

## SOME LINGUISTIC FEATURES OF THE OLD KASHMIRI LANGUAGE OF THE *BĀṆĀSURAKATHĀ*

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The *Bāṇāsurakathā* is a *śarada* manuscript in Old Kashmiri composed by Avtar Bhatt, dated between the 14th and 16th centuries. It retells the love story of the demon Bāṇa's daughter Uṣā with Krishna's grandson Aniruddha, and the ensuing fight between Bāṇa and Krishna, as it is found in the *Harivaṃśapurāṇa*. This paper focuses on the linguistic features of the Old Kashmiri language in which this manuscript is composed. Old Kashmiri belongs to the Early New Indo-Aryan language stage, a stage crucial for a number of syntactic developments which determined the Indo-Aryan languages of today. First, the language found in the *Bāṇāsurakathā* is situated among the attestations of Old Kashmiri found in other manuscripts. The language is younger than that of the *Mahānaya-Prakāśa*, but older than the language used in the *Lallā-Vākyāni*. Second, a number of linguistic features of Old Kashmiri are presented, such as the case marking and the verb agreement. Third, the paper focuses on the phenomenon of pronominal suffixation, well known in Modern Kashmiri, but not present in Apabhraṃśa. It is shown that the first traces of pronominal suffixation already existed in the *Bāṇāsurakathā*, but their use was not yet grammatically fixed.

*Key words:* Old Kashmiri, *Bāṇāsurakathā*, case marking, agreement, linguistics, literature.

### Introduction

In the Old Kashmiri *Bāṇāsurakathā* (BK), the poet Avtar Bhatt (or Bhattāvataṛa) retells the puranic story of the fight between the demon Bāṇa and Krishna; and the love story of Krishna's grandson Aniruddha and Bāṇa's daughter Uṣā. The manuscript dates from the 15th century, a time when Kashmir was firmly under the rule of the Sultans, but when Shaiva traditions were still common. The style of the work is lyrical *kāvya*, with elaborate descriptions of the battle, love games, ladies of the court and warriors. In this paper we look at one more aspect for which this story is relevant, i.e. the linguistic evidence that the text offers, in particular with respect to the evolution of the

Kashmiri language. As one of the few surviving texts in Old Kashmiri, it offers a lot of information on the Early New Indo-Aryan stage between Apabhraṃśa and Modern Kashmiri. One of the features will be particularly emphasised: Modern Kashmiri shows elaborate use of pronominal suffixation. Tracing the evolution of Kashmiri in a text which unites features of Prakrit, Apabhraṃśa and Old Kashmiri can give an idea about when and where this phenomenon has originated, and how it is related to other grammatical features of Kashmiri.

A manuscript of the *BK*, composed in *śarada* script, is kept by the Bhandarkar Oriental Society, collected by Bühler (1877, p. 90) in 1875–1876 and dated 1658 (1020 *Hijrā*). In the colophon, the last complete verse of the manuscript, it is mentioned that the work was completed in the 26th year of the reign of Zain-ul-Abidin, who reigned from 1420 to 1470 (cf. Kachru 1981, p. 14):

*śrīzainaulābhādīne narapati racite dharmarājye suśuddhe  
śaḍviṃśe vatsare iha panamet sarase kṛṣṇabāṇāna yuddhe.  
deśyo avatārabhaṭṭe viracon ramaṇī ākhy paśyet siddhe  
bandhā gīrvāṇ bhāṣi aj harivaṃśe bhārateti garuddhe.. 390..*

‘Composed in the bright reign of the Lord Sri Zain-ul-Abidin, after we have greeted here the 26th year, is the lyrical work on the battle between Krishna and Bāṇa. Avatārabhaṭṭa has told this love story in the local language after seeing the Siddhas. This story was told for the first time in the Harivaṃśa and the well-known Mahābhārata.’

We can safely assume that the work dates from the 15th century. The time under Sultan Zain-ul-Abidin was a prosperous period, and it is possible that Avtar Bhatt resided at the court (Mukherjee 1999).

The paper is structured as follows: in the first section, I will shortly summarise the story as told in the *BK*, and situate it compared to the different versions of the story. The second section focuses on Old Kashmiri and the sources thus far found which give us evidence on the language. The third section is a short grammatical outline of the features we distinguish in the language of the *BK*, and the fourth section focuses on one of these features, i.e., the presence of pronominal suffixes in the *BK*.

## 1. The Old Kashmiri *Bāṇāsarakathā*

The *Bāṇāsarakathā* tells a story which occurs in the *Purāṇas* in various versions. One of the best known is the version from the *Harivaṃśapurāṇa*, but it is also found in the *Viṣṇupurāṇa*, the *Bhāgavatapurāṇa* and in the *Śivapurāṇa* (cf. Sahai 1978, Couture 2003). The content of the story is as follows: the demon Bāṇa receives a boon from Shiva, on account of his great efforts in meditation. He was made invincible and received 1000 arms and many divine weapons, but now that he has no opponents left, he feels that his 1000 arms are useless. His wish is to receive a great fight. Shiva agrees to this. When Bāṇa tells his minister Kumbandha about his conversation with Shiva, lightning strikes and his standard is broken; this is the sign that Bāṇa’s fight will start. Bāṇa’s

daughter Uṣā witnesses Parvatī and her husband enjoying themselves at the bank of the river, and is envious of their amorous play. Parvatī tells her that Uṣā will have a dream of the man she will marry. Uṣā dreams of making love with Aniruddha, Krishna's grandson, in such a way that she cannot do anything else but to pursue him in real life. Her friend, the apsaras Citrālekhā, draws a picture of the demons, gods and men, and Uṣā recognises Aniruddha as the man from her dreams. Citrālekhā then goes to Dwarka, Krishna's hometown, and persuades Aniruddha to follow her back to Bāṇa's city Sonitapura. Aniruddha has also seen Uṣā in a dream, and willingly goes with Citrālekhā. However, upon finding out his daughter's situation, Bāṇa is not pleased, and fights with Aniruddha. Despite Aniruddha's great strength, Bāṇa manages to throw snake-bonds on Aniruddha, thus imprisoning him. Krishna, Aniruddha's grandfather, hears from Aniruddha's capture through the wise man Nārada. He leaves for Sonitapura, seated on Garuḍa and accompanied by his army. This is the start of the great battle which Shiva promised Bāṇa. Krishna defeats Bāṇa, but spares him after pleas from the goddess. He does cut off 800 of Bāṇa's 1000 arms. In the end, Krishna leaves for Dwarka, together with Aniruddha and Uṣā.

Avtar Bhatt's version follows the most extended version of the story as found in the *Harivaṃsapurāṇa* (Couture 2003). However, it is clearly a *kāvya* work in style, and much attention goes to elaborate descriptions of the love story between Uṣā and Aniruddha. Uṣā's love sickness after the dream is described in 40 verses, and Aniruddha's longing for Uṣā is also described extensively. Multiple verses have the phrase *come to me my love*, and Uṣā's plea to keep Aniruddha safe and not drawn into battle is also painstakingly detailed in the description.

## 2. The *Bāṇāsurakathā* in the Literary Tradition of Kashmir

The literary tradition in Kashmiri starts with one of the oldest texts in our possession from the Kashmir area, the historical chronicle *Rājatarāṅgiṇī* written by the historian Kalhaṇa. The work is written in Sanskrit, and Stein (1892, p. 6) dates the completion of the work at 1149 (cf. Kachru 1981, p. 2). The first traces of the Old Kashmiri language are found in the *Chummāsaṃketaprakāśa* (also *Chummā Sampradāya*) by Niśkriyānandanātha (cf. Toshkhani 1975, Kachru 1981, p. 14, Rastogi 1979, Shauq 1997, Sanderson 2007, p. 333). According to Toshkhani (1975), this text dates from the 11th or 12th century, and is attributed to the Shivaite tantric tradition (cf. Rastogi 1979) which was the dominant tradition in Kashmir at that time (cf. Kachru 1981, p. 9). Shauq (1997) considers the text as important for the Trika Shaivite tradition, and dates it earlier, even at the 9th or 10th century. The *Chummā Sampradāya* consists of a number of Kashmiri aphorisms or quatrains, with a Sanskrit commentary. However, the linguistic information that can be deduced from the few sentences in Old Kashmiri is scant. The language is very close to Sanskrit, except for some phonetic specificities, and one cannot actually speak of sentences. A finite verb is often missing. A few examples given by Sanderson (2007, pp. 334–335) are for instance:

*maccī ummacī* > Skt: *mattikonmattikā* ('she, mad and free of madness')  
*athicī thiti* > Skt: *asthityā sthitiḥ* ('stasis through cessation of stasis').

The language is identifiable as Old Kashmiri because of some phonological changes: the continuing palatalisation of the dental sounds (*t(t)* > *c(c)*, *ty* > *c*), (this phenomenon is already observable in the Prakrit stage, cf. Pischel 1900, Sanderson 2007, p. 334), the typical Kashmiri preference for the *-u-* sound<sup>1</sup> and the consonant clusters which become simplified but retain the aspiration (*sth* > *tth* > *th*, Grierson 1911). With regard to verbal morphosyntax, there is not much information one can derive from these few attestations. There are some aphorisms which contain a verb, e.g. *rami ekāyanu* 'he who is the one ground, plays', and *asphura ulati* 'radiance reverts into non-radiance' (Sanderson 2007, pp. 335–336). The verb *ram-* means 'to play', the infinitive in Modern Kashmiri is *ramun*. It derives from an identical form in Sanskrit, *ram.*, *ramate*. The ending *-i* of *rami* and *ulati* stands for the third person present, and seems to be derived from Sanskrit *-ti* (cf. Toshkhani 1975, Sanderson 2007, p. 336). The origin of *ul.* for 'revert' is unknown, but is related to Modern Kashmiri *wultun* 'to revert, to turn back' by Sanderson (2007, p. 337). The use of the converb ending on *-et(a)*, Modern Kashmiri *-ith*, is already attested, e.g. *praghaṭeta* 'after beginning' (Toshkhani 1975, p. 214).<sup>2</sup>

Apart from these specimens, there are three longer texts that comprise a much richer sample of Old Kashmiri: the *Mahānaya-Prakāśa* (MP) by Śitikanṭha, the *Bāṇa-surakathā* by Avtar Bhatt and the *Lallā-Vākyāni* by Lallā. Of these three, the *Lallā-Vākyāni* is the best studied. Lallā was a poetess and a Bhakti devotee, of whom it is generally accepted that she lived around the end of the 14th century (Grierson–Barnett 1920, p. 1, Sanderson 2007, p. 302, Kachru 1981, p. 15, Shauq 1997). The *Lallā-Vākyāni* is a collection of *vākhs* or short poems written in a Kashmiri which is perfectly understandable even today. Grierson and Barnett (1920) collected her verses, and edited and translated them into English and Modern Kashmiri.

Lallā's *vākhs* were not written down, and have been recorded by Grierson at the beginning of the 20th century. The modernity of the language was so surprising that an explanation was sought for it. Shauq (1997) mentions the great evolution in the language between the *Chummās* and Lallā's *vākhs*, which perhaps explains his earlier dating of the *Chummās* at the 9th–10th century instead of the 11th–12th. He mentions the appearance of a broader spectrum of vowels, in particular the high central and

<sup>1</sup> Yet the difference with the Apabhraṃśa from the Kashmir area is here unclear, as this Apabhraṃśa also prefers *-u* as the ending of the nominative and accusative singular, in masculine and neuter gender (Grierson–Barnett 1920, p. 133, Sanderson 2007, p. 334).

<sup>2</sup> The full list of aphorisms from the *Chummā Sampradāya* given by Toshkhani (1975) is:

*bhāva sabhāve sava avināṣī*  
*sapana sabhāvana vi uppatra*  
*te aj niravadhī agama prakāṣī*  
*idassa diṣṭi kācivīpacchanna*  
*vīgalani śaṇṇi āśuṇṇa svarūpā*  
*vividha padārtha sāthu kavaleta*  
*āśyū citi sadā nīrūpā*  
*viccī vijū virth praghaṭeta*

mid-central vowels, a fargoing palatalisation, a developing case system, and the appearance of the intricate Kashmiri system of verbal concord (Shauq 1997, p. 217). According to Grierson and Barnett (1920, p. 7), the oral delivery method explains the nature of the language; the language had been adapted, and changed to Modern Kashmiri, except for some archaic vocabulary.

Lallā's songs were composed in an old form of the Kāshmīrī language, but it is not probable that we have them in the exact form in which she uttered them. The fact that they have been transmitted by word of mouth prohibits such a supposition. As the language changed insensibly from generation to generation, so must the outward form of the verses have changed in recitation. But, nevertheless, respect for the authoress and the metrical form of the songs have preserved a great many archaic forms of expression (Grierson–Barnett 1920, p. 7). However, in the same introduction, they also mention that with oral delivery the language hardly changes, since one orator takes the text literally over from the previous one. The reciters, even when learned Paṇḍits, take every care to deliver the messages word for word as they have received them, whether they understand them or not (Grierson–Barnett 1920, p. 3).

The question with regard to the modernity of the language used in the *Lallā-Vākyāni* is particularly relevant when one takes a look at another manuscript, i.e. the *Mahānaya-Prakāśa*. This is a philosophical treatise of tantric Shivaism, written completely in Old Kashmiri, but with a commentary in Sanskrit (Sanderson 2007, pp. 302–303). Grierson (1929, pp. 73–76) dates the *Mahānaya-Prakāśa* at around the end of the 15th century, which means, after Lallā. Others believe that it is older. For instance, Chatterji (1963, p. 25) and Toshkhani (1975) situate it in the 13th century (Kachru 1981, p. 14), Shauq (1997) mentions the 12th–13th centuries, and Sanderson (2007, p. 305) rather argues for the early 11th century, showing that Kashmiri was already a language at that age by quoting Kashmiri terms used in accounts of travelers and historians (Sanderson 2007, pp. 302–305). The features of the language of the *Mahānaya-Prakāśa* seem definitely older than the languages of Lallā's *vākhs*, in particular because of the presence of Sanskrit. There is a mix of Sanskrit, Apabhraṃśa and Kashmiri forms.

The Sanskrit version of the following verse (*MP* XII, 6) shows that the Old Kashmiri language was still very close to the more literary Sanskrit language (Grierson 1929, p. 76). There is no remarkable influence of Persian or Arabic. Grierson (1929, p. 76) also gives a Modern Kashmiri translation. The Sanskrit origin is still clear, but the sound changes clearly indicate Kashmiri.

### Old Kashmiri original

*nitya samādhāne ḍalavāne*  
*caryācarya-kame ukkiṣṭa*  
*lauki lokottara vasavāne*  
*ehu kamathu bhajīva nayaniṣṭha*

### Sanskrit

*nitya-samādhānena adolāyamānāḥ  
caryācarya-krameṇa utkr̥ṣṭāḥ  
loke lokottare vasantaḥ  
imam eva kramārthaṁ bhajata (yūyaṁ he) nayaniṣṭhāḥ*

### Modern Kashmiri

*nēth samādōn aḍalawān  
tsaryātsarēkam wukkiṣṭ  
lūk lūkattar wasawan  
yihuy kamoth baziv nayēniṣṭh*

‘Ye who are stable by constant meditation, ye who are elevated by (following) the order of due observance, ye who dwell in this world and the next, following the right path, serve ye this, the only object of pursuit.’

The simplification of the sounds is very obvious (*tkṛ* > *kk*), just like the shortening of the case forms (instrumental *-e* < *-ena*). Locative case is *-i*, as in Prakrit (cf. Pischel 1900). *ehu* is preferred instead of *imam*, deriving from the locative *eṣu*. The Kashmiri and Apabhramśa influence is visible in the preference for *-u* sounds, such as in *ehu kamathu*, *lauki*. In the imperative form *bajīva* the Kashmiri imperative ending *-iv-* is already quite clear.

Another verse of the *Mahānaya-Prakāśa* (XIV, 1), translated by Sanderson (2007, p. 299), shows the Sanskrit-like nature of the *MP* language again.

*pāveta ihu/iha kamu pabhusa pasāde  
śitikanṭhasa gata jammu kitāthu.  
tena mi mahajana khalitamasāde  
te mārāve mahanayaparamāthu.. 1..*

‘Since he has mastered this Krama by the grace of the lord the human birth of Shitikantha has fulfilled its purpose. Therefore I [have turned to the composing of this work and thus] enabled the pious too to attain \*without error\* (?) awareness of the true nature of the Mahayana.’

Toshkhani (1975) also emphasises the Sanskritic nature of the *Mahānaya-Prakāśa*, in combination with Apabhramśa forms.<sup>3</sup>

<sup>3</sup> He gives the following verses as examples:

*devata akk kiṣi paru rāci  
jaga ghae-mairu makṣet  
nanta śatta gāsak nerāji  
śamavātrī āśayatakṣet (MP 213)*

*yasu yasu jantusa saṁvida yasa yasa  
nīla pīta sukha: dukha svarūpa*

At a first glance, the language of the *Bāṇāsarakathā* is closer to that of the *Mahānaya-Prakāśa* than to the *Lallā-Vākyāni*. According to Toshkhani (1975, p. 232), at first sight it seems that the language of the *Mahānaya-Prakāśa* is older than the language of the *Bāṇāsarakathā*. However, in comparison with the *Bāṇāsarakathā*, the language of the *Mahānaya-Prakāśa* is stylistically much denser, and follows a more archaic register. Since one text is esoteric, and the other one is poetic *kāvya*, style should not be confused with language. Toshkhani (1975, p. 232) asks to compare the following verses, *MP* 215 and *BK* 32, and argues that the language is identical.

*tavyu ādivanna kuharānabhu udayo*  
*taru aṃga lagga pavanātrī ama.*  
*abhaya nippariśā pāvaku vapyo*  
*sedu salila āśātrī bhūma (MP 215)*

*śuneta vano kummāṇḍe bāṇas*  
*anot maṅget kit vināśa*  
*yuddha mahādussaha e pānasa tsal*  
*devā aṃtha vayan mā māṣ (BK 32)*

‘After hearing this, Kummand spoke to Bāṇa: What have you brought [upon us] by this desperate pleading. The fight will be very painful, com’on, let us save ourselves. God, don’t say such things/don’t speak in such a way.’

Toshkhani (1975) lists a few differences between the language from the *MP* and from the *BK* in these verses. In general, there are more Apabhraṃśa/Prakrit forms in the *MP* verse, e.g. *adivanna*, *amgalagga*, *ūma*, and more *tatsammas*, e.g. *ubhay*, *salila*, *udayo*. On the other hand, the Kashmiri genitive form already occurs, e.g. *pavānaṇī* (of the wind), *āśāṇī* (of hope). In the *BK*, he discerns a greater resemblance to Modern Kashmiri, but considers this a stylistic, not a diachronic, variation. Kashmiri words in the *BK* are the verbs *vano* ‘he spoke’, *anot* ‘you have brought’, the converbal form *maṅget*, and the objective forms *bāṇas* and *pānas*. Another typical Kashmiri feature is the introduction of the sibilants, e.g. *c* becomes *ts*. However, there are still many Sanskrit words in this verse of the *BK*, such as *yuddh*, ‘battle’ *mahādussah* ‘great pain’, *vināśa* ‘desperation’. The *MP* has a preference for the endings *-ā*, *-i*, plurals with an identical form to the singular, or endings on *-āna*, whereas the *BK* prefers *-a* for Sanskrit feminine forms in *-ā*, and *-a* for the endings *-i* and *-e*. Typical in Modern Kashmiri, in the *BK*, the sound *-e* changes into *-i*. Other typical Kashmiri forms found in the *MP* as well as in the *BK* are *-ty-* which changes to *-cc-*, *-r-* to *-i-*, the consonant *r* disappears or merges with the following consonant (e.g. *-rn-* becomes *-nn-*).

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*udayisa datta samāṇī samarasa*  
*kama kampana tasa-tasa anurūpa (MP 312)*

**Table 1. Consonant changes  
in the *Bāṇāsarakathā* and the *Mahānaya-Prakāśa***

<i>Bāṇāsarakathā</i>	<i>Mahānaya-Prakāśa</i>
<i>VcV, VdV</i>	<i>ŶyV</i>
<i>th</i>	<i>dh</i>
<i>-t</i>	disappears
<i>m</i>	<i>v</i>
<i>kt, pt</i>	<i>tt</i>
<i>nm, hm</i>	<i>mm</i>
<i>dy, dhy</i>	<i>jj</i>
<i>jv</i>	<i>j</i>
<i>skh</i>	<i>kh</i>

Irrespective of the register in which both texts are written, from the few verses that have been analysed in the literature, the language of the *Mahānaya-Prakāśa* seems to be the older one, justifying Sanderson's earlier dating at the 11th century. The text is hermeneutic and has not yet been translated into English or any modern Indo-Aryan language, which makes it difficult to perform a linguistic analysis. Moreover, since it is a philosophical treatise, few constructions with first and second persons are expected to occur. The *BK*, on the other hand, lends itself to linguistic analysis, as it is the poetic rendition of a heroic tale, with dialogue and interaction between the main protagonists. Toshkhani (1975) is a complete translation in Hindi. The translation is preceded by a short grammatical introduction, based on the attestation of the forms in the text.

### 3. Some Grammatical Features of the Language of the *Bāṇāsarakathā*

The verbal conjugation in the Old Kashmiri of the *BK* is as follows. Imperatives end on the stem, for plurals *-ev/-en* is added. Present participles end with *-and*, or with the Modern Kashmiri form *-ā(a)n*. Toshkhani (1975) distinguishes two classes of conjugation in Old Kashmiri. The first one is used for intransitive and transitive verbs.



**Table 2. Class 1 conjugation in Old Kashmiri<sup>4</sup>**

	M.SG	F.SG	M.PL	F.PL
1	-os/-us	-īs/-ūs	-e	-ai
2				
3	-a/-u/-o	-i	-e	-ā

The second class is only used with past intransitive verbs, and is only attested for singular forms.

**Table 3. Class 2 conjugation in Old Kashmiri**

	M.SG	F.SG
1	-ma	
2	-ya	-is
3	-sa	

Past transitive verbs agree with the object, and pronominal suffixes referring to the object as well as to the ergative subject may be added.

The formation of the future tense is the following: the ending for the 1st and 2nd person is *-h*, sometimes changed to *-a* for 1st person. The third person ending is *-i*, and the plural ends on *-v/-o*. The converb ends in *-et*.

The following table gives the present tense conjugation of the copular verb ‘to be’:

**Table 4. Present tense conjugation of the copular verb**

	M.SG	F.SG	PL
1	<i>kṣos</i>	<i>kṣis</i>	<i>kṣe</i>
2	<i>kṣo(h)</i>	<i>kṣih</i>	<i>kṣevu/kṣiv</i>
3	<i>kṣo/chu</i>		<i>kṣi/kṣo</i>

<sup>4</sup> The following abbreviations are used in the glosses and the tables: ABL: ablative, ACC: accusative, AUX: auxiliary, DAT: dative, DU: dual, ERG: ergative, F: feminine, FUT: future, GEN: genitive, IMP: imperative, INF: infinitive, INS: instrumental, LOC: locative, M: masculine, NOM: nominative, OBJ: objective, OBL: oblique, PL: plural, PRS: present, PST: past, PTCP: participle, SG: singular.

The initial combination *kṣ-* is unlike the expected of *cch-* or *-ch*, which would derive from the Prakrit stem *acch-* (Hock 1982) (and which is still used as copular in Bangla). The third person singular form *ch-* is attested as well, but is not so frequent. The similarities with the Modern Kashmiri *chu* conjugation are clear, and this also pertains to the past tense forms. The stem form of the copula in the past is *ās*, first singular *āsos*, pl. *āse*. For futures, the first singular is *ās*, first plural *āsā*. To all these forms, pronominal suffixes can be added.

With regard to nouns, the case marking pattern of Modern Kashmiri starts to develop, but it is not yet fully completed. For instance, the case ending for the ergative and instrumental is *-e*, feminine *-i*. The genitive is *-as* or *-āni*.

**Table 5. Case marking in Old Kashmiri**  
(attested forms in the *BK*)

	M.SG	M.PL	F.SG	F.PL
<b>NOM</b>				
<b>ERG/INS</b>	<i>-e</i>		<i>-i</i>	
<b>OBJ</b>	<i>-s/-as</i>	<i>-n/-any</i>	<i>-n/-yi</i>	<i>-n/-an/-any</i>
<b>ABL</b>	<i>-a/-u</i>			
<b>LOC</b>	<i>-e/-i</i>			
<b>GEN</b>	<i>-as/-āni</i>			

Modern Kashmiri formally distinguishes a nominative, ergative, objective and ablative case. Though there are intricate phonological changes (Grierson 1911) which make the case marking sometimes rather opaque, and though there is an overlapping of case endings to a great extent, inflectional case marking has not disappeared in Kashmiri. On the contrary, compared to the Early New Indo-Aryan stage of Kashmiri, Modern Kashmiri seem to have reinforced case marking.

**Table 6. Case marking in Kashmiri**  
(based on Koul–Wali 2006, p. 32)

	M.SG	M.PL	F.SG	F.PL
<b>NOM</b>	—	—	—	—
<b>ERG</b>	<i>-an/palat.</i>	<i>-av</i>	<i>-i/-an</i>	<i>-av</i>
<b>OBJ</b>	<i>-as/-is</i>	<i>-an</i>	<i>-i</i>	<i>-an</i>
<b>ABL</b>	<i>-i/-i</i>	<i>-av</i>	<i>-i</i>	<i>-av</i>

This evolution in Kashmiri stands in contrast with the Central Indo-Aryan languages such as Hindi and Punjabi which have developed an extensive system of case marking with postpositions. In Kashmiri, postpositions are predominantly used for local cases.

#### 4. The Use of Pronominal Suffixes and V2 Word Order in the *Bāṇāsurakathā*

Modern Kashmiri shows a frequent use of pronominal suffixation, an atypical feature of Modern Indo-Aryan languages. The phenomenon of pronominal suffixation entails that pronominal main arguments are indicated as markers on the main verb. For instance, in the following example, the suffix *-s-* refers to the first person subject argument, *-(a)n-* refers to the patient/direct object argument, and *-(a)v* is the second person recipient argument.

<i>soz-ān</i>	<i>chu-s-an-av</i>
send-PTCP.PRS	AUX.PRS.M-1SG-3SG-2PL
‘I am sending him to you.’	

In Modern Kashmiri, one has the option either to use these pronominal suffixes, or to mention the pronominal arguments explicitly. All nominative pronominal arguments, however, must be marked on the verb, just like all second person arguments.

There are three types of pronominal suffixes in Kashmiri, all of which related to the case marking of the pronouns they refer to. For convenience, they are called nominative, ergative and objective suffixes, according to their main function of respectively referring to nominative arguments, ergative arguments, and (in)direct object arguments. Interestingly, the ergative suffix is used to refer to the ergative argument of a past transitive construction, but this paradigm of suffixes has a second function. The ergative suffixes can also refer to the direct object of an imperfective construction, when that direct object is in the nominative case. The term “ergative” suffix is as such deficient, but will be used in lack of a better suited terminology.

**Table 7. Pronominal suffixes in Modern Kashmiri**  
(based on Koul – Wali 2006, p. 117)

	SG	PL
NOM		
1	-s	/
2	-kh	-v(i)
3	/	/

	SG	PL
<b>OBJ</b>		
1	<i>-m</i>	/
2	<i>-yi</i>	<i>-v(i)</i>
3	<i>-s</i>	<i>-kh</i>
<b>ERG</b>		
1	<i>-m</i>	/
2	<i>-th</i>	<i>-v(i)</i>
3	<i>-n</i>	<i>-kh</i>

It has been argued that pronominal suffixation in Kashmiri is a remnant of the Vedic system of pronominal cliticisation (Emeneau 1965). However, Vedic clitics are not suffixed to a verb and were used much more freely in the sentence, often taking the traditional clitical position after the first word of a clause (cf. Wackernagel's law, Wenthe 2012). Consider the following example from Wenthe (2012, p. 44):

*sá tvā vármaṇo mahimā pipartu*  
 that.NOM.SG you.ACC.SG shield[M]GEN.SG might[M]NOM.SG cross.PRS.IMP.3SG  
 'Let the might of the shield help you through.'

Note that *tvā* is here the enclitic form of the second person singular. It is in the second position, and does not carry the Vedic accent. The position and the independence of the clitic is totally different from the Kashmiri pronominal suffixes. Nevertheless, formally, there is a certain similarity between the Kashmiri pronominal suffixes and the Vedic enclitics, of which the paradigm is given in Table 8. For instance, *-m* is typical for first person, and *-t(h)* indicates the second. However, this is a general similarity found in most Indo-Aryan languages, and these sounds are also found in the Vedic full pronouns. The cross-linguistically most common source of person markers are independent pronominal forms, so the formal similarity between the enclitics and the pronominal suffixes is expected, but this does not mean that there is a direct historical relationship between the two paradigms.

**Table 8. The Vedic enclitics**  
 (Macdonnell 1916)

	ACC			DAT/GEN		
	SG	DU	PL	SG	DU	PL
1	<i>mā</i>	<i>nau</i>	<i>nas</i>	<i>me</i>	<i>nau</i>	<i>nas</i>
2	<i>tvā</i>	<i>vām</i>		<i>te</i>	<i>vām</i>	

Since pronominal suffixes are not used in Apabhraṃśa, the question is when and where they first occurred in Kashmiri. If we look at Lallā's verses (Grierson–Barnett 1920, p. 36)<sup>5</sup>, we notice that the suffixes are already fully functional:

*shiv gur<sup>u</sup> tōy keshēv palānas*  
*brahmā pāyirēn wōlasēs*  
*yogī yoga-kali parzānēs*  
*kus dev ashwawār pēṭh ceḍēs*

‘Shiva is the horse. Zealously employed upon him, the saddle is Vishnu, and, upon the stirrup, Brahmā. The yogi, by the art of his yoga, will recognise him who is the god that will mount upon him as the rider.’

The verbal forms *wōlasēs*, *parzānēs* and *ceḍēs* are future tense forms in the third person singular, to which an objective third person suffix is added (but see Grierson–Barnett 1920, p. 219 for *wōlasēs*). The use of a pronominal suffix renders the translation: ‘is zealously employed upon *him*’, ‘will recognise *him*’ and ‘will mount upon *him*’.

The language of Lallā is very close to Modern Kashmiri, and the use of pronominal suffixes confirms this. One needs to go back to earlier texts to find the very first attestations. Pronominal suffixes are found in the Kashmiri of the *BK*. Toshkhani (1975) gives the following overview, and I added -y as an objective suffix for the second person, based on its attestation in the text.

**Table 9. Pronominal suffixation in Old Kashmiri**

	NOM		ERG	
	SG	PL	SG	PL
1	-s		-m	
2	-kh	-v	-th	-v
3	-(n)	-kh	-n	-n/-h
	ACC		OBJ	
	SG	PL	SG	PL
1	-m		-m/-s	
2	-th	-v	-y	-v
3			-s	-kh

Toshkhani (1975) identifies pronominal suffixation as an innovation opposed to the *Mahānaya-Prakāśa*. However, in this text, pronouns in general occur only rarely,

<sup>5</sup> The transcription is taken over from Grierson–Barnett (1920).

since it is a philosophical treatise without much opportunity to include speech act participants.

Toshkhani (1975) discerns four paradigms of suffixes in the *BK*. Just as in Modern Kashmiri, the ergative suffixes are identical to those used to refer to first and second pronominal objects of imperfective constructions (accusative). The difference between the ergative and accusative paradigms with the objective paradigm is only noticeable for the second person singular, which is *-th* for the ergative and accusative, and *-y* for the objective.

Pronominal suffixation in Kashmiri seems to be a language-internal development rather than a feature that has been passed on from an ancestral language spoken at least more than 1000 years before the first Old Kashmiri manuscripts. In the *Bāṇā-surakathā*, there is no evidence of enclitic forms of the pronoun which occur in the second position of a clause. On the contrary, the pronominal paradigm has already been simplified, and there is only one form per pronoun (though there is variation in spelling, and there are Prakrit and Sanskrit forms which have marked occurrence). The pronominal paradigm in Old Kashmiri looks as follows:

**Table 10. Pronominal paradigm in Old Kashmiri**  
(Toshkhani 1975, on the basis of the forms attested in the *BK*)

	1SG	1PL	2SG	2PL	3SG	3PL
NOM	<i>bu/bhu/ma</i>	<i>asi/ase/aso</i>	<i>tsū/tū</i>		<i>su/so, sā</i>	<i>te/tem, tenā</i>
OBJ	<i>mi</i>	<i>asi</i>	<i>tsī/tsiye</i>	<i>tusi</i>	<i>soye, sāy</i>	<i>temay, tenāy</i>
GEN	<i>myano/myanes/ myane/myis</i>	<i>saṃnī</i>	<i>tsyano/ tsyana</i>		<i>tas/tassa</i>	
INS					<i>tena</i>	
ABL					<i>tāsām</i>	
					<i>teyu, teyi</i>	

Sanskrit derived forms of demonstrative pronouns also occur often, e.g. *ehu*, *eh*, *e* derived from Skt. *eṣa*, and *i*, *em*, *eyam*, possibly derived from Skt. *idam*.

The following examples are all from the *BK* and illustrate the use of pronominal suffixation in Old Kashmiri.

*hara*      *asi-sa*  
Shiva      smile.PST-3SG  
'Shiva smiled at him.' (*BK* 21)

*komāra*      *haro-ṇa-sa*  
girl[F]NOM.SG      take.PST-3SG-3SG  
'He took the girl.' (*BK* 59)

Both verbs above show the objective third person suffix *-s*, *asisa* and *haroṇasa*. The subject of *asisa* is the proper noun *Hara*, whereas the subject of *haroṇasa* is not independently mentioned. The third person ergative suffix *-n(a)-* (cerebralised for phonetic reasons) is used in *haroṇasa*. The distribution of the third person suffixes is hence quite similar to that in Modern Kashmiri: they do not seem to occur anaphorically to an independent argument. The following example shows the verb carrying a first person objective suffix attached to the verb *muṣ*, without an independent pronoun. The second example shows that the suffix *-m* is also used to refer to a first person objective, and in Modern Kashmiri only *-m* remains. The third example shows the use of the independent objective pronoun *mi*, and the verb does not take a suffix.

<i>muṣ-es</i>	<i>rāt</i>	<i>sakhe</i>	<i>az</i>	<i>taskare</i>
steal.PST.SG-1SG	night	friend	today	thief[M]ERG.SG

‘A thief has stolen me tonight, o friend.’ (BK 65)

<i>har-om</i>	<i>kenis</i>	<i>śīla</i>	<i>mahācchale</i>
take.PST.3SG-1SG	someone.OBL.SG	honour[M]NOM.SG	great strength[M]INS.SG

‘Someone with great strength took my honour.’ (BK 68)

<i>mi</i>	<i>bāṇa</i>	<i>kaṇṭha</i>	<i>lekhi</i>
I.OBJ.SG	Bāṇa[M]NOM.SG	throat[M]NOM.SG	scratch.FUT.3SG

‘Bāṇa will cut my throat. (...cut me the throat)’ (BK 74)

The second person suffix in Old Kashmiri has not reached the degree of obligatoriness that it has in Modern Kashmiri. The following example from the *BK* is a construction with a second person overt subject *tsiye*, where the second person suffix is absent. The first person indirect object, on the other hand, is only indicated on the verb form by means of the suffix *-ma* and is not expressed with an overt pronoun.

<i>vane-ma</i>	<i>tsiye</i>	<i>viśeṣa</i>	<i>cāratra</i>
tell.PST-1SG	you.ERG.SG	special	story[M]NOM.SG

‘You told me a particular story.’ (BK 6)

This is not a unique accident, even in the more recent *Lallā-Vākyāni*, Grierson and Barnett (1920, p. 140) report one example where the second person suffix is absent, though there is an independent pronoun: *tse gol<sup>u</sup>* ‘you destroy’, whereas the expected form would be *tse goluth*. In other words, the rules for the pronominal suffixation of second persons are not so fixed as yet, and even second person suffixes tend to occur in complementary distribution with an independent argument. For instance, in the following example the verb *ditto* does not show the objective second person pronominal suffix *-y*, yet the independent pronoun *tsi* is expressed. All three possibilities are given in these examples: the first example only has the independent pronoun *tsi*, the second one has both the pronoun *tsi* and the suffix *-y*, and the last one shows only the pronominal suffix *-y*. In sum, though the second person pronominal suffix can be used together with the independent pronoun, there is no fixed rule yet which makes its use obligatory.

*viṣamo*      *kampa*      *phanyu*      *tsi*      *ditto*  
 extensive    shaking    snake[M]NOM.SG    you.OBJ.SG    give.PST.3SG  
 ‘The snakes gave you massive pain.’ (BK 239)

*buiy*      *so*      *kavā*      *tsi //*      *ṛdayi*      *raṇa-śok*  
 rise.PRS.3SG-2SG    this    why    you.OBJ.SG    heart.LOC.SG    battle-fear  
 ‘Why rises the fear of battle in your heart?’ (BK 336)

*eniy*      *māraṇ*  
 bring.FUT.3PL-2SG    kill.INF  
 ‘They will bring you to death.’ (BK 121)

The order of the suffixes is ergative–objective, as in Modern Kashmiri. The objective third person suffix is often mentioned after verbs of speaking, as in the following examples with the verb *nigad*. Similar constructions with the verb *wonun* are very common in Modern Kashmiri.

*thava*      *tap*      *tsū*      *nigadisa*      *e*      *nātha*  
 stay.IMP.2SG    ascetism    you.NOM.SG    say.PST.3SG    this    Shiva  
 ‘You should continue to do ascetism, said Shiva to him.’ (BK 12)

*dappom*      *śailatanayi*      *yo*      *mahā*      *viṣeṣ*  
 tell.PST.3SG-1SG    Parvatī[F]ERG.SG    this    great    special  
 ‘Parvatī has told me this very special thing.’ (BK 77)

From the study of this old text, it is clear that pronominal suffixation was an early feature which occurred together with the first indications of a change from Apabhraṃśa to modern Kashmiri.

## 5. Conclusion

The language of the *Bāṇāsarakathā* illustrates an important stage in the history of Indo-Aryan: it is an example of an Early New Indo-Aryan language. In this language stage, many grammatical changes appear, leading to the case marking and agreement structures of the Modern Indo-Aryan languages (Reinöhl 2016). After an abundance of literature in the Sanskrit and Prakrit languages of the elite, we now find literary texts in the language of the people, such as Avtar Bhatt’s *Bāṇāsarakathā*. Because of this discrepancy between the court stylistics and the “simple” language, the *BK* is not always easy to read. Linguistically, we notice a number of features: the sounds change into their typical Kashmiri mould, with a greater spectrum of vowel sounds and palatalised sounds, the introduction of *ts* and *z*. The Middle Indo-Aryan case system shifts into the Kashmiri case marking, and, most interestingly, we start to get a system of pronominal suffixation. This system is not yet rigidly applied, we do find differentiation and forms are not yet obligatory, yet very clearly, they start to appear. Therefore, this text certainly deserves further study.



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