# The Astādhyāyī of Pāṇini

Volume I
Introduction to the Aṣṭādhyāyī
as a Grammatical Device

Rama Nath Sharma

This volume examines the notions of grammar, rule, and derivation with reference to the Astādhyāyī as a grammatical device. An attempt has been made to clearly outline and illustrate the basic constructs of the Pāṇinian linguistic theory especially as they relate to the traditional views on the one hand and modern linguistic orientations on the other. A developmental history of the Paninian school focusing on major texts and trend along with a detailed treatment of rule-types, paribhāṣās, and samāsas, complement the discussion of derivational mechanism and related conventions.

This book is reprint edition of vol. I, with a translation of rules in the Index and an updated bibliography. In the meantime five volumes have already been published and the concluding volume six will be published soon. Vols. II-VI contain the text of the Aṣṭādhyāyī with English translation, explanatory notes and complete derivational history of all forms cited as examples by the Kāśikāvṛtti

Rama Nath Sharma is Professor of Sanskrit at the University of Hawaii at Manoa, Honolulu, Hawaii, USA. He received his Ph.D. (1971) in General Linguistics from the University of Rochester where he also taught Linguistics for five years. His research interest includes grammatical theory in general, and Pāṇini and the Indian grammatical tradition, in particular.

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# THE AṢṬĀDHYĀYĪ OF PĀŅINI

VOL. I

INTRODUCTION TO THE AṢṬĀDHYĀYĪ
AS A GRAMMATICAL DEVICE

### **RAMA NATH SHARMA**

University of Hawaii

Second revised and enlarged edition with Index of Sūtras (translated and explained)



In memory of my mother

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# Preface to the Second Edition

I am happy to see this reprint edition of volume one, The Aṣṭādhyāyī of Pāṇini, Introduction to the Aṣṭādhyāyī as a Grammatical Device. I had promised to prepare an enlarged edition of this study with additional details on scanning conventions and traffic rules but, mostly due to preparation of other volumes, I could not keep this promise. I do not think it will be possible for me to go back to it in the near future. There are still many other projects which I must complete. But since my presentation of derivational system still makes sense, and also since it could still be used to the benefit of understanding of Pāṇinian system of derivation, I am in favor of bringing this reprint edition. Pāṇini has become very popular in contemporary linguistics, computation and artificial intelligence. The Director of a German institute where they are working on computer application of Pāṇini, considers this volume the best available in the market. I have updated the bibliography and have added translations of rules in the index. I hope my readers will find this addition useful.

I would like to thank Christopher Bopp for preparing the index. Mr. Devendra Jain, Director of Munshiram Manoharlal Publishers, gets most credit for bringing out this reprint edition at such a short notice. I shall appreciate it very much if my readers write to me about the contents of this volume.

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## Preface to the First Edition

This book is a development of one basic assumption: that the Aṣṭādhyāyī of Pāṇini is a grammatical device which consists of a limited number of ordered rules capable of deriving an infinite number of correct Sanskrit sentences. This, essentially, is the assumption that modern linguists make about grammatical devices. However, the Pāṇinian device is in many ways unique. I have tried to present the basic mechanisms of this device by focusing upon how they actually operate in the derivation process.

Since there is considerable literature dealing with the nature, language and principles of the Astādhyāyī, and also since a comprehensive treatment of them is soon to be completed by George Cardona, I have strived to refrain from duplication. As already stated, my approach is different. However, certain topics had to be included, the discussion about kārakas in chapter 9, for example. Chapters 1 and 2 are provided by way of background. The remaining chapters, in one way or another, complement or illustrate my basic hypothesis. Chapter 7 presents a listing of the Pāṇinian definitions and interpretations. Such a listing is provided for quick reference. Chapter 8 presents some additional interpretive rules, which, although not explicitly stated in the Aṣṭādhyāyī are essential for properly comprehending its derivational mechanism. These interpretive rules have been selected from the Paribhāsenduśekhara of Nāgeśa based upon their importance for my study. This chapter is also essentially a reference chapter. Chapter 11 presents a detailed description of Sanskrit compounds which is designed to show how my proposals are fully applicable to an important derivational type.

My orientation towards Pāṇini is basically linguistic, in the sense that I try to look at the Aṣṭādhyāyī in view of questions which are often asked in modern linguistics, especially in the area of formulation, interpretation, order and application of rules. However, since I have relied heavily upon the traditional interpretations, instances accepting the traditional rather than the contemporary view are numerous. My rather critical attitude towards certain recent writings should not be looked upon as an effort on my part to diminish their importance; my motive in all cases has been to put them in proper perspective. There are features in Pāṇini which one may be tempted to identify with features outside Pāṇini. My position on such identification is that Pāṇini is what Pāṇini is. Any attempt to interpret the Aṣṭādhyāyī in the light of some particular contemporary linguistic

theory risks compromising Pāṇini. Finally, it should be understood that my ideas, though I have tried to present them clearly, are not the final word. There is still a great deal of work to be done. For example, the derivational conventions which I propose, need further refinement.

I am honoured to have had the opportunity of studying extensive passages from the traditional texts with my father, Pandit Raghunath Sharma. Pandit Ramaprasad Tripathi, and my younger brother Narendra — both of the Sanskrit University, Varanasi — were most helpful in bringing certain of my ideas into better focus. I am indebted to Professor O.L. Chavarria-Aguilar for leading me into Pāṇinian studies. I will be failing in my duties if I did not mention that I have benefited, above all, from the writings, which include unpublished manuscripts and personal communications, of Professor George Cardona of the University of Pennsylvania. Cardona has constantly served as an important source of reference and insight. Of course, I take full responsibility for any errors I may have made in this book.

Thanks are also due to the University of Hawaii, its Research Council and the Department of Indo-Pacific Languages, especially to its chairman, D. Haigh Roop, for facilitating my research through grants and sabbatical leave. The American Institute of Indian Studies has been very supportive of my research endeavours on Pāṇini. I am grateful for their grant under which I finished the writing of this volume.

This book is being published as volume one of a projected five-volume study. Subsequent volumes will include the text of the Aṣṭādhyāyī with English translation, explanatory notes and complete derivational history of all forms cited as examples by the Kāśikāvṛṭṭti. Finally, I must thank Stanley Schab, my research assistant, for not only editing and typing the manuscript but also for making some very valuable comments.

gahanataragranthārthān ativitatān vīksya mankṣu saṃkṣipatām / skhalitam api sambhaven nas tatra vibudhā vimatsarāh śaranam //

Prakriyāsarvasva (I:79) of Nārāyaṇabhaṭṭa

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# Abbreviations

	AD	anga domain
	CD	controlling domain
	CS	conceptual structure
	$\boldsymbol{D}$	dhātu
	DP	dhātupāṭha
	Ed.	editor
	FC	functional context
	<b>FSG</b>	finite state grammar
	<b>GP</b>	gaṇapāṭḥa
	Kāś	Kāśikā, Kāśikāvṛtti of Vāmana-Jayāditya
	Lā	lingānuśāsana
	Mbh	Mahābhāṣya, Vyākaraṇa-mahābhāṣya of Patañjali
	OD	obligatory domain
	$\boldsymbol{P}$	prātipadika
	PD	pada domain
	Phs	Phiț-sūtra
	PK	Prakriyā-kaumudī of Rāmacandra
	<b>PM</b>	Padamañjarī of Haradatta
	<b>PLM</b>	
	PŚ	Paribhāṣenduśekhara of Nāgeśa
	RI	referential index
	RV	Rgveda
	<b>SK</b>	Siddhānta-kaumudī of Bhaṭṭoji Dīkṣita
	SP	sūtrapāṭha
	Śs	Śiva-sūtra
	TG	transformational grammar
	tr.	translator
	Us	Uṇādi-sūtra
	vol	volume
\	<b>VP</b>	<i>Vākyapadīya</i> of Bhartṛhari

# Pāņini and the Pāņinīyas

A great deal of literature already exists on the developmental history of the Pāṇinian school of gṛammar. Recently, George Cardona (1976) presented an excellent study surveying this literature. Cardona not only provides the most comprehensive bibliography to date, but also judiciously examines major issues with reference to varying views and offers his own conclusions. My aim here is to present a general developmental history focusing on the major texts, their relationships, characteristics and style. While relative chronology will still be maintained, the focus will shift from chronology and relevant evidence to texts and trends. The date and time of various grammarians will not be discussed.<sup>1</sup>

The grammatical literature consists of sūtra 'rule', vrtti 'gloss', vārttika 'note', bhāṣya 'exposition', prakriyā 'derivation' and siddhānta 'theory'. A sūtra, literally a thread, is a formulaic statement which presents a rule of grammar in a laconic style which emphasizes brevity, although certainly not at the expense of clarity. A vrtti, technically, dwells upon a sūtra and is rendered in the form of a statement paraphrasing a rule by supplying understood or missing elements. A vārttika is a statement of an intermediate level between a sūtra and a vṛtti rendered with the express purpose of examining what has or has not been stated, or has been poorly stated, by a sūtra.2 A bhāṣya can be characterized as a detailed exposition (vyākhyāna) of a sūtra, along with corresponding vārttikas, structured in the style of illustration using examples (udāharaṇa) and counter-examples (pratyudāharaṇa). It seeks to supply any missing links (vākyādhyāhāra).3 Prakriyā normally represents the applied aspect of a sūtra in the sense that it focuses on the derivation of forms. It should be noted that though prakriyā focuses on examples and operations, it may also offer vrtti and exposition, though these latter only complement the rule application. The siddhānta literature focuses on the formulation and exposition of basic theoretical issues. Thus, these treatises will assume vrtti, vārttika and prakriyā unless these latter become crucial to the issues on hand. Except for the sūtras, all the other categories jointly constitute what is generally referred to as the commentarial literature.

<sup>3</sup> *Mbh*. I:43.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> The dates cited here are approximations generally accepted by scholars.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> uktānuktaduruktānām cintā yatra pravarttate / tam grantham vārttikam prāhur varttikajñā manisinah //

As is the standard practice, a commentary must have its pratīka 'symbol, unit of focus'. Thus, a vṛṭṭi accepts a sūṭṭra as its unit of focus. A bhāṣya treats a vāṛṭṭika as its unit of focus. When it comes to prakṛiyā, operational topics and examples serve as pratīka. For a treatise on siddhānṭa, it is a theoretical issue which constitutes the unit of focus. A commentary on vṛṭṭi will similarly treat a particular element of the vṛṭṭi as its pratīka. The pratīkas are often helpful in identifying specific issues. They also ensure that commentaries remain to the point. Given the idea of pratīka, one can easily discern the interrelationship among these forms of literature. The relationship between a sūṭṭra and vṛṭṭi, a vāṛṭṭika and bhāṣya, a bhāṣya and siddhānta and a vṛṭṭi and prakriyā thus becomes closely established. I shall illustrate this further when I discuss each individual type. Suffice it to say here that a commentary needs a focus.

Pāṇinians accept the  $Astādhyāy\bar{\imath}$  as the most important text representing the  $s\bar{\imath}tra$  form of literature. It is commonly referred to as the Astaka 'collection of eight', or the  $S\bar{\imath}trap\bar{\imath}tha$  (SP) 'recitation of  $s\bar{\imath}tras$ '. It consists of nearly four thousand  $s\bar{\imath}tras$  presented in eight chapters ( $adhy\bar{\imath}aya$ ) of four quarters ( $p\bar{\imath}ada$ ) each. Reference to a  $s\bar{\imath}tra$  is made by following the convention b.q.n. where b.q.n. represent the book, quarter and  $s\bar{\imath}tra$  number respectively. The first  $s\bar{\imath}tra$  of the first quarter of the first book, then, will be 1.1.1.

The only extant full-length vrtti on the SP is the Kāśikāvrtti (Kāśikā) of Jayaditya and Vamana (AD 7). The varttikas of Katyayana (3 BC) generally constitute the vārttika literature. They are available as part of the Vyākaraṇa-Mahābhāṣya (Mahābhāṣya; Mbh.) of Patañjali (2 BC) which, on its own merit, is accepted as the single most important commentary in the tradition. The prakriyā tradition begins with the Rūpāvatāra of Dharmakīrti (AD 11) and, through the *Prakriyākaumudī* (PK) of Rāmacandra (AD 14), reaches its peak in the Siddhantakaumudī (SK) of Bhattoji Dīksita (AD 16). In addition to the Mahābhāsya, which is indispensable for the understanding of any aspect of the Pāṇinian sūtras, the siddhānta treatises basically are constituted by the Vākyapadīya (VP) of Bhartrhari (AD 5), Vaiyākaranasiddhāntakārikā of Bhaṭṭoji Dīkṣita, Vaiyākaraṇabhūṣaṇa of Kauṇḍabhaṭṭa4 (AD 17) and Vaiyākaraņasiddhāntamañjūṣā of Nāgeśabhatta (Nāgeśa; AD 17-18) which has both a short and very short (laghu; paramalaghu) version. Pānini, Kātyāyana and Patañjali are called the three sages (trimuni) of grammar. According to the dictum of yathottaram muninam pramanyam, each subsequent sage enjoys relatively greater authority (pramāṇa), making Patañjali supreme authority in matters pertaining to Pānini.

I shall now present a general description of each type of literature mentioned above. Before we proceed, however, I must state my intention of not discussing the *siddhānta* literature. I so limit my discussion since (i) many

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Note that Kaundabhaṭṭa also wrote a commentary, the Vaiyākaraṇabhūṣaṇa, on the Vaiyākaranasiddhāntakārikā of Bhattoji Dīksita.

aspects of the *siddhānta* literature already will be covered by my discussion of other forms; (ii) even a general discussion on *siddhānta* treatises would require much space and (iii) their content, especially that of the *VP* of Bhartrhari, would take us far afield as they discuss aspects of grammatical theory by bringing ideas from metaphysics, philosophy, epistemology, logic and ritual.

The SP of the Aṣṭādhyāyī essentially was handed down to us through oral tradition. It is remarkable that the text, except for a few variant readings and interpolations, has remained intact, at least regarding its function. Variations in the SP are caused primarily by

- (1) their transmittal through oral tradition;
- (2) their acceptance by the authors of vṛtti (vṛttikāras) in one form or another;
- (3) recitation of certain sūtras by Pāṇini in different forms;
- (4) treatment of vārttikas, or parts therefrom, as a sūtra or its part;
- (5) inclusion of a sūtra as part of a gaṇa 'list of nominals in a group'; and
- (6) acceptance of interpretation or listing of *sūtras* found outside the Pāninian school.

It is claimed by Śrīśacandra Cakravartī (1919),<sup>5</sup> based on a verse cited in the preface of his edition of the Nyāsa, commentary by Jinendrabuddhi on Kāśikā, that the total number of sūtras which none other than Pāṇini himself composed comes to 3,996. The total number of rules in the Kāśikā comes to 3,981. The additional fifteen rules are accounted for by accepting as rules atha śabdānuśāsanam, the first aphorism of the Mahābhāṣya, and the fourteen Śivasūtras (Śs), rules which present the inventory of sounds in the order most conducive to forming and manipulating abbreviatory terms (pratyāhāra; see chapter 2 for details).

There are compelling reasons to believe in the Pāṇinian authorship of the Ss. Yudhiṣṭhira Mīmāṃsaka (1973:209-11) effectively demonstrates that atha śabdānuśāsanam is the opening aphorism of the Aṣṭādhyāyī. The total number of sūtras according to the SK of Bhaṭṭoji Dīkṣita is 3,976. The five-rule difference from Kāśikā is due to the omission in the SK of four rules from the fourth quarter of the fourth book and one rule from the fourth quarter of sixth book. The exact number of sūtras of the Aṣṭādhyāyī thus varies. Śrīnārāyaṇa Miśra (1969:49-54) discuṣses fifty-three rules with corresponding variations in the Kāśikā, Mahābhāṣya and SK. Yudhiṣṭhira Mīmāṃsaka (1973,II), and subsequently Bhattacharya (1966), have presented a list of variants. Bhattacharya also discusses why some of the variant readings are unacceptable as well as what may constitute a clue in figuring out which rules may be pre-Pāṇinian.

I shall now present some basic features of the SP which have been discussed in detail elsewhere in this volume. The Aṣṭādhyāyī is a grammar

 $<sup>^{5}</sup>$  trīni sūtrasahasrāņi tathā navašatāni va saņņavatim ca sūtrāņām pāņinih kṛtavān svayam.

(vyākaraṇa), and like all grammars, it too has a goal (lakṣya): to systematically analyse the correct sentences (vākya) of the Sanskrit language, both the classical as well as Vedic, by means of its sūtras (laksana). This analysis is presented by first identifying the constituent words (pada) of a sentence and then subjecting them to an analysis in terms of bases (prakrti), affixes (pratyaya) and operations  $(k\bar{a}rya)$  relative to emergent structures. This conceptual division of a sentence into padas underlying bases and affixes as well as operations applicable to emergent structures does not have any existence outside the world of grammar. It is strictly a product of the grammarian's own imagination (kalpanā; see chapter 3 for details). The object of this analysis, however, must be real. A grammarian presents the description of sentences existing in usage in the outside world. His laksana, as a consequence, becomes subservient to laksya. Pāṇini is no exception to this. It is because of this that the tradition recognizes him not as karttā 'creator' but as smarttā 'one who recalls'.6 That is, he does not create sentences but recalls them from usage. The relationship between grammar and usage is discussed in chapter 3.

A grammarian may have control over lakṣaṇa but certainly not over lakṣya. Since the means (upāya) of analysis is strictly the grammarian's own imagination (kalpanā), a possibility of varying sets of grammar cannot be ruled out. The quality of such grammars, however, has to be judged on the basis of how well they perform their function. The Aṣṭādhyāyī has been adjudged the best grammar ever written for any language. Leonard Bloomfield calls it "one of the greatest monuments of human intelligence." It should be remembered, however, that the excellence it achieved must be interpreted as the culmination of a very rich grammatical tradition.

In order to analyse Sanskrit sentences, Pāṇini presents the conceptual structure (CS) of sentences in which abstract syntactic categories and grammatico-semantic relations are identified. The process of lexicalisation, and operations on emergent structures, then follows. What is derived as a result is a correct sentence of the Sanskrit language. Mention must also be made here that Pāṇini manipulates the derivation of words as a tool for deriving sentences (see chapter 3 for details). He also restricts his analysis to form only; meaning has been treated by grammarians as falling outside the derivational competence of grammar. Whatever description of meaning is available in the Aṣṭādhyāyī is complementary to its goal and is provided largely in order to distinguish derivates. Again, such meanings are attested by usage, which is only logical since the grammar believes in the authority (prāmāṇya) of usage (loka).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Bhattacharya (1966:217).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Language (1933:11).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Bhattacharya (1966:214).

Now a few observations about rules. A sūtra is brief in form and precise in function. Proper understanding of both form and function is determined by context (prakarana). Context can be viewed as twofold: physical and functional though the overriding issue in both is function. Physical context refers to placement of rules in particular places. Rules sharing a physical or functional context are said to be related. Since a sūtra is a formulaic statement, physical context helps its interpretation via anuvrtti 'recurrence' and relative order, etc. It is well known that Pānini puts his sūtras in sets or blocks. The relative order of a sūtra in a set, or the order of sets within the grammar, underlies a relationship among sūtras which is crucial to the Pāṇinian derivational mechanism. For example, Pāṇini formulates his rules in view of general (sāmānya), particular (višesa) and residual (šesa) relationships. A particular rule is said to carve out its domain of application from within the domain of its corresponding general rule. In this sense, a particular rule is treated as an exception (apavāda) to its related general rule and consequently blocks its application. A residual rule covers whatever has not been covered by the general or related exceptions. The process of reference and *anuvrtti* is discussed in chapter 4; the types of rules and their hierarchical arrangement in chapters 5 and 6.

A rule is formulated to apply. That is, no rule is regarded as being completely without scope of application. A rule which is in danger of becoming vacuous (vyartha), blocks the application of the rule with valid scope of application elsewhere (see chapter 3 for details). This is the general position. However, in view of the complexity of the language as well as the derivational mechanism, more formulations are required to outline the relative strength of sūtras. Thus, if two rules become simultaneously (yugapad) applicable to a single context and both rules have valid scope of application elsewhere, the rule which is subsequent (para) in order of enumeration blocks the application of a prior ( $p\bar{u}rva$ ) rule (1.4.2 vipratisedhe...). Exceptions have also been made in cases where a particular rule does not block its general counterpart obligatorily (3.1.94 vā' sarūpo' striyām) or where application in turn (paryāya) is permitted (3.1.96 tavyat-tavyānīyarah). Similarly, blocking of an externally conditioned (bahiranga) rule or operation by an internally conditioned (antaranga) one is also permitted. Furthermore, since an entity x can be treated as y, the application of a rule or set of rules can be treated as suspended (asiddha) with reference to another rule or set (see chapter 5 for details). This principle of asiddhatva is responsible for dividing the Astādhyāyī into two major sections (8.2.1 pūrvatrāsiddham), the first consisting of the first seven books and the first quarter of book eight, and the second consisting of the last three quarters of book eight. Placement of rules in ordered sets also marks functional divisions within these major divisions. Of course, all functional divisions are made in light of internal relations among rules and the contexts they share. To sum up, the rules of the Aṣṭādhyāyī are formulated and arranged on the basis of context, function, relative strength and internal relationship.

Pāṇini's grammar serves as a means towards understanding sentences. This goal is accomplished by abstracting generalizations from usage and formulating rules which best capture that usage. In order to facilitate proper formulation, interpretation and application of rules, however, a grammar also requires a metatheory. This Pāṇini brilliantly supplies. In so doing, he carefully defines terms (samjñā), sets forth rules of interpretation (paribhāṣā) and outlines the conventions he follows. However, given the sūtra style of rules, one must make inferences, and test and reject or accept them depending on whether or not they are in consonance with Pāṇinian practice. Such procedure is the primary task of vyākhyāna which, in addition to being instrumental to the proper understanding of sūtras, has also contributed many proposals which are incorporated in the grammar. The paribhāṣās of the Paribhāṣenduśekhara (PŚ) of Nāgeśa (many of which may be found here in chapter 8) are one example. Another example is constituted by the vārttikas of Kātyāyana to which I shall now turn.

It has been stated that vārttikas are statements found in the bhāsya where they serve as pratika 'focus'. They focus on things which have not been or have been but poorly stated (durukta) in the sūtras (see above fn. 2). The existence of vārttikas prior to Kātyāyana is well established. However, the pre-Kātyāyana vārttikas are lost and vārttika has become synonymous with Kātyāyana's vārttika just as bhāsya has become synonymous with the Mahābhāsya of Patanjali. The total number of sūtras on which Kātyāyana offers his vārttikas is 1,245.10 Kielhorn gives the total number of vārttikas as 4,293. Is this a correct number? Why did Kātyāyana not offer vārttikas on other sūtras? These are not easy questions to answer. First of all, vārttikas are available as part of the Mahābhāṣya. Kielhorn effectively shows how they can be recognised by treating an immediately following paraphrase of Patanjali as a clue. However, not all vārttikas recognized by this method are accepted by commentators. Answering the second question is more difficult. Perhaps Kātyāyana did not find it necessary to add vārttikas to other rules or perhaps vārttikas on rules not treated by Patañjali have been lost as the Mahābhāsya is their only extant source. That Kātyāyana wrote vārttikas for only one-third of the sūtras of Pāṇini is difficult to believe. It is my thinking that Kātyāyana also formulated vārttikas on other rules but Patañjali did not make use of them. The reason for this thinking is the fact that a bhāsya treats vārttika as a pratīka in a well structured argument known as vyākhyāna. The selection and treatment of a vārttika depends entirely on how it fits in the structure of vyākhyāna. The very fact that Patanjali paraphrases a vārttika in the same way that a vṛtti paraphrases a sūtra is thus not a chance.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Mīmāmsaka (1973:292ff).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> Sarma (1968:54).

The purpose of a vārttika can only be established with reference to the structure of the Mahābhāṣya and corresponding discussion. Joshi (1969: iii-iv) characterizes the discussion of the Mahābhāṣya as a 'sustained argument and identifies its pattern as consisting of 'question (objection)-answer'. Since an objection has to be refuted or affirmed based on its examination in light of examples and counter-examples, an objection may have counter-objections which again may be refuted or reaffirmed. A vārttika forms part of this complex argument structure by serving as a pratīka. A vārttika can also ask questions, raise objections, refute or reaffirm them, though only as a player in the game plan totally at the mercy of the planner of the game. The purpose of a bhāṣya is to make a sūtra fully understood and the purpose of a vārttika is to complement a sūtra.

People still have the impression that Kātyāyana formulated his vārttikas to find fault with the sūtras of Pāṇini. However, since this is not true of all the vārttikas, and especially not of those which were rejected by Patañjali, this view should be abandoned. By focusing more on the vārttikas which Patañjali accepted and which seek certain modification in a sūtra or its scope, people consider Kātyāyana an antagonist of Pāṇini. They also think that Patañjali was the champion defender of Pāṇini against Kātyāyana. Kielhorn (1963:52) is correct in observing that "Pāṇini has suffered more at his [Patañjali's] hands than at those of the vārttikakāras". Patañjali (Mbh. I:128) claims that not even a single letter of a rule is meaningless. Yet we see many of the sūtras of Pāṇini declared meaningless by Patañjali. 11 Can we say that Patanjali is trying to find fault with the sūtras of Pāṇini? The answer has to be no. I think that it was a common practice to explain sūtras by raising doubts about aspects of their formulation and application. One can even call it putting a sūtra to test. This testing is indeed thorough and the Mahābhāsya, aided by vārttikas, does it commendably, though its ultimate goal is exposition. It has also been suggested that the Sanskrit language had changed by the time of Kātyāyana. To account for this change, Kātyāyana formulated vārttikas. 12 While linguistic changes from Pāṇini's time to Kātyāyana's may not be totally ruled out, understanding the primary purpose of the vārttikas as an attempt to accommodate them is unreasonable. I am not denying, however, that there are some vārttikas which can be viewed as proposing accommodation for usage subsequent to, or even contemporaneous with Pāṇini's Sanskrit.

I shall now try to explain the operation of  $v\bar{a}rttikas$  by using some specific examples. Given the string  $sudh\bar{\imath} + bhis up\bar{a}sya + sU(SK.~I:55)$  where bhis and sU are instrumental plural and nominative singular endings respectively, 2.1.32  $kartrkarane~krt\bar{a}~bahulam~$  can allow the formation of the compound  $sudhyup\bar{a}syah$  'to be revered by the wise'. The endings will be

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup> See, for example the Mbh. discussion of sūtras 1.4.25-31 (II:392-99).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> Sarma (1968:55-75).

deleted by 2.4.71 supo dhātu prātipadikayoḥ. However, Pāṇini, by rule 1.1.62 pratyayalope pratyayalaksanam, states that operations conditioned by an affix obtain even when the affix has been deleted. Given this, sudhī, whose affix bhis has been deleted, can still be treated as a pada (1.4.14 suptinantam padam). After 6.1.77 iko yan aci applies to yield  $sudh(\bar{i} \rightarrow y) + up\bar{a}sya$ , rule 8.2.23 saṃyogāntasya lopah becomes applicable. This rule requires the deletion of the last consonant of a conjunct occurring at the end of a pada. Thus, it would yield:  $sudh (y \rightarrow \emptyset) + up\bar{a}sya = *sudhup\bar{a}sya$ , a wrong form. It is true that after a replacement in yN by 6.1.77, the deletion of a final consonant of a conjunct at the end of a pada is not carried out. Pāṇini does not do this in his own sūtras either (cf. 5.2.94 tad asyāsty asminn iti matup; 2.4.44 ātmanepadeşv anyatarasyām). Obviously, the scope of 8.2.23 is much too wide. Kātyāyana (Mbh. V:387) suggests by his vārttika, saṃyogāntasya lope yanah pratisedhah, that deletion of an yN replacement at the end of a pada should be prohibited. As a result, wrong forms such as \*sudhupāsya cannot result. Pāṇini's failure to include this prohibition has been treated by many as his carelessness. 13 Kātyāyana's formulation of this vārttika then, can be treated as discussing something which has not been said, or has been stated but poorly; the vārttika thus complements the sūtra.

Now consider the order of constituents in a dvandva (2.2.29 cārthe dvandvaḥ) compound. Pāṇini states that a constituent having fewer vowels should be placed first (2.2.34 alpāc taram). However, some usages do not conform to this general ruling. Kātyāyana issues a series of clarifying vārttikas (Mbh. II:747-8). For example, he states that names of seasons and constellations which contain equal number of vowels should follow the order in which they occur (rtunakṣatrāṇāṃ ānupūrvyeṇa samānākṣarāṇāṃ pūrvanipātaḥ). Thus we get examples citrāsvātī 'the constellations Citrā and Svāti' and śiśiravasantau 'winter and spring', etc. Similarly, other usages are explained by additional vārttikas. Kātyāyana states that constituents with short (laghu; 1.4.10 hrasvaṃ laghu) vowels or those denoting an elder brother or lower number should also be preplaced. This accounts for examples such as śaraśādam 'reed and weed', yudhiṣṭhirārjunau 'Yudhiṣṭhira and Arjuna' and dvitrā 'two or three'. Obviously these vārttikas account for forms which could not be accounted for by rule 2.2.34.

The assignment of ātmanepada 'middle' and parasmaipada 'active' endings is very tricky. Kātyāyana has offered many vārttikas which further sharpen the focus of the Pāṇinian rules. Consider 1.3.25 upān mantrakarane which states that sthā used with the preverb upa takes ātmanepada when mantra is the karaṇa 'means par excellence' of the action. The word mantra refers to a hymn or chant. This could cover examples such as aindryā gārhyapatyam upatiṣṭhate 'he is worshipping the gārhyapatya fire by means of

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> Iyengar (1983:55).

chanting the hymn to Indra.' Kātyāyana introduces the vārttika: upād devapūjā-sangatikaraṇa-mitrakaraṇa-pathiṣv-iti. This extends the coverage of the rules to include examples where praising gods, making friends and road-destination are being expressed. Thus, we get the following examples:

- (a) ādityam upatiṣṭhate 'he is praising the Sun'
- (b) devadatto yajñadattam upatisthate
  'Devadatta is making friends with Yajñadatta'
- (c) ayam panthā pāṭaliputram upatiṣṭhate 'this road leads to Pāṭaliputra'.

Besides such numerous examples where Kātyāyana complements, commendably, the Pāṇinian rules, there are occasions when he offers vārttikas which are overruled by Patañjali. This suggests the following inference: the rejected as well as accepted vārttikas were offered not as independent statements questioning the formulation of the sūtras in question, but as statements serving as cues or symbols (pratīka) in light of which a sūtra may be examined. This makes a vārttika one unit of thought in the complex structure of a bhāṣya discussion. It is for this reason that a vārttika is also referred to as bhāṣyasūtra.

The Mahābhāṣya of Patañjali is regarded as the second most important grammatical text after the Astādhyāyī. As has been stated, its aim is the presentation of vyākhyāna 'exposition' of the sūtras of Pāṇini. It is claimed (Sarma 1968:53) that Patanjali commented upon 1,701 sūtras in addition to atha śabdānuśāsanam and eight Śivasūtras. He classified the Mahābhāṣya into 85 āhnikas 'day-sessions' with the first being generally known as Paspaśāhnika (Paspaśā) 'introductory day-session'. The order of selected sūtras follows the Pāṇinian order. A bhāṣya discussion is rendered as a dialogue or structured argument where a vārttika or a statement from Patañjali serves as pratīka. After a paraphrase of a vārttika is presented, the discussion illustrates and evaluates it by means of arguments supported by examples and counter-examples. The tradition recognizes three participants in the discussion: the student (sisya), teacher's aide (ācāryadeśīya) and teacher (ācārya). The tradition also makes references to a participant who knows only part of the truth (ekadeśin) and another who offers the final view (siddhantin). It is to be remembered here that identifying the statements of these participants is often difficult.

The bhāsya discussions seem to be structured around two basic issues: what is given as established and whether or not that can be accepted. Thus, sūtra, vārttika or statement from Patañjali can be treated as given. Whether that can be accepted as established depends on the nature of doubts raised against it. If a doubt is satisfactorily resolved, the statement is accepted. If not, modifications are proposed, discussed and accepted. Patañjali begins

the Mahābhāṣya by taking atha śabdānuśāsanam 'here commences the instruction of words' as a pratīka. Questions are then raised about the meaning of the word śabda, its nature (svarūpa) and the purpose (prayojana) of grammar (śabdānuśāsana). The discussion then moves to the nature of grammar. At a time when the discussion is progressing towards the meaning of a word as the subject-matter of grammar, Patañjali offers another pratīka, this time as a vārttika (Mbh. I:27):

siddhe sabdārthasambandhe

'given that word (śabda), meaning (artha) and their inter-relationship (sambandha) is eternal (nitya) ...'

The discussion now centers on *nitya*, its sense (*nityatva*) and the types of eternality. The question of considering a word as  $\bar{a}k\gamma ti$  'form class,' which offered the occasion for introducing this  $v\bar{a}rttika$  is taken up again. This discussion, too, proceeds with example and counter-example; one can find this pattern of argument throughout the  $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}sya$ .

Patañjali should be commended for presenting the basic theoretical issues related to the grammar of Pāṇini in the Paspaśā. (For his views on grammar in detail see chapter 3.) I shall here present a summary of some issues raised. Patañjali first discussed word (śabda) as the subject-matter of grammar. This refers to the words both of Vedic and classical Sanskrit. An example of word in classical Sanskrit is offered: gauh 'cow, bull'. A question is raised whether what is perceived as having dew-lap  $(s\bar{a}sn\bar{a})$ , tail  $(l\bar{a}ng\bar{u}la)$ , hump (kakuda), hooves (khura) and horns (visāna) is the word gauh. The answer is no, since that is dravya 'thing'. 14 Does motioning (ingita), moving (cestita) or blinking eyes (nimisita), since they express meaning, constitute word? The answer again is no since those are actions  $(kriy\bar{a})$ . What about white  $(\acute{s}ukla)$ , blue  $(n\bar{\imath}la)$ , brown (kapila), or brindled (kapota)? These are not words either as they are qualities (guna). 16 Can word be that which is a common property therein things and is not destroyed when they are destroyed? No, that is ākrti 'class, universal'. 17 What then is word? Word is that, by which when uttered one perceives things having dew-lap, tail, hump, hooves and horns; that is, the thing cow, <sup>18</sup> or, word is sound (*dhvani*) by means of which meaning is comprehended. 19 Now, what about word being ākṛti (jāti) 'universal' or dravya 'thing'; it could be both.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup>(Mbh. I:5) atha gaur ity atra kaḥ śabdaḥ? kim yat tat sāsnā-lāṅgūla-kakuda-khura-viṣāṇy artharūpam sa śabdaḥ. nety āha; dravyam nāma tat.

<sup>15(</sup>lbid. I:6) yat tarhi tad ingitam ceştitam nimişitam sa sabdah. nety āha; kriyā nāma sā.

<sup>16(</sup>Ibid.) yat tarhi tac chulko nīlaḥ kṛṣṇaḥ kapilaḥ iti sa śabdaḥ nety āha; guṇo nāma saḥ.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup>(Ibid.) yat tarhi tadbhinneşv abhinnam chinneşv acchinnam samānyabhūtam sa sabdaḥ nety āha; ākṛtir nāma sā.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>18</sup>(Ibid. I:7) kas tarhi śabdaḥ? yenoccāritena sāsnā-lāṅgūla-kakuda-khura-viṣāṇināṃ saṃpratyayo bhavati sa śabdah.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>19</sup>(Ibid.) athavā pratītapadārthako loke dhvaniḥ śabdaḥ ity ucyate . . . tasmād dhvaniḥ śabdaḥ.

It is in this context that the vārttika siddhe śabdārthasambandhe is introduced and the discussion turns to the word nitya 'eternal'. Patañjali states that the word nitya of the vārttika is synonymous with siddha. He illustrates this synonymity by these examples: siddhā dyauḥ 'heaven is eternal'; siddhā pṛthivī 'the earth is eternal' and siddham ākāśam 'the ether is eternal'. Answering the question of how one knows what is eternal, he says:20 that which is kūṭastha 'fixed' and doesn't move from one state to another (avicāli) is nitya. Commentators call it kūṭasthanityatā. However, siddha may also denote things accomplished by means of an action. Consider these sentences: siddhaḥ odanaḥ 'the rice is cooked'; siddhaḥ sūpaḥ 'the broth is cooked' and siddhā yavāgūḥ 'the gruel is cooked'. So long as the word siddha is available in usage denoting something brought about by means of an action, it could not be treated as synonymous with nitya alone. Patañjali refuses to accept nitya as referring to sādhya 'to be accomplished by means of an action'.21

The discussion now focuses on a paraphrase of the vārttika accomplished by taking word (śabda) as referring to ākrti 'form, class' or dravya 'thing', on the one hand, and the question of eternality (nityatva) on the other. The question of the difference between ākrti 'form' and jāti 'class, universal' is also implied. The eternality of jāti can be understood but that of dravya is hard to comprehend. Patanjali starts by saying that dravya is nitya but ākrti is not. He illustrates this by the example of gold (suvarna) which remains the same though its form changes from one ornament to another.<sup>22</sup> He then takes the position that *nitya* refers to a thing which remains fixed (dhruva, kūtastha), is not modified, nor moves from one state to another; it sustains no loss or gain and retains its basic element (tattva) even when it is destroyed.<sup>23</sup> This retention can be compared with the notion of pravāhanityatva 'eternality in a continuum'24 which is used in the context of speech which is passed from one generation to another. A word is spoken, and when spoken, brings about the understanding of meaning. The spoken word is thus the manifestation of the eternal characterized as kūṭastha. This is passed from generation to generation, still eternal, though in a continuum.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>20</sup> (Ibid.:28) nityaparyāyavācī siddhaśabdaḥ. kathaṃ jñāyate? yat kūṭastheṣv avicāliṣu bhāveṣu vartate. tad yathā-siddhā dyauh, siddhā prthivī, siddham ākāśam iti.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>21</sup> (Ibid.:28) yāvatā kāryeşv api vartate. tad yathā-siddhah odanah, siddhah sūpah, siddhā yāvāgūr iti. yāvatā kāryeşv api vartate tatra kuta etan nityaparyāyavācino grahaņam na punah kārye yah siddhaśabda iti...siddha eva na sādhya iti.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>22</sup> (Ibid.:31) ...tathā suvarņam kayācid ākṛtyā yuktam piṇḍam bhavati...punarāvṛttah suvarṇapiṇḍah punar aparayākṛtyā yuktah khadirāngārasavarņe kuṇḍale bhavatah. ākṛtir anyā cānyā bhavati, dravyam punas tad eva.

<sup>25 (</sup>Ibid.:31) athavā nedam eva lakṣaṇaṃ-dhruvaṃ kūṭastham avicālyanapāyopajanavikāryanutpatyavrddhyavyayayogi yat tan nityam iti. tad api nityaṃ yasmims tatvaṃ na vihanyate.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>24</sup> See Cardona (1976:256).

It is clear from above that Patañjali does not accept word merely as jāti, ākṛti, kriyā or guṇa. For him, a word is that which, when uttered, brings about comprehension of meaning (artha). The word is thus dhvani but only for ordinary people. For grammarians, the real word is sphoṭa 'that by means of which meaning is made manifest'. 25 It is received by ears, perceived by buddhi 'mind, thought process' and reflected in sound (dhvani). This reflection in sound is not the reflection of meaning. Instead, it is the reflection of word. Meaning does not leave word (Mbh. I:510). Meaning is comprehended by word itself. The word is eternal and resides within us.

Patañjali quotes a hymn<sup>26</sup> (RV. 4.58.3) which characterizes word as a bull with four horns, three feet, two heads and seven hands. The bull has been tied in three places and is roaring. This bull is the great god who has made his abode within us mortals. In order to be one with this god one must study grammar.<sup>27</sup> It is stated that the four horns are nāman 'nominals', ākhyāta 'verbs', upasarga 'preverbs' and nipāta 'particles'. The two heads are the eternal word and the word in the form of sound. The seven hands are the seven triads of nominal endings (vibhakti). The bull is tied at the chest, throat and head. This idea of the great bull was further elevated to the status of brahman 'supreme being' characterized as the eternal word. This and the doctrine of sphoṭa have been discussed in detail in the VP of Bhartrhari.

The basic purpose of a grammar, says Patañjali (Mbh. I:25) is to account for the words of a language, not by enumerating each one of them, but by writing a set of general (sāmānya) rules with related exceptions (viśeṣa). These rules must be based on generalizations abstracted from usage for which the language of the śiṣṭas 'learned' is the norm. Use of correct words brings merit (puṇya), though Patañjali seems to be making an additional proposal. That is, as word-by-word enumeration is not a good means (upāya) of understanding words, understanding them by means of incorrect words is equally futile. The mass of incorrect words is overwhelming and making generalizations based upon them is impossible. Hence, Patañjali recommends that for economy (lāghava)<sup>28</sup> one must study words by focusing on correct usage (see chapter 3 for details).

Patañjali, as explained above, closely associates word and meaning. In doing so, he was led to address the question of whether individual sounds

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>25</sup> (Ibid.) ...sphotah śabdah, dhvanih śabdaguṇah...

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>26</sup> (Ibid.) catvāri śringā trayo asya pādā dve śīrse sapta hastāso asya tridhā baddho vṛṣabho roravīti maho devo martyām ā viveśa.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>27</sup> (Ibid.:17) catvāri śringāni catvāri padajātāni nāmākhyātopasarganipātāś ca. trayo asya pādās trayaḥ kālāḥ bhūta-bhaviṣyad-varttamānāḥ. dve śīrṣe dvau śabdātmānau nityaḥ kāryaś ca. sapta hastāso asya sapta vibhaktayaḥ...mahān devaḥ śabdaḥ...mahatā devena naḥ sāmyaṃ yathā syād ity adhyeyam vyākaranam.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>28</sup> (Ibid.:24) laghutvāc chabdopadeśaḥ. laghīyāñ śabdopadeśo garīyān apaśabdopadeśaḥ.

carry any meaning. The discussion (Mbh. I:101-6) starts with the vārttika:

arthavanto varņadhātuprātipadikapratyayanipātānām ekavarņānām arthadarśanāt.

This vārttika argues that since a dhātu 'root', prātipadika 'nominal stem', pratyaya 'affix' or nipāta 'particle' consisting of a single sound segment is seen to carry a meaning, a single sound segment carries meaning. Further support to this argument is brought by a second vārttika:

varņavyatyaye cārthāntaragamanāt.

A single sound segment is meaningful because changing a sound segment brings about change in meaning. Thus, consider  $k\bar{u}pah$  'water-well',  $s\bar{u}pah$  'soup' and  $y\bar{u}pah$  'ritual post' where changing k, s and y results in change of meaning. This  $v\bar{a}rttika$  seems to be arguing that the meanings of these individual words are carried by k, s and y respectively. Now consider the third  $v\bar{a}rttika$ :

varnānupalabdhau cānarthagate.

The argument that a single sound segment carries meaning can also be supported by the fact that removing a sound segment renders a sequence meaningless as far as the original meaning is concerned. Thus, removing v from vṛkṣa would remove the meaning 'tree'. Further support is forwarded by the following vārttika:

samghātārthavatvāc ca.

A single sound segment carries meaning since it is part of a conglomeration which is meaningful. Thus, a conglomeration is meaningful because its parts are also meaningful. Or, a conglomeration is meaningless because its parts are also meaningless. A single sesame contains oil; hence, its conglomeration contains oil; but, just as a single blind person is not capable of seeing anything, so neither is a conglomeration of blind people. This shows that those parts whose conglomerations are meaningful are also meaningful.

Arguments next are advanced in favour of a conglomeration alone being meaningful. The  $v\bar{a}rttikas$  again summarize the arguments against the necessary background provided by the  $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}sya$ . If one accepts that a single sound segment carries meaning, then operations applicable to meaningful items would obtain on individual sounds. An example in point is the introduction of sU, etc., and in consequence, the assignment of the term pada and the deletion of the final -n. At this point, a  $v\bar{a}rttika$  is introduced which asserts that since a single meaning can only be expressed by a conglomeration, sU, etc., cannot be introduced after individual sound segments:

samghātasyaikārthyāt sub abhāvo varņāt.

This apparently was in response to the view that single sound segments carried meaning. The  $v\bar{a}rttika$  tries to remove the doubt that sU, etc., could thus be applied to individual sounds. Now consider the following  $v\bar{a}rttika$ :

anarthakās tu prativarņam arthānupalabdheh.

Single sound segments are indeed meaningless since meaning does not obtain in each and every sound segment. Furthermore:

varnavyatyayāpāyopajanavikāresv adarsanāt.

Here, original meaning is not seen to be impaired even when sound segments are transposed, deleted, added or replaced. Thus, hiṃs undergoes transposition in deriving siṃha 'lion' but there is no transposition of meaning. There is a deletion of nof han in deriving hata 'killed' but there is no deletion of meaning. In deriving lavitum 'for the purpose of cutting,' the iT has been added without any addition in meaning. Finally, the h of han is replaced by gh in deriving ghātakaḥ 'killer' but its original meaning has not been replaced. If individual segments were carrying any meaning, then their transposition, deletion, addition or replacement should also have resulted in the transposition, deletion, addition or replacement of meanings. This shows that individual segments do not carry any meaning.

The bhāṣya now, after presenting both positions, asks what view should be treated as correct. The answer, as shown in the real world, is both. Among students putting in equal effort and studying, some are successful, others not. By analogy, just because single sound segment is meaningful, everyone does not become meaningful. The rest do not carry any meaning. However, this may create difficulty with kūpaḥ, sūpaḥ and yūpaḥ in connection with which it was argued that the distinction in meanings of these three words was based on k, s and y. This would mean that their individual meanings are tied to individual sound segments which, in turn, become meaningful. This difficulty is removed by understanding these three words as three different conglomerates. Simply switching k, s, and ydoes not change the meaning of their respective conglomerates. If that was the case, since upah is common to them all, quite a large segment of meaning of, for example, kūpah should remain in sūpah and yūpah and vice versa. Since this is not the case, we understand these three words as separate conglomerations with separate meanings. A problem remains, however. The bhāṣya accepted that the meaning of kūpaḥ is the meaning of its k, and so on. This renders  $\bar{u}pa$  vacuous. The  $bh\bar{a}sya$  resolves this difficulty while discussing rule 1.2.45 arthavad.... There it states that sometimes one may find that a conglomeration gives a meaning which may not be available to its individual parts. Similarly, in regards to a chariot (ratha) or liquor (surā), the component parts of a ratha, for example, do not

possess movement (gati) but only the conglomeration does so, while the various elements which are brought into making liquor are individually not intoxicating but their conglomeration is so. Thus it is not always the case that if the conglomeration is meaningful that the parts which compose it are also meaningful. In short, meaningfulness should be decided based upon anvaya 'concurrent presence' and vyatireka 'concurrent absence'. This extended discussion in the Indian grammatical tradition clearly shows both how the grammarians were concerned with theoretical issues which still interest contemporary linguists, as well as how they were fond of drawing analogies between the world of grammar and the outside world.

Since a grammarian believes in the authority of words as attested by usage (loka), the real world has prominence in the discussions of the Mahābhāṣya. It is not just a coincidence that Patañjali constantly brings the realities of the ouside world to bear upon the discussions of the inside world of grammar. There are numerous maxims (nyāyas) which Patañjali mentions in support of grammatical discussions. These maxims, aside from explaining a particular point of view, make the discussions livelier. Some of them are discussed below.

Consider the maxims: takrakaundinya, dhānyapalāla and devadattahantrhanan (odyat)a (Mbh. I:436). They concern general rules (utsarga), exceptions (apavāda) and their negation (pratisedha). With the understanding that an exception carves out the domain of application from within the domain of a general rule, let us investigate the meaning of these maxims. The maxim takrakaundinya is referenced in the Mahābhāsya (I:352) by dadhi brāhmaņebhyo dīyatām, takram kauņģinyāya 'let yoghurt be given to the brāhmanas; buttermilk to Kaundinya'. Now, Kaundinya, to whom buttermilk is supposed to be given, is also a brāhmaṇa. He, by being a brāhmaṇa, is entitled to the gift of yoghurt (dadhi). However, by being Kaundinya, he is entitled only to the gift of buttermilk (takra). A conflict may arise here since he meets the condition of both gifts. Moreover, there is no indication whether Kaundinya should be blocked from receiving dadhi forever. Can he be given yoghurt after he has been given buttermilk? Here, the general (dadhidāna) and specific (takradāna) are both concurrently present just as we see the grain (dhānya) in the husk (palāla).29 There is a concurrent presence of the specific contained within the general (dhānyapalālanyāya). However, the general and the specific cannot be applied concurrently and since a specific provision in relation to a general would become meaningless unless it is used, the buttermilk supercedes the yoghurt, the grain wins over the husk. More clearly, in grammar, an exception blocks the general rule.

This blocking of a general by a related exception has been likened to the killing (hanana) of a general rule. Now, let us see what happens when an

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>29</sup> For a detailed discussion see Mbh. I:57-58; also p. 259.

exception is negated (pratisidhyate); that is, when the killer of a general rule is killed. This is the subject of devadattahantrhanan (odyat) anyāya. The question is, can Devadatta, a general rule killed by an exception, become alive when his killer, the exception, is killed by negation (pratisedha). Remember that a general rule has right of application to the entire domain in which an exception carves out its subdomain. When this latter is negated, can the general, once blocked by the exception, be applied? Well, first of all, how could Devadatta become alive when he has been killed by the killer — this is against the reality of the outside world. The only way Devadatta could be alive is when someone, who is about to kill him, is killed by someone else. Devadatta does not become alive either once he is killed or when he is saved from being killed by someone; he is still inactive. This maxim does not hold good for the world of grammar. For, in the world of grammar, a general rule blocked by an exception finds its scope only when a negation has applied to the exception and the general rule still finds scope. Note also that when a negation applies, and afterwards, when the general rule finds its scope, it is as though the general rule has become alive after having been killed by the negation. I have omitted ramifications of these three maxims, especially in the manner in which they are interpreted with reference to particular examples, as my purpose here is only to show how Patañjali manipulates parallels from the outside world to support or reject certain proposals. I hope this also shows how these maxims add colour to the discussion on hand.

Many examples cited in the Mahābhāṣya also add colour to the discussions, even though indirectly, since their basic purpose is to illustrate the issue on hand. Consider for example: abrāhmaṇo' yaṃ yas tiṣṭhan mūtrayati (Mbh. II:674) 'he is a non-brāhmaṇa as he is urinating while standing', khaṇḍikopādhyāyaḥ śiṣyāya capeṭāṃ dadāti (Mbh. I:137) 'the teacher is slapping the student', chatropānahapriyaḥ (Mbh. II:614) 'a student to whom shoes and umbrella are dear', and vaiyākaraṇakhasūciḥ (Mbh. II:614) 'a grammarian who, when asked a question, points towards the sky'.

Consider one additional, though slightly different, example: udahāri bhagini yā tvaṃ kumbhaṃ harasi śirasā anaḍvāhaṃ sācīnam abhidhāvantam adrākṣīḥ (Mbh. I:454) 'O, you sister, carrying water in a pitcher on your head, did you see a bull running about here and there'. This is an example of a complex sentence where the relationships among the constituents is easier to comprehend than in: anaḍvāham udahāri yā tvaṃ harasi śirasā kumbhaṃ bhagini sācīnam abhidhāvantam adrākṣīḥ. Note that the language is simple, yet changing the word order creates complexity. Patañjali is gifted when it comes to writing simple sentences with lyrical flow. He uses the best of simple idiomatic Sanskrit, though his sentences are able to deliver the maximum of meaning. Patañjali's power of observation is unlimited, his style very lucid, yet his presentation remains economical and precise.

There are two major commentaries on the Mahābhāṣya: the Mahābhāṣya-Pradīpa (Pradīpa) of Kaiyaṭa (AD 11) and the Mahābhāṣya-Pradīpodyotana (Udyota) of Nāgeśa. The former is regarded as the single most important commentary in the tradition. Without the Pradīpa, so goes the claim, the Mahābhāṣya could never be fully understood. The latter commentary, Udyota, though apparently a commentary on Kaiyaṭa's Pradīpa, is in many ways a commentary on the Mahābhāṣya itself.

Bhartrhari (VP. II:482) is correct in claiming that the seeds of all basic principles are embodied in the Mahābhāṣya (sarveṣāṃ nyāyabījānāṃ mahābhāṣye nibandhane). These principles not only relate to Sanskrit grammar and linguistics but also to logic, philosophy and life. His discussions also reflect methodological precision. Kielhorn (Staal:1972) has discussed, with illustration, some of the techniques the Mahābhāṣya manipulates in dealing with the sūtras. Thus, yogavibhāga 'splitting a rule into two or more', anabhidhāna 'non-denotation', anuktasamuccaya 'gathering something not stated,' jñāpaka 'clue derived based on Pāṇini's practice', etc., can be cited as prominent examples. Kielhorn (Staal, 1972:127) claims that Kātyāyana and Patañjali together have resorted to yogavibhāga close to a hundred times. These interpretive techniques show the analytical acumen of Patañjali. Above all, they show the desire and capability on his part to accomplish the goal stated by a sūtra.

I have indicated that the relationship between a sūtra and its vrtti is very similar to that between a vārttika and a bhāsya. The purpose of a vrtti is to faithfully paraphrase the sūtra such that it includes all the information relevant to the correct understanding of the sūtra. Since a paraphrase cannot be arrived at without properly analysing the constituents of a sūtra in terms of endings and compounds, vrtti normally includes such information. Since sūtras rely a great deal on understood information, it is the task of the vrtti to retrieve such information, either by indicating its domain (adhikāra) and recurrence (anuvrtti) or by making explicit statements. Examples and counter-examples follow, though only as an effort to indicate the application of a sūtra. This is the minimum one can expect from a vrtti. A vrtti is committed to the sūtra and hence, is not supposed to offer any criticism. This latter is the domain of bhāsya. Chronologically, a vrtti precedes a vārttika. I have treated the discussion of the Mahābhāsya first because the only extant full-length vrtti available to us is fairly late.

Yudhişthira Mīmāṃsaka (1972:435-37) claims, based upon internal evidence from the *Mahābhāṣya* and Kaiyaṭa, that there were at least four or five *vṛttis* written on the *sūtras* of the *Aṣṭādhyāyī* that predate Patañjali. From some *Mahābhāṣya* statements claiming that certain *sūtras* were explained by Pāṇini in different ways, Mīmāṃsaka concludes that Pāṇini must have composed his own *vṛtti*. Mīmāṃsaka brings further evidence to support this claim. I have already stated that given the *sūtra* style of rule

formulation, a vṛṭṭi to follow is a must. Pāṇini may not have composed a vṛṭṭi but he must have explained his sūṭṭas by means of statements similar to vṛṭṭi. The pre-Patañjalian authors of vṛṭṭis include names such as Vyāḍi, Kuṇi and Māthura. Mīmāṃsaka discusses forty-six vṛṭṭis in all, thirty-eight of them with the discussion of their authors.

The Kāśikāvṛtti (Kāśikā) is regarded as the third most important grammatical text after the Aṣṭādhyāyī itself and the Mahābhāṣya. Commentators explain its name either by interpreting it as kāśiṣu bhāvā 'brought about at Kāśī' (now Varanasi) or as kāśayati prakāśayati sūtrārthān 'that which illuminates the meaning of sūtras'. The authorship of this vṛtti also has been debated. A majority of scholars consider it the work of Jayāditya and Vāmana (AD 7). There is also disagreement on who wrote what portions of this vṛtti. It is generally believed that the first five books were written by Jayāditya and the remaining three by Vāmana. However, there is much evidence, both external and internal, concerning the authorship which is conflicting; the dual authorship of the Kāśikā, though, is settled. These and other questions have been discussed in detail by Mahesh Dutt Sharma (1974) and Vedālankāra (1977). Some of the following observations also come from these studies.

The opening stanzas describe the features of Kāśikā as being a summary of principal views scattered over vrttis, bhāsya, dhātupārāyana 'listing of roots', and nāmapārāyana 'listing of stems in groups', etc. Furthermore, it includes ișți 'desiderata', upasamkhyāna 'addenda', śuddhagana 'correct listing of gaṇas', unfolding of hidden meanings of sūtras (vivrtaghūdhasūtrārtha) and the derivation of forms (rūpasiddhi) constituting examples. We know from Kāśikā itself that it includes the vārttikas of Kātyāyana and the istis of the Mahābhāsya. In addition, Kāśikā has its own istis and vārttikas. Its examples and counter-examples often remind one of the style of the bhāsya where they are presented in view of arguments and counterarguments. All this does not fit very well within the framework of vṛtti in the technical sense of the term. A retti does not normally include istis and upasaṃkhyāna. Nor does it include gaṇas, let alone their corrected forms. Kāśikā, in view of its features, looks more like a condensed bhāsya. Since Kāśikā is a fairly late text and clearly summarizes the principal views of diverse sources, because of the availability of materials and a desire to accommodate all of them, its content goes far beyond the expected content of a vrtti. However, it still is a vrtti since it accepts a sūtra as the pratīka for its discussion.

Kāśikā has often been charged with presenting sūtras with variant readings. It discusses 3,981 sūtras which also include atha śabdānuśāsanam and fourteen Ss. There are four major sources for variant readings: rule splitting (yogavibhāga), elevation of a vārttika to the level of a sūtra, inclusion of all or part of a vārttika in a sūtra and addition or deletion of certain items

from a sūtra. Vedālankāra (1977:350-1) lists fifteen sūtras where yogavibhāga is discussed by Mahābhāsya; Kāśikā accepts nine sūtras and lists them as eighteen. Vedālankāra argues that since Kāśikā did not accept other proposals of yogavibhāga and only accepted what SP was available from the tradition, the authors of Kāśikā did not introduce yogavibhāga by themselves. This is not acceptable. Kāśikā was well aware of the Mahābhāsya, which means the authors of Kāśikā had the Mahābhāsya available to them from the tradition. If they accepted only what was available from the tradition there is no reason why they should not have accepted the other instances of yogavibhāga. The logic that the edition of the Mahābhāsya which the authors of Kāśikā may have had access to did not have yogavibhāga, and hence Kāśikā did not accept it, is hardly convincing. For, there are instances in Kāśikā where yogavibhāga ascribed to kecit 'someone' is referred to but obviously not accepted. This means that the authors of Kāśikā must have applied their own judgment as to whether or not to accept a particular yogavibhāga. Besides, listing a sūtra as split, at least for authors such as these, would amount to saying that they did the splitting.

There are ten instances where a vārttika has been listed by Kāśikā as a sūtra and sixteen instances where Kāśikā includes part of a vārttika in a sūtra. The variations caused by addition or deletion are numerous. The instances of vārttikas being listed as separate sūtras could clearly be labelled violations if it could be shown that deleting them would cause serious gaps in the functioning of the Aṣṭādhyāyī; gaps which could not be filled by accepting them only as vārttikas. I am not convinced that such gaps would result. The addition of a vārttika as part of a sūtra could still be treated as a violation, for a statement of the vṛttikāra could easily account for it. However, in some cases, Kāśikā has included vārttikas in sūtras for economy. A case, on this same ground, can also be made for instance where Kāśikā collapses vārttikas into one.

The same economy can be seen as the reason for adding elements to a sūtra. Consider as an example rule 3.1.126 āsuyuvapirapilapi... where an additional root lapi has been added. Patañjali does not discuss this rule. Haradatta's PM on 3.1.126 makes no comment. Jinendra's Nyāsa seems to be accepting the inclusion of lapi. The SK and Tattvabodhinī do not accept it. This rule introduces affix NyaT to derive forms such as lāpyam. Now, if this root is not included in this rule forms such as lāpyam would emerge by the introduction of yaT. The NyaT derivate lāpyam could never be derived. The addition of lapi to the rule is found in the Cāndra-vyākaraṇa (cf. 1.1.133 āsuyu...lapi...). Some treat it as an influence of Cāndra on Kāśikā, although this inclusion is perfectly in accord with Kāśikā's stated goal of bringing information from elsewhere. Kāśikā simply wants to account for forms like lāpyam. Without the inclusion of the root lapi in the sūtra, this is not possible. This inclusion could be looked upon as useless if lāpyam did not exist in usage.

However, since it does exist,  $K\bar{a}\dot{s}ik\bar{a}$  accounts for it. Why did not  $K\bar{a}\dot{s}ik\bar{a}$  not account for it by employing some other means? Other means, such as writing a  $v\bar{a}rttika$  or isti would have been uneconomical. Besides, the structure of the rule is such that  $l\bar{a}pyam$  can be accounted far easily by inserting lapi into the  $s\bar{u}tra$ .

There are several  $s\bar{u}tras$  in the  $K\bar{a}sik\bar{a}$  where its description is influenced by  $C\bar{a}ndra$  and  $K\bar{a}tantra$ . Most of these influences have been recorded by  $K\bar{a}sik\bar{a}$  in the form of modifying a  $s\bar{u}tra$  or rendering a statement in the form of a  $v\bar{a}rttika$  or isti. An example of addition has already been discussed. Now consider the following rules.

2.2.3 dvitīyatṛtīyacaturthaturyāṇy anyatarasyām

Kāśikā: turīyaśabdasyāpīṣyate

'the compound formation of tunya is also desired'.

3.2.86 karmani hanah

Kāśikā: kutsitagrahaṇaṃ kartavyam

'kutsita 'censured' should also be included'

4.1.54 svāngāc copasarjanād asamyogopadhāt

Kāśikā: angagātrakanthebhya iti vaktavyam

'after anga 'limb,' gātra 'body' and kantha 'throat', etc. (affix NīṢ) should be stated'

The sentences cited above under each sūtra are Kāśikā's own vārttikas, although the first looks more like an iṣṭi. Rule 2.2.3 provides for the formation of a tatpuruṣa compound with the first constituent containing dvitīya 'second,' tṛtīya 'third,' caturtha or turya 'fourth'. Kāśikā with its vārttika requires that turīya 'fourth' should also be desired to be mentioned. This is necessary to account for forms such as tyrīyabhikṣā or bhikṣāturīyam 'fourth portion of alms'. Cāndra and Kātantra both have sūtras accounting for these compounds though Mahābhāṣya and SK do not provide for them.

Rule 3.2.86 karmaṇi hanaḥ introduces affix ŅinI after verbal root han 'to kill' when, among other things, a pada denoting karman co-occurs. Thus, we get examples like mātulaghātī 'he who killed his maternal uncle'. However, the way it stands, this rule cannot stop the derivation of forms such as cauraghātī meaning cauraṃ hatavān 'he killed a thief'. It is to prevent such forms Kāśikā that recommends the sūtra to include kutsā 'censure' as a meaning condition. Both Kātantra and Cāndra include this. The Mahābhāṣya, of course, does not. Others in the tradition seem to be agreeing with Kāśikā.

Our third  $s\bar{u}tra$ , 4.1.54  $sv\bar{a}nga$ ..., provides for optional introduction of the feminine affix  $N\bar{i}$ , after an upasarjana (1.2.43 prathamā nirdiṣṭa...) stem denoting  $sv\bar{a}nga$  'one's limb,' terminating in a and not containing any conjunct (samyoga) in its upadhā 'penultimate position'. Thus we get

examples mṛduhastī/mṛduhastā 'she whose hands are soft', candramukhī/ candramukhā 'she whose face is like the moon', etc. Kāśikā advocates inclusion of stems such as aṅga 'limb', gātra 'body', and kaṇṭha 'throat', all of which have a conjunct in their upadhā. This inclusion will account for usages such as mṛdvaṅgī/mṛdvaṅgā 'she whose limbs are soft', sugātrī/ sugātrā 'she whose body is beautiful' and snigdhakaṇṭhī/snigdhakaṇṭhā 'she whose voice is sweet'. Obviously, such an inclusion is not available in the Mahābhāṣya. The SK characterizes it as the proposal of the vṛttikāra 'author of vṛtti', most likely the Kāśikāvṛtti. Haradatta, in his Padamañjarī (PM), states that 'though aṅga-gātra, etc., are not stated in the Mahābhāṣya, the author of the vṛtti mentions them because of their frequency in usage' (aṅga-gātra ityādi bhāṣye' nuktam aþy etat prayogabāhulyād vṛttikārenoktam).

The preceding shows that the authors of Kāśikā were keenly aware not only of other systems of grammar but also of what was or was not frequent in usage. They tried to account for usage and hence had to formulate their own vārttikas and modify the wordings of sūtras. Obviously these things are not what a vṛttikāra should do. However, if one sees it as an effort to cover usage, it was truly remarkable.

Kāśikā's examples have diverse sources. Most of them come from the Mahābhāṣya though a large segment comes from classic and contemporary sources. The Mahābhārata, Rāmāyana, Kirātārjunīyam, Suśruta and Caraka are important sources for classical usage. Some of these examples go directly against the Mahābhāsya but the authors have included them to account for usage. For example, consider yudhisthirah śresthatamah kurūṇām 'Yudhiṣthira is the best among the Kurus'. 30 It uses śresthatama where affix tamaP is introduced after śrestha 'excellent' to denote 'exceeding excellence'. Now, the word śrestha is derived by introducing affix isthaN. Both these affixes are used to denote atisavana (5.3.55 atisavane tamabisthanau) 'excessive excellence'. The word śresthatamah has both these affixes. Such usage has not been attested by the Mahābhāṣya (IV:210) except for Vedic. Kāśikā takes its example from the Mahābhārata and indicates its possibility in the vrtti. It is not hard to find many other instances of śresthatama in the literature and Kāśikā's explanation is designed to account for such usage.

There are two commentaries on Kāśikā: the Kāśikāvivaraṇapañcikā or Nyāsa of Jinendrabuddhi (AD 9) and the Padamañjarī (PM) of Haradatta (AD 11). They both take elements of Kāśikā as pratīka. Nyāsa's language is simple. Almost one-sixth of it is devoted to derivational details. The PM uses a comparatively more complex style and language. It follows the Mahābhāṣya in details and sometimes enters into lengthy discussions

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>30</sup> Mahesh Dutt Sharma (1974:119).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>31</sup> Bhimasena Shastri (1976:36).

which obscure the understanding of issues symbolized by the statement from  $K\bar{a}sik\bar{a}$ .

Mention must also be made of the Bhāṣāvṛtti of Puruṣottamadeva (AD 12), which draws heavily from Kāśikā, and the Bhāgavṛtti of Vimilamati (AD 8). This last is not available. Puruṣottama, as the name of his vṛtti suggests, only includes rules dealing with bhāṣā 'classical Sanskrit'. Specifically, he has excluded rules which deal with accent. Although he arranges the sūtras in eight books of four quarters each, he further groups the sūtras into sections with headings indicating the nature of rules and operations. He also includes vārttikas. One would find section headings such as vṛddhyādisaṃjñāprakaraṇam 'section dealing with the terms vṛddhi, etc.', ghvādisaṃjñāprakaraṇam 'section dealing with the terms ghu, etc.', vacanaprakaraṇam 'section dealing with number', lingaprakaraṇam 'section dealing with gender', ādeśaprakaraṇam 'section dealing with replacement', etc. Similarly, one can find statements indicating the end of the sections, but Purusottama is not consistent in this regard.

Purusottama has a real flavour for brevity, though he thus takes a lot for granted. He normally does not make explicit statements about anuvṛtti unless it is necessary. Often he presents the elements of anuviti in the gloss of the sūtra. These glosses are worded in a manner that facilitates glossing individual items. Thus, a rule like 3.1.17 śabdavairakalahābhra... karane can be glossed as: ebhyah kriyāyām kyan syāt 'let there be KyaN after these when the sense is 'doing, making'. Note that the rule uses karana, which is also a technical term denoting 'instrument'. Purusottama, instead of saying that karana does not refer to instrument, straightforwardly glosses it as kriyāyām. He also includes KyaN in the gloss rather than saying, in addition, that KyaN is carried. In the next rule (3.1.18 suhhādibhyah kartrvedanāyām), he simply glosses kartrvedanāyām as kartur anubhave 'when the agent experiences'. Purusottama does not deem it necessary to indicate that karman is carried as modifier to items enumerated by the rule. Furthermore, he does not take a lengthy route to explain kartrvedanāyām as Kāśikā does: ... vedanāyām arthe' nubhave ... vedayituś cet karttuh sambandhīni sukhādīni bhavanti 'in the sense of vedanā, i.e. anubhava '(experiencing) ... provided sukha 'pleasure', etc., are related to the agent's own experiencing'. Purusottama simply says: ebhyaḥ kartur anubhave kyan syāt 'let there be KyaN after these when the agent's own experiencing (is being expressed)'. Mark that Kāśikā uses vedanā, glosses it as anubhava, then interprets it as locative leading it to say anubhava. Kāśikā also adds arthe 'in the sense of', which Purusottama does not see as necessary, since anubhave, in the locative, would automatically account for that.

Purusottama normally does not offer counter-examples. This is in consonance with his practice of not explaining why a particular form is used in the *sūtra* in the way in which it is used. Counter-examples cited by

other commentarial works anticipate such questions. Puruṣottama mentions vārttikas without mentioning their source, though occasionally he cites sources such as Kātyāyana (p. 124), gaṇasūtra (p. 184), eke 'someone' (pp. 192, 209), smṛti 'tradition' (pp. 201, 205), Vararuci (p. 227) and Saunāga (p. 435). The Bhāṣāvṛtti examples are more varied and have been chosen for clarity of structure and frequency in usage. Puruṣottama s paraphrases are terse and economical. As already stated, they take much for granted. Since he also avoids separate mention of anuvṛtti and counter-examples, it occasionally becomes difficult to understand the exact meaning of his paraphrases. He makes full use of the Mahābhāṣya but shies away from theoretical statements. In summary, he tries to explain the sūtras with straightforward paraphrases using minimum of words. His work can serve as a ready reference for the meaning and examples of the sūtras, though it can be used only by those who are well versed in the Astādhyāyī.

The Rūpāvatāra of Dharmakīrti (AD 11) is the oldest extant text of the prakriyā tradition.32 By this time the focus of grammatical study had changed from interpretation to application. Furthermore, study of grammar had reached a stage where an easier means of teaching was felt to be required. Thus, the second opening verse of Rūpāvatāra gives 'facilitating the understanding of beginners' as goal. As a consequence, efforts were undertaken to limit the number of sūtras under discussion. Since the focus had shifted to application, an indifference towards finer details of interpretation was also witnessed. The same goes for counter-examples. What we see here as strikingly different from the vrttis is the lack of details concerning interpretation and an abundance of details concerning derivation. In the process, taking many things for granted, Rūpāvatāra becomes very economical, though its style of brevity is altogether different from the non-prakriyā texts. It discusses only 2,664 rules but its examples number many times more. Its most effective means of reducing the number of sūtras under discussion is to exclude rules dealing with accent and Vedic Sanskrit.

It was again due to change in emphasis that listing of sūtras was done in view of operational topics and contexts. The Pāṇinian order of rule listing was abandoned. The notion of prakaraṇa 'context' in Pāṇini was thus modified. The Pāṇinian prakaraṇa was conceived in view of physical placement of rules, their interpretation and application especially as it related to context sharing (ekavākyatā) among rules. The notion of prakaraṇa in the prakriyā tradition was strictly conceived in view of particular derivational types. Since the Pāṇinian order of rules was disturbed, elements of anuvṛtti had to be supplied by statements. The prakriyā statements were not worded like vṛttis. In addition to giving paraphrases of the sūtras, they

<sup>32</sup> Rūpāvatārah (I:XVI).

were worded so as to introduce operational details and clues. The *prakriyā* statements introduced rules as they became operative in a given operation on a given input. Paraphrases were given such that the basic meaning of a rule was understood and the context of an operation became clear.

Rūpāvatāra consists of two parts, the first being divided into eight avatāras 'manifestations': samjāā 'technical terms', samhitā 'close proximity between sounds', vibhakti 'nominal inflection', avyaya 'indeclinable', strīpratyaya 'feminine affixes', kāraka, samāsa 'compound' and taddhita 'secondary suffixes'. It is interesting to note that the first avatāra deals with terms strictly limited to samhitā; other technical terms of the grammar are introduced if and when they become necessary. The pratyāhāra-sūtras also had to be included here for the same reason. The second part of Rūpāvatāra has three major paricchedas 'divisions': sārvadhātuka (3.4.113 tinśit sārvadhātukam), ārdhadhātuka (3.4.114 ārdhadhātukam śeṣaḥ) and kṛt (3.1.93 kṛd atin). Each division is further classified into prakaraṇas 'sections'. The division of this second part into three sections is clearly based on the classification of affixes introduced after verbal roots. The entire second part is presented under the general title of dhātupratyayapañcikā.

Rūpāvatāra closely follows Kāśikā, although its paraphrases are much simpler. Its examples have diverse sources: they could be from Kāśikā, the Mahābhāṣya or later classical literature. The examples, also, have been selected for derivational reasons. Thus, an example which shows clearly the application of a given rule would be preferred over one which may involve other applications. Also, an example which clearly blends in with the discussion of a vārttika would be preferred over one which does not. Rūpāvatāra, in addition to including vārttikas, also includes ślokavārttikas, iṣṭis and summary verses relating to examples and grammatical operations. It also has kārikās 'verses' from the Vākyapadīya of Bhartṛhari. These materials are incorporated mainly as references, often with examples. Much of their meaning and implication, however, is not clarified. Although Rūpāvatāra covers quite a few Pāṇinian rules with copious examples and vārttikas, it did not attain much popularity, mostly due to over-simplification; still, it was a very successful attempt at prakriyā.

A relatively mature form of prakriyā is found in the Prakriyā-kaumudī (PK) of Rāmacandra (AD 14). It not only standardized the format of prakriyā texts, but also served as a link between the old school of grammar and the new. It was heavily influenced by Kāśikā and also borrowed from other systems of grammar. Rāmacandra not only left out many sūtras of the Aṣṭādhyāyī, but also refrained from explaining others. However, the number of sūtras in the PK is far greater than in the Rūpāvatāra. Hence, it is not surprising to find that Rāmacandra accepts the following in one of his later verses.

ānantyāt sarvaśabdā hi na śakyante' nuśāsitum/ bālavyutpattaye' smābhiḥ saṃkṣipyoktā yathāmatiḥ//

'Because of their being infinite, all words are not possible to be instructed; (therefore) they have been discussed by me in summary as I see fit for the benefit of making beginners conversant (in grammar).'

This verse attests to the idea of simplification which I have already identified as one of the motives behind the development of the *prakriyā* texts.

Rāmacandra, similarly to Dharmakīrti, focuses on sūtras dealing with classical Sanskrit. However, he has a small section at the end dealing with prakriyā in Vedic. In addition, many Vedic rules have been included elsewhere in the work, according to the context. The division of sections is also elaborate but does not vary in substance from the Rūpāvatāra. For example, the first section dealing with samjñā includes many more rules dealing with the technical terms but the goal is still the same: to focus on those samjñās which may be beneficial to sandhi (sandhyupayogin). Rāmacandra does not follow the arrangement of Rūpāvatāra when it comes to dealing with the derivation of forms ending in  $ti\dot{N}$  (3.4.78 tiptasjhi...). The tiN are a set of twenty-one affixes ruled as replacements for abstract suffixes generally referred to as LA. Rūpāvatāra has two major sections: sārvadhātuka and ārdhadhātuka. This division does not bring out the features of verbal paradigms clearly. Rāmacandra, instead, follows a different route. He discusses the verbal paradigms with reference to the grouping (gaṇa) of roots and whether or not they are marked for parasmaipada, ātmanepada or both terminations. This arrangement became standard for later prakriyā texts. Rāmacandra also was careful about how and when to introduce a sūtra. This resulted in the rooting out of repetition in the listing of sūtras; the Rūpāvatāra had had repetition in abundance.

Rāmacandra takes a lot for granted. His explanations of sūtras are very brief and his statements concerning the context of a sūtra or its application are still briefer. His examples are not numerous, and when discussing derivations, he takes many details as understood. Rūpāvatāra provides better explanations, however simplistic they may be. However, Rāmacandra's organization is very good. It was the lack of explanatory details plus the influence of other grammatical systems which subjected Rāmacandra to severe criticism by Bhaṭṭoji Dīkṣita. The PK was saved from still more violent criticism by its commentary, the Prasāda by Viṭṭhala, the grandson of Rāmacandra. It is true that Rūpāvatāra and PK represent pedagogical texts which lack the depth of Kāśikā, but they became popular. The PK, even though harshly criticized for some of its interpretations, became the standard for Bhaṭṭoji's SK, the text which represents the peak of the prakriyā tradition.

Bhaṭṭoji's SK replaced PK as the pedagogical standard. Its scope was wider, including all of Pāṇini's rules. Its detailed interpretation and prakriyā was not provided to ease the teaching of grammar but to enhance the understanding of grammar as such. All it shared with PK was format. Bhaṭṭoji had an eye for meticulous detail and interpretation. It is this quality that makes SK the standard text for studying Pāṇini. It overshadowed not only Kāsikā but even the Asṭādhyāyī itself, sparing the Mahābhāsya only because SK closely follows its interpretations. The SK brings the grammatical literature that began with Patañjali full circle. Bhaṭṭoji (SK, I:1) states in his opening verse that 'he is making the SK after having paid obeisances to, and having contemplated the sayings of, the three sages'.

It has been stated that the SK follows the organizational format of the PK. However, since Bhaṭṭoji was not simply writing a pedagogical text, the format was further refined. For example, he adds a section of paribhāṣā after saṃjñā. He follows Rāmacandra's arrangement in discussing sandhi, but adds a section of prakṛtibhāva 'non-sandhi'. The arrangement of rules dealing with compound formation is also elaborate. He adds two additional sections: sarvasamāsaśeṣa 'residue of compounds' and samāsāśrayavidhi 'operations with compound as locus'. Bhaṭṭoji also introduces here ekaśeṣa 'retention of one' as a separate section, since he considers it one of the elliptical formations (vṛṭtis). Since the SK treats all the rules, the arrangement of taddhita (4.1.76 taddhitāḥ) is also elaborate. Here, they are organized in sections following major affixes.

Bhaṭṭoji has organized his SK into two parts: the first part deals with sandhi, samāsa and affixes introduced by rules in books four and five of the Aṣṭādhyāyī. The second part deals with affixes introduced in the third book of the Aṣṭādhyāyī. In addition, Bhaṭṭoji also has sections on Vedic as well as accents of affixes, compounds and roots. What is surprising is his inclusion of two sections, one dealing with the Uṇādi affixes and the other dealing with the Phiṭṣūtras (see chapter 2 for details). Normally, one would not expect these listings as part of the main text. The fact that Bhaṭṭoji interrupts his discussion of kṛt (3.1.93 kṛd atin) affixes to accommodate Uṇādi is most surprising. They are not related to verbal derivatives only; why didn't he put them right after the taddhitas? However, locating the Phiṭṣūtras close to the sections dealing with accent is not out of place since they deal with accent of nominal stems.

Bhaṭṭoji, in the second part, proceeds with the description of verbal paradigms arranged according to the classification of roots in ten gaṇas 'groups'. This follows Rāmacandra's procedure, but Bhaṭṭoji's treatment is more comprehensive. He provides nearly every significant detail ranging from classification to meanings and derivation. A discussion of rules dealing with NiC 'causative', saN 'desiderative', yaN 'intensive',

Bhaṭṭoji strived to include practically everything essential for understanding the  $s\bar{u}tras$ . If one rearranges his treatment in Pāṇini's original order and edits some remarks to fit in place, one can have another vṛti parallel to  $K\bar{a}sik\bar{a}$ . This indicates that the SK is a vastly different text from the others in the  $prakriy\bar{a}$  tradition. Bhaṭṭoji accepts the three sages, especially Patañjali, as authority ( $pram\bar{a}na$ ) although his work has also benefited from  $K\bar{a}sik\bar{a}$  and PK. He often identifies statements which form part of  $K\bar{a}sik\bar{a}$  but are not found in the  $Mah\bar{a}bh\bar{a}sya$ . Bhaṭṭoji accepts things from  $K\bar{a}sik\bar{a}$  but rarely when they are not in consonance with Patañjali.

The SK draws its examples from the traditional sources which includes Kāśikā, although Bhaṭṭoji tries to find examples, especially for rules dealing with classical Sanskrit, from literature. Many of the examples have been cited in modified form simply to economise the listings. Thus, instead of listing grāmam adhiśete 'he is sleeping in the village' and grāmam adhivasati 'he is living in the village,' he will simply list the verbal forms. He also follows the PK in relating examples which deal with Viṣṇu and Kṛṣṇa. Thus, where Kāśikā has tiṣṭhate kanyā chātrebhyaḥ 'the girl is waiting for the students' and madhu atra 'there is honey here,' SK, like PK, has kṛṣṇāya tiṣṭhate gopī 'the gopī is waiting for Kṛṣṇa' and cakrī atra 'Viṣṇu is here'. The Vedic examples have been taken from Saṃhitās, Brāhmaṇas and Āraṇyakas, but Bhaṭṭoji relies mostly on the Mahābhāṣya and Kāśikā.

The number of  $v\bar{a}rttikas$  used in the SK is comparatively less than the  $K\bar{a}sik\bar{a}$ . It is believed that since the focus was on  $prakriy\bar{a}$ , only those  $v\bar{a}rttikas$  were used which were directly related to examples. Mahesh Dutt Sharma (1974:144) observes wherever  $K\bar{a}sik\bar{a}$  refers to a  $v\bar{a}rttika$  in its citation form, SK refers to the same in paraphrase. Conversely, wherever  $K\bar{a}sik\bar{a}$  does not refer to a  $v\bar{a}rttika$  in citation, SK does so. Bhattoji has used the

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>33</sup>See Mahesh Dutt Sharma (1974: 91-111) for details.

vārttikas to facilitate the prakriyā and rarely takes any steps which may cloud their identity. Thus, practices such as elevating a vārttika to the status of a sūtra, reading a part of it in the body of a sūtra or reading a single vārttika as two or more are seldom found. It is also known that if something cannot be accounted for by sūtra, vārttika or bhāṣya, Kāśikā would formulate its own vārttika or iṣṭi. Bhaṭṭoji normally refrains from doing so. Instead, he tries to resort to some analytical means.

Bhattoji generally gives importance to the views of Patañjali. When he accepts things from other commentaries he is very careful. Let us examine the following rules.

#### 2.2.15 trjakābhyām kartari

'a word which ends in genitive ( $sasth\bar{i}$ ) is not combined with another word which underlies a form in trC or aka and denotes kartr 'agent'

#### 2.2.16 kartari ca

'a word which ends in genitive and denotes *kartṛ* is not combined with another word which underlies a form in *aka*'

#### 2.2.17 nityam krīdājīvikayoḥ

'a word which ends in genitive is obligatorily combined with another word which underlies a form in aka when the compound denotes krīḍā 'sport' or jīvikā 'livelihood'

Kāśikā and Bhattoji interpret these rules differently. Specifically, Kāśikā treats kartr as modifier (visesana) of sasthi in 2.2.15 and of trC and aka in 2.2.16. That is, according to Kāśikā, the word which ends in genitive should also be expressing kartr. The expression of kartr is not seen as a condition for genitive in 2.2.16. Bhattoji, however, does the opposite. He requires that the word which underlies a form in trC or aka must also express *kartr* in 2.2.15. Treating *kartr* as a modifier of *trC* is problematic. A form ending in trC obligatorily denotes kartr. Why should one further modify it with kartr? Pāṇini may not have intended it. Bhattoji hastens to add that since trC already denotes kartr, only aka should be modified by kartr. Kāśikā, perhaps to avoid this, made kartr a modifier of genitive. But Kāśikā runs into problems too. It cannot find any example for a string of words where one ends in genitive and denotes agent, and the other underlies a form in trC. Such examples are impossible as trC denotes agent, which genitive cannot. It would be duplication. If one says that the two forms will be expressing different agents then the question of their forming a compound would not arise. They would not be syntactically relatable with each other. Kāśikā says that trC is used in 2.2.15 for anuvrtti to subsequent rules. The interpretations of both SK and Kāsikā are problematic. SK, however, can offer examples and show the application of this rule. Kāśikā has to say that Pāṇini used trC not for use in 2.2.15 but for use in 2.2.16 and 2.2.17.

Either interpretation has consequences for 2.2.16 and 2.2.17. SK does not consider the purpose of trC beyond 2.2.15; Kāśikā carries it along with aka. Since it modifies trC and aka here with kartr, however, Kāśikā, like SK has to accept that since trC expresses kartr, only aka is supposed to be modified by kartr. To sum up, SK and Kāśikā interpret these rules inversely. That is, SK interprets rule 2.2.15 the way Kāśikā interprets 2.2.16 and vice versa. SK seems logical as well as economical since it does not have to carry trC to 2.2.16-17. Furthermore, it does not have to maintain as Kāśikā does in the case of 2.2.17, that examples of trC denoting 'sport' and 'livelihood' do not exist.

The Mahābhāṣya does not help much as it does not discuss these rules. However, under 2.2.14 (Mbh. II:685), it offers examples parallel to those Bhaṭṭoji cites under 2.2.15. The same type of examples are cited by Kāśikā under 2.2.16. Bhaṭṭoji got his clues from Haradatta's PM 2.2.15:

atha kasmād viparyayo nāśrīyate-iha trjakaviśeṣaṇaṃ kartṛgrahaṇam uttaratra ṣaṣṭhīviśeṣaṇam; evaṃ tṛjgrahaṇaṃ na vaktavyaṃ bhavati ...

'how come inversion is not resorted to: kartṛ is used here as a modifier of tṛC and aka; subsequently as a modifier of ṣaṣṭhī; this way, it will not be necessary to state that 'tṛC is used for (anuvṛtti) in subsequent sūtras'.'

Note. however, that SK (3807) on Pāṇini's 6.2.73 ake jīvikārthe offers ramaṇīyakarttā 'one who decorates' as an example, a word underlying a stem in tṛC and denoting jīvikā 'livelihood'. It states that this compound is derived by the application of 2.2.17. Recall that SK does not accept the anuvṛtti of tṛC beyond 2.2.15 and Kāśikā says that there are no examples. Two questions: (a) how can Bhaṭṭoji's interpretation of 2.2.17 derive ramaṇīyakarttā and (b) where does this example come from? The source is Kāśikā itself. Note that this part of Kāśikā is supposed to have been written by Vāmana and not by Jayāditya, who is supposed to have written the vṛtti of the section containing rules 2.2.15-17. Note also that Bhaṭṭoji takes this example from Kāśikā. Furthermore, he criticizes Kāśikā's interpretation of 2.2.15 in his Śabdakaustubha.

Bhaṭṭoji has criticized Kāśikā whenever he finds something against the Mahābhāṣya. Consider the following rule.

## 3.2.78 supy ajātau ņinis tācchīlye

'affix *NinI* is introduced after a verb root when a word denoting something other than *jāti* 'class' co-occurs and the derivate denotes *tācchilya* 'one's nature'

An example offered by Kāśikā is uṣṇabhojī 'he whose nature it is to eat warm food'. Kāśikā thinks that since Pāṇini uses the word sUP explicitly rather than bringing it by anuvṛtti from the earlier rule, this must have some

special purpose to it. That purpose, according to Kāśikā, is to stop the anuviti of upasarga 'preverb'. That is, since sUP and upasarga were both carried to 3.2.77 from 3.2.76, carrying sUP from 3.2.77 to 3.2.78 would also require carrying upasarga which Pāṇini did not wish to do. Consequently, Pāṇini used sUP explicitly in 3.2.78. However, there are examples such as udāsāriṇyaḥ and pratyāsāriṇyaḥ where suffix NinI occurs after verbal root āṣṛ 'to come' used with the preverbs ut and prati respectively. These derivates, according to Kāśikā's interpretation of 3.2.78, cannot be explained. Consequently, Kāśikā introduces its own vārttika: utpratibhyām āni sartter upasaṃkhyānam 'a statement should be made to account for āṣṛ preceded by ut and prati'.

Bhaṭṭoji insists that this interpretation of Kāśikā, which has also been followed by Haradatta and Mādhava, the author of the Dhātuvṛtti, should be disregarded as it is against the interpretation of the Mahābhāṣya (SKIV:73): iha vṛttikāreṇopasargabhinna eva supi ṇinir iti vyākhyāya utpratibhyām āni sartter upasaṃkhyānam iti paṭhitam. haradattamādhavādibhiś ca tad evānusṛtam etac ca bhāṣyavirodhād upekṣyam 'here the author of the vṛtti, having analysed the sūtra as meaning 'verb root without a preverb when co-occurring with a pada ending in uSP', reads that 'a statement should be made to account for āṣṣṛ preceded by ut and prati'. This has also been followed by Haradatta and Mādhava, etc. For reasons of opposition to the Mahābhāṣya this should be disregarded. The Mahābhāṣya maintains that sUP is used in 3.2.78 to indicate that in this rule 'a co-occurring word ending in sUP' alone is the condition. Bhaṭṭoji provides examples such as anuyāyin 'follower', etc., where affix NinI can be found after a verb root used with a preverb.

It has been stated that the tradition of *praknyā* began with pedagogy as its goal although Bhaṭṭoji's goal was not exactly the same. One can still think that he shared the goal of focusing on derivation and presenting rules in an order most conducive to that. This indeed was the purpose behind rearranging the Pāṇinian rules. It is surprising to learn that except for ease in *prakriyā* no other reason has been given by the tradition for the new *sūtra* arrangement. The tradition has resisted anything not in consonance with Pāṇini. It has also discussed practically everything relevant to the *Aṣṭādhyāyī* in particular and grammar in general. No one knows why the tradition did not voice any resistance to this new order of rules. I consider the *prakriyā* rule order, at best, unfortunate.

As already stated, SK has enjoyed immense popularity. Bhaṭṭoji himself wrote a commentary Prauḍhamanoramā on the SK. Another commentary Bālamanoramā by Vāsudeva Dīkṣita (AD 18) followed. Later, Jñānendra Saraswatī wrote a very good commentary on Prauḍhamanoramā under the title of Tattvabodhinī. Śabdenduśekhara, both long (bṛhat) and short (laghu) versions, are two very learned commentaries on SK by Nāgeśa. There have

also been three separate versions of the SK: a sāra 'summary' and a laghu version by Varadarāja, and a madhya 'medium length' version by Rāmaśarman (AD 17). The laghu-kaumudī still enjoys popularity among beginners.

The Aṣṭādhyāyī was not formulated for teaching Sanskrit. This does not mean that it cannot be used for learning Sanskrit. In fact, it has been, and to a lesser degree still is, being used for this purpose. The SK and its various abridged versions are still used for teaching Sanskrit in traditional circles. The claim that prakriyā texts made the derivational process easier to comprehend can be defended. However, to defend it at the expense of the Aṣṭādhyāyī is not acceptable. First of all, the new order of grammatical works takes a lot for granted, especially things like the function of rule 1.4.2 vipratiṣedhe... where any change in the Pāṇinian order of rules is crucial. Secondly, this new order obscures some basic distinctions Pāṇini intended to maintain. An example in point is the treatment of kāraka and vibhakti as one in the prakriyā texts. Finally, the new arrangement deals perhaps a serious blow to the sophisticated derivation mechanism the Aṣṭādhyāyī so meticulously presents. A case in point is the process of anuvrtti and what I discuss in later chapters as reference to antecedent.

# The Aşţādhyāyī and its Related Texts

The Aṣṭādhyāyī consists of about four thousand sūtras arranged in eight chapters (adhyāya) of four quarters (pāda) each. The number of sūtras in the chapters or quarters varies in accordance with the topic and organizational constraints. In order to clearly understand the organizational structure of the Aṣṭādhyāyī itself, we must first consider some materials which are often treated as separate from the main text but nevertheless are necessary for its understanding. These are the Śivasūtra (Śs), the Dhātupāṭha (DP), the Gaṇapāṭha (GP), the Uṇādisūtra (Us), the Phiṭsūtra (Phs) and the Lingānuśāsana (Lā).

## (a) The Śivasūtra (Śs)

The Ss is a set of fourteen aphorisms enumerating the sound segments (varnasamāmnāya) of the Sanskrit language in the order most conducive to forming the abbreviatory terms (pratyāhāra) used in the grammar.

- 1. aiu Ņ
- 2. r l K
- 3. e o N
- 4. ai au C
- 5.  $h^a y^a v^a r^a T$
- 6. la N
- 7.  $\tilde{n}^a m^a \dot{n}^a n^a n^a M$
- 8. jha bha Ñ
- 9. gha dha dha Ş
- 10. ja ba ga da da Ś
- 11. kha pha cha tha tha ca ta ta V
- 12.  $k^a p^a Y$
- 13.  $\hat{s}^a \hat{s}^a \hat{s}^a R$
- 14. ha L

An item indicated here by capital letters is traditionally termed an it and is not treated as an item in the list. However, its may serve as the final (antya) for any initial  $(\bar{a}di)$  element which, joined together, forms an abbreviatory term  $(praty\bar{a}h\bar{a}ra)$  to represent the initial and all intervening elements. For example, the initial a of the first s can join the final s

<sup>1</sup> see 1.1.71 ādir antyena sahetā.

of Ss four to form the abbreviatory term aC signifying a and all intervening non-it items. Thus, aC denotes all the vowels. Similarly, aL designates the totality of vowels and consonants.

Another symbol, which is also not an item on the list, is the a used with the consonants of Ss five through fourteen. This a facilitates the pronunciation of the consonants in question. I have indicated the occurrences of this a by raising it. The a of Ss six is treated by  $K\bar{a}\hat{s}^2$  and  $SK^3$  as an it in order to form an abbreviatory term  $r\bar{A}$  which would denote r and l. I represent this  $\bar{A}$  as a non-it because treating it otherwise would be non-Pāṇinian.

Pāṇini's method of forming abbreviatory terms with the help of the Śs can yield a vast number of abbreviations. However, the Aṣṭā-dhyāyī uses only 41 abbreviations, summarized in the following śloka-vārttika<sup>4</sup>:

ekasmān nañaṇavaṭā dvābhyāṃ ṣas tribhya eva kaṇamāḥ syuḥ/
jñeyau cayau caturbhyo raḥ pañcabhyaḥ śalau ṣaḍbhyaḥ//
"one (abbreviatory term) each with  $\dot{N}$ ,  $\ddot{N}$ ,  $\ddot{N}$ ,  $\ddot{V}$ ,  $\ddot{T}$ ; two with  $\ddot{S}$ , three each with  $\ddot{K}$ ,  $\ddot{N}$ , M; four each with  $\ddot{C}$ ,  $\ddot{Y}$ ; five with  $\ddot{R}$  and six each with  $\ddot{S}$ ,  $\ddot{L}$ "

#### Thus:

- 1. eN, yN, aN, chaV, aT
- 2. jhaS, bhaS
- 3. aK, iK, uK;  $y^{a}N$ , aN, iN,  $\dot{n}^{a}M$ , aM,  $y^{a}M$
- 4. aC, eC, aiC, iC; maY, jhaY, khaY, yaY
- 5.  $\delta^a R$ ,  $\gamma^a R$ ,  $ih^a R$ ,  $kh^a R$ ,  $c^a R$
- 6.  $jh^aS$ ,  $j^aS$ ,  $b^aS$ , aS,  $h^aS$ ,  $v^aS$ ; aL,  $h^aL$ ,  $s^aL$ ,  $v^aL$ ,  $r^aL$ ,  $jh^aL$

If we treat the a of Ss six as an anunāsika it, as has been advocated by  $K\bar{a}sik\bar{a}$  and SK, we will get an additional abbreviation,  $r\tilde{A}$ . There are two more abbreviatory terms,  $c^aY$  and  $\tilde{n}^aM$ , the first of which is attested by  $v\bar{a}rttika$  3 ad 8.4.88 (cayo dvitīyaḥ śari pauṣkarasādeḥ)<sup>5</sup> and the second<sup>6</sup> by the  $Un\bar{a}dis\bar{u}tra$  (1/114)  $\bar{n}amant\bar{a}d.dah$ . This brings the total to 44. The following chart shows these abbreviatory terms with their initial item ( $\bar{a}di$ ), listed in the first vertical column, as well as their final element (it), listed in the first horizontal column.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Kāś. (I:53) hakārādişv akāra uccāraņārthah, nānubandhah. lakāre tv anunāsikah pratijñāyate...

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> SK (I:4) ...esām antyā itah. lan-sūtre 'kāras' ca. hakārādisv akāra uccāraņārthaḥ.

<sup>4</sup> see Kāś. (I:59-60).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Mbh. (3:508).

<sup>6</sup> SK (IV:166).

## initial (ādi)

# final element (it)

	Ã	K	Ń	С	Ţ	Ņ	M	Ñ	Ş	Ś	V	Y	R	L
а		aK		aС	аŢ	аŅ	аМ			aŚ				aL
i		iK		iC		iŅ								
u		uK												
е			еŃ	eС										
ai				aiC										
h										hªŚ				hªL
у						yªŅ	y <sup>a</sup> M	yªÑ				yaY	yaR	
v										vªŚ				vªL
r	rÃ													rªL
m												mªY		
'n							naM							
bh									bhªṢ	bhªŚ				
jh									jhªṢ	jhªŚ		jhªY	jhªR	jhªL
b										bªŚ				
j										jª\$				
ch											ch <sup>a</sup> V			
kh												khªY	kh <sup>a</sup> R	
С												cªY	c <sup>a</sup> R	
ś													śªR	śªL
Ñ							ñªM							

The order of elements listed in the Ss is as follows:

- 1. vowels (Ss 1-4)
  - (la) simple (Ss 1-2)
  - (lb) complex (\$\mathcal{S}s 3-4)
- 2. consonants (\$\hat{S}\$ 5-14)
  - (2a) semivowels (Śs 5-6)
  - (2b) nasals (Ss 7)
  - (2c) stops (Ss 8-12)

- (2c<sub>1</sub>) voiced aspirates (Ss 8-9)
- (2c<sub>2</sub>) voiced non-aspirates (\$\s 10\$)
- (2c<sub>3</sub>) voiceless aspirates (Ss 11)
- (2c<sub>4</sub>) voiceless non-aspirates (Ss 12)
- (2d) spirants (\$\int s\$ 13-14)

The above order does not conform with the order of earlier listings, such as those of the *prātisākhyas*, although there is considerable similarity of terminology and classification. Pāṇini certainly was aware of such previous classifications. However, his Śs listing reflects his own special purposes. Pataṇjali states that the Śs are presented in this fashion for the purpose of *vṛtti* 'application of rules' and samavāya 'ordered enumeration of elements' (Mbh. I:47 vārttika. 18). Vārttika 19 cites the setting up of anubandhas as an added purpose. Actually, the pratyāhāras are a means for bringing the elements of the list close to rule applications. A full and insightful discussion of this, as well as the principles of sāmānya and viśeṣa underlying the listing of the Śs in relation to their anubandhas, is presented in Cardona (1969).

The denotata of some abbreviatory terms may not, at first glance, be obvious. Consider aN and iN. Should the N of these abbreviations be interpreted as the N of S 1 or of S 6? For, aN and iN formed with S 1 will denote only a, i, u and i, u respectively. If the N is interpreted as belonging to S 6, respectively a, i, u, r, l, e, o, ai, au, h, y, v, r, l and i, u, r, l, e, o, ai, au, h, y, v, r, l will be denoted. However, an abbreviatory term iN formed with the N of S 1 to denote i, u counters Pāṇinian practice. Pāṇini never uses iN to denote i, u; instead he uses iN to denote sounds enumerated by S 1 through 6. Both interpretations of aN, however, are valid. The question as to when aN should be interpreted as formed with the N of S 1 and when with the N of S 6 can only be resolved by the explanations  $(vy\bar{a}khy\bar{a}na)$  of the learned. For correct results, aN in 1.1.51 ur an raparah, for example, should be treated as formed with the N of S 1. As opposed to this, aN in 1.1.69 anudit savarnasya... must be interpreted with the N of S 6.

Rule 1.1.69 states that a vowel (aN), as well as an item marked with U, denotes itself as well as sounds homogeneous (savarna) with it. Thus, a denotes a class of eighteen vowels distinguished on the basis of length: short (hrasva), long  $(d\bar{i}rgha)$  or extra long (pluta); pitch: high  $(ud\bar{a}tta)$ , low  $(anud\bar{a}tta)$  or circumflex (svarita); and nasality: nasalized  $(anun\bar{a}sika)$  and non-nasalized  $(niranun\bar{a}sika)$ . Similar classes of eighteen each is represented by i, u and r. The l vowel represents a class of only twelve vowels as it lacks a corresponding long variety. Vowels denoted by eC (e, o, ai, au) also represent a class of 12 each. Here, unlike the case of l, a corresponding short variety is not available. Items with U as their it represent a class

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> vrttisamaväyärtha upadešah.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> anubandhakaranārthas ca.

of five consonants each. Thus, kU(k) represents k, kh, g, gh and  $\dot{n}$ . Similar consonant classes are represented by cU, tU and pU.

There are many problems which may be raised concerning the formulation of the  $S_s$  and the use of the resultant abbreviatory terms; problems relating to the order and selection of sound-segments and its, the use of N as an N twice, the use of N as an element twice, as well as the use of a pratyāhāra with no less than three denotata. A detailed discussion of these and other problems relating to the  $S_s$  may be found in Cardona (1969).

#### (b) The Dhātupāṭha (DP)

Pāṇini introduces augments (vikaraṇa), with their relevant affixes and deletions, with reference to groups of roots. Thus, 2.4.72 adiprabhṛtibhyaḥ śapaḥ and, 2.4.75 juhotyādibhyaḥ śluḥ delete the augment ŚaP and ŚLU after roots enumerated in the list headed by ad 'to consume' and hu 'to offer a ritual sacrifice'. Similarly, 3.1.69 divādibhyaḥ śyan, 3.1.73 svādibhyaḥ śnuḥ, 3.1.77 tudādibhyaḥ śaḥ, 3.1.78 rudhādibhyaḥ śnam, 3.1.79 tanādikṛābhya uḥ and 3.1.81 kryādibhyaḥ śnā introduce SyaN, etc., after verbal roots belonging to the cited groups. Rules 3.1.25 satyāp... curadibhyo ṇic and 3.1.27 kaṇvādibhyo yak introduce affixes ŅiC and yaK with reference to specific groups of roots. These rules attest to the existence of the following groups: (1) adādi, (2) juhotyādi, (3) divādi, (4) svādi, (5) tudādi, (6) rudhādi, (7) tanādi, (8) kryādi, (9) curādi and (10) kaṇvādi.

The last group, kaṇvādī, is treated as consisting mainly of nominal stems. Thus, we have nine classes of verb roots. A tenth class, bhvādī, is referred to by rule 1.3.1. bhūvādayo dhātavaḥ. The cumulative listing of these ten classes of roots is known as the Dhātupāṭha (DP). Their traditional order of listing is: (1) bhvādī (1035), (2) adādī (72), (3) juhotyādī (24), (4) divādī (140), (5) svādī (35), (6) tudādī (157), (7) rudhādī (25), (8) tanādī (10), (9) kryādī (67), and (10) curādī (441), with the numbers in the right-hand parentheses indicating the amount of roots in each group. In all, the DP lists 1970 roots, although it would be a mistake to conclude that 1970 roots exhaust the inventory of roots of the Sanskrit language.

The text and authorship of the *DP* itself is controversial. Was the *DP* received by Pāṇini from the tradition or did he compose it himself? Is the available text of the *DP* the same that Pāṇini either received or composed? Are the meaning entries in the *DP* post-Pāṇinian? Though these and similar questions have been raised and answered in diverse ways, there is agreement upon one point. Given the close correspondence between the root groups listed in the *DP* and those referred to in the grammar, that there existed a *DP* which Pāṇini used is established beyond any doubt.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Pāṇini provides for proper selection of items from class lists by means of meta-rules 1.1.50 sthāne' ntaratamah and 1.3.10 yathāsamkhyam anudeśah samānām. For a detailed discussion of how 1.3.10 interacts with 1.1.50 in order to select proper substitutes under 1.1.69, see Cardona (1980).

Pāṇini refers to roots in the Astādhyāyī with their its. Some of these its condition the use of atmanepada terminations, as in 1.3.12 anudattanita ātmanepadam and 1.3.72 svaritanitah kartrabhiprāye kriyāphale. Other its have different functions. Rules 3.3.88 dvitah ktrih and 3.3.89 tivato' thuc introduce affixes ktri and athuC when its D and T mark the roots. Such rules show that when Panini composed the Astadhyayi, he definitely had a listing of roots to which he could refer. Since such reference was made in view of individual groups and subgroups of roots, some form of DP necessarily was complementary to the grammar. As to whether Panini used a traditionally available DP or composed his own, the answer is more likely to be the latter. For the listing of roots in groups with characteristic marks and operations serves special purposes. One can hardly believe that Pānini received the DP from the tradition in a form ready to be used in the Astādhyāyī in the manner in which he desired to use it. There are many things in the text which Panini accepted from the tradition, but he uses them with strict adherence to the organization, structure and function of the Aṣṭādhyāyī itself. That the form of the DP which Pāṇini may have known at the time of his composing the sūtras was in strict adherence to the organization, structure and function of the Astādhyāyī is doubtful, if not incredible.

Yudhiṣṭhira Mīmāmsaka (1973, II:545-8) has discussed in detail the question of whether or not Pāṇini listed the roots in his *DP* with corresponding meaning glosses. There is evidence in the *Mahābhāṣya* to the effect that Kātyāyana regarded the existence of a listing with meaning glosses as non-Pāṇinian (Cardona, 1976:162). Nāgeśa suggests that meaning entries were inserted by Bhīmasena. Palsule (1961:91-95) discusses this matter in detail and also concludes that the meaning entries are non-Pāṇinian. Mīmāṃsaka reaches the opposite conclusion, but his arguments are not convincing (Cardona, 1976:162).

However, some points must be discussed in this connection. First, Patañjali states that Pāṇini recites some roots with infixed n (Mbh. ad 1.3.7). Nāgeśa concludes from this that some roots were recited with meaning glosses in the earlier versions of the DP (Cardona, 1976:163). Leaving aside the question of whether this earlier version was composed by Pāṇini, or was a traditional groupiṇg, we must consider the implications of some roots being listed in different groups with different meanings. For example, vidA is listed in divādi, adādi, rudhādi and tudādi in the respective senses of existence (sattā), knowledge (jñāna), thinking (vicāra) and gain (lābha). Perhaps certain roots were recited with meanings in order to differentiate them from other roots, for meaning or operational purposes. Pāṇini may have had a special reason for reciting a set of roots with their meaning glosses, perhaps to make a bhedakattva 'distinction' of either semantic or operational type. However, the very listing of the same roots in different

places may account for *bhedakattva*. In that case, we must conclude that no meaning glosses were put with the listings. To account for their *bhedakattva*, Pāṇini resorted to different organizational and structural devices.

## (c) The Gaṇapāṭha (GP)

The GP is an ordered listing of sets of nominal stems. These sets are of two types: some have a definite number of stems, while some are openended. The authorship of the GP, as the authorship of the DP, is in doubt. Jinendrabuddhi<sup>10</sup> is the only commentator who, in consonance with his opposition to Pānini's having composed the DP, does not accept Pāṇini as the composer of the GP. He also states that some parts of the GP are post-Kātyāyana. Similarly to his statements on the authorship of the DP, however, Jinendra's statements on the GP are self-contradictory. Consider Kāśikā on rule 1.3.2 upadeśe'j anunāsika it. 11 Kāśikā states that upadeśa here refers to the Sūtrapātha (SP) 'recitation of sūtras in the Astādhyāyī' as well as tne Khilapātha 'appendices to the Astādhyāyī'. Jinendra (Nyāsa ad Kāś., 1:393) explains the Khilapātha as the DP and GP. 12 Now if one is discussing upadesa and the SP, the person who made the upadesa surely is Pāṇini. If, in fact, the composer of the SP and the Khilapātha were different, their inclusion in upadesa would be questionable. Jinendra (Nyāsa ad Kās., IV:10) also wonders why Pāṇini did not recite rule 5.1.3 kambalāc ca samjñāyām in the gavādi gaṇa. 13 Now such a question is pertinent only if one believes that the composer of the SP and the GP are the same. As opposed to this, Jinendra clearly states on Kāśikā ad  $5.3.2^{14}$  that the GP is non-Pāninian.

Yudhisthira Mīmāṃsaka (1973, II:141-46) concludes after a detailed discussion of arguments that Pāṇini, while accepting material from his predecessors, did compose the GP. Cardona (1976, II:164-67), too, discusses this problem. He correctly observes that the GP was presupposed by the rules of the grammar. I shall reiterate here what I said in connection with my discussion of the DP; if Pāṇini's SP presupposed the GP, then Pāṇini must have had a version of the GP before him. Whether he received that version from his predecessors is not the right question. The right question is how much of Pāṇini's version of the GP is pre- or post-Pāṇinian. One

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> Nyāsa ad Kāś. (IV:242) on 5.3.2 kim sarvanāma...sūtrakārasyeha gaṇapāṭha nāsāv upālambham arhati. Note, however, that this statement may also mean that Jinendra doubts the Pāṇinian recitation of this particular gaṇa only; he may not question Pāṇini's authorship of other gaṇas.

<sup>11</sup> upadiśyate' nena ity upadeśah-śāstravākyāni, sūtrapāthah khilapāthaś ca.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>12</sup> khilapāṭhah = dhātupāṭhaḥ; cakārāt prātipadikapāṭhaś ca.

<sup>13</sup> atha gavādisv eva "kambalāc ca samjīnāyām" iti kasmān na pathati?

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> see above fn. 10.

should remember here that Pāṇini was using the *GP* for a very special purpose, a purpose which had to be in perfect accord with his *SP*. I doubt again that Pāṇini received a version of the *GP* which was tailored for his *SP*. We cannot but accept, with Cardona and Mīmāṃsaka, that Pāṇini composed the *GP*.

Beside the question of the authorship of the GP, there are other questions about the order and listings of individual gaṇas. Cardona (1976:166) takes up various points raised in connection with rule 1.1.27 sarvādīni sarvanāmāni. He mentions that in addition to the items sarva etc., this gaṇa also includes three rules, 1.1.34-36, of the SP. Kātyāyana bejects that 1.1.34-36 are unnecessary in the SP as their purpose is served by their listing in the gaṇa. Patañjali concludes that these rules are required in the SP to provide the optional replacement of SP is SP (SP in SP is a later addition and that rule 1.1.32 is carried via anwortti.

#### (d) The *Unādisūtras* (*Us*)

The  $Un\bar{a}di$  affixes are used to derive nominal stems. Two versions of the Us are found: a  $pa\bar{n}cap\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}$  'classified in five sections' and a  $da\acute{s}ap\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}$  'classified in ten sections'. Scholars generally agree that the  $da\acute{s}ap\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}$  is based on the  $pa\bar{n}cap\bar{a}d\bar{\imath}$  and hence is later.

The authorship of these sūtras, too, is debatable. However, Pāṇini mentions unādi in two of his rules: 3.3.1 unādayo bahulam and 3.4.75 tābhyām anyatronādayah. The first rule states that affixes uN, etc., are introduced after verb roots. Thus,  $kr + uN \rightarrow k\bar{a}r + u = k\bar{a}ru + sU \rightarrow k\bar{a}ruh$ 'artisan'. The second rule states that *Unadi* affixes can also be introduced to denote kārakas other than sampradāna 'dative' and apādāna 'ablative'. These two rules in the SP definitely attest to the fact that the SP presupposed the Us. There are additional rules in the SP which also attest to the existence of the affixes of the Us; for example, 3.4.74 bhīmādayo' pādāne and 7.3.85 jāgro' vicinnal. . . . This second rule orders ar as a replacement for the r of  $j\bar{a}gr$ . However, this replacement is not allowed before affixes such as vi. Pānini does not introduce vi in the Astādhyāyī. It is an Unādi affix. The majority of scholars doubt that Pāṇini composed the Us. However, if Pāṇini's SP presupposed it, he must have had a version of it prior to the time he composed the SP. Was that version tailor-made for Pānini's SP or did Pāṇini revise and rearrange it to suit his purpose? While he may have had a version of the Us available to him from the tradition, it is most unlikely that he did not make major changes in it to suit his own purpose.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>15</sup> Mbh. (I:295) ad 1.1.34 vārttika 1.

There has been a considerable amount of work done concerning the conflict between the Us and the SP. This actually makes the presently available text of the Us suspect. Scholars generally agree that while Pāṇini did have a version of Us which he used for the SP, that version which was known to him was later modified.

Bhaṭṭoji lists 751 Us in his SK (IV:138-306) based on the description of Jñānendra Svāmin's commentary where 325 Unādi affixes have been discussed. It has been stated that these affixes derive nominal stems from verb roots. It is believed that Yāska and Śākaṭāyana consider that all nouns and substantives derive from verbs and most Unādi affixes would become useless if this view is not accepted. Also, the derivations involving these affixes lack other derivational details.

## (e) The Phitsūtra (Phs)

The Phs is a small treatise that deals with the accentuation of linguistic items that are not developed through a derivational process from underlying bases and affixes. Pāṇini presents accent rules with reference to the derivational process. For example, 3.1.3 ādyuttāttaś ca states that an item termed pratyaya 'affix' carries udātta 'high-pitch' on its first vowel. Rule 3.1.4 anudāttau suppitau states that an affix denoted by sUP or marked with P as an it carries anudātta 'low-pitch'. These affixes are generally introduced after bases termed dhātu 'verb root' or prātipadika 'nominal stem'. Depending upon the nature of the derivate, its underlying elements and the derivational process, further accent rules are introduced to make adjustments in the accentuation of fully derived forms. However, Pāṇini does not discuss the accent of bases.

The *Phiṭṣūtra* also does not discuss the accent of nominal bases whose derivation is not accounted for by a derivational process. This treatise gets its name from its first sūtra, phiṣaḥ, which assigns a final high-pitch accent. *Phiṭ*, the nominative singular of phiṣ, is used here in the sense of Pāṇini's term prātipadika. Cardona (1976:174-77) discusses the editions and texts of this treatise along with the question of its authorship.

The consensus of the tradition is that the *Phiṭṣūtra*, in some form or other, was known to Patañjali and Kātyāyana. It was composed by Śantanu who certainly antedates Pāṇini. Whether Patañjali was aware of the *Phs* of Śantanu or of a different treatise dealing with the accentuation of nominal stems is a question without definitive answer. Yudhiṣṭhira Mīmāṃsaka (1973) and Kapil Deva Shastri (Cardona, 1966:176) claim that the *Phs* predates Pāṇini. This is based on the commentary of Candragomin's grammar on the *pratyāhāra-sūtra aiuŅ*. The commentary claims that earlier grammarians used aṢ for Pāṇini's aC. The *Phs* also uses aṢ, and thus, they claim, must predate Pāṇini. Cardona (1976:177) properly observes that this evidence is not enough to back the conclusion.

#### (f) The Lingānuśāsana (Lā)

This treatise deals with assigning gender to nominals based on their structure and meaning. The text of this treatise consists of about two hundred aphorisms enumerating items under the headings feminine (strīlinga), masculine (pullinga), neuter (napuṃsaka), feminine-masculine (strīpuṃsaka), masculine-neuter (puṃnapuṃsaka) and variable (avisiṣṭalinga). As the headings imply, certain nominals can only belong to one gender: feminine, masculine or neuter. Others, however, can be used both as feminine and masculine or masculine and neuter. Finally, there is also a set of nominals which can be used in any one of the three genders.

Patañjali states in his Mahābhāsya (I:382) that gender is not taught in the grammar since it is assumed to be known from usage (cf. Mbh. ad 2.1.36 lingam asisyam lokāsrayatvāl lingasya). However, there are instances which suggest that Pāṇini did indeed discuss gender. For example, he makes gender the meaning condition for the introduction of certain affixes in 3.3.94 striyām ktin, 3.3.18 puṃsi saṃjñāyām ghaḥ prāyeṇa and 3.3.114 napuṃsake bhāve ktaḥ. Such rules, however, are only indirect evidence. For direct evidence one must consider such rules as 2.4.26 paraval lingam dvandvatatpurusayoh.

It has been stated that the  $L\bar{a}^{16}$  enumerates items and assigns their gender in view of their structure and meaning. For example,  $m\bar{a}tr$  'mother', duhitr 'daughter', svasr 'sister', potr 'granddaughter' and nanandr 'husband's sister'—these five bases which end in r are feminine (cf.  $L\bar{a}$  3: $m\bar{a}trduhitr...$ ). A following rule states that items derived by introducing affixes ani and  $\bar{u}$  after roots are also feminine. Thus we get sarani 'street', dharani 'earth', etc. (cf.  $L\bar{a}$  4: anyūpratyayāto dhātuḥ). Similarly there are rules which assign gender with reference to meanings. For example, dundubhi 'a large kettle-drum' when used in the sense of akṣa 'dice' is treated as feminine. So is nābhi 'navel' when it does not refer to a kṣatriya 'warrior'. However, elsewhere dundubhi and nābhi are both treated as masculine (cf. La 14-16: dundubhir aksesu — ubhāv anyatra pumsi).

Most scholars rightly believe that the text of the  $L\bar{a}$  was not composed by Pāṇini. There are two types of evidence for this. One relates to the inclusion of gender among things which the grammar treats as asisya; the other involves conflicts found between the grammar and the  $L\bar{a}$  with respect to the assignment of gender. However, there are some, Mīmāṃsaka for example, who believe that Pāṇini did compose the Lingānuśāsana. For details, see Mīmāṃsaka (1973:II:256ff) and Cardona (1976:177-79).

The brief account of the related texts of the Aṣṭādhyāyī given in this chapter largely follows the accounts offered by Cardona (1976) and Mīmāṃsaka (1973, II). Interested readers may refer to these works for further details.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>16</sup> See Cārudeva Śāstrī (1973, 5:503-87) for references to Lā.

## Grammar and Rule

Considerable discussion has already occurred in modern linguistics about the exact characterization of the notion of grammar and rule. Scholars of Pāṇini have recently shown a great deal of interest in these issues especially as they relate to the Aṣṭādhyāyī. Pāṇini himself does not formulate any direct statements concerning these issues. However, starting with the Mahābhāṣya of Patañjali, we find an unbroken tradition of commentaries on the Aṣṭādhyāyī and related texts, a tradition rich in contents and details that pertain not only to the Aṣṭādhyāyī but, in many respects, to linguistic theory in general. I shall try to present some of the basic themes underlying the notions of grammar and rule as they have been discussed in the Pāṇinian parlance. An attempt will then be made to see how the Aṣṭādhyāyī functions as a grammatical device. This will necessarily include a discussion of certain similarities which one may be tempted to establish between the Aṣṭādhyāyī as a grammatical device and the current models of grammatical description.

The Mahābhāṣya begins with the statement: atha śabdānuśāṣanam "here begins the instruction about words". This aphorism, perhaps more than anything else, is responsible for grammar being called śabdānuśāṣana. In answer to the question 'what kind of words?', Patañjali replies: "both Vedic as well as classical Sanskrit." Thus grammar is viewed as a discipline which instructs about words of classical and Vedic Sanskrit. How, however, one should approach the instruction about, or understanding of words. Should one start by taking individual words and explain them till the totality of words in the language is exhausted? Patañjali does not approve of this technique of pratipadapāṭha 'recitation of each and every word', mostly because it would require several lifetimes with the end still not in sight. It is said that Bṛhaspati, the ideal teacher, taught Indra, the ideal student, for a thousand heavenly years employing this means of reciting individual words, yet they could not see the end. What then of us human beings—if one lives long it is at most a hundred years.<sup>1</sup>

Patañjali tackles afresh the question of finding a suitable means for

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup>Mbh. I, 1-5: atha śabdānuśāsanam...keṣāṃ śabdānām. laukikānāṃ vaidikānāṃ ca...kim śabdānāṃ pratipattau pratipadapāṭhaḥ karttauyaḥ...anabhyupāya eṣa śabdānāṃ pratipattau pratipadapāṭhaḥ. evaṃ hi śrūyate, bṛhaspatir indrāya divyaṃ varṣasahasraṃ pratipadoktānāṃ śabdānām śabdapārāyanaṃ provāca nāntaṃ jagāma...kim punar adyatve. yaḥ sarvathā ciraṃ jīvati varṣaśataṃ jīvati.

understanding words. He proposes that a set of rules (laksana) should be formulated based upon the principle of general (sāmānya) and particular (visesa). He argues that this will enable us to understand the enormous mass of words with little effort. The Mahābhāsya discussion now focuses on characterizing the general and particular aspects of rule formulation. The idea is to make generalizations about words such that a general rule is formulated with reference to related exceptions. What should be the basis for making these generalizations — loka 'usage'. In other words, the grammar should treat usage as the standard or norm from which generalizations are abstracted.<sup>2</sup> The question then is raised about which people's usage should be considered. Patañjali identifies them as sista 'wise, learned' and characterizes them as those venerable brāhmanas who live in this home of the Āryas, whose grain is only one earthen pitcher, who are not greedy, who have not seized upon a cause but who, for some reason or other, have gone to the end of some field of knowledge or other.3 This description of a sista is based largely on nivāsa 'residence' in Aryāvartta and ācāra 'conduct' notions, many would consider non-linguistic.

One can safely assume in view of the preceding discussion that the Astādhyāyī is a set of rules formulated from generalizations which accept usage as norm. The purpose of these rules is to give instruction about words. This last needs some explanation. The Astādhyāyī formulates rules to account for correct Sanskrit usage. This usage may be characterized as a set of sentences. However, since the Astādhyāyī, based upon the testimony of Patañjali, accounts for words, how could it be treated as accounting for Sanskrit usage characterized as a set of sentences? The reason grammar may be called a set of rules which account for sentences is primarily strategic. Nāgeša claims that it is impossible to explain the extent of individual relata and meanings reflected in separated sentences by any briefer means. Hence a different strategy has to be employed. The strategy is to make a theoretical assumption and split up the constituency of a sentence.4 The reference obviously is to words. Furthermore, these words should be subjected to additional analysis in terms of their components, namely bases (prakrti) and affixes (pratyaya).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Ibid.:6: katham tarhīme śabdāḥ pratipattavyāḥ kimcit sāmānyaviśeṣaval lakṣaṇam pravarttyam yenālpena yatnena mahato mahataḥ śabdaughān pratipadyeran. sāmānyenotsargaḥ karttavyaḥ tasya viśesenāpavādah.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Ibid.: estasminn āryadeśe ye brāhmanāḥ kumbhīdhānyāḥ alolupā agṛḥyamānakāraṇāḥ kimcid antareṇa kasyāścid vidyāyāḥ pārāgās tatrabhavantaḥ śiṣṭāḥ.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Paramalaghumañjūṣā, 4: tatra prativākyam samketagrahaṇāsambhavāt tad anvākhyānasya laghūpāyena aśakyatvāc ca kalpanayā padāni pravibhajya pade prakṛtipratyayavibhāgakalpanena kalpitābhyām anvayavyatirekābhyām tat tadarthavībhāgam śāstramātraviṣayam parikalpayanti smācāryāh.

This analysis, based upon the abstraction of sentences constituted by bases and affixes, is guided by the principle of anvaya 'concurrent presence' and vyatireka 'concurrent absence'. Nāgeśa is quick to remind us that such divisions are strictly kalpanā 'theoretical assumptions' and that śāstra 'grammar' is their only domain. This is enough to indicate that the grammar accounts for sentences of the language although it employs the description of words as a tool. Details of this observation will be taken up later. I shall now summarize the basic ideas of traditional grammarians concerning the notion of grammar.

- (a) Grammar is a set of rules formulated based upon generalizations abstracted from usage.
- (b) The function of grammar is to account for the utterances of a language in such a way that fewer rules are employed to characterize the infinite number of utterances.
- (c) The Aṣṭādhyāyī accepts the language of the śiṣṭa's as the norm for usage.
- (d) The Aṣṭādhyāyī accounts for the utterances of the language by first abstracting sentences and then by conceptualizing the components of these sentences as consisting of bases and affixes. Needless to say, the network of bases and affixes, and the subsequent operations which derive the components of sentences, are the product of the grammarian's own imagination.

Pāṇinian sūtras differ substantially from what we are familiar with as rules in modern linguistics. Usually a 'rule' is self-contained, but a sūtra is not. A sūtra is supposed to be inambiguous, comprehensive and objective, also brief and precise. To many this sounds paradoxical. Actually, Pāṇini formulated his rules with utmost brevity and algebraic condensation. This brevity, however, was not to be achieved at the expense of clarity. Thus, Pāṇini needed a mechanism whereby sūtras could be clearly understood. He chose the technique of context-sharing (ekavākyatā). Patañjali is correct when he says that two rules do not become different simply because they happen to be placed in different places in the grammar; they may share a single context.<sup>5</sup> This suggests an interdependency lacking in rules in modern linguistics where they tend to be self-contained, with independent interpretation and application.

This interdependency among rules is of two types: intradomain and interdomain. The second operates within a given domain whereas the first may operate across the domain boundaries. The interdomain dependency is attested to by the metalinguistic device of anuvitti 'recurrence'. The express function of anuvitti is to relate preceding rules of a domain to its following rules. That is, anuvitti allows a controlled reading of a former

<sup>5 (</sup>Mbh. III:392) na videšastham iti kṛtvato nānāvākyam bhavati. videšastham api sad ekam vākyam bhavati.

rule, or part of a former rule, in the interpretation or application of a subsequent rule. It thus helps reconstruct the shared context of a given rule within a domain.

Let us consider an example. Rule 3.1.62 acaḥ karmakarttari is composed of two padas where the first (acaḥ) ends in pañcamī 'fifth triplet' and the second (karmakarttari) in saptamī 'seventh triplet'. This sūtra cannot make any sense unless sūtras 3.1.1 pratyayaḥ, 3.1.2 paraś ca, 3.1.22 dhātor ekāco..., 3.1.43 cli luni, 3.1.44 cleḥ sic, 3.1.60 cin te... and 3.1.61 dīpajana...any-atarasyām contribute their elements towards its proper interpretation. A concatenation of all the elements brought via anuvṛtti to 3.1.62 produces the following string where I also indicate the nominal endings attached to the individual padas.

Pratyayaḥ 1/1 paraś ca 1/1 dhātoḥ 5/1 luni 7/1 cin 1/1 te 7/1 anyatarasyām 7/1 acah 5/1 karmakarttari 7/1

I now present the vṛtti of this sūtra.

ajantād dhātoḥ parasya cleḥ pratyayasya karmakarttari taśabde parataś ciṇādeśo bhavaty anyatarasyām

"Affix CLI optionally is replaced by CIN when the former occurs after a verb root ending in aC (a vowel) and when ta, a replacement of LUN which denotes karmakartr 'object treated as if agent' follows".

It is obvious that 3.1.62 cannot be properly interpreted without the help of the previous seven rules contributing elements via anuvrti. There are yet additional rules which must also be brought close to 3.1.62 for its proper interpretation. Sūtra 3.1.62 orders a replacement in the form of  $X \rightarrow Y/Z$  where X is replaced by Y when Z follows. Thus Z forms the right context of this replacement. However, since not every X should be replaced by Y, X must be qualified; it will be termed the left context of replacement. In the example on hand, ta, a replacement of LUN denoting karmakartr, forms the right context while a verb root ending in a vowel (aC) forms the left context. How do we know this? The answer is: from rules of interpretation such as 1.1.67 tasmād ity uttarasya, 1.1.66 tasminn iti nirdiste pūrvasya and 1.1.49 ṣaṣṭhī sthāneyogā, etc. These rules, however, do not come via anuvrtti; they must be brought by means of some other device. I shall discuss this with reference to intradomain dependency among rules.

The device for reconstructing the shared context of related rules to which Patañjali alludes in his statement on ekavākyatā is to be implicitly assumed. I have termed this reference to antecedent. Patañjali claims that rules placed in two different places in the grammar may share the same context of application. For example, Pāṇini presents most of his definitional and interpretational rules in the first book. If a given definitional or interpretational rule is required for the interpretation and application of

an operational rule elsewhere in the grammar, the grammar must have some way of bringing them together. My idea of a reference to antecedent as an implicit device derives from Pāṇini's own practice of relating definitional terms to operational rules in a way that not only facilitates interpretation of these rules but also serves as a guide for determining further steps in derivation. The following convention summarizes the function of this implicit device.

Any term encountered in a rule while scanning a domain for possible rule application triggers the process of reconstructing a referential index (RI) for that term. A given RI refers to the antecedent of that term by computing all its previous occurrences in the grammar and consequently bringing information close to the rule which triggers the RI computation.

The device of reference to antecedent thus brings rules from across the domain boundaries by means of the RI computation (see chapter 4 for details of RI operation).

Given the fact that a sūtra is very brief and concise, and that it depends on other sūtras for its proper interpretation and application, a sūtra should be interpreted as a sentence. Obviously, it necessitates retrieving required information from elsewhere. Thus, a sūtra when fully supplied with all the information required for its application, becomes a statement. A rule is not necessarily a statement as it is not written in the sūtra style per se and also because it entails practically no information retrieval. This may be reason enough to distinguish between a sūtra and rule. However, I prefer to use them both in the sense of a rule for ease of reference.

Contemporary linguists generally formulate rules with a single operation. Pāṇini has formulated many rules with two operations to be performed concurrently. Consider the following rules.

## 3.1.11 karttuḥ kyan salopaś ca

"The affix KyaN occurs optionally to denote ācāra 'conduct' after a pada ending in a SUP and denoting an upamāna 'standard of comparison' as agent; in addition, finals of a nominal stem is replaced by zero (LOPA).

3.1.12 bhṛśādibhyo bhuvy acver lopaś ca halaḥ

"The affix KyaN occurs optionally to denote the sense of  $bh\bar{u}$  'to be, become' after nominal stems enumerated in the list headed by bhrśa 'more, bountiful' providing these stems did not end in the affix Cvi; in addition, the stem final consonant (hL) is replaced by zero"

3.1.80 dhinvikṛṇvyor a ca

"The affix u occurs after verbal roots  $dhinv\bar{\imath}$  'to please, be pleased' and  $krnv\bar{l}$  'to hurt, injure' when a  $s\bar{a}rvadh\bar{a}tuka$  affix denoting kartr follows; in addition, the root-final sound is replaced by a"

3.1.108 hanas ta ca

"The atfix KyaP occurs to denote bhāva 'action' after the verbal root han

'to kill' used without a preverb and co-occurring with a pada ending in a sUP; in addition, the root-final n is replaced with t"

3.1.39 bhīhrībhrhuvam śluvac ca

"affix  $\bar{a}m$  occurs optionally after verbal roots  $\bar{N}Ibh\bar{i}$  'to fear,'  $hr\bar{i}$  to be bashful, ashamed,'  $DUbhr\bar{N}$  'to hold, provide for' and hu 'to offer ritual oblation' providing  $LI\bar{T}$  follows and the usage is not Vedic; in addition, these roots undergo operations similar to ones which occur when  $\dot{S}LU$  follows."

The first four rules require specific deletion or replacement operations in addition to the introduction of an affix. The last rule does not specify a single operation. Instead, it directs operation(s) similar to those conditioned by another item. These operations specifically are doubling (dvitva; 6.1.10 ślau) and i-replacement (itva; 7.4.76 bhṛṇām it). The first four operations can be performed simultaneously whereas those required by 3.1.39 cannot. Cardona (unpublished (a): 12-14) interestingly distinguishes within the group of rules which order two operations simultaneously. With supporting evidence from Jinendrabuddhi's Nyāsa ad Kāśikā 3.1.11, he states that rules such as 3.1.11 and 3.1.12 form a type where the two operations do not presuppose each other. Thus, the deletion of s ordered by 3.1.11 presupposes the introduction of affix KyaN but not vice versa. Contrary to this, operations ordered by rules such as 3.1.80 and 3.1.108 both presuppose each other. Cardona also points out that the first type entails two operations where one is major and the other is subsidiary, and it is the subsidiary operation (deletion of sin 3.1.11) that always presupposes the major one. The second type where the two operations both presuppose each other entails operations of equal status.

Commentators also make a distinction between elements stated by these rule types. For example, the elements introduced by two operations enjoying equal status are characterized as samniyogasista 'ordered in conjunction'. Elements introduced by two operations where one is principal and the other secondary are characterized as pradhānaśiṣṭa 'ordered as principal' and anvācayaśiṣṭa 'ordered as secondary' respectively. These distinctions entail certain consequences. For example, if an element characterized as samniyogasista is removed, the other element concurrently introduced must also be removed. Rule 4.1.49 indravaruna... introduces the feminine affix NiP simultaneously with the augment  $\bar{a}nUK$ . Thus we get:  $indra + \bar{a}nUK + NiP = indra + \bar{a}n + \bar{i} = indra\bar{n}\bar{i}$  'Indra's wife'. However, in deriving the compound pancendra 'a mantra whose deities are five Indranis' from  $pa\tilde{n}can + Jas + (aN \rightarrow \phi) = pa\tilde{n}cendrani$ , we find that the feminine affix NiP must be deleted by 1.2.49 luk taddhita luki. Since NiP was introduced simultaneously with anUK as samniyogasista, anUK must also be deleted. The result is:  $pa\tilde{n}cendr(\bar{a}n \rightarrow \phi)$   $(\bar{i} \rightarrow \phi) = pa\tilde{n}cendra$ . Note here that the deletion of  $\bar{a}nUK$  and  $\dot{N}\bar{\imath}P$  will not yield the string \*pa $\bar{n}cendr$ ; instead it will restore the final a of indra as this a was there when  $\bar{a}nUK$  and  $\dot{N}\bar{\imath}P$  were introduced.

Pāṇini arranges his rules in domains sequentially. However, when it comes to application of rules, he also resorts to non-sequential ordering. The express purpose of sequential ordering is to help strings locate domains of possible rule application. Elsewhere the ordering may or may not be sequential. Rules in modern linguistics are arranged and applied sequentially, though with certain intrinsic or extrinsic constraints. The notion of cyclic application of rules is also different in Pāṇini. Cyclic rules in contemporary linguistics are formulated based largely upon input conditions. Pāṇini's rule cycles, however, are constrained primarily by output conditions. One must of course remember that the notion of cyclic rules is still not fully developed.

The notion of ordering and cyclic application is closely related to rule interaction. Commentators have identified several categories of rules where operational rules are largest in number. The degree and type of rule interaction depends mostly on the derivates. Consider the following rules.

- 1.4.1 ā kadārād ekā samjāā
- 1.4.2 vipratisedhe param kāryam
- 1.4.24 dhruvam apāye' pādānam
- 1.4.42 sādhakatamam karanam

Rule 1.4.1 requires that only one term should be assigned to a single nominatum (samjñin). The next rule states that, in matters of conflict, a rule which is subsequent (para) in order wins. Now consider the following sentence.

## (1) rāmo dhanuṣā mṛgaṃ vidhyati

'Rāma is piercing the deer with the bow'

The word dhanus 'bow' can qualify for the assignment of both apādāna 'ablative' and karaṇa 'instrument'. Given an action denoted by vyadh 'to pierce', dhanus can serve as the fixed (dhruva) point from whence movement away (apāya) of arrows (śara) occurs. It can also be viewed as the most effective means (sādhakatama) since arrows cannot be shot without it. There is clearly a conflict between rules 1.4.24 and 1.4.42. Rule 1.4.2 is invoked to resolve this conflict on the basis of paratva and consequently dhanus is assigned the term karaṇa by 1.4.42. The order of rule placement thus becomes a factor in determining the relative strength of rules.

It must be remembered here that the conflicts which 1.4.2 resolves are identified as *tulyabalatā* 'equal strength'. Such strength obtains between rules which are *sāvakāśa* 'with scope of application elsewhere'. Conflicts where one of the rules happens to be *niravakāśa* 'without any scope of

application elsewhere' are not covered by 1.4.2. Commentators also observe that conflicts between *nitya* 'obligatory' and *para*, *antaranga* 'internally conditioned' and *para* or *nitya*, and *apavāda* 'exception' and *para*, *nitya* or *antaranga* rules are not covered by *tulyabalatā*. Hence, such conflicts cannot be resolved by 1.4.2. Pāṇinīyas recognize a *paribhāṣā* in this regard:

pūrvaparanityāntarangāpavādānām uttarottara balīyah.

This is clearly an effort towards setting hierarchical relations among rules (see chapter 5 for details on these rule types).

It has already been stated that the Aṣṭādhyāyī is a finite set of ordered rules which is capable of characterizing an infinite number of correct Sanskrit sentences. It is important to realize here that the Aṣṭādhyāyī is designed to characterize only correct Sanskrit sentences. A question may be raised here whether sentence analysis should be based on correct or incorrect usage or both. Patañjali observes that only one type of usage, either correct or incorrect, should form the basis for analysis. After all, since the two sets are mutually exclusive, by analysing only one, namely correct usage, the second set, incorrect usage, will become known as what is excluded. This practice has a parallel in the outside world. If someone specifies what should not be eaten, what should be eaten becomes clear. In the same way, if one specifies what should be eaten, what should not be eaten also becomes known. Thus, by specifying that only five of the fivenailed should be eaten, the others which should not be eaten, become known. Similarly, if one says that a village pig should not be eaten, one understands that one found in the jungle can be eaten (Mbh. I:23). In the same way, by analysing correct usage one automatically knows incorrect.

Answering the question which usage, correct or incorrect, should form the basis of analysis, Patañjali says that analysis based on correct words is preferred as it is economical. That is, fewer rules are needed to explain correct usage than incorrect usage. After all, a single correct word may have many corresponding incorrect words. Besides, use of correct words brings merit.<sup>6</sup>

The correct words which Patanjali recommends as forming the basis of analysis are further qualified. They must be taken from usage. An interesting discussion follows this. It centres around the question whether there are words which are not found in usage, and if so whether such words should be included in the analysis. Patanjali accepts that there are words which may not be found in usage but that should be included. This appears to directly counter the idea of analysis based on usage. After all, since words exist to convey meanings, if they are not used and hence do

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Mbh. pas.:kim punar atra jyāyaḥ. laghutvāc chabdopadeśaḥ. garīyān apaśabdopadeśaḥ. ekaikasya bahavo' pabhraṃśāḥ...

not convey meanings, the question of their existence or analysis is vacuous. Patañjali explains that the scope of usage must be taken as widely as possible. Efforts should be made to ascertain whether a particular word exists in usage. Doubt expressed about the existence of a word simply because it has not conveyed meaning is not sufficient since many other words can be used to convey the same meaning and the meaning is thus expressed. Many words had an antique usage such as in the ritual of dīrghasatra but are no longer used. Similarly, there are words which are used in other places. The scope of usage is indeed very wide; great effort must be expended in ascertaining whether words exist in usage. In short, even though a particular person may not use a particular word, or a word may not be current in a particular area at a particular time, it does not mean that the word did or does not exist in usage (Mbh. I:37-38).

Pāṇini believed in the authority of words (usage). The rules of the grammar are formulated to capture generalizations reflected in usage, and obviously generalizations necessary for the formulation of general rules and their particular exceptions are impossible to abstract from incorrect usage. Consequently, incorrect sentences cannot be treated as norm. This amounts to saying that the grammar is not capable of characterizing the infinity of incorrect utterances.

It is not out of place to indicate here that the Sanskrit grammarians were aware of issues concerning grammaticality and acceptability. Judgments relating to grammaticality and acceptability are not to be treated as depending on the native speaker's intuition. Sanskrit grammarians pay much attention to the usage and the vivakṣā 'intent' of the speakers. Thus, it is not surprising to find grammatically correct though semantically deviant sentences similar to Chomsky's "colorless green ideas sleep furiously" discussed by Sanskrit grammarians. 8

eşa bandhyāsuto yāti khapuşpakṛtaśekharaḥ kūrmakṣīracaye snāta śaśasṛṅgadhanurdharaḥ

"There goes the son of a barren woman with his hair-top bedecked with sky-flower, bathed with the milk of a tortoise carrying a bow made of the horn of a rabbit".

Such usages are grammatically approved though treated as *kalpanā* 'imagination' and hence, regarded as falling outside the scope of normal usage. Since the Sanskrit grammarians do not bother themselves with the intuitive knowledge of the native speakers, they do not consider it necessary to go deeper into grammatical or semantic deviance. They adhere to the usage of the sistas as norm.

It has been stated that the Aṣṭādhyāyī characterizes sentences. However,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup>Chomsky (1957:15).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> (*PLM*:37).

it has also been observed that this characterization is dependent upon the analysis of words by means of bases and affixes. Thus, the Pāṇinian grammatical device treats words as its ultimate derivate. This observation may create the impression that the Astadhyāyī is a morphologically-based descriptive grammar. It will also raise a question about the status of syntax in Pānini. Above all, it will bring into question whether Pāṇini can derive sentences. I have claimed, with support from Nagesa, that Panini employs word derivation as a tool to derive sentences. Why doesn't Panini derive sentences directly? I think his strategy is quite obvious. The question loses its appeal for him since his attempt to derive a sentence per se would necessarily require him to provide all information relative to word derivation. Furthermore, this attempt will also fail miserably in providing anything significantly different from what his word derivation would have already provided. Pānini derives words with reference to the conceptual structure (CS) of sentences. This procedure consequently enables him to derive sentences, even though he does not consider the sentence to be either the starting point or the terminal point of his derivational device.

The Pāṇinian derivative model is built around two basic though interrelated constructs: conceptual structure (CS) of sentences and lexicalization. No sentence can be derived unless there is a clearly established CS for it. Since action(kriyā) forms the central denotatum of Sanskrit sentences, their CS must be established with reference to action. Action requires participants (kārakas) for bringing it to fulfilment. Pāṇini sets up six categories of kārakas: apādāna ablative', sampradāna 'dative', karaṇa 'instrument', adhikaraṇa 'locus', karman 'object' and kartṛ 'agent'. The theory of action and participants makes it obligatory for each CS to underlie an agent and an action. Thus the agent is a priori given by the theory. Other participants may or may not be involved in a given action depending on the nature of that action and the co-occurrence conditions imposed upon the participants. Let us consider the CS of sentence (2).

#### (2) rāmo vane sītāyai dhanuṣā mṛgam vidhyati

The CS of this sentence is built around the action of piercing in which Rāma, the agent, is engaged at the current time. The act of piercing is denoted by the verb root vyadh 'to pierce'. This particular action, of its own nature, may permit the involvement of participants such as apādāna 'ablative', sampradāna 'dative', karaṇa 'instrument, adhikaraṇa 'locus' or karman 'object'. In essence, this action permits the involvement of participants which other actions may not allow. We can represent the CS of sentence (2) as follows:

CS<sub>1</sub>: Action<sub>1</sub> (vyadh): Agent, Dative, Instrument, Locus, Object

The role of ablative in this  $CS_1$  is recognized although one can argue that since *dhanus* 'bow' can serve as the point from which the movement away

(apāya; 1.4.24 dhruvam apāye' pādānam) can take place, dhanus should be assigned the term apādāna. An argument counter to the preceding can also be forwarded. Since one cannot shoot an arrow to accomplish the act of piercing without using the bow, dhanus should be assigned the term haraṇa 'instrument'.

There is clearly a conflict here. The same dhanus which may qualify for the apādāna may also qualify for the term karaṇa. Rule 1.4.1 ā kaḍārād ekā saṃjñā governs the assignment of terms in the kāraka domain. It would not allow the assignment of two terms to a single entity. Rule 1.4.2 vipratiṣedhe paraṃ kāryam must be invoked here to resolve the conflict. Accordingly, dhanus must be uniquely termed karaṇa on grounds that the rule which assigns the term karaṇa is subsequent to the one which assigns the term apādāna.

It is at this stage that the process of lexicalization occurs. It starts with the plugging in of lexical items which may specify the abstract categories of participants named in the CS. It should be carefully noted here that specifying these categories with lexical items does not automatically accomplish the expression of roles they play in the CS. This distinction between 'naming' and 'expressing' will become clear momentarily. In the meantime, let me briefly outline the kinds of lexical items which are recognized by Pāṇini. They fall into two categories: prātipadika 'nominal stem' and dhātu 'verb root'. Pāṇini defines these terms as follows.

1.2.45 arthavad adhātur apratyayah prātipadikam

'a non-root, non-affixal unit with meaning is termed prātipadika'

1.2.46 krt-taddhita-samāsāś ca

'a unit which either ends in a kṛt (3.1.93 kṛd atin) or taddhita (4.1.76 taddhitāḥ) affix, or is a samāsa 'compound' is also termed prātipadika'

1.3.1 bhūvādyo dhātavah

'units headed by  $bh\bar{u}$  'to be, become' and the like, are termed  $dh\bar{a}tu$  'verb root'

3.1.32 sanādy-antā dhātavah

'units which end in affixes saN, etc, (3.1.5 gup-tij-kidbhyaḥ...) are termed dhātu'

The above listings give us a total of six types of lexical items grouped under two categories of nominal stem and verb root. Rule 1.2.46 enumerates three types of stems which are to be derived from units underlying simple bases. Roots of the class characterized by 3.1.32 also fall within the derived category. Lexical insertion in a given CS may involve any of the above bases as desired.

Returning to  $CS_1$ , we find the following representation after the lexical insertion of the bases has been completed.

CS<sub>1</sub>: Action<sub>1</sub>: vyadh (dhātu: hereafter D) Agent, Dative, Instrument, Locus, Object rāma (prātipadika: hereafter P) sītā (P) dhanuş (P) vana (P) mrga (P)

The next step in the process of lexicalization is to express, by means of affixes, the relations named above. It should be noted here that a relation, especially a  $k\bar{a}raka$  relation, though potentially (inherently) named by an action, depending on the intention of the speakers may not be expressed by lexicalization. Thus, in the  $CS_1$ , the action denoted by vyadh names or potentially inheres agent, object, instrument, dative, ablative and locative. A speaker may not wish to particularize or identify entities which may be capable of serving as object, instrument, etc. For example, a speaker may not wish to particularize dhanus as karana. With the exclusion of karana, sentence (2) can become

(3) rāmo mṛgam vidhyati vane sītāyai

'Rāma is piercing the deer in the forest for Sītā'. Similarly, the speaker may even wish to exclude a particular reference to the agent Rāma, thereby reducing the sentence to

- (4) mṛgam vidhyati sītāyai vane
- '... is piercing the deer for Sītā in the forest'. Sentences (5) and (6) exclude dative and locative.
  - (5) mrgam vidhyati vane
    - '... is piercing the deer in the forest'.
  - (6) mrgam vidhyati
    - "... is piercing the deer"

These exclusions do not mean that the action denoted by vyadh does not name the deleted kārakas. Instead, it merely implies that even though the action potentially inheres or names these participants in the action, the speaker may not wish to particularly identify them in a given sentence. This is the basis for maintaining a distinction between the processes of naming and expressing. Expressing also goes beyond particularizing. That is, the identification of kārakas by specific bases doesn't mean that the named kārakas have also been expressed. For example, consider the following sentence.

(7) rāmeņa mṛgo vidhyate sītāyai vane

'a deer is being pierced by Rāma in the forest for Sītā'. Sentences (7) and (3) both mean the same thing; the only difference is the way these sentences express their agent or object. Sentence (3) expresses the agent by using the active ending ti with the verb. Sentence (7) expresses the same agent by using the third triplet of nominal ending (trtiva). Similarly, the object which is expressed by using the second triplet of nominal ending (dvitiva) in (3) is expressed by introducing affix ya to the verb in (7). Agents and objects can either be expressed by post-verbal endings or other affixes. Other karakas can be expressed by nominal endings or other affixes. This proves that an action may name a karaka, lexical bases may identify them, but there will still remain the question of how they shall be expressed. It is for this reason that naming and expressing have to be treated on different levels.

Let us now return to the derivation of sentences (2) and (7). I reproduce here the string with lexical insertion already accomplished.

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(2) rāma (agent: P) vyadh (D) vana (locus, P) sītā (dative: P) dhanuş (instrument: P) mṛga (object: P)
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Note here that the terms prātipadika (P), dhātu (D) and kartṛ 'agent', etc., are assigned by the grammar, among other things, to guide the strings to the domain of possible rule application. This relationship between the assignment of a term and scanning of domains for possible rule application will be discussed in the chapters 4 and 6. Suffice it to say here that the root vyadh and other items termed prātipadika are sent respectively to the domain of 3.1.91 dhātoḥ and 4.1.1 nyāp-prātipadikāt for possible rule application. The result will be:

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r\bar{a}ma + sU, vana + \dot{N}i, s\bar{i}t\bar{a} + \dot{N}e, dhanus + T\bar{a}, mrga + am, vyadh + LAT
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The string vyadh + LAT will yield vyadh + ya + ti where first LAT will be replaced by tiP and subsequently (SyaN = ya) will be introduced. There are three things which must be noted in connection with the replacement of LAT by tiP. First, LAT is one of the twelve abstract affixes termed LA and introduced after transitive verb roots when either kartr or karman 'object' is denoted. It is introduced after intransitive roots to denote kartr or  $bh\bar{a}va$  (3.4.69 lah karman ca  $bh\bar{a}ve$   $c\bar{a}karmakebhyah$ ). Second, the decision whether a LA affix denotes kartr, karman, or  $bh\bar{a}va$  is made at the time when 3.4.78 tiptasjhi... applies to replace it with a tiN. Finally, tiN is a set of eighteen endings from among which only one may be selected to replace a LA.

The nominal affixes sU, Ni, Ne and am are introduced by  $4.1.2 \, svaujas...$  in the domain of  $4.1.1 \, iy\bar{a}p$ -prātipadikāt. These affixes denote diverse  $k\bar{a}raka$  and non- $k\bar{a}raka$  relations and their selection is constrained by, among other things, rule  $2.3.1 \, anabhihite$ . This rule requires that these affixes should be introduced only when their denotatum is not already expressed by some other means. Consider the selection of sU after  $r\bar{a}ma$ , which is the named agent. Now, vyadh is a transitive verb whose LAT is replaced by tiP to denote agent. An attempt to express kartr by means of

a nominal ending will be clearly in violation of 2.3.1 since tiP of vyadh + ya + ti would have already expressed it. This selectional constraint clearly establishes an interdependency between the expression of agent, object, and  $bh\bar{a}va$  by a verbal inflection, and the expression of kartr and karman by the nominal endings. Thus, sU introduced after  $r\bar{a}ma$ , the nominal which specifies the kartr, does not express kartr. Instead, it expresses only the nominal stem notion (2.3.46  $pr\bar{a}tipadik\bar{a}rthalingaparim\bar{a}navacanam\bar{a}tre$   $pratham\bar{a}$ ). The condition laid down by 2.3.1 must also be met in connection with the introduction of the other nominal endings. Consider the following string which underlies (7).

$$r\bar{a}ma + \bar{T}\bar{a}$$
,  $vana + \dot{N}i$ ,  $s\bar{\imath}t\bar{a} + \dot{N}e$ ,  $dhanus + \bar{T}\bar{a}$ ,  $mrga + sU$ ,  $vyadh + (LAT \rightarrow ta)$ 

The affix LAT of vyadh + LAT is replaced here with ta, which subsequently conditions the introduction of ya to yield the string vyadh + ya + ta. This ya expresses karman which then cannot be expressed by introducing am after mrga. However, since the agent is not expressed elsewhere, affix Ta must be introduced after rama to denote it. Aside from showing the interdependency between the expression of agent and object by verbal or nominal endings, the derivation of (2) and (7) reveals one other point of interest: namely, that the derivation of (2) and (7) starts with the same two steps, i.e., the assignment of karaka terms and lexical insertion of bases. They later develop differently depending on whether the verbal ending expresses agent or object.

Once the string reaches the step where the nominal and verbal endings have been introduced, the derivation becomes largely automatic. Some of the theoretical implications of the derivational details, however, must be discussed. First, let us consider this summary of the derivational scheme.

- (a) action: agent
- (b) action<sub>1</sub>: agent<sub>1</sub> plus the other kārakas which action<sub>1</sub> may name =  $CS_1$
- (c) lexical insertion of bases identifying action and the named kārakas
- (d) lexical insertion of bases identifying units of non- $k\bar{a}raka$  relations = expanded  $CS_1$
- (e) expressing agent, object or bhāva by verbal endings
- (g) expressing non-kāraka relations by means of nominal endings, post-nominal affixes, etc.

Steps (a) through (d) relate to the level of naming, (e) through (g) to expressing.

The affixes ruled after nominal bases above are conditioned by 2.3.1 anabhihite 'when not expressed otherwise'. This simply means that such affixes can only be introduced after nominal bases when the denotatum of these affixes is not already expressed by something else. This explains why tṛtīyā 'third triplet of nominal ending' cannot be introduced by 2.3.18

kartṛkaraṇayos tṛtīyā after rāma in (2) to express the agent it specifies. However, since there is nothing, including the verbal form, which expresses the object, dvitīyā 'second triplet of nominal ending' can be added by 2.3.2 karmaṇi dvitīyā after mṛga to express the object it specifies. The same argument goes for all the other affixes introduced after other stems. It is my contention that forms such as mṛgam can never be derived by the Aṣṭādhyāyī unless the conceptual structure (CS) of sentences is taken into account and a reference to forms such as vidhyati is made. This shows why the derivation of words such as mṛgam cannot merely be termed 'word derivation'. What has been stated as the difficulty in deriving mṛgam in (2) holds true for deriving rāmeṇa in (7). The Pāṇinian derivational device simply cannot be considered a morphological device of either the Bloomfieldian or neo-Bloomfieldian type.

Pāṇini derives and uses some other types of forms which further support this claim. Consider the following:

- (8) ātmanaḥ putram icchati
  - "... wishes a son of his own"
- (9) putrīyati 'id.'

Sentence (9) consists of the single word putrīyati. It is derived by introducing LAT (to be replaced by ti) after the verbal root putrīya, which in itself is derived by introducing affix KyaC (3.1.8 supa ātmanaḥ kyac) after the pada (supaḥ) putra + am. Now, am is ruled after putra to express the object. As stated, the introduction of this affix cannot be accomplished unless reference to the CS is made. Pāṇini provides for this by outlining conditions imposed upon the introduction of affix KyaC. We understand that am must be introduced to express the karman related to an action denoted by is 'to wish'. In addition, the agent of is must wish the object for himself and must also be the same as the agent named by the derived root. A CS realized in terms of bases and affixes and also meeting the above conditions is:

(10)  $\bar{a}tman + \dot{N}as putra + am is + LAT$ 

Sentences (8) and (9) both derive from string (10). Since Pāṇini derives (8) and (9) as optional  $(v\bar{a})$  constructions, (9) alternates with (8). Derivationally, KyaC is introduced after putra + am, a pada expressing the object, since it meets all the conditions. This should be enough to show that deriving (9) and (10) as an alternant of (8) cannot simply be considered as word derivation.

Kiparsky (1982) presents some interesting ideas concerning the derivation of sentences, nominals and elliptical constructions. He finds that, unlike grammatical models in current linguistic theory, Pāṇini does not accept that the relationship between sentences and their corresponding nominals or elliptical counterparts is derivational. That is, contrary to

current theory, Pāṇini does not derive a passive from an active, or a nominal or elliptical construction from a corresponding sentence. Instead, Pāṇini derives such parallel constructions from a common string. When it comes to deriving nominals, the transformational theory posits an expansion at the phrase-structure level for a nominal parallel to that of a corresponding sentence. The TG employs the means of the  $\bar{x}$  (x-bar) convention. Pāṇini, again, does not employ any such means. He instead derives the sentence as well as its corresponding nominal from the same string. The Pāṇinian system is thus economical.

Many of Kiparsky's observations concerning this aspect of the Pāṇinian derivational mechanism are acceptable. However, his explanation of the actual mechanism whereby an underlying relation is expressed in lexical items is confusing. Kiparsky presents the mechanism of Pāṇinian derivation under the title of case, control and ellipsis. While there may not be any substantial difficulty in understanding his arguments in case of a general linguistics student, there are problems in following him for a student of Pāṇini. Consider Kiparsky's explanation of the derivation of the following sentence.

devadattah pacaty odanam

'Devadatta is cooking rice'

Kiparsky, similar to Kiparsky and Staal (1968) posits four levels in the Pāninian derivational schema.

Level 1: semantics

Level 2: abstract syntax (kārakas)

Level 3: surface structure (morphology)

Level 4: phonetics

I do not fully understand the representation of the above sentence at Kiparsky's level 1: semantics. Perhaps it will be a string of lexical items with diacritics or a frame with slots into which lexical items may later be plugged. Thus: devadatta (masculine, singular), odana (masculine, singular), pac. The verb root pac will be taken from the lexicon with diacritics indicating its morphological idiosyncrasies. The verb will also have a reference to time. At the abstract syntactic level, the string will involve the  $k\bar{a}rakas$  and  $LA\bar{T}$ , yielding: devadatta (masculine, singular, agent), odana (masculine, singular, goal), pac +LA $\bar{T}$  (current time).

At the surface structure level, the string will have the nominative and accusative endings after devadatta and odana respectively. The third person singular ending ti will be placed after pac to yield pac + ti. The string may now be processed by appropriate rules at the phonetic level to yield: devadattah pacaty odanam. A difficulty arises here in connection with the verbal form pacati. Given the string pac + ti, 3.4.113 tinsit sarvadhātukam will assign the term sarvadhātuka to ti which will then require the introduction of SaP after pac to yield: pac + a + ti. However, Kiparsky,

in a footnote,  $^9$  alludes to the introduction of SaP by means of the diacritics attached to the verb root pac. It is thus unclear whether the introduction of SaP occurs at the level of semantics or of morphology. I would understand it to take place at the level of morphology.

The most confusing part of this representation concerns LAŢ. Pāṇini introduces LAṬ after a verb root and assigns it the term pratyaya 'affix'. A replacement of LAṬ, in the present case ti, is also termed an affix. Further rules identify it as parasmaipada or ātmanepada, vibhakti, and sārvadhātuka or ārdhadhātuka, etc. If LAṬ and its replacements are affixes, and if an affix, such as ti in Kiparsky's schema, has a place at the morphological level, LAṬ should be placed at that same level. Instead, Kiparsky puts LAṬ at the abstract syntactic level. Thus he equates the abstract syntactic level of the kārakas with the level of the affixes (LAṬ). Although the kārakas may be posited at the level of abstract syntax, placing an affix at that level will constitute a serious violation of the Pāṇinian schema. Affixes, surely, belong to the level of morphology. Agreement with Kiparsky's schema would result in a mixing of Pāṇinian levels which could hinder our understanding of how derivation actually occurs.

Pāṇini was clearly intent upon separating lexicalization from conceptual categories of case. Confusion over the question of whether his kāraka categories are semantic or syntactic has been due largely to the fact that he defines them in semantic as well as syntactic terms. This means that anyone bent upon defining the kāraka categories on purely semantic grounds must have recourse to compromise. The evidence may indicate that these categories are syntactico-semantic, but this in no way proves that Pāṇini mixes levels. If one insists upon the dichotomy of surface and deep structure, there may not be any disagreement about Pāṇini's not subscribing to it; the disagreement will centre around the nature of the Paninian deep structure. It is my belief that Pāṇini did not formulate his model in terms of deep and surface structure at all. After all, Pānini's theory does not entail any network of transformations. This means that any deep structure which can be read into his model is conspicuously lacking in depth. In short, since Pāṇini sought to maintain a direct link between the CS of sentences and their actual realization in usage, his kāraka categories cannot be viewed as constituting a level either similar to the level of general semantics or of deep syntax. For, this level would lack depth and consequently would not only erase intermediate levels but would also reduce the network of transformations.

The preceding arguments make Pāṇini's model unique insofar as comparisons with TG, generative-semantics or case-grammar are concerned. A recent study (Roodbergen 1974) observes that "...in its derivational

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> Kiparsky (1982:4).

aspect Pāṇini's grammar works much like the machine mentioned by N. Chomsky in *Syntactic Structures*". Actually, the machine which Chomsky talks about in *Syntactic Structures* refers to a class of grammars generally known as *Finite State Grammar (FSG)*. After listing some languages, Chomsky shows very effectively that natural languages fall outside the generative power of *FSG*. Chomsky rejects *FSG* especially because it is deficient in handling the disjunctive dependency relationship natural to human languages. If Pāṇini functions much like the machine identified as *FSG* and if Sanskrit can be considered a natural language, Pāṇini must suffer from the same deficiencies as any *FSG*. Chomsky mentions *FSG* to demonstrate the inadequacies of a descriptive linguistic theory such as the one presented in Hockett's *A Manual of Phonology*. There is hardly any evidence to suggest that Pāṇini works in the same way that Hockett does.

Pāṇini's model is also unique in that it manipulates word derivation as a tool, for reasons of simplicity and economy, to account for the derivation of sentences. For this, he does not have to posit a general semantic structure as has been suggested by Sinha, nor does he have to specify an elaborate semantic or deep structure as has been postulated by Kiparsky and Staal. His aim is not to make generalizations which may reflect the intuition of native speakers. On the contrary, he aims at making generalizations and setting up a device which can correctly derive sentences as they are used by the native speakers. Actual usages are so much more important for him that he cannot contemplate any kind of abstraction which may create a gap between the conceptual structure of sentences and their actual realization in usage (also see Sharma: 1978).

Pāṇini's Aṣṭādhyāyī, in brief then, is a finite set of rules capable of deriving an infinite number of correct Sanskrit utterances. Pāṇini manipulates word derivation as a tool to derive sentences. His grammatical device is thus unique and any attempt to see in him things descriptive, transformational-generative, or anything else will definitely be an imposition.

# Domain, Recurrence and Reference

Pāṇinīyas recognize two principles for interpreting rules in the Aṣṭādhyāyī: yathoddeśa and kāryakāla. The first emphasizes that a sūtra should be understood fully at the place where it first appears in the grammar. The second emphasizes that a sūtra should be understood fully at the place where it is operative. These principles have been explained with reference to rules which assign names (saṃjñā) or offer interpretation (paribhāṣā). For example, an adherent of the yathoddeśa view will understand the meaning and function of sūtra 1.1.1 vṛddhir ādaic right at the beginning of the grammar. However, an adherent of the kāryakāla view will wait till the time this rule is brought close to the context of an operational rule which orders vṛddhi. One view thus focuses on the physical context of a rule while the other focuses on its functional context. The idea of domain and recurrence is related to the physical context of rules. Reference to antecedent is related to functional context.

Pāṇini presents his rules in sets or blocks in such a way that a larger set contains one or more smaller sets; the larger sets I shall term domains. The notion of domain is crucial to the Pāṇinian system of rule placement. It is obvious from the fact that more than three quarters of the entire grammar is covered by the following four domains:

- (i) Controlling domain (CD), first book of the grammar which contains definitional and interpretational rules in general.
- (ii) Obligatory domain (OD), rules, contained in the third through fifth books which must be scanned by every base-input.
- (iii) Anga domain (AD), rules contained within the last quarter of book six and the entire seventh book.
- (iv) Pada domain (PD), rules contained within the first three quarters of book eight.

The Astādhyāyī arranges its rules in eight books of four quarters each relative to topics and operations. The arrangement of rules in domains is no exception. However, the focus here shifts from topic and operation to proper interpretation of rules and the relations among them. This is especially true in view of the very condensed and algebraic style of rule-formulation. Rules within a domain are arranged such that a lower level rule expects the presence of a higher level rule or elements therefrom for its proper interpretation. Such rules or elements are said to recur and the device which makes such reference possible is known as recurrence (anuvṛtti). The first rule of a domain is termed its heading rule (adhikārasūtra). Since

an adhikāra is generally defined as one which recurs, every rule that recurs becomes an adhikāra. This, however, is the technical interpretation. An adhikārasūtra in general is the heading rule of a domain or an interior domain. There may be rules in a given domain which do not belong to an interior domain. Such rules, when joined with the heading rules of their own respective domains, form the functional context (FC) of those domains. A string falls within the application of a domain or an interior domain if and only if it meets the requirements laid down by the FC. Consider the following controlled listing.

- 3.1.1 pratyayah
- 3.1.2 paras ca
- 3.1.3 ādyudāttas ca
- 3.1.4 anudāttau suppitau
  - 3.1.91 dhātoh
  - 3.1.92 tatropapadam saptamīstham
  - 3.1.93 krd atin
  - 3.1.94 vā' sarūpo' striyām
    - 3.1.95 krtyāh prān nvulah
    - 3.1.132 cityāgni citye
    - 3.2.84 bhūte
    - 3.2.122 puri lūn cāsme
    - 3.3.18 bhāve
    - 3.3.112 ākrośe nāñy anih
    - 4.1.1 nyāp-prātipadikāt
    - 4.1.2 svaujasmautchastābhyām...
    - 4.1.3 striyām
    - 4.1.76 taddhitāh
    - 4.1.83 prāg dīvyato' n
    - 5.4.1 prāg vahates thak

The above listing clearly shows that rules 3.1.2 through 3.1.4 are not included in any one of the interior domains. These rules together with 3.1.1 form the FC of this domain of affixes. Two interior domains headed by 3.1.91 dhātoḥ and 4.1.1 nyāp-prātipadikāt have been shown here with some of their interior domains. Note also that rules 3.1.92, 93 and 94 form the FC of the interior domain of 3.1.91.

By rule 1.3.11 svaritenādhikāraḥ, Pāṇini tells us that an adhikāra is one which is marked by the svarita 'circumflex' accent. The function of an adhikāra is to contribute itself or its parts to the proper interpretation of the rules governed by it. This contribution is made possible by the process of recurrence. In short, an adhikāra carries itself or its parts. Since an adhikāra generally is defined as one which recurs in subsequent rules, every rule that recurs becomes an adhikāra. Based upon whether the adhikāra recurs in full or in part (ekadeśa), anuvrtti will be total or partial. An adhikāra

carried in full normally will head a domain or an interior domain, as shown by rules 3.1.1. pratyayaḥ, 3.1.91 dhātoḥ, 4.1.1 nyāp-prātipadikāt, 4.1.3 striyām, 4.1.76 taddhitāḥ, 6.4.1 angasya, 6.4.129 bhasya and 8.1.16 padasya. An adhikāra carried in part normally belongs to a non-heading rule. This necessitates maintaining a distinction between a heading rule (adhikāra) which is carried in full and a rule which is carried only in part (ekadeśa).

Patañjali mentions three types of adhikāras: one, like a lamp, though set in one place, illuminates the entire room; another, by means of a ca, is carried to subsequent rules; and a third carries to each and every rule governed by it. This three-way distinction implies that certain adhikāras literally are carried via anuvṛtti or by means of ca while others are treated only as though carried. The adhikāras which carry to each and every rule via anuvṛtti are heading rules, though not paribhāṣās. The adhikāras which sit in one place but are treated as understood may or may not be heading rules; however, they mostly are paribhāṣās as the following rules exemplify.

- 1.4.1 ā kadārād ekā samjñā
- 1.4.2 vipratisedhe param kāryam
- 2.1.1 samarthah padavidhih
- 3.1.3 ādyudāttas ca
- 3.1.4 anudāttau suppitau
- 4.1.82 samarthānām prathamād vā
- 5.4.68 samāsāntāh
- 8.2.1 pūrvatrāsiddham

Haradatta (PM ad Kāś 1.4.23 kārake) mentions six types of adhikāras: name (saṃjñā), qualifier (viśeṣaṇa), substituend (sthānin), base (prakṛtı), condition (nimitta) and substitute (ādeśa). The examples which he cites are: 3.1.1 pratyayaḥ, 4.2.92 śeṣe, 6.1.84 ekaḥ pūrvaparayoḥ, 4.1.1 nyāp-prātipadikāt, 6.4.46 ārdhadhātuke and 8.3.35 (apadāntasya) mūrdhanyaḥ. Four inflectional endings mark these adhikāras: prathamā, pañcamī, ṣaṣṭhī and saptamī. Saṃjñā and ādeśa are marked with nominative (prathamā); viśeṣaṇa and nimitta with locative (saptamī); genitive (ṣaṣṭhī) generally marks the sthānin while prakṛtī is marked by ablative (pañcamī). It should be remembered here that these remarks on adhikāras generally apply to heading rules.

Adhikāras function in many ways: they introduce a term (3.1.1 pratyayaḥ), specify a domain (1.4.23 kārake), offer a locally valid interpretation, or define the context of an operation. For example, rules 1.4.56 prāg rīśvarān nipātāḥ, 1.4.83 karmapravacanīyāḥ, 2.1.5 avyayībhāvaḥ, 2.1.22 tatpuruṣaḥ, 3.1.1 pratyayaḥ, 3.1.95 kṛtyāḥ and 4.1.76 taddhitāḥ introduce terms. One other function of these heading rules will be brought out in

Mbh. I:362: adhikāro nāma triprakāraḥ. kaścid ekadeśasthaḥ sarvam śāstram abhijvalayati, yathā pradīpaḥ suprajvalitaḥ sarvam veśmābhijvalayati. aparo' dhikāro yathā rajvāyasā vā baddham kāṣṭham anukṛṣyate tadvad anukṛṣyate cakāreṇa. aparo' dhikāraḥ pratiyogam tasyānirdeśārtha iṭi yoge yoga upatiṣṭhate.

our discussion of reference. I have already cited several paribhāṣās which constitute headings and other locally valid interpretations. The scope of a heading rule which defines the context of an operation can be viewed in different ways. Thus, a heading may define the right or left context of an operation; consider, for example, 3.1.91 dhātoḥ 4.1.1 nyāp-prātipadikāt and 4.1.82 samarthānām... which specify bases after which certain affixes can be introduced. Similarly, 6.3.1 alug uttarapade and 2.4.35 ārdhadhātuke provide clear illustrations of an adhikāra rule defining the right context of an operation. Many headings specify the conditions of affix placement, state an operation or simply define the scope of a domain. Rules 2.4.35 ārdhadhātuke, 4.2.92 śeṣe, 6.1.72 saṃhitāyām, 3.2.123 varttamāne laṭ, 3.2.84 bhūte, 3.3.18 bhāve exemplify these functions.

It has been stated that an adhikāra is recognized by its svarita accent. But since the Astādhyāyī has been handed down to us orally it is difficult to ascertain where the svarita mark was intended. Equally difficult is the question of determining how far an adhikāra carries. Commentators explain that vyākhyāna 'explanations of the learned' is the best source for ascertaining where the svarita was intended. Additionally, since the beginning of an adhikāra may also mark the end of an earlier adhikāra, svarita can thus be reconstructed by comparing the two adhikāras since one heading ceases to recur at the sight of the other. It is only logical to conclude that the recurrence of an adhikāra will be suspended when another is introduced. However, one should rely most on the vyākhyāna since the extent of an adhikāra depends largely on the expectations (ākānksā) of subsequent rules. The context of a subsequent rule governed by an adhikāra thus becomes crucial. The extent of a larger domain or interior domain is much easier to recognize. The situations which require recourse to vyākhyāna obtain most often with reference to rules contained within a domain or interior domain.

Two signs serve as indicators for determining the extent of larger adhikāras.

### (1) Change of a book (adhyāya) or a quarter (pāda)

The change of a book or a quarter normally signals the beginning of a new topic and thus, signals the beginning of a new adhikāra. For example, the following rules all are given at the beginning of a book or quarter: 1.2.1 gān kuṭatibhyo..., 1.4.1 ā kaḍārad ekā saṃjñā, 2.1.1 samarthaḥ padavidhiḥ, 2.3.1 anabhihite, 2.4.1 dvigur ekavacanam, 3.1.1 pratyayaḥ, 3.2.1 karmany aṇ, 3.3.1 uṇādayo bahulam, 3.4.1 dhātusambandhe pratyayāḥ, 4.1.1 ṅyāp-prātipadikāt, 4.2.1 tena raktaṃ rāgāt, 6.1.1 ekāco dve prathamasya, 6.3.1 alug uttarapade, 6.4.1 aṅgasya, 7.1.1 yuvor anākau, 7.2.1 sici vṛddhiḥ parasmaipadeṣu, 8.1.1 sarvasya dve, 8.2.1 pūrvatrāsiddham, 8.4.1 rasābhyāṃ no ṇaḥ samānapade. The enumeration of these rules attests that the change of a book or quarter does signal a new topic. However, this may not always

be easy to comprehend as such cases as 4.3.1 yuşmadasmador anyatarasyām khan ca, 5.4.1 pādaśatasya... and 6.2.1 bahuvrīhau prakṛtyā pūrvapadam indicate. Careful study of the context of these rules, however, lets us comprehend the change of a book or topic. For instance, rule 5.3.119 ñyādayas tadrājāḥ is the last rule of the third quarter of the fifth book. It assigns the term tadrāja to certain affixes. This being the domain of affixes, one naturally would see a change in the offing. Similarly, rule 1.4.1 ā kaḍārād ekā saṃjñā delimits the domain of ekasaṃjñā valid through rule 2.2.38 kaḍārāḥ karmadhāraye. One can safely assume that 2.3.1 anabhihite would introduce ... a new topic. The problem of determining the beginning of a new book, quarter, or topic, can also be resolved on the basis of the recurrence of rules which head larger domains. Rules 4.1.76 taddhitāḥ and 6.4.1 aṅgasya are examples of this.

Since the Aṣṭādhyāyī has been handed down to us largely through oral tradition, reliance on a written text in determining the change of a book, quarter or topic, and subsequently the beginning of an adhikāra, may to some appear questionable. However, the present arrangement of rules in books and quarters follows a system connected to the change in topics, so my observations still remain valid.

(2) Use of ā 'up to' and prāk 'prior to'

Pāṇini uses  $\bar{a}$  and  $pr\bar{a}k$  to explicitly indicate the extent of a domain. He uses  $\bar{a}$  to indicate inclusive extent while  $pr\bar{a}k$  indicates exclusive extent. Consider the following listings where I also indicate rules which have been referenced as constituting the limit.

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1.4.1 ā kadārād ekā samjāā
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1.4.56 prāg rīśvarān nipātāḥ

1.4.97 adhi rīśvare

2.1.3 prāk kadārāt samāsah

2.2.38 kaḍārāḥ karmadhāraye

3.2.134 ā kves tacchīla..

3.2.177 bhrājabhāsabhāṣa...

4.1.83 prāg dīvyato' ņ

4.4.1 prāg vahates thak

4.4.2 tena dīvyati

4.4.75 prāgg hitād yat

4.4.76 tad vahati rathayugaprāsangam

5.1.1 prāk krītāc chaḥ

5.1.5 tasmai hitam

5.1.17 parikhāyā ḍhañ

5.1.18 prāg vates thañ

5.1.37 tena krītam

5.1.115 tena tulyam kriyā ced vatih

5.3.1 prāg diśo vibhaktih

5.3.27 diksabdebhyah...

5.3.70 prāg ivāt kah

5.3.96 ive pratikṛtau

8.3.63 prāk sitād adyayāye' pi

8.3.70 parinivibhyah sevasita...

The above listings show only two instances of  $\bar{a}$  as opposed to ten instances of prāk. Two instances of prāk form an interior domain within a domain marked with  $\bar{a}$ . The interlocking of domains marked with  $pr\bar{a}k$ gives the impression of overlapping. This is due mainly to the fact that the rule which references the excluding limit of an adhikāra is included within another adhikāra. That is, a heading marked with prāk is included within the range of a similar heading. Can this create any difficulty in interpreting the rules? Normally not, but there are instances where caution is advised. Consider rule 5.1.1 prāk krītāc chaḥ which one would normally consider valid prior to rule 5.1.37 tena krītam. However, the scope of this interior domain does not extend beyond 5.1.17 parikhāyā dhañ. This is because the extent of a prāk domain entails both formal as well as semantic specifications. That is, an item which specifies the extent of a domain (of prāk) may be construed as denoting either its form or its meaning. For example, rules 4.4.75 prāgg hitād yat and 5.1.1 prāk krītāc chah use hita and krīta to specify the limit of their domains. As indicated by the above listings, these domains extend up to 5.1.5 tasmai hitam and 5.1.37 tena krītam respectively. But this is not correct. The two words, hita and krīta, here indicate the extent of their domains by means of their denotata. That is, the domain of 4.4.75 pragg hitad yat extends up to the rule which introduces an affix denoting the sense of hita. The same is applicable to the domain of 5.1.1 prāk krītāc chaḥ. As a result, 4.4.75 is valid prior to 4.4.144 bhāve ca. Rule 5.1.1 is valid prior to 5.1.18 prāg vates thañ.

It is clear from above that the extent of larger domains is easier to determine. This should not give one the impression that determining the extent of larger domains is free of problems. Consider rule 6.4.1. angasya. It is generally accepted that 6.4.1 governs rules enumerated through book seven. However, the Mahābhāṣya (IV: 661-65) also examines another view which holds that 6.4.1 should not be considered valid beyond rules dealing with abhyāsavikāra 'modifications relative to reduplication'.

Consider 7.4.82 guṇo yaṅlukoḥ which orders guṇa (1.1.2 aden guṇaḥ) under the condition of a following yaN, or its deletion by LUK. Thus, we get guṇa in bobhoti and bobhavīti. The use of the word LUK in 7.4.82 and the fact that guṇa is applicable even when yaN is deleted by LUK are basic points in determining the extent of 6.4.1 prior to rules dealing with abhyāsavikāra.

If the word LUK is not included in the wording of rule 7.4.82, guṇa cannot take place in bobhoti and bobhavīti. The reason is simple: rule 1.1.63 na lumatāṅgasya would not permit it.

Rule 1.1.63 can accomplish this blocking only if 7.4.82 is included within the domain of 6.4.1. Accordingly, rule 6.4.1 must cover rules enumerated through the end of book seven. If 6.4.1 is not treated as valid through rule 7.4.82, 1.1.63 cannot block guṇa and 7.4.82 would not need the explicit mention of the word LUK. For, in that case, guna will be accomplished on the basis of 1.1.62 pratyayalope pratyayalakṣaṇam. Should we then accept that 6.4.1 does not cover rules dealing with abhyāsavikāra? No, that would create other problems. For example, in deriving vavrasca, a LIT derivative of vrasc 'to cut', from vrasc + vrasc + a, 7.4.60 halādi seşah reduces the first vraśc to va. The result is vavraśca. However, 6.1.17 lity abhyāsasyobhayeṣām may apply prior to reduplication. As a result, samprasāraṇa (1.1.45 ig yanah samprasāranam) will take place and a wrong form \*uvrasca will result. Such problems do not arise if the domain of 6.4.1 is considered valid through the end of book seven. I do not wish to burden the reader with other details considering this issue. Suffice it to say that determining the extent of domains requires vyākhyāna.

The interpretation (vyākhyāna) of commentators is generally regarded as decisive in matters of conflicts concerning adhikāras. The smaller adhikāras in general and those forming part of a rule in particular are often tricky. Aside from vyākhyāna, one can resort to the anuvṛtti process itself. Anuvṛtti elements are read with subsequent rules as part of their subject (uddeśya) or predicate (vidheya). A completed sentence with fully expanded uddeśya and vidheya thus becomes the interpretation of the sūtra in question.

Several indicators make it easy to ascertain what is carried. An anuvrtti element can be carried either as part of the subject or predicate of a subsequent rule. Both sentential units have their own structure and content. Any element that carries must be syntactically and semantically compatible with the structure of subsequent rules. Thus, an incompatible adhikāra is suspect. Some incompatibilities, though, are hard to avoid. For example, there are many instances in the Aṣṭādhyāyī where the inflectional ending of a recurring element does not make any sense in subsequent rules. This does not, however, form the basis for rejecting an element as an adhikāra. Instead, the ending is changed to suit the needs of subsequent rules. There are also instances where an adhikāra which has long been terminated reappears. The recurrence of such an adhikāra has been compared with the leaping of a frog (mandūkapluti). Such leaps must be accepted because, in their absence, a subsequent rule may not make any sense. This shows that an adhikāra carries without any interruption. Pāṇini makes explicit mention where he anticipates discontinuation of an adhikāra. Rule 3.1.94

 $v\bar{a}$ ' sarūpo' striyām is an example where astriyām denotes exception to the scope of this rule. At other places, the context accepts or rejects an adhikāra. For example,  $\dot{n}y\bar{a}p$  of 4.1.1  $\dot{n}y\bar{a}p$ -prātipadikāt does not carry in rules contained within the domain of 4.1.3 striyām. The recurrence of  $\dot{n}y\bar{a}p$  would not make any sense.

Certain adhikāras are accepted as recurring based upon relations among rules. For example, in a domain where an adhikāra carries from a general (utsarga) to a particular (viśeṣa) rule, recurrence of an adhikāra will be unacceptable because of blocking. Since a particular rule blocks the application of its general counterpart, a particular rule may not accept the anuvitti of an element from a general rule. In essence, such an adhikāra would be incompatible. There are many instances of this in the domain of 3.1.1 pratyayah where the recurrence of a general element is terminated by the appearance of its particular counterpart. The observation that one adhikāra ceases to recur at the sight of another is clearly tied to compatibility.

It is obvious from the preceding that anuviti and adhikāra are connected. Anuviti can be defined as a process whereby a former rule or its element is brought close to the context of a subsequent rule. It is an unidirectional process in the sense that a lower level rule expects the recurrence of a higher level rule or an element therefrom. It is also domain specific since Pāṇini presents his rules in domains and interior domains. The process of anuviti also is explicit, since without it, proper interpretation of rules within a domain cannot be obtained. Given that anuviti is localized within a domain and also is unidirectional, its instrumentality towards proper interpretation of rules falls more within the scope of a yathoddeśa view.

The device of reference is implicitly assumed as opposed to the explicit strategy of domain and recurrence in Paṇini. In order to properly interpret and apply a given rule, one must refer to other rules. I call this device "reference to antecedent". Pāṇini uses two types of antecedents: definitional and operational. Definitional reference concerns names (saṃṇā) and their denotata (saṃṇān), including metasymbols; operational reference involves groups of interpretable rules in an operational context. References made by using technical terms with fixed denotations are here called constants. References made by relative pronouns such as tad 'that' and yad 'what', on the other hand, are variables.

I shall demonstrate that definitional references and their individual indices are essential for derivation. A technical term or its denotation occurring in a subsequent rule of the grammar requires reference to its term origin, the place where the term was first introduced together with rules which first outlined its denotations. Thus, a technical term x, with its  $x_1 x_n$  occurrence in the grammar forms a chain of reference in such a way that each occurrence depends on  $x_1$  for its interpretation or for the

recovery of its enumerated denotation. A preceding occurrence of this x depends on its immediately following occurrence for further steps in derivation. The last rule in this chain of reference always is the rule that triggers this device, while the first rule is always from the CD. This chain of reference can be termed complex if it includes one or more term origins.

Since the derivational mechanism is activated and controlled by definitions and operates on inputs by referring to elements, the exact nature of referential indices is important to bear in mind. This means keeping track of all the rules that explain and enumerate the terms and denotations or variables and their antecedents. I shall try to explain and illustrate these observations with examples.

In a sentence such as kumāraḥ paṭhati 'The boy reads,' we begin with two lexical items: kumāra 'boy' and paṭh 'to read, recite'. The controlling domain identifies them as prātipadika 'nominal stem' and dhātu 'verb root' respectively. When used as input to the obligatory domain; kumāra accesses to an interior domain headed by 4.1.1 nyāp-prātipadikāt 'after that which ends in Ni, āp, or else, is a prātipadika'; paṭh, however, accesses to the interior domain headed by 3.1.91 dhātoḥ 'after a verb root'. This access is justified because these governing rules contain the definitional terms prātipadika and dhātu which, in turn, identify the inputs.

At this stage, rule 4.1.2 svaujasmaut..., in case of kumāra, and rules 3.4.77-78 lasya-tiptasjhi..., in case of path, become applicable.<sup>2</sup> A serious problem is encountered by these strings in the selection of elements enumerated here. Rule 4:1.2 lists twenty-one elements, and 3.4.78 lists eighteen. How and why should we choose one element from among all these? Is there any built-in device that can bring rules related to sUP and tiN placement closer to these rules? What would be the process of such a contextual recovery? No one doubts the existence and necessity of such a recovery. Patañjali has rightly remarked that "one does not reason that, since two rules occupy separate places in the grammar, they constitute separate contexts. There is one context of related rules, though standing in different places". In essence, operational rules cannot apply unless their interpretational or definitional rules are coupled with them. This can only be accomplished by the device of reference which is triggered by encountering a technical term or its denotation in an operational rule. This device reconstructs the term origin which, in turn, yields a referential index and it is this index that retrieves necessary information, explication or constraints relative to rule-application.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>2</sup> Subsequent discussion of *LA* and *tiN* will show that rules 3.4.77-78 cannot apply unless other rules are brought into focus or apply first; this necessarily means that 3.4.69 *laḥ karmaṇi*... applies prior to 3.4.77-78.

<sup>3</sup> Mbh. (v.IV:392) on 3.4.67: na videśastham iti krtvato nānā vākyam bhavati. videśastham api sad ekavākyam bhavati... The English translation here is from Cardona (1967:37).

Thus, a referential index of sUP, LA and  $ti\dot{N}$  must be reconstructed by computing the occurrences of these symbols in the higher domains. Let us first consider LA and  $ti\dot{N}$ . LA occurs in 3.4.77, 3.4.69 and 1.4.99 where we learn that LA affixes are placed after transitive verbs when agents or objects are to be named. In case of intransitive verbs they are placed when agent or  $bh\bar{a}va^5$  'root sense' are to be named. Furthermore, replacements of LA are termed parasmaipada 'active'. A separate reconstruction of  $ti\dot{N}$  leads us to rules 1.4.100-102 and 1.4.104. These rules classify  $ti\dot{N}$  elements in two sets of three triads each. Individual triads in a set represent third (prathama), second (madhyama) and first (uttama) persons respectively. Similarly, individual elements in a triad represent singular (ehavacana), dual (dvivacana) and plural (bahuvacana).

Since  $ti\dot{N}$  are replacements of LA, the designation parasmaipada is transferred to them by rule 1.4.99 lah parasmaipadam. The immediately following rule, 1.4.100, identifies a second set of  $ti\dot{N}$  triads, i.e.,  $ta\dot{N}$ , as  $\bar{a}tmanepada$  'middle'. Thus we get the following indices:

- (1) LA: tiN: parasmaipada
- (2) LA: taN: ātmanepada

It is apparent that these referential indices are complex. We must reconstruct the term origin parasmaipada-ātmanepada in its entirety. This requires reference to one more important set of rules, 1.3.12 through 1.3.78, where we learn that when bhāva 'root sense' or karman 'object' are to be expressed by the verb, ātmanepada endings should be selected. As opposed to this, the parasmaipada set can be selected only when the agent has to be expressed. Thus, our referential indices outlined above have selectional constraints imposed upon them. That these agents, bhāva, or object constraints are important will become clear when we explain their direct bearing on derivational choices.

Let us come back to the reconstruction of our term origin sUP. This metasymbol also has been explained in the same set of rules, 1.4.100 through 1.4:104, which explained  $ti\dot{N}$ . These rules classify the sUP elements in seven triads where each triad contains a singular, dual, and plural. These triads together form a subset of vibhakti 'nominal inflection' along with  $ti\dot{N}$ . Furthermore, individual triads have been referenced as  $pratham\bar{a}$  'first',

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> 'Naming' here refers to the invocation of inherent syntactico-semantic features of verb roots, in contrast to 'expressing' which means that a verbal form may or may not express agent, object, etc., through its post-verbal affixes even though its underlying root has already specified them (see also p. 53).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Pāṇini uses *bhāva* with several meanings; for an insightful discussion of this diversity see Cardona (1970). I shall use the term in the sense of the central meaning of the verb root or action alone.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup> Rules contained in the set 1.3.12 through 1.3.78 discuss the ātmanepada-parasmaipada placement with reference to various features of the verbal forms.

dvitīyā 'second', etc. Thus, terms like vibhakti and prathamā, etc., require one to bring the vibhakti section, i.e., the third quarter of the second book, close to the context of sUP selection. Since vibhaktis generally have been discussed with reference to  $k\bar{a}rakas$ , a reference to the  $k\bar{a}raka$  section in the controlling domain is unavoidable. We must emphasize here that a selection from among the sUP affixes is practically impossible unless reference is made to the  $k\bar{a}raka$ -vibhakti section of the grammar which, in turn, will require reference to the dependency relations between sUP and  $ti\dot{N}$  selections.

Returning to our earlier remarks on derivational choices, we want to start with the constraints imposed on sUP and tiN selections. If the verbal root path 'to read' opts for a selection in the parasmaipada set, the resultant form will express the agent through its parasmaipada endings. The result would be:  $path + SaP + tiP \rightarrow pathati$  'he reads'. This will leave  $kum\bar{a}ra$ , the named agent, to express only its pratipadikartha 'nominal stem notion' since its function (kartrartha) has already been expressed by ti in pathati. On the other hand, if path opts for an atmanepada set,  $kum\bar{a}ra$  will have to express the agent. The resultant string will be passive rather than active:  $kum\bar{a}rena$  pathyate 'x is read by the boy'. Aside from offering interpretive insights and derivational options, referential indices also control derivational history. There are numerous such instances scattered throughout the grammar.

Let us consider some of the terms used in the domain of compound rules. We have samāsaḥ (2.1.3), avyayībhāvaḥ (2.1.5), tatpuruṣaḥ (2.1.22), bahuvrīhiḥ (2.2.23), dvandvaḥ (2.2.29) and upasarjanam (2.2.30). If a string enters this domain and starts scanning rules for possible application, it must also be provided with all the necessary information required for such application. Such information is not readily available here and as a consequence, it has to be retrieved from different sources. Part of the information will come from recurrence, but most of it must be retrieved through referential indices. It is worthwhile to discuss briefly the importance of the following reconstructed indices.

- (a) samāsa 'compound'
  - 1.2.45 arthavad adhātur apratyayaḥ prātipadikam

'a non-root non-affix meaningful unit is termed *prātipadika* 'nominal stem'

- 1.2.46 kṛt-taddhita-samāsāś ca
- 'a unit which ends in a krt or a taddhita affix or is a samāsa 'compound' is also termed prātipadika'
- (b) avyayībhāvah 'indeclinable compound'
  - 1.1.37 svarādi-nipātam avyayam

'items cited as svar-ādi 'svar, etc.' and also those that bear the name nipāta 'particle', are termed avyaya 'indeclinable'

- 1.1.41 avyayībhāvas ca
- 'avyayībhāva compounds are also termed avyaya'
- (c) tatpurusa
  - 1.2.42 tatpuruşah samānādhikaranah karmadhārayah
  - 'a tatpuruṣa compound whose constituents stand in samāna-adhikaraṇa 'syntactic coordination' is termed karmadhāraya'
- (d) upasarjana 'secondary element'
  - 1.2.43 prathamā-nirdistam samāsa upasarjunam
  - 'that constituent of a compound which is referenced with *prathamā* 'first of the *sUP* triads' in rules that allow compound formation is termed *upasarjama*'
  - 1.2.44 ekavibhakti cāpūrva-nipāte
  - 'constituents which are consistently referenced with *ekavibhakti* 'fixed member of a *sUP* triad' and are not cited in rules dealing with *pūrva-nipāta* 'initial placement' are also termed *upasarjana*'

In accordance with rule 2.1.4 read with the sUP of 2.1.2, a compound is the result of integrating two nominal padas 'fully inflected words'. The result of this integration, the compound, is termed prātipadika 'nominal stem' by rules 1.2.45-46. Thus, the term samāsa 'compound' in (a) brings the designation prātipadika to all compounds. Similarly, if there are two syntactically related words and one of them has been referenced with the first of the sUP triads, i.e. sU, au, Jas, in a rule that allows compound formation, the said word is an upasarjana. Rule 2.2.30 requires that upasarjana elements be placed first in a compound. Application of 2.2.30 is practically impossible unless one knows what upasarjana means. This information is provided by rules 1.2.43-44 and hence must be retrieved from thereto permit application of 2.2.30. Retrieving this kind of information is precisely the function of referential indices. I have already stated that this process is triggered by encountering a term or its denotations within a rule. What follows is the reconstruction of term origin in tracing back the rules which first cited the term or explained, illustrated or constrained it. A systematic computation of all such rules along with relevant information contained in them characterizes a referential index.

As opposed to the general referential indices cited above, references listed under (b), (c) and (d) are specific. The relevance of the term avyaya to avyayībhāva compounds cannot be realized unless rules 1.1.37 and 1.1.41 are brought closer to the context of 2.1.5. In the interior domain headed by 2.1.22, we find one of the subtypes of tatpuruṣa referred to as dvigu. If a referential index of the term tatpuruṣa is not reconstructed as soon as this term is encountered, a second subtype of the tatpuruṣa compound, i.e., karmadhāraya, can never be realized. It becomes increasingly clear that the domain of compound formation is not limited to rules 2.1.1 through 2.2.38, but must be expanded to include rules brought closer to its context by the process of reference.

As noted earlier, references in terms of variables involve yad or tad and are used in specific operational contexts. The term 'operational context' means that variables are manipulated with reference to specific operations. Furthermore, these operations are permitted under certain constraints. For example, rules 4.1.82 and 4.1.92 concern an operation which allows sentential strings to alternate with their corresponding affixed units. This operation is constrained by 4.1.82 in the sense that the sentential strings must be composed of two syntactically related words. Further, the affix can only be postposed to the first word and the entire operation is optional. For the purpose of this operational context, the first syntactically related unit can be regarded as the generalized constant to which subsequent variables will refer.

To enable this reference, the variables are manipulated as though they filled a functional slot and are marked by specific case endings. Such references have been extensively used in the *taddhita* and *kṛt* sections of the grammar. Let us consider the following references.

4.1.82 samarthānām prathamād vā

'after the first of two syntactically related padas optionally'

4.1.92 tasyāpatyam

'in the sense of the descendant of x...'

4.2.1 tena raktam rāgāt

'x (the colour) by which y has been coloured'

4.2.37 tasya samūhaḥ

'in the sense of the group of x'

In the translation of the above sūtras x stands for the variables. The syntactically related pada inferred from 2.1.1 and referred to as samartha 'syntactically related' in 4.1.82 is the constant generalized in such a way that all the xs in the above rules fill its functional slot. Since a syntactically related element is necessarily a pada and hence is destined to end in a case ending, the problem of ascertaining the case ending arises. If we manipulate the variables as though they represented those padas or filled the functional slots of the generalized constants, then their case endings become explicit. Thus the variables in 4.1.92, 4.2.1 and 4.2.37, i.e. tasya marked with the genitive and tena marked with the instrumental, refer to those padas that end in the sixth, third and sixth endings respectively.

In these instances, the case endings should be construed in accordance with the statements made in the *kāraka-vibhakti* section of the grammar. The sixth ending should be used (2.3.50) where one wants to express relationships other than those expressed by the accusative, etc., (*dvitīyā*; 2.3.2 *karmaṇi*...). The third should follow 1.4.42 *sādhakatamaṃ karaṇam* whereby we learn that that which is most instrumental in accomplishing an action is the *karaṇa* 'instrument'. In our rule, *tena* stands in the third case ending represented by *karaṇa* and refers to that syntactically related

pada which is explicitly stated by 4.1.82. However, not just any syntactically related pada can and should be brought as referent in place of tena because of semantic specifications that follow tena, i.e. raktam 'coloured' and  $r\bar{a}g\bar{a}t$  '... colour'. This results in construing the sense of the third ending in this context as the colour which is most instrumental in accomplishing the act of colouring. Thus, any word standing for colour should be put in the instrumental.

Our discussion has established the following facts about domain and reference.

- (a) Pāṇini operates with an elaborate system of anuvṛtti whereby higher level rules within a domain are brought close to the context of lower level rules to facilitate the proper interpretation of the latter.
- (b) Occurrences of technical terms in various rules perform the function of a triggering device which causes recourse to the process of reference. This process entails reconstructing the term origin which, in turn, yields a referential index.
- (c) Such indices are vital to rule application and interpretation. Their importance is shown by the fact that the grammar cannot be manipulated without constant reference to technical terms and their denotata.

# The Structure of the Aṣṭādhyāyī

Scholars in the past have studied the structure of the Aṣṭādhyāyī from diverse orientations. Faddegon's study (1936) largely neglected the function of the Astādhāyī. Pawate (1935) concentrated on finding anomalies which could establish pre- or post-Paninian elements of insertions. Buiskool (1939), rather brilliantly, studied the Aṣṭādhyāyī's organizational structure, but only of one section, namely the Tripādī "the last three quarters". More recently, Bhattacharya (1966), Bahulikar (1972) and Cardona (1976) have investigated the structure of the Astādhyāyī. Bhattacharya's interest lay in justifying the order of various sections, or their contents, and in determining what, if any, elements in the text may be treated as pre-Pāṇinian. A similar concern occupied Bahulikar, who claimed that, based upon the analysis of the structure and the arrangement of the sūtras, one can discover layers of internal composition and arrangement. Bahulikar discerned a core of the Aṣṭādhyāyī which she attributed to Pāṇini, with subsequent layers superimposed by others. Cardona's balanced and trustworthy treatment judiciously examines all the different views, especially those of Bhattacharya and Mīmāmsaka.

I shall not concern myself here with what can and cannot be treated as un-Pāṇinian in Pāṇini's sūtras. Except for a few variations of consequence, the Aṣṭādhyāyī's text is well established. Even many of the non-Pāṇinian insertions are important for the correct interpretation of the text as it stands. After all, given the excellence of the Aṣṭādhyāyī as a grammar, it is certainly not a miracle brought about overnight. Pāṇini must have belonged to, and thus benefited from, a very rich grammatical tradition. This is certainly not to say that a study of insertions is not important. However, since most of the insertions are functionally well motivated, an investigation which centres on their origin rather than their function is less consequential. A study of the placement and context of rules can still teach a great deal provided it is pursued with proper orientation.

The discussion here of the structure of the Aṣṭādhyāyī, however, will concentrate on its organization and function. Surely, one of the reasons why Pāṇini arranged his rules in this particular order was to place them in domains and interior domains. An equally strong motivation, though, for this particular rule order is metatheoretical in nature. The grammar cannot accomplish its intent without clearly formulating both metatheory and conventions. Thus, the topical arrangement of rules in domains, also reflects the conceptual structure of the grammar. These dual motivations go hand in hand.

It is true that Pāṇini presents his rules in a serial order, but since they are classified in books and chapters according to topics, and also are organized under adhikāras, their functions cannot be discussed just on the basis of seriality or contiguity (paurvāparya). As I shall try to show, contiguity with reference to topics and adhikāras reveals the primary layer of organization where anuvitti and interpretation of sūtras is in focus. Another layer superimposed on this straddles topic and domain boundaries. Furthermore, one can establish yet another layer of organization where rule interaction of broader consequence is in focus. I have discussed in chapter 4 the notion of domain and anuviti. The type of organization reflected by them is what I refer to here as the primary layer. Now consider the domain of ekasamjñā 'one term' where we also find the application of 1.4.2 vipratisedhe param kāryam. The organization reflected by rules of the ekasamjñā domain constitutes what I refer to here as the second layer. The third, and rather sophisticated aspect of organization, is reflected by, for example the division of the Aṣṭādhyāyī into sapādasaptādhyāyī 'the first seven books and one quarter' and tripādī 'the (final) three quarters'. These layers of organization are based upon rule interaction where blocking of one rule by another is anticipated. I shall try to present the structure of the Aṣṭādhyāyī by discussing its content and organization as it relates to the notions of contiguity, rule interaction and blocking. This, I hope, will reveal the functional aspect of its structure.

The following is the summary of topics discussed in the Astadhyāyī.

#### Book: I

- (a) major definitional and interpretational rules
- (b) rules dealing with extension (atideśa)
- (c) rules dealing with atmanepada-parasmaipada...
- (d) rules dealing with the kārakas

### Book: II

- (a) rules dealing with compounds
- (b) rules dealing with nominal inflection
- (c) rules dealing with number and gender of compounds
- (d) rules dealing with replacements relative to roots
- (e) rules dealing with deletion by LUK

#### Book: III

- (a) rules dealing with the derivation of roots ending in affixes saN, etc.
- (b) rules dealing with the derivation of items ending in a Krt
- (c) rules dealing with the derivation of items ending in a  $ti\dot{N}$

#### Book: IV

- (a) rules dealing with the derivation of a pada ending in a sUP
- (b) rules dealing with feminine affixes
- (c) rules dealing with the derivation of nominal stems eding in an affix termed taddhita

#### **Books: VI-VII**

- (a) rules dealing with doubling
- (b) rules dealing with samprasāraņa
- (c) rules dealing with samhitā
- (d) rules dealing with the augment (āgama) sUŢ
- (e) rules dealing with accents
- (f) rules dealing with phonological operations relative to a presuffixal base (anga)
- (g) rules dealing with operations relative to affixes, augments, etc.

#### Book: VIII

- (a) rules dealing with doubling (dvitva) relative to a pada
- (b) rules dealing with accent relative to a pada
- (c) rules dealing with other phonological operations relative to a pada
- (d) rules dealing with miscellaneous operations relative to a non-pada

The first book discusses basic terms, conventions and grammatical constructs. This does not mean that Pāṇini discusses terms and conventions only here, but that later discussion is minimal and with special purpose in mind. For example, he introduces the terms sārvadhātuka (3.4.113 tinsit sārvadhātukam) and ārddhadhātuka (3.4.114 ārddhadhātukam...) in the domain of 3.1.91 dhātoh to facilitate, among other things, the introduction of elements such as SaP, etc. (3.1.68 karttari śaP). Since no derivation can be accomplished without recourse to book one, I have called this the controlling domain (CD). Pāṇini normally starts with terms, plugging in the interpretive rules afterwards. Though he thus mixes the terms and interpretative rules, the dominance of the terms is still clear. It is because of this dominance that the tradition labels book one as samjñādhikāra 'domain of names'. There is a great deal of similarity between rules which define terms and those which enumerate conventions. It is often difficult to distinguish them. Definitional terms of book one are also arranged in view of whether or not samjñāsamāveśa 'class inclusion' is intended. Anticipated conflicts and subsequent resolutions offered by rules 1.4.1 ā kaḍārād ekā samjñā and 1.4.2 vipratisedhe param kāryam are also included.

The Aṣṭādhyāyī may be divided into two basic organizational units: sapādasaptādhyāyī 'the first seven books and one quarter' and tripādī 'the last three quarters'. This twofold division is shown by 8.2.1 pūrvatrāsiddham which states that rules of the last three quarters (tripādī) are treated as suspended (asiddha) in view of rules of the first seven books and one quarter. The fact that the rules of sapādasaptādhyāyī are blind to the affect of rule application in the tripādī amounts only to a lack of interaction among rules of the two units. It does not amount to saying that the output of the tripādī cannot be subjected to rule application in the sapādasaptādhyāyī. This twofold division is dictated mostly by the derivational

strategy Pāṇini uses. The *tripādī* is also constrained within itself. Its subsequent rules are treated as suspended in view of its earlier rules.

If we treat book one as the CD, the hierarchy of domains within the sapādasaptādhyāyī has to encompass books two through seven and the first quarter of book eight. Books three through five form a single domain of affixes. Since the Paninian derivational process is set up with reference to bases and affixes, and operations relative to them, the domain of affixes should naturally precede the domain constituted by books six through eight. Where does book two fit in this? A major portion of rules in book two deals with compounds. Since a compound is derived with reference to syntactico-semantic conditions relative to a pada and also since padas are derived by means of introducing affixes after bases, a description of compounds should not precede the description of affixes. But where else could Pāṇini put book two? Certainly not after book eight, as that is generally treated as the terminal domain for inputs. Besides, compounds are normally considered as optional derivations. That is, a compound such as rājapurusah 'king's man' alternates with rājñah purusah. Since they both derive from the same underlying string:  $(r\bar{a}jan + Nas + purusa + sU)$ , the grammar must have a device to relate them at some intermediate point in

An argument may be made in favour of including the discussion of compounds in the domain of rule 4.1.1 nyāp-prātipadikāt. After all, compounds are nominal stems as are taddhitas and as do many taddhita derivates, they involve the condition of sāmarthya 'fitness'. Also, Pānini has already included here the introduction of certain affixes relative to compounds. The inclusion of compounds in book four would have been logical, finally, in view of their accent which Pāṇini discusses in book six. Thus, the question: if Pāṇini could put the discussion of derived nominals, i.e., krt and taddhita, in books three through five, what stopped him from including the description of compounds there? After all, compounds are derived nominals too. Aside from some operational difficulties which I shall discuss in connection with compound derivation in chapter 11, there is one obvious difficulty with such an inclusion. Panini discusses compounds within the domain of ekasamjñā 'one name'. A discussion of compounds in books three through five would be inappropriate because samjñāsamāveśa 'class inclusion' is the norm here.

The domain of 1.4.1 serves as a link between books one and two. If one accepts a twofold division of the sapādasaptādhyāyī into samjñā and vidhi where samjñā is constituted by book one and vidhi by the rest, book two becomes a link between the two. Rules governed by 2.3.1 anabhihite can also serve as links between the first two books and the domain of affixation (3.1.1 pratyayaḥ). The domain of ekasamjñā enumerates the kārakas which may by lexically expressed by vibhaktis. The grammar introduces vibhaktis

by rule 4.1.2 svaujas... which cannot apply unless rules dealing with the  $k\bar{a}raka$  terms and vibhakti are brought closer to it. Similarly, rule 3.4.78, which introduces  $ti\dot{N}$  affixes, cannot apply unless rules dealing with  $\bar{a}tmanepada-parasmaipada$  etc., are brought closer to it from book one.

A twofold division of pratyayavidhi (books three through five) and pratyayottaravidhi (books six through eight) is again desirable within the section of vidhi. Furthermore, one can also see a distinction between the rules of book three on the one hand and four and five on the other. Book three introduces  $ti\dot{N}$  (3.4.78 tiptasjhi...) and kṛt (3.1.93 kṛd atin) affixes while four and five introduce affixes  $\dot{N}i$ , etc., (4.1.3 striyām), sUP (4.1.2 svaujasmauţ...) and the taddhita (4.1.76 taddhitāḥ). Book three normally takes a verb root as an input while books four and five require a nominal stem. The output of book three could be a root (3.1.32 sanādyantā...), a nominal stem (1.2.46 kṛt-taddhita-samāsāś ca) or a pada ending in  $ti\dot{N}$  (1.4.14 suptinantaṃ padam). The output of books four and five is a pada ending in sUP (1.4.14), an item ending in a feminine affix, or a nominal stem (1.2.46).

Book three itself may be viewed as consisting of three sections: the first dealing with the derivation of roots, the second with the derivation of padas ending in tiN and the third with the derivation of items ending in affixes termed krt. It is generally believed that an exception (apavāda) blocks the application of its related general (utsarga) rule. However, within the domain of 3.1.91 dhātoḥ, though with an exception of rules headed by 3.3.94 strīyām ktin, a formally dissimilar (asarūpa) 'affix' blocks the introduction of its general counterpart only optionally (3.1.94 vā' sarūpo' striyām).

Rules 4.1.2 svaujas..., 4.1.3 striyām and 4.1.76 taddhitāḥ clearly identify three sections of books four and five. The first introduces affixes termed sUP, the second introduces feminine affixes and the third introduces the taddhitas. The second and the third sections overlap. The overlapping rules introduce the term taddhita whereby derived items may be termed nominal stems (prātipadikā).

The domain of 4.1.76 taddhitāḥ covers rules up to the end of book five. It is the second largest domain, after the domain of 3.1.1 pratyayaḥ within which it is included. A subdomain of 4.1.76, headed by 4.1.82 samarthānāṃ prathamād vā, governs rules prior to 5.3.1 prāg diśo vibhaktiḥ. This subdomain allows the introduction of a taddhita affix after the first of a string of syntactically related padas. Rules contained within the subdomain of 5.3.1 deal with the introduction of affixes termed vibhakti. They are introduced after kim 'what', bahu 'many' and items termed sarvanāman (1.1.27 sarvādīni, sarvanāmāni, 5.3.2 kiṃ sarvanāma...). Indeclinables are next in order as bases. Finally, a major subdomain is headed by 5.4.68 samāsāntāḥ which, as the rule suggests, introduces taddhita affixes after items termed samāsa 'compound'.

The domain of pratyayottaravidhi covers books six through eight where rules introduce phonological changes in the shape of bases (prakrti), presuffixal bases (anga) and affixes (pratyaya), etc. Three subdivisions may be easily discerned based on changes relative to a base (6.1.1 ekāco dve prathamasya — 6.3.39 samprasāranasya), changes relative to a presuffixal base (6.4.1 angasya — 7.4.97 ica ganah) and changes relative to a pada (book eight). The first section introduces operations such as doubling (dvitva 6.1.1 ekāco...), samprasārana (6.1.13 śyan...), ātva 'replacement in ā' (6.1.45 ādeca upadeśe' siti), etc., samhitā 'junction' (6.1.72 samhitāyām), accent (svara: 6.1.158 anudāttam padam ekavarjam) of roots (6.1.162 dhātoh), taddhita (6.1.164 taddhitasya) and samāsa 'compound' (6.1.223 samāsasya). The entire second quarter of book six constitutes an exception to rule 6.1.223. The third quarter of book six starts with the section generally known as aluk 'non-deletion by LUK' (6.3.1 alug uttarapade). What follows, beginning with rule 6.3.25 anan rto dvandve and extending up to rule 6.3.139 samprasāranasya, is a series of modifications conditioned by a following pada (uttarapada).

The succeeding five quarters of rules (6.4.1-7.4.97) introduce operations specific to a presuffixal base (anga) before an affix. The first eighteen rules introduce the lengthening of an antya 'final' vowel or an upadhā 'penultimate' vowel (1.1.65 alo' ntyāt pūrva upadhā) of an anga. Rule 6.4.22 asiddhavad atrābhāt is an interpretive rule which states that an operation introduced by rules 6.4.23 śnān nalopah — 6.4.127 avarna ... is treated as suspended (asiddha) with respect to an operation introduced by another rule of this section, providing both operations share the same condition (nimitta). Obviously, rules of this section enjoy special status. Rule 6.4.129 bhasya (1.4.18 yaci bham; 1.4.17 svādiṣv asarvanāmasthāne) introduces operations specific to a presuffixal base termed bha.

Book seven continues with operations relative to an aiga. Phonological operations given in books six and seven generally follow the order of dvitva 'doubling', vikāra 'modification', ādeśa 'replacement' and āgama 'augment' in reference to bases, presuffixal bases, affixes and their resultant strings. It is not just a coincidence that the domain of pratyayottaravidhi begins with dvitva and terminates with operations relative to dvitva at the end of book seven.

This summary of the content and domain-hierarchy lacks details concerning at least four rules: 1.4.1 ā kadārād ekā samjñā, 3.1.94 vā sarūpo' striyām, 6.4.22 asiddhavad atrābhāt and 8.2.1 pūrvatrāsiddham. These rules clearly mark off their own functional domains within the Aṣṭādhyāyī; domains which also touch upon some basic principles of structure and organization. For example, the domain of ekasamjñā cannot allow the assignment of more than one term (samjñā) to a single nominatum (samjñīn). This constraint is applicable to rules contained within the last

quarter of book one and first two quarters of book two. Elsewhere in the Astādhyāyī more than one term may be assigned to a single nominatum. But, the rules of the three quarters of ekasamjñā are thus arranged to disallow samjñāsamāveśa 'class inclusion'. Conflicts in the assignment of terms within the domain of ekasamjñā are resolvable by invoking rule 1.4.2 vipratisedhe param kāryam. Recall that the principle of paratva 'subsequent in order' requires a particular kind of conflict which commentators recognize as tulyabalatā 'equal strength'. That is, conflicts involving terms of the domain of ekasamjñā may be resolved on the basis of paratva if and only if rules which introduce the terms in question enjoy equal strength of application. Conflicts in the assignment of terms both within and without the domain of ekasamjñā may also be resolved on the basis of something other than paratva. I discussed in chapter 3 how niravakāśatva 'no scope of application' resolves conflicts without taking recourse to paratva. Additional inferences may also be drawn; namely, that conflicts among rules may be of other types than tulyabalatā and conflicts may also be resolved on the basis of something other than paratva.

Mention has been made of how Pāṇini formulates rules based upon generalizations abstracted from usage (see chapter 3). A general rule creates a larger domain from within which a related exception extracts its own domain. Pāṇinīyas recognize that an exception blocks. its general counterpart obligatorily. However, consider rule 3.1.94 vā' sarūpo' striyām which provides for a formally dissimilar affix ruled as an exception in the domain of 3.1.91 dhātoḥ to block its general counterpart only optionally. Rules contained within the subdomain headed by rule 3.3.93 striyām ktin are not constrained by this.

The word asarūpaḥ is used in 3.1.94 as a qualifier (viśeṣaṇa) for the affix ruled as an exception. It cannot be treated as an adhikāra since then it could not be carried by anuvṛtti to rules beyond the subdomain of 3.3.93. This obviously creates problems. For instance, two vārttikas both given ad 3.3.108 rogākhyāyāṃ ṇvul bahulam facilitate the derivation of rakāraḥ 'the letter r' and rephaḥ. The first vārttika (varṇāt kāraḥ) is a general (utsarga) to which the second (rād iphaḥ) is an exception. If 3.1.94 is treated as an adhikāra, rād iphaḥ will obligatorily block varṇāt kāraḥ. Consequently, rakāraḥ can never be derived. This, however, should not give one the impression that difficulties in connection with the provision of 3.1.94 do not arise beyond the subdomain of 3.3.93. Pāṇinīyas recognize three paribhāṣās to cope with this (see PŚ. paribhāṣā 68...).

Now consider the following rules.

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3.1.96 tavyattavyānīyaraḥ
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<sup>&#</sup>x27;affixes tavya, tavyaT and aniyaR occur after verbal roots'.

<sup>3.1.97</sup> aco yat

<sup>&#</sup>x27;affix yaT occurs after a verbal root which ends in a vowel (aC)'.

3.2.1 karmany an

'affix a N occurs after a verbal root which co-occurs with a pada denoting an object (karman)'.

3.2.3 āto'nupasarge kaḥ

'affix Ka occurs after a verbal root which ends in  $\bar{a}$ , is used without any preverb and co-occurs with a pada denoting an object'.

3.3.94 striyām ktin

'affix KtiN occurs after a verbal root when the derivate signifies feminine and bhāva 'action' or a kāraka other than a kartṛ is expressed as a name'.

3.3.102 a pratyayāt

'affix a occurs after a verbal root ending in an affix when the derivate signifies feminine and bhāva or a kāraka other than a kartṛ is expressed as a name'.

Rules 3.2.1 and 3.2.3 introduce affixes an and Ka respectively. These affixes are formally similar (sarūpa); hence, affix Ka, an exception, blocks its general counterpart aN obligatorily. The same is true for affix a (3.3.102) obligatorily blocking the placement of affix KtiN (3.3.94). Note however, that the reasons differ. Affix Ka blocks aN obligatorily because it does not meet the condition of formal dissimilarity (asārūpya) of 3.1.94 striyām ktin. Rules 3.3.94 and 3.3.102 introduce affixes KtiN and a respectively where the first is a general rule and the second its related exception. Affix a, however, blocks KtiN obligatorily because rules which introduce them are not covered by 3.1.94  $v\bar{a}$  sarūpo... Rule 3.1.96 is a general rule which introduces affixes tavyaT, tavya and an $\bar{\imath}$ yaR to which rule  $\bar{3}.1.97$  aco yat is an exception. These rules, however, are covered by 3.1.94 and since affix yaT is formally dissimilar to tavyaT, tavya and anīyaR, rule 3.1.97 blocks 3.1.96 only optionally. As a result we get jeyam 'that which should be won' as an optional form to jetavyam and jayanīyam. It should be obvious now that rule 3.1.94 carves out a special section within the sapādasaptādhyāyī. This section is special because the norm that an exception obligatorily blocks its general counterpart is valid here only optionally.

Rule 6.4.22 asiddhavad atrābhat identifies yet another special section within the sapādasaptādhyāyī. It states that the results of an operation x is treated as suspended when operation y is to be performed providing x and y are operations specific to the domain of 6.4.22 and both share the same condition (nimitta). The purpose of suspending a rule is to allow an utsarga 'general' rule to apply. The word utsarga, based upon its etymological meaning, refers to a sthānin 'substituendum' (utsrjyate ādeśena nivartyate iti utsargaḥ). Utsarga refers to that which is set aside by a substitute (ādeśa). The reference obviously here is to sthānin. One can also argue that since a general (utsarga) rule is set aside by a particular (viśeṣa) rule in a manner similar to that in which a substitute sets aside a substituendum, utsarga shares similarities (sādharmya) with sthānin. Thus,

(i) edhi

6.4.22 is an adhikāra, though an extension (atideśa) by nature. Its anuvṛti extends up to and includes rule 6.4.129 bhasya. Since the domain of 6.4.129 covers rules up to the end of this quarter, and since 6.4.22 carries through 6.4.129, the scope of 6.4.22 extends through the end of this quarter. Recalling that an exception blocks a general rule obligatorily with the exclusion of rules covered by rule 3.1.94 vā' sarūpa... where such a blocking becomes optional, rule 6.4.22 provides for a general rule to apply under the provision of asiddhatva. Thus, the structuring and position of rules relative to generalizations and their related exceptions is functionally well motivated. Rule 6.4.22 characterizes this special aspect of interaction by extension as opposed to blocking.

Let us now consider the controlled derivation of *edhi*, second person singular imperative of *as* 'to be' and *śādhi*, second person singular imperative of *śās*.

(a) 
$$as + si$$
  $\rightarrow 3.4.87 \, ser \, hy \, apic \, ca$ 

$$= as + (si \rightarrow hi)$$

$$= as + hi$$
(b)  $as + hi$   $\rightarrow 6.4.111 \, sn\bar{a}ssor \, allopah$ 

$$= (a \rightarrow \emptyset) \, s + hi$$
(c)  $s + hi$   $\rightarrow 6.4.119 \, ghvasor...$ 

$$= (s \rightarrow e) + hi$$

$$= e + hi$$
(d)  $e + hi$   $\rightarrow 6.4.101 \, hujhalyor...$ 

$$= e + (hi \rightarrow dhi)$$

$$= edhi$$
(ii)  $s\bar{a}dhi$ 
(a) same as (a) of  $edhi$ 
(b)  $s\bar{a}s + hi$   $\rightarrow 6.4.35 \, s\bar{a} \, hau$ 

$$= (s\bar{a}s \rightarrow s\bar{a}) + hi$$

$$= s\bar{a} + hi$$
(c)  $s\bar{a}s + hi$   $\rightarrow 6.4.101 \, hujhalyor...$ 

$$= s\bar{a}s + (hi \rightarrow dhi)$$

$$= s\bar{a}dhi$$

The last rule applied in deriving both edhi and śādhi is 6.4.101 hujhalyor.... This requires that a consonant initial (halādi) hi is replaced by dhi when occurring after an anga constituted by hu 'to offer ritual oblation' or an anga ending in a sound denoted by jhL (Śs. 8-14). But rule 6.4.101 hujhalyor... cannot apply since neither e nor śā end in a jhL. Accordingly, hi cannot be replaced by dhi since it is not occurring after an anga ending in a jhL. Rule 6.4.22 asiddhavad... must be invoked here to suspend (asiddha) the results of the application of rules 6.4.119 ghvasor..., in edhi, and 6.4.35 śā hau,

in  $\dot{sadhi}$ , in view of the application of rule 6.4.101 hujhalyor.... If the results of 6.4.119 and 6.4.35 are both treated as asiddha, input strings for the application of 6.4.101 will be  $\dot{s} + hi$  and  $\dot{sas} + hi$ . The condition of hi following an  $a\dot{n}ga$  ending in a jhL is thus fulfilled by restoring the  $sth\bar{a}nin$ , i.e.,  $\dot{s}$  and  $\dot{sas}$ . Obviously, the substitute (e or  $\dot{sa}$ ) must be set aside.

Now consider the following controlled derivations where wrong forms will result if 6.4.22 is not invoked.

- (i) āgahi 'second person singular Vedic imperative of āgam 'to come'
  - (a)  $\bar{a}ga + hi$  where m of  $\bar{a}gam$  is deleted by 6.4.37 anudattopadeśa...

(b) 
$$\bar{a}ga + hi$$
 where by 6.4.105 ato hely  
=  $*\bar{a}ga + (hi \rightarrow \emptyset)$   
=  $*\bar{a}ga$ 

- (ii) jahi
  - (a) ja + hi where han is replaced by ja (6.4.36 hanter jah)
  - (b) ja + hi where by 6.4.105 ato hely = \* $ja + (hi \rightarrow \emptyset)$ = \*ja

As indicated above, rule 6.4.105 ato heh will require the deletion of hi occurring after an anga ending in a. If an operation which is kṛta (here the deletion of m of  $\bar{a}gam$  and the replacement of han by ja) is not treated as suspended (asiddha) in view of an operation which is  $k\bar{a}rya$  (here the deletion of hi), wrong forms will result. It is only after treating the results of 6.4.37 and 6.4.36 as suspended that we get  $\bar{a}gam$  and han as input for the application of 6.4.105. Without suspending those rules, 6.4.105 is blocked from applying, since the input strings will not be able to meet the condition of having a final a.

The fact that Pāṇini indicates the limits of the domain of 6.4.22 in addition to stating the requirement of identical condition (samānanimittakatva) this latter is crucial in this connection. Given the derivation of  $r\bar{a}gah$  'colour, attachment' from ranj + GhaN where the  $\tilde{n}$  of ranj has been deleted by 6.4.27 ghani ca bhāvakaraṇayoh, rule 7.2.116 ata upadhāyāh applies to introduce a vṛddhi replacement for the penultimate a of an aṅga ending in a consonant. Since rule 7.2.116 falls outside the scope of 6.4.22, the results of the application (kṛta) of 6.4.27 cannot be treated as suspended in view of the application (kārya) of 7.2.116. Had this not been the case, the vṛddhi of a could never have taken place. For, in that case,  $\tilde{n}$ , and not the a, would be penultimate.

Let us now consider an example of samānanimittakatva.

- (i) papusah
  - (a) pa + pā + vas + Sas
     where affix (K) vas (U) has been introduced after the verbal root pā which yields pa + pā + vas after dvitva 'doubling'; also note that Sas is accusative plural

(b) 
$$pap\bar{a} + (vas \rightarrow us) + Sas$$
  
where rule 6.4.64  $\bar{a}to lopa iți ca$  deletes the  $\bar{a}$  of the root

Remember that  $sampras\bar{a}rana$  (krta) cannot be treated here as asiddha for the deletion of  $\bar{a}$  ( $k\bar{a}rya$ ) since these operations have different conditions. The deletion of  $\bar{a}$  is conditioned by vas while the  $sampras\bar{a}rana$  is conditioned by Sas.

Let us now return to 8.2.1 pūrvatrāsiddham which marks off two sections of the Aṣṭādhyāyī: the sapādasaptādhyāyī and the tripādī. The word pūrvatra, in view of its etymological meaning of pūrvasmin, refers in this context to the sapādasaptādhyāyī. Since the word pūrva 'prior' is a relative term which expects reference to para 'subsequent', we must decide 'prior to or subsequent to what'. Rule 8.2.1 serves as its own avadhi 'extent, limit'. In other words, pūrva and para here will mean respectively prior to or subsequent to rule 8.2.1. One may thus interpret rule 8.2.1 as follows: rules contained within the last three quarters of the Aṣṭādhyāyī are treated as suspended in view of rules contained within the first seven books and one quarter. In addition, subsequent (para) rules within the tripādī are treated as suspended in view of prior (pūrva) rules.

Consider amuşmai which is derived by introducing  $\dot{N}e$  'fourth triplet singular of SUP' after adas.

Rule 7.1.14 sarvanāmnaḥ smai requires that smai be substituted for  $\dot{N}e$  when  $\dot{N}e$  occurs after a pronoun (sarvanāma) ending in -a. However, the input on which this rule applies does not end in a but in u. Here it is the result of the application of rule 8.2.80 adaso'ser... which makes the string end in u. The string was  $ada + \dot{N}e$  before 8.2.80 applied. By invoking asiddhatva of 8.2.1, the string will be treated as if it were  $ada + \dot{N}e$ . This,

in turn, will enable rule 7.1.14 to apply. If 8.2.80 is not treated as asiddha in view of the application of 7.1.14, amuṣmai can never be derived.

A further question about asiddhatva arises in connection with the paribhāṣās 1.1.49 şaşthī sthāne yogā, 1.1.66 tasminn iti nirdīste pūrvasya and 1.1.67 tasmād ity uttarasya. These paribhāṣās must be supplied for the correct interpretation of rules 8.2.23 saṃyogāntasya lopaḥ, 8.2.26 jhalo jhali and 8.2.27 hrasvāngāt respectively. These rules cannot make any sense without bringing the interpretive rules close to them. Accepting the principle of asiddhatva will make that impossible. Patañjali declares that even though the tripādī is treated as suspended in view of the sapādasaptādhyāyī, the paribhāṣās will still be valid. This is possible because of the principle of kāryakālam samjnāparibhāṣam. That is, samjñā 'name' and paribhāṣā 'interpretive rule' become meaningful only when they are joined with the corresponding operational rules. Rules such as 1.1.49 saṣṭhi sthāneyogā, in view of kāryakāla, will become vacuous without being joined with rules such as 8.2.23 samyogāntasya.... This latter rule will be equally meaningless without rules such as 1.1.49. The principle of  $k\bar{a}ryak\bar{a}la$  establishes  $ekav\bar{a}kyat\bar{a}$  'single sentenceness' between interpretive and operational rules. This way, one does not interpret their relationship solely in terms of paurvāparya 'one after the other'.

Pāṇinīyas recognize the following paribhāṣā: pūrva paranityāntaraṅga-pavādānām uttarottara balīyaḥ. That is, a subsequent (para) rule is treated as more powerful than a prior rule, an obligatory (nitya) is more powerful than a subsequent rule, an internally conditioned (antaraṅga) rule is more powerful than a subsequent or obligatory rule, and an exception (apavāda) is treated as more powerful than a subsequent, obligatory, or internally conditioned rule.

How a prior rule is less powerful than a subsequent is the subject of 1.4.2 vipratisedhe param kāryam. Let us consider now how an obligatory rule

blocks the application of a subsequent rule. Given the string tud + LAT where LAT is replaced by -tip, rule 7.3.86 pugantalaghūpadhasya ca requires that the penultimate ( $upadh\bar{a}$ ) short vowel u of tud, an anga (1.4.13 yasmāt pratyayavidhis...), be replaced by its guna counterpart. Hence, if rule 7.3.86 applies, a wrong form \*tod + a + ti will result. This result is blocked by the application of rule 3.1.77  $tud\bar{a}dibhyah$  śah which introduces Śa. However, this application should be blocked by 1.1.5 kniti ca which blocks guna or vrddhi conditioned by an affix marked with N. Though the affix which conditions guna by enabling tud to be termed an anga is marked with S and not S; actually, S is a S is a S is S is

Now let us consider an example of how an antaranga rule is more powerful than a subsequent rule. Rule 1.1.33 prathamacarama ... optionally assigns the term sarvanāman to prathama 'first', carama 'last', etc., when an operation relative to *Ias* is to be performed. In an example such as *ubhaye* devamanusyāḥ 'both gods and human beings', ubhaya is termed sarvanāman. In view of the optional nature of rule 1.1.33, the nominative plural of ubhaya should have two forms: ubhaye where ubhaya is termed sarvanāman and \*ubhayāh where it is not. However, there is only one correct form: ubhaye. The sarvanāman designation of ubhaya is assigned by 1.1.27 sarvādīni sarvanāmāni, a prior rule. Rule 1.1.33, even though a subsequent rule, cannot block the application of 1.1.27 by being a subsequent rule, since 1.1.27 obligatorily assigns the term sarvanāman to ubhaya. This designation is internally conditioned in the sense that ubhaya is listed in the group headed by sarva. Also, in view of 1.1.27, ubhaya need not depend upon Jas for this designation. Thus, 1.1.27 weakens and blocks 1.1.33 because of internal conditioning.

That an exception (apavāda) is more powerful than a subsequent rule is shown by the derivation of dadhnā, the instrumental singular neuter of dadhi 'yoghurt' where both rules 1.1.55 anekālšit sarvasya and 1.1.53 nic ca may become applicable. Given the string dadhi +  $T\bar{a} = dadhi + \bar{a}$ , rule 7.1.75 asthidadhi... introduces anaN as a replacement. Since anaN is constituted by more than one sound segment (aL) and also since anaN is marked with N, both 1.1.55 and 1.1.53 find their scope in deciding whether anaN should replace dadhi in toto or simply the final N. Since N is an exception to N is however, N is an exception to N is dadh (N in the same value of N is an exception to N in the same value of N is an exception to N is an exception to N in the same value of N in the same value of N is an exception to N in the same value of N in the same value of N is an exception to N in the same value of N in the same value of N is an exception to N in the same value of N in the same value of N is an exception to N in the same value of N in the same value of N is an exception to N in the same value of N in the same value of N in the same value of N is an exception to N in the same value of N in the same valu

The derivation of grāmaṇini in grāmiṇini kule provides an example of how an internally conditioned rule blocks an obligatory rule. Given the string grāmaṇ $\bar{\imath}$  +  $N\bar{\imath}$ , two rules become applicable. Rule 7.1.73 iko 'ci vibhaktau

requires that nUM should be introduced as an augment to  $gr\bar{a}man\bar{n}$ . At the same time, rule 1.2.47 hrasvo napuṃsake prātipadikasya requires that the final  $\bar{\imath}$  of  $gr\bar{a}man\bar{\imath}$  be replaced by short i. Now, 7.1.73 is an obligatory rule because whether or not long  $\bar{\imath}$  is replaced by short i, either now or later, nUM must be introduced. The shortening of the long vowel is internally conditioned in the sense that its cause is within  $gr\bar{a}man\bar{\imath}$ , the nominal stem, itself. Since an internally conditioned rule is more powerful than an obligatory rule, 1.2.47 applies first. Rule 7.1.73 will apply later to introduce nUM.

Finally, let us consider an illustration of how an internally conditioned application is blocked by an exception. Consider the following rules: 6.1.87  $\bar{a}d$  guṇaḥ and 6.1.101 akaḥ savarṇe dīrghaḥ. They are both sandhi rules. They both introduce a single replacement in place of a sequence of two vowels in close proximity (saṃhitā). Rule 6.1.87 introduces a single guṇa replacement for an a and any aC that follows it. Rule 6.1.101 introduces a single homogeneous long vowel as a replacement for any aK (a, i, u, r, l) followed by its homogeneous vowel. Now consider an example: daitya + ariḥ where the final a of daitya 'demon' and the initial a of ariḥ 'enemy' are in close proximity. The locus, that is the substituendum (sthānī) and the cause (nimitta), of both guṇa and savarṇa-dīrgha 'single homogeneous long vowel replacement' are the same here. The vowels with reference to which these two operations obtain are the same. Thus, both rules are applicable.

Rule 6.1.87  $\bar{a}d$  guṇah is a general rule to which 6.1.101, a subsequent rule, is an exception. However, 6.1.87 also becomes an internal (antaranga) rule as compared with 6.1.101. Commentators explain that a rule may become antaranga if the cause of its application is cited first. The cause of guṇa, a, is cited first, but so is the cause of savarṇa-dīrgha, since they are the same. In this instance where antarangatva based on  $p\bar{u}:vopasthiti$  'first citation of the cause' offers no resolution, the exception rule proves more powerful. That is, 6.1.87 is blocked by 6.1.101 and the result is daity  $(a + a \rightarrow \bar{a})$   $rih = daity\bar{a}rih$  'the enemy of the demons'.

Consider another example, ayaja indram, which is derived from the string ayaj + i + indram where a + i of ayaja + i and i + i of i + indram allow the application of both 6.1.87 and 6.1.101. Here, however, the cause of guna, a, is clearly first in citation as opposed to the i of i + indram. Consequently, the exception of 6.1.101 cannot block the antaranga rule 6.1.87. The result is:  $ayaj (a + i \rightarrow e) + indram = ayaja indram$ . An antaranga is blocked by an exception rule except where purvopasthiti of the nimitta favours antaranga. The antaranga of 6.1.87 is blocked by 6.1.101; the ayaja indram example involves, at least in part, different loci.

It should be clear from above that the structure of the Aṣṭādhyāyī reflects a system which focuses on rule interaction. The fact that paurvāparya alone

should not constitute the basis of interpreting relations among rules is important. The serial ordering of domains serves certain special functions. For example, it may signal domains of possible rule application by means of scanning and term assignment. However, the real structure and organization is revealed through the network of rule interaction. It is the patterns of rule interaction within and beyond the domains that establish hierarchy among rules. The broad dichotomy of general (sāmānya) and particular (viśeṣa) rules thus receives a finer articulation. Additional details of this structure are dealt with in chapter 10.

# **Types of Rules**

Pāṇini's rules have been classified in different categories based on their nature, scope and application. The purpose of a rule, in general, is to account for the derivation of correct Sanskrit utterances. This, in turn, is accomplished by applying required rules to appropriate input, such that the last such application yields an output which is the target utterance. This may give one the impression that the rules of the grammar are largely operational; in a way this is true. However, in order for the operational rules to accomplish their intent, one needs other rules, complementary in nature, whose basic function is to assist, interpret, constrain, negate or further expand the scope of operational rules. Pāṇini employs one set of rules, which I shall call operational (vidhi), complemented by another set which I shall call interpretational. A rule which clearly states some specific operation. (kārya) to be performed is operational. All other rules are interpretational.

Commentators identify the following types of rules which I have classified under the above-mentioned two categories.

- (a) technical rules (samjñā): rules which assign a particular term to a given entity
- (b) interpretive rules (paribhāṣā): rules which regulate proper interpretation of a given rule or its application
- (c) operation rules (vidhi): rules which state a given operation to be performed on a given input
- (d) restriction rules (niyama): rules which restrict the scope of a given rule
- (e) negation rules (pratisedha): rules which counter an otherwise positive provision of a given rule
- (f) extension rules (atideśa): rules which expand the scope of a given rule, usually by allowing the transfer of certain properties which were otherwise not available
- (g) optional rules (vibhāṣā): rules which render the provisions of a given rule optional
- (h) ad hoc rules (nipātana): rules which provide forms to be treated as derived even though derivational details are missing
- (i) heading rules (adhikāra): rules which introduce a domain of rules sharing a common topic, operation, input, physical arrangement, etc.

It should be remembered that operation rules form the core of the

grammar. Rule types (a) and (b) are primarily interpretational. They facilitate proper interpretation and application of operation rules. Types (d), (e) and (f) are directly related to operation rules in the sense that (d) and (e) restrict their scope while (f) expands it. A distinction between (d) and (e), according to some, is unnecessary. It is argued that a provision made by a niyama rule is not different in nature from that made by a pratisedha rule. Those who maintain a distinction between (d) and (e) claim that (d) makes a positive provision, though in a restrictive fashion, while provisions made by (e) are purely negative. In any case, (d), (e) and (f) are strictly satellite categories to (c). One may also add type (g) to (c) as another satellite category. Rule type (h) is a short cut to (c) and hence is directly related to it. Adhikāra rules are substantially different in nature, and often cut across the boundary lines between various categories.

It is interesting to note that samjñā, paribhāṣā and atideśa rules themselves do not provide for any operation. The other types provide for an operation either obligatorily, restrictively, optionally, negatively or on an ad hoc basis. Furthermore, these provisional modes, with the exception of the last one, also may relate to samjñā, paribhāṣā or atideśa rules. However, this relationship is different in nature from their relation to vidhi rules. These provisional modes relate to vidhi rules strictly in view of an operation whereas they relate to samjñā, paribhāṣā and atideśa rules from the point of view of facilitating an operation. Thus, one may find restrictive, negative or optional types of rules both in the sphere of vidhi as well as samjñā, paribhāṣā and atideśa.

A detailed description of the adhikāra rules is given in chapter 4. A more full treatment of the other rule types will follow shortly. However, it is important first to focus upon another system of rule classification which I shall call hierarchical.

Since Pāṇini formulated his rules based on his efforts to capture certain generalizations reflected in usage, he formulated some rules with a general (sāmānya) scope of application. These rules are termed general (utsarga). He also formulated other rules, relative to utsarga rules, and these commonly are termed specific (viśeṣa). These rules define their scope within the scope of a general rule and often are treated as exceptions (apavāda) to that rule. Other types of specific rules in relation to a sāmānya are negations (pratiṣedha) and options (vibhāṣā), etc. This clearly establishes a hierarchical relationship among rules. From the point of view of the various strategies employed in the application of rules, one may also find rule types such as nitya 'obligatory', para 'subsequent', antaraṅga 'internally conditioned' and bahiraṅga 'externally conditioned'. This hierarchical relationship among rules is discussed in chapter 5.

#### (1) Operation Rules

It has been stated that operation (vidhi) rules provide for a certain operation to be performed. In this sense, the term vidhi refers to kārya

'operation, action'. However, since an operation obtains with reference to an operand (*kāryin*), and hence may also involve introduction of an element, *vidhi* is also used in the sense of the object of an operation. These two interpretations go hand in hand. Thus, there are certain elements which have to be introduced to form an input so that certain operations may take place. These operations, in turn, may introduce an element as object of an operation.

The derivational mechanism of the Astādhyāyī entails the following operations.

- (1.1) placement (pratyaya)
- (1.2) addition (āgama)
- (1.3) replacement (ādeśa)
- (1.4) modification (vikāra), and
- (1.5) deletion (lopa)

The above classification may not appear to be in perfect accord with traditional descriptions. What I call placement generally has been referred to as pratyayavidhi 'operation relative to an affix'. This term, however, has been used in a much wider sense. I shall use the term 'placement' to refer to the introduction of the first affix after a base (prakṛti). Pāṇini derives two types of forms: those that end in a tiN (3.4.78 tiptasjhi...), and those that end in a sUP (4.1.2 svaujas...). Both these forms are termed pada (1.4.14 suptinantam padam). A pada ending in a tiN underlies a base termed dhātu 'verbal root', whereas a pada ending in a sUP underlies a base termed prātipadika 'nominal stem'. Roots are twofold: primary roots listed in the Dhātupātha, and derived roots, terminating in affixes termed saN, etc. Nominal bases also are of two types: primary stems characterized by rule 1.2.45 arthavad..., and derived or complex stems which either terminate in a Krt (3.1.93 krd atin) or a taddhita (4.1.76 taddhitāḥ) affix, or else are termed samāsa 'compound' (1.2.46 kṛttaddhitasamāśās ca). In view of the preceding, placement should be understood as an operation which introduces an affix immediately after a base outlined as above.

## (1.1) Placement (pratyaya)

Affixes relative to placement operation are given in books three through five under the heading 3.1.1 pratyayah 'affix'. The following is the listing of major domains.

- 3.1.1 pratyayah
- 3.1.2 paras ca
- 3.1.3 ādy-udāttaś ca
- 3.1.4 anudāttau sup-pitau
  - 3.1.7 dhātoḥ...
  - 3.1.32 sanādy-antā dhātavaḥ

- 3.1.91 dhātoh
  - 3.2.1 karmany an
  - 3.4.117 chandasy ubhayathā
- 4.1.1 nyāp-prātipadikāt
- 4.1.2 svaujas...
  - 4.1.3 striyām
  - 4.1.75 āvatyāc ca
  - 4.1.76 taddhitāh
  - 5.4.160 nispravāņis ca

Rule 3.1.2 requires that affixes be placed after bases which may be either a root or a nominal stem. Rule 3.1.91 dhātoh heads a domain which requires a verbal root (dhātu) as its input. Similarly, 4.1.1  $\dot{n}y\bar{a}p$ ... requires an input which either ends in a feminine affix  $(N\bar{i} \text{ or } \bar{a}P)$  or is a nominal stem. Since feminine affixes are always introduced after nominal stems, the domain of 4.1.3 striyām, which introduces feminine affixes, naturally forms an interior domain within the domain of 4.1.1. Furthermore, since the output of 4.1.3 obligatorily becomes an input to 4.1.1, the latter rule has  $\dot{n}y\bar{a}p$  in the heading to allow such access. The output of the 4.1.1-2 interior domain has to be a pada ending in a sUP. This pada, under the condition of a syntactico-semantic relation, may receive an affix, such as a taddhita, to yield a prātipadika. This being the case, the output of 4.1.2 may again become an input to 4.1.2. Additionally, this output of the taddhita domain first may opt for access to 4.1.3 striyām, and then, finally become an input to 4.1.1-2. In summation, 4.1.1 allows two sets of input: prātipadika and items ending in a feminine affix. These latter items are derived by introducing feminine affixes to prātipadikas. Since prātipadikas also include items ending in a krt, a taddhita or an item termed samāsa, the taddhita and samāsa sections also form input to 4.1.1-2. Furthermore, this input may opt for 4.1.3 first and then for 4.1.2. This makes the domain of 4.1.1-2 cyclic; its output may re-enter as input.

The output of 3.1.5 dhātoḥ... is termed a dhātu by 3.1.32. This again forms an input to 3.1.91 dhātoḥ. These domains, however, do not permit cyclic applications. There are two sets of affixes introduced after items termed dhātu 'root': tiN and kṛt. The first do not form part of the placement operation because they are treated as replacements for a set of ten abstract affixes commonly referred to as LA (3.4.77 lasya; 3.4.78 tiptas-jhi...). Affixes termed kṛt form part of the placement operation as they are introduced directly after the verb roots. This and my earlier observations concerning the placement of an affix in the domain of 4.1.1 characterize placement as an operation which only requires a left context constituted by a base. This, of course, is a formal condition.

The output which involves a replacement of LA in  $ti\dot{N}$  is treated as a pada whereas the output which involves a krt is termed a prātipadika. As such,

it is on par with other inputs of the domain of 4.1.1. It is interesting to note that *kṛt* affixes underlie an input other than the input of 4.1.1, but yield an output which is similar to the input of 4.1.1.

Our characterization of placement as an operation which requires a left context demands some qualification. First of all, this left context is formal and secondly, it is referenced with ablative (pañcamī). Thus the verbal and nominal bases required under the domain of 3.1.91 dhātoḥ and 4.1.1 iŋāp... are both referenced by ablative in the heading rules. A left context constituted by a root can further be specified by the use or omission of a preverb, its particular class membership in the DP and whether or not it ends in a vowel or has a penultimate vowel. Furthermore, specification can also be made with respect to particular meanings denoted by the bases. For example, consider the following set of rules.

- 3.1.1 pratyayah
- 3.1.2 paras ca
  - 3.1.91 dhātoh
  - 3.1.92 tatropapadam saptamīstham
  - 3.1.93 krd atin
    - 3.1.95 *kṛtyāḥ*
    - 3.1.96 tavyat-tavyānīyaraḥ
    - 3.1.97 aco yat
    - 3.1.98 por ad-upadhāt
    - 3.1.99 śaki-sahoś ca
    - 3.1.100 gada-mada-cara-yamaś cānupasarge

The above listing allows for the placement of krt (3.1.93) affixes (3.1.1) termed krtya (3.1.95) after (3.1.2) verbal roots (3.1.91). Thus,  $dh\bar{a}tu$  'verb root' is the left context. Rule 3.1.96 introduces the affixes tavyaT, tavya and  $an\bar{t}yaR$  in general. Rules 3.1.97 and 3.1.98 are more specific. As a consequence, 3.1.97 specifies the left context as a root which ends in a vowel and allows the placement of affix yaT. Rule 3.1.98 requires that the root constituting the left context terminate in a labial stop or nasal and have a in its penultimate  $(upadh\bar{a})$  position. Similar specifications are offered by 3.1.99 and 3.1.100, both of which name roots constituting the left context with the difference being that 3.1.100 does not allow the use of any preverb with its roots.

Rule 3.1.92 tatropapadam saptamīstham adds another dimension to the placement operation. It explains that that which is referenced by locative (saptamī) in this domain of dhātu (3.1.91) is termed upapada 'co-occurring pada'. Consider 3.2.1 karmany an where the left context is still a dhātu but the placement of affix aŅ is constrained by the term karman 'object' in the locative. The affix aŊ cannot be introduced after a root constituting the left context unless there is an upapada which denotes karman. Thus, kumbhakāra 'pot maker' is derived by introducing the affix aŊ after the

verbal root  $Dkr\tilde{N}$  'to do, make' under the conditions of  $kumbha + \dot{N}as$ , a co-occurring pada where  $\dot{N}as$  (genitive singular) denotes karman. Needless to say, the referent of karman is identified as an upapada because of its locative as provided for by 3.1.93.

Similar observations can also be made about the placement operation provided by the domain of 4.1.1 *nyāp-prātipadikāt*. Here, the left context is constituted by a nominal stem (*prātipadika*). Since a nominal stem can also constitute an item which is either a compound, or else ends in a *kṛt* or *taddhita* affix, nominal stems can be simple or complex. For purposes of placement operations in the domain of 4.1.1, both types of nominals can opt for access to the subdomains of 4.1.2, 4.1.3 and 4.1.76. For purposes of the placement of *sUP* affixes by 4.1.2, I shall also consider the output of the 4.1.3 subdomain to be a complex nominal. Thus, the left context for 4.1.2 can be constituted by a simple or complex nominal stem which also includes items ending in feminine affixes introduced by the subdomain of 4.1.3. Similarly, the left context of 4.1.3 can be constituted by either a simple or a complex nominal which excludes items ending in a feminine affix.

The left context constituted by the placement operation outlined in the subdomain of 4.1.76 taddhitāḥ is basically a simple nominal stem. However, it should be remembered that a taddhita derivative can re-enter the taddhita domain for transformation into a complex taddhita derivative. Furthermore, co-occurrence conditions somewhat similar to one discussed in connection with 3.1.93 may also constrain the left context.

The left context for the placement operation outlined in the domain of 4.1.1 is to a large extent similar to the one given for the domain of 3.1.91. The differences in specification of the left context of nominals are strictly 'formal' because of their being constituted by nominal stems and their being both simple and complex. In summation, left contexts are introduced by ablative. Their specification might entail enumerating them either individually or as a group, or identifying them in terms of their formal properties. Constraints can be imposed on them either by co-occurrence conditions or their denotata or both.

Placement operations do not entail specification of the right context. However, there are conditions under which a particular placement affix may be introduced. These conditions are mostly formal, syntactic or syntactico-semantic. Formal conditions generally concern the base whereas syntactico-semantic conditions may concern the base, affix, both or neither. Consider again 3.1.97 aco yat which introduces the affix yaT after a verbal root terminating in aC 'a vowel'. This formal condition which has been used to specify the left context also serves as a condition for the introduction of yaT. The same interpretation is applicable to 3.1.98.

Placement affixes introduced in the domain of dhātu are of two types: tiÑ (3.4.78 tiptasjhi...) or kṛt (3.1.93 kṛd atin). Since affixes enumerated by 3.4.78, i.e., tiN, are replacements of abstract suffixes termed LA, they do not come under placement LA affixes are introduced to denote agent (kartṛ) or object (karman), in case of a transitive root and to denote agent or bhāva in case of an intransitive root (3.4.69 laḥ karmaṇi...). Thus, LA can denote either agent, object or action. Kṛt affixes are introduced to denote agent while a subset, termed kṛtya, denotes object and action. One may thus generalize that placement affixes introduced after verbal roots denote agent, object or action. It is understood that the signification of agent, object, or action can serve as a condition for placement affixes after verbs. One can interpret agent and object as syntactic or syntactico-semantic conditions, and bhāva as a semantic condition.

Other syntactico-semantic conditions may be found. For example, 3.2.123 vartamāne laṭ introduces affix LAṬ after a verb root when current time (vartamāna) is to be expressed. Thus pacati '(he) cook's is derived form pac + LA where LAṬ is a placement affix introduced after the verb root pac. LAṬ is a LA suffix; accordingly 3.4.69 laḥ karmaṇi ... will apply. Hence, conditions for introduction of LAṬ will include: a left context constituted by a root (3.1.9 dhātoḥ), signification of agent or object (3.4.69 laḥ karmaṇi ...) and current time (vartamāna). Similar meaning conditions can be found for introduction of other LA affixes.

Kṛt and kṛtya affixes, in addition to requiring the signification of agent, object or bhāva, may also require other conditions. These conditions may include, for example, signification of karaṇa 'instrument' or other semantic conditions.

Conditions relevent to the introduction of placement affixes after a nominal base are similar in nature. Thus sUP (4.1.2 svaujas...) affixes can be introduced either to denote nominal stem notions (pratipadikartha; 2.3.46) or other semantic notions such as part-whole, container-contained, possessor-possessed, (2.3.50 sasthi sese), or to denote karaka relations (2.3.2 sasthi sese), or to denote sasthi sa

# (1.2) Addition (āgama)

Addition may be defined as an operation which requires both a right as well a left context. In general, the left context is the base and the right context is a placement affix. Additions are of two types, vikaraṇas and āgamas. The first type consists of those affixes which are added to a root under the

conditions of a following affix, generally a sārvadhātuka (3.4.113 tinšit sārvadhātukam) or ārdhadhātuka (3.4.114 ārddhadhātukam śeṣaḥ) affix which has replaced a LA suffix. For example, consider the derivation of pacati from pac + LAT where LAT is replaced by ti (3.4.77 lasya; 3.4.78 tiptasjhi...). Given the string  $pac + (LAT \rightarrow ti) = pac + ti$ , ti is termed sārvadhātuka by 3.4.113. Rule 3.1.68 kartari śap requires that SaP is to be introduced after pac under the condition that a sārvadhātuka affix denoting agent follows. Thus, pac + SaP + ti = pac + a + ti = pacati. Similar vikaraṇas are enumerated for roots especially in view of their relationship in the classes of roots in the DP. Rules 3.1.69 divādibhyaḥ śyan, 3.1.73 svādibhyaḥ śnuḥ, 3.1.77 tudādibhyaḥ śaḥ 3.1.78 rudhādibhyaḥ śnam, 3.1.79 tanādi...uḥ and 3.1.81 kryādibhyaḥ śnā, for example, introduce the vikaraṇas Syan, Snu, Sa, Snam, u and Śnā after various classes of roots.

It has already been indicated that the right context for the introduction of vikaraṇas generally is constituted by a sārvadhātuka or an ārddhadhātuka affix. These affixes are replacements for LA affixes. It may follow from this that vikaraṇas are introduced only after the LA affixes have been replaced by tiÑ. This is largely correct, although there are certain other vikaraṇas which may be introduced while a LA affix serves as right context. Consider, for example, 3.1.33 syatāsī lṛluṭoḥ, 3.1.34 sib bahulaṃ leṭi and 3.1.43 cli luni whereby sya and tās, SiP and CLI are introduced as vikaraṇas under condition of a right context formed by LRT, LUŢ, LEŢ and LUŃ. The CLI introduced by 3.1.43 is variously replaced by SIC or its exceptions outlined by rules 3.1.44 cleḥ sic through 3.1.66 cin bhāvakarmaṇoḥ.

Another set of addition items, as we indicated at the beginning of this section, are termed āgamas. They differ from the vikaraṇas in that while vikaraṇas are introduced in reference to a right context marked by ablative (pañcamī), āgamas are introduced with a right context marked by genitive (ṣaṣṭhī). Furthermore, vikaraṇas are termed an affix (pratyaya) and retain their identity separately from the bases to which they are introduced. As opposed to this, āgamas are not termed an affix and they become part of the item to which they are introduced. Thus, they do not retain their separate identity. Another interesting difference between the vikaraṇas and āgamas is that while a vikaraṇa is always introduced to the right context constituted by a base, an āgama may be introduced to a non-base. Consider the derivation of paṭhitā 'he will read tomorrow' in the following section where iŢ, an āgama, is introduced to tās, a vikaraṇa.

Pāṇini marks the majority of his  $\bar{a}gamas$  by T, K or M. Under the provisions of rules 1.1.45  $\bar{a}dyantau$  takitau and 1.1.46 midaco' ntyāt parah, an  $\bar{a}gama$  marked with T is introduced at the beginning, while one marked with K is introduced at the end. Consider the derivation of pathita,  $bh\bar{t}sayate$  'he frightens' and  $mu\bar{t}cati$  'he releases' where these examples are derived from path + LUT,  $bh\bar{t} + NIC + LAT$  and muc + LAT. Given the string

 $paṭh + t\bar{a}s + tiP$  where  $t\bar{a}s$  is a vikaraṇa introduced before  $LU\bar{T}$  (3.1.332  $syat\bar{a}s\bar{\imath}...$ ), and  $LU\bar{T}$  is replaced by tiP (3.4.77-78 lasya, tiptas...), tiP, in turn, is replaced by  $D\bar{a}$  (2.4.85 lutah...) and is subsequently termed an  $\bar{a}rdhadh\bar{a}tuka$ . The string becomes:  $paṭh + t\bar{a}s + \bar{a}$ . Rule 7.2.35  $\bar{a}rdhadh\bar{a}tukasy...$  requires that  $t\bar{a}s$  receive an  $\bar{a}gama~i\bar{T}$ . Since  $i\bar{T}$  is marked with  $\bar{T}$  it should be introduced at the beginning of  $t\bar{a}s$  to yield:  $paṭh + i\bar{T} + \bar{a} = paṭh + i + t\bar{a}s + \bar{a}$ . Later, the  $\bar{a}s$  of  $t\bar{a}s$  will be deleted by a  $v\bar{a}rttika$  on 6.4.143 teh to yield  $pathit\bar{a}$ .

The last two examples entail augments which are marked with K and M. Given the string  $bh\bar{i} + NiC$  where NiC has been introduced after  $bh\bar{i}$  by 3.1.26 hetumati ca, 7.3.40 bhiyo hetubhaye suk requires that  $bh\bar{i}$  should receive the augment sUK. Since this augment is marked with K, it is introduced at the end on  $bh\bar{i}$ . Thus we get  $bh\bar{i} + sUK + NiC = bh\bar{i} + s + i = bhisi$ , a root under the provisions of 3.1.32 sanādy.... This enables  $bh\bar{i}si$  to receive LAT, which, after the application of several rules, yields  $bh\bar{i}sayate$ . The last example  $mu\bar{n}cati$  is derived from muc + LAT where LAT is replaced by tiP and the vikaraṇa Sa is introduced by 3.1.77  $tud\bar{a}dibhyah$  sah. Given the string  $muc + Sa + tiP \rightarrow muc + a + ti$ , 7.1.59 se  $muc\bar{a}d\bar{i}n\bar{a}m$  introduces the augment nUM to muc. As nUM is marked with M, it should be introduced after the last vowel of muc. The result is:  $mu + nUM + c + a + ti \rightarrow mu\bar{n}cati$ .

# (1.3) Replacement (ādeśa)

Ādeśa operations are diverse in nature, mostly because of the diversity of the sthānin 'item to be replaced' which they replace. The Mahābhāṣya (III:159) names vikaraṇas such as Śnam, Śa, etc., ādeśas of ŚaP. I have already discussed abstract LA affixes and their eventual replacement by tiŅ. I have also explained how a vikaraṇa such as CLI is replaced by SĪC and its exceptions. In addition, one can also find replacements for either a part or the whole of a base. Thus, an ādeśa may be ruled for a base, an affix or even a single sound segment.

The sthānin 'item to be replaced' generally is marked by the genitive and the ādeśa by the nominative. The conditions for replacement are primarily right context and formal. Given the replacement formula  $X_6Y_1Z_7$ , one may interpret X as a sthānin which should be replaced by Y under conditions Z. However, this interpretation raises a further question. Given 6.1.77 iko yaṇ aci, for example, whereby iK (i, u, r, l), the sthānin, is ordered replaced by yN (y, v, r, l), the ādeśa, under the condition of a following aC (vowel), we must decide which, from among y, v, r, and l, is the proper replacement of i.

Such situations are resolved by 1.3.10 yathāsamkhya... This rule states that the assignment of equivalence should be made in the order of the elements enumerated. That is, when one finds an equal number of sthānin and replacements, assignment of equivalents is in the order in which the elements are listed. Rule 1.1.50 sthāne' ntaratamah states that equivalency

may also be determined on the basis of maximum similarity between sthānin and ādeśa. This similarity can be based on sthāna 'point of articulation', artha 'signification', guṇa 'sound quality' or pramāṇa 'duration'. All but artha refer to sounds and their attributes. Whenever there is conflict in assigning equivalency of sounds, similarity based on sthāna should be favoured.

For example, given the strings danda + agram and  $y\bar{u}pa + agram$ , 6.1.101 akah savarne  $d\bar{i}rghah$  will apply. This rule states that when sounds denoted by aK (a, i, u, r, l) are followed by vowels homogenous with them a single long vowel should replace both the preceding and the following. Thus, a + a of the above examples is replaced by  $\bar{a}$ , yielding  $dand\bar{a}gram$  'top or front of the stick' and  $y\bar{u}p\bar{a}gram$  'top or front of the ritual post'. The selection of long  $\bar{a}$  to replace a + a was made on the basis of their similarity in place of articulation ( $sth\bar{a}na$ ); they are both santhya 'velar'.

For an example of similarity based on signification, consider the derivation of  $v\bar{a}tandyayuvatih$  'young female descendant of Vatanda' where the base is  $v\bar{a}tandyayuvati$ , a  $karmadh\bar{a}raya$  tatpuruṣa compound (1.2.42 tatpuruṣah...) derived by combining  $v\bar{a}tand\bar{a}+SU$  with yuvati+SU. After the compound formation, the endings are deleted. Rule 6.3.42 pumvat  $karmadh\bar{a}raya$ ... then applies to replace  $v\bar{a}tand\bar{a}$  with its corresponding masculine form. However, that form does not denote apatya 'offspring' which  $v\bar{a}tand\bar{a}$  does. As a result, one must select  $v\bar{a}tandya$ , a masculine form which also denotes apatya, as a replacement for  $v\bar{a}tand\bar{a}$ .

Examples of similarity based on sound quality (guna) and duration  $(pram\bar{a}na)$  are not difficult to find. Consider 7.3.52 cajoh ku ghinyatoh which, under certain conditions, causes the final c or j of a root to be replaced by kU  $(k, kh, g, gh, \dot{n}; cf. 1.1.69 anudit...)$ . We clearly see that there are two substituenda for which five substitutes are ordered. In view of 1.1.50  $sth\bar{a}ne...$ , we select k and g as proper replacements for c and g. We do this because of their similarity in sound quality. Thus, g is replaced by g because they share sound qualities such as g g g since they are both voiced non-aspirates.

For an example of similarity based on duration, consider the derivation of amusmai 'dative singular of adas.' At one point of the derivation, the string is ada + smai. Rule 8.2.80 adaso' ser... then orders two operations:

- (a) replacement of d by m, and
- (b) replacement of the final a of ada by u.

We know from 1.1.69 that items which do not constitute an affix but are denoted by aN or marked with U represent their own form as well as the forms of sounds homogenous with them. In view of this, u of 8.2.80 can be construed as either short (hrasva),  $\log(d\bar{v}rgha)$  or extra- $\log(pluta)$ . However, since the substituendum is short, we will replace it with a short u.

#### (1.4) Deletion (LOPA)

Deletion can be characterized as an operation where a non-zero *sthānin* is replaced by zero. It thus may be treated as a straightforward case of replacement. However, considering the plurality of terms by which Pāṇini accomplishes deletion and the complexity of the entire operation, it is better to treat deletion separately.

Pāṇini specifies the *sthānin* of a deletion by genitive. However, this should not be confused with his practice of locating a *sthānin* with reference to an item in the ablative ( $pa\bar{n}cam\bar{i}$ ; cf. 1.1.67  $tasm\bar{a}d...$ ) or locative ( $saptam\bar{i}$ ; cf. 1.1.66 tasmin...). Deletion in Pāṇini is a complex operation. This complexity is due primarily to (a) the diversity of the deleted elements, (b) the degree, part or whole, to which an element is deleted, (c) the term which accomplishes a given deletion, (d) the consequences, other than the non-appearance of part or whole of an element, of deletion, and (e) whether or not the deletion is recoverable.

In order to fully understand the process of deletion, the following set of rules must be considered.

- 1.1.60 adarśanam lopah
- 1.1.61 pratyayasya lukślulupah
- 1.1.62 pratyayalope pratyayalaksanam
- 1.1.63 na lumatāngasya

Rule 1.1.60 is a general rule which defines LOPA as 'non-appearance'. Within this general scope of deletion is included a specific domain characterized by the terms LUK, SLU and LUP and applies only to the deletion of an affix (pratyaya; cf. 1.1.61). LOPA, LUK, ŚLU and LUP thus all mean deletion or 'non-appearance of an element'. One may assume that L, their common element, represents non appearance. The O of LOPA may be contrasted with the U of LUK, ŚLU and LUP, thereby establishing the bhedakattva 'distinctiveness' of the two sets. The bhedakattva of individual deletions within the subdomain of affix deletions accomplished by LUK, *SLU* and *LUP* is maintained by K, P and S. Given the usual relationship between a general rule and corresponding specific rules, one would expect that LOPA excerpts its domain of application by leaving aside the domain of LUK, \$LU and LUP. Rule 1.1.61 states that the domain of LUK, ŚLU and LUP is limited only to the deletion of an affix. Does this mean that deletion which involves zeroing of an element other than an affix is the domain of LOPA? The answer generally is yes. However, in order to correctly characterize the domain of LOPA, let us first focus on the scopes of LUK, SLU and LUP.

It is established that deletion by LUK, ŚLU and LUP obtains only when an affix is deleted. Affixes are listed in books three, four and five. In order to further delimit the individual domains of LUK, ŚLU and LUP, we must look for the specific deletion of affixes accomplished by the express

mention of one of these terms. Looking at the process of affixal deletion, one finds that  $\acute{S}LU$  is employed only to delete an affix occurring after a verb of the *juhotyādi* class (2.4.75 *juhotyādibhyaḥ śluḥ*). These roots also require reduplication conditioned by  $\acute{S}LU$  (6.1.10 ślau). LUP, on the other hand, strictly is limited to deleting certain taddhita (4.1.76 taddhitāḥ) affixes where the original number and gender of the base is retained (1.2.51 lupi yuktavad vyaktivacane).

In summation, affix deletion is the domain of LUK, SLU and LUP. The domain of LOPA generally is the deletion of non-affixes. Within affix deletion, SLU deletes affixes after verb roots belonging to a single specific class. LUP deletes only taddhita affixes which retain the original number and gender of the base. This clearly leaves a large domain for LUK which, when needed, will delete affixes after verb roots or nominal stems where SLU and LUP cannot be employed. All other deletions normally will be accomplished by LOPA.

Commentators explain that, on the strength of LUK in 7.3.73  $lug\ v\bar{a}\ duh...$ , deletion by LUK, SLU and LUP is total. That is, these terms cause the deletion of the entire affix. This would mean that partial deletion of an element must be accomplished by LOPA. What is the procedure when partial deletion of an affix is desired? Theoretically at least, that should also come under the domain of LOPA because LUK, etc., do not accomplish partial deletion. This possibility necessitates a re-examination of the term 'affix deletion' used in the context of LUK, SLU and LUP. When it comes to the domain of LUK, etc., affix deletion should be interpreted as total deletion.

It should be clear from the above discussion that LOPA and LUK are the most frequent means of deletion. LOPA may entail total or partial deletion of an affix, at least theoretically, base or any other element. LUK is employed to delete affixes other than those which specifically come under the domain of \$LU\$ and \$LUP\$.

In understanding the consequences and the recoverability of deletion the following rules are important.

- 1.1.62 pratyayalope pratyayalaksanam
- 1.1.63 na lumatāngasya
- 1.2.49 luktaddhitaluki
- 1.2.51 lupi yuktavad vyaktivacane

Rule 1.1.61 specifies that operations conditioned by an affix obtain even when the affix is deleted. Rule 1.1.63 stipulates that such operations do not obtain with reference to an  $a\dot{n}ga$  if the deletion is accomplished by LUK, SLU or LUP. Operations conditioned by an affix, and specific to an  $a\dot{n}ga$  (1.4.13 yasmat...), do not obtain when that affix is deleted. Consider agnicit 'he who heaped the ritual fire' which derives from agnicit + SU where SU is a vibhakti termed affix. This SU is deleted by LOPA under the

provisions of 6.1.68 halinyādibhyo.... Rule 1.4.14 suptinantam padam then applies to assign the term pada to agnicit. But since 1.4.14 assigns the term pada only to an item which ends either in a SUP 'nominal inflection' or a  $ti\dot{N}$  'verbal inflection', and since agnicit does not end in SU, which has been deleted, assignment of the term pada cannot be accomplished. Rule 1.1.62 resolves this difficulty on the grounds that the deletion of SU is not accomplished by LUK etc., and agnicit is not undergoing an anga operation. Consequently, even though SU has been deleted, operation pada-assignment may obtain on agnicit.

Derivates like  $\bar{a}ghn\bar{i}ya$  'I may strike' present yet another aspect of affix deletion. This example is derived from  $\bar{a} + han + s\bar{i}y + i$  where  $s\bar{i}y$  is an  $\bar{a}gama$  'augment' termed affix. Rule 7.3.73 orders that s of  $s\bar{i}y$  be deleted. This affix-deletion is partial and hence, operations characteristic of  $s\bar{i}y$  would not obtain. The n of han would not be deleted.

In the preceding section we briefly discussed these consequences of deletion:

- (a) LUK, SLU and LUP accomplish deletion of affixes only,
- (b) deletion accomplished by LUK, \$LU and LUP is total,
- (c) LOPA may accomplish total or partial deletion of affixes as well as non-affixes,
- (d) operations characteristic of an affix may obtain even when the affix is deleted, but not when the deletion is accomplished by LUK, \$LU or LUP and the given operation relates to an anga, nor
- (e) when LOPA deletes an affix partially.

This clearly indicates that the derivational history of a form attests to the recoverability of deletion.

Two more rules need to be discussed in connection with the consequences and recoverability of deletion: 1.2.49 luktaddhita... and 1.2.51 lupi.... The first rule states that when there is the deletion of a taddhita by LUK, the feminine affix contained in the base must also be deleted by LUK. Consider the derivation of viśakhah 'he who was born in the constellation  $vis\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$ ' from  $(vis\bar{a}kh\bar{a} + Ni + aN) + SU$  where  $vis\bar{a}kh\bar{a}$  ends in the feminine affix  $(\underline{T})\bar{a}(P)$ . Given the string  $vi\hat{s}\bar{a}kh\bar{a} + aN$  where aN is deleted by LUK(cf. 4.3.34 śravisthā ...luk), ā, the feminine affix in viśākhā, also must be deleted. Rule 1.2.51 entails a semantic consequence in the sense that it allows the retention of the original number and gender of the base under the condition of affix deletion by LUP. Consider the derivation of pañcālāḥ 'the country where the pañcāla warriors live' where the underlying string is  $(pa\tilde{n}c\bar{a}la + \bar{a}m + aN) + Jas$ . Given the string  $pa\tilde{n}c\bar{a}la + aN$ , rule 4.2.81 janapade lup deletes aN by LUP. The consequence of deletion is the retention of masculine plural in pañcālāh; when the country of the pañcāla warriors is meant, pañcāla must retain, or be declined in, masculine plural.

#### (2) Interpretational Rules

It has already been stated that rules which assist the interpretation and application of operational rules will be called interpretational. They basically are of two types: saṃjnā 'technical rules' and paribhāṣā 'interpretive rules'.

### (2.1) Technical rules (samjñā)

A rule which assigns a name to a linguistic element or its meaning is termed a samjñā. The term samjñā is derivable by introducing the affix aŅ after the verb root jñā used with the preverb sam. However, since aŊ may denote bhāva 'action', karman 'object' or karaṇa 'instrument', saṃjñā may be interpreted in three ways.

- (a) samjñānam samjñā (bhāva): the act of properly perceiving something,
- (b) yaḥ saṃjnāyate (karman): that which is the object of proper perception, and
- (c) samjñāyate anayā (karaṇa): that by means of which proper perception is made.

The purpose of a samjñā rule is to assign a term to a linguistic entity (object) or its meaning by means of which (karaṇa) proper perception (action) of those objects as well as their function may be attained. The object which is assigned a samjñā is called a samjñin. Pāṇini has used nearly one hundred technical terms which can be classified in view of their samjñin in three categories.

- (a) those which assign a samjñā to a linguistic term,
- (b) those which assign a samj $\bar{n}a$  to the meaning of a linguistic item, and
- (c) those which assign a samjñā to the quality (guṇa) of a sound segment.

The above three categories are given the names śabdasamjñā, arthasamjñā and dharmasamjñā. For example, consider the technical terms vṛddhi, prātipadika, dhātu, anga and pada. These are names assigned to linguistic items, respectively a sound segment, nominal stem, root, presuffixal base and a fully derived word. This class of technical items is by far the largest. Technical terms assigned to the meaning of linguistic items are second in number. Thus, one finds samjñās like vibhāṣā, LOPA, LUK, ŚLU and LUP where vibhāṣā¹ is assigned to the meaning of na vā 'or not' and the other four terms are assigned to the meaning of adarśana 'non-appearance'. Smallest in number are those samjñās assigned to sound quality. Thus, we find terms udātta, anudātta and svarita, the high, low and circumflex pitch accents.

Pāṇini presents the majority of his technical terms in the first book. However, there are some which may be found elsewhere in the grammar. I shall call the samjāās enumerated in book one global as opposed to those

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Note that  $vibh\bar{a}s\bar{a}$  may not even be accepted as a technical term as it does not relate to an operation in the same way the other terms do.

enumerated elsewhere which I shall call local. For example, technical terms assigned to compound types are given in book two where compounds are discussed. Technical terms given in the domain of affixes in books three, four and five relate to particular affixes. The placement of other local samjnās should be understood in a similar manner. While I am advancing the dichotomy of global and local samjnās, I am fully aware that there are many global samjnās which are similar in nature to local ones. Mere physical placement in the grammar should not be treated as the basis for this classification. Pāṇini has placed his global definitions in book one to facilitate operations throughout the grammar. Local definitions facilitate operations locally. Their most immediate function is to facilitate an operation within a given context (prakarana).

Consider, for example, the definitional term upapada 'co-occurring pada' which has been characterized locally by 3.1.92 tatropapadam saptamīs-tham. The rule simply states that 'that which is specified in the locative in the domain of 3.1.91 dhātoh is termed an upapada'. This clearly justifies calling upapada a local definition. Similarly, abhyāsa (6.1.4 pūrvo' bhyāsaḥ) 'doubling' finds its samjñin only locally. Many other definitional terms, especially in books three through five, are local; global definitions, however, may be employed throughout the grammar.

A question has been raised in consideration of the definitional terms karmadhāraya 'a subcategory of tatpuruṣa compounds' and upasarjana 'secondary constituent of a compound' which are defined by 1.2.42 tatpuruṣaḥ... and 1.2.43 prathamā nirdiṣṭa.... Why didn't Pāṇini define these terms locally in the second book with the other terms relative to samāsa 'compound'? It should be noted here that the samāsa section comes under the domain of 1.4.1 ā kaḍārād ekā samjñā. If Pāṇini had put 1.2.43 in the samāsa section, a conflict would have arisen between the assignment of tatpuruṣa and karmadhāraya. Since karmadhāraya would have been subsequent, it would have blocked the tatpuruṣa assignment. Similarly, Bhattacharya thinks that for reasons unknown to us, Pāṇini did not include upasarjana in the samāsa section. I think that Pāṇini placed his definitions at appropriate places, above all, for operational reasons. I shall discuss this shortly.

One of the important purposes of formulating definitions is brevity (cf. laghvartham hi samjñā karaṇam, Mbh. on 1.1.1). This intended brevity also is alluded to in statements such as āvartinyaḥ samjñāḥ bhavanti 'samjñās recur' (Mbh.: 1.1.1). For an insightful discussion of an important aspect of brevity, see Cardona (1969: 20) and his discussion of the pratyāhāra iŅ.

Bhaṭṭoji Dīkṣita remarks (SK ad 1.1.72) that a samjñā recurs in various rules to make its samjñin known. That is, if the samjñā vṛddhi occurs in a rule in the seventh book, rule 1.1.1 vṛddhir ādaic should be brought in to explain that vṛddhi means ā, ai and au. However, there is more to the

function of recurring technical terms; samjñās are highly instrumental in locating the domain of possible rule application (see chapter 4 for details). They are also instrumental in projecting what further steps a particular string may take in its derivation.

It was stated in connection with the classification of definitions into global and local categories that rule 1.4.1 ā kaḍārād ekā saṃjñā heads a domain where only one term may be assigned. This suggests yet another aspect of definitional terms. Since within its domain, 1.4.1 does not permit more than one term to be assigned to a given entity, one may infer that assignment of more than one term may be permissible elsewhere in the grammar. Pāṇinīyas do believe that outside the domain of 1.4.1 (ekasaṃjñā), saṃjñāsamāveśa 'class inclusion' is the norm. This requires further explanation.

Rule 1.4.2 vipratiṣedhe paraṃ kāryam states that in matters of conflict between two rules of equal strength (vipratiṣedha) the rule which is subsequent in order applies. If there is a situation where a single element is equally qualified for the assignment of more than one term, 1.4.2 will be invoked. Now, Pāṇini presents his kāraka terms in this domain in the order of apādāna (1.4.24), sampradāna (1.4.32), karaṇa (1.4.42), adhikaraṇa (1.4.45), karman (1.4.49) and kartṛ (1.4.54). Consider the sentence

rāmo dhanusā mrgam vidhyati

'Rāma pierces the deer by [an arrow shot by] the bow' where 'bow' can qualify equally for assignment of the terms apādāna or karaṇa. It can be termed an apādāna because it serves as point of reference from whence occurs the movement away of the arrow (1.4.24 dhruvam apāye...). It can be termed karaṇa because unless there is a bow, the act of piercing the deer cannot be accomplished; 'bow' is the most instrumental means. This conflict is resolved by 1.4.2; 'bow' uniquely is termed karaṇa. This relative ordering of the kāraka terms suggesting their relative strength is more fully discussed in chapter 9.

It should be remembered here that unless there is clearly a conflict, 1.4.2 should not be invoked. Commentators also explain that 1.4.2 cannot be invoked where the conflict obtains between two rules whose relationship is one of general-exception (utsarga-apavāda), obligatory-nonobligatory (nitya-anitya), or internally conditioned-externally conditioned (antaraṅga-bahiraṅga; see Kāś. I:499) utsargāpavādanityānityāntaraṅgabahiraṅgeṣu tulyabalatā nāsti). The claim is that such sets of rules are lacking in equal strength (tulyabalatā).

There are situations in the ekasamjñā domain where samjñāsamāveśa is permitted. It has been done by express mention in order to delimit the scope of certain definitions with specific operational goals in mind. Consider, for example, rules 1.4.54 svatantraḥ kartā and 1.4.55 tatprayojako hetuś ca whereby two terms kartṛ and hetu both are assigned to the instigator

of kartṛ. Kāśikā clearly states here that ca of 1.4.55 is used for purposes of class inclusion (samjñāsamāveśārthaś cakāraḥ). Pāṇini does the same thing when he formulates 2.1.23 dviguś ca whereby he extends the tatpuruṣa designation to dvigu.

It has been stated that, outside the domain of 1.4.1, class inclusion is the norm. Consequently, one may find a particular linguistic element being assigned three names, such as pratyaya, kṛt and kṛtya (3.1.1 pratyayaḥ, 3.1.93 kṛd atin, 3.1.94 kṛtyāḥ). Similarly, one may find an affix being assigned terms taddhita and tadrāja (4.1.171 te tadrājaḥ). However, just as saṃjñāsamāveśa may be permitted within the ekasaṃjñā domain, ekasaṃjñā may obtain within the domain of saṃjñāsamāveśa. That is, there may not be two terms assigned to an entity. It should be remembered that Pāṇini often resorts to explicit mention to resolve confusion. For example, a problem could arise with regard to the assignment of the terms gotra (4.1.162 apatyam...) and yuvan (4.1.163 jivati tu...). However, the word tu in 4.1.163 explicitly rules out saṃjñāsamāveśa.

Some further points must be discussed in connection with the description of the samjñās, namely their structure and source. It is natural that samjñā follows usage. However, since samjñās are assigned for purposes of grammar, grammatical usage can also serve as a source. Pāṇini takes many of his technical terms from the tradition. He may use them in the same sense, redefine them or leave them undefined. The samjñās which he takes from the outside world (loka) also may or may not be used in the same sense. In fact, we find several terms in Pāṇini which are used in both a popular as well as technical sense. An example is the term hetu 'cause, purpose'. It is to be remembered that technically any samiñā in Pānini should be treated as new irrespective of its denotatum outside the grammar, be it from the grammatical tradition or common usage. There are only two things shared by naming in the real world and naming in the grammar: one, that naming follows convention, whereby an existing entity x is assigned the name y, and the other, that y facilitates proper perception of x. Thus, a parent may name a bundle of flesh (x) devadatta (y)and thereafter devadatta (y) will be used to facilitate proper perception of x.

Pāṇini defines his terms by assigning the name y to x where x could be a single element, class of elements or a particular meaning of x. In doing this, he employs both the techniques of definition and enumeration. That is, he may formulate statements such as:

- (a) let x be termed y, or
- (b) let the following enumerated items be termed y. Vṛddhi and guṇa, for example, follow(a) while sarvanāman and dhātu follow (b).

One normally expects that x, the nominatum, would precede y, the name, in a samjñā rule. Pāṇini usually follows this practice. However,

there are instances where he disrupts this arrangement. Patañjali defends Pāṇini's use of the term (y) vṛddhi in the very first rule of the grammar on grounds of auspiciousness. However, in other instances of reverse order where Pāṇini uses the saṃjñā first, such as 1.2.41 apṛkta..., 3.1.92 tatropapadam..., 3.1.93 kṛd atin, 3.1.94 kṛtyāḥ and 3.4.114 ārdhadhātukam..., Patañjali is silent.

## (2.2) Interpretive Rules (paribhāṣā)

Traditionally interpretive rules are known as paribhāṣā. The function of these rules is to provide a check on the operational rules so that they do not suffer from faults such as ativyāpti 'over application', avyāpti 'under application' and asambhava 'impossible application'. That is, interpretive rules assist operational rules in precisely identifying their domain of application. Pāṇini has located about seventy-five such interpretive rules in different parts of the grammar, while the tradition recognizes more than 130 additional paribhāṣās. The totality of these paribhāṣās may be classified into three categories.

- (a) vācanikī: explicitly stated by Pāṇini in the Aṣṭādhyāyī,
- (b) jñāpakasiddha: those which Pāṇini must have implicitly assumed; the fact that all or part of a sūtra will become vacuous without accepting these indicates their importance, and
- (c) nyāyasiddha: those which are axiomatic and owe their importance to the norms or standards of the outside world.

The last two categories of paribhāṣās have been created, explained and justified based on their indispensability for the correct interpretation of Pāṇini's rules. Most of them date back to Vyāḍi, Kātyāyana and Patañjali. The Mahābhāṣya, with its vārttikas as well as paribhāṣās of Vyāḍi, is the most important source. Among the collections of paribhāṣās, Nāgeśa's Paribhāṣenduśekhara (PŚ) is by far the most important text. In this section, I shall consider primarily paribhāṣās of the Aṣṭādhyāyī (see chapter 8 for the paribhāṣās of PŚ).

Pāṇini has not used the word paribhāṣā in his grammar. Patañjali does not try to define precisely the characteristics of paribhāṣā. However, some of his statements accept their importance. He compares them to a lamp which, even though placed in one place, illuminates the entire room (see supra, fn. 1, p. 119). Thus, a paribhāṣā stands in one place but whenever needed joins in defining the exact scope of application of operational rules. The question still remains, however, how a paribhāṣā finds its scope. How does it find the operational rule that it illuminates? Kaiyaṭa explains that a paribhāṣā is formulated with a built-in mark (linga) which in turn becomes its characteristic condition. In addition to this mark, a paribhāṣā also makes a provision for operation rules (Mbh. ad 2.1.1: lingopādānena paribhāṣā kriyamāṇā yatra tal lingopālambhas tat tadvyāpnoti...).

Since paribhāṣās are strictly intended for the proper application of operational rules, I shall discuss the nature of a few of them with reference to specific operations. Consider rules 1.1.46 through 1.1.56.

- 1.1.46 ādyantau ṭakitau
- 1.1.47 midaco' nīyāt paraḥ
- 1.1.48 ec ig hrasvādeśe
- 1.1.49 sasthī sthāne yogā
- 1.1.50 sthāne' ntaratamaḥ
- 1.1.51 uran raparah
- 1.1.52 alo' ntyasya
- 1.1.53 nic ca
- 1.1.54 ādeh parasya
- 1.1.55 anekāl-śit sarvasya
- 1.1.56 sthānivad ādeśo' nalvidhau

Rule 1.1.49 makes a provision whereby a genitive ending which is not interpretable otherwise in a given context is to be interpreted as meaning 'in place of'. This metarule facilitates identifying the sthanin 'substituendum' which a given substitute may replace. Thus, genitive becomes the characteristic mark (linga) for this paribhāṣā. Consider 7.3.52 cajoḥ ku... which, under certain conditions, orders KU (k, kh, g, gh, n; 1.1.69 an-udit...) as a substitute in place of c or j. We are faced with a problem here. There are five substitutes for two substituenda. Rule 1.1.50 resolves this by stating that a substitute must be most similar to the substituendum. As a result, we replace c by k and j by g. This maximum similarity is determined by their shared qualities (guna). Rule 1.1.51 provides that wherever aN (a, i, u) is ordered as a replacement for r it automatically must be followed by r. Consider kirati 'he is scattering (things) around', derived from kr + LAT $\rightarrow kr + tip \rightarrow kr + SaP + ti = kr + a + ti$ . Rule 7.1.100 rt id dhātoh orders i as a replacement for the r of kr. Since the replacement i is denoted by aN, i must be followed by r. Thus we get  $k(r \rightarrow ir) + a + ti = kirati$ .

Rule 1.1.52 provides that a substitute ordered for a *sthānin* in genitive should replace only its final sound segment (aL). However, 1.1.54 states that a substitute which consists of more than a single sound segment or which is marked with S should replace the entire *sthānin*. Rule 1.1.53 is an exception to this. According to 1.1.53, a substitute which consists of more than one sound segment and is marked with N also replaces only the final sound segment of its *sthānin*. Consider the derivation of the complex base *dvaimātura* 'he who has two mothers' where *divmātṛ* is a compound base formed from dvi + os + mātṛ + os. As usual, the genitive dual os will be deleted after compound formation yielding *dvaimātṛ* after which the affix aN will be introduced by 4.1.115 mātur ut samkhyā.... Note that in addition to introducing aN, this rule also requires a replacement in u for mātṛ. Needless to say, mātṛ is specified here in the genitive. Since u, the

substitute, does not consist of more than one sound segment, 1.1.52 will allow it to replace only the final r of matr. Thus,  $dvimatr + a(N \rightarrow \emptyset) \rightarrow dvimat(r \rightarrow ur) + a = dvimatur + a$ . Also note here that 1.1.51 uran raparah will require u, a replacement in aN, to be followed automatically by r. After the vrddhi replacement ai is introduced for the i of dvimatur + a, we get dvaimatura.

The derivation of  $m\bar{a}t\bar{a}pitarau$  'mother and father', a dvandva compound, proceeds from  $m\bar{a}tr + sU + pitr + sU = m\bar{a}trpitr$  after which the nominative dual ending au is introduced. Given the string  $m\bar{a}trpitr + au$ , the anga-final r will be replaced by guna followed automatically by r:  $m\bar{a}trpit(r \to ar) + au = m\bar{a}trpitar + au$ . In the meantime, 6.3.25  $\bar{a}nan$  rto dvandve... requires that r of  $m\bar{a}tr$  be replaced by  $\bar{a}n\bar{A}N$ . This substitute consists of more than one sound segment but is marked with N. Consequently it can replace only the final r of  $m\bar{a}tr$ . This will give us  $m\bar{a}t$   $(r \to \bar{a}n\bar{A}N)$   $pitr = m\bar{a}t\bar{a}npit(r \to ar) = m\bar{a}t\bar{a}npitar + au$ . The n, will be deleted later to yield  $m\bar{a}t\bar{a}pitarau$ .

It is clear from the preceding discussion that the above paribhāṣās are applicable to replacement operations. Our last rule, 1.1.56 sthānivad..., also is a paribhāṣā dealing with replacement. However, its provision is different. The rule in itself is complex, I shall not discuss it in detail here. Suffice it to say that this rule provides, with some restriction, for treating a substitute (ādeśa) as if it were its sthānin, so that operations characteristic of a given sthānin can still be performed even though it has been replaced.

Let us consider two other paribhāṣās with locative (saptamī) and ablative (pañcamī) as their marks.

1.1.66 tasminn iti nirdiste pūrvasya

'an item which is referred to by a locative ending is understood as the right context for operation on what precedes'

1.1.67 tasmād ity uttarasya

'an item which is referred to by an ablative ending is understood as the left context for operation on what follows'

Now consider the external sandhi between dadhi + atra which is allowed by 6.1.77 iko yan aci. The abbreviations iK and aC are in genitive and locative respectively. Clearly then, yN (y, v, r, l) is being introduced as a substitute in place of iK. This replacement, however, is applicable only when iK is followed by aC because of 1.1.66. Thus aC serves as the right context for yN replacement. For details of how y is selected as a replacement for i to yield dadhyatra 'there is yoghurt here', see the discussion of  $\bar{a}de\dot{s}a$  in section 1.3 of this chapter.

One may ask here, given an example of external sandhi in sudh $\bar{i}$  +  $up\bar{a}syah = sudhyup\bar{a}syah$  'respected by the learned', why isn't the u of su replaced by v before the  $\bar{i}$  of  $dh\bar{i}$  under the provisions of 6.1.77? After all, 1.1.66 only defines the right context, and 6.1.77 does not state explicitly

that aC should follow iK immediately. Moreover the locative in 1.1.66 tasminn... is aupaśleṣika denoting 'proximity' which need not mean contiguity. However, when we focus on nirdiṣṭe, another constituent of 1.1.66 in the locative, we get the correct interpretation. The root diś is used in the sense of pronunciation and hence nirdiṣṭe means 'when pronounced contiguously'. Thus nirdiṣṭe qualifies tasmin to yield the meaning of contiguity.

The same is true about the ablative of 1.1.67. This rule specifies the left context of an operation. We know from 1.1.67 that when an operation is specified by a term in the ablative, it obtains on a following item. Consider the derivation of  $\bar{a}s\bar{i}nah$  'sitting' from  $\bar{a}s + (LA\bar{T} \rightarrow \bar{a}na) = \bar{a}s + \bar{a}na$  where 7.2.83  $\bar{i}d$   $\bar{a}sah$  applies. This rule requires that  $\bar{a}na$  be replaced by  $\bar{i}$ . The word  $\bar{a}sah$  is in the ablative and hence the replacement operation should be applicable to  $\bar{a}na$  which follows  $\bar{a}s$ . However, this rule also carries the anuviti of  $\bar{a}ne$  from 7.2.82  $\bar{a}ne$  muk where  $\bar{a}ne$  is in the locative. Two questions must be answered here.

- (a) Which specification should be treated as decisive for the replacement operation, the ablative of  $\bar{a}sah$  or the locative of  $\bar{a}ne$ ?
- (b) Should *ī* replace the *sthānin* in its entirety?

If we follow the ablative specification,  $\bar{a}na$  will serve as the locus of operation. However, if we follow the locative,  $\bar{a}sa$  becomes the locus. If we follow both, there is no locus at all. Here the tradition invokes another paribhāṣā, ubhayanirdeśe pañcamīnirdeśo baliyān (see chapter 7, number 71). This paribhāṣā tells us that when specifications in the ablative and in the locative are both available, specification made by the ablative is stronger. This will clear the way for āna to be the locus of the replacement by  $\bar{\imath}$ . It will further cause the locative of āne, the element carried from the preceding rule, to be interpreted as genitive. This practice of transposition of inflectional endings (vibhaktiviparināma) dictated by the context (prakaraṇa) is standard practice in Pāṇinian parlance. Now we can return to question (b) above. What answers this question is 1.1.54 ādeḥ parasya which states that operations specified by the ablative obtain only on the initial sound segment (aL) of what follows. Given this rule,  $\bar{\imath}$  will replace only the  $\bar{a}$  of  $\bar{a}na$  which follows  $\bar{a}sa$ . Thus,  $\bar{a}sa + (\bar{a} \rightarrow \bar{\imath})na = \bar{a}s\bar{\imath}na$ .

The above paribhāṣās relate basically to replacement. There are also two major paribhāṣās relating to augments. They are 1.1.46 ādyantau ṭakitau and 1.1.47 mid aco 'ntyāt paraḥ whereby we learn that an augment marked with T is introduced as initial element to an item specified in the genitive and an augment marked with T is introduced as final element. However, if an augment is marked with T0, it is introduced after the last vowel of that for which it is specified.

It is interesting to note that these two rules can also be viewed as exceptions to 1.1.49 saṣṭhī sthāneyogā. Consider the derivation of kaṇṭtā 'he will go

tomorrow' from  $kan + (LUT \rightarrow t\bar{a}s) + (ti \rightarrow (D)\bar{a}) = kan + t\bar{a}s + \bar{a}$  where 7.2.35  $\bar{a}rdhadh\bar{a}tukasy...$  applies. This rule introduces the augment iT with reference to an  $\bar{a}rdhadh\bar{a}tuka$  affix marked with genitive. In the string in question,  $t\bar{a}s$  is such an affix. If we follow 1.1.49, we will have to let iT replace  $t\bar{a}s$ , or rather, in view of 1.1.52 alo 'ntyasya, let it replace the final s of  $t\bar{a}s$ . However, since the augment iT is marked with T it can be introduced only as an initial element of  $t\bar{a}s$ . Similarly, in the derivation of  $t\bar{a}s$  payat, nominative plural of neuter payas 'milk', from payas t (t) as t = payas + as, rule 7.1.72 napumsakasya... introduces the augment t nUM. The reference for this introduction again is genitive. However, since t nUM is marked with t0, it can be introduced only after the final vowel of payas. Thus we get t1 as which ultimately yields t2 payāmsi.

Note also that certain items marked with M may involve an exception to rules 3.1.1 pratyayah and 3.1.2 paras ca. For example, consider 3.1.78 rudhādibhyah snam which introduces the vikaraṇa SnaM after roots of the rudhādi class when a sārvadhātuka affix denoting agent follows. Now consider the derivation of bhinatti 'he breaks or splits something' where bhid belongs to the rudhādi class. Given the string bhid + ti where ti is a sārvadhātuka affix which denotes agent and has replaced LAT, 3.1.78 will introduce SnaM. According to 3.1.2 paras ca read with 3.1.91 dhātoh, SnaM should be introduced after the root. However, since SnaM is marked with M, 1.1.47 mid aco' ntyāt parah requires that it be introduced after the last vowel of the root. Thus we get bhi + SnaM + d + ti.

It has been stated already that apavāda 'exception' niṣedha 'negation', niṣama 'restriction', atideśa 'extension' and vibhāṣā 'option' are rule types which can be found among samjñā, paribhāṣā and vidhi rules. Consider, for example, the following set of rules.

- 1.1.27 sarvādīni sarvanāmāni
- 1.1.28 vibhāsā dik-samāse bahuvrīhau
- 1.1.29 na bahuvrīhau

The last two rules are exceptions (apavāda) to the first which assigns the term sarvanāman to items enumerated in the list headed by sarva 'all'. Rule 1.1.28 is an exception to 1.1.27 in the sense that what 1.1.27 obligatorily provides (nitya) becomes optional. However, the scope of this option is severely restricted. As is clear from the negation in 1.1.29, sarva cannot be termed sarvanāman in a bahuvrīhi compound. However, if a bahuvrīhi compound is formed from constituents denoting diś 'direction', sarva optionally may be termed sarvanāman. Thus, 1.1.28 makes the provision of 1.1.27 optional, though in a restricted manner while 1.1.29 obligatorily negates it elsewhere. Some aspects of exception (apavāda) rules have already been discussed under operational and interpretation rules. Here let us briefly examine niṣedha, atideśa and vibhāsa rules.

#### (2.3) Negation (nisedha)

Negation traditionally has been classified into two types: paryudāsa and prasajya. The Mahābhāṣya and subsequent commentaries have extensively discussed these two aspects in connection with various rules. A detailed discussion of negation can be found in Cardona (1967). I shall briefly illustrate these types with examples from Pāṇini's rules. First, however, the basic characteristics of the paryudāsa and prasajya views of negation must be explained.

The distinctiveness of the two types stems from the two meanings of the negative particle naÑ: bheda 'difference' and abhāva 'absence'. The bheda meaning of  $na\tilde{N}$  is found in paryudāsa while abhāva is attached to prasajya. Consider the sentence abrāhmanam ānaya 'bring (someone) other than a  $br\bar{a}hmana$ ' where what is negated by a (a replacement of  $na\tilde{N}$ ) in  $abr\bar{a}hmana$ is a brāhmaṇa; one should bring someone other than a brāhmaṇa. Thus, what is negated here is the following constituent of the compound. The act of bringing itself is not negated. Furthermore, simply because brāhmana is negated does not mean that qualities other than brāhmanattva 'brāhmaṇaness' are negated. Simply because one is asked to bring someone other than a brāhmana does not mean that one can bring an animal. Whatever is to be associated with an action must be similar, at least generically, to what has been negated by paryudāsa. In the above example one can only bring a human being who is not a brāhmaṇa. In short, paryudāsa does not negate an action but negates the following constituent of a negative compound with the assumption that whatever is to be associated with the action must be generically similar to that which was negated.

Let us consider the sentence anṛtaṃ na vaktavyam 'non-truth should not be spoken'. The na here negates an action. What is provided by vaktavyam 'should be spoken' is negated by na. The meaning na here is that of abhāva 'absence'. This makes niṣedha principal and vidhi 'whatever is provided' secondary. Abhāva presumes bhāva 'presence'; in view of this, prasajya negates whatever has been tentatively provided for by the action. This distinction is very important for the correct understanding of Pāṇinian rules involving negation.

The above two sentences clearly illustrate the distinction between paryudāsa and prasajya. In abrāhmaṇam ānaya, the negation is accomplished by a which is the first constituent of a negative compound. As opposed to this, the negation in anṛtaṃ na vaktavyam is accomplished by na which is not part of any compound. In the expression asūryaṃ paśyāni mukhāni where the a of asūryam renders the negation, the meaning is prasajya or absence. The interpretation here is sūryaṃ na paśyanti yāni mukhāni 'the faces which do not see the sun'.

Consider the following rules.

- 1.1.42 śi sarvanāmasthānam
- 1.1.143 sud anapumsakasya

The first rule states that Si (a replacement for nominative/accusative plural Jas and Sas after neuter) is termed sarvanāmasthāna. The second rule states that a non-neuter sUT (sU, au, Jas; am, aut: the singular, dual and plural nominative and singular and dual accusative endings) is termed sarvanāmasthāna. The word anapumsakasya has the negative naÑ. The Mahābhāsya discusses its twofold interpretation. According to a prasajya reading, one would interpret 1.1.43 as a rule split in two: sut sarvanāmasthānam bhavati, and napumsakasya na bhavati. This interpretation will create two problems. The compound anapumsakasya will not be considered syntactically related (samartha) because naÑ will not be syntactically related to napumsaka; instead, it will be related to bhavati. Secondly, the sarvanāmasthāna designation of Si of 1.1.42 will be blocked. This second problem can be resolved by invoking paribhāṣā 62, anantarasya vidhir bhavati pratisedho vā, whereby we learn that an operation or cancellation obtains only with reference to the most immediate rule. Thus, the second interpretation of 1.1.43, napumsakasya na bhavati, can only negate the first interpretation of 1.1.43, sut sarvanāmasthānam bhavati, and not 1.1.42 since that will not be most immediate.

Rule 1.1.43 may also be interpreted with reference to anapuṃsakasya as a paryudāsa. According to this view, 1.1.43 will be interpreted as suḍ anapuṃsakasya (napuṃsakabhinnasya) sarvanāmasaṃjñaṃ bhavati 'sUṬ, other than one related to a neuter, is termed sarvanāmasthāna'. Notice that in this interpretation, the focus is on something other than a neuter. Consequently for its application, 1.1.43 will be looking for something other than a neuter. Hence the neuter Si of 1.1.42 will be thrown outside the scope of the negation. Rule 1.1.43 now will not negate the assignment of sarvanāmasthāna in neuter but will assign sarvanāmasthāna for something other than a neuter. If some other rule, such as 1.1.42, does assign sarvanāmasthāna in neuter, that will not be negated.

The preceding discussion shows that both interpretations can accomplish the desired results. However, the *prasajya* interpretation lacks economy (*lāghava*). It involves splitting 1.1.43 and requires invoking *paribhāṣā* 62. Commentators prefer a *paryudāsa* interpretation.

#### (2.4) Extension (atidesa)

Commentators consider a rule atideśa 'extension' if it transfers certain qualities or operations to something for which they did not previously qualify. The function of an extension rule is thus to widen the scope of application of a technical or operation rule. Normally an atideśa rule is formulated by the affix vatI; consider, for example, 1.1.56 sthānivad ādeśo 'nalvidhau. An atideśa rule where vatI is expressly mentioned is called śrutātideśa. A rule where vatI is not expressly mentioned but its meaning is implicit is called arthātideśa. For example in 1.2.5 asamyogāl liṭ kit, the

meaning of vatI, i.e., atasmin tadbuddhih 'cognition of x in y where x is not' is implicit.

There are yet other classifications of atideśa rules: samjñātideśa 'extension of term', sthānyātideśa 'extension of sthānin' and yuktātideśa 'extension of same status', for example. These types are illustrated by 1.2.5 asamyogāl liṭ kit, 1.1.56 sthānivad ādeśo' nalvidhau and 1.2.51 lupi yuktavad vyaktivacane respectively. Rule 1.2.5 provides for certain affixes to be termed kit. Rule 1.1.56 extends the status of a sthānin 'substituendum' to its ādeśa 'substitute'. Rule 1.2.51 allows the retention of the number and gender (vyaktivacana) of the original base in situations where a taddhita affix is deleted by LUP.

Extension rules generally are classified into different categories depending on their function, such as kāryātideśa 'extension of function' or rūpātideśa 'extension of form'. Four other types are distinguished based upon what an atidesa rule provides for: sāstrātidesa 'extension of a rule', tādātmyātideśa 'extension of identity', nimittātideśa 'extension of condition' and vyapadeśātideśa 'extension of appellation'. An example of kāryātīdeśa is 1.1.21 ādyantavad ekasmin whereby we learn that operations specific to the initial (ādi) or final (antya) element of a given unit obtain even on the single element of a unit which consists only of that one element. Consider the derivation of ābhyām, the instrumental, dative or ablative dual of idam 'this', where 7.3.102 supi ca applies at a stage when the string is  $a + bhy\bar{a}m$ . Rule 7.3.102 requires that the final a of  $a + bhy\bar{a}m$  be replaced by its corresponding long vowel ( $d\bar{\imath}rgha$ ) when a sUP which begins with yN (y, v, r, l...) follows. Now the anga in  $a + bhy\bar{a}m$  is not a unit which ends in a. It is a unit which is constituted by a. Since initial and final are relative terms and also since a single unit cannot be understood as constituting its initial or final by itself, rule 1.1.21 is needed. Thus a of  $a + bhy\bar{a}m$  can be treated as its own final. This clears the way for its replacement by  $\bar{a}$  to yield  $\bar{a}bhy\bar{a}m$ . Another instance of kāryātideśa is 1.1.62 pratyayalope pratyayalaksanam whereby, barring some exceptions, operations specific to an affix obtain even when the affix is deleted. Note here that 1.1.21 may also be treated as vyapadeśātideśa. However, since kārya 'operation' is principal, vyapadeśātideśa is subsumed under kāryātideśa.

 $R\bar{u}p\bar{a}tide\acute{s}a$  allows a given form x to have a form y for an operation to take place. Consider the derivation of papatuh 'they (two) protected' which is derived from  $p\bar{a} + LI\bar{T}$ .  $LI\bar{T}$  is replaced by tas 'third person dual' which, in turn, is replaced by atus. Given the string  $p\bar{a} + atus$ , 6.4.64  $\bar{a}to$  lopa... deletes the  $\bar{a}$  of  $p\bar{a}$ . Consequently, the string is reduced to p + atus. Rule 6.1.8 lipi  $dh\bar{a}tor$ ... must now apply to order doubling. However, since doubling is ordered with reference to the first vowel of the root and that vowel has been deleted, doubling cannot take place. To resolve this difficulty, 1.1.59 dvirvacane' ci extends the form  $\bar{a}$  to zero  $(\emptyset$ , deletion) which had replaced

the  $\bar{a}$ . Thus, for purposes of doubling,  $p\emptyset + atus$  will be treated as having the form  $p\bar{a} + atus$ . This will yield  $p\bar{a} + p\bar{a} + atus$ , as doubling takes effect. Immediately thereafter  $p\bar{a} + p\bar{a} + atus$  must forever be treated as  $p\bar{a} + p + atus = p\bar{a}patus$ . The scope of  $r\bar{u}p\bar{a}tidesa$  is highly restrictive compared to the scope of  $k\bar{a}ry\bar{a}tidesa$ . It should also be remembered that in all these types of atidesa, it is the  $k\bar{a}rya$  'operation' which is the focus. As a result, atidesa in general can be looked upon as  $k\bar{a}ry\bar{a}tidesa$ .

Śāstrātideśa provides for the extension of application of a given rule to items referenced by a different rule. Consider 4.2.34 kālebhyo bhavavat which introduces taddhita affixes after stems denoting kāla 'time' under the meaning condition sāsya devatā '... is the deity of'. The introduction of these affixes is further constrained by the qualifier bhavavat 'in a manner similar to bhava'. This apparently refers to the domain of 4.2.92 śeṣe. That is, whatever affixes are introduced after bases denoting kāla in the domain of 4.2.92, the same affixes along with their qualifications may be introduced after the same time-denoting bases to denote sāsya devatā under the provisions of 4.2.34. This is clearly an instance of transfer of rule (śāstrātideśa).

Rule 2.1.2 sub āmantrite parānavat svare can be considered an example of tādātmyātideśa. This rule states that for purposes of accent, a preceding pada is treated as part of a following pada provided this latter ends in vocative singular (āmantrita). Given the string madrāṇām rājan 'O king of the Madra' where rājan is in the vocative singular following madrāṇām, madrāṇām will be treated as part of rājan. Madrāṇām rājan will be treated as one pada and 6.1.198 āmantritasya ca will assign an initial udātta accent (ādyudātta). In the absence of 2.1.2, rājan would have received anudātta.

Rule 1.3.62 pūrvavat sanaḥ exemplifies nimittātideśa. This rule states that the conditions under which a root, while not ending in saN, receives ātmanepada, are extended so that the root receives ātmanepada even when it ends in a saN. Consider śiśayiṣate 'he wishes to recline' which is derived by introducing the affix saN after the verbal root śī $\dot{N}$ . Now, śī $\dot{N}$  takes ātmanepada endings because it is marked with  $\dot{N}$  (1.3.12 anudāttanita...).  $\dot{N}$  is the nimitta which conditions the occurrence of ātmanepada after śī $\dot{N}$ . Rule 1.3.62 extends this nimitta to the saN derivates of this root.

#### (2.5) Option (vibhāsā)

Rule 1.1.44 na veti vibhāṣā defines vibhāṣā as the meaning of na vā 'or not'. There are three types of vibhāṣā: prāpte whereby something provided as obligatory (nitya) is made optional, aprāpte whereby something not provided for is provided optionally and ubhayatra where both prāpte and aprāpte provisions are made optional. Rule 1.3.77 vibhaṣopapadena pratīyamāne, for example, optionally introduces ātmanepada endings. This option is constrained by two factors. First, the root which qualifies for this

option must co-occur with another pada, and second, the co-occurring pada must indicate that the fruit of the action accrues to the agent. Thus, one gets sentences such as svam kaṭam kurute 'he is making a mat for himself' where the co-occurring pada svam 'his own' indicates that the fruit of the action, here a mat, is intended for the agent. This makes karoti, the use of parasmaipada, or kurute, the use of ātmanepada optional. Remember that rules 1.3.72 svaritanitah... through 1.3.76 anupasargāj jnāh provide for ātmanepada endings obligatorily (nitya). Rule 1.3.77 makes that obligatory provision optional.

For an example of aprāpte vibhāsā, consider rule 1.2.3 vibhāsorņoh. This rule states that an affix with initial iT optionally is treated as marked with  $\dot{N}$  if it occurs after the verb root  $urnu\tilde{N}$  'to cover'. This option will yield two forms: prornuvitā and prornavitā 'he who is to cover', both derived from the underlying string pra + urnu + i + tr. The affix with initial iT is trC. The a of pra and the u of urnu will be replaced by a single guna vowel to yield prornu. Given the string prornu + i + tr, the u of prornu will either be replaced by its guna counterpart o or else by uvaN, depending on whether or not i + tr is treated as marked with N. This is the option which 1.2.3 provides. Note in this context that 1.1.5 kniti ca disallows any guna or vrddhi replacements if those replacements are conditioned by an affix marked with K, G or N. A guna replacement optionally will be available under the provisions of 1.2.3. Thus, what was aprapta 'not provided for' by 1.1.5 became prāpta 'optionally available'. If the string prornu + i + tr opts for treating i + tr as marked with  $\dot{N}$ , a replacement of u by 7.3.84 sārvadhātuka... will be blocked. Rule 6.4.77 aciśnudhātu..., read with 1.1.53 nic ca, will then apply to replace u with uvaN: prom( $u \to uv$ )  $(\bar{A}N \to \emptyset) + i + tr$ = promuvitr. If, on the other hand, i + tr is not treated as marked with N, u will be replaced by o which, in turn, will be replaced by av by 6.1.78 eco 'yavāyāvah to yield  $prorn(u \rightarrow o \rightarrow av) + i + tr = prornavitr$ .

If, however, the samprasāraṇa option of 6.1.30 is not accepted, the result will be śiśvāya. In this case, doubling will yield śvi + śvi + a where i of the second śvi will undergo vṛddhi. The resulting ai will then be replaced by āy:  $\dot{s}vi + \dot{s}v(i \rightarrow ai \rightarrow \bar{a}y) + a = \dot{s}vi + \dot{s}v\bar{a}y + a = \dot{s}vi\dot{s}v\bar{a}ya$ . The v of śvi will be dropped by 7.4.60 halādi śeṣaḥ to finally yield śiśvāya. Note here that the two previous types of vibhāṣā were illustrated by explaining how a provision which was available (prāpta) was made optional, and how a provision which was not available (aprāpta) optionally was made available. It is natural then that I now explain how 6.1.30 provides option with reference to both prāpta and aprāpta-vibhāṣā.

Rule 1.1.44 defines the meaning of na 'negation' and  $v\bar{a}$  'option' as vibhāṣā. A question is raised in the Mahābhāṣya (I:324) whether the expression navā in this rule should be interpreted as one particle (nipāta) navā or two particles na and  $v\bar{a}$ . If we read it as one particle it can only give us the meaning of negation, as is attested by the usage grāmo bhavatā gantavyo navā 'will you go to the village or not'. If this negation then becomes the meaning of vibhāṣā it can only provide options in cases of aprāpta-vibhāṣā. On the other hand, one may argue that the question of a negative interpretation does not arise in aprāpta cases, since it is ridiculous to negate a provision when no such provision is available. To resolve this problem and also to justify the function of navā in aprāpta cases, one has to resort to a prasajya view of negation. That is, the very fact that a negative provision is made implies that a positive provision exists. How else can one make a negative provision without having a positive one first? Thus in the aprāpta cases, first a positive provision will be implicitly assumed and then a negative option will be made.

However, this negative  $nav\bar{a}$  interpretation cannot work in instances of  $pr\bar{a}pta-vibh\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ , since a positive provision is explicitly stated, and the question of its implicit assumption for purposes of negation cannot arise. Consequently, negation will simply cancel the positive provision and the result will be a single form. In order to clear this up, Patañjali states (Mbh. I:326-27) that  $nav\bar{a}$  should not be interpreted as one particle with a negative meaning but as two particles na and  $v\bar{a}$  meaning negation and option respectively. With this interpretation, the negative na will not have any purpose in  $apr\bar{a}pta-vibh\bar{a}s\bar{a}$ , but,  $v\bar{a}$  will provide two optional forms. This interpretation will also work in instances of  $pr\bar{a}pt\bar{a}pr\bar{a}pta-vibh\bar{a}s\bar{a}$  where na will first negate  $pr\bar{a}pta$  thereby bringing  $pr\bar{a}pta$  and  $apr\bar{a}pta$  on a par. Consequently,  $v\bar{a}$  will apply to provide the optional forms. The only condition is that na must negate first before  $v\bar{a}$  provides the options.

Let us see how 6.1.30 vibhāṣā śveḥ is interpretable in terms of the three vibhāṣās. It can be interpreted as an instance of prāpta vibhāṣā if one carries, through anuvṛtti, the word kit 'marked with K' from 6.1.15 vacisvapi.... As a result, the obligatory samprasāraṇa which is ruled by 6.1.15 will be made

optional by 6.1.30. On the other hand, if kit is not brought by anuvṛtti and the optional samprasāraṇa is interpreted as applicable to all the LIŢ instances, whether they be kit or akit 'not marked with K', with the additional stipulation that the now available optional samprasāraṇa of kit will be blocked by 6.1.15 which will act as prior exception to 6.1.30, we find an instance of prāptāprāpta or ubhayatra-vibhāṣā. Thus, an instance of LIṬ marked by kit will receive obligatory samprasāraṇa by 6.1.15 via this stipulation. Kit instances will have samprasāraṇa as prāpta while those of akit will have it as aprāpta. This would then mean that na will first negate the prāpta samprasāraṇa of kit which subsequently vā will make optional. As far as akit samprasāraṇa goes, na would not have any purpose. It is vā which would provide the option.

Commentators also refer to yet another type of vibhāṣā commonly known as vyavasthita-vibhāsā 'fixed option'. This option applies only to some limited forms. The generally accepted view is that vyavasthita-vibhāṣā offers vidhi 'operation' by vā or niṣedha 'negation' by na only with reference to specific examples. Rule 6.1.27 śrtam pāke is an instance of this type of vibhāsā. This rule provides the ad hoc (nipātana) derivation of the word śṛtam when pāka 'cooking' is denoted. The underlying root for śṛtam is śrā 'to cook'. What 6.1.27 provides is this: root śrā optionally takes the form śr when affix Kta follows, whether or not śrā ends in affix niC. If we interpret the vibhāṣā carried from 6.1.27 as a general option under the particular meaning condition  $p\bar{a}ka$ , all the occurrences of  $\hat{s}r\bar{a}$  will be replaced by  $\hat{s}r$ only in the context of kṣīra and havi. Thus we get śṛtam kṣīram 'the rice pudding is cooked' and srtam havih 'the food for ritual oblation is cooked'. However if what is cooked is not ksīra or havi, śrā will not be replaced by śr. Other instances of vyavasthita-vibhāṣā are provided by 2.4.55 ajer vyaghañapoḥ, 3.2.124 latah śatrśānacāv... and 1.4.5 vāmi.

Pāṇini also uses  $v\bar{a}$  and anyatarasyām in the sense of vibhāṣā. The names of earlier grammarians, too, are sometimes mentioned to indicate options. Thus, rules 2.4.40 lity anyatarasyām, 2.4.50 vibhāṣā lunlṛnoḥ, 2.4.55 vā liṭi and 8.3.19 lopaḥ śākalyasya all use different terms to provide for optionality. There is considerable debate whether or not Pāṇini intended to differentiate types of options by using these various terms. One would expect that since he uses more than one term for option, he must have some special differentiations in mind. A recent interpreter of Pāṇini has tried to establish some kind of variation in dialect or style based upon the use of the various terms. However, the tradition does not accept this view. For contemporary studies dealing with optional rules and establishing stylistic variations corresponding to the above terms for option, see Kiparsky (1980) and Sharma (1983). It should be understood in this context that optional variants should not be treated as substandard or incorrect. In Pāṇini's eyes they are all equally correct. Since grammar only

accounts for correct usage, the question of standard and substandard or preferred and incorrect variants does not arise.

Optional rules where Pāṇini uses names of earlier grammarians need some explanation. There are two views on this. According to one view, the citation of a grammarian's name in a given rule is interpreted as a reference to an authority (pramāṇa). As a result, the form attested by that rule becomes an obligatory form and not an option. According to the second view, such a citation would single out one grammarian according to whom a given form is attested. This interpretation allows for the existence of other forms to which other grammarians may attest. This interpretation clearly supports the view that rules with names of grammarians are option rules. The first view is known as kāryaśabdavāda, the second nityaśabdavāda. The Pāṇinian tradition subscribes to the second view.

There are instances of rules where the name of a grammarian is cited along with the use of  $v\bar{a}$ , one of the terms which Pāṇini uses to denote option. Consider  $6.1.92 \ v\bar{a} \ supy \ \bar{a}piśale h$ .  $K\bar{a}\acute{s}ik\bar{a}$  clearly states that in these instances  $v\bar{a}$  will provide for option. Why then did Pāṇini use the name of  $\bar{A}pi\acute{s}ali$  when  $v\bar{a}$  is already there to account for the option?  $K\bar{a}\acute{s}ik\bar{a}$  says that by citing  $\bar{A}pi\acute{s}ali$  along with  $v\bar{a}$ , Pāṇini intends to express respect for  $\bar{A}pi\acute{s}ali$  ( $K\bar{a}\acute{s}$ . ad  $6.1.92 \ \bar{a}pi\acute{s}aligrahaṇaṃ pūj\bar{a}rthaṃ vety ucyata eva$ ). Rules such as  $1.2.55 \ trsimrsikrseh$   $k\bar{a}\acute{s}yapasya$ ,  $5.4.112 \ gire\acute{s}$  ca senakasya, 6.1.123 avan sphoṭāyanasya and  $6.3.61 \ iko$  hrasvo' nyor gālavasya are additional examples of this nature.

#### (2.6) Ad hoc (nipātana)

Pāṇini uses a considerable number of rules which collectively are referred to as nipātana 'ad hoc' rules. Their function is to provide forms not with reference to their derivation process but simply as derived. That is, while operational rules allow us to visualize the full derivational process, ad hoc rules only provide the fully derived forms. Their constituents and derivational process are left to the imagination (see Kaiyaṭa ad 5.1.59; Mbh. IV:47) vidhi nipātanayoś cāyaṃ bhedaḥ, yatrāvayavā nirdiśyante samudāyo' numīyate sa vidhiḥ. yatra tu samudāyaḥ śrūyate' vayavāś cānumīyante tan nipātanam). Thus, Pāṇini provides certain fully derived forms without mentioning their derivation. Why — primarily for economy and to avoid conflicts with other operational rules. Normally a form which is not derivable by rules of the grammar is treated as if it were derived through nipātana (see Kāś. ad 3.1.123 yad iha lakṣaṇenānupapannaṃ tat sarvaṃ nipātanāt siddham).

Three goals are accomplished by the ad hoc rules:

- (a) they provide for something which is not available by any other rule (aprāptiprāpaṇa),
- (b) they block a provision made available by some rule (prāptivāraṇa), and

(c) they indicate special meaning (adhikārthavivakṣā). In addition, nipātana are manipulated to provide for option (vibhāṣā: see Kāś. ad 7.2.27 vā dāntaśānta...). However, this purpose can be subsumed under aprāptiprāpaṇa above. These three provisions are made by ad hoc rules in various areas, including affixation (pratyaya), replacement (ādeśa), augment (āgama), doubling (dvirvacana) and transposition in the shape of a base (prakṛtivipariṇāma).

The following rules exemplify the range of nipātanas.

6.1.154 maskaram-maskarinau venu-parivrājakayoh

3.1.129 *pāyya-sānāyya*...

3.2.26 phalegrahir ātmambhariś ca

3.2.59 rtvig dadhṛk...

7.2.30 apacitas ca

Rule 6.1.154 is an example of nipātana involving affixes. Two examples, maskara 'a bamboo stick' and maskarin 'a wandering ascetic', are both derived from  $m\bar{a}\dot{N} + DUkr\bar{N} = m\bar{a} + kr$  where  $m\bar{a}\dot{N}$  is a preverb. In case of maskara, the affix is aC whereas for maskarin it is in I. Given the strings  $m\bar{a} + kr + a$  and  $m\bar{a} + kr + in$ , augment  $s\bar{U}T$  will be introduced to yield  $m\bar{a} + s$  ( $\bar{U}\bar{T} \to \emptyset$ )  $+ kr + a = m\bar{a}s + kr + a$  and  $m\bar{a}s + kr + in$ . The r of kr will undergo guṇa and the  $\bar{a}$  of  $m\bar{a}$  will be shortened. Thus we will get  $m(\bar{a} \to a)s + k(r \to ar) + a = maskara$  and  $m(\bar{a} \to a)s + k(r \to ar) + in = maskarin$ . Note here that the derivation above is being given for explanatory reasons. Actually, affix placement,  $s\bar{U}\bar{T}$  augment and shortening of the  $\bar{a}$  are all accomplished by nipātana. That is, Pāṇini cites them as derived under the special meaning condition of veņu 'bamboo stick' and parivrājaka 'wandering ascetic'. Affix placement and other operations are all taken for granted.

Rule 3.1.129  $p\bar{a}yya$ - $s\bar{a}nn\bar{a}yya$ ... also cites four forms derived by  $nip\bar{a}tana$  under special meaning conditions. Consider, for example,  $p\bar{a}yya$  'a measure of weight' and  $s\bar{a}nn\bar{a}yya$  'ritual oblation of food' which respectively are derived from the underlying strings  $m\bar{a}N + NyaT$  and  $sam + n\bar{\imath}N + NyaT$ . What  $nip\bar{a}tana$  does in  $m\bar{a}N + NyaT = m\bar{a} + ya$  is to replace m by p. Such a replacement cannot be accomplished by any other rule. Given the string  $(m \to p)\bar{a} + ya$ , 7.3.33  $\bar{a}to$  yuk... will introduce  $y\bar{U}K$  to yield  $p\bar{a} + y(\bar{U}K \to \emptyset) + ya = p\bar{a}yya$ . The function of  $nip\bar{a}tana$  in  $s\bar{a}nn\bar{a}yya$  again is replacement. Given the string  $sam + n\bar{\imath} + ya$ , a of sam will be replaced by  $\bar{a}$ . Furthermore,  $\bar{\imath}$  of  $n\bar{\imath}$  will be replaced by the vrddhi vowel ai. Thus we get  $s(a \to \bar{a})m + n(\bar{\imath} \to ai) + ya = s\bar{a}m + nai + ya$ . The basic function of a  $nip\bar{a}tana$  is now evident. Here, it will replace the ai of nai by nai nai by nai nai by nai by

Rule 3.2.26 phale grāhir... illustrates, among other things, the application of augment  $m\tilde{U}M$  by  $nip\bar{a}tana$ . An example is  $\bar{a}tmanbharih$  'he who is able to support himself' where given the string  $\bar{a}tman + am + DUbhr\tilde{N} + iN = \bar{a}tman + bhr + i$ ,  $\bar{a}tman$  receives the augment  $m(\tilde{U}M)$  by  $nip\bar{a}tana$ .

Note that the affix iN is also introduced after verbal root  $DUbhr\tilde{N}$  by  $nip\bar{a}tana$ . Of course, this occurs under the condition that there is a co-occurring pada underlying  $\bar{a}tman$  and denoting object. Thus,  $\bar{a}tma(n \to \emptyset) + m(\bar{U}M \to \emptyset + bh(r \to ar) + i = \bar{a}tmambhari$ .

Rule 7.2.30 apacitas ca illustrates how the shape of a base can be transposed via nipātana. Consider the derivation of apacita 'respected' from apa  $+ c\bar{a}yR + Kta$  where Kta is a niṣṭhā (1.1.26 ktaktavatū niṣṭhā) suffix introduced after the verbal root  $c\bar{a}yR$  used with the preverb apa. Given the string  $apa + c\bar{a}y(R \to \emptyset) + (K \to \emptyset)ta = apac\bar{a}y + ta$ , 7.2.30 optionally will rule two things: the change of the  $c\bar{a}y$  form of the root to ci and the disallowing of the augment iT. This will produce the form  $apa(c\bar{a}y \to ci) + ta = apacita$ . If the option allowed by nipātana is not accepted, the root will not take the form ci and iT will apply. This will yield the optional form  $apac\bar{a}y + i(t \to \emptyset) + ta = apac\bar{a}yita$ . It should be clear from this discussion that the purpose of nipātana is to accomplish a variety of tasks without systematically following specific rules.

# Samjñās and Paribhāṣās

The following is a select list of the samjñās and paribhāṣās which receive frequent reference in this volume. Exceptions to and elaborations of these definitions are not given here. However, both the first and last rules of the section of the grammar which treats the term being defined are given in the parentheses in order to facilitate easy reference to the rules where that term is more fully discussed.

# A. SAMJÑĀS

- 1. vṛddhi (1.1.1 vṛddhir ādaic) ā, ai and au
- 2. guṇa (1.1.2 aden guṇaḥ) a, e and o
- 3. saṃyoga (1.1.7 halo 'nantarā saṃyogaḥ) a sequence of consonants
- 4. anunāsika (1.1.8 mukhanāsikāvacano 'nunāsikaḥ) a sound pronounced in the mouth and nose at once
- 5. savarṇa (1.1.9 tulyāyasya prayatnaṃ savarṇam 1.1.10 nājjhalau) two or more sounds pronounced with the same articulation effort (pratyatna) at the same place of articulation (sthāna) in the oral cavity
- 6. pragrhya (1.1.11 īdūded-dvivacanam pragrhyam 1.1.19 id-ūtau ca saptamyarthe)
- a dual ending terminating in  $\bar{i}$ ,  $\bar{u}$  or e
- 7. ghu (1.1.20  $d\bar{a}dh\bar{a}ghv$   $ad\bar{a}p$ ) roots of the form  $d\bar{a}$  and  $dh\bar{a}$ , except for  $d\bar{a}P$  'to cut' and daiP 'to clean'
- 8. gha (1.1.22 taraptamapau ghaḥ) affixes -taraP (5.3.57 dvivacana...) and -tamaP (5.3.55-56 atiśāyane...)
- 9. saṃkhyā (1.1.23 bahugaṇavatuḍati saṃkhyā) bahu 'many', gaṇa 'group' and items ending in the affixes vatU (5.2.39 yattadetebhyaḥ...) and Dati (5.2.41 kimaḥ...)
- 10. şat (1.1.24 şṇāntā ṣat 1.1.25 dati ca) a samkhyā which ends in ş or n
- 11. niṣṭhā (1.1.26 ktaktavatū niṣṭhā) affixes Kta and KtavatU (3.2.102 niṣṭhā)
- 12. sarvanāman (1.1.27 sarvādīni sarvanāmāni 1.1.38 antaram...) items listed in the set (gaṇa) headed by sarva 'all'

- 13. avyaya (1.1.37 svarādi nipātam avyavayam 1.1.41 avyayībhāvaś ca) items listed in the set headed by svar 'sun, heaven' and those termed nipāta (1.1.56 prāg rīśvarāran nipātāḥ)
- 14. sarvanāmasthāna (1.1.42 śi sarvanāmasthānam 1.1.43 suḍ anapuṃ-sakasya)
  - Śi, a replacement for Jas and Śas after a neuter base, (cf. 7.1.20 jaśśasoh śi); also su T (sU, au, Jas; am, au T) occurring after a non-neuter base
- 15. vibhāṣā (1.1.44 na veti vibhāṣā) the meaning of na vā 'or not'
- 16. samprasāraņa (1.1.45 ig yaṇaḥ samprasāraṇam) replacement of yN(y, v, r, l) by iK(i, u, r, l)
- 17. lopa (1.1.60 adarśanam lopah 1.1.61 pratyayasya lukślulupah) the meaning of adarśana 'non-appearance'; the non-appearance of an affix is termed LUK, ŚLU or LUP
- 18. ți (1.1.64 aco' ntyādi ți) that part of an item which begins with the last of its vowels
- 19. *upadhā* (1.1.65 *alo' ntyāt pūrva upadhā*) the penultimate sound segment of an item
- 20. vṛddha (1.1.73 vṛddhir yasyācām ādis tad vṛddham 1.1.75 en prācām deśe)
  - an element whose first vowel is a vrddhi
- 21. hrasva, dīrgha and pluta (1.2.27 ūkālo' jj hrasvadīrghaplutah) a vowel with time duration equivalent to u,  $\bar{u}$  or  $u^{\bar{j}}$  respectively
- 22. udātta (1.2.29 uccair udāttaḥ) a vowel pronounced with high pitch
- 23. anudātta (1.2.30 nīcair anudāttaḥ) a vowel pronounced with low pitch
- 24. svarita (1.2.31 samāhāraḥ svaritaḥ) a vowel pronounced with a combination of udātta and anudātta
- 25. apṛkta (1.2.41 apṛkta ekāl pratyayaḥ) an affix consisting of a single sound segment
- 26. karmadhāraya (1.2.42 tatpuruṣaḥ samānādhikaraṇaḥ karmadhārayaḥ) a tatpuruṣa (2.1.22 tatpuruṣaḥ) compound with constituents in syntactic coordination
- 27. upasarjana (1.2.43 prathamānirdiṣṭaṃ samāsa upasarjanam 1.2.44 ekavibhakti...)
  an item cited in the nominative in a rule of compound formation
- 28. prātipadika (1.2.45 arthavad adhātur apratyayaḥ prātipadikam 1.2.46 kṛṭ-taddhita-samāsāś ca) a meaningful item which is not an affix or a root; also an item which
  - either ends in a kṛt (3.1.93 kṛd atin) or a taddhita affix (4.1.76 taddhitāḥ) or is a samāsa 'compound'
- 29. dhātu (1.3.1 bhūvādayo dhātavaḥ)

- items listed in the sets headed by the one beginning with  $bh\bar{u}$  'to be, to become'; also items terminating in affixes saN etc.,  $(3.1.32 \, san\bar{a}dy \, ant\bar{a} \, dh\bar{a}tavah)$
- 30. it (1.3.2 upadeśe' j anunāsika it 1.3.8 laśaku ataddhite) a nasalized vowel of an item in upadeśa 'initial citation'
- 31.  $nad\bar{\imath}$  (1.4.3 yūstryākhyau  $nad\bar{\imath}$  1.4.6 niti hrasvas ca) feminine forms ending in  $\bar{\imath}$  or  $\bar{u}$
- 32. ghi (1.4.7 śeso ghy asakhi 1.4.9 sasthīyuktas chandasi  $v\bar{a}$ ) forms ending in i, or  $\bar{u}$  except for sakhi 'friend'
- 33. hrasva (1.4.10 hrasvam laghu) a short vowel
- 34. guru (1.4.11 saṃyoge guru 1.4.12 dīrghaṃ ca)
  a short vowel occurring before a sequence of consonants, or a long
  vowel
- 35. aṅga (1.4.13 yasmāt pratyayavidhis tadādi pratyaye' ṅgam) a pre-suffixal base
- 36. pada (1.4.14 suptinantam padam 1.4.17 svādisv asarvanāmasthāne) an item which ends in a sUP (4.1.2 svaujas...) or a tiN (3.4.77 tiptasjhi...)
- 37. bha (1.4.18 yaci bham 1.4.20 ayasmayādīni ca) a form which occurs before a svādi suffix beginning with y or aC but not a sarvanāmasthāna
- 38. apādāna (1.4.24 dhruvam apāye' pādānam 1.4.31 bhuvaḥ prabhavaḥ) that which is dhruva 'fixed' when movement away (apāya) is denoted
- 39. sampradāna (1.4.32 karmaṇā yam abhipraiti sa sampradānam 1.4.41 anupratigṛṇaś ca) that which the agent (kartṛ) intends (as the goal) by (means of) his action
- 40. karaṇa (1.4.42 sādhakatamaṃ karaṇam —1.4.44 parikrayaṇe sampradānam anyatarasyām) that which, more than anything else, serves as a means
- 41. adhikaraṇa (1.4.45 ādhāro' dhikaraṇam 1.4.48 upānvadhyān vasaḥ) that which serves as ādhāra 'locus'
- 42. karman (1.4.49 kartur īpsitatamam karma 1.4.53 hṛkor anyatarasyām) that which the agent most wishes to reach
- 43. kartṛ (1.4.54 svatantraḥ kartā 1.4.55 tatprayojako hetuś ca) that which is svatantra 'independent'
- 44. nipāta (1.4.56 prāg rīśvarān nipātāḥ 1.4.97 adhir īśvare) items enumerated up to rule 1.4.97 adhir īśvare
- 45. upasarga (1.4.58 prādaya upasargāḥ kriyāyoge 1.4.59 gatiś ca) nipātas enumerated in the set headed by pra when used with a verb; they are also termed gati
- 46. karmapravacanīya (1.4.83 karmapravacanīyāḥ 1.4.97 adhir īśvare) items termed nipāta and enumerated up to rule 1.4.97

- 47. parasmaipada (1.4.99 laḥ parasmaipadam) replacements of LA (3.4.77 tiptasjhi...) other than those denoted by taN and āna (ŚānaC and KānaC)
- 48. ātmanepada (1.4.100 tanānāv ātmanepadam) replacements of LA denoted by taN and āna
- 49. prathama, madhyama, uttama (1.4.101 tinas trīņi trīņi prathamamadhyamottamāḥ)
- 50. ekavacana, dvivacana, bahuvacana (1.4.102 tāny ekavacana-dvivacanabahuvacanāny ekaśaḥ 1.4.103 supaḥ) individual members of each triplet of tiN and sUP
- 51. vibhakti (1.4.104 vibhaktiś ca) triplets of tiN and sUP
- 52. saṃhitā (1.4.109 paraḥ sannikarṣaḥ saṃhitā) maximum proximity between sounds
- 53. avasāna (1.4.110 virāmo' vasānam) cessation of speech
- 54. samāsa (2.1.3 prāk kadārāt samāsaḥ) items enumerated prior to 2.1.38 kadārāḥ karmadhāraye
- 55. avyayībhāva (2.1.5 avyayībhāvaḥ) compounds enumerated by rules prior to 2.1.22 tatpurusah
- 56. tatpuruṣa (2.1.22 tatpuruṣaḥ 2.1.23 dviguś ca) compounds enumerated prior to 2.2.23 śeṣo bahuvrīhiḥ; dvigu is also termed tatpuruṣa
- 57. dvigu (2.1.52 saṃkhyapūrvo dviguḥ)
  a tatpuruṣa compound (2.1.51 taddhitārtha...) with saṃkhyā 'number' as
  its first constituent
- 58. bahuvrīhi (2.2.23 śeso bahuvrīhiḥ) the remainder of the tatpuruṣa compounds
- 59. dvandva (2.2.29 cārthe dvandvaḥ) a compound denoting the sense of ca 'and'
- 60. āmantrita (2.3.48 sā' mantritam) a form which ends in the vocative and denotes sambodhana 'address'
- 61. sambuddhi (2.3.49 ekavacanam sambuddhih) an āmantrita terminating in singular
- 62. pratyaya (3.1.1 pratyayah)
- 63. upapada (3.1.92 tatropapadam saptamīstham) an item cited in the locative in the domain of 3.1.91 dhātoḥ
- 64. krt (3.1.93 krd atin) an affix other than that denoted by tiN
- 65. kṛtya (3.1.95 kṛtyāḥ)
  kṛt affixes enumerated by rules prior to 3.1.133 nvultṛcau
- 66. sat (3.2.127 tau sat) affixes Satr and SānaC (3.2.124 laṭaḥ śatṛśānacāv...)

- 67.  $s\bar{a}rvadh\bar{a}tuka$  (3.4.113  $ti\dot{n}\acute{s}it$   $s\bar{a}rvadh\bar{a}tukam$ ) affixes denoted by  $ti\dot{N}$  and marked with  $\acute{S}$
- 68. ārdhadhātuka (3.4.114 ārdhadhātukaṃ śeṣaḥ) the remaining affixes
- 69. taddhita (4.1.76 taddhitāḥ) affixes enumerated by rules 4.1.76-5.4.160 nispravāṇiś ca
- 70. gotra (4.1.162 apatyam pautraprabhṛti gotram) grandson and subsequent offspring
- 71. yuvan (4.1.163 jīvati tu vaṃśye yuvā) a gotra offspring while his father, uncle, etc., are alive
- 72. tadrāja (4.1.172 te tadrājāḥ; 5.3.119 ñyādayas tadrājāḥ) taddhita affixes enumerated by 4.1.166 janapadaśabdād... 4.1.176 na prācyabhargādi... and 5.3.112 pūgāñño... 5.3.119 ñyādayas...
- 73. abhyāsa (6.1.4 pūrvo' bhyāsaḥ) the first element of a doubled string
- 74. abhyasta (6.1.5 ubhe abhyastam) both the elements of a doubled string
- 75. āmredita (8.1.2 tasya paramāmreditam) the second element of a string ordered for doubling by rules headed by 8.1.1 sarvasya dve

## B. PARIBHĀṢĀS

## 76. 1.1.3 iko gunavṛddhī

For a substitute ( $\bar{a}de\dot{s}a$ ) ordered with the express mention of the term vrddhi (1.1.1  $vrddhir\ \bar{a}daic$ ) or guna (1.1.2  $ade\dot{n}\ guna\dot{n}$ ); iK (i,u,r,l) alone should be treated as substituendum ( $sth\bar{a}nin$ ). However, this  $paribh\bar{a}s\bar{a}$  is not valid when

- (a) the replacement is conditioned by an ārdhadhātuka suffix which causes the deletion of part of a root (1.1.4 na dhātulopa ārdhadhātuke),
- (b) the replacement is conditioned by an affix marked with K, G, N (1.1.5 kniti ca), or
- (c) the replacement refers to the iK of  $d\bar{\imath}dh\bar{\imath}N$  'to illuminate',  $vev\bar{\imath}N$  'to go, pervade' or  $i\bar{\varUpsilon}$  (7.2.35  $\bar{\imath}rdhadh\bar{\imath}tukasya...$ ).
- 77. 1.1.46 ādyantau ṭakitau

A linguistic element marked with T or K is introduced as the initial or final element respectively of that for which it is specified.

78. 1.1.47 mid aco'ntyāt paraḥ

A linguistic element marked with M is introduced after the last vowel of that for which it is specified.

79. 1.1.48 ec ig hrasvādeše

For a short substitute ordered for eC (e, o, ai, au), iK alone should be treated as substitute.

80. 1.1.49 şaşthī sthāneyogā

A  $sasth\bar{i}$  'genitive', not otherwise interpretable, denotes the relation 'in place of'.

81. 1.1.50 sthāne' ntaratamah

A substitute (ādeśa) must be most similar to its substituendum (sthānin).

82. 1.1.51 uran raparah

A substitute of r denoted by aN(a, i, u) is automatically followed by r.

83. 1.1.52 alo' ntyasya

A substitute specified for an item in genitive replaces the final sound segment (aL).

84. 1.1.53 nic ca

A substitute specified for an item in genitive and marked with N also replaces the final sound segment.

85. 1.1.54 ādeḥ parasya

A substitute specified for a following item replaces the initial sound segment.

86. 1.1.55 anekālśit sarvasya

A substitute specified for an item in genitive, consisting of more than one sound segment or marked with S, replaces the entire substituendum.

87. 1.1.62 pratyayalope pratyayalaksanam

An operation conditioned by an affix applies even if the affix is deleted but not when the operation relates to an anga (1.4.13 yasmāt...) and the deletion is accomplished by LUK, ŚLU, or LUP (1.1.63 na lumatāngasya).

88. 1.1.66 tasminn iti nirdiste pūrvasya

An item specified in the locative forms the right context for an operation on what precedes.

89. 1.1.67 tasmād ity uttarasya

An item specified in the ablative forms the left context for an operation on what follows.

90. 1.1.68 svam rūpam šabdasyāšabdasamjīnā

A linguistic item other than that which is a  $samj\tilde{n}\tilde{a}$  only denotes its form.

91. 1.2.28 acaś ca

Replacements specified by *hrasva* 'short', *dīrgha* 'long' and *pluta* 'extralong' occur only in place of *aC* 'vowels'.

92. 1.3.10 yathāsaṃkhyam anudeśaḥ samānām

Assignment of equivalents for equal numbers of elements follows the order of enumeration.

# Some Additional Paribhāṣās

The following paribhāṣās are not stated explicitly in the Aṣṭādhyāyī but implicitly are assumed by the tradition. They are discussed in the Paribhāṣenduśekhara of Nāgeśa. The number in the parantheses following the rule is the number which the paribhāṣā has in the PŚ.

## 93. vyākhyānato viśeṣapratipattir nahi sandehād alakṣaṇam (1)

Proper understanding of a rule is achieved through the explanations of the learned. A rule does not become a non-rule simply because one has doubts. For example, Pāṇini employs N as an it twice in the Siva-sūtras. Given an abbreviatory term aN or iN, one may ask whether the N is the one given in Ss (1) aiuN or Ss (6) lAN. Such questions are answered by the explanations of the learned. Here, the answer is: the N of iN is that of Ss (6) lAN, while the N of aN is that of Ss (1), except in rule 1.1.69 anudit savarṇasya... where it refers to Ss (6).

## 94. anekāntā anubandhāḥ (4)

Items termed it do not become part of that to which they are attached. Consider rules 1.1.55 anekāl śit sarvasya and 5.3.3 idam iś. Rule 1.1.55 provides for a substitute to replace its substitutendum in toto if the substitute either consists of more than one aL 'sound segment' or is marked with Ś. Rule 5.3.3 introduces iŚ, an item marked with Ś, as a substitute for idam. According to 1.1.55, iŚ will replace idam in toto since iŚ is marked with Ś. However, if Ś is considered part of iŚ, iŚ will become an item consisting of more than one aL. Consequently, the anekāl 'more than one aL' condition of 1.1.55 would bring about the total replacement of idam by iŚ, making the śit condition vacuous. Pāṇini's use of śit in 1.1.55 becomes an indicator (jñāpaka) for the existence of this paribhāṣā. That the replacement of idam by iŚ is accomplished on the basis of Ś and not anekāltva also shows that its are not used as the basis for treating an item as consisting of more than one aL (cf. paribhāṣā 6: nānubandhakakṛtam anekāltvam).

# 95. nānubandhakakṛtam asārūpyam (8)

Items termed it are not a basis for a distinction (bheda) between forms. Rule  $3.1.94 \ v\bar{a}$  'sarūpo' striyām states that, except for rules contained in the domain headed by  $3.3.94 \ striy\bar{a}m...$ , affixes dissimilar in form optionally

are introduced after verb roots as alternatives. Except for affixes in the domain of 3.3.94, all other affixes, if dissimilar in form, will be introduced alternatively. Note that the domain of 3.3.94 is contained within the larger domain of 3.1.91 dhātoḥ. Thus, 3.1.96 tavyattavyānīyaraḥ introduces tavyaT, tavya and anīyaR. The first two will be considered similar in form since their difference is due to an it. However, anīyaR obviously will be treated as different in form. Thus, anīyaR may be used alternatively with tavya and tavyaT. Similarly, rule 3.1.133 nvultṛcau introduces affixes nvuL and tṛC as possible alternatives. Consider also rules 3.2.1 karmaṇy aṇ and 3.2.3 āto' unupasarge kaḥ whereby aṇ and Ka are introduced. Rule 3.2.3 is an exception to 3.2.1. If this paribhāṣā is not accepted, however, these two affixes will be treated as alternants. In order to facilitate the obligatory blocking by 3.2.3 of 3.2.1, we have to accept that an it should not be treated as the basis for distinguishing forms.

## 96. ubhayagatir iha bhavati (10)

In this grammar, a term may be taken as denoting a technical (krtrima) meaning, a non-technical (akrtrima) meaning or both types of meanings, either at different times or at the same time. Consider rule 1.1.1 vrddhir  $\bar{a}daic$  where vrddhi is a technical term which denotes  $\bar{a}$ , ai and au. This term is always interpreted in a technical sense and not in the non-technical sense of 'growth'. Rule 1.1.23 bahuganavatudati samkhyā introduces saṃkhyā, again a technical term, defined as items such as bahu 'many', gana 'group' or those which end in affixes vatU or Dati. However, the non-technical meaning of samkhyā, 'number', is also encountered in the grammar. The context and the desired results determine whether the technical or non-technical sense, or both, should be accepted. Just as in ordinary usage, a word may have different meanings in different contexts. In ordinary usage the word saindhava may mean 'horse' or 'salt'; in any one context, however, only one meaning is understood. If the context is food, the meaning is 'salt'; if not, the meaning is 'horse'. In the grammar, if the desired results are obtainable by either interpretation, one should operate with the technical interpretation (cf. kṛtrimākṛtrimayoḥ kṛtrime kāryasampratyayah).

The following rules exemplify how context determines whether the technical or non-technical meaning of a term should be understood.

- 5.1.22 saṃkhyāyāḥ atiśadantāyāḥ kan (non-technical meaning of saṃkhyā)
- 1.3.14 kartari karmavyatihāre (non-technical meaning of karma, i.e. action)
- 3.1.17 śabdavairakalahābhrakaņvameghebhyaḥ karaṇe (non-technical meaning of karma)
- 7.1.54 hrasva-nadyāpo nuţ (technical meaning of nadī)
- 2.1.20 nadībhiś ca (non-technical meaning of nadī, i.e., river)

## 97. pratyayagrahane yasmāt sa vihitas tadādes tadantasya grahanam (24)

When an affix is used in a rule to specify an operation, the affix denotes a word-form which begins with the base after which the said affix is introduced and extends up to and includes that affix.

Consider 4.4.20 ktrer mam nityam which obligatorily introduces the affix mam. The item after which mam is introduced is specified by affix Ktri. According to this paribhāṣā, Ktri should denote a word-form which begins with the item after which Ktri is introduced and should also include and terminate with Ktri. Thus, rule 3.3.88 dvitaḥ ktriḥ introduces the affix Ktri to denote either a non-agent participant or bhāva. Furthermore, Ktri can only be introduced after roots which have DU as an it. Thus, Ktri may be introduced after verb roots such as DUpacAS 'to cook', DUvapAS 'to sow' or DUkrN 'to do, make' etc. Rule 3.3.88 dvitaḥ ktriḥ will thus produce forms such as  $pac + tri \rightarrow paktri$ ,  $vap + tri \rightarrow uptri$  and  $kr + tri \rightarrow krtri$ .

Let us now return to 4.4.20 ktrer mam nityam and the present paribhāṣā. Affix ktri in 4.4.20 refers to the item after which -mam should be introduced. According to the present paribhāṣā, this item should begin with an item after which Ktri is introduced. Such items, according to 3.3.88, may be pac, vap and kr. Furthermore, such an item should terminate in Ktri.

A question may arise here. Since -mam in 4.4.20 is also an affix, should not it refer to an item which begins with that after which -mam is introduced and terminates in mam? The answer is no, for this paribhāṣā does not apply with reference to an affix which is being introduced. This paribhāṣā focuses on affixes which have already been introduced, not on affixes such as -mam which are about to be introduced (cf. pratyayagrahane cāpañ-camyāh, paribhāṣā 26 which the Mahābhāṣya cites as a vārttika).

## 98. uttarapadādhikāre pratyayagrahaņe na tadantagrahaņam (26)

This paribhāṣā requires that in the domain of uttarapada, i.e. 6.3.1 alug uttarapade to 6.3.138 samprasāraṇasya, an affix denotes only its own form. An affix in the above domain does not denote a form that terminates with that affix. Consider rule 6.3.42 gharupakalpa... which requires that, other things being equal, a polysyllabic word ending in Ni, i.e. i, is replaced by short i when, among other things, the affix gha follows. The term gha refers to affixes taraP and tamaP. For proper application of 6.3.42, gha should only refer to taraP and tamaP and not to items ending in these affixes. For example, the i of gaurītarā and gaurītamā will be shortened before taraP and tamaP to produce gauritarā and gaurītamā. However, if one interprets gha as referring to the enitre item which ends in gha, as is the case in the previous paribhāṣā, forms such as kumārīgaurītarā and kumārīgaurītamā would be subject to short i replacement for the long i of kumārī under the condition of gaurītarā and gaurītamā, forms ending in taraP and tamaP. This will produce undesired results. The short i

replacement applies only to the  $\bar{\imath}$  of gaur $\bar{\imath}$ , not to the  $\bar{\imath}$  of kum $\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$  in kum $\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}gaur\bar{\imath}tar\bar{a}$  or kum $\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}gaur\bar{\imath}tam\bar{a}$ .

# 99. samjñāvidhau pratyayagrahane tadantagrahanam nāsti (28)

An affix does not refer to an item which ends in it when it is used in a rule that defines a term. Consider 1.1.21 taraptamapau ghaḥ which defines the term gha as affixes taraP and tamaP. According to this paribhāṣā, taraP and tamaP should not refer to items such as gaurītarā and gaurītamā which end in them. This too is a negation of what was provided by paribhāṣā 97.

## 100. vyapadeśivad ekasmin (31)

That which applies to the central denotatum of an item may also apply to a single item. Vyapadeśī in this paribhāṣā refers to proper signification or central denotatum. Consider the word jyeṣṭhaḥ 'oldest' in ayaṃ me jyeṣṭhaḥ putraḥ 'this is my oldest son'. What if a person has only one son? Would he say ayaṃ me jyeṣṭhaḥ? Normally not; but he could say ayaṃ me jyeṣṭhaḥ, ayam eva me kaniṣṭhaḥ 'this is my oldest as well as my youngest son'. Here, for certain purposes, an only son is being treated as both oldest and youngest. Similar events occur in the grammar. For example, 6.1.1 ekāco dve prathamasya requires doubling of the part of a root constituted by the first of its vowels. This doubling is possible in cases such as jāgṛ where jā is the form constituted by the first vowel. Consider, however, roots such as pac where the root has only one vowel. This paribhāṣā will, for purposes such as doubling, allow the a of pac to be treated as the first vowel. Consequently, the form pa constituted by the first vowel may be doubled.

# 101. yasmin vidhis tadādāv algrahaņe (34)

A sound segment used as a qualifier in the locative to specify an operation, requires that the qualified be interpreted as beginning with that sound segment. Consider rule  $6.1.79 \ v\bar{a}nto \ yi \ pratyaye$  read with the anuvṛtti of ecaḥ, the genitive singular of eC, from rule  $6.1.78 \ eco' yav\bar{a}y\bar{a}vaḥ$ . In the absence of this paribhāṣā yi, the sound segment y used in the locative as a qualifier to pratyaye, will be interpreted as referring to that which ends in y. This interpretation which stems from  $1.1.72 \ yena \ vidhis \ tadantasya$  will interpret rule 6.1.79 as follows: a replacement ending in v, i.e. av,  $\bar{a}v$ , comes in place of eC when an affix ending in y follows. This rule will be vacuous because there is no affix which ends in y. Consequently, yi should not be interpreted in view of 1.1.72. Instead it should be interpreted as 'when (an affix) which begins with y follows'. Rule  $6.1.79 \ can$  thus be interpreted properly as: a replacement in v comes in place of eC when an affix beginning with y follows.

Now consider rule 7.2.58 gamer it parasmaipadeșu which has the anuvṛtti of se, the locative singular of s, and ārdhadhātukasya. This rule introduces

the augment  $i\bar{T}$  to an  $\bar{a}rdhadh\bar{a}tuka$  affix when it occurs after gam 'to go' and is followed by an affix termed parasmaipada. The  $\bar{a}rdhadh\bar{a}tuka$  affix which receives the augment  $i\bar{T}$  is qualified by se. Again, in view of rule 1.1.72, se, could be interpreted as 'that which ends in s'. Rule 7.2.58 would then be able to introduce  $i\bar{T}$  only when an  $\bar{a}rdhadh\bar{a}tuka$  affix terminating in s occurs after gam and is followed by a parasmaipada affix. This will block the derivation of gamisyati 'he will go' where the  $\bar{a}rdhadh\bar{a}tuka$  (3.4.114  $\bar{a}rdhadh\bar{a}tukam$   $\acute{s}e,\acute{s}ah$ ) affix after gam is sya (3.1.33  $syat\bar{a},\acute{s}i$ ...). By accepting this  $paribh\bar{a},\ddot{a}$ , sya can receive the augment  $i\bar{T}$  because it is an  $\bar{a}rdhadh\bar{a}tuka$  affix beginning with s.

#### 102. ekadeśavikrtam ananyavat (38)

Even when modification (vikāra) occurs to part of an item that item is still treated as what it was. This paribhāṣā is also supported by lokanyāya 'norm in the outside world'. As a dog who loses its tail still is treated as a dog, so does a form receive the same treatment even though it has lost part of itself or undergone some modification. Consider abhavat 'he became' and bhavatu 'may he become' where abhavat, a form terminating in ti, has lost its final i, and bhavatu, again a form terminating in ti, has had its final i replaced by u. Rule 1.4.14 suptinantam padam requires that the term pada should be assigned only to those items which end in a sUP or tiN. However, abhavat ends in t and bhavatu ends in tu. The original ti which qualified abhavat and bhavatu as padas has been modified. In the absence of this paribhāṣā, the above two items cannot be termed padas. It should be remembered in this connection that this paribhāṣā does not apply when the modified part of an item conditions an operation, or the modification is excessive.

### 103. pūrvaparanityāntarangāpavādānām uttarottara balīyah (39)

This paribhāṣā decides the comparative strength of pūrva 'prior', para 'subsequent', nitya 'obligatory', anitya 'non-obligatory', antaraṅga 'internally conditioned', bahiraṅga 'externally conditioned' and apavāda 'exception' rules. In short, a subsequent rule is more powerful than a prior rule, an obligatory rule more powerful than a subsequent rule, an internally conditioned rule more powerful than a subsequent or obligatory rule, and an exception more powerful than a subsequent, obligatory or internally conditioned rule. (The relationships existing among these rules are illustrated in detail on pages 85-87.)

104. punaḥ prasaṅgavijñānād bhavati (40), and 105. sakṛd gatau vipratīṣedhe yad bādhitam tad bādhitam eva (41)

These two paribhāṣās relate to the scope of 1.4.2 vipratiṣedhe paraṃ kāryam. This rule states that when there is a conflict (vipratiṣedha) in the

application of two rules, the one subsequent in order should apply. Vipratisedha is defined in two ways:

- (a) tulyabalatā 'conflict created by two rules of equal strength', and
- (b) asambhava 'impossible application of two rules simultaneously'.

The expression param kāryam also is interpreted in two ways:

- (c) only the subsequent should apply, and
- (d) apply the subsequent.

Interpretation (c) makes the ruling of 1.4.2 restrictive (niyama) whereas interpretation (d) makes it operational (vidhi).

Paribhāṣā 104 relates to the asambhava interpretation of vipratiṣedha. If (b), the asambhava interpretation is accepted, then, after a subsequent rule has been applied, the prior rule which had been blocked may also apply, should there be an occasion for it. As opposed to this, paribhāṣā 105 relates to the tulyabalatā interpretation of vipratiṣedha which, since it goes hand in hand with the restrictive interpretation of paraṃ kāryam, yields an interpretation of 1.4.2 whereby a subsequent rule blocks the application of a prior rule permanently. If vipratiṣedha is of the tulyabalatā type, a prior rule once blocked by a subsequent rule remains blocked forever.

Now consider some examples. Rule 2.2.32 dvandve ghi states that an item termed ghi (1.4.7 śeṣo ghy asakhi) is named upasarjana 'secondary' and is placed first in a dvandva compound. Rule 2.2.33 ajādy antam states that a constituent which begins with an aC and terminates in a also is placed first in a dvandva compound. Given the analysed form (vigrahavākya) agniś ca indraś ca 'Indra and Agni' which is parallel to the compound indrāgni, agni will be termed ghi by 1.4.7 and in view of rule 2.2.32 should be placed first. The resulting compound would be \*agnīndrau. In view of rule 2.2.33, indra should be placed first since it begins with an aC and ends in a. This conflict can be resolved only by invoking 1.4.2. The vipratiṣedha here is tulyabalatā.

Another example of tulyabalatā conflict is found in the derivation of tisṛṇām 'of the three' where, given the string  $tri + \bar{a}m$ , two rules apply. Rule 6.3.48 tres trayaḥ requires that tri be replaced by trayas. Rule 7.2.99 requires that tri be replaced by tisṛ. These rules are equal in strength. By invoking 1.4.2, tri is replaced by tisṛ to yield  $tisṛ + \bar{a}m \rightarrow tisṛṇām$ . Now if, by invoking 1.1.56 sthānivad ādeśo' nalvidhau, we take tisṛ as tri, rule 6.3.48 again may find scope of application. Since the vipratiṣedha here involves tulyabalatā, however, 6.3.48 will remain blocked forever. This is what sakṛd gatau..., the second paribhāṣā, accomplishes.

Let us now consider some examples where *vipratisedha* is interpreted as asambhava. Consider rule 3.1.133 nvultṛcau which introduces affixes NvuL and tṛC after verb roots. The conflict concerns whether both affixes should be introduced simultaneously or in turn. Since a simultaneous application is impossible, NvuL and tṛC will be introduced in turn.

Similarly, given the string ajara + Jas, where 7.1.20 jassasoh sih applies to replace Jas by Si, ajara + (Jas  $\rightarrow$  Si) = ajara + i, two rules become applicable: 7.1.72 napuṃsakasya jhal acaḥ and 7.2.101 jarāyā jaras anyatarasyām. Now the question arises whether we should apply 7.1.72 or 7.2.101. If one prefers to apply 7.1.72, the result will be \*ajara + nUM + i. Applying 7.2.101 creates a different problem. This rule requires the replacing of jara by jaras provided the anga is followed by an affix beginning with aC. If one considers ajara as the anga, the n of nUM will intervene before the i, the affix beginning with aC. Thus 7.2.101 will be blocked from application. However, one can also argue that ajara + n should be treated as the  $a\dot{n}ga$  since n happens to be part of it, that is, because jara is part of the  $a\dot{n}ga$ and n is part of the  $a\dot{n}ga$  ( $avayav\bar{a}vayava$ ). This reasoning will permit the application of 7.2.101 with the problematical result: \*a  $(jara \rightarrow jaras) + n$  $+i \rightarrow ajarasn + i = *ajarasni$ . The real problem with this approach, however, is the application of rule 6.4.10 santa mahatah sanyogasya which requires the lengthening of the penultimate vowel of the anga ending in s preceded by n. Given the string \*ajarasni, the combination is not ns but snwhich will not permit 6.4.10 to apply. Wrong form such as \*ajarasni will result. Therefore, in order to facilitate the application of 6.4.10, 7.2.101 must replace jara by jaras before 7.1.72 introduces nUM. This is possible only when one invokes 1.4.2 vipratisedhe... The conflict between the application of rules 7.2.101 and 7.1.72 is that of asambhava and hence 7.1.72 may reapply, in view of paribhāsā 104.

## 106. asiddham bahirangamantarange (51)

The mark for this paribhāṣā is antarangatva 'internal conditioning'. It is present in every situation where the cause or condition (anga) for applying a rule or performing an operation is internally conditioned. This paribhāṣā enables an internally conditioned rule or operation to render an externally conditioned rule or operation suspended (asiddha). It should be noted that the status of internal and external conditioning is determined on the basis of forms (śabda) and not meaning (artha). It should be noted further that this paribhāṣā applies only in the sapādasaptādhyāyī 'the first seven books plus the first quarter of book eight'; it does not apply to rules within the last three quarters of book eight. Finally, this paribhāṣā applies in relation to both types of bahiranga operations: jātabahiranga and samakālikabahiranga. In other words, an internally conditioned rule or operation suspends an externally conditioned operation whether the externally conditioned operation has already taken place or is about to occur.

Since this paribhāṣā depends on the relative internal and external conditioning of causes with reference to a form, it clearly requires a string of formal elements as locus. Let us consider the derivation of syona 'sun, ray of light' which serves as the most celebrated example for this paribhāṣā in the

commentaries. This word is derived by introducing *Uṇādi* affix na after the verbal root siv 'to sew'. Furthermore, there is also a provision in Unādi 3.9 sivester  $y\bar{u}$  ca whereby the iv of siv is replaced by  $y\bar{u}$ . Thus, we get s (iv $\rightarrow y\bar{u}$ ) +  $na = sy\bar{u}na$ . However, since  $Un\bar{a}di$  affixes apply variously — sometimes they do apply and sometimes they don't - commentators claim that, in the derivation of syona, na alone should be introduced. The concurrent replacement of iv by  $y\bar{u}$  should not apply. This will yield the string siv + nato which 6.4.19 cchvoh śūd anunāsike applies to yield  $si\ (v \rightarrow \bar{u}) + na = si\bar{u}$ + na. Rules 6.1.77 iko yan aci and 7.3.86 pugantalaghūpadhasya ca now become applicable to  $si\bar{u} + na$ . Rule 7.3.86 will require that i of  $si\bar{u}$  be replaced by the guna vowel e under the condition of siū being an anga before affix na. Thus, na conditions this guna replacement. Rule 6.1.77 would require that the i of  $si\bar{u} + na$  be replaced by y before  $\bar{u}$ . The guna operation is bahiranga; its cause, the affix na, is external. However, the cause of the y replacement,  $\bar{u}$ , is internal, within  $si\bar{u}$ . According to this paribhāṣā, the internally conditioned y replacement will take place. This will yield  $s(i \rightarrow y)\bar{u} + na = sy\bar{u} + na$ . The final  $\bar{u}$  of  $sy\bar{u}$  will then be replaced by o to yield syona (cf. 7.3.84 sārvadhātukārdhadhātukayoḥ).

Cardona (unpublished (b)) approaches this *paribhāṣā* with a much deeper and wider orientation. Here are three examples from the *Mahābhāṣya* which Cardona also discusses.

- (1) śuśuvuḥ 'they swelled' is derived from świ + LIT where us is a replacement of jhi (3.4.77 tiptas... and 3.4.81 liṭaḥ...). Given the string świ + us, rule 6.1.30 vibhāṣā śveḥ optionally applies to yield ś $(v \rightarrow u)i + us$ . Two rules now become applicable: 6.1.108 samprasāraṇāc ca and 6.4.82 er anekāco saṃyogapūrvāc ca. The first rule requires that the sequence of a samprasāraṇa vowel followed by another vowel, i.e. u + i, of sui + us, be replaced by u. This will produce the string  $s(u + i \rightarrow u) + us = su + us$ . Rule 6.4.82 requires that the i of sui be replaced by y. This y replacement is bahiraṇga in the sense that its condition, u, is contained in us and not in sui. As opposed to this, the single replacement u has its condition internally. The samprasāraṇa vowel u which forms the condition for the replacement is contained within sui. Consequently, the internally conditioned replacement by u prevails. The externally conditioned application would have resulted in the derivation of a wrong form \*suy + us.
- (2) juhuvuḥ 'they called' is derived from  $hv\bar{a} + us$  where after the samprasāraṇa, the string becomes  $h(v \to u)\bar{a} + us \to hu\bar{a} + us$ . Here again, two rules become applicable: 6.4.64 āto lopa iṭi ca and 6.1.108 samprasāraṇāc ca. Rule 6.4.64 requires that the final  $\bar{a}$  of  $hu\bar{a}$  be dropped before the affix us. This zero replacement of  $\bar{a}$  clearly is externally conditioned. As a result, 6.1.108 applies to yield  $h(u\bar{a} \to u) + us = hu + us$ .
- (3) dhiyati 'he holds or maintains...' is derived from dhi + Śa + ti = dhi + a + ti where two rules become applicable: 6.4.77 aci śnudhātubhruvām

yvoriyanuvanau and 7.3.86 pugantalaghūpadhasya ca. The application of 6.4.77 would yield the form  $dh(i \rightarrow iy) + a + ti$  where the root final i is replaced by iy under the condition of the following a. Applying the second rule would result in  $dh(i \rightarrow e) + a + ti$  where the condition of application will be ti which is external. Since the condition for the application of 6.4.77, the following a, is internal, 6.4.77 is applied. Rule 7.3.86 would have yielded the wrong form  $dh(i \rightarrow e \rightarrow ay) + a + ti = *dhayati$ .

## 107. purastāpavādā anantarān vidhīn bādhante nottarān (60)

This paribhāṣā states that a prior exception blocks only the most immediately following rule and not any later rules. An exception rule may be either niravakāṣāpavāda, a rule which is left without any scope of application unless it blocks a rule or viṣeṣāpavāda, a rule which carves out its scope of application within the scope of a general rule. There is a basic difference between these two types. A nirvakāṣa exception blocks a general rule in the sense that it applies first. After its application, if the general rule still finds its scope, it too may apply. Thus niravakāṣa rules entail temporary blocking. A viṣeṣa exception, however, blocks the application of a general rule forever. The reason for this total and permanent blocking is that a particular (viṣeṣa) rule carves out its domain from within the domain of a general (utsarga) rule. A viṣeṣa rule only obtains within the domain of a general rule. Its validity is based entirely on blocking the general rule. Thus, the general rule, is blocked forever by the particular exception.

Commentators cite two maxims in connection with blocking of utsarga by visesa. The first maxim was evolved by the grammarians themselves. It states that y blocks x if y obtains only after x has obtained (yenā' prāpte yo vidhir ārabhyate sa tasya bādhako bhavati). The other maxim derives from common practice. It is called takra-kaundinya nyāya. When someone commands someone else by brāhmanebhyo dadhi dīyatām takram kaundinyāya 'give dadhi (yoghurt) to the brāhmanas and takra (buttermilk) to Kaundinya', one understands that dadhidana 'the giving of yoghurt' is a general operation in relation to which takradana 'the giving of buttermilk' is particular. However Kaundinya, who is supposed to receive buttermilk, is also a brāhmaṇa. Thus, takradāna (y) obtains within the scope of dadhidāna (x). By being a brāhmana, Kaundinya is entitled to receive the general dadhidāna. However, by reason of being Kaundinya, a particular brāhmana, he is only entitled to receive takra. If he receives takra and then is given dadhi, this particular injunction will become meaningless. As a result, takradāna will block dadhidāna permanently.

Let us look at an example. Consider 6.1.1 ekāco dve prathamasya and 6.1.2 ajāder dvitīyasya. The first rule requires that the unit formed with the first vowel of a rule be doubled. This is a general rule to which 6.1.2 is an exception. Rule 6.1.2 requires that if the root begins with a vowel, the unit formed

by its second vowel be doubled. Rule 6.1.1 obtains on roots in general whereas 6.1.2 obtains on a particular set of roots. Rule 6.1.2 thus carves out its domain from within the general domain of 6.1.1. Consequently, 6.1.2 will block 6.1.1 permanently.

Now let us consider a niravakāsa exception. Given the string  $ram\bar{a} + Ni$  where  $ram\bar{a}$  terminates in the feminine affix  $\bar{a}P$  and Ni is locative singular, two rules apply. Rule 7.3.116  $ner \bar{a}m$  nadyām nīyah requires that Ni be replaced by  $\bar{a}m$ . Rule 7.3.113 yād  $\bar{a}pah$  requires that Ni should receive the augment yāT. Rule 7.1.113 will yield the string  $ram\bar{a} + y\bar{a} + Ni$ . This will make the application of 7.3.116 impossible because the locus of replacement by  $\bar{a}m$  is no longer Ni. Instead, it is yāTNi. Rule 7.3.116 will be without any scope of application. It is for this reason that 7.3.116 blocks 7.3.113 and the result is  $ram\bar{a} + \bar{a}m$ . However, as stated above, a niravakāśa exception blocks a general rule only temporarily and should there be a situation under which the general rule may apply, it may do so. Rule 7.3.113 does apply to introduce yāT after 7.3.116 has applied. In this case,  $\bar{a}m$  is treated as though it were Ni. Thus 7.3.116 does not permanently block 7.3.113.

### 108. madhye' pavādāḥ pūrvān vidhīn bādhante nottarān (61)

An exception read in between rules blocks only the provision of a prior rule. Consider the following rules: 4.1.54 svāngāc copasarjanād asamyogopadhāt, 4.1.55 nāsikodarosthajanghādantakarņasrngāc ca, 4.1.56 na krodādi bahvacah and 4.1.57 sahanañvidyamānapūrvāc ca. Rule 4.1.54 is a general rule. It states that a feminine affix NīŞ optionally may be introduced after a nominal stem which (a) ends in a, (b) is termed an upasarjana 'secondary constituent of a compound', (c) does not have a conjunct in the upadhā 'penultimate position'; and (d) has svānga 'one's own limb' as its denotatum. Rule 4.1.55 cites specific stems such as nāsikā 'nose', udara 'belly', oṣṭha 'lips', jaṅghā 'thigh', danta 'tooth', karṇa 'ear' and śṛṅga 'horn' after which NīṢ may be introduced. Note here that this list contains items such as danta, karṇa, jaṅghā and śṛṅga which contain penultimate conjuncts. Furthermore, condition (a) of 4.1.54 is dropped in case of 4.1.55. Thus, 4.1.55 is an exception to conditions (a) and (c) of 4.1.54.

Now consider rules 4.1.56 and 4.1.57. These are negation rules. The first rule negates an optional  $N\bar{\imath}$  when the stem either belongs to the list headed by kroda 'lap' or contains more than two vowels and ends in a. Note in this connection that 4.1.55 contains items such as udara which would not be permitted to take the optional  $N\bar{\imath}$  under 4.1.56. Rule 4.1.57 negates  $N\bar{\imath}$  when saha 'with' or  $na\tilde{N}$  'not' form the initial constituent of the stem. Patañjali discusses the negations provided by 4.1.56-57 under rule 4.1.55. Two types of items are given there: polysyllabic items such as udara and those with a conjunct in the  $upadh\bar{a}$  such as danta. The negation given by

4.1.56-57 also is twofold: one marked by polysyllables and the other marked with saha and  $na\tilde{N}$ . Rule 4.1.55 will be able to block the polysyllabic negation in case of items such as udara or  $n\bar{a}sik\bar{a}$ , but it cannot block the negation of saha and  $na\tilde{N}$  offered by 4.1.57. This will be made possible by treating 4.1.55 as the prior exception to 4.1.56 and accordingly, the prior exception 4.1.55, can block only the most immediately available rule, 4.1.56. Thus we will get examples such as tilodarā  $(T\bar{a}P)/tilodar\bar{i}$   $(N\bar{i}S)$  'she on whose abdomen are marks like sesame'. Since 4.1.55 cannot block the negation of 4.1.57, however, we get only  $an\bar{a}sik\bar{a}$   $(T\bar{a}P)$  'she who does not have a nose' and not \*anāsikī  $(N\bar{i}S)$ .

Let us now consider examples of 4.1.55 which contain conjuncts. As above, we again find two negations: one marked with a conjunct in *upadhā*, the other with *saha* or  $na\tilde{N}$ . Rule 4.1.56 is an exception placed in the middle. As such according to *paribhāṣā* 108, it can block only the provision of 4.1.55 but not of 4.1.57. Consider two examples:  $c\bar{a}rukarn\bar{a}$  and  $c\bar{a}rukarn\bar{a}$  'she who has beautiful ears'. Rule 4.1.54 does not allow  $N\bar{i}$ , to items having a penultimate conjunct. Rule 4.1.55 blocks this exception and optionally provides for  $N\bar{i}$ . However, since 4.1.56 is an exception placed in the middle, it cannot block the negation marked with *saha* or  $na\tilde{N}$ . This is the reason why in an example like *vidyamānadantā* 'she whose teeth are intact', the negation provided by 4.1.57 prevails and the optional  $N\bar{i}$ , of 4.1.55 is blocked. Had this not been the case \**vidyamānadantī*, a wrong form, would have resulted.

#### 109. anantarasya vidhir bhavati pratisedho vā (62)

When a rule makes or negates a provision, its provision or negation relates to that which is most immediate. Consider the following rules. 3.4.87 ser hy apic ca orders a hi replacement of a siP replacement of LOT which is to be treated as apit, not marked with P and 3.4.88 vāc chandasi orders a hi replacement of siP which, in turn, is a replacement of LOT and optionally is treated as apit. Rule 3.4.87 provides for two things: hi as a replacement of siP and hi to be treated as apit. Without this second provision, hi, since it is a replacement of siP, an item marked with P, would have been treated as though marked by P itself (1.1.56 sthānivad...). The question is whether 3.4.88 makes both provisions of 3.4.87 optional or only one. Are the hi replacement and its apit status both optional or only the apit status? According to paribhāṣā 108, hi is not optional because apit is the most immediate provision available to 3.4.88.

Consider the negation provided by 7.2.4 neți. This rule negates the provision of vrddhi of an anga (1.4.13 yasmat...) which is either constituted by vadA 'to speak', vrajA 'to wander', or terminates in a consonant. The right context for this vrddhi is the parasmaipada affix sIC. Thus we get examples such as avrajit 'he wandered away' and avadit 'he spoke'. Rule 7.2.4 does not allow vrddhi for those angas which terminate in a consonant where the

right context is sIC with initial augment iT. Thus, there is no vṛddhi in amoṣīt 'he stole' or asevīt 'he served'. Both rules 7.2.1 sici vṛddhiḥ parasmaipadeṣu and 7.2.114 mṛjer vṛddhiḥ also provide for vṛddhi. Rule 7.2.4 can only negate the vṛddhi provision with reference to 7.2.3. It cannot negate the provisions of 7.2.1 or 7.2.114 as these rules are not most immediate to it. The commentators consider this paribhāsā more powerful than 108.

### 110. ubhayanirdeśe pañcamīnirdeśo balīyaḥ (71)

If there is a conflict between operations specified by saptamī 'locative' and pañcamī 'ablative', the one specified by pañcamī prevails. Consider the interpretation of rule 8.3.32 namo hrasvād aci namun nityam where namah is in the ablative and aci is in the locative. This rule introduces augments  $\dot{n}UT$ ,  $\dot{n}UT$ , and nUT to items specified by pañcamī and saptamī. If one takes the locative interpretation, then, in view of 1.1.66 tasminn iti..., the augments will be introduced to that  $\dot{n}AM$  ( $\dot{n}$ , n, n,) which is immediately followed by aC. According to the ablative interpretation, however, the augments will be introduced to the aC which comes immediately after (1.1.67 tasmād ity uttarasya) the nAM. Consider kurvan āste 'he is engaged in doing or making', where kurvan is a pada ending in n which, in turn, occurs before the  $\bar{a}$  of aste. Furthermore, the n of kurvan occurs after a short a (hrasvāt). According to the locative interpretation, n ( $n\bar{U}T$ ) will be introduced to the *n* of kurvan. This will yield kurva  $+ n + n + \bar{a}ste = kurvann \bar{a}ste$ . An ablative interpretation will introduce the n to the  $\bar{a}$  of  $\bar{a}$ ste with the result being  $*kurvan + n\bar{a}ste$ .

However, a problem still remains with the locative interpretation. Rule 8.4.37 padāntasya negates the replacement of the final n of a pada by n. If the n of 8.2.32 is introduced to kurvan, its final n cannot be saved from being replaced by n. Rule 8.4.37 cannot block this replacement. If, however, the n is introduced to n, kurvan can save its n from being replaced by n. For this reason, the ablative interpretation prevails.

The locative of aci also is intended for the subsequent rule 8.2.33 may uño vo vā. In the absence of an ablative interpretation, the ablative of namaḥ will be without scope (niravakāśa). This niravakāśatva favours the ablative interpretation. However, consider rule 8.2.29 naḥ si dhuṭ where naḥ (ablative) and si (locative) both will be without any scope elsewhere. Here again, the ablative interpretation will prevail, although for a different reason. Rule 1.1.67 tasmād... is subsequent to 1.1.66 tasminn... and hence, according to 1.4.2 vipratiṣedhe..., the subsequent rule will prevail.

What if both the locative and ablative used in a rule find their scope elsewhere? Such an example is 7.1.52 āmi sarvanāmnaḥ suṭ where āt (ablative) has its scope in 7.1.50 āj jaser suk from whence it is carried and āmi has its scope in 7.1.53 tres trayaḥ. Here again 1.4.2 will be invoked and an ablative interpretation will prevail.

### 111. sūtre lingavacanam atantram (74)

Gender and number specific to a rule should not be treated as absolute. When Pāṇini uses a particular item in a particular gender and number, the reference of that item should not be treated as limited to that particular number and gender. Consider 4.1.92 tasyāpatyam where tasya is singular and apatyam is neuter. Since apatyam is neuter, if one applies 4.1.105 gargādibhyo yañ which carries the anuvṛtti of 4.1.92, one would only get \*gārgyam 'offspring of Garga' and not gārgyaḥ 'male offspring of Garga'. The masculine gārgyaḥ would be ruled out. Similarly, on the basis of a singular in tasya, one could not get the dual gārgyau. Paribhāṣā 110 legitimizes these other forms. As a result, tasya does not just refer to the singular and apatyam is not strictly limited to neuter.

The existence of this paribhāṣā is indicated by rules 2.2.2 ardhaṃ napuṃsakam and 1.4.1 ā kaḍārād ekā saṃjñā. In 2.2.2, if Pāṇini had intended only the neuter gender, he need not have explicitly used napuṃsakam. The neuter idea would have been carried by ardham itself. Hence, on the strength of the explicit use of napuṃsakam one concludes that a gender in a rule does not become absolute. Similarly, the explicit mention of ekā in 1.4.1 indicates that number is also not absolute. The singular, if it had been intended to be absolute, automatically could have been conveyed by the use in the singular of pada, bha and aṅga terms.

### 112. samniyogaśistānām antarāpāye ubhayor apy apāyaḥ (112)

Whenever a rule introduces two things concurrently, if one is removed then the other also is removed. Recall the derivation of pañcendraḥ 'a mantra whose deities are five Indrāṇīs' where pañcan + Jas and indrāṇī + Jas are combined in a dvigu compound by rule 2.1.51 taddhitārthottara.... The compound pañcendrāṇī results from the deletion of the Jas and n of pañcan and the replacement of the a of pañca and the i of indrāṇī with a single guṇa substitute. After pañcendrāṇī, rule 4.2.24 sāsya devatā introduces aŅ which later is deleted by 4.1.88 dvigor lug anapatye. Then rule 1.2.49 luk taddhita luki demanding the deletion of the feminine affix NiP occurring after indrāṇī is applied. This affix was introduced after indra by rule 4.1.49 indravaruṇa.... In addition, this same rule concurrently introduced the augment  $\bar{a}nUK$  to indra. Since  $\bar{a}nUK$  is marked with K, it is introduced at the end of indra (cf. 1.1.46 ādyantau ṭakitau). Thus, we find indra  $+ \bar{a}nUK + NiP = indra + \bar{a}n + \bar{i} = indrāṇī$ .

When rule 1.2.49 applies deleting the  $\dot{N}\bar{\imath}P$  of pañcendrāṇ $\bar{\imath}$  paribhāṣā 112 intervenes as  $\dot{N}\bar{\imath}P$  and  $\bar{a}nUK$  were introduced concurrently. As a result, when  $\dot{N}\bar{\imath}P$  is deleted,  $\bar{a}nUK$  must also be deleted. Thus, pañcendr $(\bar{a}n \to \emptyset)(\bar{\imath} \to \emptyset) = pañcendra$ . Note that the final a of indra was there when  $\bar{a}nUK$  and  $\dot{N}\bar{\imath}P$  were introduced; therefore, it will be restored when they are removed.

### 113. tanmadhyapatitas tadgrahanena grhyate (96)

A given form can also represent its derivates provided that what is introduced in the derivation is contained within that form. For example, forms such as sarvaka 'all, entire', and uccakaiḥ 'high' are derived by introducing an affix  $ak\tilde{A}C$  after sarva, a pronoun, and uccaiḥ, an indeclinable (5.3.71 avyayasarvanāmnām akac prāk ṭeḥ). This affix is introduced before the ṭi (1.1.64 acò'ntyādi ṭi; that part of an item beginning with its last vowel) of an item. Consequently,  $sarv + ak\tilde{A}C + a = sarvaka$  and  $ucc + ak\tilde{A}C + aih = uccakaih$ .

Now, consider rules 1.1.27 sarvādīni sarvanāmāni, and 1.1.37 svarādinipātam avyayam, which defines the term avyaya. Ruļe 1.1.27 assigns the term sarvanāman to those forms enumerated in the list headed by sarva 'all'. Similarly, 1.1.37 assigns the term avyaya to those forms which are either enumerated in the list headed by svar 'heaven' or are termed nipāta. Since sarvaka and uccakaiḥ are items which are not covered by the scope of rules 1.1.27 and 1.1.43, sarvaka cannot be assigned the term sarvanāman and uccakaiḥ cannot be called an avyaya. However, in the absence of the assignments of these terms, operations specific to sarvanāman and avyaya cannot be performed. For example, sarvake, the nominative plural of sarvaka, as well as sarvakasmai and sarvakasmāt, the dative and ablative singulars, cannot be derived in a manner parallel to the derivation of sarve, sarvasmai, and sarvasmāt. Similarly, a sUP introduced after uccakaiḥ cannot be deleted in the absence of the assignment of the term avyaya.

It is to remove these difficulties that this paribhāṣā enables sarva and uccaiḥ to represent sarvaka and uccakaiḥ as well, on the grounds that akĀC is contained within sarva and uccaiḥ.

### 114. upapadavibhakteh karakavibhaktir balīyasī (103)

A nominal ending specified with reference to a kāraka is more powerful than one specified with reference to an upapada 'co-occurring pada'. Consider rules 2.3.2 karmapravacanīyayukte dvitīyā and 2.3.28 apādāne pañcamī. Rule 2.3.2 introduces dvitīyā 'accusative singular' after a nominal stem co-occurring with an item termed karmapravacanīya. Rule 2.3.28 introduces pañcamī 'ablative singular' after a nominal stem when the ablative (apādāna) is to be denoted. Now consider the sentence kuto' dhyāgacchati 'where is he coming from' where kutaḥ is in the ablative. By 1.4.93 adhiparī anarthakau, adhi of adhyāgacchati may be termed a karmapravacanīya. Since kim of kutaḥ co-occurs with adhi, a karmapravacanīya, according to rule 2.3.2, kim should take dvitīyā, the accusative. Instead, since this paribhāṣā favours a nominal ending specific to a kāraka rather than one which is specific to a co-occurring item, kim is introduced with pañcamī by rule 2.3.28.

### Kāraka and Vibhakti

The following is a controlled listing of the domain of Pāṇini's kārakas.

1.4.1 ā kadārād ekā samjñā

'only one term is to be assigned prior to kaḍāra (2.3.38 kaḍārāḥ kar-madhāraye)'

1.4.2 vipratiședhe param kāryam

'the subsequent (para) is to be applied when there is conflict between two rules of equal strength'

1.4.23 *kārake* 

'the kāraka...'

1.4.24 dhruvam apāye' pādanam

'a kāraka which is fixed (dhruva) when movement away (apāya) is denoted is termed apādāna (ablative)'

1.4.32 karmaṇā yam abhipraiti sa sampradānam

'a kāraka which the agent wishes to reach through the object is termed sampradāna (dative)'

1.4.42 sādhakatamam karanam

'a kāraka which is most instrumental in bringing an action to accomplishment is termed karana (instrument)'

1.4.44 ādhāro' dhikaranam

'a kāraka which serves as locus (ādhāra) is termed adhikaraṇa'

1.4.49 kartur īpsitatamam karma

'a kāraka which the agent (kartṛ) wishes the most is termed karman'

1.4.54 svantantraḥ karttā

'a kāraka which is independent (svatantra) is termed kartṛ'

The six kārakas, i.e. apādāna, sampradāna, karaṇa, adhikaraṇa, karman and kartṛ, have been discussed under rule 1.4.23 kārake. This rule has received different interpretations because (a) it is an adhikāra, (b) Pāṇini puts kārake in the locative (saptamī) and (c) kāraka is a technical term (saṃjñā). There are three possible interpretations of this rule:

- (a) kārake is an adhikāra whereby the technical term kāraka is introduced,
- (b) kārake states a meaning condition, and
- (c) kārake serves as a qualifier (viśeṣana) to the domain of the terms apādāna, etc.

Commentators have evaluated these interpretations in light of the following considerations.

- (a) kāraka is a technical term which, according to its etymological meaning, denotes a thing which brings about an action,
- (b) the term kāraka should denote only the six categories of apādāna, etc., and
- (c) each of the six  $k\bar{a}raka$  categories must also be assigned the term  $k\bar{a}raka$ . Fact (a) establishes a necessary connection between  $k\bar{a}raka$  and  $kriy\bar{a}$  'action'. Fact (b) restricts the number of things to which the term  $k\bar{a}raka$  may be assigned. Fact (c) requires that a thing which serves as  $ap\bar{a}d\bar{a}na$  must also serve as a  $k\bar{a}raka$ . These three facts are interrelated.

Returning to the three interpretations of 1.4.23, we find that the Kāśikāvṛtti seems to be following the second, i.e., the meaning condition view. This interpretation is motivated by the fact that Pāṇini puts kārake in the locative. The Kāśikā seems to interpret the word kāraka as kriyā. However, the Kāśikā's interpretation, and its vṛtti on subsequent rules, is confusing. Consider, for example, its vṛtti on rule 1.4.24 dhruvam apāye' pādānam:

dhruvam (yad apāyayuktam) apāye sādhye (yad avadhibhūtamtat kārakam) apādānasamjñam bhavati

If one follows the 'meaning condition' view, and accordingly interprets  $k\bar{a}raka$  as denoting  $kriy\bar{a}$ , the above vrtti should be rephrased, without that which I have enclosed in parentheses, as follows:

dhruvam apāye sādhye apādānasamjñam bhavati 'a thing which is dhruva 'fixed' when apāya 'movement away' is to be accomplished is assigned the name apādāna (ablative)'

This interpretation obviously will run into problems. For example, in sentences such as grāmasya samīpād āgacchati 'he is coming from the vicinity of the village', and vṛkṣasya parṇāni patanti 'leaves of the tree are falling', both grāma 'village' and vṛkṣa 'tree' will qualify for the assignment of the term apādāna. To overcome these difficulties, Kāsikā includes the word apāyayuktam in the vṛṭti to imply that apāya, being a relative notion, entails saṃśleṣa 'conjunction'. This will rule out the assignment of the term apādāna to grāma in sentence (1) as it is the vicinity of the village and not the village itself which is in conjunction with the reference to movement away. However, the difficulty mentioned in connection with the second sentence still remains. One may resort to vivakṣā 'intent to speak,' as has been advocated by the Mahābhāṣya, and state that in the second sentence the speaker does not wish to speak about vṛṣṣa as apādāna. This will

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>1</sup> Kāś. I: 535.

 $<sup>^2</sup>$  see also Mbh. I, 241: nātra grāmo' pāyayuktaḥ. kiṃ tarhi? samīpam. yadā ca grāmo' pāyayukto bhavati tadā' pādānasaṃjñā.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>3</sup> Ibid.: na vā eṣa doṣah. kiṃ kāraṇam? apāyasyāvivakṣitatvāt nātrāpāyo vivaksitah...

remove the difficulty concerning *vṛkṣa* being assigned the term *apādāna*; still, *apāyayuktam* is used in the *vṛtti* as part of a relative construction with *yad...tad*. Furthermore, there is syntactic coordination between *kārakam* and *apādānasaṃjñam* which, for all practical purposes, amounts to calling *apādāna* a *kāraka*. This will run counter to the 'meaning condition view' and favour the technical term (*saṃjñā*) view of the first interpretation.

Both the 'technical term' and the 'qualifier' views have been discussed in the Mahābhāṣya where, according to the first interpretation, kāraka becomes a technical term introduced by 1.4.23 as an adhikāra. Many arguments have been raised against this interpretation. Why didn't Pāṇini put kāraka in the nominative as is his practice elsewhere? If kāraka is a technical term, why didn't Pāṇini define it? There is no satisfactory explanation for the locative of kāraka unless one abandons the saṃjñā view. Patañjali, however, is not bothered by the locative. He argues that since this is the domain of ekasaṃjñā 'one term', kāraka cannot be anything but a saṃjñā which, perhaps, Pāṇini chose not to define since it already was a fairly well-known term. Besides, kāraka, being a derivative with NvuL, can be used as an anvarthasaṃjñā, a technical term denoting its etymological meaning.

There are yet other problems with the samjñā view. For one thing, the term kāraka is introduced as a term in the domain of ekasamjñā. Since a thing which is termed apādāna should also be termed kāraka, a situation of samjñāsamāveśa 'class-inclusion' arises which goes directly against the ekasamjñā requirement. To remove this difficulty, rule splitting (yogavibhāga) is invoked according to which individual rules will be split in two with kāraka carried via anuvrtti. Thus, 1.4.24 dhruvam apāye' pādānam will be interpreted as follows.

- (a) apāye dhruvam kārakasamjñam bhavati 'a thing which is fixed when movement away is denoted is termed kāraka'
- (b) apāye dhruvam kārakam apādānasamjñam bhavati 'a kāraka which is fixed when movement away is denoted is termed apādāna'

Obviously, resorting to yogavibhāga will be prolix (gaurava). In addition, kāraka will be accepted as a term defined on the basis of its etymological meaning. But since kāraka is derived by introducing NvuL denoting kartr,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>4</sup> Mbh. I, 239-40: kim idam 'kārake' iti? samjňānirdeśah... kāraka iti samjňānirdeśaś cet samjňino' pi nirdeśah kartavyah. samjňādhikāraś ceyam. tatra kim anyac chakyam vijňātūm anyad atah samjňāyāh...

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>5</sup> Mbh. I, ?42: tatra mahatyāḥ saṃjñāyāḥ karaṇe etat prayojanam anvarthasaṃjñā yathā vijñāyeta 'karotīti kārakam.'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>6</sup>PM ad Kāś. I, 531: ucyate samjñāpakṣe- apāye yad dhruvam tat kārakasamjñam bhavati, apādānasamjñam cety ayam artho bhavati, evam anyatrāpi...

kāraka will refer to a thing which is the doer. Since all the other kārakas are also participants in an action and since they also are all termed kāraka, they all will be treated as kartṛ. This being the case, Pāṇini did not have to define the term kartṛ by rule 1.4.54 svatantraḥ karttā. Kāraka and kartṛ will become synonymous. Further proposals have been made in the Mahābhāṣya<sup>7</sup> to resolve this difficulty. An action may be viewed as a composite of several actions. For example, the action of cooking denoted by verbal root pac underlies such actions as arranging the fire with the firewood, putting the pot on the stove, placing the rice in it, stirring the rice and finally softening (viklitti) it.<sup>8</sup>

A kāraka can be viewed as svatantrakartṛ 'independent agent' with reference to its own action. It can be termed apādāna, etc., with reference to the principal action. Thus, a pot (sthālī) because of its capacity to contain rice on a stove, can be viewed as kartṛ. When a speaker wishes to highlight his status of the pot, he uses it as the kartṛ. Of course, then the principal agent, such as Devadatta of

(1) devadattah sthālyām odanam pacati

'Devadatta is cooking the rice in the pot', is not used. As a result, we get

(2) sthālī pacati

'the pot is cooking'. This explanation, however, also runs into difficulty, since, of six kārakas, only karman, karṇa and adhikaraṇa can be seen as kartṛ. Should we accept vivakṣā as reason for the lack of kartṛ status for apādāna and samprādāna? The answer seems to be in the affirmative.

We shall now return to the third, the qualifier view. According to this view, kārake is treated as an adhikāra to restrict the application of the word kāraka only to the six categories of apādāna, sampradāna, karaṇa, adhikaraṇa, karman and kartṛ. The locative will then be interpreted as that of specification (nirdhāraṇa). However, since the question of nirdhāraṇa arises only when one has to specify a single entity from among many, the singular in kārake should be treated as denoting jāti 'class'. Thus, kārake will be equivalent to kārakeṣu 'among the kārakas'. Rule 1.4.24 will then be interpreted as follows.

kārake (şu madhye) yad dhruvam kārakam tad apādānasamjñam bhavaty apāye sādhye

'a kāraka which is dhruva when movement away is to be accomplished is termed apādāna'

This interpretation still subscribes to the idea that kāraka denotes its

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>7</sup> Mbh. I, 242-43: ...pratikārakam kriyābhedāt. pacādīnām hi pratikārakam kriyā bhidyate...

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>8</sup> Ibid.: adhiśrayaṇodakaśecanataṇḍulāvapanaidhopakarṣaṇādikriyāḥ kurvann eva devadattaḥ pacatīty ucyate. tatra tadā paci vartate...

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>9</sup> PM ad Kāś. I, 531: viśeṣaṇādhikāre tu- kārakeṣu madhye yad apāye dhruvam kārakam ity artho labhyate, nirdhāraṇasya sajātīyaviṣayatvād iti...

etymological meaning, *kartṛ*. It is suggested that this difficulty can be removed by treating an action as a composite of several actions. <sup>10</sup> Most of the interpretation problems entailed by 1.4.23 stem from the locative in *kārake*. The qualifier interpretation is preferable because it does not propose to interpret locative as nominative, nor does it resort to rule-splitting (yogavibhāga).

Questions have been raised concerning whether a kāraka is a thing and whether or not the different kārakas are one and the same. A kāraka may be a thing but a thing is not always a kāraka. What makes a thing a kāraka is the power (śakti) of bringing an action towards completion. This power does not inhere in things. Instead, they can serve as substratum for it. When a thing serves as the substratum for power, the thing is a kāraka. Since all kārakas serve as means towards completing an action and all share the same power served by things as their substratum, all kārakas are the same. However, differences among the kārakas are maintained. A difference is to be maintained between the agent (kartr) and the other kārakas because it is the kartr which brings other kārakas into play. The power to act as kartr comes to the agent prior to all the other kārakas. 11 Since every action is looked upon as a composite of several subordinate actions, kārakas of these subordinate actions can be treated as kartr. They are not independent with regard to the main action. However, in regard to their subordinate actions, they are independent. The kāraka also may be viewed differently depending upon vivakṣā 'intent of the speaker'. Thus, what is looked upon as object (karman) can be looked upon as kartr if the speaker wishes to speak about it as such. A grammarian would rather view the kārakas as one and the same, but he is forced to view them as distinct since he believes in the authority (prāmānya) of words (śabda) and words are determined by usage and usage follows the realities of the outside world (loka). Thus, the grammarian has to follow the practice in the outside world where people do view the kārakas as different. Hence the grammarian views them as different. Related to this aspect of the kāraka is the question whether things which serve as kārakas must be animate. A kāraka, in view of the traditional grammarians, does not necessarily have to be animate.

Pāṇini constrains the rules of the kāraka domain by rules 1.4.1 ā kaḍārād ekā saṃjña and 1.4.2 vipratiṣedhe paraṃ kāryam. These rules state that only one term per nominatum (saṃjñin) should be assigned. A conflict between two terms is to be resolved in favour of the term introduced by the subsequent rule. It should be noted here that resolving conflicts between two terms is not solely the function of rule 1.4.2. Indeed, some conflicts related

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>10</sup> see above fn. 7.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>11</sup>VP. III:140: prāg anyataḥ śaktilābhān nyagbhāvāpādanād api; tadadhīnapravṛttitvāt pravṛttānām nivartanāt.

to the assignment of terms from this ekasamjñā domain cannot be solved by 1.4.2. This rule resolves conflicts only between two terms which are both  $s\bar{a}vak\bar{a}\acute{s}a$  'with scope of application'. Conflicts between two terms of this domain where one term is  $s\bar{a}vak\bar{a}\acute{s}a$  and the other  $niravak\bar{a}\acute{s}a$  'without any scope of application elsewhere' are resolved on the basis of  $niravak\bar{a}\acute{s}atva$  under the requirement of 1.4.1  $\bar{a}$   $kad\bar{a}r\bar{a}d...$ 

Consider the following examples.

- (3) krūrāya krudhyati'... is angry with the cruel one'
- (4) krūram ahikrudhyati 'id'
- (5) geham praviśati'... is entering the house'
- (6) \*gehe praviśati 'id.'

Krūra 'cruel' in (3) is used with caturthī 'fourth triplet of nominal ending' to express sampradāna (2.3.13 caturthī sampradāne), but, in (4) it is used with dvitīyā 'second triplet of nominal ending' to express karman (2.3.2 karmanī dvitīyā). Krūra in (3) is assigned sampradāna since it is identified as one towards whom anger is directed (1.4.37 krudha...yam pratī kopaḥ). It is assigned karman in (4) because there krudh 'to be angry' is used with the preverb abhi (1.4.38 krudhadruhor upasṛṣṭayoḥ karma). Now, 1.4.37 is sāvakāśa as it may apply to sentences where krudh is used without a preverb, but, 1.4.38 will be redundant if it does not apply in situations where krudh is used with a preverb. Nothing in 1.4.37 restrains its application to krūra because of 1.4.38 being vacuous (vyartha). As a consequence, 1.4.38 blocks 1.4.37 and assigns karman uniquely to krūra. Remember that this conflict, because of the niravakāśatva of 1.4.38, cannot be resolved on the paratva basis mentioned in 1.4.2.

Sentences (5) and (6) illustrate a conflict between two terms, adhikaraṇa and karman, resolved on the basis of paratva and sāvakāśatva. These sentences use geha 'house' in dvitīyā and saptamī 'seventh triplet of nominal ending' (2.3.36 saptamy adhikaraṇe...) respectively to express karman (1.4.46 adhiśīnsthāsāṃ karma) and adhikaraṇa (1.4.44 ādhāro' dhikaraṇam). Sentence (6) is ungrammatical because geha cannot be termed locus (adhikaraṇa) and hence, saptamī cannot be introduced to express it. This does not mean that a conflict between rules 1.4.44 and 1.4.46 does not arise. Both karman and adhikaraṇa are terms which are sāvakāśa elsewhere. They are equally applicable to geha in (5). Rule 1.4.2 is invoked to resolve the conflict in favour of karman introduced by Rule 1.4.46 which is subsequent to 1.4.44.

 $<sup>^{</sup> ilde{1}2}$ Mbh. I, 204: dvau prasangau yadānyārthau bhavata ekasmiņšca yugapat prāpnuta $\dot{p}$ ...

Since Pāṇini resolves certain conflicts involving the kāraka terms on the basis of paratva, the ordering of rules which enumerate them is important. The notion of paratva requires that the kāraka rules be arranged in a sequence most conducive to resolving conflicts. Pāṇini enumerates the six kāraka terms in the order of apādāna, sampradāna, karaṇa, adhikaraṇa, karman and kartṛ. One can assume that kartṛ will prevail in conflicts over the assignment of the other kāraka terms. Similarly, karman will prevail over all the other kārakas besides kartṛ. The relative strength of the other kārakas can also be determined. However, one should not overplay this relative strength as there may be conflicts entailing niravakāśatva which may also be resolved in favour of a rule which may not be subsequent.

Pāṇini specifies his kāraka categories based upon the principle of sāmānya 'general', viśeṣa 'particular' and śeṣa 'residual'. The six categories are identified by general rules formulated based upon linguistic generalizations. Particular rules form exceptions to them. Usage which cannot be accounted for by the above two rule types is governed by rules relegated to the residual category. It is obvious that these exceptions are necessary to capture the peculiarities of usage falling outside the scope of the general rules. One can also interpret it as Pāṇini's desire not to class a certain thing x as belonging to the class y under the provision of a general rule z. In any case, Pāṇini's formulation of particular rules constitutes an effort on his part to readjust his kāraka definitions.

It has already been stated that action  $(kriy\bar{a})$  denoted by means of verbal roots is central to the idea of  $k\bar{a}rakas$  which act as participants in bringing an action to accomplishment. It is only logical that readjustments be offered in view of the nature of both the action as well as its related participants. Since a general rule classes a  $k\bar{a}raka$  category in view of generalization, readjustments must be offered relative to particulars. The following is a tabular listing of general  $k\bar{a}raka$  rules followed by particular details concerning readjustments.

KĀRAKA

sūtra	Participant	Action	Category
1	2	3	4
1.4.24 dhruvam apāye' pādānam	dhruvam 'fixed'	<i>apāya</i> 'movement away'	apādāna
1.4.25 bhītrārthānāṃ bhayahetuḥ	bhayahetuḥ 'source of fear'	denoted by roots having the meaning of <i>bhī</i> 'to fear' and <i>trā</i> 'to protect'	—do—
1.4.26 parājer asodhah	asodhah 'unbearable'	denoted by ji 'to win' used with the preverb parā	do

1	2	3	4
1.4.27 vāraņārthānām īpsitaḥ	īpsitaḥ 'desired'	denoted by roots meaning vāraņa 'to ward off'	apādāna
1.4.28 antarddhau yenādarśanam icchati	he by whom one does not want to be seen	antarddhi 'hiding'	—do—
1.4.29 ākhyātopayage	ākhyātā 'relator'	<i>upayoga</i> 'regular instruction'	do
1.4.30 janikarttuh prakrtih	karttuḥ prakṛtiḥ 'material cause of the agent'	jan 'to be born'	do
1.4.31 bhuvaḥ prabhavaḥ	<i>prabhavaḥ</i> 'place of origin'	denoted by $bh\bar{u}$ 'to be, become'	do
1.4.32 karmaṇā yam abhipraiti sa sam- pradānam	he whom the agent intends as the goal		sampradāna
1.4.33 rucyarthānāṃ prīyamāṇaḥ	<i>prīyamāṇaḥ</i> 'one who is pleased'	denoted by roots meaning ruc 'to please'	do
1.4.34 ślāghahnun- sthāśapāṃ jñīpsyamānaḥ	jñīpsyamānaḥ 'one who is informed'	denoted by ślāgh 'to praise', hnun 'to hide', śap 'to swear'	do
1.4.35 dhārer uttamarṇaḥ	uttamarṇaḥ 'creditor'	denoted by <i>dhāri</i> 'to owe'	do
1.4.36 sprher īpsitaḥ	īpsitaḥ 'desired'	denoted by <i>spṛhĀ</i> 'to yearn after	do
1.4.37 krudha- druhersyāsūyā- rthānām yam prati kopah	yam prati kopah 'one toward whom anger is directed'	denoted by krudhĀ 'to be angry', druhĀ 'to wish harm to', īrsyĀ 'not to tolerate', and asūya 'to find fault'	—do—
1.4.38 krudhadruhor upasṛṣṭayoḥ karma	do	denoted by $krudh$ and $druh\bar{A}$ used with a preverb	karman
1.4.39 rādhīksyor yasya vipraśnah	yasya vipraśnah 'one about whom inquiries are made'	denoted by <i>rādhĀ</i> 'to satisfy' and <i>īkṣĀ</i> 'to look to'	do
1.4.40 pratyānbhyām śruvah pūrvasya karttā	pūrvasya karttā 'agent of a prior act of requesting'	denoted by śru 'to hear' used with the preverb prati	do
1.4.41 anupratigrnas ca	—do—	denoted by gr 'to chant' used with anu and prati	do

1	2	3	4
1.4.42 sādhakatamam karaṇam	sādhakatamam 'a thing which is most instrumental'		karaṇa
1.4.43 divaḥ karma ca	karman 'object'	denoted by div 'to play'	_do_
l .4.44 parikrayane sampradānam anyatarasyām	karaṇa	denoted by roots meaning <i>parikrayana</i> 'bonded labour'	sampradāna
1.4.45 ādhāro' dhikaraṇam	ādhāraḥ 'locus'		adhikaraṇa
1.4.46 adhīśīn- sthāsāṃ karma	karman	denoted by $\hat{siN}$ 'to recline', $sth\bar{a}$ 'to stand', $\bar{a}s\bar{A}$ 'to sit' when used with the preverb $adhi$	—do—
1.4.47 abhiniviśaḥ	do	denoted by vis 'to enter' used with abhi and ni	do
1.4.48 upānvadhyān- vasaḥ	—do—	denoted by $vas \tilde{A}$ 'to dwell' used with $upa$ , $anu$ , $adhi$ and $\bar{a}\dot{n}$	do
1.4.49 karttur īpsītatamaṃ karma	karttur ipsitatamam 'most desired by the agent'		karman
1.4.50 tathāyuktam cānīpsitam	karttur anīpsitam 'something other than what is desired by the agent'		—do—
1.4.51 akathitam ca	akathitam 'not stated thus far'	••••	—do—
1.4.52 gatibuddhi- pratyavasānā- rthaśabdakarmā- karmākānām ani karttā sa nau	aṇi karttā 'non- causal agent'	causal action denoted by roots meaning gati 'motion' buddhi 'perception' pratya- vasāna 'to consume'; actions with noise as karman; and actions with no karman	—do—
1.4.53 hṛkor anyata- rasyām	karttā	non-causal action denoted by $hr\tilde{N}$ 'to carry', $DUkr\tilde{N}$ 'to do, make'	—do—
1.1.54 svatantraḥ karttā	<i>svatantraḥ</i> 'independent'		kartṛ
1.4.55 tatprayo- jako hetuś ca	karttuh prayojakah 'instigator of the agent'		kartṛ, hetu

A review of these tabular statements reveals some interesting facts. The six  $k\bar{a}raka$  categories are defined in terms of generalized semantic equivalents. However, no one-to-one correspondence between the semantic equivalent and corresponding assignment of a  $k\bar{a}raka$  term is acceptable. A  $k\bar{a}raka$  is simply a participant in an action. The  $k\bar{a}raka$  category to which a participant is assigned depends upon the nature of the action, the role this participant plays in that action and the manner in which the speaker wishes to speak about that role. A participant in an action is a  $k\bar{a}raka$  with reference to that action. Generally one would expect that a category x would be assigned to a particular  $k\bar{a}raka$  in accordance with the semantic equivalency, but this may not be the case. A  $k\bar{a}raka$  may be viewed as belonging to category x in regards to semantic equivalency, yet it may be classed in category y. This amounts to saying that a  $k\bar{a}raka$  refers to the category as classed and not a semantic equivalent.  $^{13}$ 

The following sentences illustrate these observations.

- (7) himavato gaṅgā prabhavati (1.4.31) 'the Gaṅgā originates in the Himālaya'
- (8) \*himavati gangā prabhavati (1.4.45)
- (9) yavebhyo gā vārayati (1.4.27) '...is warding cows off the barley'
- (10) phalebhyah spṛhayati (1.4.36) '...yearns for fruits'
- (11) phalāni sprhayati (1.4.49)
- (12) devadattāya ślāghate (1.4.34) '...is praising Devadatta'
- (13) \*devadattaṃ ślāghate (1.4.49)
- (14) krūrāya krudhyati (1.4.37) 'is angry with the cruel one'
- (15) krūram abhikrudhyati (1.4.38)
- (16) akṣān dīvyati (1.4.43) '...plays the dice'
- (17) akṣair dīvyati (1.4.42) '...plays with dice'
- (18) *śatena parikrīṭaḥ* (1.4.42) '...hired for a hundred'
- (19) śatāya parikrīṭaḥ (1.4.44)
- (20) grāme vasati (1.4.45) "...is living in the village"
- (21) grāmam abhinivisate '...enters the village'
- (22) grāmam adhisete (1.4.46) "...sleeps in the village"

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>13</sup> See álso Cardona (unpublished (a)).

- (23) devadattaḥ grāmād āgatya kāṣṭhaiḥ sthālyām odanaṃ pacati 'Devadatta, having returned from the village, is cooking rice with firewood in the pot'
- (24) sthālī pacati (1.4.54) 'the pot is cooking'
- (25) odanaḥ pacati (1.4.54) 'the rice is cooking'
- (26) kāṣṭhāni pacanti (1.4.54) 'the firewoods are cooking'

Recall that apādāna, sampradāna, karaņa, adhikaraņa, karman and kartr have been defined with generalized semantic equivalencies as dhruva (1.4.24)—...yam abhipraiti (1.4.34), sādhakatamam (1.4.42), ādhāraḥ (1.4.45), îpsitatamam (1.4.49) and svatantrali (1.4.54) respectively. Sentences (8) and (13) are incorrect because they attempt to assign the categories adhikarana and karman to himavat and devadatta in accordance with the semantic equivalents. Rules 1.4.31 and 1.4.34 which expressly require the assignment of apadana and karman will be rendered without any scope of application (niravakāśa). Thus, what could have been semantically classed as adhikarana and karman are classed as apādāna and sampradana. These rules are both occasioned by what one may call surface constraints. Similar constraints operate in the formation of rules 1.4.27, 1.4.36, 1.4.38, 1.4.46 and 1.4.47. Rule 1.4.27 requires that a kāraka serving as a thing desired, when roots having the signification of vāraņa are in use, is termed apādāna. Rule 1.4.36 assigns the category sampradana to a thing one desires, when, of course, the action is denoted by sprh 'to yearn'. Sentences (9), (10), (15), (21) and (22) illustrate this.

Sentences (23) through (26) are included to illustrate the aspect of vivakṣā. Sentence (23) uses grāma, kāṣṭha, sthālī and odana to denote respectively apādāna, karaṇa, adhikaraṇa and karman. Kartṛ is expressed by the verbal ending tiP. Sentences (24), (25) and (26) view sthālī, odana and kāṣṭha as their kartṛ; of course, devadatta, the main kartṛ of (23) is not used in these sentences. Commentators explain that sthālī, odana and kāṣṭha are all kartṛ with reference to their own actions (see above fns. 7, 8). A speaker may wish to highlight their kartṛtva and consequently may use sentences (24-26). It is interesting to note that there are no examples where apādāna and sampradāna are used as kartṛ. Patañjali, however, cites

- (27) balāhako vidyotate 'the cloud is lightening' parallel to sentences
  - (28) balāhakād vidyotate 'it is lightening from the clouds', and

# (29) balāhake vidyotate

'it is lightening in the clouds'14

No such examples are cited for the kartṛtva of sampradāna. Even with the above examples, one must treat certain expressions as understood. Thus, (28) would be treated as balāhakād niḥṣṛtya vidyotate 'having come out of the clouds...' where niḥṣṛtya will be treated as understood (Bhāṣāvṛtti:42). Such usage of apādāna becomes parallel to pṛāṣādāt prekṣate 'he is looking from top of the palace' where (prāṣādam) āruhya 'having climbed (on top of the palace)' is to be supplied (Bhāṣāvṛtti:79).

I have already stated that 1.4.51 akathitam ca is residual (śeṣa) in nature. It states that a kāraka not classed as apādāna, etc., is classed as karman. A long discussion of the need for and exact scope of this rule is presented in the Mahābhāṣya (Mbh. II:413-28), especially with reference to a select list of verbs involving double objects. Thus, in

- (30) pauravam gām yācate 'he asks Paurava for a cow', and
- (31) gām dogdhi payaḥ 'he milks the milk from the cow'

go and payas are objects under the provisions of 1.4.49. Rule 1.4.51 assigns the term karman to Paurava and go which would have been confused with category apādāna.

Commentators have investigated the scope of the general kāraka categories at length. They have scrutinized not only the general properties of these kārakas, they have also discussed their subtypes. For example, the Mahābhāsya questions the propriety of stating additional rules specifying the category apādāna. That is, a question is raised whether rules 1.4.25 through 1.4.31 are even required at all. According to this view, 1.4.24 alone is sufficient to handle the instances of apādāna covered by these later rules. To do this, one must stipulate that apāya 'movement away' need not just be physical; mental turning away also counts. Consequently, the source of fear (1.4.25) and the thing unbearable (1.4.26) could serve as dhruva for purposes of mental contact and aversion. Similar arguments are made against other rule formulations. Examples such as

### (32) dhāvato' śvāt patati

'he is falling off the running horse'

are cited to illustrate that *dhruva* should not be interpreted in its literal sense of being fixed. Instead, it should be interpreted as point of reference for movement away. This would allow a running horse to serve as fixed

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>14</sup> Mbh. I, 204: ...tayoḥ paryāyeṇa vacanaṃ bhaviṣyati. vacanāśrayāc ca saṃjñā bhaviṣyati. tad yathā- balāhakād vidyotate vidyut. balāhake vidyotate. balāhako vidyotata iti.

<sup>15</sup> Mbh. I, 250-51: ayam yogah śakyo' vaktum. katham vrkebhyo bibheti caurebhyas trāyata iti? iha tāvat-...ya eṣa manuṣyah prekṣāpūrvakārī bhavati sa paśyati yadi mām vrkāh paśyanti dhruvo me mṛtyur iti. sa buddhyā samprāpya nivartate, tatra "dhruvam apāye' pādānam" ity eva siddham...

point for apāya since in a spatio-temporal continuum characterized by the act of running, the fall of the rider must have occurred at some particular point in time and space. Based upon whether the apāya is explicitly mentioned (nirdiṣṭa), indirectly included (upātta) or inferred, three types of apādāna are discussed: nirdiṣṭaviṣaya, upāttaviṣaya and apekṣitakriya (VP.III:392). Sentences (33-36) illustrate these subtypes.

- (33) grāmād āgacchati
  - "...is coming from the village"
- (34) balāhakād vidyotate vidyut
  - "...the lightening emanates from the clouds"
- (35) kuto bhavān?

'where have you come from?'

(36) pāṭalipūtrāt

'from Pāṭalipūtra'

Pāṇini uses the word karman both in the sense of the object and of the action. The word karmaṇā in 1.4.32 karmaṇā ...sampradānam has been interpreted both ways. If one interprets karmaṇā as 'by means of an object', a kāraka intended by means of an object will be treated as sampradāna. This would qualify the village (grāma) of

(37) ajām grāmam nayati

'he is leading the goat to the village'

to be wrongly termed sampradāna. To avoid this, an appeal is made to treat sampradāna as carrying its etymological meaning 'he to whom something is properly given' (samyak prakarṣeṇa dīyate yasmai). This, however, will restrict the use of sampradāna to actions denoted by verbs having the signification of dā 'to give'. The karman 'object' interpretation will still rule out assignment of sampradāna to a kāraka joining in an action denoted by an intransitive verb root. Consequently, śrāddha, yuddha and pati would not qualify for sampradāna in

(38) *śrāddhāya nigarhate* 'he disapproves of the *śrāddha* ritual',

(39) yuddhāya sannahyate 'he prepares for battle', and

(40) patye sete

'she reclines for her husband'.

Patañjali recommends that the word kriyayā 'by means of an action' should be read in the rule along with karmaṇā. <sup>17</sup> Thus, śrāddha, yuddha and pati will

Nyāsa ad Kāś. I, 545: ...yadi karmanā yam abhipraiti sa sampradānasamjño bhavati, evam ajām nayati grāmam ity ajādibhir nayanakriyākarmabhih sambadhyamānasya grāmasya sampradānasamjñā prasajyeta... sampradānam iti mahatyāh karanasyaitat prayojanam anvarthasamjñā yathā vijñāyeta samyak prakarṣena dīyate yasmai tat sampradānam iti...

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>17</sup> Mbh. I, 256: kriyāgrahaṇam api kartavyam. ihāpi yathā syāt śrāddhāya nigarhate, yuddhāya sannahyate, patye šete iti.

be entities intended by the action. But the question is: why didn't Pāṇini consider it. Besides, as Joshi says, 18 this would apply equally to karman 'object'. To avoid this, one may allow a conflict to obtain between sampradāna and karman which is resolvable, by 1.4.2, in favour of karman. Thus, in

### (41) upādhyāya gām dadāti

'he is giving the cow to the teacher'

go uniquely will be termed karman. Patañjali does not accept sampradāna as the indirect object of  $d\bar{a}$  'to give'. 19

Pāṇini uses superlatives in defining karaṇa and karman. The -tamaP of 1.4.42 and 1.4.49 requires that only the means par excellence be termed karaṇa. Similarly, the thing desired more than anything else is to be termed karman. Since all kārakas serve as means towards accomplishing an action, they all could be termed karaṇa. The use of -tamaP prevents this. Specifically, Pāṇini assigns the term sampradāna to the thing desired (īpsita) when it participates in an action denoted by spṛḥ. Obviously the absence of -tamaP, in īpsita, takes it out of the realm of the karman category. Rule 1.4.27 states that a desired thing is termed apādāna when participating in an action denoted by roots having the signification of vāraṇa 'to ward off'. Now if -tamaP is used in 1.4.49, māṇavaka 'boy' would qualify for both apādāna and karman in

### (42) agner māṇavakaṃ vārayati

'he is warding the boy off the fire'

The karman designation cannot prevail on the basis of paratva since 1.4.27 then would be left with no scope of application. This is further justification for keeping -tamaP in 1.4.49.

Bhartṛhari, 20 in the Vākyapadīya discussed three different types of karman 'object': nirvartya 'that which is brought about', vikārya 'that which is modified' and prāpya 'that which is reached'. A nirvartya object is one which is brought into existence. Thus, we get a sentence such as mṛdā ghaṭaṃ karoti 'he makes a pot with clay'. The pot here is newly brought into existence. As opposed to this, we find a sentence such as suvarṇaṃ kuṇḍale karoti 'he makes gold into ear-rings'. In this case, the gold attains a modified form (vikārya) but the material cause of the ear-rings is still the same. Instances where the material cause of a thing is totally destroyed would still be called vikārya although treated differently from one where the material cause is intact, as is the gold in the ear-rings. Consider kāṣṭhaṃ bhasma karoti 'he reduces the wood to ashes'. Here the material cause, wood, is completely destroyed. Finally, a prāpya-karman is beyond the effect

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>18</sup> Joshi (1975:109-10).

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>19</sup> Ibid.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>20</sup> VP. III: 138: nirvartyo vā vikāryo vā prāpyo vā sādhanāśrayaḥ, kriyāṇām eva sādhyatvāt siddharūpo' bhidhīyate.

of the action. At least no effect of action can be seen or inferred upon it. Thus, in sentences ādityam paśyati 'looks at the sun' and grāmam gacchati 'goes to the village', sun and village remain unaffected by the actions of seeing and going respectively. Note that in the two earlier types, the action does affect the karman. In case of nirvartya-karman, the material attains a new identity; in vikārya, it may be either totally destroyed or retained.

Additionally, four subtypes of karman have been recognized. Consider the following sentences.

(43) grāmam gaccan tṛṇam śpṛśati 'while going to the village he is touching the straw'

(44) visam bhunte

'he is consuming poison'

(45) māṇavakaṃ panthānaṃ pṛcchati 'he is asking the boy the direction'

(46) māṇavakam abhikrudhyati 'he is angry with the boy'

Sentence (43) has tṛṇa 'straw' as an object which is attained with indifference (audāsīnya). The poison (viṣam) of sentence (44) is certainly not desired by the agent, but is related to the action in the same way something desired would be related; this is aptly called an instance of anīpsita 'undesired' karman. Sentence (45) illustrates an instance of akathita 'not stated' karman. Thus, māṇavaka 'boy' is a karman which cannot be covered by categories previously classed. The karman status of māṇavaka in sentence (46) is different. It represents a type of karman which has previously been classed as some other kāraka. Thus, he towards whom anger is directed is classed as sampradāna 'dative'. However, here māṇavaka is classed as karman even though he is the one towards whom anger is directed. Why—because the verbal root krudh is used with the preverb abhi. Consequently, what was classed as sampradāna now is classed as karman.

Commentators also recognize three types of adhikaraṇa:<sup>21</sup> vyāpya where the locus totally encompasses the thing located in it, aupaśleṣika where the locus is characterized by proximity and vaiṣayika where it is characterized regardless of any physical contact or nearness. Thus, we find respectively

(47) tileşu tailam

'there is oil in sesame'

(48) gangāyām ghoşah

'the dwelling of cowherds on the bank of the Ganga' and

(49) garau vasati

'he is staying with the teacher'.

Kartṛ is the last kāraka term of the domain. It has been defined as one who participates in an action completely of his own accord. It is said to be independent (svatantra) in comparison to the participation of other

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>21</sup> Iyer (1969:323).

 $k\bar{a}rakas$  in an action. If action can be accepted as the central denotatum of a Sanskrit sentence, kartr is an a priori  $k\bar{a}raka$ . The independence of an agent lies in the fact that it is the first  $k\bar{a}raka$  to embark upon the accomplishment of an action. The other  $k\bar{a}rakas$  are brought into play by the agent. It is also the last  $k\bar{a}raka$  to cease its activity (see above fn. 11).

Since an action denoted by a primitive root is distinguished from one denoted by a derived causative root, a distinction between their agents must be maintained. Pāṇini additionally assigns the term hetu to the kartṛ of a causal action. Questions have been raised whether Devadatta of

(50) devadattah pacati

'Devadatta is cooking',

and Yajñadatta of

(51) devadattaḥ yajñadattena pācayaty odanam

'Devadatta has Yajñadatta cook the rice'

can be treated on par with respect to their independence (svātantrya). In (51), Devadatta is a prompter agent who has prompted agent Yajñadatta cook the rice. The prompter agent clearly can be viewed as more independent than the prompted one who becomes a kāraka in an action only after already having been prompted. Patañjali,<sup>22</sup> however, states that even though Yajñadatta has to wait to be prompted to act, he is independent with respect to the action of cooking in (51).

It has already been stated that based upon vivakṣā, a kāraka can be classed as kartṛ. Consider sentence

(52) devadattaḥ sthālyām agninā pacaty odanam

'Devadatta is cooking rice with fire in the pot'

The locus (adhikaraṇa), instrument (karaṇa) or object (karman) of (52) may be classed as kartṛ to yield the following sentences.

- (53) sthāly agninā pacaty odanam 'the pot is cooking the rice with fire'
- (54) sthālyām agniḥ pacaty odanam 'the fire is cooking the rice in the pot'
- (55) sthālyām agninā odanah pacati 'the rice is cooking in the pot by means of fire'

As is evident, the main agent, Devadatta, is not expressed in these sentences. Their passive counterparts will be as follows.

- (56) devadattena sthālyām agninā pacyata odanaḥ 'rice is being cooked by Devadatta with fire in the pot'
- (57) sthālyā agninā pacyata odanaḥ 'rice is being cooked by the pot with fire'
- (58) sthālyām agninā odanaḥ pacyate 'rice is being cooked by fire in the pot'

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>22</sup>Mbh. I, 278: ... pācayaty odanam devadatto yajnadatteneti svatantro' sau bhavati. itarathā akurvaty api kārayatīti syāt.

(59) sthālyām agninā odanena pacyate 'cooking is done by the rice in the pot with fire'

The expression of the *kāraka* relationship by nominal endings and verbal forms is not problematic in these sentences. It follows 3.1.68 *laḥ karmaṇi cā bhāve cākarmakebhyaḥ* which states that an affix *LA* is used after a transitive verb to express either an agent or object, and after an intransitive verb to express either agent or *bhāva*. Now consider the following sentences.

- (60) devadattah hasati 'Devadatta is laughing'
- (61) devadattena hasyate 'id'.
- (62) devadattayajñadattau hasataḥ 'Devadatta and Yajñadatta are laughing'
- (63) devadattayajñadattābhyām hasyate 'Devadatta and Yajñadatta are laughing'
- (64) devadattayajñadattau grāmam gacchataḥ 'Devadatta and Yajñadatta are going to the villages'
- (65) devadattayajānadattābhyām grāmo gamyate 'the villages are being gone to by Devadatta and Yajānadatta'

Notice that the verbal root has 'to laugh' is intransitive. Consequently, a LA affix introduced after it must denote either the agent or  $bh\bar{a}va$ . Sentence (60) has a replacement in ti which, in turn, expresses the agent. Sentence (61) expresses the agent with  $trt\bar{v}y\bar{a}$ , the third triad of sUP. As a result, hasyate of (61) is expressing the  $bh\bar{a}va$ . Now, compare (62) and (63). Both have dual agents. In the active, where the verb is expressing the agent, its form is in dual. However, in (63) where the verb is expressing  $bh\bar{a}va$ , it remains singular even though there are two agents. A verb root expressing  $bh\bar{a}va$  is always put in the third person singular because  $bh\bar{a}va$  'root sense' itself lacks duality or plurality. As opposed to this, where agent or object is expressed, as in (64) and (65), there is an agreement of number and person in the verbs.

Bhaṭṭoji<sup>23</sup> explains that when a kāraka other than an agent is treated as agent because of vivakṣā, an additional meaning is expressed, explained as saukaryātiśaya 'extreme facility'. This is the quality which enables an object, instrument or locus, when classed as agent, to accomplish the act as an agent. The fact that what was object, etc., can be viewed as agent has consequences for the denotatum of LA. We know that a LA is introduced after transitive roots when agent or object is denoted. However, when what was object becomes agent, we find that the verb has lost its object and hence the LA of a transitive verb expresses kartṛ or bhāva just as it does with intransitive roots. That is, a transitive root whose object is, for reasons of saukaryātiśaya,

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>23</sup> SK. III:609-26.

treated as agent, becomes intransitive. Once intransitive, its LA can be introduced to express only agent or root sense. Thus we get:

- (66) odanam pacati 'he is cooking rice'
- (67) odanah pacati 'the rice is cooking'
- (68) odanena pacyate 'the rice is being cooked'
- (69) odanah pacyate 'rice is cooking'

This last sentence is problematic. It has an agent which was object. Consequently, its verb is now intransitive and must either express agent or bhāva. Now, what is being expressed by the verb of (69)? If bhāva, then why is the agent odana still in the nominative; if agent, then why is yaK introduced? Pāṇini's rule 3.1.87 karmavat karmaṇā tulyakriyaḥ informs us that an agent is treated as object when the action of the agent is identical with an action which has the object as its locus. An action is treated as having its object as locus when the object is affected by the action. The rice is the locus of the action of cooking since the rice, when cooked, undergoes changes such as viklitti 'softening'. Note that 3.1.87 is an extension rule whereby something which was not available is made available and what is made available is operation (kārya). In sentences (68) and (69), the verb is intransitive. Consequently, it will express either agent or bhāva. Affix yaK is introduced before an atmanepada affix when karman or bhava is being expressed (1.3.9 bhāvakarmanoh). Since the verb of (69) is intransitive and odana, the agent, is in the nominative, the verb must express the agent. Given this, however, the form would be (67) odanah pacati and not (69). To account for (69), Pāṇini, by 3.1.87, extends karman status to the agent which is expressed by the verb. This extension results in the introduction of yaK, etc., so that (69) can be derived.

One may ask here why such an extension cannot be made for (68) where (odana, the agent, marks an activity similar to an object, as provided for by 3.1.87. First of all, in (68), the LA is introduced to express bhāva, not agent. Secondly, the agent is treated as if it were an object only when one wishes to view it as an object. Otherwise, one would derive (68) only. Furthermore, examples such as (69) are cited as having an addition: svayam eva 'just by itself', which, in turn, denotes saukaryātiśaya. When saukaryātiśaya is not expressed, when one does not wish to view the agent as an object, one remains with (68).

Commentators explain this process of treating the agent as object as kar-mavadbhāva. This is only possible with reference to actions which have object as their locus (karmasthakriya). Thus, pac 'to cook' and bhid 'to split' are actions which have, for example, odana 'rice' and kāṣṭha 'wood' as their

locus. Now consider the verbal root gam 'to go'. The action denoted by this verb is located not in the object of going, such as grāma 'village', but in the agent, the one who goes. Similarly, the action denoted by smṛ 'to remember' has its locus again in the agent. Such agents cannot be treated as object. This blocks sentences such as

(70) \*grāmo gamyate svayam eva 'the village, by itself, is gone to'.

Let us now discuss the nominal endings (vibhakti) which Pāṇini introduces after items termed nominal stems (prātipadika: 1.2.45 arthavad..., 1.2.46 kṛttaddhita...). A sentence may entail relations which may not be captured by the kāraka categories. I shall refer to these as non-kāraka relations. These relations are purely notional as distinct from kāraka relations which are grammatical. For example, in

(71) vṛkṣasya parṇāni patanti

'the leaves of the tree are falling'

vṛkṣa 'tree' is not a kāraka as it does not contribute anything towards accomplishing the action of falling (patana). Consequently, vṛkṣa does not relate to the action as a kāraka. Pāṇini introduces nominal endings to express both kāraka and non-kāraka relations.

Rule 2.3.1 anabhihite governs the introduction of nominal endings. It states that a nominal ending should be introduced only when relations denoted by it are not already expressed by something else. Commentators<sup>24</sup> explain that the denotatum of a nominal ending may be expressed by means of a tiN 'verbal ending' (3.4.78 tiptasjhi...), kṛt 'primary suffix' (3.1.93 kṛd atin), taddhita 'secondary suffix' (4.1.76 taddhitāḥ) or samāsa 'compound'. Consider, for example, the following sentences.

(72) kaṭaḥ kriyate

'a mat is being made'

(73) kṛtaḥ kaṭaḥ

'a mat has been made'

(74) śatyah aśvah

'a horse bought for a hundred'

(75) prāptodako grāmaḥ

'a village to which water has reached'

The above examples have their objects expressed by means of a  $ti\dot{N}$ , krt, taddhita and  $sam\bar{a}sa$  respectively. Thus, the object is expressed by the  $ti\dot{N}$  affix te (3.4.69) in kriyate in (72), and by the krt affix kta (3.2.101) in krtah in (73). Consequently, katah in the above two examples cannot express the object by means of the second triplet of nominal ending (-am; 2.3.2  $karmani\ dvitiy\bar{a}$ ). The taddhita affix yaT (5.2.1) expresses the karman in satyah

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>24</sup> Kāś. II, 151: ...kenānabhihite? tinkṛṭṭaddhitasamāsaih... vakṣyati "karmaṇi dvitīyā" kaṭam karoti. grāmam gacchati... kriyate kaṭah. kṛṭah. kaṭah. śaṭyah. śaṭikah prāptodako grāmah.

while the same is expressed by the compound *prāptodakaḥ* in (75). It is clear from the above that neither a *kāraka* nor a non-*kāraka* relationship can be expressed by a nominal ending if it has already been expressed otherwise. The domain of the nominal endings extends up to 2.3.73 *catur-thī cāśiṣyāyuṣya*... The following is a select listing of rules enumerating nominal endings.

2.3.1 anabhihite

'when not expressed otherwise'

2.3.2 karmani dvitīyā

'dvitīyā 'second triplet' when karman object is not expressed otherwise'

2.3.4 antarāntareņa yukte

'dvitīyā when antarā 'in between' and antareņa are co-occurring'

2.3.5 saptamīpañcamyau kārakamadhye

'saptamī 'seventh triplet' or pañcamī 'fifth triplet' after items denoting kāla 'time' or adhvā 'space' between two kārakas 'participants'

2.3.6 karmapravacanīyayukte dvitīyā

'dvitīyā when a karmapravacanīya (1.4.83 karma...) co-occurs'

2.3.13 caturthī sampradāne

'caturthī 'fourth triplet' when sampradāna is to be expressed'

2.3.15 tumarthāc ca bhāvavacanāt

'caturthī after an item denoting bhāva 'action' similar to -tumUN'

2.3.18 kartṛkaraṇayos tṛtīyā

'tṛtīyā 'third triplet' when kartṛ or karman is not expressed otherwise'

2.3.19 sahayukte' pradhāne

'tṛtīyā after an item denoting apradhāna 'secondary' co-occurring with saha 'with'

2.3.23 hetau

'tṛtīyā when hetu 'cause' is to be expressed'

2.3.28 apādāne pañcamī

'pañcamī 'fifth triplet' when apādāna 'ablative' is to be expressed' 2.3.29 enapā dvitīyā\*

'dvitīyā after an item co-occurring with an item ending in enaP (5.3.35 enab...)'

2.3.32 pṛthagvinānānābhis tṛtīyā' nyatarasyām

'tṛtīyā optionally after an item co-occurring with pṛthak 'separate' vinā 'without' or nānā 'various'

2.3.36 saptamy adhikarane ca

'saptamī also when adhikaraṇa 'locus' is to be expressed'

2.3.41 yatas ca nirdhāraṇam

'ṣaṣṭhī 'sixth triplet', and also saptamī, after an item denoting a group from among which one is singled out (nirdhāraṇa)'

2.3.46 prātipadikārthalingaparimānavacanamātre prathamā 'prathamā 'first triplet' when prātipadikārtha 'nominal stem notion' alone is to be expressed'

2.3.47 sambodhane ca

'prathamā also when sambodhana 'address' is to be expressed'

2.3.50 sasthī sese

'şaşthī when śeşa 'remainder' is to be expressed'

2.3.65 kartrkarmanoh krtī

'sasthī after an item co-occurring with an item ending in a Kṛt when kartṛ or karman is to be expressed'

2.3.66 ubhayaprāptau karmaņi

'sasthī to express karman alone after an item co-occurring with another item ending in a kṛt when kartṛ and karman both are to be expressed'

The above select listing cites nominal endings with their semantic definitions, syntactic constraints and co-occurrence conditions. The order of enumeration is dvitīyā, tṛtīyā, caturthī, pañcamī, saptamī, prathamā and ṣaṣṭhī. Here again Pāṇini abstracts generalizations from usage and orders adjustments by means of rules which could be termed exceptions and residues. The scope of nominal endings is very wide and complex. It is wide because the endings express both kāraka and non-kāraka relations. It is complex because, in addition to the constraint of 2.3.1 anabhihite, the introduction of nominal endings is further constrained by syntactic, syntactico-semantic, semantic and formal co-occurrence restrictions. Consider, for example, the following sentences.

(76) katam karoti

'he is making a mat'

- (77) antareṇa puruṣakāraṃ na kiṃcīl labhyate 'nothing can be gotten without diligent effort'
- (78) māsam adhīte

'he studies for the entire month'

- (79) ihastho' yam işvāsaḥ krośāl lakṣyaṃ vidhyati 'sitting here this archer can shoot a target at a distance of two miles'
- (80) puspebhyo vrajati

'he is going for flowers'

(81) pākāya vrajati

'he is going to do the cooking'

(82) putreņa sahāgatah pitā

'the father arrived with the son'

(83) goşu duhyamānāsu gatah

'he left while the cows were being milked'

(84) rudatah prāvrājīt

'he set out to become a wandering ascetic, not heeding the cries of relatives'

(85) rudati prāvrājīt

id '

(86) gavām kṛṣṇā sampannakṣīratamā

'among cows black are richest in milk'

- (87) goşu kṛṣṇā sampannakṣīratamā 'id.'
- (88) māthurāḥ pāṭaliputrakebhyaḥ āḍhyatarāḥ 'the people of Mathurā are richer than the people of Pāṭaliputra'
- (89) rājān puruṣasya gṛham 'the house of the king's servant'

Sentence (79) uses dvitīyā to express karman, a grammatical relation. This, in turn, becomes the general denotatum of dvitīyā. Pāṇini generalizes the use of tṛtīyā, caturthī, pañcamī and saptamī to express kartṛ, karaṇa, sampradāna, apādāna and adhikaraṇa respectively. Each generalization is followed by adjustments to accommodate particular usage. For example, (77) uses dvitīyā in puruṣakāram 'diligent effort' not to express karman but to meet the dictates of a formal co-occurrence condition characterized by the use of antareṇa 'without'. One may interpret this use of dvitīyā as one governed by antarā 'in between' and antareṇa.

The use of tṛtīyā in (82) similarly is governed by saha 'with'. Thus, tṛtīyā with a general denotatum of kartṛ and karaṇa may be used to meet a co-occurrence condition. Sentence (78) specifies atyantasaṃyoga 'continuous connection' as a condition for introducing dvitīyā after items denoting kāla 'time' or adhvā 'road, space'. Note that the denotatum of dvitīyā can be interpreted here as atyantasaṃyoga only with reference to time or space. However Pāṇini also provides for the introduction of either a saptamī or a pañcamī after items denoting time or space between two kārakas. The pañcamī in krośāt in (79) thus signifies the distance between the kartṛ (iṣvāsaḥ) and the karman (lakṣya). We already know that caturthī is introduced generally to denote sampradāna (2.3.13 caturthī sampradāne). However consider (80) where its use is complex. It denotes the object of an action for which another action is intended. Sentence (81) is similar. Here caturthī is introduced after pāka, a nominal stem which ends in an affix denoting action (bhāva) identical with the denotatum of -tumUN.

The use of pañcamī in (79) is restricted by a syntactico-semantic condition: the denotation of time and space in between two kārakas. The seventh triplet (saptamī) generally is considered to denote locus (adhikaraṇa: 2.3.36). However it is also used after a nominal stem whose underlying action characterizes another action. Thus, the action of going denoted by gam is characterized by the accompanying action of the milking of cows. Sentences (84-85) illustrate that genitive optionally can be used to signify the same, providing anādara 'disrespect' is denoted. This denotatum of saptamī and ṣaṣṭhī is purely notional. These endings also can be used to denote nirdhāraṇa 'singling out one from among many' as (86-87) exemplify. However, 2.3.41 yataś ca nirdhāraṇam allows nirdhāraṇa by either locative or genitive only when the entities from among which one is

singled out are similar. For singling out one from among many dissimilar things, one must use  $pa\bar{n}cam\bar{i}$ , as is clear from (88). Sentence (89) illustrates the residual use of  $sasth\bar{i}$ , a residue covering what has not yet been covered by earlier rules.

The preceding information reveals some interesting features of the use of nominal endings.

- (a) nominal endings denote both kāraka as well as non-kāraka relations,
- (b) they do not denote a single fixed semantic or syntactic relation,
- (c) there is certainly no one-to-one correspondence between endings and their denotata,
- (d) rules for nominal endings generally are enumerated in the reverse order of kāraka rules, and
- (e) selectional restrictions imposed on nominal endings are complex because they lexicalize diverse syntactico-semantic categories.

Considerable discussion has occurred in modern linguistics concerning the level of representation of kārakas and their lexicalization by means of nominal endings. Cardona<sup>25</sup> views the kārakas as constituting a level which mediates between semantic relations and actual sentences. This view essentially is correct. However, we run into problems when we try to determine whether Pāṇini's kāraka categories are syntactic or notional. I have already stated that nominal endings express both kāraka and non-kāraka relations. Since Pāṇini maintains a distinction between the kāraka and non-kāraka relations, and also since the non-kāraka relations are nothing but notional, the kārakas must represent a non-notional relation. Can this non-notional relation be considered grammatical? The answer must be in the affirmative.

First of all, if Pāṇini had intended his kāraka categories to be based on semantics, he would have done better by treating kāraka and vibhakti rules together. This would have made his description much more economical. He did not do so, however, and we can only conclude that this has a definite bearing on the nature of his theory. Secondly, his separation of kāraka and vibhakti introduces yet another distinction into his system which cannot be ignored. Pāṇini does not subscribe to the notion of a one-to-one correspondence between the categories of kāraka and their lexicalization by means of vibhakti. Finally, if Pāṇini had not sought to establish a clearcut distinction between syntactic as opposed to notional relations, he would certainly have included notional relations in the categories he set up. The genitive, for example, is not a kāraka in Sanskrit. The nominative also is missing from the list of kārakas. These omissions are intentional. In a theory of derivation which treats action as the central denotatum of a sentence, anything which is not directly relatable to action automatically becomes secondary.

<sup>&</sup>lt;sup>25</sup> Cardona (unpublished (a)).

If it is the non-relatability of the genitive to action which deprives genitive of the status of a kāraka, it is the separation of the levels of kāraka and vibhakti which excludes the nominative from the status of case. Pāṇini clearly was intent upon separating lexicalization of relations from the conceptual categories of case. Confusion over the question of whéther his kāraka categories are semantic or syntactic has been due largely to the fact that he defines them in semantic as well as syntactic terms. Confusion also may be due to Pāṇini's employment of certain endings, which are generally considered to express non-kāraka relations, to express kāraka relations. Consider the following sentences.

- (90) mātuḥ smarati
  - 'he is remembering his mother'
- (91) bhavataḥ kaṭaḥ kartavyaḥ 'the mat should be made by you'

Sentence (90) has mātuḥ, the karman of smṛ 'to remember', in the genitive. Sentence (91) has bhavataḥ a kartṛ, in the genitive. This makes genitive an ending expressing a kāraka relation (kāraka-vibhakti). However, this does not bring to genitive the status of a kāraka. Pāṇini could not afford to mix levels, as a distinction between notional and grammatical relations on the one hand, and their expression by means of nominal endings on the other is crucial to his theory of grammatical descriptions.

# 10

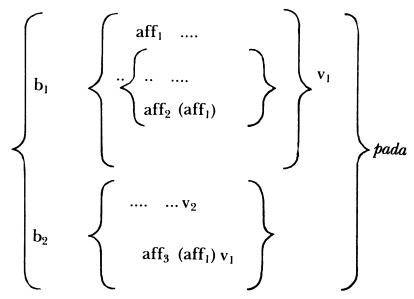
# **Derivational System**

Pāṇini, as discussed in chapter 3, uses word derivation as the most economical tool for deriving sentences. In doing this, he makes generalizations, abstracts the CS of sentences, inserts lexical items and introduces affixes to denote diverse syntactico-semantic relations. He then follows a set of operations which ultimately yield a pada (1.4.14 suptinantam padam). Thus, the highest derivate in the Pāṇinian system is a pada. This, however, should not give one the impression that the Pāṇinian pada is a morphological entity. Since a pada is derived with reference to the CS of the sentence in which it occurs, it is a syntactic unit. These units are of two types depending upon whether the pada ends in a sUP (4.1.2 svaujas...) or in a tiN (3.4.78 tiptasjhi...).

The operational aspect of the Pāṇinian derivative system focuses mainly on bases (prakṛti), affixes (pratyaya) and subsequent operations (kārya). Bases form the primary input in the grammar. They are of two kinds, dhātu 'verb root' and prātipadika 'nominal stem.' Roots and nominal stems are also of two types, basic as well as derived. Basic roots are those which have been enumerated in the DP. The GP has a listing of basic stems. Derived roots are those which end in affixes saN, etc. (3.1.32 sanādyantā dhātavaḥ). Compounds (samāsa) and items which end in affixes kṛt (3.1.93 kṛd atin) and taddhita (4.1.76 taddhitāḥ) constitute the derived nominal bases. I shall use the term base-input to refer to nonderived bases. The affixes which Pāṇini mānipulates to derive bases and padas are kṛt, taddhita, strī 'feminine' (4.1.3 striyām), sUP and tiN. The last two are referred to as olbhakti (1.4.103 vibhaktis ca).

The following schema shows the types of forms derivable in Panini; one must read across taking one item at a time.

The key to the symbols is as follows:



The above schema will yield seven combinations.

- 1.  $b_1 + v_1$
- 2.  $b_1 + aff_1 + v_1$
- 3.  $b_1 + aff_2 + v_1$
- 4.  $b_1 + aff_2 + aff_1 + v_1$
- 5.  $b_2 + v_2$
- 6.  $b_2 + aff_3 + v_1$
- 7.  $b_2 + aff_3 + aff_1 + v_1$

I shall illustrate the Pāṇinian derivational process by systematically discussing the derivational history of the above seven types of derivates. Additionally, some highly complex derivations will be taken up to further support our observations. A set of derivational conventions will be presented along the way. The symbols I shall use, in addition to those already discussed, are as follows.

+ concatenation

input on left of the arrow

 $(x \rightarrow y) x \text{ becomes } y$ 

= output on right of the arrow

# marks the process of reference

- (AD) anga domain
- (CD) controlling domain
- (OD) obligatory domain
- (PD) pada domain

Capitalised symbols not enclosed in ( ) are dummy symbols (its); they are later realized as zero.

Pāṇinian word derivation starts with a nominal stem (*prātipadika*) or a verbal root (*dhātu*) as its base-input and terminates with the derivation of a word (*pada*). The following is the derivational history of two Sanskrit sentences with two words each.

```
(1) kumāraḥ / (2) kumārī (3) pacati
    'the boy / girl cooks'
kumāraḥ 'the boy'
                                 kumārī 'the girl'
                                                                   pacati 'cooks'
(a) kumāra→
                                 kumāra →
                                                                   pac \rightarrow
1.2.45(CD)
                                  1.2.45(CD)
                                                                   1.3.1 (CD) bhūvadayo...
arthavad ...
                                                                   3.1.91 (OD) dhātoḥ
                                 4.1.1 (OD)
4.1.1 (OD) \dot{n}y\bar{a}p...
                                 4.1.3 striyām
                                                                   3.2.123 vartāmane lat
4.1.2 svaujas...
                                  4.1.20 vayasi...
# 1.4.100 tinas...
1.4.22 dvyekayor...
1.4.101 \, t\bar{a}ny eka...
1.4.102 supah
1.4.103 vibhaktiś ca
2.3.46 prātipadikārtha...
   = kum\bar{a}ra + sU
                                 = kum\bar{a}ra + N\bar{\imath}P
                                                                   = pac + LAT \rightarrow
                                 (b) kum\bar{a}ra + N\bar{\imath}P
(b) kum\bar{a}ra + sU \rightarrow
                                                                   (b) pac + LAT
1.3.2 (CD) upadeśe...
                                 1.3.8 (CD) laśakv...
                                                                   3.4.69 laḥ...
1.3.9 tasya...
                                  1.3.9
                                                                   3.4.77 lasya
                                                                   3.4.78 tiptasjhi...
                                                                   1.4.99 lah parasmai
                                                                    1.4.100-102 (CD)
+ kum\bar{a}ra + s \rightarrow
                                 = kum\bar{a}ra + \bar{\imath}
                                                                   = pac + tiP
1.4.13 yasmāt...
                                 kum\bar{a}ra + \bar{\imath}
6.4.1 \, angasya \, (AD)
                                 1.4.13(CD)
                                 6.4.1(AD)
                                 6.4.129 bhasya
                                                                   (c) pac + tiP
                                 # 1.4.18 yaci...
                                 6.4.148 yasyeti...
                                                                   1.3.3 (CD) halantyam
                                                                   1.3.9 tasya...
= kum\bar{a}ra + s
                                 = kum\bar{a}r (a \rightarrow \emptyset) + \bar{\iota}
                                                                   = pac + ti
                                 = kum\bar{a}r\bar{i}
                                 kum\bar{a}r\bar{\imath} + sUP
(c) kum\bar{a}ra + s
                                                                   pac + ti \rightarrow
1.4.14 suptin... (CD)
                                                                   3.4.113 tińśit...
8.1.16 padasya (P)
                                                                   3.1.68 kartari...
8.2.66 sasajuso ...
                                                                   *an instance of
                                 kum\bar{a}r\bar{i} + s (UP \rightarrow \emptyset)
                                                                   reverse scanning
= kum\bar{a}ra + r\tilde{U}
                                 = kum\bar{a}r\bar{i} + s
(d) kum\bar{a}ra + r\tilde{U}
                                                                   = pac + SaP + ti
1.3.2(CD)
                                 kum\bar{a}r\bar{i} + s
1.3.9
                                 1.2.41 aprkta ... (CD)
                                                                   6.1.68 halnyā...
= kum\bar{a}ra + r
                                                                   = pac + SaP + ti
8.3.15 khara-
                                 = kum\bar{a}r\bar{i} + (s \rightarrow \emptyset)
                                                                   1.3.3
vasāna...
                                 = kum\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}
                                                                   1.3.8
                                                                   1.3.9
```

$$= kum\bar{a}ra\dot{h}$$
  $= kum\bar{a}r\bar{i}$   $pac + a + ti$   $= pacati$ 

The preceding is a generalized listing of rule applications which turns kumāra 'boy' and pac 'cook' into kumārah and pacati so that we could realize the sentence kumārah pacati. If we compute the ordering of domains manipulated above, we find the following.

$$kum\bar{a}rah CD + OD + CD + ... + CD + AD + PD$$
  
 $pacati CD + OD + CD + OD + CD + PD$ 

This suggests that the grammar undertakes derivations by applying rules in the controlling domain and terminates the derivations by applying rules in the *pada* domain. Constant reference is made to the controlling domain. The application of rules in the above schema is adopted from the traditional descriptions. However, even a cursory look at the derivative stages of *kumāraḥ* and *pacati* poses the following questions.

How is the derivative mechanism activated?

What prompts access to or exit from various domains and interior domains? What traffic rules and scanning conventions are optionally or obligatorily followed to arrive at the terminal string?

How do we know which rules are going to apply to a given string?

A thorough examination of a complete derivational history of various forms enables us to arrive at certain important generalizations regarding the functioning of this model.

- 4. This model cannot be manipulated unless the CS is clearly specified. The basic content units in the CS must be matched by available items in the lexicon and a selection must be made.
- 5. The selected lexical items are then passed on to the *CD* for identification in terms of definitions. Such defined lexical items are then recognized as base-inputs and only then are charged with the function of activating the derivation mechanism.
- 6. Base-inputs must gain access to the *OD* where the definitional terms of these inputs must prompt access to an interior domain. Outputs of this as well as other domains are again subjected to definitional identifications since only definitions can prompt access to or signal the possibilities of further rule applications in a domain for all subsequent operations.

In deriving  $kum\bar{a}ra\dot{h}$  and pacati, we selected  $kum\bar{a}ra$  'boy' and pac 'to cook' from the lexicon in accordance with a CS which can be outlined as x does y at a given time z. The CD identifies them as  $pr\bar{a}tipadika$  'nominal stem' and  $dh\bar{a}tu$  'verb root' respectively. When used as an input to the OD,  $kum\bar{a}ra$  is prompted access to the interior domain headed by  $4.1.1 \dot{n}y\bar{a}p$ -pr $atipadik\bar{a}t$  'after that which ends in  $\dot{N}i$ ,  $\bar{a}P$  or else is a nominal stem'. On the other hand, pac is prompted access to the interior domain headed by rule 3.1.91

dhātoḥ 'after that which is a verb root'. This access is justified since these governing rules contain the definitional terms prātipadika and dhātu which have been used to identify the inputs.

At this stage, 4.1.2 svaujas... becomes applicable in case of kumāra. Similarly after 3.1.123 vartamāne laṭ has introduced the LAṬ affix, rules 3.4.77-78 lasya-tiptasjhi... apply to pac + LAṬ. However, a serious problem is encountered by these strings in the selection of elements enumerated here. Rule 4.1.2 enumerates a set of twenty-one elements (abbreviated sUP); 3.4.78 enumerates eighteen (abbreviated  $ti\dot{N}$ ) which replace LA members. How and why should we choose one element out of all these?

A referential index (see chapter 4 for details) of sUP and  $ti\dot{N}$  brings rules relating to parasmaipada and ātmanepada, kāraka and vibhakti and LA placement and operation close to rules enumerating sUP and  $ti\dot{N}$ . As a result, we can select sU after kumāra and tiP after pac where the former is a nominal inflection expressing the nominal stem notion (prātipadikārtha) and the latter is a verbal inflection which replaces LAT and expresses the agent (kartr). These applications yield the following string:

 $kum\bar{a}ra + sUpac + tiP$ 

The symbols indicated by capital letters are what Pāṇini termed it. Pāṇini has manipulated such symbols for various metalinguistic purposes. Once they have executed the function they are charged with, they get deleted by 1.3.9 tasya lopah 'non-appearance of that which is an it'. The U in sU and the P in tiP are termed it by rules 1.3.2-3 and are subsequently deleted by 1.3.9, yielding  $kum\bar{a}ra + spac + ti$ .

Since it-deletion is a fairly regular phenomenon, we shall propose the following convention.

7. Base-inputs containing items designated as *it* must undergo *it*-deletion. Furthermore, if any new form is introduced either as a substitute or an addition, it must also be examined for possible *it*-deletion.

For further explanations in the derivational history of this string, I shall take  $kum\bar{a}ra + s$  and pac + ti separately. In order to proceed to the next stage of derivation, we have to scan through the CD.

8. Scanning the *CD* takes precedence whenever: access to or exit from a domain is sought; a rule containing a technical term or its denotations becomes applicable; or a rule application has been accomplished.

When we scan this domain with our string  $kum\bar{a}ra + s$ , we find that the definition aprkta is applicable in case of s. Our scanning for a rule containing the definitional term aprkta starts with 6.1.1 since there is no domain which contains it in its governing rule, and the section of the grammar beginning with 6.1.1 immediately follows the obligatory domain which yielded this string. Since this scanning did not offer any rule application, it is necessary to return to the CD.

 $A\dot{n}ga$  is the next definition. It requires that this string be sent to the  $a\dot{n}ga$  domain which is governed by a rule that contains this definitional term. Scanning through this domain reveals that no rules can be applied, and thus recourse is again taken to the controlling domain, where our string is identified as a pada. This prompts access to our last domain where, by the application of 8.2.66, the s is replaced by rU. After it -deletion of U, the r is changed into h by 8.3.15. Thus  $r \to h$  and we obtain the terminal string  $kum\bar{a}rah$ , a pada.

As is obvious from the preceding discussion, recourse to the *CD* occurs more than once. This must be the case since this domain contains definition and interpretation rules which signal the direction a particular derivation has to follow. Also whenever the process of reference is triggered, this is the domain which finally resolves problems regarding rule application. It is imperative then that any discussion about the derivational mechanism of this grammar must include precise statements concerning recourse to this domain. I have already outlined conditions under which this domain takes precedence. As far as scanning is concerned, the following conventions apply.

9. Each time recourse is taken to this domain, scanning starts with the first rule and terminates with the last. Also, whenever a particular definition is selected to be in force, all of its denotations, exceptions, together with other operation rules related to it, become operative.

Stage (b) of the preceding derivation poses a procedural question. Our string was sent to the anga domain upon the occurrence of the anga definition, but there was no rule application. Doesn't this lack of rule application render this a vacuous step? We have to remember here that the definitional device of sending inputs to appropriate domains for possible rule application is a general device. It does not guarantee rule application in every case. However, failure to observe this convention necessarily involves risks. For example, let us take the derivational history of kumārī 'girl' which underlies the same base-input and accordingly is sent to the same interior domain of 4.1.1. Rule 4.1.2 does not apply to this since our intent is different. Instead, 4.1.20 prescribes the feminine suffix NīP. After *it*-deletion we are left with the string  $kum\bar{a}ra + \bar{i}$ , which is identified as an anga. When prompted access to the anga domain, 6.4.148 applies and causes deletion of the terminal a in kumāra. Incidentally, 6.4.148 is contained in the interior domain headed by 6.4.129 bhasya. Does our string meet the requirements of being called a bha? This again is an instance where only recourse to the process of reference could resolve the problem. That is, tracing the term origin bha would lead us to the CD where 1.4.18 will furnish the required information. The output at this stage is  $kum\bar{a}r + \bar{\imath} = kum\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$ .

This output is sent to the 4.1.1 domain and 4.1.2 results in the selection

of sU which undergoes it-deletion. The s is then defined as an aprkta and is finally deleted by 6.1.68. After all regular steps are taken with kumārī and the absence of any further rule application noted, it is recognized as a pada. It is interesting to note here that the 4.1.1 domain offers derivative choices to its inputs in such a way that if the option offered by 4.1.2 is not used by the base-inputs, the later options would yield an output that will have to be sent to this domain again (of course, after all operations regarding those choices have been exhausted). The choices are sUP, feminine and taddhita (patronymic) affixation. By the way these choices work, one is tempted to draw a parallel with the cyclic application of T-rules in the transformational-generative (TG) grammar. Understanding fully well that one cannot find a real parallel between the TG and the Pāṇinian model, this aspect of derivative choices is intriguingly close. However, there is one significant difference. In Pāṇini, inputs which do not opt for the 4.1.2 choice definitely will have to return to this interior domain again after operations relating to subsequent choices have been exhausted. Unlike this, a TG rule cycle may or may not predict such an operation.

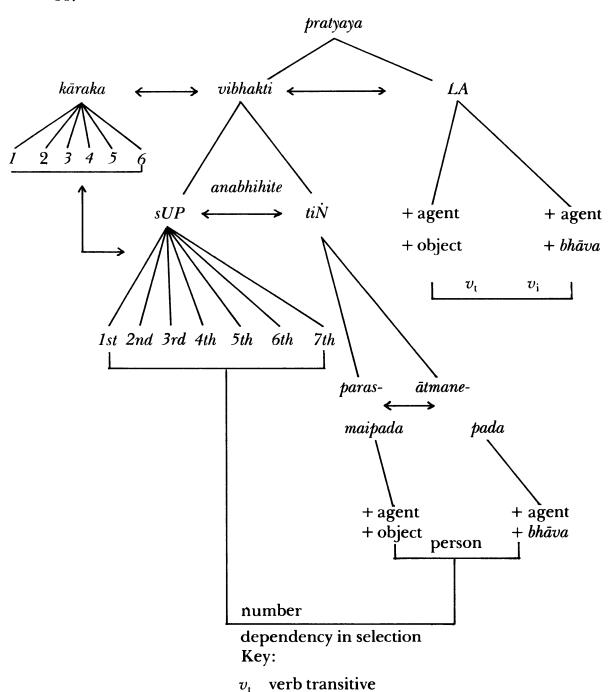
Let us now return to stage (c) of our verbal pada pacati. Here, after the it deletion of P, 3.4.113 tinśit sārvadhātukam applies and thus, ti gets the designation sārvadhātuka. As opposed to the global definitions contained in the CD, this is a local definition and hence, it must have local application. As we can see in the derivational history of this form, 3.1.68 kartari śap applies. The result of this rule application is the insertion of ŚaP between pac and ti. The rest is easy because  $pac + a + ti \rightarrow pacati$  itself becomes the terminal string in the absence of any further rule application.

Rules 3.1.68 and 3.4.113 are both contained in the same interior domain, yet 3.1.68, which is listed earlier, applies later. How do we know that we have to resort to reverse scanning and that too in the same domain? If 3.1.68 applies later, why didn't Pāṇini put it at the end of the domain? To answer the second question first, we can say that the Paninian rule ordering is based on both extrinsic as well as intrinsic principles. Furthermore, rule ordering is sensitive to specific operations and desired derivational results rather than the seriality involved in their placement. The first question appears to be difficult but actually is very simple to answer. We have already seen how  $ti\dot{N}$  replacements of LA relate to various sections of the grammar. Actually the terms kartr in 3.1.68 and sārvadhātuka in 3.4.113 are interrelated. They both are joined with the context of LA replacement and  $ti\dot{N}$  selection. Explaining how we reach 3.1.68 from 3.4.113 is again the subject matter of the referential indices. In accordance with the convention we have already discussed, the term origin sārvadhātuka must be traced. It is interesting to note that for the application of 3.1.68, sārvadhātuka is one of the required conditions.

It has been explained in connection with the selection of sUP and tiN

that proper selection requires retrieving necessary information from elsewhere by means of referential indices.  $S\bar{u}tras$  brought close to the context of rules 4.1.2 and 3.4.78 share a surprisingly high degree of interdependency. It establishes beyond doubt that the selection of sUP and  $ti\dot{N}$  is made not only with reference to each other but also with reference to the CS of sentences. The following flow chart reveals some important aspects of this interdependency.

10.



verb intransitive

Note here that interdependency is relatively more abstract on the higher level. For example,  $k\bar{a}raka$  categories are basically abstract. The LA affixes are comparatively less abstract. The denotata of the  $k\bar{a}rakas$  are expressed by means of vibhaktis and other affixes. The LA affixes are similarly destined to be replaced by  $ti\dot{N}$ . Pāṇini formulates 2.3.1 anabhihite to safeguard against multiple expression of syntactic relations. It also serves as a device to indicate derivational options available to a string. The question now arises whether a sUP,  $ti\dot{N}$  or some other affix should first express a given  $k\bar{a}raka$  relation. It is my understanding that a nominal ending does not have a choice of expressing a given  $k\bar{a}raka$  relation first. This understanding is based on the following two points.

- 11. The Pāṇinian derivational schema operates with reference to the CS of sentences. Since the central denotatum of a sentence is action and also since action is denoted by a verb root, it alone has the first option of expressing a kāraka relation.
- 12. The restriction of 2.3.1 *anabhihite* is imposed upon the selection of *sUP*. Naturally, *sUP* cannot avail itself of the first option to express a given *kāraka* relation.

I shall now discuss the derivational history of five *taddhita* derivates which illustrates the complexity of derived nominals and reveals some interesting aspects of the Pāṇinian derivational system.

```
13. gārgih 'direct descendant of Garga'
                                \rightarrow 1.2.45 arthavad ...
(a) garga
                                      4.1.1 \dot{n}_{y}\bar{a}_{p}...
                                     4.1.76 taddhitāh
                                      4.1.82 samarthānām...
                                      4.1.83 prāg dīvyato'ņ
                                     4.1.95 ata iñ
                                     4.1.92 tasyāpatyam
                                 = garga + Nas + i\tilde{N}
(b) garga + Nas + i\tilde{N}
                                → 1.2.46 krttaddhita...
                                      2.4.71 supo...
                                 = garga + (Nas \rightarrow \emptyset) + i\tilde{N}
                                 = garga + i\tilde{N}
(c) garga + i\tilde{N}
                                 \rightarrow 1.3.3 halantyam
                                      1.3.9 tasya
                                    garga + i(\tilde{N} \rightarrow \emptyset)
                                 = garga + i
(d) garga + i
                                 \rightarrow 1.4.13 \gamma asm\bar{a}t...
                                      6.4.1 angasya
                                      6.4.129 bhasya
                                      6.4.148 yasyeti ca
                                 = garg(a \rightarrow \emptyset) + i
                                 = garg + i
```

```
(e) garg + i \rightarrow 7.2.117 taddhitesv...

\# 1.1.1 vrddhir...

= g(a \rightarrow \bar{a}) rg + i

= g\bar{a}rgi

(f) g\bar{a}rgi \rightarrow 1.2.46 krttaddhita...

4.1.1 \dot{n}y\bar{a}p...

4.1.2 svaujas...

= g\bar{a}rgi + sU...

= g\bar{a}rgih
```

The affix  $i\tilde{N}$  in the above derivation has been introduced after  $garga+\dot{N}as$ , a pada. This may not seem proper in view of 4.1.1 which serves as a heading rule  $(adhik\bar{a}ra)$  in rules dealing with taddhita affixes. Normally one would expect a nominal stem, or a form ending in feminine affix  $(\dot{N}i, \bar{a}P)$ , to be the input. The requirement that a pada should form the input is laid down by 4.1.82  $samarth\bar{a}n\bar{a}m$   $pratham\bar{a}d$   $v\bar{a}$  where samartha refers to a syntactically related pada. That this pada should end in the genitive is inferred from the variable reference  $(tasya \text{ of } 4.1.92 \text{ } tasy\bar{a}patyam)$ . This rule also specifies the denotatum of affix aN to which  $i\tilde{N}$  is an exception. Incidentally, since a nominal pada is derived by introducing sUP after a nominal stem, and the introduction of sUP is made by 4.1.2 which is governed by 4.1.1, the question of an improper input for affix  $i\tilde{N}$  does not arise.

The derivation of garga + Nas is not shown here because that string is inferred from 4.1.92. Rule 4.1.82 specifies that relevant affixes are to be introduced after the first among the syntactically related padas. What constitutes the second pada? The answer is apatya + sU, an inference again based on 4.1.92. This rule allows the introduction of an affix after the first among the syntactically related padas. That is, the affix must be introduced after garga + Nas, and not after apatya + sU. What if one switches the order? Can the affix be introduced after apatya + sU of aptya + sU + garga + Nas? No, since the relative order of syntactically related padas is given by 4.1.92 itself. Since tasya in 4.1.92 tasyāpatyam is referenced first in the rule, its antecedent, i.e., a pada ending in genitive, alone should be treated as the first pada. The application of other rules in the derivation of gārgiḥ is easy to follow.

The word  $g\bar{a}rgih$  refers to a direct (anantara) descendant of garga. A non-direct descendant such as a grandson, etc., is referred to as gotra (4.1.162 apatyam pautraprabhṛti gotram). A gotra descendant of garga is (14)  $g\bar{a}rgya$ . It is derived by introducing the affix  $ya\tilde{N}$  (4.1.105  $garg\bar{a}dibhyo\ ya\bar{n}$ ) after  $garga + \dot{N}as$ , a pada syntactically related to apatya + sU. Rules similar to those used in deriving  $g\bar{a}rgih$  apply in deriving  $g\bar{a}rgyah$  from  $(garga + \dot{N}as + ya\tilde{N}) + sU$ . The following is the derivational history of  $g\bar{a}rg\bar{\imath}$ , a female descendant of garga.

15. 
$$g\bar{a}rg\bar{\imath}$$
(a)  $g\bar{a}rgya$ 

$$\rightarrow 1.2.46 krttaddhita...$$
 $4.1.1 \dot{n}y\bar{a}p...$ 
 $4.1.3 striy\bar{a}m$ 
 $4.1.16 ya\bar{n}a\dot{s} ca$ 

$$= g\bar{a}rgya + \dot{N}\bar{\imath}P$$
(b)  $g\bar{a}rgya + \dot{N}\bar{\imath}P$ 

$$\rightarrow 1.3.3 halantyam$$
 $1.3.8 la\dot{s}akv...$ 
 $1.3.9 tasya...$ 

$$= g\bar{a}rgya + (\dot{N} \rightarrow \emptyset) \bar{\imath}(P \rightarrow \emptyset)$$
 $g\bar{a}rgya + \bar{\imath}$ 
(c)  $g\bar{a}rgya + \bar{\imath}$ 

$$\rightarrow 1.4.13 yasm\bar{a}t...$$
 $6.4.1 a\dot{n}gasya$ 
 $6.4.148 yasyeti ca$ 

$$= g\bar{a}rgy (a \rightarrow \emptyset) + \bar{\imath}$$

$$= g\bar{a}rgy + \bar{\imath}$$
(d)  $g\bar{a}rgy + \bar{\imath}$ 

$$\rightarrow 6.4.150 halas taddhitasya$$

$$= g\bar{a}rg (y \rightarrow \emptyset) + \bar{\imath}$$

$$= g\bar{a}rg\bar{\imath}$$
(e)  $g\bar{a}rg\bar{\imath}$ 

$$\rightarrow 1.2.46 krttadhita...$$
 $4.1.1 \dot{n}y\bar{a}p...$ 
 $4.1.2 svaujas...$ 

$$= g\bar{a}rg\bar{\imath} + sU$$

$$\rightarrow as in (2) kum\bar{a}r\bar{\imath}$$

$$= g\bar{a}rg\bar{\imath}$$
(f)  $g\bar{a}rg\bar{\imath}$ 

$$= g\bar{a}rg\bar{\imath}$$

$$= g\bar{a}rg\bar{\imath} + (sU \rightarrow \emptyset)$$

$$= g\bar{a}rg\bar{\imath}$$

The derivational history of  $g\bar{a}rg\bar{\imath}$  offers nothing new, especially when one compares it with  $g\bar{a}rgih$  and  $g\bar{a}rgya$ . However, some interesting conclusions can be drawn as a result of this comparison. I shall return to these conclusions after one more derivation.

16. gārgyāyaṇaḥ 'a young male gotra descendant of garga' (a) garga  $\rightarrow$  same as in  $g\bar{a}rgya$  $= g\bar{a}rgya$  $\rightarrow 4.1.1 \dot{n} y \bar{a} p \dots$ (b) gārgya 4.1.82 samarthānām 4.1.93 tasyāpatyam 4.1.94 gotrād yūny astriyām 4.1.162 apatyam pautraprabhṛti... 4.1.163 jīvati tu vaṃśye yuvā 4.1.101 yañiñoś ca  $= g\bar{a}rgya + phaK$ (c)  $g\bar{a}rgya + phaK$  $\rightarrow$  same as in step (b) of gārgya  $= g\bar{a}rgya + pha(K \rightarrow \emptyset)$  $= g\bar{a}rgya + pha$ 

```
(d) g\bar{a}rgya + pha
                                  \rightarrow 1.4.13 \, yasmāt...
                                       6.4.1 angasya
                                       6.4.148 yasyeti ca
                                   = g\bar{a}rgy(a \rightarrow \emptyset) + pha
                                   = g\bar{a}rgy + pha
(e) g\bar{a}rgy + pha
                                  \rightarrow 7.1.2 āyaneyīnī...
                                       1.3.10 yathāsaṃkhyam...
                                   = g\bar{a}rgy + (pha \rightarrow \bar{a}yana)
                                   = gārgyāyana
(f) gārgyāyana
                                  \rightarrow as in steps (e-f) of gārgih
                                  = g\bar{a}rgy\bar{a}yana + s
                                  \rightarrow same as in (b-d) of kumārah
(g) g\bar{a}rgy\bar{a}yana + s
                                  = gārgyāyanaḥ
(h) gārgyāyanah
                                  \rightarrow 8.4.2 atkupv...
                                  = g\bar{a}rgy\bar{a}ya (n \rightarrow n) ah
                                  = gārgyāyanah
```

The application of rules in gārgyāyaṇaḥ is relatively complex. The affix phaK is introduced to denote yuvāpatya 'young gotra descendant' (recall that gotra refers to grandsons, etc., cf. 4.1.162). A yuvāpatya is also a gotra descendant though with certain restrictions. Garga's sons, for example, will be gārgi and their sons will be referred to as gārgya. The sons of a gārgya will also be called gārgya, signifying gotra descendants of garga. However, a gotra descendant can be referred to as yuvāpatya when his father or uncles, etc., (vaṃśya), are alive (4.1.163 jīvati tu vaṃśye yuvā). The yuvāpatya designation can also be extended to a younger brother when the older brother is alive, providing of course that the father and uncles are not alive (4.1.164 bhrātari ca jyāyasi. Thus, gārgyāyaṇaḥ is yuvāpatya when gārgya is alive. He can also be called yuvāpatya when his older brother is alive.

Two rules must be discussed in this connection: 4.1.93 eko gotre and 4.1.94 gotrād yūny astriyām. The first rule states that only one affix should be introduced to denote a gotra descendant. By inference, the base (prakṛti) must also be the first base. That is, an affix denoting a gotra descendant of garga should be introduced after garga, and not after gārgi. The second rule makes an exception with regard to a yuvāpatya. It specifies that an affix denoting a non-feminine yuvāpatya should be introduced after the base which denotes a gotra. Thus, gārgyāyaṇaḥ is derived by introducing phaK after gārgya, not after garga or gārgi. Note that a feminine yuvāpatya cannot be derived in this manner; one must introduce the feminine affix NīP to derive (17) gārgyāyaṇā, a female yuvāpatya of garga.

The following is a schematic representation of derivational types already discussed. I have included major rules with corresponding examples for convenience.

```
1. (4.1.1 (4.1.2)) = kum\bar{a}ra\dot{h}
2. (4.1.1 (4.1.3 (4.1.1 (4.1.2)))) = kum\bar{a}r\bar{i}
```

```
14. (4.1.1 (4.1.2 (4.1.76 (4.1.82 (4.1.92-93))))) = g\bar{a}rgya\hbar

15. (4.1.1 (4.1.2 (4.1.76 (4.1.82 (4.1.92))))) = g\bar{a}rgi\hbar

16. (4.1.1 (4.1.2 (4.1.76 (4.1.82 (4.1.92 (4.1.94)))))) = g\bar{a}rgy\bar{a}yana\hbar

17. (4.1.1 (4.1.2 (4.1.76 (4.1.82 (4.1.92 (4.1.94 (4.1.1 (4.1.3)))))))) = g\bar{a}rgy\bar{a}yan\bar{a}
```

The above conflations, except for the first, have one thing in common: their output must form an input to the first. That is, a derivational cycle beginning at 4.1.1 must complete at 4.1.2. The derivational options offered by 4.1.3 and 4.1.76 are internal to 4.1.1. As a consequence, the derivational cycles beginning with 4.1.3 and 4.1.76 must complete at 4.1.1. Rule 4.1.76 branches off into its own internal options; I have illustrated only one of them by 4.1.82. Rules 4.1.92, 4.1.93 and 4.1.94 offer options internal to 4.1.82. The output of 4.1.76 may technically form an input to 4.1.3 in which case the cycle must again complete at 4.1.1. An internal cycle which completes at 4.1.1 and accepts the option offered by 4.1.2 produces the final derivate. The above schema outlines six options internal to 4.1.1. The first option produces the final derivate. The remaining five options must complete their cycle at 4.1.1. The first option cancels out the other two; the second cancels the third; the third option alone offers a full range of derivational choices.

The above derivational options are built around the nominal stem (prātipadika) as base-input. I have already discussed the derivational history of pacati which takes a verb root (dhātu) as its input. The following derivations are also built around verb roots as base input. Consider pācaka 'cook', pācikā 'female cook' and kumbhakāraḥ 'pot maker'.

#### 18. pācaka 'cook'

```
\rightarrow 1.3.1 bh\bar{u}v\bar{a}dayo...
(a) pac
                                    3.1.91 dhātoh
                                    3.1.93 krd atin
                                    3.1.95 kṛtyāḥ
                                    3.1.133 nvultrcau
                                = pac + NvuL
(b) pac + NvuL
                               \rightarrow 1.3.3 halantyam
                                    1.3.7 \, cut\bar{u}
                                    1.3.9 tasya lopah
                                = pac + (N \rightarrow \emptyset) vu(L \rightarrow \emptyset)
                                = pac + vu
                               \rightarrow 1.4.13 \, yasmāt...
(c) pac + vu
                                    6.4.1 angasya
                                    7.1.1 yuvor anākau
                                    1.3.10 yathāsaṃkhyam...
                                = pac + (vu \rightarrow aka)
                                = pac + aka
                               \rightarrow 7.2.116 ata upadhāyāh
(d) pac + aka
```

# 1.1.1 vṛddhir...

= 
$$p(a \rightarrow \bar{a})c + aka$$
=  $p\bar{a}caka$ 

> same as in  $kum\bar{a}rah$ 
=  $p\bar{a}caka + sU$ 
=  $p\bar{a}caka + sU$ 
=  $p\bar{a}caka$ 

19.  $p\bar{a}cik\bar{a}$  'female cook'

(a)  $p\bar{a}caka$ 
 $\rightarrow 1.2.46 kṛttaddhita$ 
 $4.1.1 nyap...$ 
 $4.1.3 striyam$ 
 $4.1.4 aj\bar{a}dyatas...$ 
=  $p\bar{a}caka + T\bar{a}P$ 

(b)  $p\bar{a}caka + T\bar{a}P$ 
 $\rightarrow 1.3.3 halantyam$ 
 $1.3.7 cut\bar{u}$ 
 $1.3.9 tasya...$ 
=  $p\bar{a}caka + T\bar{a}P$ 

(c)  $p\bar{a}caka + \bar{a}$ 
 $\rightarrow 1.4.13 yasm\bar{a}t...$ 
 $6.4.1 angasya$ 
 $7.3.44 pratyayasthāt...$ 
=  $p\bar{a}c(a \rightarrow i)ka + \bar{a}$ 
=  $p\bar{a}cika + \bar{a}$ 

(d)  $p\bar{a}cika + \bar{a}$ 
 $\rightarrow 6.1.101 akah savarne...$ 
pācik  $(a + a \rightarrow \bar{a})$ 
=  $p\bar{a}cik\bar{a}$ 
 $\rightarrow 4.1.1 nyap...$ 
 $4.1.2 svaujas...$ 
#  $1.4.102 supah$ , etc.
=  $p\bar{a}cik\bar{a} + sU$ 

(f)  $p\bar{a}cik\bar{a} + sU$ 
 $\rightarrow 1.3.2 upadeśe...$ 
 $1.3.9 tasya...$ 
=  $p\bar{a}cik\bar{a} + s$ 
(g)  $p\bar{a}cik\bar{a} + s$ 
 $\rightarrow 1.2.41 apṛkta...$ 
 $6.1.68 halynyaphyo...$ 
=  $p\bar{a}cik\bar{a}$ 
 $\rightarrow 1.4.14 suptinantam...$ 
 $1.62 pratyayalope...$ 
=  $p\bar{a}cik\bar{a}$ 
 $\rightarrow 1.4.14 suptinantam...$ 
 $1.1.62 pratyayalope...$ 
=  $p\bar{a}cik\bar{a}$ 

The above two forms are derived by introducing the krt affix NvuL after the verbal root pac. The second form is the feminine counterpart of the

first. Rule application in these derivations is fairly straightforward. Deriving  $p\bar{a}caka$  from pac + NvuL basically entails two operations: replacement of vu by aka and the vrddhi of the penultimate  $(upadh\bar{a})$  a of pac. The second form requires the introduction of the feminine affix  $T\bar{a}P$  followed by homogenous (savarna) long vowel replacement for a + a. I shall return to these derivations after a discussion of  $kumbhak\bar{a}rah$ .

### 20. kumbhakāraḥ

```
(a) DUkrÑ
                                 \rightarrow 1.3.1 bh\bar{u}v\bar{a}dayo...
                                      1.3.3 halantyam
                                      1.3.5 ādirāituduvah
                                      1.3.9 tasya...
                                 = (DU \rightarrow \emptyset) kr (\tilde{N} \rightarrow \emptyset)
                                 = kr
                                 \rightarrow 3.1.91 dhātoh
(b) kr
                                      3.2.1 karmany an
                                      3.1.92 tatropapadam...
                                 = kumbha + \bar{a}m + kr + aN
(c) kumbha + \bar{a}m +
        kr + aN
                                 \rightarrow 1.3.3 \, halantyam
                                      1.3.9 tasya...
                                 = kumbha + \bar{a}m + kr + a
(d) kumbha + \bar{a}m +
        kr + a
                                 \rightarrow 1.4.13 \, yasmat...
                                      6.4.1 angasya
                                      7.2.115 aco' ñniti
                                 = kumbha + \bar{a}m + k(r \rightarrow \bar{a}r) + a
                                 = kumbha + \bar{a}m + k\bar{a}ra
(e) kumbha + \bar{a}m + k\bar{a}ra \rightarrow 2.2.19 upapadam atin
                                      1.2.46 krttaddhita...
                                      2.4.71 supo...
                                 = kumbha + (\bar{a}m \rightarrow \emptyset) + k\bar{a}ra
                                 = kumbhakāra
(f) kumbhakāra
                                 \rightarrow as in kumārah
                                 = kumbhak\bar{a}ra + (sU \rightarrow h)
                                 = kumbhakārah
```

The derivation of  $kumbhak\bar{a}ra\dot{p}$  is highly complex. First, its two constituents,  $kumbha + \bar{a}m$  and  $k\bar{a}ra + sU$ , are combined to produce an obligatory compound. Second,  $k\bar{a}ra$  is derived by introducing affix  $a\dot{p}$  under the condition of a pada, namely  $kumbha + \bar{a}m$ , which denotes karman 'object' and serves as an upapada 'co-occurring pada.' Finally, the complexity of this derivation increases because the rule which derives  $k\bar{a}ra$  from

DUkrN + aN, 3.2.1 karmany an, is contained in the second quarter of the third book. Furthermore, the denotatum of the conjoined pada has been specified as karman. This necessitates bringing related rules to the context of 3.2.1 karmany an.

The process of retrieving related rules begins with the locative singular word karmani of 3.2.1. This rule is contained within the domain of 3.1.91 dhātoh whose functional context contains 3.1.92 tatropapadam saptamīstham. The variable reference tatra specifies that an item in the locative in this domain of 3.1.91 should be construed as an upapada. The obligatory compound of kumbha + ām + kāra is allowed by 2.2.19 upapadam atin. One can now see how the locative in karmani, with its antecedent upapada and the term karman, brings rules from the kāraka, vibhakti and samāsa sections close to the context of 3.2.1. Since the term upapada in 2.2.19 is referenced with prathamā 'nominative', kumbha + ām must be treated as upasarjana 'secondary' (1.2.43 prathamānirdiṣṭam...) and hence, be placed first in the compound as is required by 2.2.30 upasarjanam pūrvam. The following schema reveals the complexity of this derivation.

```
karman (1.4.49 kartur...; 2.3.2
karmani dvitīyā, etc.)
upasarjana (2.2.30 upasarjanam ...)
            (2.2.19 upapadam atin)
            (1.2.43 pratham\bar{a}...)
kartr (1.4.54 svatantrah...)
karman (3.2.1 karmany an)
upapada (3.1.92 tatropapadam...)
kartr (3.4.67 kartari...)
samāsa (2.1.4 prāk...)
       (2.1.1 samarthah...)
        (2.1.22 tatpurusah)
       (2.2.19 upapadam...)
        (2.2.30 upasarjanam...)
       (1.2.46 krttaddhita...)
       (2.4.71 \, supo...)
= kumbhakārah
```

It should be remembered here that affix aN is a krt and as such is introduced to denote kartr 'agent'. The first constituent of the compound kumbhakāra denotes karman 'object'. These relations are both inherent in the compound. The action with reference to which karman and kartr are expressed is, of course, denoted by DUkṛÑ. Now recall the derivation of pācakaḥ with underlying verbal root pac after which affix NvuL is introduced.

Since NvuL is a krt affix, it too denotes kartr. The derivational history of  $kumbhak\bar{a}rah$  and  $p\bar{a}cakah$  shows that they inhere diverse syntactico-semantic relations. This is further proof of the effectiveness of referential indices in resolving problems encountered in complex derivations.

It should be obvious by now that derivations may relate to sentences or sentence-like strings. I have already discussed the derivation of putrīyati, rājapuruṣaḥ and kumbhakāraḥ where the first two are optional and the last obligatory. The putrīyati can be used optionally with the sentence ātmanaḥ putram icchati and rājapuruṣaḥ can be used alternately with the sentential string rājāaḥ puruṣaḥ Kumbhakāraḥ however, is obligatory involving an upapada.

Pāṇini also discussed many derivations which involve sentences relatable to each other. Consider for example the following rules.

1.4.51 akathitam ca

'a kāraka not yet assigned any one of the other names is also assigned the name karman'

1.4.52 gatibuddhipratyavasānārthaśabdakarmākarmakāṇām aṇi karttā sa ṇau 'the agent of a non-Nic action having the signification of gati 'movement', buddhi 'perception' or pratyavasāna 'consuming', or having śabda 'sound' as its object, or having no object at all is termed karman when the same root terminates in NiC'

1.3.53 hṛkor anyatarasyām

'a  $k\bar{a}raka$  which serves as the agent of  $hr\bar{N}$  'to carry' and  $DUkr\bar{N}$  'to make' not used with NiC optionally is termed karman when used with NiC'

1.4.55 tatprayojako hetuś ca

'a kāraka which serves as prayojaka 'instigator' of the agent, in addition to being a kartṛ, is termed hetu 'cause'

Let us consider some examples.

- 21. devadattaḥ pāṇinā kaṃsapātryāṃ gāṃ dogdhi payaḥ 'Devadatta is milking the milk by hand in a copper vessel'
- 22. devadattena paṇinā kaṃsapātryāṃ gauḥ payo duhyate 'Cow's milk is milked by hand in a copper vessel by Devadatta'
- 23. devadattaḥ ajāṃ grāmaṃ nayati 'Devadatta is bringing the goat to the village'
- 24. devadattena ajā grāmam nīyate 'The goat is taken to the village by Devadatta'
- 25. māṇavakaḥ dharmaṃ budhyate 'The boy understands the duty'
- 26. māṇavakena dharmo budhyate 'The duty is understood by the boy'
- 27. devadattah māṇavakam dharmam bodhayati 'Devadatta makes the boy understand the duty'

- 28. devadattena māṇavakaḥ dharmaṃ bodhayate 'The duty is made known to the boy by Devadatta'
- 29. devadattena māṇavakam dharmaḥ bodhayate 'id'
- 30. devadattaḥ yajñadattaṃ grāmaṃ gamayati 'Devadatta has Yajñadatta go to the village'
- 31. devadattena yajñadatto grāmam gamyate 'The village is gone to by Yajñadatta at the instigation of Devadatta'
- 32. devadattaḥ māsam āsyate 'Devadatta stays (here) for a month'
- 33. devadattena māsaḥ āsyate 'id.'
- 34. devadattena māsam āsyate 'id.'
- 35. devadattaḥ yajñadattaṃ māsam āsayati 'Devadatta has Yajñadatta stay for a month'
- 36. devadattena yajñadatto māsam āsyate 'Yajñadatta is caused to stay for a month by Devadatta'
- 37. devadattena yajñadattam māsam āsyate 'id'

The above sentences distinguish five types of sentential relations: non-causal active, causal active, non-causal passive, causal passive and impersonal active. These categories are illustrated by 23, 27, 24, 28 and 34 respectively. They all involve one action each, though the transitive actions involve two-place objects, a direct and an indirect one. The causal actions similarly involve two-place agents, an instigator (*prayojaka*) and an instigated (*prayojya*). Sentences 25 and 26 are non-causal active and passive respectively. I have already indicated in connection with *kumāreṇa paṭḥyate* that *LA* replacements in *tiN* share a dependency relationship with *sUP*. An extracted representation of this dependency will greatly enhance our understanding of the above examples.

The LA replacements of tiN termed ātmanepada offer three choices: denoting either an agent, object or bhāva. Conversely, the parasmaipada replacements can only denote two: agent and object. Actions denoted by an intransitive root do not denote an object except for cases specified otherwise. For example, māsa 'month', an item denoting kāla 'time', in sentences 32-34 is treated as the object of a seemingly intransitive action denoted by ās 'to stay'. The verbal form āsyate in sentences 33-34 denotes object and bhāva respectively with te. Thus, given an abstract representation of sentences 32-34 as devadatta (agent) māsa (object) ās (current action), we can introduce LAŢ to be replaced subsequently by the ātmanepada ending te. It is at this time that one must choose whether one wants to express agent,

object or *bhāva* by means of the verbal ending. Once this choice is made, the *sUP* endings can be selected to express either the agent or the object which has not been expressed elsewhere. For example, sentence 32 denotes agent by *te*. Consequently, *devadattaḥ* denotes the nominal stem notion (*prātipadikārtha*). Since the *karman* is left unexpressed, *māsa* takes the accusative ending *am* to express it. Sentence 33 expresses the object with *ya* of *āsyate*. As a result, the agent is to be expressed with the *sUP* in *devadattena*. The nominative in *māsaḥ* on the other hand, expresses the nominal stem notion. Sentence 34 expresses both the agent and the object with the *sUP*. This becomes necessary because of the verbal form *āsyate* which is expressing *bhāva*.

The Mahābhāṣya discusses some ślokavārttikas (ad 1.4.51; I, 264 ff.) which outline views concerning the denotatum of LA. Nāgeśa (Udyota ad 1.4.51; I. 270) summarizes them as follows.

38. gauņe karmaņi duhyādeḥ pradhāne nīhṛkṛṣvahām, buddhibhakṣyārthayoḥ śabdakarmaṇām ca nijecchayā prayojyakarmaṇy anyeṣām ṇyantānām lādayo matāḥ hṛkror nijecchayā kim vā prayojye bahudarśibhiḥ 'A LA replacement denotes the secondary object in case of verbal roots duh 'to milk', etc. It expresses the primary object in case of nī 'to lead', hṛ 'to carry', kṛṣ 'to drag' and vah 'to carry'. In case of the causatives of knowing and consuming, and also verbs having sound as their object, the LA expresses whatever one desires. The LA expresses prayojyakarman 'prompting agent termed object' in case of the other causatives. However, with the causatives of nī, hṛ and kṛṣ they are expressed by LA as one desires…'

The above verse clearly emphasizes the importance of usage and interpretation ( $vy\bar{a}khy\bar{a}na$ ) in determining the denotatum of  $ti\dot{N}$ , especially in relation to causal and non-causal verbs having dual objects. Consider the causative sentences 35 and 36. The following is their abstract representation.

devadatta (causal agent) yajñadatta (causal object)
māsa (object denoting time) ās (current causal action)

The affix LAT is introduced here after  $\bar{a}s$  with reference to current time. Since one may choose to express either the agent, object or root sense, a selection of tiN to express one of these will require the introduction of sUP to express the other two. Thus tiN expresses the causal agent and the causal object in 35 and 36 respectively. As a result, we get the accusative ending am after  $yaj\bar{n}adatta$  and  $m\bar{a}sa$  in 35 to express the object. Similarly a choice to express the causal object with tiN in 36 requires that the causal agent and the object denoting time be expressed by sUP. A choice to express  $bh\bar{a}va$  with ya will yield 37 where the causal agent and the two objects as well have to be expressed with a sUP.

Sentences 30 and 31 illustrate instances of a causal active and its corresponding passive with two-place objects. The causal object is expressed with the verb in 31. This obviously leaves the causal agent to be expressed by the instrumental ending  $T\bar{a}$ . The accusative am similarly is required after grāma. Sentences 25 through 29 involve an action denoted by budh. This root requires the introduction of ātmanepada endings which, in turn, may denote either agent, object or bhāva. Sentence 25 is active, 26 passive. Sentences 27 and 28 are causal active and passive where 27 expresses the agent with ti. This leaves both objects to be expressed by the accusative am. Sentences 28 and 29 both express the object with ya. This, however, they do in turn. That is, 28 expresses the causal object with tiN and the regular non-causal object with sUP. The case is reversed in 29. Sentences 23 and 24 allow the agent or the object to be expressed with tiN. Since  $n\bar{t}$  involves a two-place object, the question whether the passive expresses the primary or the secondary object with the verb is encountered. As is clear from 24, only the primary object should be expressed with te. Sentences 21 and 22 illustrate the fact that the secondary object (gauh) alone can be expressed by the passive form of duh. In summation, the above sentences illustrate that their derivations are linked at certain steps in their derivational history via choices relative to the denotata of tiN.

The preceding description centres around two basic facts: that verbal endings may express agent, object or *bhāva* depending upon whether the verbal root is transitive or intransitive, and that *sUP* endings, among other things, are used to express agent and object if they have not already been expressed by the verbal ending. Furthermore, transitive actions with dual objects pose a problem. Should the verbal endings express the primary or secondary object? The summary verse cited from the *Udyota* of Nāgeśa presents the guidelines. It also illustrates how sentence types with two-place objects can be derivationally related.

Pāṇini, too, has discussed how to relate sentential types involving two-place actions. All the above examples involve a single action except for the causatives which may be viewed as involving two-place actions, i.e. causal action and its non-causal counterpart. For an understanding of how sentences involving two-place actions are derived, consider the following examples:

- 39. sthālyām odanam pacantam devadattam paśyāmi 'I see Devadatta cooking rice in a pot'
- 40. tisthan mūtrayati yavanah

'The Ionian is urinating while standing'

- 41. dakṣiṇena ced yāyān tarhi na śakaṭaṃ paryābhavet 'The cart would not turn over if he goes by the Southern side'
- 42. odanam bhuktvā grāmam gacchati devadattaḥ 'Devadatta goes to the village after having eaten the rice'

- 43. odanam bhuktvā grāmo gamyate devadattena
  - 'The village is gone to by Devadatta after having eaten the rice'
- 44. devadatto grāmam gantum icchati
  - 'Devadatta wishes to go to the village'
- 45. devadattena grāmo gantum iṣyate
  - 'The village is wished to be reached by Devadatta'

The above are but a few instances of sentences with two-place actions. The problems encountered in deriving them are twofold: specifying the signification of linguistic elements introduced, and outlining constraints relative to the denotatum of grammatical categories such as the agent and the object. All the above sentences entail sentence-like structures mainly due to the involvement of dual actions. Thus sentences 39 and 40 involve two sentences each.

- 46. yavanah tisthati
  - 'The Ionian is standing', and
- 47. yavanah mūtrayati
  - 'The Ionian is urinating'; as well as
- 48. devadattah sthālyām odanam pacati
  - 'Devadatta is cooking rice in the pot', and
- 49. aham devadattam paśyāmi
  - 'I see Devadatta'.

The derivation of 39 is allowed by 3.2.126 lakṣaṇahetvoḥ kriyāyāḥ which states that affixes Satr and  $S\bar{a}naC$  are introduced as replacements for LAT providing one action marks another or one action serves as hetu 'cause' for another action. The action denoted by  $sth\bar{a}$  'stand' marks the action denoted by  $m\bar{u}traya$  'urinate'. As a result,  $sth\bar{a} + LAT$  yields  $sth\bar{a} + \hat{s}atr$  where Satr is a replacement for LAT. Sentence 40 involves the introduction of the affix Satr as a replacement for LAT providing LAT (Satr) does not occur in syntactic co-ordination with an item ending in the nominative. Thus, given the sentence devadattaṃ paśyāmi which is derived from devadatta + am + drṣ + LAT, the affix Satr can be introduced after drs under the condition of a syntactic co-ordination with devadatta + am. Sentence 41 is derived by introducing the affix LIN after verbal roots denoting hetu 'cause' and hetumat 'effect' (3.3.156 hetuhetumator lin). This clearly requires two actions such that one may serve as the cause for the other. Going by the southern side here serves as the cause for the cart's safety, the effect.

Sentences 42 through 45 involve the introduction of affixes  $Ktv\bar{a}$  and tumUN where 43 and 45 are the passive counterparts of 42 and 44. The introduction of  $Ktv\bar{a}$  entails two actions such that one is prior and the other subsequent.  $Ktv\bar{a}$  is introduced after the verbal root which denotes the prior action providing both actions share the same agent (3.4.21  $sam\bar{a}nakartrka-yoh p\bar{u}rvak\bar{a}le$ ). Sentence 43, the passive counterpart of 42, expresses the object by te. The object of bhuj 'to consume' is expressed by am. Recall here that a distinction between primary and secondary objects was made in

connection with our discussion of two-place objects. Such a distinction was also maintained between primary and secondary actions in connection with the discussion of two-place actions. Consider, for example, sentences 41 and 45 where the action denoted by is 'to wish' is primary as opposed to the secondary action denoted by gam. The kartr of both these actions is denoted by ti of the primary action. Consequently the object of gam, grāma, is expressed with am. The verbal form isyate expresses the object of both the actions in sentence 45. As a result grāma takes the nominative rather than the accusative or dative. This is only logical since grāma is the object of gam while both grāma and gantum are the objects of is (see Mbh. ad 3.4.26 svādumi namul; II. 251-52). These additional examples reinforce our observations.

- 50. devadatto grāmam jigamiṣati 'Devadatta wishes to go to the village'
- 51. devadattena grāmo jigamiṣyate
  'The village is wished to be gone to by Devadatta'

Now consider 3.1.7 in relation to sentences 44 and 45.

3.1.7 dhātoḥ karmaṇaḥ samānakartṛkād icchāyāṃ vā 'The affix saN optionally is introduced after a verb root which underlies the object of and has the same agent as is.'

As has already been stated, gantum is the object of is. The root which forms part of this object is gam. Rule 3.1.7 can introduce the affix saN after this root to ultimately derive the form jigamiṣati. If the form which ends in affix tumUN is not treated as the object referenced with the karmaṇaḥ of 3.1.7, jigamiṣati can never be derived. Note here that the condition of samākartṛkatva 'same agent' imposed by 3.1.7 is shared by 3.3.158 samānakartṛkeṣu tumun. The affix tumUN occurring in sentences 44 and 45 is introduced by 3.3.158. Since sentences 44, 50, 45 and 51 derive as alternants, the constraint of samānakartṛkatva should not be treated merely as an accident. It is directly related to the Pāṇinian schema for relating sentences.

lDeshpande (1980) presents an excellent discussion of the syntax of-tumUN, although his claim that the Indian grammatical tradition starting with Patañjali up to the VP of Bhartrhari was unaware of the solution to problems concerning the syntax of-tumUN is at best debatable. There are references in the tradition which trace the origin of Bhartrhari's solutions to the Mahābhāsya. See, for example, Laghuśabdaratna, II:646: idañ ca svādumi namul (3.4.26) iti sūtre bhāsye spaṣṭam. tatratya bhāsyārthānuvādinyau ceme harikārike ity anyatra prapañcitam. 'This has been made clear in the Mahābhāsya on rule 3.4.26 svādumi namul. These two kārikā verses of Bhartrhari reiterate the content of the Mahābhāsya. This has been expatiated elsewhere.' Nevertheless, Deshpande deserves credit for a refreshingly thorough study.

# 11

# **Derivation of Compounds**

The following is an outline of the domain under which Pāṇini discusses Sanskrit compounds.

- 2.1.1 samarthah padavidhih
- 2.1.3 prāk kadārāt samāsaḥ
- 2.1.4 saha supā
  - 2.1.5 avyayībhāvaḥ
  - 2.1.21 anyapadārthe ca samjāāyām
  - 2.1.22 tatpurusah
  - 2.2.22 ktvā ca
  - 2.2.23 bahuvrīhih
  - 2.2.28 tena saheti tulyayoge
  - 2.2.29 cārthe dvandvah
- 2.2.30 upasarjanam pūrvam
- 2.2.38 kadārāh karmadhāraye

Before discussing generative conventions employed in deriving Sanskrit compounds, some generalized constraints implicitly assumed or explicitly stated by Pāṇini should be explained. Compounds come under the structural domain of padavidhi, a cover term for constructions which result by integrating two or more fully inflected and syntactically related words. That is, padavidhi is a grammatical operation whereby units ending in inflectional endings sUP or tiN can be integrated to yield a single unit. Since units ending in a sUP or tiN are always used as elements in a sentence, padavidhi is a syntactic operation and hence, diverse syntactico-semantic relations must fall within its scope.

In order to delimit the scope of padavidhi, Pāṇini proposes rule 2.1.1 samarthaḥ padavidhiḥ as a metarule of interpretation (paribhāṣā). Patañjali, in his Mahābhāṣya, discusses various questions related to this metarule in great detail. For our purposes, we can make the general assertion that 2.1.1 specifies that padavidhi must meet the condition of sāmarthya 'fitness, capability'. This single condition has been variously interpreted. For example,

(1)  $r\bar{a}jan + \dot{N}as puruṣa + sU$ 

is a string of two nominal padas where  $r\bar{a}jan$  'king' and puruṣa 'man, servant' are two nominal stems (prātipadika) ending in Nas (genitive) and sU

(nominative) respectively. If treated as input to *padavidhi*, this string will yield a single integrated unit.

(2) rājapuruṣaḥ 'king's man'.

In the absence of integration, the string will yield a construct of two units.

(3) rājnah puruşah 'king's man'.

Since both the integrated and non-integrated units mean the same thing, (3) can be treated as the paraphrase of (2). Pāṇiniyas treat (3) as the vigraha-vākya 'analysed form' of the compound (2); both, however, derive from (1).

A distinction is also made between (1) and (3). Grammarians consider (1) an alaukika vigraha-vākya, an analytical form existing only on the theoretical level and not attested by usage. As opposed to this, (3) is considered a laukika vigraha-vākya, an alternant to (2) which is attested by usage. In accordance with the condition of sāmarthya, the capability of (3) is defined as vyapekṣā 'mutual expectancy' whereas the capability of (2) is defined as ekārthībhāva 'emergence of a single integrated meaning'. In essence, padavidhi is a syntactic operation whereby two or more words having a mutual expectancy relationship are integrated to yield a single unit capable of expressing a single integrated meaning.

If two or more units of a sentence cannot be logically construed without each other, they can be regarded as sharing a mutual expectancy relationship. Furthermore, one or one combination of these units may be regarded as *pradhāna* 'principal' while the others are considered as *upasarjana* 'secondary'. In sentence

(4) rājňaḥ puruṣo rathena grāmaṃ gacchati
'The king's man is going to the village by means of a chariot',

rājňaḥ puruṣaḥ underlies the viśeṣaṇa-viśeṣya 'modifier-modified' relationship which constitutes the logical connection between them. It is also evident from this sentence that puruṣaḥ 'man' alone can be most directly related to kriyā 'action' which is considered the central denotatum of a sentence. As opposed to this, rājňaḥ, genitive singular of rājan 'king', is not relatable to anything else but puruṣaḥ. Hence, puruṣaḥ is the principal element and rājňaḥ is secondary. A compound parallel to rājňaḥ puruṣaḥ is permissible since its constituents share a mutual expectancy relationship. However, consider the following phrase

(5) bhāryā rājñaḥ puruṣo devadattasya 'King's wife Devadatta's man'.

Here, a compound formation of rājňah puruṣah is not permissible since rājňah and puruṣah do not share mutual expectancy and hence cannot be

considered logically connected with one another. Instead, in interpreting (5), one must accept that  $r\bar{a}j\bar{n}ah$  is most logically connected with  $bh\bar{a}ry\bar{a}$  while puruṣah is most logically connected with devadatta. In short, logical connection based on mutual expectancy, and not mere juxtaposition or proximity of elements, is one of the primary conditions imposed upon the formation of compounds.

Aside from the issues of logical connection between the constituents of a compound, one also has to consider yet another requirement: the emergence of a single integrated meaning. Let us compare (2) and (3) from the point of view of their signification. A string of uncompounded words, such as rājnah purusah, is capable of expressing its total meaning only as the sum of the meanings expressed by its constituents. That is, constituents of an uncompounded string express their meanings cumulatively. The total of the individual meanings expressed by logically connected words can be conveniently labelled the meaning of the uncompounded words. The picture differs, however, when we consider the meaning of compounds. First, a compound unit is only required to express a single integrated meaning. This does not necessarily mean that the meaning must correspond to the total of the meanings of the individual constituents. On the one hand, there are compounds like (2) rājapurusah in which the constituent units preserve their individual meanings after integration. Integration of this type has been aptly called ajahatsvārthā 'that which has not abandoned its own meaning'. On the other hand, there are compounds in which individual constituents find no specific expression. Such compounds have been termed jahat-svārthā 'that which has abandoned its own meaning'.

The condition of sāmarthya means that a string of logically connected words qualifies for compounding as long as it yields a single integrated meaning; whether this meaning preserves the meaning of the underlying constituents does not matter. For example, a compound like khaṭvārūḍhaḥ refers to a social renegade fit for contempt. However, the meaning of the parallel uncompounded string, khaṭvām ārūḍhaḥ will simply refer to a person who has climbed into bed.

Rule 2.1.4 saha supā, read with the sUP of 2.1.2 sub āmantrite... and samāsaḥ of 2.1.3 prāk kaḍārāt samāsaḥ, specifies that an item ending in a sUP can be combined with another such item to yield a compound provided only that

- (a) a logical connection exists between them, and
- (b) that there emerges a single integrated meaning.

This interpretation of 2.1.4 appears to impose two constraints upon the process of compound formation.

(6) Formation of a compound is permissible only when the constituent elements end in a sUP. Since a sUP can only be introduced after a

prātipadika 'nominal stem', compound formation is further restricted to only those items which underlie a nominal stem.

(7) Compounds cannot contain more than two constituent 'words'.

Constraint (6) rules out the formation of compounds from those constituents which end in a tiN. Constraint (7) blocks the formation of a compound which may have more than two constituents. However, this latter is not completely accurate since Pāṇini has proposed rules 2.1.24 anekam anyapadārthe and 2.2.29 cārthe dvandvaḥ which allow the formation of bahuvrīhi and dvandva compounds from more than two constituents on condition that the bahuvrīhi expresses a meaning other than one expressed by its own constituents and the dvandva expresses the meaning signified by ca 'and'.

Compound formation of more than two constituents poses yet another problem. If there were, for example, four constituents X, Y, Z and R and a multiple compound were allowed, what would be the mode of combining these constituents? Should we combine them:

- (8) simultaneously, or,
- (9) two at a time starting on the left, or,
- (10) two at a time simultaneously starting on the left and the right and then combining the results of both, or,
- (11) two at a time starting in the middle and then moving to the right and finally combining the initial, or,
- (12) two at a time starting on the right.

Except for (8) and (10), the other modes involve a three-step compound formation. The implications of such combinatory modes have been discussed fully in the *Mahābhāṣya* of Patañjali. I shall examine them briefly in connection with my treatment of *bahuvrīhi* and *dvandva* compounds. What is important here is to present a few generalized conventions which will aid our understanding of the Pāṇinian derivation mechanism. I shall recall conventions from earlier chapters as needed; conventions directly relevant to compound derivation will be formulated as the discussion proceeds.

The Astādhyāyī accepts verbal roots (dhātu) and nominal stems (prātipadika) as potential units of input. We can characterize such input as strings of lexical items capable of matching the meaning of the target utterance. Sentence (4) can be analysed as a target utterance consisting of five fully derived padas 'words' which, in turn, underlie five elements. The first four words underlie rājan, puruṣa, ratha and grāma which are all technically termed prātipadika. The fifth word, gam is a dhātu 'verbal root'. Each of these elements must undergo various operations to yield the desired sentence. I shall put aside the question of their matching the meaning of sentence (4) and move directly to the derivational steps.

(13) No string can activate the derivation mechanism of this grammar unless the controlling domain (CD, first book) assigns a definitional term (samjña) to each one of its elements. Strings with assigned terms must go to the obligatory domain (OD, third through fifth books) where they must locate an interior domain for possible rule application.

There is a definite connection between assignment of a term by the CD and locating an interior domain in the OD. Since the OD covers three books and many interior domains, a rule-by-rule scanning to locate a rule that might apply would be a tedious exercise. Pāṇini, by the implicit device of term assignment, makes locating the desired domain and rules much more economical.

(14) Strings locate domains for possible rule application by examining the governing rules. Thus  $d_1$  is the domain for any string  $s_1$  if  $s_1$  is assigned a term  $t_1$  and  $t_1$  is also contained in the governing rule of  $d_1$ .

In view of (14), our string rājan (prātipadika) + puruṣa (prātipadika) + ratha (pratipadika) + grama (pratipadika) + gam (dhatu) must scan the OD to locate the interior domains whose governing rules contain the definitional terms prātipadika and dhātu. As a consequence, rājan, puruṣa, ratha and grāma are referred to the interior domain of 4.1.1 ny-āp-prātipadikāt where sUP (4.1.2 svaujas...) affixes (3.1.1 pratyayah) are introduced after (3.1.2 paras ca) items termed prātipadika. The selection and placement of a proper sUP after rājan, purusa, ratha and grāma is accomplished through a complex process of retrieving the referential indices of sUP which, in turn, brings required rules from the CD and other domains close to the context of 4.1.2 svaujas... Equally complex procedures must be followed for gam which, after being sent to the domain of 3.1.91 dhātoh, first receives the abstract affix LAT (3.2.123 vartamāne lat) and then replaces it with a  $ti\dot{N}$ (3.4.77-78 lasya-tiptasjhi...). The output at this stage becomes:  $r\bar{a}jan + Nas$ + purusa + sU + ratha +  $T\bar{a}$  +  $gr\bar{a}ma$  + am and gam + Sap + tiP which must follow further steps in derivation outside the OD.

(15) The result of each rule application in the *OD* or in any other domain must be examined by the *CD* and further steps in derivation must be taken either by assigning a fresh term or by exhausting operations triggered by terms already received through referential indices or both. It is imperative then that outputs of the *OD* receive further term assignment from the *CD* and gain access to other relevant domains following locating procedures as outlined in (14).

Aṅga (1.4.13 yasmāt pratyayavidhis...), bha (1.4.17-18 svādisv...-yaci bham) and pada (1.4.14 suptinantam padam) generally are assigned to outputs of the OD for further steps in derivation. These terms facilitate locating the aṅga (6.4.1 aṅgasya through 7.4), bha (6.4.129 bhasya through 6.4.175 rtvyavāstvya...) and pada (8.1.16 padasya through 8.3.55 apadāntasya...)

domains. Constituent units of a sentence are termed pada; these are the ultimate units derivable from the grammar. Thus,  $r\bar{a}jan + Nas$ , purusa + sU,  $ratha + T\bar{a}$ ,  $gr\bar{a}ma + am$  and gam + Sap + tiP individually are termed pada and, after necessary morphophonemic operations, yield  $r\bar{a}j\bar{n}ah$ , purusah, rathena,  $gr\bar{a}mam$  and gacchati. A concatenation of these words will produce the target utterance.

### (4) rājāah puruso rathena grāmam gacchati.

The first two padas of this sentence can be replaced by a single pada, rājapuruṣaḥ, with practically no semantic modification. The underlying prātipadika of rājapurusah will then be rājapurusa, a nominal compound or a complex nominal stem. In order to derive this compound, we must take the output of the OD, i.e.  $r\bar{a}jan + Nas purusa + sU$ , a string of two logically connected padas, and send it to the domain of compound formation (2.1.1 through 2.2.38) for integration into a compound. As a consequence, we will get a samāsa 'compound' of the tatpuruṣa type which, in turn, will require that  $r\bar{a}jan + Nas + purusa + sU$  be the fixed order for the constituents of this compound. In view of (15), the CD will examine the compound string and, by its rule 1.2.46 krttaddhita-samāsāś ca read with 1.2.45 arthavad... prātipadika will assign it the term prātipadika. This will lead to the application of 2.4.71 supo dhātu-prātipadikayoh which requires deleting all the sUP affixes contained in a dhātu or a prātipadika. The result of the application of this rule will be  $r\bar{a}jan + purusa$  which after the deletion of the n becomes rājapuruṣa. It is important to remember here that the CD has termed the compound a nominal stem. Following (14) one might be tempted to take rājapurusa to the domain of 4.1.1 ny-āp prātipadikāt for placement of a sUP. However, to submit to such temptation could bring undesired results since operations relative to the assignment of the term samāsa are yet to be exhausted.

(16) If two terms  $t_1$  and  $t_2$  are assigned to a string  $s_1$  such that  $t_1$  is the basis for the assignment of  $t_2$  operations relative to  $t_1$  must take precedence.

This postulate is necessary for compounds because they are assigned the term prātipadika on the strength of the term samāsa. Let us examine the controlled derivation of citraguḥ 'he who owns brindled cows'. This is a bahuvrīhi compound with two constituent padas: citrā + Jas and go + Jas. Rule 2.2.30 upasarjanam pūrvam requires that a constituent termed upasarjana 'secondary' be placed first. A referential index (RI) of the term upasarjana brings 1.1.37 prathamānirdiṣṭa...) which explains that an upasarjana is that constituent of a compound which is referenced with prathamā (first sUP triad). However, this cannot resolve our problem since 2.2.24 anekam anyapadārthe, the rule which prescribed this compound formation, references anekam 'more than one' in prathamā, and hence both citrā + Jas and go + Jas become upasarjana. It is 2.2.35 saptamī višeṣaṇe bahuvrīhau which

decides that  $citr\bar{a} + Jas$  should be placed first since it happens to be a qualifier (viśesana).

After the string is assigned the term  $pr\bar{a}tipadika$ , three operations take place. First, 2.4.71 deletes the two Jas affixes thereby reducing the string to citrago. Next, 1.2.48 go-striyor upasarjanasya demands that the o of go undergo short vowel (hrasva) substitution. Application of this rule is seemingly difficult since we do not know what a short substitute of o is. Tracing back the term origin of hrasva brings 1.1.48 ec ig hrasvādeśe which, when read with 1.3.10 yathā-saṃkhyam anudeśaḥ samānām, provides u as the proper substitute for o. This yields citragu, a pratipadika ( $t_2$ ) so designated since it is a samāsa ( $t_1$ ). Operations relative to  $t_1$  now must be exhausted.

The referential index attached to citragu includes such terms as samāsa, bahuvrīhi, upasarjana and prātipadika. In accordance with (14) and (16), strings termed samāsa will gain access to the interior domains of 5.4.68 samāsāntāh and 6.1.223 samāsasya since both these rules contain the definitional term samāsa. Rule 5.4.68 governs a domain which extends up to 5.4.160 nispravāniś ca and introduces affixes termed taddhita after certain compounds. Rule 6.1.223 heads a domain which prescribes accent to compounds with the help of rules 6.1.158 anudāttam padam ekavarjam and 6.1.159 karṣātvato ghaño' nta udāttah brought close to its context by recurrence (anuvrtti). Since all the rules contained in the second quarter of the sixth book are exceptions or residues of 6.1.223 and a general rule cannot be applied unless its exceptions or residues have been considered, we will have to accept that the domain of 6.1.223 runs through the entire second quarter of book six.

Rule 6.1.158 requires that, except for one syllable, all syllables of an item must be anudātta 'low pitched'. In the case of compounds, 6.1.223 names the syllable which should be treated as an exception to this general low pitch accentuation. This rule receives the anuvṛtti 'recurrence' of the term udāttaḥ 'high pitch' from 6.1.158. It also receives the anuvṛtti of antaḥ from 6.1.220 anto' vatyāḥ. We understand from this that the final syllable of a compound is high pitched; the remaining syllables stay low pitched. However, this is adjusted further by 6.2.1 bahuvrīhau prakṛtyā pūrvapadam to allow the first constituent of a bahuvrīhi compound to retain its original accent. Our example, citragu, will receive high pitch on gu and will be able to retain the original accent on citra. It is clear from the derivation of rājapuruṣa and citragu that the domain of compound rules must be extended to include rules retrieved by referential indices and prompted by term assignment.

The following is a generalized listing of steps involved in deriving Sanskrit compounds.

(17) Under the condition of sāmarthya, logically connected padas gain access to the domain of compound formation for integration.

Since, in many instances, compound formation is optional, 2.1.11  $vibh\bar{a}_{\bar{s}\bar{a}}$  allows certain strings the option of going through the process of integration or of refraining from it. Strings which meet the conditions of compound formation will yield a compound whereas those that do not will yield target utterances which may or may not be used parallel to compounds with the same meaning.

- (18) After the application of rules which allow the formation of a compound, individual constituents are arranged in view of the term *upasarjana*. The output of this domain is termed  $sam\bar{a}sa$   $(t_1)$ .
- (19) When the CD examines the output of (18), a new term, pratipadika ( $t_2$ ), is assigned. Rule 2.4.71 deletes the sUP affixes contained in this pratipadika. Since 2.4.71 is a general rule, its exceptions enumerated in section 6.3.1 through 6.3.139 must also be considered.
- (20) After the deletion of sUP, operations relative to the term samāsa are undertaken. For this, the compound string is sent to the interior domain of 5.4.68 samāsāntāḥ. As indicated earlier, this domain may introduce certain affixes after the compound.
- (21) Since anga is a term assigned by the CD to those strings which undergo affix placement, the output of (20) may be termed an anga before the affix, and as a consequence, be sent to the domain constituted by rules 6.4.1 through 7.4.97.
- (22) In view of (16), the output of (21) is still a samāsa and hence is required to exhaust the operations triggered by that term. This results in the scanning of the domain of 6.1.223 for assignment of the accent.
- (23) The output of (22) is now allowed to undergo operations required of *prātipadika*, irrespective of the fact that it was originally termed *samāsa*. The most general operation at this stage is the placement of a *sUP*. However, this must wait until a proper number and gender is assigned to the compound. This means scanning the 2.4 section of the grammar again.

Steps (17) through (23) illustrate that the derivation of Sanskrit compounds necessarily requires expansion of the main domain. The explicit idea of domain and recurrence joins hands with the implicit device of referential indices in accomplishing the derivations under the general direction of derivative conventions (13) through (16). The step-by-step derivation of compounds is closely related to the placement of domains in the grammar. This becomes more apparent when we look at the following computation of rules corresponding to various steps in a derivation.

(24) steps (17-18) 2.1.1-2.1.4 (2.1.5-2.1.21) (2.1.22-2.2.22) (2.2.23-2.2.28) (2.2.29) 2.2.30-2.2.38

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(25) step (19)

(2.4.71...) (6.3.1-6.3.139)

(26) steps (20-21)

(5.4.68-5.4.160)

(6.4.1-7.4.97)

(27) step (22)

(6.1.223-6.2.199)

(28) step (23)

(2.4...) (4.1.1-4.1.2...)
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Pāṇini, as mentioned earlier, derives Sanskrit compounds with reference to their analysed forms (vigraha-vākya). He establishes four categories of compounds: avyayībhāva, tatpuruṣa, bahuvrīhi and dvandva. However, two more categories, karmadhāraya and dvigu, Pāṇini treats as subcategories of tatpuruṣa. Since compounds express a single integrated meaning and include forms which may be labelled principal (pradhāna) and secondary (upasarjana), grammarians have attempted to explain the characteristics of compounds with reference to the prominence of constituent meanings.

- (29) The meaning of the first constituent is dominant in avyayībhāva compounds. A tatpuruṣa compound entails exactly the opposite. In bahuvrīhi compounds, no constituent is semantically dominant. Instead, some element outside the constituency of the compound enjoys semantic prominence. As opposed to this, a dvandva compound assigns equal semantic prominence to each one of its constituents.
- (30) Avyayībhāva compounds

Avyayībhāva compounds are treated as indeclinables. Pāṇini does not define an indeclinable. Instead, he refers to a class of items headed by svar 'heaven' and terms them avyaya 'indeclinable'. He extends this same designation to avyayībhāva compounds. One can interpret the term avyayībhāva as referring to items which attain the status of an avyaya through compound formation. However, this does not mean that an indeclinable cannot partake in the formation of an avyayībhāva compound. This may appear vacuous, especially when one understands that 2.1.4 saha supā require that the constituents of a compound be padas and indeclinables cannot be treated as padas. It is perhaps in view of this fact that Pāṇini treats avyayas as prātipadikas and thus clears the way for 4.1.1 and 4.1.2 to yield a pada by placement of a sUP. This brings the indeclinables on a par with other units which may qualify for compound formation. In essence, an avyayībhāva compound, just as any other nominal compound, takes a string of two padas  $x_n + y_1$  where  $y_1$  may be a pada ending in sU (nominative singular) which underlies a prātipadika termed avyaya. The other pada,  $x_n$ , also a nominal, does

not have to underlie an indeclinable as its *prātipadika*. Neither does it need to end only in the nominative. Pāṇini has referenced the term *avyaya* in the nominative in 2.1.6 *avyayaṃ vibhaktisamīpa...samṛddhi...* in order to show that the indeclinable *pada* will be termed an *upasarjana* and hence placed first in the compound. Let us consider the following derivations.

```
(31) x_7 + y_1 = hari + \dot{N}i + adhi + sU \rightarrow
       adhihari (harau adhi) 'on Hari'
         (a) hari
                                         1.2.45, 4.1.1-2 (placement of sUP)
                                        hari + Ni \rightarrow 1.4.14 (pada)
         (b) adhi
                                         1.2.45, 4.1.1-2
                                        adhi + sU
                                        adhi + sU \rightarrow 2.4.82 \# 1.1.37
                                        adhi + LUK
                                        adhi + \emptyset
                                        adhi \rightarrow 1.4.14 \# 1.1.62 (pada)
          (c) hari + \dot{N}i + adhi
                                        2.1.1-2.1.4, 2.1.5-2.1.6
              hari + \dot{N}i + adhi \rightarrow
                                        2.2.30 # 1/2/43
                                        adhi + hari + Ni
             adhi + hari + Ni \rightarrow
                                        1.2.46, 2.4.71
                                        adhihari + LUK
                                  =
                                        adhihari + \emptyset
                                        adhihari (prātipadika, samāsa)
         (d) adhihari
         (e) adhihari
                                        1.2.45-46, 4.1.1-2
                                        adhihari + sU
             adhihari + sU
                                        2.4.82 \# 1.1.37  (as in adhi + sU)
                                        adhihari
             adhihari
                                        1.4.14 # 1.1.62
                                        adhihari (pada)
(32) x_7 + y_1 = gopa + Ni + adhi + sU
      adhigopam 'on Krsna'
      (a-d) gopa + Ni + adhi \rightarrow same as steps (a-d) of (31)
                                  =
                                        adhigopa (prātipadika, samāsa)
             adhigopa
                                        1.2.45-46, 4.1.1-2
                                 \rightarrow
                                 =
                                        adhigopa + sU
                                        2.4.82 # 1.1.37; 2.4.83
             adhigopa + sU
                                        adhigopa + am
                                        1.4.109, 6.1.107
             adhigopa + am
                                        adhigopam
             adhigopam
                                        1.4.14 (pada)
(33) x_7 + y_1 = str\bar{\imath} + Ni + adhi + sU
      adhistri 'pertaining to women'
```

```
(a-d) stri + \dot{N}i + adhi \rightarrow same as steps (a-d) of (31)
= adhistri
(e) adhistri \rightarrow 1.2.45-46, 1.2.47
= adhistri
adhistri \rightarrow 4.1.1-2 (same as in (31))
= adhistri (pada)
```

Steps (a-b) of (31) illustrate the process whereby a string of two padas,  $hari + \dot{N}i + adhi + sU$ , was obtained. The first pada of this string,  $hari + \dot{N}i$ , follows the general derivational pattern in that it underlies a prātipadika (1.2.45 arthavad...) which is sent to the domain of 4.1.1, where 4.1.2 offers a set of twenty-one sUP affixes from among which one must be selected. The selection of  $\dot{N}i$  (locative singular) after hari (similarly, after gopa in (32) and  $str\bar{\imath}$  in (33) was accomplished with the help of referential indices and the  $k\bar{a}raka$ -vibhakti (1.4;2.3) sections of the grammar. The second pada, adhi + sU, underlies an indeclinable which, in turn, causes LUK deletion of sU by rule 2.4.82 avyayād āp-supaḥ:

'LUK (zero) is ruled as a substitute in place of  $\bar{a}P$  (feminine affixes  $C\bar{a}P$ ,  $T\bar{a}P$ , and  $D\bar{a}P$ ) and SUP which occur after an indeclinable (avyaya)'.

According to 2.1.1 samarthah padavidhih, integration requires padas as inputs. Rule 1.4.14 sup-tinantam padam states that only those items which end either in a sUP or a tiN may be considered padas. The sU of adhi in (31) was deleted. Can adhi still be called a pada? The answer is 'yes', since 1.1.62 pratyaya-lope pratyaya-lakṣaṇam states that operations relative to an affix take place even though the affix has been deleted. The compounds derived above are allowed by rules 2.1.5 and 2.1.6.

### 2.1.5 avyayībhāvaḥ 'avyayībhāva'

avyayam vibhakti-samīpa-samṛddhi-vyṛddhy-arthābhāva-atyaya-asampratiśabda-prādurbhāva-paścād-yathā-ānu-pūrvya-yaugapadya-sādṛśya-sampattisākalya-anta vacanesu

"An indeclinable can be combined with a pada ending in a sUP provided that the indeclinable has one of the following significations: vibhakti 'locus', samīpa 'proximity', samṛddhi 'prosperity', vyṛddhi 'lack of prosperity', arthābhāva 'scarcity', atyaya 'lapse', asamprati 'inappropriate for the occasion', śabdaprādurbhāva 'initiation of discourse', paścāt 'after', yathā 'correspondingly, etc.', ānupūrvya 'one after the other. sequence', yaugapadya 'simultaneity', sādṛśya 'similarity', sampatti 'propriety', sākalya 'entirety', or anta 'limit'.

In our example, adhi has been used in the sense of locus. Since 2.1.6 references the term avyaya in the  $pratham\bar{a}$  'nominative', adhi will have to be placed first (2.2.30 upasarjanam  $p\bar{u}rvam$ ). The string  $adhi + hari + \dot{N}i$ , has three terms assigned to it:  $sam\bar{a}sa$ ,  $avyay\bar{\imath}bh\bar{a}va$  and upasarjana. Now the

term  $p\bar{r}atipadika$  (1.2.45-46) becomes applicable and 2.4.71 supo dhātu... causes the LUK deletion of  $\dot{N}i$ , thus reducing the string to adhihari. Similar steps must be followed in deriving compounds such as (32) adhigopa and (33) adhistri.

We have left step (d) of (31), etc., with no indication of any rule application. Actually, (31) adhihari, as well as (32) and (33), must go through step (d), which requires the scanning of the samāsānta (5.4.68) and accent sections of the grammar. I shall discuss rules relating to placement of accent only when it becomes necessary. The placement of samāsānta affixes must be discussed. Our examples (31-33) did not qualify for affix placement although they did scan the domain of 5.4.68. One cannot question the validity of taking these strings to the domain of samāsānta affixes simply because there was no rule application. We have no way of knowing beforehand what strings may or may not involve the placement of these affixes. Consider the following derivation.

```
(34) x_6 + y_1 = \dot{s}arada + \dot{N}as + upa + sU

= upa\'saradam near the time of autumn'

steps (a-c) same as in (33)

(d) upa\'sarad \rightarrow 5.4.68, 5.4.107

# 3.1.1-2, 4.1.1, 4.1.76

= upa\'sarad + \tauC

upa\'sarad + \tauC

= upa\'sarad + \tauC

= upa\'sarad + a
```

Example (34) is similar to (31-33), however, it requires the placement of a samāsānta affix TaC in accord with 5.4.107.

5.4.107 avyayībhāve śarat-prabhṛtibhyaḥ

"ṬaC is placed after items headed by śarad, etc., when they occur in an avyayībhāva compound."

In order to accomplish the placement of affixes such as TaC, we must subject our compound string to access to the domain of 5.4.68 samāsāntāḥ, which, itself, is an interior domain of 4.1.76 taddhitāḥ. I must point out here that items which undergo the placement of an affix may qualify for assignment of the term anga (1.4.13 yasmāt pratyayavidhis...) and consequently may end up scanning the domain of 6.4.1 angasya, even if there is no rule application there. For example, no rule applied to upaśarada, yet the anga domain was scanned. An example of affix placement which involves the application of a rule in the anga domain follows.

```
(35) x_6 + y_1 = r\bar{a}jan + Nas + upa + sU
= upar\bar{a}jan 'near the king'
steps (a-c) same as in (34)
= upar\bar{a}jan
(d) upar\bar{a}jan \rightarrow 5.4.68, 5.4.108
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upar\bar{a}jan + a = upar\bar{a}jan + TaC

\rightarrow 1.1.64, 1.4.13, 14.18, 6.4.1, 1.6.4.129, 6.4.144
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It is evident from this derivational history that uparājan was sent to the domain of 6.4.1 aṅgasya where 6.4.144 nas taddhite became applicable. As a result, the ti, i.e., an (1.1.44 aco' ntyādi ti) of an n-final bha (1.4.18 yaci bham), namely, uparājan, had to be deleted because a taddhita affix (TaC) followed. This affix was ruled by 5.4.108 anaś ca which states that affix TaC is placed after an avyayībhāva compound ending is an. Rules 5.4.107-8 place TaCobligatorily. However, 5.4.109 napuṃsakād anyatarasyām 5.4.111 jhayaḥ and 5.4.122 gireś ca senakasya make the placement optional when the second member of an avyayībhāva compound is neuter, or is 'nadī river', paurṇamāsī 'day of full moon' or āgrahāyaṇī 'day of full moon of the ninth month'. Furthermore, TaC also is optional when the compound ends in jhay 'stops' or giri 'mountain'. It is imperative that optional status of placement of TaC yield a set of two forms, one with TaC and one without it.

After placement of the samāsānta affixes, anga operations become obligatory. The output of this operation is forwarded to the accent domain for accentuation. It is after the process of accentuation that compound strings become eligible for operations which apply only to prātipadika. One of the most general operations concerning such items is placement of sUP in the domain of 4.1.1. It should be remembered here that proper selection of sUP after a nominal stem underlying an avyayābhāva compound will still be guided by terms such as avyaya 'indeclinable' and napuṇṣsaka 'neuter'. Consequently, the selected sUP affix can be deleted by 2.4.82 avyayād... or replaced by am (2.4.82-84). Some of the preceding derivational details also may prove helpful in understanding the following compound derivations. Common operations regarding sUP placement or deletion, ordering of constituents, accentuation and obvious phonological changes, unless necessitated by the nature of a given derivation will not be discussed.

## (36) Tatpurusa Compounds

The description of *tatpuruṣa* compounds, including its subtypes *karmadhāraya* and *dvigu*, is contained in the interior domain 2.1.22-2.22. The recurrence of 2.1.11 *vibhāṣā* 'optionally' runs through 2.2.29 *cārthe dvandvaḥ*. The consequence of this recurrence is twofold.

- (a) Compound formations allowed by rules contained in the set 2.1.12 ān maryādā... through 2.2.29 cārthe dvandvaḥ may be used alternately with their corresponding non-compound strings.
- (b) Compound formations not contained in this set, i.e., those allowed by rules prior to 2.1.11 *vibhāṣā*, are obligatory (*nitya*).

Since Pāṇini describes compounds with reference to their analysed

forms, it is reasonable to attempt their generation in terms of the sUP they underlie. Let us examine the following derivational history.

```
(37) x_2 y_1 = kasta + am + śrita + sU
            = kastaśrita
            = kasta śrita + sU
            = kastaśritah 'he who has resorted to grief'
     kasta + am + śrita + sU \rightarrow
                                      2.1.1-4
                                      2.1.22
                                      2.1.24
                                      2.2.30 # 1.2.43
                                      kasta + am + srita + sU
                                \rightarrow 1.2.45-46
     kasta + am + śrita + sU
                                      2.4.71
                                      kasta + LUK + srita + LUK
                                      kasta + \emptyset + śrita + \emptyset
                                      kastaśrita
                                      accent placement
      kastaśrita
                                      4.1.1-2
      kastaśrita
                                 =
                                      kasta śrita + sU
                                      kastaśritah
```

This is a fairly straightforward derivational history. The  $k\bar{a}raka$ -vibhakti sections of the grammar helped rules 4.1.1-2 to place a sUP after kasta and  $\acute{s}rita$ , both  $pr\bar{a}tipadikas$ , to yield kasta + am and  $\acute{s}rita + sU$ . These padas were considered syntactically related and thus optionally were allowed to form a compound by 2.1.24.

2.1.24 dvitīyā-śrita-atīta-patita-gata-atyasta-prāpta-āpannaih

"A pada ending in dvitīyā (accusative) optionally can be combined with another pada containing such items as śrita 'resorted to', atīta 'passed', patita 'fallen', gata 'gone', atyasta 'thrown beyond', prāpta 'attained' and āpanna 'reached'.

The term  $dvit\bar{\imath}y\bar{a}$  in 2.1.24 is referenced with the nominative ( $pratham\bar{a}$ ), and since items referenced with the nominative mark an upasarjana (1.1.62  $pratham\bar{a}$ ...), kasta + am was recognized as an upasarjana and placed first in the compound string: kasta + am + srita + sU (2.2.30). Rules 1.2.45-46 identified the string as a pratipadika to which 2.4.71 applied. Subsequently, am and sU were deleted. The string was thus reduced to kasta-srita which, after the placement of proper accent, was ready to accept the sUP placement used in deriving kastasritah, a pada containing a  $sam\bar{a}sa$  'compound' termed pratipadika 'nominal stem'.

The recurrence of dvitīyā is carried through 2.1.29 atyanta saṃyoge ca. These rules account for the formation of compounds which are derived

from strings containing one pada in dvitīya and the other underlying a nominal stem ending in Kta. Pāṇini specifies conditions which allow particular compounds by citing the nominal stems, sUP or meanings involved. Thus he cites indeclinables such as svayam 'self' (2.1.26 svayam ktena) and sāmi 'half' (2.1.27 sāmi) which may be combined with items ending in Kta (3.2.102 nisthā). He also cites specific nominal stems such as khatva 'cot' as part of a pada ending in accusative, although he further restricts the compound formation by imposing a semantic condition ksepa 'contempt' (2.1.26 khatvā ksepe). Similarly, in 2.1.28 kālāh he identifies the constituents in accusative by citing  $k\bar{a}la$  'measure of time' as the general signification of their nominal stems. In 2.1.29, he cites the general meaning kāla but no longer restricts the second constituent to those which contain Kta. Instead, he cites another semantic constraint: atvanta-samvoga 'full duration'. These rules are illustrated by: svayam dhautau (pādau) 'feet washed by themselves', sāmikrtam 'half-done', khatvārūdha 'a social renegade', māsapramitas (candramā) 'new moon about to start measuring the month by her shape' and muhūrtasukham 'momentary pleasure'. All these derivations follow the general steps outlined under (17) through (27).

Parallel to instances of pada ending in dvitīyā, Pāṇini also enumerates instances where words ending in trtīya (instrumental), caturthī (dative), pañcamī (ablative) and saptamī (locative) can be combined with other pada. For example, words ending in tṛtīyā (2.1.30 tṛtīyā tatkṛtārthena guṇavacanena) can be combined with items containing artha 'wealth' or items signifying qualification (gunavacana) ascribed to them (tatkrtārtha). In addition, a pada ending in trtīyā can also be combined with another pada which contains a nominal stem in krt (3.1.93 krd-atin) expressing either kartr 'agent' or karana 'instrument' (2.1.32 kartr-karane krtā...). Examples of these include: kirikānah 'a person who has but one eye due to (the charge of) a boar', dhānyārthah 'wealth due to grain' (2.1.30), māsenapūrvah 'prior by a month', matrsadrśah/matrsamah 'like (equal to) mother', masonam 'less by a māsa (a copper coin)', vākkalahah 'quarrel by word', ācāranipunah 'skilful in behaving', tilamiśrah 'mixed with sesame', ācāraślaksnah 'gentle in behaving' (2.1.31), ahihatah 'killed by a snake(bite)' and paraśuścchinnah 'cut by an axe' (2.1.32).

A pada ending in caturthī (2.1.36 caturthī tadartha-artha-bali-hita-sukha-rakṣitaiḥ) can be combined with a pada either signifying a thing for it, or containing artha 'purpose', bali 'ritual offering', hita 'good', sukha 'pleasant' or rakṣita 'reserved' as its nominal stem. Thus we get examples: yūpadāruḥ 'wood for the ritual post', kuṇḍalahiraṇyam 'gold for the ear-rings', indrabaliḥ 'ritual offering for Indra', gohitam 'good for cows', gosukham 'pleasant for cows' and putrarakṣitaḥ 'reserved for the son'.

Instances of a tatpurusa compound with a constituent in pañcamī (ablative) are limited. Pāṇini identifies entities serving as the source of fear as apādāna 'ablative' (1.4.25 bhī-trārthānām...) and rules pañcamī after them. Such words can be combined with those words which may contain the nominal stem bhaya 'fear' (2.1.37 pañcamī bhayena). This can give the example vṛkabhayam 'fear of a wolf or wolves'. A few padas-ending in pañcamī may be combined with other pada provided these latter contained items such as apeta 'away', apodha 'separated', mukta 'released', patita 'fallen' and apatrasta 'frightened' (2.1.38 apetāpodha...). Examples for these are sukhāpetaḥ 'away from comfort', kalpanāpodhah 'separated from or lacking imagination', cakramuktah 'released from the wheel', svargapatitah 'fallen from heaven' and tarangāpatrastah 'frightened of waves'. Finally, padas which end in pañcamī and either contain krechra 'difficult' or items which have the signification of stoka 'little', dūra 'distant' or antika 'proximate' may be combined with padas containing a Kta. Thus, we get examples such as stokānmuktaḥ 'saved by a little effort', kṛcchrāllabdaḥ 'obtained with difficulty', antikādāgatah 'arrived from a nearby place' and dūrādāgatah 'arrived from a distant place' (2.1.39 stoka-antika-dūra-artha-krcchrāni ktena).

A detailed enumeration of tatpuruṣa compounds having a constituent in saptamī (locative) is available in 2.1.40 and 2.1.40-48. This time Pāṇini does not identify specific constituents ending in the locative. Instead he cites the nominal stems of constituents which combine with a constituent in the locative. Consider 2.1.42 siddha-śuṣka-pakva-bandhaiś ca which states that a pada ending in locative may be combined with another pada which contains nominal stems such as siddha 'made', śuṣka 'dried up', pakva 'cooked, ripe' and bandha 'tied'. Thus we derive grāmasiddha 'made in the village', ātapaśuṣka 'sun-dried', sthālīpakva 'cooked in a sthālī (a vessel)' and yūpabandḥa 'tied to a ritual post' from grāma +  $\dot{N}i$  + siddha + sU, ātapa +  $\dot{N}i$  + śuṣka + sU, sthālī +  $\dot{N}i$  + pakva + sU and yūpa +  $\dot{N}i$  + bandha + sU respectively. A few other rules also provide for a pada in the locative to be combined with another pada with specific stems and semantic conditions.

Pāṇini waits almost till the end of the section to describe tatpuruṣa compounds one constituent of which ends in  $ṣaṣṭh\bar{\imath}$  'the sixth sUP triad'. This is only logical since relations expressed by  $ṣaṣṭh\bar{\imath}$  are considered a residue (śeṣa) of relations expressed by other endings. Pāṇini presents 2.2.8  $ṣaṣṭh\bar{\imath}$  whereby a nominal ending in  $ṣaṣṭh\bar{\imath}$  is combined with a logically connected nominal. We have already discussed  $r\bar{a}japuruṣa$  which is derived from  $r\bar{a}jan + Nas puruṣa + sU$ . This rule is a general rule to which Pāṇini notes certain exceptions. For example, a word ending in  $ṣaṣṭh\bar{\imath}$  cannot be combined with a logically connected word if the  $ṣaṣṭh\bar{\imath}$  expresses  $nirdh\bar{a}raṇa$  'singling out an individual or a thing on the basis of class, quality and action' (2.2.10 na  $nirdh\bar{a}raṇe$ ). A string such as kṣatriya manuṣyāṇāṃ śūratamah 'a Kṣatriya is the bravest among all men', derives from ksatriya + sU

 $manusya + \bar{a}m \dot{s}\bar{u}ratama + sU$ . Although ksatriya + sU and  $manusya + \bar{a}m$  are logically connected, 2.2.10 will block their combination since the sasthī (ām) has been added after manusya to express nirdhārana. Similarly, a nominal ending in sasthī cannot be combined with any one of the following: an ordinal (ending in a suffix pūraņa cf. 5.2.48 tasya pūraņe..., etc.), a word expressing quality (guna), a word expressing satisfaction (suhita), a word ending in affixes Satr and Sanac (3.2.127 tau sat), an indeclinable, a word ending in tavyaT (3.1.96 tavyat...) and a word co-referential with the nominal in sasthī (2.2.11 pūranaguna...). Consequently, compounds are not permissible for strings such as chātrāṇām pañcamah, 'fifth among the students', kākasya kārsnyam 'blackness of the crow', phalānām suhitah 'satisfaction of fruits', brāhmaṇasya kurvan 'doing the work of a brāhmaṇa', brāhmaņasya krtvā 'having finished the work of a brāhmaņa', brāhmaņasya kartavyam 'fit to be done by a brāhmana' and rājnah pāṭliputrakasya 'of the king of Pāṭaliputra'. Additionally, nominals ending in saṣṭhī cannot be combined with a logically connected nominal if this nominal contains Kta and Kta is ruled to express pūjā 'respect' (2.2.12 ktena ca pūjāyām) or adhikaraņa 'locus' (2.2.13 adhikaranavācinā ca).

Rule 2.3.65 kartrkarmanoh states that when nominals ending in a krt are to be used in a sentence, the agents or objects of the actions denoted by the roots underlying those nominals must be expressed by genitive. This presents no problem when only the agent or the object is to be expressed. But what if both are to be expressed in the same sentence? The genitive ruled by 2.3.65 can only be introduced to express the object (2.3.66 ubhayaprāptau karmani). Coming closer to the context of a tatpuruṣa formation, we find that 2.2.14 karmani ca will block the formation of a tatpurusa with a constituent in sasthi if the sasthi was ruled by rules 2.3.65-66 to denote the object. Combining a sasthī which has been ruled by 2.3.65 to express agency similarly will be blocked by 2.2.16 kartari ca. Furthermore, a nominal which ends in a sasthī ruled by 2.3.65 cannot be combined with a nominal ending in trC or aka (2.2.15 trjakābhyām kartari). Thus compounds parallel to gavām dohah 'milking of a cow', kūpasya khanakah 'digger of a water-well' and tava śāyikā 'your turn to sleep' are not available in the usage.

Note here, however, that 2.2.17 nityam krīḍājīvikayoḥ allows a pada in ṣaṣṭhī to combine with another pada ending in aka provided the compound denotes krīḍā 'sport' or jīvikā 'livelihood'. Thus compounds such as uddālakapuṣpabhañjikā 'a sport where uddālaka flowers are broken or crushed' and dantalekhakaḥ 'he who earns his living by painting teeth' obligatorily are ordered despite the stipulation of 2.2.15. See pages 28-29 for differing interpretations of this rule.

Pāṇini also discusses a special type of *upapada* 'conjoined' tatpuruṣa wherein a co-occurring nominal obligatorily is combined with a logically

connected nominal (2.2.19 upapadam atin). The derivation of such compounds is relatively complex. Consider kumbhakāra 'pot-maker' which, at least theoretically, is derived from kumbha + Nas + DUkrN + aN. The affix (3.1.1 pratyayah) aN (3.2.1 ...aN) is added after (3.1.2 paraś ca) the verbal root (3.1.91 dhātoḥ) to express kartr 'agent' (3.4.67 kartari krt) under the condition that a co-occurring nominal also expresses karman 'object' (3.2.1 *karmani*...). In the above string, the co-occurring nominal is *kumbha* +  $\dot{N}as$ . It is termed an upapada by 3.1.92 tatropapadam saptamīstham since it expresses the object and is referenced by saptamī in 3.2.1 karmany an. It is interesting to note that kumbha does not take dvitīyā to express the object it specifies. Instead, it takes sasthi which, in turn, is conditioned by the use of the krt affix aN after DUkrÑ. The interdependency of the placement of sasthī and aN contributes to the complexity of such derivations. This need not trouble us, however, since for purposes of compound derivations, we will have the already derived string kumbha + Nas and kr + aN. This will yield an upapada-tatpuruşa: kumbha + Nas +  $DUkrN + aN \rightarrow k\bar{a}r + a$ ) =  $kumbha + as + k\bar{a}ra \rightarrow kumbha + k\bar{a}ra = kumbhak\bar{a}ra$ .

Rules 2.2.20 amaivāvyayena, 2.2.1 tṛtīyā-prabhṛty anyatarasyām and 2.2.22 ktvā ca also provide upapada-tatpuruṣa formations. These rules deal specifically with combinations of indeclinables and co-occurring padas. Two interesting facts may be noted about such compounds.

- (a) Compounds allowed by 2.2.20 are obligatory while those allowed by 2.2.1 and 2.2.22 are optional.
- (b) Whereas 2.2.20 specifies the indeclinables which must be combined with co-occurring padas in general, 2.2.1 and 2.2.22 specify both the co-occurring pada and the indeclinable with which it may combine.

Examples of type (a) are: svāduṃkāram and lavaṇaṃkāram as in svāduṃkāraṃ bhuṅkte 'he eats the food after sweetening it' and lavaṇaṃkāraṃ bhuṅkte 'he eats the food after salting it'. Note here that kāram of both these examples is termed indeclinable by 1.1.39 kṛṇ mejantaḥ. Rule 2.2.20 specifically requires that indeclinables combining under this rule must end in am. Examples of type (b), under 2.2.21, also require the indeclinable to end in am but additionally require that the co-occurring padas must be those allowed by rules 3.4.47 upadaṃśas... through 3.4.64 anvacyā.... Thus we get optional compounds such as mūlakopadaṃśa in mūlakopadaṃśaṃ bhuṅkte 'eats with a bite of a radish' and uccaiḥkāram in uccaiḥkāram ācaṣṭe '...talks about a sad thing by raising the voice'. Rule 2.2.22 allows one non-am indeclinable, Ktvā, which is used in deriving such examples as uccaiḥkārya which has the same meaning as uccaiḥkāram.

Mention must also be made of a few other types of *tatpuruṣa* compounds. A most frequent type is the negative *tatpuruṣa* where the negative particle  $na\tilde{N}$ , an indeclinable, is combined with a logically connected word (2.2.6  $na\tilde{n}$ ). Thus, na  $br\bar{a}hmaṇah$  can have a parallel compound form  $abr\bar{a}hmaṇah$ 

'a non-brāhmaṇa'. Another indeclinable, though not the constituent of a negative compound, is *īṣat* 'slight, little' which can be combined with a logically connected non-kṛt word to yield a tatpuruṣa compound as follows.

 $\bar{\imath}_s at + sU \ pingala + sU \rightarrow \bar{\imath}_s at pingala$  'light yellow' (2.2.7  $\bar{\imath}_s ad \ ak r t \bar{a}$ )

Rule 2.1.49 pūrvakāla...kevalāh samānādhikaranena adds a new dimension to the description of tatpurusa compounds. It states that a tatpurusa compound optionally can be formed by combining a nominal which either signifies pūrvakāla 'preceding action' or contains bases such as eka 'single', sarva 'all', jarat 'old', purāna 'ancient, old', nava 'new' or kevala 'alone' with a logically connected co-referential nominal. Aside from the general requirement of logical connection, this rule imposes formal and semantic constraints and demands that the second constituent be co-referential with the first. Now, since samānādhikarana 'co-referential' is a technical term, its referential index must be reconstructed. This in turn will involve 1.2.42 tatpurusah samānādhikarana karmadhāravah which states that a tatpurusa compound with co-referential constituents is termed karmadhāraya. Hence, 2.1.49 will allow a compound formation snātabhuktah 'a person who first bathed then ate' from  $sn\bar{a}ta + sU$  and (anu) bhukta+sU where  $sn\bar{a}ta+sU$ , a nominal signifying period of action, is combined with (anu)bhukta + sU which signifies following action and is co-referential with snāta + sU. Similarly one can derive *ekavaidyah* 'there is just one person and he is the doctor', sarvamanusyah 'all men', jaradaśvah 'old horse', purānāvasatham 'old dwelling', navāvasatham 'new dwelling' and kevalānnam 'just the rice (grain).

The anuvitti of samānādhikaraṇa continues through 2.1.72 mayūra... which, incidentally, is also the last rule of the 2.1 quarter. This means that compounds allowed by rules subsequent to, and including, 2.1.72 will be termed karmadhāraya. However, Pāṇini introduces 2.1.52 saṃkhyāpūrvo dviguḥ to assign the term dvigu rather than karmadhāraya to those tatpuruṣa compounds formed by 2.1.51 which have a nominal denoting number as their first constituent. Rule 2.1.51 allows a nominal optionally to combine with a logically connected co-referential nominal provided that the first nominal contains bases signifying diś 'direction' or saṃkhyā 'number', or the resultant compound is to express the meaning of a taddhita 'secondary' affix or the compound is to be followed by a (third) constituent or is to express the meaning of samāhāra 'collection'.

Let us consider paurvàśālaḥ 'existing in the eastern hall' which is derived by combining two logically connected co-referential words:  $p\bar{u}rv\bar{a} + Ni$  and  $s\bar{a}l\bar{a} + Ni$ . The first word contains a base which signifies dis; the second word is co-referential with it. This yields  $p\bar{u}rvas\bar{a}l\bar{a}$  to which the taddhita affix Na (4.3.57 tatra bhavaḥ) is introduced. After a few familiar operations, this will yield paurvasālaḥ. Similarly,  $p\bar{u}rv\bar{a}s\bar{a}l\bar{a}$  can be formed if a third

constituent, such as priya + sU follows, such a combination would yield pūrvaśālāpriyah 'he to whom the eastern hall is dear', a bahuvrīhi compound with an internal tatpurusa named karmadhāraya. In order to generate such compounds, one has to exhaust all the possibilities of rule application on the internal tatpurusa. For example, if the three constituents of pūrvasālāpriyah were allowed to form a bahuvrīhi without first forming an internal tatpurușa, 6.1.223 would allow high pitch on the last syllable of pūrvaśālāpriyah, which would be wrong. The high pitch is intended on the last syllable of pūrvaśālā. This can be accomplished only if we first form the tatpurusa. That this preference is well motivated can be most effectively shown by taking an example such as pañcagavadhanah 'he who possesses five cows as his property'. It derives from:  $pa\tilde{n}can + Jas$  and go + Jas which are in syntactic coordination. After the deletion of the endings and the n of pancan, we will derive the dvigu-tatpuruṣa pañcago. Since dvigu is considered singular, the ending which can be introduced after pañcago should also be singular. However, before we add the ending sU by 4.1.2, we must exhaust the operation of placing TaC after  $pa\tilde{n}cago$ . This will yield:  $pa\tilde{n}cago + TaC \rightarrow$  $pa\tilde{n}cago + a = pa\tilde{n}cagava$ . It is only after this that  $pa\tilde{n}cagava$  can take sU and the resulting  $pa\tilde{n}cagava + sU$  be compounded with dhana + sU to yield pañcagavadhanah. Note here that Jas after both tatpurusa constituents is plural nominative. The sU after dhana is singular. An attempt to form a bahuvrihi irrespective of prior tatpurusa formation would have created difficulties. The endings of the constituents would have been dissimilar. However, by forming the tatpurusa first, the resultant form pañcagava, can only take sU and  $pa\tilde{n}cagava + sU$  and dhana + sU would have similar endings.

Besides yielding internal dvigu or karmadhāraya, constituents in syntactic coordination can also yield independent dvigu or karmadhāraya.compounds. Consider the following three examples: astādhyāyī 'collection of eight chapters', pañcapūlī 'collection of five bunches' and pañcakumārī 'collection of five virgins'. They are derived from  $astan + \bar{a}m + adhy\bar{a}ya + \bar{a}m$ ,  $pa\tilde{n}can + \bar{a}m + p\bar{u}la + \bar{a}m$  and  $pa\tilde{n}can + \bar{a}m + kum\bar{a}r\bar{i} + \bar{a}m$  respectively. After the LUK deletion of  $\bar{a}m$ , the first compound is realized as  $asta(n \rightarrow \emptyset)$ + adhyāya = aṣṭādhyāya. The other two are similarly realized as:  $pa\bar{n}cap\bar{u}la$ and pañcakumārī. Rule 2.4.17 sa napumsakam requires such compounds to be treated as neuter. However, it is argued (Mbh. and Pradīpa, II:863-64) that if the following constituent of such a compound ends in a, the compound should be treated as feminine. In view of this, aṣṭādhyāya and pañcapūlā will have to take NīP so that one can derive astādhyāyī and pañcapūlī. Since the final member of pañcakumārī does not end in a, it cannot be treated as masculine. Consequently, its final vowel will be shortened by 1.2.47 gostriyor upasarjanasya, yielding pañcakumāri.

The following are important rules in yielding independent karmadhāraya.

2.1.55 upamānāni sāmānyavacanaih

'Padas signifying upamāna (x to which y is compared can be combined with padas signifying sāmānya (common property of x and y) if they are in syntactic coordination.'

2.1.56 upamitam vyāghrādibhih

'Padas containing nominal stems which denote a thing compared (upamita) can be combined with a pada containing vyāghra 'tiger', etc., provided common property is not being denoted'.

2.1.57 viśesanam viśesyena bahulam

'A qualifier pada can be diversely combined with another pada which contains the qualified'.

Rule 2.1.56 is an exception to 2.1.55 since it allows combining padas which do not express common property. For example, consider the compound ghanaśyāmah 'Lord Krṣṇa'. Here ghana means cloud and śyāma 'blackness' is the common property of both ghana and śyāma. This compound will be allowed by 2.1.55. However, examples like naravyaghra will be allowed only by 2.1.56. Here nara 'man' and vyāgrah 'tiger' possess mutually exclusive properties. Derivationally, 2.1.55 requires ghana, the upamāna 'standard of comparison'. to be placed first. Rule 2.1.56 would not allow such ordering of constituents. Rule 2.1.57 generalizes the combination of qualifiers and qualifieds in, for example, nīlotpalam 'blue lotus'. However, the use of the term bahulam 'diversely' implies that such compounds may be obligatory or may not be allowed at all. Compounds such as kṛṣṇa-sarpaḥ 'black snake' are obligatory while expressions such as rāmo jāmadagnyaḥ 'Rāma, the son of Jamadagni' are not permitted to yield a compound.

#### (38) Bahuvrīhi compounds

As has been pointed out in our discussion of citragu and pūrvaśālāpriyaḥ, a bahuvrīhi is a compound where more than one syntactically related words combine to yield a nominal which serves as a qualifier (viśeṣaṇa) to something other than that which is denoted by its own constituents (2.2.24 anekam anyapadārthe). The bahuvrīhis technically are treated as the remainders of the other compounds. That is, the formation of a bahuvrīhi is possible only when no other compound formation is provided for (2.2.23 śeṣo bahuvrīhiḥ). Together with dvandva, bahuvrīhi also forms an exception to the notion of two-word compound formation.

I have already explained that a constituent which is referred to by the nominative in a rule governing compound formation is termed secondary (upasarjana; 1.2.43 prathamā nirdiṣṭam samāsa upasarjanam). Furthermore, items identified as upasarjana are placed first in a compound (2.2.30 upasarjanam pūrvam). Since anekam 'more than one' of 2.2.24 anekam anyapadārthe refers to the constituents of a bahuvrīhi compound, they will be termed upasarjana. It is obvious that 2.2.30 upasarjana pūrvam cannot regulate the order of constituents in a bahuvrīhi compound. Pāṇini

offers the following rules to account for what should be placed first in a bahuvrihi.

2.2.35 saptamī-viśeṣaṇe bahuvrīhau

"A constituent which is either a qualifier (viśeṣaṇa) or which ends in the locative (saptamī) is placed first in a bahuvrīhi compound."

2.2.36 nisthā

"A constituent which ends in suffixes termed nisthā (Kta and KtavatU;

1.1.26 ktaktavatū niṣṭhā) is placed first in a bahuvrīhi compound."

2.2.37 vāhityāgnyādişu

"A constituent which ends in suffixes termed niṣṭḥā optionally is placed first when it is a constituent of compounds such as āhitāgni 'he who has set the sacrificial fire', etc."

The above may very well explain why bahu, citrā, vīra, prāpta, upahṛta and uddhṛta are placed first in compounds such as bahuvrīhiḥ 'he who possesses abundant rice', citragu 'he who owns brindled cows', vīrapuruṣako (grāmaḥ) '(a village) where heroic people live', prāptodako (grāmaḥ) '(a village) to which water has reached', upahṛtapaśū (rudraḥ) '(Rudra) to whom the sacrifice of an animal has been offered' and uddhṛtaudanā (sthālī) '(a cooking pot) from which rice has been taken out'. The above compounds are all formed under the provision of 2.2.24 anekam anyapadārthe. Four additional rules also deal with the formation of bahuvrīhi compounds.

2.2.25 saṃkhyayā' vyayāsannādūrādhikasaṃkhyāḥ saṃkhyeye

'A pada which underlies an indeclinable (avyava), or underlies āsanna 'proximate', adhika 'more' or adūra 'near' is combined with another pada denoting a thing countable (saṃkhyeya) to yield a bahuvrīhi.'

2.2.26 dinnāmāny antarāle

'A pada which underlies a stem denoting directional name (dinnāma) is combined with another pada containing a similar stem provided the resultant bahuvrīhi denotes an intermediate direction (antarāla).'

2.2.27 tatra tenedam iti sarūpe

'A pada which ends either in the locative (saptamī) or instrumental (tṛtīyā) is combined with another pada identical to it to form a bahuvrīhi.' 2.2.28 tena saheti tulyayoge

'Saha 'with' is combined with a pada in the instrument to yield a bahu-vrīhi, provided both constituents are equally conjoined with the action.'

The above rules account for the formation of compounds such as dvitrāh 'two or three', āsannadaśāḥ 'nearly ten', upadaśāḥ 'about ten' (2.2.25); dakṣiṇapūrvā 'the direction intermediate between south and east', pūrvottarā 'the direction between east and north' (2.2.26); and keśākeśi 'a fight where fighters sieze each other's hair' and daṇḍādaṇḍi 'a fight where fighters strike with stick', (2.2.27).

I have stated earlier that some sections of book five and six also play a major role in the derivation of compounds. The placement of the samāsānta affixes has been discussed in connection with tatpuruṣa compounds. Some of these affixes also apply to bahuvrīhis. Since the scanning process relative to this has been explained, I shall not discuss it further. However, I must discuss a few rules concerning the replacement of a feminine constituent by its corresponding masculine form.

The following is the crucial rule in this connection.

6.3.34 striyāh pumvad bhāṣitapumskād-anūn ...

'A form denoting feminine is treated as masculine provided (i) it has a corresponding masculine, (ii) it does not end in  $\bar{u}N$ , (iii) it is followed by a feminine form having the same reference (samānādhikaraṇa) and (iv) the subsequent item is not  $priy\bar{a}$ , etc., or does not contain an ordinal affix.'

This rule will operate on examples such as *citragu* and *rūpavadbhāryaḥ* 'he whose wife is beautiful' where *citrā* and *rūpavatī* are replaced by *citra* and *rūpavat*. The shortening of o (in *citrago*) and the final  $\bar{a}$  (in *bhāryā*) is due to the items being *upasarjana* (1.2.48 *gostriyor upasarjana*). However, this rule will not apply to examples such as  $v\bar{a}mor\bar{u}bh\bar{a}ryah$  'he whose wife has beautiful thighs'  $ga\bar{n}g\bar{a}bh\bar{a}ryah$  'he whose wife is Gangā' and  $kaly\bar{a}n\bar{i}-pradh\bar{a}nah$  'he among whose wives the beautiful one is chief' where  $v\bar{a}mor\bar{u}$  ends in  $\bar{u}N$ ,  $ga\bar{n}g\bar{a}$  does not have a corresponding masculine and  $kaly\bar{a}n\bar{i}$  is followed by a masculine form.

Replacement by a masculine is also blocked for constituents which denote a name and end in a taddhita affix that conditions vṛddhi but does not denote rakta 'coloured by' or vikāra 'modification' (6.3.38 saṃjñā-pūraṇayoś ca; 6.3.39 vṛddhi-nimittasya...). This will block the derivation of \*dattabhāryaḥ and \*māthurabhāryaḥ in favour of dattābhāryaḥ 'he whose wife's name is Dattā' and māthuribhāryaḥ 'he whose wife was born in Mathurā'. Replacement by a masculine is also prevented in examples such as sukeśībhāryaḥ 'he whose wife has beautiful hair' and rākṣasībhāryaḥ 'he whose wife is a demon' (6.3.40 svāngācceto' mānini; 6.3.41 jāteś ca) where sukeśī ends in feminine suffix ī introduced after an item denoting part of a body (aṅga) and rākṣasī denotes class (jāti).

With reference to multiple word compound formation, I suggested five combinatory modes (items 8-12) and posed problems concerning them. Let us consider the following compound:

(39) rājagavīkṣīram 'king's cow's milk'.

By 2.1.4 saha supā, only two syntactically related words may be combined to yield a compound. Furthermore, the first two constituents,  $r\bar{a}jan + \dot{N}as$   $go + \dot{N}as$ , cannot be combined since they both end in genitive. Instead, a combination of  $go + \dot{N}as + ks\bar{i}ra + sU$  is permissible. However, 2.1.4 also

suggests that if we treat  $go + \dot{N}as$  as go + sU it can then be permitted to combine with  $r\bar{a}jan + \dot{N}as$ . The result will be:  $r\bar{a}ja(n \to \emptyset)$   $go = r\bar{a}jago$ . After the placement of TaC, we can derive  $r\bar{a}jago + TaC = r\bar{a}jago + a = r\bar{a}jagava$ . This can then take feminine affix  $\dot{N}\bar{i}P$  to yield  $r\bar{a}jagav\bar{i}$  'king's cow'. The preceding shows how we get two compounds  $r\bar{a}jagav\bar{i}$  and  $goks\bar{i}ra$ . A third compound can also result if we first combine  $go + \dot{N}as + ks\bar{i}ra + sU$  and then combine that result with  $r\bar{a}jan + \dot{N}aS$ . The result will be:  $r\bar{a}jan + \dot{N}aS$  ( $go + \dot{N}as + ks\bar{i}ra + sU$ ) =  $r\bar{a}jan + \dot{N}aS + goks\bar{i}ra + sU = r\bar{a}jagoks\bar{i}ram$  'king's (cow's milk)'. This is possible because in all three derivations the samartha relationship is not impaired and only two padas are allowed to combine at any one time.

In the derivation of pūrvaśālāpriyaḥ, I observed that a bahuvrīhi with an internal tatpuruṣa will bring an undesired result. I also showed that pañ-cagavadhanaḥ will be blocked if a three-word bahuvrīhi was formed simultaneously. Commentators agree that any mode of combination is acceptable as long as the desired forms result and the samartha condition is not impaired. However, usages generally favour combining lower level formatives first, then gradually moving towards the higher level constructions. The guiding force is sāmarthya; the direction usually is from left to right. Since 2.1.4 accounts for the largest number of compounds, we may favour a combinatory mode of two padas at a time. It is probably most revealing, too, since 2.2.24 does not offer any conclusive evidence for simultaneous multiple word compound formation.

It is a general practice in deriving compounds that nominal endings of the constituents is deleted by LUK (1.1.61 pratyayasya lukślulupaḥ; 2.4.71 supo dhātuprātipadikayoḥ). However, since a general deletion rule cannot apply unless its exceptions are fully accounted for, exceptions of LUK contained in the set headed by 6.1.3 alug uttarapade must be considered. For example, bahuvrīhi compounds such as kaṇṭhekālaḥ 'he on whose throat there is black' and urasilomā 'having hair on the chest' would not lose their locative ending in view of 6.3.12 amūrdhamastakāt.... Similar non-deletion is provided for some other compounds which I shall not discuss here for lack of space. Mention must be made, however, of those rules which deal with the assignment of number and gender of compounds.

It is interesting to note that Pāṇini treated the specification of gender as falling outside the scope of his grammar (1.2.53 tad aśiṣyaṃ saṃjāā-pra-māṇatvāt; also see Mahābhāṣya on 4.1.3: liṅgam aśiṣyaṃ lokāśrayatvāl liṅgasya). However, since the constituents of a compound characteristically can be of varying genders, the question of assigning gender to a compound is indeed relevant. Thus, an avyayībhāva compound is treated as neuter (napuṃsaka; 2.4.1 avyayībhāvaś ca). A tatpuruṣa or a dvandva compound is assigned the gender similar to its following constituent (2.4.26 paraval liṅgaṃ dvandva-tatpuruṣayoḥ). This, however, covers only a limited

number of compounds. For a more comprehensive treatment of gender of various compounds, one should refer to rules such as 2.4.19 tatpuruṣo' nañkarmadhārayaḥ, etc. Because there obtains a qualifier-qualified relationship between a bahuvrīhi compound and that which it denotes, the gender of a bahuvrīhi is not difficult to ascertain. The assignment of number also is fairly straightforward. Most compounds can be handled easily. Pāṇini, however, presents some rules to account for the non-obvious. For example, 2.4.1 dvigur ekavacanam states that a dvigu compound is singular in number. There are also rules about dvandva compounds in singular. Most of the rules relevant to the assignment of number and gender are given in the 2.4 section of the grammar.



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- avyayād āpsupaḥ (2.4.82) 196 'affixes āP (ṬāP, ÞāP, CāP, 4.1.3 striyām) and sUP go through deletion via LUK when they occur after an avyaya 'indeclinable''
- avyayībhāvaḥ (1.1.41; 2.4.18) 71 'a compound termed avyayībhāva is, additionally, termed an avyaya (indeclinable)'
- avyayībhāve saratprabhṛtibhyaḥ (5.4.107) 198 'the taddhita affix TaC occurs after nominal stems

- listed in the group headed by śarad 'autumn' when they combine in a avyayībhāva compound as its final constituent'
- asamyogāl liļ kit (1.2.5) 112 'a LIT affix, not originally marked with P as an it is treated as marked with K as an it, when it occurs after roots not ending in a conjunct (samyoga)'
- asiddhavad atrābhāt (6.4.22) 79 'here onwards up to the domain of bha (of 6.4.129 bhasya), operations which share identical conditions are treated as if suspended (asiddha)'
- asthidadhisakthisakthyakṣṇām anan udāttaḥ (7.1.75) 86 'the final sound segment of an anga with the signification of neuter, namely, asthi 'bone,' dadhi 'yoghurt,' sakthi 'thigh' and akṣi 'eye,' is replaced with anAN, concurrently marked with udātta, when a vowel-initial nominal ending beginning with the instrumental follows'
- $\bar{a}$  kadārād ekā samjāā (1.4.1) 52 'only one term is to be assigned from here on prior to kadāra (2.2.38 kadārāh ...)'
- ākrośe nañi aniḥ (3.3.112) 61 'affix ani occurs after a verbal root used in construction with  $na\tilde{N}$  to denote an action in the feminine when anger ( $\bar{a}krośa$ ) is denoted'
- a kves tacchīlataddharmatat ... (3.2.134) 64 'affixes introduced hereafter prior to kveḥ (3.2.77 bhrājabhāsa ...) occur after a verbal root to denote kartṛ who performs an action because of 'his nature (tacchīla), sense of duty (taddharma), or skill (tatsādhukārī)'
- ākhyātopayoge ca (1.4.29) 148 'a kāraka which serves as 'one who relates' is termed apādāna 'ablative' when the action entails regular instruction'
- ān maryādābhividhyoḥ (2.1.13) 199 'āN combines in an avyayībhāva compound, optionally, with a syntactically related nominal stem ending in pañcamī when maryādā 'exclusive limit, up to, though not including' and abhividhi 'inclusive limit, up to, though including' are denoted'
- āj jaser asuk (7.1.50) 138 'augment asUK is introduced, in the Vedic, to Jas 'nominative plural' when this same occurs after an anga ending in a'
- āto' nupasarge kaḥ (3.2.3) 81 'affix ka occurs after a verbal root which ends in a and is not used with a preverb, provided a pada occurs in construction with the signification of karman'
- āto yuk ciņkṛtoḥ (7.3.33) 119 'augment yUK is introduced to an anga ending in a when CiŅ, or a kṛt affix marked with  $\tilde{N}$  and  $\tilde{N}$  as an it, follows'
- āto lopa iți ca (6.4.64) 'the final vowel of an anga ending in a is deleted via LOPA when an  $\bar{a}rdhadh\bar{a}tuka$  affix which begins with augment  $i\bar{T}$ , or is marked with K and  $\dot{N}$  as an it, and begins with a vowel, follows'
- ātmanepadeşv anyatarasyām (2.4.44) 8 'han is, optionally, replaced with vadha when an ārdhadhātuka-replacement of LUN termed ātmanepada follows'
- ādir antyena sahetā (1.1.71) 32 'an initial sound segment, when joined together with a final it, forms an abbreviatory symbol denoting itself and all intervening (non-it) sound segments'
- ādir nituduvah (1.3.5) 179 'the initial NI, TU and DU of an item, in upadeśa, is termed it'
- ādeḥ parasya (1.1.54) 108 'a substitute specified for that which follows replaces its initial sound segment'
- ādeca upadeśe (6.1.45) 79 'a verbal root which, in upadeśa, ends in sounds denoted by the abbreviatory term eC, is replaced with  $\bar{a}$ , but not when an affix marked with  $\hat{S}$  as an it follows'
- ādešapratyayayoḥ (8.3.59) 84 'a s which occurs at the end of a pada after iN and kU and is either a substitute, or part of an affix, is replaced with s, irrespective of whether intervened by nUM, visarjan $\bar{i}$ ya and a sound denoted by the abbreviatory term sAR'
- ād guṇaḥ (6.1.87) 'LOPA comes in place of a vi termed apṛkla'
- ādyantavad ekasmin (1.1.21) 113 'an operation applies to a single item similar to one that applies to an initial and final'
- $\bar{a}$ dyantau takitau (1.1.71) 96 'that which is marked with T and K as an it is attached to the beginning and end, respectively'
- ādyudāttaś ca (3.1.3) 40 'an affix which occurs after a verbal root is marked with udātta at the beginning'
- ādhāro' dhikaraṇam (1.4.45) 104 'a kāraka which serves as locus (ādhāra) of an action is termed adhikaraṇa'

- ānan nto dvandve (6.3.25) 79 'augment ānAN is introduced to the initial constituent of a dvandva compound which is formed with constituents ending in n, and is used with the signification of a relationship by way of vidyā 'study, knowleage' and yoni 'birth''
- ane muk (7.2.82) 109 'affix mUK is introduced to the a of an anga when ana follows'
- āmantritasya ca (6.1.198) 114 'the initial vowel of that which is termed an āmantrita is also marked with udātta'
- āmi sarvanāmnaḥ suļ (7.1.52) 138 'augment sUT is introduced to the initial of a nominal ending, namely, ām, when the same occurs after a pronominal (sarvanāman)'
- āyaneyīnīyaḥ phaḍhakha ... (7.1.2) 176 'the initial ph, dh, kh, ch and gh of an affix is replaced with āyan, ey, in, īy, and iy, respectively'
- ārdhadhātukam śeṣaḥ (3.4.114) 24 'the remaining affixes are termed ārdhadhātuka'
- $\bar{a}$ rdhadhātukasyed valādeļi (7.2.35) 97 'augment i? is introduced to an affix which is termed  $\bar{a}$ rdhadhātuka and begins with a sound denoted by the abbreviatory term vAL'
- ārdhadhātuke (2.4.35; 6.4.46) 62 'when that which is termed an ārdhadhātuka follows an aṅga' ārhād agopucchasaṃkhyā ... (5.1.19) 19 'a taddhita affix, namely, ṭhaK, occurs after a nominal stem to denote the sense of affixes introduced by rules prior to, and including, 5.1.63 tad arhati, provided the stem signifies something other than gopuccha 'cow's tail,' saṅkhyā 'number' and parimāṇa 'measure of weight''
- āvatyāc ca (4.1.75) 92 'affix CāP occurs to denote feminine also after the non-upasarjana nominal stem āvatya 'grandson of Avata''
- āsuyuvapirapilapi ... (3.1.126) 19 'affix NyaT also occurs after verbal roots  $su\tilde{N}$  'to press out,' used with the preverb  $\tilde{a}N$ ,  $y\tilde{u}$  'to mix,' DUvapA 'to sow,' rapA and lapA 'to speak,' trapUS 'to be ashamed' and camU 'to sip''
- iko guṇavṛddhī (1.1.3) 125 'a substitute specified with express use of the terms guṇa and vṛddhi must come in place of vowels denoted by the abbreviatory term iK
- iko yan aci (6.1.77) 86 'a sound denoted by the abbreviatory term iK is replaced with a corresponding sound denoted by the abbreviatory term yaN when a vowel follows in close proximity'
- iko hrasvo' nyo gālavasya (6.3.61) 118 'the final sound of a nominal which ends in a sound denoted by the abbreviatory term iK, with the exception of  $\bar{i}$  of  $\dot{N}\bar{i}$ , is, in the opinion of Gālava, replaced with its short counterpart when a constituent combines to follow'
- ig yaṇaḥ samprasāraṇam (1.1.45) 66 'a replacement vowel denoted by the abbreviatory term iK is termed samprasāraṇa when it comes in place of corresponding consonants denoted by the abbreviatory term yaN'
- idam is (5.3.3) 127 'iŚ comes in place of idam when a taddhita affix termed vibhakti follows'
- indra-varuṇa-bhava-śarva ... (4.1.94) 54 'affix NīŞ occurs to denote a female, associated with a corresponding male, after non-upasarjana nominal stems indra 'Indra,' varuṇa 'Varuṇa,' bhava 'Śiva,' rudra 'Rudra,' mṛḍa 'Mṛḍa,' hima 'ice, snow,' araṇya 'forest,' yava 'barley,' yavana 'Ionian,' mātula 'mother's brother,' and ācārya 'teacher, preceptor' where, additionally, they also receive augment ānUK'
- ive pratikṛtau (5.3.96) 65 'the taddhita affix kaNoccurs after a nominal stem used in the sense of iva 'like' when the derivate denotes pratikṛti 'image, imitation''
- ī ca gaṇaḥ (7.4.97) 79 'ī comes in place of the abhyāsa (6.1.2 pūrvo' bhyāsaḥ) of an anga constituted by verbal root gaṇa when affix NiC, followed by CaN, follows'
- id  $\bar{a}sah$  (7.2.83) 109 ' $\bar{a}na$  when occurring after  $\bar{a}s$  is replaced with i'
- $\bar{\imath}d\bar{\imath}utau$  ca saptamyarthe (1.1.19) 121 'forms which end in  $\bar{\imath}$  and  $\bar{\imath}u$ , and denote the sense of locative (saptam $\bar{\imath}$ ), are termed pragrhya'
- iduded dvivacanam pragrhyam (1.1.11) 121 'a form which ends in i and  $\bar{u}$ , and denotes the sense of two, is termed pragrhya'
- īṣad akṛtā (2.2.7) 205 a pada which contains īṣat a little, slight combines, optionally, in a tatpuruṣa compound with a syntactically related pada which ends in a sUP, but does not contain a stem in a kṛt
- ugavādibhyo yat (5.1.2) 159 'the taddhita affix yaT occurs to denote the sense of affixes introduced by rules prior to that which contains krīta, after a nominal stem which either ends

- in u, or is listed in the group headed by gava'
- uccair udāttaḥ (1.2.29) 122 'that which is articulated with a higher pitch is termed udātta'
- $un\bar{a}dayo\ bahulam\ (3.31)\ 62$  'affixes uN, and its likes, are introduced after verbal roots, variously (bahulam), when an action is denoted at the current time'
- upadaṃśas tṛtīyāyaṃ (3.4.47) 204 'affix NamUL occurs after verbal root daṃśA 'to bite,' used with the preverb upa, when it occurs in construction with a pada ending in the instrumental (tṛtīyā)'
- upadeśe' j anunāsika it (1.3.2) 38 'the nasalized vowel of an item in upadeśa is termed it' upapadam atin (2.2.19) 179 'a co-occurring pada (upapada; 3.1.92 tatropapadam saptamīstham) which does not end in a tiN, combines, obligatorily, in a tatpuruṣa compound with an-
- other syntactically related pada' upamānāni sāmānyavacanaiḥ (2.1.55) 207 'a pada which ends in a sUP and denotes upamāna
- upamānāni sāmānyavacanaiḥ (2.1.55) 207 'a pada which ends in a sUP and denotes upamāna 'standard of comparison' optionally combines in a tatpuruṣa compound with a syntactically related co-referential pada which ends in a sUP and denotes a common quality'
- upamitam vyāghrādibhiḥ sāmānyāprayoge (2.1.56) 207 'a pada which ends in a sUP and signifies upameya 'object of comparison' combines, optionally, in a tatpuruṣa compound with a syntactically related coreferential pada which ends in a sUP and contains items enumerated in the list headed by vyāghra 'tiger,' provided a word which denotes a common quality is not used'
- upasargāḥ kriyāyoge (1.4.59) 238 'forms enumerated in the list headed by pra are termed upasarga when used in construction with verbal roots'
- upasarjanam pūrvam (2.2.30) 180 'a constituent pada which is termed upasarjana 'secondary' is placed first in a compound'
- upān mantrakaraņe (1.3.25) 8 'a suffix termed ātmanepada occurs after sthā' to stay, stand 'when the same is used in construction with the preverb upa denoting the action of reciting a mantra (hymn)'
- upānvadhyānvasaḥ (1.4.48) 149 'a kāraka which serves as locus is termed karman when the action is denoted by a root used with the preverbs upa, anu, adhi and  $\bar{a}\dot{N}$
- ubhayaprāptau karmaņi (2.3.66) 161 'a ṣaṣṭhī 'genitive' occurs to express only karman 'object' when both a kartṛ and karman, not already expressed otherwise, are to be expressed in construction with a nominal ending in a kṛt affix'
- ubhe abhyastam (6.1.5) 124 'those two, both, are termed abhyasta'
- ur an raparah (1.1.51) 35 'a replacement vowel denoted by the abbreviatory term aN is automatically followed by r when the same comes in place of r?
- ukālo' jj hrasvadīrghaplutah (1.2.27) 122 'a vowel articulated with duration of u,  $\bar{u}$  and u3 is termed hrasva 'short,' dīrgha 'long' and pluta 'extra-long,' respectively'
- rta id dhātoḥ (7.1.100) 107 'the final r of a dhātu 'verbal root' termed anga is replaced with i' rto vidyāyonisambandhebhyaḥ (6.3.23) 191 'non-deletion, via LUK, applies to a genitive (ṣaṣṭhī) which occurs after a nominal stem ending in r and used with the signification of a relationship established by way of vidyā 'knowledge' and yoni 'birth''
- rtvigdadhṛk... (3.2.59) 119 'affix KvIN occurs, by nipātana, in the derivation of rtvik, dadhṛk, srak, dik, and uṣṇik; additionally, it occurs after verbal roots añcU 'to bend,' yujI 'to join' and kruñcA 'to be crooked' when roots are used in construction with a pada ending in a sUP'
- rtvyavāstvyavāstvamādhvīhiraņyāni chandasi (6.4.175) 191 'the words rtvya, vāstvya, mādhvī and hiraņyaya are derived via nipātana in the Vedic'
- ekaḥ pūrvaparayoḥ (6.1.84) 62 'one in place of both the preceding and the following'
- ekavacanam sambuddhih (2.3.49) 124 'a singular termed āmantrita is termed sambuddhi'
- ekavibhakticāpūrvanipāte (1.2.44) 77 'that which has a fixed nominal ending (in the paraphrase of a compound) is termed upasarjana provided preplacement is not to be performed'
- ekāco dve prathamasya (6.1.1) 63 'that which is formed with the first vowel of an item is iterated to become two'
- ekāco baso bhas jhasantasya (8.2.37) 85 'a replacement denoted by bhas comes in place of one denoted by bas which, in turn, forms part of a monosyllabic part of a verbal root ending

- in jhas, when bas occurs either at the end of a pada, or occurs followed by s or dhva preceded by a sound denoted by jhal?
- eko gotre (4.1.93) 176 'only one gotra affix is introduced after a syntactically related nominal stem when descendants are denoted'
- en prācām dese (1.1.75) 122 'a form whose first among vowels is denoted by the abbreviatory symbol  $e\dot{N}$  is termed vrddha when the denotation is a place in the east'
- ec igg hrasvādeśe (1.1.48) 107 'ik, alone, comes in place of a vowel denoted by the abbreviatory term eC when replacement in short is specified'
- eco' yavāyāvaḥ (6.1.78) 115 'a sound denoted by the abbreviatory term eC is replaced with ay, av, āy, āv, respectively, when a sound denoted by the abbreviatory term aC follows in close proximity (saṃhitā)'
- enapā dvitīyā (2.3.31) 160 'the second triplet of sUP is introduced after a nominal stem which occurs in construction with another ending in affix enaP'
- enab anyatarasyām adūre (5.3.35) 160 'the taddhita affix enaPoccurs with the signification of diś 'direction,' optionally, after nominal stems uttara, adhara and dakṣiṇa when they end in the locative (saptamī) and nominative (prathamā), though not in the ablative (pañcamī), provided derivates denote diś 'direction,' deśa 'place' and kāla 'time' as non-distant (adūra)'
- er anekāco' saṃyogapūrvasya (6.4.82) 134 'an aṅga which consists of more than one vowel and ends in i, where i is not preceded by a conjunct (saṃyoga) contained within a verbal root, is replaced with yaŊ when an affix beginning with a vowel follows'
- kaḍārāḥ karmadhāraye (2.2.38) 64 'a pada which contains kaḍāra, et cetera, is, only optionally, placed first in a karmadhāraya compound'
- kaṇvādibhyo yak (3.1.27) 36 'affix yaK is introduced to denote bhāva 'root-sense' after verbal roots enumerated in the group headed by  $kaṇd\bar{u}\bar{N}$  'to scratch''
- kambalāc ca saṃjāāyām (5.1.3) 73 'the taddhita affix yaT occurs also after the nominal stem kambala 'blanket' to denote the sense of affixes introduced by rules prior to that which contains 'krīta, provided derivates denote a name (saṃjāā)'
- kartari karmavyatihāre (1.3.14) 73 'an ālmanepada suffix occurs after a verbal root when an agent with reciprocity of action is denoted'
- kartari krt (3.4.67) 131 'an affix termed krt is introduced when the signification is agent (kartr)' kartari ca (2.2.16) 28 'and also when the signification is agent (kartr)'
- kartari śap (3.1.68) 69 'affix ŚaP is introduced after a verbal root when agent (kartṛ) is denoted' kartuḥ kyan salopaś ca (3.1.11) 46 'affix KyaN occurs, optionally, to denote ācāra 'conduct' after a pada which ends in a sUP and denotes an agent serving as an upamāna 'standard of comparison; additionally, the final s of the nominal stem goes through deletion via LOPA'
- kartur īpsitatamaņ karma (1.4.49) 104 'a kāraka which serves as most desired by the agent is termed karman'
- kartṛkaraṇayos tṛtīyā (2.3.18) 55 'the third triplet of nominal endings is introduced when kartṛ 'agent' and karaṇa 'instrument' are denoted'
- kartṛkaraṇe kṛtā bahulam (2.1.32) 7 'a pada which ends in tṛtūyā and, either denotes a kartṛ or karaṇa, combines in a tatpuruṣa compound, variously (bahulam), with a syntactically related nominal stem which ends in a sUP and contains a derivate in kṛt'
- kartrkarmanoh kṛti (2.3.65) 161 'a genitive (ṣaṣṭhī) is introduced to express kartr and karman when the nominal is used in construction with an item which ends in a kṛt affix, and when kartr and karman are not expressed otherwise'
- karmaṇā yam abhipraiti sa sampradānam (1.4.31) 104 'a kāraka whom the agent intends as goal of the object of his action is termed sampradāna'
- karmaņi ca (2.2.14) 29 'a pada which ends in ṣaṣṭhī and denotes karman also does not combine in a talpuruṣa compound with a syntactically related nominal which ends in a sUP'
- karmani dvilīyā (2.3.2) 56 'the second triplet of nominal ending is introduced when object (karman) is denoted'
- karmaṇi hanaḥ (3.2.86) 20 'affix NinI occurs after verbal root yajA used in conjunction with a pada which ends in a sUP and signifies karaṇa 'instrument,' provided action is denoted in the past'

- karmany an (3.2.1) 63 'affix an is introduced after a verbal root when the same is used in construction with a pada which denotes karman'
- karmany adhikarane ca (3.3.93) 154 'affix Ki occurs, also, after verbal roots termed ghu when roots are used in construction with a nominal denoting karman, and the derivate denotes locus (adhikarana)'
- karmapravacanīyayukte dvitīyā (2.3.8) 160 'the second triplet of nominal endings is introduced after a nominal stem when it is used in construction with a karmapravacanīya (1.4.83 karmapravacanīyāh)'
- karmapravacanīyāh (1.4.83) 62 'the followings a: e termed karmapravacanīya'
- karmavat karmanā tulyakriyah (3.1.87) 158 'when the agent (kartṛ) of a given action behaves in a manner similar to its object (karman), the kartṛ is treated as if it was karman'
- karāṣātvato ghaño' nta udāttaḥ (6.1.159) 193 'an udātta is assigned to the final of verbal root  $k_i$ ṣ 'to draw,' and also to that which ends in affix  $GHa\bar{N}$  and contains an a'
- kārake (1.4.23) 62 'when that which is doing'
- kālāḥ (2.1.28) 201 'a pada which ends in the accusative (dvitīyā) and signifies time combines, optionally, in a tatpuruṣa compound with a syntactically related pada which ends in a sUP and contains a stem in Kta'
- kālādhvanor atyantasaṃyoge (2.3.5) 160 'a dvilīyā occurs after nominal stems denoting kāla 'time' and adhvan 'road, distance' when atyantasaṃyoga 'continued connection' is denoted'
- $k\bar{a}lebhyo\ bhavavat\ (4.2.34)\ 114$  'the *taddhita* affixes which occur after syntactically related nominal stems having the signification of  $k\bar{a}la$  'time,' et cetera, occur in a manner similar to affixes introduced for derivates with the signification of *bhava* 'born, or found' there'
- kiṃsarvanāmabahubhyo' dvyādibhyaḥ (5.3.2) 38 'the taddhita affixes, introduced hereafter prior to diśaḥ, occur after a nominal stem which consists of kim 'what, which' and sarvanāman 'pronominal,' with the exclusion of its subgroup headed by dvi 'two' and bahu 'many'
- kimaḥ saṃkhyāparimāṇe ḍati ca (5.2.41) 125 'the taddhita affixes Patl, in addition to vatUP with concurrent replacement of its v with gh, occurs to denote the sense of genitive (saṣṭhī) after the syntactically related nominal stem kim 'what' when it ends in the nominative (prathamā) and distinguishes a numerical measure (saṃkhyāparimāṇa)'
- kurunādibhyo nyaḥ (4.1.170) 125 'the taddhita affix Nya occurs to denote an apatya 'offspring' after a syntactically related nominal stem which (i) ends in the genitive, (ii) is constituted by kuru, or (iii) begins with n, provided the base names a janapada 'principality' with the signification of a ksatriya'
- kṛttaddhitasamāsāś ca (1.2.46) 52 'that which ends in a kṛt or taddhita affix, or is a samāsa, is also termed a nominal stem'
- kṛtyāḥ (3.1.95) 27 'affixes enumerated hereafter are termed krtya'
- kṛd atin (3.1.93) 24 'a non-tiN affix is termed kṛt'
- kṛn mejantaḥ (1.1.39) 204 'items ending in kṛt-affixes which end in m, or a vowel denoted by eC, are termed avyaya 'indeclinable'
- kniti ca (1.1.5) 86 'vowels termed guṇa and vṛddhi do not come in place of a vowel denoted by the abbreviatory symbol iK when that which is marked with K and N as an it follows'
- ktaktavatū nisthā (1.1.26) 74 'affixes Kta and KtavatU are termed nisthā'
- ktena ca pūjāyām (2.2.12) 203 'a pada which ends in the genitive (ṣaṣṭhī), also, does not combine in a tatpuruṣa compound with a syntactically related pada which ends in a sUP, contains a Kta and denotes pūjā 'honouring''
- kter mam nityam (4.4.20) 129 'the taddhita affix maP occurs obligatorily after a nominal stem which ends in Ktri (3.3.88 dvitah ktrih), and is used with the instrumental, provided the derivate denotes '...brought about by''
- ktvā ca (2.2.20) 187 'a pada used in construction with another (upapada), referred to by rules 3.4.47 upadaṃśa...through 3.4.64 anvacyā..., also combines in a tutpuruṣa compound with a form ending in Ktvā'
- krudhadruhersyāsūyārthānām... (1.4.37) 146 'a kāraka which serves as one towards whom anger is directed is termed sampradāna when verbal roots having the signification of krudh 'to be angry,' druh 'to wish harm to' and īṛṣyā 'not to tolerate' and asūyā 'finding fault with

- qualities' are used'
- krudhadruhor upasṛṣṭayor karma (1.4.38) 146 'a kāraka which serves as one toward whom anger is directed, is termed karman when action is denoted by verbal roots krudh and druh, used with the preverb upa'
- kryādibhyaḥ śnā (3.1.81) 36 'affix Śnā is introduced after verbal roots listed in the group headed by PhrīÑ 'buy, barter' when a sārvadhātuka (3.1.113 tinśit sārvadhātukam) affix with the denotatum of kartr follows'
- kvip ca (3.2.76) 30 'affix KvIP also occurs after a verbal root, used with or without a preverb, when the root occurs in construction with a pada ending in a sUP'
- khaṭvā kṣepe (2.1.26) 201 'a pada which ends in the accusative (dvitīyā) combines in a tatpuruṣa compound with a syntactically related nominal terminating in sUP and containing a stem ending in Kta, provided kṣepa 'censure' is denoted'
- kharavasānayor visarjanīyaḥ (8.3.15) 167 'a replacement in visarjanīya comes in place of the final sound segment of a pada which ends in r, provided a sound denoted by the abbreviatory term khaR, or avasāna 'cessation of speech, pause,' follows in close proximity'
- gatibuddhipratyavasānārthaśabdakarmākarmakānām ani karttā sa nau (1.4.52) 149 'a kāraka which serves as the agent of a non-NiC root that either has the signification of gati 'movement,' buddhi 'perception,' pratyavasāna 'consuming,' or has śabda 'noise' as its object, or has no object at all, is termed karman when the same root is used with NiC'
- gatis ca (1.4.59) 123 'items enumerated in the list headed by pra are also termed gati when used in connection with a verb'
- gamamadacarayamas cānupasarge (3.1.100) 93 'affix yaT also occurs after verbal roots gadA 'to speak,' madA 'to rejoice, be drunk,' carA 'to move, consume,' and yamA 'to sustain, hold, control' when no upasarga 'preverb' is used
- gamer id parasmaipadeșu (7.2.58) 130 'augment iŢ is introduced to an affix termed ārdhadhātuka which begins with s and occurs after an aṅga, namely, verbal root gam 'to go,' provided an affix termed parasmaipada follows'
- gargādibhyo yañ (4.1.105) 139 'the taddhita affix ya Toccurs after a syntactically related nominal stem which ends in the genitive, and is listed in the group headed by garga, provided the derivate denotes a gotra-descendant'
- $g\bar{a}nkul\bar{a}dibhyo'$   $\bar{n}ninnit$  (1.2.1) 63 'an affix, not originally marked with  $\bar{N}$  and  $\bar{N}$  as an it is treated as marked with  $\bar{N}$  when it occurs after  $g\bar{a}N$  'to read, recite,' or after roots of the group headed by kul'
- gireś ca senakasya (5.4.112) 118 'the taddhita affix TaC also occurs, optionally in the opinion of Senaka, after an avyayībhāva compound ending in giri 'mountain'.'
- guṇo yaṅlukoḥ (7.4.82) 65 'a guṇa vowel comes in place of an iK-final abhyāsa of an aṅga when affix yaŊ, and its deletion via LUK, follows'
- guptijkidbhyaḥ san (3.1.5) 101 'affix saN occurs, optionally, to denote icchā 'wish' after roots which name the object of, and share the same agent with, the action denoted by iṣ 'to wish'.'
- gotrād yūny astriyām (4.1.94) 175 'a taddhita affix occurs after a syntactically related nominal stem which signifies a descendant termed gotra, provided a non-female yuvan 'young male' is to be denoted'
- gostriyor upasarjanasya (1.2.48) 193 'the final vowel of a nominal stem ending in go, or ending in a feminine affix, is replaced with its short (hrasva) counterpart when termed upasarjana 'secondary'
- ghañi ca bhāvakarmaṇayoḥ (6.4.27) 83 'the penultimate n of an aṅga, namely, raṅjl 'to color,' goes through deletion, via LOPA, when affix ŚaP follows'
- gharūpakalpaceladbruvagotramatahateṣu nyo' nekāco hrasvaḥ... (6.3.42) 129 'affix  $\dot{N}$ ī, at the end of a polysyllabic (anekāc) nominal which is used with the denotation of feminine, does not end in  $u\dot{N}$ , and shares an identical base for usage with a corresponding masculine, is replaced with its short counterpart when gha, kalpa, celaT, bruva, mata and hata follow'
- ghvasor edhāv abhyāsalopas ca (6.4.119) 82 'the final sound segment of an anga termed ghu, or

- an  $a\dot{n}ga$  constituted by as, is replaced with e when hi follows, with an additional provision that the  $abhy\bar{a}sa$  be deleted by means of LOPA'
- dah si dhut (8.3.39) 138 'augment dhUT is, optionally, introduced to a pada which begins with s and occurs after a pada ending in d, when close proximity between sounds obtains'
- namo hrasvād aci namun nityam (8.3.32) 138 'augments  $\dot{n}UT$ , nUT and nUT are, obligatorily, introduced at the beginning of a pada which begins with a vowel (aC) and occurs after a pada ending in n, m, and n'
- $nic\ ca\ (1.1.53)$  86 'a substitute marked with N as an it comes in place of the final sound segment of that which is specified with the genitive'
- niti hrasvaś ca (1.4.6) 123 'except for strī, a form which denotes feminine, ends in i/u (short or long) and has a replacement in iyAN and uvAN is, optionally, termed nadī when an affix marked with N as an it follows'
- *nyāp-prātipadikāt* (4.1.1) 54 'an affix, through the end of *adhyāya* five, occurs after that which either ends in affixes marked with  $N\bar{i}$  and  $\bar{a}P$ , or is termed a nominal stem'
- caturthī cāśisyāyusyamadrabhadrakuśalasukhārthahitaih... (2.3.73) 160 'a caturthī 'fourth triplet of sUP; dative' occurs, optionally, after a nominal stem when items having the signification of āyusya 'longevity,' madra 'joy,' bhadra 'good fortune,' kuśala 'well-being,' sukha 'comfort, happiness,' artha 'prosperity' and hita 'benefit' are used in conjunction, and benediction is expressed as the remainder'
- caturthī tadarthārthabalīhita ... (2.1.36) 41 'a pada which ends in the dative (caturthī) combines, optionally, in a tatpuruṣa compound with a syntactically related pada which ends in a sUP and denotes tadartha 'a thing intended for by the denotatum of the pada ending in the dative,' or contains artha 'purpose,' balī 'sacrificial oblation,' hita 'beneficial,' sukha 'pleasure' and raksita 'reserved, protected'
- caturthi sampradane (2.3.13) 146 'a fourth triplet of sUP is introduced after a nominal stem when sampradana is denoted'
- cārthe dvandvaḥ (2.2.19) 8 'a compound termed dvandva is formed in the sense of ca 'and'
- cin te padaḥ (3.1.60) 45 'CiŅ is introduced in place of affix CLI after verbal root pada 'to go' when ta-replacement of LUN with the denotation of kartṛ follows'
- cin bhāvakarmanoh (3.1.66) 96 'affix CiN occurs in place of CLI after a verbal root when a tareplacement of LUN with the denotatum of bhāva and karman follows'
- cityāgni citye ca (3.1.132) 61 'affixes KyaP and ya occur, via nipātana, to also derive citya and agnicityā, respectively, when agni is denoted'
- cuṭū (1.3.7) 37 'an initial sound denoted by cU (1.1.69 aṇudit ...), or tU of an affix, is termed it' cchvoḥ śūḍ anunāsike ca (6.4.19) 134 'a e-ch and v of an aṅga is replaced with ś and  $\bar{u}$  TH, respectively, when an affix beginning with a nasal, or one constituted by KvI, or one beginning with a sound denoted by the abbreviatory term jhaL and marked with K or  $\dot{N}$  as an it, follows'
- chi luni (3.1.43) 45 'affix CLI occurs after a verbal root when LUN follows'
- cleh sic (3.1.44) 45 'affix CLI is replaced with sIC when LUN follows'
- chandasi niştarkyadevahüyapranīyonnīyocchişyamaryastaryādhvaryakhanyakhānyadevayajyāṣpṛcchyapratiṣīvyabrahmavādyabhāvyastāvyopacāyyapṛḍāni (3.1.123) 118 'forms such as niṣṭarkya, et cetera, are derived, via nipātana, in the Vedic'
- chandasy ubhayathā (3.4.117)92 'an affix, the Vedic, can be termed sārvadhātuka and ārdhadhātuka, either way'
- janapadaśabdāt... (4.1.166) 124 'the taddhita affix aÑ occurs to denote an apatya 'offspring' after a syntactically related nominal stem which ends in the genitive and names a janapada 'principality, cluster of villages' with the signification of a kṣatriya'
- janapade lup (4.2.81) 101 'a taddhita affix which occurs after a syntactically related nominal stem with the signification of deśa 'place' is deleted by LUP, provided the derivate denotes a particular janapada 'principality, cluster of villages' so named'

- janikarttuḥ prakṛtiḥ (1.4.30) 148 'a kāraka which serves as material cause from which the agent of jan 'to be born' arises is termed apādāna'
- jarāyā jaras anyatarasyām (7.2.101) 133 'jaras comes, optionally, in place of an anga, namely, jarā 'old age,' when a vowel-initial affix termed vibhakti follows'
- jaśśasoḥ śiḥ (7.1.20) 122 'Śi comes in place of the nominal endings Jas and Śas when they follow an aṅga termed neuter'
- jāgro 'viciņņalņitsu (7.3.85) 39 'a replacement in guņa comes in place of the iK-vowel of an aṅga, namely, jāgṛ, when an affix termed sārvadhātuka and ārdhadhātuka, with the exception of vi, CiŅ, ŅaI., or an affix marked with N as an it, follows'
- jāteś ca (6.3.41) 209 'a feminine form which denotes jāti 'class' and shares an identical base for usage in the masculine is not treated as that of its corresponding masculine when a constituent other than mānin follows'
- jīvati tu vaṃśye yuvā (4.1.163) 104 'the offspring of a grandson, and any other thereafter, is instead, termed yuvan, when a vaṃśya 'father, or someone equal to him is alive''
- juhotyādibhyaḥ śluḥ (2.4.75) 36 'affix ŚaP goes through deletion via ŚLU when it occurs after roots enumerated in the group headed by hu 'to call, perform sacrifice'
- jhayaḥ (5.4.11) 84 'the taddhita affix TaC occurs, optionally, after an avyayībhāva compound which ends in a sound denoted by the abbreviatory term jhaY'
- jhayah (8.2.10) 84 'the m of matUP is replaced with vA when matUP occurs after that which ends in a sound denoted by the abbreviatory term jhaY'
- jhalām jaśo' nte (8.2.39) 85 'a sound denoted by jaŚ comes in place of a sound denoted by jhal. which, in turn, occurs at the end of a pada'
- jhalo jhali (8.2.26) 85 'the s which occurs after a sound denoted by jhal is deleted by LOPA when a sound denoted by jhal follows'
- ñyādayas tadrājāḥ (5.3.119) 64 'the taddhita affixes introduced up to here beginning with Ñya (of 5.3.112 pūgāñño' grāmaṇīpūrvāt) are termed tadrāja'
- teh (6.4.143) 97 'the iT of an anga termed bha is deleted by means of LOPA when an affix marked with D as an it follows'
- *tvito' thuc* (3.3.89) 37 'affix *athuC* occurs after a verbal root marked with TU as an *it* when *bhāva*, and a *kāraka* other than *kartr*, is denoted'
- dati ca (1.1.25) 64 'number words which end in affix Dati are termed sal'
- dvitah (3.3.88) 37 'affix Ktr occurs to denote bhāva 'root-sense' after a verbal root marked with DU as an it
- nvultreau (3.1.133) 128 'affixes NvuL and trC occur after verbal roots'
- tanānāv ātmanepadam (1.4.100) 27 'replacements of IA affixes denoted by the abbreviatory term tan (3.4.78 tiptasjhi...), and also those denoted by āna (3.2.124 laṭah śatṛśānacāv...; 3.2.106 liṭaḥ...), are termed ātmanepada'
- tatpuruşah (2.1.22) 62 'a compound termed tatpuruşa'
- tatpuruṣaḥ samānādhikaraṇaḥ karmadhārayaḥ (1.2.42) 71 'a tatpuruṣa compound whose constituents occur in syntactic coordination (refer to the same thing) is termed karmadhāraya'
- tatpurușo' nañkarmadhārayaḥ (2.43.19) 211 'a tatpurușa compound which is not a naÑ, or a karmadhāraya, is termed neuter'
- tatprayojako hetuś ca (1.4.55) 104 'a kāraka which serves as prayojaka 'instigator' of the independent agent is additionally termed hetu 'causal agent'
- tatra tenedam iti svarūpe (2.2.27) 200 'a pada which ends in saptamī, or in tṛtīyā, combines, optionally, in a bahuvrīhi compound with an identical pada provided the derivate denotes iti 'thus (characterised)'
- tatra bhavaḥ (4.3.57) 95 'taddhita affixes, hereafter, are introduced in the sense of tatra bhavaḥ 'born, of found, there'
- tatropapadam saptamīstham (3.1.92) 61 'that which is specified there (in this domain of 3.1.91 dhātoḥ) by means of the locative (saptamī seventh triplet of sUP') is termed an upapada 'conjoined word'
- tathāyuktam cānīpsitam (1.4.50) 149 'a kāraka which serves as something not desired by the agent is still termed karman if it is related with the action in a manner similar to that

- which is most desired by the agent'
- tad aśisyam samjñāpramāṇatvāt (1.2.53) 210 'it (retention of original number and gender of a word) ought not to be taught since it is dependent upon usage'
- tad asyāstīty asminn iti matup (5.2.94) 8 'a taddhīta affix, namely, matUP, occurs to denote the sense of the genitive (ṣaṣṭhī; tasya), or of the locative (saptamī; tasmin) after a syntactically related nominal stem which ends in the nominative (prathamā;tat), provided it is qualified with the denotatum of asti 'is, exists'
- taddhitasya (6.1.64) 79 'of that which is termed a taddhita'
- taddhitāh (4.1.76) 26 'here begins the domain of affixes termed taddhita'
- taddhitārthottarapada... (2.1.51) 139 'a pada which ends in a sUP and contains a stem denoting diś 'directional,' or saṃkhyā 'number,' combines in a tatpuruṣa compound with a syntactically related coreferential pada which ends in a sUP, when either the meaning of a taddhita affix finds its scope, or a third word is to follow, or else, samāhāra 'collection, grouping' is denoted'
- taddhiteşv acām ādeḥ ... (7.2.117) 174 'an ā comes in place of initial among vowels of an aṅga, namely, devikā, śiṃśapā, dityavāṭ, dīrghasattra and śreyas, when a taddhita affix marked with  $\tilde{N}$ , N and K follows, and the context is that of a replacement in vrddhi'
- tad vahati rathayugaprāsangam (4.4.76) 64 'the taddhita affix yaT occurs after nominal stems ratha 'chariot,' yuga 'yoke' and prāsanga 'trial yoke' when the stems are used with the accusative and derivates denote the sense of vahati '...carrying ...'
- tanādikṛābhya uḥ (3.1.79) 36 'affix u occurs after verbal roots enumerated in the class headed by tanU 'to stretch, expand,' and also after verbal root  $kṛ\tilde{N}$  'to make, do.' when a  $s\bar{a}rvadh\bar{a}tuka$  affix with the denotation of kartr follows'
- taraptamapau ghaḥ (1.1.22) 121 'affixes taraP and tamaP are termed gha'
- tavyattavyānīyaraḥ (3.1.96) 5 'affixes tavya, tavyaTand anīyaRare introduced after verbal roots' tasau matvarthe (1.4.19) 153 'a form which ends in -t and -s is termed bha when an affix denoting the sense of matUP follows'
- tasmād ily uttarasya (1.1.67) 45 'that which is used with an ablative specifies the left context of an operation on what follows'
- tasminn iti nirdiste pūrvasya (1.1.66) 45 'that which is used with the locative specifies the right context of an operation on what precedes'
- tasmai hitam (5.1.5) 64 'a taddhita affix occurs as specified to denote the sense of 'beneficial to that' after a syntactically related nominal stem which ends in the caturthi 'fourth triplet of sUP' dative'
- tasya paramāmreditam (8.1.2) 124 'the final of this iterated sequence is termed āmredita'
- tasya pūrane daļ (5.2.48) 'the taddhita affix DaŢ occurs to denote the sense of pūrana 'that by which something is brought to completion, ordinal number' after a syntactically related nominal stem which signifies number and ends in the genitive (saṣṭhī)'
- tasya lopah (1.3.9) 'an item termed it goes through deletion via LOPA'
- tasya samūhaḥ (4.2.37) 68 'a taddhita affix, namely, aŅ, occurs after the first among syntactically related nominal padas which ends in the genitive (saṣṭhī), provided the derivate denotes 'a collection or group of that'
- tasyāpatyam (4.3.92) 72 'a taddhita affix, namely aŅ, occurs as ruled to denote the sense of apatya 'offspring' after the first among syntactically related nominal stems ending in the genitive (sasthī)'
- tāny ekavacanadvivacanabahuvacanāny ekaśaḥ (1.4.102) 69 'the individual members of each triad of sUP are termed ekavacana 'singular,' dvivacana 'dual' and bahuvacana 'plural' respectively'
- $t\bar{a}bhy\bar{a}m$  anyatro $n\bar{a}dayah$  (3.4.75) 39 'affixes uN, et al., also occur with a non-dative and ablative denotata'
- tinastrīņitrīņi prathamamadhyamottamāḥ (1.4.101) 69 'the three elements of each triad of tiN is termed prathama 'first, third,' madhyama 'second' and uttama 'first, best,' respectively'
- tinšit sārvadhātukam (3.4.113) 24 'that which is denoted by tiN, and also that which is marked with  $\hat{S}$  as an it, is termed  $s\bar{a}rvadh\bar{a}tuka$ '

- tiptasjhisiptastha... (3.4.78) 25 'tiP/tas/jhi; siP/thas/tha; miP/vas/mas; ta/ātām/jha; thās/athām/dhvam; iT/vahi/mahiN are introduced in place of LA-affixes'
- tudādibhyaḥ śaḥ (3.1.77) 36 'affix Śa is introduced after verbal roots listed in the group headed by tud 'to torment'
- tumarthāc ca bhāvavacanāt (2.3.15) 160 'a caturthī 'dative' occurs after a nominal stem which terminates in an affix with the denotatum of action and which is synonymous with denotatum of tumUN'
- tulyāsyaprayatnam savarnam (1.1.9) 121 'a sound which shares same articulatory effort in the mouth with another is termed homogeneous (savarna)'
- tṛjakābhyāṃ karttari (2.2.15) 28 'a pada which ends in the genitive (ṣaṣṭhī) and denotes karman 'object,' does not combine in a tatpuruṣa compound with a syntactically related nominal pada which ends in a sUP, contains a stem in tṛC and aka, and denotes kartṛ'
- tṛtīyā tatkṛtārthena guṇavacanena (2.1.30) 201 'a pada which ends in the instrumental (tṛtīyā) combines, optionally, in a tatpuruṣa compound with a syntactically related pada which ends in a sUP, and either denotes (i) a quality produced by the pada ending in tṛtīyā, or (ii) contains artha'
- tṛtīyāsaptamyor bahulam (2.4.84) 199 'a tṛtiyā and saptamī is variously replaced with am when it occurs after an avyayībhāva compound ending in a'
- tṛṣimṛṣikṛṣeḥ kāśyapasya (1.2.25) 118 'affix Ktvā, in the opinion of Kāśyapa, is not treated as marked with Kas an it when it occurs with iT after verbal roots tṛṣA 'to be thirsty,' mṛṣA 'to endure, tolerate' and kṛṣA 'to be lean'
- te tadrājāḥ (4.1.172) 104 'the taddhita affixes which occur after a syntactically related nominal stem ending in the genitive and naming a janapada with the signification of a kṣatriya are termed tadrāja'
- tena krītam (5.1.37) 64 'a taddhita affix occurs as specified to denote the sense of krītam after a syntactically related nominal stem which ends in the instrumental (tṛtīyā)'
- tena tulyam kriyā ced vatih (5.1.115) 65 'the taddhita affix vatl occurs to denote the sense of tulya 'same, equal' after a syntactically related nominal stem ending in tṛtīyā 'instrumental,' provided what is tulya is also kriyā 'action''
- tena divyati khanati jayati jitam (4.4.2) 64 'the taddhita affix !haK occurs after a nominal stem which ends in the instrumental (tṛtiyā) when derivates signify dīvyati '...sports, plays,' khanati '...digs,' jayati '...wins' and jitam '...won'
- tena raktaṃ rāgāt (4.2.1) 63 'a taddhita affix, particularly aN (3.1.83 prāg dīvyato' n), occurs after a syntactically related nominal stem which ends in tṛtīyā and signifies 'color' when the derivate denotes 'colored by that'
- tena saheti tulyayoge (2.2.28) 187 'a pada constituted by saha 'with' combines, optionally, in a bahuvnhi compound with a pada which ends in the tṛtīyā 'instrumental' provided referents of both share same relationship with the action'
- tyadādīnām aḥ (7.2.102) 84 'the final sound segment of an aṅga constituted by items enumerated in the list headed by tyad 'that' is replaced with a when an affix termed vibhakti follows'
- tricaturoh striyām tisrcatasr (7.2.99) 132 'tisr and catasr come in place of an anga, namely, tri and catur, when they are used with the signification of feminine and an affix termed vibhakti follows'
- tres trayaḥ (6.3.48) 48 'the final sound segment of tri is replaced with trayas when a constituent denoting saṃkhyā 'number,' with the exception of asīti 'eighty,' combines to follow and the compound is not a bahuvrīhi'
- tres trayaḥ (7.1.53) 63 'traya comes in place of an anga, namely, tri 'three,' when the genitive plural ām follows'
- dader dhator ghah (8.2.32) 85 'the h of a verbal root which begins with d is replaced with gh when h occurs at the end of a pada, or occurs followed by a sound denoted by the abbreviatory term jhal.'
- $d\bar{a}dh\bar{a}$  ghv  $ad\bar{a}p$  (1.1.20) 121 'roots which yield a form in  $d\bar{a}$  and  $dh\bar{a}$ , except for  $d\bar{a}P$  'to cut' and daiP, are termed ghu'

- dikcchabdebhyaḥ saptamīpañcamīprathamābhyo digdeśakāleṣv astātiḥ (5.3.27) 65 'the taddhita affix astātl occurs after a nominal stem which ends in saptamī, pañcamī, and prathamā when diś 'direction,' deśa 'location, place' and kāla 'time' are denoted'
- dināmāny antarīle (2.2.26) 208 'a pada which ends in a sUP and names diś 'direction' combines, optionally, in a bahuvrīhi compound with a pada which ends in a sUP and denotes diś, provided the compound signifies antarāla 'intermediate direction'
- divah karma ca (1.4.43) 149 'a kāraka which serves as a means, more than any other, is also termed karman when the action is denoted by verbal root divA 'to play'
- divādibhyaḥ śyan (3.1.69) 36 'affix ŚyaN' is introduced after a verbal root listed in the group headed by div 'to sport, play''
- dīpajanapūritāyi ... (3.1.61) 45 'CiNoccurs, optionally, in place of CLI after verbal roots dīpl 'to shine,' janl 'to be born,' budhA 'to know, perceive,' pūrl 'to overfill,' tāyŖ 'to stretch' and Opyāyl 'to grow' when a ta-replacement of LUN with the denotatum of karty follows'
- dīrgham ca (1.4.12) 124 'a long (dīrgha) is also termed guru'
- dvandve ghi (2.2.32) 132 'a pada which terminates in ghi (1.4.7 śeso ghy asakhi) is placed first in a dvandva compound'
- dvigur ekavacanam (2.4.1) 63 'a compound termed dvigu carries the denotatum of one'
- dviguś ca (2.1.23) 104 'a compound termed dvigu (2.1.52 saṃkhyāpūrvo dviguḥ) is also termed tatpuruṣa'
- dvigor lug anapatye (4.1.88) 139 'LUK comes in place of a taddhita affix which, when not denoting an offspring, serves as a condition for forming a dvigu and signifies the sense of affixes introduced prior to divyati'
- dvitīyatṛtīyacaturthatūryāṇy anyatarasyām (2.2.3) 20 'a pada which ends in a sUP and contains dvitīya 'second,' tṛtīya 'third,' and caturtha or turya 'fourth,' optionally, combines in a tatpuruṣa compound with a syntactically related pada which ends in a sUP and refers to a single substance with parts'
- dvitīyāśritātītapatitagatātyartaprāptāpannaiḥ (2.1.24) 200 'a pada ending in the accusative (dvitīyā) combines, optionally, in a tatpuruṣa compound with a syntactically related pada ending in a suP and containing śrita 'resorted to, attained,' patita 'fallen into,' atīta 'gone through, over or beyond' and āpanna 'gotten to''
- dvir vacane 'ci (1.1.59) 113 'a replacement of aC is treated as its substituendum when it is followed by an affix consisting of, or beginning with, a vowel, and conditioning doubling, provided doubling alone is to be performed'
- dvyekayor dvivacanaikavacane (1.4.22) 167 'a dual and singular occur when duality and singularity is denoted'
- dhātusambandhe pratyayāḥ (3.4.1) 63 'the following affixes are introduced when a relationship between actions is denoted'
- dhātoḥ (3.1.91) 54 'an affix occurs after a verbal root ...'
- dhātoḥ (6.1.162) 61 'after a verbal root ...'
- dhātoḥ karmaṇaḥ samānakartṛkād icchāyāṇ vā (3.1.7) 91 'affix saN occurs, optionally, to denote icchā 'wish' after roots which name the object of, and share the same agent with, is to wish'
- dhātor ekāco halādeḥ saṃś ca (3.1.22) 45 'affix yaN occurs optionally after a monosyllabic verbal root which begins with a consonant when kriyāsamabhihāra 'repetitious, or intense, action' is denoted'
- dhārer uttamarṇaḥ (1.4.35) 148 'a kāraka which serves as a creditor is termed sampradāna when dhāri 'to owe (causative of  $dhṛ\tilde{N}$ )' is used'
- dhinvikṛṇvyor a ca (3.1.80) 47 'affix u occurs after verbal roots dhinvI 'to please, satisfy, be satisfied' and kṛṇvI 'to hurt, injure' when a sārvadhātuka affix which denotes kartṛ follows; additionally, a root-final sound is replaced with a'
- dhruvam apāye'pādānam (1.4.24) 48 'a kāraka which serves as dhruva 'fixed (point of reference)' is termed apādāna 'ablative' when apāya 'movement away from' is denoted'
- dhvānkṣeṇa kṣepe (2.1.42) 189 'a pada which ends in the locative (saptamī) combines in a tatpuruṣa compound with a syntactically related pada which ends in a sUP and contains a constitu-

- ent denoting dhvānkṣa 'crow,' provided contempt (kṣepa) is denoted'
- na krodādibahvacaḥ (4.1.56) 136 'affix NīṢ does not occur after a nominal stem which ends in an upasarjana 'secondary' constituent with the signification of svānga 'one's limb' and is either listed in the group headed by kroḍa 'lap, flank of a horse,' or else, consists of many vowels'
- $na\tilde{n}$  (2.2.6) 204 'a pada constituted by  $na\tilde{N}$  'not' combines, optionally, in a *latpuruṣa* compound with a syntactically related pada which ends in a sUP'
- nadībhis ca (2.1.20) 128 'a pada which denotes samkhyā combines in an avyayībhāva compound, optionally, with a syntactically related pada denoting nadī 'river'
- na dhātulopa ārdhadhātuke (1.1.4) 125 'vowels denoted by guṇa and vṛddhi do not come in place of an iK when an ārdhadhātuka affix, which conditions deletion of part of the root, follows'
- na nirdhāraņe (2.2.10) 202 'a pada which ends in the genitive (ṣaṣṭhī) and denotes nirdhāraṇa 'setting apart, singling out' does not combine in a tatpuruṣa compound with a syntactically related pada ending in a sUP'
- napumsakasya jhaly acah (7.1.72) 109 'augment nUM is introduced after last among vowels of a neuter presuffixal base (anga) which ends in a sound denoted by the abbreviatory symbol jhal., or ends in a vowel (aC)'
- napuņsakād anyatarasyām (5.4.109) 199 'the taddhita affix TaC occurs, optionally, after a neuter nominal stem which ends in an and constitutes the final constituent of an avyayībhāva compound'
- napumsake bhāve ktaḥ (3.3.114) 41 'affix Kta occurs after a verbal root when root-sense is denoted in the neuter'
- na bahuvrīhau (1.1.29) 109 'items listed in the group headed by sarva 'all' are not termed sarvanāman when they occur in a bahuvrīhi (2.2.23 śeso bahuvrīhiḥ) compound'
- na lumatāngasya (1.1.63) 66 'an operation relative to a pre-suffixal base (anga 1.4.13 angasya) does not apply if the following affix goes through deletion via that (a term) which contains LU'
- na veti vibhāṣā (1.1.44) 114 'or not (na vā) is termed vibhāṣā (option)'
- nas taddhite (6.4.144) 199 'the ti (1.1.64 acontyādi ti) of an anga, termed bha, which ends in n is deleted via LOPA when a taddhita affix follows'
- $n\bar{a}j$  jhalau (1.1.10) 121 'sounds denoted by aC (vowels) are not termed savarṇa 'homogeneous' with sounds denoted by haL (consonants)'
- nāvyayībhāvād ato' pañcamyāḥ (2.4.83) 196 'a sUP which occurs after an avyayībhāva compound ending in aT is not deleted; a sUP, if not a pañcamī 'ablative,' is replaced with am, instead'
- nāsikodaroṣṭhajaṅghādantakarṇaśṛṅgāc ca (4.1.55) 136 'affix NīṢ occurs, optionally, to denote feminine after a nominal stem which ends in an upasarjana with the signification of svāṅga 'one's limb,' namely, nāsikā 'nose,' udara 'belly,' oṣṭha 'lip,' jaṅghā 'thigh,' danta 'tooth,' karṇa 'ear' and śṛṅga 'horn'
- nityaṃ krīḍājīvikayoḥ (2.2.17) 28 'a pada which ends in the genitive (ṣaṣṭḥī), obligatorily, combines in a tatpuruṣa compound with a syntactically related pada which ends in a sUP and contains aka, provided krīḍā 'sport' and jīvikā are denoted'
- niṣṭhā (2.2.36) 121 'a pada which contains a stem in niṣṭhā (3.2.102 niṣṭhā) is placed first in a bahuvrīhi compound'
- $nisth\bar{a}$  (3.2.102) 159 'an affix termed  $nisth\bar{a}$  (1.1.26  $ktaktavat\bar{u}$   $nisth\bar{a}$ ) occurs after a verbal root when action is denoted in the past'
- nispravāņis ca (5.4.160) 92 'the taddhita affix kaP does not occur, via nipātana, after a compound termed bahuvrīhi, namely, nispravāņi, a just about ready basket'
- nīcair anudāttaḥ (1.2.30) 122 'a vowel which is articulated (with a) lower (pitch) at its place of articulation is termed low-pitched (anudātta)'
- $n\bar{r}n$  pe (8.3.10) 164 ' $n\bar{r}n$  is replaced with rU when pA follows and close proximity between sounds finds its scope'
- neți (7.2.4) 137 'a vowel termed vrddhi does not come in place of the vowel of an anga ending in a consonant when i Ţ-initial sIC followed by an affix termed parasmaipada follows'

- panktivimsatitrimsaccatvārimsatpancāsatṣaṣṭisaptatyasītinavatisatam (5.1.59) 118 'the nominal stems pankti 'row, meter,' vimsati 'twenty,' trimsat 'thirty,' catvārimsat 'forty,' pancāsat 'fifty,' ṣaṣṭi 'sixty,' saptati 'seventy,' asīti 'eighty,' navati 'ninety,' and sata 'hundred' are derived via nipātana to denote a measure'
- pañcamī bhayena (2.1.37) 202 'a pada which ends in the ablative (pañcamī) combines, optionally, in a tatpuruṣa compound with a syntactically related pada which ends in a sUP and contains bhaya 'fear''
- padasya (8.1.16) 62 'of that which is termed a pada'
- padāntasya (8.4.37) 138 'a replacement in n does not come in place of a n which occurs at the end of a pada'
- paraval lingam dvandvatatpuruṣayoḥ (2.4.26) 41 'gender of a dvandva and tatpuruṣa compound is assigned in accord with the gender of its final constituent'
- paras ca (3.1.2) 45 'and an affix occurs after...'
- paraḥ sannikarṣaḥ saṃhitā (1.4.109) 196 'extreme proximity between sounds is termed saṃhitā' parasmaipadānāṃ ṇalatususthalathusaṇalvamāḥ... (3.4.82) 'Ņal., atus, us, thal., athus, a; Ņal., va and ma come in place of a replacement of LIT termed parasmaipada'
- parājer asoḍhaḥ (1.4.26) 147 'a kāraka which serves as asodha 'unbearable' is termed apādāna when action is denoted by verbal root ji 'to win' used with the preverb parā'
- parādiś chandasi bahulam (6.2.199) 195 'the initial syllable of a following constituent, namely, saktha, et cetera, is, variously, marked with udātta in the Vedic'
- parikrayane sampradānam anyatarasyām (1.4.44) 123 'a kāraka which serves as a means par excellence is, optionally, termed sampradāna 'dative' when prikrayana 'hiring on stipulated wages' is denoted'
- parikhāyā ḍhañ (5.1.17) 64 'the taddhita affix ḍhaÑ occurs to denote the sense of genitive, or of locative, after syntactically related nominal stem parikhā 'moat, ditch' when ending in the nominative, provided the same is in syntactic coordination with syāt to denote the sense of 'there is a possibility of that' or 'it is possible in there''
- parinivibhyaḥ sevasitasayasivusahasuṭstusvañjām (8.3.70) 65 'a mūnthanya 'retroflex sound' comes in place of the s of verbal roots seva, sita, saya, sivU, ṣaha, sUṬ, stu, and svañja, when used after the preverbs pari, ni, and vi, when aṬ, and also when an abhyāsa intervenes in close proximity'
- pātre samitādayas ca (2.1.48) 202 'items enumerated in the list headed by pātresamit are also termed tatpurusa when kṣepa 'censure' is denoted'
- pādaśatasya saṃkhyāder vīpsāyāṃ vun lopaś ca (5.4.1) 64 'the taddhita affix vuN occurs after a nominal stem which ends in pada 'quarter' and śata 'hundred' and begins with a number (saṃkhyā) with an additional provision that the final sound segment of pāda and śata be replaced with LOPA, when derivates denote vīpsā 'repetition, pervasion''
- pāyyasamnāyyanikāyyadhāyyā mānahavirnivāsasāmidhenīsu (3.1.129) 119 'affix NyaT occurs to derive pāyya, sānnāya, nikāyya and dhāyyā when derivates denote māna 'standard of measure,' havi 'oblation,' nivāsa 'residence' and sāmidhenī 'a particular hymn''
- pitrvyamātulamātāmahāḥ (4.2.36) 139 'the words pitrvya, mātula, mātāmaha and pitāmaha are derived, via nipātana'
- puṃvatkarmadhārayajātīyadeśīyeşu (6.3.42) 98 'the form of a nominal which denotes feminine, does not end in affix  $\bar{u}\dot{N}$  and shares an identical base for usage with a corresponding masculine, is treated as that of its masculine when this same combines in a karmadhāraya compound and affixes  $j\bar{a}t\bar{t}yaR$  and  $des\bar{t}yaR$  follow'
- puṃsi saṇjñāyāṃ ghaḥ prāyeṇa (3.3.118) 41 'affix GHa occurs, generally, after a verbal root when the derivate names a karaṇa, or adhikaraṇa, in the masculine'
- pugantalaghūpadhasya ca (7.3.86) 86 'a replacement in guṇa comes in place of the iK-vowel of an aṅga which ends in augment pUK, or contains a vowel termed laghu as next to its last, when an affix termed sārvadhātuka and ārddhadhātuka follows'
- puri lun cāsme (3.2.122) 117 'affix LUN occurs, optionally, with LAT after a verbal root which co-occurs with purā, and is not used in conjunction with sma, provided the action which is not current is denoted in the past'

- pūgāñ ño' grāmaṇipūrvāt (5.3.112) 124 'the taddhita affix Nya occurs after a nominal stem which signifies pūga and does not include grāmaṇī as its initial constituent'
- pūraņaguņasuhitārthasadavyayasamānādhikaraņena (2.2.11) 203 'a pada which ends in the genitive (ṣaṣṭhā) does not combine in a tatpuruṣa compound with a pada which ends in a sUP and entails pūraṇa 'that which ends in a pūraṇa suffix,' guṇa 'that which denotes quality,' suhitārtha 'that which denotes satisfaction,' sat 'that which ends in affixes termed sat,' avyaya 'indeclinable' and samānādhikaraṇa 'that which is used in syntactic co-ordination'
- pūrvakālaikasarvajaratpurānanavakevalāh samānādhikaranena (2.1.49) 205 'a pada which ends in a sUP and contains a stem that either denotes pūrvakāla 'something which naturally precedes the other,' or is constituted by eka 'one,' sarva 'all,' jarat 'aged,' purāna 'ancient, old,' nava 'new' and kevela 'only,' combines optionally in a tatpuruṣa compound with a syntactically related coreferential pada which ends in a sUP'
- pūrvatrāsiddham (8.2.1) 5 'that which follows, here, is treated as if suspended in view of what precedes'
- pūrvaparāvaradakṣiṇottarāparādharāṇi vyavasthāyām asaṃjāāyām (1.1.34) 39 'items such as pūrva, para, avara, dakṣiṇa, uttara, apara and adhara are, optionally, termed sarvanāman when (i) operations relative to Jasare to be performed, and (ii) what is being denoted is vyavasthā 'relative difference, or location in time or space,' and not a name (saṃjāā)'
- pūrvavat sanaḥ (1.3.62) 114 'an ātmanepada affix occurs after a verbal root ending in affix saN, in a manner similar to which it occurs after its non-saN counterpart'
- pūrvasadṛśasamonārthakalahanipuṇamiśraślakṣṇaiḥ (2.1.31) 201 'a pada which ends in the instrumental (tṛtīyā) combines in a tatpuruṣa compound, optionally, with a syntactically related pada which ends in a sUP, and contains pūrva, sadṛśa, sama, ūna, and its synonyms, kalaha, miśra and ślakṣṇa'
- pūrvāparādharottaramekadeśinaikādhikaraņe (2.2.1)204 'a pada which ends in a sUP and contains pūrva, apara, adhara, or uttara, combines optionally with a syntactically related pada which ends in a sUP and refers to a single substance (ekādhikaraṇa) with parts (ekadeśin)'
- $p\bar{u}rvo'$  bhyāsah (6.1.4) 103 'the first of the two elements gotten via iteration is termed abhyāsa' por as upadhāt (3.1.98) 93 'affix yaT occurs after a verbal root which ends in a sound denoted by pU and contains aT in its penultimate position ( $upadh\bar{a}$ )'
- pratyayah (3.1.1) 45 'an affix ...'
- tratyayalope pratyayalakṣaṇam (1.1.62) 8 'an operation characteristic of an affix obtains even when the affix goes through deletion via LOPA'
- partyayasthātkātpūrvasyāt... (7.3.44) 178 'a short vowel, namely, i, comes in place of an a which, in turn, occurs before k within an affix, provided  $\bar{a}P$ , not used after a sUP, follows'
- pratyayasya lukślulupaḥ (1.1.61) 99 'non-appearance of an affix is termed LUK, ŚLU and LUP' pratyānbhyāṃ śruvaḥ pūrvasya karttā (1.4.40) 148 'a kāraka which serves as the agent of a prior action (of requesting) is termed sampradāna when śru 'to hear' is used with the preverb prati and āN'
- prathamacaramatayālpārdhakatipayanemāś ca (1.1.33) 86 'prathama 'first,' carama 'last,' alpa 'little, less,' ardha 'half,' katipaya 'some,' nema 'several,' and words which end in affix tayaP (5.2.42 saṃkhyāyā ...) as well, are, optionally, termed sarvanāman when operations relative to Jas are to be performed'
- prathamānirdiṣṭaṃ samāsa upasarjanam (1.2.43) 20 'that which is specified with the nominative (prathamā) in formation of a compund is termed upasarjana (secondary)'
- prāk kadārāt samāsah (2.1.3) 64 'that which is enumerated henceforth, prior to kadāra, (2.2.38 kadārāh karmadhārave), is termed samāsa'
- prāk krītāc chaḥ (5.1.1) 64 'a taddhita affix, namely, cha, occurs, henceforth prior to krītāt (5.1.37 tena krītam), after a nominal stem'
- prāk sitād aḍ vyavāye' pi (8.3.63) 65 'a corresponding mūrdhanya, from here on prior to sita (8.3.70 parinivibhyaḥ sevasita...), comes in place of a s which does not occur at the end of a pada, whether or not augment aT intervenes'
- prāg ivāt kah (5.3.70) 65 'a taddhita affix, namely ka, occurs henceforth prior to ive pratikṛtau (5.3.96), after a nominal stem'

- prāgg hitād yat (4.4.75) 64 'a taddhita affix, namely yaT, occurs as specified, henceforth prior to hitād (5.1.1 tasmai hitam)'
- prāg diśo vibhaktiḥ (5.3,1) 65 'the taddhita affixes which, from here on prior to diś (5.3.27 dikśabdebhyaḥ ...), optionally occur after nominal stems are termed vibhakti'
- prāg dīvyato' n (4.1.83) 64 'a taddhita affix, namely aŅ, optionally occurs, from here on prior to dīvyati (4.4.2 tena dīvyati...) after the first among syntactically related nominal stems'
- prāg rīśvarān nipātāḥ (1.4.56) 62 'what are here enumerated prior to riśvara (1.4.97 adhirīśvare) are termed nipātas'
- prāg vates thañ (5.1.18) 64 'a taddhita affix, namely thaÑ, occurs after a nominal stem to denote the sense of affixes introduced by rules prior to that which contains vatI (5.1.115 tena tulyam...)'
- prāg vahates thak (4.4.1) 64 'a taddhita affix, namely thak, occurs henceforth as specified prior to vahati (4.2.76 tadvahati...), after a nominal stem'
- prātipadikārthalingaparimāṇavacanamātre prathamā (2.3.46) 55 'a prathamā 'first triplet of sUP' occurs when only prātipadikārtha 'stem-notion,' linga 'gender,' praimāṇa 'measure' and vacana 'number' is to be expressed'
- prādayaḥ (1.4.58) 123 'items enumerated in the list headed by pra are termed nipāta 'particle' when they do not denote sattva 'thing''
- prādiś chandasi (6.2.199) 167 'the initial (syllable) of a following (constituent), namely saktha, et cetera, is variously marked with udātta in the Vedic'
- phalegrahir ātmaṃbhariś ca (3.2.26) 199 'affix iNoccurs via nipātana, also, in deriving phalegrahiḥ and ātmaṃbhariḥ'
- bahugaṇavatuḍatisaṃkhyā (1.1.23) 'bahu 'many' and gaṇa 'group, class,' and those which end in affixes vatU (5.2.39 yattadetebhyaḥ ...) and ḍati (5.2.41 kimaḥ ...) are termed samkhyā'
- babhuvrīhau prakṛtyā pūrvapadam (6.2.1) 64 'accent of the initial constituent of a bahuvrīhi compound remains as it originally was'
- bhasya (6.4.129) 62 'of a bha (1.4.18 yaci bham) of an anga'
- bhāvakarmaṇoḥ (1.3.13) 158 'an ālmanepada affix occurs after a verbal root when bhāva 'state, root-sense' and karman 'object' is denoted'
- bhāva ca (4.4.144) 65 'the taddhita affix tātiL occurs in the Vedic, also, after nominal stems śiva, śam and ariṣṭa when bhāva 'root-sense' is denoted'
- bhiyo hetubhaye şuk (7.3.40) 97 'augment şUK is introduced to an anga, namely, bhī 'to fear,' when the signification is hetubhaya 'fear to causal agent' and affix  $N\bar{i}$  follows'
- bhītrārthānām bhayahetuḥ (1.4.25) 147 'a kāraka which serves as source of fear (bhayahetu) is termed apādāna when verbal roots having the signification of bhī 'to fear' and tīa 'to protect' are used'
- bhīmādayo' pādāne (3.4.74) 39 'the words bhīma, et cetera, derive, via nipātana, when apādāna is denoted'
- bhīhṛbhṛhuvāṃ śluvac ca (3.1.39) 47 'affix ām occurs optionally after verbal roots  $\tilde{N}lbh\bar{\imath}$  'to fear,'  $hr\bar{\imath}$ , 'to be bashful, be ashamed,'  $DUbhṛ\bar{N}$  'to hold, provide,' and hu 'to perform sacrifice' provided  $LI\bar{I}$  follows, and the usage is not from the mantra part of the Vedic; in addition, these roots undergo operations similar to those which occur when  $\hat{S}LU$  follows'
- bhuvaḥ prabhavaḥ (1.4.31) 123 'a kāraka which serves as source of origin for the agent of  $bh\bar{u}$  'to be, become' is termed  $ap\bar{a}d\bar{a}na$ '
- bhūte (3.2.84) 63 'an affix, hereafter, occurs after a verbal root when the action is denoted in the past (bhūte)'
- bhūvādayo dhātavaḥ (1.3.1) 36 'verbal roots listed in the group headed by  $bh\bar{u}$ , and others of its like, are termed  $dh\bar{a}tu$ '
- bhṛṇām it (7.4.76) 47 'a short comes in place of the long final vowel of an aṅga, also when affix CvI follows'
- bhṛśādibhyo bhuvy acveḥ lopaś ca halaḥ (3.1.12) 46 'affix KyaN occurs, optionally, to denote the sense of bhū 'to be, become' after nominal stems enumerated in the list headed by bhṛśa 'bountiful, bright' when the stems do not end in affix Cvl; in addition, any final consonant of the stem goes through deletion by LOPA'

- bhrasjo ropadhayo ram anyatarasyām (6.4.47) 120 'augment rAM is introduced, optionally, in place of the sequence of r and next to the last sound segment of an anga, namely, bhrasj 'to roast,' when an affix termed ārdhadhātuka follows'
- bhrājabhāsadhurvidyutorjipījugrāvastuvaḥ kvop (3.2.177) 64 'affix KvIP occurs to denote kartṛ after verbal roots bhrājŖ and bhāsŖ 'to shine,' dhurVĪ 'to injure,' dyuT 'to shine,'  $\bar{u}$ rjA 'to be strong,'  $p\bar{r}$  'to fill,' ju 'to move' and  $sbu\bar{N}$  'to praise' used with  $gr\bar{a}va$ , when the agent performs the action at the current time because of his nature, sense of duty, or skill'
- bhrātari ca jyāyasi (4.1.164) 176 'the offspring of a grandson, and any other thereafter, is termed yuvan, also when his older brother (instead of his father, or any other like him) is alive'
- may  $u\tilde{n}o\ vo\ v\tilde{a}$  (8.3.33) 138 'a replacement in vA comes, optionally, in place of  $u\tilde{N}$  when  $u\tilde{N}$  occurs after a sound denoted by maY and aC follows in close proximity'
- mayūravyaṃsakādayaś ca (2.1.72) 205 'nominals enumerated in the list headed by mayūravyaṃsaka 'as cunning as a peacock' are also termed tatpuruṣa'
- maskaramaskarino ... (6.1.152) 119 'the words maskara and maskarin are derived, via nipātana, with introduction of augment sUI when the signification is veņu 'bamboo' and parivrājaka 'wandering ascetic,' respectively'
- māturutsaṃkhyāsambhadrapūrvāyāḥ (4.1.115) 107 'the taddhita affix aṇ occurs after the syntactically related nominal stem mātṛ 'mother,' where its final ṛ is concurrently replaced with u, provided the derivate denotes an apatya 'offspring' and mātṛ is used in combination after a constituent denoting saṃkhyā 'number,' or is used after sam and bhadra'
- mid aco' ntyāt parah (1.4.47) 96 'that which is marked with M as an it is attached after the last vowel'
- mukhanāsikāvacano' nunāsikaḥ (1.1.8) 121 'that which is articulated through mouth and nose, at once, is termed anunāsika'
- mrjer vrddhih (7.2.114) 138 'a vowel termed vrddhi comes in place of the iK-vowel of an anga constituted by mrjI 'to cleanse'
- yaci bham (1.4.18) 79 'a form is termed bha when a non-sarvanāmasthāna affix termed svādi beginning with y or a vowel (aC) follows'
- yañas ca (4.1.16) 176 'affix  $\dot{N}iP$  also occurs to denote feminine after a non-secondary (anupasarjana) nominal stem which ends in yaN
- yañiños ca (4.1.101) 176 'affix phaK occurs after a syntactically related nominal stem which ends in affixes  $ya\tilde{N}$  and  $i\tilde{N}$ , provided a descendant termed gotra is denoted'
- yataś ca nirdhāraṇam (2.3.41) 160 'a genitive (ṣaṣṭhī) and locative (saṣṭhī) also occurs after a stem which denotes many from among whom one is singled out'
- yattadetebhyah parimāne (5.2.39) 121 'the taddhita affix vatUP occurs to denote the sense of saṣṭhā after syntactically related nominal stems yad 'that which' and etad 'this' when they end in the nominative (prathamā) and occur in syntactic coordination with parimāṇa 'all inclusive measure'
- yathāsamkhyam anudeśah samānām (1.3.10) 36 'assignment of equivalency of items of equal number in sets is assigned in accord with order of enumeration'
- yaro 'nunāsike' nunāsiko vā (8.4.45) 85 'a pada-final sound denoted by yaR is optionally replaced with an anunāsika when this same follows in close proximity'
- yavayavakaşaştikād yat (5.2.3) 159 'the taddhita affix yaT occurs to denote the locus of bhavanam 'being, becoming' after syntactically related nominal stems yava 'barley,' yavaka 'ibidem,' and saştika 'a variety of rice ready for harvest in sixty days' when they end in the genitive (saṣthī), provided kṣetra 'field' forms the locus'
- yasmāt pratyayavidhis tadādi pratyaye' ngam (1.4.13) 86 'a form which extends up to the affix, and begins with that after which the affix is introduced, is termed anga, provided when the affix follows'
- yasyeti ca (6.4.148) 167 'the final sound segment of an anga termed bha which ends in i and a, goes through deletion by means of LOPA when i or a taddhita affix follows'
- $y\bar{a}d$   $\bar{a}pah$  (7.3.133) 136 'augment  $\bar{a}T$  is introduced to an affix which is marked with N and occurs after an anga terminating in aP'
- yuvor anākau (7.1.1) 63 'affixes yu and vu, in relation to an anga, are replaced with ana and aka'

- yuṣmadasmador anyatarasyāṃ khañ ca (4.3.1) 122 'the taddhita affix khaÑ, and cha as well, occurs optionally after a syntactically related vrddha nominal stem yuṣmad and asmad when derivates denote a residual meaning'
- $y\bar{u}stry\bar{a}khyau$   $nad\bar{u}$  (1.4.3) 123 'forms which denote feminine and end in  $\bar{u}$  and u are termed  $nad\bar{u}$ '
- yena vidhis tadantasya (1.1.72) 130 'that by means of which a provision is made denotes an item which ends in that'
- yogapramāņe ca tadabhāve 'darśanāt (1.2.55) ?? 'if association with a place of residence (nivāsa) is the standard for assignment of the term, it should no longer be assigned when the association disappears'
- $ras\bar{a}bhy\bar{a}m$  no nah samānapade (8.4.1) 63 'a replacement in n comes in place of n which occurs preceded by r and s in close proximity within the same word'
- rādhīkṣyor yasya vipraśnaḥ (1.4.39) 148 'a kāraka which serves as one about whom many inquiries are made is termed sampradāna when rādhA 'to pi phesy' and īkṣA 'to look, observe' are used'
- rucyarthānām prīyamāṇaḥ (1.4.33) 148 'a kāraka which serves as one who is pleased (prīyamāṇa) is termed sampradāna when verbal roots having the signification of ruc 'to please' are used'
- rudhādibhyaḥ śnam (3.1.78) 'affix ŚnaM occurs after verbal roots enumerated in the group headed by rudhIR 'to hold down, round up' when a sárvadhātuka affix used with the denotation of kartṛ follows'
- rogākhyāyām nvul bahulam (3.3.108) 80 'affix NvuL occurs, variously, after a verbal root to denote action in the feminine when the derivate names a disease'
- laḥ karmaṇi ca bhāve cākarmakebhyaḥ (3.4.69) 54 'a LA-affix is introduced after an transitive verbal root when agent (kartṛ) and object (karman), and after an intransitive verbal root when agent and root-sense (bhāva), are to be denoted'
- lah parasmaipadam (1.4.99) 27 'a replacement of LA is termed parasmaipada (active)'
- lakṣaṇahetvoḥ kriyāyāḥ (3.2.126) 185 'affixes Śatṛ and ŚānaC occur after a verbal root in place of LAṬ when action denoted by the root constitutes a lakṣaṇa 'characteristic mark,' or hetu 'cause,' of some other action'
- laṭaḥ śatṛśānacāv aprathamā samānādhikaraṇe (3.2.124) 116 'affixes Śatṛ and ŚānaC occur after a verbal root in place of LAṬ when action is denoted at the current time, and when LAṬ is not coreferential with a pada which ends in the nominative (prathamā)'
- laśaku ataddhite (1.3.8) 123 'an initial L, Ś, and sounds denoted by the abbreviatory term kU (velar stops and nasal; 1.1.69 anudit savarnasya cāpratyayaḥ), are termed it when they occur in the first citation (upadzśa) of an affix other than a taddhita'
- linaḥ salopo' nantyasya (7.2.79) 194 'the non-final s in a sārvadhātuka replacement of affix LIN goes through deletion by LOPA'
- lițas tajhayor esitrec (3.4.81) 115 'the ta and jha which replace LIȚ are replaced with esand ireC, respectively'
- liți dhātor anabhyāsasya (6.1.8) 113 'that part of a root which is formed with its first among vowels, or formed with its second if the root begins with a vowel, is iterated in two, provided affix LIT follows'
- lity anyatarasyām (2.4.40) 116 'ad is, optionally, replaced by ghas L. when an ardhadhātuka replacement of LIT follows'
- lity abhyāsasyobhayeṣām (6.1.17) 66 'the abhyāsa of verbal roots enumerated beginning with vacl 'to speak' and grahl 'to hold, sieze' goes through samprasāraṇa when LIŢ follows'
- luk taddhita luki (1.2.49) 47 'the feminine affix of an upasarjana 'secondary' also goes through deletion via LUK when a taddhita affix goes through deletion via LUK'
- lug vā duhadihalihaguhātmanepade dantye (7.3.73) 100 'a deletion by LUK comes, optionally, in place of ksa of an anga, namely, duhA, dihA, lihA and guhA, when an ātmanepada affix beginning with a dental sound segment follows'
- luṭaḥ prathamasya dāraurasaḥ (2.4.85) 97 'the third-personal replacements of tiN are replaced with  $D\bar{a}$ , rau and ras, respectively'

- lupi yauktavad vyaktivacane (1.2.51) 100 'the original number and gender of a base is retained when there is deletion of a taddhita affix, via LUP'
- lopaḥ śākalyasya (8.3.19) 116 'a pada-final v or y which occurs after a or  $\bar{a}$  is, in the opinion of Śākalya, replaced with LOPA when a sound denoted by  $a\hat{S}$  follows in close proximity'
- vacisvapiyajādīnām kiti (6.1.15) 116 'verbal roots vac' to speak,'  $\tilde{N}$ Isvap' to sleep,' and also roots listed in the group headed by yaj, go through samprasāraņa when an affix marked with K follows'
- vayasi prathame (4.1.20) 167 'affix  $\dot{N}P$  occurs to denote feminine after a non-secondary nominal stem which ends in -a and denotes the first stage of life'
- vartamāne laļ (3.2.123) 63 'affix LAŢ is introduced after a verbal root when action is denoted at the current time'
- $v\bar{a}$  chandasi (3.4.88) 137 'affix athuC is introduced after a verbal root marked with TU as an it when  $bh\bar{a}va$  'root-sense' and a  $k\bar{a}raka$  other than kartr is denoted'
- vā dāntašāntapūrņadastaspastacchannajāaptāḥ (7.2.27) 119 'dānta, šānta, pūaṇa, spaṣṭa, channa, and jñapta are divided, optionally via nipātana, from verbal roots dam, šam, pūrl, daś, spaś, chad and jñap'
- $v\bar{a}nto\ yi\ pratyaye\ (6.1.79)\ 130$  'a replacement with v at the end, i.e., av and  $\bar{a}v$ , occurs when a y initial affix follows'
- $v\bar{a}mi$  (1.4.5) 116 'except for  $str\bar{i}$ , forms which terminate in  $\bar{i}$ ,  $\bar{u}$  and denote feminine are, optionally, not termed  $nad\bar{i}$  when they have a replacement in  $iyA\dot{N}$ ,  $uvA\dot{N}$ , and occur before the genitive plural ending  $\bar{a}m'$
- vāraņārthānām īpsitaḥ (1.4.27) 148 'a kāraka which serves as that which is desired is termed apādāna when verbal roots having the signification of vāraņa 'warding off' are used'
- vā liṭi (2.4.55) 116 'cakṣlN' 'to speak' is replaced with khyāN when an ārdhadhātuka affix follows'
- vā' sarūpo' striyām (3.1.94) 51 'a formally dissimilar (asarūpa) affix introduced by an exception rule in this domain of dhātoḥ, optionally, blocks introduction of its general counterpart except when the affix relates to the domain of rules which allow derivation of feminine forms'
- $v\bar{a}$  supy  $\bar{a}piśaleh$  (6.1.92) 118 'a single replacement in vrddhi, in the opinion of  $\bar{A}piśali$ , comes, optionally, in place of both, the final a of a preverb and initial r of a verbal root when  $sanhit\bar{a}$  finds its scope'
- vāhitāgnyādişu (2.2.37) 208 'a pada which contains a stem in niṣṭhā is placed first in a bahuvrīhi compound'
- vipratisedhe param kāryam (1.4.2) 5 'apply the rule which is subsequent in order when conflict among rules of equal strength obtains'
- vibhaktis ca (1.4.104) 69 'each triplet of sUP and tiN is also termed vibhakti'
- vibhāṣā (2.1.11) 194 'what follows hereafter is vibhāṣā 'option'
- vibhāṣā' abhyavapūrvasya (6.1.26) 117 'verbal root ŚyaiN, when used after the preverb abhi and ava, goes through samprasāraṇa, only optionally'
- vibhāṣā jasi (1.1.32) 39 'items listed in the group headed by sarva are, optionally, not termed sarvanāman when they combine in a dvandva compound and operations relative to Jas are to be performed'
- vibhāṣā diksamāse bahuvrīhau (1.1.28) 109 'items listed in the group headed by sarva are, optionally, termed sarvanāman when they combine in a bahuvrīhi compound formed with constituents denoting diś 'direction''
- vibhāṣā luṅlṛṅoḥ (2.4.50) 116 'iN' is replaced with  $g\bar{a}N$  when an  $\bar{a}rdhadh\bar{a}tuka$  replacement of LUN and LRN follows'
- vibhāṣā śvaḥ (6.1.30) 115 'verbal root ṬUaśvI 'to swell' goes, optionally, through samprasāraṇa when affixes LIṬ and yaN follow'
- vibhāṣopapadena (1.3.77) 114 'an ātmanepada affix occurs, optionally, after roots used with a co-occurring pada which denotes the fruit of the action accruing to the agent'
- vibhāṣorṇoḥ (1.2.3) 115 'an affix with iT as its initial is, optionally, treated as marked with N when the same occurs after verbal root urnuN 'to cover'

- virāmo' vasānam (1.4.110) 124 'a cessation of speech (virāma) is termed avasāna (termination)'
- viseṣaṇaṃ viseṣyeṇa bahulam (2.1.57) 207 'a pada which ends in a sUP and denotes a qualifying property (viseṣaṇavāci) combines, variously, in a tatpuruṣa compound with a syntactically related coreferential pada which ends in a sUP and denotes the object so qualified'
- vṛddhinimittasya ca taddhitasyāraktavikāre (6.3.39) 151 'the form of a nominal which denotes feminine, shares identical bases with a corresponding masculine and ends in a taddhita affix conditioning vṛddhi, is not treated as that of its masculine, provided this taddhita affix was introduced with the signification of something other than rakta 'colored by means of ... (4.2.1 tena raktaṃ rāgāt)' and vikāra 'a modification of ... (4.3.134 tasyavikāraḥ)'
- vṛddhir ādaic (1.1.1) 2 'ā, ai and au are termed vṛddhi' vṛddhir eci (6.1.88) 134 'a single replacement in vṛddhi comes in plac
- vṛddhir eci (6.1.88) 134 'a single replacement in vṛddhi comes in place of both, a sound denoted by the abbreviatory term eC (e, o, ai, au) which follows a and the a which precedes eC, in close proximity (saṃhitā)'
- vṛddhir yasyācām ādis tad vṛddham (1.1.37) 103 'that from among whose vowels the first is vṛddhi is termed vṛddha'
- vṛddhetkosalājādāññyaṅ (4.1.169) 202 'the taddhita affix NyaN occurs to denote apatya after a syntactically related nominal stem which ends in the genitive (ṣaṣṭhī) and names a janapada 'principality, cluster of villages' with the signification of a kṣatriya, provided the base is either termed vṛddha or ends in i, or else is constituted by kosala and ajāda'
- śakisahoś ca (3.1.99) 93 'affix yaT occurs, also, after verbal roots śakl. 'to be strong, capable' and ṣahA 'to endure, forgive''
- śabdavairakalahābhrakanvameghebhyaḥ karane (3.1.17) 22 'affix KyaN occurs optionally to denote karana 'doing' after śabda 'sound, noise,' vaira 'hostility,' kalaha 'quarrel,' abhra 'cloud,' kanva 'sin' and megha 'cloud' when these denote the object of making or doing'
- śarpare visarjanīyalı (8.3.35) 120 'a visarjanīya is replaced with visarjanīya when a sound denoted by khaR, itself followed by another denoted by śaR, follows in close proximity'
- śā hau (6.4.35) 82 'an anga, namely, śas, is replaced with śā when affix hi follows'
- śi sarvanāmasthānam (1.1.42) 111 'Ši (a substitute of the nominative and accusative plural endings Jas and Śas after neuter stems) is termed sarvanāmasthāna'
- śrtam pāke (6.1.27) 117 'verbal root śrā is optionally replaced with śr, via nipātana, when it is used with the signification of pāka 'cooking,' and when affix Kta follows'
- śe mucādīnām (7.1.59) 97 'augment nUM is introduced to an anga constituted by a root enumerated in the group headed by mucl.' to release' when affix Śa follows'
- śeṣāt kartari parasmaipadam (1.3.78) 69 'a parasmaipada affix occurs after the remainder of roots when agent (kartṛ) is denoted'
- sese (4.2.92) 62 'in the sense of other than one already specified'
- seşo ghy asakhi (1.4.7) 123 'the remainder of forms which end in i and u, with the exception of sakhi 'companion,' are termed ghi'
- śeso bahuvrihih (2.2.23) 135 'that which is not already specified is termed bahuvrihi'
- śnassor allopaḥ (6.4.111) 82 'the a of ŚnaM, and that of verbal root as, goes through deletion, via LOPA, when a sārvadhātuka affix marked with K and N as an it follows'
- śnān nalopaḥ (6.4.23) 79 'a n which occurs after Śna is deleted by means of LOPA'
- śraviṣṭhāphālgunyanurādhāsvātitiṣyapunarvasuhastaviśākhāṣāḍhābahulāl luk (4.3.34) 101 'a taddhita affix which occurs after syntactically related nominai stems śraviṣṭhā, phalgunī, anurādhā, svāti, tiṣya, punarvasu, hasta, viśākhā, aṣāḍhā and bahulā goes through deletion via LUK'
- ślāghahnunsthāśapām... (1.4.34) 148 'a kāraka which serves as someone whom one wishes to be aware of is termed sampradāna when verbal roots ślāghA 'to praise,' hunN 'to hide,' sthā 'to stay' and śapA 'to curse' are used'
- ślau (6.1.10) 47 'that part of a root which is formed with its first vowel, or formed with its second if the root begins with a vowel, is iterated to become two if not already iterated, when ŚLU follows'
- saṣṭhī (2.2.8) 202 'a pada which ends in the genitive (saṣṭhī) combines, optionally, in a tatpuruṣa compound with a syntactically related pada which ends in a sUP'

- śaṣṭhī śeṣe (2.3.50) 68 'a genitive occurs after a nominal stem when the remainder (śeṣa) is to be expressed'
- sasthīyuhtas chandasi vā (1.4.9) 45 'pati, in the Vedic, is optionally termed ghi when it occurs in connection with a word ending in the genitive'
- sasthī stāneyogā (1.1.49) 45 'a genitive (sasthī), not interpretable otherwise, denotes 'in place of' sṇāntā sat (1.1.24) 64 'number words which end in s and n are termed sat'
- syanah samprasāraņam putrapatyos tatpuruse (6.1.13) 79 'SyaN goes through samprasāraņa when putra and pati follow in a tatpurusa compound'
- samyogāntasya lopah (8.2.23) 8 'a deletion by LOPA comes in place of the final sound segment of a pada which ends in a conjunct'
- saṃyoge guru (1.4.11) 123 'a short vowel, termed laghu, is termed guru when it occurs before a conjunct (saṃyoga)'
- samhitāyām (6.1.72) 63 'when close proximity (samhitā) between sounds obtains'
- saṃkhyāyāvyayāsannādūrādhikasaṃkhyāḥ saṃkhyeye (2.2.25) 208 'a pada which ends in a sUP and contains an avyaya, or contains āsanna 'proximate,' adūra 'not far, near,' adhika 'more' and saṃkhyā 'number,' combines, optionally, in a bahuvrīhi compound with a pada which ends in sUP and contains a saṃkhyā denoting things counted (saṃkhyeya)'
- saṃkhyāpūrvo dviguḥ (2.1.52) 124 'a compound which begins with a constituent denoting saṃkhyā 'number' is termed dvigu'
- saṃkhyāyā atišadantāyāḥ kan (5.1.22) 128 'the taddhita affix kaN occurs to denote the sense of affixes introduced by rules prior to, and including 5.1.63 tad arhati, after a nominal stem which ends in an appropriate ending and signifies a number, but does not have ti and sata as its final'
- samjñāpūraṇayoś ca (6.3.38) 209 'the form of a nominal which denotes feminine, shares identical bases for usage with a corresponding masculine, and is either a name (samjñā), or ends in a pūraṇa suffix, is not treated as that of its masculine'
- satyapāśarūpavīṇātūlaślokasenālomatvacavarmacūrṇacurādibhyo ṇic (3.1.25) 36 'affix NiC occurs after nominal stems satya 'truth,' pāśa 'snare,' rūpa 'form, shape, figure,' vīṇā 'lute,' tūla 'cotton,' śloka 'verse,' senā 'army,' loma 'hair on body,' tvac 'skin,' varma 'protective armor' and cūrṇa 'powder'; it also occurs after verbal roots listed in the class headed by cur 'to steal'
- sa napumsakam (2.4.17) 206 'a dvigu, or dvandva compound, which carries the denotatum of one is termed neuter'
- sanādyantā dhātavaḥ (3.1.32) 52 'forms which end in affixes saN, et cetera, are termed dhātu' saptamīpaācamyau kārakamadhye (2.3.7) 160 'a saptamī 'seventh triplet, accusative' and paācamī 'fifth triplet, ablative' occurs after stems denoting kāla 'time' and adhvan 'road' when a span of time or distance between two participants (kārakas) is signified'
- saptamī višesaņe bahuvrīhau (2.2.35) 192 'a pada which ends in the locative (saptamī), or is a qualifier, is placed first in a bahuvrīhi compound'
- saptamī śauṇḍaiḥ (2.1.40) 202 'a pada which ends in the locative (saptamī), optionally, combines in a tatpuruṣa compound with a syntactically related pada which ends in a sUP and contains śauṇḍa 'cunning, skilled,' et cetera'
- saptamy adhikaraṇe ca (2.3.36) 146 'a saptamī occurs after a nominal stem when adhikaraṇa 'locus' is not expressed otherwise; in addition, it occurs after dūra 'far,' antika 'near' and their synonyms'
- samarthah padavidhih (2.1.1) 62 'an operation (vidhi) concerning fully inflected words (pada) is to be syntactically related (samartha)'
- samarthānām prathamād vā (4.1.82) 62 'an affix termed taddhita occurs (from here on prior to 5.3.1 prāg diśo...) after the first among syntactically related nominal stems'
- samānakarīṣkayoḥ pūrvakāle (3.4.21) 185 'affix Ktvā occurs after a verbal root which denotes a prior action relative to some subsequent action, provided both actions share the same agent'
- samānakartīķeļu tumun (3.3.158) 186 'affix tumUN occurs after a verbal root used in conjunction with the other which has the signification of is 'to wish,' provided both actions share

- the same agent'
- samāsasya (6.1.223) 79 'of that which is termed samāsa'
- samāsāntāh (5.4.68) 78 'the taddhita affixes introduced, henceforth, occur at the end of a nominal stem termed compound (samāsa)'
- samāhāraḥ svaritaḥ (1.2.31) 122 'that which is articulated with a combination of udātta and anudātta is termed svarita'
- samprasāraņasya (6.3.139) 79 'the final sound of a word which has gone through samprasāraņa is replaced with its long counterpart when a constituent combines to follow'
- samprasāraṇāc ca (6.1.108) 115 'a single replacement similar to the preceding comes in place of both, the preceding samprasāraṇa vowel and the vowel which follows, when saṃhitā finds its scope'
- sambodhane ca (2.3.47) 161 'a nominative (prathamā) also occurs after a stem when sambodhana 'address' is denoted'
- sarvanāmnaḥ smai (7.1.14) 84 'affix  $\dot{N}e$ , when occurring after a pronominal ending in a, is replaced with smai'
- sarvasya dve (8.1.1) 63 'two in place of a single whole'
- sarvādīni sarvanāmāni (1.1.27) 39 'items listed in the group headed by sarva are termed sarvanāman'
- sasajuso ruh (8.2.66) 167 'the final s of a pada which ends in s, and also the s of sajus are replaced with rU at the end of a pada'
- sahanañavidyamānapūravāc ca (4.1.57) 136 'affix NīṢ also does not occur to denote feminine after an upasarjana 'secondary' nominal stem which denotes svāṅga 'one's own limb' and is used in combination preceded by saha 'with,' naÑ 'not' and vidyamāna 'present, existent''
- sahayukte 'pradhāne (2.3.19) 160 'a tṛtīyā 'third triplet' occurs after stems which denote apradhāna 'non-principal' and are used in conjunction with saha 'with,' or its synonyms'
- saha supā (2.1.4) 137 'a pada which ends in a sUP combines in a samāsa 'compound' with another syntactically related pada ending in a sUP'
- sādhakatamam karaṇam (1.4.42) 45 'a kāraka which serves as the most instrumental means for accomplishing an action is termed karaṇa'
- sānta mahalaḥ saṃyogasya (6.4.10) 133 'the next to the last vowel of a saṃyoga 'conjunct' ending in s, or the penultimate vowel of n of mahat, is replaced with its long counterpart when a sarvanāmasthāna affix other than sambuddhi follows'
- sā' mantritam (2.3.48) 239 'a form which ends in the nominative (prathamā) and denotes sambuddhi 'address' is termed āmantrita'
- sāmi (2.1.27) 201 'sāmi 'half' is combined in a tatpuruṣa compound with a syntactically related pada which ends in a sUP and contains a stem ending in Kta'
- sārvadhātukam apit (1.2.4) 165 'a sārvadhātuka affix, not originally marked with P as an it, is treated as marked with  $\dot{N}$  as an it
- sārvadhātukārdhadhātukayoḥ (7.3.84) 115 'a replacement in guṇa comes in place of the iK of an aṅga when an affix termed sārvadhātuka and ārdhadhātuka follows'
- sāsya devatā (4.2.24) 139 'a taddhita affix, namely aN, occurs as ruled after a syntactically related nominal stem, namely devatā 'divinity,' when the same ends in the nominative and the derivate denotes a divinity'
- sici vṛddhiḥ parasmaipadeṣu (7.2.1) 63 'the final iK-vowel of an anga is replaced with its vṛddhi counterpart when sIC, followed by an affix termed parasmaipada, follows'
- siti ca (1.4.16) 222 'a form which occurs followed by an affix marked with S as an it is termed pada'
- siddhaśuskapakvabandhaiś ca (2.1.41) 202 'a pada which ends in the locative (saptamī) combines, optionally, in a tatpuruṣa compound with a syntactically related pada which ends in a sUP and contains siddha 'established, made,' śuṣka 'dried,' pakva 'cooked, ripened' and bandha 'tied, bound''
- sib bahulam leţi (3.1.34) 96 'affix sIP occurs, variously, after a verbal root when IET follows' sukhādibhyaḥ kartrvedanāyām (3.1.18) 22 'affix KyaN occurs, optionally, after nominal stems

- enumerated in the list headed by sukha 'pleasure, happiness,' provided the derivate denotes agent's own experience'
- sud anapumsakasya (1.1.43) 111 'items denoted by the abbreviatory term sUT (sU, au, Jas; am, and auT) are termed sarvanāmasthāna when they occur after a non-neuter nominal stem'
- supa ātmanaḥ kyac (3.1.8) 56 'affix KyaC occurs, optionally, to denote icchā after a pada which ends in a sUP and denotes the object of one's own wish'
- supah (1.4.103) 134 'individual elements of each triad of sUP are termed ekavacana 'singular,' dvivacana 'dual' and bahuvacana 'plural,' respectively'
- supi ca (7.3.102) 113 'a long vowel comes in place of the final a of an anga, also when a sUP affix beginning with a sound denoted by the abbreviatory term yaN follows'
- supo dhātuprātipadikayoḥ (2.4.71) 8 'a sUP which occurs as part of a dhātu 'verbal root', or of a prātipadika 'nominal stem,' goes through deletion via LUK'
- suptinantam padam (1.4.14) 8 'that which ends in a sUP and tiN is termed pada'
- supy ajātau ņinis tācchīlye (3.2.78) 29 'affix ŅinI occurs to denote tācchīlya 'one's nature, or characteristic habit' after verbal roots used in conjunction with a pada which ends in a sUP and does not denote jāti 'class''
- sub āmantrite parāṅgavat svare (2.1.2) 114 'a pada which ends in a sUP combines in a compound (samāsa) with a syntactically related pada ending in a sUP'
- ser hy apic ca (3.4.87) 83 'a siP replacement of LOT is replaced with hi and is treated as though not marked with P'
- skoḥ saṃyogādyor ante ca (8.2.29) 166 'the initial s and k of a conjunct which occurs at the end of a pada, or which occurs followed by a sound denoted by the abbreviatory term jhal., is deleted by LOPA'
- stokāntikadūrārthakṛcchrāṇi ktena (2.1.39) 202 'a pada which ends in the ablative (paōcamī) and contains kṛcchra 'trouble, difficulty', or contains stems which denote stoka 'a bit,' antika 'near, proximate,' or dūra 'far,' optionally combines in a tatpuruṣa compound with a syntactically related pada which ends in a sUP and contains Kta'
- striyāh puṃvadbhāṣitapuṃskādanūṅ samānādhikaraṇe striyām apūraṇīpriyādiṣu (6.3.34) 209 'the form of a nominal which denotes feminine and shares an identical base for usage with a corresponding masculine, is, when not ending in affix  $\bar{u}N$ , treated as that of its masculine, provided a nominal not ending in a pūraṇa suffix and not belonging to the list headed by priyā follows in syntactic coordination with the signification of feminine'
- striyām ktin (3.3.94) 41 'affix KvanIP occurs after verbal root dṛśIR' to see' when the root occurs in construction with a pada which denotes karman 'object' and the action is denoted in the past'
- striy $\bar{a}m$  (4.1.3) 62 'when the denotation is feminine'
- striyām avantikuntikurubhyaś ca (4.1.174) 125 'a taddhita affix termed tadrāja which occurs to denote a female offspring after syntactically related nominal stems avanti, kunti, and kuru is also deleted by LUK'
- sthah ka ca (3.2.77) 30 'affix Ka, and KvIP as well, occur after verbal root  $sth\bar{a}$  'to stay, stand,' used with or without any preverb,' when the root occurs in construction with a pada which ends in a sUP'
- sthānāntagośālakharaśālāc ca (4.3.35) 184 'a taddhita affix which occurs after syntactically related nominal stems śraviṣṭhā, phalgunī, anurādhā, svāti, tiṣya, punarvasu, hasta, viśākhā, aṣāḍhā, and bahulā, all ending in the locative, is replaced with LUK when derivates denote born there'
- sthānivad ādeśo' nalvidhau (1.1.56) 107 'a substitute is treated as if a substitutendum except when an operation relative to an original sound (aL) is to be performed'
- sthāne' ntaratamah (1.1.50) 36 'a substitute (ādeśa) which is to replace a substituendum (sthānī) should also be most similar to the substituendum'
- spṛher ipsitaḥ (1.4.36) 148 'a kāraka which serves as desired (ipsita) for the agent of an action denoted by spṛhA 'yearn after' is termed sampradāna'
- syatāsī lṛlotoḥ (3.1.33) 96 'affixes sya and tāsI occurs, respectively, after verbal roots when LR and LUT follow'

- svam rūpam śabdasyāśabdasamjñā (1.1.68) 26 'a word, other than one which is a technical term of the grammar, denotes its form only'
- svatantraḥ karttā (1.1.54) 123 'a participant which serves independently of others is termed agent'
- svam ajñātidhanākhyāyām (1.1.35) 39 'the word sva is optionally termed sarvanāman when operations relative to Jas are to be performed, and when sva 'one's own' does not express jāāti 'relative, clan' or wealth (dhana)'
- svayam ktena (2.1.25) 201 'svayam 'oneself,' optionally, combines in a tatpuruṣa compound with a syntactically related pada which ends in a sUP and contains a nominal stem terminating in Kta'
- svarādinipātam avyayam (1.1.37) 122 'words listed in the set headed by svara 'sun, heaven' and those termed nipāta are classed as avyaya'
- svaritañitaḥ kartrabhiprāye kriyāphale (1.3.72) 37 'an ātmanepada affix occurs after a verbal root marked either with a svarita 'circumflex accent' or with  $\tilde{N}$ , provided the fruit of the action accrues to the agent'
- svaritenādhikārah (1.3.12) 70 'an adhikāra 'governing heading' is marked with svarita'
- svāngāc cetaḥ (6.3.40) 209 'the form of a nominal which ends in i and is used after a constituent denoting one's own limb in the feminine, sharing an identical base for usage in the masculine, is not treated as that of its masculine when a constituent other than mānin follows'
- svāṅgāc copasarjanāt (4.1.54) 20 'affix N̄S̄ occurs, optionally, to denote feminine after a nominal stem which contains an *upasarjana* used as its final constituent with the denotatum of svāṅga and which does not contain a conjunct in its penultimate position (*upadhā*)'
- svādibhyaḥ śnuḥ (3.1.73) 36 'affix Śnu occurs after verbal roots enumerated in the class headed by  $su\tilde{N}$  'to press out, squeeze' when a sārvadhātuka affix which denotes kartṛ follows'
- svādiṣv asarvanāmasthāne (1.4.17) 153 'a form is termed pada when svādi 'sU, etc. (affixes enumerated by rules 4.1.2 svaujasmauṭ... through 5.4.151 uraḥ prabhṛtibhyaḥ kap), with the exception of those termed sarvanā-masthāna (1.1.43 suḍ anapuṇsakasya) follow'
- svādumi ņamul (3.4.26) 186 'affix NamUL occurs after verbal root  $k_!N$  when it denotes a prior action, and shares the same agent with a subsequent action, provided  $k_!N$  is also used with an item which signifies  $sv\bar{a}du$  'detectable'
- svaujasmauļchasļābhyāmbhisnebhyāmbhyasnasibhyāmbhyasnasosānyossup (4.1.2) 54 'affixes su/au/ Jas; am/auŢ/Śas; Ṭā/bhyām/bhis; Ne/bhyām/bhyas; nasI/bhyām/bhyas; Nas/os/ām; Ni/os/suPoccur after that which either ends in affixes marked with  $N\bar{i}$ , or  $\bar{a}P$ , or is termed a nominal stem'
- hanas ta ca (3.1.108) 47 'affix KyaPoccurs to denote bhāva 'root-sense' after verbal root han 'to harm, kill, move' used with a preverb when a pada which ends in a sUP occurs in conjunction; additionally, i comes in place of the root-final-n'
- hanter jah (6.4.36) 83 'an anga, namely, verbal root han, is replaced with ja when affix hi follows'
- halantyam (1.3.3) 167 'the final consonant (haL) of a form in upadeśa is termed il'
- halas taddhitasya (6.4.150) 176 'a penultimate y which occurs after a consonant, as part of a taddhita affix relative to an anga termed bha, is deleted by means of LOPA when i follows'
- halo' nantarāḥ saṃyogaḥ (1.1.7) 121 'a sequence of consonants (hal.), when not interrupted by any vowel (aC), is termed saṃyoga 'conjunct, cluster'
- halnyābbhyo dīrghāt sutisyapṛktaṃ hal (6.1.68) 101 'a sU, ti and si termed apṛkta, when occurring after an item ending in a consonant, or in a long  $\bar{i}$  or  $\bar{a}$  of the feminine affixes  $\dot{N}\bar{i}$  and  $\bar{a}P$ , is deleted by LOPA'
- hujhalyor her dhih (6.4.101) 82 'a consonant-initial hi which occurs after hu, or a form ending in a sound denoted by jhal, is replaced with dhi'
- hṛkor anyatarasyām (1.4.53) 123 'a kāraka which serves as the agent of hṛN 'to carry' and DUkṛN 'to do, make' when not used with NiC, is, optionally, termed karman when used with NiC
- hetumati ca (3.1.26) 97 'affix NiC occurs after verbal roots when hetumat 'casual action' is denoted'

- hetuhetumator lin (3.3.156) 185 'affix LIN occurs, optionally, after a verbal root when hetu 'cause' and hetumat 'casual action' are denoted'
- hetau (2.3.23) 160 'a tṛtāyā 'third triplet of sUP' occurs after a nominal stem which denotes hetu 'cause'
- hrasvam laghu (1.4.10) 'a short vowel is termed laghu'
- hrasvanadyāpo nuļ (7.1.54) 128 'augment nUT is introduced to affix  $\bar{a}m$  when the same occurs after an anga which ends in a short vowel, or ends in a form termed  $nad\bar{i}$ , or else, ends in a feminine affix marked with  $\bar{a}P$ '
- hrasvād aṅgāt (8.2.27) 85 'the s which occurs after an aṅga terminating in a short vowel is deleted by LOPA when a sound denoted by jhaL follows'
- hrasvo napuṃsake prātipadikasya (1.2.47) 87 'the final vowel of a neuter nominal stem is replaced with its short counterpart'

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