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ŞAŢKHAŅŅĀGAMA AND ŚAURASENĪ

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1 Preamble

The discovery of the Satkhandagama, Kasayapanda, Maha-bandha and some other similar works of the Digambara Jaina canonical texts sometime in late thirties and forties is a remarkable contribution to the field of Prakrit studies. These texts are important from the point of view of the Prakrit language. There has been a consensus of opinion that the two groups of Jains have two sets of canonical literatures. For the Svetambara the 45 Agama texts as current among the community are in Ardhamagadhi and the Digambara canonical texts as reflected in the Satkhandagama and the others mentioned above are in Saurasenī. Whether this conclusion is true or false is not our concern. The fact is that the languages of both these groups of canonical literature are not exactly the same. There are certain features which are exclusively found in one and rarely in the others. As far as the Śvetāmbara canonical texts are concerned, it is the general belief that they are in Ardhamāgadhī. This does not mean that the Śvetāmbara texts are very near to Māgadhī as the name indicates. i.e. half Magadhi and half the others, but, in general, the characteristic features of Prakrit, or say Māhārāstrī, are also found there side by side with some other forms which are not regular in Māhārāstrī, but are available only in Ardhamagadhi. But in the case of the Digambara texts again there are certain forms which are not found in Ardhamagadhi texts, but are found exclusively in the Digambara canonical texts. However, one thing is very certain that whether it is Saurasenī or Ardhamāgadhī, or Māhārāstrī or Māgādhī, there are major forms which are very common to all types of Prakrit, except a few phonological or morphological variations which are normally regarded as nothing but dialectal features. For example, the Sanskrit word krta has several forms in Prakrit and each form has a distinctive feature with regard to a particular dialect, e.g. krta >kaa (Mah.), kaya (Amg), kida (Ś), kada (Mg). These variations are generally found in the respective dialects as enunciated by Prakrit grammarians. In case,

either in an Ardhamāgadhī or Śaurasenī text kada is found, it should neither be regarded as a Śaurasenī text, nor should it be treated as a sort of archaic Prakrit, rather it should be regarded as an editorial defect. This type of anomaly in an edited Prakrit text is profusely found, and as a result, we are at a loss to determine the language of a particular text. Let us explain this problem with particular reference to the Ṣatkhanḍāgama.

2 Prakrit and its dialects

In ancient India the three languages were prominent-Sanskrit, Pali, and Prakrit. Of these three languages, Prakrit is considered as the language of the common people. Without going into controversy about the origin of Prakrit which is either from Skt. or from natural one, it can be said that it was the language which the masses used to speak for their communications. Once it is accepted as a spoken language, it is quite natural then that the same Pkt. should be spoken by different people at different places in a different way, as it is the general nature of a spoken language. Naturally Pkt. was also fused into different dialects used by different people at different places. The names of these languages were given in accordance with the name of the place. As a result Pkt. spoken in the area of Magadha is known as Māgadhī, and that spoken in the area of Śurasena, is Śaurasenī, and that also of Mahārāstra is Māhārāstrī. Besides these, some names which are given because of the type of people speaking that language are Paiśācī, Prācyā etc. However, in this way gradually the same language is perhaps divided into some dialects which bear some characteristic features which are peculiar to one dialect, but absent in others, even though some overlappings between the dialects are not uncommon. Naturally some of the features of common Pkt. are found in almost all the Pkt. dialects as recorded by the grammarians. So whatever dialects it might be some common features are bound to be found in almost all the dialects, e.g. Skt. sakala > sayala in Pkt. and the same form is found in Mah. Sau. and Mg. and also in Amg., even though sometimes sagala is also found in Amg. The latter form i.e. sagala when it is consistently used in Amg., we can consider it as one of the additional forms of Amg. and in this way some additional characteristic features are generally added to some respective dialects which are supposed to be absent in others. Otherwise, the grammarians could have written several Pkt. grammars for several Pkt. dialects. Of course, we know at a later stage one Ardhamagadhi Vyākaraņa was written by someone, but this book does not mean that Amg. has something peculiar which cannot be justified by other grammarians. However, in a similar way, I do not know yet any

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grammar for Śau. Mg. or Paiśācī, except that in modern times some have composed some grammars on each dialect of Pkt. based on the modern outlook of linguistics. When some of the dialects became very prominent either because of their literature or of the political supremacy of a particular language in a particular area, some dialects got a chance in the recorded documents of Indian history. I am at present going to refer to those texts where the Śau. is found as one of the dialects of Pkt. With this background in mind let me proceed to ransack the literature where the features of Śaurasenī are mentioned.

3 Sources of Saurasenī

As far as we know the sources for the features of Śaurasenī are the Prakrit grammarians, Sanskrit dramas and some other literature, and the studies of modern Pra trit scholars on Śaurasenī. It is a fact worth noting that for the characteristic features of Śaurasenī, we will have to depend primarily on the Prakrit grammarians. These grammarians are Vararuci (5th/6th cent. A.D.), Hemacandra (1088-1172 A.D.), Puruṣottama (13th cent. A.D.), Kramadīsvara (13th cent. A.D.), Trivikrama (14th cent. A.D.), Lakṣmīdhara (15th cent. A.D.), Rāmasarmā (16th cent. A.D.) Mārkaṇḍeya (17th cent. A.D.), and many others. As all these grammarians belong to different times and places, their views are to be analysed and judged from the historical point of view.

The specimens of the Śaurasenī language can also be gathered from the Sanskrit dramas beginning from Aśvaghoṣa (1st cent. A.D.) down to Rājaśekhara (10th cent. A.D.).

The modern Prakrit scholars like Christian Lassen, Cowell, Pischel, Schmidt and many others have generally given the characteristic features of Saurasenī from the analysis of Saurasenī texts or passages. The fact that they have considered the text as a source of the Saurasenī passages is not generally questioned. But the point is how do we know that such and such are the features of Saurasenī? Here in this very context we should take the help of grammarians. The grammarians, from whatever sources it might be, have given some characteristic features of Saurasenī and other dialects or subdialects from which we definitely consider the features as genuine. Just as we have some traditions before us, so also the grammarians in those days had some authoritative texts before them. It is in this connection that we take the help of the grammarians for the features of respective dialects.

I think the Western Prakrit scholars have got the clue of this dialect

from the Sanskrit dramaturgical texts. As early as 3rd cent A.D. Bharata had mentioned the names of the languages to be spoken by such and such characters of the Sanskrit dramas. And as the ladies and the Vidusaka of the Sanskrit dramas will speak Saurasenī, the passages of Vidusaka and the ladies of the Sanskrit dramas are considered as Saurasenī. Naturally, the type of Prakrit found in their speeches are generally analysed as the language of Saurasenī. These passages, of course, do not go against what the Prakrit grammarians say in their respective treatises. As a result though their studies on the Saurasenī language is very elaborate, it does not practically overstate the case in point. What I generally mean by this is that though the modern scholars, except, perhaps, Pischel, have not consulted the Prakrit grammarians, but they, on the contrary, follow the Prakrit grammarians indirectly.

It is to be noted that Prakrit is the generic name for common man's language which is obviously different from Sanskrit or other languages at that time. Prakrit grammarians have generally given first the features of Prakrit. This Prakrit is more or less equivalent to Māhārāstrī. Except a few grammarians who have mentioned that they are going to describe the characteristic features of Maharastri (atha Mahārāstri), almost all the grammarians have never mentioned that they are describing the features of Maharastri, yet we do not see any difference between the features of the Māhārāstrī language on the one hand and Prakrit, on the other. As a result we generally come to this conclusion that Prakrit is the common generic name of the language and Māhārāstrī would be the language par excellence. When that equation is accepted then the features which are not common to Māhārāstrī, are considered as dialects, such as, Śaurasenī, Māgadhī, Paisaci and others. These dialectal features are also recorded by the Prakrit grammarians under different headings, sometimes, inter alia, in describing Māhārāstrī or Prakrit. The name Māhārāstrī is not very old. In Bharata's Nātyaśāstra the name Māhārāstri is not found, rather the name Daksinatya was used. Probably in the 3rd A.D. or before that, Mahārāstra was regarded as Dāksinātya, modern Deccan (cf Deccan Queen) rather than Mahārāstra. But the name Dāksiņātya was changed perhaps by the time of Dandin (7th c. A.D.) who in his Kāvyādarša (I.33) has mentioned that the poems written in Māhārāstrī is the best (mahārāstrāśrayām bhāsām prakrstam prākrtam viduh). Perhaps from that time onwards Maharastri became popular and got a place in the ancient languages of Prakrit. However, the basic point is that the grammarians have recorded the characteristic features of such and such Prakrit which should not be ignored when we consider the features of subdialects of Prakrit. Naturally our starting point of

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getting the features of Śaurasenī would be the Prakrit grammarians on the one hand and the modern Western Prakrit scholars, on the other.

While considering the language of the Ṣaṭkhaṇḍāgama we shall see how many of the features given by the grammarians are found in the text. And as such we shall be discussing whether the texts edited by scholars are on a par with the Prakrit grammarians. Here in this connection a problem is raised which is very fundamental and at the same time important for the language of the texts. The problem is how far the Prakrit grammarians are to be accepted against the manuscript of a particular text. The problem is obviously a difficult one to settle at this stage of our knowledge, yet let me start the problem afresh.

4 Saurasenī Literature

Before considering the language of the Ṣaṭkhaṇḍāgama, it will not be out of place here, I suppose, to give a brief survey of the Śaurasenī literature considering that the Ṣaṭkhaṇḍāgama is written in that language.

The starting point of Prakrit, as it is, at least, historically recorded. is reckoned as the time of Lord Mahāvīra who is supposed to have flourished in the 6th /7th c. B.C. It is said that Mahavira preached his doctrine in the then common man's language which was later on known as Ardhamāgadhī. In the Samavāyānga-sūtra it is said that Mahāvīra preached his doctrine in the then common man's language which was Ardhamāgadhi for the understanding of the masses. As a result, when the doctrines of Mahāvīra were codified by the 5th cent. A.D. by Devardhigani Ksamā-Śramana at Valabhi, the language as represented in the 45 Agama texts, is, therefore, considered as Ardhamāgadhī on the basis of the statement found in the Samavāyānga-sūtra. After the establishment of the two schisms of the Jains, i.e. Śvetāmbara and Digambara, it was found that these 45 Āgamas were only accepted by the Śvetāmbaras, while the Digambaras have doubts about the contents of these texts. To them the codification of Mahāvīra's doctrine is embalmed in the Drstivāda which is, of course, lost. Anyway when in 1939 the Satkhandāgama was published, it was immediately reckoned that this text was the text of the Digambara canon. And subsequently some other texts of the Digambara canon were also discovered and published. It was also said by the learned editors that the language of all these Digambara canonical texts was in Sauraseni, because some of the features of Sau. are found there. It was also decided that in the 1st cent. A D the

Digambara text was first codified and then was lost, and some of these lost texts are nothing but the present *Ṣaṭkhaṇḍāgama*, *Kaṣāyapāhuḍa*, *Mahābandha*, and others. These are regarded as Digambara Jaina canonical texts and these texts are the earliest ones which are discovered, of course, very lately.

After these Digambara canonical texts the most important writer of non-canonical text is Kundakunda whose works, such as, *Samayasāra, Niyamasāra, Pravacanasāra, Pañcāstikāya* and so on are in Śaurasenī. And the date of Kundakunda varies from the 1st to the 3rd c. A.D., some even have gone down to 5th c. A.D, but not beyond that. It is not quite certain that in the 1st c. Śau. was predominant or not, but if the Digambara canonical texts were codified in the 1st c. A.D. then it was quite a good guess to supose that in the 1st c. A.D. Śau. was current.

To the first centuries of the Christian era also belonged Vațțakera and Kārttikeya Svāmī. Vațțakera wrote his *Mulācāra* and *Trivamācāra* in Prakrit, or say, in Śaurasenī, and so also the *Kaţţigeyānupekhā* of Kārttikeya Svāmī. According to Pischel (§ 21) these works are written in Jaina Śaurasenī.

It is also believed that the *Tiloyapaṇṇatti* of Yati Vṛṣabhācārya (bet. 6-8 centuries A.D.) is also written in Śaurasenī.

Though the date is not certain, yet it is said that the *Bhagavati-* $\bar{A}r\bar{a}dhan\bar{a}$ of Śivārya containing about 2170 (or 2166) verses, a pretty lengthy text, is also written in Prakrit or say, in Jaina Śaurasenī. "The Prakrit dialect shows", says A.N. Upadhye in his *Brhat-kathā-koṣa*, "close affinities with the Ardhamāgadhī canon on the one hand and with the works of Kundakunda etc. on the other; and the commentaries explain certain queer forms as $\bar{a}rsa$ " (p.55). As regards the date of Śivarya or the *Bhagavatī-Ārādhanā*, Upadhye further says that "the Bh. Ā. belongs to the earliest stratum of the Pro-canon of the Digambaras consisting of the works of Vaṭtakera, Kundakunda etc. It is quite likely that Śivārya might be senior even to Kundakunda, but we have to await further researches." (p. 55).

Besides these books, there are some works where the specimens of Śaurasenī are found. In the 8th century, in the Samarāicca-kahā of Haribhadra Sūri (bet. 705 and 775 A.D.) there are some specimens of Śaurasenī. "The "Samarāicca-kahā is written in prose with inserted verse passages of varying length (usually in the $\bar{A}ry\bar{a}$ metre). The language is Jaina Māhārāṣṭrī. In the verses it does not differ from the dialect used generally in Jaina-Prākrit, in the prose it is mingled here and there with peculiarities of Śaurasenī (*History of Indian Literature*, Vol-II, p. 525).

At a much later period, there are some works written in many Prakrit dialects. Dharmavardhana's (about 1200 A.D.) Şadbhāsānirmita-Pārśva-jina-stavana and Jinapadma's (1325-1344 A.D) Şadbhāsā-vibhūsita-Śāntinātha-stavana are poems written in six languages of which Śaurasenī is one, besides Sanskrit, Māhārāstrī, Māgadhī, Paisācī and Apabhramśa.

The Śau. literature that we find next is the Skt. dramas. All the Skt. dramatists have given some passages in Śau. representing some types of characters according to the Skt. dramaturgy. Beginning from Aśvaghosa (1st c. A.D.) or Bhās (1st c. A.D), 'Śūdraka (2nd c. A.D), Kālidāsa (5th c. A.D) and many others have given many Śau. passages in their respective dramas and these passages are good examples of the Śau. language and most of the Śau. features are generally found in these Skt. dramas. These dramas came down upto 10th c. A.D. The only Pkt. drama written in Śau. is the *Karpūramañjarī* whose language is a controversial one.

Beyond these three categories we do not have any direct evidence of Śau. literature. But, on the contrary, we find some of the language specimens in some other contexts also. In the Inscriptional Prakrits beginning from Aśoka (3rd cent. B.C) down to the 5th c. A.D. or even later than that, some of the characteristic features of Śau. are, of course, found in the Ins. Pkt., but these features do not mean that those inscriptions are in Śau. The point is that a literature written entirely in Śau. is practically not found after Kundakunda, but for the study of the Śau. Ig. some inscriptional and dramatic Pkts. can be consulted besides Kundakunda and the Digambara canonical literature.

In this connection it should be mentioned that there is a difference between the dramatic Sau. and the canonical one. In most of the canonical literature the uniformity of the Sau. lg. is not maintained. As a result, those irregularities are considered as archaic forms and naturally they justify them by calling them the oldest specimens of canonical language. Anyway for my present study this much is sufficient to say that before considering the language of the Ṣaṭkhaṇḍāgama, let us see how many of the Sau. characters are preserved in the Ṣaṭkhaṇḍāgama.

Before discussing any other linguistic problem, it is better to give some of the linguistic features of the Ṣaṭkhaṇḍāgama to see in which dialect it is written, or whether it is written in Sauraseni or not.

5 The Features of Saurasenī

The characteristic features of Śaurasenī as given by Hemacandra and other Prakrit grammarians mentioned above are generally considered as features of Śaurasenī. This does not mean that the features which are not found in Prakrit grammars should not be considered at all as features of Śaurasenī. Every dialect has some peculiar features which are absent in the others. Most of the featues of Māhārāṣṭrī or Prakrit being common to all types of Prakrit dialects, will also be considered as features of that dialect. Whether such and such features are features of such and such dialects depends solely on the basis of Prakrit grammars. As a result, the Prakrit grammarians have only described those features which are very distinctive in a particular dialect. Here in this dissertation I will discuss the features of Śaurasenī as found in the Prakrit grammars of Vararuci, Hemacandra, Puruṣottama and others to see whether these features are found in the Ṣaţkhandāgama.

Phonology

(i) Intervocalic -t- changes into -d-.

All the Prakrit grammarians have said that the intervocalic nonconjunct -*t*- becomes -*d*- in Śauraseni; in other words, medially *d* is allowed in Śauraseni, e.g. tatah > tado (Ś), yatah > jado (Ś); $t\bar{a}tah > t\bar{a}do$ (Ś). In this way examples can be multiplied.

Normally this feature of Śaurasenī is found in almost all the Śauraśenī passages of the Sanskrit dramas. But there are some supposed Śaurasenī texts where this rule is violated, i.e. instead of *tado* we also come across *tao*, and this type of example is a disturbing one for which the Śaurasenī passages are mutilated.

It should be noted that the basic difference between Saurasenī and Māhārāstrī with regard to this particular point is that this intervocalic -d- in Saurasenī is never elided, whereas in Māhārāstrī it is generally elided. The elision of intervocalic -d- in Sau. should generally be regarded as wrong editing. In most of the cases this type of wrong editing has forced scholars to believe that even in Saurasenī this intervocalic -d- is often elided. That this intervocalic -d- is never elided has some evidence also from the grammarian Hemacandra. While describing the ablative declensional endings of the Māhārastrī Prakrit, Hemacandra has made the sūtra—nases-tto-do-du-hi-hintolukah (Hc.III.8.) and in the *vrtti* of this sūtra he has made a remark that 'dakāra-karaṇaṃ bhāṣāntarārtham' which simply means that the inclusion of -d- in the sūtra [of Māhārāṣṭrī] is to indicate that

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this -d- is retained in some dialects [say, in Śaurasenī]. And this simple instance of Hemacandra is sufficient enough to prove that wherever in any sūtra of Hemacandra we come across a rule of intervocalic -d-, that -d- must not be elided in a dialect, say, Sauraśenī. In all these cases the evidence of manuscripts is not a strong proof to accept the reading in Śaurasenī with the elision of -d-. So if any text is full of this type of readings (where this type of elision is found) that text should be considered as erroneous, because this is against the principle of grammar or linguistics.

In the Satkhandāgama both the elision and retention of intervocalic -d- are found.

ii) Intervocalic -th-, -dh- changing into -dh-.

In a similar way another phonological feature which is strong enough to make Śaurasenī distinct from the others, is the sound *dh*. In Śaurasenī, the intervocalic *-dh-* is retained. This is not elided, nor is it reduced to *-h-* as is done in the case of Māhārāṣṭrī. Not only that, even the *-th-* is changed to *-dh-* in Śaurasenī cf. $t\bar{a}th\bar{a}>tadh\bar{a}$ (Ś); kathayati>kadhedi (Ś) and so on.

This rule of Śaurasenī is very often violated. In most of the editions of Śaurasenī texts, if not all, this sort of confusion is regularly found. In this regard scholars are divided into two : one group of scholars thinks that the retention of *-dh-* or *-th-> -dh-* is not as such a very distinctive feature of Śaurasenī. To them *-dh-* and *-h-* are mutually interchangeable. As a result in most of the texts where Śaurasenī passages are found this type of interchanges between *-dh-* and *-h-* are also found. The other group is of opinion that the retention of *-dh-* and the change of *-th-* into *-dh-* are distinctive features of Śaurasenī, and as such, this should be retained in the text. As a result, this group of scholars wants to correct the Śaurasenī passages where *-h-* is retained by changing it into *-dh-*.

In the works of Kundakunda and even in the Ṣaṭkhaṇḍāgama this phenomenon is found. And naturally scholars do not categorically say that this is not possible in Śaurasenī. Though it is difficult to remove this sort of traditional belief, scholastic approach should be free from any kind of dogma.

If we look at the problem historically we can say that this retention of -dh- and the change of -h or -th- into -dh- is definitely a distinctive feature in Saurasenī. The country Surasena was situated in the midland (Madhyapradeśa) which is regarded as modern Mathura. In

this particular area the Vedic language had great influence and in Vedic language -dh- is retained in many places where in classical Sanskrit -h- is found, e.g. classical iha > Ved. idha > \hat{S} . idha, Cl. kathayati > Ved.* kadhayati > S. kadhedi, > As kadhati and so on. Though this retention of -dh- in an intervocalic position in Asokan inscriptions situated at different places is not uniform in this particular feature, we can only assume that this Vedic feature which was retained in Saurasenī dialect has a sort of pan-Indian development even in later inscriptional Prakrits. This intervocalic -dh- is also found in many inscriptions other than those situated very near to Mathura. And in the early Sanskrit dramas, particularly in the Mrcchakatika and Bhāsa, this feature is prominent. Obviously, the later the Sanskrit dramas the better the preservation of this feature. This short survey of the retention of -dh- in ancient Surasena land is sufficient to say that the retention of intervocalic -dh- in Sauraseni is one of the dominant features. At a very later stage there was a controversy with regard to the language of a Prakrit drama Karpūramanjarī by name. Let me discuss the problem of this drama in this particular case.

The language of the Karpūramanjari is a controversial one. Some say that it is entirely written in Saurasenī, Rājaśekhara being a man of Sūrasena, it was quite possible for him that his drama should bear the stamp of the Sauraseni language. The other type of scholars thinks that the prose passages of the Karpūramañjarī are written in Saurasenī whereas the verses are in Māhārāstrī. The main pioneers of this problem are the two scholars-Manmohan Ghosh and Sten Konow. The edition of Sten Konow's Karpūramañjarī was published in 1902 in the Harvard Oriental Series. Though the edition is excellent, full of copious variant readings, his edition bears two types of language, one is Saurasenī and the other one is Māhārāstrī. Sten Konow has retained the Māhārāstrī features in verses and the Saurasenī features in prose passages, sometimes against the evidence of the manuscripts. Sten Konow has consulted several manuscripts, about 10, of which W manuscript represents the Saurasenī features even in verses. Sten Konow has not accepted them in the main body of the text, e.g. the very first verse of the Karpūramanjari is given in Māhārāstri even though his W manuscript has Sauraseni features as well. e.g. Sten Konow reads bhaddam hou where W manuscript has bhodu and Y manuscript has hodu. Though hodu is a hyper-prakritaisation, the bhodu reading is supported by the Prakrit grammarians. S. Konow has not accepted that, but he has given these variants in the footnotes. This has been done throughout his text. The loss of intervocalic -t- is found in the verses where it should be -d- according to the

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prescription of Saurasenī. This edition had some influence for a long time till the appearance of Manmohan Ghosh's edition in 1938 published by the University of Calcutta.

Ghosh, on the contrary, has given the features of Saurasenī both in verses and in prose passages. In his opinion, Rājaśekhara must have written the Karpūramanjari in Sauraseni. As a result, he has corrected all the Maharastri features of the verses into Sauraseni, of course, in the support of new manuscript designated by him as A which he thinks is akin to Sten Konow's W. On the strength of these two supporting statements, Ghosh has edited the Karpuramanjari all through in Saurasenī. In this connection we may note that even though Ghosh has a bold step over Sten Konow to make his text full of Sauraseni, he could not maintain his gusto till the end. Almost in the 4th act and in part of the 3rd, he could not maintain the Saurasenī features even in the verses. Whether Ghosh's unique manuscript was mutilated at the end or whether the manuscirpt is incomplete for this incongruity, is not easy to ascertain at this moment, particularly when Ghosh himself is not explicit in this regard. Be that as it may, one main point of difference between the two may be that Sten Konow was perhaps goaded by the influence of Sanskrit dramaturgy which says that the songs in Prakrit should be in Māhārāstri, the idea which Sten Konow might have extended to the verses as well. Whatever may be the reason between the two, it is pretty certain that scholars who follow either edition will be guided by the reading of that edition, and therefore, there cannot be any reconciliation among the scholars. But one thing is sure that whether it is Maharastri or Sauraseni the characteristic features of both the languages are maintained throughout. There is no intermixture between Sauraseni and Māhārastri in the same passage.

But the edition of Kundakunda who is supposed to have written in Śaurasenī is not uniform as far as the editions are concerned. Both -dh- and -h- are found in any one of the editions of Kundakunda; and not only this, even in the same verse this -dh- and -h- are interchanged, even though the manuscripts do not always support it. As a result, what happens scholars who are not familiar with the Prakrit grammars or even the linguistic principles maintain that both are found or possible in Śaurasenī. The same confusion is also found in the Ṣaṭkhaṇḍāgama. I do not know whether the manuscript contains this confusion or the editor himself is responsible for this confusion. In either case, in my opinion, it should be rectified or corrected in accordance with the rules of grammar or linguistics.

(iii) Treatment of kș in Śaurasenī.

Among the conjuncts the development of Sanskrit ks seems to be a little peculiar to Saurasenī. According to Hemacandra (II.3) ks has three developments in Prakrit : ks > kkh; ks > cch; and ks > jjh. Among these three developments modern scholars normally think that the development of ks into kkh is one of characteristic features of Saurasenī, e.g. pakṣa > pakkha. But initially kkh is not doubled, e.g. kṣamā > khamā.

But as far as the other developments are concerned they are generally sporadic. There is hardly any definite line of demarcation where ks should be *cch*, e.g. *maksikā* > *macchiā* > Beng. *māchi*. This development seems to be quite regular in the case of eastern region. And the same word is developed into *kkh* in the western region, e.g. *maksikā* > *mākhiā* > *mākhi*in Marāṭhī. Because ks develops into *kkh* in the western region, it is normally suggested that the development of *ks* into *kkh* is normally found in the western region and that into *cch* in the eastern region. And as a result, *ks* changing into *kkh* must be one of the dominant features of Māhārāṣṭrī rather than Śaurasenī. But Pischel and Woolner think that *ks* > *kkh* is a feature of Śaurasenī. In that case it can be said that Māhārāṣṭrī has borrowed this feature from Śaurasenī.

But the development of k; into jjh does not seem to be a very regular one, e.g. in the case ojjhara < Skt. avakṣara is a glaring instanceof Māhārāṣṭrī. So also <math>kṣīṇaṃ > jhīṇaṃ. In the Kasāyapāhuḍa the forms jhīṇamajhīṇaṃ occurs in the passage—payaḍīe mohaṇijjā. vihatti taha ṭṭhidīe aṇubhāge ukkassamaṇukkassaṃ jhīṇamajhīṇaṃ ca ṭṭhidiyaṃ vā (verse 22). In the Jayadhavalāṭīkā the form jhīṇaṃ is not explained. This development is mostly found in the Māhārāṣṭrī dialect. In fact the examples of this development are not very many.

Coming back to the development of ks into kkh we can say that this development is equally found both in Māhārāstrī and Śaurasenī, with this exception that Māhārāstrī's other two developments (*cch* and *jjh*) are not found in Śaurasenī, at least, in the Śaurasenī passages of Sanskrit dramas. Whether *kkh* was a regular development either in Śaurasenī or in Māhārāstrī is a matter of speculation. Supposing this development is in either language, we can say that one has borrowed this development from the other, and as in most of the cases Śaurasenī passages have only one development, i.e. *kkh*, scholars might have accepted this development of *k*s into *kkh* as a feature of Śaurasenī. So, Śaurasenī, being in the midland, has influenced both

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Māhārāṣṭrī on the one hand and Māgadhī on the other. We also find kkh in Māgadhī.

To sum up from the above discussions, we can say that kkh is the normal development of ks, while the other two developments (i.e. *cch* and *jjh*) are sporadic and are also confined to Māhārāṣṭrī only. In the case of Māgadhī either is possible, though kkh is the dominant one.

Coming back to the Ṣaṭkhaṇḍāgama it is found that this book has only kkh and not the other one.

(iv) The retention of bh in the root $bh\bar{u}$ in Saurasenī.

The root $\sqrt{bh\bar{u}}$ has several forms in Prakrit, depending on the dialects. In Māhārāstrī the root $\sqrt{bh\bar{u}} > \sqrt{h\bar{u}}$ and then \sqrt{ho} (a gunated form) to which the personal terminations are added, making it hoi, hosi, homi etc. Though initially bh does not become h as per rules of aspiration in Prakrit, in the case of $\sqrt{bh\bar{u}}$ it is an exception. But in Saurasenī this bh of the original Sanskrit root is not changed into h as in Māhārāstrī. So the Śaurasenī forms will be bhodi, bhosi, and bhomi. These forms of Māhārāstrī and Śaurasenī are very regular. In the case of Saurasenī, Hemacandra (IV.269) has optionally accepted hodi, hosi, homi as well. This form i.e. bh>h in Sauraseni is not regular even though we find this usage in literature. There are other two forms of the root $\sqrt{bh\bar{u}}$ which are also accepted both in Māhārāstrī and Sauraseni, e.g. from Skt. bhavati we have havai in Maharastri and bhavadi and havadi (HC. IV. 269) in Sauraseni. There are other forms as given by Hemacandra both in Māh. and Śau. as Māh. huvaï, Śau. huvadi, so also bhuvaï in Māh., bhuvadi and huvadi in Śau. To speak frankly the base bhava or bhuva or hava and huva are of later origin than hu or ho. We can call these forms hyper-prakritisation directly from Sanskrit, or in other words, it is Sanskrit based form in Prakrit. The reasons of the development of these forms are not known to us, except that they are developed out of metrical necessity, and so we find these bhuva or huva, bhava or hava used mostly in poetry rather than in prose. Now if a manuscript reads bhuvadi or huvadi, bhavadi or havadiand its corresponding mansuscript reading is bhodi or hodi, I personally prefer the latter readings to the earlier ones, provided it does not disturb the metrical necessity.

In Kundakunda's works we come across more bhuva or bhava, huva and hava, rather than bhodi. The form hodi is, of course, also found there. In the Niryukti the forms havaï and bhavaï are more frequent than bhuvaï and huvaï. To my mind it appears that these forms are not very much regular in Pkt. they are the later tendencies and these have crept into the manuscripts by the copyists who were perhaps influenced by their knowledge of Sanskrit as it is done today.

In Skt. dramas, of course, the form *bhodi* is more frequent than *hodi*, even though they are more or less used side by side.

In the Ṣaṭkhanḍāgama we do not come across very often bhodi or hodi, but in the commentary, the form bhodi is more conspicuous than the form hodi. However, unless a statistical account is made we are not sure whether bhodi supersedes the hodi. In the Kasāyapāhuḍa the forms hodi, havadi and homti (pl) are found. To me it seems that they are not regular forms in Śaurasenī.

Here perhaps a comment on the forms of hodi, bhuvadi, havadi is necessary. The inclusion of these forms by Hemacandra seems to be historical rather than a genuine characteristic feature of Sau. We have come to this conclusion on the basis of the fact that these forms are also available in Mg. Sau. being a language in the midland, it has perhaps influenced Mg. as well. While, on the contrary, these forms have come down to us from the influence of Mah. as well. As Hemacandra has made a special sutra for the root $\sqrt{bh\bar{u}}$ which becomes bha (bhuvo bhah IV. 269) in Sau., it appears that if that is not the dominant feature of Sau., Hemacandra could not have made this sutra at all. The optional forms based on hu is in a sense a loan from Mah. However, my main intention of mentioning this is to emphasize this point that the genuine Sau. form of the root $\sqrt{bh\bar{u}}$ would be bho with usual suffixes. As in the Satkhandāgama as well as its Dhavalā the occurrence of the form bho, bhodi etc. is found side by side with ho, hodi, the Satkhandagama and Dhavalā have also the features of Saurasenī.

That in the initial position Sau. retains the sound *bh* is also proved by the fact that the words *bhavat* and *bhagavat* also become *bhavam* and *bhagavam* in Sau (*bhavad-bhagavatoh*, IV. 265) where Hemacandra has not suggested any other alternative forms with *havam* as in the case with the root $\sqrt{bh\bar{u}}$. So all these points lead us to this conclusion that in Sau. the retention of initial *bh*, particularly in the root $\sqrt{bh\bar{u}}$, is more logical and historical than the other forms with *hu* or *ho*.

(v) Changes of ry to yy

According to Hemacandra (IV.266), in Śau. *ry* is optionally changed to *yy*, and naturally the usual change of *ry* to *jj* is also found in Śau. e.g. ārya> ayya, also ajja, kārya> kayya, kajja, sūrya> suyya, sujja.

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A careful perusal of all these examples will immediately reveal the fact that the change of ry to yy cannot be a pure Sau. form. As j is changed into y in Mg. (Hc. IV. 292) and therefore ry is also assimilated to yy in Mg. whereas the change of y into j is found in Māh. as well as in Sau. So it seems that this character of Sau., i.e. ry changing into yy is a loan from Mg., because that is one of the dominant characters of Mg. So Sanskrit $\bar{a}rya > M\bar{a}h$. Sau. ajja, and Mg. ayya. Though Hemacandra has given this rule in the case of Sau. this is in fact a Mg. rule as is known by his sūtra (Hc. IV. 292). The picture is given below :

In Pkt., or for that matter in Māh, the initial y is changed into palatal j (Hc. I. 245) e.g. yadi > Pkt. jaï; yama > jama and so on. But when it is in the middle position this ya is generally elided in Māh. (Hc. I. 177) and is again replaced by ya-śruti. (Hc. I. 180), e.g. samaya >samaa > samaya.

Apparently it seems that perhaps medially -ya- is not elided; but that is not the case. In Sau. also the same form occurs. But in Mg. this -ya- is not as such elided, but is retained. This is mostly evident in the case of conjuncts. In conjuncts ry is normally assimilated to jja(<* rj). e.g. $\bar{a}rya$ > ajja; $k\bar{a}rya$ > kajja. The same form is also found in Sau. But in Mg. as there is no j, it is assimilated to yy, e.g. $\bar{a}rya$ > ayya; $k\bar{a}rya$ > kayya. Naturally there is no scope of ry > yy in Sau. unless we accept that it is a loan from Mg.

In the Sau. passages of Skt. drama the assimilated form jj of ry is found. Whereas in the Mg. passages yy is found. In the works of Kundakunda the form jj is found, and the form yy should be regarded as badly edited texts in Saurasenī.

In the commentary on the Satkhandāgama the forms are mostly found with jj and not really with yy, unless it is mistakenly incorporated into the text.

Morphology

(vi) Declension — ablative singular in du/do.

In the case of declension, Sau. has not got as such any peculiarity except in the abl. sg. of *a*- base. In this particular case the retention of *a* is normally found, i.e. from Skt. *narāt* we have *narādu* or *narādo*, while *narāu* and *narāo* will be in Māh. This peculiarity can be justified by the general rule that in Sau. the intervocalic -*d*- is retained. And hence Hemacandra has made a sūtra of the abl. sg. as *nases tto do du hi hinto luka*h(III. 8) where in his *vrtti* he has said *dakāra-karaŋaṃ* *bhāṣāntarārtham* and by *bhāṣā* he, of course, primarily means Śau. and perhaps secondarily Mg. where also the same form occurs.

However, this feature as such occurs in the Satkhandagama and is in general governed by the general rule that the intervocalic -t-> d- in Saurasenī.

(vii) Vocative in ā or am.

But in the case of Skt. words ending in -n, in Sau. this -n-becomes optionally - \bar{a} in the voc. sg. (Hc. IV. 263), e.g. Skt. bho kañcukin> Sau. bho kañcuiā; bho sukhin> Sau. bho suhiā; this one seems to be a special rule for Sau. in voc. sg. of words ending in -n. In other case n is dropped in the words ending in -n e.g. Skt. bho tapasvī >Sau. bho tavassi; so also bho maṇassi. This means that the general Māh. form of voc. sg. of words ending in -n is used in Sau. but the present rule ending in - \bar{a} in the voc. sg. is a special rule for Sau.

There is no example of this type of rule in the main body of the Ṣaṭkhaṇḍāgama, because there is no such scope in the work. But in the case of words ending in -n or a- base the anusvāra takes place in place of -n in the voc. in Śau. (Hc.IV.264), e.g. Skt. bho rājan> Śau. bho rāyaṃ, similarly bho vijayavarman > Śau. bho viayavammaṃ; sukarman > sukammaṃ. In a similar way we have examples in literature like bho bhagavan kusumāyudha> bho bhayavaṃ kusumāyuha; and so also bhayavaṃ titthaṃ pavatteha.

In all these examples the words ending in *-an> -am* in the voc. do not seem to be a very peculiar feature of Sau., even though grammarians admit that *bhagavan* could have been equally *bhaava* also. This shows the influence of Māh. on Sau. However, as far as the *Ṣaṭkhaṇḍāgama* is concerned there is no such example in the work.

(viii) Pronominal declension — tasmat > ta.

In the pronominal declension according to the grammarians (Hc.IV.278) the Skt. form tasmat > ta in Sau. e.g. ta java pavisami; ta alam edina manena and so on.

In the sutra of the atkhandagama the form $t\bar{a}$ from tasmat is not met with.

(ix) Future in -ssi.

Apart from this, the grammarians (Hc. IV. 275) say that in Sau. the ending -ssi is added in the future tense instead of -hi as in the case of Māh. eg. bhavissidi, karissidi and gacchissidi.

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It is a fact worth noting that according to Hemacandra (III. 167) the -ssa is used in Māh. and this is an extension to Sau. which shows that the other forms of Māh. is not possible in Sau. If this statement of Hemacandra is correct we can say that the special rule -ssi for Sau. must be compulsory and peculiar to the Sau. language.

We could not find any example of the future form of Sau. with this -ssi in the Ṣaṭkhaṇḍāgama.

(x)The formation of gerundial suffix-ktvā

In the formation of the gerundial suffix, Śaurasenī has again some peculiarities which are different from others. According to the grammarians (Hc.IV.271) the gerundial suffix in Śaurasenī, is *-iya*, and *-dūna*. Of these two the suffix-*dūna* is pure Śaurasenī, while the suffix-*iya* is a loan from Māh. As the suffix *-iya* does not contain any *-d*, it is possible that it could be used in Śau. as well, e.g. $\sqrt{bh\bar{u}} > bhavia$, bhodūna, and havia, hodūna, so also pațh> padhidūna, padhia; $\sqrt{ram} > randūna$, ramia. A glance at these examples will reveal the fact that as Śau. retains *-d*-intervocally the forms with *-dūna* should be a recognised one for Śau. while the others are Māh. or Pkt. in general. There could be another formation of gerundial form both in Śau. and Māh. This form is nothing but the assimilation as *-tvā* > *-ttā*. This shows that the gerundial forms with *-d* is more important for Śau. than the other forms. So the roots mentioned above have other forms as well, say bhottā, hottā, padhittā and rantā.

But in the case of \sqrt{kr} and \sqrt{gam} we have some special forms (Hc. IV. 272) besides the suffixes mentioned above. From \sqrt{kr} we have karidūņa and karia, gacchidūņa/gamidūņa, and gacchia/gamia. Besides these forms we have another suffix with *-ua*. So we have from \sqrt{kr} kadua and from \sqrt{gam} gadua. The Pkt. grammarians have called all these forms a special case in Sau. To my mind it appears that kadua and gadua are forms of Mg. as Mg. \sqrt{kr} +kta> kada and \sqrt{gam} +kta> gada. So also \sqrt{mr} +kta> mada. (Vara XI.15) And these forms are not used in Sau. Naturally it appears that the gerundial suffix *-ua* is added to these Mg. forms of \sqrt{kr} , \sqrt{gam} , and \sqrt{mr} . So it appears to me that the Sau. forms of these kadua and gadua are nothing but transferred to Sau. from Mg. and just as we have kadua in Mg. and Sau., so also $k\bar{a}\bar{u}\bar{n}a$ or kariūna in Māh.

So if a text contains the forms *kadua* and *gadua* there is no reason to consider them as special case of Sau. We could say only this much, as it does not disturb the language, there is no harm in accepting or removing these forms at the time of collation of manuscripts. In most of the Sanskrit dramas the forms kadua and gadua are found in the Mg. passages, whereas in pure Sau. text karidūņa, gamīdūņa or gacchīdūņa are found.

In the case of the atthandagama the form does not occur in the sutra of the text. But in the commentary *Dhavalā* the forms used are with -dana rather than with -ia. However, if the forms with da is found, it is, of course, a Sau. dialect, but other than this should be regarded as common forms of Pkt.

(xi) Indeclinables

In some indeclinables Sau. has some peculiarities. We are giving these peculiarities on the basis of Hemacandra. e.g.

idānīmo dāņim (IV. 277).

In Śau. the word idānīm (now)> dāņiņ, e.g. aņantara-karaņīyaņ dāņiņ āņavedu ayyo.

These examples of this sūtra can be found only in the case of dramas. It is difficult to get an example of *dāņim* in the Ṣaṭkhaṇḍāgama as it is a philosophical text.

evārthe yyeva (IV. 280).

In the sense of eva meaning 'indeed', 'in reality' the particle eva >yyeva in Sau. eg. mama yyeva bambhanassa, so yyeva eso.

These examples of this sūtra can also be found in Skt. dramas rather than in the Satkhandāgama.

ṇaṁ nanvarthe (IV. 283).

In Śau. ṇaṃ is used in the sense of nanu i.e in the sense of doubt or question etc., e.g. ṇaṃ aphalodayā, ṇaṃ ayyamissehiṃ puḍhamaṃ yyeva āṇattaṁ, ṇaṃ bhavaṃ me aggado caladi.

The examples given by Hemacandra are from the Skt. dramas mainly from the Abhijñāna-śakuntalam and Mrcchakațikam.

It is a fact worth noting that in Jaina canonical literature, particularly in the prose portion, this name is used as a sort of emphatic, eg. jayā nam, tayā nam, etc. But in the Ṣaṭkhaṇḍāgama, particularly in the main sūtras of the text, this name is not used, but in the commentary Dhavalā it is found profusely.

(xii) Interjections.

In the case of interjections there are some words which are peculiar

to Sau. Hemacandra in his Pkt. grammar has mentioned some of them. e.g.

hañje cețyāhvāne (IV. 281).

In Sau. (as used in the Skt. dramas) hañje is used in calling a maid-servant (ceți). e.g. hañje cadurike.

As it is generally used in Skt. dramas, its usage in the Satkhandāgama is not as such possible.

hīmāṇahe vismaya-nirvede (IV. 282)

In Śau. the word hīmāņahe is used in order to indicate a surprise or dejection. e.g. hīmāņahe jīvanta-vacchā me jaņaņī (in surprise); hīmāņahe palissantā hage edeņa niyabidhiņo duvva vasideņa (in dejection).

ammahe harse (IV. 284)

In Sau. the word ammahe is used in the sense of delight. e.g. ammahe eae summilae supaligadhido bhavam.

hī hī vidūsakasya (IV. 285)

In Śau. in order to indicate the delight of the Vidūṣaka the particle hīhī is used, e.g. hīhī bho sampannā manoradhā piya-vayassassa.

In these two above cases it is seen that the examples of these two sūtras can only be found in the Skt. dramas. Naturally it is difficult to get any example of these sūtras from the Ṣaṭkhaṇḍāgama.

In the end we may say that the above analysis has given us this impression that whether the language of the Ṣaṭkhaṇḍāgama is Śaurasenī or not, it is mixed up with other Prakrit dialects, and this is also said by Hiralal Jain in the Introduction to his edition of the Ṣaṭkhaṇḍāgama: "The present work (i.e. Ṣaṭkhaṇḍāgama) consists of the original sūtras, the commentary of Vīrasena called *Dhavalā* and the various quotations given by the commentator from writings of his predecessors. The language of the sūtras is Prakrit and so also of the most of the quoted Gāthās. The prose of Vīrasena is Prakrit alternating with Sanskrit. In the present portion Sanskrit predominates, being three times as much as Prakrit. This condition of the whole text clearly reflects the comparative position of Prakrit and Sanskrit in the Digambara Jain literature of the south. The most ancient literature was all in Prakrit as shown by the sūtras and their first reputed commentary *Parikarma* as well as all the other works of Kundakunda, and also by the preponderance of Prakrit verses quoted in the *Dhavalā*. But about the time of Vīrsena the tables had turned against Prakrit, and Sanskrit had got the upperhand as revealed by the present portion of Dhavalā as well as its contemporary literature."

"The Prakrit of the sūtras, the Gāthās as well as of the commentary, is Śaurasenī influenced by the older Ardhamāgadhī on the one hand, and the Māhārāṣṭrī on the other; and this is exactly the nature of the language called Jain Śaurasenī by Dr Pischel and subsequent writers. It is, however, only a very small fraction of the whole text that has now been edited critically so far as was possible with the available material."

6 Manuscript vs Prakrit grammarians

It is at this point a controversy is raised with regard to the problem of manuscript vs Prakrit grammarians. From the time the Europeans started editing Prakrit texts, this question got its prominence. As far as I know T. Bloch in his Vararuci und Hemacandra (Gütersloh, 1893), was the first scholar who raised this question while discussing some of the readings of the sutras of Vararuci and Hemacandra. In his opinion the reading of the manuscript should be given priority despite the fact that it goes sometimes against the grammarians. He further says that there has always been a historicity in the different manuscripts of the same book which might reflect earlier usage of a particular reading preserved fairly in a chronological order. Naturally he has given priority to certain readings of Vararuci which he thinks are older specimens of the language than Hemacandra. Pischel, on the other hand, is of different opinion. In his book Grammatik der Prakrit Sprachen (Stuttgart, 1900, § 42) he has attached much more value to the grammarians than the manuscripts. He has not ignored the readings of manuscripts, but what he says is that the manuscripts should be corrected, if necessary, in accordance with the rules of Prakrit grammar. The glaring instance of his theory is the Pkt passages of Kalidasa's Sakuntala which he has corrected in accordance with the rules of Hemacandra. This is greatly seen in the 6th act of the Śakuntalā particularly in the Māgadhī passages of the fisherman. As the manuscripts of that passage is corrupt and not inconformity with the rules of Prakrit grammar, he has corrected them in accordance with the rules of Hemacandra's Prakrit grammar. In short, Pischel has not totally ignored the manuscripts, but his emphasis is on the correctness of the text. At a much later time E.B. Clark in his article Māgadhī and Ardhamāgadhī published in the JAOS, 44, 1924, pp. 81-121, has reiterated this problem. But he could not find out any

ways and means by which a solution could be found. However, the problem has been going on. And again almost after a century I have discussed the problem anew. In one of my articles *Prakrit Textual Criticism* published in *Jain Journal*, January, No. 3 1988, pp.87-97, what is noted there is being summarised here for the benefit of the readers.

"The basic problem is whether the grammarians or the manuscripts are to be followed. It is not easy to answer this question, particularly when most of the scholars think that any kind of linguistic phenomenon is possible in Prakrit. Perhaps, under the tacit influence of this so-called idea, some of the Prakrit forms have been incorporated in some editions which sometimes baffle and betray some of the basic notions of the Prakrit language including dialects as enunciated by Prakrit grammarians. It is true that Prakrit grammarians are not very old, and most of the authors belonged to a time when the Prakrit language was almost stereotyped like Sanskrit. As a result, the Prakrit features as embalmed and treasured up by the grammarians vary from author to author, except a few general forms which are common to all; the variations are such that it is difficult to follow any particular reading from the manuscripts. The copyists are not always learned, more so, they may not have any knowledge or a very limited knowledge of the language, and hence every possibility of making mistakes. The phonetics of the language is not always regular. Sometimes the copyists add something to the manuscripts to improve upon the text".

"It is my personal feeling that some sorts of *emendations* are necessary to edit a Prakrit text—if the manuscripts of a particular text do not help us much." It goes without saying that the original readings of the text must be recorded as variants in the foot-notes. "It is, indeed, very difficult to form direct cut and dried principles for this purpose, unless we base our arguments on some principles by which grammarians are involved in the matter."

The main reason for which I have discussed the problem here is to say that if the readings of a Prakrit text do not always conform to the rules of grammar as laid down by the Prakrit grammarians, it is then very difficult for us to follow any definite rules for a particular Prakrit text. Moreover, most of the Prakrit texts, if I am permitted to say so, are corrupt from the point of view of grammatical rules. More so when it is a question of Prakrit dialect. So is the case with the language of the Ṣaṭkhaṇḍāgama and other similar Prakrit texts like Kasāyapāhuḍa, Mahābandha, Tiloyapaṇṇattī, Kundakunda's works and so on. In the Kasāyapāhuḍa, the Sanskrit word prathamārdhasya has two Prakrit forms as *paḍhamaddhassa* and *paḍhamatthe* in a few pages gap. Which one is to be considered as the Śaurasenī form ? The *paḍhamatthe* can be derived from *prathamārthe*, but it has a different reading *paḍhamaddhe*. What I want to emphasize is that sometimes in the edited texts we might often get a wrong or irregular form of a language, e.g. Skt. *kartavyā>* Ś. *kāyavvā*, Skt. *nikṣitavyā>* Ś. *nikkhiyavvā*, and as far as Śaurasenī is concerned, these forms are not regular, they should be corrected as kādavvā and nikkhidavvā.

The reading arihantanamis a puzzling one. It has three readings; arahantānam, arihantānam and aruhantānam. In the Hātigumphā Inscription of Khāravela at Udayagiri Hill in Bhubaneshwar belonging to the second or first century B.C., the reading arahantanam (namo arahamtānam namo sava-sidhānam) is found. This is, perhaps, the earliest written document where the reading arahantanam is available. Then the reading ariha- was developed in Prakrit from Sanskrit arha (cf. Hemacandra, rha-śri-hri-krtsna-kriyā-distyāsvit, II. 104). So also we have the reading arihantanam (gen. pl); and this reading is mostly found in almost all the Jaina texts, canonical and non-canonical. Then, in course of time, before Hemacandra (1088-1172 A.D.), the reading aruha- was also developed (cf. Hemacandra, uccārhati, II, 111). I have seen this reading in the foot-note of the recently published text of Bhagavatī-joḍa (1981) by the Jain Vishva Bhārati Institute. Thus far is all right as far as the development of the Sanskrit word arha in Prakrit is concerned.

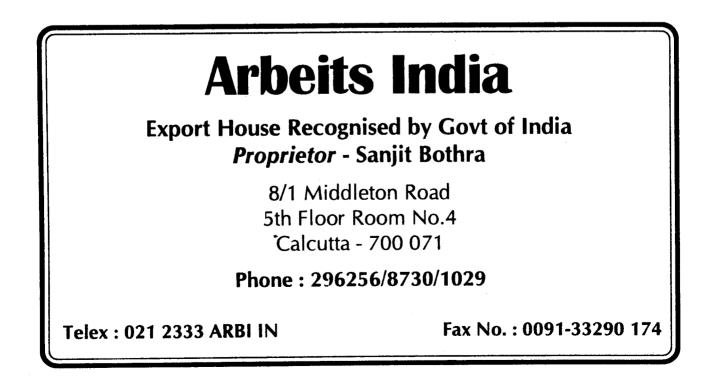
But the difficulty is – in some texts published by the same Institute or edited by the same scholar, the two readings - arahantanam and arihantāņam are found. For example, in the Ṣaṭkhaṇḍāgama edited by Hiralal Jain the reading arihantanam is accepted, but in the Somasundara-cariu of Nayanandi (samvat 1100) edited by the same scholar, Hiralal Jain (1970, Vaisālī), the reading of the namokkāramantra is arahantanam and not the other one. It has no variant in the foot-notes. If we consider his reading as correct, then we can say that the arahanta- reading was also prevalent in the samvat 1100. In the Bhagavati-joda of Jayacarya, published by the Jain Vishva Bharati (1st edn 1981) we have two readings side by side. In the Prakrit namokkāra-mantra, the reading arahantāņam is found, but in the dūhā (58) the reading is namo-arihantāņam (parameṣṭhī pamcaka 'namo-arihantāṇaṇi' āda). In the foot-note of this verse, the editor has mentioned that according to the vrttikāra, there are various forms of arahanta of which arihantāṇaṃ and aruhantāṇaṃ are variants. Again in duha (61) the reading arahanta is given. What I want to emphasize from all these discussions is that before editing a Prakrit text, a conscious editor should formulate some editorial disciplines, so that there could be a consistant and coherent readings of a Prakrit text, no matter what the manuscripts say.

7 Conclusion

From the above survey it appears that some of the features of Pkt. are restricted to Sau. This means that the rest of the features of the language are to be collected from Mah. or Pkt. in general. Hence, all the grammarians have said that the rest of the features of Sau. are to be collected from Pkt. in general. (sesam Präkrtavat Hc. IV.286, sesam Māhārāstrīvat, Vara XII.32). Naturally some of the features are common to both Mah. and Sau. It is in this connection we see some of the lapses in the Sau. lg. and it is in this connection we have some misunderstandings in describing the characteristic features of Sau. Hence we find confusions between t and d, between h and dh, and between Māh. and Mg. where the influence of both the languages is possible on Sau. The corruption in the manuscripts is another reason which also puzzles us in order to determine the features of Sau. As the grammarians have restricted some features exclusively to Sau. it should be our duty to adhere to those rules which are exclusively meant for Sau.; the other features being the same with Mah. we have no alternative to relying on the grammarians. In this particular case manuscript may not be a dependable source for detecting the features of Sau. As most of the scholars do not pay much attention to the fact that the Sau. lg. has some distinctive features which are basically the retention of intervocalic d and dh, and at least, these 2 features are exclusively meant for Sau. even though manuscripts sometimes betray this conception. If we could have got the autographed manuscript of the author we could have thought of this matter in a different way. As the copying of the manuscripts has been handed down to us from generation to generation the reliability of the lg. is vitiated rather than copying correctly the manuscript from the other. This fact should not be ignored when a Pkt. text is edited from manuscripts. By this process, perhaps, somebody might say that this means the mutilation of the manuscript, but it should be considered at the same time that the wrong representation of the lg. does not lead us to the correct understanding of the text. Grammarians normally register some facts of the lg. which the writers of a particular book is supposed to know. When the lg. is current and spoken there might be some words which are not included in the books of grammar, but those can be judged from the linguistic point of view, whether that sort of form is possible or not, e.g. the Skt. word padma has at least 3 forms in Pkt. paduma (Sau), paüma (Māh.), and põmma (Amg). Of these 3 forms, both

historically and linguistically, the form paduma originated first. And from paduma the Mah. word pauma comes, because in Mah. the intervocalic -d- can be elided, but not in Sau. and hence paduma is Sau. because of the retention of intervocalic -d, and paüma is Māh. because of the loss of intervocalic *d*-. In the case of *pŏmma* which is mainly found in the Amg. text the form is an assimilation of -d to m, again following the sūtra of the grammarians (cf. Hc. II. 77). That is to say, padma > 'paümma > pŏmma (by euphonic combination of a + u). Psychologically in the formation of this word 2 things are operating : first, the form pauma has influenced the word in making it pau and secondly, the assimilation of dm occurs. These 2 processes occur simultaneously and as it is not a regular form and at the same time used in the Amg. text, the word is regarded as $\bar{a}rsa$ (something like irregular) and hence Amg. (because it is found in the Amg. text). This process should be taken into consideration when we see that some words are irregularly formed.

The main point of my emphasis is that although overlappings or lapses are possible in lg., particularly in Pkt., this must be corrected as far as possible with the help of grammar and linguistics. This is the case particularly when we think of a text written in Sau. It is the editorial discipline that makes the text a better representation than mere adhering to the blind allegiance to manuscript copying. If this distinction is not maintained, then there cannot be any features of any lg. at all. There would not be any conception of dialects in Pkt.



A PRIMER OF ŚAURASENĪ

with a comparison between Māhārāṣtṛī and Māgadhī For use in readings for lectures

compiled

by

Richard Schmidt

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Preface

[3] I am not alone to feel the want of a handy manual of Śaurasenī by far the most important of prose dialects of the Indian drama. Who would ever base the works (surely for their period very valuable) of Hoefer or Lassen?. Or who would have the courage to guide his hearers through the primeval forest of Pischel's grammar ? Even a specialist, who is, indeed, accustomed to all sorts of fares sees himself, in all respects, in this stupendously diligent and fundamental work to which he is constrained to pay heed confess that Pischel's treatise is nearly not to be perused. The overwhelming fullness of materials in sheer discriminationless types squeezed into 400 pages and more makes the hunt for a single form agonising: the book is a typographical Hydra which is repelled by the head definitively notwithstanding the index prepared by Wickremasinghe.¹

Now, it is self-evident that the advanced student will soon need to be acquainted with one or the other of the dramas and if he at all entertain any serious endeavour he must rest contented with reading the Prakrit portions merely with the help of their $ch\bar{a}y\bar{a}s$ but will be also expected to be led into the understanding of the dialects *per se* as well. The present manual would serve that purpose. I have drawn up and worded it in such a cryptic, concise manner, and as its title [4] gives out the principal stress has been placed upon Śaurasenī. Of the other dialects occurring in Indian dramas we have Māhārāṣtrī and Māgadhī considering that habitually *Śakuntalā* will be studied, at least, by its chief divergencies.

For those who would like to make an intensive study of the Prakritspeeches I am giving here a list of the most important and pertinent works:

- 1. Bhāratīyanātyaśāstra ed. Kāvyamālā No. 42. (XVII, 6-23).
- 2. Cowell, *The Prákrita-Prakāśa:* or, The Prákrit Grammar of Vararuci, with the Commentary (Manoramā) of Bhámaha. Second Issue. London 1868. (1. Ausgabe Hertford 1854).
- Hemacandra's Grammatik der Pr\u00e5kritsprachen, herausgegeben, übersetzt und erl\u00e4utert von Richard Pischel. I Teil Halle 1877. II. Teil Halle 1880.
- 4. The Pāiyalachchhī Nāmamālā, a Prakrit Kosha by Dhanapāla. Edited with critical notes, an introduction and a glossary by Georg Bühler. Göttingen, 1878.
- 1. With this naturally a contradiction does not arise, if I say, that Pischel with his grammar has produced a really fundamental work, on which my modest Handbook thoroughly rests.

- 5. Hoernle, *The Prākrita-Lakshanam* or Canda's Grammar of the Ancient (*Ārsha*) Prākrit. Part I. Text with a critical introduction and indexes, Calcutta 1880.
- 6. *The Deśināmamālā* of Hemacandra. Part I. Text and critical notes. By R. Pischel. Bombay, 1880.
- Namisādhu's Kommentar zu Rudraţa's Kāvyālamkāra II, 12 (ed. Kāvyamālā No. 2, Bombay, 1886).
- 8. Kramadīśvara, *Prākṛtapāda* ed. Rājendralāla Mitra, BT.; neue Ausgabe Kalkutta, 1889.
- Trivikrama, Prākrtavyākarana. Ed. Granthapradaršanī 1-Dazu Tukaram Laddu, Prolegomena zu Trivikrama's Prākrit-Grammatik, (Diss.) Halle a.d. S. 1912.
- Prākritarūpāvatāra. A Prakrit Grammar based on the Vālmikisūtra by Simharāja, Son of Samudrabandhayajvan. Edited by E. Hultzsch. London 1909.
- Mārkaņdeya Kavīndra, Prākrtasarvasvam, ed. Bhaţţanātha Svāmin (-Granthapradarśanī Heft 34-38, Vizagapatam, [5] Februar-Juni 1912).-Dazu E. Hultzch, Neue Beiträge zur Kenntnis der Śaurasenī, ZDMG 66, p. 709-726.
- 12. Hoefer, Albert, De Prakrita dialecto libri duo, Berolini, 1836.
- 13. Lassen, Christianus, Institutiones linguae Pracriticae, Bonnae ad Rhenum, 1837.
- 14. Delius, Nicolaus, Radices Pracriticae, Bonnae ad Rhenum, 1839.
- 15. Haag, Vergleichung des Prakrit mit den Romanischen Sprachen, Berlin, 1869.
- Cowell, A Short Introduction to the Ordinary Prākrit of the Sanskrit Dramas, with a list of common irregular Prākrit words, London, 1875.
- 17. Hoernle, A.F. Rud., A Sketch of the History of Prakrit Philology. Calcutta Review, October, 1880.
- 18. Weber, Albrecht. Das Saptaçatakam des Hâla AKM VII, 4. Leipzig, 1881.
- 19. Rishikesh [Hṛṣīkeśa] Sastri, A Prakrita Grammar with English Translation, Calcutta, 1883.
- 20. Jacobi, Hermann, Ausgewählte Erzählungen in Mâhârâshţrî. Zur Einführung in das Studium des Prâkrit. Grammatik. Text. Wörterbuch. Leipzig, 1886. [Dazu : Hindu Tales. An English Translation ... by John Jacob Meyer. London, 1909.]
- 21. Pischel, R., Grammatik der Prakrit-Sprachen. Straβburg, 1900.
 (-Grundriβ der ind.-ar. Phil. I, 8).

For the examples, it is to be noted that almost always only the actually recorded ones have been admitted, ^o above denotes that the concerned word so runs in Māhārāsti also, as in Śaurasenī, while *indicates agreement with Magadhi. M. and Mg. are abbreviations for Māhārāstrī (the language of Mahārāstra, the Marhatta country of today) resp. for Magadhi, the language of Magadha, S for Sauraseni. When the sign ^owill be occasionally used for a marker of abbreviation, it will be always clear from the context, what is meant. The same is valid for *which is sometimes added to Sanskrit forms in order to inform [6] an apparent equivalent form though not the expected one; for ex. naia (*nayiya=nītvā). Forms which do not have any supplement (S, M or Mg.) are Sauraseni, where several examples from one dialect are given, these are separated by commas, while a semicolon separates dialects. Thus nagada, M nagaa (nagata); necchadi etc., means that nagada the Sauraseni form, nagaa is that of Māhārāstrī; necchadi is then again Saurasenī.

Somewhat more than an elementary knowledge of Sanskrit is presumed. The Indian grammarians also do that -- those who have written on Prakrit which is only reasonable.

prakrtih samskrtam; tatra bhavam Prākrtam ucyate.

Münster W., 24, Sept. 1914 (may it be so)

Richard Schmidt.

PHONOLOGY

[7] 1. Śaurasenī, the language of Śurasena with its capital at Mathurā, has the sound repertory of Sanskrit, lacking, however, in r, \bar{r}, l, ai, au , simple *n*, and further *y*, ś, ș, h as also the single voice-less consonants. [Likewise in M, Mg. though Mg. has *y* resp. *yy* at the beginning of words, retains ś in resp. changed from *s* and *s* into ś, and instead of *r* there stands l throughout].

r becomes *a* for ex. in taņa (tṛṇa), M. ghaa, kaa (ghṛta, kṛta); most frequently becomes *i*; *ghida, *kida, °kisa, *giddha, °diṭṭhi, ° siāla, ° hiaa (ghṛta kṛta, kṛśa, gṛddhra, dṛṣṭi, śṛgāla, hṛdaya); particularly after labials it becomes u : ṇihuda M. ṇihua (nibhṛta); ṇivvuda, M. ṇivvua (nirvṛta); pucchadi, M. pucchai, Mg. puścadi, (pṛcchati); °muṇāla (mṛṇāla); mudaṅga, M. muiṅga Mg. midaṅga (mṛdaṅga); vuttanta (vṛttānta). Similarly before the suffix ka in jāmādua, M. jāmāua (jāmātṛka); bhādua (bhrātṛka).

Initial r becomes either ri as in ^oriddhi (rddhi), ^orikkha (rkṣa), risi [Mg. liśi] (rṣi) beside isi : mahesi, ^orāeśi (maharṣi rājarṣi) or u : udu, M. uu (rtu); ujju (rju). [\bar{r} correspondingly changes into \bar{i} or \bar{u} , however, illustrative example is lacking]

l becomes ili : °kilitta (klpta).

ai is changed to e: ^oErāvaņa (Airāvaņa), ^o*tella¹ (taila), ^ovējja (vaidya), not to ai (Pischel § 61) as in M. daicca (daitya).

au becomes o, very seldom aŭ in M. : °Kosia (Kauśika), orasa (aurasa); °osaha (auṣadha), komudī, M. komuī (kaumudī); Kosambī (Kauśāmbī), °jŏvvaṇa') (yauvana), °dŏbballa (daurbalya); pora, M. paŭra, Mg. pola (paura)

[8] n always is changed to $n : {}^{o}na$ (na), ${}^{o}naana$ (nayana). It remains unchanged in consonant groups like nt, nd : pěkkhantu (preksantām), cando (candrah).

y falls out in intervocalic position : °*hiaa (hṛdaya), °*chāā (chāyā), °*pia (priya)

ś and ș become s : °kesa, °pusu, °sisira, °esa, °sesa (keśa, paśu, śiśira, eṣa, śeṣa)

In Mg. as already stated s and s become ś, ś by itself is retained: keśeśu (keśeșu), śalila (salila), śahaśśa (sahasra); see however § 8 !

ah becomes o : 'aggado (agratah), rão (rāgah), nioo (niyogah).

In Mg. in the Nom. sing, there is e for it : ese pulise $(e \neq o [e \neq a] puru \neq a h)$.-- The treatment of $\overline{a}h$ ih etc. as much as of medial h see § 9 as in accidence.

In the final position only the *vowels* and *anusvāra* are permitted (but cf. § 3 at end); therefore end-consonants fall out : $^{\circ}t\bar{a}va$, pacchā [Mg. paścā and paścādo] (tāvat, paścāt).

2. The rest of the vowels and diphthongs become, in general, retained. $a \bar{a}$ become (indeed only apparently) \check{e} in $\check{o}\check{e}\check{e}ttha=atra$, corresponding to the Vedic *itthā* and in $\check{o}\check{m}\check{e}tta$ (*mātrā*); *u* appears as *a* in *maülida*, M. *maülia* (*mukulita*); *u* as *i* in $\check{o}purisa^2$, Mg. *puliša* (*puruṣa*); *u* as *o* in pŏkkhara (*puṣkara*), Mg. *poskaliņī* (*puṣkariņī*) $\check{o}m\check{o}tt\bar{a}$ (*muktā*).

A part of or final vowels sometimes appears before in between the parts of a consonant group : °siņeha (sneha); radaņa, M. raaņa, Mg. ladaņa (ratnā); pēkkhia, Mg. pēskia (prekṣya); kilammadi, M. kilammai (klāmyati); °kilanta (klānta); Mg. kośiņa (koṣṇa); °coria (caurya); °āmarisa, Mg. āmaliśa (āmarṣa); tuvaradi, M. tuvarai, Mg. tuvaladi (tvarate); duvāra, Mg. duvāla (dvāra); °duve (dve).

An initial vowel falls out particularly in enclitics : *pi [after

Doubling of the consonant, as is often found also elsewhere (cf. Pischel § 90)

According to Mārkaņdeya ix, 9, this form for S. is false and should run as purusa.

anusvāra], °vi [after vowels] for api; °dāņim (idānīm). At the beginning of the sentence avi resp. stands idānīm.

aya becomes *e* in verb forms as in *nedu³* (*nayatu*); M. kahei, Mg. kadhedi (kathayati); — ava becomes *o* : odaradi [9] (avatarati); M. oāra (avatāra); Mg. odala (avatara), ^onomāliā (navamālikā); *bhodī M. hoi (bhavati).

A long vowel in a closed syllable becomes shortened : ^okavva (kāvya); ^ogimha (grīṣma); maṃsa (māṃsa); also in cases like ^oputtāṇaṃ (putrāṇām), ^omālaṃ (mālām) ^osahiṃ (sakhīm). Just as e and o before double consonants — jĕvva, jŏvvaṇa (eva, yauvana) — as also before kkhu (=khalu) and tti(=iti); for ex, asamaĕ kkhu (asamaye khalu), mahantŏ [Mg. mahantē] kkhu (mahāntaḥ khalu), bamhaṇŏ tti (brāhmaṇa iti). Besides, there is khu after anusvāra and *kkhu after a short vowel: mā khu (mā khalu), kiṃ khu, M. taṃ khu (tat khalu); ṇa kkhu (na khalu). In M. after all vowels khu becomes hu : na hu, mā hu, ko hu; but Mg. śĕ kkhu (sa khalu), āadā khu (āgatā khalu). — tti also stands after short and long vowels : esa tti (eṣā iti), duhida tti (duhitā iti), Kandappakeli tti (Kandarpakelī iti); ti stands after anusvāra : kiṃ ti (kim iti). Like that in M.

eva after short vowels and e, o (which then become shortened) becomes jjeva or jjëvva, Mg. yyëvva; other long vowels remain retained; jëvva or jeva stands after ansusvāra : for ex. ajjassa jjëvva (āryasya eva); idha jjeva (iha eva), muhë jjeva (mukhe eva), idŏ jjëvva (ito eva); tadhā jeva (tathā eva), devī jeva (devī eva), tam jëvva [jeva] (tam eva). -- Mg. mama yyëvva (mama eva), damśaantě yyěvva (darśayanto [=darśayann] eva), dīśantī yěvva (drśyamānaiva).

3. **Sandhi Rules.** In compositions similar vowels as in Sanskrit become contracted; so $a \bar{a} + a \bar{a}$ become ${}^{0*}\bar{a}$, i, $\bar{i} + i \bar{i}$ become ${}^{0*}\bar{i}$; $u \bar{u}+u \bar{u}$ \bar{u} become \bar{u} , whereby before consonant group or double consonants there must, happen shortening : *jammantare (janmāntare)*. -- $a \bar{a} + a$ dissimilar vowel gives rise, as in Sanskrit the *guna* of the second vowel : 0 mahesi from mah \bar{a} + *isi (=maharși)*. One takes note of cases like M. gaïnda (gajendra), narinda; Mg. nalinda (narendra); 'mahinda (mahendra), nīluppale (nīlotpala) 0 mah \bar{u} sava (mahotsava)

 $i \bar{i} u \bar{u}$ remain unchanged before a dissimilar vowel as a Rule[10]: santiudaa (sāntyudaka), Uvvasīakkhara (Urvasyakṣara), M. rattīandhaa (rātryandhaka).

Udvrtta-vowels i.e. such as remain left after the fall of consonants, do not admit of any further change : *jaï (yadi)*, not *je*; ${}^{o}gaa (gaja)$, not $q\bar{a}!$

Inside of sentences the final and the initial vowels usually remain

3. But jaadu (jayatu): see § 26, 1. paragraph.

unchanged, only the negative ņa (na) is an exception:^oņatthi. Mg. ņasti (nāsti); ^oņāham (nāham); ņāgadā, M. ņāgaā (nāgatā); ņĕcchadi, M. ņĕcchaï, Mg. ņĕścadi (necchati). Mark mamovari (mamopari), M. sahasāgaassa (^ogatasya).

Ending n and m become anusvāra : "bhavam (bhavān), "iam (iyam); m can, however make a samdhi with the following vowel, when metri causa short syllable is requisite. Cf. S. 27, jettiam ihantaram tettiam imānam

4. **Initial consonants** remain (exceptions, naturally are $n y^4 \pm s^5$) unchanged; only in a compound they are mostly treated as medials with the exception of the initials of verbal roots after prefixes with final vowels which are often retained : *ajjaütto* (*āryaputral*), but *ākaņņido* (*ākaņital*); M. bhamcraüla (bhramarakula), *āiņņa* (*ākirņa*). Note that 'adha iņ (atha kim), °', ciņ uņa (kiņ punar) etc., further dāva (tāvat) and de (te) after vowels and anusvāra : cițiha dāva; Mg. cișiha dāva (tiṣṭha tāvat); 'evvaņ dāva (evaņ tāvat); suțihu de (ṣuṣthu te), sāadaņ de (svāgataṃ te); Mg. tado de (tatas te), evvam de (evaṃ te).

5. **Medial consonants.** k, g. c. j. d. y fall out intervocally : ⁰*loa, aņurāa, ņārāa, ⁰'gaa, ⁰'maaņa, ⁰'vioa (loka, anurāga, nārāca, gaja, madana, viyoga); ț>ḍ: kaḍaa (kaṭaka); t>d: gadā (gatā), in M. it falls out : raaa (rajata); p and b become v: pāveņa (pāpena), M. āava (ātapa); ⁰kalevara (kalebara), ⁰'kavala (kabala), 'savara (šabara); Mg. śivila (śsibira).

kh, gh, dh, ph, bh become h: ^omuha (mukha), ^omeha (megha), ^omahu (madhu), ^omuttāhala (muktāphala), [11]^oahiņava (abhinava); ṭh, th become resp. dh, dh : kaḍhiṇa (kaṭhina), Mammadha (Mammatha), but M. Vammaha (so also Mg. in the verses with initial changes).

6. **Consonantal groups** are separated by means of a participating vowels (see § 2) or it is assimilated (customarily) the first consonant with the second. Thereby there appears initially barring quite a handful of exceptions [for ex. mhi = asmi], only a single consonant : pia (priya), and not ppia. Permitted groups are : 1) double consonants : ^oratta (rakta); 2) a consonant + its aspirate : ^okapphala (katphala); 3) nasal + the consonants of the corresponding class : ^oaccanta (atyanta); 4) the groups nh, mh, lh : ^ocinha (cihna), ^obamhana (brāhmana), ^opalhatta (prahlasta). In Mg. is yet found (partly doubtful) the group yyh, sk [?], skh[?], sc, st [?], sth [?], sth [?], sk, skh, st, st, sp, sph, hk (consequently jihvāmūlīya+k): niyyhala (nirjhara), suška beside suska (suska),

^{4.} becomes j : jadhā, M. jaha (yathā); in Mg. it is retained : yadhā.

^{5.} Mg. keeps ś, and changes ș, s into ś.

dhaņuśkhaņda beside dhanus^o (dhanus^o), puścadi (prcchati), kaśta [?] (kaṣṭa), kośṭhāgāla [?] (koṣṭhāgāra), haśta [?] (hasta), iśthiā [?] (itthiā = strīkā), maskali (maskarin), paskhaladi (praskhalati), kasṭa (kaṣṭa), hasti (hastin), śaspa (śaṣpa), nisphala (niṣphala), paḥka (pakṣa) cp. §81 !

kt becomes tt : ratta (rakta); kth becomes tth : rittha (riktha); kp>pp : vappadi, M. vappaï (vākpati); gdh>ddh: °duddha (dugdha); gbh>bbh: °pabbhāra (prāgbhāra); ţk>kk: chakka (ṣaţka); ţc>cc : chaccaraṇa (ṣaţcaraṇa); ţt>tt: chattala (ṣaţtala); ţp>pp: °chappaa (ṣaţpada); ţph>pph: °kapphala (kaţphala); dg>gg: °chagguṇaa (ṣaḍguṇaka); dj>jj: sajja (ṣaḍja); [dd>dd: chaddisim (ṣaḍdiśam)]; dbh>bbh: chabbhua (ṣaḍbhuja); [dv>vv : chavvīsaṃ (ṣaḍviṃśati)]; tk>kk: M. ukkaṇṭhā (utkaṇṭhā); balakkāra, Mg. balakkāla (balātkāra); tkh>kkh : M. ukkhaa⁶ (utkhāta); tp>pp: 'uppala (utpala); tph>pph : °upphulla (utphulla); Mg. upphāla (utphāla); dg>gg : °mŏggara (mudgara); dgh>ggh: ugghāda, M. ugghāa (udghāta); db>bb: ubbandhia (udbandhya); M. [12]bubbua (budbuda); dbh>bbh: °ubbhaḍa (udbhaṭa); pt>tt : °sutta (supta); bj>jj : °khujja' (kubja); bd>dd : °sadda (ṣ́abda); bdh>ddh : °laddha (labdha).

Double consonants mostly remain unchanged when it is the question of a final sound of the same class, for ex. *datta* in personal names. In Mg. tt>st: *pasta* (*patta*), *bhastālikā* (*bhattārikā*). Stenzler writes in his edition of *Mrcchakatikā* st: for ex. *bhastāka* (*bhattāka*). According to Pischel (§ 271) st is to be written.

Nasal + consonant remains preserved : ^osanhalā (śrnkhalā), ^omanjarī, ^okantha, ^okhanda, ^oanta, ^ojambū. But it is written ^odimmuha (dinmukha), ^opamti (pankti), ^oViņjha (Vindhya), ^osanjhā (sandhyā), because in these cases the original nasal comes out of its class. — nj in Mg. becomes nn : annali (anjali), Dhananna (Dhananjaya).

n, n assimilate themselves with the foregoing consonants : M. rugga (rugṇa); ^oaggi (agni), ^ouvvigga (udvigna), ^osavattī (sapatnī).—jī>ṇṇ [Mg. ñī : avañīā (avajīā), initially ņ : ^opaṇṇā (prajīā), ʿāṇavedi (ājňapayati), km>pp : Ruppiņī (Rukmiņī); gm>gg: ^ojugga (yugma).—ātman has N. sg. oʻappā, otherwise the stem runs ʿattā,—nm>mm: ^ojamma (janma); mn>ṇņ: Pajjuṇṇa (Pradyumna).

7. Groups with semivowels.

a) ky>kk: Cāņakka (Cāņakya); khy>kkh: °sökkha (saukhya); gy>gg:
 ^ojögga (yogya); cy>cc:vuccadi (ucyate); M. muccai (mucyate); jy>jj;jujjadi,
 M. jujjai (yujyate); ty>tt: ņattaa (nātyaka), M. tuttai (trutyati); dy>dd:
 °kudda (kudya); dhy>ddh: °addha (ādhya); ny>nn: °punna (punya);

6. With shortening of long \bar{a} , when the accent rests on the first syllable.

7. Aspiration (for non-aspirate sounds in Sanskrit) is often found in Prakrit.

Mg. śahilanna (sahiranya) beside abamhañña (abrāhmanya), puñña (puŋya); ty>cc: °accanta (atyanta); thy>cch: °nevaccha (nepathya); dy>jj, in Mg. yy:vějja (vaidya), but Mg. ayya (adya); dhy>jjh, Mg. yyh:°uvajjhāa (upādhyāya), Mg. mayyhanna (madhyāhna); ny>nn : °*anna (anya); py>[13] pp : kuppadi, M. kuppaï (kupyati), bhy>bbh : M. abbhantara (abhyantara); 'abbhuvavanna (abhyupapanna); my>mm : kilammadi, M. kilammaï (klāmyati); yy>jj : °sějjā (śayyā); ry>jj : °ajja, but Mg. ayya (ārya); ly>ll : °*mulla (mūlya); vy>vv : M. kavva (kāvya); 'hodavva (bhavitavya).

b) rl>kk : takkemi (tarkayāmi), M. akka (arka); kr>kk : °cakka (cakra); rkh>kkh : 'mukkha (mūrkha); rg>gg : ^oniggama (nirgama); gr>gg: agga (agra), M. (g)gaha (graha); rgh>ggh : 'digghiā (dīrghikā), M. nigghina (nirghma); ghr>ggh : vaggha (vyāghra), M. agghāi (āghrāti); rc>cc : kucca (kūrca), M. accā (arcā); rch>cch : mucchā (mūrchā); chr>cch : samucchida (samucchrita); rj>jj; Mg. yy : dujjana (durjana), M. Ajjuna, but Mg. Ayyuna (Arjuna); jr>jj : °vajja (vajra); rjh>jjh; Mg. yyh : °nijjhara, Mg. niyyhala); rn>nn : °kanna (karna), rt and tr⁸>tt : °kitti (kirti), °kalatta (kalatra); rth>tth: °attha (artha), but in Mg. st : tista (tirtha); rd and dr>dd : °duddina (durdina). °bhadda (bhadra); rdh and dhr>ddh : °addha (ardha), *giddha (grdhra); rp and pr>pp : °dappa (darpa), °appia (apriva); rb and br>bb : nibbandha (nirbandha), M. dŏbballa (daurbalya); abbamhanna (abrāhmanya), Mg. (b)bamhana (brāhmana); rbh and bhr>bbh : dubbhějja (durbhedya), M. gabbha (garbha); paribbhamadi, M. ^omaï (paribhramati); rm and mr>mm : dummanussa (durmanusua). M. dhamma (dharma); ^oDhummakkha (Dhūmrākṣa); rl>ll : ^odullaha (durlabha); rv and vr>vv : °puvva (pūrva) °parivvājaa (parivrājaka).

c) lk and kl>kk : °vakkala (valkala), vikkava (viklaba); lg>gg : °phagguṇa (phālguna); lp and pl> [14]pp : °kappa (kalpa), °vippava (viplava); lph>pph : guppha (gulpha); lb>bb : kibbisa (kilbiṣa); lbh>bbh : pagabbhadi (pragalbhate); lm and ml>mm : `gumma (gulma), M. vammīa (valmīka); (m)mĕccha (mleccha); lv>ll : gallakka (galvarka), M. pallala (palvala).

d) kv>kk : pakka or °pikka (pakva); jv>jj : pajjaladi, M. °laï (prajvalati); nv>nn : Kanna (Kanva), M. kinna (kinva); tv>tt : °satta (sattva), Mg. cattāli (catvāri); dv>dd : '(d)diuna (dvīguna), or vv, particularly with ud : for ex. 'uvvigga (udvigna); dhv>ddh : uddhattha (uddhvasta), but °sajjhasa (sādhvasa); nv>nn : annesanā (anvesanā), Mg. mannantala

^{8.} tr in tth is apparent only in adverbs in tra and its compounds: amatha (anyatra), atthabhavam (atrabhavaān), M. kattha (kutra); ⁰jattha (yatra), ⁰*tattha (tatra), tattha bhavam (tatrabhavān); M. savvattha (sarvatra). Cp. Pischel § 293.— Sometimes it undergoes cerebralisation : for ex. bhaṭṭā (bhartā, "lord", but ⁰*bhattā "husband"; *vaṭṭadi, M. vaṭṭaï (vartate); ⁰vicchaḍḍa (viccharda), vaḍḍhadi, M. vaḍḍhai (vardhate).

(manvantara). Take note evam nedam (evam nv etat), 'kim nedam (kīm nv etat).

8. Groups with sibilants

a) śc>cch, unchanged in Mg. 'accharia, accharia, Mg. aścalia (āścarya); if an ś stands at the end of the members of a compound then śc is changed cc : 'ņiccala [but Mg. ņiścala] (niścala); duccarida, M. duccaria (duścarita); tavaccaraṇa (tapaścaraṇa).—śch>cch: M. ņicchallia (niśchallita); śn>ṇh : paṇha (praśna), M. aṇhaï (aśnāti), śm>mh: Kamhīra, M. Kamhāra (Kaśmīra); in Mg. unchanged; raśmi becomes rassi; initially śm>m : ^omasāṇa, Mg. maśāṇa (śmaśāna).—śy, śr, śt, śv>ss⁹, Mg. śś : avassaṃ (avaśyam); Mg. viṇaśśadu (vinaśyatu); missa, Mg. miśśa, M. mīsa (miśra); (s)sāhaṇīā (ślāghanīyā); Vissāvasu, Mg. Viśśāvaśu (Viśvāvasu).¹⁰

b) sk and skh>usually kkh : pŏkkhara (puskara), M. vikkhambha (viskambha), the aspiration can, however, also be left : °Kikkindha (Kiskindha), ^odukkara (duskara). In Mg. sk is changed to sk, skh to skh¹¹: śuska (śuska), dhanuskhanda (dhamus⁰),---ks>cch or kkh: °acchi (akși) but also akkhi; °riccha beside °rikkha (rksa); (k)khattia (ksatriya), sikkhida, M. sikkhia (siksita), ºdakkhina (daksina). [15] ksana "twinkling of eye" becomes okhana, in the sense of a festival o(c)chana. In Mg. ks>sk : laskase (raksasah), daske (daksah).¹²-ksn and ksm>nh, mh resp. : tinha [beside º tikkha] (tīksna), opamhala (paksmala). laksmī always becomes lacchi. st and sth>tth : oditthi (drsti), osutthu (susthu). Mg. changes st and sth into st13 : kasta (kasta), sustu (susthu).-sn>nh, Mg. sn : ounha (usna), Mg. Visnu14 (Visnu); sp and sph>pph Mg. sp resp. sph¹⁵ °puppha (puspa), Mg. śaspa (śaspa); °nipphala, Mg. nisphala (nisphala), baspa "tear" becomes obaha, in the sense of "smoke, vapour" bappha.—sm>mh : °gimha (grisma); sy and sv>ss, Mg. ss : °manussa, Mg. manuśśa (manusya); parissaadi (parisvajate).

c) sk and skh>kkh : °(k)khambha (skambha), °parikkhalanta

In M. a single s possibly with the lengthening of the foregoing vowel : *nāsai* (*naśyati*), *vesā* (*veśyā*); Ś. has *vesajaņa* and *věssā⁰=veśyājana*).

^{10.} A single s with lengthening for ex. an nisasadi, M. nīsasai, Mg. nišašadu (nihšvasiti, nihšvasitu).

^{11.} According to Namisādhu (in Rudrața, Kāvyālamkāra II, 12) šk, škh resp. so šuške (šuska), dhaņuškhanda (dhanus⁰).

Hemacandra and Namisādhu reduce this to prekş and ācakş (pěkadi, acaskadi = prekşate, ācaşte and instructs besides the passage of kş (intially) to hk : lahkaŝe, pahka (rākşasah, pakşa).

^{13.} Namisādhu writes śt and śth resp: kaśta, kŏśthāgārla (kaṣṭa, koṣṭhāgāra).

^{14.} Namisādhu teaches Vișnu.

^{15.} According to Namisādhu śp and śph.

(pariskhalan); in Mg. it is retained¹⁶ : maskali (maskarin), paskhaladi (praskhalati), and in compounds usually the aspiration remains : tirakkāra (tiraskāra), M. namakkāra (namaskāra).--st and sth>tth sometimes tth : °atthi (asti), °avatthā (avasthā), however °atthi (asthi); utthehi beside utthehi, utthedu (uttistha, uttisthatu), M. thia, thia, Ś. thida, thida; utthida, M. utthia, utthia (sthita, utthita); patthida. M. patthia (prasthita); othāna, M. has also thāna (sthāna), thidi, thidi, M. thii, thii (sthiti). In Mg. st is preserved¹⁷ and sth>st: hasti (hastin), uvastida (upasthita).—ts>cch, Mg. śc: °vacchala, Mg. vaścala (vatsala); or it becomes [as also originally t+s]>ss, resp. s with lengthening of the foregoing vowel, so in compositions when t stands at the end of a syllable; ussāvedi (ut-śrāpayati); ūsasida, M. ūsasia (ut-śvasita); pajjussua (paryutsuka), samūsua (samutsuka), ^oūsava (utsava), omahūsava (mahotsava), vasantūsava (vasantotsava); Mg. ūšašadu (ut*svasatul. sn*>[16] *nh* in case the group is not separated by a semivowel: 'nhāda, M. nhāa (snāta)¹⁸; sp and sph>pph, in Mg. they are preserved : Bihapphadi (Brhaspati), papphuradi, M. ^oraï (prasphurati), Mg. Buhaspadi, sphulanti (Brhaspati, spuranti)¹⁹. Very frequent is ^ophamsa (sparśa); loss of aspiration : °parŏppara (paraspara), M. avarŏppara (aparaspara).— ps>cch: accharā (apsarāh), jugucchedi, M. juucchai (jugups[ya]ti; sm>mh: °amhe (asme); the pronominal ending smin becomes ^ossim, Mg. śśim : edassim, M. eassim, Mg. edaśśim (estasmin).—sy, sr, sv>ss, Mg. śś: °rahassa (rahasya), Mg. taśśa (tasya); ^osahassa, Mg. sahassa (sahasra); tavassi, Mg. tavassi (tapasvin), M. Sarassaī (Sarasvatī).

9. hk, hkh, hp, hph>kk, kkh, pp, pph : antakkarana (antahkarana), ° dukkha, (duhkha), antappāda (antahpāta).

hś, hs, hs>ss [Mg. śś] or, with extension of the foregoing vowel, s [Mg. ś]: cadussāla (catuhśāla), Dussanta, Mg. Duśśanta (Duhșmanta), cadussamudda (catuhsamudra), Mg. niśsalida (nihsrta); M. nisanka (nihśanka); onisaha beside onissaha (nihsaha).

hn, hn, hm, hl>nh, mh, lh: °avaranha (aparāhna), 'gĕnhadi (grhnāti); °cinha (cihna); °bamhana (brāhmana); 'palhatta (prahlasta).

hy>jjh, Mg. yh : °sajjha, Mg. sayha (sahya); hv>bbh : qabbhara (gahvara); but °jīhā, Mg. yīhā (jihvā).

10. Transition of dentals to cerebrals : mattia (mrttika), "vuddha (vrddha), °tālaveņța (tālavrnta), °gaņțhi (granthi), Mg. gaņțhiścedaa (granthicchedaka). Cp. also the remark in § 7, b.

^{16.} According to Namisādhu śk and śkh.

^{17.} According to Namisādhu st>śt.

^{18.} For Mg. there run manuscript forms nhāāmi (snāmi), nhāde (snātah).

For groups of more than two consonants the same rules are valid : ^omaccha, Mg. maśca (matsya), ^oaggha (arghya). Only two consonants written, even when three are required there; for ex. satta not sattta (from sattva).—jyotsnā>^ojŏņhā.

[17] ca "and" after anusvāra only, besides shortened to a in all the dialects.

punar "again" becomes "puno, in the sense of "but, however" "una. y in Mg. before eva is indicated before a short or a shortend vowel doubled : mama yyeva, idŏ yyeva (mamaiva, ita eva).

r is preserved in cases like durāgada (durāgata), ºņirantara (ntº), °puņarutta (punarukta), against antakkaraņa (antaḥkaraṇa), antaggada (antargata), puṇaṇṇava (punarnava). It is to be noted °anteura, anteuriā (antaḥpura, antaḥpurikā).

v is represented by "via(iva), 'vuccadi (ucyate); however 'utta (ukta);

MORPHOLOGY

A. Noun

11. The consonantal declension is wholly upto the rest sporadically for ex. M. vivaā (vipadā), disi disi (diśi diśi), Mg. niśi (niśi)—has been lost. The consonantal stems cast off the final consonants and now were handled vocalic ones or oftener the stem was extended through a (for masculines and neuters), through ā or ī (with feminines) resp. —The dual has been lost and was replaced (with noun and verb) by the plural). The dative were paraphrased with 'attham (artham) and 'nimittam (nimittam); in M. it often happens with a stems : maranāa, hāsāa, vanāa and so foth (maranāya, hāsāya, vanāya).

a) **Masculine and neuters in** *a* : putta (putra), phala : Sing. N. ^oputto, Mg. putte; A. ^oputtam; I. ^oputteņa [D.M., Mg. puttāa] Abl. ^{*}puttādo²⁰; G. ^oputtassa²¹; L. ^oputte²²; [18] V. ^oputta²³. – Plur. N. ^oputtā; A. ^oputte²⁴; I. ^oputtehim; G. ^oputtānam²⁵; L. ^oputtesum²⁶; V. – N²⁷.

^{20.} M. puttāo; metri causa also the ending āu : sīsāu (šīrṣāt), and not rarely also forms in ā : vasā (vaŝāt), balā (balāt), or also in hi : mūlāhi (mūlāt), seldom with himto : hiaāhimto (hrdayāt).

^{21.} Mg. puttassa; besides the ending ha "salīlāha (sarīrasya)

^{22.} M. also with mmi : jõvvanammi (yauvane); Mg. also in him : kulahim (kule), in verses also with mmi : kūvammi (kūpe).

^{23.} Also often with lengthened final sounds : ⁰puttā; Mg. also uses the N. as V.: bhāve, cede, lāutte (bhāva, ceța, rajaputra).

^{24.} M. has also sometimes forms in ā : guņā, dosā (guņān, dosān).

^{25.} M. much oftener without nasal.

^{26.} In M. puttesu is prevalent; Mg. puttesum.

^{27.} For Mg. the ending ho is also permitted : puttaho.

The neuter is just so, only N.A. Sing. ^o phalam, Plur. ^o phalām [Mārkaņdeya for Ś. also permits phalām as well], metrically M. has also phalāī, phalāi.

b) Feminine in ā : mālā (mālā). Sing. N. ^o mālā. A. ^o mālaņ; I. ^o mālāe²⁸, Abl. mālādo, malāe²⁹; G.L. ^o mālāe; V. māle³⁰. Plur. N. A.V. ^o mālāo³¹; I. ^o mālāhim³²; [Abl. M. mālāhimto] G. ^o mālānam³³; L. ^o mālāsu(m).

Masculine and neuter in i and u: aggi (agni), dahi (dadhi):
 Sing.N. ^o aggī³⁴; A. ^o aggim; I. ^o aggiņā. [Abl. aggido]³⁵; G. ^o aggiņo; L. ^o aggimmi; V. ^o aggi.- plur N. ^o aggīņo, ^o aggīo³⁶ A. ^o aggiņo; I. ^o aggihim³⁷
 [Abl. M. aggīhimto] G. ^o aggīņam³⁸; L. ^o aggīsu(m).

Just so the neuter, but N. A. Sing. "dahim, Plur. dahim.

Example for Masculine in ι : $v\overline{a}u$ ($v\overline{a}yu$), Sing. N. ° $v\overline{a}\overline{u}$; A, ° $v\overline{a}um$; I. ° $v\overline{a}um\overline{a}$; [Abl. $v\overline{a}udo$]; G. ° $v\overline{a}umu^{39}$; L. $v\overline{a}ummi$; V. ° $v\overline{a}u$. Plu. N. ° $v\overline{a}umo$, $v\overline{a}ao^{40}$; A. $v\overline{a}umo$; I. ° $v\overline{a}\overline{u}mim^{41}$; G. ° $v\overline{a}\overline{u}mam^{42}$; L. ° $v\overline{a}\overline{u}su(m)$.

[19] Just so the neuter, only N.A. Sing. "mahu[m] (madhu), Plur. "mahūim.

13. The feminine in *i* and *u* are as good as vanished and those with \bar{i} and \bar{u} have fallen together. These are declined like feminine stems in \bar{a} . Full-fledged paradigm here (as elsewhere) are not to be envisaged, consequently therefore the individual cases of various stems will be given gadi, vahū, (gati, vadhū): Sing. N. 'gadi⁴³, 'vahū; A. 'gadim, ⁰vahum; I. 'gadīe⁴⁴; Abl. Sacīdo (Śacyāḥ), Mg. naalīdo (nagaryāḥ); G.

- 32. M. has also mālāhi.
- 33. M. mālāņa.

- 35. M. beside it also aggissa.
- 36. M. has also aggi.
- 37. M. also aggihi.
- 38. M. aggiņa also.
- 39. M. vāussa; Mg. metrically Viśśāvaśuśśa (Viśvāvasoh).
- 40. M. vāū also.
- 41. M. also vāūhi.
- 42. Also M. väüna; Mg. metrically bähuna (bähvoh).
- 43. M. gaī.
- 44. M. gaie. Note Ś dițțhiā (diștyā). M. metrically devia (devyā).

^{28.} M. has metri causa oftener mālāi.

^{29.} M. mālāo.

^{30. &}lt;sup>0</sup>halā ("O lady friend" is often in conjuction with the V. of a proper noun : halā Saüntale, halā Aņusūe (sakhi Šakuntale, sakhi Anusūye).

^{31.} Rarely is N.A. ⁰**mālā*, N. metri causa *mālāu* in M.

^{34.} According to Markandeya; in Hultzsch p.716. In M. vahiu (udadheh).

*gadīe, ^ovahūe; L. rattimmi (rātrau)⁴⁵; V. ^osahi (sakhi).—Plur. N. A.V. : *gadīo, ^ovahūo⁴⁶; I. ^osahīhiņt⁴⁷ (sakhībhis); G. ^okāmiņīņam; L. devīsum.

14. **Stems in** r a) Agentive noun : bhattā "husband", bhațțā "lord" (bhartr), Sing. N. ^obhattā, bhațțā; A. ^obhattāram⁴⁸, bhațțāram; I. bhațținā; G. ^obhattuno, bhațțino; L. bhattāre; V. ^obhattā, bhațțā.—Plur. N. bhattāro.

b) Relation words pidu (pitr). Sing. N. 'pid \bar{a}^{49} ; A. pidaram⁵⁰; I. 'piduņ \bar{a}^{51} ; G. 'piduņ o^{52} . Plur. A. pidaro.

mātr has in Sing N. 'mādā⁵³, A. mādara m^{54} , G. madāe, V. māde⁵⁵. Of the **stems in** *e*, *o*, *au* there comes here only *nau* to be considered with N. nāvā and A. nāvam (both are Ś forms).

15. The stems in *at*, *mat*, and *vat* cross over to the *a*-declension with the employment of the strong stems, ending also in *anta*, *manta* and *vanta*, excepting *bhagavat* and *bhavat*[20] "thou" in Ś. Mg. which go in the follwing way : Sing. N. 'bhaavam, bhavam; A. bhaavantam, bhavantam; I. bhaavadā, bhavadā; G. 'bhaavado, bhavado; V. bhaavam.—Plur. N.V. bhaavanto.

The rest of the stems : Sing. N. Mascul mahanto karĕnto⁵⁶, cittavanto, (mahān, kurvan, cittavān); A. mahantam, jāṇantam⁵⁷, I. calanteṇa (calatā), bhuttavanteṇa (bhuktavatā)⁵⁸; G. cintaantassa (cintayataḥ), mahantassa (mahataḥ), Himavantassa (^ovataḥ)⁵⁹; L. mahante⁶⁰; [V. calanta]⁶¹. – Plur. N. sikkhantā (sikṣantaḥ)⁶²; [A. sikkhante

- 46. M. metrically taruniu (tarunyah).
- 47. M. without nasal as well.
- 48. Mg. bhattālam
- 49. M. piā.
- 50. M. piaram, Mg. pidalam
- 51. M. piuņā.
- 52. M. piuņo.
- 53. M. māā.
- 54. M. māaram.
- 55. M. māe.
- 56. M. kuņanto; Mg. puścamde, mahante, colaante (prcchan, mahān, corayan).
- 57. M. Mg. ebenso; note Mg. mālantam=mārayantam.
- 58. M. pianteņa (pibatā); Mg. gašcanteņa (gacchatā).
- 59. M. jānantassa (jānatah); Mg. alihantašsa (arhatah).
- 60. M. most of all forms with mmi : ruantammi (rudati); Hanumantammi beside Hanūmante (Hanūmati).
- 61. not recorded in S: M. sasanta (svasan), Mg. alihanta (arhan).
- 62. M. jāņantā (jānantaḥ), Mg. śaśantā (śvasantaḥ).

^{45.} Besides the form^{0*} is like the I.G.: M. paavie (padavyām), Mg. dhalaņie (dharaņyām), Ś. masāņavidhie, (śmaśānavithyām).

= śikṣata]⁶³; I. ⁰gacchantehiṃ (gacchadbhiḥ)⁶⁴; G. pĕkkhantāṇaṃ (prekṣamāṇānām)⁶⁵; L. vațțantesu (vartamāneṣu).

The neuter has anomalous N. Sing. M. bhanantam, Ś. dīsantam (bhanat, drśyamānam); but Mg. dahante (dahat). A. as in the masculine : mahantam (mahat), M. santam (sat); likewise in rest of the cases (Plur. N.A. not recorded).

16. **Stems in** *n* : *rāa*, Mg. *lāa* (*rājan*). Sing. N. ^o*rāā*⁶⁶; A. ^o*rāā*ṇamָ⁶⁷; I. ^o*ra*ṇṇā⁶⁸; G. ^o*ra*ṇṇo, ^o*rā*iņo⁶⁹; V. *rāa*m⁷⁰. – Plur. N.A. ^o*rāā*ṇo⁷¹. The remaining cases are not documented.

At the end of a compound rājan is handled in the following manner : N. mahārāo, A. mahārāam, I. mahārāena, G. mahārāassa (beside Kalingaramo), Mg. mahālāaśśa; V. mahārāa; Plur. N. mahārāā

ātman forms Sing. N. $atta^{72}$; A. $attanaam (= \overline{a}tm \overline{a}nakam)^{73}$; I. appaņā⁷⁴; G. $attano^{75}$; [V.M. appam].

[21] Words ending in varman have vammā or vammo : Vijaavammā, Vijaavammam (Vijayavarmā, °varman), Cittavammo (Citravarmā), Miankavammo, °vammassa (Mṛgānkavarmā, °varmanah).

The **neuters ending in**- an go usually as those in a : pěmma, nāma (preman, 'nāman) : Sing. N.A. ^opěmmam, ^oņāmam; I. ^opěmmena, ^oņāmeņa; [Abl. jammado=janmataḥ]; G. ^opemmassa; L. ^opěmme⁷⁶. – Plur. I. dāmehim (dāmabhḥ); L. kammesu, Mg. kammesu.

17. **Stems ending in** in, min, vin : Sing. N. ^ohatthi, Mg. hasti (hasti); tavassi, Mg. tavaśsi (tapasvi); A. kańcuim⁷⁷ (kańcukinam), but elsewhere piaärinam, uaārinam (priyakārinam, upakārinam); I. sāmiņā (svāminā)⁷⁸; G. virohino (virodhinah)⁷⁹; V. kańcui (kańcukin).—Plur. N. pakkhino (pakṣiṇaḥ), kańcuino (kańcukinaḥ)⁸⁰; [I. Mg. vamdīhim=vandibhih.—G.M. barahiṇa=barhiṇām; Mg. śāmīṇaṃ=svāminām] L. sāmisu (svāmiṣu)⁸¹. V=N : adhivāsiņo, Mg. vamdiņo (^ovāsinaḥ, vandinaḥ).

- 63. M. unnamante (unnamatah).
- 64. Mg. pavišantehim (pravišadbhih).
- 65. M. also without nasal : cintantāna (cintayatam); Mg. alihantāņam (arhatām).
- 66. Mg. lāā.
- 67. Mg. lāāņaņ.
- 68. Mg. laññā.
- 69. Mg. lañño and lāiņo.
- 70. Mg. lāam.
- 71. Mg. lāāņo.
- 72. M. appā.
- 73. M. appāņam
- 74. M. also appaņeņa.

- 75. M. appaņo beside attaņo; Mg. also attaņaaśśa. M. yet also has the forms appāņo, attāņo (ātmā), G. appāņaassa, L. appāņe; Plur. N. appā (ātmānah).
- 76. M. also pěmmammi Plur. N. pěmmāim, G. pěmmānam.
- 77. M. hatthim (hastinam).
- 78. Mg. śāmiņā. M. sasiņā (šaśinā).
- 79. M. sasiņo, Mg. śāmiņo.
- 80. M phaņiņo, sankiņo etc. (phaņinah, śankinah).
- 81. M. paņaisu (praņayişu).

18. Stems ending in as. N. Purūravā (^ovās)⁸²; A. Purūravasam; I. Purūravena; G. Purūravassa; L. Purūravast⁸³. The inflection is customarily after the a-declension; N.M. vimano (vimanah), neuter N.M. dummanam (durmanah); A. neuter uram, jasam, naham, siram (urah, yaśah, nabhah, śirah)84; I. M. vacchena (vaksasā); ^osirena (śirasā); M. manena (manasā)⁸⁵; G. tamassa, rajassa (tamasah, rajasah); L.M. ure beside urammi (urasi), nahe and nahammi (nabhasi), sire, mane (sirasi, manasi), sarammi (sarasi), Ś. sŏtte (srotasi).—Plur. N.M. sarā (sarāmsi); I.M. sarehi, sirehi and sirehim (sarobhih, sirobhih); G.M. sarana (sarasām)).—Feminine forms are : N.M. vimana vva(vimanā eva), Ś. pajjussuamaņā (paryutsukamanāh); AM vimanam; I. taggadamanāe=tadgatamanaskayā; M. vimanāi (metrically for vimanāe); Plur. N.M. gaavaāo=gatavayaskāh; A. sumanāo=sumanasah; vimaņāhim, [22] mangalamanāhi; LM. G.M. gaavaāna. (gatavayaskānām).—apsaras runs : N. accharā, Plur. N. accharāo, I. accharāhim.

19. **Stems ending in** is, us. Apart from the rest like Āuso (Āyuṣaḥ) they figure vocalical : N. dīhāū⁸⁶ dirghāyuḥ), **neuter** M. haviṃ, dhaṇuṃ (haviḥ, dhanuḥ); A. dīhāuṃ (dīrghāyuṣam), °dhaṇuṃ (dhanuḥ); I. dīhāuṇā (dīrghāyuṣā)⁸⁷.

B. Comparison

20. The suffixes are the same as in Sanskrit : mahattara, Mg. mahattala, M. tikkhaara (tīkṣṇatara); piadama, M. piaama (priyatama); kaṇīasī (kanīyasī), kaṇiṭṭha (kaniṣṭha); bhūo (bhūyas) beside bahudara (^otara); jĕṭṭha (jyeṣṭha). Sometimes the positive stays in the sense of the comparative : tatto vi... pia tti (tvatto ^opi ... priya iti), "himself dearer than thou"; M. ovaaṇāhi vi lahuaṃ (avapatanād api laghukam) "quicker than the plunge".

^{82.} Similarly in Mg. śamaśśaśidamaņā = samāśvastamanāh.

^{83.} Mg. śilaśi (śirasi).

^{84.} Mg. maṇaṃ (manas).

^{85.} Abl. M. sirāhi (śirasah).

Besides (of the extended stems) dīhāuso, M. adīharāuso (adīrghāyuh; dīhara stands for *dīraha=dīrgha, Pischel § 354).

^{87.} L.M. dhaņuhe (dhanuşi). āśis forms the stem āsīsā=whence I. āsīsāe, Plur. āsīsāhim—and āsisā : A. āsisam, G. āsisāe, Plur. āsisānam. The stem vāc is extended to vācā and therefore runs : N.M. vāā; A. M. vāam. I. ⁰*vāāe, also M. vāāi; G. Mg. vāāe; L.M. vāāi; Plur. N.M. vāā and vāāo; L.M. vāāsu.

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C. Pronoun

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21. The pronoun of the first and second person.

Singular

N. °aham ⁸⁸	⁰*tuman ⁹⁴
A. °* mam ⁸⁹	°* ", te, de
I. °*mae ⁹⁰	°*tae, °*tue95
Abl. matto, mamādo ⁹¹	tatto ⁹⁶
G. ° mama, ° maha, ° me ⁹²	°tuha °"[te], °*de ⁹⁷
L. mai ⁹³	°taï, tut ⁹⁸

Divisol

[23]	riulai	
N.º*amhe99		°tumhe ¹⁰³
A. no ¹⁰⁰		tumhe
I. °amhehim ¹⁰¹		tumhehim ¹⁰⁴
Abl.		
G. ºamhāṇaṇ1º2,	ņo	°tumhāṇam, °vo ¹⁰⁵
L. amhesu		

22. Third person pronoun

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	Singular	
Masculine	Feminine	neuter
N. ^o so ¹⁰⁶	°'sā	°*taņ

- 88. Mg. hage, hagge; M. Mg. sometimes ham after vowels.
- 89. M. also mamam, Mg. mamã.
- 90. Mg. also seldom mai and me.
- 91. According to Markandeya ix, 96, by Hultzsch p.717.
- 92. M. rarely mama; otherwise yet maham, majjha(m).
- 93. M. mamammi.
- 94. M. also tam and rarely tum.
- 95. M. taï, tui, tumae, tumāe, tumāi, tume also.
- 96. M. tumāhi (mto), tumāo; Ś. also tuvatto.
- 97. M. also tuham, tujjham), tumham, tumma, tu; Mg. tava instead of tuha; te in Ś. Mg. is apparently false for de.
- 98. M. also tuvi, tumammi, tume.
- 99. In Mg. it is better to write asme; beside hage and in S. vaam also.
- 100. M. ne, also amha; Mg. asme; Ś. amhe also.
- 101. M. also amhehi; Mg. asmehim.
- 102. Mg. asmānam; M. also amha(m) and 'mha.
- 103. Mg. better more rightly tusme or tuyhe.
- 104. M. tumhehi.
- 105. M. oftner tumha.
- 106. Mg. śe.

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A. ^{0°} taṃ	°taṃ	° [*] taṃ
I. ^{0°} teṇa ¹⁰⁷	'tāe' ¹¹⁰	° [*] teṇa
G. ⁰ tassa, se ¹⁰⁸	'tāe' ¹¹¹	° [*] tassa
L. tassiṃ ¹⁰⁹	[tīe, tīa]	tassiṃ
Masculine	Plural	neuter
N. °'te (de) ¹¹²	Feminine	°tāiņ
A. °'te (de)	°tāo	°tāiņ
I. °'tehim ¹¹³	°tāhiņ	°tehiņ
G. °tāṇaṃ ¹¹⁴	°tāņaņ	tāņaņ
L. ^o tesu ¹¹⁵	tāsu	°tesu

[24] The stem etad on the whole runs likewise :

Masculine N. ^o eso ¹¹⁶ A. [•] edam ¹¹⁷ I. [•] edena ¹¹⁸ G. edassa ¹¹⁹ L. edassim ¹²⁰	Singular Feminine esā ¹²¹ 'edam 'edāe 'edāe 'edāe	Neuter 'edam 'edam
N. [•] ede ¹²² A. I. [•] edehim ¹²⁵ G. edāņam ¹²⁶ L. edesu(m) ¹²⁸	Plural edāo ¹²³ edāņam ¹²⁷	edāiṃ ¹²⁴ •edehiṃ edāṇaṃ

23. The **relative** is almost entirely treated like *tad*; for Mg. it is to be noted that y is kept maintained. N. ${}^{0}jo$, ${}^{0}j\bar{a}$, ${}^{0}jam$. A. $jam{}^{129}$; I. $jena{}^{130}$,

107. Abl. ${}^{0}tado$ (adverbial is used) and ${}^{0*}t\bar{a}$.	118. M. eeņa; Ś. Mg. much oftener ediņā.
108. Mg. taśśa, tāha and śe.	119. M. eassa, Mg. edaśśa and edāha.
109. M. tammi, Mg. taśśim.	120. M. eassim, eammi; Mg. edaśśim.
110. M. tie, tia.	121. Mg. eśa.
111. M. tissā, tīe, tīa.	122. M. ee.
112. *de after all other pronouns :	123. M. eāo.
*ede de.	124. M. eāi.
113. M. tehi resp. tahi.	125. M. eehi(m).
114. M. also tāņa.	126. eāņa.
115. Ś. also tesum.	127. M. eanā(m).
116. Mg. eśe. Ś. frequently, Mg. sel-	128. M. eesu(m).
dom esa.	129. Mg. has yad iscase (yadicchase).
117. M. eam.	130. M. also jenam.

jāe, jeņa; G. jassa¹³¹, jāe¹³², jassa; L. ⁰jassiņ. Plur. N. ⁰je, jāiņ; G. ⁰jānam¹³³.

The **interrogative** : Sing. N. ^oko, ^okā, ^okiņ; A. ^okaņ, ^okiņ; I. ^okeņa, kāe, keņa; G. ^okassa¹³⁴, kāe¹³⁵, kassa; Abl. ^okīsa¹³⁶; L. kassiņ¹³⁷, Plur. N. ^oke, kāo¹³⁸, kāiņ.

The following forms belong to the stems ida and ima :

	Singular	
Masculine	Singular	Neuter
N. aam ¹³⁹	iaṇ1 ¹⁴⁰	°idam ¹⁴¹
A. *imaņ	imaņ	⁰imaņ
I. 'imiņā ¹⁴²	imāe ¹⁴³	*imiņā
Abl.*imādo	*imādo	
G. imassa ¹⁴⁴	imāe ¹⁴⁵	
L. imassim ¹⁴⁶	imassim(!)	imassim
[25]	Plural	
[25] Masculine	Piural Feminine	Neuter
•••		Neuter imāiņ
Masculine	Feminine	
Masculine N. ^{o*} ime	Feminine	
Masculine N. ^o 'ime A. ime	Feminine	imāiņ
Masculine N. ^{o*} ime A. ime I. imehim ¹⁴⁸	Feminine	imāiņ

Sporadic forms are M. ena, ^oassa (asya), ^oassim (asmin); [•]anena (anena); amum(A. neuter.), M. amunā, amī (Plur. N. Masc.); ^o[•]enam (A. Masc. and Fem.) and ^onam (A. Masc; Fem. and Neut.)

The pronominal adjectives run like tad or etad. M. parāhimto (parasmāt); aņņassim (anyasmin), aņņe (anyān), savvāņam (sarvāņām) M. aņņāņam (anyānām).

 131. Mg. yaśśa and gāha. 132. M. jīa, jīe, jissā. 133. M. has also I. jehi and L. jesuņ. 134. Mg. kāha. 135. M. kāe. 136. Mg. kiśa. 137. M. kammi, Mg. kaśšīņ ⁰*kahiņ, ⁰*kattha whereto, whither, where. 138. Ś. also kā. 139. In M. only once documented; 	 143. M. imie, imia. 144. Mg. imaśsa. 145. M. imie, imia. 146. M. imammi, Mg. imaśsim. 147. M. also imā, imiu. 148. M. imehi. 149. M. imāņa.
139. In M. only once documented; lacking in Mg.	150. M. imesu.

D. The Numerals

24. Cardinals : 1. °čkka (eka) : °čkko, °čkkā, °čkkam, I. °čkkeņa, G. Mg. čkkāha, L. čkkassim (Mg. čkkaśsim, M. čkkammi); Plur. N. °čkke.—°aņea (aņeka), aņeaso (anekaśah).

2. N.A. ° duve¹⁵¹, I. duvehim, G. duvenam, L. duvesu.

3. N.A. Masc. and Fem. tao (trayah) Neutr. ^otinni (trīni); [G. tinnam;] L.M. tīsu(m), metrically tisu.

4. N. cattāro, Fem. catasso! [should be cadasso]; Neutr. ^ocattāri, Mg. cattāli; G. ['caduņņam], M. caüņham.—. In compounds : M. caürāņaņa (caturānana), caüddisam (caturdisam); Ś. cadussālaa (catuhsālaka); M. caümuha (caturmukha), cŏddaha (caturdasa).

[26] 5. pañca, I.M. pañcehim.

6. cha. In compounds : ^ochagguṇa(a) (ṣaḍguṇa[ka]), M. chappaa (ṣaṭpada), ^ochaṇṇmāsia (ṣaṇmāsika), Ś. chaccaraṇa (ṣaṭcaraṇa).

7. °satta, Mg. śatta.— [8. aṭṭha; 9. ṇava;] 10. dasa, Mg. daśa, M. dasa or daha; I.M. dasahi, Mg. daśehim; G. Mg. daśāṇam; L.M. dasasu.— 11. M. eāraha; 12. M. bāraha; 13. M. teraha; 14. M. cŏddaha, caüddasa; 60. saṭṭhi; 100. sada, M. saa, Mg. śada; 1000. °sahassa, Mg. śahaśśa; 100000. Mg. laśkam (lakṣam).

Ordinals: 1. ^opadhama; 2. 'dudia, M. duia; 3. tadia, M. taïa; 4. 'caduttha, M. caüttha; 5. ^opañcama; 6. ^ochaṭṭha¹⁵²; 7. ^osattama; 8. aṭṭhama; [9. navama;] 10. M. dasama.

E. Verb

25. The verb has lost very many forms, the *a*-stems there preponderate; the middle is narrowed down to the 1. Sing Present, apart from the participle and from sporadic forms; the dual is totally disappeared.

a) Example for the indicative of the 1st class \sqrt{vrt} : vațța - (varta) : Sing. 1. °vațțāmi¹⁵³, 2. vațțasi¹⁵⁴, 3. 'vațțadi¹⁵⁵; Plur. 1. °vațțāmo, 2. 'vațțadha¹⁵⁶, 3. vațțanti. Middle : 1. Sing. vațțe [2. vațțase¹⁵⁷,

157. M. lajjase, jāņase (jānīṣe).

^{151.} M. frequently N.A. do for all the three genders and also at the beginning of the compound : domuha (dvimukha), certainly for it oftener du : duuna (dviguna). There form the neuter ⁰dom which is also combined with Masc. and Fem; I. M. dohi(m), G.M. dönha(m), Ś. [Mg.] damam; L.M. dosu(m).

^{152.} Feminine ⁰*pancamī, ⁰*chaṭthī; the rest in \bar{a} .

^{153.} M. has sometimes i instead of ā : jāņimi (jānāmi), bhaņimo (bhaņāmah).

^{154.} Mg. has naturally śi instead of si : gaścaśi (gacchasi).

^{155.} M. vațțaï.

^{156.} M. vațțaha.

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3. vațțade¹⁵⁸; 3. Plur. vațțante]. For the first Sing. frequent examples are ^ojāņe and ^oņa āņe (jāne resp. na jāne) just as ^omaņņe (manye); sporadically lahe (labhe), icche¹⁵⁹.—vardhate naturally becomes vaddhadi (M. vaddhaï), vardhāmahe vaddhāmo, prekṣadhve pĕkkhadha¹⁶⁰, nayatha nedha.

b) **Optative :** 1. bhaveam and bhave, pahave, laheam and lahe, jīveam (bhaveyam, prabhaveyam, labheyam, jīveyam)¹⁶¹; 2. M. hasējjahi, karējjāsu and kuņijjāsu galijjāsu (haseh, kuryāh, [27] galeh)— 3. bhave, purae, uddhare (bhavet, pūrayet, uddharet)¹⁶²,— 3. Plur. bhave (bhaveyuh). Notice M. hŏjja (bhūyāt).

c) **Imperative :** 2. Person ^okaresu (kuru), āņesu (ānaya), ^obhuñjasu (bhungdhi), kadhesu (kathaya); Mg. lahkaśu (rakṣa), āgaśceśu (agaccha), desu (dehi), dhāleśu (dhāraya).— Middle forms like pĕkkhassa (prekṣasva) are to be considered as Sanskriticisms and to be emended.

Present stems with a short final, as a rule are formed as in Sanskrit : ° bhana (beside °bhanāhi), gaccha, Mg. gaśca; pěkkha, M. pěccha, Mg. peska (prekṣasva); °hasa, Mg. haśa (hasa).—With long finals there comes in hi : °karehi. Mg. kalehi (kuru); mantehi (mantraya), kadhehi (kathaya), sidhilehi (śithilaya), jālehi (jvālaya); Mg. mālehi (māraya), ahośehi (ghosaya); °hohi (bhava)

The 3. Sing ends in 'du, M. u : 'bhodu, M. hou (bhavatu); pasīdadu (prasīdatu), kadhedu (kathayatu); Mg. muīcadu, ņišīdadu (muīcatu, nisīdatu); M. maraü, deu, paaṭṭaü (maratu, dayatu, pravartatu, i.e. mriyatām, dadātu, pravartatām).

The 1. Plur. has mha ending : gacchamha, uvavisamha, uvasappamha pěkkhamha, karěmha, 'niveděmha, 'kīļémha, hŏmha (gacchāma, upavišāma, upasarpāma, prekṣāmahai, karavāma, nivedayāma, krīdāma, bhavāma); M. abbhatthěmha, (abhyarthayāma); Mg. annešamha, pivamha, palāamha, kalěmha (anveṣayāma, pibāma, palāyāmahai, karavāma).

2. Plur. parittāadha [Mg. palī⁰], samassasadha, avaņedha, hodha (paritrāyadhvam, samāsvasita, apanayata, bhavata); M. ņamaha, rañjeha, raeha (namatha, rañjayata, racayata); Mg. osaladha (apasarata), suņādha (sīņuta), māledha (mārayata).

3. Plur pasīdantu [Mg. paśī^o], pěkkhantu, hŏntu (prasidantu, preksantām, bhavantu); M. ņandantu, vilihantu (nandantu, vilikhantu).

d) Of the **Imperfect** only ${}^{o}\bar{a}si$, $\bar{a}s\bar{i}$ ($\bar{a}s\bar{i}t$), however, used for all persons and (numbers) has been kept.

- 161. M. kuppějja (kupyeyam).
- 162. M. jīvējjā ! (jīvet), dharejjā (dhriyeta), viharējja (viharet); Mg. mūśe (mūșet), khayye (*khādyet = khādet).

^{158.} M. pěcchae (preksate), palambae (pralambate).

^{159.} Mg. gāe (gāyāmi).

^{160.} Mg. pěskadha.

Remarks on the isolated classes

26. Verbs of the first class in i, u are as in [28] Sanskrit : jaadi, M. jaai(jayati); jaadu¹⁶³, (jayatu); those in i change aya into e by Samprasārana : pariņedi, M. pariņei (pariņayati), and analoguously also the 1. Person : avanemi (apanayāmi), M. āņemi (ānayāmī); ņēmha (nayāma), nedha (nayata). However, beside these we have nedu (nayatu) parinaadu (°nayatu), M. naaï (nayati), Mg. naante (nayan really nayanto).

bhū forms the Optative after Sanskrit *bhaveam, *bhave, pahave (bhaveyam, bhavet, prabhavet); besides bhavidavvam¹⁶⁴, *bhavidum, bhavia (bhavitavyam, bhavitum, bhūtvā) and Mg. bhavāmi, M. hava (bhava), havanti (bhavanti). In combination with prefixes the stem is bhava (M. hava) predominating : anubhavanto (anubhavan), anubhavida (anubhūta) M. anuhavaï (anubhavati). M. shows the stem huva in huvanti (bhavanti) and huvīa (bhaveya), Mg. in huvīadi (bhūyate). As a rule usually we say homi, hosi, 'bhodi165, 0honti; Imper hohi, 'bhodu166, hŏmha, 'hodha, hŏntu167; 'hodavva (bhavitavya), bhūda, M. hūa (bhūta), Mg. pahūda (prabhūta).

Roots ending in r, \bar{r} form the stem of the present with ara; besides frequently in e : dharāmi (dhriye), pasaradi168, Mg. paśalaśi (prasarati, prasarasi); anusaramha (anusarāma), maradi¹⁶⁹ (mriyate), Mg. malāmi¹⁷⁰ (mriye); uvahara, uvaharantu, avaharadi, odaradi, odaramha, odaria¹⁷¹ (upahara, upaharantu, apaharati, avatarati, avatarāma, avatīrya); Mg. halāmi, haladi (harāmi, harati), odala (avatara); M. dharemi, dharai, dhareï, dharĕnti, osaraï, osaria¹⁷² (dhriye, dhriyate, dhriyante, apasarati, apasrtya)--smr builds ^osumarāmi, sumaresi¹⁷³, sumaredi, sumarehi and sumaresu, sumaredha, sumarida [Mg. śumalida] (smarāmi, smarasi, smarati, smara, smarata, smrta).

Roots in ai : gāāmi, gāadi, gāadha (gāyāmi, gāyati, gāyatha); M. gāanti, uggāanti (gāyanti, udgāyanti); Mg. gāe [29] gāidam (gāye,

- 163. jedu is wrongly attested, even if used often; likewise Mg. yedu.
- 164. In addition to it bhavidavvadā (⁰tavyatā).

- 167. M. havantu.
- 168. M. pasaraï 169. M. maraï.
- 170. Mg. however maledu, malĕnti (mriyatām, mriyante).
- 171. Mg. odalia.
- 172. Mg. ośalia.
- 173. In a lesser way attested sumarasi. Mg. sumalāmi, sumalesi, sumaledi; Imper. sumala and sumalehi.

^{165.} M. hoi. 166. M. hou.

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*gāyitam=gītam).—parittāadi, parittāasu, parittāadu [Mg. palittāadu], parittāadha [Mg. pali^o] (paritrāyate, ^otrāyasva, ^otrāyatām, ^otrāyadhvam).—ņijjhāadi, M. ņijjhāai (nirdhyāyati); parimilāadi (parimlāyati).

kram contains a short vowel : nikkamāmi, nikkamadi [M. nikkamaï and nikkhamaï, Mg. niskamadi], nikkama [Mg. niskama], nikkamamha (niskrāmāmi, °krāmati, °krāma, °krāmāma).

ruh becomes a compound verb after the inflected 6th class : āruhadi [M. āruhai], āruha [Mg. āluha], āruhadu [Mg. āluhadu] (ārohati, āroha, ārohatu).

sthā as the stem for the present has ciṭṭha [Mg. ciṣṭha] and forms from it : ciṭṭhāmi, ciṭṭhadi [M. ciṭṭhaï, Mg. ciṣṭhadi], ciṭṭha, (tiṣṭhāmi, tiṣṭhati, tiṣṭha); M. ciṭṭhaü (tiṣṭhatu). With the ud prefix we get the forms 'uṭṭhehi beside utthehi (uttiṣṭha), utthedu, Mg. uṭṭhedu (uttiṣṭhatu).

muc has in Ś. Mg. a nasal, it can be lacking in M. : muñcadi, 'muñca, 'muñcadu, M. muaï and muñcaï, mua, muasu (muñcati, muñca). By the side also the e - stem ^omuñcesi, muñcedi, muñcedha, muñcehi (muñcasi, muñcati, muñcatha, muñca).

The verbs of the tenth class, which mostly counter acts aya in *e* the causatives and the denominatives seldom has aa for that and indeed so usually before consonant groups : M. kahei, Mg. kadhedi (kathayati), Ś. kadhehi (kathaya), kadhedu (kathayatu); cintemi, cintemo (cintayāmi, ^omas), but cintaanto (cintayan); pavesehi [Mg. pavešehi] (pravešaya) beside pavesaāmi (pravešayāmi); ciraadi (cirayati), viraaāmi (viracayāmi).

27. Second Conjugation : a) The roots of the 2nd class infringes in the 1st. conjugation : M. ruāmi, ruasi, ruaï, rua (rodimi, rodiși roditi, roda);*Ś. rodasi, roadi, roanti, roda [Mg. loda], rodidum (rodiși, rodati, rudanti, roda, roditum); Mg. metrically luadi (roditi).—śvas forms nīsasadi [M. nīsasai], vīsasāmi, samassasa, samassasadu (niḥśvasiti, viśvaśimi, samāśvasatu), Mg. śaśadi, śamaśśaśadu etc. (śvasiti, samāśvasatu).—cakṣforms ācakkha (ācakṣva), Mg. ācaskadi (ācaṣṭe); M. niacchaï (*nicakṣati=nicaṣṭe); han has paḍihaṇāmi (pratihanmi), vihaṇanti (vighnati); M. haṇaï, nihaṇanti (hanti, nighnanti), Mg. āhaṇedha (āhata).—as has 1. ^omhi, Mg. smi [30] 2. ^osi, Mg. śi, 3. ^oatthi, Mg. asti; Plur. 1. ^omha [M. also mho], Mg. sma; 2. M. ttha, 3. M. santi, Mg. śanti¹⁷⁴

^{174.} The 2. and 3. Plur. is rare, *atthi* is used for all persons of the Sing. and Plur.

b) The third class forms are retained only sparingly. $d\bar{a}$ builds *demi, desi, dedi [M. dei], *odehi [M. also desu, Mg. deśu], dedu [M. deu], Mg. dedha [M. deha] (dadāmi, osī, oti, dehi, dadātu, datta).— Forms from dhā : M. saddahimo (śraddadhmaḥ); Ś. aņusaṃdhemi, odhedha (anusaṃdadhāmi, odhattha, M. saṃdhei (saṃdadhāti), saṃdhĕnti (saṃdadhati).—bhi forms (from the stem bhai) *bhāāmi, (Mg. bhāāśi), bhāadi (bibhemi, bibheṣi, bibheti).

c) Forms from the fifth class like avaciņomi, avaciņumo (°cinomi, °cinumaḥ) are unsure against avaciņamha (°cinuma) and ucciņedi (°noti). M. has, for ex. samucciņai, viciņanti (°cinoti, °cinvanti), but also uccei, uccĕnti, ucceu (uccinoti, °cinvanti, °cinotu); Mg. śaņcehi (saṃcinu).—Likewise from śru there are unsure suņu, Mg. śuņu (śrņu) and Mg. śuņudha (śrņuta). We should read suņa¹⁷⁵, as in Ś. Mg. roots follow the 9. class: suņāmi¹⁷⁶, sunādi¹⁷⁷, suņāmo, suņāhi, suņādu¹⁷⁸, suņamha, suņadha¹⁷⁹, suņantu¹⁸⁰ (śrņomi, °ti, śrņumaḥ, śrņu, śrņotu, śrņuma, śrņutha, śrņvantu). Beside it there occur forms from *e*-stems, as suņemi, suņedi, suņēmha (śrņomi, °ti, śrņumaḥ, śrņu he a-stems: suņaï, suņimo, suņanti, suņasu, suņaha (śrņoti, srņumaḥ, śrņvanti, śrņu, śrņuta).

prāp goes with the 1st class: M. pāvasi, pāvai [Ś. pāvedi]; ^opāvanti M. pāva [Ś. pāvehi], pāvaü (prāpnoși, ^oti, prāpnuvanti, prāpnuhi, prāpnotu).— śak has sakkaņomi or sakkuņomi (śaknomi); Mārkeņdeya IX, 131 teaches sakkuņadi and sakkadi.

d) The seventh class has the nasal also in the weak forms M. chindaï, bhañjaï, bhindaï (chinatti, bhanakti, bhinatti); °bhuñjasu (bhuṅkṣva); paŭñjadha (prayuṅktha), rundhedi (ruṇatsi); 'bhindia (bhittvā), bhañjia (bhaktvā).

[31] (e) The root kr belonging to the eighth class forms °karemi¹⁸¹, °karesi¹⁸², karedi¹⁸³, karemo, °karĕnti¹⁸⁴, °karehi¹⁸⁵, °karesu¹⁸⁶, karedu¹⁸⁷, karĕmh¹⁸⁸, karedha¹⁸⁹ (karomi, °si, °ti, kurmaḥ kurvanti, kuru, karotu, karavāma, kuruta).

175. In Mg. according to Pischel § 503 *sunu* is a Sanskritism for *suna*.

176. Mg. śuņāmi.

- 177. Mg. śunadi.
- 178. Mg. śuņadu.
- 179. Mg. śunādha and śunedha.
- 180. Mg. śuņantu.
- 181. Mg. kalemi.
- 182. Mg. kaleśi, M. also kunasi.

- 183. Mg. kaledi, M karei and also kuṇaï.
- 184. M also kuņanti.
- 185. Mg. kalehi.
- 186. M also kuna, kunasu.
- 187. M kuņaü.
- 188. Mg. kalĕmha
- 189. kaledha.

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f) Ninth class : jňā loses the initial after prefixes and na(na) and forms jānāsi¹⁹⁰, jānādi¹⁹¹, jānāmo¹⁹², ^ojāna¹⁹³ and jānāhi (jānāsi, ^oti, jānīmah, jānīhi); ^{*}ānādi, ^{*}viānādi, ānavedi, ^odu, na ānadha¹⁹⁴ (ājānāti, vijānāti, ājňapayati, ^otu, na ājānītha).

krī also has the present stem kiņa and forms ņikkiņasi, kiņadha, M. vikkiņai (niskrīņāsi, krīņīta, vikrīņāti).—grhforms gĕņhasi, 'gĕņhadi [M. gĕņhai], ºgĕņhanti, º'gĕņha, 'gĕņhadu [M. gĕņhaü], gĕņhadha, gĕņhantu (grhņāsi, °ti, grhņanti, grhāņa, grhņītu, grhņīta, grhņantu).—bandh forms bandhāmi, bandhasi and bandhesi, bandhedi [M. bandhai], °bandhanti [M. also bandhĕnti], M. bandhasu (bandhnāmi, °si, avabadhnāti, badhnanti, badhāna)—bhaņ forms bhaņāsi and bhaņesi [Mg. bhaņeśi], *bhaņādi, *bhaņādha, *bhaņa and *bhaņāhi, bhaņehi; bhaņādu (bhaṇasi, °ti, °tha, bhana, bhanatu).

g) Forms of the Imperfect (apart from $\circ \bar{a}si$, $\bar{a}s\bar{i} = \bar{a}s\bar{i}t$), the Aorist and the Perfect are lacking.

Future

28. The endings are issam, issasi¹⁹⁵, issadi¹⁹⁶, issāmo, issadha, issanti, i.e. with the exception of the 1. Sing. as in Sanskrit, the sya is added with the linking vowel i; Mg. has always śś in place of ss. bhavissam [Mg. bhaviśśam¹⁹⁷], bhavissasi¹⁹⁸, [Mg. bhaviśśaśi]; bhavissadi,[Mg. bhaviśśadi]¹⁹⁹; gamissāmo, bhanissadha, bhavissanti²⁰⁰ (bhaviṣyāmi, ºṣyasi, ºti, gamiṣyāmaḥ, bhaṇiṣyatha, bhaviṣyanti).

[32] Examples from isolated classes : 1st Class : visumarissam (vismarişyāmi); pariharissadi, Mg. palihaliśśadi (pariharişyati); marissasi, Mg. malīhiśi, M. aņumarihii (marişyase, °te); gāissam, Mg. gāiśśam (gāsyāmi); gamissam, Mg. gamiśśam (°iṣyāmi); M. samāgamissai (iṣyati), pāhinti (paśyanti); ciṭṭhissam, Mg. ciṣṭhiśśam (sthāsyāmi); uṭṭhissāmo (utsthāsyāmaḥ); pĕkkhissam, Mg. pĕkkhiśśam, M. pĕcchissam (drakṣyāmi i.e. prekṣiṣye); Mg. khāiśśam, metrically khāhiśi (khāsyāmi, khāsyasi). 6th Class : pucchissam Mg. puściśśam (prakṣyāmi);

191. Mg. yāņādi, M. jāņai.

- 193. M. also jāņasu; Mg. yāņāhi.
- 194. M. na āņasi, āņai, āņimo āņaha (na ājānāsi, ^oti, ājānīmaļ, ^otha).
- 195. M. ihisi.
- 196. M. ihii.
- 197. Also huviśśam.
- 198. Also huvissasi.
- 199. Also huvissadi, Mg. huviśśadi.
- 200. Also huvissanti. M (from the stem ho) hössam, hohii, hohāmo, hohissāmo, hohitthā, hohinti.

^{190.} Mg. yāņāši; M. jāņimi (jānāmi), jāņasi, jāņase.

^{192.} M. jāņimo.

muñcissadi, M. mŏcchihii (mokṣyatii).—4th Class : kuvissaṃ, M. kuppissam (kopsyāmi); °vivajjissam (vipatsyāmi). 10th Class : cintaïssadi (cintayisyati); Mg. gaņaiššam (gaņayisyāmi); kadhissam beside kadhaïssam [Mg. kadhaïssam] M. kahissam (kathayisyāmi). – 2nd Class : rodissam, M. roissam (rotsyāmi); suvissam, Mg. suvissam (svapsyāmi); daissam, Mg. daissam (dāsyāmi, properly speaking dayisyāmi from the stem de). - 5th Class : avaciņissam (avacesyāmi, suņissam, Mg. suņissam (śrosyāmi); pāvissasi, M. pāvihisi, Mg. pāvihiši (prāpsyasi). The 7th Class is without documentation; from the 8th Class very frequent % arissam, Mg. kaliśśam (karisyāmi); karissasi, M. karihisi (karisyasi); karissadi, Mg. kaliśśadi (karisyati); M. karissāma²⁰¹ (karisyāmah); karissanti (karisyanti). We have beside it karaïssam, Mg. kalaïśśam; Mg. kalaïśśaśi; karaïssadi, Mg. kalaissadi, M. karehii; karaissanti. – M. yet also builds kāham, kāhisi, kāhii.—9th Class : ºjānissam; M. jāņihisi; jānissadi; jāņissāmo, Mg. yāniššamo (jñāsyāmi, jñāsyasi, ºti, ºsyāmaḥ.)—Mg. kīņiššam (kreṣyāmi); kīņissadi (kresyati) — gĕņhissam, gĕņhissadi (grahīsyāmi, °syati). Passive

29. To the root resp. in the stem of the present there comes ya (whereby y^{202}) stuck out behind vowels, [33] assimilated with consonants behind, or ia.

In M. ya becomes jja, ia is changed to ijja. - 1st Class : *niadi, M. nijjai (niyate) *bhaviadi, Mg. also huviadi (bhūyate); sumariadi, M. sumarijjaï (smaryate); icchīadi, Mg. iścīadi (iṣyate); M. gammaï (gamyate), but gamijjanti (gamyante); Ś. gacchīadi, but gamīadu (gamyate, °tām); pivīadī, M. pijjaī (pīyate); aņuciṭṭhīadi, ºdu (anuṣṭhīyate, ºtām); dīsadi, Mg. dīśadi, M. dīsaï (drśyate).—6th Class : pucchīadi, M. pucchijjaï (prcchyate); muñciadu (mucyatām), M. muccai (mucyate). 4th and 10th Classes, Causative : M. padibujjhijjaï (pratibudhyate); chedianti, M. cheijjanti (chedyante); pobodhiāmi (prabodhye); viņņaviadi (vijnāpyate); M. kahijjaï, Mg. kadhiadu (kathyate, °tām).—2nd Class : suviadi, M. suppaŭ (supyate, °tām); *vuccadi, M. vuccaï (ucyate); *dīadi, M. dijjaï (dīyate). 5th Class : M. ciņijjaï (cīyate); vicīadu (viciyatām); suņīadi, Mg. śuņīadi, M. suņijjaï (śruyate); sakkīadi, Mg. śakkīadi (śakyate).—7th Class: °chijjanti (chidyante); jujjadi, M. jujjaï (yujyate) in the sense of "to be suited to itself"; on the other hand paunjiadi, odu (prayujyate, °tām).—8th Class : karīadi, °du, Mg. kulīadi, °du, M. kīrai, kīrau (kriyate, kriyatām).—9th Class : jāņīadi [ņajjai], °du (jñāyate, °tām); aņuggahīadu (anugṛhyatām); M. forms ghĕppaï, ghĕppanti (gṛhyate, onte) from a stem *qhrp.

To the passive there belongs still also another future with forms

^{201.} Metrical for ⁰mo.

^{202.} Pischel says on p. 369 below ya is cast out : then the form would not be dīadi from dā (out of dī-ya-di) but must sound dīdi.

like muccissadi, chijjissadi (*mucyiṣyate, *chiḍyiṣyate), M. bhajjihisi (*bhajyiṣyase).

Causative

30. As in Sanskrit the root is upgraded, the *aya* suffix turns to e, paya becomes ve. kāredi, M. kārei (kārayati); *āņavedi (ājňapayati); viņņavissam (vijňapişyāmi).—ve = payais also used in roots with other vocals as ā,i,ī, consonants and diphthongs : jīvāvedu (*jīvāpayatu), Mg. palivattāvehi (*parivartāpaya); M. ramāvěnti (*ramāpayanti); moāvemi, ⁰hi (mocāpayāmi, *mocāpaya); Mg. lihāvemi (*likhāpayāmi); M. māresi (mārayasi), Ś. māredha [34] (mārayatha), Mg. mālemi, ^ohi, ^odu, ^odha (mārayāmi, māraya, ^otu, ^ota).—With drś M. forms dāvemi, dāvei, dāvěnti (darśayāmi, ^oyati, ^oyanti), Ś. daṃsemi, daṃsaïssaṃ (darśayāmi, darśayişyāmi), Mg. daṃśaante (*darśayanto = darśayan.

Desiderative

31. The formation is like that in Sanskrit : jugucchedi [M. juucchai], jugucchanti (jugupsati, °nti); adijuucchida, Mg. adiyuuścida (atijugupsita); cikicchidavva (cikitsitavya); sussūsaïssam (śuśrūṣayiṣyāmi); Mg. śuśśūśida (śuśrūṣita).

Denominative

32. One way of the formation is directly from the stem : M. dukkhāmi (duḥkhāmi), dhavalaï (dhavalati), kahāmi, kahasi, kahaï (kathāmi, ⁰si, ⁰ti). – The usual formation is that in a (=aya) : M. umhāi (uṣmāyati); Ś. kuravaāadi (kurabakāyate); Mg. cilāadi (cirāyati); suhāadi, M. suhāaï (sukhāyati). There are onomatopoeic forms frequently like ghumaghumāadi, tharatharedi; finally following the way of causatively formed : saddāvemi (śabdāpayāmi), suhāvedi (sukhāpayāmi); Mg. śuskāvaïśśam (śuṣkāpayiṣyāmi); M. maïlei (*maïlayati), biuņei (dviguņayati).

Verbal Noun

33(a) **Participles.** The active present participle is built from the present stems ending in anto [Mg. ante], Feminine anti : jāṇanto; Mg. puścante; M. calanto (jānan, pṛcchan, calan); pĕkkhantī, M. apāvantī (*prekṣantī, aprāpnuvantī). – The present middle and passive participles has the termination māṇa, māṇā : ṇivattamāṇā, aṇuṇīamāṇā (nivartamānā, anunīyamānā). – Preterite passive participle has, as in Sanskrit the ta suffix and the na suffix [those in *da resp. become o*ṇa, whilst M. naturally for [35] ta has a only] : *gahida, M. gahia (gṛhīta); sumarida, Mg. śumalida (smṛta); pucchida, M. pucchia (pṛṣṭa); o*diṇṇa (datta), o*mukka (mukta from mukna).

b) **Gerund :** *hodavva, Ś. also bhavidavva, Mg. also huvidavva (bhavitavya); sodavva[also suņidavva], M. soavva (śrotavya); *kādavva, M. kāavva (kartavya). — The anīya suffix becomes *aņīa, M. aņijja : for ex. karaņīa, M. karaņija (karaņīya); Mg. palihalaņīa (pariharaņīya). — °kajja, Mg. kayya (kārya); °gējjha, Mg. dugghĕyha (=*gṛhya, *durgrhya).

c) **Infinitive**: The Ś. Mg. suffix dum, M. um often occurs with the pure stem or the stem of the present with the linking vowel *i*: for example, gacchidum beside gamidum and °*gantum; pucchidum, Mg. puścidum, M. pucchium (praṣṭum); kāredum (kārayitum); M. nivvāheum (nirvāhayitum); Mg. śodhāvedum (śodhāpayitum); more rarely being contraried : tāḍaïdum (tāḍayitum); Mg. mālaïdum (mārayitum); dhāridum, M. dhārium (dhārayitum); māridum, Mg. mālidum (mārayitum). From the second conjugation : sunidum, M. soum (śrotum); bhunjidum, M. bhöttum (bhoktum); gĕnhidum, M. gahium (grahītum); *kādum, karidum, M. kāum (kartum). Formations throughout corresponding to Sanskrit like jīvidukāma (jīvitu⁰), M. tāḍiumanā,

d) **Absolutive**. Apart from *kadua and *gadua (krtvā, gatvā), there is in Ś. Mg. ya (resp. a) which is the only governing suffix, while that for M. ūṇa is found. A distinction between the simple and the compound verbs is not made. –ṇaïa (*nayiya = nītvā), but āṇīa, avaņīa (ānīya, apanīya), *bhavia (bhūtvā); odaria, Mg. odalia (avatīrya); pariharia, Mg. palihalia (parihrtya); pěkkhia, Mg. pěskia (prekṣya); pavišia, Mg. pavišia (pravišya); gĕṇhia (grhītvā).—Examples for M. : jeūṇa (jitvā), hoūṇa (bhūtvā), hasiūṇa (hasitvā), vihasiūṇa (vihasya), gaḥiūṇa, ghĕttūṇa, the latter metrically also in Mg. (gṛhītvā).

N.B. : The grammatical discussions are made till the end of page 35. From the pages 36 to 43 the specimens from some texts are given. For the Specimens of Śaurasenī and Māhārāṣṭrī (pp. 36-38) the passages are taken from the *Karpūramaījarī* edited by Sten konow I.4.15-12.3. And the Specimen for Māgadhī (pp. 38-43) is given from the Śakuntalā edited by Richard Pischel, S 113-116. All the Prakrit texts are accompanied with Sanskrit rendering. [Editor] Registered with the Registrar of Newspapers for India Under No. R. N. 12121/66.

