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PREFATORY NOTE

This volume contains a reprint of (i) " Vaianavism, Śaivism, and Minor Religious Systems " included in the *Grundriss der Indoarischen Philologie* and first published in 1913 : and (ii) " Wilson Philological Lectures on Sanskrit and the Derived Languages " delivered in 1877 and first published in a collected form in 1914. The first work was issued without any Preface. The Preface to the second work is dated, Sangam, Poona, 22nd June, 1914, and is reproduced below **

" I was appointed Wilson Philological Lecturer in 1877 and was thus the first lecturer under the Endowment. My subject was the Sanskrit and the Prakrit languages derived from it. I understood the Prakrit in a comprehensive sense, so as to include modern Vernaculars of Northern India also ; and thus delivered a course of seven lectures on Sanskrit in its several forms, the Pali and the Dialects of the period, the Prakrits and the Apabhraṃśa, Phonology of the Vernaculars, Remnants of the older Grammatical Forms in the Vernaculars, New Grammatical Formations to supply the place of the forms that had disappeared, and the General Questions as to the relation between these several languages. The method I followed is strictly historical, tracing the modern Vernaculars from the original Sanskrit through all the different stages of development of which we have evidence, and assigning the different transformations to their causes, natural or physical, racial, and historical. These lectures, with the exception of the fifth and sixth, were thoroughly revised afterwards and the first two and the seventh were published in Vol. X VI of the Journal, BBRAS, between the years 1883 and 1885 ; while the third and the fourth were published between 1887 and 1889. The other two lectures remained in manuscript for a long time, until I finished in 1911 my book on "Vaiṣṇavism, Śaivism etc." which was written for the series of Ency-

lopedia of Indo-Aryan Research, which is being published at Strassburg by Karl J. Trubner. These have now been revised and I publish them for the first time along with a reprint of the five lectures in the present volume. The delay in the publication has been due to my having had to attend to more urgent work, such as the preparation of a translation of the Vāyu Purāṇa for the "Sacred Books of the East," which had afterwards to be given up, the preparation of my Early History of the Deccan and the Search for Sanskrit Manuscripts and writing my several Reports on them.

" As, since 1908, my eye-sight has greatly impaired and I am unable to read matter printed in ordinary type or an ordinary manuscript, I have had to depend on Readers and Amanuenses. The work on " Vaiṣṇavism, Śaivism, etc. " was written under these conditions, but the publication of the present volume was undertaken by my eldest son, Professor Shridhar Ramkrishna Bhandarkar, who has been associated with me in a good deal of my literary work. The lectures were all carried through the press by him at the sacrifice of a good deal of time and trouble.

" I regret to find some misprints in the present volume, but one-half of them occur in the fifth and the sixth lectures, which had to be set up from manuscript. There are comparatively few instances in the reprints of the other five lectures."

Dr. Bhandarker's classical work on Vaiṣṇavism, Śaivism, and Minor Religious Systems, being included in a costly German Series of publications, was not easily accessible to students in India, although greatly in demand. Sir Ramkrishna accordingly purchased from Messrs. Walter de Gruyter & Co., Berlin, assign of the firm Karl J. Trubner of Strassburg, the right to issue an *Indian Edition* of the work, and this right the B. O. R. Institute has purchased from him. The Indian Edition of the first book was issued separately in 1928. In the present volume it is incorporated along with the Wilson Philological Lectures,

The three Indexes to Vaisṇavism, Śaivism and Minor Religious Systems were originally compiled by Dr. V. S. Sukthankar, M. A., Ph. D. The same have been retained here with necessary changes in pagination. The Indexes to the Wilson Philological Lectures have been prepared by me.

I was suddenly taken ill by paralysis on Thursday, September 8, 1927. I was unconscious for more than a month, and I am not yet completely recovered, although—thank God—I am slowly but surely regaining strength. For more than one year, Mr. G. N. Shrigondekar, B. A., of the Publication Department of the Bhandarkar Institute had to do the proof-correction and all other work in connection with this volume. To him and to all friends I am very sincerely thankful for all they did. Recently, I am recommended for Invalid's Pension.

With the present volume, three Volumes of Sir R. G. Bhandarkar's works are now ready. The fourth volume, which however will be the first in order, will be ready next year. It may then be considered whether I may be able to compile a short biography of Sir R. G. Bhandarkar as originally contemplated.

The publication of the present volume in time for the annual literary tribute to be paid by the Bhandarkar Or. R. Institute would not have been feasible in my present invalid state had not the Press and the Publication Departments of the Institute—and especially Dr. V. G. Paranjpe, M. A., LL. B., D. LITT., the Superintendent of both,—come to my assistance. I offer him here my grateful thanks for the assistance, the extent of which cannot be adequately gauged.

Pandharpur

Rsi PancamI, Sake 1851
(7th September 1929)

N. B. UTGIKAR

VAIṢṆAVISM, SĀIVISM AND MINOR RELIGIOUS SYSTEMS.

PART I.

VAIṢṆAVISM.

I. Introductory.

§ 1. The old Vedic gods became indissolubly involved in the elaborate and mechanical system of worship that had grown up. Speculations as regards the appropriateness of the rules and modes of worship, and their efficacy as regards man's good in this world and the next became prevalent. But all this did not satisfy the religious spirit of the people. Religious speculation of a more natural order came to be established about the close of the Hymn period and was continued into that of the Upanisads. The various problems about God, man and the world, engaged the attention of many thinkers, and a variety of solutions was arrived at. It is generally believed that the Upanisads teach a system of Pantheism but a close examination will show that they teach not one, but various systems of doctrines as regards the nature of God, man and the world and the relations between them. The religio-philosophic systems of modern times, which are mutually inconsistent, quote texts from the Upanisads as an authority for their special doctrines. These references to the old books are correct in the most prominent cases, but when the advocates of the systems force into other texts of an opposite nature a meaning consistent with their own social doctrines, they are manifestly wrong. That the Upanisads teach not one but various systems must follow from the fact that they are compilations just as the Rgveda-Saṁhitā is. The speculations of the old seers were clothed by them in words, and these were handed down orally and came to form a floating mass. When the idea of collecting these speculations arose, they were incorporated into books for the use of individual Vedic schools. Hence it is that we find certain

Asuras, Gandhabbas, Maharajas, Canda, Suriya, Inda, Brahma, Deva, Diśa is the elephant, the horse, the cow, the dog, the crow, Vasudeva, Baladeva, Punnabhadda, Manibhadda, etc., respectively. "

Here a Buddhist, who cannot but be expected to show scant courtesy to religious systems other than his own, places the worshippers of Vāsudeva and Baladeva on the same level with those of fire, moon, Sun and Brahma, and even elephants, crows, dogs, etc. But the worship of Vāsudeva was destined to become the predominant religion of a large part of India even to the supersession of that of fire, sun, moon, and Brahmā and, of course, of the superstitious adoration of the lower animals. And it will be now our duty to trace its rise and progress.

§ 3. In his comment on Pāṇini IV. 3. 98. Patañjali distinctly states that the Vāsudeva contained in the Sūtra is the name of the " worshipful ", i. e., of one who is pre-eminently worshipful, i. e., God'. The worship of Vasudeva must be regarded to be as old as Pāṇini.

In an Inscription found at Ghosūṇḍi in Rājputāna², which unfortunately is in a mutilated condition, the construction of a wall round the hall of worship of Saṃkarsaṇa and Vāsudeva is mentioned. From the form of the characters in the Inscription it appears to have been engraved at least two hundred years B. C.

In another Inscription recently discovered at Besnagar, Heliodora represents himself to have erected a Garuḍadhvaja or a column with the image of Garuda at the top in honour of Vasudeva, the god of gods. Heliodora calls himself a Bhāgavata, was the son of Diya, was a native of Taksāśīla and is spoken of as an ambassador of the Yavana and as such came on a political mission from Amṭalikita to Bhāgabhadra, who must have ruled over Eastern Malwā. In this Inscription occurs the name Amṭalikita which in all likelihood is the same as Antialkidas of the Bactro-Greek coins. This name as well as the form of the characters show that it belongs to the earlier part of the second century before the

1 See JRAS, 1910 p, 163,

2 Luders, List of Brahmi Inscriptions, No, 6,
J Ibid, No. 669,

Christian era. At that time Vāsudeva was worshipped as the god of gods and his worshippers were called Bhagavatas. The Bhāgavata religion prevailed in the northwestern part of India and was adopted even by the Greeks.

In the Inscription No. 1 in the large cave at Nānāghāt¹, the names of Sarhkarṣaṇa and Vāsudeva, in a Dvandva compound, occur along with those of other deities in the opening invocation. This Inscription appears from the form of the characters to belong to the first century before the Christian era.

In the passage in the Mahabhasya in which Patanjali, to account for the appearance of the name Vāsudeva in Pāṇini IV. 3. 98, says that this is not the name of a Kṣatriya, but that of the Worshipful One, the question to be considered is whether Patanjali means this Vasudeva to be quite unconnected with the Vasudeva of the Vṛṣṇi race. From the occurrence of the names Vāsudeva and Baladeva close to each other in the passage from the Niddesa referred to above, and that of Saṁkarṣaṇa and Vāsudeva as worshipful or divine persons in a Dvandva compound in two of three above Inscriptions, it appears that the Vāsudeva referred to by Patanjali as the Worshipful One must be the Vasudeva of the Vṛṣṇi race. But to account for the appearance of the name in the Sūtra, though the required form can be made up in accordance with the next Sutra (Pāṇini, IV. 3. 99), Patanjali says that Pāṇini looks at Vasudeva in his capacity as a divine person and not as a Kṣatriya. One must take it in this sense, since the Ghosundi Inscription noticed above, in which Saṁkarṣaṇa and Vāsudeva are associated as worshipful persons, must be older than Patanjali himself. Besides, patanjali begins the discussion of the Sūtra by first taking Vasudeva as the name of a Kṣatriya and raising an objection against it. This objection is answered in one way, Vāsudeva being still regarded as a Kṣatriya, and it is only optionally that he gives another explanation, that that name is not the name of a Kṣatriya, but of a divine person. This optional explanation given in the last resort must, therefore, be understood in the sense given above. And from all the accounts of the Bhāgavata school contained in the whole literature it is clear that the worshipful Vasudeva belonged to the Vṛṣṇi race.

1 Ibid, No. 1112.

III. Analysis of the Nārāyaṇya Section of the Mahābhārata.

i 4. Having thus established on irrefragable evidence the existence during the three or four centuries before Christ of a religion with Vasudeva as its central figure, and of a school of his followers, known by the name of Bhagavata, I will now proceed to examine the detailed accounts contained in the literature and especially in the Mahabharata. This was not done before, because the date of the Mahabharata or any portion of it cannot be ascertained with any approach to certainty. The Narayaplya section of the Śāntiparvan, to which we shall devote a detailed consideration, is, however, older than Śaṅkarācārya, who quotes from it.

Narada is represented to have gone to the Badarikasrama to see Nara and Narayana. The latter was engaged in the performance of religious rites. Narada asked Nārāyaṇa whom he worshipped, while he himself was the Supreme Lord. Narayatiā told him that he worshipped his original Prakṛti (form), the source of all that is and that is to be. Nara and Nārāyaṇa as well as Kṛṣṇa and Hari, sons of Dharma, are represented as the four forms of the Supreme.

Narada flies into the sky to see that original Prakṛti and alights on a peak of Meru. There he saw white men without sense, not eating anything, sinless, with heads like umbrellas, making a sound like that of thundering clouds and devoted to Bhagavat. Then Yudhisthira asked Bhishma who those people were, and how they came to be what they were. Bhishma tells the story of the king Vasu Upariṣṭa, who worshipped God according to the Satvata Vidhi (form of ritual). He was a glorious king honoured by Indra, devoted to truth and holy. The best of the learned in the Paricaratra system were honoured with the first seat at dinner by him.

The narrator then proceeds to mention the Citrasikhandins, who appear to be the original promulgators of this religion. The mountain Meru was the place where they revealed it. They were seven, consisting of Marloi, Atri, Angiras, Pulastya, Pulaha,

Kratu and Vasistha. The eighth was Svayarbhbhuva; From these eight, emanated this excellent Śāstra. This they promulgated in the presence of the great Bhagavt, who said to the Rsis: " You have composed a hundred thousand excellent Ślokas (stansas), which contain rules for all the affairs of men and are in harmony with Yajus, Saman, Re, and Atharvāngiras, and lay down precepts about the religion of action as well as that of contemplation or repose. I created Brahman from my peaceful and Rudra from my wrathful nature. This Śāstra will be handed down from person to person until it reaches Brhaspati. From Brhaspati the king Vasu will obtain it. The king will follow this Śāstra and will become my devotee. After his death this Śāstra will be lost " Telling all this the great god disappeared. Then the Citraai-khandins spread the religion until it reached Brhaspati. •

Then the old Kalpa having ended and the son of Arigirasy the priest of the gods, being born, the gods were happy. The king Vasu Uparicara was his first pupil. He learned this Śāstra from Brhaspati. At one time he brought forward an extensive horse-sacrifice, but no animal was killed on the occasion. The oblations were devised in accordance with the words of the Aranyakaa The god of gods showed himself to Vasu and accepted his oblation, but was unseen by anybody else. Since the oblation was taken away by Hari without showing himself to Brhaspati, the latter got angry and dashed upwards the sacrificial ladle. At that sacrifice Ekata, Dvita, and Trita, sons of Prajāpati, and sixteen Rsis, many of whom are now known as the authors of literary works, such as Medhfcitithi, Tittiri, and Tandy a, are represented to have been present.

When Brhaspati was angry, they all said that the great Hari was not to be seen by any man at random; but by one who was favoured by his grace. Ekata, Dvita and Trita said: " On one occasion we went to the north for the attainment of eternal blisa near the Milky Ocean, and practised austerities for four thousand years and at the end a voice in the air declared: ' Well, how can you see that great Lord ? In the Milky Ocean there is a White Island where there are men possessing the lustre of the moon, who are the devotees of the god, possess no senses, do not eat anything and, being devoted solely to the god (Ekintin or monothestic), are absorbed in him, who is bright like the sua Go to

that island; there shines my soul'. Accordingly we went to the white island, and, dazzled by the light of that being, were not able to see him. Then the truth Hashed upon us that the god cannot be seen by us unless we have gone through austerities. After further austerities for a hundred years we saw the men of the lustre of the moon with their minds fully absorbed in the contemplation of God. The refulgence of each man was like that of the sun on the last day. Then we heard a sound • ' Jitam te Puṇḍarl-; kaksā ' etc.— (Triumphant art thou, Lotus-eyed one !). A short time after, a voice in the air declared : ' Go you away as you came. That great being is not to be seen by one who is not devoted to him'. Then we returned without being able to see him. How then will you be able to see him ? " Having heard this from Ekata, Dvita and Trita, Bṛhaspati finished the sacrifice.

Vasu Uparicara had to live in a hole in the earth on account of the curse of the Rsis, who in a controversy with the gods maintained that no animal should be sacrificed, but only vegetable grain, while the gods contended that a goat should be sacrificed. The question was referred to Vasu who declared in favour of the gods. Vasu was raised from the hole by Nārāyaṇa, whom he had devotedly worshipped, by sending his Garuḍa to lift him up. He was thence taken to the Brahma world.

The story of Nārada's visit to Śvetadvīpa is then continued. He praises the great Being by uttering names expressive of his purity and grandeur, and the great Being then manifested himself to him saying that he was not to be seen by one who was not solely devoted to him (Ekāntin), and that, as Nārada was such a one, he showed himself to him. He then proceeds to explain to him the religion of Vāsudeva. Vāsudeva is the supreme soul, the internal soul of all souls. He is the supreme creator. All-living beings are represented by Saṁkarṣaṇa, who is a form of Vāsudeva. From Saṁkarṣaṇa sprang Pradyumna, the mind, and from Pradyumna Aniruddha, self-consciousness. " Those who are devoted to me enter into me and are released. " The great being calls the four mentioned above his forms (Mūrtis). The production of one form from another is also mentioned, all these forms are, however, styled his forms (Mūrtis). He then proceeds to mention the creation of gods and all other things by himself and their final

dissolution into himself. Then are mentioned his incarnations (Avataras), viz. Varaha, Narasimha, the oppressor of Bali, Rama of the Bhrgu race and destroyer of the Ksatriya, Rama Dadarathi, and "he who will come into existence for the destruction of Karṇa at Mathurā and after having killed many demons will finally settle at Dvarakā." In this manner having done all things by his four Mūrtis, he destroyed Dvarakā with the Satvatas and went to Brahmāloka. After Narada had heard this from the supreme Narayana, he returned to Badarikadrama.

What follows at the end of chapter 339 and in the next four chapters has little bearing on our subject, except that in one of them the etymological sense of Vasudeva is given as one who covers the whole world and is the resting-place (Adhivasa) of all beings.

In chapter 344 the path of those who are free from sin is given thus—The sun is the gate, and after entrance all their [material impurities being burnt, they remain as atoms in him; then released from him, they enter into the Aniruddha form, and becoming: mind, enter into the Pradyumna form. Leaving that form, they enter into that of Saṁkarsana, i. e., the form of the Individual soul (Jiva). Afterwards being free from the three Chinās, they enter into the Supreme Soul, who exists everywhere and who is Vasudeva.

In chapter 346 Vaiṣaṁpayana relates to Janamejaya that the Dharma which Narada got from 'the Lord of the world', Narayana himself, in all its details and peculiarities, was explained briefly to him (Janamejaya) in the Harigītā. In chapter 348 this Ekantika Dharma is represented to be the same as that which was communicated to Arjuna at the beginning of the war. At the creation Of each Brahmā, this Dharma was revealed by Nārāyaṇa, and then at the end of the Brahmā it was lost. In the account of the fourth Brahmā the Dharma revealed is twice called satvata. In this manner it goes on up to the present or the seventh Brahmā, in which that Dharma was first communicated to Pitimaha, and from him it passed in succession to Dakṣa, his grandson, the eldest Aditya, Vivasvat, Manu and Ikṣvaku. Later on it is stated that this original great eternal Dharma, difficult to be known and to be followed, is professed by the Satvatas,

I (R. G. Bhansarkar's Works, Vol. IV.]

that island, there shines my soul '. Accordingly we went to the white island, and, dazzled by the light of that being, were not able to see him. Then the truth flashed upon us that the god cannot be seen by us unless we have gone through austerities. After further austerities for a hundred years we saw the men of the lustre of the moon with their minds fully absorbed in the contemplation of God. The refulgence of each man was like that of the sun on the last day. Then we heard a sound • ' ' Jitam te Pundarikakṣa ' etc.— (Triumphant art thou, Lotus-eyed one !). A short time after, a voice in the air declared : ' Go you away as you came. That great being is not to be seen by one who is not devoted to him'. Then we returned without being able to see him. How then will you be able to see him ? " Having heard this from Ekata, Dvita and Trita, Brhaspati finished the sacrifice.

Vasu Uparicara had to live in a hole in the earth on account of the curse of the Rsis, who in a controversy with the gods maintained that no animal should be sacrificed, but only vegetable grain, while the gods contended that a goat should be sacrificed. The question was referred to Vasu who declared in favour of the gods. Vasu was raised from the hole by Nārāyaṇa, whom he had devotedly worshipped, by sending his Garuḍa to lift him up. He was thence taken to the Brahma world.

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dissolution into himself. Then are mentioned his incarnations (Avataras), viz. Varāha, Narasirha, the oppressor of Bali, Rāma of the Bhrgu race and destroyer of the Ksatriyas, Rama Dasarathi, and "he who will come into existence for the destruction of Karhsa at Mathurā and after having killed many demons will finally settle at Dvārakā." In this manner having done all things by his four Mūrtis, he destroyed Dvāraka with the Sātvatas and went to Brahmāloka. After Nārada had heard this from the supreme Nārāyaṇa, he returned to Badarikāśrama.

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This Dharma is associated with the non-slaughter of animals (Ahimsā) and when properly exercised, the lord Hari is pleased with it. Sometimes one Vyūha or form of the Lord it taught and sometimes two, three or four. Vaisampayana winds up by saying that he has thus explained the Ekantadharma.

S 5. Here we have two accounts, the second of which is interwoven with the first. The former, however, appear to relate to a more ancient condition of things. The points to be noticed are these: 1. At the sacrifice instituted by Vasu Uparicara no animals were killed. 2. The oblations were devised in accordance with the teachings of the Aranyakas which include the Upaniṣads. 3. The chief deity was the God of gods, who is also called Hari. 4 This Hari or God of gods is not to be seen by one who follows the sacrificial mode of worship, such as Brhaspati did, nor by persons who practise austerities for thousands of years, as Ekata, Dvita and Trita did, but by one who worships Him with devotion as Vasu Uparicara did.

Here then is an attempt to introduce a religious reform on more conservative principles than Buddhism and Jainism did. The repudiation of the slaughter of animals and the inefficacy of sacrificial worship and austerities are common to this religious reform with Buddhism. But that the supreme lord Hari is to be worshipped with devotion, and the words of the Aranyakas are not to be rejected, are doctrines which are peculiar to it. Vasu Uparicara's story goes so far only.

In the main account, according to which Nārada visited the White Island, we have a re-assertion of the doctrine that the Supreme Soul can be seen by one who worships him with devotion. The great Nārāyaṇa manifests himself to him and explains the religion of Vasudeva and his three other forms (Vyūhas). He also mentions the future incarnations of Vasudeva, and one of these is that assumed at Mathura for the destruction of Kamsa. The supreme Narayana identifies himself with Vasudeva in his four forms (Vyūhas). At the end it is stated that the religion is followed by the Satvatas.

These two accounts seem to represent two stages in the progress of reform. In the earlier one the worship of Vasudeva and

bis three other forms is not known. The Supreme God is named Hari, and his worship has not thoroughly emancipated itself from the religion of sacrifices. The reform had no reference to specific historical personages and was promulgated by certain sages who are called Citrasikhaṇḍins and whose names had been handed down by tradition. The later account connects the reform with Vāsudeva and his brother, son and grandson, and the new religion is represented to have been identical with that taught in the Bhagavadgita. This reformed system is said to have been promulgated by Nārāyaṇa himself.

It thus appears that the idea of a religion of devotion arose in earlier times, but it received a definite shape when Vasudeva revealed the Gita to Arjuna, and led to the formation of an independent sect, when his brother, son and grandson were associated with him as his forms presiding over certain psychological categories, or as persons created by him for the purpose. That sect became conterminous with the race of the Satvatas. We have now to consider who these Satvatas were.

IV. The Sātvatas and their Religion.

§ 6. In the Adiparvan, Vasudeva addressing the Vṛṣṇis says that Partha does not think them who are Satvatas to be covetous. Vasudeva is called Satvata in Adip. 218. 12 ; Kṛṭavarman in Adip. 221. 31 ; Satyaki in Droṇap. 97. 36 ; and Janārdana in Udyogap. 70. 7. At the end of chap. 66 of the Bhismaparvan, Bhishma says : " This eternal god, mysterious, beneficent and loving should be known as Vasudeva, and Brahmanas, Ksatriyas, Vaisyas and Śūdras worship him by their devoted actions. At the end of the Dvapara and the beginning of the Kali age, he was sung or expounded by Samkarsana according to the Satvata rites (Vidhi).

At the end of chap. 12 of the third book of the Visnu-Purana it is stated in the account of the genealogy of the Yadavas and the Vṛṣṇis that Satvata was the son of Amsa, and all his descendants were after him called Satvatas. The Bhagavata represents the Sātvatas as calling the highest Brahman Bhagavata and Vasudeva (IX.9.49), and having a peculiar mode of worshipping him. It mentions the Sātvatas along with the Andhakas and Vṛṇis, which were Yadava tribes (I. 14. 25 ; I I I 1. 29), and calls Vasudeva, Satvatarasabha (X. 58. 42 ; XI. 27. 5).

In patanjali under Pāṇini IV. 1. 114, Vasudeva and Baladeva are given as derivatives from Vṛṣṇi names in the sense of sons of Vasudeva and Baladeva. Instances given by the Kasika of the same are Vasudeva and Aniruddha. Here Aniruddha means the son of Aniruddha, and therefore Vasudeva must mean the son of Vasudeva and not of Vasudeva, as will appear from what follows. In the latter work under Panini VI. 2. 34, Sini-Vasudevaḥ is given as a Dvandva of royal Vṛṣṇi names, each of them being in the plural, and Samkarsana-Vasudevau as a Dvandva of royal Vṛṣṇi names each being in the singular, so that Vṛṣṇideva means both the individual of that name and his sons.

From all this and such other passages from patanjali it will appear that Satvata was another name of the Vṛṣṇi race of which Vasudeva, Samkarsana, and Aniruddha were members, and that the Sattvatas had a religion of their own according to which Vasudeva was worshipped as the Supreme Being, and thus the account given above from the Narayaniya is amply confirmed.

§ 7. It therefore appears that this religion of devotion to Vasudeva ascends as high into antiquity as Panini himself. As I have mentioned elsewhere, the Kṣatriyas engaged themselves in active speculations on religious matters about the time of the Upanisads,¹ and are mentioned even as the original possessors of the new knowledge. Siddhartha and Mahavira founded in this period of intellectual fermentation new systems of religion in the east or the Magadha country, which discarded or passed over in silence the doctrine of the existence even of God and laid down self-abnegation and a course of strict moral conduct as the way to salvation. They belonged to the Śākya and Jnātrka races of Kṣatriyas, and Buddhism and Jainism might be considered to be the religions of those tribes. The west, however, was not so radical in its speculations, and the race of Satvatas developed a system of religion which took up the ideas of a Supreme God and devotion to him as the mode of salvation.

These Satvatas and the worship of Vasudeva-Kṛṣṇa seem clearly to be alluded to by Megasthenes, who was the Macedonian

1 Verhandlungen des VII. Internal Orientalisten-Congress in Wien. Ar. Sect., pp. 108-9. (This article it included in Vol. 1 of this Edition.—N.B.U.)

ambassador at the court of Candragupta, the Maurya. Candragupta reigned in the last quarter of the fourth century B. C. The statement of Megasthenes is that Herakles was specially worshipped by the Sourasenoi, an Indian nation, in whose land are two great cities, Methora and Kleisobora, and through it flows the navigable river Jobares. The Sourasenoi were the Śurasenas, a tribe of Kṣatriyas, who lived in the region in which was situated Mathurā, corresponding to Methora in the above passage, and in which flowed the river Jobares, which has been identified with the Jumna or Yamuna. If the Vasudeva-Kṛṣṇa worship prevailed in the time of the first Maurya, it must have originated long before the establishment of the Maurya dynasty, and my assertion that it owes its origin to the stream of thought which began with the Upaniṣads and culminated in the east in Buddhism and Jainism, and arose about the time of the latter, is confirmed.

The name expressive of the Supreme Spirit was, however, in the early period Vasudeva alone. In the passage from the Niddesa and the three Inscriptions Vasudeva is the name that occurs.

In the Bhagavadgītā (VII. 19) it is stated that "He who possesses knowledge gives himself up to me, believing Vasudeva to be all." Even in the Bhagavata Mantra of twelve syllables which is usually repeated at the present day and which is mentioned by Hemādri, it is to Vasudeva that obeisance is made.¹ In Bhīṣmap, chap. 65 Brahmadeva, addressing the Supreme Spirit (Puruṣa Para-meśvara), entreats him to become the increaser of the Yadu race, and then, referring apparently to a foregone age, he says: O Vāsudeva I this great secret I have communicated to thee through thy favour as it really is. Having created thyself as the God Saṅkarṣaṇa, thou didst procreate thy son Pradyumna. He created Aniruddha who is Viṣṇu himself, and he created me (Brahmadeva), who am made up of Vasudeva and created by thee. Dividing thyself in this way be born as a human being again." In the beginning of chapter 66 of the same Parvan, Prajapati speaks of himself as having asked the supreme lord of all to dwell in the world of men as Vasudeva (to become incarnate). This Supreme Spirit should, it is said,

1 *Vratakhanda* (Bibl. Ind.) p. 225. The Mantra is *Orh namo Bhagavate Vasudevaya*.

be known as Vasudeva, and throughout the chapter that name alone is used in speaking of the eternal God.

The substance of these two chapters seems to be that in a former age the Supreme Spirit Vāsudeva created Saṁkarṣaṇa and the rest up to the Brahmā himself, and on the present occasion the latter asked him again to be born in the Yadu race as Vāsudeva, dividing himself into four parts as on the previous occasion. Thus Vasudeva was the name of the teacher of the religion of devotion, and there appears to be an implication here that he existed with the other three in a previous age. Even as a member of the Vṛṣṇi race the name Vasudeva occurs in the examples quoted above from the Mahabhasya and Kasika and no other.

In the passages quoted by me in my article¹ on "Allusions to Kṛṣṇa etc.," the name Kṛṣṇa occurs three times, Vāsudeva in three passages and Janardana in one. But in Kielhorn's Edition of the Mahabhasya, which is more accurate than the Benares edition which I then used, the reading Kṛṣṇa in two of the three places is supported by one Manuscript only; and Vāsudeva occurs instead of Kṛṣṇa in one of the two places and the other is entirely omitted, so that Vasudeva is used four times and Kṛṣṇa only once. In the Bhagavadgita (X. 37) the Bhagavat says that of the Vṛṣṇi he is Vasudeva.

In the Buddhist Ghatajataka the two eldest sons of Upasagara and Devagabbha are named Vasudeva and Baladeva. In the prose narrative no other name is given, but the names Kaṇha and Keśava occur in the verses that are interwoven with the prose. The commentator remarks on the first verse that he is there addressed by his Gotra name Kaṇha, for he belonged to the Kaṇhayana Gotra, thus showing his belief that Vāsudeva was the true proper name of the person. This belief he expresses again in his commentary on a verse occurring in the Mahāum-maggajataka, in which Jambavati is mentioned as the beloved queen of Vāsudeva Kaṇha. Here also Vāsudeva is mentioned as belonging to the Kaṇhayana Gotra, and from the verse itself, in which Vasudevassa Kanhassa occurs, it would appear that Kanha

1. Ind. Ant., Vol. III, pp. 14 ff. (This article is included in Vol. I of this Edition.—N. B. U.]

was the family name, the sense being Vāsudeva, the Kaṇha, so that the author of the verse itself would seem to regard Vāsudeva as the proper name of the individual, and thus he and the prose narrative agree.

§ 8. Thus then Vasudeva appears to be a proper name and not a patronymic, and when the Vāsudeva religion or the Bhagavata school took its rise, that was the name by which the Supreme Deity was known. The conception of Vasudeva as his father must have arisen afterwards, as appears to me from the example Vasudevah given in the Mahabhasya in the sense of "son et descendant of Vasudeva", and not "of Vasudeva", as must be inferred from the analogous instance of Baladeva from Baladera. Baladeva was associated with Vasudeva and not with Vasudeva.

Kṛṣṇa, Janardana, and Kṛṣṇa do not appear to be Vṛṣṇi names and were given to Vasudeva in subsequent times when his worship had widely spread. All these three occur in Patañjali also, but the two latter only once so far as I know. But of these the name Kṛṣṇa is more important than the other two and many others that are used. It appears to be as much a proper name as Vasudeva, though the latter has a religious signification specially attached to it. How then did this name Kṛṣṇa come to be used? It was the name of one of the Vedic Rsis, the composer of hymn 74 of the eighth Maṇḍala. He speaks of himself as Kṛṣṇa in verses 3 and 4 of the hymn. The author of the Anukramaṇī calls him an Angirasa or descendant of Aṅgīrasa. In the KB. (XXXIX) apparently the same Kṛṣṇa Angirasa is alluded to and is represented to have 'seen' the evening libation in its connection with the Brahmanaccharṣin priest. Kṛṣṇa occurs in a Gaṇa attached to Pāṇini, IV. 1. 96. In the Gaṇa connected with Pāṇini IV. 1. 99 Kṛṣṇa and Rana are represented to form the Gotra names Kṛṣṇayana and Ranayana. These were Brahmana Gotras falling under the group of Vasisthas. The former is the Gotra alluded to by the commentator on the verses in the Jatakas noticed above. But he apparently does not confine it to the Brahmana class. Then the name Kṛṣṇa as the son of Devaki occurs in the Chandogya Upaniṣad (III. 17). He was the pupil of Ghorā, who was an Angirasa. If Kṛṣṇa was also an Angirasa, which is not improbable, it must be inferred that there was a tradition about Kṛṣṇa

as a sage from the time of the Rgvedic hymns to the time of the Chāndogya-Upaniṣad, and about a Gotra of the name of Kārṣṇāyana, which literally means collection of Kṛṣṇas, of which the original Kṛṣṇa was the founder. This tradition gave rise to the identification of the sage Kṛṣṇa with Vāsudeva, when he was raised to the rank of the supreme deity. Just as the name Janamejaya, the son of Parikṣit, which occurs in the AB., was in subsequent times used as the name of the person to whom the Mahabharata was narrated, and a genealogy was given to him from Arjuna, the Pāṇḍava, so it is possible that Vāsudeva was identified with the sage Kṛṣṇa and a genealogy given to him in the Vṛṣṇi race through Śura and Vasudeva.

Perhaps the best explanation of the fact of Vāsudeva having been called Kṛṣṇa is that given by the commentator of the Gāthās or verses of the Jātakas, supported, as it appears to me, by the author of the Gāthās himself, that Kṛṣṇa was a Gotra name. The Gotra Kārṣṇāyana which corresponds to Kanḥayana is not only mentioned as a Brāhmaṇa Gotra belonging to the Vasiṣṭha group in the Gaṇa alluded to above, but is stated to have belonged to the Paraśara subdivision of that group in the Matsyapurāṇa, ch. 200'. Though this was a Brahmana and Parasara Gotra, it could be assumed for sacrificial purposes by a Kṣatriya, for according to Asvalayana (Sr. S. XII. 15) the Gotra and the ancestors invoked of the Kṣatriyas are those of their priests or chaplains, and the only Rṣi ancestors that all the Kṣatriyas have are Manava, Aila and Paururavaśa. The name of these do not distinguish one Kṣatriya family from another, and, to answer the purposes of such a distinction, the Gotra and ancestors of the priest are assumed. Vasudeva therefore belonged to the Kārṣṇāyana Gotra, though it was a Brahmana and Parasara Gotra, and as belonging to this Gotra he could be called Kṛṣṇa by name. Having come to be known by that name, all the traditions about the learning and spiritual insight of the old Kṛṣṇa, and also of his being the son of Devaki were engrafted on him, and thus in the Sabhaparvan 38, Bhīṣma says that one of the two reasons for giving the highest honours to Kṛṣṇa was that he possessed the knowledge of the Vedas and dependent treatises (Vedāṅgas), and that he was also a sacrificial priest (Rtvij), The Hindu habit of 1 quoted also in Purusottana's Pravaramanjari, Mysore edition.

thought of identifying one god with others by regarding the latter either as forms or incarnations of the former, and thus evolving monotheism out of polytheism, led to the identification of this Vāsudeva with other gods and with the boy Kṛṣṇa of Gokula. These we will notice later on.

§ 9. In the Narayaniya we have an explanation of the Bhagavata or Pancaratra system. This system also we will notice in its ripened form later. In the meanwhile we will turn our attention to the statement that the Ekāntika-Dharma founded by Vasudeva has been explained in the Harigita and on the occasion when the armies of the Kurus and the Pandavas stood face to face and Arjuna lost heart. The allusion is of course to the Bhagavadgita.

This passage is noticed in the Bhaktisūtra (83) and its commentary, in which it is stated that Ekāntabhāva (which is the subject of the Narayaniya), or devotion to one only, is Bhakti alone, since the former is recognised in that passage as identical with the main topic of the Bhagavadgita. But the Bhagavadgita contains no allusion to the Vyūhas or forms of the Supreme, Samkarsana and others, while the latter form a characteristic of the Bhagavata school. The Gita, however, mentions as the Prakṛtis of Vasudeva the five elements, the mind, Buddhi or knowledge, and egoism as well as Jīva (VII. 4, 5). The last is identified with Saihkarsana in the Bhagavata system, egoism with Aniruddha, and mind, with which probably Buddhi is associated, with Pradyumna.

What appears to be the fact is this : The Bhagavadgita was composed before the doctrines of the Bhāgavata school were reduced to a system, and it was then that the three of the Prakṛtis of the Supreme were personified into Saihkarsana, Pradyumna and Aniruddha, who were members of the family of Vasudeva. In the prevalent worship, however, Samkarsana alone is found associated with Vāsudeva in early times, as is seen from **the** Inscriptions, and the passage from the Niddesa noticed in the beginning.¹ Patanjali also notices, under Panini I I . 2. 34, a verse in which it is stated that certain musical instruments are sounded in a gathering in the temple of Dhanapati, Rāma and Keśava.

¹ Ante p. 3. [N. B. U.]

3 [R. G. Bhandarkar's Works, Vol, IV.]

Here Rama and Kēśava are Balarama and Vasudeva-Kṛṣṇa, and it is clear that there were festive gatherings at their temples in Patanjali's time. If the passage in patanjali under Panini VI. 3. 6, " Janardana with himself as the fourth ", i. e., with three companions, may be taken to allude to the three Vyūhas, then it must be understood that the four Vyūhas, Vasudeva, Saṁkarṣaṇa, Pradyumna and Aniruddha, were known in Patanjali's time. Still it is doubtful, and it may be taken for granted that the two Vyūhas, Vasudeva and Saṁkarsana, only were known up to the time of the latest Inscription which is to be referred to about the beginning of the first century before the Christian era, so that the system of four Vyūhas was not fully developed up to that time.

If this reasoning is correct, it will be seen that the date of the Bhagavadgita which contains no mention of the Vyūhas, or personified forms, is much earlier than those of the Inscriptions, the Niddesa and Patañjali, i. e., it was composed not latter than the beginning of the fourth century before the Christian era. How much earlier it is difficult to say. At the time when the Gita was conceived and composed, the identification of Vasudeva with Narayana had not taken place, nor had his being an incarnation of Viṣṇu come to be acknowledged, as appears from the work itself. When his Viraj or universe-form was shown to Arjuna, as represented in the eleventh chapter, he is twice addressed by the latter as Viṣṇu on account of his dazzling brilliance, which rendered everything hot, and filled the whole universe. Here Viṣṇu is alluded to as the chief of the Adityas and not as the supreme being, and Vasudeva was Viṣṇu in this sense, as mentioned in chapter 10, because the best thing of a group or class is represented to be his Vibhūti or special manifestation.

I 10. A characteristic of a new system of religion that comes into vogue is, that the followers are not satisfied with the idea, that the person known as the founder originated the system. They push back the origin by many ages. Siddharthaka was preceded by many Boddhas, so was Mahavira by many Tirthamkaras. So in the case of the Bhagavata school we have seen that that system was taught by N arayana at the beginning of each Brahman, and

In the existing Brahman it was first taught to pitamaha or Pra-Japati and thence it passed to Dakṣa, Vivasvat, Manu and Ikṣvaku. This last order of its revelation is alluded to at the beginning of the fourth chapter of the Gita, which confirms the tradition noticed in the Narayaniya about the identity of the religion of the Gita with the Ekantika religion revealed by Narayana. In this respect of pushing back the origin the Bhagavata system resembles Buddhism and Jainism.

V. Substance of the Bhagavadgītā.

§ 11. We will now pass under review the main contents of the Bhagavadgita, as from all appearances it is the earliest exposition of the Bhakti system or the Ekantika Dharma.

Chapter II Arjuna is reluctant to fight because it involves the destruction of his near and revered relatives and of other men. Bhagavat endeavours to remove the reluctance by speaking of the eternity and indestructibility of the human soul. Here are two stanzas which occur, with a variation in one of the lines, in the Katha Upaniṣad. Then to fight is spoken of as the duty of a Kṣatriya for whom there is no other good than a just fight. This mode of thinking is characterised as being Sarhkhya, and the Yoga mode then follows.

The condition of mind in the Yoga mode is a determined will. Those who according to the precepts of the Veda perform rites for fulfilment of various desires, cannot have a determined steadfast will. For attaining such a will one should think only of the deed to be done and not of the fruits to be derived from it. With a concentrated mind and without any attachment to other objects one should devote oneself to the deed alone. By such devotion to acts with a determined will, man finally attains inflexibility of will (becomes Sthitaprajna), and all his desires being uprooted, he attains complete serenity of soul or the Brahmi condition. When he is in this condition at the time of death, he obtains quiescence in Brahman. This comes to the same doctrine as that stated in the Katha and Brhadaranyaka-Upaniṣads, that when all desires in the heart are uprooted, the mortal becomes immortal and attains to Brahman.¹ The discipline, however, prescribed for

1. Yada sarve pramucyante kama yesya hr̥di sritāḥ, KU. VI. 14. and also BU.JV.4.7,

the attainment of this end is not simply moral, but religious also, since it is stated that after having controlled the senses which render the mind restless, a man should devote himself to Bhagavat,

§ 12. Chapter III. There are two paths, that of devotion to knowledge for the Samkhyas, and that of devotion to Karman or action for the Yogins. Every one is born for a life of activity, but the deeds done do not tie him down to the world, if he does them for worship (Yajna) and not for his private purposes. No Karman is necessary for one whose enjoyments consist in himself, who is satisfied with himself and contented in himself. But for other people action is necessary, and it must be done without any selfish desire. Janaka and others obtained perfection by devoting themselves to actions alone, i. e., by the pursuit of an active life. But the action should be dedicated to the Supreme, and one should not seek any fruit for himself. But such a frame of mind is not attainable by ordinary men, who are under the influence of their physical nature and sensual passions.

Then a question is* asked what it is that prompts man to sin. The reply is that it is desire and anger which are all-powerful and envelop a man's spiritual existence. Desire acts through the senses, but intelligence is superior to the senses, and superior to this latter is the will (Buddhi) and the soul is superior to Buddhi. Knowing oneself to be higher than Buddhi, one should curb oneself by efforts and kill desire which acts through the senses, viz., senses, intellect, will. Here the superiority of one faculty over another is an idea borrowed from the Katha-Upaniṣad. In connection with the teaching that action should be done disinterestedly, Bhagavat makes the closest possible approach to the Samkhya doctrine that the soul being deluded by egoism (Ahamkara) regards himself as the agent of the actions done by the qualities of nature (Prakṛti), and that, misled by the qualities of nature, he forms an attachment to the qualities and actions.

§ 13. Chapter IV". The chapter begins with Bhagavat's mention of his communication of this system to Vivasvat in the first instance, as alluded to above.¹ Incidentally the question of his ex-

1 Ante, p. 1. [N. B. U.]

istence at the time of Vivasvat comes up, and he then explains his being born again and again, and assuming incarnations for the destruction of the wicked by means of his Prakṛti. They who know the incarnations and the celestial deeds of Bhagavat, are released from the body and are not born again. By means of knowledge, men, being purified and their passions destroyed, and being devoted to him and resorting to him and resting on him, attained to the condition of Bhagavat. Bhagavat resorts to men in the manner in which they resort to him; men everywhere follow his path.

The idea of action without attachment is further developed. The metaphorical Yajnas are mentioned, such as the sacrifice of the senses into the fire of restraint, of the objects of the senses into the senses, of the operation of the senses and of the vital breaths into the fire of Yoga, which is the control of the self. All these Yajnas cannot be accomplished without acts. Of these the Yajna of knowledge is the best; for by its means one sees all things in one-self and in God (Supreme spirit). This highest knowledge brings about freedom from all sin, and destroys the polluting effect of action. The realisation of the Yoga sets aside the significance of the actions. This highest knowledge puts an end to all doubt and one becomes a spirit—a spirit totally free. When acts are done in this condition, they do not defile a person.—Here the tendency to rationalise Yajnas or sacrifices, which set in in the Upaniṣad period, is seen in a developed form, since the restraint of the senses, the attainment of knowledge, and such other practices are characterised as Yajnas or sacrifices.

Another point that deserves notice is the statement that Bhagavat deals with men in the manner in which they deal with him, that is, the spirit with which God is approached by men is reciprocated by God. This is followed by the affirmation that men everywhere, whatever the differences of their views, follow the path of Bhagavat. Here lies, in germ, the principle that all religions have a basis of truth in them.

S 14. Chapter Y. Samkhya and Yoga are brought into connection with Sainnyasa and Karmayoga. They are not independent of each other. Following either thoroughly, one obtains the fruit of both. The place which is obtained by Samkhyas is obtained also

by Yogas. For Jnanayajna or sacrifice of knowledge enabling a man to see all things in himself and in God, and this knowledge bringing about freedom from sin, the same condition is attained to, which an active life or pursuit of actions (Karmayoga) brings about, when the actions are done disinterestedly or without aiming: at the fruit, with an eye directed towards Brahman only, the true essence of things. Though this is so, still Samnyasa is difficult to be realised without Yoga. With Yoga one attains to it soon. A Yogin does not think that he does something when he sees, hears, eats, sleeps, etc. This is so when these acts are done without any attachment, the aim being the realisation of Brahman. The Yogias perform deeds by their body, mind, will, or simply by their senses, without any attachment for the sake of spiritual purification. By means of Yoga, Jnana is obtained, and in this condition man looks at all things alike. When a man looks at all things with the same regard, what he aims at is the Brahman and in it he rests. This leads to the consideration of the final peace in Brahman and the method of attaining it. This peace in Brahman resembles the condition of an Arhat in Buddhism, but the Bhagavadgita does not end there and adds that in this condition of deliverance a person comes to know the Supreme Soul as one to whom all kinds of worship and austere practices are directed as the lord of all worlds and the friend of all beings; and it is this knowledge that leads to peace.

§ 15. Chapter VI. He who does not attach himself to the result of his actions and does what he ought to do, is Samnyasin as well as Yogin. Karman or action is necessary to become a sage (Muni). When he has attained the dignity of a sage, the essence of it is peace. Then follows a description of the state of a man who has attained Yoga. Practice of Yoga, or contemplation, is then described. When a man goes through the Yoga practices, he attains serenity in Bhagavat, i e., becomes absorbed in him in peace. All the functions of the mind are suspended in the condition of Yoga. Seeing himself by himself he rests in himself.

Then follows an explanation of the process of abstraction and concentration. A Yogin sees himself in all things and all things in himself, looks at all things in the same light. The Supreme Spirit is not lost to him who sees Him everywhere, and sees everything to

Him, the Supreme Spirit. He who looks upon the Bhagavat as one, though he exists in all things, exists in him, though he moves about everywhere. He who regards all as himself (and looks upon them in the same light) in matters of happiness and misery is the best Yogin. Then Arjuna remarks on the difficulty of this Yoga. "The mind" he says, " is restless ". But Bhagavat replies that it can be controlled by practice as well as by reflection on the vanity of things (Vairāgya). At the end Bhagavat teaches that he is the greatest Yogin, who, having faith in him, adores him with his whole soul centred in him.

The Yoga described in this chapter is found in some of the Upanisads, especially in the Svetasvatara. The affirmation "sees himself in himself and everywhere else " occurs in the Brhadāranyaka (I V . 4. 23). The author winds up the chapter with a verse which is in every sense theistic, as he does the fifth chapter, in order, it would appear, that the description of the mental discipline contained in the last chapter, and of Yoga in this, might not lead to non-theistic conclusions. Care is taken to bring the whole into connection with the Supreme Soul.

§ 16. Chapter VII. In the last six chapters has been explained the whole process of Karmayoga from beginning to act regardless of the fruit, to the attainment of the condition of Yogin, who acting solely with a view to the acquisition of the Brahma condition, is free from passions, looks upon all things alike ; and it is added at the end that he is the best of the Yogins, who adores Bhagavat with faith and with a devoted heart. This is added to show that the processes up to the attainment of the Yoga condition, are difficult to be practised by men with such passions as we possess, and the way to be free from them is to surrender oneself to God; and therefore in this chapter Bhagavat goes on to explain the nature of created beings and of his relation to them. He begins by saying that God's Prakṛti is eightfold : the five elements, mind, will (Buddhi), and egoism. Jiva is another Prakṛti, which supports the world. From these are produced all objects or beings. Bhagavat is the source and the last resting place of the world. There is nothing further than him. All these things are strung together in him as gems in a string. That which is the characteristic excellence of a thing is Bhagavat himself. All

the three qualities and the conditions resulting from them proceed from him. Bhagavat is not in them and they are not in him. Bhagavat is beyond all these three conditions. The world, deluded by the conditions resulting from the three qualities, does not know Bhagavat, the Supreme Spirit, who is beyond them all. This Māya of Bhagavat consisting of these qualities is very difficult to be got over, and this Māya they get rid of, who take refuge in him. Wicked men do not resort to Bhagavat, their understanding being clouded by Māya and resorting to Asura or demoniacal condition.

The devotees of Bhagavat are of four kinds. Of these the Jnanin, or the enlightened, is the best. The Jnanin sticks to Bhagavat as his best refuge. The enlightened man surrenders himself to him, regarding Vāsudeva as everything. Other people are attached to other deities and undertake different vows. Their faith in their deities is generated by Bhagavat and strengthened by him. They worship those deities with that faith and attain fruit. That fruit is yielded by Bhagavat himself. But it is perishable. Not knowing Bhagavat's true nature, which is unchangeable and excellent, ignorant people regard him as something indiscrete at first and afterwards made discrete. He is not intelligible to all beings, being enveloped in Yogamāya (mystic power). He knows the past, the present and the future, and nobody knows him. By likes and dislikes all beings are deluded, and those only, who are released from the infatuation of likes and dislikes, with their sins being destroyed by the practice of virtue, adore the Supreme. Those who know Bhagavat to be Adhiyajña (presiding over worship) and Adhibhūta (presiding over beings), come to know him when they depart this life.

For the idea of all existing things being strung together in the Supreme, we may compare MU. II. 2.5, and BU. III 8.3—4; 6—7. Ordinary people are represented as resorting to other deities, lured by several desires. The Bhagavat confirms their faith in their deities, and the fruits that they get from them are perishable. Here appears the same idea as that noticed in obap. IV and to be noticed in chap. IX, viz, that the worshippers of other gods are really Bhagavat's worshippers, and that there is a principle of unity in all religions.

§ 17. Chapter VIII Arjuna begins by putting questions about the three subjects mentioned in the last Terse of the last chapter, and about Brahman and Adhyatma. Bhagavat then explains these. About perceiving him at the time of death he says : " He who leaves his body while remembering me at the time of death, attains to the same condition as mine." Finally he states that he who departs this life, while meditating on the all-knowing, eternal ruler, who is smaller than the smallest thing, who is the protector of all, whose form is unthinkable, whose brilliance is like that of the sun, and who is beyond all darkness—with devotion, his whole soul gathered between the brows with the power of concentration, reaches that Supreme Being, who is higher than the highest. He then mentions the attainment of the Unchangeable, with the mind concentrated, and the reaching of the final goal after leaving the body by means of a Yoga process and by the utterance of the syllable 'Om' and the remembrance of Bhagavat all the while. Bhagavat is easily attainable by one who meditates on him with a singleness of mind and is devoted to him. Every being is subject to transmigration, but is free from it when he reaches Bhagavat

During the night of Brahman all these things are resolved into the indiscrete (Avyakta), and, when the day dawns, they spring out again from it. There is another substance, different from the Avyakta and itself indiscrete (Avyakta), which is not destroyed when all others are destroyed. This substance which is indiscrete, is unchangeable and that is the highest resting place, which being attained to, there is no return. That is Bhagavat's highest abode. That supreme soul, in whom all these beings are and who has spread out all this, is to be attained by single-minded devotion. Then he proceeds to mention the two paths. Those who die while the sun is in his northern course (Uttarayana) go to Brahman, and those who die while he is in his southern course (Dakṣiṇayana) go to the orb of the moon, from which the soul returns.

It is worthy of observation that after mentioning that the man who meditates on the Supreme at the time of death reaches him, he mentions the attainment of the Akṣara, which is the highest

goal, by resorting to a Yoga process. This seems to be like looking back on the Yoga practices for the attainment of the Akṣara (Brahman) mentioned in the Upaniṣads, such as the Muṇḍaka (II. 2. 3), and the 'Śvetāsvatara (I. 14). In the first passage, the syllable 'Om' is compared to a bow, the soul to the arrow, and Brahman to the target which is to be hit. In the second a person is instructed to use his own body as the nether wooden piece and the Pranava as the upper one, and, practising meditations, which is like rubbing of the wooden pieces against each other, to discover the God hidden like Agni in the pieces of wood. Here the Akṣara Brahman of the Muṇḍaka is transformed into Deva (God) in the Śvetāsvatara-Upaniṣad, and the Bhagavadgītā also prescribes the meditating on Bhagavat while the syllable 'Om' is being uttered. Here, therefore, we see the effort to invest the unchangeable and indiscrete Brahman with a strong distinct personality. Later on in the chapter, another Avyakta is mentioned, besides that into which all things are resolved at the dissolution of the universe. This Avyakta is eternal and indestructible and is called Akṣara and the highest goal. Here, however, this Akṣara is at once rendered theistic by being spoken of as the highest abode or condition of Bhagavat.

8 18. Chapter IX. In this chapter Bhagavat proceeds to explain the direct and indirect knowledge which constitute the royal lore and the royal secret. It is to be directly perceived. It is holy and easy to be practised. The Bhagavat spread out all this universe. All things are in him and he is not in them, and still the objects are not in him. Wonderful is his lordly power. He is the sustainer of all beings and is not in them. His self brings all things into existence. As the air which exists in the sky is everywhere, so all beings are in him. At the dissolution of the world all beings are dissolved into his Prakṛti, and at the beginning of a new Kalpa they are discharged forth again. All these acts do not contaminate him, as he does them without any desire. With himself as the director, the Prakṛti brings forth the moveable and immoveable things. Foolish men disregard him who has assumed a human form, not knowing his true nature, viz., that he is the lord and the great ruler of all; but great souls, assuming a godly nature, knowing him to be the origin of all beings, adore him

with single-mindedness. Some people worship him by Jñānayaṁīa i e., a rationalised sacrifice, taking him as one or several, or as having his face in all directions.

He is a subsidiary as well as the main sacrifice. He is Svadha, herbs, Mantra, ghee. He is Agni and he is also oblation. He is father, mother, nourisher and grandfather of the world. He is Bo, Saman, etc. He is the way, sustainer, lord, witness, shelter and friends etc. The knowers of the three Vedas, the drinkers of Soma, worshipping him by means of sacrifice, desire habitation in heaven, where they enjoy many pleasures. After their merit has been exhausted, they come back to the mortal world again. Those who thus follow the ritual of the three Vedas come and go. He looks after the welfare of those who think of him and meditate on him with single-mindedness and adore him. Those who worship other deities must be considered as worshipping him, but they do so not according to prescribed rules. He is the receiver and lord of all kinds of Yajñas or worship, but those people do not know him as he really is, and therefore they fail. Those who worship other deities attain to them, and his worshippers attain to him. All the oblations thrown into the fire, all that is eaten and given and the austerities practised should be dedicated to him. In this way these actions do not serve as a bondage, and one becomes a real Saṁnyasin and goes to him. He who adores Bhagavat with single-mindedness, becomes holy, even if he be wicked. He becomes immediately holy and obtains peace. Even women, Vaiśyas and Śūdras, when they resort to him, attain to the highest place. The seeker of the good should direct his mind towards him, should be his devotee, should worship him, should bow to him, and acting in this way, and being thus fully devoted to him, he will reach him.

Here the performance of sacrificial rites is, in the manner which has become usual, mentioned as efficacious for the acquisition of a place in heaven. From this place persons return when their merit is exhausted, but there is no return when a man devotes himself to Bhagavat with all his heart. God is further personalised and brought home to man by being declared as his father, mother, nourisher, grandfather, friend, refuge, etc. The attitude to other gods is of toleration. The worship offered to

them is really offered to Bhagavat, but the worshippers do not know B'la^avat as he truly is, and therefore go wrong.

§ 19. Chapter X. The gods and Rsis do not know the origin of Bhagavat. He was before them ail. He who knows Bhagavat to be the unborn and unbeginning lord of all worlds, is free from all sins. All the mental conditions, knowledge, absence of ignorance, forgiveness, truth, self-control, serenity, pain and pleasure, etc., are from him. The seven ancient Maharsis and four Manus sprang from him, whose descendants are ail these men. Good men adore Bhagavat with pure faith, knowing him to be the origin of all and that everything is set in motion by him. They, with their minds directed towards him, with their souls centred in him, enlighten each other, speak about him, and thus they are satisfied end are happy. Out of sympathy for them he dispels the darkness of ignorance by the light of knowledge, being himself in his true condition. When they adore him thus constantly full of love, he grants them that condition of mind by means of which they reach him.

Then questioned by Arjuna as to the Vibhūtis or excellent forms of each species or group, which pervade the world, Bhagavat proceeds to mention them. He is the soul that dwells in the heart; of men and is the origin, the middle and the end of all beings. He is Viṣṇu of the Adityas, the sun of all shining things, Kapila of the Siddhas, Prahlada of all Daityas, Rama of wielders of weapons, philosopoy (Adhyatma) of all lores, Dvandva of compounds, Kīrti (fame) of all females, Vasudeva of Vṛṣṇis and Dhanarhjaya of Pandavas. That object which has excellence and splendour should be known as arising from his lustre.

There is to be observed here one special characteristic of the Bhakti school, and that is that all the devotees meet together, enlighten each other as to the nature of God, and contribute by discourses on him to each other 's elevation and gratification. This is almost a characteristic mark of Bhaktas as distinguished from the Yogins, who have to go through their exercises singly and in solitude.

§ 20. Chapter XL The Viraj form of God, i e., all being looked at simultaneously as constituting one whole, as also his destructive

form, in which all enter into his mouth and are absorbed, is described in this chapter. Arjuna praises him that he does not see the end, the beginning, the middle of him, that he is the guardian of eternal righteousness and entreats him to give up this frightful form and assume the more usual and the more agreeable human form. In verse 30, Arjuna addresses him as Viṣṇu saying that his dazzling brilliance makes everything hot and his lustre has filled the whole universe.

The idea of looking at the universe as a form of god is as old as the *Puruṣasūkta* (RV. X. 90). God's having eyes everywhere, face everywhere, arms everywhere and the feet everywhere is expressed in RV. X. 81. 3. This verse is repeated in *Śvetaśvatara-Upaniṣad* III. 3.

§ 21. Chapter XII. This chapter starts with a question as to the difference between the contemplation on the original indiscrete cause which is unchangeable (Aksara), and the worship of him (Vasudeva), and the reply is, they are the best devotees, who, fixing their minds upon him, meditate on him with a concentrated attention and faith. Those who, with their senses restrained, meditate on the Indiscrete, Unchangeable, Undefinable, as existing everywhere and unthinkable, also reach him, but the trouble to them is greater. Bhagavat delivers from the ocean of death those, who, dedicating all their actions to him and meditating on him, worship him; and he teaches Arjuna to fix his mind on him and concentrate his will on him, and, if he cannot fix his mind firmly upon him, then to endeavour to obtain him by continued remembrance of him. If this last is not feasible, he should perform deeds for his sake, and doing this he would obtain success. If, however, he is not able to do this, with his mind fixed on him, he should abandon desire for the fruit of all his actions. Then follows an enumeration of the virtues of those who are devotees of God and are specially dear to him, such as not hating any being, being the friend of all, being humble, being indifferent to praise or censure, etc.

In this chapter the meditation on the Aksara or unchangeable indiscrete cause is again mentioned as opposed to the worship of Bhagavat as a personal God. In similar passages in the previous chapters, the personalisation is effected at once by inserting a

follow reflections on God and the seeing of the Supreme Soul everywhere.

The works, therefore, upon which this chapter is based are some of the Upaniṣads and some treatises setting forth the constitution of the world and the principles of morality. These treatises may have been the discourses first independent and afterwards included in the Śāntiparvan and other parts of the Mahābhārata, or they may have been others of which we have no trace ; but there is no mention here of the Sāṃkhya system by name nor a special reference to it as elaborated in later times by Īśvarakṛṣṇa. The idea of the twenty-four principles is ancient and seems to have been appropriated afterwards by the founders of the philosophic systems, as it suited their purpose. But no chronological conclusions can be deduced from the mention of those twenty-four principles. The doctrine that all action proceeds from the Prakṛti, and the soul is inactive and simply enjoys or suffers, which is a true Sāṃkhya doctrine, but is calculated to absolve a man from moral responsibility, is also mentioned; but it appears to come incidentally along with the twenty-four principles.

§ 23. Chapter XIV. The great Brahman is the womb (Yoni) for Bhagavat into which he throws seed. Of all the wombs that produce bodily forms, Brahman is the greatest. Bhagavat then proceeds to detail the nature of the three Guṇas, their products and their results in the future world. These Guṇas prove as bondage, and when they are got over, then the man is free from the bondage and becomes immortal. The distinguishing characteristic of one who is free from these three Guṇas is a quiet undisturbed serene mood, in which happiness and misery are alike, and gold, clod of earth and stone are alike, in which agreeable and disagreeable things are alike, and praise and censure are also alike, etc He who invariably resorts to Bhagavat: by Bhaktiyoga becomes free from these three Guṇas and attains to the condition of Brahman. Bhagavat is the support of the immortal and unchanging Brahman and of eternal righteousness (duty) and of unending happiness.

Here then is a distinct affirmation of the soul's attainment of freedom from passions by means of continuous devotion to Bhaga-

vat or God. The word Brahmayoni occurs in MU. III. 1. 3, and is to be interpreted, in the light of the opening statement in the above, as one whose Yoni is Brahman.

§ 24 Chapter XV. Bhagavat proceeds to the comparison of Samsara, or the whole extent of things, to the Pippal-tree. This tree is to be cut by the weapon of indifference or non-attachment; and then should be sought that place from which there is no return. One should surrender himself to the original Puruṣa. Those reach that unchanging position or place, who are free from pride, ignorance, desires, and the pair of happiness and misery. That is the highest abode of Bhagavat, which is not illuminated by the sun, the moon or the fire. When a soul departs from a body, it takes away the Indriyas, of which Manas is the sixth, and brings them in when it assumes another body. The soul itself is a part of Bhagavat and is eternal. This soul, placing itself in these six Indriyas, resorts to all objects of sense. The brilliance existing in the sun, which illumines the whole world, and which exists in the moon as well as in fire, is to be known as that of Bhagavat. By beooming Soma, Bhagavat raises all herbs. By becoming fire he contributes to digestion. He dwells in the heart of all. From him proceeds consciousness of one's condition, knowledge, and the rejection of what is not true. Bhagavat alone is to be known by means of all the Vedas and as the author of Vedānta and the knower of the Veda. There are two souls in the world, one that changes, and the other that is unchangeable. Betides these there is another who is the highest and is called Paramātmān, and who as the unchangeable lord supports all the three worlds after entering into them. Bhagavat is known to be that Highest Soul in the ordinary world and also in the Vedas.

There is one new point brought out in this chapter. And that is that the animal soul goes out of the body along with the six senses and enters new ones in that condition. The comparison of the composite universe to the Pippal-tree occurs in KU. (VI. 1), MaiU. (VI. 4), and the non-illumination of the highest abode of Bhagavat is mentioned in a verse in KU. (V. 15), MU, (II. 2. 10), and ŚU. (VI. 14). The doctrine of the existence of the third highest Puruṣa should also be noted as a characteristic of this theistic work. The triad, Kṣara, Akṣara or Atman (individual

soul), and the ruling one God, is mentioned in ŚU. (1.10), which work is a precursor of the Bhagavadgītā.

§ 25. Chapter XVI. Bhagavat now proceeds to enumerate the virtues which constitute the divine endowments (Daivī Saṃpad), and the vices that constitute demoniacal possessions. From divine endowments results final deliverance, and from the demoniacal possessions, follows destruction. There are two classes of created beings : one is divine and the other demoniacal. In persons of the latter class there is no purity nor correct conduct nor truth. They regard the world as unreal, without substratum or support, without God, disconnected and what more, springing from lust. Holding this view these wicked and dull persons with their ferocious deeds bring about the destruction of the world. Full of insatiable lust and possessed of vanity, pride, and arrogance, they act in an unholy manner, sticking to their own false conceits. They accumulate wealth by foul means for enjoyment and boasting of their possessions, their power, their parentage, they treat others with contempt and eventually go to the infernal regions. If they worship at all, they simply utter the name and assume a false garb. They are full of egotism and hate Bhagavat, as abiding in their own bodies and those of others. These wicked men he consigns to the race of the demons. Desire, anger and covetousness are the three doors to hell. These three, therefore, should be abandoned. He who avoids these three doors reaches the highest goal. He who abandons sacred precepts and acts according to his own will, does not obtain success, happiness or the highest goal. The sacred precepts must, therefore, be followed whenever a man has to do anything or avoid anything

Here two classes of men, good and bad, are mentioned. Among the latter are included not only worldly men who do not care for God or morality, but the followers of philosophical or religious systems, different from that of Bhagavat seem also to be included. They set aside the sacred Śāstra or precepts, denied God, as Buddhists and Jainas did, and regarded the world as unsubstantial or unreal, as the former did.

§ 26. Chapter XVII. Arjuna asks: " What is the frame of mind of those who set aside the sacred precepts and still worship

with faith ? Is It oharacterised by the quality of goodness, activity or ignorance ? " Bhagavat answers: " Faith is of three kinds, oharacterised by goodness, activity, and darkness or ignorance. The faith of a man depends upon the quality of his heart. A man is what faith makes of him. As is his faith, so is the man ". The good worship gods, the active, Yaksas and Rakshases or evil spirits, and the ignorant, ghosts and spectres. Men of demoniacal frame of mind perform terrible austerities full of ostentation and egotism, and cause attenuation of the elements composing the body and of the Bhagavat who dwells in it. He then mentions three kinds of food, modes of worship, austerities and gifts, in keeping with the three qualities. For instance, in the case of worship or sacrifice, that is in keeping with the quality of goodness, which is performed without any regard for the fruit and in accordance with the sacred ritual. That springs from the quality of activity, which is done for the attainment of fruit and out of ostentation; and that which is done without regard for the sacred precepts and without Dakṣiṇa or rewards to the priest and without any faith, proceeds from the quality of ignorance. As to charitable gifts, those spring from the quality of goodness, which are made because it is a duty to give to one from whom no return is expected ; while that which is made with an interested motive and with a desire for return, springs from the quality of activity. And in this manner all the four subjects are treated. At the end the doing of good acts by the repetition of the syllables " Om, tat, sat " is mentioned.

In this chapter the truth that man's religious faith and the character of the God that he worships, depend upon his own character whether good or bad, is clearly recognised. Not only the nature of the God worshipped, but also the diet, the mode of worship, charity or gifts, and the practice of austerity differ according as a man's nature is influenced by one or other of the three qualities, goodness, activity, and ignorance.

27. Chapter XVIII. This chapter begins with a question by Arjuna as to the principles of renunciation and abandonment. Bhagavat replies that renunciation is the giving up of works springing from desires, and abandonment is the abandonment of fruits of actions. Some say that all Karman should be abandoned; others say that worship, charity and austerity should not be given

up. The decision is that these last should not be abandoned, as they bring about purity of the soul. The actions should be done without being attached to them or desiring for the fruits. That duty that must be done, should not be abandoned. Giving up that duty is an ignorant deed. When action is avoided because it is wearisome, its abandonment springs from the quality of passion. When the essential action is done because it should be done without any desire for fruit or attachment, that abandonment springs from goodness. It is not possible for a living being to abandon all actions. He who abandons only the fruit, is really one who has abandoned actions. According to the Sāṃkhya doctrine, there are five different causes: the resting place, agent, instrument, varied movements and fate. In this manner it goes on. Some acts or states of mind are represented to vary according to the three qualities, such as knowledge, the deed done and the doer, Buddhi or will, firmness and happiness, and the duties of the different castes.

The man who worships Him, from whom all beings have sprung and who has spread out all this, by doing the duties assigned to him, for which the three qualities have fitted him, attains final success. He then proceeds to mention all those virtues and other states of mind, such as self-control, freedom and passions, which conduce to the realisation of the Brahma-condition. When this condition is realised, a man is free from sorrow and desire, and, being equally disposed towards all beings, he develops in himself the highest love for Bhagavat, and knowing Bhagavat fully and truly, enters into the Bhagavat. One should do all acts, intent only upon God, and then one obtains the eternal place by the favour of God. A man should fix his mind upon Bhagavat alone, dedicating all his actions to him, and then he gets over all evils by the grace of Bhagavat.

Then Bhagavat winds up the whole by teaching Arjuna to surrender himself with all his heart to God (the Ruler), who abides in the hearts of all things and moves them, as if forming parts of a wheel; and then he says, by his favour Arjuna would obtain perfect peace and an eternal resting-place. He is further instructed to dedicate his whole mind to Bhagavat, to become

his devotee, to worship him, to bow to him, and in this way he (Arjuna) would reach him. This is styled the deepest secret. Then Arjuna is told to set aside all other methods of salvation and surrender himself to Bhagavat alone, and Bhagavat would then free him from all his sins. And thus the chapter ends.

This is the Ekāntika Dharma or monotheistic religion, which, as the Nārayanīya tells us, was communicated to Arjuna. The method of salvation here revealed is to lead a life of action, but the fruit of the action one should not be intent on. The action should be done disinterestedly, - that is, a man should be selfless in doing it. The action should be dedicated to Brahman, that is, it should be done because the Universal Order requires it to be done. This is tantamount to saying that one should do one's duty because it is a duty. When a more personal interpretation is given to it, the doctrine comes to this, that one should act with the sole object of carrying out God's will. The frame of mind that is generated by consistently acting in this manner, is freedom from passion, a sense of the omnipresence of God and an equal regard for all things. This leads to the realisation of the highest love of God, and, knowing Bhagavat thoroughly, by this means a man is absorbed in him.

But to do one's duty consistently and selflessly is a matter difficult, since all beings are subject to the influence of the three qualities or, in our modern phraseology, of passions and appetencies. These can be got over by surrendering oneself to God.

vI. The Sources of the Religion of the Bhagavadgītā.

§ 28. This constant insistence on action being done without any regard for the fruit, that is, disinterestedly or selflessly, forms a peculiarity of the Bhagavadgita. But the idea is not new. In the Iśopaniṣad it is stated in the second verse, that a man should desire to live a hundred years doing actions resolutely, and in that way and no other, will action not contaminate him. And the non-contamination as the result of an elevated state of mind is spoken of in ChU. IV. 14. 3; BU. 4. 23; and MaiU. VI 20.

The attributes of the Supreme Being the Gita draws from the Upanisads, as has been already shown in the remarks on the differ-

ent chapters. While the personality of God is fully acknowledged in certain parts of the Upaniṣads, mere Brahman, the personality of which is not so distinct, is also spoken of in some places. When the Bhagavadgita takes in these passages, it takes care to distinctly personalise the Akṣara or Brahman, as we have shown. The source from which the Gītā derives its doctrines about the conquest of the self and the attainment of a condition of a peace and serenity, is the general atmosphere of religious and moral sentiment, that came to prevail from the beginning of the earliest Upaniṣad speculations to the formation of definite religious systems, orthodox and heterodox. Consequently, though the Gītā speaks of the Brahma-Nirvana, it ought not to be supposed that it borrows this doctrine of final peace and serenity from Buddhism. The source resorted to by these systems was common to all.

Besides the Upaniṣads and the religious and moral atmosphere prevalent at that time, the Gita avails itself of the philosophy that had come into existence in early times. This is the philosophy of the Samkhya and the Yoga. Though the twenty-four principles of the former system, together with the Puruṣa or soul as the twenty-fifth, as known in later times, and the doctrine of the activity of the Prakṛti only and the non-activity of Puruṣa, are alluded to in the Bhagavadgita, still it adds another soul called the Uttama Puruṣa or the Supreme Soul, which is not found in the later Sāmkhya, thus giving a theistic character to the philosophy. In their account of the creation, the Purāṇas follow this philosophy, and the later Vaiṣṇava and Śaiva systems adopt it in a more or less qualified manner.

But the word Samkhya does not seem to be used in the Bhagavadgita to indicate the later non-theistic system. In the second chapter and in the fifth, Samkhya indicates a philosophy based upon knowledge, and Yoga, one based on action. Again the five causes, that are alluded in the last chapter as mentioned in the Samkhya system, do not appear to be known to the later Samkhya. The speculative philosophy, therefore, that existed about the time of the Śvetasvatara-Upaniṣad and the Bhagavadgita, was known by the name of Samkhya, and out of it grew the non-theistic system of later times. The Yoga,

the philosophy of action, too did prevail, but it culminated, as indicated before, into a concentration of mind, the ordinary operation being suspended, on the Brahman, Aksara, or the Supreme Soul.

29. Thus the Bhagavadgita is the result of development of the religious and philosophic speculation that prevailed before the rise of Buddhism. But the origin of the idea of Bhakti, or love of God, which is the characteristic of the work, has formed the subject of a great deal of speculation in modern times, and to this point we will now turn. In the Upanisads, Upasana, or fervent meditation of a number of things—such as Manas (mind), the Bun, the Puruṣa in the sun or the moon, food, vital breath, etc., regarded as Brahman, i.e., thinking of them as Brahman—is prescribed. Such a fervent meditation cannot but magnify the thing and give it a glorious form so as to excite admiration and even love. Again what is called the Internal Atman (soul) is said in the Brhadaranyaka to be dearer than a son, wealth and everything else (I. 4. 8.). Here the word Atman may possibly be taken to mean one's own soul. In the same Upaniṣad there is another passage which runs thus: " This is that Great Unborn, who is of the form of thought among vital airs, who dwells in the cavity of the heart, who is controller of all, ruler of all, the lord of all. By doing good or evil deeds he does not become better or worse. He is the ruler of all beings, he is the causeway or dike that separates things from one another and prevents them being confused together (he is the preserver of order). The Brahmanas desire to know him by the words of the Vedas, by worship, charity and austerity. Knowing him, one becomes a saṁśa. The recluses desiring him as the place to live in, renounce the world. On this account the wise men of old did not desire progeny, saying to themselves: ' What shall we do with progeny, when we have got this Being, this world to live in ? ' ; and thus they gave up desire for sons, wealth and the world and lived the life of mendicants " (IV. 4. 22).

Now, if those wise men of old gave up all the pleasures of the world to contemplate and dwell with the Supreme Being, so eloquently described, must it not be considered that they were actuated by love for Him, though the word Bhakti does not occur

here ? And at the bottom of all those rapturous sayings about the peace attained by seeing the Supreme Soul in the world and the heart of man, there must be a feeling akin to love. And during the period when the Rgveda poetry was composed, love for God or gods was often an abiding sentiment in the heart of the poet, as is evident from the words : " Dyaus is my father " (RV. 1.104. 33), " Aditi (the boundless) is father, mother, and son" (RV. I. 89. 10); and from such prayers as " O father Dyaus, avert all evils ", " Be accessible to us and gracious as a father to the son", etc. Though the later sacrificial ritual destroyed the spirit of these verses and converted them into simple verbal formulae, still, the feeling that was in the heart at the time when they were composed, must have continued, though it found no expression for a time and exhibited itself again mixed with wonder and admiration in the times of the Upanisads. It certainly was not absent during this last period. The text about the two birds, the friends and companions of each other, by which are meant the Supreme and Individual souls exists in the Rksarhita (I. 164. 20) and is repeated in the Mundaka-Upaniṣad (VII.1. 1).

In the last (MU. III. 2. 3), and in the KU. (II. 23), there is a verse to the effect that this Supreme Soul is not to be attained by lectures (from a teacher), nor by intelligence, nor by much learning; he is to be attained by him whom the Supreme Soul favours; to him he discloses his form. Again we have the doctrine that the supremely wise Being, the life of all, leads a man to do good deeds, whom he desires to elevate (KBU. III. 8); and another, that God dwelling in the heart of all beings, controls them—which latter forms the subject of a celebrated passage in the BU. III. 7. From this it is clear that the doctrine that the individual soul is dependent on the Supreme and that the latter alone works out his salvation, was acknowledged in Upaniṣad times.

! 30. In this manner all the points that constitute the Ekantika religion of the Bhagavadgita are to be found in the older religious literature. The word Bhakti, however, in the sense of love is not to be found except in a verse in ŚU. But that word is not always used in the sense of love even by Rāmānuja. In his system Bhakti means constant meditation and corresponds to the Upasana of

of the Upanisads. The word etymologically signifies resorting to and then loving the thing resorted to. It is used in this sense by Pāṇini in Sūtra IV. 3. 95 ; but the word, as explained by the commentators, has a passive sense and means a thing resorted to, liked or loved; and general and special terminations are prescribed, which, when affixed to a noun, indicate one by whom the thing expressed by the noun is liked or loved. In this sense the word Bhakti is used by Yaska also, when he speaks of certain things as Agnibhaktini, Indrabhaktini, i. e., things which resorted to, or relate themselves to, Agni, etc. Thus the idea of love* was associated with the word in early times, though it then signified loved instead of love. Properly speaking, by the rules of Pāṇini himself, it ought to signify the latter, as the suffix, indicates Bhava or condition. Howsoever the word may have come into use in later times, the thing expressed by it, viz.; love for the Atman or the Supreme Soul, was an idea implied and often expressed by the word Priya or Preyas in the Upanisad period.

§ 31. The state of things which must have led to the evolution of the religion of the Gita seems to me to be this. About the time when the systems of religion we have been considering arose, there was a tendency amongst the people which often worked itself out, as is evident from the Pali Birth-Stories, to give up worldly life and betake themselves to a residence in forests or mountains. Even Buddhism, Jainism and other like systems considered an ascetic life to be a sine qua non of religious elevation. There is reason to believe that Sramanas existed before the rise of Buddhism. The religious systems that had sprung up were mostly atheistic. The Indian mind had become prone to indulge in mere moral discourses and thoughts of moral exaltation, unassociated with a theistic faith, as appears clear from Buddhism and other systems, and also from dry moral dissertations of which the Mahabharata is full. Such a system as that of the Bhagavadgita was, therefore, necessary to counteract these tendencies. Theistic ideas were so scattered in the Upanisads, that it was necessary for practical purposes to work them up into a system of redemption capable of being grasped easily;

These appear to be the conditions under which the Gita came
6(R.G. Bhandarkar's Works, Vol IV.)

into existence. I am not inclined to dissolve Vasudeva and Arjuna into solar myths; but Vasudeva could not have been living when the Bhagavadgita was composed as a discourse delivered by him, any more than Buddha was living when his discourses were reduced to the form of books. It is worthy of remark that both of them are called Bhagavats when speaking. Vasudeva must already have been deified before the Bhagavadgita, was written.

As regards the attitude of the Bhagavat to the older belief, it is evident that it is conservative and he came to fulfil the law and not supersede it. It must already have been seen that he looks at the sacrificial religion from almost the same point of view as the Upanisads. The cherishing of desires which the sacrificial rites encouraged is considered harmful, and the fruit attained by means of them is perishable. It was because this Ekantika religion WAS SO conservative, that it gradually made its way into Hindu society in general, though it did not succeed in uprooting the religion of sacrifices. Still it always retained its character as a religion for women and for all castes, Śūdras included, and in its later development it was associated with such Vedic rites as then remained when it was professed by the Brahmanas, but not so associated when its followers were of lower castes, among whom it continued to exercise great influence. The Bhagavat's attitude towards the worshippers of other gods has already been explained. It was strictly liberal. All worship to whomsoever it was directed, reaches him ultimately, but the devotees of other gods do not know Bhagavat as he truly is and thus go wrong. This attitude must have had something to do with the influence of the Vasudeva-Kṛṣṇa cult over the lower classes.

VII. Identification of Vāsudeva with Nārāyaṇa.

S 31 The word Narayana is similar to Nadayana, which last is formed by P. I V. 1. 99 and means the Gotra Nidāyana. The termination is significative and means in this case the testing place or the place to which Nada or a collection of Nādas go. So Narayana means the resting place or goal of Nara or a collection of Naras¹. In the Nirayaniya (XII. 341) Kesava or

¹ See Medhatithi's commentary on Manu 1.10.

Hari says to Arjuna that he is known as the resting place or goal of men (Naranam). The word Nr or Nara is also used to denote gods as manly persons, especially in the Vedas, so that Narayana may be construed as the resting place or goal of gods. There is a tradition which connects Narayana with the primeval waters. Manu (1.10), and also Hari in the above passage say that the waters were called Naras because they were the sons of Nara, and, since they were the first resting place of Brahma in the first case and of Hari in the second; the two were called Narayanasa. The Puranas, such as the Vayu and the Visnu, agree with Mann; Again there is a tradition that Brahmadeva sprang from the lotus In the navel of Narayana or Visnu (MBh. I I I . 12. 34 and X I I . 349:18). In the Vayu-Purana Narayana is represented as prior to Avyakta or matter in an undeveloped form, and from Avyakta sprang the mundane egg, and from the latter arose Brahmadeva.

All these traditions in various forms seem to go back to RV. X. 82.5 and 6, which may be thus translated: "Prior to the sky, prior to this earth, prior to the living gods, what is that embryo which the waters held first and in which all the gods existed? The waters held that same embryo in which all gods exist or find themselves; on the navel of the unborn stood something in which all beings stood *. In this we have first the waters mentioned; on those waters stood the embryo, which corresponds to the Brahma of the later tradition, who created everything; and the unborn corresponds to Narayana from whose navel he sprang. In this embryo all the gods, it is said, found themselves. This corresponds to the Naras, men or gods, whose goal or resting place was Narayana, so that this confirms the identity between Brahma and Narayana mentioned by Manu and some of the Puranas Narayana therefore, who, by the other authorities cited above, is considered prior to Brahmadeva and to the Svayambhu of Manu; is another person and has a cosmic character and is not a historical or mythological individual. This idea of Narayana was developed in the period of the later Brahmanas and Aranyakas

In the Śatapatha-Bṛiḥmana (X I I 3. 4), Purusa Narayana is represented to have sent forth from the place of sacrifice Vasus, Rudras and Adityas by means of the morning, midday and evening libations respectively, he alone remaining in the place, pra-

japati-tells him to sacrifice again, and the substance of the whole is that Narayana placed himself in all the worlds, in all the gods, in all the Vedas and in all the vital airs, and they were placed in him. This shadows forth the rising of Nārāyaṇa to the dignity of the Supreme Soul, who pervades all and in whom all things exist and who in the beginning sent forth all the gods, being himself their receptacle or resting place as indicated in RV. X. 82. 6. In another place (XIII. 6. 1) Puruṣa Nārāyaṇa is mentioned as having conceived the idea of a Parloaratra Sattrā (continued sacrifices for five days) as the means of obtaining superiority over all beings and becoming all beings. He performed the sacrifices and attained to that dignity. Here also Nārāyaṇas becoming the Supreme Ruler and becoming all are spoken of. Narayana is represented as the author of the Puruṣasūkta (RV. X. 90). This appears to be as much a fanoiful representation, as that of Viśvakarmān and others as authors of other hymns. As in these last cases, it has a-connection with the deity to which the hymn refers, so that Narayana is another name of the Puruṣa, and these two names are associated together, as we have seen, in the above citations from the Śatapatha-Brahmana. In the Taittirīya-Araṇyaka (X. 11) Narayana is described with all the attributes of the Supreme soul, which are usually found mentioned in the Upaniṣads.

In the Mahābhārata and Purānas, he figures as the supreme god; especially in connection with the creation; mythologically he is-represented as lying on the body of a huge serpent in the ocean of milk, the original conception of his connection with the primeval waters being still kept to. Narayana thus became an object of Worship. In the Ghosundi Inscription noticed before,¹ there is what appears to be a dedication of an enclosure to Narayana (Narayādia-Vatikli).

33. The heaven of this Narayana was the Śvetadvīpa or white island. In the Kathaśaritsāgara (54. 19, 21, 23) Naravahana-datta is represented to have been carried to the white island by Devasiddhi and to Hari reposing on the body of the serpent Śeṣa and attended by Nārada and other devotees. In another place in the same work (115, 101-3) certain gods are spoken of as having gone to Svetadvīpa and seen Hari in a house made of great gems,

lying on the serpent bed with Laksmi sitting at his feet. In the Hari-vamsa (14,384) it is stated that Yogins and Kapilasamkhyas, who desire Mokṣa or final deliverance, go to the white island or Svetadvīpa, by reciting the prayer and praise composed by Balin. Evidently, therefore, Svetadvīpa or white island is the heaven in which Nārāyaṇa, spoken of sometimes as Hari, dwells. It corresponds to the Vaikuntha of Viṣṇu, the Kailāsa of Śiva, and the Goloka of Gopālakṛṣṇa; and to that heaven of Nārāyaṇa it was that Nārada went and saw him and learned from him the monotheistic religion of Vāsudeva. There is, therefore, no need to suppose that the white island was a Christian country peopled by white races.

§ 34. Nārāyaṇa, being thus evolved as the Supreme Being in the later Brāhmanic period, was, of course, prior to Vāsudeva, and in the epic times when the worship of the latter arose, Vāsudeva was identified with Nārāyaṇa. In the Vanaparvan (chapa 188, 189) there is a description of the condition of things at the time of dissolution of the universe, in which it is stated that there was water everywhere and there was a boy lying on couch on a branch of a Nyagrodha tree. He opened his mouth and took in Markaṇḍeya, who roamed in the inside and saw the whole universe and was struck with wonder. Then the boy vomited or threw him out, when he saw again the waters alone. Mārkaṇḍeya then asked the boy who he was; then he said: "Formerly I gave to the waters the name of Nārāṇ, and those were my resting place (Ayana), and therefore I am Nārāyaṇa", and thus he goes on to describe his greatness. Finally Mārkaṇḍeya, who tells the whole story, says to Yudhiṣṭhira that Janārdana, his relative, is this same Nārāyaṇa. The burden of the whole of the Narayaniya section seems to be this identity between Nārāyaṇa and Vāsudeva.

Besides this Narayana, the creator of all, there was a tradition about another who was always associated with Nara. This companionship seems to be traceable to the Upanisad idea of two birds dwelling in a tree, friends and associates of each other. That one of those, who is called the lord and the onlooker, is in the present tradition Nārāyaṇa, and the other, who is engaged in eating the fruit of the tree, Nara. The old idea was transferred to the new conception of Nārāyaṇa as the resting place or abode of all men. In

the opening chapter of the Narayaniya it is stated that Narayana the eternal soul of the universe, with four forms became the son of Dharma. The four forms or four sons were Nara, Narayana, Hari and Kṛṣṇa. The first two of these devoted themselves to the practice of austerities in the Badarikasrama,

The same story is given in the Vāmana-Purāṇa (chap. 6). These four are represented as the sons of Dharma and had Ahimsā (non-killing) as their mother. This story seems to be significant. About the time when the new systems of religion arose, the ideas that were undergoing fermentation were Dharma or righteousness and Ahimsā or non-slaughter, as against the old ceremonial of sacrificial rites and the killing of animals in accordance with it. These four names, therefore, were names connected with the introduction of a new system of religion, not heterodox, which concerned itself with righteousness and non-slaughter of animals. That is what appears to be meant by Dharma being called the father of these four and Ahimsa their mother.

Nara and Narayana are sometimes called Rsis, and that is probably to be traced to the conception of Nārāyaṇa as the Rsi or composer of the Puruṣasukta. These gods must have been very famous at the time when the Mahabharata was composed, since in the opening stanza of the different books obeisance is made to these two gods. In the Vanaparvan (12. 46,47) Janardana is represented to have said to Arjuna " Oh invincible one, thou art Nara and I am Hari Narayana, and we, the sages Nare-Narayana have come to this world at the proper time; thou art not different from me, oh Partha, and I am not different from thee it is not possible to know any difference between us. ** In chap. 30 (verse 1) of the same Parvan, the God of gods (Śiva) says to Arjuna : " In a former birth (body) thou wast Nara and with Narayana for thy companion, performedst austerities for many thousands of years in Badari ". In the Udyogaparvan (49.19) it is said: " The two heroes, Vasudeva and Arjuna, who are great warriors, are the old gods Nara and Narayana. This is the tradition." In this manner there are a good many examples of the identification of Arjuna and Vasudeva with Nara and Narayana. And thus the old tradition about the two Rsis who

ere warriors at the same time was brought into connection with the two interlocutors of the Bhagavadgita.

VIII. Identification of Vasudeva with Viṣṇu.

§ 35. Viṣṇu is a Vedic deity. There are but few hymns addressed to him in RV., but his personality is by no means unimportant. The long strides which he takes, and the three steps by which he measures the universe, are always described with an enthusiastic spirit. His first two steps can be discerned and approached by men, but the third no one can dare transgress, and it is beyond the flight of birds (RV. I. 155.5). The wise see the highest place of Viṣṇu (Paramam padam), as it were an eye fixed in the heaven (RV. I. 22. 20.). In the highest place of Visnu there is a well of honey, and there the gods rejoice (RV. I. 154. 5). Viṣṇu appears as the comrade and helper of Indra.

Viṣṇu, however, in spite of his comparatively subordinate position in RV., began to rise in importance in the time of the Brahmanas, while during the epic and Purāṇic period he rose to the rank of the supreme spirit. The moment which seems to have been in operation during this process of elevation, was reverence for the third step or the mysterious highest abode of Viṣṇu beyond the ken of all. In the Brahmanic period we have the mention of Agni as the lowest of the gods and Viṣṇu as the highest (AB.1.1). Then we have a story in Śatapatha-Brahmaṇa and Taittirīya-Araṇyaka of a sacrificial session held by the gods for the attainment of splendour, glory and food. They proposed to themselves that he amongst them, who by his deeds reached the end of the sacrifice before the others, should attain the highest place among them all. Viṣṇu reached the end before the others, and he thus became the highest of the gods; and therefore they say that Visnu is the highest of the gods (SB. XIV. 1.1.). When this was written, Viṣṇu had already attained to the supreme dignity, and the story is invented to account for it. There is again in the same Brahmanas (1. 2.5) the story of Viṣṇu the dwarf. When the gods and Asuras were contending for a place of sacrifice, the latter agreed that they would allow as much land for the former as was equal to the size of the dwarf. Viṣṇu was then made to lie down, but gradually he grew so large as to encompass the

whole earth, and so the gods got the whole earth. Here a miraculous power has been attributed to Viṣṇu, though he is not necessarily the Supreme Spirit.

In the Maitri-Upaniṣad (VI. 13) food is called the form of Bhagavad-Viṣṇu, which sustains the universe. In the Kāṭha-Upaniṣad (III. 9) the progress of the human soul is compared to a journey, and the end of the path which he traverses is called the highest place of Viṣṇu (Paramam padam). This is the final goal and the abode of eternal bliss, and the use of the word in this sense lends support to the view that the elevation of Viṣṇu to the dignity of the Supreme Being was due to the fact that the expression was capable of being used to denote this sense. Some time after, Viṣṇu became even a household god. In the ceremony of the seven steps contained in the marriage ritual, the bridegroom has to say to the bride, when she puts forth a step : " May Viṣṇu lead you or be with you." This formula occurs in the Grhya-sūtras of Apastamba, Hiranyakeśin and Paraskara, but not in that of Aśvalāyana. In epic times Viṣṇu grew to be in every respect the Supreme Spirit; and Vasudeva is identified with Viṣṇu. In chapters 65 and 66 of the Bhismaparvan noticed before,¹ the Supreme Spirit is addressed as Nārayaṇa and Viṣṇu and is identified with Vasudeva.

In the Anugītā portion of the Āśvamedhikaparvan (chap.53-55) Kṛṣṇa, while returning to Dvārakā, meets on the way a sage of the name of Uttāṅka of the Bhr̥gu race. The sage asks Kṛṣṇa whether he had established peace between the contending kinsmen, Pāṇḍus and Kurjś, and established affectionate relations between them. Kṛṣṇa replies that the Kurus had been destroyed and the Pāṇḍus were in possession of the supreme sovereignty. The sage got angry and said that he would pronounce a curse against Kṛṣṇa, but if he explained to him the philosophy of the soul (Adhyātma), he would desist. Kṛṣṇa then does explain this philosophy at the request of Uttāṅka and shows him his universal form (Virat svarupam). The Svarupa is the same as, or similar to, that shown to Arjuna according to the Bhagavadgītā, but it is here called the Vaiṣṇava form (Rūpa), which name does not occur in the other passage. Thus then between the period of the Bhaga-

¹ Ante, pp. 13 and ff. (N. B. 0.]

vadgita and that of the Anugita, the identity of Vasudeva-Kṛṣṇa with Viṣṇu had become an established fact. In the Śāntiparvan (chap. 43) Yudhiṣṭhira addressing Kṛṣṇa sings a hymn of praise, in which Kṛṣṇa is identified with Viṣṇu. In the epic times, Viṣṇu is regarded as the Supreme Spirit, but the names of Nārāyaṇa and Vasudeva-Kṛṣṇa apparently occur more frequently or are more prominent.

§ 36. Still many parts of the Mahābhārata represent a condition of things in which the divinity Vāsudeva-Kṛṣṇa was not generally acknowledged. In the above passage from the Anugītā, the sage Uttan̄ka is about to pronounce a curse on Kṛṣṇa, as if he was an ordinary individual, and desists only when his universal form, is shown to him. Similarly in many passages noticed by Dr. Muir (O. S. T. IV, pp. 205ff.) Kṛṣṇa's divinity is denied; and Sarh̄jaya and Bh̄ṣma make strenuous efforts to establish it.

What appears to be the fact is, that the religion of Vasudeva, in which divine honours were paid to him, was professed by the Sātvatas, as observed in several of the passages noticed above, and its gradual extension to other tribes and people of the country is shadowed forth in these portions of the great epic. In the Puraṇio times, however, the cult of Vāsudeva ceased to be militant, and three streams of religious thought, namely, the one flowing from Viṣṇu, the Vedic god at its source, another from Nārāyaṇa, the cosmic and philosophic god, and the third from Vasudeva, the historical god, mingled together decisively and thus formed the later Vaiṣṇavism. There is however, a fourth stream, which in modern times in some of the systems of Vaiṣṇavism has acquired an almost exclusive predominance, and to this we shall now direct our attention.

IX. Identification of Vāsudeva-Kṛṣṇa with the Gowherd God (Gopāla-Kṛṣṇa)•

8 37. There is no allusion to the cowherd Kṛṣṇa in the authorities we have hitherto quoted. The Inscriptions, the work of Patanjali and even the Nurayan̄ya itself indicate no knowledge of the existence of such a god. In the last the Avatara of Vasudeva is mentioned as having been assumed for the destruction of Karhsa, but of none of the damans whom the cowherd Kṛṣṇa killed in the

herd. It is the name of a race, whose original occupation was the tending of cows; and consequently the name became in later times equivalent to a 'cowherd'. For these reasons the cowherds among whom the boy-god Kṛṣṇa lived, belong to a nomadic tribe of the name of Abhlras. These Abhlras occupied the tract of country from Madhuvana near Mathura to Anṛpa and Anarta, the regions about Dvaraka (H. 5161-5163). The Abhiras are mentioned in the Mahābhārata (Mausalaparvan, chap. 7) as having attacked Arjuna, who was carrying the women of the Vṛṣṇis from Dvaraka to Kuruksetra after the extinction of the male members of the Vṛṣṇi race. They are described as robbers and Mlecchas, and lived near Pancanada, which is probably Punjab. The Viṣṇu-Purāṇa locates them near the Aparantas (Konkan) and Saurāstras, and Varahamihira assigns them nearly the same position. Though they are mentioned as the southern people (Br. S. 14. 12), and as living in the southwest (Br. S. 14. 18), the Abhiras must have migrated in large hordes into the country. They were at first mere nomads and afterwards settled in the country from about the eastern confines of the Punjab to the vicinity of Mathura and in the south up to Saurāstra and Kathiavad, i. e., they must have occupied the whole of Rāṣṭra and a tract to the northeast of it. After they were settled, they took to various occupations, one of which was of course the old one, namely the tending of cows.

The descendants of the old Abhlras are called Ahirs at the present day, and we have now Ahirs following the occupation of carpenters, goldsmiths, cowherds and even priesthood. At one time they founded a kingdom in the northern part of the Maratha country, and an Inscription of the ninth year of the Abhlra king Isvarasena, the son of Abhira Śivadatta, is found at Nasik¹. From the form of the characters the Inscription probably belongs to the end of the third century. The Purāṇas mention a dynasty of Abhiras composed of ten princes*. Another Inscription of an earlier date is found at Gunda³ in Kathiavad, in which the charities of Rudrabhūti, a general, who is called an Abhlra, are mentioned. The Inscription belongs to the reign of a Kṣatrap*

1 Luders, List of Brahmi Inscriptions, Nr. 1137.

2 See Vayu-Purāṇa, vol. II, chap. 37, page 453, Bibl. Ind.

3 Luders, List of Brahmi Inscriptions, Nr. 963.

king of the name of Rudrasimha, who held power in Śaka 102 corresponding to 180 A. D.

If then about the end of the second century and in the third, the Abhiras enjoyed high political position, they must have migrated into the country in the first century. They probably brought with them the worship of the boy-god and the story of his humble birth, his reputed father's knowledge that he was not his son, and the massacre of the innocents. The two last correspond to Nanda's knowing that he was not the father of Kṛṣṇa and Kāṁsa's killing all children. The stories of Kṛṣṇa's boyhood, such as that of killing Dhenuka, a demon in the form of a wild ass, were brought by Abhīras', and others were developed after they came to India. It is possible that they brought with them the name Christ also, and this name probably led to the identification of the boy-god with Vāsudeva-Kṛṣṇa. The Goanese and the Bengalis often pronounce the name Kṛṣṇa as Kuṣṭo or Kriṣṭo, and so the Christ of the Abhīras was recognised as the Sanskrit Kṛṣṇa.

The dalliance of Kṛṣṇa with cowherdesses, which introduced an element inconsistent with the advance of morality into the Vasudeva religion, was also an after-growth, consequent upon the freer intercourse between the wandering Ābhīras and their more civilised Aryan neighbours. Morality cannot be expected to be high or strict among races in the condition of the Abhīras at the time; and their gay neighbours took advantage of its looseness. Besides, the Abhira women must have been fair and handsome as those of the Ahir-Gavaliyas or cowherds of the present day are.

§ 38. The story in the Buddhistic Ghatajātaka represents Vasudeva and his brothers to be the sons of Kāṁsa's sister Devagabbhā and Upasāgara. They were made over to a man of the name of Andhakavenhu and to his wife Nandagopā who was the attendant of Devagabbhā. In this version there is a reminiscence of Devakī in the name Devagabbhā; and Nanda and Yasoda or Gopa of Gokula are compounded together to form the name of the maid-servant who brought up Devagabbhā's sons as

her sons. And in *Andhakaveṇhu* the names of the two kindred Yadava tribes, *Andhaka* and *Vṛṣṇi*, are compounded together and the compound becomes the name of the husband of the maid servant. Now as *Andhaka* and *Vṛṣṇi* were according to the highest authorities two distinct names, and were the names of the two tribes, this story contains a confused reminiscence of the true legend and was of a later growth. All the *Jatakas* were not written at one and the same time. While some belong to a pre-Christian period, others must be assigned to post-Christian times and the *Ghatajataka* appears to me to belong to the latter class. The compound *Nandagopa*, therefore, though it contains a clean reminiscence of the foster-parents of the boy-god *Kṛṣṇa*, cannot be considered to point to a pre-Christian period for the identification of *Vasudeva-Kṛṣṇa* with *Gopala-Kṛṣṇa*.

X. The Pancaratra or Bhāgavata System.

§ 39, We have thus gone over the last element which goes to form the *Vaiṣṇavism* of the later times. That element, however, does not form a prominent part, or forms no part at all, of the systems which are based upon the old *Pancaratra* doctrines. As we have seen, the *Ekantika Dharma* or monotheistic religion was that which was promulgated by the *Bhagavadgītā*; but the *Pancaratra* system, consisting, as it did, of the worship of *Vasudeva* and his several forms, shows no organic connection with that work, though *Bhakti* or devotion is common to both. That system must have developed in about the third century B. C., as we have already seen from the *Inscriptions* and passages in books referred to before. Their being free from the *Gopala-Kṛṣṇa* element is thus intelligible, and the later *Vaiṣṇava* systems, such as that of *Ramanuja* and *Madhva*, which more or less recognise the old *Bhāgavata* doctrines or ideas, have entirely neglected that element. In other systems, however, it is recognised and in a general way in popular *Vaiṣṇavism*.

The authorities on which the *Bhāgavata* system was based are the *Pancaratra-Samhitas*; and *Ramanuja* in his comments on the *Brahmasūtras*, II. 2. 39-42, quotes from some of these. The first quotation is from the *Paṇḍara-Saṁhitā*, which is intended to show that, when *Brahmanas* worship the fourfold soul with the

traditional names, it should be considered authoritative. The second is from the Sātvata-Sarhhitā, which is to the effect that this great Śāstra contains the secret of Brahman and imparts discrimination to Brahmanas who worship the true Brahman bearing the name of Vāsudeva. There are two from the Parama-Sarihitā. One of these gives the nature of Prakṛti, which is unsentient, of use to another than "itself, eternal, always changeable, composed of three qualities, and is the sphere within which the action of agents is done. The other represents somebody, probably Śaṇḍilya himself, as saying that he has studied all the Vedas with the dependent treatises and Vākovākya, but riot having found the way to supreme bliss clearly stated in them.

One of these Sarhhitās, bearing the name of Sātvata, has been printed and is available. It begins by saying that Nirada saw Paraśurāma on the Malaya Mountain and was told by him to visit the Rṣis, who were in search of the place of Hari, and to instruct them in the Sātvata method of worship (Kriyāmārga). Nārada does this and explains to them the secret traditional methods (Rahasyāmnāya). Nārāyaṇa is spoken of here as the supreme spirit. The secret methods were formerly explained by the bearer of the discus (Vāsudeva), when asked by Sarhkarṣaṇa. Sarhkarṣaṇa spoke to Viṣṇu at the beginning of the Tretā age, asking why his countenance had become red. The answer is : * Because the people will be afflicted with passion in this age ". Being asked how they will be delivered from passion, Sarhkarṣaṇa is told that they will be delivered by adoring the eternal and highest Brahman in three ways. The Supreme Spirit, who has hands and feet and eyes everywhere and is endowed with six Guṇas or qualities, is Para or the Highest. It is one and the support of all. Besides this there is a triad, each member of which is distinguished from the others by a distinction in knowledge and other qualities. These three should be known as Vynhaś, or forms, who confer the desired fruit with ease.

Balarāma then asks about the mode of service. Bhagvat then explains it as follows :-- " When the pure Brahman, which is the aim and end of the creation, exists in the heart of qualified Brahmapas, who worship Vasudeva, the highest Śagtra, which is a

great Upaniṣad of Brahman, springs forth from it for the redemption of the world and confers discrimination; it contains divine methods and has for its fruit final deliverance¹. I will then explain that to you which is of various kinds. This Śāstra, along with Rahasya, is fruitful to those who have gone through Yoga with its eight parts, and whose soul is devoted to mental sacrifice. The Yogins, who are Brāhmaṇas guided by the Vedas and who have given up the mixed worship, are competent for the worship of the single one, dwelling in the heart. The three orders, Kṣatriya and others, and those who are Prapanna or have resorted to self-surrender are competent for the worship of the four Vyūhas accompanied by Mantras, and also unaccompanied by them, so far as regards the series of ceremonies concerning the four Vyūhas as well as the actions and the collection of Mantras concerning the Vibhavas². All these persons should be free from attachment and absorbed in the performance of their duties and be devotees of the supreme lord by their deeds, words and mind. In this manner, the four (orders) become competent, when they are initiated (for service) with Mantras. Hear now the process concerning the single form ". Then follows the statement of the mystic arrangement of letters and formulae and the meditations. This work throughout contains the mystic modes of worship by means of Mantras variously arranged.

The allusion at the end of Chapter 66 of the Bhismaparvan to Samkarsana's having sung or expounded Vasudeva according to the Sātvata rites (Vidhi) refers in all probability to such rites as are detailed in this Sātvata-Sarhhitā.

Śamkarācārya, in his notice of the Bhāgavata School under Br. S. II. 2. 42, gives five methods of worshipping the supreme lord, Bhagavat Vāsudeva, in his fourfold form, which, along with the explanations given by the commentators, are as follows :— (1) Abhigamana or going: to the temple of the deity with the speech, the body and the mind centred on him ; (2) Upādana or collecting the materials of worship; (3) Ijyā or worship; (4) Svadhyaya or the muttering of the usual Mantra; (5) Yoga or

1. Two lines out of this are contained in the quotations from Ramanuja given above.

2Vibhavas are the incarnations of the Supreme Spirit.

meditation. By worshipping him in these ways for a hundred years, all sin is destroyed and the devotee reaches Bhagavat

§ 40. The book called Naradapancaratra, published by the Asiatic Society of Bengal, contains the samhita called Jnanamṛta-sāra. The glories of the boy Kṛṣṇa are sung in this work. Nārada desiring to know Kṛṣṇa's greatness and the methods of his worship is recommended to go to Śānikara, or Śiva, and seek instruction from him. Nārada repairs to Kailāsa and enters the palace of Śānikara, which has seven gates. At these gates there are pictures and sculptures relating to the scenes of Kṛṣṇa's childhood and his various deeds in the cow-settlement, such as Vṛndāvana, Yamunā, Kṛṣṇa's sitting on the Kadamba tree with the garments of the cowherdesses and their return from bath in the Yamunā river in a naked condition, the destruction of the serpent Kaliya, the holding up of the Govardhana mountain on the palm of his hand, the journey to Mathurā and the lamentations of the Gopls and his foster-parents, etc. Sculptures representing some of these events were discovered on a pillar excavated at Mandor near Jodhpur about two years ago¹. The age of the pillar has been considered not earlier than the fourth century A. D. The idea of imagining such sculptures on the gates of Śiva's palace could have occurred to a writer only when the practice of adorning gates and pillars with such sculptures had become general. The Jñānāmṛta-sāra, therefore, could not have been earlier than the fourth century and appears to me to be considerably later, as will be presently shown.

Goloka or the world of COWS is the heaven in which Kṛṣṇa dwells and which is reached by those who adore him, and several Mantras are given in this book, the reciters of which are rewarded with a place in that heaven. The servitude of Hari through devotion is the highest Mukti or absolution according to this work. There are six modes of adoring Hari; viz., (1) remembrance of him, (2) utterance, (of his name and glory), (3) salutation, (4) resorting to his feet, (5) constant worship of him with devotion, and (6) surrender of the whole soul to him. The Bhagavata-Purāṇa adds three more, viz., hearing (his praise), servitude, and companionship (Sakhyam). These last two are preliminary to

1. Archaeological Survey of India, Annual Report, 1005-1906, p. 135ff.

2. [R G. Bhandarkar's Works, Vol IV.]

the surrendering of the whole soul. In this book Radhā is merited as the highest of the women whom Kṛṣṇa loved, and she is represented to have been formed by the original lord becoming two, one of which was Radha (II. 3. 24ff.). The exaltation of this woman is thus one of the main objects of this Saṁhita.

The Saṁhitā we have been considering, seems thus to be entirely devoted to the advancement of the cult of the Kṛṣṇa of the cow-settlement or Gokula and of his beloved mistress Radha, now raised to the dignity of his eternal consort. The Vyūhas which form a peculiarity of the Pāṇcarātra School, are not mentioned in it. The creed afterwards promulgated by Vallabhacarya is exactly similar to that set forth in this book. This Saṁhita, therefore, must have been written a short time before Vallabha, that is about the beginning of the sixteenth century. The Ramanujlyas consider this Saṁhitā to be apocryphal.

XL The Avatāras of Viṣṇu or Nārāyaṇa,

§ 41. An Avatāra or incarnation of a god differs from mere identification of two gods in this, that in the former case the god that is considered an incarnation acts like a human being, or even a brute, at the same time that he has the miraculous powers of a god. The transition, however, from the idea of identification to that of incarnation is easy. The person in the flesh is identified with the god who is a mere spirit, so that the habit of thought which in Vedic times led to the identification of some of the Vedic deities with Agni, has been at work even in this conception of the Avatāras.

The Avatāras of Narayana or Visnu are variously given by the various authorities. In the passage in the Nārāyaṇīya translated above,¹ six only are given, viz., the boar, the man-lion, the dwarf, Rama of the Bhṛgu race, Rama Daśarathi and that assumed for the destruction of Kamsa (Vasudeva-Kṛṣṇa). This passage is followed after a short interval by another in which the incarnations are given as ten, the additions being Haṭṭrisa (swan), Kūrma (tortoise), and Matsya (fish) in the beginning and Kalkin at the end. The one preceding Kalkin is called Satvata, i. e., Vasudeva-Kṛṣṇa. This passage, following so closely on the

¹ Ante, p. 9 [N. B. U. J

first, appears to be interpolated when the number of Avatāras became fixed at ten.

The Harivarṇiśa mentions the six given in the first of these two passages. The Vāyu-Purāṇa gives the incarnations in two passages (Chap. 97, vv. 72ff. and Chap. 98, vv. 63ff.), in the first of which there are twelve, but some of them appear rather to be incarnations of Śiva and Indra. In the second the number ten, which about that time must have come into usage, is made up by adding to the six mentioned above the four: Dattātreya, one unnamed called the fifth, Vedavyasa, and Kalkin. In the Varaha-Purana we have the ten incarnations which came to be accepted later, containing the Fish, Tortoise, Buddha, and Kalkin, in addition to the six mentioned above. The Agni-Purāṇa gives the same ten.

The Bhagavata-Purāṇa enumerates the incarnations in three different passages. In the first, contained in Chapter 3 of Book I, twenty-two are mentioned. In the passage in Chapter 7 of Book I I, we have twenty-three, and in Chapter 4 of Book X I, sixteen are given. It deserves notice that among the Avatāras mentioned in this Purana are Sanatkumara; the divine sage (Narada), who expounded the Sātvata system; Kapila who explained to Asuri the Samkhya system, which determines the collection of principles; Dattatreya, who is represented to have taught Anvikṣikī to Alarka and the Prahrāda and the attainment of excellence by means of Yoga to Yadu and Haihaya; Rṣabha, son of Nabhi and Merudevī, who abandoned attachment to all things, acquired serenity, and looking at all things alike and possessing Yoga power, acted as if he were a non-living creature; and lastly Dhanvantari, the teacher of the science of medicine.

Rṣabha, from the parentage given here and other indications, appears clearly to be the same as the first Tirtharhkhara of the Jains. He was probably raised to the dignity of an incarnation as the Buddha of the Buddhists was. There is hardly a wide-spread cult of any of these incarnations except Dattātreya, who is adored and worshipped by a large number of people to this day, and Rama of whom more will have to be said hereafter. Kṛṣṇa, of course, though included in the Avatāras stands on independent grounds and his worship over the widest area is due, not to his having been con-

sidered an Avatara, but to his being the peculiar object of adoration of the followers of a new religion or religious reform, as I have ventured to call it, which first took its rise among the Sātvafcas.

XII, Later Traces of the Bhāgavata School; and General Vaiṣṇavism.

§ 42. We will now resume the chronological thread we have traced from Menasthenes to the latest Inscription, that at Nanaghat, which is to be referred to the first century B. C. For about four centuries after this there are no epigraphical or sculptural traces of any Brahmanic religious system; and they reappear about the time when the Guptas rose to power in the first quarter of the fourth century. The Gupta princes, Candragupta II, Kumāragupta, and Skandagupta, are styled Paramabhagavatas on their coins. They were thus worshippers of Bhagavat or Vasudeva. Their dates range from 400 to 464 A. D.

On a panel at Udayasiri, there is a figure of a four-armed god, who is probaby Viṣṇu. The Inscription below bears the date 82 G. E., i. e., 400 A. D.¹

There is a pillar at Bhitari in the Ghazipur District of the U. P., on which there is an Inscription which records the installation of an image of Śarṅgin and the grant of a village for its worship by Skandagupta, whose dates range between 454 and 464 A. D. Śarṅgin must have been Vasudeva-Kṛṣṇa, Skandagupta himself being a Bhāgavata.

A temple of Viṣṇu was erected in 456 A. D. by Cakrapalita, son of Parnadatta, appointed viceroy of Surastra or Kathiavad by Skandagupta. The Inscription, which records this, opens with an invocation of Viṣṇu in the Vamana or the dwarf incarnation³.

In an Inscription at Eran in the Sagar district, C.P., belonging to the reign of Budhagupta and bearing the date 165 G. E., corresponding to 483 A. D., Matrviṣṇu and his younger brother Dhanyaviṣṇu are represented to have erected a Dhvajastambha or flag-

1. Corp. Inscr. Ind. Vol, III, p. 21 ff.

2. Ibid. p. 52ff.

3. Ibid. p. 56ff.

staff in honour of the god Janardana. Matr̥viṣṇu is called a great devotee of Bhagavat (Atyanta-Bhagavad-bhakta)¹ The god Janārdana must therefore be Vāsudeva-Kṛṣṇa.

A copper-plate Inscription of A. D. 495, found near the village of Khoh in Baghelkhand, records the grant of a village, by a chief named Jayanatha, to Bhagavat for repairs to the temple of that god and for the performance of ordinary ceremonies⁸.

An Inscription on an iron pillar near Kutub Minar at Delhi speaks of that pillar as a flag-staff to Viṣṇu erected by a great king named Candra, who enjoyed universal sovereignty and was a great devotee of Viṣṇu. The Inscription is not dated, but if the Candra referred to here was Candragupta II, it belongs to the latter part of the fourth century or the beginning of the fifth*.

In his Meghadūta (v. 15) Kālidāsa compares the cloud adorned with a piece of a rain-bow, with Visnu in the shape of the cow-herd adorned with a shining peacock feather. Here there is an identification of Gopāla-Kṛṣṇa with Viṣṇu ; and, if the Vikramāditya who was the patron of Kālidasa was Candragupta II of the Gupta Dynasty, this must be considered to be a record belonging to the early part of the fifth century.

We have already alluded to the sculptures on a pillar excavated at Mandor near Jodhpur. These sculptures represent the overturning of a cart by the baby Kṛṣṇa, the holding of the Govardhana Mountain by Kṛṣṇa on the palm of his hand, and such other events. I refer them tentatively to the fifth century.

In Śaka 500, Maṅgallśa, a prince belonging to the early Calukya dynasty of the Deccan, got a cave scooped out, in which a temple to Viṣṇu was constructed, and an image of Viṣṇu was installed in it. The provision for the performance of Narayana-bali (offerings to Narayana) was made by assigning the revenues of a village for the purpose⁴. In this cave-temple there are figures of Viṣṇu and Narayana lying on the body of a serpent, with Lakṣmī rubbing his feet, and of the Boar and Narasimha incarna*

1. Ibid. p. 88ff.

2. Ibid. p. 121ff.

3. Ibid, p. 139 ff.

4. Ind. Ant. Vol. III. p. 305 ; Vol VI, p. 163,

tions, and of Harihara in which the peculiar marks of Hari, or Visnu, and of Hara, or Śiva, are combined¹.

In mentioning the priests who are qualified to install and consecrate the images of certain gods, Varāhamihira says that this function in the case of Viṣṇu should be assigned to Bhagavatas.* Bhagavatas were thus recognised in his time as the peculiar worshippers of Viṣṇu. Varahamihira died in Śaka 509, i. e. 587 A.D.,⁵

Amarasimha, the author of the well-known Kosa or thesaurus, was a Buddhist. After giving the words expressive of gods generally, when he comes to the names of particular gods, he begins by giving those of Buddha and proceeds next to give the names Visnu, Narayana etc., of which we have thirty-nine. After finishing these he says that Vasudeva was his father. This means that the thirty-nine names previously given are the names of Visudeva. If we examine these, we shall find that before Amara's time Vasudeva had already been identified with Visnu and Narayana. Except the name Damodara, there is no other connecting Vasudeva with Gokula, and the etymology of Damodara which connects him with that cow-settlement is doubtful. While Kamsarati, or the enemy of Kamsa, does occur, we have no such name as Putanari, the enemy of Putana, or any other derived from the names of the many demons he slew while he was a boy. There are also no names of incarnations except the doubtful one, Baiidhvamsin, which however, has been interpreted by one commentator as the destroyer of ignorance by means of Bali or oblations. There are, of course, several names derived from those of other demons, such as Madhuripu and Kaitabbajit, but these are not the enemies destroyed by Viṣṇu in his incarnations as they are usually mentioned. After giving the name of the father of Vasudeva-Kṛṣṇa, Amara proceeds to mention those of Saṃkarṣana, or Baladeva, and afterwards of Pradyumna and Aniruddha. Thereafter he mentions those of Lakṣmī, the wife of Narayana or Viṣṇu, then those of the weapons of the god and his ornaments, and ends with the names of Garuḍa, the vehicle of Visnu. After

1. Fergusson and Burgess, *Cave Temples*, p. 407.

2. Br. 8. 60.19.

3 Bhau Daji. *Lit. Remains*, p. 240.

finishing these he proceeds to the other great god of the Hindus, Śambhu or Śiva.

Here Amara appears clearly to have in view the four forms, or Vyūhas, of Vāsudeva recognised by the Bhagavatas, so that in his time the prevalent form of Vaiṣṇavism was that embraced by the Bhagavatas. Amara's exact age is doubtful, but, if he was a Buddhist, he must have belonged to the Mahāyāna sect, the sacred language of which was Sanskrit. This system was in full swing in the fourth, fifth and sixth centuries¹. Amarasimha, therefore, must have flourished in this last century, or, if we believe in the traditional verse which asserts his contemporaneousness with Kālidasa and in Candragupta II as Vikramāditya, the famous patron of learning, he must have flourished in the early part of the fifth century. The identity of Vāsudeva-Kṛṣṇa with Gopāla-Kṛṣṇa is very rarely alluded to, while that with Viṣṇu and Narayana is clearly set forth.

About the middle of the seventh century, Baṇa in his Harṣacarita represents a sage of the name of Divakaramitra, who, originally a Brāhmaṇa, became a Buddhist, as being surrounded in the Vindhya mountains, where he had his abode, by followers of a number of sects two of which were the Bhagavatas - and Pāñcarātras.

In the Daśavatāra temple at Ellora there is a figure of Viṣṇu on the body of a serpent with Lakṣmī rubbing his feet and Brahmi seated on a lotus coming out of his navel. There are also images of the Narasiṃha, Vāmana and Varāha incarnations, as well as of Kṛṣṇa holding the Govardhana Mountain over the flocks of the cow-settlement. This temple was constructed about the middle of the eighth century in the time of Dantidurga of the Rastrakuta race. There are similar figures of Avatāras in the Kailāsa temple scooped out in the latter part of the eighth century, in the time of Kṛṣṇa I, uncle of Dantidurga. Among these is also the scene of the destruction of Kāliya by Kṛṣṇa.

There is an Inscription in a cave at Pabhosa, about 32 miles south-west of Allahabad, which probably had a human figure above and runs thus: " The maker of the images of Śrī-Kṛṣṇa and

X. Vide my peep into the Early History of India', JBBRAS, Vol. XX, p. 395;

[=Volume I of this Edition, p. 45 N. B. U.]

the milk-maids". The date is uncertain, but the Inscription is referred to the seventh or eighth century by Bühler.¹

At Sirpur in the Raipur district, C. P., over the front of a shrine-door there is a sculpture of Viṣṇu or Nārāyaṇa reclining on the folds of the serpent Śeṣa, and from his navel springs a lotus on which is seated Brahmā. Down the two outer sides of the shrine-door are some of the incarnations of Viṣṇu, one of which is that of Rāma and another of Buddha, whose image is in the usual meditative attitude. The temple belongs probably to the eighth century*.

At Osia, 32 miles north of Jodhpur, there is an old temple adjoining to the house of the local Jahagirdar. On two pilasters, projecting from the shrine into the Sabhamaṇḍapa, are two images of deities both seated on Garuda. Both have four hands, but one of them holds a conch-shell, the discus, the mace and the lotus, and the other bears a plough-share and a mace in his two hands, the other two being empty. The last has his head canopied by a five-hooded serpent. They are apparently Vāsudeva and Saṅkarṣaṇa. The temple cannot be later than the ninth century³.

In a work called Dharmapariksa, Amitagati, the author, who was a Digambara Jaina, says that there were according to the legendary lore current among the Jains sixty-three eminent men; the twelve supreme sovereigns, the twenty-four Arhats (Jinas), and nine Rāmas, nine Kṛṣṇas, and the nine enemies of these nine. The last of the Viṣṇus (Kṛṣṇas) was the son of Vasudeva, and his Brāhmaṇa devotees call him the pure, the supreme being. They say: "He who meditates upon the god Viṣṇu, who is all-pervading, a whole without parts, indestructible and unchangeable, who frees a man from old age and death, is free from misery". He is traditionally known to have ten forms or incarnations. These ten forms are the same as mentioned in the Varaha and Agni-Purāṇas and which are now generally accepted. Thus Buddha had come to be recognised as an incarnation of Viṣṇu before

1. Ep. Ind., Vol. II. p., 482.

2. Annual Progress Report of Archaeological Survey, Western Circle, for 1903-04, p. 21.

3. See the forthcoming Annual Report of the Arch. Surv. of India (This note is printed as in the original Edition.—N. B. U.]

4. see above [p. 59 N. B. U. J

the date of the Dharmaparikṣā, which is Vikrama 1070, corresponding to 1014 A. D. If the approximate date assigned to the temple at Sirpur is correct, Buddha must have been admitted into the Brāhmaṇic pantheon before the eighth century. Amitagati also speaks of the mighty Viṣṇu having become a cowherd in Nanda's Gokula and of the all-knowing, all-pervading protector of the world (Rama) as being oppressed by the fire of separation from Sita like a mortal lover.¹

Hence, we have evidence of the existence of the cult of Viṣṇu, principally in accordance with the mode professed by the Bhāgavatas from the fourth to the eleventh century. The doctrine of the incarnations had also become an article of ordinary faith, and the founder of Buddhism and the first Tirthamkara of the Jains also came later to be recognised as incarnations of Viṣṇu.

XIII. The Cult of Rāma.

8 43. The architectural remains passed under review contain only figures of the incarnations of Viṣṇu and are not to be taken as proving the existence of the cult of any of these incarnations. But at the present day the cult of Rama exists over a pretty wide area. In the temples and other religious structures hitherto noticed, there is none dedicated to his worship nor any flag-staff like those erected in honour of Janārdana or Vasudeva-Kṛṣṇa. Rama, however, was considered as an incarnation of Viṣṇu even in very early times. There are passages in the Rāmāyaṇa pointing to this, but there is good reason to believe that they are spurious or interpolated. But the passage in the Nārāyaṇīya, which we have frequently referred to, contains his name, and so do all the Purāṇas that have been noticed. These in themselves are not sufficient to enable us to determine approximately the period in which he came to be regarded as an incarnation. But in the tenth chapter of the Raghuvamśa the story of the birth of Rama is preceded by the usual appeal to Viṣṇu or Nārāyaṇa lying on the body of the great serpent, with Lakṣmī rubbing his feet, in the milky ocean and his promise to be born as a son of Dasaratha for the destruction of Ravana.

1 For Amitagati's work, see Vol. II of this edition, pp. 308ff. [N. B. U.]

2 [R. G. Bhandarkar's Works, Vol IV.]

Amitagati also speaks in 1014 A. D., as we have seen¹, of Rama's being regarded as the all-knowing, all-pervading protector of the world. The Vāyu-Purāṇa, which is the earliest work of that class, must have been written about the fifth century; so that the belief in Rama's being an incarnation of Viṣṇu existed in all probability in the early centuries of the Christian Era. But there is no mention of his name in such a work as that of patanjali, nor is there any old Inscription in which it occurs. Amarasiṃhat too, has no place for him in his scheme of Brāhmaṇic gods. These circumstances, as well as those mentioned above, show that, though he was regarded as an Avatāra, there was no cult in his honour. Still, as depicted by Yālmiki, Rāma was a high-souled hero, and poets, including those nameless ones who wrote Purāṇas in the names of old Rsis, particularly Bhavabūti, still more highly exalted his character. Rāma, therefore, won a place in the heart of the Indian people, and that must have soon led to the foundation of the cult. But when this took place it is difficult to say. Madhva or Anandatirtha, the founder of a sect to be noticed hereafter, is represented to have brought the image of Digvijaya Rāma from Badarikaśrama and sent Naraharitotha to Jagannatha about the year 1264 A. D.², to bring what was called the original idols of Rama and Sita. The cult of Rama, therefore, must have come into existence about the eleventh century. There exist manuals giving the modes of worship by means of Mantras or formulae and magic circles, like those prescribed in the Sātvata-Saṃhita for the worship of Vāsudeva. The ceremony in connection with his birth on the 9th of the bright half of Caitra is given in his Vratākhaṇḍa³ by Hemadri, who flourished in the thirteenth century. That writer, as well as Vrddha-Harita⁴, gives the modes of worshipping him as an incarnation along with others on certain occasions, so that it appears that his worship as an incarnation has been of a longer duration than that based on Items of equality with Vāsudeva-Kṛṣṇa.

Twenty-four images, differing from each other in the order in which the four objects, viz., the conch-shell, discus, mace

1 Ante, p. 64 [N. B. U.]

2 See below.

3 P. 241 (Bibl, Ind.).

4 Vratākhaṇḍa pp. 1034ff.; Vrddha-Harita-Smṛti (Anandarama Sanskrit series), chap. X, v. 145.

and lotus, are placed in the four hands of the principal god Vasudeva or Visnu, are mentioned by both those authors, and the twenty-four names¹ corresponding to the twenty-four images, Kesava, Narayana, Govinda, etc., which include those of the four Vyūhas, are repeated by us at the beginning of every ceremony that we perform at the present day; that is, obeisance is made to the twenty-four forms of the god by using the word *Namah* (salutations) after the dative of each of the names, and the sense is 'Salutations to Keśava, Narayana, etc.'. The name of Rama, however, is not included in them, while two other Avatāras, Narasimha and Vṛtmana, are mentioned. Every Śraddha ceremony is wound up by the expression " May Janārdana-Vasudeva, who is a form of the ancestors, or the father, grandfather and great grandfather, be satisfied by this act ". All this shows that Vasudevism has penetrated into every one of our ordinary ceremonies, which include a repetition even of Vedic Mantras, while this is not at all the case with the cult of Rama, which is, therefore of a modern growth.

There is a work, entitled the *Adhyātma-Rāmāyaṇa*, which Ekanatha³, a Maharastra saint, who flourished in the sixteenth century, calls a modern treatise, composed of excerpts from older writings and having no pretence to be considered as emanating from the old Rsis. The object of this work throughout has been to set forth the divinity of Rama. The first book of it comprises what is called *Ramahrdaya*, which was narrated to Hanumat by Sita, who says that as the original Prakṛti, she does every thing and did all the deeds mentioned in the *Ramayana*, while Rama as the only existing soul is inactive, unchangeable and blessed, and is a mere witness of her deeds. After she has concluded, Rama explains the threefold nature of the knowing spirit, viz., (1) the original, (2) that conditioned by Buddhi or

1 (1) Kesava, (2) KaYayafḷa, (3) Madbava, (4) Govinda, (5) Visnu, (6) Madhusudana, (7) Trivikrama, (8) Vamana. (9) Sridhara, (10) Hraikess, (11) Padmanabha, (12) Damodara, (13) Samkarsana, (14) Vasudeva, (15) Pradyumna, (16) Aniruddha, (17) Furusottama, (18) Adhoksaja, (19) Narasimha, (20) Acyuta, (21) Janardana, (22) Upendra, (23) Hari, (24) srikrana.

2 see his *Bhavartha-Ramayana*, Zraqyakfipcja.

finite intelligence, and (3) the appearances, the last two of which are fictitious. The fifth canto of the last book is styled Ramagita, which is meant to correspond to the Bhagavadgita of Vasudeva and which is narrated by Rama to Laksmana, who takes, the place of Arjuna. The doctrine is thoroughly adualistic as that of the previous portion. The world and the individual soul are illusory, and one spirit alone exists. There is another book called Ramagita published in Madras, which represents itself to be contained in a larger work called Sattvaparayana and is composed of eighteen chapters like the genuine Bhagavadgita. It is narrated to Hanumat by Rama. In the beginning it professes itself to be based on the one hundred and eight Upanisads, some of which are manifestly very recent. This work, therefore, must be a very modern compilation. Thus the works designed to give importance to Rama as a religious teacher are of recent origin.

XIV. Vasudevism or Vaisnavism in the South.

§ 44. We have seen that Samkarsana and Vasudeva had come to be worshipped as gods in the Maratha country by about the first century B. C. The cult must have spread further south up to the Tamil country, but there is no evidence to show at what time it was introduced there. The Bhagav*ta»Pu*ina (Book XI, chap.5, vv. 38-40) says, in the usual prophetic style, that in the Kali age there will be found men here and there devoted to Narayana, but in large numbers in the Dravida country, where flow the rivers Tamraparni, Kaveri and others, and that those who drink the water of these rivers will mostly be pure-hearted devotees of Vasudeva. When the Purina goes out of its beaten track to make such a statement as this, the fame of the devotees of Vasudeva, who had flourished in the Tamil country, must have spread over either parts of India when the Purana was compiled. The Purana was regarded as sacred in the thirteenth century, when Anandatirtha, who flourished between about 1199 and 1278 A.D., places it on the same level as the Mahabharata and devotes a treatise to the determination of its drift, as to that of the latter. About the same time Bopadeva prepared an abstract of it at the request of the councillor Hemadri. The Bhagavata, therefore, must have been composed at the least

two centuries before Anandatīrtha to account for the reputation of the sacred character which it acquired in his time. It cannot be very much older, for its style often looks modern and in copying from the older Purāṇas it falls into mistakes, such as the one pointed out by me in another place¹. The Dravida devotees, therefore, noticed in the Bhāgavata, must have mostly flourished before the eleventh century.

These devotees, who are known by the name of Alvars, are generally reckoned as twelve in number and are divided into three classes by S. Krishnaswami Aiyangar³ in accordance with the received chronology which he follows to determine their sequence, though in itself it assigns a preposterously high antiquity to them. Their names, Tamil and Sanskrit, are as follows:—

Class	Tamil name	Sanskrit name
Ancient	{ Poygai Alvar	Saroyogin
	{ Bhūtattār	Bhūtayogin
	{ ^{Pey} Alvar	Mahadyogin or Bhrantayogin
	{ Tirumalaisai Aivar	Bhaktisara
Later	{ Namm Alvār	Sāthakopa
	{	Madhurakavi
	{ Periy Alvār	Kulaśekhara
	Andal	Viṣṇucitta
		Godā
Last	Tondaradippodi	Bhaktanghrirenu
	Tiruppāṇi Alvār	Yogivihana
	Tirumangai Alvār	Parakāla

The date of the first, ordinarily given, is B. C. 4203 and of file last, B. O. 2706, and the others range between these two. Not only are these dates fanciful, but even the sequence shown above is unreliable. Krishnaswami places the last in the earlier half of the eighth century A. D., and all the preceding ones impliedly before that date. But there is distinct evidence to show that Kulaśekhara flourished much later. He was a king of Travancore, and one of

1 Early History of the Deccan (Second Edition), pp. 32-33 [= Vol. III, p. 4\$ of this Edition.—N. B. U. J

2 Ind. Ant. Vol. XXXV, p. 228.

the works composed by him styled *Mukundamala* contains a verse from the *Bhagavata-Purana* (XI. 2. 36)¹

• Again in an Inscription on a tablet, existing in a temple at Naregal in the Dharwar district, translated by Dr. Fleet², it is stated that Permadi of the Sinda dynasty vanquished Kulasekharanka, besieged Chatta, pursued Jayakesin, and seized upon the royal power of Poysala and invested Dhorasamudra, the capital of the Ppysala dynasty. In another Inscription³ this Permadi is represented to be a vassal of Jagadekamalla II, whose dates range between A. D. 1138 and 1150. While the former was in power as Mahamandalesvara in the seventh year of Jagadekamalla, i. e., in A. D. 1144, a certain grant was made by a body of sellers of betel leaves and nuts. The Kulasekharanka, mentioned as being vanquished by this Permadi, must be a prince reigning on the western coast, as the others, Jayakesin, the Kadamba prince of Goa, the Hoysala king, and so forth, were. Putting this statement and the quotation from the *Bhagavata-Purana* together, it appears highly probable that the Alvfir Kulasekhara lived in the first half of the twelfth century. The sequence, therefore, given above cannot be implicitly believed in.

Still it may be admitted that the earliest Alvārs flourished about the time of the revival of Brahmanism and Hinduism in the North, which extended up to the Maratha country, as we have shown from Inscriptions and antiquarian remains, and must have extended still farther to the South. The earliest Alvārs may be placed before about the fifth or sixth century, but there is nothing to show that Vaiṣṇavism had not penetrated to the Tamil country earlier, i. e., about the first century. But an impetus, such as the rise of the Alvārs indicates, could in all probability come only from the energy of the revival. The hostile relations into which the Alvārs and the Saiva saints, Nayanmars, came with the Buddhists and Jains, lend support to the view we have advocated.

The Alvārs composed mostly in Tamil, what are called *Prabandhas* or songs in praise of the deity full of piety and devotion and

* 1 *Kayana vaca manasendriyair va*, etc.

2 *JBBRAS*, Vol XL p. 244.

3 *Ibid.* p. 151.

containing also religious truth. They are considered as very sacred and spoken of as the Vaiṣṇava Veda. The reverence paid to the Ālvārs is very great, and their images are placed by the side of the god representing Viṣṇu or Nārāyaṇa in some form and worshipped. It may be noted here that Kulaśekhara-Alvār's favourite deity was Rāma, the son of Daśaratha.

XV. Rāmānuja.

§ 45. There were two classes of teachers among the Vaiṣṇavas of the South, viz, the Alvārs and the Acāryas. The former devoted themselves to the culture of the feeling of love and devotion for Viṣṇu or Nārāyaṇa, and composed songs, while the object of the latter was to carry on disputations and controversies and seek to establish their own theories and creeds. The first class we have already noticed briefly. The first of the second class appears to have been Nāthamuni. His successor was Yamunficirya or Yāmunamuni. Rāmānuja succeeded Yāmunamuni, one of whose last directions to his successor was to compose a commentary on Bādarāyaṇa's Brahmasūtra. The necessity for such a work was felt by the leaders of the Vaisnava faith, since they found it not possible to maintain the doctrine of Bhakti or love in the face of the theory of Advaita or Monism of Spirit set up by Śaṅkaraṇḍīyā as based upon the Brahmasūtras and the Upaniṣads.

During the period of the revival of Brāhmaṇism and Hinduism there was such a fermentation of thought as that which existed when Buddhism, Jainism and other heterodox systems on the one hand, and Vāsudevism on the other, arose. The present fermentation, however, did not rest on independent thought, but was based upon the sacred works that had been handed down from the earlier times. The Pali Buddhism made way for the Sanskrit Mahāyānism, and against this last, controversies were carried on by the School of Nyāya founded by Gautama and by the Mīmāṃsakas, especially by Sabarsvāmin and Kumārila-bhaṭṭa. But the Mīmāṃsakas attacked not only the Buddhists, but the Aupanisadaś, or a school of thought based upon the Upaniṣads. They maintained the efficacy of the sacrificial religion alone and denied it to the faith and practices of the latter school. The efforts of this school were therefore directed towards the maintenance of their position that their system alone can lead to supreme bliss.

The person who appeared prominently on the scene on this occasion was Gauḍapadācārya and some time after him the pupil of his pupil, Śaṃkarācārya. The theory that this latter set up, was that there exists one spirit alone, and the feelings of individuality and other attributes of the animal spirit and the variety of the inanimate world, owe their origin to a principle of illusion, and are consequently unreal. This doctrine left no room for the exercise of love and piety in the world of reality, though its followers allow it in the ordinary illusive condition of the human souls, and therefore it laid the axe at the root of Vaiṣṇavism. The great wish of the Southern leaders of the latter faith was the overthrow of this doctrine of illusion, or *Māyā*, on the same *Aupaniṣad* grounds on which it was set up. And this wish of his predecessor was carried out by Rāmanuja, and henceforward every Vaiṣṇava system, and even, in one or two cases, Śaiva systems had to tack on *Aupaniṣada* or Vedantic theories to their own doctrines.

46. Rāmanuja was born in Śaka 938 corresponding to 1016 Or 1017 A. D. In his youth he lived at Kāncipura or Conjeevaram and was a pupil of Yādavaprakāsa, who was an Advaita philosopher and therefore professed spiritual monism. Rāmanuja whose inclinations were towards Vaiṣṇavism, was dissatisfied with the teachings of his master, and the ultimate result was his separation from him. He applied himself to the study of the *Prabandhas* of the Alvars and drank in their spirit. When he became a successor of Yamunācārya, he lived at Śrīraḥgam, near Trichinopoly, and did his life's work there. He is said to have gone on a pilgrimage to the noted holy places of Upper India. In the latter years of his age he was subjected to persecution by the Cola prince of his time, who wanted him to renounce Vaiṣṇavism for saivism, in consequence of which he took refuge in 1096 A. D. in the dominions of the Hoysala Yādava princes, who reigned in Mysore and whose capital was Dvārasamudra, the modern Halebīd. There he converted Viṭṭhala Deva, popularly called Bitti Deva, Bitti being, in all likelihood, the corruption of Viṭṭhala or Viṭṭhi. This took place in 1098 A. D. Viṭṭhala Deva was not the reigning prince, but administered some of the frontier provinces in the name of his brother Ballala, who was on the

throne¹. Viṭṭhala Deva or Bittī Deva was called Viṣṇu vardhana after his conversion to Vaiṣṇavism. This is the ordinary account. But what appears true is that his name was originally Viṣṇu, which was corrupted into Bittu or Bittī in the Kanarese, the vernacular of the district, so that his original name Bitti Deva is the same as Viṣṇu Deva which he is represented to have assumed after his conversion. He reigned from 1104 to 1141 A. D. Ramanuja composed the following works: — Vedantasara, Vedarthasamgraha, Vedantadipa, and commentaries, or Bhasyas, on the Brahmasūtras and the Bhagavadgita

§ 47. The Vedāntic theory, or the theory based upon the Brahmasūtras and the Upaniṣads, which Rāmānuja set up to provide scope for the feeling of Bhakti, or love for God and the spirit of worship, was that there are three eternal principles, the individual or animal soul (Cit), the insensate world (Acit), and the Supreme Soul (Isvara).

There are Upaniṣad texts to support this, and one of them is that in the ŚU. (1.12) to the effect that all Brahman, regarded as composed of the enjoyer or sufferer, the objects from which enjoyment or suffering springs, and the controller or mover, is threefold. But the Brahmasūtras lay it down on the authority of the Upaniṣads that Brahman is the material as well as the efficient cause of the world. To make this possible in his system, Ramanuja resorts to the passage in BU. of the Mfidhyamdina school, beginning from III. 7. 3, in which the Supreme Soul is stated to be the internal controller (Antaryamin) of the individual soul as well as of the external world. The form that he gives to his theory is that the individual soul and the insensate world are the attributes of the Supreme Soul. They constitute his body, as stated in the Upaniṣad also, and thus, they with the controlling inward Supreme Soul constitute one entity called Brahman, just as the body and the in-dwelling soul constitute the human being.

1 See Krishnaswami Aiyangar's paper in No. 8 of the magazine Visistavaitin for most of these facts.

3 Imperial Gazetteer, Vol XVIII, p. 173.

3 See Krishnaswami's paper alluded to above.

10 (R. G. Bhandarkar's Works, Vol. IV,]

Before creation the body of the Supreme Soul exists in a subtle form, and when creation takes place, it develops in the form of the existing universe ; thus Brahman is the material cause of the external world. It is also the efficient cause, when, as the internal controlling soul, it wills to creat. The subtle form of the insensate world is the Prakṛti, a term first invented by the original author of the Sāriikhya doctrine. It develops under the guidance of the in-dwelling Supreme Spirit until the mundane egg is produced. The successive stages of Mahat, Ahamkara, etc., are like those of the Samkhya system, which has been adopted by the Puranas also in the account of the creation. And the creation after the production of the mundane egg is also made by Īsvara as the internal controller of Brahmadeva, Dakṣa, etc.

Īsvara or God is free from all faults or defects. He is eternal, pervades all living and non-living things, is the internal controller of all, is pure joy or blessedness, is possessed of the auspicious qualities of knowledge, power, etc., is the creator, protector and destroyer of the world, and is resorted to by those who are afflicted, who wish to gain knowledge, who seek to attain a certain end, and who are already enlightened¹. He confers the fourfold fruit of existence². He is possessed of a wonderful celestial body of unsurpassable beauty and has for his consorts Lakṣmi³ Bhū (the earth), and Līlā (sport).

This Īsvara appears in five different modes :—

I Para or the highest, in which mode, Nārāyaṇa, called also Para-Brahman and Para-Vasudeva, lives in a city called Vainkuntha, which is guarded by certain persons and which has door keepers; seated in a pavilion of gems on a couch in the form of the serpent Śeṣa, placed on a throne having the eight legs, Dharma and others ; attended by Śrī, Bhu and Lila; holding the celestial weapons, conch-shell, discus, and others; adorned with celestial ornaments, such as a tiara and others; possessed of numberless auspicious attributes, knowledge, power, and others;

1 These are the four, Arta, Jijnasu, etc., mentioned in BhG. (7.16).

2 Artha, or worldly prosperity, Kama, or the objects of desire. Dharma, or religious merit, and Moksa, or final deliverance, are the four objects of existence.

3 From the Tattvatraya of Lokacarya,

and his presence being enjoyed by the eternal spirits, such as Ananta, Garuḍa, Viṣvaksena, and others, and by delivered souls.

It Vyūha, in which the Para himself has assumed four forms, Vāsudeva, Saṁkarṣaṇa, Pradyumna and Aniruddha for convenience of worship, and for purposes such as creation, etc. Of these Vāsudeva is possessed of the six qualities *, Saṁkarṣaṇa has two, viz., omniscience and sustaining power *, Pradyumna two, viz., controlling power and unchangeableness; and Aniruddha, creative power and all-overcoming prowess¹.

III. Vibhava. which mode consists of the ten Avataras, fish, tortoise, etc.

IV. Antaryāmin, in which mode he dwells in the heart and is to be seen by Yogins and accompanies the individual souls even when they go to heaven or hell.

V. Idols or images set up in houses, villages, towns, etc., made up of a material chosen by the worshipper, in which he dwells with a body not made up of matter.⁸

Other authorities leave out Vāsudeva from the Vyūhas and have the other three only. The Arthapancaka has another form of the Antaryāmin, in which form he dwells in everything and rules over all, is bodiless, all-pervading and store of all good attributes, and is called Visnu, Narayana, Vasudeva², etc.

Self-consciousness, knowledge, union as a soul with a body, agency, are attributes common to the supreme and individual souls.⁴ The latter is self-illuminated, joyous, eternal, atomic, imperceptible to the senses, unthinkable, devoid of parts, unchangeable, the substratum of knowledge, subject to God's control, depending on God's existence for his own existence and an attribute of God⁵. This description of the individual soul differs a

1 These are translations of the words Jnana, Bala. Ailvarya, Virya, Śakti, and Tejas, according to the definitions in the Yatindramatadipika.

2 Yatindramatadipika, 9.

3 See my Report on the Search for Sanskrit Manuscripts during 1883-84, p. 69. [= Volume II of this Edition, p. 184-N. B. U.]

4 Yat. 8.

5 Tattvatraya,

great deal from that of Śaṁkaraaoarya, who attributes no agency or substantiality to it; and the dependence on God in a variety of ways cannot, of course, be thought of under the doctrine of spiritual monism. The soul's being an atom is also denied by Śaṁkara's school and various others. The souls are many and are divided into ;—

(1) Baddha or tied down to the circle of existences from Brahmadeva to the vilest worm, as well as the vegetable souls ;

(2) Mukta or finally delivered; and

(3) Nitya or eternal.

Of the first class, those that are rational, that is, not brutes or vegetables, are of two sorts; (1)desirous of enjoyment; (2) desirous of final deliverance. Of those that are desirous of enjoyment, some devote themselves to the acquisition of wealth and the satisfaction of carnal desires, and others, who seek to attain the happiness of heaven, perform all rites and sacrifices, make pilgrimages to holy places and give in charity. Some of these devote themselves to Bhagavat and others to other deities.

Some of those who desire final deliverance seek the consciousness of their pure soul only (Kevalin), and others eternal bliss. Of these latter, some are Bhaktas, who seek to attain God by resorting to Bhakti with all its details, having first of all studied the Vedas and acquainted themselves with the Vedānta and the philosophy of rites (Karman). The three upper orders alone can practise Bhakti, but not the Śūdras. Others are Prapannas, who are those who take refuge in God, feeling themselves poor and helpless. Of Prapannas, some seek the first three objects of life, while the rest, finding no happiness in these, renouncing everything worldly, desire eternal bliss (Mokṣa) alone, and, seeking the advice of a preceptor and acquiring from him the impulse to action, fling themselves on the will of God, not having the power of going through the Bhakti process and being helpless. This Prapatti or surrender to God can be practised by all orders, including Śūdras.¹

What are necessary for the efficacy of the method of Bhakti,

are Karmayoga or the performance of actions, and Jnanayoga or the acquisition of knowledge. Karmayoga is the performance of all acts, rites and ceremonies without regard for the fruit resulting from them. These are the worship of the deity, practice of austerity, pilgrimage to holy places, giving in charity and sacrifices.

This Karmayoga purifies the soul and leads to Jnanayoga, or acquisition of knowledge. This knowledge consists in seeing oneself as distinct from Prakrti, or matter, and as an attribute of God himself (Śesa). This Jnanayoga leads to Bhakti.

Bhaktiyoga, or the method of Bhakti, consists in continuous meditation accompanied by the practice of the eight Yoga processes, Yama, Niyama, etc. This is to be attained by (1) the purification of the body by the use of unpolluted and unprohibited food, (2) chastity, (3) constant practice, (4) the performance of five great rites and ceremonies according to one's means, (5) virtues such as truth, uprightness, compassion, charity, non-destruction of life, (6) hopefulness or absence of despondency, and (7) absence of elatedness. Bhakti, as promoted by these seven means, assumes the form of actually seeing (God) and produces the final mental perception.

Prapatti consists in the resolution to yield, the avoidance of opposition,¹ a faith that God will protect, acceptance of him as saviour or praying him to save and sense of helplessness resulting in throwing one's whole soul on him.² Prapatti thus comes to self-surrender.³

The Arthapancaka mentions a fifth way called A caryabhim,ftnayaoga, which is for one who is unable to follow any of the others, and consists in surrendering oneself to an Acarya or preceptor and being guided by him in everything. The preceptor goes

1 **The two** expressions thus translated have also been **otherwise explained** as **bearing good-will** to all and the absence of ill-will.

2 **There is another** reading here which should be translated as "**throwing oneself upon** him and a feeling of helplessness." Thus **there are six constituents of Prapatti**. These are; (1) Anukalyasya sarhkalpah (2) pratikulyasya varjanara, (3) raksisyatiti visvaso (4) goptrtvavaranam **tatha**, (5) atmaniksepa- (6) **karpanye** sadvidha 'saranagatih.

3 **Yat. 7.**

through all that is necessary to effect his pupil's deliverance as a mother takes medicine herself to cure an infant.

Sixteen modes of worship are to be practised by the devotees of Viṣṇu, as stated in a passage quoted from the Padma-Purāṇa by a recent writer of the Ramanuja school. Eight of these are the same as those included in the nine modes of Bhakti enumerated in a previous Section¹ as mentioned in the Bhāgavata-Purāṇa, Sakhya, or friendship or companionship, being omitted. The other eight are : (1) imprinting the marks of the conch-shell and the discus and other weapons of Hari on the body; (2) the making of a vertical mark on the forehead; (3) repeating of Mantras on the occasion ; (4) drinking the water used in washing the feet of Hari; (5) the eating of the offerings of cooked food made to him; (6) doing service to his devotees : (7) the observance of fast on the 11th of the bright and dark halves of each lunar month; (8) laying Tulasī leaves on the idol of Hari.

A text from the Hārītas-mṛti is also quoted giving nine modes of worship (Bhakti), three of which are common to it with the Bhāgavata-Purāṇa. The other six are the same as the eight in the above, the first two being combined and the third being omitted. The vertical mark on the forehead mentioned above consists of two lines made with white earth and a connecting cross line at the bottom, with, in the middle, a yellow line made with turmeric powder or a red line composed of the same material reddened by mixing it with lime.

§ 48. In Northern India there are not many followers of Rāmanuja; in Southern India there is a very large number. There are two Schools among them, known by the names of Vāḍakalai or northern learning, and Tenkalai or southern learning. The essential difference between them is brought out by the different illustrations² that they give of the connection between God's grace and man's effort in bringing about final deliverance. The illustration used by the former, or the northern, is that of a female monkey and her cub. The cub has to hold fast its mother on the abdomen to

1 Ante, p. 57. [N. B. U.]

2 The following remarks are based on Viastadvaitin, Vol. I, No. 8, pp. 200ff., and Mr. Govindacharya's article, JRAS, 1910, pp. 1103 ff.

be conveyed to a safe place. The southerners use the illustration of the cat and its kittens. The female cat catches hold of the kitten, without any effort on its part, and takes it to a place of safety. In the first case the doctrine is that the process of deliverance must begin with an act of a person seeking it. In the other case the process begins with God himself.

In keeping with this distinction is the idea of Prapatti or self-surrender held by the two Sects. The first maintains that Prapatti is one of the ways resorted to by the devotee and begins with him. The southern School holds that it is not one of the ways, but it is a frame of mind which characterises all those who seek absolution, and reject all other ways in favour of this. Those who resort to other ways have not arrived at the right mood which leads to God. When a soul is in this frame of mind, God himself takes entire possession of him, while by the other ways, man, as it **were**, makes approaches towards him. The Vaḍakalai lays down **that** Prapatti is for those who cannot follow other ways, such as **Kar**-mayoga, Jnanayoga and Bhaktiyoga, while the Tenkalai holds that it is necessary for all, whether able or not, to follow the other ways. The first School says that one should give himself up to God when one finds other ways, which have been resorted to, to be fruitless. The second holds that self-abandonment to God should precede the trial of other ways. Self-assertiveness is the characteristic of the first, but it is forbidden by the second and self-abandonment is enjoined. The northerners say that the six ways of Prapatti or self-surrender given above are preliminaries to the Prapatti which results from them. The southerners say **that** Prapatti must take place first and then the six follow as results,

The northern School teaches that a person belonging to an inferior caste should be treated well only so far as conversation by words is concerned. The southerners say that they should be admitted to an equal treatment in all respects and no distinction be made. The syllable Om should be omitted from the eight-syllabled Mantra, according to the Vaḍakalai, when taught to others than Brāhmaṇas; the Tenkalai does not make this distinction and provides for the teaching of the whole Mantra in **the** same form to all¹

1 This Mantra is " Om Namo Narayanaya ".

§ 49 It will be seen from the short summary here given that Rāmānuja derives his metaphysical doctrines from texts in the Upanisads and from the Brahmasutras, while his theory of the external world is that adopted by the Purāṇas and based on the twenty-four elements of the Sāṃkhya system. His Vaiṣṇavism is the Vasudevism of the old Pancaratra system combined with the Nārāyaṇa and Viṣṇu elements. The last name does not occur often in the literature of his school. The most prominent name is Narayana, though Vasudeva takes his proper place when the Supreme Soul and the Vyūhas are spoken of. The name of Gopala-kṛṣṇa is conspicuous by its absence, and Rāmānuja's system is free from that repulsive form which Vaiṣṇavism assumes when Rādhā and other cowherdesses are introduced. Rāma too does not appear to be a favourite deity. Rāmānuja's doctrines as to the Way of reaching the Supreme Soul are the same as, or amplified forms of, those in the Bhagavadgita. But in this system Bhakti is reduced to the form of a continuous meditation on the Supreme Soul. It thus corresponds to the Upasanas, or meditations, described by Bādarāyaṇa, and does not mean a boundless love for God, as the word is commonly understood, though the meditation that is enjoined implies tacitly a feeling of love.

The tendency of Ramanuja's system seems to be to give an exclusive Brāhmanic form to the traditional method of Bhakti, or devotion to God, and this is distinctly seen in the doctrines of the Va4akalai ; while Tenkalai, or southern learning, is more liberal and so shapes the doctrines of the system as to make them applicable to Śūdras also. But we shall find the Śūdras asserting themselves when we come to the disciples of Ramananda and to the Maratha saints and teachers, Namdeva and Tukarama.

The fifth Upāya, or way to God, given in the Arthapāṭicaka, of surrendering oneself completely to a teacher or preceptor, doing nothing oneself and the preceptor doing all that is necessary for one's redemption, seems suspicious. It has a striking resemblance to the Christian doctrine of Christ suffering, or in the words of our author, going through the processes necessary for redemption, the believer doing nothing but putting complete faith in his saviour. If the prevalence of Christianity in and before the time of Ramanuja in the country about Madras is a proved fact, this

doctrine as well as some of the finer points in the theory of Prapatti may be traced to the influence of Christianity. Rāmānuja's system is known by the name of Śrīsampradāya or the tradition springing from Śrī.

XVI Madhva or Anandatirtha

§ 50 The great object of the Vaiṣṇava teachers of the eleventh century and upwards was to confute the theory of Māyā, or the unreality of the world, and establish the doctrine of Bhakti, or love and faith, on a secure basis. Rāmānuja effected this by the system which he promulgated and which we have already noticed. But in order to reconcile his doctrine with the theory set forth in the Brahmasūtras on the basis of the Upanisads, that God is the material as well as the efficient cause of the world, he propounded the doctrine of God's being a composite person, having»for his body the individual souls and the inanimate world. Even this Madhva considered objectionable as having a tendency to depreciate the independent majesty of God, and therefore he denies his being the material cause of the world. All the Sūtras of BādarSyaṇa which set forth that doctrine have been interpreted by him in an entirely different way. Probably he would have set aside the Brahmasūtras altogether-, but he could not do so, since the work had acquired an uncontested authoritativeness as regards religious truth before his time. He had therefore to show that his system did not go against the Brahmasūtras, and therefore accepted them and interpreted them in almost a fantastic manner. Texts from the Upanisads, too, which do not agree with his doctrines, he treats similarly.

In opposition to the pure monism of Śaṅkara and the qualified monism of Rāmānuja, Anandatīrtha sets forth five eternal distinctions or individualities, viz., the distinction between

- (1) God and the individual spirit,
- (2) God and the inanimate world,
- (3) the individual spirit and the inanimate world*
- (4) one individual spirit and another,
- (5) one inanimate object and another.

According to the Madhvavijaya, or the history of the triumphs of Madhva, by Nārāyaṇa, the son of Trivikrama, there was in the XI I R. G. Bhandarkar's Works, Vol IV.]

town of Rajatapl̥tha a family known by the name of Madhyagehā. Madhva's father was called Madhyagehahhatta¹ ; the name given to Madhva after his birth was Vāsudeva. After Vāsudeva had received the usual education of a Brāhmaṇa, he was initiated as an anchorite by Aeyutapreksācārya who. thus became his Guru. After his initiation he went to Badarikaśrama in the Himalaya and brought back the idols of Digvijaya Rāma and Vedavyāsa. He was raised to the seat of high priest in the presence of kings.

Anandatīrtha went from country to country, putting down the advocates of the doctrine of Maya and others, and established the Vaiṣṇava creed. He had for his pupils Padmānābhatīrtha, Naraharītīrtha, Mādhavatīrtha, and Akṣobhyatīrtha. Naraharītīrtha was sent to Jagannātha in Orissa to bring the original idols of Rāma and Sītā. Anandatīrtha's other names were Pūrṇaprajña and Madhyamandata, or wish-giving tree of the family of Madhya.

The date of his death given in the list preserved in several of the Mathas, or establishments of the sect, is Śaka 1119, and as he lived for seventy-nine years, the death of his birth has been given as Śaka 1040. But these statements are open to serious doubts. There is an Inscription in the Kūrmeśvara temple at Śrīkūrmam in the Chicacole Taluka of the Ganjam District, in which Naraharītīrtha is represented to have constructed a temple and placed in it an idol of Yoganandanarasimha in the year Śaka 1203.² The first person therein mentioned is Puruṣottamatīrtha, who is the same as Acyutapreksa³, then his pupil Anandatīrtha, and the last is Naraharītīrtha, the pupil of Anandatīrtha. This Naraharītīrtha is considered by some to have been the ruler of Orissa. But this arises from a confusion between him and a king bearing the same name, in the slightly modified form of Narasimha, who was the actual ruler of the country from about Śaka 1191 to

1. Kallianpur in the Udipi Taluka of the district of South Kanara is stated to be the birth-place of Madhva. It was probably the same as the Rajatapl̥tha of the Madhvavijaya. (Imp. Gaz., Vol. XIV, page 3X4.)

2. Ep. Ind., Vol. VI, pp. 260 ff.

3. Madhvavijaya, VI, 33,

1225. He is mentioned in an Inscription at Śrīkurmam of Naraharitīrtha himself, bearing the date Śāka 1215, which is represented as the eighteenth year of the king's reign¹. He was Narasimha II, and was the prince panegyrised in a work on rhetoric, the, Ekavali². Naraharitīrtha's other dates gathered from other Inscriptions range between Śāka 1186 and 1212³. All these epigraphical records confirm the truth of the tradition that Naraharitīrtha was sent by Anandatīrtha to Orissa. He appears to **have** held a very high position there.

Now if Naraharitīrtha's active period extended from Śāka 1186 to 1215, his master could not have died in Śāka 1119, i. e., fully 67 years before. It seems, therefore, reasonable to take the date given in Madhva's Mahābhāratatātparyanirṇaya, which is, 4300 of the Kali age, to be the correct date of his birth. It corresponds to Śāka 1121, which, bearing in mind the fact that some use the current year of an era and some the past, we must regard as equivalent to Śāka 1119, the date given in the lists for Anandatīrtha's death. But instead of taking it as the date of his death, we shall have to regard it as the date of his birth. He lived for 79 years according to the current account, so that his death must be placed in Śāka 1198⁴. The two dates may, therefore, be taken as settled.

Anandatīrtha thus lived in the first three quarters of the thirteenth century. He was succeeded, according to the list, by Padmanabhatīrtha who held the pontificate for seven years, i. e., up to Śāka 1205. He was succeeded by Naraharitīrtha who occupied the pontifical seat for nine years, i. e., up to Śāka 1214, or, if we regard 1121 as the date of the first pontiff's birth according to the strict interpretation of the Kali date, up to Śāka 1216; and, as we have seen, his latest date in the Inscriptions is Śāka 1215.

§ 51. The Madhvas follow the method of Vaiśeṣikas and divide all existing things into the categories of substance, qualities, etc.,

1. Ep. Ind., Vol. VI, page 262, note.

2. See my note in Trivedi's edition of the work, BS8. [= Volume II of this Edition, pp. 439ff. N. B. U.]

3. Ep. Ind., Vol. VI, p. 266.

4. This agrees with the tradition existing in the Matha at Phalmaru, near Mulki in South Canara, to the effect that Anandatīrtha was born in Śāka 1119 and died in Śāka 1199; EP- Ind., VI, p. 263, note.

with some modifications of their own¹. God is a substance. The supreme soul possesses innumerable or an infinite number of qualities. His functions are eight, viz., (1) creation, (2) protection, (3) dissolution, (4) controlling all things, (5) giving knowledge, (6) manifestation of himself, (7) tying beings down to the world, (8) redemption. He is omniscient, expressible by all words, and entirely different from the individual souls and the inanimate world. He possesses the holy form made up of knowledge, joy, etc., independent of every thing, and one only, assuming different forms. All his forms are his full manifestations, and he is identically the same with his incarnations in qualities, parts, and actions. Lakṣmī is distinct from the Supreme Soul, but entirely dependent on him. She is eternal and blessed (*Muktā*) like the Supreme Soul and is his consort. She has various forms, but no material body, and is thus like the Supreme Soul, and like him is expressible by all words. She possesses the same extension in space and time as the Supreme Soul, i. e., is concomitant with him.

Jīvas or individual souls go through the usual succession of existences and are characterised by ignorance or other defects. They are innumerable individually, or as members of groups, such as Rjūs² who are fit for attaining Brahmahood, and others who are fit for the attainment of the dignity of Rudra, Garuḍa, Asuras, or demons, etc. They are of three kinds : (1) fit for attaining final bliss, (2) always going through the circle of existences, and (3) fit for the condition of darkness. The gods, Rsis, and the manes, and the best of men, belong to the first class, ordinary men belong to the second class, and demons, ghosts, and the vilest of men, etc., to the third class. All these individual souls are distinct from each other and from the Supreme Soul.

Creation begins when the Supreme Soul disturbs the equilibrium of the Prakṛti, which then develops into all the other principles of the Sāṃkhya system, as modified by the Purāṇas, until the mundane egg is produced. Then placing the sentient and non-

1. This account of the system is abridged from a work called *Madhvasiddhantasara* by Padmanabhasuri, printed in Bombay by Javaji Dadaji, *irṇayasagara* Press, published at Kumbhakonam in Śaka 1815, corresponding to 1883 A. D. The tedious details are omitted.

2. Rjūs are a class of gods.

sentient objects into his inside, he enters into the mundane egg. Then, at the end of a thousand celestial years he produces from his navel a lotus, which is the seat of the four-faced Brahmadeva; and from this last after a long time the ordinary creation takes place.

All knowledge springs from Paramatman, whatever the means by which it is produced. It is of two kinds—that which leads to worldly existence, and that which leads to Mokṣa. Viṣṇu bestows knowledge on the ignorant, and Mokṣa on those who have knowledge. The knowledge, or feeling which creates an attachment to the body, child or wife, leads to a worldly life. This is not true knowledge, but ignorance from which results that worldly life, and that ignorance is dispelled by the knowledge of God.

Mokṣa is attained by the direct knowledge or perception of Hari by means of a method of service possible to oneself and in a body fitted for it. That direct perception is possible to all good individual souls from Brahmadeva to the best of men. This direct perception is to be attained by many means.

What are necessary for direct knowledge, which leads to Mokṣa, are : (1) *Vairāgya*, or the disgust of enjoyments of this world or the next, generated by seeing the vanity of the world by the company of good persons (2) equanimity (*Śama*) and self-control (*Dama*), etc, (3) acquaintance with the lore; (4) self-surrender (*Śaraṇagati*), in which the mind is devoted to God, as the best of all beings, and is full of the highest love and in which everything is resigned to God and he is worshipped with devotedness in the three ways, and which is accompanied with the faith that He will unfailingly protect and the feeling that the devotee is His; (5) attendance on a Guru, or preceptor, and propitiation of him, which is necessary for Mokṣa or redemption ; (6) acquisition of knowledge from the Guru and not from books, or, in the absence of a Guru, from a good Vaiṣṇava, and, in rare cases, from books also; (7) reflection over what has been taught (8) devotion, in the order of their merits, to a preceptor and persons better than oneself and deserving respect; (9) love of God (*Paramātmabhakti*) consequent on the knowledge of God's greatness and his being the best of all. This love should be firm and higher

than that for all others, and this leads to Mokṣa or eternal bliss; (10) sympathy for those who are inferior, but good men, love for those who are equal, as if they were the same as themselves, and respectful love or reverence for superiors; (11) performing rites and ceremonies deliberately without any desire, which has the effect of purifying the soul; (12) the avoidance of prohibited deeds, i.e., sins great and small; (13) resigning every act to Hari as done by him and not by oneself; (14) the knowledge of the comparative position, of beings and of Viṣṇu as the highest of all; (15) knowledge of the five distinctions already mentioned; (16) distinguishing Prakṛti from Puruṣa, all beings (from Narayana down to men, with their consorts) being Puruṣas, and the inanimate world being the Prakṛti; (17) reprobation of false doctrines; (18) Upasana or worship. This last is of two kinds, viz., (1) the learning of the Śāstras, (2) meditation. Meditation (Nididhyasa) is placing Bhagavat before the mind's eye to the exclusion of everything else. This meditation is possible for one who has a distinct knowledge of a thing acquired after the removal of ignorance, doubt and delusion by means of reading or hearing something read and reflection. Some people meditate on Bhagavat as a single spirit and others on him as having four phases as Sat (existence), Cit (knowledge), Ananda (joy), Atman (spirit). Then are given meditations resorted to by gods and some of those mentioned in the Brahmasūtras.

All these eighteen ways lead to the direct knowledge of God, which is possible for all from Brahmadeva to man. The direct knowledge of God attained by men is comparable with the corrosion of lightning, and that attained by gods to the bright disk of the sun. Garuḍa and Rudra have that knowledge in the shape of a reflection, while Brahmadeva has the knowledge of the whole with all its parts, and some have the knowledge of Him as dwelling in the universe and limited by the universe. The direct knowledge is simply mental.

§ 52. The followers of Madhva wear a mark on the forehead composed of two white perpendicular lines made with an earth called Gopīcandana above the bridge of the nose, and a dark line in the middle with a reddish spot in the centre. The two white lines are joined by a cross line on the bridge of the nose. They

wear on the shoulders and on the other parts of their body prints, made with the same white earth, of the conch-shell, the discus, and other weapons of Viṣṇu. These are impressed occasionally with a heated metallic stamp on the skin, so as to leave a permanent scar. Members of this sect exist in pretty large numbers in the Kanarese Districts of the Bombay Presidency, Mysore, and on the Western Coast from Goa to South Kanara, and there are only scattered adherents in Northern India. There are eight establishments, or Maṭhas, for the dissemination and preservation of the creed in South Kanara and three in the inner country. Some of these were founded by Anandatīrtha himself.

Anandatīrtha composed thirty-seven¹ different treatises. He includes among the authorities enumerated by him in support of his system the Pāñcarātra-Saṁhitās; but it will be seen from the account given above that in his creed there is no place for the Vyūhas, Vāsudeva and others, and the name by which the Supreme Spirit is spoken of is mostly Viṣṇu. Some of His incarnations, especially Rāma and Kṛṣṇa, are also adored. But the Gopala-Kṛṣṇa element seems to be entirely absent from his system, and Rādhā and the cowherdesses are not mentioned.

It thus appears that the Pancaratra or Bhagavata system has been set aside by Anandatīrtha or thrown into the background. • The old traditional Vasudevism of the Bhagavata school " gradually disappeared about his time and made room for general Vaiṣṇavism.

XVII. Nimbarka.

§ 53 We have thus noticed the form which Vaiṣṇavism assumed in the South from the middle of the eleventh century to the middle of the thirteenth. A strong feeling of Bhakti, or love, and a fear of the dangerous consequences of the doctrine of Maya, or illusion, were the guiding principles of the new development. The influence of this last extended itself to the North, and we can distinguish between two classes of founders of sects, viz.,

(1) those who wrote in Sanskrit,

1 For the names of these, see the Granthamalikastotra in my Report on the Search for Sanskrit Manuscripts during 1882-83, p. 207. (= Volume II of this Edition, p. 24f. N. B. V. J

and (2) those who used the vernacular for the propagation of their creed.

The first of the former class we have to notice is Nimbarka. Nimbarka is said to have been a Tailaṅga Brahmana by birth and to have lived in a village called Nimba¹, which perhaps is the same as Nimbapura in the Bellary District. He was born on the 3rd of the bright half of Vaiśakha, and his father's name was Jagannatha, who was a Bhagavata, and his mother's Sarasvati². He is believed by his followers to be an incarnation of the Sudarśana, or the discus of Viṣṇu. As to when he flourished we have no definite information, but he appears to have lived some time after Ramanuja³. Nimbarka composed the Vedantaparijata-

1 Manuscript No. 706 of the Collection of 1884-7. Nimbarka was the " Sun of Nimba".

2 Introduction to the commentary on Dasasloki by Harivyasadeva. It is to be regretted that the commentator does not give the year of Nimbarka's birth.

3 In my Report on the Search for Sanskrit Manuscripts for the year 1882-83, I have given two succession lists of spiritual teachers, one of the sect of Anandatirtha (p. 203) and another of that founded by Nimbarka (pp. 208-12). This contains 37 names. There is another list in Manuscript 709 of the Collection of 1884-7, which contains 45 names. The two lists agree to No. 32 Hafivyssadeva. After that, while the first has only five names, the second has thirteen names, and none of these agrees with any of the five, so that after Harivyasadeva, the line appears to have divided itself into two branches. No. 709 of the same Collection was written in Śaṁvat 1806 corresponding to 1750 A. D., when Gosvamin Damodara was living. He was the thirty-third after Nimbarka in the new branch line. The thirty-third after Anandatirtha died in 1876 A. D. Anandatirtha according to our revised date died in 1276 A. D., so that thirty-three successors occupied 603 years. Supposing that the thirty-three successors of Nimbarka occupied about the same period, and allowing about fifteen years of life to Damodara Gosvamin, who was living in 1750 A. D., and subtracting from 1765 A. D., 603 years, we have 1162 which is about the date of Nimbarka's death, so that he lived after Ramanuja. This calculation of ours is of course very rough, and, besides, the date of the Manuscript No. 706, which is read as 1913 by some, but which looks like 1813, conflicts with this calculation, as nine more Xcsryas flourished after Damodara. And, if 1813 is the correct date, seven years cannot suffice for these, though 107 may, if the date is read 1913.

saṛabha, which is a short commentary on the Brahmasūtras, and also a small work containing ten stanzas of the name of Siddhānta-ratna, usually called Daśaślokl, from the number of stanzas contained in it. Śrīnīvaṣa, the immediate follower of Nimbarka, wrote a commentary called Bhāṣya on the first, and Harivyāśadeva, the thirty-second in the list of succession, wrote on the second. The thirteenth in the list, Devācārya, wrote the Siddhāntajāhnavi, and his successor, Sundarabhāṭṭa, wrote a commentary on it, called Setu. The thirtieth in the list composed a commentary, or Bhāṣya, on the Brahmasūtras. His name was Keśava Kaśmīn.

§ 52. Nimbārka's Vedāntic theory is monistic as well as pluralistic. The inanimate world, the individual soul and God are distinct from one another as well as identical. Identical they are in the sense that the first two have no independent existence, but are dependent on God for their existence and action. The theory of the Brahmasūtras that Brahman is the material cause of the universe, is thus understood : To be the material cause of an effect is (1) to possess the capacity of assuming the form of that effect, and (2) to be fitted to do so. Brahman possesses various capacities which are of the nature of the animate and inanimate worlds. These in a subtle form constitute its natural condition. This satisfies the first of the two requirements. The capacities again contain in them the rudiment of the effect, i. e., the world, in a subtle form. This meets the second requirement. By realising these capacities and bringing the subtle rudiment into a gross form, Brahman becomes the material cause of the world. Rāmānuja's theory of Brahman forming with the animate and inanimate world a composite personality and of its being the material cause in so far as the bodily portion of the composite personality becomes developed, is rejected by the school¹. For a further knowledge of the system, I will here give a translation of the Daśaślokl.

I. Jīva, or the individual soul, is knowledge, dependent on Hari, and is in a condition to be associated with, or dissociated from, a body ; is an atom, different in different bodies, and is a knower and numberless.

It is called knowledge here to show that it is able to know

1. See Kes'ava's commentary, Br. 8. I. 4. 23.

without the organs of sense, and it is not to be understood here that the soul is the mere phenomenon of knowledge, and not a substance, which is the doctrine of Śamkaracarya.

II. The individual soul has his form distorted by its contact with *Mayā*, or the constituent principle with the three qualities which has no beginning. Its true nature becomes known by the grace of God.

Individual souls are of two sorts : (1) those delivered or in a supremely blissful condition ; (2) those tied down to the circle of existences. The first are of two kinds: (I) those who are eternally in a supremely blissful condition, such as (a) *Garuda*, *Visvakṣena*, and (b) the crown, ear-ornaments and the flute considered as living beings ; and (II) those who are freed from the trammels of life. Of these last some attain to the likeness of God and others are content with the perception of the nature of their own soul. Corresponding to these two last are two kinds of *Mumukṣu*, those who seek deliverance of either kind.

III. The inanimate objects are of three kinds : (1) not derived from *Prakṛti*; (2) derived from *Prakṛti*; and (3) time. In the things derived from *Prakṛti* we have the ordinary material objects having the three colours, viz., red, white, and dark.

The first class consists of those which are spoken of figuratively by the use of the names of objects belonging to the second class, such as the sunlike refulgence of the Supreme Soul. It is a refulgence not arising from the *Prakṛti*. Similarly the body, hands, feet, and ornaments of God, as well as all the surroundings, such as garden, palace, etc., belong to the first class and are of an inanimate nature, though they are not made of matter, i. e., not derived from *Prakṛti*.

IV. I meditate on the highest Brahman, viz., *Kṛṣṇa*, who has eyes like the lotus, who naturally is free from all faults, is the store of all beneficent attributes, who has *Vyūhas* for his parts, and who is adored by all.

1. The physical attributes, given to God by Ramanuja and the rest and to which the word 'celestial' * is sometimes prefixed, are to be understood in this sense.

The Vyūhas here mentioned are those usually referred to in the Pancaratra and Ramanuja systems. The commentators understand the incarnations also by this expression. One gives a large number of these, divided into classes on certain principles. Kṛṣṇa is called Vareṇya or adored by all, because he has a holy celestial body and bodily qualities, such as beauty, tenderness, sweetness and charm. All these are of course non-material (Aprākṛta), though inanimate according to Stanza I I I .

V. I reflect on the daughter of Vrsabhanu (Radhika), who shines with a corresponding beauty on the left side (of Kṛṣṇa), is attended on by thousands of female friends, and who always confers all desired objects.

VI. This Parabrahman should be always worshipped uninterruptedly by men in order to be free from the darkness in the shape of ignorance, in which they are enveloped. So was Nārada, who directly perceived the whole truth, taught by Sanandana and others.

VII. All things having Brahman for their souls in accordance with the Śrutis and Smṛtis, the knowledge that [Brahman] is all is true. This is the doctrine of those who know the Vedas, and at the same time the three forms are true as determined from the sacred precepts (Smṛtis) and the Sūtras.

Here is laid down the unity of all things in so far as Brahman is the inner controlling soul of all and is concomitant with them, and their existence and actions are dependent on it, and also pluralism, since there are three distinct substances, which are called forms of Brahman in the Stanza, viz., the inanimate world, the individual soul and the Supreme Soul.

VIII. There appears no way to salvation except the lotus-like feet of Kṛṣṇa, which are adored by Brahmadeva, Śiva and others—Kṛṣṇa, who, at the desire of a devotee, assumes a form easy of meditation and whose power is unthinkable and whose essence cannot be comprehended.

IX. His grace extends itself to those who have a feeling of helplessness and other qualifications, and by that grace is generated Bhakti, or devotion, consisting of special love for Him, Who bag

no superior lord. This Bhakti is of two kinds: the highest is one, **and** the other is that which leads to or is instrumental to it.

By the feeling of helplessness and other qualifications are meant the six modes of Prapatti given in connection with Rāmānuja's system. The Bhakti which is instrumental to that which is the highest, is of the nature of the six or nine modes mentioned in previous Sections.

X. These five things should be known by the devotees: (1) the nature of the being to be worshipped? (2) the nature of the worshipper-, (3) the fruit of God's grace; (4) the feeling of enjoyment consequent on Bhakti, or love; (5) obstructions to the attainment of God.

The first is the knowing of the nature of the Supreme Being as existence, intelligence and joy (Saccidānanda), of his possessing a celestial body (non-material), of his dwelling in such places as the cow-settlement (Vraja), which is called the celestial city (Vyomapura), of his being the cause of all, omnipotent, tender, merciful, gracious towards his devotees, and so forth. The second consists in knowing the worshipper as an atom, possessing knowledge and joy, and as the servant of Kṛṣṇa, etc. The third is the self-surrender and the giving up of all actions except the service of God, which results in self-surrender. The fourth arises from serenity, servitude, friendliness, affection, and enthusiasm. These states of mind are consequent upon the peculiar relation to God of each individual, as affection was the feeling of Nanda, Vasudeva and Devakī, and enthusiasm, of Rādhā and Rukmiṇī. The fifth are such as regarding the body as the soul, dependence on others than God and one's preceptor, indifference to the commands of God contained in the sacred books, worshipping other gods, giving up one's own peculiar duties, ingratitude, spending one's life in a worthless manner, vilification of good men, and many others.

§ 55. These ten Stanzas contain the quintessence of Nimbārka's system. This appears to have Rāmānuja's doctrines for its basis and is a side wise development of it. It gives predominance to Prapatti or self-surrender of the six kinds, alluded to above, and then, by the grace of God, love for Him is generated. His Sadhana

Bhakti comprehends all the Yogas of Rfimanuja's system. Ramanuja, as we have already remarked¹, changes the original sense of Bhakti and renders it equivalent to the Upasana, or the meditation prescribed in the Upanisads. But Nimbarka keeps to the original sense. His doctrines make a nearer approach to the Tenkalai, or Southern Learning, of the Ramanujlyas. But the great difference between the two teachers is, that, while Ramanuja confines himself to Narayana and his consorts LaksmI, Bhu and Lila, Nimbarka gives almost an exclusive prominence to Kṛṣṇa and his mistress, Radha, attended on by thousands of her female companions. Thus the fourth element of Vaiṣṇavism which we have mentioned² rises to the surface in Vaiṣṇavism about this time, and retains its place in Northern India, including Bengal, except in the case of those sects whose favourite deity is Rama and not Kṛṣṇa; and to these for the present we will now turn our attention, coming back again to Kṛṣṇaism later on.

Nimbārka's system is known by the name of Sanakasaṃpradaya, or the tradition originating with Sanaka. Though Nimbarka was a Southerner, he lived at Vr̥ndavana near Mathura, which accounts for the preference given by him to the R̥fidhfi-Kṛṣṇa form of Vaiṣṇavism. His followers are scattered over the whole of Northern India, and exist in large numbers near Mathura and in Bengal. They wear two perpendicular lines of Goplcandana with a black spot in the middle on the forehead, and use a necklace and rosary of the wood of the TulasI plant. They are divided into two classes, the ascetics and householders. This distinction appears to have originated at the time of Harivyasadeva, after whom, as I have observed in a note, the successors of Nimbarka were divided into two branches. The reason for the division was probably this new distinction.

XVIII. Ramananda.

§ 56. A spirit of sympathy for the lower castes and classes of Hindu society has from the beginning been a distinguishing feature of Vaiṣṇavism. Still, so far as we have advanced, the great teachers kept these castes and classes into, what might be

1. [Ante, p. 80. N. B U.]

2. [Ante,p.49.N.B.U.]

called, an outer court, though they were admitted to the benefits of the new dispensation. They had not, as the pure Vedāntins assert, to do the duties prescribed for their mean position, and rise in succeeding lives until they were finally born as Brāhmaṇas, when alone they could avail themselves of the methods laid down for the attainment of Mokṣa. or deliverance. They could attain this even as members of the lowest caste by resorting to devotion, but the Brahmanic teachers, Ramanuja and others, made the methods based on the study of the Vedic literature accessible only to the higher castes, leaving other methods to the rest.

But Rāmānanda now began a radical reform and made no distinction between Brahmaṇas and members of the degraded castes, and all could even dine together, provided they were the devotees of Viṣṇu and had been admitted into the fold. Another reform, which must be traced to Ramananda, was the use of the Vernaculars for the propagation of the new creed. And a third very important reform made by him was the introduction of the purer and more chaste worship of Rama and Sita instead of that of Kṛṣṇa and Rādhā.

Mr. Macauliffe mentions Mailkot as the place of his birth and says that he must have flourished in the end of the fourteenth and the first half of the fifteenth century, which, he states, corresponds with a reckoning which gives 1398 A D., as the date of the birth of Kabir. This would rather make Ramananda live long before the end of the fourteenth century, as Kabir was his successor, and ordinarily believed to be his pupil¹. The authority² I have consulted states that he was born at Prayāga as the son of a Kānyakubja Brahmaṇa, named Funyasadana, and his wife Suśllā. The date of his birth is given as 4400 of the Kali age, equivalent to 1356 of Vikrama-Saṁvat. This corresponds to 1299 or 1300 A. D., and is more consistent with the traditional statement that there were three generations between him and Ramanuja. The

1. The sikh Religion, etc., by M. A. Macauliffe, Vol. VI, pp. 100-1. 1908 A. D. it laid by Macauliffe to correspond to the 510th year of his era. By his he must mean Kabir's.

2. Chapters from the Agastya-Saṁhita with a Hindi translation by Rama Narayana Dasa, completed in Saṁvat 1960, corresponding to 1904 A. a

date of Rāmānuja's death is usually given as 1137 A. D., though it makes him out as having lived for 120 years. The lapse of three generations between 1137 and 1300 A. D., is a more reasonable supposition than between 1137 and the end of the fourteenth century. This last date, therefore, given for Rāmānanda is, manifestly wrong, and that occurring in the book I have consulted appears to be correct in all probability.

From Prayaga Ramananda was sent to Benares for the usual education of a Brāhmaṇa. After he finished this, he became a disciple of Rāghavānanda, a teacher of the Viśiṣṭādvaita school of Rāmāruja. After some time he gave up some of the restrictive practices of the sect, such as that of taking food without being seen by anybody, and separated himself from his preceptor, and himself became the founder of a school. As indicated above, he took pupils from the degraded castes also. Thirteen of them became noted and their names are: 1. Anantānanda, 2. Surasarānanda, 3. Sukhananda, 4. Naraharlyānanda, 5. Yogananda, 6. Plpā, 7. Kablr, 8. Bhavananda, 9. Sena, 10. Dhanna, 11. Galavananda, 12. Raidas, and 13. Padmavatī.

Of these Plpā was a Rajput, Kabir was a Śūdra and spoken of also as a Mahomedan following the profession of a weaver, Senā was a barber, Dhannā a Jat, Raidās belonged to the degraded caste of curriers or workers in leather, and Padmāvatī was a woman. With the first twelve he went about the country visiting holy places, conducting disputations with the advocates of the Maya doctrine, Jains, Buddhists, etc., establishing his own Viśiṣṭādvaita theory, and converting men to his views and admitting them as his disciples. Rānānanda is stated to have died in 1467 of Vikrama-Samvat, corresponding to 1411 A. D. This gives him a life of 111 years, which is rather improbable. Some of his pupils became the founders of different schools, and through them the worship of Rama spread over an extensive portion of Northern and Central India, successfully competing with that of Gopala-Kṛṣṇa.

XIX. Kabīr.

8 57. The few particulars that have come down to us about the birth and life of Kabir are these. He was the son of a

Brahmana widow who cast him away as soon as he was born, to hide her shame, near the Lahar Tank in Benares. A Mahomedan weaver of the name of Nirū was passing by the way with his wife Nima, when the latter saw the child and carried it home. He was nurtured and brought up by her and her husband Niru, and Kabir when he had grown up, followed the occupation of a weaver. He showed leanings towards the Hindu faith, and the idea of making Ramananda his Guru, or preceptor, arose in his mind. But he conceived it not possible that that sage should receive a Mahomedan as his disciple and therefore had recourse to a contrivance. He laid himself down on the Ghāṭa, or pavement on the Ganges, at which Ramananda bathed very early in the morning. On the way Ramananda trampled on the boy and exclaimed : " Rama, Rama! What poor creature is it that I have trampled upon ?" Kabir rose up and received the exclamation " Rama, Rama " as a Mantra communicated to him by Ramananda, and he understood that he had thus been made a disciple.

Another account is that, being trampled on, Kabir rose up and cried aloud, when Rāmananda told him to be quiet and go on uttering the name of "Rama". Considering that he had thus been accepted as a pupil, Kabir went on with his adorations of God, proclaiming [that he was the disciple of Rāmananda. Some Hindus went to the latter and asked him whether he had initiated Kabir. Thereupon Kabir was sent for and asked by Ramananda, when it was that he had been initiated. Kabir mentioned to him the incident of his having been trampled upon the Ghāṭa. Then Ramananda remembered the matter and clasped Kabir to his breast. Since that time Kabir regularly attended at his master's Maṭha and joined him in his disputations with the Pandits.

For some time Kabir lived at Manikapur, as is mentioned in one of his Ramainis. There he heard of the fame of Shaikh Taqqi and of twenty-one Pirs. He heard their discourses, condemned their teachings and said: "O Shaikhs, of whatever name I listen to me. Open your eyes and see the origin and the end of all things and their creation and dissolution". In one of the books of this sect, Shaikh Taqqi is represented as an enemy of Kabir, and a Pir, or the religious guide, of Sikandar Lodi. At his advice the emperor persecuted Kabir and used various methods to destroy

him. But Kabir miraculously escaped death and was eventually reconciled to Sikandar Lodi, who received him into his favour.

Kabir died at Maghar, and there was a dispute between the Hindus and the Mahomedans as to the disposal of his dead body, which was covered by a sheet of cloth. When the sheet was removed, the body had disappeared, and in its stead there was a heap of flowers. The Mahomedans took one-half of the quantity and buried it at Maghar and erected a tomb over it, and the Hindus took their share to Benares, where it was burnt. Kabir had a wife of the name of Loi, a son of the name Kamal, and a daughter of the name of Kamāll. But there are miraculous stories as to how Kabir came by them.

As to how much of this account is historical and how much legendary, it is difficult to say. But that he was a Mahomedan weaver at the beginning may be accepted as a fact. And that Shaikh Taqqi, a Mahomedan Pir, who is mentioned in one of the *Ramainls*, as stated above, was his rival and that Kabir lived about the time of Sikandar Lodi may also be regarded as historical. As to whether Kabir was a disciple of Ramananda, there is some question, as will be presently mentioned. Mr. Westcott considers it not impossible that he should have been both a Mahomedan and a Sūfi¹, but all his writings show a complete familiarity with the names occurring in Hindu religious literature and Hindu manners and customs, so that it appears to me that there is little or nothing in Kabir's writings calculated to show that his teachings had a Mahomedan basis. The basis appears to be purely Hindu, though Kabir was a bold and uncompromising reformer and hurled anathemas at the Pandits, the Brāhmaṇas proud of their caste, and the teachers of the existing sects of the Hindus, and thus appears to have come under the influence of Mahomedanism.

The dates given by various writers for the birth and death of Kabir are conflicting. Mr. Westcott makes him live for 78 years, from 1440 to 1518 A. D.,² and according to Mr. Macauliffe he

1. Kabir and the Kabir Panth by Rev. G. H. Westcott. Cawnpore, 1907, p. 44.

2. Ibid, Chronological Table, p. VII.

13 [R. G. Bhandarkar's Works, Vol. IV.]

was born in Samvat 1455, corresponding to A. D. 1398¹, and he died in A. D. 1518², having lived for 119 years¹, five months and twenty-seven days. In a footnote he quotes from an original work the date Śaka 1370, corresponding to 1448 A. D., as the date of his death. Sikandar Lodi was on the throne of Delhi from 1488 to 1517 A. D. The last of the three dates does not harmonise with this, and so it must be given up. Rāmananda, we have seen, is spoken of as having been born in 1298 A. D. and died in 1411 A. D. If Mr. Westcott's date for Kabir's birth is true, Kabir cannot have been a disciple of Ramananda. If that of Mr. Macauliffe is accepted, it is just possible that he should have so become, for at the time of Ramananda's death, Kabir must have been thirteen years of age, and he is represented in one of the legends to have been but a boy when he was accepted as a disciple by the old sage. The date 1518 A. D. given by both the writers for his death may be accepted as correct. But if that of his birth given by Mr. Macauliffe is also accepted, we shall have to suppose that Kabir lived for 119 years; Rāmananda also according to the dates given in the last section lived for 113 years. Whether both of them lived such long lives might well be questioned. But, until we have more evidence, the dates for Ramananda already noticed, and for Kabir as given by Mr. Macauliffe may be provisionally accepted, and thus Kabir might be considered to have really been a disciple of Ramananda, though of course, being a boy of thirteen, he could not have taken part in his master's disputations with Pandits. In Kabir's works, however, so far as I have seen them, Rāmananda's name does not occur, though the name Rama as that of the Supreme Being and also the relation of the individual soul with Rama, as well as his refutation of the doctrine of God's being Videha or Nirguṇa, i. e., without attributes, must have been borrowed from Rāmananda's doctrines, which again are based on Ramanuja's system.

§ 58. We now give a translation of a few passages illustrative of the teachings of Kabir.³

1. The Sikh Religion, &c, Vol. VI, p, 122.

2. Ibid. pp. 139-40.

3. The edition consulted is that published with a commentary under the orders of Raghurajasimha, Maharaja of ReWah, in Samvat 1994.

First Ramainl.'

1. There was in the inside a substance called Jiva or individual soul; the Internal Light illuminated [it]. 2. And then followed a woman of the name of 'desire'; and she was called Gayatri. 3. That woman gave birth to three sons; Brahma, Visnu and Mahesa. 4. Then Brahma asked the woman who was her husband and whose wife she was. 5. (She replied :) "Thou and I, I and thou, and there is no third. Thou art my husband and I am thy wife."* 6. The father and son had a common wife; and one mother has a two-fold character; there is no son who is good son and who will endeavour to recognise his father.

Second Ramainl.

1. In the light there was sound, which was a woman. 2. And of the woman were Hari, Brahma and the enemy of the three cities (Śiva). 3. Then Brahmā created an egg and divided it into fourteen regions. 4—6. Then Hari, Hara and Brahma settled in three regions, and thus they arranged the whole Brahmanda and the sir philosophies and ninety-six heresies. Nobody then taught the Veda for his sustenance; and Turuk did not come for making circumcision. 7. The woman brought forth from her womb children. They became distinct individuals and followed different courses of action. 8. Therefore I and thou are of one blood and are one life. Distinctness arises from ignorance. 9. From one woman ail sprang, and what knowledge is it that brought about distinctness between them? 13 (Sakhl). Kabir proclaims: All this ordinary world is destructible; without knowing the name of Rama ail individuals are drowned in the ocean of existence.

Kabir's account of creation seems to be this. In the light of Rama there existed a substance which was the subtle element, the sum total of all individual souls. And then that substance was illuminated by that light. Then followed a desire in the shape of a woman, which was at the same time called Gayatri and sound (Sabda), and from her the creation took its rise. His idea thus

1. Ramaini is a piece of composition consisting of several Caupais (Sk. Catupadl), which are stanzas consisting of four lines with the ends of the first two and of the last two rhyming with each other, and a Sakhi (which is another species of metre) at the end.

seems to be that individual souls came into being, or were developed out of a substance which was their subtle form, at the will of the Supreme Soul, which (will) was uttered in the form of a sound. That is to say, the Supreme Soul was not the material cause of the world, but a distinct subtle entity. What, in the language of the Upaniṣads, became many was this entity and not the Supreme Soul himself. Kabir's philosophy is thus not a monism, but dualism. All individuals sprang into existence from the same cause, there was one blood and one life, and consequently the distinction of castes and races was a later fiction. Kabir thus appears to be an opponent of this distinction.

Fifth Ragain,

The substance of the first five Ragain seems to be that Hari, Hara and Brahma, taking the two letters (Rama), laid the foundation of all learning, and gradually the Vedas and Kitabs (books) came to be composed. 6—8. In all the four ages the devotees devised systems, but were not aware that the bundle they had tied up was torn. Men ran in all directions for salvation, being afraid. Abandoning their lord they ran towards hell.

Eighth Ragain.

1. The precept "Tat tvam asi" (that thou art) is the message of the Upaniṣads. 2. They lay great stress upon it, and those who are qualified explain it (at great length). 3. Sanaka and Narada became happy by regarding the highest principle to be distinct from themselves, 4. The colloquy between Janaka and Yajñavalkya comes to the same effect, and that same sweet sentiment was tasted by Dattatreya. 5. Vasiṣṭha and Rama sang together the same thing, and that same thing was explained to Uddhava. 6. That same thing was substantiated by Janaka, and though he had a body, he was called bodiless (Videha). 7 (Sakhi). No mortal becomes immortal without abandoning the pride of birth. That which one cannot see by experience is to be considered as "unseen" or "unperceived".

In this Ragain Kabir shows acquaintance with the Upaniṣads and other branches of Hindu sacred literature, so that he cannot have been a mere "Sūfi and Mahomedan". He rejects the theory of the identity between the Supreme and the individual soul

which is regarded as being laid down in the expression "That thou art" of the Chandogya Upaniṣad. The commentator says that by "that" is to be understood the subtle body of sixteen parts and the expression means "Thou art that subtle body". Kabir takes all the individuals he has named in this Ramaini to have preached duality.

In the fourteenth Ramaini there is a condemnation of the several systems of religion that contained in the Purāṇas, that of Brahma, Hamsa, Gopala, Sambhu, ghosts and goblins and various forms of worship upto the Nevāja of the Mahomedan.

Thirty-fourth Ramaini.

1. The Pandits were misled by the study of the Vedas which are based on the Guṇas, or qualities, and did not know their Own nature and their true friend (God). 2. They practise Samdhyā, Tarpaṇa, the six rites and various other such ceremonies. 3. In all the four Yugas Gayatri has been taught; ask who obtained salvation (Mukti) by its means. 4. When you are touched by other people, you bathe; tell me who is more degraded than yourselves. 5. You are very proud of your virtues. Too much pride is not good. 6. How can he whose name destroys all pride bear this proud behaviour? 7 (Sakhl). Giving up the traditional mode of worship of the family, they seek the place of Nirvāṇa; having destroyed the seed and sprout, they became an entity without attributes (Videha or Nirguṇa).

Kabir here condemns the rites, ceremonies and other practices of the Brahmanas, the pride that is generated in them by these, the contempt in which they hold people of other castes, and also their search of Nirvana, or a condition without any attributes, i.e., the Advaita, or adualistic, system which they follow.

Fortieth Ramaini.

1. The see, which is a collection of waters, is a ditch, and in it are the sun, the moon, and the thirty-three crores of brothers. 2. In the whirlpools (of such a universe) they (men and gods) have seated themselves and desire happiness, but have not shunned the touch of misery. 3. Nobody knows the secret of misery, and the world has become mad in a variety of ways.

4. Everybody is a fool or a sage in himself and nobody knows Rama who dwells in the heart. 5. (Sakhi). They themselves are Hari (God), they themselves are lords, they themselves are the slaves of Hari. When there is no guarantee, the lady (Mukti or salvation) goes away disappointed.

Here again there's a condemnation of various systems and of the self-confidence which has given rise to them and the neglect of God dwelling in the heart.

Sakhis,

I.

31. The crowds went by the path traversed by the Pandits, Lofty is the ascent to Rama. Kabir has climbed it. 135. The whole world has gone astray by partiality for one's own system. He who, becoming free from partiality, adores Hari, is a wise sage. 138. The great ones are lost in their own greatness; pride peers out through every pore; when they are not familiar with a wise preceptor, all the orders of men are of the Camtar caste, i. e., the degraded caste of curriers. 182. The Kali is a wicked age; the world is blind and nobody believes in the true word. He to whom a salutary advice is given, becomes an enemy. 211. Three things went to a holy place (the body, the fickle heart, and the mind which is a thief). They did not destroy a single sin, but on the contrary the mind contracted ten others. 260. The Kablrs (men in general) polluted the path of Bhakti, or faith, by washing pebbles and stones. Keeping poison within, they have thrown out the nectar. 358. "I am the author of the whole creation, there is no other who is superior to me." (This is what some people think). Kabir says that, when one does not know what one is oneself, one thinks everything to be contained in oneself. 365. In this world all have passed away considering themselves to be Rama, but no one actually became Rama. Kabir says that, those who know Rama as he truly is, attain all their objects, 366. This world has become mad and has conceived a love for something which can be no matter of experience; and denying all authoritativeness to actual experience, they attach themselves to a soul without attributes (Videha). 372. Seeing a void, men were misled

and went about searching in all quarters till they died, but did not find a form without attributes.

II.

91. The bee loiters in the garden, being enticed by the innumerable flowers in it. In the same manner the individual soul loiters among the objects of sense and at the end goes away disappointed. 95. The soul is to the mind as a monkey is to a showman. Making it dance in a variety of ways, it (mind) finally retains it in its own hands. 96. The mind is fickle, a thief and perfect swindler. The gods and the sages fell off in consequence of the mind and mind finds a hundred thousand openings. 136. If a man gives up his belongings, it does not mean much. Egotism, or self-pride, cannot be given up. Self-pride, which led astray the great Munis, devours all. Running after gold and women, men are burnt by the passion generated by an illusion. Kabir says, how can they be saved, being like cotton which has come in contact with fire ? 147. All became subject to the power of illusion: Brahma, Viṣṇu, Maheśa, and the four, Nārada, Śārada, Sanaka, and Gaṇeśa, the son of Gauri. 209. Do not kill a poor living creature⁵ the life of all is the same. You will not be free from (the sin of) killing, even if you hear crores of Puranas.

III

122. He to attain whom the great sages (Munis) go through austerities and whose virtues the Vedas sing, himself gives instruction, but nobody believes. 208. One single poor soul is bound up by many fetters. If the father (God) will not liberate him, what power has the soul himself to do so ? 243. I (God) instruct him ; but he does not understand and sells himself into the hands of others. I pull him towards myself; but he runs away to the city of death (Yama). 282. If you endeavour to acquire one thing (God), every other thing will come to you; but if you endeavour to acquire every other thing, that one thing will be lost. If you water the root of a tree, you will obtain a sufficiency of flowers and fruits. 310. If you want me (God), give up your desire for every other thing and become mine, and then everything will be yours. 236. He has entered into every body and remains there fully watchful. When one wants a certain accomplishment, he

inspires him with the corresponding thoughts (calculated to enable him to achieve success).

Here the first group contains a condemnation of the current religious doctrines 5 the second gives a specimen of Kabir's moral teachings 5 and the third explains the way in which God's grace operates towards the deliverance of man. Kabir, therefore, was as much a constructive reformer as destructive. In Sakhi 260 of the first group, Kabir, it will be seen, condemns the worship of idols. The religion which he promulgated, therefore, was a pure spiritual theism. The mode of worship used by his followers up to the present day consists of prayers and praises only.

Kabir founded a Pantha, or a sect, and the Mathas, or establishments of that sect exist in several parts of India. The principal one is at Benares, with a branch at Maghar in the Gorakhpur District, where he died. This last is said to be in the charge of a Mahomedan Mahant, or superior. The second was established by Dharmadas, his chief disciple, in the Chattisgarh District of the Central Provinces¹. The followers of Kabir's sect are to be found principally among the lower castes, but the sage is highly venerated by all Vaiṣṇavae of whatever caste or class.

XX. Other Rāmānandins.

§ 59. Malukdas, who lived about the end of Akbar's reign, i. e., about the end of the sixteenth century, was a worshipper of Rama. The tradition that he belonged to the school of Ramananda appears to be correct. Like Kabir, he seems to have been a non-idolater, since in a hymn which I have seen, he ridicules men and women who hammer valuable metals into gods, worship them, and, whenever there is a necessity, sell them for the price of the metal, and says that the true way was shown to him by his wise preceptor. The sect founded by him has seven Mathas, or establishments, and its adherents follow the occupation of householders.

Didu was a cotton cleaner at Ahmedabad. At twelve he removed to sambhar and finally settled at Naraina, about twenty koses from Jaipur. He flourished about 1600 A. D., at the end of Akbar's reign. His doctrines appear to be similar to those of Kabir. The only mode of worship was Japa, or the repetition of

I. For detail see Rev. G. H. Westcott's Volume on Kabir referred to above,

the name of Rāma, The sect does not worship images of Rama and it erects no temples. Dādu inculcates faith in, and love of, Rama and meditation on him. His followers are divided into three classes: (1) Viraktas, (2) Nāgas, and (3) Vistaradhārins. The first live the life of ascetics, the second are bearers of arms and enter into the service of princes as soldiers, and the third lead an ordinary life.

Raidas, a pupil of Ramānanda, was a founder of a sect the followers of which are to be found in the caste of Camārs. or leather-workers. Nābhajī in his Bhaktamāñā tells many legends about him. Under the name of Rohidās he is known and revered even in the Maratha country, and Mahipati, the Maratha writer on saints, devotes a chapter to him.

Senā the barber, a follower of Ramānañida, is also reported to have founded a sect. He too is known in the Maratha country¹.

XXI. Tulasidas.

§ 60. Another person who contributed to the propagation of the cult of Rama over Northern India, was the famous Tulasidas, whom we will now briefly notice. Tulasidās belonged to the Saravarya or Sarayuparina caste of Brahmanas and was born in Samvat 1589, corresponding to 1532 A. D., under an inauspicious constellation. He was abandoned by his parents and was picked up by a Sadhu, or a pious man, in whose company he visited many places in India. His father's name was Atmārāma Śukla Dūbe, his mother's Hulasī, and his own Rama Bōta. His father-in-law was a man of the name of Dīnabandhu Paṭhaka, and his wife was called Ratnavall. His son's name was Tāraka.

Tulasidas commenced the composition of his great work, Ramacaritamanasa, usually known as Ramayana, at Ayodhya in 1574 A. D., and finished it at Benares. He wrote eleven other works, six of which were smaller. Tulasidas was not a sturdy reformer like Kabir and does not seem to have founded a sect or even to have promulgated a definite Vedantic theory. In this respect he appears to have been, like a host of other persons who flourished in the country, a teacher of the Bhaktimarga, or the path of devo-

1. see Wilson's Hindu Religions.

tion, which is based upon a dualistic philosophy with a leaning towards spiritual monism of the Advaita system. Tulasidas died in 1623 A. D.¹

§ 61. I will now give a short specimen of Tulsidas' teachings from his *Rāma-Satasal*, the composition of which, as stated in Dohā 21 of the first chapter, was commenced on Thursday, the ninth of the bright half of Vaisakha, Samvat 1642 = 1585 A. D.

Chapter I.

(Dohā 3) The highest soul, the highest excellent place, than whom or which there is no other, Tulasi understands and hears to be Rāma, the blessed. (Dohā 4) " Rāma whose attributes confer blessings upon all is himself free from all desires. He fulfils all desires, is the benefactor of all. The sages assert this."—So says Tulasi. (Dohā 15) Tulasi sees plainly that in every pore of Rama there is an endless universe. He is pure, is unchangeable and is irresistible. (Dohā 6) The blessed Jānakī is the mother of the world, and Rama the father. Both are beneficent. Their grace destroys sin, and creates conscience (confers the knowledge of distinguishing good from evil). (Dohā 44) Where there is Rāma, there is no [evil] desire ; where there is [evil] desire, there is no Rāma. Oh Tulasī! the sun and the night do not exist in one place. (Dohā 45) When Rāma is afar, Maya (illusion or temptation) is strong. When he is known, it becomes tiny or thin. When the sun is at a distance, the shadow is long; when he is on the head, it is below the feet. (Dohā 48) Says Tulasī: "If there is no love for Rama, all learning is thrown into an oven; and Yama takes away knowledge and devours it; everything burns away and the very root is destroyed". (Dohā 57) All things by which a man is surrounded, serve as hindrances, and none proves a help (towards the way of bliss); and, In such circumstances, if the end is good, it can become so only through Rama's grace.

Chapter II.

(Dohā 17) Says Tulsī: "Through the disobedience of God, man brings evil on himself and all his associates. The king of

1. For details, see Dr. Grierson's articles in the *Indian Antiquary*, Vol, XXII.

the Kurus, while governing his kingdom, was reduced to dust along with his army and family". (Doha 18) Says Tulasi : " From sweet words results good on all sides. This is a spell that overcomes everything; avoid all harsh words ". (Doha 19) "A man attains happiness by the grace of Rāma, and it escapes one without it", says Tulasi, "though they know this, bad men neglect to adore Rāma."

Chapter IV.¹

82 (89 B. I). The excellent retentive faculty is called Girā or Sarasvatī, and the immutable Dharma is a Vāṭa tree. Dharma consists of a triad of confluent rivers destroying sin. Oh Tulasi, conceive no dislike for these and accept these.

The triad is given by the commentator as action, knowledge, and Bhakti, or devotion.

83 (90 B. I.). One becomes clean by bathing (in these three confluent rivers), i. e., grasping the triad by the understanding. The dirt in the shape of immortality is washed off, and then there is no doubt as to the easy attainment of the place of Rama. 84 (91 B. I). Forgiveness is holy Varanasi. Bhakti, or devotion, is like the river of gods (Gaṅgā) and clear knowledge is like Viśveśvara. These together with compassion, which is power (Parvatī), shine.

The commentator remarks that just as Benares with the other three brings about deliverance, so do forgiveness, devotion, knowledge, and compassion.

85 (92 B. I.). Varanasi is not far from him whose heart dwells in the house which is Ksama (forgiveness) — Varanasi, in which shines, oh Tulasi! the celestial river in the shape of Bhakti, which results in numerous virtuous deeds. 86 (93 B. I.). Kasi is the bright half of a month and Magaha, or Magadha, is the dark half in which dwell covetousness, infatuation, intoxication, and lust. Oh Tulasi! considering which is beneficial and which is injurious, do [choose where to] reside during all the watches of the day.

1. The editions consulted are those published by Navalkiśora at Lakhnau in 1886 and in the Bibliotheca Indica in 1897,

Kasi is associated with the four virtues mentioned above, and Magadha with the vices noticed here. So one is told to praetts* what is beneficial and to avoid what is injurious.

87 (94 B. I.). What has gone away will not come again. Therefore do acquire knowledge. The same thing that you have to-day you will have tomorrow; therefore, oh TulasI! gave up all infatuation.

The idea seems to be : Do not waste time by procrastination; begin your devotions at once.

88 (95 B. I.). The past and the future Hang together on the present. Oh TulasI! do not entertain any doubt-, get through that which is before you at present.

89 (96 B. I.). A good soul is like the Manasa (lake), and in it is the pure water of the sweet glory of Rāma. Sin is washed off and the heart becomes pure (by bathing in that water); and this calm water is not inaccessible to the wise.

The idea seems to be that in a good soul a taste for devotion to Rāma springs up, and when it is cultivated, the soul becomes pure.

From these extracts it will be seen that according to Tulasidas Rama is the supreme God, and that through his grace man becomes holy and blessed. He should, therefore, be adored ; where he is, sin is not, and therefore, for the purification of the mind, he should always be thought of and meditated on. The ways to God usually followed are, he says, inefficacious and as such may be thrown into the fire.

XXII. Vallabha.

§ 62. We will now turn our attention to the more extensive and almost exclusive cult of the Kṛṣṇa of Gokula. The founder of it was Vallabha. He was the son of a Tailaṅga Brahmana named Lakṣmaṇa Bhaṭṭa, who was a student of the Black Yajurveda and lived at a village named Kāṅkarava in the Telugu country. On one occasion Lakṣmaṇa Bhaṭṭa went on a pilgrimage to Benares with his wife, Elamaṅgara. On the way she gave birth to a son on the eleventh of the dark half of Vaiśākha of the Vikrama year

1535, corresponding to 1479 A. D.¹ That son was known as Vallabha.

Vallabha lived for some time in Vṛndavana and for some time at Mathura. About that time it is alleged that Gopala-Kṛṣṇa manifested himself on the Govardhana Hill by the name of Devadamana, called also Śrī-Nathajī. The God told Vallabha in a dream to come and see him, informing him that his companions in the cow-settlement, when he became incarnate as Kṛṣṇa, were born again in the present age, and commissioned him to make them his attendants, that he might sport with them as in the former age. Accordingly, Vallabha went and saw Devadamana or Śrī-Nathajī. Śrī-Nathajī commanded him to erect a shrine for himself and to promulgate the method of worshipping him, without which a man would not be admissible to the Pustimarga, or the path of divine grace, which Vallabha had founded. The meaning of this seems to be that Vallabha connected his system with a special manifestation of Kṛṣṇa known by the name of Śrī-Nathajī².

Vallabha's Vedantic theory is the same as that of an earlier author of the name of Viṣṇusvamin. This Viṣṇusvamin is said to have been the son of the councillor of a Draviḍa chief dependent upon the Emperor of Delhi. Nabhajī in his Bhaktamala makes Jnanadeva, Namdeva, Trilocana, and lastly Vallabha his successors⁴. The first was Jñānadeva, who is represented as a follower of his system (Sāṃpradāya). He was one of three sons born to a man, who became a householder after he had assumed the order of an ascetic. He was, therefore, excommunicated and was not allowed to learn the Vedas. But he himself by his miraculous power made a male buffalo repeat the Vedas. This story is the same as that related of the Jñānadeva of Mahārāṣṭra, the author of a Vernacular commentary on the Bhagavadgītā. But the Marāṭhas do not know of Viṣṇusvamin as his Guru, or teacher,

1. Yajñesvara, *Aryavidyasudhakarā*.

2. See Hariraya Maharaja's *Govardhanaprakatyakī Varta*, published in Samvat 1935, p. 11.

3. Yajñesvara, *Aryavidyasudhakarā*, p. 228,

4. Ed. by Khemaraj, Bombay, Śaka 1827 (1905 A. D.), pp. 95-98.

or of Jnanadeva being his successor or follower. If, however, the tradition reported by Nabhājl is correct, Viṣṇusvāmin must have lived about the middle of the thirteenth century. The date of the commentary above alluded to is saka 1212, corresponding to 1290 A. D.

The Vedāntic theory of Viṣṇusvāmin which is the same as that of Vallabha is as follows. The one primeval soul was not joyful, because he was alone (BU. I. 4. 3), and, desiring to be many, he himself beame the inanimate world, the individual soul, and the inward controlling soul. These sprang from him like sparks from a burning fire and are his parts (MU. II. 1). By his own inscrutable power he rendered the properties of intelligence and joy imperceptible in the first, and his joy alone in the second, while the third has all the attributes perceptible in it. Simple Brahman as such has perceptible joy prevailing in it¹.

§ 63. The following particulars have been gleaned from two works belonging to Vallabhacarya's sect². The whole world has Brahman for its material cause. The perception of forms apparently different from the Brahman is due to ignorance or delusion and to the true nature of Brahman being rendered imperceptible. The individual soul is identical with Brahman, a part of Brahman and atomic. From the Akṣara composed of existence, intelligence, and joy (Saccidananda) particles come out as sparks from fire. From the predominance of the Sat portion in them the joy portion is concealed, and thus we have the individual souls possessing Sat, existence, and Cit, intelligence. The individual soul is not a form of the Supreme Soul altered by a third thing being involved in it, such as the Maya (illusive power), but is itself the same substance as the Supreme Soul with one attribute rendered imperceptible. The relation between the two is thus that of identity (Advaita), both being in the pristine unchanged form, i. e., identity of untransformed souls (Śuddhadvaita).

The individual soul is of two kinds: (1) going through the circle

1. BakalSoSryamatasaibgraha by Śrinivasa, Chowkh. Series.

2. Śuddhadvaitamartanda by Giridhara, and Prameyaratnarnava by Bala-krsna Bhatta, Chowkh. Series.

of existences, and (2) delivered from the trammels of life. The first is subject to misery in consequence of his delusion that his body and senses are his soul. He remains in this condition till he acquires knowledge, sees the vanity of the world and devotes himself to meditation and the love of God, when he is delivered. The delivered souls are : (1) those who have become so while in their previous condition, by the termination of ignorance or delusion, such as Sanaka and others; and (2) those who dwell in the world of the Bhagavat, other than the pervading Vaikuṇṭha¹, where they attain the condition of pure Brahman by the favour of the Bhagavat •, (3) there are others, who, having the divine nature in them, and coming in contact with good men, resort to various ways of Bhakti, or the propitiation of God, until perfect love alone for Him comes to dwell in their heart, and finally become the associates of the Bhagavat in His eternal sports and amusements. This last is the Mokṣa, or deliverance.

That class of worldly souls who have no divine nature in them, and in whom evil predominates, are ever moving in the circle of existences. The souls who have the divine nature in them are of two kinds: (1) those who subject themselves to certain moral discipline (Maryadaiva and (2) those who depend entirely on God's grace (Puṣṭijiva). Both attain final deliverance, but there is a difference which corresponds to that between (2) and (3) above and which will be further explained below.

Śrī-Kṛṣṇa is the highest Brahman. He has hands and feet not made up of ordinary matter (Aprākṛta), but celestial. His body consists of Sat, existence; Cit, intelligence; Ananda, joy. He is called Puruṣottama, as the most excellent of all beings, and has all attributes which are not ordinary, but celestial. All his sports

1. I translate the word Vyapi-Vaikunṣha thus. The Vyapi-Vaikuntha is above the Vaikuntha of Viṣṇu, the protector of the world. There dwells Puruṣottama, who manifests himself variously to his various devotees. To those in whom Bhakti has risen to the highest pitch and has become a haunting passion he manifests himself as the sportive Kṛṣṇa. In a portion of the Vyapi-Vaikuntha there is the Goloka with Vṛndavana in which there are extensive trees, bowers of creepers, and the river Yamuna. The highest Bhaktas are transferred to this Vṛndavana, and Kṛṣṇa sports with them there.

are eternal. He, with his four arms or two arms, sports with his various devotees, or Bhaktas, in the extensive Vaikunṭha, which contains Vrndavana with its large forests. Kṛṣṇa is, therefore, the hight joy (Paramananda). By his will, his Sattva portion overcomes the Ananda or joy portion, and, becoming Akṣara, or unchangeable, he is the cause of all causes and creates the world. Then Akṣarabrahman is of two kinds : (1) that which is recognised by the devotees as the place of Puruṣottama, which has the attributes of the extensive Vaikunṭha and others; (2) to the enlightened it appears in the form of existence, intelligence and joy, infinite in time and space, self-manifesting and devoid of all qualities. Therefore, in the form in which the enlightened see it, all the positive qualities are hidden or rendered imperceptible by the inscrutable power referred to above, and therefore they are not to be regarded as non-existing. When Brahman is spoken of as devoid of all qualities, what is meant is just this. There are thus three forms of the Supreme Being, Puruṣottama and the two kinds of the Unchangeable here mentioned.

To explain the controlling of all by Puruṣottama, that form of his that dwells in the sun, the gods, the earth, etc., is called Antaryamin (the inward controller). It is this inward controller that becomes incarnate in the various forms usually mentioned. The celestial Sattva quality of Kṛṣṇa becomes Viṣṇu, and in this form he becomes the protector of all. Similarly the qualities of Rajas and Tamas assume the forms of Brahmadeva and Śiva for discharging the functions of creation and destruction.

Puṣṭi is the grace (Anugraha) of God which is to be inferred from its fruit or the results, which are ordinary, or of this world, and extraordinary, or of the next world. Mahāpuṣṭi, or the highest grace, is that which removes great obstacles and conduces to the attainment of God himself. Puṣṭi enables one to attain the four objects of life. Extraordinary, or special Puṣṭi, conduces to Bhakti, which leads to the attainment of God. The Bhakti, or devotion generated by this special grace, is called Puṣṭibhakti. The frame of mind generated by this kind of devotion is the desire of the attainment of God to the exclusion of everything else.

This Puṣṭibhakti is of four kinds : (1) Pravāha-Puṣṭibhakti,

(2) Maryada-Pustibhakti, (3) Puṣṭi-Puṣṭibhakti, (4) Śuddha-Puṣṭi-bhakti. The first is the path of those who, while engaged in a worldly life with its *me* and *mine*, which is compared to a stream (Pravāha), do acts calculated to bring about the attainment of God. The second is of those who, withdrawing their minds from worldly enjoyments, devote themselves to God by hearing discourses about him, singing his name, and such other processes. The third is of those who already enjoying God's grace are made by another grace competent to acquire knowledge useful for adoration; and thus they come to know all about the ways of God. The followers of this path have to depend on their own efforts for the acquisition of knowledge referred to. The fourth is of those who through mere love devote themselves to the singing and praising of God as if it were a haunting passion. This Bhakti is generated by God himself and does not depend upon man's will as the third, mentioned above, does. First a liking for Himself is generated by God in the mind of a man to whom his grace extends. Then a man sets about acquiring knowledge about God, and all this is called Premabhakti (flove-adoration). Now the stages in the development of this are as follows : (1) love or liking (Preman), (2) attachment or addictedness (Asakti), (3) a haunting passion, which is the mature condition of the first two (Vyasana).

The haunting passion leads to attainment of the end, that is, the highest bliss. Those in whom Bhakti has attained to this pitch reject with scorn the four kinds of Mukti and choose the eternal service of Hari, as noticed in the section on the Pāñcarātra system. By the haunting passion about Hari he is seen everywhere, and therefore everything becomes an object of love, and the devotee identifies himself with everything. Then the inner and the outer world is, for the devotee, full of Puruṣottama, or the highest soul.

The final fruit of this devotion is admission to the eternal sports of Kṛṣṇa. The Bhaktas join in these sports, assuming the forms of cows, beasts, birds, trees, rivers, etc., and enjoy the company of Puruṣottama, which confers boundless joy. These eternal sports are like those which Kṛṣṇa went through when he,

became incarnate in Vraja and Vṛndavana. Some of the devotees become, in the celestial Vṛndavana, Gopas and Gopis and join in the sports. The Maryādābhaktas attain Mukti called Sayujy*, which consists in being one with Hari. The Puṣṭibhaktas reject it with scorn and seek for participation in the sports of Hari.

§ 64. These are the doctrines of the school of Vallabha. We will now proceed to give a short description of the practical modes of worship. Vallabha had a son named Viṭṭhaleśa, and they are spoken of respectively as Acarya and Gosaim or Gosvāmin. The latter had seven sons of the names of Giridhara, Govindaraya, Balakṛṣṇa, Gokulanatha, Raghunatha, Yadunatha, and Ghanaśyama. The Gurus of this sect ordinarily called Mahārājas are descendants of these seven. Each Guru has a temple of his own, and there are no public places of worship. The devotee should visit the temple of his Guru at stated intervals, which are eight in number during the day. The mode of worship is as follows.

The conductor of the worship should rise early in the morning, utter the name of Bhagavat and rinse his mouth and drink a little of the washings of the feet [of Bhagavat], and, with his face to the north or the east, should utter the name of the Aoārya and pray to him and make a bow. The same should be done to Viṭṭhaleśa and the names of his seven sons should be uttered, as well as of one's own Guru, and then a bow should be made to Kṛṣṇa after uttering the names Govardhana and others. Then the river Yamuna should be remembered and bowed to, and six stanzas of a poem called Bhramaragītā should be repeated; and then the Gopis, or cowherdresses, should be adored.

After this the worshipper should answer the call of nature, wash his hands, feet and face, and then drink a portion of the washings of the feet of Kṛṣṇa, and eat the residue of the betel leaves supposed to be eaten by Kṛṣṇa. Then he should besmear his body with oil and bathe. After bathing he should drink in a little water, after repeating the name of Nityāyana. Then he should make a perpendicular mark on his forehead with white earth, the mark of a lotus on the bosom and of a bamboo leaf on the arms, etc, twelve in all, to represent the twelve

forms of Viṣṇu, Kéśava, Narayaṇa, Madhava, etc. He should then print the forms of the various weapons of Viṣṇu on his body, and then, saluting Vallabhācārya, should adore Kṛṣṇa with the Gopṭe. He should then open the door of the temple, and going into the sleeping apartments, bring out the wreaths of flowers and all other things used on the previous day, and then sweep and clean the apartments. He should then brush the throne and make all the arrangements necessary for the reception of Kṛṣṇa awakened from sleep.

He should then approach the bed-room and sing a song calling upon Kṛṣṇa to rise from sleep, to take the refreshments prepared for him and to go with his companions to the forest for grazing the oowa. Kṛṣṇa should be brought out and placed on the throne. Rādhā should be placed to his left hand, and then the worshipper should prostrate himself before her. The refreshments already prepared should then be placed before them, and they should be requested to eat them. Then the bed should be dusted and cleaned and then Kṛṣṇa should be made to wash his mouth. Other refreshments should be then placed before the two. And at the end of all an Aratī, or waving of lamps, should be gone through with a song. Vallabhācārya should then be saluted.

.Then comes the bath of Kṛṣṇa. After bathing saffron paint should be applied. Then he should be dressed and milk given to him. Afterwards by the churning of milk, froth should be prepared and offered to Kṛṣṇa. He should be then told to wash his mouth with water. Then betel leaves should be offered to him. Then a cradle should be adorned and Kṛṣṇa should be told to get into it, and then it should be rocked and toys should be got ready for the divine boy.

Afterwards the mid-day dinner should be prepared. A Cauka, or a small four-legged table, should be placed before him and viands of all kinds in cups should be put on the table. The lord should then be told to eat them. A little rice should be placed in a small plate and, mixed with ghee, five or seven mouthfuls should be held before him. Then lamps should be waved about him. Subsequently all the other dishes should be offered. In this manner the ceremonies go on. A meal is again prepared

at night and Kṛṣṇa is laid on the sleeping cot ~~and made to sleep~~ again.

Thus the order of the ceremonies is as follows : (1) the ringing of the bell; (2) the blowing of the conch-shell, (3) awakening of the Lord (Ṭhakurjī) and offering morning refreshments, (4) waving of lamps, (5) bathing, (6) dressing, (7) Gopīvallabha food, (8) leading the cows out for grazing, (9) the mid-day dinner; (10) waving of lamps; (11) after the last, the screen is drawn up and the God cannot be seen; this interval is called Anosara or Anava-sara, i. e., no time for seeing him, (12) the finishing up, (13) the evening meal, (14) going to bed.

Besides the ordinary worship detailed above, the followers of this sect hold a number of feasts and festivals, some of which are in honour of Vallabhācārya, his son and seven grandsons. The influence exercised by Vallabha and his successors over their adherents seems to have been immense, and this has come down to their descendants or existing Gurus of the sect also. This is kept up by the fact that the God cannot be worshipped independently in a public place of worship, but in the house and temple of the Guru or the Maharaja, which therefore has to be regularly visited by the devotees with offerings. The followers of this system consist principally of the trading classes of Gujarat, Rajputana and further to the north about Mathura. The principal doctrine which these latter are taught is that all their belongings should be dedicated to their Guru •, and this doctrine is not seldom carried to an extreme.

Among the different kinds of Bhakti mentioned above there is only one which contemplates non-attachment to worldly objects. The highest Bhakti as well as the others are generated in the heart of man by the grace of God •, and the first even ripens into a haunting passion. This grace of God one may enjoy even while engaged in a worldly life. The Maryada-Puṣṭi, which is one of the four forms and requires the restraint of passions, does not conduce to the attainment of the highest bliss, which consists in joining in the eternal sports of Hari in the Goloka. The spirit of this system, therefore, seems to be sportive enjoyments and it cannot but be expected to influence the ordinary life of its

followers, Moral rigidity culminating in indifference to worldly enjoyments and self-abnegation does not appear to be a characteristic of this school, Vallabhacarya himself was a married man, and so were all his successors and so are all the Gurus of the sect, who are as much men of the world as their followers.

§ 65. From the account we have given, it will be seen that the fourth element of Vaisnavism, that we have described in a preceding section, alone constitutes the religion of Vallabha. The sportive boy Kṛṣṇa of the cow-settlement with all his pranks is the highest god of this school ; and his mistress Radha, who is mentioned only in the later books and dignified into his eternal consort, as will be mentioned further on, is the object of the deepest adoration. This sportive Kṛṣṇa with his Radha is, transferred to a heaven which is in a region higher than the ordinary Vaikuṇṭha of Narayana or Viṣṇu, and is called Goloka. The highest aim of man's life is to get to this place and join in the sports. Thus the doings of Kṛṣṇa in Gokula, and his relations with the men and women as well as the inferior animals, trees, and even the river Yamuna, constitute the basis of Vallabha's system and also its goal when transferred to Goloka.

XXIII. Caitanya.

§ 66. About the same time as Vallabha, there flourished in Bengal another propagator of the religion of Radha and Kṛṣṇa, who is known by the name of Caitanya. The prominent distinction between the two appears to be, that while Vallabha and those who followed him developed the ceremonial side of the religion, Caitanya and his successors devoted themselves to the cultivation of the emotional side. Caitanya endeavoured to win the hearts of man, by instituting Kirtanas or the fervent singing of songs about the love of Radha and Kṛṣṇa and other devotional matters. The love of the cow-herd god and his mistress had already become the subject of bewitching songs by Jayadeva in Sanskrit and by other poets in the Vernacular.

Caitanya also was a more courageous reformer in so far as he cried down the mechanical religious ceremonial of the prevalent Hinduism, and preached spiritual devotion and at the same time

condemned the distinctions of castes, and admitted all, including even Mahomedans, as his pupils.

§ 67. Caitanya's original name was Bisambhar (Visvarhbhara) Miśra, and his father's name was Jagannātha Miśra and mother's Saṁ Debl. The father lived originally in Sylhet in Eastern Bengal, but had emigrated to Nadiya (Nabadvīpa) before the birth of Bisambhar, his youngest son. The eldest son's name was Bisvarūpa, who is called Nityānanda in the history of Caitanya. These were the only two sons of Jagannātha, and between these were eight daughters, who died young.

Caitanya was born on the full-moon day of Phalguṇa in the year 1407 of the Śaka era, corresponding to 1485 A. D. He was afterwards called Kṛṣṇa Caitanya and was considered by his disciples an incarnation of Kṛṣṇa himself. As such he is reported to have played pranks with the women of the village, which, however, cannot be considered as historically true. Caitanya is also known by the name of Gaurāṅga, i. e., possessed of a fair and not a dark body, and Gaurāṅdra, or a fair moon. When he was eighteen years of age, he married a wife of the name of Laohmī Debl and began to live the life of a householder, taking pupils and giving them secular instruction. Soon after he took to a wandering life and visited many places in Eastern Bengal. Begging and singing were his occupation, and he is said to have collected a great deal of money. During his peregrinations his wife died, and on his return home he married another. When he was about twenty-three years of age, he went to Gaya to make offerings to his manes and on his return he began the mission of his life. He condemned the ritualistic system of the Brahmanas and preached faith in Hari and the love of Him as well as singing His name as the only effectual ways to salvation. He also preached the doctrine of the brotherhood of men, denouncing the system of castes.

It is stated that the doctrine of faith and love had been preached before Caitanya by a person of the name Advaitācārya, whose practice it was, after the performance of the usual Brahmanic rites, to go to the banks of the Ganges and call out for the appearance of God to substitute the doctrine of faith and love for

that of the performance of various rites. It is also said that this Aoftrya was at first the instructor of Caitanya and afterwards became his pupil. Whatever it may have been, the new doctrine was first publicly proclaimed to the exclusion of others by Kṛṣṇa Caitanya. He was assisted by his brother Nityānanda, who was regarded as an incarnation of Balarāma, the brother of the god Kṛṣṇa.

Caitanya now began to hold meetings for the singing and glorification of the name of Hari. These were at first private and held in the house of a pupil named Sribasa. The doings of these devotees met with scorn and ridicule, especially at the hands of the worshippers of Kali, one of whom put red flowers and goat's blood on the steps of the door of the house in which the Vaiṣṇava meetings were held. The fervour displayed at these Kīrtanas, or singing of the name of Hari, gradually increased in intensity, until the loud singers, and principally Caitanya himself, swooned away and dropped senseless on the ground.

In the year 1510 Caitanya became a Saṁnyāsin, or an ascetic, and was initiated into the order by Keśab Bhāratī of Katva. After this he first went to Puri to visit the shrine of Jagannatha, and thence wandered about the country for six years preaching his new faith¹. On one occasion he went to Benares, where he is reported to have held a disputation with Prakāśananda, a teacher of the monistic Vedānta of Śaṁkaracārya. Caitanya condemned Śaṁkara's commentary on the Vedāntasūtra and said that it mystified the sense of the original. Śaṁkaracārya did not give the plain ordinary sense of the words of Badarayana but forced his own views into them. The doctrine of development (**Parīṇamavāda**) was held by the author of the Sūtras, while Śaṁkaracārya rejects it and brings in his doctrine of illusion (**Vivartavāda**). The former alone is true according to Caitanya. After these wanderings he returned to Puri, where he spent the last eighteen years of his life, and died in Śaka 1455, corresponding to 1533 A D.

§ 68. Some of the doctrines attributed to Caitanya are as

: 1. The above is an abstract of the account given by J. Beames in his paper published in Ind. Ant. Vol. II, pp. 1 ff.

follows. Kṛṣṇa is the highest god and is so beautiful that he excites love for himself even in the heart of the God of love, and is enamoured of himself. His Parabrahmaśakti (power) pervades the universe and assumes a corporeal form by his wonder-creating power (Mayasakti), though he is the soul of all He possesses a self-multiplying power (Vilasaśakti) which is of two kinds. By one of these, in sporting with the cowherdesses, he became as many Kṛṣṇas as were sufficient to give one to every two of them (Prabhavavilasa). By the other self-multiplying power (Vaibhavavilasa) he assumes the forms of the four Vyūhas, or forms of Vasudeva, Saṁkarsana, etc., Vasudeva representing intelligence, Saṁkarsaṇa, consciousness, Pradyumna, the love, and Aniruddha, sportiveness.

Here, it will be seen, the functions of the four Vyūhas are changed, and the principle of love is attributed to Pradyumna, instead of that of the mind as in the older system, and that of sportiveness, instead of self-consciousness, which is transferred to Saṁkarsaṇa, is attributed to Aniruddha. This change is in consonance with a system of which love and sport form the distinguishing characteristics. All the usual incarnations spring from one or other of the Vyūhas. According as the quality of Sattva, Rajas, or Tamas predominates, Kṛṣṇa becomes Viṣṇu, Brahma-deva, or Śiva, respectively.

The sports of Kṛṣṇa go on always, as the rising and setting of the sun. His eternal sports are carried on in the Goloka. Kṛṣṇa has three powers: the internal which is intelligence, the external which generates appearances, and the differentiated which forms the Jiva, or individual soul. His chief power is that which creates dilatation of the heart, or joy. This appears to be the power of love. When this love becomes settled in the heart of the devotee, it constitutes Mahabhava, or the best feeling. When love attains to the highest pitch, it constitutes itself into Rādhā, who is the most loveable of all and full of all qualities. She was the object of the highest love of Kṛṣṇa, and being idealised as love, some of the agreeable feelings of the heart are considered her ornaments. The sports of the cowherdesses were due to simple love (Preman), and this it was that Uddhava and other devotees sought to attain.

The Supreme Soul (Paramatman) is boundless and is full intelligence Itself. The individual soul is an atom having intelligence. They are necessarily connected together and this (Connection can never be destroyed. Kṛṣṇa is the support (Āśraya) and Jiva rests on him (Asrita). The relation between the two is identity as well as difference. Thus the Vedantic theory of Caitanya's system is the same as that of Nimbarka. As the bee is distinct from the honey and hovers about it, and, when it drinks it, is full of it, i e., is one with it, so the individual soul is at first distinct from the Supreme Soul, seeks the Supreme Soul consistently and continuously, and, when through love he is full of the Supreme Soul, he becomes unconscious of his individual existence, and becomes, as it were, absorbed in him. Herein is described the ecstatic condition in which the individual soul becomes one with God, though they are really distinct. Kṛṣṇa is the lord of the power of delusion or ignorance (Maya), and Jiva is the slave of it. When the latter cuts off its shackles, he distinctly sees his own nature and his true relation to God. Kṛṣṇa is to be approached and attained by Bhakti alone¹.

§ 69. Kṛṣṇa Caitanya, Nityananda and Advaitananda are called the three Prabhus, or masters of the sect. The descendants of Nityananda live at Nadiya, and those of Advaita at Śāntipur. They are the spiritual heads of the sect. Nityananda was appointed by Caitanya himself as the superior of the church. His female descendants live at Bālegor, and male ones at Khordu near Barrackpur. There are temples belonging to Caitanya's followers at Mathura, Vṛndavana, and three principal ones in Bengal: one at Nadiya dedicated to Caitanya, the other at Ambika, to Nityananda, and the third at Agradvipa, to Gopinatha. There is a shrine dedicated to Caitanya in the vicinity of Dhakadakeṇa in Northern Sylhet, where his father originally lived. It is visited by pilgrims from all parts of the district and even from Bengal. At Khetur, in the Rajaśahi district, a temple is elected in his honour, where a religious fair is held in the month of October, which is attended by about 25,000 persons.

1. B— Gaurangatattvasāha Gaurangacarita by Prasanna Kumara Vidya ratna, printed at Calcutta-

The sectarian marks worn by the followers of Caitanya *8te* two white perpendicular lines on the forehead joined together at the bridge of the nose and a line continued up to the tip of the nose. They also use necklaces of three strings of Tulasi beads and a rosary of the same, as a help in the muttering of Hari's name. The worship of Gurus, or spiritual heads, as *gcds* characterises this system. Most of Advaita's followers observe caste distinctions, but a minority consists of Bairagis, or recluses. In one branch of the sect there are monks as well as nuns. They live in the same convent. And there is only a platonic relation between them.

A person of the name of Rām Saram Pal of the Sadgopa caste founded about two hundred years ago a branch of the sect called Kartābhājas, or worshippers of the Kartā, or headman. It admits of recruits from all castes and observes no distinction. The founder, also called Kartā Baba, died at Ghosapur, and his votaries assemble periodically to do honour to him. The spiritual teachers of Caitanya's sect, whether male or female, are celibates.

The three Prabhus, or masters, did not leave any compositions. But Caitanya's pupils, especially Rūpa and Sanitaria, wrote a great deal. A work by the latter entitled *Rasāmṛtasindhu* contains an analysis of the feeling of love, or Bhakti, explaining the states of mind which lead to it and its various forms. A considerable body of literature has grown up round this system of religion.

XXIV. Debasement of Vaisnavism.

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§ 70. The worship of Rādhā, more prominently even than that of Kṛṣṇa, has given rise to a sect, the members of which assume the garb of women with all their ordinary manners and affect to be subject even to their monthly sickness. Their appearance and acts are so disgusting that they do not show themselves very much in public, and their number is small. Their goal is the realisation of the position of female companions and attendants of Rādhā; and hence probably they assume the name of *Sakhībhāvas* (literally, the condition of companions). They deserve notice here only to show that, when the female element is idolised and made the object of special worship, such disgusting corrup-

tions must ensue. The worship of Durgā in the form of Tripura-sundarī has led to the same result.

Though the Vaiṣṇava systems of Nimbarka, Vallabha and Caitanya are based on the fourth element of Vaiṣṇavism that we have pointed out in a preceding Section, still that element has undergone an important modification. Before, Kṛṣṇa was a person who had amorous dalliances with the Gopīs generally. But now Kṛṣṇa had a definite consort in Rādhā, who had a large number of female companions, who were probably the original Gopīs. She is indissoluble united with him in the creed of worshippers.

This Rādhā is not mentioned by name in the Harivaṁśa, Viṣṇu-Purāṇa and the Bhāgavata. In the last, however, among the cowherdesses engaged in Kṛṣṇa's amorous sports in Vṛndāvana on an autumnal moonlight night, there was one with whom the youthful god carried on his dalliance further, after he had become invisible to the rest. This woman became proud of Kṛṣṇa's special attachment for her, whereupon the god disappeared from her also. Here was contained a suggestion which probably led to the creation of Rādhā in later times. In the apocryphal Naradapancaratra-Saṁhitā, as mentioned before,¹ the one single lord is represented to have become two, one a woman and the other a man, who was he himself. He then had amorous intercourse with her. The woman was Rādhā. In the Brahmavaivarta-Purāṇa she has been made to spring from the primordial body of Kṛṣṇa forming its left side, and is eternally associated with him in his amorous sports in this world as well as the world of cows (Goloka). The name of Rukmini occurs in the ordinary form of Kṛṣṇaism, but in the systems named above it is entirely absent. The introduction of Rādhā's name, and her elevation to a higher position even than Kṛṣṇa's, operated as a degrading element in Vaiṣṇavism, not only because she was a woman, but also because she was originally a mistress of the cowherd god, and her amorous dealing were of an overt character.

In the Rama cultus, Sita is a dutiful and loving wife, and is

1. (Ante, p. 58 N, B.U.J)

benignant towards the devotees of her husband. She holds a position entirely subordinate to Rama, while Radhā is often preferred to Kṛṣṇa. There is no amorous suggestion in her story as in that of Bādhā, and consequently the moral influence of Ramaism is more wholesome. Kabir does not, so far as I know, mention the name of Sita at all. He was a strict monotheist, and his Rama was the supreme lord (Saheb) only. Those other teachers who followed him maintain the same attitude, so that the Rama cultus represents a saner and purer form of Hindu religious thought than Rādhakṛṣṇaism.

XXV. Nāmādev and Tukaram,

% 71. The popular Vaiṣṇavism of the Marāṭha country centres itself round the shrine of Vithoba at Paṇḍharpur, which is a city situated on the banks of the Bhīma or Bhīmārāthī. The full name of the god is Viṭṭhal, which is not a Sanskrit name, but the etymology is clear enough. It is stated that the corruption of the Sanskrit name Visnu in the Canarese language is Vitthu, and this looks probable, since Kṛṣṇa is corrupted into Kuṣṭa in the Goanese dialect and Kutta, Kittī, or Krsta in the Canarese; and we have seen that Viṣṇu, the first portion of the name of the Hoysala prince Viṣṇuvardhana, was corrupted to Vitti or Bitti¹. The terminations ba and la are appended to the name Vieiro or Vittu to indicate additional sense such as tenderness or reverence. When the shrine was established, we have not the means of determining, but we have clear evidence of its being in existence in the middle of the thirteenth century. In a copperplate Inscription of the reign of Kṛṣṇa of the Yadava dynasty of Devagiri, it is stated that Mallisetti, a general and viceroy of the king, made, while engaged on a military expedition, the grant of a village in the Belgaum district at Paundarikakṣetra, a holy place situated on the Bhīmārāthī, in the vicinity of the god Visnu, in the year 1171 of the Saka era corresponding to 1249 A. D. Now if the Paundarikakṣetra was situated on the Bhīmārāthī of Bhīma river, it is certainly not unreasonable to suppose that it was the same as Paṇḍhārī which is the alternative name of Paṇḍharpur; and

1 See above, p. 72.

2 Indian Antiquary, Vol XIV, p. 68ff,

the god in whose vicinity the grant was made must therefore have been Vitthal, or Vithoba, here mentioned by his Sanskrit name and not the popular Canarese corruption. In another Inscription on stone, existing at Pandharpur itself and dated 1192 aaka, which corresponds to 1270 A. D., Bhanu the son of Kesara, is represented to have performed an Aptoryaraa sacrifice in pandurangapura, in consequence of which crowds of people, and Vitthala together with the gods, were greatly gratified.¹ Here we have another name of Pandharpur, and that was probably given to it because it was the city of Panduranga.

Pandaraṅga, or Panduraha, is according to Hemacandra a name of Rudra or Siva². And we have a temple of Siva at Pandharpur, and pilgrims have to visit it first before going to that of Vithoba or Vitthal. Panduranga, which is the same as the Panduraha of Hemacandra, is however in modern times a popular name for Vitthal. Whether then the city was called Pandurahgapura on account of it containing the temple of Visnu or Vitthal, or that of Siva is doubtful. But from the wording of the Inscription, in which Vitthala and Pandurahgapura are mentioned independently, it would appear as if Vitthal had no connection with the name, and it was given to the city on account of its containing a Siva temple. But when Vithoba's importance increased in later times so vastly that Siva was thrown entirely into the shade, Pandaraṅga became identical With Vitthala.

The name Paundarika occurring in the first Inscription seems to owe its origin to a man named Puṇḍarika, the popular legend about whom is to the following effect. The region about Pandharpur was, it is said, a forest of the name of Dindiravana. There lived a man of the name of Puṇḍallka, who spent all his time in the service of his aged parents, and the god Kṛṣṇa was pleased with his devotion to them. In the meantime, while Kṛṣṇa was living at Dvaraka, he remembered Radha, who was the object of

1 Early History of the Deccan, Second Ed., p. 115, in which, however, Kesara, the father of Bhanu, is by mistake represented at the sacrificer. [= Volume III of this Edition, page 161.—N. B. U.]

I. Desinamamala, VI. 23.

his fervent love while he was in Gokula. Radhft, who had, after Kṛṣṇa's leaving Gokula, betaken herself to a residence in the Himalaya mountain, for the practice of austerities in consequence of her separation from Kṛṣṇa, came to know of this through her innate cognitive power, and came at once to Dvarācft and sat on the lap of Kṛṣṇa. Some time after RukminI, the wedded wife of Kṛṣṇa, came to the place, and Radha did not rise up to honour her, as every other woman in similar circumstances did at her approach. Kṛṣṇa even did not take Radhā to task for this dishonour of RukminI, and RukminI got offended, left Dvaraka and wandered about, until she came to Dindiravana, and rested there on the site of the modern Pandharpur. Kṛṣṇa was filled with sorrow at the disappearance of RukminI and went about in quest of her to all parts of the country, until he came to the place where Rukmini was lying. After some explanations she was reconciled to him, and Kṛṣṇa then went to the hut of Pundalika to reward him for his devotion to his parents by personal manifestation. Pundalika being engaged in attending to the wants of his father and mother, was not able to greet him at once, and threw back a brick (Marathi: vit) and asked him to stand on it and wait for him until he finished what he was engaged on. Kṛṣṇa stood on the brick and there he was joined by RukminI, and thus the shrine of Pandharpur grew up.

Puṇḍallka has been referred to as the originator of the Viṭṭhal cult of devotion both by Namadev and Tukaram, and that is the popular belief. The legend points to this fact, and we may therefore take him to be the person who promulgated the cult of Viṭṭhoba, or Viṣṇu, in the Maratha country. He established himself at Paṇḍharpur and it must be on that account that the city is called the holy place (Kṣētra) Paṇḍarlka, which I identify with the modern name Pandhari in the first Inscription. The Paṇḍurāgapura of the second may have become the later Paṇḍharpur.

There is another historical significance in this legend, and that appears to be this. At first, no woman was connected with the Kṛṣṇa worship, as we have seen in the case of the pure Pañcāratra or Bhāgavata system. Then came Radha to be associated with him in the North, as we have seen, in the systems of

Nimbarka, Vallabha and Caitanya, while Rukmiṇi, the lawful wife, was united with him in the Maratha country. The Kṛṣṇa of Paṇḍharpur is almost exclusively known by the name of Viṭṭhala or Vithoba, and Rukmini by the name of Rakhamai or Rakhamābai. In the religious literature of the country, Viṭṭhala, or Kṛṣṇa, is almost exclusively spoken of as Rukmiṇīpati or Rukmiṇīvara, the lord or husband of Rukmiṇi, and not as Radha-vallabha, or the lover of Radha. Thus the Vaiṣṇavism of the Maratha country, associated as it is with these two names, is more sober and purer than that of the three systems named above. Rahi the Marathi form of Radhika, is not unknown, but an insignificant place is assigned to her. The sports of Kṛṣṇa in Gokula are also represented occasionally in the mode of worship, but very little importance is attached to them.

This Vaiṣṇavism of the Maratha country found a fertile soil among the lower classes, though it has had followers among Brāhmaṇas and other higher classes also. Like the Vaiṣṇavism of the disciples of Rāmānanda, it had no learned or Sanskrit-knowing promulgators, but its prophets were Śūdras, who, however, had the true religious instinct and possessed a clear spiritual insight. Such were Nāmadev and Tukārām.

§ 72. The family of Nāmadev originally lived at the village called Narasi Vamāni, situated near Karhad in the Satara District, and now known by the name of Bhayé-Narsingpur or Kolem-Narsingpur. It belonged to the tailor caste and followed that occupation or of dealers in cloth. The name of Nāmadev's father was Dama Śeṭ, and that of his mother, Goṇābāl. They migrated to Paṇḍharpur, where Nāmadev was born in the Śaka year 1192, corresponding to 1270 A. D. Nāmadev received ordinary education, but showed little capacity for the usual occupation of his family. He became a devoted worshipper of Viṭhoba and had for his Guru a person named Visoba Khecar, who appears to have been a non-idolater. For Nāmadev says of him that he gave him the following instruction :—

No.191¹. " A stone-god never speaks. What possibility then of his removing the disease of mundane existence? A stone

1. Tukaram Tatya's edition, published in Bombay in 1894.

image is regarded as God, but the true God is wholly different. If a stone-god fulfils desires, how is it he breaks when struck. Those who adore a god made of stone, lose everything through their folly. Those who say and hear that a god of stone speaks to his devotees, are both of them fools. Those who extol the greatness of such a god and call themselves his devotees, should be regarded as worthless persons and their words should not be heard by the ear. If by chiselling a stone, a god is made of it and is worshipped with care for many years, will he be of use at any time ? Do reflect on this well in your mind. Whether a holy place is small or large, there is no god but stone or water. In the village of Dvadasi (Barsi)' instruction was given that there is no place which is devoid of God. That God was shown to Nama in his heart, and thus Khengar conferred a blessing on him."

The omnipresence of God and his being neither stock nor stone are well brought out here. The omnipotence of God Namdev brings out in the following :—

NO. 151. " The Veda has to speak by thy might and the sun has to move round; such is the might of thee, the lord of the universe! Knowing this essential truth, I have surrendered myself to thee. By thy might it is that the clouds have to pour down rain, mountains to rest firm and the wind to blow. Nothing moves at all (without thee). Oh lord Pandurang! thou art the cause of all."

It will thus be seen that, though Nāmdev worshipped an idol at Paṇḍharpur, he had full knowledge of the true nature of God, as given in treatises like the Upaniṣads; and this God it was that he tried to attain.

No. 1029. " Your mind is full of vices. What is the use of the pilgrimages you make ? What is the use of austere practices, if there is no repentance ? The sins resulting from a mental act cannot be effaced by the highest holy place (literally: the father of the holy places). The essence of the matter is very simple : Sin is effaced by repentance ", so says Nāmā.

1. Barsi is a town near Pandharpur.

No. 887. " Vows, fasts, and austerities are not at all necessary; nor it is necessary for you to go on a pilgrimage. Be you watchful in your hearts and always sing the name of Hari. It is not necessary to give up eating food or drinking water ; fix your mind on the feet of Hari. Yoga or sacrificial ceremonies or giving up objects of desire is not wanted. Realise a fondness for the feet of Hari. Neither is it necessary for you to contemplate (lit. dwell in) the one without attributes. Hold fast to the love of the name of Hari; says Nama, be firm in singing the name and then Pāṇḍurang will render himself manifest to you."

In these two songs Nāmdev urges upon his hearers the total inefficacy of the usual modes of purification and of the attainment of God, such as pilgrimages, vews, fasts, or meditation on the absolute, and sacrifices.

No. 245. " Recognise him alone to be a righteous man, who sees Vasudeva in all objects, eradicating all pride or egoism. The rest are entangled in the shackles of delusion. To him all wealth is like earth and the nine species of gems are mere stones. The two, desire and anger, he has thrown out and cherishes in his heart (lit. house) quietude and forgiveness. He constantly repeats the name of Govinda, not desisting even for a moment."

No. 1004. " Firmly grasp the truth which is Nārāyaṇa. Purity of conduct should not be abandoned ; one should not be afraid of the censure of people and thus accomplish one's own purpose. Surrender yourself to your loving friend (God), giving up all ostentation and pride. The censure of people should be regarded as praise and their praise not heeded. One should entertain no longing for being respected and honoured, but should nourish in oneself a liking for devotion. This should be rendered firm in the mind and the name of God should not be neglected even for a moment."

In these songs Nāmdev describes the holy condition of him who is a devotee of Vasudeva and sees him everywhere, and preaches self-surrender to him, regardless of the criticism of the world.

This is a short specimen of the teachings of Nāmdev. Purity of heart, humility, self-surrender, forgiveness, and the love of God

form the Gum and substance of ft. Namdev wrote songs in Hindi also and some of these are incorporated in the Grantha—Saheb, or the Bible of the Sikhs. I will here translate two of these¹:—

No. 2352. " He is one, [but] fills and encompassess many ; wherever you look yon find him there. There is scarcely one who understands him, all being deluded by the variegated picture drawn by Māya (delusive power). Everything is Govinda, everything is Govinda, there is nothing without Govinda. Just as there is one thread and on it are woven breadthwise and lengthwise hundreds of thousands of beads, so is everything woven in the lord. The waves, the foam, and the bubbles of water are not different from water. All this extent of the universe is the sport of parabrahma, and when we think of it, is not different from it Illusive phantoms and the objects seen in dreams are regarded as real. When by the instruction of my Guru my mind awoke, I accepted the truth. Reflecting in your mind, see this all to be the creation of Hari, says Nāmdev; in the inside of every individual thing there is one Murāri alone without any interstice."

No. 2353. " The pitcher is filled and the water brought to bathe the god. There were forty-two hundreds of thousands of animals in it; there was already Viṭṭhal in them. Whom shall I bathe ? Wherever we go there is Viṭṭhal and he ever sports in joy. Flowers have been brought and wreaths woven of them for worshipping God. First of all the flowers were smelt by the bees, there was Viṭṭhal there ; what shall I do ? Milk has been brought and cooked for the offering of Khir² to God. The milk was first tasted by the calf, in it was Viṭṭhal, what shall I do ? Here is Viṭṭhal, there is Viṭṭhal, there is no world without Viṭṭhal. This place and that, thou hast filled. Thou hast filled the whole world, says Nama, humbly ".

In these hymns God's omnipresence is described by Nāmdev.

1 Tukaram Tatya's edition.

2 A preparation of milk and Pice mixed with sugar.

3 These two hymns have been translated by Macauliffe in Vol. VI, pp. 41-42 of the Sikh Religion. The readings in the Bombay Ed. have been compared with those in the Grantha-Saheb, pp. 427-28 of the Lucknow Ed. of 1893.

§ 73. The date assigned to the birth of Nāmdev is, as we have seen, saka 1192, that is 1270 A. D. This makes him a contemporary of Jnandev, the author of the Jnandevi, which was finished in 1290 A. D. But the Marathi of the latter work is decidedly archaic, while that of Namdev's writings has a considerably more modern appearance. Namdev's Hindi too looks more modern than that of the thirteenth century, when the poet Canda flourished¹. What this is due to, it is difficult to say. But it appears probable that the traditional date of Nāmdev's birth -Saka 1192-has been pushed backwards and that he is represented as a contemporary of Jnandev. We have seen in a former section² that Nabhajī in naming the successors of Visnusvamin places Jnandev first and Namdev afterwards. If we are to judge from Namdev's Marathi and Hindi, his date must be put later by about a century.

Some conception, however, of the time when Nāmdev flourished may be formed from the strong and definite sentiments as to the futility of idol-worship, which his instructor is represented (in one of the hymns translated) to have expressed. Khecar, or Visoba Khecar as he is usually called, appears to have been an uncompromising opponent of idol-worship from the accounts given of him in the existing biographies. All previous writers, including Ramanuja, as well as a great many that followed, excused idol-worship in some way or other. If then Khecar's attitude towards it was definitely hostile, he and his pupil Namdev must have flourished when the Mahomedan influence had for the first time become very powerful. The Mahomedans established themselves in the Deccan in the beginning of the fourteenth century of the Christian era, and their hatred of idol-worship must have taken about a hundred years to make its way into the understanding of religious Hindus.

But a more direct evidence for the fact that Namdev flourished after the Mahomedans had established themselves in the Marāṭha country is afforded by his mention in a song (No. 364) of the

I See my Report on the Search for Sanskrit MSS, 1887-1891, page LXXX,
[= Volume II of this Edition, p. 343.—N. B. U.]

2 Ante, p. 109,—N. B. V. J

destruction of idols by the Turaks, i. e., Turks. The Mahomedans were often called Turaks in early times by the Hindus. Naradev, therefore, probably lived about or after the end of the fourteenth century.

It will thus be seen that the date of Namdev's birth given with such details is quite wrong. Unfortunately the historical spirit has by no means been the distinguishing feature of the intellectual life of us Indians, and we often confuse different persons together, and attribute to one what belongs to another. Some such confusion must have taken place in the present case.

Tukārām

§ 74. Tukaram was born and lived at a village called Dehu, which is about fourteen miles to the north-east of Poona. The name of the family to which he belonged was More. It was a family of the Maratha caste, which caste may have sprung from the old order of Ksatriyas, but is considered to belong to the Śūdra order. Nothing specific is known about the date of his birth, but there is no reason for doubting the truth of the date traditionally assigned to his death, which is Saka 1571, corresponding to 1649 A. D. His biographer, Mahlpati, represents him to have become a bankrupt at the end of the first half of his life, when he was twenty-one years of age. From that it is inferred that he lived for 42 years, and he is thus understood to have been born in 1607-8 A. D.

Seven of Tukaram's ancestors were devoted worshippers of the god Vithoba. Of these Visambhara was the first who made regular pilgrimages to Paṇḍharpur, but after some years he constructed a temple in his own village, and placing the idols of Viṭhoba and Rukmal in it, dedicated it to their worship. Tukaram's father's name was Bolhojl and he followed the occupation of a petty trader. When he became old, he proposed to entrust the affairs of his family and his business to Savjl, his eldest son. But Savjl was a man for whom a worldly life had no interest, and he declined to undertake the business. It was, therefore, made over to Tukaram, who was then thirteen years of age. Tukaram managed the affairs somehow, till he became seventeen years old, when his father died. He naturally felt desolate when this occurred, and being a man of simplicity and liable to be imposed upon by designing persons, his affairs got into disorder and he incurred loss in his trade.

Tukārām was at first married to a wife who was sickly, and some time later he married another of the name of Jijabfil or Avail, the daughter of a well-to-do trader in Poona. When his affairs got into confusion, Avail procured a loan for him and set him up again. A short time after, he made a profit in his new trade, and, while coming back from the place to which he had gone for the sale of his goods, he met a man who was being carried about by the agents of his creditor, and who was crying out for assistance to relieve him from his debt and the impending imprisonment. To this man Tukaram gave all that he possessed—the capital, and the profit that he had made. He returned to Dehu empty-handed, and soon after there was a famine, which made him a thorough bankrupt, and his first wife died of hunger.

Tukārām then made up his mind to renounce his business, but his younger brother Kānhyā protested against it. Then, sitting on the banks of the Indrayānī, he told his brother to bring all the documents, deeds and bonds relating to their business, divided them into two parts, gave one to Kānhyā, and told him to live separately from him, and his own share he threw into the river.

Henceforward he devoted himself to the contemplation of God and singing his praises, spending the day on the top of a hill near Dehu and the night at the temple of Viṭhobā in the village.

He read the Marāṭhī works on religious subjects of the saints and sages who had flourished before him. The idea of giving expression to his thoughts and feelings by composing songs in Marāṭhī soon arose in his mind. The metre used by him was that which is known by the name of Abhang, the measure of which is by no means strict or regular, but which is characterised by the use of rhyming words at specific intervals. A single-minded piety and the desire to be of service to all, even by executing their errands, became settled points in his character. Family matters had to be attended to by his wife, Avail, who often found herself in great straits.

Tukaram's chief occupation was the performance of Kirtans, which consist of religious discourses interspersed with the singing of songs. These discourses gradually became very attractive and drew in crowds of people. The songs he sung at

these had been often prepared by himself, and some were composed by him extempore while engaged in the discourse.

Tukāram's fame spread about not only in his village, but in the surrounding country, and it evoked jealousy, especially in the minds of Brāhmaṇas, who had set themselves up as religious teachers; and he was subjected to persecution. He, however, maintained an evenness of temper throughout, though there were struggles in the mind. His fame reached the ears of the rising prince, Śivaji, the future king of the Marathas. He was eager to hear Tukāram's Kirtans, and on one occasion invited him into his presence, sending him messengers with torches, umbrella and horses, as emblems of high honour. Tukāram, however, declined to go and sent him a letter written in his usual metre. On another occasion Śivaji attended his Kirtan at Lohagaon, about six miles from Poona, and placed before him a plate full of golden coins. Tukāram, of course, declined to receive them, and they were distributed among the Brahmanas there. When his end approached, he is reported to have gathered together a large body of his followers and to have proceeded to the banks of the Indrayanī, all singing loudly and enthusiastically the praises of God and fully absorbed in it. When they approached the river, Tukāram suddenly disappeared. No further account of his death has been handed down.

§ 75. It has been already stated that Tukārām had acquired a great facility in composing Abhaṅgs. He spoke in Abhaṅgs and wrote in Abhagṇis. Some of these only could be written and were written, and others were neglected by him or his immediate followers, but retained in the memory of others. The collections, therefore, of his pieces cannot be expected to be of the same size. There are two such printed in Bombay, one containing 4621 pieces and the other 8441. This latter collection is uncritically made and oftentimes one same piece is given a second time with the opening lines omitted. Still, this is a larger collection and contains Abhaṅgs which are not to be found in the first collection, but are quite in the style of Tukārām with the usual fervent devotion and purity of thought.

We will now give a few specimens —

First collection, No. 2869. " When the auspicious juncture of Sirhhastha¹ comes, it brings fortune only to barbers and priests. There are crores of sins in the heart, but externally a man shaves the hair on the head and the beard. What has been shaved off, has disappeared. Tell me what else has changed. The vicious habits are not changed, which might be regarded as a mark of the destruction of sins 5 says Tukā, without devotion and faith everything else is useless trouble."

Second collection, No. 4733. " What hast thou done by going to a holy river ? Thou hast only outwardly washed thy skin. In what way has the interior been purified ? By this thou hast only added a feather to thy cap (lit. prepared a decoration for thyself), Even if the bitter Vrndavana fruit is coated with sugar, the settled quality of the interior (bitterness) is in no way lessened. If peace, forgiveness, and sympathy do not come in, why should you take any trouble ? "

First coll., No. 90 (1-2). " Sesamum seeds and grains of rice thou hast burnt by throwing into fire, but desire and anger are as mischievous as before. Why hast thou taken trouble in vain, giving up the adoration of Pāṇḍurang?"

Here Tukāram condemns religious practices which concern the body only, and mechanical rites, such as giving oblations, and enforces the necessity of striving for the attainment of spiritual virtue and of the adoration of God.

In No. 2383 (first coll,) Tukāram condemns the worship of goddesses, Jakhāl Jokhāl, of gods like Bhairava and even Gaṇapati, and of ghosts and goblins, and earnestly recommends the adoration of him whose consort is RakhamaX Tukāram was thus a devotee only of Viṭhoba of Paṇḍharpur and a monotheist in this sense. Though he worshipped the idol at the place, still he had always before his mind's eye the great Lord of the universe, as the following will show :—

First coll., No. 4361. "Thy greatness is unsearchable. Even the Vedas became silent and the power of the mind becomes stunted.

1 When Jupiter is in the sign of Leo, the period is considered favourable for the washing away of sins, and Hindus go to holy places, such as Nasik, shave their heads and mustaches and bathe in the river.

What possibility is there of my mental power reaching Him, whose light it is that the sun and the moon display ? Even the thousand-tongued (the great serpent) is unable to expound thy greatness. How then shall I be able to do so ? Says Tukā, we are thy children, thou art our mother; place us under the shadow (protection) of thy grace."

Fist coll., No. 4419. " All the world says that there is not a space so minute as a sesamum seed without thee. The old Rsis, sages, poious and holy men said that thou art in the heart of all these things. . . . Thou hast filled up numberless universes and also a residue still remained. But to me thou hast become inaccessible. "

Fir.st Coll., No. 1870. ' God is ours, certainly ours, and is the soul of all souls. God is near to us, certainly near, outside and inside. God is benignant, certainly benignant, and fulfils every longing even of a longing nature. God protects us, certainly protects us, and subdues strife and death. God is merciful, certainly merciful, and protects Tukā."

This great God is to be attained only by devoted love and by no other means:—

First coll., No. 810. " This thy nature is beyond the grasp of the mind or of words •, and therefore I have made devoted love a measure. I measure the Endless by the measure of love ; he is not to be truly measured by any other means. Thou art not to be found by processes of concentration (Yoga), sacrificial rites, practice of austerities, and any bodily exertions, nor by knowledge. Oh Keśava, accept the service which we render to thee in the simplicity of our hearts."

There is peace and pure indescribable bliss in seeing God :—

Second coll., No. 1411. " Oh Nārāyāṇa, the peace arising from rest is truly not to be attained without thy feet; even if modes and methods are followed for crores of Kalpas,¹ bliss will not ensue. The bliss of bliss, which is interminable and boundless, which is enjoyed by Hari and Hara, manifest to me, oh thou ! the

sustainer of my soul, oh omniscient, those feet of thine [which produce it]. "

But this God is not to be seen by those whose passions are unrestrained :—

First coll., No. 4420. " The Endless is beyond, and between kim and me there are the lofty mountains of desire and anger. I am not able to ascend them, nor do I find any pass. Insurmountable is the ascent of my (mountain-like) enemies. What possibility is there of my attaining Nārāyaṇa, my friend ? Pāṇḍuraṅg is lost to me ; says Tuka, it is now plain that this valuable life of mine has gone for nothing. "

To curb these passions becomes now his great and earnest aim. He examines his heart carefully and on all occasions in life finds them present there in one shape or another; with all his efforts he fails to restrain them ; and addresses fervent prayers again and again to God to help him. The number of these is very large :—

Second Coll., No. 1430. " With whose support shall I gird up my loins ? Oh Pandurang, I feel depressed. All wicked persons abide in my frame and my mind is subdued by them. All my efforts have proved fruitless. What shall I do ? Thou art the only mother of the helpless; says Tuka, those wicked persons will not leave my frame without thy might. "

The wicked persons are passions.

When in the course of years, Tukārām became famous and was praised everywhere, he found a glow of satisfaction gathering strength in his heart. This he recognised as pride or conceit, and he was greatly afraid of it, and again and again prayed to God to free him from this pride and bestow humility of spirit : —

First coll., No. 1779. " I have become an expert in the unrestricted use of words. The root of the whole matter I have not attained. Therefore, oh king of Pandhar! my mind is afflicted. Who knows what is in my heart ? I am respected or worshipped, and this has given rise to conceit; and my further progress (towards perfection) has been arrested; says Tukā, I do not know the true way and find myself in the hands of egotism. " Again :-

First coll., No. 1133. " What shall I do with fame and worldly

honour and greatness ? Do show me thy feet Do not bring about this (result), that thy servant should go for nothing. If I become great and bear the burden of ostentatious knowledge, I shall go away from thy feet farther and farther. What possibility is there of people knowing the internal condition ? A man is judged by his external appearances. Even adversity will be sweet to me, if it leads me to thy feet."

He thus goes on cultivating the virtue of humility, until at last he comes to speak of the death of the self in him as in the following :—

First coll., No. 3474. " I have surrendered my soul to thee and then I have abandoned my individuality (dwelling). Now thy might alone prevails here. I being dead, thou hast established thy station here. Now nothing like me and mine remains here."

Here he speaks of his having abandoned the self and God's having come to dwell in his heart instead of the self. And more distinctly :—

First Coll., No. 2668. " I have seen my own death with my eyes. The result is incomparable rapture. The three worlds are filled with joy. And I have enjoyed as the soul of all. By my sense of individuality I was confined to one place and by its abandonment I have become all-reaching. The pollution arising from birth and death is at an end and I am free from the littleness resulting from the feeling of me and mine. Narayana has now given me a place to dwell in : putting my faith in him I have remained at his feet; Tuka says, the fulfilment of what I undertook I have manifested to the world."

Here he speaks of the dying of the lower man in himself and the coming to life of the higher man.

There is a large number of pieces conveying instruction to men seeking spiritual advance. A few specimens will now be given :—

First coll, No. 3800. "Therefore one should surrender oneself to God with all one's heart. He will carry one to the opposite bank of the river of life, which is difficult to be crossed. He

whose name is Ananta, or Endless, is very merciful; Tuka says, I have experienced this and therefore announce it to all."

Second Coll., No. 5383. "Fortunate, indeed, are those persons, in whose heart dwells forgiveness and to whom, when there is occasion, courage and strength do not fail; who do not criticise other people by calling them good or bad and who think nothing of worldly greatness or superiority; who internally and externally are alike pure like the Ganga and whose heart is tender; Tuka says, I will wave my body round them and place my head on their feet."

First coll., No. 2397. "For all beings entertain no hostile feeling. This one alone is the excellent way. Thus alone will Narayana accept thee. All talk without this is useless trouble. Relatives as well as the evil-disposed should be regarded as alike and the mind devoted to the doing of good to others; Tuka says, when the mind is pure everything becomes efficacious."

First coll., No. 1368. "Do not give up food; do not betake yourself to a forest-dwelling; in all your sufferings and enjoyments think of Narayana. A child sitting on the shoulders of its mother feels no trouble. Put an end to all thoughts different from this. Do not get entangled in worldly enjoyments nor abandon them; dedicate everything you do to God, and have done with it; Tuka says, do not ask me again and again; nothing else is to be taught but this."

Here Tukaram dissuades men from giving up the world and becoming recluses, and advises them instead to dedicate their lives to the service of God and do everything in a manner to propitiate him.

The question has often been discussed among Marāthas whether Tukaram followed the Vedantic theory of Samkaracarya and regarded everything as an illusion except one soul. There are some Abhahgs which exhibit the closest possible approach to that theory such as the following :—

First coll., No. 300. "What means crossing a mirage to reach the yonder bank? Children play with golden coins which are but pot-sherds. Is there any profit or loss by those transactions?"

Little girls perform marriage (of dolls). Is the relation thus established real? The happiness or misery experienced in a dream is seen not to be true when a man awakes. The expressions, one is born, one is dead, are all false; and the saying that persons are in bondage or are delivered is a mere waste of breath, so says Tuka."

Here the illusive nature of everything is set forth quite in the style of Śaṅkarācārya's world-illusion. Again:—

First coll., No. 1992. "A sugar crystal and sugar powder differ only in the name. There is no difference when sweetness is to be judged. Tell me, oh Pāṇdurabg, how thou and I are distinct. Thou hast moved the world, and me and mine are the results. Gold in the form of ornaments is worn on the foot, the hands, nose and the head. When all these are thrown into the crucible, where remains the distinction? Profit and loss are real in the dream when one goes to sleep; both vanish when one is awakened, so says Tuka."

Here there is a mixture of the two opposite theories, that of Parinama, or development, as in the case of gold and ornaments made of it, and that of Vivarta, or illusion, as in the case of things seen in a dream. The latter alone is held by Śaṅkarācārya. Again:—

First coll., No. 2482. "When salt is dissolved in water, what is it that remains distinct? I have thus become one in joy with thee and have lost myself in thee. When fire and camphor are brought together, is there any black remnant? Tukft says, thou and I were one light."

Here the losing of self-consciousness in moments of ecstasy appears to be what is meant, and not quite a perfect identity of God and man. Nāṁdev and Tukāraṁ were not learned Pāṇḍits like Ramanuja and Madhva and cannot be expected to formulate a consistent metaphysical theory of the relations between God, man, and the world. On the other hand, Tukāraṁ was such a devout and sincere lover of God that the idea of such a distinctness between the three as would render such a love possible, was constantly present in his mind, and there are a great many

Abhahgs in which he condemns the theory of spiritual monism as in the following:—

First coll., No. 1471. "His words should not be listened to, who expounds useless (unsubstantial) knowledge without Bhakti, or devotion. When monism is expounded without faith and love, the expounder as well as the hearer are troubled and afflicted. He who calls himself Brahma and goes on in his usual way, should not be spoken to and is a buffoon. The shameless one who speaks heresy in opposition to the Vedas is an object of soorn among holy men. Even an outcast is superior to him who cuts off the relation between God and his devotee (by asserting them to be identical); so says Tuka."

Here is an uncompromising denunciation of spiritual monism which leaves no scope for Bhakti, or devotion. It is considered as opposed to the Vedas and as a heresy. Again.—

First coll., No. 3753. "For me there is no satisfaction in the doctrine of monism. Sweet to me is the service of thy feet. Confer this gift upon me making it fit (to be given by thee). Thy name and the singing of it are dear to me. The relation between God and his devotee is a source of elevated joy. Make me feel this, keeping me distinct from thee. All this belongs to thee. Confer it upon me some day."

Here in his confutation of spiritual monism he takes his stand on the heartfelt charms of the love of God. He sets the innate feelings of his heart against the sophism of the advocates of the Advaita Vedanta.

First coll., No. 1589. "I will make the mouth of the knowers of Brahma to water (in longing) and make the delivered ones to abandon the pristine condition (attained in consequence of deliverance). In singing, the whole bodily frame becomes instinct with Brahma and the good fortune (resulting from it) consists in making God a debtor. I will bring indolence on him whose practice it is to repair to holy places, and make the enjoyment of a life in heaven bitter. I will make the man who practises austerities give up his pride and put to shame sacrificial rites and charities. I will accomplish the great object of life, vis., love and wealth of devotion, which constitutes the true treasure

time promulgated the worship of the grown-up Kṛṣṇa, for ever associated with Rādhā, who was idealised into an image of pure love. The increasing ardency in the love and devotion of God sought for realistic expression, and the conception of Radha deepened and acquired an exclusive prominence and importance. The devotion of Caitanya and his followers was sincere and fervent, and even bordered on the frantic ; but that of Vallabha and his school was more dramatic than real. Ultimately this conception led to the degradation of Vaiṣṇavism.

In the Marāṭhī Country, Nāmadēv, whose date is uncertain, but who probably lived about the end of the fourteenth century, and Tukārām, in the first half of the seventeenth century, preached the worship of Viṭhoba of Paṇḍharpur as the supreme God, and, discarding Rādhā-Kṛṣṇaism, cultivated a more sober line of devotion. They also resorted to the Vernacular for the dissemination of their ideas. They, as well as Kabir, and to a certain extent, Caitanya also, condemned the formalism, which prevailed in the religion of their day, and preached pure love of God. The two Marāṭhā saints and Kabir also laid particular stress on the purification of the individual's heart and moral elevation as means to a single-minded and devoted love of God, and as necessary for the attainment of eternal bliss.

The points of contact between these various Vaiṣṇava systems are that their spiritual elements are essentially derived from the Bhagavadgītā, that Vasudeva as the name of the Supreme Being stands in the back-ground of all, and that spiritual monism and world-illusion are denounced by them equally. The differences arise from the varied importance that they attach to the different spiritual doctrines; the prominence that they give to one or other of the three elements that were mingled with Vasudevism ; the metaphysical theory that they set up; and the ceremonial which they impose upon their followers.

The Bhagavadgītā was supplemented in later times by the Pancaratra Samhitas and the Puranas such as the Viṣṇu and the Bhāgavata, and other later works of that description. These occasionally elucidated some of the essential doctrines, laid down the ceremonial, and brought together a vast mass of legendary matter to magnify the importance of their special teachings, and render them attractive.

Part II.

ŚAIVISM AND MINOR RELIGIOUS SYSTEMS.

I. Introductory.

Formation of the (Conception of Rudra-Śiva.

§ 77. Some of the phenomena of external nature are pleasing, vivifying and benignant; others are terrible, dispiriting and destructive. In the dawn, the Aryas found the lovely goddess Usas, pursued by her lover Surya, or the Sun (R V. I.115. 2). In the rising sun, they found Mitra, a friendly god, who roused them from sleep and set them to do the work of the day (RV. III. 59.1 ; VII. 36. 2): And in the sun, who visibly at rising stretched forth his rays as if they were his arms, filling the heaven and the earth, vivifying the world at the end of the night and placing it in the course assigned to it by him, they found Savitr (RV. IV. 53. 3). The dreadful and destructive phenomena are usually the storms that uproot trees and even demolish houses, accompanied by the thunderbolt which strikes down men and beasts dead in a moment; and the epidemics that rage and carry off numbers of men. These the old Aryas saw Rudra, who went about howling with the stormy winds (Maruts), who were his sons (Rudriyas).

But human beings do not believe in a purely malignant power reigning in the universe. The dreadful phenomena are attributed to the wrath of a god, which, however, can be appeased by prayer, praise and offerings. Then the god becomes Śiva, or the benignant. This appears to be the natural process by which a belief in such a god as Rudra-Śiva became established in India in ancient times. We will now trace the development of the idea of this god until he became the supreme creator, ruler, and pervader of the universe, a knowledge of whom contributed to eternal bliss.

II. The Development of the Idea of Rudra-Śiva.

§78. Rudra is represented as discharging brilliant shafts which run about the heaven and the earth (RV. VII. 46. 3) and

as possessing weapons which slay cows and men (RV. 1.114. 10). Here the destructive agency of lightning seems to have been clearly in view. He is prayed to by the singers to keep these away from them and to protect; the two-footed and four-footed beings belonging to them (RV. I. 114. 1). When, in consequence of the prayers or in the natural course of things, the cattle go unharmed, Rudra is represented to be Paśupa, or protector of the cattle (RV. I. 114. 9).

Rudra is prayed to not to afflict children with disease (RV. VII. 46. 2) and to keep all in the village free from illness (RV. I. 114. 1). Rudra was thus believed to cause diseases, and when men recovered from them or were altogether free from them, that also was attributed to the agency of Rudra*, and he is consequently spoken of as possessing healing remedies (RV. I. 43. 4) and as the best physician of physicians (RV. II. 33. 4) and as possessed of a thousand medicines (RV. VII. 46. 3). The singers also pray for the acquisition of those pure and salutary remedies belonging to the Maruts and Rudra, which father Manu desired (RV. It. 33. 13).

The general character of the prayers addressed to Rudra is well brought out in the following : " Oh Rudra, do not, out of thy anger, injure our children and descendants, our people, our cattle, our houses, and do not kill our men. We invoke thee always with offerings " (RV. 1.114. 8.). By his power he perceives all earthly beings and by his universal sovereignty he perceives divine beings (RV. VII. 46. 2). Here even in the Rgveda, Rudra is raised to supreme power.

§ 79. The character of Rudra appears in a much more developed form in the Satarudriya (TS. IV. 5. 1, VS. chapter 16). His benignant form (Śiva tanuḥ) is distinguished from its opposite, the malignant. He is called Girīsa or Girītra, "lying on a mountain", probably because the thunderbolt that he hurls, springs from a cloud, which is often compared to a mountain and in which he was believed to dwell. The cowherds and the female bearers of waters see him as he creeps along with his blue neck and red complexion, that is, those simple folk working in the open field see a

black cloud tinged red by the soft glow of the lightning. Representing, as Rudra does, the darker powers of nature, he may be expected to dwell away from the habitations of men, and therefore he is called the lord of the paths, of the forests, and of those who roam in them, of thieves and highway robbers, who frequent and move about in lonely places to prevent being detected, and also of outcasts who live away from the usual dwellings of men.

In his character as a healer, he appears here as the lord of medicinal herbs and is called a heavenly physician. Being the lord of the open fields or plains, he is the lord of cattle (*Pāṣīnam patiḥ*) which roam in them. Then *Pasupati* became in later times a special appellation of this God. In this manner the range of Rudra became so wide that he came to be called the " lord of the quarters ". He is called *Kapardin*, or the wearer of matted hair, which epithet is probably due to his being regarded as identical with *Agni*, or fire, the fumes of which look like matted hair. The names *Sarva* (arrow-wielder), and *Bhava* also, occur, and when his wrathful nature is thoroughly appeased, he becomes *sambhu* or beneficent, and *Siva* or auspicious, which names occur at the end of the *Satarudriya*. He is also represented as wearing a hide (*Kṛttirh vasanah*). How the epithet arose it is difficult to say. But, being represented as roaming in forests and other lonely places, the idea of investing him with the skin-clothing of the savage tribes may have suggested itself to a poet. The *Nisadas*, a forest tribe, are compared to *Rudras*, which fact lends support to this view.

The name *Rudra* has been generalised and many *Rudras* are spoken of, and a wish is expressed that they may be far away from the singer. Here the signification of the common name appears to be an evil spirit. In another place also the name is generalised, but the signification is much better. The *Rudras* are called *Ganas* or tribes, and *Ganapatis* or leaders of tribes, workmen, potters, cart-makers, carpenters, and *Nisadas* or men of the forest-tribes. Thus these followers of handicraft and also the forest-tribe of *Nisadas* are brought into close connection with *Rudra*; probably they were his worshippers or their own peculiar gods were identified with the Aryan *Rudra*. This last supposition appears very probable, since the groups of beings, whose

Pati, or lord, he is represented to have been, dwelt in or frequented open fields, forests and waste lands, remote from the habitations of civilised men.

§ 80. In AV. the conception of Rudra is further developed, and he is elevated to a higher platform. Several other names, by which he was known in later times; are also given, but the bearers of these are spoken of and addressed as separate gods. Bhava and Śarva are treated as two distinct deities and spoken of as ruling (Īsathe) over two-footed and four-footed beings (IV. 28.1). They are styled the swiftest of all archers, and to them belongs what is near as well as remote. They are called thousand-eyed. Their range is far and wide (3). Their stroke can not be avoided by any man or god (5). They are invoked to launch their thunderbolt against the Yatudhana, or evil spirit (6). They are implored to deliver the singers from calamity (7). Sarva is called the archer, and Bhava the king (Rajan), and obeisance is made to them, and they are desired to remove their deadly poisons to other places (VI. 93. 2). Obeisance is made to Rudra who is in Agni, who is in the waters, who has entered into the herbs and who has formed all these beings (VII. 87. 1). This verse occurs in AU. (VI) and also in ŚU. (II. 17), where, however, it appears in a somewhat altered form, the word Deva being used instead of Rudra*

In describing a particular ox Mahādeva is spoken of as his two arms (IX. 7. 7). Bhava and Śarva are invoked to launch the lightning against the doer of wickedness (X. I. 23). They are called Bhūtapati (the lord of spirits) and Paśupati (the lord of beasts), (XI. 2. 1). They are revered as being in their domains in the sky and in the middle regions (XL 2. 4). Five distinct species of animals, kine, horses, men, goats, and sheep, are marked off as belonging to Paśupati (XI. 2.9 X To*. Ugra, the fierce, belong the four intermediate quarters, the sky, the earth, and the wide atmosphere, and that which has spirit and breathes on the earth (XI. 2.10). Bhava sees everything on earth. Nothing is far or near to him. He destroys things in the farther ocean, being himself in the preceding ocean (XL 2.25 X Rudra is implored not to bring on consumption, poison, and celestial fire (XI. 2. 26). Bhava is the lord (Isa) of the heavens, the

earth, and fills the whole atmosphere (XI. 2. 27). Bhava is addressed as king (Rajan), (XL 2. 28). A wish is expressed that the arrows of Bhava, Śarva, and Rudra, who is Paśupati (the lord of beasts) may ha always propitious (Sadaśiva), (XL 6. 9). Savitr is called Aryaman, Varuna, Rudra, and Mahadeva (XIII. 4. 4). All the stars and the moon are under Rudra's control (XIII. 4. 28.). The gods made Bhava the are her, the protector of the Vratyas, or out-oasts, in the intermediate space of the eastern region, Śarva of the southern region, Paśupati of the western region, Ugra of the northern region, Rudra of the lower region, Mahādeva of the upper region, and Isāna of all the intermediate regions (XV. 5.1-7).

§ 81. In ŚB. (VI. 1.3.7) and KB. (6.1.9), Rudra is mentioned as the son of Usas; and, after he was born, Prajapati gave him, as he grew up, eight names, seven of which are the same as those given above from the AV. and the eighth is Aśani, or the thunder-bolt. It would be seen that the AV. regards the seven as different though allied gods, though once Rudra is identified with Paśupati. As in the case of the sun-god, the several ways of looking at him gave rise to the conception of several sun-deities such as Savitr, Surya, Mitra, Pūṣan, etc., so the same terrible and destructive agency in nature, with its benignant and gracious counterpart, looked at from different points of view, gave rise to the belief in the seven different gods mentioned in the AV. They are ail regarded as the names of one god in the ŚB. and KB., and an eighth name is introduced. Of these eight names, four-Rudra, Śarva, Ugra and Aśani, are indicative of the destructive energy, and the other four, viz., Bhava, Paśupati, Mahadeva or Mahan devah, and Isana, of its beginant counterpart.

It will have been observed that the AV. brings in a new element, that of poisons, which the terrific god was believed to send forth and of his shafts being unfailling and unavoidable by gods and men. On the other, or the benignant side, Bhava is represented to be a shining king (Rajan). Rudra is the lord of all creatures. His range is far and wide. He controls the stars and the moon. He reigns in the sky and the middle regions. He is in fire and water, in plants and herbs, and in all beings; and he is the protector of Vṛātyas in all quarters; and he is pre-eminently the ruler (Isana).

Thus the terrible and the destructive God became, when he was propitiated by men in a variety of ways, a benignant God and attained to the whole majesty of the godhead by the time of the YV. and AV., and it is on this majestic form of the god that the theosophic speculations of SŪ., which we will notice further on, are based.

§ 82. But the darker side of the nature of this god was never forgotten. A sacrifice called Śulagava is mentioned in most of the Ṛghyasūtras. A bull is sacrificed to Rudra to appease him (AG. IV. 9). The rite should be performed beyond the limits of a village, and its remains should not be brought into it, which rule sufficiently indicates the inauspicious character of the rite. The Vapa, or omentum, should be sacrificed to Rudra by uttering twelve names, seven of which are the same as the first three in the first group given above, and the four in the second group. Aśani is omitted, and we have the following five additional names, Hara, Mṛda, Śiva, Bhima, and Śaṁkara. Or the Vapā may be thrown into the fire by uttering six specific names only or the single name Rudra. This Śulagava sacrifice should be performed in a cow-shed when a cattle disease has to be averted. In PG. (III. 8) the names uttered in throwing the oblations are the wives, Indrani, Rudrani, Śarvani, and Bhavani. HG. (II. 3. 8) has the same deities as the eight above-mentioned, Bhima being substituted for Aśani; and oblations are given to the wife of each by repeating the formula " Bhavasya devasya patnyai svāhā " (to the wife of God Bhava) etc., and not by uttering their proper names.

Directions are given in PG. (III. 15) to render obeisance to Rudra and pray for safe conduct when traversing a path, coming to a place where four roads meet, crossing a river, getting into a ferry-boat, entering a forest, ascending a mountain, passing by a cemetery or by a cow-shed and such other places. Similarly HG. (I. 5.16) directs that a traveller should adore Rudra by repeating the specific formula given by him, when he comes to the crossing of four roads or to a heap of cattle-dung, when serpents creep, and when he is overtaken by toraado, or is entering a river, or comes to a variegated scene, sacrificial site or an old large tree.

It will thus be seen that, in the time of the Grhyasūtras, Rudra was still a terrible god, who had to be appeased. He was the god that held sway over regions away from home, over fields, wildernesses, cemeteries, mountains, old trees and rivers. Whenever a man came to anything which inspired awe and terror, Rudra was the god thought of and prayed to protect. Herein lies the reason which rendered him in later times the omnipresent supreme lord of the universe to the exclusion of all other Vedic gods except Viṣṇu. Many are the occasions in the life of man, which excite fear; there are epidemic and other diseases, poisons, serpents, storms, thunderbolts and wild and awful scenes, and consequently, the god who brings on these occasions, and protects when appeased, will be thought of oftener than other gods. The loveliness of the works of God, his greatness and majesty and his mysterious nature, are also matters which strike the mind of man; and these appear to have operated in bringing Viṣṇu into prominence.

What contributed to the formation of Vaiṣṇavism were the appearances and occurrences which excited love, admiration and a spirit of worship ; while in Rudra-Śaivism the sentiment of fear is at the bottom, howsoever concealed it may have become in certain developments of it, and this sentiment it is that has worked itself out in the formation of various Rudra-Śaiva systems of later times. In the monotheistic religions of other countries the same god is feared and loved ; in India the god that is loved in Viṣṇu-Nārāyaṇa-Vāsudeva-Kṛṣṇa, while the god that is feared is Rudra-Śiva.

III. Śvetasvatara and Atharvasīras Upaniṣads.

§ 83. Before we proceed to the consideration of the Rudra-Śiva sects, we must devote some time to the consideration of a religio-philosophic treatise which represents the farthest point in the development of the idea of Rudra-Śiva as a god worshipped by the Indian Aryas generally. This is the Śvetasvatara-Upaniṣad. It does not appear to be composed in a sectarian spirit. The elevated notions about the nature of God and his relations to man and the world, which had been reached in the time of the early Upaniṣads, have been disentangled from

their connection with the impersonal Brahman and transferred to the God who had at the time when the Upanisads were written, acquired a living and active personality in the minds of the people. This god was Rudra-Śiva, who, as we have seen, had by the time of AV. attained to the dignity of the supreme god.

After the preliminaries, the doctrinal points that occur in the first chapter are these: that there are three unborn elements in the world? of these the all-knowing and¹ the ignorant, the ruler and the ruled, are two, and there is a third which has in itself materials of enjoyment and suffering (9): Brahman is of three kinds, viz., the sufferer or enjoyer, what is enjoyed or suffered, and the dispenser or mover. There is nothing further to be known (12). Pradhāna is changeable, the immortal is unchangeable; Hara, the one lord, rules over the changeable and the soul. By meditating on him, by devoting oneself to him, by realising him, the whole ignorance is dispelled (10). By making one's body the lower block of wood, the syllable " Om " the upper, and by the act of meditation, which is (like) the rubbing of the two blocks against each other, one should perceive the hidden god (14). One finds that soul in oneself who seeks him by means of truth and exertion, as oil in seeds, butter in curds, or water in a spring (15).

The three elements mentioned in 9 and 12 are adopted by Rāmanuja in his system, and these texts are quoted by writers of that school. What is set forth in the tenth is similar to that which occurs in the sixteenth and seventeenth verses of chap. 15 of the BhG.

In the second chapter there is first of all a short mention of the Yoga processes, which lead to the perception of the supreme soul and the purity of the self. When by the purified nature of the individual self, as by a lamp, is known the nature of Brahman, or the god who is unborn, unchangeable, pure in every way, one is free from all bondage (15). The chapter closes with the verse which we have noticed as occurring in the AV.

In the third chapter, we have in the beginning a stanza which sets forth that those become immortal who know him who possessing a net, rules by his ruling powers, rules over all the worlds by

his ruling powers, who alone is the cause of production and growth (1). There is only one Rudra—and they do not recognise another—who rules these worlds by his ruling powers, who is the inmost soul of all men, who contracts everything on the final day, and, creating all beings, protects them (2). He has his eyes everywhere, his face every where, as in RV. X. 81. 3 (3). May Rudra, the cause of the production and growth of the gods, the lord of the universe, the great prophet, and who formerly created Hiranyagarbha, endow us with a holy will (4). Then follow two verses from the Śātarudriya, praying Rudra to look at the singer with his gracious countenance and not to do harm to men, etc. (5, 6). Knowing the lord (Īśa), who is the highest Brahman and the greatest of all, who dwells in the inside of all beings whatever their form, and who encompasses the whole universe, men become immortal (7). Then follow similar verses expressive of the attributes of the supreme God and prescribing a knowledge of him as the door to immortality.

As formerly remarked,¹ a verse and a half in this chapter occurs word for word in the thirteenth chap, of the BhG. It also deserves remark that the proper names of the supreme being that occur are Isana, Isa, and Siva ; and the epithet Bhagavat, that is used also, deserves notice (11, 12, 15, 17, 20). In verse 20, which occurs also in the MU., there is Īśam for Atmanah which is indicative of the peculiarity of this Upaniṣad which we have noticed. There are two verses from the Puruṣasūkta (RV. X. 90).

The fourth chapter opens with the expression of the desire that he who, himself being without form, creates many forms with a certain purpose, in whom in the end as well as in the beginning the universe exists, may endow the adorers with a holy will. Then follows the identification of this supreme soul with fire, sun, wind, moon and a variety of other objects (2-4). We have then the metaphor of one male goat lying down with the female goat and another male goat abandoning her after enjoyment, which represents the soul in the worldly and the delivered conditions (5).

1 Ante, p. 31. [N . B.U.]

We have next the verse about two birds, the friends and companions of each other, resting on the same tree, one eating the fruit of that tree, and the other simply looking on without eating, which occurs in the RV. (I. 164. 20) and in the MU. (III. 1. 1). The next verse about the weak soul being deluded and in grief and being delivered from his sorrows when he sees the other soul, who is the ruler (Isa), occurs in the MU. also (III. 1.2) but not in the RV.

After two verses there is another, in which Maya" is called Prakṛti and he who uses this Māyā is called Maheśvara (10). Maheśvara is a name of Śiva. Having known the boon-giver, Iśāna, who presides over every productive organ and in whom and from whom are ail things, one attains eternal peace or serenity (11). Then there is a repetition here of a verse in the previous chapter (III. 4), with an unimportant difference of reading (1%). Then occurs the second part of the verse in RV., which represents Hiraṇyagarbha to be the lord of two-footed and four-footed animals (X. 121. 3), the first part of the latter being paraphrased here (13). This verse was probably suggested by the occurrence of the name of Hiraṇyagarbha in the previous verse.

Having known Śiva (the auspicious), who is minuter than the minute, the creator of the universe, of many forms, and who alone encompasses the universe in this medley of the world, one attains eternal peace (14). That same lord of the universe concealed in all objects is the protector of the world in time. Devoting themselves to him and knowing him thus, the Brahmarṣis and the deities cut away the nooses of death (15). Knowing Śiva, concealed in all beings, who is as subtle as the essence of milk, other than the butter, knowing the god who alone encompasses the universe, one is free from all nooses (16). This god—this great soul—whose work is the universe always dwells in the hearts of men. He is determined by the heart, the intelligence, and internal consciousness; those who know this become immortal (17).

When there was simple darkness and no day or light, no entity or non-entity, Śiva alone existed. He was the one unchangeable thing, and he was the bright light of the sun,

and from him sprang all intelligence (18). Here appears an idea similar to that expressed in RV. X. 129. No one can seize him above, transversely or in the middle. There is not another like him. Great is his glory (19). His form is invisible. Nobody sees him with the eye. Those who see him, dwelling in the heart, by the heart and the internal consciousness, become immortal (20). This verse is the same as in KU. (VI. 9), excepting in the third line, which there is the same as the third line of v. 17 above. The chapter ends with two verses containing a prayer to Rudra to protect, the latter of which is the same as RV. 1.114. 8.

In the first verse of the fifth chapter are mentioned two indestructible beings, Brahman and the other, who are endless, in whom there lie, unobserved, knowledge and ignorance. Ignorance is destructible, knowledge is indestructible ; and there is" another who rules over knowledge and ignorance (1). In the next verse is mentioned the birth of Kapila and his being fed with knowledge by him who presides over every productive energy (2). Giving various forms to each group (lit. net), the god resolves everything into the original principle. Creating again the lords of beings, he, the great soul, the ruler, wields sovereignty over all (3). As the sun illuminates all quarters, upper and lower and transversal, so also the god, the Bhagavat, presides over the natures of all productive energies (4). The original cause of the world makes natural powers develop, and brings to a mature condition those who are capable of development. He presides over this universe and puts into operation all the qualities (5). That is concealed in Upanisads, which contain the secret of the Vedas. That origin of Brahman, Brahmadeva knows. All the ancient gods and Rsis, who knew that, being absorbed in it, became immortal (6).

The Upanisad then proceeds to mention the individual soul, the lord of the vital airs, who performs actions and enjoys or suffers their fruit, possesses three qualities and follows three ways, and goes through a succession of births in consequence of his actions (7). He is as big as the thumb, bright like the sun, is conscious of himself, and wills, is as minute as the hundredth part of the hundredth part of the point of a hair, and is endless. In himself • he is not a female nor a male nor sexless. This depends on the body assumed by him (8, 9,10). He assumes many gross and

subtle forms in accordance with his qualities and the qualities of his actions and of the self. But he who effects their union, is another (12). Then follows a verse similar to IV. 14 and the latter part of 16 (13). In the last verse Śiva, the God, the creator and destroyer, is said to be knowable by Bhava faith, love, or the pure heart (14).

The sixth chapter appears to be a sort of resumé of what precedes. Among other things it is stated that he who promotes virtue and dispels sin, should be known as existing in oneself (6) ; that the one God is concealed in all beings, is all-pervading, the internal soul of all beings, presiding over all actions, the support of all beings, the witness of all, the life-giver, absolute and without qualities (11); and that, knowing the cause which is to be understood by means of the Sāṃkhya and the Yoga, a man is free from all nooses (13).

After this follows a verse to the effect : " nor the sun nor the moon nor the stars nor lightning illuminate him (i.e., make him known); when he shines, everything shines after him, and by his light all this is rendered visible, or is illuminated " (14). This verse occurs in KU. (V. 15) and in MU. (II. 2. 10). The work ends with an expression of the author's self-surrender to the god, who shines forth in one's own intelligence, who first created Brahmadeva, and who sent forth the Vedas—the god who has no parts, who does not suffer change, who is all peace, has no defects and is unpolluted, the bridge for crossing over to immortality, and who is like fire that has burnt fuel (18.19).

§ 84. From this short summary, it will be seen that this Upaniṣad contains verses from the Samhitas of the RV. and YV. and others, which must have been in a floating condition, and were appropriated by the Muṇḍaka and Kāṭha Upaniṣads as well as by this; and a great many others, which have not been traced elsewhere, are original. All these contain truths about the nature of God, the individual soul and the inanimate world and the relations between them. The way to redemption is meditation on the Supreme Soul, which way is characteristic of the Upaniṣad doctrine in general. Certain Yoga processes are prescribed to render this meditation effective, and the final result is a percep-

tion of the Supreme Soul as existing everywhere, and this perception constitutes eternal bliss.

This treatise contains the theism of the Upaniṣad period in its most mature form with a God distinctly personal at the centre. The attributes of the Supreme Soul are often given in very general terms, and he is referred to by the non-sectarian general name Deva, but as often that Deva is identified with Rudra, Śiva, Íšana and Mahésvara, and his powers are spoken of as Íśanis; but there is no indication whatever that these names have been given for the purpose of raising Rudra-Śiva to the supreme godhead to the exclusion of another god. Names indicative of Rudra-Śiva appear to have been used, since he was invested with a personality perceived and acknowledged by all. This Upaniṣad, therefore, is not a sectarian treatise like others promulgated in later times, and is often quoted by Śaṁkaracarya, Ramanuja and other writers of the different schools, and not by those of one school only.

It must have been composed before the BhG., since the latter contains, as already stated,¹ a verse and a half from it, and the nature of the religio-philosophic speculations contained in it, though essentially Upaniṣadic, make a nearer approach to the later Bhakti School than those of any of the older treatises of the class. The description of the godhead and of the final pure serenity are instinct with the glow of love and admiration, and the treatise ends with an expression of self-surrender to the god, who makes himself manifest in one's own intelligence. The Śvetaśvatara-Upaniṣad, therefore, stands at the door of the Bhakti School, and pours its loving adoration on Rudra-Śiva instead of on Vasudeva-Kṛṣṇa, as the BhG. did in later times when the Bhakti doctrine was in full swing. Vasudeva-Kṛṣṇa had a historic basis; and the circumstances which led to his being invested with the supreme godhead, occurred in later times, while in the age, in which the Śvetaśvatara-Upaniṣad was composed, Rudra-Śiva was alone in the field as the supreme god, and the germs of Bhakti, or love, which manifested themselves at the time, were directed towards him; but when Vasudeva-Kṛṣṇa also came into the field, he appealed more to the hearts of men as the

1 Ante, p. 31, and p. 153. (N. B. U. J

god who had come to dwell amongst them; consequently the germs of Bhakti speedily developed, and he became the object of the heightened feelings in preference to the "other."

Umā-Haimavatī.

§ 85. Up to the time at which we have arrived, we meet with no mention of the wife of Rudra or Śiva, but in the Kena-Tītanisad, which is certainly one of the earlier Upanisads, the name of Uma occurs. She is called Haimavatī, or the daughter of Himavat, but she is not mentioned in the KnU. as the wife of Rudra or Śiva, though in later times she was known to be so. The story is:—'Brahman conquered the enemies of the gods for them, but the gods took credit to themselves for the victory and were proud of their achievements. Agni, Vayu and Indra were sitting together, engaged in joyous conversation, when there appeared at some distance a spirit. Agni first went out to see what it was. The spirit asked him the nature and extent of his power and laid down a blade of grass, which it asked him to burn away. Agni was not able to do this and returned baffled. Then went Vāyu, who also was not able to blow away the blade of grass; afterwards went Indra, and at his approach the spirit disappeared. Indra was disappointed, but he saw a beautiful woman of the name of Uma-Haimavatī and asked her who the spirit was. She said it was Brahman. The story represents that condition of things, in which the old Vedic gods had lost their power or hold over men, and brahman had come into prominence as the supreme spirit. Since it was Uma that disclosed the nature of the spirit, it may be understood that the Brahman mentioned was Rudra-Śiva and Uma was his wife. It would thus appear that she had come to be so regarded some time before the Upaniṣad was composed.

§ 86. The Atharvāsiras is another Upaniṣad appertaining to Rudra. It is a much later work as is shown even by the very variant texts before me, commented on by Nārāyaṇa and Śaṅkarārianda. The gods, it is said, went to heaven and asked Rudra who he was. He said that he alone was, is, or will be, and nothing else. He is in all the quarters, he is Gayatri, man, woman, etc., and thus a number of things are mentioned with which he is identical. Then Rudra was invisible to them, and they raised their arms and praised him saying: "He who is Rudra, is

Bhagavat, and who also is Brahmadeva, a bow to him". In the similar sentences that follow, instead of Brahmadeva we have Viṣṇu, Maheśvara, Uma, Skanda, Vinayaka, etc. The sun and the constellation are also included. Then Omkara is mentioned, to which many epithets and epithets of epithets expressive of divine attributes are given, and lastly it is called the one Rudra who is Isāna, Bhagavat, Maheśvara and Mahadeva. Then follow the etymologies of the epithets or names. The only Rudra he is called, because he alone creates and absorbs everything. He is called Isana, because he rules by the powers called the Isanis. Then follow four or five verses from ŚU. with different readings in some cases.

The substance of what follows is thus given by Śaṁkarānanda. For the knowledge of Rudra one should use moderate food, devote himself to reading (Śravaṇa), thinking (Manana), etc., become a Paramaharhsa, or a single-minded devotee, and spend his time thus. One should undertake the Paśupata vow (Vrata), which is of the following nature. Greed and anger should be given up. Forgiveness should be realised. The muttering of Om should be practised, and meditation resulting in Avagati, or perception, should be resorted to. The text, of which this is the explanation, may be generally rendered thus :— " In the inside of the heart exists the subtle body, in which there are anger, greed and forgiveness. Destroying greed, which is at the bottom of human motives, and concentrating the mind on Rudra, who is one and eternal, one should be moderate in eating and drinking ". Then follows a precept to besmear the body with ashes by repeating the words : " The ash is fire, the ash is water, the ash is earth, everything is ash, the ether is ash, the mind, the eyes and other senses are ash." This is the Paśupata vow (Vrata), enjoined for the removal of the noose with which the Pasu, or the individual soul, is tied."

Here the besmearing of the body with ashes after repeating a formula, or Mantra, is prescribed as a vow for the devotees of Paśupati, or Rudra-Siva, calculated to effect a deliverance from the trammels of life. The expression " Paśupagavimokṣaṇa ", which means the loosening of the noose tied round the necks of beings, is a characteristic of the Paśupata sect. This Upaniṣad

therefore belongs to that Beet. Before, however, we pass on to the consideration of this sect, we must cast a glance at the position which Rudra-Siva holds in the Mahābharata.

IV. Rudra-Iva in the Mahabharata and Linga Worship.

§ 87. At the beginning of the Bhismaparvan Kṛṣṇa advises Arjuna to make an obeisance to Durgā before the commencement of the battle and pray for success. Arjuna does so after repeating a hymn in honour of Durgā, containing the names of Umā, mother of Skanda, Kātyāyanī, Kairāṭī and a number of others*. In the Vanaparvan Arjuna is represented to have gone to the Himalaya and practised austerities there. Some time after, Śiva appears dressed like a Kirāta, and a severe fight ensues between them. Arjuna is overpowered in the end and lies on the ground exhausted. He then praises Śiva, and, having made an altar of earth, puts flowers on it in the name of Śaṁkara. These, however, appear as placed on the head of the Kirāta, whereupon Arjuna makes him out as Śiva the object of his adoration, and surrenders himself to him. Śiva becomes pleased and offers him whatever he wishes. Arjuna asks for the weapon presided over by Paśupati (Paśupatastra), which possesses the power of destroying all formidable enemies (chaps. 38-40).

In the Droṇaparvan again, (chaps. 80-81) the attainment of the Paśupatāstra, which appears to be of another kind, consisting of a bow and arrow, by Arjuna, is mentioned. Arjuna and Kṛṣṇa are spoken of as having gone to the Himalaya in a vision and seen Śaṁkara at his dwelling. They bow their heads before him, sing a hymn in his praise, in which they call him the unborn, the creator of the universe, the unchangeable and utter the names which we have given as occurring in earlier works, and thus propitiating him ask for the Paśupata weapon. They are directed to a lake where the Astra had been thrown. There they saw two venomous serpents, which, however, assumed at the time the forms of a bow and an arrow, and these Arjuna took away. •

In the Sauttikaparvan (chap. ?) Āśvatthāman is mentioned to have propitiated Śaṁkara and obtained a sword from him. Śiva himself enters into his body, and Āśvatthāman

carries havoc and destruction with the terrible sword in the camp of the Paṇḍus, killing all their progeny, and even Dhr̥ṣṭadyumna, who had cut off the head of his father Droṇa. Yudhiṣṭhira asks Kṛṣṇa how he was able to effect all this. Kṛṣṇa says that he did it through the power of Śaṁkara and relates another story about him. Brahmadeva once told Śaṁkara not to create. Whereupon Śaṁkara concealed himself under water for a long time. When, therefore, there was no creation for such a long period, Brahmadeva created another Prajāpati, who brought into existence a large number of beings. These beings, being afflicted with hunger, went to Prajāpati to devour him. He, being afraid, went to Hiranyagarbha, who created two kinds of food for those beings and then they were quieted. After some time Mahādeva rose out of the water, and seeing that new beings had been created and were in a flourishing condition, he cut off his organ of generation as no more necessary, and it stuck into the ground. He then went away to perform austerities at the foot of the Muṁjavat mountain.

There is a similar story about Mahādeva's having ceased to create and become a Yogin in the Vayu-Purana (chap. 10). Brahmadeva told Nīlāloḥita (Mahādeva) to create, and bringing to mind his wife Satī, he created thousands of beings exactly like himself, who were immortal. Thereupon he stopped and rendered himself incapable of procreation. He then resorted to all those processes of the Yoga, which in the Purāṇa is called the Pāsupata-Yoga.

In the Sautikaparvan, Kṛṣṇa continues the story of Mahādeva and tells Yudhiṣṭhira that when the gods created the rite of sacrifice and assigned no oblation to Rudra, he was full of wrath and destroyed the sacrifice ; whereupon they assigned him a portion and the god was pleased.

In the Anuśāsanaparvan (chap. 14), Kṛṣṇa is introduced as recounting the glories of Mahādeva. He says, Jāmbavati, one of his wives, expressed a desire for as good a son as Rukmini, his chief consort, had. To procure such a son he had recourse to Mahādeva, through whose favour only his wishes could be fulfilled. He then went to the Himālaya, on which Śiva lived. On the way he saw the hermitage of Upamanyu. Upamanyu

enters into a long discourse on the beneficent deeds of Mahādeva. A list is given of persons, including many Daityas, who obtained their desired objects, such as sons, weapons, powers, etc., through the favour of Mahadeva, whom they had propitiated by rigid austere practices and other ways. One of these was Śākalya, to whom was granted the boon that he would be an author and would obtain immortal glory, and his son would be the composer of Sūtras. The persons alluded to here must be the compiler of the RVS. and the author of the Pada text. Upamanyu began to practise austerities to propitiate Śiva at the instance of his mother, who, in describing the god's power and beneficence, spoke of him as dancing nakedly and of his having the quarters for his clothing (Digvāsas). In the course of his austerities, Mahadeva, to test Upamanyu's devotion, appears before him in the form of Indra, and offers him many magnificent boons, which Upamanyu refuses, and declares that he would have boons from Śaṁkara alone, and that he would become a worm or a butterfly at the command of Śaṁkara, but did not desire even the sovereignty of the three worlds given by Indra. In the course of his narrative, Upamanyu says that Mahadeva was the only god, whose organ of generation (Linga) is worshipped by men. He and Uma were the real creators of animals, as these bear the marks of the two, and not the discus or the conch-shell or marks of any other god. Eventually Siva and Uma appeared before Upamanyu, seated on a strong towering ox, attended on the one side by Brahmadeva seated on the swan, his vehicle, and on the other, by Narayana on Garuda with the conch-shell, lotus, etc., and conferred on him all the blessings he desired. At his instance Kṛṣṇa also entered on a long course of austerities, at the end of which Mahadeva with Uma appeared before him in the same manner as they did to Upamanyu. The god conferred eight boons upon him, and his consort eight more ; besides she promised him sixteen thousand wives, and altogether the number of boons he obtained was twenty-four inclusive of the birth of such a son as he wanted.

§ 88. The characteristics of Śiva, or Mahādeva, as brought out by these accounts appear to be these. He was a powerful, wrathful and impetuous god, but generous and bountiful, and

spared nothing when he was propitiated. Whenever a man conceived a desire for anything, he was the god to be appealed to for its fulfilment. He lived on the Himālaya with his wife Umā, Pārvatī, or Durgā, who had a number of other names such as Kālī, Kaṭāl, etc., and was attended by a number of beings called his Gaṅgs or hosts. His vehicle was an ox. He had, of course, all the attributes of the supreme godhead. He is represented as having betaken himself to the process of Yoga or contemplation, when he had ceased to be creative.

It will be seen that the object of worship in Śaivism is the *Linga*, or phallus. We have found no trace of this characteristic in the earlier literature, so far as we have examined it¹, and the first time we meet with it is in this passage from the *Anuśāsanaparvan*. We have had occasion in a previous section⁸ to remark that Rudra-Śiva had a close connection with stragglers in the forest, with Vratyas, or those who were not included in the Aryan community, and with the wild tribe of the Niśadas, and also that the gods of these last were amalgamated with Rudra. Rudra's partiality for serpents and his being the lord of spirits or Bhūtas, were probably due to the influence of the serpent-worship and the devilry of the savage tribes.

There are two places in the EV., in one of which Tndra is prayed to not to allow those whose god is Śisna, to disturb the rites of the singers (VII. 24. 5); and in another he is represented to have conquered the riches of a city after killing those whose god is Śisna. Here evidently those whose god was Śisna, or phallus, are meant as the enemies of the Vedic Aryas, who disturbed their holy rites. Notwithstanding all that is said about the matter, my own belief is that the persons here referred to were really some tribe of the aborigines of the country, who worshipped the phallus. Just then, as the Rudra-Śiva cult borrowed several elements from the dwellers in forests and stragglers in places out

1 I do not, however, deny the possibility that When the SŪ. in IV. 11 speaks of the god Isana as presiding over every Yoni, and in V. 2, of the lord as presiding over all forms and Yonis, an allusion to the physical fact of the *Linga* and Yoni connected together, may have been meant as typifying the philosophical doctrine of gods presiding over every creative cause.

2 (Ante, p. 149 N, B. U.]

of the way, so it may have borrowed this element of phallic worship from the barbarian tribes with whom the Aryas came in contact. This element, however, does not appear to have come in all at once, especially among the learned classes, whose beliefs are represented in the literature which we have examined.

The Linga worship had, it appears, not come into use at the time of Patañjali; for, the instance he gives under P.V. 3.99, is that of an image or likeness (Pratikṛti) of Śiva as an object of worship, and not of any emblem of that god. It seems to have been unknown even in the time of Wema-Kadphises, for, on the reverse of his coins, there is a human figure of Śiva with a trident in the hand ; and there is also an emblem, but it is Nandin or the bull, and not a Linga or phallus. But this element must have crept in early enough among ordinary people, who were in closer communication with the uncivilised tribes, and gradually made its way to the higher classes, of whose creed it subsequently became an article. And it is this final stage of its adoption by the higher classes that is represented in Upamanyu's discourse in the Mahābharata.

From all that we have brought forward from the post-Sarhhitā literature, it will appear that Rudra-Śiva was a deity whose worship was common to all Aryas, and who was not at first a sectarian god. As above remarked,¹ he was in charge of the field before the Vaiṣṇava or Vasudevic deities came in to contest his supremacy. The Grhyasūtras, which, as we have seen, give directions as to the adoration of Rudra under various circumstances, cannot be considered as belonging to any Śaiva sect. In the time of Patañjali, images of Śiva, Skanda and Viśakha, made sometimes of precious metals, were kept for common worship by certain religious persons who derived an income from them². The images of Śiva here alluded to cannot have been meant for the use of a particular sect.

1 Ante, p. 157f. [N.B.U.]

2 See his comment on P. V. 3. 99.

V. Origin and Diffusion of the Śaiva Sects and the Several Glasses of Śiva Worshippers.

§ 89. A Śaiva sect is, however, mentioned even by Patañjali. The members of it were known as Śivabhāgavatas, or devotees of Śiva, the Bhagavat. —Śiva, we have seen, is called Bhagavat in A U.—A Śivabhagavata carried in his hand an iron lance as an emblem of the deity he worshipped (under P. V. 2. 76).

In the Narayaniya section of MBh., the Paśupata is mentioned as one of five schools of religious doctrines (Śāntiparvan, chap. 349, v. 64). Śiva-Śrīkanṭha, the consort of Umā, the lord of spirits and the son of Brahmadeva, is represented to have revealed the tenets of that school (verse 67). Whether this statement is to be understood in the sense that its founder was a human being, afterwards recognised as an incarnation of Śiva, or whether it is a mere general statement like that contained in the BU. (II. 4.10) that the Rgveda, Yajurveda, etc., are the breath of this great being, meaning nothing more historically than that the system gradually came into existence, without any special individual being concerned with it, is a question somewhat difficult to answer definitely; but there is evidence in the Purāṇas and Inscriptions, of the existence of a belief in favour of the first supposition.

The Vāyu-Purāṇa (chap. 23) and the Liṅga-Purāṇa (chap. 24) represent Maheśvara to have told Brahmadeva that when, at the time of Kṛṣṇa-Dvaipāyana during the twenty-eighth repetition of the Yugas, Vāsudeva, the best of Yadus, would be born of Vasudeva, he would incarnate himself as a Brahmachārin by the name of Lakulin after entering a dead body thrown into a cemetery; the place where this would occur, would be called Kfiyavātara or Kayāvarohana, and he would have four pupils of the names of Kuśika, Garga, Mitra and Kauruṣya. These Paśupatas, with their bodies sprinkled with ashes, resorting to the Yoga of Maheśvara, would in the end go to the world of Rudra.

Now, in an Inscription in the temple of Nātha near that of Ekalingji, 14 miles to the north of Udaipur, Rajputana, it is stated that Śiva became incarnate as a man with a club (Lakula) in his hand, in the country of Bhṛgukaccha, being pro-

pitiated by Bhṛgu. Sages, Kuśika and others, conversant with **the** Pāśupata Yoga, and using ashes and wearing bark-dress and matted hair, are mentioned.

There is another Inscription, usually called the Cintra Praśasti, which states that Śiva became incarnate in the form of Bhaṭṭāraka Śrī-Lakuliśa, and dwelt at Karohaṇa in the Lāta country. There appeared in bodily form four pupils of his of the names of Kuśika, Gārgya, Kauruṣa and Maitreya for the strict performance of the Pāśupata vows, and they became originators of four branches. The date of the first Inscription is Vikrama 1028, or 971 A. D., and the second was composed between A. D. 1274 and 1296. In another Inscription dated 943 A. D., found at Hemāvati in the Sira Taluka, Mysore, Lakuliśa is represented to have been born again as Muninatha Chilluka to preserve the memory of his name and doctrines¹.

Madhava calls the Pāśupata system that he explains in his Sarvadarśanasamgraha, Nakullśa-Pāśupata, and quotes a few words from what appears to be a work attributed to him. From all this it appears that there lived a certain person, of the name of Lakulin (the holder of a Lakūṭa, or Laguḍa, or Lakula, i. e., a club) who founded a Pāśupata system. Four schools sprang out of it, and their reputed founders, whether historical or legendary, were considered his pupils. Lakulin is **the** same as Nakulin, and the fact that his rise has been represented by the Puraṇas to be contemporaneous with VSudeva-Kṛṣṇa, points to the inference that traditionally the system was intended to take the same place in the Rudra-Śiva cult that the Pancaratra did in the Vasudeva-Kṛṣṇa cult. We may, therefore, place the **rise** of the Pāśupata school mentioned in the Narayaniya about a century after that of the Pancaratra system, i. e., about the second Century B. C.

90. Before we proceed further, we will notice the extent of the diffusion of the creed. At the end of the commentary on the Vaiśeṣikasūtras, the author Praśastapāda makes his obeisance to Kaṇāda, the author of the Sūtras, and characterises him as having composed the Vaiśeṣikaśāstra after propitiating Maheśvara by the

i See JBBRAS, Vol. XXII, pp. 151-153.

greatness of his Yoga (meditation or concentration), and Acāra (practice). These two ways are common to both the Pāsupata and Śaiva systems, as will be seen hereafter, and Kaṇāda, therefore, may have been a follower of the Pāsupata or Śaiva system. Bhāradvāja, the author of the Uddyota, or a gloss on Vātsyāyana's Nyāyabhāṣya, is called Pāsupatācārya, or a teacher belonging to the Pāsupata school, at the end of his work.

Wema Kadphises, a powerful prince of the Kuṣana race, who ruled over a large part of Northwestern India about the middle of the third century A. D., styles himself on the reverse of his coins a devotee of Maheśvara or a member of the Maheśvara sect, and an image of Nandin and another of Śiva with a trident in his hand occur on the obverse. Varāhamihira in the latter part of the sixth century, lays down the rule that the priests to be employed for the installation of an image of Śambhu, should be Brāhmaṇas besmearing their bodies with ashes. By these he means members of a Śaiva sect, since, in the case of other gods, the names mentioned are those of the sects founded in the names of those gods.

Haribhadra, an old Jaina author, speaks in his Śaḍdarśana-samuccaya, of the schools of Gotama and Kaṇāda as professing the Śaiva faith. But his commentator Gunaratna, (who flourished in the latter part of the fourteenth century)¹, calls the Vaiśeṣikas Pāsupatas and the other school Śaivas. This last must be a mistake, since Bhāradvāja of the Nyāya school is specifically spoken of as a Pāsupatācārya, as we have seen.

The Chinese traveller Hiuen-Tsiang in the middle of the seventh century mentions the Pāsupatas twelve times in his book. In some places he says that there were temples of Maheśvara at which the Pāsupatas worshipped; in one or two temples, he says that they resided. And at Benares he found about ten thousand sectaries who honoured Maheśvara, besmeared their bodies with ashes, went naked and tied their hair in knots. These and those who lived in temples must have been like the Bairāgis, or ascetics, of modern times, who had given up the world ; but probably the others mentioned by him were the

1 Ind. Ant. Vol XI, pp. 255-256.

followers of the Pāśupata faith who lived the ordinary life of householders.

In the copper-plate charter of Nāgavardhana, nephew of Pulakeśin II of Mahārāṣṭra, who ascended the throne in 610 A. D., and was living in 639 A. D., a grant is recorded of a village near Igatpuri in the Nasik District for the worship of the god Kāpāleśvara i. e., the lord of the wearers of garlands of skulls, and for the maintenance of the Mahāvratins residing in the temple. It will hereafter be shown that the name Mahāvratin, or observer of the great vow designated the Kāpālikas or Kālāmukhas. Thus there is evidence of the existence in the middle of the seventh century of the sect of Kapālikas in Mahārāṣṭra.¹

In the Karhaḍ grant of Kṛṣṇa I I I of the Rāstrakūṭa dynasty, the king mentions his having granted in Śaka 880 (=958 A. D.), a village to Gaganasīva, the practiser of great austerities, who was fully versed in all the Śivasiddhāntas and was the pupil of Isanasīva, who was an Acarya, or preceptor, and the head of the establishment at Valkaleśvara in Karahāṭa. These holy men and their establishment seem to have belonged to the Śaiva sect and not to the Pāśupata. The evidence for the existence of Kālāmukha and Śaiva sects in Mysore, in the latter part of the twelfth century, will be given in the next section.

Here it seems necessary to make another distinction. Bāṇa in the Kādambarī represents Pāśupatas with red clothing to have been among those who waited to see Tārāpīḍa's minister Śukanāsa at the door of his house for some private purposes of their own; but in another place he represents Vilāsavati, the queen of Tārāpīḍa, to have gone to the temple of Mahākāla on the fourteenth (of the dark half of the month) to worship the god. Bhavabhūti in the Mālātīmādhava (Act I I I) represents Malati to have gone with her mother to the temple of Saṁkara on the fourteenth of the dark half of the month. This fourteenth day still continues to be sacred to Śiva when special worship is performed. Now Vilāsavati and Mālātī and her mother can hardly have been meant to be members of that sect, some followers of which with a red clothing were waiting at Śukanāsa's door. It, therefore, appears to be clear that all worshippers of Śiva were not members of any of those

sects the names of which have come down to us, as observed in a previous section.

Rudra-Śiva had gradually from the earliest times grown to be a god commonly worshipped by the Indians, and he has continued to be their ordinary god to this day. The sects that subsequently arose were based upon specific methods of redemption, when religious and philosophic thought was advancing or perhaps declining, but the old god was resorted to by ordinary people without reference to them. And it must be remarked that those sects must have had a clerical or ascetic class as well as a class of lay followers or householders—and probably in some cases at least Hiuen Tsiang means these last by his Pāśupatas—and a class of Śaiva religious men, as distinct from lay followers, existed in Karahaṭṭa as we have noticed.

There were thus three classes of Śiva worshippers :—(1) clericals or ascetics, (2) their lay followers, and (3) ordinary people who had no particular connection with any sect. The poets Kālidāsa, Subandhu, Baṇa, Śrī-Harsa, Bhaṭṭa-Nārāyaṇa, Bhavabhūti and several others adore Śiva at the beginning of their works. They may have been the lay followers of any of the sects, but, in all likelihood, they belong to the third class. For of these Subandhu, Baṇa and Bhaṭṭa-Nārāyaṇa invoke Hari or another form of Viṣṇu at the same time, thus showing that they were not exclusive adherents of one of the two gods. The many temples of Śiva constructed by the early Cālukyas and the Rāṣṭrakūṭas, and the Kailāsa and other cave temples at Ellora excavated by the latter, contain no indication of their being intended for a specific Śaiva sect, and therefore they may be regarded as pointing to the diffusion of the general worship of Śiva in Mahārāṣṭra from the seventh to the tenth century.

VI. Names and Doctrines of the Śaiva Sects.

§ 91. The older Śaiva sects had and have a literature of their own, the so called Agamas attributed to Śiva himself, and a number of works by human authors. But the literature has not yet been published nor even discovered. I have, therefore, necessarily to resort to the stray notices about the sects and their

doctrines, contained in works not written by the followers of the systems except in one case. With the more modern sects the case is different, their literature having recently become available.

Śaṅkara says that the Mahēśvaras maintain that Paśupati has revealed five topics (Br. S. II. 2. 37). Thus the sects were known by the general name of Māheśvara, and Paśupati, or the god Śiva, was believed to be their founder. Rāmānuja under the same Sūtra, which, however, is numbered 35, speaks of the systems as the tenets of Paśupati. Keśava Kāśmīrin calls the sects the followers of the "tenets of Paśupati." Śrīkaṇṭha-Śivacarya calls them the "believers in the Agamas revealed by Paramēśvara, or the great god". The name Mahēśvara is the old name as is evident from the fact that Wema-Kadphises, as noticed above, and several later princes, especially of the Valabhl dynasty, called themselves Mahēśvaras. Hiuen Tsiang, too, as we have seen, mentions temples of Mahēśvara, at which the Paśupatas worshipped. It also follows that all these sects were at the same time known by the name of Paśupata sects; and the founder of them all was believed to be the god Paśupati.

The same conclusion is to be deduced from the Mysore Inscriptions that have been published, the only difference being that the original teacher is called Lakulin or Lakullśa. In one Inscription dated 943 A. D., referred to above, it is stated that Lakullśa, being afraid that his name and doctrines would be forgotten, became incarnate as Muninātha Cilluka.¹ This appears to be a general name applicable to all systems. In another dated 1078 A. D. one ascetic is called an ornament to the Lakula school and another is spoken of as "a hand to Lakula"*. This appears to be the general name and does not point to a specific sect. In a third dated 1103 A. D. Somēśvara-Sūri is spoken of as having caused the Lakula doctrine (Siddhanta) to bloom. He is called a Naiyayika and Vaiśeṣika¹. This shows

1 Ep. Carn. Vol. XII, p. 02 (Translation).

2 Ep. Carn. Vol. VII, Sikarpur Taluq No. 107.

that he belonged to the specific Paśupata sect. In a fourth dated 1177 A. D. certain ascetics are called upholders of the Lakulagamasamaya, i. e., the system based upon a work of Lakulin, and adherents of Kalamukhas.* Here evidently the Kalamukhas are called Lakuias, which is the same as Pasupatas. The names of the ascetics mentioned in this Inscription end in the word sakti and jlya, which appear to be characteristic of the Kalamukha sect. In a fifth dated 1183 A. D. is noticed a grant to Nagasiva-Pandita, who is called an upholder of the Lakula system, and the names of his preceptors in the two preceding generations end in the suffix siva. Nagasiva is praised for eminence in Agama and in Sivatattva. From the ending suffix siva in these names and the mention of a proficiency in Agama and in Sivatattva, it appears that Nagasiva was a follower of the Saiva school and at the same time he was a Lakula, or Pasupata. A sixth dated 1199 A. D. notices a grant of land to Bammadeva, son of Nagarasi, the promoter of the system based upon the work of Lakulin⁴. The suffix rasi is found in a great many names of the devotees of Siva. Whether it is a characteristic of a specific sect is not clear, but it appears that the bearers of it belong to the Pasupata, or the Kalamukha school. In a seventh dated 1215 A. D. a certain religious man is represented as the upholder of the system known by the name of Vagi-Lakula, i. e. the system

1 Ep. Carn. Vol. VII, Pt. I, p. 64 (Translation).

2 Ep. Carn. Vol. V, Pt. I, p. 135 (Translation).

3 Ep. Carn. Vol V, Arsikere Taluq No. 89. Another holy person of the name of Naga with the suffix rasi instead of siva is mentioned in Inscr. No. 69 Arsikere Taluq (Ep. Carn. Vol. V, p. 137). A grant is therein recorded to Madhajiya, a disciple of Nagarasi, who belonged to the Kalamukhas and was himself the disciple of Padmasiva-Pandita. Another Nagarasi is mentioned in Inscr. No. 48 (Ibid). The grantee in this case is Kalyanasakti, disciple of Śivasaktideva, who was himself the disciple of Nagarasi, "bound to the Kalamukhas". This Nagarasi, or these two Nagarasis, appear to me to be different from the Nagasiva mentioned in the text. And the use of the termination rasi in his case, he being a Kalamukha, and of the word sakti in the case of two of the pupils, strengthens my supposition that these were characteristic of the Kalamukha sect, the former being applicable to the Pasupata also,

4 Ep. Carn. Vol. V, Arsikere Taluq No. 103,

of the learned Lakulin¹. In an eighth dated 1285 A. D. the grantor is called a supporter of the new system of Lakulin². This perhaps refers to the later school of Liṅgayatas.

Thus it will be seen that Lakula was the general name by which the Śaiva sects were called, and the specific name Kalamukha is associated with the general name in one case. This general name has for its basis the historical fact, noticed above, that a person of the name of Lakulin or Lakullśa founded a Śaiva system corresponding to the Pāñcarātra system, which the Vayu- and Linga- Puranas consider to be contemporaneous with it. The other general name Paśupata arose by dropping the name of the human individual Lakulin and substituting that of the god Paśupati, whose incarnation he was believed to be, as is done in the texts of the MBh. quoted above. But that the Śaiva system had a human founder is confirmed by the fact that the name of his work, the Pāñcādhyāyī, or Pāñcarthavidyā, has been handed down, as will be shown immediately below, and probably the work is extant, even if it has not yet been discovered, as Maḍhava mentions a gloss on the perpetual commentary (Bhāṣya) on it, which also will be noticed below. The conclusion therefore appears to be that a certain historical person was the founder of the main Śaiva system which was the same as that explained by Maḍhava as Nakullśa-Pāśupata, and that three other systems arose out of it in later times.

The commentators of Śaṃkara state that there were four of these schools bearing the names of Śaiva, Paśupata, Kārukasiddhāntin and Kāpālika. Vācaspati, however, calls the third Karuṇikasiddhāntin. Rāmānuja and Keśava Kāśmīrin mention the same four schools, but call Kārukasiddhāntin by the name of Kalamukha. The word Kāruka is probably a corruption of Kauruṣya, the name of the third of the four (according to the Puranas) pupils of Lakulīśa, or this last name may be the Sanskritised form of the original Kāruka³. A work of the name of

1 Ep. Carn. Vol. V, Arsikere Taluq No. 46.

2 Ep. Carn. Vol. XII, p. 45 (Translation).

3 These four schools are mentioned in the Vayaviyaśamhitā* of the Śiva-Purana (II. 24,177). The Śaiva school, however, is called Siddhantamarga and the Kalamukbas are called Mahavratadharas-

Pancadhyayi, dealing with the five topics alluded to above and attributed to Paśupati, is mentioned by Kesava Kasmirin and is quoted by Ramananda on Kaslkhanda¹. This must be same work as that which is quoted from by Madhava in the section on Nakullsa-Paśupata and attributed by him to Nakullsa or Lakulisa.

VII. The Pāśupata System,

§ 92, The five topics mentioned by Śarhṅkara and explained by his commentators are these (1) Kārya, or effect, which is Mahat and the rest produced from Pradhāna; (2) Kāraṇa, or the cause which is Isvara or Mahesvara and also Pradhana; (3) Yoga, which is absorption in meditation or the muttering of the syllable Om, contemplation, concentration, etc.; (4) Vidhi, bathing (in ashes) at the three points of time, i. e., the beginning, the middle and the end of the day, and the rest up to Gudhacarya, i. e. incognito movement; (5) Duhkhanta, which is final deliverance. This is amplified by Madhava in the section on the Pāśupata sect.

I. Effect (Karya) is that which is not independent. It is of three kinds : (1) cognition (Vidyā), (2) organs (Kālā), and (3) individual soul (Paśu). Of these cognition is the property of the individual and is of two kinds: (1) external, and (2) internal. External cognition is of two kinds: (1) distinct, and (2) indistinct. Distinct external cognition, which is educed by the instruments of knowledge, is called conceptual operation (Citta). For by the conceptual operation every man reduces to definiteness the thing;

1 See Aufrecht's Cat. Cat. The Vayaviya Samhita (II, 24, 169) also mentions this work, which it characterises as the highest theosophy (Vidya) of Siva and gives Pancartha as its name, i. e., Pancarthavidya. This Pancartha appears to be alluded to by Madhava when he refers his leader to the Pancarthabhasyadlpika in his section on Nakulisa-Paśupata. In an Inscription in the temple of Harṣanath, which exists in the Sīkar principality of the Jaipur state, a person of the name of Viśvarupa is mentioned as the teacher of the Pancartha-Lakulamnaya, i. e., the sacred book of Lakulin, called Pancartha. The Inscription is dated V, E. 1013= A. D. 957, so that there can be on question that the Pāśupata system was attributed to a human author named Lakulin, the work composed by him being called Pancartha Ep. Ind. II. p. 122).

The occurrence of the names of the schools and of this book in the Puriṇa shows that its composition was later than the foundation of the schools, which, therefore, must be considered as owing nothing to it.

that has been apprehended definitely or indefinitely by the aid of the light in the shape of the external object. The internal cognition is of the nature of Virtue or vice, which forms the objective of the individual and determines for him the body of precepts he has to follow. Organs are dependent on the cognitive individual and are themselves insensate. They are of two kinds : (1) effects, and (2) causes. The effected organs are of ten kinds: the five elements, earth and others, and the five qualities, colour and others. The organs, which are causes, are of thirteen kinds: the five senses, and the five organs of action, and the three internal organs, viz. intelligence, egoism and mind, the functions of which are the determination of the will, the consciousness of the self, and the formation of a plan respectively. The individual (Paśu) is that which has individualism (Paśutva). It is of two kinds: (1) impure, and (2) pure. The impure individual is that which is connected with the body and the organs, while the pure one is unconnected with them. The details should be seen in the *Pancarthabhasyadipika* and other works.

II. The cause (Karana) is that which effects the destruction of the whole creation and its prosperity or promotion. Though it is one, still on account of its various properties and functions it has many forms, such as lord (Pati), naturally powerful (Sadya), etc. To be the lord means to have the unbounded power of knowing and acting. He is, therefore, the eternal ruler. To be a Sftdya is to be possessed of supreme sovereignty, which is not incidental, but natural.

III. Yoga is the connecting of the individual soul with god through the conceptual faculty (Citta). It is of two kinds, consisting in (1) action, and (2) cessation from action. The first consists in muttering syllables and formulas, meditation, etc. The second, or cessation from action, consists in mere feeling (Samvid).

IV. Vidhi, or process, is an operation which effects or brings about righteousness. It is of two kinds: (1) primary, and (2) secondary. The first, or primary, is conduct (Carya) which induces righteousness directly. That conduct is of two kinds: (1) vows, and (2) means or doors. The vows consist in besmearing

the body with ashes and lying down in ashes, definite practices (Upahāra), muttering and circum ambulation. Thus has Nakullśa said: " One should besprinkle one's body at the three points of the day and lie down in ashes. " The definite practices are six. These have been stated by the author of the Sūtras to be laughing, singing, dancing, Huḍukkara, prostration, and inaudible repetition. With these he says one should worship. Laughing is the making of the sound ' ha! ha! ha i ' by the forcible stretch of the throat and the lips. Singing is the contemplation of the attributes of Maheśvara in accordance with the rules of the science of music. Dancing should be resorted to by contracting and stretching forth hands, feet, etc. and all other principal and subsidiary limbs accompanied by the representation of feeling in accordance with the science of dancing and gesticulation. Huḍukkara is a holy sound resembling that of an ox made by striking the tongue on the palate. Huḍuk is an imitative sound like the sacrificial Vaṣaṭ. When there is a crowd of people, all this should be done so as not to be observed.

The means, or doors, are these : (1) Krathana, i. e. affecting to be asleep when one is awake; (2) Spandana, which is the moving or the shaking of the limbs as if they were paralysed ; (3) Maṇḍana, or the walking as if one's legs and other limbs were disabled; (4) Śṛṅgarāṇa, which is showing oneself to be in love by means of amorous gestures as if on seeing a beautiful young woman; (5) Avitatkarāṇa, which is doing a thing condemned by all as if one were devoid of the sense of discrimination between what should be done and what should be avoided; (6) Avitad-bhāṣaṇa, which is speaking nonsensical and absurd things.

Secondary processes are those which are intended to help the conduct (Caryā), such as besmearing with ashes after worship, and to remove the sense of indecency or impropriety attaching itself to begging and eating the remnant of what others have eaten. For this purpose the author of the Sūtras has laid down that one should besmear his body after the worship and wear the faded flowers and leaves which had been removed from the god and a Linga (the image of the phallus).

V. Duhkhanta, or final deliverance, is of two kinds : (1) total

destruction of misery, and (2) an elevated condition consisting in the possession of the power of knowing and acting. The power of knowing is of five kinds : (1) *Dārsana*, or seeing all objects which are atomic, concealed or are at a distance, and touching them; (2) *Śravaṇa*, or the miraculous hearing of all sounds ; (3) *Manana*, or the miraculous knowing of all objects of thought; (4) *Vijñāna*, or the miraculous knowledge of all the sciences with that of the treatises on them and the matter contained in these last; and (5) *Sarvajñatva*, or the miraculous knowledge of the principles (of a science), whether mentioned or unmentioned, succinct and detailed, with their divisions and peculiarities. The peculiarities of the present system are such as these: In other systems the destruction of misery is final deliverance; in this system the attainment of the highest powers is also to be added. With others, that which comes into existence from non-existence is an effect; here the effect is eternal such as *Ātman*, or the individual soul. In other systems the cause depends for its operation on a subordinate cause ; here the great lord acts independently. With others, the fruit of the Yoga, or concentration, is the attainment of an absolute condition; here it is the attainment of the highest powers. With others *Vidhi*, or process, has for its fruit heaven and other places, from which there is a return to mortal life; in this system the fruit is proximity etc. (to god), from which there is no return.

The power of acting, though one, is regarded as threefold: (1) *Manojavitva*, or the power of doing anything instantly; (2) *kamarūpitva*, or the power of assuming variety of shapes and forms or bodies and senses without an effort; (3) *Vikramaṇa-dharmitva*, of the possession of great power, even when the operation of the senses is suspended. Thus then a man acquires these miraculous powers of knowledge and action at the end of a long course of conduct and discipline prescribed by the *Pasupata* system.

It will be seen how fantastic and wild the processes prescribed in this system for the attainment of the highest condition are. Rudra-Śiva was the god of the open fields and wild and awful regions away from the habitations of men and worshipped by

aberrant or irregular people. This character did impress itself on the mode of worship for his propitiation, which was developed in later times. The ŚU. endeavoured to humanise Rudra-Śiva; but the wild and outlandish character of the god prevailed. We will now proceed to the consideration of the Śaiva system which seems to have been established in later times. Here also Madhava will be our main guide, since the many works that he quotes from are not available.

VIII. The Śaiva System.

§ 93. There are three principles : (1) the lord (Pati), (2) the individual soul (Pāśu), and (3) fetters (Pāśa); and the whole system has four Padas, or parts, which are knowledge (Vidya), action (Kriyā), meditation (Yoga), and conduct, or discipline (Caryā). The first part contains an explanation of the nature of the individual soul (Pāśu), fetters (Pāśa), and god (Iśvara), and determines the importance of formulas (Mantra) and the lord presiding over the formulas (Mantreśvara). This leads to initiation (Dikṣa), which is necessary for the acquisition of the highest object of life. The second part contains an explanation of the process of initiation (Dikṣavidhi), which is of many forms and has many parts. The third part explains meditation, or concentration, along with its subsidiary processes. The fourth teaches discipline, or conduct, consisting in doing what is prescribed and avoiding what is proscribed. Without this Yoga is not possible.

I. Now the lord (Pati) is Śiva. Śiva acts, being impelled thereto by the deeds (Karman) of souls, and produces things to be enjoyed or suffered and their means. The exercise of his creative power thus depends on the Karman of man. He does everything; therefore, he is omniscient. God has not a body like that of an individual soul which has the fetters of taint and Karman, etc.; but he has a body made up of powers, certain specific five formulas (Mantras)¹ being imagined to be the

1 These five formulas, or Mantras, are contained in the TA. (X, 43-47) and in the Mahanarayaniya Up. 17. The commentator considers these to refer to the five faces of Śiva, respectively. They are Sadyojata, Vama-deva, Aghora, Tatpuruṣa and Isana. They are also called forms of Śiva* One of the Danas, or charitable gifts, mentioned by Hemadri (Danakhanda

different parts of his body. These five are his powers and are also considered his different forms, and by these he does the five actions, which are creation, existence or protection, destruction, concealment, and benefaction. The following four partake of the nature of Śiva: (1) formulas (Mantras), (2) the deity presiding over the formulas (Mantreavara), (3) the great god (Mahēśvara), and (4) delivered souls (Mukta).

I I . The Pāśu is the individual soul, who is atomic and known by the name of Ksetrajña (self-conscious) and others. It is eternal and all-pervading. It is not incapable of action nor is it one only, as is maintained by other schools of philosophy. When the fetters are removed, he becomes Śiva, possessing eternal and boundless knowledge and power of action. The Muktas, or delivered ones, are Śivas, who have so become by the favour of him who is eternally Mukta, and is a person with five formulas (Mantras) for his body, i. e. he is identified with the god Śiva himself. Though they become Śivas, they are not independent but depend upon the eternal god, Śiva. Pāśu is of three kinds : (1) Vijñanakala, who has shaken off his connection with all the organs (Kalaḥ)¹ in consequence of the destruction of the impression of deeds done, by means of knowledge, meditation, asceticism, or by the enjoyment or suffering of the fruit (Bhoga), and has simple taint (Mala). The second is Pralayaḥkala, whose organs are destroyed by the dissolution of the world. He has both impression of deeds (Karman) and taints (Mala). The third is Sakala, who has all the three fetters, taint (Mala), impression of deeds (Karman), and material cause (Māya). Viññanakala is of two kinds: (1) one whose taint (Kaluṣa) has ended, and (2) another whose taint (Kaluṣa) has not ended. The first are those, who, their taint (Kaluṣa) having ended, are elevated to the position of Vidyēśvaras. The Vidyēśvaras are eight and are as follows: (1) Ananta, or endless, (2) atomic, (3) the most excellent Śiva, (4)

Vol I, pp. 789-792 Bibl. Ind.) consists of five images made of gold or other metal fashioned in a particular manner of these five forms of Śiva« In giving each a certain verse has to be repeated. These five forms are identified in a Śaiva treatise with the earth, water, fire, wind and ether, respectively, and they are considered as the creators of these elements in another, viz., Vira-śaiva-Cintamani, Sholapur 1908 A. D.

1. See previous section.

the one-eyed, (5) the one Rudra, (6) he with the three forms, (7) Śrikantha, and (8) Śikhandin. Another author says that Śiva invests the Samāptakaluṣa (one whose taint has ended) with Vidyasatva, which is of eight kinds, and the Asamaptakaluṣa (one whose taint has not ended) he raises to the dignity of fomulas (Mantras) which are seven crores. Pralayakala is also of two kinds. The first is one whose two fetters have matured (and about to be shaken off), and the second is different from him. The first attains Mokṣa, and the second, entangled with Puryaṣṭaka, undergoes many births in accordance with his impressin of deeds (Karman). The Puryaṣṭaka is a subtle body, wich is composed of elements whioh are variously enumerated. Of those who have the Puryaṣṭaka, some, who are virtuous, are raised to Bhūyana-patitva by Mahesvara Ananta. Sakala is also of two kinds : (1) one whose taint (Kalusa) is matured, and (2) one whose taint (Kalusa) is not matured. The first is raised to the dignity of Mantresvara of 118 Mantras, i. e. of so many kinds. Paramesvara, assuming the form of his preceptor by the process of initiation and the use of power calculated to counteract the matured taint, confers Mokṣa. Those Anus or atomic souls, whose taint has not ripened (i. e. is not in a condition to be wiped away), are made to suffer or enjoy in accordance with their Karman.

III. Pasa (fetter) is of four kinds: (1) Mala, or taint (2) Karman, or the impression of deeds, (3) Māyā, or material cause, and (4) Rodhaśakti, or obstructive power. Mala, or taint, is that which conceals the knowing and acting power of the soul and is like the husk enveloping a grain of rice. Karman is the impression of deeds done for the attainment of fruit. It is righteous or un-righteous. It is unbeginning, ever continuing in succesion in the manner of seed and its sprout. Māyā is that into which the whole creation resolves itself at the time of dissolution and from which it springs out at the time of recreation. The obstructive power is the power of siva which, because it regulates the three other fetters and conceals the true nature of the soul, is itself called a fetter. It performs its function, because it is the principle of speech by means of which names are given to things and thus their nature is determined.¹

1. Śambhudeva's Śaivasiddhantadipika, Sholapur 1909.

§ 94. This constitutes the first part of the system (Vidyapada), the nature of the other three parts has been succinctly given above. A few details are these ¹: The second part (Kriyapada) treats of the accomplishment of Mantra, the twilight adorations, worship, muttering of formulas (Japa), throwing oblations into the fire, occasional ceremonies for the attainment of eternal bliss, anointing of the preceptor and of the person entering on a course of action for final emancipation (Sadhaka), and one's own initiatory ceremonies necessary to fit one for a wordly and for an eternal life. In the third, or the Yoga part are mentioned the thirty-six principles; the deities presiding over them; the lords of the different worlds; the individual soul; the all-ruling soul; the power (sakti); the direct perception of Maya and Mahamaya, which are the causes of the world; the attainment of the miraculous powers, minuteness, lightness, etc. for those who concern themselves with the worldly element; the methods of the restraint of the breath, abstraction, meditation, concentration, and absorption in thought (Samadhi); and the positions of the circles in the body beginning with the root-circle (Muladhara, or navel). The fourth part treats of penances, a purificatory ceremony (Pavitraprana), the foundation, and the natures of Sivalinga, of the visible Lihga of Uma and Mahesvara, and of the lord of Ganas, or groups, such as Skanda and Nandin, of the rosary used for the muttering of formulas, and the funeral Sraddhas. This last part appears to contain matters subsidiary to, and explanatory of, the actions enjoined in the second part. The proscribed actions mentioned above are : (1) the eating of the residue of what is offered to another deity; (2) the vilification of (a) Siva, (b) of the devotees of Siva, (c) of the system of Siva and (d) of the practices enjoined in the Saiva system; (3) the enjoyment of things belonging to God j (4) the killing of animals.

§ 95. The doctrines of the Saiva school are more moderate and rational than those of the Pāsupata school. This last, as well as the two extreme schools to be mentioned next, are called Atimārgika, or schools that are away from the path or go astray, and are spoken of by Sarhbhūdeva, quoted in the above paragraph, as revealed by Rudra. The Saiva schools he calls the Siddhantaśāstra, or the true

X, From the same work.

sastra based upon the Mantras, and says that it was revealed by Śiva. The Vayavīyasamhita also calls it the Siddhānta school.

It will have been seen that both this and the Pāśupata school are dualistic or pluralistic and maintain that the supreme and individual souls are distinct entities and the Pradhāna the constituent cause of the material world. In the delivered condition the individual soul shakes off its ignorance and weakness and attains boundless knowledge and power of action according to the Pāśupata doctrine, while the Śaivas hold that he becomes Śiva himself, i. e. attains perfect resemblance with the God Śiva without, however, the power of creation.

The Śaiva school, that developed itself in later times, and is represented by Sambhudeva and Śrīkaṇṭhasivācārya, to be noticed hereafter, and supported also by texts in the Vāyavyasamhitā, holds that Śiva possesses or develops in himself a Śakti, or power, consisting of the rudiments of the individual soul and the material world, and from this power the whole world is developed. This doctrine may, therefore, be called qualified spiritual monism like that of Rāmānuja, in-as-much as Śiva characterised by the Śakti creates. This last is a tenet of the Liṅgāyatantra school also.

IX. Kapala and Kalamukha Sects.

§ 96. Rāmānuja tells us under II. 2. 35 or 36 that the Kāpālikas maintain that a man who knows the essence of the six marks (Mudrikā) and who is skilful in their use, attains the highest bliss by concentrating his mind on the soul seated on the female organ. The six marks are (1) a necklace, (2) an ornament, (3) an ear-ornament, (4) a crest jewel, (5) ashes, and (6) the sacred thread (Yajnopavita). He whose body bears these marks is free from transmigration. The Kālamukhas hold that the following are the means for the attainment of desires concerning this world and the next:— (1) eating food in a skull; (2) besmearing the body with the ashes of a dead body; (3) eating the ashes; (4) holding a club; (5) keeping a pot of wine; and (6) worshipping the god as seated therein. A bracelet of Rudrākṣa, one string of matted hair on the head, a skull, besmearing the body with ashes, and such other things are mentioned in the Śaiva

sacred books. They also maintain that people of other castes become Brahmanas and attain to the highest order by the performance of certain rites. For it is said " One becomes a Brahmana immediately after the process of simple initiation, and a man becomes a holy saint by undertaking the vow of a Kapala".

In the Śaṅkaradigvijaya (chap. XV, vv. 1-28) Mādhava brings Śaṅkara into contact with the Kapalikas at a place which, according to the commentator, was Ujjayini. The preceptor of the sect came forward to meet Śaṅkara. His body was besmeared with the ashes taken from a burning-ground. He had a skull in his hand and also an iron lance. He said to Śaṅkara : " The ashes on your body are all right¹. But why dost thou carry an unholy potsherd instead of the holy skull ? Why dost thou not worship Kapālin who is Bhairava ? How will Bhairava become pleased unless he is worshipped by the skulls red with the blood of men and with wine?" Then ensues a fight between Sudhanvan, the king, who accompanied Śaṅkara in his wanderings and the Kapalikas. Śaṅkara also pronounced a curse on them, and they were all killed. Then Krakaca, the leader of the Kapalikas, coming up to Śaṅkara, filled the skull in his hand with wine, drank half of it and left the other half and invoked Bhairava. Bhairava came up and Krakaca prayed to him to destroy his enemy; but as Śaṅkara was his own incarnation, he destroyed Krakaca himself and not Śaṅkara. In Anandagiri's book the Kapalikas, whom Śaṅkara meets at Ujjayini, speak of Bhairava being the great god, who creates, destroys, etc. They profess to have their knowing power sharpened by drinking wine and eating a certain kind of food (probably a disgusting substance) and always being embraced by the power (Śakti) of Kapalin, i. e. Bhairava. Bhavabhūti in his *Malatīmadhava* gives Śrīsaṅga as the principal seat of the Kapalikas. Miraculous powers of speedy movement attained by the practice of Yoga are attributed to them. The woman Kapalakundala wears a garland of human skulls, She carries away Malati, the heroine of the play, from the place where she was sleeping in her father's palace in the dead of night and places her before the image of Karala-Camuṇḍa

¹ Lines of ashes are borne on the body by ordinary Śaivas also, and Śaṅkara's body was marked with them,

near the cemetery to be killed and sacrificed to the goddess by her preceptor Aghoraghanta.

It will be seen how horrible and demoniacal this sect was. The fear which some of the phenomena of external nature inspire in the mind of man led to the Vedic conception of Rudra, and this has now culminated into the ideal image of the horrid god Bhairava with his wife Caṇḍika wearing a garland of human skulls and requiring human sacrifices and offerings of wine for his propitiation. In the account just given there appears to be a confusion between the sects of Kapalikas and Kalamukhas. From Rāmānuja's account the Kalamukhas appear to be the most extreme sect; and they are called Mahavratadharas in the Śiva-Purāṇa as noticed above. Mahāvṛata means the great vow, and the greatness of the vow consists in its extraordinary nature, such as eating food placed in a human skull, besmearing the body with the ashes of human carcasses and others which are attributed to the Kalamukhas by Ramanuja. Jagaddhara, the commentator on the Malatīmadhava, however, explains Kapalikavṛata by Mahāvṛata¹, and this explanation appears to be correct, since the ascetics dwelling in the temple of Kapalesvara in the Nasik district are, as we have seen, called in the grant Mahavratins, or the observers of the great vow. The account of Kapalikas given above from other authorities looks like those of the most extreme sect. Ordinarily, therefore, people do not seem to have made a sharp distinction between the Kapalikas and the Kalamukhas.

X. Kashmir Śaivism.

97. It is a relief now to turn away from this ghastly picture of the wild aberrations of the human intellect and spirit to a system of Śaivism more humane and rational. The Kashmir Śaivism has two branches, the Spandasastra and the Pratyabhijñasastra. The authorship of the first is attributed to Vasugupta and his pupil Kallaṭa. The two principal works of the system are the Śivasūtram or Śivasūtrāṇi and the Spandakarikās which are fifty-one verses only. The first are said to have been revealed

1 Act I, p. 33, on l. 127 of my second edition of the play.

to, Vaṣugupta by Śiva himself or by a Siddha, or perfected human being. They were inscribed on a rock on the Mahādeva hill, and Vasugupta was directed to the rock by Śiva. Another account is that they were revealed by the god in a dream, and another account still further confers the credit of the revelation on the perfected human being. These two last occurrences are said to have taken place on the Mahādeva hill. As to the second work, there are also varying traditions, one ascribing the authorship of the verses to Vaṣugupta and another to Kallata. A third tradition, however, that Kallata obtained the knowledge of the system from Vasugupta and composed the Spandakārikās for the instruction of his pupils seems to contain the truth.¹ What the meaning of the roundabout tradition about the Śivasūtras which do not ascribe their authorship to Vasugupta directly is, it is difficult to say; perhaps the original work was the Spandakārikās and the prose Śivasūtras were composed in later times in the older or more orthodox form, and as Vasugupta was probably too near the time when they were composed and as what he did was known to all, a miraculous origin was given to the new Sūtras and Vasugupta was represented to have received them from others and not composed them himself.

98. Kallata lived in the reign of Avantivarman², 854 A. D., wherefore his Guru's literary activity must be referred to the beginning of the ninth century. The followers of this school boldly deny the necessity of God's having a prompting cause, such as Karman, or a material cause, like the Pradhāna, for the creation of the world. Neither do they admit that he is himself the material cause, as the Vedāntasūtras maintain, nor do they think that some principle; of illusion, such as Maya, generates appearances which are false. God is according to them independent and creates merely by the force of his will all that comes into existence. He makes the world appear in himself, as if it were distinct from himself, though not so really, as houses or even towns appear in a mirror, and is as unaffected by it as the mirror is by

1 For these various traditions see my Report on the Search for Sanskrit Manuscripts during 188a—84, p. 77f. [=Volume II of this Edition p 199f N.B.U.]

2 Buhler, Report of a Tour made in Kashmir, p 78.

the images reflected in it. Neither does he exist only as realised in the world, which is the conclusion that follows from the doctrine that he is the material cause. In a verse attributed to Vasugupta an obeisance is made to Śulin, or Śiva, who is represented as portraying a picture of the world without a canvass and a collection of materials.¹

Another illustration that they give of creation without any material or prompting cause is that of a Yogin who creates objects by his mere will without any materials. God himself by his own wonder-working power appears in the form of the many individual souls, and by means of another power, brings into existence the state of things which goes to form what we call the wakeful and dreamy condition of our life.² Thus according to this system the individual soul is identical with the supreme soul. But the former does not perceive this identity on account of his impurity.

This impurity, or Mala, is of three kinds. When a soul forgets his own free and universal nature through ignorance, and believes himself to be imperfect, and regards things, such as the body, which are not himself, to be himself, and thus reduces himself to finiteness or subjects himself to limitations, the impurity is called *Aṇava* (littleness). Then his remaining in the body, which is prepared by the originator of things, called *Maya*, is another species of impurity known as *Maylya*, or effected by *Maya*. And when under the influence of the internal organ, or the heart, the organs of action are set in motion, the impurity arising from it is called *Karma*, or resulting from action, such as that consisting in a man's consciousness of having done a good or evil deed which is to lead to happiness or misery in the end.³ These several kinds of impurity are brought into action by *Nada*, which is the

1 See *Madhava's Sarvadarsanasamgraha*, *Pratyabhijnadarsana*. This verse is quoted in the *Kavyaprakasa*, Chapter IV; and by other writers on *Alamkaras*.

2 See the first note on p. 80 of my Report for 1883-84 = (Volume II of this Edition, p. 203n2 N. B- U.]

3 *Śivasutravivartanini* by Ksemaraja under Sutra I, 2 and 3, published by the Kāsmira Government.

female element constituting a primeval power (Śakti) of Śiva and from which rises speech.

Without speech the ideas which render a worldly life possible cannot stand, or assume a shape or form, and therefore the principle of speech is believed to be the origin of the Mala, or impurity, which leads to a worldly life. This power is associated with others which are personalised as Amba, Jyēṣṭhā, Raudrī, Vāmā.¹

The impurity vanishes when by means of intense contemplation the vision of the highest being breaks in upon the mind of the devotee and absorbs all finite thought. When this condition becomes stable, the individual soul is free and becomes the supreme soul. The breaking in of the vision is called Bhairava, because it is his and is caused by him.⁸

§ 99. The founder of the Pratyabhijñā school of Kāśmīra Śaivism was Somānanda, the work written by whom is called Śivadīpī. But the principal treatise of the school was composed by his pupil Udayākara, and contains verses which are called Sūtras. On these Sūtras there are glosses and detailed explanations by Abhinavagupta, the pupil of the pupil of Somananda.³ Abhinavagupta wrote between 993 and 1015 A. D.,⁴ wherefore Somānanda must be taken to have lived in the first quarter of the tenth century.

The doctrines of the creation of the world and of the relations between the individual and supreme souls set forth by this school are the same as those maintained by the preceding one. But the way of the perception of the identity is recognition according to this system. There is an Upaniṣad text⁵, from which it follows that every thing shines when He shines and

1 Ibid. Sutra 4, and Spandapradīpikā, V. 42. These several kinds of Mala and Nada correspond to Paśas, or fetters, viz., Mala, Karman, Maya and Rodhasakti given by Madhava in the Śaivādarsana. The word Mala stands here for the Paśa of that system and Anava for its Mala. It is also called Anava by Śambhudeva.

2 sivasūtravimarsinī, I. 5.

3 Buhler, Report of a Tour made in Kāśmīr; extract from Nos. 465-66, p. CLX. 4 Ibid- pp. 81-82.

5 K U. 5 15 ; Ś U. 6 14 ; M U. 2, 2, 10,

that everything becomes perceptible by His light, and thus OUT knowing power is the same as God's and everything outside of us becomes an object of knowledge by his illumining power. Capable of knowledge and action as we are, we partake of the nature of God ; but there is no reason to place a limit to this participation, and it must be understood that we are God himself. But the joy and elevation, characteristic of God, we are unconscious of in our present condition, and that is due to the fact that we do not recognise that we are God, though we are really so. Just as a maiden, stricken with love for a youth whose excellences have been described to her, is not filled with raptures when she is carried to him and looks upon him as an ordinary individual, but is overjoyed and devotes her whole soul to him when she is told that he is the man whose excellences had so fascinated her, so is it with the individual soul. The serene bliss of godly nature he does not feel, though he is himself God, because he is not aware that those high attributes which belong to the divine nature exist in him. But when he is led to believe by his preceptor that he possesses them, i. e., when by his instructions he is enabled to recognise God in himself, then it is that the serene bliss dawns upon him. The Spanda school mentions the dawning of the form or vision of Bhairava, or God, on the mind in the course of meditation and thereby the clearing away of the impurities as the way to the realisation of the identity with God, while this maintains that recognition of oneself as God is the way.

According to Mādhava, these two systems do not enjoin restraint of the breath, concentration, and all that course of fantastic external and internal conduct or discipline which the other schools prescribe as essential. These two schools apparently cut themselves off from the old traditional Śaivism, which gradually developed itself into the ghastly Kāpālism or Kālāmukhism, and hence the epithet Pāśupata or Lākula cannot be applied to them in any sense. A fresh revelation, therefore, was claimed for Vasugupta, though some of the doctrines of the more sober Śaiva school were preserved in the Spanda system.

XL The Vīraśaiva or Liṅgāyat Sect.

§ 100. The foundation of this sect is generally attributed to

Basava, who was the son of Mādirāja, a Brāhmaṇa supposed to be of the Arādhya sect. His story is given in the Basavapurāṇa¹ published in 1905, at Poona. From this story it by no means follows that he founded the sect by settling its doctrines and founding what may be called a church. He, however, appears to be a strenuous supporter of the sect. In the beginning of the Basavapurāṇa, Nārada is represented to have gone to Śiva and told him that on earth there were devotees of Viṣṇu, followers of the sacrificial religion, Jainas and Buddhists, but that there were no devotees of his. He mentions Viśveśvarārādhya, Paṇḍitārādhya, Ekorāma, the great Yogin, and others as having flourished from time to time and established Śivabhakti, but there is none now. Śiva thereupon told his Nandin to become incarnate on earth for the promotion of his religion and the furtherance of the cause of Vraśaivas.

From all this it does not appear that Basava was the originator of the sect. He had predecessors, three of whom have just been named. His was a life of political turmoil. From his native place Bagevādi he went to Kalyāṇa, when Vijjala or Vijjaṇa, was reigning (1157—1167 A. D.). His maternal uncle Baladeva was the minister of the king, and he himself was raised to the position after his death. Basava's sister, a beautiful woman, was married by the king. He was in charge of the king's treasury and spent large amounts in supporting and entertaining members of Lingayat mendicants, called Jaṅgamas. The matter came to the notice of the king Vijjapa, who gradually became completely alienated from him, and endeavoured to apprehend him. Basava fled away, and the king sent a few men in pursuit. These were easily defeated by Basava, whereupon the king himself advanced with troops to punish him; but Basava had collected a large number of followers and succeeded in defeating him. The king was reconciled to Basava and brought him back to Kalyāṇa, but there could be no true reconciliation, and after a time Basava caused the king to be assassinated.

1 This book and a good many others appertaining to the Lingayat sect have been published under the patronage of an influential and enlightened member of the sect, the late Mr. Mallappa Varada of Sholapur,

§ 101. There is a work entitled *Vijjalaṭayacarita* by a Jaina, which also gives an account of Basava and his relations with Vijjana. It is written from the point of view of an enemy of Basava, and mentions Basava's sister as having been given to the king as a mistress, which was perhaps true. But since the *Liṅgāyat* account and the Jaina account agree in the main particulars, they may be accepted as historical¹. Basava thus was a scheming politician and could hardly have been the proponent of a new system of doctrines or the organiser of a new sect. Besides, in the many *Liṅgāyat* works now available, his name is not mentioned as the name of a teacher of any articles of faith. What he did, therefore, appears to have been that he used his political influence to raise the fortunes of the *Virasaiva* sect, to bring it into prominence, and to disseminate the creed. There is another man who has been brought forward by Dr. Fleet, on the strength of certain Inscriptions, as the founder of the *Liṅgāyat* sect and that is Ekanta, or Ekantada, Ramayya. An account of this person is also given in the second part of the *Basavapurāṇa*, and this and that in the Inscriptions come to this that he was an enemy of the Jainas and wished to destroy their gods and shrines. He laid a wager with them that he would cut off his head and lay it at the feet of Śiva, and if it should be restored to him and replaced on his shoulders as it was before, the Jainas should consent to throw down their idols and profess a belief in Saivism. According to the Inscription, this was first done at Ablur at the place where it exists, and when Ramayya compelled the Jainas to destroy their idols, they went to Kalyāṇa and complained to King Vijjana, who thereupon summoned Ramayya into his presence and required him to explain why he did so. He offered to repeat the feat of cutting off his head and getting it back again in the presence of the king. The *Basavapurana* represents Basava himself to have been present when Ramayya laid this wager. So that beyond undermining the Jaina sect there is no evidence of Ramayya's having built up the *Virasaiva* creed.

§ 102. In connection with *Dikṣas*, or initiatory ceremonies, as, for instance, that which one has to go through when one has to

1 For the *Liṅgāyat* account see the translation of the *Basavapurana*, Journ. B. B. R. A. S. Vol. VIII, or the *Basavapurana* itself, printed at Poona, and for the latter see Wilson's Mackenzie Mas.

choose a Guru, or preceptor, it is necessary to place four metallic vessels full of water at the four cardinal points and one in the middle. This last belongs to the person to be consecrated as Guru or preceptor, who is supposed to represent an old Ācārya, or teacher, of the name of Viśvaradhya, and the other four to four other priests chosen as having been brought up in the schools of Bevaṇasiddha, Marulasiddha, Ekorāma and Paṇḍitaradhya and connected with certain Maṭhas, or establishments.¹ The same list is given in another treatise.⁸ These five vessels are consecrated to the five faces or forms of Śiva, Sadyojāta, etc. mentioned in a former Rection.² The Ācāryas, or teachers, named above are believed to have sprung from the five forms of Śiva in this Kali age⁴. Others bearing other names, born in other ages of the world, are also mentioned, but with these we have nothing to do. Of these five teachers three at least are mentioned as having preceded Basava in the passage quoted at the beginning of this section.

It will thus appear that the Virasaiva, or Lingayat, system came into existence before Basava. It is affiliated to the moderate or sober school of Śaivas known by the name of Saivadarśana, or Siddhantadarśana as it is called by its followers; and especially to the later form of it alluded to before.⁵ But its technical terms, Sthala, Anga, Lihga, etc. and its ideas are entirely different from those of that school as explained by Mādhava and others. And these terms we do not meet with elsewhere, so that this was a modern school. When it originated, it is difficult to say. But it was clearly in a militant condition in the time of Basava. It must, therefore, have originated about a hundred years before. The names of two at least of the five teachers as given above end in the word aradhya, while in other books all the five have that epithet attached to their names.* This was the name of a sect allied to the Lingayats.

1 Vivekacintamani Purvabhaga, Sholapur 1909 A. D. pp. 230ff.

2 Virasaivaoarapradipika, Poona 1905 A. D., pp. 33-37.

8 P. 177. note 1.

4 Panoaoaryapancamotpattiprakarana, Bombay 1903 A. D., p. 1.

5 95.

6 Pancacaryapancamotpattiprakarana p. 35.

Of the five Acāryas represented by the five metallic vessels, Mr. Brown¹ does not mention the middle one and calls all the other four Ārādhyas, so that all the five preceptors honoured at the time of initiation and other ceremonies belong to the Aradhya sect, which, according to Mr. Brown, was a sect of the Vīraśaiva creed. There has been a good deal of ill-feeling between the Aradhyas and the ordinary Lingāyats, and that appears to be due to the retention by the former of some Brāhmaṇic rites, such as repeating the holy Gayatrīmantra and wearing the sacred thread. But the very name Aradhya, which means one to be adored or worshipped, shows that, before the contention between the two sects arose the Ārādhyas enjoyed very great respect.

Taking all these circumstances into consideration, what appears to be the truth is that the Virasaiva creed was reduced to a shape by the Ārādhyas, who must have been men of learning and holy living, and the subsequent reformers, such as Basava, gave it a decidedly uncompromising and anti-Brahmaṇical character. And thus these two sects of the Virasaiva faith came into existence. We will now give a short account of the doctrines of this school.

§ 103. The One, Highest, Brahman, characterised by existence (Sat), intelligence (Cit), and joy (Ananda), is the essence of siva (Śivatattva) and is called Sthala. Then are given explanations as to why it is called Sthala, two of them based upon an artificial etymology. In the supreme Brahman, or the essence of Śiva, Mahat and other principles exist and are eventually resolved into it. In the first existence the universe, arising from Prakṛti and Puruṣa, and to it it returns at the end; therefore it is called Sthala. (The first part stha signifies sthāna, or standing, and the second part la signifies laya, or resolution.) That name is given to it also because it is the support of the whole moveable and immoveable world and holds all powers, all luminaries, and all souls. It is the resting place of all beings, of all worlds, and of all possessions. It is the highest place to be attained by those who seek the highest happiness, and therefore it is called the One only and non-dualistic Sthala (position).

By the agitation of its innate power (Śakti), that Sthala be-

comes divided into two: (1) Lihgasthala, (2) Ahgasthala. Lihgasthala is Śiva or Rudra and is to be worshipped or adored, while the Ahgasthala is the individual soul, the worshipper or adorer. In the same manner, the Śakti, or power, divides herself into two by her own will, one of the parts resorting to Śiva and being called Kalā, and the other resorting to the individual soul and being called Bhakti, or devotion. Śakti, or power, has got a certain susceptibility, which leads it to action and entanglement with the world, while Bhakti is free from that susceptibility and turns away from action and from the world and leads to final deliverance. The Śakti, or power makes one an object of worship, while Bhakti makes one a worshipper; therefore, the former exists in the Lihga or Śiva, and the latter in the Ahga or individual soul. Eventually, by this Bhakti, there is a union between the soul and Śiva.

The Lihga is Śiva himself, and not a mere external emblem of him. The Lihgasthala is divided into three : (1) Bhāvalihga, (2) Prāṇalihga, and (3) Iṣṭalihga. The first is without any parts (Kālā) and is to be perceived by faith. It is simple Sat (existence), not conditioned by space or time, and is higher than the highest. The second is to be apprehended by the mind and has parts and is without parts. The third has parts and is apprehensible by the eye. This confers all desired (iṣṭa) objects and removes afflictions; or it receives its name because it is worshipped (ista) with care. The Prāṇalihga is the intelligence (Cit) of the Supreme Soul, and Iṣṭalīnga, the joy. The first is the highest principle, the second is the subtle form, and the third, the gross form.

These three Lihgas, corresponding to the soul, the life and the gross form, and being characterised by use (Prayoga), formulas (Mantra) and action (Kriyā), form what are called Kala, Nāda and Bindu. Each of these three is divided into two; the first into Mahālihga and Prasādalihga, the second into Cāralihga and Śivalihga, and the third into Gurulīnga and Ācāralihga. These six operated on by six kinds of Śakti, or power, give rise to the following six forms. (1) When the Śiva essence is operated on by the power of intelligence (Cit), it forms the Mahālihga, the attributes of which are the absence of birth and

death, freedom from taint, perfection, unity, subtleness, being higher than the highest, incorruptibility, unfathomableness, capability of being apprehended by faith and love, and idealistic (Caitanya-rūpa). (2) When the Śiva essence gets permeated with its highest power (Paraśakti), then is produced a principle called Sadakhya¹ which is light, eternal, indivisible, imperceptible to the senses, apprehensible by reason, indestructible, and the rudiment that develops ; and that principle is called Prasadalīṅga. (3) When the Śiva essence is operated on by its primeval power (Adisakti), Caralīṅga is produced, which is infinite and pervades the internal and external world, which is full of light, is a Puruṣa (a person), and is higher than the Pradhana or Prakṛti, and capable of being contemplated by the mind alone. (4) When permeated by the will power (Icchāsakti) it forms Śivalīṅga, which is a finite principle with a sense of egoism, possessed of knowledge and power (Kala), having a celestial refulgence, with one face, and serene. (5) When permeated with the power of knowledge (Jñānasakti) it forms a Gurulīṅga, which possesses agency, presides over every system or science that instructs, is full of light, a boundless ocean of joy, and dwells in human intelligence. (6) When influenced by the power of action (Kriyāsakti), it is called Acaralīṅga, which in the shape of action serves as the support for the existence of all things, which is conceivable by the mind, and leads to a life of renunciation.

It will be seen that the original entity becomes divided into God and individual soul by its innate power, and the six forms of the first, that are mentioned, are the various ways of looking at God. The first form is the infinite Being considered independently. The second is the form in which we conceive of him as developing or creating by its highest power. The third is the form in which he is conceived as distinct from the material world. The fourth is a bodily form, the body, how-

1 The Sadakhya is the product of the combination of the principle, the Śir*, essence, with the two of the five powers, Para and Adi. The sadakhyas are five : (1) Śivasadakhya, which develops into Sadasiva ; (2) A mart a, or not finite, which becomes Isa; (3) samurta, or finite, which results in Brahmeēj (4) Karṭṛ, or agent, which becomes Iśvara; (5) Karman, or action, which develops into ISana. The Sadakhya alluded to in the text must be Sadiśiva.

ever, not being made up of ordinary matter, but celestial like the body attributed to Narayana, or Kṛṣṇa, by the Vaisnavas. The fifth is the form in which he instructs mankind. And the sixth involves the idea of his guiding the individual soul in his actions until he is delivered. In this form Śiva is the Redeemer.

Bhakti is the characteristic of the individual souls. It consists in a tendency towards God, and there are three stages in the progress of this tendency and, corresponding to these, there are three divisions of the *Angasthala*, or the subject of the individual soul. The first or highest division is called *Yoganga*, the second *Bhoganga*, and the third *Tyagtaṅga*. By the first, a man obtains happiness by his union with Siva; by the second, he enjoys along with Siva; and the last involves the abandonment of the world as transient or illusory. The first corresponds to the resolution into the cause and to the condition of sound sleep, the second to the subtle body and to dreamy sleep, and the third to the gross body and to the wakeful condition. Two varieties of each of these are distinguished. of the first, or *Yoganga*, we have the two, *Aikya* and *Sarāṇa*. The first consists in sharing the joys of Siva after one is convinced of the unreality of the whole world. This is called *Samarasa Bhakti*, in which God and the soul are united, in blissful experience. The second is called *Sarāṇabhakti*, in which one sees *Linga*, or God, in himself and everything else. It is a condition of joy for oneself. The second is also of two kinds: (1) *Pranalingin* and (2) *Prasadin*. The first consists in abandoning all regard for life, renunciation of egoism, and concentration of the whole mind upon the *Linga*, or God. The second is realised, when one resigns all the objects of one's enjoyment to the *Linga*, or God, and *nerenity* (*Prasada*) is acquired. The divisions of the last are *Maheśvara* and *Bhakta*. The first is one who has a firm belief in the existence of God, who goes through the whole discipline consisting in the observance of vows and restraints, which have Siva for their object, and truth, morality, cleanliness, etc. and a heroically rigid vow based upon a firm belief in the unity of the *Linga*, or God. A *Bhakta* is one, who, turning his mind away from all objects by which it is at-

tracted and practising devotion and rites, lives a life of indifference to the world.¹

This represents the progress of the soul from indifference to the world, which is the first step, through the intermediate stages, in a reverse order, to Samarasya, or union in blissful experience with Śiva, which is the highest condition. The goal thus pointed out does not involve a perfect identity between the supreme and individual souls, or the shaking off of individuality and becoming a simple soul unconscious of itself, which is the doctrine of the great non-dualistic school of Śaṅkara.

The belief of the Virasaiva school that the original essence of; Śiva divided itself by its own innate power into Lihga or God, and Aṅga, or the individual soul, and under the influence of other powers the essence became the creator of the world, shows that the doctrine of that school is that the rudiment of the creation exists in God himself in the shape of his power, but this power is not unreal. This doctrine, therefore, resembles that of Ramanuja, but with the latter there is a real rudiment of the soul and of the external world characterising God which afterwards develops, but with the Virasaivas there exists a power only in God which leads to creation; so that it is the power that characterises God according to the latter, while the rudiment is his characteristic according to the former. The Lihgayat school, therefore, is a school of qualified spiritual monism (Viśiṣṭadavāita). It will also have been seen that the method of redemption taught by this school is that of Bhakti or love of God, and a course of moral and spiritual discipline up to the attainment of Samarasya with Śiva. In this respect also it resembles Ramanuja's system.

Śrīkanthasvācārya, whose Bhasya on the Vedāntasūtras has long been before the public, holds the same view. Under I. 4. 22, he states that the word Atman in the sense of the individual soul is used to express the supreme soul in BU. (IV. 5. 6), because the latter is the internal controller of the former and is spoken of as identical with everything in this sense. Under II. 2. 38, he states that Śiva as possessed of powers is the material cause of the world;

1 The above is an abstract of the matter contained in the Anubhārasūtra of Mayīdeva, Sholapur, 1909,

and in his comment on IV. 4. 3—4, he represents the delivered soul as similar to the Supreme Soul, that is, as having the attributes of the latter. And under IV. 4, 2, he speaks of the delivered soul as Samarasa, or united in blissful experience with the Supreme Soul. Thus Śrīkanṭha's view appears to be identical with that of the Virasaivas. Therefore unlike the four older schools (Pasupata and others), which are dualistic, these three Śaiva schools hold a doctrine of qualified spiritual monism.

8 104 The highest class of Lingayats is composed of those who call themselves Lingī-Brahmpas, the other castes or classes who wear the Līṅga being simply their followers, The Lingī-Brahmanas consist of two main classes, the Acaryas and the Pancamas, The legendary account given of these is as follows. The Acaryas were originally five in number and sprang from the five faces, Sadyojata, etc., of Śiva spoken of in a former section¹. They are the same as those mentioned above as having a metallic vessel placed in their names on the occasion of any holy ceremony. From these five have sprung up all the priestly classes now existing. These five had five Gotras, viz. Vīra, Nandin, Vṛṣabha, Bhr̥ṅgin, and Skanda, who were originally persons almost as high as Śiva himself. From the Iṣāna face of Śiva sprang a Gaṇeśvara (leader of a group), who had five faces. From these five faces sprang five Pancamas, known by the names of Makhari, Kalari, Purari, Smarari, and Vedari, which, the reader will remember, were the names of Śiva himself given to him on account of certain deeds done by him. From these arose others who are called Upapancamas. Each Pancama has to connect himself with one of the five Acaryas as his Guru. The Gotra of the Guru is his Gotra, and there can be no marriage relation between the members of the same Gotra. These Pancamas have got Gotra, Pravara and Śakha of their own, and the Lihgayats thus seem to have copied the Brahmanic system. The Pancamas are spoken of as the true devotees of Śiva².

According to the ordinary account the true Lingayats are divided into four classes: (1) Jangamas, or priests, (2) Śilavants,

1 Ante.p. 177nl[N. B. U.]

2 Pancacaryapancamatpattiprakarana.

or pious, (3) Banjigs, or traders, and (4) Pañoamsālis. The second and the third classes are based on the occupation or mode of life followed; so that even here, there are only the two classes mentioned in the work referred to above. The members of the first or Acarya class are popularly called Jahgamae. Of these there are some who are called Viraktas (passionless) and who devote themselves to contemplation and other religious exercises and live a life of celibacy and asceticism. They maintain a convent (Maṭha) and are adored by all people.

One such convent, which might be called the chief convent, is that which exists at Chitaldrug in the Mysore territory about a hundred miles from Dharwar. The head monk is held in deep reverence and exercises great influence over the followers of the sect.

The second division of the class comprises those who follow a priestly occupation and conduct all ceremonies. They are married men and lead the life of householders. They exercise religious control over the Pancamas and the followers of their sect. These priestly Jahgamas are the representatives of one or other of the five principal establishments located in different parts of the country from the Himālaya to the Mysore province. Any knotty question concerning the sect is decided by the final orders issued at one of these establishments. Besides the true Liṅgāyats their is an affiliated class and another composed of half Liṅgayats. The Liṅgayats abstain from meat and drink. Their widows are allowed to marry. And women are not considered polluted and untouchable during the days of monthly sickness, as is the case among Brahmanic Hindus.

§ 105 There is a Diksa ceremony among the Virasaivas corresponding to Upanayana among the Brāhmaṇas. Instead of the Gayatrīmantra of the latter, they have the Mantra 'Om namaś Śivaya,' and have to wear the Linga, or emblem of Śiva, in the place of Yajñopavīta. On the occasion of the Diksa, the Guru holds a Liṅga in his left hand, worships it in the usual sixteen ways, and shows it to the disciple. Then placing it in the left hand of the disciple and enjoining him to look upon it as his own soul and as the highest existing thing and so forth, he ties it round the neck of the disciple with a silken cloth by repeating a

Mantra used by the Brāhmaṇas in putting on the Yajñopavīta. This is called the Liṅgasvāyattadlksā. This ceremony is performed in the case of girls also, and the women too have to wear the Liṅga like men. The Liṅga is generally put into a box made of silver and suspended round the neck. The Vīśāivas have to go through daily ceremonies similar to the twilight adorations of the Brāhmaṇas, and the Mantra repeated on the occasion is that given above, as also the Śiva-Gāyatrī, the first two lines of which are the same as the Brāhmaṇic Gāyatrī, and the last is * Tan naḥ Śivaḥ praodayat'.

In the marriage ceremony the Mantra to be repeated on the occasion of the taking hold of the hand of the bride is the same as among the Brāhmaṇas, and in the ceremony of walking the seven steps together with the bride, the formulas repeated are the same as those used by Rgvedin Brāhmaṇas. But in their marriage ceremony, they do not perform the rite of throwing parched rice into the fire as the Brāhmaṇas do. The worship of the Liṅga, called Iṣṭa-Liṅga, worn on the body, is their chief divine worship; and attendance at temples and worship of the Liṅga therein are by no means necessary for them. They do not concern themselves directly with the public temples of Śiva.

§ 106. There is a traditional legend among the Liṅgayats that, when Śiva brought Brahmadeva into existence, he told him to create the world. But Brahmadeva said that he did not know how to do it. Whereupon Śiva created it himself in order that it might serve him as a model. And the Acāryas and Pañcamas, as detailed above with their Gotras and Śākhās, are that creation of Śiva. The true import of this legend is that the Liṅgayat set up a system for themselves as a rival to the Brahmanic system and the close resemblance between the two confirms this view. But a mere copy was not their object, and they introduced several reforms, especially in the condition of women, as will have been seen from the above notice. In this respect, this system differs from all other schools, Vaiṣṇava or Śaiva or even Buddhist or Jaina, who did not set up for themselves a special system of social relations and domestic rites, though, as shown above, that framed by the Liṅgayats for themselves is a copy of that of the Brāhmaṇas, which, however, is a reformed copy.

The impression that this whole account creates in one is that Lingāyatism owes its origin to a spirit of jealousy of the power exercised by Brāhmaṇism and of rivalry with the system. Such a spirit of jealousy and rivalry cannot be expected to have arisen in thoroughly depressed minds. The system therefore must have come into existence among the spirited members of the upper classes of non-Brahmanic Hindus under the leadership of a body of men composed of Brāhmaṇas known by the name of Arādhyas. Some of the members of this body did not go far enough in the desired reform, as mentioned before, and formed a distinct sect¹.

It will thus be seen that all the Lingayats have not sprung up from the Śūdra caste, but there is a mixture of the three higher orders among them. The claim that the two main classes of the sect put forward of their being Lingī-Brahmanas, i. e., Brāhmaṇas wearing the Lihga, seems to be founded on truth. The Acārya or Jāṅgama class is said to have sprung from the five holy persons, adored on the occasion of a religious ceremony, whose names end in the suffix ārādhyā significative of their being Brāhmaṇas. We might therefore safely take them to be of a Brāhmaṇic descent². As to the Pailcamas, they probably repre-

1 An Aradhya sect is mentioned by Anantanandagiri as having come into conflict with ŚāriikarScSrya (See Śārhkaravijaya, Bibl. Ind., p. 37). In the corresponding portion of Dhanapati's Dindima which accompanies Madhava's Sainkaravijaya the name of the sect does not occur ; so that it is questionable whether the Aradhya sect came into existence before Śamkara, even if we suppose that the sect mentioned by Anantanandagiri was the same as the one we have noticed as affiliated to the Lingayats. Or, on the evidence of Anantanandagiri the Aradhya sect may be considered to have come into existence about the time of Samkaracarya, that is, before the ninth century A. D., and the theory advanced, that the Lingayat reform was carried out within its limits, and a portion of the Aradhya sect adopted the new creed and developed it, while another remained orthodox and staunch to some of the Brahmanic practices. To this portion is to be traced the Aradhya sect of the present day.

2 There are Jangamas who know Sanskrit, and I have been in communication with one such of the name of Mallikarjunaśaātrin, who directed me to some of the books of the sect wick I have followed in this section, and also gave oral information on some points. He claims to be a Brahmana authorised to study the Vedas, his own Veda being the White Yajurveda,

sent the Vaiśya order of the Brāhmanic system which followed the occupation of traders and cultivators, and as the Vaiśyas belong to the class of the twice-born, so also do the Pañcamas and hence they are included in the Liṅgi-Brāhmaṇa group.

XII. saivism in the Draviḍa Country.

§ 107. Śaivism prevails in the Draviḍa or Tamil country, and possesses an extensive literature of its own. It consists of eleven collections. The first three contain the hymns composed by a saint held in great reverence, of the name Tiruñānasambandha. They are three hundred and eighty-four in number, each being called a Padigam, which consists of ten stanzas with an eleventh containing the author's name usually added. The next three were composed by Appar who was an older contemporary of Sambandha, who had renounced Buddhism or rather Jainism and become a Śaiva. The seventh collection belongs to Sundara who was a Brāhmaṇa devotee of a later generation. These seven books are called Devaram and are compared to the Brahmanic Veda. In certain processions, while on the one side the hymns of the Brahmanic Veda are repeated, on the other are sung those contained in the Devaram which are addressed to the deity. The Tiruvaṣāgam forms the eighth book, and it resembles the Upaniṣads. The author of this book is Manikkavaṣagar. The ninth group is made up of hymns composed in imitation of the Devaram hymns. One of the writers is Kandaraditya, a Cola king, from whom Bajaraja Cola, who came to the throne in 984-85 A. D., was fifth in descent. The tenth contains mystic songs of a Yogin called Tirumtalar. The eleventh collection is composed of miscellaneous pieces, the last ten of which were written by Nambi Andar Nambi. The third of these ten forms the basis of the Tamil Purāṇa called Periyapurāṇa. These eleven collections together with the Periyapurāṇa, which are all written

The head monk of the Chitaldrug convent alluded to above was on a visitation to Poona about two months ago with all the state of a spiritual potentate, having four elephants with him and a number of followers. He was a good, courteous and kindly person, had studied Sanskrit grammar and was able to converse fluently in pure Sanskrit. Some of the books of the sect are written in Sanskrit.

in the Tamil language, form the sacred literature of the Tamil Śaivas. Besides these there are the works of what are called Santāna-Acāryas, which are fourteen in number and called Siddhāntasāstras. Their contents are of a philosophical nature.

The most highly honoured of all these writers is Tiruñāna-sambandha. He was a Brāhmaṇa by birth, and the poetic faculty was developed in him very early in life. His hymns are full of the purest devotional feeling and are melodious. The tunes in which they were originally sung were Dravidian, but in later times northern melodies with northern names came to be used. Sambandha's image is set up for worship in every Śaiva temple, and he is adored by Tamil poets and philosophers in the beginning of their works. He was a great enemy of Buddhists and Jains; and every tenth stanza of his Padigams, or hymns, contains an imprecation against them. On one occasion, he was invited by the queen of Kuni Paṇḍya of Madhura, where he held a disputation with the Buddhists or Jainas, which ended in the conversion of the king to the Śaiva faith¹.

In an Inscription in the Rājarājesvara temple at Tanjore the king Rājarājadeva, after whom the temple was named, makes a daily allowance for the support of the reciters or singers of the Tiruppadiyam or the Padigams of Tirunanasambandha, before the twenty-ninth year of his reign². The date of Rajaraja's accession to the throne has been determined by the mention of a lunar eclipse in one of his inscriptions to be 984-5 A. D.³ This is consistent with the fact mentioned in another Inscription⁴ that he conquered Satyāśraya, who was the immediate successor of Tailapa, the founder of the later Cālukya dynasty of Mahārāstra, and died in Śaka 930, or 1008 A. D. Thus before the twenty-ninth year of Rajaraja, i. e. before 1013 A. D, the Padigams of Sambandha had come to be looked upon as so sacred that the recita-

X The above account is mostly taken from the able paper of F. Sundaram Pillai published in the Ind. Ant. Vol. XXV, pp. 113ff. It is to be regretted that Mr. Pillai does not give us precise information as to whether it was the Buddhists against whom Sambandha directs his attacks or the Jainas.

2 South-Indian Inscriptions ad. by E. Hultzsch, Vol. I, p- 252, No. 65,

3 Ind. Ant., Vol. XXIII. p. 207.

4 South-Ind. Inscrs., Vol. I I, p. 2.

tion or singing of them was considered an act of religious merit like the repetition of the Śatarudriya by the followers of the Brahmanic Veda. This character the hymns of Sambandha could not have acquired unless they had come into existence about four hundred years before the beginning of the eleventh century. This is consistent with the conclusion arrived at by Mr. Pillai that Sambandha flourished in the seventh century,

The Inscriptions in the temples at Kañcīpura contain evidence of Śaivism being in a flourishing condition in the sixth century. The Pallava king Rajasimha constructed a temple, and the god inside was named after him Rajasimhesvara. Rajasimha appears from some of the Inscriptions to have been a contemporary of the early Calukya prince Pulakesin I.¹, who may be referred to about the year 550 A. D., as his son Kirtivarman I, came to the throne about the year 567 A. D.².

The Śaivism that prevailed in the Tamil country seems to have been generally of the ordinary kind, since the hymns in the Devāram sing the praises of Śiva and exhibit fervent devotional feeling, but there must have been some Darśana or system of philosophy also, since in an Inscription in the Rajasimhesvara temple at Kanci Atyantakama, which was another name of Rajasimha, is represented as proficient in the system of the Śaiva* siddhāntas. And the last species of the Śaiva literature detailed above is, it will have been seen, called Siddhāntaśāstra composed by Santana-Acaryas. These must be philosophical works on Śaivism. And the system therein taught appears in all likelihood to be the same or similar to the Śaivadarśana, which has already been explained. But what exactly the system taught by the Siddhāntas was, we have not the means of finding out, as none of the works is available for examination.

The Periyapurāṇa gives an account of sixty-three Bhaktas or devotees of Śiva, and these correspond to the Aivars of the Vaiṣṇavas. The enemies that both these classes of devotees had to contend with were Jainas, and it appears to me that both

1 South-Ind, Inscrs., Vol. 1, p. 11.

2 Early History of the Deccan, Second Ed., p. 61 [=Volume III of this Edition, p. 68.—N. B. U.]

Śaivism and Vaiṣṇavism penetrated to the extreme South of India after the revival of Brāhmaṇism in the North during the fourth and fifth centuries. Buddhism and Jainism had been introduced earlier, and were in possession of the field when the two later systems of theistic belief were introduced into the Southern country. Hence arose the necessity of controversies and contests which these systems carried on with their earlier predecessors. Whether Śaivism extended itself to the Tamil country before the revival, we have not the means of determining.

XIII. The Śāktas or Śakti Worshippers.

§ 108. In the Vedic literature down to the Gr̥hyasūtras which we have examined for tracing the development of the idea of Rudra-Śiva, no female devotee of predominant power is mentioned. We have such names as Rudrāṅḡ and Bhavāṅḡ, which are simply derivatives and do not show a belief in the existence of an independent powerful goddess. Umā, too, is the wife of a god and does not overshadow her male consort. In the MBh. (Bhismaparvan, chap. 23), however, there is a hymn addressed to Durgā by Arjuna under the advice of Kṛṣṇa in which she is prayed to for granting victory in the forthcoming battle. This hymn itself shows that at the time when it was composed and inserted in the poem, Durgā had already acquired such an importance that she was adored by men as a powerful goddess, able to fulfil their desires. Among the names by which she is addressed occur the following : Kumārī (maiden), Kālī (black or female time as destroyer), Kapālī (wearer of skulls), Mahā-ī (the great destroyer), Candī (angry), Katyāṅḡ (of the Katya family), Karālā (frightful), Vijayā (Victory), Kausikī (of the Kuśika family), Umā, Kantaravāsīnī (dwelling in the forest). There is another hymn in the Virataparvan (chap. 6) sung by Yudhiṣṭhira. It does not exist in the principal Southern MSS., and is probably an interpolation, as it contains almost the same matter as in a similar passage in the Harivamsa. The points and epithets in this hymn which deserve notice are these. She is called Mahiṣasuranāsinī (or the destroyer of the demon in the shape of a buffalo) and she is fond of wine, flesh and beasts. She was born to Yaśoda and dashed against a stone, whereupon

she went to heaven. She is called the most beloved of Narayana and the sister of Vāsudeva. She resides permanently on the Vindhya mountain.

It is related in the Harivamśa (vv. 3236 ff.) that Visnu descended into the Pātāla, and asked sleep in the form of destroying time (Nidrā Kālārūpīnī) to become the daughter of Yaśoda. She is told that she would become Kausikī and would have a permanent residence on the Vindhya mountain. There she was told that she would kill Śumbha and Niśumbha and would be worshipped by animal sacrifices. There is given a hymn to Apya (Durga) in which she is represented as the goddess of Śābaras, Pulindas, Barbaras and other wild tribes, and as fond of wine and flesh.

The goddess that killed the buffalo-demon, was, according to the Mfirkaṇḍeya-Puṛāṇa (ch. 82) made up of the fierce radiance of Śiva, visnu and Brahmadeva, and all the other gods contributed to the formation of her limbs as well as her ornaments. She is called Candi and Ambika. The formation of the goddess that killed Śumbha and Niśumbha, according to the account which follows, is thus explained. The gods being oppressed by the demons Śumbha and Niśumbha went to the Himalayas and praised the goddess, whereupon Parvatī came out to bathe in the Ganges. Then Śiva, also called Ambika, came out of the body of Parvatī, and said that it was she whom the gods were praising to induce her to kill Śumbha and Niśumbha. She was called Kausikī, because she sprang out from Kosa or frame of Parvatī's body. When Ambika came out of her body, Parvatī's complexion, became dark, and hence she received the name of Kalikā (dark one). In the course of the fight, when Śumbha and Niśumbha pounced upon her, her forehead became dark with anger, and from it came Kali with a frightful face wearing a garland of skulls and a tiger-skin and with an infernal weapon (Khatvinga) in her hand. She killed the demons Cauda and Munda, and went back to Ambika, who thereupon, since she had killed those demons, gave her the name Camunda. The seven Saktis, Brahmi, Mahesvari, Kaumari, Vaisnavi, Varahi, Narasimhi and Aindri, which are the powers or spirits of the gods from whom their

names are derived, are called her excellent forms (Vibhūtiḥ). At the end, the goddess says that she would, in the Vaivasvata Manu, destroy Śumbha and Niśumbha again by assuming the form of the goddess residing on the Vindhya mountain, and proceeds to give the other forms that she would assume on other occasions such as the daughter of Nanda, Śakambharī, Bhīmī, Bhṛāmārī, etc.

§ 109. In the account here given, it will be seen that there is one goddess with a number of different names. But the critical eye will see that they are not merely names, but indicate different goddesses who owed their conception to different historical conditions, but who were afterwards identified with the one goddess by the usual mental habit of the Hindus. First we have Umī, the protectress, the consort of Śiva. Then we have Haimavatī, and Parvati which are the epithets of Uma, since Śiva, her consort, was Girīśa, or dweller on the mountain, and she was a woman born on the mountain.

Then there are goddesses, dwelling in forests and on the Vindhya mountain, to whom animals and even human beings were sacrificed, and oblations of wine were given and who were also the goddesses worshipped by the wild tribes, such as Pulindas, Śābaras and Barbaras. These were fierce goddesses and have the names of Karālā, Kālī, Candī, Camunda, and others. It must be admitted, however, that the first two names came into use when in an early age Rudra was identified with Agni, whose flames, which were considered his tongues, have those two names and five others. Probably the ferocity of the later goddesses of those names was due to this identification and not to their being the objects of worship to the ferocious barbarous tribes. In all likelihood, however, both the elements contributed to give that character to Kālī, Karālā and Camunda. That an aboriginal element should have contributed to the formation of Rudra's consort in later times, as it did in earlier times, towards the formation of Rudra himself as he is represented in the Śatarudriya, is a matter that might be expected.

A third and powerful element in the conception of these goddesses is that of Śakti, or power. The powers of willing, acting,

creating, illuding, etc. were conceived of as goddesses as the noun Śakti is of the feminine gender. The seven goddesses named above, Brahmi, Mahesvari, etc. owe their origin to this conception of Śakti and the powers of the seven gods. In later times some of the Brahmanic families came to have tutelary goddesses, and thus we have Katyayani, or the goddess of the Katyas, and Kauśikī, the goddess of the Kauśikas. A further development went on especially under the influence of the idea of Śakti, or power, and thus we have three forms in which the goddess was worshipped. First we have the ordinary bland form, in which the goddess is worshipped. Then we have the fierce form, in which she is associated with the schools of Kapalikas and Kalamukhas, and animals and human beings are sacrificed. And the third is the sensual form, in which she is the object of worship with the school of the Śāktas, who are so called because they are worshippers of Śakti.

§ 110. The Tantras inculcating the worship of the goddess in these various forms, constitute a considerable body of literature. We will here notice the formation, doctrines and practices of a school based on one of these forms, that which we have called sensual. The goddess here is called Anandabhairavi, Tripurasundari, and Lalitā. Her dwelling is thus described. There is an ocean of nectar, in which there are five celestial trees. Then there is a row or enclosure of Nipa or Kadamba trees, in the midst of which is a pavilion made of jewel stones. In that pavilion is situated a palace made of the wish-giving stone, where lies the great Isani, the great Tripurasundari, on a couch, which is Śiva, with Mahesana for its coverlet and Sadaśiva for its pillow. The legs of the couch are Brahmadeva, Hari, Rudra and Īvara. These are spirits discharging certain functions contained in the essence of Maheśvara¹. This is a mythological explanation of certain figures in the mystic circles and of technical terms. The goddess is thus elevated to the highest position. Anandabhairava or Mahabhairava, which is the name given to Śiva, is the soul of, or is composed of, the nine collections of things of which the world is made up, such as time and its

1 Saundaryalahari with Laksmidhara's commentary, Mysore Ed, comment, on vv. a and 92.

various forms (Kālavṛkha), existing things like the blue substance (Kulavṛkha), names (Nāmvṛkha), perception (Jñānavṛkha), the five faculties, viz. consciousness, heart, will, intelligence, and mind (Cittavṛkha). Mahābhairava is the soul of the goddess ; therefore she also is the soul of, or composed of, the nine collections. Both, therefore, constitute one entity. When there is Sāmarasya, or community of joy or intense love between them, creation follows. The female element, or Mahābhairavi, however, is predominant in the process of creation and the male element, or Mahābhairava, in the work of destruction¹.

The metaphysical doctrines of what is called Śambhavadarśana, on which the usual practices and rites of the Śaktas profess to be based, are these². Śiva and Śakti are the primordial substances. Śiva in the form of Prakāśa (light) enters into Śakti in the form of Vimarśa or Sphṛti (feeling or appearance), and assumes the form of a Bindu (drop); and Śakti similarly enters into Śiva, whereupon the Bindu develops, and there arises out of it the female element called Nāda (sound). These two, the Bindu and the Nāda, becoming united, form one compound Bindu, and that substance represents the intense affinity between the female and male energies and is called Kama (love). Again, there are two drops, one of which is white and represents the male element, and the other, red, which represents the female element. These form the Kala ; these three again, the compound Bindu, and the white and red drops form one substance called Kamakala. Thus there are four powers united here: (1) the original Bindu representing the material of which the world is made; (2) Nada, or sound, upon which depends the naming of the substances, arising from the development of the Bindu. Between these two there is intense love, but no creation follows simply from it. They only contain the materials of things and speech. Therefore a productive energy is associated with them by (3) the white male drop which, however, by itself cannot produce, and by (4) the female red drop which is fecundated by the male drop.

1 Ibid. v. 34.

2 The following contains in a recast form the matter given in pp. 89—91 of my Report on the Search for Sanskrit Manuscripts during 1883—84, [= Volume II of this Edition, pp. 210-223 N. B. U. J]

When all these four principles unite into one substance, Kāmakalā, the whole creation of words and the things expressed by them (Vāgarthau), proceeds. Another substance called the Hārdhakaḷā is also developed, according to some, along with the Nāda, when the female element first enters into the simple Bindu. In a certain text the highest deity, or Kāmakalā is spoken of as having the sun (compound Bindu) for her face, fire and moon (the red and white Bindus) for her breasts, and the Hārdhakaḷā for her organ of generation. This view provides a womb from which creation springs out. The creative agent, therefore, is a goddess thus constituted, and she is the highest deity and is called Parā, Lalitā, Bhattārikā and Tripurasundarī. Siva is symbolically identified with the letter *a* and Sakti with *h*, the last letter of the Sanskrit alphabet. This *h* is called Ardhakaḷā, or half part, and hence the female element, or womb, mentioned above is called the half part in the shape of the letter *h*. This *h*, or the half part, together with *a* which stands for Siva is a symbolic representation of Kāmakalā or Tripurasundarī, who is the result of the combination of Siva and Sakti. She is thus called Aham, the ego, and is invested with egoism or individuality, and hence it is that all her developments (i. e. the whole creation) have egoism or individuality; and all souls are but forms of Tripurasundarī and become Tripurasundarī when they study and practise the Kāmakalāvidyā with its series of Devī-cakras, or mystic circles. *A* and *h*, being the first and last letters of the alphabet, contain between them all letters and through them all words, i. e. the whole speech; and just as all things are produced from Tripurasundarī, so are all words which express the things. She is thus called Parā, the first of the four kinds of speech. Creation is Parinama, or development, and not Vivarta, or the generation of false appearances. This is the philosophy of the Sambhavadarsana, and it will be seen that, though it admits a male element in the beginning, still it is thoroughly subdued by the female element which becomes predominant, and the highest deity is a goddess, viz. Tripurasundarī. The ambition of every pious follower of the system is to become identical with Tripurasundarī, and one of his religious exercises is to habituate himself to think that he is a woman. • Thus the

followers of the Śakti school justify their appellation by the belief that God is a woman and it ought to be the aim of all to become a woman.

Tripurasundarī is propitiated and eventually attained by assuming the vow (Dikṣa) of a devoted worship of her. This vow is of three kinds. The first consists in fully concentrating the mind on the Devi as sitting on the lap of Śiva in the Mahā-padma-vana (a garden of lotuses), as possessed of a body which is pure joy and is the original cause of all, and as identical with one's own self. The second is the Cakrapūjā, the worship by means of the mystic circles, which is a Bahya-yāga, or material worship; and the third consists in studying and knowing the true doctrine. The second is the proper Śakti ceremonial. It consists in the worship of a picture of the female organ drawn in the centre of another consisting of a representation of nine such organs, the whole of which forms the Śrīcakra. The pictures are drawn on a Bhūrja leaf or a piece of silken cloth or on a gold leaf¹. With reference to this worship it must be observed that there are two classes of Śāktas : (1) Kaulika and (2) Samayin. The former worship the gross material object, while the latter have a recourse to imagery. The worship of the pictures just mentioned is resorted to by ancient (Purva) Kaulas, while the modern (Uttara) Kaulas worship the organ of a living beautiful woman. The Kaulas worship their goddess by offering to her, and themselves using, wine, flesh, honey (Madhu), fish and such other things. The Samayins, of course, abstain from such practices. There are even Brahmanas, who secretly profess the doctrines of the Śākta school and worship the goddess Tripurasundarī in accordance with the Purva-Kaula or Uttara-Kaula way. There are no distinctions of caste when the worship of the Bhairavcakra is going on. Men of all castes become Brahmanas, but they resume their own castes when the worship is over*. There are several more innocent and decorous modes of worshipping the goddess under the names of Lalita and Upaṅga-lalita mentioned in the ordinary religious books. The worship of the latter comes off on the fifth lunar day of Āsvina and of

¹ Saundaryalaharī v. 41, commentary.

² Anfrecht's Oxf. Cat. p. 92, n.

the former for the first ten days. The latter, when so worshipped by women, wards off widowhood¹.

XIV. The Sect of Gāṇapatyas.

§ 111. Rudra had his hosts of Maruts, who were called his Gaṇas, and the leader of these Gaṇas was Gaṇapati. The name Rudra, as we have seen, was generalised and signified a number of spirits partaking of the character of the original Rudra; and so was the name Gaṇapati generalised and meant many leaders of the Gaṇas or groups. Another name, Vinayaka, denoting a spirit also came into use. In the AU. Rudra is identified with many gods or spirits, and among these there is one called Vināyaka. In the MBh. (Anusasanaparvan 151, v. 26) Ganeśvaras and Vinayakas are mentioned amongst the gods, who observe the actions of men and are present everywhere; and again, (v. 57) Vinayakas are said to remove all evil from men when praised. Gaṇeśvaras, or Gaṇapatīs, and Vināyakas are here represented, as the former are in the Śatarudriya, many in number and present everywhere.

In the Manavagrhyasūtra (2. 14) is given an apcQunt of Vinayakas. They are four in number. And their names are (1) Śalakatankata, (2) Kusmandarajaputra, (3) Usmita, and (4) Devayajana. When possessed by these a person pounds sods of earth, cuts grass, and writes on his body, and sees in dreams waters, men with shaved heads, camels, pigs, asses, etc., and feels he is moving in the air, and when walking, sees somebody pursuing him from behind. Again, when possessed by these, Princep Royal do not obtain the kingdom, though qualified to govern. Girls do not obtain bridegrooms, though possessed of the necessary qualities. Women do not get children, even if otherwise qualified. The children of other women die. A learned teacher qualified to teach does not obtain pupils, and there are many interruptions and breaks in the course of student. Trade and agriculture are unsuccessful. A person, who shows such signs of being possessed by Vinayaka, is made to go through the ceremony of bathing in waters brought from four places and with a little earth from four different quarters thrown into them.

¹ See Hemadri, Vratakhanda.

After bathing oblations of mustard oil extracted afresh should be offered to the four Vināyakas in a ladle made of the wood of the Udumbara tree and poured over the head of the individual. Then food of many sorts, rice, husked and unhusked, flesh, and fish, cooked as well as raw, pulse of various kinds, etc should be put into a basket and the basket placed on the ground where four roads meet, the ground first being covered with Kusa grass. Then certain deities including evil spirits are invoked, and a wish expressed that they may be satisfied, and, becoming so, satisfy the worshipper, etc. This is the ceremony which frees the persons haunted by the Vinayakas.

Yajñavalkya in his Smṛti (I . 271ff.) gives the same ceremony and frēquently in the same words. But the ceremony appears in a somewhat more developed or complicated form. He begins by stating that Rudra and Brahmadeva appointed Vinayaka to the leadership of the Gaṇas, (i.e. made him Gaṇapati), and assigned to him the functions of raising difficulties and obstructions in the actions of men. In the Smṛti, one Vinayaka is only addressed, but instead of the four names occurring in the Sūtra, six are given, viz. (1) Mīta, (2) Sammita, (3) Śāla, (4) Katanikāṭa, (5) Kusmanda, and (6) Rajaputra, and these are said to be six different names of the one Vinayaka. After the basket with various kinds of food has been prepared, directions are given to make an obeisance to Ambika, the mother of Vinayaka.

The form of the ceremony contained in the Sūtra is unquestionably more ancient than that contained in the other work. But the difference between the two shows that during the period that half elapsed between the composition of the Sūtra and that of the Smṛti, the four Vinayakas had become one Gaṇapati-Vinayaka, having Ambika for his mother. It will thus be seen that, in his own nature, this last god is an unfriendly or malignant spirit, but capable of being made friendly and benignant by propitiatory rites. In this respect, he resembles Rudra himself. That the Vinayakas had come to be objects of faith before the Christian era, may be taken to follow from the occurrence of the ceremony mentioned above in a Gr̥hyasūtra. But the one Gaṇapati-Vinayaka, the son of Ambika, was introduced into the Hindu pantheon much later.

None of the Gupta. Inscriptions which I subjected to an examination on a former occasion¹ contains any mention of his name or announces any gift or benefaction in his honour. But in two of the caves at Ellora, there are groups of images of Kala, Kali, the Seven Mothers or 'Saktis, and Ganapati². These caves are to be referred to the latter part of the eighth century. So that between the end of the fifth and the end of the eighth century the Ganapati cult must have come into practice, and the Smṛti of Yajñavalkya must have been written not earlier than the sixth century. Another Inscription, and an old relic, which indicate the prevalence of the worship of Ganapati, are found at a place called Ghatiyala, 22 miles north-west of Jodhpur. There is a column there, on the top of which there are four images of Ganapati facing the four quarters. In the opening sentence of the Inscription engraved on it, an obeisance is made to Vinayaka. The date of the inscription is Vikrama-Samvat 918 = A. D. 862³

When and how the god came to have the elephant's head, it is difficult to determine. The images in the cave-temples at Ellora have that head, and Bhavabhūti also in the beginning of the eighth century describes him, in the opening stanza of the *Malatimadhava*, as possessed of such a head. Rudra-Siva and the gods allied with him were connected closely with forests and wild places, in which elephants also were found. The hide worn by Rudra and by his consort also in one of her forms was the hide of an elephant, and it perhaps suited the fancy of some men to place the head of that animal over the body of a god originally mischievous. Ganapati's reputation for wisdom is, I believe, to be attributed to the confusion between him and Br̥haspati, who in RV. II. 23. 1 is called Ganapati. Br̥haspati, of course, is the Vedic god of wisdom, and is called the sage of sages.

§ 112. Six varieties of the Ganapatya sect are mentioned by Anandagiri, or Anantanandagiri as he is sometimes called, in his *Samkardigvijaya* as well as by Dhanapati in his commentary on

1 See my 'Peep into the Early History of India'; JBBRAS, Vol. XX. pp.336ff,

2 In Ravana-ki-khai, in the circumambulatory passage and Ramesvara temples. See *Cave-Temples* by Fergusson and Burgess,

3 Ep. Ind. Vol. IX, pp. 277ff,

the corresponding work of Mādhava. The first consists of those who adore Mahāgaṇapati. Mahāgaṇapati is, according to them, the creator, and he alone remains when Brahmadeva and others have been destroyed at the time of the dissolution. He should be meditated upon as possessed of his peculiar face with one tooth and as embraced by the Śakti. By his own wonderful power, he creates Brahmadeva and others. One, who repeats the original Mantra and meditates on this Gaṇapati, attains supreme bliss. The name of the person who expounds these doctrines to the Acārya is given as Girijāsuta.

Another interlocutor follows. His name is Gaṇapatikumara, and he adores Haridraganapati. He takes his stand on RV. II. 23. 1, and makes out this text to mean "We meditate on thee who art the leader of the group of Rudra, Viṣṇu, Brahman, Indra and others, and art the instructor of sages Bhr̥gu, Guru, Śeṣa and others, the highest of all who know the sciences, the greatest lord of the Brahmans engaged in the creation of the world, i. e. adored by Brahman and others in the work of creation and others ". He should be worshipped and meditated on as being dressed in a yellow silken garment, bearing a yellow sacred thread, having four arms, three eyes and his face suffused over by turmeric ointment, and holding a noose and an elephant-goad and a staff in his hand. He who worships the god in this form, obtains emancipation. Gaṇapati is the cause of the whole world, and Brahma and others are his parts. The worshipper of this Gaṇapati should bear, on both of his arms, the marks of Gaṇapati's face and one tooth impressed upon them by a heated iron stamp.

Then came Herambasuta, who was the worshipper of Ucchiṣṭagaṇapati. The followers of this variety resort to the left-handed path (Vamamarga), which probably was set up in imitation of the Kaula worship of Śakti. The form of Gaṇapati meditated on is very obscene. There is no distinction of caste among the followers of this sect. No restriction is to be observed, such as marriage imposes, and promiscuous intercourse is allowed and also the use of wine. The follower should have a red mark on his forehead. All the ordinary ceremonies, such as twilight adorations (Samdhyavandana), are left to a man's own will.

The followers of the other three Ganapatis, Navanita, Svama, and Samtana, worship their god, they say, according to the Śruti. But since Ganapati is *adored* in the beginning of every religious act, he is the chief god and all *the* other gods are parts of him and should be worshiped as such. They regard the whole world as Gaṇapati and adore him as such.

Since the god Gaṇapati-Viṇayaka Was introduced about the sixth century, it is questionable whether these several sects existed at the time of Śamkaracarya. The imprinting of the face and the tooth of the god on the arms was a custom common to them with the Madhva Vaṛṇavas, though it is hardly indicative of the period in which the sect arose. But the worship of Gaṇapati without reference to any particular sect is practised by nearly all Hindus at the beginning of any religious ceremony and on special occasions. His image made of clay is worshipped with great pomp in the Maratha country on the fourth lunar day of the month of Bhādrapada (September), and at Chinchwad near Poona there is a special establishment for the exclusive worship of that god.

XV. Skanda or Kārttikeya.

§ 113. Another god whose Worship was extensively practised in ancient times, but is now rare, is Skanda or Kārttikeya. The general belief is that he Was the son of Śiva and Parvati. But in the Ramayana he is represented as the son of the god of fire and Ganga (I chap. 37). The foetus was thrown by Ganga on the Himavat mountain, and it was nourished by the six stars constituting the constellation of Kṛttika. (Pleiades), and was thus called the son of the Kṛttikas or Kārttikeya. In the MBh. (Vanaparvan, Chap. 229) also he is represented as the son of Fire, but the mother Was Agni's true wife Svaha, who had assumed the forms of the wives of six Rṣis, whom Agni loved. But here he is called the son of Śiva also, as Agni is a form of that god. There are other stories connecting him with Śiva and Parvati as his parents. But whatever the legend may have been there is no question that he was connected with Śiva, and was the leader of one of his Ganas. There is a Lingayat tradition reported in the section on that sect¹ that he was a founder of a

Gotra, and was a form of Śiva himself. His having the peacock for his vehicle is also consistent with his connection with Śiva, as peacocks are found in forests of which Rudra and his attendants were gods. His being the leader of the army of the gods was an idea probably suggested by his being the leader of a Gana of Rudra. And in historical times he has been associated with Śiva. Under P. V. 3. 99, Patanjali mentions the images of Śiva, Skanda and Viśakha as being worshipped in his time. On the reverse of the coins of the Kuṣāna prince Kaniska, there are figures with their names in Greek letters of Skando, Mahaseno, Komaro and Bizago¹. The first is Skanda, and because he was the commander of the army of the gods, he was also called Mahasena, which is the second name on the coin. The third is Kumara, which is also a name of Skanda, and the fourth is the Skr. Viśakha. If the first three were the names of one deity only, there was no necessity for giving three names and three figures. These, therefore, must have been regarded as three different gods as Viśakha undoubtedly was from his being mentioned separately from Skanda by Patanjali. In the story in the MBh. referred to above Viśakha is mentioned as having arisen from the right side of Skanda when it was struck by Indra's thunderbolt. This is indicative of the tendency to make the two as one person; and they appear to have been so made up later times. Or, looking to the fact that there are two names of Buddha on the coins, the above three may have been the names of one single deity. There are also three indications of the prevalence of the worship of Skanda or Mahasena in the early centuries. In the year 414 A. D. was built a Pratoll, or gallery, in the temple of Svami-Mahasena by one Dhruvasarman at Bilsad². Several holy observances and vows in the name of Kumara and Karttikeya are mentioned in Hemadri's Vratakhanda, and the worship of that god has not become obsolete even at the present day.

XVI. The Sect of Sauras and the Northern Sun-Worship.

114. surya, or the sun as the orb that is seen in the sky and not as an imaginary god of light, was a Vedic deity. It is

1 see JBBRAS, Vol. XX, p. 385,

2 lb. p. 395.

but reasonable to expect that the worship of such a deity should not become obsolete in later times, since the orb of the sun is daily seen in the sky. In two passages in RV. (VII. 60.1; 62. 2) the singer wishes the rising sun to declare him sinless to Mitra, Varuṇa, and other gods. This idea probably arose from the fact that the rising sun by his bright light discloses everything that has been done in the darkness of the previous night, and thence it developed into a belief that the sun destroys sins. Kauṣṭaki is represented to have adored the sun in the morning, at midday, and in the evening, and having made offerings of water with flowers, sandal, etc. or without (Arghya), prayed for the removal of his sins (KBU. II. 7). And this is what we do or are expected to do in our twilight and midday adorations.

Water is sipped by repeating a formula expressive of a wish that the Sun, Manyu and Manyupati may protect the adorer from sins (AG. Parīṣiṣṭal. 3, and TA. X. 25.1). After that, three offerings of water with or without the other ingredients are made to the sun after repeating the Gayatrī, and then the water is whirled round his head by the adorer by repeating the Mantra "That Aditya is Brahman". Aśvalayana directs that, while adoring the morning twilight, one facing the east should repeat the Gayatrī-Mantra till the whole disc of the sun has risen, and in the evening with his face towards the west till the whole has gone down and the stars have begun to appear (AG. III. 7. 4—6).

In the Upanayana ceremony, when the boy is invested with the sacred thread and other badges of a student's life, he is made to look at the orb of the sun, when the preceptor, addressing that deity, prays " Oh god Savitar, this is thy student, protect him. May he not die " (AG. I. 20. 6). Khadira prescribes the adoration of the sun for the enjoyment of riches and for the attainment of fame (Khadiragr̥hyasūtra IV. 1. 14 and 23). The hymn addressed by Yudhiṣṭhira to the sun after he entered his forest-residence, and his having obtained a vessel from him for the production of all the food wanted by him, his family and followers, are well-known.

In the seventh century Mañu, who lived at the court of

Harṣavardhana, composed a hundred stanzas to obtain relief from the white leprosy from which he suffered. About the beginning of the eighth century Bhavabhūti makes the Sūtradhāra, or the manager, of the Malatīmadhava offer prayers to the rising sun to remove all his sins and bestow holy blessings on him.

Thus the sun has been adored since the Vedic times for the removal of sins, and the bestowal of riches, food, fame, health, and other blessings. At the present day twelve prostrations are made to Sūrya by repeating twelve of his names, all of which have a Sanskrit etymology, and there is no foreign look about them. There is also a more elaborate set of such prostrations.

§ 115. It cannot but be expected, therefore, that a school should come into existence for the exclusive worship of the sun. And such a school is that of the Sauras. Anandagiri brings Śaṅkara into contact with the followers of this sect at a place in the south called Subrahmaṇya situated at the distance of fourteen days' journey from Anantaśayana or Trivendram. The name of their leader was Divākara, and they wore a circular spot of red sandal on the forehead and bore red flowers. The substance of the account of this school given by Divākara is as follows :—

The Supreme Soul, the Sun, is the author of the world. He is the tutelary deity of the Sauras and is adored by them. The Śrūti itself speaks of him as the cause of the world, such as "the sun is the soul of moveable and immoveable things" (RV. I. 115.1) and "That Aditya is Brahman". Brahman with which the sun has thus been identified is the cause of the whole world, according to the text, from which all these beings originate, etc. (TU. III. 1. 1.). There is also a Smṛti text in favour of this doctrine. There are six classes of devotees of the sun all bearing a mark made by red sandal, wearing a garland of red flowers, and repeating the formula of eight syllables. Some worship the orb of the sun who has just risen as Brahmadeva, the creator, others, the sun on the meridian as Īśvara, the destroyer. He is also regarded as the originator. Some regard the setting sun as Viṣṇu, the protector, and, considering him as the cause of the creation and destruction also and as the highest entity, worship him. There are some who resort to all the three suns as a triple form. Others, observing the vow of regularly seeing the orb, adore the Supreme

Soul as existing in it with golden whiskers and golden hair. One section of this class is devoted simply to the vow of the observation of the disc, and they see the orb, worship it in the sixteen ways, dedicate all their actions to the god, and do not eat without seeing the orb. The devotees of the sixth class imprint the orb on their forehead, arms and bosom with a heated iron piece and meditate on the god in their minds continuously. All these six classes have to repeat the same Mantra, or formula, of eight syllables.. The followers of this creed like other sectarians interpret various Vedic texts as setting forth the greatness and the supremacy of their own god. The *Puruṣasūkta* (RV. X. 90) and the *Śatarudriya* are so expounded, and the conclusion is that all who desire emancipation should adore the sun, should bear his marks on the body, and mutter the Mantra.

§ 116. So far there is no trace of foreign influence in the development of the Saura system. But such an influence undoubtedly contributed to the growth of the sun-worship prevalent in Northern India from the early centuries of the Christian era. Varahamihira in the stanza twice quoted before (*Brhatsamhita*, chap. 60,19) tells us that the installation and consecration of the images and temples of the sun should be caused to be made by the Magas, and generally those who worship a certain deity according to their special ritual should be made to perform the ceremony concerning that deity. This shows that the Magas were, according to Varahamihira, the special priests of the sun-god. There is a legend concerning this matter in the *Bhaviṣya-purana* (chap. 139). Samba, the son of Kṛṣṇa by Jambavatī, constructed a temple of the sun on the banks of the Candrabhaga, the modern Chenab in the Punjab, and no local Brahmana would accept the office of a regular priest of the temple. He thereupon asked Gauramukha, the priest of Ugrasena. He told him to get Magas, who were special sun-worshippers, from Sakadvīpa. Then is given the history of the Magas. Sujihva was a Brahmana of the Mihira Gotra. He had a daughter of the name of Nikṣubha, with whom the sun fell in love. The son of these two was called Jaraśabda or Jaraśasta, and from him sprang all Magas. They wore a girdle round their waist, which was called *Avyahga*. Thereupon Samba went on the back of Garuda, his father's

vehicle, to Śakadvīpa, brought some Magas from it and installed them into the office of priests of the temple he had constructed.

The Magas have long been known in the literary history of India. There is an Inscription at Govindapur in the Gaya District dated Śaka 1059, corresponding to 1137-38 A. D., in the opening stanza of which the Magas, who sprang from the sun, are represented to have been brought into the country by Samba. Six great poets, the works of some of whom are extant, are also mentioned. There are traces of the Magas elsewhere, and there are Brāhmaṇas of that name in Rajputana and some other provinces of Northern India.

Now these Magas are the Magi of ancient Persia, and the name Jaraśasta mentioned above as occurring in the Bhaviṣya-purāṇa connects them with the Avesta prophet Zarathushtra. The Avyahga, which according to the Purāṇa they wore round their waist, was the same as the Aivyaonghen of the Avesta language, which last signifies the Kusti worn by the Parsees at the present day. Albertun¹, speaking of the Persian priests Magians, says that they existed in India and were called Magas¹. The idea of locating them on a continent called Śakadvīpa must have arisen from the fact that they were foreigners like the Śakas, with whom the Indians had been familiar since the second or third century before the Christian era.

Evidently then the worship of the sun or Mihira-worship was brought into India by the old Persian priests Magi, but at whose instance and under what circumstances they came it is difficult to say. The legendary tradition of their having been brought by Samba was current in the first half of the twelfth century, as we have seen from the Inscription. The temple on the Candrabbagft referred to above was that which existed at Multan, and a glowing description of which is given by the Chinese traveller Hiuen Tsiang. Four centuries later it was seen by AlbSūnl". It existed till the seventeenth century, when it was finally destroyed by Aurangzeb. Multan is the same as the Sanskrit Mūlasthanā, and this name may have been given to the place, because the

1 Saohau's Translation, Vol. I, p. 21

2 Ibid, Vol. I, p. 116.

new worship of the sun was first organised there and it was its original seat.

On the coins of Kaniska there occurs a figure with the name Miirō = Mihira by its side. Mihira is the Sanskritised form of the Persian Mihr, which is a corruption of Mithra, the Avestic form of the Vedic Mitra. The cult of Mihr had originated in Persia, and it extended itself up to Asia Minor and even Borne, and the proselytising energy which characterised its first adherents must have led to its extension towards the east also, and of this extension the figure of Mihira on Kaniska's coin is an evidence. The cult, therefore, must have penetrated to India about the time of that Kuṣana prince, and the Multan temple which was its original seat must have been constructed about the same time.

An Inscription at Mandasaur records the construction of a temple to the sun in the year 437 A. D. by a guild of weavers, and its repair in the year 473 A. D. Another on a copperplate found at Indore in the Bulandshahar District in the United Provinces mentions an endowment of Devaviṣṇu in 464 A. D. for lighting a lamp in a temple of the sun. And in a third is recorded a grant in 511 A. D. to a temple of Aditya, or the sun. A great many more sun temples have been discovered especially in Western India from Multan down to Cutch and northern Gujarat¹. The ruins of one exist at Modhera, eighteen miles to the south of Pāṭan in the last-named province, and they contain the date Vikrama 1083 corresponding to 1027 A. D. There was another at Gwalior constructed in the time of Mihirakula, the Hūṇa Prince, in the beginning of the sixth century.

The form of the idol of the sun worshipped in such temples is described by Varāhamihira (*Br̥hatsarhṇi*, chap. 58), but the features mentioned by him which have a significance for our present purpose are that his feet and legs should be enclosed or covered up to the knees and he should be dressed in the fashion prevalent in the North (v. 46), and that he should be encircled by an Avayhga (v. 47). Accordingly the images of the sun that are found in the temples mentioned above have boots

¹ Burgess, *Architectural Antiquities of Northern Gujrat*, London 1903,

reaching up to the knees, and a girdle round the waist with one end hanging downwards¹. This last is a Persian feature, as we have already seen, and the other also must have the same or similar origin. It certainly is not Indian. The features of the idol of the sun and the fact of Magas, who were descended from the Persian Magi, being its priests point unmistakably to the conclusion that the cult was introduced into India from Persia, and I believe that the construction of so many temples was also due to the foreign influence. For, in the account of the Saura systems we have given above, there is not the remotest allusion to a temple of the sun. According to all appearances, therefore, the cult prevalent in Northern India was entirely distinct from those systems. It does not appear to have allied itself with any one of these latter. But it was accepted by the mass of the Hindus as a general worship of the sun, and the feelings which it evoked could not have been different from those which the indigenous worship gave rise to. And the manner in which devotion to the sun is expressed in the Inscriptions which we and in some of the temples, has nothing special or foreign in it. The Magas themselves, the priests of the new cult, were gradually thoroughly Hinduised until they became undistinguishable from the other Hindus and formed only a separate caste.

In the copper-plate grant of Harṣavardhana, who lived in the middle of the seventh century, his father Prabhākarvardhana, his grandfather Adityavardhana and his great-grandfather Rajyavardhana are all styled great devotees of the sun (Paramadityabhakta)². This is an evidence to show that the sun cult, probably made up of a mixture of the indigenous and foreign forms, prevailed in the beginning of the sixth century and was professed by great princes.

XVII. *Résumé of Saivism and Other Minor Systems, Part II.*

§ 117. The fearful and destructive phenomena of nature led to the conception of, and belief in, the god Rudra, the terrible howler, accompanied by his groups, or Gaṇas, called sometimes

1 Ibid., Plate LVI.

2 Epigraph'a Indica, Vol. I, pp. 72-73.

Rudras or Rudriyas, who were minor howlers. This god, when propitiated, became the auspicious Śiva, the beneacent Śaṁkara and the benignant Śambhu. The conception gradually developed further, until Rudra became the god of wild and awful scenes, such as cemeteries, mountains and forests. Of the beasts and savages that dwelt in these last and of the thieves and outcasts that resorted to them, he became the lord. Subsequently he developed into the god who pervades the universe, dwells in air and water in all beings and in herbs and trees and was the supreme ruler of all. When he rose to this position, he became the subject of Upaniṣad speculation, by meditating on whom and seeing whom everywhere in the universe a man attained blissful serenity.

But the awful and wild side of his nature was not effaced, but went on developing; and when religious schools such as that of the Pancarātras came to be established, one with Rudra or Paśupati as the god to be adored was set up some time after. Its founder was a human being, who came to be known as Lakutin or Lakulin, the holder of a club, and Lakulisa or Nakulisa, the lord, the holder of the club. Pāicārtha was the title of the work attributed to him, and his system came to be known by the name of Pāṣupata. Two extreme schools were developed out of this, and also one, which was more moderate, known by the name of the Śaiva. Traces of these schools have been found from about the second century of the Christian era to about the twelfth.

But the repulsive nature of the two extreme schools and the wild and fantastic character of the other two led to a reaction, and in the beginning of the ninth century we have the first Kasmir school; and about a hundred years afterwards was founded another. These are very sober in their doctrines and practices, and may be considered to have been influenced by the school of Śaṁkara, though an escape from his severe spiritual monism has been provided for, so as to allow of an individual existence to the delivered soul.

A further reform was effected about the middle of the eleventh century by the Liṅgāyat school. The philosophical doctrines of this school amount to this ; that God is infinite intelligence and

joy, is the creator of the world and the instructor and redeemer of mankind, and that the individual soul attains to a unity of blissful experience with him by gradually estranging himself from the world, pursuing a course of devotional worship, abandoning himself to God and seeing him in everything. This philosophy seems to have been influenced by the tenets of the school of Rāmanuja. The spirit of the Liṅgāyats was, however, combative, and they set up for themselves a community distinct from that which owes its origin to the Brāhmanic system. All the while, however, during the existence of these schools the general worship of Rudra-Śiva has prevailed among ordinary people regardless of the doctrines of these schools.

Śiva was associated with his consort Parvati or Uma. She too had a beneficent and majestic character as alluded to in the KnU. But just as an aboriginal element contributed to the formation of the character of Rudra-Śiva, so an aboriginal element of a more distinct nature came to be combined with his consort, and she became a terrible goddess that had to be appeased by animal and even human sacrifices. But since the lustful nature of man is very strong in him, that goddess under the name of Tripurasundari (the beauty of the three cities) or Lalita (sportively graceful) became the creator of the world, and was also worshipped with debasing and sensual rites; and thus came in the school of the Śāktas, who looked forward to an identity with Tripurasundari as the goal of their existence.

Ganapati as the leader of a host was, of course, connected with Rudra-Śiva. That idea became mingled with the idea of Vināyaka, an evil spirit that possessed men, and thus the combined god Gaṇapati-Vināyaka became an object of worship on the principle that an obstructive and evil spirit should be first propitiated before beginning an action. Thereafter he became the special god of six minor sects, one of these holding doctrines as debasing as those of the Śakta cult.

Skanda was more closely connected with Śiva as the lord of his Ganas or groups; and afterwards came to be believed to be his son; and his worship prevailed for several centuries from the time of Patañjali downwards and has not become obsolete even at the present day.

The Sun was a god worshipped in early times and his cult did not disappear, as his orb was daily visible. But he became the object of sectarian worship some time later. About the third century, however, of the Christian era, another cult of the Sun was introduced from Persia. It took root on Indian soil and prevailed for a long time in North-Western India, a good many splendid temples having been erected from time to time for his worship. A special caste of priests of the name of Magas was associated with the cult, and the masses of the Hindu population adopted it as if it had been indigenous to the country.

XVIII. Hindu Theism and Pantheism.

§ 118. As the theoretic or philosophic portion of the doctrines, taught by the founders of most of the various systems we have examined, are based on certain fundamental ideas contained in the Upaniṣads and the Bhagavadgītā, I deem it necessary to devote this last section to a consideration of the question as to what those ideas definitely are, and to what extent they have been adopted or modified by the promulgators of those systems to suit their specific purposes.

In discussing these ideas, some scholars make a broad distinction between Vedantism, which they identify with Pantheism, and Theism. If they and any passage expressive of the immanence of God in the world in a work whose main aim is theistic, they consider such a passage to be interpolated. I have already alluded to this mental attitude in the beginning of the present work, but it is necessary to say something more on the subject. If they mean by Theism the Deism of the eighteenth century, according to which the world is a machine constructed and set in motion by God, who remains apart from it, with perhaps the additional doctrine that he enters into relations with men who worship him and appeal to him, they are probably right. But this is not Hindu Theism. The immanence of God in the external world and in the heart of man is its essential doctrine. But that is perfectly consistent with the belief in God's transcendency, that is, his being distinct from the world and man and above them, influencing them, controlling them, protecting them, and listening to prayers. That the ideas of

immanence and transcendency are not incompatible or inconsistent; with each other is admitted even by European thinkers. The Theism of the Bhagavadgita is a Theism of this nature, and consequently the passages expressive of immanence are by no means to be regarded as interpolated. Theism of this nature is contained in the Upaniṣads also, though there are pantheistic doctrines of varied sorts.

Pantheism as formulated by Spinoza is thus stated :—" God, though undetermined *ab extra*, is capable of infinite self-determination.' Thus God, the *causa sui*, manifests himself in an infinite multiplicity of particular modes. Spinoza is, therefore, both pantheist and pancosmist: God exists only as realised in the cosmos : the cosmos exists only as a manifestation of God¹." The Upaniṣads contain pantheistic doctrines corresponding to what is stated in the first two sentences of this quotation. There are affirmations that when one thing is known, everything becomes known, as in the case of a ball of earth, on knowing the true nature of which One knows the true nature of all that is made of earth, etc. (ChU. VI. 1. 4); that when the soul is seen, heard and known, all this becomes known, and the Brahman, the Kṣātra, these worlds, these gods, these Vedas, these elements, — all this is the soul (BU. IV. 4. 6). Then again there are such statements as : " That Sat alone existed in the beginning, one without a second. That-reflected "I may be many and multiply " It created light ". This statement is to the effect that everything existing is a form or modification of God. There are many such passages in the Upaniṣads and several of these are quoted in 'Samkaracarya's Bhasya on the Brahmasutras I. 4. 23-27. But it is by no means to be inferred that the Upanisad Pantheism is of the nature set forth in the last sentence of the quotation from Spinoza, that is; Brahman is, not exhausted in the world, but it exists separately also. But the objection to this view is that Brahman being of the nature of spirit is not like the body divisible into parts, so that one may become developed into the World and another remain outside ; and this is affirmed in a text of the ŚU (VI. 19). This inconsistency is removed by Badara-

1 Encyclopedia Britanica, Eleventh Edition, Vol- XX, p. 683a, under

yana in Brahmasutras II. 1. 26-27. The argument is that though the Upaniṣads state that the constituent cause of the world is Brahman, they at the same time affirm the existence of Brahman separately from the world (ChU. III. 12. 6; and VI. 3. 2). The two are inconsistent on the theory that Brahman is a spirit and not discernible into parts. Though they are thus inconsistent! they must both be accepted on the authority of the sacred texts, since the true nature of Brahman and the world is beyond the reach of human intellect. This solution of the difficulty is inadmissible to non-believers in the sacred texts, but it shows that Bādarāyaṇa does not agree with the latter part of Spinoza's definition of Pantheism, i. e., according to him, the sacred texts do not affirm that " God exists only as realised in the cosmos: the cosmos exists only as a manifestation of God ". The inconsistency pointed out by him is based on the impossible conception of Brahman's being divisible into parts. But it will not arise if, instead of bringing in this conception, we suppose that in one aspect Brahman is the material or constituent cause of the world or realised in the world, and from another point of view, it remains pure and becomes the object of contemplation and devotion. Whatever it may be, Badarayana's view appears to me to be correct, and the Pantheism of the Upaniṣads is not exactly the same as that formulated by Spinoza.

But even this partial Pantheism is only one of the doctrines set forth in the Upaniṣads. As mentioned in the beginning they contain the rudiments not only of one system of religious philosophy, but of a good many and even of Buddhism. When Brahman or the Supreme Soul is affirmed to be distinct from the world and thus there is a denial of the partial Pantheism I have spoken of, that soul is represented as dwelling in the external world and in the soul of man; that is to say, Theism is taught with the immanency of God in the world and in man. For instance in the BU. III. 7. 7-30¹ we have first " He who dwelling in the earth is distinct from it, whom the earth does not know, whose body the earth is, and who, being in the inside, controls the **earth**, is the indestructible controlling soul ". In **the following** passages up to 30 we have precisely the same statement about water;

are, the sky, wind, the sun, the moon and stars, the quarters, the lightning, thunderbolt, all the worlds, all the Vedas, all sacrifices, all beings, the vital breath, speech, the eye, the ear, the mind, the skin, light, darkness, the seminal fluid, and the (individual) soul. Here the inward controlling soul is mentioned as distinct from the earth and all the rest, up to the individual soul, and still as dwelling in them, controlling them from the inside, and having these for his body. The whole section winds up with the affirmation that this controlling soul is not seen, but is the seer; is not heard, but hears; is not apprehended by thought, but apprehends by thought; is not known, but knows; there is no other seer, no other hearer, no other apprehender, and there is no other knower. Herein are brought out the peculiar points of Hindu Theism : God is the only seer, the only hearer, and the only knower, that is, he is all-seeing, all-hearing, and all-knowing ; and nobody can see him, hear him, or know him. He is distinct from all objects, but dwells in them and controls them. Texts expressive of such an immanency are to be found in many places in the Upaniṣads. God being thus distinct from the world, though immanent, can be the object of devoted meditation, and can be attained by means of truth, knowledge and purity. Mere immanency of this nature does not at all constitute the Pantheism formulated by Spinoza. There is therefore no ground whatever for regarding as an interpolation the occurrence of texts expressive of it in such a theistic work as the Bhagavadgita.

We have noticed above the manner in which Bādarāyaṇa removes the inconsistency between God's developing himself into the world, while at the same time he is transcendent, and his being a simple spirit without parts. Śaṅkarācārya fairly explains, I think, Bādarāyaṇa's view. But raising a further objection, he brings in his own doctrine eventually, that the so-called development of Brahman into the world is fancied by ignorance and is not true, that is, the world is an illusion. There are two doctrines indicative of the relation of God to the world, the so-called *Pariṇāmavāda* and the *Vivartavāda*. The former implies real development and the latter, an illusive development. This last is the doctrine of Śaṅkarācārya, wherefore his system should be called Singularism rather than spiritual monism ; while the first

is that clearly held by the author of the Sūtras, This is evident from his very definition of Brahman as that from which everything originates, in which everything lives, and into which everything resolves itself in the end, and from the manner in which in the first Pada of the Second Chapter he answers the objections based upon the theory that an intelligent being cannot develop into non-intelligent or insensate matter ; and Śamkarācārya himself acknowledges at the end of his comment on I I I . 14 that the author of the Sūtras follows the Parināma doctrine though to save his theory, he imagines without any grounds that Bādarāyaṇa has in view the ordinary or illusory condition of things in doing so.

Śamkarācārya's Vivartavāda it was which the later schools of Vaiṣṇavism and Śaivism contended against-, for even according to him, it leaves no scope for the relation of the ruler and the ruled, i. e., God and the devotee, in the condition of reality when all illusion is dispelled and one spirit alone exists (I I . 1.14). Most of them adopted Bādarāyaṇa's Parīṇāmavāda, but the distinctness of God, man and the world, which was necessary for the validity of their doctrines of worship and devotion, they secured by qualifying the mode of development. By this qualification they also steered clear of the inconsistency pointed out by Bādarāyaṇa in I I . 1. 26, so that his mode of satisfaction was not necessary for them. Rāmaṇuja lays down that the rudiments of the individual souls and of the insensate world exist in God himself as his characteristics or body, and with these he develops into the world, thus giving rise to the three distinct substances, the material world, the individual soul, and God as the controlled. Nimbārka maintains that the other two substances do not characterise God or form his body, but are dependent upon him for their existence, and in a subtle form constitute his power or capacity, which develops into the animate and inanimate world. Viṣṇusvāmin, and therefore Vallabha, hold that the highest God, or Parabrahman, manifests himself as the material world, the individual soul, and the supreme controller, but in the course of development his attributes of intelligence and joy are concealed by his mysterious power, and thus is produced the material world, while, his joy alone being concealed, individual states

come into existence, and when the three are manifest or unconcealed, he becomes the supreme controller. Vallabha adds two other forms of Parabrahman or Puruṣōttama, as mentioned in the section¹ on this system. Madhva rejects the doctrine of God being the constituent cause of the world and consequently that of his development, and lays down the five eternal distinctions between God, man, and the world and between different individuals and objects involved in the last two. Of the older Saiva schools, the Pasupata bring in the Pradhana of the Sāṃkhya with its developments as the material cause of the world, with Pasupati as the efficient cause Śrīkantha Śivācārya in his comment on Br. s. I I ; 2. 38, states that according to his predecessors, a certain branch of the philosophy based on the sacred texts revealed by Śiva (Āgamas) held Śiva to be only the efficient cause of the world. This must be a reference to the Saiva school which as we have already stated, was a dualistic or pluralistic school. The Vāyaviyāsāmhita according to him states that Śakti, or power, first originates from Śiva, thence Maya, thence Avyakta (I. 7.'3). By Maya is to be understood* the wonderful creative power of Śiva, as is evident from the following verse 4, and Avyakta means the Pradhana, as appears from that verse as well as verse 7. He gives another verse which sets forth that everything from the Śakti to the earth is produced from the essence of Śiva, so that Śiva through the Śakti is both the efficient and the constituent cause of the world. This Śakti is brought in by those who hold creation to be the development of Śiva, while it is not wanted for those Saiva philosophers who would keep the creative principle Maya or Pradhana as distinct from Śiva and undergoing independent development. Śrīkantha explains the expression * Śiva alone existed ' occurring in Sū. IV, 18, under I. 4. 27, by ' Śiva, with whom the Śakti (the power) in the form of the animate and the inanimate world was united, alone existed so as to form one entity *, so that he here understands Śiva as possessed of the Śakti to be the constituent cause. In this respect his doctrine is similar to that of Nimbarka. But immediately afterwards he speaks of the Cit and the Acit forming the body of Śiva and thus puts forth the same theory as that

of Ramanuja. Practically he makes no distinction between the two. The theory of the Lihgayats is the same as the first form of the theory set forth by Śrīkantha Śivacarya. Śiva as qualified by the sakti is the creator, that is, is the efficient and the constituent cause of the world. The Kasmir Śaivism attributes the production of the world to the will of God without any material cause, or affirms that God makes the world appear in himself.

Thus most of these schools avoid the Pantheism of Spinoza and the incompatibility between God's development into the world and his transcendency by holding that the rudiments of the material and the spiritual world associated with God as his characteristics, or as his body, or as his power only undergo development, he himself remaining pure. Viṣṇusvamin and Vallabha, admitting, as they do, the development of Puruṣottama into the world and at the same time his transcendency, follow Badarayana. The mysterious power which causes the differences by rendering certain qualities imperceptible, may be compared to the self-determining power of God involved in Spinoza's statement. The Kadmīr Śaivas do not bring in the idea of God as a constituent cause undergoing development and seem to admit the doctrine of creation out of nothing.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS.

AB. = Aitarey a-Brāhmaṇa.

AG. = Āśvalāyana-Gr̥hyasūtra.

AU. = Atharvasiras-Upaniṣad.

AV. = Atharva-Veda.

BhG. = Bhagavad-Gītā.

Bibl. Ind. = Bibliotheca Indica.

Br.S. = Brahma-Sūtra,

Br̥S. = Br̥hat-Samhitā.

BU. = Br̥hadarāṇyaka-Upaniṣad.

Chowkh. = Chowkhamba Sanskrit Series.

ChU. = Chāndogya-Upaniṣad.

HG. = Hirāṇyakeśi-Gr̥hyasūtra

KB. = Kauṣṭaki-Brāhmaṇa.

KBU. = Kauṣṭaki-Brāhmaṇa-Upaniṣad.

KnU. = Kena-Upaniṣad.

KU. = Katha-Upaniṣad.

MaiU. = Maitri-Upaniṣad.

MBh. = Mahabharata.

MU. = Muṇḍaka-Upaniṣad.

P. = Pāṇini.

PG. = Pāraskara-Gr̥hyasūtra.

RV. = Rg-Veda.

RVS. = Rg-Veda-Samhita.

ŚB. = Śatapatha-Brāhmaṇa

ŚU. = Śvetlśvatara-Upaniṣad.

TA = Taittirīya- Arāṇyaka.

T3. = Taittirīya-Samhita.

TU. = Taittirīya-Upaniṣad.

VS. = Vajasaneyi-Samhita.

YV. = Yajur-Veda.

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Wilson Philological Lectures.

LECTURE I.

GENERAL LAWS GUIDING THE DEVELOPMENT OF LANGUAGE ; THE DIFFERENT STAGES IN THE DEVELOPMENT OF SANSKRIT.

The occasion that brings us here together to-day is the first of its kind in the history of this University. Hitherto the University of Bombay has been merely an Examining Board. But this day witnesses the beginning of an attempt to discharge another and a more important function of such an institution. The main idea of a University is that it is a body of men devoted to learning, and engaged in acquiring knowledge and disseminating it. A country that has no such bodies of men occupies but a low position in the intellectual scale of the world, and contributes little to the general advancement of mankind in knowledge. But a devotion to learning implies sacrifice of worldly interests, and the poverty of learned men has become proverbial. To enable persons, therefore, to apply themselves to the pursuit of knowledge with undivided attention, there exist in connection with such institutions certain appointments tenable for life called professorships or fellowships, endowed by the enlightened liberality of private individuals or of the government of the country.

India and the Bombay University are no exception to the general rule. In other times learning flourished in the country under the fostering care of its innumerable princes and chiefs, as well as rich merchants. Though in the words of the poet, Śrī and Sarasvatī are, in a sense, constantly hostile to each other, it is Śrī alone at all times and in all countries that can support Sarasvatī, and enable her to live and grow. Hence it is impossible that the Bombay University should rise to the dignity of a seat of learning without such a provision as is found necessary in more advanced countries. India cannot take her place among the intellectual nations of the West, and compete with them in the advancement of knowledge unless her Universities discharge their proper function, unless we have professorships in connection with them for the cultivation of science, philosophy, history and philology.

But we may be told that an Indian does not care for knowledge for its own sake, and it is only as a means of worldly advancement that he enters the University at all, and, as soon as he takes his degree, he flings away his books, and no more troubles himself with the several branches of knowledge to which he was introduced while within the walls of his college. The reproach is true, as well as untrue. It is true if it is meant that since the first school or college was opened by our Government we have had very few or none among us who have devoted themselves to the pursuit of knowledge. But if what it is intended to assert is that a love of knowledge or learning and an unselfish devotion to it are foreign to the nature of a Hindu, it is altogether untrue. Those ponderous tomes which adorn the library of the Sanskrit student and those innumerable *pustakas* in the Sarasvati Bhandatn scattered throughout the country tell a different tale. But in this, as in other matters, the circumstances in which our virtue have grown up and are exercised, are not the *eiittuinstantanee* in which we are expected to display them, and fail to do so. Love of learning is ingrained in the very nature of the Hindu, but (the legitimate object of this feeling is Sanskrit literature. A knowledge of English and of English literature and philosophy is, in the first instance, sought for only for its practical benefits. A Hindu would not send his son to an English School if he could help it. A very powerful motive for the pursuit of learning, the respect of the society in which one lives, is also wanting in the case of the so-called educated Indian. A Śāstri or Paṇḍit is esteemed and treated with respect and consideration by his countrymen; the English-knowing Indian may be feared if he holds some Government appointment, but if none, he enjoys no consideration. The very word *vidvan* or 'learned' is grudged him by the orthodox Hindu. In one branch of learning, however, viz. Sanskrit, an English-knowing Indian may meet with appreciation and esteem at the hands of the learned in Europe. That is a subject in which he may successfully compete with his European brother, and in which he has peculiar advantages which the latter da4* not possess. Among his own countrymen he will and sympathy only if he has studied Sanskrit exactly in the old way,, but even in this case his heterodoxy, which is the result of his

English education, would stand in the way. But there are indications that a more sympathising and appreciating body of men is growing about us, and the circle will go on widening as education advances. In this, as in other matters, there are hopes that our countrymen will, in the course of time, chiefly through the agency of Government education, adapt themselves to their circumstances; and the Hindu's inherent love of learning will gradually attend and engraft itself on the branches of knowledge to which he has been newly introduced by the European.

But encouragement and support are essentially needed; and, taught by our ancient tradition, we naturally look up for these, in the first instance, to our Government. Hitherto it has con-
 aned its endeavours to the education of its subjects, a thing which was never before done by any Indian prince, and for which It has the strongest claims on the gratitude of the Indians. But what Indian princes have all along done, viz., the extension of support and patronage to men of learning, and thus enabling them to prosecute their studies, has not yet attracted the attention of our Government, probably because they thought the time had not come for it. Next, it is the duty of those of our countrymen, who enjoy princely fortunes, to encourage the growth and advancement of learning among their countrymen. Now the best and most effectual way, in which learning can thus be encouraged and patronised by all who have the means, is by founding University professorships to be held for life. A beginning, however, has been made, and for it we are indebted to the friends of the late Rev. Dr. Wilson, and to the good old Doctor himself. For, **when his** friends raised up the sum and expressed to him their intention to present it to him, he declined to receive it unconditionally, and, contenting himself with only a life interest in it, proposed that they should hand it over to the University, and found a philological lectureship. It is in virtue of the advice he thus gave that we meet here to-day. I only regret that the **Syndicate** was not able to secure the services of an abler **man**, and that the duty of inaugurating the Wilson Lectureship, **and**, I may say, the new phase on which the University is entering, hat devolved on me.

* * * *

The subject on which the lectures are to be delivered this

year is the Sanskrit, and the Prakrit languages derived from it. Sanskrit is the language of the religion, law, philosophy, and poetry of the Hindus; and all their ancient and most revered books on these subjects are written in that language. Even at the present day the language we use in our daily prayers and in the performance of our various religious rites is Sanskrit; learned men carry on their disputations in Sanskrit, and now and then we meet with new poems written in that language. Prakrit is a general name given to certain dialects in which we find some old books written; and in ordinary Hindu usage the term is extended to the vernaculars we speak. Marathi, Gujarati, and the various other idioms spoken in Northern India are Prakrits. The wording of the subject as laid down in the calendar implies that Sanskrit is the more primitive of these, and that the Prakrits are derived from it. Our business, therefore, is to trace the history of Sanskrit, to observe how from the very earliest form in which it is presented to us in the existing literature of the language, it gradually developed or was corrupted into the modern vernaculars. The Sanskrit which we know of as such is not now the spoken language of any part of India or of the world. It is simply preserved in books, and is used by the learned. But if the Marathi, Gujarati, and the rest show unmistakable signs of having been derived from this language, it must have been at one time spoken generally by our ancestors; and in being handed down from generation to generation it has undergone various modifications and changes, until we have now come to speak it as we do. But of this more hereafter.

India may justly claim to be the original home of scientific philology. In one of the most ancient Sanskrit books, the Samhita of the Black Yajurveda, there are distinct indications of the dawn of linguistic study.¹ The Brāhmanas of the Vedas,

1 वाचं पराक्यव्याकृतावदने देवा इन्द्रमग्राक्षिमां नो वाचं व्याकुर्वीत सोऽजवीह्वरं हृणी मतो वैवेव वाचं च सह गृह्याता इति तस्मादिन्द्रवाचः सह गृह्यते तामिन्द्रो मध्यनोऽवकाशं व्याकरोत्तत्प्रविष्टं व्याकृता वायुर्दत्त. Speech was once inarticulate and undistinguished (into its parts). Then the gods said to Indra, 'Distinguish our speech into parts.' He said, 'I will ask a gift of you, let Soma be poured into one cup for me and Vayu together.' Hence Soma is poured into one cup for Indra and Vayu together. Then Indra going into its midst distinguished it. Hence distinct speech is now spoken, Tait, Samhita VI. 4, 7,

which rank next to the Samhitas, and even the Taittirīya Saṁhitā itself, the composition of which differs in no particular from its Brāhmaṇa, are full of etymological explanations of words though often they are fanciful¹. One Acārya followed another, and they all carefully observed the facts of their language, and laid down the laws they could discover. They studied and compared the significations and forms of words, observed what was common to them, separated the constant element from that which was variable, noticed the several changes that words undergo in different circumstances, and by such a process of philological analysis completed a system of grammar and etymology. In the Nirukta, Yaska, whose exact date we do not know, but who must have flourished several centuries before Christ, lays down correct principles of the derivation of words. The last of the grammarian Acāryas were Panini, Kātyāyana, and Patañjali. The Prakrit dialects which sprang from Sanskrit were next made the subject of observation and analysis. The laws of phonetic change or decay in accordance with which Sanskrit words become Prakrit were discovered and laid down. The Sanskrit and non-Sanskrit elements in those languages were distinguished from each other. This branch of philology also was worked up by a number of men, though the writings of one or two only have come down to us.

In this condition Sanskrit philology passed into the hands of Europeans. The discovery of Sanskrit and the Indian grammatical system at the close of the 18th century led to a total revolution in the philological ideas of Europeans. Before this time there was hardly a scientific treatment of linguistic facts, etymological analysis was scarcely known, and philological speculation had not emancipated itself from the trammels of religion. The Jews were the chosen people of God, and hence their language, the Hebrew, was the most original of all languages, and all others were derived from it. This was the belief of European scholars, as that of the orthodox Pandit at the present day is that Sanskrit is the primitive language, and all others are corruptions

¹ The Ait. Brāhmaṇa gives the etymology of वेद (III. 9), of मातृव (III. 23), of जाया (VII. 13); the Tait. Saṁhitā, of रुद्र (I. 5. 1), of रुद्र (II. 4. 1, and II. 5. 2); the Tait. Brāhmaṇa, of अम्ब (I. 1. 5), of नक्षत्र (II. 7. 18) &c., &c.

of it; though, however, the Paṇḍit has an excuse in the fact that the languages he generally hears spoken about him have really sprung from Sanskrit. But several circumstances had about this time prepared Europe for independent thought in philology, and Sanskrit supplied the principles upon which it should be conducted and determined the current in which it should run. The languages of Europe, ancient and modern, were compared with Sanskrit and with each other. This led to comparative philology and the classification of languages, and a comparison of the words and forms in the different languages led scholars into the secrets of the growth of human speech, and the science of language was added to the list of existing branches of knowledge. The progress made within about fifty years is marvellous, and affords a striking instance of the intellectual activity of the Europeans. In the cultivation of philology and the elaboration of this new science, the Germans, of all other nations, have been most prominent, and have done by far the greater portion of the work. The more limited aeld of Prakrit philology with which we are here concerned has not been left uncultivated. Pali, the earliest of the Prakrit dialects, is almost as much studied in Europe as Sanskrit. We have editions of Pali texts by Tumour, a Ceylon Civilian, and a Danish scholar, Fausb'611; and of a Native Grammar by Kaccayana, by M. Senart, a Frenchman; an original treatise on this subject by Clough, and a very useful Dictionary by the late lamented Professor Childers.¹ The derivation of the language from Sanskrit forms the subject of an essay by the great French scholar, M. Burnouf, and the equally great German scholar, Professor Lassen. There are notices of the Prakrit dialects in one of Colebrooke's essays and in the preface to Professor Wilson's Hindu Theatre. Lassen also wrote a book entitled *Institutiones Linguae Pracratice*, based upon the grammatical works of native writers, and upon the Prakrit passages occurring in the Sanskrit dramatic plays. Professor Weber, whose industry and comprehensive grasp are admirable, has published an

1 This lecture was written in 1877 and revised in 1878. It will be necessary for the reader to remember this in going over this short sketch. Many and valuable additions to Pali publications have been made since then, especially by the Pali Text Society.

elaborate analysis of the language and contents of a Jaina religious work in Prakrit entitled the *Bhagavati*, and of the language of a collection of Prakrit songs by Hāla, together with an edition and translation of the work. Dr. Cowell has brought out a nice edition of the *Prakṛta-Prakāśa* by Vararuci; and Dr. Muir, whose works are so valuable to the student, devotes a large portion of his second volume of the "Sanskrit Texts" to Prakrit philology, in which he gives his own views and a summary of those of other scholars. In Ceylon, Mr. D'Alwis has published a work on the Pali, and in India, an edition of the Prakrit Grammar of Kramadīśvara has been published in the *Bibliotheca Indica*, and of that of Hemacandra in Bombay by a Jaina priest with the assistance of a Sastri¹. The modern vernaculars have not yet succeeded in attracting the attention of the learned in Europe. Essays on some points of vernacular philology by Professor Hoernle, of Jayanarayan's College, Benares, have appeared in the *Journal of the Bengal Asiatic Society*. But the most important work on this subject that has yet appeared is Mr. Beames's *Comparative Grammar of the Modern Aryan Languages*. Two volumes have been published, and the third and last is expected.² Mr. Beames has brought his subject down to the pronoun; and the forthcoming volume will treat of the verb. Dr. Trump in his valuable *Grammar of the Sindhi language* compares the grammatical forms existing in the several vernaculars, and recent grammarians of Gujarati and Marathi have made attempts in some cases to trace the grammar of these languages from the Sanskrit through the Prakrit. A Gujarati Sastri, named Vrajālal, has written a useful little tract on the history of his vernacular.³ But upon the whole, it must be acknowledged that vernacular philology is still in a state of infancy, and a great deal of what has been written is unsatisfactory.

1 Since this was written Dr. Pischel's edition of Hemacandra's Prakrit Grammar and his elaborate contribution to the *Grundriss der Arischen Philologie* have been published, besides several other minor works.

2 Since published,

3 Hoernle's *Comparative Grammar of the Gaudian Languages*, Kellogg's *Hindi Grammar*, Grierson's *Linguistic Survey of India* have, among others, been published since then.

Before I proceed to the subject in hand, it is necessary that should trace some of the laws of the development and growth of language, as I shall have occasion to refer to them frequently in the course of these lectures. Suppose a person wishes to express the idea *in a village*, and the only means at his command are the roots and independent words in a language such as the Sanskrit. Now the word which expresses a *village* is ग्राम, and another which signifies the *interior* is मध्य. By joining the two together in such an expression as ग्राममध्य he conveys the idea the *interior of*, or *in, a village*. Now this word मध्य is pronounced मज्झ or मद्ध by persons who have either not been taught to pronounce it properly or are not sufficiently careful to do so. This again is reduced to माझ or माध and thence to माह or मह, and ultimately to मा or मे. In this manner ग्राममध्य becomes ग्राममा or ग्राममे, which, as you know, are the forms of Gujarati, Sindhi and Hindi locative. In this condition its origin is forgotten by the speakers, and becomes simply a termination signifying *in the interior*. Again, if a man wants to speak of *one who makes a pot* and has not got a word to express the idea, he naturally puts together the words कुम्भ *pot* and कार *maker*, and uses the compound कुम्भकार. After a time, by faulty pronunciation, the क goes out and the word is reduced to कुम्भार. In the same way, as before, the persons who use the word कुम्भार have no consciousness that they are putting together two words, one of which means a *pot* and the other *maker*; but the syllable आर becomes with them a simple termination which signifies the doer of the thing expressed by the base. We thus see that these two very general terminations were originally independent words, and that in the course of time they lost that character. If you examine those forms which constitute the declensions and conjugations of any language you may happen to know, you will find that these also have originated in the same way. When, our remote ancestors wished to say *I now do*, they put together ऊ do, इ now, and मि I, and said ऊदुमि, afterwards changed for the sake of euphony to ऊजोमि. In the same way ऊजोति means *do now he* ऊजुतत् *do now he* (and) *thou*, इ being a corruption of सि a pronoun signifying *thou*, and ऊजोति *do now thou*. Or they expressed present time by using a pronoun equivalent to *here* or *this* and said होषति *know here he*, the ज

being the same as that we find in the forms अनेन, अस्मै, अस्मात्, &c. and signifying something that is near. In this manner we are able to trace the original signification of a good many of these forms, but since after their invention they are more or less corrupted, it becomes a difficult matter to do so in all cases. Still, we know enough to be able to lay it down as certain that this is the mode in which all our grammatical forms have originated. When a language is in that condition in which grammatical relation is expressed by such compounds consciously formed, and both parts of the compound can be used independently, it is said to be in the analytic stage. The change of मध्य to मा or मे, or of कार to आर, or of तसि to तद् or तः is what is called phonetic decay. Though this is usually spoken of in censure as corruption, it is the means by which a language leaves the analytic stage and develops. The words forming the compound grow together, both being altered in the process, and the original sense of the latter is forgotten. It is this circumstance that renders phonetic change possible, for, if those who speak the language always used the two words in the compound with a conscious desire to express their joint sense, such a corruption would not take place. Phonetic decay reduces the latter portion to a mere termination, and thus a language arrives at what is called the synthetic stage. All the dead Aryan languages, and most of the living ones also, are in the synthetic condition, while the Chinese is said to be in the analytic stage.

Phonetic decay or corruption is a process that is constantly going on in a living language. At some stages of its history it is very rapid and at others slow. It sometimes wholly transforms words. Its causes are deeply ingrained in human nature itself. Language is not the end and aim of human life ; it is simply an instrument of communicating thought, and the matter of thought is always more important than the expression. The utterance of a word implies an effort. We have to force the breath through the windpipe, check or compress it at different points in its passage through the mouth, and then let it off. The glottis or the opening of the windpipe, and the tongue and the various parts of the mouth are our organs of speech, and an innumerable variety of sounds may be produced by their means. In pronouncing

certain letters the glottis must be stretched or expanded, while in the case of others it is contracted, which is its more natural condition. The breath which comes out when it is expanded is called *svasa* or simple unintonated breath by the old Indian Philologists. But when the glottis is contracted, and the breath is intonated by the vibration of the vocal chords, it becomes what is called *nāda*, *i. e.*, tone or intonated breath. Simple breath is the material cause of the hard consonants, and the intonated breath of the soft, and of the vowels. When *nāda* is forced out and allowed to pass away without being obstructed, we pronounce vowels, and when both *svasa* and *nāda* are obstructed at different parts of the mouth, the sounds that are formed are consonantal. Hence a consonant cannot be pronounced by itself; it is only when the touching organs are separated, and the air allowed to pass through any one of the vowel positions, that the sound is produced.

When the intonated breath is let off through the rounded lips, it forms उ, and with the lower lip a little further off, ओ; while if the lips completely touch each other, and the breath is thus obstructed in its passage, we have क् which, with a greater force of respiration, becomes क्, and when it is partly sent into the nose, it assumes the form of ङ. If the *svāsa* is in the same condition as *nāda* when it forms ए and ऐ, we have ए and ऐ. When these two kinds of breath are shut up by the tip of the tongue forming a complete contact with the root of the upper teeth, we have इ, ई, उ, ऊ, and ऋ. When the contact is effected higher up and the forepart of the tongue is made into a curve, we have ऋ, उ, ऋ, ए, and ऐ. If the middle of the tongue is brought near the palate, *nāda* passing through the intervening space forms the vowel ए; and when the tongue is a little further off and the mouth more open, we have ए; while if there is complete contact, the two kinds of breath give us अ, उ, ऋ, ए, and ऐ as before. When the root of the tongue touches the lower skirt of the palate, we have similarly ऋ, ए, ए, ऐ, and ऋ. If the intonated breath is allowed to pass away when the mouth is in its natural position with the lips open, we have the vowel अ, and, with greater force of breath, the aspirate ह. The vowel portion of ऋ and ए differs from अ in the whole lower part of the mouth being brought closer

to the upper in pronouncing it, while in pronouncing **आ** the two parts of the mouth are more widely apart; so that the vowel sound involved in **इ** is the closest, **आ**, the most open. The diphthongs **ऐ** and **औ** are **अ + इ** and **अ + उ** pronounced hastily. In pronouncing the semi-vowels the organs are brought very close to each other, but do not form a complete contact; so that the breath is compressed and not shut up. Still, like the mutes, they cannot be pronounced without separating the organs. We pronounce **इ** when we bring the two lips and the ends of the upper teeth into close proximity, and it thus corresponds to the vowel **उ**; for **इ** the position is the same as that for **उ**, the proximity only being greater; while **ऋ** is formed a little above the dental position by emitting the breath by the sides of the tip of the tongue, and **ॠ** a little below the cerebral. The sibilants **श**, **ष**, and **स** are continuous sounds made by letting off the *śvāsa* or simple breath with the same force as in the case of the hard aspirates and through the space between the middle of the tongue and the palatal, cerebral, and dental or dento-palatal positions brought as near to each other as in pronouncing vowels.

You will thus see how minute and laborious these operations are. The difficulty is increased when we have to pronounce two or more consonants together. We have first to put the organs of speech into one position, and immediately afterwards into another, without leaving the first. Accurate pronunciation therefore requires great effort, and since, according to an observation of Locke, labour for labour's sake is against nature, the tendency always exists of making as little effort as is consistent with the necessity of making oneself understood. Hence **दुस्** is transformed to **दुह** i. e. only the quantity of breath necessary to pronounce **स** is let off, and the effort of forming a complete and close contact is saved; **कलकल** becomes **कललल**, and thence **केल्ल** and **केल्ले**, where also you will see that the contact is avoided; **अर्ष** becomes **अर्र**, in which case we find that the effort involved in the change from one position of the vocal organs to another is economized, though the pressure which the organs exert upon each other in the pronunciation of a conjunct continues the same, i. e. we have a conjunct as before, but the two members are assimilated. This is further changed to **आर्ष** in which the pressure is avoided, but

the shortening of the time which this would involve is obviated by lengthening the preceding vowel. This tendency to phonetic decay is so powerful that if not counteracted it would in the short space of a few generations render a language entirely unintelligible to its former speakers. Children, in their first essays at speech, often mispronounce words, and if they were left to themselves, the language of a country would undergo very great transformation in a short time. But at home and in schools they are taught to speak the language of their parents correctly, and this result is averted. Education, therefore, is an agency which arrests the progress of decay. Another check is afforded by the necessity of making oneself intelligible. If a man is careless about his language, he will not be understood. He has therefore necessarily to endeavour to speak as other people do. The feeling of society is also arrayed against the corruption of a language. The speech which does not approach the received standard is branded as vulgar. The tendency to corruption is greatly diminished when a language comes to have a literature. Some races are very careful about their speech, and preserve it in a comparatively pure condition; there are others which corrupt it greatly. But even in the case of the former, accidents in its history may transform the idiom considerably. If one race comes in contact with another, and gives it its language, it is sure to be greatly corrupted. The alien race cannot catch the pronunciation properly, or its vocal organs may be naturally so constituted or its previous vocal habits may be of such a nature as to render the sounds of the language difficult or impossible to be imitated. If there were no schools and colleges for teaching English to us, we should corrupt the language of our rulers so greatly as to render ourselves perfectly unintelligible to them. The native sentry's challenge हुकुर कर for "who comes there?" would be a puzzle to the scientific philologist.

The grammatical terminations which are oftener used than any particular words suffer the most by this process of decay, and after a time they are confused with each other or dropped away. When a language is reduced to this condition, it has to fall back upon the expedient with which it started, and tack on certain words or particles to its nouns and verbs to express the

relations which the old terminations denoted) and thus the analytic state returns. But the old process goes on again, and these words in their turn assume the character of terminations. Sometimes along with a case-form there exists in the language another expression conveying the same sense. When the former goes out of use the latter takes its place, or sometimes the latter drives out the former. The modern vernaculars have had to resort to this process of reconstruction in a great measure, and, as in the older languages, it has already become difficult in several cases to trace the origin of the forms. For instance, in Sanskrit the termination which expresses future time is *स्य*, and when it is applied to the root *दा* to give, we have *दास्यति* *he will give*. This *स्य* is very likely a compound of the root *अस्* to be and *या* to go, so that the contrivance the early Āryans had recourse to, to express futurity, was to attach to a root two others expressive of *going to be*; *दास्यति* therefore originally meant *he goes to be giving*, i. e. *he does not give, but will give since he goes to do it*. Now this *दास्यति* in the derived dialects becomes first *दास्तति*, then *दास्तदि*, *दास्तइ*, *दास्तह*, *दाहइ*, *दाह* and *दे* in order. Phonetic corruption has thus reduced this form to *दाह* or *दे*, and that for the present tense / *give* has also assumed the same appearance. There is thus no distinction between them; wherefore, to express future time, our languages have had recourse to a variety of expedients which I shall endeavour to explain in their proper place. The Hindi, however, has hit upon the same that was used by our early ancestors, and distinguished futurity by adding to this shrunken form the past participle of *गम्* to go, which is *गत्वा*, changed to *गा* by combining the vowels, and thus *देगा*, the form of the future, signifies literally, *gone that he (may) give*.

Another phenomenon constantly observable in the history of the growth of a language is the use of false analogies. Thus in Sanskrit the root *श्रु* to hear takes the augment *इ* in the Present and three other tenses or moods, and the Sanskrit of *he hears* is *शृणोति*. Now in the course of time people forgot that this termination was used in these tenses alone, and extended it to the Future, the past participle, and other derivatives, so that in the Pali and the Prakrits the root itself became *इज्ज* = *शृज्ज* instead of *श्रु*. This root has descended to most of the modern dialects in this

same form. In the same way क्री to buy became क्रीण, ज्ञा to know, जाण, हुअ to know, हुअण and so on. All these exist in the vernaculars so augmented. In the same way, though कृ is conjugated in Sanskrit by adding उ to the base according to the rule of the eighth conjugation, and forms करोति, कुर्वन्ति &c., in Prakrit it is conjugated according to the rule of the first or the tenth which are generalised, and has करइ or करेइ. This arises from the same sort of mistake that children commit, when, for instance, from the analogy of घरलें from घर, पडलें from पड &c., they use कगलें from कर, though the correct Marathi form is केलें and you may remember such expressions as " /knowed " and " you was " that Dickens puts into the mouth of his lower characters. The Pali and the Prakrits are full of such formations. This law may be called the law of false analogies or of the generalisation of grammatical forms, or formal generalisation, and the effect of it is to do away with anomalies and introduce simplicity in a language. It springs from the same causes as phonetic decay, viz. the economisation of effort, and its operation is restricted also by the same causes as those which arrest the progress of phonetic corruption.

Hitherto we have been considering the growth or the decay of the grammar of a language. But the names of objects constitute a very important part of human speech. These are not arbitrary or simply conventional. The possibility of mere conventional names can exist only under a supposition of men meeting and agreeing that they should call such thing by such name. But this implies a condition of high social and political development, which in an early state of society does not exist, and, in the absence of language, cannot exist. The process is very artificial, and would hardly be worthy of the intellectual nature of man; and though even in a high state of civilisation a language grows, and new names spring up, this is not the way in which they do so. The names of objects are always expressive of some attribute possessed by those objects. दुष्णी the earth is that which is broad, भातु the sun, that which shines, उदण्ण the sea that which has water, पिदु father, one who protects, दुहिदु daughter, one who milks cows. But you will see that these names are not logical definitions, for they have the defect of *ativyapti*, i. e. are too wide. It is not the earth alone

that is broad, nor the sun alone that shines, nor the sea alone that* has water. But still these things possess these attributes pre-eminently, and hence the terms become restricted to them. What is general is thus rendered particular, and the sense of words is, so to say, specialized. This process goes on continually in a living language, not only in the invention of new names, but often it works in a manner to narrow the sense of existing words. Thus, **वदना** etymologically signifies 'a feeling,' 'a sensation,' thence it is restricted in Sanskrit to a particular sensation, that of severe pain; but the pre-eminent pain is that experienced in child birth, hence **वेण**, the Prakritised form of the word, signifies in Marathi that special pain. So, **गर्भिणी** in Sanskrit denotes 'a female that is pregnant,' but **गर्भण**, the Marathi form of the word, is restricted to lower animals; **ताप** in Sanskrit means 'heat' generally, but in Marathi, and in Gujarati in the form of **ताव**, it signifies a particular kind of heat, viz. 'fever' though the word has not lost its general sense; **हृदय** denotes originally 'the heart,' in modern Marathi in the form of **हिय्या** it signifies 'courage,' which is a quality of the heart, though in old Marathi it preserves its original sense; **पिण्ड** in Sanskrit means 'a ball' generally, but in Panjabi and Gujarati in the form of **पण्ड** it is restricted to this ball of flesh and bones, 'the body'; **चेटक** in Sanskrit signifies 'an attendant', but in the form of **चेला** it denotes in the Hindi 'a pupil or disciple', who, according to Indian custom, is his master's close attendant, and in Bengali and the Goanese Marathi, in the forms of **चेले** and **चलो** 'a boy' or *son*, who is constantly about his parents. Opposed to this is a process which may be called generalisation of the sense. Thus the root **गवेद्** originally signified 'looking or searching for a cow'; it was then extended to any kind of 'searching', and lastly in the form of **गवसर्णे** it signifies in Marathi 'to find'; **इन्द्र** originally 'the lord of the gods,' is in Sanskrit used to signify 'the lord' of any class of beings, such expressions as **मानवेंद्र**, **गजेंद्र** &c. being very common; and a notable example of this process is afforded by the word **राजा** which in Sanskrit means 'a king', but, in the forms of **राय** or **राव**, is in the modern languages used as a title of distinction, and in Marathi, any respectable gentleman not following the priestly occupation, and not a man of learning may be called a *rav*. Sometimes, when

by means of phonetic corruption a word is reduced to two forms, each of the two acquires a distinct sense. Thus, Sanskrit वृद्ध is in the modern languages corrupted to वृद्धा H., वृद्धो S., वृद्ध B., and in this form it means 'an old man.' It is also corrupted to बृद्धा H., बृद्धो S., बृद्ध B., बृद्धो G., and बृद्ध Goan. M. in which form it signifies 'great,' 'large,' or 'more advanced in age'. In this last sense, the termination ल or र is appended to it (M. बृद्धिल, S. बृद्धेरो). The Sanskrit word क्षण becomes क्षण in the sense of 'a festival,' in Pali and the Prakrits, but क्षण in the sense of 'a moment.' In Marathi क्षण is further transformed to क्षण and क्षण in the form of क्षिण also occurs in the old literature and in one of its dialects. The Sanskrit उत्कृष्ट in the form of उत्कृष्ट M., उत्कृष्ट H., उत्कृष्ट S., उत्कृष्ट G., उत्कृष्ट P. means bright, clear, pure, but in the form of उजाड M., H., G., P., S., B., it means desolate or waste. This sense it acquired by the first process explained above, since a desolate land is cleared, purified of its tenants or appurtenances. लुग्ना means in Marathi a dwarf and कुबद्धा humpbacked. This last word exists in the other languages also, and both are derived from the Sanskrit कुण्ड.

The last phenomenon in the growth of a language which I shall notice is the gradual disappearance of words. As men advance in knowledge and civilisation, new ideas and modes of thinking arise, and the old ones fall into disuse. And since words are the representatives of ideas, new words always come in, and the old go out. The changes that the Marathi language, for instance, has undergone in this respect since the time of Jñānēśvara, or the Hindi since the time of Chanda, render the older books unintelligible to modern readers. There are also various other causes. Sometimes, when another language rises into importance on account of political circumstances, or when it is admired and esteemed by a nation, as Sanskrit is by Hindus, a great many words are borrowed from it, and necessarily the older ones go out to make room for them, or disappear because they are regarded as vulgar. The opening of an intercourse with a foreign nation brings about the same result. These causes account in a great measure for the fact that so many words in our languages have become obsolete. Jñānēśvara's Prakrit वसाव had to make room for the Sanskrit वसाव, गदिक for गदीर and गदिक for

नाथ; and the word जमीन has well-nigh supplanted the old धुई, as हुकुम has done आज्ञा, which itself must once have driven out such a word as आणा or आयत्त, the Prakrit forms of आज्ञा and आदेश.

The languages of the civilised nations of the world have been divided into three families, the Aryan or Indo-European, the Semitic, and the Turanian. The first comprises the Indian branch, consisting of Sanskrit, Pali and the Prakrits, and the modern Vernaculars of Northern India and of Ceylon; the Iranic branch consisting of Zend, the sacred language of the Persians, the Pehlevi and the other cognate dialects; the Hellenic or the Greek branch, comprising the languages of Ancient Greece and its modern representatives; the Italic branch, consisting of the Latin and the cognate ancient languages of Italy and the dialects derived from Latin, the Italian, the French and the old Provençal, the Spanish, the Portuguese, and the Wallachian; the Keltic or the language of those Kelts or Gauls that so often figure in Roman history, and distinguished into two varieties, the Kymric, now spoken in Wales and in the Province of Brittany in France, and the Gaelic, spoken in the Isle of Man, the Highlands of Scotland, and Ireland; the Lithuanian and Slavonic, comprising the languages of Lithuania, Russia, Bulgaria, and of the Slavonic races generally; and the Teutonic branch, consisting of the Scandinavian group, i. e. the languages of Sweden, Norway, Iceland, and Denmark, of the High German i. e. the old and the present language of Germany, and of the Low German, which comprised the old Anglo-Saxon and the other languages spoken on the coasts of Germany, the modern representatives of which are the English, and the dialects spoken in Holland, Friesland, and the North of Germany. The second family comprises the Hebrew, the Arabic, the Chaldee, the Syriac, the Carthaginian, and the cognate and derived languages; and the third, the Turkish and the languages of the Mongolian tribes. To this last family the dialects spoken in Southern India are also to be referred. The Zend approaches Sanskrit the most, but the affinities of this latter with Greek and Latin are also very striking, and such as to convince even a determined sceptic. Sanskrit has preserved a greater number of ancient forms than any of these languages, hence it is indispensable for purposes of comparative philology,

The literature of Sanskrit presents, as ordinarily considered, two varieties of the language ; but a third may also, as I shall presently endeavour to show, be clearly distinguished. Of these the most ancient is that found in the hymns of the Rgveda Saṁhitā. These were composed at different times and by different Rṣis, and were transmitted from father to son in certain families. Thus the third of the ten collections, which make up the Saṁhitā, bears the names of Viśvāmitra, and the hymns contained in it were composed by the great patriarch and his descendants. The seventh is ascribed to Vasiṣṭha and his family. The composition of these hymns, therefore, extended over a long period, the language is not the same throughout, and while some of them present a variety so close to the later Sanskrit that there is little difficulty in understanding them, the style of others is so antiquated that they defy all efforts at interpretation, and their sense was not understood even by the Rṣis who flourished in the very next literary period, that of the Brahmanas. Still for our purposes we may neglect these differences and consider the Vedic variety of Sanskrit as one.

The chief characteristics of the Vedic language are these .—It contains a large number of words that have become obsolete or changed their sense in the later or classical Sanskrit. There is a greater variety of verbal derivatives, such as दृशेत् in the sense of दर्शनीय 'worthy to be seen, or handsome', जीवत्, अवत् &c., abstract nouns from the roots जीव्, अश् &c., जन्म 'something that is produced', पति, बन्नि, जग्नि &c., nouns of agency having a past sense (Pāṇini III. 2. 171), which govern an accusative, दृष्टिक signifying 'handsome' or वृत्तिक 'favour,' &c. The nominative plural termination of nouns ending in अ is असम् (Pāṇini VII. 1. 50), as in विश्वे देवासः, as well as अस्ते, as in यज्ञेन यज्ञमयजन्त देवाः; and the instrumental plural is देवेभिः or देवैः (Pāṇini VII. 1. 10). The vowel cases of nouns in उ are often formed by joining the vowels by the usual Saindhi rules; as तन्वत् or तनुवत्, accusative singular of तनु; मध्वः and वस्वः, genitive singulars of मधु and वधु. The instrumental singular is made up by affixing आ, या, or ह्या, instead of ना, as मन्त्रा, उरया, उर्विया, धृष्ण्या, &c. (Pāṇini VII. 1. 39); sometimes of other nouns also, as स्वया, नावया &c. The nominative and vocative dual of masculine and the plural of neuter nouns in अ often

end in आ, as येनेमा विश्वा चयना कृतानि RV. II. 12. 4, अश्विना उरुर्दस्ता नरा RV. I. 3. 2; and the instrumental singular of feminine nouns in इ is optionally formed by simply lengthening the vowel (Pāṇini VII. 1. 39), as नविद्वया मती RV. I. 82. 2. The locative singular termination is often dropped, as in परमे व्योमन्; or its ओ changed to आ, as in नाभा for नाभौ (Pāṇini VII. 1. 39). The Parasmaipada first person plural termination of verbs is मसि (Pāṇini VII. 1. 46), as नमो भरन्त एमसि RV. I. 1. 7, and that of the third person plural is often रे or रते, as दुन्दे or दुन्दते. Other forms also admit of this र, as अदधमस्य. The त् of the Ātmanepada terminations is often dropped (Pāṇini VII. 1. 41), as वस्व ईशे RV. I. 71. 9. There are eight different forms of the mood called लेट् by Pāṇini, which has a conditional or subjunctive sense; सुपथा करत् । प्र न आर्यषि तारिषत्, RV. I. 25. 12, स देवानिह वक्षति RV. I. 1. 2. This is lost in classical Sanskrit. The several conjugations or ways of forming the special tenses do exist, but the roots are not restricted to any particular way, being conjugated sometimes according to one mode and sometimes according to another; as क्षुषी हवन्. There are some instances in which some tenses other than the special tenses also admit of the conjugational sign, as विष्णुषिरे, perfect. Sometimes guṇa is substituted before the त् of the second person plural imperative, though it is a weak termination, as in शृणोत.

The infinitive is formed by adding to roots the terminations से, छे, अछे, त्वे and त्वे (Pāṇini III. 4. 9), as वक्षे, जीवसे, पिबस्व, दातस्व, हन्तस्व. These are etymologically the forms of the dative singular of such nouns as वक्ष्, जीवस्, पिबस् &c. A few other datives are similarly used, as हृशे, रोहिष्ये &c. (Pāṇini III. 4. 10, 11). The accusatives of some nouns are also used as infinitives when governed by शक् (Pāṇini III. 4. 12), as न ये शक्नुयश्चिदा नावमारुहन् RV. X. 44. 6; also in other places, चिकितुषो विपुच्छन् RV. VII. 86. 3. The infinitive in classical Sanskrit ends in तुम्, as कर्तुम्, which is the accusative form of such a noun as कर्तु, the dative of which, कर्तवे, is one of the forms of the Vedic infinitive. The potential participles are often formed by adding त्वे, ए, एण्य and त्व (Pāṇini III. 4. 14), as नैषा गच्छतिरपभर्तवा उ RV. X. 14. 2, न तेन देव आदिशे RV. VI. 56. 1, दिदक्षेण्यः, कर्त्तव्य. The first two, however, ought properly to be considered as infinitives. The absolutive is sometimes formed by the addition of त्वाय; as गत्वाय. There is such a form as

इष्टीन् for इष्टा; and such others as इत्वी and पीत्वी for इत्वा and पीत्वा occur often. These last, as also the usual or classical absolutes, are forms of the instrumental singular of the same nouns, the dative and accusative of which are used as infinitives. त्वाय appears also to be an instrumental. There are a great many other peculiarities which are noticed by Pāṇini, and which you will find collected in the Siddhanta-Kaumudī. One thing, however, should be borne in mind, that notwithstanding there is in these respects a very great difference between the Vedic and the classical Sanskrit, they are in the same phonetic stage, i. e. the vocal elements of words and letters remain the same. There are a few such instances, as सथ् for सह, and युश् for युह, in which the mute has disappeared, leaving only the aspirate element, and to these may be added the terminations मसि and असम् for मस् and अस्; but both the original and corrupt forms exist in the Vedas, and no general conclusion can be based on these few instances. You will hereafter see that the other dialects I shall speak of differ greatly from the classical Sanskrit in these respects. The following specimen will give you an idea of Vedic Sanskrit —

१. यच्चि ते विशो यथा प्र देव वरुण व्रतम् । मिनीमसि वविषसि ॥
२. मा नो बधाय हन्तवे जिहीकानस्य रीरधः । मा हृणानस्य मन्यवे ॥
५. कदा क्षत्रत्रियं नरमा वरुणं कगमह । सुक्रीकायोरुचक्षसम् ॥
७. वेदा यो श्रीनां पदमस्तस्मिन् पतताम् । वेद नावः समुद्रियः ॥
१०. नि वसाद् धृतव्रतो वरुणः परम्यास्वा । साम्राज्याय सुकृतुः ॥
११. अतो विश्वान्यजुता चिकित्वा अभि पश्यति । कृतानि या च कर्त्वा ॥
१२. स नो विश्वाहा सुकतुरादित्यः सुपथा कर्त । प्र ण आरुषि तरिषत् ॥
१९. इमं मे वरुण श्रुधी हवमया च सुकृत्य । त्वामवस्युरा चक्रे ॥

These eight verses contain 72 different *padas* or grammatical forms, not counting the prepositions as separate *padas*. Of these 19 have become altogether obsolete in classical Sanskrit, and 12 have changed their significations. This, however, is a specimen of one of the more intelligible hymns, but there are a great many which contain a much larger proportion of words that have gone out of use. It is these obsolete words that constitute the chief difficulty of understanding the Vedic hymns.

1. The use of चिद् after यद् is unknown to the later dialect, that particle being found joined only to the pronoun किम्. The preposition प्र, though connected with मिनीमसि, is separated from it

by three words. Though the root of this verb is given in the Dhatupāṭha or Paṇini's list of roots, it has gone out of use. In modern Sanskrit we should use अतिक्रामाः instead. व्रत is not now used in the sense in which it occurs here, though it is connected with it. We should use दासन instead. दधिवदि means here 'day by day'; in classical Sanskrit the word द्यौ means 'heaven' only. The verse may be translated :—"Though we who are like subjects break thy law, day after day, O divine Varuṇa!" Varuṇa is spoken of frequently as a *rājan*, or king, and men are his subjects, with reference to that attribute of his.

2. दध means 'killing', or 'execution' in classical Sanskrit, but, since हन्तु 'killing' qualifies it here, it must mean some such thing as a weapon or a blow.

हन्तु is obsolete. जिहीकान is a participle of the Perfect of हेङ् or हङ्. The form is obsolete; and a verbal form of the root is not ordinarily met with, though a word derived from it does occur. हणान also is obsolete.

"Do not subject us to the killing blow of the spiteful, nor to the wrath of the angry," *i. e.* do not kill us out of spite or wrath.

5. क्षत्र signifies in later Sanskrit the order of the Kṣatriyas or the warrior caste. Here it is used in the primitive sense of 'valour', 'prowess'. नर does not mean 'man' here, but is used in its original sense of *manly*. आ and करामहे are separated by a word. सुकीर्ण 'favour' is obsolete. चक्षस् 'the reach of sight', 'visual power', has also gone out of use.

"When shall we call the brave, manly, and far-seeing Varuṇa hither to favour us?"

7. सन्नुद्रियः This form of the derived adjective is unknown to later Sanskrit. The genitive singular is formed by changing ई to इय्.

"Who knows the path of the birds flying in the air and of the boat on the waters."

10. "Enforcing his laws, the powerful Varuṇa sits down in his abode to exercise universal sovereignty."

11. अनुत्ता, the termination of the accusative plural, is here dropped; कर्त्तव्य is Vedic for कर्त्तव्य; here also नि is dropped.

" From this place the knowing one sees all secret deeds done or to be done."

12. कर्तु and तारिष्यत् are forms of लेङ् or the Vedic subjunctive.

" May the powerful God make things easy for us all our days and prolong our lives."

19. कृष्ण. Conjugated as a root of the second class, with णि as the termination of the imperative singular, lengthened for phonetic purposes,

" O Varuna, hear this my invocation, and now be propitious. I call on thee, desirous of protection."

The next form of the language is presented to us in the Brāhmaṇas of the Vedas, such as the Aitareya of the Rgveda and the Śatapatha of the White Yajurveda. A great many of those peculiar words which we meet with in the hymns, and which are so unintelligible have disappeared, the declensions have approached the standard of classical Sanskrit, the nominative plural in असम्, for instance, and the instrumental plural in एभिः having gone out of use. The roots have arranged themselves definitely under certain conjugations. The subjunctive has mostly become obsolete, though such forms as निष्पद्याते (Śat. I. 4. 1. 10), and असत् (Ait. II. 11) are sometimes met with. The roots take those forms of the Aorist that Pāṇini assigns to them, and this tense is scrupulously used in the sense mentioned by that grammarian. Such terminations as मसि and the various modes of forming the infinitive have disappeared, the ordinary one in तुम् being mostly used (Ait. IV. 8, VIII. 23). The language is in most respects the same as that usually called classical Sanskrit. It is rich in verbal forms of all tenses and moods. There are however a few peculiarities and archaisms. There are some antiquated words such as बर्स 'an extremity' (Ait. II. 2), अनीक 'a shaft,' मन्थाबल 'a bat' (Ait. III. 26); निहाव 'ultimate referee' अवबदिन् 'one who pronounces a decree,' भगवत् 'prosperous,' तत् for तत् (Ait. V. 14), इरा 'food' (Ait. VIII. 7). शुक्तिण 'powerful' (Ait. VIII. 8. 23), मेनि 'a destructive instrument, flame' (Ait. VIII. 24), &c. The dative of feminine nouns is often used for the genitive, as पृथिव्यै राजा स्याः (Ait. VIII. 23); सर्वस्ये वाचः;.....परिपृहीत्ये; the त of the third person singular of the

Ātmanepada is sometimes dropped as in the old dialect, as सविता वै प्रसवानामशि (Ait. VII. 16); a few roots form their Aorist in another manner than that mentioned by Pāṇini, as अजत वा अस्य दन्ताः (Ait. VII. 14), where अजत stands for अजनिषत, अद्रुक्षो वै म आत ह्वे (Ait. VIII. 23) where अद्रुक्षः is for अद्रुहः; the form of the infinitive governed by the word ईश्वर is that which ends in तोस as ईश्वरो ह तु पुरायुषः प्रेतोः (Ait. VIII. 7); and ग्रह appears in the form of ग्रञ्ज (Ait. III. 26). In the seventh and eighth Pañcikās of the Aitareya Brāhmaṇa some Gāthās or songs are quoted, the language of which is more antiquated than that of the body of the work. Notwithstanding these irregularities, these Brāhmaṇas are the best representatives extant of the verbal portion of that language of which Pāṇini writes the grammar, though he did not mean these when he spoke of the Bhāṣā. But nearly the whole of that literature which Pāṇini drew from, if he did so at all, has perished, or to speak more correctly, there is no portion of the extant Sanskrit literature that accurately represents Pāṇini's Sanskrit as regards the verb and the Taddhitas or nominal derivatives. Probably the spoken language of his time formed the basis of his grammar.

The next stage of Sanskrit is presented to us by the work of Yāska, whose language appears to be more ancient than that of the rest of the non-Vedic literature. We find a good many archaic words and expressions in the Nirukta, such as उपजन 'proximity,' उपेक्षितव्य in the sense of 'finding' or 'observing,' कर्मन् 'signification,' यथो in the sense of 'as to,' विलम्ब 'variety,' उपदेशाय ग्लायन्तः 'unable to teach.' शिक्षा राज्येन 'invested with sovereignty,' नैषण्डक 'subordinate,' अनिर्वाह 'celibacy,' &c. There are also some technical terms which we do not meet with in later works such as निवृत्तिस्थान 'weak terminations,' उपजन or उपबन्ध 'augment,' नामकरण 'a nominal termination,' &c. After the time of Yāska, Sanskrit underwent a peculiar change, for the proper understanding of which it is necessary for a time to consider the styles in which a man may speak or write. There is what may be considered as the fluent or flowing style of speech, in which the speaker looks at the actions of men in progress, actions in the course of being done or suffered. A man speaking or writing in this style will use a verb on every occasion. But a

as well as the Bhasyas on some of the sacrificial Sūtras, are written in the same sort of simple and lively style, though however they present a further stage in the downward progress. But gradually this manner of writing ceased to be used, and the philosophical style went on progressing until it has come to be what it is now. Śaṅkarācārya's Bhasya presents it in a middle stage. The sentences are much longer than those of the earlier writers, the construction is more involved, there is a freer use of attributive adjuncts, and the form is that of an essay or a lecture, instead of an oral disputation. But the great Ācārya's style is perspicuous throughout, fluent and charming, and not solidified or petrified, as that of later writers is. These latter hardly ever use a verb, and of the cases only a few are to be met with in their works. The nominative and ablative singular prevail, and long compounds are constantly employed. All our ideas are thrown into the form of nouns, mostly abstract, and even the participles have become rare. This style is the style of formulas rather than of discourse. It has reached its climax in the works of recent *Naiyāyikas*, but it has been more or less used by modern writers in all the Śāstras. The movement which began with a less frequent use of verbal forms and the employment of attributive expressions has thus ended in making Sanskrit a language of abstract nouns and compound words,

I have used the word style in describing this movement, to show what important changes in the structure of a language may originate from what is in the beginning but a style or mode of speaking or writing. If everybody thought and spoke about all matters as the *Naiyāyika* does in his own subject, our language would be just like his. It would almost have no verbs, no participles, and no cases except one or two. But it is not so. The movement could not be carried so far in other subjects. Hence the real classical Sanskrit is the Sanskrit of the Epics, the *Purāṇas*, the metrical law-books, the better or earlier specimens of Kavyas or poems and dramatic plays, and of the early philosophical or exegetical works. And if we examine this literature we shall find that the greater use of attributive or nominal forms of expression gradually drove out a large portion of the Sanskrit verb, and gave a new character to the language,

which may be thus described :—Very few verbal forms are used besides those of such tenses as the Present and Future ; participles are frequently met with; the verbal forms of some roots, especially of those belonging to the less comprehensive classes, have gone out of use, and in their place we often have a noun expressive of the special action and a verb expressive of action generally ; compound words are somewhat freely employed; and a good many of the Taddhita forms or nominal derivatives have disappeared, and in their stead we have periphrastic expressions. If the treatises of Pāṇini and others had perished, and we had to construct a grammar of the Sanskrit from the classical literature I have above indicated, our Verb and the Taddhita portion would be very meagre. Professor Benfey attributes the condition which the language thus assumed to the influence of the Prakrit* or the spoken vernaculars. But the process appears to me perfectly natural, and no such influence need be supposed, The change may in some respects be likened to that which rendered the Vedic subjunctive and other grammatical forms obsolete in the later stage of the language. The Prakrits may have given some words to the Sanskrit, but that they should in this manner have influenced its grammatical structure is very unlikely. It is more natural to suppose that it was the Sanskrit, from which the Prakrits evidently sprang, which gave to these latter their peculiar character. I shall endeavour to determine the exact relation between the Sanskrit and these dialects in the concluding lecture.

We have thus observed and determined the change that came over Sanskrit after the period that elapsed between the Brahmanas and Yaska from an examination of the literature itself. But the fact is borne witness to by Katyayana, who observed it in his time and made it the subject of a few *varṭikas*. Patañjali discusses the points raised in the following manner. An objector or *Pūrvapakṣin* is introduced, who says :

PURV. अस्यप्रयुक्तः । There exist (some) words which are not used; for instance, ऊष, तैर, चक्र, पेच. (These are forms of the second person plural of the Perfect.)

The *Siddhāntin*, or the principal teacher, who advocates the doctrine that is finally laid down asks ,—

SID. What if they are not used ?

PŪRV. You determine the grammatical correctness of words from their being used. Those then that are not now used are not grammatically correct.

SID. What you say is, in the first place, inconsistent, viz., that words exist which are not used. If they exist they cannot be not used ; if not used, they cannot exist. To say that they exist and are not used is inconsistent. You yourself use them (utter them) and say (in the very breath) there are words which are not used. What other worthy like yourself would you have to use them in order that they might be considered correct (lit. What other person like yourself is correct or is an authority in the use of words)?

PURV.—This is not inconsistent. I say they exist since those who know the Śāstra teach their formation by [laying down] rules, and I say they are not used, because they are not used by people. Now with regard to [your remark] " What other worthy, &C." [when I say they are not used] I do not mean that they are not used by me.

SID.—What then ?

PŪRV.—Not used by people.

SID.- -Verily, you also are one amongst the people.

PCTRV.—Yes, I am *one*, but am not *the people*.

SID.—(Vart **अल्पप्रयुक्त इति चेन्नर्थे साम्यप्रयोगात्**), you object that they are not used, it will not do (the objection is not valid),

PURV. Why not ?

SID.—Because words are used to designate things. The things do exist which these words are used to designate. (Therefore the words must be used by somebody. If the things exist, the words that denote them must exist).

PŪRV.—(Vart. **अप्रयोगः प्रयोगान्धत्वात्**), (It does not follow.) Their non-use is what one can reasonably infer.

SID.—Why?

PŪRV.—Because they (people) use other words to designate the things expressed by these words; for instance, **क एषद्विषयः** in

the sense of ऊष; क एषे तर्णिः in the sense of तेर; क एषे कृतवन्तः in the sense of चक्र; क एषे पकृतवन्तः in the sense of पेच. (We here see that participles had come to be used for verbs of the Perfect Tense.)

SID.--(Vārt. अग्र्युक्ते दीर्घसन्धवत्) Even if these words are not used, they should be essentially taught by rules just as long sacrificial sessions are. It is in this way. Long sacrificial sessions are such as last for a hundred years and for a thousand years. In modern times none whatever holds them, but the writers on sacrifices teach them by rules, simply because [to learn] what has been handed down by tradition from Rṣis is religiously meritorious. And moreover (Vārt. सर्वे देशान्तरे) all these words are used in other places.

PūRV.—They are not found used.

SID.—An endeavour should be made to find them. Wide indeed is the range over which words are used ; the earth with its seven continents, the three worlds, the four Vedas with their aṅgas or dependent treatises and the mystic portions, in their various recensions, the one hundred branches of the Adhvaryu (Yajur-Veda), the Sama-Veda with its thousand modes, the Bāhvr̥cya with its twenty-one varieties, and the Atharvaṇa Veda with nine, Vākya, the Epics, the Purāṇas and Medicine. This is the extent over which words are used. Without searching this extent of the use of words, to say that words are not used is simple rashness. In this wide extent of the use of words, certain words appear restricted to certain senses in certain places. Thus, शशति is used in the sense of motion among the Kambojas ; the Āryas use it in the derived form of शश; हम्मति is used among the Surāstras, रंहति among the eastern and central people, but the Āryas use only गह; दाति is used in the sense of 'cutting' among the easterns, दात्र among the northerners. And those words which you think are not used are also seen used.

PūRV.—Where ?

SID.—In the Veda. Thus, सप्तत्ये रेवती रेवदूष । यद्गो रेवती रेवत्यां तदूष । यन्मे नरः शुर्व्यं ब्रह्म चक्र । यज्ञा नम्यक्रा जरसी तनुनाम् ।

We here see that the objector says that certain words or forms are not used by people, and therefore they should not be

taught or learnt. The instances that he gives are forms of the perfect of some roots, and he observes that the sense of these forms is expressed by using other words which are perfect participles of these roots. These statements are not denied by the Siddhāntin, but he does not allow that the forms should not be taught on the account. Though not used, they should be taught and learnt for the sake of the religious merit consequent thereon, just as the ceremonial of long sacrificial sessions, which are never held, is. Then the objector is told that though not used by people, the words may be current in some other country, continent, or world, or they must have been used somewhere in the vast literature of the language. As regards the particular instances, two of them are shown to be used in the Vedas.

It thus follows that in the time of Katyayana and Patanjali, such verbal forms had become obsolete, and participles were used in their place. But it must have been far otherwise in the time of Pāṇini. He gives minute rules for constructing the innumerable forms of the Sanskrit verb. Our grammarians proceeded upon a strictly scientific basis. Nothing is more clear from several observations scattered throughout the work of Patanjali, besides those contained in the above passage, than this, that the Indian Grammarians do not give us the inventions of their own brains as they are supposed by some scholars to do. The very perfection of their observation and analysis has rendered them liable to this reproach. But notwithstanding all that, there can be *no doubt whatever* that they scrupulously adhered to usage. If so, the verbal forms taught by Pāṇini must have been current in the language at some time. We do meet with them in the Brahmanas, but our grammarian does not include these forms among the peculiarities he has given of the Vedic or Ghandas and Brahmana dialect, and thus does not restrict them to those works. They must therefore be understood as having been in use in the Bhasa or current language, the grammar of which he teaches in his Sūtras. And the Bhasa that he means must be that which was current in his time. In Pāṇini's time, therefore, the fluent or verbal style of speech was in use, as I have observed before. But it may be argued that though he refers these forms to the Phasa, the Bhasa he means may not be that which prevail^}

when he lived, but another current before his time and preserved in its literature, on which Panini based his rules. It matters very little even if we make this supposition. The only effect is that the period when the non-Vedic Sanskrit was rich in verbal forms is placed before Pāṇini; but the fact itself that there was such a period is undeniable. The supposition, however, is unreasonable. For it is not at all likely that he should neglect the language prevalent in his time and teach that which was current before him, and speak of it as the Bhāṣā, which word literally signifies the "spoken language" or vernacular. And the occurrence in the Sūtras of words that became obsolete in later Sanskrit confirms this view. The following are such words :—
 अन्वयसर्ग 'allowing one his own way,' निरवसित 'excommunicated,'
 प्रत्यक्षान 'eating,' अभिविधि 'including,' स्वरण 'marrying,' उत्सृज्य
 'throwing up,' अत्रेय 'equitableness'. You will have seen that the Vārtika of Kātyāyana which starts the discussion I have translated, and Patañjali's comment on it speak of words generally as having ceased to be used, though the examples given consist of certain verbal forms only. It is, therefore, to be understood that the observation is applicable to other forms and expressions also taught by Panini which we do not meet with in the later literature. Among such may be noticed उपाजेक and अन्वाजेक 'to strengthen,' निवचनेक 'to be silent,' कणेइन्, and मनोइन् 'to fulfil one's longing,' &c. कणेइन् occurs in Yāska also. Most of the verbal derivatives ending in the technical termination णकुत् must also be so considered, such as ब्राह्मणवेदं भोजयति 'feeds every Brāhmaṇa that he finds,' चेलकूपं दृष्टः 'rained till the clothes were wet,' स्वयंपुण्याति 'supports by his own means,' उर्ध्वशोणं कुप्यति 'withers standing,' &c. A good many Taddhita forms taught in Panini's Sūtras must also, I think, be put in the same category.

And there is another circumstance which shows that Pāṇini's Sanskrit was more ancient than Kātyāyana's. Kātyāyana's Vārtikas on Panini, which I have already spoken to you of, touch on various points concerning grammar and the system of Pāṇini.

1 Professor Goldstucker has used the argument based on the occurrence of obsolete words in the Sūtras and that set forth in the next paragraph, to prove the archaic character of the language as it existed in Panini's time and some of the instances quoted in the text are the same as his.

The purpose of a great many of them is the proper interpretation of the Sūtras, and there are some which supply links that are wanting in the system, also a good many which teach forms not taught by Pāṇini, or give the correct forms, when by the strict application of Pāṇini's rules we arrive at such as are incorrect. Now, this strict application of Pāṇini's rules is often in the manner of a quibbling logician, and consequently it was probably never meant by Pāṇini himself. Again, it may also be allowed that some forms existing in the language may have escaped Pāṇini's notice. But even after making allowance for all these considerations, a good many forms taught by Kātyāyana are left which it is impossible to believe Pāṇini did not observe or know, if they existed in the language in his time. Though not infallible, Pāṇini was not an indifferent grammarian. He justly deserves the reputation he has all along enjoyed of being the pre-eminent teacher of grammar. He has noticed even stray facts about the language. If so, the only reasonable supposition is that these forms did not exist in the language at the period when he lived.

For instance, according to Pāṇini's rules the vocative singular of neuter nouns ending in अन् such as ब्रह्मन् and नामन् is ब्रह्मन् and नामन्, but Kātyāyana in a Vārtikā on VIII. 2, 8 tells us it is ब्रह्मन् or ब्रह्म and नामन् or नाम.

Pāṇini teaches that the forms of the dative, ablative, genitive, and locative singular of the feminine of द्वितीय and तृतीय are optionally like those of the corresponding pronouns, i. e. we have either द्वितीयायै or द्वितीयस्यै, द्वितीयायाः or द्वितीयस्याः &c., but Kātyāyana in a Vārtikā on I. 1, 36 extends this option to the masculine also, and according to him we have द्वितीयाय or द्वितीयस्मै, द्वितीयात् or द्वितीयस्मात् &c., while Pāṇini gives us only the first.

Pāṇini's rule IV. 1, 49 allows of मातुलानी only as the feminine of मातुल, but Kātyāyana gives मातुली also; उपाध्यायानी is not noticed by Pāṇini while Kātyāyana lays down that as well as उपाध्यायी in the sense of 'wife of the उपाध्याय'. So also आर्या and क्षत्रिया are according to Pāṇini, 'a female Ārya' and a female Kṣatriya'. but Kātyāyana gives आर्याणी and क्षत्रियाणी as well as आर्या and क्षत्रिया.

A good many more instances of a similar nature may be given from other parts of Sanskrit Grammar. Are we then to suppose that the forms **ब्रह्म, नाम, कर्म** &c. of the vocative singular, **द्वितीयस्मै** of the dative of **द्वितीय** &c., **मातुली, उपाध्यायानी, आचार्याणी, क्षत्रियाणी** and many more such, escaped the observation of such a grammarian as Pāṇini, or that he did not know them? Is the supposition that they did not exist in the language in his time not more reasonable? It therefore appears clear to me that the language in Pāṇini's time was in a different condition from that in which it was in Kātyāyana's. The chief differences, to point out which has been the object of this discussion, may be thus stated :—In Pāṇini's time a good many words and expressions were current which afterwards became obsolete; verbal forms were commonly used which ceased to be used in Kātyāyana's time, and some grammatical forms were developed in the time of the latter, which did not exist in Pāṇini's.

Pāṇini's Sanskrit must, therefore, be identified with that which preceded the Epics, and he must be referred to the literary period between the Brahmanas and Yāska. Hence it is that the Brāhmaṇas, as observed before, are the best existing representatives of the language of which Pāṇini writes the grammar. Kātyāyana, on the other hand, wrote when the language arrived at that stage which we have called Classical.

Thus then, we have been able to trace three distinct periods in the development of Sanskrit. First, we have the Vedic period, to which the Rgveda Samhita, the Mantra portion of the Yajurveda, and the more antiquated part of the Atharva-Samhitā are to be referred. Then commences another period, at the threshold of which we find the Brāhmaṇas, which, so to say, look backwards to the preceding, that is, they present the Vedic language in the last stage of its progress towards Pāṇini's Bhāṣā; and later on, we have Yaska and Panini. This may be called the period of Middle Sanskrit. And last of all, there is the Classical period to which belong the Epics, the earliest specimens of Kavyas and dramatic plays, the metrical Smritis, and the grammatical work of Kātyāyana.

Pāṇini's work contains the grammar of Middle Sanskrit, while Kātyāyana's that of Classical Sanskrit, though he gives his sanction to the archaic forms of the former on the principle, as he himself has stated, on which the authors of the sacrificial Sūtras teach the ritual of long sacrificial sessions, though they had ceased to be held in their time. Patanjali gives but few forms which differ from Kātyāyana's, and in no way do they indicate a different stage in the growth of the language ; hence his work is to be referred to the same period. The form which the language assumed at this time became the standard for later writers to follow, and Kātyāyana and Patanjali are now generally acknowledged authorities on all points concerning the correctness of Sanskrit speech. We shall hereafter see that the last two stages have left distinct traces on the Prakrits or the derived languages.

LECTURE

PALI AND THE DIALECTS OF THE PERIOD

In the last lecture we traced the development of the Sanskrit language until it assumed the form in which it is usually called Classical Sanskrit. This form it acquired several centuries before Christ, as I shall hereafter endeavour to show, but it has since preserved it unaltered. The reason is that the number of people using it has been growing smaller and smaller, and now for a considerable period, it has remained confined to a few learned men who devote long time to its study and use it only for religious and philosophical purposes. But in so far as it has been used for these purposes, it has not been free from change, as was pointed out on the last occasion. The style and modes of expression used by Gadaḍhara Bhaṭṭācārya, the great Naiyāyika of modern times, are not the same as those of Kanada, Gotama, and Vatsyayana, nor those used by Nagojibhatta, the same as those of Katyayana and Patañjali. But all these changes have followed one direction. The efforts of our modern writers have been mostly, if not altogether, directed to systematizing and reducing to an accurate and definite shape the conceptions of those ancient sages, and no new ideas or methods of thought have arisen. They have thus elaborated a highly artificial style, abounding in abstract terms. In other branches of the literature also, we may discover some peculiarities and corruptions of diction and manner. But still, making due allowance for all this, the generally received standard of good and correct Sanskrit is the same as it was many centuries ago. There are certain models which modern writers and speakers have to conform to.

When, however, a language is living, that is, is used by people generally and in matters of every-day life, it must undergo very great changes. Men will not waste time and trouble in accurately ascertaining and imitating the pronunciation of their fathers, or reproducing exactly the several grammatical forms used by their predecessors. All that is necessary is that they should make themselves understood. Old modes of thinking give,

place to new ones, and ideas spring up; and both must be re-presented in the language that is used. Sometimes accidents in the history of a race, such as its coming in contact or being incorporated with another race, serve to transform its language within a short time. But the alterations that occur from these and other causes obey certain laws; and hence the possibility of a Science of Language.

Now, by the operation of influences such as these, Sanskrit was, in very remote times, corrupted, and new dialects arose from it. We should have known nothing of these if they had not been preserved in their literatures. Of these dialects that which approaches Sanskrit the most is the Pali. This is the sacred language of the Buddhists of Ceylon, Siam, and Burma, and possesses an extensive literature.

I will introduce my remarks on this dialect by placing before you a specimen :—

सावन्धियं किर अदिण्णपुब्बको नाम ब्राह्मणो अहोसि । तेन कस्साचि किञ्चिद्-
दिण्णपुब्बं तेन तं अदिण्णपुब्बको त्वेव सं जानिंहु । तस्मेकपुत्तको अहोसि पिबो
मनापो । तस्स सौळसवस्सकाले पण्डुरोगो उदपावि । माता पुनं ओलोकेत्वा
ब्राह्मण पुत्तस्स ते रोगो उप्पको तिकिच्छापेहि नन्ति आह । भोति सच्चं वेज्जं आनेस्सामि
भत्तन्नं दातव्वं भविस्सति । त्वं मम धनच्छेदनं न ओलोकेसीति । अथ किं करिस्ससि
ब्राह्मणा ति । यथा मे धनच्छेदो न होति तथा करिस्सामीति । सो वेज्जानं सन्तिकं गत्वा
असूकरोगस्स नाम तुल्ले किं भेसज्जं करोथाति पुच्छि । अथस्स ते यं वा तं वा कक्खत-
त्थादिं आचिक्खन्ति । सो तं आहरित्वा पुत्तस्स भेसज्जं करोति । तं करोन्तस्सेवस्स रोगो
बलवा अहोसि ।

This is from the Aṭṭhakathā or commentary by Buddhaghōṣa on the Dhammapada. It was written in the fifth century after Christ, long after Pali had ceased to be a vernacular. The following is from the Dhammapada itself, which we have reason to believe is much more ancient:—

129. सच्चं तत्तन्ति वण्डस्स सच्चं भायन्ति मच्चनो ।
अत्तानं उपमं क्त्वा न हनेय्या न घातये ॥

131. दुस्सकामानि धृतानि यो वण्डेन विहिंसति ।
अत्तनो दुस्समेत्तानो पेक्ख सो न हभते दुस्सं ॥

133. मा बोच परुसं कञ्चि दुक्ता पटिबदेसु तं ।
दुक्ता हि सारम्भकथा पटिदण्डा कुत्तेसु तं ॥
134. सचे नेरेसि अत्तानं कंते उपहतो यथा ।
एस पत्तोसि निम्बानं सारम्भो ते न विज्जति ॥

The Sanskrit of these passages is as follows :—

आवत्स्यां किलादत्तपूर्वको नाम ब्राह्मणो भूत् । तेन कस्मैचित्किञ्चिद्वदत्तपूर्वं तेन तमदत्तपूर्वकस्त्वेव समज्ञासत । तस्यैकपुत्रको भूत्प्रियो मनोज्ञः । तस्य षोडशवर्षकाले पाण्डुरोग उदयादि । माता पुत्रमवलोक्य ब्राह्मण पुत्रस्य ते रोग उत्पन्नाधिकित्सयैनमित्याह । भवति स चेद्देयमनप्यामि भक्तचेतनं दातव्यं भविष्यति । त्वं मम धनच्छेदनं नावलोकयसि । अथ किं करिष्यसि ब्राह्मणेति । यथा मे धनच्छेदो न भवति तथा करिष्यामीति । स वैद्यानामन्तिकं गत्वा ह्युक्तं रोगस्य नाम पृथं किं भैषज्यं कुरुष्वेत्यप्राक्षीत् । अथास्य ते यद्वा तद्वा वृक्षत्वगाधाचक्षते । स तदाहृत्य पुत्रस्य भैषज्यं करोति । तत्कुर्वत प्रवास्य रोगो बलवान्भूत् ।

129. सर्वे असन्ति दण्डस्य सर्वे बिभ्यति मृत्योः ।
आत्मानमुपमां कृत्वा न हन्यान् प्रातयेत् ॥
131. सुखकामानि भूतानि यो दण्डेन बिहिनास्ति ।
आत्मनः सुखमिच्छन्नेत्य स न लभते सुखम् ॥
133. मा बोचः परुषं कञ्चिदुक्ताः प्रतिबदेयुस्त्वाम् ।
दुक्ता हि संरम्भकथा प्रतिदण्डाः स्पृशंसुस्त्वाम् ॥
134. स च्छेरयस्यात्मानं कांस्यमुपहतं यथा ।
एष प्राप्नोसि निर्वाणं संरम्भस्तं न विद्यते ॥

" In Sravasti there was a Brahman of the name of Adatta-Dīrvaka (literally 'one who had not given away anything before'). He never gave anything to anybody, whence they called him Adattapūrvaka. A son was born to him, pleasing and delightful. When he was sixteen years old, he got jaundice. Seeing the son thus, the mother said, "O Brahman, your son has got a disease, put him under medical treatment." " Lady, if I get a physician, food and salary will have to be given to him. You do not see that this will entail expense " (lit. lessen my money). " What then will you do, Brahman? " "I will do what will not involve expense" (lessen my money). He then went to physicians and asked, " What medicine do you use against such and such a disease? " They spoke to him at random of the bark of some tree. He brought it and gave it as a medicine to his son, As he went on doing so, the disease was aggravated. "

129. " All are afraid of being hurt, all fear death. Taking one's own self as a model, one should not kill and cause to be killed."

131. " He, who looking to his own happiness, inflicts injury upon creatures that equally desire their happiness, does not obtain felicity after death."

133. " Do not speak harshly to anybody ; they may speak to you in return. For angry altercation is painful, and revenge will overtake you."

134. " If then, like a bottom of a shattered metallic vessel, you will not stir yourself (utter), then you have reached Nirvāṇa, and you will have no angry altercation,"

(A)

PHONOLOGY OF THE PALI DIALECT

Here you will see a great many instances of the laws we laid down in the last lecture. And first, as regards phonetic corruption, we have in these passages *त* for *त्र* as in *एत* for *एत्र*, for *क* as in *अत्त* for *अक्क*, and for *त* as in *एत्त* for *एत्त*, and *ए* for *ए* as in *उत्पन्न* for *उत्पन्न*. This change is usually called assimilation of consonants.

In pronouncing a conjunct, one has to pass from one position of the vocal organs to another without letting off the breath checked or compressed in the first, an operation of great difficulty. The sound of the first member is indistinct, but when the second is a weak consonant such as a nasal or a semi-vowel, it glides into the first almost as a vowel does, and thus the sound of the first acquires greater prominence. In the first position, the vocal organs strike and press against each other strongly, and the momentum necessary for this effort is acquired by uttering forcibly and with a jerk the vowel that precedes the conjunct, *i. e.* *अ* for instance in the word *अक्क*, just as a man previous to striking and pressing anything with his fist moves the hand with force through some distance. The previous forcible vowel breath and the subsequent strong contact and pressure form the characteristic of a conjunct consonantal sound. This is the only way of rendering the two members at all distinct, for the first is thus uttered with the preceding vowel and the second with the following.

Thus, भक्त if pronounced in the manner I have described becomes भक्त्त, but, if the previous vowel sound is weak, it becomes भ-क्त्त, in which case, in consequence of the absence of momentum, the pressure cannot be strong, and the conjunct character is not fully brought out.

What we find in the Pali, therefore, is that the passage from one vocal position to another is avoided, and the more distinct sound only, whether of the first member or the second, is pronounced with this forcible previous vowel breath and the succeeding strong contact and pressure ; that is, we have a conjunct as before, but it is made up not of two different letters, but of two of the same kind. Hence the instances noted above and also धम्म for धर्मे, जम्म for जन्म, यज्ज for यज्ञ, सह for शब्द, दुद्ध for दुग्ध, खग्ग for खङ्ग, सुग्ग for सुह, अच्चुत्त for अद्भुत, लद्ध for लब्ध, उक्का for उत्का, अप्प for अल्प, तप्पन for तर्पण, अय्य for आर्य &c. But an attempt is made to pronounce the other sound also, and such of its elements as can go in, with that which is uttered without involving change of position, are transferred to it, that is, in effect, the Pali speaker treated a conjunct consonant as one sound possessing the characteristics of both. Thus the heavy *svāsa* or simple breath of च, झ, and ञ in the conjuncts च्छ, च्झ, च्ण, छ्, छ्झ, छ्ण and ञ्ण is combined with the distinct sounds क्, ख्, द्, त्, and प्, and we have च्छ, छ्छ, द्द, त्त, and प्प for those conjuncts ; but, when preceded by a vowel and pronounced with the usual conjunctal characteristic, they become क्ख, ख्ख, द्द, त्त and प्प ; as in सावत्थियं for आवत्स्याम् and कुसेयु for सुहोयु; in the above, and in खन्ध for स्कन्ध, पोक्खर for पुष्कर, पक्खा for पञ्चात, अच्चरिय for आश्चर्य, विट्ठ for विष्ट, पुट्ठ for पुष्ट, मत्थक for मस्तक, वत्थु for वस्तु, कन्दन for स्पन्दन, and पुक्क for पुष्प.

In न, भ, ण, स्म, दम, and ण्ण, the consonantal portion of the distinct sounds, being made up of *nāda* or intonated breath, the heavy *svāsa* or simple breath of the sibilant is first made heavy *nāda*, that is, the sibilant is changed to the aspirate ह and we have न्ह, भ्ह or म्ह for these conjuncts ; as in प्ह for प्रभ, उ्ह for उष्ण, अहि for अस्मि, अह् for अदम, and गिह् for ग्रीष्म. These correspond to the च्छ, छ् &c., in the above instances, and must, like them, be considered as simple sounds, and in our modern languages they are pronounced as such in certain places; but when preceded by

a vowel they must have, as in other cases, the characteristic of conjunctal sounds, and be pronounced as **म्ह**, **ण्ह** or **म्ह** though they are not so written.

I have already observed that when a following semi-vowel or nasal glides into the sound of the first consonant, this latter acquires prominence. But there are cases in which the semi-vowel **य** does not so merge into the preceding; and this takes place when it is preceded by a dental mute. The palatal **य** and the labial **व** have since remote times been often pronounced in two ways;—one in which the organs approach each other so closely that it is difficult to distinguish them from **ज** and **ब**; and another in which they are kept more distant. Hence the confusion between **य** and **ज** and **व** and **ब** that we find so often in modern pronunciation and in the modern languages. The Bengali invariably makes **व** of the Sanskrit **य** and in most cases **ज** of **य** and the people of Northern India follow him to a great extent. In the Hindi we have many such forms as **जमुना** for **यमुना**, **बांस** for **पांस**, **बांह** for **पाण्या**.

The heavy or close pronunciation of **य**, is favoured by a preceding dental. In pronouncing letters of this class the tongue is nearly horizontal. Consequently, when after the formation of the dental mute it is moved upwards to form **य**, the force with which it separates from the teeth carries it nearer to the palate than it should be. In the cerebral position, in which, the tongue forms a curve with the concave side inwards, the force with which its tip separates acts downwards; hence if a **य** has to be pronounced afterwards, the effort is in no way aided, but, if possible, hindered. In this case, therefore, the **य** is always light; and for a similar reason, it is so when preceded by a guttural. It is also light when preceded by the dental **य**, since a large portion of the obstructed breath passes through the nose, and the tongue is not separated from the teeth with any force. Thus in the word **येय** in the passage I have placed before you, and in **अय**, **वय** &c., the **य**, being heavy, does not glide or merge into **य**, and, being the latter of two successive consonantal sounds, acquires greater distinctness; and the preceding sound must, in virtue of the laws we have been examining, communicate all its elements to it, except

of course the organic position. The element that is communicated in this case is the complete contact, wherefore the heavy **र** becomes a complete **र्र**, and this, when pronounced like a conjunct becomes **र्र्र**. In such words as **मर्र्य**, **वर्र्य**, **उपाध्याय** &c., the preceding has got its heaviness of *nāda* or tone to communicate besides the complete contact, and thus the **र्र** becomes **र्र्र** and thence **र्र्र्र**; and so we have **मर्र्र्र**, **वर्र्र्र**, **उपार्र्र्राय** &c. In **सुत्तु**, **प्रेत्य**, **सत्य** &c., to the **र्र** formed as above must be added the hardness or *śvāsa* of **त**, i. e. the letter **र्र** must be pronounced not with the glottis contracted but stretched, wherefore we have **र्र्र** and, with the conjunctal characteristic, **र्र्र्र**. Those words therefore become **मर्र्र्र**, **वर्र्र्र**, and **सर्र्र्र**. If **र्र** precedes instead of **त**, the heavy *śvāsa* required for its pronunciation is transferred to **र्र**, and so it becomes **र्र्र**, and thence **र्र्र्र**; as in **रर्र्र्र** for **रथ्या**, **नेपर्र्र्र** for **नेपथ्य** &c.

The semi-vowel **र** is also heavily pronounced when it forms a conjunct with another semi-vowel, and thus we have **उर्र्र** for **पूर्व**, **सर्र्र** for **सर्व**, &c. There are also instances of this pronunciation when **र** is preceded by a dental mute as in **उर्र्र्र** for **उद्देग**, **सर्र्र्र** for **सद्धि**: &c. In **ऊर्र्र** the preceding **र**, as in **मर्र्य**, transfers its heavy *nāda* or tone to **र्र**, and makes it **र्र्र**, and so we have **उर्र्र**; but **ऊर्र्र** is changed **उर्र्र** also.

The conjunct **र्र** or **र्र्र** must in some cases have been pronounced in ancient times like **र्र्र**, as it is invariably so pronounced by the lower classes of the Marathi people at the present day. This latter sound is easier to be made than **र्र्र**, first because the passage from the guttural position of **र्र** to the palatal which is nearest to it is more natural than that to the more distant cerebral position of **र्र**, and also because, in the latter case, after the guttural contact, the tongue has to be rounded and the tip brought near the cerebral position. Thus, the whole weight of that organ has to be supported; while in the case of **र्र्र**, when its middle approaches the palatal position in pronouncing **र्र**, the forepart falls into a natural position, and no effort is required to hold it there. Now in this **र्र्र**, the sound of **र्र**, being the latter of the two, is by the general rule more distinct than the other; and the complete contact of **र्र** being transferred to it, it becomes **र्र्र**, because sibilants are produced by the heavy *śvāsa* as the hard

aspirates are, and thence ष्ठ् ; as in तच्छक for तक्षक, छण for क्षण in the sense of 'a festival', छुह for क्षुह, &c.

In such words as वत्स and अप्सरस्, the prevailing sound is that of त् which, with the complete contact of the preceding ह and र, ought to become थ, as ञ becomes ञ् in the above case, on the theory that त् is a dental. But it is not properly a dental, since it is formed not at the root of the upper teeth as द, थ, ड् &c. are, but considerably above, and not by the tip of the tongue but by a part of it further inwards, which is made into a curve, having its convex side upwards, and brought near to that position. In this last respect it resembles the palatals, though the part of the tongue employed in their case is still further inwards, i. e. the middle. The sibilant र therefore, has no mute corresponding to it in the sounds of the Sanskrit and Pali languages. The Marathi dento-palatals 'च', 'छ', 'ज', 'झ' answer to it completely, being formed in the same position as itself ; so that र, when the organic contact is complete, should become the Marathi 'छ'. But these sounds are unknown to the Pālī; the speakers of that language could not pronounce the Marathi dento-palatals, as the Gujaratis and other northern nations cannot at the present day, and just as these turn them into pure palatals, so did their ancestors. Hence, that sound which should properly be the dento-palatal 'छ' become the palatal छ, and we have वच्छ for वत्स, अच्छरा for अप्सरस् and मच्छर for मत्सर.

The dentals following a र in a Sanskrit word are in Pali often changed to cerebrals ; as in बहुति for वर्धते, बहुति for वर्तते, छुति for छर्दयति, अह for अर्थ &c. Here, as in the cases we have examined, the distinct sound is by the general rule the second, as we may observe even from the optional form वत्तति for वर्तते, and अत्थ for अर्थ. But, as before remarked, in all these Pali transformations of Sanskrit conjuncts we see an attempt to pronounce both the members. When the speaker, being about to put the vocal organs into the position necessary for the utterance of the first letter, which he has first heard though indistinctly, sees that the second which he has distinctly heard cannot be produced there, he gives it up, and then passes immediately to the next position. But if, at the first, he thinks he can produce something like the second sound, which he has distinctly heard, he pro-

nounces the letter there, and does not give up that position. Thus in pronouncing तर्, he feels that nothing like the sound र् can be produced at the position of र्, and hence gives it up and passing on to the lips forms तर्; but in वर्त्त the र् that he pronounces at the cerebral point sounds a great deal more like र् than र्, and therefore he does not pass on to the dental position. But such of the Pali speakers as could distinguish between र् and र् did not stop at the cerebral position to pronounce their conjunct, but passed on to the dental; hence the optional forms we have noticed.

Such words as मित्र, सत्र, भद्र, &c., differ from वर्त्त, वर्त्त &c., in having the र् after the distinct sound, so that the speaker resorts first to the dental position, and uttering the distinct sound there, is not carried away by the following र् to the cerebral position, the sound of र् being weaker. But if in the same word a dental follows such a conjunct, that dental is changed to the corresponding cerebral; as in पटि for प्रति and पठम for प्रथम. The cerebral element of these words has made a distinct impression on the speaker's ear, and he is conscious that his transformation of र् into र्, which was necessitated by his inherent inability to pronounce the two consonants together, has not brought it out. He therefore realizes it by changing the following ति and थ to टि and ठ. But if a consonant of another species follows, or if the conjunct ends the word, he cannot give effect to this impression.

The conjuncts in which the second sound is weak and consequently gives way to the first are क्य्, ख्य्, ग्य्, प्य्, भ्य्, द्य्, स्य्, क्, घ्, ञ्, झ्, ञ्, झ्, भ्, ख्, झ्, क्, ज्, त्व्, द्, द्, द्, &c., which have a semi-vowel for their latter member, and झ्, त्, द्, न्, &c., which have a nasal. Thus we have सक्र for शक्य or शाक्य, अकखान for आख्यान, योग् for योग्य, कुप्प for कुप्य, अम्भन्तर for अभ्यन्तर, पस्सति for पश्यति, तस्स for तस्य, सक्र for शक्र, अग्ग for अग्र, मित्र for मित्र, अद्रक for आर्द्रक, गिद्ध for रुद्ध, विप्प for विप्र, अम्भ for अम्भ, अस्सम for आश्रम, अस्सव for आश्रव, सुक्क for सुक्क, पक्क for पक्क, पज्जलति for प्रज्वलति, नीलत्त for नीलत्व, विहेत्त for विहेत्त, अद्धा for अध्वा, अस्स for अम्भ, &c., and अग्गि for अग्नि, अत्ता for आत्मा, उद्ध for रुद्ध, सोप्प for स्वप्न, &c. The semi-vowel य् after र् in going out turns the र् into the palatal य्, this latter representing the combined effect of both; as in अज्ज for अज्य, राजज्ज for राजज्य, &c.

We have noticed above the change of क्ष to क्ख, but more frequently it is transformed into क्व. This change is due to the latter क्व being pronounced not incorrectly like क्ष, but correctly as a cerebral sound, which being hollow and distinguishable, is lost in the sound of क. This last is distinctly heard, and the effect of क्व is only to add heavy *śvāsa* to it and render it क्ख; and thus the whole becomes क्व as in क्वस for क्स, लक्खण for लक्षण, पक्ख for पक्ष, &c. Upon the principles we have laid down, it does not matter whether the Sanskrit conjunct is composed of two or three consonants, since what is done in the Pali is to reproduce only the distinct consonantal sound with the other attendant characteristics; and thus we have ण्ह for क्षण or ण्न as in सण्ह for शृक्षण and पण्ह for पाणि. and क्ह for क्षम as in पक्ह for पक्ष, in which words the last is the distinct sound, and क्व for क्ष as in लक्खी for लक्ष्मी, where the क्व must have been pronounced so as to merge into the preceding क्ष.

A Sanskrit conjunct at the beginning of a word is reduced to a single letter; and the reason is obvious. For, as I have already-observed, the distinctive characteristic of a conjunct consists in the previous vowel being pronounced with rapidity and force, and in the subsequent strong pressure of the vocal organs, which is rendered possible by the momentum acquired by that forcible utterance. It is the reproduction of this characteristic that makes a single consonant that is pronounced at any one of the vocal positions look like a double. When a previous vowel does not exist, that is, when a conjunct begins a word, this characteristic cannot be reproduced; hence there is no double consonant. Thus, we have खलित for स्खलित, क्रमेण for क्रमेण, भमर for ब्रमर, फस्त for स्पर्श, &c.

You will have seen that in all the changes of conjunct consonants which we have examined, no element of the two sounds is omitted by the Pali speakers. They had not the patience to hear and reproduce the two consonants immediately after each other, by *putting* their vocal organs into two different positions, or they under a physical inaptitude for doing so, their tongue, not being sufficiently trained for the successive movements. But short of this, all the constituents of the sound, the *śvāsa*, light and

heavy, the completeness of contact, and the force of utterance, are represented in their pronunciation, and the amount of muscular exertion involved is the same as in the case of the original. This may be called the energetic mode of pronouncing conjuncts.

There are, however, a few instances in which the components are separated by inserting a vowel between them. Thus Sanskrit *सुखम्* is changed to *सुखुम्*, *औष्णिक* to *औसुमिक*, *श्लेष्म* to *सिलेसुम्*, *स्मरति* to *सुमरति*, *भी* and *ही* to *सिरी* and *हिरी*, *बैल्व* to *बेलुव* and *औपश्लेषिक* to *औप-सिलेसिक*. The separating vowel is generally such as can be easily pronounced along with the previous or the following consonant, that is, belongs to the same organic position as either. Thus in the first four instances we have the labial *उ* in the syllables *सु* and *सु* owing to the influence of the following *ख*.

The conjuncts *र्य* and *र्ह* are almost invariably dissolved into *रि* and *रह* as in *कारिय*, *अरिय*, *सुरिय*, *विरिय* &c. and *अरह*, *गरह*, *वरिह* &c. for *कार्य*, *अर्य* or *आर्य*, *सूर्य*, *वीर्य* &c. and *अर्ह*, *गर्ह*, *वर्ह* &c.; and in one or two instances, we have the first change when the *र्य* is preceded by a consonant other than *र* as in *चैतिय* for *चैत्य*. This change is to some extent due to the *र्य* being pronounced weak, i. e. almost like *इ*.

In the same way, we have *सिलोक*, *सिलेस*, *सिलावा*, *किलेस*, *किलन्त*, *गिलान*, *मिलान*, *पिलुवति*, *डुपिन*, *सिनिद्ध*, *नहान* or *सिनान* &c. for *श्लोक*, *श्लेष*, *श्लाघा*, *क्लेश*, *क्लान्त*, *ग्लान*, *म्लान*, *प्लवति*, *स्वप्न*, *स्निग्ध*, *स्नान* &c. This mode of utterance wants the force of the one we have examined, but both the sounds of a conjunct are clearly reproduced in it. You will have observed that the second member of the conjunct dissolved in this way is what may be called an imperfect consonant, i. e. a semi-vowel, aspirate, or nasal, in pronouncing which the breath is not completely stopped. They therefore act like a vowel, and render the sound of the first consonant comparatively distinct and audible, but are not so weak themselves as to melt away into that sound. Hence both the sounds are audible; but the Pali speaker not being able to put his vocal organs into two consonantal positions successively, as we have seen, reproduced the two sounds by interposing a vowel between them. But when in some cases the second member was weakly pronounced, it melted away into the first, and so we have the optional forms *विस्तरति* for *विस्मरति*, *सेद्ध* for *श्लेष्म*, *सोप्प* for *स्वप्न* &c. When, however, its pronunciation

became stronger than that of the first, it prevailed, and so we have कय्य for कार्य and जय्य for आर्य.

Some conjuncts appear also unchanged in this dialect; as व in the words ब्रह्म, ब्रवीति and ब्रूहेति, न्य in न्याधि, न्यग्घ, न्यग्ग &c., ह्म in ह्मन्, ह्मति, and ह्म, स्म in स्मेह &c. Such as have a nasal for their first member and a mute for the second are also unchanged, since the nasal, even according to the rules of Sanskrit, belongs to the same organic position as the mute.

We will now proceed to notice the changes of single consonants. An unaspirate is changed to an aspirate when it is followed in the same word by a sibilant; as in फरह्म for परह्म, फरुत्त for परुत्त, कुत्त for पुत्त, सुत्तुमार for सुकुमार, थुत्त for तुत्त &c. The heavy *śvāsa* that forms a constituent of the sibilant sound has made such a strong impression on the ear of the hearer, that he immediately prepares himself to let it out, and thus uses it even in pronouncing the letters which precede the sibilant and do not require it. The pronunciation of a word is rendered easier by transferring one of the elements of a sound to another or others, that is, by assimilating them to each other as much as possible. In a few instances the simple breath or *śvāsa* of a previous surd is transferred to the following, originally a sonant, as in थकेति for स्थगयति. The cerebral unaspirated sonant ह् between two vowels is softened into the corresponding semi-vowel ऋ, as in ताळन for ताडन, पीळन for पीडन, तळ्ळक for तडाक &c. This peculiarity distinguished the old Vedic Sanskrit also; and the sound exists in the modern Marathi and Gujarati, though it is unknown to the other vernaculars.

I have already given instances in which the cerebral र् of a previous syllable in going out changes the dental of the following to the cerebral, and to these I may now add निगण्ड for निगन्ध, वण्ट for वन्त, कट for क्त &c. In some instances, this change takes place without such an influencing cause, as in इत्तति and इत्त for वत्तति and वत्त, and दाह for दाह. The same phenomenon is observable in some conjuncts, as in विद्ध for विदग्ध, हेद्दा for अवस्तात् and दा or द्दा for रथा in the several derivatives from that root as दाति, दायी, उद्दान &c. The dental nasal न् is also similarly changed to ण् in a few cases, as in पाण, ओणत्त, ओणीत्त, सणिक for ज्ञान, अवन्त, अवनीत्त, इणिके &c. The operation of this process is very limited, but still it

exists, and cannot be accounted for in any other way than by supposing that the vocal organs or the vocal habits of the Pali speakers were more adapted for the production of cerebral sounds, or, in other words, the people had a natural aptitude for them.

Sanskrit **ञ** and **ऋ** are changed to **ऋ**, which is the only sibilant in the language. This change involves an economy of effort. The tongue in its several movements becomes a lever with the fulcrum at the inner end where it is fixed in the mouth, and the weight in its centre of gravity. The advantage increases with the distance from the fulcrum of the point which is moved, that is, the point where power is applied. Hence gutturals are the most disadvantageous, palatals next, and dentals, the least. The cerebrals being pronounced by rounding the tongue and raising it very high, it is a question whether this additional effort does not neutralise the advantage they possess over the palatals by their position being more distant. Thus **ऋ** is the weakest of the sibilants. But in the Pali the change is so universal, that we must suppose a special inaptitude in the speakers of that language for pronouncing **ञ** and **ऋ**, as we had to suppose in the case of the conjuncts.

When, however, in a few cases, the peculiarity of the palatal **ञ** was distinctly perceived, and it was felt that the substituted **ऋ** did not bring it out, that sibilant was changed to the corresponding mute of its position, *i. e.* to **ह**, which resembles **ञ** in the heaviness of the simple breath required for pronouncing it. We have thus **हव** for **ञव**, **हक** for **ञक** and **हाप** for **ञाप**. The change of **ष** 'six' to **ह** is also to be similarly accounted for.

I have already remarked that sometimes **ऋ** must at an early period have been pronounced very much like **ञ**. Besides these changes there are solitary instances of others, such as the softening or toning of surds as in **स्र** for **स्रक**, or the dropping of the mute element of the sonant aspirates as in **होति** and **हेदा** for **भवति** and **अवस्ताद्**. But these will be more fully discussed in connection with the Prakrits and the vernaculars, in which these processes have a much wider range.

The vowel **ऋ** is changed to **अ** as in **कसि** for **कृषि**, **तद्धा** for **तृष्णा**, **गह** for **गृह**, **वत** for **वत्**, **मज्जु** for **मृज्जु** &c.; to **इ** as in **दिह** for **दृह**, **तिज** for

वृण, मिस for वृण, तित्ति for वृत्ति, गिद्ध for यद्ध &c. : and to उ as in वृस for वृष, वृद्ध for वृद्ध, वृत्ता for वृत्ता, वृस for वृष, वृद्धि for वृद्धि &c. The last change generally takes place when the vowel is preceded by a labial ; so that the vocal position of the consonant influences that of the vowel. When there is no such influence, it is changed to अ and इ. Now, the vowel ऋ is composed of a consonantal and a vowel element, the former of which is subordinated to the latter. On this account it does not give to the consonant to which it is added the character of a conjunct, and the preceding vowel is not rendered heavy¹. In Pali this consonantal element disappears in virtue of the inherent inability, which we have considered at such length, of passing from one vocal position to another without letting off the breath ; but the previous consonant is not doubled because the usual character of a conjunct is absent. Or the disappearance may be accounted for by the fact that the consonantal element is so subordinated to the vowel element as to escape notice, and that the letter, as a whole, is difficult to pronounce. The vowel element of ऋ is pronounced by bringing the root of the tongue in contact with the root of the palate, i. e. in the position of the gutturals ; and is unrepresented independently in the Sanskrit or Pali alphabet. Hence it is pronounced either lower down, in the position of अ, or higher up, in that of इ, while it is sometimes carried so far to the outside as the position of उ, especially when a labial precedes. That the cerebral or र् element did exist, and was occasionally perceived by the Pali speakers is proved by such examples as रित्ते for ऋत्ते and रुक्क for रुक्क, and also by the circumstance that in some cases, though it disappears, it changes the following dental to a cerebral, as in वृद्धि for वृद्धि, विसट्ठ for विसट्ठ, कट्ठ for कट्ठ &c. From these observations it would appear that the vowel we have been considering must have been in those days pronounced just in the manner in which Marathi Pandits of the present day pronounce it, and not like अर्, इर्, र् or रि as is supposed by several European

1 This fact is accounted for by the authors and the commentators of the Pratisakhya by supposing that the vowel element envelops the र् on all sides i. e. precedes it and follows it. (See Vajasaneyi-Pratisakhya, in Indische Studien, Volume V, p. 145; and Atharva-Pratisakhya, edited by Whitney I, 37.)

scholars. If वृत् were really वर्त्त, or वृग्, मिर्ग, the Pali corruptions would be वत्त or मिग्ग; and if सुकृत were सुक्रत्, or तादृश were तान्निश, we should have सुक्रत् or तान्निश instead of सुकृत and तादिस, and there is no reason why क्तु and कप्ति should have lost their र and become उक्तु and हप्ति if they were really pronounced like रितु or रतु and रिपि or रपि.¹

The sounds of the Sanskrit diphthongs ऐ and औ are like those of अइ and अउ uttered rapidly, *i. e.* without allowing any appreciable time to elapse between the two elements. In forming अ, the tongue and the lips are in a natural position, the lips, however, not being closed but a little opened; while इ requires that the middle of the tongue should be brought close to the palate, and उ, that the lips should be completely rounded. Hence, in pronouncing ऐ and औ it is necessary to pass from one vocal position *immediately* to another, a process of which, as we have seen, the Pali speakers were incapable. These diphthongs are therefore changed to ए and औ which partake of the character of both the components. In the formation of ए the tongue is not horizontal as in the case of अ; its middle is raised up but not brought so close to the palate as in the case of इ. Similarly, in pronouncing औ the lips are not so completely rounded as in the formation of उ; neither are they in a natural position as in the case of अ. These sounds, therefore, being produced in a position between those of अ and इ, and अ and उ, combine the characteristics of both, but are simple, *i. e.*, formed in one position only. Thus we have सेल for शैल, तेल for तैल, केषटु for केशर्त्त, खोम for खौम, कोसेय्य for कोशेय, मोलि for मौलि &c. Similarly अय and अव frequently become ए and औ; as in कथेति for कथयति, पूजेति for पूजयति, नेति for नयति, ओधि for अवधि, ओकास for अवकाश, नोनीत्त for नवनीत्त &c. The sounds of these dissyllables differ from those of ऐ and औ in this respect, that the अ of the former is not rapidly pronounced as is that involved in these diphthongs; or, in the words of the grammarians, the value of the first अ is one *mātrā* and of the other one-half. In the same way the अ of the two dissyllables is followed by the semi-vowel ए and ओ, while that of ऐ and औ has the corresponding vowels इ and उ after it. When

1 The explanation of this vowel sound and the others that follow is based upon the mode in which wo Marathas pronounce them at the present day, and which is sanctioned by the Pratisakhya.

अय and अव are hastily pronounced, this distinction disappears, and these dissyllables assume the form of the diphthongs ऐ and औ, which by the rule just discussed become ए and ओ.

A long vowel is shortened when it is followed by a double consonant; as in मग्ग for मार्ग, पत्त for प्राह, इक्खण for ईक्षण, कित्ति for कीर्ति, तिच्च for तीव्र, रुक्ख for रुक्ष, मुत्त for मृत्त &c. The strong pressure that is necessary for the pronunciation of a conjunct cannot be properly exerted, as formerly observed, without momentum, for the acquisition of which the previous vowel has to be uttered with force and with a jerk. For this purpose a short vowel alone is fitted, but if a long one precedes, its utterance being by its nature slow and weak, the organs for want of momentum do not strike against each other with force, and hence the pressure they exert is weak. But the Pali speaker, catching from his Sanskrit teacher only the generally strong nature of the pressure involved in the utterance of conjuncts, realized it to the fullest possible extent, without stopping to observe how much it was impaired by the length of the previous vowel, by pronouncing the previous vowel with force and rapidity, and thus rendering it short. And in this way the real quantity of the syllable is not diminished. Though the vowel is short, the vocal organs take some time to emerge from the close contact, and the strong pressure resulting from its forcible utterance, and hence the whole syllable इक्क, for instance, in इक्खण, has the metrical value of a long vowel, i. e. is equal to two *mātrās* or syllabic instants. In the original ईक्षण, on the contrary, the pressure in the pronunciation of क्ष, being weaker in consequence of the slowness of the previous vowel utterance, occupies less time; so that in the one case the shortness of the vowel is accompanied by a longer duration of the contact, and in the other the length of the vowel is attended by a shorter duration of the contact. The change, then, we have been considering, is due to the pressure necessary for the formation of the conjunctal sounds in these words having made a strong impression on the ear of the Pali speaker. When, however, the length of the vowel prevailed, and neutralized the pressure to such an extent as to render it incapable of attracting attention, the conjunct came to be in the condition of one standing at the beginning of a word *, and, like it, preserved only the mote distinct sound and dropped the other, leaving the long vowel unchanged.

We have thus लीस for लीर्ष, दीव for दीर्घ, सासप for सार्षप, &c. It is, however, clear that a long vowel followed by a double consonant is an impossibility in Pali. A Sanskrit conjunct, whenever it made a distinct impression, was pronounced with the usual characteristics of that sound, viz., the previous rapid and forcible vowel utterance and the subsequent strong contact and strong pressure, the perceptible effect of which was the shortening of the previous vowel and the doubling of the following consonant,

Without the momentum acquired from the force and rapidity of the previous vowel utterance, the Pali speaker could not form a strong contact and exert strong pressure, that is, without a short preceding vowel they could not pronounce a double consonant. If then the Pali has such words as तेत्तिस्स (अयस्सिंहात्), सेट्ठि (ओट्ठि), नेत्त (नेत्त), सोत्थिय (ओत्थिय) योग्ग (योग्ग), मोक्खस्स &c., it follows that the vowels ए and ओ were in such cases pronounced short. Similarly, when before doubles इ and उ are changed to them, as they often are, they must be short. This change of इ and उ to ए and ओ arises from the fact that the force and rapidity of the jerk with which the current of breath is sent up to pronounce the former vowels, is apt to prevent the tongue from rising as close to the palate or the lower lip to the upper, as is necessary for the formation of इ or उ, or they are apt to be forced down by the current. And ए and ओ differ from इ and उ simply in the distance between the pronouncing organs being greater. This change, therefore, really involves an economy, since the effort to raise up the tongue and the lower lip, across the strong current of breath blowing above, is saved. We have thus, ओट्ठ for उट्ठ, पोक्खस्स for पुक्कर, पोत्थक for पुत्तक, सोण्ह for शुण्ह, नेक्ख for निक्क, नेत्तिस्स for निस्सिंश, वेत्तस्स for विस्सस्स, &c. In some cases both vowels are in use, as in the word नेक्ख which has another form निक्ख. Sometimes, especially before द, ए was invariably pronounced short, though no conjunct followed, and to make up for the loss of quantity thus occasioned the consonant was doubled; as in शेय्य for स्थेय, गेय्य for गेय, कोसेय्य for कोशेय &c. The vowel ओ was also similarly treated in a few cases, as in ओस्सज्जति for अवस्सज्जति. Thus then not only has the Pali a short ए and ओ, but the speakers of the language seem to have possessed a predilection for those sounds. Besides the changes we have examined, there are stray

examples of others, such as उह् and उह्वु for इह् and इह्वु, in which the उ of the following syllable influences the utterance of the first vowel, सोप्प for स्वप्प, in which the semi-vowel व् is dissolved into the corresponding vowel उ, and thence transformed to short ओ, मोर for महर, in which the र being lightly pronounced loses its consonantal character and the vowel ऊ with the preceding अ forms औ, and others.

You will thus have observed that the phonetic changes which Sanskrit words undergo in passing into the Pali may be brought under a few general rules. There are not such various and extensive corruptions both of vowels and consonants as we find in the later dialects and in the modern vernaculars. It has been estimated that two-fifths of the Fall vocabulary are composed of pure Sanskrit words, and the remaining three-fifths, of words altered in one or other of the modes explained above. The conclusion to be drawn from these facts is, that when the Pali was in use, the tradition of the original Sanskrit was not distant; the words, so to say, did not stray away long from the mother-language, so as to undergo extensive alterations. If so, how is it that some of the changes such as the transformation of ऐ and औ into ए and ओ and the assimilation of consonants are so universal, the first being without any exception, and the second with but a few unimportant ones? The principle which guides phonetic change is the economy of effort, understanding the word in its widest sense. This economy is observable in the two kinds of changes, as well as in the transformation of surds into sonants, the elision of consonants or of some of their elements, the assimilation of the vowels or the single consonants that make up a word, and in several other processes. But in the Pali there are very few instances of some of these, and none at all of others. The language had not a sufficiently long duration of independent existence to bring them into extensive operation. If, then, the two processes we have noticed are found in full play in that dialect, the reason must be sought for in the vocal peculiarities of the people who spoke it. Though they heard conjunct consonants and the diphthongs ऐ and औ pronounced by the speakers of Sanskrit, as correctly as the other letters which they did not corrupt, their organs were not fitted to utter them. These peculiarities may have been natural or acquired, If natural, the people.

who first corrupted Sanskrit into the Pali must have belonged to an alien race which came into close contact with the Aryas and learnt their language. If they were acquired, a branch of the same Aryan race must be supposed to have been isolated in some part of the country, and to have developed them, in consequence of being cut off from the main body. But this supposition must be rejected for the reasons that have been already given. Such complete isolation as could give rise to new vocal peculiarities must be expected to have occasioned greater phonetic decay in other respects than is observable in the Pali. And our analysis of the Sanskrit conjunctal and the Pali double sounds favours the first view. For, we have seen that these latter represent all the elements of the former, but they are combined in a sound produced in one vocal position only. The Pali speakers endeavoured to reproduce the sound of a conjunct faithfully, their pronunciation was not weak, as is that prevailing in modern times, but energetic and correct in every other respect; but they could not combine energy of utterance with two successive movements of the vocal organs. This could only be because their organs were not sufficiently trained for the purpose; in other words, because the sounds were foreign to them. The condition of men who have to learn the language of others is similar to that of children, whose organs of speech are being exercised for the first time. Healthy children, whose utterance is energetic, pronounce the conjuncts almost in the same way as the Pali speakers did. And there is another instance in History of an alien race having treated the sounds of the language of a civilized community in just the same way. The Barbarians who overran Italy and developed the Italian from the Latin, showed the same inability to pronounce the Latin conjuncts, and assimilated them as our Pali ancestors did.

If this supposition is correct, we must find other traces of the peculiarities of this alien race. And such we do find. The existence of the short **ए** and **ओ** in the Pali, and the predilection the people showed for them, as well as the change of dentals to cerebrals without any influencing cause, are similarly to be attributed to the natural vocal tendencies of the people. These sounds must have existed and played an important part in the original language of this people, so that they were, unable to shake.

them off entirely, even when they left their own tongue and learned that of the more civilized Aryas with whom they came to be closely incorporated. If the original Pali speakers belonged to the same race as the Dravidians of Southern India of the present day, we have a reason to believe that their native tongue contained them ; for they exist in the Dravidian languages and are Very characteristic of them.

We shall also find in the Pali, and even in the passage placed before you, examples of another phenomenon presented by a growing language. Several new words, unknown to Sanskrit, but formed from Sanskrit roots, have come into use. Such is **मनापो**, derived very likely from **मनस्** 'mind' or 'heart' and **आप्** 'to obtain' 'to meet,' so that the word signifies 'something that comes up to the wishes of the heart', 'pleasing'. The word **सवे** is from **चेत्** with **स** prefixed, which **स** seems to be the same as the nominative singular of the masculine of **त्**. For, it is so used in Sanskrit before **चेत्**, though it has there an independent sense ; as in **स चेन्मुनिदौहित्रस्तद्वक्षणेपक्षः** (Śākuntala). Often used together in this way, the two words formed a compound expression, and, the independent character of **स** being forgotten, it came to be looked upon as one word. In the same way, **सन्निक** must have come into existence from the frequent use of such expressions as **तस्सन्निक**, **ब्राह्मणस्सन्निक** &c. made up of the genitive singular of a noun or pronoun ending in **अ** and **अन्निक**. The portion **सन्निक** then came to be regarded as an independent word, and was used as such. Another new word is **फासु** or **फासुक** 'agreeable', 'pleasant', corresponding to such a Sanskrit word as **स्पर्श** or **स्पर्शुक** formed from the analogy of such verbal derivatives as **भिष्णु**, **हृष्णु**, or **लाडुक**, **पातुक** &c., and meaning 'that which is or deserves to be touched', or 'pleasant to the touch'. Other instances are **पिलम्बन** 'an ornament', **पेय्याल** 'plentiful' &c.

(B)

GRAMMAR OF THE PALI DIALECT

We will now proceed to the examination of Pali grammar. When after years of successive creative efforts, the language of our Aryan ancestors came to be so rich in all kinds of grammatical forms, as the Vedic or middle Sanskrit is, it became cumbrous, and the tendency set in, as we have seen, of dropping away some of them and rendering the grammar simpler,

The duals of both nouns and verbs are unnecessary ; the occasions for using them do not often present themselves. Hence, even in Sanskrit, their use must have been rare, and the Pali, which, in its original form at least, must be taken to represent the current usage, has dropped them away altogether.

But the manner in which the process of simplification is principally carried on is by the use of false analogies. Thus in Sanskrit nouns ending in इ and उ of the neuter gender prefix न् to the terminations of the vowel cases. But in Pali it is added to those of the corresponding cases of masculine nouns also in मङ्गुलो for मङ्गुलोः in the passage before us. Similarly, from the analogy of neuter nouns in अ which form their nominative and accusative singular by adding न्, the pronouns यद् and तद् come to have यं and तं for the corresponding cases, instead of the Sanskrit यद् and तद्.

In Sanskrit, the conjugation that is very often used is the first, in which अ is tacked on to the root in the special tenses, and it embraces a large number of the most ordinary roots. Here, in our passage, we find the analogy extended to the root हिंस् the present tense of which is in the mother dialect ordinarily formed by inserting न् between the two letters, and adding the termination to the final (हिंनस्ति 3rd person singular), and we have हिंसति. The root ज्ञा takes the form of जा in the present and other special tenses, and to it is added the conjugational sign ना, so that it becomes जाना. Now, this special form is generalized, and used in other tenses also, such as the Aorist and the Future. Thus, we have here संजानिंसु, the Aorist 3rd person plural of ज्ञा, and in other places we find जानिस्तति as one of the forms of the Future. The special forms इच्छ, पश्य, कृण, बुध्य, and पय are similarly generalized, the last four being phonetically changed to पस्स, सुण, बुज्झ and पज्ज.

In the same way, in forming the causative of a root, ण or आण is added in Sanskrit to roots ending in आ and to a few others. It is extended to all roots in the Pali, and thus we have तिक्कि-च्छापेहि for चिकित्सय in the above passage.

The termination न्वा of the absolutive is in Sanskrit replaced by य when a root has a preposition prefixed to it. But here no such distinction is observed, and न्वा is used in all cases.

The operation of this law of false analogies is very extensive

in the grammar of Pali and the later Prakrits; and by its means, new forms have been made up instead of those current in the primitive language. But side by side with these, we often find the latter also in use corrupted by the usual phonetic laws, and having a sort of isolated existence, since they transgress the general rule that has newly come into operation. Thus we have *आग्निस्सति, पस्तिस्सति* and *लग्निस्सति* according to the law of analogy; but *अस्सति* from *ज्ञास्वति*, *दक्खति* from *द्रक्षति*, and *लब्धति* from *लप्स्यते* are also in use. These three processes then, viz., the dropping away of forms, not required for the expression of the current ordinary thought, the formation of new ones on the principle of analogy, and the preservation of the old ones in what may be called an isolated or petrified condition, have contributed to the formation of the grammar of this and the succeeding languages. With these preliminary observations, I will now hastily pass under review the principal points in the grammar of this dialect.¹

The Pali has lost the dual, and also the dative and ablative cases, except of masculine and neuter nouns ending in *अ*.* The only occasion when the first is ordinarily used is when 'giving' is expressed, but the genitive case has such a comprehensive signification in Sanskrit that it denotes the dative relation also, and is often used in that sense. Most of the relation?] expressed by the ablative are denoted by the instrumental, and for the expression of the peculiar ablative sense, viz., the separation of one thing from another, the particle *तस्मिन्* had come into very general use, even in the parent language. The genitive and instrumental thus took up the place of those two cases. But people do not forget what they have frequent occasion to use. The great majority of nouns in Sanskrit end in *अ*, and of these the singular is oftener used; than the plural. Hence the singulars of the dative and ablative of these nouns are preserved in the Pali, notwithstanding the operation of the causes that drove away these cases from other places.

The *इ* of the termination of the instrumental plural is optionally changed to *ई*. The locative singular of masculine and

1 My authority in this portion of my subject is Kaccāyana, as edited by M. Senart.

The ablative *अग्निस्मा-द्वा*, *विष्णुस्मा-द्वा* do, however, occur in the literature,

neuter nouns ending in a vowel is formed by adding the pronominal termination स्मिन्, phonetically changed to स्मि and मि; and the ablative स्माद् in the form of स्मा or म्हा is used optionally in the case of nouns in अ. The termination स्य of the genitive singular of this class of nouns is generalized, and in the form of स्स् applied to all nouns of the masculine and neuter genders. It should be remembered that in accordance with the general rule, the Sanskrit grammatical forms drop the final consonant, including a visarga, in passing into the Pali. The nasal ऋ is changed to an anusvāra, and since this, like a conjunct consonant, necessitates the rapid utterance of the preceding vowel and renders it heavy, the vowel is shortened. We have thus नं for नाम्, स्सं for स्याम्, यं for याम्, &c. The ऋ of स्मिन् and of the syllable अन् occurring in some of the cases is also changed to anusvāra.

[THE NOUN]

MASCULINE NOUNS ENDING IN अ

The nominative singular always ends in ओ. In Sanskrit we have this form before a short अ or a sonant only. Here it is generalized. The accusative plural ends in ए as बुद्धे. When the final consonant is dropped according to the usual phonetic rules, the Sanskrit nominative and accusative plurals become exactly-alike. To distinguish the one from the other, therefore, this form is appropriated in the Pali for the latter. The ए appears to be the termination of the nominative plural of pronouns, and it is transferred to nouns in the same way as the others we have noticed above. But it is used here in an accusative sense.

The forms of the singular and plural of the nominative of neuter nouns, and of the plural of many more, are the same as those of the accusative in Sanskrit, and this fact must have led to a tendency to liken the two cases in other places also. Hence the pronominal nominative came to be used like an accusative. We shall directly see this tendency to confuse the two cases manifested more clearly as regards the plural, and it may be remarked that as regards both the numbers, it went on increasing at each successive stage, until in the latest Prakrit and in the vernaculars the distinction has entirely disappeared.

The termination of the instrumental plural is एभि as in बुद्धेभि, or, with the mute element dropped, एहि which is traced to the Vedic एभि: in such forms as देवेभिः. But it may be explained otherwise. The Sanskrit बुद्धे: becomes बुद्धे by the dropping of the visarga and the change of the diphthong to ए, and this is the same as the locative singular, and is by no means distinctive of an instrumental sense. Hence to बुद्धे was added the instrumental termination भि or हि which all other nouns in Sanskrit and Pali take.

The other cases are the same as in Sanskrit, subject to the general remarks made above. The ablative and locative singulars have the new pronominal forms in स्मा or स्महा and स्मि or स्मिहि in addition to the old ones. In the vocative singular, the final अ is optionally lengthened.

MASCULINE NOUNS IN इ AND उ

The nominative and accusative plurals have two forms and they are the same for both the cases, as अग्गी and अग्गयो, भिक्खू and भिक्खवो. Now अग्गी and भिक्खू are the Sanskrit accusative plurals अग्नीन् and भिक्षून्, and अग्गयो and भिक्खवो the nominative plurals अग्नयः and भिक्षवः. The distinction between the two is lost, and both are used indifferently in the sense of the nominative and accusative.

The termination of the instrumental plural is भि or हि. The singulars of the genitive and locative are, like those of the corresponding neuter nouns or nouns ending in इन् such as इण्डिन्, formed by the addition of न्, as अग्गिनो and भिक्खुतो, अग्गिनि and भिक्खुनि. They have also the forms indicated in the general remarks, viz., अग्गिस्स and भिक्खुस्स and अग्गिस्मि—स्मिहि and भिक्खुस्मि—स्मिहि; and the dative and ablative are, as usual, like the genitive and instrumental. The vocative is like the nominative, except in the plural of nouns in उ which ends in वो or वे as भिक्खवो or भिक्खवे. The rest are old or Sanskrit; the final vowel being, however, lengthened in the plural of the instrumental and locative, and the syllable णि of अग्नि being optionally dissolved into ग्गिनि in the nominative singular.

MASCULINE NOUNS IN ऋ

The nominative has the old Sanskrit forms; as सत्था and सत्थारो

for शास्ता and शास्तारः from शास्तृ. The accusative plural is the same as the nominative plural. The augmented form of the Sanskrit nominative plural, *viz.* सत्थार for शास्तार, is taken as the base for the plural of the instrumental, genitive, and locative, and declined like nouns in अ. The genitive plural is also formed by taking the nominative singular as the base, as सत्थानं. The instrumental singular has the new base and the old termination आ; and thus we have सत्थारा. The genitive singular has three forms, one of them being the old one with the final र dropped, as सत्थु, and the other two made up by taking this form as the base, and appending the terminations which nouns in उ as भिक्षु take, as सत्थुस्त or सत्थुनो. The singulars of the accusative and locative have the Sanskrit forms, as सत्थारं and सत्थारि; and the vocative singular has besides the old one another with the vowel lengthened, as सत्थ or सत्था. You will thus see that there are four bases, the old one which gives the old forms, and three new ones, सत्था and सत्थार generalized from the nominative, and सत्थु, from the genitive.

MASCULINE NOUNS ENDING IN A CONSONANT.

There can be no consonantal declension proper, since a final consonant is dropped, and the noun treated as one ending in the preceding vowel. But relics of the Sanskrit forms of the consonantal bases are preserved and used along with the others,

In the declension of the noun आत्मन्, there are two new bases अत्त and अत्तन्, generalized from the forms of the singular of the Sanskrit nominative, and of the instrumentals and others, आत्म and आत्मना &c., and declined like nouns in अ. The first is used in the singular of the accusative, and the plurals of the genitive and locative, which are अत्तं, अत्तानं and अत्तेसु; and the second in the plural of the instrumental which is अत्तनेहि-भि. The remaining forms are old, the portion आत्म being corrupted to अत्त; they are अत्ता nominative singular, अत्ताना nominative and accusative plural, अत्तानं accusative singular, अत्तना instrumental singular, अत्तनां genitive singular, and अत्तनि locative singular. The vocative is अत्त or अत्ता, like that of nouns in अ.

In the declension of the noun राजन्, the base राज is used in the singulars of the accusative, the instrumental, and perhaps the ablative also, and the forms are राजे, राजेन, and राजस्मा or राजम्हा.

The old forms are found in the nominative (राजा, राजानो), and in the singular of the accusative which has thus two forms राजं and राजानं, and the plural of this last case is, as usual, the same as that of the first. The singulars of the instrumental, genitive, and locative are the same as those in Sanskrit, but ञ being changed to ञ्ज, we have रज्जा, रज्जो, and रज्जि. In the last two cases the conjunct is also dissolved into जिन, wherefore we have राजिनो and राजिनि also. The genitive plural is रज्जं and, ञ being dissolved into जुन, the form राजूनं is used, in addition. This राज्ज is made the base of the plurals of the instrumental and locative; and thus we have राज्जिभि-हि and राज्जसु. The vocative singular is like that of nouns in अ.

The suffixes वत् and मत् of such nouns as युजवत् and सतिमत् are regarded as if they were वन्त and मन्त, and the nouns declined like those ending in अ in the singulars of the nominative, accusative and genitive, and in the plurals of the accusative, instrumental, genitive and locative; and, according to the commentator of Kaccāyana, in the singulars of the instrumental and locative also; as युजवन्तो, युजवन्तं, युजवन्तस्स, युजवन्ते, युजवन्तोभि-हि, युजवन्तानं and युजवन्तोसु; also युजवन्तेन and युजवन्तस्मि-भि. The old forms are preserved in both numbers of the nominative and genitive, and in the singulars of the instrumental, locative, and vocative; as युजवा, युजवन्तो, युजवतो, युजवतं, युजवता, युजवति, and युजवं. The nominative singular is made the base of other forms of the singulars of the accusative, genitive and vocative, as युजवं, युजवस्स and युजव or युजवा. The present participles, Parasmaipada, are similarly declined, the only difference being in the nominative singular, as गच्छं.

FEMININE NOUNS

The nominative, besides the old forms, has another transferred from nouns in ई; as कज्जापो. The singulars of the instrumental and the succeeding cases, excepting the vocative, have one same form made up from the Sanskrit genitive by dropping the visarga and shortening the final vowel; as कज्जाय, instrumental, dative, ablative, genitive, and locative singular. The others and also the locative singular have the old forms; as कज्जाभि-हि instrumental and ablative plural, कज्जानं genitive and dative plural, and कज्जाय and कज्जासु locative singular and plural.

The final member **य** of the conjunct which appears in the case-forms of nouns in **ई** such as **नदी**, is dissolved into **इय**, and thus we have **नदियो** from the Sanskrit **नद्यः**; and this and **नदी** from the Sanskrit **नदीः** are both of them the plurals of the nominative and accusative; **नद्या** the singular of the instrumental is dissolved into **नदिया**, and also **नद्याः** of the ablative and genitive which, after dropping the visarga, becomes **नद्या**;^{*} and this is extended to the locative singular, which has also another form **नदियं**, from **नद्यान्**. There is nothing particular about the rest. Nouns in short **इ** are declined in exactly the same way, except that Kaccāyana gives such forms as **रथा** and **रथं** in addition to **रथिया** and **रथियं** for the singular of the ablative and locative.

Nouns in **उ** or **ऊ** follow completely the analogy of those in **ई**; the forms of **बुध**, for instance, are not derived from the corresponding Sanskrit forms of the noun, but are made up by adding the final syllables of those of **नदी**; as **बुधो** nominative and accusative plural, **बुधया** singular instrumental, ablative, genitive, &c.

NEUTER NOUNS

The singular of the nominative and accusative of neuter nouns ending in a vowel is the same as in the parent tongue, but the forms of the plural are optionally like those of the corresponding masculine nouns; as **रूरा** or **रूरानि** nominative plural, and **रूरे** or **रूरानि** accusative plural; **अट्ठी** (like **अग्गी**) or **अट्ठीनि** nominative and accusative plural, **आयू** or **आयूनि** nominative and accusative plural.

As in the case of masculine nouns, such neuter nouns as have a final consonant in Sanskrit drop it and are treated as if they ended in the preceding vowel. But in the singulars the old forms are preserved; as **मनो** or **मनं** nominative and accusative, **मनसा** or **मनेन** instrumental, **मनसो** genitive, **मने** or **मनस्सिन्धि** locative.

PRONOUNS

As pronominal terminations have been transferred to nouns, a few nominal ones have been extended to pronouns, thus carrying on the process of unification a step further. The plural of the nominative of feminine pronouns has a form ending in **यो**, and the singulars of the instrumental and genitive end in **आय** or **या** and

* The Sanskrit form **नद्या** corrupted to **नद्या** is also found used.

that of the locative in *यं*, as in the case of the corresponding nouns; as *तापो* nominative plural, *ताय* or *तस्सा*, *इमाय* or *इमस्सा*, *अमुया* or *अमुस्सा* genitive singular, and *तायं* or *तस्सं*, *इमायं* or *इमिस्सं*, *अमुयं* or *अमुस्सं* locative singular, of *तद्*, *इदम्* and *अदम्*. All pronouns of the third person, of whatever gender, form the genitive plural by adding *सं* from the Sanskrit *साच्*, and also *सानं* which is made up of *सं*, the pronominal, and *नं*, the nominal termination, so that the second form is the genitive of the first taken as a base, as *तेसं* or *तेसानं*, *तासं* or *तासानं*, &c. Similarly, the bases *एती* and *इमी* which are substituted for *एता* and *इमा* in the singulars of the genitive and locative, and *ती* which optionally replaces *ता* in these cases, have a genitive singular with a double termination; as *तस्सा*, *तिस्सा* or *तिस्साय*, *एतिस्सा* or *एतिस्साय*, *इमिस्सा* or *इमिस्साय*, where *स्सा*, Sanskrit *स्थाः*, is the pronominal, and *आय* the nominal termination. The plurals of the nominative and accusative have the same form, as *ते*, *सब्बे*, *ता* or *तापो*, &c., and the instrumental plural of the masculine has, like that of nouns, the termination *एभि* or *एहि*. The remaining terminations are the same as in Sanskrit.

The correlative or remote demonstrative *तद्* has, besides the usual Sanskrit base, another *न* which has all the cases *नं*, *नेन*, &c., except the nominative singular. The base is generalized from the *एनम्*, *एनेन* &c. of the accusative, the singular of the instrumental, and the dual of the genitive and locative, which are used in making *anvādeśa* as it is called by Pāṇini, i. e. in referring to one who has already been spoken of. The near demonstrative *इदम्* has two bases, *अ* and *इम*. In Sanskrit this latter is used in the nominative dual and plural and in the accusative. Here it is extended to all the cases except the nominative singular, and so we have *इमे*, *इमिना*, *इमेहि*, *इमस्मा*, *इमस्स*, *इमेसं*, *इमस्मिं*, and *इमेसु*; *इमाय*, *इमिस्सा*, &c. The first base is used, as in Sanskrit, in all cases except the plural of the nominative and accusative and the forms are *अयं*, *अनेन*, *एहि*, *अस्मा* &c. The pronoun *अदम्* has the base *अहु* for the nominative singular, and *अहु* for all other cases and this latter is lengthened in the plural; as *अहुना*, *अहुहि*, *अहुस्मा*, *अहुस्स*, *अहुसं*; *अहुया*, *अहुस्सा*, &c. The nominative and accusative of the neuter is *अहुं*.

The singulars of the pronouns of the first and second persons are the same as in Sanskrit; as *अहं*, *मं*, *मया*, *मम* or *मे*, and *मायि*; *त्वं*, *त्वा*, *तव* or *ते*, and *त्वयि*. This syllable *त्व* is optionally dissolved

into **तु** in the nominative and accusative, which have thus **तुवं**, and changed to **त** in the latter as well as in the instrumental and locative; and so we have **तं**, **तया** and **तयि** also. The dative and genitive being confounded, the Sanskrit **मया** and **तुभ्य** of the former are in the form of **मयं** and **तुयं** used for both cases. The latter has also the forms **ममं** and **अमं** and **तुहं**, the anusvāra being inserted from the analogy of the plural. The plural of **अहं** is **मयं** in which the initial **व** of the Sanskrit form is changed to **म**; and in the accusative, instrumental, and locative, the Sanskrit base **अस्म** in the form **अम्ह** is declined like the masculine **तद्**, and the forms are **अम्हे**, **अम्हेहि**, and **अम्हेसु**.

The **तु** of **तुभ्य** was probably weakly pronounced, hence the singular base **तु** has been transferred to the plural, and the peculiar syllable of this number **स्म** tacked on to it, and the whole in the form of **तुम्ह** is declined like **तद्** in all the cases except the genitive; as **तुम्हे**, **तुम्हेहि** &c. The forms of the plurals of the last are like those in Sanskrit; as **अम्हाकं** and **तुम्हाकं**. The accusative singulars of these pronouns have the forms **ममं** and **तवं**, besides those mentioned above. These are made up by adding anusvāra, the sign of the accusative, to the form of the genitive used as a base.

On the same principle we have **अम्हाकं** and **तुम्हाकं** for the plural, but as the genitive forms have an anusvara already, the addition of the accusative sign makes no difference. This is an isolated instance in this dialect of a method of constructing new case-forms, which is, we shall find as we proceed in our investigations, largely used in the later dialects and especially in the modern vernaculars.

You will have seen how naturally the new formations we have noticed grew up. A language is well learnt by others or correctly transmitted to them only when they are in constant and close intercourse with those who know it, or when they are deliberately taught. When for some reason or other this is not the case, and the linguistic tradition is imperfect, men proceed from what is more in use and consequently better known to that which is less used and less known. Nouns in **अ**, for instance, constitute a very large portion of the ordinary Sanskrit names. Their case forms were most used, whence they were well known and those of the other nouns not being so often used were less known. In

these cases these less forms had to conform to the model of the more known, and thus we see a tendency to bring nouns as close as possible to the अ declension, as you have seen in such nouns as आत्मन्, गुणवत्, गच्छत्, शास्त्र, and even अग्नि. And it is also clear that the new अ base is generally taken from the nominative, which case is oftener used than others, as अत्त, गुणवन्त, इच्छन्त, and सत्तार i. e. शास्तार. In the same way we have observed a strong tendency to obliterate the distinction between the nominal and pronominal declensions, and fuse them into one, and this tendency has succeeded everywhere except in the genitive plural. Still at the time when Pali arose, the traditions of the original Sanskrit were not entirely lost, wherefore we have often old forms used side by side with the new ones. The same process is observable in the conjugations of verbs, as I have already remarked. It will thus be seen how groundless is the opinion of those who maintain that these Prakrits or derived languages were simply literary languages, or were constructed by Pandits. But this point will be discussed at length hereafter.

Inattention to this law of false analogies or generalization, and to the wide range of its operation in the formation of Pali grammar has led some scholars to set down as Vedic certain forms which exist in this dialect but are not to be met with in classical Sanskrit. Such are इमस्स the genitive singular masculine of इदम्, फल्ल the nominative plural of फल, अट्ठी and मधु nominative and accusative plural of अस्थि and मधु, अणे the general plural base of the pronoun of the first person, and गोने genitive plural of गो. I see no reason why इमस्स should be regarded as Vedic and not the other forms that have इम for their base, such as इमस्मा, इमेसं, &c., or why फल्ल should be so and not फले the accusative plural; अण्ड and not तुण्डे, अट्ठी and not अट्ठिस्स, or गोने and not अभिद्धनं. If these latter forms and a host of others must be explained with reference to a thoroughly different principle, why should the former, which are kindred to them and are as completely capable of that same explanation, be traced to a Vedic origin? The fact that they happen to resemble certain Vedic forms does not prove their derivation from them. The same process of generalization and the same natural tendency to construct the less known forms from the

analogy of those that are more known brought them all into use. The forms फल and फले and अहू and मधू are, as stated before, made up upon the analogy of the corresponding masculine, and herein we observe the beginning of a tendency to obliterate the distinction between the masculine and neuter, which went on progressing until now, in the Hindi, Sindhi, and other vernaculars of Northern India, the neuter gender has totally disappeared, while in the Marathi the distinction remains in the case of pronouns and certain nouns, and in the Gujarati only in the latter.

II

THE VERB.

We will now examine the Pali verb. The distinction between the special and general tenses and moods is almost lost, the special form being used in the general, as in गच्छिस्सति the future of गच्छ, or the general form in the special as गमेति. We have also गमिस्सति and गच्छति. A large number of roots used in ordinary intercourse belong in Sanskrit to the first conjugation; this and the sixth are the easiest of the ten; in many cases there is no practical distinction between them, and in others they are so greatly like each other that they are capable of being confused together. Hence the rule of constructing verbal forms common to these two conjugations, viz. the addition of the personal terminations through the intervention of अ, has become general in Pali. A good many roots belonging to the other classes are conjugated according to this rule; as दोहति, विदति, and रवति, for दोग्धि, वेत्ति, and रौत्ति, of the second class; पोसति for पुष्यति, सुसति and बन्धति for दुष्णाति and बज्जाति, &c. The tenth conjugation is almost equally common in Sanskrit, whence a great many roots are conjugated necessarily or optionally in this way; as बदेनि or बवामि, गमेति or गच्छति, तिष्ठेत्तेति, वेदेति or विदति, विगाहेति, &c. from बद्, गच्छ, श्लिष, विद्, माह with षि, &c. The ए in these forms stands, you will remember, for the Sanskrit अव, which is the characteristic of the tenth class.

The second conjugation has gone out, except in isolated forms such as अस्मि for अस्ति, and the third has left some reduplicated roots, as दवामि, जहाति, &c. The fourth has preserved a good many of its roots but its व is corrupted according to the usual phonetic rules; thus वृक्ष becomes वुज्ज; पच, पज्ज; दत्त, तत्त; मन्थ, मज्ज, &c. The

fifth and the ninth are confounded, and roots of the former take the termination of the latter also ; as पापुजोति or पापुजाति for प्राप्नोति; मृजोति or मृजाति for मृजोति; सक्रोति or सक्रणाति for शक्नोति &c. In the last instance the base is सक्र derived from सक्रोति the corruption of अक्रोति, thus showing that the forms in ना are a later growth. The seventh inserts, as before remarked, a nasal in the body of the roots and transfers them to the first ; the eighth remains in a few cases such as तन and कृ, though this last takes a peculiar form also, as तनोति, करोति or कयिरति; and the ninth adds ना as in Sanskrit, as किणाति, पुनाति, लुनाति पुनाति, &c.

But it is to be observed that the more common of the roots belonging to these conjugations only have preserved their peculiar forms ; the rest are conjugated according to the rules of the first, sixth, or tenth. Since the distinction between the special and general tenses and moods is lost, the effect of these conjugational peculiarities is only to constitute a new or augmented root.

Of the ten tenses and moods in Sanskrit, the Pali has lost two, the first future and the precativ. The two Padas or voices remain, but the distinction is lost in most cases, such forms as पुचति, लप्पति, पचति, &c., though passive, taking Parasmaipada terminations.

The following are the terminations :—

PRESENT TENSE

	Parasm.		Ātm.	
	Singular.	Plural.	Singular.	Plural.
1st pers.	मि	म	ए	म्हे
2nd „	सि	थ	से	म्हे
3rd „	ति	अन्ति	ते	अन्ते
Ex.	पचति	पचन्ति &c.	पचते	पचन्ते &c.

IMPERATIVE.

	मि	म	ए	आमसे
1st pers.	मि	म	ए	आमसे
2nd „	हि, or none	थ	स्व	स्वो
3rd „	तु	अन्तु	तं	अन्तं
Ex.	पचतु	पचन्तु &c.	पचतं	पचन्तं &c.

IMPERFECT

1st pers.	अ	म्हा	ई	म्हते
2nd „	ओ	त्थ	से	व्हं
3rd „	आ	ऊ	त्थ	त्थुं
Ex.	अपचा	अपचू &c.	अपचत्थ	अपचत्थुं &c.

POTENTIAL

1st pers.	एय्यामि	एय्याम	एय्यं	एय्यम्हे
2nd „	एय्यासि	एय्याथ	एय्यो	एय्यम्हो
3rd „	एय्य or ए	एय्युं	एय्य	एरं
Ex.	एये or एयेय्य	एयेय्युं &c.	एयेय्य	एयेरं &c.

AORIST

1st pers.	ई	म्हा	अ	म्हे
2nd „	ओ	त्थ	से	व्हं
3rd „	ई	उं or ईह	आ	ऊ
Ex.	अपची	अपचुं or अपचिह &c.	अपचा	अपचू &c.

PERFECT

1st pers.	अ	म्ह	इ	म्हे
2nd „	ए	त्थ	त्थो	म्हो
3rd „	अ	उ	त्थ	रे
Ex.	पपच	पपचु &c.	पपचित्थ	पपचिरे &c.

FUTURE

1st pers.	स्सामि	स्साम	स्सं	स्सम्हे
2nd „	स्ससि	स्सथ	स्ससे	स्सम्हे
3rd „	स्सति	स्सन्ति	स्सते	स्सन्ते
Ex.	अविस्सति	अविस्सन्ति &c.	अविस्सते	अविस्सन्ते &c.

CONDITIONAL

1st pers.	स्सं	स्सम्हा	स्सं	स्साम्हते
2nd „	स्से	स्सथ	स्ससे	स्सम्हे
3rd „	स्सा	स्संहु	स्सथ	स्सिंहु
Ex.	अभविस्सा	अभविस्सहु &c.	अभविस्सथ	अभविस्सिंहु &c.

The terminations of the Present of both Padas are the same as in Sanskrit, with the exception of the plural म and म्हे, the व्हे of

the second person plural of the *Ātmanepada* being a corruption of **पथे**. This tense is most in use ; hence the Pali speakers learned it well, so to say, from their Sanskrit teachers.

The other tenses,—except the Future which, like the Present, is also entirely Sanskrit—and the moods have preserved such of their forms as are more frequently used in ordinary life. There is, for instance, greater occasion for the use of the second person singular of the Imperative Mood, and also for the third person. Hence these are the same as in Sanskrit, but the second person plural termination **थ**, and the first person singular **मि** and the plural **म**, *Parasmaipada*, have been transferred from the Present. As to these, even in Sanskrit we find the Present used very generally for this Mood in the first person ; as in **किं ते क्षुपः प्रियं पहरामि** Śāk., **किं ते क्षुपः प्रियं करोमि** Mrc., &c. where the forms should be **उपहरामि**, **करामि** &c. The rest are the same as in Sanskrit. The second person singular is formed in two ways, viz. without adding any termination as in the conjugations which give an ending **अ** to the base, and by appending **हि** as is done in the others. The *Ātmanepada* **स्व** is changed to **सु**, the **व** being dissolved into **उ**, since **स्व** renders the previous vowel heavy, the resulting **हु** is doubled to preserve that effect. The plural **ध्वस्** is altered to **ध्वो** ; the **म** and the mute element being dropped, we have **ञ्** the final vowel of which is transformed into **ओ** through the influence of the preceding **व**. The **ए** of the first person singular becomes **ए**, or this may be considered to have been transferred from the Present, and for the plural we have **आमसे** which is an old Vedic termination of the *Ātmanepada* first person plural corrupted in Sanskrit to **आमहे**. The **तं** and **अन्तं** of the third person are the same as the **ताम्** and **अन्ताम्** of the parent language.

The Potential has preserved the old forms of the third person only, viz., **पथे** for **पथेत्**, and **पथेय्युं** for **पथेयुः**. The **प** is doubled as in **येय्ये** for **सेय** according to a general rule which we have noticed before. The singular of this person is also formed by adding **एय्य** made up on the analogy of the plural **एय्यु** and also of such forms as **हुय्यात्**. The final vowel is, however, shortened, but in such cases as **जानीया** for **जानीयात्** it remains long. This form with the final long is used as a base, and the terminations of the first person and second person of the Present added to it to form 'the

corresponding person of the Potential. The *Ātmanepada* एय, एर, and एयी are the same as एत्, एरत्, and एयत्: of the Sanskrit अ-conjugations, the त् of एत् being rendered an aspirate and the अ of एयत्: shortened. The *Parasmaipada* singular एयस् as in एयेयस् is adapted for the *Ātmanepada* in the form एयं and the plurals of the second and first persons are formed by taking एयस् as the base and appending च्चस् corrupted to च्चो and च्चे of the Present.

In the Imperfect the आ and ऊ of the third person seem to be generalized from such forms as अयात् and अयुः. The termination उन् is, as you know, applied in Sanskrit optionally to roots ending in आ and necessarily to बिद् and such as are reduplicated. The आ of the singular, however, may be considered as due to the lengthening of the previous अ of such Sanskrit forms of the अ-conjugations as अपचत्, when the final consonant was dropped. This lengthening was brought about by the forcible pronunciation of the अ rendered necessary in Sanskrit by the final consonant. The second person singular is ओ, which corresponds to the Sanskrit अः, and अ of the first person singular to the अम् with the nasal dropped. The *Ātmanepada* second person singular से is transferred from the Present, सै is च्चस्, and इ is generalized from the forms of the non-अ-conjugations, such as अह्नुनि, अद्दि, &c. The Perfect has preserved the third person singular अ and plural उ and the first person singular अ, of the *Parasmaipada*; and रे of the *Ātmanepada*. Of the rest, ए second person singular *Parasmaipada* is perhaps the ए of the Sanskrit *Ātmanepada* singular of the first and third persons; and the इ of the *Ātmanepada* is transferred from the Imperfect.

In the Aorist the third person singular इ is the termination of the fifth form of the Sanskrit Aorist with the final ण् dropped as usual; and the plural ई is generalized from such forms as अरयुः. Some roots, such as द् and क् have सि for the singular as अहोसि, and अकासि, the सि of which is to be traced to सात्. Another plural termination is इह् in which we can recognize the Sanskrit इह्. The second person singular ओ is from the अम् of the second Aorist; and the first person singular is इ resulting from the fusion of the augment इ with the अम् of the second Aorist. The third person singular and plural and the first person singular of the *Ātmane-*

pada are the same as the corresponding ones of the Parasmaipada Imperfect, both numbers of the second person are the same as the corresponding Atmaepada of the Imperfect, and the *स्ते* of the first person plural is transferred from the Present.

The terminations of the Second Future are made up as in Sanskrit by prefixing *स्त* = *स्य* to those of the Present. The *Ātmanepada* first person singular has however *स्ते* instead of *स्ते*. In one instance, viz., *होहिति, होहन्ति* from *हो*, the *स्त* is corrupted to *ह*. In the Conditional terminations the *स्त* occurs everywhere, but the other portions are transferred from other tenses. The ending *आ* of the third person singular *स्ता* is of course the *आ* of the Imperfect; the *अद्* of the plural has been transferred from the Aorist, Imperfect, or Potential; the *वे* and *थ* of *स्ते* and *स्तथ* are brought over from the *Ātmanepada* and Parasmaipada of the Present; *स्ते* is *स्यथ*, and the *म्हा* of *स्तम्हा* the plural is from the Imperfect. In Sanskrit, the short terminations of the Imperfect and other tenses are added to the *स्य* in the Conditional; but here there is a mixture of both the short and the long, and also of the two Padas. We find the same mixture in the *Ātmanepada*.

It will thus appear that the Present and Future have preserved most of the Sanskrit terminations, and the other tenses only about two or three. Besides the terminations that have thus been preserved or transferred by analogy from one tense to another, there are others which cannot be thus explained. Such are *स्ते* *Ātmanepada* first person plural of the Present; *स्य* and *म्हा* of the Parasmaipada second and first person plural, and *स्य* third person singular. *स्यो* second person singular and *स्ते* first person plural of the *Ātmanepada* of the Perfect; *स्य* second person plural and *म्हा* first person plural Parasmaipada, and *स्य* and *स्यु* third person singular and plural and *म्हास्ते* first person plural *Ātmanepada*, of the Imperfect; *स्य* second person plural and *म्हा* first person plural Parasmaipada of the Aorist, and *स्ते* first person plural of the *Ātmanepada* of the same; *स्ते* first person plural *Ātmanepada* of the Future; and *स्मा* Parasmaipada and *म्हास्ते* *Ātmanepada* of the first person of the Conditional. These are unquestionably forms of the root *अव* tacked on to the base in the particular tenses when the old terminations were forgotten, or some of them may be traced directly to the terminations of the Sanskrit Aorist *स्त*, *स्याः* and *स्म*, which themselves,

as you know, are forms of अच्. Of these, the *Parasmaipada* second person plural त्य is to be traced to the corresponding Sanskrit त्य of the Present of अच्, and ष्ठ and म्हा first person plural to the स्म of आस्म of the Imperfect and स्मः of the Present respectively. The penultimate अ of स्मः is lengthened for the same reason as that of अपचत् is in forming अपचा. The *Ātmanepada* त्थो of the second singular comes from the त्थाः of आत्थाः of the Imperfect, त्थ third person singular, from the स्त of अस्त of the same; and ष्ठे and म्हासे first person plural are to be referred to such *Ātmanepada* forms as स्मे and स्मसे. Of the last two, स्मे appears to be a new formation form स्म, and स्मसे is the old Vedic archetype of स्महे.

You will thus see that when the original Sanskrit forms were forgotten, new ones corresponding to them were constructed in the Pali, not only by the use of false analogies, but also by taking one form distinctively expressive of the sense of a particular mood or tense as a base, and appending first only the personal terminations of the Present, as in the case of the Potential; and secondly, the forms of the root अच्. You will hereafter find that the modern vernaculars have resorted to one at least of these two modes of reconstruction; and similarly, the beginnings in the Pali of a mode of constructing new case-forms widely prevalent in the modern dialects was brought to your notice before; so that the spirit or turn of mind which has been in operation in the formation of the vernacular speech of the country, has been the same since very remote times.

The terminations with an initial consonant are in the general tenses appended through the intervention of the vowel इ; but in some cases there are forms directly corrupted from Sanskrit; as दक्षति Sanskrit दृक्षति, मोक्षति = मोक्षति. The temporal augment अ is often omitted, as गसा or अगसा, गमी or अगमी, गमिस्सा or अगमिस्सा. The several varieties of the Aorist, and the many special forms of the Perfect, have for the most part gone out of use. The Passive is formed by the addition of व as in Sanskrit, sometimes with the augment इ, sometimes without, in which last case the conjunct consonant is corrupted according to the prevailing rules; as बुज्झियते, पचते, लभ्यते, करियते. The forms in a good many cases are the same in Sanskrit, only phonetically altered; as धीयते, उच्यते, हज्जते in which cases we see that the आ of एषा is changed to ई, and

वच् and यज् under Samprasāraṇa. The causal is formed by adding आवे or आयय and ए or आय; as कारायेति or काराययति and कारेति or कारयति. These forms I have already explained. The Past Passive Participle is formed as in Sanskrit, and in many cases the forms are the same. The Absolutive is formed by using the terminations त्, त्वान्, and त्वा. The first is the same as the second, the semivowel ऋ having only undergone Samprasāraṇa; and they are to be traced to such Vedic forms as इष्टीन्, कृत्वान् &c., which have disappeared in Classical Sanskrit. The Infinitive is formed by adding हुं as in Sanskrit, or त्वे which, I have already observed, is one of the many ways in which the Vedic Infinitive is formed. It has become obsolete in the later Sanskrit.

Now if the Pali grew up naturally in the manner I have described, it could not come to possess the several grammatical forms it exhibits unless they were in use in Sanskrit at the time when it branched off. It has, as we have seen, preserved eight of the ten Tenses and Moods, whence it follows that verbal forms of these were then current in the language. Pali therefore represents Middle Sanskrit or the usage that prevailed during the period between the composition of the Brahmanas and Yaska or Panini and must have begun to be formed during that period. We shall hereafter find that latter Prakrits represent the third stage in the development of the Sanskrit that in which a good many of the verbal forms ceased to be used; and thus bear to what I have called classical Sanskrit the same relation that the Pali does to Middle Sanskrit.

* * * *

We will now proceed to consider those valuable specimens of the ancient languages of the country which have been preserved in inscriptions. The most important of these are the edicts of Aśoka, the pious king of Pataliputra in Magadha, the modern Behar, who flourished in the middle of the third century before Christ. These edicts contain the king's religious and moral injunctions to his subjects, and set forth his own ideas, belief, and conduct in these matters. Five different versions of them have been discovered, inscribed on rocks in different parts of the country. There is one at Girnar, near Jungad in Kāthiawar, another at Dhauli in

Kattak, and a third at Kapurdigiri or 'Sahbazgarhi in Afghanistan. These have been published and examined. The Girnar version has been copied several times, but the other two only once, and hence there are a good many imperfections in our existing copies of them. Another version has recently been discovered at Jaugad near Ganjam, in the Northern Circars, and copied by a Madras Civilian. It is unfortunately greatly mutilated, not more than two of the fourteen edicts being found complete, and but a few words left of some. The fifth has recently been discovered by General Cunningham at Khalsi, near Masuri in the Himalayas, and has not yet been published.* Other edicts of the same king are found inscribed on columns which exist at Delhi, Allahabad, and other places. At Dhauli and Ganjam there exist, along with the edicts mentioned above, others which answer to these. Another Inscription of Asoka has been found at Babhra in Rajputana, which consists of a letter to the Buddhist congregation.

These Inscriptions are in three different dialects, closely related to each other. The Girnar dialect is very much like the Pali. That of the Dhauli, Ganjam, and Khalsi versions presents peculiarities which are found in a later Prakrit called Māgadhi by the grammarians. Such are the substitution of न् for र्, ए for the ओ of the nominative singular of masculine nouns in अ, ति the termination of the locative instead of the Pali नि, and हकम् for अहम्. The Babhra and the column inscriptions are also in this dialect. The Sahbazgarhi recension admits of some conjuncts such as ष, and the sibilants ञ् and ञ which in the others and in Pali are changed to ञ. But it is a question whether these are dialectic peculiarities, or are to be attributed to a confusion of the vernacular with Sanskrit. I will now place before you short specimens of these dialects.

Girnar, edict VIII.

अतिक्रान्तं जलं राजानो विहारयतां ज्ञेयाह । एत मगज्या अज्यानि च एतारिसानि
अभिरमकानि अहं । सो वेवानेपियो पियवसी राजा दसवसाभिसितो संतो अयाच
संबोधि । तेनेसा चंनयाता एतयं होति बाम्भणसमणानं दसणे च दाने च धेराणं दसणे

* Published since in Corp. Insc. A sixth Version existing at Manshera in the Panjab was discovered after the above was published. I have made use of the latest readings of the versions.

च हिरण्यपट्टिबिधाने च जानपदस्य च जनस्य हसनं धमानुसस्ती च धर्मपरिपुष्ठा च ।
तदोपया एसा क्षयरति भवति देवानपियस प्रियदर्शनो राज्ञो भागे अत्रे ।

Sanskrit:—

अतिक्लान्तामन्तरं राजानो विहारयात्रां निरयासिदुः । अत्र कृगयान्यानि चैतादृशान्य-
भिरामकाण्यभूवन् । स देवानां प्रियः प्रियदर्शी राजा दक्षावर्षाभिषिक्तः सङ्गयासीत्संबोधितम् ।
तेनेषा धर्मयात्रा । अत्रेदं भवति ब्राह्मणश्रमणानां दर्शनं च दानं च स्थविराणां दर्शनं च
हिरण्यप्रतिविधानं च जानपदस्य च जनस्य दर्शनं धर्मादुक्षास्तिश्च धर्मपरिपुष्ठा च ।
तदोपयादेवा क्षयरतिर्भवति देवानां प्रियस्य प्रियदर्शीनो राज्ञो भागेन्यस्मिन् ।

Translation:—

" Some time ago kings went on pleasure excursions. Hunting and such others were the diversions here. But Priyadarśin, the favourite of the gods, began the search of enlightenment when he had been a crowned monarch for ten years. Hence this excursion (course) of righteousness. It consists of this, viz. seeing Brāhmaṇas and Śramaṇas, and bestowing gifts, seeing the religious elders and presenting gold, and seeing country-people and giving instruction in righteousness and in the investigation of the law. Since that time king Priyadarśin has been taking great delight in the glories of the next world."

It is not usual in these inscriptions to mark the double or assimilated consonants. Hence we do not find them here except in the case of double nasals which are indicated by an anusvāra followed by the nasal. There is, as in Pali, no other phonetic change; प्रति we see becomes पट्टि and क्ष becomes optionally ह्; and राजानो the nominative plural, राज्ञो for रज्ज्ज्ञो the genitive singular, सन्तो the nominative singular, and all other cases are just like those in that dialect. We have the Aorist forms ending in an anusvāra followed by ह्, as in Pali. But there are some differences; एतारिस् is एतादिस in Pali as it is in the other recensions of this same inscription, अहंसु is अहेन्तु, though अहुन्तु agrees with the rules of Pali grammar and must have existed in the language; the ऐ of ऐराज is opposed to Pali usage, but the engraver may have committed a mistake; अयाह is for निध्यात्, ह् being changed to ए before the conjunct according to the rule we have noticed. बान्धव is ब्राह्मण in Pali; but the inscription perhaps represents the prevailing usage more correctly; and the अ is lengthened in राज्ञो probably through mistake. There are thus very few cases of real difference, and though they might be considered to point to a

dialectal variety of the nature of those we find in the different versions of the edicts, still the language is in the same stage of growth as the Pali.

The following is the Dhauli version collated with that at Khalsi and completed :—

अतिक्रंतं अंतर्लं^१ लाजानो विहालयातं नाम निस्समिस्सु । द्विवा मिगयिया अंनानि च^२
 'एदिसानि अभिलामानि^३ हुवंति नं । से देवानं पिये पियदसी लाजा दसवसाभिसिंते 'संते
 निस्समि^४ संबोधिं । तेनता धंमयाता 'हेता इयं होति समनवा'भनानं दसने च दाने च^५
 बुढानं दसने च हिलंनपटिबिधाने च ।

We here observe the varieties mentioned before, the change of *र* to *ळ* and the nominative in *ए*. We also see निस्समिस्सु for अयास्स एदिसनि for एतारिसानि, बुढानं or बुढानं (=दुखानां) for धेरानं, and बभन for ब्राह्मण.. So then here we have another dialect.

Kapurdigiri or Sāhbazgarhi version:—

अतिक्रंतं अंतरं देवनंयिय विहरयन्न नम निक्कमिस्सु अन्न भुगय अज्जनि च हेदिशानि
 अमिरमनि अभवस्स सो देवनंयिय यियप्रसि रज दशवसभिसितो सतो निक्कमि संबोधिं
 तेनदं धम्मयन्न अन्न इयं होति भम्मणज्जमज्जनं व्रजने वनं &c.

Here we have the conjuncts *यि, वा, न्न, &c.*, and the three Sanskrit sibilants ; and also हेदिशानि for ईदृशानि.

The reason why we have not one same version at all the three places must be that it was the intention of the king to publish the edicts in the dialect of each particular place. The Dhauli-Khalsi dialect is as observed before, used in the column inscriptions, and also in that found at Bābhra. The king's predilection for it can be plausibly accounted for only on the supposition that it was his own native tongue. If so, this dialect must have prevailed in Magadha, which country was under his immediate rule, and the capital of which was Pāṭaliputra, where he reigned. And this accounts for the fact that it is used in the inscriptions at Dhauli and Ganjam, since they are situated in the contiguous country. One peculiarity of this language, viz. the nominative singular of nouns in *अ* ending in *ए* is met with even in the Gīrṇār recension,

1. देवानं पिया Kh.

2. हेदिसानि Kh.

3. हुसु for हुवंति नं Kh.

4. Dh. om.

5. निस्समिदा Kh.

6. ततेस for हेता इयं Dh.

7. बंभ Kh.

8. बुधानं Kh.

which may be explained by the supposition that the edicts were drawn up first in the king's dialect but were translated into the dialect of each province, the translation however being not executed carefully enough to expunge all peculiarities of the original draft. It would thus appear that the grammarians of the later languages had more solid grounds than mere fancy for calling that Prakrit which bears close resemblance to this language by the name of Magadhī. Here then we find specimens of three dialects prevalent in three widely distant provinces; but we should bear in mind that the difference between them is small, while in the languages that are spoken in these countries at the present day it is so great as to make it difficult for the natives of one province to understand those of another.

In the many other ancient monuments existing in the country we often find inscriptions which are principally in two languages, the Sanskrit and the Pali or Prakrit, understanding by this term simply a dialect derived from the Sanskrit. Those in the latter (Pali) are mostly connected with Buddhism; though some Buddhist inscriptions also, such as those discovered by General Cunningham at Mathura several years ago, are in Sanskrit. In the caves at Kanheri, Nasik, Junnar, Nanaghat, Karla, and some other places in this Presidency, and in the Bhilsa topos, we have Pali or Prakrit inscriptions. Most of these are short, but at Nasik we have long ones, in the caves of Usavadata, and Gotamiputra. The language of these latter is Pali; and but a few forms are peculiar, such as दत्त and कित्त for which the Pali has दिग्ग and कत्त, Past Passive Participles of दा and कृ: and वे for the numeral two, the Pali form being द्वे or दुवे. In Usavadata's caves we have one inscription entirely in Sanskrit, the rest are in Pali or Prakrit, but we have an intermixture of Sanskrit words, and the conjuncts प्र, व, and ह्य often appear. In these and smaller inscriptions we have such words as द्वार for द्वार, द्वारसक for द्वारिक, वरिस for वर्ष, उदिस for उद्दिश्य, while the Pali forms of these words are द्वार, वरिसिक, वम्स, and उद्दिसेत्वा. Some of these inscriptions were engraved so late as the third century, when the Pali could hardly have been the vernacular; but it had become the sacred-language of the Buddhists; the mendicant priests for whom the caves were intended and even educated lay members of that per-

suasion understood it; and hence it was used in these inscriptions as Sanskrit was in others.

The style of Gotamputra's charters, abounding as it does in long compounds and elaborate expressions, is very unlike the plain and simple language of Aśoka's edicts. And at the end of these and that of his son, we are told that the officers of these kings who caused the charters to be engraved acted under the command, i. e. wrote to the dictation of "respected persons who were the compilers of all such document." It thus appears that the Pali was at that time a sacred and a literary language among the Buddhists. And as to the language of the other inscriptions, which like those of Gotamputra and his son were not composed by learned men, one can easily understand how ignorant persons, not knowing Sanskrit or Pali well, but still not ignorant enough to know nothing of those languages, would confound together Sanskrit, Pali, and vernacular words. Even in our days we find the phenomenon in the *patrikas* or horoscopes written by our Josis or astrologers, which are neither in pure Sanskrit nor in pure vernacular, but contain a mixture of them both, and the Sanskrit words and forms in which are incorrectly written.

And an explanation of this nature I have also to give of another variety of language that is found in the writings of the Northern or Nepalese Buddhists. These unlike those of the Ceylonese and Burmese Buddhists are written in Sanskrit, but in such works as the *Lalitavistara* or the life of Buddha we find, along with prose passages in pure Sanskrit, a number of verses which contain words or forms which are not Sanskrit. Thus, for instance, we have:—

सर्वशुभकर्महेतोः फलमिदं शृणुतास्य कर्मस्य

पूजारहो भवितुं सर्वजने अनुबन्धत इममनन्तवशं ॥

You will here see that कर्मस्य, जने, and वशं are as in the Pali treated like nouns in अ, अई is dissolved into अरह, and there are a few other instances of this process, such as किलेश for क्लेश, शिरि, for शी, हिरि for ह्री &c., but that generally the conjunct consonants are retained as they are in Sanskrit, and not assimilated. So also you have बोदेस्ति for बोदयन्ति, मायाय genitive singular of माया, उपजदित्वा शुभिष्यति, मिरक्षिथ; Imperative second person plural, हामेश for हामयत, &c., and even such words as सनाय which are Pali in

every respect. But along with these there are other peculiarities which must be attributed simply to carelessness. For instance, the case terminations are often omitted, a thing never done either in Sanskrit or Pali, as काम सेविति for कामं सेवते, सुगत for सुगते when governed by इजयितुं, मोक्ष भोग्यति for मोक्षो भविष्यति, &c. Such constructions as क्षाप्त्या सोरभ्यसम्पन्नाः for क्षान्तिसोरभ्यसंपन्नाः, झीलसमाधि तथा प्रज्ञमयं for झीलसमाधिप्रज्ञामयं, are often to be met with.

This language has therefore no fixed characteristics at all. We have seen that in such words as कर्म, जग and यज्ञ above, the final consonant is dropped, and these as in Pali and Prakrit made nouns in अ. But यज्ञम् is used in the Sanskrit form also, as कीर्ति-यज्ञम्; and there are instances in which other final consonants are preserved. Along with such a form as शुण्णियति noted above, which is constructed on the same principle as the Pali सुणिस्सति, such a Sanskrit one as शृण्वन्ति is found. It therefore appears to me that this is not an independent language ; but that the writers of the Gāthās knew the spoken language or Pali, and that they were imperfectly acquainted with Sanskrit, knowing enough of it to see that the assimilation of consonants was a vulgarity, but not acquainted with its grammar. They intended to write in the more polished or literary language, but not knowing it well, often used unconsciously the grammatical forms and the peculiar words of the vernacular. At the time when the Gāthās were written the claims of the Pali to be considered a separate language were probably not recognised, and it constitute! the speech of the uninstructed. Those who in this condition of things wished to write, could not think of doing so in that form of speech, and therefore wrote in what they considered the language of educated men ; but they knew it imperfectly, and produced such a heterogeneous compound as we have seen.

LECTURE III.

THE PRAKRITS AND THE APABHRAMŚA.

On the last occasion we examined the language of the sacred books of the Southern Buddhists, and found that a large portion of the words it contains are pure Sanskrit and the rest are Sanskrit words corrupted or transformed according to certain laws of phonetic decay. Then by the law of false analogy the less used and less known declensional and conjugational forms have been in many cases brought over to the type of those more used in Sanskrit and consequently better known. So that in the vocabulary and the grammar, the laws of growth I traced in the opening lecture are in operation, but their range is limited, and the dialect is in what may be called the first stage of departure from Sanskrit. We then examined the language of the Inscriptions of Aśoka and found that it is either the same as Pali or in the same stage of development, and that there existed in those times two or three varieties of speech slightly differing from each other. To-day I propose to examine certain other dialects which exhibit a much greater departure from the parent tongue. These are the so-called Prakrits. For a knowledge of these languages we have not to go beyond India, as in the case of the one we have examined. Prakrit dialects possessed a literature and a portion of it has come down, to us.

THE PRAKRITS.

There exist about six treatises on Prakrit grammar, the most ancient of which is Vararuci's *Prakṛtaprakāśa*. Next comes Hemacandra, a Jaina scholar of Gujarat, who lived in the twelfth century. His work on grammar is known by the name of *Hainavyākaraṇa*, the eight chapter of which he devotes to the grammar of the Prakrits. Hemacandra's treatment of these dialects is fuller than Vararuci's; and his observation was wider. He shows a very intimate knowledge of the existing literature of these languages, both sacred and profane, Jaina or Brahmanical. His work, and especially the last portion, is full of quotations. He must have availed himself of the labours of former scholars, since

he often mentions *Pūrvācāryas*. Hemacandra also wrote a *Koṣa* or thesaurus of the *Dēśī* words existing in these languages. Vararuci gives the grammar of four dialects, which he calls Maharaṣṭri, Sauraseni, Magadhi, and Paisaci. The names of the first three themselves would show that they were the languages spoken or used in the provinces from the names of which they are derived, but doubts have been raised as to their genuineness, which will be hereafter considered. The Maharaṣṭri is called the principal Prakrit. For instance, Daṇḍin in his *Kavyādarśa* says-

"The language prevalent in Mahāraṣṭra they regard as the Prakṛta pre-eminent; it is the ocean of jewels in the shape of good literary works, and the Setubandha and others are written in it¹."

Vararuci devotes the first nine chapters of his work to the Maharaṣṭri, and then a chapter each to the rest. The peculiarities only of the latter dialects and their differences from the Mahāraṣṭri are given, and in other respects they are to be considered similar to the first. Hemacandra follows the same method; but he does not mention the name Maharaṣṭri and speaks of the dialect only as the Prakrit. These grammarians and all others who have written on the subject treat of the grammar of the language etymologically. They take Sanskrit as the original language or *prakṛti* and give rules about the various phonetical and grammatical changes which have reduced Sanskrit to the Prakrit form. The Pali grammarian Kaccayana treats the dialect not as one derived from Sanskrit as these writers do, but as an independent language, though it is very probable he knew Sanskrit, since he uses Sanskrit grammatical terms, and his Sūtras greatly resemble those in the Katantra and even Panini. Vararuci and Hemacandra derive Sauraseni also from the Sanskrit as they do the Maharaṣṭri or the principal Prakrit, but make the Sauraseni the *Prakṛti* or basis of the Magadhi and the Paisaci. This appears to be the tradition; whence it would seem that older and more developed language or the language of respectable people was the Sauraseni, and the other two were the dialects of border countries used by persons in a lower scale of

1. महाराष्ट्रादयः भाषाः प्रकृतं प्राकृतं विदुः ।

सागरः अक्षरत्नानां सेतुबन्धादि यन्त्रद्वयम् ॥

society. They have some of the peculiarities of the Śaurasenī, and come nearer to it than to the Mahārāṣṭrī. Hemacandra gives the grammar of two more dialects, the Cūlikā Paisācī and the Apabhrarhṣā, the latter of which was according to Daṇḍin, the language of Abhlras (cowherds) and others. Another grammarian of the name of Trivikrama gives in his Prākṛtasūtravṛtti the grammar of these six dialects. He lived after Hemacandra, since he mentions him in the introduction to his work, and his book resembles Hemacandra's a good deal. There is another work by Candra called Ṣaḍbhāṣacandrikā which is a meagre production. Another still of the same nature, the author of which is Laksmidhara, mentions the same six dialects; so that the expression Ṣaḍbhāṣā seems to have become proverbial.

The Mahārāṣṭrī derived its importance from its literature. From the manner in which Dandin speaks of that literature it appears to have been very extensive and valuable. He himself mentions one work, the Setubandha, a poem attributed to Kālidāsa but written by one Pravarasena, whose "fame," Bāṇa says in his Harṣacarita, "reached the other side of the ocean by means of the Setu." I find in a Ms. in the colophon at the end of each āśvāsa or canto, sometimes **इअ सिरीपवरसेणबिगइए दहसुहबहे** (thus in the Daśamukhavadhā composed by the prosperous Pravarasena), and sometimes, **इअ परवसेनबिगइए कालिदासकए दहसुहबहे** (thus in the Daśamukhavadhā, the work of Kālidāsa, composed by Pravarasena). Some kings of Kasmir bore the name of Pravarasena, but there is nothing to show that any one of them was the poet who wrote this work. There is a collection of seven hundred songs, chiefly of an amorous nature, by a poet of the name of Hala, which is called the Saptasatī. We have an edition of this in Roman characters by Prof. Weber. Another long poem entitled the Gaudavadhakavya by a poet named Vakpatiraja, who lived at the court of Yaśovarman, king of Kanoj, in the early part of the eighth century, was discovered by Dr. Buhler about three years ago. And several other works may turn up, if diligent search is made for them. The Kāvyaaprakāśa contains about 75 Prakrit verses quoted to illustrate the rules laid down by the author, and Śarṅgadharma also gives a good many in his Paddhati.

The religious books of the Jainas form another very extensive

branch of Prakrit literature. Prof. Weber thinks the language of these to be later than the Pali and earlier than the Prakrits, so as to occupy a middle position, and calls it Jaina-Magadhi. But Hemacandra himself, who must have known his religious books well, and was, as I have observed, a great Prakrit scholar, treats it as the principal Prakrit or Mahārāṣṭri, and in his grammar of this he in several places gives forms of words peculiar to his sacred language, which after the example of his Brahmanic brothers he calls Arsa Prakṛta.¹ In giving his first rule about the Magadhi dialect, viz., that the nom. sing. of Masc. nouns takes the termination ए, he says :—"As to what the fathers have said about the Arsa (works) being composed in the Ardha-Magadhi dialect in such words as these: 'the ancient Sutra is composed in the Ardha-Magadhi dialect', they have said so in consequence of the observance of this rule and not of those that follow."² Thus if one chooses to call the sacred language of the Jainas Ardha-Māgadhī on account of this Magadhi peculiarity and a few other archaisms, one may do so; and I shall presently have to observe that the great many dialects which writers on poetics give, differed from each other in such insignificant particulars only. But it is clear that Hemacandra considers the distinction to be slight, and identifies the dialect with the principal Prakrit; and both he and the Jaina fathers refer it to the class of the Prakrits of the grammarians.³

1 आर्षम् । ३ । ऋषीणामिव आर्षम् । आर्षे प्राकृतं बहुलं भवति । तदपि यथास्थानं दर्शयिष्यामः । आर्षे हि सर्वे विधयो विकल्प्यन्ते । He has also said before, that the rules he is going to give even with regard to the ordinary Prakrit should not be considered universal.

2 यदपि पुराजन्मसमागहमासानियथं द्वयहं हस्तमित्यादिनार्षस्यार्धमागधभाषानियतस्य-
भाम्नायि वृत्तेस्तदपि प्रायोल्लेख विधानात् न बध्यमाणलक्षणस्य ।

3 The only specific grounds one can find in Prof. Weber's book in support of the assertion that the Jaina dialect occupies a middle position are these :-
1. That uninitial क, ग, घ, ङ, ट, ठ, and other consonants are dropped in the Mahārāṣṭri leaving only the vowel, and preserved or softened in the Pali, while in the Jaina books ए is substituted for them; i. e., the different stages of phonetic corruption in this case are, the consonants in their original or softened forms, then ए for them, and lastly their elision. 2. That ए is preserved in the Pali, and changed everywhere to ए in the Mahārāṣṭri; while in the Jaina dialect initial ए remains unchanged except in enclitics. 3. That the loc. sing. of nouns in अ ends in सि or सि which we find in the

But it is in the dramatic plays that we find these dialects principally used. Writers on Poetics prescribe that a particular dramatic person should speak a particular dialect. Sanskrit is assigned to respectable men of education, and women in holy orders; Śauraseni, to respectable ladies in their prose speeches, and the Maharaṣṭrī or the principal Prakrit, in the songs or verses put into their mouths. Śauraseni is also assigned to inferior characters; and the Magadhi and Paisaci to very low persons. The general rule is that a dramatic person should speak the language of the country to which he or she is supposed to belong. Later writers give more minute rules. For instance, the author of the Sahityadarpana assigns Magadhi to the attendants in the royal seraglio, Ardhamagadhi to footmen, royal children, and

language of the column inscriptions; while it is *रि* in the Pali and *रि* in the Prakrit.

Now as to the first, the *ए* is not prior to the elision, but contemporaneous or subsequent to it, being found even in the modern vernaculars. It was introduced simply to facilitate pronunciation; i. e., it is a strengthened form of the vowel. Thus the Prakrit of पादि foot is पाअ, but in Marathi we have पाय; so राजन् Skr., राज Pr., राय H.; सोवर Skr., सोअ Pr., सोयरा M., &c. &c. The *ए* occurs not only in Jaina books, but everywhere, e. g. in the Gaudavadhakāvya (see below); and Hemacandra does tell us in his Sūtra अवर्णो यञ्जति: that the अ that remains after the elision of a consonant is pronounced like a soft य. With regard to the second, initial *अ* is found unchanged in the Gaudavadhā in a great many places. Thus in stanza 242 we have the negative particle न, in 241 निबद्ध for निपतति, in 245 नहि for नाय, and in 251 नह for नख. These instances I have found on simply opening the Ms. at random and no great search was necessary. Hemacandra also in his Sūtra चादौ following another, नो णः, says that the initial *अ* is sometimes changed to ए, sometimes not. As to the third, the termination *सि* may constitute a peculiarity of the language, but it is by no means an index to its higher antiquity, since it occurs in the pronominal locative of the principal Prakrit. There are several peculiarities in the Jaina books, and a good many of them are noticed by our Grammarian, but they do not show an earlier stage of development.

This continues still to be my view, notwithstanding all that has since been published on the subject. Dr. Hoernle, in the introduction to his edition of Canda's Prakṛtalaksana makes an elaborate attempt to prove that the dialect, the grammar of which is given in that book, is more ancient than the Prakrit of Vararuci and Hemacandra. But it is not at all difficult to see that he is altogether on a wrong track. He says there is

merchants, Pracya to the Vidusaka and others, Avantiki to sharpers, warriors, and clever men of the world, Dākṣīṇyā to gamblers, Śakari to Śakaras, Śakas, and others, Bahlika to celestial persons, Dravidi to Dravidas and others, Abhiri to cowherds, Caṇḍaliki to outcastes, Abhiri and Sabari, also to those who live by selling wood and leaves, and Paisaci to dealers in charcoal. Hand-maids, if they do not belong to a very low class, should speak Sauraseni. Some of the modern grammarians also mention as large a number of dialects. But whether these were actually used by writers of dramatic plays in accordance with the rules of Rhetoricians, or, if they were, what constituted the exact difference between these various languages, it is impossible to determine so long as we have not got satisfactory editions of the plays.

nothing in Hemacandra corresponding to the rule given by Caṇḍa about dropping the final vowel of the first member of a compound when the initial vowel of the second is followed by a consonant, in such words as *dhana+aḍhya*, *deva+indra*, &c, which in that Prakrit have the forms *ghanarjḍha*, *devinda*, &c. This change, however, does come under Hemacandra's rule I. 84, which provides for the shortening of a long vowel when followed by a conjunct consonant. The short vowels corresponding to ए and ओ are इ and उ; and among the instances given by Hemacandra, we have *narindo* for *narendra*, *aharuttha* for *adharosfha*, *mhippala* for *nilot-pala* &c. Dr. Hoernle thinks the changes of ī to short *e* and of *u* to short *o* are later Prakrit changes. But he will find many instances of them in the Pali, which certainly is an older dialect than any Jaina Prakrit. They are, he says, unknown to Caṇḍa. Caṇḍa's work is a very meagre production, in which very little endeavour is made to classify facts; and thus he must be supposed to include these changes under his very general rule that *one vowel takes the place of another vowel* (II. 4). The instance *ginhati* incidentally given by him in connection with another rule does not show that in his Prakrit the form *genha* did not exist, much less that the change of *o* to *e* was unknown. Then with regard to consonants, Dr. Hoernle says that there are five points in which the "older Prakrit" of Caṇḍa, as he calls it, differs from the Prakrit of Yāraruci and Hemacandra. One of these is "the preservation of the dental *n* in every case." For this statement the Doctor quotes the authority of a Sūtra in which we are told by Caṇḍa that ण and न do not exist in the Prakrit, as compared with another version of that Sūtra which says that ण, न, and ण do not exist (II. 14). This last version no doubt provides for the change of ण in all cases; but the other which denies the non-existence or affirms the existence of ण cannot mean that it exists or is unchanged in all cases. The denial of non-existence or

Still in those cases in which we have the assistance of the older Prakrit grammarians, the characteristics of each can be made out with fulness and certainty. To illustrate his rules about the Magadhi, Hemacandra quotes from the speeches of the fisherman and the two policemen in Śakuntalā, of the Kṣapapaṇka from the Mudraraksasa, and Rudhirapriya from the Venisamhara.

The points in which the Māghadhī chiefly differs from the principal Prakrit and Śauraseni are these :—**र** and **ख** of these are changed to **व** and **ग**; **रथ** and **र्थ** of Sanskrit to **ल**, and **द** to **ड**; and **ख** is not assimilated as in **पस्वलदि** from **प्रस्वलदि**, the nom. sing. of masc. nouns ends in **ए** instead of **ओ**, which is the Prakrit ending; the gen. sing. of masc. and neut. nouns optionally in **आह** as **कम्माह**; and the form of the nom. sing. of the first personal pronoun is **हमे**.

affirmation of existence only proves its existence or 'remaining unchanged in some cases. Besides we have a specific rule where we are told that a letter of the **द्व** class takes the place of the corresponding letter of the **ख** class (III. 16), thus providing for the change of **ख** to **ण**; and the instance given is **धणं** for **धान्यम्**. But this rule, the Doctor thinks, holds good in cases, for which however there is no authority whatever, and he gives none. Again, he says that his statement is proved by the uniform spelling of the Prakrit examples with **n** in MSS A and B, -which, according to him, contain the older version of the work. I, however, find that the spelling in his edition, which is the spelling of A and B, follows uniformly, with one or two exceptions, in which we must suppose a mistake, the rule laid down by Hemacandra, viz., that initial **n** is optionally changed to **ण**, while medial **n** is necessarily so changed. The instances are.—all the oase-terminations which are to be traced to the Sanskrit terminations having **n** in them, such as **णो**, **णि**, and **णे**: **मुणिणो** for **मुनीम्** (I. 1), **गयणओ** for **गगनतः** (I. 16), **मणिस्सा** A. (I. 21), **नाणी** (I. 24) for **ज्ञानी**, **सक्कीसाणा** for **सक्रेशानी** (II. 1), **काणं** (II. 15), **गयणं** for **गगनम्** (II. 21), **पलिणं** for **वीह-नम्** (II. 24), **नाणं** for **ज्ञानम्** (III. 6), **जुज्जणं** for **पौवम्** (III. 15) and **रज्जणं** for **रत्नं** (III. 30). The second point is "the preservation of the medial single surd unaspirate consonants with the only exception of **k**." This simply means the preservation of **c**, **t**, and **p** which according to the other grammarians are generally dropped. Candā agrees with these in dropping not only **k**, but **g**, **j**, and **d**. Whether therefore the preservation of **c**, **t**, and **p**, supposing that Candā really allows it, marks off his Prakrit as older than that of Hemacandra or Vararuci is more than questionable. But, as a matter of fact in III. 12, he does provide for their change to **j**, **d**, and **b**; and the change of **t** to **d** is a śaurasem, i.e., a local change, and does not indicate priority of time. Besides, even

If we apply the test furnished by these rules to the several dialects used by the characters in the *Mṛcchakaṭika* as it is in existing editions, which play contains a large variety of characters, and consequently of speech, we shall find that the language of the Candalas, the Śākara, his servant Sthavaraka, and even Kumbhīraka and Vardhamanaka, is Māgadhi, though the rules about **र्य**, **र्थ**, and **ह** are scarcely observed. There is hardly any dialectic difference in their speeches. But the *Sahityadarpana* would lead us to expect his Candali and Śākari respectively in the first two cases, and Ardhamagadhi in the last three. As before observed, some admixture of Māgadhi characteristics constitutes this last dialect. Under this view there are instances of the use of the Ardhamagadhi, as Lassen remarks, in

the dropping of these consonants must have been contemplated by him. For in the instances given in the book, they are dropped in all the manuscripts used by Dr. Hoernle, even in A and B, which according to him contain the older version. Thus we have एह for एति (I. 12), गयणओ-उ for गयणतः (I. 16), कयं for कृतम् (I. 23 and everywhere else), हहागओ-उ for हहागतः (II. 1), इच्छिअं for इच्छितम् (II. 3), कायव्व-व्वं for कर्तव्यम्; छण्ण for सखीनाम् (II. 4), नेउई for नुउरम् (II. 4), वयं for धृतम्, काउण for कृत्वा, वीसह for हृदये (II. 5), गच्छइ for गच्छति, बह for वतिः (II. 10), सरिआणं or सारियाणं for सारिताम् (II. 11), मइ-ई for मतिः, मइ-ई for मतिः (II. 17), &c. &c. It is very much to be regretted that the Doctor should in all these cases have set aside the readings of his manuscripts and invented his own with the त्, ख्, and ए standing in the words, instead of being dropped. This invention or restoration, as he calls it, is based on a singular inference that he deduces from a single word, कृतं given as a Prakrit word in the book. He says it must originally have been कृतं, but the copyist, not knowing of such a word being in the later Prakrit which he knew, took it as the Sanskrit कृतं, and wrote accordingly. If, therefore, कृतं was the Prakrit word in this case, it must have been so in all those cases in which कयं occurs in the book, and so Dr. Hoernle makes it कृतं throughout. But it did not strike him that if the copyist knew Prakrit enough to see that कृतं was not a Prakrit word, he must have seen that कृतं also was not a Prakrit word and could not have given it as such. Now the reason why these consonants were not admitted by Caṇḍa, according to the manuscripts A and B, among those that are dropped, but only among those that are softened must be that all these rules are only general and not universal, and there were as many instances of softening as of dropping. Besides, I have already said that Caṇḍa's work is perfunctory,

the Prabodhacandrodaya. The dialect used by Māthura, the keeper of the gambling-house in the Mṛcchakaṭika, is somewhat different. In his speeches, we sometimes find **र** and **ल** used for **र** and **ल**, and sometimes not. The nom. sing. ends in **ओ**, as in the Mahārāṣṭrī or Śauraseni, in some cases, in others it ends in **ए** as in the Māgadhī, and sometimes in **उ** as in the Apabhramśa; and the gen. sing. sometimes ends in **आइ** as in the Māgadhī. If the text is to be depended on, the Daksinatya which Visvanatha¹ attributes to gamblers may be such a mixed language.

It would thus appear that if all these inferior dialects did exist and were used by dramatic writers, they differed from each other in unimportant particulars, and that most of them belonged to the Magadhī species, since the MSS. have confounded them with the Magadhī of the grammarians. Hence we are justified in taking the real number of Prakrit dialects used for literary purposes to be six, viz.. those mentioned by Hemacandra, Trivikrama, and Lakṣmidhara.

and does not show accuracy of observation and statement. The third point is the preservation of the medial single surd aspirate consonants with the only exception of **kh**; i. e., **द**, **ख**, **क**, are preserved. But III. 11 provides for the change of these to **ह**, **ख**, and **क**, if we look to the sense of the Sūtra and also to some of the instances that are given. The change of **ख** to **ख** is a Śauraseni peculiarity. Of the two remaining points one is the insertion of **र** to avoid the hiatus caused by the dropping of a consonant, about which I have already spoken, and the other is unimportant.

There is, therefore, no question that the Prakrit, a meagre grammar of which is given in the work edited by Dr. Hoernle, is not older than Hemacandra's.—(1887).

- 1 Another gambler without a name is introduced in the same scene, whose language Prof. Lassen thinks is Daksinatya and Mathura's, Avantikī. Very few speeches, however, are given to the former, and it is not possible to come to any definite conclusion from them; but so far as they go, there is hardly any difference between his dialect and that of Mathura. The Professor is led to attribute two languages to gamblers by the annotator on the Śāhityadarpaṇa whom he quotes, and who explains **वर्त** by **अज्ञदेवि**. But if the word is to be so understood, **दक्षिणा** in the next line is not wanted, and neither **योद्धा** nor **जागरिक**. For, supposing the warriors and clever worldly men were gamblers, gambling was not confined to them; whence there is no reason to mention them in particular.

Daṇḍin mentions a work of the name of Bṛhatkathā written in the language of the ghosts, i. e., in the Paisaci Dr. Buhler has recently obtained a trace of the work, and arrangements have been made for getting it copied.¹ It is traditionally ascribed to a poet of the name of Guṇāḍhya.

Let us now examine cursorily the principal Prakrit and the Saurasenī which ranks next to it in literary importance, but, which, as the model of the inferior dialects and as the language used by the higher class of Prakrit-speaking dramatic persons in their prose speeches, is more important than the other. Here, as before, I will place a specimen of each before you :—

[Maharaṣṭri]

61. निज[अ]आए चिय[अ] वायाइ अत्तणो गारव निवेसेन्ता ।
जे यन्ति पसंसे चिय[अ] जयन्ति इह ते महाकवणो ॥
63. दोग्गच्चमि वि सौक्खाइ ताण विहवे वि होन्ति दुक्खाइ ।
कव्वपरमत्थरसिया[आ]इ जाण जायन्ति हियपा[अआ]इ ॥
67. सोह्मेइ सुहावेइ य[अ] उवहुअन्तो लवो वि लच्छीए ।
देवी सरस्सई उण असमग्गा किंपि बिज्जेइ ॥
99. अत्थि निव[अ]पिय[अ]मीसेसमुवणपुरिया[आ]हिनन्दिय[अ]महिन्दो ।
सिरि जसवग्गो सि दिताराडिलग्गणो महीनाइो ॥

(Gāudavaho).

The Sanskrit of this would be :—

61. निजयेष वाचयात्मनो गौरवं निवेक्षयन्तः ।
ये यान्ति प्रशंसामेव जयन्तीह ते महाकवयः ॥
63. दौर्गत्येपि सौख्यानि तेषां विभवेपि भवन्ति दुःखानि ।
काव्यपरमार्थरसिकानि येषां जायन्ते हृदयानि ॥
67. शोभयति हृदयति खोपमुज्जमानो लवोऽपि लक्ष्म्याः ।
देवी सरस्वती पुनरसमग्ना किमपि बिहृन्भवति ॥
99. अस्ति निवर्तितनिःशेषसुवमदुरिताभिन्नान्द्रितमहंम् ।
अथशोचमेति दिशामतिलग्नशृणो महीनाथः ॥

61. " Victorious are the great poets who, establishing their greatness by their own words, do obtain praise only."

1 So Br. Buhler told me at the time; and on a subsequent occasion I myself thought I had found a trace of the work. But up to this time all our search has proved fruitless. (1887).

63. "Those whose hearts appreciate the true beauty of poetry experience joys even in poverty and sorrows even in prosperity."

67. "Even a small degree of Lakṣmi when enjoyed adorns and delights, but the divine Sarasvatī if imperfect is an unspeakable mockery."

99. "There lives a king named Yaśovarman who delights Indra by removing all the distresses of the world and whose virtues have reached the ends of the quarters."

[Sauraseni]

कथं अञ्जलीदग्धि । इयमालिङ्गामि । दर्शनं उण विअसहीए बाहुप्यीडेण निरुद्धं ण लम्बीआदि । सहि कठोरकमलपद्मलो अण्णारिसो जंअ दे अज्ज णिअवावेदि सरीरफंसो । किं अ मउलिबिजिबोसिदञ्जली मह वअणेण विण्णवेहि तं जणं ण मए मन्दभाइणीए विअसन्तपुण्डरीअलच्छीबिलासहारिणो सुहचन्द्रमण्डलस्स दे सच्छन्ददर्शणेण संभाविदो चिरं महससो लोअणार्ण ।

The Sanskrit of this would be :—

कथमञ्जुर्हतास्मि । इयमालिङ्गामि । दर्शनं पुनः प्रियसख्या बाष्पोत्पीडितेन निरुद्धं न लभ्यते । ससि कठोरकमलपद्मलोऽप्यादृश एव तेन निर्वापयति शरीरस्पर्शः । किं च मौलि-
विनिवेशिताञ्जलिर्मम वक्षणेन विज्ञापय तं जनं न भया मन्दभाग्यया विकसत्पुण्डरीक-
लम्बीबिलासहारिणो सुवचन्द्रमण्डलस्य ते स्वच्छन्ददर्शनेन संभावितश्चिरं महोत्सवं लोचनानाह ।

"What! thou hast obliged me. Here I embrace. But I do not catch a glimpse of my dear friend, my sight being obstructed by the flow of tears. Friend, the contact of thy body, hairy like a ripened lotus, cools my body in a peculiar manner to-day. Moreover, with thy hands clasped and placed over thy head, do at my request humbly say to that person, ' Unfortunate as I am, I have not feasted my eyes long, by looking freely at the moon of thy face which rivals the blown lotus in beauty '."

In the MS. of the Gaudavādha, from which the first extract is given, अ and आ preceded by अ and इ, are marked as ए and ऐ. In MSS. of other works, the ए does not appear; but there can be no question that it represents the later pronunciation correctly, since as already remarked in a note, this ए is observed in some of the modern vernaculars. But it is to be pronounced like a strengthened अ or आ

and not like the heavy semi-vowel that I mentioned in my observations on the Pali.

(I) PHONETIC CHANGES COMMON TO PALI AND PRAKRITS

From these extracts you will observe that phonetic decay has made greater progress in these dialects than in the one we have examined. The changes in the Pali are, with a few exceptions, such as may be attributed to the circumstances and vocal peculiarities of a foreign race. But in the Prakrits the usual processes of corruption have a wider range of operation; though even here we shall, as we proceed, find it necessary to ascribe a good deal to an ethnological cause.

And first as regards the phonetic transformations which we have noticed in the Pali, I have to observe that Prakrits also exhibit the same with but slight differences. The vowel **अ** is changed to **अ** as in **अण, तण, मअ, &c.** for **अत, तुण, सुण, &c.**; to **इ** as in **किअ, हिअअ, किय, &c.** for **कपा, इदप, कश, &c.**; to **उ** as in **उई, पावस, उहु, &c.**, for **पृथिवी, प्रावृष, वृक्ष, &c.** When standing alone, it is more often changed to **रि** than in Pali; as in **रिद्धी** and **रिच्छ** for **अदि** and **अक्ष**; **रिण** or **अण, रिज्** or **उज्, &c.**, for **अण, अज्, &c.**, while the Pali forms of these words are **इदि, अच्छ, अण** and **उज्**.

The diphthongs **ऐ** and **औ** are, as in Pali, changed to **ए** and **ओ**, as in **केलास, बेज, केडव, &c.** for **केलास, वैष, कैडभ, &c.**; and in **जोवण, कांमुई, कौमुड &c.**, for **योवन, कौमुदी, कौस्तुभ, &c.**; but in a good many instances they are dissolved into their elements **अइ** and **अउ**, as in **वइअ, भइरव, वइअअ, सइर, &c.**, for **वैत्य, भेरव, देवत, स्वर, &c.**, and **पउर, कउसल, सउह, मउली, &c.**, for **पोर, कौशल, सोथ, मौलि, &c.** This change resembles the dissolution of conjunct consonants into the different members, and like it, is due to a weak or languid way of pronunciation. In **ऐ** and **औ** the first element or **अ** is rapidly pronounced, and the temporal value assigned to it by the authors of the *Pratisakhya*s is, you will remember, half a *mātrā*, while in the Prakriti transformations it is one *mātrā*.

The long vowels are, as in Pali, shortened when followed by double consonants; and there is the same or even stronger evidence of the existence of short **ए** and **ओ**. In Pali short **इ** and **उ** followed by a conjunct are in certain cases changed to **ए** and **ओ**, and from that fact we inferred that they were short. Here in a

great many more cases, when so followed, short इ is optionally interchangeable with ए, and short उ is necessarily replaced by ओ, as in पिण्ड or पेण्ड, पिट्ट or पेट्ट, निहा or नेहा, &c., and तोण्ड, मोण्ड, पोक्कर, &c., for पिण्ड, पिट्ट, निहा, तुण्ड, सुण्ड, पुक्कर, &c. In several cases ए, not followed by a conjunct, is optionally changed to इ, as in विअणा or वेअणा for वेदना, विअर or वेअर for वैर, &c. The ए in these words must for some reason that we will hereafter consider have been pronounced short and hence interchangeable with इ. Sometimes the consonant following an ए or ओ is doubled, as in तेह्, ऐम्म, सीत्त, जोज्जन्, &c., for तैल, प्रेमन्, ज्योतन्, यौवन्, &c., which could only be because those vowels were pronounced short, and the loss of quantity thus occasioned was made up for by rendering the pronunciation heavy and forcible. In other cases the ए was so pronounced by some and not by others; and so we have एक्क or एअ for एक, सेव्वा or सेवा for सेवा, &c. The syllables अय and अव are changed to ए and ओ oftener than in Pali, the अय of the causative and the tenth class becoming ए necessarily throughout, as in कारेइ, हासेइ, कहेइ for कारयति, हासयति, कथयति &c.

All the sibilants are reduced to ञ् as in the Pali, but in the Magadhī dialect to झ्; झालझ, झलिझ for सारस, एरुञ्, &c. These dialects do not possess the cerebral ङ्, and therefore we have ल् in the place of the Pali ङ्, and in some cases the original Sanskrit ङ्, as in तलाअ, गरुल, कीलइ for the Pali तलाग, गरुळ, कीळति and Sanskrit तडाग, गरुड, क्रीडति, &c., छल or छड, जाली or जाडी for the Pali छळ, नाळी, &c. and पीडेइ, नीड for the Pali पीळेति, नीळ, &c.

There are a good many more examples of the change of dentals to cerebrals than in the Pali, both through the influence of a neighbouring र् or without it. The द् and त् which correspond to त् and थ् are in most cases softened to द् and त्. Thus we have पडि for the Pali पटि, as in पडिमा, पडिहार, for प्रतिमा, प्रतिहार, &c., and पडुडि, पडण, वडेइअ, for प्रमृति, पतन, बिभीतक; डोला or दोला, डम्भ or दम्भ, डम्भ or दम्भ for दोला, दम्भ, दर्भ, &c.; पडम (Pali पडम), सिडिल, मेडी, जोसह for प्रथम, शिषिल, मोथि, औषध, &c.

In Pali the dental nasal द् is changed to ञ् in but a few instances; but here it is so changed throughout, necessarily when uninitial, and optionally when at the beginning of a word; as कणज, मज्ज, वज्ज, for कनक, मदन, वदन, &c., and जर or नर, जई or नई, जेइ or नेइ, (जै)

नर, नदी, नयति, &c. The opposite process is however observable in the Pāṣāṇī dialect, where not only have we no instances of this change but even the original Sanskrit न् is changed to न् as in युन, मन, for युण, मण, &c.

The conjunct consonants are transformed in the Prakrit in the same way as in the Pali. In the former however, ज्ञ and न्द्य are changed to ण्ण, and not to ञ्ञ as in the latter, as in पाण, सण्ण, अण्ण, सण्ण, for ज्ञान, संज्ञा, अण्ण, सण्ण, &c. To be thus corrupted, ज्ञ must in the original Sanskrit have been pronounced as if it were composed of ज्ञ and न्; and sometimes the latter must have been so weakly pronounced that the sound of ज्ञ prevailed over it and the whole became ञ्ञ, as in जाण or पाण, सञ्ज or सञ्जण, मनोज or मनोज्ञ, for ज्ञान, सर्वज्ञ, मनोज्ञ, &c. In the Pāṣāṇī and the Māgadhī, however, the Pali transformation is retained; as in मञ्ज, सञ्ज, कञ्ज, अभिमञ्ज, for संज्ञा, सर्वज्ञ, कण्ठ्य, अभिमन्त्र, &c.

The conjunct र् is sometimes changed to ञ् corresponding to the र् of the older dialect, and ह् to ञ् in which case the heavy *nūda* of ह् is transferred to the ञ् which takes the place of र् as in change of र् to ञ्.

In Pali the consonants of ह् only interchange places; i. e. it becomes र्. From this and from the change of the initial uncombined र् to ज्ञ, it appears that very often the Sanskrit ह्, was pronounced heavily when the Prakrits arose. The Śaurasenī and the dialects allied with it have, however, both the Pali and the Prakrit corruptions of र्.

A dental forming a conjunct with a following र् is in a few cases changed to the corresponding palatal; as in भोषा for भुक्ता, चक्षर for चक्षर, पिच्छी for पृच्छी, विज्ञ for विज्ञा, हुञ्जा for हुञ्जा, झज for धज, झुणी for धनि, सञ्जस for साधस, &c. This seems to arise from the fact that र् was pronounced so lightly that it lost its distinctive character, and the conjuncts came to be confused with those containing a dental and र् which, you will remember, are changed to a double palatal. In Pali the र् is retained in these instances, and the ह् and र् are changed to ह् and र् according to the general rules, and the र् of पृच्छी becomes चर. Besides the conjuncts disjoined in Pali by the interposition of a vowel, we have र् and र् also so treated in the Prakrit, sometimes optionally

and sometimes necessarily. Thus आदर्श becomes आमरिस or आमंस, (P. आदास); सुदर्शन, सुदरिसण or सुदंसन, (P. सुदस्सन); वर्य, वरिस or वास (P. वस्त); परामर्श, परामरिस, (P. परामास); अमर्श, अमरिस, (P. अमस्त).

(II) PHONETIC CHANGES IN THE PRAKRITS

Having noticed the changes common to the Prakrits with the Pali, we will proceed to consider others distinctive of the former. Most of these were due to the continuous operation of processes which come into play in a living language. The Pali exhibits but few instances of these processes. The changes observable in it are mostly to be traced to one or two vocal peculiarities of the men who spoke it. At the time when the language received the form in which we now find it, the tradition of the original Sanskrit was still distinct; the Pali had not lived an independent life detached from its mother for a long time. But with the Prakrits the case is different. They show a great many more instances of the usual processes, and consequently a much greater departure from the parent tongue. We will begin by noticing what may be called the softening process.

The vowels इ and उ are softened, as we have seen, to short ए and ओ before conjuncts. These latter sounds are, as indicated in the last lecture, more open than the former ; that is, do not require the tongue to be raised so high as in the case of इ and उ. They are therefore softer. But since the change principally takes place before doubles it may, I believe, be traced to their influence, as I have already observed. In that case this would be an instance of assimilation. But the change of long ई and ऊ to long ए and ओ is due to softening alone; as in पेऊस for पीयूष, आपेल for आपीय, बडेडअ for बिभीतक, केरिस for कीदश, एरिस for ईदश, वेड for वीद, पेड for पीद, तम्बोल for ताम्बूल, तोपीर for तूपीर, थोर for स्थूल, and गलोई for छहूची. In the same way, इ and उ are in rare cases softened to अ, as in हलहा for इंरिहा, पईसुअ for प्रतिश्रुत, and जहिदिल for युधिष्ठिर. अ requires no movement of the tongue or lips, while इ and उ do. It is therefore softer than those two vowels. Both these changes contradict another principle to be hereafter noticed, the operation of which is wide, and they must therefore be considered special or peculiar changes. The manner in which ऋ is softened has been already detailed.

The semivowel ए is often softened to इ, as in बिमज for व्यजन, बिलिज for व्यलीक, ब्रीज for स्थान, उलीइ for उहृष्ट, जीजा for ज्या, &c.

Here the effort! necessary to bring the middle of the tongue closer to the palate is economized, while the position of the organs in other respects is the same. The *व* of the conjunct *वै* is sometimes softened in this way to *इ* and sometimes to *इअ*. In the former case the resulting *इ* is transferred to the previous syllable and forms *ए* with the *अ* contained in it; as in *वेरन्त* for *वर्यन्त*, *अच्छेर* for *आश्चर्य*, *बन्धवेर* for *बन्धवर्य*, *सुन्देर* for *सौन्दर्य*, &c. Similarly *व* is changed to *उ* as in *मुणी* for *भनि*, *वीसु* for *विश्वरू*, *गउओ* for *गवय*, *सुवइ* for *स्वापिति* *इ* for *दि*, &c.

The surds are softened into sonants. The pronunciation of these requires, as you will remember, less exertion than that of the former. For, sonants such as *व*, *घ*, *ङ*, *ञ*, &c., are pronounced by means of *nāda*, or vocal sound which is produced when the glottis is in its natural condition and the chords vibrate, and the surds *क*, *ख*, *ग*, *घ*, &c. are uttered by sending forth simple breath or *śvāsa*, to produce which it is necessary to stretch the glottis. This effort is saved by changing the surds to sonants. Thus *क* is changed to *ग* as in *मरगअ* for *मरकत* and *गेन्नुअ* for *कन्नुक*; *द* to *ड* as in *नड*, *भड*, and *घड*, for *नट*, *भट*, and *घट*, and in *पडि* for *प्रति* and the other instances given above; *ड* to *ड* as in *मड*, *सड*, *कमड*, *कुडार*, and *पड*, for *मठ*, *सठ*, *कमठ*, *कुडार*, and *पठ*; and *त* and *थ* to *द* and *ध* as in *एव* for *एत*, *नाव* for *नाथ* &c. (in *Saur.*). The cerebral, and *द* resulting from the original dentals *द* and *ध* are also similarly softened to *इ* and *ड* as in *पडि* for *प्रति* (*पडि* in *Pali*), *पहुडि* for *प्रभृति*, *बडेडअ* for *विभीतक*, *हरडई* for *हरीतकी*, *मडअ* for *सूतक*, &c., and *सिडिल* for *सिधिल*, *पुडवी* for *पुथिवी*, *पडम* for *प्रथम*, &c. The sonant answering to *ए* is *इ* but this is further softened to *इ*, as in *कूव*, *कवाल*, *कुणव*, *तवइ*, &c., for *कूप*, *कपाल*, *कुणप*, *तपति*, &c.

An original *इ* is softed to *इ*, in which case there is a saving of two efforts. The complete contact necessary for the pronunciation of *इ* being avoided, we have *इ*. This sound is similar to *इ* in the fact that the breath before the break of the contact or close approach is allowed to pass out by the sides of the tongue, but is more difficult or harder because its position being higher up, the tongue has to be raised higher than in pronouncing *इ*, the position of which is near the root of the upper teeth. This additional exertion is saved by proceeding from *इ*, at once to *इ*. We have thus *जइल*, *तलअ*, *कीलइ*, *दालिमं*, *यल*, *नाली*, for *जइल*, *तलअ*,

कीडति, दाडिम, छड, नाडी &c. In the Pali, however, you will remember and probably in some unwritten Prakrits also, the cerebral character of the letter was preserved, and we have ङ instead of ञ.

Sometimes ङ is softened to र only. The position of this is lower than that of ङ, and the contact is incomplete. It is therefore softer than ङ but harder than ल. This last sound is produced lower still, but a light close approach is formed, and the breath is allowed to escape by the sides of the tongue; while in uttering र, the tongue is kept in its position with greater force, and the breath is allowed to vibrate. This change is principally to be met with in the case of the ङ resulting from an original इ in such words as एकारह, बारह, तेरह, &c., for एकादश, द्वादश, त्रयोदश, &c., the इ of which must first have become ङ. In कलम्ब, दोहल, and वलित, for कदम्ब, दोहव, and वदीप्त, we have instances of an original इ passing into ल.

An original र is changed to ल which, as just observed, is softer than र, as in हलही, दलिह, छडल, इङ्गल, &c., for हरित्रा, दरिद्र, छसर, अङ्गार, &c. When the र forming the first member of a conjunct is softened in this way, and the following member is weak or is itself capable of becoming ल, the whole conjunct becomes ल; as पर्यस्त becomes पल्लु-स्त; पर्याण, पल्लण; आर्द्र, अल्ल or ओल्ल; मर्द, मल्ल, &c. The sibilant स्, which is the only one we have in the Mahārāṣṭri and Śauraseni, is sometimes softened to र, that is, the simple heavy breath somewhat compressed at the dental position is made uncompressed heavy vocal sound; as in दिवह, पाहाण, दह, एआरह, बारह &c., for दिवस्त, पाषाण, दश, एकादश, द्वादश, &c.

Another phenomenon characteristic of the Prakrits is the dropping away of single uninitial consonants. The क is dropped, as in सअह, कुम्भआर, for शकट, कुम्भकार, &c.; ग as in नअ, नअर, साअर, for नग, नगर, सागर, &c.; च as in वअण, सूई, for वचन, सूचि, &c.; भ as in रअअ, राजा, गअ, for रजत, राजा, गज, &c.; त as in विआण, पआवई, गअ, for वितान, राजापति, गत, &c.; द as in सअण, पाअ, कअल, for मदन, पाद, कदल, &c.; ए followed by any vowel except अ, as in रिङ्ग, कई, विडल, for रिपु, कपि, विपुल, &c.; ए as in वाडना, जअण, for वाङ्मना, नयन, &c.; इ as in जीअ, विअह, for जीव, दिवत्, &c. The vowel अ or आ that remains after the elision is, when preceded by अ or आ, pronounced like a light य. We find it written in mas. also, as in सयह, तिथयरो, नयर, &c.

In the same way, the mute element of the aspirates is dropped, except in the case of the palatals and of क्, the ह or the heavy *nāda* or vocal sound being alone preserved. Thus we have लुह, लिह, लही, for लुव, लिख, लखी, &c.; मेह, माह, पाहुण, for मेघ, माघ, प्राहुण, &c.; नाह, मिहुण, कहा, for नाथ, मिथुन, कथा, &c.; बाहेर, बहू, साहु, for बधिर बह, साधु, &c.; लाह, सोहुण, सोहा, for लाभ, लौभान्य, शोभा, &c.

The range of the operation of these processes is very wide, and the number of words transformed in accordance with them is very large. Now, the principle which is at the bottom of this elision of consonants is the same as that which brings about softening, viz., economy of exertion. But in a growing language which knows of no accidents in the course of its history, there is another principle which counteracts this, viz., the necessity of pronouncing words in the manner to be understood by others. Hence a wholesale elision is impossible; and the natural course is to soften sounds away, until finally they are elided. This of course must be a very slow process. But in the Prakrit, and especially the Maharashti, we do not find it to be slow.

Elision seems to be a distinguishing characteristic which strikes one very forcibly on reading a Prakrit passage. It is too regular, systematic, and far-reaching, to have been the product of a long course of softening. In fact, because it is so systematic and general, some writers have doubted whether the Prakrits were genuine dialects, and have expressed their belief that they are the creation of Pandits. But we shall find that the modern vernaculars retain the words shorn of their elements by the Prakrits in this way; and that these latter dialects were the immediate parents of those we now speak in Northern India. If this general mutilation of words was brought about by a natural decay, we must suppose the process to have gone on for a great many centuries. The Prakrit vocables that have descended to the modern vernaculars have not, since the period when the Prakrits arose about fourteen centuries ago, suffered at all so much as Sanskrit words in passing into the Prakrits. We have not dropped away any of the elements of Prakrit vocables, though we may have rearranged them in some cases. If, then, fourteen centuries have not **been** sufficient to make words lose any of their elements by the action of natural causes, the process by which Sanskrit

Words were mutilated and became Prakrit must, if it was natural and ordinary, have been in operation for a considerably longer period, a supposition which appears extremely improbable. And it is questionable whether a language which has not been exposed to accidents in the course of its history suffers so much, even after the lapse of any conceivable time. The Teutonic languages, though they have been going through an independent course of development, since the period when the ancestors of the modern English and Germans separated from the ancestors of the Hindus in pre-historic ages, have preserved the elements of old Aryan vocables which the Prakrits lost. They may have transformed the words, but have not mutilated them to any great extent. The English words *father*, *mother*, *brother*, *foot*, and others, have all the elements of the old पितृ, मातृ, ब्रातृ, पद् (पाद्), and others; while the Prakrit षीआ or पीड, माआ, माइ or माड, भाआ or भाड, and पाअ, and the modern vernacular पिड, माड, मा, माई, भाई, भाड, and पा or पाय, have lost all except the first consonantal sound.

The elision of consonants on a large scale in the Prakrits is therefore to be accounted for in another way than by attributing it to a natural process of decay. The Prakrit words must be taken to represent the pronunciation of the corresponding Sanskrit words by an alien race. The vocal organs of the people of that race were unused to the utterance of Sanskrit sounds and in this respect, they were in the condition of children, making their first attempts at articulate speech, and elided uninitial consonantal sounds and assimilated conjunct consonants as these do. When a child or a barbarous foreigner listens to an elderly or more civilized person, he has not the patience to attend to all the sounds composing a word and to reproduce them carefully, or has not acquired the habit of doing so. The first letter alone makes a strong impression on his ear, and this he faithfully reproduces; and as to the rest, he realizes their quantity by pronouncing the vowels, but his tongue being untrained, the peculiar movements necessary for uttering the consonantal sounds he cannot go through, and avoids. In going over the Pali we had to attribute the assimilation of conjuncts and other peculiarities observable in that dialect to such a cause *, and now the elision in the Prakrits that we

have been considering must, I believe, be accounted for in the same way.

But what could be the historical events which led to the wholesale assimilation of consonants in the first place and to the similar elision of uninitial consonants in addition to the assimilation, in the next ? I would put forward the following hypothesis. It would appear that when the Aryas moved from the land of the five rivers and settled in the country known afterwards as *Brahmavarta* and *Kuruksetra*,—that is the country about *Thanesvar*,—they formed a consolidated community, in which an aboriginal or alien race was incorporated and the language represented by the Pali was the language of this race. When, however, the consolidated community spread eastwards and southwards, they met other alien races, and the dialect, spoken by the lowest class of the consolidated community, was learnt by these new alien races, and the words which were in the Pali stage, were further corrupted into the forms which we find in Prakrits. The dialects of the Asoka edicts do not show instances of the Prakrit rule of elision, though some peculiarities of one or two later dialects are discernable in them. Does this necessarily show that the Prakrits had not developed in the time of Asoka? I think not. The dialects of the edicts represent the spoken language of the more cultured portion of the consolidated community, and not that used by the races, which were newly incorporated with the community, and formed a class lower in the scale, though the Prakrits must have begun to be developed about the time of Asoka. In the Nasik cave inscriptions of about the second century of the Christian era, we observe some instances of the Prakrit peculiarity of elision, whence it would appear that the Prakrits had then come into existence, though they were still regarded as vulgar and were neglected, the principal inscriptions being in the Pali which had then become a learned language. The conclusion we came to in the last lecture, that the Pali represents middle Sanskrit in a vernacular form, while the Prakrits correspond to the last or classical stage, is in harmony with this view.

Another process which transforms the words of a language is Assimilation. We have already discussed the assimilation of the

members of a conjunct and of the diphthongal sounds ऐ and औ, and will now consider the application of the process to the different syllables composing a word. The अ of the second syllable of ईषत्, वेत्तत्, and कृपत्, is changed to इ, because the vowel in the first is इ or ए, the क of कृपत् being changed to ह; and we have ईषि, वेत्ति, and कृपि. Similarly, the अ of मरिच and वल्ली, and the इ of इक्षु are changed to इ, ए, and उ through the influence of the following ह, ई, and उ; and the forms are मरिचि, वेल्ली, and उक्षु.

Sometimes, when ए as a member of a conjunct is changed to a palatal, it influences the preceding vowel and brings it over to its own position, as in लेखा for शय्या, मज्झिम for मध्यम, गेज्ज for ग्राह, &c. An original palatal also produces similar effect, as in जिमह् for जेज्ज for जजति.

In the words पुढम for प्रथम, पोन्न for पन्न, and जोयेह for अर्पयति, the adjoining vowel is changed to उ to make it go easily with the labial प. You will observe that it is अ that yields so readily to the influence of an adjoining letter, because in pronouncing it no movement of the tongue is necessary. It is sounded by letting off nada or intonated breath, without offering any obstruction to it; and this current gives rise to the different vowels when it is obstructed in various degrees by various movements of the tongue and the lips; so that if the organic position of the previous consonant remains a little longer, or if the following is begun a little earlier, the अ current assumes the form that that position gives it. An aspirate or an aspirated mute existing in a word influences an adjoining vowel or a consonant; that is, the heavy breath that is necessary for the utterance of the aspirate mingles itself with the other sounds also. Thus कासित becomes कासित्त; परुष, परुत्त; परिष, कलिह; परित्ता, कलिह; पनत्, कणत्; and विसिनी, विसिणी, in which instances क, ह, and ण are changed to क्, ह्, and ण्. In other cases the heavy breath is transferred to an adjoining vowel which becomes ह; as in कलिह for कलिक, निहत्त for निकट, विहत्ती for वितति, वसही for वसति, वरह for वरत्, in which cases, by the dropping of the mutes, we should have, but for this heavy breath, कलिज, निजत्, विजत्ती, वसही, and वरज. The words सदा and हकट become सदा and सजह, the ह resulting from the transference of the heavy breath being softened to ह.

∴ "Another kind of assimilation must be noticed here. The vowels are open sounds and the consonants close. These being used together, the openness of the former has a tendency to diminish to assimilate them to the latter, and the closeness of the latter has a similar tendency to yield to the openness of the former. This latter change involves economy and is the same as softening; **ए** and **इ** for instance become more and more like vowels, when they are changed to **ऌ** and **ॡ**, and thence to **ऴ** and **ॢ**; while the latter ultimately does become the vowel **उ**. But, the former does not involve softening in itself but rather hardening, since **ए** or **इ**, and **ओ** or **उ**, to which **अ** is sometimes changed, occasion motions of the tongue and the lips, which the latter does not. But in this change, there is an ease of pronunciation, such as is involved in assimilation. Immediately after one closing of the passage of the breath, it is easier to make a shorter opening for it such as **इ** and **उ** require, before another closing, than a longer one, such as the pronunciation of **ए** and **ओ** requires, or a complete one, such as is necessary for **अ**. This last vowel therefore has a tendency to pass off into **ए** and **इ**, or **ओ** and **उ**. But whether the shorter opening is to be made at the middle of the palate or at the lips, that is, whether **अ** is to be changed to **ए** and **इ**, or **ओ** and **उ**, depends on the vocal habits of a people. Some are accustomed to open their lips and round them, others not. Similarly, whether the opening shall be the least possible or a little more, that is, whether **अ** is to be changed to **ए** or **ओ** first, and then to **इ** or **उ**, or at once to **इ** or **उ**, depends upon habit. And the ease of pronunciation involved in this kind of assimilation is also relative. Some people may feel the muscular effort required for **इ** and **उ** to be more intolerable than the wider or complete opening, and prefer **ए** and **ओ** or even **अ**, as in the instances given under vowel softening, and in others occurring in some of the modern vernaculars. The Prakrits change **अ** to **इ** in virtue of this law of assimilation, as in **पिक** for **पक**, **इकाल** for **अकार**, **इइक** for **इइक**, **सिणिण** for **स्वप्न**, and **मिडाल** for **ललाट**; and to **ए** in **मेन्दुअ** for **कन्दुक**, **एत्य** for **अव**, **देक्स** for **द्रव** &c.

Opposed to this process of assimilation is dissimilation. When the same vowel occurs in two successive syllables, it is felt to be burdensome, and hence a dissimilar vowel is substituted for it in

one of the two. We have thus बहेडअ for बिभीतक, सडिल for शिथिल, डहरी for पृथ्वी, मडल, मडह and मडर for मुकल, मुकुट and मुकुर, मिडडी for मुकुटी, एरिस for एरुष, निडर or नेडर for नूर, वुअल्ल for वुकल, सोअमल्ल for सोकुमार्य, अमरु for अयुरु, गलोइ for गुह्यी, and गरुअ for गुरुक.

The words अकुपी and हरकई for इकुपी and इरीतकी must also be considered as instances of the same law, though another syllable intervenes between the two containing the same vowel. Instances of this process must necessarily be few, since there are not many words containing the same vowel in successive syllables. But we have got so many here, that the substitution of a dissimilar vowel in such cases may be considered a general characteristic of the Prakrits. It will also be seen that in these instances, अ is substituted for इ throughout, and for उ mostly ; so that these may also be considered as instances in which the most open sound अ was preferred by the Prakrit speakers to इ or उ, as involving less exertion.

The first अ of समृद्धि, प्रसिद्धि, प्रकट, प्रतिपद, सङ्ग, &c., is lengthened optionally ; and we have समिद्धि or सामिद्धि, पसिद्धि or पासिद्धि, प-पाअह, प-पाहिअ, स-सारिच्छ, &c. On the other hand, the आ of यथा, तथा, उत्सात, संस्थापित, प्राकृत, हालिक, कुमार &c. is optionally shortened ; and these words become जह-हा. तह-हा, उक्साअ-क्साअ, सँठाविअ-ठाविअ, पअह-पाअह, हलिअ-हालिअ, कुमार-मार &c.

The ई of पानीय, अलीक, जीवति गभीर, द्वितीय, तृतीय, &c., is necessarily shortened, and we have पाणिअ, अलिअ, जिवह, गाहिर, दुइअ, तइअ, &c.

Changes of this nature seem to be due to some kind of accent with which the words must have been pronounced. When one of the syllables of a word is accented, the whole vocal weight of that word gravitates towards that syllable. It is sounded with greater force and pitch and with a jerk which are apt to cause a wider opening between the organs of speech than is necessary. Hence the less open vowels अ, इ, and उ have a tendency to become more open, i. e., आ, ए, and ओ. Similarly the force and the jerk tend to prolong the time occupied by the utterance of the vowel, that is, to lengthen it. And long vowels occurring in the unaccented syllables often become short, since they are uttered hurriedly or carelessly. Supposing प्रतिपद was pronounced with the accent on प, that would be a reason why the

व should become वा in the course of time; and if द्वितीय was pronounced with the accent on व, we can understand why the ती should become short.

But the real nature of the old Sanskrit accents, notwithstanding the labours of the grammarians, is little understood. How words were actually pronounced in this respect it is difficult to say. If the *udatta* was really the acute accent, it falls in some of the above words on syllables, by being on which, it could not have operated in the manner indicated above. The supposition that the *svarita* was the acute accent fails equally. But perhaps the old accents went out of use very early, and others took up their place. Whatever may have been the case, the changes we have been considering seem to have risen from an accent of some sort.

The ए of वेदना, चपेटा, देवर, and केसर is optionally changed to इ; for, supposing that the accent fell on the second or third syllable, the force necessary to pronounce it could not be successfully exerted if the mouth had to be previously opened wide for sounding ए. It is thus reduced to the close vowel इ; and so we have विजना, चविडा, दिअर and कितर. The dropping of initial vowels as in रण for अरण, and लाङ्ग for अलाङ्ग, must also be traced to those vowels being unaccented. The accent on the penultimate vowel, which is very general in the vernaculars, as will be noticed in the next lecture, had probably its beginning in these Prakṛits, and of this fact these six words are instances. This penultimate accent seems to have had a wider range in the later stage of these dialects represented by the Apabhraṃśa.

There are several instances in these dialects of the interchange of consonants. The word लुना becomes लुणा, while regularly it ought to be लुता; लु and न thus interchange places. Similarly, करेण् is transformed to कनेर, वाराणसी to वाणारसी, अचलपुर to अलचलपुर, आलान to आणाल, लहु to हलु (लहु also being used), महाराष्ट्र to मरहट्ट, &c. In the case of विश्वकुल for वृश्चिक, we have an interchange of vowels, for the उ resulting from क is transferred to व, and its इ to व. In ordinary life we often find that a man, speaking hastily, makes the sounds of a word thus interchange places. When several people happen to do so in the case of particular words, the new transformations come in the course of time to be regarded as the true words and acquire a recognized position,

The Prakrits sometimes change a labial to the nasal of its class as in नीम for नीप, आमेल for आपीढ, कमन्ध for कबन्ध, नीमी for नीमि, समर for शबर, and सिमिण for स्वप्न. These are optional changes; the forms of the words with व or ब instead of म also existing. Though the change involves softening, since a portion of the breath is sent through the nose and the force of the contact weakened, it must be attributed to a tendency to speak through the nose.

Similarly, the Prakrits introduced an *anusvara* into words which did not originally contain it; where also the breath was discharged through the mouth as well as nose. In this manner, बक्र became बंक; अशु, अंशु; समशु, मंशु; स्पर्श, फंस; पुच्छ, पुंछ; वध्वा, वुंवा; शुज्ज, वुंज; दर्शन, दंसण; रुञ्जिक, विंजुज; मज्जरि, मंजार; प्रतिश्रुत, पढंशुजा, &c.

The last syllable of the absolute termination ऊण and of the case endings एण and एह is also sometimes nasalised, as in काऊण or काऊण for कृत्वा, and वच्छेण or ण and वच्छेह or ह for वक्षेण and वक्षेह.

On the other hand, the existing *anusvara* of a few words is dropped, probably from a feeling that its existence in those words was due to a mistake and from a desire to correct it. Thus we have मास or मंस for मांस, कास or कंस for कांस्य, पाह or पंह for पांह, दाणि or दाणि for इदानीं, and ण or ञ as the termination of the gen. pl. The letter ऌ is, in a few cases optionally, sometimes necessarily, transformed into ए, as in गाइल or लाइल, णाएल or लाएल, णाएल or लाएल, and णाडल or लाडल, for लाइल, लाएल, लाइल, and लाडल. In the last instance ऌ is softened and made to exchange its place with the second ए, and the अ of ण becomes इ optionally. This also points to the Prakrit characteristic of speaking through the nose.

The remarks I have hitherto made apply to the Mahāras̥tri or the principal Prakrit. The Sauras̥eni differs from it in but a few particulars. It does not drop व and घ, but softens them into व् and घ्, as in घुरिद, मारुदि, तथा, नाध, &c., for घुरित, मारुति, तथा, नाध, &c. The conjunct न्त is often changed to न्, as in निञ्चिन्तो, अन्वेउर for निञ्चिन्त, अन्तःपुर, &c.

In addition to these peculiarities, in the Māgadhī the र and ऋ of the principal Prakrit are represented by र् and ँ as in नर, फंस, साकसा, दुलिस, for नर, कर, सारस, दुक्क, &c. The ञ् of a conjunct is not

assimilated but preserved, and the *व* changed to *र*, as in *पस्वलदि* *हस्ती* for *प्रस्वलति हस्ती*, *कुष्क दालु* for *कुष्क दारु*, *कस्ट*, for *कष्ट* &c. The double *इ* and the conjunct *व* are changed to *स्*, and *व्य* and *व्य* to *स्त*; *इ* and *व* being thus softened to *इ* and *व*. Thus we have *भट्टालिका* for *भट्टारिका*, *मुस्तु*, for *मुष्टु*. *उवस्तिव* for *उवस्थित*, *शस्तवाह* for *सार्थवाह*, &c. The consonant *ज* whether original, or derived, as in the Prakrit corruptions of *व* or *व्य*, was pronounced lightly, that is softened to *इ*, as in *याणादि* for *जानाति*, *अव्य* for *अव* &c. The conjuncts *ज्*, *व्य*, and *व्य* are, as before mentioned, changed to *उज्*, as in Pali; and *व्य* to *व्य*, as in *गज्ज*, *दुज्ज* for *गज्ज*, *दुज्ज*, &c. The *ह* of *प्रेह* and *चह* is changed to *स्*, as in *पेस्कादि* for *प्रेक्षते* and *आचस्कादि* for *आचक्षते*.

In the Paisaci, the changes of single consonants that we have noticed in the case of the Maharastri and Sauraseni do not take place; that is, the consonants are not dropped or softened, nor are they transformed by the process of assimilation. The dentals are not changed to cerebrals, but the original Sanskrit cerebrals are optionally changed to dentals, as in *कुटुम्बक* or *कुटुम्बक* for *कुटुम्बक*; and an original *ण* to *र* throughout, as in *एणगण* for *एणगण*. The sonant *इ* is hardened to *र*, as in *तामोतर* for *दामोदर*, *पतेस* for *पदेश*, &c. The sibilants are changed to *र*, as in Pali and the principal Prakrit, and *ज्* and *व्य* to *उज्* as in the former.

In the Cūlikā Paisāci, the sonants are throughout changed to surds, as in *नकर*, *मकन*, *मेस*, *वक्स*, *राखा*, *खीचत*, &c., for *नगर*, *मार्गण*, *मघ*, *स्वाघ*, *राजा*, *जीवत*, &c.

Phonetically, the Paisāci appears to be in nearly the same condition as the Pali, but the hardening of sonants is peculiar, and may be compared to the change of Sanskrit sonants to surds in the Teutonic languages, as in *foot* for *पद्*, *tooth* for *दन्त*, *know* for *ज्ञा*, &c. Such changes involve no economy whatever; and like the change of dentals to cerebrals, they must be attributed to certain peculiarities of the vocal organs. Even in the operation of the usual processes we have, as you will have seen, found very wide scope for the play of similar special aptitudes. The characteristic of the dialect we have been considering, of not changing dentals to cerebrals as the Pali and the Prakrits do, and even the dentaliaing of cerebrals, would appear to be truly Aryan. Perhaps then, this was the language of an Aryan tribe that had remained

longer in the original seat of the race, and was connected with the ancestors of Teutons, so as to develop a phonetic peculiarity resembling theirs, and emigrated to India at a very late period and settled on the borders. Or it might be, that the tribe came to India along with the others; but living in the mountainous countries on the border, in a sort of rude independence, it developed this peculiarity of pronunciation, which to my mind betokens a rude and uncontrollable force of breath. Since, under this supposition, they could not have come in very close contact with their more civilized brethren of the plains, their language did not undergo some of those phonetic modifications, which Sanskrit underwent in the mouths of the aboriginal races. And in a Sanskrit verse quoted by Mr. Ellis in his preface to Campbell's Grammar of the Telugu language, the countries where the Paisaci is said to have prevailed are such border countries as Gāndhāra or Afghanistan, Nepal, Bshlika or Balk, &c.¹

III THE GRAMMAR OF THE PRAKRITS

We will now proceed to examine the Grammar of the Prakrits. As in the Pali, the dual and the dative case are wanting. The termination of the instr. pl. is हि, the other Pali वि having disappeared. The ablative pl. which was lost in the older dialect is made up by adding तो, Skr. तस्, to the हि of the instr. pl., which was used in Pali for the abl., and to छ, the termination of the locative, and using हिन्तो and छन्तो as the terminations for all nouns. This तो in the form of दो and दू is also used to form the abl. sing. of all nouns. This is according to Vararuci. But Hemacandra gives दो and दू as the Śauraseni terminations and ओ and उ as those in the principal Prakrit, which is according to the usual phonetic rules. The grammarian gives तो as an additional termination for both numbers, and ओ and उ to the plural also, and हिन्तो to the singular.² In Prakrit, sometimes consonants are doubled even when there is no conjunct in the original

1 Names of other countries in Central or Southern India also occur; but the reading of the verse is evidently corrupt.

2 I shall in all my observations on the Prakrits follow Hemacandra, since he is full and explicit. Vararuci is indistinct in several places, and his rules on that account have been misunderstood by all writers who have followed him; and he is incomplete.

Sanskrit. Hence we have लो; and the reason why this and दो and हु or ओ and उ are extended to the plural is that in Skr. the expression made up of a noun and this termination has both senses; as ग्रामतः may mean *from a village* or *villages*. The gen. sing. स्त from the स्प of Sanskrit nouns in अ is generalized as in Pali and applied to all masc. and neut. nouns; and the pl. is formed by the old Skr. term. नास्, Prakritized to ण, as in the older dialect. The Pali pronominal abl. स्मा or स्हा has disappeared and the loc. स्मि or स्मि has assumed the form of स्मि and is used for all nouns of the masc. and neut. genders as in the other language. The voc. pl. is as in Skr. and Pali the same as the nom. pl.

Masculine Nouns in अ

The nom., acc., and instr. cases of nouns in अ are the same as in Pali; but here the nom. pl. form वच्छा is optionally transferred to the acc. pl. also, thus giving another instance of the strong tendency to confuse the nom. and acc. that I have spoken of. The dat. sing. in आप like that in Pali, is preserved in solitary instances in which it has the sense of "for the sake of". The abl. sing., besides the general forms mentioned above, has the old one ending in आ, as in Pali, and a new one in आहि which is used in the plural also. This आहि is used in Sanskrit in the words दक्षिणाहि and उत्तराहि,¹ which have an ablative signification. It must in its origin be considered the same as the instr. termination भिन्. The loc. sing. besides the general form has, as in Pali, the old one in ए. The voc. sing. has also the two Pali forms देव, देवा, and another देवो the same as the nom. sing.

Masculine Nouns in इ and उ

The nom. pl. has a form made up according to the analogy of neuter nouns or nouns ending in इन्; as अग्निणो and साहुणो. This does not exist in the Pali, the analogy being there extended to the gen. and loc. sing. only. The Prakrit has also the two Pali forms अग्नी and अग्गयो, which latter is transformed into अग्गओ and अग्गउ; and साहु and साहुओ, the latter appearing also in the form of साहुओ and साहुउ. The acc. pl. has also the neuter form अग्निणो or साहुणो in addition to the Pali अग्नी or साहु. Besides the general forms mentioned above, the abl. has in the sing. the neuter form अग्निणो or साहुणो also. The Pali loc. sing. अग्निणि does not appear.

¹ Prof. Lassen derives them differently.

The other forms of these nouns are like those in the older dialect. The voc. sing. is अग्नि or साहु as in Pali and अग्नी or साहु. We here see the analogy of neuter nouns or nouns ending in इन् extended to all vowel cases except the loc. sing.

Masculine Nouns in अ

Two bases, one ending in आर as in भत्तार from भर्तृ and the other in उ as भर्तु, are used, the former throughout all the cases and the latter in all except the sing. of the nom. and acc. The first is declined like nouns in अ, and the second like those in उ as साहु. The nom. sing. has also the old form भत्ता. In the Pali, you will remember, the first base is used in the plural of four cases, and the second in the gen. sing. only; while the singulars of three cases have the old Sanskrit forms. Here the two bases have been extended much further and one old form only, that of the nom. sing., remains. Nouns expressive of relationship such as पित्र, भ्रातृ and जामातृ are declined similarly, the final syllable आर being shortened to अर as it is in Sanskrit and Pali in those cases where the base is used. The voc. sing. is भत्त, and of the latter class of nouns it ends in अ or अर, as पिअ or पिअर.

Masculine Nouns in अन्, अत् (present participle), न्त्, मत् &c.

राजन् has four bases. The old one राजन् with the old Sanskrit forms only phonetically corrupted (ङ् becoming ञ्) is used in all the singulars except that of the loc. and in the nom. pl.; as राजा, राजाणो, राजाणं, रण्णा, रण्णो and रण्णो. In Pali it is used in the loc. sing. and gen. pl. also. The second राज, Prakritised into राज, is used in both numbers of all cases except the nom. sing., and in Pali in all except the nom. sing. and pl. and the acc. pl. It is declined like a noun in अ; as राजा nom. pl., राजं acc. sing., राजा-रापे acc. pl., रापज instr. sing., &c. The third, राजिन्, is employed in the gen. sing., in the older dialect; but here, as राइन, in all cases and numbers except the nom. sing. It is declined like an ordinary Sanskrit noun in इन्; as राइनो nom. and acc. pl., राइनं acc. sing., राइना instr. sing., &c. The fourth is राजान, Pr. राजाज, used in all cases and both numbers. Vararuci, however, does not give this, and omits the others in some of the cases. This base is unknown to Pali, but occurs in the word जाम्बज् in the form of जत्ताज, and is used in the plurals of the instr. and loc., while here it is extended

to all cases. This noun and such others ending in अद् are. in the Prakrit declined like राजद्; the base in जाण is general to all and used throughout, but the others occur in certain cases only. The voc. sing. of राजद् is राजं or राज in the Sauraseni, the former of which does not occur in the Mahārāṣṭri.

The base of the present participles ends in जन्त and they are declined like nouns in ज. The Pali, you will remember, uses the old base in some of the cases and has the old forms; but here they have disappeared. Similarly वद् and मद् become वन्त and मन्त throughout, i. e., end in ज. Other final consonants are dropped and in feminine nouns sometimes जा is added.

Feminine and Neuter Nouns

The Prakrit feminine declension differs from the Pali in little more than a phonetic corruption of the terminations.

The य of the instr., abl., gen. and loc. of nouns in जा, and the ण of those in इ or ई, are weakened into ए or इ or dropped, leaving only अ and आ. In the latter class of nouns this आ is further optionally shortened to अ. Thus we have मालाय-इ-अ and नईय-इ-आ-अ, &c.

The optional loc. forms in ये are lost; and the यो of the nom. plurals मालायो and नईयो leaves only the vowel ओ which is again shortened to उ. The abl. forms in दो-दु or ओ-उ are of course new. Fem. nouns in ण substitute जा for the final and are declined like nouns in जा; as, नजन्दा, नजन्दाओ, &c. मातु, however, has another base मातरा when it signifies a "goddess." In the Pali four bases are used, the old one, मातर, declined like masc. nouns in अ, मातु, and माता. This last is used in the gen. pl. only along with मातराज, and मातुने.

The nom. and acc. of neuter nouns in अ are in the Prakrit the same as in Skr. only phonetically corrupted, as वजं sing., वजा-ई-ई-जि pl.; while the sing. of those in इ and उ have an anusvara optionally attached to them, as इहि or इहिं sing., इही-ई-इ-जि, pl. The optional Pali plurals in आ and ए are lost. Sanskrit neuter nouns in अद् and अन् become nouns in अ, and are masculine.

Pronouns

The nom. pl. in ए is preserved, as in सये, अ &c. The gen. pl. has हि for its termination formed by adding a light इ to the साय of

Sanskrit, which, according to the usual rules, should be corrupted to *सं*, and is also formed upon the model of the corresponding nouns; as *सञ्जेसि* or *सञ्जाण-णं*, *जेसि* or *जाण-णं*, &c. The Pali has *सं*, and its double gen. *साने* is wanting. The loc. sing. has the termination *सिं*, a form not existing in the older dialect, in addition to the *स्मि* used for nouns, both of which are to be traced to the Skr. *स्मिन्*, as in *सञ्जस्मिं* or *सञ्जस्मिन्*, *जस्मिं* or *जस्मिन्*, &c. This *सिं* is further changed to *हिं* as in *सञ्जहिं*, *जहिं*, &c., or better, this latter may be traced to the Pali *णि*. Another loc. sing. term. is *त्थ* which represents *त्र*, as *सञ्जत्थ*, *जत्थ* &c. The abl. sing. *स्माद्* is optionally used after *किद्*, *पद्*, and *तद्* only, in the form of *न्नाद्*, as *कन्नाद्*, *जन्नाद्*, and *तन्नाद्*; in Pali it is necessarily used after all pronouns. In other respects pronouns are declined like the corresponding nouns; as *सत्तं*, *सञ्जे* acc., *सञ्जेण*, *सञ्जेहिं* instr., *सञ्जतो-दो-द्*, *सञ्जाहिन्तो-दुन्तो* abl. The instr. sing. is optionally formed like that of nouns in *इ* in the case of some; as *इणिणा*, *जिणा* &c.

You will thus observe, that except in the nom. pl., there is no distinction between the two declensions; the peculiar pronominal forms I have mentioned being only optional. Of the fem. of *तद्*, *पद्*, and *किद्*, the gen. sing. is optionally *तिस्सा* or *तीसे* &c., where the base is *ती* &c. The other forms are like those of nouns in *ई*, as *तीआ-ई-ए* &c. This base is used throughout along with the other in *आ*. In Pali it is used in the gen. and loc. sing. only along with the other, and the gen. forms are *तिस्सा* and *तिस्साय*, the latter of which is, as I have said, a double genitive. This the Prakrit has preserved in the form of *तीसे*, originally *तिस्से*, where the *ए* represents the *य* of the older dialect, as it does in the feminine nouns. The other base of *किद्* and *तद्* has also its genitive singular in *स*, as *तास*, formed by transferring the masc. termination; or it is to be traced to *तस्सा*. The genitive plural forms of the masc., such as *तेसि* and *ताण*, are also sometimes used in a feminine sense. The loc. sing. of *किद्*, *पद्*, and *तद्* is optionally formed by extending the masc. termination *हिं* to the base in *आ*, as *ताहिं* &c. These peculiarities are only optional; so that the feminine pronouns are declined like nouns in *आ* or *ई*. Thus we have *जा*, *जाओ-उ*, *जीओ-उ* nom., *जं*, *जाओ-उ*, *जीओ-उ* acc., *जिणा*, *जाहिं*, *जीहिं* instr., *जादो-द्*, *जीदो-द्*, *जाहिन्तो-दुन्तो*, *जीहिन्तो-दुन्तो*, &c. abl. *जस्सा*, *जिस्सा*, *जसे*, *जासं*, *जासिं*, *जोसं*, *जाण*, *जीसिं*, *जीणं* gen., *जाहिं*, *जाद्*, *जीद्* loc.

The optional instr., abl., gen., and loc. singulars are जाय-इ-अ and जीय-इ-आ-अ.

The pronoun त in the form of अ exists as in the Pali; इय् has two bases, इम, which is used throughout, as इमो, इमे nom., इमं, इमे acc., इमेण-मिणा, इमेहि, instr. &c; and अ from which we have optionally अमं nom. sing., अस्त and अस्ति, gen. and loc. sing., and एहिं and एह instr., and loc. plural, and आहिं instr. pl. of the feminine. इमो, इमस्त, इमस्ति &c. are also in use. The base अ is used in the Pali in the instr. sing., gen. pl. and abl. sing. also.

The demonstrative अदम् has one base only, अहु, which is declined like nouns in उ; as अहु, अहुणो nom., अहुं अहुणो acc., अहुणा, अहुहिं instr., &c.

The pronoun of the second person has, according to Vararuci, five bases त, तुय् or तुम, तुज्ज, तुम्ह, तुम्म, वो and मे. The first is derived from the त्व of त्वम्; तुय् or तुम from the same with the य softened to उ; तुज्ज from तुभ्यस् through the intermediate Pali from तुय्ह, the last conjunct of which is changed to ज्ज, by a rule formerly given; तुम्ह is made up by putting together the ह of the singular and the म् of the plural, as explained in going over the Pali; तुम्म is another form of तुम्ह; वो is the old Sanskrit वत्; and मे seems to be derived from the म्हे of म्हे as वम्मण is from व्राह्मण. Hemacandra adds तुम्म, to be derived from the Sanskrit तुभ्यस् or from तुम्ह, म् being changed to म्म; उज्ज, from तुज्ज by the dropping of त्; तुय् and उय्, other forms of तुभ्यस्; तुव, from त्व by the insertion of उ; तुह, from तुय्ह; उम्ह, by the dropping of the त् of तुम्ह; and उम्म, by treating तुम्म in the same way. The Pali has only त, तु, and तुम्ह; and the several old forms it had are lost in the Prakrit.

Nominal terminations are used in a good many cases. Thus we have तं, तुं, तुय्ह, तुह, and तुमं for the nom. sing., these and तुय् and तुमे for the acc. sing., तह, तय्, तुमह, तुमय्, तुमे, तुमाह, and also तुमं, मे, ते, वे, and दि for the instr. sing. The form तुमं properly belongs to the nom. and acc. cases and ते to the gen., वे and दि being only ते softened; but several cases are here confounded. The abl. sing. has तहत्तो-ओ-उ-वो-हु-हि-हिस्सो, तुवत्तो-ओ &c., तुमत्तो-ओ &c., तुमत्तो-ओ &c., तुम्हत्तो-ओ &c., तुज्जत्तो-ओ &c., also तुय्, तुयम्, तुम्ह, and तुज्ज. The gen. sing. has twenty-one forms, viz. तहत्तं, ते, तुह, तुहं, तुव, तुम, तुमे, तुमो, तुमा, इ, दि, वे, इ, ए, तुयम्, उम्म, उय्ह, तुम्ह, तुज्ज, उम्ह,

and उज्झ. The loc. sing. has हुमे, तुमए, तुमाइ, तइ, तए, तुम्मि, तुचम्मि, तुहम्मि, तुम्मम्मि, तुम्हम्मि and तुज्झम्मि. The plurals are as follows:—मे, तुम्मे, उज्झे, तुम्ह, तुम्हे, उम्हे, तुम्हे, तुज्झे nom.; वो, तुम्मे, उज्झे, तुम्हे, तुज्झे, तुम्हे, उम्हे, मे acc.; मे, तुम्मेहिं, तुज्झेहिं, तुम्हेहिं, उज्झेहिं, उम्हेहिं, तुम्हेहिं and उम्हेहिं instr.; तुम्हत्तो-दो-दु-हित्तो-मुत्तो, तुम्हत्तो-वो &c., उम्हत्तो-वो &c., उम्हत्तो-वो &c., तुम्हत्तो-वो &c., and तुज्झत्तो-वो &c. abl.; मे, तुम्ह, तुम्भ, उम्भ, तुम्भाण-णं; तुवाण-णं, तुमाण-णं, तुहाण-णं, तुम्हाण-णं, तुम्ह, तुज्झ, उम्ह, उज्झ, तुज्झाण-णं, gen.; तुह, तुच-वेह, तुम-मेह, तुह-हेसु, तुम्भ-म्भा-म्भेसु, तुम्ह-म्हा-म्हेह, तुज्झ-ज्झा-ज्जेसु loc.

The points to be observed in these forms are these. The nom. sing. has mostly the same forms as the acc. sing. This is due to the fact that the Sanskrit त्वाक् of the acc. becomes, when the आ is shortened by a Prakrit phonetic rule, त्वं, i. e., the same as the nom. sing. Hence its Prakrit representatives तं, तुं, तुवं and तुम् are the same for both the cases. But a more probable reason, which explains a similar fact in the case of the first personal pronoun also, is that the plurals of the nom. and acc. having by natural processes already explained become exactly alike, the two cases came to be confounded; and the sing. forms also of the one were used for the other. The forms तइ, तए, तुमइ, तुमए, तुमे, and तुमाइ are common to the instr. and loc. sing. This probably arises from the fact that the Sanskrit त्वया, when the य is softened to ए or इ, becomes तए or तइ, and so does the त्वयि of the loc.; and when the हस्ते त is seen to be interchangeable with तुम in the nom., the terminations ए and इ which are common to the two cases are applied to तुम also. ते and its softened forms दे and दि, and तइ are common to the instr. and gen. sing.; तुम्ह, तुम्भ, तुम्ह, तुज्झ are common to the abl. sing. and the gen. sing. and pl.; and मे to the instr. sing. and pl. and the gen. sing.

Such a confusion of the case-relations must be expected in course of time. Even in Sanskrit the gen. and instr. &c. are used alike in connection with some participles; and the identification of the abl. and the instr. we have already noticed in the Prakrits. The gen. forms तुम्ह, तुम्भ, तुम्ह, तुज्झ, उम्भ, उम्ह, and उज्झ, all derived from the Sanskrit dat. तुभ्यम् and referred to the gen. when that case was lost, are taken as bases, and the terminations ए of the nom. and acc. pl., हि of the instr. pl., तो, वो, दु, ओ and उ of the abl., ण or ञ of the gen. pl., and म्मि and सु of the loc. sing. and

pl. are tacked on to them to form these cases. Here the tendency to use the genitive form as a base for the formation of the other cases, a trace of which only we observed in the Pali, is seen more developed.

The pronoun of the first person has, according to Vararuci, the following bases :—*हं* or *अहं* and *म* from the Sanskrit singulars, *मम* the gen. sing., *अम्ह* from *अस्म* and *जो* from *नत्*, of which *अम्ह* is used in the plural. Hemacandra adds *मह* and *मज्झ* from *महाव*, and *मे* from *म्हे* or *स्मे*. He also gives *अम्हि*, *अस्मि*, and *स्मि* for the nom. and *अस्मि* for acc. sing. The first is clearly from *अस्मि* 1st pers. sing. present of *अस्*, often used in Sanskrit as an indeclinable particle; and the others are also corruptions of the same, just as the termination *स्मि* of the loc. is a corruption of *स्मिन्*. The singular forms, therefore, are :—*अस्मि*, *स्मि*, *अम्हि*, *हं*, *अहं*, *महव्यं* nom.; *जे*, *जं*, *मि*, *अस्मि*, *अम्ह*, *मज्झ*, *मं*, *ममं*, *मिमं*, *अहं* acc.; *मि*, *मे*, *ममं*, *ममए*, *ममाह*, *मह*, *मए*, *मयाह*, *जे*, instr.; *मइत्तो-वो-दु-ओ-उ-हि-डिन्तो*, *ममतो* &c., *मइत्तो* &c., *मज्झत्तो* &c. abl.; *मे*, *मह*, *मम*, *मह*, *महं*, *मज्झ*, *मज्झं*, *अम्ह*, *अम्हं* gen.; *मि*, *मह*, *ममाह*, *मए*, *मे*, *अम्हस्मि*, *ममस्मि*, *महस्मि* loc. The plurals are :—*अम्ह*, *अम्हे*, *अम्हो*, *मो*, *वयं*, *मे* nom.; *अम्हे*, *अम्हो*, *अम्ह*, *जे* acc.; *अम्हेहिं*, *अम्हाहि*, *अम्ह*, *अम्हे*, *जे* instr.; *ममत्तो*, *अम्हत्तो*, *ममाहिन्तो-सुत्तो*, *अम्हाहिन्तो-सुत्तो*, *ममेत्तुत्तो*, *अम्हे-सुत्तो* abl.; *जे*, *जो*, *मज्झ*, *अम्ह*, *अम्हं*, *अम्हो*, *अम्हाण*, *ममाण*, *महाण*, *मज्झाण* gen.; *अम्ह-म्हा-म्हेसु-मम-मेह*, *मह-हेसु*, *मज्झ-ज्जेह* loc. Here also the same observations as those made in the case of the last pronoun are applicable.

In the Māgadhī the *ओ* of the nom. sing. of nouns ending in *अ* is replaced by *ए*; as *एओ डलिहो* for *एअ उरुअ*. The *स्त्* of the gen. sing. is sometimes changed to *ह* and the preceding *अ* is lengthened; as *होणिदाह कुम्मे* for *होणितस्व कुम्भ*. The plural of this case is formed by adding *आहं*, as *कम्माहं* for *कर्मणास्व*. The *anuvāra* represents the *अ* of the original termination *आण*, and *ह* is introduced from the analogy of the sing. The regular forms *होणिदस्त्* and *कम्माण* are also admissible. Such forms as these we shall meet with hereafter; and they belong to a later stage in the decay of our grammar.

IV. THE PRAKRIT VERB

Conjugations.—All the Skr. conjugations, with the exception of the second in the case of a few roots ending in a vowel, have

been brought over to the अ type, i. e., to the first, sixth, and the tenth. Some of the others have left a few traces; as, the fifth and the ninth have preserved their ण in such instances as लुण, लिङ्, जाण, लुण, पुण, धुण,—both conjugations being, as you may remember, confounded in the Pali, the third the root बीह—pres. tense बीहदि—the ह standing for ऋ; the fourth has preserved its य assimilated in a good many roots such as णञ्, लुञ्ज, लुञ्ज, लुङ्, नत्त &c.; and the seventh has preserved its च in रुच्य and others. But you will see that to these forms अ is added and they are made roots ending in अ; while a great many have lost even such traces. In the Pali, you will remember, the conjugational signs added to some of the roots are entire, as the ना of the sixth and the नो of the fifth, and अ is appended to roots of the seventh conjugation only, च being inserted before the the last consonant. But here the अ takes the place of the ending vowel of the signs of the fifth and other conjugation also, so we have लुण, कीण, and बीह.

Thus in the Prakrit most roots end in अ. There are some ending in other vowels, such as हो and डा; but the rule of conjugation is the same for all, viz., to add the terminations to the root directly. There can be no consonantal root. Some forms, such as those of अम्, have come down from the parent language only phonetically अम्.

changed; but these are not formed in the Prakrit. They are really Sanskrit forms in what I have ventured to call a petrified condition. The roots ending in अ change it to ए optionally, i. e. they are conjugated according to the model of the first and of the tenth, as is the case to a great extent in the Pali also. The distinction between the special and the general tenses is of course forgotten.

The Prakrits have retained the Present and Future tense and the Imperative mood entire; while the Potential and the Aorist have left the third person singular only. An isolated form of the Imperfect such as आसि from the root अस् remains.

The terminations of the Present Tense are—3rd pers. sing. दि and दे in Śaur. and इ and ए in the principal Prakrit, pl. न्ति and न्ते; 2nd pers. sing. सि and से, pl. इत्या and इ for which last the Śaur. has च; 1st pers. sing. मि, pl. मो, छ, and म.

Of these दे, or ए, से and न्ते, of which the last is not given by

Vararuci, are remnants of the old itmanepada, and the first two are used after roots ending in अ only. With the exception of the first pers. pl. म and the 2nd pers. pl. इत्था, the terminations can readily be traced to the corresponding Skr. Parasm. The Sanskrit 2nd pers. pl. थ becomes थ in the Śauraseni and ह in the Mahārāṣṭri by the phonetic rules already noticed, and मो or its shortened form ह is the Skr. मन्. In these points the primitive and derived languages perfectly agree; but म and इत्था are new terminations and were first used in Pali, the latter however in the form of त्थ. The first is, as I have observed, transferred from the Imperative and other tenses, and त्थ is the Skr. त्थ 2nd pers. pl. of root अन्. To this is prefixed in the Prakrit the usual augment इ, which मो and ह also take optionally. The terminations मो and ह are unknown to the Pali.

Other forms of the first pers. sing. and pl., made up by adding नि and न् or न्हो, as in करोनि, करोन्ह, गच्छन्, &c., occur in the plays, though the grammarians have not noticed them. These terminations are evidently the Skr. स्मि, 1st pers. sing., and स्मः or स्म, pl. of अस्.¹ You will remember that a good many verbs are made up in the Pali by adding forms of this root. Hemacandra notices also another termination of the 3rd pers. pl. वः इरे, which is transferred from the Perfect.

The Imperative forms are made up by adding इ Śaur. उ Prakrit, 3rd pers. sing., and न् pl.; ह and हि 2nd pers. sing. and थ Śaur., ह Prakrit, pl.; and ह 1st pers. sing. and मो pl. The original form of the root ending in अ is also used as the second pers. sing. Of these ह, न्, हि or अ and ह from स्व Atm. are both Skr. and Pali; ह (Skr. थ) transferred from the Present is used in Pali; but ह and मो are peculiar to the Prakrit, the Pali using only the termination of its present. Of these मो is transferred from the Prakrit Present, and ह is made up by adding the उ which is peculiar to the Imperative and distinguishes it from the present. The first pers. pl. takes म also sometimes as in the Pali, but it is not noticed by the grammarians.

1. Prof. Lassen traces these to the root अस्, but इत्था to the Skr. थ to which ह is, he says, prefixed because the previous vowel must have been pronounced with some accent. But considering that many forms of अस् are used as terminations it is more natural to take this also as such a form.

The consciousness that the future is made up by prefixing स् = स्त Pr. & Pali to the terminations of the present has never been lost, and whatever changes these terminations undergo are transferred to the future; so that the Śauraseni and Māgadhi future differs from the Pali in those respects only in which the Present tenses of the two differ. The सि of the first person sing., however, is optionally changed to an anusvāra; or the anusvāra may be a remnant of the conditional terminations; as इतिस्त्. In the principal Prakrit the स् is still further corrupted to हि, य being dissolved into इ and न् changed to इ, as in होहिइ for अदिष्यति, होहिनि अदिष्यन्ति, &c. In the first pers. we have, in addition to this हि, स्त which is lengthened as in Skr. and also its other form हा as well as स्त for the whole as in the Śauraseni, i. e., होहि-स्त-हाहि or होहिस्त्, &c. A beginning in the direction of the हि was, you will remember, made in Pali. We have also a few petrified Skr. forms such as दच्छं for द्रक्ष्यामि, मोच्छं for मोक्ष्यामि which are more conditional than future in their origin; and to these as bases, are added the terminations of the present and also of the future to form new futures: as दच्छिइ दच्छिहिइ, &c. We have also काई and हाई from कृ and दा.

The only Potential form left is that of the 3rd pers. sing.; as हसेज्ज or हसेज्जा, होज्ज or होज्जा. The termination is the same as in Pali, the य of the 3rd pers. sing. being altered to ज, and the general form of the termination य्या to ज्जा. After bases ending in ज, ज्ज or ज्जा becomes एज्ज or एज्जा, as in Skr. and Pali.¹ This being an isolated form and derived from the Potential, which does not signify any particular time, it is used in the sense of the Present, Future, or Imperative in all numbers and persons; and after roots in ज् the terminations इ and हि of the second pers. sing. of the Imperative are added to ज्ज to make up new forms of that mood, as हसेज्जइ, हसेज्जहि; and another form हसेज्जे is also mentioned.² This Potential

1 This fact strongly supports my derivation of the forms. Prof. Lassen derives them from the Precative. But the Precative was lost at an early stage, since it does not exist even in the Pali. The ए is not the अय of the 10th conj, as the Prof. thinks, but the ए, which bases ending in ज् take in the Pot. in Skr.

% Prof. Lassen derives these also from the Precative, and against the argument that that mood is rarely used in Skr. itself and was lost in the

form of roots ending in vowels other than अ is used as a base, and the terminations of the two tenses and one mood are attached to it to make up new forms for them; as होज्जइ, होज्जाइ; होज्जउ, होज्जाउ, &c.

The Aorist also has left its 3rd pers. sing. only; the termination to be added to roots ending in a vowel, is सी, ही, or हीअ and ईअ to those ending in a consonant or अ, i. e., such as take the augment इ or change the अ to इ. Of these, सी and ही are derived from the Parasm. सीत् of the fourth form; the first is found in Pali, and ही is only another form of it. The Pali has ई also for the 3rd pers. sing. corresponding to the ईत् affixed to Sanskrit roots that take the augment इ. This is very likely the origin of ईअ also, since we have it after the roots which necessarily admit the augment; but the अ of this and of हीअ is difficult to explain. हीअ must correspond to some such form as सीय or सीत् which, the य being dropped after the augment इ, is reduced to ईअ. These सीय and सीत् are forms of the Potential Ātm. of अज्, and they may have been added as terminations to form the Aorist as other forms of अज् are in this and other tenses in the Pali. Or the सी of the Aorist may have been confounded with सीत् the pot. of अज् from its resemblance to it.

These are rare and isolated forms, and past time is mostly expressed by the past participle passive which in the case of intransitive and some transitive verbs has also an active sense. The Sanskrit termination त्त is only phonetically changed to द् in the Sauraseni and to अ in the Prakrit. Roots ending in अ change it to इ before the past participial termination. The past participles of some roots are not newly formed, but the old Skr. forms have come down only phonetically altered. This fact should always be remembered, that there are in all these derived dialects new formations called by Hemacandra साध्यावस्थ, as well as old formations, सिद्धावस्थ. This arises from the fact of the analogies not being made applicable throughout, as they would have been if the languages had been artificial. Contingency or condition is expressed by the present participle, as we do in our modern vernaculars.

Pali states that the Precative is found in the Vernaculars. But I have not found it. The forms करजे, करजो G., करिये, करियो H. I trace to the Prakrit Potential forms spoken of above.

The infinitive is formed as in Skr. by the addition of **तु** changed to **उं**, the Pali **त्वे** being lost, and the absolutive by affixing the termination **ऊण** (**हुण** Śauraseni) from the Pali **तून** and the Vedic **त्वा**n or **त्वी**n. But the termination that is most used in the Śauraseni is **इअ** from the Sanskrit **ए** of roots with prepositions prefixed. Hemacandra also gives for the principal Prakrit **तूण** and **तुआण**, the origin of which is the same as that of **ऊण**, **त्ता** from **त्वा**, **तु** by the dissolution of the semi-vowel of **त्वा**, **तु** by a confusion with the infinitive, and **इअ** which is used in the Śauraseni. Of these, however, **ऊण** is the one that prevails; the others are rare.

The passive is formed by adding **इय** and **इज्ज**, both of which come from the Sanskrit **ए** with the augment **इ** prefixed as in Pali, the **ए** being transformed to **ज्ज** in one case and leaving its **अ** only in the other or being dissolved into **इअ**. Hemacandra gives a good many roots which preserve the Skr. forms, only phonetically changed, as **दसिइ** from **दृश्यते**, **दुखइ** from **दुष्यते**, **गम्मइ** from **गम्यते**, **लम्भइ** from **लभ्यते**, **बज्जइ** from **बध्यते**, &c.

The causal terminations are **ए** from **अय** and **आवे** from **आयव**. These two are the same as in the Pali, the Sanskrit forms, also existing in the latter, being lost. Hemacandra adds **अ** and **आव**, i. e., the **ए**, answering to **अय**, is lost. But the Sanskrit vowel changes are preserved even when the **अय** gives place to **अ**; as **दसिइ**.

The terminations of the absolutive, the infinitive, the potential participle (**अन्व** from Skr. **तव्य**), and of the Future take the augment **इ** which also is transformed into a short **ए** of the same nature as that which is found before conjunct consonants, as in **वेणइ** or **पिणइ**. We have thus **इसिऊण** or **इसेऊण**, **इसिउं** or **इसेउं**, &c.

You will thus have observed a much greater progress in the operation of those principles, which we found at work in the construction of the Pali. Here as before we find that the less known forms are made up on the model of the more known. The number of old forms which still remained in some of the Pali declensions and conjugations, has been greatly reduced in the Prakrits, and a further advance been made in the introduction of uniformity and simplicity in the grammar of the language.

It is also worthy of remark, that in a great measure, the same false analogies which are used in the Pali have come down to the Prakrit, and their range extended. Thus the analogy of nouns in इद् or neuter nouns in इ or उ has been carried much further in the declension of masculine nouns ending in इ or उ. Nouns in क्, अक् and वक् have adapted themselves more closely to the model of those ending in अ, their Sanskrit nom. case supplying the new अ base; and the अ conjugations have more generally prevailed over the rest. The device of using such case-forms as मस and मस्य as bases, and making up the cases by appending the proper terminations has also been more largely availed of. Some of these phenomena may be attributed to the operation of the same invariable laws in the development of either, without being an Index to a more intimate connection between the two dialects. But there are individual forms in the two languages which, though they might be different, are yet the same in both. Such, for instance, are वच्चे acc. pl., the loc. sing. ending in the pronominal णि or णि, the double gen. तिस्साय, the 2nd pers. pl. ending in इया of the present tense, and a good many others. The consonantal and vowel changes also, so far as they go in the older language, are the same. We may therefore safely conclude that the Pali represents generally an earlier stage of the same language which afterwards became the Prakrit or Prakrits.

But there are again in the Prakrits such forms as those of the ablative in दो and आदि instead of the old pronominal म्हा, the 1st pers. pl. of the Pres. in मो or मु instead of the Pali म, the 1st pers. sing. of the Imperative in ह्य instead of the Pali मि, the Śauraseni absolutive in इज corresponding to the Sanskrit ए, which does not exist in the older dialect, and others. These Prakrit forms cannot have been developed out of the Pali forms, but must have grown independently from the Sanskrit originals.

In the same way, though the Prakrit sounds are generally the same as, or further developments, of the Pali sounds, there are a good many which could not have grown out of the latter. Thus the रि of the Prakrit words रिद्धि, रिच्छ, रिण, रिद्ध, &c. cannot have been developed out of the इ or अ of the Pali इद्धि, अच्छ, अज, उद्ध &c., or the मद् and अद् of such words as बुद्ध, मद्द, पद्द, कद्द, &c.

&c., from the ए and ओ of the corresponding Pali words, or the ण् for Sanskrit ण् from the Pali ण, though this latter exists in some of the Prakrit dialects, or the रिस् for ई or ई in such words as आअरिस्, छुदरिस्ण, बरिस्, and परामरिस् from the स्स् or स of the Pali आदास्, छुदस्सन्, बस्स, and परामस्स. The Prakrit sounds must in these cases be traced directly to the corresponding Sanskrit sounds.

It therefore appears that the Prakrits had also an independent development, which may be accounted for on the supposition, that they sprang not from the Pali but a sister dialect or dialects; or that, though originally they were the same as the Pali, their subsequent development was influenced by the parent language, and thus, other sounds and forms not existing in the earlier dialect, came in fresh from Sanskrit. But the first supposition is discountenanced by the fact that the resemblance between the Pali and the Prakrits extends even to isolated cases; and the second is supported by the circumstance that in one important particular, the Prakrits resemble the Sanskrit in the last stage of its development, while the Pali differs in that particular from both and agrees with an earlier form of the parent language. We have seen that in later Sanskrit verbal forms, especially of the past tenses were rarely used, and participles were employed instead; and we find that the Prakrits have mostly lost all the Sanskrit tenses and moods except three, and past time is generally expressed by the past participle and contingency by the present; while the Pali has, as we have seen, preserved eight, including all the past tenses and the conditional. Middle Sanskrit bears to later or Classical Sanskrit the same relation, in this respect, that the Pali bears to the Prakrits. The change that came over Sanskrit between the two periods left its impress on what may be called the Vernacular speech. This could not have been the case, unless Sanskrit had continued to influence that form of speech, represented first by the Pali and afterwards by the Prakrits. And it was because it continued so to influence it, that the Prakrits came to have sounds and grammatical forms also derived direct from Sanskrit and not through the Pali. This leads to the conclusion, which will be developed in detail in the last lecture, that when the Pali and the Prakrits came into existence, Sanskrit had not been dead but was as much a living

language as either of the other two, and both were spoken of used for ordinary purposes, one by men of culture and the other by ordinary people.

Sanskrit writers distinguish three elements in the Prakrit vocabulary which they call Tadbhava, Tatsama, and Desya. Such words as are derived from Sanskrit are called Tadbhava, such as **इक्ष्ण, कस्त, मग्ग, कण्ण**, &c. Tatsamas are those that are the same in Sfcnskrit and Prakrit as **कमल, मण्डल**, &c, the phonetic laws of the Prakrits not necessitating a change in them, and Desyas are such as cannot be derived from Sanskrit and must be referred to another source. A good many words of this nature we find used in Prakrit literature; and there exists a kośa or thesaurus of Desya words by Hemacandra. A large number of these Desya words exist in the modern vernaculars, such as :—

अकां a sister, M. ¹**आका**, a term of honour used for an elder sister.

अग्घाहो an herb; M. **आघाहा**.

अषहो a well; M. **आह**.

उडिद a kind of pulse; M. H. the same.

उड्ढ sleeps; H. **उंघना** G. **उंघडुं**.

कुडं, कुडुं, कोडुं, wonder; M. **कोड** old.

कोटुं a town; M. **कोद** a fort.

कोडिम्बो a basin of wood for water; M. **कोडंबा**.

कोलित a firebrand; M. **कोलित**.

कड्ढिअं to mix a liquid with a solid substance and stir it up; M. **कालवणे**.

गौहो a man, a warrior; M. **गोव** husband.

चोप्पडइ rubs, anoints; M. **चोपडणे**.

छिणो
छिणी
छिणालो
छिणाली } an adulterer or adulteress; M. **शिखळ**.

पोआलो an ox; M. **पोळ**.

पड्ढी a cow that has no milk; M. **पाड्डी**.

पासलें slanting; M. **पासलें** lying down with the face upwards.

पोडुं belly; M. **पोट**, H. G. **पेट**.

कंसइ deceives; M. **कस्तविणे**.

कुका false, vain ; M. कुका.

बाउली a doll ; M. बाउली.

बप्पो father, a brave man: M. H. G. बाप, M. बाप्पा an able-bodied man.

There are a great many words set down as Désyas, which on close examination will be found to be Tadbhavas. They differ from ordinary Tadbhavas in having undergone great corruption. The following are instances. Some of the words in the above list may also be considered to be of the same nature. Thus कंसई 'deceives' is a denominative or nominal verb from the word बाह 'a snare,' which in our modern dialects has the form of कांस; whence कंसई is 'to ensnare' or 'entrap.' So also कुई, कुई, कोई and the old M. कोइ are in all likelihood to be traced to the Skr. कौटिक.

उज्जाडिओ thrown upwards ; Skr. उद्घातितः.

कन्दोह a lotus ; from Skr. कन्दोत्प.

कुहुडो humpbacked. This may be traced to Skr. कुष्ण-कुम्भ-कुह ; and ड is a termination which is used in a great many nouns.

कुरुच disliked, evidently from Skr. कु and रोच्य.

कोणो black ; Skr. कुष्ण-कण्ह-कोण्ह-कोण.

उज्जड desolate ; from Skr. उज्ज्वल bright, pure, cleared of every thing, desolate.

बहल्ल a bullock ; from Skr. बलीषर्द.

छली rind, bark ; may be from Skr. शल्य, शल्यक.

छासी whey ; may be from Skr. तक्.

छिबइ touches ; from छुर् by a change of vowel.

छिप a tail ; from Skr. उच्छ, by the consonants interchanging places, and the palatal छ having its vowel इ.

बहोहर the hind part of a house ; from Skr. पृष्ठपट्ट.

वेयालं, वेजल, a measure, a certain quantity, occurs in the Pali and is traced to Skr. माय. It may also be connected with माय्य.

बोह्लइ speaks ; from Skr. बू by the change of र to बू and the transference of the vowel to the first consonant—a thing often observable ; बू-बुह्ल-बोह्ल.

The Sanskrit etymology of some of the words given by the lexicographers is evident; and one does not know how they came to be regarded as *Dēśyas*. Other words changed their sense in the course of time and so were referred to this class.

पण्डित forgets; from Skr. षण्डित् to steal,—a thing forgotten is as it were stolen.

बहुसहो a wicked person : from Skr. बहुसह, because a wicked person puts on many faces or appearances.

कामक्षितोरो an ass;—a son of Kāma or love, devoted to pleasure, is often a donkey.

कुक्षिमई pregnant; Skr. कुक्षि originally 'side,' came to signify 'womb,' and that womb is worthy of the name which bears a child, hence कुक्षिमती lit 'having a womb' came to have the signification given.

A good many of the words given by Hemacandra do not occur in the modern Vernaculars, and we have regular *Tadbhavas* instead; as., इल्ली a tiger, ईसु a nail, &c.

The number of *Dēśya* words, if properly examined, would be greatly reduced. Still a *Dēśi* element in the Prakrits and the Vernaculars must be admitted. These words must have come into the dialects from the language of the aborigines whom the Aryas conquered; and some are found in Sanskrit also.

THE APABHRAMŚA

The dialect called the Apabhramśa by the grammarians presents Indian speech in a further stage of decay, and occupies a middle position between the Prakrit and the modern vernaculars, to some of which, especially to the old Hindi, the Brajabhasa, and the Gujarati, it bears striking resemblances, as I shall hereafter show.

As mentioned before, we have the grammar of this dialect from Hemacandra, Trivikrama, and Kraraadśvara; but Vararuci does not mention it. The Apabhramsa had a literature of its OWN Hemacandra illustrates each of his rules about this dialect by quoting a verse. In the fourth Act of the Vikramorvasi the Prakrit speeches of the king in his madness are in this dialect. But it is ft question whether they existed there originally, since in several

manuscripts on this side of India they do not appear. The metres employed in these and in Hemacandra's quotations are the same as those popularly used in old and modern Hindi or Braj viz. *doha* or *copai*. Pandit Vrajajal mentions a work of the name of Mu-5jar5sa, written in the Apabhramsa, from which he gives a short extract, and another the hero of which is a king of the name of Prasenajita. He also quotes from another work; but the language of all these appears to be more modern than Hemacandra's Apabhramsa, and that of some of the verses makes a very near approach to the Gujarati. As before, I will introduce my remarks on this dialect by a specimen.—

APABHRAMSA

पत्तहे तेत्तहे बारि धरि लच्छि विसंदुल धाह ।
 पिअ पम्भट्टव गोरही निखल कहिबि न ठाह ॥
 जे महु दिण्णा दिअहडा दहपे पवसन्तेण ।
 ताण गणन्तिअ अङ्गुलिउ जजरिआउ नहेण ॥
 जीविउ कासु न बल्लहउं धणु पुणु कासु न इहु ।
 दोण्णि वि अवसरि निबद्धिअई तिणसम गणा बिस्सिहु ॥
 जो पुण गोबह अप्पणा पयडा करह परसु ।
 तह इउं कलिजुगे दुल्लहहो बलि किज्जउं सुअणसु ॥
 गङ्ग गमेप्पिण जो सुअओ जो सिवतित्थ गमेप्पि ।
 कीलदि तिदसावासगत सो अमलोउ जिणेप्पि ॥

The Sanskrit of this would be :—

अत्र तत्र द्वारे गृहे लक्ष्मीर्विसंदुला धावति ।
 प्रियप्रभ्रष्टेव गौरी निखला कापि न तिष्ठति ॥
 ये महुं दत्ता दिवसा दयितेन प्रवसन्ता ।
 तेषां (ताम्) गणयन्त्या अङ्गुलयो जर्जरिता नखेन ॥
 जीवितं कस्य न बल्लभं धनं पुनः कस्य न इहम् ।
 हे अप्यवसरे निपतिते तृणसमे गणयति विशिष्टः ॥
 यो पुणान्गोपायस्यात्सीयान्प्रकटान्करोति परस्य ।
 तस्याहं कलिजुगे दुर्लभस्य बलिं करोमि सुजनस्य ॥
 गङ्गां गत्वा यो मृतो यः शिवतीर्थे गत्वा ।
 क्रीडति त्रिदशावासगतः स यमलोके जित्वा ॥

" The unsteady goddess of wealth runs to this door and that, * this house and that; like a fair one separated from her lover she does not remain firm anywhere."

" My fingers have worn away, rubbed against by my nails while counting, again and again, the days named by my lover [as the period of his absence], when he set out on his journey,"

" To whom is life not dear and to whom is wealth not an object of desire ? But when the occasion comes, a worthy man regards them as straw."

" I worship that good man, so rarely to be met with in this Kali age, who conceals his own merits and gives publicity to those of others,"

" He who dies after having gone to the Gaṅga and to Śivalīrtha, triumphs over the power (world) of death and sports in the habitation of the gods."

THE PHONOLOGY OF THE APABHRAMSA

The vowel अ of the derivatives of the pronouns यद्, तद्, किद्, and इद् is changed to इ or ए. In the principal Prikrit we have noticed a tendency to such a change, and one of our instances was एत्थ for अत्थ. From the same tendency we have in the Apabhramsa जेत्थु for यत्थ, तेत्थु for तत्थ, and केत्थु for कुत्थ, the उ of the latter being replaced by ए in virtue of the analogy of the other pronouns. In the same way तद्द् " in that manner," which after dropping the final consonant becomes तद्, is changed to तेम, यद्द् to जेम, and किम्ब्द् to केम. This ए is also rendered a more close vowel and changed to इ, and thus we have तिम, जिम, and किम. Thus the bases of these pronouns came to be considered as ते or ति, जे or जि, and के, or कि, and so we have तिद् for तद्द्, जिद् for यद्द्, and किद् for कुद्द्. The mute element being dropped, these forms become तिद्, जिद्, and किद्, and further तेद्, जेद् and केद्. For similar reasons we have तेतिज् or तितिज् for तावत्क्, जेतिज् or जितिज् for यावत्क्, केतिज् or कितिज् for कियत्क्, &c., even in the Prakrits.

The nom. sing. termination of nouns in अ is shortened to उ, and since a great many nouns were pronounced with this final उ and its original sense was forgotten, it was transferred by way of analogy to other words or grammatical forms that did not possess

it before, and thus we have दुख and विख for दुः and विना and जेख, तेख, जेह, &c., in the above.

The long vowels are sometimes shortened as in the word मङ्गल in the last of the above verses.

The consonants क and ख are sometimes softened to ग and घ, instead of being dropped, द and ड to द and घ, as in Śauraseni, and ए and ऊ, to ए and अ. In the principal Prakrit also this is sometimes the case. The labial ब is changed to व in a few more instances than in the Prakrits as in जाम and ताम for बाबद and ताबद, and जेम or जिम, तेम or तिम, &c. in the above for बाबद, ताबद &c. The complete contact of the lips necessary for the pronunciation of ब is avoided in a great many cases, and thus we have ई for व as in मर्वै for बमर, कर्वै for कमल, &c. This is the prevailing rule in most of the vernaculars, as we shall hereafter find. The conjunct ब्ह is changed to भ्र; that is, the aspirate ह has been labialized and assimilated to the preceding ब, as in गिभ for Prakrit गिब and Sanskrit शिष्य. A few instances of this change we did find in the Prakrits and we shall find more in the vernaculars.

The Sanskrit conjunct त् is changed to त्र; for as द was often pronounced as द्र, this द्र instead of merging into the preceding mute, as semi-vowels often do, acquired prominence as द्र does, when preceded by a dental; and the द्र being assimilated to it, the whole become त्र as त् becomes त्र, as in पद्र for तदा, व्यण or पण for the abstract termination त्वन, and विण for त्विन, the suffix of the absolutive. In the Prakrits the त् of आत्मन् similarly becomes त्र and so we have अत्रा for आत्मा. The letter र, when the latter member of a conjunct, is sometimes not assimilated, as in ब्रोदि, प्राड for प्राय; &c., and sometimes it is introduced even when it does not exist in the original, as in ध्रु for तद्, प्रस्त for वस्त, &c. With these few exceptions, the rules about the assimilation of conjuncts, the elision of consonants, and others hold good generally as in the Prakrits, as you will see from the above extract.

DECLENSION IN THE APABRBAMŚA

Nouns in अ

The decay of the case terminations is, however, a distinguishing feature of this dialect. The distinction between the nom. and

acc. case forms which we observed lessening at each stage in the growth of our languages is here altogether lost. The ओ of the nom. sing. of masculine nouns in अ is shortened to उ, and used in both the cases, as हुअउ nom. for हुतक; गउ for गत; जमलौउ for जमलोक; and applied to neuter nouns as well, as कमलु. The nasal of the neuter is preserved only in nouns which are augmented by the addition of क changed to अ; as कमलउं for कमलक. The nom. and acc. pl. of the masculine ends in आ; as विअइआ, पपडा &c. in the above. The neuter nouns preserve the Prakrit इ of the plural, as in कमलई. Sometimes words are used in these two cases without any terminations; as विसंहुल nom. sing., निचल nom. sing., छण acc. pl., गङ्ग acc. sing., तित्त्य acc. sing., in the above extract.

The principle observable in the other cases is the same as we have noticed in the older dialects, viz., a gradual reduction of all the declensions to a uniformity. The instrumental singular of nouns in अ has two forms, one in ए as देवें, and the other the old one देवेण. The former is derived from this old form, the final अ being dropped, and the nasal assuming the form of an anusvāra. This new termination is transferred to nouns in इ or उ also, as अग्निं. The instrumental pl. is the old one in हिं, but the change of the ending vowel to ए is only optionally made; as छणेहिं or छणहिं.

One ablative termination is हे which is appended to all nouns, and the other हु as in बळहे वणई फलई or बळहु वणइ, "gathers fruits from trees."

Of course we may trace the first to हित्तो by supposing it first to be changed to हेन्तो by the usual Prakrit rule, and afterwards to have dropped its second syllable; and हु to something else. But it appears to me that a good many of the terminations having been reduced to हु by natural phonetic changes, the others also had this inserted in them by analogy, just as the nominative termination उ is introduced in words and forms in which it did not exist. This process we shall necessarily have to suppose when we examine the forms of the present tense. Or the ह may have been introduced simply to prevent a hiatus and connect the vowel-termination with the base. And this is rendered probable by Hemacandra's rule, that the ending syllables उं, हुं, हिं, and इ, are to be lightly pronounced, as the ए that is introduced in the

place of a dropped consonant is. The real syllables in these cases are therefore अं, उं, ईं, and अँ; and this is confirmed by the fact that the remnants of these Apabhramsa terminations existing in some of the modern vernaculars are destitute of this ह् and are mere vowel-terminations, as will be seen in a subsequent lecture. Thus, then, हे may be considered as the aspirated form of the ए of the Prakrit feminine ablative, and हु of the उ of the masculine ablative.¹ The operation of the law of false analogies is very wide. The abl. pl. हुं, as in गिरिसिद्धगुहं, may with Lassen be traced to सुन्तो, the न् being changed to ह् and the syllable तो dropped, as ति is in the case of the 3rd pers. pl. of the present, as we shall see.

The genitive singular ह, and रह as in सुअणसु and परसु in verse 4 above, I trace to the स्त of the Prakrits, the उ being added by analogy as observed before. Lassen traces is to स्व, which, he says, must have been added to these nouns to form the genitive; and the व being softened to उ, it is reduced to सु. But this does not account for the double स्त of the other form; and the addition of such a word as स्व to make up a case-form is altogether unexampled. The suffix हो, as in बुद्धहो in the same verse, is but another form of सु. The genitive plural ई, as in माणुसई for मनुष्याणाम्, may with Lassen be derived from the साम् of the Sanskrit pronominal declension. But the transference of this termination to nouns is nowhere seen in the Prakrits; ई is optionally appended to nouns in इ or उ also; and the characteristic ण of the gen. is wanting in this dialect. The more probable explanation, therefore, is that the ण lost its cerebral element and was reduced merely to a nasal अ, or अँ with an anusvāra, as is the case in the instrumental singular, and the ह् is added, as observed before, simply to facilitate the pronunciation.

The loc. sing. ends in ए, as in तले, which we see is the old termination, or in ह, as in तलि, which is a shortened form of ए. Kramadīvara gives also हिं which might be traced to the Pali हि, the Sanskrit स्मिन्, or the स्मि of the Prakrit pronominal declension. The language of Jaina works has this स्मि in the case of nouns also. But even here the Prakrit स्मि, may, with reason, be supposed to have changed to ई, and the ह् to be, as before, a mere

1. Kramadīvara in Lassen's extract gives ह् instead of हुं; but this is an evident misreading.

spiritus lenis. We have this locative ई in the Marathi. The ई is extended to the plural also of these nouns. The vocative is formed by using हो which is evidently an interjection; as तरुण हो "O young men."

Nouns in इ or उ

There is no distinction between the nom. and acc. sing. and pl., the original base being used without any modification or addition.

The instrumental singular is formed by adding ए or ण, as in the last class of nouns, or simple anusvāra; as अग्निपं, अग्निण, अग्निं. As एण becomes ए by dropping the final vowel, so does the इण of the Prakrit instrumental here become इ.

The abl. sing. ends in हे as in गिरिहे and तरुहे; and the gen. sing. also according to Kramadīśvara, Hemacandra being silent. These have been transferred from the feminine. Kramadīśvara also gives हो and ई as the terminations of the sing. of these two cases; but there must be some misreading here in Lassen's extract from the author, since ई is a distinctive plural termination. The gen. pl. termination is हुं or ह as in तरुहुं, सउजिहं (शकुनीनाथ). The latter has been traced to the old gen. ण, and the former appears to be only another form of it, with the addition of the usual उ.

The loc. sing. has हि, as in कलिहि; and the pl. has हिं and हुं, as in तरुहिं, and उजुहुं. The first must be considered to be the same as हिं derived from सिह or मिह with the anusvāra dropped; or as the इ of Prakrit feminine nouns with the *spiritus lenis* ह. This explanation seems to be probable, since we have seen other feminine terminations also used for the cases of these nouns. The third is to be traced to the Prakrit ए. Kramadīśvara in Lassen's extract gives इ for the हुं of the abl. pl., and ई for that of the gen. pl.; but I have to make the same remark here as before. The instr. and abl. plurals are the same as those of nouns in अ; as तरुहिं and तरुहुं. Thus the plural of three cases ends in हुं, derived separately of course, and the plurals of two in हिं.

Feminine nouns

The plurals of the nom. and acc. of feminine nouns preserve the old औ, or its shortened form उ, as in अकुलिज जज्जरिआउ in the

second verse, and सुन्दरतन्त्राजो बिलासिणीओ. The sing. is the original base, as जज्जरिआ, बिलासिणी &c.

The instr. sing. termination is ए, the old one, as in ससिम-
ण्डलचन्दिमए, कन्तिए &c.; the abl. is हे as in बालाहे for बालायाः,
which is an aspirated ए; and the genitive हे as in सुन्दरहे
for सुन्दायाः (ड being a nominal suffix) may be similarly
explained or traced to the से of the gen. sing. fem. of the
pronouns, किम्, यद्, and तद्, in the Prakrit. I prefer the former
explanation. This हे has been transferred to masculine nouns in
इ or उ as we have seen. The abl. and gen. pl. ends in ह्, as in
वयसिअह् for वयस्यान्द्ः or वयस्यानाम्. The anusvāra of the ह् of the
other classes of nouns is here omitted; and if correctly so, the
ह् of the abl. may be considered an aspirated form of the उ which
is the ablative termination in the Prakrit; and that of the
genitive may be traced to the ह् of the singular of masculine
nouns. The instr. pl. and the loc. sing. and pl. take the same
terminations as masculine nouns in इ or उ: as सहिहिं, सहिहि,
सहिहिं-ह्. Lassen gives other terminations; but he appears to me
not to have interpreted Kramadīśvara correctly. Those I have
given are all that I have been able to find.

You will thus see how by the various influences at work, the
natural transformation of छ to ह्, the elision of some of the
elements, and the aspirated pronunciation of the vowels, most of
the old terminations have been reduced to syllables composed of ह्
and a vowel with or without an anusvāra. Terminations with
such weak sounds are not adapted to serve the purposes of
ordinary intercourse, since they require on the part of the
speakers such care in pronunciation to render themselves intelli-
gible to each other as we have not seen displayed in the course
of our lingual history. The nominative and accusative through-
out, and in certain classes of nouns, the other cases also have
come to have the same forms. So that the purpose of expressing
the different relations can be no longer performed by these poor
remnants of the old declensional system; and a process of recon-
struction must take place. It has already begun in the Apa-
bhramśa; but we shall find it carried on much further in the
vernaculars, which may now be said to have completed their
new declensional system.

Pronouns

The abl. sing. of pronouns ends in हँ, as जहँ, &c., which is to be traced to the Sanskrit स्माद् and the Prakrit स्हा, and the loc. sing. in हिं which has been explained. The gen. sing. of एह, तह, and किह are optionally जासु, तासु, and कासु, made up by adding the usual उ to जास, तास, and कास, which again are other forms of जस्त, तस्त, and कस्त, with one of the consonants dropped and the preceding vowel lengthened as a compensation, a phenomenon to be noticed in going over the vernaculars. In the feminine, these pronouns have जहे, तहे, and कहे optionally for the gen. sing., which are derived from the Prakrit जिसे, तिसे and किसे and the Pali जिस्साय, तिस्साय, and किस्साय. The base, however, in the Apabhramsa ends in अ and not ई, or, the more probable explanation is, that this हे is the aspirated form of the ए of feminine nouns.

इदम् has आय for its base; the instr. and gen. singulars, for instance, are आयेण and आयहो. This seems to be taken from the nom. sing. अअ, or अय by the rule of the substitution of य for अ. The neuter nom. and acc. sing. is इहुं.

एहो is nom. and acc. sing. masc. of एतद्, corresponding to एतो, एह fem. to एता, and by the application of उ to these we have the neuter एहु. एह is the nom. and acc. pl. answering to एए Prakrit, with the latter ए shortened; and ओइ of अदस which corresponds to the form अहुके, the अहु being changed to अहु by a rule before mentioned, and afterwards to ओ; and के to ए, shortened to इ. In other respects all these pronouns are declined like the corresponding nouns.

The pronouns of the 1st and 2nd persons are thus declined :—

1st pers.		2nd pers.	
sing.	pl.	sing.	pl.
Nom. इउं	अम्हे, अम्हई	तुहँ	तुम्हे-तुम्हई
Acc. मई	— —	तई	— —
Instr. —	अम्हेहिं	पहँ, तई	तुम्हेहिं
Abl. महु-मज्जु	अम्हई	तउ, तुज्ज, तुध	इम्हई
Gen. — —	—	— — —	—
Loc. मई	अम्हासु	पई, तई	इम्हासु

Here we have not the wilderness of forms which we observed in the principal Prakrit. The nom. sing. of the 1st per; is

corresponding to अहकस्, the initial अ and the क being elided and the usual Apabhramsa उ added. In the Prakrit अहकस् is represented by अहअ or अहए. मई is to be traced to the Sanskrit instr. मया and the loc. मयि, both of which are reduced to the form of मइ in the Prakrit. Here it is extended to the acc. also. The pl. base is अम्, which has been explained. The nom. pl. अम्हइ corresponds to such a form as अस्मके nom. pl., not loc. as Lassen says, through अम्हए; and the gen. pl. has the Apabhramsa termination इ. The rest are old. तुइ is a base derived, as I said in going over the Prakrits, from तुयं and is used in the Prakrit also. पइ and तइ of the acc. instr. and loc. are from त्वया and त्वयि. The second is found in the older dialects, the first is peculiar to this. Of the corruption of त्व to त्प I have already spoken.

The abl. and gen. तउ corresponds to a form त्वक् which with the Apabhramsic उ is तउ, the क being dropped. Or it may be traced to तव् with the व dissolved into उ. तुज्ज is a form found in the Prakrits also and explained by me as a corruption of the dat. तुयं in the Pali and Prakrits, derived from the Skr. तुभ्यम्. The dative forms, you will remember, are put under the gen. in the older dialects. The व् of तुज्ज is a peculiar Apabhramsic conjunct, formed from जम्. The neuter of तव् is similarly त्रं and त्र. The base of the plural is तुम्ह, the same as in the Prakrit; and the nom. pl. तुम्हइ is to be traced to तुम्हके for तुम्हके nom. pl. All the forms are similar to those of the first personal pronoun.

THE VERB IN THE APABHRAMSA

The Present tense of the Apabhramsa verb admits, besides those of the corresponding Prakrit or Sauraseni tense, the following forms :—1st pers. sing. लहइ, pl. लहइ; 2nd pers. sing. लहइ, pl. लहइ; 3rd pers. sing. लहइ, pl. लहइ.

It appears that some of these forms have arisen from a confusion of the Present Indicative with the Imperative. The prevailing and distinguishing final of the latter is the vowel उ; and here we see it is appended to the forms of the 1st pers. sing. and 2nd pers. pl., though it does not occur in those forms in any of the older dialects.

The ह् is another characteristic of these paradigms. That of the second pers. sing. we get from the old सि, and that of the pl.

exists in the Prakrit, being derived from the Skr. व. But the third pers. pl. and the 1st pers. pl. get it simply by an extension of the analogy ; or it may have been introduced to prevent a hiatus and thus may, like those of the cases, have been simply a *spiritus lenis*. The ह् of the latter, however, may be traced to ऋ, ओ being shortened to उ, just as ऋ and ॠ of the declensions become इ and ई. Instead of the 3rd pers. pl. न्ति we have णि in which, though the ह् is due to analogy, the characteristic ह् and the nasal are preserved.

You will thus see that in the declensions as well as conjugations the ह् prevails in this dialect. The Imperative second pers. sing. ends in ह्, ए or उ. The first two may be traced to the Prakrit and Sankrit हि, ह् being dropped as in the Vernaculars ; and the last seems to be substituted for the अ of one of the forms in the original dialects by analogy ; or it may be the remnant of रु, changed first to ह्, and then to उ. But a better and, I may say, the true explanation of these forms will be given in going over the Vernaculars.

Hemacandra does not give any more forms for the Imperative, but Kramadīśvara gives ऊ for the second person plural which must very likely be ह्, the same as in the Present, and ह् for the first pers. pl. which we have in the Present also. In one of the verses quoted by Hemacandra occurs पिअ्ण् which seems to correspond to पिबन्, if the reading is correct. The truth seems to be that the forms of the Imperative were lost, and the sense confounded with that of the Present, but the distinctive forms were those of the second pers. sing.; and in this respect there is an analogy with Hindi and Gujarati which resemble the Apabhramśa the most.

The Future has the Prakrit and Śauraseni forms in णि and हस्स; but one ण् of this latter is dropped, and then the terminations of the Apabhramśa Present are added.

The terminations of the absolutive are ह्, इउ, अणि, इणि, एणि, एणिसु, एणि, एणिसु. ह् is the same as the Śauraseni ह्व from the Skr. व, इउ is the same, with the usual उ added to it, or is to be traced to the हुक् or ह्वक् which is, as we have seen, confounded in the Prakrit with the absolutive, and the rest are various forms of the

Vedic त्वीन with the Prakrit augment इ or ए. This त्वीन is, by a rule before mentioned, changed to प्विण, which with उ becomes प्विण्ड and by dropping the final न we have प्वि. This, however, may be derived also from such a form as त्वी found in the Vedas. This प्वि or प्विण्ड is then softened to वि or विण्ड, as ए is so softened in many cases. When the augment इ or ए is not prefixed, we have वि in the form of अवि, the अ being the final vowel of the root.

Some of the terminations of the absolutive are also used to form the infinitive, on account of the prevailing confusion between the two. In consequence of this very confusion, recourse is had to other ways of forming the latter which are similar to those existing in the Prakrits; but these will be noticed hereafter.

The termination तव्य of the potential participle assumes the forms of इपव्वडं, एव्वडं, and एव. The first two represent the form with the addition of क; and the इ of इपव्वडं is the usual augment. The अ of the त of तव्य which remains after the consonantal portion is dropped, is by the influence of the preceding इ changed to ए.

In these points which are not noticed here, the Apabhramśa follows chiefly the Śaurasenī, and the principal Prakrit also to some extent. Thus in a great measure it represents those dialects in a further stage of decay; but it must be considered to have derived some words or forms independently also. Thus the एह of the second person pronoun cannot be derived from the Prakrit तह, nor प्विण of the absolutive from वृण or ऊण, or एण of abstract nouns from लण, but directly from the Sanskrit त्वया, त्वीन, and त्वन. This corruption of त्व must have existed in some of the older dialects too, since, as observed before, we have it in Aśoka's inscriptions; and the Apabhramsa derived it as well as a few such peculiarities from them.

LECTURE IV

PHONOLOGY OF THE VERNACULARS OF NORTHERN INDIA

We have now traced the gradual decay of Sanskrit from the form in which it is presented to us in the oldest literary records to that which it assumed in the Apabhram̃śa dialect. We have seen how words lost some of their vocal elements on account of the natural tendency of men to economize effort, as well as in consequence of the fact that the vocal organs of the people, who through historical accidents had to speak that language though it was not theirs, were untrained to utter the sounds of that language, and that they imported into it some sounds to which they themselves were previously accustomed. We have also observed the effects of the operation of the law of analogy in simplifying the grammar of the language—an operation, the range of which, in consequence of the ignorance of those same foreigners, was very extensive. The declensions and conjugations gradually lost their variety, and became reduced to one or two types by the generalization of the rules, originally applicable only to the nouns and verbs frequently used in ordinary intercourse. At the same time the terminations themselves of some of the oases, tenses, and moods came through numberless analogies to have the same or similar forms, and their vocal body gradually became attenuated and in some instances they were altogether dropped. Thus these processes of simplification were carried on much further than was consistent with intelligibility in ordinary intercourse. Hence the necessity arose of inventing new modes of expression for those relations which came to be imperfectly expressed or ceased to be expressed in the old way. As observed in the last lecture, such new expressions are to be met with in the Apabhram̃śa dialect.

If the Prakrits and the Apabhram̃śa which we have examined really represent the speech of the Indian people at certain periods of their past history, we should expect to find a relation of continuity between them and the prevailing speech of modern times. The words and grammatical forms in the modern vernaculars

should either be the same as those existing in those dialects, or should be easily deducible from them by laws which we have observed to be in operation; and if in the Apabhramśa the grammatical forms came to be in a condition in which reconstruction was necessary, and if accordingly it was begun, we should and it carried on much further in the vernaculars and that on principles used in the Apabhramśa and the other dialects and out of materials existing in them. We will therefore proceed now to the examination of the vernaculars with a view to trace this continuity.

The varieties of speech prevailing in Northern India at the present day are almost innumerable. If even a few peculiarities were to be regarded as giving individuality to a language, the number of dialects spoken in this part of the country would exceed even the proverbial afty-six. But they may be divided into classes on the principle of resemblance; and generally the dialects spoken in the adjoining provinces are so alike each other that they may be regarded as constituting one class or even one language. Thus we have nine principal languages; and starting from ourselves, and going northwards, first on the western side of the country and then turning to the east and south-east, I may state them as the Marathi, the Gujarati, the Sindhi, including the Kacchi, the Panjabi, the Kashmiri, the Hindi, the Nepali, the Bengali, and the Oriya.

Of these the Kashmiri and the Nepali have not yet been studied, and no grammars or books are available. Hence my observations will not extend to them. Each of these has its dialects; but those of some, such as the Gujarati and the Sindhi, differ from the main language in unimportant particulars. The same is the case with the Marathi, except in some corners of the Maratha country. But in these there are a few dialects differing in a great many important particulars from the main Marathi. Thus, the Goanese prevails in Goa; the Malvani, my own native tongue, and the Savantvadi, both of which, notwithstanding some minor differences, may be considered as one, are spoken in the Maivan, Vengorla, and Savantvadi districts. The Chitpavni is used only by the caste of Chitpavan Brahmans in the district about Batnagiri; the Salsetti is spoken by the original inhabitants of

that island and of Bombay ; and the Khandeshi, which is a mixture of Marathi and Gujarati and contains to an appreciable degree a barbarous element, probably from a Bhil source, prevails in Khandeshb.

The Hindi has a great many dialects. Two at least may be distinguished among the variety of speech prevalent in Rajputana, the Mewari spoken in Mewar and the adjoining districts, and the Marwari which prevails in Marwar, Jesselmere, and the other provinces. These, as may be inferred from their geographical position, are midway between the Gujarati and the Hindi dialects of the North, displaying some of the peculiar characteristics of both. Further north, we have the Braj prevailing in the country about Mathura-; and to the east, the Kanoji. There is not much difference between these. The language of the history of eighty-four Vaiṣṇavas and other books of the Vallabhācāryan sects, which is ordinarily supposed to be the Braj, has grammatical forms identical with those mentioned by a recent grammarian as peculiar to the Kanoji. There is a good deal of confusion as regards this matter, the characteristics of one being found in the printed books together with those belonging to another. Then further north, we have the Garhawali and the Kumapni spoken in the provinces of Garhawal and Kuraaon.

To the east, we have the Avadhi or the dialect of the province of Avadha or Ayodhya, and to the south of this again is the Rewai spoken in the State of Rewa. Further to the east is the Bhojpuri and kindred dialects prevailing in Bihar and the adjacent districts on the conanes of Bengal.

The old literature of the Hindi is principally written in two dialects, the Braj, and what is called the Purbi. Sūradasa's works, Beharilal's Satasai, and others are written in the former; and to these I may add the Vallabhha works I have already mentioned. The Rāmāyaṇa and Tulasidāsa's other works are written in the latter. The chief distinction between the idioms of Suradasa and Tulasidāsa appears to me to be, that the latter uses a great many grammatical forms which are old, and from which those used by the former are derived. In this respect Purbi might be considered to be a very old form of the Braj. But there are a few other

distinctions, though it is questionable whether they are enough to justify the Purbi being considered an independent dialect. The language of Kabira's Rāmāī and Sakhis presents a few peculiarities found in neither of the above. But the characteristics of Sūradāsa and Tulasīdāsa are also to be found in it; so that if we leave out of consideration the other works of Kabira, in which there is probably another variety of speech, the dialect used by these Hindi poets may be considered to be the same. This has come to be regarded as the poetic dialect, and most of the other Hindi poets have written in it. Its modern representative is the Braj, in which the commentaries on Tulasīdāsa's, Kabira's and Beharilal's works, and on the tenth book of the Bhagavata that I have seen, are written. This then is the Hindi literary dialect. The language, however, which is used as the medium of instruction in the Government schools in the North-Western Provinces, and in which the books published by the Educational Department are written, is now regarded as the Standard Hindi, and its grammatical structure is identical with that of the Urdu spoken by the Mussalmans. This is rather the dialect in which the Hindus of the different provinces in Northern India communicate with each other, than that which they speak in their own provinces.

The Panjabi has also several dialects; but little is known about them. Oriya resembles the Bengali in so many respects that one of them may be considered a dialect of the other. The similarity between the Hindi and the Panjabi is also very great

I will now give short specimens of these dialects.

I Marathi:

कित्येक लोक स्रुतसद्दी याणीं पद पसरोन प्रार्थना आईसाहेबांची केली ते हुन्दी अग्निप्रवेश केलिया नंतर संपादिलेलें राज्य लयास आजच जातें प्राण महाराज काहीं ठेवीत नाहींत हा प्रकार घडतो शाहाजी महाराजांचें व शिवाजी महाराजांचें नांव जणीं नाहींत होतें सर्वोपर साहेबीं वृष्टि देवन राज्यांस बोसगास देऊन साहेबीं अग्नि न घेतां मानस कठिण करून राहावें । हें काम करून गेलिया बंशक्षय महाराजांचा बदिलीच केला ऐसें जणीं प्रसिद्धता दिसतें तेन्नां आई साहेबांस राहिलें ।

(From an old Bakhara or Chronicle of Shivaji.)

Some counsellors supplicated the lady-mother in an humble attitude saying : ' If you will burn yourself by fire, the kingdom which has been acquired goes to ruin this very day; and it will

happen that the king will not bear life; the name of Shahaji Maharaj and Shivaji Maharaj will not remain in the world. Therefore, your ladyship, looking to all these things, should make the king sit in your lap (protect), and, not resorting to fire, render your mind firm, and live. If you do this (burn yourself), it will plainly appear to all the world that you destroyed the race of the Mahāraj.' Thus they prevailed on her to live.

II Gujarati:

दमयंती तो महा आश्चर्य लाग्युं अने भ्रान्ति पडी के आ ते स्वप्न के साधुं । एषा अनेक विचार करती थालेछे एषामां एक अशोक वृक्ष दीठो त्यां दीन दमयंती आर्षीने कहेंछे के ओ विपदर्शन अशोक तारा नामनो महिमा राक्षी मारा शोकनो नाश करी सत्यनामी था । एण कोण उत्तर आपे ।

(From Mr. Mansukharāma's Nala-Damayanti.)

Damayanti felt greatly astonished and was in doubt whether it was a reality or a dream. While moving on, engaged in various such thoughts, she saw an Asoka tree. Going there she said ; "0 lovely Asoka, having regard to the greatness of thy name, destroy my soka (sorrow) and deserve that name. " But who would answer ?

III Sindhi:

गिरनार कोटमे राइ दिआबु नाले डिक्किडो पातिशाह हो । तहिजे भेलु फकीरसां हुयों साहें सुखे पुट्टु बे । फकीर हुनसे थिओ पुट्टु तोखे थांको पर राइ दिआचजो सिरु बढावो । हुन थिओ उहो पुट्टु ई बनि पिओ जां सुजे भाउजो सिरु बहे । पर फकीरजो चबलु थिओ सो टरे की न । थोरे घण दिहावे माहअ पुट्टु जण्यो ।

(From the story of Rāi Diaca in Major Stack's Grammar.)

There was a Pfitisaha (king) of the name of Rai Diaca. His sister begged of a Fakir : " Sire, give me a son." The Fakir said to her: " A son will be (born) to thee, but he will cut off the head of Rfti Diaca." She said, "Accursed be (*lit.* fall into a wilderness) the son who should cut off my brother's head." But the Fakir's word cannot prove vain. In a few days the woman gave birth to a son.

IV Panjabi:

तां केर बाबे नानकजी कहिआ हे पंडितजी हूं सुण ब्राह्मणसत्तरीवा धरम जनेऊतें रहिवा हे या भले करमति रहिवा हे । सुण पंडित जे जनेऊ पावे अर बुरे करम करे तां उह ब्राह्मणसत्तरी रहिवा हे या बंधाल हुंवा हे । जां इह भल्ल स्रीधर बाबजी कही तां जितने

लाक बैठे से सभ ईरान हो गए । तां कहिण लग्ये ऐ श्रीपरमेश्वरजी कजां इह बालक है अते
कैसीजां बाता करदी है ।

(From the Janamasakhi.)

Then again Babe Nanakji Paid : " O Pandit, \ car. Is the religious holiness of Brahmans and Kṣatriyas preserved by the sacred thread or by good deeds ? Hear, O Paṇḍit, if one who is invested with the sacred thread does wicked deeds, does he remain a Brahman or Kṣatriya or become a Caṇḍāla ?" "When Śrī Guru Bābejī spoke thus, all the people that were sitting there were astonished. Then they began to exclaim : " O God, he is :till but a child, and how wonderfully he speaks I "

V Hindi :

इतना कह उसने बहुतेरे उपाय हाथ निकालनेको किये पर एक भी काम न आया ।
निधान साँस रुककर पेट फट गया । तो पछाह स्वाय के गिरा तब उसके शरीरसें लोह
नदीकी भाँति वह निकला । तिस समें ग्वालबाल आय आय देखने लग्ये और श्रीकृष्णचंद
आगे जाय बनमें एक कदम की छाँहतले खड हुए ।

(Premasagara, chap. 38.)

Having said so much, he made many attempts to throw out his (Kṛṣṇa's) hand, but none was of any use. At last, he was suffocated and his belly burst out. Then he fell down, and blood flowed from his body in torrents. At that time the cowherd boys came one after another and began to see; and Śrī Kṛṣṇa went forward and stood in the shade of a Kadamba tree in the forest.

VI Braj:

जब सब ब्रजवासीने सुनी जो श्रीवैद्यमनको गाय बहोत भिग है तब सबने
मिलिके यह बिचार कियो जो जाके गाय होय सो सब एक एक तथा दोय दोय भेट
करो । और श्रीगिरिराजके आसपास जो खोबीस गाम हैं तिनके पाससों सब ब्रजवासी
मिलिके एक एक दोह दोह गाय भेट करबाई । और यह ठहरी जो बीस गाममें जाके
प्रथम गाय ब्याबे सो बछिया तो वैद्यमनको भेट करै । ऐसैं सहस्राबधि गाय श्रीजीके
भेट भई । तब दूध वही माखन और मठा सब घरकी गायनका आरोगें ।

(From the Story of the Manifestation of Govardhananāhlj.)

When all the inhabitants of Vraja heard that Devadamana was greatly fond of cows, they all joined and resolved that all who had cows should each present one or two. And the inhabitants of Vraja joined and caused each of the twenty-four villages

about the mountain (Govardhana) to present one or two cows each. And it was resolved that in the twenty villages he whose cow should first calve should present the calf to Devadamana. In this way thousands of cows were presented to the Prosperous One. Then he used the milk, curds, butter and whey of the cows in his home.

VII Bengali:

तबे कुन्हे? आर बत्सर जखन आमि पाला ज्वर भुगते छिनु-दिबारात्रि बिछानाय पड़े थाकिहुम-उठिया दांढाइबार शक्ति छिल ना, से समय स्वामी आसिया उपस्थित हलेन। स्वामी केमन ज्ञान हओया अथपि देखि नाइ, भेये मातुबेर स्वामी न्याय घन नाइ। मने करिलाम बुइ दण्ड काछे बसे कथा कहिले रोगेर यन्त्रणा कम हवे। दिदि बल्ले प्रत्यय जावे ना-तिनि आमार काछे दांढाइयाइ अमनि बलनेन पोल बत्सर हइल तोमाके बिबाह करे गियाछि-तुमि आमार एक स्त्री-टाकार दरकारे तोमार निकटे आसितेछि-शीघ्र आव-तोमार चापके बन्दलाम तिनि तो काकि दिलेन-तोमार हातेर गइना खुलिया दाओ।

(From Peary Chand's *Alāler gharer dulaia*—a Kulina Marriage.)

Will you hear then? That year at the time when I was suffering from intermittent fever, remained lying in bed day and night, and had no strength to rise and stand, my lord (husband) came. I had not seen what sort of a man my husband was since I ceased to be an infant. Nothing is more valuable to a woman than her husband. I had thought that my suffering would become alleviated, if he sat by my side for a few minutes (*lit* two *daṇḍas*) and spoke with me. Dear sister, you will not believe me when I say that, as soon as he stood by my side, he said, "It is sixteen years since I married you and went away. You are one of my wives. I come to you, being in need of money, and will go back soon. I spoke to your father; but he put me off. Do pull out the ornament in your arm (round the wrist), and give it to me."

VIII Oriya:

गोटि ए मझा एक दण्डगुफ़ उपरे बसि अहङ्कारके आपनाकु भारी हुझि दण्डकु कहिला आइे दण्ड आम्भ दासबार जेबे तुम्भकु भारी लागे तेबे कह आम्भे अन्य स्थान कु उठि जाई। ए कथा सुणि हुन कहिला आरे मझा हु जे आम्भ उपरे बसि अण्ड ए कथार डेर कइया पाइ नाई

(Fables published by the Calcutta School Book Society.)

A certain gnat sitting on a horn of an ox, and with pride thinking itself heavy, said, "O ox, if in consequence of my sitting you feel heavily weighted, tell me, and I will fly away to another spot." Hearing these words the ox said, "O gnat, I had not even the slightest idea that you were sitting on me."

* * * *

In these extracts there are a great many words which on examination will be found to be derived from Sanskrit through the Prakrits; in other words, the vernacular forms will be found to be the same as, or further developments of, the Prakrit forms.

Thus we have the following :—

(No. I)

किति, Pr. केतिअ or कितिअ, Skr. कियत् with the termination इक changed to इअ.

जा of जाती, Pr. अज or अय in अजं nom. sing., Skr. अयम्.

पसर, Pr. पसर, Skr. प्रसर in प्रसरति.

के of केली, from Pr. कज or कय, Skr. कृत, ल being a termination often used in the Prakrits.

जे, Pr. जज or जय, Skr. यकत्, क being a suffix used in the Prakrits generally, and sometimes in Sanskrit also.

गुम्ही, Apabh. गुम्हई, Pr. गुम्हे or गुम्हय, Skr. such a form as गुप्सके, by analogy, for दूयन्.

आज, Pr. अज्ज, Skr. अज.

जा of जाते, Pr. जा, Skr. या.

कांहीं, Pr. केहिं, Skr. केभिः.

डेव of डेवीत, Pr. डाव, Skr. स्थाप in स्थापयति.

हा, Apabh. एहो, Pr. एसओ, Skr. एषः.

चड of चडतो, Pr. चड, Skr. चट in चटते.

नांव, Pr. नाम, Skr. नाम.

जग, Pr. जग, Skr. जगत्.

हो of होते, Pr. हो, Skr. भव in भवति.

वर, Pr. उवरि, Skr. उपरि.

वे of वेवून, Pr. वि as in विण्ण, Skr. वन.

बोसंग or ओसंग, Pr. उण्डङ्ग, Skr. उत्सङ्ग. The ङ्ग of Sanskrit, Prakrit, Hindi &c., is in Marathi changed to ङ्.

वे of वेऊन and वेतां, Pr. वे as in वेवून, Skr. वड as in वडीत्या,

न, Pr. and Skr. same.

कर of कर्त्तव्य, Pr. कर as in करह, Skr. करोति.

काम, Pr. कम्म, Skr. कर्म.

गे of गेलिया, Pr. गज or गय, Skr. गत.

बहिल, Pr. बह्नु, Skr. बह्नु, इल being a Prakrit suffix.

देसे, Apabhr. अइस, Pr. ईदिस, Skr. ईदृश.

दिस of दिसते, Pr. दिस in दीसह, Skr. दृश्यते.

(No. II)

तो, Apabhr. तउ, Pr. ताव, Skr. तावत्.

लाग, Pr. लग्ग, Skr. लग्न.

अने, Pr. अने ? , Skr. अन्य.

पड, Pr. पड, Skr. पद् in पतति.

ते, from such Pr. and Skr. forms as ते, तं, तेज or तेज &c.

के, Pr. कय or कम, Skr. कक for the crude किमकइ.

साबु, Apabhr. सबड, Pr. सबज, Skr. सत्यकइ.

एवो sing. of एवा, Apabhr. एहु or एहउ and अइसो, Pr. ईदिसो, Skr. ईदृश.

कर as in No. I

चाल, Pr. चल, Skr. चल.

दीढी, Apabhr. दिडउ, Pr. दिडओ, Skr. दृढकः.

त्यां, Pr. ताई, Skr. तस्मिन्.

आव, from Pr. आजओ, or Skr. आगतः.

कह, Pr. कह, Skr. कथ as in कथयति.

छे, Pr. आच्छइ, Skr. आसो.

तार of तारा, Apabhr. तुहार for तुहआर, तुह being the Skr. तुम्यक् and आर, कार.

नाम, Pr. नाम, Skr. नाम.

राख, Pr. रक्ख, Skr. रक्ष.

मार of मारा, Apabhr. महार for महआर, मह being the Pr. of Skr. मद्यक् and आर for कार.

धा, Pr. धा, Skr. स्या.

पज, Pr. पुजो, Skr. पुनः.

कोज, Pr. कउज, Skr. कः पुनः.

आप, Pr. अप्प, Skr. अर्प.

(No. III)

मा of माले, Pr. and Skr. नाम, ल being suffix.

हो, Apabhr. हुअउ, Pr. हुअओ, Skr. हुतः (हुतकः).

तहिं of तहिंजे, Pr. तेहिं, Skr. तेवाक्.

नेछ, Pr. नइजी, Skr. नयिनी.

साई, Pr. सामी, Skr. स्वामी.

म of मले, Apabhr. महु, Pr. मह, Skr. महान्.

पुहु, Pr. पुत्तो, Skr. पुत्रः.

तो of तोले, Apabhr. तड, Pr. तुड, Skr. तुल्यम्.

दे, Pr. दा, Skr. दा.

राह, Pr. राअ-राय-राजा, Skr. राजा.

सिर of सिरु, Pr. सिरं, Skr. शिरः.

बड, Pr. बड्ड, Skr. वर्ष.

भाउ, Pr. भाउजो, Skr. भ्रातृकः.

चवच, from Pr. चव for Skr. चक्ष.

थिअ, Pr. थिअ, Skr. स्थित.

सो, Pr. सो, Skr. सः.

की, Pr. कहि, Skr. कस्मिन्.

माह, Pr. माहजो, Skr. मातृका.

थोरे, थो from Pr. थोज, Skr. स्तोत्र, and र or ड, a suffix.

दिहाड, Apabhr. दिअडड, ड being a termination often used, Pr. दिअड, Skr. दिवस.

अण, Pr. अण, Skr. जन of जनयति.

(No. IV)

तां, Pr. तहिं, Skr. तस्मिन्.

कह, as in No. II.

तूं, Pr. तुं, Skr. त्वम्.

हुण, Pr. हुण as in हुणह, Skr. गृण as in गृणोति.

जनेउ Pr. जणोबीअ, Skr. यज्ञोपवीत.

ई, from अस, Pr. and Skr.

मडा, Apabhr. महुड, Pr. महुजो, Skr. मद्रकः, i. e. मद्र with suffix क.

जे, Pr. जे or जए, Skr. ये or यके.

पाव in पावे, Pr. पाव, Skr. प्राप as in प्राप्नोति.

अर, Pr. अवर, Skr. अपर.

कर, as in Nos. I and II.

हु of हुंदा, as in No. I.

जां, Pr. जहिं, Skr. यस्मिन्.

इह, Apabhr. एह, Pr. एस, Skr. एष.

जित of जितने, Pr. जितिअ, Skr. यावत् with suffix इक.

देठा, Pr. डवहहजो, Skr. उपविष्टकः, i. e. उपविष्ट with suffix क.

से, plural from Pr. सो, Skr. सः.

सय, Pr. सय, Skr. सर्व.

गज, Pr. गजओ, Skr. गतकः i. e. गत with क.
 लग्न, Pr. लग्न, Skr. लग्न.
 अज of अजा, Pr. अज, Skr. अज.
 कैस of कैसा, Apabh. कहस, Pr. कीदिस, Skr. कीदृश.
 वात, Pr. वत, Skr. वत.

(No. V)

इत of इतना, Pr. इतिअ, Skr. इयत् with इक.
 कह, as in Nos. II and IV.
 हाथ, Pr. हथ, Skr. हत.
 किय of किये, Pr. किअ, Skr. कृत.
 भी, Pr. बि, Skr. अपि.
 काम, as in No. I.
 न, Pr. Skr. same.
 आय of आया, Pr. आजअ, Skr. आगत.
 गय of गया, Pr. गज, Skr. गत.
 तो as in No. II.
 खा of खाय, Pr. खाम, Skr. खाद.
 लोह, Pr. लोहिअ, Skr. लोहित.
 बह, Pr. Skr. same.
 तिल, Pr. तस्त, Skr. तस्य.
 ग्वाल, Pr. गौआल or गौवाल, Skr. गोपाल.
 बाल, Pr. Skr. same.
 देख, Pr. देखल, Skr. द्रक्ष or दृक्ष.
 लग of लगे, as लग in No. II and लग्न in No. IV.
 ओ, Pr. उअ, Skr. उत.
 आम of आगे, Pr. अग्न, Skr. अग्र.
 जा as in No. I.
 छांह, Pr. छाआ, Skr. छाया.
 हुअ of हुय, as हो in No. 3.

(No. VI)

सब, Pr. सब्ब, Skr. सर्व.
 चुन of चुनी, Pr. चुज, Skr. चुष्ट.
 गाव or गाह, Pr. गावी, Skr. गाव as in गावड &c.
 मिल of मिलिके, Pr. Skr. same.
 किय as in No. V.
 जी, Pr. जओ, Skr. यकः i. e. य with the suffix क or अक.
 हो of होय or होह, as in No. I.

सो, Pr. सो or सओ, Skr. सः or सकः *i. e.* स with क or अक.

दोय or दोइ, Pr. दुवे or दो, Skr. द्वे or द्वी.

कर as in Nos. I, II and IV.

और, Pr. अवर, Skr. अपर.

चोबीस, Pr. चउबीसा, Skr. चतुर्विंशति.

गाम, Pr. गाम, Skr. ग्राम.

हे as in No. IV.

तिन of तिनके, Pr. ताण, Skr. तानाम, by analogy, for तेनाम.

पास, Pr. पस्त, Skr. पार्श्व.

पह, Apabhr. पड, Pr. पस, Skr. पच.

ठहर of ठहरी, Pr. ठिर, Skr. स्थिर.

बीस, Pr. बीसा, Skr. विंशति.

व्या of व्यावे, Pr. and Skr. वी.

बछ of बछिया, Pr. बच्छ, Skr. वत्स.

तो as in Nos. II and IV.

ऐसे as in No. I.

चूज of चूई, Pr. चूज, Skr. चूत.

दूध, Pr. दुध, Skr. दुग्ध.

बही, Pr. बहि, Skr. बधि.

माखन, Pr. मक्खण, Skr. ब्रह्मण.

मठ of मठा, Pr. मत्थ, Skr. मत्थ.

पहर, Pr. पड, Skr. पड.

(No. VII)

हुन of हुन्वे or हुनिवे, as हुण and हुन in Nos. 4 and 6.

आर, Pr. अवर, Skr. अपर.

आमि, Apabhr. अम्ह, Pr. अम्हे, Skr. such a form as अस्मके or अस्मे for वयम्.

पाला, Pr. पल्लज, Skr. पर्याय.

पड of पड़े or पडिया, as in No. II.

उठ of उठिया, Pr. उठा, Skr. उत्था.

आठे in छिल, छिनु &c., Pr. आच्छड, Skr. आस्ते.

से, Pr. सी, Skr. सः.

आस of आसिया, Pr. आनच्छ or आअच्छ, Skr. आअच्छ.

हो of होलेन or होलेन, as in Nos. I, IV and VI.

देस of देखि as in No. IV.

माह, Pr. माह, Skr. महि.

मन, Pr. मन, Skr. मनः.

हूह, Pr. हूवे, Skr. हू.

काष्ठ of काष्ठे, Pr. कष्ठा, Skr. कृष्ठा.

बस of बसे, Pr. उबस, Skr. उपविश.

कह, as in Nos. I, IV, and VI.

बल or बोल, Pr. बोह, Skr. बू.

तिनि, Pr. ताण, Skr. तानाह, by analogy for तेषाव.

बोल, Pr. सोलह, Skr. बोडहा.

तोम of तोमाके, Apabhr. तुम्ह, Pr. तुम्हान, Skr. तुम्हान, by analogy.

for दुष्मकध,

कर as in Nos. I, II, IV and VI.

वे or गय of गियाडि as in Nos. I and V.

जा of जाव, as in Nos. I and V.

हात, Pr. हथ, Skr. हस्त.

तो as in Nos. II, V, and VI.

दि as दे in No. I.

(No. VIII)

माहा, Pr. मसअ, Skr. महाक.

बस of बसे, as in No. VII.

आवणा, Pr. अवण, Skr. आत्मन as in आत्मना, &c.

हुम of हुमि, Pr. हुम, Skr. हुम as in हुमति.

कह as Nos. II, IV, V and VI.

आम्हे, Apabhr. अम्ह, Pr. अम्हे, Skr. such a form as अम्हणे or अम्हे,
for अवध, as in No. VII.

हुम as हुमी in No. I.

लाग as in No. II, and as लग and लन in Nos. IV and V.

उड of उडि, Pr. उडु, Skr. उडु as in उडुयते.

जा as in Nos. I, V, and VII.

हुम as in Nos. IV, VI, and VII.

हु, as हु in No. IV.

पाव of पाह, as पाव in No. IV.

मे as in No. I.

ए, Apabhr. एह, Pr. एह, Skr. एव, as एह in No. IV, and एह in No. VI.

You will find that in the Marathi passage there are about 58 different words of which £6 or a few less than a half are derived from the Sanskrit through the Prakrits; in the Gujarat there are 42 out of which 23 or a few more than a half are of the latter description, in the Sindhi the proportion is 38 to 81, or some what greater than a half; in the Panjabi 44 to 33 or a half in the high

Hindi 48 to 23 or a little less than a half; in the Braj 45 to 29, i. e. about two-thirds; in the Bengali 71 to 27, i. e., about two-fifths; and in the Oriya 32 to 15 or a little less than a half. I have not taken into consideration other words which do come to us undoubtedly through the Prakrits, but the etymology of which is not so obvious. These would increase the proportion and bring it to more than one-half in most of the cases. In this list there are three or four words such as नाम, and वह, which may be called old Tatsama, since they exist unchanged in the Prakrits, and the *riSt* may be called old Tadbhavas.

Now in these passages you will also have seen a large number of words such as प्रार्थना, अग्निप्रवेश, आश्चर्य, स्वप्न, बालक, शरीर, नदी, ग्रिय, प्रथम, ज्वर, दिवारात्रि, शुद्ध, स्थान &c., which are exactly the same as in Sanskrit. They could not have existed in those forms in the Prakrits, and hence it is clear that they were introduced long after the Prakrit period; and the tendency nowadays in our languages is to introduce more of such words. These may be called modern Tatsamas. But some of these have undergone a corruption since they were adopted. Thus कर्म is pronounced as करम; चर्म, चरम; क्षत्रिय, सत्तरी; कार्य, कारज; and कृपा, कर्पा or कुर्या; while the Prakrit corruptions of these are कम्म, चम्म, सत्तिज, कज्ज, and किवा. Such words therefore are modern Tadbhavas.

At the end of my observations on the Prakrits in the last lecture, I gave a list of vocables existing in those dialects which are called *Deśyas* by native grammarians, and showed that several of them existed in our vernaculars also. We observe from the above passages, which contain such words as मुत्सद्दी, साहब, and पतिशाह, that there are in the modern dialects words of an Arabic or Persian origin also. Thus we may distinguish these elements in the vocabulary of the vernaculars of Northern India.—1. Old Tadbhava, 2. Old Tatsama, 3. Modern Tadbhava, 4. Modern Tatsama, 5. *Deśya*, 6. Arabic, and 7. Persian.

In its nature the old Tatsama element is but a small quantity and the main skeleton of our languages is made up of the old Tadbhava. It forms the principal constituent of the speech of the middle classes. The higher classes, however, use the Modern *Talasma* and Tadbhava element to a much larger extent; and

the language spoken by learned men is heavily loaded with pure Sanskrit words. This element has succeeded in driving out a very appreciable portion of the first in some of the languages. The Bengali contains the largest number of pure Sanskrit words, and hence one who knows Sanskrit can master the language in but a few weeks. The old Tadbhava element is reduced to the smallest minimum in what is called *Sadhu bhāṣā* or the speech of the educated. According to the extent of the modern Tatsama or Tadbhava element, the other languages may be arranged in the following order :—Oriya, Marathi, Hindi, Gujarati, Punjabi, Sindhi.

It must, however, be remarked that the modern Tatsamas appear in a pure or correct Sanskrit form only in the written language. The Bengalis in actually pronouncing these words corrupt them in a manner which renders them unrecognizable as Sanskrit words ; and often in the same way as the old Prakrit speakers did. Thus आत्मा is pronounced अत्ता, ईश्वर इस्वर, मोक्ष मोक्स, &c. The same is the case more or less with the speakers of the other languages, so that the pure Sanskrit words that we meet with in the written modern vernaculars, may be considered modern Tadbhavas and in rare cases Prakrit Tadbhavas. The educated classes, however, in Maharashtra and Gujarat, and to a certain extent in the Hindi provinces, pronounce the (Sanskrit words correctly. The Sindi, however, contains but a few pure Sanskrit words ; hence it is rich in the old Tadbhava element, while it draws largely upon the Persian and Arabic.

This foreign element is used in our dialects, principally in political matters. Persian and Arabic words are also used in the concerns of ordinary life, but their number is limited. The higher classes and learned men very rarely use them ; while that element enters largely into the speech of the Mahomedans in the different provinces and the Parsis. And the Mahomedans in the Hindi area use such a large number of these words that their language is by some considered an independent dialect and called Urdu, but it differs from the High Hindi in nothing further, than in the use of these foreign words.

But though the vocabulary of our languages is thus composite.

the grammar is in every way the same that they have inherited from the Prakrits. Here there is no mixture of different elements. A good many of the forms now in use have been constructed since the Prakrit period; but, as I hope to show you, they are simply combinations or adaptations of existing Prakrit forms. Thus we will divide our examination of the vernaculars into three branches. (I) In the first we will trace out the Sanskrit words which were transformed in, the Pali and the Prakrits in the various ways we have noticed, and discover the operation of the same or other laws in their further transformation, if they have undergone any, as also in the transformation of other words which remained unchanged in the Prakrits or were imported from Sanskrit at a later period. (II) In the second we will trace out the Prakrit or Apabhraṃśa grammatical forms? (III) and in the third, examine the new or reconstructed forms and find out the principles upon which they have been made up.

The phonetic changes which the words of a living language undergo involve, as a general rule, economy of exertion in its widest sense; but there are some which do not, or which require increased effort. Economy may sometimes be effected in more ways than one. For instance, the assimilation of vowels to consonants may be effected by changing अ to ओ and thence to उ, or to ए and इ. Some people have a predilection for the former, others for the latter. Again, one mode of change may be economical to some and another opposed to it to others. Thus the assimilation involved in the less open vowels इ and उ is of importance to some, but of little consequence to others; and they prefer the economy arising from the change of these vowels to अ, since this does not require any movement of the tongue or the lips. Here then we have two kinds of peculiarities. Again, if an ordinary change has a very comprehensive range or is almost universal in a language, and if other ordinary changes do not keep pace with it, and are to be found only in a limited number of instances, that ordinary change must be considered to be due to a peculiar vocal habit or incapacity. The assimilation of conjuncts and of the diphthongs in the Pali and the Prakrits, and the elision of uninitial consonants in the latter, are changes of this nature. And finally, there is all the greater reason

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for attributing changes that involve no economy or necessitate greater exertion, such as the change of dentals to cerebrals or of senants to surds, to vocal peculiarities. These several kinds of peculiarities give distinct individualities, so far as the external forms of words are concerned, to languages derived from one and the same primitive language. Thus then, some phonetic changes are special or peculiar, and others ordinary.

We will now take up in order the instances observable in the Pali and the Prakrits of these two kinds of changes and trace them in the vernaculars, and also endeavour to find out whether these dialects have preserved any of the Pali and Prakrit peculiarities or developed new ones.

And first as regards vowels. The following are some of the instances with the vernacular forms of the words in which Sanskrit क is changed to अ, इ, or उ in the Prakrits :—

[Table 1: Skr. क changed to अ]

- Skr. कृत्ति: skin, Pr. कत्ति, M. कात्त in कात्तहें.
 Skr. कृष्ट: rubbed away, slender, Pr. कृष्टो, G. and H. कृष्ट as a verbal base in कृष्टु and कृष्टना.
 Skr. कृष्ट soft, Pr. मऊ, M. and G. मऊ.
 Skr. कृषभ: bull, Pr. कसहो, H. कसह.
 Skr. कण्व: proper name, Pr. कण्हो, M. G. H. कान्व or कान्वा.
 Skr. कुम्भक straw, Pr. लम्ब, M. लम्ब.

[Table 2: Skr. क changed to इ]

- Skr. कृपा pity, Pr. कृषा, M. कृषि.
 Skr. हृदय heart, Pr. हिज्ज, H. B. O. हिय or हिया, old M. हिर्द, Mod. M. हिप्पा, S. हिजो, हिजाई, G. हृया, P. हियाई.
 Skr. कृष्ट sweet, Pr. मिह, P. मिहा, H. मीडा, B. O. मिडा, G. मीह S. मिजो.
 {
 हृष्ट: seen, Pr. दिहो, G. दीडो, S. दीडो.
 हृष्टि: sight, Pr. दिडु, M. H. दीठ or दीठी.
 हृष्ट of हृष्टते is seen, Pr. विस्तह, M. विस in विसने, P. विस in विसना, S. विस in विसह, O. विस in विसिहार.
 }
 Skr. कुमाक: jackal, Pr. सिआलो, G. B. सिवाक, H. सिवार.
 Skr. कृपा pity, disgust, Pr. बिआ, H. बिन, P. बिन,

Skr. **धृक्** horn, Pr. सिङ्ग, M. B. O. सिंह, G. H. सीङ्ग, P. सीङ्ग, S. सिङ्ग.

Skr. **कृषिः** husbandry, Pr. किरि, H. S. किस in किसान and किसान.

Skr. **तृषा** thirst, Pr. तिसा, P. तिहा, S. तिह.

Skr. **वृषः** a vulture, Pr. गिहो, S. विह, M. G. H. वीह, M. विषह or निषाह; also, B. विवर, ह and र being the same termination, S. गिह.

Skr. **मृतः** death, Pr. मिन्धू, H. मीह.

Skr. **घृतम्** ghee, Pr. घिज, O. विज, G. H. P. B. वी, S. विह.

Skr. **हृत्पतिः** name of a deity, Pr. विहप्कई, H. विहे.

Skr. **मातृगृहम्** mother's house, Pr. माहवर, or माहवर, M. माहेर, G. महीर or मडियर.

Skr. **पितृगृहम्** father's house, Pr. पिहवर, or पिहवर, H. पीहवर, G. पीवर.

[Table 3: Skr. **ह** changed to उ.]

Skr. **पृच्छ** to ask, Pr. उच्छ, P. उच्छ in उच्छणा, S. उछ in उछय, H. G. उछ in उछाँ-इ, M. उछ in उछजें.

Skr. **वृष्टः** rained, Pr. वृष्टो, P. वृडा, S. वृडो, G. वृड in वृडई.

Skr. **पाद्व** rain, Pr. पाडसो, M. पाऊस, H. पावस.

Skr. **कच्छ** straight, Pr. उच्छू, M. उछ.

Skr. **पितृकः** father, Pr. पिउजो, S. P. पिउ'.

Skr. **मातृवृक्षा** mother's sister, Pr. माउसिजा, H. मौरी, M. मावली.
The others have माली, probably by dropping उ.

Skr. **बृहः** a bee, Pr. बुहो, M. बुगा.

The word **घृतम्** has घज in the Prakrits according to the grammarians, but घिज also must have existed; so also **हृह** has विहो.

Some of the above words have two forms in the Prakrits, but since one of them does not occur in any of the vernaculars, it has been omitted. There are other words having two or even three

1 Mr. Beames considers the उ of the B. विह, पाह, &c., to be the nom. sing. termination and not a transformation of the Sanskrit ह. But he is evidently wrong, since this उ appears in the oblique cases also, as पिउजो, माउजो, &c.; while the nom. sing. उ does not, as in वेहजो, gen. sing. of वेह "a country." The words have उ even in those language, such as the P. and M., which have descended the nom. sing. ह and it appears even in the feminine word मीह which cannot take the masculine termination ह.

Prakrit forms, one of which occurs in one of the vernacular*, and the other or others in another. Thus:—

[Table 4: Skr ऋ- its different changes]

Skr. दण्ड straw,	Pr.	{ Pali तिण, H. तिय in तिनका. Pr. तर्ण, M. तण, P. तुण in तुणक.
Skr. कृतम् done,	Pr.	{ कियो or कियो, G. कीयो, H. किया, P. कीता S. कियो or कितो. कओ, S. कयो, M. के for कय or कम in केला, B. के or कै in कैल*, O. कला.
Skr. मृतः dead,	Pr.	{ मओ, G. S. मओ, H. मुआ. मओ, M. मे for मय in मेला.
Skr. वृद्धः old,	Pr.	{ वडो, G. वडो, S. वडो, H. P. वडा, O. वडा, B. वडा. वडो, S. वडो, H. P. वडा, B.O. वड, M. dial., वड in the sense of "large", G. वडो, M. G. S. वड in वडिल and वडेरो, meaning "elder."
Skr. पुच्छम् back,	Pr.	{ पड, M. पाड, G. पाड, as in पाई, a car- buncle. पिड, P. पिड, G. H. पीड, O. पिड, B. पिड or पिड. उड, G. पूड, P. उडि.
Skr. वृत्तिका earth,	Pr.	{ मत्तिआ or मट्टिआ, M. मांती, H. मट्टी or माटी, G. B. O. माटी. मिट्टिआ, G. H. P. मिट्टी, S. मिटी.
Skr. मातृका mother, Pr.	Pr.	{ माइआ, G. S. P. H. माइ or माई, G. H. माय, O. B. माई and माइया contracted to मेये, meaning 'a woman' generally. माउआ, S. P. H. माउ or माऊ. M. माय and G. P. H. B. O. मा are from Pr. माआ, Skr. माता.
Skr. भ्रातृकः brother, Pr.	Pr.	{ भाइओ, G. S. P. H. B. O. भाइ or भाई, भाउओ, M. S. P. भाउ or भाऊ.

As the Pali and the Prakrit alphabet, on account of these changes, has no ऋ, so do the vernacular alphabets not possess it. Sanskrit words containing the vowel have, however, been recently imported into the languages*, but since even in those words, it is not correctly pronounced except by a few learned men, it cannot be said really to exist in vernacular speech, notwithstanding the use of those words. The usual modern pronunciation of the vowel is र, रि, रु, or अर.

* कारि नाम केल वेदस्यासते आर्य B. Mahābhārata.

Another characteristic change we noticed in the Prakrits is the softening of **इ** and **उ** to **ए** and **ओ** before double consonants. A good many words so changed have descended to the vernaculars. Thus:—

[Table 5: Skr. **इ** and **उ** softened before conjuncts]

Skr. सिन्दूर: red lead, Pr. सिन्दूरो or सिन्दूरो, M. सेंदूर, H. सेंदूर, G. B. सिंदूर, S. सिंदुर.

Skr. शिखु: a kind of tree, Pr. शेगु or शिगु, M. शेगुल or शेगद.

Skr. पिण्ड: a ball, a bundle, Pr. पिण्डो or पेण्डो, M. पेंडा-पेंडी, H. P. पिंदा, G. पिंडो, S. पिंडो or पिंटी.

Skr. पुस्तकम् a volume, Pr. पोथओ, H. P. पोथा and पोथी, M. G. पोथी, S. पोथु and पोथी, O. पोथी, B. पुथी or पुती.

Skr. मृत्तुर: a mallet, Pr. मोगुरो, M. H. मोगरा, G. मोगर, S. मुक्तिरो, B. O. मुकर.

Skr. मूल्यम् value, Pr. मोलु, H. M. मोल, O. मूल, G. मूल.

Skr. मुस्ता a kind of grass, Pr. मोथ्या, M. मोथा in नागरमोथा, H. P. मोथा, S. G. मोथ, O. मुथा.

Skr. मुक्त: free, Pr. मोक्को, M. P. मोक in मोकळा, G. मोक in मोकळु, B. मोकल, O. मुकुळा.

Skr. कुक्षि: a side of the belly or abdomen, Pr. कोक्खी, H. कोख, P. कुक्ख or कोख, G. कुख, S. कुखि, M. कस, from Pr. कुच्छी.

Skr. गुच्छ: a bunch, Pr. गोच्छो, B. गुधि, गुठि, or गोळा, O. गोळ, M. गौस, H. P. गुच्छा, G. गुच्छो, S. छुगो (by transposition) or गोश.

Skr. कुष्ठम् white leprosy, Pr. कोष्ट, M. कोड, H. G. कोड, S. कोडु, B. कौड, कुड, or कुड, O. कोड or कुड.

Skr. कर्पर: elbow, Pr. कोप्परो, M. कौपर, G. कोपरिमु.

Skr. ह्यष्टा the trunk of an elephant, Pr. सोण्डा, M. सौंड, P. इंड, H. इंड or सौंड, G. सौंड, S. सौंडि, B. O. सौंड, O. शौंड ?

Skr. तुण्ड, mouth, Pr. तोण्ड, M. तौंड.

Skr. कुण्डम् a puddle, Pr. कोण्डे, M. कौंड, G. कुंडी, कुंडु.

Skr. मूय् foolish, Pr. मोय् or मोग, H. P. मोय, S. मौय, मौमो, M. मौय ?

Skr. मूय् a pot-belly, Pr. तोय्, H. P. तौय, M. दौय, G. इय.

The G. ओकरई 'to pronounce' from Skr. and Pr. उच्चार, ओळंगई 'to transgress' from Skr. Pr. उल्लङ्घ, G. ओकई, M. ओकणें, H. ओकना 'to vomit' from Pr. उग्गिर, Skr. उद्गिर, are also later instances of the operation of the same law.

50 [R. G. Bhandarkar's Works, Vol. IV].

The change of इ to ए is, according to the grammarians, optional in the Prakrits and that of उ to औ necessary. But in both cases we find two forms in the vernaculars. Still the prevailing forms in the latter are those in औ, while those in उ are rare, and mostly to be found in Bengali and Oriya, which languages, and more especially the first, have a predilection for उ, in which case it is possible they may have changed the Prakrit औ to उ.

In the Pali and Prakrits, the ए and औ in these cases are short; but the vernaculars, having dropped one of the following double consonants, have, according to a general rule to be noticed hereafter, lengthened the vowels. When instead of a double consonant, there is a conjunct of a nasal and a mute as in सेन्दूर and तौण्ड, the nasal consonant is reduced to a simple anusvāra or nasal sound, so as to give to the conjunct the character of a simple consonant, and the ए or औ is pronounced long as in सेन्दूर and तौण्ड. In this manner, though the Prakrit short ए and औ are, in the instances in which we possess an evidence of their existence, lengthened, I think in some of the vernaculars at least we have these vowels. For in a good many instances in Marathi and Gujarati ए and औ are pronounced short. There is a rule which in Marathi is almost universal, and in Gujarati often observable, in virtue of which the accent or the whole weight of the sound of a word falls on the final आ or ए of nouns in the former, and the final ओ or ऊ in the latter; and the preceding vowels are rendered short while in the original Sanskrit and in Hindi they are long. Thus :—

[Table 6 : Treatment of long vowels in Prakrit and
Modern Vernaculars]

Skr. कीटकः a worm, Pr. कीडओ, H. कीडा, M. फिडा.

Skr. कीलकः a nail, Pr. कीलओ, H. कीला, M. सिळा.

Skr. कुपकः a well, Pr. कुवओ, H. कुआ, G. कुवो.

Skr. चित्रकः leopard, Pr. चितओ, H. चीता, M. चिता, G. चितो.

Skr. बृडकः a bangle, Pr. बूडओ, H. बूडा, M. बुडा, G. बुडो.

Skr. बूर्णकः lime, Pr. बुणओ, H. बुना, M. बुना, G. बुनो.

And many more instances might be given. Similarly in Marathi the preceding long vowels are shortened when the terminations of the oblique cases are applied, as in भिकेस, पिकास, फिडीस,

विदास, उनास, खुकेस, छुडास, &c., dative singulars of भीक 'beggary,' पीक 'crop,' कीड 'a worm,' पीढ 'flour,' ऊन 'sun,' बूक 'hunger,' बूक 'molasses,' &c. If so, then by a necessary law of Marathi speech, the ए and ओ of गेला 'gone,' केला 'done,' मेळा 'a gathering,' जेवढा 'as much,' पेढा 'sweetmeat,' घोडा 'a horse,' कोळसा 'charcoal,' गोफा 'the ankle,' जोढा 'a pair,' &c., and of शेणास 'to cowdung,' शेतास 'to a field,' पेठेस 'to a market,' लेकरास 'to a child,' गोतास 'to a race,' चोरास 'to a thief,' पोरास 'to a boy,' &c., must be short. And if the Marathi speaker will compare his pronunciation of मेळ, शेत, शेण, गोत, पोर, &c., with that of मेळा, शेतास, शेणास, गोतास, पोरास, &c., he will find that the quantity of ए and ओ in these latter words is shorter than in the former. Similarly, in Gujarati the first ए and ओ of केवी 'how large,' चेली 'a mad man,' छेडो 'end,' मेढी 'an upper storey,' मेळी 'a gathering,' खाळी 'lap,' घोडो 'a horse,' खोखा *pl.* 'rice,' पोखो 'broad,' पोणा *pl.* 'three-quarters,' मोगरो 'jessamine,' कोळसो 'charcoal,' &c., must be short. In Gujarati the penultimate vowel of a monosyllabic root is, as in Hindi, shortened in the causal, as in लगवु 'to adhere,' लगवडु 'to cause to adhere,' 'join,' घावु 'to run,' घावडु 'to cause to run,' सीखु 'to learn,' सिखावु 'to teach,' सीवु 'to sew,' सिखावु 'to cause to sew,' बीहडु 'to fear,' बिहवाडु 'to terrify,' &c. But in Hindi the short vowels that take the place of ए and ओ are इ and उ, as in दिखाना 'to show' from देखना 'to see,' घुलाना 'to cause to wash' from धोना 'to wash,' &c. But in Gujarati the ए and ओ are not changed to इ and उ but remain, as in देखावु 'to show,' लेखावु 'to cause to take' from लेखु 'to take,' धोखावु 'to cause to wash' from धोवु 'to wash,' जोखावु 'to show' from जोवु 'to see,' &c, which they cannot do by the general rule if they are long. They must therefore be pronounced short. And as a matter of fact, it will be found that the Gujarati people in these and several other cases, give a short sound to these vowels. In the Malvani dialect of Marathi ओ is very often pronounced like the English *o* in *pot*, and ए like *e* in *pet*. In Bengali the ओ to which अ is converted in ordinary speech is also broad and short, and we have reason to believe that both ए and ओ when they really occur in words, are often pronounced short in that and the Bhojpuri and other dialects of Bihar and Mithilā.

It may be urged against one of the arguments I have used, that if the ए and ओ in शेतास and गोतास are short, the first अ in

हातास 'to the hand,' कानास 'to the ear,' &c., must also be short, and consequently these vowels must be changed to अ. But अ is not necessarily the short form of आ, or आ the long form of अ. For in pronouncing आ the lips and the upper and lower parts of the mouth are much more widely apart from each other than in pronouncing अ; so that the difference between the two is not simply of quantity but of quality also. The first आ of such words as हातास and मातला 'maddened,' is therefore short आ; that is, in pronouncing it, the vocal organs are in the same condition as in pronouncing long आ, but the time occupied is shorter than in the case of the latter. The अ that we have got in Sanskrit is short, but in most of the vernaculars we have a long अ which takes longer time to pronounce than the Sanskrit अ, while the condition of the vocal organs is the same. The final अ of words is silent in the vernaculars, but at the same time the vowel of the preceding syllable is lengthened. Thus गुण 'virtue' is, as a Sanskrit word, pronounced *gu-na*, but in Marathi and Gujarati it is *gūn*; and in Hindi *gūn*; Sanskrit गुड़ *gu-ḍa* 'molasses' is in Marathi *gūl*; Sanskrit तिल *ti-la* 'sesamum' is in Marathi and Gujarati *tīl* and Hindi *tīl*. In the same way, the word रथ is in Sanskrit pronounced *ra-tha*, but when in vernacular pronunciation it becomes *rath*, the *a* is not the short अ, but अ pronounced long, as if the word were *ra-ath* without a pause between the two *as*. The long अ and the short are found side by side in such a word as मदन, which as pronounced in Sanskrit is *madana* with three consonants each followed by the Sanskrit or short अ. In the modern languages, however, the first syllable has its अ as in Sanskrit, but that of the second is lengthened, and in the last it is dropped, and the word thus becomes *madaan*.

This peculiarity of softening इ and उ to ए and ओ has been preserved by the vernaculars. It is not necessary that a conjunct consonant should follow. Thus:—

[Table 7 : change of इ and उ short ए and ओ in
Modern Vernaculars.]

Hindustani

बिराना or बेराना to mock, from Skr. विहन्मन्.

बिहान or बेहान morning, from Skr. बिबामन्, Pr. बिहान्.

नवता invitation, from Pr. निमन्ता, Skr. निमन्त्र.

सोहर pleasing, from Skr. सुखकर, Pr. सुहजर.

सुहावन or सोहावन agreeable, from Pr. सुहावन for such a Sanskrit form as सुखापन.

मोहरा or मुहरा front or van-guard the first part of which is from Pr. मुह, Skr. मुख;

उखल or ओखल a wooden mortar, from Skr. उद्धूल.

Gujarati

मोह in मोहलું face, from Pr. मुह, Skr. मुख.

मोय ground, the M. and H. form being मुई.

ओर in ओरडा, Pr. उवरओ, Skr. उपरकः or अपवरकः; गोर a family priest from Skr. Pr. गुरु.

Marathi

मेहुण a couple, from Pr. मिहुण, Skr. मिथुनः वेदावर्णे to mock, Skr. विहम्बन; शेडी the lock of hair on the head, from Pr. शिखण्डिआ, Skr. शिखण्डिका; मोहरे or मोरे in front, of which माह is from मुह as above; ओबरी (dial.) from Pr. उवरओ as above; तिरडा or तेरडा a kind of flower.

Panjabi

बिह or बेह poison, from Pr. बिस, Skr. बिष; पिउ or पेउ father, for Pr. पिउओ, Skr. पितृकः; नेरडा invitation, from Pr. निमन्ता, Skr. निमन्त्र; मोहर van-guard, as above; ओढक end, from Pr. उद्धक, Skr. उद्धक.

Bengali

दोয়ার door, for Pr. दुआर; छोर a razor, for Pr. छुरओ, Skr. क्षुरकः; B. O. मोच mustache, for मुछ, Pr. मस्त, Skr. स्मश्रु; शोन or छुन to hear, for Pr. छज; शियाल or शेयाल a jackal, for Pr. सिआलौ, Skr. शृगालः.

The ए and ओ, to which इ and उ are thus reduced must be short, since there is no reason here why the quantity should be increased.

Of the instances in which long ई and ऊ are softened to long ए and ओ in the Prakrits, the vernaculars have retained the following:—

[Table 8: change of ई and ऊ to long ए and ओ]

Skr. विभीषक myrobalan, Pr. बहेडओ, M. बेहडा, G. बेहडू, H. P. बेहडा, S. बेहडो.

Skr. ताम्बूल betel leaf, Pr. तम्बोल, H. P. तम्बोल, M. तांबोळ, in तांबोळी a seller of betel leaves, G. तंबोळ in तंबोळी.

Skr. स्थूल, Pr. थोर, M. थोर.

More modern instances of this change are :—

[Table 9 : the same changes in more modern words]

H. लीसु or लेसु, B. लेसु, a lemon.

H. मूळ or मोळ mustache, Pr. मसु or मसु.

G. वेढे in that manner, from Skr. पीडिकया.

G. बेरई to scatter, from Pr. बिहर, Skr. विकिर.

G. खेचुं to pull, for H. खीचना.

O. भोक hunger, for the भुक or भुल of the others.

Of the few instances in which ह is softened to अ in the Prakrits, the vernaculars have retained हलङ्गा in the M. G. हलङ्ग, H. हलदी, O. हलदी and P. हलङ्गदी or हलङ्गी. Though पङ्कज्जा does not occur, still पङ्क which stands for प्रति in this word is preserved in several words, as M. पङ्कसाद् 'echo,' for Skr. प्रतिशब्द, पङ्कजीब 'the uvula' for Skr. प्रतिजिह्वा, पङ्कढाया or पङ्कसाबली, H. पङ्कडाई for Skr. प्रतिष्ठाया &c. No more instances of this change are given by the grammarians, but, as observed in the last lecture, the substitution of अ for ह or उ in one of the two or more places in which it occurs in some words indicates a tendency in the Prakrits towards this change. The vernaculars have got more instances. Thus:—

[Table 10 : ह changed to अ]

M. G. S. पारख examination, test, H. P. B. O. परख, Skr. परीक्षा, Pr. परिक्षा; also the verb पारखणें.

M. H. P. G. निरखणें-ना-जा-हुं to see closely, Skr. निरीक्षण, Pr. निरिक्खण.

M. H. G. बिलखणें-ना-हुं, P. बिलखरना to scatter, Skr. बिष्किर, Pr. बि-बिलख, (S. बिलखणं).

H. बहलना to divert, amuse, Skr. बिह्व.

H. भसुत holy ashes, Skr. बिभ्रति.

H. बहन, also बहिन, sister, Skr. भगिनी, Pr. भङ्गी; also बहरा or बहिर, Skr. बधिर, Pr. बाहिर.

H. पहरना or पहिरना, S. पराहण, B. परण, to wear, Pr. परिहाण, Skr. परिधान,

M. G. वण but, also. Pr. पुणो, Skr. पुनः.

M. H. जया an herd, Skr. ययकः.

P. पंडित a learned man, Skr. पण्डित.

P. सगन an omen, Skr. शकुन.

But in Gujarati the tendency has operated very widely, as will be seen from the following :—

[Table 11 : The same : उ or क or इ changed to अ in Gujarati]

G.	Skr. or Pr.	M. or H.
लखहुं to write....	लिख	H. लिखना.
खगडहुं to be spoilt.....	विषट	M. बिषडणें, H. बिगडना.
मळहुं to be got	मिल	M. मिळणें, H. मिलना.
वक्तो sale	विक्रय	M. विक्रा, H. विक्रा.
कठण difficult	कठिन	M. कठिण, H. कठिन.
धकासहुं to yawn	विकास	H. बिकसना.
तुळसी a kind of plant...	तुलसी	M. तुळसी, H. तुलसी.
माणस a man	मनुष्य	M. माणूस, H. मानूस.
नरो mere	{ Pr. नवरि Apabhr. निरु	H. निरा.
अजवाळो light.....	उज्ज्वाल	{ M. उजेड or उजवडे (dial.) H. उजियाळा.
मडहुं a corpse	सुत with ट	M. सुडवा.
बसहुं difficult ..	विषम	M. H. बिषम.
गळहुं to swallow	गिल	M. गिळणें.
सपणुं a dream	Pr. सिमिण, Skr. स्वप्न, H. सपना, M. सपन or स्वप्न.	
पडे one's self, bodily...	पिण्ड body	M. पिण्ड.
मस pretext.....	मिष	H. मिस, M. मिष.
चैता thought, anxiety...	चिन्ता	M. चिन्ता
गण virtue, quality.....	गुण	M. गुण, H. गुन.
मकण name of Kṛṣṇa, of a man.....	सुकुन्व	M. सुकुंव.
परशोत्तम	पुरुषोत्तम	M. पुरुषोत्तम.

And there are many other instances, such as करहुं 'to walk,' टकहुं 'to last,' and मरडहुं 'to twist,' the Marathi forms of which are किरणें, टिकणें, and मरडणें. Thus Sanskrit, Prakrit, and even foreign words such as माळूम 'known,' which becomes मालूम, change their इ or उ to अ. The Gujarati people have thus got a habit of careless pronunciation. After forming the contact necessary for

pronouncing a consonant, they emit the breath without compressing it at the palatal or labial position, and thus save the trouble of raising the middle of the tongue to the palate, or of rounding the lips.

Under the head of assimilation, the first characteristic vowel change observable in the Pali and the Prakrits which we have to notice, is that of the Sanskrit ऐ and औ to ए and ओ. Most of the nouns having ऐ and औ are in Sanskrit attributives formed from other nouns, and as these are formed in other ways in our language we cannot expect to find many instances of them. Still there are a good many, and enough to show that our vernaculars have inherited these Pali and Prakrit transformations of the Sanskrit ऐ and औ. Thus :-

[Table 12 : ऐ and औ changed to ए and ओ.]

Skr. गेरिक red chalk, Pr. गेरिअ, M. H. गेरु.

Skr. केवर्त्त pilot, Pr. केवट्ट, H. केवट.

Skr. तेल oil, Pr. तेह, M. G. H. तेह.

Skr. वैवाहिक parties to a marriage, Pr. वेवाहिअ, G. वेवइ, B. वेहाइ, M. (dial.) वेह.

Sk. शैबल moss, Pr. सेबल, M. शेबल, G. शेबाळ, H. शेबाल, B. शेबाला.

Skr. सैन्धव rock-salt, Pr. सेन्धव, H. P. सेंधा, M. सेंधे in सेंधेलोण, S. सेंधोळण.

Skr. वेदिकः learned in the Vedas, Pr. वेदिओ, G. वेदिओ.

Skr. सौभाग्य good fortune, husband's love, Pr. सोहण्य, H. B. O. सोहाय, -S. P. shorten the औ to उ, and H. also, optionally.

Skr. पौत्र son's son, Pr. पोत, P. पोत or पोत्ता, H. पोता, S. पोदो.

Skr. मोक्तिकम् a pearl, Pr. मोत्तिअं, M. मोर्ती G. S. P. H. मोर्ती.

Skr. वैद्यः, Pr. वेज्जो, S. वेजु.

Skr. गौरः, Pr. गोरो M. H. गोरा, S. गोरो.

The Sanskrit syllables अय and अज are, you will remember, often changed to ए and औ in the Pali and the Prakrits. The following instances of this change have come down to the vernaculars :-

[Table 13 : अय and अज changed to ए and औ]

M. ने to carry, H. ले, Pr. ने, Skr. न्य.

M. G. तेतीस thirty-three, H. तैतीस, P. तेती, B. तोरिस, O. तेतीश, Pr. तेतीसा, Skr. त्रयस्त्रिंशत्.

M. केठे a plantain, G. केहुँ, H. केला &c., Pr. केल for कयलं, Skr. कदलम्.

M. लोण salt, Pr. लोण, Skr. लवण; H. ओस dew, Pr. ओस्ताय, Skr. अवस्थाप.

M. ओणवा bent, Pr. ओणअ, Skr. अवनत.

M. G. ओलंबा a plumb, Pr. ओलम्बअ, Skr. अवलम्बकः.

M. बोर jujube fruit, Pr. बोर for बबर or बजर, Skr. बद्ध.

The Pali and the Prakrits on account of these changes lost the Sanskrit diphthongs ऐ and औ. But several of the vernaculars have got them back by combining the vowels अ and इ, and अ and उ, short or long, brought together by the elision of consonants in the Prakrits. A hiatus, which requires the intonated breath to be let off twice successively without being stopped or compressed, is mostly felt to be burdensome, and is in consequence avoided in several ways. Where the two vowels can combine into one sound, a diphthong is formed out of them. Thus ऐ and औ are combinations of अइ and अउ. In pronouncing these last, the breath has to be emitted twice, while in sounding the former, the same current is first let off through the position of अ, and afterwards through that of इ and उ. The first part of the diphthong is thus a very short अ, to which half a *mātrā*, as previously observed, has been allowed by the grammarians. The following are instances of this formation :—

[Table 14 : अ and इ combined into ऐ]

Skr. प्राविष्ट entered, Pr. पवइ, H. old M. पैडा.

Skr. उपविष्ट sit, Pr. उवइस, M. H. वैसजें-ना by the dropping of the initial उ.

Skr. उपविष्ट sat, Pr. उवइइ, H. P. वैडा.

Skr. सविर name of a tree, Pr. सवइर, M. P. H. सैर.

Skr. कपित्थ name of a tree, Pr. कवित्थ, H. कैथ by dropping इ.

Skr. बलीवर्द्ध a bull, Pr. बवइ, M. H. P. बैल.

Skr. तावृक्ष like that, Pr. ताविस, Apabh. तविस, M. H. P. तैसा.

Skr. महिषी a female buffalo, Pr. मविसी, M. वैस, H. वैस, P. मैड, or मैस.

Skr. भगिनी sister, Pr. भगणी, P. M. (dial.) भेण, H. वैम (more commonly बहिन.)

Skr. ब्रह्मस्वति a certain god, Pr. बिहष्कई, H. बिक्.

Skr. मलिन dirty, Pr. मडल, H. P. मैल, old M. मैळ.

Skr. पवित्रक holy thread, Pr. पवितअ, B. पैता.

In this manner the Hindi, Marathi and Panjabi combine अ and इ or ई into ऐ. Sometimes the ऐ so formed is dropped by the Marathi, and we have optionally बसयें for बैठणें, मडल for म्हेल, and लला for लेला. Bengali, and Oriya have बस for बैठ. The former has बैठ in addition, so that these languages also seem to have once formed ऐ out of the two vowels.

[Table 15 : अ and उ combined into औ]

Skr. मुकुट a chaplet, Pr. मउड, H. P. मोडा, B. O. मउड.

Skr. चतुर्थ fourth, Pr. चउत्थ, M. H. P. चौथा, O. चौथ.

Skr. चतुष्क a square, Pr. चउक, M. H. P. चौक. Similarly other compounds of चतुर्; as चौरस, चौकोन, चौमास &c., B.O.S. also have चौ.

Skr. ज्येष्ठपुत्र the son of an elder brother, Pr. जेष्ठउत्त, H. जेडौत्त.

Skr. मधुमक्षिका a bee, Pr. मडुमक्षिआ, H. मौमाखी by dropping इ.

Skr. बह्व a girl, a daughter-in-law, Pr. बहु, O. बौ.

When sometimes the Prakrits combined अ and इ or अ and उ, they formed ऐ and औ out of them. For, as we have seen, the passage from one position to another in the same breath was impossible to the speakers of the Prakrits and the Pali. Thus we have मोर for मउर, Skr. मपर; येर for यउर, Skr. रयविर; चौत्थ for चउत्थ, Skr. चतुर्थ; चौगुल for चउगुल, Skr. चतुर्थल &c.

Similarly अव and अव form ऐ and औ in the vernaculars. When final अ of व and व is not pronounced, these semi-vowels easily pass into इ and उ which with the previous अ form those diphthongs :—

[Table 16 : अव changed to ऐ]

Skr. मदन god of love, Pr. ममअ or मवअ, H. मैम.

Skr. रजनी night, Pr. रजनी or रवनी, H. P. रैन.

Skr. मयन the eye, H. मैम, P. मैम.

Skr. भव fear, H. P. भै.

Skr. जय victory, H. P. जे.

Skr. शत a hundred, Pr. सज or सय, H. P. से.

Skr. वचन speech, Pr. वज्ज or वयज, H. देन.

The Marathi does not follow the Hindi and Panjabi here. For, according to the modern way of pronunciation as observed before, the final ज of words not being pronounced, the vowel of the preceding syllable is lengthened. The ज of the first syllable of जय and जय being thus long, prevents the formation of ऐ; while that of य being so in such words as यय that semivowel is not reduced to इ, and hence we have no ऐ. But these obstacles are set aside in the Hindi and the Panjabi, the tendency to form the diphthongs being strong. When however, the Marathi was in a state of formation it retained the Prakrit peculiarity and changed the syllable जय to ऐ, as in हो for शतज. जे (old) for जय, ऐ of neuter nouns such as केले and ताम्बे for the अय of the Prakrit केल्य and तम्बय, के and ने of केला and गेला for the Prakrit कय and गय, &c. This change is due to a weakened pronunciation of य. In modern times even य is often sounded like ऐ. For, in producing these two sounds the middle of the tongue being raised, the forepart falls lower than in sounding इ. When, therefore, in pronouncing य the middle is not raised sufficiently high, the sound becomes ऐ and not इ, because this requires the forepart also to be raised higher.

Thus in the following instances जय forms औ:—

[Table 17 : जय changed to औ]

Skr. चक्षु white, Pr. चक्ष, H. P. चीला, M. चक्षला.

Skr. नवशिक्षित newly learned, Pr. नवसीक्षित, H. नौसित, M. नौशिका or नवशिका.

Skr. गृह a dwelling, Pr. गृह, H. ग्रीह P. ग्रीह.

Skr. कण्ठ a mouthful, Pr. कण्ठ, H. कौर or कील.

Skr. गवनीत butter, Pr. गवनीत, H. गौनी, P. गौनी, M. लोनी from the Pr. गौनीत.

Skr. वज्ज bowing, Apabh. वज्ज, H. वीजा, P. गीजा, M. लवजे.

Skr. लज्ज cutting, Pr. लज्ज, H. लौजा.

Skr. वपुर्षिका a shell, Pr. वपुर्षुजा, H. P. M. वीरी, M. ववडी also.

Skr. सवती, a fellow-wife, Pr. सवती, H. सौत, M. सवत.

Skr. व्रजर a bee, Apabhr. ववर. H. P. बौरा, M. बीवरा from another derivative of व्रज.

Skr. सवर्ष to deliver, Apabhr. सवष्य, H. सौपना, P. सौपना, M. सौपने.

Here the Panjabi and the Hindi agree perfectly; but the Marathi is not decided, sometimes changing the syllable to औ but more often, for the reasons given in the case of अय, retaining it as it is in the original, the अव, however, being pronounced like अव in some cases, and अव with long final अ in others. Hindi and Panjabi similarly treat आइ or आई and आय, and आउ or आऊ and आव, while the Marathi here completely parts from them. For the आ in these syllables is too strong a sound for the Marathi ear to pass off into the very short अ of half a mātrā. Even the Hindi preserves आय unchanged in a good many cases, as बाय for Pr. बाय, Skr. वात 'wind.'

[Table 18: आइ or आय changed to ऐ in certain Vernaculars only]

Skr. पाद foot, Pr. पाअ or पाय, H. P. पै in पैर foot, पैदल foot-soldiers, पैकड़ shackles, &c., M. पाय in पायदल foot-soldiers, पायरी a step.

Skr. कायस्थ name of a caste, Pr. कायस्थ, H. कैथ in कैथ name of the characters prevalent in some parts of Northern India.

Skr. नाविक a boatman, Pr. नाविक, H. नैवा by dropping इ as H. usually does and reducing नाविक to नैव.

Skr. ज्ञातिवृद्ध a woman's family of birth, Pr. नाइहर, H. नैहर.

[Table 19: आऊ or आव changed to औ in certain Vernaculars only]

Skr. भ्रातृजाया brother's wife, Pr. भाउजाआ, H. भौजाई, M. भावजाई, S. भाजाई.

Skr. मातृव्यसृका mother's sister, Pr. माउसिया, H. मौसी, N. मावही, S. P. मासी.

Skr. बातुल under the influence of wind, mad, Pr. बाऊल, H. P. बीरा, M. बावला, O. बाउला, B. बाउला, S. बांविरो.

Skr. स्वापद् a prey, a beast of chase, Pr. सावज, H. सीजा, M. सावज.

Skr. वामन a dwarf, Apabhr. वावन, H. बीना, P. बीणा, B. वाउनिया.

Skr. पादोन three-quarters, Pr. पाओन or पाऊन, H. पीने, P. पीणिजा.

There are a few instances in Hindi such as पेरना, from Pr. पहर 'to sow' Skr. पतिर; पतिर 'nature.' Pr. पउति, Skr. प्रकृति; पत्नी 'son's wife' Pr. पुसवह. Skr. पुत्रवह; मासो 'name of a month', Pr. मइवज,

Skr. भावपद &c., in which अइ forms ए, and अउ and अओ, ओ; but it will appear that the prevailing rule in that language and in the Panjabi is to change these vowels and semi-vowels into ऐ or औ. The Braj dialect of Hindi is thoroughly consistent in this respect, having ऐ and औ even in its grammatical terminations, as कौ for High H. का, करे for करे, करै for करे, करौ for करो, &c. The Marathi agrees with these dialects perfectly only as respects अ + इ and अ + उ; and the Bengali and Oriya, if we look to the few traces, that they have retained of these Prakrit syllables, seem to agree with the Marathi. But the Gujarati has throughout ए and ओ for the Hindi and Panjabi ऐ and औ; and the Sindhi follows the Gujarati a great way. The Gujarati and Sindhi forms of the words occurring in tables 14-19, are as follows:—

[Table 20: ए, ऐ, ओ and औ in the different Vernaculars]

H.	G.	S.	II.	G.	S.
पेठा	पेठा	पेठो	अ	अ	
बेसना	बेसनुं		से	से in सेंकड़ा	
बैठा	बैठो		बैन	बैन	बेणु
खेर	खेर		मोड़ा	मोड़	मोड़
बैल	बैल		चौथा	चाथो	चोथा &c.
भैस	भैस	मैंहि	चोक	चोक	चोक, चौपैरो
भिन (P. भण)	बैन	भणु, भण	चारस	चारस &c.	
भल	भल	भरो-भल	धोला	धाळो	धोरो
भैन	भैन		कोडी	कोडी	कोडी
रैन	रैन		सांत	सांक	
नैन	भैन	भणु	सांपना	सांपहु	सांपहु
भे	भे		पदल	पेदल	
	H.			G.	
	भोजाई			भोजाई	
	पाने			पोणा	

The Gujarati has ए or ओ even in words of a foreign origin where the other languages have ऐ or औ; as:—

[Table 21: Gujarati ए or ओ for foreign ऐ or औ]

H.	G.	H.	G.
वेदा करना	वेदा करहुं	मैदान	मेदान
दालत	दांतत	कोज	कोज

Similarly, though a few Sanskrit words containing ऐ and औ do occur in Gujarati dictionaries, these diphthongs are generally pronounced like ए and ओ as in जन for जैन 'a follower of the Jaina sect,' नर for नैर 'enmity', &c. The Gujarati, therefore, like the old Prakrits combines अय and अव and अइ and अउ into ए and ओ, and since it did not receive the diphthongs ऐ and औ from the old Prakrits, its alphabet really does not contain them. As observed before, the syllables अइ and अउ differ from ऐ and औ only in two currents of breath being emitted instead of one, in other respects they are alike, both the vowel sounds being contained in the diphthongs. Those syllables as well as अय and अव should, therefore, naturally pass into those diphthongs as involving the least possible change. If, notwithstanding, the Gujarati people make ए or ओ out of them, and also give those forms to the ऐ and औ of Sanskrit and foreign words, it must be so, because their vocal organs are in this respect in the same condition as those of their Pali and Prakrit ancestors. On the other hand, the Hindi, and especially the Braj form of it, presents the old Aryan tendency of pronouncing the diphthongs in somewhat exaggerated form; while the other dialects take up a position between these two in this respect.

Of the words in which an open vowel is changed to one more close, and an approach towards an assimilation to a consonant is thus effected, the vernaculars have preserved the following:-

[Table 22 • Change of vowels and assimilation of Consonants]

Skr. पक्व ripe, Pr. पिक्कं or पक्कं, M. पिक्के, G. पाक्क, H. P. पक्का, S. पको, B. पाका, O. पक्का or पाक in पाकला.

Skr. अङ्गारः ember, Pr. इङ्गालो or अङ्गारो. M. (dial.) ईगळ, इगळो, M. अंगारा, the rest अंगार.

Skr. ललाटम् forehead, Pr. लिटालं or लटालं, M. लिटळ, S. निराडु,

Skr. दक्षम्, Pr. दिण्णं, H. दिन, P. दिता.

Skr. कन्दुकः a ball, Pr. केन्दुओ, H. मेंदा, P. मेंद, M. मेंद.

Skr. अय, Pr. एय, M. एय.

In a great many more instances, अ is thus changed in the vernaculars, and not only before conjuncts as is mostly the case in the Prakrits, but before simple consonants also.

[Table 23 • changed to in Sindhi]

S.	Skr. or Pr.	M.
कीड़ाणी a tale	कथानिका—कहानिया	कहाणी.
हड्डिरो a mallet	हड्डरः—मोमरो	मोमर.
साँबिरो dark	स्यामलः—सामलो	साँबळा.
बजिरछु to be lit up	प्रज्वलन—पज्जलण	बाजळवें.
पखिराछु a topaz	पुष्कराज	
बिसिरछु to forget	विस्मरण—विस्तरण	दिसरवें.
बिअिछु a fan	व्यजन	बिज्या.
सिण a moment	क्षण—सण	
सिमा forgiveness	क्षमा—समा	
बधिरछु to melt	प्रगलन	बगळवें.
पिँछलो lame	पङ्गु with छ	पाँनळा.
बिअिरो a cage	पजर	पिजरा.
दिपिरे the pipal tree	विप्ल	पिपळ.
लिलाडु the forehead	ललाट	ललाट.
वीरिलो rare	विरलः	विरळ.
H.	P.	Skr. or Pr.
छिन a moment	छिन	क्षणः or सणो
कवाड door	कवाड	कपाटम्—कवाड M. कवाड
दिम्भ vanity		दम्भः M. ईम
मिनना to count	मिथना	M. मज्जवें
	दिम्भ or दम्भ	दम्भः दम्भी H. डाम
पिचलना to melt	पिचलना	प्रपलनम् M. पगळवें
डिलना to move	डिलना	डलनम् ? M. डालवें
पिँचना to Cook	पिण्डना	रन्धनम् M. राँचवें
सिमा or सिमा forgive- ness	सिमा	क्षमा
पिजरा a cage	पिजरा	पजर G. पाँजरे
जीमना to eat		जमनम् G. जमवें
बिंवा or बाँका crooked	बिंवा	बक्र—बंक M. बाँक
M.	Skr. or Pr.	
सिण (dial.)	क्षण—सण	
पिजरा as above		
मिरी	ममि—मद	H. मर.
B.	Skr.	
पजरा as above, O. also		
काडिम tortoise	कपटप	M. कलव
काहिनी a tale	कथानिका	M. कहाणी

The Sindhi has the largest number of instances, and this change of अ to इ constitutes a peculiarity of that language. The Hindi has got a good many, and the Panjabi follows it in almost all cases. Marathi has but a few stray instances, but sometimes, as in शिवणे 'to touch'. H. छूना, Skr. छुप, but Pr. छिब, and in मिश्री, इ takes the place of उ also.

The Gujarati has पिगलई for प्रगलनइ and ईण्डु 'an egg', for अण्डकम् but not many more cases. Bengali and Oriya have also but few instances, and even in most of these, and in those of the Marathi as well as in the Hindi पिंजरा and जीमना, the इ may be regarded as arising from the influence of the neighbouring palatal consonant.

The following are instances in which अ, and in one case आ, are changed to ए :—

[Table 24 : अ and आ changed to ए]

H. मेंडुक or मेडुक, P. मेंडुक, G. मेंडक, M. बेडूक, Skr. मण्डूक.

H. सेंबल or सेमल, M. शेवरी or सांवरी, Skr. शात्मली, Pr. सामरी or सिम्बली.

H. नेबना to bow, P. नेउणा, M. लवणे, Skr. नमन.

H. बेबल a mongoose, P. नेउल, Skr. नकुल, Pr. मउल.

H. जेबना to eat, P. जेउणा, M. जेवणे, G. जमई, Skr. जमन.

M. उंजेइ light, Pr. उजाल, Skr. उज्ज्वल.

M. शेण cowdung, G. छण, Skr. शक्ता instr. sing.

M. डेवणे to keep, Skr. स्थापन, Pr. ठावण.

G. केइई to sell, सेइई to endure, रेइई to dwell, &c., before इ followed by अ, for कथ, सह, &c.

But even here the इ of the Marathi शेवरी, शेण, जेवणे, and उंजेइ, as of the Hindi जेबना, may be attributed to the influence of the preceding palatal.

In the Prakrits there are two instances of the change of अ to उ, viz., डुई and खुडिओ for Skr. चण्ड 'fierce' and साण्डित 'plucked out'. The latter we have in the vernaculars in the form of खुट M. G., खुटि S. 'deficiency' सोट H., सोड M. 'blemish' and खुटणे or खुटणे M., खुटना H., खुटई G. 'to pluck out', or खुटई G. 'to be deficient'. The Bengali changes अ to उ in a good many cases.

[Table 25: 3T changed to 3* in Bengali]

B.	Skr. or Pr.	M. or H.
हलद turmeric	हरिद्रा-हलद्रा	हलद M.
आग्न fire	आग्नि-अग्नी	आग M.
ब्राह्मन् Brahman	ब्राह्मण-ब्रह्मण	बामण.
स्थान to place	स्थापन-ठावण	ठेवणें M.
शिल्प the silk-cotton tree	शाल्मली-सामरी	सेमल H., शेवरी or सांचरी M.
उत्तर a pond	उष्कर-पोखर	पोखर H.
खट्वर a mallet	सुह्र-मोगर	मोगरा M.

And where the Sanskrit or the sister dialects have ओ, the Bengali has उ as in the following words:—

[Table 26 : Skr. ओ changed to उ in Bengali]

- B. चुरि theft, Skr. चोरिका, M. H. चोरी.
 B. सुखि a shoemaker, M. H. मोची.
 B. डालि a cake, Skr. पोलिका or पुलिका. M. पाळी.
 B. लुडी a girl, G. छोडी.
 B. पुडन burning, M. पोळणें.
 B. खुदन digging, H. खोदना, M. खोदणं.
 B. खोजन searching, H. खोजना.

Thus उ, whether for अ or ओ, is a characteristic of the Bengali; But this characteristic is very likely connected with another which distinguishes the Bengali language, viz., to pronounce the non-final अ in all cases as a short and broad ओ like that in the English word *pot*. I have observed before that the assimilation of vowels to consonants might be effected by narrowing the passage of the breath by an upward movement of the tongue near the palatal position, or by rounding the lips. Which of these modes is resorted to, depends on the peculiar vocal tendencies of a people. Thus then, to change अ to ए or इ is a peculiarity of the Sindhi, the Panjabi, and the Hindi, and to short ओ and उ of the Bengali

The following Prakrit instances of the assimilation of the different vowels of a word have come down to the vernaculars:—

[Table 27 : Assimilation of different vowels of a word]

M. G. P. बेल a creeper, H. P. बेल, Pr. बेह्लो, Skr. बह्लि, S. बलि, Pr. बह्लो.

M. ऊँस sugarcane, H. ऊँस, Pr. उच्छ, Skr. इच्छ. H. has इस also, and P. इक्क.

H. P. S. सेज a bed, M. G. होज, Pr. सेजा, Skr. शय्या.

M. मिर्च, S. मिरी pepper, Pr. मिरिअ, Skr. मरिचक.

M. ओपणें to give over, assign, Pr. ओप्प, Skr. अर्प.

There are a few modern instances as in:—

[Table 28 : the Assimilation of vowels]

S. मेहि a buffalo, Pr. महिस.

H. इम्ली tamarind tree, Skr. अम्लिका.

H. P. लोहू blood, Pr. लोहिअ, Skr. लोहित.

H. जुगन a glow-worm, Pr. जोइगण, Skr. ज्योतिरिगण.

H. तिरिच्छ askance, Pr. तिरिच्छ Skr. तिरिअ in तिरिअः, तिरिअा &c.

P. उँछ or उँछी a finger, Skr. अङ्गुलि.

Examples of the change of अ to इ or ए under the influence of a palatal consonant have been given in Table 24.

Of the words in which one of two similar vowels is made dissimilar or changed to अ in the Prakrits the vernaculars have preserved the following:—

[Table 29 : Dissimilation of vowels]

Skr. विभीतक, Pr., &c., as in table 8.

Skr. इरीक्री myrobalan, Pr. इरकई, M. इरकी, S. इरीइ.

Skr. मुकुट a crown, Pr. मउडी, H. मोड, G. मोड.

Skr. बुकुल a bud, Pr. मउलो, P. मोल in मोलना to bud.

Skr. सिधिल्ल loose, Pr. सडिल्ल or सिडिल्ल, M. सडळ in the sense of 'loose of hand' or 'liberal', H. B. O. डिला, S. डिरो or डरो, G. डीह. In these the first syllable स is elided.

Sindhi has डिलिडो also for सिडिल्ल in which the last two consonants have interchanged places, and ड is changed to इ.

Modern instances of this change are:—

[Table 90: Dissimilation of Vowels]

M. उंदीर a rat, G. उंदर, H. B. O. इंदुर, Skr. उन्दुर.

H. B. नूनी nipple, Skr. नूनुकन.

H. गेहूँ, बेऊँ, or मोहूँ wheat, P. बेऊँ, G. चऊँ, M. गहूँ or गंघ, B. गम, O. गहम, Skr. गीहम.

P. रोहू a kind of fish, for रोहु, Skr. रोहित.

G. मुगट a crown, S. मुकिहु or मुटिहु, P. मुकट, M. मुयट, Skr. मुकुट.

H. महरत an auspicious time, Skr. मुहूर्त.

P. G. कुटंब family, Skr. कुटुम्ब.

P. परोहित priest, Skr. उरोहित.

H. पतोहू for पुतोहू a son's wife, Pr. पुतवहू, Skr. पुत्रवध.

H. सपूत, Pr. सपुत, Skr. सपुत्र.

H. P. पुरखा an ancestor, Skr. पुरुष.

M. हुंचल, Skr. हुचल.

H. P. जनेऊ, from जणोऊज, Pr. जणोचईज ?, Skr. यज्ञोपवीत.

Here, as well as in the Prakrits, one of the two similar vowels is oftener changed to अ than to इ or उ.

In the Prakrits, you will remember, there are a few instances in which the vowels of the different syllables composing a word exchange places, or the close vowel of one is transferred to another. Of these the M. has विण्डू 'scorpion', H. and P. विण्डु, S. विहुँ and B. and O. विडर. There are a good many more modern instances.

[Table 31: Transposition of Vowels]

H. अकेला alone, Pr. एकल्लज.

H. उंगली a finger, Skr. अङ्गुली.

H. P. मौत death, from such a Pr. form as मउ, Skr. मृतु; the उ being transferred to the preceding syllable, forms मौ with अ; G. मोत.

H. हीले slowly, from Pr. हल्ल, Skr. ललु.

P. कौडा bitter, from Pr. कडुज, Skr. कटुक.

H. M. & इंद, G. P. इंद, Skr. विण्डु, the इ transferred to the second

syllable being dropped in virtue of a general law to be presently noticed in the Vernaculars.

H. G. मूढ mustache, S. मुड, P. मुच्छ, B. O. मोच, Pr. मस्त्र, Skr. रसमु.

H. हिरन a deer, Skr. हरिण.

H. सेंघ, B. O. सिंघ a hole made in a wall by a thief, Skr. लोधि.

G. केड the waist, Skr. कटि.

G. वीरस्तहु to distribute food, from Skr. परिषेव.

G. बनेबी sister's husband, बने for बेन sister, Pr. बइणी, and बी for बई, Skr. पाति.

B. शोल a dart, from Skr. शाल्य, the श arising from the softening of ष, being transferred to श.

P. उर above, Skr. उपरी.

M. ओंजळ a cavity made by joining the hands, from the word अंजुळी existing in old Marathi, and अंजुली existing in H. made up on the analogy of the Skr. अङ्गुलि.

M. हिरवा green, from Skr. हरित or हरितक.

M. चोंच a beak, M. (dial.) and B. टोंच, Skr. चञ्चु.

Of the Prakrit words with a syllable lengthened or shortened through the influence of an accent of some sort, the vernaculars have preserved a few words. Thus —

[Table 32 : Shortening of syllables through accent]

M. पाडवा the 1st day of the moon's increase, Pr. पाडिचो, Skr. प्रतिपद्. H. has the form with short प, पडिवा.

M. सारिका like, Pr. सारिच्छो or सारिक्खो ?, Skr. सदृशः.

M. हल्या a buffalo used for ploughing, Pr. हलिओ; H. P. हाली one who ploughs, Pr. हालिओ, Skr. हालिक.

H. गहिरा deep, Pr. गहिरा, Skr. गभीरः.

G. कुंवर, H. कुंवर or कुंअर, Pr. कुमरो, Skr. कुमार.

ACCENT IN MODERN VERNACULARS

In modern vernacular pronunciation, there is a law of accentuation, which has produced important results. The penultimate syllable of a word is, in all our dialects, pronounced with a stress,

the tendency of which is to lengthen that syllable and drop the final vowel. In most of them, this tendency has worked itself out thoroughly. The preceding vowel, however, is not always written long, but still the long or at least the emphasized pronunciation does exist. I have already given instances* in which while the final अ is silent or dropped, the इ or उ of the preceding syllable is lengthened, and have shown that when that syllable has अ, it also is pronounced long though not changed to आ. The final इ or उ of Sanskrit words, recently imported into the languages, have been dropped in virtue of this law of accentuation. Thus :—

[Table 33 : Skr. final इ dropped through accent]

M. H. G. पद्धत method, mode, Skr. पद्धति.

M. H. G. P. गत condition, Skr. गति.

M. G. विपत्त, H. P. विपत्त misery, Skr. विपत्ति.

M. H. P. G. B. रीत manner, Skr. रीति.

M. H. G. P. B. जात species, caste, Skr. जाति.

M. H. कीर्त, H. G. P. कीर्तन fame, Skr. कीर्ति.

M. H. P. G. रास a heap, Skr. राशि.

M. H. P. उपाध injury, annoyance, Skr. उपाधि.

M. H. P. G. नीत morality, Skr. नीति.

H. P. कव a poet, Skr. कवि.

M. G. वस्त, H. P. वस्त a thing, Skr. वस्तु.

H. P. साध a good man, Skr. साधु.

M. G. H. P. मध honey, Skr. मधु.

Bengali and Oriya authors hardly represent the proper vernacular pronunciation. Such words as the above, therefore, do not occur, but probably they do exist. In Sindhi, however, here as well as in other instances to be given, the tendency of this law of accentuation is but partially realised, and such of the above words, as exist in that language, preserve their Sanskrit endings; as राहि or राति, जाति, रीति &c. Not only does this law characterise the vernacular speech of the day, but it must have been in operation for centuries, since the old Prakrit words, which like the above, have not recently been imported, but have descended

to the modern languages from the spoken dialects of ancient times, have also been similarly changed. Thus:—

[Table 34: preceding vowels lengthened through accent]

M. B. बूक, H. G. B. बूख, P. भुक्ख, O. भोक hunger, P. बूख्खना, Skr. बूख्ना.

M. H. P. G. जीम, B. O. S. जिम tongue, Pr. जिम्मा, Skr. जिह्वा.

H. P. सेज, M. G. शेज, S. शेज-सेजा a bed, Pr. सेज्जा, Skr. शय्या.

M. मीक, H. G. भीख, P. भिक्ख or मीख, B. O. भिक् alms, Pr. भिक्खा, Skr. भिक्षा.

M. नीज, H. P. नीद, S. निड sleep, Pr. निद्धा, Skr. निद्रा.

M. सौंड, H. सूंड, G. सुंड, P. सुंड, B. O. सूंड, S. सूँडि, trunk of an elephant, Pr. सोण्डा, Skr. सुण्डा.

M. G. दाड, H. डाड, S. डाठ a jaw, a grinder, Pr. दाढा, Skr. दंष्ट्रा.

H. P. सेन, S. सैण, G. सान a sign, Pr. सण्णा, Skr. संज्ञा.

H. S. साध, B. साध or साध, O. साध wish, longing, Pr. सद्धा, Skr. श्रद्धा.

M. G. धळ, H. धल, S. धुडि, B. O. धला dust, Pr. धलि, Skr. धलि.

M. H. G. आग, P. आग, or आगन, B. आगुन, S. आगि fire, Pr. अग्गी or अगिणी, Skr. अग्नि.

M. H. दीड sight, Pr. दिडि, Skr. दृष्टि.

M. बहिज or भेज, P. भेज, H. बहिन, बहन, or बेन, G. बेन, S. भेज or भेज, B. बोन sister, Pr. भहणी, Skr. भगिनी.

M. म्हेस, H. मँस, G. मँस, P. मँइ or मँस, S. मँडि a buffalo, Pr. महिती, Skr. महिषी.

H. P. कोख, G. कुख, M. कूख, S. कुखि a side of the abdomen, Pr. कुखिख, Skr. कुक्षि.

H. B. रेन, G. रेन night, Pr. रयणी, Skr. रजनी.

M. सपत, H. सौत, G. सोक a fellow wife, Pr. सपणी, Skr. सपत्नी.

M. खाज, H. खान a mine, Pr. खाणी, Skr. खनि or खानि.

M. H. P. G. B. O. रात, S. राति night, Pr. रत्ती, Skr. रात्रि.

M. G. P. वेळ, H. P. वेळ, S. वलि a creeping plant, Pr. वेल्ली, Skr. वलि.

H. सात, P. सप्त, M. G. साद्ध, S. सद् mother-in-law, Pr. सद्ध, Skr. श्वश्रू.

M. G. बीज, P. बिज्ज, S. बिज्ज lightning, Pr. बिज्ज, Skr. बिज्ज.

M. ऊस, H. ऊस or ईस, P. इस्स, Pr. उच्छ, Skr. इह.

H. G. आँख, P. अक्ख, S. अखि, B. O. आखि the eye, Pr. अखि, Skr. अक्षि.

M. G. B. O. हाड, H. हाड, इडु, or इडुी, P. इडु or इडुी, S. इडु or इडुी, Pr. इडु, Skr. इत्थि.

M. इत्थी, H. G. इत्थीन, Pr. इत्थिनी, Skr. इत्थिनी.

Here also the Sindhi preserves the old endings in some cases, and has dropped them in others. In this manner, the final अ, इ, ई, उ and ऊ of Sanskrit and Prakrit nouns have been dropped in the vernaculars or changed to a silent अ.

Final ओ is similarly treated. Even in the Apabhramśa period, this rule of accentuation must have prevailed, since the ending vowels are similarly shortened in a good many cases. You will remember that the Prakrit ओ of the nominative singular of masculine nouns is mostly shortened to उ in that dialect, and sometimes altogether dropped. The modern vernaculars have thus got a great many masculine nouns ending in the silent अ, such as हात or हाथ 'hand', कान 'ear', दाँत 'tooth', पीट 'bold', बड़ 'the Bunyan tree', &c. But as before, the Sindhi has in all these cases preserved the उ; as इडु, कडु, इडु, डीडु, बडु, &c.

When the final vowel is preceded by another and not by a consonant as in the words just mentioned and in others given in the above lists, that other vowel being accented by our rule shows a tendency to become long, and the original unaccented final being dropped, the accented vowel becomes final. Thus:—

[Table 35: Penultimate vowels lengthened and made finals through accent]

Skr. मोक्षिक a pearl, Pr. मोक्षिअ, M. मोली, G. S. P. H. मोली.

Skr. पानपिप water, Pr. पानिअ, M. G. पानी, H. पानी.

Skr. श्रुषिका a flowering bush, Pr. श्रुषिआ, M. H. G. झड़ी or सुई, H. झड़ी.

Skr. घोडिका a mare, Pr. घोडिआ, M. G. H. P. घोडी.

Skr. शाटिका a garment, Pr. साडिआ, M. G. H. साडी.

Skr. **भूमिका** earth, Pr. भूमिआ, मडिआ or मिडिआ, M. माती, H. मट्टी as in table 4, all ending in ई.

Skr. **ताम्बूलिकः** a seller of betel-nut, Pr. and Ap. तम्बूलिओ-उ, M. तांबोळी, G. तंबोळी, H. तंबोली.

Skr. **तेलिकः** a seller of oil, Pr. and Ap. तेलिओ-उ, M. तेली.

Skr. **हालिकः** a peasant, Pr. हालिओ, Ap. हालिउ, H. हाली, S. हारी.

Skr. **नापितः** a barber, Pr. and Ap. न्हाबिओ-उ or नाबिओ-उ, M. न्हापी, H. नाई.

Skr. **वृश्चिकः** a scorpion, Pr. बिच्छुओ, Ap. बिच्छुउ, M. बिंचू, H. P. बिच्, S. बिछु, B. O बिछा.

Skr. **घृत्** ordure, Pr. छओ, छुउ, M. H. G. घू.

Skr. **युगम्**, Pr. जुअ, M. जू.

Skr. **यक्षा** a louse, Pr. जूआ, H. P. G. जु, M. ऊ.

Skr. **वाटिका** an enclosure, Pr. वाटिआ or वाडिआ, M. G. H. वाडी, B. वाटी.

Skr. **बीटिका** a roll of betel leaf, &c., Pr. बीडिआ, M. बिडी, G. बिडी, H. बीडी.

Skr. **सूचिकः** a tailor, Pr. सूचिओ, Ap. सूचिउ, H. सूजी.

Skr. **मासिका** a fly, Pr. मसिआ or मसिआ, M. माशी, G. H. मासी, माडी.

Skr. **जीवः** life, Pr. जीओ, Ap. जीउ, H. जी.

Skr. **लोहितम्** blood, Pr. लोडिअ, G. लोही, H. P. लोहू.

Skr. **जलौका** a leech, Pr. जलोआ, M. जलू, H. जलू, G. जळो.

Skr. **बालुका** sand, Pr. बालुआ, M. G. बालू, H. बालू.

Skr. **पिन्कः**, **मान्का**, and **ब्राम्कः** as in tables 3 and 4.

Thus then the Sanskrit Prakrit penultimate vowels become final in the vernaculars, and being originally accented in consequence of the law we have been considering, retain that accent in most cases, and are thus lengthened. When the penultimate happens to be अ it is lengthened to आ as in the following :—

[Table 36: Penultimate accented अ changed to आ]

Skr. **घोटकः** a horse Pr. घोडओ, Ap. घोडउ, M. H. P. B. O. घोडा.

Skr. **पारदः** mercury, Pr. पारओ, Ap. पारउ, M. H. P. B. O. पारा.

Skr. **आमलकः** a kind of myrobalan, Pr. आमलओ, Ap. आबेलउ, M. आबळा, H. P. आबळा or आमला.

Skr. आमातकः hog-plum, Pr. अम्माडओ ?, Ap. अम्माडड, M. आमाडा, H. अंमाडा.

Skr. विभीतकः heleric myrobalan, Pr. वहेडओ, Ap. वहेडड, M. वेहडा, H. P. वहेडा.

Skr. पुस्तकम् a volume, Pr. पोथओ, Ap. पोथड, H. P. पोथा.

Skr. कण्टकः a thorn, Pr. कण्टओ, Ap. कण्टड, M. H. B. कांटा.

Skr. गोलकः a ball, Pr. गोलआ, Ap. गोलड, M. P. गोळा, H. B. गोला.

Skr. श्यालकः brother-in-law, Pr. सालओ, Ap. सालड, M. P. साळा, H. साला.

Skr. दीपकः a lamp, Pr. दीबओ, Ap. दीबड, M. दिबा, P. दीबा, H. दिया, B. दीया.

Skr. मञ्जकः a bedstead, Pr. मञ्जओ, Ap. मञ्जड, M. मांजा.

Skr. मस्तकम् head, Pr. मत्थअं, M. (Goan., Mal., and Chit.) माथा; Pr. मत्थओ, Ap. मत्थड, by a change of gender, M. H. B. माथा, P. मत्था.

Skr. कटकम् a wristlet, Pr. कटअं, M. (Goan., Mal. and Chit.).

Skr. कीटकः a worm, Pr. कीडओ, Ap. कीडड, M. किडा, H. P. कीडा, B. कीडा, and the other words given in Table 6.

It may be urged that in modern pronunciation when the penultimate अ is accented, it does not become आ even though pronounced long, as observed before. How is it then that it becomes आ here? In modern times several new modes of pronunciation have arisen, but as regards the matter in hand, to lengthen अ into आ was the old process. And often when the old processes have disappeared from what is considered the standard form of a language, they are found preserved in some dialect of that language. Thus, while in the standard Marathi the penultimate अ is simply pronounced long, it becomes आ in the Goanese and Malvani dialects.

Thus.—

(Table 37; Penultimate 3IT preserved dialectically]

St. M.	Mal. Goan.
पातळ a garment, or thin.	पाताळ.
कापड cloth.	कापाड.
वतन hereditary property.	वतान.
अतन careful preservation.	मतान.
पोतर garment.	पोतार.
खडप a rock.	खडाप.

In this manner, then, the penultimate अ in consequence of the accent became आ, and the final उ and the अ of the final अ being dropped, itself became final, and has preserved its accent.

An unaccented अ, आ, or उ is, you will have observed from the above instances, dropped after a close or dissimilar vowel. For, if preserved, its effect would be to change the preceding close vowel to the corresponding semi-vowel. But being accented, that vowel resists the influence and in its turn overpowers the unaccented, and consequently weak, vowel. But when it is possible to combine both into one sound the final is sometimes not dropped.

Thus the अ and उ in the above examples are combined into ओ in the Gujarati, the Sindhi, and the Goanese, Malvani, and Chitpavni dialects of the Marathi, and the Marvari, Mevari, Kumaoni, and Garhvali dialects of the Hindi; and we have घोड़ो, पारो, आंबळो or आंबळी, आंबळी, वेहळो, कांदो, गोळो, साळो, दिरो, मांचो, and फिरो.

When अ follows another अ, the former, you will remember, is generally changed to a light ए in the Prakrits. Those dialects tolerated a hiatus when one or both of the vowels were close. But अ or आ followed by अ or आ required two complete openings of the mouth, which could not be borne, and hence a close sound इ was interposed. Thus मत्थअ and कइअ, in the above, became मत्थइ and कइइ, and the ए being almost as light as the vowel इ and being unaccented, is dropped in the Malvani and the other dialects; but in the standard Marathi, as formerly observed, the अ and ए are combined into ऐ, and so we have माथै and कइै.

In the Apabhramśa, you will remember, the masculine termination उ is transferred by analogy to neuter nouns, and Hemacandra tells us that neuter nouns having a क at the end do not drop their nasal termination. Thus, we have मत्थइ and कइइ from which by combination we have the Gujarati माइ and कइ. Here the nasal sound gives a sort of fixity to the vowel, and hence it does not pass into ओ as in the case of masculine nouns, but absorbs the preceding अ. The ओ, ऐ and उ thus formed are accented like the आ of the masculine nouns in the Marathi and others, since they contain the accented penultimate.

Similarly, final unaccented इ is not dropped after अ or आ, but is slurred over and the least possible time is allowed to it, in consequence of which it sounds like the consonant ए, and thus forms a sort of diphthong with the preceding अ or आ.

[Table 38 A : Pr. final इ changed to ए]

M. वइ or वए a hedge, Pr. वइ, Skr. वृति.

M. सइ or सए remembrance, Pr. सई, Skr. स्मृति.

M. (Mal. and Chit.) नइ or नय, H. नइ, S. नइ, Pr. नइ, Skr. नदी.

M. सेणवइ or य name of a caste, Pr. सेणावइ, Skr. सेनापति.

H. बहनोइ sister's husband, Pr. भइणीवइ, Skr. भगिनीपति.

Sometimes the final vowel इ absorbs the preceding अ ; as in

[Table 38 B : Pr. final इ merged in preceding अ]

G. बनेयी for बहनोइ.

M. सेणयी.

M. दलयी for Pr. दलवइ, Skr. दलपति.

You will have seen that the Sanskrit nouns, composed of three or more syllables, given in Table 36, with अ for their penultimate vowel and क or any other similar syllable ending in अ for the final, have dropped one syllable and become nouns ending in आ in Marathi, Hindi, Panjabi, and Bengali, and in Oriya also in some cases, and in ओ in Gujarati, Sindhi, and in the dialects of the Marathi and Hindi spoken of above. Such of them as are neuter have acquired the ending ऐ or औ in Marathi and in ऊँ in Gujarati.

But these are not the only nouns with a final आ and ओ and ऐ, औ and ऊँ in these languages. There are a good many more, both substantives and adjectives, which have these endings. In the Brajabbhāṣa also a great many adjectives, nominal and verbal, end in ओ or औ. The Sanskrit words from which they are derived are not composed of three syllables, with क or another syllable like it preceded by an अ, as the final. Thus the substantives H. M. खेला 'a disciple', डुहा 'a parcel', काहा 'a decoction', and the adjectives H. नीला, M. निळा 'blue' H. पीला, M. पिवळा 'yellow', and past participles, H. गया 'gone', मृदा 'dead', M. गेला, मेला, &c., and the corresponding Gujarati, खेले, डुहो, काहो, नीलो, पीलो, गयो and मृयो, are

derived from the Sanskrit चेटः, हुटः, कायः, नीलः, पीतलः, &c. Similarly such neuter nouns as M. केळें (dial. केळां), G. केळुं, M. सोनें (dial. सोनां), G. सोनुं, are derived from the Skr. कदलम् and हवर्षम्. How then did they get their आ and ओ and आं, ए and ऊं ?

A great many nouns in our languages end in अ, which has now become silent; and these, as I have explained, are derived from the Sanskrit nouns ending in अ, the nominative termination अ being, because it was unaccented, at first reduced to उ and afterwards dropped in most of them, but preserved in Sindhi. By that same law of accentuation which brought about the elision of this ओ, we have seen, that nouns ending in क or such other syllable preceded by अ come to have आ-ओ and ए-आं-ऊं for their final. By an obvious inference, therefore, those other substantives and adjectives also must have got कः or कम् in the Prakrits and the Apabhramśa in the forms of ओ or अं and उ or ई, though in Sanskrit they do not possess them.

The suffix क, though actually found in certain words only in Sanskrit, must have been largely used in the spoken language of ancient times, since Pāṇini and his expositors allow of its being appended to all nouns and even verbs and participles, to indicate littleness,¹ contempt,² tenderness,³ the state of being unknown,⁴ resemblance or copy,⁵ and a species⁶ founded on some of these particularities. Words formed by the addition of such a suffix in such senses cannot, of course, be much used in literary works. They are adapted for colloquial purposes, such as our Marathi राम्या for Rama and गोदा for Govinda are.

Accordingly, in the Prakrits and Apabhramśa, which were derived from the spoken languages, we find the practice of adding the suffix to be very common. Thus in the fourth act of the Vikramorvaśi we have लिङ्गं for लिङ्गकं formed from the analogy of लिङ्गकम् but properly लीङ्कम्; सिणिङ्गं for सिङ्गकम्; जजङ्गं

1 Panini, V. 3. 85, 86; V. 4. 4.

2 Panini, V. 3. 74, 75.

3 Panini, V. 3. 76, 77.

4 Panini, V. 3. 73.

5 Panini, V. 3. 96, 97.

6 Panini, V. 3. 75, 87, 97.

for हुमलकः; जुआजओ for शुभकः; आपसओ for आशक्तः; परिमंथरओ for परिमथ्यरकः; काननए for काननके; कुसुसुजलए for कुसुमोज्ज्वलके; लालसओ for लालसकः; परवारणओ for परवारणक; लीणओ for लीनकः; गहनओ for गजेन्द्रकः and many others. So also in Hemacandra's quotations from Apabhramśa works, we have चडिअउ for चटितकः; विभिसवारउ for विभिसवारकः; उड्ढावन्तिअए for उड्ढावन्तिकया; विहउ for वृष्टकः; बल्लहउ for बल्लभकः; सुअउ for सूतकः &c.

Now the question is, why is it that certain nouns only which have आ and ओ or आं, एं and उं in our vernaculars had क appended to them in the Prakrits and not others? The suffix was used only where some additional sense was intended to be expressed. Hence there were some words to which it was not appended at all, and of those to which it was two forms existed, of which the one augmented had unaugmented sense. And in our modern dialects a good many words have these two forms, and of these that with आ conveys an additional sense, such as is attributed to क by the Sanskrit grammarians.

Thus दांत in Marathi expresses a 'tooth' but दांता a copy of the animal tooth, that is, 'the tooth' of such an instrument as a saw; मेळ signifies 'union' 'agreement,' but मेळा expresses a certain union, viz., a concourse of people in a fair or on some festive occasion; कोंपर signifies 'the elbow,' but कोंपरा any corner, resembling that made by the elbow; दोर means 'a string,' generally, but दोरा a particular string, that is, 'thread' used for sewing; पाट denotes generally 'a strip,' and thence the piece of wood used for sitting on, but पाटा a slab of stone used for pounding spices; कांस signifies 'a noose,' generally, but कांसा a snare for birds or beasts, and also 'a catch,' for fastening anything. In the Hindi, Panjabi and Gujarati बांस or बांस means a bamboo, as does बांसु in Sindhi; but in Marathi बांसा means 'a bambu used as a rafter' and thence a rafter generally, &c. In Marathi and Hindi गात्र signifies 'fœtus' or 'womb,' but गात्रा the internal spadix or fruit-receptacle of the plantain-tree or the core or heart of anything. The Panjabi गब्ब and गब्बा also mean 'the womb' and the heart or core of anything respectively.

Thus then क was appended to a word in the Prakrits to denote some additional sense; and both the augmented and unaugmented

forms of it were in use; and these in some cases have descended to the vernaculars. But in the course of time, in consequence of the frequent use of the augmented forms, the things expressed by the unaugmented words came to be thought of with the additional property, to denote which the क was in the first instance affixed. Hence the forms without क went out of use, gradually those with it lost the additional sense. It was not possible to preserve this sense except by a comparison with the signification of the unaugmented forms. But as these disappeared, the comparison was impossible. And in some cases the additional sense was so slight, that in the course of time it gradually dropped away, though the two forms of the word did exist. Thus we have in Marathī कुर or कुरा 'fragments,' घेर or घेरा 'circumference,' खांद or खांदा 'the shoulder,' जोढ or जोडा 'a pair,' हुस or हुसा 'chaff,' and others; but there is no perceptible difference in the sense of the two forms, though in the last three cases usage has restricted one of them to one state of things and the other to another. So also one of our dialects has the augmented form, and another the original, the sense being the same. Thus —

[Table 39: Augmented and unaugmented forms of the same words]

B. बड, H. P. बडा large or great.

M. खेल, H. P. खेल, B. खेला a play.

H. दहीना, B. डाइन, O. डाइन right hand.

M. खांद, M. (dial.) खांदो, G. खंभ, H. P. खंभ or खंभा, B. खंभा, O. खंभ a pillar.

B. आम, H. आम or आम्ब, P. अंब, M. आंबा, G. आंबो the mango tree.

P. मछ, H. B. माछ, M. माछा a fish.

B. माल, H. P. M. मला good.

It thus appears that originally the suffix क was not necessarily applied to any nouns, but optionally to such as admitted of the additional signification. This additional signification has been preserved in some cases, but lost in others.

THE ORIGINAL AND DERIVATIVE ACCENTS IN THE VERNACULARS.

You will now have seen, that the Sanskrit and Prakrit final vowels having, for the most part, been dropped by the influence of the accent, the final आ, अ, ई, ऐ, ऊ, ऊँ, ए and ओ that we have

now got were originally penultimates or have arisen from a combination of the penultimate and final. The accent which originally fell on the penultimate falls now in consequence of this change on these new finals. Thus, these two accents, that on the penultimate when a word ends in the silent अ, and that on the new final, are now to be met with in the vernaculars. The first may be called the original accent, and the second derivative.

The Marathi is of all our dialects the most sensitive to them, and shortens all the other vowels of the word in order to throw the whole force of utterance on the accented syllable. The Sanskrit श्रुतक 'mourning,' नूतन 'new,' पीतल 'brass,' and the Sanskrit and Prakrit जीवन्त (from जीवन्तः or जीवन्तो) are pronounced as श्रुतक, नूतन, पीतल, जिबन्त, &c., with the penultimate अ long and the first vowel short. In this way, in a word composed of three syllables, with the final अ silent, the first syllable must be short in Marathi. When a word is composed of more than three syllables, the अ of the antepenultimate is elided, as in अङ्गवण, हाहाणवण, pronounced as अङ्गवण हाहाणवण, &c.

Similarly, when a word ends in the accented आ and the other vowels, the preceding vowels are shortened as in the following:—

[Table 40 : Accent shortening preceding vowels].

किदा, Skr. कीदक; Pr. कीदओ, and the others in Table 6.

Also घुरा and घुसा which without the आ are घूर and घूस (See p. 422), बिही, झुई and such others occurring in Table 35.

पिढी a step in the scale of descent, a generation, Skr. पीढिका.

झुवा gambling by means of dice, Skr. पूतकः (by a change of gender).

निळा-ळें-ळी blue, Skr. नीलकः-कं-०लिका.

पिचळा-ळें-ळी yellow, Skr. पीतलकः-कं-०लिका.

When, together with the accented final, a word is composed of three or more syllables, or, more generally, when the accented syllable is preceded by two others or more, the अ of that which immediately precedes is silent or elided, as in the case of अङ्गवण above, and any other vowel in its place is shortened and sometimee dropped. The other vowels are also pronounced short. Thus:—

[Table 41: Elision of 3T through Accent.]

हीक <i>imper. 2nd</i>	शिकने <i>inf. to learn,</i>	pronounced as
<i>per. sing.</i> the original form of the root.		शिकणे.
पूत.....	पूतणे <i>inf. 'to ask' ...</i>	पूतणे.
रुत.....	रुततो <i>pres. part. 'he is angry' ...</i>	रुततो.
शीब.....	शिबला <i>past part. 'touched'</i>	शिबला.

शीब has similarly शिबणे 'to sew' *inf.*, शिबतो 'he sews,' 'शिबला 'sewn.'

कर 'do,' *pres. part.* unaugmented करीत, augmented करितो or करतो pronounced as करतो.

So also अकुठकः is आण्डा, and श्वङ्कारकः, सामरा the penultimate उ being dropped.

When the final is unaccented, it is the penultimate that is emphasized, but when it is accented, the penultimate is slurred over. Thus the accentuation of the penultimate leads to the elision of the final vowel, and the accentuation of the final brings about an elision or shortening of the penultimate.

ACCENT IN HINDI

In Hindi also the accent leads to the elision of the अ of the previous syllable when more than one precede the accented syllable. Thus उबदन 'a cosmetic' is pronounced as उबदन, मरसन as मरसन, उबदना *inf.* 'to rub the body with a cosmetic,' as उबदना करना as करता. The Braj present participle करत is pronounced as करत since one syllable only precedes the accented penultimate; but the Hindi करता is करता as two syllables precede the accented ता. The accent leads to the shortening of the preceding vowels in some cases. Thus गोपाल 'cowherd,' and पाताल 'the lower regions,' are sometimes pronounced and written as गपाल and पताल; so does आक्षिप्त become अक्षिप्त. In such words as उपज 'produce,' उन्नास 'respiration,' and उबदन 'a cosmetic,' from the Pr. उप्पज्ज, उन्नास, and उब्बज्ज, Skr. उत्पद्य, उत्प्रास, and उद्भूत, it prevents the lengthening of the initial उ, as by the general rule it should be long, since one member of the following double consonant is dropped. The

derived accent also shortens the preceding vowels in such instances as the following:—

[Table 42 : Accent in Hindi shortening preceding vowels].

H. दहिना southern, Pr. दाहिणओ, Skr. दक्षिणः.

H. दिया a lamp, Pr. दीवओ, Skr. दीपकः.

H. जुआ gambling, Pr. जुअओ, Skr. दूतकः (by a change of gender).

H. अगला foremost, the first part of which is अग, from Pr. अग्न, Skr. अग्र.

H. अपना one's own,..... आप from Pr. अप्य, Skr. आत्म.

इकट्ठा together,..... एक.

H. फिरा walked, पिया drunk, सिया sewn, छुआ touched, past participles of कीरना, पीना, सीना, छुना, &c.

In the same way it prevents the lengthening of a preceding vowel in such cases as उपजना 'to be produced,' उठना 'to rise,' उड़ना 'to fly,' the last two being derived from the Prakrit उत्थान and उडुपन.

EXCEPTIONS TO THE ABOVE.

But in a great many cases the accent does not affect the preceding close vowels. The Sanskrit words सुतक, पीतल, &c., the first syllable of which is shortened in Marathi, retain it long in the Hindi. The words उपज, उपजना, उत्सार, and others have their initial vowel optionally lengthened, and in a few cases, such as ऊपर and ऊसल, it is lengthened without any apparent reason. Similarly, the Hindi forms of कीटक and the other words in Table 6 retain the long vowel. It has also बीबी, झड़ी, and झड़ी as in Table 35, and नीला 'blue', पीला 'yellow', सीखा, 'learnt', बीया 'wet', मीठा 'sweet', पूछा 'asked', दूआ 'dead', सीखना 'to learn', पूछना 'to ask', दूसरा &c., while in all these cases the Marathi has short इ and उ. Perhaps this weakening of the accent as regards previous ई and ऊ is due to the development of another accent in Hindi on the initial syllable. To such an accent as this might be attributed the almost universal change of अय and अव to ऐ and औ that we have already noticed. The अ of the initial syllable, being accented, draws to itself the य or व of the following and

deprives it of its अ, in which cases the व or ब becomes इ or उ, and then the two form ऐ and औ.

THE ACCENT IN GUJARATI

The Gujarati follows the Hindi completely, sometimes shortening the preceding vowels as in कुबो, सुबो, and कुमळो 'delicate', 'tender', and dropping it as in ससुरो 'father-in-law', (Skr. श्वशुरकः) and अंगुली 'finger' (Skr. अङ्गुलिका), sometimes preventing their being lengthened, as in उपज, उठयुं, &c., and very often preserving them long, as in पूरो 'full', झीकडुं, झीकयो, &c.

THE ACCENT IN PANJABI

The Panjabi also keeps the short vowel in such cases as उचार 'utterance', उजाला 'light', though a member of a double is dropped and preserves the long in such cases as दीया or दीवा, जूआ, कीडा, पूरा, हरी 'a cake', &c. It has even fewer instances of shortening than the Hindi.

THE ACCENT IN SINDHI

The Sindhi has जुआ 'gambling', डिओ 'a lamp,' पितल &c., but has such words as मृतक 'mourning', कीडो 'a worm', बीडो 'a roll of betel leaves, (Skr. बीटकः), पीतो 'drunk', &c. In a great many words such as सुको 'dried', सुघो 'heard', छुतो 'touched', दुघो 'milked', the vowel of the preceding syllable is short; but that is due not to the accent on the last syllable but to the peculiarity of the Sindhi not to lengthen the preceding vowels even when a member of a double is dropped.

THE ACCENT IN BENGALI AND ORIYA

The Bengali is more like the Marathi in this respect than the Hindi. Thus we have भितर, H. भीतर 'in the interior', सुका dry, H. सूखा; बिजा or बिजा 'wet', H. बीजा or बीजा; किडा 'a worm', H. कीडा; जूता 'shoes', H. जूता; निला 'a nail', H. कीला; उपजन, 'to be produced', &c. It thus shortens इ and उ in the unaccented syllables like the Marathi.

The Oriya follows the Bengali, having जुता, Skr. जूटक 'a knot of hair', जुता 'shoes', बिजा 'wet', भितर 'in the interior', &c. All these languages, however, treat the unaccented अ in words of three or more syllables as the Marathi and Hindi do.

THE ACCENT ON VERNACULAR TERMINATIONS

In Marathi the termination of the oblique form of cases and that of the plural of neuter nouns in ए are also accented. The reason why they bear the accent will be considered hereafter. The accent on the causal termination, in consequence of which the preceding vowels are shortened in the Hindi and the Gujarati, has already been mentioned. This also seems to be the same accent that we have been considering. Thus in G. शिवहाव 'make him sew', or धोवहाव 'make him wash', the आ being penultimate bears the accent and the final अ is dropped. Similarly in धोवहावई by the general rule, the final vowel being accented the penultimate अ is silent. It is because it is so, and the वई forms the conjunct वई, that the आ looks as if emphasized just as the first अ of अङ्गण and कर्त्त is. In the Marathi and other dialects also, there is this accent in the case of the causal, and the preceding ई and ऊ are shortened; as in निजव 'make him sleep', निजवई 'to make one sleep', from the original नीज 'sleep', in करीव 'cause him to do', करिवई or करवई 'to cause one to do', &c. In the standard Hindi the व is dropped, but still the way of pronunciation remains the same as it was when it existed. In दिखाना 'to show,' for instance, the खा is pronounced as it would have been if the word had been दिखावना. And the forms with व exist in the Braj.

ACCENT IN VERNACULAR COMPOUNDS

Compounds in the vernaculars, most of which belong to the Tatpuruṣa, Karmadhāraya, or Dvandva class have an accent on the penultimate or final of the last word, as in the H. पानी 'a place where water is provided for passengers', in which the first word पानी becomes पन, अमरीई 'a forest of mango-trees', in which the आ of आम is shortened, दुहसाल 'a stable', in which we have दुह for घोडा, रजवास 'harem', the रज् of which is a shortened form of राजी, and in the G. अधमई 'half dead', and the M. अममन 'half a maund'. In the Marathi आमराई, रामामाई, काळमांजर, the आ of the first syllable is short though not changed to अ; and in तिरकांढे 'an arrow and bow', the first word is तीर with the ई shortened.

An unaccented initial vowel is dropped in the following instances :—

[Table 43: unaccented initial vowels dropped in vernaculars]

Skr. उपविष्ट *sit*, Pr. उवइस, M. H. B. O. बैस, G. बैस, S. बिह.

Skr. उपविष्टकः *sat*, Pr. उवइहुओ, H. P. बैठा, G. बैठो, S. बीठी.

Skr. अग्र्यन्तर *inside*, H. बीतर, B. M. (dial.) बितर.

Skr. अरुहट्ट, a water-wheel, Pr. अरहट्ट?, H. रहट, M. राहट.

Skr. अभ्यञ्जनकम् *to soak*, M. भिजयेँ, H. बीजना, G. भिजई, B. भिजिवा.

Skr. एकस्थकम् *in one place*, Pr. एकहुज, H. P. कडा, or इकडा.

Skr. उपरि, *above*, Pr. उवरि, M. वर.

Skr. उत्पृष्टकः *left*, Pr. उज्जुहुओ, H. जूठा 'what is left after eating'.

Skr. उपाध्याय *a preceptor*, M. पाध्या, P. पाधे.

Skr. उवृहकः, Pr. उवृहओ *a bridegroom*, H. P. हुहा.

Of the two instances of this change in the Prakrits लाङ्ग a 'pumpkin' exists in Hindi, and रण्ण in the form of रान in M. and P. and of रन in H. Medial ऐ is dropped in Marathi, Bengali, and Oriya in the word बैस, and others enumerated before. It is dropped in the G. माही for H. मीसी (see p. 391). This elision does not appear to be due to accent since according to our theory it must fall on the ऐ in some at least of the cases. The change is due to the process of softening, since what takes place here is the simple dropping away of the close element of the diphthong.

THE AVOIDING OF THE HIATUS IN THE VERNACULARS

We will now briefly notice the manner in which the hiatus caused by two vowels coming together in consequence of the elision of uninitial consonants in the Prakrits is avoided. We have seen that अ and इ and अ and उ are combined into ऐ and औ in some of the dialects, and into ए and ओ in others.¹ Final unaccented अ and आ are dropped when preceded by इ or उ as in the words given in Table No. 35, and unaccented उ preceded by अ is dropped in some of the vernaculars, as in Table No. 36, and combined into औ or उ in others.² Final इ is preserved or changed to ए after अ in some cases, and combined with it to form ई in others.³

Final accented आ and उ or ऊ are preserved and a hiatus is tolerated; as in H. P. जुआ or जुआ for दूतक, and S. P. पिउ, माह, and the M. बाऊ for पितृक, मातृका, ब्रातृक, &c.

Sometimes *य* or *र* is inserted in such cases after *इ* and *उ*, as in H. *दिवा* for *दिआ* 'a lamp', and M. *जुवा*, H. *जूवा* for *वृत्तक*.

The syllable *अय*, formed in the Prakrits by interposing a *य* between *अ* and *य*, is changed to *ऐ* in modern Hindi as in the words in Table No. 16 and to *ए* in the Gujarati and the Sindhi. This latter was the older process; and hence even in the Prakrits we have *केल* for *कयल*, Skr. *कदल*, and *तेरह*, *तेसीसा*, *तेसीसा* for *त्रयोदश*, *त्रयोविंशति*, *त्रयस्त्रिंशत्*, &c. And in Hindi also we have *ए* in *बेर* 'a plum' from *बयर* for Skr. *बदर*, which must have existed in the Prakrits, though the form given by the Grammarians is *बोर* for *बदर*.

Though the Marathi does not, like the Hindi or Gujarati, now change *अय* to *ऐ* or *ए*, still as formerly observed, when in a state of formation, it did form *ए* out of it, as in the instances there given, and in the neuter singular termination *ए'*. The termination *नेर* occurring at the end of the names of Gujarati and Marathi towns such as *चांपानेर*, *बडनेर*, *संगमनेर*, *पिंपळनेर*, &c., is derived from Pr. *नयर* for Skr. *नगर* 'town.' The syllables *अया*, arising from *अ* and *आ*, are also sometimes changed to *ए* as in H. *अंघेर* or *अंधिरा*, M. *अंधिर*, Pr. *अन्धपार*, Skr. *अन्धकार*. After *आ*, the *य* is sometimes changed to *ऐ* and *ए* in the Hindi and Gujarati as in the instances in Tables No. 18 and 20, and also in the Marathi in the instance *शेकी* from Pr. *छागलिआ*, Skr. *छागलिका*; but often *आय* and *अया* remain unchanged as in :—

[Table 44 : *य* inserted to avoid Hiatus]

H. G. *कायर* timid, Pr. *कायर*, Skr. *कातर*.

H. G. M. *घाय* a wound or blow, Pr. *घाज* or *घाय*, Skr. *घात*.

H. *बाय* wind, Pr. *बाज*, or *बाय*, Skr. *वात*.

M. *पाय* the foot, Pr. *पाज* or *पाय*, Skr. *पाद्*.

M. H. G. *राय* a king, Pr. *राजा* or *राया*, Skr. *राजा*.

H. *गया* gone, G. *गयो*, Pr. *गजओ*, or *गयओ*, Skr. *गतकः*.

G. *शियाळो* the cold season, S. *शियारो*, Pr. *शीजआ* (या) *लओ*, Skr. *शीतकालकः*.

Sometimes the interposed *ए* is so light that it is dropped and the vowels *अ* and *आ*, or *आ* and *अ*, and in rare cases, *अ* and *अ*, combine and form *आ* as in :—

[Table 45 A : The interposed *ए* dropped]

B. पा, and B. G. घा for पाय and घाय in the above.

M. आ of आला, Pr. आजअ, Skr. आगत.

M. कुंमार a potter, Pr. कुंम्भआर, Skr. कुंम्भकार, and generally, the termination कार as in सुवर्णकार 'a goldsmith' and others, also M. अंचार for अंचकार.

M. आर a Boa constrictor, Pr. अअजर, Skr. अजगर.

G. बातुं a promise, Pr. वअणअं, Skr. वचनकम्.

H. बरात, M. बरात a bridal procession, Skr. बरयात्रा.

In some cases *इ* is inserted instead of *ए* to prevent the hiatus, as in :—

[Table 45 B : *इ* inserted to avoid Hiatus]

M. राव for राज 'a king'.

H. पाव for पाज 'the foot'.

M. साव in सावली for छाव in छाया; कावरा for Pr. काअरअ, Skr. कातरक; काव in कावळा for Pr. काअ from Skr. काफ; and a few others.

In the principal Prakrit also we find पीवळअ for Skr. पीतलकम् 'yellow', from which we have the Marathi पिवळे, and बीर has been mentioned above.

A medial *अ* is dropped after *इ*, *ए* or *उ* short or long, as in :—

[Table 45 C: Medial *अ* dropped after *इ*, *ए* or *उ*]

M. बीर for Pr. बिअर 'husband's brother'.

G. पीळे, H. पीला 'yellow' for Pr. पीअलअं, Skr. पीतलकम्.

M. शिळे 'stale', H. सीला 'damp', 'cool', Pr. सीअलअं, Skr. शीतलकम्.

M. वेज 'a throe', Pr. वेअजा, Skr. वेदना; M. जुळ or जुळे 'twins,' Pr. जुअल or जुअलअं, Skr. युगलम् or युगलकम्. Sometimes with the previous *इ*, it forms *ए*; that is, a vowel, partaking of the character of both, is substituted for them; as in :—

[Table 45 D : medial अ changed to ए]

S. नेछु 'a fetter,' Pr. निअछो, Skr. निगहः.

H. P. नेडे or नेरे 'near,' Pr. निअडे, Skr. निकटे.

M. होही 'the tuft of hair on the head,' Pr. सिहण्डिअ, Skr. शिखण्डिका, the इ being softened to अ.

H. बेना 'a fan,' Pr. बिअणअ, Skr. व्यजनक.

नेडे has the form नीडे also, in which case अ is simply dropped and the vowel rendered long as in the M. वीर.

The long आ is preserved and changes the preceding इ to इए or ए as in the H. सियार or स्यार 'jackal' for Pr. सिआल, Skr. वृगाल; याह 'marriage,' for Pr. विआह, Skr. विवाह, &c.

CONSONANTAL CHANGES IN THE VERNACULARS.

We will now proceed to the consideration of consonantal changes; and first of those due to the process of softening. The semivowel ए is often softened to इ. In the Prakrits, व्यजन 'a fan' becomes बिअण which is preserved in the H. बेना and स्याज is changed to चीण. This word does not occur in the vernaculars, but the Hindi and Marathi have got थिजता and थिजणे 'to congeal' from the verb स्यायते, in which या is softened to इ. From व्यजन, or rather such a word as व्यंजन, we have by a similar softening M. बिंजना, H. बिंजना, G. बिजणो, S. बिजिणु. More modern instances are:—

[Table 46 : Pra. ए changed to Verna. इ]

H. P. सडाई, P. सडाई, Pr. सलाया, M. सडई a pencil, probe, Skr. शलाका.

B. डोल a dart, Skr. शल्प; the य, being changed to इ, is transferred to the preceding syllable.

H. P. जनेत a bridal procession, Skr. जन्ययात्रा.

H. झाई shadow, P. डाईया, Skr. छाया.

H. P. बितीत passed, Skr. व्यतीत.

H. P. बिआ pain, Skr. व्याया; बिबहार business, performance, Skr. व्यवहार.

H. P. कलिआण welfare, Skr. कल्याण, बिदिआ learning, Skr. विद्या.

P. पतीज faith, belief, Skr. प्रत्यय.

H. पतिष्ठ visible, Skr. प्रत्यक्ष.

The Panjabi always dissolves a Sanskrit व contained in a conjunct into इ+अ, or sometimes into इ simply, while the Hindi often resorts to the latter change. The other languages do not seem to possess many instances of this process. The change of अव or अया to ए, formerly noticed, is also due to this softening process.

In the Prakrits, व is dissolved into उ in मुणी for Skr. ज्वनि, सुवह for स्वपति, वृ for द्वि, तुवर for त्वर, &c. In Hindi we have मुन in the sense of 'a slight resemblance,' a remote sound of the property possessed by another. But another derivative from the word exists in the form of धुन or धन in that language, and of धन or धुनक in Marathi. From सुव H. has सो 'to sleep,' P. सो, G. सुव, and B. and O. सु or सुइ. वृ occurs in the forms of वी or वृ when the word stands alone or is compounded, as in H. दूना, B. दुना, M. दुणा, &c., for Pr. दुवण, Skr. द्विघण 'two-fold,' and तुवर by a further dissolution becomes the P. दुरना 'to go,' H. P. दुरंत, G. तरत 'instantly, pr. part., M. दूर्त 'at present'.

More modern instances are:—

[Table 47: व changed to उ or ओ]

H. P. परोस to serve food, Skr. परिवच.

H. P. M. पड़ोसी a neighbour, प्रतिवेशी.

H. अंगोछा a towel, अङ्गवस्त्र.

H. पतोहू son's wife, Pr. पुतवहू, Skr. पुत्रवधू.

H. P. जनेऊ, Pr. जण्णोबीज, Skr. यज्ञोपवीत.

The व and वं to which प and म are softened are similarly changed to उ or ओ.

H. P. बहनोई sisters's husband, Pr. बहिनिवई, Skr. भगिनीपति.

H. P. भादो name of a month, Pr. महवज, Sk. भाद्रपद.

H. P. G. खो-[ना-गा-हुं] to lose, Pr. खव, Skr. क्षव.

H. P. B. छू to touch, Pr. छिव, or छुव, Skr. छुप.

H. अनोखा unexpected, Pr. अणवेकस-[अ], Skr. अनपेक्ष-[क].

H. नोता, P. नेउदा, G. नोतक, invitation, A. P. निर्दत्त-[उ] or निर्वत्त-[उ], Skr. निमन्त्र-[कः]. H. has नेवता also.

H. दुप्यो the full-moon day, Ap. पुण्णिवा, Skr. पूर्णिमा.

H. सौह (of सौह) face to face, Ap. संहुह, Skr. संसुह.

M. सौष to entrust, Ap. संवप्प, Skr. समर्प.

It will be seen that the ओ or उ to which इ is softened often prevails over the preceding and following vowels, as in the words परोस and पड़ोशी.

The change of अव to औ, formerly noticed, I consider as due to the elision of the final अ of व, consequent upon an accent on the first syllable, though afterwards there is a softening of the इ to उ. But in the above instances the change of व to ओ or उ is due to a weak pronunciation or softening alone. The diphthong औ requires, as I have several times observed, a passage from one vocal position immediately to another which involves energetic utterance. The Pali, Prakrit, Gujarati, and Sindhi substitute for it, viz. औ, is due to assimilation. The Hindi औ and the corresponding Gujarati औ, therefore, are not due to a weakening of the इ, but the ओ in the above instances is, since it is not a substitute for औ and consequently does not arise from an assimilation of the two sounds, involved in that diphthong.

The following are still more modern instances :—

[Table 48 : इ changed to उ].

H. P. परमेश्वर God, Skr. परमेश्वर.

M. H. P. सुर or मुर a musical note, Skr. स्वर.

H. P. सुभाउ nature, Skr. स्वभाव.

P. सुआमी master, Skr. स्वामी.

In this manner the Panjabis always pronounce the इ of Sanskrit words and to a smaller extent, the Hindi people. The Marathi has not many instances of this softening of इ.

In the Prakrits there are according to the grammarians but three instances of the change of इ to the sonant ए. Of these गेमुङ्ग for Skr. कम्बुक occurs in the vernaculars.¹ With these exceptions the initial इ remains unchanged and the medial is dropped. But the vernaculars, adopting pure Sanskrit words again and again in the course of their history, have changed them as we have seen or changed the Prakrit words that came down

¹ See Table 22.

⁵⁵ [R. G. Bhandarkar's Works, Vol. IV. J

to them in virtue of the general or special laws which regulate the development of human speech. Thus, though they did not receive more words with a softened **क** from the Prakrits, they have now come to possess a good many. Thus:—

[Table 49: Medial **क** softened to **ग**]

M. सगळा, P. सगरा, सगळा, or सगल, H. सगल or सगला, G. सगळो all or whole, Skr. सकल or सकलकः.

M. बगळा, H. P. बगला, G. बगलो, S. बगो, B. O. बग, Skr. बक or बककः, a crane.

M. H. P. G. परगट or प्रगट, S. प्रचट्ट visible, manifest, Skr. प्रकट.

H. P. G. B. काग, S. कांठ a crow, Skr. काकः. H. has कौबा or कौबा from Pr. काञ with the suffix कः, i. e., ओ, M. काव, of कावळा, also.

H. लोग, S. लोय or लोड्ड people, the world, Skr. लोकः. The others have लोक.

H. P. साग, S. साय greens, culinary herbs, Skr. शाकः. The others have शाक.

H. सयन, P. सगन, G. सगन or शगन, S. सयण, B. शयन an auspicious omen, Skr. शकुनः, M. शकुन. S. has सोय, also from the Pr. सडणो.

H. P. सोग, S. सोय, grief, Skr. शोकः. The others have शोक.

H. P. बिगा crooked, Pr. बङ्गअ, Skr. वक्रक. The others have बांक or बांक.

P. सगराव passage of the sun into a sign, Skr. संक्रान्ति. The others have संक्रांत.

P. संगोच contraction, bashfulness, Skr. संकोच; H. सकोच or सकुच, M. संकोच.

ख is softened to the sonant **ज** as in the following:—

[Table 50: **ख** softened to **ज**]

H. सूजी a needle, Skr. सूचि; also 'a tailor' from Skr. सूचिक.

H. G. सूज- or सूह-[ना and हु] to be suggested, Skr. सूच्य.

H. कुंजी a key, Skr. कुञ्चिका.

P. S. पंज five, Skr. पञ्च, P. संजी a small bedstead, Skr. मञ्जिका. There are not many instances of this process.

The Prakrite change an uninitial **द** to **ज** when preceded by a

rowel; and the vernaculars have preserved the words so changed. For instance:—

[Table 51 : Medial द softened to ह].

Skr. घटकः a jar, M. H. घडा, G. S. घडो, H. P. घडा.

Skr. घट to happen, to occur, to forge, to fashion, M. S. G. घड-
[घे-ड-डु], H. P. घड-[ना].

Skr. घटिका a measure of time, M. G. S. O. B. घडी, H. P. घडी.

Skr. घोटकः a horse, M. O. B. घोडा, G. S. घोडो, H. P. घोडा.

Skr. तट a bank, M. तड, O. तडा, S. तडो in an altered sense.

Skr. कपाट a door, M. कषाड, H. किषाड, G. कमाड.

Skr. कटु bitter, M. कडु, G. कडडु, H. कडुषा, S. कडो.

Skr. कटि waist, M. कड, G. केड.

Skr. कटकम् a bracelet, M. कडें, H. O. कडा, G. कडुं.

Skr. रद् or आरद् to cry, M. रड in रडणें or आरडणें, G. S. रड-[डु-ड].

Skr. शाटिका a garment, M. G. साडी, H. P. साडी, S. शाड्डी, B. O.
शाडी.

Skr. बटः the Banyan tree, M. G. बड, H. P. बड, S. बडु.

Skr. झोट in झोटयति to snap, तोड in M. तोडणें, G. तोडडु, H. P. तोडना,
B. तोरण.

Skr. स्फोट in स्फोटयति to break, फोट in M. फोटणें.

Skr. मुकुट or मुकुटक a crown, H. P. मौडा, B. O. मरड.

Skr. कुटज a kind of tree, M. कुडा.

Skr. पटोल a kind of cucumber, M. पडवल, H. परवल, G. परवल.

Skr. कीटकः a worm, M. किडा, G. किडो, H. कीडा.

The instances in which the cerebral द resulting from an original द् has been softened in the Prakrits to ह have been preserved by the vernaculars. The following are some of these :—

[Table 52 : द (from original द्) softened to ह].

पड for Pr. पडि, Skr. प्रति, in such words as H. G. पडोसी a neigh-
bour, M. पडोशी, Skr. प्रतिवेशी.

M. पडसाह, Skr. प्रतिशब्द echo.

M. पडसै, Skr. प्रतिश्याय cold, catarrh.

M. पडछाया reflection.

पडसाका proof.

G. पडसाळ, Skr. प्रतिशाला a panthouse.

G. पडचा, Skr. प्रतिघात echo or resonance.

हरडा or हरडी and बेहडा as in Table 29; M. उई forward, so forth,
Pr. पहुदि, Skr. प्रभृति.

पड of M. पडणें, G. पडहुं, H. पडना to fall, Pr. पड, Skr. पत.

M. मडें a corpse, from Pr. मडअं, Skr. मृतकम्.

उखाडना to dig out, to root out, from the Skr. उत्खात.

Of the change of त् to द् there are some instances in the Śauraseni, and corresponding to these, we have a few in the Panjabi, Sindhi and Gujarati, thus:—

[Table 53 : त् softened to द्]

P. जीउंदा 'living', Śaur. pres. part. जीवन्दो, Skr. जीवन्त.

द् of the present participle of roots, as करदा masc. 'doing', भासदा masc. 'saying' &c. A modern instance is समरीद for the Sanskrit संक्रान्ति.

The Sindhi preserves the Śauraseni present participial affix न्दो or अन्दो, sometimes changed to इन्दो throughout, as in हलन्दो 'moving', करीन्दो 'doing', हुन्दो 'being', &c. The same change is observable in other words also as in खांदि for Sanskrit क्षान्ति.

The Gujarati has the few instances of the Śauraseni past passive participle in द् as in खाहुं 'eaten', पीहुं 'drunk', कीहुं 'done', &c. Marathi has दोंद for Skr. तुन्द 'belly', and Gujarati हुं.

The labial surd व् is, when uninitial, softened in the Prakṛite to व्. The व् is preserved by the Marathi unchanged, but the Hindi softens it in some cases still further to उ as already shown (p. 433), and drops it in a great many more cases, according to a very general rule to be hereafter noticed, while the Gujarati changes it sometimes to व्. The Sindhi and Bengali follow the Hindi to a large extent in this latter respect. Thus:—

[Table 54 : व् softened to व् or उ or व्]

Skr. वापी a well, Pr. वापी, M. वाव, G. H. वाव in वावडी, S. वाइ, P. वाउ in वाउडी.

Skr. कूपकः a well, Pr. कुबो, G. कुबो, H. कुआ, S. कुहो for कुबो.

Skr. कषाट a door, Pr. कषाट, M. कषाट, H. कषाट, G. कषाट.

Skr. प्राप to reach, attain, Pr. प्राप, M. प्राप (in प्रापणे), G. प्राप-[इ], H. प्रा-[ना], S. प्राह-[ह], B. प्राप्ति-[ना].

Skr. प्रस्थाप to send, Pr. प्रस्थाप, M. प्राडप-[णे], old H. प्रडप-[ना], H. पठा-[ना], S. पठ-[थ].

Skr. कुप to touch, Pr. कुप or कुप, M. कुप-[के], H. P. B. कुप-[ना.के.], O. कु-er-कुप S. कुप-[ह] or कुप-[थ].

Skr. ताप to heat, Pr. ताप, M. G. H. ताप-[के-ह-ना], S. ताप [ह].

Skr. नापित a barber, Pr. नापित or न्हापित, M. न्हापि, G. न्हापि, H. न्हापि.

Skr. गोपाल-लिक a cowherd, Pr. गोपाल-लिक, M. गोपाल, M. G. कषाटी, G. गोपालियो, H. गोपाली, ग्वाल (= गोपाल), ग्वाली, S. गवाह.

Skr. कच्छपः a tortoise, Pr. कच्छपो, H. कच्छा, S. कच्छे, कच्छ, M. कच्छप.

Skr. सखनी a fellow-wife, Pr. सखनी, M. सखत, H. सौत.

Skr. षष्ठ्यर्ध names of the sixth month, Pr. षष्ठ्यर्ध, M. षष्ठ्यर्ध, H. षादो, S. षदो.

The lingual surd aspirate *ṛ* is, it will be remembered, changed in the Prakrits to *ṛ*, and the vernaculars, especially the Hindi, have preserved the instances and even added to them, as will be seen from the following :—

[Table 55: *ṛ* changed to *ṛ*]

Skr. पठ to read, Pr. पठ, M. H. P. S. पठ in पठणे-ना-थ. In H. and P., however, the pronunciation of *ṛ* is somewhat different from what it is in M., and in S. it sounds like the conjunct *ṛḥ*.

Skr. पीठक a stool, Pr. पीठक, H. पीठा.

Skr. पीठिका a series (of generations), Pr. पीठिका, H. पीठी; M. पीठी, G. पीठी.

Skr. मठ or मठिका a small temple, Pr. मठ, H. P. मठी, old M. मठ.

Skr. दंष्ट्रा, Pr. दाहा, H. दाह, M. G. दाह.

Similarly we have H. कुटना 'to roll' from Skr. कुट. In the word दाहा, the *ḥ* does not represent *ṛḥ* but *ṛ*, to which that Skr. conjunct must by the general rules be reduced in the Prakrits. One of

the two *इ* is dropped, and the preceding vowel lengthened according to a general rule in the vernaculars to be hereafter noticed. The remaining *इ* is softened to *इ*. There are other instances of the same change in our dialects. Thus:—

[Table 56 : *इ* changed to *इ*]

वेड of M. वेडणे, S. वेडइण्ण, वेड of H. वेडना, वेड of B. वेडन 'to surround' from Skr. वेह through Pr. वेह. The Gujarati, however, has वेडइ.

काड of M. काडणे, G. काडइ, H. काडना; कड of S कडण्ण, B. काई 'to draw out,' from Pr. कट, Skr. कट.

ऊड of H. ऊडना to mourn, from Pr. रुह, Skr. रु. Even here the Gujarati has ऊडइ.

H. कोइ, M. G. कोइ, S. कोइहु white leprosy, from Skr. कुट through Pr. कोट.

The *इ* arising from the Sanskrit *इ* is also similarly changed to *इ*. M. लहइ, H. डीला, &c., from the Skr. शिषिल as in Table 29.

M. कडणे to boil, काडा decoction, कडी curry, कडई a cauldron, G. कडइ, काडो, &c., H. कडना, काडा, कडी, &c., all from the Skr. root कृष्.

We have noticed the change of *इ* to *इ* and *इ*, and of *इ* to *इ*, in the Prakrits. Not only have the vernaculars preserved the words so changed, but have carried on the process to such an extent that *इ* and *इ* have become mutually interchangeable in some of them, especially the Hindi.

[Table 57 : *इ* changed to *इ*]

Skr. तडाम a tank, Pr. तडाम, M. G. तडाव, M. तडें, H. तडाव, S. B. तडाव.

Skr. दाडिम pomegranate Pr. दालिम, M. दाडिच, G. दाडम, H. B. दाडिम, H. दालिम.

Skr. सुह molasses, Pr. सुल,

Skr. पीड of पीडयति to torment, to twist, Pr. पील, M. पिळणे, G. पीळइ, H. पिळना, &c.

The numerals with their *इ* changed in the Prakrits to *इ* through an intermediate *इ* have come down to the vernaculars:—

[Table 58 : ॡ of Skr. Numerals changed to र]

Skr.	Pr.	H.	P.	S.	M.	G.	O.	B.
एकादश	पआरह	न्यारह	भारां or गिआरां	यारहं कारहं	{ अकरा	अभ्यार	पगार	पमार
द्वादश	बारह	बारह	बारां	बारहं	बारा	बार	बार	भार
त्रयोदश	तेरह	तेरह	तेरां	तेरहं	तेरा	तेर	तेर	तेर
चतुर्दश	चउदह	चौदह	चौदां	चौदहं	चौदा	चौद	चौद	चौद
पञ्चदश	पण्णरह	पंन्नह	पंन्दां	पंन्नहं-पंन्दां	पंघरा	पंघर	पंघर	पमेर
षोडश	सोलह	सोलह	सोलां	सोरहं	सोळा	सोळ	बोइल	बोळ
सप्तदश	सत्तरह	सन्नह	सतारां	सन्नहं	सतरा	सत्तर	सतर	सतेर
अष्टादश	अठारह	अठारह	अठारां	अठहं	अठरा	अठार	अठर	आठार

The other Prakrit words बोइल and कलम्ब in which the ॡ of the Sanskrit बोहद and कदम्ब is changed to ह are preserved in Marathi in the forms of बोहाळा and कळेब. Similarly हरिश्च and अंगार with the ॡ so changed appear in the vernaculars as shown before.¹

The following are later instances :—

[Table 59 : ॡ and र changed to ल]

- B. कोल, G. सोळो, Skr. क्रोड lap.
 B. चुल, Skr. चूडा lock of hair.
 H. मरा for Pr. मडज, Skr. मृतक a corpse.
 H. परछाई, Pr. पडिछाआ, Skr. प्रतिच्छाया.
 H. बेराना or बिराना, Skr. बिहम्बन mocking.
 G. बाळधुं, from Skr. बार to resist.
 G. पालडु from Skr. पार to tide over.
 H. बहलना from Skr. बिहरण to amuse one's self.
 B. निअर, नेर, or नेल fetters, from Skr. निगड.
 H. P. नेरे, Pr. निअडे, Skr. निकटे near.

Though the change of ॡ to र does not involve softening, but, must be considered to be due to a predilection for the sound, it would be convenient to notice it here. There is only one instance of this change given by Hemacandra as existing in the Maharastri,

¹ See P. 406 and Table 22.

but there are a great many in the vernaculars, so that this appears to be a peculiarly modern process. The Hindi and the Sindhi have, however, of all the vernaculars, the largest number of examples, the rest presetting but a few stray ones. Sometimes both the forms with *ह* and *र* are in use, especially in the Hindi.

[Table 60 : *ह* changed to *र* in Vernaculars]

Skr. *रघुल*, Pr. *घोर*, M. *घोर* large, great.

H. G. *लंगर*, M. G. *नांगर*, S. *लंगर*, Skr. *लाङ्गल* a plough, or anchor.

H. *कोर* or *कोल*, Skr. *कवल* a morsel ; *धर* or *धूल*, Skr. *धूलि* dust ; *सिंवार*, Skr. *शृङ्गल*, a jackal ; *सराहना*, Pr. *सलाह*, Skr. *सल्लाह* to praise ; *हुजूर*, Skr. *हुजूरल* a spoilt child ; *सिकरी*, Skr. *सङ्कल* a chain ; *ज्वरना*, Skr. *ज्वाल* (caus. of *ज्वल*) to burn ; *सांवरो* (Braj) for *सांवल*, Skr. *स्वामलक* dark.

H. *सावरो*, Skr. *स्वामलक* dark ; *सिपिर*, Skr. *सिप्यल* a certain tree ; *बलिरह*, Skr. *बज्जल* to light or burn ; *पाविरह*, Skr. *पज्जल* to melt ; *रुह*, Skr. *रुल* a plough, &c.

G. *अदारी*, Skr. *अट्टालिका* a high mansion ; M. *शेबरी* or *सांवरी*, Skr. *साल्मली* the silk-cotton tree.

[INTERCHANGEABLENESS OF *ह*, *र* AND *ल*]

Notable instances of the interchangeableness of *ह*, *र* and *ल*, are afforded by the causal forms of verbal roots in some of the vernaculars. In Hindi, the causal of roots ending in a vowel is formed by inserting *ह* between it and the termination *-ना* which is the remnant of the old Prakrit *लव* preserved in the Braj and other dialects ; as *पिलाना* caus. of पी 'to drink', *खिलाना* of खा 'to eat', *दिलाना* of दे 'to give', *धुलाना* of धो 'to wash', &c. In Gujarati we have *ह* for *ल* as *खवाहवु* 'to cause to eat', *देवहिहु* 'to cause to give', *नवाहवु*, 'to cause to bathe', 'wash' &c. Sometimes instead of *ह*, *र* is optionally used as in *खवरववु* 'to cause to eat', *खिखिरववु* 'to threaten', &c. But in Sindhi *र* always represents the Hindi *ह* and the Gujarati *ह*, as in *दिजारवु* 'to cause to give', *धुजारवु* 'to cause to wash', *वेहारवु* 'to cause to sit'.

What the origin is of the *ह* of these forms, which is more primitive than the *ल* and *र* to which it was afterwards changed, will be considered in the next lecture.

Another peculiarly vernacular process, of which Hemacandra gives only one instance, is the transformation of **ह** into **ख**, in which **ह** is deprived of its nasal element and the complete contact of the vocal organs avoided. Thus :—

[Table 61 : Skr. **ह** initial changed to **ख** in vernaculars]

Skr. निम्ब a certain tree, Pr. लिम्ब or निम्ब, M. लिब.

M. लबखें to bow, Skr. नमन ; लोणी butter, Skr. नवनीत ; H. लौटना to return, Skr. निवर्त, Pr. निवट्ट ; G. लील blue, Skr. नील ; P. ललेर, a coconut, Skr. नारीकेल, H. नारियेल.

But there are more instances of the opposite process in the Prakrits ; and these have come down to the vernaculars.

[Table 62 : Skr. initial **ख** changed to **ह** in vernaculars]

M. G. नांगर a plough or anchor, P. नङ्गल or लङ्गल.

M. निहळ, S. निराहु, Pr. निहाल or णहाल, Skr. ललाट forehead.

The H. खन salt, Skr. लवण, is a later instance.

The sibilant **ह**, whether original or derived from the Sanskrit **ह** or **ह्र**, is in a few cases changed to **ख** in the Prakrits. For दिवस 'a day' we have दिखह or दिखह, for पाषाण 'a stone' पखण, and for दशह 'ten' वह. These words, so changed, have come down to the vernaculars, and are found in one or other of them. The various forms of the numerals having the word दश at the end have been given above. Of the other words G. has दिह 'a day' and दिहाडी with the suffix डो, P. दिह and दिहाडा, and S. दिहु and दिहाडो ; and S. पदह 'a stone'. The Sindhi and the Panjabi have given a wider range to this process, as will be seen from the following :—

[Table 63 : **ह**, **ख** or **ह्र** changed to **ह** in Vernaculars]

S. छह or छहो chaff, Skr. छस, M. छसा.

S. बिहु lotus-stalk, Skr. विस, M. भिले.

S. भेहि a buffalo, Skr. महिषी, M. म्हेस.

S. बेहय to sit, Skr. उपविश, M. बेसबें, G. बेसह.

S. बेसाहु trust, Skr. विश्वास.

P. बीह, S. बीह twenty, Skr. विंश-[ति], M. बीस.

P. बिह or विस, S. बिहु or बिहु poison, Skr. विष, M. विस.

P. सहर, S. सहरौ, Skr. स्वश्वर, M. सासर father-in-law.

P. तिहा thirst, Skr. तुषा.

P. काहा or काही, S. काहो or काही a snare, noose, Skr. बाज, M. कांस.

Gujaratis, especially of the uneducated classes, pretty freely pronounce स् as ह, as in हमजहुँ for समजहुँ 'to understand', बरह for बरस 'a year', हाबुँ for साबुँ 'true', &c., but the forms with स् are also in use. The other dialects do not seem to have many instances of this change. The termination स् of verbs of the future tense is in several dialects of the Hindi changed to ह as in करिह, G. करते 'he will do'.

The change of स् to ह seems to be an almost entirely later process of which there are scarcely any instances in the Prakrits. It is seen in full operation in the Apabhramśa.

[Table 64 : Skr. स् changed to ह]

Skr. नाम name, M. नांव, H. नामों, old H. नाऊ, also नाम, P. नाँउ, S. नाँउ also नाहु and नालो.

Skr. दाम a tying rope, M. दांव, P. दाँउ, H. दांव in दांवरी.

Skr. ग्राम a village, M. H. गांव, H. ग्राम also; S. गाँउ, गाहु.

Skr. प्रमण to turn round, M. भौबणें, P. भौणा, S. भौणणु; from the same root, M. भौबल, H. भेवर, S. बैरी.

Skr. नमन, M. लबणें, H. नबना-लौना-नेबना.

Skr. अवनमन to bow down, M. ओर्णबणें.

Skr. आचमन to rinse the mouth, M. आंचबणें, H. अंचबना, also अचाना.

Skr. विश्राम rest, M. विसांवा, S. वेसांहि.

Skr. कृष्णमल dark-complexioned, M. सांवळा, H. सांवला-रा, P. सांवला and सामला, S. सामिलो.

Skr. जामातुक son-in-law, M. जांबई, but H. जमाई, P. जबाइ or जमाइ.

Skr. उद्गमन rising, M. उगबणें, but P. उग्गमणा.

Skr. आमलक a kind of myrobalans, M. P. आंवळा, H. P. आंवला, P. आमला also, S. आंडरो.

Skr. सामन्त a chief, M. H. सावंत.

Skr. चामर n. a sort of fly-brush, M. चोरी, H. P. चवर, S. चंदर.

Skr. कमल a lotus, H. P. कंबल, M. कमळ, S. कंबळ.

Skr. गमन caus. spending, wasting, H. गंवाणा, P. गवाडणा, S. गंवाइणु, but M. गमबणें.

Skr. ब्रम्बर a bee, H. बम्बरा or भौरा, P. भौर or भौरा, S. भौर.

Skr. पञ्चम fifth, M. पांचवा, H. पांचवां, P. पंजवां, &c., and other ordinals.

Skr. कोमल delicate, tender, M. कौबळा.

Skr. जमन eating, M. जेवज, H. जेवन, P. जैउजा.

Skr. कर्म्म mud, H. कांदो, G. कादव.

From the fact that the Marathi, Hindi, Sindhi, and Panjabi contain many instances of this change it is to be gathered that though it does not appear in the Prakrits proper, it must have begun very early, before the vernaculars received their distinctive forms and were isolated from each other. Of all the dialects the Marathi alone has preserved the **व** of this **व** in most cases, the Hindi and the others having dropped it or softened it to **इ** in good many instances; while the Gujarati changes it back again to **व**. Thus, such of the above words as exist in Gujarati have the following forms :—

[Table 65 : **व** (Skr. **व**) changed to **इ** in Gujarati]

नाम name.	बमरी a fly-brush
ग्राम a village.	कमळ a lotus.
गमहुं to turn round, बमरी giddiness,	बमरो a bee.
corresponding to M. कौबळ.	पांचमो, सातमो, &c., fifth,
गमावहुं wasting.	seventh, &c.
बिसामो rest.	कुसळो delicate, tender.
सामळो a dark-complexioned.	जमहुं eating.
जमाइ son-in-law.	आमळा myrobalans.

The reason why I consider this as a change of **व** back to **व** and not a preservation of the original Sanskrit and Prakrit **व**, is that the Gujarati changes **व** to **इ** in other cases where there is no question as to the **व** (or **व**) being the original sound. Thus :—

[Table 66 : **व** or **व** changed to **इ** in Gujarati]

G. कमाड a door, H. किवाड, M. कवाड, Pr. कषाड, Skr. कषाड.
G. शिसव blackwood, M. शिसवा, Pr. सिंसव, Skr. शिंसव.
G. पावहुं to attain, M. पावनें, Pr. पाव, Skr. प्राप.
G. वाम in दोडवाम running, Skr. वाव्.

Where in Marathi we have **व** or **व्ह**, the Gujarati has in some cases **व्ह**, as in G. **सुक्की** 'a blow', M. **सुक्की**, G. **ठाव** 'a place of residence', M. **ठाव**, derived in some way from Skr. **स्थाप**.

There are traces of this change in some of the other dialects too:—

[Table 66 A : **व** for **व्ह**]

S. P. **मिन्न**, B. **मिन्नति**, corresponding to M. **विनति**, H. **विनति**, Pr. **विण्णत्ति**, Skr. **विश्रुति** 'solicitation'; B. **काळिम**, Pr. **कच्छव**, Skr. **कच्छप** 'a tortoise'; H. **धीमर**, Skr. **धीवर** 'a fisherman'; old M. **भात**, G. **बात**, Skr. **वार्त** 'news'; B. **मुड**, H. **उड** [**ना**], Skr. **मोद्ध** 'to wipe away'.

This phenomenon of the change of **व** to **व्ह** the vernaculars, and especially the Gujarati, have inherited from the Prakrits. Of the words so changed the Gujarati has preserved **समसु** 'a dream,' the Prakrit form being **सिमिण** or **सुमिण**, and some of the others, **नीम** 'kind of tree'. This last is **नीप** in Sanskrit; but probably there was an intermediate form **नीव**.

The vernaculars have thrown away the aspiration of hard and soft aspirate mutes in a good many cases. Thus —

[Table 67 : Disaspiration in the Vernaculars]

M. सीक learn,	Pr. सिक्ख ,	H. सीख .	
M. बीक beggary,	Pr. भिक्षा ,	H. बीख , S. बीख .	
M. सुक्खें to dry,	Pr. सुक्ख or सुक्खल ,	H. सूखना , S. सुक्खल .	
M. पूक hunger,	Pr. पुक्खल ,	H. पूख , S. पूख .	
M. हात hand,	Pr. हत्थ ,	H. हाथ .	
M. हत्ती elephant,	Pr. हत्थी ,	H. हाथी .	
G. भीनो afraid,	Pr. भीदो or भीओ ,	M. भ्याला .	
G. बडाई greatness,	Pr. बहु ,	H. बडाई .	
G. बगावडु to spoil,	Pr. विपड ,	M. विपडवें .	
B. पुति a book,	Pr. पोत्थिजा ,	H. M. पोथी .	
B. पढ to learn,	Pr. पढ ,	H. M., &c. पढ .	
B. वाढ to grow,	Pr. वहु ,	M. वाढ -[वें], H. वाढ - वध -[ना].	
B. वेढ to surround,	Pr. वेढ ,	M. वेढ -[वें], H. वेढ -[ना], &c.	
B. पातर stone,	Pr. पत्थर ,	M. पाथर , H. पत्थर or वाथर .	
B. पिड back,	Pr. पिड or पड ,	H. पीड , M. पाड .	
B. साव wish,	Pr. सझा ,	S. P. साव .	

B. कुक (in कुकाव) to dry, Pr. कुक्क or कुक्क, H. कुक्का.

B. काढ (in काढिया) to take out, Pr. कड, H. M. &c. काढ.

B. पुकुर a pond, Pr. पुक्कुरिणी.

And in such forms as पराहले ' worn ' from Pr. परिहाण, नाहते ' for bathing ' from Pr. न्हा, or नहा and दाइन ' to the right hand,' Pr. दाहिण, the aspirate ह् is dropped, so that the Bengali has, in a large number of instances, thus weakened the pronunciation of aspirated sounds. In the instances given from Marathi, it will be seen that the letters other than those which are softened are aspirates ; hence the weakening consists simply in dropping the heavy breath in one of two aspirated sounds, as in the case of the Sindhi बीस and पुस. The aspirates are preserved when occurring singly, which is not the case in Bengali. Hence Bengali utterance is the weakest, and the Hindi and Panjabi the strongest.

The Marathi reduces a Sanskrit or Prakrit क् invariably to क्, and in this respect differs from all its cognate dialects. Thus —

[Table 68 : Skr. or Prk. क् reduced to क् in Marathi]

Skr. इक्षु sugarcane, Pr. उक्खु, M. ऊस. The H. has ईस or ऊस.

Skr. मत्स्य fish, Pr. मक्ख, H. माछ, M. मासा.

Skr. वत्स a calf, Pr. वक्ख, H. वाछ, M. वास in वासकं.

Skr. क्षुरिका a knife, Pr. क्षुरिआ, H. क्षुरी, M. क्षुरी.

Skr. माक्षिका a fly, Pr. मक्खिआ, H. माछी, M. माशी.

Skr. पृच्छ to ask, Pr. पुक्ख, H. पुछना, M. पुसनें.

Skr. कच्छप a tortoise, Pr. कक्खड, H. कछुआ, M. कासव.

Skr. कुक्षी a side of the abdomen, Pr. कुक्खि, M. ऊस. The H. has कोस.

Skr. क्षेत्र a field, Pr. केत, M. क्षेत्र. But H. has सेत.

Skr. छुव to touch, Pr. छुव, H. छु-[वा], M. छीव-[नें].

Skr. छाया shade, Pr. छाआ, H. छाँव, M. छाँव-[ली].

Skr. गुच्छ a bunch, Pr. गोक्ख, H. गोच्छा, M. गोंस.

Skr. उत्सङ्ग lap, Pr. अक्खङ्ग, M. ओसंग.

Skr. डामली a she-goat, Pr. डामली or डाली, H. डेरी, M. डेकी.

Skr. क्षीण worn out, wasted, Pr. क्षीण, M. क्षीण-[नें].

Skr. क्षण a festival, Pr. कण, M. सण.

According to a general rule in Marathi, **ख** is changed to **ह** when followed by the palatal vowel **इ** or **ए**. This change of **ख** to **ह** in this dialect is to be accounted for by the fact that the vocal organs of the Marathas have a predilection for the dento-palatals, **च, छ, ज, झ**, to which the Sanskrit palatals are in almost all cases reduced by them, except when they are followed by **इ, ए, or य**. The Sanskrit **ख** therefore becoming the dento-palatal **ह** passes into **ह** which differs from it only in the contact of the vocal organs being somewhat less incomplete. The only instances in the Prakrits in which the change appears to be the same as that we have been considering are **ऊत्तवो** for **उच्छवो** and **ऊहुओ** for **ऊच्छओ**.

I have already given instances of the many words with their uninitial consonants dropped which the vernaculars have inherited from the Prakrits, and shown what further changes they have undergone. This process of elision has not been continued by any of the vernaculars unless we consider the disappearance of uninitia **ह** (which is very general in Hindi, Sindhi, and Bengali) to be an instance of the process.

[Table 69 : Uninitial **ह** dropped in Hindi, Bengali, &c.]

B. H. दिया, S. डिओ lamp, Pr. दीवओ, Skr. दीपकः, M. दिवा.

H. नया, S. नजो new, Pr. नवओ, M. नवा.

H. जी, S. जीउ life, Pr. जीओ, Skr. जीवः, M. जीव.

H. S. नाई, B. नायि a barber, Pr. नाविज or न्हाविज, Skr. नावित, M. न्हावी.

H. कछुआ, S. कडर a tortoise, Pr. कच्छवओ, Skr. कच्छपकः, M. कांसव.

H. छ-[ना], S. छुअ-[वु], B. छो(छोया s.) to touch, Pr. छिब or छुव, Skr. छुप, M. शिव-[जे].

H. पा-[ना], S. पाह-[वु], Pr. पाव, Skr. प्राप, M. पाव-[जे].

H. कुआ, S. कुहो for कुओ, B. कुवा a well, Pr. कुवओ, Skr. कूपकः, G. कुवो.

H. ग्वाळ=गोआळ, B. गोवाला a cowherd, Pr. गोवालज, Skr. गोपालक, M. गोबळा.

H. ब्याह = बिआह, S. बिहाउ marriage, Skr. विबाह.

H. पठा-[ना], S. पठ-[वु], B. पाठई-[ना] to send, Pr. पहाव, Skr. प्रस्थाप, M. पाठव.

H. ता-[ना], S. ताह-[वु] to heat, Pr. ताव, Skr. ताप, M. ताव-[जे].

H. द्वार, B. दोवार door, Pr. द्वार or द्वार, Skr. द्वार.

B. दुइ two, Pr. दुवे, Skr. द्वौ.

B. नय nine, Skr. नव, M. नव, H. नौ.

B. शेयाला moss, Skr. शेवाल, H. शेवाल.

THE इ OF THE CAUSAL TERMINATIONS IN THE VERNACULARS.

This elision of इ appears also in the Hindi causal forms such as उठाना, चलाना, जलाना, in which the अ only of the Prakrit or Marathi termination आव or अव is retained. The whole termination appears in the Braj and other dialects and in old books, sometimes in the form of औ.

The Sindhi causal termination is आइ as in कराइणु 'to cause to do,' बढाइणु 'to cause to increase.' The इ here as well as in some of the Sindhi words given above represents the य which according to the Prakrit rule, takes the place of the dropped व, and is, as shown before, changed to ए in the other vernaculars. The Sindhi इ is a shortened form of this ए. The termination आइ appears sometimes in its more original form of आज as in बढाअणु 'to cause to take.'

The Bengali too forms its causal by adding आइ as in धराइतेडे 'is causing to be held', but the इ here seems to be an euphonic addition, which even in their primitive form the verbs take, as in धरितेडे 'is holding', so that the इ is here dropped and the vowel अ combined with the preceding as in the Hindi. In the speech of the Maratha lower classes of Southern Konkan इ is very often elided, and the causal termination of the Savantvadi dialect is अय, as in करय 'cause to do,' which corresponds to the Sindhi कराइ-[णु].

[Table 69 A : इ of व dropped in the Vernaculars]

There are instances also in which the ए resulting from व is elided :—

H. कुंजर 'a boy,' 'a prince,' Pr. कुंजर, Skr. कुंजर; बायां 'left-hand-side,' Pr. वामअ, Skr. वामक; धुआं 'smoke,' Pr. धुमअ, Skr. धुमक; अवागना 'to rinse the mouth,' Pr. Skr. आचम; बिराना or बेराना 'to mock,' Skr. विहस्य; धुई 'ground,' Skr. क्षुनि.

There are traces of this change in other dialects too, as in the Oriya *व* for वाम 'left,' Gujarati *बाँव* = बाँव, S. बुह, Skr. वामि, and the Marathi बुह and the termination ह of the locative, which is to be traced to the Pr. *स्मि*, Skr. *स्मिन्*. In all these instances we may regard *व* as directly elided, and not the *व* resulting from it. Hemacandra notices a few instances of the process in the Prakrits.

The vernaculars possess a large number of those Prakrit words, in which the mute element of hard and soft aspirates was dropped leaving only the *ह*. Thus :—

[Table 70 : Vernacular *ह* for Skr. *ख*]

Skr. *मुख* face, Pr. *मुह*, H. *मुह*, S. *मुहु*, G. *मोहो*; M. *मोहरे*, P. *मुहेरह* (with the suffix *र*) in front, H. *मोहरा*; H. *सोही*, G. *सामु-मो*, M. *समोर* (with the suffix *र*) from Skr. *संमुख* face to face.

Skr. *नख* nail, Pr. *नह*, H. *नह*, S. *नहु*, P. *नहु*.

Skr. *शेखरकः* a chaplet, Pr. *सेहरजो*, H. *सिहरा* or *सेहरा*, S. *सिहरो*, P. *सिहरा*.

Skr. *सखी* a female companion, Pr. *सही*, G. *सही*, H. S. P. *सहेली*, M. B. O. *सई*.

Skr. *लिख* to write, Pr. *लिह*, M. *लिह-[णे]*.

Skr. *शिरण्ड* a lock of hair or *शिरण्डिका*, Pr. *सिहण्डिया*, M. *शेही*.

Skr. *मुखर* agreeable, Pr. *मुहुअर*, H. *सोहर*.

Skr. *आखेट* hunt, Pr. *आहेड* (?), H. *अहेर*.

[Table 71 : Verna. *ह* for Skr. *व*]

Skr. *मेघ* rain, Pr. *मेह*, G. H. *मेह*, S. *मेहु*.

Skr. *भ्राष्ट्र* to praise, Pr. *सलाह*, H. *सराह-(ना)*.

Skr. *ग्राहणक* a guest, Pr. *पाहुणज*, M. *पाहुजा*, H. *पाहुना*.

To these must be added the several compounds of the word *घर*, some of which at least are modern, as—

H. *मेहर* house of a woman's family of birth, Pr. *माहघर* or *माइहर*, Skr. *ज्ञातिघर*.

H. *बीहर*, G. *बीघेर* a woman's father's house, Pr. *विहघर* or *विहहर*, Skr. *विपुषह*.

M. *माहेर*, G. *महीर* a woman's mother's house, Pr. *माहघर* or *माइहर*, Skr. *मातृघर*.

G. गोंघार, M. हुंघार, H. खंघारा a cellar, Skr. खमिचह.

G. देहरं, M. देवारा, H. देहरा, विहरा an idol-chamber, Skr. देवचह.

[Table 72 : Vernacular ह for Skr. थ]

Skr. नाथ a lord, Pr. नाह, old M. & H. नाह.

Skr. मिथुन a pair, Pr. मिहुण, M. मेहुण.

Skr. मथ to churn, Pr. मह, H. मह-[ना].

Skr. मथनिका a churning vessel, Pr. महणिआ, H. मिहानी.

Skr. पथिक a traveller, Pr. पडिअ, M. G. पडी.

Skr. पथुक flattened rice, Pr. पुहुअ (?), M. पोहे, S. पेहू.

Skr. पृथुलकम् broad, Pr. पुहुलअ-[Ap. उं], G. पोहलू.

Skr. कथ to tell, Pr. कह, H. G. S. P. B. O. कह-[ना-कु-णु, &c.].

Skr. कथानक or कथानिका a story, Pr. कहाणअ or कहाणिआ, H. कहानी, M. G. कहाणी, S. किहाणी, B. काहिनी.

[Table 73 : Vernacular ह for Skr. थ]

Skr. बधिरकः deaf, Pr. बहिरओ, H. M. O. बहिरा, G. बेहरो.

Skr. दधि curds, Pr. दहि, H. M. G. P. O. दहि, S. इहि.

Skr. मधु honey, Pr. महु, O. B. महु, M. मोंह.

Skr. साधु honest, good, Pr. साहु, H. साहु-साहु, M. साव.

Skr. बह a young lady, daughter-in-law, H. G. S. बह, O. बोहु or बी.

Skr. परिधा dressing, Pr. परिहा, H. पहिर-[ना], G. पेहर-[हुं], S. पेहर-[हुं].

P. पहिर-[जा] by the consonants interchanging places.

[Table 74 : Vernacular ह for Skr. थ]

Skr. प्रभा or प्रभात light, dawn, Pr. पहा, पहाअ, पहाद्, H. पह or पोह, G. पोह, M. पहाट. The S. परिह must be a later form. From the same root with the prepositions वि and ह we have H. विहान morning, S. हुहाउ light, &c.

Skr. शुभ to become, to adorn, Pr. सुह, H. सोह-[ना], S. सुह-[णु]

Skr. सौभाग्य prosperity, good fortune, Pr. सोहग्य, H. सोहाग or सुहाग.

Similarly, H. पहिचान 'recognize' is from Skr. प्रत्यभिजाना, the consonants interchanging places; G. बहालो or बालो 'dear' from Skr. बहुल; सेहलो 'easy' from सहल; बेहच-[हुं] to 'distribute or 'divide' from विभज्, &c.

The existence of many such words as M. H. P. उपाय 'injury,' H. P. साय 'a good man,' M. G. H. P. मध 'honey,' H. G. लिख, रल 'to write,' M. G. H. नख 'nail,' S. सुभाणे 'in the morning' shows that the popular speech of Northern India has now for a longtime ceased to have recourse to this process of dropping the mute element of the aspirates of the Sanskrit words, adopted from time to time from the parent language. Still, however, a few later instances, such as S. पिरिह 'dawn,' H. G. माह 'middle' from माध and मध्य, and some of the compounds of घर noticed above show that it has not been entirely absent.

The elision of simple mutes and of the mute element of aspirates is a natural phenomenon which one always meets with in the course of lingual development; but its operation is generally slow and it is only in consequence of its systematic occurrence in the Prakrits that I have attributed it to an ethnological cause and have supposed that the Prakrit speakers belonged to another race than those who spoke Sanskrit and, being unused to Sanskrit sounds, caught only the initial consonants from their Sanskrit teachers and dropped the rest or the mute portion of the rest. When, however, in the course of time they became used to those sounds and the Sanskrit and Prakrit speaking races became united into one community, they ceased to be so dropped, except through the slow and gradual operation of the usual phonetic laws; and hence it is that in modern times we find Sanskrit words, not shorn of their elements in the manner in which they were in ancient times, as indicated above.

This elision, though it involves economy and is a natural process, constitutes a peculiarity of the Prakrits in so far as it is due to peculiar historical incidents. We will now notice the peculiarities which do not involve economy and must be attributed to vocal predilections. Of the words in which a Sanskrit dental is changed to a cerebral in the Prakrits the vernaculars have preserved the following :—

[Table 75: Skr. Dentals changed to Cerebrals in Vernaculars]

Skr. विभीतक myrobalan, Pr. बहेडओ, M. बेहडा, &c. as in table 8.

Skr. पत to fall, Pr. पड, M. G. H. पड-[जे-कु-ना].

Skr. वंस to bite, Pr. डस, M. H. P. G. डस-[जे-ना-या-हुं]. From this H. E. G. डांस, O. डाजांस a mosquito, Skr. वंश.

Skr. दृश to stick, Pr. डक (past part.), M. G. डक[ने-डु].

Skr. शब् to decay, Pr. सड, M. H. G. सड[ने-ना-डु].

Skr. दोला a swing, Pr. डोला, H. डोला masc. From this are derived M. डुलने, H. डोलना, G. डोलुं to swing, M. डुलकी a nap, G. डोळा nodding, M. G. H. P. O. डोली a litter or Sedan chair.

Skr. दण्ड a stick, Pr. डण्ड, H. डंड or डंडा, P. डंडा, G. M. (dial.) डंडो, H. G. डंडी. M. has दांडा and दांडी.

Skr. बह to burn, Pr. डह, H. डाहना to be spiteful, malicious, H. P. डाह malice.

Skr. शिथिल, Pr. सिथिल, M. सहळ, &c., as in Table 29.

Skr. दम्भ hypocrisy, deceptive appearance, Pr. डम्भ, M. डंभ.

Skr. बोद्ध longing, Pr. डोहल, M. डोहाळा.

There are many later instances of this change :—

[Table 76 : The same as No. 75 : Later Instances]

M. S. दाण[ने-णु], H. दानना, B. दानिवा, O. दाणिवा to stretch, Skr. तण.

M. दिळा, G. दिळो a mark on the forehead, Skr. तिलक.

H. M. टिकली, G. टिकडी, S. टिकिडो a small mark on the forehead, a spangle, Skr. तिलक: by consonants interchanging places.

M. G. दाऊ, H. दाली a kind of cymbal, from Skr. ताल measured or beaten time. M. दाळा, G. दाळुं the roof of the mouth, Skr. तालु.

H. P. डाल-डाला-डाली, S. डारी-डारो, G. डाली, B. O. डाल, M. डालडी a branch or bough, Skr. दल.

M. कडणे &c. as in p. 440.

The Sindhi has the largest number of instances, and the Hindi and the Panjabi come next. The Marathi and Gujarati have the smallest number.

[Table 77: the same as No. 76]

S. दुडो satisfied, Skr. दुष्ट-[कः].

S. डेडो crooked, H. P. डेडा, M. तेडा, M. [dial.] तिडो, Skr. तिर्वह.

S. दुडो, A. दुड handleless, M. योडा, Skr. स्पृष्ट with the suffix ट, Pr. यडडी (?).

S. डलियु the south, H. दलिय, Skr. दक्षिण.

- S. दांत a tooth, H. M. दांत, Skr. दांत.
 S. दया pity, M. H. Skr. दया.
 S. दृश्य to show, H. दसना, Skr. दर्शन.
 S. दह ten, H. दस, M. दहा, Skr. दश.
 S. दाढ़ or दाढ़ a grinder, H. दाढ़, M. दाढ़, Skr. दाह्य.
 S. डिओ a lamp, H. दिया, M. दिवा, Skr. दीप-कः.
 S. दियणु to give, H. देना, M. देणें, Skr. दान.
 S. दीढो, H. P. दीढ impudent, M. पीढ, Skr. धृष्ट.
 S. दिसणु see, H. दिसना, M. दिसणें to appear, Skr. दृश्य.
 S. दिढो seen, H. P. डीढ, G. दिढो, Skr. दृष्ट.
 O. दाहांग, B. दाइन to the right hand, H. दाहिना.

Thus then the Pali and Prakrit tendency to pronounce dentals as cerebrals is seen in a much more exaggerated form in the Sindhi and next to it in the Hindi and the Panjabi, while the other modern dialects seem to have kept it quite within the bounds in which we find it in the ancient dialects, though they have changed more words in that way than they.

In the following instances the cerebral mute in the place of the dental is to be considered as due to the influence of an adjoining र.

[Table 78 : Dentals adjoining र changed to cerebral mute]

रह for Pr. पंडि, Skr. प्रति, in the words given in Table 52, and हरडा, रुहें, and मरें in the same.

M. G. H. S. P. डर-[जें-बु-ना-णु-ना], B. O. डरिया, Pr. डर, Skr. डर fear.

H. डाम or डाव, C. डाम or डाभो, S. डडु, Skr. दर्भ a kind of grass, but P. दम.

H. मट्टी or माटी, &c., as in Table 4.

H. डुडा, डडा, M. S. डड, &c., as in Table 4.

H. केवट, Skr. कैवर्त a pilot.

H. उबटन, M. उटणें, G. उटणु, S. उबटणु a cosmetic, Skr. उद्भर्तन.

H. टाकना or ताकना, M. टकणें, O. टाकिवा, Skr. तर्क to watch, to look out for. G. B. S. have त for ट.

H. M. पवाडा, S. G. पवाडी a narrative, Skr. पवाद-कः.

Even here the Sindhi has more instances than the others :—

[Table 79 : the same change in Sindhi]

पुद्द a son, Skr. पुत्र, M. पुत्त.

ठिह्थ thirst, Skr. तृषा, P. तिहा.

निंद sleep, Skr. निद्रा, H. नींद.

ढामो copper, Skr. ताम्र, H. ताँवे, &c.

Uninitial *व* is changed to *ण* in the Prakrits invariably, but when it is the beginning of a word it undergoes that change optionally. In the vernaculars the initial *व* remains unchanged, but when medial it becomes mostly *ण* in the Marathi, Gujarati, Sindhi, and Panjabi.

[Table 80 : Initial *व* unchanged in the Vernaculars]

M. नाव &c., as in Table 64.

P. नेउल as in Table 24.

H. S. नाई, &c., as in Table 69.

M. नीज, H. नींद, S. निंद sleep,

M. नवा, H. नया, S. नओ,

Skr. निद्रा.

as in Table 69.

P. नेउंदा, H. नेवता, G. नोतई an

H. P. नेरे as in p. 429.

invitation, Skr. निमन्त्र.

H. नह, &c., as in Table 70.

M. नणंद, P. नणान, S. निणुन, H. ननद.

P. नेण, as in Table 16.

or ननदी, B. ननद or ननंदा, Skr.

H. नौनी as in Table 17.

ननान्व husband's sister, &c.

[Table 81 : Medial *व* changed to *ण*]

M. माणूस, G. माणस, S. माणई, P. माणुस, Skr. मनुष्य a man.

M. दिसणें, S. दिसण, P. दितणा, Skr. दृशन or दर्शनक appearing; and all other infinitives in णेणु-णा.

M. जण, G. जण, S. जणो, P. जणा, Skr. जन-[कः] a person.

M. G. कहाणी, S. किहाणी, Skr. कथानिका a story.

M. G. S. P. पाणी, Skr. पानीय water.

M. G. S. P. जाण [णें-हुं-णु-णा], Skr. जाना to know.

M. G. कोण, P. कौण, Skr. कः पुनः who?

M. बहिण, G. बेन, S. भेण, P. भेण, Skr. भगिनी sister.

M. कठिण, G. कठण, S. कठन, P. कटण-न, Skr. कठिन hard.

P. S. G. जण-[जा-ख-ई], Skr. जन (causal) to give birth to, to produce,

G. लृष, S. लृष, P. लृष, M. लोष (in लेंचेलोण), Skr. लृषण salt.
 P. M. G. आषण, S. पाष, Pr. अप्याण, Skr. आत्मन one's self.
 M. G. S. P. ताण-[लें-हुं-लु-या], Skr. तन to stretch or pull.
 M. नर्षद्, &c., as above.

There are a few instances in which we have the original ऋ in the body of a word, as in M. G. P. मन, S. मनु, Skr. मनः 'mind', G. वादु 'promise', for Skr. वचन, and G. वेन as above. But the general rule seems to be that these four dialects have a medial ऋ in the place of the double ऋ of the Prakrits, resulting from a Sanskrit conjunct of which ऋ is a member. Thus:—

[Table 82 : Prk. ऋ changed to ऋ in the vernaculars]

Skr. अरण्य, Pr. रण, M. G. रान wilderness.

Skr. कर्ण, Pr. कण, M. G. कान, P. कण, S. कनु ear.

Skr. पर्ण, P. पण, M. G. पान, P. पन्ना, S. पनु a leaf.

Skr. जीर्ण (जृणकः), Pr. जुण, M. जुनें, G. जुदु, S. हुनो old.

Skr. विज्ञप, Pr. विण्णव, M. G. विनव, -(लें-हुं) to solicit.

Skr. विज्ञाति, M. G. विर्णती, S. विनती, P. मिनत solicitation.

Skr. संज्ञा, Pr. सण्णा, G. सान, P. सन mark, sign.

Skr. जम्बयात्रा, Pr. जण्णयत्ता, P. जनेत a bridal procession ; also,
 S. जज, Skr. जम्ब, Pr. जज्ज.

Skr. पञ्चोपवीत, Pr. अण्णोवईअ, G. अनोई, P. जनेऊ, M. जानई, S. जण्णो,
 the Brahmanic sacred thread.

Skr. मन्य, Pr. मण्ण, M. G. मान-[लें-हुं], S. मनलु, P. मण्णु to think,
 to regard, to obey.

But even here in Marathi, the purely Deshastha Brahmans living in the eastern part of the Deccan or Mahārāstra pronounce the ऋ as ऋ; and the ordinary राज, कान, पान, विर्णति, &c., of that dialect become in their mouths राव, काव, पाव, विर्णति, &c. They have, therefore, preserved in its integrity the old habit of the Prakrit speakers to pronounce the ऋ as ऋ throughout. On the other hand, the lower class of the Konkani population preserve the Paisāci peculiarity of reducing ऋ in all cases to ऋ and pronounce पाणी, वाणी, कोन, &c., as पानी, वाणी, कोन, &c., and this peculiarity we find in its fulness in the Hindi, and next to it in the Bengali. Thus the words with a ऋ in them in the Marathi, Gujarati, Sindhi and Panjabi, given above, have the following forms in Hindi:—

ब्रह्म, बिसना, अम, कहानी, बानी, जानना, कोन, बहिन, or बोन, कठिन, जगना, छन or चुन, अपना, दानना or तानना, ननद or ननदी.

And such of these words as are in use in the Bengali have the following :—

मादुस, जन, कहानी, जानन, कोन, बहिन or बोन, कठिन, जगन, छोज, आपना, दानना, ननद.

Other words, in some of which even in Sanskrit a **ख** appears, are in the Hindi and Bengali thus :—

[Table 83 : Original **ख** preserved]

Skr. ब्राह्मण, H. ब्रह्मण or बामन, B. बाहुन, but S. बामख, a Brahman.

Skr. शृण in शृणोति, H. छुन-[ना], B. छुन-[न], S. सुण-[छ] to hear.

Skr. दक्षिण, H. दहिना, A. दाइन, right hand.

Skr. ग्रहण (?), H. B. गहना, S. गहणो, an ornament worn on the person.

Skr. काण-[कः], H. कान or काना, B. काना, S. कानो blind of one eye.

Still **ख** does appear in Bengali books in a few words such as काज 'ear', छोज, 'salt', &c. In the Hindi it seems to be entirely absent.

In the principal Prakrit and the Sauraseni, all the Sanskrit sibilants are reduced to **ख**. Sanskrit words, therefore, containing the palatal **ख** and the cerebral **ख**, which in the Prakrits came to have the dental **ख** instead, have the last in the Hindi, Panjabi, Sindhi, Gujarati, and Marathi. But according to a law of Marathi pronunciation, this **ख**, when followed by the palatal vowel or semi-vowel **इ**, **ए**, or **ऋ**, is transformed into the palatal **ख**. The foregoing list of words contain many instances that prove these points. Thus :—

[Table 84 A : Skr. **ख** or **ख** changed to **ख** in the Vernaculars]

Table 2. M. H. P. दित, S. दित, Skr. दृश्य ; H. सिवार, Skr. बृनाहः ; G. H. सींग, P. सिंग, S. सिङ्ग, Skr. बृह ; H. P. कित, Skr. कवि ; M. बावस, H. बावस, Skr. बावस्.

Table 5. M. G. H., &c. सौड, मूड, &c., Skr. सुण्डा.

Tables 11 & 8. G. भाणस, M. भाणस, H. भाणस, B. भाणस, Skr. ब्रह्मण.

Table 14. M. H. बैस, Skr. उपविश ; M. बैस, H. बैस, G. बैस, Skr. महिषी.

Table 24. H. सेमल, M. सांवरी, Skr. शात्मली; Table 34. H. S. साव, Skr. अखा.

Table 47. H. P. परोस, G. पीरस, Skr. परिषेव; Table 46. H. सलाई, M. P. सलाई, Skr. शलाका.

Table 36. H. साला, P. M. साळा, Skr. श्यालक; Table 63. M. सांवळा, H. P. सांवळा, &c., Skr. श्यामलक; M. बिसावा, &c., Skr. विश्राम.

Table 69. H. सिहरा or सेहरा, &c., Skr. शेखर; Table 73. H. सोह, S. सुह, Skr. सुभ; Table 74. P. H. M. G. डांस, Skr. दंश; H. डन, S. सुन, Skr. गुण as above. &c.

H. सीसो, M. शिसवा, G. शिसम, Skr. शिहाप Table 65.

Other instances are :—

[Table 84 B : The same : श् or ष changed to स् in the Vernaculars]

M. साळ, H. साल, Skr. शाला 'a school' or 'an establishment'.

M. सल, H. साल; Skr. शल्य 'a dart'.

M. G. साकली, H. सांकली, सिकली 'a chain', Skr. शृङ्खला.

M. शुक्, H. नूस्, Skr. शुष्क 'dry'.

H. सीख, Skr. शिक्ष 'to learn'.

H. पीस, Skr. पिष्ट 'to grind'.

H. M. G. नास, Skr. नाश 'destruction'.

S. बस, Skr. वर्ष 'to rain'.

H. P. S. सेज, 'a bed', Skr. शय्या.

[Table 84 C : The Same : More Modern Instances]

Even in words adopted later, and consequently treated somewhat differently, from the way in which they were treated in the Prakrits, the Sanskrit श् and ष are reduced to स्, as in the H. तर्सेना 'to thirst', 'Skr. तृष्; परवेश 'entrance', 'Skr. प्रवेश; परसु 'a hatchet', 'Skr. पर्शु; निसपति 'lord of the night', 'the moon', 'Skr. निशापति; S. वंसु 'race', 'descent', 'Skr. वंश; बरसु 'to rain', 'Skr. वर्ष; बसिकरण 'to subdue', 'Skr. बशीकरण; P. सोग 'sorrow', 'Skr. शोक; सांत 'quietness', 'Skr. शान्ति; परमेस्वर 'God', 'Skr. परमेश्वर; H. वरस, G. बरस 'a year', 'Skr. वर्ष; G. बरसु 'to rain', 'Skr. वर्ष &c.

The present speakers of the Hindi, the Panjabi, and the Sindhi retain therefore the vocal peculiarity of their Prakrit ancestors of pronouncing Sanskrit श् and ष as स्.

Of the words given above, the र्निग, र्नेमल, र्नीख and र्नेज of the Hindi become र्निग, र्नेवरी, र्निह and र्नेज in Marathi, because they are followed by a palatal vowel. Similarly, we have र्नेण 'cowdung' Skr. शकम् ; र्नेगट 'a tree,' Skr. शिप्र ; र्नेवाळ 'moss,' Skr. र्नेवाल; र्निडी 'a ladder,' Skr. र्नेडी, &c. Even the original न् of Sanskrit words is pronounced by the Marathas as न् under those conditions, as र्नेदूर 'red lead,' Skr. सिन्दूरः; र्निवणें 'to sew,' Skr. सिद् ; माडणी 'mother's sister,' Skr. मातृवसा, &c.

Gujarati too shows the same tendency though it is not so decided; and we have thus र्निग 'a horn,' र्निखडु 'to learn' र्निवडु 'to sew,' र्निखम 'blackwood,' Skr. र्निक्षप, र्नेज, Skr. र्नेय्या &c. But we have also such words as र्निचडु 'sprinkling,' Skr. र्निच, र्निजवडु 'to boil,' र्निडी 'ladder,' &c. So that the Marathi rule does not seem to be strictly applicable to the Gujarati. Still the sound न् is as natural to the Gujaratis as to the Marathas, as is shown by such forms as न्नु for नु 'what?', करणो 'do,' &c., and in some provinces it is freely used for न् in many words.

The Bengali forms of such of the above words as are used in the language have न् for the Hindi न्, as:—

[Table 85 : Bengali न् for Hindi न]

B.	H.	B.	H.
शुकिना	सुखना to dry.	शियाल	सियारा a jackal.
शुनिवा	सुनना to hear.	शिसुल	सेमल the silk cotton tree.
शुइवा	सोना to sleep.	ऊँड	सौँड, रूँड trunk of an elephant.
पाशे	पास near.		
र्निगा	र्निग a horn.	र्निखू	रुनितो blackwood.
डाँस	डाँस a mosquito.	रुल	साल a dart.
भईश	भैंस a buffalo.	दिवाशलाई	दिवाशलाई a fire-match.

Bengali books and dictionaries contain a good many words, derived from the old Prakrits or recently adopted from Sanskrit, which contain न् in them. The object of the authors in these cases is to give the correct Prakrit or Sanskrit forms, and not to represent the correct Bengali pronunciation. But it is not necessary to hear a Bengali speak or read his language or even Sanskrit for a long time to arrive at the clear conviction that his vocal habits do not admit of the pronunciation of न् or न्, but only of न्.

Sanskrit and Prakrit **ऋ** becomes **ऌ** in his mouth. Thus the Bengalis of the present day possess the same vocal characteristic that is attributed to their ancestors, the speakers of the Māgadhī, by the Prakrit grammarians.

[Table 85 A : **ऋ** changed to **ऌ** in the Vernaculars]

ऋ has a tendency to pass off into **ऌ** as we observed in going over the Pali. For the Pali **उक** from the Skr. शकुन्त 'cowdung,' we have **केण** in S., **काण** in G., &c., from शकन्, another form of the word ; and for the Pali **डाव**, Skr. शव 'the young of an elephant,' we have **डावा** in H. M. &c., the Pr. form being **डाव**. For the Skr. **शेष** the G. has **डेवट**, **डेडो**, and **डेडो** 'last,' 'end,' with the suffixes **ट**, **ड** and **ड**; for Skr. **शङ्ख** 'rind', H. has **छङ्खी**, for Skr. **शण** 'hemp', O. has **छण**; for **सूत्रधार** 'carpenter,' which is **सुतार** in the other dialects and must have been pronounced **सुतार** by the Bengalis, the B. has **छुतार** and O. also. Other instances may be found.

[Table 85 B : **ऋ** changed to **ऌ** in Hindi]

In Hindi Skr. **ऋ** is often pronounced as **ऌ** as in **भाख** for **भाष**, 'spoken dialect'; **पुख** for **पुरुष**, **भेख** for **वेष**, **विखम** for **विषम**, &c. This is to be identified with the practice of the followers of the Mādhyamīna recension of the White Yajurveda who read the **ऋ** occurring in their books throughout as **ऌ**. But other dialects also have a few instances of this change, as **विल** P. M. G., **विखु** S. for Skr. **विष**.

Of the Prakrit words in which a vowel or a mute is aspirated through the influence of an adjoining aspirate or an aspirated mute, the vernaculars have preserved the following :—

[Table 86 : Mutes aspirated in the Prakrits and the Vernaculars]

Pr. **पनस**, M. G. **फणस**, Skr. **पनस** a Jacktree. The H. has also **फनस** but more commonly **पनस**.

Pr. **बिल**, M. **भिले**, H. **बिल**, P. **भेह**, Skr. **बिल** edible lotus root. S. has **बिह**.

Pr. **खासिअ**, G. H. P. **खांसी**, Skr. **कासि** cough.

There are a good many modern instances:—

[Table 87 : Mutes aspirated in the Vernaculars]

M. **फरशी**, G. **फरसी**, H. **फरसा**, Skr. **परशु** an axe.

M. G. कांस, H. कांस-कांसा-कांसी, P. काहा-काही-कांसी, S. कांसी-काही, B. कांस-कांसी, Skr. पाश a noose.

M. निमावणं, G. निमावणु, H. निमाना, S. निमाइणु, P. निमाउणा, Skr. निवाह accomplishing. H. S. P. have also the forms with निबाह.

G. खसखु, H. खिसना, Skr. कृष्यते to drop away, to be drawn.

G. घऊ, H. घेऊ, or गोहू, P. घेऊ, Skr. गोधूम wheat. M. has गहू.

M. G. O. हाड, P. हड-हड्डी, S. हड-हडी, H. B. हाड-हड्डी, Pr. अड्डी, Skr. अस्थि bone.

B. हांडु knee, H. ठिहुन, by interchange of places, Skr. अङ्गीचत, Pr. अङ्गीच ?

P. भाफ, B. O. भाप, Pr. बप्फ, Skr. बाष्प vapour.

M. बोंस a bunch, Skr. गुच्छ.

P. सभ, S. सभु all, Pr. सब्ब, Skr. सर्व.

M. खुशाल safe, well, Skr. कुशल.

H. P. M. भेस garb, Pr. बेस, Skr. वेश.

M. धुस-धुसा chaff, H. धूस-धुसा, P. धुस-धुस्ती, G. धुसो-धुसुं, B. धुसि, Skr. धुस ; S. has धुहु-धुहो.

[Table 86 A : Aspiration transferred]

In some cases the aspirate sound is absorbed in the adjoining mute, and it ceases to exist as a separate component of a word. Thus, from the Pr. षहुडि, Skr. षभृति, we have the M. पुहें in which the ह combines with ष, and the M. dial. फुहें in which it combines with प. In the same manner the Skr. भेष 'sheep' becomes, with the usual Apabhramśa suffix ड or डअ, भेसडड or भेइडड, which in M. and G. assumes the form of भेडा and भेंडा, the ह combining with ड, and in H. and P., of भेडा, in which the ह being combined with the preceding भे destroys the nasal character of the sound. P. has भेडा also, and G. भेडा, and B. and O. भेडा as well as भेडा. By a similar absorption of the ह sound and the reduction of the nasal to a mere Anusvāra, we have H. P. भेंस (masc. भेंसा), G. भेंस, B. भेंस, from Skr. महिषी 'a female buffalo,' and G. M. भेंस from Pr. भिस्स, Skr. भिन्न with the suffix ल, through an intermediate form भिहल or भेहल. We have a more ancient instance of the process in the Pr. संस्मर for Skr. संस्मर, through the intermediate form संस्मह, which has been preserved by the G. in संस्मरु 'to remember' or 'remind.'

Sometimes a mute is aspirated without any apparent reason in the Prakrits, and these instances have come down to some of the vernaculars :—

[Table 88 : Mutes aspirated]

Skr. कुम्भ humpbacked, Pr. खुज्जो, M. खुजा; but P. कोझा, H. कुंजा, B. कुंजो, O. कुंजा, S. कुबो; M. कुबडा also.

Skr. कीलकः a nail, Pr. खीलजो, M. सिळा, G. खिळो, B. O. खील or खिला; the rest कील.

Skr. कर्पर potsherd, an earthen cup, Pr. खप्पर, M. खापर, H. P. खप्पर, O. खपरा, B. खावरा.

Later instances are :—

P. खुहा, S. कुहा a well, Skr. कूपकः.

P. छुइणा to touch, H. छुना, Skr. छुप.

M. चागर, P. H. नागर, Skr. गर्गरिका.

G. खोळो lap, Skr. कोढ.

Of the instances in the Prakrits in which the consonants contained in a word interchange places we have :—

[Table 89 : Interchange of Consonants]

हल्ल 'slow' in M., Pr. हल्लभ and Skr. लघुक, होला in H. and P. and हल्ल and हल्लवे in G.

M. सून 'daughter-in-law,' Pr. सुण्हा, Skr. सुषा.

M. निहाल 'forehead,' Pr. णहाल, Skr. ललाट, &c.

There are a good many more modern instances :—

H. पहिचानना to recognize, Pr. पञ्चहिआण, Skr. प्रत्यभिज्ञा-(जा)न, P. पञाणना.

H. पहिरना to dress, Pr. परिहाण, Skr. परिधान; P. पहिराउणा to cause to dress. In both the last two syllables are assimilated and we have पहिका also; G. पेरहु by the loss of ह.

G. बहालुं beloved, Pr. बल्लह, Skr. बल्लभ.

सेहल्ल easy, Pr. हल्लह, Skr. हल्लभ.

बिलाडी a cat, Skr. बिडाल; उथलपाथल topsy-turvy, the M. form being उलटापालट, Pr. उवल्लथ-ह पल्लथ-ह, Skr. उपर्वत्त पर्यत्त.

M. शेपट or शेपटी tail, G. having पूछहुं or पूछडी, Skr. पुच्छ, with the suffix ट, the ह् being changed to ञ् by the usual M. rule and the palatal vowel being brought in by the palatal ञ्.

M. थोड़कें little, Pr. थोळ, Skr. सोक, with the suffix ड.

S. छुनो a bunch of flowers, Skr. गुच्छ ; हिलिडो loose, Pr. सिडिह, Skr. शिथिल.

H. M. दिक्कली, &c., from Skr. तिलक as in Table 75.

TREATMENT OF SKR. CONJUNCTS IN THE VERNACULARS,

We will now trace in the vernaculars the Sanskrit conjunct consonants assimilated in the Pali and the Prakrits, in the order I have observed in treating of them in the lecture on the Pali And first I will give a few instances of those in which the second member being strong prevails over the first and is doubled.

[Table 90: Second Member of the Conjunct preserved and doubled]

Skr. कर्म act, business, Pr. कम्म, P. कम्म, S. कहु, H. G. M. O. काम.

Skr. घर्म heat of the sun, Pr. घम्म, H. घाम ; M. G. B. O. घाम in the sense of 'sweat.'

Skr. चर्म skin, leather, Pr. चम्म, P. चम्म, S. चहु, H. G. B. चाम, O. चम, M. चाम in चामहें.

Skr. कार्य, Pr. कर्ज, S. काहु, M. G. H. P. काज. The M. has, however, the dento-palatal ज here.

Skr. कर्ण ear, Pr. कण्ण, P. कण, S. कहु, H. G. M. B. O. कान.

Skr. पर्ज a leaf, Pr. पण्ण, P. पत्ता (of a book), S. पतु, H. G. M. पान, G. पाहु (of a book), P. S. O. पान in the sense of 'betel leaf.'

Skr. विज्ञप to solicit, supplicate, Pr. विण्णव, H. G. M. विनव-[ना-हुं-में]; H. also विनौना.

Skr. राज्ञी a queen, Pr. रण्णी (?), G. P. S. M. B. O. रानी, H. रानी.

Skr. संज्ञा a signal, Pr. सण्णा, P. सन, H. G. सान; H. सेन also.

Skr. यज्ञोपवीत the sacred thread, Pr. जण्णोपवीज (?), H. P. जनेऊ, S. जण्यो, G. जनोह, M. जानवें.

Skr. अर्प to make over, Pr. अप्प, G. आप-[हुं].

Skr. समर्प to consign, deliver, Pr. समप्प, H. P. S. सौप-[ना-ना-हुं], M. G. सौप-[वें-हुं].

Skr. सर्प a serpent, Pr. सप्प, P. सप्प, S. सतु, H. G. M. B. O. साप.

Skr. वर्म sacred grass, Pr. वग्ग, S. वहु, H. डान or डाव, G. डान or डामो.

Skr. शब्द sound, call, Pr. सह, P. सह (subs. & verb), H. M. G. साद.

Skr. वटुर a frog, Pr. वटुर, P. H. G. वादुर, S. वेदक.

Skr. मत्त boiled rice, Pr. मत्त, P. मत्त, S. मत्त, H. M. G. B. O. मात.

Skr. रक्त red, Pr. रत्त, P. रत्ता, S. रत्तो, H. G. रातो, M. राता in राताम्बा a red sour fruit of a certain tree.

Skr. सुप्त slept, Pr. सुत्त, P. चुत्ता, S. G. सुतो.

Skr. कर्दम mud, Pr. कदम, H. कादो or कादा, G. कादव.

Skr. तर्क to look out for, gaze wistfully, Pr. तक्त, P. तक्कना, S. तक्क, M. टक्के, O. टाकिवा, H. G. ताक-[ना-कुं].

The following are instances in which though the second member of a conjunct prevails, some of the elements of the first sound are added to it :—

[Table .91 : Some element of the first added to the second member of a Conjunct]

(a) *Conjuncts of a sibilant and a mute.*

Skr. हस्त hand, Pr. हत्थ, P. हत्थ, S. हथु, H. G. हाथ, M. B. O. हात.

Skr. हृदि fist, Pr. हृदि, P. हृद, S. हृदि, H. G. बट-बट्टी, M. बट, O. मूदि, B. बट.

Skr. प्रस्तर stone, Pr. पत्थर, P. पथयर, S. पथक, H. G. पथयर or पाथर, M. पाथर, B. पाथर or पातर, O. पथर.

Skr. पृष्ठ back, Pr. पृष्ठ-पिष्ठ-पठ, vernaculars as in Table 4.

Skr. प्रस्थापन sending, Pr. पठावण, S. पठव, H. पठाना, Braj पठौनी, M. पाठवणे, B. पाठाइवा.

Skr. मुस्ता a kind of grass, Pr. मोन्था, vernaculars as in Table 5.

Skr. मस्तक head, Pr. मन्थेअ, P. मन्था, S. मथो, H. M. B. माथा, G. माथु, M. माथे, O. मथा.

Skr. पुस्तक a book, Pr. पोन्थअ, P. H. M. &c. as in Table 5.

Skr. उपविष्ट sat, Pr. उबइष्ट, vernaculars as in Table 43.

Skr. वृष्टि or दृष्ट sight or seen, Pr. दिष्टि or दिष्ट, P. डिष्टा-दिष्ट, and the rest as in Table 2.

Skr. उष्ण hot, Pr. उण्ड, G. उन्हुं, M. ऊण : M. G. S. उन्ह as in उन्हाळा-हो-रो for उष्णकाळ the hot season.

Skr. स्ना to bathe, Pr. ण्हा or नहा, P. H. M. G. न्हा-[उणा-ना-ने-हुं] ; P. H. नहा also.

Skr. अङ्गुल thumb, Pr. अंगुल, P. अंगुल, S. आङ्गुल, H. अंगुल, G. अंगुल, M. अंगुल.

Skr. विखिर to spread, Pr. बिखिर, P. बिखरना, S. बिखेरण, H. G. M. बिखर-[ना-ङ्ग-णे] to be scattered.

Skr. शुष्क dry, Pr. सुख, P. हक्खा, S. छको, H. सूखा, G. खखो, M. सुका, B. O. शुका.

Skr. ज्ञाप्य vapour, Pr. बप्फ, S. H. G. बाफ, M. बाफ, P. भाफ, B. O. भाप.

Skr. स्कन्ध shoulder, Pr. खन्ध, H. M. खांदा, G. खांदो; but H. mostly has कंधा and कांधा, P. कन्धा, B. O. कांध.

Skr. पश्चात् behind, Pr. पच्छा, P. पिच्छे, H. पीछे, पाछे, G. पाछु.

Skr. ग्रीष्म hot season, Pr. गिह, M. dial गीम.

Skr. कृष्ण proper name, Pr. कण्ड, vernaculars as in Table 1.

[Table 92 : the Same as in Table 91]

(b) *Conjuncts of a dental and a heavy प.*

Skr. सत्य true, Pr. सध, P. H. सध, S. सनु, H. M. साच, G. साचुं, B. सांचा.

Skr. नृत्य of नृत्यति to dance, Pr. नध, P. नध or नच-[णा], S. नच-[ण], H. M. G. नाच-[ना-ङ्ग-णे], B. O. नाचिवा.

Skr. नृत्य a dance, Pr. नध, P. नाच, S. नाचु, H. M. G. B. O. नाच.

Skr. मृत्यु death, Pr. मिचु, H. मीच.

Skr. प्रत्यभिज्ञान of प्रत्यभिज्ञानाति to recognize, Pr. पबहिआण, H. पहि-चान, P. पछाण, B. चिन or चिनिवा, by dropping the first two consonants.

Skr. उत्पद्य of उत्पद्यते to be produced, Pr. उप्पज्ज, P. S. H. M. G. पज-[ण-णु-ना-ङ्ग-णे].

Skr. माद्य of माद्यति to be intoxicated, Pr. मज्ज, M. माजणें.

Skr. विद्युत् lightning, Pr. विज्जू, M. G. बीज, P. बिज, S. बिजु.

Skr. अद्य to-day, Pr. अज्ज, P. अज्ज, S. अज्ज, H. M. G. B. आज, B. O. आजि.

Skr. स्विद्य of स्विद्याति to sweat, also to boil, Pr. सिज्ज, P. सिज्जणा to be soaked, S. सिज्जणु, H. सिज्जना-सिज्जाना (causal), M. सिज्जणें, G. सिज्जु, O. सिज्जिवा.

Skr. वरुण्या a barren woman, Pr. वंज्जा or वंज्जा, P. वंजा, S. वांज, H. O. वांज, G. वांज-[जी], M. वांज or वांज, B. वांजा.

Skr. संध्या evening, Pr. संझा, P. S. संझा, S. सांझी, H. सांझ, M. G. H. B. सांज, O. संज.

Skr. बुध्य of बुध्यते to know, Pr. बुझ, P. बुझणा, H. S. बुझ-[ना-वु]; B. O. बुझिवा, M. G. बुझ-[जें-वुं].

Skr. मध्य middle, Pr. मज्झ, P. मंज्झ or माज्झ, S. मंझु, H. मांझ or माझ, M. माजी, B. माझ.

Skr. युद्ध battle, Pr. जुझ of जुझाव for युध्वाति, P. जुझ, H. जुझा, B. झुंज (in झुंजार), M. झूज.

When व as the latter member of a conjunct is heavily pronounced, the double consonant that takes the place of the conjunct is व्व, व्व्व, and व्व्व according as the preceding member is a surd, a sonant, or an aspirated sonant. Sometimes, when the preceding member is a dental, the substitutes are ख, ज्ञ, and ज्ञ्. The following are instances of these changes in the vernaculars:—

[Table 93 : व as second member of a conjunct changed to व्व, व्व्व, व्व्व, ख, ज्ञ, ज्ञ्]

Skr. त्व abstract termination, Apabhr. प्व, H. पा as in बुढापा old age, मोटापा fatness, S. पो as in माण्हपो humanity, from माण्ह man.

Skr. त्वन abstract termination, Pr. तण, Apabhr. पण, H. पन or पना as in कुआरपन celibacy; S. पणु or पणो as in जालपणु womanhood, माण्हअपणु humanity; M. पण or पणा as in माणुसपण or माणुसपणा humanity; P. पुण as in निआणपुण childhood, &c.

Skr. उद्देश feeling of repulsion, Pr. उव्वेण, M. उदण.

Skr. द्वार door, Pr. दार or दार, P. H. G. दार, P. दर, S. दरु, M. दार.

Skr. सर्व all, Pr. सव्व, H. सब, P. सब, S. सवु, G. सहु for सब.

Skr. ज्वल to burn, Pr. जल or बल, S. बरणु, P. जळना-बळणा, H. जळना-बळना, G. जळहुं-बळहुं, M. जळणें and पोळणें where व seems to be hardened, B. O. पोड in पोडिवा.

Skr. ऊर्ध्व above, erect, Pr. उव्व, S. उवो, M. O. उभा, B. उडु.

Skr. जिह्वा tongue, Pr. जिम्भा, M. H. P. G. जीव, B. O. S. जिव.

Skr. ध्वज banner, Pr. झज; with the suffix डा or डो, S. झंडी, P. H. झंदा, M. झंदा.

Similarly आत्मन्, with the loss of the nasal sound of त्म, becomes अप्प in the Prakrits and आप in M. O. G., आप in B., पाप in S. and आप in H. P.

Dentals have a tendency to become palatals even when not followed by *य* or *इ*, probably because they do so become when followed by those semi-vowels. Thus, from the Skr. वाद्यति 'to sound' or 'play on a musical instrument,' we have P. वजाउणा, H. वजाना, M. वाजविणें, &c.; from Skr. निद्रा 'sleep,' M. नीज; P. H. ओछा 'trifling,' 'vain,' S. ओछा, from very probably, Skr. वृथा; M. सावज, H. साजा from Skr. व्वापद which appears even in the Prakrits to have assumed the form of सावज, though सावय is usually given; M. H. G. डी डी, M. डे डे, Pr. डि डि from Skr. धिक धिक &c.

Skr. क्षण { a moment, Pr. सण, P. डिण, S. सिण, H.
 दिन, G. खण, M. (*dial.*) सिण a festival,
 Pr. ढण, M. दिन, M. सण for ढण.

Skr. मक्षिका & fly, Pr. { मक्षिका, P. मयखी, S. मखी, H. G. माखी.
{ मच्छिआ, H. B. O. माछी, M. माछी.

Skr. ब्रह्म a bear, Pr. रिष्ठ, S. रिष्ठ, H. G. रीष्ठ, M. रीस.

Skr. क्षेत्र a field, M. क्षेत्र from Pr. क्षेत्र; the rest क्षेत्र.

Skr. मत्स्य a fish, Pr. मच्छ, P. मच्छ, S. मछ, H. मछ or माछ, B. O. माछ, M. मासा.

The conjunct $\mathfrak{A}$ sometimes appears in the Prakrits, and perhaps even in Sanskrit, in the form of $\mathfrak{A}$. The Sanskrit $\mathfrak{A}$ is $\mathfrak{A}$ in the Prakrits, and this we have in the H. $\mathfrak{A}$, M. $\mathfrak{A}$ and $\mathfrak{A}$ in which last $\mathfrak{A}$ stands for the preposition $\mathfrak{A}$. $\mathfrak{A}$ is Pr. $\mathfrak{A}$ from which we have M. $\mathfrak{A}$ 'to waste away', and from $\mathfrak{A}$ we have S. $\mathfrak{A}$, H. $\mathfrak{A}$, &c.

[Table 95: (d) Instances in which a dental is changed to a cerebral through the influence of a previous र]

Skr. वर्ध to increase, Pr. वद्ध, H. बढना or बाढना, M. बाढने, B. बाढिना, O. बाढिना. But P. S. G. बध or बध- (जा-छ-ई)

Skr. वर्ध to out, Pr. वद्ध, P. बढुणा or बढुणन, S. बढछ.

Skr. वर्धक-कि a carpenter, Pr. वद्धइ, P. बढि, H. बढई, O. बढाइ, B. बाहुइ, S. G. बाहो.

Skr. छर्ध to let off, to leave, Pr. छद्ध, P. छढुणा, S. छढछ, H. छाडना, B. O. छाडिना, H. छाडना, M. साँडने, perhaps from the same, as also H. छाडना, M. सोडने.

Skr. कर्त to cut, Pr. कद्ध, P. कढुणा, S. कटछ, H. काटना, B. काडिना, G. काटव, M. काटने.

Skr. उद्भर्तन a cosmetic, Pr. उब्बट्टन, S. उबटछ, H. उबटन, M. उटने, G. उटव.

Skr. केवर्त a boatman, Pr. केवट्ट, H. केवट.

Skr. सार्ध a half more, Pr. सद्ध, H. P. B. O. साँदे, S. साढा-इ, H. M. साढे, G. साढा.

We will now proceed to instances in which the first member of a conjunct prevails over the second and is doubled :—

[Table 96: Instances where the first member of a conjunct remains]

Skr. भग्न-[कः] fled away, Pr. भग्न-[ओ], H. भागा, S. भगो.

Skr. लग्न adhered to, connected, Pr. लग्न, P. लग्ना or लग्न in लग्नावा, S. लग्न in लग्ना, H. M. G. लाग-[ना-ने-ई] B. लाग्ना, O. लागिना.

Skr. नग्न-[कः] naked, Pr. नग्न-[ओ], P. H. नंगा, S. नंगो, G. नागो, M. नाग-[डा], O. नागा.

Skr. रस्मि a cord, a rope, Pr. रस्मि, P. H. रस्ती, S. B. G. O. रसी, H. G. रास in the sense of 'reins'.

Skr. शोण्य fit, Pr. जोग्न, P. ओण or ओग्ना, S. शौछ, H. G. जोन, H. M. जोना.

Skr. शून्य void, empty, Pr. शुण्य, P. शुक् or शुक्ता, S. शून, H. शन or शून, M. शुना. शून has acquired the sense of 'insensibility' also.

Skr. मन्थ of मन्थते to regard, Pr. मण्ण, P. मन्णणा, S. मनन्धु, M. G. H. मान-[मं-धु-ना].

Skr. व्याख्यान to explain, Pr. वस्साज, P. व-वस्साजना, H. वस्सानना explain or praise, S. वस्साणवु praise, G. वस्साणदुं, H. वास्साणजे.

Skr. अरण्य desert, Pr. रण्ण, M. G. रान, G. रन, S. रिणु.

Skr. व्याघ्र a tiger, Pr. वग्घ, P. H. B. O. वाघ, S. वाघु, M. G. वाघ.

Skr. अग्र front part, Pr. अग्ग, S. अगे, H. आगा; P. आगु before, G. आगे, G. आगल before, B. आगे, O. आउ first of all.

Skr. चक्र a wheel, Pr. चक्क, P. चक्क, S. चक्कु (both) a potter's wheel, H. चाक, चक्की, in the sense of a 'mill-stone', G. M. चाक, B. चाका.

Skr. पत्र a leaf, Pr. पत्त, P. पत्त, S. पत्ते a playing card, H. पात, पाता, पत्ता, G. पातई, M. पात्ते blade of a knife, M. पात्तेरा a collection of dry leaves.

Skr. चन्द्र moon, Pr. चन्द, P. चंद, S. चंडु, H. G. M. B. O. चादि, H. चंद also.

Skr. चक्षु as in Table 34.

Skr. अन्न a cloud, Pr. अन्न, H. अनाल, M. अनाल or आनाल (from अनालि), G. आन.

Skr. जल, Pr. and other forms with ज as in Table 93.

Skr. पार्श्व a side, Pr. पास, S. पासो, P. पास्ता, H. पात, G. पासे, M. पार्शी near, i. e. by one's side.

When र followed by य् is changed to ल्, this last sound prevails over the य्, and the conjunct becomes लृ in the Prakrits. The following instances of this change have come down to the vernaculars:—

[Table 97 : र् is changed to लृ]

Skr. पर्याय rotation, turn, Pr. पल्लाय, H. पाला, M. G. O. पाळी.

Skr. पर्यस्त changed, Pr. पल्लु or पल्लय, P. H. पलटा, P. पळटा, M. G. पाळट.

Skr. पर्यङ्क a bedstead, Pr. पल्लङ्क, P. पलेय, S. पलेय, H. M. G. पलेन, B. पाळेक or पाळेग, O. पलेक.

The following are instances of other cases of the same change ;

Skr. मद् to squeeze, rub, knead, Pr. मल, P. M. G. मल-[ना-मं-डु], H. S. मल-[ना-गु].

Skr. आर्द्रक ginger, Pr. अल्लुअ, M. आलें. H. P. B. have आदा, G. आदु, from Pr. अल्लअ.

Skr. आर्द्रक wet, Pr. अल्लुअ, उल्लुअ, ओल्लुअ, M. ओलें, S. आलो, H. आला. H. has आदा also from Pr. अल्लअ.

P. H. M. मला, G. S. मलो, B. माल, from Skr. मद्, through the change of र to ल and of the conjunct to ह्.

When ह्, the first sound of ह्, prevails and adds to itself the heavy aspiration of ह्, the conjunct becomes क्ख्. Of this change there are many instances in the vernaculars :—

[Table 98: क्ष changed to क्ख]

Skr. वृक्ष a tree, Pr. रुक्ख, P. रुक्ख, H. रुख.

Skr. रक्ष to keep, to protect, Pr. रक्ख, P. रक्खणा, S. रक्खणु, H. रक्खना also राक्खना, M. G. राक्ख-[णें-डु], B. O. राखिवा.

Skr. उपलक्ष to mark, Pr. उपलक्ख, M. G. ओळख acquaintance.

Skr. शिक्ष to learn, Pr. सिक्ख, P. सिक्खणा, S. सिक्खणु, H. सिक्खना, G. शिक्खणु, M. शिक्खें, B. O. शिखिवा.

Skr. क्षेत्र a field, Pr. खेत, P. खेत, S. खेतु or खेडु, H. B. O. खेत, G. खेत in खेती agriculture.

Skr. कुक्षि a side of the abdomen, Pr. कुक्खि, P. कुक्ख or कोख, S. क्खि, H. कोख, G. कुख.

Skr. दुग्धक्ष्ण hunger, Pr. दुग्धक्खा, P. भुक्ख, S. डुख, H. G. B. डुख, M. B. खूक, O. भोक.

Skr. ब्रक्ष्ण to anoint, an unguent, Pr. मक्खण, P. मक्खण butter, S. मक्खणु anoint, butter, H. मक्खन or माखन butter, B. O. माखन butter, माखिवा to anoint, M. माखणें to anoint, G. माखण butter.

Skr. परीक्षा examination, Pr. परिक्खा, H. P. B. O. परख, M. G. S. पारख.

Skr. अक्षि the eye, Pr. अक्खि, P. अक्ख, S. अखि, H. G. आंख, B. O. आखि.

Skr. क्षीर milk, Pr. खीर, S. खीरु, P, H. M. G. खीर a dish of rice and milk, O. खीरी.

Skr. मक्षिका and क्षण as in Table 93.

Skr. इक्षु sugar-cane, Pr. उक्खु or इक्खु, H. ऊख or ईख, P. इक्ख.

Though according to Hemacandra and Vararuci, the *क्ष* of *क्षेत्र*, *कुक्षि*, *अक्षि*, *क्षार*, *मक्षिका*, and *इक्षु* is changed to *क्ख* in the Mahārāṣṭrī or principal Prakrit, still we see that most of the vernaculars derive their forms of these words from such Prakrit forms as had *क्ख* for the Sanskrit *क्ष*. But with the exception of *इक्खु* and *क्षीर* which are mentioned as occurring in the Jaina sacred books, these forms are not given as existing in any of the dialects.

This and other similar omissions show that the observation of the Prakrit grammarians was by no means perfect. The Marathi forms of these words, however, with the exception of *अक्षि*, which is unknown to the language, and of *क्षीर* which is *क्षीर*, have *क्ख* or *क्ख*, which is representative of the Prakrit *क्ख*, and hence they are the same as those given by Hemacandra and Vararuci. Here we have one of several indications that the modern Marathi is the direct daughter of the old Mahārāṣṭrī of the grammarians.

It will be seen from the lists given above that the Hindi, Gujarati, Marathi and Bengali mostly drop one component of the doubled consonants, and to make up for the quantity thus lost, lengthen the preceding vowel. In other words, the speakers of those dialects take the same time to pronounce two syllables the latter of which contains a double consonant which the speakers of the Prakrit did*, but the preceding forcible vowel utterance and the subsequent strong contact and pressure being avoided, the effect is that one of the two consonants is dropped and the previous vowel lengthened. This then is essentially a case of softening.

The Sindhi drops one of the two consonants, but does not lengthen the preceding vowel; while the Panjabi generally preserves the doubled consonants handed down to it by the old Prakrits. The Hindi contains more instances in which the original Prakrit pronunciation is preserved than the other three dialects. Hemacandra notices in the Prakrits the softened pronunciation we have been considering in the case of *क्ख* only, one *क्ख* of which is according to him dropped and the preceding vowel is lengthened, as in *पासइ* for *पस्सइ*, Sk. *पश्यति*, *मीसं* for *मिस्सं*, Sk. *मिश्रस*, &c. This lengthening of the previous vowel is in the four dialects prevented, as observed before,¹ by the accent falling on a subsequent syllable.

¹ See pp.424-26,

In the Pali and the Prakrits, you will remember, the components of some conjuncts such as *रि, ई, र्छि, ई, भ्रु, ह्र, ष्ट, ष्ट,* &c, are not assimilated but separated by the interposition of a vowel. The vernaculars have preserved some instances of this process—

[Table 99 : Interposition of a vowel between the members of a conjunct]

H. सराहना to praise, Pr. सलाह, Skr. श्लाघ.

H. अगनी, P. अगन, B. आगुन fire, Pr. अगणी, Skr. अग्नि.

H. बरस, बरिस, M. बरिस a year, Pr. बरिस, Skr. वर्ष. So also H. P. बरस-[ना-गा], G. बरसहुँ, Skr. वर्ष.

H. गिलान tired, Pr. गिलाण, Skr. ग्लान.

M. किडस disgust, Pr. किलेस, Skr. क्लेश distress.

M. शिलोक, stanza, Skr. श्लोक ; G. हरख joy, Skr. हर्ष ; G. सकेसम, P. सिलेसम, Skr. श्लेषम, are later instances of the same nature.

In modern times other conjuncts also are similarly dissolved, and we have पर्ताप S. M., &c. 'exploit' for प्रताप, क्षेत्र, P. G., &c. 'a field' for क्षेत्र, पद्म S. 'a lotus' for पद्म, तियाग P. for त्याग, तर्ह S., others तरास, 'vexation' for त्रास, चरम 'virtue' H. M. G., &c., for चर्म, &c.

But the books and dictionaries of some of these languages contain a good many Sanskrit words the conjuncts in which art not changed in any way. This is due to the fact that those languages are now the spoken languages of the educated as well as the uneducated portions of the different communities, and the former pronounce the words correctly, and the forms given to them by the latter are not taken into account by the authors of those books. Again, even the latter, though they interpose a vowel between the components of some conjuncts as shown above, have, to a certain extent, become used to Sanskrit sounds and can pronounce others correctly. But in some of the provinces the old disability of the Prakrit speakers has been inherited in certain cases by their modern descendants, whether educated or uneducated, and it is very much to be regretted that the writers of books should in such cases write words in their Sanskrit forms which, when they are read by themselves or others, are read in a quite different way.

The people of Sindh,¹ whether belonging to the higher or lower classes, and the Bengalis pronounce the conjunct **क्ष** invariably as **क्ख**. Thus Sanskrit नक्षत्र as नक्खत्र, साक्षी as साखी, मोक्ष as मोक्ख or मोख, &c. The speakers of the Hindi more often pronounce **क्ष** as **क्ख** than as **क्ख**, नक्षत्र becoming नक्खेत्र with them; साक्षी, साखी; मोक्ष मोख; लक्ष्मण, लक्खमन; लक्षणा, लक्खना; क्षत्रिय, खत्री or छत्री; क्षय, छय; क्षम, छम; &c. The Panjabis pronounce the first three words as नक्खत्र, साखी, and मोक्ख, लक्ष्मण as लक्खण, क्षत्रिय as खत्रि, &c., so that they also agree with the Hindi people, but seem more inclined towards making **क्ख** of the conjunct. The Marathas, however, pronounce the **क्ष** properly, though ordinarily they make **क्ख** of it rather than **क्ख**, as remarked on a former occasion. Similarly, the Bengali assimilates conjuncts the latter member of which is **क्** or **ख**, ईश्वर becoming ईश्वर and व्याख्यान, वाक्खान in his mouth. Similarly he pronounces Skr. आत्मा as अत्ता just as his Prakrit ancestors did though it is written correctly.

ASSIMILATION OF MEMBERS OF CONJUNCTS CONTAINING NASALS

Some of the vernaculars assimilate the components of a conjunct made up of a nasal and a mute. Thus the Panjabi has **क्ख** for **क्ख** 'penalty', **छ** for **छ** 'to shave', **क्ख** for **क्ख**, Skr. **छ** 'the trunk of an elephant', **क्ख** for **क्ख**, Skr. **क्ख** 'shoulder', **क्ख** for **क्ख** 'binding', **क्ख** for **क्ख** 'a piece', **क्ख** 'to break' for **क्ख** or **क्ख**, **क्ख** for **क्ख** 'a pillar,' &c. In the Bengali **क्ख** 'a piece', one of the two **क्** sounds of **क्ख** is dropped and the preceding vowel lengthened. Similarly we have **क्ख** 'to stop' from **क्ख**. In Sindhi we have **क्ख** 'interruption', for **क्ख**, **क्ख** 'good' for **क्ख**, M. चांगला; **क्ख** 'madder' for **क्ख**; **क्ख** 'a ball' for **क्ख**; **क्ख** 'a piece of bread' for **क्ख**; **क्ख** 'to kiss' for **क्ख**, &c. Here the Sindhi, as is usual with him, drops one component of the

1 While I was Head Master of the High School at Hyderabad in Sindh, I introduced about the beginning of 1865 the study of Sanskrit, and the first thing I had to do was to teach correct pronunciation to my pupils. I had no great difficulty, so far as I can now remember, in making them pronounce the other conjuncts; but when I came to **क्ष**, all my endeavours to teach its correct pronunciation failed. I got the most intelligent of my boys to pronounce first **क्** and then **ख**. This he did very well, whereupon I told him to utter both the sounds one after another immediately; but instead of making **क्ख** of them he invariably gave them the form of **क्ख**. I then gave up attempt in despair.

doubled consonants. With this exception, the modern dialects have got no cases of the assimilation of the members of a conjunct unknown to the Prakrits, while, as shown above, the speakers of those dialects tenaciously retain the vocal habit of assimilation of their Prakrit ancestors in a few cases.

And now I close this part of my inquiry. The results at which we have arrived are these—The vernaculars of Northern India contain the instances and, in some cases, a large number of them, given by the Prakrit grammarians or occurring in Prakrit literature, of every one of the rules or processes of change grouped by me under the heads of softening, assimilation, dissimilation, interchange of places, accentuation, and peculiarities by which Sanskrit words become Prakrit. Most of these processes have been continued and their range widened, to such an extent in some of the dialects as to render them distinctive characteristics of those dialects. Other processes scarcely or rarely observable in the Prakrits have come into operation, such as the original accent on the penultimate syllable and the final accent derived from it, the avoiding of the hiatus caused by the elision of consonants in the Prakrits in different ways, the change of **ञ** to **ञ्** and the dropping of one component of a double consonant and the lengthening of a previous vowel; and these have further transformed the Prakrit vocables and changed also those Sanskrit words that have been adopted in later times.

Some of the vocal tendencies and habits of the Prakrit speakers are exhibited by the speakers of the vernaculars. Thus, like the former, the ordinary Gujarati pronounces **ऐ** and **ओ** as **ए** and **ओ**, the Deshastha Brahmans and other people of Eastern Mahārāṣṭra have a predilection for **ण** to which they reduce **न** in most cases,¹ the Sindhis make **कव** of **कृ**, the Bengalis do the same and also pronounce **ख**, **ख्य** and **क** as **कख**, **कव** and **क**, and the Hindi people reduce **कृ** to **क**. These again and the Konkan lower classes pronounce **क** as **क** like the speakers of the Paisācī, and the Bengali reduces all the sibilants to **स** like the speakers of the Māgadhī; while the speakers of the Hindi, Sindhi and the Panjabi exhibit the old Mahārāṣṭrī and Śaurasenī characteristic of reducing them to **क**.

¹ I feel it necessary for the present thus to modify the assertion made in p. 454.

The tendency to pronounce dentals as cerebrals is common to all, though it appears in a very strong form in the mouth of the Sindhis, and next to them in that of the Panjabis and the Hindi people.

The general or almost universal elision of certain uninitial consonants, which was a characteristic of the Prakrits, has disappeared except in isolated cases, and the assimilation of the components of a conjunct, which was also very general, has become restricted to the few cases I have mentioned, though the words changed in the Prakrits in accordance with these two processes have come down to us in large numbers. While, therefore, this fact shows that the speakers of the Prakrits were in a condition which rendered the two phenomena very general in their speech, and that we are now free from it, the fact that we exhibit some of the same vocal peculiarities which they possessed leads to the conclusion that we are their successors or lineal descendants. And the fact that the vocables in ordinary use in our modern dialects are the same as those in the old Prakrits, whether of a Desya or Sanskrit origin, and in the latter case, whether derived by the transformation of Sanskrit words in accordance with processes which have ceased or which have continued to operate in the vernaculars, affords strong evidence in favour of the hypothesis that these dialects are but a more developed form of the Prakrits. But to place this hypothesis beyond the reach of cavil we must examine the grammar of our vernaculars ; and this I propose doing in the next two lectures.

LECTURE V

REMNANTS OF THE OLDER GRAMMATICAL FORMS IN THE NORTHERN VERNACULARS

I have already directed your attention to the accent on the penultimate syllable of words in the vernaculars of Northern India and the effect it has had in mutilating and transforming the Sanskrit and Prakrit words existing in their vocabularies. Through its influence, you will remember, the final vowel or the vowel of the last syllable is shortened in some cases, and often entirely dropped and the word ends in a consonant or silent अ. When the consonant of the last syllable is dropped in consequence of the Prakrit law of the elision of uninitial consonants, the final vowel and the vowel of the penultimate syllable are brought together and when they are in this condition, it is possible for them to unite into one sound and thus the final vowel is dropped in some cases and combined with the preceding in others. The Sindhi, however, oftentimes resists the influence of this accent as I have already mentioned.

CASE TERMINATIONS IN THE VERNACULARS.

Now on account of these processes, the nominative singular¹ terminative ओ of masculine Prakrit nouns ending in अ is sometimes shortened to उ and in this form we have it in the Sindhi and in old Marathi and Hindi literature. In the other dialects including the modern Marathi and Hindi, it is dropped except in instances such as बाटसक M. a आवह 'command' H. The Prakrit plural terminations आ and ए of this case are also dropped everywhere for the same reason and we have such forms as हाथ S., हाथ H., हात M. G. & C. for the nom. pl. and these are the sing. forms also except in the case of the Sindhi, which has हथु.

In the Prakrit the plurals of the nominative and accusative cases of all nouns are alike and so are they alike in the vernaculars. The analogy came to be extended to the singulars also in the Apabhraṃśa and accordingly the singulars of the two cases are the same in the vernaculars. An independent accusative.

case made up by affixing a termination to a noun is given in ordinary grammars; but it has the sense of the dative, or rather of the Sanskrit genitive, which expresses relation in general. Thus we say मी काम करितें M. 'I do a work,' हुं काम करूं हूँ G., आब कसु थो कर्वा S., मे कम करवा P., मे काम करता हूँ H., आमी or मुह काम करि or करितें छि B., हु कर्म कर आछि O., in which instances काम etc. are really accusatives and we do not use कामास, कामने, कमखे, कमहु, कामको, कामके and कर्महु, which forms are generally referred to the accusative.

The masculine nom. and acc. sing. form in उ was in the Apabhraṃśa extended by analogy to the neuter singular also; and, though the peculiar neuter plural termination was preserved, the fact shows that in the vernacular speech of the times there was a tendency to forget the distinction between the two genders. Accordingly we now find that in the Sindhi, the Panjabi, the Hindi, Bengali and Oriya the distinction is entirely lost. In Gujarati also nouns ending in अ have retained none of the two neuter terminations; but the Prakrit and Apabhraṃśa ई plural of that gender exists in the Marathi combined with the preceding 3T into ए as फळ 'a fruit' sing., फळें 'fruits' pl.

This neuter pl. termination is applied in Hindi, Sindhi, and Panjabi to the pl. of fem. nouns ending in अ as in रातें 'nights' H., जाका 'women' S. and गद्दां 'words' P., though the इ is changed to आ in the last two cases.

The change of the final syllables अओ of Prakrit words resulting from such Sanskrit words as आत्रातकः-को, पारदः-यो, दीपकः-को etc. to आ by the dropping of the final and lengthening of the penultimate through the force of the general accent on the penultimate in some of the modern dialects such as the Marathi and the Hindi and to औ, into which the two vowels are combined in consequence of the weakness of the accent in such languages as the Gujarati and the Sindhi and in some of the minor dialects of the Marathi, has already been noticed in the last lecture. Similarly the change of the Prakrit final syllables of neuter nouns:अअं or अयं arising from such Sanskrit words as कदलकम्, मस्तकम् have been changed to ए in the Marathi and to ई in Gujarati and to औ in some of the dialects of the Marathi. This also has been explained. The pl. of such neuter nouns, most of which are formed by

the addition of **व** and may be called augmented nouns, is formed by the addition of the Apabhramśa **ई**, which being rendered emphatic by the nasal sound absorbs the previous **अ** or light **व** and thus we have केडी for Ap. कमलज + ई = Skr. कदलक + जनि.

Fem. nouns in **इ** or **ई** add **आं** as बोडी-बोडियां H., बोडिआं P. This **यां** or **आं** represents the combination of **य** or **अ** with **ई**; such nouns as बोडी being derived from बोदिका = बोदिआ. In Panjabi after fem. nouns in **आ** the **ई** appears distinct, as बला a calamity, बलाई nom. pl. In Sindhi the neuter termination is added to the original Prakrit fem. pl. उ, shortened from ओ, as बोडय् 'mares' nom. pl.; हत्या 'murder' हत्याउं 'murders'; जाल a 'woman,' जालू 'women' nom. pl. This last has जालां also like the P. रालां. In Marathi also it is not very unusual to speak of women in the neuter pl. when respect is intended as राजासाहेब जालीं. This transference of neuter termination to the fem. must have taken place when genders began to be confused in the Apabhramśa period.

The nom. pl. termination of masc. nouns, which in the Prakrit was **आ**, is preserved by the class of nouns we have been considering i. e. augmented nouns, in Sindhi and Gujarati; while the **ए** of the Prakrit acc. pi. is used for those nouns in the Marathi and its dialects and the Hindi and the Panjabi. When the two cases were thoroughly confounded, one can easily see how this came to pass. Other or unaugmented nouns have dropped both the terminations in all the languages, as has been already noticed.

The Marathi has preserved the Apabhramśa instr. sing. **ए** which is used after nouns in **अ** and the plural **हिं** reduced to **इं**. In all the modern languages the **इ** of the Apabhramśa forms is dropped. These terminations are appended to the old instrumental termination **न** and we have **नें** and **नीं** which are now ordinarily used. These you will see are double forms and of such we have many in the various languages. Goan., Mal. and Cit. have **ए** for the sing. and the last has **इं** for the pl.

The loc. Apabhramśa **हिं** from the Pali **णि** and the Skr. **स्मिन्** is also used, as चरी गेला; this is peculiar to nouns in **अ**, and in old Marathi it is reduced to **आं** after the augmented nouns in **आ**; as मलां, मायां etc. There are instances of the other locative in **ए** such as मजे and मजे (माझ्या मते तुम्ही जावे 'you should go in my opinion,')

where *सते* is hardly an instrumental), but here evidently the termination *ए* is confounded with the *इ* of the instrumental and we have *साइवा सते* lit. "by my opinion."

The dative *स* is generally considered a remnant of the Skr. *स* and Pr. *सस*. But I have not found it in the *Jāñesvari* and in its place we have *सी* in the old poets, which is connected with a similar post-position in other languages which will be considered hereafter. None of the minor dialects of the languages have anything like it, but still the derivation may be correct.

Gujarati has the old instrumental in *इ*, but it is confounded with the corresponding *ए* of the fem. and with the locative *ए* and we have one termination for both, with the nasal dropped. The shortened Apabhramśa form in *इ* is found in old Gujarati. It is confounded with that in *इ*, the *anusvāra* being dropped.

(1) कान्दतण्ड संपत्ति इसी जित्सी इन्द्र परि रिद्धि राजभवनि नवनिधि.

'The wealth or affluence of Kanha was as great as that of Indra.'

From the chronicle of *Kanhadade-prabandha*
given in the Gujarati School-paper.

(2) पाछे हुं माहरी गामि आच्यो । पाछे बीजे दिनि.

Pāncapākhyāna, the story of *Hiranyaka*.

In this latter, however, there occurs an *anusvāra*, which should be correct, the termination is a remnant *हिं*. The Gujarati has also the double instrumental *जे* in pronouns, as *तेजे*, *जेजे*, etc.

The Sindhi has got the ablative terminations *आं*, *ओं*, *ऊं*, *अड* and *आड*. The first is from the pronominal instrumental *हं* of the Apabhramśa and *म्हा* of the Prakrit; *ओं* and *ऊं* from *हुं* of the former and *अड* and *आड* from the corresponding Prakrit. The locative *ए* and its shortened form *इ* are also preserved, but they are used after nouns in *अ* as in the older dialects, as *सुहि* or *सुहे* पिओ 'he fell into a well.'

The Panjabi possesses the abl. in *हुं* with the *इ* dropped and the *हं* amalgamated with the preceding *अ* into *आं* as *बरो* 'from a house,' the locative pl. *हिं* as *बरीं* 'in the house', the instrumental pl. *हिं* as *उसदे हरीं* 'by the hands' and the locative sing. in *ए* as *उसदो दरगाहे* 'in his court.' The instr. in *नै* is also ordinarily used in the form of *नै*.

The Hindi has scattered instances of the loc. in **ए**, but the instrumental **ने** is common. The Bengali has preserved the former. The instrumental also has **ए**, though the grammarians do not give it, as—

सरोवर मध्ये ईस देखि रूपवती ।
वरिवार मानसे कलिल ह्रीम गति ॥

'The beautiful one having seen the swan in the lake went in haste with a desire to catch it.'

शुनिषा भैरीर मन अनङ्गे पीडिल ।

'Having heard (this) the heart of BhaimI was oppressed by love.'

गगनचाले केमल दीपकपे अनुक्षण
होमि छे हाशीतपन

'How do the moon and the sun in the form of lamps shine in the plate of the sky !'

The Oriya also possesses the loc. in **ए** and as in the B. and G. it is confounded with the instr. in **ए**, the nasal being lost, as **हातें** 'in or by the hand.' This dialect has the Pr. abl. in 3" also as **हात** 'from the hand.'

The nom. pl **ओ** or **उ** of fem. nouns in **आ** or **ई** is preserved in the Mal., Gean. and Cit. as **जीम**, **जिमो**; **साडी**, **साड्यो**; and **चोडी**, **चोड्यो**; but the two latter are derived from the Skr. **शाटिका** and **चोटिका**, which are nouns ending in **आ**. The final **आ**, which alone remains after the elision of the consonant **क**, is dropped in consequence of the penultimate accent and we have **साडी** and **चोडी**. The **ओ** or **उ** of the plural of the original Prakrit **साडिआओ-उ** is also dropped like the **ओ** or **उ** of **चोडओ-उ** in the ordinary Marathi **चोडा**; and, just as the previous vowel in this latter is lengthened in consequence the accent and the resulting form is **चोडा**, so the previous **आ** of **साडिआ-ओ-उ** and **चोडिआ-ओ-उ**, being accented, remains and we have **साड्या** and **चोड्या** for **साडिआ** and **चोडिआ**; but in the dialects of the Marathi, in which the **ओ** or **उ** of Masc. nouns in the sing. is preserved, we have **चोडो** and **कांटो** etc.; so also is the **ओ-उ** of the fem. preserved and we have **साड्यो**, **चोड्यो** etc.

As to unaugmented fem. nouns in इ or ई, the final is, of course, dropped by the penultimate accent, but in the plural it is preserved, being accented, and the termination of the plural ओ-उ which is unaccented is dropped, as बेल sing., बेली pl., Skr. बलि, 'oreaper'; बहिण sing., बहिणी pl., Skr. बगिनी 'sister'; कूस sing. कुसी-ही pl. 'sides'; केळ sing., केळी pl., Skr. कदली etc.

As in the dialects of the Marathi, the pl. ओ is preserved in Gujarati; but there it is transferred to the pl. of all nouns whatever and the process is going on even in our times, being extended to the masc. nouns ending in ओ also, which formed their nom. and acc. pl. formerly by adding आ, as घोडो sing., घोडा pl., but now often घोडाओ. The sindhi also has preserved the fem. ऊ, as I have already observed, but the nasal of the neuter is combined with it to form the nom. and acc. pl.

PRONOUNS IN THE VERNACULARS

The nom. sing. of the relative pronoun is जो in M. H. P. S. and जे in G. O. and B. O. have जेई also. The ए of the latter is another form of the nom. ओ to be traced perhaps to the old Magadhi nom. sing. as in ऐसे उल्लिखे for Skr. एषः पुरुषः. The correlative is तो in M. and H. and ते in G. and सो in P. S. and से in B. and O. The Hindi has सो also. The सो is the old Pr. nom. sing., but the oblique base in P. S. B. and O. is the old त.

The base of the interrogative pronoun is क as in the older languages. The nom. sing. is कौन H., कोण P. and कोण G. M. and के O. and B.—also केई O. The कोण and its varieties are to be traced to the Pr. कवण which stands for the Skr. कः पुनः.

The near demonstrative is इह or एह in H. P. nom. sing. which is also pronounced in other ways; and the nom. pl. is ये. The first is to be referred to the Ap. एहो, Pr. एहो, Skr. एषः; and the latter to आये Ap. The अय of the Skr. अयम् is generalised in this language and is to be found in all cases of the pronoun. Hence आये is the nom. pl. The G. has ए, M. हा m., ही fem., हे n.,—dial. हो-ही-हां for the nom. sing., and the regular हे m., हा. fem., ही n. for the pl.; O. has ए, एहि, इहि nom. sing., and B. ए all of which are from the Ap. एहो-एह or एह. The general oblique base is व or इ in M., ए G., इ or हि S., and इ in the rest, the origin of which is the

same, M. *य*, however, being referred to the Ap. *आय* which is the generalised form of *इय*.

The distant demonstrative has *उ* for its base. The nom. sing. in H. is *उ*, ओ, *वह*, pl. *वे*; in P. *उह*, S. *हु* and *हो* and B. *ओ* for both. The S. has *ऊ* also for the sing. G. has *आ* for the sing. and its usual *आओ* for the pl. All these are to be derived from the Ap. *ओ* nom. and *ओइ* acc. pl., traced to *अइ* of the Skr. pronoun *अइ*. The M. and O. have lost this pronoun.

PERSONAL PRONOUNS IN THE VERNACULARS

The nom. sing. of the first personal pronoun in M. is *मी* and *छि*. *मे* both of which are to be traced to the Ap. acc. instr. and loc. *मइ*, Pr. *मइ*, Skr. *मया* and *मयि*. The Goan. has *हॉव*, the G. *हुं*, old H. dialects *हों*, *हुं*, the Dogar dialect of the P. *हउं*, which are all from the Ap. *हउं* to be traced to the Skr. *अहकम्*,¹ the *उ* of which is, you will remember, that of the nom. sing. which in that dialect was freely used as the G. *ओ* is at present. The Sindhi *आँ* and *आं* are further corruptions of these. H. P. have also *मैं* like the *छि*. *मे* the origin of both being the same. The B. and O. have *मुइ* and *हु* which may be traced to the Ap. abl. and gen. sing. *महु*, but I should prefer considering the *इ* of the Ap. and M. forms to be changed to *उ* in consequence of the usual fondness of the B. and O. for the *उ* sound as noticed in the last lecture.

The pl. of this pronoun in M. is *आही*, dial. *आमी*, B. *आमि*, which is the same as the Ap. *अहइ* traced by me to the Skr. *अहमे*. The G. *अमे* and the O. *अम्मे* are from the usual Ap. and Pr. from *अहो* from *अहमे* generalised from the usual Skr. base *अहम्* by false analogy. In *अम्मे*, *ह* is changed to *म्* as it often is. The H. *हम* is this *अह* but the aspiration is transferred to the initial *अ*, and the *म*, to which it is attached in the older and the other dialect, is left free. The termination *ए* is also dropped. The S. and P. have *असी*. Skr. *स्म* is sometimes changed in the Pr. to *स्स* as in the *Māgadhī* and *Mah.*

1 Mr. Beames traces them to *इहं* Ap., *अहमव* Skr., but such forms do not exist.

Prof. Lassen to whom he refers, only conjectures *अहमी* to account for *अहमे*, but *अहमी* is clearly derived from *अहकम्* which exists even in Skr. The reading *इहं* in the passage from *Kramādīvara* given by Lassen is questionable. Hemacandra has *इहं* distinctly and the form occurs in many verses.

from locative; but in the written Prakrits that have been handed down to us, the अस्म of अस्मद् is not found corrupted to स्त. It may, however, have been so in some part of the country.

The second person sing. is तू in all the languages except B. which has तूह. The H. has तैं also. Of these तू is the same as the Ap. तुह, the ह of this dialect being, as you know, dropped throughout; and तुह and तैं are transferred from the instrumental. The pl. is तुम्ही in M. from the Ap. तुम्हइ similar to अम्हइ, and the B. तुमि is softened from this. The G. has तमे, softened from तुम्हे, the उ being changed to अ by a peculiarity of the Gujarati, which has been fully noticed in the last lecture. In the O. तुम the final ए is dropped and a softened form of this is the Hindi तुम. The P. has तुसी to be derived from तुम्म or युम्म in the same way as असी from अम्म. The S. has तन्हीं, तचीं, तहीं, तहें, अन्हीं, अचीं, अहीं, आहें and अहें. In तन्हीं we have the अ to which उ is reduced as in G, and the न् of ह्नी analysed into its labial and nasal elements. The other three are softened forms of this same, and in the rest the initial त is dropped as we have seen it dropped in the Pr. in the bases उह for तुह, उह for तुम्ह, उह for तुम्ह and उह for तुह, both of which exist in that dialect.

THE VERB IN THE VERNACULARS

The Skr. conjugational distinction is, you will remember, lost in the Prakrits; but the increments that roots undergo in the several classes, are preserved and made parts of the roots themselves. Now these roots so augmented have descended to the vernaculars. Thus we have बिह old M. G. 'to fear' from the Skr. बिभी of the 3rd class; बुझ M. G. 'to understand', सिज M. 'to be cooked', 'बिज S. 'to throw', 'नाच M. G. H., etc. 'to dance', 'उपज M. G. 'to be born', 'निपज M. G. 'to issue forth', 'जुझ M. 'to fight', 'माज M. G. 'to be maddened' and सिज old M. G. 'to be sad' from the Skr. बुध्य, स्थिय, बिध्य, वृत्त्य, उत्पद्य, निवृत्त्य, वृष्य, माय and स्थिय, all belonging to the 4th class; सुन or सुण H. S. B. P. O. from Skr. शृण् of the 5th; जान M. G. H. P. etc. 'to know', 'किण B. O. 'to buy' and निण्ड S. 'to take' from the Skr. जाना, क्रीणा and यद्धा of the 9th class. We have roots also in the forms which they have in the second and sixth classes, as न्हा and जा from स्ना and श्वा of the 2nd, and लिह, लिह, हुट, फुट, लिप M., लिप S., कांठ (Skr. कन्ठ), also कांठ 'to out', 'लिच from the 6th.

VERBAL TERMINATIONS THE PRESENT

Of the three Pr. tenses and moods the Marathi has preserved two, the Present and the Imperative. The third, viz. the Future, is not lost, but the form became by phonetic corruption similar to those of the Present and you will remember, that the difference between the two tenses consisted in the intercalatory *स्य*, afterwards dissolved into *सि*, and thence softened to *हि*, which, having dropped its *ह* in the vernaculars, melted away and another sign had to be added to the Present forms to indicate the Future. The Present was used in old Marathi and is used even at present in poetry, but in ordinary speech it has acquired a past habitual sense. It has a potential signification in some cases as *मी येई तेथ-चरित तेथें पाव*. In the Gujarati it has acquired a potential sense in addition to the old and, to indicate present time distinctly, the forms of the present tense of the substantive verb are used in conjunction with it, as *हूँ करं हूँ*. The Brajbhāṣā agrees with the G. in this respect and adds its *हैं* as *मैं करैं हैं*. In the H. P. and S. it signifies potentiality only; and in the last *थो* masc., *थी* fem. are added to the forms to denote present time. *थो* is the past part. of the root *थिज्* from Skr. *स्थित*, Pr. *थिज*, which means 'become' in Sindhi. The old Hindi or Braj poets use this tense in the present also. In all these languages, however, the old Present tense of the auxiliary *अम्* or *आम्* indicates present time alone. B. O. preserve this tense in the old sense throughout.

M. has two forms of this old Present:—

	Sing.	Plural	Sing.	Plural
1st	करि	करै	इसैं	इसू
2nd	करसि	करा	इसत	इसा
3rd	करी	करीत	इसे	इसत

In poetry we have *ति* and *सि* for *त* and *स* as—

आहुचिदा काजायेनि पाहे । देखती आयुलें जीवित् चोकरें ॥

Jñāneśvari, I. 112.

देही तामची माह्मदा आंगीं जाकरी हूँ ।

Jñāneśvari, III. 162.

The termination *ई* of the first person sing. is derived from the Pr. *सि*, *इ* being simply converted into an *anuvāra*, i. e., *सि* when

pronounced without closing the lips, becomes इ. In the same way the Pr. इ of the pl. becomes ई. The 2nd per. sing. सि remains unaltered, but in ordinary usage the final इ is dropped in consequence of the usual accent on the penultimate. The इ of Pr. pl. loses its aspiration, as we have found it to have done in the cases, and thus we have कर+अ=करा. The 3rd per. sing. termination is the same as in pr., viz. इ. The pl. has lost its nasal and in current Marathi the इ also, on account of the penultimate accent.

In the other set the 3rd per. sing. termination is ए, the same as in Pr., and to be traced to the Skr. ऐ of the Ātm. In the Prakrit there is no Ātmanepada termination for the 1st per. sing., but still we have ए here. This vowel is inserted before all the consonantal terminations of the present tense of the verb जाणे. We have also ई in करीस and करीत, though it has no place in the Pr. This is probably due to the transference of the final इ in करीसी and करीती to the penultimate syllable.

The first of the two, i. e., the Parasm. set of forms, is used for transitive verbs and the second or Ātmanepada for those that are intransitive and some that are transitive but denote a sort of reflexive action as पढ 'to read', शिक 'to learn', बोल 'to speak', सांग 'to tell', etc.

The Cit. has both the padas and the ए of the Ātm. is confined to the 3rd pers. sing. in the root अस as तो से but में सां or सई. In the Mal. we have आ, and the Goan. अ long for ए as आसा, जावा and अस, the final अ being long. In these dialects the 2nd pers. pl. termination is त, which is transferred from the corresponding 3rd or is a remnant of the Pr. इत्था and the vowels of the first pers. form vrddhi diphthongs with the preceding base in both the padas; as मी करे 'I do', or 'I used to do', आम्ही करे 'we do', or 'used to do'. The Goan. and Cit., however, have the first pers. sing. Ātm. in जां also. The Ātm. is not used for roots ending in other vowels

1 These vrddhi forms appear to be due to the penultimate अ being pronounced long through the accent according to the usual rule and by the combination of इ or उ with it; so that the combined sound is अई and अउ. When the lengthened अ becomes आ it overpowers the final इ and this latter is dropped and we have मे 'करे' Cit. or हुं 'करा' Goan., 'I do or used to do', just as in बोलु 'a horse' the penultimate is lengthened into आ and the final इ is dropped and we have बोला.

than अ, though they may be intransitive, as नहा, जा, हो, दे, etc., and in this particular the Marathi remarkably agrees with the old Pr.

O. and B. have the following forms for the Present Tense :—

O.		B.	
तु करई	अम्मे करु	तुह करि	आमि करि
तु करु	तुम्मे कर	तुह करिस	तुमि कर
ते करइ	ते करन्ति	ते करे	तिनि करेन

These also are from the Pr. forms. O. has lost nasal of the 1st. pers. pl. and B. of the sing. also, i. e., it has one same form for both. O. has lost the स of the 2nd pers. sing. and has उ in its place. The pl. कर of both is pronounced करो; ओ being broad like that to which अ even of Skr. words is reduced in ordinary utterance by the speakers of these languages. This form करो is the same as the M. करा from the Pr. करइ. O. has preserved the 3rd pers. pl. नि intact; B. has lost the त and इ.

The other languages have :—

G.		H.	
हूँ करूँ	असे करिये	मैं करूँ	हम करें
तुं करे	तुम करो	तुं करे	तुम करो
ते करे	तेओ करो	उह करे	वे करें

S. Tr.

आऊँ मारिआँ-यों
तू मारिएँ-रें
हूँ मारे

असीँ मारिऊँ-रें
अहीं मारिओँ-यों
हूँ मारीनि-रिनि

S. Intr.

हऊँ हलूँ
हलें हलो
हले हलनि

P.

मैं कराँ असीँ करये
तू करें तुसी करो
उह करे उह करण

The Hindi 2nd and 3rd person sing. and pl. are derived directly from those in Ap. The इ of करइ-हू-इ-हैं being dropped as usual, the forms are करइ-उ-इ-ई and, when the vowels are combined, we have करे-ते-रे-रें.

The G. P. and S. forms are exactly similar, the only difference consisting in the nasal of the 3rd. pers. pi., which has been elided in the first, as is done in the instrumental singular. The P. and

३. ण and नि must be referred to नि of the Pr. since the Ap. possessed the Pr. forms as well as the new ones. In old G. MSS, it is usual to write the इ and उ of these forms separately. The G. and H. first pers. sing. करै is from the Ap. करउँ, while the अ of the P. करा and the S. हरा is to be traced rather to the नि of the Pr., than to this उ as that of the स in the Cit. and Goan. by the elision of इ and the lengthening of the preceding vowel. There are instances of this change given in the Pr. as we have seen. The S. उ of the 1st pers. pl. is the same as that in M. and O. and is to be derived from the Ap. हु and the Pr. ह. The ए of the Hindi 1st pers. pl. is brought over from the 3rd person and this transference was facilitated by the nasal of the original termination; or, since in the Ap. both नि and उ exist, when in a later stage of the language the letter was appropriated and fixed for the sing., the former was adopted for the pl. and changed to इ which became ए by amalgamation. The G. and P. further dropped the nasal of this ए and interposed a vowel which is probably of the same nature as that in the S. मारै. The S. like the M. inserts इ before the terminations in the case of transitive verbs, as in the forms of मार given above, and does not when the verbs are intransitive or reflexive as शिक and पड़.

The forms of the Ap. Present occur in the older Hindi poets. Thus in Tulsidas's Rāmāyana we have :—

3rd per. sing.

शंभु गिरा पुनि मृषा न होई । शिव सर्वज्ञ जान सब कोई ।

Bala-Kaṇḍa.

' But Sambhu 's word is not false.

Everybody knows Śiva to be omniscient.'

निशिचर एक सिंधु मइ रहई । करि माया नमके खन गइई ॥

Sundara-kaṇḍa.

'An evil spirit dwells in the sea and having recourse to deceit catches hold of the birds in the sky, '

3rd per. pl.

संत इस छत्र गइई ये परिहरिं बारि बिकार ।

Bala-kaṇḍa.

' Good men like swans admit merit like milk leaving off the watery pollution,'

नारद शिष्य छु छुनाहिं नरनारी । अवश भवन ताजि होहिं निस्वारी ॥

Bala-K.

' Those men and women that listen to the advice of Narada become beggars having abandoned their homes.'

2nd per. pl.:

करह कथन कारण तप मारी ।

Bala-K.

' For what reason do you go through excessive austerities ?'

बिपिन अकेली किरहु केहि हेतु ।

Bala-K.

' Why do you wander alone in the forest V

1st pers. sing.:

नारद वचन न मैं परिहरऊं । बसौ भवन उजरो नहिं हरऊं ॥

Bala-K.

'I shall not neglect the advice of Nārada and shall not be Afraid even if thereby the world stands or falls (becomes desolated).'

1st pers. pl.:

तत छुनाहु सावर मन लाई । कहहुं रामकी कथा सुहाई ॥

Bala-K.

' Dear one, do hear with an attentive mind; [we] narrate the pleasing story of Rāma.'

Another reading is कहीं which is sing, and the sense is 'I narrate. '

The old 2nd pers. sing, in सि is met with thus*—

अरत सयथ तोहि सत्य कहू परि हरि कपट दुराह ।

हरक समथ बिस्मय करसि कारण मोहि छुनाह ॥

Ayo.-K.

'I charge thee in the name of Bharata; tell me the truth laying aside all insincerity. On the occasion of joy thou art gloomy; explain to me the reason. '

There are also specimens of the Attn. :

देखे जई तई रघुपति ।

Bala-K.

' Sees Raghuapati here and there. '

जो अब करौं सती सग प्रीती । मिटै भक्ति पथ होइ अनीती ॥

Bala-K.

' If now you are amorous towards the Sati (Parvatl), the way of devotion will end and immorality (will) result '

बले बसइ चकि ।

Bala-K.

¹ He goes having sat on the bull. '

And it appears that the ए of the Present is used after verbs of the same kind as in Marathi. The vowel इ of the 3rd pers. sing. does not become ए as in the modern Hindi and other languages, where the distinction between the two padas is lost, but retains its original forms as in घरि पुछी (गई समीप महेश तब हंसि पूछी कुशलात 'when she went near, Mahēsa smiling asked her how she fared*).

THE IMPERATIVE

The Marathi, Oriya, and the Bangali have preserved the Imperative mood entire; the others, only the second person sing., the rest being taken over from the old present or the modern Potential.

	M.		O.		B.	
1st	करूं	करूं-रों	करि	करूं	करि	करि
2nd	कर-रों	करा	कर	कर	कर-करीत	कर करइ करीजो
3rd	करो	करोत	करु	करवतु	करव	करव

or करवत

In the 1st per. sing. the ह of the Pr. is changed to ई in M. i. e. न has lost its labial element as in the Present. O. and B. have got the form of the Present for it, the nasal being dropped. The मो of the pl. is similarly changed to मों and is also shortened or resolved into मे. The B. has the same form as the sing. The 2nd pers. sing. in M. has the form without the termination as in the Pr., the other made up by adding ई corresponds to that in the Ap. ending in that vowel. Intransitive and reflexive roots have ए instead of ई, which form is also found in the Ap. as पावें, शिकें, सजें.

The O. and B. do not possess these terminations but the latter has व which is to be traced to the Pr. व. The pl. is the same as in the Pr. the इ having left its trace in the lengthening of the vowel.

The O. and B. कर is also really करा pronounced broadly करी and the latter retains ह unchanged also. The 3rd pers. sing. termination उ of the Pr. is amalgamated with the preceding vowel into ओ in M. and उ in O. and B. M. has also sometimes उ for ओ.

The क of the B. is a later addition and is probably to be traced to the Interrogative pronoun beginning with क. It is to be compared with such M. expressions as जाऊं दे किं. The O. preserves the 3rd per. pl. न्तु unchanged but in the optional form the final उ is dropped. M. and B. have transferred the characteristic उ to the preceding syllable and the former has dropped the nasal and the latter the त. In M. the उ is, as in the sing. changed to ओ, but in some cases it is preserved and we have such forms as जाऊत, देऊत etc. We find instances in which the उ preserves its place after त as in the O. Thus in Jñānēśvarī :-

हे बरी भलते करितु । आतांशि एचे मारितु ।

परी आपण मनें धातु । न धितावा ॥ I—225.

'These on their part may do an unwelcome thing, just here and now kill us but we should not think of doing injury.'

H. P. and G. have कर for the sing. as in the above; and कने pl. the same as that of the Present, which itself is from the Ap. करह, the characteristic Imper. उ being attached to the ह of the Pr.; and even in the Pr. and M. B. and O. the 2nd per. pl. is the same as in the Present. The P. has also the form in ई. The Sindhi Imperative 2nd per. sing. of intransitive and reflexive verbs ends in उ as हलु and of transitive verbs and a few others in इ as करि. The उ occurs in the Ap. along with the इ and ए as already noticed.

Though Modern Hindi has lost the Imperative forms for other persons than the second, old Hindi poets use them; and for the second per. sing. also, they have the Ap. form in इ preserved in S. and M. Thus Tulsidas :—

2nd pers. sing.

प्रभु हलुमेंतहि कहा बुझाइ ।

in इ

धरी बहुकर्य अवध पुर जाइ ॥

'The lord said to Hanumanta, " Assume the form of a boy and go to the city of Ayodhya. " '

The 2nd pers. pl. is the same as that of Present which prevails in all the languages from the Pr. downwards,

पारवती गई जाइ दुम प्रेमपरीक्षा लेहु ।

"Having gone to Parvati examine her devotion."

The 3rd per. sing. ends in :ओ or औ as in the M. and O.

मेरी भव बाधा हरी राधा नागरि सोइ ।

—Beharilala.

"May that polished Rādhā remove my worldly distress."

करो अनुग्रह सोइ ।—Tuls. R.

"May he confer favours."

The 3rd pers. pi. has हु which is an A.p. form found in some of Hemacandra's quotations. The इ has been introduced simply to distinguish it from the sing.

चरणकमल बंदौं सबकेरे । पुरबहु सकल मनोरथ मेरे ॥—Tuls. R.

"I adore the lotus-like feet of all. May they fulfil all my desires."

The 1st per. sing. is the same as that of the Present and it is difficult to distinguish it; hut in such a construction as the following the M. would have the imperative :

चली सती शिव आयसुपाई । करहिं बिचार करो का माई ॥

"The SatI having got Śiva's permission went, and was thinking what deception to use."

The pi. also must be the same. Old G. has also the Imper. forms in इ and उ as —

पूछइ बात पातशाह इसी । गुजरातिते कहीइ किसी ॥

"The emperor asked this matter "how is Gujarat ? "

गुजरा स्तूं मोड़िसिं कलहु । माहारइ साथइ कटक मोकलु ॥

"If you will declare war against Gujarat, send an army with me."

The G. and S. have another form for the 2nd per. of the Imper.; the terminations of this are इजि S., जे G. for the sing. and इजौ and जौ for the pl. The H. has जे and जौ for roots ending in ई and ऊ and इये and इयो for the rest. The P. and B. have इजौ for the pl. and in the former the singular is confounded with the usual इ termination. In M. such form is not now ordinarily used. In addresses on letters, however, such expressions as मरिह कजि, दीजे are used and these forms are found in the works of the old Marathi poets. Thus in Jñāneśvar:—

परि पासी घात कीजे । मग आपण राज्यहुस योगिजे ।
हैं स्वर्गाहि मन माहैं । कहुं न शके ॥ I-213.

¹ This my mind cannot think of doing even in a dream that I should kill them and enjoy afterwards the pleasures of sovereignty.'

तहिं अवधान येकलैं दीजे । मग सर्व दुस्वार्त्ता पात्र होईजे ॥ IX—1.

¹ Give your attention alone and qualify yourself for all happiness.'

हुनि सगि नृपनाथ । अनमेजया ॥
जे अद्वितीय उत्तम । पवित्रक निरुपम ।
परम मंगलधाम । अवधारिजो ॥ I-48, 49.

"The Muni narrates this story to Janamejaya the king, saying (you should) attend to this which is unique, excellent, the holy thing, the unsurpassed and the highest abode of all auspicious things. "

आतां देइओ अवधान । तुझी बोलबिला मी बोलेम 1-8.

' Give attention now; I will speak what you make me speak.'

These forms have been traced by Dr. Trump in his Sindhi Grammar to the Pr. base in इञ्ज used in the Present, Imperative and Future, and derived by Lassen from the present, and by me from the Potential; and so far as the form in the S. and G. is concerned there is used no objection. But these forms are used in the vernaculars when respect for the person spoken to is intended and the Potential as distinguished from the Imperative is by no means more respectful in Skr. The H. forms are not assigned each to each number, but both of them are used in the sing, or pl. and its ष can by no means be derived from ज्ञ, for, though the contrary process, namely, the changing of ष to ज्ञ, is common, there is, so far as I am aware, no single well-established instance of the other.

In Skr. nothing is more usual than to use the Passive of the 3rd pers. sing. Imperative in respectful solicitation. The second pers. of the active Imper. is the least respectful, since there is a direct reference in that voice to the agent, and such a reference to great men is regarded as improper, or in the case of others, not courteous. The 3rd pers with अवाञ्च् as the nom. is more so, because the reference is indirect; but the most respectful construe-

tion is the Passive as it does not point to the agent at all, hut to the thing done by him. Thus the **ज** in these forms is from the **य** of the passive and the Hindi **ईय** from **ईअ**, which is the other corruption of that termination in the Pr.

The **दीइजो** corresponds to Skr. **दीयताम्**, the Imper. 3rd pers. sing. termination in that language being **उ**. **दीजे** corresponds to **दीयते** of the Present and the Potential sense may be attributed to the fact that the whole tense has assumed that sense in the vernaculars. The agent may, if the forms are passive, be any person and any number since it does not agree with the verb; and this explains the Hindi usage. But generally in solicitation the person addressed is the second person, though he is referred to indirectly, and he is, when cases are used, put in the instr. as in the Jñanesvarī—

द्रोणातें म्हजे पाहिजे तुम्हीं सकल ।

"He said to Drona everything should be looked after by you."

These forms become in the G. and S. identified with the second person, easily because one of the terminations **ओ** happens to be the same as that of the Imper. 2nd pers. pl. in those languages; and it got confused with the other Pr. Potential forms in **अ**; wherefore we find in the S. the Imper. 2nd pers. sing. terminations **इ** and **उ** applied to the base as **थिजि** 'become', **सुनिहु** 'hear.' This confusion extended to the Hindi also since to roots in **इ** or **उ** it appends **जे** and **जो**; for the Potential increment **अ** is given in the Pr. to roots ending in **आ**, **इ**, **ओ** etc., i. e. any vowel except **अ**. In the progress of a language confusion is natural and frequently observable. This double etymology explains all the facts of the case; while, if we confine ourselves to one, some are not accounted for.

We have seen that there are two classes of verbs in M. one of which takes the augment **इ** in the Present before the consonantal terminations as **करीस**, **करीत** and the other takes **ए** or **अ** as **चावें**, **चावत**. The Imper. 2nd pers. sing. of the former is made up by adding **इ** in old or poetic Marathi and of the latter by adding **ए**. The former takes **इ** in the Future necessarily in the 1st and 3rd pers. sing. as **करील**, **करीन** and optionally in some others as **करतील** or **करितील**, **करशील** or **करिशील**. This option is extended even to the Present **करितो** or **करतो** and the past participle **चरिलें** or **चरलें**; while in the

present participle these verbs necessarily take इ as करित आहे. The latter class takes ए in the Future 1st and 3rd pers. sing. and the option in the last is not allowed, अ being added in all, including the present part., as शिकेल, शिकतील not शिकितील, शिकला not शिकिला, शिकतो and शिकत आहे; so that this class must have ए in some cases and अ in the rest.

The Sindhi has a similar distinction. Those roots that take इ before the termination of the Pres. as कर्णधो "I do" form their Imper. 2nd pers. sing. in इ and insert this in the present part. as करीन्दो; while the rest do not add this इ as हलां 1st per. sing., हलन्दो pres. part., and take उ in the Imper. sing., हलु Imper. 2nd pers. sing. We thus see that we have इ in the one case and opposed to it are the vowels ए, अ and उ in the other. The former is a characteristic of the transitive or the non-reflexive nature of a root while the latter is that of the opposite.

Why should it be BO? The vowels इ and ए form the distinctive marks of the Parasm. and Atm, in Skr. and Pr. A consciousness of this and of the difference between Parasm. roots and Atm. roots has been preserved in the modern S. and M. and hence there is an attempt to insert those vowels in all possible cases; and the base itself of the roots is made to end in them. But in the Prakrits and to a great extent even in Skr. the base of most of the roots (भण, हस etc.) has an imperative signification, Hence the newly constituted base कर्ण and धावें also come to have an imper. sense. Now these are the forms of the Imper. not only in our language but the old Apabhramśa also; hence the process I mention must have been gone through even then. This is a better explanation of the Ap. forms than deriving them both from हि, especially since this is a dialect so prone to bring in इ even when it cannot be had that it is not likely to reject an already existing one.

You will thus see how subtle the operation of the law of analogy is in the development of a language.

Now as regards the A p. form उ, we see that we have it in Siadhi where the other languages have अ, so that it is the old inorganic उ which prevails so much in the Ap. And we have

seen that **ई** is used in many more grammatical forms in M. than **ए**, whilst, instead of it, in other places and in the Sindhi in all but the Imper. 2nd pers. sing, we have **अ** ; so that **इ** is made the distinctive mark of the Parasm. character of a root while its absence or the insertion of **ए** indicates the Atm. character.

THE FUTURE

The third Skr. tense preserved by the Prakrits is the Second Future. It has descended to the Gujarati. Thus:—

हुं	करीस	अमे करिहुं
तुं	करसे	तमे करसो
ते	करसे	तेओ करसे

The **स** of these forms is the old Skr. **स्व** corrupted to **स्त** in the Śaur. and **स** in the Ap. From the Skr. downwards the terminations of the Present in each of the languages are appended, as formerly observed, to this tense. So in G. we find in the 2nd and 3rd pers. the terminations **ए** and **ओ** of the G. Present attached to **स**. But the consciousness of the etymology of these forms has been partially lost; wherefore in 1st pers. we have not **करहुं** for the sing. corresponding to **करूँ**, and **करसीये** corresponding to **करीये**. But G. has derived its 1st. pers. pl. **करहुं** directly from the Skr. or Ap. pl. **करिस्तहु** or **करिस्तहु**, and the sing. **करीस** from **करिस्तं**, which, you will remember, was an optional Śaur. form in addition to **करिस्तामि**, the nasal being dropped according to the usual Guj. rule.

We have these forms in the Braj-Bhāṣā but the **स** is corrupted to **इ** as it very often is. Thus :—

करिहैं	करिहैं
करिहे	करिहो
करिहे	करिहे

Here in the 1st pers. sing. we have the **औं** of the Pres. Braj as in **करौं**, unlike the G. and in conformity with the ancient practice. You will also observe that the old augment **इ** is preserved. It may be suspected that these forms are derived from those in the Pr. which have **इ** instead of **स**, but you will have observed that there we have **हि** as in **करिहि** and here **इ** which represents the Śaur. and Apbhr. **स**. The old Future occurs in Tulsidāsa's *Rāmāyana*.

3rd pers. sing. **प्रिया सोच परिहरहु सब छमिरहु श्री भगवान् ।**
पारवती जिन निर्मथ सोइ करिहहि कल्याण ॥

"Dear, leave off all anxiety, remember the great God. He who created Pārvati will do her good."

If the dot on **हि** is a mistake this is 3rd pers. sing.,

3rd pers. pl. **छमिहहि सज्जन मोरि छिटार्ह ।**
छनिहहि बालबचन मन लार्ह ॥

"Good men will pardon my temerity and hear the words of (this) child with attention."

2nd pers. pi. **कहत मम मन अतिसेकुछार्ह । हंसिहहु छनि हमारि जइतार्ह ॥**

"I am ashamed in my mind to tell the truth ; for, hearing, at my stupidity you will laugh."

In these forms the terminations of the Aṇhr. Present are appended to the **हु** derived from **स** ; but the following are three instances of the Braj form occurring in the same work.

1st pers. pl. **तब तब बदन पैठिहों आई ॥ सत्य कहों मोहि जान दे माई ॥**

" Then I will enter thy mouth \$ I tell you the truth, let me go, mother. "

3rd pers. pl. **मम कृत सेहु जो दरशन करिहैं । सो बिनुभ्रम भवसागर तरिहैं ॥**

" They who will visit this bridge constructed by me will cross the ocean of life without trouble. "

In an essay published in the Bengal Asiatic Society's Journal, 1873, Mr. Beames gives the forms of the Future found in the earliest Hindi poet Cand, which are exactly similar to those in the Braj, and misled by the latter parts **है, हे, हो** etc., which resemble those of **अस** or **आस** so greatly, traces them to the Periphrastic Future of the Skr. **चलितारिषि-सि** etc. But this future is in the first place rarely used in Skr. and altogether discarded by the Pali and not a trace of it is to be found in any of the numerous Prakrits. Besides if we derive these forms from the Periphrastic Future, we must have in the 3rd pers. such forms as **चलिआ-चलिया** and **चलिआर**. And the old forms which Tulsidās uses of the type of **चलिहहि**, from which evidently the others are derived, will remain unexplained. There can be little doubt that thie deri-

ration is wrong. We have seen the several steps by which we gradually rise to **चलिहै** from **चलिष्यति** and the chain is so well connected that this etymology must be admitted as correct. The resemblance to that form in Gujarati also must not be forgotten.

THE PAST TENSE

Past time is, in all the vernaculars, expressed by means of the past participle as in the Fr., all the Skr. past tenses being lost, as you will remember, except in isolated cases. This participle is in the older languages passive in the case of transitive verbs generally and active when the verb is intransitive and also in the cases of some transitive verbs such as **शिकलौ**, **प्यालौ** etc. This rule is strictly observed in most of the modern dialects and hence in the past tense we have generally no active voice when the verb is transitive and the agent is, as in the older languages, put in the instr., thus in H. **लेखकने पोथी लिखी**, P. **उसने कम कीता**, S. **हुन फकीरसे भनुझिणो**, G. **जबेरीलाले भारीपासे माणस मोकल्यो**, M. **पारध्याने बाध मारिला**. In all these sentences the last words are past participles and they agree with the object in the Nom. case in number, gender and person. In the O. and B., however, all distinction between gender, number and person being lost, the agreement with the object is not perceptible. In these languages, and to some extent in Marathi, this participle is made the base of the regular verbal forms; wherefore I shall have to discuss this point again.

THE PAST PARTICIPLE

The Hindi participle ends in **अ** which of course is the same termination as in Pr., thus Skr. **गत**, Pr. **गअ**, the consonant being elided, and with the connecting **इ**, **गइ**. When augmented by the addition of **क** in the manner I have shown in the last lecture and also in this it is **गया**, the **अ** alone of the **क** being left. In the feminine the augmented form is **गयी** and where this **य** is not inserted it is **गई**. By adding this augmented form **आ** to any root whatever the Hindi past participle is formed as **लिखा**, **पढ़ा** etc. An euphonic **य** intervenes when the root ends in a vowel as **दिवा**, **पीया** etc. Similar to this is the B. and O. past participle as **देखा** in **देखाजाव** B., **लेखा**, **दिपा** O. The S. termination is **इओ** and the P.

इजा as जागिओ from जागण 'to be awake,' बसिओ from बसवण 'to remain,' गइजा 'gone,' बलिजा 'sent,' the nom. termination उ and the augment अ for क being left out of consideration it is reduced to इअ. The G. has यो and the Braj. यो as in राख्यो, राख्यो 'kept' from राख, कइयो, कइयो 'told' from कह, where also the ओ being dropped the termination is य i. e. इअ hastily pronounced. These languages therefore preserve the old termination with augment इ prefixed to it as in the Pr., as इसिओ, पडिओ etc. Some of the vernaculars and notably the Sindhi have also inherited from the Pr. readymade Tadbhava forms of the past passive participles as :—

S.	Pr.	Skr.	G.	Pr.	Skr.
बबो	बबो	बबः	बीढो	विढो	वृष्टः
बुबो	बुबो	बुबः	लीयो	लखो	लब्धः
भभो	भगो	भगः	पेढो	पड्डो	प्रविष्टः
बातो	पतो	प्राप्तः	कीयो	कियो Saur.	कृतः
पुणो	पुणो	पूर्णः	Hindi also possesses a few.		
पीढो	विढो	विष्टः	बैठा	उबड्डो	उपविष्टः
तयो	ततो	तप्तः	[उ being elided.]		
तुढो	तुढो	तुष्टः	पैठा	पैठा	प्रविष्टः
डिभो	डिभो	डिभः	But these participles are made the bases of verbal forms: the infinitive being बैठना and पैठना.		
बुबो	बुबो	बुबः			
बीढो	विढो	वृष्टः			
गढो	पड्डो	पृष्टः			
लखो	लखो	लब्धः			

The Sindhi seems to have made up the forms of a few roots. on the analogy of these though they do not exist in the Pr. as झलतो from झल, Skr. धृत, Pr. धरिओ; पीतो drunk, कीतो done; (P. has this also); hut some of these may be modern Tadbhavas.

Marathi does not possess this form and past tense is expressed in that language by a form ending in ला-ली-ले. This is adjectival in nature and passive in the case of transitive verbs and active in that of intransitive or reflexive verbs. It is in every respect then like the Skr. and Pr. past participle preserved in the other dialects. But here we have क (का) for the अ (आ) of those.

This **ह** has been traced to the Skr. **ह**; but since in the Mahārāṣṭrī or principal Prakrit that termination leaves its **अ** only, it must be derived from the Saur. **द** which often becomes **ह**, and **ह** is frequently confounded with **र** and **ल** as we have seen. In Sindhi Skr. **द** is always **ह** as **दे** 'give' from **दा**, **दुधो** from **दुग्ध** and **दिठो** etc. Similarly even in the Prakrit period, such a change must have taken place in several words; for instance, the Skr. **दश** in **एकादश** and in some of the succeeding numerals, becomes in the Pali **दस**, but is changed to **रह** in the Pr., which shows that **द** must have become **ह** before it assumed the form of **र**. **ह** is interchanged with **ल** even in Skr. as **उरोदाह** or **उरोलाह**; and in the Pr. and modern dialects we have **कील** for **कीह**, **पील** or **पील** for Skr. **पीह**, **हालिम** for **दाहिम** etc. So that this etymology is possible; but I shall presently show to you that it is not to the Saur. that we should first look for the origin of M. words and forms; especially in cases when it stands alone. That the Marathi only should exhibit these consonantal changes in the past participle and none of the other sister dialects and that no instance of the intermediate step between the Saur. **द** and the M. **ह** should be found here or elsewhere as we find them in similar cases, goes a great way against this derivation.

The Marathi past participle in **ल**, **ली**, **ले** is, I think, of the same nature as similar participles in other cognate languages ending in that termination. We have in G. besides **कहो**, **करी**, **करोली** and **करेली** and in S. besides **विओ** and **विने**, **विमल** and **विडल**. There is a little difference in the sense, but both are promiscuously used in ordinary usage. B. and O. form their Preterite with this participle as the base as **गोपाल आमाके कहिल** B. 'Gopal told us'; **अमे कलम देह लेखिल** O. 'I wrote with a pen.' It is also used as an adjective as **गलादिन** 'the past day', **पडिला गळ** 'the fallen tree.' Though it does not occur in high Hindi and is not given in the grammars of the languages, the lower classes of the Hindi population use this participle very commonly as **बेचल** H. 'sold', **गयल** 'gone'; and it is also found in the works, of Kabīra, though I have not seen it in Tulsīdās's Ramayana, which is accounted for by the fact that Kabīra was a Śūdra himself and consequently belonged to those classes which use it at the present day. Thus —

तब ब्रह्मा पुछल महतारी । को तोर दुखैं का'करि सुख जाँसी ॥

—Rāmāyaṇa II-4,

"Then Brahmā asked his mother: 'Who is thy husband and whose wife art thou !'"

बहुहुन मनन बोल बारी । लहहि न परे मोहरी काटी ॥

—Rāmāyaṇa V-7.

" In all the four ages holy men constructed ways but they did not know that the bundle they had tied had given way or was torn ! "

Now in the Sindhi participles ल is a termination appended to other or old participles; as बिअ and दिठ with the suffix ल become बिअल and दिठल. The Gujarati ones are of the same nature; in कहेलो, लो is the suffix and कहे is the original participle in इअ or ए or कहिअ or कहा which is changed to ए, as ए often is. Even in Marathi in the forms गेला, केला, आला, आयलो in the minor dialects, आइला, मेला, म्याला, प्याला etc., ने represents गय (Pr. गज, Skr. गत); के, कय (Pr. कज, Skr. कृत); आय, आज (Pr. आजअ, Skr. आगत); आइ, जाज (Pr. जाअ, Skr. जात), मे मय (Pr. मृत); म्या-मीआ, प्या-पीआ and so on. In the B. too we have केल, गेल, आइल which are just like the Marathi forms and are to be explained in the same way. In old Marathi we similarly find this ल appended to real past participles. In an old Inscription dated Śaka 1128 = 1206 A. D., the latter portion of which is in the Marathi of the time and being so was difficult to decipher, there occurs the expression महा दिण्डळा 'given to a monastery' in which we see that ल is appended to दिण्ड which is the same as the old Pali and Pr. participle दिण्ण of the root दा.

In Skr. a great many roots formed their participles by adding न instead of त and we find several of these and others formed on the analogy of these in old Hindi and Marathi poetry. In the works of Tulsidāsa, Kabira, Canda and others कीण्ड 'done,' लीण्ड 'taken,' बीण्ड 'known,' दीण्ड 'given' and such others occur :—

नाम विधि द्वि पूजा कीण्डी । अस्तुति करि डनि आशिष दीण्डी ॥

" The sage worshipped him in several ways, praised him and gave him a blessing. "

In the Marathi poets we have ला added to न् as Jñanesvari,

ते दोनी शब्द मचाद । मिनले एकवट ।

' Both these dreadful noises mingled together.'

सनकादिकांशिया आशा । बाहीनच्या बहुवत्ता ।

" The hopes of Sanaka and others increased greatly.*'

Ekanfttba,

धर्मागति धाविच्छला ।

' Ran towards Dharma or virtue. '

ऐकोनि हासिच्छला गोविंद ।

' Hearing this, Govinda smiled.'

Rukmini Svayamvara.

In the following is applied to old Tadbhava participles :—

जें प्राप्ति सेजे छुतला । ते स्वप्नछुत छुतला । मग तो ज्ञानोदयी येइला । नृज्योतिषा ॥

Jñan. V-47.

" Because when he slept on the bed of delusion he enjoyed the pleasures of a dream and then awoke when the sun of knowledge rose."

भीतरि पातला उठा उठीं । जेथ जगजेठी श्रीकृष्ण ॥

' Went in where the lord of the world Śrī Kṛṣṇa was.'

Here छुत, छुत and पात, are from छुत, छुत and पत Pr., छुत, छुत and पत Skr.; and to these ला, is added. There are other instances in these works in which ला is added to past Tatsama or later Tadbhava participles such as दग्धला, लुब्धला, हागितला, नृगितला; and in the language of the day we have सांगितलें, वेतलें, मागितलें, छुतलें and one or two others. In the Jñanesvari we have also such forms as विसजेला, 'excited', निवेला 'slept', and जागारेला where the ऐ represents the अव or इज् of the old participle resembling in this respect the Gui. कहेलो.

When the न् or ना of the old participle became too weak to be expressive, this form with the suffix ल attached was oftener used and gradually supplanted the other; and ल came in the course of time to be regarded as the past participle termination. Hence it is applied to roots directly without the intervention of the old ए that we have in केला and गेला; and in low Hindi also, it is applied in the same way. The original participle was mostly used

predicatively as it is in classical Skr. also, and this ल was attached to it to form an attributive expression to be used before nouns. But after a time this new form also came to be predicatively used; and it is now so used in M., G., S. and H. In M. however, when it was put to this purpose, it drove out the old one, and its own attributive sense became faint, though even now it is not entirely lost in such instances as *हाला नींदीस उपाय नाई* 'there is no remedy against the thing that has already taken place'.

Then another ल came to be attached to it to adapt it for attributive use, and thus we have now in M. the form *केलेला, गेलेला* etc. with a double ल. This ल is to be traced to the Pr. *इल्ल* or *उल्ल* which according to Hemacandra is applied in the sense of *Bhāva* i.e. being the thing signified by the base as *उवादिहल्ल, अल्लल्ल*. These two words are in M. *वरिल* or *वरला* and *आपुल्ले* or *आपल्ले*, in which instances we see that the initial इ or उ of the suffix is optionally dropped. Or according to other writers, quoted by our grammarians, *आल* is also used. And in works such as the *Gaudavādha* and in the *Bhagavati*, we find these suffixes frequently used. These are generally applied to all bases; but ल is another termination which is restricted to certain nouns such as *विजल, पीत, पत्र, अन्ध* from which we have *विजलल, पीतल* etc. In Skr. also this suffix has a pretty wide range as *चूडाल* *Pāṇini V. 2. 96; लिखल, कञ्जल, पांडल, मांसल, स्नेहल* etc., *V. 3. 97; वस्त्रल V. 2. 98; केवल V. 2-99.*

THE PRESENT PARTICIPLE IN THE VERNACULARS

The present participle of the Pr. has lost its न in M. as *करित*, *आवत*, in G. *करत* 'doing', *चढत* 'ascending', in H. as *करता* and in B. as *करित*, *देखित*, while the O. has preserved it as *करन्त*, *देखन्त*. The S. and P. have preserved the Saur. form which has ह instead of ल and the former has preserved the nasal throughout while the latter has dropped it after roots in अ as S. *मारीदो, हलन्दो*, P. *लिसवा* 'writing' but *जादा* 'going', *होदा* 'becoming'; this participle is used, as in the Pr., in the sense of Skr. Conditional, equivalent to the English Pluperfect Conditional, as M. *तो करता तर होतें* 'if he had done it, it would have become', G. *ते करत तो यात*; B. *ते यदि तो मातें* *कहित तवे तुमि विश्वास करिता ना*; 'if he had told you, you would not

had arisen, the darkness would not have remained'; H. जो मैं कहता तो मेरी बात न सुनता 'if I had told, he would not have listened to my words'; S. जेहू पाबिजमे न तरंदो 'if he had not been swimming', जे मे चढ़दा 'if I were to send'.

THE ABSOLUTIVE IN THE VERNACULARS

The absolute in M. is formed by adding the termination ऊज, as कऊज, the same as the Mahārāṣṭrī ऊज. Vararuci, you will remember, gives this termination only, but Hemacandra adds more.

The G. has इ, the same as the Ap. इ and Pr. इज, Skr. य, and इने from the Ap. एविद्यु or एयी, the Vedic Skr. त्विन; or the ने of इने may be the same as the particle ने which means 'and' added to इ.

The Sindhi has इ for intransitive and reflexive roots and ए for transitive and another इओ or यो for both, as सुणी 'having heard', मारे 'having beaten' and सुणयो or मार्यो. The first is the same as the G., but in the ए of the transitive roots the अ of the original इज seems to be preserved and this termination added to the root with the Parasm. sign इ. Thus we have first मारी and then, इज or इय being added, we have मारीय, whereupon the य with the preceding इ becomes ए and we have मारे. The last यो is the same as the इउ of the Ap., traced to the infinitive, which, you will remember, is confounded with the absolute.

The H. drops the इ of this form and the original root, as बोल, जा etc., is used in the sense of the Absol., but to make the sense distinct के or कर is added, as बोलके or बोलकर, जाके or जाकर. Of these के is a real absolute derived from the Saur. क्तिज and कर is the same as बोल, i. e. the usual form of it. Now when one form is felt to be not distinct enough, it is usual in our languages to add another to it of the same nature. You have instances of this process in the Pali double genitive त्वत्तान्; and in the instr. नैं and नैं of some of our vernaculars.

P. agrees with the H. In H., however, the इ is pronounced by a great many people. It is also found in the old poets and in the Brajabhāṣā. The absolute always ends in this vowel as करि, मारि, though often के the same as H. के is added, as करिके, मारिके, etc.

The O. also has *इ* as *करि* and the B. has *इ* or *ए* or *इया* as *देखि*, *देखे* or *देखिया* 'having seen.' In the last the *अ* of the original *इअ* is preserved and lengthened, and the *य* is euphonic.

THE INFINITIVE OF PURPOSE IN THE VERNACULARS

The infinitive of purpose is preserved in M. as *तो अभ्यास करे* 'he began to study.' The form in the Pr. is *करिरे*, but the augment *इ* is lost in M. O. also has it, but its use is somewhat like that of the Absolutive *चिन्तार कर कहिले* 'considering he spoke,' *खाद खाद दुष्ट होइला* 'eating and eating he was satisfied.' But the original sense is somewhat preserved, and it is in this sense made the basis of the present tense definite, which will be considered hereafter. This infinitive and the absolutive are, I have already observed, confused in the Pr., and in some of the modern dialects the absolutive is used where we in Marathi use the infinitive: as G. *हू करी सकुं छुं* 'I am able to do it,' H. *मे कर सकता हूं*, *कानी जाको नहीं कहि सके हे* 'whom speech cannot express,' Br. *मे करि सकौं हौं* for M. *मी करूं सकतौं*. For this infinitive the modern vernaculars however have got a reconstructed form which will be mentioned in its proper place.

THE POTENTIAL PARTICIPLE IN THE VERNACULARS

The potential participle in Skr. *तस्य*, Pr. *अन्व*, is much used in the modern dialects and made the base of various verbal formations. In M. we have *करावे* 'should be done,' G. *करहुं*, S. *पसिबो* from *पस* to see, Braj. *करवौं*, B. & O. *करिवा*. The H. has lost it, so also the P.

The Skr. verbal noun in *अन* appears as *करवें* in M., *करहुं* S., *करनी* Braj., *करवा* H. and P., *कइव* O. & B., but in these latter it is probably a modern *Tatsama*. G. does not possess it. These forms are called infinitives by the Vernacular grammarians. Prof. Hörnle traces them to the Skr. potential participle in *अनीव*; but, as before remarked, the transition from *नीव* to *नव* and then to *नै* is taken for granted; regularly *नीव* ought in the vernaculars to be changed to *नी* as in *पाणी*. According to the observations I made before the *ए* of *करवें* and *औं* of *करवौं* must be due to *अकृ-अर्ध-*

अर्ध Pr. and अकृ-अर्ध Ap., as in M. केळें and G. केळुं; so that the verbal noun in M. and H. is an augmented form of the corresponding one in Skr., while that of the Sindhi is from the unaugmented form. A great many other verbal derivatives have come down to the vernaculars, but I must not go further.

THE PASSIVE IN THE VERNACULARS

The Pr. passive base in ईअ and इअ has been preserved only in P. & S. Thus मारीअ 'he may be beaten' and मारीअअ 'they may be beaten' are forms of the 3rd pers. sing. and pl. of the passive old Pres. and modern Potential; while मारीअ the present part. is used as a base to form various tenses. This is the Pr. form in इअ, the अ being lost. Sindhi has अ as पजिअ 'to be drunk,' धोइअ 'to be washed,' धोइजे sing., धोइजनि pl. 3rd pers. Pres. or Pot. The pres. part. is wanting; the potential participle from लब्ध being used instead as धोइवा. The augment इ is introduced before this अ where euphony requires it. Old M. possessed these forms and they are very frequently to be met with in our poets as in Jñāneśvarī:

आतां आमुचा वर्की नायक । जे रूढ वीर सैनिक । ते प्रसंगें आइक । सांगिजति ॥

'Now incidentally will be mentioned, the leaders, proved warriors and soldiers in our army.'

तथापरी मूं देवा । मज झकऊन न येसि माधवा ।

जरी पुण्याचा ओलावा । नाशिजेल ॥

"In that manner, O lord Mādhava, you will abandon me and will not come to me if the moisture of virtue is dried up (lit. will be destroyed).

बिचारी तू अडुडु । कीं काळणें कीजसी वीडु ।

सांग पां अंधकारें बाडु । प्राप्तिला माधी ॥

'Think, Arjuna, you are being made contemptible by sorrow; say, is the sun ever swallowed up by darkness?'

Here we have instances of the Present and Future. Old Gui. had the passive:

जिहां पूजिअ सालिग्राम । जिहां अपिअजे हरिंतु नाम ।

स्वति पुराण मानीई नायह । जीवि दिसि करांय जायह ।

जिहां बह्मर्शन दीजह त्यान । जिहां ... वेदपुराण धर्म दुझीह ॥

नय लंडे अपकीरति रहि । माधवि म्लेच्छ आजियासही ॥

'Where Śaligrama is worshipped, where the name of Hari is muttered in meditation and Smrtis, Puranas and the cows are respected, in which country sacrifices are performed, where there are the six philosophies, and alms are given, where Vedas, Puranas and duty are understood, there Madhava for certain brought the Mlechha and infamy rests (on his name) in the nine divisions (of the world).'

Here we have instances of the forms in ज् as पूजिज् and In ई (Pr. इज्) बुझिइ; and also of the modern forms as कराव which will be presently considered. In old H. poets we meet with such forms now and then. Thus Tulsidasa :

महिमा आहु जान गहराऊ । प्रथम पूजियत नामप्रभाऊ ॥

'The greatness of which (Kama's name) the lord of the Gaṇas (Ganapati) knows, he is first worshipped; this is the achievement of the name.'

बहियत युगल किशोर लसि । लोचन युगल अनेक ॥ Behārīlāla.

'Many couples of eyes are wanted to see the couple of young persons (Rādhā and Kṛṣṇa).

Here पूजियत and बहियत are forms of the passive in ईय. The verb चाहिये in mod. H. is also a passive form as ज्योइये G. and पाहिजे M.

There are also, as in the Pr., Siddha Tadbhava forms of the passive बुझण S. 'to be heard,' भजण S. 'to be broken,' H. 'to flee away,' हुजण S. 'to be fried,' छिजण S. 'to be plucked' from प्र. हुज्ज, बज्ज, बुज्ज and छिज्ज and Skr. बुध्य, भज्य, ब्रज्य and छिद्य; पच-जे-नु-ना-हु-त from पच Pr., पच्य Skr. 'to be cooked' in all, though the sense is somewhat altered. लाभे M., लभण S. from प्र. लभ्य, Skr. लभ्य 'to be obtained,' बधण S., बधना H. from प्र. बध्य, Skr. बध्य 'to be bound;' दिसने-नु-ना M. G. H. P. from प्र. दीत, Skr. दृश्य 'to be seen' also दीतना H.; रुजने-नु M. S., रुजना H. P. from प्र. रुज्ज, Skr. रुज्य, root रु 'to be increased,' 'to swell;' कळणे M., प्र. कळ, Skr. कृत्य 'to be known;' घुचने-नु M. G. from घुच Pr., Skr. घृच्य 'to occur to one' etc.

THE CAUSAL IN THE VERNACULARS

The causal is formed in M. by appending ईव or अव as करीवणे or करवणे, धावीवणे or धाववणे; you will remember, I have identified the ई that non-reflexive transitive roots take in M. with the

Parasm. इ, and ए or अ of the intransitive and reflexive with the Ātm. Now when a root becomes causative, its reflexive character is lost, all verbs become transitive, and hence we have अ or ई promiscuously used after all roots. For this reason even in Skr. all causal verbs are both Parasm. and Ātm. I do not derive the rule about M. verbs taking अ or इ from that in Skr., but attribute it to the same causes. In the Goan. and Cit. we have अय for अब, the य being pronounced as a consonant and often like the vowel इ, as करयणां or करइणां. In the Savantvadi and Vengurla districts it is formed in the same way, but in the other portions of the area over which the Mālvanī is spoken it is formed as in the principal Marathī. The य stands for व; for this semi-vowel is often, by the vulgar, dropped leaving the vowel instead, as नमा for नवा like the H. नया for नवा, नाई for नावी etc.

In G. the causal termination is आब as करावहुं 'cause to do,' तपावहुं 'make hot;' in S. आइ as बघाइणु 'to cause to increase,' पोआइणु 'to cause to wash;' in P. आऊ or वाऊ as कराउना or करवाउना.

In H., it is आ as नचाना, पढाना, but नचावना and पढावना are also used; and the termination वा is invariably added to the first causal to form a second or double causal as नचवाना, पढवाना from नचाना and पढाना. The आब occurs in first causals in poetry, as Tulsidās: अब प्रबुचरित सुनावह मोहि 'Narrate (lit. make me hear) to me the history of the lord'; also :—

यथा अनेक वेष धरि नृत्य करै नट कोइ ।

सोइ सोइ आब दिखावै आइज होइ ना सोइ ॥

'As an actor assuming various masks dances; so he (the lord) shows this character and that but is not himself that (what he shows).'

The B. and O. causal is also similarly formed by adding आ as कराइ 'I cause to do,' दिखाइ 'I show' etc. Here also as in the H., the व of आब is elided.

The इ of the S. आइ must be the इ which we have observed is used after transitive and non-reflexive roots in Pot., the pres. part. etc. as मरीचो.

Thus then the causal termination in all the languages is आब or अब, which is the same as one of the three in Pr. For, you
64 (R. G. Bhandarkar's Works, Vol. IV.)

will remember, the Pr. has ए, आवे and, the ए of the latter being dropped, there is another आव. We have also a good many examples in the vernaculars of the Pr. causals mentioned by Hemacandra as formed by dropping all terminations and preserving the vowel changes, guṇa or vṛddhi, which roots take before the Skr. अय or Pr. ए Thus:—

M. G. H.	मरणें-हुं-ना	मारणें-हुं-ना.
H.	खुलना	खोलना.
M. G. H. S.	तुटणें-हुं-ना-खु	तोडणें-हुं-ना-खु
M. G. H.	कुटणें-हुं-ना	कोडणें-हुं-ना
H.	फटना	फाडना.
G. H.	छुटहुं-ना	छोडहुं-ना
M.	छुटणें	सोडणें
M. G.	पडणें-हुं	पाडणें-हुं
M.	चरणें	चारणें
S.	बारखु	बारखु
M, S.	गळणें-गारखु	गाळणें-गारखु
S.	पडखु	पाडखु

I have already mentioned that the causal of some roots is formed in H. by inserting ल before the causal termination आ. G. has ड and Sindhi ङ for ल, खवाडहुं 'to cause to eat' from खा to eat, देवाडहुं 'to cause to give,' देखाडहुं 'to show' from देख 'to see,' चवाडहुं 'to cause to run,' दिअखु 'to give,' दिआरखु 'to cause to give,' सिलखु-सेखारखु, बेहखु-बेहारखु 'to cause to sit.' In these instances we have वा or आ before ड; but in G. all these forms have आव optionally added to them when the previous आ is dropped as चवडावहुं 'to cause to run,' खवडावहुं 'to cause to eat' etc.; and in S. we have the causal आइ appended to र after roots ending in आ as खाराइखु 'to cause to eat,' चाराइखु 'to cause to wound,' चाराइखु 'to cause to suck' or 'to suckle;' so that the intervening आ is interchangeable in both these languages with the causal termination and hence some way conveys the same sense. M. has a trace of these forms as भोंवणें 'to turn,' भोंवडणें 'to cause to turn,' पावणें 'to run,' पावडणें 'to cause to run,' भिणें-भेडावणें 'to threaten.' Hemacandra mentions समाडो as the causal base of व्रम and gives पाड in the sense of pushing which is very likely a causal form of वा. We have this पाड in the sense of sending in M.

We have seen that *व* or *त* is sometimes changed to *ह* and thence to *र* or *ल* in the Pr. and vernaculars; whence it appears that *विलासना* is a denominative or nominal root from *विला* or *विह* or *पीत*, by the application of the usual denominative termination *आप्*, which is also the causal termination. In Skr. such a denominative has the sense of doing the thing expressed by the base as *पीति करोति-पीतयति*, Śaur, *पीदाबेदि*.

We have a great many denominatives from past participles; first in the sense of *being* the thing expressed by the base, in which case the participle has simply the verbal terminations appended to it, as *लग्नह* from *लग*, *अग्निह* from *अग्नेत*, *कटुह* from *कट*, *पल्लवह*, *पल्लव्यह* from *पर्यस्त* etc.; and secondly in the sense of *doing*, when *आव* or *आवे* intervenes between the base and the terminations, as *मीदाबेदि* in *Mālatī-Mādhava*, from which we have in M, *मेदाबवे*. The forms in which we have *आ* before *ह* as *देवाहवुं*, *सखाहवुं* etc. are denominatives from the past participles of original Pr. causals as *दाबिद्* or *खाबिद्*, the causal termination *आह* being changed to *ओ* and *आ* as in the H. in ordinary causals. In the vernaculars we have also the first class of denominatives expressive of being like the thing denoted by the base, as :-

M. G. H.	काहणें-हु-ना	to draw from	कह	p. p. p. of	कह
H.	सुतना	to sleep	सुत	"	स्वह
G.	हुठहुं	to rain	हट	"	हृह
H. G.	बैठना-बैठहुं	to sit	उपविष्ट	"	विश with उप
H. G.	पैठना-पैठहुं	to enter	प्रविष्ट	"	विश with प्र
H.	कुहना	to cry	कुह	"	कुण
G.	रुठहुं	to be angry	रुट	"	रुण
G.	हुठहुं	to be pleased	हुट	"	हुण
H. G.	घटना-हुं	to be diminished	घट	"	घृण

We have another verbal base in M. which involves the idea of power and ability as *करवतें* 'can be done,' *बसवतें* 'can be sat.' These forms are passive when the original verb is transitive, and impersonal when it is intransitive. In old M. *व* is sometimes seen for *व* :-

जरी बेहें बहुत सोलिलें । विविध भेद सुखिलें । तरी आवण हित आयुलें । तेंचि बेचे ॥

' Even if the Veda has told much and indicated a great many distinct things, still one should take that which is beneficial to himself.'

कायं कृण्विषे स्थितप्रज्ञ ?

' Who should be called स्थितप्रज्ञ ?'

Here the sense is simply passive and does not involve the notion of power. These forms are to be derived from the pass. of the causal, whence कर्षये is कर्षयइ Pr. for कर्षयते, Skr. कार्यते. Power is implied on account of the forms being derived in this manner; for, गोविन्देन कर्म कार्यते मया in Skr. means the work is caused to be done by me by Govinda; when the agent caused is taken to be the same as that who causes, the sense is 'the work is caused to be done by me by myself, i. e. 'I am the causer of myself to do it' i. e., 'I can do it.' In G. this causal pass. अञ् is transformed into आ, as the causal अञ् so often is, and the sense is simply passive in some cases and passive and causative in others, as आं लोकोरो मूर्खं जणाय हे 'this boy is known to be a fool'; आ कामं माराधी करातुं नधी 'this work cannot be done from me.' There are traces of these forms in the other languages also, though the grammarians do not notice them, as H. एकवचनं वस्तुन संख्या एकं बुझाय 'By the singulars the number of a thing is known to be one,' वइ वाक्य कइता हे 'that is called a sentence' etc.¹

Thus then you will see that we have nearly the whole of the grammar of the Prakrits, i. e. all their grammatical forms, in our vernaculars. The cases in the forms which they assumed in the Apabhraṃśa have been preserved, some in this language and some in that, but not all in one and the same. And along with them there are sometimes newly constructed forms also. The pronouns are the same as in the Pr. and the Apabhraṃśa. The two Prakrit tenses and one mood are preserved. All the

¹ Mr. Beames traces the vernacular causal terminations अञ्, इञ्, उ, आ etc. to the Skr. अञ्. But this is evidently a mistake. The Pr. आञ् or आञ् has escaped him somehow. The लृ of the Hindi causal forms he also derives from the य of अञ्. But this य is too weak to be changed to any other letter than the vowel ए, and ए is never changed to a semi-vowel excepting in the doubtful instance लहरी from लाह.

vernaculars have the Present, though, except in the O. and B., it has acquired another sense and another word or expression is wanted to restrict it to the signification of the present time. G. S. P. and H. have lost the Imperative, but it is preserved by the other three languages. The Future is retained by the G. and the Braj.; while this latter possesses the solitary form of the Aorist that the old Pr. had retained. These are the only really simple or uncompounded verbal forms existing in our languages; the rest are made up by compounding or by using Pres. participles as bases and appending the Pres. verbal terminations, as will be hereafter shown. Past time is almost universally expressed by the past participle, and this retains the passive, in some oases the active, character it had in Skr. and Pr. in all those languages that have not thoroughly lost the distinction of gender and number. The several other Prakrit participles are preserved and we have no other. The passive forms are seen in Sindhi and Panjabi, the former having one set and the latter the other. The Pr. causal termination is preserved almost unchanged by the M. and G. while in the other languages it is somewhat transformed. So that, as they are at present, our vernaculars have between them preserved all that the Prakrits had and preserved nothing that the Prakrits lost.

And as we ascend higher up in the history of each of these languages, we find in use such forms as it has now lost. All our vernaculars must at one time have been in the condition in which we find the Apabhramsa, but the dialect of that name which is treated of by the grammarians, and specimens of which we find in the scraps of literature I have noticed, resemble the G. and the Braj and in a less degree the S. P. and the ordinary H.

The old literary dialect of the H. area was the Braj; and the works of Tulsidas, Bihari Lal, Kabira and others are in that dialect, though these are called old Hindi poets, instead of old Braj poets as they should be called and as they are called by natives. In this old Braj literature we find the Apabhraṃśa forms of the Present tense unchanged; and from these has directly been derived the Present tense of the modern S., G., P., Braj and H. The Apbh. Future is found in the G. and in modern Braj and in **the**

poets in an older and less corrupt form also, though the **र** is changed to **व**. Such Apbhr. forms as **जेन**, **तेन** are preserved in the G.; and the neuter sing. in **ई** in that dialect as well as in the Braj, where it occurs especially in the verbal nouns or infinitives. The first pers. sing. **हं** exists in G., old H. and a dialect of the Panjabi. The other dialects also possess, as I have observed, some Ap. peculiarities, but the four named above bear a closer connection to it.

And since the Apabhramśa is referred by the grammarians to the Śauraseni type, we may regard these four modern dialects, viz. the G. S. P. and H., as the representatives of the old Śauraseni, which from the name seems to have been the dialect of the country about Mathurā.

The distinction between this and the old Mahārāṣṭrī was, as we have have seen, not very great and some of the peculiarities were such as could not last for many centuries. The change of **न** and **य** to **व** and **व**, for instance, instead of elision and **इ** is of such a nature. The law of elision which operated in a great many other cases could not long be kept from extending itself to **न**. But still we do find in the modern G. such forms as **किं**, **विं**, **सां** etc. for **कृतम्**, **वर्तम्** and **सादितम्**. This change was made in some cases in the Śauraseni as in **सदम्बला**, for **शकुन्तला**, and in others not, as **अप्यवत्** for **आर्यपुत्र**. And the change of **स्त** to **म्** and **व** we find in the S. and P. Present Participles. The Śaur. Future which had an intercalatory **स्त** instead of the Mahārāṣṭrī **हि** is, as we have seen, preserved in the G. and the Braj with the slight modification it underwent in the Apabhramśa. Then, if we follow Vararuci, the Śaur. Absolute termination was **इज्**, and in the prose speeches in the dramatic plays it is this alone that we find. The absolutive in these four modern languages is formed by adding this same termination with the **ज** dropped.

Now all these peculiarities are absent from the M. In the old Mahārāṣṭrī verses, occurring in the plays, as well as according to Vararuci, the absolutive termination was **ऊज्**, which we find in the M. alone. The past passive participle of **कृ** and **वृ** in old Mahr. was **कृज्** and **वृज्**, and we have these forms in the M. in **कैज** and **मेज**, as we have seen, while **कि** instead of **के**, **वृ** instead of

मे occur in the four Śaurasenīc dialects and these we find in the plays. The Fres. and Imper. of the M. have been derived from the Pr. and not from the Apbhr. forms. Thus then, the M. is the modern representative of the old Maharastrī; so that it hardly admits of any doubt that the two old languages derived their names from the provinces in which they prevailed. The B. and O. have a few peculiarities of the Śaur.; and they seem to occupy a middle position between M. on the one hand and the four Apbhr. or Śaur. languages on the other; while the consonantal changes, especially the reduction of all the sibilants to the palatal point to their being the descendants of the old Magadhī.

LECTURE VI

NEW GRAMMATICAL FORMATIONS IN THE NORTHERN VERNACULARS

We will now proceed to consider those forms in the grammar of our languages which are not derived from corresponding Sanskrit or Prakrit forms, but which have been constructed in recent times. Such new forms owe their origin to various causes. The old ones lose their distinctive portions and become confused by phonetic decay; or, having been in long use, lose all freshness of meaning, and cease to be as expressive as one would wish them to be, or their sense is not exactly that which one desires to convey. Thus the old Present and Future got confused in our vernaculars and a new Future was wanted. The old Present itself acquired a potential sense in some cases and a past habitual sense in others, whence for the expression of present time another set of forms was required.

In Sanskrit itself such a phrase as द्विजाय'ब्रह्माह' for a Brahman' is not so expressive as द्विजार्थाय ब्रह्मः 'gruel for a Brahman's purpose'; which again is analysed into its separate elements for greater distinctness into द्विजस्यार्थे ब्रह्मः 'gruel for the purpose of a Brahman'.

When different words so brought together are kept distinct and consciously used, there is no growth of new forms. But if by frequent use and the oblivion of etymology such an expression as स्वार्थे comes to be looked upon as an independent word meaning "for the sake of" and applied promiscuously to all nouns, including such as could not originally by the usage of Sanskrit have it, as in प्रातुस्वार्थे, it becomes a termination, and a new case form grows up and the old one often goes out of use. Then again phonetic decay sets in and by reducing this expression to स्वार्थे and ultimately to सार्थे (M. सार्थे the original word being सौहार्दम्), irrevocably stamps it with the character of a case termination having no meaning by itself. Lastly, if one wishes to say of a book that it belongs to him and looks upon it as possessing that attribute and subordinates him to it, the expression तस्य पुस्तकम्

will not serve his purpose, but he must have some such as तदीयं पुस्तकम्. And if this way of looking at things becomes general, तदीयं supersedes तस्य. In this way our new forms have grown up.

THE OBLIQUE FORMS

The case terminations are, in the majority of the languages, applied not to the original noun itself but to a certain modified form of it called the oblique form, or by the native Marathi grammarians the Samanya-rupa or the common form, because it is used in all the cases.

THE OBLIQUE FORM IN THE MARATHI

There are two Samanya-rupas for the two numbers. In the old languages plurality is expressed by independent terminations, but the new terminations of the modern languages being the same for both numbers, plurality is denoted by a distinctive oblique form. Some of the modern languages that have no Samanya-rupa have recourse to a novel way of expressing plurality. Of all the vernaculars it is the Marathi that is the most particular in the formation of the oblique and has minute rules. Sindhi comes next, then the Hindi and the Panjabi; after these the Gujarati, and lastly the Bengali and the Oriya; which may be said to have no oblique form at all.

The Marathi oblique forms are made up by adding these terminations —

(1) Sing. आ	PL आं
(2) „ ई	„ ईं
(3) „ औ	„ औं
(4) „ ऊ	„ ऊं
(5) „ ए	„ एं

(1) The following classes of nouns take the first—

- (a) Masc. and Neut. nouns in आ as हात 'hand'. हाता obl., हातास sing. 'to a hand', हातांस pl. 'to hands'.
- (b) Masc. nouns in आ and neuter nouns in ई which combine the final and the termination into वा, but to ए in the speech of the Konkani Karhades and in the Citpavani and optionally to वा or ए in adjectives: as जांवा 'a mango', जांवा

obl., आंब्यास sing. 'to a mango'; केळें 'a plantain', केळ्या obl., केळ्यास sing. 'to a plantain'; आविस 'to a mango' in the Konkani Karhādas, विवळा 'yellow', विवळ्या or विवळे obl., विवळ्या आंब्यास or विवळे आंब्यास sing. 'to a yellow mango', respectively.

- (c) A good many Masc. nouns in ई, the ई of which is changed to वा before आ as न्हावी nom., न्हाव्या obl., न्हाव्यास sing. न्हाव्यांस pl.

All neuter nouns in ई as मोर्ती-मोत्या-मोत्यास-मोत्यांस.

- (d) Some Masc. and nearly all neuter nouns in ऊ. Some of these change ऊ to वा, and others drop it, since it is the ऊ of the nom. sing. Apbhr., as भाऊ 'a brother'--भावा obl., भावास sing. 'to a brother', भावांस pl. 'to brothers'; वाटसर 'traveller', वाटसरा obl., वाटसरास sing., वाटसरांस pl.; गळें-गळवा-गळवास sing., गळवांस pl. लेकरं-लेकरा-लेकरास sing., लेकरांस pl. Some nouns of this class take आ optionally as विंचू-विंच्या-विंच्यास sing., विंच्यांस pl.

- (2) The following nouns take the second form ई, ई:--

(a) Tatsamas in short इ as कवि-कवी-कवीस.

(b) A few masc. nouns in ई as हत्ती 'elephant', हत्ती-हत्तीस sing., हत्तींस pl.

(c) A good many feminine nouns in अ as रीत manner, रिती-रितीस sing., रितींस pl.; केळ 'a plantain tree', केळी-केळीस sing., केळींस pl.

(d) Some feminine nouns in ई as धुई 'ground', धुई-धुईस sing., धुईंस pl.

(3) A good many feminine nouns take the third form ई-आ as घोडी 'a mare', घोडी sing., घोड्यां pl., घोडीस sing., घोड्यांस pl.; साडी 'a garment worn by females', साडी sing., साड्या pl., साडीस sing., साड्यांस pl. In the Goan. and Māl., however, this form does not exist and these nouns take the fifth form ए-आ, as घोडे-घोडेक sing., घोड्यांक pl.; साडी-साडेक sing., साड्यांक pl.

(4) Some masc. and feminine nouns in ऊ take the fourth form ऊ-ऊ, as साऊ-साऊस sing., साऊंस pl.; बाजू f. 'a side', बाजू-बाजूस sing., बाजूंस pl.

(5) The following classes take the fifth form :—A good many fem. nouns in अ as जीब 'a tongue', जिबे sing., जिबां pl., जिवेस sing., जिबांस pl.; a good many fem. nouns in ई in the Goan. and Mā. dialects; see instances given above; some fem. nouns in ऊ, as जल्ल 'a leech', जल्ले sing., जल्लबां pl., जल्लवेस sing., जल्लबांस pl.; जाऊ 'husband's brother's wife', जावे—जाबां etc. Some nouns take this form optionally as सासूस or सासेस; सासूस or सासुवोस. The usage in several cases is still unsettled as regards some of these forms. You will observe that there is an anusvāra in the pl. of all forms. Another fact should also be borne in mind that nouns in ई and ऊ often take the आ—आं or ए—आं forms though these properly belong to nouns in अ.

THE OBLIQUE FORM IN SINDHI

(1) The following classes of nouns take अ for the obl. sing. and आं, एं and अनि for the pl. :—

- (a) Masc. nouns, the nom. sing. of which ends in उ, as देह 'a country', देह-देहनि obl., देहजो sing. 'of a country', देहनिजो pl. 'of countries', also देहां—देहें—जो.
- (b) Masc. nouns in ओ, which, however, combine the final and the termination into ए as in the Cit. Mar. as बाढो 'a carpenter', obl. बाढे sing., बाढनि, बाढां and बाढें pl.

(2) The following nouns take अ for the obl. sing. and नि, अनि and उनि for the pl. in addition to आं and एं :—

- (a) Masc. nouns in ई as हारी 'a peasant', हारिअ or हारिआं sing., हारें, हारिएं, हार्यां, हारिनि, हार्यनि and हारुनि pl.
- (b) Fem. nouns in ई as घोडी 'a mare', obl. घोडिअ sing. घोडिआं, घोडिएं, घोडिनि, घोडयनि and घोडयुनि pl.
- (c) Masc. nouns in ऊ; as माण्ड 'a man', obl. माण्डअ sing., माण्डनि, माण्डअनि, माण्डआं and माण्डएं pl.

(3) Nouns in short इ have no separate form for the sing. of the obl., the nom. form being used; the pl. they form like the above class, as गालि f. 'a story', obl. गालि sing., गालिआं, गालिएं, गालिअनि, गालिउनि and गालिनि pl. Masc. nouns in इ, however, do not take the forms in अनि and उनि; as केहरि 'a lion' sing., केहरिनि-आं-एं pl.

(4) Fem. nouns in अ, आ and उ have no separate form for the sing. while in the pl. they take उनि as सच 'wish', obl. सच sing., सचुनि pl.; हत्या 'a murder', obl. हत्या sing., हत्याउनि pl.; बिजु 'lightning', obl. बिजु sing., बिजुनि pl. The first has सचाँ and सचेँ also for the pl. Here there is one type for one class of nouns and not two, as is the case sometimes in the M. The form in उनि is taken by all feminine nouns in अ, आ and ई and also masc. nouns in ई. Masc. nouns in ऊ and fem. nouns in उ have उ in the original base itself and it does not belong to the termination.

THE OBLIQUE FORM IN PANJABI

The Panjabi has the termination ए for the sing. obl. of nouns ending in आ. The sing. of all other nouns has no special form while आ is appended to all nouns to form the obl. pl., before which the final आ of nouns preceded by a consonant is changed to इ, as घोड़ा 'a horse', घोड़े obl. sing. and घोड़ियाँ pl. Final उ preceded by a vowel combines with this आँ to form बाँ, as पिता or पेता 'father', पैयाँ obl. pl.; and final अ forms आँ as मनुष्य 'man', मनुष्याँ obl. pl. There are no other changes.

THE OBLIQUE FORM IN HINDI

The Hindi, like the Panjabi, has an oblique sing. for nouns in आ only. It ends in ए, as that of the S. and Cit. M. nouns in ओ, Karh. M. and P. nouns in आ as; घोड़े-घोड़ेका. The pl. obl. of all nouns whatever is formed by adding ओँ which amalgamates with the preceding अ of all nouns and the आ of such as are masculine, and combines with इ to form इयों; as गाँव 'a village', गाँवोंका pl. 'of villages'; घोड़ा 'a horse', घोड़ोंका pl. 'of horses'; एता 'a master', एताओंका pl. 'of masters.' In other cases it is simply added to the noun as बाघ 'a jackal', बाघोंका pl. 'of jackals'.

In the Brāhṃṣā and in the old poets the obl. pl. of all nouns has न or नि instead of ओँ, as सत्त 'a good man' सत्तनका pl. 'of good men'. This termination is also added to the nom. sing. to form the nom. pl. of those nouns that have no distinctive form for it; as लोग 'people' sing. लोगन pl.; भगत 'devotee', भगतन pl. (बहु भुग भगतन बाँचक बादी—Kabīr).

THE OBLIQUE FORM IN GUJARATI

In G. the obl. form of masc. and neuter nouns ending in ओ and ई is formed by substituting अ for those vowels. The latter

take an anusvāra in the pl., and the forms of the former for both numbers are alike as घोडा-घोडा-घोडाने sing. and pl. 'to a horse or horses'; केरु 'a plantain', केटा-केटाने sing. 'to a plantain', केटानि pl. 'to plantains'. But the nom. pl. forms of these are घोडा and केटा, whence it appears that in the pl. the obl. cases are formed simply adding the terminations to the nom. pl. and there is no such thing as a common oblique form. And this is the case with the sing. as well as the pl. of all other nouns; as माणस 'a man' nom. sing., माणसो nom. pl., माणसने sing., माणसोने pl. The plural termination is ओ and is thus used in all cases. It is added in these days even to the final आ and आं of nouns in ओ and उं to distinguish the pl. forms from the sing. as घोडा or घोडाओ nom. pl., घोडाने or घोडाओने dat. pl. But the practice has not yet established itself and mostly the forms without ओ are used. Masc. and neut. nouns ending in ओ or उं are often used in the pl. without it in such instances as तिहा घण माणस छे in the nom. and other cases. And this is the usual practice in old G. literature; as लोकना पुत्रना विवाह होईछी (Panch.): 'The marriages of the sons of other people are performed'; 'सर्व शास्त्रनो परिचय छे' 'he has a knowledge of all the Śāstras'.

कलशुगना बाझाज अडला
धर्महीन थासे तेडला
तां घर करसे पोता तणां
स्वर्गारोहणनो कीयो ग्रंथ
जेहमा सकल धर्मनो पंथ

Svargārohaṇa by Sundarabhattacha

'All the Brahmans of Kaliyuga will be without virtue. They will build their homes there. The work Svargarohana was composed in which there is the way of all virtues'.

अनेक पंसी करे पोकार। गिरिजंगल बहु बुंगरा बकी बांहरना ठाठ

Kavyadohana, Tulaal.

'Many birds raise a noise. There are mountains, forests, many hills; over these is a crowd of monkeys.'

The ओ however is seen in fern, nouns ending in ई ५—

समुद्र नामनी नदीयो जे हसे। तेमांभी जल छकी जसे ॥

Svargarohana.

' The water of the sea and of the rivers on land (in villages) will be dried up.'

मीठा पर्वत नदियो जेह : तेह तनो नहि लाये छेह ॥

Kavyadohana, Tulasi.

' There is no end of great mountains and rivers that exist.'

It therefore appears that in masc. and neut. nouns the ओ is a modern innovation and that there was no distinction between the sing. and pl. cases except the nom. of nouns in ओ and उं. The true explanation therefore of the modern ओ of the pl. is that fem. nouns in आ and ई preserved this termination, since they had it in the Prakrits, as the minor M. dialects have done, and, the sing. and pl. forms of masc. nouns being alike, the fem. ओ was transferred to them afterwards to distinguish the pl. as is now being done to nouns in ओ and उं. Thus then the G. noun may be said to have no real Sāmānya-rūpa or oblique form. Adjectives in ओ however have a form ending in ए when they are used to qualify a substantive in the instr. or old loc. case in ए as आ काम सारे माणसे कीर्तु 'this thing was done by a good man', तलावने काटे झोकरा गिया 'boys went to the margin of a tank'; but this may be explained as a remnant of the old agreement between the noun and its adjective and सारे may be regarded as an instr. form and तलावने a locative.

ABSENCE OF THE OBLIQUE FORM IN BENGALI AND ORIYA

The Bengali and Oriya apply the case terminations directly to the nom. and there is no oblique form. The new terminations being, as in all the modern languages, the same for both numbers and there being no oblique form to express the distinction between them as in M. S. H. etc.) these languages, like the Guj., were under the necessity of deriving some expression for denoting plurality. The G. found its fem. ओ and employed it for this purpose, but the B. and O. had no such distinctively pl. termination left to fall back upon and so they have recourse to the use of a word signifying collection such as दिग originally 'direction, row, line', गण, सचइ and सकल etc., after the noun, the plurality of which is to be expressed. Thus राजा 'a king', राजार 'of a king', राजादिगेर 'of kings' lit. 'of the direction row or line of a

king.' Sometimes the word *विग* is attached to the gen. sing. as *राजारविग* to express the gen. relation between the *राजा* and *विग*, which is understood in the first expression. To nouns denoting inferior animals *सबह* and such words are appended and such others as *सकल* to those signifying inanimate creatures as *कुक्कुर* 'of a dog' *कुक्कुरसबह* 'of dogs.' The Oriya sign of the plural is *मान* for rational and animate creatures and *सकल*, *समस्त* etc. for irrational or inanimate, as *पशु* 'a beast', *पशु* sing. 'of a beast', *पशुमानकर* 'of beasts.' The B. adds *रा* to the nom. sing. of names of rational creatures to form the nom. pl., while *सबह*, *सकल*, etc. are applied to the rest, as *राजा* 'a king', *राजारा* 'kings'; *कुक्कुर* 'a dog', *कुक्कुरसबह* 'dogs.' The O. adds *ए* to *मान* to form the nom. pl. as *पशुमाने*. This *ए* is the same as that of *चोड़े* in M. and H.

THE NATURE OF THE OBLIQUE FORM

Now the question is what is the nature of this Samanya-rupa or oblique form, why does a noun undergo a certain modification before it becomes fit to receive the termination and what is the signification of the modified form and of the nasal that appears in the plural. Let us see how we, at the present day, join certain words expressive of relation such as *संनिध* or *पाशी* with a noun. We say *त्याच्या संनिध* or *त्याच्या पाशी* i. e. put the noun into the gen. case. Now this *त्याच्यापाशी* is convertible with *त्याजपाशी*, in which *त्याज* is the oblique form of *तो* the demonstrative. Similarly we append even some of the case terminations to the gen. as *माझ्याने काम करवत नाही* 'I cannot do the work'; *त्याच्यात काही पाणी नाही* 'there is no spirit (lit. water) in him.'

May the Santanyarūpa then be an original genitive? The gen. is used in the Prakrits and even in Pali, not only with independent words, but is made the base of some oases also, as we have seen, and the case terminations attached to it; thus *मम* is acc. sing. of *अहम्* 'I' in the Pali and the Pr., *ममाई* instr., *ममादो*, *ममाहि* abl., *ममस्मि* loc. in the latter, in which instances the usual terminations of those cases are added to the original gen. form *मम*. We find everywhere in the history of our languages that after a time the terminations in some cases come to have an independent sense and then they are detached from the original base and used like

ordinary post-positions. Thus, before the loc. **मिम** was appended to **मम**, it must have acquired some such sense as 'in the interior of and that the whole expression **मममिम** might mean 'in the interior of me.' Similarly in the Apabhramsa, some of the post-positions which came into use and which, as I shall hereafter show, have grown into our case terminations are used with the gen. of the noun to which they are attached. Thus :—**हर्ष मिअर्ष तउ कोहिं पिअ मुहुं उय अकह रोसि** 'I pine away for thee, oh beloved, but thou for another', in which we have the postposition **कोहिं** and **रोसि** having the sense of 'for' used with the genitives **तउ** 'thy' and **अकह** 'of another.'

ANALYSIS OF THE MARATHI OBLIQUE FORM

And if we examine the oblique forms themselves, we shall find that that they are derived from the Apbhr. and Pr. genitives. Thus the form in **आ** sing. and **आं** pl. which nouns in **अ**, **आ** etc. take is derived from the Apbhr. **इ** sing. and **ई** or **ऐ** pl. derived from Pr. **स** and **जं**. The grammarians give the Apbhr. sing. termination as **हो**, but **इ** is also found, as in **अकह** in the above quotation, and in the following occurring in an old work :—

कान्ह तणह संपत्ति इसी । जिती इइह परि रिद्धि ॥

'The wealth of Kanha was like the affluence in the house of Indra' where **इइह** is gen. sing. The **इ** of **इत्थइ**, for instance, is reduced to **अ**, the aspirate being lost, as is often the case in the vernaculars, and we have **इत्था** or **हाता**. Similarly **ऐ** of the pl. combines with the preceding **अ** into **आं** and we have **हातां**.

The second form **ई** and **ईं** is derived from the gen. of nouns in **इ** or **ई** masc. or fem. Thus **केलीइ** is the Pr. gen. sing. from which we have **केली** the sing. obl., and **केलिजं** pl., the **जं** of which is reduced to **अं** as in the other case, and we have **केलीअं**;—**अ**, as proved in the last lecture, generally goes out in the vernaculars, after a long vowel even when medial, and after a short dissimilar vowel when final, and hence we have **केलीं** the obl. pl. Or the sing. **ई** may be derived from another fem. gen. termination **अ** or the masc. **अ** for **इ**, which, before the preceding short **इ**, goes out since it is final, as **कविइ-कविअ-कवी**.

The fourth form उ and ऊ is similarly derived from masc. and fem. nouns in उ or ऊ; as साहुस्त-साहुइ-साहुअ-साहु obl. M., though we have not this word in this form in M. where it is भाबू-सख सखअ gen. सान् obl. sing. M.; ससूण-ससूअ-सान् obl. pl. M.

The fifth form in ए sing. and आ pl. is from fem. nouns in आ; Pr. जिआइ or जिआइ-जिआ M. obl. sing. and जिआण-जिआअ-जिआ M. obl. pl.

The third form ई sing. and आ pl. is a mixture of the second and the fifth and the nouns that take it form their oblique on the type of the fifth in the Goan. and Mā.

ANALYSIS OF THE SINDHI OBLIQUE FORMS

The Sindhi in its अ of the sing. of its first and second forms, shortens the आ of the M., i. e. the two अ form one strong अ; while in its third or fourth, it either dispenses with the special oblique or this is the same as the nom., as in the case of the M. इनि, छई, सान् etc. The Sindhi plural oblique has one form आ, like the corresponding M. ए, which appears to be from the Apbhr. ई of the gen. pl. of nouns in short इ or उ given by Kramādīvara and the rest presents the gen. न in an uncorrupted form. Of these उनि which all fem. nouns and one set of masc. nouns take appears to be a combination of the fem. nom. pl. उ and the gen. नि; i. e. to the nom. pl. of these nouns the obl. नि was added instead of to the original base.

THE HINDI AND THE PUNJABI OBLIQUE FORMS

The P. pl. आँ is the same as the M. and the H. औ is from the Apbhr. हु of nouns in इ or उ. Or it may be explained as a combination of the fem. औ with the nasal of the gen. as the Sindhi उनि is.

The Braj अ also presents the gen. termination in an unchanged form.

This then is the way in which the oblique forms are derived, but as usual the law of false analogy and simplication has been in operation even here and thus while the M. represents them in a pristine condition, the Sindhi has reduced them to fewer types and the P. and H. and perhaps the G. to one and the B. and O. have dropped them altogether,

It now remains to show why nouns with various endings inflect the obl. in M. and S. according to the same type. I have already shown that the oblique terminations **आ** and **अ** properly belong to nouns in **अ**. Sindhi masc. nouns in **उ** are, as observed on a former occasion, really nouns in **अ**, **उ** being the nom. sing. termination, whence they take in the sing. **आ** shortened to **अ**. Nouns in **आ** Mar. and P. and in **ओ** S. also form their oblique according to this type. But the sing. base ends in **वा** or **ए** in M. and **ए** in others. These nouns, as shown in the last but one lecture, were originally nouns augmented by the addition of **क**. Thus Skr. **घोदक** is Pr. **घोदअ** or **घोदए**, since **अ** is pronounced **ए**, and with **इ** or **अ** the gen. termination becomes **घोदए + अ = घोदया**, which by hasty pronunciation becomes **घोदवा**; but in the older M. poets we find **घोदया** also. Now in the state of **घोदए** it may become, as I have once stated, **घोदे**, as **कयल** for **कदल** becomes **केल** or **केळ**, and after a long vowel the following **अ** is elided, whence we have the form of the M. dialects and S. and P. and H. Similarly we have the plural **घोदवा**.

Neuter nouns in **ए** are also nouns with a final **क**, as has been shown, hence their oblique is like that of the Masc. nouns in **आ**. **कदलक**—**कयलअ**—**केळ** and **केल + अ** of the gen. = **केळया**—**केळवा**. Similarly **सोने** = **सुवर्णअ** = **सुवर्णक** etc.

Masc. nouns in **ई** also take this form. If they do so, they must be nouns in **अ** originally and as a matter of fact we do find some of them at least to be so. Thus **म्हावी** is **म्हाविअ** Pr., **नापित** Skr.; wherefore we have **म्हाविअ + आ = म्हाव्या**; **ताम्बोलिक** is Pr. **तम्बोलिअ** and with the gen. **इ** or **अ** the obl. **ताम्बोळ्या**; **पाणिअ** Pr. **पाणिअ** and with **अ** for **इ** **पाण्या** obl. etc. Similarly **मोक्तिक** is **मोक्तिअ**, where with gen. **अ** we have M. **मोत्या**; **पानी** is **पानीअ** and thence **पाण्या**. S. **हारी** is Skr. **हालिक**, Pr. **हालिअ** which is the S. obl. form, since the effect of two **अ** coming together is in this language to prevent the usual elision and form one strong **अ**.

We thus see that most Mar. and S. masc. nouns in **ई** and M. neuter nouns **ई** are derived from Pr. nouns having a final **अ** representing Skr. **क** or any other syllable. In the same way Skr. **कदुक** is Pr. **कदुअ** thence **कदुअ** and with the gen. **अ** for **इ** **कदुवा** the M. obl.; so also M. **बार** must be Pr. **बारअ**, Skr. **ब्राह्मक**; M. **नाहु**, Pr. **नहुअ**,

Skr. मञ्जुक, in order that with the gen. अ they may yield मावा or मातवा. Neuter गर्ह is गर्हुज, Skr. गर्हुक and hence by the combination of गर्हुज + अ we have गर्हवा or गर्हवा. S. माण्ड must have been माण्ड from माण्ड and the aspiration being transferred to न we have माण्डन which is the obl. form. Thus then those M. and S. masc. nouns in उ and M. neuter nouns in ऊं which take this oblique form were Pr. nouns in अ representing a Skr. syllable ending in न, mostly क. Now these vernacular nouns in इ or ई and उ or ऊ which in Skr. have not a syllable like न or क at the end must have the क attached to them in the Pr. and Apbhr., as we have seen it was, to nouns in अ which on that account have become nouns in ओ or आ in the modern languages.

Those fem. nouns in अ that have ई or ई for their Sāmānyarūpa terminations must be Skr. and Pr. nouns in इ or ई as they are as a matter of fact; as केली is Pr. केली or कयली, Skr. कदली; भित्त is Pr. and Skr. भित्ति; पारव, Skr. पापाई, Pr. पारवी; बहिज, Skr. बगिनी, Pr. बहिणी; बाँव, Skr. बापी, Pr. बावी; and a good many modern Tadbhavas such as रीत, गत, विद्युत from रीति, गति, विद्युति etc.; others that end in ई and take these terminations were also originally nouns in इ or ई as दुई, Skr. दुग्नि and others. Some masc. nouns in ई which form their obl. in this way must also be derived from corresponding nouns in ई, as इपी is from the Skr. and Pr. Nom. sing. इपी. And modern Tatsamas in इ or ई of course can only take this form. Similarly those nouns that form their oblique by taking ऊ and ऊं must be originally nouns in उ or ऊ. Modern Tatsamas ending in these vowels also take these forms.

The fifth form has already been traced to the Pr. gen. of fem. nouns in आ, whence those nouns that take the form in M. must have been originally nouns ending in that vowel. Thus जीव, Pr. जिवा, Skr. जिह्वा; माक—Skr. माका (mod. Tad.); माळ—माळा—माळा; बीक—बिक्का—बिक्का; नीज or बीद्—निद्रा—निद्रा; साँज—संझा—संझा; सेज—सेजा—संझा etc. All modern fem. Tatsamas in आ are inflected in this way. From the fact that fem. nouns in ई take अ for the pl. obl. it would appear that they were originally nouns in आ. बोदी we know must have been Skr. बोदिका since the masc. is बोदक. Its gen. pl. in Pr. therefore was बोदिआअ, whence we have बोदवा, but the sing. obl. बोदी which is the same as the nominative is not

formed, as it should be, according to our theory. But, as observed before, the Goan. and Mal. have faithfully preserved the old tradition here though the ordinary M. has lost it and in this instance applies the case terminations to the Norn, and not to special obl. form as the other languages do to a much greater extent. The Goan. and Māl. *Sāmānyarūpa* of चौडी is चौडेचे from Pr. gen. चौडिआह, the last two vowels combining into ए and the इ and ए into ये. Other instances are साडी, Skr. शाटिका, बाडी-बाटिका, नळी-नलिका, कळी-कलिका, माशी-मक्षिका, माती-मृत्तिका, हुदी-हृदिका, the sing. obl. of which in the Goan. and Māl. are साड्ये, बाड्ये, नळ्ये etc. Similarly those fem. nouns that take this type of the obl. must have been nouns in आ representing such a syllable as का. Thus M. बाळ is Pr. बालुआ, Skr. बालुका, and बालुआ with the इ or ए of the Gen. sing. is बाळ्ये and with आँ of the pl. बाळ्यांस; also जळ-जलोआ or जलुआ-जलोका; ऊ a louse Skr. एका, साक्ष-स्यञ्चुका. The last and also बाळ have also the obl. form in ऊ and ऊँ. Several other nouns also, masc. and fem. ending in ई and ऊ, have the ई and ऊ form of the obl. as well as the आ or ए and आँ form. This arises from the practice of adding क or का optionally in the Pr. just as there are some nouns which, as we have seen, end both in अ and आ.

In this way the several types of the M. *samanyarūpa* arose from different sets of Pr. nouns, but it is not meant that all those nouns that in the present state of the languages take one or other of those types were derived from the corresponding Prakrit set. After the forms came into use, words—from foreign languages for instance—were introduced which cannot of course be traced to the Prakrit and those were assigned to some one form according to the gender in the first place and then to fancy or accident; there is no reason why दोलत should be दोलती for its oblique and not दोलते or फोज फाजे and not फोजी; the tradition with regard to some Pr. nouns also must have been forgotten and then they also have been in the condition of these foreign nouns and must have been treated likewise; and to a certain extent oblivion is the reason why we have two forms in the case of some nouns and no other.

This then is clearly the origin of the oblique forms; and all the facts, especially in the Marathi language, harmonise go completely with it that there can be no doubt whatever as to its truth. And no other ease than the gen, would have served the

purpose of reconstruction. When a language is in an early stage of growth and case forms such as the loc. sing, are made up by joining two words such as **हेत** 'a shining being' and **इ** 'this* or 'here*', imagination is wanted to connect the 'here' or 'this' with the shining being, i. e. in the place of the shining being. But when a language has got the means of expressing the relation denoted by *of*, it is necessary that it should be used in connection with the new post-position; otherwise the sense would be incomplete. And thus in Skr., Pr. and the modern languages all such post-positions are appended to the gen. case. The gen. forms of nouns as they were in the Prakrits and the Apabhramsa have descended to the Marathi only somewhat phonetically altered, while **the** principal change that the nouns or crude forms have undergone is the loss of **फिना** or **आ** answering to such a Skr. syllable as **न**, **क** or **का** when preceded by a dissimilar vowel, i. e. **इ** or **उ**; while the other languages have, in most instances, taken this mutilated crude or nom. form as the base for all oblique cases, the M. confines it to its own place and uses the old gen. everywhere and without exception if we take the minor dialects also into consideration. The other languages have of course, as has been shown, preserved this gen. in some oases and of them all the S. in the largest number of instances. Some such as the H. and P. have generalized the pl. form of one set of nouns and use it for all. The M. cases are thus more difficult to the learner than those of **the** other languages, but that is a matter with which we are not concerned here.

NEW TERMINATIONS IN THE VERNACULARS

We will now proceed to the consideration of the new terminations. These have not necessarily sprung up from independent words. We have seen that the old terminations such as the **न** of the instr. have been detached and constituted into post-positions. But the most common method the vernaculars have resorted to is to attach the case forms of certain words to the gen. of **the** nouns. The acc. and dat. terminations in the various dialects are these : H. **तई**, **को**, Braj. **को**, B. **के**, **ते**, O. **हु**, S. **ले**, **ते**, P. **इ**, **तई**, G. **ने**, M. **र**, **ला**, and **ते** used in poetry. Of these **र** has been discussed. The Mā. and Gōan. have **काँ** for pronouns and the former **र** for

nouns and the latter क्त. Khāndeshī has से, P. has सहै also for से. Old Bengali has also a dative in से.

वैदर्भीरु इति कहे मनुष्यवचने

Mah. Nalop. I.

'The swan said to Vaidarbhi with human speech.'

THE ORIGIN OF क IN THE VERNACULAR TERMINATIONS

Here we see that a good many languages have the termination with an initial क. What is its origin? Dr. Caldwell traces it to the Dravidian क. But in our whole investigation we have not yet met a Dravidian influence in the grammar of our languages. Dr. Trump derives the S. से and B. के from क्ते. The last may not unlikely have been derived from it, but the aspiration of the S. से is not accounted for. Trump attributes it to the vowel क; but we have seen that in the old Pr. this goes out, leaving nothing but अ, इ or उ, i. e. the consonantal portion of it, which is subordinated to the vowel portion, leaves no trace. There is no other instance in which क is known to exert such an influence. The Hindi कौ he also derives from क्त and not क्ते. But here the Anusvāra is not accounted for and regarded as inorganic. Besides, as Mr. Beames remarks, क्त is not a word likely to yield the sense of a dative. It is never used in Skr. or Pr. as equivalent to क्ते.

To be able to arrive at the probable or correct etymology of any of these terminations it is necessary to collect and compare any more ancient forms of it that may possibly be found. Now there are such forms in the case of the H. कौ and the Braj कौ. The old H. poets often use कहँ, कहँ and even काहुँ; for instance in Tulsidās's Rāmāyana we have :—

आहु कृपाहु सर्व रस खाहीं । तिन कहँ मंद कहत कोठ नाहीं ॥

'The sun and fire swallow all liquids. Nobody calls them stupid.'

काम आरि रतिकई बर दीन्हा । कृपासिंधु यह अतिमल कीन्हा ॥

'He burned Kama but gave a boon to Rati; this was an excellent act done by the ocean of mercy.'

कविन्द कहित विमन कहँ दान विविध विधि दीन्हा ॥

'He gave various gifts to the monkeys and the Brahmans.'

भासन उचित द्ये सब काहु । कहीं कहा मुख एक उच्छाहु ॥

'Proper seats were given to all; my mouth is one, how shall I relate the festivities?'

कैकई कहूँ उनि मिले मनकर डोम न जाइ ।

'Met Kaikayl again, but the agitation of the heart did not subside!'

Now we have seen that often in the modern languages the *ḥ* of older words is dropped; and thus from कहुँ we have कइ and then को or कौ by the usual rule that we have noticed in going over the vowel changes. From कइ the Málvaní and Goan. कौ is derived. The कइ and कहुँ are also traced to कृत by Dr. Trump. But Mr. Beames derives them from कस 'arm-pit, side', which becomes कास and then काइ, and the anusvāra he traces to the accusative and thus supposes कइ to be the original of कौ. कस is preserved in the modern languages in the form of कास, but the further change of स to ह in the suffix he accounts for by considering it to be a later Tadbhava. And corresponding to these two forms he says we have the two forms of स्थान in the ordinary word थान H. 'a place' and in the ह of कहाँ, जहाँ. I have no hesitation in saying that Mr. Beames is altogether wrong in deriving कहाँ, जहाँ etc., and further on तहाँ or ताँह from किस्थान, यस्थान, तस्थान etc. Such new expressions in the face of the many good old words existing in Skr. and Pr. could not have come in ordinary vernacular use. The B. दयाव, ओयाव, कीयाव etc., which have led Mr. Beames to this etymology are manifestly new combinations of द and याव, ओ and याव, की and याव like the barbarous compounds दसाने, सेखाने of Skr. and foreign words derived by the Bengali in its poverty of the old Tadbhava element. Neither should we derive the M. पख and later पखे from पतस्थान in the face of the Pr. पख from Skr. पञ्च or इञ्च which we find everywhere in Pr. works. Now as regards कास, in addition to the objection which Mr. Beames has not succeeded in answering, it is to be observed that the word is found nowhere used in that sense in old H., G. or M. literature and, that it might be the original of the dat. case-affix in nearly all the languages, it is necessary that it should have been used extensively in Skr. or Pr. or in the old literature of the modern languages.

One chief and important source of the modern case affixes has been overlooked by all those who have written on vernacular philology. The words most fitted to express case relations are the pronouns and the old Aryan case endings have properly been traced by comparative philologists to pronominal roots. Even in the vernacular speech of the day we use pronominal expressions when a simply general sense is wanted; as **मी गोविंदाचे एथें गेलों** होतों 'I went to (lit.) the here of Govinda, i. e. to Govinda's place; **मेजें** जावके यहाँ सेवकको भेजा था 'I sent my servant to your here', i. e. your place; **हूं मुरलीधरने तहाँ गयो** इतो 'I went to Murlidhar's there' i. e., place. These **एथें**, **यहाँ** and **तहाँ** are really remnants of the old Pr. locatives of **इद्** (in the forms **इ** or **अ**) and **तद्**. If these were more extensively used, they would in the course of time become terminations; and **तहें** for **तहिं**, the Pr. Apbhr. loc. of **तद्**, has become a termination in H. as **मैं शहरके तहें गया** 'I went to the there of the town'; **उसके तहें** 'to him or for him.' In the Apabhramśa, according to Hemacandra, **केहिं** and **तेहिं** were used as postpositions in the sense of 'for' 'on account of' as in the verse formerly given **इहं सिज्जदं तड केहिं पिय** &c. These, as they are, appear like instrumental plurals of the pronouns **किम्** and **तद्** and they may be so really. The instr. and abl. may pass into the dat. and this into either. For, of the several relations denoted by the first two oases one is that between a cause and its effect or reason and conclusion, and a confusion between an antecedent cause or reason and the final cause or purpose is natural. This last is generally indicated by the dat. case. Even the English preposition 'for' has these two senses. In the sentence, 'I bought the book for my own use', it signifies the purpose; and in such a one as 'for this, let people beware' it denotes an antecedent reason. In the same way **सादीं** or **करितीं** are in M. used in both these senses. In **त्याच्यासाठीं मी इतका अम केला** 'I took so much trouble for him' it has a dative sense and in **ह्यासाठीं अशी गोष्ट कर्हीं करू नये** 'for this, such a thing should never be done' it has an ablative sense. This fact must be borne in mind as we go on discussing the origin of the case forms. **केहिं** and **तेहिं** therefore may be instrumentals.

This explanation is supported by the fact that another Apbhr. post-position in the sense of 'for' or 'on account of' given by Hemacandra is **तजेन** which is evidently the sing. instr. of **तद्**,

a possessive suffix to be hereafter mentioned. The pl. case forms may become adverbs or postpositions as the Skr. *दृग्*: 'slowly,' *नीचैः* and *उच्चैः* 'low' and 'high' which must originally have been instr. plurals. Another explanation of these forms is that they are derived from the Pr. gen. plurals *केसि* and *तेसि*, the *स* being changed to *ह*. The gen. has all along been used in the sense of the dat. In Skr. itself it is often so and in the Pr. it drove out the old dat. altogether and was used instead. In old M. poetry the obl. form, which we have traced to the Pr. gen., is often used for this case or, since in the Apabh. nouns the termination *हिं* was used for loc. pl. also, the forms *केहिं* and *तेहिं* are not unlikely to be referred to that case. The loc. is another case which can readily be adapted to express a dat. acc. sense. Tulsidāsa frequently adds *हिं* to nouns to form this case. Thus—

रुद्रहिं देखि मदन भयमाना ।

'The god of love was afraid when he saw Rudra.'

रामहिं सोपिब जानकी नाह कमल पद्माथ ।

सुत कहूँ राज समर्पि बन जाइ मजिथ रघुनाथ ॥

'Having restored Janaki to Rama and bowing your head at his lotus feet and giving the kingdom to your son, go to a forest and adore Raghunātha.'

That these several cases may pass into the dat. acc. is also proved by the fact that the forms of the Apabhramśa gerund of infinitive of purpose, which has essentially a dative sense, are derived from them. Thus Hemacandra gives these terminations of the infinitive: *पदय* as in *देवय* 'for giving' which is an acc. of the pot. part. *देवय्य*, *अज* as in *करय* 'for doing' in which the case termination is dropped, *अजय* as in *भंजय* 'for breaking' which is the gen. pl. of *भजन* and *अजयहिं* as in *भुजयहिं* 'for enjoying' which is loc. sing. or pl. of *भुजय* Pr. for Skr. *भोजन*. Thus then in the Apabhramśa pronominal forms had begun to be used as postpositions for expressing case relations. It is not unreasonable, therefore, to expect that we should find traces of the practice in our modern case forms and the forms themselves that were used in that dialect

The Apabhramśa dat. postposition *कहिं* survives in the S. *से*; the aspiration is thrown on *के* so as to make it *से* and the following vowel is dropped. We have already seen several instances of this process, but I will add one or two more to the point. The Pr. *कहिं* 'where' is in the Goan. and Mā. *खर*, *तहिं* 'there' *चय*, *अहिं* 'here' *इय*. Often the old *इ* is dropped in the modern dialects and thus we have from *कहिं* the B. *के*. The old H. termination *कइ* is the Pr. *कहिं* 'where,' so that originally the sense of राम *कइ* was 'Rāma's somewhere.' 'Send to Rāma's somewhere' and 'give it to Rāma's somewhere' came afterwards to mean 'send it to Rāma' and 'give it to Rāma.' The *इ* of the loc. *कहिं* is here dropped as is mostly the case in the pronominal locatives which in the modern languages as well as the Prakrit have become adverbs of place; such are *जहिं* relative 'where', *तहिं* 'their', *अहिं* 'here' and *कहिं* 'where' (interrogative) which have become *जहाँ*, *तहाँ*, *यहाँ* and *कहाँ* and in Tulsidās *जइ*, *तइ* and *कइ*. Sometimes the *इ* is preserved in the current speech as in *कहाँ* or *कहीं* H., *जही*, *यहाँ* G. The other dat. termination *कहुं*, the origin of *कौं* or *कौ*, is either the ablative or genitive form of *किम्* since *हुं* was in Apabh. the termination of both these cases. The O. *कुं* is another form of this *कहुं*. The M. *ते* is from the Apabh. *तहिं* as *के* from *कहिं*. The B. has this affix also used principally in the case of inanimate creatures.

धुरां ते गन्ध आछे ओं ताहाते चहुते बेवना होय ।

'There is smell to smoke and from that harm to the ere results.'

तहाते सिंह कहिल ।

¹ The lion said to him. '

The S. has it also.

सोइख्यो सिंकारते 'He went for hunting. 'बिजो हुस करिअते 'went on a travel. '

The P. *ताइ* like the H. *तई* is from *तहिं* 'there. '

The M. *हा* is to be connected with similar terminations in its own dialects and the other languages. Khāndesī has *हे*. H. possesses a post-position *हाय* or *सिंदे*, P. *रुई*, S. *हाइ* all in the sense of 'for,' Braj. *सौं* or *सौं* 'up to.' The old H. poets have also *से* or *साई* in the sense of the M. *सौं* i. e. 'to' or 'at': बारहिं बार पांखड़े पवहाँ 'again and again they fall at her feet'; हरलि उठाप सिंदे उरसाई

'joyfully he arose and pressed him to his bosom.' Then there are other forms in all the languages from लग्न. Goan has लग्नी in the sense of 'to' or 'with', as माझे लग्नी उलय 'speak to or with me.' H. लग्न 'up to'; P. लग्न 'near, to'; लग्नी 'from contact with'; S. लग्नी-लगे 'on account of'; B. लग्नि-लग्निपा-लगे 'for, on account of.' In G. and H. poetry लग्नी, लग्नी or लग्नि are used in these senses and M. has लग्नी or लग्नि also.

All these forms are derived from the old Skr. root लग् to adhere or stick. The past pass. part. of this is लग्न, Pr. लग्न. This, like many similar participles, is made the base of verbal forms in Pr. and we have लग्नाइ = लग्नी भवति 'adheres, sticks.' From this we have लग्ना-हु-व M. G. B. by the usual rules, but S. generally and H. sometimes do not lengthen the preceding vowel when one of the two consonants is dropped and we have लग्ना and लग्ना, though लग्ना is also used in the latter. There is another form लग्नाति of this root which is made up according to the 10th Conjugation or which is properly the causal and, when the termination is dropped as is often the case, we have लग्नाई and by the elision of र् the root becomes लग्ना and thence, by the usual introduction of य or व, लाय or लाव. Now लायना exists in the Goan. and लाइना in the S. while M. has लायने. These mean 'to make to adhere,' 'apply,' 'bring in contact.' From लायने and लायना or लायने all the forms we have above noticed have originated. लाई, ले, लायी, लायिना are absolutives as also M. लायनि, while the other M. form लग्नी is the loc. sing. of the noun लग्न 'contact' or 'nearness.' The Braj. लौ must be from the old Apabh. abso., लाई of लग्न. The M. dat. ला must be from such a form as लाई 'having applied' or 'for applying,' since the final उ of terminations is dropped in this language as in जिह्वा 'tongues' from जिह्वाड.

The dative pl. termination नै represents an euphonic change of ला necessitated by the preceding anusvāra. Instances of this change of ल to न have been given in a previous lecture. Cit. has both ना and न्ना. This ना is by some traced to the न of the Pr. gen. pl. as ल to the ल्ल of the gen. sing. The Cit. however has ना or न्ना in the pl. while ला alone is the sing. termination and the sameness of the sing. and pl. terminations is the great peculiarity of the modern dialect, whence the Cit. ना is a form of ला and if so, then it must be so in the standard Marāṭhī also.

Mr. Beames thinks the G. न्ने to be originally से and thus to belong to the class of terminations we have just examined, the से being changed to न्ने. I have not satisfied with this derivation as there is no corroborative evidence, though the change of से to न्ने is not impossible or unexampled. The gen. termination न्ने-नी-हं in this language is derived from the old Apabhramśa termination तन्ने, by the elision of the initial त्, as will be hereafter shown. In the same manner the न्ने of the acc. dat. must have been derived from the Apabh. dat. post-position तन्ने, which, as I have already observed, is the instr. of तन्ने. The last न्ने of this is changed to an anusvāra, as that of देवेण is, and, just as this becomes देवे, तन्ने becomes तन्ने and by the loss of त्, न्ने. Or the process which in the Apabh. led to the formation of तन्ने from तन्ने may have been resorted to when तन्ने became न्ने in the G. and thus न्ने is the instrumental or locative of the gen. न्ने or its obl. form. But the anusvāra of न्ने which is lost in the G. instr. would show that it is derived directly from तन्ने. P. हं may likewise be referred to a form तन्नेहं, the abl. of तन्ने.

THE ORIGIN OF न्ने IN THE VERNACULAR TERMINATIONS

In H. the termination से is applied in a dative sense to nouns governed by verbs denoting speaking राजासे ब्राह्मणसे कहा 'The king spoke to the Brahman.' It is used in the sense of the instr., तरवारसे सीर काटा 'He cut off his head with a sword,' रुक्मिणीका विवाह श्रीकृष्णचन्द्रसे हुआ 'Rukmini's marriage with Śrī Kṛṣṇacanda took place;' and in that of the abl. इतना वचन ब्राह्मणके मुँहसे निकला 'These words fell from the mouth of the Brahman.' In Braj, we have सौ for से, as कबीरजी आयेके मोलौ कहाँ 'Kabir came and said to me;' इसलौ बुझि लेह 'He should get it explained from the guru.' In old H. also it is used in the form of सौ. In old M., as I have already remarked, we have सी in the sense of the modern dat. acc. से as :—

(1) सारथी सारङ्गधर । अर्जुनसेसी ॥

Jān. I—141.

'Sārngadhara was charioteer to Arjuna.'

(2) देवादा तुषी केला गंधर्वसौ ॥

II—10.

'Thou hast made a song for Gandharvas.'

(3) जे मेदी देवकी वसोदेसी ।
 ते गति दीचली पूतमेसी ॥
 समान देजे अरिमित्रांसी ।
 उदारतेसी काय बंधू ॥

Rukmini Svayamvara 1—82,

"He gave that salvation to Pūtana which he did not gave to Yasoda and Devaki. His gifts to friends and foes are alike. How shall I describe his bounty?"

(X) परी कबजेसी म्यां झुजावें । हे रबीं लागे पाहावें ॥

Jnan. 1-171.

¹ It is necessary in the battlefield to see with whom I should fight'

अर्जुन असे पाहत । तो दृष्टमार समस्त । संभ्रमेसी ॥

()

Jnan. 1-176.

'Arjuna was looking at the whole of दृष्टिकेसी with an agitated heart.'

(3) आजि परलोकही अंतरेल । पेढिकेसी ॥

Jnan. 11-27.

'And the interest of the future life will be lost along with those of this!'

In these last three examples सी has the sense of an instrumental. We do not now use it in the sense in which it is used in the last two passages and say संभ्रमानें पाहतो and पेढिकासहित अंतरेल. In the Salsette dialect, however, सी has these senses and also that of an abl. as that of गांवसीं आयलो 'He came from the village.'

Now we see that the old M. poets do not make a distinction between the सी, which corresponds to our modern स, and त्हा which even now we use in the sense of 'with'. They all use it in other senses in which it is used in H., but not in the M. of the day. The Salsette dialect, however, agrees with the H. in its use of this affix. H. uses से in one case उत्तरे कडा in which we use स, as न्याय सांगितलें. Some of these circumstances favour the supposition that the origin of the M. dative affix स is the same as that of H. से and M. सी. G. poetry has this in the form of सु or सू as दखरातिरुं मांझिचि कलहु Declare war with Gujarati.' B. has सें and सा in the sense of with.

All these are derived from the word *सम्*. As is usual, *म* is in modern vernaculars changed to *व* and thus we have *सर्व* and with the instr. affix *ए* we have the *सर्वे* of the M. poets. I have in a former lecture given a great many instances in which *व* is dissolved into *उ*, which combines with the preceding vowel into *ओ*. We thus get the old H. *सौ* and the Braja *सौ*, when *म* and *उ* form *ओ*, while in G. the resulting vowel is *दं* in *हुं*. Another change of *म* that we have noticed is its loss of the labial element and reduction to a vowel and anusvāra, wherefore the word becomes *सर्भ* or *सर्व*. Thence the *अय* passes off into *ए*, as we have several times noticed, and so we have *सै*, which with the anusvāra dropped is the H. *से*. The *व* is sometimes, as we have seen, changed to *ई* as in *राइ* from *राज-राय* and so we have the M. *सी*. Sometimes *व* does not take the place of the elided consonant and the vowels are combined, whence we have the S. *साँ*. Now the original sense of this word is with, but this with expresses many relations, the differences between which become wider in the course of time and thus the word *सम्* has come to signify 'to, according to, with (as an instrument) and from'.

This instr. termination *नै* (sing.) *नीं* (pl.) M., *ने* H., *नइ* P. have been traced by Mr. Beames to *ले* or *ले*, which are forms of *लानि* or *लइ* etc. derived from the root *लघ*. One great objection is that this derivation does not account for the anusvāra of *नै* or *नैं*. His argument is that the old *एव* of the instr. having been reduced to *ए*, there was no other instrumental case to furnish the *म* of the modern instr. *नै-नीं*; but in the Apabh. according to Hemacandra both these forms existed and the instance he gives is

जे मह दिग्ग दिग्गहा दइएँ एवसन्नेज ।

ताज नमन्ति अंशुलिङ जजरि आउ नहेज ॥

'By counting (again and again) [the number of] days which were mentioned to me by my beloved when he set out on his travels [the skin of] my fingers has worn away by the nail.' Here *दइएँ*, *एवसन्नेज* and *नहेज* are instances of the instrumental. The first two are expressive of the agent in the passive construction and the third of the simple instrument; so that the *एव* or *म* of the instrumental must have descended to the vernaculars. Again Mr. Beames says that the old H. poets do not use the instr. in *नै*; but the oldest M. poet Jñānēśvara does use it in some cases. His

agent instrumental is very often that which ends in **ई**, but instances of the use of **नि**, which is another form of **ई**, also occur.

As:—

कौं वारेनि जात जाहे ।

Jñān. 13-197.

'Or whether he is going away by the wind.'

दिसे वारेनि जैसे जाइल ।

Jñān. 13-214.

'Appears as if it will go away by the wind.'

सुकेनि बेतले मोन जैसे ।

Jnan. 13-280.

'As the dumb may be said to have assumed silence deliberately.'

उन्हाछेनि जो न तापे ।

हिमबंति न कपि ॥

कायसेनिही न बांसि पे । वातलेया ॥

Jñān. 13-347.

'He is not oppressed by heat or does not shiver by cold and is not terrified by anything that takes place.'

Here are instances of the instr. both indicative of the agent and of the simple instrument, but the termination is **नि** instead of **ई**. Besides these there are instances of the instrumental in **जे** of pronouns as **येणे माने** Jñān. 13-200 'By this standard', **जेणे तोणे** 13-244 'By which satisfaction', **तेणे प्रसादे** 13-1147 'By that grace.' Now I have stated my view in the last lecture that **ई** is a double instrumental, the first part being **न** of the old instrumental in **एन** or **एज**, and the second part **ई**, to which that **एज** is reduced. Now instead of **ई**, the instr. **इ** is added here. The instr. **इ** represents the **इज** of the Apabh. instr. in **इज**, which we have in such forms as **इतिज** mentioned by Pischel. Hindi poets as a rule indicate the agent instrumental by the oblique form, but Sūrdās uses the form ending in **नि** or **ई** also.

कान्ह कसो गिरि मोवर्धनते औरदेव नहिं हुआ ।

मोधानि सत्य मामि यह लीनो बडो देव गिरिराज ॥

Bursa gar, pada 12, page 252.1

'Kanha said. "There is no other God besides the mountain Govardhan." Taking it to be the truth the king of mountains was regarded by the cowherds as a great God.'

Here ifrrft is agent instrumental in नि.

सबनि देख्यो घकट धरति सहस्रभुजा पसारि ।

काचि सहित निरि सबनि आगे करनि लेले साथ ॥

Sursāgar, pada 24, page 254.

'The manifested form with the thousand arms stretched out was seen by all; with taste the mountain taking hold of every thing by his hands etc.'

Here करनि is the instrumental.

आहिरनि करि अबझा प्रभुकी सो कल उमकों तुरत दिसावाहिं ।

Sursāgar, pada 44, page 257.

'Disrespect of the Lord has been shown by the cowherds; show to them the fruit of it.'

एक दुरुचने आजु मोहि सपनाम्तर दीनों ।

Sursagar, pada 29, page 255.

'Today a certain dream was shown me by a Being.'

Here दुरुचने is agent instrumental.

The Ablative termination in M. is हुन, Māl. सन, Cit. ठीं or पाडी (from पास and थीं), Sals. सिं, G. थी, S. खां-खंडं-खों तों तां, P. तें-थीं-थों, H. से, Braj. ते, H. dial. थीं, B. होइते तें. The Sindhi खां is the Pr. and Apabhr. abl. कहाँ of किन्, the aspiration being thrown on क, as in the case of the dat. से and the other instances formerly given; so that the S. abl. etymologically means 'from his somewhere.' खंडं and खों are from the Ap. कहाँ abl. pl. In the same way तों is the old abl. तहाँ and तों, the abl. pl. तहुं of तह, in both of which the aspirate is elided but in the P. थों it is compounded with the preceding त. The form थी थीं of the G. and P., and H. dial. and the Cit. ठीं are derived from ताहिं, the loc. sing. Pr. and Ap. of तह with the aspiration thrown on त.

The differences between some of the significations of the different cases are, as I have already observed, so minute that they frequently run into one another and when on account of this resemblance, one case form becomes identified with another case, it afterwards acquires senses more widely different from its original. Thus तें पुस्तक मला रामापाहीं मिळालें i. e. (lit.) 'The book met me in vicinity of Rāmā', easily passes into रामापासून मिळालें 'met me from Rāmā', i. e. 'got from Rāmā.' And the B. जावने प्रभु

काछे ताहा पाइलाम is generally considered equivalent to 'I got it from the master,' though काछे is like पाशी a loc. form meaning 'in the vicinity of.' Thus the old loc. ताहि meaning 'in that' was used as a postposition and thence came to mean 'from that' Or the transition is first from the loc. to the dat, which I have spoken of, and thence to the causal abl. and afterwards to the local abl. The Braj. and P. तैं is from the Apabhr. affix तेहि (=for) mentioned before in which we have an instance of this passage of the dat. into the abl., as illustrated before in the M. postposition साडीं. In M., S. and B. तैं has preserved the dative sense. B. has the abl. तैं also, though some grammarians do not give it, but its sense is that of causal abl. or instr. as :—

घुङ्गेर दीर्घताते आनंदित हइल ।

'Became glad on account of the length of its horns.'

ताहाते अक्षुते बेदना होय ।

*From that there is harm to the eye.'

Of a different origin are the M. हुन and हून and the B. होइते. The first हून Mr. Beames, following Lassen, traces to the हुन्तो and हुन्तो of the Pr. from a fusion, as it is called, of both, out of which arose हुन्तो, and, the तो being lost, the form is हुन. In a similar way हून may be traced to हुन्तो, though its independent existence would make the supposed fusion a fiction. M. however has no instance of the loss of final त and the preservation of न; but the chief objection to this derivation is the want of corroborative evidence. It is possible, but there is nothing to make it certain or even probable. Mr. Beames quotes passages from Canda in which हुन्त and हुन्ते occur in the sense of 'from.' But they may be derived from the present participle. The B. abl. affix होइते is the loc. of the present participle of हो, corresponding to M. होतैं, which has the sense of the Skr. loc. absolute as असतैं in मी करित असतैं तो गेहा 'while I was doing he went away.' In B. too this loc. has the same sense as दिन चाकिते कर्म कर 'work while it is day.' In H. also it is used in the same sense : द्वारपर देखते क्या है कि सिंह मरा पड़ा है 'looking at the door what did he find? he found that a lion was lying dead (lit. what is there,—a lion lying dead);' और होतेहि उरने सखीसि कहा 'She told it to her friend immediately after dawn (lit. after it had dawned).'

In this sense as in that of the Skr. loc. absolute, the action denoted by the present participle is made the starting point of another action. 'My doing' in the first instance was the starting point of his going. And herein is the germ of an ablative. In H. होते is sometimes used in this sense as मकानसे होते 'outside of the house, from the house.'

In the B. वृक्षहते फल पडिल the original sense is 'the tree being there, a fruit fell.' The M. हुन is the absolutive of हो and equivalent to होऊन 'having become' which yields an ablative sense more directly. The ह is sometimes dropped and the termination ऊन itself is attached in this sense to आ 'in', वर 'above' and पास 'side' to signify 'from in', 'from above', 'from the side' as जादून, वरून and पासून which are the ablative affixes used in cases when हुन cannot be applied; and ऊन is sometimes affixed to nouns in अ directly and not to the oblique form, as घरून आला. Thus गाँवाहून आला means lit. 'the village having been, he came.' The Mā. छन is the absolutive of अस instead of हो. The H. से has been explained.

We have seen that in the course of the development of our modern languages the genitive which even in Skr. expressed relation in general was used for the dative and sometimes for other cases also. The dative thus went out of use and, to express the relations which it indicated, various new suffixes, given and explained above, were brought into use and the old genitive being attenuated was felt to be too weak to express the usual genitive relation and it was adapted to serve as the base of all oblique cases to which the newly constituted terminations were appended. The relation of possession as well as other genitive relations, such as that of a thing and the material of which it is made, had thus no special expression left for them. In Skr. such relations are indicated, besides the genitive case, by adjectives formed from the name of the possessor, material etc. by the addition of specific terminations and from these mostly the genitive terminations in the modern languages are derived and consequently are adjectival in their nature and agree with the gender of the thing possessed or made. The genitive terminations are as follows :—

M. वा—की—वें
G. नी—नी—हुं
S. जो—जी
H. का—की

P. दा—दी
B. इर or एर
O. र

In the first lecture I have remarked that in the third stage of the development of Sanskrit the nominal style came into use instead of the verbal style or fluent style. When the language was in this condition, adjectival forms expressive of possession or other relations came into use instead of the genitive case and such forms, as :

तदीयम् गृहम् 'the house belonging to him,'

मदीयः छात्रः 'the pupil belonging to me.'

त्वदीया सखी 'the female friend belonging to thee,'

came into use instead of तस्य गृहम् 'his home,' मम छात्रः 'my pupil,' त्व सखी 'thy female friend.' When the use of such adjectives became general the real genitive case, so far as it expressed possession and such other relations between nouns, was driven out and adapted to express the various other relations mentioned before. Thus then we find that the case forms expressive of possession and other relations mentioned in the vernaculars are of an adjectival character. It is, however, curious to find that in our seven modern languages they are derived from seven different forms in Sanskrit and Prakrit.

The M. वा—की—वें must be traced to the *व्य* which certain indeclinables take in Sanskrit as इदं *व्य* or अद्य *व्य* 'of this place,' तत्र *व्य* 'of that place,' कथं or कुत्र *व्य* 'of what place.' इदं *व्य* or अद्य *व्य* must by the usual rules be changed to इदं *व्य*, एतं *व्य*; तत्र *व्य* to तत्रं *व्य*; कथं or कुत्र *व्य* to कथं or कुत्रं *व्य* or कोत्रं *व्य*. तस्य *व्य* is तस्यं *व्य*, एतस्य *व्य* is एतस्यं *व्य*, कोत्रस्य *व्य* is कोत्रस्यं *व्य*. This *व्य* was generalised and gradually came to be applied to all nouns to indicate possession and other relations.

The G. नी—नी—हुं are derived from the Sanskrit termination *तन्*, which is applied in the sense of possession to indeclinables expressive of time, such as अद्य *तन्* 'of this day,' इदानीं *तन्* 'of the present time,' सायं *तन्* 'of evening time,' चिरं *तन्* 'of the olden time' etc. This was generalised and Hemacandra gives *तन्* as a noun expressive of 'something related to' or 'belonging to' in his grammar of the Apbhr. dialect. In the line of the verse of

Premānanda बापी बिरहजनी वेदना 'the agony of separation afflicts' and in the expressions previously given, such as पोतात्मन, and तेहतजो नहि लाये डेइ etc., this तज remains, it will be seen, unchanged and in this form it is often used in G. poetry. By the dropping of the consonant त, it is reduced to जज or जज and thence to ज, which with masc., fem., neut. terminations ओ—ई—ई becomes ओ—नी—ई.

The S. ओ—नी are derived from the Sanskrit possessive termination इय applied to a great many nouns and all pronouns, as तदीय belonging to him, शालीय belonging to the house, गोनदीय belonging to or living in Gonarda. Dr. Trump assigns a different origin to this Sindhi ओ—नी, which, as well as the etymologies of the corresponding possessive terminations existing in other cognate dialects, hardly bears examination.

Another way of expressing possession is furnished by derivatives of the root कृ 'to do or make.' The roar of a lion is his कार्य or act. The roar of a lion is a सिंहकार्य or lion act, i. e. it is something which belongs to the lion. The word कार्य therefore is adapted to express 'something belonging to one.' Now this कार्य is in the Pr. reduced to केर, as the पर्य of पर्यन्त to वेर, and the अर्य of आखर्य to डेर. From this केर, we have केरको which means 'something belonging to one' or 'his property.' Madayantika in the Māla-tīmādhava calls her body Makaranda's केरज or केरक, since he had saved it from the mouth of a lion. Hemacandra gives केर as a noun in the Apabh. dialect expressive of the thing connected with another. The instance he gives is जसुकेरप हुंकारप सुहृदु पदंति तज्जाई 'From whose mouth grass falls down in consequence of the roar which is the केरज of the lion.' He also gives in his grammar of the principal Prakrit केर as a termination having the sense of possession as in तुझकेर 'yours' like तज. Thus then केर which was first a noun came to be used as a postposition expressive of possession and was used as such in the principal Prakrit and by the G. and H. poets :

अंकाकेरी लाकडी हुं हुंकाकीहुं बन ।

Tulasi

I am the stick of the blind [women] and the wealth of a weak [woman].

हुकुम होय हुजोरी केरी शोबी नालो बाधो सागर ॥

Samaladas.

'If the command of the lord is received, I will dry up the whole ocean.'

One of Kabira's Sakhi is—

बर्षक केरी ओ छफा सोणहा पैठा घाय ।

देखत प्रतिमा आपनि बूझि बूझि मरि जाय ॥

'A dog enters a room [made up] of mirrors and runs about and, seeing his own image, he barks and barks until he dies.'

There is another instance :

असुतकेरी भोटरी सिरसे घरी उतारि ।

जाहि कहो मे येक हो मोहि कहे बेचारि ॥

'I put down from head the parcel containing nectar. To whomsoever I say that I am one, to me he speaks in return two or four.'

Here we have केरी as a possessive postposition. Similarly in Tulsidās's *Rāmāyana* we have कहू सबर बिबीषण केरी 'give us news about Bibhishana,' where also we have the same postposition. When the initial क is dropped we have पर which we find in the Hindi तेरा and मेरा as in Kabir's Sakhi,

ओ तू चाही सुझको डोडू सकलकी आस ।

मेरा ऐसा बौ रहे सब किछु तेरे पास ॥

'If you want me, give up the desire for everything else; become mine; and you will have everything else with you.' पर is the general postposition in the B. as पापेर 'of sin,' ईश्वरेर 'of God,' घरेर 'of a house.'

Prof. Hörnle and Mr. Beames derive the suffix केर from the Skr. past. part. कृत which they say is reduced to करिअ and thence to केर. But I have not met with a trace of करिअ as the Pr. form of कृत. The usual form of it is किअ or कअ. Besides, the इ of करिअ is inorganic, being simply a euphonic augment. Such a euphonic augment cannot persist throughout centuries as the ए of केर has done until it was perpetuated in the form of पर in the B. Besides, केरक is, as we have seen, used as a noun in the sense of property. There is no indication that a past pass. part. can be so used. It may be used as an abstract noun, as मतद in the sense of

'going.' So कृत्य may at the best acquire the sense of 'doing', but the transition of 'doing' to 'property' is hardly possible.

Another derivative of the root कृ has also supplied the vernaculars with a termination expressive of the genitive sense; and that is कर. A good many words in Sanskrit have this कर appended to them such as यशस्कर 'bringing fame', वचनकर 'obedient,' किंकर 'servant', प्रभाकर 'the sun,' लिपिकर 'a writer', etc. The original sense is 'one who does the thing' expressed by the nouns to which कर is appended, but the derived senses are many, such as cause, habit, obedience and any other relation into which the doing of a thing brings one with another. When the particular nature of this relation is left out of sight, the general sense is 'related to' or 'belonging to.' Thus प्रभाकर originally meaning 'the maker of light' comes to denote 'belonging to light'; a certain person who is लिपिकर or the doer of the writing is a person related or belonging to the writing. Thus कर came gradually to signify a genitive relation like the termination ईय, त्य, तन etc., noticed above. In the Marathi कर is applied in ordinary use to the name of a place to denote 'one residing in it' or generally 'belonging to it' as काशीकर 'belonging to Kāśī', पुणेकर 'belonging to Poona.' Instances of this कर occur in the old Hindi poets; thus in Tulsidās's Rāmāyana we have—

तजो न नारदकर उपदेश ।

Balak.

'I will not set aside the advice of Narada.'

हुनि हुनि हृदय विचार करि धरि सीताकर रूप ।

(Ditto).

'Again and again reflecting in her mind she (Parvati) assumed the form of Sita.'

मैं शंकरकर कहा न माना ।

(Ditto).

'I did not obey the word of Samkara.'

भरद्वाज हनु अपर अब राम जन्मकर हेतु ।

"Oh Bharadvāja, hear now another reason for the birth of Rama.

In Kabir too we meet this termination as in :—

तब ब्रह्मा (ब्रह्म) पुछल महतारि ।
को तोर पुरुष का (के) करि तुम वारी ।

Kabir's Ramaini, 1-4th Chaupai.

¹ Then the mother was asked by Brahma " who is thy husband and whose wife art thou. " "

Here we have ककरि or केकरि in which we have the feminine of the termination कर. In Sanskrit कार is almost as much used as कर after nouns and the signification is similar. This कार is sometimes used in the Bengali in a genitive sense as in आपनकार 'of your honour,' आजकार 'of to-day,' कालिकार 'of yesterday.' From कर, when the initial consonant is dropped, we have the Oriya genitive suffix अर as in घरर, while कार gives us the मार of the Hindi तुझारा 'yours,' हमारा 'ours' and of the Guj. तारे 'thine,' त्वारे 'yours,' मारे 'mine,' अमारे 'ours.'

Another derivative of the root कृ, the past pass. part. कृत, changed to क्व in the Prakrit, has been appropriated in Hindi to express genitive relations. As the obl. form has been determined to be a remnant of the old genitive, the क appended to it must mean 'done of (by) the thing or person' denoted by the obl. form. The idea of 'a thing done by one' passes easily into a thing belonging to one. पण्डितकृत काव्य 'a poem composed by a Pandit' becomes easily पण्डितका काव्य i.e. the poem of a Pandit. The terminations का, की exist in old Hindi along with केरा, केरी and कर, करी.

The easiest explanation of the Panjabi दा-दी appears to be that, like the Hindi का-की, they are derived from the past pass. part of दा 'to give' in the form of द्य made up on the analogy of क्व from कृ. Other explanations may also be given. It may be said that the री-री of the Marvari dialect and certain G. and H. pronouns, which results from the Sanskrit कार, was changed to दो-दी or दा-दी, as these consonants are frequently confounded with each other; and thence दो-दी or दा-दी passed into दो-दी or दा-दी. The Sanskrit suffixes used by the vernaculars to express genitive relations must have a final क added to them, since, like augmented nouns, the masc. nom. sing. ends in जो or

आ and the feminine in ई. Thus for the original of the M. चा-ची-चें we must have चक, for the G. नो-नी-हुं तनक, for S. जो-जी ईयक, for H. का-की कृतक, and for old H. केरा and केरी केरक and for कर करक and for कार कारक. In the fourth lecture I have given several instances of the addition of क to all sorts of nouns and adjectives.

The new loc. termination in H. are में, Braj. में and ऐ, P. ते, S. ते, G. मां, M. जात and B. ते. The forms with an initial न are derived from the Skr. नञ् which has undergone several transformations. In old H. and G. poetry it occurs in the forms of माहीं and मई etc., as :—

शिव संकल्प कीन्ह मनमाहीं ।

Tulsi., Bāla-K.

' Siva resolved in his mind. '

जे हि राखे राघवीर ते उबरे तेहि कालमई ।

(Ditto).

' Those were safe at that time whom Raghuvera protected.

एकवार त्रेतायुगमाहीं ।

(Ditto).

' Once in Tretayuga '

हुनि मंदिर मई बात अनाई ।

¹ He announced the intelligence in the palace. '

सुदामा में दुखिबी माहीं । लीषा दश अवतार ॥

Premānand's Sudāmānuṅ Caritra.

' O Sudama, I have gone through ten incarnations on this earth. '

सोरठ माहीं सहुको नाठनू ।

' Everybody fled to Soratha. '

The Braj. में is from माहीं, the ह being elided and आ and इ combining into ऐ, while in the S. and H. में they form ऐ. In the G. मा the whole हि of माहीं is dropped. माहीं is loc. sing. of माह for मञ्ज.

The P. and B. ते is from तहि, the loc. of तह, or तेहि which we have noticed as an Apbhr. dative postposition.

H. ऐ is from Skr. पाथी, which first becomes पथ, then पस, and then पाह or पइ, and the loc. of पाह is पाहीं or पई which is its shortened form. पस is used as a post-position in H. and पासे and पाहीं, the loc. forms, in G. and M. respectively. The forms पाहीं and पइ occur in the old H. posts, as :—

शंभु गये कुंभज कवि पाहीं ।

Tulsi, Bāla-K.

¹ 'Sambhu went to Agastya. '

गयो कवि राम पई ।

Tulsi.

' The monkey went to Rama. '

The M. आंत is from Skr. अन्तः and its initial आ is dropped after a dissimilar vowel as मातति etc.

NEW VERBAL FORMS

We will now briefly examine the reconstructed verbal forms. We have observed that the materials out of which the case forms are constructed are not only independent words having, as in an earlier stage of a language, specific significations, the combination of which nearly constitutes the idea required to be expressed, but also independent case forms and existing terminations which have acquired a specific sense. Thus when the terminations came into use for both numbers of the cases, the B. and the O. have had recourse to the use of independent words such as दिग 'a row' and मात्र 'a measure or class,' सकल 'all' etc. to express plurality, while the G. employed the already existing plural termination ओ; and such forms as तहिं and कहिं loc. and कहूं abl. were used to express case relations and afterwards grew into terminations when their etymological sense was forgotten. We have also seen that, as in the case of the new words that come into a language, the new forms at first express inadequately the sense they are designed to convey, but in the course of time imagination and usage give them a definite signification; or like words the forms come by natural transitions to express different relations from those they did before. Thus it was that the abl. कहूं and the loc. कहिं or तहिं became dat. affixes or the loc. of the present participle होइते came to express an abl. relation.

We shall find these principles at work in the reconstruction of the verb also, and there too you will meet with verbal forms made up by applying the old personal and other terminations to new bases which are adjectival in their nature or by adding verbal forms to them or by appending independent words. The

M., S., B. and O. make up some of their tenses and moods in the first way; the others do not. We will first examine these. The bases for their formation are as a matter of course the participles that have come down from the Prakrits and there are no other. These are the present, past and the potential participles which are, as I have just said, adjectival in their nature. Since an adjective must agree with the noun which it qualifies in number and gender, our new verbs must express both these and the person of the nominative. The old verbal forms examined in the last lecture express, as Skr. and Pr. verbs do, only the number and person because they have descended to us from those languages.

In the modern dialects those adjectives only that end in ओ or आ agree with the noun to which they are referred, i. e. take the fem. termination ई when the noun is feminine and the plural ones when it is plural, as काळा-ला घोडा M. H. 'a black horse,' काळी-ली घोडी 'a black mare,' काळे-ले घोडे 'black horses,' काळ्या घोड्या, काली घोडियां. Similarly, G. and S. When the qualified noun is in an abl. case, sing. or pl., these adjectives take the obl. sing. form काळ्या घोड्यास M., काळे घोडेको H., काळ्या घोडीस M., काली घोडीको H. Hindi has no obl. form for other nouns than those which end in आ and hence in काली घोडीको the adjective remains unchanged.

Adjectives with other endings are not thus inflected as सराव घोडा-घोडे-घोडी-घोड्या-घोडियां-घोड्यास-घोडेको etc. M. H.; while in the B. and O. no adjectives whatever.

Here then we see that, like nouns in ओ-आ, adjectives also with those endings have preserved the old terminations. Now the three participles I have mentioned end in आ or ओ arising from the original affix क, wherefore they must be inflected. In M. and G., however, under certain circumstances the present participle ends in अ and therefore is not inflected. The old Present has in M. acquired another sense whence a new one came into use, the forms of which are as follows:—

	Sing.	Pl.
1st pers.	करतो—त्यें or ती—तें	करतो
2nd pers.	करतोस—त्येस, तीस—तेंस	करतां
3rd pers.	करतो—त्ये, ती—तें	करतात

These are made up by adding the terminations expressive of gender and person to the pres. part. which is करत. With the fem. ई this becomes करती, but there is another form in ये which appears to have been arrived at thus: करन्तञ् (for करन्तक) — करतय — करतय + ई of fem. — करतये — करत्ये. The neuter form is करतै. These three forms are used in the sing. while the gender is neglected in the pl. There is however such a form as करत्यात् used for the 3rd pers. pl. in the pure Deccan in which करत्यात् is the fem. pl. of करती. To these adjectival bases are appended the personal terminations of the old Pres. for the two numbers, which, you will remember, are 3rd pers. sing. इ, pl. त; 2nd pers. sing. स, pl. आ; 1st pers. sing. ई, pl. ऊ.

In the 1st pers. sing. of the new present the ई of the 1st pers. sing. is represented by the characteristic anuvāra, the vowels expressive of gender necessitating the elision of इ. In the pl. करत and ऊ become by combination करतौ. The 2nd pers. sing. has the स of the old Pres. and the pl. the आ which with the त forms ता, to which however an inorganic anuvāra is added by some. The 3rd pers. sing. has no personal termination, the adjective in its own form expressing that idea, while in the pl. the त of the old Pres. is added.

In these forms we see that the उ of the nom. which is dropped in ordinary nouns and adjectives is retained and we have करतौ but not चांगलौ.

In the Goan. and Māl. the gender is not attended to and the forms are the same for all. This arises from the use of the un-augmented participle करत and not करतञ् which retains the inflections. The forms are :—

Sing.

1st pers.	करतै or तंव Māl.	करतां Goan.
2nd pers.	करतस Māl.	करतास Goan.
3rd pers.	करत Māl.	करता Goan.

Pl.

1st pers.	करतौ—तंव Māl.	करतांव Goan.
2nd pers.	करतात Māl.	करतात Goan.
3rd pers.	करतत Māl.	करतात Goan.

The terminations are those of the old Pres. of intransitive roots in these dialects, t. e. the real Pr. terminations without the transitive or Parasm. augment इ. The 2nd pers. pl. त्, which I have traced to the Pr. इत्था, is peculiar to the Goan. and Mal. and it is not altogether absent from the ordinary M. In the 1st pers. sing. Mal. we have the old इ from सि distinct and not reduced to an anusvāra as in the standard dialect and also the Goan.

A process the reverse of that observable in M. as regards the change in the sense of verbal forms has taken place in the O. and B. The old Pres. in M. has acquired the sense of the Past Habitual and the forms made up by appending the old terminations to the pres. part, express present time, but in the O. and B. this new Present of the M. expresses habitual past action and the old Pres. retains its present signification. In H. too the pres. part. used alone has the signification of the Past Habitual.

The reason why forms expressive of present time have come to denote past time is to be sought for in that natural use of the Pres. which is called Historic Present. A man in narrating a story transports himself for the sake of vividness into that time when the actions are supposed to have taken place and speaks of them as if they were present; and when this habit becomes general in a language, the fact of such an imaginary transfer is forgotten and the Present Tense becomes Past Tense. We have many instances of this use of the Skr. Pres. in such books as the Palcatantra. The forms of the O. Past Habitual are these :—

	Sing.	Pl.
1st pers.	करन्ति	करन्तु
2nd pers.	करन्तु	करन्त
3rd pers.	करन्ता	करन्तो

As in the M., the 3rd pers. sing. has no personal termination; and the pl. is the M. and H. pl. of nouns in आ as घोड़े which we find in the O. nom. pl. बहुमाने 'beasts' also. The second person has the same termination as the corresponding old Present, viz. अ and उ. The first person sing. has इ and the pl. ऊँ and they are the same as the इ and उ of the Pres., but there is some confusion about the anusvāras.

Before proceeding it is necessary to mention that O. and B. use the sing. forms in speaking of, and to, inferiors, while the pl. is used in an honorific sense. This is so in all the languages; but these two use even in a singular nominative with' the honorific forms or real plurals and a plural one with the inferior forms. This is due to the loss of the original plural of nouns in these languages, which I have before mentioned; so that one same form of the nom. came to be used for both the sing. and pi. verbal forms; but, since the usage common to all our vernaculars did exist, the pl. forms came to be understood in a simply honorific sense, and the sing. in the sense of inferiority. There was nothing in the form of the nom. which expressed plurality and hence the verbs also ceased to indicate it, though originally fitted to do so. Similarly, the pl. forms of personal pronouns which were not lost came to be restricted to an honorific signification and the sing. to that of inferiority. The words which were brought into use to indicate plurality expressed an aggregate or collection and thus, being themselves sing., the necessity of pi. verbal forms in connection with them was not felt; and hence they take a verb in the real old sing. But there is this consistency in the use of the verb, that the honorific pers. pronouns take an honorific verb and the inferior an inferior, *i. e.* an original pl. nom. takes an original plural verb and an original sing. a singular.

These same forms that we have been discussing have in the S. acquired a future signification and constitute the regular Future tense of that dialect. The Pres. expresses in all languages an immediate future—a man's intending shortly to do a thing is considered as good as actually doing it. This is the germ of futurity in the signification of forms of the Present tense and usage may take hold of it and constitute them into a regular Future. The Sindhi forms are—

Masco.		Fem.	
Sing.	Pl.	Sing.	Pl.
1st pers. इलङ्गुसि	इलङ्गुसि	इलङ्गुसि—यासि	इलङ्गुसि—यूसी
2nd pers. इलङ्गे	इलङ्गुसुदो	इलङ्गुसि—ए	इलङ्गुसि—यू
3rd pers. इलङ्गो	इलङ्गा	इलङ्गी	इलङ्गुसि—यू

Here इलङ्गु is the old pres. part. The 3d pers., as in the O. and also M., partially has no personal terminations. The sing. and

the pl. are like those of corresponding adjectives in ओ. The 2nd pers. has the termination ए and उ of the S. old Pres. In the fem. the first is optionally reduced to अ and the उ combines with the fem. pl. ऊ. The first pers. pl. has the corresponding S. pronoun **असी** 'we' attached to it as a termination as in an early stage of a language. The sing. **सि** or **असि** is perhaps the same without the nasal and shortened, which changes are made probably to adapt it to the expression of singularity. The adjectival masc. termination appears also in the first pers. sing., as in M., but it is shortened to उ and the fem. sing. ई and the pl. ऊ or ई ऊ optionally combined into ए throughout. In the M. the adjectival gender terminations are not used in the pl. Dr. Trump considers these personal terminations as the remnants of the old Pr. forms of **अह**, which, however, are quite different from these.

The old past part, is similarly made the base of verbal forms expressive of past time. In S. they are made up just in the same way as the above, the 3rd pers. having the purely adjectival forms, without the personal terminations, and the gender affixes appearing in the same places as in the above.

Masc.

Singular.	Plural.
इलिउसि-ल्युसि	इलिआसी-स्यासी
इलिप-ल्ये	इल्यउ-ल्यु
इलिओ-ल्यो	इलिआ-ल्यो

Fem.

Singular.	Plural.
इलिअसि-ल्यसि	इलिआसि
इलिअ-ए	इलिप-ऊ
इली	इलिप

When the verb is transitive, the participle is passive and the agent, if used, is put in the instr. case. The verb takes the person, gender and number of the object in the nom. case and the forms are just the same as the above, as **माईसि** 'I was beaten', **मायें** 'thou wert beaten.'

Marathi has—

Masc.		Fem.		Neut.	
Sing.	Pl.	Sing.	Pl.	Sing.	Pl.
1st. गेलों	गेलों	गेल्यें-लीं	गेल्यों	गेलें	गेलों
2nd. गेलास	गेली	गेलीस	गेल्यास	गेलेंस	गेलीत
3rd. गेला	गेले	गेली	गेल्या	गेलें	गेलीं

Here as before we have simply adjectival forms for the 3rd pers.; and the verbal terminations of the old Pres. appear in the first and second united with the nominal affixes indicative of gender and number, which however are dropped where they cannot be easily combined with the other, as in the first and second person plural masc. It should be remarked that the old masa termination ड or ओ is preserved in the 1st pers. sing., as in the new Pres., and the 2nd pers. pi. has in some cases the affix त, which I have already noticed and traced to the Pr. इत्था.

The Cit. and Goan. dialects agree with this in the main, but use त for the 2nd pers. pi. of the Masc. also, as गेलेत. Their masc. sing. is गेलो and fem. pl. गेल्यो, since they do not drop the old ड of the fem. nom. pl.

The Mal. discards gender in the first and second persons, when the verbal terminations are appended, and the first pers. sing. termination is the old इ, which before the ओ of the others is reduced to an anusvara, and we have गेलइ—'I went.' The 2nd pers. pl. termination is त throughout, as in the other dialects.

Goan.

हाम गेलों-लीं-लं	आमी गेलों-ल्यो-लीं
तूं गेलो-ली-लंस	तुमी गेले-ल्यो-लींत
तो-ती-तें गेलो-ली-लं	ते-ल्यो-लीं गेले-ल्यो-लीं

Mal.

मी गेलइ	आमी गेलों
तूं गेलस	तुमी गेलात-ल्यात
तो-ती-तां गेलो-ली-लां	ते-ल्यो-लीं गेले-ल्यो-लीं

In transitive verbs M. attempts a curious combination. The participle being passive, it must agree with the object and take its number and gender and, if made the base of the verbal forms, its person also. But unlike the Sindhi, the M. does not use this passive participle for an object in the first and second persons. Thus Hlf and 9Hf% in

S. mean 'thou wert beaten' and 'I was beaten', but we do not use such forms as मारिलास or मारिलो to express this sense, though a solitary line from Moropant containing मारिलास has been often quoted. In these cases we use the impersonal construction putting the agent and the object in the instr. and dat. and using the sing. neuter form of the past part., as त्वाणें मला or तुला मारिलें. Thus then this participle can have a nom. object only of the third person. Properly then it ought to take no personal terminations at all; but when the agent which is always in the instr. case is of the 2nd pers., the characteristic sing., स and पिठ of that pers. are appended to the participle, so that it takes the gender and number of the object which is in the nom. case and the pers. and number of the agent which is in the instr. case. Thus we have तूं पोथी लिहिलीस 'thou transcribedst a book', तूं पोथ्या लिहिल्यास, तूं काम केलेंस 'thou didst a work', तुझीं पोथी लिहिलीत, पोथ्या लिहिल्यात.

These forms are condemned by the Translation Department of the Director of Public Instruction, but the Marathi speakers cannot dispense with them; त्वां काम केलें, त्वां पोथी लिहिली, the proposed substitutes, are felt to be weak and emasculated. And the Konkaniis are not satisfied with second personal forms alone of this nature and have devised a way of affiliating the past part, with the third personal agent also and, as the old terminations ह and त are not expressive enough, they append to that participle the last syllable of the agent forms, i. e. the ने or न of the instr. sing. and नीं of the pl., as त्या साहेबानें-न मला बक्षिस दिलें 'the Sahab gave me a reward', त्या साहेबांनीं मला बक्षिस दिलेनीं 'the Sahabs gave me rewards', where the न and नीं of साहेबान and साहेबांनीं are added to the verbs to connect them with them. These forms are not used in the Deccan except by some Konkani Brahmans settled there; and they are condemned by all good writers.

The 0. and the B. do not inflect their adjectives, whether they end in औ or any other vowel "and have no agent case or instrumental. When the languages came to be in this condition, there was nothing to mark off the passive nature of the transitive participle. Hence it was forgotten and we have now active verbal forms only, which are constructed as in the other languages,

	O.		B.	
	Sing.	Pl.	Sing.	Pl.
1st pers.	कलि	कलुं	देखिलाव	देखिलाव
2nd pers.	कलु	कल	देखिलि	देखिला-ले
3rd pers.	कला	कले	देखिल (or क)	देखिलेव

As in the Pres., the O. like the other languages does not add verbal terminations to the third pers., but the forms are like those in M., namely the nom. sing. and pl. masc, though they do not indicate gender here. The other persons have the terminations of the Present.

The B. has no termination in the third pers. singular, while the pl. has the corresponding एन of the Present in that language. The 2nd pers. sing. has इ and the first person sing. व, which are not used in the B. Present, but are to be traced to the Apabh. Present preserved in the इ and ऊ of the H. and others; देखिल + ऊं is देखिलाव like the Goan. करताव from करत + ऊं, and the anusvāra and the व are hardened into व. The first pers. pl. has the same form as the sing., and such a confusion is easy in a language without distinction of number. The second pers. pl. appears to be the old adjectival pl. like the M. केले and the O. कले; and the other form is देखिल sing., the two being confounded.

THE FUTURE TENSE

The Skr. potential participle in ल्यप्, Pr. लव्, which implies duty, has become the base of the O. and B. Future. In Skr. कर्तव्यम् means 'it is to be done by me' i. e. it is my duty to do it, and the transition from this idea to 'I shall do it' is natural. The very word 'shall' in English, which primarily signifies 'I owe' and has now become the sing of the English Future, is an example of it. This participle in Skr. and Pr. is impersonal when the root is intransitive and passive when it is transitive. Like the past part, this has lost its passive character in these languages for the same reasons. The usual personal terminations are applied to it as—

	O.			B.	
	Sing.	Pl.		Sing.	Pl.
1st	करिबि	करिहु-वा		करिब	करिब
2nd	करिहु	करिब		करिबि	करिवा-वे
3rd	करिब	करिबे		करिबि	करिबिब

In the O., the third pers. sing. has no terminations and the pL has the nom. pl. **ए**, which we have found in so many cases. The others have the usual affixes. The optional **वा** of the first pers. pi. appears to be the adjectival sing. **वा**.

The B. first pers. has no termination ; the second has the same as those we examined in the case of the Fast tense and the third has the affixes of the regular Present.

This participle is similarly made the base of a future tense in Bindhi; but since its passive character was not forgotten by the Sindhis, as by the Bengalis and the Oriyas, the Future tense it forms is the Passive Future. The same terminations as those we have examined before are appended to it, as **मारिहसि** 'I shall be beaten', **मारिबि** 'thou shalt be beaten' and **मारिबो** 'he will be beaten.' The third person has, as before, no personal affixes. When the verb is intransitive, this participle is used only impersonally in the masc. sing., the agent being in the instrumental.

In M. however the optional participle has preserved its old sense and is passive and impersonal, and, when used as a base for verbal forms, takes only the second pers. sing. affix **स** and the pl. **त**. Like the past participle when it is passive it takes the gender and number of the object in the nom. and the person and number of the agent in the instrumental, as **दू ग्रंथ लिहावास, पोथी बाचाबीस आबि दुसरें काम करावेंस** 'thou shouldst write a work, read a book and do some other work.' When the object is in the pl., we have **लिहावेस, बाचाव्यास, कराबीस**; and when the agent is in the pl. and the object sing., we have **लिहावात, बाचाबीत, करावेंत**; and when both are in the pl. **लिहावत, बाचाव्यात and कराबीत**. When the verb is intransitive, it is impersonal i. e. has no Nom. with which it should agree, since the object alone can be Nom., but it takes the **स** and **त** of the agent, as **दू जावेंस—दुर्गा जावेंत**.

Dr. Trump and Mr. Beames (Jour. B. A. S. Vol. VII), misled by the circumstance that in the B., O. and S. the **ब** is pronounced like **व**, have likened these forms to the Latin *bo* and explain them as made up of the principal root and the Skr. **ब**. But this latter has in none of the vernaculars assumed the form of **ब** by dropping the vowel and the aspiration, nor are **ब** or the aspirated consonants generally ever known to become the corresponding

unaspirates. The genius of the Prakrits and their descendants is to preserve the aspirate element and to drop the mute. In rare cases the former is thrown on an adjoining letter, but never lost. The usual form in which we have **वृ** is **वृ**. And this etymology would not account for the fact that the forms with **वृ** are passive in S.

In these verbal forms then we observe fresh instances of the law of generalization or false analogy. For the Present and Future tenses verbal or predicative forms, *i. e.* such as indicate the person of the Norn., were wanted; and so great is the necessity of such forms that we in M. make up such verbs as **करावीस** and **केलीस** agreeing with both the agent and the object as noticed above. But the languages being in spite of this want condemned to use participles only, they made the best of what they had and extended the analogy of the old Pres., which they possessed, to the participles, which they could not avoid, and thus applied the personal terminations to the participles and made verbs of them. The B. and O. rather than make the verbs agree with the object, as the passive nature of the participle base of the verb required, dropped the passive character altogether and made the participles take the personal terminations of the agent, while M. reconciles both and makes the verb based on the passive participles agree with the person and number of the agent and the gender and number of the object.

We have next to examine the forms that are made up by adding independent words. There are not many of this class. The H. and P. Future is constructed by affixing **वा** sing., **ने** pl. masc., and **गी** sing. and **गीं** pl. fem. to the forms of the Present. This **वा** appears to be the past participle of **वृ** and ordinarily it is used in the form of **व्या**. Participles of other roots also are in H. sometimes reduced to monosyllabic forms as **दी** for **दिई**, **की** for **किई**; these are feminine and the corresponding masc. monosyllabic forms are **दा** and **का**. We have seen that these **का-की** and **दा-दी** are appended to the obl. case form to make up the genitive in H. and P. Similarly the participle **गा-गी** is used to form the Future, so that **करेगा** means 'gone that he may do.' The M. Future is formed by adding **वृ** or **वृ** to the old Present, as you will see from the following forms:—

Sing.	Pl.	Sing.	Pl.
1st. करीन	करें	धावेन	धावूं
2nd कर-रिहील	कराल	धावशील	धावाल
3rd करील	करितील	धावेल	धावतील

In the first pers. sing. ल and the anusvāra of री together form न as they do in several other cases; the pi. is the same as that of the Pres. What is the nature of this ल or इल? One ल that is appended to the past participle we have already examined. There is another appended in the Goan. and Mal. to the present part, and the forms thus made up have past habitual and future sense. Thus G. करतालो means 'he used to do' and करतलो Goan. and Mai. 'he will do.' In both cases the base is the present part., but in the first it occurs in the augmented form or the form with the old Skr. क. The pres. part. has in the O., as we have seen, acquired a past and in the S. a future sense, the germs of both of which are, as I have explained, contained in its original signification, while here in the Goan. it has both the senses. Now, as it was the practice, as I observed in the last two lectures, to attach क and ल or इल optionally to a great many words, the same word had often several forms—one without क. another with it, a third with ल, a fourth without it and a fifth with both ल and क. These terminations did not signify much originally but afterwards, when the words such as the pres. part. began more and more to acquire distinct and diverse significations, one of the forms whether with or without ल became identified with one sense and the other with another. Thus करतालो, made up as it is by the addition of क, which has left its अ, and of ल, was appropriated for the Habitual Past and करतलो without क to the Future. But that the new additions themselves originally were not expressive of that sense is shown by the fact that the augmented form करता in तो करता तर जरे होते expresses past conditional in M. and H., while it is the unaugmented करत in G. in ते करत तो सारं बात which conveys that sense. Thus then ल was applied in M. to the Present verbal forms also and, when the old Future was lost, these came to be appropriated for the Future, just as the present participle with ल came to have a future signification in the Goan. and Mal.

The other tenses are made up by adding the verbal forms of auxiliary roots, but their etymological sense has not yet been forgotten and they have suffered no phonetic corruption except in a few cases. Hence they can easily be recognised. But the various ways in which they affect the sense of the principal root in the different languages are not without interest. The auxiliaries are हो from Skr. *हृ*, the Skr. *अस्* or *आस्*, more likely the latter, which assumes the forms of *आहे* B., *अह* O., *हे* G., *है* H. and P., *आहे* M. and S., and Skr. *स्था* from which the H. *था* and the S. *थो* are derived.

You will thus see that in this portion of their grammar the vernaculars have only adapted the materials they inherited from the Prakrits to their varying necessities according to the ways resorted to by all the languages in the course of their development. They have got nothing new and have simply given new shapes to the old; and the proposition, that they are descended from the Prakrits, holds good even here.

LECTURE VII.

RELATIONS BETWEEN SANSKRIT, PALI, THE PRAKRITS AND THE MODERN VERNACULARS

Thus, gentlemen, have we surveyed the whole field of Indian Aryan speech from the Vedic times to our own, and what is it we have found ? The Vedic dialect lost a great many of its words and some grammatical forms, its nouns and roots arranged themselves under definite declensions and conjugations, and thus became what I have called Middle Sanskrit.

Till then there was no phonetic corruption except in isolated instances. But after that time the process went on rapidly, and words were altered in form principally by the law of the assimilation of conjunct consonants and a few vowel changes. By the law of generalization or false analogy the declensions and conjugations were reduced to the prevailing types; some new words came into use and a few old ones became obsolete, and thus the language arrived at a stage of which the Pali, the sacred language of the Southern Buddhists and the inscriptions of Asoka afford us specimens. Then began a general use of attributive expressions for verbal forms, which had its effect on the the vernacular or derived languages also, and thus while a good many of these forms went out of use in Sanskrit, the number of tenses and moods in the derived languages was reduced to three.

In the meanwhile the process which formed the Pali went on, other laws of phonetic change, and principally that of the elision of uninitial consonants and the reduction of aspirated ones to *tr*, came into operation. The use of analogy in the simplification of grammar proceeded further, a few words of a non-Sanskrit origin were adopted, and thus arose the Prakrits.

There were several dialects of this class, but the distinction between them was not great. After a while in the Prakrits themselves new phonetic processes began, the chief of which were the dropping of one of the assimilated consonants and in most cases lengthening the preceding vowel, and the obviating of the

hiatus caused by the vowels brought together by consonantal elision by combining them or inserting light semi-vowels between them. These were carried on further, the declensional and conjugational terminations were corrupted and mutilated, and the forms began to get confused ; case relations came to be expressed by connecting independent words or pronominal forms with the genitive of the noun; and new verbal forms were constructed from the participles by appending the personal terminations on the analogy of the existing tenses, or by using the roots indicative of existence as auxiliaries.

About this time the Prakrit speaking people came to be divided into independent communities, separated from each other by hills and rivers, or communication between them decreased ? and therefore these several processes of destruction and construction were carried on at a varying rate and with a difference of detail in each; and thus grew up the modern Hindi, Marathi, Gujarati, Sindhi, &c. This is the whole history. The vernaculars have descended from the Prakrits, and the Prakrits from Sanskrit; and since a language is transmitted from generation to generation orally, if the modern dialects are spoken languages the Prakrits must have been so, and if the Prakrits were spoken dialects the Sanskrit must have been so.

But these conclusions have been denied by some scholars. Professor H. H. Wilson says that that the Prakrit of the plays is an artificial modification of the Sanskrit language devised to adapt it to peculiar branches of literature. And the reason he gives is that even in later plays composed but a few centuries ago the Prakrit used is not the vernacular of the day, but that which we find in the very earliest work of the species. But he is by no means certain, and leaves the question undecided. The reason advanced by him is evidently of no weight. If I choose at this day to express my thoughts in Latin and compose a treatise in that language instead of my vernacular, does that prove that that language is artificial? Latin is sometimes still used in Europe for literary purposes, though it is not the vernacular of any country. Sanskrit play writers of later ages, and even a stray dramatist at the present day, use the old Prakrits for their inferior characters in orthodox obedience to the rules laid down by the

old authorities on the histrionic art; and since the Prakrits, like Sanskrit, Latin, and other languages are preserved by means of grammars and literary works, it is possible to write in them as in these languages.

Mr. Beames at one time expressed himself decidedly on this point : "The Prakrit of the poets is clearly not a dialect that ever was spoken.*" So Dr. Pischel, a German scholar: "I agree with Mr. Beames, that none of the Prakrits was ever a spoken language, and that in order to learn what was the spoken language of the Aryans we must turn principally to the modern vernaculars."

This, gentlemen, we have done; we have examined the vernaculars and found that there is not a rule about the changes of letters in passing from Sanskrit into the Prakrit given by Vararuci or Hemacandra, of which instances are not found in the vernaculars. Of such as are general the examples are abundant; and in a great many cases even the words in which the change is of a special kind are preserved in the vernaculars in their Prakrit form, slightly altered according to the processes that afterwards came into operation. A good many of the vocal peculiarities of Pali and Prakrit speakers are preserved by the speakers of the Gujarati, Marathi, Hindi, Sindhi, and Bengali. I have already drawn your attention to the fact that the ordinary Gujarati cannot pronounce *दे* or *औ* but makes *ए* or *ओ* of it, the Marathi *डे* of *द*, and the Sindhi and Bengali *डल* of *ड*, and the Hindi *डल* or *ड* of it and *ड* of the sibilant. The Bengali pronounces % conjunct ending in *इ* as a double consonant and preserves the old Magadhi peculiarity of reducing all the sibilants to *झ*, while the Hindi still manifests the Paisaci peculiarity of making *झ* of *ञ*. The case terminations in the forms they assumed in the Apabhramsa have been preserved, some in this dialect, some in that. All the three Prakrit tenses do exist and none other; past time is expressed in just the same way as in the Prakrits; the participles, the causals, the passives, the denominatives, the nominal and verbal bases, and the remnants of the Sanskrit conjugations are just as they were in the Prakrits; and the new verbs and oases are formed out of Prakrit materials only. Then

again a good many of the Desya or non-Sanskrit words that existed in the Prakrits are found in the Vernaculars.

Now if the Prakrits were not spoken dialects, what these scholars probably mean is that they were artificial adaptations, as Professor Wilson calls them. But we have seen that they grew up by such natural laws as guide the development of any language whatever. The development of the Prakrit dialects from Sanskrit is paralleled by the development of the Romance languages from Latin. If the Prakrit dialects are to be considered artificial, it is difficult to conceive upon what principles they could have been constructed and for what purpose. A conscious manufacture of a language would be conducted upon some general principles and would not admit of such isolated forms, not obeying any general rule, as we have noticed. The analogies would be perfect; but on the contrary we have seen that in the Pali and the Prakrits a good many forms are made up according to a certain rule brought into use by analogy, as for instance making the passive by adding *इज्ज* or *इअ*, while there are others which are not thus constructed but have descended by simple phonetic corruption of Sanskrit forms, as *दीसइ*, *लब्धइ* and others. In all parts of grammar there are such forms, and these have descended to the modern Vernaculars, as we have seen.

Again, if these had been artificial languages, they would not have been called after the names of the provinces as we have seen they were. I have given reasons for believing that though the difference between the Sauraseni and the Maharastri was not great, some peculiarities of the former have been preserved by the modern Sindhi, Panjabi, Braja and Hindi, while the Marathi represents the old Maharastri and some of the peculiarities of the Magadhi Prakrit are distinctly observable, as we have seen, in some of the Inscriptions of Asoka, in which it would be absurd to suppose an artificial language was used.

And how, if they were not popular dialects, could the idea of using them for women and the inferior characters in dramatic plays have in the first place arisen? That a poet should make certain persons in his work speak their peculiar dialect, especially when that is an inferior dialect and likely to create mirth, is

natural, and this device is resorted to by writers in all countries. But it was probably more from considerations of propriety than liveliness that these languages began to be used by Sanskrit dramatists. For they are no less particular about such proprieties, and of even the so-called unities, than other nations. For one of the rules of the Art is that one act should not contain the events of more than a day. Similarly the minute directions about the use of certain Prakrit dialects in the case of certain persons are explicable only on the supposition that the original idea was to represent in the drama a state of things actually existing in the world. For these varied reasons it admits of no question whatever that the Prakrits of the poets and of the grammarians were really at one time spoken languages. But it is of course not meant that they were spoken just as we find them written, or that they were necessarily spoken at the time when the poets that used them flourished.

The Prakrits became literary and dead dialects as Sanskrit itself had before them, and, as already remarked, they may be used for literary purposes even now, if one wishes to do so. The distinction between the written Prakrits and the corresponding spoken Prakrits cannot be greater than the usual distinction between the language of books and that of ordinary life; and probably the Prakrits of some of our early plays represent the vernaculars of the time faithfully. I must not omit to mention that Mr. Beames has considerably modified his opinion since he wrote the article from which the above extract is taken, for in the beginning of the Introduction to his Comparative Grammar he speaks of the Prakrits as spoken languages, and attempts to account for the use of so many in the dramatic plays instead of setting it down to a mere fancy.

We will next proceed to consider the views that have been put forth, opposed to the conclusions we have arrived at, as regards the relation between Sanskrit and the Prakrits and endeavour to determine that relation more definitely than we have done. Professor Weber believes that in the Vedic times there were several dialects, and that by a fusion of these a common language called the Sanskrit was formed, while at the same time the dialects ran on their course and formed the Prakrits. He says :-----

"I Incline to the opinion of those, who deny that the Sanskrit Bhaṣā, properly so called, was ever the common spoken language of the whole Aryan people, and assign it to the learned alone. Just as our modern High German, arising out of the ancient dialects of the Germans, reduced what was common to all to universal rules and laws, and by the power of analogy obliterated all recollections of varieties; and just as, on the other hand, these dialects while they gradually degenerated often preserved at the same time fuller and more ancient forms ; so also the Vedic dialects became partly combined in one stream, in which their individual existence was lost, and so formed the regular Sanskrit Bhaṣā, and partly flowed on individually on their own original (Prakṛta) irregular force, and continued to be the idioms of the different provinces in the corruption of which they participated. The Sanskrit language and the Prakrit dialects had, therefore, a common and simultaneous origin ; the latter did not spring out of the former."

Professor Weber gives a few instances of Prakritised Sanskrit words from the Vedic dialect, as he calls it, to show that the developments of the Prakrits began then, but nearly all of these are from such works as the Upaniṣads, which must be assigned to a very late period when the language was in that confusion which we find in the Buddhistic Gathas.

Now if the development of Sanskrit and the Prakrits was contemporaneous, how comes it that almost all the words and grammatical forms in these latter dialects are manifest corruptions of Sanskrit words and forms ? Professor Weber's theory does not account for this fact, but this defect is supplied by Mr. Beames, who holds nearly the same view as the Professor. He says :—"The idea of a common language is the creation of modern times, and the effect of the spread of literature.*" "The most probable hypothesis is, that the Aryans from the earliest times spoke many dialects, all closely akin, all having the same family likeness and tendencies common to all perhaps in every case mutually intelligible, but still distinct and co-existent." In a note we are told that this is probable but cannot be proved. The dialect of Vedic hymns was, he says, only one of these. Then "after a time the Brahmans consciously and intentionally set themselves to the task of constructing 'a sacred language, by preserving and

reducing to rule the grammatical elements of this Vedic tongue." "They seized on the salient features of Aryan speech as contained in all dialects, and moulded them into one harmonious whole." They (the popular dialects) were anterior to Sanskrit, contemporary with it, and they finally survived it. Nevertheless, Sanskrit is older than the dialects. This sounds like a paradox, but it is true in two senses; first, that "as ages rolled on, the vulgar dialects went on developing into new forms, while Sanskrit remained fixed and fossilized for ever." The second is that "though Pāṇini, who is credited with this feat of constructing the Sanskrit language, lived when the early dialects were much changed, still among the Brahmans there was a traditional memory of the ancient and then obsolete forms of many words... In teaching his pupils the true principles of speech, Pāṇini would naturally use these archaic words in preference to the corruptions current around him, and thus the language which he, to a certain extent, created, was in great part a resuscitation of antiquated terms."

To be able to estimate the views of these writers at their true worth, it is necessary that we should try to fix the meaning of the word dialect, which is the source of some confusion and endeavour to form some idea of the origin and growth of dialects generally. If little differences are to be regarded as sufficient to constitute a dialect, there are as many dialects as human beings. For just as no two human faces are exactly alike, no two men speak exactly alike. Every one has his peculiarities of pronunciation, and is fond of particular words or turns of expression. The principle of individuality is strong in human nature, but its effects are counteracted by the principle of community, which guides the development of human life; and the necessity of communication compels a man to drop peculiarities in speech and to conform himself to the prevailing model. Thus then, the individual differences come to be minute and insignificant, and hence the language of a community becomes practically one language. But, constituted as communities generally, but not necessarily, are, they are composed of classes; and there is not as much communication between separate classes as within the limits of a class, and hence there come to be class languages, or varieties of speech in

the same community, There may be such classes ; but the smaller ones may be neglected and we may distinguish between two large ones, generally called the lower and the higher, or the uneducated and educated classes. The languages of these differ, that of the lower class being more subject to those laws of development, growth, or corruption which I traced in the first lecture. Thus an uneducated Englishman uses many such forms as "I knowed," "you says," formed upon the prevailing analogies; and his pronunciation of a good many words is corrupt, as "genlman" for "gentleman," "wot" for "what," "guvnor" for "governor," &c, And in the same way the language of the Marathi, Gujarati or Hindi lower classes is not the same as that of the higher. But still the word dialect is not used in speaking of these two varieties, one principal reason being that the language of the lower classes is not acknowledged to have an independent existence*

Again, when a community comes to have a literature, the style that is used, as a rule, differs from the ordinary conversational style. There are certain words, turns of expression, modes of construction, and even solitary forms which, though used in conversation, do not appear in books. Even these two varieties are not called dialects. The dialects of a language therefore or kindred dialects, as they may be called, are the languages of kindred communities, which, while they possess a large body of common words and forms, have also many others which are different, though in most cases the roots from which these are derived are common to all. And according to the proportion in which the similar and dissimilar elements are mixed, the dialects are more or less distant from each other.

The causes that divide men into distinct communities are the causes that create distinct dialects. The laws of change and development are always in operation in a language, in a changing condition of society, and the processes of destruction or disappearance of old words and forms and the construction or appearance of new ones, are constantly going on. Hence, when after the separation of men into distinct communities, communication between them is lessened, these processes go on in a varied and dissimilar manner. The conditions of life in their new

habitations may also be different, and when they are so, they bring about a varied linguistic development. But though the processes of destruction and construction are always going on in a language, they suppose that the society, whose language it is, is moving and not stationary. The life of a community may, however, be even and unvaried, in which case there will be little change in its language. Or certain races may be very conservative, and cling to the past with tenacity. Thus the Lithuanian peasants of the present day have through a number of ages, though they possess nothing like a literature, preserved a good many old Aryan words and forms in a purer condition than all their European neighbours. So that even after men are divided into distinct communities it is by no means necessary that distinct dialects should grow up. They may or they may not. But the possibility of slight difference, such as those which exist in the speech of the different classes of a community, even when the dialect is the same, is not denied.

Now, if for the various reasons above indicated dialects have come into existence, these continue until by the development of civilisation and by political events kindred communities come to form a nation; and then by increased communication and the growth of a common literature these dialects are fused together, and one harmonious language is formed; though, however, in remote quarters they may continue to have an independent existence. The writers whom I have quoted pay exclusive attention to this fact, of which there are several instances in modern European history, the most notable of which is the development of the modern German; and lay it down as a universal proposition which requires no proof, that in an early condition of society there must be a plurality of dialects, and that there could be no such thing as a common language.

This seems to be the opinion of Professor Max Muller also. But if there was not one common original dialect, whence are the common portion of the words and forms of kindred dialects, and the common roots derived? And does not comparative philology itself, in its comparisons and classifications, go upon the assumption that there was such a language? Thus then, since the creation of dialects depends on causes and the causes may not

exist, it will not do to assume that there were several dialects in Vedic times without positive proof or even positive indications. Several independent Aryan communities or tribes may not have migrated into India, but only one. Or even if more than one tribe came over, they may have been, like Lithuanian peasants, very conservative as regards their language. The circumstances we know about the language of the period do not necessitate the supposition of a plurality of dialects.

Besides, if according to Professor Weber these originally existing dialects went on in their own isolated course as the idioms of different provinces, and became the Pali and the Prakrits, we should expect to find much greater divergences between them, produced in the course of the many centuries that elapsed between the Vedic period and that in which they were as we now have them. But the distinction between the dialects of the Inscriptions of Asoka and even between the different Prakrits is by no means great, and concerns chiefly the pronunciation of individual letters. The plea of linguistic conservatism which I have before used in a certain case cannot be brought in here, since those early dialects resembling the language of the Vedas, as they must have done if they existed, were already very greatly corrupted in passing into the Pali or the Prakrits. Surely such very extensive changes as from the Vedic to the Prakrit form, if carried on in different provinces by different communities, must occasion very great divergences, greater even than we find between the modern Vernaculars. For the degree of departure from the old Prakrits which these last exhibit is not so great as that which the Prakrits do from the Vedic dialect. The divergence ought to be at least as great, but it certainly is not so.

Now, the way in which the supposed contemporaneous development of Sanskrit and the Prakrits is accounted for by Mr. Beames is, as we have seen, this:—That the Prakrits arose by a natural development while Sanskrit was created by the Brahmans, and principally by Panini, out of the Vedic dialect and the salient points of Prakrit speech, and by a resuscitation of antiquated terms. Hence it contains the old words and forms from which those in the Prakrits are derived. And this also accounts for the existence of what Mr. Beames calls an Aryan but non-Sanskritic element.

in tilt Prakrits, by which he probably means either those few forms that are not found in classical Sanskrit but must be referred to the Yedio dialect, or others that must be Aryan, though not found either in Classical or Vedic Sanskrit. Of the latter there are almost no instances which may be regarded as beyond the possibility of doubt.

But such a theory is calculated to bring relief to a puzzled philologist who, not knowing to what Sanskrit word to trace any Prakrit or Vernacular word, will at once get out of the difficulty by putting it down as an Aryan word not found in Sanskrit. But how is it possible to create such a language as the Sanskrit out of the elements indicated by Mr. Beames? A literary style, as distinguished from a conversational style, is what one can understand, but a language which never had anything to correspond to it in ordinary vernacular speech, but is simply created, is inconceivable. And if the creation of a sacred language was the conscious and deliberate aim of the Brahmans, and Panini resuscitated old or obsolete words, why did they or he not include in the new language all the innumerable old obsolete Vedic words and grammatical forms, which would have, from the very reverence that was paid to the Vedas, rendered their invention more sacred; and why should they, instead of doing so, have distinguished between a Cbandasa or Vedic, and Bh&sjl or popular, speech? And, if the inventors seized all the salient features of the popular dialects, would they have left a few but striking Vedic peculiarities in the popular speech, such as the absolute in शान or दून, unrepresented in their new language? And how could they from the popular dialects, in which the conjugations and declensions were reduced to fewer types, construct the innumerable forms of the Sanskrit noun or verb, Perfects, Aorists and the lost tenses or moods? And what must have been the basis of the incalculable Taddhita or nominal, and Krt or verbal derivatives, which have left but few traces in the Prakrits? Even the Vedic dialect is not calculated to afford much help. For if the grammar of the later Sanskrit had been framed by the conscious inventors upon the model of the Vedic, the declensions, conjugations, and the derivatives would have been like the Vedic; whereas, as a matter of fact, the differences are great, and some of these I pointed out in the first lecture;

There remains the third alternative, that there was a traditional memory of these forms. But why should they have been committed to memory when there was no motive? The sacred formulas which Mr. Beames says were orally transmitted do not, if they were the same as those that have come down to us, contain a large number of such forms; and, if they were different, they are simply imaginary. And, though the Vedas were and are committed to memory, the literally incalculable number of case forms, verbal forms, Taddhitas, and Krdantas, in the absence of any general rules which were laid down afterwards, as the theory supposes, by the grammarian-creators of the languages, it is thoroughly impossible to commit to memory,—impossible, as the great author of the *Mahābhāṣya* says, even for Indra, with Br̥haspati for his teacher and a thousand celestial years during which to learn them. Of course it is a different thing when they are current in a language which one learns from one's childhood, though even in this case very few know all the words and forms which are current in their own country, and nearly all only such as they are immediately concerned with. And what is the evidence for the truth of this theory? Absolutely none is given. It is simply the vague feeling of an individual or individuals, and not a conclusion arrived at after a deliberate weighing of evidence; while it sets at naught the clearest evidence available in the works of the grammarians themselves, which I shall presently adduce.

The theory, therefore, is utterly untenable, and the contemporaneous development of Sanskrit and the Prakrits derived from it, to account for which it was invented, is an impossibility.

Professor Aufrecht, though he does not believe in a plurality of Vedic dialects, derives the Prakrits from the Vedic language and assigns Sanskrit to schools of the learned, but does not explain its genesis. Those who believe the Vernacular dialects to be derived directly from the Vedic must explain the origin of Classical Sanskrit in some such way as Mr. Beames has done; there is no other way.

Dismissing feelings which we have been considering so long, we will for a time examine the reason or reasons that are given

for doubting the derivation of the Pali and the Prakrits from Sanskrit. Thus Professor Childers, in the preface to his Pali Dictionary, states the relations between Sanskrit and Pali in the following lucid manner :—

"If we compare Pali with classical Sanskrit, we find that about two-fifths of the vocabulary consists of words identical in form with their Sanskrit equivalents, as *Nāga*, *Buddha*, *Nidana*. Nearly all the remaining words present a more or less late or corrupted form.....Words of the above two classes nearly exhaust the Pali vocabulary; but there remains a small though important residuum of forms distinctly older than Sanskrit, and found only in the oldest known Sanskrit, that of the Vedas. Nay, I do not feel sure that Pali does not retain a few precious relics older than the most ancient Sanskrit, and only to be explained through the allied Indo-Germanic languages. It results from all this that Pali cannot be derived from Sanskrit; both, though most intimately connected, being independent corruptions of the lost Aryan speech which is their common parent; but that Pali is on the whole in a decidedly later stage than Sanskrit, and, to adopt a metaphor popularised by Max Müller, stands to it in the relation of a younger sister." Then in a foot-note he gives these Vedic forms in the Pali: the infinitive in *tave*, as *katave* "for doing," the absolutive or gerund in *tvana*, as *katvana* "having done." These two terminations, however, occur only occasionally, the usual ones are the Sanskrit *turn* and *tva*. The next two, *imassa*, genitive singular of *ayam*, and *gonam*, genitive plural of *go* "a cow," I consider as made up by false analogy, as I have already indicated; *tinnam*, genitive plural of *tri*, is similar. Then *vidu* from *vid* to know and meaning "one who knows;" *divo*, which is masculine in the Veda and in the Pali, while it is feminine in Sanskrit; the Imperative 2nd person plural in *amase* as in *yamamase*, "I shall or may restrain" *kasamase*, "I shall or may plough;" the Imperfect 3rd person singular of *karoti* from the Vedic *akat*. Pali has the Vedic *i*, but this is a sound natural under certain circumstances, since we have it in Marathi and Gujarati, and *kuham* corresponding to the Vedic *kuha*. The Vedic Instrumental plural termination of nouns in *ibhi* is retained in the Pali and also corrupted to *ehi* Professor Childers, however, thinks it is

corrupted from the Sanskrit ablative *bhyas*. I agree with those who derive it from the Vedio affix. To these may be added the the Prakrit कृण्व "he does," in which there is a remnant of the fifth conjugation, while the root belongs to the eighth class; and also the affix लण of abstract nouns, while it is ल in ordinary Sanskrit. Prakrit possesses लृण or कृण corresponding to the Pali लान or लृण and the instrumental affix एहि.

Then in another note Professor Childers gives the Pali *garu* "heavy" or "great" while Sanskrit has गुरु, though the गर appears in the Sanskrit comparative and superlative forms गरिष्ठ and गरिष्ठ. The अ is seen in the Greek word *Barus* and Latin *gravis*. The Potential अस्स "let him be," is also said not to have anything to correspond to it in Sanskrit; but it may be traced to the Vedio subjunctive or लेट्, असत्, or regarded as a corruption of अस्यात् for Sanskrit स्यात्, the अ though dropped in Sanskrit being brought over by analogy from the singular of the other tenses. He also gives इष, while Sanskrit has इह, which is doubtful, and also सम्मदि "everywhere" the षि in which corresponds to fi in some Greek words. The Pali षि is the locative singular of the root, the instrumental singular of which is preserved in the Sanskrit षा in एकषा, पञ्चषा &c. Of these the Prakrits have गर in such words as गरुअ, गारव &c., and इष.

Here the question is reduced to a point. Two-fifths of the words in the Pali are pure Sanskrit, the rest are corrupt Sanskrit, while there are about six or seven forms which are lost in Classical Sanskrit but exist in Vedic Sanskrit; and there are one or two which exist in neither. The dialect then from which the Pali was corrupted or immediately sprang, granting for a moment that it was different from the Sanskrit, had two-fifths of its words exactly like those in Sanskrit, and the other three-fifths from which the Pali corruptions were derived were also exactly like Sanskrit, but it contained these eight or nine forms which Sanskrit has lost. In other words, Pali itself, if we take the original forms of the corrupt three-fifths of its words into consideration, is exactly like Sanskrit but for these nine forms, Is the dialect for this difference to be considered an independent dialect? Is the distinction enough to entitle the Pali or its

supposed immediate parent to be considered a dialect, that is, a language, elaborated, according to the definition given before, from the ancient speech by a community distinct from that which elaborated the Sanskrit? If any one thinks it is, he may do so, and regard the Pali as a distinct dialect; but he must for the same reason consider Surat Gujarati and Ahmedabad Gujarati, Konkani Marathi and Deccani Marathi or the Marathi, Gujarati, English and any other language as spoken by the uneducated classes of the population, and as spoken by the educated, to be distinct dialects of the same ancient speech. In the same community, as I have observed, varieties of speech may or do prevail and must prevail, but the distinction between them is not enough to constitute them distinct dialects; wherefore Sanskrit and the immediate parent of the Pali or the uncorrupt Pali must be considered as one language, even though the latter contained a few more ancient forms*, and if both were one, the Pali must be regarded as the daughter of Sanskrit and not its sister. Some of its few peculiarities it may have derived from the spoken variety of Sanskrit, and the rest from that in use among the inferior classes. It often happens that the lower classes sometimes retain an old word or form after it has been given up by those above them, whence it is likely that the Pali was corrupted from the language of those classes. And as a matter of fact it was for a long time the speech of the uneducated, as will be presently shown. These observations apply to the later Prakrits also *, wherefore, if these derived languages were spoken, that from which they were derived, i. e., Sanskrit, must have been a spoken language also.

And, independently of this consideration, there is positive evidence that Sanskrit was a spoken language. Yāska in the Nirukta frequently refers to the Vedic dialect and to another called Bhasa, the peculiarities of which mentioned by him are observable in Classical Sanskrit. Pāṇini in his Grammar gives a good many rules which are exclusively applicable to the dialect of the Vedas, to which he refers by using the words Chandas, Nigama, Mantra and Brahmana, and others which are applicable to the Bhasa alone, but by far the largest number of his Sūtras have reference to both. Now, since Bhasa, or the ordinary Sanskrit, is thus distinguished

from the dialect of the Vedas, it must be the language in use at the time when these writers lived. " Bhasa, " as used by them, is a proper name, but in later Sanskrit it acquired a generic signification and meant language generally. The root from which the word is derived, signifies " to speak, " wherefore the original sense of the word as a proper noun must have been the " speech " or " the spoken language. " And, because this was its signification, it afterwards came to denote " explanation." When we ask for an explanation of something that is obscure and unintelligible, what we mean is that the sense should be expressed to us in the ordinary language of men, a language that we can understand. Thus such a sentence as स्थितप्रज्ञस्य का भाषा, means " what is the Vernacular of स्थितप्रज्ञ, " an expression similar to " what is the English of it? "

Pāṇini refers certain points expressly to popular usage. He says that the names of countries are conventional, and no grammatical analysis should be given of them, because it is fictitious; these should be used as we find them used. Similarly he says grammarians should not make rules to teach such things as these:- That the two words of a compound express the thing denoted by the principal word as qualified by the sense of the subordinate word; as for instance, राजपुरुष, a compound of राजन् " a king " and पुरुष " a man, " does not denote " a king, " but " a man, " and not " man " alone but as connected with a king, i. e. a king's man or officer; and that the base and the termination express the sense of the termination as qualified by that of the base; as औपगन्ध signifies not उपगन्ध but a child, and not a child alone but a child as connected with उपगन्ध e. Upagu's child. For the significations of words are to be learnt from usage.

In the introduction to the Mahabhasya Patanjali tells us that some persons in his or Katyayana's time considered the study of grammar to be unnecessary. For said they, " Vedic words or forms we know from the Veda, and those current in popular usage from that usage •, grammar is useless." Now the grammar which is thus declared useless is the grammar both of the Vedic and Classical Sanskrit; and the depredators of the science profess to derive a knowledge of the first dialect from the Vedic books, and of the second not from other books but from popular usage. Hepce

Sanskrit must have been in the time of those two grammarians a spoken language.

Similarly in the passage from the same work which I placed before you in the first lecture, you will remember that the objector (or Purvapaksin) argues that, since usage is the authority upon which the grammarians go, certain verbal forms which are no longer used by people ought not to be taught by the grammarians, and gays that instead of those verbal forms participles are employed. The principal teacher (Siddhantin) does not deny the facts, but refers the objector to the vast literature of the language, where he may find them used, though obsolete at the time. It is evident from the whole passage, that Sanskrit was then a spoken language though some of its verbal forms had fallen into desuetude. I have also shown that the language was considerably changed between the times of Paṇini and Katyayana, and have called the Sanskrit that prevailed when Paṇini and Yaska flourished Middle Sanskrit, and that which was current in the time of Katyayana, Classical Sanskrit. Now these changes from the one form to the other could not have taken place if the language had been dead or petrified into a merely literary language.

I am at a loss to see why some scholars should and it so difficult to believe that Sanskrit was a vernacular. If its declensions and conjugations are considered too complicated for the language of everyday life, it must not be forgotten that such a fact did not prevent the ancient languages of Europe from becoming spoken languages. And this objection would do equally well against the Vedic dialect, which or others like which, are regarded as the vernaculars of their times, and which are richer in inflexions than the later Sanskrit. Then it is held that the artificial regularity of Sanskrit makes it improbable that it should have been a vernacular. Where is this artificial regularity ? On the contrary, it is the absence of regularity that renders its grammar so difficult and complicated. There is a freedom in the choice of words, expressions, and forms. In every department of its grammar there are innumerable optional forms; nouns and verbal roots are often declined and conjugated in several ways. One same root in a good many cases forms its special tenses in more ways than one, and in the nominal derivatives, the verbal

derivatives, the formation of the feminine and the uses of cases and tenses there is a freedom which some may consider a license. The only difference is, that Sanskrit has had the most perfect grammarians in the world, who observed all the facts of their language and laid them down as unchangeable fact, and it is this which gives that language a stiffened appearance.

Then Saṁdhis or euphonic combinations of letters, which are necessary in Sanskrit, are regarded as inconsistent with the character of a spoken language. It is, however, not denied that such combinations are observable in all languages, and particularly so in Latin and Greek; but it is urged that in Sanskrit there is a regularity or universality about them which is not found anywhere else. It should not, however, be forgotten that Saṁdhi in the same word and the same compound, and of a preposition with a root is alone necessary. Between different words it is optional, which means that it was on occasions neglected. Now Saṁdhi in the same word is necessary by a law of nature. The Sanskrit does not allow a hiatus; and this is a characteristic of most of the modern idioms also. Some languages, such as our Prakrits and the old languages of Europe, tolerate it. But the euphonic combination of consonants in the same word is necessary even in Latin; as in rex=reg-s, scriptus=scrib-tus, cinctum=cing-tum, lectum=leg-turn, tractum from traho, though the h like the Sanskrit ह stands for an original gh; d and t combine to form an s, as defendo, de fen sum; sedeo, sessum; claudio, clausum; &c. Prepositions are really parts of words, and hence by the same law, they also must form one harmonious sound with the initial letter of the word to which they are attached\$ [and modern vernaculars have got corruptions of the combined words, which shows that they must have been used in those forms in the colloquial Sanskrit; thus Sk. पर्यस्त, Pr. पल्लुट्ट, M. पालट; Sk. प्रत्यभिज्ञाना, Pr. पचहिआन, H. पहिआन; Sk. अत्यर्थ, Pr. अचट्ट, M. अचाट, &c.

Now, as to compounds, this peculiarity of the Sanskrit has been carried to an extravagant extent by later writers, but Pāṇini allows only certain formations of this nature. These grew up as independent words in the language, and hence in the matter of Saṁdhi were treated like other words. In the spoken language the euphonic combinations we have been considering were not

consciously made, but the words themselves acquired those forms by habitual use in the same manner as in other tongues. The grammarians, however, discovered and laid down these rules; and the practice of using them in books even in combining different words gained ground, though, however, many instances in which there is no such Samdhi are found in the Itihasas and the Purāṇas. But if in colloquial speech such a combination was not possible, the grammarians do not enjoin that it should be made *, and very probably it was not made.

And traces of many expressions, which only a colloquial use of language can generate, have been preserved, not so much in the literature, as by the grammarians. Such is one expressive of an intensive or excessive action, composed of the Imperative second person form of a root repeated, followed by a verbal form of the same in any tense of the Indicative and in any person or number; as खाद्य खादेति खादति, lit. "eat, eat, he eats," i. e. eats much, कुरु कुरुषि करोति "do, do, he does," i. e. does much. This expression exists in Marathi and is considered so colloquial that no Marathi grammarian has noticed it, as खा खा खातो, कर कर करतो, in which, as in Sanskrit, खा and कर are forms of the Imperative second person singular.

A similar expression is used when several actions are attributed to the same agent; as ओदनं खुह्णु सक्तुं पिब घानाः खादेत्येवायमभ्यवहरति "Eat rice, drink barely water, devour fried grain, in this way he fills his stomach;" which in Marathi is भात जेव पेज पी लाह्या खा असैं पोड भरतो. In this case the Indicative should signify a general action of which the Imperatives denote the species, and we may have here करोति "does" instead of अभ्यवहरति.

Similarly those innumerable expressions consisting of a form made up by adding अच्, technically अवहृद्, to a root, preceded by a noun, and of a verbal form of the same root must be colloquial; as हस्तग्राहं यच्छाति "holds by the hand," जीवनाशं नश्यति "he perishes," उदरपूरं कुह्णे "eats a stomachful," यथाकारमई भोक्ष्ये तथाकारं भोक्ष्ये किं त्वामेव "I will eat as I eat (as I like), what have you to do with it?" &c. Etymologically हस्तग्राहश्च, जीवनाशश्च &c. are accusatives, and they may in these cases be called cognate accusatives, and the expressions somewhat resemble such ones in English, as "run a race," "walk a walk," "die a death," &c.

The compounds दण्डादण्डि, केशाकेशि &c., meaning "a scuffle in which there is a brandishing of sticks and seizing each other by the hair," and a great many others made up of Imperative forms of verbs, or of a verb and its object, which are used as nouns, are of a nature suited for the purposes of a light conversation; as अत्र खादतमोदता वर्तते " 'eat and enjoy' is the rule here," अत्राश्रौतपिबता वर्तते " 'eat and drink' is the rule here," उद्धरोन्मुजा तस्य दानशौण्डीरस्य ग्रहे " 'take out and give' is what takes place in the house of that bountiful man," जहृस्तिम्बोगम् "he is one who constantly says, 'strike the sheafs of corn'," ग्रहिस्वागता वर्तते " 'come, welcome to thee' is the practice," &c.

Sanskrit was not the only language spoken in the times of Katyayana and Patanjali. In the Mahabhasya there are several passages which contain allusions to a dialect arising from a corruption of Sanskrit. Thus, in the comment on the Vārtika : Siddhe Śabdārthasambandhe : we are told, with reference to the question, whether words are created or exist of themselves, that Panini's rules suppose that they are not created but exist of themselves; and so is the relation between them and the things they denote, i. e. their power of expression, uncreated and self-existent*, and, according to another interpretation of the Vartika, the things also which words denote are so. How is it known that all these are self-existent? Because in the affairs of the world or in ordinary life men think of certain things and use words to express them; they do not set about producing words before doing so. But this is not the case with those things that are created and self-existent. If a man wishes to do something with an earthen pot, he goes to the house of a potter and says, " Make a pot for me, I have to do something by its means. " Now, if he has to use words, he does not in the same way go to the house of a grammarian and say, " Make words, I want to use them ; " but immediately that he thinks of this thing and that he uses words [for expressing them]. Well then, if words are to be taken from ordinary life [and are not made by grammarians], what is it that the sastra [grammar] does? "The Sastra lays down a restriction by observing which a man may attain religious merit. It does what other Sāstras in ordinary life do. Thus, while it is possible to satisfy hunger by eating anything whatever, it is enjoined that

one shall not eat a domesticated fowl or pig ; and the object that he may by regulating his conduct thus attain religious merit. In the same way this Śāstra (grammar) tells us that while it is possible to express one's meaning ; by using correct words or incorrect words, correct ones alone which it teaches should be used to secure the religious merit arising therefrom. After this follows the discussion translated in the first lecture ; and then we have another of which the following is a portion ?

PŪRV. Does religious merit arise from a knowledge of correct words or from their use ?

SID. What is the difference ?

PŪRV. If you say religious merit arises from their knowledge, religious de-merit also must arise. For he, who knows what words are correct, also knows what words are incorrect. If merit results from the knowledge of those that are correct, demerit must result from the knowledge of those that are incorrect. Or greater demerit must arise [from their knowledge], as the number of incorrect words is larger, and that of correct words smaller. For the combinations of one correct word are manifold ; as, for instance, the combinations of the correct word गो are गोपी, गोष्ठी, गोहा, गोघोषल्लिका. And the Rsi also indicates (in a passage which is quoted) that the restriction as to correct words concerns their use [and not knowledge].

SID. Well, then, let it be that religious merit arises from their use [and not from knowledge].

PŪRV. If from their use, the whole world would obtain heavenly felicity.

SID. And now why should you be jealous if the whole world obtain heavenly felicity ?

PŪRV. No, certainly, I am not jealous. But what I mean : that it thus becomes useless to make any effort, such effort as is fruitful should be made. If you get the fruit without any effort, the effort is useless, [The effort meant is that involved in the study of grammar, i. e. of correct words. People use so many incorrect words at least without studying grammar, and, if heavenly felicity results from the use of such words, they get it without making the effort of studying the subject].

SID. Why, verily those who make the effort will largely use correct words, and will obtain a large amount of heavenly felicity.

PURV. That the fruit does not follow the effort is also an observed fact. For there are persons who though they have made the effort are seen to be incompetent [in the use of correct words], while others, who have not, are competent; wherefore it is possible, the fruit, i. e. heavenly felicity, may not follow.

SID. Well then, religious merit arises not from knowledge alone, neither from use alone.

PURV. From what then ?

SID. Heavenly felicity arises from the use of correct words when it is accompanied by the knowledge, that they are correct, derived from a study of the Śāstra.

And thus it goes on.

Now it is clear from all this that correct words, i. e. Sanskrit, was spoken in those days by all, but that incorrect words had got mixed up with it, and the object of grammar was to teach how to avoid inoorreot words or corruptions, though there were men who could speak correctly without knowing grammar. And this is the state in which more or less all languages are at all times; and even at the present day the purpose of grammar is considered to be to teach how to speak correctly. By the way, it will be seen how Sanskrit grammarians distinctly declare that they teach nothing that does not exist, that they do not create words, but separate the correct ones from such as are incorrect. But what did Pataijali consider to be the standard of correct Sanskrit : who was it that spoke the language correctly, and in whose speech were corruptions observable ? This is clear from another passage at the beginning of the third pada of the first chapter of the Mahabhaaya. Patanjali interprets the Sutra iS^mpn *mw: (I. III. 1) in a manner to yield such a connotative deanition of a dhatu or root as this, that a dhātu is that which denotes action or being. Then a question is raised, if this is the way to distinguish a root why should a list of roots be given; in other words, if we have got a connotative deanition, a deanition by enumeration is not wanted. In this case there is a difference of opinion between Katyayana and Patanjali,

PURV. If you have given a connotative definition now, enumeration should not be made, i. e. a list of roots should not be given.

SID. It should be made.

PURV. What for ?

SID. The enumeration of [the verbal roots] bhū and others should be made for the purpose of excluding nouns (Prātipadika) and the verbs that begin with आणपयति [i. e. If the roots are not actually enumerated, nouns also which express action or being may come under the the connotative definition. In the same way it will extend to roots used in ordinary life, which are not Sanskrit, such as आणपयति and others].

PURV. What verbs are those which begin with आणपयति ?

SID. आणपयति, वदति and वदति. And enumeration should also be made in order that the anubandhas or indicatory letters and accents of roots may be made known; i. e. that one may know what the accents and indicatory letters of roots are. It is not possible to know the accents or indicatory letters unless the roots are enumerated. [Anubandhas are certain letters attached to roots to denote some, conjugational or other peculiarity belonging to them].

PURV. Now those roots whose accents are capable of being inferred, i. e., उदात्त, and which have no anubandhas, but still are inserted in the list, may be omitted from it. [i. e. When those roots which have the अनुदात्त accent are enumerated, it may be inferred that the rest have the other or उदात्त accent].

SID. Even those should be enumerated in order that आणपयति and others [i. e., corrupt Sanskrit roots] may be excluded.

Hereupon Patanjali disagrees with Katyayana and says:—

PAT. No, आणपयति and others will be excluded, because the usage of the educated or Śiṣṭas is to be followed. This usage of the Śiṣṭas must be necessarily referred to in other cases even; for instance, in order to exclude the altered forms of those roots that are enumerated. For in ordinary life they use कसि for कषि and विसि for वशि. [The sense is, that since in grammar we follow the usage of the Śiṣṭas or educated, these verbs आणपयति, वदति

and वदति, and also कसि for कृषि and दिसि for हृषि which are not used by them, will necessarily be excluded from our connotative definition; hence for the purpose of excluding them enumeration is not wanted].

Now आणपयति is a corruption of the Sanskrit आजापयति, वदति of वलति, and वदति of वर्यति, ते Ātm. being replaced by ति Parasm., and कस् for कृष्, and दिसि for हृष्. These and such other corruptions were in use at the time, but Patañjali clearly lays down that they were not used by the Śiṣṭas or educated people, and therefore they belonged to the language of the vulgar. Now all these roots are found in the Pali in these very forms, आणपयति being, however, आजापयति; but the reading in the MSS. and the Benares lithographed edition which I have consulted is faulty. So also of the corruptions of the word गौ given by our author, we find गावी in Professor Childers's Pali Dictionary, and गौण the masculine of गौणी. Thus our grammarians recognise one language only, the Sanskrit, and these words and forms which are found in the Pali they assign to the speech of the vulgar.

In another passage still we are told more definitely who the Śiṣṭas were that spoke the Sanskrit language correctly without studying Panini's grammar, and whose usage was the standard of correctness. Panini's Sutra VI. III, 109, lays down that such words as वृषोवृष should be regarded as correct in the form in which they are upadiṣṭa, i. e. used or uttered; the changes in them such as the elision, or augmentation, of letters or the alteration of their forms do not obey any general rules laid down by him, but still the words exhibiting those changes should be taken as correct, just as they are used. Now the Pūrvapakṣin raises the question :—

PURV. What is meant by upadiṣṭa ?

SID. Uttered (used).

PURV. How does it come to mean that ?

SID. The root 'dis' signifies 'uttering.' One utters (uses), letters, and says that they are thus upadiṣṭa.

PURV, By whom upadiṣṭa (uttered or used) ?

SID. By the Śiṣṭas,

PURV. Who are the Śiṣṭas ?

SID. The grammarians.

PURV. How so ?

SID. The character of a Śiṣṭa is conferred upon one by the knowledge of the science (Śāstra): and the grammarians know the science [of grammar].

PURV. If a man is made Śiṣṭa by the science, and the science depends upon a man's being Śiṣṭa, this is reasoning in a circle. An argument in a circle does not hold. [The circle is, one is Śiṣṭa, and consequently an authority in matters of language if he has studied grammar; and grammar itself depends on the usage of the Śiṣṭas.]

SID. Well, then, the character of a Śiṣṭa is conferred upon one by the country in which he lives and by his conduct. That sort of conduct must be associated with residence in Aryavarta alone (lit. that sort of conduct must be in Aryāvarta alone).

PURV. Which is Aryavarta ?

SID. The country which is to the east of the Adarśa, west of Kalkavana, south of the Himalaya, and north of the Pariyatra. Those Brahmans in this country of the Aryas who do not store up riches (lit. who keep only so much grain as is contained in a jar), who are not greedy, who do good disinterestedly, and who without any effort are conversant with a certain branch of knowledge are the worshipful Śiṣṭas.

PURV. If, then, the Śiṣṭas are an authority as regards language, what function does the Astadhyayi (Panini's grammar) perform ?

SID. The purpose of the Astadhyayi is to enable us to and out the Śiṣṭas.

PURV. How is it possible to and out the Śiṣṭas by means of the Astadhyayi ?

SID. A student of the Astadhyayi finds a man who has not studied the book using words just as they are taught in the Astadhyayi. He then thinks, " Verily, this man possesses some good luck or innate nature by means of which, though he has not

studied the Astadhyayi, he uses words just as they are taught in that book. Verily he knows other words also " [not taught in the Astadhyayi, such as **पुणेदर**]. Thus, the purpose of the Astadhyayi is to enable one to find out who is a Śiṣṭa [in order that he may refer to him and learn such words as do not obey the rules laid down by Pīṇini, but still are correct].

Here then we have the dearest possible evidence that Sanskrit was the vernacular of holy or respectable Brahmins of Aryavarta or Northern India, who could speak the language correctly without the study of grammar. The corrupt language mentioned by Patañjali which was composed of correct and incorrect words, that is, a dialect like the Pali, must, therefore, have been the vernacular of the other classes. And this is what you may say even with regard to the modern vernaculars. Who is it that speaks good or correct Marathi ? Of course, Brahmins of culture. The language of the other classes is not correct Marathi. The word Śiṣṭa may be translated by "a man of education or culture ;" and this education or culture has, since remote times, been almost confined to Brahmins.

Thus the dialects of the Inscriptions of Aśoka and the Pali were the vernaculars of the non-Brahmanic classes; but a greater importance must evidently have been attached to them in the times of Aśoka than is now assigned to the Marathi of the non-Brahmanic classes, since they are used by him in the Inscriptions. They are, however, not recognized as independent languages by our grammarians who treated them as we treat the Marathi of the lower classes; but they were in use and bore the same relation to Sanskrit that low Marathi does to high Marathi, the English of the lower classes in England to the speech of the higher. And the English of the lower classes contains, as we have seen, a great many such grammatical forms as " I knowed, " and " you says, " along with others that are correct.

It is on account of the mixture of such correct words and forms with others that were incorrect that the Pali was not regarded as an independent dialect. The case was different with the Prakrits. They assumed a more settled and fixed character, and were used over a larger area, and thus came to be considered and

treated as separate languages. But the propagators of Buddhism, who like all teachers of a new religion, addressed themselves to the lower or uneducated classes, soon raised this speech into importance. They wrote their religious works in it, and in the course of time it became their sacred language; but it is unknown in India as an independent tongue. From these passages in the Mahabhasya, therefore, it is clear that it is by no means true, as is generally supposed, that Sanskrit had ceased to be a spoken language when the Pali arose. The two varieties of speech existed side by side; but as education and culture retrograded, the number of Sanskrit speakers gradually decreased, and the lower variety went on spreading itself over a wider area and developed into the Prakrits.

This contemporaneous existence of the Sanskrit and Pali and the Prakrits as the spoken languages of two classes of the community explains, and is therefore confirmed by, several facts that we noticed before. If, when the Pali arose, Sanskrit became a dead language, it could not influence the grammar of the low dialects. Though words from a language that has ceased to be spoken may be adopted into a spoken dialect, the grammar remains intact. Even a living language if it is foreign, does not affect it. But we have seen that the gradual disappearance of verbal forms is a phenomenon common to both Sanskrit and Pali and that the latter derived some grammatical forms from the former, which did not possess when they were in the stage represented by the Pali. This could not have been the case if the two languages, Sanskrit and Pali, had not existed as two varieties of the vernaculars of a homogeneous community.

The fact that Sanskrit words are so greatly corrupted as to be difficult of recognition and are set down as Desyas by the native grammarians, while others can easily be traced to their original forms, also points to the same conclusion. Those that are greatly corrupted were early adopted into the language, and removed from subsequent influence. Most of the others, that exhibit only ordinary changes, are such as denote elementary notions, and must therefore have been adopted as early as those of the first sort. But, because they were such elementary words they were heard again and again in their original forms as used

by the higher classes; and thus a further corruption was prevented; and they exhibit only such changes as were necessitated by the vocal habits of the Prakrit speakers.

Another fact is the use of Sanskrit for the higher characters in the plays, and Prakrit for women and the lower ones. This supposes that when the idea first originated, and for a considerable period subsequent to it, though not afterwards—when dramatic plays were written more according to rule than with a View to exhibit any existing state of things—women and persons in a low condition could understand Sanskrit, but not speak it. It was the same with Sanskrit then, as it is with Marathi, for instance, now. A CitpSvanl or Malvani woman speaks in her own dialect when conversing with an educated Marathi but understands the standard Marathi that he uses, though she cannot speak it herself. And this is the case everywhere; a person in a low condition understands what is said to him by one belonging to the higher classes, but cannot himself speak like him, and must use his own variety of the language. Thus then at the time when the earliest Sanskrit dramatic plays were written, that language must have been in vernacular use to such an extent as to be intelligible to uneducated persons. And that educated dramatic characters do actually speak it, shows that those whom they represent used it in real life. Again, the dramas were composed to entertain an audience, and were actually acted. If the audience did not understand Sanskrit, as well as Prakrit, the poet defeated his own purpose by making some of his characters speak in that language.

Sanskrit went on gradually losing ground, the number of those who speak it grew smaller and smaller, and after a time it ceased to be used by anybody for the ordinary concerns of life, though even now Paṇḍits carry on their disputations in it. But at all times it has been acting the parent to the vernaculars and adorning and enriching them. The ancient Prakrits borrowed everything from it when it was in vernacular use; but the modern Prakrits mostly adopt such words as express abstract notions. There is, however, an apparent difference in the manner in which the borrowed words were treated by the Prakrits, and are treated by the modern dialects. A Sanskrit word when used by

a Prakrit-speaking person was changed according to his habits of pronunciation; but in modern times it is preserved in a state of purity. This, however, is due to the fact that in modern times the educated classes as well as their uneducated brethren, speak the vernaculars, and it is the former that pronounce the word properly. But the latter, and often women belonging to the former, corrupt it. Now the Prakrit was, as I have shown, for a long time the language of precisely these persons. It is their pronunciation that is recorded by the Prakrit grammarians and poets. In some provinces in modern times, even the higher classes mispronounce the Sanskrit words adopted into the vernaculars, and also in reading Sanskrit books. But in the printed books the correct orthography is used.

As I have observed in a previous lecture and at the beginning of this, some of the vocal habits of the Prakrit speakers have come down to their modern descendants; but not all. The lapse of time and other causes have generated other peculiarities. Hence a Sanskrit word in these days is not corrupted in exactly the same way as in ancient times; and thus we get what are called modern Tadbhavas. thus, then, as the Sindhi and Bengali cannot but pronounce Sanskrit मोक्ष as मोक्ख, and the Hindustani as मोछ, or the average Gujarati, the Sanskrit मोन as मोन, and जैन as जैन, so did his old Prakrit ancestors.

It should be borne in mind that the Prakrit corruption of Sanskrit words were not necessarily caused by their continual use for a number of ages, but were due in a good many cases to the vocal peculiarities of the men that used them. Most of those words that represent only the ordinary changes are words of this class; i. e. the corruptions simply represent, as I have above observed, the transformation which they underwent in the mouth of a Prakrit speaker. At all times Sanskrit words have been coming into the popular languages; but in old times they were pronounced in a manner natural to the men of those times, and thus became Prakrit words; and now they are pronounced in some cases in the same manner, but in a great many in another, and thus they become modern Tadbhavas; while the educated classes often, though not always, pronounce them correctly, and

thus we have modern Tatsamas. This is the way to account for the fact that there are so many pure Sanskrit words in our vernaculars, while there were but a few in the old Prakrits ; and we need not connect their introduction with the expulsion of Buddhism and the selfish schemes of the Brahmans, with which it has nothing to do, as is done by one writer.

We will now try to form some idea of the chronology and historical causes of the several linguistic changes we have noticed. The Later or Classical Sanskrit is in the same phonetic condition as the Vedic dialect from which it sprang; and it was for a long succession of centuries, spoken by the Indian Aryans. If it was so, the corruptions observable in the other variety of speech or low Sanskrit, as it may be called, must have been due to the vocal peculiarities of another race than that which elaborated the Classical from the Vedic Sanskrit. The universal assimilation of conjunct consonants which we observe in the Pali could not have proceeded from the same community that could speak Sanskrit with purity. And such an extensive assimilation we find in the Italian, which was formed out of the Latin spoken by the lower classes of the ancient Roman population by the barbarian races that overran the country. As remarked in the opening lecture, phonetic corruption is rapid and extensive when one race learns and adopts the language of another. The Pali corruptions, therefore, represent the manner in which a foreign race pronounced the Sanskrit of the Aryans. And from such history as we can glean from Sanskrit Literature, we know that the Aryan race when it emigrated to India came in contact with other races*. After a time some of these were incorporated into the Aryan community, and formed its fourth order; known by the name of Śūdras. As long as these Śūdras were in thoroughly degraded condition and remained distinct from the other three orders, their speech produced no perceptible effect on that of the latter. But after a time this order began to mingle with the rest, principally by means of inter-marriages, which must have extensively taken place, since some Smṛtis or Indian law-books allow them under certain circumstances and others prohibit them; so that the orthodox belief of learned Pandits at the present day is that the ksatriya and Vaisya orders do not exist, and that all those who

are not Brahmans are Sudras. But there are indications that even Brahmanhood did not escape pollution. As this combination proceeded, the Śūdra corruptions of the language came into prominence, and after a time such a language as Pali became the ordinary speech of the uneducated. By the time of Asoka, we may suppose, the so-called Asistā or uneducated people, who spoke that incorrect, or corrupt language, comprehended among them the * greater portion of the military, trading, and cultivating classes. Professor Childers is of opinion that there are no Desya or non-Aryan words in the Pali. But the Prakrits do possess some at least ; and you will remember that they exhibit other phonetic changes of which the chief is the elision of consonants. Up to the time of Asoka and even to that of Patanjali, these phenomena are not observable in the popular speech, though they may have existed in the speech of the very lowest classes. It, therefore, appears that, when this amalgamated community, with Sanskrit and Pali as the two forms of speech prevailing among the higher and the lower classes, spread over different parts of Northern India from the Himalayas to the southern confines of the Maratha country, they came in contact in the provinces with other races Which led to the further corruptions we have been speaking of ; and thus the Prakrits were formed. These new races while they adopted the language of the conquerors gave them a few of their own words.

patanjali lived in the middle of the second century before Christ and king Aśoka in the middle of the third. Between Patanjali and Katyayana a petty long time must have elapsed, since in the Mahabhasya various readings or emendations in a few cases of the Vartikas of the latter are noticed and sometimes their interpretations as given by other writers ; so that a sort of literature must have grown round the Vartikas. I am, therefore, inclined to accept the popular tradition which refers Katyayana to the period of the Nandas, i.e., to about the first quarter of the fourth century before Christ. Now we have seen that in the time of this grammarian the Sanskrit language assumed a different form from that it had in that of Paṇini; and by the time of Patanjali very great reverence had come to be paid to this last author. For in giving the uses of grammar, the author

of the Mahabhasya says that it is the duty of a Brahmana to study the Vedas along with their Angas or illustrative Sastras; and Of the six Angas grammar is the chief. Patanjali is not likely to yield this honour to any other than Panini's grammar To account for these and some of the other circumstances noticed by Dr. Goldstucker, we must place panini about four centuries before Katyayana, i.e. refer him to about the 8th century before Christ. Yaska must have flourished a short time before him. Though the Pali or an idiom very close to it was the language of the uneducated closes in the times of Katyana, Asoka, and Patanjali, still its formation must be dated some centuries earlier since in its verb it represents what I have called Middle Sanskrit Or the Sanskrit of Yaska and Panini. Yaska noticed only varieties of Sanskrit words and gives one, or two instances, but makes no allusion to any Apabhramsas or corruptions, though, from the nature of his work he may be expected to do so; while katyayana and Patanjali mention them frequently, as we have seen. Even, if they existed in his time, therefore, they must have been insignificant and unimportant, and did not enter into the speech of any class of the Aryan society to any appreciable extent. After his time, however, i.e. about the seventh or sixth century Bthe elaboration of the Pali; or Low Sanskrit as it might be called, began in a decided manner; and the language continued to be spoken up to the time of patanjali. Till then it did not specifically assume a Prakrit form though in the Inscriptions of Asoka, some of the characteristics of a late Prakrit, the Magadhi, were developed, as we have seen, in one province, very likely Magadha itself.

The Bhi. Prakrits-must have begun to be formed about that time, but did not then attain any distinctive character; and the Vernacular speech probably did not finally leave the pali stage till a very long time afterwards About the time when the

Inscriptions in the cave-temples were composed, the pali was

as I have stated, a sacred and literary language. The longer and more important of the Inscriptions are therefore in that language But in a good many of the shorter Inscriptions, especially of private individuals, we have words exhibiting Prakrit characteristics.

1 Such are कलाभोजस for कालभोजस, पशुनिकास for पशुनिकायाः, महाभोजस for महाभोजस, मयन for मयन, वेदिका for वेदिका, पत्रिक for पत्रिक &c.

The growth of the specific Prakrits, therefore, must be referred to the early centuries of the Christian era; and we may therefore infer that about the time our first dramatic plays were written they were actually the spoken dialects of those classes of the people whose representatives use them in those works,

About the sixth or seventh century the Apabhramsa was developed in the country in which the Brajbhasā prevails in modern times; or, if the speeches in that dialect contained in the fourth act of the Vikramorvasiya were really composed by Kalidasa* which, as remarked in a former lecture, we have the gravest reasons for doubting, its growth must be assigned to a somewhat earlier period. Dandin mentions the Apabhramsa, and a good many verses from his Kavyadarsa are found in Vamana's Alamkaravrtti; and if this be the same Vamana that lived at the court of Jayapida, king of Kashmir, who reigned from 751 A. C. to 782 A. C., Dandin must have flourished before the eighth century.

The Modern vernaculars seem to have begun to assume a distinctive character about the tenth century. In the Copper plate Inscription containing the name of Bhaskaracarya, dated 1128 Saka or 1206 A. C., which I once mentioned before, Marathi appears in its specific character, and so also does Hindi in the work of Cand. who flourished about the same time.

And now, gentlemen, I close. It was impossible in the course of these lectures to do justice to the subject without matters which are not interesting, except to those who have already paid some attention to it. Besides, the subject was wide and I was compelled to compress a great many facts into a small space, but in spite of this, and though I frequently omitted large portions of what I had written, these lectures were long and tedious. I am, therefore, obliged to you for the honour you have done me by your presence here, notwithstanding these drawbacks, and my thanks are specially due to those who have attended the course throughout.

LIST OF ABBREVIATIONS

Abl.=Ablative	Neut.= Neuter
AbsoL=Absolute	Nom.=Nominative
Acc. = Accusative	O. = Oriya or Oriya
Ait.=Aitareya	Obl.=Oblique
Ap., Apabhr., Apbhr., Apbr. = Apabhramsa	P. = Panjabi or Panjabi
Atli. Pr.=AtharvaPrātisakhya	Pāṇ. = Pāṇini
Ātm. = Atmanepada	Parasm.=Parasmaipada
B. = Bengali	Part. = Participle
Brāh. = Brāhmana	Per. or Pers.=Person
Cit. = Citpavani	Pl.=Plural
Corp. Insc. Ind.=Corpus Inscrip- tionum Indicarum	Pot. = Potential.
Dat. = Dative	P. p. p. = Past Passive Participle
Dh. = Dbauli	Pr. = Prakrit
Dial. = Dialect	Pres.= Present
Fern. = Feminine	Pūrva. = Pūrvapakṣin
G., Guj. = Gujarati	Rv. = Rgveda
Gen.=Genitive	S. = Sindhi or Sindhi
Goan.=Goanese	Saṁh. = Sarhhitā
II. = Hindi	Śat. = Śatapatha
Imper.=Imperati ve	Saur.=Saurasenl
Ind. St.Indiscbe Studien	Sid. = Siddhāntin
Instr. =Instrumental	Sing. = Singular
Intr.=Intransitive	Sk.= Sanskrit
Jrian.=Jnanesvari	St.=Standard
Karh. = Karhādā or Karhada	Tad.=Tadbhava
Kh. = Khalsi	Tait.=Taittiriya
Loc.=Locative	Term.=Termination
M., Mar. = Marathi or Marathi	Tr.=Transitive
Mab., Mahr. = Maharastri	Tulasi. = Tulasidā, Tulśidāsa or Tulsidāsa
Mal. = Malvani or Malvani	Vāj. Pr.=Vājasaneyi Prātisā- khyā
Masc.=Masculine	Voc.= Vocative
Mod.=Modern	

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