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PANINI'S THEORY OF SUBSTITUTION AND DERIVATION OF VERBAL FORMS

I. THEORY OF SUBSTITUTION

Linguistic elements, grammatical or phonological, are found to alternate with one another in grammatical constructions. Such elements, though formally different, are equivalent functionally. Environments of their occurrence are mutually exclusive unless these are in free variation (cf. 3194). For example, the elements e; ya; smai and am are all distinct phonological units but functionally these are equivalent as all of these denote 4th vibhakti singular. These occur in their respective environments described in 7113-4 and 7128. A few illustrative examples are: sarit-e « for the river »; devā-ya « for the god »; sarva-smai « for all »; mahy-am « for me », etc. In such a group of alternants one of them, for reasons not made explicit by Pānini, is recognized as sthānī, original, and the rest are treated as its ādeśa, substitutes. Here e (represented lexically as ne) is considered as sthānī. All others are its ādeśa. It is important to note that each of these, including sthānī, has its distinct environments. Similarly at phonological level the nominal form madhu and madhv show alternation between u and v in such expressions as madhu pibati « he drinks honey » and madhv asti « there is some honey ». Here u is considered as $sth\bar{a}n\bar{i}$ and v its ādeśa. Their substitution is not arbitrary. Environments of their occurrence are stated explicity in 6176.

Pāṇini, however, is not always consistent in recognizing structural relationship of ādeśa and sthānī among a group of linguistic elements even though requisite requirements i.e. phonological uniqueness; functional equivalence and exclusiveness of environments of their occurrence are met with. Consider, for instance, the taddhita suffixes an = a; $vu\tilde{n} = aka$; vat = va; $tha\tilde{n} = ika$; van = va; tal = ta; $a\tilde{n} = a$; thak = ika; $ya\tilde{n} = ya$; $cha = \overline{i}ya$; ya; ini = in; traand katyac = katya. Functionally these denote « a collection thereof » (4237-51). Each of these occurs after specific stems. Phonologically these are treated as distinct which fact is denoted by their lexical representations. Thus these constitute a group where substitutional relationship could be recognized. But Pānini does not do that. On the other hand, the vikarana suffix cli is set up as sthānī with alternants such as sic; kṣa; can; an and cin, although it has no environments specific to itself. In fact cli is nothing more than a covering term for these elements (3144-66). It appears Pānini recognizes structural relationship of adesa and sthani only among such entities that felicitate his grammatical description.

Sthānī and ādeśa

Pāṇini does not define formally the terms sthānī and ādeśa. Perhaps he considers these terms as self-explanatory. In any case their connotation is not disputed. However, it is pertinent to inquire what considerations possibly weigh with him to pick up one element rather than the other as sthānī from among a group of linguistic elements bound in structural relationship as described above. The question does not appear so simple. Groups of grammatical entities which show alternation are of miscellaneous types. These differ in their roles in linguistic organization. For example, for $bh\bar{u}$ and as, both meaning « to be », the question may be easy to decide. Both contrast in all environments except before ārdhadhātuka suffixes where only bhū shows up (2452), as defaults there. Its role is taken up by $bh\bar{u}$. Thus as in $sth\bar{a}n\bar{i}$ in whose place $bh\bar{u}$ is substituted. The same consideration may hold good for the group consisting of ad, jagdh and ghas. Here ad is treated as sthānī (2436-2440). It is, however, a different story with the group constituted

of ku; kat; k\(\bar{a}\) and kava (63100-107). No decision with regard to selection of sthānī can be forced here. This group differs significantly from that consisting of $bh\bar{u}$ and as. Here all the members occur in their respective environments. None could be treated as deficient in its distribution. Pānini picks up here ku, perhaps because it has wider range of occurrence. That was not possible in case of as and $bh\bar{u}$. On the contrary one with narrower range has been set up as sthānī there. Treatment of asmad « I » etc. as sthānī is quite intriguing. For purposes of substitution it is split into parts, namely asm; a; ad and d. Each one is replaced by such elements as aha; āva; vaya; mahya; ma; ā, zero etc. in specific environments. There is no parity between these elements and asmad. Obviously here there is no choice but to treat asmad as sthānī (7286-98). It may be said that in general felicity of description and economy in statements are the main considerations in selecting one of the members of a group as sthānī.

We may notice that whatever entity, syntactic, morphological or phonological, is picked up as sthānī, it is assigned to the category of constituents that are considered basic at a particular level of linguistic organization. And substitutes, in turn, derive their raison d'être and structural status from their being replacements of particular entities that have acquired, for being sthānī, a distinct formal identity and definite structural role of their own. $ktv\bar{a} = tv\bar{a}$, for example, belongs to the basic stock of krt suffixes. The entity lyap = ya replacing it, on the other hand, is a non-entity grammatically. It enjoys no inherent status as a structural unit. Only as a substitute of $ktv\bar{a}$, it comes to acquire a place in the grammatical system. Likewise mā, me, nah etc. as substitutes of mām; mahyam; asmākam etc. participate in syntactic constructions (8120-3). So also ru = r belongs no where in phonological system of the language. Through s etc. which it replaces, it is represented in the sound system of the language (8266). In a chain of substitutions, however, an ādeśa may take up the role of sthānī at intermediary levels of derivation. For instance, $\sin \bar{a} = n\bar{a}$, a substitute of $\sin \bar{a}$ (3181), assumes the role of sthānī and is replaced by $\dot{s}\bar{a}nac = \bar{a}na$ or $\delta \bar{a}yac = \bar{a}ya$ (3183-4). So also ru = r, a substitute of s etc., is

substituted by $visarjan\bar{\imath}ya$ (8315) which in turn may act as $sth\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ and be replaced by x or \varnothing (8337).

As alluded to above, the entities $bh\bar{u}$, as, i, y etc. though occurring as $sth\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ and $\bar{a}deśa$, have their respective formal identities and structural roles in the system in their own right. Here substitutional relationship is among equals.

Structural relation between ādeśa and sthānī

Formally an ādeśa and its sthānī are two disparate entities. Structurally, however, these are neither identical nor too distinct. A unique sort of relationship obtains between them. Pānini's description of their relationship is too short and cryptic. He simply observes that an ādeśa is like its sthānī (sthānī-vad ādeśah) (1456). It implies that an adesa gets invested with all the grammatical properties of its sthānī in the environments in which it replaces it. A sthānī may have wide range of functions. Its ādeśa takes up in its behalf only such functions which appertain to specific environments where they change places. Outside of these environments an ādeśa has no locus standi vis-à-vis the sthānī. For instance. $\dot{s}a = a$, a substitute of $\dot{s}ap = a$, functions only before $s\bar{a}rvadh\bar{a}tuka$ suffixes denoting kartā construction after tud-class of verbal stems (3177). Outside these environments, it has no reason to exist. However, there is another class of substitutes, e.g. vac which replaces $br\bar{u}$ « to speak » before $\bar{a}rdhadh\bar{a}tuka$ suffixes (2453). Outside these environments both $br\bar{u}$ and vac have their independent roles. Thus vac and brū are related as ādeśa and sthānī only in the relevant environments. But in case of the other type of entities e.g. lyap etc., these occur in the system only as ādeśa.

There is an important exception to the above relationship between $\bar{a}de\dot{s}a$ and $sth\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$. Pāṇini points out that an $\bar{a}de\dot{s}a$ is not considered equivalent to its $sth\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ in the matter of phonological operations triggered by its $sth\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ ($n\bar{a}nalvidhau$) (1456). There are, nevertheless, exceptions and counter-exceptions to this general observation. These details are not pertinent to our present discussion which is confined to their grammatical roles only. For a clearer

understanding of their relationship, we may better discuss below an example in its relevant details.

Consider replacement of $ktv\bar{a} = tv\bar{a}$ by lyap = ya as described in 7137. It is stated here that in a compound lyap = ya replaces $ktv\bar{a} = v\bar{a}$ if the prior member is an avyaya other than $na\bar{n} = na$. The entity $ktv\bar{a}$ is a krt suffix and occurs after verbal stems in the meaning and environment explained in 3421. Thus adding it to the stem ksip « to throw », we obtain the form $ksip-tv\bar{a}$ « having thrown ». In a compound formation, as stated above, $ktv\bar{a}$ is replaced by lyap. Thus $ksip-tv\bar{a}$ compounded with pra is realized as pra-ksip-ya « having thrown away » by substituting ya in place of $tv\bar{a}$.

Here ya and $tv\bar{a}$ are related as $\bar{a}de\dot{s}a$ and $sth\bar{a}n\bar{t}$. Thus ya is to be treated like $tv\bar{a}$. What it means in terms of structure is that ya, a grammatical non-entity otherwise, acquires the same status as $tv\bar{a}$ by virtue of its being a substitute of $tv\bar{a}$, a krt suffix. It is now treated as if it were a krt suffix. In anticipation of this, Pāṇini invests it with the diacritics l and p which otherwise are attached only to grammatical entities proper. It is recognition of its being admitted to all the privileges that $tv\bar{a}$ is entitled to. Derivatives ending in ya like those of $tv\bar{a}$ are krdanta and thus $pr\bar{a}tipadika$ (1246) and avyaya (1140). These take nominal suffixes as $pr\bar{a}tipadika$ (411) although these are later dropped by luk because of their being avyayas (2482). These are recognized as padas (1414) and thus, are entitled to participate in tat-purusa compound formations (2218-222) and also in other constructions (cf. 3418; 3459 etc.).

Similarity in the behavior of $\bar{a}desa$ and $sth\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$, as pointed out above, extends only to grammatical operations. With regard to their involvement in phonological operations the two are treated as unrelated and disparate entities. For instance, $tv\bar{a}$ as an $\bar{a}rdhadh\bar{a}tuka$ suffix beginning with a consonant of val-class i.e. any consonant other than y, takes initially the augment it=i when it comes after any verbal stem (7235). From has- $tv\bar{a}$ we get has-itva « having laughed » by prefixing the augment i to $tv\bar{a}$. But on the other hand, when has- $itv\bar{a}$ is compounded with vi and $tv\bar{a}$ is replaced by ya, instead of vi-has-iya, the compound form realized is vi-has-ya « having laughed loudly ». Here the $\bar{a}desa$, ya does not in-

herit phonological properties of its $sth\bar{a}n\bar{i}$, $tv\bar{a}$ and is, thus, not entitled to prefixation of the augment i.

The $\bar{a}de\dot{s}a$ may also effect phonological changes specific to it. For example, the augment tuk=t is added finally to a verbal stem ending in a short vowel before lyap=ya (6170). From $\dot{s}ru$ « to listen » we have $\dot{s}ru$ - $tv\bar{a}$ « having heard » but $prati-\dot{s}rut$ -ya « having promised » when ya replaces $tv\bar{a}$ in a compound. Similarly we have smr- $tv\bar{a}$ « having remembered » but anu-smrt-ya « having recollected » with the augment t added finally to smr.

Here we may discuss Pānini's statement 2436 as it has important bearing on substitutional theory. Herein Pānini states that ad « to eat » is replaced by jagdh before ārdhadhātuka suffixes lyap = ya and those beginning with t and having k as it. This includes $ktv\bar{a} = tv\bar{a}$ also. As discussed above lyap and $ktv\bar{a}$ are related as ādeśa and sthānī. The question arises why there is separate mention of lyap when it occurs in the grammatical constructions only as substitute of ktvā. Substitution of ad by jagdh which occurs in any case before ktvā ipso facto secures it before lyap also. Moreover lyap attains the status of ārdhadhātuka suffix only after its substitution in place of ktvā and not before that. And lyap replaces $ktv\bar{a}$ at the stage of derivation when ad has already been replaced by jagdh. Further the environments of occurrence of lyap and ktvā are mutually exclusive. It seems, thus, preposterous to maintain theoretically that an ādeśa can share environments with its stānī as the statement under discussion implies.

 vadha: as by $bh\bar{u}$ etc. (2436 etc.). We notice a significant structural difference between two types of replacements. In case of the former a grammatical entity is substituted by another. The entity hi like jagdh or vadh etc. is not a verbal stem in its own right. The element hi acquires the status of a verbal stem only after its substitution in place of dhā or hā as the case may be. Thus such replacements are confined only to the environments in which these take place and do not extend automatically to those environments where $ktv\bar{a}$ is replaced by lyap. The it augment prefixed to $ktv\bar{a}$ in has-itvā etc. is not carried over to its substitute lyap. Likewise substitution of it = i in place of the final segment in, say, so is not carried over to ya substitute of tvā. Thus we may justifiably have si-tvā « having finished etc. » and ava-sāya « having finished etc.»; hi-tvā and vi-hā-ya « having abandoned »; hi-tvā « having placed » and vi-dhā-ya « having done » etc. Thus there does not seem any conflict between ktvā and lyap with regard to application of relevant operations which to all intents and purposes are phonological in nature.

If the above interpretation is accepted, then, there is no justification to make a separate mention of lyap in 2436. In any case conditioning of a substitution simultaneously by a $sth\bar{a}n\bar{i}$ and its $\bar{a}de\dot{s}a$ is an oddity theoretically.

To sum up: Pāṇini's theory of substitution may be characterized as follows:

- 1. Two or more formally distinct linguistic entities are related structurally if these are functionally equivalent and occur in mutually exclusive environments. One of these is called *sthānī*, original and the rest its *ādeśa*, substitutes.
- 2. Functional identity of an ādeśa with its sthānī in specific environments rules out its substitutional relationship with any other grammatical entity.
- 3. Unconditional and obligatory substitution implies free variation.
- 4. There is complete structural fit (accord) between ādeśa and sthānī. An ādeśa, thus, does not acquire any grammatical property not there in its sthānī.

- 5. An ādeśa is also semantically equivalent to its sthānī. Neither it drops any semantic feature that is there in its sthānī nor does it acquire any additional one non-existent therein.
- 6. A *sthānī* is not employed as an abbreviatory symbol or designatory label for its *ādeśa* and vice-versa.

II. VERBAL FORMS

Verbal forms in the language are identified formally by their endings. These fall into eleven paradigmatic sets, each set containing two varieties distinguished by types of endings. These are called parasmaipada and $\bar{a}tmanepada$. These display distinctions of three persons and three numbers and various tenses and modes. Verbal forms also give us information regarding types of syntactic constructions these participate in. Forms made from a verbal stem may be 99 or 198 depending on the fact whether it is inflected in one pada or both. Below we give 1st person singular denoting active construction from kr « to do » which is inflected in both the padas. Glosses are eschewed.

	parasmaipada	ātmanepada
1.	karomi	kurve
2.	karavāņi	karavai
3.	kuryām	kurvīya
4.	kariṣyāmi	karişye
5.	kartāsmi	karatāhe
6.	kriyāsam	kṛṣīya
7.	cakāra	cakre
8.	akaravam	akurvi
9.	akarişyam	akarişye
10.	akārṣam	akṛṣi
11.	karāmi	karavai

Structure of verbal forms

Verbal forms are transparent in their structure. Main constituents are stems and inflectional suffixes. For instance, a

verbal form like $y\bar{a}ti$ « he goes » may be segmented into $y\bar{a}$, a verbal stem meaning « to go » and ti, an inflectional suffix denoting categories of pada; person, number, tense and voice (syntactic construction). On the other hand, a form like akarisyam « had I done » is analysed into a, kar, i, sya, and m. Here kar is an alternant of the root-stem kr « to do »; m is inflectional suffix; a is an augment prefixed to the stem; sya, a vikarana suffix (thematic element) and i another $\bar{a}gama$. Induction of vikarana suffix sya and augment a is conditioned by inflection suffixes after and before a stem respectively while insertion of i by the vikarana suffix sya.

Formation of verbal forms

In the formation of verbal forms, the first task is to identify basic constituents, verbal stems and inflectional suffixes. Stems are either roots or derivatives. Both types are called *dhātus*. About 2000 roots are listed in an appendix called *dhātupāṭha*. Formation of derivatives from roots and nominal stems is explained in the grammar. There is, thus, no mistaking about what verbal stems mean in Pāṇini.

Identification of inflectional suffixes is not so simple and straightforward. Initially Pāṇini recognizes ten basic suffixes, namely lat; lit; lut; lt; let; lot; lan; lin; lun and ln. Here lin is homophonous and denotes two which are normally distinguished as vidhi and āśir. Thus finally we end up with 11 distinctions. Collectively these may be called lakāras.

These are substituted obligatorily by identical set of 18 elements, namely *tip*, *tas*, *jhi* etc., abbreviated as *tin*. These may further be substituted by their alternants. In the final run the eleven basic suffixes multiply to 198 elements occurring in eleven sets of paradigms of 9 forms each.

The matter does not end here. In this context Panini makes use of another term, namely, l or la. The way it has been described and interpreted traditionally, we are not sure of its precise nature and function in the verbal system. One thing, however, is clear that

it is *lakāra*-suffixes and not *la* that figure in Pāṇini's derivation of verbal forms !.

(b) Next the term occurs in 2369 as la in a compound. It signifies the krt suffixes satr; satr

Here we have a situation where satr etc., on the one hand, are described by Pāṇini as substitutes of lat, lt and lit (32124; 3314; 32106-32107) and, on the other, as denoted by la. Thus la and of the $lak\bar{a}ras$ lat, lt and lit come to be related structurally. This statement is the only direct reference of structural relationship between la and any $lak\bar{a}ra$ -suffixes. Here la, however, designates only krt-suffixes.

(c) Again in 3469 the term occurs as lah. It may be taken as 1st vibhakii singular as krt in 3467. In that case the statement describes that la denotes the syntactic constructions $kart\bar{a}$ and karma occurring after transitive stems and $kart\bar{a}$ and $bh\bar{a}va$ after intransitive. The term la is to be identified with $ti\dot{n}$ which are described by Pāṇini as denoting various synctactic constructions (1313-4; 1378).

The $K\bar{a}sik\bar{a}$, however, takes lah as 1st vibhakti plural from l, interpreted as short-hand term of all the $lak\bar{a}ra$ -suffixes (as it does in 3477 also). Thus according to $K\bar{a}sik\bar{a}$ it is $lak\bar{a}ra$ -suffixes as such which denote distinctions of syntactic constructions.

(d) Once again the term occurs in 3477 which reads *lasya*. There is no ambiguity about the stem which is *la* and the *vibhakti* which is 6th. It simply means « in place of *la* ». The following statement enumerates the elements *tip*, *tas*, *jhi* etc. which are to be substituted in place of *la*.

What does la denote here? Is it a unitary inflectional suffix or a common appellation for the ten suffixes $lat\ lan$ etc.? The $K\bar{a}sik\bar{a}$ takes it as a common designation of all the $lak\bar{a}ras$. Here l is the element common to all of them and a is added for felicity of pronunciation.

From the above it is clear that the term l or la does not have any precise and definite connotation. In traditional interpretation it is used as a common designation for the ten $lak\bar{a}ra$ suffixes in one context and in other contexts as a term to denote tin and also the krt suffixes $\acute{s}atr$ etc. In other words it stands for $sth\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ when used as a name for the $lak\bar{a}ras$ and $\bar{a}de\acute{s}a$ when it denotes tin and krt suffixes. Further it is associated with represen-

^{1. (}a) The term la is introduced first in 1499 which reads lah parasmai-padam. It may be interpreted as 1st vibhakti singular from la or 6th singular from la. The $K\bar{a}sik\bar{a}$ opts for the latter. The crucial question, apart from its vibhakti form, is what it means. According to the $K\bar{a}sik\bar{a}$ it means substitutes of l which is interpreted by it as common appelation of all the $lak\bar{a}ra$ -suffixes. Thus it comes to signify tin listed in 3478 as substitutes of la ($l\bar{a}des\bar{a}h$). The second set of 9 of these as well as the krt suffixes $\bar{a}na$ i.e. $s\bar{a}nac$ substitute of lat and lt and $k\bar{a}nac$, substitute of lit are called $\bar{a}tmanepada$ (14100). By implication the first set, called parasmaipada, includes satr = at, substitute of lat and lt and

However we proceed on the assumption that basic inflectional suffixes recognized by Pāṇini are *lat*, *lan*, *lin* etc.

With the identification of basic constituents, namely stems and inflections, the way is clear to proceed to derive verbal forms. Inflectional suffixes are introduced after stems in the context of semantic notions such as *vartamāna* « present » (32123); *an-adyatana bhavisyat* « non-current future » (3315); *āśir* « benediction » (33173) etc. After adding appropriate suffixes to stems, say *path* « to study » etc., formal structural strings like *paṭh-laṭ*; *paṭh-laṅ*; *paṭh-liṅ* etc. are produced. To complete a derivation, however, further operations involving substitution of inflectional suffixes, insertion of elements called *vikaraṇa* and *āgama* need be carried out. Verbal stems are also replaced by their alternants in certain constructions.

Derivation is thus, not a straight and unidirectional process. Appropriate environments of application of an operation may have to be secured by prior application of another. These operations, within the confines of initial strings, interact variously. Thus no fixed order of their application could be decided upon. Substitution of stems (limited to roots), for instance, is carried out at different stages of derivation in particular cases. The root han is replaced by vadha before the ārdhadhātuka suffixes (2435; 2442). Thus han before lin cannot be replaced unless we have already classified inflectional suffixes into ardhadhatuka and sarvadhatuka types. And such a classification in turn assumes substitution of lakāra-suffixes by tin (cf. 34113-6). Again replacement of han by vadha before lun as stated in 2443-44 can take place only when lun has been replaced by its parasmaipada or ātmanepada substitutes and the vikarana suffix cli introduced before lun is substituted by sic. Replacement of lun by tin substitutes is needed initially to start the process. Similarly environments of replacement of han by ja before hi (6436)

tation of different sets of categories in different contexts. It denotes distinctions of pada, parasmaipada and ātmanepada and those of person and number when it denotes tin (1499-102) (krt suffixes śatr etc. have to be excluded somehow or other from these padas when describing distinctions of person and number). Again as common designation of lakāras it denotes distinctions of syntactic constructions (3469) and various tenses and modes (3477). Thus it involves multiple interpretation and multiple representation of categories.

are secured after the initial string han-lot has passed through several stages.

lakāra and tiņ

Now we may deal with inflectional suffixes and their substitution and examine how far substitutional relationship between *sthānī* and *ādeśa* is upheld at different stages of derivation.

(a) We have stated above how a lakāra suffix is introduced after a verbal stem in the environment of semantic notions that express distinctions of tenses and modes. And in traditional interpretation each lakāra-suffix is replaced by an identical set of 18 suffixes, tin. Substitutional relation between lakāra-suffixes and tin is that of sthānī and ādeśa. In terms of substitutional theory as explained above, environments of occurrence of sthānī and its ādeśa have to be different and mutually exclusive. A sthānī may have one or more adesas. But environments of each one have to be different from all others. And environments of sthānī have to be specific to itself. Above we have referred to the nominal inflectional suffix $\dot{n}e = e$ and its substitutes. All of these including $\dot{n}e$ occur in their respective environments i.e. after different classes of prātipadikas. But here in case of substitution of a lakāra-suffix by tin, there is no mention of any conditioning environments. Substitution is unconditional and at the same time obligatory. A lakāra-suffix is replaced by its substitutes once for ever. No more after its substitution do we hear of the lakāra-suffix in any environment.

Again take, for example, the relationship between, $ktv\bar{a}$ and lyap. Both are related as $sth\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ and $\bar{a}de\dot{s}a$. As such these occur in their respective environments in derivatives. Structural relations between, say, lat and tin is also described as that of $sth\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ and $\bar{a}de\dot{s}a$. But lat does not show up any longer once it is replaced by tin. There are no two sets of environments specific to each of them. In fact both share identical environments. Thus structural relation between them cannot be characterized as that of $sth\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ and $\bar{a}de\dot{s}a$. For such a relationship it is incumbent to have mutually exclusive environments as $ktv\bar{a}$ and lyap have.

Nor can we concede that $lak\bar{a}ra$ -suffixes and tin are in free variation as the krt-suffixes nvul = aka and trc = tr etc. are in the derivates viksep-aka and viksep-tr « one who scatters about » (cf. 31133 etc.).

Our insistence on relating *lakāra*-suffixes and *tin* as *sthānī* and *ādeśa* goes counter to what such relationship entails in terms of 1456. We may have to abandon traditional interpretation and take a second look at the facts.

(b) Further an ādeśa has to be like its sthānī in its grammatical behaviour. The lakāra-suffixes, as alluded to above, denote distinctions of various tenses and modes. Do tin as substitutes of these denote these relations? But Pāṇini nowhere in his grammar accredits tin to denote such distinctions. Moreover how could tin, identical substitutes of all the lakāra-suffixes, be equivalent in their grammatical behaviour to their sthānīs, different from one another?

Further tin elements, on the other hand, denote distinctions of pada, parasmaipada and $\bar{a}tmanepada$; three persons and three numbers (1499-102). These distinctions are not ascribed to the $lak\bar{a}ra$ -suffixes in Pāṇini. How can then an $\bar{a}deśa$ acquire additional distinctions not inherent in its $sth\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$? It is against the very assumptions of substitutional theory.

- (c) By interpreting la in 3477 as a common appellation for lat, $la\dot{n}$ etc. and in 1499 as $ti\dot{n}$ ($l\bar{a}de\dot{s}\bar{a}\dot{h}$), the $K\bar{a}\dot{s}ik\bar{a}$ unwittingly designates $ti\dot{n}$ by $lak\bar{a}ra$ -suffixes. Neither a $sth\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ nor $\bar{a}de\dot{s}a$ can designate one another. The two are always distinct, though functionally similar. The root ad « to eat », for example, does not include its substitute jagdh and ghas or vice versa (2436-7).
- (d) Again in defining sārvadhātuka type of inflectional suffixes the lakāra-suffixes other than liṭ and lin denoting « benediction » are subsumed under tin (34113). But tin as substitute of all the lakāras is not warranted to denote its sthānī. Further use of sārvadhātuka in 3167-8 is made to denote their sthānī laṭ, lan, loṭ and lin (vidhi) only.
- (e) Inflectional suffixes constitute as one of the environments conditioning insertion of *vikaraṇa* and *āgama* elements. Pāṇini's use of *!t, !n, lun* etc. in this context is simply in lieu of *tin*, their com-

mon substitutes. The terms $\bar{a}tmanepada$ (3154); parasmaipada (3155; 34103); 1st person (3492); $s\bar{a}rvadh\bar{a}tuka$ (3167) etc. obviously refer to $ti\dot{n}$. For example, $lu\dot{n}$ $\bar{a}tmanepada$ can refer to ta, $\bar{a}t\bar{a}m$, ta etc. only. Particular $ti\dot{n}$ suffixes are identified by either naming them e.g. ta in 3160 etc. or by describing their phonological features e.g. beginning with t or th (34107). Narrower range of scope of these suffixes is denoted by qualifying these suitably, e.g. $lu\dot{n}$ denoting $kart\bar{a}$ (3148); $s\bar{a}rvdh\bar{a}tuka$ denoting $kart\bar{a}$ or karma and $bh\bar{a}va$ or $kart\bar{a}$ (3167-8); ta denoting $kart\bar{a}$ (3160); $karmakart\bar{a}$ (3162) or karma and $bh\bar{a}va$ (3166). Thus use of $lak\bar{a}ras$ and $ti\dot{n}$ in this context do not reflect their substitutional relationship. Rather $lak\bar{a}ras$ are used here as short-hand name for their substitutes, $ti\dot{n}$.

A close scrutiny of Pāṇini's statements here indicates that his use of $lak\bar{a}ras$ or their substitutes tin types, is a distinction without any structural implications 2 .

^{2.} However structurally an anomalous situation is created by Pāṇini's statements describing occurrence of both $s\bar{s}yut$ and sut before $\bar{a}tmanepada$ substitutes of $li\dot{n}$ beginning with t or th. In this context the commentators interpret $lak\bar{a}ra$ and $ti\dot{n}$ as two distinct grammatical entities. Let us study the facts.

In 34102 Pāṇini states that $s\bar{s}yut = s\bar{s}y$ is prefixed to $\bar{a}tmanepada$ substitutes of $li\dot{n}$ while according to 34107 sut comes before those $\bar{a}tmanepada$ substitutes of $li\dot{n}$ that begin with t or th. His first statement i.e. 34102 is a more generalized statement. It includes those $\bar{a}tmanapeda$ substitutes of $li\dot{n}$ which begin with t or th. The statement 34107 is an exception to the above. It relates only to those suffixes which begin with t or th.

The statements as these stand have structural implications that create difficulties in the way of formation of correct forms. A specific statement blocks application of a general statement. Moreover in case of conflict a later statement overrides application of earlier statement (142). Thus insertion of $s\bar{s}yut$ before substitution of lin beginning with t or th is blocked.

Pāṇini leaves things at that. The Kāśikā commenting on 34107 attempts to reconcile these two statements by pointing out that the augment sīyuṭ is prefixed to lin while suṭ to those ātmanepada substitutes of lin that have t or th initially. Thus the two rules have their respective scopes and the question of conflict does not arise (lin-sambandhinos takāra-thakārayoḥ suḍāgamo bhavati. takāra-thakārāv āgaminau, lin tad-viśeṣaṇam. sīyuṭas tu lin evāgamī. tena bhinna-viṣayatvāt suṭā bādhanam na bhavati).

The explanation offered by the $K\bar{a}sik\bar{a}$ is not warranted by facts. The $\bar{a}tmanepada$ substitutes of lin implied in 34102 cannot be conceived of apart from ta, $\bar{a}t\bar{a}m$, jha etc. And these do include those beginning with t or th.

Explication of variants of tin

We notice that in the derivation of verbal forms tin elements, which replace $lak\bar{a}ra$ -suffixes obligatorily and unconditionally, are substituted in their turn by various alternants. For instance, Pāṇini in $er\ uh$ (3486) states that i occurring in tin elements that replace lot, is substituted by u. The statement identifies which i is to be substituted by u. It, however, does not tell us anything about the environments under which substitution takes place. The same i occurs in a tin that replaces a $lak\bar{a}ra$ -suffix having n as it and belongs to the parasmaipada set. Here it is dropped obligatorily (3499). In substitutional process mention of environments of substitution, thus, becomes very crucial. The verbal stem han « to kill » is replaced by vadha. Environments of its replacement are described explicitly in 2442. Likewise environments of replacement of hi (variant of sip) by dhi are stated in 64101.

To consider lot as sufficient environment under which substitution of i by u takes place is, to say the least, to overlook the structural relation between lit and, say, ti or jhi (where i occurs). We may remind ourselves that these are related as $sth\bar{a}n\bar{i}$ and $\bar{a}de\dot{s}a$. To account for substitution of an $\bar{a}de\dot{s}a$ in terms of its $sth\bar{a}n\bar{i}$ is negation of their substitutional relationship. A conditioning environment

To postulate $li\dot{n}$ and its $\bar{a}tmanepada$ substitutes in the context as two distinct entities is, thus, not justified. In fact this is an after-thought on the part of the $K\bar{a}\dot{s}ik\bar{a}$. Commenting on 34102 it observes that $s\bar{s}yut$ is prefixed to the substitutes of $li\dot{n}$ ($li\dot{n}$ - $\bar{a}des\bar{a}n\bar{a}m$ $s\bar{s}yud$ - $\bar{a}gamo$ bhavati). The augment $s\bar{s}yut$ does not come before $li\dot{n}$ but rather it comes before its $\bar{a}tmanepada$ substitutes. How do then we explain the formation, for example, of the verbal form $laps\bar{s}sta$ « may he obtain » from the root labh « to obtain » and ta, $\bar{a}tmanepada$ third person singular substitute of $li\dot{n}$?

A plausible alternative explanation may be considered here. The $\bar{a}tmanepada\ lin$ -substitutes having t or th initially have t wo roles at t wo different levels of structure. At morphological level these behave as members of $\bar{a}tmanepada$ set of suffixes. In this role these condition induction of siyut. At phonological level the segments t or th initially in the substitutes condition induction of sut. Thus introduction of t wo augments in seemingly identical environments remains no longer a puzzle if we recognize the conditioning element functioning in t wo roles at t wo different levels of structure. It remains, however, an enigma if we insist on recognizing them related simply as $sth\bar{a}n\bar{t}$ and $\bar{a}desa$.

ronment has to be different from both, the $sth\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ and its $\bar{a}de\dot{s}a$. Moreover, $sth\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ and $\bar{a}de\dot{s}a$ by definition do not co-exist in a construction. As soon as a $sth\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ is replaced by its $\bar{a}de\dot{s}a$, it is no longer available there any more. Thus in the statements describing alternations of $ti\dot{n}$, there is conspicuous absence of mention of any environments under which substitution is supposed to take place. To illustrate Pāṇini's process of derivation as understood traditionally, we may discuss below in detail how a form like pacasva « (you) cook for yourself » is formed.

The derivative process takes it start with the selection of the verbal stem *pac* « to cook » and introduction of the suffix *lot* after it in the meaning « to direct, invite etc. » (33162). We thus have the initial string *pac-lot*.

Next the suffix *lot* is substituted by one of the 18 suffixes listed in 3478. Which one? The choice rests with the speaker. In the present case $th\bar{a}s$ is selected since the speaker addresses the person standing before him, second person singular (14101-2) and wants fruit of action to accrue to him (1372).

It may be pointed out that $th\bar{a}s$ is the only choice for second person singular in $\bar{a}tmanepada$ set for any of the $lak\bar{a}ra$ -suffixes including lot. In fact at this stage of derivation all the $lak\bar{a}ra$ -suffixes lat, lan etc. are substituted by an identical element for a particular person and number in a set. Tense-mode distinctions ascribed to lat, lan, lot etc. are not reflected in their substitutes formally. The string pac- $th\bar{a}s$, thus, may be interpreted to denote any of the various distinctions of tense and mode. However, by considering $th\bar{a}s$ as substitute of a particular suffix, it is assumed that it denotes that particular distinction. The string in itself is neutral to representation of any specific distinction.

To proceed further in the derivation, we need know what syntactic construction, $kart\bar{a}$, karma, $bh\bar{a}va$ or $karma-kart\bar{a}$, it denotes and which suffix type, $s\bar{a}rvadh\bar{a}tuka$ or $\bar{a}rdhadh\bar{a}tuka$, it belongs to. There is no inherent feature in $th\bar{a}s$ that could decide the issue for us. It is $\bar{a}rdhadh\bar{a}tuka$ if it is a substitute of lit or lin denoting benediction ($\bar{a}s\bar{i}r$) (34115-16). Otherwise it is $s\bar{a}rva-dh\bar{a}tuka$ (34113). In the present context $th\bar{a}s$ is $s\bar{a}rvadh\bar{a}tuka$ as it replaces lot. As to representation of syntactic constructions by in-

flectional suffixes, nature of verbal stems is also taken into consideration. All stems are capable of participating in $kart\bar{a}$ construction. However, only transitive and intransitive stems participate in karma and $bh\bar{a}va$ constructions respectively (3469). And only particular type of transitive stems alone participate in $karma-kart\bar{a}$ construction. And constructions are denoted by inflectional suffixes. The set of suffixes called $\bar{a}tmanepada$ alone denote karma, $bh\bar{a}va$ and $karma-kart\bar{a}$ (1313; 3187). Within these limitations the speaker may opt for one of these. The stem pac is transitive. It qualifies to denote $kart\bar{a}$, karma and $karma-kart\bar{a}$. We proceed on the assumption that the speaker opts for $kart\bar{a}$.

Once these issues are cleared, the verbal stem is entitled to have the thematic element $\dot{s}ap=a$ after it before $th\bar{a}s$, a $s\bar{a}rvadh\bar{a}tuka$ suffix denoting $kart\bar{a}$ (3168). With the addition of the thematic element the string $pac-th\bar{a}s$ changes to $pac-a-th\bar{a}s$.

Still there are no formal features that mark out the string $pac-a-th\bar{a}s$ as denoting $e \times c \cdot l \cdot u \cdot s \cdot v \cdot e \cdot l \cdot y$ « direction etc. ». It could as well denote « present » if $th\bar{a}s$ is considered a substitute of lat.

Although *thās* may replace any and every *lakāra* suffix in *ātma-nepada* 2nd person singular, but when it is substituted for *laṭ*, *liṭ*, *luṭ*, *lṭ*, *leṭ* and *loṭ*, it is replaced by *se* (3480). We have, thus, *pac-a-se* in place of *pac-a-thās*.

The process of substitution continues. An e preceded by s, if it belongs somewhere in the line of substitutions of lot, is replaced by va (3491). Thus replacing e by va, we obtain pac-a-sva. The process of substitution stops here. It is the end of our journey. We have obtained the desired form.

We may pause here and reflect. Derivative process, as explained above, involves successive substitutions of inflectional suffixes. The basic suffix *lot*, in the example under discussion, is replaced by *thās* which in turn is replaced by *se* and *e* of *se* by *va*.

In the process of substitution at any level of linguistic organization three elements are involved, namely $sth\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$, the element which is to be replaced; $\bar{a}de\dot{s}a$, the element that replaces $sth\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ and linguistic or non-linguistic environments under which substitution takes place. Thus conditioning environments have to be apart from $sth\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ and $\bar{a}de\dot{s}a$. Nor $sth\bar{a}n\bar{\imath}$ or its $\bar{a}de\dot{s}a$ by nature of their struc-

tural relationship could act conditioning factors. The suffix lot, thus, cannot serve as conditioning factor of its substitute or their substitutes further down in the line. As Pānini's statements mention only sthānī and ādeśa, conditioning factors are conspicuously wanting therein. Substitution at every stage of derivation seems to be obligatory and context-free. Thus in the absence of any structural constraints on substitutional operations, one is not sure how to proceed and where to stop. You cry halt only when you come to have a form that matches with one that is found in actual language. The series of substitutions in the above derivation could be truncated a step earlier at pac-a-se if we intended to produce a form denoting « present ». In that case se is considered a substitute of thās that replaces lat instead of lot. Substitutions are, thus, manipulated obviously with the full knowledge of forms to be produced. Grammatical statements purported to produce these forms appear simply crude and unprincipled devices providing no structural insight into their formation. The grammatical royal path for verbal formation is designed as if to bend, provide loops, branch off or terminate as it suits its wayfarer. There are no traffic controls. Pāṇini seems to be solely intent on arriving at the destination, already known well to him, by the shortest route. Generalized statements in this regard are seemingly unreal and illusory. These run palpably counter to his own theory of substitution.

III. ANOTHER LOOK

Above we have described formation of verbal forms according to traditional interpretation of Pāṇini. We have pointed out there how structural relations between constituents and their substitutes are vitiated variously in this interpretation. One gets an impression that Pāṇini is concerned more with the pragmatics of the system he builds up rather than with its theoretical consistency and finesse. Pāṇini could have never intended to create a structural chaos. We need have another look at the facts given in Pāṇini.

The system Pāṇini builds up to explicate structure and formation of verbal forms is obviously based on linguistic data and its analysis. Verbal forms in the language are identifiable in terms of

their endings. On the basis of their functions these fall into eleven paradigms. Forms in each paradigm are sorted out into two varieties keeping in view their inflectional endings. In each paradigm there are two sets of nine forms each denoting distinctions of three persons and three numbers. Each paradigm as a whole expresses distinction of some tense or mode.

Formally these forms are analysable into verbal stems; inflectional suffixes and the elements called *vikaraṇa*, thematic elements and *āgama*, augments. Of these stems and inflectional suffixes are considered basic and, thus, form nucleus of derivation of a form. The *vikaraṇa* and *āgama* may occur in a form. Their occurrence is conditioned by either of the basic constituents.

It is suggested that the terms lat, lan, lt etc. in Pāṇini are names of various paradigms and inflectional suffixes occurring therein as well. The forms apathat, $apathat\bar{a}m$, apathan etc. and avartata, $avartet\bar{a}m$, avartanta etc. constitute two sets for the paradigm called lan denoting « non-current past » (3211). The term lan also stands for the sets of inflectional suffixes, namely t, $t\bar{a}m$, an etc. and ta, $\bar{a}t\bar{a}m$, anta etc.

Even in other contexts a $lak\bar{a}ra$ is used as a designation for its substitutes as realized in the final run. For instance, in 215 he uses the expression lit apit. The expression does not apply directly to lit which is neither pit nor apit. Obviously it stands here for its parasmaipada substitutes excluding those for tip, sip and mip which have a p as it. These are enumerated in 3482.

Now to account for occurrence of vikaraṇa or āgama elements etc. Pāṇini's statements are interpreted accordingly. For example, the statement 3133 is interpreted to state that vikaraṇa sya comes after verbal stems in the paradigms called lt and ln before all suffixes denoted by them. A vikaraṇa inserted before suffixes of a particular variety or some specific suffixes denoting any particular syntactic construction, is identified suitably. Examples are: the vikaraṇa can occurs after specific group of stems in the paradigm lun when these suffixes denote kartā construction (here suffixes of both the varieties are meant) (3148); an comes after another group of stems before parasmaipada set of suffixes denoting kartā in the same paradigm (3155); cin comes before the suffix ta, ātmanepada

3rd person singular denoting different constructions after different groups of stems in the paradigm *lun* (3160-66); *yak* comes before *sārvadhātuka* type of suffixes i.e. in paradigms *lat*; *lan*, *lot* and *lin* (*vidhi*) when these denote *karma* and *bhāva* constructions (3167) etc.

Similarly in explicating occurrence of $\bar{a}gamas$ the term let, $li\dot{n}$ etc. are designations of paradigms and suffixes found therein. The augment at or $\bar{a}t$ occurs initially with the suffixes of both the varieties in the paradigm let (3494); at is prefixed to the 1st person suffixes of both the varieties in the paradigm lot (3492); $y\bar{a}sut$ prefixed to parasmaipada suffixes in the paradigm $li\dot{n}$ (both vidhi and $\bar{a}sir$) (34103); sut is attached initially to suffixes of both varieties beginning with t or th in the paradigm $li\dot{n}$ (34107) etc. (See Footnote 2 also).

A look at paradigms reveals that quite a few of inflectional suffixes are shared by some of these either in toto or partially. For example, suffixes in the paradigms lat and ln are common. And so are in lan and ln and in both varieties of lin. The parasmaipada suffixes $t\bar{a}m$, 3rd person dual; tan, 2nd person singular; ta, 2nd person plural and $\bar{a}m$, 1st person singular are common in paradigms ending in n i.e. lan; ln; lin and lun (34101). Some of the suffixes in paradigms in lan and lot are shared (3485). In his statements Pāṇini d o e s take notice of such suffixes which are shared by any of these paradigms.

Pāṇini realizes structural significance of this fact. He sees a unique opportunity of achieving generalizations in his statements describing verbal forms. The vast variety of inflectional suffixes (198 distinctions in all) are collapsed just into 18, 9 for each *pada*. Now it remains for him to demonstrate that these 198 distinctions are nothing but grammatical variants of these 18 basic generalized elements occurring in well-defined environments.

The 18 suffixes i.e. tip, tas, jhi etc., listed in 3478, are morphological units at theoretical level. These are common to all paradigms where these are replaced by their variants. These denote categories of pada; person, number and syntactic constructions, common to all paradigms. However, within a paradigm a particular variant may denote more than one syntactic construction. Such a

representation (which may look an oddity) is a fact of usage. For example, in the paradigm *lun*, the *ātmanepada* 3rd person singular variant *ta* denotes the categories of *kartā* and *karma-kartā* after particular stems and those of *karma* and *bhāva* after all stems (3160-66). There is nothing to be surprised at. Linguistic structures are not logical syllogisms.

Pāṇini needs a term, a label to signify these entities. He employs the expression la (with a) for this purpose. Thus la is a n a m e, a designatory label for tin suffixes in Pāṇini. It is not an inflectional suffix in its own right nor a label common for all lakāras. Its use is confined only to few contexts where either he refers to these suffixes or is to describe features relating to them (cf. 1499; 3469; 2369 and 3477). Pāṇini's use of 6th vibhakti with 1a in 3477 may be interpreted as « in place of la » in conformity with the meaning of 6th vibhakti as given in 1149 (sasthī sthāneyogā). However its obligatory and unconditional replacement by tip, tas, jhi etc. indicates that it is synonymous with these elements. There are obvious difficulties for treating it as a unitary suffix or as a common designation for lakāras. We have already touched upon this aspect of the problem. We have also pointed out that in 2369 it is used to denote certain krt suffixes which are either variants of tin occurring in particular paradigms or such krt suffixes which are treated as equivalent to such variants in these paradigms.

Formal environments conditioning occurrence of variants of tin are provided by various paradigms designated as lat, lan etc. For instance, the final syllable (tī) of ātmanepada suffixes is replaced by e in paradigms having t as it i.e. lat, lit, lut; lt and lot (3479). Thus ta changes to te; ātām to āte etc. by replacing the last syllables a; ām etc. by e. The ātmanepada 3rd person plural suffix jha is substituted by ran in the paradigm lin (34105). All the parasmaipada suffixes in lit-paradigm are replaced by nal, atus, us etc. (3482). A variant thus obtained in a paradigm may be replaced again in specific environments. For instance, the ātmanepada 1st person suffixes i; vahi and mahi changing to e; vahe and mahe respectively by 3479 change again to ai; vahai and mahai. Here e of 1st person in the paradigm lot changes to ai (3493).

It may be pointed out that inflectional suffixes may be sub-

stituted by their variants in some other environments also. For example, the suffix hi obtained by replacing si in the paradigm lot (3487) is replaced by dhi when it occurs after the stem hu « to sacrifice » or after a stem ending in a consonant of jhal-class (64101), e.g. chind-hi becomes chind-dhi « you cut ». Again hi is dropped after a stem ending in a (64105), e.g. path-a-hi goes to patha « (you) study ».

To conclude: Organization of derivational process of verbal forms is conceived by Pāṇini at three levels. At the highest level these are looked upon as constituted of stem and inflection, two abstract notions. These are respectively called $dh\bar{a}tu$ and la by him. The structure is, thus, represented as $dh\bar{a}tu$ plus la, abstract and generalized (3191; 3477).

As he proceeds further, dhātus are specified as roots and derivates (131; 3132) and la as tip, tas jhi etc. (3478). These are divided into two classes of nine each, called respectively parasmaipada and ātmanepada (1499-100). The suffixes denote the grammatical categories of person, number and voice, common to all verbal forms. Although the parasmaipada and ātmanepada suffixes are identical with the endings of the paradigmatic sets called lat and lan respectively, but Pāṇini does not treat these as such. At this level these are considered generalized abstract morphological elements for all paradigms.

Here $dh\bar{a}tu$ may be replaced by any root or derivative and la by one of the suffixes. Structures like path plus ti are obtained by substituting path « to recite; study » for $dh\bar{a}tu$ and ti for la.

Now structures like path-ti form basis of derivation of forms that are found in real language and show tense - mode distinctions which are eleven. These are designated as lat, lan, lit etc. When associated with any of these paradigms, these structures are subjected to grammatical and phonological operations peculiar to each paradigm. In other words lat, lan etc. serve as conditioning factors that trigger these operations. For instance, when path-ti is considered to denote lit, the suffix ti changes to nal = a (3482); the stem is reduplicated (618) and so on. Finally is produced the form pa-path-a meaning « he studied and the event was not witnessed by the speaker ». Associated with lan, on the other hand, the same

structure yields the form *apath-at* « he studied sometime in the past excluding the current day », after application of appropriate operations.

In the three tier process of derivation, Pāṇini starts with an abstract structure, then passes on to a semi-abstract one and finally ends up producing forms found in actual use in the language.

List of sūtras referred to in the paper

1140	ktvä-tosun-kasunaḥ
1246	kṛt-taddhita-samāsāśca
1313	bhāvakarmaṇoḥ
1372	svarita-ñitah kartrabhiprāye kriyāphale
1378	śeṣāt kartari parasmaipadam
1414	sup-tinantam padam
1499	laḥ parasmaipadam
14100	tanānāvātmanepadam
14101	tinas trīņi trīņi prathamamadhyamottamāḥ
14102	tānyaikavacana-dvivacana-bahuvacanānyekaśah
2218	ku-gati-prādayah
2222	ktvā ca
2369	na lokāvyaya-niṣṭhā-khalartha-tṛṇām
2435	ārdhadhātuke
2436	ado jagdhir lyapti kiti
2437	lun sanor ghas!
2442	hano vadha lini
2443	luni ca
2444	ātmanepadeṣvanyatarasyām
2452	aster bhūḥ
2453	bruvo vacih
2482	avyayād āpsupah
3143	cli luni
3144	cleh sic
3160	cin te padah
3162	acah karmakartari
3166	ciņ bhāvakarmaņoḥ
3167	sārvadhātuke yak

3168	kartari śap
3177	tudādibhyah śaḥ
3181	kryādibhyaḥ śnā
3183	halaḥ śnaḥ śānajjhau
3184	chandasi śāyajapi
3194	vā asarūpo astriyām
31133	ṇvul-tṛcau
32123	vartamāne laṭ
32124	laṭaḥ śatṛśānacāv aprathamāsamānādhikarane
3314	ļṭaḥ sadvā
3315	anadyatane lut
33162	loṭ ca
33173	āśiṣi lin-loṭau
3418	alam-khalvoh pratisedhayoh prācām ktvā
3421	samāna kartṛkayoḥ pūrvakāle
3459	avyaye ayathābhipretākhyāne krñah ktvā-namulau
3467	kartari krt
3469	lah karmani ca bhāve cākarmakebhyah
3477	lasya
3478	tip-tas-jhi-sip-thas-tha-min-vas-mas-tātām-jha-
	thāsāthām-dhvam-id-vahi-mahin
3479	țita ātmanepadānām țer e
3480	thāsas se
3482	parasmaipadānām nal-atus-us-thal-athus-a-ṇal-va-māḥ
3485	loto lanvat
3486	eruh
3487	ser hyapicca
3491	savābhyām vāmau
3492	ād uttamasya picca
3499	nityam nitah
34101	tas-thas-tha-mipāṁ tāntantāmaḥ
34102	linah sīyut
34103	yāsut parasmaipadeṣūdātto nicca
34107	sut tithoh
34113	tin-sit sārvadhātukanı
34114	ārdhdhātukam sesah
34115	lit ca
0.110	

34116 lin āśiṣi 411 nyāp prātipadikāt 4237 tasya samūhaḥ 4238 bhikṣādibhyo aṇ 4239 gotrokṣoṣṭrorabhra-rāja-rājanya-rājaputra-vatsa- manuṣyājād vuñ 4240 kedārād yañ ca 4241 ṭhañ kavacinaśca 4242 brāhmaṇa-māṇava-vāḍavād yan 4243 grām-jana-bandhubhyas tal 4244 anudāttāder añ 4245 khaṇḍikādibhyaś ca 4246 caraṇebhyo dharmavat 4247 acitta-hasti-dhenoṣ ṭhak 4248 keśāśvābhyām yañchāv anyatarasyām 4249 pāśādibhyo yaḥ 4250 khala-go-rathāt 4251 ini-tra-kaṭyacaś ca 6170 hrasvasya piti kṛti tuk 6176 iko yaṇ aci 63100 koḥ kat tatpuruṣe aci 63101 ratha-vadayoś ca 63102 tṛṇe ca jātau 63103 kā pathyakṣayoḥ 63104 ṭṣadarthe 63105 vibhāṣā puruṣe 63106 kavaṁ coṣṇe 63107 pathi ca chandasi 6435 śā hau 6436 hanter jaḥ 64101 hu-jhalbhyo her dhiḥ 7113 ner yaḥ 7114 sarvanāmnaḥ smai 7128 ne prathamayor am 7137 samāse anañpūrve ktvo lyap 7235 ārdhadhātukasyeḍ valādeḥ 7286 yuṣmadasmador anādeśe			
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4244 anudāttāder añ 4245 khandikādibhyas ca 4246 caranebhyo dharmavat 4247 acitta-hasti-dhenos thak 4248 kesāsvābhyām yanchāv anyatarasyām 4249 pāsādibhyo yaḥ 4250 khala-go-rathāt 4251 ini-tra-katyacas ca 6170 hrasvasya piti kṛti tuk 6176 iko yaṇ aci 63100 koḥ kat tatpuruṣe aci 63101 ratha-vadayos ca 63102 tṛṇe ca jātau 63103 kā pathyakṣayoḥ 63104 īṣadarthe 63105 vibhāṣā puruṣe 63106 kavam coṣṇe 63107 pathi ca chandasi 6435 śā hau 6436 hanter jaḥ 64101 hu-jhalbhyo her dhiḥ 7113 ner yaḥ 7114 sarvanāmnaḥ smai 7128 ne prathamayor am 7137 samāse anañpūrve ktvo lyap 7235 ārdhadhātukasyeḍ valādeḥ	4242	· · ·	
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4248 keśāśvābhyām yañchāv anyatarasyām 4249 pāśādibhyo yaḥ 4250 khala-go-rathāt 4251 ini-tra-kaṭyacaś ca 6170 hrasvasya piti kṛti tuk 6176 iko yaṇ aci 63100 koḥ kat tatpuruṣe aci 63101 ratha-vadayoś ca 63102 tṛṇe ca jātau 63103 kā pathyakṣayoḥ 63104 īṣadarthe 63105 vibhāṣā puruṣe 63106 kavam coṣṇe 63107 pathi ca chandasi 6435 śā hau 6436 hanter jaḥ 64101 hu-jhalbhyo her dhiḥ 7113 ner yaḥ 7114 sarvanāmnaḥ smai 7128 ne prathamayor am 7137 samāse anañpūrve ktvo lyap 7235 ārdhadhātukasyeḍ valādeḥ	4246	· ·	
4249 pāśādibhyo yaḥ 4250 khala-go-rathāt 4251 ini-tra-kaṭyacaś ca 6170 hrasvasya piti kṛti tuk 6176 iko yaṇ aci 63100 koḥ kat tatpuruṣe aci 63101 ratha-vadayoś ca 63102 tṛṇe ca jātau 63103 kā pathyakṣayoḥ 63104 īṣadarthe 63105 vibhāṣā puruṣe 63106 kavaṁ coṣṇe 63107 pathi ca chandasi 6435 śā hau 6436 hanter jaḥ 64101 hu-jhalbhyo her dhiḥ 7113 ṅer yaḥ 7114 sarvanāmnaḥ smai 7128 ṅe prathamayor am 7137 samāse anañpūrve ktvo lyap 7235 ārdhadhātukasyeḍ valādeḥ	4247		
4250 khala-go-rathāt 4251 ini-tra-kaṭyacaś ca 6170 hrasvasya piti kṛti tuk 6176 iko yaṇ aci 63100 koḥ kat tatpuruṣe aci 63101 ratha-vadayoś ca 63102 tṛṇe ca jātau 63103 kā pathyakṣayoḥ 63104 tṣadarthe 63105 vibhāṣā puruṣe 63106 kavam coṣṇe 63107 pathi ca chandasi 6435 śā hau 6436 hanter jaḥ 64101 hu-jhalbhyo her dhiḥ 7113 ner yaḥ 7114 sarvanāmnaḥ smai 7128 ne prathamayor am 7137 samāse anañpūrve ktvo lyap 7235 ārdhadhātukasyeḍ valādeḥ	4248	• •	
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6176 iko yan aci 63100 koh kat tatpuruṣe aci 63101 ratha-vadayoś ca 63102 tṛṇe ca jātau 63103 kā pathyakṣayoḥ 63104 tṣadarthe 63105 vibhāṣā puruṣe 63106 kavaṁ coṣṇe 63107 pathi ca chandasi 6435 śā hau 6436 hanter jaḥ 64101 hu-jhalbhyo her dhiḥ 7113 ṅer yaḥ 7114 sarvanāmnaḥ smai 7128 ṅe prathamayor am 7137 samāse anañpūrve ktvo lyap 7235 ārdhadhātukasyeḍ valādeḥ	4251	•••	
63100 koḥ kat tatpuruṣe aci 63101 ratha-vadayoś ca 63102 tṛṇe ca jātau 63103 kā pathyakṣayoḥ 63104 tṣadarthe 63105 vibhāṣā puruṣe 63106 kavam coṣṇe 63107 pathi ca chandasi 6435 śā hau 6436 hanter jaḥ 64101 hu-jhalbhyo her dhiḥ 7113 ner yaḥ 7114 sarvanāmnaḥ smai 7128 ne prathamayor am 7137 samāse anañpūrve ktvo lyap 7235 ārdhadhātukasyeḍ valādeḥ	6170		
63101 ratha-vadayoś ca 63102 tṛṇe ca jātau 63103 kā pathyakṣayoḥ 63104 īṣadarthe 63105 vibhāṣā puruṣe 63106 kavam coṣṇe 63107 pathi ca chandasi 6435 śā hau 6436 hanter jaḥ 64101 hu-jhalbhyo her dhiḥ 7113 ṅer yaḥ 7114 sarvanāmnaḥ smai 7128 ṅe prathamayor am 7137 samāse anañpūrve ktvo lyap 7235 ārdhadhātukasyeḍ valādeḥ	6176	· •	
63102 tṛṇe ca jātau 63103 kā pathyakṣayoḥ 63104 īṣadarthe 63105 vibhāṣā puruṣe 63106 kavaṁ coṣṇe 63107 pathi ca chandasi 6435 śā hau 6436 hanter jaḥ 64101 hu-jhalbhyo her dhiḥ 7113 ṅer yaḥ 7114 sarvanāmnaḥ smai 7128 ṅe prathamayor am 7137 samāse anañpūrve ktvo lyap 7235 ārdhadhātukasyeḍ valādeḥ	63100	•	
63103 kā pathyakṣayoḥ 63104 īṣadarthe 63105 vibhāṣā puruṣe 63106 kavam coṣṇe 63107 pathi ca chandasi 6435 śā hau 6436 hanter jaḥ 64101 hu-jhalbhyo her dhiḥ 7113 ṅer yaḥ 7114 sarvanāmnaḥ smai 7128 ṅe prathamayor am 7137 samāse anañpūrve ktvo lyap 7235 ārdhadhātukasyeḍ valādeḥ	63101		
63104	63102	tṛṇe ca jātau	
63105 vibhāṣā puruṣe 63106 kavam coṣṇe 63107 pathi ca chandasi 6435 śā hau 6436 hanter jaḥ 64101 hu-jhalbhyo her dhiḥ 7113 ner yaḥ 7114 sarvanāmnaḥ smai 7128 ne prathamayor am 7137 samāse anañpūrve ktvo lyap 7235 ārdhadhātukasyeḍ valādeḥ	63103		
63106 kavam coṣṇe 63107 pathi ca chandasi 6435 śā hau 6436 hanter jaḥ 64101 hu-jhalbhyo her dhiḥ 7113 ṅer yaḥ 7114 sarvanāmnaḥ smai 7128 ṅe prathamayor am 7137 samāse anañpūrve ktvo lyap 7235 ārdhadhātukasyeḍ valādeḥ	63104	īṣadarthe	
63107 pathi ca chandasi 6435 śā hau 6436 hanter jaḥ 64101 hu-jhalbhyo her dhiḥ 7113 ner yaḥ 7114 sarvanāmnaḥ smai 7128 ne prathamayor am 7137 samāse anañpūrve ktvo lyap 7235 ārdhadhātukasyeḍ valādeḥ	63105	vibhāṣā puruṣe	
6435	63106	kavam coșne	
hanter jaḥ hu-jhalbhyo her dhiḥ hu-jhalbhyo her dhiḥ hi-jhalbhyo her dhiḥ her yaḥ sarvanāmnaḥ smai ne prathamayor am samāse anañpūrve ktvo lyap ardhadhātukasyeḍ valādeḥ	63107	pathi ca chandasi	
64101 hu-jhalbhyo her dhiḥ 7113 ner yaḥ 7114 sarvanāmnaḥ smai 7128 ne prathamayor am 7137 samāse anañpūrve ktvo lyap 7235 ārdhadhātukasyeḍ valādeḥ	6435	śā hau	
 7113 ner yaḥ 7114 sarvanāmnaḥ smai 7128 ne prathamayor am 7137 samāse anañpūrve ktvo lyap 7235 ārdhadhātukasyeḍ valādeḥ 	6436	hanter jaḥ	
7114 sarvanāmnaḥ smai 7128 ne prathamayor am 7137 samāse anañpūrve ktvo lyap 7235 ārdhadhātukasyed valādeḥ	64101	hu-jhalbhyo her dhiḥ	
 7128 ne prathamayor am 7137 samāse anañpūrve ktvo lyap 7235 ārdhadhātukasyed valādeḥ 	7113	ner yah	
 7128 ne prathamayor am 7137 samāse anañpūrve ktvo lyap 7235 ārdhadhātukasyed valādeḥ 	7114	sarvanāmnah smai	
7137 samāse anañpūrve ktvo lyap 7235 ārdhadhātukasyed valādeḥ	7128	•	
7235 ārdhadhātukasyed valādeḥ			
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7287	dvitīyāyām ca
7288	prathamāyāś ca dvivacane bhāsāyām
7289	yo aci
7290	śeșe lopaḥ
7291	maparyantasya
7292	yuvāvau dvivacane
7293	yūya-vayau jasi
7294	tvāhau sau
7295	tubhya-mahyau nayi
7296	tava-māv ekavachane
7298	pratyayottara padayośca
7440	dyati-syati-mā-sthām itti kiti
7441	śāchor anyatarasyām
7442	dadhāter hiḥ
7443	jahāteśca ktvi
7444	vibhāṣā chandasi
7446	do dad ghoh
7447	aca upasargāt tah
8120	yuşmadasmadoḥ şaşṭhī-caturthī-dvitīyāsthayor vānnāvau
8121	bahuvacanasya vasnasau
8122	temyāv ekavacanasya
8123	tvāmau dvitīyāyāḥ
8266	sasajuṣo ruḥ
8315	kharavasānayor visarjanīyaļı
8337	kupvo x ka Ø pau ca

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Note: Reference to $s\bar{u}tras$ in the text are from serial 3 above. The first figure refers to the chapter, second to section and the rest to the $s\bar{u}tra$. For instance, 32152 means chapter 3, section 2 and $s\bar{u}tra$ 152.