## Now, note the following Sanskrit verb-roots,

## and keep their meaning in mind so that you can use their

 forms in the sentences of the present tense:Kath (P.)=to tell;kathayati.
$K^{1} \mathrm{~s}(,)=$. to cough; $\mathrm{K}^{1}$ sate. Kamp ( . .) = to tremble; kampate.
Kord ( $\quad$ )
Krd (. .) = to jump; kurdate. $K \AA(U)=$ to do; karoti/ kurute.
Khan $(U)=$ to dig; khanati/khanate. Gam (P.)=to go; gacchati.
$G a \mathfrak{a}=(p$.$) to count; gaa ayati, \operatorname{Garj}(P)=$ to roar; garjati.
Gai (P.) = to sing; g1 yati. $\quad G h A ̊ \neg(P)=$. to rub; ghÅ_ati.
$\operatorname{Car}(\mathrm{P})=$. to walk; carati. Chal (P.)=to deceive; chalayati. $\mathrm{Ci}(,)=$. to collect; cinute Cyu (. .) = to drop down; cyavate.
Jan $(,)=$. to be born; j1 yate. J alp (P.)= to prattle; jalpati.
$J »(P)=$, to live; j>vati. $\quad »>(,)=$. to fly; ©ayate.
$\operatorname{Tan}(U)=$ to spread; tanoti/tanute. $\quad D^{11}(P)=$. to give; dad ${ }^{1}$ ti.
$\operatorname{Tak} \neg(P)=$. to cut; tak-ati. Day (. .) to take pity; datyate.
D»p ( . . = shines; dipyate. $\quad \mathrm{Du} \neg(\mathrm{P})=$. to be impure; du-yati.
DÅh (P.) = to hate; druhyati. $\quad D^{1}(,)=$. to wear; dhatte.
$\operatorname{Nam}(P)=$. to bend; namati.
$P^{1}(P)=$. to protect; $p^{1}$ ti.
$P^{1}(P)=$. to drink; pibati.
$\mathrm{B}^{1} \mathrm{dh}()=$. to hinder; $\mathrm{b}^{1}$ dhate. Bukk $(\mathrm{P})=$. to bark; bukkati.
Budh (, .) = to know; budhyate. Bhak $\neg(P)=$. to eat; bhak-ayati.
$B h^{1} \neg(,)=$. to speak; bh ${ }^{1}$-ate. $\quad$ Bhrasj $(P)=$. to bake; bh $\AA$ ijati.
Bhra, If (, .) = to slip; bhra, Ilate. Man (. .) = to think; manyate.
Manth $(P)=$. to churn; mathn ${ }^{1}$ ti. $\quad \mathrm{Masj}(P)=$. to sink; majjati.
Murch $(P)=$. to faint; mØrcchati. $M \AA(,)=$. to die; mriyate.
Yam (P.) = to check; yacchati. $\quad Y^{1} c()=$. to beg; $y^{1}$ cate.
Rac (P.) = to make; racayati. Ram (. .)=to rejoice; ramate.
$\mathrm{R}^{1} \mathrm{j}(.)=$. to shine; $\mathrm{r}^{1}$ jate. $\quad$ Labh $()=$. to get; labhate.
Laigh (. .) = to cross; laighate. $\operatorname{Vad}(P)=$. to say; vadati. $\operatorname{Vid}(P)=$. to know; vetti.
~ak $(P)=$ to be able; Taknoti.
( ) (P)
$(,)=$. to learn; ${ }^{\sim}$ ik ate. $\quad \sim »(,)=$. to sleep; ${ }^{\sim}$ ete.
$S \geqslant(P)=$. to sew; $s \geqslant y y a t i . \quad \operatorname{Sev}(,)=$. to serve; sevate.
Han $(P)=$. to kill; hanti.
$H^{1}(P)=$. to abandon; jah ${ }^{1}$ ti.
$H \AA(U)=$. to take away; harati/harate.

## LESSON 1

## Speech Sounds and Utterance

Sanskrit is pronounced accordingly as it is written, and no sound is dropped while uttering its written word, as is common practice on the contrary in the spoken modern Indian Ianguages like the Gujar ${ }^{1}$ t», and others. It is very important that while speaking Sanskrit all the syllables should be pronounced correctly, since normally the consonants when not marked with a slanting stroke under it which indicates the absence of the vowel 'a' normally included in it, and which has to be uttered clearly with it. The long vowels should be uttered as long, and the short ones as short very carefully. The vowel 'A' and ‘ð being peculiar to Sanskrit, should be uttered properly. Similarly, one should learn the correct utterance of the three sibilants in view of their being dental, palatal or retroflex. The final $m$ ', of a word, whether changed as the Anusv ${ }^{1}$ ra or not, should be clearly uttered as a sort of the vibrations following the ringing of a bell. The Visarga, written like a colon (:), after a Sanskrit syllable is to be uttered as a sort of a hissing sound, in the process of leaving off the breath, almost like $h^{\prime}$, coloured by the proding vowel. One may fruitfully and successfully learn the correct method of Sanskrit pronunciation from a Sanskrit scholar, preferably a South Indian, or a Maharashtrian.

## Read the following words loudly:

annam=food; ${ }^{1}$ mraå = mango; ik-uå = sugarcane; »|aå = God;
 ekaå= one; aikyam = unity; 0~haå = lip; au-a yam = heat a, ๆuå=ray; karaå = hand; kharaå = ass; gajaå = elephant; gha-aå = pitcher; uda $\mathbf{i}=$ north; camøå = army; chadiå = roof; jalam = water; jha-aå = fish; cañcuå = beak; -i--ibhaå = sandpiper; la-haå = rogue; gu @aå = jaggery; dÅChaå = firm; phaa 1 = hood; taruå = tree; rathaå = chariot; dadhiå = yoghurt, curds; dhanuå =bow; naraå = man; paluå = beast; phalam =fruit; bakaå = crane; bha-aå= soldier; manaå = mind; yavaå = bar-

In the vocabulary listed above, we find the Sanskrit vowel sounds, such as a, ${ }^{1}$. i, », u, $\varnothing, \AA$ ठ, e, ai, o, au, consonants like $k$, kh, g, ga, c, ch, j, jh, - , -h, © © , , t, th. d, dh, n, p, ph, b, bh, m, $\mathrm{y}, \mathrm{r}, \mathrm{l}, \mathrm{v}, \mathrm{q}, 7 \mathrm{~s}, \mathrm{~h}$, respectively, by way of a specimen of each one of them occurring either initially or in the middle position. Over and above these, there are in Sanskrit in all the five nasal sounds $i, n ̃, a, n$ and $m$, and two more sounds , (known as anusv ${ }^{1}$ ra) and å (known as visarga).

It is not possible to utter a consonant (e.g. k) without the help of some vowel or other (e,g, ka, $k^{1}, ~ k i, k »$ ku. Kø, kA kđ ke kai, ko, kau, ka, , kaå). In view of this fact the Devan ${ }^{1}$ gar», like other Indian scripts, is syllabary. In it a symbol stands for a syllable rather than a phoneme (e.g. k, g, c. ch) as in European alphabets. The consonants without the vowels are shown in it in such a way as to incorporate the vowel 'a' in the character itself. The unmodified sign for consonants, i.e., for stops, semivowels, sibilants, and h, signifies the consonant followed by the final a. The signs for the vowels and diphthongs are used independently only when the vowel or diphthong is initial. If the vowel or diphthong follows a consonant, the sign for the consonant is modified, much in the same way as the mouth organs of pronunciation in the mouth are modified for uttering them.

Adding a slanting stroke under its character indicates a single consonant not followed by any vowel. More than one consonant occurring one after another continuously can combine with the help of a vowel, resulting in a conjunct consonant. For instance, kta, ktva, kya, kra, kla, kva, k-a, gga, gda, gdha, gna, gma, and etc. When two or more consonants come together, their signs coalesce into one unit by ligature in the Devan ${ }^{1}$ gar» script invariably written with a horizontal frame over the first single sign, and the other single vowel, making them a single syllable. In a ligature the previous members of the conjunct consonants are written under the last one, and all of them are followed by a
memorizing a particular root and its meaning, one should also in
(bhavati) its present tense third person singular form, as for example bhØ = to bacome; ad (atti) = to eat; div (divyati) = to gamble; $b h^{1} \neg\left(b h^{1}\right.$-ate) $=$ to speak; kamp (kampate) $=$ trembles; ©> (@yate) $=$ flies. $\mathbf{r}^{1} \mathbf{j}\left(\mathbf{r}^{1}\right.$ jate) $=$ shines.

When the subject of an action is one, or two, or more than two, the verb is used in singular, dual and plural, respectively. Similarly, when the subject of an action is in the first, second or the third person, the verb too is used in those respective persons. Traditionally, the manner of reciting the tables of the verb forms is in the order of the third, second and the first persons, with singular, dual and plural of each person. Thus in every tense or mood, each root has nine forms, according to the persons and numbers concerned.

## Recite aloud the following tabulated verb forms, keeping in mind the corresponding modification in their meanings:

| The root bhy (1. p.) = to become.Present Tense |  |
| :---: | :---: |
|  |  |
| Singular bhavati | DualbhavataåPlural <br> bhavanti |
| $=(\mathrm{He})$ becomes. bhavasi | $\begin{aligned} &= \text { (They both) become. = } \\ & \text { (They all) become. } \\ & \text { bhavathaå } \end{aligned}$ |
| $=$ (Thou) becomest. bhav ${ }^{1} \mathbf{~ m i}$ <br> = (I) become. | $\begin{aligned} &=(\text { You two }) \text { become. }= \\ & \text { bhav }{ }^{1} \text { vaå } \text { They all) become. } \\ & \text { bhav }{ }^{1} \text { maå } \\ &=(\text { We both }) \text { become. }= \\ &=(\text { We all }) \text { become. } . \end{aligned}$ |
| The root $\mathrm{bh}^{\mathbf{1}}$ ᄀ(1. $\left.{ }^{1}.\right)=$ to speak. |  |
| Present Tense |  |
| bh ${ }^{1}$-ate $=(\mathrm{He})$ speaks. bh $^{1}$-ase |  |
| $=\text { (Thou) speakest. }$ $b^{1}-e$ | $\begin{array}{ll} =(\text { You both }) \text { speak, } & =(\text { you all }) \text { speak. } \\ \text { bh } \end{array}$ |
| $=$ (I) speak. | $=($ We both $)$ speak. $=$ ( We all) speak. |

In the sixth root-class Tud ${ }^{1}$ di the vikarana affix -a- is added after the root and no modification takes place before the application of the terminations, as, for example in tud+a+ti = tudati.

In the seventh root-class Rudh ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}$ di the vikarana affix -nais added after the initial vowel of the root, before the application of the terminations, as for instance, in $\mathbf{r u}+\mathbf{n a}+\mathbf{d h}+\mathbf{t i}=\mathbf{r u + a} \mathbf{a}+\mathbf{d}+\mathbf{d h i}=\mathbf{r u a} \mathbf{a d d h i}$, wherein the rules of consonantal coalescence have also operated.

In the eighth root-class Tan $^{1}$ di the vikarana affix -u- is added and is replaced by its gua a in strong forms, as for example in $\boldsymbol{\operatorname { t a n }}+\mathbf{u}+\mathbf{t i}=\boldsymbol{\operatorname { t a n }}+\mathbf{0}+\mathbf{t i}=\boldsymbol{\operatorname { t a n }} \mathbf{t i}$.

In the ninth root-class $\mathbf{K r y}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{d i}$ the vikarana affix - $\mathbf{n}^{\mathbf{1}}$ - is added after the initial vowel of the root, before the application of the terminations, as for instance in $\mathbf{k r} \boldsymbol{+} \mathbf{n}^{\mathbf{1}}+\mathbf{t i}=\mathbf{k r i} \mathbf{+} \mathbf{a}^{\mathbf{1}}+\mathbf{t i}$ $=\mathbf{k r i}^{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{t i}$, as per the rules of consonantal coalescence.

In the tenth root-class Cur ${ }^{1}$ di the vikarana affix aya- is added and is final or penultimate vowel replaced by its gua a, as for example in cur+aya+ti=cor+aya+ti=corayati.

Now, as regards the classification of the roots of all the root-classes as Parasmai-pada, i.e., transitive, or, tmane-pada, i.e., intransitive, or Ubhaya-pada, i.e., both transitive as well as intransitive. This has been recorded by $\mathrm{P}^{1 a}$ ini in his $\mathrm{Dh}^{1}$ tu-p ${ }^{1}$-ha in the case of every root or a group of them in classwise list of the roots, as per the current linguistic usage during his days, and it has been generally held to be the standard classical norm. The termination applied to a root in the parasmai-pada and the ${ }^{1}$ tmane-pada modes are slightly different, while in the case of the ubhaya-pada mode both types of terminations are found to be applied to the concerned root alternatively.

In order to guess as to what root-class and which mode
$\mathbf{k A ̊ - a t i ~ = ~ p u l l s ; ~ k h a n a t i ~ = ~ d i g s ; ~ g a l a t i ~ = ~ d r i p s ; ~ g h u - a t i ~ = ~ r e s i s t s ; ~}$ calati = walks; spÅ|lati = touches; japati = mutters; jayati = wins; jvalati = burns; tapati = gets hot; diflati = shows; dharati $=$ holds; nayati = leads; pacati = cooks; patati =falls; phalati = bears fruit; badhn ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}$ ti = binds; bhavati = becomes; milati = meets; yajati = worships; ra-ati = crams; likhati = writes; lagati = adheres; lu-hati = wallows; vadati =speaks; vasati = resides; vahati = carries; vi $\uparrow \mathbf{a t i}=$ enters; $\boldsymbol{\|} \mathbf{a}$, sati=tells; sarati = crowls; smarati = remembers; s $\AA$ jati = creates; harati = takes away; hasati $=$ laughs.

In these words, too, the sounds of the Sanskrit alphabet are illustrated serially. And, it should be noted that the last syllable in all these words is 'ti '. Now repeat these words loudly at least five times each along with their meanings, so that with each utterance the meaning thereof immediately dawns in the mind.

Each of the words, like karaå, kharaå, etc., in the first list connote some thing, bird, beast, tree, direction, limb, and etc. Such words are the known as nouns, and are called $\mathrm{N}^{1}$ ma or Sa, jñ ${ }^{1}$ by $\mathrm{P}^{1 a}$ ini.

Each of the words in the second list, like k $\AA$-ati, khanati, etc., connotes some action, like pulling, digging, and etc. and are known as verbs. Such words are called, khy ${ }^{1}$ ta or Kriy ${ }^{1}$ pada in the $\mathrm{P}^{1} \underline{a}$ inian system.

Each of the words in the second list, like kÅ-ati, khanati, etc., connotes some action, like pulling, digging, and etc. and are known as verbs. Such words are called, khy ${ }^{1}$ ta or Kriy ${ }^{1}$ pada in the $\mathrm{P}^{1} \mathfrak{a}$ inian system.

When a noun is used as a subject along with a verb, denoting the performance of any action, it becomes a sentence, and is called $V^{1}$ kya by $\mathrm{P}^{1} \mathrm{a} \mathrm{ini}$. Since in Sanskrit the terminations applied to the verbs convey the person and the number too, the subject of a sentence may be just implied, and not actually used
as such, as for instance calati and others in the list mentioned above. Even then it is considered to be a sentence with the subject understood.

## Read the following sentences aloud along with their meanings:

Gantr» gacchati = A vehicle goes. Agre gacchati = It goes ahead. $\mathbf{P A}-h e$ gacchati $=$ It goes at the back. Uccaiå gacchati $=$ It goes up. N»caiå gacchati = It goes down. Manda, gacchati $=$ It goes slowly. " ,ghra, gacchati = It goes fast. Vakra, gacchati = It goes zigzag. Sarala, gacchati $=$ It goes straight.

The words agre, $\mathrm{p} \AA \uparrow$ he, uccaiå, nicaiå, mandam, plxghram, vakram and saralam used in the above sentences are such as are utilized in the Sanskrit language without any modification. Being indeclinable, they are known as Avyaya, i.e. non-modifying.

> Read the following sentences aloud along with their meanings,
> and write than down in your notebook:
> Karaå dharati = Hand holds. Gajaå calati = Elephant walks. Chadiå patati = Roof falls. Jha-aå tarati = Fish swims. Pa-aà spÅAlati = Cloth touches. Naraà pacati = Man cooks. Paquà carati = Animal grazes (or, moves about). V\&\&-aà phalati = Tree bears fruits. Kharaå lu-hati = Ass wallows. Sakh ${ }^{1}$ smarati = Friend remembers. Halaå $k \AA$ A-ati $=$ Plough tills.

The words like Aham (= I), Tvam (= Thou), Saå or E-aå (= he). $\mathrm{S}^{1}$ or $\mathrm{E}-(=$ She), Tat or Etat $(=\mathrm{It})$ and others are used in the same manner to speak about one's own self, about the second person, i.e., the one present directly before us, and about a man, woman or a thing belonging to other than both of the above category, respectively. In English we call them the first person, the second person and the third person, respectively, with reference to the use of different forms of verb with them. Such words are called pronouns in English. In Sanskrit they are called Sarva- $\mathrm{n}^{1} \mathrm{ma}$, because they can be used in lieu of all the nouns.
(8) $\operatorname{Tan}^{1} \mathbf{d i - g a} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}=$ the eighth root-class beginning with the root tan.
(9) $\mathrm{Kry}^{1} \mathbf{d i}-\mathrm{ga} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}=$ the ninth root-class beginning with the root kr»
(10) Cur ${ }^{1} \mathbf{d i}-\mathrm{ga} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a}=$ the tenth root-class beginning with the root cur.

Each of these ten root-classes has its own independent conjugational affix (vikara a-pratyaya) which is attached to it prior to the termination of the tense, mood, person and number while conjugating its different forms in accordance with the meaning of the root sought to be expressed.

The vikara ${ }^{\text {a }}$ a affix of the first root-class $\mathbf{B h v}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{d i}$ is $\mathbf{- a}$-, which when applied replaces the final or penultimate vowel by its $\mathbf{g u a} \mathbf{a}$ substitute. The $\mathbf{g u} \mathbf{a}$ a substitute of the vowel $\mathbf{i}$ or » is $\mathbf{e}$, of $\mathbf{u}$ or $\boldsymbol{\varnothing}$ is $\mathbf{0}$, of $\AA$ is ar and of $\boldsymbol{\varnothing}$ is al. Thus, when the vikara a affix -a- of the first root-class applied to the root bhø, the final $\varnothing$ is replace by its gua modification $-\mathbf{o}$, thus changing bhu into bho. Thus, e.g., bho $+a+t i=b h a v+a+t i=$ bhavati.

The second root-class $\mathbf{A d}^{1}$ di has no vikara $a$ affix, and the terminations of tense, mood, person and number are affixed directly to the root, as for instance in $\mathbf{a d}+\mathbf{t i}=\mathbf{a t}+\mathbf{t i}=\mathbf{a t t i}$.

In the third root-class Juhoty ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{d i}$, the vikarana affix -ais added after the root, the initial consonant of the root is reduplicated and replaced, as for instance $\mathbf{h} \boldsymbol{\sigma}+\mathbf{a}+\mathbf{t i}=\mathbf{h u} \mathbf{h u}+\mathbf{a}+\mathbf{t i}$ $=j u+h u+a+t i=j u+h o+t i+j u h o t i$.

In the fourth root-class Div ${ }^{1}$ di the vikarana affix -ya- is added to the root before the terminations, as for instance in div+ ya+ti $=$ divyati.

In the fifth root-class $\mathbf{S v}^{1}$ di the vikara ${ }^{\underline{a}}$ a affix -nu- is added to the root before terminations, and the final vowel of the affix is replaced by its gua a in strong forms, as for instance in su+nu+ti $=\mathbf{s u}+\mathbf{n o}+\mathbf{t i}=$ sunoti.
jug) jala, pibati. Manu-yaå kiyat-paryanta, (= how long) krıCati ? $\mathbf{Y}^{\mathbf{1}}$ vat (= as long as) bilå $\mathbf{t}^{\mathbf{1}}$ vat (= so long). VÅddhaå janaå kıdÅflaå (= what sort of / what kind of) bhavati ? Saå cint $^{1}$-magnaå ( $=$ engrossed in anxiety) bhavati. Yuva-janaå katha, (= how / what sort of) bhavati ? Yuva-janaå uts ${ }^{1}$ hayuktaå (= full of enthusiasm) bhavati. So far we have learnt stray Sanskrit sentences that may be useful in casual conversation.

## Now, let us try to get deeper understanding about the Sanskrit verbs.

Ancient Sanskrit grammarians like $\mathrm{P}^{1}$ a ini have analyzed the Sanskrit verbs and separated their two or more components, as for instance: bhavati = bhØ (bho) $+\mathbf{a}+\mathbf{t i}$; divyati $=$ $\operatorname{div}(d \geqslant v)+y a+t i ; ~ t u d a t i=t u d+a+t i ; ~ c o r a y a t i=c u r(c o r)$ + aya + ti.

In this analysis the component bhб-, div-, tud- or curis the $d^{1} t u$, i.e., root. The medial -a-, -ya-, -a- or -aya- are the gaa a-vikaraa a, i.e., conjugational affix of the root class. And, the component -ti is the pratyaya, i.e., conjugational termination (here that of the third person singular). As a result ofsuch an analysis $\mathrm{P}^{1} \underline{\mathrm{a}}$ ini has divided all the Sanskrit verbal roots into ten classes; and each class ( $=g a \mathfrak{a}$ a) is given the name of the on the basis of the starting root of the respective class. These ten classes are, thus, known by the following names:
(1) $\mathbf{B h v}{ }^{1} \mathbf{d i}-g a^{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a}=b h \varnothing+{ }^{1} \mathrm{di}+\mathrm{ga}^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{a}=$ the first root-class beginning with the root bhØ. Similarly,
(2) $\quad$ Ad ${ }^{1}$ di-ga ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a}=a d+{ }^{1} d i+g a \underline{a}=$ the second rootclass beginning with the root ad.
(3) Juhoty ${ }^{1}$ di-ga ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a}=$ the third root-class beginning with the root juhoti (i.e. hø with redupication).
(4) Div ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{d i}-\mathrm{gaa}^{\mathbf{a}}=$ the fourth root-class beginning with the root div.
(5) $\mathbf{S v}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{d i - g a} \mathbf{a}=$ the fifth root-class beginning with the root su.
(6) $\mathbf{T u d}^{1}{ }^{\mathbf{d i}}-\mathrm{ga}^{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a}=$ the sixth root-class beginning with the root tud.
(7) $\mathbf{R u d h}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{d i}-\mathbf{g a} \mathbf{a}=$ the seventh root-class beginning

Formulate new sentences mentally, by using the pronouns Saå/E-aå, $\mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{1}} / \mathbf{E}-$, and Tat along with all the verbs, like KÅ-ati, and others having the ti-ending mentioned in a the forgoing sentences, e.g. Saå khanati (= He digs); E-aå calati (= He walks); $\mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{1}}$ pacati (=She cooks); E-+ spÅflati (=She touches), Tat phalati $=$ (It bears fruit), and utter them loudly keeping in mind their respective meaning. Note that since the pronouns mentioned at the beginning of this paragraph belong to the third person, only the verbs with ti-ending can be used with them. This is the convention for their correct usage in Sanskrit.

## Pronounce the following verbs loudly

 along with their respective meaning:$\mathbf{k A ̊ - a s i}=($ You $)$ are tilling; khanasi $=(Y o u)$ are digging; galasi $=($ You $)$ are dripping; ghu-asi $=(Y o u)$ are resisting; calasi $=($ You $)$ are walking; spÅlasi $=(Y o u)$ are touching; japasi $=$ (You) are muttering; jayasi $=$ (You) are winning; jvalasi $=$ (You) are burning; tapasi $=(\mathrm{You})$ are getting hot; diflasi $=$ (You) are showing; dharasi $=(Y o u)$ are holding; nayasi - (You) are leading; pacasi $=(Y o u)$ are cooking; patasi $=(Y o u)$ are falling; badhn ${ }^{1}$ si $=$ (You) are binding; bhavasi $=(Y o u)$ are becoming; milasi $=($ You $)$ are meeting; yajasi $=($ You $)$ are sacrificing; ra-asi $=(Y o u)$ are cramming; likhasi $=$ (You) are writing; lagasi $=(Y o u)$ are adhering; lu-hasi $=(Y o u)$ are wallowing; vadasi $=($ You ) are speaking; vahasi $=$ (You) are carrying; vasasi $=(\mathrm{You})$ are residing; villasi $=(\mathrm{You})$ are entering; Ia, sasi $=$ (You) are telling; sarasi $=$ (You) are creeping; smarasi $=$ (You) are remembering; s^̊jasi $=($ You $)$ are creating; hasasi $=$ (You) are laughing; harasi $=(Y o u)$ are stealing or taking away.

The verbs in the above list have the si-endings, and they are used with "(You) are" denoting the second person, i.e., for speaking to the one other than our own self and present in front of us. This is the linguistic convention in Sanskrit.

Formulate new sentences with the Sanskrit pronoun Tvam (singular), by joining it with the verb forms in the above list, utter them aloud with their meanings, and write them down in your notebook e.g., Tva, $\mathbf{k} \AA$ A-asi $=$ You are tilling.

## Pronounce the following verbs loudly along with their respective meaning:

$\mathbf{k A}+\mathbf{m i}=$ (I) am tilling; $\mathbf{k h a n}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m i}=$ (I) am digging; gal ${ }^{1} \mathbf{~ m i}=(\mathrm{I})$ am dripping; cal ${ }^{1} \mathbf{~ m i}=(\mathrm{I})$ am walking; $\quad \mathbf{s p} \mathbb{A} \mathbb{\mathbb { P }} \mathbf{~ m i}=$ (I) am touching; jap ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m i}=(\mathrm{I})$ am muttering; jay $^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{~ m i}=(\mathrm{I}) \mathrm{am}$ winning; jval ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{~ m i}=(\mathrm{I})$ am burning; tap ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{~ m i}=$ (I) am getting hot; di $\mathbb{\mathbb { F }} \mathbf{~ m i}=(\mathrm{I})$ am showing; dhar ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{~ m i}=(\mathrm{I})$ am holding; nay ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{~ m i}$ $=\mathrm{I}$ am leading; $\mathbf{r a c}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{~ m i}=(\mathrm{I})$ am creating; pat ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m i}=(\mathrm{I}) \mathrm{am}$ falling; phal ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{~ m i}=(\mathrm{I})$ am bearing fruit; badhn ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{~ m i}=(\mathrm{I})$ am binding; bhav ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{~ m i}=(1)$ am becoming; $\mathbf{~ m i l}{ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{~ m i}=(1)$ am meeting; yaj $^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{~ m i}=(\mathrm{I})$ am sacrificing; $\mathbf{r a - 1} \mathbf{~ m i}=(\mathrm{I})$ am cramming; $\mathbf{l a g}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{~ m i}$ $=(\mathrm{I})$ am adhering; likh ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{~ m i =}$ (I) am writing; lu-h $\mathbf{h}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{~ m i}=(\mathrm{I}) \mathrm{am}$ wallowing; vad $^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{~ m i}=(\mathrm{I})$ am speaking; vas ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m i}=(\mathrm{I})$ am residing; $\mathbf{v i} \mathbb{T} \mathbf{~ m i}=(\mathrm{I})$ am entering; $\boldsymbol{q} \mathbf{a}, \mathbf{s}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{~ m i}=(\mathrm{I})$ am telling; sar ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{~ m i}$ = (I) am creeping; smar ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m i}=(\mathrm{I})$ am remembering; sah ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{~ m i}=$ (I) am tolerating; har ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{~ m i}=(\mathrm{I})$ am stealing or taking away.

In the above list only the verbs are mentioned and the subjects in the first person, i.e., aham, are implied or understood and not mentioned. Even then, in Sanskrit, they are practically the sentences. To make the subject specifically mentioned, one may use the pronoun aham and formulate the sentences by combining it with all the verbs in the above list, and utter them aloud recollecting their respective meanings. Thus, this pronoun is used with the verb having the ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m i}$-ending in Sanskrit when one speaks about one's own self, i.e., in the first person.

Thus, so far, we have come to know the singular forms of Sanskrit personal pronounces used with the third, second and the first persons, as also those of the Sanskrit verbs in the corresponding third, second and the first persons, respectively. It should be noted that for correct Sanskrit usage this linguistic convention that the subject and the verb in a Sanskrit sentence has to agree with one another in person and number, should always be duly observed.

In the $P^{1} \underline{a}$ inian system, the basic form of a word without any termination is called PrakAti in general, and that of a

In Sanskrit the pronouns kaå (m.) = who/ which (man), $\mathbf{k}^{\mathbf{1}}=$ who/ which (woman) and Kim (n.) what/ which being, and the indeclinable words kiyat = how much, kva $=$ where, kutra $=$ in which place, kutaå $=$ from where/ why, kati $=$ how many, kad ${ }^{1}=$ when, convey the sense of inquiry or interrogation.

## Read the following Sanskrit sentences aloud,

keeping their meanings in mind:
Kaå tvam $=$ Who are you? Ki, vadasi = What do you speak? K ${ }^{1}$ tvam = Who (women) are you? Kva gacchasi = Where are you going? $\mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{1}}$ kutaå ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}$ gacchati = Where does she come from? Kati $\mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{d i t}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{a}=$ How many strokes did (the clock) sound?/ What time is it? Tva, $\mathbf{k a d}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{~ k r} \gg$ ©asi $=$ At what time do you play? Kiyat m@lyam $=$ What is the price?

Keep in mind the following Sanskrit indeclinable words: yaå $(\mathbf{m})=$ which (man); $\mathbf{y}^{\mathbf{1}}=$ which (women/female); yad = which (thing/being; yatra $=$ where/ in which place; tatra $=$ there/ in that place; $\mathbf{y}^{\mathbf{1}}$ vat $=$ as much; $\mathbf{t}^{\mathbf{1}}$ vat $=$ so much; yath $^{\mathbf{1}}=$ just as/ in which manner; $\boldsymbol{t a t h}^{\mathbf{1}}=$ like that/in that manner; $\mathbf{y}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{d A ̊}$ $=$ like which; $\mathbf{t}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{d} \hat{\mathbb{A}} \boldsymbol{n}=$ like that/in that manner.

## The following indeclinable Sanskrit words are used very often:

api = also; atha = now, to start with; iti = that is all/ finished/ completed; iva = like/ similar to; eva = only/ emphatic sense; $\mathbf{c a}=$ and; $\mathbf{t u}=$ but/however.

## Read aloud, mentally trying to grasp their meanings, the following sentences, in which the above pronouns and indeclinable words are utilized:

Kamal ${ }^{1}$ ni kutra vikasanti (= bloom) ? Yatra jala, tatra sarovare (= in a lake). Gaj ${ }^{1}$ à katha, (=how/ in what manner) calanti ? Gaj $^{1}{ }^{\text {å manda, ( }}$ (=slowly) calanti. Tva, kad $^{\mathbf{1}}$ (=when/ at what time) $\mathbf{k h}^{1}$ dasi ? Yad ${ }^{1}$ (=when) bubhuk+ (=hunger) $\mathbf{b}^{1}$ dhate (=troubles) $\boldsymbol{t a d}^{\mathbf{1}}$ (= at that time/then). $\mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{1}}$ kiyat (= how much) jala, pibati ? S ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}$ kalaqa-pørab, (= jug-full / as would fill up a
${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{n i}$ in nominative plural. The pronoun Tat in masculine has the form of Saå in nominative singular, and $\mathbf{T e}$ in nominative plural; in feminine it has the form of $\mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{1}}$ in nominative singular, and of $\mathbf{T}^{\mathbf{1}}$ a in nominative plural; and in neuter it has the form Tat in nominative singular, and $\mathbf{T}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{n i}$ in nominative plural.

Here, it should also be marked that in the the non-declined base form (pr ${ }^{1}$ tipadika), the masculine nouns Gaja, Ratha, VÅ-abha, and the neuter nouns Kamala, and Jala end in -a ; they are known as $A k^{1} r^{1} n t a$. With the masculine nouns the case ending is -aå in nominative singular, while it is $\mathbf{- 1}^{\mathbf{1}}$ a in nominative plural. With the neuter nouns the case ending is am in nominative singular, and ${ }^{-1} \mathbf{n i}$ in nominative plural. The pronoun Tat in masculine has the form of Saå in nominative singular, and $\mathbf{T e}$ in nominative plural; in feminine it has the form of $\mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{1}}$ in nominative singular, and of $\mathbf{T}^{\mathbf{1}}$ à in nominative plural; and in neuter it has the form Tat in nominative singular, and $\mathbf{T}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{n i}$ in nominative plural.

## Note the change in the forms of verb <br> in singular and plural in the above sentences:

Vikasati, calati, dh ${ }^{1}$ vati, ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}$ ra-ati, pa-hati, likhati and patati are verbs in the above sentences, and are in third person singular forms having the -ti ending; while the forms in the third person plural have the -nti ending., gacchasi is in the second person singular having the -si ending; while the plural has the -tha ending. And gacch ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{~ m i}$ is in first person singular having the $-\mathbf{m i}$ ending; while the plural has the -maå ending in the above sentences. The basic form of a verb shorn off is conjugational terminations is called $\mathbf{D h}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{t u}$, by $\mathrm{P}^{1} \mathfrak{i}$ ini, as for instance vi-kas, cal, $\mathbf{v A ̊}_{\boldsymbol{\prime}} \mathbf{d h}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{v}^{1}{ }^{\mathbf{1}}$-ra-, gam (= gacch), ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}$-gaccgh, pa-h, likh, pat are the roots (dh ${ }^{1}$ tus); and the syllables vi- and ${ }^{1}$ - prefixed in the case of some of them are the prepositions. The -ti and other endings are the parasmai-pada terminations of the respective persons and numbers in the present tense. This type of usage and modification of the roots in accordance with the relevant tense, person and number is called conjugation.
bereft of any termination is called verb $\mathbf{P r}^{\mathbf{1}}$ tipadika, and that of a verb as such is called $\mathbf{D h}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{t u}$ (=root). The third, the second and the first persons are called the Prathama Puru-a, the Madyama Puru-a, and the Uttama Puru-a, respectively, and the tables of the verbal forms are mentioned in the same order, as for instance, calati, calasi, cal ${ }^{1} \mathrm{mi}$ in singular number.

For one thing, for two things and for three and more things, the nouns and verbs in the corresponding singular, dual and plural number (vacana) are to be used in a Sanskrit sentence. These numbers are called Eka-vacana, Dvi-vacana, Bahuvacana, respectively.

## Read the following nouns with their meanings aloud, and note the ligatures of conjunct consonants in them:

cikkaa aå $(k+k)=$ greasy; Iu-kaå $(-+k)=$ dry; taskaraå $(\mathrm{s}+\mathrm{k})=$ thief; udgamaå $(\mathrm{d}+\mathrm{g})=$ birth; valg¹ $(\mathrm{l}+\mathrm{g})=$ rein; uccaå $(c+c)=$ high; niqcayaå $(\mathbb{q}+c)=$ determination; tuccham ( $c+c h$ ) = insignificant; kajjalam ( $j+\mathrm{j}$ ) = collyrium; abjam ( $b+\mathrm{j}$ ) = lotus; ujjhitam $(j=j h)=$ given up; $\mathbf{y}^{\mathbf{1}} \tilde{\mathbf{n}}^{\mathbf{1}} \quad(\tilde{n}+c)=$ supplication; j $\tilde{n}^{1}$ nam $(j+n ̃)=$ knowledge; rukmam $(k+m)=$ gold; $\mathbf{v}^{1}$ gm» $(g+m)=$ orator; $\mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{i}$ mayam $(\mathrm{i}+\mathrm{m})=$ literature; ku@malam ( $\mathbb{C}+\mathrm{m}$ ) = bud; $-\mathbf{a}^{\underline{a}} \boldsymbol{a}$ mukhaå $(\underline{a}+m)=K^{1}$ rtikeya; ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{t m}^{\mathbf{1}}(\mathrm{t}+\mathrm{m})=$ Self; padmam $(\mathrm{d}+\mathrm{m})=$ lotus; $\operatorname{Ima}$ Iruå $(\mathbb{q}+\mathrm{m} / \mathbb{q}+\mathrm{r})=$ beard-mustache; nakraå $(k+r)=$ crocodile; Ilyghram (gh+r) = quickly; vajram $(j+r)=$ thunderbolt; sravaå $(s+r)=$ dripping; nair $\AA$ tyaå $(r+\AA / t+y)=$ south-west direction; arkaå $(r+k)=$ sun; $\operatorname{durg}^{\mathbf{1}}(r+g)=$ Goddess Durg ${ }^{1}$; Iuklam ( $k+I$ ) = white; fulkam (l+k) = price; a; kaå $(i+k)=$ number; $\mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{1}} \tilde{n}^{(1)}{ }^{1}(\tilde{n}+c h)=$ yearning; daa @aå = stick / punishment; ${ }^{\text {a }}$ ambhuå $(m+b h)={ }^{\text {N iva; }}$ Lak-m>å $(k++m)=$ Goddess of Prosperity; Ørdhvam $(r+d h+v)=$ upwards; par ${ }^{1}$ rdhyam $(r+d h+y)=1,00,000$ million; $\mathbf{k}^{\mathbf{1}}$ rtsnyam $(r+t+s+n+y)=$ fullness, completeness, entirety.

Recapitulation: In this lesson the readers are sought to be acquainted to the necessity of correct pronunciation of Sanskrit sounds, the formation of words by using them, the ligatures of one or more consonants for a syllable, some Sanskrit
verb forms
of third person singular along with some common nouns and pronouns that can be used with each other to form simple common sentences, and a few words for gradually building up the Sanskrit vocabulary.

## LESSON 2 <br> (Dvityyaå $\mathrm{P}^{1}$-haå)

While English Ianguage, like most of modern European and Indian languages, have singular and plural numbers, Sanskrit has one more, viz., dual. The singular is used when one thing is the subject of the verb; the dual, when two things are its subject; and the plural, when three or more things are its subject.

## Read the following Sanskrit sentences aloud:

Kamala, vikasati $=$ A lotus blooms. Kamal ${ }^{1}$ ni vikasanti $=$ Lotuses bloom. Gajaå calati = An elephant walks. Gaj ${ }^{1}$ å calanti $=$ Elephants walk. Jala, var-ati $=$ Water rains. Jal ${ }^{1}$ ni var-anti $=$ Waters rain. Rathaå dh $^{1}$ vati $=A$ chariot rushes. Rath ${ }^{1}{ }^{\circ}$ $\mathbf{d h}^{1}$ vanti $=$ Chariots rush. VÂ-abhaå ${ }^{1}$ ra-ati $=A$ bull bellows. VÁabh ${ }^{1}{ }^{\circ}{ }^{1}$ ra-anti = Bulls bellow. Aha, gacchami = I go. Vaya, gacch ${ }^{1}$ maå $=$ We go. Tvam ${ }^{1}$ gacchasi $=$ Thou cometh. Yøyam ${ }^{1}$ gacchatha $=$ You (all) come. Saå pa-hati $=$ He reads. Te pa-hanti $=$ They read. $\mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{1}}$ likhati $=$ She writes. $\mathbf{T}^{\mathbf{1}}$ å likhanti $=$ Those (ladies) write. Tat patati $=$ It falls. $\mathbf{T}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{n i}$ patanti $=$ Those (things) fall.

## Note the change in the forms of sunject

in singular and plural in the above sentences:
Gajaå $(\mathrm{m})=.\left(\right.$ One) elephant. Gaj ${ }^{1} \mathbf{a}^{(\mathrm{a}}(\mathrm{m})=.($ Many $)$ elephants. Rathaå $(\mathrm{m})=.\left(\right.$ One) chariot. Rath $^{1} \mathbf{a}^{\mathbf{a}}(\mathrm{m})=.($ Many $)$ chariots. Saå $(\mathrm{m})=$. He. $\mathbf{T e}(\mathrm{m})=$. They. $\mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{1}}(\mathrm{f})=$. She. $\mathbf{T}^{\mathbf{1}}{ }^{\text {à }}(\mathrm{f}$, ) $=$ They/ Those (women). Kamalam (n.)= (One) lotus. Kamal ${ }^{1}$ ni (n.) $=$ (Many) lotuses. Jalam ( n.$)=$ (one) water. Jal ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{n i}(\mathrm{n})=.($ Many $)$ waters. Tat (mfn.) $=\mathrm{It} . \mathbf{T}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{n i}(. \mathrm{n})=$ Those.

Here, it should also be marked that in the the non-declined base form (pr ${ }^{1}$ tipadika), the masculine nouns Gaja, Ratha, VÅabha, and the neuter nouns Kamala, and Jala end in -a ; they are known as $A k^{1} r^{1}$ nta. With the masculine nouns the
$\varnothing+u, \quad \varnothing+\varnothing$, as for instance in ka-u+ uktiå=ka-Øktiå; vadh $\varnothing+$ utsavaå= vad hØtsavaå; pit $\AA$ + $+\AA$ am $=$ pit $\AA^{a}$ am am. Although $\AA$ and $\partial$ are not homogeneous with each other, they are practically regarded as such in Sanskrit parlance, and thus when
 type of the coalescencereplaced by a long form of $\AA$, as for instance in of homogeneous vowels is called Svara a-sandhi.

In contrast, even when a consonant, like $k$, kh and a vowel like a come together, they are not regarded as homogeneous in spite of the fact that they are both guttural. This is the peculiar grammatical fact of the Sanskrit language.

## Now, read aloud the following two Sanskrit sentences in which the words are kept mutually uncoalesced:

A-krodhaå a-har-aå a-ro-aå a-lobhaå a-drohaå adambhaå satya-vacanam an-aty ${ }^{1}$ saå a-paiףunam an-asØy ${ }^{1}$ sa, vibh ${ }^{1}$ gaå ty ${ }^{1}$ gaå $\mathbf{m}^{1}$ rdavam ीlamaå damaå sarva-bhØte-u a-virodhaå yogaå ${ }^{1}$ ryam anÅfla, sat ${ }^{1}$ tu-iå iti sarva-
 sarva- $\mathbf{g}^{1}$ m» bhavati /

## Let us understand the linguistic form of the words in these sentences:

Krodha, har-a, ro-a lobha droha dambha, aty ${ }^{1}$ sa, sa, vibh ${ }^{1}$ ga, ty ${ }^{1}$ ga, Ilama, dama, virodha, and yoga are the masculine $\mathbf{a}-\mathbf{k}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{r}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{n t a}$ nouns; the intitial a or an prefixed to them is a negative particle.

Samaya and vidhi are used both as

## masculine and neuter nouns.

AsØy ${ }^{1}$, nÅfla, sat ${ }^{1}$ and tu-i are feminine nouns.
Satya, sarva, are the adjectival nouns.
$T^{1}$ ni, yaå and saå are the pronouns.
Iti is an indeclinable word.
Anu-ti $\rightarrow$ hati and bhavati are the verbs.
Most of the nouns in these sentences are in the Nominative case.

These are the forms of the roots $\mathrm{Bh} \varnothing(1 \mathrm{P}$.$) and \mathrm{B}^{1} \neg(1$ ,.) in the Present Tense in the three Persons and three Numbers, and we can recognize the forms and grasp their corresponding meanings in accordance with the terminations affixed to them.

Now, with the help of the structural data provided in these two lessons, of course limited by the forms of the verbs and those of the nouns and pronouns, it will be a very interesting entertainment if you apply your mind in making a number of new sentences in accordance with your own imagination pertaining to your personal and social life.

When we learn about the verbal roots, along with their meanings and their Third Person singular form, or when we see them used in any Sanskrit sentence we can easily recognize their forms and in view of the context, and understand the meaning of the sentences.

The grammarians have adopted the method of analyzing the verbal and nominal forms of the words used in the sentences, by showing the components in them in the form of the original root, the changes that take place in it due to affixing the termination, such as, the replacement f defla) of any part of it, addition ( ${ }^{1}$ gama) of any syllable in between as the medial element, as also the formations of the noun. pronoun, addition ( ${ }^{1}$ gama) of any syllable in between as the medial element, as also the formations of the noun. pronoun, adjective, adverb, verbal derivatives, gerunds, participles, and etc.

## LESSON 3 (TÅt)yaå $\mathbf{P}^{1}$-haå)

## Now, utter the following Sanskrit nouns aloud, keeping in mind their respective meanings.

$R^{1}$ maå $=R^{1}$ ma (agent of an action). Puru $-\mathrm{a}=$ (many) men; to
men
Balar ${ }^{1}$ mam $=$ to Balar ${ }^{1}$ ma. $\quad R^{1} k-a s^{1} n=$ to the demons.
Arjunena $=$ by Arjuna
Bh»m¹ ya = towards Bh»ma.
Lak-ma ${ }^{\mathfrak{a}} \mathrm{t}=$ from Lak-ma ${ }^{\mathfrak{a}} \mathrm{a}$.
Dallararathasya = of Daflararatha. Nar ${ }^{1}$ bhy ${ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}\{=\mathrm{by}$ (two) per$\mathrm{S}^{1}$ kete $=$ in (the city of) Ayodhy ${ }^{1}$

Karau \{= (two) hands.
\{= O (two) hands!
$\{=$ to (two) hands.
(Bhoå/ He) R ${ }^{1} \mathrm{ma}$ ! $=0 \mathrm{R}^{1} \mathrm{ma}$ ! Vane-u = in the forests.
$B^{1}$ layoå $\{=$ of (two) children. Puri-aia $=$ by men. sons.
\{= towards (two) persons.
$\{=$ from (two) persons. Kauravebhyaå $\{=$ to Kauravas.
\{= from Kauracas.
$\mathrm{V}^{1} \mathrm{nar}^{1}{ }^{1}{ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}=$ of monkeys.
For further practice, take every other word and imagine their other forms similar to the other words, and pronounce them aloud, as for instance; balar ${ }^{1}$ maå, balar ${ }^{1} \mathrm{mam}$, balar ${ }^{1} \mathrm{me}^{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{a}$, balar $\mathrm{m}^{1}$ ya, balar ${ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}^{1} \mathrm{t}$, balar ${ }^{1}$ masya, balar ${ }^{1} \mathrm{me}$, balar ${ }^{1}$ mau. Balar ${ }^{11}$ bhyam, balar ${ }^{1} m a y o h, ~ b a l a r^{1} m^{1}$ à, balar ${ }^{1} m^{1} n$, balar ${ }^{1}$ maià, balar ${ }^{1} m e b h y a ̊ o, b a l a r^{1} m^{1}{ }^{1} m$, balar ${ }^{1} m e-u$, and try to grasp the respective change in their meanings in accordance with the change of the forms.
$P^{1 a}$ ini knows the original form of a noun, pronoun or an adjective by the term pr ${ }^{1}$ tipadika. And, it is the basic tenet of Sanskrit grammar that every noun or adjective is ultimately derived from some verbal root that denotes some action. Its various functional relations with the verb in the sentence are called the vibhakti, i.e. the Case. In practical life, every action is done by some agent, has some object, is done through some instrument or limb, has some purpose and effect on somebody,
calledu-man. There are two more sounds, viz., anusv ${ }^{1}$ ra which resembles the ringing sound, and visarga resembling the letting of the breath with a sort of a hiss.

The first two sounds of each of the first five classes, viz., guttural and others are called 'hard' (a-gho-a), and the third, fourth and the fifth ones are called 'soft' (gho-a). In the case of the nasals the sound originating from the throat comes out through the nose. Although there is a slight difference from the point of view of oral effort in the utterance of the vowels 'a '(which is sa, vß̊ta, i.e., contracted) and '1 '(which is viv̊̊ta, i.e. open), they are considered to be homogeneous for the purpose of coalescence. In view of various internal oral effort involved the sounds are classified as unaspirate (alpa-pr ${ }^{1} \underline{a}$ a). aspirate (mah ${ }^{1}-$ pr $^{1} \underline{a}$ ), accented (ud $\left.{ }^{1} t t a\right)$, unaccented (an$u^{1}$ tta) and circumflexed (svarita). Each of the vowel sound can be uttered with the above-mentioned types of internal efforts, and can be short (hrasva), long (d»rgha) or protracted (pluta).

For the purpose of coalescence, the sounds of the same class and involving the similar type of internal effort are called homogeneous (savara), and they affect each other when they come together consecutively.

## Now let us see some of the important rules of

## vowel coalescence in Sanskrit:

(1) When two short homogeneous vowels (e.g., $a+a$ ), or one of them short and another a long one e.g., $a+{ }^{1} /{ }^{1}+a$, or two long vowels (e.g., ${ }^{1}+{ }^{1}$ ) occur consecutively they combine together in a word or a sentence they are replaced by their single long form (e.g., ${ }^{1}$ ). Thus, mura+ari $=$ mur ${ }^{1}$ ri; deva+
 vidy ${ }^{1}+{ }^{1}$ layaå $=$ vidy ${ }^{1}$ layaå; gatv ${ }^{1}+$ aham $=$ gatv $^{1}$ ham; ca $+^{1}$ gataå $=c^{1}$ gataå.
(2) Similar is the case the other vowels like $i, u, \AA$ and đ Thus, $\mathrm{i}+\mathrm{i}, \mathrm{i}+»,>+\mathrm{i}, »$ »», as for instance in ravi+indraå $=$ rav»ndraå; kavi+»॥varaå = kav»»|varaå; mah» + indraå=

various oral limbs, such as the front, middle and inner portions of tongue, lips, teeth, throat channel, etc., undergo some modifications like contracting and expanding, while letting out the air as it vibrates in the form of sounds due to the vibrating vocal chords. Ancient Vedic seers had closely studied this process scientifically and developed, as one of the six auxiliary Vedic disciplines (ved ${ }^{1}$, ga), called $\operatorname{Pr}^{1}$ ti $\mathbb{T}$ khya, pertaining to the utterance of various sounds of the Sanskrit alphabet.

To explain all these $\mathrm{P}^{12}$ ini has composed a subsidiary text called ${ }^{\circ} \mathrm{ik}+$, and has classified the sounds of the Sanskrit alphabet into various groups and named them in accordance with their place (sth ${ }^{1}$ na) of utterance, and the oral effort (prayatna) involved, in the mouth, while uttering them.

Now, from the point of view of the place (sth ${ }^{1}$ na) of utterance the original Sanskrit sounds are classified as follows:

Guttural (ka-hya) : k, kh, g, gh, i, h, a, ${ }^{1}$
Palatal (t¹ lavya) : c, ch, j. jh, ñ, y, q, i, »
Lingual (mØrdhanya): -, -h, © © , a, r, ᄀA (short and long)
Dental (dantya) : t, th, d, dh, n, I, s, ठ
Labial (au-hya) : p, ph, b, bh, m, y, u, $\varnothing$
Guttural-palatal (kaa-ha-t¹avya): e, ai
Guttural-Labial (kaª-hau-hya) : o, au
Dental-labial (dantau-hya) : v
Nasal ( $n^{1}$ sikya or anun ${ }^{1}$ sika) : i, ñ, a $, n, m$
Simple vowels : a ${ }^{1}$ i/» u/Ø $\AA$ 才
Gua a vowels : a ${ }^{1}$ e, 0 , ar al
VÅddhi vowels : ${ }^{1} \quad{ }^{1}$ ai $a u{ }^{1} r{ }^{1} \mid$
While uttering the vowel sounds ( $a,{ }^{1}$, etc.) the oral passage remains more or less open. But, since the oral passage is completely closed for a moment because the internal organs touch one another before letting out the sound of the consonants ( $k$, kh, etc., ), they are called 'stops' or spÅ $\rightarrow$ a. In the case of the utterance of the semi-vowels ( $y, r, I, v$ ) since the internal organs touch but very slightly, they are called »-at-sp $\AA \rightarrow a$ or antaåstha. And, since there emanates from the mouth a sort of a warm hiss while uttering the sibilants ( $\$, \neg \mathrm{~s}, \mathrm{~h}$ ), they are
has some time and place; and the agent has some relation with somebody else, and may address somebody else. Similarly, in spoken language, too, the verb in a sentence has various functions and relations with the noun and they are expressed through various vibhaktis, i.e., the Cases.

Sanskrit language has seven Cases, viz.: (1) Nominative is called kart ${ }^{1}$ or pratham ${ }^{1}$. It is used for the subjects of verbs, and for predicate adjectives and nouns. (2) Accusative is called karma or dvit>y ${ }^{1}$. It is used for the direct objects of verbs, and also to express motion to a place. (3) Instrumental is called karaª or t ${ }^{\text {tetsy }}{ }^{1}$. It is used to express instrumentality by which the action of the verb is accomplished (4)Dative is called samprad ${ }^{1}$ na or caturth». It is used for the indirect object, expressed by "to" or "́or the sake of." (5) Ablative is called $a p^{1} d^{1}$ na or pañcam». It is used for expressing the sense of place from which the action takes place. (6) Genitive is called sabmandha or $-a-h$ ». It is used for the sense of possession or intimatr relation expressed by "of". And, (7) Locative is called adhikara ${ }^{a}$ a or saptam». It is used for expressing the sense of a place in which a thing happens to be, or in which an action occurs. Out of these seven, the sixth, i.e. Genitive, is concerned with the relation between two or more nouns and not between a noun and verb. And, the first one, i.e. Nominative, with slight modification, serves as a means of addressing somebody and is called sambuddhi or sambodhana. This last function is expressed by means of its special style of pronunciation marked with particular accent on the a syllable of the nominal form concerned, or by the use of special Sanskrit words like bhoå or 0.

In a sentence the relation of the noun and the verb may be concerned about one, two or more individuals or things. Consequently, every Case has its forms in singular, dual or plural.

Thus, in all, every noun has $7 \times 3=21$ forms. And, adding the three more forms of the sambodhana function of the Nominative, it comes to $21+3=24$ forms of every noun or
adjective. If we just mark the termination affixed at the end of the noun, we can easily recognize these forms, as belonging to a particular Case, like Nominative or others, and to a Number (vacana) whether singular or others, and immediately the concerned meaning dawns in the mind.

The terminations in the declension differ in the case of the noun in accordance with its final vowel or consonant, or its being masculine, feminine or neuter, and also in accordance with its being a pronoun. The Sanskrit grammarians have, therefore, classified the nouns in accordance with their final vowel or consonant, and called them accordingly, as for instance, *Ajanta (=ending in a vowel) and *Hal-anta (=ending in a consonant). Among the Aj-antas, in accordance with the particular vowel occurring in its final position, the noun is called $A-k^{1} r^{1} n t a$, , - $k^{1} r^{1} n t a, I-k^{1} r^{1} n t a, U-k^{1} r^{1} n t a$, etc., while those ending in a particular consonant are called, Ka-k ${ }^{1} r^{1} n t a, ~ G a-k^{1} r^{1} n t a, ~ C a-$ $k^{1} r^{1} n t a,{ }^{\prime} a-k^{1} r^{1} n t a, T a-k^{1} r^{1} n t a, P a-k^{1} r^{1} n t a, H a-k^{1} r^{1} n t a$, etc. Thus, the noun $R^{1}$ ma is $A-k^{1} r^{1}$ nta because it ends with the vowel sound ' $a$ ', the noun $V^{1} c$ is Ca- $k^{1} r^{1} n$ nta because it ends with the consonant sound ' $c$ ' and so on.

As regards the gender of any noun, normally it follows the natural one pertaining to a living being, but there is no fixed rule about the inanimate things. Even then $\mathrm{P}^{1 \underline{a}}$ ini has composed a special work called the $\mathrm{Li} ; \mathrm{g}^{1}$ nu® sanam for it, which is rather too technical. But, to know the specific gender of a specific noun, the general traditional practice is to memorize the Amarakofla, a highly classified metrical Sanskrit dictionary, composed

[^0]Here, in the la- forms of the root bhØ, before the applying the terminations ti and others, the adjunct (vikara-a) a is addedjust after the root, and as per the rules of the coalescence, the final vowel $\varnothing$ in the root bh $\varnothing$, being immediately followed by the vowel a, replaces the $\varnothing$ by its gua a vowel 0 , thus bh $\varnothing+$ a changes to bho $+a$, and then further, since as per the rules of the coales cence $0+$ a becomes $a v+a$, bho $+a=b h a v+a=$ bhava. Then the terminations are suffixed to this base bhava. In the first person (uttama puru-a) the adjunct a of the first rootgroup ( $g a \mathfrak{a}$ ) is replaced by its homogeneous long vowel ${ }^{1}$ as its ${ }^{1}$ della. Thus, $b h \varnothing+a=b h o+a=b h a v+a=b h a v+1$ $=b h a v^{1}$, then by suffixing the terminations mi or vas or mas, we get the forms bhav ${ }^{1} \mathrm{mi}$, bhav ${ }^{1}$ vaå and bhav ${ }^{1}$ maå, since the final consonant $s$ of the termination changes to $\grave{a}$. The root forms involve various grammatical operations like the changes called replacement ( ${ }^{1}$ defla) by the previous homogeneous vowel (pØrva-savaraa), that by the subsequent homogeneous vowel (para-savaraa), that by the homogenous long vowel (d»rgh ${ }^{1}$ dela), that by a homogeneous diphthong sound forming a part of the coalescence connected with the case-terminations (sv ${ }^{1}$ di-sandhi). Such an analysis of these root forms in the $\mathrm{P}^{1 a}$ inian fashion helps us to understand the underlying grammatical processes.

An understanding of the process of grammatical analysis is helpful for grasping the internal structure of the language and mastering it thoroughly, so as to avoid linguistic aberrations. However, for day to day use as a medium of oral communication, the language is learnt from its daily usage by its regular speakers, and by copying them. It is a common experience that a child learns the mother tongue, and masters the skill of using it to various purposes like expressing different emotions, directly in this manner and never bothers about its grammar. One should, therefore take grammar as an additional intellectual tool, as a psychological entertainment, rather than a burden.

While uttering the sounds of any human language the

We can now have some idea as to the changes, such as assimilation of two vowels, replacement of k by g , combining of $k+\neg$ and etc., that occur when the rules of coalescence operate, resulting in various forms of the word concerned in various cases (vibhakti) and numbers (vacana).

Let us now analyze the verb forms and see how the terminations and other modifications operate in the case of a root of the first Bhv ${ }^{1}$ di class both in the parasmaipada and the ${ }^{1}$ tmanepada, and in all the three persons (puru-a) and numbers (vacana).


[^1]more than fifteen centuries ago by Amarasi, ha. Of course, the modern Sanskrit-English Dictionaries by V. S. Apte and MonierWilliams, too, are most helpful.

Now, note that in the list of the original nouns, such as $R^{1}$ ma, Balar ${ }^{1}$ ma, Arjuna, Kara, $R^{1} k-a s a$, Nara, etc., given at the beginning of this lessons were all Aj-anta and $A-k^{1} r^{1}$ nta. And, in their different forms in different vibhaktis and vacanas, the termination at the end differed accordingly as per the intended meaning of the particular vibhakti and vacana.

For remembering the different forms of the $a-k^{1} r^{1} n t a$ word $\mathrm{R}^{1} \mathrm{ma}$, let us put all of them in a proper order, as follows: $\qquad$

| Vibhakti | Eka-vacana | Dvi-vacana | Bahu-vacana |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pratham ${ }^{1}$ <br> =Kart ${ }^{1}$ Nom. | $\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{R}^{1} \text { maå } \\ & =R^{1} \text { ma (Agent) } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{R}^{1} \text { mau } \\ & =(\text { two }) \mathbf{R}^{1} \text { mas } \end{aligned}$ | $\begin{gathered} \mathbf{R}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{a} \\ =(\text { many }) \mathbf{R}^{1} \text { mas } \end{gathered}$ |
| Sambodhana $=$ Voc. | $\begin{gathered} \text { (Bhoå) } \mathbf{R}^{1} \text { ma } \\ =0 R^{1} \mathrm{ma} \end{gathered}$ | (Bhoå) $\mathbf{R}^{1}$ mau = 0 (two) Ramas | (Bhoå) $\mathbf{R}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathrm{a}^{\circ}$ <br> $=0$ (many) Ramas |
| Dvity ${ }^{1}$ = Karma/ Acc. | $\begin{aligned} & \mathbf{R}^{1} \mathbf{~ m a m} \\ = & \text { to } \mathbf{R}^{1} \mathrm{ma} \end{aligned}$ | Ramau $=\text { to (two) Ramas }$ | $\begin{gathered} \mathbf{R}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{n} \\ =\text { to }(\text { many }) \mathbf{R}^{1} \text { mas } \end{gathered}$ |
| Tît ${ }^{\text {c }}{ }^{1}$ | $\mathbf{R}^{1} \mathrm{me}^{\text {a }} \mathbf{a}$ | $\mathrm{R}^{1} \mathrm{~m}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathrm{bhy}^{1} \mathbf{m}$ | $\mathrm{R}^{1}$ maiå |

$=$ Kara $a^{a} /$ Instr. $=$ by $R^{1} m a=$ by (two) $R^{1}$ mas $=$ by (many) $R^{1}$ mas

| Carurth» <br> $=$ Samprad¹ na/ Dat | $\mathbf{R}^{1} \mathbf{m}^{1} \text { ya }$ | $\mathbf{R}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}^{\mathbf{1}}$ bhy $^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}$ | $\mathbf{R}^{1}$ mebh |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pañcam» $=A p^{1} d^{1} n a / A b l .$ | $\mathbf{R}^{1} \mathbf{m}^{1} \mathbf{t}$ from $\mathrm{R}^{1}$ ma |  |  |
| = Sambandha/ Gen | $R^{1}$ masya $=$ of $\mathrm{R}^{1} \mathrm{ma}$ | $=o f(t w o) R^{1} \text { mas }$ | of (many) R |
| Adhikaraª a/ | $=\text { in } R^{1} \mathrm{ma}$ | $(\text { two }) R^{1}$ | $\mathbf{R}^{\mathbf{1}}$ me-u <br> as $=$ in $\left(\operatorname{manR}^{1}\right.$ m |

Here, it should be noteed that the terminations suffixed at the end of each of the forms of the $a-k^{1} r^{1} n t a$ word $R^{1} m a$ are serially as follows: (Pra.) s (=å), au, as (=aå); (Sa, .) - , au, as (=aå); (Dvi.) am, au, ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}$; (TA) ena, ${ }^{1}$ bhy ${ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}$, aiå; (Catu.) ${ }^{1}$ ya,
 ${ }^{1} n^{1} m$, (Sap.) i, yoå, e-u.

For the sake of memorizing, the singular forms of the word $\mathrm{R}^{1}$ ma, the following Sanskrit verse, embodying them serially, is most helpful, entertaining and convenient:
$R^{1}$ mo $r^{1}{ }^{\text {ja-maa }}$ iå sad ${ }^{1}$ vijayate $r^{1}$ ma, ramela, bhaje
$\mathbf{R}^{1}$ me ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}{ }^{1}$ bhihat ${ }^{1}$ nif ${ }^{1}$ cara-camø $\mathbf{r}^{1} \mathrm{~m}^{1}$ ya tasmai namaå /
$R^{1} \mathbf{m}^{1} n n^{1}$ sti par ${ }^{1}$ yáa, paratara, $\mathbf{r}^{1}$ masya $d^{1}$ so'smy aham
$\mathbf{R}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m e}$ citta-layaå sad ${ }^{1}$ bhavatu me bho $\mathbf{r}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{~ m a ~} \mathbf{m}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathrm{m}$ uddhara //
Let us analyze this verse and understand the grammatical, literary and philosophical significance beautifully embodiied in it. There are eight sentences in it: (1) $\mathbf{R}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{j a - m a}$ à $\mathbf{i a ̊}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{r}^{\mathbf{1}}$ maå vijayate / = $R^{1}$ ma, the gem (i.e. best) among the kings, is victo-
 ter of Ram ${ }^{1}$ (i.e., the Goddess of Wealth); (3) $\mathbf{R}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m e}^{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{n i} \mathbb{\mathbb { R }}$ caracamuå abhihat ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} /=$ The army of the demons was annihilated by $\mathrm{R}^{1} \mathrm{ma}$; (5) $\mathbf{R}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{t}$ paratara, par ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{y a} \mathbf{a} \mathbf{a m} \mathbf{n}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{s t i} /=$ There is no other resort beyond $\mathrm{R}^{1} \mathrm{ma}$; (6) Aha, $\mathbf{r}^{1}$ masya $\mathbf{d}^{1}$ saå asmi / =1 am a servant of $R^{1}$ ma; (7)Sad ${ }^{1}$ me cittalayaå $\mathbf{r}^{1}$ me bhavatu / = May my mind get engrossed in $R^{1} \mathrm{ma}$; (8) Bhoå $\mathbf{R}^{1}$ ma, $\mathbf{m}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}$ uddhara / = $0 \mathrm{R}^{1} \mathrm{ma}$ ! Please emanicipate me.

From the viewpoint of presentation, in this verse, composed in the poetic meter called ${ }^{\sim}{ }^{1}$ rdØla-vikr» ${ }^{\text {Gita }}$ having nineteen (19) syllables in each of its four quarters, the author expresses the greatness of Lord $\mathrm{R}^{1}$ ma, his own devotion to $\mathrm{R}^{1} \mathrm{ma}$, the exploit of $\mathrm{R}^{1}$ ma in annihilating the army of demons, his salutation to $R^{1} m a$, the declaration of the excellence of taking resort to $R^{1}$ ma, his being a servant of $R^{1}$ ma, his wish of getting his mind engrossed in $R^{1} \mathrm{ma}$, and his appeal to $R^{1} \mathrm{ma}$ to emancipate him.

## LESSON 4 (Caturthaå ${ }^{11}$-haå )

In the last lesson we saw the ready-made forms of the $a-k^{1} r^{1}$ nta masculine noun $R^{1}$ ma. Now let us look into the components in them, by analyzing the pr ${ }^{1}$ tipadika, ${ }^{1}$ gama, the ${ }^{1}$ dela and the termination elements therein.

The terminations applicable to nouns in general as mentioned by $\mathrm{P}^{1} \underline{\mathrm{an}}{ }^{1}$ are given below in bold type, and the modified ones as applied to the nouns, $a-k^{1} r^{1} n t a$ in particular, for their declension in various cases and numbers are as shown in the brackets:
Vibhakti Eka-vacana Dvi-vacana Bahu-vacana

| Pra. | su ( $=\mathrm{s}=$ : ) $\mathrm{R}^{1} \mathrm{ma}+\mathrm{a}^{\text {a }}$ | au ( $=\mathrm{au}$ ) $\mathrm{R}^{1} \mathrm{ma}+\mathrm{au}$ ja | jas( $=\mathrm{as}=\mathrm{a}$ å) $\mathrm{R}^{1} \mathrm{ma}+\mathrm{a}$ a |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Sam. | $R^{1} \mathrm{ma}$ | au (=au) R ${ }^{1} \mathrm{ma}+\mathrm{au}$ ja | jas ( = as = aå) R1ma+aå |
| Dvi. | am $\mathrm{R}^{1} \mathrm{ma}+\mathrm{am}$ | au- (=au) R1 mau | Tas ( $\left.={ }^{1} \mathrm{n}\right\} \mathrm{R}^{1} \mathrm{ma}+{ }^{1} \mathrm{n}$ |
| TÅt. | $\mathbf{- 1}^{1}$ ( = ena) $\mathrm{R}^{1} \mathrm{ma}+\mathrm{e}^{\text {a }} \mathrm{a}$ | bhy ${ }^{1} \mathbf{m} \quad \mathrm{R}^{1} \mathrm{ma}+{ }^{1} \mathrm{bhy}^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ | bhis ( = ais = aiå) |
| Cat. | $\left.\mathbf{i} \mathbf{e}={ }^{1} \mathrm{ya}\right) \mathrm{R}^{1} \mathrm{ma}+{ }^{1} \mathrm{ya}$ | bhy ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}$ R ${ }^{1} \mathrm{ma}+{ }^{1} \mathrm{bhyy}^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ | $\mathrm{R}^{1}$ maiå <br> bhyas( = ebhyaå) |
| Pañ. | $\mathrm{i} \boldsymbol{a s}\left(=^{1} \mathrm{t}\right) \mathrm{R}^{1} \mathrm{~m}^{1} \mathrm{t}$ | bhy ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m} \quad \mathrm{R}^{1} \mathrm{ma}+{ }^{1} \mathrm{bhyy}^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ | $\mathrm{R}^{1}$ mebhyaå <br> bhyas ( = ebhyaå) |
|  |  |  | $\mathrm{R}^{1}$ mebhyaå |
| \|a7 | s( = sya) R1 ma+sya | os ( = yos) R11 ma+ yoå | ${ }^{1} \mathbf{m}\left(=\mathrm{n}^{1} \mathrm{~m}\right)$ |
|  |  |  | $\mathrm{R}^{1} \mathrm{ma}+{ }^{\text {a }}{ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ |
| Sap. | i ( $=\mathrm{i}$ ) $\mathrm{R}^{1} \mathrm{ma}+\mathrm{i}$ | Os ( = yos) R11 ma+yoå | $\boldsymbol{\operatorname { s u p }}(=i s u) R^{1} \mathrm{ma}+\mathrm{i}-u$ |

In the case of the nouns ending in consonant (hal-anta), these primary terminations apply as they are given. Thus. for instance, the noun $V^{1} \mathrm{C}$ ( $=$ speech) is decined as follows:

| Case <br> Nominative | Singular$V^{1} c+s=\mathbf{V}^{1} \mathbf{k}$ |  | Plural |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
|  |  | $\mathrm{V}^{1} \mathrm{c}+\mathrm{au}=\mathbf{V}^{\mathbf{1}}$ cau |  |
|  | $\mathrm{V}^{1} \mathrm{c}+$ - $=\mathbf{V}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{k}$ | $V^{1} \mathbf{c}+\mathrm{au}=\mathbf{V}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{c a u}$ | $V^{1} \mathrm{c}+\mathrm{as}+\mathrm{V}^{1}$ caå |
| Accusative | $\mathrm{V}^{1} \mathrm{c}+\mathrm{am}=\mathbf{V}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{c a m}$ | $\mathrm{V}^{1} \mathbf{c}+\mathrm{au}=\mathbf{V}^{\mathbf{1}}$ cau | $\mathrm{V}^{1} \mathrm{c}+\mathrm{as}+\mathrm{V}^{1}$ caå |
| Instrumental | al $\mathrm{V}^{1} \mathrm{c}+{ }^{1}=\mathbf{V}^{1} \mathbf{c}^{1} \quad \mathrm{~V}^{1}$ | + $\mathrm{bhy}^{1} \mathrm{~m}=\mathbf{V}^{\mathbf{1}}$ gbhy ${ }^{\text {d }}$ | $\mathrm{V}^{1} \mathrm{c}+\mathrm{bhis}=\mathbf{V}^{\mathbf{1}}$ gbhiå |
| Dative | $\mathrm{V}^{1} \mathrm{c}+\mathrm{e}=\mathbf{V}^{1}$ ce $\mathrm{V}^{1} \mathrm{c}$ | $\mathrm{y}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathrm{m}=\mathbf{V}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{g b h y}^{\mathbf{1}}$ | $\mathrm{V}^{1} \mathrm{c}+$ bhyas $=\mathbf{V}^{\mathbf{1}}$ gbhyaa |
| Ablative $\mathrm{V}^{1}$ | $\mathrm{V}^{1} \mathrm{c}+\mathrm{as}=\mathrm{V}^{1}$ caå $\mathrm{V}^{1} \mathrm{c}$ | bhy ${ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}=\mathrm{V}^{1} \mathrm{gbhy}^{1}$ | $\mathrm{V}^{1} \mathrm{c}+$ bhyas $=\mathbf{V}^{\mathbf{1}}$ gbhyaa |
| Genitive | $\mathrm{V}^{1} \mathrm{c}+\mathrm{as}=\mathbf{V}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{c a a ̊}$ | $\mathrm{V}^{1} \mathrm{c}+\mathrm{os}=\mathrm{V}^{1} \mathrm{coa}$ | $V^{1} \mathrm{c}+{ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}=\mathrm{V}^{1} \mathbf{c}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}$ |
| Locative | $\mathrm{V}^{1} \mathbf{c}+\mathrm{i}=\mathbf{V}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{c i}$ | $\mathrm{V}^{1} \mathrm{c}+\mathrm{os}=\mathrm{V}^{1}$ coa | c+ su $=\mathbf{V}^{\mathbf{V}} \mathbf{k}$ |

sounds occurring at the end of a word coalesce with those occurring at the beginning of the immediately following next word during the process of continuous utterance, and consequently the both these final and initial sounds undergo changes due to the position of the oral organs of utterance, and in accordance with the consequent rules of coalescence of the Sanskrit Ianguage, as seen in the above instances. This type of the coalescence of individual words of a sentence is called external ( $b^{1}$ hya). The $b^{1}$ hya-sandhi is voluntary.

It will be much beneficial to utter aloud, and learn by heart, the following verse which gives in nut-shell the general rule regarding the internal and the external coalescence in Sanskrit;

Sa, hitaikapade nity ${ }^{1}$, nity ${ }^{1}$ dh ${ }^{1}$ tØpasargayoå /
Nity ${ }^{1}$ sam $^{1}$ se, $v^{1}$ kye tu $s^{1}$ vivak $+m$ apek-ate //
It means: Internal coalescence (sa, hit ${ }^{1}$ ) is compulsory (nity ${ }^{1}$ ) in the case of the grammatical components like ${ }^{1}$ gama, ${ }^{1}$ de ${ }^{1}$ a. pratyaya, and etc., combining for the formation an individual word form (røpa-siddhi), in that of the preposition (upasaga) prefixed to root ( $\mathrm{dh}^{1} \mathrm{tu}$ ) or a noun, etc. derived from it, and in that of the components of a compound word (sam ${ }^{1}$ sa). But in the case of the uttering a sentence ( $v^{1} \mathrm{kya}$ ), the coalescence of the final and initial syllables of its individual words is voluntary, depending on the sweet will (vivak + ) of the speaker.

It was a general rule in the case of the Sanskrit language that it was written in accordance with its actual pronunciation. And in the hand-written Sanskrit and Prakrit manuscripts, the writing was continuous irrespective of the breakdown of the individual words thereof; and the rules of actual utterance prevailed in the case of the written language, too. Hence the importance of the Sandhi of both the types. Moreover, in metrical compositions, too, since the Sandhi formed an integral part, it was essential to be conversant with all the important rules of coalescence, so as to be able to separate the words of a sentence and grasp the syntactical order of the words of a Sanskrit verse, and construe them to get the meaning.

This verse thus embodies, and expresses, all these thoughts and feelings.

From the linguistic point of view, this verse incorporates serially all the singular forms of the Sanskrit noun $R^{1} \mathrm{ma}$ in all the cases, such as, $r^{1}$ maå, $r^{1}$ mam, $r^{1}$ me $e^{a} a, r^{1} m^{1} y a, r^{1} m^{1} t$, $r^{1}$ masya, $r^{1} \mathrm{me},(b h o a ̊) r^{1}$ ma. Here the form of address is put last, although in the table of forms we put it between the Nominative and Accusative cases for convenience.

From the grammatical point of view, almost all the types of the Sanskrit syllabic coalescence are illustrated in this verse.
 nants by the name Sandhi , i.e., joint or juncture. While speaking in Sanskrit, when some sounds are to be uttered consecutively, they automatically get altered into their homogenous sounds due to the peculiar condition of the tongue and other oral organ of pronunciation in our mouth.

## Now, let us see how different sounds

## have combined by sandhi process in the above verse:

(1) $R^{1} \underline{m a a ̊}+\underline{r}^{1} j a-m a^{a}$ ia / $=R^{1} m o r^{1} j a-m a \underline{a}$ iå / Here, the final visarga (å, written like English colon (:) in the Devan ${ }^{1}$ gar» script) in the syllable maå' is followed by $r$ ' of the following syllable $r^{1}$ '. The Sanskrit sound $r^{\prime}$, being a soft consonant, the immediately preceding sound 'a ' is changed to, or rather replaced by, the vowel sound $\mathbf{u}$ ', which further combines with the immediately preceding sound $a$ ' in the syllable 'ma'. Thus, (through the process of $a+\mathbf{a}+r=a+\mathbf{u}+r=\mathbf{o}+r$ ) maå changes to mo. Similarly, further in the sixth sentence the 'saå' in the $D^{1}$ saà + asmi has changed to so 'in $D^{1}$ so ' smi'.
(2) $R^{1}$ jama ${ }^{\text {a }}$ ia sad ${ }^{1}$ / Here, even though the final visarga (:) in the final syllable $\mathfrak{a}$ ià of the previous word $r^{1}$ jama ${ }^{\text {iå, }}$ is followed by the initial sibilant $\boldsymbol{s}$ ' in the immediately following word sad ${ }^{1}$, there is no change, because when a visarga is followed by a sibilant consonant (as in visarga+s = :+s), both have remained intact. Similarly, it has remained
remained intact. Similarly it has remained unchanged in Cittalayaå sad ${ }^{1}$. So also in the word namaå, it is in tact because the visarga has occurred at the end of the quarter of the verse.
(3) $\mathrm{R}^{1} \mathrm{mam}+$ ramelam + bhaje $/=\mathrm{R}^{1} \mathrm{ma}$, ramella, bhaje / Here, the final $m$ in both the first and the second words is changed to anusv ${ }^{1}$ ra (.) placed on the previous syllables ma and $\mathbb{m a}$, making them ma, and $\mathbb{M a}$, respectively. Similarly, the final sounds $m$ of the words par ${ }^{1}$ ya ${ }^{2}$ am and parataram have the changed to, in both of them. The rule is that when any initial consonant of a next word follows the final m of a precious word, the m sound is changed to an anusv ${ }^{1}$ ra which is put as a dot on the top of the previous Devan ${ }^{1}$ gar»syllable.
(4) $R^{1} m^{a} a+a b h i h a t^{1}=R^{1} m^{a^{1}}$ bhihat ${ }^{1} /$ Here, the final vowel a in the final syllable ${ }^{a}$ a of the previous word $R^{1} \mathrm{~m}^{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{a}$ is immediately followed by the intial vowel a of the word abhihat ${ }^{1}$. They are, therefore. coalesced into, and replaced by, the homogeneous single long vowel ${ }^{1}$, which combines with the sound $\mathfrak{a}$ and becomes ${ }^{1}$. Similarly, in $\mathrm{Na}+$ asti $=N^{1}$ sti, the short $a+a$ has coalesced, and are replaced by the single long vowel ${ }^{1}$.
(5) $N i q^{1}$ cara-camøà $+r^{1} m^{1}$ ya $=N i \not \mathbb{q}^{1}$ carachamør $r^{1} m^{1}$ ya / Here, the final visarga ( ${ }^{\circ}$ ) has been immediately followed by the initial consonant $r$ of the syllable $r^{1}$ of the next word $r^{1} \mathrm{~m}^{1}$ ya. In the resulting coalescence, the previous sound $\AA$ has been elided, and hence it has ceased to be uttered, while the previous short vowel $u$ has been replaced by its homogeneoud long one, viz., $\varnothing$, in cam $\varnothing$.
(6) $R^{1} m^{1} t+n^{1} s t i=R^{1} m^{1} n n^{1}$ sti / Here, the final sound t of the previous word $\mathrm{r}^{1} \mathrm{~m}^{1} \mathrm{t}$ is immediately followed by the initial sound $n$ of the syllable na of the next coalesced words $\mathrm{n}^{1}$ sti, thus affecting the previous sound t and changing it into a homogeneous sound, and replacing it by a similar sound $n$. consequently $\mathrm{t}+\mathrm{n}=\mathrm{n}+\mathrm{n}$, thus replacing $-\mathrm{tn}^{1}$ - by $\mathrm{n}^{1}$.
(7) $\mathrm{D}^{1}$ saà + asmi $=$ Daso ${ }^{\prime} \mathrm{mi} /$ Here, the final visarga (å) sound in the final syllable saå of the previous word $d^{1}$ saà has been immediately followed by the initial vowel sound a of the next word asmi. Consequently the visarga (å) has changed, and is replaced by, the vowel sound $u$, which combines with
the previous vowel sound a of the syllable sa, and coalesces as, and is replaced by, the vowel sound 0 , making it $d^{1} \mathrm{so}$. Then, since the vowel sound 0 is followed by the vowel sound $a$, this a gets elided, and in order to remember this elision, a sign of an avagraha ( S ), much like the English letter ' S ', is put in its place.
(8) Smi + aham = Smyaham / Here, the final vowel sound $i$ of the syllable smi is immediately followed by the initial vowel sound a of the next word aham. Consequently, the sound $i$ is coalesced, and replaced by, the homogeneous semivowel sound $y$, thus $i+a=y a$, and smi $+a=$ smya.
(9) $M^{1} m+$ uddhara $=M^{1}$ muddhara / Here, the final consonant sound m of the previous word $\mathrm{m}^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ is immediately followed by the initial vowel sound $u$ of the next word uddhara. Consequently, both the consonant m and the vowel u combine into a single syllable, thus $m+u=m u$.

It is to be noted that in the above nine instances of coalescence, we get the illustrations of almost all the chief types of coalescence, viz., the visarga-sandhi, the svara-sandhi, the vyañjana-sandhi.

The coalescence (sandhi) in Sanskrit is of two main types, viz., internal ( ${ }^{\text {ntara) }}$ ) and external ( $\mathrm{b}^{1}$ hya). When we analyze a word grammatically we find that it is made up of the an original pratipadika or a $\mathrm{dh}^{1} \mathrm{tu}$, and an ${ }^{1}$ gama is added to it, or an adesha replaces a part or whole of it, and a termination is affixed to it at the end for forming its desired form. In this process, some sounds occur together consecutively in such a way that while pronouncing them in a continuous utterance some changes automatically occur in them due to the position of the oral organs of utterance, and in accordance with the consequent rules of coalescence of the Sanskrit language, as seen in the above instances, before making them a single declined noun or adjective, or a conjugated verb. This type of coalescence is internal ( ${ }^{1}$ ntara-sandhi).

Similarly, when we utter a Sanskrit sentence, some

## LESSON 6

$$
\text { (i a-haå } \boldsymbol{p}^{1} \text {-haå) }
$$

## Now, read aloud the following sentences, trying to understand their meanings.

Aha, $r^{1}$ maå / Tva, lak $-m a^{a} a a^{\circ} / S^{1} s x^{1} / R^{1}$ maå $s x^{1}$ ca iti ${ }^{1} \mathrm{v}^{1}$, dampat»/ Vaya, vana, gacch ${ }^{1}$ maå / Asm ${ }^{1}$ ka, nagar» ayodhy ${ }^{1}$ / , vayoå pit ${ }^{1}$ dallarathaå / Mayi, iti $r^{1}$ me, $s x^{1}$ snihyati / Tvayi, iti lak-ma@e, Ørmil ${ }^{1}$ snihyati / $R^{1}$ me lak-maº e ca, iti ${ }^{1}$ vayoà, kaullaly ${ }^{1} m^{1} t \AA \AA$-sneha, dh ${ }^{1}$ rayati. Asm ${ }^{1}$ su kau ๆaly ${ }^{1}$, sumitr ${ }^{1}$, kaikey» ca matÅsneha, dar layanti / Mama, iti $s x^{1} \mathrm{y}^{1} \mathrm{a}$, daףlarathaå ףvasuraå / Urmil ${ }^{1}$, ma ${ }^{\text {a }}$ Cav» ca mama, iti $s \star^{1} y^{1}$ à, svasrvau nan ${ }^{1}$ nd ${ }^{1}$ raå ca / Kaulaly ${ }^{1} a s m^{1} \mathrm{ka}$,
 pa-h¹ maå //

Tva, $r^{1}$ vaㄹaå / Tava bh ${ }^{1} r y^{1}$ mandodar»/ Kumbhakarํaå vibh»-a aå ca te bhr ${ }^{1}$ tarau / Yøya, trayaå bhr ${ }^{1}$ taraå / Yu-m ${ }^{1} k a$, pit ${ }^{1}$ pulastyaå / Tvayi $r^{1} k-a s a-k u l a s y a ~ n e t A ̊ t v a, ~$ vartate / Tva, dak-ia1-pathasya sarva-satt¹ dh»川laå vartase //

Aham $=I(a m) ., v^{1} m=$ we (both). Vayam $=$ we (all). , vayoå = of us both. Mama = my, of me, mine. Asm ${ }^{1}$ kam = of us all. Mayi $=$ in (i.e., towards) me. Asm ${ }^{1}$ su $=$ in (i.e., towards) all of us. Tvam = thou, you. $\mathrm{S}^{1}=$ she. Tava = your, of you. Yu-m² ${ }^{1}$ kam $=$ of you all. Pit $\AA=$ father. Mat $\AA=$ mother. Svas $\AA=$ sister. ${ }^{\sim}$ va $\uparrow \AA \AA=$ mother-in-law. ${ }^{\sim}$ vasura $=$ fathe-in-law. $B h^{1}$ ry ${ }^{1}$ $=$ wife. $\mathrm{Bh}^{1} \mathrm{t} \AA=$ brother. $\operatorname{Nan}^{1} \mathrm{nd} \AA=$ husband's sister. Net $\AA=$ leader. Dak -ia ${ }^{1}$-patha $=$ South India. Satt ${ }^{1}=$ power. ${ }^{1 / 4 a}=$ master, king. Adh»la $=$ king of kings, emperor.

Now, let us compare the different forms of the pronouns asmad and yu-mad given below. It should be noted that, as in English language, in the Sanskrit language too, there is no form of Vocative ever used in the case of these two pronouns.

The meaning of these words are as follows: A-krodhaå $=$ na krodhaå $=$ absence of anger. A-har-aå $=$ na har-aå $=$ no rejoicing. A-ro-aå $=$ na ro-aå $=$ lack of fury. A-lobhaå $=$ na lobhaå $=$ non-greediness. A-drohaå $=$ na drohaå $=$ non-betrayal. A-dambhaå = na dambhaå = absence of hypocrisy. An-aty ${ }^{1}$ saå - na aty ${ }^{1}$ saå $=$ non-surpassing. A-paiqunam $=$ na paiqunam $=$ non-wickedness. An-as $\mathrm{y}^{1}=$ na as ${ }^{1} \mathrm{y}^{1}=$ absence of jealousy. Sa, -vibh ${ }^{1}$ gaå $=$ samyak vibh ${ }^{1}$ gaå $=$ proper distribution. , rjavam $=$ \&jut ${ }^{1}=$ simplicity. Ty ${ }^{1}$ gaå $=d^{1}$ nam $=$ charity. $M^{1}$ rdavam $=$ mÅdut $^{1}=$ softness, ${ }^{2}$ amaå $=\mathbb{q}^{1}$ ntiå $=$ peace. Damaå= indriy ${ }^{1 a 1}$, sa, yamaå $=$ Control of senses. Sarva-bhØte-u a-virodhaå = sarva-pr ${ }^{1}$ ainaå prati virodhasya abh ${ }^{1}$ vaå = lack of hostility towards all beings. Yogaå = samatvam = equanimity. , ryam $=\operatorname{sad}^{1} c^{1} r a-p^{1}$ lanam $=$ good conduct. AnÅla, sat ${ }^{1}=n A ̊ l a$, sat ${ }^{1} \mathrm{y}^{1}$ å $a b h^{1}$ vaå $=$ lack of hardheartedness. Tu T iå $=$ santo -a a $=$ satisfaction. Iti $=$ et ${ }^{1} \mathrm{ni}=$ these/ thus. Sarva-dharm ${ }^{1}{ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}=$ of all the religions. Samayapad $^{1} \mathrm{ni}=\mathrm{p}^{1}$ lan>> ${ }^{1}$ å niyam ${ }^{1}$ à $=$ rules to be observed. $\mathrm{T}^{1} \mathrm{ni}=$ them. Anu-ti-hati $=p^{1}$ layati $={ }^{1}$ carati $=$ observes. Yaå $=$ (he) who. Vidhin ${ }^{1} \mathrm{t}=$ vidhi-pørvakam $=$ in accordance with the procedure. Saå = he. Sarva-g1 m » = sarvatra vijay» = successful everywhere. Bhavati = becomes / is. Now, utter aloud, over again, the above two sentences, keeping in mind their meanings.

We have seen in the above explanations that in the words like a-krodhaå, an-as $\emptyset y^{1}$, etc. the words na+krodhaå and na+ asØy ${ }^{1}$ have combined and the initial na has been replaced by a- with a word beginning with a consonant, or an- with the word beginning with a vowel, and after the due coalescence a single word has been formed. Such a single formation resulting from a combination of two or more words is called a sam ${ }^{1}$ sa (compound) or a $s^{1} \mathrm{~m}^{1}$ sika-ףlabda (compounded word) in Sanskrit.

Now, read aloud the following sentences,
trying to understand their meanings:Tapaå krodhena vinaflyati / Sneho virahe a vina lyati / Vyavahr ro 'vifv¹ sena
vinalyati / Gua $\mathbf{a v}^{\mathbf{1}}$ n garve ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a}$ vinalyati / Kula-str» a-rak-adena vina lyati / Dh¹ nyam a-var-ea vinaףlyati / RØpa, durbh¹ gyena vina\{lyati / Bhojana, tailena vinalyati / ~ar»a, ayatnena vinaflyati / That ${ }^{1}$ dharmaå pram ${ }^{1}$ dena vina lyati /

## Try to understand the forms of the words used in these sentences:

Krodha (anger), sneha (affection), viraha (separation), vyavah ${ }^{1}$ ra (mutual relationship), a-vi $\mathbb{N}^{1}$ sa (lack of trust), garva (pride), a-yatna (lack of effort), dharma (religion, sense of duty), and pram $^{1}$ da (negligence) are the masculine $a-k^{1} r^{1} n t a$ nouns.

Kula-str» (virtuous woman) is a feminine noun.
Tapas (penance), a-rak-a a (lack of protection), a-var-a (lack of rains), røpa (beauty), dur-bh ${ }^{1}$ gya (ill luck), bhojana (food), taila (edible oil) and Iar»a (body) are the neuter nouns.

Vinallyati (is spoiled) is a third person singular verbform derived from the Sanskrit root vi+nal (4 Par.)

It must be noted that the cases more used in these sentences are the nominative indicating the subject and the instrumental denoting the cause, expressed by the usages like 'due to', 'because of', 'through', and etc.

Further, it must be noted that the word
in these sentences have coalesced as follows:
Snehaå + virahe $e^{a} a=$ sneho virahena $(a ̊+v=0+v)$. Vyavah ${ }^{1}$ raå+ avi $\mathbb{N}^{1}$ sena $=$ vyavah ${ }^{1}$ rao 'vi $\mathbb{N}^{1}$ sena ( $a+2=$ ' + a). Here, since the visarga (å) is followed by the consecutive v (which a soft semi-vowel), the å has been changed to, or replaced by 0 . And when the $a$ is followed by the vowel $a$ it is elided, and the elision has been indicated by a sign of avagraha (looking like a Roman S)in Sanskrit, and represented by an apostrophe (') in Roman transliteration.

Now, read aloud over again the above Sanskrit sentences, trying to understand their correct meanings.
they are generally the same as are applied to the nouns in general, with a few exceptions. Thus, the termination affixed to the masculine and neuter pronouns is -smai in the Dative singular $-s m^{1} t$ in Ablative singular, smin in the Locative singular, while those affixed to the feminine pronouns is syai in the Dative singular, sy ${ }^{1}$ a in the Ablative singular, and $s y^{1} m$ in Genitive singular. For instance, tasmai (= to that), tasmat (=from that), tasmin (=in that) are the Dat. Sing., Abl. Sing., and Loc. Sing forms of the pronoun tad (Mas. and Neu.), respectively. In the same way tasyai (=to her), tasy ${ }^{1}$ a (=from her), and tasy ${ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ (=in her) are the Dat. Sing., Sing., Abl. Sing., and Loc. Sing forms of the pronoun tad (Fem.), respectively. All other forms have just the same terminations as are affixed to the other nouns in their respective genders.
sant $^{1}$ nam $=$ child, offspring. Daivm $=$ luck. Param $=$ suprior to.
Gai $\mathbf{g}^{1} \mathbf{p}^{1} \mathbf{p a}$, Iaq|» $\mathbf{t}^{1}$ pa, dainya, kalpa-tarus tath ${ }^{1}$ /
$\mathbf{p}^{1}$ pa, $\mathbf{t}^{1} \mathrm{pa}$, ca dainya, ca hanti $s^{1}$ dhu-sam ${ }^{1}$ gamaå //
In this verse there are four sentences: Gai $\mathbf{g}^{1} \mathbf{p}^{1} \mathbf{p a}$, hanti/ ~a\|> $\mathbf{t}^{1}$ pa, / Tath ${ }^{1}$ kalpa-tarus dainya, (hanti ${ }^{\prime} \mathbf{S}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{d h u}$ sam $^{1}$ gamaå $\mathbf{p}^{1}$ pa, $\mathbf{t}^{1} \mathrm{pa}$, ca dainya, ca (hanti)/

$\mathrm{P}^{1}$ pam $=\mathrm{p}^{1}$ takam $=\sin .{ }^{\text {~ } a q »=}$ candraå $=$ Moon. Dainya, = d»nasya bh ${ }^{1}$ vaå =misery. Kalpa-taruå $=v^{1} n ̃ h^{1}$ pØraka, divya, vÅk-am = wish-fulfilling tree. $S^{1}$ dhusam ${ }^{1}$ gamaå $=\operatorname{sajjan}^{1} n^{1}$, melanam $=$ meeting with, or company of good persons. Hanti $=n^{1}$ Ilayati $=$ destroys. Kalpataruå + tath $^{1}=$ kalpa-tarus tath ${ }^{1}(a+t=s+t=-s t-)$.<br>Guáo bhØ-ayate rØpa, qp>a, bhØ-ayate kulam /<br>Siddhir bhØ-ayate vidy ${ }^{1}$, bhogo bhØ-ayate dhanam //<br>BhØ-yate $=$ Iobhayate $=$ adorns, embellishes. Siddhir bhØ-ayate $=$ siddhiå $+b h \varnothing$-ayate $(a+b h=r+b h=-r b h u-)$.

In English, when we use one noun, and want to use it again, we would be bored and look silly to use it again and again. In order to avoid it, we use different forms of different cases and numbers of the words like 'he', 'she', ;it', 'this', 'that' 'which', 'what', 'I', 'you', as the representatives of the concerned nouns. Similar is the practice in Sanskrit, too, and we use the words, like tad, etad, yad, yu-mad, asmad, adas, sarva, and such others. that are known as Sarva- $n^{1}$ ma, i.e. pronoun. $\mathrm{P}^{1}$ ini has listed all such words in a single group, which begins with the word sarva. Hence, it is called Sarv¹i-ga a. And, since these words can be used by all, they are called sarva- $n^{1}$ ma. The Sanskrit language utilizes the following pronouns: Tad = that; etad $=$ this; yad $=$ which; yu-mad $=$ you; asmad $=1$; adas $=$ that; kim = what; sarva = all; anya = other; itara = another; sva = self; para = highest, supreme.

Looking to the different forms of the pronouns in different cases and persons, we find that the terminations affixed to

Now, read aloud the following Sanskrit sentences,
trying to guess their approximate meanings:
VÅ-ir jap ${ }^{1}$-sum ${ }^{1} n^{1}$, na sukh ${ }^{1}$ yate / Candrodayal cakrav ${ }^{1} k^{1} n^{1}$, na sukh ${ }^{1}$ yate / Subhik-a, dh ${ }^{1}$ nyasa; gr $^{1}$ hak $^{1}{ }^{\mathbf{a}}{ }^{1}$, na sukh ${ }^{1}$ yate / Garjitam farabh ${ }^{1}{ }^{\mathbf{a}}{ }^{1}$, na sukh ${ }^{1}$ yate / Candana, virahi ${ }^{\text {a }}$, na sukh ${ }^{1}$ yate / Var+ prav $^{1}$ sik $^{1} \mathbf{n}^{1}$, na sukh ${ }^{1}$ yate / MÅda; ga- labdo ' $k$-irogia ${ }^{1}$, na sukh ${ }^{1}$ yate / Induå svairia $>^{1}{ }^{1}$, na sukh ${ }^{1}$ yate / Udyotaq caur ${ }^{1} \underline{1}^{1}$, na sukh ${ }^{1}$ yate / D>paå pata; $g^{1} n^{1}$, na sukh ${ }^{1}$ yate / SØryaå kau $\mathrm{Ii}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{n}^{1}$, na sukh ${ }^{1}$ yate //

## Now let us understand the forms of

 the wordsused in these sentences:Masculine words: Candra/ Udaya/ cakrav¹ka/ ~arabha/ Virahin/ Prav¹ sika/ Rogin/ Indu/ Udyota/ Caura/ Dıpa / Pataiga / Sørya /
Feminine words: Jap¹/ VÅ-i/ Var + / Svairia $\gg 1$
Neuter words: Suma/ Subhik-a/ Dh¹nya/ Garjita/ Candana/ Ak-i/
Indeclinable: Na /
Verbs: Sukh ${ }^{1}$ yate (Atm. $3^{\text {d }}$ Per, Sing. of a nominal verb from the noun sukha).

## Now, let us understand the individual words <br> used in the above sentences:

$V A ̊-i a ̊=v a r+=$ rains. $\int a p^{1}-$ sum $^{1} n^{1},=j a p^{1}-p u-p^{1}{ }^{1} 1 \mathrm{~m}=$ to the Jap ${ }^{1}$ flowers. It should be noted here that in all these sentences the genitive case is used in the sense of the objective case. $\quad \mathrm{Na}=$ not. Sukh ${ }^{1}$ yate $=$ sukha, dad ${ }^{1} \mathrm{ti}=$ renders happy; makes feel comfortable Candrodayaå = candrasya udayaå = rise of the Moon; Moon-rise. Cakrav ${ }^{1}$ kan $^{1}$, $=$ Subhik-a, $=$ sutar ${ }^{1}$, bhik + pr$^{1}$ pyate (is obtained) yad ${ }^{1} t^{1} d A ̊ \| a a ̊ ~ k^{1} l a a ̊$ $\mathrm{dh}^{1}$ nya-samÅddhi-k ${ }^{1}$ laå $==$ time when food is profusely available. $D h^{1}$ nya-saigr ${ }^{1}$ hak $^{1}{ }^{1}{ }^{1}$, $=$ ye $d^{1}$ nyasya saj graha, kurvanti, te $-\mathrm{m}=$ to those who store grains. Garjitam $=$ garjan ${ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}=$ roaring. ${ }^{\sim} \operatorname{arabh}^{1}{ }^{1}{ }^{1}$, $=$ gaja- $\|i\| \varnothing n^{1} \mathrm{~m}=$ of the young ones of elephants. Candana, $=$ sandal. Virahia ${ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}=$ priya-jana-sai ga-rahit ${ }^{1} n^{1} m$ - to those who are separated from
their beloved persons. Var $-1=v \AA \AA \sim i a ̊=~ r a i n s . ~ P r a v 11 \operatorname{sik}^{1} n^{1},=$ prav${ }^{1}$ se pravartam ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}^{1} \mathrm{n}^{1} \mathrm{~m}=$ those ho are travelling; travelers. MÅda; ga-labdaå = mÂdanga- $\mathrm{v}^{1}$ dyasya ravaå $=$ The sound of drum-playing. Ak-irogiå ${ }^{1}$, = cak-u-roga-yukt¹¹²m $=$ Those having eye disease. Induå = Candraå = Moon Svairia , $^{11}$, $=$ $\mathrm{y}^{1}$ str» svacchanda- $\mathrm{c}^{1}$ ria $^{\mathrm{I}}$ » bhavati $\mathrm{s}^{1}$ svairia », $\mathrm{t}^{1} \mathrm{~s}^{1} \mathrm{~m}=$ to the wanton women. Udyotal $=$ prak $^{1}$ qaå $=$ light, lustre, Caur ${ }^{191}$, $=$ taskar ${ }^{1}{ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}=$ to the thieves. D»paå = d»pakaå = lamp. Patai $g^{1} n^{1}$, = To the butterflies. Søryaå = dinakaraå = Sun. Kaufik ${ }^{1} n^{1}$, $=u l Ø k^{1} n^{1} m=$ to the owls.

Now, read the above Sanskrit sentences aloud, keeing in mind their meanings.
to form one sound, or from technical viewpoint both are replaced by a single sound. These sounds are e, $\mathbf{o}$, ar and al. $\mathrm{P}^{1} \mathrm{ini}$ and other Sanskrit grammarians have called these sounds by the name $\mathbf{G u a} \mathbf{a}$, and the coalescence in which these sounds replace the two combining sounds, as shown above, is called the Gua a-sandhi. In it the replacing sound is technically an ${ }^{1}$ della, and hence it is called $\mathbf{G u}^{\mathbf{1}}{ }^{1}$ dela. In the $\mathrm{P}^{1 \underline{1}}$ inian terminology, this procedure is called pørvaparayoå ekaå gua 1 dellaå /, i.e. replacement of the two consecutive combining sounds by a single $G u a=$ a sound.
$\mathrm{P}^{1}$ ani calls the sounds ${ }^{1}$, ai, au, ${ }^{1} \mathbf{r}$ and ${ }^{11}$ by the term VÅddhi. When a or ${ }^{1}$ is followed consecutively by a Gua a or a VÅddhi sound, both are replaced by a single homoge- neous VÅddhi sound. Thus, $a+e /^{1}+e / a+a i /^{1}+a i=a i$. For instance: tava+eva = tavaiva; tava+ ai $\ddagger$ varyam = tavai $\ddagger$ varyam. Similarly, $a+0 /^{1}+0 / a+a u /^{1}+a u=a u$. For instance: jala+ oghaå = jalaughaå; Mah ${ }^{1}+0$-adhiå= Mahau-adhiå; vara+autsukyam = Varautsukyam; vidy¹ + autsukyam= vidyautsukyam.

The coalescence in which these sounds replace the two combining sounds, as shown above is called the VÅddhi-sandhi. In it the replacing sound is technically an ${ }^{1}$ defla, and hence it is called VÅdhy ${ }^{1}$ defla. In the $\mathrm{P}^{1}{ }^{\text {anian }}$ in terminology, this procedure is called pørvaparayoå ekaå vÅdhy¹ della /, i.e., replacement of the two consecutive combining sounds by a single VÅddhi sound.

## Now, recite the following verses aloud rhythmically <br> <br> Keeping in mind their meanings:

 <br> <br> Keeping in mind their meanings:}Na hi vidy ${ }^{1}$-samo bandhur na ca $\mathrm{vy}^{1}$ dhi-samo ripuå /
Na $\mathbf{c}^{1}$ patya-samå sneho na ca daiv ${ }^{1}$ t para, balam //
This verse incoroprates four sentences: Vidy ${ }^{1}$-samo bandhur na hi (asti) / Vy ${ }^{1}$ dhi-samo ripuå ca na (asti) / Apatyasamå snehaå ca na (asti) / Daiv ${ }^{1}$ t para, balam ca na (asti) /

Bandhuå = sambandh» = relative. Samaå = tulyaå = comparable to. $\mathrm{Vy}^{1}$ dhiå= disease. Ripuå $=$ enemy. Apatyam $=$
~ir»-a flower endure the (weight of the) foot of a bee? He saptapad»pad ${ }^{1}$ ni ! yØya, viv ${ }^{1}$ hasya $\mathrm{pr}^{1}$ a $a-$ bh $^{1}{ }^{1}$ ni bhavatha / (Voc. Plu.) $=0$ the steps of the Seven-step ceremony! You are the life-breath of marriage.

Here in the first sentence the word padam means sth $^{1}$ nam $=$ niv $^{1}$ saå = place, residence; in the second one padam means caraa $a m=p^{1}$ daå $=$ foot; in the third one pad $^{1} n i=$ steps.

Now, in order to commit to memory, sing five times aloud rhythmically the Nominative, Vocative and Accusative forms of the $a-k^{1} r^{1}$ nta noun $r^{1} m a(m$.$) in all the three numbers$ each, then sing rhythmically five times the forms of the Instrumental, Dative and Ablative cases. Then, do so the forms of the Genitive and Locative cases. And, finally, sing five times rhythmically all the twenty-four forms of $r^{1}$ ma in all the cases and numbers from the Nominative to the Locative.

From the view point of the changes due to the coalescence, it should be noted that if a or ${ }^{1}$ is followed consecutively by i or », both combine to form, or are replaced by, the latter's homogeneous diphthon e. Thus, $a+i / a+» /{ }^{1}+i /{ }^{1}+»=$ e For instance: deva+indraå = devendraå; deva+ >|laå= deveflaå; $m^{1}+$ indraå = mahendraå; mah ${ }^{1}+$ »|laå= maheflaå.

If a or ${ }^{1}$ are followed by $u$ or $\varnothing$, both combine to form, or are replaced by, the latter's homogeneous diphthon 0 . Thus, $a+u / a+\varnothing /^{1}+u /^{1}+\varnothing=0$. For instance: para+ upak¹ raå = paropa-k¹raå; para+Øruå= paroruå; mah ${ }^{1}+u p a k^{1} r a a ̊=$ mahopak¹ raå.

If a or ${ }^{1}$ are followed by long or short $\AA$ both combine to form, or are replaced by, the ar. Thus, $a+\AA /{ }^{1}+\AA=$ ar. For instance, deva $+\boldsymbol{A}-1=$ devar $-i ; m^{1}+\boldsymbol{A}-i=$ mahar $-i$.

If a or ${ }^{1}$ are followed by $₫$ both combine to form, or are replaced by, the al. Thus, $a+\delta /{ }^{1}+\delta=a l$. For instance: tava+ $\alpha^{1}$ raå = tavalk ${ }^{1}$ raå.

In these types of the coalescence, two sounds combine

## LESSON 5 ( Pañcamaå $\mathrm{P}^{1}$-haå)

In the last lesson we familiarized ourselves with the Sup, i.e., Case terminations, as affixed to the nouns ending in a consonant, , e.g. $\mathrm{V}^{1} \mathrm{c}$, and also those slightly modified when affixed to the $a k^{1} r^{1}$ nta masculine nouns, e.g., $r^{1}$ ma. Now, let us see them side by side in the cases of the nouns dik and jana for ready comparison:

| Case | Sing. | al | Plural | Case |  | Dual | ral |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pra. | dik | lau |  | Nom. |  | anau | $j \mathrm{n}^{1}{ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| Sa, | dik | diflau | difla | Voc. | J ana | janau | $j^{\text {a }}{ }^{\text {a }}$ |
| Dvi. | diflam | diflau | diflaa | Accu. | janam | janau | jan ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}$ |
| Tåti. | dif | digbhy ${ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ | digbhiå | Instr | janena jan | ${ }^{\text {b }}{ }^{1}{ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ | janaiå |
| Catu. | dife | digbhy ${ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ | digbhyaå | Dat. ja | $\mathrm{an}^{1} \mathrm{ya} \mathrm{jan}^{1}$ | bhy ${ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ | janebhyaå |
| Pai | ¢! | digbhy ${ }^{1}$ | digbhyaå | Abl. | $\mathrm{jan}^{1} \mathbf{t} \mathrm{jan}^{1}$ | bhy ${ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ | janebhyaå |
|  | difaå | difoo̊ | diffr | Gen. ja | janasya ja | nayoå | $j \mathrm{n}^{1} \mathrm{n}^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ |
| Sapt. | di¢ | diq | dik-u | oc | jane | nayoå | janeせu |

Now, note these forms from the point of grammatical analysis. In the case terminations applied to the word diq the one affixed both in the Nominative and Vocative singular forms is elided. But in the case of the word jana, the termination s of the Nominative singular is changed into a visarga (:), as for instance, in the case of the noun jana. The modified forms in some of the cases are shown in bold types.

From the point of view of grammatical analysis, we should remember here that since the noun jana is $a-k^{1} r^{1} n t a$, its final vowel a naturally combines with the initial vowel of the termination affixed to it, and sometimes it is elided, as in jana $+a u=j a n+a u=j a n a u(N o m .$, Voc. and Acc. du.); sometimes it is lengthened, as in jana + bhy ${ }^{1}$ yam $=$ jan $^{1}+$ bhy $^{1} m=$ jan ${ }^{1}$ bhy ${ }^{1} m$ (Intr., Dat. and Abl. du.); sometimes it is coalesced with it, as in jana $+i=$ jane (Loc. sing.). Sometimes, the termination is replaced by its ${ }^{1}$ defla and then coalesced with it, as in jana $+^{1}=$ Jana + ina $=$ janena (Instr. sing.), jana + bhis $=$ jana + ais $=$ janaiå (Instr. PI. $) ;$ jana $+\mathrm{e}=$ jana $+{ }^{1} \mathbf{y a}=$ Jan ${ }^{1}$ ya (Dat. Sing.); jana $+a s=j a n a+{ }^{1} t=j a n^{1} t(A b l$. sing.) jana $+a s$ $=$ jana + sya $=$ janasya (Gen. sing.); jana + os = jana + yos $=$

Janayoå (Gen. and Loc. sing.); jana $+{ }^{1} m=J a n^{1}+\mathbf{n}^{1} m$ $=j a n^{1} n^{1} m$ (Gen. pl.); and jana + su $=$ jane $+s u=j a n e+\operatorname{u}=$ jane-u (Loc. pl.).

Moreover, in the nouns, having the letters $\AA, r$, or $\neg$ in them, e.g. $\mathrm{r}^{1}$ ma, the sound n in the terminations ina (Instr. Sing.) and $\mathrm{n}^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ (Gen. pl.) changes into, or is replaced by, its homogeneous retroflex sound $\mathfrak{a}$, making them $\mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{a}$ and $\mathfrak{a}^{1} \mathrm{~m}$, respectively; and the sound $s$ in the termination su (Loc. pl.) is changed into, or replaced by, its homogeneous retroflex sound $\rightarrow$ making it $-u$, as in jane-u.

Excepting these changes in the terminations applied to the $a-k^{1} r^{1} n t a$ nouns, the rest of the terminations remain in tact and are applied as such. In accordance with the intention of the speaker to express different senses, he utilizes the different forms of the concerned noun in different cases and numbers, and goes on expressing through them the corresponding sense by the use of those forms. It should be kept in mind that the meaning of the words in a sentence has to be understood with reference to their forms, the context, and the linguistic custom.

## Now, sing the following verses aloud and rhythmically: Tvam eva $\mathbf{m}^{1} \mathbf{t}^{1}$ ca pit $^{1}$ tvam eva Tvam eva bandull ca sakh ${ }^{1}$ tvam eva / <br> Tvam eva vidy ${ }^{1}$ dravia ${ }^{a}$, tvam eva Tvam eva sarva, mama deva-deva //

In this verse there are the following two instances of coalescence: tvam+ eva = tvameva ; bandhuå $+c a=$ bandhuqna.

Deva-devaå $=\operatorname{dev}^{1} n^{1}$, devaå $=\operatorname{dev}^{1}$ dhidevaå $=$ the God among (all) the gods, the supreme deity. Here the form Devadeva (= O God!). is in the Vocative case, since God is addressed by it. Tvam = you. Eva= only. Mama = my, mine. $\mathrm{M}^{1} \mathrm{t}^{1}$ $=$ mother. Pit ${ }^{1}=$ father. Bandhuå $=$ relative, Sakh ${ }^{1}=$ friend, companion. Vidy ${ }^{1}=$ learning, knowledge. Dravi ${ }^{\underline{a}} \mathrm{am}=$ dravyam = money, wealth. Sarvam = all in all, everything.

Kulam = kul»nat ${ }^{1}=$ being born in a good family. ${ }^{\sim} » a m=$ $c^{1}$ ritryam $=$ character. Tekaå $=$ tejasvit $^{1}=$ being bright, brilliance. Balam = Ilaktimattvam = strength, being strong. Gauram $=$ gurut ${ }^{1} \mathrm{y}^{1} \mathrm{a} \mathrm{bh}^{1}$ vaå $=$ greatness, sense of importance. Pratyayaå = su-paricitatvam = being well-known, firm conviction, trust. Snehaå $=$ prema $=$ priyat $^{1}=$ affection, love. $D^{1}$ ridrye ${ }^{\text {a }}$ = nirdhanatvena $=$ due to poverty. Vinaqlyati = gets destroyed, gets lost.

In the paragraphs and verses given in the lessons so far, we have seen numerous $a-k^{1} r^{1}$ nta masculine and neuter nouns, such as vacana, ${ }^{1}$ rjava, pratyaya, श*>a, rØpa, bhojana, taila, d¹ na, $d^{1}$ ridrya, etc. In the various forms of the masculine and the neuter nouns the terminations differ from one only in the Nominative, Vocative and Accusative cases in singular, dual and plural numbers. In the rest of the cases and numbers, the forms of both the masculine and neuter nouns have the same terminations.

## The forms that differ in terminations in Mas, and Neu. are as follows:

| Deva (Mas.) |  |  |  |  | Pada (Neu.) |  |  |  |
| :--- | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pra. | devaå | devau | $\operatorname{dev}^{1}$ a | Nom. | padam | pade | pad $^{1}$ ni |  |
| Sam. | deva | devau | $\operatorname{dev}^{1}$ à | Voc. | pada | pade pad $^{1}$ ni |  |  |
| Dvi. | devam | devau | $\operatorname{dev}^{1} n$ | Acc. | padam | pade | pad $^{1} n i$ |  |

Looking to the case terminations of the Nominative, Vocative and Accusative applied to the neuter nouns, instead of $\mathrm{s}, \mathrm{o}$ and as in masculine, there is am, » and ${ }^{1} \mathrm{ni}$ in neuter; respectively, while in Vocative Singular the termination in both is elided.

Since the forms are similar in both the Nominative and Accusative, we have to guess on basis of the context whether a particular form is used in which of the two cases. For instance, Vi-ج oå pada, vaikua -ham asti / (Nom. Sing.) = The place of Vi-̣ $u$ is Vaikua-ha. Pelava, lir»-a-pu-pa, bhramarasya pada, katha, sahate ? (Acc. Sing.) = How does the tender
gentlemanly behaviour. ${ }^{\sim}$ rutam $=$ jñ1 ${ }^{1}$ nam $=$ knowledge. $A$-bahu$\mathrm{bh}^{1} \mathrm{it}^{1}=$ na atiflya, vaktu, svabh ${ }^{1}$ vaå = lack of too much talkativeness.; not being given to much talking. Yath ${ }^{1}$ qakti $=$ Plaktim anus»tya $=$ in accordance with one's capacity. KÅtajñat ${ }^{1}$ $=$ upak $^{1}$ ra-sc皮 ${ }^{1}$ raå $=$ gratefulness. $A \rightarrow a u=a \rightarrow a-s a, k^{\prime} y^{1} k^{1}$ å
 prak ${ }^{1}$ Ilayanti $=$ reveal, make illustrious.

Par ${ }^{1}$ kramal $\mathrm{c}^{1}=$ Par $^{1}$ kramaå $+\mathrm{c}^{1}(\mathrm{a}+\mathrm{c}=\mathrm{q}=\mathrm{c}=\mathrm{qc})$.
$\mathrm{C}^{1}$ bahubh ${ }^{1}-\mathrm{t}^{1}=\mathrm{ca}+\mathrm{a}$-bahubh ${ }^{1}-\mathrm{it}^{1}\left(\mathrm{a}+\mathrm{a}={ }^{1}\right)$.
A $\rightarrow$ au is Nom. Sing. of the Cardinal number a $\rightarrow$ an.
Par ${ }^{1}$ kramaà is Nom. Sing. of the $a-k^{1} r^{1} n t a \operatorname{mas}$. noun. Gua ${ }^{1}$ å is Nom. Plu. of the $a-k^{1} r^{1}$ nta mas. noun.
Puru-am is Acc. Sing. of the $a-k^{1} r^{1}$ nta mas. noun
Prajñ${ }^{1}$, a-bahu-bh ${ }^{1}+t^{1}$, k\&̊tajñat ${ }^{1}$ are Nom. Sing. of the ${ }^{1}-k^{1} r^{1} n$ ta fem. nouns.

Kaulyam, Irutam, $D^{1}$ nam are Nom. Sing. of the neu. nouns.

Yath ${ }^{1}$-qakti $=$ ףaktim an-atikramya $=$ in accordancewith one's (financial) capacity. It is an indeclinable compound formed by combining the words yath ${ }^{1}$ and qakti.

Drpayanti is Causal $3^{\text {dd }}$ Per. Plu. of of the root $d \gg$ (4 P.).
Kula, Tpla, ca satyañ ca prajñ ${ }^{1}$ tejo dhếtir balam /
Gaurava, pratyayaå sneho $d^{1}$ ridryee a vinalyati //5//
Yad ${ }^{1}$ manu-yaå nirdhanaå bhavati tad ${ }^{1}$ tasya kulam ity ${ }^{1}$ di


Pratyayaå, snehaå are Nom. Sing. of $a-k^{1} r^{1} n t a ~ m a s . ~$ nouns.

Kulam, Plyam, satyam, balam are Nom. Sing. of a-k ${ }^{1} r^{1}$ nta neu. nouns.

Tejaà is Nom. Sing. of the sa- $k^{1} r^{1}$ nta neu. noun tejas.
$D^{1}$ ridrye $a$ is Instr. Sing. of the $a-k^{1} r^{1}$ nta neu. abstract noun ( $d^{1}$ ridrya $=$ daridrasya bh ${ }^{1}$ vaå) from the noun daridra (= poor, pauper, a destitute person).

Vinalyati is $3^{\mathrm{d}}$ Per. Sing of the root vi+nal (4 P.)
Dhstir balam $=$ dhêtiå + balam ( $\mathrm{a}+\mathrm{b}=\mathrm{r}+\mathrm{b}=\mathrm{rb}$ ).

## Now let us recognize the various grammatical forms of the words in the above verse:

In a metrical composition like this, the poet has to adjust the words skillfully in accordance with the exigencies of the meter concerned. But to grasp its sense and significance we have to construe the verse by rearranging the words of the verse in proper order of its sentences. This process is called anvaya, i.e., the prose order. Thus, we have in this verse the following sentences: Bhoå devadeva! Tvam eva mama $\mathrm{m}^{1} \mathrm{t}^{1}$ (asi) / Tvam eva mama pit¹ (asi)/ Tvameva mama bandhuå (asi) / Tvam eva mama sakh ${ }^{1}$ (asi) / Tvam eva mama vidy ${ }^{1}$ (asi) / Tvam eva mama dravia am (asi) Tvam eva mama sarvam (asi) //

## Now let us recognize the various grammatical

 forms of the words in the above verse:Tvam $=$ Nom. Sing. of the pronoun yu-mat, related with the verb in the Second Person.
Mama $=$ Gen. Sing. of the pronoun asmat related with the verb in the First Person.
$M^{1} t^{1}=N o m$. Sing. of the $\AA k^{1} r^{1} n t a$ feminine noun $m^{1} t \AA$ Bandhuå $=$ Nom. Sing. of the $u-k^{1} r^{1} n t a$ masculine noun bandhu. Sakh ${ }^{1}=$ Nom. Sing. of the masculine unusual $i-k^{1} r^{1}$ nta noun sakhi.
Vidy ${ }^{1}=$ Nom. Sing. of the ${ }^{1}-k^{1} r^{1}$ nta feminine noun vidy ${ }^{1}$. Dravia $a m=$ Nom. Sing. of the $a-k^{1} r^{1} n t a$ neuter noun dravia $a$. Sarvam $=$ Nom. Sing. of the neuter pronoun sarva.

There is no verb in this verse. Hence, with reference to the vocative deva-deva and the subject tvam related with the Second Person, a verb like bhavasi, asi, vartase, is implied.

## Udyamaå $s^{1}$ hasa, dhairya, buddhiå |aktiå par ${ }^{1}$ kramaå / ; $a \odot$ ete yatra vidyante tatra devaå $\operatorname{sah}^{1}$ yakÅt //2//

The anvaya of this verse is: Yatra udyamaå $s^{1}$ hasa, dhairya, buddhiå Ilaktiå par¹kramaå (iti) ete -a © (gua 1 à) vidyante tatra devaå sah¹ yakÅt (bhavati) /

Yatra $=$ where. Udyamaå $=$ effort, endeavour. $S^{1}$ hasam $=$ rashness, daring. Dhairyam = fortitude. Buddhiå = intellect,
 |a@= six. Ete $=$ these. Vidyante $=$ exist, are present. Tatra $=$ there. Devaå = God. Sah ${ }^{1}$ ya-kß̊t (bhavati) $=$ (becomes) helpful. This is similar to the English proverb: 'God helps those who help themselves'.

Udyamaå, Par ${ }^{1}$ kramaå, and devaå are the $a^{1} r^{1} n t a$ Mas. Nouns in Nom. Sing.

Buddhiå and ${ }^{\text {² }}$ aktiå are the $i-k^{1} r^{1}$ nta Feminine Nouns in Nom. Sing.

Sah ${ }^{1}$ ya-kÅt $=$ Sah $^{1}$ ya, karoti yaå sa / Karoti iti kÅt / This is Nom. Sing. of the compound word formed from two nouns $\operatorname{sah}^{1}$ ya and kÅt.

Ete is Nom. PI. of the pronoun etat.
। a- is Nom. PI. of a cardinal numeral noun -a?
Yatra and tatra are the indeclinable words.
There is only one instance of coalescence in this verse, viz., $-\mathrm{at}+$ ete $=\boldsymbol{a} @+$ ete $=$ acte. Here, since the retroflex hard consonant - is followed by the diphthong vowel e, the consonant changes, or is replaced by, its homogeneous soft consonant © The rule involved here is that before any voiced sound (i.e., vowel, diphthong, or voiced consonant h), final - of a word becomes ©. That means the first consonant of a class is replaced by the third consonant of its class in such a situation.

## DhÅtiå k-am ${ }^{1}$ damo'steya, Tlaucam indriya-nigrahaå /

Dh» vidy ${ }^{1}$ satyam a-krodho dalaka, dharma-lak-a am //
DhÅtiå dhairya, , k-am¹ k+ntiå, damaå d¹ntiå, asteyam cauryasya abh ${ }^{1}$ vaå, qlaucam ucit ${ }^{1}$, indriya-nigrahaå indriy ${ }^{1 a 1}$ 1, niyamana, , dhrå buddhiå,, vidy ${ }^{1}$ jñ ${ }^{1}$ na, , satyam satya- $v^{1}$ ditva, , a-krodhaå krodhasya abh ${ }^{1}$ vaå, iti etad daๆlagua ${ }^{1} n^{1} m$ samØhaå ekatra-rØpea a militv ${ }^{1}$ dharmasya lak-a ${ }^{\text {a }} a m$ bhavati /

This style of composition explaining a Sanskrit verse in Sanskrit by giving its synonyms in a prose order is called a " ${ }^{*}{ }^{1}$ (= commentary). But if only the synonyms are given in the order in which they occur in the verse,but it is called "ippaa a. In
ancient and medieval handwritten manuscripts, such "ippaª is found to be written in the form of notes in the margins.

Dh ̛́tiå $=$ dhairyam $=$ fortitude. $K-a m^{1}=k \dashv n t i a ̊=$ forgiveness, forbearance Damaå $d^{1}$ ntiå $=$ self-control. A-steyam = cauryasya abh ${ }^{1}$ vaå $=$ non-stealing. ${ }^{\sim}$ aucam $=$ qucit $^{1}=$ piety. Indriya-nigrahaå = indriy ${ }^{1 \text { a }}{ }^{1}$, niyamanam $=$ control over the senses. Dhıå = buddhiå, = Intellect. Vidy ${ }^{1}=j{ }^{1}{ }^{1}$ na, $=$ knowledge, learning. Satyam $=$ satya $-v^{1}$ ditva, $=$ truthfulness. Akrodhaå $=$ krodhasya $a b h^{1}$ vaå $=$ absence of anger. Iti etat $=$ thus this (group of above-enumerated good qualities). Dharmalak $-a^{a} a m=$ dharmasya lak $-a \operatorname{am}=$ characteristics of dutiful conduct. The verb bhavati is implied.

Damaå, indriya-nigrahaå, a-krodhaå are the Nom. Sing. forms of the $a-k^{1} r^{1} n t a$ masculine nouns.

Dh Åtià is the Nom. Sing. of the $i-k^{1} r^{1}$ nta feminine noun.
Dh»a is the Nom. Sing. of the $>k^{1} r^{1} n$ ta feminine noun.
$K-a m^{1}$ and vidy ${ }^{1}$ are the Nom. Sing. of the ${ }^{1}-k^{1} r^{1} n t a$ feminine noun.

A-steyam, ๆlaucam, satyam, da lakam, dharma-lak -abam are the $a-k^{1} r^{1}$ nta neuter nouns.

Dharma-lak $a^{a}$ am is a compound word (sam ${ }^{1}$ sa) of the ~a-h»tatpuru-a type formed by combining the two words dharma and lak-a a making them one word.

The following instances of coalescence occurs in this verse: visarga (:) $+\mathrm{k} \neg=$ visarga (:) $+\mathrm{k} \neg$ (i.e., no change). Mo +a $=-m{ }^{\prime}$ - (avagraha). $-\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{i}-=-\mathrm{mi}-.-\mathrm{a}+\mathrm{v}-=-r v-.-\mathrm{M}+\mathrm{a}-=-$ ma-. -aå + d- = -o d-. -m + dh- = -, dh-.

## A $\rightarrow$ au guㄹํ å puru-a, d>payanti <br> Prajñ ${ }^{1}$ ca kaulya, ca damaå ๆruta, ca / <br> Par ${ }^{1}$ kramaๆl $\mathbf{c}^{1}$ bahubh ${ }^{1}$ it $^{1}$ ca <br> $D^{1}$ na, yath ${ }^{1}$-lakti kÅtajñat ${ }^{1}$ ca //

Prajñ ${ }^{1}$ ca, kaulya, ca, damaå (ca), Iruta, ca, par ${ }^{1}$ krama ca, a-bahubh ${ }^{1}-$ it $^{1}$ ca, yath ${ }^{1}$ - ๆakti $d^{1}$ na, ( ca), kÅtajñat ${ }^{1}$ ca (ity ete) $a \rightarrow a u$ gu ${ }^{1}$ à pru-a, d>payanti.
$\operatorname{Prajn}^{1}=\operatorname{prak} \AA \rightarrow a, j \tilde{n}^{1}$ nanam $=$ wisdom. Kaulyam $=$ kula- $\prod_{x}{ }^{2} \mathrm{t}^{1}=$ Character in keeping with birth in a good family;

Kurv ${ }^{1} \mathfrak{a}$ aå - Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. Kurv ${ }^{1} \mathfrak{a}$ a of the root $k \AA ̊\left(8\right.$ U.), 'to do'. ~ ay ${ }^{1}$ naå - Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. May ${ }^{1}$ na of the root $\mathrm{q}_{»(2, .), ~ ' t o ~ s l e e p ' . ~ B h u n ̃ j ~}{ }^{1}$ naå - Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. bhuñj1 na of the root bhuj (bhuñj) (7,.), to eat, to consume, to enjoy. Dad¹ naå - Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. dad $^{1}$ na of the root $d^{11}(3 U$.$) , 'to give'. J { }^{1} n^{1}$ naà - Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. $j^{1} n^{1}$ na of the root $j^{n^{1}}$ ( 9 U.), 'to know'. Bruv ${ }^{1}$ a aå - Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. bruv ${ }^{1}$ a $a$ of the root $\operatorname{br\varnothing }(2 \mathrm{U}$.$) , 'to$ speak'. Vardham ${ }^{1}$ naå - Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. vardham ${ }^{1}$ na of the root vÅdh (7,.), 'to grow'. Bahu-vi-ay ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}=$ bahavaå vi-ay ${ }^{1} \mathrm{a}, \mathrm{t}^{1} \mathrm{n}$; this is a compound word formed by the combination of the two words bahu (adj.) and vi-aya.

In the above verses and their explanations, we find the forms of the Nominative Singular of the Present Participle (vartam ${ }^{1}$ na-kÅdanta) spÅqlat, jighrat, hasat, $\mathrm{m}^{1}$ nayat, pa-hat, jayat, j¹ grat, palyat, a Inat, gacchat, svapat, Ivasat, pralapat, visß̉jat, gÅhan at, unmi-at, nimi -at, dh ${ }^{1}$ rayat, etc., and adh»y ${ }^{1}$ na,
 bruv ${ }^{1}$ a $a$, vardham ${ }^{1}$ na, etc., of the respective concerned Sanskrit verbal roots, shown above. Among them, the roots of the first group of them are of the parasmai-pada type, while those of the second one are of the ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}$ tmane-pada type. Although these words are used to denote the sense of continuous action, they are not verbs. They are but the adjectives of some nouns or pronouns or adverbial nouns. In such a situation, we sometimes utilize such constructions as, 'while touching', 'while smelling', 'while laughing', and etc. This facility is available in Sanskrit, too. In order to express the sense of a complete action, we can use the verbal forms, and to express the sense of a continuous action, we can use the Present Participles of the concerned verbal roots. Such present participles are also known as the Verbal Derivative Adjective ( $\left.d h^{1} t u-s^{1} d h i t a-v i \|_{e}-a^{a} a\right)$.

KÅdanta is a nominal word ( $\mathrm{pr}^{1}$ tipadika) in which a $\mathbf{k} \boldsymbol{R} \mathbf{t}$ termination (pratyaya) has been suffixed to a Sanskrit verbal root, thus k Åt + anta = kÅd+anta / kÅt ante yasya tat ๆlabdarØpa, kÅdantam / The k $\boldsymbol{A}_{\mathbf{t}}$ terminations are suffixed to formu-

| Asmad $=1$ |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Case | Sing. | Du. | Pl. |
| Pra. | aham | ${ }^{1} v^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ | vayam |
| Nom. | = 1 | $=\mathrm{we}$ (two) | = we (all) |
| Sa, | - | - | - |
| Voc. | - | - | - |
| Dvi, | $\mathbf{m}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m} / \mathbf{m}^{\mathbf{1}}$ | ${ }^{1} \mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathrm{m} /$ nau | asm ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n} /$ naå |
| Acc. | $=$ (to) me | $=$ (to) us (two) | = (to) us |
| TȦt. | may ${ }^{1}$ | ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{~ b h y ~}{ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}$ | as ${ }^{1}$ bhiå |
| Instr. | = by me | = by us (two) | = by us (all) |
| Cat. | mahyam/ me | ${ }^{1} v^{1}$ bhy ${ }^{1} \mathrm{~m} /$ nau | asmabhyam / naå |
| Dat. | $=$ to me | = to us (two) | = to us (all) |
| Pañ. | mat | ${ }^{1} \mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{1}}$ bhy ${ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ | asmat |
| Abl. | = from me | = from us (two) | = from us (all) |
| \|a7 | mama/me | ${ }^{1}$ vayoå/ nau | asm ${ }^{1}$ kam/ naå |
| Gen. | = of me/my/mine | = of us (two) | = of us (all |
| Sap. | mayi | ${ }^{1}$ vayoå | $\mathrm{asm}^{1}$ su |
| Loc. | = in/ about me | = in / about us (t | ) = in /about us (all) |

Here, in the declension of the pronoun asmad the forms $\mathbf{m}^{\mathbf{1}}, \mathbf{m}^{\mathbf{1}}$ and and me in the Sing., nau, nau and nau in the Dual, and naå, naå and naå, in the Plural of the Accusative, Dative and Genitive cases, respectively, are used optionally in lieu of the regular forms, though not in the beginning of a sentence or a verse.

| Yu-mad (= You) |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Case Nom. | Sing | Du. | PI. |
|  | tvam | $\mathrm{yuv}^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ | yØyam |
|  | = thou | = you (both) | you (all) |
| Voc. Acc. | - | - | - |
|  | tv $\mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{m}}$ ( tv ${ }^{1}$ ) | yuv ${ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ (nau) | yu-m ${ }^{1 / n a}{ }^{\text {n }}$ |
|  | = to/ towards you | = to/ towards you (two) | = to/ towards you (all) |
| Instr. | tvay ${ }^{1}$ | yuv ${ }^{1}$ bhy ${ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ | yu-m ${ }^{1}$ bhiå |
|  | = by you | = by you (two) | = by you (all) |
| Dat. | tubhyam/te | $\mathrm{yuv}^{1}$ bhy ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m} / \mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}$ | yu-mabhyam/vaå |
|  | = to you | to you (two) | = to you (all) |
| Abl. | tvat | yuv ${ }^{1}$ bhy ${ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ | yu-mat |
|  | = from you | = from you (two) | = from you (all) |
| Gen. | tava/te | yuvayoå/ $\mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}$ | yu-m ${ }^{1} \mathbf{k a m} / \mathrm{vaå}$ |
|  | = of you/ your/yours | = of you (two) | = of you (all) |
| Loc. | tvayi | yuvayoå | yu-m ${ }^{1}$ su |
|  | = in/about you | $=\mathrm{in} / \mathrm{about} \mathrm{you} \mathrm{(two)}$ | = in/about you (all) |

Here, in the declension of the pronoun yu-mad the forms $\mathbf{t v}^{\mathbf{1}}$, te and te in the Sing., $\mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}, \mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}$ and $\mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}$ in the Dual, and vaå, vaå and vaå, in the Plural of the Accusative, Dative and Genitive cases, respectively, are used optionally in lieu of the regular forms, though not in the beginning of a sentence or a verse.

In the previous lessons we have familiarized ourselves with the lengthening of homogeneous vowels (savar $\operatorname{a}$ a-dxgha), of dipthonging, of heterogeneous vowels (gua a-sandhi), and of long-dipthonging of heterogeneous (vAddhi-sandhi) in the coalescence. Now, we shall do so about a few more types of coalescence.

In Sanskrit, when a heterogeneous vowel comes immediately after short or long $\mathbf{i}, \mathbf{u}, \mathbf{\AA}$ or $\mathbf{\delta}$, they are seen to have been changed to, or replaced by, $\mathbf{y}, \mathbf{v}, \mathbf{r}$, or $\mathbf{I}$, respectively. This type of coalescence is known by the name $\mathbf{Y a}$ - -sandhi.* The examples of the ya -sandhi are as follows:

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Yadi+api \(=\) yadyapi \((i+a+y a) / i t i+{ }^{1} d i=i t y{ }^{1} d i\) \(\left(i+{ }^{1}=y^{1}\right) / p r a t i+u^{\prime} t t a r a a^{\prime}=\) pratyuttaraå \((i+u=y u) /\) prati+ekaå= pratyekaå /
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Hetu+arthaå $=$ hetvarthaå (u+a=va) / guru+ ${ }^{1}$ de|å̊ $=$ gurv ${ }^{1}$ dellaå $\left(u+{ }^{1}=v^{1}\right) / s^{1}$ dhu+idam $=s^{1}$ dhvidam ( $\left.u+i=v i\right)$ / qiflu+aikyam = fifvaikyam (u+ai=vai) / sidhu+odanam = $\mathbf{s}^{1}$ dhvodanam (u+o=vo) / madhu+autsukyam= madhvautsukyam (u+au=vau) /
 matr $^{1}-{ }^{j} \tilde{n}^{1} \quad\left(A ̊+{ }^{1}=r^{1}\right) /$ bhartÅ icch $^{1}=$ bhartricch $^{1} \quad(A \AA+i=r i) /$
 odanam $=b^{1}{ }^{1}$ trodanam $(A ̊+0=r o) /$ savsÅ+aud ${ }^{1}$ ryam $=$ svasraud ${ }^{1}$ ryam ( $\AA$ íau= rau) /
' $+{ }^{1} \mathrm{k}$ Åtiå $=\mathrm{I}^{1} \mathrm{k}$ Åtiå $/{ }^{\prime}+$ idam $=$ lidam $/{ }^{\prime}+>$ dÅ|aå $=$ $|>d A ̊| a ̊ /$ ' + upari = lupari.

## Adh $\boldsymbol{y}^{1}$ no bahØn granth ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}$ sevam ${ }^{1}$ no bahØn gurun / <br> Lokam ${ }^{1}$ no bahØn de $\mathbb{T}^{\mathbf{n}} \mathbf{n}$ bahujño $\mathbf{j}^{1}$ yate naraå //

BahØn = many, numerous; granth ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}=$ books; $a^{2 d h}>y^{1}$ naå $=$ one who studies; gurØn = teachers, preceptors; sevam ${ }^{1}$ aå $=$ one who serves; de $\mathbb{T} n=$ countries; lokam ${ }^{1}$ naå $=$ observing; naraå $=$ man, person; bahujñaå = one who knows many things, versatile; $j^{1}$ yate $=$ becomes.

Adh>y ${ }^{1}$ naå - Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Participle $a d h>y^{1} n a$, derived from the root $a d h i+i(2,$.$) , 'to sudy'. Bahun, granth { }^{1} n$, gurØn, and de $\mathbb{T}^{1} n$ - Acc. Pl. of the nouns bahu (adj.), grantha, guru and defla, respectively. Sevam ${ }^{1}$ naå $=$ Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Participle sevam ${ }^{1}$ na, derived from the root sev (1,.), 'to serve, to pursue, to enjoy. Lokam ${ }^{1}$ naå $=$ Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Participle lokam ${ }^{1}$ na, derived from the root luk (1,.), 'to look, observe. Bahujñaå $=$ bahØn ${ }^{1}$, pu-kal ${ }^{1} n^{1}$, ( $=$ of many) vi-ay ${ }^{1}{ }^{1}$, (= of the subjects) jñ1 $t^{1} v e t t^{1}$ (=knower, one who knows). Jyate - La- (=Pre.) Pra. Pu. (=3rd Per.) Sing. of the root jan (4,.), 'to be, to become, to be born.

## Kurv ${ }^{1}$ a aå $k$ êtim amit ${ }^{1}$, mita, lay ${ }^{1}$ naå <br> Bhuñj ${ }^{1}$ no mitam amit ${ }^{1}$, para, dad ${ }^{1}$ naå / <br> $J^{1} n^{1}$ no bahu-vi-ay ${ }^{1} n$ mita, bruv ${ }^{1}$ a aà <br> Utkar-a, bhuvi labhate sa vardham ${ }^{1}$ naå //

Amit ${ }^{1}$, $=$ na mit ${ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}=$ unmeasured, unlimited, many, numerous; kRtim = karma $=$ action; kurv ${ }^{1}$ a aå $=$ yaå karoti saå $=$ one who does; mitam = measured, limited, less; May ${ }^{1}$ naå $=$ yaå Mete $=$ yaå layana, karoti saå $=$ one who sleeps; bhuñj ${ }^{1}$ naå $=$ bhoga, kurv ${ }^{1}$ ㄹå= yaå bhuñj ${ }^{1}$ te saå $=$ one who eats, enjoys; param = anyam = to others; dad¹ naå = yaå dad ${ }^{1}$ ti saå $=$ one who gives, donates; $j^{1} n^{1}$ naå $=$ yaå $j^{1} n^{1}$ ti saå $=$ one who knows; vi $-\mathrm{ay}^{1} \mathrm{n}=$ subjects, topics; bruv ${ }^{12}$ aå $=$ yaå bravsti saå $=$ one who speaks; vardham ${ }^{1}$ naå $=$ yaå vardhate saå $=$ one who grows, develops, matures. Saå = he, that one. (Naraå = man, person); Bhuvi $=$ pÅthivy ${ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}=$ on the earth, in the world; utkar-am = atiflayam $=$ high status, exalted position.; labhate $=$ pr $^{1}$ pnoti $=$ gets, obtains, achieves.

Pralapan Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. pralapat derived from the root pra+lap (1 P.), 'totalk in general, to wail, to whisper, to lament'. Vis§ंan Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. vis§̊at derived from the root $v i+s \mathcal{A} \dot{j}$ ( 6 P.), 'to create, to let loose, to shed'. GÅhan Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. g $\mathrm{g}_{\mathrm{h}} \mathrm{a}$ at derived from the root g h ( 9 P.), 'to take hold of, to seize. Unmi-an - Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. unmi-at derived from the root $u t+m i \neg(6$ P.), 'to open eyes, to look at'. Nimi-an - Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. nimi-at derived from the root $n i+m i \neg$ (1 P.), 'to shut the eyelids, to wink, to fall asleep'. Indriy ${ }^{1} \mathrm{i}$ - Nom. pl. of the noun indriya (neu.), 'sense, sense organ'. Indriy¹ the-u - Loc. PI. of the noun indriy' rtha (mas.), 'sense object'. Vartante - Pra. Pu. ( $=3^{\text {rd }}$ Per.) Sing. of the root v\&t (1,.), 'to exist, to happen, to live on, to occupy'. Dh ${ }^{1}$ rayan - Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. dh ${ }^{1}$ rayat derived from the root $\mathrm{dh} \AA(10 \mathrm{U}$.$) , 'to hold, to bear, to support'.$ Yog»- Nom. sing. of the noun yogin. Karoti - Pra. Pu. ( $=3^{\text {rd }}$ Per.) Sing. of the root ( 8 U ), 'to do'. $\mathrm{Karm}^{1} \mathfrak{\mathrm { i }}$ - Acc. Plu. of the noun karma (neu.), 'work'. Sai gam - Acc. Sing. of the noun saj ga (mas.), 'attachment, company. Tyaktv¹ - the ktv¹ nta, i.e., the gerund, or past indeclinable participle, of the root tyaj (1 p.), 'to abandon'. , tma-Tuddhaye - Dat. Sing. of the compound noun ${ }^{1}$ tma + quddhi, 'purity of the Self, purity of oneself'.
 Svapan $+\mathbb{q}$ vasan $=$ svapañquasan $(n+\mathbb{q}=$ ñ $)$. SpÅlan + jighran $=$ spÅllañjighran $(n+j=$ ñj), instances of para-savaraa colaescence; Jighran + aqnan = Jighrannaqnan ( $n+a=n n a$ ). GÅh $\mathfrak{a}$ an $+u n m i-a n(n+u=n n u)$. Unmi-an $+n i m i-a n=$ unmi-annimi-an ( $n+n=n n$ ). Nimi-an + api $=$ Nimi-annapi ( $n+a=n n a$ ), instances of reduplication, i.e., the addition of a nu $\mathbb{C}^{3}$ gama in between, according to $\mathrm{P}^{1 a} \mathrm{ini}$. Indriy ${ }^{1}$ a + indriy ${ }^{1}$ rthe $-\mathrm{u}=$ indriy $^{1}{ }^{1}$, ${ }^{\text {nd }}$ driy ${ }^{1}$ rthe $-\mathrm{u}(\mathrm{i}+\mathrm{i}=»)$, instance of lenghtening of two short i vowels, i.e. savare- -dxyha coalescence. Vartante $+i t i=$ Vartanta iti $(e+=a i)$, replacement of eby $a$, and then no further coalescence. Tyaktv ${ }^{1}+{ }^{1}$ tma-quddhaye $=$ tyaktv1"tma- quddhaye ( ${ }^{1}+{ }^{1}={ }^{11}$ ). Lengthening of two short a


If. however, a heterogeneous vowel comes immediately after $\mathbf{e}$ or $\mathbf{a i}$, the former changes to ay and the latter to ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{y}$. Similarly, if a heterogeneous vowel comes immediately after o or $\mathbf{a u}$, the former changes to $\mathbf{a v}$ and the latter to ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{v}$. These ay, ${ }^{1} \mathbf{y}$, av and ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{v}$ have been briefly called $a \mathbf{y}^{1}$ di, i.e. ay and etc., by $\mathrm{P}^{1} \underline{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{ini}$, and the coalescence resulting in them is called $\mathbf{A y}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{d i}$ sandhi. The instances of this type of coalescence are as follows:
$\mathrm{Ne}+\mathrm{anam}=$ nayanam $(\mathrm{e}+\mathrm{a}=\mathrm{ay}) / \mathrm{nai}+\mathrm{aka}$ a $=$ $n^{1}$ yakaå ( $a i+a={ }^{1} y$ ) / hare + iha = harayiha ( $\left.e+i=a y i\right) /$ Iriyai+ udyataå= qriy $^{1}$ yudyataå ( $\left.\mathrm{ai}+\mathrm{u}={ }^{1} \mathrm{yu}\right) /$

## Bho+anam $=$ Bhavanam ( $0+\mathrm{a}=\mathrm{ava}$ ) / vibho+iha= vibhaviha ( $0+\mathrm{i}=\mathrm{avi}$ ) / $\mathrm{vi}-\mathrm{o} 0+\mathrm{e}=\mathrm{vi}-\mathrm{ta}$ ave( $0+\mathrm{e}=\mathrm{ave}$ ) / pau+ $a k a a ̊=p^{1}$ vakaå ( $\left.a u+a={ }^{1} v a\right) /$ nau+ $i k a a ̊=n^{1}$ vikaå $\left.a u+i={ }^{1} v i\right) /$

But, if after the final $\mathbf{e}$ or $\mathbf{o}$ is immediately followed by the short vowel $\mathbf{a}$, then the a merges into the preceding vowel $\mathbf{e}$ or $\mathbf{0}$. In other words, it adopts the form (røpa) of the previous (pØrva) vowel, and in order to indicate that the a has dis appeared here, a sign of avagraha, looking like the Roman 's' in the Devan ${ }^{1}$ gar» script, is put in its place. In Roman transliteration it is shown by an apostrophe. This type of the coalescence is called the PØrva-rØpa-sandhi. The instances of this type are as follows:

Hare + atra $=$ hare'tra( $e+a=e^{\prime} /$ prabho + atra $=$ prabho'tra / ( $0+a=o^{\prime}$ ) loko+ ayam = loko'yam / gop ${ }^{1}$ lo+ aham= go$\mathrm{p}^{1}$ lo'ham /

Similarly, when the vowel a is immediately followed by $\mathbf{e}$ or $\mathbf{o}$, the a being previous, adopts the form (røpa) of, i.e., practically merges into, the following (para) $\mathbf{e}$ or $\mathbf{o}$, but it its disappearance is not indicated by any sign like the avagraha. This type of coalescence is called the Para-rØpa-sandhi. The instances of tis type od coalescence are as follows:
nam $(a+0=0) /$ upa $+0-a t i=$ upo-ati $(a+0=0) /$ luddha + odanaå= quddho danaå $(a+0=0) /$

Sometimes it so happens that at the end of the former word the long vowels $» \boldsymbol{\varnothing}$ or e occur due to the suffixing of the termination of the dual, and it is followed immediately by some other word beginning with some vowel. In such a situation there is of course the scope for the ya ${ }^{1}{ }^{1}$ di-sandhi. But if it is operated, it becomes very difficult to guess as to which were the original forms of the words that coalesced. In order to guard against this undesirable contingency it is customary not to operate the rule, and leave the words uncoalesced or as they are. This process is technically called PragÅhya, i.e. the word to be kept as it is, unchanged. Even if there occurs a word immediately after a pragÅhya word, the rules of coalescence are not to be operated, even if there is apparently a clear scope for it. This type of non-coalescence is practically known as pragÅhya-sandhi ! The examples of it are as follows:
har» ${ }^{+1}$ gatau $=$ har» ${ }^{1}$ gatau / dhen $\varnothing+{ }^{1}$ gacchataå $=$ dhen ${ }^{1}{ }^{1}$ gacchataå / Am»+ agnayaå = am» agnayaå / amø+ a\{vau = amø a\{vau / late+ asiñcat = late asiñcat /

Just as in English verb-form can convey the sense of the past, present and future times, so also do the verb-forms in Sanskrit. But in Sanskrit, the past can be indicated minutely in its three different stages, viz., the past of today (adyatana-bhØta), that of yesterday (an-adyatana-bhØta or hyastana-bhØta) and that of remote times (parok-a-bhØta). Similarly, the future can be indicated in its two different varieties: viz., First or Periphrastic Future denoting a remote future time not of to-day, i.e., or of the tomorrow and distant times (an-adyatana-bhavi-yat or Ivastana-bhavi-yat); and the Second or te Simple Future, denoting to a future time generally or indefinitely, as also to a recent future continuous time of action (adyatana-bhavi-yat).

This adduces to the richness of the Sanskrit language. This richness was gradually lost in the Prakrits, Apabhra, ๆa

Pa lyañqฝ̊a vanspÅ|añjighranna\{nan gacchan svapañ|vasan /
Pralapan visf̊jan gR̊han anmi-an nimi-ann api //
Indriy ${ }^{\mathbf{a}}{ }^{a}$, ${ }^{1}$ driy ${ }^{1}$ rthe-u vartanta iti dh ${ }^{1}$ rayan /
Yog» karoti karm ${ }^{1}$ ai sai ga, tyaktv ${ }^{1}$ "tma-quddhaye //
Yog» $\operatorname{karm}^{1} \mathfrak{a} \mathrm{i}$ karoti $=\mathrm{A}$ yogin performs actions. Saå palyan dar Ina, kurvan api =even while looking; - $-\AA^{a} v a n$ Irava $a$, kurvan api = even when hearing; SpÅ-an sparlam kurvan api = even while touching; jighran gandha-grahaa a, kurvan api $=$ even while smelling; a\{nan kh¹dana, kurvan api = even while eating; gacchan gamana, kurvan api $=$ even while going, walking; svapan nidr¹, kurvan api $=$ even while sleeping; svasan Ilv ${ }^{1}$ socchv ${ }^{1}$ sa, kurvan api $=$ even while breathing; pralapan ${ }^{1} \mathrm{bh}^{1}$-aba, kurvan api = even while talking, or speaking; visß̉jan visarjana, kurvan api $=$ even while letting off, leaving, giving up; gÅhan graha a, kurvan api = even while taking, catching hold, accepting; unmi-an netr ${ }^{1} \mathfrak{a}$ i unm»layan api $=$ even while opening the eyes; nimi-an netr ${ }^{1}$ a $\mid$ nim»ayan api $=$ even while closing the eyes; indriy ${ }^{1} \underline{a}=$ the senses, the sense organs; idriy ${ }^{1}$ rthe $-\mathrm{idriy}{ }^{1}{ }^{1}{ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ arthe $-\mathrm{u}=$ in the objects of the senses; vartante pravÅtti, kurvanti = remain, operate; iti eva, prak ${ }^{1}$ rea ${ }^{\mathrm{a}}$ a thus, in such a manner; dh ${ }^{1}$ rayan vic ${ }^{1}$ ra, kurvan $=$ taking to be, thinking; sa, ga, ${ }^{1}$ sakti, tyaktv ${ }^{1}$ vih ${ }^{1}$ ya $=$ having given up the attachment; ${ }^{1}$ tma-quddhaye ${ }^{1}$ tmanaå svasya quddhiå sy ${ }^{1}$ t iti hetun ${ }^{1}=$ with a view to purify, or for purifying, his own Self.

Pallyan - Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. palyat derived from the root dÅ (paly, 1 P.), 'to see'. " $A^{a}$ van - Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. ${ }^{\sim}{ }^{\circ}$ a vat derived from the root $\operatorname{Iru}(5$ P.) ' to hear, to study'. Sp $\AA$-an - Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. spÅ-at derived from the root $\operatorname{spA} \neg(6$ P.), 'to touch'. Jighran - Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. jighrat derived from the root ghr ${ }^{1}$ (3 P.), 'to smell'. AInan Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. a Inat derived from the root al (9 P.), 'to eat'. Gacchan - Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. gacchat derived from the root gam (gacch, 1 P.), 'to go'. Svapan - Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. svapat derived from the root svap (2 P.), 'to sleep, to repose'. ~vasan Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. Ivasat derived from the root 9 mas (2 P.), 'to breathe, to sigh, to hiss'.

SpÅflan - Nom. Sing. of the Present Participle spÅqlat derived from the root spÅ (6. P.) = to touch. Jighran - Nom. Sing. of the Present Participle jighrat derived from the root ghr ${ }^{1}$ (3 P.) $=$ to smell. Hasan - Nom. Sing. of the Present Participle hasat derived from the root has (1 P.) = to smile, to laugh. $\mathrm{M}^{1}$ nayan Nom. Sing. of the Present Participle $\mathrm{m}^{1}$ nayat derived from the root $\mathrm{m}^{1} \mathrm{n}(1,10 \mathrm{P})=$. to honour, to respect.

SpÅlan + api $=$ sp»lannapi $(\mathrm{t}+\mathrm{n}=\mathrm{n}+\mathrm{n}=\mathrm{nn}) /$ Jighran + api $=$ jighrann api $/$ Hasan + api $=$ hasann api $/$ $M^{1}$ nayan + api $=m^{1}$ nayann api / Here, since a follows the final $n$, the latter is duplicated, thus resulting in $n+a=n n a$. From the $\mathrm{P}^{1}$ ainian point of view, the adjunct nu-, known as nud $^{1}$ gama, is added in between the n and a .

Pa-hato $\mathbf{n}^{1}$ sti mØrkhatva, japato $\mathbf{n}^{1}$ sti $\mathbf{p}^{1}$ takam /
Mauninaå kalaho $\mathbf{n}^{1}$ sti na bhaya, $\mathbf{c}^{1}$ sti $\mathbf{j}^{1}$ grataå // Mauninaå kalaho $\mathbf{n}^{\mathbf{1}}$ sti na bhaya, $\mathbf{c}^{\mathbf{1}}$ sti $\mathbf{j}^{\mathbf{1}}$ grataå // Pa-hataå $=$ yaå pa-hati tasya $=$ of the one who reads, i.e., studies. $\mathrm{Na}=$ not. Asti $=$ has, exists. M Ørkhatvam = buddhi-h»nasya $b^{1}$ vaå $=$ foolishness, stupidity. Japataå = yaå japa, karoti tasya $=$ of the one who mutters (holy mantras). $\mathrm{P}^{1}$ takam $=$ $p^{1}$ pam $=\sin$. Mauninaå $=$ muneå bh ${ }^{1}$ vaå maunam $=$ møkat $^{1}$ $=$ the state of a holy sage, keeping silent / yaå mØkat ${ }^{1}$, $\mathrm{p}^{1}$ layati tasya $=$ of the one who observes silence, keeps silent. Kalahaå $=$ vigrahaå = quarrel, brawl, fight. Bhayam = bhstiå = fear, fright. $J^{1}$ grataå = yaå $j^{1}$ garti tasya $=$ to one who keeps awake, of one who is vigilant.

Pa-hataå - Gen. Sing. of the Pre. Part. Pa-hat derived from the root Pa-h 'to read, to study'. J ${ }^{1}$ grataå - Gen. Sing. of the Pre. Part. $j^{1}$ grat derived from the root $j^{1} g \AA$, 'to awake. Japataå - Gen. Sing. of the Pre. Part. Japat derived from the root Jap 'to mutter'. Mauninaå - Gen. Sing. of the possessive noun maunin derived from the abstract noun mauna 'silence, absence of speaking', derived from the root man 'to meditate'. M Ørkhatvam - Abstract noun derived from the adjectival noun mØrkha 'stupid, foolish' Na - Indeclinable. Asti = La- (Pre. Ten.) Pra. Pu. ( $3^{\text {rd }}$ Per.) Sing. of the root as, 'to be, to become, to have.
and modern Indian languages that evolved from Sanskrit in course of time.

By way of specim en of the verb-form $s$ of the an-adyatana-bhavi-yat tense in Sanskrit, the following ones of the roots bhØ (1 P.) bh ${ }^{1} \neg(1$ A.) may be noted:


We have learnt in the Lesson 4 above ( p .28 , ft nt.) about the ten Lak ${ }^{1}$ ras of $\mathrm{P}^{1} \underline{\mathrm{a}}$ ini denoting various tenses and moods of the Sanskrit verb-forms. In the Sanskrit commentaries on the classical literary works like epics and poems, the explanation of the verb-forms have been given by mentioning the concerned Lak ${ }^{1}$ ra, as for instance the verb-form bhavati would be grammatically explained thus: Bhavati iti bhv ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}$ di-ga ${ }^{\text {a }}$,ya-bhø-dh ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}$ toå la-i parasmaipade prathama-puru-e eka-vacan ${ }^{1}$ nta, røpam / Bhavi-yante iti bhv ${ }^{1}$ di-gan ya-bh ${ }^{1} \rightarrow$ dh $^{1}$ toå la-I ${ }^{1}$ tmane-pade prathama-puru-e bahu-vacan ${ }^{1}$ nta, rØpam /

From the point of view of grammatical analysis, the terminations suffixed in the above-mentioned two sets of verbforms are as follows:

|  | Parasmaipada |  |  |  | tmanepada |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $3{ }^{\text {rd }}$ Per. | ati | syartaå | syant | syate | syete | syan |
| $2^{\text {nd }}$ | syasi | syathaå | syatha | syase | syethe | syadhve |
| P | $5 \mathbf{y}^{1} \mathrm{mi}$ | sy ${ }^{1}$ vaå | sy ${ }^{1}$ ma | sy | ${ }^{1}$ va | ${ }^{1}$ |

When we analyze the above-mentioned forms of the roots bhØ (1 P.) and $\mathbf{b h}^{\mathbf{1}}$ ᄀ (1 . .) in the ' $\boldsymbol{A}$, i. e., an-adyatana-bhavi-yat (=Second Future Tense), we find that in the parasmaipada the form bhavi-yati breaks uo into the following components: $\mathbf{b h} \boldsymbol{\sigma}+\mathbf{i}+\mathbf{s y} \mathbf{+} \mathbf{a + t i}=($ after the guab of the root vowel) bho+i+-y+a+ti/ = (after the sandhi of $o+i=a v$ and coversion of $\mathbf{s}$ into -1$)$ bhav+ $\mathbf{i + - \mathbf { y } + \mathbf { a + t i } / \text { Similarly, in the case of }}$ $\mathbf{b h}^{\mathbf{1}} \boldsymbol{- i}$-yate, the analysis is: $\mathbf{b h}^{\mathbf{1}} \boldsymbol{\sim} \boldsymbol{+} \mathbf{i}+\mathbf{s y}+\mathbf{a}+\boldsymbol{t} \mathbf{e}=\mathbf{b h}^{\mathbf{1}} \boldsymbol{\sim} \boldsymbol{+}$ $i+-y+a+t e /$

Just as in the La- (=Present Tense) Parasmai-pada form of the root bhØ in the Prathama Puru-a (Third Person) Singular, the adjunct (vikara a) a is added before the concerned termination $\mathbf{t i}$, similarly, in the case of, tmane-pada form of the root $\mathbf{b h}^{\mathbf{1}} \boldsymbol{7}$ too, it is added before the concerned termination te. But the particularly noteworthy point is the medial addition of i and sy sounds; they too are the ${ }^{1}$ gama or adjuncts. Of these two, the i is added to a set of particular Sanskrit roots that have been identified by $\mathrm{P}^{10} \mathrm{ini}$ as Set (=sa+i-),* i.e., taking an additional i immediately after the root. The Sanskrit roots that do not take this i are called Ani- (=an+i-), i.e., not taking the

[^2]Dur = bad, difficult, e.g. durjanaå / durjayaå / duryodhanaå /
Vi $=$ opposite, different, special, e.g. viyojayati, vin ${ }^{1}$ layati / vidharmaå / videflaå /
$=$ from all over, up to, a bit, e.g. ${ }^{1}$ cch $^{1}$ dayati $/$ ${ }^{1}$ samant ${ }^{1} \mathrm{t} / \mathrm{O}^{-\frac{7+}{7} \mathrm{am}}$
$\mathrm{Ni}=$ in, under, e.g., nipatati / niv¹ saå / nilayaå / nigamaå /
Adhi =over, above, e.g. adhvasati / adhipatiå / adh»-aå./ adhi h $^{1}$ nam
Api $=$ near, only, e.g. apidadh ${ }^{1}$ ti / apidh ${ }^{1}$ nam / (at times the initial a is elided, as in, pidadh ${ }^{1}$ ti / pidh ${ }^{1}$ nam/
Ati $=$ over, above, too much, e.g. atis $\AA$ jati $/$ ativ $\AA \begin{aligned} & -i a ̊ ~ / ~\end{aligned}$ aty ${ }^{1} c^{1}$ raå /
Su = good, fully, e.g. sucaritam / susa, skÅtam / subodhaå /
Ut = up, on, upwards, e.g., udgacchati / udbhavaå / uts ${ }^{1}$ haå /
Abhi = towards, near, e.g. abhigacchati / abhis¹ raå / abhimanyuå /
Prati $=$ opposite from, contrary to, in the opposite way, e.g., pratigacchati / Pratyuttaraå / pratikØlam /
Pari $=$ from all sides, fully, e.g., pari pØrayati $/$ par冰 + / parinirv ${ }^{1}$ a am /
Upa = near, towards, beside, e.g.,up ${ }^{1}$ harati / upani-ad / upakramaå / upasa, h ${ }^{1}$ raå /

## Sing aloud the following verses, and read aloud

 their explanatory sentences:
## SpÅ|nn api gajo hanti jighrannai bhuja, gamaå /

 Hasann api nÂpo hanti $\mathbf{m}^{1}$ nayann api durjanaå // Gajaå (=an elephant) spÅlan (= by touching) api (=only) hanti (= kills). Bhuja, gamaå (= a serpent) jighran (= by smelling) api hanti / NÅpaå = a king hasan (with a smile, smilingly) api hanti / Durjanaå (a wicked person) $\mathrm{m}^{1}$ nayan (being respected, honoured) api hanti /dh ${ }^{1}$ toå, pari-purvak ${ }^{1} t h \not ̂ d h^{1}$ toå, anukrame ${ }^{a}$ a prah ${ }^{1}$ raå, ${ }^{1} h^{1}$ raå, sa, $h^{1}$ raå vih ${ }^{1}$ raå parih ${ }^{1}$ raå iti $n^{1} m^{1} n i$ sañj ${ }^{1} y a n t e, ~ i . e ., ~ w h e n ~$ the prefixes pra, ${ }^{1}$, sam, vi and pari are prefixed, respectively, to the verbal-root $h \AA$ the words formed are: prah $^{1}$ ra $=a$ blow; ${ }^{1} h^{1}$ ra = food, eatable; sa, $h^{1}$ ra=killing; vih ${ }^{1}$ raå= moving about; parih ${ }^{1}$ ra $=$ avoidance.

The Sanskrit grammarians have listed the following 22 upasargas, viz., Pra, Par¹, Apa, Sam, Anu, Ava, Nis, Nir, Dus, Dur, Vi, , , Ni, Adhi, Api, Ati, Su, Ut, Abhi, Prati, Pari, Upa / Upa $=$ gau ${ }^{a}$ a-rupe ${ }^{a}$ a, sß̊jyante iti upasargº ${ }^{1}$ /, i.e., since these prefixes are attached (sarga) as subordinate (upa) elements to the words, they are called the upasarga, i.e., prefixes. By keeping in the mind their meanings, we can easily grasp, and trace, the changes in the meanings due to them in the original words. The list of the above upasargas, with their meanings is as follows:

Pra $=$ excellently, in very good way, e.g. pray ${ }^{1}$ ti / prahar-å̊ / prakÅ $\rightarrow$ am /
Par $^{1}=$ in the reverse direction, e.g., par ${ }^{1}$ gacchati / par ${ }^{1}$ jayaå / par ${ }^{1}$ bhavaå /
Apa $=$ down, lower than, e.g., apay ${ }^{1}$ ti, apak ${ }^{1}$ raå / apam ${ }^{1}$ naå /
Sam = together, in good manner, fully, e.g., sambhavati / sa, v1 daå / sa, gamaå / sa, quddhiå /
Anu $=$ following, behind, together with, e.g., anugacchati / anut ${ }^{1}$ paå / anukara am / anuta-am /
Ava $=$ downwards, separate from, e.g., avatarati/ avagacchati / avat ${ }^{1}$ raå / avadh ${ }^{1} \mathrm{ra}^{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{am} /$
Nis $=$ from within, without, e.g., nissarati / nist ${ }^{1}$ raå / ni $-k^{1}$ maå /
Nir = out of, without, e.g. nirgacchati / nir ${ }^{1} h^{1}$ raå / nirañjanaå /
Dus = bad, diificult, e.g., dustarati / dussmarati / du k $^{1}$ laå /
additional $i$, and those roots that take it optionally are called Vet ( $=v^{1}+i-$ ), i.e., either taking it or not taking it.

Now, sing aloud the following verse, trying to grasp its meaning:

## $\mathbf{R}^{1}$ trir gami-yati bhavi-yati suprabh-tam <br> $B^{1} \mathbf{s v}^{1} \mathbf{n}$ ude-yati hasi-yati cakrav ${ }^{1}$ lam / <br> Ittha, vic ${ }^{1}$ rayati kola-gate direphe <br> $\mathbf{H}^{1}$ hanta hanta nalini, gaja ujjah ${ }^{1}$ ra //

Now, read aloud the following explanation of the above verse, trying to grasp its meaning:
$\mathrm{R}^{1}$ triå (the night) gami-yati (will pass off) / Suprabh ${ }^{1}$ tam = suryodayasya pørva, su-hu prak ${ }^{1}$ Iaå (the morning light), bhavi-yati / bh ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{s v}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{n}=$ tejasv» = bh ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}$ nuå = sØryaå (=the Sun), ude-yati = udaya, gami-yati (= will rise) / Cakrav¹ la, (= the circle of mountains), hasi-yati prasanna, bhavi-yati (=will laugh, will be glad) / Ittha, = eva, prak ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{r e}^{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a}$ (= in this manner) / koीla-gate = padma-koๆe band>bhØte (= when stationed in the closedpetals of a lotus) / dvirephaå = dvau rephau yasyan ${ }^{1} \mathrm{mni}$ saå $\mathrm{t}^{1}$ dÅflaå = bhramaraå = the one in whose name bhramara there are two r vocables, i.e., the honey-bee. Vic ${ }^{1}$ rayati $=$ yad $^{1}$ vic $^{\mathbf{1}}$ ra, karoti $\boldsymbol{t a d}^{\mathbf{1}}=$ when (it) was thinking, then. $\mathrm{H}^{1}=\mathbf{O h}$ ! / Hanta hanta = alas! alas! / Gajaå = hast» = elephant / Nalinim = n»a-kamalam = the blue lotus/ Ujjah ${ }^{1}$ ra $=$ uddh ̊̊tya aharat $=$ udak-ipat $=$ having uprooted took away $/$

Narrated in this verse is a simple tragic incident about a honey-bee that was busy drinking honey in a pericarp of a blue lotus, and forgot about the setting sun in the late evening when the petals of the lotus automatically close down. Consequently it was imprisoned in it. Then, it went on thinking in a hope that next morning with the sun arising the day will brighten up the circle of the mountains, and he will be freed. But, unfortunately, there came an elephant in the lotus pond, uprooted the lotus and took it away, thus ultimately killing the honeybee imprisoned in it. But, herein the poet has tried to pack a
very serious philosophical message about the general worldly life-style of common human beings who are busy enjoying the worldly sensual pleasures, unmindful of the ultimate fate of dying, and remaining caught up in the cycle of births and deaths as infinite variety of living beings. Remaining engrossed in worldly sensual pleasures is but nescience, and there is no hope of ever getting liberated from it, until the Ultimate Reality is realized through the realization of the Self. The poet has chosen the mode of a parody to deliver his philosophical message effectively.

If you will sing aloud repeatedly the verses given by way of illustrations in this book, and consequently memorize them permanently, you will simultaneously enjoy the melodious linguistic nature of the Sanskrit language, the profound truths and the deep knowledge ingrained in them.

Now, let us look in the verse from the point of view of some grammatical peculiarities, viz., Ujjah ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{r a =} \mathbf{U d} \mathbf{d} \mathbf{h} \AA(3 \mathrm{P}$.$) ,$ 'to uproot', $\mathbf{L i}-\left(=\right.$ Pluperfect), $3^{d}$ Per. Sing. $\mathbf{H}^{1}$ and Hanta are the indeclinables. In $\mathbf{r}^{\mathbf{1}}$ triå+gami-yati and bh ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}$ nuå ude-yati, the final å (i.e., the visarga) has been changed to $\mathbf{r}$ by coalescence. But in Gajaå+ujjah ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}$ ra, the å hasbeen elided.

From the syntactic view point, the usage ko-a-gate dvirephe vic ${ }^{1}$ rayati' is an instance of Vocative Absolute (sati sapatam») in which all the nouns are put in the vocative case, and they denote the sense of yad $^{1} \ldots \boldsymbol{t a d}^{1}$ ( $=$ when .., then). Vicintanyati is the Voc. Sing. of the Present Participle vicintayat formulated from the root vi+cint (10 P.).

## LESSON 7 (Saptamaå $\mathrm{Pl}^{1}$-haå)

## Now, sing again aloud, the verses in the last lesson, keeping in view their meaning.

It happens sometimes in the words that we find some letters prefixed to them, as for instance in, anu-bhava, ud-bhava, par ${ }^{1}$-bhava, vi-bhava, and etc. Such usages are found in English also, as for instance, in the words like, un-able, dis-appear, mis-print, in which the prefixed elements un, dis and mis convey the sense opposite to that of the words able, appear and print. In Sanskrit such prefixed word-elements are called upasarga. These upasargas are prefixed not only to the verbs, but also to nouns, adjectives, adverbs, verbal derivatives, nominal verbs, and etc., as for instance in pra-bh ${ }^{1}$ tam, su-qobhanam, Anu-bhavati, prati-bodhayati, anu-dinam, etc. The Sanskrit grammarians firmly believe that all nouns are originally derived from verbal roots, and, therefore, the upasargas are originally prefixed to the verbal-roots, and they modify their meanings. The following verse is popular in this context:

## Upasarge ${ }^{\text {a }}$ dh $^{1}$ tvartho bal ${ }^{1} d$ anyatra $n$ >yate / <br> Prah ${ }^{1} \mathbf{r}^{1} h^{1}$ rasa, $h^{1}$ ravih ${ }^{1}$ raparih ${ }^{1}$ ravat //

## Read aloud this verse, its following explanation, and try to grasp its meaning:

Upasarge ${ }^{a} a=$ by the prefix. Dh ${ }^{1}$ tvarthaå $=d h^{1}$ toå arthaå $=$ the meaning of the verbal-root. Bal ${ }^{1} t=$ bala-pØrvakam $=$ forcibly. Anyatra $=\mathrm{m}^{1} \mathrm{rth}^{1} \mathrm{t}$ anye arthe $=$ to the meaning other than the original. $N>y$ ate $=p r^{1}$ pyate $=$ is taken away, is conveyed, is denoted. Prah ${ }^{1} r a-{ }^{1} h^{1} r a-s a, h^{1} r a-v i h^{1} r a-p a r i h^{1} r a-$ vat $=$ yath ${ }^{1}$ prah ${ }^{1}$ raå, ${ }^{1} h^{1}$ raå, sa, $h^{1}$ raå vih ${ }^{1}$ raå parih ${ }^{1}$ raå iti llabde $-u=$ as for instance, in the words pra-h ${ }^{1}$ raå, ${ }^{1}-h^{1}$ raå, sa, -h¹ raå vi-h ${ }^{1}$ raå pari-h ${ }^{1}$ raå / The verbal root h $\AA$ means 'to take away, to carry, to bear'. Now, pra-purvak ${ }^{1} t h \not \subset d h^{1}$ toå, ${ }^{1}$ purvak ${ }^{1} t h \AA d h^{1}$ toå, sa, -purvak ${ }^{1} t h \not d^{1}$ toà, vi-purvak ${ }^{1} t h \AA$

## Let us look into them from the viewpoint of grammatical analysis:

BhØ(1 P.) 'to be' - a+bho+a=bhav+a+t= abhavat/ Y1 (2 P.) 'to go' $-a+y^{1}+-+t=a y^{1} t /$ Similarly, anu $+y^{1}$ 'to follow' anu $+\mathrm{a}+\mathrm{y}^{1}+-+\mathrm{t}=\mathrm{anv}+\mathrm{a}+\mathrm{y}^{1}+\mathrm{t}=$ anvay $^{1} \mathrm{t} / \mathrm{V}$ 人 t (1,.) 'to remain, to stay $a s^{\prime}-a+v \AA t+a+t a=a+v a r t+a+t a=$ avartata $/$ Cint (10 U.)'to think' - a+cint+aya+t = acintayat / Vi+s\&ं 'to send' $v i+a+s \AA_{j}-a+t=v y+a+s \AA \dot{j}-a+t=v y a s \AA i j a t / U d+s t h^{1}$ (1 P.) to get $u p^{\prime}-u d+a+s t h^{1}+a+t=u d+a+t i-h+a+t=U d a t i-h a t / S i m i l a r l y$, Pra+sth ${ }^{1}$ (1 P.) 'to set out, start' - pra+a+sth ${ }^{1}+a+t=$ pra+a+ti $\rightarrow \mathrm{h}+\mathrm{a}+\mathrm{t}=\mathrm{pr}^{1} \mathrm{ti} \rightarrow$ hat / Prach (6 P.) 'to ask' $a+$ pracch $+a+t=a+p \AA ̊ c c h+a+t=a p \AA ̊ c c h a t / K \AA(8$ U.) 'to do' $a+k \AA+u+t=a+k a r+0+t=$ akarot $/$

In some of these verbal forms, there is a prefix before the root, while others do not have any prefix. And, in all of these forms, an adjuct a is added before the root or between the prefix and the root. Then the adjunct of the root-class has been added just after the root, and due changes of gua a etc., have taken place. After that the termination of the past tense, denoting the sense of the past, has been suffixed.

This type of the Past Tense is called Lai, i.e., Hyastana (=belonging to yesterday) or Anadyatana (= not belonging to today), i.e. Imperfect.

## Let us see the forms of the roots $n \AA$ it and yudha in this Imperfect, by way of specimen: NAR (4 P.) 'to dance'


late the subjective, verbal or abstract nouns, and they denote the continuous action in the Present Tense. Similarly, the participles that denote the continuous action of the Past Tense are known as the BhØta-k $\AA$ danta, and those denoting the action of the Future Tense are known as the Bhavi - yat-kÅdanta.

In the Present Participle forms, spÅllat, jighrat, hasat, and etc., we find the termination at suffixed in them. This is because the roots, spÅl, ghr ${ }^{1}$, has, etc., underlying in them are of the parasmai-pada type, while in the Present Participle forms, adh $>y^{1}$ na, sevam ${ }^{1}$ na, lokam ${ }^{1}$ na, etc., we find the termination ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}$ na or $\mathbf{m}^{\mathbf{1}}$ na suffixed in them. This is because the roots, adhi+», sev, luk, etc., underlying in them are of ${ }^{1}$ tmane-pada type. Since the first group of the Present Participle forms are ta- $k^{1} r^{1}$ nta (=ending in the consonant $\mathbf{t}$ ), their declension is found to be in accordance with that of the nouns ending in the consonant $\mathbf{t}$. And, since the second group of the Present Participle forms are $a-k^{1} r^{1} n t a$ (=ending in the vowel a), their declension is found to be in accordance with that of the nouns ending in the vowel $\mathbf{a}$.

In the $\mathrm{P}^{1}$ a inian system, termination at of the Present Participle is mentioned as ' $\ddagger a t \AA$ ' and the termination ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{n a \prime}$ is mentioned as ' $\mathbb{F}$ nac', and hence in the $\mathrm{P}^{1} \underline{\text { inian }}$ parlance the Present Participle is called the "latranta' ( $=$ qat $\AA$ ant anta , i.e., ending the termination $\left.\mathbb{T a t} \not \AA^{\prime}\right)$ or $\mathbb{T}$ najanta' $(=\mathbb{P}$ nac+anta, i.e., ending the termination $\mathbb{P}$ nac).

> Now, sing aloud the following verse,
> trying to grasp its meaning:

Kurv ${ }^{1}$ @ aå - Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. Kurv ${ }^{1} \mathfrak{a}$ of the root kÅ ( 8 U.), 'to do'. ~ ay ${ }^{1}$ naå - Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. May ${ }^{1}$ na of the root $9_{\gg}(2,$.$) , 'to sleep'. Bhuñj { }^{1}$ naå - Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. bhuñj1 ${ }^{1}$ na of the root bhuj (bhuñj) (7,.), to eat, to consume, to enjoy. Dad ${ }^{1}$ naå - Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. dad ${ }^{1}$ na of the root $d^{11}$ ( 3 U.), 'to give'. J ${ }^{1} n^{1}$ naå - Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. j1 $n^{11}$ na of the root jñ ${ }^{1}(9 \mathrm{U}$.$) , 'to know'. Bruv { }^{1}$ a aå - Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. bruv¹ a a the root brø (2 U.), 'to speak'. Vardham¹ naå - Nom. Sing. of the Pre. Part. vardham ${ }^{1}$ na of the root vÅdh (7,.), 'to grow'. Bahu-vi-ay ${ }^{1} n=$ bahavaå vi-ay ${ }^{1}{ }^{\circ}, t^{1} n$; this is a compound word formed by the combination of the two words bahu (adj.) and vi-aya.

In the above verses and their explanations, we find the forms of the Nominative Singular of the Present Participle (vartam¹ na-kÅdanta) spÅqat, jighrat, hasat, $\mathrm{m}^{1}$ nayat, pa-hat, jayat,
 unmi-at, nimi -at, dh ${ }^{1}$ rayat, etc., and adh>> ${ }^{1}$ na, sevam ${ }^{1}$ na, lokam ${ }^{1}$ na, kurv ${ }^{1}$ a $a$, Iay $^{1} n a, b h n ̃ j^{1} n a, d a d^{1} n a, j^{1} n^{1} n a, \operatorname{bruv}^{1}$ a $a, \operatorname{vardham~}^{1} n a$, etc., of the respective concerned Sanskrit verbal roots, shown above. Among them, the roots of the first group of them are of the parasmai-pada type, while those of the second one are of the ${ }^{1}$ tmane-pada type. Although these words are used to denote the sense of continuous action, they are not verbs. They are but the adjectives of some nouns or pronouns or adverbial nouns. In such a situation, we sometimes utilize such constructions as, 'while touching', 'while smelling', 'while laughing', and etc. This facility is available in Sanskrit, too. In order to express the sense of a complete action, we can use the verbal forms, and to express the sense of a continuous action, we can use the Present Participles of the concerned verbal roots. Such present participles are also known as the Verbal Derivative Adjective ( $\mathrm{dh}^{1}$ tu-s $\mathrm{s}^{1}$ dhita-vi $\mathrm{Tl}_{\mathrm{e}-\mathrm{a}^{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{a}} \mathrm{a}$ ).

Guáa-vi-aye pra\{na, kuru, kintu rØpa-vi-aye pra\{na, m$^{1}$ kuru / ~»»a-vi-ye .. .. / Siddhi-vi-aye .. ../ Bhoga-vi-aye .. .. /

A-vinayam apanaya vi-ąo damaya manaå Tlamaya vi-aya-mÅga-tÅ-a¹ m / BhØta-day ${ }^{1}$, vist ${ }^{1}$ raya
$\mathbf{t}^{1}$ raya sa, $\mathbf{s}^{1}$ ra-s $\mathbf{s}^{\mathbf{1}}$ garataå //
He! Vi-º! mama a-vinayam apanaya / He! Vi-a! me manaå damaya/ He! Vi-a o! .. .. /

TÅ-a ${ }^{1}$, chindhi bhaja $k-a m^{1}$, jahi mada, $p^{1}$ perati, $m^{1} k^{\mathcal{R}}{ }^{\text {th }}{ }^{1}$ a<br>Satya, bêhy anuy ${ }^{1}$ hi $\mathbf{s}^{1}$ dhu-padav",<br>sevasva vidvaj-jan ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}$ /<br>$\mathbf{M}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{n y} \mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{n} \mathbf{m}^{\mathbf{1}}$ naya vidvi-o 'pyanunaya<br>hy ${ }^{1}$ cch $^{1}$ daya $\mathbf{s v}^{1} \mathbf{n}$ gu ${ }^{\text {a }}{ }^{1} n$<br>k)rti, $p^{1}$ laya duåkhite kuru daya,<br>etat sat ${ }^{1}$, lak-a am //<br>Herein, there are the following instances of coalescence: bÅhi+ anuy ${ }^{1}$ hi / Vidvi-aå+api / Hi+ ${ }^{1}$ cch $^{1}$ daya / Day ${ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}+$ etat /

The grammatical verbal forms used in the above verses are of Lo-, i.e., the Imperative Mood. Tyaja = Lo-. Madh. Pu., i.e., Imp. 2 ${ }^{\text {nd }}$ Per. Sing., of the root chid ( $7 \mathrm{U} .$, chinatti/ chinte), 'to cut asunder. Bhaja = Lo-. Madh. Pu., i.e., Imp. 2nd Per. Sing., of the root bhaj (1 U., bhajati/bhajate), 'to act, to adopt'. Kuru = Lo-. Madh. Pu., i.e., Imp. 2nd Per. Sing., of the root kÅ(8 U., karoti/ kurute), 'to do'. Smara = Lo-. Madh. Pu., i.e., Imp. 2 ${ }^{\text {nd }}$ Per. Sing., of the root sm $\AA$ ( 1 P., smarati ), 'to remember, to think upon, to long for. PÅcchasva = Lo-. Madh. Pu., i.e., Imp. 2nd Per. Sing., of the root prach (6 P., pÅchhati), 'to ask, to seek for'. Similarly, apanaya (apa+n» 1 U., apanayati/ apanayate, 'to lead away,, rob, steal, take or drag away, remove), damaya (dam 4 P., d¹ myati, to to tame, control), Ilamaya (4 P., $\mathbb{I P}$ myati, to calm down, put an end to, stop),
 abroad, diffuse, e raya (st» 5 U. st $\not \AA^{a}$ oti/ st $\not \AA^{a}$ ute, 'to strew, scatter), ,jahi (3 P. jah¹ ti, 'to abandon, resign, let fall, omit), brØhi (brØ 2 U., tain') are the Lo-. Madh. Pu., i.e., Imp. 2 ${ }^{\text {nd }}$ Per. Sing. forms of the
pra-vi-calanti / pra $=$ prakar- ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{a}$, vi $=$ viruddha, yath $^{1}$ sy $^{1}$ tath ${ }^{1}$, calanti $=$ calana, kurvanti $={ }^{1}$ cara ${ }^{\underline{a}} \mathrm{a}$, kurvanti $/$ Arth $^{1}$, tatha na kurvanti / Ida, $\mathbf{t}^{\mathbf{1}}$ tparya, (= essence)/Dhairyavantaà jan $^{1}{ }^{\text {å }}$ nind $^{1}, \mathbf{v}^{1}$, stuti, $\mathbf{v}^{1}$, lak-m»pr ${ }^{1}$ pti, $\mathbf{v}^{1}$, lak-m» $h^{1} n i$,
 having seen, in view of), ny $^{\mathbf{1}}$ ya-yukt ${ }^{\mathbf{t}} \mathbf{~ m}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{r g}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{t}$ calit ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}$ å naiva bhavanti (= do not at all swerve from). Yataå (= because), te- ${ }^{-1}$,
 nirapek - , mara² a-sam ${ }^{\text {ppat }}{ }^{1}$-dØrat ${ }^{1}$-nirapek - , bhavati /

This verse reveals the nature of the persons steadfast in their justice-based way of life, which is not affected by the fear of the loss of fame, wealth, or even life itself.

## Now, sing aloud the following verse, and read aloud its explanation:

Tyaja durjana-sa, sarga, bhaja $\mathbf{s}^{1}$ dhu-sam ${ }^{1}$ gamam / Kuru puá yam ao-r ${ }^{1}$ tra, smara nityam a-nityat ${ }^{1} m / /$

Idam (=this is) asya ๆ lokasya vivara ${ }^{\text {am }}$ (= elaboration, explanation). Durjanena saha, sa, sargaà sa, parkaå, iti durjana-sa, sargaå, ta, tyaja, tasya ty ${ }^{1}$ ga, kuru / $\mathrm{S}^{1} \mathrm{dhun}^{1}$ sajjanena saha, sam ${ }^{1}$ gamaå samyak melana, , iti $s^{1}$ dhu-sa ${ }^{1}$ gamaå, ta, bhaja kuru / Ahor ${ }^{1}$ tra, divase ${ }^{1}$ trau ca, pu®ay, paropak ${ }^{1}{ }^{1}$ rtha, karma, kuru sam ${ }^{1}$ cara / Nitya, pratidinm, anityat ${ }^{1}$, svasya dehasya ${ }^{1}$ yu-yasya,dhanasya $b^{1}$ ndhav ${ }^{1} n^{1}$, , sukhasya, iti etat-sarvasya asth ${ }^{1}$ yitva, na ${ }^{1}$ Vorat $^{1}$, $\mathrm{v}^{1}$, smara smaraª, kuru //

Now sing aloud the following verses, formulate new sentences as shown below on the basis of this verse,
write them in your notebook, and read them aloud:
Gúa, pÂcchasva $\mathrm{m}^{1}$ rØpa,
Plak, pÅcchasva $\mathbf{m}^{1}$ kulam /
Siddhi, pÂcchasva $\mathrm{m}^{1}$ vidy ${ }^{1}$,
bhoga, pÅcchasva $\mathbf{m}^{1}$ dhanam //

KÅdanta is a nominal word (pr1tipadika) in which a $\mathbf{k} \boldsymbol{\AA} \mathbf{t}$ termination (pratyaya) has been suffixed to a Sanskrit verbal root,
 kAdantam / The $\mathbf{k} \boldsymbol{\mathcal { L }}$ terminations are suffixed to formulate the subjective, verbal or abstract nouns, and they denote the continuous action in the Present Tense. Similarly, the participles that denote the continuous action of the Past Tense are known as the BhØta-kidanta, and those denoting the action of the Future Tense are known as the Bhavi-yat-kAddanta.

In the Present Participle forms, spÅfat, jighrat, hasat, and etc., we find the termination at suffixed in them. This is because the roots, spÅl, ghr ${ }^{1}$, has, etc., underlying in them are of the parasmai-pada type, while in the Present Participle forms, adh $\times y^{1}$ na, sevam ${ }^{1}$ na, lokam ${ }^{1}$ na, etc., we find the termination ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \boldsymbol{n a}$ or $\mathbf{m}^{\mathbf{1}}$ na suffixed in them. This is because the roots, adhi+», sev, luk, etc., underlying in them are of ${ }^{1}$ tmane-pada type. Since the first group of the Present Participle forms are ta- $\mathrm{k}^{1} \mathrm{r}^{1}$ nta (=ending in the consonant $\mathbf{t}$ ), their declension is found to be in accordance with that of the nouns ending in the consonant $\mathbf{t}$. And, since the second group of the Present Participle forms are $a-k^{1} r^{1}$ nta (=ending in the vowel a), their declension is found to be in accordance with that of the nouns ending in the vowel a.

In the $\mathrm{P}^{1}$ anian system, termination at of the Present Participle is mentioned as ' $7 a t \neq$ ' and the termination ${ }^{7}$ na' is mentioned as ' $\mathbb{P}$ nac', and hence in the $\mathrm{P}^{12}$ inian parlance the Present Participle is called the Matranta' ( $=$ qat $\AA$ + anta, i.e., ending the termination $\left.\mathbb{q a t} \mathbb{R}^{\Omega}\right)$ or $\mathbb{T}$ najanta' $(=\mathbb{F}$ nac + anta, i.e., ending the termination $\mathbb{\mathbb { P }}$ nac).

Now, in the case of the roots belonging to the parasmaipada type the termination 9 lat $\AA$ is suffixed to the ai ga• of the

- The term $A_{i}$ ga denotes the intermediate condition of the verbal root after the addition of the sign of the root-class ( ga a-pratyaya), but prior to the suffixing of the termination of a tense or a mood, for instance, $b h \varnothing+a=b h o+a=b h a v a$.
root. For instance, spÅql+ at $=$ spÅllat, ghr ${ }^{1}+$ at $=$ jighra + at $=$ jighrat, $m a n+a t=m^{1} n+a y+a t=m^{1}$ nayat. And, in the case of the roots belonging to the ${ }^{1}$ tmane-pada type, the termination $\mathbb{P}$ nac is suffixed to the ai ga. In the case of the roots belonging to the ${ }^{1}$ tmane-pada type, the termination $\mathbb{T}$ nac is suffixed to the $a_{i}$ ga. In the case of the roots belonging to the ${ }^{1}$ tmane-pada type that have the hal-anta ai ga, i.e., ending in a consonant, the termination ${ }^{1}$ na is suffixed to them. For instance, adhi->> ${ }^{1}$ na= adhi$>y+{ }^{1} n a=a d h>y+{ }^{1} n a=a d h>y{ }^{1} n a$. But, in the case of the roots belonging to the ${ }^{1}$ tmane-pada type that have the ad-anta-ai ga, i.e., ending in the the vowel a, an additional muk adjunct (muk-1 gama= mug $^{1}$ gama, i.e., $m$ ) is prefixed to the termination ${ }^{1}$ na, thus making it $\left.m+{ }^{1} n a=m^{1} n a\right)$. For instance, sev+ $m^{1} n a=s e v-a+m^{1} n a$ sevam ${ }^{1}$ na. Thus, in the Pre. Parti. Forms, like adh>y ${ }^{1} n a, k^{1} u^{1}$ ㄹ $a$, Ilay ${ }^{1}$ na, etc., the termination is ${ }^{1}$ na, while in those, like sevam ${ }^{1}$ na, lokam ${ }^{1}$ na, etc., the termination is $\mathrm{m}^{1}$ na.

The sentences in which such Present Participles are used, the construction is kartari, i.e. direct, with predomination of the subject, and the verb expressing the basic action construes with the subject in points of person and number in such cases, as for instance in, Amit¹, kÅti, kurv¹ a aå naraå utkar-a, labhate /

From the analytical viewpoint, some changes occur in the verbal root due to the addition of the adjucts, before the terminations of the tenses and moods are suffixed to them. Thus, the root gam becomes gacch, the root bh $\varnothing$ becomes bho ( $\varnothing>0$ ), and $9 \gg$ becomes $\operatorname{Tl}(»>\mathrm{e})$, due to the gua adella before the addition of the adjuct a. The resulting form of the root after the modifications due to the changes before, and after, the addition of the adjunct is technically called $\mathbf{A}_{\mathbf{i}}$ ga. Thus, gaccha-, bhava-, adh»ya-, kurva-, seva, etc., are technically in the ai ga stage of the word formation. During this stage the grammatical changes due to the rules of the concerned coalescence, such a lopa, purva-savaraa, para-savarª, etc., take place. And, then,

| Ma. | kampasva | kampeth ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}$ | kampadhvam |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| $2^{\text {nd. }}$ | $=$ let thou / may (you) | $=$ let/ may you (two) | = let/ may you (all) |
|  | quiver / tremble | quiver / tremble | quiver / tremble |
| U. | kampai | kamp ${ }^{1}$ vahai | kamp ${ }^{1}$ mahai |
| $1^{\text {st. }}$ | $=$ let me/ may (I) | = let us / may we (two) | = let us/ may we (all) |
|  | quiver / tremble | quiver / tremble | quiver / tremble |

The root dhÅ (1 U.) dharati/dharate (= to hold) can be conjugated in the parasmai-pada by suffixing the terminations $\mathbf{t u}$, $\mathbf{t}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}$, antu (in $3^{\text {rd }}$.Per.), -, tam, ta (in $2^{\text {nd }}$. Per.), and ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{n i}$, ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{v a}$, ${ }^{1}$ ma (in $1^{\text {st }}$. Per.), respectively, to its base dhara-. It can be conjugated in the ${ }^{1}$ tmanepada by suffixing the terminations $\mathbf{t}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}$, it $^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}$, ant $\mathbf{t}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}$ (in $3^{\text {rd }}$. Per.), sva, $\boldsymbol{i t h}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}$, dhvam (in $2^{\text {nd }}$. Per.), and ai, ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}$ vahai, ${ }^{1}$ mahai (in $1^{\text {st. }}$. Per.), respectively. Now, imagine these forms accordingly and recite them aloud, like dharatu, dharat ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}$ dharantu, etc.

## Now, recite aloud the following verse,

and read aloud its explanation trying to grasp the sense:
Nindantu nsti-nipua¹ yadi $\mathbf{v}^{1}$ stuvantu
Lak-m>å sam ${ }^{1}$ viflatu gacchatu $\mathbf{v}^{1}$ yathe-am /
Adyaiva $\mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{1}}$ mara ${ }^{\text {am }}$ astu yug $^{1}$ ntare $\mathbf{v}^{1}$
$N y^{1} \mathbf{y y}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{t}$ pathaå pravicalanti pada, na dh $r^{1}$ å //
Asya Ilokasya ayam arthaå / Nsti-nipuá ${ }^{1}$ å = lokavyavah ${ }^{1}$ re kuflal ${ }^{1}$ å jan ${ }^{1}$ å / Nindantu $=$ nind ${ }^{1}$, kurvantu / Yadi $\mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{1}}=$ atha $\mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{1}}$ (=or else) / Tebhyaå = Nsti-nipua ebhyaå, yadi rocate $={ }^{1}$ nanda-d ${ }^{1}$ yaka, pratibh ${ }^{1}$ ti, tad ${ }^{1}$ stuvantu $=$ stuti, kurvantu / Athav ${ }^{1}$, lak-m’ลํ = ram $^{1}=$ samÅddhiå = ai ${ }^{1}$ varya, , tasyai yathe $-a$, $=$ yena prak ${ }^{1}$ rea $^{\mathbf{a}}$ a icchitam bhavati tath ${ }^{1}$,
 praviflatu / Arth ${ }^{1} \mathbf{t}$ (=that means), samÅddhiå yadi tasyai rocate tad $^{1}$ mama gR̂he prave \|a, karotu / $\mathbf{V}^{1}=$ athav $^{1}$ (= or), yadi tasyai na rocate tad ${ }^{1}$ mama $g^{\circ} h^{1} \mathbf{t}$ bahiå gacchatu (= may get out). Mama, mara ${ }^{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a},=\operatorname{pr}^{1}{ }^{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a}-t y^{1}$ gaå (=death), adya eva = asmin eva divase (= today itself, even today), bhavatu (= may occur, take place), athav ${ }^{1}$, yug ${ }^{1}$ ntare $=$ dvit ye kasmin cit trying aparasmin yuge (= in another age cycle), bhavatu / Eva, vic ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}$ ra, kurvantaå, dh $\times^{\mathbf{1}}{ }^{\circ}$, $=$ dhairyavantaå puru- ${ }^{\circ}, n y^{1} \mathbf{y y}^{1} \mathbf{t}=n y^{1}$ yayukt ${ }^{1} t$, pathaå $=\mathbf{m}^{1} \mathrm{rg}^{1} \mathbf{t}$, pada, $=$ ekam api pad ${ }^{1} \mathrm{rpa}^{2} \mathrm{a}$, , na,

Gurjaratra = belonging to Gujarat. Apara= another, different one. Kutaå = from where? BhÅgukaccha= Broach (name of a city in South Gujarat). Kayoå = from which. Niv¹ sa= residence. SØrata= Surat (name of a city in South Gujarat). Va-odara = Va@odar ${ }^{1}$ or Baroda (name of a city in South Gujarat). Nanu= surely, no doubt, pray, please, but then, well. Deva=god. Yak-a=spirit. Gandharva $=$ heavenly singer. $\mathbf{R}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{k}-\mathbf{a s a}=$ demon. $\mathbf{B r}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{h m a} \mathbf{a}^{\mathbf{a}} \mathrm{a}=\mathrm{brahmin}$. K-atriya= belonging to the warrior class. Vailya= belonging to the merchant class. ~Ødra= belonging to the servant class. B¹ la= boy. Yuvan = young man. VÅddha = old man. Deha= body. Manas $=$ mind, Indriya $=$ sense organ. Pram ${ }^{1}$ rthataå $=$ in reality, ultimately. Ak-ara=imperishable. Brahman = universal soul. Uktam $=$ (it) has been said. Bhagavat $=$ God, respectable. J >va= soul, a living being.

In English, we have the usages like 'come', 'go', 'stand up', 'sit down', 'attention', 'stand at ease', 'double up', 'stop', 'bless you', etc., to express the feelings like order, command, expectation, desire or blessing, or even anger and curse. In Sanskrit, the roots in the verbal forms of the Lo-, i.e., Imperative Mood, are used to express such feelings. Let us see the forms of the root BhØ (1.P) and Kamp (1,.), by way of specimen:

| hб (1.P) = to be/ become |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Per. | Sing. | Du. | Pl. |
| Pra. | bhavatu | bhavat ${ }^{1} \mathbf{m}$ | bhavantu |
| $3^{\text {rd. }}$ | $=$ let/ may (it) | = let/ may they (two) | = let/ may they (all) |
|  | be/ become | be/ become | be/ become |
| Ma. | bhava | bhavatam | bhavata |
| $2^{\text {nd. }}$ | = let thou / may (you) | = let/ may you (two) | = let/ may you (all) |
|  | be/ become | be/ become | be/ become |
| U. | bhav ${ }^{1} \mathrm{ni}$ | bhav ${ }^{1}$ va | bhav ${ }^{1}$ ma |
| $1{ }^{\text {st. }}$ | $=\text { let me/ may (I) }$ | $=$ let us / may we (two) | = let us/ may we (all) |
|  |  |  |  |
|  | Kamp (1 . .) = to quiver. tremble |  |  |
| Per. <br> Pra. <br> $3^{\text {rd }}$. | Sing. | Du. PI. <br> kampet ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{~}$ <br> $=$ let $/$ may they (two) <br> quiver $/$ tremble kampant ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}$ <br> = let may they (all)  <br> quiver / tremble  |  |
|  | kampat ${ }^{1} \mathbf{m}$ |  |  |
|  | $=$ let/ may (it) |  |  |
|  | quiver / tremble |  |  |

if the desired Present Participle is masculine, the applicable termination of concerned declension are suffixed to the resulting basic form of the participle. And if the desired Present Participle is feminine, the additional adjunct ${ }^{1}$ or » of the feminine gender is added to it, before suffixing the terminations of the cases and numbers, as for instance, kurv${ }^{1}-\mathrm{a}+{ }^{1}=$ kurv $^{1} \underline{1}{ }^{1}$, bhavat $+»=$ bhavat».

## Now, read aloud the following verse, understand its meaning and the special syntactical usages in it:

## Gacchan pip»liko $\mathbf{y}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{t i}$ yojan ${ }^{1} \mathbf{n}^{1}$, Ilat ${ }^{1}$ ny api /

A-gacchan vainateyo pi padam eka, na gacchati //
Pip»ika $=$ an ant This word is masculine in Sanskrit, while it may be feminine or even neuter in English. ~ atam = hundred. Yojan ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}^{1}$, Iatam = (up to) a hundred yojanas (i.e., about four or five hundred miles); this an idiomatic con-struction. Vainateya $=$ an eagle, lit. the son of Vinat ${ }^{1}$, a female eagle. This verse reveals one of the laws of success in life, and here, the moving ant represents an endeavoring active person, and the unmoving eagle represents an inactive idle one.

In Sanskrit conversation, it is customary to address a person respectfully by using the Sanskrit pronoun Bhavat, and the verb used with it is customarily put in the Pra. Pur. (i.e. $3^{\text {dd }}$ Per.). For instance, Bhav ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{n}$ (= your good self) gacchanti (= is going). Bhavantaå (=your good selves) sam ${ }^{1}$ gacchanti (= are coming together) adya (=today). , $\mathbf{y}^{\mathbf{1}}$ ntam (=to the visitor) vadati (=they tell) ${ }^{1}$ gacchantu (= please come), upavi $\operatorname{lntu}$ ( $=$ please take your seat), $\mathbf{5 v}^{\mathbf{1}}$ gatam (=welcome) iti (=thus, that)/ Now, sing aloud all the Sanskrit verses given in this lesson, keeping in mind their meanings.

In this lesson we have seen the usage of the ta- $k^{1} t^{1}$ na words, i.e., those ending in $\mathbf{t}$, such as, gacchat, bhavat, kurvat, and etc. Their declension is mostly similar to that of the other ta- $k^{1} r^{1} n t a$ Sanskrit nouns, except in a few cases of particular
words of that type. This dissimilarity should be carefully noted, as in the following two words:

| Mahat (m. $)=$ big, great |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Case | Sing. | Du. | PI. |
| Pra. | mah ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}$ | mah ${ }^{1}$ ntau | mah ${ }^{1}$ ntaå |
| Nom. | a great one | (two) great ones | (all) great oness |
| Sa, | mahan | mah ${ }^{1}$ ntau | mah ${ }^{1}$ ntaå |
| Voc. | 0 great one! | 0 (two) great ones! | 0 (all) great ones! |
| Dvi. | mah ${ }^{1}$ ntam | mah ${ }^{1}$ ntau | mahataå |
| Acc. | towards | towards | towards |
| TÅ | a great one | (two) great ones | (all) great ones |
| Instr. | by a great one | by (two) great ones | ( all) great |
| Catu. | mahate | mahadby ${ }^{1}$ m | mahadbhyaå |
| Dat. | to a great one | to (two) great ones | to (all) great ones |
| Pañ. | mahataå | mahadby ${ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ | mahadbhyaå |
| Abl. | from a great on | from (two) great ones | from (all) great ones |
| ! a | mahataå | mahatoå | mahat ${ }^{1} \mathbf{m}$ |
| Gen. | of a great one | of (two) great ones | of (all) great ones |
| Sap. | mahati | mahatoå | mahatsu |
| Loc. | in/ about a great one | in/about (two) great ones | in/about <br> (all) great one |



Like the sense of the verb forms of the English root 'to be' in the Present Tense, the same sense is expressed in Sanskrit through the verbal roots bhØ (1 P.), vfit (1,.) and as (2 P.). It should be noted that from among these, the initial $\mathbf{a}$ - of the verb-forms of the root as, is sometimes elided in the Present Tense, as shown below:

|  |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Person | $n \quad$ Sing. | Du. | Pl |
| Pra. | asti | staå | santi |
| $3{ }^{\text {rd. }}$ | = bhavati= vartate | = bhavataå= vartete | bhavanti= vartante |
|  | $=(\mathrm{He}) \text { is/ exists/ }$ <br> become | $=\text { (They two) are/ exist/ }$ become | =(They all) are/ exist/ <br> become |
| M adh. | . asi | sthaå | stha |
| $2^{\text {nd. }}=$ bhavasi $=$ vartase $=$ bhavathaå = vartethe bhavatha= varth |  |  |  |
|  | $=\text { (you) are/ exist/ }$ | = (You two) are/ exist/ | = (You all) are/ exist/ |
|  | become | become | become |
| Utt. | asmi | svaå | smaå |
| $1^{\text {st. }}=$ | = bhav ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{~ m i ~}=$ varte | = bhav ${ }^{1}$ vaå = vart ${ }^{1}$ vahe | bhav ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{~ m i ~}=$ vart ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}$ mahe |
|  | = (I) am/ exist/ | $=(\text { We two }) \text { are/ exist/ }$ | $=(\text { We all }) \text { are/ exist } /$ |
|  | become | become | become |

## Now, read aloud the following sentences understanding their meaning:

Ko’ham asmi / Aha, manu-yo 'smi / Ki, $\mathrm{n}^{1}$ ma tava ?
Daflaratha iti mama $\mathrm{n}^{1} \mathrm{~m}^{1}$ sti / Kutratyo 'si ? Gurjaratro 'smi / Ayam aparaå ko 'sti ? Sa na-avaraå / Kuta ${ }^{1}$ gacchatha yuv ${ }^{1}$ m ? BhÅgukacchata ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}$ gacch ${ }^{1}$ va ${ }^{1} \mathbf{v}^{1} \mathbf{m}$ / Kayor nagarayor yuvayor vartam ${ }^{1}$ na- ${ }^{1}$ le niv¹ sau staå ? , vayoå sØrata-va-odarayor gÅhau staå / Nanu param ${ }^{1}$ rthataå ko 'si ? Param ${ }^{1}$ rthatas tu $n^{1}$ ha, manu-yo, na ca devo, $\mathbf{n}^{1}$ pi yak-o, gandharvo, naiva $\mathbf{r}^{1} k-a s o$, na br $^{1} \mathbf{h m a}{ }^{\text {a }} 0$, $n^{1}$ pi k-atriyo, no vailyo, na ca ๆØdro, na $b^{1}$ lo, na yuv $^{1}, \mathbf{n}^{1}$ pi vÅddho, no deho, na mano, nendriy ${ }^{1}{ }^{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{i} /$ Tad adhun $^{1}$ kathaya ko 'si param ${ }^{1}$ rthataå / Param ${ }^{1}$ rthatas tu so 'ham / Nanu sa iti kim ? ~Aøa / Sa ity para, brahma, param ${ }^{1}$ tm $^{\mathbf{1}}$ / Aham iti $\mathbf{c}^{1} k$-ara, brahma, quddha ${ }^{1}$ tmeti $\mathrm{t}^{1}$ vat/ Aha, brahm ${ }^{1}$ 'smi // Tad ukta, bhagavat ${ }^{1}$ Ta; kar ${ }^{1}$ c $^{1}$ rye ${ }^{\text {a a yat - j’vo bramaiva, }}$ $n^{1}$ paraå /

> Kaå = who? Aham = I. Manu-ya = a human being. Kim = what? $\mathbf{N}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m a}=$ name. Kutratya $=$ belonging to which place?
$=$ vidyay $^{1}$ yuktaå = endowed with learning, having knowledge. Bhaya; karaå = bh>tik ${ }^{1}$ rakaå $=$ dangerous, frightening. Paranind ${ }^{1}$ yai $=$ Parasya $=$ itarasya, nind $^{1}$ yai $=$ nind $^{1}$ rtham $=$ for censuring, slandering. $\mathbf{P}$ »(1) yai $\mathbf{p}>\mathbb{O}^{1}$ rtham $=$ for tormenting. Sajjanasya = sat-puru-asya $=$ of gentalman, good person. Sev ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}$ yai $=\operatorname{sev}^{1}$ rtham $=$ for serving.

$$
\begin{array}{lcc}
\text { Now let us see the declension of the word Ram }{ }^{1} \\
\text { to learn systematically the various case forms } \\
\text { of the }{ }^{1}-\mathbf{k}^{1} \mathbf{r}^{1} \text { ta feminine nouns: }
\end{array}
$$

Now, recite aloud one by one the forms of the other nouns ${ }^{1}-k^{1} r^{1}$ nta nouns like $b^{1}+$, vidya, $k r i y^{1}$, nind ${ }^{1}$, $p>\bigotimes^{1}$, $\operatorname{sev}^{1}$, etc., that are declined in the same manner as those of the above forms of ram ${ }^{1}$.

Sap. bhavati bhavatoå bhavatsu
Loc. in your good self in your good selves (two) in your good selves (all)
On comparing these forms, we should note that while in the singular, dual and plural of the Nominative, the dual and plural of the Vocative, and the singular and dual of the Accusative cases, the forms of the word mahat take the $d \ggg h^{1}$ della, i.e., the lengthening of the final vowel, and addition of the nu © gama, i.e., the adjunct $\mathbf{n}$, after it, making it mah ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{n}$-. This does bot happen in the forms of the word bhavat in similar cases and numbers, except in the case of the Nominative singular; but the elision of its termination $\mathbf{s}$ is common to both. In all other cases and numbers, the forms of both these words are declined similarly.

## LESSON 8 <br> (A-amaå $\mathrm{P}^{1}$-haå)

Now, read aloud the following sentences, trying to understand their meaning:
Bhav ${ }^{1}$ n gacchati / Bhavantau ${ }^{1}$ gacchataå / Bhavantaå qhạ vanti / Bhavanta, jan ${ }^{1}$ å pÅcchanti / Bhavadbhiå b¹ ndhav ${ }^{1}$ å tu-yanti / Bhavati sajjan ${ }^{1}$ å snihyanti / Bhavat ${ }^{1}$, yafå jagati prasarati /

Now, read aloud the following sentences:
Bhav ${ }^{1}$ n gami-yati (=will go) / Bhavantau ${ }^{1}$ gami-yataå (=will come) / Bhavantaå Iro-yanti (=will hear) / Bhavanta, jan ${ }^{1}$ å prak-yanti ( $=$ will ask) / Bhavadbhiå b¹ ndhav ${ }^{1}$ à tarpi-yanti (=will become satisfied) / Bhavat ${ }^{1}$, yaๆaå jagati prasari-yati (= will spread) / Bhavati sajjan ${ }^{1}$ å snihi-yanti (= will love, will feel affectionate) / The forms of Second Future (LA) have been used in the above sentences.

Keeping this in view, read aloud over again
these sentences in the above paragraph.
Just as a Present Participle is formed by suffixing the adjunct $\mathbf{a t}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{n a}$ or $\mathbf{m}^{\mathbf{1}}$ na to the base ( ai ga ) of a Sanskrit verbal-root in the 3rd Per. Sing. form in the Present Tense, similarly, a Future Participle is formed by suffixing the same adjuncts to the base ( $\mathrm{a}_{\mathrm{i}} \mathrm{ga}$ ) of a Sanskrit verbal-root in the 3rd Per. Sing. form in the Second Future Tense. As for instance:
Gam (1 P.) gami-yati (base gami-ya-); Fut. Par. gami-yat (m.) = (He) will be going; gami-yant»(f.) = (She) will be going; gami-yat $(\mathrm{n})=.(\mathrm{It})$ will be going.
BhØ(1 P.) bhavi-yati (base bhavi-ya-); Fut. Par. bhavi-yat (m.) = (He) will be becoming; bhavi-yant» (f.) = (She) will be becoming; bhavi-yat ( n .) = (It) will be becoming.
$+\mathbf{y}^{\mathbf{1}}$ (2 P.) ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{y}^{\mathbf{1}}$ syati (base ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{y}^{\mathbf{1}}$ sya-); Fut. Par. ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{y}^{\mathbf{1}}$ syat (m.) = (He) will be coming; ${ }^{1} \mathbf{y}^{\mathbf{1}}$ syant»(f.)=(She) will be coming; ${ }^{1} \mathbf{y}^{1}$ syat ( n .) = (It) will be coming.

 (
f.) $=$ (She) will be waiting; prat $*-{ }^{-1-y a m^{1}}{ }^{\mathbf{a}} \mathbf{a}(\mathrm{n})=$. (It) will be waiting.

The various case forms of the Future Participles which are ta- $k^{1} r^{1}$ nta, i.e., ending in $\mathbf{t}$, are declined in the same manner as those of the word bhavat, and of those which are $\mathbf{a}-\mathbf{k}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{r}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{n t a}, \mathbf{i} . \mathbf{e} .$, ending in $\mathbf{a}$, are declined in the same manner as those of the word $\mathbf{r}^{1}$ ma.

Generally, the nouns that are ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{-} \mathbf{k}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{r}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{n t a}$, i.e., ending in ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}$ for instance, $\mathbf{n i} \mathbb{\mathbb { P }}, \mathbf{m}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{I}^{\mathbf{1}}, \mathbf{r a m}^{\mathbf{1}}, \mathbb{\mathbb { P }} \mathbf{I}^{\mathbf{1}}$, are of feminine gender, with a few exceptions, like $\mathbf{d}^{1} \mathbf{r}^{1}(\mathrm{~m})=$. wife. Such feminine nouns like ni $\mathbb{F}$ are declined differently, and the difference should be carefully noted.

Now, read aloud the following sentences:
$B h^{1}$ rate vividh ${ }^{1}$ ni $r^{1}{ }^{\mathbf{j}} \mathbf{y}^{1}{ }^{\text {a }} \mathbf{i}$ santi / $R^{1}$ jye $r^{1}$ jye jan ${ }^{1} n^{1}$,
 atitar ${ }^{1}$, pr ${ }^{1} \mathbf{c}$ n $^{1}$ / Aha, gØrjara-bh ${ }^{1}+$, vad ${ }^{1}$ mi / Tvam ${ }^{1}$ igla-$b^{1}-a y^{1}$ vyavaharasi / GØrjara-bh ${ }^{1}+$ mama $\mathbf{m}^{1}$ tÅbh $^{1} \boldsymbol{h}^{1}$ / Sa, kÅta-bh ${ }^{1}+$ mama $m^{1} t \not ̂ b h^{1} h^{1} \mathbf{y}^{1}{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{m}^{1} \mathbf{t}^{1}$ mah»/ Tasy ${ }^{1}$, likhit $^{1}$ å granth ${ }^{1}$ à asa, khy ${ }^{1}$ å / $\mathbf{S}^{1}$ sakal ${ }^{1} n^{1}$, vidy ${ }^{1} \mathbf{n}^{1}$, nidh ${ }^{1}$ nam / Vidy ${ }^{1} n^{1}$ ma narasya gupta, dhanam / Vidyay ${ }^{1}$ vin $^{1}$ j)vita, vyartham / Kriyay ${ }^{1}$ vin $^{1}$ jñ$^{1}$ na, nirarthakam / Vidy ${ }^{1}$ sahitaå api durjanaå bhaya; karaå / Durjanasya j>vita, paranind ${ }^{1}$ yai paraip»®ํ yai ca bhavati / Sajjanasya j»vana, para$\operatorname{sev}^{1}$ yai vartate /

Note the new words and usages in the above sentences: $\mathbf{B h}^{\mathbf{1}}$ rate $=$ in India. Vividh ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{n i}=$ various. $\mathbf{R}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{j} \mathbf{j}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{n i}=$ States. $\mathbf{R}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{j y e}$ $\mathbf{r}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{j} \mathbf{y e}=$ in every State. $\mathbf{J a n} \mathbf{n}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{n}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}=$ of the people. $\mathbf{M}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{t} \AA$ $\mathbf{b h}^{\mathbf{1}} \boldsymbol{h}^{\mathbf{1}}=$ mother tongue. $\mathbf{B} \boldsymbol{h}^{\mathbf{1}}+\mathbf{s u}=$ among the languages. Atitar ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}=$ very much. $\mathbf{P r}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{C}^{\mathbf{1}} \boldsymbol{n}^{\mathbf{1}}=$ old, ancient. GØrjara-bh ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}+=$ Gujarati Ianguage. Likhit ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{\text { à }}=$ written, composed. Granth ${ }^{1}$ å $=$ books, works. Asa; khy ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}$ a $=$ uncountable, numerous. Vidy $\mathbf{1}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{n}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}=$ of the sciences, among the sciences. $\mathbf{N i d h}^{\mathbf{1}}$ nam = treasure. Guptam $=$ Secret, hidden. Kriyay ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}$ vin $^{1}=$ without action. Nirarthakam $=$ = vyartham = useless. Durjanaå= wicked person. Vidy ${ }^{1}$-sahitaå
(Active Voice:) Saå (= He) $\mathbb{T}^{1} \operatorname{str}^{1} \underline{a} \mathrm{i}$ (= scriptures) apa-hat (= studied). (Passive Voice:) Tena (=By him) $\mathbb{T}^{\mathbb{r}} \operatorname{str}^{1} \underline{a}$ (= scriptures) apa-hyanta (=were studied). (Past Active Participle:) Saå (=He is) $\mathbb{T} \operatorname{str}^{1} \underline{\underline{a}} \mathrm{i}$ (scriptures) pa-hitav ${ }^{1} n$ (=the one who has studied).A.V.:) Saå granth ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}$ (=books) alikhat (=wrote, composed). (P.V.:) Tena (=By him) granth ${ }^{1}$ å (= books) alikhyanta (= were written). Saå (= He is) granth ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}$ (= books) likhitav¹ n (=the one who has written). Similarly, Saå v\&̊ttam arak-at / Tena vîtta, rak-itam / Saå vÅtta, rak-itav ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n} /$

Here we clearly find that in the Active Voice of a Sanskrit sentence the verb denoting the Past Tense agrees with the subject in Person and Number. Similarly, the Past Active Participle, too, agrees with the subject in Person and Number. And, as in the Passive Voice, the verb denoting the Past Tense agrees with the object in Person and Number. Similarly, the Past Active Participle, too, agrees with the object in Person and Number.

## Now, let us analyze these Past Passive Participle forms:

Bhuktav ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}=$ bhuj+tavat+ $\mathrm{s}=$ bhuj+ tav ${ }^{1} \mathrm{t}$ (by drorgh ${ }^{1}$ dela, i.e.lengthening, of the medial vowel a) $+n$ (i.e. num ${ }^{-1}$ gama) and elision of both the final $t$ and the case termination $s$. Similarly, $p \geqslant a v^{1} n=p i b$
 lab+ dhavat ( $b h+t=b d h$ by coalescence) $+s . D \AA \AA \rightarrow a v^{1} n=d \AA \AA+$ tavat $+s$ $=d \AA \AA-+$-avat (by retroflexive coalescence of $\AA+\mathbb{I}+t=A ̊-$ ). Sp $A-a v^{1} n$ $=s p \AA ̊ q+$ tavat $+s=s p \AA \AA+$-avat (by retroflexive of $\left.\AA+\mathbb{q}+t=\AA_{-}\right)+s$.

 tavat+s. Pa-hitav¹ $n=$ pa-h>pa-hi + tavat + s.Likhitav¹ $n=$ likh >likhi + tavat+s. Rak-itav ${ }^{1} n=$ rak $\rightarrow$ rak-i+tavat+s. $D \varnothing_{-i t a v}{ }^{1} n=d \varnothing \neg>$ $\mathrm{d} \varnothing-\mathrm{i}+$ tavat+s. In the last six cases we find an additional vowel i inserted after the final consonant of the original root, before the termination tavat, changing $p »$ © $p »$ ©, etc., because all these verbal roots are of the se- type. We have seen previously in the sixth lesson that in the Sanskrit se verbal roots, the $i$ is added in the forms, like p»Cayi-yati, bhØ-i-yati, pa-hi-yati, and etc., of the Future Tense. Thus by suffixing of the termination tavat of the Past Active Participle, the nominal (pr ${ }^{1}$ tipadika) bases, like bhuktavat, p»tavat, nstavat,


| Yudh (4 . .)'to fight' |  |  |  |
| :---: | :---: | :---: | :---: |
| Pu. | Sing. | Du. | PI. |
| Pra. | ayudhyata | ayudhyet ${ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ | ayudhyanta |
| $3{ }^{\text {rd }}$. Per. | = (He) fought | = (They two) fought | = (They aoll) fought |
| Madh. | ayudhyeth ${ }^{1}$ a | ayudhyeth ${ }^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ | ayudhyadhvam |
| $2^{\text {nd }}$. Per. | = (You) fought | = (You two) fought | = (You all) fought |
| Utta. | ayudhye | ayudhy ${ }^{1}$ vahi | ayudhy ${ }^{1}$ mahi |
| $1^{\text {st }}$ Per. | = (I) fought | $=($ We two) fought | = (Weall) fought |

## Now, note the following instances of the coalescence that have occurred in the above paragraph:

Vikramasi, haå+ $n^{1}$ ma and Dh*rendraå+ $n^{1}$ ma (aå+n= $0+n) R^{1} j^{1}+$ abhavat $\left({ }^{1}+a={ }^{1}+{ }^{\prime}\right) / K$ Krtim $+{ }^{1} \mathrm{kara}$ ya $\left(\mathbf{m}+^{1}=\mathbf{m}^{1} /\right.$ $R^{\mathbf{1}}$ japutraå+ ${ }^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{y}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{t}(\mathbf{a}$ å $+\mathbf{a}) /$ Sevakaå+ avartata and NÅpaå + acintayat (å̊+a=0+') /

Generally, in practical life every activity generates some result. Consequently, there are two aspects of a verb in a language: (1) action; and (2) result. For instance, in the action of 'going' the action is of putting steps one after another, and the result is reaching a place from one to another. Now, in the kriy ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}$-pada, i.e., the verb, denoting an action that accrues the result to the doer itself, is called a-karmaka, i.e. intransitive, while the verb denoting an action of a doer the result of which accrues to somebody else is called sa-karmaka, i.e. transitive. Thus, for instance, in the sentence Ramelaå calati (=Mr. Ramesh is walking), the action of 'walking' accrues to the doer Ramesh who performs that action. But in the sentence Surelaå ramela, $\mathbf{t}^{\mathbf{1}}$ @ayati (=Mr. Suresh beats Ramesh), while the action of beating belongs to Suresh, the resulting pain of being bitten accrues to Ramesh. Hence, while the verb calati is intransitive, the verb $\mathbf{t}^{\mathbf{1}}$ ©ayati is transitive. Sanskrit grammarians have thus divided the verbs into two types, called a-karmaka, i.e., the one having no object, and sa-karmaka, i.e., the one having an object.

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$$

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Now, we must have noted that, while speaking in English, we often utilize such transitive usages like: 'An airplane strikes the tower', and 'The tower was struck by an airplane'. In essence, the action of striking occurred, but in the first usage the 'airplane' was the subject, while in the second one, it is the object. In the first usage the action has a direct relation with the verb, and hence it is called the direct sentence construction', while in the second one, the action has an indirect relation with the verb, and hence it is called the 'indirect sentence construction'. Similarly, in Sanskrit, too we have two types of sentence construction: the first type is called the $\mathbf{k a r t}^{1} \mathbf{v}^{1}$ cya, i.e., expressing the subject directly, or, kartari, i.e., the direct speech; and the second type is the karma- $\mathbf{v}^{1}$ cya, i.e., expressing the object directly, or the karma $\mathbf{a}$ i, i.e., the indirect speech. In both these constructions, the verb is always of the sakarmaka type.
/ Yaå subha- $\mathbf{m}^{1}$ rga, = qobhana, $\mathbf{m}^{1}$ rga, (= good, felicitous, auspicious, path or way of life), anus $\AA \operatorname{tav}^{1} \mathrm{n}=$ anusara ${ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{a}$,
 dhanya, = suk ${ }^{\text {Atam }}=$ puã yavantam, kÅtav $^{1} n /$ saå, nija-janma


## Yaå $\mathbb{T}^{1} \operatorname{str}^{1}{ }^{1} \mathbf{i} \quad$ pa-hitav ${ }^{1} n$ <br> tath $^{1}$ likhitav $^{1} \mathrm{n}$ bahØn granth $^{1} \mathrm{n}$ / <br> Na ca rak-itav ${ }^{1} n$ vêta,

vibudha-sam ${ }^{1}$ ja, sa dØ-itav ${ }^{1} \mathbf{n} / /$
Yaå $\mathbb{P} \operatorname{str}^{1} \underline{\underline{a}}=\mathbb{\mathbb { R }}$ stra-granth $^{1} \mathrm{n}$ (= scriptures, holy books), pa-hitav ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}$ $=$ abhyastav $^{1} \mathrm{n}(=$ studied $)$, tath ${ }^{1} \mathrm{pi}=$ tath $^{1}+\mathrm{api}(=$ in spite of, even then), ca (= and), vAtta, = $\mathrm{c}^{1}$ ritrya, (= character, pure conduct), na
 vibudha-sam ${ }^{1} \mathrm{ja}$, $=$ vidvajjan ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ sam $^{1} \mathrm{jam}$ ( $=$ the society of the learned persons, enlightened ones), dØ-itav ${ }^{1} n=$ do $-\mathrm{a}-\mathrm{yukta}, \mathrm{kitav}^{1} \mathrm{n}$ ( = spoiled, stigmatized). Tath ${ }^{1}$ ( $=$ similarly, in the same way), ca (= and moreover), yaå, bahøn = bahu-sajkhyak ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}$ (= many, numerous) granth ${ }^{1}$ n ( $=$ books, treatises) likhitav ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}$ (=wrote, composed), tath ${ }^{1}$ pi $=$ tath $^{1}+$ api ( $=$ in spite of, even then $)$, ca ( $=$ and ), vÅta, $=c^{1}$ ritrya, ( $=$ character, pure conduct), na rak-itav${ }^{1} n=$ rak $-\mathrm{a}^{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{a}$, na $\mathrm{K}_{\mathrm{tr}} \mathrm{tav}^{1} \mathrm{n}$ ( $=$ did not preserve, protect), saã, vibudha$\operatorname{sam}^{1} \mathrm{ja}$, $=$ vidvajjan ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}^{1} \mathrm{~m} \mathrm{sam}^{1}$ jam d $\varnothing$ - tav ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}=$ do-a-yukta, kifav¹$n$ 1


 etc., express the sense of the Past Tense, and the parts like bhukta-,
 anusíta-, pa-hita-, likhita-, rakita-, dø-ita-, etc., are likethe Past Passive Participles. These words, bhuktav ${ }^{1} n$, etc., are the Past Active Participles. They act as nouns and agree with the subject of the sentence in which they are used, because in them the subject predominates and hence the Participle denoting the action follows the subject. These subtle semantic aspects will be clear on observing the following sentences:

But, what happens when the verb is of a-karmaka type? Since there is no transitive verb, it is the action that is denoted predominantly, and the verb expressing it is always used in the $3^{\mathrm{d}}$ Person Singular. As for instance in the sentences like, It is being walked by me', 'It is being laughed at by me', and 'It is being sung by me'. In these sentence constructions, the verb has no relation with anybody else, but only with the word 'it' used in the $3^{d}$ person Singular. Similarly, in Sanskrit, too, we have such a construction in the sentences like, May ${ }^{1}$ gamyate', 'May ${ }^{1}$ hasyate', May ${ }^{1}$ gyate', since, the action (bh ${ }^{1}$ va) of 'going' or 'laughing' or 'singing' predominates in such constructions, it is called $\mathbf{b h}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{v a - v ^ { 1 }}$ cya, i.e., ex pressing the action directly, or $\mathbf{b h}^{1}$ ve, i.e., impersonal.

Now, read aloud the following sentences, comparing them with one another,
in view of their meanings:
Aha, gacch ${ }^{1} \mathbf{m i} /$ May $^{1}$ gamyate/ $\mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{m}^{1}{ }^{1}$ gacch ${ }^{1}$ vaå / ${ }^{1} v^{1}$ bhy $^{1} \mathrm{~m}^{1}{ }^{1}$ gamyate / Vaya, ti-h ${ }^{1}$ maå / Asm ${ }^{1}$ bhiå sth yate / Tva, bh ${ }^{1}$-ase / Tvay ${ }^{1}$ bh ${ }^{1}$-yate / Yuv ${ }^{1}$, hasatha / Yuv ${ }^{1}$ bhy ${ }^{1}$, hasyate / YØya, caratha / Yu-m¹ bhiå caryate / Saå gaccchati / $\mathbf{S}^{1}$ gaccchati/ Tat gaccchati / Tena gamyate / Tay ${ }^{1}$ gamyate / Tena gamyate / Tau ${ }^{1}$ gacchathaå / $\mathrm{Te}^{1}$ gacchathaå / Te ${ }^{1}$ gacchathaå / $\mathbf{T}^{1}$ bhy ${ }^{1},{ }^{1}$ gamyate / $\mathbf{T}^{1}$ bhy ${ }^{1},{ }^{1}$ gamyate / $\mathbf{T}^{\mathbf{1}}$ bhy $^{1},{ }^{1}$ gamyate /

Now note: Since all these sentences are in the $\mathbf{B h}^{\mathbf{1}} \mathbf{v a} \mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{1}}$ cya or $\mathbf{B h}^{1}$ ve, i.e., intransitive indirect, type of construction, the verb (bh ${ }^{1}$ va) predominates in them. And, the subject of the original sentence in the direct construction is here put in the Instrumental Case, with its number remaining the same as in the original. But, the relation between the subject and the verb being lost in new construction, it ceases to agree with it, and it is put in the it is always put in the Prathama Puru-a, ( $=3^{\text {rd }}$ Per.) Eka-vacana ( $=$ singular).

Now, read aloud the following sentences, while mentally comparing them and grasping their meanings:
Aha, tv ${ }^{1}$, pafly ${ }^{1} \mathrm{mi} /=1$ am seeing you. May ${ }^{1}$ tva, dÅfyase /
$=$ You are being seen by me. , $\mathrm{v}^{1}$, tv ${ }^{1}$, smar ${ }^{1}$ vaå $/=\mathrm{We}$ (two) are remembering you. , $v^{1}$ bhy ${ }^{1}$, tva, smaryase $/=$ You are being remembered by (both of) us. Vaya, $v^{1} r t^{1}$ å $q h^{a} v^{1} m a a ̊ /=W e(a l l)$
 being listened to by us (all). Tva, patram alikhaå / You wrote a letter. Tvay ${ }^{1}$ patram alikhyata / =A letter was written by you. Yuv ${ }^{1}$, jalam apibathaå / = You (two) drank the water. Yuv ${ }^{1}$ bhy¹, jalam ap>yata/ = Water was drunk by (both of) you. YØya, granthau $\mathrm{v}^{1}$ ci-yatha / = You (all) will read the (two) books. Yu-m¹ bhiå granthau $\mathrm{v}^{1}$ ci-yete / =The (two) books will be read by you (all). Saå, $\mathrm{s}^{1}$, tat $\mathrm{v}^{1} \mathrm{ca}^{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{ak}^{1} \mathrm{n}$ kh ${ }^{1}$ dati / $=\mathrm{He}$, she, or it eats the gram grains. Tena, tay ${ }^{1}$, tena $v^{1}$ caª $k^{1}{ }^{\circ} k^{1}$ dyante / The gram grains are being eaten by him, her, or it. Tau, te, te $v^{11}$ vidy $^{1}$ laya, gacchataå /= They (two boys/ two girls/ or two children) are going to school. $\mathrm{T}^{1}$ bhy ${ }^{1}$, , $\mathrm{t}^{1}$ bhy ${ }^{1}$, , $\mathrm{t}^{1}$ bhy ${ }^{1}$, $\mathrm{v}^{1}$ vidy ${ }^{1}$ layaå gamyate $/=$ The school is being gone to by both (the boys, girls, or children). Te, $\mathrm{t}^{1}$ à $\mathrm{t}^{1} \mathrm{ni}$ $\mathrm{v}^{1} \mathrm{~g} \star^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ apa-han / = They (all boys, girls, or children) studied the $\mathrm{G} \star^{1}$. Taiå, $\mathrm{t}^{1}$ bhiå, taiå $\mathrm{v}^{1} \mathrm{~g} \star^{1}$ apa-hyata / = The $\mathrm{G} \star^{1}$ was being studied by them (all the boys, girls, or children).

Now, note: In all these sentences the first one is in the Kart $\AA \mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{1}}$ cya, or Kartari, i.e., direct sentence construction. In the next sentence it is converted into the Karma- $\mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{1}}$ cya or Karma $\mathbf{i}_{\text {i, }}$, i.e., the indirect sentence construction. In both these constructions, the sense intended to be conveyed is the same, but the difference is in the style of the sentence construction utilized for conveying it. In the Kart $\AA \mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{1}}$ cya, or Kartari, since the subject predominates, it is put in the Nominative Case, and the verb agrees with it in Person and Number. But, in the Karma- $\mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{1}}$ cya or Karmad $\mathbf{i}$, since it is the object that predominates, the object is put in the Nominative Case, and the verb agrees with the object in Person and Number. Thus, with aham as the subject the verb is always in the Uttama Puru-a Eka-vacana, i.e.. $1^{\text {st }}$. Per. Singular, as in aha, pa $\mathrm{Ty}^{1} \mathrm{mi}$; with ${ }^{1} \mathrm{v}^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ it is in dual, as in ${ }^{1} v^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ paly ${ }^{1}$ vaå, and with vayam it is in plural, as in vaya, paly ${ }^{1}$ maå / And, the object is always in the Accusative Case. But, when the same sentence is converted into the indirect construction, the object becomes prominent and is put in the Nominative Case, the subject of the original direct construction is put in
usages. And, the intelligent listener or reader immediately grasps the sense. We should also develop such understanding. Such usages of the Past Passive Participles in lieu of the verbs, being easier, is more popular in Sanskrit.

## Easy technique of memorizing Sanskrit verses:

If the Sanskrit verse is set to heart, it serves to enrich the treasure of understanding life, and provides a ready access to the treasure at the nick of time. For memorizing verses, ancient seers have developed a simple technique which enables the reciter to memorize such long works, like the Vedic Sa, hit ${ }^{1}$ s of the > gveda, the Yajurveda, the $S^{1}$ maveda, the Athervaveda, and various religious hymns like the "iva-mahimna-stotra, the Sapta-Tati-cal © ;, the Vi-9 u-sahasra-n ${ }^{1}$ ma, and numerous Subh ${ }^{1}$-itas.

In this process, one has to sing rhythmically the first quarter of the verse five times, then the second one in the same manner five times, then the first two quarters continuously five times. Similar technique is employed with the third and the fourth quarters. And, finally, all the four quarters of the verse are to be sung serially and rhythmically five times. This helps one to memorize the verse to such an extent that it sometimes occurs automatically to the mind even during sleep.
the Instrumental Case, and the Numbers of the Subject and Object of the original construction remain the same.In the direct construction the verb agrees with the Subject in Person and Number, since it is the Subject that predominates. But in the indirect construction, since it is the Object that predominates, the verb is converted into a Karma- $\mathbf{v}^{\mathbf{1}}$ cya or Karma $\mathfrak{i}$ form, and it agrees with the Object in Person and Number. Thus, with tvam as the Subject in the place of aham, the verb paly ${ }^{1}$ mi becomes dÁqlyase; with $v^{1} \mathrm{rt}^{1}$ à in the place of vayam it becomes $\operatorname{Tr}$ Øyante in the place of $\mathbb{R} \mathbb{R}^{a} v^{1}$ maå; and with $G »{ }^{1}$ in the place of $t^{1} n i$, it becomes apa-hyata in the place of apa-han; even then their Tense has remained the same, as for instance, the Present Tense in the above first two sentences and the Past Tense in the third one

## Now, read aloud over again the above sentences, with their meanings in view.

The verbs in the above sentences of indirect construction are: dÅ flyase, smaryas, $\operatorname{Ir} \varnothing$ yate, alikhyata, ap>yata, $v^{1}$ ci-yete, $k^{1}$ dyante, gamyate, apa-hyata. From the viewpoint of the grammatical analysis, their components are as follows:
 $a+$ likh + ya + ta $/ a+$ pib $(=p>)+y a=$ ta $/ \mathbf{v}^{1} \mathbf{c}+i+s y a(=-y a)+i t e /$ $k^{1}{ }^{1} \mathbf{d}+$ ya+ nte/ $\mathbf{a + p a - h + y + t a / ~}$

In the above analysis we should carefully note thar the Sanskrit verbal root is used in its original form, without any class adjunct added to it. Then, the termination ya of the karma i construction is added to it, and it is followed by the termination of the ${ }^{1}$ tamane-pada in the concerned Person and Number. And, in the internal coalescence the original Tense termination ante of the Pra. Pu. ( $3^{\text {rd }}$ Per.) is merged in the final a of the ya indicatory of the indirect construction, providing us an instance of the purva-rØpasandhi.

When the kartari verb in Sanskrit is converted into a karma ${ }^{\text {a }}$ one, the following grammatical rules operate:
uf
(1) Irrespective of the root belonging to the parasmai-pada or otherwise type, only the termination of the ${ }^{1}$ tmane-pada are $s$ fixedto the roots, and only the sa-karmaka, i.e., the transitive, roots can be converted from the kartari into a karma ${ }^{\text {i }}$ one, e.g., $\boldsymbol{q}^{18} \mathrm{v}^{11}$ maå $>$ IrØyate
(2) The karma $\mathfrak{i}$ adjunct ya comes up between the root and the termination of the Tense or Mood, and that of the rootclass ( $\mathrm{ga} \mathrm{a}^{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{a}$ ) is applied to the root, e.g., likhati (Dir.) > likhyate.
(3) Due to the absence of the root-class adjunct, the root does not undergo any medial vowel modification.
(4) The final $\boldsymbol{A}$ of the root is changed to ri, e.g., k $\AA+y a+t e$ $>$ kri+ ya+te= kriyate.
(5) If there be a conjunct consonant in the root before the final vowel $\AA$ t is replaced iby its guaa, e.g., sm $\AA$ tya+te $>$ smar+ya+te = smaryate.
(6) The final short vowel $\mathbf{i}$ or $\mathbf{u}$ is lengthened as »or $\boldsymbol{\varnothing}$, and the final long vowel ${ }^{\mathbf{1}}$ is replaced by short $\mathbf{i}$, e.g., ji+ya+te $>$
 $d \gg+y a+t e=d>y a t e$.

## Now, read aloud the following verses,

along with the sentences of their paraphrase:
Abhy ${ }^{1} \mathbf{s}^{1} \mathbf{d} \mathbf{d h}^{1}$ ryate vidy ${ }^{1}$ kula, q|>> ${ }^{1}$ ena $\mathbf{d h}^{1}$ ryate /
Guá ena jñ ${ }^{1}$ yate ${ }^{1}$ ryaå kopo netre ${ }^{\text {a }}$ a gamyate //
Vidy ${ }^{1}$ abhy ${ }^{1} \mathbf{s}^{1} \mathbf{d}$ dh $^{1}$ ryate / Kula, | jñ ${ }^{1}$ yate / Kopaå netre ${ }^{\mathrm{a}}$ a gamyate /

Dh¹ ryate - dhÅ (1 U.) Causal karma $\mathfrak{i}$ Present Tense Pra. Pu. ( $=3^{\text {rd }}$ Per.) Sing.
$J \tilde{n}^{1}$ yate $-j \tilde{n}^{1}$ (9U.) karma ${ }^{\text {a }}$ i Present Tense Pra. Pu. (=3 ${ }^{\text {rd }}$
Per.) Sing.
Gamyate - gam (1 P.) karma ${ }^{\text {i }}$ Present Tense Pra.
Pu. ( $=3^{\text {rd }}$ Per.) Sing.
Viveko janyate yena sa, yamo yena $\mathbf{p}^{1}$ lyate /
Dharmaå prak ${ }^{1}$ Ilyate yena moho yena nihanyate //
Mano niyamyate yena rogo yena nikÅtyate /
Tad deya, bhavya-j> $\boldsymbol{v}^{1} \mathbf{n}^{1}$, $\mathbb{T}$ stra, nirdhØta-kalma-am //

Dhane yena jito garvo yauvane manmatho jitaå /
Tena $\mathrm{m}^{1}$ nu-a-si, hena jita, ki, na mah»tale // Yena (= by the one who, he by whom), dhane ( = in wealth, money matters), garvaå (= pride), jitaå (=conquered); yena yauvane (=in youthful age) manmathaå (= that which agitates the mind, i.e., the sexual urge), jitaà ( $=$ is overcome, suppressed); tena (=by that), $\mathrm{m}^{11}$ nu-a-si, hena $=$ si, ha-sadÅflena manu - yea a ( $=$ lion-like, i.e., brave, human being); mah»tale (=on the surface of the earth, i.e., the world) ki, na jitam ? Sarvam eva jitam ity-arthaå /
In the above verses, the usages like bhukt ${ }^{1}$ a (mas.), taptam (neu.)
 adh> $\boldsymbol{t}^{1}$ (fem.), k\&̊tam (neu.), dattam (neu.), gatam (neu.), jit ${ }^{1}$ (fem.), jitaå (mas.), jitam (neu.) are used. They are all the Past Passive Participles, derived from the verbal roots like bhuj ( 7 U. ), tap ( 4 , ), $\mathrm{y}^{1}$ (2 P.), j $\AA$ (4 P.), adhi $+\mathrm{i}\left(2\right.$, ), $\mathrm{d}^{1}$ (3 U.), gam (1 P.), and ji (1 P.), respectively. All these usages denote the sense of Past Tense, and yet their forms are declined like the $a-k^{1} r^{1} n t a$ nouns. The subjects of the sentences contained in these verses are implied, and not actually used in them, and the words denoting the objects of the actions expressed by the verbal roots, are in the respective genders, and numbers. The Past Passive Participles agree with the objects in genders, cases and numbers.

## In order to grasp this process, note the changes that have taken place in the following sentences:

Aha, bhog $^{1} \mathrm{n}$ abhunajam / = I enjoyed the enjoyments. May ${ }^{1}$ bhog ${ }^{1}$ å bhukt ${ }^{1}$ a $/=$ The enjoyments were enjoyed by me. Asm ${ }^{1} n$ bhog $^{1}$ å_abhuñjan / = The enjoyments consumed us. Vayam bhogaiå abhujyanta $/=$ We were consumed by the enjoyments.

Now, note: In the first quarter of the first verse, there are two sentences, viz., Bhogaå na bhukt ${ }^{1}$ å / Vayam eva bhukt ${ }^{1}$ å / Of these two, the word may ${ }^{1}$ in the first sentence, and bhogaia in the second one, are implied, but not expressed. In this way, there is the facility in Sanskrit for keeping implied sometimes the subject, sometimes the object, and sometimes the verb in such linguistic
meaning of the Past. The sense denoted in it is merely that the action has been completed by the doer.

When such Past Passive Participles are utilized, the sentence is always in the Passive construction, because the object, rather than the subject, of the action predominates in it, and the participle agrees with the object in the case and Number.

## Now, sing aloud the following verses, and read aloud their paraphrases: <br> Bhog ${ }^{1}$ na bhukt ${ }^{1}$ vayam eva bhukt ${ }^{1}$ Tapo na tapta, vayam eva tapt ${ }^{1}$ à / <br> $K^{1}$ lo na $\mathbf{y}^{1}$ to vayam eva $\mathbf{y}^{1} \mathbf{t}^{1}$ à <br> 

Bhogaå (=enjoyments) na bhukt ${ }^{1}$ à (=were enjoyed), vayam eva (= we ourselves only) bhukt ${ }^{1}$ à ( $=$ are consumed, victimized)/ Tapaå (= austerity) na taptam (= was being painfully practiced), vayam eva tapt ${ }^{1}$ à ( $=$ have suffered). $K^{1}$ laå ( $=$ time) na $\mathrm{y}^{1}$ taå (= passed), vayam eva $\mathrm{y}^{1} \mathrm{t}^{1}$ å (= have passed away)/ $\mathrm{T}^{-\mathrm{A}^{1}}$ (=yearning, intense desire, thirst) na j) ºn $^{1}$ (=have become worn out, decayed), vayam eva j r $^{\underline{a}} 1 \mathrm{a}$ ( $=$ have perished, withered out).

Adh $\star^{1}$ na kal ${ }^{1} \mathrm{k}^{1}$ cin na ca kiñcit kÅta, tapaå /
Datta, na kiñcit $p^{1}$ trebhyo gata, ca madhura, vayaå //
$\mathrm{K}^{1}$ cit ( $=$ some, any) $\mathrm{kal}^{1}$ ( $=$ fine art) na ( $=$ not) adh $\star^{1}$ ( $=$ learned, mastered) / Kiñcit tapaå na kß̊tam ( $=$ performed) / $\mathrm{P}^{1}$ trebhyaå ( $=$ to the deserving ones) kiñcit na dattam (=was given). Madhuram (= sweet) vayaå (= age, lifespan) gatam (= passed off) /

$$
\text { Jit }^{1} \text { sabh }{ }^{1} \text { vastravat }^{1} \mathrm{mi}^{1} \mathbb{\mathbb { N }} \text { gomat }^{1} \text { jit }^{1} \text { / }
$$

Adhv ${ }^{1}$ jito $\mathrm{y}^{1}$ navat $^{1}$ sarva, M>>avat ${ }^{1}$ jitam //
Vastravat ${ }^{1}$ (=by one who was well-dressed) sabh ${ }^{1}$ (=assembly, gathering) jit ${ }^{1}$ (= was won over, conquered) / Gomat ${ }^{1}$ ( $=$ by one who possessed cows) mi $\rightarrow^{1} \mathbb{\mathbb { R }}=\mathrm{mi} \rightarrow a \mathrm{am}$ afitum ${ }^{1} \mathbb{\mathbb { R }}$ (= desire of eating sweet food) jit ${ }^{1} / Y^{1}$ navat ${ }^{1}$ (= by one who owned a vehicle) adhv ${ }^{1}$ (=road of journey) jitaå / "*avat ${ }^{1}$ (=by one possessing character, a pious person) sarvam (=everything) jitam /

Yena vivekaå janyate, yena sa, yamaå $p^{1}$ lyate, yena dharmaå prak ${ }^{1}$ Tyate, yena mohaå nihanyate, yena, manaå niyamyate, yena rogaå nikßtyate, tad nirdhØta-kalma-a, $\mathbb{i}$ stra, , bhavya$j \not w^{1} n^{1}$, (= bhavya-jivebhyaå), deyam /

Janyate - jan ( $4, ., j^{1}$ yate) karma ${ }^{\mathfrak{a}} \mathrm{i}$, Pre. Tense, Pra. Pu. $\mathrm{Ek}\left(=3^{\text {rd }}\right.$ Per. $)$ Sing. $=$ is born, generated. $\mathrm{P}^{1}$ lyate- $\mathrm{p}^{1} \mid(10 \mathrm{U} .$, $p^{1}$ layati/ ${ }^{1}$ layate) $=$ karma ${ }^{\text {a }}$, Pre. Tense, Pra. Pu. Ek( $=3^{\text {rd }}$ Per.) Sing.is protected, maintained, sustained. observed. Prak ${ }^{1}$ qyate -
 Pra. Pu. Ek( $=3^{\text {rd }}$ Per.) Sing. $=$ is illuminated, made visible, displayed, manifested, revealed. Nihanyate - ni+han (2 P. nihanti) karma ${ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{i}$, Pre. Tense, Pra. Pu. Ek( $=3^{\text {rd }}$ Per.) Sing. $=$ is destroted, removed, annihilated. Niyamyate - no+ yam (1 P.. niyacchati) karma ${ }^{\text {a }} \mathrm{i}$, Pre. Tense, Pra. Pu. Ek ( $=3^{\text {rd }}$ Per.) Sing. $=$ is checked, controlled. Nik $\AA$ tyate - ni+ kß̂t (6 P., nikÅntati) karma ${ }^{\text {a }}$, Pre. Tense, Pra. Pu. Ek( $=3^{\text {rd }}$ Per.) Sing. $=$ is cut, chopped off. Deyam $-d^{1}\left(3 U^{\prime} .\right.$, dad $^{1}$ ti, datte $)$ Potential Participle, neu. Nom. Sing.= should be given. Bhavya-
 are suitable, proper, fit, auspicious righteous, fortunate. J $w^{1} \mathrm{n}^{1}$, (= of beings).since the Genitive Case ishere utilized in the sense of the Dative Case, the sense intended is Bhavya-j;webhyaå (= to the beings that are suitable, proper, fit, auspicious righteous, fortunate. NirdhØta-kama-am - niå $\mathbb{l e}^{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{e}^{\mathrm{a}}$ a (= completely) dhØtam (= has been washed away) kalma-am = p1pa, = kala, kam (= sin, blemish)yena saå (=one by whom).

## Now, read aloud over again the above verses keeping in view their meanings.

Just as in the Present Tense we can use the Present Participle (vartm ${ }^{1}$ na-k ${ }^{2}$ danta), in the place of a verb in the active (kartari) construction, to express the sense of a continuing action, similarly, it is customary to use the Present Participle, in the place of a verb in the passive (karma i ) construction, to express the sense of a continuing action. And there is some facility in it, since in these Present Participles have the termination ${ }^{1}$ na or $\mathrm{m}^{1}$ na, which makes them $a-k^{1} r^{1}$ nta, and they are declined like such other nouns. The
only difference here is that the medial adjunct ya- is added after the verbal root for their formation. When such Passive Present Participles are used, the sentence construction is Passive (karma ${ }^{\mathrm{a}} \mathrm{i}$ ), because the object predominates in it, and the verb agrees with it, in the Case and Number.


#### Abstract

Now, read aloud the following sentences: Bh ${ }^{\AA} \mathrm{y}^{1}$ api ta eva, ye sampatter apek-ay ${ }^{1}$ vipattau savi $\mathrm{Tl}_{\mathrm{e}} \mathrm{a}$, sevante, samunnamyam ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}^{1}$ à sutar $^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ avanamanti, ${ }^{1}$ lapyam $^{1} n^{1}$ na $\operatorname{sam}^{1} n^{1} I^{1} \mathbf{p}^{1} j^{1}$ yante, støyam ${ }^{1} n^{1}$ na utsicyante,  bh $^{1}$-ante, pÅcchyam ${ }^{1} \mathbf{n}^{1}$ a priya-hita, vijñ ${ }^{1}$ payanti, an $^{1}$ diflyam ${ }^{1}{ }^{1}{ }^{1}$ kurvanti, k ${ }^{2} \mathbf{t v}^{1}$ na jalpanti, par ${ }^{1}$ kramya na vikatthante, kathyam ${ }^{1} n^{1}$ api lajj ${ }^{1} m$ udvahanti, mah ${ }^{1}$ have-u agrato dhvaja-bhot ${ }^{1}$ lak-yante, $d^{1}$ na- ${ }^{1}$ le pal ${ }^{1}$ yam $^{1} n^{1}$ pA-hato nilyyante, dhan ${ }^{1}$ t sneha, bahu manyante, $j$ wit ${ }^{1}$ t puro mara ${ }^{\text {am }}$ 


## Now read aloud the following explanation, while trying to grasp the sense thereof:

Te+ eva= only those. Bh $\mathrm{X}^{\mathrm{Z}} \mathrm{y}^{1} \mathrm{a}$ a + api $=$ the servants (worthy to be nourished) in fact. Here, Here, after every Passive Present Participle, the indeclinable api (=even though), and at the beginning of the sentence the predicate $u^{\prime} t \mathrm{~m}^{1}{ }^{\circ}$ a manyante ( $=$ are considered to be the best) is implied (adhy ${ }^{1} h^{1} r y a m$ ). Sampatteå + apek-aya ( $=$ in comparison with the wealth). Sa-vi fe-am $=$ vife-a-røpe ${ }^{\text {a }} \mathrm{a}=$ particularly. Sam-un-namyam ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}^{1}{ }^{\circ}=$ samyag uccapade $u \operatorname{sth}^{1}$ pyam $^{1} \mathrm{n}^{1} \mathrm{a}=$ (properly promoted to higher positions). , lapyam ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}^{1} \mathrm{a}^{2}={ }^{11}$ pa, kriyam $^{1} \mathrm{a} 1 \mathrm{a}$ ( $=$ being talked to, addressed). Sam $^{1} n^{1} 1^{1} p^{1}$ a $=\operatorname{sam}^{1}$ naà ${ }^{11}$ paå ye-4, te ( $=$ those conversing on an equal level). StØyam ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}^{1} \mathrm{a}=$ stuti, $^{1}$ kriyam $^{1}{ }^{1} 1 \mathrm{a}$ ( $=$ being praised). Ut-sicyante $=$ utseka-yukt ${ }^{1}$ å bhavanti $=$ garva-yukt ${ }^{\circ}$ å bhavanti $(=$ become haughty, proudy). K-ipyam $\mathrm{m}^{1 \mathrm{a}} 1 \mathrm{a}$ a $={ }^{1} \mathrm{k}$-epa, kriyam ${ }^{1} \underline{\mathrm{a}} 1 \mathrm{a}$ ( $=$ being censured, scolded). Ucyam ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}^{1} \mathrm{a}=$ vacana, kriyam $^{1} \underline{1} 1 \mathrm{a}$ ( $=$ being spoken to). PÅcchyam ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}^{1} \mathrm{a}=$ praqna, kriyam $^{1} \mathfrak{\varrho} 1 \mathrm{a}$ a $==$ Being asked). An- ${ }^{-1}$ difyam ${ }^{11}$ ă $={ }^{1}$ desa, na kriyam ${ }^{1} \mathfrak{a} 1 \mathrm{a}$ ( $=$ not ordered). Kathyam ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}^{1} \stackrel{\circ}{a}=$ kathana, kriyam $^{1}{ }^{1} 1 \mathrm{a}$ ( $=$ being told, instructed). Pal ${ }^{1}$ yam $^{1} \mathrm{n}^{1} \mathrm{a}=$ pal ${ }^{1}$ yana, kriyam ${ }^{1}{ }^{1} 1 \mathrm{a}$ (= running away, going
away). This sentence gives in a gist the essential qualities expected of an excellent servant.

## Now, let us look at these passive Present Participle <br> from the point of view of grammatical analysis:

Sam-un-namyam ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}^{1}{ }^{\circ}=$ Passive Present Participle of the verbal root nam (1 P. namati) with the prefixes sam and ud = sam+ud+ nam, 'to a good rise, to give a good lift' > sam-un-nam+ya+ $\mathrm{m}^{1}$ na $=$ samun-namyam ${ }^{1}$ na (mas.) - Nom. Pl. , lapyam ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}^{1}{ }^{\circ} \mathrm{a}=$ Passive Present Participle of the verbal root lap (1 P. lapati) with the prefix ${ }^{1}>{ }^{1}$ lap 'to speak to' $>^{1}$-lap + ya $+\mathrm{m}^{1}$ na $={ }^{1}$ lapyam ${ }^{1}$ na (mas.) Nom. Pl. K - ipyam ${ }^{1} \mathfrak{a} 1 \mathrm{a}$ = Passive Present Participle of the verbal root $k-i p$ ( 4 P. $k$ - ipyati) 'to throw, cast, scold' $>k-i p+y a+m^{1} \mathrm{a} a=$ $\mathrm{k}-$ ipyam $^{1} \mathrm{a}$ a (mas.) - Nom. PI. Uccyam ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}^{1} \mathrm{~h}=$ Passive Present Participle of the verbal root vac ( 2 P . vakti), 'to speak, relate' > vac (uc) $+y a+m^{1} n^{1}=u c y a m^{1} n^{1}-$ Nom. PI. PÅchyam¹$n^{1}$ å $=$ Passive Present Participle of the verbal root pracch ( 6 P. pÅchati) 'to ask, inquire' > $\mathrm{pAcch}+\mathrm{ya}+\mathrm{m}^{1}$ na $=$ pÅcchyam $^{1}$ na (mas.) - Nom. PI. An${ }^{1}$ difyam ${ }^{1}{ }^{1}{ }^{1} \mathrm{a}=$ Passive Present Participle of the verbal root difl ( 6 U.difati/diflate) with the prefix ${ }^{1}+$ diq 'to order, instruct' $>$ ${ }^{1}+$ difl+ya+m² na - ${ }^{1}$ difyam ${ }^{1}$ na; its negative $>$ na ${ }^{1}$ difyam ${ }^{1}$ na $=$ $a n+{ }^{1}$ difyam ${ }^{1}$ na - Nom. PI. Kathyam ${ }^{1} \mathrm{n}^{1} \mathrm{a}=$ Passive Present Participle of the verbal root kath ( 10 U . kathayati/kathayate) 'to tell' > kath + ya $+\mathrm{m}^{1}$ na $=$ kathyam ${ }^{1}$ na - Nom. PI. Pal ${ }^{1}$ yam $^{1} n^{1}$ à $=$ Passive Present Participle of the verbal root ay ( 1, . ayate) with the prefix par ${ }^{1}+a y=\left(\right.$ pal $\left.{ }^{1}+a y\right)>$ pal $^{1} y$ 'to go away, run off' $>$ pal $^{1}$ yam $^{1}$ na - Nom. Pl. Kriyam ${ }^{10} 1 \mathrm{a}=$ Passive Present Participle of the verbal root $k \AA$ ( 8 U . karoti/kurute) 'to do' $>\mathrm{k} \AA(\mathrm{kri})+\mathrm{ya}+\mathrm{m}^{1} \mathrm{na}=$ $\mathrm{kryam}^{1} \mathrm{a}$, Nom. PI. In some of these cases the roots have undergone slight changes when followed by the adjuncts and tense terminations, and the consonant n in $\mathrm{m}^{1}$ na has been changed to ${ }^{\text {a }}$ when it is preceded by either $k \neg$ or $\AA$ or $r$, as per the rules of coalescence.

Now, read aloud the above Sanskrit sentences,
keeping in view their meanings.
It is customary in Sanskrit to use the Past Passive Participle, rather than the verbal root in the Past Tense, to express the


[^0]:    * It is interesting to know that $\mathrm{P}^{1} \underline{a}$ ini has arranged the Sanskrit alphabet in a technical formation of fourteen "iva-sDtras as follows: (1) a iu a / (2) Åðk / (3) eo i / (4) ai auc/ (5) ha yavara-/ (6) la a / (7) ña ma ia a a nam / (8) jh bha ñ / (9) gha Cha dha ᄀ/ (10) ja ba ga ©a da ๆ/ /(11) kha pha cha -ha tha ca -a ta v/(12) ka pa y / (13) pa -a sar / (14) ha I// In these aphorisms the last letter in each of them is a fake letter (called 'it ') just for the sake of a technical facility, and not to be considered as a part of the basic sounds of the alphabet. These last letters, viz., a, k, i, c, and others upto I, combine with any one of their preceding syllables included in the fourteen aphorisms, and form brief new aphorisms, such as 'ac' with the preceding initial 'a' of the $1^{\text {st }}$ and the final ' $c$ ' of the $4^{\text {th }}$, to make a new aphorism 'ac' which includes all the Sanskrit vowels. Similarly, with initial 'ha' of the $5^{\text {th }}$ combines with the final 'I' of the $14^{\text {th }}$ toform a new brief aphorism'hal' which includes all the Sanskrit consonants.

[^1]:    ${ }^{1}$ praini has sandwitched the first six vowels of his technically arranged alphabet between the letters ' 1 ' and '-' or ' $i$ ' to formulate the technical signs to indicatethe various Sanskrit tenses and moods, thus: la- (Present Tense), li(= Past Perfect Tense), lu- (First Future Tense), I\& (Second Future Tense), le(Vedic Subjunctive), Io- (Imperative Mood), Iai (Aorist Tense), lij (Potential and Benidictive Moods), Iui (Imperfect Tense) and $I \AA_{i}$ (Conditional Mood).

    La- var tam ${ }^{1}$ e let vede bhØte lui-lai-li-as tath ${ }^{1}$ /
    

[^2]:    § In future, if we want to go deeper in the Sanskrit Grammar, the following details would be very much useful. In his $\mathrm{Dh}^{1}$ tu- $\mathrm{p}^{1}-h a$, i.e., the traditional list of the classified Sanskrit roots, $\mathrm{P}^{1} \mathfrak{a}$ ini has mentioned the roots along with their respective meaning, and in the beginning of the sub-divisions in the list he has given many details about peculiarities of the roots. For instance, bhØ satt ${ }^{1} \mathrm{y}^{1} \mathrm{~m}$ $u^{1}$ ttaå parasmai-bh ${ }^{1}$-aå /, i.e., the root bhØ meaning 'to be/ become' has the accented vowel and takes the parasmai-pada terminations. Then, athaidh ${ }^{1}$ dayaå kathyant ${ }^{1}$ å -a-tri, Tlad ${ }^{1}$ tmane-bh ${ }^{1}+$ å / i.e., now, the thirty-six roots beginning with edh and ending with katth, take the ${ }^{1}$ tmane-pada terminations. Ityud ${ }^{1} t t^{1}{ }^{\circ}{ }^{\circ}$ anud ${ }^{1}$ ttetaa / Up to this, (each of these roots) has the accented vowel, and their anubandha, i.e. the signatory consonantal element, is unaccented. In the Siddh ${ }^{1}$ ta-kaumud» of Bha--oj»Dik-ita and in the Higher Sanskrit Grammar of M R. Kale (pp.295-297) a few $\mathrm{k}^{1} \mathrm{rik}^{1}$ verses beginning with 'Ød-dÅantairyautir, uk ${ }^{-\frac{9}{7}} \mathrm{u}$..' etc are given in which the list of Se-, Ani- and Ve- is given.

