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PANINICA

By

SUKUMAR SEN, M.A., PH. D., Retired Khaira Professor, Calcutta University.

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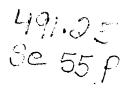
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FOREWORD

The three lectures on Panini, dealing with different aspedts of his Grammar included in this brochure, were delivered by Dr. Sukumar Sen, M. A., Ph. D., under the auspices of the Sanskrit College Seminar in February last. Dr. Suniti Kumar Chatterii, National Professor in Humanities presided over all the three meetings and actively participated in the lively discussions that The keen ensued after their delivery each dav. interest that was noticeable among the learned audience on the occasion once more helped to prove beyond doubt the perennial appeal of the Astadhyayi to lovers of linguistics. It is hoped that these lectures in their published form would receive the careful attention of all true lovers of Panini and inspire them to undertake the study of those aspects of his unparalleled linguistic achievement that have as yet attracted little attention of the world of scholars.

Sanskrit College, September 27, 1970. Bishnupada Bhattacharya Principal.

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PREFACE

Inspite of close study of the grammar of Panini for more than two thousand years many of the sutras have eluded satisfactory explanation or plausible interpretation. The reason seems to be manifold. Panini described the linguistic phenomena known to him from books, from authorities and from his own observation. But he had not cared to illustrate his observations because, as it appears to me, it would have made the sutras cumbrous and for he did not consider it at all necessary. The time gap between him and his two oldest commentators the author of the Varttika sutras and the author of Mahābhāsya, is not negligible. Many of the forms and idioms noted by Panini had in the meantime disappeared and many forms and words had undergone semantic change. These disappearances and mutations affected the current literary and spoken language only, the old texts were unaffected. The first commentator, the a better authour of Varttika sutras, was perhaps in commentator, the author position than the second of Mahabhasya to notice some of the changes in current speech. But the former accepted Panini's as normal grammar and the second, followed by all successors, as This approach could not lead prescriptive grammar. the sutras the of them to proper interpretation matter of which was unknown to them. The later commentators coming many centuries later, followed Patañjali as they could not do othewise but some of them also tried to be original and there they blundered heavily (Compare my note on the sutra: asti nasti distam matih). I do not decry the traditional interpretation of Panini's grammar. It is an interesting subject of acdemic interest. But it offers very little help to the student of linguistic history of India.

The following pages, delivered as lectures at Sanskrit College, are an attempt to interpret Panini from the nonorthodox viewpoint of a linguistician,

(x)

I thank Sri Bishnupada Bhattacharya, M. A., P. R, S.. Principal of Government Sanskrit College, for giving me the opportunity to speak out my observations on Panini. I also thank my professor National Professor Suniti Kumar Chatterji, who presided over the delivery of the lectures.

Calcutta The 9th September, 1970.

Sukumar Sen

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LECTURE I

THE LANGUAGE STYLES DESCRIBED BY PANINI*

1

Panini's grammatical sutras in eight chapters have been the greatest force in the formation of the classical Sanskrit language and in controlling that language ever since. But Panini did not write for the classical Sanskrit language, nor for the classical and Vedic Sanskrit, nor for a language or languages exclusively to which a name has been given. There is no mention of language in general or a language in particular in any of his sutras. The only reference to the phenomenon of speech is in sutra (1. 3. 48) : vyakta-vacamsamuccarame. ('The root vad takes Atmanepada when it means to utter articulated speech'). The word vac as a stem however occurs in four sutras prescribing the validity (and meaning) of the formations vacamyama (3. 2. 40; 6. 3. 69), vagmin (5. 2. 124) and vacika (5. 4. 35).

^{*}First Lecture delivered on 18 February, 1970,

As a matter of fact there never was in Old Indo-Aryan, till about half a dozen centuries after Panini, a word indicating a language in particular or a language in general. From the time of the Vedas there was only one word $\nu \bar{a}c$ which denoted only the faculty of speech, the phenomenon of speaking. It was also personified into the supreme spirit that binds all beings together and guides even the highest of the gods. This Rigvedic conception of speech as Supreme Brahman (RV 10. 125) is echoed in the opening line of Gospel of St. John. ('In the beginning was the Word, and the Word was with God, and the Word was God').

In later Vedic tradition the stature of Vac was considerably reduced; it came down to that of an enticing Apsaras who was responsible for the final victory of the gods (the Devas) over the Asuras. There are many stories in the Brahmanas regarding Vak's partisanship with the Devas. One of them is very remarkable. It is recorded in the Katha-Kapisthala Samhita (4.6.) of Black Yajurveda. In brief the story is as follows.

Men were born with the power of speech. Gods and Asuras were born without it. It so happened that whatever men said came to pass. At this the gods and the Asuras came to Prajāpati and complained that whatever men said came true. Then Prajāpati took away from men the three essential elements, the basis of truth (*satya*), out of speech ($v\bar{a}k$), viz. bhur bhuvar svar. The fourth and last element, the element of untruth (*asatya*), was left to men.

The story tells us for the first time that speech is an inherent faculty of man only from the beginning of his creation or evolution. It also indirectly tells us that it has been the man that had made the gods.

Let us return to the main theme : the identity of the linguistic material dealt by Panini.

The matter of speech described or analysed by Panini is mainly, if not purely, literary. The grammarian refers to Vedic texts of various types and levels as well as to non-Vedic literary matter. He very often refers to the opinion or prescription of other grammarians. Some of whom he mentions by name and some he mentions by the region (or by the speech community) they belonged to. He also occasionally refers to local or communal usages. But a spoken language is never mentioned, and no distinction between written and spoken language or between learned and ordinary speech is ever indicated. Language was speech $(\nu \overline{a}c)$ whatever may be its components and texture. There was no essential difference in speech uttered by different men in different regions. Only there was variation in tone, in sounds and in words. There was also variation in the degree of intelligibility. So there was no foreign language as such. What is a foreign language to us was really a badly pronounced or mispronounced (mlecchita) speech to Panini. Spoken language during the days of Panini was not different from the language of literary compositions (grantha) if the speakers were "instructed" (sista) i.e. literate. The vernacular of the a-sista or illiterate was no concern of Panini and he did not refer to it.

The distinction between the speech of the literate and of the illiterate was made a few centuries later by Patañjali. He mentions the speakers of the cultivated standard language as Ārya.¹ The special matter of the uncultivated speech is called by him *Apabhrasta* ('off standard').

A question may be raised here. What was the nature of the vernacular in Panini's time? Was it Old Indo-Aryan or Middle Indo-Aryan? An answer to this question

Šavati gatikarmā kambojeşveva bhāşito bhavati vikāra enam āryā bhāşante šava iti hammatili surāştreşu ramhatili prācyamadhyeşu gamim eva tvāryāli prāyunjate dātir lavanārthe prācyeşu dātram udīcyeşu, Māhābhāşya 1. 1. 1. 1.

is bound to be, to some extent, speculative, depending on the date of Panini. If he belonged to the fourth century B. C. the vernacular (i.e., the lowest level of the current Indo-Aryan speech) would certainly be MIA, being somewhat akin to Pali and to the Asokan. But it must not be forgotten that MIA at its earliest stage differed from the contemporary OIA (the literary language) mostly in phonology i.e. on the changes brought about by shifts in articulation. Such tendencies have been there from the time of the earliest Vedic records. Disappearance of r and cerebralization of t are manifest in some words occurring in RV. There are a few examples of other types of "Prakritism" in RV. Such "Prakritism" was gathering force in the course of time. It was only when the final consonants were weakened and lost and when the consonant clusters were generally assimilitated the grammatical structure was noticeably affected. Inflexions were confused, some losing their individuality; and the roots, being amalgamated with the stem affixes, lost their identity. Apart from this the number of declensional and conjugational types were being normalized and reduced in number, and old forms and idioms were constantly being dropped.

Quite naturally words from the vernacular speech (MIA) were slowly intruding into the vocabulary of the standard literary language (OIA). There are a few such MIA infiltrations in the sutras of Panini. For instance $m\bar{a}tula$ (4. 1. 49; 2. 36) 'maternal uncle' (for $*m\bar{a}tura$ from $*m\bar{a}t_{1}ra$); kaccha (4. 2. 133) 'bank, shore' (<kaksa); geha (3. 1. 144) 'house' (<grha); phulla (8. 2. 55) 'blossomed' ($<*sph_{1}rati$); sphulati, sphurati (6. 1. 47; 8. 3. 76) 'it moves' ($<*sph_{1}rati$); cf. visphāra, visphāla); the vocatives aghoh, bhagol (8. 3. 17) showing the MIA contraction of $ava > \bar{o}$ (from aghavas, bhagavas). A most interesting 'Prakritism' is caura (5. 1. 133) 'thief' (<catura 'four square, clever'). Still more interesting is the denominative stem cura- derived from it. Panini does not mention any cur- class in the conjugational system of the present tense. Instead he prescribes nic (that is the denomi-

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native conjugation) for a number of nouns beginning with $saty\overline{a}pa$ and ending with cura (or $cur\overline{a}$): $saty\overline{a}pa-p\overline{a}sa-r\overline{u}pa-\nu \overline{n}n\overline{a} - t\overline{u}la - sloka - sen\overline{a} - loma - tvaca - varma - varna - c\overline{u}rna - cur\overline{a}-\overline{a}dibhyo nic$ (3. 1. 25).

The denominative stem coraya- presupposes the base as cora-, also from catura with the contraction of the udvrtta vowel with the preceding one. Contrast between caura (with non-contraction) and cora- (with contraction) has a parallel in Asokan where there is a similar loss of intervocalic t: $c\bar{a}vudasa$ (<* $c\bar{a}turdaśa$) and codasa (<caturdaśa). The noun stem cura is presupposed by Panini in order to explain caura and corayati.

2

Panini has not given a name to the language described or analysed by him. The name Sanskrit was not given to it until some centuries later. Patanjali (Mahābhāsya 1, 1, 1) has given a few isoglosses to indicate the dialectal distribution of the Indo-Aryan language of the day. To indicate action of movement the verb savati (from cyu-) occurs in Kamboja, hammati (from *ham-, cf. Bengali hāmā-kuri $<*hammaka kunthita `movement on hand and feet', <math>h\overline{a}m\overline{a}$ deoyā 'to walk on all fours'; or from *harma-, cf. harmita-'thrown, cast, sent') in Surastra, and ramhati (from ramha-: langha-) in the East-Central region (pracyamadhya), but among the Aryas (or throughout Aryandom) only the root gam is used (gamim eva tvāryāh...). Following Patanjali we may as well name the language (Vedic and non-Vedic) discussed by Panini as Arya. Once Panini has used the term anarsa ('not belonging to a rsi'): sambuddhau $\hat{s}_{\bar{a}}kalyasyet\bar{a}v$ an $\bar{a}rse$ (1. 1. 16) 'According to Śakalya the vocative terminal -au before iti is pragrhya, but not in a work coming from a rsi. It probably means subsidiary Vedic literature.

Panini makes no distinction between Vedic and non-Vedic in his overall treatment. He only points out the

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special forms or phenomena in which one differs from the other, generally the Vedic from the non-Vedic. For Vedic in general he uses the term *chandas.*¹ He has no specific name for the non-Vedic except once (5.3.49) where he mentions it as *acchandas*. This sutra *ekādašabhyo* '*cchandasi* ('upto eleven exclusive, in non-*chandas*') points out the contrast between Vedic and non-Vedic in some ordinals; e.g. *pdñcamah* (non-Vedic) as against *pañcamah* (Vedic).

Vedic matter (chandas) again shows many strata in the sutras. First, there is the division into mantra ('sacred verse') and amantra ('not sacred verse').² Chandas however stands for Vedic matter as a whole.

The ritualistic hymns only (including perhaps the bulk of the Rigveda) are the Mantra matter, and the rest A-mantra; cf. the sutra $k\bar{a}sapratyay\bar{a}d$ $\bar{a}m$ amantre lift (3. 1. 35) prescribing for some periphrastic perfect formations which are not found in Rigvedic verse. Contrast between Chandas and Mantra is noticeable in the following consecutive sutras: just arpite ca cchandasi (6. 1. 209). 'Justa and arpita are optionally accented on the initial vowel in chandas'; nityam mantre (6. 1. 210). '(The two words have) always the accent on the initial vowel'.

Some Vedic words and inflexional phenomena are assigned to Nigama. The nigama matter, no doubt belonging to Mantra, is differentiated from the rest of it. The term nigama occurs in the following five sutras. (i) $s\bar{a}dhyai s\bar{a}dhv\bar{a} s\bar{a}dheti nigame$ (6. 3. 113). 'The forms $s\bar{a}dhyai$ (infinitive), $s\bar{a}dhv\bar{a}$ (conjunctive) and $s\bar{a}dh\bar{a}$ (agentive) occur

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^{1.} Chandas however means 'metre' and 'will' respectively in two sutras: chandonāmni ca (3. 3. 34) and chandaso nirmite (4, 4. 93),

^{2.} Sacred verse means Vedic verse applicable in priestly performance.

(only) in Nigama.' In non-Nigama texts and elsewhere the conjunctive and agentive formations from the root sah- appear respectively as sodhum and sodha, the infinitive in -tyai having no parallal. (ii) $v\bar{a}$ sapūrvasya nigame (6. 4. 9.). 'In Nigama (the lengthening is) optional (in the declension of the -an stems in the strong case forms) when s precedes (it)'. Thus taksānau and taksanau. The short vowel is peculiar to Nigama texts. (iii) babhuithatanthajagrmbhavavartheti nigame (7. 2. 64). 'The perfect forms babhutha, \bar{a} tatantha, jagymbha and vavartha (are available only) in Nigama.' Elsewhere they are respectively babhuvitha. atenitha, jagrhima and vavaritha. Jagrmbha comes from * jagrbhma by metathesis. (iv) mīnāter nigame (7.8.81). 'In Nigama the radical vowel of the root $m\bar{i}$ (is shortened) when a sit affix (is added). Thus praminanti (Nigama) but pramīnanti (elsewhere). (v) sasūvetinigame (7. 4. 74). 'The perfect form sasura (is available only) in Nigama.' Elsewhere susuve.

Nigama is interpreted either as Vedic text or as Vedic quotation or as insertion in a Vedic text or passage. In classical Sanskrit nigama means apauruseya veda, that is the Vedas which did not come from a human or known source, as against $\bar{a}gama$ (i. e. tantra) which come from Siva. Etymologically nigama means 'come as such' and $\bar{a}gama$ 'come out from'. The etymological sense may be applied here in the occurrences of nigama in Panini. The forms and phenomena mentioned in the sutra are definitely older formations pointing out their direct connection with Indo-European; the corresponding non-Nigama forms and phenomena show later modification. By nigama Panini probably meant the Vedic matter which was considered as coming from an older heritage or belonging to an anonymous strata.

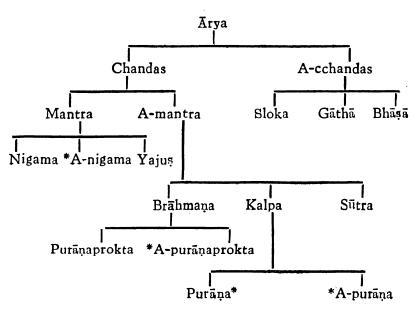
Panini does not mention any individual Vedic text by name except once. The Kaiha text of the Yajus is mentioned in sutra 7. 4. 38 : devasumnayor yajus $k\bar{a}ihake$. 'The final

vowel in *deva* and *sumna* appears lengthened in the Katha text of Yajus, when the denominative affix is attached.'

Panini mentions Yajus and Brahmana a few times and Kalpa and Sūtra once or twice. These I presume come under A-mantra (non-Vedic). There are two sutras for Yajus texts in general : yaju?y urah (6. 1. 117). 'Uras becoming uro in sandhi does not allow the elision of a following a'. Yajusyekesām (8.3.104). 'According to some the change of s to $\frac{1}{2}$ as mentioned in the preceding sutra, happens in Yajus texts also'. The Brahamna text (or matter) is mentioned in three sutras : dvitīyā brāhmaņe (2. 3. 60). 'The second case-termination in place of the sixth in connexion with the verb div-. appears in the Brahmanas'. chandobrahmanani ca tadvisavani (4. 2. 66). 'Also the Brahmanas in verse and in the matter thereof'.¹ purānaproktesu brāhmaņakalpesu (4. 3. 105). 'In the Brahmana and Kalpa works pronounced by ancient (sages).' This sutra reveals old and new strata in both Brahmana and Kalpa works. The latter is mentioned only in this sutra. Sūtra occurs in many sutras.

Of the non-Vedic types of linguistic and literary matter the most frequent to appear in the sutras is $Bhas\bar{a}$. Other types mentioned once or twice are sloka and $g\bar{a}th\bar{a}$. Both are mentioned in the sutras 3. 1. 25. (previously quoted when discussing the denominative root coraya-) and 3. 2. 23 (na $sabdaslokakalahag\bar{a}th\bar{a}vairac\bar{a}tus\bar{u}tramantrapadesu$). $Bh\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ requires a separate discussion. Before I do it I offer the following chart of classification of the linguistic material in Panini's grammar.

^{1.} Chandobrāhmaņāni is traditionally interpreted as a dvandva compound but that hardly makes a sense. 'The sutra is in continuation of the preceding sutra: sūtrāc ca kopadhāt. The uffix is clided when it is a Sūtra work the name having ka in the penult'.



3

The root $bh\bar{a}$?- does not occur in RV but it is an old extended root from earlier IE *bhel-. Two extended roots *bhel-no- and *bhel-s- meaning 'to utter a continuous sound, bark, roar, tease,' etc. are attested in the Balto-Slavic and Germanic branches beside In lo-Aryan. *Bhel-no- gives OIA bhan-'to speak on, to tease' etc. *Bhel-s- has produced bhaş-'to bark' and $bh\bar{a}$?- 'to tell, describe, address, announce' etc. As against $v\bar{a}c$ - and vad-, $bh\bar{a}$?- indicates or implies continuity of utterance. ($V\bar{a}c$ - was a very old root but it was fast disappearing in OIA. The contrast between vad- and $bh\bar{a}$?- may be detected from Panini's use of upasāmvāda 'agreeing together' and upasāmbhāṣā 'conversing together' in the sutras 3. 4. 8. and 1. 3. 47.)¹ Panini does not use the verb⁸ but several derivatives from the root appear in the

^{1.} upasamvādāšankayos ca 3. 4. 8 (use of let), bhāsanopasambhāsājñānayatnavimatyupamantraņesu vadaļi 1. 3. 47 (use of Ātamanepada).

The root is mentioned in two sutras 3. 2. 146 (nindahimsaklišakhādapariksipaparirataparivadivyabhasasuyayoh vun) and 7. 4. 3 (bhrājabhāsabhāşadīpa-jīvamīlapīdām anyatrasyām). (Shortening of the initial vowel in reduplicated aorist.)

sutras, some of which are technical words. (In the days of Patanjali $bh\bar{a}$, was quite in common use.) These are $bh\bar{a}$, $\bar{a}\bar{a}$ (appearing only in the loc. sg. $bh\bar{a}$, $\bar{a}\bar{a}\bar{n}$), $upas\bar{a}mbh\bar{a}$, $vibh\bar{a}$, $\bar{s}\bar{a}$, $vibh\bar{a}$, $it\bar{a}$ -, $abh\bar{a}$, $it\bar{a}$ - and $-bh\bar{a}$, in. These words can all be explained satisfactarily if we take $bh\bar{a}$, to mean here 'explain, clarify'. There is some difficulty however with $bh\bar{a}$, $\bar{a}\bar{a}$ and $vibh\bar{a}$, $\bar{a}\bar{a}$.

 $Bh\bar{a}_{s\bar{a}}$ in the sutras of Panini clearly indicates a distinct type of linguistic and literary matter. Paninian scholars, ancient and modern, all have taken the word to mean the secular or the spoken language i. e. classical Sanskrit. The meaning of *language* however was not acquired by the word before the fifth or the sixth century A. D., at least to my knowledge. As I have mentioned earlier the idea of *a language* was still not evolved in the days of Panini.

Bhāsā occurs in the following sutras.

Bhāṣāyām sadavasašruval (3. 2. 108). 'In Bhāṣā the kvasu (perfect participle active) forms of the verbs sad, vas and sru are used as substitute for lit (perfect tense).' This idiom is frequent in the Upanisads but rare in cl. Skt.

sakhyaŝiśvīti bhāşāyām (4. 1. 62). 'The feminine forms sakhī and ašiśvī are available (only) in Bhāşā.' Sakhī is quite common in cl. Skt. But asiśvī is completely unknown there. Ašiśvī however occurs twice in RV (1. 120. 8; 3. 55. 15).

mayad vaitayor bhasayam abhaksyacchadanayoh (4. 3. 143). 'The affix -maya is optiodally available in Bhasa, except in words meaning food and raiment, when vikara and avayava is meant.'

vibhā $\mathfrak{s}\overline{\mathfrak{a}}$ bha $\mathfrak{s}\overline{\mathfrak{a}}$ y $\overline{\mathfrak{a}}m$ (6. 1. 181). 'In Bhā $\mathfrak{s}\overline{\mathfrak{a}}$ (the accentuation) is variously articulated.' E.g. pañcabhi \mathfrak{h} . as well as pañcabhi \mathfrak{h} . Here Bha $\mathfrak{s}\overline{\mathfrak{a}}$ cannot mean cl. Skt. as

accentuation was no longer of any linguistic significance in the language. The vernacular too must have lost it long ago.

sthe ca $bh\bar{a}s\bar{a}y\bar{a}m$ (6. 3. 20). 'In $Bh\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ (the locative ending in the first component of a compound is lost) when the second member is stha.' E. g. $k\bar{u}tasthah$.

prathamāyās ca dvivacane bhāṣāyām (7. 2. 88). 'In Bhāṣā the nominative dual (of the personal pronouns lengthen the stem vowel).' E.g. avām, yuvām. This usage, goes against Vedic and agrees with cl. Skt. In Vedic nom. du. is $\bar{a}vam$ (Śatapatha-Brāhmaṇa) and yuvam as against acc. du. $\bar{a}v\bar{a}m$ (ŚB) and $yuv\bar{a}m$. In cl. Skt. both nom. and acc. du. is $\bar{a}v\bar{a}m$ and $yuv\bar{a}m$.

 $p\bar{u}rvam$ tu $bh\bar{a}s\bar{a}y\bar{a}m$ (8. 2. 93). 'But in $Bh\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ (if there is deliberation between two alternatives— $vic\bar{a}ry\bar{a}m\bar{a}n\bar{a}n\bar{a}m$ —the first syllable of) the first alternative only (is pronounced extrn long, *pluta*).' This is in contrast with Vedic where the last alternative has *pluta* in the final syllable. The sutra refers to a speech habit in $Bh\bar{a}s\bar{a}$.

 $Vibh\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ is a technical term occurring in 110 sutras. It is probably a *nipāta*, originally instrumental singular of **bhās*, **bhāsa* or *bhāsā*. Panini defines $Vibh\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ as "may be or may not be" (*na veti vibhāsā* 1. 1. 144), $Vibh\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ probably indicates contention or disagreement in idiom or usage; literally nonagreeing discouse. This interpretation is supported by *vibhāsā* in Ardhamāgadhi and *vibhāsā* in Buddhistic Sanskrit as well as by *vibhāsai* ('expounds variously') in Prakrit. For other kinds of alternatives there are the terms and phrases $v\bar{a}$, *bahulam*, *anyatarasyām*, *anyebhyo'pi drśyate*, etc.

Vibhāsitam (nom. sg. nt.) occurs in three sutras.

jangaladhenubalajāntasyavibhāsitam uttaram (7. 3. 25). 'The initial vowel of) the second element also—if it is jangala,

dhenu or balaja—is contended (to show vriddhi in the initial vowel when a secondary affix with the indicatory \tilde{n} , n or k is added).' E. g. kaurujangalam, kaurujangalam.

vibhāşitam sopasargam anuttamam (8. 1. 53). 'It is a matter of contention that an imperative (not first person) compounded to a preposition (following an imperative of a verb meaning 'to go' (may retain its accent).' E.g. $\bar{a}gaccha$ devadatta praviša (or praviša).

vibhāştam višeşavacane (bahuvacanam)¹ (8. 1. 74). 'It is contended that (a second vocative following may not lose its accent) when specification is intended.' E. g. devah saranyah: devah saranyah.

Bhāsita and abhāsita occur compounded with pumska in three sutras (6. 3. 34; 7. 1. 74; 7. 3. 48). It means 'indicated or mentioned.'

Bhāşin occurs compounded to bahu in only one sutra (5. 2. 125). $\overline{a}laj \cdot \overline{a}\mu acau bahubh\overline{a}\sin u$. The radical meaning of the root is quite clear here.

Upaşambhāsā has been discussed previously.

From the discussions above it is evident that $Bh\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ in the sutras of Panini indicates the "style" of discourse. This interpretation fully justifies the title of the great work of Pata \tilde{a} jali.

4

Regional and communal articulation and usage is noted by Panini in a few of his sutras. We may take these as dialectal observations of Panini, and the dialects as belonging to the spoken Indo-Aryan of his time. The following

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^{1.} The bracketed word in the sutra occurs in Mahābhāşya.

regions are mentioned showing linguistic difference in some point or other: *Sauvīra*, North of the Vipāś, Udīcya and Vāhīka. The sutras are as follows.

 $v_{l}ddhat$ thak sauvīresu bahulam (4. 1, 148). 'The affix thak is added to a viddha form in the country of Sauvīra (or among Sauvīras). In the traditional explanation the word gotra is understood. But it is hardly justifiable.

udak ca vipāšak (4. 2. 74). '(In the region) to the North of the river Bias (a derivative word indicating a well shows the affix $a\vec{n}$ instead of an)'. The sutra is in continuation of the previous sutra and it indicates a difference in accentuation between the regions on the northern and the southern bank of the river.

 $ud\bar{i}cyagramacca\ bahvrco'\ ntodattat$ (4. 2. 116). '(The affix an in place of an is added) to polysyllabic and finally accented names of villages of the Northern regions.' The sutra refers to a change in accentuation.

 $v\bar{a}h\bar{i}kagr\bar{a}mebhayśca$ (4. 2. 117), '(The affixes $!ha\tilde{n}$ and $\tilde{n}i!$ are added after v_rddha words) denoting village of Vāhīka'.

Speech-communities are mentioned in some sutras. These are the Usinara, the Eastern Bharatas, the Andhka-Vṛṣṇis and the Madras.

The Usinaras are mentioned in two sutras. samjiāyām kanthosinareşu (2. 4. 20). 'Among the Usinaras (a Tatpurusa compound) ending in the word kanthā is neuter if indicating a name. Vibhasosinaresu (4. 2. 111). 'The use of the affiixes (thañ and $\tilde{n}it$) are freely used among the Usinaras.' This sutra follows $v\bar{a}h\bar{i}kagramebhyas$ ca (4. 2. 117).

The Eastern Bharatas (Prācya-bharata) are mentioned in three sutras. Bahvrca inah prācyabharatesu (2. 4. 66). '(There

is elision of the Gotra affix iñ) after a polysyllabic word among the Prācyabharatas.' na dvyacal, prācyabharateşu (4. 2. 113). '(The affix iñ is not added) to dissyllabic words among the Prācyabharatas.' pariskandal, prācyabharateşu (8. 3. 79). 'The form pariskanda (without cerebralization of -s-) is current among the Prācyabharatas.'

The Andhaka-Vṛṣṇis are mentioned in a single sutra. $r\bar{a}janyabahuvacanadvandve$ 'ndhakavṛṣṇiṣu (6. 2. 34). '(The first member of a Dvandva in the names of) Kṣatriya clans in plural) retains its original accent among the Andhaka-Vṛṣṇis.'

The Madra speech-community is made distinct from the rest of Aryandom in one point and in a single sutra. diso 'madrānām (7.3.13). 'Except among the Madras, (the first vowel) of a word indicating direction (is vriddhied when a Taddhita suffix with an indicating \tilde{n} , n or k is added).'

A phenomenon in the women's speech-habit among the Sauvīras and the Sālvas and among the Eastern peoples is noted in a sutra : strīsu sauvīrasālvaprāksu (4.2.76). '(The affix añ is added) among women of the Sauviras and Salvas and in the East'. The sutra may however mean 'among women and among etc.' The traditional explanation of strisu as "feminine words" is against the normal syntax of Panini's grammar.

There is one sutra indicates the existence of communal variation. *pratyabhivāde* ' $s\overline{u}dre$ (8. 2. 83). 'In returning a salutation the last syllable is extra long and the first syllable accented. But not to a $S\overline{u}dra$.'

Panini often refers to a regional variation without mentioning the area or speech-community but by such terms as $pr\bar{a}c\bar{a}m$, $ud\bar{c}c\bar{a}m$ and $anud\bar{c}c\bar{a}m$. The genitive ending indicates that it is a reference and not a jurisdiction, and the

terms should be translated as 'according to the Eastern authorities', 'according to the Northern authorities', and 'not according to Northern the authorities'. $Pr\bar{a}c\bar{a}m$ occurs in more than fifteen sutras. E.g. $i\bar{n}ah$ $pr\bar{a}c\bar{a}m$ (2. 4. 60). 'According to the Easterners (Eastern authorities) (there is elision of a yuvan affix after a gotra affix) ending in $i\bar{n}$.' *alamkhalvoh* pratisedhayoh $pr\bar{a}c\bar{a}m$ $ktv\bar{a}$ (3. 4. 18). 'According to the Easterners a verbal form showing the affix $ktv\bar{a}$ (may be used for the finite verb) to indicate prohibition (when accompanied) by *alam* or *khalu*.'

 $Ud\bar{\imath}c\bar{\alpha}m$ occurs in five sutras. E. g. $\bar{\alpha}rag$ $ud\bar{\imath}c\bar{\alpha}m$ (4. 1. 130). 'According to the Northerners (Northern authorities) the affix $\bar{\alpha}rak$ (is added to the word godhā in the sense of a descendant)'. $m\bar{\alpha}tarapitar\bar{\alpha}v$ $ud\bar{\imath}c\bar{\alpha}m$ (6. 3. 32). 'According to the Northerners the Dvandva compound $m\bar{\alpha}tarapitarau$ (is a valid form).'

Anudicām occurs in a single sutra : amahannavam nagare 'nudicām (6. 2. 89). '(The first member, other than mahat and nava, has acute accent on the first syllable) if it is followed by the word nagara, but not according to the Northern authorities.'

If $pr\bar{a}c\bar{a}m$ etc. do not refer to the grammatical authority they would only mean the authoritative (or average) speakers, and then these sutras may be accepted as containing Panini's own observations.

Panini has quoted several authorities by name, sometimes to show respect or to indicate his indebtedness and sometimes to imply his disagreement or neutrality. These are: Śākalya (mentioned in three sutras), Śākaţāyana (mentioned in two sutras), Gārgya, Bhāradvāja, Āpiśali and Sphoţāyana. On two occasions no name is mentioned. One, to show the unimportance of the authority (*ekeşām* 'according to some': yajuşy ekeşām 8, 3, 104), and the other to show

veneration ($\bar{a}c\bar{a}ry\bar{a}n\bar{a}m$ 'the revered teacher'): $d\bar{i}rgh\bar{a}d$ $\bar{a}c\bar{a}ry\bar{a}n\bar{a}m$ (8. 4. 52). 'According to (our) revered teacher (there is no gemination of a consonant) after a long vowel.' This sutra contradicts the dictum of Śākalya who prescribes gemination always: sarvatra śākalyasya (8. 4. 51). Panini's gurubhakti shown by not mentioning the name of his master has deprived history.

LECTURE II

ON SOME WORDS FROM PANINI*

Panini's vocabulary contains not a few words which are peculiar in the sense that they are presented, of course with necessary changes in MIA or in NIA. I am discussing some which have come to my notice.

 $\overline{a}yukta$ ($\overline{a}yuktakusal\overline{a}bhy\overline{a}m$ c $\overline{a}sev\overline{a}y\overline{a}m$ 2. 3. 40). In the sense of sev \overline{a} (service) the word occurs as $\overline{a}vutika$ ($<*\overline{a}yuktika$) in Asokan.

arya (aryah svāmiyvaišyayoh 3. 3. 103). In the sense of 'employer' (svāmin) it occurs in Asokan : bhata-m-ayesu ('among the employees and the employers.')

udanka (udanko' nudake 3. 3. 123.). The accepted meaning of the word, 'a bucket or vessel' (Katre¹), 'a bucket or vessel (for oil etc. but not for water') (Monier-Williams) is unconvincing to say the least. This interpretation is apparently based on the analysis ud-anka. But more plausible would be udanka as Panini explains it (anudake there being no water'). I consider that udanka is the source of the NIA (Bengali) dak meaning 'bog, morass.'

vasnika (constructed from the sutra vasnadravy $\bar{a}bhy\bar{a}m$ thankanau 5. 1. 51; cf. so'sy $\bar{a}msavasnabhrtayah$ 5. 1. 56) is represented in NIA (Bengali) by $b\bar{a}ni$ with a slight change in meaning. In OIA it meant 'one who lives by fees earned as

^{*}Second Lecture delivered on 12 March, 1970

^{1.} Dictionary of Panini (Deccan College, Poona, 1968) p. 126,

a craftsman;' in Bengali it means the fee of a craftsman (generally a goldsmith or weaver).

The root $v\bar{v}ya$ - 'to carry in womb' (prajane $v\bar{v}yate$) 6.1. 55) is not attested in OIA. A derivative however occurs in in Asokan : $viyat\bar{a}yai$ dh $\bar{a}t\bar{v}ye$ 'to a delivery nurse.'

'kuṇḍa' meaning 'thicket, wood' (kuṇḍaṇ vanam 6. 2. 136) is represented in NIA (Bengali) in such an idiom as kur uțhe geche 'destroyed root and branch'.

sadhri 'with' is mentioned by Panini in connexion with the formation of sadhryañ (sahasya sadhrih 6. 3. 95). Its independent occurrance is found in MIA-saddhim.

The root vanc- 'to move' (vancater gatau 7.3.63) is listed in the Dhatupathas but not attested in use in OIA. But it occurs, though rarely, in MIA—vannami <*vacnami <vancami.

kşiyā meaning 'condemnation, damning' occurs in two sutras (heti kşiyāyām 8. 1. 60; kşiyāšīķpraisesu tinākānsam 8. 2. 104) is the ancestor of Bengali chi (interjection).

prastha 'pioneer, going ahead' (prastho'gragāmini 8. 3. 92) does not seem to occur in OIA. It is of very frequent use in Niya Prakrit—pratham 'at once, quickly'.

accha 'in front of, toward, to' (accha gatyarthavadeşu 1. 4.69). This preposition and its variant $acch\bar{a}$ occurs almost exclusively in RV and never outside Vedic. But Panini prescribes it for general use. It must have been therefore current in literature as well as in the common standared speech during his time. There is no evidence of the occurrence of this preposition in Classical Sanskrit nor in MIA. But it can be traced in NIA. Bengali $\bar{a}ch\bar{a}r$ 'fall down forward' may be best explained as coming from $acch\bar{a}$ -pat-

patayati 'flies towards')¹ From its use with vad. (as noted by Panini also in RV $acch\bar{a}$ vada 'salute, praise, approve') the preposition acquired the value of an adverb indicating approval and as such it has perhaps come down to NIA as $\bar{a}cch\bar{a}$, with the probable influence of the imperative of $\bar{a}ch$. 'to be' (cf. acchaha siriguru $n\bar{a}ha$ kahijjai. 'Good ! Says the reverend guru the master.' Saraha's Dohā).

kastaya- 'to walk, step on' (kastaya kramane), denominative verb from kasta perfect participle of kas- 'to scratch, scrape, hurt,' etc. I have not found any occurrence of the verb in Sanskrit nor in Prakrit. But in Middle Bengali there is the idiom patha $k\bar{a}r(h)$ -a, 'to move along a new difficult or tedious path.' OIA kastayate (kastayate), MIA *katthai (katthei) > *kaddhei),² NIA $k\bar{a}rhe$ > $k\bar{a}re$.

avāra 'this side, near bank of a river' (avārapārāt yantānukāmam gāmī 5. 2. 11: 'the suffix- ina—'kha'—is attached to āvarapāra, atyanata and anukāma in the sense of one who goes over'; rāstrāvārapārād ghakhau 4. 2. 93: 'after rāstra and avārapāra the suffixes -iya—'gha'—and -ina—'kha'—are added'. Avāra occurs in Vedic,³ though rarely, and in classical Skt. it occurs only in the inverted compound pārāvāra 'the two banks of an expanse of water; limit.' Panini's compound avārapāra appears in Bengali as a loose compound—or pār.

aroka 'not bright, absence of light' (vibhāṣā śyāvārokābhyām 5. 4. 144). This word does not occur in cl. Skt. nor in Prakrit. A cognate form āroka (doublet of āloka) too occurs in Vedic but not otherwise in OIA nor in MIA. But in NIA āroka 'light; sunlight' is traceable, in Oriyā and in

^{1.} Cf. pāchār 'fall backward' from *paścāpat-.

^{2.} For vocalization of the cluster -*tth*- cf. MIA $d\bar{a}dh\bar{a}$ > OIA $damstra{a}$.

^{3.} Probably meant originally 'down on the sea.

Middle Bengali (dialectal) $\bar{a}ro\bar{a} c\bar{a}ul(a)$, New Bengali $\bar{a}lo c\bar{a}l$ 'rice from paddy dried in the sun'. This preparation of rice requires sunning of the paddy and no boiling or steaming.

ON THE INTERPRETATION OF THE SUTRA 4.4.60

asti nasti distam matif. 4. 4. 60. According to the old commentators as well as modern interpreters it means : The affix -ika ('thak') is added after (the words) asti, nasti and distam in the sense '(one has) this belief'. The sutra accordingly gives the sense of the formations astika. nastika and daistika. This interpretation cannot be accepted on two grounds. First it supplies no subject to the verbs asti and nāsti. Secondly daistika does not occur outside Kāśikā, showing that it is a grammarian's creation. A normal and simple explanation would do away with daislika and give a reasonable interpretation. Distam is the subject of the verbs and the sutra therefore would read thus in English : (The affix 'thak' is added to asti and $n\overline{a}sti$ to indicate a person holding the believe that) there is or there is not predetermination or fate (distam). The sutra precribes only for āstika and nāstika and not for daistika as well.

ON THE SUTRA 5.2.55

treh samprasāraņam ca 5. 55. After the suffix $-t\bar{\imath}ya$ ('cha') tri becomes tr. This sutra carries two information to us: (i) the sonant r was still a phoneme in Panini's times; (ii) writing was known to Panini. That $t_{T}t\bar{\imath}ya$ was a living word and not a grammarian's emendation for the historical *tritīya (cf. Old Persian ssitīya, Avestan thritya) is proved by the existence of tatiya in early MIA (Khāravela's Hāthigumphā edict.)

ON THE SUTRA 5.3.52

bhūtapūrve caraț 5. 3. 52. 'The suffix cara is added to indicate what happened long ago'. But what is the meaning and etymology of cara? There is little doubt that like $-r\bar{u}pa$ (' $r\bar{u}pap$ '), -kalpa ('kalpap'), $-des\bar{v}a$ (' $des\bar{v}yar$ '), $-j\bar{u}t\bar{v}ya$ (' $j\bar{u}t\bar{v}yar$ ')

and $-m\bar{a}tra$ (' $m\bar{a}trac$ ') etc. Cara was a word that for some reason had lost its independent use and so it has been shown as a suffix by Panini.

Cara is clearly connected with carama; its superlative form meaning 'last, ultimate, final'. It is also connected with cira 'lasting a long time, eternal', and possibly with the adverb kila (Pali kira). The source of these words and other cognates in Indo-European would be like this *qwel : *qwel : *qwil—extended forms of the interrogative-indefinite pronoun *qwe : *qwo : *qwi. *qwelo > OIA cara, Lat. (tran-quillus ; *qwilo >OIA cira, Goth hueila ; *qwol>OIA karhi 'when'.

THE SUTRA STYLE OF PANINI

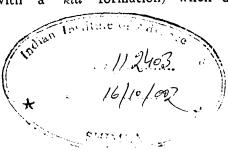
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Panini's sutras, some fully expressive per se and the rest understandable only in the context of the preceeding sutras may comprise a full grammatical or semantical sentence or may consist of a single word or a couple of words or more. To give an example of the types of his sutras I quote below the six consecutive sutras covering the formation of the Divitīyā-tatpuruṣa compound.

dvitva śritatitapatitagatatyastapraptapannaih (2. 1. 24). 'An accusative (governed by śrita etc. is compounded) with them.'

svayam ktena (2. 1. 25). 'Svayam (accusative in from, is compounded with) a 'kta' formation (whether governed by it or not)'.

 $kha_iv\bar{a}$ ksepe (2. 1. 26). 'Kha $iv\bar{a}$ (in the accusative case is compounded with a 'kta' formation) when derision is implied'.



 $s\bar{a}mi$ (2. 1. 27). ' $S\bar{a}mi$ (adverbial accusative, is compouded) with a 'kta' formation)'.

 $k\bar{a}l\bar{a}h$ (2. 1. 28). '(Words denoting) periods of time (in the accusative case are compounded with a '*kta*' formation)'.

atyantasamyoge ca (2. 1. 29). 'And (words denoting periods of time in the accusative case is compounded with a word governing it) when close contact (i. e. duration or continuity) is implied'. The final ca here indicates that the topic ends here.

The sutras that are complete sentences are of two types -(i) without a finite verb and (ii) with a finite verb. The first type has either the verb substantive understood or a participle or gerund for the finite verb. Thus: adarsanam lopah (1. 1. 60), 'Lopa (disappearance) means nonappearance'. vipratisedhe param $k\overline{a}ryam$ (1. 4. 2). 'When there is conflict (between two rules) the second is operative.' vasmād adhikam vasva cesvaravacanam tatra saptamī (2. 3. 9). 'Where there is a karmapravacaniva meaning 'superior to (or more than) it, or 'lord of it' there is (i. e. in the word governed) the locative ending.' so'sya $niv\bar{a}sah$ (4. 3. 89). 'It is his place of residence.' It is a semantic sutra giving the meaning of such a formation as sraughnah. tena proktam (4. 3. 101). 'Uttered by him'. This too is a semantic rule for such formations as taittiriya, $k\bar{a}th$ aka etc. padam asmin drsyam (4.5.87). 'Foot (-mark) is discernible here'. - A semantic sutra for padya. samānatīrthe vasi (4. 4. 107). 'Living in (or with) the same tirtha'. Semantic rule for satirthya. barhisi dattam (4. 4. 119). Placed on barhis'. Semantic rule for Vedic barhisya. tena krītam (5. 1. 71). Purchased by (or with) it'. Semantic rule for formations like satika etc. uttarapathenakrtam ca (5. 1. 77): 'and, brought along the northern thoroughfare.' Semantic rule for such a supposed example as uttarapathikam. Ca indicates the end of the topic. tena tulyam kriva ced

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vaith (5. 1. 115). '(The suffix) -vat ('vati') (is added) if the action is similar to it.'

The sutras containing a finite vcrb are of four types: (i) finite verb in a clause only, (ii) finite verb in the main sentence, (iii) subject understood, and (iv) the sentence comprising of the verb only. The verb is generally in the present tense, active and passive, or in the optative mood. The only other tense used is *veda*, but it has the sense of the present (as in RV). Thus: (i) karmanā yam abhipraiti sa sampradanam (1. 4. 34). 'Who is approached (or intended) by the object is sampradana'. tad asminn astiti dese tannamni (4.2.67). '(The suffix is added) in the sense of "it belongs there" to the name to indicate the country'. E.g. pārvataķ, āudumbaraķ etc. (ii) tadadhīte tad veda (4.2.59). (The suffix 'an' is added to indicate) he studies it or he knows it'. vyāharati mrgaķ (4.3.51), 'A wild animal cries (or feeds)'. It is a semantic sutra for such a formation as naisal, 'nocturnal animal'. tena divyati khanati jayati jitam (4, 4, 2). 'By (or with) it one plays. wins or one has won'. It is a semantic sutra for such formations as āksika āsika etc. yogapramāņe catadabhāve' darśanām syāt (1. 2. 55). 'When there is expected etymological evidence, (then) in its absence there should be disapperrance'. This is one of the longest sentences of Panini. (iii) vetanādibhyo jīvatī (4.4.12). (The suffix 'thak' is added) to words vetana ('salary') etc. (to indicate) one lives thereby'. Semantic sutra for vaitanika etc.¹ Ojahsaho'mbhasā vartate (4. 4. 27). '(The

^{1.} In this connexion I am tempted to point out a universal mistake in the interpretation of the sutra $v\bar{a}sudev\bar{a}rjun\bar{a}bhy\bar{a}m$ vun 4. 3. 98. The suffix 'vun' is attached to the names $V\bar{a}sudeva$ and Arjuna (to indicate one who has bhakti on him).' The sutra is a continuation of the general sutra bhaktile (4. 3. 95). Bhakti had not yet changed its meaning to 'spiritual devotion'; it still held the etymological sense of 'share, sharing'. Vāsudevaka therefore meant according to Panini, a (feudal) follower of Vāsudeva and not a devotee of him. The wrong interpretation of bhakti here (4. 3. 95) has misled our historians.

suffix 'thak' is added to) ojas, sahas and ambhas when indicating possession'. Semantic sutra for aujasika, sāhasika, āmbhasika. Anyeşvapi drśyate (3. 2. 101) 'It is found in others (upapada, kāraka) also'. anyebhyo'pi drśyate (3. 3. 130). 'The suffix 'yuc' is found (added) to other (roots) also'. bhūte'pi drśyante (3. 3. 2). '(The unādi suffixes) are seen in (the sense of) the perfect (bhūta) also'. antardhau yenādarsam icchati (1. 4. 28), 'In hiding a non-sight by whom one desires (it is in the ablative case)'. (iv) tarati (4. 4. 5). 'One who crosses over'. Semantic sutra for a formation like audupika (<udupa). carati (4. 4. 8). 'One who moves on (or subsits)'. Semantic sutra for hāstika etc.

Panini's sutras are in prose yet it has a rhythm of its own. The sutras containing two or more words fall into a natural division, the first part containing syllables equal to or more than the second. Thus :

vipratisedhe par am kāryam	1. 4. 2
antardhau yenā- daršanam	icchati 1. 4. 28
anyebhyo'pi / drśyante	3. 2. 178 ; 3. 3. 130
anyeşvapi / drsyate	3. 3. 2
tena raktam / rāgāt	4. 2. 1
tad adhīte / tad veda	4. 2. 59
udak ca / vipāśaķ	4. 2. 74
prayacchati garhyam	4. 4. 30
	etc.

These are however exceptions ; e. g.

4, 4, 60
etc.

Longer sutras show sometimes a twofold and sometimes a threefold division. Thus:

- (i) karmanāyam abhipraiti / sa sampradānam
 asti nāsti distam / matih
 taddharati vahatyāvahati / bhārād vamśādibhyah
 5. 1. 50
 etc.
- (ii) şaşţikāķ / şaşţirātreņa / pacyante
 yogapramāņe ca / tadabhāve / 'darśanaņ syāt
 1. 2. 55
 tad asya / tad asmin / syād iti
 tad asmin / vrdhāya- / lābhaśulkopadā / dīyate
 parovara- / parampara / anubhavati
 yasmād adhikam / yasya ceśvaravacanam / tantra
 saptamī
 2. 39
 karmani ca / yena samsparśāt / kartuķ śarīrasukham
 3. 3. 116

A sutra does not end in a short vowel unless the penultimate is metrically long. E.g. svayam ktena. 2. 1. 25. tadadhīte tad veda. 4. 2. 59. divah karma ca. 1. 4. 43.—Here final ca is necessary.

The order of words in the sutras is generally significant. A good example is the contrast between the two sutras where the words with the ending -bhyas are in reverse order.

> vetanādibhyō jīvati 4.4.12. haraty utsangādibhyah. 4.4.15.

In the first sutra vetana is the source (of the form vaitanika) as well as the instrument of the action $(j\bar{v}vati)$. But in the second sutra utsanga is the source (of the form autsangika) and it stands as locative (adhikarana) for the object of the verb (harati) by which it is not governed. To indicate the lesser importance of the word in relation to the verb, utsangādibhyah which should have come first is put after the verb.

The word that limits the condition of operation of a sutra comes at the end. E.g. vidhyaty adhanus, (4. 4. 80), '(which) pierces but not with a bow'. Example: padyah

sarkarāķ. so'syādir iti chandasaķ pragātheşu (4. 2. 55). 'It is its beginning, of a metre, (only) in pragāthas.' janapadinām janapadavat sarvam janapadena samānasabdānām bahuvacane (4. 3. 100). Example āngaka 'belonging to the feudal state of Anga', as well as 'a partisan of the feudal chief of Anga'.

In the use of some of the cases the sutras show some peculiar idioms. In the formation of the compouds the nominative stands for the first member (*prathamānirdistam* samāsa upasarjanam 1. 2. 43). The instrumental stands for the second member. In the formative process of a derivative the locative stands for the first element or member (*tasminn iti nirdiste pārvasya*. 1. 1. 66) and the ablative for the second (*tasmād ity uttarasya* 1. 1. 67).

The locative of subject-matter may stand for limitation or restriction. E. g. yamo gandhane (1. 2. 15); e. g. $ud\bar{u}yata$.

The genitive sometime stands for authority. E.g. trsi-mrsikrseh kāsyapasya (1. 2. 25); e.g. trsitva, tarsitva.

There is, in the sutras, a preference for the subjective instrumental in connexion with a verbal. E.g. antardhau yenādarśanam icchati (1. 4. 28); karmaņi ca yena samsparšāt kartuķ śarīrasukham (3. 3. 116).

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LECTURE III

THE TENSE IN PANINI*

In the parent Indo-European language as reconstructed in Linguistics the so-called tenses had no time significance at all. The time value of the tenses is a development in the several constituent languages after their separation from the parent stock. At the earliest stage of IE there seems to have been only two "tenses" and at the latest stage three; and they indicated the most predominant and general aspect of action indicated by the verb. At first these were Imperfective and Perfective "tenses", or aspects indicating respectively incomplete and complete action. At the last stage of IE the "tenses" were three : Present (earlier imperfective). Aorist (neutral or momentary and perfective) and Perfect (action identical with the state of the agent, or perfective with the result continuing). The present tense indicated action not completed, action repeated or action frequently happening. The agrist indicated either com pleted or momentary action. The perfect indicated action identical with the state of the agent, action outside the agent's control or action completed and its effect continuing. To give examples from Sanskrit.

Present gacchami 'I am in the act of going': 'I often go'.

Aorist agamam 'I have gone'.

Perfect jagama 'I am gone'.

There were many other aspects of the verb in Indo-European. Some became moods, some developed into special conjugational categories and rest, all indicated by

^{*}Third Lecture delivered on 13 March. 1970

distinct stem affixes, merged into the root itself. There was as yet no conception of time. There were words for night, morning, evening etc. but there was no word for time in the abstract. The primitive IE speakers conceived a past (or future) action only as action projected at a distance back (or forward) in their mental perspective.

A temporal implication was inherent in the meaning in the verb and was emphasied by the aspect or was conveyed by the context. Towards the end of the common Indo-European period an adverb (or prefix) was coming into use to indicate an action happening in the past. The use of this adverb (*e) was not universal and among the constituent languages only Greek and Indo-Ir anian have it.

In the final pattern emerging at the end of the IE period there were three "tenses", and there were four "moods" beside the indicative under each of the tenses. The moods were connected with the tenses mainly in regard to the formation. The moods have generally no time significance; they imply an attitude of the agent in regard to the action of the verb. For instance,

- Sanskrit : śrņu (present tense imperative mood). 'Pay heed.' śrudhi (aorist tense imperative mood). 'Hark !'
- Greek: *pine* (present tense imperative mood). 'Go on drinking.' *pie* (aorist tense imperative mood), 'Drink up.'

There had never been a future tense as a morphological category in IE nor in the constituent languages individually for a long time. The future tense in Sanskrit is an Indo-Aryan innovation. Futurity was expressed in IE by the subjunctive or the opertive-potential mood or by the context.

Panini treats the tenses and the moods together and he does not differentiate between the two.

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Panini's treatment is based on the IE conception as modified in course of development during a couple of thousand years or so.

Panini presents the tenses and moods mixed up in peculiar symbolic terms of his own. These terms all begin in l (and so they are known to the later grammarians as $la - k\bar{a}ra$) and end in t or \dot{n} .

Between the two consonants there is a vowel (a, i, u, e, or o) or the sonant r. Thus

lat stands for present tense indicative mood.

la'n	,,	,,	imperfect	,,	,,	,,
ในก่เ	,,	,,	aorist	,,	,,	,,
liț	,,	,,	perfect	,,	,,	,,
lin	,,	,,			optative (or	
					potential)	,,
leț	,,	,,			subjunctive	,,
loț	•,	,,			imperative	,,
lŗţ	,,	",	future	,,		
lŗ'n	*1	"	"	,1	imperfect	

Panini has no term for the grammatical category of the tense (and of course neither for the mood). $k\bar{a}la$ for "tense" was used for the first time by the author of $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}sya$ (e. g. katham vartamānakālatā "Why the idiom of the present tense ?). $K\bar{a}la$ occurs several times in the sutras of Panini and there it always means a stretch or period of time or occupied time and is therefore comparable to $sth\bar{a}na$ 'a spot, place, occupied space', Both words do not occur in the sense of temporal or spatial continuum or infinite expansion. In the later language $k\bar{a}la$ acquired the sense of infinite time but $sth\bar{a}na$ did never get that sense as there was already the word $\bar{a}k\bar{a}sa$. Two examples are enough to illustrate the sense of kala in Panini's sutras. $u-k\bar{a}lo'j$ hrasvadīrghaplutah (1. 2 27). The time taken to pronounce the short, the long and the prolonged u is a

vowel hrsva, (short) dirgha (long) and pluta, (extra long) $k\bar{a}lasamayavel\bar{a}su$ tumun (3. 3. 167). 'The affix—tum (is added) to indicated a period of time ($k\bar{a}la$), a fixed time (samaya) or a limit of time or daytime ($vel\bar{a}$).

What we now call the Tense and the Mood in Sanskrit grammar are indicated by Panini only by their peculiar formative process as well as by the distinctive personal endings. These terms contain the consonant l followed by a vowel (a, i, u, e, o) or by the sonant (r) and closed by le-, lo-, lr-, indicates the nature of the action (including a time colour if any) indicated by the verb stem, and the second element (t, \dot{n}) indicates the type of the personal affixes. La- indicates the formation of the stem as in the "present system" of Comparative IE Grammar and the sense of the action, a statement of fact (including continuity or historicity) is implied. Lu- indicates the formation of the stem as in the "aorist system" and the sense of the action as completed (with the implication of the past or without any "time" significance). Li—indicates tha formation of the stem partly according to la and partly according to lu and partly according to the "perfect system" of Comparative IE grammar. The sense of the perfective action with continuity of the result is generally implied. Le-, lo-, lrare new groupings : le-stands for the archaic subjunctives, (and injunctives) lo for the imperative and lr for the future. The final consonant indicates the type of the personal endings : \dot{n} for the secondary endings (-t,ta etc.) and t for the other endings including the primary (-ti te etc.) the perfect (a / e,etc.) and the imperative (-*tu-tam* etc.)

For the present tense Panini uses the term vartamana and his sutra is vartamane lat (3. 2. 123). The commentators beginning with the author of Mahabhasya take vartamane for vartamānakāle. But I have already mentioned that kāla was never used by Panini in the general sense of infinite or indefinite time. It can only mean when the nature of the action kriyā (prabandha or kriyābhāva) is vartamāna (turning round, revolving, happening again and again)' i. e. when the aspect of the verb presents a generality or habitualness. Therefore the present tense (laț) according to Panini indicated durative or habitual action. When it had to express an isolative or momentary action the adverb sma (IE *sme, from *sm, weak grade of *sem 'one once') was used optionally. The sutra laţ sme (3.2.118) is helpful in understanding the implication of vartamāna. Sma contradicts vartamāna, and so the sense of the past naturally comes in.

For the "perfect tense" Panini has two sutras. One is for the Vedic language and it comes under the jurisdiction of the preceding sutra $nisth\bar{u}$ (3 2. 102) which indicates that the following sutras are operative in the sense of settled or completed action. *Chandasi lit* (3. 2. 105) i. e. *lit* indicating action completed is peculiar to Vedic verse. The other sutra gives the general idiom of *lit*, and it does not come under the operation of the sutra $nisth\bar{u}$.

parokse lit (3. 2. 115) i. e. lit is used in (the sense of) paroksa.' In explaining this sutra the commentators have all gone astray. They take paroksa as meaning "outside the vision of the agent" and they interpret the sutra as being governed by the sutra nisthā (3. 2. 182). But paroksa may equally mean "beyond the direct perception or observation." Judging from the general use of the "perfect tense" or lit in Rigveda and taking into consideration the survival of lit (e. g. $\bar{a}ha$, veda) in spoken Sanskrit the real meaning of the sutra of Panini appears to be this: lit expresses that the action is beyond tangibility while its effect is perceivable. This was the idiom of the perfect tense in Greek and the idiom came down from Indo-European. In Rigveda the perfect (lit) is generally to be translated into English by the present tense, as is implied in two of the following sutras : lat sme (3. 2. 118) and aparokse ca (3. 2. 119) 'also when not in paroksa.'

According to Panini the "aorist tense (lun 3. 2. 110) implies completion of action as it comes under the sutra nisthā (3. 2. 102). So also the "imperfect tense" (lan). There is however a difference : lan is applicable when the action (kriyābhāva) does not belong to the present day (anadyatane lan 3. 2. 11). It may be noted here that the word adyatana (or śvastana etc.) has never been used by Panini but anadyatana occurs four times in the sutras (anadyatane lut (3. 3. 15) nānadyatanavat kriyāprabandhasāmīpyayoh 3. 3. 135; anadyatane rhil anyatarasyām 5. 2. 21).

Panini has no general rule for the "future tense" (lrt). First he prescribes it as an alternative idiom to lan when remembering etc. is implied. (abhijnāvacane lrt; na yadi; vibhāsā sākānkse 3. 2. 112-114). Then he prescribes alternative non-finite forms implying action in future (bhavisyati gamyādah 3. 3. 3) followed by yāvatpurānipatayor lat (3, 3, 4) prescribing lat as an alternative idiom (for lrtor nonfinite gamyadayah) when the indeclinables yavat or $Pur\bar{a}$ is used. Then eight sutras more or less connected follow. Then comes the sutra l_{rt} seese ca (3, 3, 13) " l_{rt} is optionally available for the remaining idioms (or other usages").

The terms vartamāna, parokša, anadyatana bhūta and bhavišyat are used by Panini as substantives in technical sense¹ (e. g. vartamānasāmīpye vartamanavad vā 3. 3. 131; āšamsāyām bhūtavac ca 3. 3. 132; bhavišyati gamyādayak 3. 3. 3). But these are originally adjectives and so they pose the same problem as anyatarasyām. What was the substan-

^{1.} These terms are technical for the purpose of syntax; the corresponding terms for morphology are *lat*, *lit*, *lan*, *lun* and *lrt* respectively.

tive understood here? I suggest it may be $kriy\bar{a}bh\bar{a}va$ or some such word (cf. $kriy\bar{a}prabandha$ and $kriy\bar{a}s\bar{a}m\bar{i}pya$ in 3. 3. 135).

Panini does not recognize the moods apart from the tenses. In Vedic there were modal forms for the three tenses present, aorist and perfect. The future tense also had started developing modal variation although the Vedic evidence for it is extremely meagre. In post Vedic language the modal forms that were current, all with a few exceptions, belonged to the present tense. So Panini treats the moods for the present tense only. The few survivals of modal forms for the other tenses (rather only one other tense, aorist) he has treated under the present, mentioning however their syntactical peculiarity (e.g. icchārtheșu linloțau 3. 3. 157; āśiși linloțau 3. 3. 173 etc.)· The subjunctive mood (let) which was common in the language of RV is dismissed by Panini in a couple of sutras (linarthe let 3. 4. 7 and upasamvādāśankayo's ca 3. 4. 8) where he equates the mood with the optative $(li\tilde{n})$.

The old injunctive mood was already disappearing in the language of Rig Veda having been confused with the aorist in the indicative and the subjunctive mood. A single idiom of the injunctive however survived throughout (even up to the end of MIA). Panini has noted it as a special idiom of the aorist indicative ($m\bar{u}ni$ lun 3. 3. 175).

Even in the Indo-Europeon period the injunctive mood had started to merge, morphologically into the imperative. A faint relic of the old injunctive mood as an amorphous verb form, surviving through the imperative is noted by Panini in two of his sutras devoted to the imperative :

 $kriy\bar{a}samabhih\bar{a}re loț hisvau v\bar{a} tadhvamau$ (3. 4. 2). 'In a group of concerted actions the imperative stands (for any tense) and the ending may be second person singular and Plural, both voices, (for any person)'. samuccye'nyatarasy $\overline{a}m$ (3. 4. 3). 'Optionally (so) when there is a series of actions'.

The real import of these two sutras is clear but the idiom is not very clear to us as no examples are available except the example manufactured by the commentators of Panini. The poet Māgha, following the grammarians, made use of the sutras in a verse in the first canto of the Śiśupālavadha:

> purīm avaskanda lunīhi nandanam muṣāka ratnāni harāmarānganāk | vigrhya cakre namucidviṣā balī ya ittham asvāsthyam ahardivam divak //

'(They) laid seize on the city; (they) cut down (the garden) Nandana; (they) looted the treasures; (they) carried away the women of the gods. Out of spite for Namuci the powerful one created havoc in heaven throughout day and night'.



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