $v\acute{a}$ $t\acute{a}$ $t\acute{a$

¹¹⁴ TB 2.8.2.7, 3.6.1.2, 2.4.2.3, 2.4.4.2, 3.7.6.21, 2.7.5.2, 2.7.7.5, 2.8.8.7 (x2), 3.7.8.1 (repeated 3 times). AB 2.2.21 (x2), 5.27.2, 7.3.2. ŚBM 3.2.1.30, 3.2.2.22, 4.1.1.13 (=ŚBK 4.2.1.21, 4.2.2.22, 5.1.1.11). TĀ 1.12.1, 2.5.1. JB 1.72, 1.92, 1.221. PB 6.10.13, 15.4.3. MB

¹¹⁵ MB 1.2.19 has suputrấm subhágām kṛdhi whereas RV 10.85.45 has suputrấm subhágām kṛṇu(!). One can only speculate as to the circumstances which led to this substitution.

¹¹⁶ TB 2.4.2.3, 3.7.6.21. TĀ 1.12.1.

 $^{^{117}}$ ŚBM 1.1.4.12 (=ŚBK 2.1.3.16), 6.6.3.4, 9.1.2.27. TB 2.4.3.13. TĀ10.1.5. JB 1.228, 2.145, 3.200, PB 9.2.22. KB 25.8. The form *gadhi* appears at JB 3.232 and PB 14.12.2, each time quoting RV 8.98.4a, which is the only time this form is attested in the RV.

¹¹⁸ TĀ 10.1.5. PB 9.2.22.

These words are apparently chosen in what the author feels is a decreasing level of politeness. The form *ehi* is adjudged to be both *yajñyatamam* 'most appropriate for sacrifice' and *śāntátam[am*?] 'quietest, gentlest'. A look at the attestations of the form *ágahi* in the RV

passage bears a strong affinity to RV 8.13.14a: \acute{a} $t\acute{u}$ gahi pra $t\acute{u}$ drava, from which it appears to at least partially receive its inspiration. In any case, the forms are not here used in a directly imperatival sense, and gahi certainly need not be part of the living language of the Brahmins of the time.

The form \acute{srudhi} appears eight times in the Brāhmaṇas, 120 all of which are quotes from the RV. Likewise $p\bar{a}hi$ "drink" appears 10 times, 121 of which all are quotes from the RV, except $T\bar{A}$ 4.8.2, a mantra verse: $\acute{u}sra$ $gharm\acute{a}m$ $\acute{s}im\dot{s}a$ / $\acute{u}sra$ $gharm\acute{a}m$ $p\bar{a}hi$, where $p\bar{a}hi$ could be from $p\bar{a}$ 'protect' or $p\bar{a}$ 'drink'. Houben (1991: 75) translates the line as: 'O Bull (calf), leave the Gharma (milk), O bull (calf), protect the Gharma', which in this case would be a present imperative of $p\bar{a}$ 'protect.

The aor. impv. as a metrical variant

The aor. impv. is used, with no discernable difference in meaning, as a metrical variant of the present imperative. The basic criterion for the use of any given form is the number of syllables it contains and the metrical structure of the word, rather than the semantic or aspectual value of the verbal stem.

M. Parry (1971: 6 ff.) shows that the traditional composer of oral poetry 122 had at his disposal a large arsenal of alternate forms of differing metrical value, which could be used without distinction of meaning to fit into the metre where convenient. Parry's subject matter was Homeric Greek, and his examples – such as the endings -ov / -ovo, -ov / -ovo, -ov / -eov and variant forms such as $\dot{\eta}\mu\epsilon\hat{\iota}\varsigma$ and $\dot{\alpha}\mu\mu\epsilon\varsigma$ – are variants of the type which is also abundant in Rigvedic, examples being 1st pers. sing. subj. $-\bar{a}$, $-\bar{a}ni$, 3rd pers. sing. aor. subj. forms such as *gamat*, *gamati*, and 1st pers. plural active endings *-mas* and *-masi*, the locatives with and without -i and the

will show that it actually belongs to the gods, who are its sole addressee, as they are in almost every case for the aorist imperative in general. Thus the question must be asked why the form *ágahi* is considered so harsh that it is reserved for the third-ranked *vaiśya* caste. For the accentuation of the form *ehi* see footnote 141.

120 ŚBM 2.3.4.31 (=ŚBK 1.4.1.22). TB 2.5.8.11, 2.7.12.5. AB 5.4.13, 5.4.19. KB 22.7. JB 3.56. PB 12.6.4.

¹²¹ AB 5.12.10, 6.11.8. AĀ 5.1.1. KB 22.7, ŚBM 4.3.3.13. TB 2.4.3.13, 2.5.8.11. TĀ 4.8.2. SB 3.1.3. GB 2.2.21.

122 The actual meaning of the term "oral poetry" is beyond the scope of this work. For works on the subject see Parry, Nagy (1974), Matasović (1996) and Finnegan (1977).

second plural ending -ta and -tana. This kind of variant can be shown to be metrically motivated, as in the case of the formulaic paramé vyòman, which appears in triṣṭubh cadences, and its metrical variant paramé vyòmani, which appears in jagatī cadences. Likewise, the phrases 10.78.8c ádhi stotrásya sakhyásya gāta and 5.55.9c ádhi stotrásya sakhyásya gātana are differentiated only by the variant verbal endings -ta and -tana, the former being suited to the cadence of a triṣṭubh pāda and the latter to that of a jagatī pāda. 123

The main difference between these examples and the relationship between the pres. and aor. impvs. is that while the former are variant endings, the latter are two different verbal categories, the difference between which has been neutralised. However, since the aor. impv. has been shown to have been an archaism at the time of the composition of the Rigveda – as were the other variants such as the "endingless" locative and the 1st person sing. subj. verbal endings without -ni – there is really no reason to suppose that it could not have been simply another variant that the poet kept in his stock of variant forms which could be used whenever the metre demanded. 124

Limitations on the placement of words within the pada

A form of a given metrical structure can appear in the overwhelming majority of cases in a fixed position in the $p\bar{a}da$. While some types of words are quite versatile and may appear in one of a fixed set of positions, some, most noticeably short-short ($\cup \cup$) and short-short-short ($\cup \cup$) forms are highly limited in their placement. On the whole, they only appear in one or two positions in any line of a given metrical type. Almost all metrical types can also appear at the beginning of a $p\bar{a}da$.

¹²³ See also Korn (1998: 171ff.).

¹²⁴ This is not the first time that it has been suggested that different verbal categories act as metrical variants. Hoffmann (1967: 263) shows that the aorist imperative and aorist injunctive act in a similar manner in 6.44.18b – asmábhyam máhi várivah sugám kah and 1.102.4c – asmábhyam indra várivah sugám kṛdhi, where an aorist injunctive stands at the end of a triṣṭubh pāda, and an aorist imperative at the end of a jagatī pāda. Renou (1925: 45f.) suggests that the perfect and imperfect act as metrical variants in pseudo-narratives such as RV 1.32.

For the purposes of this study, the placement of $\cup \cup$ and $\cup \cup \cup$ forms in 8-, 11-, and 12-syllable lines was examined in detail, as well as the placement of words of some other metrical structures in tristubh pādas.

Disyllabic words $\cup \cup$

In hendecasyllables

Short-short disyllabic words are very limited in their placement, and thus are quite rare in the triṣṭubh, basically falling into two categories, with a small number of exceptions:

pāda-initial – Very common. In this case, obviously, the verb is accented. The form gahi is never found in this position. The reason for this is that the form gahi never appears without the preverb \tilde{a} . When the verb and preverb are juxtaposed, the combination \tilde{a} -gahi will in effect behave in the same way as a trisyllabic form with the metrical structure — $\cup\cup$; cf. the common placement of the form $g\bar{a}tana$ in the cadence of jagatī pādas.

10.116.1a $píb\bar{a}$ sómam \ mahatá indriyấya, $píb\bar{a}^{125}$ vṛtrấya \ hántave śaviṣṭha

10.116.1c **píba** rāyé \ śávase hūyámānaḥ, **píba** mádhvas \ tṛpád indrấ vṛṣasva

Immediately before the caesura – This is very common, but only occurs where the caesura is after the fourth syllable.

3.35.9d agnéḥ piba \ jihváyā sómam indra

2.30.10b vīryà kṛdhi \ yấni te kártuvāni

6.5.6a sá tát **kṛdhi** \ isitás tűyam agne

6.23.7d urúm kṛdhi \ tuvāyatá ulokám

7.25.5c satrá kṛdhi\ suhánā śūra vṛtrấ

¹²⁵ The purpose of the vowel lengthening is not always immediately obvious. It is highly likely that some syllables are lengthened regularly even when not marked as such. See the conclusions for more details.

Other possibilities – The two aforementioned positions are by far the most commonly found positions for the ∪∪ type. However, a few examples show them in other positions, almost always in conjunction with an enclitic or a preverb. The combination of a monosyllabic particle and the disyllabic impv. form behaves exactly like a trisyllabic word.

6.47.10d táj jusasva \ krdhí mā devávantam

8.96.8c úpa tvémah \ kṛdhí no bhāgadhéyam

10.104.1d dadhanvirá\indra **píbā** sutásya

In octosyllables

If anything, these forms are even more limited in their possible placements within the octosyllabic line than within the tristubh.

Pāda initial – This is a fairly unusual placement for the verb, which in the vast majority of cases is situated at the end of the pāda.

1.10.11d kṛdhī sahasrasām ṛsim

9.61.28b **kṛdhī** no yaśáso jáne

1.44.13a **śrudhí** śrutkarna váhnibhir

Pāda-final – As mentioned, this is by far the most common position for the verb. The following are just a few of hundreds of examples.

1.4.2a úpa nah sávaná **gahi**¹²⁶

1.4.3c mấ no áti khya ấ gahi

6.2.10c samýdho viśpate kṛṇu

6.53.7a *á rikha kikirá kṛṇu* (also 6.53.8d)

10.85.45b suputrấm subhágām kṛṇu

1.14.7b -ágne pátnīvatas kṛdhi

1.42.6c dhánāni susáṇā kṛdhi

1.127.11d máhi śavistha nas kṛdhi

5.51.14d svastí no adite **kṛdhi**

¹²⁶ See however my remark above about juxtaposition of gahi with the preverb \hat{a} . The form gahi appears exclusively with the preverb \hat{a} in gayatrī cadences.

Other examples: śrudhí hávam – Aside from 9.104.6a sánemi kṛdhíy asmád ấ, most of the examples in which the verb is not either at the beginning or the end of the pāda contain the syntagm śrudhí (...) hávam.

8.66.12d śávistha śrudhí me hávam

8.82.6a índra **śrudhí** sú me hávam

8.6.18c máméd ugra śrudhī hávam

8.74.11c sá pāvaka **śrudhī** hávam

A few examples contain variations on the theme of drinking soma:

1.15.1a índra sómam píba rtúnā

1.15.3b gnávo néstah píba rtúnā

1.15.4c pári bhūṣa **píba r túnā**

4.46.1a ágram pibā mádhūnām

8.17.1b índra sómam píbā imám

8.32.19c índra **píba sutánām**

In dodecasyllables

Behave as in octosyllables:

Pāda-initial

2.17.7c **kṛdhí** praketám\úpa māsⁱy ấ bhara

7.16.6a kṛdhí rátnaṃ\yájamānāya sukrato

Pāda-final

2.23.7d sugám no asyaí \ devávītaye **kṛdhi**

8.66.8c sémám na stómam \ jujuṣāṇá ấ gahi

Two exceptions:

6.51.13c davisthám asya\ satpate krdhī́ sugám

9.85.4d urúm no gātúm \ kṛṇu soma mīḍhuvaḥ

Disyllabic forms — ∪

This is a far more versatile type, and thus far more common. There are five possible positions:

Pāda-initial – The examples of pāda-initial $p\bar{a}hi$ are, with one exception, all from the verb $p\bar{a}$ 'protect'. The aorist imperative of $p\bar{a}$ 'drink' only occurs once in this position. The form piba is common at the beginning of the $p\bar{a}$ da. The examples of forms in other positions are all from $p\bar{a}$ 'drink'.

1.121.14b **pāhí** vajrivo \ duritād abhī́ke

1.129.9f **pāhí** no \ dūrấd ārấd abhíṣṭibhiḥ

Immediately after the caesura

- 2.11.15b tṛpát sómam \ $p\bar{a}hi$ drahyád indra (10 sylls)
- 2.11.17b tríkadrukeşu \ pāhi sómam indra

Pāda-final

- 3.35.6b śaśvattamám \ sumánā asyá **pāhi**
- 3.35.8c tásyāgátyā\sumánā ṛṣva pāhi

Immediately before the caesura

- 3.36.3d evấ **pāhi** \ pányo adyấ návīyān
- 4.34.7b sajóṣāḥ **pāhi** \ girvaṇo marúdbhiḥ

Third and fourth syllable before end

- 3.47.3a utá rtúbhir∖rtupāḥ **pāhi** sómam
- 3.51.7a índra marutva \ ihá pāhi sómam
- 5.43.3c hóteva nah\prathamáh pāhiy asyá

Trisyllabic words $\cup \cup \cup$

In hendecasyllables

This is the most limited form of all, occurring virtually only immediately after the caesura.

1.31.8b yaśásam kārúm \ krņuhi stávānaḥ

- 3.30.6d vísvam satyám \ krnuhi vistám astu
- 1.100.1d marútvān no \ bhavatuv índra ūtī́
- 4.1.20d sumŗlīkó \ bhavatu jātávedāḥ

Only one exception to this has been found in the test corpus:

3.58.7d sómam pibatam \ asrídhā sudānū

In octosyllables

Pāda-initial

- 1.18.1b kṛṇuhí brahmaṇas pate
- 8.13.7b **śṛṇudhī** jaritúr hávam

Middle of pāda

At 3rd syllable

- 1.13.2c adyấ **kṛṇuhi** vītáye
- 6.53.10c nrvát krnuhi vītáye
- 10.60.11d níyag **bhavatu** te rápaḥ

At 4th syllable

- 8.84.3b nfmh pāhi śrņudhī gírah
- 4.9.7c asmákam śrnudhī hávam
- 8.74.8b cánisthā bhavatu priyá

In dodecasyllables

In this case the behaviour is the same as in hendecasyllables.

- 6.48.4c arvácah sīm \ kṛṇuhiy agné avase
- 9.82.4b pájrāyā garbha \ **śṛṇuhí** brávīmi te
- 1.94.8a pū́rvo devā \ bhavatu sunvató rátho

Trisyllabic words $\cup --\cup$

The most common place for this metrical structure is at the end of the pāda. It is also to be found immediately before the caesura, and pāda-initially.

Pāda-final

5.2.6cd bráhmāṇiy átrer\áva tám srjantu, ninditáro\níndiyāso bhavantu

7.35.5c śám na ósadhīr\vaníno **bhavantu**

Immediately before caesura

5.83.7d samá **bhavantu-**\-udváto nipādáḥ 7.17.5b satyá **bhavant^uv**\āsíso no adyá

Pāda-initial

6.51.11d **bhávantu** naḥ\sutrātrấsaḥ sugopấḥ 1.114.11b **śṛṇótu** no\hávam rudró marútvān

One exception

One example is completely unlike the others: 10.67.11c paścá mŕdho\ápa bhavantu víśvās

Traditional phraseology, metre, and linguistic considerations

This study shows that there was a highly organized and predictable system of constraints on the possible position of verbal forms in the Rigvedic poetic technique. Indeed, there is no reason to suppose that only verbal forms were limited this way, and especially, that these rules apply only to the imperative.

The Rigvedic poet, it seems, saw each word as a brick of a certain size and shape which would fit into a slot in the appropriate place in the line.

In this system, the chance of finding semantic differences between different verbal stems is reduced. In some cases, especially where there is a different clause each side of the caesura, the poet is "locked in" by the metre, and has no choice but to use the form he does, thus neutralizing any possible difference between the verbal forms. A partial example would be 10.147.5b $ur\dot{u}$ $k_rdhi \setminus maghava\tilde{n}$ chagdhi $r\bar{a}y\dot{a}h$. It is true that in this example the second verb is also aorist, thus we have an aorist environment and a possible justification for the use of the form k_rdhi . However, the point here is that in this case, because of the fixing of the sentence, the poet could not have used the present in the first clause even had he wanted to, as the \cup \cup forms can only go after the caesura, but in this example, that position is occupied by a different clause. The form k_rnu is unattested in tristubh pādas, and so the only choice the poet had here, if he wished to use any form of the verb k_r , is the form k_rdhi . Even if the caesura were after the fifth rather than the fourth syllable, the

opening $*ur\acute{u}$ krnuhi \ would, according to the findings of this work, be exceptionally rare, only one similar example having been found.

The reason for this rarity lies in the scheme of the trisṭubh metre, which before the caesura, is either 1) $\underline{\cup}$ — $\underline{\cup}$ — or 2) $\underline{\cup}$ — $\underline{\cup}$ — $\underline{\cup}$.

In the case of variant 2, in which the caesura is after the fifth syllable, forms such as krnuhi and bhavatu would only fit in this position in a non-standard metrical line. Similarly problematic, and also rare, are the cases where a — \cup form such as $p\bar{a}hi$ occurs immediately after the caesura. This study unearthed only three such examples.

The almost universal use of $\cup \cup \cup$ forms such as krnuhi and bhavatu immediately after the caesura also raises questions as to the actual quantity of the final vowel in these forms, as the first three syllables after the caesura are supposed to be $\cup \cup$ —. While stating that the final syllable of srnuhi is always long, Arnold (p.118) suggests that the vowel in other forms ending in -uhi was considered short, inter alia because of its "rather frequent occurrences before consonant groups". This would appear not to be the case. In fact krnuhi only occurs four times before a consonant group 127, thus indicating that either the final vowel of krnuhi was in fact lengthened, or that the sequence $\cup \cup \cup$ was not only admissible immediately after the caesura, but actually common, both in variants 1) and 2) of the tristubh metre.

The similarity of the behaviour of the forms such as *pibatam*, where the final syllable is often lengthened by position, and krnuhi, and the lack of distinction between cases where krnuhi occurs before a consonantal cluster and where it does not, would seem to indicate either a constant and regular lengthening of the final vowel in the third position after the caesura, or that that syllable is anceps, i.e. \cup rather than —

Likewise, pāda-initial $\cup \cup$ and $\longrightarrow \cup$ raise the same questions about the length of the final vowel. While the *a* in *piba* is sometimes marked as long in this case, in many cases it is not, and the final syllables of the forms *gahi* and *kṛdhi*, when occupying the third and fourth syllables, never are. Does this mean that we should

^{127 1.31.8, 1.165.9, 4.22.9,} and 9.91.5.

assume the second syllables of these forms are always long whether marked or not, or that this syllable is also anceps, \cup ? ¹²⁸

Another piece of evidence which brings into doubt the length of the final syllable of the $\cup\cup$ forms is the fact that in 11-syllable lines they can only appear immediately before the caesura if the caesura occurs after the fourth syllable. The fourth syllable is long, but the second syllable of forms such as krdhi may occur in this position. When the caesura is after the fifth syllable, the fourth syllable is still long, but the first syllable of these forms, which now falls in this position, may not be lengthened and thus they cannot occur.

It is also worth noting that it is only forms ending in a and i which may undergo lengthening of the last syllable. The vowel u is never lengthened, and thus the form $k_{I}n_{I}u$, for example, cannot (and does not) occur in any position in an 11-syllable line.

The triṣṭubh metre is commonly considered (e.g. by Watkins and Nagy) to be catalectic variant of the jagatī; in other words, it was derived from the latter by subtracting the last syllable of the cadence. This explains why the latter jagatī in some cases has more in common with the octosyllables than with the hendecasyllables. For Nagy (1974: 166ff.), the dimetre (8-syllable line) is composed of a 4-syllable opening + a 4-syllable closing, while the 12-syllable trimetre (jagatī etc.) is composed of the same two elements plus an extra 4-syllable colon, i.e. either opening + opening + closing, or opening + closing + closing. Although there are

¹²⁸ The length-neutrality of these syllables does seem a likely conclusion in the light of the long-held view of Indo-European metre, each line of which, according to a succession of scholars, originally had an opening consisting only of a given number of syllables, with no stipulation of length, and a fixed cadence. This idea originated with Meillet, although it did have precursors in the work of Wilamowitz and Bergk. It was later developed by Jakobson, Watkins and Nagy, among others.

Phraseological exceptions and archaisms

The fixed placements thus far have been explained as metrical constraints. In other words, verbs of a certain shape are always or usually placed in a certain position or positions in a line because that is where they fit the metre.

Some of the fixed positions are not wholly the result of the metre. The verb *could* fit in other places, but very seldom does – an example being the short-short forms which practically always occur at the end of eight and twelve syllable lines. This type is most likely the result not only of metrical constraints, but also of phraseological convention; the usual unmarked word order is verb-final and if the verb can be in this position that it usually will be, even though it can theoretically also fit into the two preceding syllables. The explanation of the exceptions to these conventions is critical in the search for the relics of a difference between the present and aorist imperative, since they belong to an older level of phraseological convention and thus allow us to identify archaisms within the text.

A case in point is the formulaic *śrudhí hávam*. This is the only word order attested for this formula, even though it meant that the overwhelmingly common octosyllable phraseology, where the verb was placed at the end of the pāda, was violated. This despite the fact that *hávam śrudhi would both fit the meter and conform to the usual standard verb-final phraseology.

The poets, who appear to have been well aware of the problematic nature of the phrase *śrudhí hávam*, took some measures to accommodate it more easily within the octosyllabic line. On one occasion the phrase was actually split across two lines, so that the verb is at the more usual final position:

1.25.19ab imám me varuņa **śrudhī**, hávam adyā́ ca mṛ<u>l</u>aya

¹²⁹ Except for the trochaic gāyatrī. The anustubh has no such variant.

The other method used to regularise this formula was to use the form $\pm r_n u dh\bar{t}$ to replace the verb $\pm r_n u dh\bar{t}$. It has already been noticed by Lubotsky (1995) that this form is typically (in fact n dy) used in the same formulae as $\pm r_n u dh\bar{t}$ (p. 135) and that the ending $-dh\bar{t}$ is 'probably due to the influence of $\pm r_n u dh\bar{t}$.' However, in addition to Lubotsky's observations, we may now add that the form $\pm r_n u dh\bar{t}$ only occurs in octosyllabic lines. Within these lines it occurs four times out of five at the fourth syllable, a position at least more characteristic of octosyllable phraseology than the formula $\pm r_n u dh\bar{t}$ havam allows. I believe that the form $\pm r_n u dh\bar{t}$ was specially coined to allow easier accommodation of the formula $\pm r_n u dh\bar{t}$ havam within octosyllabic lines.

The suggestion that a word can be coined in order to comply with the metrical environment in which a formula is used is not unprecedented. Nagy shows that the original formula śrávas ákṣitam was replaced by the later ákṣiti śrávas because it fits better into the cadence of the Rigvedic octosyllable (1974: 153ff.).

Thus, the fact that *śrudhí hávam* behaves in a phraseologically uncharacteristic manner shows that there is something special about the phrase, more precisely, we are dealing with an archaic fixed formula.

Another syntagma which may well be a traditional formula is $k_r dh\tilde{t}$ $sug\acute{a}m$, in 6.51.13c. This is the only example found of a $\cup \cup$ form which does not appear at the end of a dodecasyllabic line. In all other occurrences of this formula, the word order is reversed. Two things are worth noting: the word order in $k_r dh\tilde{t}$ $sug\acute{a}m$ is the same as that in $\acute{s}rudh\acute{t}$ $\acute{h}\acute{a}vam$, and book six is known to be extremely conservative, and thus possibly more likely to conserve ancient phraseology.

Likewise formulae containing piba or $p\bar{a}hi$ and somam or a paraphrase thereof, such as $sut\acute{a}sya$, $sut\acute{a}n\bar{a}m$ or $m\acute{a}dh\bar{u}n\bar{a}m$ are likely to behave in an uncharacteristic manner. In all of these cases the traditional formula which is shown to be preserved in this manner is of the form VO.¹³⁰

¹³⁰ Klein (1994: 98) also finds that the VO word order is characteristic of formulae. In his study, he found that the verb *han* always preceded its object when used in the context of Indra smiting the serpent.

The form $\acute{s}rudh\acute{\iota}$, as a part of a formula used in prayers to invoke the gods, furthermore, has a precise counterpart in Homeric Greek, where the form $\kappa\lambda \vartheta\theta\iota^{131}$ is used $exclusively^{132}$ in prayers. A selection of examples is:

Iliad

 $1.37 - \kappa\lambda \vartheta\theta$ ί μευ, ἀργυρότοξ', δς Χρύσην ἀμφιβέβηκας "hear me, you of the silver bow, who have under your protection Chryse . . ."

5.115 - κλθθί μευ, αἰγιόχοιο Διὸς τέκος, 'Ατρυτώνη Hear me, child of Zeus who bears the aegis, Atrytone!

10.278 - κλθθί μευ, αἰγιόχοιο Διὸς τέκος, . . . Hear me, child of Zeus who bears the aegis, . . .

Odvssev

5.445 – κλθθι, άναξ, ότις ἐσσί· πολύλλιστον δέ σ'ίκάνω

Hear me, O king, whosoever thou art, as to one greatly longed for do I come to thee

9.528 – κλῦθι, Ποσείδαον γαιήοχε κυανοχαῖτα Hear me, Poseidon, earth-enfolder, thou dark haired god

3.55 - κλθει, Ποσείδαον γαιήοχε, μηδὲ μεγήρης Hear me, Poseidon, earth-enfolder, and grudge not in answer . . .

 $4.762 - \kappa\lambda \vartheta\theta$ ί μευ, αἰγιόχοιο Διὸς τέκος, 'Ατρυτώνη Hear me, child of Zeus who bears the aegis, unwearied one $4.767 - \dot{\omega}\varsigma$ εἰποθσ' ὀλόλυξε, θεὰ δέ οἱ ἔκλυεν ἀρῆς

¹³¹ For the lengthening of the vowel in κλθθι see Schmitt §400, and LIV s.v. *kleų.

¹³² This exclusivity extends to Hesiod and the Homeric hymns.

¹³³ Translations by A.T. Murray, from the Loeb Classics editions of Homer's Iliad and Odyssey.

So saying she raised the sacred cry, ¹³⁴ and the goddess heard her prayer

Schmitt (§§ 400-405) considers the formula *kludhi moi (which would have been uttered "mit ausgestreckten Händen") to be of Indo-European antiquity, although other scholars, such as Matasović (1996) would no doubt disagree, saying it can only be proven to be Graeco-Indo-Iranian. Since it is accepted now that there is no special affinity between Greek and Indo-Iranian, then any commonality between them must be a shared preservation rather than a shared innovation, thus we can accept Schmitt's assertion of Indo-European age for this formula.

Matasović, who attempts to formulate a methodology for the study of comparative Indo-European poetics, goes to great pains to point out that it is not enough that there is a phonological and morphological correspondence between the compared phrases in order to show that they form a poetic formula; there has to be a correspondence of the textual contexts in which the phrases appear (p. 68ff.). In any other case there is a good chance that we are dealing with simple coincidence, as in the case of phrases meaning "green grass" (p. 74). While it is hard to imagine what other adjective could be used to describe grass, he also dismisses the phrase "living fire" which occurs in Latin and Slavic literature, because there are no contextual correspondences between their occurrences (p. 75). Thus it is vitally important that the expression $\kappa\lambda \vartheta\theta$ i $\mu\epsilon \nu$ occurs only in prayers in the Iliad. When humans spoke to each other, they used a different expression for "hear me". The Vedic phrase śrudhí me (and śrudhí hávam) also occurs only in prayers, but that is not really remarkable considering the subject matter of the Rigveda. In any case, it appears that even by Matasović's rules, Schmitt was justified in considering *kludhi to be a method of addressing the gods in prayers.

The later replacement of an aorist imperative by a present – even a newly-coined one such as sinudhi – for the sake of metrical or phraseological convenience does not bode well for our chances of finding a semantic difference between the present and aorist imperatives at the time of the Rigveda.

However, the basic formula itself is always older than the attested text, and sometimes may be shown to be of Indo-European antiquity. If the formula contains

¹³⁴ The final example is noteworthy, because the "sacred cry" reminds us of the Rigvedic $h\acute{a}va$. Obviously this similarity is only semantic, not etymological or syntactic.

an aorist imperative, then it is in effect a pre-Vedic aorist imperative rather than a Vedic one. Since we can be sure that in Indo-European times there was a semantic distinction between the aorist and present modal forms, we thus have a 'micro-environment' in which this distinction has been preserved in Vedic, despite the fact that elsewhere it has been lost. Thus, if we can identify the basic form of the formula, then we can identify which form of the verb it originally contained and find the original semantic meaning of the verbal stems.

The above gives a criterion which may be used to select candidates for the original formulae - a prevalence or exclusivity of VO word order where OV would be the norm according to the above rules.

As already shown, a few examples have been found. The most obvious is śrudhihavam, for which there are basically no exceptions. The poets may have been aware of the great antiquity and inviolability of this formula. Another is piba sómam. This formula is of lesser antiquity than śrudhihavam, and may have consciously been considered less inviolable. Nonetheless there is a preference for VO word order and several examples where the usual word order is violated. This formula does sometimes 'mutate', even becoming sómam pāhi to fit the cadence of 11-syllable lines. A noteworthy fact in this case is that the form $p\bar{a}hi$, when meaning 'drink' rather than 'protect', almost never occurs $p\bar{a}da$ -initially. The reason for this is that in cases where the VO word order may be preserved, and where the metre permits it, the underlying formula piba sómam is preserved as closely as possible.

These two examples seem to show well the aspectual distinction between the present and aorist that must have existed in Proto-Indo-European, and in Indo-Aryan at a period before the composition of the Rigveda, when many of the later fixed formulae may have been coined. śrudhi hávam clearly has perfective and resultative aspect; i.e. it means 'hear our call now and do as we ask', or even 'obey our call'. piba sómam, on the other hand, shows imperfective aspect. It is inchoative, the god is not being asked to 'drink up all of his Soma' like a child being told to 'eat up his vegetables'.

¹³⁵ In this case, in effect, we have a complementary distribution between piba at the beginning, and $p\bar{a}hi$ at the end of hendecasyllables. Again, hardly a situation that would indicate any semantic difference between the two forms.

On the basis of this, I would add another formula to this list: $jesi \, \acute{s}\acute{a}tr\bar{u}n$. While ji + acc. usually means 'capture' or 'win something', in this case it clearly means 'defeat our enemies', and thus preserves perfective aspect.

Further observations

Having established this, many occasions of seemingly inexplicable usages become clear. For instance, cases where an entire hymn is written with present-stem forms, among which is one or two agrist forms seemingly with the same meaning and usage.

One example is RV 8.35. Although it is not a simple hymn metrically, largely written in the rare *upariṣṭājjyotis* metre, it has a fairly simple poetic structure with many repetitions and semi-formulaic phrases in which the basic pattern is maintained but the words are replaced. Each pāda (d) occurs three times, of which I only list the first:

4cd sajósasā us sā sū́ryena ca, ísam no **volham** aśvinā

7cd sajósasā us sā súryeņa ca, trír vartír **yātam** aśvinā

10cd sajóṣasā uṣ sā súryeṇa ca, úrjaṃ no **dhattam** aśvinā

13cd sajósasā us sā sū́ryena ca, ādityaír **yātam** aśvinā

While 7-15d contain disyllabic present imperatives, 4-6d contain the rare form *volham*, the aorist imperative of *vah*. This form only occurs in one other place in the entire Rigveda. It seems fairly obvious that the reason this form was chosen was because it has the same number of syllables as the other forms in the rest of the hymn, not because of any perfective value it may have.

Likewise, in the same hymn, 22cde \acute{a} $y\bar{a}tam$ $a\acute{s}vin\acute{a}$ gatam, $avasy\acute{u}r$ $v\bar{a}m$ $ah\acute{a}m$ huve, $dhatt\acute{a}m$ $r\acute{a}tn\bar{a}ni$ $d\bar{a}\acute{s}\acute{u}\acute{s}e$, it seems clear that gatam was chosen because it sounds similar to $y\bar{a}tam$ and dhattam, and also because it fits into the characteristic \cup \cup position at the end of a pāda, especially as the form hatam has also appeared recently in the same vicinity (16-18b).

Another case in point is RV 7.35, which has approx. 40 imperative forms, mostly third person forms from $bh\bar{u}$ and as in the expressions sam astu and sam bhavatu. The following is the text in full:

- 1 sám na indrāgnī**bhavatām** ávobhiḥ, sám na índrāváruṇā rātáhavyā sám índrāsómā suvitáya sám yóḥ, sám na índrāpūṣáṇā vájasātau
- 2 śám no bhágah\śám u nah śámso **astu**, śám nah púramdhih\śám u **santu** rấyah śám nah satyásya suyámasya śámsah, śám no aryamấ\purujātó **astu**
- 3 śám no dhātā\śám u dhartā no **astu**, śám na urūcī**bhavatu** svadhābhiḥ śám ródasī bṛhatī śám no ádriḥ, śám no devānām\suhávāni **santu**
- 4 śám no agnír\jyótiranīko **astu**, śám no mitrấváruṇāv aśvínā śám śám naḥ sukṛtām\sukṛtáni **santu**, śám na iṣiró abhí vātu vấtaḥ
- 5 śám no dyấvāpṛthiví pūrváhūtau, śám antárikṣam \ dṛśáye no astu śám na ósadhīr \ vaníno bhavantu, śám no rájasas \ pátir astu jisnúh
- 6 śám na índro \vásubhir devó **astu**, śám ādityébhir váruṇaḥ suśáṃsaḥ śám no rudró rudrébhir jálāṣaḥ, śám nas tváṣṭā \ gnấbhir ihá **śṛṇotu**
- 7 śám naḥ sómo \ **bhavatu** bráhma śám naḥ, śám no grấvāṇaḥ \ śám u **santu** yajñấḥ śám naḥ svárūṇām \ mitáyo **bhavantu**, śám naḥ prasvàḥ \ śám v **astu** védiḥ
- 8 śám naḥ súrya urucákṣā úd **etu**, śám naś cátasraḥ pradíśo **bhavantu** śám naḥ párvatā \ dhruváyo **bhavantu**, śám naḥ síndhavaḥ śám u **santv** ấpaḥ
- 9 śám no áditir \ **bhavatu** vratébhiḥ, śám no **bhavantu** \ marútaḥ svarkấḥ śám no víṣṇuḥ \ śám u pūṣấ no **astu**, śám no bhavítram \ śám v **astu** vāyúḥ
- 10 sám no deváh savitá tráyamāṇaḥ, sám no **bhavantū**ṣáso vibhātíḥ sám nah parjányo **bhavatu** prajábhyaḥ, sám nah kṣétrasya pátir astu sambhúḥ
- 11 śám no devấ\viśvádevā **bhavantu,** śám sárasvatī\sahá dhībhír **astu** śám abhiṣācaḥ śám u rātiṣācaḥ, śám no divyāḥ pārthivāḥ śám no ápyāḥ
- 12 sám nah satyásya\pátayo **bhavantu**, sám no árvantah\sám u **santu** gấvah

89

śám na rbhávah sukŕtah suhástāh, śám no bhavantu \ pitáro hávesu

13 sám no ajá\ékapād devó **astu**, sám nó 'hir budhnyàḥ sám samudráḥ sám no apấm\nápāt perúr **astu**, sám naḥ pṛśnir **bhavatu** devágopā

14 ādityấ rudrấ\vásavo **juṣanta**, idám bráhma kriyámāṇaṃ návīyaḥ śṛṇvántu no\divyấh pấrthivāso, gójātā utá yé yajñíyāsaḥ

15 yé devấnām yajñíyā yajñíyānām, mánor yájatrā amṛtā ṛtajñấḥ té no **rāsantām ** urugāyám adyá, yūyám **pāta ** svastíbhiḥ sádā nah

As can be seen, the forms astu and santu occupy the characteristic positions of — \cup forms, either at the end of the pāda or in the third and fourth syllables from the end. As this is one case where as and $bh\bar{u}$ have hardly any difference in meaning, is it too far fetched to suggest that the author wished to vary the lines not only in vocabulary but also in the possible positions in which he could place the verb? If he had consistently used astu and santu, the hymn would have ended up not only very repetitive and monotonous in content, but also would have looked somewhat like a railway timetable, with every verb in the same place (actually two places) in the line! By varying the usage, he is able to place the verb further back in the line, bhavatu can (indeed must) go immediately after the caesura, and bhavantu immediately before it, as well as at the end.

Index of attested imperative forms in the Rigveda

Root notation and classification are based on that of Lubotsky (1997¹). As that work keeps to a strictly traditional classification it has occasionally been found necessary to reclassify forms under different roots, or, in a few cases, to change the notation of roots. All such instances have been noted. If the form is attested with accentuation then it will appear accented here, otherwise it is listed without accentuation. The number of occurrences of each form is noted in brackets. Hapax legomena are referenced explicitly.

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    aj 'drive'
    pres. act. 2nd sing. ája (6), 3rd sing. ajatu (2), 2nd dual ajatam (2.39.7b)
    pres. med. 2nd pl. ajadhvam (6.48.11b)
    añc<sub>1</sub> 'bend'
    pres. act. 2nd sing. aca (9.97.54d)
    añc<sub>2</sub> 'draw (water)'
    pres. act. 2nd sing. aca (5.83.8a)
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For the meaning of this verb see Hoffmann (1965). Though Hoffmann considers this meaning to be a semantic development from the meaning 'bend' of $a\tilde{n}c_1$, Mayrhofer (1986: s.v.) suggests this is a separate root.¹³⁶

añj 'anoint'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *aṅgdhi* (9.5.10b), *aṅdhí* (10.156.3c), 3rd sing. *anaktu* (6), 2nd pl. *anaktana* (10.76.1b), 3rd pl. *añjantu* (2)

ad 'eat'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *addhí* (6), 3rd sing. *attu* (10.15.8d), 2nd pl. *attá* (10.15.11d), *attana* (10.100.10a), 3rd pl. *adantu* (2)

With the exception of the form addhi, the imperative of this verb only appears in late texts; eight times in Book 10, and once at hymn 1.164.40c. Of the occurrences in Book 10, 4 are in syntagmas with havis or havimsi 'oblation'. Since the oblation consisted of ghee, this corresponds with the description of ghee as 'food' (anna-) of the gods, as in e.g. 2.35.11c hiranyavarnam ghrtam annam asya 'gold-coloured ghee is his food' (of apam napat). Soma, on the other hand, never occurs together with the verb ad-.

arthaya 'strive for'

pres med. 2nd sing. arthayasva (2)

The two occurrences of this forms are in fact repetitions of the same pāda – 2.13.13ab asmábhyam tád vaso dānāya rādhaḥ, sám arthayasva bahú te vasavyàm, "Strive to give us a gift, O Good One, great is your goodness" in the repeated verses 2.13.13 and 2.14.12.

ars 'flow'

pres. act. 2nd sing. árṣa (38), 2nd pl. arṣata (4.58.10a), 3rd pl. árṣantu (2)

The second person singular of this Soma key-word is entirely restricted to Book 9. This verb characteristically appears — usually with the preverb abhi — in expressions such as 9.20.4 abhy àrṣa brhád yáso, maghávadbhyo dhruvám rayím / iṣam stotrbhya á bhara 'flow high honour, secure property for the liberal ones, bring

¹³⁶ See also Joachim (1978: 37).

nourishment for the praisers'. Gotō (1987: 104-105) is adamant that this verb is always intransitive, the acc. being an acc. of goal. This could often be the case, as in 9.63.12 abhy àrṣa sahasríṇaṃ, rayíṃ gómantam aśvínam / abhí vájam utá śrávaḥ 'flow for thousand-fold property, rich in cows and horses, for booty and for glory'. However, in 9.20.4a (above), there is an extra dative element as well as the accusative. Thus it is entirely possible that abhí-arṣa + acc. + dat. and á-bhara + acc. + dat. are in effect synonymous. In other words, abhí-arṣa yáśas (acc.) maghávadbhyas (dat.) is exactly parallel to á bhara íṣaṃ stotṛbhyas. Another example with the extra dative (if naḥ is indeed to be analysed as dative and not genetive as is done by Geldner) is 9.97.51ab: abhí no arṣa divyấ vásūny, abhí víśvā pắrthivā pūyámānaḥ 'Flow heavenly goods to us, and all things on earth as you are purified' 137.

avi 'help'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *áva* (37), *avatāt* (8.3.2c), 3rd act. *ávatu* (15), 2nd dual *ávatam* (23), 3rd dual *ávatām* (2), 2nd pl. *avata* (10), *avitā* (7.59.6), 3rd pl. *ávantu* (32)

aor. act. 2nd sing. *aviḍḍhí* (7), 2nd pl. *aviṣṭu* (3), 2nd dual *aviṣṭám* (9), 3rd dual *aviṣṭām* (2), 2nd pl. *áviṣṭa* (7.34.12a), *aviṣṭána* (7.18.25c)

[aor. inj. $\dot{a}v\bar{\imath}h$ (6.25.1c)]

For a discussion of the form $avit\acute{a}$, which appears at 7.59.6 \acute{a} ca no $barhi\acute{h}$ $s\acute{a}dat\bar{a}vit\acute{a}$ ca $na\dot{h}$ "sit on the altar-grass and help us" and for a history of attempts to classify it as a form of the verb av, see Narten (1964: 87). Narten (op. cit.: 88) also suggests a different reading, \acute{a} ca no $barhi\acute{h}$ $s\acute{a}dat\bar{a}$ $vit\acute{a}$ ca $na\dot{h}$, 'sit on the altar-grass and visit us', which solves the problem of the irregular form of the verb av, and, as she herself admits, introduces a shortened zero-grade form of the verb $v\bar{v}$ which is not attested elsewhere. If we are to classify this form under the verb av, then it must be a root aorist with full grade stem ($<*h_1e\mu H-t\acute{e}$, analogous to the form $gant\acute{a}$), as originally suggested by Meillet (1933: 128). Narten points out that in this case the accent should be on the stem rather than the ending, but there are other such examples, in addition to $gant\acute{a}$ (which Narten mentions), there is also $p\bar{a}t\acute{a}$ and $y\bar{a}t\acute{a}$, although in both of these cases the full grade has been generalised throughout the paradigm. There are other forms from this verb that could still be

¹³⁷ For the semantics of this verb see also Joachim (1978: 64, particularly fn. 111).

classified as root-aorists, such as inj. $\acute{a}v\bar{\iota}t$ (<* $h_1e\mu H$ -t, analogous to the form kar(t)). 138

aviddhi and aviṣṭu are the only specifically imperative forms created from an -iṣ-aor.

The -iṣ- aor. is often to be seen as a secondary development from an earlier root aor. of a *set* root.¹³⁹ While in other verbs of the same type, the root aorist form of the 2nd pers. sing. is generally preserved (e.g. śnathihi, stanihi, etc.), the original zero-grade root aorist form would probably have been * $\bar{u}hi$ < * h_1uH -dhi, and thus the form aviḍḍhi would have been formed by analogy to the rest of the paradigm for the sake of comprehensibility.

as 'eat'

pres. act. 2nd sing. aśāna (2)

For the form aśāna, and similar forms, see p. 28.

as1 'be'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *edhi* (16), 3rd sing. *ástu* (171), 2nd dual *stam* (10.85.42a), 3rd pl. *sántu* (61)

edhi is a perfectly regular development of *as-dhi, which must have replaced an earlier form from * h_1 s-dhi, cf. Av. $zd\bar{\imath}$, Gk. $i\sigma\theta i$.

as2 'throw'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *asya* (6), 3rd sing. *asyatu* (1.114.4c), 2nd dual *asyatam* (7.104.25c)

pres. med. 2nd pl. asyadhvam (10.30.2d)

 $\bar{a}s$ 'sit'

pres. med. 3rd sing. *āstām* (2), 2nd pl. *ādhvam* (7.33.14c)

Both attestations of $\bar{a}st\bar{a}m$ occur in the repeated pāda: barhir na $\bar{a}st\bar{a}m$ áditiḥ $suputr\acute{a}$ 'may Aditi sit on our barhis, she of good sons', at 3.4.11c and 7.2.11c.

¹³⁸ For the variation between long and short *i* from zero-grade laryngeals see Jamison (1988).

¹³⁹ Narten (1964: 68).

i 'go'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *ihí* (64), 3rd sing. *etu* (51), 2nd dual *itam* (8.101.8c), 3rd dual *itām* (2), 2nd pl. *itá* (17), *étana* (2), *itana* (3), 3rd pl. *yántu* (30)

pres V. (caus.) 2nd sing. *inú* (9.29.4c), *inuhí* (6.10.7a), *inva* (5.4.7c), 3rd sing. *invatu* (4), 2nd dual *invatam* (2), 3rd dual. *invatām* (6.70.6d)

The stem inu- is effectively the causative of i, as in i.e. 6.10.7a vi dvéṣāṃsīnuhi vardháyélām 'scatter the enemies, enhance the refreshment'. Another example of a similar causative stem formation is jinv-/ $j\bar{v}a$ -. It would be tempting to describe hinu- as the causative of $h\bar{a}$, but Mayrhofer (1986: s. HAY) specifically rejects this, with ample justification. 140

Dunkel (1985) suggests that the form $\acute{e}ta$ which appears in such expressions as 5.45.5a $\acute{e}to$ nv $\grave{a}dy\acute{a}$ $sudhy\grave{o}$ $bh\acute{a}v\bar{a}ma$ 'come let us have good thoughts today' and 8.24.19a $\acute{e}to$ nv $\acute{i}ndram$ $st\acute{a}v\bar{a}ma$ 'come let us praise Indra now' is in fact a full grade imperative and not $\bar{a}+i$ as it is usually interpreted. He bases this on what he considers to be a full-grade endingless 2nd pers. sing. impv. form $\acute{e}t$ in such Greek examples as $\acute{e}t$... $\acute{a}kouoov$ 'come listen' (II. 9.262). This is to my mind highly unlikely, because if it were true, we would have to consider the form $\acute{e}hi$, in the singular counterpart of this construction, which occurs several times in Book 8 in the formulaic $\acute{e}hi$ $dr\acute{a}va$ $p\acute{a}ba$ 'Come, hurry, drink' to be the same kind of full-grade imperative. However, in this case, the accentuation clearly shows that the form is actually $\acute{a}+ihi$. If it really were a full-grade imperative form the accent would be on the second syllable, cf. $vandh\acute{t}$. $vandh\acute{t}$. $vandh\acute{t}$.

¹⁴⁰ For further discussion of the connection between *eti* and *inoti* see Mayrhofer (1986: s. AY¹, AY²), Joachim, (1978: 39f. and 138). Also Insler (1972³).

¹⁴¹ As shown on page 23, the ending -dhi is always accented, except for the single form y o dhi, if indeed this form does have the -dhi ending. Insler (1972²) has suggested that imperative forms with full-grade roots and root-accent could have existed, although he is unable to provide a convincing example. Since the form e hi is preserved only in an archaic formula, then maybe this is what we are dealing with here. On the same subject, note the accentuation e hi which occurs in the quoted form at SBM 1.1.4.12 and SBK 2.1.3.16 (see page 71). Since the other forms in the same sentence are accented on their preverbs, this may show that the composers of that text did not recognise a preverb in this form. See also page 123.

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i_2, inv see i
ing 'set in motion'
pres. act. 2nd sing. ingaya (4.57.4d)
idh 'kindle'
pres.med. 2nd pl. indhvam (10.101.1b), 3rd pl. indhatām (1.170.4b)
il 'come to rest'
pres. act. 2nd pl. iláyata (1.191.6d)
is1 'send'
pres. act. 2nd pl. isyata (1.15.9c)
is2 'seek'
pres. act. 2nd sing. ichá (4), ichatu (7.102.1c), icháta (7.104.18a)
pres. med. 2nd sing. ichasva (10.10.10d)
isany- 'drive'
pres. act. 2nd sing. isanya (3.50.3d), 2nd pl. isanyata (5.52.14d)
For a discussion and bibliography on the connection of this stem to is_1 'send' see
Mayrhofer (1986: s. ES2).
īnkhay- 'to swing, rock'
pres act. 2nd sing. īnkhaya (3)
All three attestations of this form are in 9.52.3: carúr ná yás tám īnkhaya-, índo ná
dấnam īnkhaya / vadhaír vadhasnav īnkhaya 'that which is like a pot, rock it, O
drop, rock the gift, rock with weapons, O weapons bearer'.
īd 'praise'
pres. act. 2nd sing. t̄liṣva (8.23.1a)
\bar{t}r see r_1
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u 'weave'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *vaya* (10.130.1d 2x), *vayata* (10.53.6c)

Originally an - $\acute{a}ya$ - form built on the *anit* root u, $<*h_2 u$ - $\acute{e}ie$ -. From this present stem were later on secondarily derived such forms as the future $vayisy\acute{a}nt$ - 142 . The form vaya occurs only in 10.130.1d: $pr\acute{a}$ $vay\acute{a}pa$ $vay\acute{e}ty$ $\bar{a}sate$ $tat\acute{e}$ 'they (the Fathers) sit at the stretched (sacrifice) saying 'weave this way, weave that way'.

uks 'sprinkle'

pres. act. 2nd dual uksatam (6), 2nd pl. uksata (1.87.2d)

pres. med. 2nd dual ukséthām (7.64.4c)

ud 'wet'

pres. act. 2nd sing. undhi (5.83.8c), 2nd pl. unátta (5.42.3b)

Appears in exactly the same environment as the impv. forms of $uk\bar{s}$ — with the instr. of ghrta—: 5.83.8c ghrtena dyavaprthivi vy undhi 'moisten the heavens and the earth with ghee' apparently addressed to the rain, and 5.42.3ab ud uraya uraya

ubj 'subdue'

pres. act. 2nd dual ubjátam (2), 3rd pl. ubjántu (6.52.1c)

This is a secondary root, originally the -*sk*- present of the root *vabh*. First suggested by Osthoff (1884). Osthoff's position is confirmed by Lubotsky (2001: 39).

¹⁴² Mayrhofer (1986: s. O).

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urusy- 'protect'
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pres. act. 2nd sing. *uruṣyá* (8), 3rd sing. *uruṣyatu* (8.47.9a), 2nd dual. *uruṣyátam* (6), 3rd dual. *uruṣyátām* (3), 2nd pl. *uruṣyata* (3), 3rd pl. *uruṣyántu* (8.25.10c)

us 'burn'

pres. act. 2nd sing. osa (2), osatāt (4.4.4b), 2nd dual osatam (7.104.1c)

r1 'go, move, rise'

pres. act. III 2nd pl. *iyarta* (8.7.13c)

pres. med. 2nd sing. $\bar{t}rsya$ (3), 2nd dual. $\bar{t}r\bar{a}th\bar{a}m$ (8.73.1a), 2nd pl. $\bar{t}rdhvam$ (1.113.16a), 3rd pl. $\bar{t}rat\bar{a}m$ (3)

pres. caus. 2nd sing. arpaya (2.33.4c), 2nd dual arpayatam (7.104.1b)

pres. X 2nd sing. *īraya* (12), 2nd dual. *īrayatam* (10.39.2b)

pres. X. med. 2nd sing. *īrayasva* (2), 2nd pl. *īrayadhvam* (4.34.2d)

The single attestation of the transitive reduplicated present impv. iyarta ($<*h_3i-h_3er-te$) is 8.7.13 \acute{a} no rayim . . . $iyart\bar{a}$ maruto $div\acute{a}h$ 'Set in motion for us property from heaven, O Maruts'. The middle voice forms $\bar{i}rsva$ etc. correspond to this stem. They are predominantly late, and are reflexive, as in e.g. 10.18.8a $\acute{u}d$ $\bar{i}rsva$ $n\bar{a}ry$ $abh\acute{i}$ $j\bar{i}valok\acute{a}m$ 'Move yourself, O Woman, to the world of the living'.

arpayati means 'to raise up, erect', while \bar{t} rayati means 'to set in motion', as in 4.34.2c $suv\bar{t}$ rām $asm\acute{e}$ rayím \acute{e} rayadhvam 'bring us the good-heroed property' and is derived from the middle voice present \bar{t} rte, which had been reanalysed as belonging to a root \bar{t} r.

Jamison (1983: 124) derives *arpayati* from the root $*h_2er$ 'to fit', whence also e.g. Greek ἀραρίσκω. Mayrhofer (1986: s. *áram*) appears to agree with this (despite treating all the finite forms together under AR^I), however synchronically speaking the two roots $*h_3er$ and $*h_2er$ have merged into a single root r^{143} .

r2 'arrive, hit'

pres. act. 3rd sing. *rchatu* (2), 3rd pl. *rchantu* (10.87.15c)

¹⁴³ See Mayrhofer (1986: s. AR^{1}), LIV under 1. * $h_{2}er$.

form see p. 25.

This verb is unattested outside of Book 10. The two examples of the form *rchatu* both occur in the same verse, 10.164.5de: yáṃ dviṣmás táṃ sá rchatu, yó no dvéṣṭi tám rchatu ' he whom we hate, may it hit him, he who hates us, may it hit him'.

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pres. act. 2nd sing. árca (25), 3rd sing. arcatu (10.36.5b), 2nd pl. árcata (24), 3rd. pl. árcantu (2)

pd 'agitate, slay'

pres. act. pdantu (7.104.24c), caus. pres. ardaya (2)

pdh 'attain, thrive'

-ya- pres. pdhyatām (10.85.27a)
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Only occurs once at 10.85.27a *ihá priyám prajáyā te sám rdhyatām*. Kulikov (2001) rules out a passive meaning, translating 'Here let the pleasant thing succeed for you in respect to your offspring', asserting that the instrumental *prajáyā* refers to the scope of prosperity, as in the case of other verbs of similar meaning, such as *púṣya*-. Earlier scholars, such as Thieme (1958), have understood this forms as passive: 'Let the dear thing be attained here by your offspring'. This verb has a *-nu*- present, *rdhnoti*, as well as a *-na*- infix present *rṇadhat*, for which no imperatives are attested.

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ej 'move'

pres. act. 3rd sing. ejatu (5.78.7c)

kan 'enjoy'
iṣ-aor.caniṣṭám (7.70.4a)

perf. act. cākandhi (10.147.3a), cākantu (1.122.14d)

caniṣṭám is probably a nonce-form built on the basis of the superlative cániṣṭha-.

See Narten (1964: 111f.), and Hoffmann (1952). For the long reduplication vowel of
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cākandhi see Kümmel (2000: 130f.). For the irregular full grade in the root of this

kr 'do'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *kṛṇu* (8), *kuru* (2), *kṛṇuhí* (28), *kṛṇutāt* (2.30.5d), 3rd sing. *kṛṇotu* (14), 2nd dual *kṛṇutám* (6), 2nd pl. *kṛṇutá* (9), *kṛṇóta* (5), *kṛṇótana* (5), 3rd pl. *kṛṇvántu* (5)

pres. med. 2nd sing. *kṛṇuṣvá* (14), 3rd sing. *kṛṇutấm* (2.5.7b), 2nd pl. *kṛṇudhvám* (27)

root aor. act. 2nd sing. *kṛdhí* (100), 2nd dual *kṛtám* (16), 2nd pl. *kṛta* (2), *kárta* (9), *kártana* (6)

root aor. med. 2nd sing. *kṛṣvá* (8), 2nd pl. *kṛdhvam* (7.34.15b) **a-aor. act.** 2nd dual *karatam* (7.65.2b), 3rd dual *káratām* (4.55.3d)

[**aor. inj.** *kah* (2)]

One of the most common verbs in the RV. It is always transitive, and the middle-voice forms are in addition affective, as in 2.26.2bc *bhadrám mánaḥ kṛṇuṣva vṛṭratū́rye / havíṣ kṛṇuṣva subhágo yáthásasi* 'make (for yourself) blessed inspiration for surpassing obstacles, make yourself an oblation, so you will be lucky', or affective-possessive as in 4.4.5b *āvíṣ kṛṇuṣva daívyāny agne* 'Make your (own) divine [powers] visible, O Agni'.

The expression $pr\acute{a}$ k_r (med.) + dat. means 'make [a god] well disposed towards yourselves', as in 1.186.10ab $pr\acute{o}$ $a\acute{s}v\acute{i}n\bar{a}v$ $\acute{a}vase$ k_r^r iudhvam, $pr\acute{a}$ $p\bar{u}$ $s\acute{a}nam$ $sv\acute{a}tavaso$ $h\acute{i}$ $s\acute{a}nti$ 'make the Aśvins well-disposed towards you, so they will help, (make) Pūṣan (well-disposed), because they are powerful in themselves'.

The form kuru occurs twice in the RV, at 10.19.2b $p\'unar en\bar{a}$ ny 'a 'a kuru 'make them [the cows] go back' and 10.145.2d p'atim me k'evalam kuru 'make my husband mine alone'. This, and the form kurmah (10.51.7a), are the only occurrences in the RV of the later present stem of the verb k_r^{144} . The a-aorist forms are a secondary derivation from the root-aorist subjunctive stem kara-.

krnu and krnuhi have a metrically complementary distribution: whereas the former – with one exception – usually appears at the end of eight-syllable lines, krnuhi generally occurs in eleven-syllable lines immediately after the caesura. krnuhi also appears twice in eight-syllable lines at the third, fourth and fifth syllable.

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¹⁴⁴ For the formation of the *kar-/kur*- stem see Hoffmann (1976²).

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kṛṣ 'pull'
pres. act. I karṣa (5.83.7c)
pres. IV. kṛṣatu (4.57.4b), kṛṣantu (4.57.8a)
pres. med. kṛṣasva (10.34.13a)
For the difference between the two present stems see Gotō (1987: 112f.).

kṝ₁ 'scatter'
pres. act. 2nd sing. kira (2)

kṝ₂ 'praise'
int. pres. 2nd sing. carkṛtất (1.104.5c)

klp 'put in order, fit together'
pres. med. 2nd sing. kalpasva (1.170.2d)
caus. act. pres. 2nd sing. kalpaya (10.18.5d), 3rd sing. kalpayatu (10.184.1a)
caus. med. pres. 2nd sing. kalpayasva (2)
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Kalpasva, in its single attestation means 'to be tolerant', or 'to be in accord with': 1.170.2cd *tébhiḥ kalpasva sādhuyấ*, *mấ naḥ samáraṇe vadhīḥ* 'Be in real harmony with them [the Maruts], do not kill us in battle'.

The causative means 'to arrange', as in 10.18.5cd yáthā ná pűrvam áparo jáhāty, evấ dhātar ấyūṃṣi kalpayaiṣām 'So that the young doesn't abandon the old, thus arrange their lifetimes', while the middle-voice causative is affective, meaning 'arrange for oneself': 10.10.12c anyéna mát pramúdaḥ kalpayasva 'Arrange lustful pleasures (for yourself) with some else than me'.

With the exception of the present form *kalpasva*, this verb is only attested in Book 10. *kalpasva* occurs at 1.170.2d, making this a verb of uniformly late distribution. 145

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krand 'cry out'

pres. act. 2nd sing. kranda (2), 3rd sing. krandatu (5.58.6)

pres. caus. 2nd sing. krandaya (6.47.30a)
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¹⁴⁵ See also Jamison (1983: 124.).

kram 'stride'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *krāma* (10.164.1b)

pres. med. 2nd sing. kramasva (4)

aor. act. 2nd dual. kramistam (1.182.3c)

Gotō (1987: 119) shows that the middle voice forms are durative, meaning "hindurchschreiten, weit dahinschreiten", as e.g. 4.18.11d (trans. quoting Geldner) sákhe viṣṇo vitaráṃ ví kramasva "Freund Viṣṇu, schreite so weit als möglich aus!" while the active forms are "terminative", vi-krāma translated by Gotō as 'auseinanderschreiten, auseinandergehen'. There is only one example of an imperative from the active stem, with the preverb apa: 10.164.1ab ápehi manasas paté, 'pa krāma paráś cara 'Go forth, Lord of Thought, stride away, wander far' 146

kṣam 'pardon, be favourable'

pres. med. 2nd pl. ksámadhvam (2)

Both examples of the imperative of *kṣam* occur in consecutive hymns in Book 2: 2.29.2cd *abhikṣattắro abhí ca kṣámadhvam, adyắ ca no mṛláyatāparáṃ ca* 'as distributors (of goods), pardon us and have mercy on us today and later' ¹⁴⁷ and 2.28.3d *abhí kṣamadhvaṃ yújyāya devāḥ* '(You sons of Aditi) be favourable to an alliance, O gods'. Of the other three occurrences of this verb, two of them are in 2.33, and the only one to occur outside Book 2 is the present middle participle form *kṣámamāṇam* at 10.104.6c. Thus, finite forms of this verb are restricted to Book 2 only.

ksar 'flow'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *ksára* (4), 3rd pl. *ksarantu* (9.86.37c)

All of the imperative forms, and many of the other occurrences of this characteristic Soma-keyword are restricted to Book 9. With the preverb *abhi* the valency of this verb is highly reminiscent semantically of that of the verb *arṣ* (see p. 92) as in 9.35.3c *kṣárā no abhí vấryam* 'flow choice property to us', again assuming that *naḥ*

¹⁴⁶ For literature on the stems *krāmati* : *kramate* see Mayrhofer (1986: s. *KRAMi*) and LIV s. *kRemH*.

¹⁴⁷ Translation Klein (1985: 1-188).

is a dative and not an accusative as translated by Geldner, "Fließe uns, zu begehrenwertem Besitz".

ksi 'dwell'

pres. caus. 2nd sing. ksayáya (3.46.2d)

ksip 'throw, launch'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *kṣipa* (2.30.5a)

khud 'insert (penis)'

pres. act. 2nd pl. khudáta (10.101.12b)

This is the only appearance of this verb in the RV. 10.101.12ab kápŗn naraḥ kapṛthám úd dadhātana codáyata khudáta vấjasātaye 'The penis, O Men, erect the penis, thrust it, insert it for the winning of booty!'

gam 'go, come'

pres. act. 2nd sing. gácha (6), 3rd sing. gachatu (4), gachatāt (5), 2nd dual gáchatam (20), gachatām (3), 2nd pl. gachata (10.15.11a), 3rd pl. gachantu (2)

pres. med. 2nd sing. gachasva (2), 2nd pl. gachadhvam (10.191.2a)

aor. act. 2nd sing. *gahi* (84), *gadhi* (8.98.4a), 3rd sing. *gantu* (7), 2nd dual *gatám* (68), *gantám* (14), 2nd pl. *gata* (12), *gánta* (8), *gantá* (6.49.11b), *gántana* (9), 3rd pl. *gámantu* (6)

-iṣ- aor. 2nd dual gamiṣṭam (2)

caus. pres. 2nd sing. gamaya (10.152.4d), gāmaya (5.5.10c)

With the exception of the forms *gachatam* and *gachatām*, the pres. impv. of the verb *gam* only occurs in Books 9 and 10 of the RV. All of the middle-voice forms of the present impv., which only occur with the preverb *sám*, occur in books 9 and 10. The form (*sam*)*gachasva* occurs twice, but in the same verse of the same hymn – 10.14.8a and d: *sám gachasva pitŕbhih sám yaména- ... sám gachasva tanvà suvárcāh* 'Come together with the fathers, with Yama ... come together with a (new) body (when you are) well-shining'

The second person singular root-aorist form *gadhi* is a hapax legomenon, occurring only at 8.98.4a.¹⁴⁸

The -iṣ- aorist form gamiṣṭam occurs twice in the same hymn in Book 10 at 10.106.3b paśvéva citrấ yájur ấ gamiṣṭam 'like two bright animals, come to the sacrifice' and 10.106.4d. śruṣṭīvấneva hávam ấ gamiṣṭam 'like two attentive (attendants), come to our call'. Narten (1964: 107) calls this a "metrisch bedingte Kunstbildung", and also classes this with other cases of -iṣ- aorist forms which are based on superlatives, such as caniṣṭam (see p. 99). The basis for this derivation is the form ấgamistha-, an epithet associated elsewhere with the Aśvins.

For the ablaut variants gata, gánta and gantá see page 31.

For the form *gachatāt* see page 35.

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gā1 'go'
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pres. act. 3rd sing. *jígātu* (2), 2nd dual *jigātam* (2.24.12d), 2nd pl. *jigāta* (2), *jigātana* (5.59.6c)

aor. act. 2nd pl. gāta (3), gātana (5.55.9c)

[aor. inj. $g\bar{a}h$ (4)]

This verb is actually entirely missing a second-person singular imperative. The aorist injunctive form $g\bar{a}h$ fills the gap. It is attested four times in its modal function, making it the most common "imperative" form of the verb $g\bar{a}$. See page 40.

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g\bar{a}_2 'sing'
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pres. act. 2nd sing. gáya (7), 2nd pl. gáyata (28)

aor. act.? 2nd pl. gātá (8.2.38)

The form $g\bar{a}t\acute{a}$ appears only at 8.2.38 $g\bar{a}th\acute{a}\acute{s}ravasam$ $s\acute{a}tpatim$, $\acute{s}r\acute{a}vask\bar{a}mam$ $purutm\acute{a}nam$ / $k\acute{a}nv\bar{a}so$ $g\bar{a}t\acute{a}$ $v\bar{a}j\acute{t}nam$ 'The famous-in-song, the true-leader, the desirous-of-fame, the great-souled; Kāṇvas, sing to (or of?) the prize-winner!' This translation, in which I agree with Geldner, makes far more sense, considering the context ($g\bar{a}th\acute{a}\acute{s}ravasam$ etc.) than translating $g\bar{a}ta$ as 'go!' However, it is problematic, as the verb $g\bar{a}_2$ has a signatic aorist, and no other root forms at all. Grassmann classes this form under $g\bar{a}$ 'to go', but translates it "jemand angelen (mit

¹⁴⁸ See Lubotsky (1995¹: 133ff.).

Liedern) besingen", and remarks that "der Form $g\bar{a}ta$, die auch zu $g\bar{a}$, singen gezogen werden könnte". While $g\bar{a}$ 'to sing' + acc. often means 'to sing (a song)' as e.g. 2.43.2a $udg\bar{a}t\acute{e}va$ śakune sắma $g\bar{a}yasi$ 'O bird, you sing like an $udg\bar{a}t_f$ singing a $s\bar{a}man$ ' or 10.71.11b $g\bar{a}yatr\acute{a}m$ tvo $g\bar{a}yati$ śákvar \bar{i} su 'the one sings a song in Śakvar \bar{i} stanzas', it can also mean "to sing of, praise" as in 1.21.2 $t\acute{a}$ $yaj\~{n}\acute{e}su$ $pr\acute{a}$ śamsata-, $indr\bar{a}gn\~{t}$ śumbhat \bar{a} $nara\rlap/{h}$ / $t\acute{a}$ $g\~{a}yatr\acute{e}su$ $g\~{a}yata$ 'Praise them (two) at the sacrifices, adorn Indra and Agni, O Men, sing of them in songs.' There is therefore at least no syntactical problem in assigning this form to $g\~{a}$ 'to sing'.

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gātuy- 'make way' pres. act. 2nd sing. gātuyá (8.16.12b).
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guh 'hide'

pres. act. 2nd pl. *gū́hata* (1.86.10a)

The form $g\bar{u}hat\bar{a}m$, which Lubotsky (1997¹: 491) classifies as an imperative, is in fact a 3rd person dual active injunctive: 2.40.2ab $ima\acute{u}$ $deva\acute{u}$ $j\acute{a}yam\bar{a}nau$ juṣanta-, $ima\acute{u}$ $t\acute{a}m\bar{a}msi$ $g\bar{u}hat\bar{a}m$ $\acute{a}juṣt\bar{a}$ '(All the gods) were happy when these two gods were born, these two abolished the unhappy darkness.'

For long vowel in stem as generalisation of gūdhá- see Gotō (1987: 296 fn. 704).

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gūrdhay- 'praise'
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pres. act. 2nd sing. gūrdhaya (8.19.1a)

Appears only at 8.19.1ab $t\acute{am}$ $g\ddot{u}rdhay\ddot{a}$ $sv\grave{a}rnaram$, $dev\acute{a}so$ $dev\acute{a}m$ $arat\acute{im}$ dadhanvire 'Praise him, the Sun-man, the gods have run to the god, the one with (rays like) spokes¹⁴⁹'. Oldenberg (1909: ad loc.) suggests this is an instr. sing. of a fem. noun $g\ddot{u}rdh\acute{a}$, but this idea has received little or no acceptance. There are no other finite forms of a verbal root $g\ddot{u}rdh$. ¹⁵⁰

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gṛ 'be awake'pres. med. 2nd sing. járasva (2)
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¹⁴⁹ Meaning of aratí from Mayrhofer (1986: s.v.), following Thieme (1949: 26ff.).

¹⁵⁰ Jamison, (1983: 82) suggests that this form may be a 'dh-extension' of the root $gr\bar{a}/g\bar{r}$ 'to greet', or it may secondarily be built to a posited impv. * $g\bar{u}rdh\hat{\iota}$, as śrudh $\hat{\iota}$ ya to śrudh $\hat{\iota}$. Jamison herself has severe doubts as to the plausibility of this theory.

perf. act. 2nd sing. jāgṛhí (4), 2nd dual jāgṛtam (2)

aor. act. 2nd dual jigṛtám (5), 2nd pl. jigṛtá (7.57.6d)

The long vowel in $j\bar{a}g_rhi$ is a result of a laryngeal at the beginning of the root, $*h_1ger^{151}$.

The aor. impv. examples of this verb are all transitive, the reduplicated stem $\acute{a}j\bar{\imath}gar$ being the aorist of the pres. caus. stem $j\bar{a}raya$ -, which is attested three times in the RV¹⁵²; e.g. 1.158.2c $jigrt\acute{a}m$ $asm\acute{e}$ $rev\acute{a}t\bar{\imath}h$ $p\acute{u}ramdh\bar{\imath}h$, 'make rich wealth awaken for us'.

The aorist occurs twice with $p\'uramdh\bar{t}h$ 'riches' as direct object (1.158.2c and 4.50.11c, which is repeated several times elsewhere) and once with $r\bar{a}y\acute{a}h$ 'property' (7.57.6d). The examples of the perfect and present impvs. are intransitive. jarasva means 'wake up', while $j\bar{a}gghi$ means 'be watchful, awake'.

The aor. impv. forms have a short reduplicating syllable, cf. *didhṛtam* (q.v. under *dhr*).

grbhi/grhi 'seize'

pres. act. 2nd sing. grbhāyá (13), 2nd pl. grbhāyáta (2)

pres. IX act. 2nd sing. grhāṇá (10.103.12b), 3rd sing. grhṇātu (4.57.7a)

For 'deverbative' $grbh\bar{a}ya$ - besides $grbhn\bar{a}ti$ see LIV s. g^hrebh_2 and bibliography in Gotō (1988: fn. 5), Mayrhofer (1986: s. $GRABH^I$). For class IX impvs. in $-\bar{a}na$, see p. 28.

 $g\bar{r}$ 'praise, welcome'

pres. IX act. 2nd sing. *gṛṇāti* (9), 3rd sing. *gṛṇātu* (2), 3rd dual. *gṛṇātām* (10.47.8c), 2nd pl. *gṛṇāta* (10.15.6b)

pres. I med. 2nd sing. *jarasva* (7.9.6c), 3rd sing. *jaratām* (4.4.8b)

aor. med. *gurasva* (3.52.2b)

This "polymorphic" root receives thorough treatment in Gotō (1987: 153ff.). The form *gurasva* appears once at 3.52.2ab: *puroláśam pacatyàm, juṣásvendrá gurasva ca* 'Enjoy the cooked rice-cake, and welcome it, Indra'. For its classification as an

¹⁵¹ Kümmel (2000: 191ff.), LIV s. *h*₁ger, Mayrhofer (1986: s. *JAR*).

¹⁵² Jamison (1983: 126f.).

aorist imperative, constructed from $*g\bar{u}r\bar{s}va$ on the basis of the form $ju\bar{s}asva$, see Gotō (1987: 154, fn. 242). Joachim (1978: 75f.) suggests the forms could be derived from $g\bar{r}_2$ 'to swallow'. For the possibility that the root $*g\bar{u}rdh$ may be secondarily derived from this root, see page 105.

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gopāy- 'guard'
pres. act. 2nd dual gopāyátam (6.74.4d)

gras 'swallow'
pres. med. 2nd dual grásetām (3.53.3c)

ghuṣ 'hear'
aor. si-impv. ghóṣi (2)
See discussion of this controversial form on page 46.

cakṣ 'look'
aor. -si impv. 2nd sing. cakṣi (2)
aor. med. 2nd sing. cakṣva (3)
caus. 2nd sing. cakṣaya (2)
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Almost all occurrences of this secondary root are middle voice: e.g. 7.104.25ab *práti* cakṣva ví cakṣva-, -índraś ca soma jāgṛtam 'Look here, look around, O Indra and Soma, be aware'.

The active -si-impv. cakṣi means, on one occasion, with the preverb práti 'to show' 7.3.6cd divó ná te tanyatúr eti śúṣmaś, citró ná sắraḥ práti cakṣi bhānúm 'Your crash comes like thunder from heaven, show your brilliance, bright like the sun', while the other instance of this form, with the preverb áva, means 'to look down': 9.97.33a divyáḥ suparṇó 'va cakṣi soma 'Look down like a heavenly eagle, O Soma'.

The causative form *cakṣaya* appears twice with the preverb *prá* with the meaning 'to reveal' or even 'illuminate': 1.134.3def *prá bodhayā púraṃdhiṃ, jārá á sasatīm iva* / *prá cakṣaya ródasī vāsayoṣásaḥ* 'awaken riches, like a lover (awakens) a sleeping woman, reveal the two worlds, let the dawns shine,' Cf. Jamison (1983: 125), who asserts that *cakṣaya* is the transitive counterpart of an intransitive use of the form *ví caste* 'appear'. No such transitive use with *ví* occurs in the imperative form.

cat 'hide'

caus. med. 2nd sing. cātáyasva (3)

The form $c\bar{a}t\acute{a}yasva + acc. + abl.$ means 'to make X hide from Y'¹⁵³ i.e. to drive away': 2.33.2cd *vy àsmád dvéṣo vitaráṃ vy áṃho, vy ámīvāś cātayasvā víṣūcīḥ* 'drive all hostilities, all trouble far away from us, all distress in all directions'.

canasy- 'take pleasure in'

pres. act. 2nd dual canasyátam (1.3.1c)

A "tertiary derivation" denominative verb from the noun $c\acute{a}nas$ -, which in turn is from the verbal root kan^{154} ; cf. manasya- $< m\acute{a}nas$ - < man-.

car 'move'

pres. act. 2nd sing. cara (11), 3rd pl. carantu (3)

ci 'clear, pile'

pres. act. 2nd sing. cinuhí (6.53.4b), 3rd sing. cinotu (10.87.5d)

root aor. act. 2nd pl. citana (4.37.7b), 3rd pl. ciyántu (1.90.4b)

iș-aor. active 2nd dual cayistam (6.67.8d)

The form *cayiṣṭam* is another of those derived from superlative adjectives; cf. *caniṣṭam* and *gamiṣṭam*. ¹⁵⁵ It occurs once at 6.67.8d *yuváṃ dāśúṣe ví cayiṣṭam áṃhaḥ* 'you two clear away the troubles of the worshipper'. With the preverb ví, the root often means 'to clear (a path)', as in 6.53.4ab ví pathó vấjasātaye, cinuhí ví mṛ́dho jahi 'clear the paths to the capture of booty, smite away the enemies' and 4.37.7ab ví no vājā ṛbhukṣaṇaḥ, patháś citana yáṣṭave 'Clear the way to the sacrifice, O Vājas, O Rbhukṣaṇs', a theme repeated at 1.90.4b.

¹⁵³ Jamison (1983: 113).

¹⁵⁴ Q.v. page 99.

¹⁵⁵ See pages 99 and 104.

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cit 'perceive'
pres. act. 3rd dual cetatām (10.35.1c)
perf. act. 2nd sing. cikiddhí (7)
caus. med. 2nd dual cetayethām (8.9.10d), 2nd pl. cetáyadhvam (3.53.11a)
desid. cikitsa (2)
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The perfect form *cikiddhí* is by far the most common imperative of this verb, and has transitive meaning 'to perceive', as in 4.4.11c *tváṃ no asyá vácasaś cikiddhi* 'you take heed of this word for us' and 2.43.3b *tūṣṇt̄m ắsīnaḥ sumatiṃ cikiddhi naḥ* 'sitting quietly, perceive goodwill for us', as does the present *cetatām* 10.35.1c *maht̄ dyávāpṛthivt̄ cetatām ápas-* 'may the great heaven and earth perceive our work'. The causative middle stem appears with the meaning 'pay attention, be attentive', with no explicit direct object: 3.53.11ab *úpa préta kuśikāś cetáyadhvam, áśvaṃ rāyé prá muñcatā sudásaḥ* 'go to his side, be attentive, let the horse of Sudās go, so he may win property' and 8.9.10 *yád vāṃ kakṣt̄vām̄ utá yád vyàśva, ṛṣir yád vāṃ dīṛghátamā juhāva | pṛthī yád vāṃ vainyáḥ sádaneṣv, evéd áto aśvinā cetayethām* 'When K. and the Ḥṣi V. and D., when P. and V. have called you to the (sacrificial) seats, just then, for that reason, pay attention, O Aśvins.'156

For the form *cikitsa* and the other desiderative impvs. see p. 34.

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cud 'impel'pres. act. 2nd sing. códa (2), 2nd pl. codata (2)pres. med. 2nd sing. codasva (2)
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caus. pres. 2nd sing. *codáya* (19), 2nd dual *codáyatam* (10.39.2a), 2nd pl. *codáyata* (10.101.12b)

Jamison (1983: 153) claims that the causative form has a generally later distribution than the synonymous simple present, and thus was used as a replacement for it. As far as the imperative is concerned, two of the four attestations of the stem *coda*-occur in the late Book 1. However, one of them (1.48.2d) is a repetition of 7.96.2d. In any case, the causative stem is far more common than the simple present, suggesting that Jamison is correct, whatever the distribution of the forms. While the med. is usually intransitive ('hurries'), one example of the form *codasva* is transitive 8.75.6c *vŕsne codasva sustutím* 'drive the good praise (destined) for the bull'.

¹⁵⁶ Cf. Jamison (1983: 161ff.).

According to Jamison *ibid*., this is due to the presence of the transitive *namasva* in the previous verse.

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cyt 'bind'
pres. act. 2nd sing. cyta (1.25.21b)

cyu 'stir'
pres. act. caus. 2nd sing. cyāvaya (2), 3rd sing. cyāvayatu (10.17.3a)

chand 'seem'
aor. -si impv. chantsi (1.163.4c)

chid 'split, cut'
pres. act. 2nd sing. chindhí (1.133.2c)

jani 'give birth'
pres. -ya- med. 2nd sing. jāyasva (2), 3rd sing. jāyatām (3)
aor. med. 2nd sing. jániṣva (6.15.18a)
caus. act. 2nd sing. janáya (6), 3rd sing. janayatu (10.85.43a), 2nd dual janayatam (1.185.3c)
caus. med. janayasva (6.18.15d)
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The stem $j\bar{a}ya$ - is termed by Kulikov (2001: 242f.) not passive but "anti-causative", by which he means "the intransitive counterpart of a transitive verb in pairs like $jananta\ s\bar{u}ryam$ " (RV 9.23.2) 'they generated (gave birth to) the Sūrya' $\sim s\bar{u}ryo$ $aj\bar{a}yata$ (RV 10.90.13) 'Sūrya was born'.' (p. 16). This analysis is based primarily on the fact that the agent or source of the birth is in the ablative rather than the instrumental.

The -ya- stem occurs five times in the imperative, all of them in the late books 1 and 10 e.g. 10.183.1cd ihá prajấm ihá rayím rárāṇaḥ, prá jāyasva prajáyā putrakāma 'bestowing offspring here, property here, be born with offspring, O desirous of sons' and 10.43.9a új jāyatām paraśúr jyótiṣā sahá 'let the axe come into being together with light'.

The -iṣ- aor. med. forms have a similar meaning to the -ya- passives, but occur in earlier books, e.g. 6.15.18a jániṣvā devávītaye sarvátātā svastáye 'be born to feed the gods with completeness, for well-being'

The active of the causative, the impv. of which once again mostly occurs late, is the transitive counterpart of the intransitive $j\bar{a}yate^{157}$, e.g. 9.97.36d $vardh\acute{a}y\bar{a}$ $v\'{a}cam$ $jan\acute{a}y\bar{a}$ $p\'{u}ramdhim$ strengthen our speech, generate wealth!' while the med. of the caus. is affective, i.e. 'to create for oneself' 158.

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jambh 'crush'
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pres. act. 2nd sing. jambháya (2), 2nd dual jambháyatam (1.182.4a).

jas 'go away, wither'

-ya- pres. act. 2nd pl. jasyata (1.191.7d)

perf. act. 2nd dual jajastám (2)

The transitive perf. only occurs in two instances of a repeated pāda: 4.50.11d and 7.97.9d *jajastám aryó vanúṣām árātīḥ* 'make the hostility of the stranger, of the aggressors disappear'. The -ya- forms are intransitive 1.191.7d sárve sākáṃ ní jasyata 'Let all of you disappear at once' 159.

ji 'win'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *jáya* (6), 3rd sing. *jayatu* (6.47.26d), 2nd dual *jáyatam* (2), 2nd pl. *jáyata* (2), 3rd pl. *jayantu* (2)

pres. med. 3rd pl. *jayantām* (10.87.18d)

aor. -si impv. 2nd sing. jési (7)

root aor. (?) 2nd dual. jitam (9.7.9c)

The active forms of this verb are transitive, meaning 'to win, capture (something)', e.g, 8.75.12c saṃvárgaṃ sáṃ rayíṃ jaya 'win booty and property'. The middle voice only occurs once, together with the preverb párā, meaning 'to lose, gamble away' at 10.87.18a párā bhāgám óṣadhīnāṃ jayantām 'let them gamble away their share in the plants'.

An extremely interesting example is 8.89.4d *háno vṛtráṃ jáyā svàḥ* 'you will smite Vṛtra, (and) win the sun'. The pāda is almost identical to 1.80.3d *háno vṛtráṃ jáyā*

¹⁵⁷ Jamison (1983: 154).

¹⁵⁸ Gotō (1987: 146 fn 206).

¹⁵⁹ Kulikov (2001: 401).

 $ap\acute{a}h$ in which $j\acute{a}y\bar{a}$ is to be read as a subjunctive $j\acute{a}y\bar{a}h$. The syntagma ji- $sv\grave{a}h$ is attested elsewhere; once with an impv. $-sv\grave{a}r$ jaya — at 8.15.12c, and once with an imperfect — ajayah $sv\grave{a}h$ — at 10.167.1d, and, as $s\acute{u}ryam$ $j\acute{a}yat$, at 10.43.5b. ji- $ap\acute{a}h$ is further attested at 5.30.5d making it the earlier of the two formulas to be attested. Therefore, if ji- $ap\acute{a}h$ is the original (despite on the face of it being attested later), then one may assume that $ap\acute{a}h$ was substituted with $sv\grave{a}h$, leaving the rest of the pāda undisturbed. It is possible that, as the sandhi of the visarga is unstable before /s/ + consonant, that it has simply disappeared and we do in fact have a subjunctive. If, however, the sandhi is regular, then this forces us to read the originally subjunctive $j\acute{a}y\bar{a}$ as an imperative, because $*j\acute{a}y\bar{a}s$ $sv\grave{a}h$ should yield $*j\acute{a}y\bar{a}h$ $sv\grave{a}h$, The former explanation is to my mind more likely, as the subjunctive makes more sense in this context.

While the present stem mostly means 'to capture', with direct object denoting the item captured, the aorist -si impv. jesi can also mean 'to defeat' in the formulaic syntagma jesi $\acute{s}\acute{a}tr\bar{u}n$. This is an instance of a fixed formula preserving the old aspectual meaning of the aorist imperative. 160

The isolated root form *jitam* occurs only at 9.7.9c [asmábhyam] śrávo vásūni sám *jitam* '[for us] capture glory and goods'.

jinv 'impel'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *jínva* (9), 3rd sing. *jinvatu* (4), 2nd dual *jínvatam* (10), *jinvata* (10.66.12d)

See LIV s. * $guieh_3$ and Mayrhofer (1986: s. GAY^I) for the relationship between this stem and $j\bar{\imath}v$. Also see above *inoti / invati* s. v. *i*.

jīv 'live'

pres. act. jīva (10.161.4a), jīvantu (10.18.4c)

¹⁶⁰ See p. 86.

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jus 'like'
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a-aor. 2nd sing. *juṣásva* (58), 3rd sing. *juṣátām* (10.165.2c), 2nd dual *juṣéthām* (9), 3rd dual *juṣetām* (5.72.3b), 2nd pl. *juṣádhvam* (6), 3rd pl. *juṣántām* (3)

aor. si-impv. jósi (3)

secondary thematic aor. impv. 2nd sing. jósa (10.158.2a)

perf. 2nd pl. jujustana (2)

thematicised perf. 2nd dual. jujosatam (1.93.11b)

The extremely common a-aor. med. form *juṣásva* means 'find favour in' and is transitive e.g. 1.12.12c *imáṃ stómaṃ juṣasva naḥ* 'find favour in this our prayer'. The aor. -*si* impv. *joṣi*, which appears three times, appears to mean the same at 4.9.7a *asmákaṃ joṣy adhvarám* 'find favour in our sacrifice'. For the -*si* impv. see also pages 26 and 47.

This verb is unusual in having no present stem. However, in later texts a pres. *juṣate*, is derived from the thematic aor. ¹⁶¹

There is also a secondarily thematicised aorist impv. j o s a probably based on the -si impv j o s i; cf. p a r s a from p r and the AV form n e s a from $n \bar{\iota}$ (see also p. 27). This form only occurs once at 10.158.2ab $j o s \bar{\iota} a$ savitar y o s s a te, $h o s a r a \bar{\iota} a$ savia s a savia s s

jūrv see j<u>r</u>

jṛ 'make old'

pres. act. 2nd dual járatam (2)

va-pres. 2nd sing. *jūrva* (6.6.6d)

aor. act. 2nd dual *jurátam* (1.182.3c)

The present stem *jára*- occurs only in the repeated line 7.67.10c and 7.69.8c *dhattáṃ rátnāni járataṃ ca sūrī́n* 'give gifts, and allow the patrons to grow old.' The form *jurátam* is considered by Gotō (1987: 152) to be an aorist, but is thought to be a

¹⁶¹ LIV s. *ģeus*, Gotō (1987: 154 fn. 242).

present by Narten (1964: 121) and Joachim (1978: 83). 162 The form is only attested once: 1.182.3c áti kramiṣṭaṃ jurátam paṇér ásuṃ 'walk over (him), grind the non-sacrificer's life,' with a negative meaning as opposed to the positive meaning ('allow to grow old') of the present stem.

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jñā 'know'
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pres. act. 2nd sing. jānīhi (2), 2nd pl. jānīta (1.94.8c)

pres. med. 3rd pl. *jānatām* (10.191.2b)

The middle voice impv. *jānatām* occurs only at 10.191.2ab, which is remarkable in that it also contains extremely rare instances of middle voice from both *gam* and *vad*: *sáṃ gachadhvaṃ sáṃ vadadhvaṃ, sáṃ vo mánāṃsi jānatām* 'come together, converse, may your minds know each other'. This sentence exemplifies well the reciprocal force of the preverb *sám*.

For the 2nd pers. sing. present of -na- forms like jānīhi see page 28.

taks 'fashion'

root. pres. act. 2nd sing. tālhi (10.180.2d)

a-aor. 2nd dual. takṣatam (7.104.4c), 2nd pl. takṣata (7), 3rd pl. takṣantu (4.33.8c) The root takṣ is descended from PIE *tetk, which is a secondary root derived from a reduplicated aorist form of the root *tek' 'to create' 165 . In Vedic, most scholars agree that the root forms are presents, while the thematic forms are aorists, this, despite the presence of two attestations of the forms takṣatha, which looks like a

¹⁶² See also LIV s. *gerh 2.

¹⁶³ There is a similar semantic connection between the possibly related roots $m\bar{r}_1$ (< *melh₁) 'grind' and $ml\bar{a}$ (*mleH) 'wither'. See Thieme (1939) and Mayrhofer (1986: s. $ML\bar{A}$).

¹⁶⁴ See Gotō (1987: 152f.).

¹⁶⁵ LIV s. *tetk.

present¹⁶⁶. In the impv., however, it is noticeable that while the 2nd pers. sing. is athematic, the rest of the paradigm is thematic, indicating a complimentary distribution or secondary thematicisation.

The form $t\bar{a}\underline{l}hi$ appears to be a regular outcome of the proto-form *tetk-dhi, which would have yielded * $tad\acute{z}$ -dhi by assimilation and then $t\bar{a}\underline{l}hi$ with simplification of the cluster and compensatory lengthening. ¹⁶⁷

There seem to be no other instances of a directly comparable consonant cluster, However, similar outcomes are found in the case of such forms as $b\bar{a}\underline{l}h\acute{a}$ - (< bamh) and $s\acute{a}\underline{l}hr$ - (< sah). They descend from * $ba\acute{z}h$ - $t\acute{a}$ and * $s\acute{a}\acute{z}h$ -tr respectively, with subsequent transfer of the voiced aspiration by Bartholomae's Law. On the other hand, * $va\acute{z}h$ - $t\acute{a}m$ (vah) yields $vo\underline{l}h\acute{a}m$, which is shown by Lubotsky (2000²) to be the result of the preceding /v/168.

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tan1 'stretch'
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pres. act. 2nd sing. tanu (1.120.11a), tanuhi (5)

pres. med. 2nd sing. tanusva (5), 2nd pl. tanudhvam (2)

Both tanuhi and tanuṣva appear several times with sthirá-, which here means 'bow string', as their direct object, With the preverb áva, the meaning is 'to slacken one's bow string'. The differentiation between active and middle is, as expected, dependent on whether the object is one's own bowstring, or somebody else's, e.g. 4.4.5c áva sthirấ tanuhi yātujúnāṃ 'Slacken the bow strings of those driven by sorcerers'. and 2.33.14cd áva sthirấ maghávadbhyas tanuṣva, mīḍhvas tokấya tánayāya mṛḷa 'Slacken your bow strings [O Rudra] for the sake of the liberal ones, be merciful to our children, O generous one.' Likewise with a positive meaning, with the preverb ấ: 10.120.4c ójīyo dhṛṣṇo sthirám ấ tanuṣva '(Ever) braver, stretch your bowstring, O daring one.'

tan2 'thunder', see stan

166 Narten (1964: 123ff.), Joachim (1978: 83f.).

¹⁶⁷ See Wackernagel (1896: 1-175), and also Narten and Joachim (*loc. cit*) who both also entertain the notion that the long vowel may be due to lengthened grade ablaut.

¹⁶⁸ Cf. Wackernagel (1896: 1-275).

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tap 'burn'
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pres. act 2nd sing. *tápa* (6), 3rd sing. *tapatu* (3), 2nd dual *tápatam* (7.104.1a), 2nd pl. *tapata* (8.89.7c)

pres. med. 2nd sing. tapasva (10.16.4a)

Act. may be both transitive, as the first two instances of the following example, and intransitive as – apparently – in the third: 3.18.2abc, tápo ṣv àgne ántarām amítrān, tápā śáṃsam áraruṣaḥ párasya / tápo vaso cikitānó acíttān 'burn our closer enemies, O Agni, burn the word of our further enemy, and burn, O good one, seeing the unseen ones.' The very rare middle-voice is affective – 'to heat for oneself' 169, as in 10.16.4ab ajó bhāgás tápasā táṃ tapasva, táṃ te śocís tapatu táṃ te arcíḥ 'The goat is your portion, heat it (for yourself) with your heat. Let your light burn him, your flame.'

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tilvilāy- 'be fertile'
pres. med. 2nd pl. tilvilāyádhvam (7.78.5c)

tud 'push'
pres. act. 2nd sing. tuda (6.53.6a)

tūrv, tur see t̄r

tuś 'hurry'
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pres. caus. 2nd sing. tośaya (8.54.8d)

This root is generally intransitive, the stem *tośa-* always occuring in the middle voice with the meaning 'hurry' 170. The only example of an imperative from this root is also the only example of the causative stem *tośaya-*, which means 'to drive,' or 'to hurry' in its transitive sense: 8.54.8cd *máhi sthūráṃ śaśayáṃ rádho áhrayam*, *práskaṇvāya ní tośaya* 'drive great, mighty, unbeatable, bold favour to Praskaṇva.' 171.

¹⁶⁹ See also Gotō (1987: 159f.).

¹⁷⁰ Gotō (1987: 166ff.).

¹⁷¹ See also Jamison (1983: 128.).

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trd 'pierce, drill' pres. act. VII 2nd sing. trndhi (4)
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trp 'be satiated'

pres. act. VII 2nd sing. *trpnuhi* (2), 2nd dual *trpnutám* (8.35.10a), 2nd pl. *trpnuta* (1.110.1d)

pres. VI 2nd sing. *tṛmpá* (8.45.22c), 3rd sing. *tṛmpatu* (1.23.7c), 2nd dual *tṛmpatam* (2), 3rd dual. *tṛmpatām* (3.12.3c)

caus. pres. 2nd sing. tarpáya (1.54.9c)

caus. med. 2nd dual tarpayethām (2)

Joachim (1978: 25) sees no semantic difference between the two pres. stems. This seems to be correct; both are intransitive and, if the source of one's satisfaction is explicitly mentioned, it is in the genitive: 2.16.6d *índra sómasya vṛṣabhásya tṛpṇuhi* 'Indra, be satiated with the bull-like Soma', 4.46.2c vấyo sutásya tṛmpatam 'O Vāyu [and Indra] be satiated from the pressed (Soma)'. The active causative tarpáya occurs with an accusative direct object and the genitive again denoting the item with which one is satisfied: 1.54.9c vy àśnuhi tarpáyā kắmam eṣām 'attain, fulfill your desire from them (cups full of Soma)'. In other words, it is a true causative of the intransitive present stem with the basic valency maintained throughout – 'cause your desire to be satisfied from them'. The med. caus. has the same valency, and appears to mean the same. 1.17.3ab anukāmáṃ tarpayethām, *índrāvaruṇa rāyá á* 'satisfy your desire for property' 172.

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      t̄r̄ 'pass'

      pres. act. 2nd sing. tara (2), 2nd pl. tarata (2)

      pres. IV act. 2nd sing. tirá (12), 2nd dual tiratam (7.93.4d), 2nd pl. tirata (2), 3rd pl. tirantu (3)

      pres. IV med. 2nd pl. tiradhvam (7.56.14b)

      va-pres. 2nd dual tūrvatam (6.50.10d)

      ya-pres. 2nd sing. tūrya (8.99.5d)

      s-aor. tāriṣṭam (2)

      [aor. inj. tārīḥ (4)]
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¹⁷² See also Jamison (1983: 140f.).

The stems *tara-* and *tira-* differ in their meaning. The first means 'to pass through (a place)', the object, where explicitly mentioned, appearing in the accusative, e.g. 8.75.15a *párasyā ádhi saṃvátó 'varām abhy á tara* 'from the further area, pass over to those (who are) nearer'. It can also mean 'overcome' 9.59.3b *víśvāni duritá tara* 'overcome all dangers'. The second, which only appears with preverbs, has meanings which vary according to the preverb used, but in all cases the verb is transitive with a concrete object. In a large proportion of its occurrences, it appears in the formula *prá tira ấyuḥ*, 'extend (someone's) lifespan'.

The stem *tūrva-*, also transitive, means 'overcome', and only appears once in the imperative: 6.50.10cd átrim ná mahás támaso 'mumuktam, tűrvatam narā duritád abhíke. This example is problematic. It could mean 'as you freed Atri from the great darkness, bring us out of the danger which is in front of us, O Heroes' 173, but this is not consistent with the meaning of this form in its other occurrences. This has led Gotō (1987: 163 fn. 258) to suggest that this example is parenthetical: 'überwindet, ihr Männer!'. Grassmann (1872: s. muc) takes the form mumuktam, which he reads with no augment, to be an imperative, a position supported by Hoffmann (1967: 150). Interpreting (c) as 'like Atri, free [me] from the great darkness' would solve the problem of the otherwise seemingly impossible syntax, as ná cannot function as a conjunction.

tūrya is a nonce-formation, appearing once at 8.99.5 tváṃ tūrya taruṣyatáḥ 'you overcome your adversaries'. Throughout this hymn there is a word-play on various forms containing the syllable -tur-. Gotō (op. cit.: 165 fn. 265) suggests that it may be based on a nominal compound-form °-tū́rya-, as in śatrutū́rya- 'overcoming the enemy' and vrtratū́rya- 'overcoming V.'.

The single example of the -is- aorist form $t\tilde{a}ristam$ occurs at 1.34.11c and 1.157.4c¹⁷⁴, and the form appears in the same formula as does $tir\dot{a}$ above: $pr\tilde{a}yus$ $t\tilde{a}ristam$ 'extend our lifespan' ¹⁷⁵.

¹⁷³ Cf. Klein (1985: 1-422) 'As ye freed Atri from the great darkness, (so) cause (us) to pass out of difficulty, when it confronts us, O heroes'.

¹⁷⁴ Narten (1964: 128ff.).

¹⁷⁵ See further Gotō (1987: 160ff.), Joachim (1978: 87f.), and LIV s. *terh₂.

trā 'save'

med. pres. 2nd sing. *trấyasva* (4), 3rd sing. *trấyatām* (3), 2nd dual *trāyethām* (5.70.3b), 3rd dual *trāyetām* (10.35.3b), 2nd pl. *trấyadhvam* (10.63.11b), 3rd pl. *trấyantām* (2)

s-aor. med. 2nd sing. trấsva (2), 2nd pl. trấdhvam (2)

The forms $tr\tilde{a}sva$ and $tr\tilde{a}dhvam$ must be sigmatic aorists and not root aorists both because of the rest of the paradigm, which is sigmatic, and also because of the parallel Gāthā Avestan form $\theta r\bar{a}zd\bar{u}m^{176}$. Both attestations of the form $tr\tilde{a}dhvam$ occur at 2.29.6cd: $tr\tilde{a}dhvam$ no $dev\bar{a}$ nijúro v_i^ckasya , $tr\tilde{a}dhvam$ kartád avapado yajatrah 'Save us from the crushing (jaws) of the wolf, save us from falling into the pit, O worship-worthy ones'

dams 'bite'

pres. act. 2nd sing. daśa (6.31.3c)

daks 'put right'

pres. act. 2nd sing. dáksata (2)

For the form *dakṣi*, which has in the past been connected with the root *dakṣ*, see page 49.

dad 'hold'

pres. act. 3rd sing. dadatām (3.53.17c)

This is a secondary root derived from $d\bar{a}_l$ 'give' ¹⁷⁷. Cf. also dadhantu from $dh\bar{a}$, in addition to the regular dadhatu, which shows a similar kind of thematic derivation, although in the case of dad the change in the root's meaning justifies the classification as a separate root. The imperative appears only at 3.53.17c indrah $p\bar{a}taly\dot{e}$ $dadat\bar{a}m$ interior 'let Indra protect the two wagon-supports (?) from breakage'.

dambh 'annihilate'

pres. caus. act. 2nd sing. dambhaya (2)

176 Narten (1964: 131).

177 Gotō (1987: 171f.).

This root is to be distinguished from *dabh* 'deceive'. See Narten (1968: 131) and Insler (1969).

daśasy- 'be of service'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *daśasyá* (6), 2nd dual *daśasyátam* (2), 2nd pl. *daśasyata* (5.50.3b)

Probably derived from an unattested *daśas- (= Lat. decus) in the same way as canasya- and manasya- are derived from cánas and mánas respectively. See Mayrhofer (1986: ad loc.).

dah 'burn'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *dáha* (14), *dahatāt* (3.18.1d), 3rd pl. *dahantu* (10.87.12d) **aor. si-impv.** *dhákṣi* (3)

For the form *dhakṣi* see page 49. The unclear form *dakṣi*, which occurs only at 2.1.10c, has been connected with this verb, but the semantic environment in which it occurs is unsuitable for this to be the case. For further information and examples, see page 49.

 $d\bar{a}_1$ 'give'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *daddhí* (8), *dehí* (10), *dattāt* (10.16.2b), 3rd sing. *dádātu* (17), 2nd dual *dattam* (1.34.6b), 3rd dual *dattām* (10.84.7b), 2nd pl. *datta* (3), *dádāta* (7.57.6c), *dadātana* (10.36.10b)

aor. act. 3rd sing. *dātu* (2)

[aor. inj. $d\tilde{a}h$ (17)]

For a discussion of the forms *dehí* and *daddhí* see p.29.

Another problem with the verb $d\bar{a}$ is the lack of a 2nd pers. sing. aor. impv., for which see p. 37ff. and 42f.

 $d\bar{a}_2$ 'distribute'

pres. med. 2nd sing. dayasva (1.68.6b), 2nd pl. dayadhvam (7.37.2d)

diś 'show'

red. pres. act. 2nd sing. didiḍḍhi (2), 3rd sing. dídeṣṭu (7.40.2c), 2nd pl. didiṣṭana (2)

didiṣṭana is a rare example of a *-tana* form with zero grade of the root, see p. 31. Kümmel (2000: 246f.) states that these forms must be presents rather than perfects, both because of their semantics, and because the 3rd sing. med. inj. form *didiṣṭa* would have ended in *-at* had it been a perfect.

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d\bar{\imath}_1 'shine'
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perf. act. 2nd sing. dīdihí (17), didīhí (12)

thematicised perfect. 2nd dual. dīdayatam (1.93.10c)

Cf. pīpihi, pīpaya, pīpayata. This root was originally only perfect, some forms later being 'transferred' to the present. Narten (1987²) shows that one possible starting point for this is the 2nd sing. imperative didīhi, which has the same forms as present impvs. such as piprīhi, mimīhi, etc. Also brought into consideration is the thematicised perf. impv. dīdayatam, which is probably constructed on the basis of the subjunctive stem¹78. In the RV there are attested examples of both perf. subj. dīdayat and pres. subj. dīdayat (NB shifted accent), Since the accentuation of dīdayatam is not attested we cannot, strictly speaking, be certain whether it is not actually a present. The long reduplication vowel is explained by Kümmel (2000: 21f.) as being both characteristic of roots with a long-vowel zero grade, and also of roots whose perfect has present meaning. 179

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d\bar{\imath}_2 'fly'
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pres. act. 2nd sing. $d\bar{t}ya$ (3), 2nd dual $d\bar{t}yatam$ (5.74.9d)

duvasy 'honour (with gifts)'

pres. act. 2nd sing. duvasya (3), 2nd pl. duvasyáta (5)

Derived from dúvas- 'gift' in the same way as manasy-, daśasy- etc.

¹⁷⁸ See p. 34.

¹⁷⁹ As Kümmel points out, this is first shown indirectly by Delbrück (1874: 133f.), who tentatively classes the perfects of $d\bar{\imath}$, $p\bar{\imath}$ etc. with long reduplication as intensives. Also LIV (s. * $de\bar{\imath}h_2$).

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duh 'milk, give milk'
pres. med. 2nd sing. dhukṣva (4.57.2b)
aor. med. 3rd sing. duhấm (2)
sa-aor, act. 2nd pl. dhukṣata (6.48.13a)
sa-aor med. 2nd sing. dhukṣásva (8.13.25c)
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This verb is mostly found in the middle voice, meaning 'to give milk', e.g. 4.57.2b dhenúr iva páyo asmásu dhukṣva 'Give us [rain] like a cow [does] milk'. The only active imperative form is that of the -sa- aorist, which is only attested once: 6.48.13 bharádvājāyáva dhukṣata dvitá, dhenúṃ ca viśvádohasam / íṣaṃ ca viśvábhojasam 'For Bharádvāja now milk the cow who gives all milk, and the all-nourishing nourishment.'.

For the form *duhām* see p. 35.

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dr 'pierce'
si-impv. 2nd sing. dárṣi (10)
int. 2nd sing. dardṛhi (3), 3rd sing. dardartu (7.55.4b)
perf. 2nd sing. dādṛhi (1.133.6a)
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The intensive is the principle present formation of this verb, although there do exist a few examples of a causative stem *daraya-. dādṛhí* is the only form of the perfect of this verb with a long reduplication vowel¹⁸⁰. The form itself is only attested once, at 1.133.6a *avár mahá indra dādṛhí śrudhī naḥ* 'blast the great ones down, O Indra, hear us' and cannot be differentiated in function from a pres. impv.¹⁸¹ Given this, it does seem like that *dādṛhí* could be some kind of nonce-variant of the intensive present *dardṛhí* ¹⁸².

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dṛh 'fasten, be fastened'
pres. act. I 2nd pl. dṛṃhata (10.101.8d)
pres IV act. 2nd sing. dṛhya (3)
pres. IV med. 2nd sing. dṛhyasva (8.80.7a)
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¹⁸⁰ Kümmel (2000: 231).

¹⁸¹ Kümmel loc. cit.

¹⁸² Cf. Schaefer (1994: 28f., 135 fn. 395).

dṛṃḥata is the only attested example of this present stem which has the accentuation on the root, rather than the suffix. The stem dṛṃḥá-, which is a thematic stem derived from an old nasal present, is transitive-factitive 'fasten', e.g. 10.101.8d mấ vaḥ susroc camasó dṛṃḥatā tám 'let your cup not leak, fasten it!' while dṛhya- is intransitive, meaning 'be fast, strong', as in 3.30.15a indra dṛhya yāmakośā abhūvan 'Indra, be strong, the travelling chests are ready' 183. The middle voice imperative only occurs once, with apparently very similar meaning to the active: 8.80.7a indra dṛ́hyasva pū́r asi 'Indra, be strong, you are a fortress'.

drā 'run'

root aor. act. 3rd pl. drāntu (10.85.32d)

This verb has no present stem, being attested as a root aor., a sigmatic aorist (only in the subjunctive form $dr\bar{a}sat$), and as a perfect. This aorist appears to have a suppletive relationship with the present of the verb dru^{184} . The forms $dr\bar{a}hi$ and $dr\bar{a}tu$ are attested in the AV.

dru 'run'

pres. act. 2nd sing. dráva (8), 3rd sing. drávatām (3.14.3a), 3rd pl. drávantu (2) pres. caus. 2nd sing. drāváya (8.4.11a)

The causative form occurs once with the meaning 'let flow': 8.4.11ab ádhvaryo drāváyā tváṃ, sómam índraḥ pipāsati 'Adhvaryu, let the Soma flow, Indra wants to drink'. The intransitive stem drava- occurs several times in Book 8 in the seemingly formulaic sequence éhi dráva píba, as for example 8.17.11 ayáṃ ta indra sómo, nípūto ádhi barhíṣi / éhīm asyá drávā píba 'This is your Soma, purified on the altargrass, come, hurry, drink it'.

dhanv 'run'

va-pres. 2nd sing. dhánva (12), 2nd pl. dhanvantu (4)

All but one of the attestations of the imperative of this root are in Book 9, and, addressed to Soma, mean 'run, flow'. Although the present *dhanva*- was originally a

¹⁸³ Cf. Joachim (1978: 96).

¹⁸⁴ See Narten (1964: 149f.) and Gotō (1987: 178).

-va- stem from the IE root * $dhenh_2^{185}$, by the time of the RV it had become a root in its own right, as shown by forms such as the perfect $dadhanv\acute{e}$ and the aorist $\acute{a}dhanvisur^{186}$.

dham 'blow'

pres. act. 2nd sing. dhama (10.145.2c)

Appears once, with transitive function: 10.145.2cd *sapátnīm me párā dhama, pátim me kévalaṃ kuru* 'Blow away my co-wife¹⁸⁷, make my husband mine alone'

dhā 'put, place, give'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *dhehí* (64), *dhattāt* (3.8.1c), 3rd sing. *dádhātu* (16), 2nd dual *dhattám* (40), 3rd dual *dhattám* (10.184.2d), 2nd pl. *dhattá* (12), *dhattana* (5), *dádhāta* (14), *dádhātana* (11), *dhetana* (2), 3rd pl. *dadhatu* (7.51.1d), *dadhantu* (7.62.6b)

pres. med. 2nd sing. dhatsva (10.87.2d), 3rd pl. dadhatām (10.18.4d)

aor. act. 3rd sing. *dhấtu* (4), 2nd dual. *dhātam* (3), 2nd pl. *dhấta* (4), *dhātana* (7.47.4c), 3rd pl. *dhāntu* (2)

aor. med. 2nd sing. dhisvá (8)

perf. med. 2nd sing. dadhisvá (6), 2nd pl. dadhidhvam (3)

pres. caus. 2nd sing. dhāpaya (10.151.5d)

desid. 3rd pl. didhişantu (3.8.6d)

[aor. inj. $dh \hat{a}h$ (40)]

Like some other roots ending in $-\bar{a}$, the verb $dh\bar{a}$ lacks a 2nd pers. sing. aor. impv. form. The aorist injunctive fills the gap. See p. 37ff. for details. For the form dhehi see p. 29. With the exception of dhehi, the only present form which has no parallel elsewhere is dhetana, which must have been formed analogically to dhehi. $dh\bar{a}$ is such a well-attested verb that it has a full complement of full- and zero-grade second

¹⁸⁵ Hollifield (1978: 180ff.).

¹⁸⁶ See also Gotō (1987: 178ff).

¹⁸⁷ For a study of the meaning of the word $sap\acute{a}tn\bar{\iota}$, and the history of its interpretation, see Kazzazi, 2001:175f.

person forms, both with and without the -na suffix. By comparison, the middle voice forms are very sparsely attested.

The present and aorist active forms are extremely common and invariably transitive. There are only two examples of the pres. med., both of them late, e.g.: 10.87.2d kravyádo vrktvy ápi dhatsvāsán 'twist the raw-meat eaters around and put them in your mouth', where the reflexive middle-voice affective meaning is clear. The aorist middle-voice forms are somewhat better represented, The form dhiṣva appears twice in Book 6 (18.9c and 22.9c) in the formulaic dhiṣva vájram háste 'take the Vajra in your hand', and one further time without háste at 45.18a. Elsewhere the form occurs with the same affective meaning: 1.91.18d diví śrávāṃsy uttamấni dhiṣva 'take (for yourself) the highest glories', and 3.6.6a ghṛtasnúvā róhitā dhurí dhiṣva 'set (for yourself) the two ruddy (horses) whose backs are covered with ghee at (your own) chariot-pole'.

Kümmel (2000: 274f.) considers the possibility that the forms *dadhiṣvá* and *dadhidhvam* may actually belong to the reduplicated present. On purely formal grounds he classifies them as perfects, because the *dhadhi*- stem elsewhere only belongs to the perfect, while the reduplicated present has *dadh*-. He finds that the perfect and present middle-voice forms are equivalent in meaning, both being affective, e.g. 3.40.5ab *dadhiṣvá jaṭháre sutáṃ, sómam indra váreṇyam* 'put into your stomach the choice pressed Soma'.

The causative is only attested in the very late 10.151.5, and is in fact a causative variant of the well-known expression śrád dhā, 'to believe': śraddhám prātár havāmahe, śraddhám madhyámdinam pári / śraddhám súryasya nimrúci, śráddhe śrád dhāpayehá naḥ 'We call on Belief in the morning, on Belief in the afternoon, on Belief at the setting of the sun, O Belief, make us believe here'.

The desiderative *didhiṣantu* appears once at 3.8.6cd *té devāsaḥ sváravas tasthivāṃsaḥ, prajāvad asmé didhiṣantu rátnam* 'these divine posts situated here; let them want to give us a child-rich gift' ¹⁸⁸.

 $dh\bar{a}v_1$ 'stream'

pres. act. 2nd sing. dhāva (3), 3rd sing. dhāvatu (4), 2nd pl. dhāvata (2)

¹⁸⁸ For further desiderative imperatives see p. 34.

The present active is intransitive, meaning 'to flow'. When it has an accusative object, the meaning is 'flow through', 189 e.g. 9.49.4a *pavítraṃ dhāva dhārayā* 'flow through the sieve in a stream'.

 $dh\bar{a}v_2$ see $dh\bar{u}$

dhunay- 'rush'

pres. act. dhunayantām (3.55.16a)

dhū 'shake, mix'

pres. act. 2nd sing. dhūnuhi (3), 2nd pl. dhūnuta (1)

them. pres. 2nd dual dhāvatam, 2nd pl. dhāvata

The stem dhūnu- is transitive, meaning 'to shake', 3.45.4cd vṛkṣám pakvám phálam aṅkīva dhūnuhi-, -īndra sampāraṇaṃ vásu 'O Indra, shake down helpful goodness, as [one shakes] a tree, ripe with fruit'. Gotō (1987: 186) shows that the form ā dhāva- is a technical term used to describe part of the process of preparing Soma, e.g. 8.1.17ab sótā hí sómam ádribhir ém enam apsú dhāvata 'Press it with stones, and? it in water'. The precise nature of the action, in his opinion, cannot be ascertained, although it may mean 'shake' or 'mix with water'. 1.109.4cd tāv aśvinā bhadrahastā supāṇī, ā dhāvatam mádhunā pṛṅktám apsú 'You two Aśvins, of the blessed hands, having good hands, shake it with honey, mix it in water' 190, probably gives an indication that this interpretation is correct, as it is more or less synonymous with pṛc 'to mix'.

dhūrv 'destroy'

pres. act. 3rd pl. *dhūrvantu* (6.75.19c)

The IE root of this form is $*d^h \mu er$, as shown by the alternative Vedic stem $dhv\acute{a}ra$, which is not attested in the RV. This leads Gotō (1987: 191) to suggest that the lengthening of the vowel in the stem $dh\acute{u}rva$ - is due to the influence of the form

¹⁸⁹ Gotō (1987: 183).

¹⁹⁰ Or possibly, 'shake (it), mix it with honey, in the water'.

 $t\bar{u}rva$ - from $t\bar{r}(q.v.)^{191}$. Lubotsky (1997²), on the other hand, finds that the sequence *-urv- is regularly lengthened when accented.

dhr 'hold'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *dhāráya* (14), 2nd dual *dhārayatam* (2), 3rd dual *dhārayatām* (10.173.5d), 3rd pl. *dhārayantu* (10.18.13c)

med. pres. 2nd dual *dhāráyethām* (6.74.1a), 2nd pl. *dhārayadhvam* (10.70.5d) **aor.** 2nd dual *didhṛtam* (2), 2nd pl. *didhṛtá* (1.139.8g)

 $dh\bar{a}r\acute{a}ya$ - is the only present stem from this root, with $d\acute{t}dh_r$ - being the corresponding reduplicated aorist, in the same manner as the usual connection between reduplicated aorists and $-\acute{a}ya$ - causatives. LIV s. v. d^her , quoting the unpublished dissertation by J. Bendahman, asserts that these forms are an original reduplicated present, which was reinterpreted as an aorist on this basis. A further factor in the shaping of the forms of this root is undoubtedly its tendency to mimic the forms of the root g_r , 'be awake, awaken' (q.v.). Thus $j\bar{a}r\acute{a}ya$ -: $dh\bar{a}r\acute{a}ya$, $j\bar{a}g\acute{a}ra$: $d\bar{a}dh\acute{a}ra$, $\acute{a}j\bar{v}gar$: $d\bar{u}dhar$, $jigrt\acute{a}m$: $didhrt\acute{a}m$ and even $j\acute{a}gvi$ -: $d\acute{a}dhrvi$ -. Since the lengthening of the reduplicating vowel in forms such as $j\bar{u}g\acute{a}ra$ and $j\acute{u}grvi$ - can be shown to stem from a root-initial laryngeal, and since the root dhr probably does not have a laryngeal at the beginning, then the original must be gr, and dhr the mimic.

dhṛṣ 'attack, be brave'

pres. act. 2nd sing. dhṛṣṇuhí (1.80.3a)

Occurs only once, at 1.80.3ab préhy abhīhi dhṛṣṇuhí, ná te vájro ní yaṃsate 'Advance, go on, attack, your Vajra will not hold back'. Nowicki (1983: 273f.) is not satisfied with the meaning "be brave" in this context, as occurs, e.g. in Geldner 'sei mutig', as the verb appears together with two other verbs of motion. Thus, he concludes, dhṛṣ must here be a verb of motion too, meaning "attack". He sees the same meaning at 1.183.4a: mấ vāṃ vṛko mấ vṛkīr ấ dadharṣīt 'Neither the he-wolf nor the she-wolf shall attack you two'.

nakṣ 'reach, attain'pres. med. 2nd sing. nakṣasva (8.54.7c)

¹⁹¹ See also LIV s. $*d^huer$.

This is a secondary root, derived from *naś*, probably from an unattested aor. subj. **nákṣati*. See p. 49 under *nakṣi*.

nabh 'pierce, burst'

pres. med. 3rd pl. nábhantām (40)

This is the only attested form of this root in the RV, although others occur in later texts. Although it is attested 40 times, it actually only appears in two obviously related formulae: $n\acute{a}bhant\bar{a}m$ $anyak\acute{e}$ same, 'let all the others (or foreigners) be destroyed' which occurs 10 times in 8.39, 11 times in 8.40, 10 times in 8.41 and three times in 8.42, and $jy\bar{a}k\acute{a}$. . $n\acute{a}bhant\bar{a}m$ $anyak\acute{e}s\bar{a}m$ 'let the bowstrings of the foreigners be destroyed', which occurs six times in $10.133.^{192}$

nam 'bend, bow'

pres. act. nama (2)

pres. med. namasva (8.75.5b), namadhvam (2), namantām (5)

The active forms are generally transitive, while the middle-voice forms are intransitive, e.g. 1.129.5a ni si nam ai mam ai mai

The middle voice with the preverb \tilde{a} is affective ¹⁹⁴, i.e. 'bend for oneself', e.g. 8.75.5bc \tilde{a} namasva sáhūtibhih / nédīyo yajñám angirah 'bend him nearer to the (your own) sacrifice with invocations, O Angiras.'

¹⁹² For what little is known about this root see Mayrhofer (1986: s. NABH).

¹⁹³ The synonymity of the roots nam and śvañc was described by Hoffmann (1960).

¹⁹⁴ Gotō loc. cit.

namasy- 'worship'

pres. act. 2nd sing. namasyá (5), 2nd pl. namasyáta (3)

Denominative stem derived from *námas*- 'homage', which is of course in turn derived from the root *nam*. Cf. *canasy*-, *daśasy*- etc.

naś1 'attain'

pres. act. 2nd sing. aśnuhi (3), 3rd sing. aśnotu (3), 2nd dual aśnutam (2), 3rd pl. aśnuvantu (2)

aor. si-impv. 2nd sing. *naksi* (5.25.2b)

naś2 'perish'

pres. act. 2nd sing. naśya (10.97.13d), 3rd sing. naśyatu (8.27.18d)

caus. act. nāśaya (1.50.11d)

Both the pres. stem *náśya*- and the caus. *nāśáya*- are restricted to the later books of the RV. However, as Jamison (1983: 141f.) points out, the fact that both have Avestan cognates, and that the causative has a cognate in Lat. *nocēre* assure the antiquity of these forms. The pres. act. is intransitive, e.g.: 10.97.13d *sākáṃ naśya nihákayā* 'disappear together with the snowstorm', while the causative means 'make disappear' 1.50.11cd *hṛdrogám máma sūrya, harimáṇaṃ ca nāśaya* 'O Sūrya, make my heartbreak, my jaundice, go away'.

nah 'bind'

pres. act. 2nd pl. nahyatana (10.53.7a).

One of only three forms in the entire RV in which the *-tana* ending occurs on a thematic stem. See p. 32.

nij 'clean'

pres. act. ninikta (10.132.6d)

This is the only existing example of the present stem, occurring only once at 10.132.6cd áva priyấ didiṣṭana, sắro ninikta raśmíbhiḥ 'show kindness, wash [our sins?] away with the suns rays'.

nī 'lead'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *náya* (12), 3rd sing. *nayatu* (5), 2nd dual *nayatam* (2.29.5d), 2nd pl. *náyata* (6), 3rd pl. *náyantu* (3)

pres. med. 2nd sing. nayasva (3.35.3a), 2nd pl. nayadhvam (2)

-si impv *nési* (10)

The act. forms are transitive, e.g. 1.42.7a *áti naḥ saścáto naya* 'lead us past our pursuers', while the rather scantily attested middle voice is affective¹⁹⁵, as in 3.35.3a *úpo nayasva vṛṣaṇā tapuṣpā́*- 'bring (with you) the two bulls (i.e. stallions), protecting them from (over) heat(ing)'¹⁹⁶. For the *-si* impv *néṣi* see p. 50.

nud 'push'

pres. act. 2nd pl. nudata (10.165.5a)

pres. med. 2nd sing. nudásva (7), 2nd dual nudéthām (7.104.1d)

The active form *nudata* is one of only three active forms attested for this verb, the others being an imperfect *anudaḥ* and a participle *nudán*. All of the active forms are limited solely to Book 10. The middle voice forms are transitive and usually occur with words meaning 'enemies,' such as *mṛdh*, *amítra* etc.

pac 'cook'

pres. act. 2nd pl. pácata (2), 3rd pl. pacantu (1.162.10d)

pat 'fly, fall'

pres. act. 2nd sing. pata (2), 2nd dual patatam (3), 3rd pl. patantu (10.134.5b)

red. aor. paptata (1.88.1d)

The reduplicating aorist, which is of the same type as *voca*-, is thought to have developed from the perfect stem *papt*-. Kümmel (2000: 295) suggests this development may have occured in Proto-Indo-Iranian, while other scholars, such as Leumann (1952: 26) suggest a later period. The idea occurs as early as Macdonell (1916: 175).

¹⁹⁵ Gotō (1987: 197).

¹⁹⁶ Translation based on Klein (1985: 1-369). For the difficult word tapuṣpā- see Geldner ad. loc.

The present is intransitive, meaning 'to fly', e.g. 6.75.16ab ávasṛṣṭā párā pata, śáravye ... 'having been released, fly away, O arrow ...' or 5.78.1-3c haṃsấv iva patatam ấ sutấm úpa 'fly like geese to the pressed (Soma-juices)', which is the only occurrence of the form patatam. At 10.134.5ab, áva pat means 'to fall': áva svédā ivābhíto, víṣvak patantu didyávaḥ 'May the arrows fall all around like drops of sweat.' The aorist only occurs once and is undifferentiated in meaning: 1.88.1d váyo ná paptatā sumāyāḥ 'fly (to us) like birds, O good-powered ones'.

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pad 'tread'
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pres. act. 2nd sing. padyasva (6.75.16c)

pan 'worship, praise'

pres. act. 2nd sing. panaya (5.20.1d), 2nd pl. panāyata (6.75.6c)

For a treatment of $pan\bar{a}yata$ and other forms in $\bar{a}ya$ see Hoffmann (1966: 69), See also Gotō (1987: 206), and for a description of the relationships between the various stems belonging to the root, Jamison (1983: 96f).

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paś 'see, look'
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pres. act. 2nd sing. páśya (7), 2nd pl. páśyata (6)

pres. med. *paśyasva* (8.33.19a)

caus. med. spāśáyasva (1.176.3c)

This root splits neatly between those forms which don't have the initial /s/-i.e. the pres. and impf. – and those that do, which are the aorist $\acute{a}spa\acute{s}ta$, the perfect $paspa\acute{s}\acute{e}$ and the med. caus. $sp\bar{a}\acute{s}\acute{a}yasva$. There is also a ppp. $\acute{a}nu$ - $spa\acute{s}ta$. All of the $spa\acute{s}$ -forms are med., while the majority of those of $pa\acute{s}$ are active. A small number of middle-voice forms from $pa\acute{s}$ are attested including the pres. med. impv. $pa\acute{s}yasva$, which is only attested once (see below). Altogether, with the exception of two instances of the med. part. $p\acute{a}\acute{s}yam\bar{a}na^{-197}$, all of the attestations of the pres. med. of $pa\acute{s}$ are late. The active aorist and perfect are supplied by the root $d_r\acute{s}$, which also has perfect and aorist middle-voice forms. Jamison (1983: 167) finds that $spa\acute{s}$ "appears to be functioning almost as an independent root in Vedic", and that it differs semantically from $pa\acute{s}$, in that the latter simply means 'to see', while the

^{197 3.31.10}a and 7.83.1a.

former means 'to watch over, spy'. While this semantic difference could easily have originally stemmed from the fact that the *spaś*-forms are always middle-voice ('to see for oneself'), synchronically there is a suppletive relationship not between *paś* and *spaś* but between *paś* and $drś^{198}$, with the *spaś* forms having diverged semantically sufficiently to be considered separate. Thus:

	See, look		Watch over, spy
pres.	paśyati	paśyate	-
aor.	ádaŗśam	ádŗkṣata	áspaṣṭa
perf.	dadárśa	dádrśe	paspaśé
caus.			spāśáyasva

The pres. middle-voice impv. of paś means 'to look' in its one attestation: 8.33.19a adháḥ paśyasva mópári 'look down not up', while the active is transitive, as in e.g.: 6.9.4a ayáṃ hótā prathamáḥ páśyatemám 'This is the first hotar, look at him'. The caus. form spāśáyasva is clearly the caus. of the spaś forms, not only by form but by meaning too: 1.176.3cd spāśáyasva yó asmadhrúg, divyévāśánir jahi '(O Indra) do thou cause (the one) who is our deceiver to be spied out (=discovered). Like a heavenly cudgel, do thou smash him' 199

$p\bar{a}_1$ 'protect'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *pāhí* (70), 3rd sing. *pātu* (35), 2nd dual *pātám* (12), 3rd dual *pātám* (1.185.10c), 2nd pl. *pāta* (82), 3rd pl. *pāntu* (4)

This is an extremely well-attested root. However the huge number of attestations of the 2nd pl. form is misleading, because it only appears in the typical hymn ending of Book 7 yūyám pāta svastíbhiḥ sádā naḥ 'you protect us always with good fortune'.

¹⁹⁸ See also Kümmel (2000:231ff.) and Mayhofer (1986: s. *PAŚ*) for further literature concerning the suppletive relationship between *paś* and *dṛś*.

¹⁹⁹ Translation Jamison (1983: 167).

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p\bar{a}_2 'drink'
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pres. act. 2nd sing. *píba* (118), 3rd sing. *píbatu* (7), 2nd dual *píbatam* (43), 2nd pl. *píbata* (9), 3rd pl. *píbantu* (4)

pres. med. 2nd sing. pibasva (4.35.7c), 2nd pl. pibadhvam (3)

root aor. 2nd sing. pāhí (25), 2nd dual pātám (4), 2nd pl. pātá (3)

caus. act. pāyáya (4)

The pres. impv. of $p\bar{a}$ is another hugely attested form, mostly, of course in reference to drinking Soma. It is usually transitive, with an accusative object pibā sómam ... (passim) but also commonly occurs with a partitive genitive object, as in e.g. 8.37.1g píbā sómasya vajrivah 'drink (of) the Soma, O Vajra-bearer', which is also repeated a further five times in the same hymn 200. By contrast, the middle-voice forms are very rare, a total of six occurrences of all forms (impv. and others) being attested in the entire RV. The middle impv. forms appear three times out of four with the preverb sám, with the meaning 'drink together' and no object, as in 4.35.7cd sám rbhúbhih pibasva ratnadhébhih, sákhīmr yām indra cakṛsé sukṛtyā 'drink together with the Rbhus, who bring gifts, O Indra, whom you made your friends, on account of their good deeds.' In the same hymn, the form pibadhvam is also attested: 4.35.9d sám mádebhir indriyébhih pibadhvam '(O Rbhus) drink together, with the exhilarations of Indra'. The fourth attestation is with the preverb ví: 3.53.10cd devébhir viprā rsayo nrcaksaso, ví pibadhvam kuśikāh somyám mádhu 'O Poets, O Seers leaders of men, drink together with the gods the sweetness of the Soma, O Kuśikas', with apparently similar meaning. Possibly vi is distributive: 'drink together with the various gods'²⁰¹.

The caus. is unusual in that it is missing the characteristic /p/ between the root and the suffix. Jamison (1983: 169) remarks that this is most likely avoided because of the /p/ in the root. The meaning of the caus. is 'let drink, give to drink' as in 1.14.7c $m\acute{a}dhva\dot{h}$ sujihva $p\ddot{a}yaya$ 'let them (i.e. the gods) drink of the sweet (Soma), O beautiful-tongued one'.

²⁰⁰ For the few occasions where the distinction between the present and aorist of this verb are still upheld, see page 85f.

²⁰¹ Cf. Grassmann (1872: ad loc.).

The 2nd sing. form *píba* is one of only two imperatives to appear in *āmreḍita*, at 2.11.11a: *píbā-pibéd indra śūra sómam* 'Drink, drink the Soma, O Indra, O Hero.'²⁰²

pinv see $p\bar{\imath}$

piś 'carve, paint'

pres. act. 3rd sing. pimśatu (10.184.1b), 2nd pl. pimśata (10.53.7b)

them. aor. 2nd sing. *piśá* (7.18.2c)

pimśa- is a thematic stem derived from an old nasal stem, cf. drh.

pis 'trample, crush'

pres. act. 2nd pl. pinastana (7.104.18b)

 $p\bar{t}$ 'swell'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *pinva* (4), 2nd dual *pínvatam* (9), 3rd dual *pinvatām* (6.70.6a), 2nd pl. *pinvata* (5.83.6b)

pres. med. 2nd sing. *pinvasva* (3.3.7b), 3rd sing. *pínvatām* (10.36.5a), 2nd pl. *pinvadhvam* (3.33.12c)

perf. 2nd sing. pīpihí (2)

them. red. aor. 2nd sing. *pīpaya* (3.15.6a), 2nd pl. *pīpayata* (10.64.12c)

them. perf. 2nd dual pipyatam (4), 3rd dual pipyatām (6.50.12d), pipyata (2.34.6c)

The thematic present pinva- has completely replaced an old -nu- present *pinoti, which is attested in Avestan as fra-pinaoiti (V. 3.31). This present stem was subsequently reanalysed as a root pinv, from which are attested non-present forms such as perfect pipinváthuh 203 .

For a treatment and further bibliography concerning all of the forms of the root $p\bar{t}$, see Kümmel (2000: 298ff.), whose classification I follow, with the exception of the form $p\bar{t}pihi$, which he considers to be a reduplicated aorist. There are valid semantic reasons for this; the red. aor. is mostly factitive while the perf. is mostly – but not exclusively – intransitive-stative. However, if this were the case, this would be the

²⁰² The other form being stuhi, at 8.1.30a.

²⁰³ See also Joachim (1978: 106f.) and Kümmel (2000: 310).

only example of a reduplicated aor. with the ending -hi. Since the -hi ending is common with perfects, then it is far more likely to be an original perfect form. Since the perfect and reduplicated aorist are in any case outwardly very similar forms, this perfect could easily have been transferred to the aorist paradigm, which would have involved the lengthening of its reduplication syllable, and assumed an aorist meaning. 204

The forms $p\bar{t}paya$ and $p\bar{t}payata$ are most likely secondarily thematicised aorists, for which see Kümmel (*op. cit.*: 300 fn. 495), who also admits to the possibility that they could be hybrid forms derived from a subjunctive $p\bar{t}p\acute{a}yat$. See also p. 34.

Semantically, the present active is transitive-factitive: 6.39.5b *iṣaḥ pinva vasudéyāya pūrvīḥ* 'make much refreshment swell for the giving of goods', while the middle-voice is intransitive: 3.3.7ab *ūrjā pinvasva sām iṣo didīhi naḥ* 'swell with power, illuminate refreshment for us.' The reduplicated forms are all active, and are mostly undifferentiated in meaning from the active present, while on one occasion it has intransitive meaning: 2.39.6b *stánāv iva pipyataṃ jīváse naḥ* 'like two breasts, swell that we may live.'

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pus 'flourish'
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pres. act. 2nd pl. puṣyata (1.94.8c), puṣyantu (10.19.3b)

 $p\bar{u}$ 'purify'

pres. act. I 2nd sing. pava (9.49.3c)

pres. I med. 2nd sing. *pávasva* (127), 3rd sing. *pávatām* (2), 2nd pl. *pavadhvam* (9.21.6c), 3rd pl. *pávantām* (2)

pres IX act. 2nd sing. *punīhí* (8), *punītāt* (10.30.5d), 3rd sing. *punātu* (9.67.22c), 2nd pl. *punītá* (9.67.27c), *punītána* (4), *punāta* (9.104.3a), *punántu* (3)

With the exception of the one example of the form *pava* at 9.49.3c, the forms are split neatly between the active-factitive stem *punā*- and the middle-voice/fientive *pava*-. The single example of the form *pava* occurs together with *pavasva* at 9.49.3 *ghṛtám pavasva dhārayā*, *yajñéṣu devavītamaḥ / asmábhyam vṛṣtím ā pava*. The

²⁰⁴ Kümmel (op. cit.: 310) quotes an example of a form $pip\bar{\imath}hi$, which appears at MS 4.9.9.: 129.7. This form has a characteristically perfect meaning. The parallel passage in the TĀ has $p\bar{\imath}pih\acute{\iota}$, explained by Kümmel as having been influenced by the RVic form. Also, cf. the forms $did\bar{\imath}h\acute{\iota}$ and $d\bar{\imath}dih\acute{\iota}$, both of which are perfect.

form d pavasva + acc means 'become pure' with acc. of content or goal²⁰⁵, and this example is undifferentiated in meaning from the middle voice. As in the case of the single instance of the active nama, which gets its mediality from the juxtaposed verb śvañcasva, Gonda (1979: 98) proposes that the middle voice meaning is transferred from the juxtaposed middle form²⁰⁶. Thus we can translate the verse 'purify yourself as ghee by pouring, be pure for us as (with respect to) rain'²⁰⁷. Every single example of the imperative of $p\bar{u}$ occurs in Book 9, making it the most characteristic Soma keyword of all. Of the 15 examples of the imperative of the factitive stem $pun\bar{a}$ -, eight occur in six consecutive verses (22-27) of 9.27.

The form *punấta* (9.104.3a) is unique, as the only example of a second pers. pl. form of a stem of this kind to show full grade and accentuation of the suffix, cf. *gánta* etc.

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pr 'bring over'
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red. pres. act. 2nd sing. *pipṛhi* (2). 3rd sing. *pípartu* (3), 2nd dual *pipṛtám* (5), 3rd dual *pipṛtấm* (1.22.13c), 2nd pl. *pipṛtá* (2), *pipartana* (9)

aor. -si impv. pársi (16)

sec. thematised aor. impv. parsa (1.97.8b)

caus. 2nd sing. pāráya (5), 2nd dual. pārayatam (2.39.4a)

Jamison (1983: 102) considers the caus. form $p\bar{a}r\acute{a}ya$, which isn't different in meaning from the reduplicated present, to be the older of the two present stems, because it has an Avestan cognate, while the reduplicating present does not. The latter, she suggests, is formed on the basis of the stem *titarti, from the root $t\bar{r}$, which itself is only attested in one participle form titrat-, but which does have an Avestan cognate titarat.

For the -si impv. parși and for the form parșa see p. 50. Cf. joșa, and AV neșa.

²⁰⁵ Gotō (1987: 207).

²⁰⁶ See also p. 128.

²⁰⁷ Gonda translates 'clarify thyself (so as to give) ghee . . . (while) clarify(ing) (thyself) (bring) rain'. Gotō *loc. cit* 'als (bzw. zur) Schmelzbutter läutere dich . . . für uns läutere dich zum Regen' .

prc 'mix, pour out abundantly, fill'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *pṛṇdhi* (2.24.15c), 3rd sing. *pṛṇáktu* (1.84.1c), 2nd dual *pṛṅktám* (5)

red. pres. act. 2nd sing. pipṛgdhi (10.10.11d), 2nd pl. pipṛkta (3.54.21b)

pres. pass. 3rd sing. prcyatām (6.28.8b)

Each of the reduplicated forms appears once only, *pipṛgdhi* at 10.10.11 and *pipṛkta* at 3.54.21. Joachim, (1978: 109) suggests that the reduplicated forms may have been created by analogy to other forms with similar meaning, such as *mimikṣa*-, which occurs in very similar contexts. Also, the reduplicated forms appear in environments containing other reduplicated forms.

The passive form appears once only: 6.28.8ab *úpedám upapárcanam*, *āsú góṣū́pa pṛcyatām* 'let this mixture be added to (i.e. mixed with) the cows (or, more likely, with milk)'.

For an example containing the present of prc see above under $dh\bar{u}$. ²⁰⁸

prī1 'fill'

pres. act. pṛṇītana (5.5.5c)

them. pres. 2nd sing. prna (8), 2nd pl. prnata (3)

them. pres. med. 2nd sing. *pṛṇasva* (2), 3rd sing. *pṛṇatām* (3.50.1c), 2nd dual *pṛnethām* (6.69.7b), 2nd pl. *pṛnádhyam* (4)

red. aor. pūpurantu (7.62.3d)

-si impv. prási (2)

For the form *pṛṇa* see page 28f.

The thematic present, which often appears with the preverb \hat{a} , is transitive and usually means 'fulfil', often occurring with $k\hat{a}mam$ 'desire', e.g. 1.16.9a $s\hat{e}m\hat{a}m$ nah $k\hat{a}mam$ \hat{a} prna 'fulfill this desire of ours'. It can also mean 'fill', as in 9.41.5a \hat{a} $mah\hat{i}$ $r\hat{o}das\bar{i}$ prna 'fill the two great worlds'.

Two examples of the athematic present impv. that occur without preverbs both belong to the root $p_{\bar{r}2}$ (q.v. below), thus the sole example of the imperative of this

²⁰⁸ For the possibility that this root (PIE *pel-k) may be an alternative form of the root $p_{\bar{r}}$ (pel-h_I) see Mayrhofer (1986: s. PARC, with bibliography), and LIV s. *perk. This is problematic, as it would preclude comparison with forms outside Indo-Iranian, which contain original r.

stem with the probable meaning 'fill' is 5.5.5c *prá-pra yajñám pṛṇītana* 'fulfil the sacrifice'.²⁰⁹

The middle voice present, which is always thematic, means 'to fill up, become full', e.g. 3.50.1c *óruvyácāḥ pṛṇatām ebhír ánnaiḥ*- 'having wide reach, let him be filled with this food'. The middle voice may also have affective meaning, as in 10.104.2b nṛbhiḥ sutásya jaṭháram pṛṇasva 'fill your (own) stomach with (Soma) pressed by men'.

The red. aor. form $p\bar{u}purantu$ corresponds to a caus. $p\bar{u}rayati$, which is attested in the AV, but not the RV. This form, however, which must have been part of the language of the time, as the aor. is dependent on it for its vocalism²¹⁰. For an example containing the *-si* impv. $pr\tilde{a}si$ see under $p\bar{r}_2$.

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p\bar{r}_2 'give' 
 pres. act. 2nd dual prn\bar{t}t\acute{a}m (7.65.4d), 2nd pl. prn\bar{t}t\acute{a} (1.23.21a)
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First differentiated from $p\bar{r}_1$ by Kuiper (1938: 313ff.)²¹¹. While the aorist impvs. of these roots are strictly differentiated, the present stems are the same $-prn\bar{a}ti$. Historically the two roots are completely different; $p\bar{r}_1 < *pelh_1$ while $p\bar{r}_2 < *perh_3$.

The two attested examples of the pres. stem $p_r n \bar{a} - /p_r n \bar{i}$ of which simplex forms occur both belong to this root, a fact recognised by Kuiper (1938: 319). Thus 1.23.21ab $\bar{a}pah$ $p_r n \bar{i}t \bar{a}$ bhe sajám vár $\bar{u}tham$ tanvè máma 'O waters, give a potion, protection for my body' and 7.65.4d $p_r n \bar{i}t \bar{a}m$ udnó divyásya cároh 'give (us) of the dear, divine, waters'.

The root aorist form appears, inter alia, in the memorable string of impvs. at 1.42.9ab, where it is clearly differentiated from the -si impv. of $p\bar{r}_I$, and clearly meant to be synonymous with the following $pr\dot{a}$ yaṃsi 'extend (gifts)': śagdhí $p\bar{u}rdhi$ prá yaṃsi ca, śiśīhí prấsy udáram 'be powerful, give and extend (gifts),

root aor. pūrdhí (7)

vaimson (1903, 119).

²⁰⁹ See Kuiper (1938: especially 314-320).

²¹⁰ Jamison (1983: 149).

²¹¹ For further extensive bibliography see Mayrhofer (1986: s. PAR^{I2}). See also LIV s. *perh₃.

sharpen (us), fill our stomachs.' This 'absolute' usage of the transitive is mirrored in 1.125.5b yáh pṛṇāti sá ha devéṣu gachati 'he who gives goes to the gods.'

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pyā 'swell'

pres. med. 2nd sing. pyāyasva (3), 3rd pl. pyāyantām (1.93.12b)

A secondary root derived from pī (see above). All attestations – impv. and other forms – are in Books 1, 9 and 10.

prath 'extend, spread'
pres. med. 2nd sing. prathasva (5.5.4a), 3rd sing. prathatām (10.70.4a), 3rd pl. prathantām (2.3.5c)

caus. med. prathayasva (10.140.4a)

praś 'ask'
pres.act. 2nd sing. pṛcha (3), pṛcháta (2)

prā see pṝ₁

prī 'gratify, be gratified'
perf. piprīhí (2)
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The secondarily thematicised form *pipráyasva* is probably built on the subjunctive stem *pipráyat*. Cf. *dīdayatam*, *pīpaya*, *pīpayata*. See p. 34. 212

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pruth 'pant, neigh, snort' pres. act. protha (6.47.30c)
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them. perf. med. pipráyasva (8.11.10c)

The usual translations of this root hardly seem suitable in the context in which this one imperative example occurs: 6.47.30 ắ krandaya bálam ójo na ắ dhā, ní ṣṭanihi duritấ bắdhamānaḥ / ápa protha dundubhe duchúnā itá, índrasya muṣṭír asi vīḷáyasva 'Cry out, give us strength, might, thunder down, pushing away hardships. Snort away (?) mischief from here, O kettledrum.' Neither "snort", "pant" nor "neigh" seem quite right here, the meaning of ápa protha ... duchúnā certainly being parallel to that of ní ṣṭanihi duritấ, for which see Narten (1993: 319), who translates

²¹² Also Kümmel (2000: 322ff.).

it as 'donnere los, die Gefahren bannend'. The only other finite form of this verb (the rest being participles) appears with áśva- 'horse' at 7.3.2a.

bandh 'bind'

pass. pres. 3rd pl. badhyantām (4.57.4c)

The form $badh\bar{a}n\acute{a}$ is first attested in the Atharvaveda. Finite forms of this verb are quite sparsely attested in the Rigveda, despite there being many nominal derivatives. The active pres. is not attested at all. Most of the attested forms are passive, such as this one impv.

bādh 'repel, push away, push down'

pres. med. 2nd sing. *bādhasva* (9), 3rd sing. *bādhatām* (5), 2nd dual *bādhethām* (6.74.2c), 2nd pl. *bādhadhvam* (7.56.20c)

budh 'be awake, aware'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *bodhi* (9), *bódha* (5), 3rd sing. *bódhatu* (2.32.4b), 2nd dual *bódhatam* (7), 3rd pl. *bódhantu* (1.29.4b)

caus. 2nd sing. bodhaya (8), 2nd pl. bodhayata (8.44.1b)

Hoffmann (1967: 232) and Insler (1972², 560ff.) explain the stem bodha- as originating in a root-aorist subjunctive. The form bódhat is still to be regarded synchronically as such at 4.15.7 bódhad yán mā háribhyāṃ kumāráḥ sāhadevyáḥ, áchā ná hūtá úd aram '(I thought that) if Prince Sāhadeva shall take note of me by (giving) two steeds, I shall rise up to (him) like one who has been summoned.'21³, which is preferable to the alternative, which is to regard it as a present injunctive. Gotō (1987: 217ff., particularly fn. 451) opposes this, on the grounds that the root aorist of budh is always middle-voice, and that the stem bodha- is always active, and that the active and middle of this root are strictly distinguished in meaning. Insler (op. cit.) in fact claims that the synchronically active forms actually have their origin in old "t-less" middle-voice forms, to which were added active endings in the same way as *áśaya, which became áśayat. While in the latter case the rest of the paradigm preserved the identity of the form áśayat as a middle-voice form, in the

²¹³ Trans. Insler (op. cit.).

case of $*bodh\bar{a}(t)^{214}$ it did not, and the forms were subsequently reinterpreted as being active. Once this had happened, the form bodhi was coined on the basis of the pattern established by the form $y\acute{o}dhi$ and its corresponding subjunctive yodhat.

The form *bodhi*, if indeed it does have the origin outlined on page 26, is originally active and not middle-voice, since all imperatives of the type *CéRCi* are active.

The meaning of bódha- and the other synchronically active forms is 'notice, observe, perceive'. The forms bodhi and bódha have the same meaning, which strengthens the idea that the latter could be derived from the former (p. 27). Furthermore, bódha only occurs pāda-initially, with lengthened second syllable, while bodhi never does, indicating a metrical complementary distribution. Both may take either a genetive or accusative complement. Examples are: 8.43.27c ágne sá bodhi me vácaḥ, 'O Agni, take notice of my speech', 3.14.7c tváṃ víśvasya suráthasya bodhi, 'take notice of him who has a good chariot', 1.147.2a bódhā me asyá vácaso yaviṣṭha, 'take notice of this my speech, O Youngest One', and 7.21.1d bódhā na stómam ándhaso mádeṣu 'take notice of our praise in your exhilaration from the (Soma) plant'. The meaning of the middle-voice – of which there are no imperatives – is 'wake up, be awake', as in 1.157.1a ábodhy agnír jmá úd eti súryo 'Agni has awoken, the sun rises from the earth'.

One notable exception to the above is 1.29.4ab sasántu tyấ árātayo, bódhantu śūra rātáyaḥ 'Let those enemies sleep, let these heros be awake.' Gotō (1987: 220) suggests the possibility that 'Hier hat wahrscheinlich eine akustische Anpassung an sasántu eine Rolle gespielt.'

The causative *bodhaya* mean 'awaken, wake (someone) up', as in 1.124.10ab *prá bodhayoṣaḥ pṛṇató maghony, ábudhyamānāḥ paṇáyaḥ sasantu* 'Awaken the givers, O generous Uṣas, let the demons sleep, never awakening'.

brh 'strengthen'

pres. act. 2nd sing. barhaya (3)

int. 2nd. sing. barbrhi (10.10.10c)

Wackernagel (1896: 251) shows that the -hi ending in barbṛhi is an analogical reconstruction; the form should have been *barbṛlhi (< *barbṛź-dhi < *barbṛjh-dhi). If, as was usually the case, the vowel precending the /*źdh/ cluster had

²¹⁴ The form *bódhat* is a secondary shortening, according to Insler (*op. cit.*).

undergone compensatory lengthening, then the form would have been * $barb\bar{r}lhi^{215}$. For the possibility that the form barbrhi may have been derived from the form barbrhat (see below) on the basis of the relationship between other -i imperatives and subjunctives in -at see footnotes 25, 107.

Mayrhofer (1986: s. BARH) suggests that barbrhi may stem from the PIE root $*bhel\acute{g}h$ 'swell', as opposed to the usual derivation from the root $*bher\acute{g}h$ 'be high'. The form appears only once, at 10.10.10cd $\acute{u}pa$ barbrhi $vrṣabh\acute{a}ya$ $b\bar{a}h\acute{u}m$, $any\acute{a}m$ ichasva subhage $p\acute{a}tim$ $m\acute{a}t$ 'Lay your arm (like a pillow) under a bull (virile man), find some other husband than me, O happy woman'. The root $*bhel\acute{g}h$ 'swell' does provide some Vedic words whose meaning is 'cushion, pillow', e.g. $upab\acute{a}rhan$, as well as the word $barh\acute{u}s$ - 'altar-grass', so semantically at least this seems possible. The intensive stem appears, with the same meaning, at 5.61.5cd $\acute{s}y\bar{a}v\acute{a}\acute{s}vastut\bar{a}ya$ $y\acute{a}$, $d\acute{o}r$ $v\bar{v}r\acute{a}yopab\acute{a}rbrhat$ 'she who shall lay her arms under the man who is praised by $\acute{s}y\bar{a}v\bar{a}\acute{s}va$ '.216

brū 'say'

pres. act. 2nd sing. $br\bar{u}hi$ (4), 3rd sing. $brav\bar{t}tu$ (4), 2nd pl. $br\bar{u}ta$ (10.52.1c), $brav\bar{t}tana$ (2), 3rd pl. bruvantu (4)

The second person *brūta* and *bravītana* plural forms show characteristic zero-grade vs full-grade; cf. *krta*, *kartana*. See page 31.

bhaj 'share'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *bhaja* (12), 2nd dual. *bhajatam* (10.106.9d), 2nd pl. *bhajatana* (7.56.21c)

pres. med. 2nd sing. bhajasva (2)

-si impv. *bhakṣi* (7.41.2d)

caus. bhājayata (10.9.2b)

For the form *bhajatana*, which is one of only three thematic stems showing the ending *-tana*, see page 32.

The active impv. almost always appears with the preverb \tilde{a} , in which case it means 'let (someone) have a share in (something)', with acc. and loc. respectively, e.g.

²¹⁵ cf. tālhi.

²¹⁶ See also Schaefer (1994: 39, 157-159).

1.43.8c á na indo váje bhaja 'give us, O drop, a share in the prize'. Without á, it means 'to apportion' as in 10.106.9d -áṃśeva no bhajataṃ citrám ápnaḥ 'Like Amśa, give out to us shining wealth'. The impv. of the middle-voice appears to differ little in meaning or valency: 4.32.21a,c bhūridá hy ási śrutáḥ ... á no bhajasva rádhasi 'because you are the famous plenty-giver, ..., give us a share in your gift.' The causative stem, which is only attested once in the entire RV, means 'allow to partake': 10.9.2ab yó vaḥ śivátamo rásas, tásya bhājayatehá naḥ 'That which is your most pleasant sap, allow us to partake of it here'. This meaning, according to Jamison (1983: 129), corresponds to the reflexive meaning of the non-modal middle-voice forms, 'obtain a share for oneself' 217.

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bhañj 'break'

pres. act. 2nd sing. bhandhi (10.87.4d)

bhā 'shine'

pres. act. 2nd sing. bhāhi (10)

bhid 'split'

pres. act. 2nd sing. bhindhí (3)

bhiṣajya- 'heal'

pres. act. 2nd dual bhiṣajyátam (8.22.10d)

bhī 'fear'

pres.med. 3rd sing. bhayatām (10.42.6c)

bhur 'move quickly, tremble'

pres. act. 3rd pl. bhurántu (10.76.6a)
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²¹⁷ Cf. also Gotō (1987: 221f.).

bhū 'become'

pres.act. 2nd sing. *bháva* (105), *bhavatāt* (3.23.2d), 3rd sing. *bhavatu* (34), 2nd dual *bhávatam* (10), 3rd dual *bhavatām* (3), 2nd pl. *bhávata* (6), 3rd pl. *bhávantu* (30)

aor. 2nd sing. *bodhí* (38), 3rd sing. *bhūtu* (42), 2nd dual *bhūtám* (20), 2nd pl. *bhūtá* (11), *bhūtana* (10.30.11d)

perf. babhūtu (1.127.10c)

[aor. inj. $bh\bar{u}h$ (6.15.3a)]

For the form bodhí see page 25.

bhūs 'exert oneself for smbd.'

pres. act. 2nd sing. $bh\bar{u}$ șa (3), 3rd sing. $bh\bar{u}$ șatu (8.90.1b), 2nd dual $bh\bar{u}$ ṣatam (2), 2nd pl. $bh\bar{u}$ ṣata (2)

A secondary root derived from $bh\bar{u}$. For literature regarding this root and its relationship with $bh\bar{u}$, see Mayrhofer (1986: *ad loc.*) For the meaning, see Lubotsky (1995²: 225).

bhr 'carry, bring'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *bhára* (134), 2nd dual *bharatam* (1.109.7a), 3rd dual *bháratām* (10.59.8c), 2nd pl. *bhárata* (17)

pres. med. 2nd sing. bhárasva (2), 2nd pl. bharadhvam (12)

red. pres. 3rd dual. bibhṛtām (6.75.4b)

The hugely-attested present active forms are typically found with the preverb \acute{a} and a dative indirect object with the meaning 'bring something to somebody', as in e.g. 1.79.8a \acute{a} no agne rayím bhara 'O Agni, bring us property'.The much rarer middle-voice forms are affective or affective-possessive: 1.79.10bc $v\acute{a}co$ gotamāgnáye / bhárasva sumnayúr gíraḥ 'Bring your (own) words to Agni, O Gotama, songs of praise, when you want (his) good will'.

The durative-iterative meaning of the reduplicating present stem *bíbhar*- is well demonstrated by the sole example of an imperative derived from it: 6.75.4b *mātéva* putrám bibhṛtām upásthe 'let the two [ends of the bow] carry [the arrow] like a mother her son in her lap'.

mamh 'lavish'

them. perf. med. 2nd sing. *māmahasva* (2), 3rd pl. *māmahantām* (20) **pres. caus.** *mamhaya* (5.38.1d)

The perfect impv. means 'to be bountiful'. It can have an accusative object, which denotes the item with respect to which the bounty is being requested, as in 3.52.6ab tṛtīye dhānāḥ sávane puruṣṭuta, puroḷāśam āhutam māmahasva naḥ 'at the third pressing, be bountiful for us with regard to grains, the sacrificed rice cakes'. The third pers. plural form māmahantām, while attested a total of 20 times, only occurs in a single formula which comes at the end of most of the hymns between 1.94 and 1.116, and also 9.97: tán no mitró váruṇo māmahantām, áditiḥ síndhuḥ pṛthivī utá dyaúḥ 'In this matter, may Mitra and Varuṇa be bountiful, and also Aditi, Sindhu, Pṛthivī and Dyaus.' The causative form is semantically problematic, mainly because it is very sparsely attested.²¹⁸ For the thematicised perfect stems see p.34.

mad 'exhilarate, intoxicate'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *mada* (10.63.3d), 3rd dual *madatām* (1.121.11b), 2nd pl. *mádata* (2), 3rd pl. *madantu* (6.75.18d)

sec. pres. act. 2nd sing. manda (6.18.9d), 3rd sing. mándatu (2), 3rd pl. mándantu (8)

sec. pres. med. 2nd sing. 1mándasva (6)

caus. 3rd pl. mādayantu (7.23.5a)

med. caus. 2nd sing. *mādáyasva* (19), 2nd dual *mādáyethām* (5), 2nd pl. *mādáyadhvam* (8), 3rd pl. *mādayantām* (6)

sec. caus. 2nd sing. mandaya (2)

-si impv. 2nd sing. mátsi (15)

s-aor. med. 2nd sing. mátsva (14)

perf. 2nd sing. mamaddhí (2), 3rd sing. mamáttu (12), 2nd pl. mamattána (10.179.1d)

The root *mand* is a secondary root derived from *mad*. Since Bartholomae (1897: 85), it has been accepted that the root *mand* is actually derived from the weak perfect stem of the root *mad*. Some scholars (e.g. Renou 1925: 116) have come to recognise

²¹⁸ For drastically different interpretations, see Kümmel (2000: 354f.), Jamison (1983:130f.), and Gotō (1987: 233f.).

that *synchronically* these are two roots, whatever their historical origin. Gotō (1987: 235f.), however, considers them to be two stems from the same root, having come about in a similar way to that suggested by Bartholomae. Kümmel (2000: 367) challenges Bartholomae's basic assumption, suggesting that *mand* may have originated as a nasal present stem from the root *mad*, which later became generalised as a secondary root.

Despite Gotō's assertion (1987: 235) that the stem $m\acute{a}da$ - is intransitive, most of the attestations of the imperative of this stem are clearly transitive, meaning 'to delight', e.g.: 10.63.3d $t\acute{a}m$ $a\acute{d}ity\acute{a}m$ $a\acute{n}u$ $mad\bar{a}$ $svast\acute{a}ye$ 'Joyfully greet these \bar{A} dityas for well-being'. Indeed, of the remaining attestations of the imperative of the stem mada-, only one appears to be intransitive $-m\acute{a}dat\bar{a}$ at 1.182.1b. The transitive examples all have preverbs, $(\acute{a}nu \times 3, abh\acute{t} \times 1)$, while the intransitive example is simplex, leading to the conclusion that the transitivity is inherent in the preverbs rather than the verbal stem.

The stem *mánda*- differs semantically from *máda*-, meaning 'to intoxicate, exhilarate', usually in the context of Soma, as in 7.22.1a *píbā sómam indra mándatu tvā* 'drink the Soma, O Indra, let it intoxicate you'. The commonly attested -si impv. form *mátsi*, most of whose attestations are in Book 9, means the same, as can be clearly seen from 9.90.5, which contains the form no fewer than six times: *mátsi soma váruṇam mátsi mitrám, mátsindram indo pavamāna víṣṇum / mátsi śárdho márutam mátsi deván, mátsi mahám índram indo mádāya* 'Exhilarate Varuṇa, O Soma, exhilarate Mitra, exhilarate Indra, O purifying drop, (and) Viṣṇu. Exhilarate the Marut horde, exhilarate the gods, exhilarate the great Indra, O drop, for exhilaration'.

The middle-voice variant of this form is its intransitive counterpart 'be intoxicated, rejoice': 8.13.14ab *á tú gahi prá tú drava, mátsvā sutásya gómataḥ* 'come here, run forth, get intoxicated from the milk-rich pressed (Soma).'

The other most-commonly attested form, the middle-voice of the causative is more akin in meaning to the stem $m\acute{a}da$ -, meaning 'rejoice', rather than 'be intoxicated' with an accompanying locative or instrumental denoting the cause of the exhilaration, e.g. : 7.29.2c $asm\acute{n}n\ \bar{u}\ s\acute{u}\ s\acute{a}vane\ m\bar{a}dayasva$ 'rejoice in this pressing', or 1.101.9d $asm\acute{n}\ yaj\~n\'e$ $barh\acute{i}si\ m\bar{a}dayasva$ 'rejoice in this sacrifice on the altargrass'.

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man<sub>1</sub> 'think'
pres. med. 3rd sing. manutām (6.47.29b)
man<sub>2</sub> 'wait?, think?'
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perf. act. 2nd sing. mamandhi (10.27.20)

Only occurs once, at 10.27.20b: $m\delta$ $s\dot{u}$ $pr\dot{a}$ $sedh\bar{\imath}r$ $m\dot{u}hur$ in mamandhi, which is usually translated, e.g. by Grassmann, Geldner and Insler (1972²: 555), 'do not drive (them) forth, just wait a while'. Kümmel (2000: 365) rejects this interpretation on formal grounds, suggesting as an alternative that this form comes from the IE root *men 'to think of (an idea)', whose perfect appears in Greek as $\mu\dot{\epsilon}\mu\nu\nu\alpha$ 'to have in mind', in Latin as memini, 'remember' and in Germanic as the perfecto-present verb man, 'think'. Thus the meaning of this sentence would be 'do not drive (them) forth, consider for a while'. This form has anomalous ablaut in the root, for which see p. 25.

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manth 'agitate'
pres. act. 2nd pl. mánthata (3.29.5a)

mand see mad

mahay- 'exalt'
pres. act. 2nd sing. mahaya (4)

mā<sub>1</sub> 'measure'
pres. act. 2nd sing. mimīhí (7), 2nd dual mimītám (2), 3rd dual mimītām (5.51.11a)
pres. med. 2nd dual mímāthām (2)
aor. 2nd sing. māhi (3)
-si impv māsi (5)
aor. med. 2nd sing. māsva (2)
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The impv. forms of this verb mostly appear with preverbs – the aorist always with μpa , the present either with μpa , or μsam – and generally an accusative object and dative indirect object, with the meaning 'distribute, measure out', as in e.g. $3.54.22b^{219}$ asmadryàk sám mimīhi śrávāmsi 'in our direction measure out glories',

²¹⁹ Repeated at 5.4.2d and 6.19.3b.

and 7.26.5c sahasríṇa úpa no māhi vấjān 'give out to us thousandfold prizes'. The middle-voice forms have similar meaning, and the same valency: 9.93.5a nữ no rayím úpa māsva nṛvántam 'now distribute to us property, rich in men'. Without preverbs, the meaning and valency may again be the same: 4.44.6ab nữ no rayím puruvíram bṛhántaṃ, dásrā mímāthām ubháyeṣv asmé 'Now distribute to us high property, with many heroes, O Wonder-workers, on both sides'. One one occasion, without preverbs and with different valency, it means 'to measure', 1.38.14ab mimīhí ślókam āsyè, parjánya iva tatanaḥ 'Measure the sound in your mouth, thunder like Parjanya'.

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mā<sub>2</sub> 'bellow'
pres. act. 3rd sing. mímātu (5.59.8a)

mi 'build'
pres. act. 3rd sing. minotu (10.18.13d)

muc 'free'
pres. act. 2nd sing. muñca (2), 2nd dual muñcátam (3), 2nd pl. muñcata (4), 3rd pl. muñcántu (2)
pres. med. 2nd sing. muñcasva (10.38.5c)
a-aor. 2nd sing. muca (4)
aor. med. 2nd pl. mucadhvam (1.171.1d)
perf. 2nd sing. mumugdhí (6) , 3rd sing. mumoktu (2), 2nd dual mumuktam (2)
thematicised perf. 2nd dual mumócatam (5), 2nd pl. mumócata (8.67.14b)
```

Kümmel (2000: 382) states that there is no difference in meaning between the present and perfect stems. While this may be true, there is certainly a difference in their characteristic valency. The perfect form *mumugdhí* almost always occurs — with a variety of preverbs — with an accusative and an ablative in an expression meaning 'remove [something bad] from us', as in 1.24.9d *kṛtáṃ cid énaḥ prá mumugdhy asmát* 'release the sin we have committed from us', and 5.2.7c *evásmád agne ví mumugdhi páśān* 'So remove the bonds from us, O Agni'.

The present, on the other hand, characteristically occurs with reversed valency, as in 6.74.4c *prá no muñcataṃ váruṇasya pắśād*, 'release us from the bond of Varuṇa'. This is not however a hard and fast rule; while the majority of attestations of perfect forms do have the characterically perfect valency, there are a couple of instances in

which the present has the characteristically perfect valency: 4.12.6c evó ṣv àsmán muñcatā vy áṃhaḥ 'thus release the trouble from us' and 6.74.3cd áva syatam muñcátaṃ yán no ásti, tanúṣu baddháṃ kṛtám éno asmát 'untie, release from us the committed sin which we have, bound to our bodies'.

The aorist *muca* only occurs with the preverb *ví* with a single accusative object, e.g. 1.177.4cd *stīrṇám barhír ấ tú śakra prá yāhi, píbā niṣádya ví mucā hárī ihá* 'drive forth to the strewn altar grass, O Mighty One, drink, sitting down, unyoke the two bays here'.

The thematicised perfect forms, presumably derived from the subjunctive * $mum\acute{o}cati^{220}$ is only attested in Book 8, and, whether or not by chance, is the only impv. form of this verb attested there. It occurs five times in a single, rather difficult formula: 8.86.1-5d $m\acute{a}$ no $v\acute{i}$ yauṣṭaṃ sakhy\acute{a} mum\'ocatam 'do not reject our friendship, free [us] (?)'. However, given the frequency of the combination $v\acute{i}$ muc + acc. it is possible that Geldner (ad loc.) is correct that the preverb $v\acute{i}$ actually belongs with mum'ocatam (or maybe more likely to both verbs), despite the difficulty posed by the word order. For the thematicised perfect stems see p. 34.

There are only two attestations of middle-voice forms, one of which is reflexive: 10.38.5c *prá muñcasva pári kútsād ihá gahi* 'free yourself from Kutsa, come here', while the other is affective-possessive: 1.171.1d *ní hélo dhattá ví mucadhvam áśvān* 'lay down your anger, unyoke your (own) horses'.

For the possibility that the form 'mumuktam at 6.50.10c is an impv. see p. 118.

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mud 'rejoice'
pres. med. 2nd pl. modadhvam (10.97.3a)
muș 'steal'
pres. act. 2nd sing. muṣāyá (1.175.4a)
muh 'be dazed'
pres. act. 3rd pl. múhyantu (10.81.6c)
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²²⁰ For the shift in accent in the attested perf. subj. *múmocati* see Kümmel (*op. cit*: 383).

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mṛj 'clean'sa-aor. 2nd dual mṛkṣatam (2)caus. med. pres. 2nd pl. marjayadhvam (7.2.4d)
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mrd 'have mercy'

pres. act. 2nd sing. $mr_l a$ (19), 3rd sing. $mr_l atu$ (1.179.5c), 2nd dual. $mr_l atam$ (6.74.4b), 3rd dual $mr_l atam$ (10.93.7a), 2nd pl. $mr_l ata$ (11), 3rd pl. $mr_l atu$ (2) caus. act. 2nd sing. $mr_l aya$ (18), 2nd pl. $mr_l ayata$ (2.29.2d), 3rd pl. $mr_l ayatu$ (4) Jamison (1983: 102f.) rightly claims that there appears to be no difference in meaning between the simple present and the causative, both taking dative complements. As she also points out, both the simple present and causative can also take an accusative. However there is no need for Jamison's assertion than the accusative of agas 'sin' is ellipsed on every occasion where the accusative is absent; the accusative could just as well be considered to be external to the main verbal syntagma rather than as a direct object, and translated e.g. 'regarding our sin,': thus 7.93.7c $yatsm agas cakrma tatsu mr_l a$ 'the sin which we have committed, regarding this matter please have mercy'.

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mrś 'touch'pres. act. 2nd sing. mṛśa (3)pres. med. 2nd sing. mṛśasva (8.70.9b)
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$m\bar{r}_1$ 'crush'

pres. act. 2nd sing. mṛnīhi (4.4.5d), mṛna (5)

Thieme (1939) suggests that this is the descendant of two separate roots: * $melh_1$ 'to grind' and * $merh_2$ 'to catch'. There is no simple way to tell them apart, unlike in the case of the similarly conjugated verbs $p\bar{r}_1$ 'fill' and $p\bar{r}_2$ 'give', all of whose thematic forms mean 'fill'. For one thing, the meanings of the two roots are too similar, and furthermore, from a formal point of view, they are not distinguished either by preverbs $-pr\acute{a}$ may be combined with either root, or by form, as both may be thematic or athematic. It is clear that 7.104.22d $dr_s \acute{a} deva pr\acute{a} mrna r\acute{a} ksa indra$ 'Crush harm as with a mill-stone' means 'crush', because of the analogy of the mill-stone. Thieme claims that at 6.44.17 $pr\acute{a} mrna$ means 'catch': $p\acute{a} r\bar{a} ca indra pr\acute{a} mrn\bar{a} jah\acute{a} ca$ 'As they (the enemy) turn away, catch them and smite them.'. Klein (1985: 1-85), however, translates the same passage 'grind up and smash'.

For the morphology of the imperative forms of this verb see page 28f.

$m\bar{r}_2$ 'hinder'

int. 3rd sing. marmartu (2.23.6d)

This root only has one imperative form: 2.23.6cd *bṛhaspate yó no abhí hváro dadhé, svắ tám marmartu duchúnā hárasvatī*. Insler (1972¹: 92) suggests differentiating this intensive from the previous $m\bar{r}_l$ 'to crush", with the meaning 'hinder', translating the passage 'Bṛhaspati, he who poses an obstacle for us, let that own angering²²¹ mischief of his hinder him'. Mayrhofer (1986 s. MAR^{I3}) appears to agree, while Schaefer (1994: 166f.) rejects this, preferring to classify this form under $m\bar{r}$ 'to crush'. One can certainly make a case for Insler's distinction, both semantically – the idea of the mischievous individual being hindered by his own obstable does make sense – and historically, by connecting this verb to nouns such as $\bar{a}mur$, 'hindrance' (Insler [op. cit]). However, once again, since the phonological evidence is valid for either case, there is no way to be sure that the alternative translation 'may his own mischief crush him' is not correct.

med 'be fat'

pres. act. 3rd pl. médyantu (2.37.3a)

Some scholars, such as Geldner (ad loc.), and Joachim (1978: 132) consider the form medátām, which occurs at 10.93.11d, to be a 3rd sing. med. impv. form. The text is: 10.93.11cd sádā pāhy abhíṣṭaye, medátām vedátā vaso which has been translated either as '(Die Rede) soll an Weisheit fett werden, du Guter' (Geldner) or 'Beschütze unser Genossentumswerden (unser fettes Gedeihen?) entsprechend unserem Weisheitwesen, du Guter' (Oldenberg [1909: ad. loc.]), in which case the form medátām is seen as an accusative verbal noun.

myaks 'be attached'

pres. act. 2nd sing. myaksa (2.28.6a)

sec. pres. act. 2nd sing. mimikṣa (9.107.6d), 2nd dual mimikṣatam (4), 3rd dual mimikṣatām (2)

perf. med. 2nd sing. mimiksva (1.48.16b)

²²¹ I.e. 'which angers us'.

The impv. form *myakṣa* is the only extant form of this present stem. It occurs with the preverb *ápa*, which has the effect of giving it the opposite meaning to that of the simplex, i.e. 'unattach', as opposed to 'attach': 2.28.6a *ápo sú myakṣa varuṇa bhiyásam mát* 'O Varuna, detach fear from me'.

The other reduplicated present forms are considered by Joachim (1978: 132f.) to be secondary derivatives from the perfect. This is rejected by Kümmel (2000: 387f.), who prefers to see them as a thematicised, factitive reduplicated present. It almost always appears in a formulaic expression, as in 9.107.6d *mádhvā yajñám mimikṣa naḥ* 'provide our sacrifice with sweetness', with acc. and instr.

The middle-voice form can either be a relic of an athematic reduplicated present or a perfect (Kümmel, *loc. cit.*). It occurs once at 1.48.16ab *sáṃ no rāyā bṛhatā viśvápeśasā, mimikṣvā sám ílābhir ā* with a similar meaning to the above reduplicated forms 'equip us with high property, with every decoration, with refreshment.'

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mrad 'make soft' pres. act. 2nd sing. mrada (6.53.3c)
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yaj 'sacrifice'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *yája* (18), 3rd sing. *yajatu* (3), 2nd pl. *yajata* (4.1.1d), 3rd pl. *yajantu* (10.128.4a)

pres. med. 2nd sing. *yájasva* (18), 3rd sing. *yajatām* (6.15.13d), 2nd dual. *yajethām* (10.70.7d), 2nd pl. *yájadhva* (8.2.37.a), *yajadhvam* (6), 3rd pl. *yajantām* (10.128.3a) **aor. -si impv.** 2nd sing. *yáksi* (33)

-s- aor. 3rd dual yakṣatām (3)

-s- aor. med. 2nd sing. yáksva (3)

The active and middle voice forms are usually considered to be differentiated in that the former means 'worship, offer (as a priest on behalf of someone else), while the middle means 'sacrifice (on one's own behalf)'. A close analysis of the data shows that this is basically true in the Rigveda. This is particularly strongly illustrated by the fact that the dative denoting the party on behalf of whom the sacrifice or worship is carried out only occurs with the active. Despite this one rule, however, the situation on the whole is not very consistent and there are many exceptions²²².

²²² For a full discussion of the valency of the verb *yai* see Baum (2006, forthc.).

The agent of the active voice forms is almost always Agni, who is himself often addressed as 'hotar'. This, and the fact that the abovementioned dative very often does occur with the active, illustrates the meaning 'worship on behalf of others'.

The middle forms are often reflexive, or possessive-affective. This can be very explicit, there being a reflexive pronoun as direct object, as in the formulaic $svay\acute{a}m$ $yajasva\ tanv\grave{a}m$ 'offer your own body', which occurs several times. However, the middle voice with the preverb \acute{a} has a special meaning and valency – 'bring something to someone as a result of their worship', as in 3.1.22cd $pr\acute{a}$ yamsi hotar $brhat\acute{tr}$ iso $n\acute{o}$, 'gne $m\acute{a}hi$ $dr\acute{a}vinam$ \acute{a} yajasva 'Extend to us high refreshment, bring us great wealth, O Agni'.

The -si impv. yákṣi occurs many times in formulaic yákṣi devắn, 'offer to the gods', mostly at the end of 11-syllable lines, although it does occur elsewhere too, either with accusative object of the god to which of the offering is made, or else without objects, simply meaning 'make an offering', as in 1.14.1c devébhir yāhi yákṣi ca 'come here with the gods and make an offering'. Remarkably, it is once affective-possessive: 1.75.5c ágne yákṣi sváṃ dámam 'O Agni, sacrifice your own house'. Finally, the 2nd pers. dual form yakṣatām, which is obviously created on the basis of the aor. subj. yákṣat, occurs three times in the same repeated line: 1.13.8c yajñáṃ no yakṣatām imám 'let these two offer this offering for us', all of them in Book 1. See also Narten (1964: 47f., 202f.).

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yat 'install, take position'
pres. act. 2nd dual yátatam (8.35.12a)
pres. med. 2nd sing. yatasva (1.69.6b), 3rd pl. yatantām (5.59.8b)

yam 'extend'
pres. act. 2nd sing. yácha (21), yachatāt (1.48.15c), 3rd sing. yachatu (13), 2nd dual yáchatam (17), 3rd dual yachatām (2.41.20c), 2nd pl. yáchata (14), 3rd pl. yáchantu (4)
pres. med. 2nd pl. yachadhvam (7.43.2b)
root. aor. 2nd sing. yandhí (8), 2nd dual yantám (6), 2nd pl. yánta (5), yantana (3)
-si impv. yáṃsi (4)
caus. act. 2nd sing. yāmaya (8.3.2d)
```

The imperative forms of this verb are entirely active and transitive, with one exception. This verb has two characteristic meanings, in one case occurring with the

noun śárman 'shelter', or its synonyms, as its direct object and a dative indirect object, and in the other mainly in expressions concerning the granting of gifts, etc. The difference is not inherent in the verbal stem, but rather in the choice of preverb, the expression śárma yam occurring with none, while 'to grant {gifts}' is expressed by prá yam. In this latter case the aorist is more common than the present, but is by no means exclusively employed in this meaning, Thus prá + yácha- means 'grant' in 6.59.9cd ấ na ihá prá yachatam, rayím viśváyupoṣasam 'grant us here property that makes our whole life prosper.' One exception to this is is the semi-formulaic prá [dat.] yacha- avṛkám pṛthú chardíḥ 'extend to (smbd.) your safe, broad shelter' (1.48.15c, 8.9.1c), although it is worth noting that at 1.48.15d the text continues prá devi gómatīr ísah 'O Goddess, (grant us) cow (milk?)-rich refreshment'.

As already mentioned, the aorist forms *yandhí* and *yáṃsi* occur mostly with the preverb *prá*, with the meaning 'grant', as in 4.2.20d *mahó rāyáḥ puruvāra prá yandhi* 'grant us great wealth, O rich one.' However, on one occasion when there is no preverb, the meaning is once again, 'extend your shelter': 7.88.6d *yandhí ṣmā vípra stuvaté várūtham* 'being wise, extend your shelter to your praiser.'

For an explanation of the form *yandhí* see page 25.

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yas 'boil'
pres. act. 3rd sing. yayastu
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 $y\bar{a}$ 'travel (in a vehicle)'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *yāhí* (142), 3rd sing. *yātu* (18), 3rd dual *yātám* (120), 2nd pl. *yātá* (17), *yātána* (3), 3rd pl. *yāntu* (1.167.2a)

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-siṣ- aor 2nd dual yāsiṣṭám (5)
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The aorist form yāsiṣṭám occurs only in the formulaic expression yāsiṣṭám vartíḥ 'drive (around) your circuit', always addressed to the Aśvins. The present can appear in the same formula, as e.g. at 1.34.4a, however usually no such object occurs.

The form $y\bar{a}s\bar{i}sta$, which occurs once at 1.165.15c. is classified as an impv. by older scholars such as Whitney (1924: §914c), Macdonell (1916: §534) and Grassmann. It is shown by Narten (1964: 209ff.) to be the 3rd sing. med. precative of the verb $y\bar{a}$, 'to ask for'.

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yāc 'ask for'

pres. act. 2nd sing. yācatāt (9.86.41d), 2nd pl. yācata (10.48.5c)
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 yu_1 'bind' pres. act. 2nd sing. yuva (9.108.9c) pres. med. 2nd sing. $yuv\acute{a}sva$ (6)

The active forms of this verb (impv. and others) are only attested twice, both times in late books.²²³ The single occurrence of the active impv. is transitive, and occurs with the preverb vi, which modifies its meaning to 'untie, open' 9.108.9c vi kóśam madhyamáṃ yuva 'open (or 'empty'?, cf. Geldner ad. loc.) the middle receptacle'. The middle-voice form yuvásva is another whose meaning is 'give', presumably literally 'attach to ...', as in, e.g. 7.5.9ab táṃ no agne maghávadbhyaḥ purukṣúṃ, rayíṃ ní vấjaṃ śrútyaṃ yuvasva 'Give this cow-rich property, as fame-worthy booty to our liberal (patrons)'.

yu2 'keep away'

red. pres. act. 2nd sing. yuyodhí (7), 3rd sing. yuyotu (3), 2nd dual yuyotam (2), yuyutám (3), 2nd pl. yuyóta (10), yuyótana (2)

sk-pres. act. 3rd pl. yuchantu (8.39.2e)

caus. pres. 3nd. sing. yaváya (4), 3rd pl. yavayantu (8.48.5d)

2nd caus. act. 2nd sing. yāváya (4), 3rd pl. yāvayantu (7.44.3d)

2nd caus. med. 2nd sing. yāvayasva (5.42.9d)

The reduplicated present shows the construction 'keep something (acc.) away from someone (abl.)', as in 2.6.4c *yuyodhy àsmád dvéṣāṃsi* 'keep hostilities away from us'. It can also have the enclitic personal pronoun *naḥ* in place of the proclitic *asmád* in the above example, which in this case would unusually have to be considered an ablative too, as in 6.48.10c *ágne héḷāṃsi daívyā yuyodhi náḥ* 'O Agni, keep the heavenly angers away from us'.

The stem *yúcha*, on the other hand, is intransitive, meaning 'to stay away from someone (abl.), 8.39.2e *itó yuchantv āmúraḥ*- 'may the hinderances stay away from here'.

²²³ The other attestation is one occurrence of the present active 3rd pers. sing. *yuváti* at 10.42.5d.

The transitive/causative stem yaváya- occurs only in Books 1, 8 and 10, and this is clearly a late form. $y\bar{a}váya$ - occurs in Books 3,5,6,7 and 10, making an almost non-overlapping distribution. Both are apparently undifferentiated in meaning from the reduplicated stem yuyu-, showing also a similar valency, although with a tendency to drop the ablative.

The single occurrence of the middle-voice caus. is not differentiated in meaning or valency from the active: 5.42.9d *brahmadvíṣaḥ sắryād yāvayasva* 'keep the enemy of the priest out of the sun'.²²⁴

Jamison (*op. cit*) considers the reduplicated stem *yuyo*- to be a perfect. Gotō (1987: 315f.) disputes Jamison's accentual grounds for this theory, but Kümmel (2000 401f.), does consider it a possibility. As the forms in question are all modal (except one example of *yuyoti* at 1.92.11), Kümmel considers it typical that the categorial classification of these forms is uncertain, as even in early Vedic they were no longer living forms, the only living perfect forms being the indicative and the participle.

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yuj 'yoke'
pres. act. 2nd pl. yunákta (2)
pres. med. 2nd dual. yuñjáthām (7), 2nd pl. yuṅgdhvám (3)
root aor. med. 2nd sing. yukṣvá (12)
-ya- pass. 2nd pl. yujyadhvam (10.175.1c)
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The active forms are transitive, e.g. 10.101.10d *ubhé dhúrau práti váhniṃ yunakta* 'harness both poles to the beast', while the middle-voice of all stems is possessive-affective, as in 8.85.7a *yuñjáthāṃ rásabhaṃ ráthe* 'yoke your donkey to your (own) wagon [O Aśvins]'

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yudh 'fight'
pres. act. 2nd sing. yudhya (2), 2nd pl. yúdhyata (8.96.14d)
aor. 2nd sing. yódhi (5.3.9a)
-si impv. yótsi (1.132.4e)
is-aor. 2nd dual yodhiṣṭam (6.60.2a)
caus. 2nd sing. yodháya (3.46.2d)
[aor. inj. yodhīḥ (10.120.3d)]
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²²⁴ See also Jamison (1983: 174).

All of the impv. forms of this verb are active, but middle-voice forms are attested elsewhere in the system. The active forms are always transitive, characteristically – both present and aorist – occurring with the preverb *abhí* either with the meaning 'fight against', as in 6.31.3ab *tváṃ kútsenābhí śúṣṇam indra-, -aśúṣaṃ yudhya kúyavaṃ gáviṣṭau* 'you Indra, fight Śúṣṇa with Kutsa . . .' or, 'to fight for something (acc.)', as in 6.60.2a *tấ yodhiṣṭam abhí gấ indra nūnám* 'You two, Indra (and Agni) fight now for the cows'. Other than that, it is used absolutely, with no object, sometimes with an adverbial locative denoting the place where the fighting is to take place. For the form *yódhi*, which is attested only at 5.3.9a *áva spṛdhi pitáraṃ yódhi* ... 'Protect the father, fight (for him)', see page 26f.

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raks 'protect'
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pres. act. 2nd sing. *rákṣa* (25), *rákṣatāt* (4.50.2d), 3rd sing. *rakṣatu* (2), 2nd dual *rákṣatam* (9), 3rd dual *rakṣatām* (2), 2nd pl. *rákṣata* (2), 3rd pl. *rakṣantu* (8.48.5c) **pres. med.** 2nd sing. *rakṣasva* (10.69.4d)

Both the active and middle forms of this verb are always transitive. The middle is in addition possessive-affective. Of the nine occurrences of *rákṣatam* seven occur at 1.185, in the repeated pāda 1.185.2-8d *dyấvā rákṣatam pṛthivī no ábhvāt* 'Heaven and Earth, protect us from Nothingness'²²⁵.

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rad 'dig up, scrape'
pres. act. 2nd sing. ráda (4), 3rd pl. radantu (7.62.3a)
-si impv. rátsi (5.10.1d)

ran 'enjoy'
pres. act. I 2nd sing. raṇa (5)
pres. X act. 2nd sing. raṇaya (8.34.1b), 3rd pl. raṇáyantu (6.28.1b)
-iṣ- aor. 2nd pl. ráṇiṣṭana (2.36.3b)
perf. rārandhí (3)
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Narten (1964: 217) classes the form *ráṇiṣṭana* with other *-iṣ*- aorists which developed from original root-aorists. She claims an ingressive meaning for the aorist, as opposed to the present *raṇa*, which she asserts is durative. This appears to

²²⁵ See also Gotō (1987: 257).

me to be a very far-reaching conclusion to base on just one attested example: 2.36.3ab ...á hí gántana, ní barhíṣi sadatanā ráṇiṣṭana 'come here, sit on the altargrass and enjoy yourselves', especially as the present only occurs in a practically identical context; 5.51.8cd ấ yāhy agne atrivát suté raṇa²²⁶ 'drive here, Agni, and take pleasure in the pressed (Soma), like Atri.'.

All other imperative forms of this verb are likewise intransitive, unless 10.59.5c *rārandhí naḥ sū́ryasya saṃdṛśi* is to be understood transitively, as does Geldner 'Laß uns des Anblicks der Sonne froh werden'.

According to Jamison (1983: 75 and 143), *raṇaya* is a denominative from the noun *ráṇa* 'pleasure'.

For the form *rārandhí* see p. 25.

randh 'cast down' 227

pres.act. 2nd sing. randhi (4.22.9c)

perf. act. 2nd sing. rārandhí (6.25.9b)

caus. act. 2nd sing. randhaya (9)

caus. med. 2nd sing. randháyasva (3.30.16d)

Insler (1972²) suggests that the form randhi is not the original reading of the text, for which he posits *randha, explaining it as a metrically-motivated abbreviation of randhaya, on the basis of a similar phrase at 7.30.2d. The advantage in suggesting the replacement of one nonce-form by an unattested nonce-form is unclear to me. ²²⁸ For my suggestion that randhi was created by analogy to the form jósi in the same way as $y\acute{o}dhi$ see p. 27. The only other present-forms attested from this root are from the $-\acute{a}ya$ - stem randhaya-. This last is transitive, as is the affective middle-voice form $randh\acute{a}yasva$. The single perfect example is undifferentiated in meaning from the present, ²²⁹

²²⁶ The expression *suté rana* is repeated 5 times throughout the RV.

²²⁷ The 2nd pl. red. caus. aor. form $r\bar{r}radhat\bar{a}$, classified by Lubotsky as in imperative, is in fact an injunctive.

²²⁸ See also Narten (1964: 218) and Kümmel (2000: 416).

²²⁹ See also Kümmel (2000: 415f.).

-si impv. *rási* (11)

(10.36.14d), 3rd pl. rāsantām (4)

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rabh 'seize'
pres. med. 2nd sing. rabhasva (3), 2nd pl. rabhadhvam (2)

ram 'stop'
pres. med. 2nd sing. ramasva (10.34.13b), 2nd pl. rámadhvam (3.33.5a)
caus. act. 2nd sing. ramáya (5.52.13d)
caus II act. rāmaya (10.42.1d)

The two causative forms, which both mean 'to bring to a halt' are explained by Jamison (1983: 103, 131f.). Cf. also Gotō (1987: 262ff.).

rā<sub>1</sub> 'give, bestow'
pres. act. 2nd sing. rirīhi (7)
pres. med. 2nd dual rarāthām (1.117.23d), 2nd pl. rarīdhvam (5.83.6a)
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All forms of this verb are middle-voice, except the impv. $rir\bar{\imath}hi$, and a number of forms which are either derived from, or implied by the active s-aor. subj. stem $r\tilde{a}sa$ -, such as the -si impv. $r\tilde{a}si$. The forms $r\bar{a}sat\bar{a}m$ and $r\bar{a}sant\bar{a}m$ are also built on the subjunctive stem, and are the first signs of the development of the thematic stem $r\bar{a}sa$ -, which is more widely attested in later texts. There appears to be no difference whatsoever in meaning between the active and middle-voice forms, both occurring with the same valency (acc. + dat.) and the same type of direct and indirect objects. See also Narten (1964: 219ff.).

aor. med. 2nd sing. rāsva (21), 2nd dual rāsāthām (1.46.6c), 3rd sing. rāsatām

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rā<sub>2</sub> 'bellow'
pres. act. 2nd sing. rāya (7.55.3a)
rikh 'scratch'
pres. act. 2nd sing. rikha (2)
ruc 'shine'
pres. med. 3rd sing. rocatām (10.43.9c)
caus. act. 2nd sing. rocaya (2)
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The middle-voice forms are intransitive, meaning 'to shine', only occurring once in the impv. at 10.43.9c *ví rocatām aruṣó bhānúnā śúciḥ* 'The bright red one will shine with light'. The causative is factitive-transitive 'make shine', as in 9.36.3ab *sá no jyótīṃṣi pūrvya, pávamāna ví rocaya* 'Make the lights shine for us, O First Pavamāna'.

For the history of the forms see Hoffmann (1968²), Jamison (1983: 132), and Gotō (1987: 274-5).

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ruj 'smash'
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pres. act. 2nd sing. rujá (9)

ruh 'grow'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *roha* (4), 3rd sing. *rohatu* (2), 2nd pl. *rohata* (10.18.6a), 3rd pl. *rohantu* (2)

a-aor. 2nd dual. *ruhátam* (8.22.9a)

caus. act. 2nd sing. rohaya (8.91.5a)

Gotō (1987: 277ff.) splits this verb into two original roots, one meaning 'grow', from an original * $h_1 le\mu d^h$, and one meaning 'ascend', from an original * $re\mu \hat{g}^h/le\mu \hat{g}^h$. For our purposes, Gotō classes the aorist impv. $ruh\acute{a}tam$ and the causative rohaya 'makes ascend', as well any present forms that occur with an accusative of goal as belonging to ruh- 'ascend'. Thus, while at 10.85.20c \acute{a} roha $s\bar{u}rye$ $am\acute{r}tasya$ $lok\acute{a}m$ 'Ascend to the world of immortality, O Suryā' has the second meaning, 3.8.11ab $v\acute{a}naspate$ $\acute{s}at\acute{a}val\acute{s}o$ $v\acute{t}$ roha, $sah\acute{a}sraval\acute{s}a$ $v\acute{t}$ $vay\acute{a}m$ ruhema 'Grow with a hundred branches O Tree, with a thousand branches may we grow', belongs to the first. This example also shows that the aorist forms can in fact also mean 'grow' despite what Gotō appears to say $(op\ cit.\ fn\ 641)$. The aor. impv. $ruh\acute{a}tam$ is unusual in meaning 'ascend' but being construed with a locative at 8.22.9ab \acute{a} $h\acute{t}$ $ruh\acute{a}tam$ $a\acute{s}vin\bar{a}$, $r\acute{a}the...$ 'O Aśvins, get into the chariot.²³⁰

rū 'bellow'

pres. act. 2nd sing. ruva (1.10.4b)

²³⁰ See also Joachim (1978: 147f.).

lī 'cling, hide'

pres. med. 3rd pl. *layantām*

Occurs once at 10.84.7cd: *bhíyaṃ dádhānā hṛdayeṣu śátravaḥ*, *párājitāso ápa ní layantām*, 'the enemies, having fear in their hearts, defeated, shall hide away'. See also Gotō (1987: 279), Mayrhofer (1986, s. *LAY*).

vac 'speak'

red. aor. 2nd sing. *voca* (1.32.1e), *vocatāt* (5.61.18a), 3rd sing. *vocatu* (3.54.19b), 2nd dual *vocatam* (7.83.2d), 2nd pl. *vocata* (15)

[aor. inj. *vocah* (9)]

 $vocat\bar{a}t$ is the only example of the ending $-t\bar{a}t$ on an aorist stem. The form occurs once at 5.61.18ab: $ut\acute{a}$ me $vocat\bar{a}d$ $\acute{t}t$ i, $sut\acute{a}some$ $r\acute{a}thav\bar{t}tau$, 'And speak for me thus when Rathav $\bar{t}t$ i has pressed the Soma'. vac has a suppletive relationship with $br\bar{u}$ (q.v.) the latter supplying the missing present stem.

vañc 'move crookedly, gallop'pres. med. 2nd sing. vacyasva (3), 3rd pl. vacyántām (3.6.2d)

vat 'acquire (spiritually)'
pres. act. 2nd sing. vātaya (2)

vad 'say'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *vada* (10), 2nd pl. *vadata* (3), 3rd pl. *vadantu* (10.94.1a) **pres. med.** 2nd sing. *vadasva* (1.170.5c), 2nd pl. *vadadhvam* (10.191.2a)

The middle-voice forms of this verb are mostly attested in Books 1 and 10, although there is one occurrence of *sáṃ vade* at 7.86.2a. Gotō (1987: 282) says that the middle voice has a reciprocal meaning, strengthened by use of the preverb *sám*, and this is well demonstrated by both of the impv. examples: 1.170.5c *índra tvám marúdbhiḥ sáṃ vadasva-* 'Indra, you talk together with the Maruts', and 10.191.2ab *sáṃ gachadhvaṃ sáṃ vadadhvaṃ, sáṃ vo mánāṃsi jānatām* 'come together, converse, may your minds be one'.

The active forms can take a direct object denoting what is said; e.g. 2.43.2de sarváto naḥ śakune bhadrám ấ vada, viśváto naḥ śakune púṇyam ấ vada 'From all sides

announce the blessing to us, O Bird, from every side announce the good (fortune?) to us, O Bird'.

vadh 'strike, kill'

is-aor. 2nd dual vadhistam (4.41.4b)

Used once with the preverb *ní*, at 4.41.4ab *asminn*, ...*ní vadhiṣṭaṃ vájram* ... 'strike your Vajra down on him'. This root has a suppletive relationship with *han*.

van1 'win'

pres VIII act. 3rd pl. vanvántu (2)

pres. med. 2nd sing. vanusva (1.169.1d)

s-aor. med. 2nd sing. *vámsva* (6)

desid. 2nd sing. vivāsa (5), 2nd pl. vivāsata (2)

The sparsely attested active impv. is transitive, meaning 'defeat': 7.21.9cd *vanvántu smā té 'vasā samīkè*, *'bhītim aryó vanúṣāṃ śávāṃsi* 'May they with your help defeat in battle the attack of the foreigners, the power of the enemy.'

The single example of the middle-voice form *vanuṣva* means 'win', but is transitive rather than affective 1.169.1cd *sá no vedho marútāṃ cikitvắn, sumnắ vanuṣva táva hí préṣṭhā* 'O Master, knowing the Maruts, win for us their goodwill, for they are dearest to you.²³¹' The aorist form *váṃsva* means the same, as in 8.23.27ab *váṃsvā no váryā purú, váṃsva rāyáḥ puruspṭhaḥ* 'Win for us many choice things, win property desirable to many.' This meaning, 'win (for us)', underlies even examples in which the indirect object is not explicitly mentioned: 7.17.5 *váṃsva víśvā váryāṇi pracetaḥ, satyá bhavantv āśíṣo no adyá* 'win all the choice things, O perceptive one, may all our wishes come true today'. The second half of this verse makes it obvious that Agni is being asked to win the choice things for the worshippers, and not for himself. ²³²

²³¹ Geldner's translation "Du, Meister der Marut" is impossible, owing to the fact that *marútām* is accented.

²³² For the differentiation of the two roots *van* and *vanⁱ* see Gotō (1987: 283ff.) For the form *vaṃsi*, which isn't an imperative, see p. 54. For *vivāsa* and other desiderative imperatives, see p. 34.

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van<sub>2</sub> (van<sup>i</sup>) 'love, wish'
-sk- pres. 3rd pl. vañchantu (10.173.1c)
pres./a-aor. 2nd dual vánatam (3), 2nd pl. vanata (8.7.9c)
pres./ a-aor med. 3rd sing. vanatām (1.162.22d)
perf. vāvandhi
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The attestation of the form *vañchantu* at 10.173.1cd is the only time this stem occurs in the RV: *víśas tvā sárvā vāñchantu*, *mấ tvád rāṣṭrám ádhi bhraśat* 'May all the tribes want you, may your realm not fall away from you.'

The form $v\'{a}natam$, which could either be a thematic present or a orist, always occurs in the formula 'X (voc.) $v\'{a}natam$ $g\'{i}rah$ ', 'want (i.e. gladly accept) our songs', while the plural vanata occurs in a similar expression, but whose direct object is $h\'{a}vam$ 'call' (8.7.9c).

The single attestation of the form $v\bar{a}vandhi$, which appears to mean exactly the same as the others forms, occurs at 5.31.13cd $v\bar{a}vandhi$ $y\acute{a}jy\bar{u}\check{m}r$ $ut\acute{a}$ $t\acute{e}su$ dhehy, $\acute{o}jo$ $j\acute{a}nesu$ $y\acute{e}su$ te $sy\acute{a}ma$ 'Accept those willing to worship, and place strength in them, in those people among whom we wish to be'. For the classification of this form under the root van^i see Kümmel (2000: 447ff.), and for the full grade in the root see p. 25.

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vand 'pray, praise'
pres. med. 2nd sing. vándasva (6)
vap 'strew'
pres. act. 2nd sing. vapa (8.96.9d), 2nd pl. vapata (10.101.3b), 3rd pl. vapantu (2.33.11d)
varivasy- 'make wide space'
pres. act. 2nd sing. varivasyá (2), varivasyantu (4)
vaś 'wish'
pres. act. 3rd sing. vaṣṭu (1.3.10c)
vas₁ 'shine, illuminate'
-sk- pres. act. 2nd sing. uchá (14), 3rd sing. uchatu (3), 2nd pl. uchata (10.35.5c), 3rd pl. uchantu (3)
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caus. act. 2nd sing. vāsaya (2)

The present is usually addressed to Uṣas, whose name, of course, is derived from the same root. It is usually intransitive, meaning 'shine', often, as here, with the preverb vi, which emphasises the scattered nature of sunrays: 1.113.12d $ih\hat{a}dy\delta_{i}ah$ $\delta r\dot{e}sthatam\bar{a}$ vy $\dot{u}cha$ 'shine here today, being the most beautiful Uṣas'. The verb may occasionally take an accusative of goal, as in 7.77.4a $\dot{a}ntiv\bar{a}m\bar{a}$ $d\bar{u}r\dot{e}$ amitram ucha-'You who are noble from nearby, illuminate the enemy, (when he is) far away' i.e. prevent him from hiding. Structurally, amitram in this example is syntactically identical to $ih\acute{a}$ in the previous one.

More intriguing, perhaps, are examples where *uchá* occurs with *revát* 'containing riches', as in 1.92.14c *revád asmé vy ùcha sūnṛtāvati*. While this could be adverbial, as suggested e.g. by Grassmann, (*ad loc.*), I believe it is far more likely that it means 'riches' in exactly the same way that *gómant* and *áśvavant* (both of which adjectives are attributed to Uṣas in 1.92.14ab) mean cow- and horse-prosperity respectively at e.g. 9.105.4a *góman na indo áśvavat ... dhanva* 'O drop, flow to cow and horse prosperity'. Thus 1.92.14c means 'shine on riches for us . . .'

The causative occurs twice, both times at 1.134.3fg: *prá cakṣaya ródasī vāsayoṣásaḥ, śrávase vāsayoṣásaḥ* 'Reveal the two worlds, let the dawns shine, so you may have glory; let the worlds shine'. See also under *cakṣ*.

vas2 'wear, clothe'

is-aor. 2nd sing. vásisva (2)

caus. act. 2nd sing. vāsaya (2)

Narten (1964: 238f.) raises the possibility that the form *vásiṣva* may be an innovation based on the root present *vaste*. However, she decides against this and classifies this form as an *iṣ*-aorist, both on formal and semantic grounds.

vah 'drive, carry'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *váha* (71), *vahatāt* (10.24.5d), 3rd sing. *vahatu* (2), 2nd dual *váhatam* (15), 3rd dual *váhatām* (4), 2nd pl. *vahata* (4), 3rd pl. *váhantu* (39)

pres. med. 2nd sing. váhasva (2), 2nd dual vahethām (7.71.3d)

root aor. 2nd dual volhám (5), 3rd dual volhám (2)

-si impv. vaksi (24)

All of the active forms are transitive, and seemingly undifferentiated from each other in meaning. The basic meaning is 'to convey', most commonly in expressions meaning 'bring the gods here', usually addressed to Agni, as in 1.12.3a ágne devám ihá vaha 'Agni, convey the gods here'. Another common usage with basically the same meaning is that of horses conveying a god, or pulling a chariot, as in 5.62.4a á vām áśvāsaḥ suyújo vahantu 'Let the well-harnessed horse bring you (two)'. It may also mean 'to bring', as yet another synonym for 'bring property to us', as in 1.34.5a trír no rayíṃ vahatam aśvinā yuváṃ 'Three times convey property to us, O Aśvins.' The rare middle voice forms are also transitive, and additionally has affective-possessive force. The form váhasva only occurs at 8.26.23: vấyo yāhí śivá²233 divó, váhasvā sú sváśvyam / váhasva maháḥ pṛthupákṣasā ráthe 'Come, O Accommodating Vāyu, from heaven. Bring with you the good horse-riches, drive from the great (heaven) your broad-flanked (or winged?) pair (of horses) on the chariot.' See also Gotō (1987: 295ff.).

The forms *volhám* and *volhám* are tentatively consigned by LIV² to the root-present, apparently on the grounds that since this root was originally intransitive²³⁴, then it can't have had an original root aorist. In any case, these forms are synchronically undifferentiated in meaning from the thematic present, e.g.: 2.41.9a *tá* na á volham aśvinā, rayím piśángasaṃdṛśam 'Bring us property of a reddish (gold) appearance, O Aśvins'.

$v\bar{a}_1$ 'blow'

pres. act. 2nd sing. vāhi (2), 3rd sing. vātu (7)

The two occurrences of the form $v\bar{a}hi$ both occur at 10.137.3ab: \tilde{a} $v\bar{a}ta$ $v\bar{a}hi$ bheṣajáṃ, ví vāta vāhi yád rápaḥ 'O wind, blow medicine here, blow away (that which is) sickness'.

$v\bar{a}_2$ 'extinguish'

caus. act. vāpayā (10.16.13b)

Lubotsky (1997¹: ad loc.) classifies this form as a possible 1st sing. subj., as opposed to Jamison (1983: 145) and Geldner who translate it as an imperative:

 $^{233 = \}sin a \, \hat{a}$

²³⁴ LIV²: s. * $ue\acute{g}^h$, fn. 1.

10.16.13ab yám tvám agne samádahas, tám u nír vāpayā púnah 'O Agni, the one whom you burnt, extinguish him again'.

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    vājay- 'incite'
    pres. act. 2nd sing. vājáya (10.68.2d)
    vid<sub>1</sub> 'find'
    pres. act. 2nd sing. vinda (2)
    a-aor 2nd sing. vidá (10.113.10d)
    [aor. inj. vidah (4)]
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For the question as to whether the injunctive *vidas* can also have modal value, see page 41, and also Hoffmann (1967: 263).

The form *vidá* is attested at 10.113.10d *vidó* sú na urviyá gādhám adyá 'Find us a ford today'. The form *vidó* in this example is without doubt **vidá* u, and must be distinguished from examples of *vidas* which become *vidó* by sandhi, e.g. 5.30.4d *vidó* gávām ūrvám usríyāṇām 'you found the pit of the reddish cows'.

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vid<sub>2</sub> 'know'perf. act. 2nd sing. viddhí (8), vittất (5.60.6d), 2nd dual vittám (2)
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Kümmel (2000: 495ff.) assigns no special perfect meaning to the modal forms, but rather considers them undifferentiated from a present stem meaning 'to know'.

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viś 'enter, settle (down)'

pres. act. 2nd sing. viśa (18), 3rd pl. viśantu (7)

pres. med. 2nd sing. viśasva (10.56.1b), 3rd pl. viśatām (10.34.14c)

pres. caus 2nd sing. veśaya (1.176.2a)
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A verb of motion, the well-attested present occurs with either an acc. or a loc., meaning 'to enter'. The usual addressee is Soma, and thus the singular occurs 14 times out of 18 in Book 9. Thus, e.g. 9.25.2c dhármaṇā vāyúm ấ viśa 'go, according to your nature, into Vāyu', and 9.97.36c índram ấ viśa bṛhatấ ráveṇa 'go into Indra with a great roar.'

The middle-voice forms, both impv. and non-impv., are uniformly late, the earliest occurrence being in Book 8. The impv. only occurs twice, and its meaning differs according to the preverb used: 10.56.1b *trtīyena jyótisā sám višasva* 'unite with the

third light', and 10.34.14c *ní vo nú manyúr viśatām árātir* 'may your wrath abate, (and) your disfavour'.

vis 'be active'

pres. act. 2nd sing. vividdhi (2)

See Narten (1964: 244ff.), Joachim (1978: 156), Mayrhofer (1986 s. *VEŞ*) for the differentiation of this root from another *vis* meaning "flow".

vī 'seek, pursue'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *vīhí* (11), *vihí* (3), *vītāt* (10.11.8d), 3rd sing. *vétu* (7), 2nd dual *vītám* (6), 2nd pl. *vitá* (7.59.6a), 3rd pl. *vyántu* (7)

-si impv vési (5)

For the possible existence of a form $vit\acute{a}$, see p. 93. The length variation in the root, seen in $v\bar{\imath}h\acute{\iota}$ and $vih\acute{\iota}$ could be due to analogy with the doublets $d\bar{\imath}dih\acute{\iota}/did\bar{\imath}h\acute{\iota}$ and $p\bar{\imath}pih\acute{\iota}/pip\bar{\imath}h\acute{\iota}$. Thus the form $vit\acute{a}$, if in fact Narten identified it correctly, is formed by analogy to the form $vih\acute{\iota}$. The -si impv. $v\acute{e}s\acute{\imath}$ is actually the 2nd pers. sing. pres. form of this verb. However it undoubtedly is used as an impv. See p. 55.

vīd 'strengthen, become firm' med. pres. 2nd sing. vīláyasva (2.37.3b)

vīray- 'act like a hero'

pres. med. 2nd pl. vīrayadhvam (2)

vr1 'cover'

pres. act. 2nd sing. ūrņu (9.96.11c), ūrņuhí (4), 2nd pl. ūrņuta (2.14.3d)

pres. med. 2nd sing. *ūrņuṣva* (10.16.7b)

aor. act. 2nd sing. *vrdhi* (8), 2nd dual *vartam* (6.62.11d)

The active is transitive, mostly occurring with the preverb *ápa*, meaning 'open'. From the single occurrence of the middle voice, it is clear that it is reflexive: 10.16.7b *sám prórnuṣva pīvasā médasā ca* 'cover yourself with fat and melted butter'.

According to LIV, this verb is a conglomerate of (at least) three PIE verbs: * μel 'einschließen, verhüllen', * μer 'aufhalten, abwehren' and * $H\mu er$, 'stecken', the latter to explain such forms as the aor. $\bar{a}var$, and compounds such as $p\acute{a}r\bar{t}$ -vrta (op.

vr2 'wish, choose'

pres. med. 2nd sing. vṛṇīṣvá (2), vṛṇīdhvám (5.28.6c)

This is a *set* root with some *anit* forms apparently by analogy to the root v_r 'to cover'. See Hoffmann (1968), Lubotsky (2000¹).

vrj 'twist'

pres. act. 2nd sing. vṛndhi (2), 3rd sing. vṛṇaktu (4), 2nd pl. vṛnkta (1.172.3b)

vrt 'turn'

pres. med. 2nd sing. *vartasva* (10.95.17d), 3rd sing. *vartatām* (4), 2nd pl. *vartadhvam* (10.19.1a), 3rd pl. *vartantām* (2)

root aor. 2nd pl. vartta (1.165.14c)

perf. act. 2nd pl. vavrttana (5.61.16c)

perf. med. 2nd sing. vavrtsva (9), 2nd pl. vavrdhvam (8.20.18d)

caus. act. 2nd sing. vartáya (11), 2nd dual. vartáyatam (2), 2nd pl. vartáyata (2.34.9c), 3rd pl. vartayantu (2)

While the present stem of this verb is always middle-voice, and intransitive, meaning 'turn round', or 'return', the aorist and perfect stems may also be active. The active forms are also intransitive, hardly differing in meaning from the middle-voice presents: 1.165.14c \acute{o} $\acute{s}\acute{u}$ vartta maruto \acute{v} (pram \acute{a} cha 'please turn to the seer, O Maruts'. An exception is the active perfect with the preverb \acute{a} , which is transitive, as in 5.61.16 \acute{t} e no \acute{v} (as \acute{a}) \acute{a} vaj $\~{n}$ iv $\~{a}$ so \emph{v} av $\~{n}$ turn desirable goods to us (in our direction), O sacrifice-worthy ones'. 235

The causative forms, obviously, are always transitive, as in 2.23.7c *bṛhaspate ápa táṃ vartayā patháh* 'Bṛhaspati, turn (divert) him (the wolf) from the path'.

²³⁵ See also Kümmel (2000: 465).

The stem vavrt- has been variously described in the past as a perfect, a reduplicated present (e.g. by Whitney [1924: §643c and 1885: 164]), and an aorist (Hoffmann [1976¹]). In any case the modal forms of this stem must be perfects. This is confirmed by the optative form $vavrty\bar{a}t$. The ending $-y\bar{a}t$ in the RV is attested only on present and perfect stems, while the aorists have the ending $-y\bar{a}s.^{236}$ The main obstacle to classifying all of the forms as perfects is the presence of the mediopassive aorist forms $\dot{a}vavarti$ and $\dot{a}vavrtran$. These must, however, be artificial forms, since the medio-passive is formed from the root and not from the aorist stem.²³⁷

vrdh 'grow'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *várdha* (10), 3rd sing. *várdhatu* (2), 2nd dual *várdhatam* (4.50.11a), 2nd pl. *vardhata* (2.2.1a), 3rd pl. *várdhantu* (13)

pres. med. 2nd sing. *várdhasva* (10), 3rd sing. *várdhatām* (4), 2nd dual *várdhethām* (3.53.1d), 3rd pl. *várdhantām* (2)

them. perf. 2nd sing. vāvrdhásva (4)

caus. act. 2nd sing. vardháya (13), 2nd dual vardháyatam (2), 3rd pl. vardhayantu (2.11.11c)

caus. med. 2nd sing. vardhayasva (10.59.5d)

The caus. and pres. act. are both transitive, meaning 'increase' or 'magnify', and are apparently undifferentiated in meaning, sometimes occurring in identical contexts, as in 9.61.23c *punānó vardha no gíraḥ* 'as you are purified, enhance our songs', and 3.29.10d *-áthā no vardhayā gíraḥ* 'then magnify our songs'.

The middle-voice forms are either intransitive, meaning 'grow', as in 8.13.25ab várdhasvā sú puruṣṭuta, ṛṣiṣṭutābhir ūtíbhiḥ 'grow, O much-praised one, with aid praised by seers', or transitive-affective, as 7.8.5d svayám vardhasva tanvàm sujāta 'enhance your own body, O well-born'. The single example of the middle-voice causative falls into this latter category: 10.59.5d ghṛténa tvám tanvàm vardhayasva 'enhance your (own) body with fat'.238

²³⁶ See also footnote 15.

²³⁷ For a very comprehensive study of all of these forms see Kümmel (2000: 462ff.). For the medio-passive forms, see also Kümmel (1996: 107f.).

²³⁸ Cf. Jamison (1983: 157f.).

vṛśc 'cut up'

The thematic perfect form, in which the voiced, aspirated final consonant of the root is preserved, is explained by Kümmel (2000: 471) as being used because the regular athematic form would have been * $v\bar{a}vrtsva$, which could have been confused with forms from the verb vrt.

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pres. act. 2nd sing. vrścá (9)
perf (?). act. 2nd dual vavrktam (6.62.10d)
Classification of the form vavrktam under this verb following Kümmel (2000: 509).
vṛṣ¡ 'take courage'
a-aor. med. 2nd sing. vṛṣasva (10), 2nd dual vṛṣethām (2)
them. perf. 2nd sing. vāvṛṣasva (8.61.7c)
Gotō (1987: 292) classifies á vṛṣasva under vṛṣ₂ 'to rain'. My classification follows
Kümmel (2000: 474f.), who in turn follows Neisser (1893).
vrs2 'rain'
pres. caus. 2nd sing. vṛṣāya (10.98.1d), 2nd dual varṣayatam (5.63.6d)
vrh 'tear out'
pres. act. 2nd sing. vṛhá (5), vṛhatāt (1.174.5c), 2nd dual vṛhatam (6.74.2a), 2nd
pl. vrhata (8.67.21c)
vyath 'waver'
caus. act. 2nd sing. vyathaya (6.25.2b)
vyadh 'pierce'
pres. act. 2nd sing. vídhya (9), 2nd dual vidhyatam (2), 3rd dual vidhyatām
(6.75.4c), 2nd pl. vídhyata (1.86.9c)
vy\bar{a} 'enfold, swathe'
pres. med. 2nd sing. vyayasva (2)
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śaṃs 'proclaim, recite'

pres. act. 2nd sing. śáṃsa (6), 2nd pl. śaṃsata (5)

pres. caus. śaṃsaya (7)
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For an account of the desiderative forms, see page 34.

The causative occurs only in the repeated pāda \acute{a} tú na indra śaṃsaya góṣv áśveṣu 'O Indra, give us hope for cows and horses', which occurs seven times at 1.29.1-7c²³⁹.

 \acute{sak} 'be powerful, be able' aor. act. 2nd sing. \acute{sagdhi} (15), 2nd dual \acute{saktam} (4) desid. act. 2nd sing. $\acute{sikṣa}$ (26), 3rd sing. $\acute{sikṣatu}$ (1.81.6c), 2nd dual $\acute{sikṣatam}$ (6) For an example of the form \acute{sagdhi} see under $p_{\bar{p}2}$, page 138.

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śardh 'challenge, defy'
pres. act. 2nd sing. śárdha (5.28.3a)
śas 'kill, slaughter'
pres. act. 2nd pl. śasta (2)
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 $\hat{s}\bar{a}$ 'sharpen'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *śiśīhí* (12), *śiśādhi* (4), 3rd sing. *śiśātu* (1.111.5a), 2nd dual *śiśītám* (1.122.3a), 3rd dual *śiśītām* (10.12.4d), 2nd pl. *śiśīta* (2)

²³⁹ For the meaning see Jamison (1983: 134).

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śās 'command'
pres. act. 2nd sing. śādhi (2.28.9d), 2nd pl. śāstána (10.52.1a)
perf. 2nd sing. śaśādhi (2)
śuc 'burn, shine'
pres. act. 2nd sing. śóca (6), 3rd sing. śocatu (6.52.2d)
pres. med. 2nd sing. śócasva (2)
perf. act. 2nd sing. śuśugdhi (1.97.1b)
caus. act. 2nd sing. śocaya (6.22.8d)
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The valency of this verb is extremely similar to that of vas_1 (q.v.). The active forms are intransitive, but may sometimes take an accusative of goal, meaning "shine on something". It even occurs once with $rev\acute{a}t$ (10.69.3c) in the same way as vas_1 does, again leaving open the question whether $rev\acute{a}t$ is adverbial or nominal.

The causative only occurs once in the RV, at 6.22.8d: *brahmadvíṣe śocaya kṣấm apáś ca* 'for the hater of Brahma make the earth and waters burn'.

The form śuśugdhí appears once in the RV, at 1.97.1, together with two attestations of the part. of the int., and is undoubtedly used to achieve a poetical effect rather than for any perfect meaning: ápa naḥ śóśucad aghám, ágne śuśugdhy ấ rayím / ápa naḥ śóśucad aghám.

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śudh 'cleanse'
caus. act. 3rd pl. śundhayantu (10.17.10a)

śubh 'be beautiful, shine'
pres. act. 2nd sing. śumbha (8.70.2a), śumbhata (1.21.2b)

śuṣ 'dry out'
pres. act. 3rd sing. śuṣyatu (7.104.11c)

śṛ 'smash'
pres. act. śṛṇṇħí (8), śṛṇṇtam (7.104.1c), śṛṇantu (10.87.15a)
```

śnath 'push, pierce'

root aor. 2nd sing. śnathihi (2)

is-aor. 2nd pl. śnathistana (9.101.1c)

For the mechanism which led to the formation of productive -iṣ- aor. forms from old set root aorists see Narten (1964: 53).

śrath 'become loose'

pres. act. 2nd sing. śrathāya (2)

red. aor. 3rd pl. śiśrathantu (7.93.7d)

śri 'lean, incline, turn'

pres. med 2nd sing. $\acute{s}rayasva$ (2), 3rd dual. $\acute{s}rayet\bar{a}m$ (7.2.6d)²⁴⁰, 2nd pl. $\acute{s}rayadhvam$ (2), 3rd pl. $\acute{s}r\acute{a}yant\bar{a}m$ (6)

śrī 'perfect, make shine'

pres. act. 2ng. sing. *śrīṇīhi* (8.2.11b), 2nd pl. *śrīṇīta* (9.46.4c), *śrīṇītana* (9.11.6c) For the meaning see Narten (1987).

śru 'hear'

pres. act. 2nd sing. śṛṇu (4), śṛṇuhí (7), śṛṇudhí (5), 3rd sing. śṛṇótu (25), 2nd dual śṛṇutám (22), 2nd pl. śṛṇutá (5), śṛṇota (1), śṛṇotana (2), 3rd pl. śṛṇvántu (12) **pres. med.** 2nd sing. śṛṇuṣvá (1.131.7e)

aor. 2nd sing. śrudhí (39), 3rd sing. śrótu (2), 2nd dual śrutám (40), 2nd pl. śruta (3), śróta (4), 3rd pl. śruvantu (2)

-si impv. *śrósi* (6.4.7b)

caus. act. 2nd sing. śrāváya (3), 2nd dual śravayatam (7.62.5c)

An extremely common verb which has been extensively discussed elsewhere. For the aor. form śrudhí, the formula śrudhí hávam and the form śṛṇudhí see p. 23 and p.82. For the full- and zero-grade variants śṛṇutá, śṛṇota and śṛṇotana see p.31. For the -si impv. form śróṣi see p. 56.

²⁴⁰ The form śrayethe is wrongly classified by Lubotsky (19971) as an imperative.

śrus 'obey'

pres. act. 3rd sing. śrosantu (1.86.5a)

This is a secondary root from śru. See p. 56, LIV s. *kleus* and further bibliography in Mayrhofer (1986: s. ŚROS).

śvañc 'bow'

pres. med. 2nd sing. śvañcasva (2)

The uniformly late present stem only appears with the preverb ud, meaning 'rear up', 241

śvas 'snort, rumble'

caus. act. 2nd sing. *śvāsaya* (6.47.29a)

sac 'follow'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *sacata* (10.75.5b)

pres. med. 2nd sing. *sácasva* (3), 3rd sing. *sacatām* (1.183.2c), 3rd dual *sacetām* (1.185.9b), 3rd pl. *sacantām* (7)

pres. III. act. 3rd sing. *sísaktu* (6), 2nd pl. *sisakta* (10.19.1b)

The hapax legomenon *sacata* (10.75.5) is the only attested active form of this stem. Gotō (1987: 319) calls it "ganz abnorm", and Lubotsky (1997¹: *ad loc.*) classifies it as a nonce form. Despite the reduplicated stem often being active, while the thematic stem *saca-* is always middle-voice (apart from the single example above), Gotō (1987: 319f.) correctly finds no difference in meaning between them, while suggesting that the reduplicated stem may originally have been iterative.²⁴²

sad 'sit'

pres. act. 2nd sing. sīda (16), 3rd sing. sīdatu (2), 2nd dual sīdatam (5), 3rd dual sīdatām (2), 2nd pl. sīdata (11), 3rd pl. sīdantu (1)

pres. med. 2nd sing. sīdasva (1.36.9a)

²⁴¹ For the semantics of this verb see Hoffmann (1960). See also under *nam*, p. 128.

²⁴² See also Joachim (1978: 163f.). For the form *sákṣva* (1.42.1c), which could belong here, see under *sah*.

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a-aor. 2nd sing. sáda (5), 3rd sing. sadatu (7.97.4a), 2nd dual sádatam (4), 3rd dual sadatām (4), 2nd pl. sádata (3), sadatana (2.36.3b), 3rd pl. sadantu (7)

-si impv. sátsi (12)
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caus. act. 2nd sing. sādáya (6), 2nd pl. sādáyata (10.30.14b)

caus. med. 2nd pl. sādayadhvam (5.43.12b)

[**aor. inj.** sadah (6)]

An intransitive verb, most of whose forms are active. It behaves, when used with the preverb \tilde{a} , rather like a verb of motion, in that the seat (etc.) that is to be sat on is in the accusative: 3.53.3c édám barhír yájamānasya sīda- 'sit on this altar-grass of the sacrificer'. The other most common preverb with which this verb is used is ni, in which case it means 'sit down': 7.11.1d ny àgne hótā prathamáh sadehá 'O Agni, sit down here as the first hótr'. The middle voice impv. only occurs once, and, once again like verbs of motion, is reciprocal, meaning 'sit together', and is strengthened by the preverb sám (cf. sám gachasva etc.): 1.36.9ab sám sīdasva mahām asi, śócasva devavītamah 'Sit together (with us), you are great, burn brightly . . .'. 243 . For the causative forms see Jamison (1983: 169f.).

The lack of retroflexion in the present stem $s\bar{t}da$ - (> *si-sde-) is explained by Klingenschmitt (1982: 129) as being due to dissimilation of the internal -s- of the root from the s- of the reduplicating syllable. This is the opposite phenomenon to the assimilation of the root-initial s- with the -d-, as seen in e.g. the word $n\bar{t}d\hat{a}$ - *ni- $sd\hat{o}$ -. The long - \bar{t} - is the result of compensatory lengthening, as in other cases of consonant loss by dissimilation. For further literature on this problem see Mayrhofer (1986: s. SAD).

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san 'attain'
pres. act. 2nd sing. sanuhi (8.81.8c), 3rd sing. sanotu (6.54.5c), 3rd pl. sanvantu (2)
a-aor. 2nd sing. sána (5.75.2b)
saparya- 'worship'
pres. act. 2nd sing. saparya (10.98.4d), 2nd pl. saparyata (7)
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²⁴³ Cf. Joachim (1978: 164).

sas 'sleep'

pres. act. 3rd sing. sástu (5), 3rd dual sastám (1.29.3b), 3rd pl. sasántu (4) All five occurrences of the form sástu occur at 7.55.5, as does one instance of sasántu: sástu mātá sástu pitá, sástu śvá sástu viśpátiḥ / sasántu sárve jñātáyaḥ, sástv ayám abhíto jánaḥ 'Let mother sleep. let father sleep, let the dog sleep, let the chieftain sleep, let all the relatives sleep, the these people hereabout sleep'.

sah 'conquer'

pres. med. 2nd sing. sáhasva (4), 2nd pl. sahadhvam (10.103.2c)

-si impv. saksi (5.33.2d)

s-aor. med. sákṣva (1.42.1c), sấkṣva (3.37.7c)

The form *sákṣva* only occurs at RV 1.42.1c: *sákṣvā deva prá ṇas puráḥ*. This form has been assigned both to *sah* and *sac*. The latter option is to be found in Grassmann, Geldner ("Geh uns als Geleitsmann voran, o Gott!") and Macdonell (1916: 426). The former viewpoint is represented by Narten (1964: 265), who also quotes Böhtlingk-Roth (1855-1875), Whitney (1885), and Ludwig (1876-1888), where it is translated as (in his spelling) "sige, gott, vor uns einher".

Morphologically, both possibilities seem impeccable, as both verbs have identical sigmatic aorist forms $s\acute{a}k sat$. The root sah also has a form $s\acute{a}k sva$, with the same lengthening seen in some of its other sigmatic aorist forms, such as $\acute{a}s \bar{a}k si$, etc. This form, however, could also be classified as a perfect ($< *se-s\acute{g}h-$), and the other lengthened sigmatic aorist forms, which are all late, derived from it by analogy.²⁴⁴ In favour of the sah derivation is that there is no other attestation of sac with the preverb $pr\acute{a}$. However, the semantics could be more compatible with sac, as the hymn is addressed to the god Pūṣan, who looks after travellers on the roads, and thus the meaning 'accompany us (or possibly 'lead us') ahead, O god' works very well. If we accept the sah derivation, then $pur\acute{a}h$ would have to be understood as a postposition, and the line would mean 'conquer forth, O God, in front of us'.

²⁴⁴ See also p. 30.

 $s\bar{a}$ 'bind'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *sya* (5), 3rd sing. *syatu* (2), 2nd dual *syatam* (2), 3rd dual *syatām* (2.40.4d)

pres. med. 2nd sing. syasva (3), 2nd pl. syadhvam (10.30.11c)

root aor. 2nd sing. $s\bar{a}hi$ (4.11.2a), 2nd dual sitam (8.5.9c)

The present stem is thematic: $*sh_2$ - $i\acute{e}$ -. All impv. forms of this verb verb appear either with the preverb $\acute{a}va$ or $v\acute{\iota}$, both combinations having the meaning 'untie', 'release', as seen clearly in 6.40.1b - $\acute{a}va$ sya $\acute{h}\acute{a}r\bar{\iota}$ $v\acute{\iota}$ $\emph{mucā}$ sákhāyā 'unhitch the horses, release the two friends' ²⁴⁵. The uncommon middle-voice forms appear to have exactly the same meaning: 3.4.9ab $\emph{tán}$ \emph{nas} $\emph{tur\'ipam}$ $\acute{a}\emph{dha}$ $\emph{poṣayitn\'u}$, $\emph{d\'eva}$ $\emph{tvaṣṭar}$ $v\acute{\iota}$ $\emph{rarāṇ\'ah}$ \emph{syasva} 'And, O god Tvaṣṭṛ, giving, release our property-bringing seed'. ²⁴⁶

sādh 'bring to one's goal, succeed'

pres. act. 2nd sing. sádha (8)

pres. med. 3rd pl. sádhantām (6.53.4c)

caus. act. 2nd sing. sādháya (4), 2nd dual sādháyatam (7.66.3c)

Of the eight examples of the active form $s\tilde{a}dha$, seven occur in the repeated verse $il\bar{a}m$ agne purudáṃsaṃ saníṃ, góḥ śaśvattamáṃ hávamānāya sādha²47 'Make refreshment, the many-wondered, recurring, attainment of a cow possible for the caller'. The middle voice means 'to succeed', as in 6.53.4c sādhantām ugra no dhíyaḥ 'may our thoughts come to fruition'. The causative has a similar meaning to that of the active: 1.94.4c jīvātave prataráṃ sādhayā dhíyáḥ 'make our thoughts come to fruition, that we live longer'. As can be seen from this example, there is a true causative/intransitive relationship between the active and middle-voice forms.²48

²⁴⁵ Unlike Geldner: "Halte die Falben an, spanne die beiden Kameraden aus'.

²⁴⁶ Or, as Klein (1985: 2-99): 'And, giving us that property-giving seed, release us'.

^{247 3.1.23}ab, 3.5-7.11ab, 3.15.7ab, 3.22-23.5ab.

²⁴⁸ See also Jamison (1983: 159).

sic 'pour'

pres. act. 2nd sing. siñcá (5), 3rd sing. siñcatu (2), 2nd dual siñcatam (2), 2nd pl. siñcata (9), 3rd pl. siñcantu (8.53.3b)

pres. med. 2nd sing. siñcasva (3.47.1c), 2nd pl. siñcádhvam (7.16.11c)

The active is transitive, while the middle-voice is poorly attested, but is probably possessive-affective, as in 3.47.1c \acute{a} $si\~{n}casva$ $jath\'{a}re$ $m\'{a}dhva$ $\~{u}rm\'{i}m$ 'Pour the wave of the sweet (drink) into (your own) stomach'.

sidh 'drive away'

pres. act. 2nd sing. sédha (6), 3rd sing. sedhatu (10.36.4a), 2nd dual sédhatam (5), 2nd pl. sédhata (3), 3rd pl. sedhantu (10.100.8b)

sīv 'sew'

pres. act. 3rd sing. stvyatu (2.32.4c)

pres. med. 2nd pl. sīvyadhvam (10.101.8b)

su 'press'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *sunú* (1.28.6d), 3rd sing. *sunotu* (8.33.12a), 2nd pl. *sunóta* (4), *sunótana* (5.34.1c), *sunutá* (3)

pres. med. 2nd pl. sunudhvam (4.35.4c)

root aor. 3rd sing. *sótu* (10.76.6a), 2nd dual *sutám* (2), 2nd pl. *sóta* (3), *sotana* (8.4.13b)

The single attestation of the middle-voice of this verb is obviously affective: 4.35.4cd áthā sunudhvaṃ sávanam mádāya, pātá rbhavo mádhunaḥ somyásya 'Press (for yourselves) the pressing for exhilaration, drink, O Rbhus, (of) the sweet Soma.'

 $s\bar{u}$ 'impel'

pres. act. 2nd sing. *suva* (9), *suvatāt* (4.54.3d), 3rd sing. *suvatu* (3), 3rd pl. *suvantu* (7.50.3c)

[aor. inj. $s\bar{a}v\bar{\iota}h$ (3)]

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sūd 'prepare'
pres. act. 2nd sing. sūdaya (2), 3rd pl. sūdayantu (2)
Mayrhofer (1986: s. SŪD and SVAD) and Gotō (1987: 342f. and 1988: 310) cast
doubt on the traditional derivation of these forms from the root svad 'sweeten' (as
appears e.g. in Jamison [1983:99]) both on semantic and morphological grounds.
LIV<sup>2</sup> (s. *sueh_2d), however, reunites them, reconstructing s\bar{u}daya- as *suh_2d-é\dot{e}e
and s^{(u)}vada- as a relic of an old nasal present *suh_2nd. Further bibliography may
be found at all of the above quoted references.
sr 'run'
them. aor. 2nd sing. sára (9.41.6c)
srj 'release'
pres act. 2nd sing. srjá (27), 2nd dual srjátam (3), 2nd pl. srjáta (4), 3rd pl. srjantu
pres. med. 2nd sing. srjasva (2), 2nd, pl. srjádhvam (6.48.11c)
srp 'creep'
pres. act. 2nd sing. sarpa (10.18.10a), sarpatu (8.17.7c), sarpata (10.14.9a)
A verb of uniformly late distribution, the earliest example of any form occurring in
Book 8.
skambh 'fasten, strengthen'
pres. act. 2nd pl. skabhāyáta (10.76.4b)
For bibliography covering the forms in -āya- see under grh.
stan 'thunder'
pres. act. 2nd sing. stanáya (5.83.7a)
root aor. stanihi (6.47.30b)
[red. aor. inj. tatanah (1.38.14b)]
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For the form of the root aor. from *set* roots see p. 94. For the etymology and meaning of the root, see Narten (1993). For the sole example of the form *stanihi* see p. 139. For the identification of the form *tatanaḥ* as a reduplicated aor. see Hoffmann (1976³). For the sole attestation of this form see p. 148.

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stu 'praise'

pres. act. 2nd sing. stuhí (20), 2nd dual stutam (8.35.11a), 2nd pl. stota (2)

si-impv stoṣi (10.22.4d)

stubh 'rejoice'

pres. act. 2nd pl. stobhata (1.80.9b), stobhantu (8.92.19b)

st\(\bar{r}\) 'strew'

pres. act. 2nd dual stṛn\(\bar{t}\)tam (8.73.3a), stṛn\(\bar{t}\)tá (3)
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The single example of the middle voice is passive, or 'fientive': 7.17.1ab ágne bháva suṣamídhā sámiddha, utá barhír urviyấ ví stṛṇītām 'O Agni, may you be lit with good kindling, and may the altar-grass be spread widely'

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sthā 'stand'
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pres. act. 2nd sing. *tiṣṭha* (34), 3rd sing. *tiṣṭhatu* (3), 2nd dual *tiṣṭhatam* (1.183.3a), 2nd pl. *tiṣṭhata* (5), 3rd pl. *tiṣṭhantu* (2)

pres. med. 2nd pl. *tiṣṭhadhvam* (7.104.18a), 3rd pl. *tiṣṭhantām* (3.18.2d) [**aor. inj.** *sthấh* (6.24.9c)]

The active forms of this verb are intransitive. With the preverb \acute{a} it takes an accusative of goal and means 'to get into (a chariot)', as in 3.44.1d \acute{a} tiṣṭha háritaṃ rátham 'get into the gold-coloured chariot'. The middle voice only occurs with $v\acute{t}$, and is reflexive and reciprocal, meaning 'to spread apart' 3.18.2d $v\acute{t}$ te tiṣṭhantām ajárā ayấsaḥ 'your (flames) will spread apart, ageless and restless'.

spaś see paś

spr 'win'

pres. act. 2nd sing. sprnuhi (10.87.7a)

pres. med. 3rd sing. stṛṇūtām (7.17.1b)

root aor. 2nd sing. sprdhi (2), sprtam (10.39.6d)

It is suggested by Wackernagel (1942: 176) that this is actually two roots with identical morphology, one meaning 'win', the other meaning 'release'. The formal difference, as shown by Joachim (1978: 172f.) is in the valency; the former takes an accusative object, while the latter takes an ablative. Thus to the latter root belongs

sprś 'touch'

e.g. 10.87.7ab utálabdhaṃ spṛṇuhi jātaveda, ālebhānád ṛṣṭíbhir yātudhánāt 'Free the seized one from the magician who has seized him with your spears, O Jātavedas.', while to the former belongs 5.3.9a áva spṛdhi pitáraṃ yódhi ... 'Protect the father, fight (for him)'.

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pres. act. 2nd sing. spṛśa (5), 2nd pl. spṛśata (10.70.5a)
caus. med. 2nd sing. sparśayasva (10.112.3b)
The middle voice causative is passive, meaning 'let (it) be touched': 10.112.3ab
háritvatā várcasā sūryasya, śrésthai rūpaís tanvàm sparśayasva 'Let your body be
touched by the gold-coloured shine of the sun, by the most beautiful forms(?)'.
sphr 'kick away'
pres. act. 2nd sing. sphura (4.3.14c)
smr 'remember'
pres. med. 2nd dual smarethām (7.104.7a)
syand 'move quickly'
pres. med. 2nd sing. syandasva (9.67.28a), 3rd pl. syándantām (5.83.8b)
sru 'flow'
pres. act. 2nd sing. srava (34), sravantu (10.9.4c)
svaj 'embrace'
pres. act. 2nd pl. svajadhvam (10.101.10c)
svad 'make tasty/be tasty'
pres. act. 2nd sing. svada (3.14.7d), 3rd pl. svádantu (10.110.10d)
pres. med. 2nd sing. svádasva (3)
pres. caus. 2nd sing. svadaya (10.110.2b)
svap 'sleep'
pres. act. 2nd sing. svapa (3)
pres. caus. svāpaya (1.29.3a)
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svar 'sound'
pres. act. 2nd sing. svara (3), 3rd pl. svarantu (8.13.28a)
han 'slay'
pres. act. 2nd sing. jahí (50), 3rd sing. hantu (3), 3rd dual hatám (16), 2nd pl. hatá
(3), 2nd pl. hantana (2), 3rd pl. ghnantu (7.104.17d)
h\bar{a}_1 'move'
pres. med. 2nd sing. jihīṣva (5.78.5a), 3rd sing. jihītām (4), 3rd dual jihātām
(7.34.24a), 3rd pl. jihatām (2)
The form jihītām only occurs in 10.59.1-4d.
h\bar{a}_2 'leave'
pres. act. 3rd sing. jahātu (3.53.21d)
pass. 3rd sing. hīyatām (2)
Mayrhofer (1986: ad loc), considers this and h\bar{a}_1 to ultimately have the same origin.
LIV (s. *\dot{g}^h e H and *\dot{g}^h e h_I), while pointing out that all that differentiates between
the two roots is the active and middle voice, is hesitant to consider them one root, on
the grounds that "eine Vereinigung beider Wurzeln bedürfte genauerer semantischer
Untermauerung."
hi 'launch, drive'
pres. act. 2nd sing. hinu (2), hinuhi (2), hinutāt (10.16.1d), 2nd dual hinotam
(1.184.4b), 2nd pl. hinóta (10), hinotana (10.30.7d), 3rd pl. hinvantu (4)
them. pres. 2nd sing. hinva (10.156.2c), 3rd sing. hinvatu (1.27.11c)
root aor. 2nd pl. heta (10.30.9b)
hu 'sacrifice, pour'
pres. act. 2nd pl. juhóta (7), juhótana (6), juhuta (2)
-si impv. hoși (6.44.14c)
hū 'call'
pres. act. 2nd sing. hvaya (5.53.16c)
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h_{r1} 'take'
pres. act. 2nd sing. hara (2)

h_{r2} 'like'
pres. act. 2nd sing. harya (7), 2nd dual h\acute{a}ryatam (2), 2nd pl. haryata (5.54.15c)

h_{r}, 'be excited'
pres. med. 2nd sing. h\acute{a}r, asya (2)
pres. caus. 2nd sing. har, asya (3)

hv\bar{a} see h\bar{a}
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Index of cited examples

1.8.5b	1.43.8c
1.12.3a	1.48.15c
1.12.4c 57	1.48.15d 154
1.12.12c	1.48.16ab 152
1.13.8c	1.50.11cd
1.14.1c	1.54.9c 117
1.14.7c	1.63.8 59
1.16.7ab 18	1.76.3ab
1.16.9a 137	1.79.8a 144
1.17.3ab 117	1.79.10bc 144
1.21.2	1.80.3d 111
1.23.21ab	1.80.3ab 127
1.24.9d 148	1.84.3cd 15
1.24.9b	1.87.2d 97
1.29.1-7c 171	1.88.1d 131
1.29.4ab 141	1.91.18d 125
1.30.12	1.92.7cd 52
1.34.11c	1.92.14c 164
1.36.9ab 175	1.92.23d 34
1.38.14ab	1.94.4c 177
1.42.9ab	1.97.1 172

1.97.8ab 51	2.6.4c
1.101.9d 146	2.11.11a 134
1.102.4c 12,41,73	2.11.13-14
1.109.4cd 126	2.13.13ab 92
1.113.12d	2.16.6d 117
1.124.10ab 141	2.17.7c 52
1.125.5b	2.23.6cd 151
1.129.5a	2.26.2bc 100
1.132.4e 53	2.28.3d 102
1.133.6a	2.28.6a 152
1.134.3fg 164	2.29.2cd 102
1.134.3def 107	2.29.6cd 119
1.140.11ab 18	2.33.2cd 108
1.147.2a	2.33.14cd 115
1.157.1a	2.35.11c 92
1.157.4c,	2.36.3ab 158
1.158.2c 106	2.36.4
1.163.4c	2.40.2ab 105
1.164.27c 35	2.41.9a 165
1.165.14c	2.43.2a 105
1.169.1cd 162	2.43.2de 161
1.169.4a 38	2.43.3b 109
1.170.2cd 101	3.1.23ab 177
1.170.5c	3.1.23cd 18
1.171.1d 149	3.4.9ab
1.172.1a	3.4.11c 94
1.174.9cd 59	3.5-7.11ab
1.176.3cd 132	3.6.6a 125
1.177.4cd 149	3.8.6cd
1.182.3c	3.8.11ab 160
1.184.4a 18	3.14.2cd 57
1.185.2-8d 157	3.14.7c
1.185.11ab 18	3.15.3c 50
1.186.10ab 100	3.15.7ab 177
1.191.7d 111	3.18.2d 180
2.1.10c	3.18.2abc 116

3.22-23.5ab 177	4.41.4ab 162
3.23.2cd 37	4.44.6ab
3.24.5	4.46.2c 117
3.30.15a	4.50.11d
3.30.18bc 59	4.57.2b
3.33.9c	4.57.7c 35
3.35.3a	5.2.7c 148
3.40.5ab 125	5.3.9a
3.44.1d	5.4.2d 147
3.45.4cd 126	5.5.5c
3.47.1c 178	5.10.1cd 54
3.50.1c	5.24.1-2
3.52.2ab 106	5.24.2b 49
3.52.6ab	5.31.13cd 163
3.53.3c 175	5.33.2cd 58
3.53.10cd	5.33.6cd
3.53.11ab 109	5.42.3ab 97
3.53.17c	5.42.9d 156
3.54.22b	5.45.5a 95
4.2.20d	5.51.8cd
4.4.4 49	5.60.6cd
4.4.5c	5.61.16
4.4.5b	5.61.18ab 161
4.4.8a	5.70.1 45
4.4.11c 109	5.78.1-3c
4.9.7a	5.83.8c 97
4.12.6c	6.4.4cd
4.15.7	6.4.7ab
4.16.17cd	6.4.8a-c
4.18.11d 102	6.5.6d
4.22.10b	6.6.6cd
4.32.21a,c	6.9.4a 132
4.34.2c	6.10.7a 95
4.35.7cd	6.15.18a 110
4.35.9d	6.18.10ab 49
4.37.7ab 108	6.19.3b

6.19.6	7.17.5
6.22.8d 172	7.21.1d 141
6.24.9bc 40	7.21.9cd 162
6.26.1cd 37	7.22.1a 146
6.26.5ab 59	7.26.5c
6.28.8ab	7.29.2c
6.31.3ab	7.41.2
6.33.1a	7.55.5
6.40.1b 177	7.59.6
6.44.14c 59	7.62.2a
6.44.17	7.62.5b 97
6.44.18b 12,41,73	7.65.4d 138
6.47.15ab	7.67.10c
6.47.20cd 34	7.69.8c 113
6.47.30	7.77.4a 164
6.48.10c	7.88.6d
6.48.13	7.97.9d 111
6.50.10cd	7.104.22d 150
6.53.4ab	7.104.25ab 107
6.53.4c 177	8.1.17ab 126
6.59.9cd	8.2.38
6.60.2a	8.4.11ab
6.67.8d	8.7.13 98
6.68.6-7	8.9.1c 154
6.69.2cd	8.9.10
6.74.3cd	8.13.14ab 146
6.74.4c	8.13.25ab 169
6.75.4b	8.17.11 123
6.75.16ab	8.19.1ab 105
7.2.11c	8.19.26cd 19
7.3.6cd 46,107	8.22.9ab
7.5.9ab 155	8.23.27ab 162
7.8.5d	8.24.4
7.11.1d 175	8.24.19a 95
7.16.5d	8.26.23 165
7.17.1ab	8.33.19a

8.37.1g	10.9.2ab 143
8.39.2e 155	10.10.10cd 142
8.43.27c	10.10.12c 101
8.45.9ab 15	10.14.8
8.54.8cd	10.16.1cd 36
8.75.5bc	10.16.2ab 36
8.75.6c 109	10.16.2cd 36
8.75.12c	10.16.4ab
8.75.15a	10.16.11a 59
8.80.4c	10.16.13ab 166
8.80.7a	10.18.5cd 101
8.85.7a	10.18.8a 98
8.86.1-5d 149	10.19.2b 100
8.89.4d	10.22.4d 58
8.99.5	10.24.5d
9.4.1ab 47	10.30.5d 36
9.7.9c	10.34.14a
9.20.4a 92	10.34.14c 167
9.25.2c	10.35.1c 109
9.36.3ab 160	10.38.2d 36
9.41.5a	10.38.5c
9.52.3	10.42.11cd
9.59.3b	10.43.9c 160
9.61.23c 169	10.56.1b 166
9.63.12	10.59.5c
9.85.4c	10.63.3d 146
9.90.5	10.69.3cd 40
9.93.5a	10.71.11b 105
9.97.33ab	10.84.7cd 161
9.97.33a 107	10.85.20c 160
9.97.36c 166	10.85.27a 99
9.97.36d	10.87.2d 125
9.97.51ab 93	10.87.7ab
9.105.4a	10.87.18a 111
9.107.6d	10.97.13d 129
9.108.9c 155	10.101.8d 123

10.101.10d	56
10.101.12a 10)3
10.104.2b	38
10.106.3b)4
10.106.4d)4
10.106.9d 14	43
10.112.3ab 18	31
10.113.10d 16	66
10.120.4c	15
10.130.1d	97
10.132.6cd	29
10.134.5ab	31
10.137.3ab 16	55
10.142.6c	28
10.145.2cd	24
10.145.2d	00
10.151.5	25
10.158.2ab	13
10.164.1ab)2
10.164.5de	99
10.173.1cd 16	53
10.175.2	15
10.183.1cd 11	10
10.191.2ab 114,10	61