(which, however, is at the extreme limits) mark the boundary to the north, Sīstān and Baluchistan to the south.

One of the old, thorny problems in studies on Avestan geography is represented by Airyana Vaējah (Pahlavi: Ērānwēz), "the area of the Aryans" and first of the sixteen districts in Vd. 1, the original name of which was airyanəm vaējo vanhuya daityaya, "the Aryan extension of Vanuhī Dāityā (Benveniste, art. cit., pp. 267f.; against Christensen, op. cit., p. 74; Herzfeld, Zoroaster and His World, p. 698), where Vanuhī Dāityā "the good Dāityā" is the name of a river connected with the religious "law" (dāta-). The concept of Airyana Vaējah is not equivalent to that of airyō.šayana- in Yt. 10.13, or to the group of airya dainhava "the Aryan lands" which is recurrent in the yašts; this, in fact, refers to just one of the Aryan lands, as the first chapter of the Vīdēvdāt clearly shows. It does not designate "the traditional homeland" (Boyce, op. cit., I, p. 275) or "the ancient homeland" (R. N. Frye, The History of Ancient Iran, Munich, 1984, p. 61) of the Iranians. These definitions perpetuate old interpretations of the Airyana Vaējah as "Urheimat des Awestavolkes" (Geiger, op. cit., p. 32), "Urland" of the Indo-Iranians (F. Spiegel, Die arische Periode und ihre Zustände, Leipzig, 1887, p. 123), "Wiege aller iranischen Arier" (J. von Prášek, Geschichte der Meder und Perser bis zur makedonischen Eroberung I, Gotha, 1906, p. 29), drawing from the texts more than the contents really warrant. Airyana Vaējah is only the homeland of Zara θ uštra and of Zoroastrianism (Nyberg, op. cit., pp. 326f.; Henning, Zoroaster, p. 43). According to Zoroastrian tradition Ērānwēz is situated at the center of the world; on the shores of its river, Weh Dāitī (Av. Vaŋuhī Dāityā), there were created the gaw ī ew-dad (Av. gav aevo.data) "uniquely created bull" and Gayomard (Av. Gayō.marətan) "mortal life," the first man; there rises the Čagād ī Dāidīg, the "lawful Summit," the Peak of Harā, in Avestan also called hukairya "of good activity"; the Činvat Bridge is there, and there too, Yima and Zoroaster became famous. Taken all together, these data show that Zoroastrianism superimposed the concept of Airyana Vaejah onto the traditional one of a center of the world where the Peak of Harā rises (see above). The fact that Airyana Vaejah is situated in a mountainous region explains its severe climate (Vd. 1.2.3) better than does its supposed location in Chorasmia (Markwart, Erānšahr, p. 155). This is not surprising if we consider the analogy between the Iranian concept of the Peak of Harā with the Indian one of Mount Meru or Sumeru. The Manicheans identified Aryān-waižan with the region at the foot of Mount Sumeru that Wištāsp reigned over (W. B. Henning, "The Book of the Giants," BSOAS 11, 1943, pp. 68f.), and the Khotanese texts record the identification of Mount Sumeru in Buddhist mythology with the Peak of Harā (ttaira haraysä) in the Avestan tradition (H. W. Bailey, Indo-Scythian Studies. Khotanese Texts IV, Cambridge, 1961, p. 12; idem, Dictionary of Khotan Saka, Cambridge, 1979, p. 467). All this leads us to

suppose that the concept of Airyana Vaējah was an invention of Zoroastrianism which gave a new guise to a traditional idea of Indo-Iranian cosmography (Gnoli, Ricerche storiche sul Sīstān antico, pp. 86ff.). At any rate, identifications of Airyana Vaējah with Chorasmia are quite unfounded (Markwart, loc. cit.; H. W. Bailey, "Iranian Studies I," BSOAS 6, 1930-32, pp. 948-53; idem, "Iranian Studies IV," BSOAS 7, 1933-35, pp. 764-68; Benveniste, art. cit.; Nyberg, op. cit., p. 326; Christensen, op. cit., pp. 66-76; Monchi-Zadeh, op. cit., pp. 115f.), whether this is understood to refer to K'ārazm itself or to a "greater Chorasmia" (Henning, Zoroaster, pp. 42ff.; Gershevitch, The Avestan Hymn to Mithra, pp. 14ff.). As for the river of Religious Law, it is not at all easy to identify (see H. Humbach, "About Gopatšāh, His Country, and the Khwārezmian Hypothesis," Papers in Honour of Mary Boyce I, p. 330): The most likely hypotheses seem to be those that identify it with the Oxus, or rather the Helmand, which at times appears to be in a curious "competition" with the Oxus (Markwart, Wehrot und Arang, pp. 122 n. 3, 159 note: Gnoli, Ricerche storiche sul Sīstān antico, pp. 13, 38, 87) in the Zoroastrian tradition.

Bibliography: Given in the text. See also F. Justi, Beiträge zur alten Geographie Persiens, Marburg, 1869. W. Tomaschek, "Zur historischen Topographie von Persien," Sb. d. Wiener Akad. d. Wiss... Phil.-hist. Kl., 102, 1883, pp. 146-231; 108, 1885, pp. 583-652 (repr. Osnabrück, 1972). W. Geiger, "Geographie von Iran," in Geiger and Kuhn, Grundr. Ir. Phil. II, 3, pp. 371-94. H. Lommel, "Anahita-Sarasvati," in Asiatica. Festschrift Friedrich Weller, Leipzig, 1954, pp. 15-32. H. Humbach, "Die awestische Länderliste," Wiener Zeitschrift für die Kunde Süd- und Ostasiens 4, 1960, pp. 34-46. Idem, "Ptolemaios-Studien," ibid., 5, 1961, pp. 68-74. G. Gnoli, "'Apiανή. Postilla ad Airyō.šayana," RSO 41, 1966, pp. 329-34. Idem, "More on the Sistanic Hypothesis," East and West 27, 1977, pp. 309-20. H. Humbach, "A Western Approach to Zarathushtra," Journal of the K. R. Cama Oriental Institute 51, Bombay, 1984, pp. 15-32. W. Barthold, Istorikogeograficheskii obzor Irana, Moscow, 1971; Eng. tr. S. Soucek, An Historical Geography of Iran, Princeton, New Jersey, 1984.

(G. GNOLI)

AVESTAN LANGUAGE, the language of the Avesta (q.v.), an Old Iranian language.

- i. The Avestan script.
- ii. The phonology of Avestan.
- iii. The grammar of Avestan.

i. THE AVESTAN SCRIPT

The Avestan script is known from manuscripts written in Iran (at Yazd and Kerman) and in India (in Gujarat, e.g., Cambay, Broach, Ankleshwar, Surat, and Navsari). The earliest manuscript dates from A.D. 1288. The script consists in 14 (or 16) letters for vowels

Table 2
THE AVESTAN SCRIPT

1	u a	17 4 k	35 } n
2	س $ar{a}$	18 b x	36 V ń
3	\dot{a} سع	س \acute{x}	37 } n ^v
4	ىس $\mathring{ar{a}}$	20 μ x^{v}	38 1 n
5	oc q	21 e g	39 [/l ń
6	५/ ¥ ंq	22 عب \dot{g}	$40 \cancel{\pi} \dot{\eta}$
7	€ 3	23 2 Υ	41 & m
8	₹ 5	24 y C	42 € m
9	κ e	25 ५ <i>j</i>	$43 \subset y$
10	$oldsymbol{arphi}$	26 ° t	44 b <i>v</i>
11	3 0	27 ઇ 8	45 \hat{\gamma} \gamma
12	$\epsilon \bar{o}$	$28 \longrightarrow d$	46 29 š
13	i	29 کہ /ح ک	47 يى \$
14	ਦ 7	30 R/B £	$48 \int z$
15	, u	31 U p	49 ~ š
16	$\bar{\eta}$ \bar{u}	32 δ f	50 ట ģ
		$33 \bigcup b$	51 90 Š
		34 W /3	52 ro y
			53 er (V) h

and 37 letters for consonants, see Table 28. In printed texts the letters \mathring{a} , \mathring{g} , \mathring{y} , \mathring{n} , \mathring{m} , and \mathring{y} are not used. The transliteration given in Table 28 differs in some points from that almost universally used until recently. Thus, it has been usual to use h for \acute{x} ; \check{c} and \check{j} for c and j; w for β ; n for both n and n; \check{s} for \check{s} , \check{s} , and \check{s} ; y for both y (\mathring{y}) and \mathring{u} ; v for both v and uu. The signs for \mathring{q} , \mathring{g} , \mathring{y} , \mathring{n} , n, m, \check{s} , and \check{s} were not used at all until recently.

The letters are written from right to left and are not connected. Ligatures (e.g., δk , δc , δt , δa) are rare and clearly of secondary origin. A point (dot) is used to indicate the end of a word or the end of the first member of a compound, no distinction being made between the two. The letters have almost the same shapes in all manuscripts. Only some Indian manuscripts show peculiarities: H2 (A.D. 1415), S1 and J9 (14/15th century A.D.).

The large number of letters used suggests that their invention resulted from an attempt to record an orally recited text with all its phonetic nuances. For that reason the Avestan script must have been the deliberate invention or creation of a scholar or of a group of scholars (see, e.g., Morgenstierne, "Orthography and Sound-system," pp. 31-33; Henning, "Disintegration," p. 44).

The Avestan script is based on the Pahlavi (q.v.) script in its cursive form as used by theologians of the Zoroastrian church when writing their books. The earliest Pahlavi manuscripts date from the fourteenth century A.D., but the Pahlavi cursive script must have developed from the Aramaic script already in the first centuries A.D. This is proved for example by the fact that an early inscription on the lid of a sarcophagus found in Istanbul that for archeological reasons can not be dated later than A.D. 430 already shows the characteristic written forms of the Pahlavi cursive script with two insignificant exceptions (k and s). (See the bibliography in Ph. Gignoux, Glossaire des inscriptions pehlevies et parthes, Corp. Inscr. Iran., Suppl. Ser. I, London, 1972, p. 14.) In the Pahlavi cursive script almost all the letters represent several different sounds. This ambiguity is due in part to inadequacies of the Aramaic alphabet from which it developed, in part to the phonological development of the Middle Persian language ("historical spelling"), and in part to the graphic coalescence of signs. In addition, many individual letters of a word are joined to one another, with the result that extremely ambiguous ligatures occur.

Apart from the Pahlavi cursive script as used in the Zoroastrian church there was a still older kind of script that was to some extent less ambiguous. This script, called here the "Psalter script," is known to us from a manuscript from the seventh or eighth century A.D. containing a "Christian" Pahlavi translation of the Psalms. (See D. N. MacKenzie, A Concise Pahlavi Dictionary, London, 1971, pp. xi, xiii, for tables of the Pahlavi and Psalter scripts; and Aramaic, i.)

The creator of the Avestan script took over from the Pahlavi cursive script the letters a, i, k, t, p, b, m, n, r, s, z, s, and x to represent the same sounds as in Pahlavi. The

sign (28) for d derives likewise from the unambiguous Psalter script. In Pahlavi the sign for k (17) represented both the sounds k and y because k had developed to y in word-interior position. In the Psalter script the sign for k differed from that of the Pahlavi cursive in that the Psalter sign ended in a flourish towards the right. The creator of the Avestan script made use of this variation in the shape of the letters by assigning to the Pahlavi form (17) the fixed value k and to the Psalter form (23) the fixed value γ . In this way the flourish could be reinterpreted as a diacritical mark, which the creator of the script put to further use. The Pahlavi Psalter sign (25) for $c/j/z/\tilde{z}$ had a similar flourish and was accordingly adopted to represent the voiced sound j. By removing the flourish the creator of the script obtained the sign (24) for c, which has a different shape in the Pahlavi cursive script. Pahlavi p represented the sounds $p/(f)/\beta$. It was retained unchanged in Avestan for p (31) while an initial flourish converted it into the sign for β (34). The addition of a flourish to Pahlavi t (26) either initially or finally was not used, as might be expected, to represent δ but to represent a word-final \underline{t} (30) that was probably implosive. The Pahlavi alef was adopted as a (1) in the Avestan alphabet. In Pahlavi, alef had coalesced graphically with h, from which it was still distinguished in the Psalter script. Thus, Pahlavi had only one sign to represent alef, h, and x. In order to represent the sound x in Avestan, use was made of an ambiguous Pahlavi ligature (20) of h'/h + w/n/r, which among many others had the value xw. The shape of the ligature hw adopted for Avestan x is characteristic not only of the Pahlavi books but is found already in the inscription on the sarcophagus lid from Istanbul whereas the ligature has a different shape in the Psalter script. In the Avestan script a flourish was added to distinguish \dot{x} (19) from x^* (20). An unusual diacritic in the form of a loop at the end of a curved flourish was used to distinguish h(53) from a(1). The loop may have been a secondary addition providing graphical resemblance to p (31) since a variant form of h (53 in brackets) without the loop is found in such manuscripts as H2 and J9. By extending the curve further upwards than in the unlooped variety of h it was possible to distinguish x (18) from both a (1) and h (53). The curved upwards flourish was further used to create Avestan f (32) out of Pahlavi p (31) and is seen in the voiceless fricative θ (27). The basic shape to which the curved upwards flourish was added in the case of θ is to be seen in the form taken by final s in Pahlavi words such as g's for Avestan $g\bar{a}\theta\bar{a}$, in which s represents Avestan θ (MacKenzie, Pahlavi Dictionary, p. xiii, the second s, to the right).

The Avestan letter \bar{a} (2) is also derived from the Pahlavi script, where this sign was used for 'y at the end of a word (already in the Istanbul sarcophagus inscription). However, as early as in Middle Persian inscriptions from the third century A.D., 'y was used to represent the final $-\bar{a}$ of foreign names as in swly'y for (Greek) $S\bar{u}ri\bar{a}$, and the Pahlavi Psalter confirms that this convention continued to be adopted as the Psalter itself

has the spelling 'plt'y for Syriac 'prt', that is (Greek) Ephrathá (Bethlehem).

The Avestan letter o (11) corresponds in graphic spape to a special form of Pahlavi I that is found only in Aramaic heterograms. The commonest of those heterograms is the preposition 'L" to, at," which was read in Middle Persian as ō (MacKenzie, Pahlavi Dictionary, p. 187, left column, 3rd line from the top). It looks as though the creator of the Avestan script used this special form of *l* without the initial 'ayn to represent the sound o. The letter e (9) seems to have a similar origin. Pahlavi $\bar{e}w$ "one" was probably pronounced simply as \bar{e} already at an early date. This pronunciation is actually attested in the later Pahlavi literature. Avestan e differs from the Pahlavi ligature $\bar{e}w$ only by the absence of a small initial hook which was indispensable for Pahlavi but unnecessary for Avestan. (Words with initial $\bar{e}w$ -/ ēn- in MacKenzie, Pahlavi Dictionary, pp. 232f.)

The original (Aramaic) letters n, w, r, and ' ('ayn) coalesced in a single short vertical stroke in Pahlavi. This sign was taken over unchanged for n in the Avestan alphabet (38). A slight bend in the stroke was made to distinguish Avestan u (15) from n since Pahlavi w was used in internal position also to designate the sound u.

The Pahlavi script had very inadequate means to designate the vowel sounds. By contrast the creator of the Avestan script quite clearly invented a special sign for every vowel distinguished in the oral tradition. No doubt the Greek script had provided a model; the Greek script was well known in Iran as is shown by the fact that already under Šāpūr I (241-72 A.D.) Greek translations accompanied the royal inscriptions. Thus Aves- $\tan \theta$ (7) could have been adopted from Greek minuscules, which had a comparable form already in the fourth century. The sign for $\bar{a}(2)$ probably came directly from Pahlavi but the letters for the remaining long vowels were evidently formed by adding diacritics to letters for the corresponding short vowels. $\bar{\mathfrak{z}}$ (8) was accordingly formed by adding to ϑ (7) a flourish to the left, while \bar{e} (10) was formed by adding to e (9) a flourish to the right. The letters for \bar{o} (12), $\bar{\iota}$ (14), and \bar{u} (16) were distinguished from the letters for the corresponding short vowels by the addition of a short vertical stroke at the bottom. It is likely that the creator of the script based the sign for \bar{o} (12) on the Pahlavi heterogram 'L, which was pronounced \bar{o} , by placing the 'ayn, the vertical stroke on the right, under the L. The sign for the short vowel was then formed by treating the vertical stroke as a diacritic denoting length. The same stroke may subsequently have been used by analogy in order to differentiate between \bar{i} and i and between \bar{u} and u.

As yet few plausible statements can be made concerning the origin of the remaining letters of the Avestan alphabet, but it must be accepted that the creator of a script is free to invent letters or diacritics arbitrarily.

 \ddot{a} (4), which looks like a ligature of $\ddot{a} + \partial$, was differentiated from \bar{a} . Short \mathring{a} (3) has been found in one manuscript only (Pd, where it is used instead of q before ηh ; see Salemann, "Parsenhandschrift," p. 510). q (5) seems to be a free invention. In some manuscripts (e.g.,

Mf4, ed. in facsimile by K. M. JamaspAsa) \dot{q} (6) is found instead of q (5). There is some slight evidence that q and \dot{q} were not just graphic variants but two different letters. q may have been a nasalized long \bar{q} and \dot{q} a nasalized short a. The original form of a may have been the left variant of no. 6 in the table.

The Avestan script originally possessed also the letter \dot{g} (22). All the known Avestan alphabets, most of which are very corrupt, begin with the letters g, \dot{g} , γ (21-23). \dot{g} is seldom found in the manuscripts but relatively often in final $-\bar{\partial}\eta\dot{g}$, especially in the manuscripts S1 and J3. This suggests that \dot{g} was implosive, like \underline{t} , the only other final stop in Avestan.

Avestan g (21) may be a modification of the corresponding Pahlavi letter. Neither of the forms of δ (29) appears to be based on Pahlavi letters.

Among the nasal signs η (35), the labialized nasal η (37), and the uvular nasal η (40) appear to be free inventions. Both forms of palatalized \dot{n} (39)—that on the right in the table is found only in MS K7—are modifications of n (38). The voiceless η (42) is simply m (41) plus a diacritic.

The sign for initial \dot{y} (43) and v (44) are free inventions.

The left part of \check{z} (50) resembles the Pahlavi ligature 'c (written like 53). The reason for that could be that c in Pahlavi 'cydh'k was pronounced by theologians in agreement with Avestan $a\check{z}i$ - $dah\bar{a}ka$ - as $a\check{z}(i)dah\bar{a}\gamma$ (for genuine Middle Persian $azdah\bar{a}\gamma$).

It is generally considered that the Avestan script dates to the Sasanian period (224-651 A.D.). The evidence of the Istanbul sarcophagus inscription (before A.D. 430) suggests that it may have been invented already by the fourth century A.D., perhaps even under Šāpūr II (310-379 A.D.). Note, however, that none of the letters of the alphabet used in the monumental Mid. Pers. inscriptions seem to have been borrowed for the Avestan alphabet (table in MacKenzie, *Pahlavi Dictionary*, p. xi).

It may be assumed that the Avestan texts were written down shortly after the invention of the script, which was designed to provide a special sign for each sound used in the traditional pronunciation of Avestan. In this first notation of the Avestan texts, the so-called "Sasanian archetype," the aim of the inventor of the script must have been put into practice.

In the post-Sasanian period there took place a serious deterioration in what had become a manuscript tradition. There must have been numerous errors even in the manuscripts written in the ninth or tenth century, from which ultimately the extant manuscripts descend. Thus, for example, the letters \check{s} , \check{s} , and \check{s} were only in part

correctly employed and ηuh or ηh was written instead of ηh . The manuscripts themselves constantly betray a marked deterioration in the pronunciation of the vulgate.

Bibliography: C. F. Andreas, "Die Entstehung des Awesta-Alphabetes und sein ursprünglicher Lautwert," Verhandlungen des XIII. internationalen Orientalisten-Kongresses, Hamburg, September 1902, Leiden, 1904, pp. 99-106. W. B. Henning "The Disintegration of the Avestic Studies," TPS, 1942, pp. 40-56 (Selected Papers II, Acta Iranica 15, pp. 151-67). Idem, "Mitteliranisch," p. 52. K. Hoffmann, "Zum Zeicheninventar der Avesta-Schrift," in Festgabe deutscher Iranisten zur 2500 Jahrfeier Irans, Stuttgart, 1971, pp. 64-73 (Aufsätze zur Indoiranistik I, Wiesbaden, 1975, pp. 316-25). A. V. W. Jackson, The Avestan Alphabet and its Transcription, Stuttgart, 1890. K. M. JamaspAsa. Manuscript D90: Yasnā with its Pahlavi Translation I-II, Shiraz, 1976 (facsimile of Geldner's ms. Mf4). G. Morgenstierne, "Orthography and Sound-system of the Avesta," NTS 12, 1942, pp. 30-82 (Irano-Dardica, Wiesbaden, 1973, pp. 31-79). C. Salemann, "Ueber eine Parsenhandschrift der Kaiserlichen Oeffentlichen Bibliothek zu St. Petersburg," Travaux de la troisième session du Congrès international des Orientalistes 1876 II, St. Petersburg and Leiden, 1879, pp. 508-19. G. Windfuhr, "Diacritic and Distinctive Features in Avestan," JAOS 91, 1971, pp. 104-24 (somewhat speculative). See also J. Duchesne-Guillemin, Kratylos 7, 1962, pp. 4-9.

(K. HOFFMANN)

ii. THE PHONOLOGY OF AVESTAN

Attested forms and stages of development. Avestan is attested in two forms, known respectively as Old Avestan (OAv.) or Gathic Avestan and Young Avestan (YAv.). They differ from each other not only chronologically but also dialectally. Avestan, which is associated with northeastern Iran, and Old Persian, which belongs to the southwest, together constitute what is called Old Iranian. It is possible to some extent to reconstruct Proto-Iranian by comparing Avestan with Old Persian. This Proto-Iranian is closely related to the Vedic language of ancient India. Both Proto-Iranian and Vedic go back to Proto-Indo-Iranian or Proto-Aryan, which in turn descends from Proto-Indo-European.

By comparison with Vedic, whose phonemes are consistently recorded, Avestan in the form in which it has been handed down in manuscripts from 1288 A.D. onwards is attested in a very irregular notation. Apart from errors introduced in the post-Sasanian period, the essential features of the manuscript tradition of the Avesta must have been present already in the Sasanian archetype. When the Avestan texts were first recorded, perhaps as early as the fourth century A.D., each sound of the current Avestan pronunciation was designated by a special letter. The fact that a phonetic notation was used rather than a phonemic one means that it is

possible to assess the linguistic significance of the individual spellings with regard to both the synchronic description of the language and its historical development.

Every Avestan text, whether composed originally in Old Avestan or in Young Avestan, went through several stages of transmission before it was recorded in the extant manuscripts. During the course of transmission many changes took place.

For Old Avestan the following stages may be assumed: 1. The original language of the Zarathustrian $G\bar{a}\theta\bar{a}s$, the Yasna Haptaŋhāiti, and the four sacred prayers; 2. Changes involved by the practice of slow chanting; 3. Changes due to transmission by YAv. priests, who introduced many YAv. sound forms into the OAv. texts; 4. Deliberate alteration of the text in the course of an orthoepic revision ("School text"); 5. Continued transmission of the OAv. texts along with the YAv. texts.

Young Avestan went through the following stages: 1. The original language of the composers of grammatically correct YAv. texts; perhaps in Marv or Herat; 2. Dialect influences as a result of the transfer of the Av. texts to Southeast Iran (Arachosia?); 3. Transfer of the Avesta to Persis in Southwest Iran, possibly earlier than 500 B.C.; 4. Transmission of the Avesta in a Southwest Iranian theological school, probably in Estakr: Old Pers. and Mid. Pers. influences, the insistence on fantastic pronunciations by semi-learned schoolmasters (Av. $a\bar{e}\theta rapaiti$ -), the composition of ungrammatical late Av. texts, the adaptation of portions of texts taken from other regions where they were recited; 5. The end of the oral transmission: phonetic notation of the Avestan texts in the Sasanian archetype, probably in the fourth century A.D.; 6. Post-Sasanian deterioration of the written transmission due to incorrect pronunciation (Vulgate); 7. In the ninth and tenth centuries A.D. the manuscript copies of individual texts were made on which the extant manuscripts are based; 8. Earlier manuscripts were copied in manuscripts dating from A.D. 1288 till the nineteenth century by scribes who introduced errors and corruptions. These are the manuscripts extant today.

Many phonetic features can not be ascribed with certainty to a particular stage since there may be more than one possibility. Every phonetic form that can be ascribed to the Sasanian archetype on the basis of critical assessment of the manuscript evidence must have gone through the stages mentioned above so that "Old Avestan" and "Young Avestan" really mean no more than "Old Avestan and Young Avestan of the Sasanian period."

The vowels. The Proto-Indo-Ir. vowels a, \bar{a} , i, \bar{i} , u, \bar{u} and the diphthongs $a\underline{i}$, $\bar{a}\underline{i}$, $a\underline{u}$, $\bar{a}\underline{u}$ (= Vedic e, ai, o, au) remained unchanged in Proto-Iranian. Proto-Indo-Ir. i that arose from Proto-IE. ∂ (the vocalization of a consonantal laryngal H) is attested by such forms as Av. pitár- "father;" OAv. $\bar{s}\bar{s}\bar{a}$ "teach," cf. Vedic $\bar{s}\bar{s}\bar{s}a$, from Proto-IE. * $k\bar{s}se$ -; OAv. - $maid\bar{i}$, cf. Vedic -mahi, 1 plur. verb ending, from Proto-IE. * $-med^h\partial$. But Proto-IE. H

was maintained under certain accentual conditions in Proto-Ir. and was lost in Av. Hence we find such contrasting forms as Av. draonah- "possession" beside Vedic $dr\dot{a}vinas$ -; OAv. dugadar- "daughter" beside Vedic $duhit\dot{a}r$ -; OAv. $varant\bar{e}$ "he wishes" beside Vedic $vrn\bar{t}e$; OAv. $fa\delta r\bar{o}i$ "to the father" beside OAv. $pi\theta r\bar{e}$. Proto-Indo-Ir. sonant r (= Vedic r) became in Proto-Ir. and Av. ar but before s the tradition introduced the YAv. spelling ar(s) also into OAv. texts. The corresponding long vowel r from Proto-IE. rH developed in Proto-Ir. and Av. to ar whereas Vedic had either ir/ur or $ir/\bar{u}r$.

There is a wide variety in the representation of the vowels in the manuscripts. Most of these features were already present in the Sasanian archetype.

Numerous anaptyctic vowels, represented mostly by ϑ but also by a, \bar{o} , and other vowel signs, were used to simplify consonant clusters especially after r: $ar\vartheta\theta a$ -, karapan-, $v\bar{\imath}zibii\bar{o}$, $\theta\beta ar\bar{o}zd\bar{u}m$ etc. These anaptyctic vowels were introduced during the course of transmission in order to account for the pronunciation used in the slow chanting of the texts.

A late feature, perhaps arising in Southwest Iran, is the use of epenthetic i before consonants that are followed by i, ii or \tilde{e} : aiti, $mr\bar{u}it\bar{e}$, irista-, $i\theta iiejah$ -. This epenthesis is not found before \acute{n} , \acute{n} , st, št, m, hm, but it does occur before rm: zairimiia- "house," cf. Vedic $harm^iy\acute{a}$ -; airime "quiet" beside $arma\bar{e}^o$. Anaptyxis and epenthesis may occur together: YAv. $k \Rightarrow r \Rightarrow iti$ -; OAv. $daibit\bar{a}$.

Epenthetic *u* occurs only before *ru*, *ru*: *uruθβarə*, *pouru*. It is a genuine YAv. development in the case of *-uri-* arising from older *-*urui-*: YAv. *paoiriia-* "first" from *pauriia- from older *paruiia-, cf. OAv. *paouruuiia-*; YAv. *tūiriia-* "father's brother" from *təuriia- from older *təruiia- and ultimately from Proto-Indo-Ir. *pHtruiia-, cf. Vedic pitrviya-. (On the phonological status of epenthetic *i* and *u*, see Morgenstierne, "Orthography and Sound-system," pp. 55-58 par, ix.)

There is a consistent pattern in the representation of the quantities of the vowels $a, \bar{a}, \bar{a}, \bar{a}, \bar{i}, \bar{i}, u, \bar{u}, e, \bar{e}, o, \bar{o}$ in final position: in OAv. they are always long, that is, both original a and \bar{a} are written \bar{a} , etc., while in YAv. they are always short, expect for $-\bar{o}$, $-\bar{o}$ (the YAv. final -a is always long) and in monosyllabic words. The short vowels were probably closed, the long open, as in Attic Greek. Hence in the Sasanian archetype short and long vowels were often used to indicate degrees of openness of the vowels rather than their quantities. Thus we find $v\bar{\imath}spa$ - "all" with $\bar{\imath}$ indicating a (short) open vowel: cf. Vedic viśva-. Similarly explainable are the spellings of ahura- "lord," with (long?) closed u, beside the derivative ahūiri- with (short?) open u (through dissimilation with the closed i?); note also ao from *aubeside aē from *ai.

Qualitative changes are seldom found in the case of \tilde{t} and \tilde{u} but note OAv. $\tilde{s}n\hat{s}iti$ - from *sniiti- and $dr\hat{s}guuant$ -from *druguant-. As in East Iranian dialects, Av. *sniiti- became -sniiti- uu- "living," cf. Vedic sniiti- and

cuuant- "how much, how big" from *čīuant-.

Proto-Ir. a suffered very many changes: to \bar{a} , \bar{a} , \bar{e} , e, o, \bar{o} . These came about partly due to phonological development caused by the surrounding sounds, partly due to the liturgical chanting, and partly due to dialect influence. Before final -n and -m, a always became \bar{b} . This was originally the case also in word-interior position but a was often replaced by a in this position in YAv., from where it was introduced also into OAv. Thus both OAv. and YAv. have nomah- beside manah-. Before -nh- (-ngh-) where the nasal is etymological (-nhfrom *-ns-), OAv. has only \$\tilde{z}\$ in \$s\tilde{z}\$ngha-"pronouncement," cf. Vedic śámsa-. But before -nh- where the nasal is secondary $(-\eta h$ - from *-s-), OAv. has only a e.g. in mananhā, cf. Vedic mánasā. In both cases YAv. has a: saŋha-, manaŋha. In final position *-ans became -əng in OAV. and -ā in YAv.

In YAv. ə developed further to i after i, č, j. YAv. yim beside OAv. yām; YAv. drujim, beside OAv. drujām. Postconsonantal *-iə- became first *-ii-, then YAv. -ī-, which was introduced from YAv. into OAv.: YAv. ainim, OAv. aniiām, ainīm, cf. Vedic anyām "other." Similarly *-uə- became -uu and then ū: YAv. tūm, OAv. tuuām, cf. Vedic tvām "you." Note that -aiiuə- became -ōiiu- by umlaut: YAv. ōiium from aēuua- "one;" YAv. vīdōiium from vīdaēuua- "abjuring the devils;" YAv. Harōiium beside OPers. Haraiva-. An exception is daēum (not *dōiium!) from daēuua- "devil." Proto-Av. *aiɔ, *āiɔ, *auə, and *āuə before n, m were reduced in YAv. to the disyllabic diphthongs aē, āi, ao, āu respectively: YAv. aem beside OAv. aiiām "this;" YAv. daēnā- "religion" (from *daiənā-) was introduced into OAv.

Proto-Ir. * $\bar{a}n$ became q before spirants x, θ , f, s, z, \check{s} , hi: $mq\theta ra$ - "sacred utterance," cf. Vedic $m\acute{a}ntra$ -; qsa-"party," cf. Vedic $\acute{a}m\acute{s}a$ -; mqsta "he thought," cf. Vedic $ma\acute{m}sta$: "arrowness," cf. Vedic $\acute{a}mhas$ -; $dqhi\check{s}ta$ -"most versed," cf. Vedic $d\acute{a}msisitha$ -; vas "he prevailed" (from *q anst); $sqst\bar{a}$ (2 plur. imv.) "appear," cf. Vedic $\acute{a}-ch\bar{a}ntta$; $fra\check{s}$ "forward" (from * $pr\bar{a}\eta^k\check{s}$).

In OAv. final -ah (cf. Vedic -ah from -as) became $-\bar{a}$ but it has in most cases been replaced by YAv. $-\bar{a}$. That even YAv. originally had $-\bar{a}$ (cf. Khot. $-\bar{a}$ [\bar{a}] from *-ah) is indicated by such forms as YAv. $vac\bar{a}b\bar{t}\bar{s}$ (instr. plur.) based on nom. sing. OAv. $vac\bar{a}$ (= Vedic vacah).

We often find long, that is, open (back) \bar{a} instead of closed (front) a in initial position: \bar{a} rmaiti- "right-mindedness," cf. Vedic arámati-; $k\bar{a}$ uuaii \bar{o} "princes," cf. Vedic kaváyah "seers;" sr \bar{a} uuahiieit \bar{t} "he desires fame," cf. Vedic saravasyáti; $h\bar{a}$ tam (gen. plur.) "of the existing (ones)," cf. Vedic sat \bar{a} m. Note also \bar{a} for a after i and u: vii- \bar{a} darasam "I have seen," cf. Vedic sadarsam;

vərəziiātam, nīdiiātam, višiiātā, hēmiiāsaite, paitiiāmraot, aiβii-āma-, drəguuātā, drəguuāitē (but drəguuatō), etc.

Proto-Ir. *ai usually becomes aē in open syllables (vāēdā "he knows") but ōi in closed syllables (vōistā "you know"). In final position it appears as -ōi in OAv. but as -e in YAv. The spelling -ē in OAv. is due to YAv. YAv. has -ōi only in yōi and maiôiiōi. The dat. sing. forms OAv. axtōiiōi and YAv. anumatēe point to an original *-ōiōi from Proto-Indo-Ir. *-aiai, cf. Vedic. -aye.

Proto-Ir. $a\mu$ became ao, but before final -s it usually became $\bar{b}u$ in OAv. and YAv.: $g\bar{b}u\bar{s}$, $mahii\bar{b}u\bar{s}$, $mar\partial iiao\bar{s}$. In final position - $a\mu$ became sometimes - $\mu\bar{o}$, sometimes - \bar{o} (cf. Vedic -o): OAv. $huu\bar{o}$ "yonder" (from * $ha\mu$, cf. OPers. hauv); $pr\bar{p}zuu\bar{o}$ (voc. sing.) "O straight one;" $huxratuu\bar{o}$ (voc. sing.) "O skilful one," cf. Vedic sukrato; but $mainii\bar{o}$ (voc. sing.) "O spirit," cf. Vedic manyo; $a\eta huu\bar{o}$ (loc. sing.) "in the life;" $g\bar{a}tuu\bar{o}$ "in the place;" $da\eta huu\bar{o}$ "in the land" beside $da\eta h\bar{o}$; $ha\bar{e}t\bar{o}$ "on the bridge;" $s\bar{a}t\bar{o}$ "in peace;" $vast\bar{o}$ "in the wish;" $hp\eta t\bar{o}$ "in gain," cf. Vedic $s\dot{a}nitau$.

Many changes are found in the case of Proto-Ir. \bar{a} , e.g. q: $uruuqn\bar{o}$ "souls" beside $uruu\bar{a}n\bar{o}$; in final position always qm, qn); \bar{a} : $maz\bar{a}n\bar{t} \neq m$ (acc. sing.) "great;" $m\bar{a}n\bar{t} \neq m$ (acc. sing) "moon;" e: $aiien\bar{t}$ "I shall go," cf. Vedic $ay\bar{a}ni$; zbaiiemi "I call," cf. Vedic $hvay\bar{a}mi$. Final $-\bar{a}h$ became $-\bar{a}$ (cf. Vedic. $-\bar{a}h$ from $-\bar{a}s$); $s\bar{a}sn\bar{a}$ "commandments" (by analogy also $s\bar{a}sn\bar{a}s$ -ca "and commandments").

Original ā is often shortened, as in dātaras-ca beside dātārō "creators;" -anam, gen. plur. ending with disyllabic -am, cf. Vedic and OPers. -ānām; aētaŋham, cf. Vedic etāsām: -at.haca (instead of *-āt.haca), but -āatcā in ašāatcā.

Before a vowel, $\bar{a}i$ and $\bar{a}u$ are often shortened to ai and au, a feature shared by Avestan with East Iranian dialects such as Sogdian: vaiiu- "wind," cf. Vedic $v\bar{a}y\dot{u}$ -; zaiiata "he was born," cf. Vedic $j\bar{a}yata$; $-aii\bar{a}i$, gen. sing. fem. ending, cf. Vedic $-\bar{a}yai$; -aiiai, dat. sing. fem. ending, cf. Vedic $-\bar{a}yai$; $nauu\bar{a}za$ - "boatman," cf. Vedic $n\bar{a}v\bar{a}j\dot{a}$ -; yauuant- "as great, as much," cf. Vedic $y\bar{a}vant$ -; $a\bar{y}auu\bar{a}$ "righteous," cf. Vedic $rt\bar{a}v\bar{a}$.

The consonants: (a) Semivowels. In the Sasanian archetype the semivowels i and u were always written \dot{v} and v in word-initial position. These sounds probably represent an intermediate stage in the development of initial i and u to j and b as seen in NPers. In the Indian manuscripts \dot{y} is replaced by y, whose original value was probably palatal \tilde{z} . In medial position the manuscripts have ii, uu and not y, v as earlier transcriptions seemed to indicate, (e.g., vayu- for vaiiu-). The graphs ii and uu are to be interpreted phonetically as ii and uu: friia-"dear," cf. Vedic priyá-; druua-"firm," cf. Vedic dhruvá-. The fact that jiia "bowstring" and kuua "where" were disyllabic in YAv., cf. Vedic $j^i y \hat{a}$ and $k^{\mu} v \hat{a}$ respectively, is proved by their being written with a short final vowel, since the final vowel of monosyllables was regularly written long in YAv. ii and uu may have developed in West Iran under the influence of Old Persian, where every postconsonantal i and u became iy and uv

respectively: Av. aniia- (from *ania-, cf. Vedic anyá-) like OPers. aniya-; Av. hauruua- (from *harua-, cf. Vedic sárva-) like OPers. haruva-. Even intervocalic i and u are sometimes written iv and uv in OPers. Thus Av. dāraiia- and bauuaiti correspond to OPers. adāraiya and bauvatiy. Note too that intervocalic ii and uu may even be etymologically justified: OAv. āiiāt from *āiiāt, cf. Vedic ivāt, Av. sraiiah- "more excellent," cf. Vedic śréyas- (from Proto-Indo-Ir. *śraiHias-); gauuāstriia- "belonging to the cattle pasture" from *gau-uāstriia-. In the manuscripts the sequences -iiuu-(from *-iuu-) and -uuii- (from *-uii) are usually simplified to -iuu- and -uii- or else expanded to -iiauu- and -uuaii-, but the original spellings are sometimes still attested: mańiiuua, that is, *mańiiuua, from *mańi*uah "of the two (evil) spirits;" paouruuiia-, that is, *paouruuiia-, from *pauruiia- "first," cf. OPers. paruviya-.

Internal į was lost in YAv. before e: YAv. vahehī-(fem.) "the better," from *μαhiehī-, cf. Vedic vásyasī-; -ahe, gen. sing. masc. ending, cf. Vedic -asya; kaine "girl," cf. Vedic kaniyā; bāzuβe "with both arms," from *bāzuβia, cf. Vedic bāhúbhyām; YAv. -ēe, dat. sing. ending, cf. Vedic -aye.

A late but consistent change is that of -uue (from earlier *-uuai and *-uai) to -uiie: OAv. mruiiē, YAv. mruiie "I say," cf. Vedic bruve; OAv. vīduiiē "to know" from *uiduai.

In some cases Proto-Ir. i and μ combine with a preceding consonant. Proto-Indo-Ir. * $\check{c}i$ became * $\check{s}i$ in original OAv. and then $\check{s}ii$ in the Sasanian archetype. In original YAv. it became \check{s} but is mostly written \check{s} or \check{s} in the manuscripts. Thus we have: OAv. $\check{s}ii\bar{a}ta$ - beside YAv. $\check{s}\bar{a}to$ (mostly written $\check{s}ato$ or $\check{s}ato$).

Proto-Ir. hi- from Proto-Indo-Ir. -si- remained unchanged in original OAv. but became -hii- in the Sasanian archetype. After the change of h to ŋh, Proto-Ir. -hi developed in original YAv. to -ŋh- from *-ŋhi-. Thus we have: OAv. vahiiō beside YAv. vaṅhō (wrongly written vaŋhō), cf. Vedic vásyaḥ "better." In the same way Proto-Ir. -hu- (from Proto-Indo-Ir. -su-) developed into OAv. -huu- (from -hu-) and original YAv. -ŋ h- (often written -ŋuh-or-ŋh-in the MSS): OAv. gūšahuuā; YAv. pərəsaŋha (often written pərəsaŋuha, pərəsaŋha). Initially *hu- became in Av. x-: x-afna- "sleep," cf. Vedic svápna-. On x- see also under (f) below.

After certain consonants Proto-Ir. u underwent further changes. Proto-Ir. $\dot{s}u$ became sp in Avestan and Median: aspa- "horse," cf. Vedic $\dot{a}\dot{s}va$ -. Proto-Ir. $\dot{z}u$ became zb in Av. and Median: zbaiia- "to call," cf. Vedic hvaya-, from Proto-Indo-Ir. * j^huaia -. Proto-Ir. θu became $\theta \beta$ in Av.: $ca\theta \beta \bar{a}r\bar{o}$ "four," cf. Vedic $catv \bar{a}rah$, Sogd. and Parth. ctf". Proto-Ir. δu became in YAv. $\delta \beta$ ($\partial r \partial \delta \beta a$ - "upright" beside $\partial r \partial t u$ - from * $\partial r \partial t u$ - but initial * ∂u - became OAv. $\partial t u$ - (∂u - ibi- and by analogy ∂u - iba- From initial * ∂u - YAv. has also ∂u - perhaps by dissimilation; ∂u - "second" beside OAv. ∂u - ∂u - daibitiia-, cf. Vedic ∂u - via ∂u - via

Initial *ur- was metathesized to *ru- and written

uruu- in Av.: uruuata- "commandment," ef. Vedic vratá-.

(b) Liquids (only r).

Consonantal r and original syllabic *r fell together in Avestan, syllabic *r becoming ∂r . After t the ∂ was usually dropped: ātrām (acc. sing.) "fire" from *ātərəm; strāš (acc. plur.) "stars" from *stərāš; striia- "to sin" from *stəria-, where the a must have been lost before i-epenthesis could take place. Immediately following the Proto-Indo-Ir. accent rk became hrk and rp became hrp: mahrka- "destruction," cf. Vedic marka-; vəhrka- "wolf," cf. Vedic vrka-; kəhrpəm "body" from *krpam. Instead of the expected *hrt from *rt we find \(\xi \): mașiia- "man," cf. Vedic mártiya-; aməșa- "immortal," cf. Vedic amrta-. From the third century A.D. Mid. Pers. loanwords from Av. are attested which have hr/hl for Av. §: Mid. Pers. 'hlw [ahlaw] from Av. ašauua. § will accordingly have been pronounced originally as a voiceless I-like lateral fricative, which, at any rate in the post-Sasanian period, merged with š.

(c) Nasals.

On the whole the nasals n and m remained unchanged in Av., but they are regularly written n before t, d, k, g, c, j, b. The letter n probably represents a uvular nasal that was articulated just by lowering the soft palate. It is indicated in this article by N in reconstructions. The same sound no doubt occurred in OPers. but it was not written: Av. antarə "inside" but OPers. a-ta-ra $[a^n tar]$. The dorsal nasal was, however, retained in YAv. paŋtaŋhum "a fifth" from *paŋktahuəm. An unusual metathesis is attested by YAv. m-rəp-ante "he destroys" for *mərəŋte from *mrnktai. Proto-Indo-Ir. ns before \tilde{a} resulted in Av. n(g)h: YAv. s-anha-, OAv. s-angha-, cf. Vedic s-ámsa-.

For discussion of Av. -aŋha-, -aṅha-, aŋ ha, and -aṅhi- see above under (a) and below under (f).

Before i, n was palatalized to n but in the manuscripts n is usually replaced by n: aniia, cf. Vedic anya. The manuscripts often have m instead of hm, which makes it probable that m was a voiceless m. Final -m is found for -n when the syllable in question had a labial initial: OAv. $d\bar{a}mam$, $n\bar{a}mam$: YAv. $uru\theta\beta am$, $\theta rizafm$, asam (from *asam).

Phonetically Av. q was probably nasalized \bar{o} . Not only did it develop from Proto-Indo-Ir. $\bar{a}n$ ($\bar{a}N$) before s and s as seen above on the vowels but it occurs also in OAv. ∂rqs from *- ∂rds from older *- ∂rds from older *- ∂rds from ∂rds from older *- ∂rds from *mərəNsiāt from older * ∂rds from *mərəNsiāt from older * ∂rds from *- ∂rds and *- ∂rds from *- ∂rds and *- ∂rds from *- ∂rds and *- ∂rds from *- ∂rds f

(d) Occlusives.

The Proto-Indo-Ir. occlusives p, t, k, became f, θ , x in Proto-Ir. before a consonant. Proto-Indo-Ir. p^h , t^h , k^h also became f, θ , x before a vowel. However, Av. shows certain peculiarities. After s and \check{s} it has only p, t, k. Moreover, Av. has pt instead of the expected *ft; $f\delta$ and

 $x\delta$ for expected * $f\theta$ and * $x\theta$; $\acute{s}i$ and $\acute{s}e$ for expected *xi and *xia \acute{a} i in ha $\acute{s}i$ and ha $\acute{s}e$ corresponding to Vedic sákhi and sákhve.

It is characteristic of OAv. that it has preserved b, d, gfrom Proto-Indo-Ir. b, d, g and b^h , d^h , g^h . In YAv., b, d, gare retained only in initial position while in medial position they were replaced by the voiced fricatives β , δ , g except after a nasal or a sibilant. Thus, OAv. dugədar-"daughter" contrasts with YAv. duybar-. There are, however, a number of exceptions. Note OAv. $-\beta \tilde{z}$ - and yz-, YAv. yz-, yzm-, and yzm-. Proto-Ir. -dn- became -n-: OAv. and YAv. būna- "bottom," cf. Vedic budhná-. Proto-Ir. dm- was retained in OAv. but became nmin YAv.: OAv. dəmāna- "house" beside YAv. nmāna-. In YAv., γ was lost before u and u: Mourum, cf. OPers. Margum; raom, cf. Vedic raghum; druuant- from *druyuant-, cf. OAv. drəguuant-. In YAv. driyūm "pauper," the y was restored by analogy with other forms of the paradigm such as gen. sing. driyaoš.

The YAv. change of β to u is dialectal, perhaps Arachosian; it may also have belonged to the colloquial language. Examples are: gouruuaiia- "to seize" from *gərβāia-, cf. Vedic grbhāyá-; the prep. auui "to," which is also written aoui, aoi, from *a\beta i contrasting with ai\beta iin nominal compounds, cf. OAv. aibī and Vedic abhi; the adi, uuaiia, uuaēm "on both sides," cf. Vedic ubhaya-; uua "both," cf. Vedic ubhā (masc. dual); uiie from *uue, cf. Vedic ubhé (neuter dual); nəruiiō "to the men" beside nərəbiiō, cf. Vedic nṛbhyaḥ; aṣauuaoiiō "to the righteous" from *ašauaβiō. In some cases the spellings seem to be arbitrary: YAv. māuuōiia "to me" from *mauia from older *maßia, cf. OAv. maibiiā; huuāuuōiia "to (your)self" from *huuauia from older *huuaβia, cf. original *-ui- in hāuuōiia (inst. sing.) "with the left (hand)" from *haujā, cf. Vedic savyā.

The occasional replacement of δ by θ appears also to be dialectal, perhaps West Iranian. In the athematic $da\delta\bar{a}iti$ "he puts; he gives," cf. Vedic $dad(h)\bar{a}ti$, δ is retained but in the thematic new formation $da\theta aiti$ earlier δ has been replaced by θ . The gen. sing. of $da\delta uu\bar{a}$ "creator" is $da\theta u\bar{s}\bar{o}$, which is confirmed by dathousa (in Greek script) in the Cappadocian calendar. Note also h from θ in Parth. dh-, NPers. dah- "to give." θ is attested also in East Iranian in Khot. $par\bar{a}th$ - "to sell" from * $par\bar{a}$ - $da\theta a$ -, cf. Av. $para.da\theta a$ -.

Proto-Indo-Ir. t was lost before s: Av. masiia- "fish," cf. Vedic $m\acute{a}tsya$ -. Similarly, Av. has st from *- t^st - from t/d+t as in vista- "found" from * $uid^st\acute{a}$ -, cf. Vedic $vitt\acute{a}$ - and zd from *- d^zd^h - from d^h+t as in varazda- "grown" from * $urd^zd^h\acute{a}$ -, cf. Vedic $vrddh\acute{a}$ -.

Final -t was lost after n, probably already in Proto-Indo-Ir., and also after s. Examples are: YAv. ās "he was" from *āst; OAv. cinas "she assigns" with -s from *-st; vas "it prevailed" from *vān-s-t; OAv. sās "it seemed" from *sśānd-s-t. However, both -st and -št are also found: OAv. urūraost "he wailed (?)" from *ruraudst; YAv. nāist "he cursed" from *nāid-s-t; OAv. vaxšt "he made grow," cōišt "he assigned," tāšt "he shaped." In all other cases -t became -t (probably an implosive): YAv. barat OAv. cōrət from *čart; OAv.

yaogət "he harnessed" from *jaugd (?) from older *jaukt. The graph -gət may represent an implosive -k/-g in YAv. paragət "apart from," ef. Vedic párāk; YAv. aṣiš.hāgət "following Aṣi;" OAv. paitiiaogət "responding."

(e) Affricates.

The palatal affricates of Proto-Indo-Ir. \check{c} , j, j^h , which in Vedic became c, j, h, survived in Av. as c, j, j. On the development of Proto-Indo-Ir $*\check{c}_i$ to OAv. $\check{s}ii$ and YAv. \check{s} see above on the vowels. The YAv. change of j to the palatal $*\check{z}$, always written \check{z} , is dialectal, perhaps Arachosian: $dru\check{z}a$ -"to deceive" from *drujia-, cf. OAv. a-drujiiant-; $sna\check{e}\check{z}a$ - "to snow;" $dra\check{z}a$ - "to hold;" $da\check{z}a$ -"to burn;" $ba\check{z}a$ - "to distribute;" $na\check{e}ni\check{z}aiti$ "he washes." It occurs very rarely in nouns: $a\check{z}i$ - "snake;" $ti\check{z}i$ -0 "sharp;" $sna\check{e}\check{z}ana$ - "slavering;" a- $dru\check{z}am$ (gen. plur.) "of the deceitless" (otherwise only druj-).

The primary palatal affricates of Proto-Indo-Ir., namely \dot{c} , \dot{j} and \dot{j}^h from Proto-IE. \hat{k} , \hat{g} , \hat{g}^h , developed via Proto-Ir. \dot{s} , \dot{z} , \dot{z} to Av. s, z, z corresponding to Vedic \dot{s} , \dot{j} , and h respectively: Av. satəm "hundred," cf. Vedic śatám; zaoša- "pleasure," cf. Vedic jósa-; zaotar-"priest," cf. Vedic hotár-. Before t, d^h , and b^h , ć and j developed already in Proto-Indo-Ir. to s and z respectively: OAv. vaštī "he wishes" beside vasəmī "I wish," cf. Vedic vásti beside vásmi, OAv. važdra- "pulling" from vaz- "to pull," cf. Vedic vodhár- "draught (i.e., pulling) animal" from vah-; OAv. and YAv. vīžibiiō, abl. plur. from vīs- "tribe," cf. Vedic vidbhyáh from viś-. In initial position $\dot{z}n$ - became $\dot{z}n$ - in YAv. (= OPers. xšn-): žnātar- "knower," cf. Vedic jñātar- "knower," OPers. xšnā- "to know;" žnu- "knee," cf. Vedic jñu-0. Internally both sn and zn became sn: YAv. frasna-"question," cf. Vedic praśná-; YAv. baršna "in height, depth" (= OPers. baršnā) from *barźnā from older * $b^harj^hn\bar{a}$. But sn is found instead of sn in some cases due to the influence of other forms: OAv. vasnā "according to wish" (= OPers. $vašn\bar{a}$) from vas-; OAv. and YAv. yasna- "veneration" (cf. Vedic yajñá-), from yaz-.

(f) Sibilants.

Proto-Indo-Ir. s and z were maintained in Av. before n and occlusives, and after t and d, which were lost in that position as noted above. Thus we find: YAv. snāuuarə "sinew," cf. Vedic snāvan-; asti "he is," cf. Vedic asti; masiia- "fish," cf. Vedic mátsya-; YAv. mazga-"marrow" from Proto-IE. mozgho-; YAv. aspasca "and the horse," cf. Vedic áśvaś-ca; OAv. zdī (2 sing. imv.) "be," cf. Vedic edhi, from Indo-Ir. azdhī; vərəzda-"grown" from *urdzdhā-, cf. Vedic vṛddhā-.

After Proto-Indo-Ir. $\tilde{t}(i)$, $\tilde{u}(u)$, r(r), $k/g/g^h$, and $\hat{c}/j/j^h$ (from Proto-IE. $\hat{k}/\hat{g}/\hat{g}^h$), Proto-Indo-Ir. s and z became \tilde{s} and \tilde{z} : Av. $v\tilde{s}sa$ - "poison," cf. Vedic $vis\dot{a}$ -; $m\tilde{z}da$ -

"reward," cf. Vedic mīdhá-; zušta- "loved," cf. Vedic jūṣṭa-; aršti- "spear," cf. Vedic ṛṣṭi-; uxšan- "bull," cf. Vedic ukṣán-; OAv. aoyžā "you say" from *augh-sa; vašī "you wish," cf. Vedic vakṣi, from Proto-IE. uek-si; tašan- "fashioner," cf. Vedic tákṣan-, from Proto-IE. ték pon-. In Proto-Ir. this development took place also in clusters with labials. Thus Av. has fš from *ps and *pś: Av. drafša- "banner," cf. Vedic drapsá-; fšu- from *pśu- to pasu- "cattle." Similarly Av. has βž from *bzh: diβža- "to deceive," cf. Vedic dipsa-, from Proto-Indo-Ir. dhibzha-; vaβžaka- "wasp" from *uabzha- from Proto-IE. uobhso-.

In all other positions Proto-Indo-Ir. s became Proto-Ir. h. This h was kept initially before a vowel: hafta "seven," cf. Vedic saptá. But *hi became xii- in OAv.: xiiāt "he should be," cf. YAv.; hiiāt, Vedic svāt; and *hu became x in both OAv. and YAv.: x afna- "sleep," cf. Vedic svápna-. Medial h was unchanged only before i and u: ahī "you are;" ahura- "lord." In OAv. medial h remained unchanged also before i and u: OAv. ahiiā, cf. Vedic ásya; gūšahuuā with the ending -ahuuā corresponding to Vedic -asva. In the sequence aha, h probably became voiced and resulted in ph: aphat, cf. Vedic ásat; and n for a vector a vecto significant is shown by the fact that it was extended from the gen. sing. vaŋhāuš from *yahauš (= Vedic vásoh) to the nom. sing. masc. vanhuš although it is not found in the neuter $voh\bar{u}$ or when m or n follow as in $voh\bar{u}m$ and vohungm. In medial position hi and hu developed in YAv. to ηh and ηh : see (a) above. (See also Hoffmann, Aufsätze II, pp. 595-96).

In OAv. the gen. sing. ending -ahiiā is always written with \acute{x} before enclitic -cā "and:" -a $\acute{x}ii\bar{a}$ -cā. This pronunciation may reflect the secondary accentuation *ahiā-ca. - $\acute{x}ii$ - is also found elsewhere for -hi-: OAv. da $\acute{x}ii\bar{a}u\check{s}$ "of the land" but YAv. da $\acute{y}\bar{a}u\check{s}$; both OAv. and YAv. da $\acute{x}ii\bar{u}m$ (acc. sing.) and da $\acute{x}iiunam$ (gen. plur.).

The use of -x'- for internal -hu- in YAv. Harax'aitī"Arachosia" and OAv. nəmax'aitī- "respectful" may be dialectal, perhaps Arachosian. The same applies to the use of x' for unaccented syllabic huu- in the following: $X'\bar{a}str\bar{a}$ -, name of an Archosian river, from *hu-uāstrā-; OAv. $x'\bar{a}\theta ra$ - "welfare" from *hu-ā θra -, cf. duž-ā θra - "discomfort;" $x'\bar{o}ng$ (gen. sing.) from *hu- θ 0 to huuarə "sun," cf. Vedic suvár; $x'a\bar{e}ta$ - "easy to walk along" from *hu-ā-ita-; $x'\bar{t}ti$ - "easy walking." (See also Hoffmann, "Das Avesta in der Persis," pp. 92-93.)

Proto-Ir. hm is retained internally as in ahmi "I am" but the h is lost in initial position: mahi "we are," cf. Vedic smasi. Proto-Indo-Ir. sr appears to have become θr in YAv. in initial position: $\theta raot\bar{o}.st\bar{a}c$ - "flowing in rivers," from *srautas- $t\bar{a}\check{c}$ -, cf. Vedic $sr\acute{o}tas$ - but OPers. rautah-. Medially hr became gr in YAv.: agra- "evil," cf. Vedic $asr\acute{a}$ - "painful;" dagra- "knowing," cf. Vedic $dasr\acute{a}$ -. These forms were introduced from YAv. into OAv., where one also finds the spellings aggra- and daggra-.

For the loss of final -h see above on the vowels.

Bibliography: Chr. Bartholomae, in Geiger and Kuhn, Grundr. Ir. Phil I/I, pp. 1-48,

152-88. W. B. Henning, "The Disintegration of the Avestic Studies," TPS, 1942, pp. 40-56. London, 1944 (Selected Papers II, Acta Iranica 15, Leiden, 1977, pp. 151-67). K. Hoffmann, "Altiranisch," in HO IV, 1, Leiden and Cologne, 1958, pp. 1-19 (Aufsätze I, pp. 58-76). Idem, "Das Avesta in der Persis," in J. Harmatta, ed., Prolegomena to the Sources on the History of Pre-Islamic Central Asia, Budapest, 1979, pp. 89-93. Idem, Aufsätze zur Indoiranistik I-II, Wiesbaden, 1975-76. G. Morgenstierne, "Orthography and Sound-system of the Avesta," NTS 12, 1942, pp. 30-78 (Irano-Dardica, Wiesbaden, 1973, pp. 31-79). (This was the only comprehensive phonetic and phonemic analysis of Avestan until 1979.) H. Reichelt, Awestisches Heidelberg, 1909, pp. 28-89. Elementarbuch, S. N. Sokolov, "Yazyk Avesty," in V. J. Abaev, ed., Osnovy iranskogo vazykoznaniya I: Drevneiranskie vazyki, Moscow, 1979, pp. 136-60. G. Windfuhr, "Diacritic and Distinctive Features in Avestan," JAOS 91, 1971, pp. 104-24. Idem, "Some Avestan Rules and Their Signs," ibid., 92, 1972, pp. 52-59. See also J. Duchesne-Guillemin, Kratylos 7, 1962, pp. 4-11. J. Kellens, ibid., 16, 1971, pp. 4-6; 18, 1973, p. 1.

(K. HOFFMANN)

iii. THE GRAMMAR OF AVESTAN

The morphology of Avestan nouns, adjectives, pronouns, and verbs is, like that of the closely related Old Persian, inherited from Proto-Indo-European via Proto-Indo-Iranian (Proto-Aryan), and agrees largely with that of Vedic, the oldest known form of Indo-Aryan. The interpretation of the transmitted Avestan texts presents in many cases considerable difficulty for various reasons both with respect to their contexts and their grammar. Accordingly, systematic comparison with Vedic is of much assistance in determining and explaining Avestan grammatical forms.

Old Avestan (OAv.) or Gathic Avestan, the language of Zarathustra, the founder of the Zoroastrian religion, is particularly archaic. Young Avestan (YAv.) is the language of the later texts, the earliest of which may date from the sixth century B.C. It already shows numerous innovations when compared with OAv.

A particular difficulty of Avestan is caused by the fact that many sound changes took place which obscure the original structure of the forms. Note that words ending in $-\bar{a}$, $-\bar{i}$, $-\bar{u}$, $-\bar{e}$ are OAv. while those ending in -a, -i, -u -e are YAv. Forms that are otherwise identical in OAv. and YAv. are indicated by $-\bar{a}$, $-\bar{i}$, $-\bar{u}$, $-\bar{e}$. Apart from forms with these endings, forms that are common to both OAv. and YAv. are not specified.

1. Nominal inflection.

Like Vedic and Proto-IE., Avestan distinguishes three genders: masculine, feminine, and neuter. Words designating male and female beings are masculine and feminine respectively, but also many words that designate inanimate objects and concepts are masculine or feminine and not neuter as might be expected. Avestan

has three numbers: singular, dual, and plural. The dual is used to refer to two persons or objects. Avestan has eight cases: nominative for the subject, accusative for the direct object, dative for the indirect object, genitive to indicate possession or relation, instrumental to indicate means or association, ablative to indicate separation, locative to indicate location, and vocative used in addressing a person, less commonly a thing.

The basis of the nominal inflection is the noun stem, which not only conveys the lexical meaning but in most cases also the gender. In general, inflectional categories are marked by endings, most of which indicate at the same time number, case, and, in part, gender. Thus a particular ending may be characteristic of the genitive sing. masc. Neuter nouns are inflected like masc. nouns except that they have different endings in the nom. and acc. for all three numbers. The nom. and acc. of neuter nouns are always identical. Some noun stems remain unchanged throughout the paradigm whereas others have different ablaut grades according to the case.

The paradigm followed by a noun or adjective is usually determined by the final sound of its stem. Thus, there are masculines and neuters in -a-, feminines in $-\bar{a}$ -, $-\bar{\iota}$ -, $-\bar{u}$ -, masculines and feminines in -i-, -u-, masculines in -n- and -r-, neuters in -man- and -ah-, and words of all three genders ending in consonants (e.g., -p-, -t-, -k-, -g-, -s-).

The addition of the case ending to the final sound of the stem often involves special sound changes. Thus, the original Proto-IE. ending of the nom. sing. masc. and fem. of most noun stems is -s, and this -s is retained in the case of -a- stems before - $c\bar{a}$ "and" (in sandhi), but otherwise -as developed via -ah to - \bar{o} . After - \bar{i} -, - \bar{u} - and some consonants, -s became -s, e.g., gairis "mountain," aphus "life," $v\bar{a}x\bar{s}$ "voice" (< * $y\bar{a}k$ + s).

a-stems. The thematic stems in -a- are particularly numerous. Examples are masc. nouns: ahura- "lord," maṣ̃iia "mortal," yasna- "worship," vīra- "man," zasta- "hand;" neuter nouns: aṣ̄a- "truth," uxδa- "word," xšaθra- "rule," śiiaoθna "action;" and adjectives: aka- "bad," aniia- "other," hauruua- "entire."

The masc. a-stem inflection is as follows. Sing.: nom. ahurō, yasnas-ca;—acc. ahurəm (maṣīm < *maṣiiəm; haurum < *hauruəm),—inst. ahurā;—dat. ahurāi, OAv. ahurāi.ā; abl. yasnāt, yasnāt-ca, -at haca;—gen. OAv. ahurahitā, -axiiā-cā, YAv. ahurahe;—loc. yesnē (zastaiia < *-ai + ā); OAv. ōi;—voc. ahurā.—Dual: nom. ahurā;—inst./dat./abl. ahuraēibiia;—gen. vīraitā;—loc. OAv. zastaitō.—Plur.: nom. maṣiiā. maṣiiāŋhō, ahura-ca;—acc. OAv. maṣiiāng, maṣiiās-ca, YAv. -a/-ō (zastō);—inst. zastāiš;—dat./abl. OAv. -ōibiiō, YAv. -aēibiiō;—gen. yasnanam;—loc. maṣiiaēṣū, YAv. -aēśuua (< *-aiṣu + ā);—voc. OAv. ahurāŋhō.

Neuter a-stem inflection differs from masc. a-stem inflection only in having special forms in the nom./acc., e.g. sing. $x\bar{s}a\theta r \sigma m$ "rule;" dual OAv. $\dot{s}iiao\theta n\bar{o}i$ "the two actions;" plur. $ux\delta\bar{a}$ "words."

 \bar{a} - and \bar{i} -stems. The inflection of fem. \bar{a} -stem words, e.g., $ga\bar{e}\theta\bar{a}$ - "living being," $da\bar{e}n\bar{a}$ - "religion," and the inflection of fem. \bar{i} -stem words, e.g., $n\bar{a}ir\bar{i}$ - "woman,"

aṣaonī- "righteous" (fem. adjective from *aṣauuan*-) are largely parallel.

The fem. ā-and ī-stem inflection is as follows. Sing.: nom. daēnā, nāirī;—acc. daēnam, aṣaonīm;—inst. daēnā, daēnaiiā,-iiā; dat. daēnaiiāi, aṣaoniiāi;—abl. YAv.-aiiāt, YAv.-iiāt;—gen. daēnaiiā, nāiriiā;—loc. grīuuaiia "on the neck;"—voc. daēne, sūra, aṣaoni.—Plur.: nom./acc./voc. gaēθā, aṣaoniš;—inst. gaēθābīš;—dat./abl. gaēθābīiō, aṣaonibiiō;—gen. gaēθanam. aṣaoninam;—loc. gaēθāhu, gaēθāhuua, -išu, -išuua.

i- and u-stems. Similarly formed are the paradigms of masc. and fem. stems ending in -i- (e.g., aši- "reward," axti- "pain," gairi- "mountain," paiti- "master") and in -u- (e.g., aŋhu- "life," xratu- "mental vigor," daxiiu-/daýhu- "land, country," mainiiu- "spirit," vaŋhu-/vohu- "good"). The stem final shows the ablaut grades -i-, -ai-, -āi- and -u-, -au-, -āu- respectively.

The *i*- and *u*-stems inflect as follows. Sing.: nom. $a ilde{s} ilde{i} ilde{s} ilde{s$

The nom./acc. of neuter stems in -i- and -u- has in all three genders the endings $-\tilde{t}$ and $-\tilde{u}$ respectively.

The only *i*-stem word that is declined irregularly is *paiti*- in the sense of "husband," which in the dat. sing. has the ending -*i*-a*i* instead of -a*i*-a*i*: YAv. $pai\theta iia\bar{e}$ -ca, $pai\theta e$ (Vedic $p\acute{a}tye$). Several *u*-stem words have exceptional forms: nom. sing. OAv. $dar \circ g\bar{o}.b\bar{a}z\bar{a}u\check{s}$ "longarmed;" inst. sing. $xra\theta\beta\bar{a}$ (Vedic $kr\acute{a}tv\bar{a}$); dat. sing. $xra\theta\beta e$ (Vedic $kr\acute{a}tve$), OAv. $a\eta huii\bar{e}$, YAv. $a\eta^*he$ (<*ahu-a*i*); loc. sing. $da\mathring{\eta}huu\ddot{o}$, $da\mathring{\eta}hauua$ (<*dahiau + \bar{a} , cf. Vedic $d\acute{a}syav$ -i) reflecting the ending *-au (+ \bar{a}).

Root nouns, etc. A large group of masc. and fem. nouns are monosyllabic "root nouns" (that is, nouns whose stem consists of the root alone), and other nouns, not all monosyllabic, that end in $-\bar{a}$, $-\bar{i}$, $-\bar{u}$ -(e.g., $x\bar{a}$ - "source," $\partial r\partial z - \bar{j}\bar{i}$ - "right-living," $\partial r\partial z - \bar{i}$ - "body") or in a consonant (except -n- and -r-). The case endings are the same in almost all paradigms. As mentioned above, the original ending -s of the nom. sing. appears in various forms: $-\bar{a} + s > -\bar{a}h > Av$. $-\bar{a}$ ($ra\partial a\bar{e}$ - $\bar{s}t\bar{a}$ "charioteer"); $-\bar{i} + s$, $-\bar{u} + s > Av$. $-\bar{i}\bar{s}$, $-\bar{u}\bar{s}$ ($\partial r\partial z - \bar{j}\bar{s}$, $\partial r\partial z - \bar{j}\bar{s}$

The other endings of this group are: Sing.: acc. -əm (āpəm, vācəm), -im (drujim);—inst. -ā (visa = Vedic visā);—dat. OAv. -ōi, -ē, YAv. -ē = *-ai (vīse = Vedic visé);—abl. (OAv. = gen.), YAv. -at (vīsat);—gen. -ō < *-ah < *-as (vīsō = Vedic visáh);—loc. -ī, -iia < *-i + ā (vīsi, vīsiia; Vedic visi).—Dual: nom./acc. -ā (ratu-

friia "delighting the Ratus");—inst./dat./abl. -biiā (vayžibiia);—gen./loc. -å (amərətātå).—Plur.: nom. -ō <*-ah <*-as < Proto-IE. *-es (āpō);—acc. -ō < Proto-IE. *ns (vīsō);—inst. -biš (vayžibis);—dat./abl. -biiō (vīžibiiō);—gen. -am (vīsam);—loc. -hu/-šu < Proto-IE. *-su (nafšu "among the grandsons" < *napt-su).

In a number of paradigms the noun stem shows ablaut. The "strong" cases are the sing. nom., acc., and loc.; the dual nom.-acc.; and the plur. nom. The remaining cases are "weak," that is, they show zero grade or a short vowel in the stem. Thus, among the root nouns, we find nom. sing. āfš, vāxš; acc. sing. āpəm, vācim, but inst. sing. apa, vaca.

Ablaut is particulary well preserved in the case of the possessive suffixes *-uant-/*-mant- "having," which in the "week" cases appear as *-uat-/*-mat- (< Proto-IE. *-unt-/*-mnt-). Thus, OAv. has acc. sing. draguuantam but gen. sing. drəguuatō from drəguuant- "deceitful." The same ablaut is found in the case of the participles of athematic temporal stems (*-ant-: *-at-) and in the case of the adjective bərəzant-/bərəzat- "high." The nom. sing. masc. takes various forms. The participles have-as in OAv. (<*-ant-s: pərəsas "asking," has "being") but usually -ō in YAv. (pərəsō, bərəzō), only rarely -a (ha "being"). The expected form *-uas/*-mas (< *-uant-s *-mant-s) is attested only in OAv. θβāuuas "like you" and in YAv. cuuqs "how big" ($<*c\bar{\imath}$ -uant-s). Elsewhere it is replaced by *- $uu\ddot{a}/*-m\ddot{a}$ (< *- $u\bar{a}h/*-m\bar{a}h$): OAv. drəguuā, YAv. druuå "deceitful" (<*druguāh); YAv. xratumå "having mental vigor."

Stems in -an- and -ar-. Masc. and fem. stems in -an-(-man-, -uan-) and in -ar- (-tar-) form the nom. sing in $-\bar{a}$ (YAv. -a) < Proto-IE. * $-\bar{e}/*-\bar{o}$ with loss of the final consonant, e.g., tašā "carpenter" (Vedic táksā, Greek téktōn); OAv. ptā, YAv. pita "father" (Vedic pitā, Greek pater). In the other "strong" cases we find both -an-, -ar- (< Proto-IE. *-en-, *-er-) and - \bar{a} n-, - \bar{a} r-(< Proto-IE. *-on-, *-or-), e.g., OAv. tašānəm (Vedic táksāṇam, Greek téktona); OAv. patarəm, YAv. pitarəm (Vedic pitáram, Greek patéra). In the "weak" cases the stem ends in simple -n-, -r- before an ending beginning with a vowel but in -a- (< Proto-IE. *- η -), - ∂ r-(< Proto-IE. *-r-) before an ending beginning with a consonant, e.g., dat. sing. tašne (Vedic táksne); OAv. ašāunē (Vedic rtāvne) "to the righteous one;" OAv. fəδrōi, OAv., YAv. piθrĕ (Vedic pitré);—dat. plur. ašauuabii \bar{o} (with -uabii \bar{o} < *-un-b^hios); YAv. ptərəbii \bar{o} (Vedic pitřbhyah). The rare gen. sing. YAv. -arš (<-ṛ-š) corresponds to Vedic -ur: zaotarš "of the sacrificer" = Vedic hótur.

Neuter r-stems are well attested in Avestan in the nom.-acc. sing. with the ending-arə, e.g., aiiarə "day" Vedic áhar), karšuuarə "continent," yākarə "liver" (Vedic vákrt, Greek hēpar), vadarə "weapon" (Vedic vádhar). The remaining cases were formed from an nstem in Proto-IE. and Proto-Aryan. Only a few such forms are attested in Avestan, e.g., OAv. rāzarə "directive" has n-stem forms in the inst. sing. (rāšnā), gen. sing. (rāzāng), and gen. plur. (rāšnam); huuara "sun" (Vedic súvar) contrasts with gen. sing. OAv. x ɔ̄ng (disyllabic, <*huuənh), YAv. hū (<*huuū<*huuō < *huuəŋh); YAv. aiiarə "day" contrasts with gen. sing. aiiqn (<*aiəŋh); *azar "day" (Vedic áhar) contrasts with dat. sing. asne (Vedic áhne) and gen. plur. asnam (Vedic áhnām). In the nom.-acc. plur. we find both -ārə and -an, -\(\bar{\pi}\)ni, e.g., OAv. aii\(\bar{a}\)r\(\ta\) 'days," YAv. aii\(\alpha\)n (cf. Vedic áhāni).

h-stems. Neuter h-stem words with -ah-<*-as- have in the nom.-acc. sing. the ending $-\bar{o}<*-ah$, e.g., $man\bar{o}$ "thought" (Vedic $m\acute{a}nah$, Greek $m\acute{e}nos$). Before endings beginning with a vowel, -ah- usually becomes $-a\eta h$ -, e.g., inst. sing. $mana\eta h\bar{a}$, dat. sing. $mana\eta he$, gen. sing. $mana\eta h\bar{o}$. Noteworthy are: nom.-acc. plur. OAv. $man\ddot{a}$ with $-\ddot{a}<*-\bar{a}s$, inst. YAv. $man\bar{o}bi\breve{s}$, and loc. plur. YAv. azahu "in distresses" (Vedic $\acute{a}mhasu$). When ah-stems are used as masculines, e.g., in the case of the comparative suffix -iah-, the nom. sing. ends in $-\ddot{a}<*\bar{a}h$, e.g., OAv. $va\acute{x}ii\ddot{a}$, YAv. $na\acute{\eta}h\ddot{a}<*uahi\bar{a}h$ "the better one." Contrast the neuter sing. OAv. $vahii\bar{o}$, YAv. $va\acute{\eta}h\bar{o}$, Vedic $v\acute{a}syah$.

The suffix -uāh- of the perfect participle active takes the form -uš- in the "weak" cases. Sing.: nom. masc. OAv. vīduuå "knowing" (cf. Vedic vidvān)—acc. YAv. vīδuuåŋhəm (Vedic vidvāmsam);—dat. OAv. vīdušē (Vedic vidúṣe);—gen. OAv. vīdušō (Vedic vidúṣaḥ).—Plur.: nom. YAv. vīδuuåŋhō (Vedic vidvāmsah).

Irregular nouns. For historical reasons a number of words are inflected irregularly. The most important are: Mazdā- (Ahura-) "the Wise (Lord)." Voc. Mazdā, nom. Mazdā, acc. Mazdam, dat. Mazdāi, gen. Mazdā. The last three cases have disyllabic endings -am, -āi, -ā. paṇtā-/paθ- "way, path." Sing.: nom. paṇtā (cf. Vedic pánthāḥ), acc. paṇṭam (cf. Vedic pánthām), inst. paθa (Vedic patháḥ), gen. paθō (Vedic patháḥ), loc. paiθī (Vedic patháḥ).—Plur.: acc. paθō (Vedic patháḥ), inst. padəbīš (cf. Vedic pathíbhiḥ), gen. paθam (Vedic pathám).

kauuaii- "seer" and haxāii- "companion." Sing.: nom. kauuā, huš.haxā, YAv. haxa (Vedic sákhā); acc. kauuaēm, huš.haxāim (Vedic sákhāyam); inst. YAv. haša (Vedic sákhyā); dat. YAv. haše (Vedic sákhye).— Plur.: nom. OAv. kāuuaiias-cīt (Vedic kávayaḥ), YAv. haxaiiō (Vedic sákhāyah); gen. YAv. kaoiiam (< *kaui-ām), hašam (< *sákhi-ām).

*raii- "wealth" has "weak" stem *rāi-. Sing.: acc. YAv. raēm (Vedic rayim), inst. YAv. raiia (Vedic rāyā), gen. OAv. rāiiō (Vedic rāyāḥ).—Plur.: gen. YAv. raiiam (Vedic rāyām).

āiiū "life" (nom.-acc. sing. nt.) has oblique forms in OAv.: inst. yauuā, dat. yauuōi, yauuē, gen. yaoš. dāuru

"wood" (Vedic dāru) has gen. sing. YAv. draoš (Vedic dróḥ). zānu "knee" (Vedic jānu) has abl. plur. YAv. žnubiias-cit.

gauu- masc. fem. "ox, cow." Sing.: nom. gāuš (Vedic gáuḥ), acc. gam (Vedic gấm), inst. gauua (Vedic gávā), dat. OAv. gauuōi, YAv. gauue (Vedic gáve); abl. OAv. gōuš (Vedic góḥ), YAv. gaot, gen. gōuš (Vedic góḥ), voc. YAv. gao-spəṇta.—Dual: nom. gāuuā (Vedic gắvā).—Plur.: nom. YAv. gauuō (Vedic gắvaḥ), acc. gå (Vedic gāḥ), inst. gaobīš (Vedic góbhiḥ), gen. gauuam (Vedic gávām).

zam- "earth," ziiam- "winter," dam- "house," ham"summer." Sing.: nom. zå (Vedic kṣấḥ), ziiå; acc. zạm
(Vedic kṣấm), ziiam; inst. YAv. zəmā (Vedic jmá), hama;
abl. YAv. zəmaṭ; gen. zəmō (Vedic jmáḥ), zimō, OAv.
dōng (Vedic dán < *dám-s); loc. zəmē (Vedic kṣmay-ấ),
zəmi (Vedic kṣámi), OAv. dam, YAv. dami.

-jan-/- γ n- "striking," in $v \ni r \ni \theta r a$ -jan- "breaking the resistance." Sing.: nom. masc. $v \ni r \ni \theta r a$ -jā (Vedic v r t r a-hā); acc. $v \ni r \ni \theta r a$ -jan $\ni m$ (Vedic v r t r a-hánam); dat. $v \ni r \ni \theta r a$ - $\gamma n e$ (Vedic v r t r a-g h n e).

YAv. span-/sun- "dog." Sing.: nom. spā (Vedic śvā); acc. spānəm (Vedic śvānam); dat. sūne (Vedic śúne); gen. sūnō (Vedic śúnaḥ).—Dual: nom. spāna (Vedic śvānā).—Plur.: nom. spānō (Vedic śvānaḥ); gen. sunam (Vedic śúnām).

nar- "man" and star- "star." Sing.: nom. OAv. nā, acc. narəm (Vedic náram), YAv. stārəm; dat. OAv. narōi, YAv. naire (Vedic náre); gen. OAv. nərəš, YAv. narš; voc. YAv. narə.—Plur.: nom. OAv. narō (Vedic náraḥ), YAv. stārō; acc. OAv. nərəš, YAv. nərəš, incorrect nərəūš (cf. Vedic nṛn), YAv. strəš, incorrect strəūš; dat. OAv. nərəbiias-cā, YAv. nərəbiiō, nəruiiō (Vedic nṛbhyaḥ); abl. stərəbiiō; gen. YAv. naram (Vedic nárām); OAv. strəm-cā, YAv. stram.

 $\bar{a}tar$ - masc. "fire" has been remodeled from an old neuter. Sing.: nom. OAv., YAv. $\bar{a}tar\check{s}$ ($<*\bar{a}tr-\check{s}$); acc. OAv. $\bar{a}tr\bar{s}m$, YAv. $\bar{a}tr\bar{s}m$ ($<*\bar{a}tr-m$); inst. OAv. $\bar{a}\theta r\bar{a}$ ($<*\bar{a}\theta r-\bar{a}$); dat. YAv. $\bar{a}\theta r\bar{e}$; abl. OAv. $\bar{a}\theta ras$ - $c\bar{a}$, YAv. $\bar{a}\theta rat$; gen. OAv., YAv. $\bar{a}\theta r\bar{e}$; voc. OAv., YAv. $\bar{a}tar\bar{e}$ ($<*\bar{a}tr$).—Plur.: acc. (< nom.) YAv. $\bar{a}tar\bar{e}$; inst. YAv. $\bar{a}tar\bar{e}$; gen. YAv. $\bar{a}\theta r\bar{e}m$.

Pronouns. The irregularity of the Avestan pronominal inflection is almost entirely inherited from Proto-Indo-Ir. and Proto-IE. Thus the personal pronouns for the first and second persons have in all three numbers stem forms in the nominative differing from the stems of the remaining cases (cf. English I: me, we: us). In the case of the personal pronouns no distinction of gender is made, but masculine, feminine, and neuter are distinguished in the demonstrative, relative, and interrogative pronouns.

Personal pronoun for the first person ("I, we both, we"). Sing.: nom. azōm; acc. mam; dat. OAv. maibiiā maibiiō, YAv. māuuōiia, māuuaiia-ca (<*mauia <*maβia); abl. mat (OPers. -ma); gen. OAv. mō.nā, YAv. mana (OPers. manā). Enclitic forms: acc. mā; gen., dat. OAv. mōi, YAv. mē (OPers. -maiy).—Dual: nom. OAv. vā; acc. āuuā. Enclitic gen. nā.—Plur.: nom. vaēm (<*uaiəm, cf. OPers. vayam); acc. OAv. ōhmā, YAv.

ahma; inst. OAv. āhmā; dat. OAv. ahmaibiiā; abl. OAv. ahmat; gen. YAv. ahmākəm. Enclitic forms: acc. OAv. nā, YAv. nō; gen., dat. OAv. nā, YAv. nō.

Personal pronoun for the second person ("you"). Sing.: nom. OAv., YAv. tū, OAv. tuuōm, YAv. tūm (OPers. tuvam); acc. θβαm (OPers. θuvām); inst. θβā; dat. OAv. taibiiā-cā, taibiiō; abl. OAv. θβaṭ; gen. tauuā. Enclitic forms: acc. θβā; gen., dat. OAv. tōi, YAv. tē (OPers. -taiy).—Dual: gen. YAv. yauuākəm.—Plur.: nom. yūžəm, OAv. yūš; inst. OAv. xšmā; dat. OAv. xšmaibiiā, YAv. xšmāuuōiia; OAv. yūšmaibiiā, YAv. yūšmaoiiō; abl. OAv. xšmaṭ, OAv., YAv. yūšmaṭ; gen. OAv., YAv. xšmākəm, YAv. yūšmākəm. Enclitic forms: acc. OAv. vā, YAv. vō; gen., dat. OAv. vē, YAv. vō.

Personal pronouns for the third person ("he, she, it; they") are represented by various forms of the stems i-, h(i)-/ $\check{s}(i)$ -, di-. All forms are enclitic except for OAv. $h\bar{i}$ (sing. nom. fem. and dual nom. nt.). Sing.: acc. masc. fem. $\bar{i}m$, $h\bar{i}m$, YAv. dim (OPers. dim); gen., dat. OAv. $h\bar{o}i$, YAv. $h\bar{e}/\check{s}\bar{e}$ (OPers. - $\check{s}aiy$).—Dual: acc. OAv. \bar{i} .—Plur.: acc. OAv. $\bar{i}\check{s}$, OAv., YAv. $h\bar{i}\check{s}$ (OPers. - $\check{s}i\check{s}$), YAv. $di\check{s}$ (OPers. - $di\bar{s}$).—Neuter forms: acc. sing. OAv. $\bar{i}\iota$, YAv. $i\iota$, $di\iota$; plur. YAv. \bar{i} , $d\bar{i}$.—Reflexive sing. dat. YAv. $huu\bar{a}uu\bar{o}iia$ (< * $huua\betaia$).

Demonstrative pronouns: ta- "this," $a\bar{e}ta$ - "this," auua- "that one over there (yonder);" relative pronoun ya- "who, which;" interrogative pronoun ka-/ca- "who, which" (when followed by the enclitics $-c\bar{a}$, $c\bar{t}\bar{t}$, this becomes an indefinite pronoun "whoever, whichever"). The case endings of all these pronouns are largely the same in the masc. and nt. as those of the a-declension nouns and in the fem. as those of the \bar{a} -declension nouns. Examples: masc. sing. nom. OAv. $y\bar{a}$, $k\bar{a}$, YAv. $y\bar{o}$, $k\bar{o}$; acc. $t\bar{a}m$, $k\bar{a}m$, OAv. $y\bar{a}m$, YAv. yim, aom (<*auam, OPers. avam); gen. YAv. $a\bar{e}tahe$, $auua\hat{t}he$, OAv. yehia, YAv. yehe, OAv. $t\bar{a}ng$, tq, YAv. $t\bar{a}$, tq. YAv. $tauu\bar{u}$, $a\bar{u}$ ($<*au\bar{a}$).

Characteristic pronominal forms are, e.g., masc. sing. (from the pronoun ta-, $a\bar{e}ta$ -) YAv. $h\bar{a}$, $h\bar{o}$ (Vedic $s\dot{a}$), YAv. aēšō (Vedic esá); (from the pronoun auua-) OAv. $huu\bar{o}$ (<*hau), YAv. $h\bar{a}u$ (= fem.) (OPers. hauv); inst. kana;—dat. aētahmāi, yahmāi, kahmāi, cahmāi (Vedic yásmai, kásmai);—abl. aētahmāt, yahmāt, kahmāt (Vedic vásmāt);—loc. aētahmi, vahmī, kahmi, cahmi (cf. Vedic yásmin, kásmin).--Plur. nom. OAv. tōi, YAv. tē, aēte (Vedic té, eté), auue (OPers. avaiy), OAv., YAv. vōi, kōi (Vedic vé, ké);—gen. aētaēšam (OPers. avaišām), yaēšam (Vedic vésām).—Neuter sing. nom./acc. OAv., YAv. tat (Vedic tát), YAv. auuat, OAv. hilat, YAv. yat (Vedic yát), kat (Vedic kát).-Fem. sing. nom. hā, aēša (Vedic sā, esā), YAv. hāu (OPers. hauv); —inst. aētaiia (Vedic etávā); —dat. YAv. auuańhāi (< *auahiāi); —abl. auuańhat; —gen. aētańhå (< aitahiāh, Vedic etásyāh);—loc. yeńhe (< *iahiā, cf. Vedic etásyām).—Plur. gen. YAv. aētaŋham (Vedic etāsām).

A special pronoun with the meaning "this one here" is based on the stems a- and i-/ai-: masc. sing. nom. OAv. aiiām, YAv. aēm (Vedic ayám);—acc. YAv.

iməni;—inst. anā (OPers. anā);—dat. ahmāi (Vedic asmai);—abl. ahmāi:—gen. OAv. ahiiā, YAv. ahe, aṅhe (Vedic ásya);—loc. ahmī ahmiia.—Dual nom./acc. ima;—dat. ābiia;—gen. aiiā.—Plur. nom. ime;—acc. ima;—inst. OAv. āiš, anāiš, YAv. aēibiš;—dat. aēbiiō;—gen. aēšan;—loc. aēšu, aēšuua.—Neuter sing. nom./acc. imat.—Plur. nom./acc. OAv. ī. imā.—Fem. sing. nom YAv. īm (* < iiəm, Vedic iyám);—acc. imam;—inst. OAv. ōiiā, YAv. āiia (Vedic ayā);—dat. OAv. axiiāi, YAv. aṅhāi (Vedic asyai);—abl. aṅhāt;—gen. aṅhā;—loc. aṅhe (< ahiā).—Dual dat. OAv. ābiiā.—Plur. nom./acc. imā;—inst. OAv. ābīš;—dat. ābiiō;—gen. åṇham (Vedic āsām);—loc. āhū, āhuua.

In addition to the interrogative pronoun ka-/ca- there is a stem ci- (ci- + $c\bar{a}$ "someone," $na\bar{e}$ -ci- "no one"): sing. nom. masc. $ci\bar{s}$, $ci\bar{s}$ - $c\bar{a}$, $na\bar{e}$ - $ci\bar{s}$ (Latin quis, quis-que, $n\bar{i}$ quis);—acc. $c\bar{i}$ m, $na\bar{e}$ -cim.—Nom./acc. nt. $ci\bar{t}$ (Latin quid), $na\bar{e}$ - $ci\underline{t}$.—Plur. nom. masc. $caii\bar{o}$, caiias- $c\bar{a}$;—nom./acc. nt. $c\bar{i}$ - $c\bar{a}$.

2. Verbal inflection.

Many Avestan verbal forms have counterparts in the Vedic language. Since Vedic is attested by an extensive literature that enables its grammatical forms to be determined with exactitude, it is possible to establish the complicated Avestan verbal system with considerable certainty by comparing it systematically with Vedic. With the exception of certain nominal forms such as participles, every verbal form terminates with a personal ending. The personal endings determine the first, second, and third persons in singular, dual, and plural. In addition, they indicate at the same time the diatheses active (e.g., English "I praise") and middle (e.g., English "I praise in my own interest, we praise each other, I am praised"). The middle may be reflexive, reciprocal, or passive, etc. There are four kinds of personal endings: the primary and secondary endings, the imperative endings, and the perfect endings. The secondary endings indicate only the person and the diathesis whereas the primary endings indicate also present time (e.g., English "I am praising"). The special perfect endings indicate, together with the perfect stem, the state arrived at as a result of an action ("I have praised"). The basis of a verb form is the so-called "verb root," which conveys the lexical meaning of the verb. By means of changes of the verb root or by the addition of suffixes the so-called "tense stems" are formed. These are known as the present, aorist, and perfect stems. The future stem is

typologically a present stem.

When an imperative ending is added to a present stem the verb form expresses a command (imperative present). The addition of a primary ending to the present stem results in an indicative present whereas the addition of a secondary ending to the present stem results in an injunctive present. The injunctive present is used to mention an action without reference to time, one which is general or adhortative, past or future. The preterite is expressed by the imperfect, which is formed by prefixing to the verbal stem the augment a-. Whereas the augment a- is common in Vedic and OPers., it is seldom found in Avestan.

Originally the aorist stem was used to indicate the perfective aspect of an action, that is the view of a completed action in its entirety, but this function of the aorist is usually no longer evident in the Avestan texts. The aorist stem can take only imperative or secondary endings. With secondary endings the aorist is known as the injunctive aorist, which has functions corresponding to those of the injunctive present. The aorist stem with prefixed augment a- and secondary endings forms the indicative aorist, which has preterite meaning.

The moods of the verb are: indicative, injunctive, imperative, subjunctive, and optative. The subjunctive expresses volition and futurity. It is characterized by the addition of the suffix -a- to the high-grade present, aorist, and perfect stems. The subjunctive may take either primary or secondary endings, no difference in meaning being discernible. The optative expresses volition and potentiality. It is formed by adding to the low-grade tense stems the suffix $-i\bar{a}$ - $/-\bar{i}$ - and the secondary endings.

The present system. Since the Proto-IE. period, present stems have been formed in many different ways, but it has in most cases not been possible to determine the reason for any particular formation. From the point of view of morphology two broad groups can be distinguished: the thematic and the athematic present stems. The thematic present stems end in the thematic vowel -a-, which with certain variations is retained before the personal endings. In the case of the athematic present stems the personal endings and the suffixes for subjunctive and optative are added directly to the various present stems instead of being preceded by the thematic vowel.

Thematic present stems. To the full or zero grade of the verb root is added the thematic vowel -a- alone or a suffix ending in -a-: -ia-, -aia-, -sa- (= Vedic -cha-). Examples: bar-a- "carry," spas-iia- "espy," kir-iia- (passive) "be done," xš-aiia- "rule," vaxš-aiia- (causative) "make grow," ja-sa- "come" (= Vedic gáccha- < Proto-IE. g*m-ské-). The root can receive an infixed -n-, e.g., kərəṇṭa- "cut" (Vedic kṛ-n-ta-). The desideratives are characterized by reduplication and the addition of the suffix *-sa- (-ha-, -ša-), e.g., su-srū-ša- "wish to hear." In some cases the present stems look quite different from the root, e.g., sixša- (Vedic śikṣa-) "wish to be able (sak), learn," diβža- (Vedic dipsa-) "wish to cheat (dab). The future stem in *-sia- (-hia-, -šia-) can

also be classified as a thematic present, e.g., vax-šiiā "I shall say."

Inflection of the thematic present stems. Active: indic. pres. sing. 1. barāmi (OAv. pərəsā "I ask"), 2. barahi, 3. baraitī.—Dual 3. baratō.—Plur. 1. barāmahi, 2. -aθā, 3. barənti.—Inj. pres. sing. 1. barəm, 2. barō, 3. barat.—Dual 3. -atəm.—Plur. 2. -ata, 3. barən.—Subj. pres. sing. 1. barāni, 2. barāhi, 3. -āiti, barāt.—Dual 1. -āuua, 3. barātō.—Plur. 1. barāma, 2. āθā, 3. barānti, baran.—Opt. pres. sing. 2. barōiš, 3. barōit.—Plur. 1. -aēma, 2. -aēta, 3. baraiiən.—Imv. pres. sing. 2. bara, 3. baratu.—Plur. 2. barata, 3. barəntu.—Part. pres. barənt-.

Middle: indic. pres. sing. 1. baire, 2. -ahe, 3. baraite. —Dual 3. baraēte. —Plur. 1. barāmaide, 2. OAv. dīdrayžō.duiiē "you wish to fasten" (<*-a-duai, Vedic-a-dhve), 3. barənte. —Inj. pres. sing. 1. baire, 2. -aŋha (<*-a-sa), 3. barata. —Dual 3. -aētəm. —Plur. 3. -ənta. —Subj. Pres. sing. 1.-āi, āne, 2.-āŋhe (<*-āhai), 3. -āite. —Plur. 3. -ānte. —Opt. pres. sing. 2. -aēša, 3. baraēta. —Plur. 1. -ōimaidī, 2. -ōiδβəm, 3. -aiianta. —Imv. pres. sing. 2. baraŋ ha, 3. OAv. vərəziiātam (<*-a-tam). —Plur. 2. OAv. gūšōdum "listen" (<*-a-duəm), 3. -əntam. —Part. pres. barəmna-.

Athematic present stems. In the case of the athematic present stems the personal endings are added to the root or to the present suffix directly, that is, without the intervention of the thematic vowel -a-. The most important classes of these present stems are: 1. the root presents; 2. the reduplicated presents; 3. the present stems containing infixed -n-; 4. the present stems ending in - $n\bar{a}$ -; 5. the present stems ending in -nu-. These present stems are affected by ablaut: they have the full grade of the root or the infix or suffixes in the case of the active singular forms of the indic., the inj., and, in part, of the imv. as well as throughout the active and middle paradigms of the subj. The remaining forms have the zero grade as far as that is phonologically possible.

1. The root presents. In this case the pres. stem is identical with the verb root, e.g., ah-/h- "to be" (Vedic as-/s-), mrauu-/ $mr\bar{u}$ - "to speak" (Vedic $brav^i$ -/ $br\bar{u}$ -); vas-/us- "to wish" (Vedic $va\dot{s}$ -/ $u\dot{s}$ -). A subgroup has the long grade in the act. sing. indic. and inj. and otherwise the full grade, e.g., $st\bar{a}uu$ -/stauu- "to praise," $t\bar{a}s$ -/tas- "to fashion;" aog- "to speak;" $s\bar{a}h$ - "to instruct."

Active inflection: indic. pres. sing. 1. ahmĭ, mraomĭ, vasəmī, stāumi, 2, ahĭ, vašĭ, 3. astĭ, mraoiti, vaštī; tāšti, sāstī.—Dual 1. usuuahī, 3. stō (Vedic s-taḥ), mrūtō.—Plur. 1. mahǐ < *hmahi (Vedic s-masi), usəmahī (Vedic uśmási), 2. stā (Vedic s-tha), uštā, 3. həntǐ (Vedic s-ánti).—Inj. pres. sing. 1. mraom, 2. mraoš, 3 mraot; tāšt.—Plur. 2 mraotā, uštā—Subj. pres. sing. 1 aŋhā, mrauua, mrauuāni, 2. aŋhō, 3. aŋhat, aŋhattī, vasat.—Plur. 1. åŋhāmā (< *aŋhāma), 3. aŋhən, vasən.—Opt. pres. sing. 1. OAv. xiiəm (Vedic s-yā-m), 2. xiiā, mruiiā, 3. xiiāt/YAv. hiiāt, usiiāt, sāhīt,—Plur. 1. xiiāmā, 2. xiiātā, 3. YAv. hiiārə.—Imv. pres. sing. 2. OAv. zdī (<*s+dʰi) "be!," mrūiði, 3. astū, mraotū.—Plur. 2. staota, 3. həntə.—Part. pres. hant- (sing. nom. masc. has, acc. həntəm, gen. hatō.—Plur. gen. hātam.—Fem.

stem hāitī-), usaņt-; stauuat- (< *stéu-nt-).

Middle inflection: indic. pres. sing. 1. mruiie (< mru u ai); aoj oi, 3. mr u ite.—Plur. 1. mr u maid e; aog om ad a e-c a, staom aid e, 3. aoj aite (Vedic oith ate < *-ntoi).—Inj. pres. sing. 1. aoj a, 2. ao y z a ($< *aug^h + sa$), 3. OAv. aog od a ($< *aug^h + ta$), YAv. aox ta, staot a.—Subj. pres. sing. 1. aoj a, mruu u a e, stau u a e-Opt. pres. sing. 2. mruu i s a, 3. mruu i ta; aoj a e-Part. pres. mruu a e-aoj a-aoj a e-aoj a-aoj a

2. Reduplicated present stems. The commonest such verb is *da- $d\bar{a}$ -, which continues both Indo-Ir. $d\bar{a}$ "to give" and $d^h\bar{a}$ "to put."

Active inflection: indic. pres. sing. 1. $da\delta ami$, 2. $da\delta \bar{a}hi$, 3. $dad\bar{a}it\bar{\imath}$, $da\delta \bar{a}it\bar{\imath}$.—Plur. 1. $dadomah\bar{\imath}$, YAv. danmahi, 3. $dadait\bar{\imath}$ (Vedic dad(h)ati with -ati from *-nti).—Inj. pres. sing. 1. $da\delta am$, 2. OAv. $dada^*$, 3. OAv. $dada^*$, YAv. $da\delta \bar{a}t$.—Plur. 3. dadat (< * d^* (h)-at(h)-at0.—Subj. pres. sing. 1. $da\theta \bar{a}mi$, 3. OAv. dadat, YAv. $da\theta at$ 1.—Plur. 1. $da\theta \bar{a}ma$, 3. $da\theta \partial at$ 2.—Opt. pres. sing. 1. $dai\delta iiqm$, 2. $daid\bar{\imath}i\bar{\imath}$, $dai\theta ii\bar{\imath}i\bar{\imath}$, 3. OAv. $daid\bar{\imath}t\bar{\imath}$, YAv. $dai\delta ii\bar{\imath}t\bar{\imath}$, YAv. $dai\delta ii\bar{\imath}t\bar{\imath}$, $dai\theta ii\bar{\imath}t\bar{\imath}$.—Dual 3. $dai\delta it\partial m$.—Plur. 3. $dai\theta iiqn$, $dai\theta ii\bar{\imath}t\bar{\imath}$.—Imv. pres. sing. 2. dazdi (< * d^* (h)- d^*

Middle inflection: indic. pres. sing. 1. $dad\bar{e}$, $dai\theta\bar{e}$, 3. $dast\bar{e}$ (Vedic $datt\dot{e}$), $dazd\bar{e}$ ($<*d^ha-d^{hz}+tai$).—Plur. $dad\partial maid\bar{e}$.—Inj. pres. sing. 3. $dazd\bar{a}$ ($<*d^ha-d^{hz}+tai$), dasta.—Subj. pres. sing. 3. $da\theta aite$.—Plur. 3. $dad\partial nt\bar{e}$.—Opt. pres. sing. 2. $dai\theta\bar{t}$ (Vedic d(h)atsva).—Plur. 2. mqz- $dazd\bar{u}$ ($<*d^ha-d^{hz}-d^hu$ am) "bear in mind!"—Part. pres. $da\theta\bar{a}$ na-.

Active inflection: indic. pres. sing. 1. cinahmi, 3. cinasti, vinasti.—Plur. 1. cīšmahī, 3. vindənti.—Inj. pres. sing. 3. cinas.—Plur. 3. vindən.—Opt. pres. sing. 3. cīšiiāt, mərasiiāt (<*mṛnčiāt).—Plur. 3. cīšiian.—Imv. sing. 2. cīždī.

Middle inflection: indic. pres. sing. 3. mərəyənte (<*mərə $\eta(g)$ te).—Plur. 1. $c\bar{\imath}$ smaide, 2. mərəngəduii $\bar{\imath}$ (<*mring- d^huai), 3. mərəncait $\bar{\imath}$ (with -ait $\bar{\imath}$ <*- η toi),—Opt. pres. sing. 3. mərənc $\bar{\imath}$ ta, vind $\bar{\imath}$ ta.—Part. pres. vind $\bar{\imath}$ ana-.

4. Present stems in $-n\bar{a}$. In the act. sing. forms of the indic. and inj. and throughout the subj. the affix $-n\bar{a}$ - is used but elsewhere only -n-, e.g., $fr\bar{i}$ - $n\bar{a}$ - $fr\bar{i}$ -n-. "to delight," $g \partial r \partial \beta$ - $n\bar{a}$ - $f \partial \beta$ -n-"to seize," $p \partial r \partial -n\bar{a}$ - $f \partial \beta$ -n-"to drive away," $v \partial r \partial -n$ -"to choose."

Active inflection: indic. pres. sing. 1. frīnāmi, 3. gərəβnāiti.—Plur. 1. friiqnmahī (<*frinmahi), 3. frīnənti.—Subj. pres. sing. 1. frīnāni, 3. frīnāt.—Plur. 3. gərəβnqn.—Imv. plur. 3. frīnəntu.

Middle inflection: indic. pres. sing. 1. vərənē, 3. vərəntē.—Inj. pres. sing. 3. vərənta.—Plur. 3. OAv. vərənātā (with -ātā < *-ata).—Subj. pres. sing. 1. frīnai,

pərənāne, 3. pərənāite.

5. Present stems in -nu-. The suffix appears in the full grade as -nau- in the sing. forms of the indic. and inj. active. In the subj. it takes the form -nau-a- and elsewhere it appears as nu- or -nu-. The commonest such verb is kar "to make, do."

Active inflection: indic. pres. sing. 1. kərənaomi, 3. kərənaoiti.—Plur. 3. kərənuuainti.—Inj. pres. sing. 3. (a-)kərənaot.—Subj. pres. sing. 1. kərənauuāni.—Plur. 3. kərənaon (with -naon < *-nauən).—Opt. pres. sing. 3. kərənuiiāt.—Imv. pres. 2. kərənūiδi.—Part. pres. kərənant-.

The aorist system. As shown by Vedic, the aorist stem indicates the perfective aspect. Apart from the consideration of aspect, the inj., subj., opt., and imv. forms of the aorist have the same functions as the corresponding forms in the present system. The indic. aor. is formed by prefixing the augment a- to the injunctive. The indic. aor. is restricted to the past. Three types of aorist are found in Avestan: I. thematic aorists, 2. athematic root aorists, 3. sigmatic aorists.

1. The thematic aorist. There are three kinds of thematic aorist. The thematic vowel may be added to the full grade of the root (e.g., taša-"to fashion," Vedic tákṣa-; hana- "to acquire," Vedic sána-) or to the zero grade of the root (e.g., sīša-"to instruct," Vedic śiṣa-, from the root sāh, Vedic śās; xša- "to rule" from the root xšā, Vedic kṣā; xsa- "to look" from the root xsā, Vedic kṣā) or to the reduplicated root (e.g., vaoca- "to speak," Vedic vóca- < *ua-uč-a- from vac).

The thematic agrist inflection corresponds to that of the thematic present stems. Noteworthy forms are: active inj. \bar{a} - $xs\bar{o}$ "look at," $ta\check{s}a\check{t}$ "he fashioned," \bar{a} - $uuaoc\bar{a}ma$ (Vedic \acute{a} - $voc\bar{a}ma$) "we spoke."—Subj. $han\bar{a}n\bar{t}$ "I shall acquire," fra- $uuaoc\bar{a}m\bar{a}$ "we will proclaim."—Opt. $s\bar{t}s\check{o}it$ "may he instruct," $hana\bar{e}m\bar{a}$ "may we earn." Middle inj. $m\bar{a}$... $x\bar{s}\bar{o}nt\bar{a}$ "they shall not rule."—Subj. $xs\bar{a}i$ "I shall look."—Opt. $x\bar{s}a\bar{e}t\bar{a}$ "may he rule."—Imv. $x\bar{s}\bar{o}ntam$ "let them rule."

2. The athematic root aorist. Thirty-seven verbs use the verb root as aorist stem without the addition of any further morphological feature. Their inflection is largely the same as that of the athematic root present stems. The following examples are attested forms of $d\bar{a}$ 1. "to give," 2. "to put" and gam "to go."

Active inflection: inj. aor. sing. 3. $d\bar{a}t$.—Plur. 2. $d\bar{a}ta$, 3. dqn, gm n.—Subj. aor. sing. 1. $jim\bar{a}$, 2. $d\bar{a}h\bar{i}$, 3. $d\bar{a}it\bar{i}$, $d\bar{a}t$, $jimait\bar{i}$, jimat.—Plur. 1. $d\bar{a}m\bar{a}$, 3. $daint\bar{i}$, dqn, jimn.—Opt. aor sing. 1. OAv. diiqm, 2. jamiia, 3. diiat, $j\bar{p}miiat$.—Plur. 1. $jamiiam\bar{a}$, 2. $d\bar{a}iiata$, 3. YAv. jamiiqn, jamiiar $\bar{s}s$.—Imv. aor. sing. 2. $d\bar{a}id\bar{i}$, $gaid\bar{i}$, 3. $d\bar{a}t\bar{u}$.—Plur. 2. $d\bar{a}t\bar{a}$.—Part. pres. dant-.

Middle inflection: inj. aor. sing. 2. $d\tilde{a}\eta h\bar{a}$, 3. $d\bar{a}t\bar{a}$.— Dual. 1. $duuaid\bar{i}$ ($<*d^h-\mu ad^hi$) "we two destined."— Subj. aor. sing. 1. $d\bar{a}n\bar{e}$, 2. $d\tilde{a}\eta h\bar{e}$, 3. $d\bar{a}it\bar{e}$.—Dual 3. $jama\bar{e}t\bar{e}$.—Plur. 2. $daduii\bar{e}$ ($< d^h-a-d^h\mu ai$), 3. $d\tilde{a}\eta t\bar{e}$.—Opt. aor. sing. 1. $dii\bar{a}$ ($<*d^h-i\bar{\mu}a$) 2. $dis\bar{a}$.—Imv. aor. sing. 2. $d\bar{a}huu\bar{a}$.

Some special forms for the 3. sing. passive also belong to the root aorist: a-uuācī "it has been called," srāuuī "it

has been heard;" ərəž-ucam (imv. sing. 3.) "it shall be correctly told" (from the root vac).

3. The sigmatic aorist. Whereas the thematic aorist and the athematic root aorist can be distinguished from similarly formed present stems only on the basis of comparison with Vedic, the sigmatic aorist is clearly marked. Proto-IE. -s-, which may appear in Avestan as -h- or -ŝ-, is affixed to the verb root. The root has thelong grade in the indic. and inj. but the full grade elsewhere. The inflection is athematic. About twenty-seven verbs have attested sigmatic aorists. The following verbs have been selected to illustrate the inflection: xšnu "to satisfy" (xšnāuš-/xšnaoš-), dis "to show" (dāiš-/dōiš-), fras "to ask" (fraš-), man "to consider (məngh-, mas-), van "to overcome" (vəngh-, vas-), varz "to work" (varš-), rā "to present" (rāh-, rāgh-), uruuaj "to walk" (uruuāxš-), sand "to appear" (sas-, Vedic chānts-).

Active inflection: inj. aor. sing. 2. dāiš, 3. xšnāuš, sqs.—Plur. 3. uruuāxšat (with -at from *-nt).—Subj. aor. sing. 1. dōišā, 3. vēnghaitī, vēnghat, varəšaiti.—Plur. 3. xšnaošən.—Imv. aor. 2. dōišī (< daiś + ši).—Plur. 2. sqstā (< sšānd-s-ta).

Middle inflection: inj. aor. sing. 1. frašī, māṇghī, 3. fraštā, mastā.—Plur. 1. (a-)māhmaidī.—Subj. aor. sing. 1. māṇghāi, varəšānē, 2. råṇhaṇhōi, 3. varəšaitē.—Plur. 2. maz-dåṇhō.dūm.—Imv. aor. sing. 2. fərašuuā.—Part. aor. maṇhāna-.

The perfect system. The perfect originally designated the state arrived at as the result of an action but it came to be used as a preterite tense. It is found with fifty-six verbs in Avestan. In the perfect stem the verb root has the full grade in the sing. forms of the active and throughout the subj. but elsewhere it has the zero grade. With the one exception of vaēd-/vid- "to know" all the perf. forms are reduplicated, that is, the first consonant of the root followed by the vowel $-\bar{a}$ - (occasionally -i-, -u-) is prefixed to the root. The perf. differs from the present-aorist system also in having special endings in the indic. active and middle. The following are examples of perf. stems: $\bar{a}h$ - (< ah "to be"), $dad\bar{a}$ -/ $d\tilde{a}\delta$ - ($< d\bar{a}$ "to give; put"), mamn- (< man "to think"), yaiiat-/yaēt-, yōit- (< yat "to take a firm stand"), vāuuarəz-/vāuuərəz-(< varz "to work"), vaēd-/vid- (< vid "to know").

Active inflection: indic. perf. sing. 1. $va\bar{e}d\bar{a}$, 2. $v\bar{o}ist\bar{a}$, $dad\bar{a}\theta\bar{a}$, 3. $va\bar{e}d\bar{a}$.—Dual 3. $ya\bar{e}tar_{\bar{o}}$.—Plur. 1. $y\bar{o}i\theta m\bar{a}$, 3. $a\bar{n}har\bar{o}$, $v\bar{i}\delta ar_{\bar{o}}$.—Opt. perf. sing. 1. $dai\delta iiqm$, 3. $v\bar{i}dii\bar{a}t$.—Dual. 3. $a\hat{n}h\bar{a}t$. tam (< * $\bar{a}h$ - $i\bar{a}$ - $t\bar{a}m$).—Part. perf. (suffix - $u\bar{a}h$ -, - $u\bar{s}$ -, fem. - $u\bar{s}\bar{i}$ -) sing. nom. masc. $v\bar{i}duu\bar{a}$, $da\delta uu\bar{a}$, gen. $v\bar{i}du\bar{s}\bar{o}$, $dadu\bar{s}\bar{o}$, fem. $v\bar{i}\theta u\bar{s}\bar{i}$ -.

Middle inflection (rare): indic. perf. sing. 3. $v\bar{a}uu\bar{s}r\bar{s}z\bar{o}i$ "it has been worked."—Dual 3. $mamn\bar{a}it\bar{e}$.—Opt. perf. plur. 3. $vaozir\bar{s}m$ "they would have driven" (from root vaz).—Part. perf. $mamn\bar{a}na$ - "having thought," $v\bar{a}uu\bar{s}r\bar{s}z\bar{a}na$ - "having been done."

Infinitives. Infinitives are formed by the addition of various suffixes either directly to the root or to a tense stem: *-ai: OAv. pōi (<*pH-ai) "to protect," YAv buile (<*buu-ai) "to become;" *-uai: OAv. dāuuōi "to give," vīduilē (<*uid-uai) "to know;" *-uanai: OAv.

vīduuanōi "to know;" *-tai: OAv. itē "to go," mrūitē "to say," stōi 'to be;" *-ah: OAv. auuō "to aid," vərəziiō "to work;" *-ahai: OAv. vaocaiħē "to say" (from aorist stem vaoca-), srāuuaiie jħe "to recite" (from caus. stem srāuuaiia-), *-dħiāi (Vedic -dhyai): OAv. jaiditāi "to be killed" (from root jan), diβžaiditāi "to be deceived," vərəziieiditāi "to do, be done."

Verbal adjectives. Verbal adjectives ending in -ta have almost always passive meaning, but there are exceptions such as gata- (= Vedic gatá-) "gone." If phonologically possible the root appears in the zero grade, e.g., -uxta- "said" (Vedic uktá- < vac); vista- "found" (< *uid²-tá-, cf. Vedic vittá- < vid); vərəzda- "increased" (Vedic vṛdhá-< *uṛd²dʰá- < *u̞rdʰz-tó-); jata-"slain" (Vedic hatá- < han) from root jan; zāta- "born" (Vedic jātá- with -ā- < n̞H-) from root zanH. Roots ending in -ā- do not show ablaut, e.g., dāta- "given; put" (But Vedic hitá < *dʰə-tó-).

Bibliography: Chr. Bartholomae, Awestasprache und Altpersisch, in Geiger and Kuhn, Grundr. Ir. Phil. I, pp. 188-241. A. V. W. Jackson, An Avesta Grammar in Comparison with Sanskrit, Stuttgart, 1892, repr. Darmstadt, 1968, pp. 62-200. H. Reichelt, Awestisches Elementarbuch, Heidelberg, 1909, repr. Darmstadt, 1967. H. G. Herzenberg, Morfologicheskaya struktura slova v drevnikh indoiranskikh vazvkakh, Leningrad, 1972. S. Sokolov. "Yazyk Avesty," in V. I. Abaev, ed., Osnovy iranskogo yazykoznaniya I: Drevneiranskie yazyki, Moscow, 1979, pp. 161-94. E. Benveniste, Les infinitifs avestiques, Paris, 1935. J. Kellens, Les noms-racines de l'Avesta, Wiesbaden, 1974. Idem, Le verbe avestique, Wiesbaden, 1985. On other aspects of Avestan grammar, not treated here, consult the works listed above. On composition see J. Duchesne-Guillemin, Les composés de l'Avesta, Liège and Paris, 1936. See also J. Duchesne-Guillemin, Kratylos 7, 1962, pp. 11-38; J. Kellens, ibid., 16, 1971, pp. 9-17; 18, 1973, pp. 1-2. K. Hoffmann, Aufsätze zur Indoiranistik I-II, Wiesbaden, 1975-76 (consult the index pp. 688-704).

(K. Hoffmann)

AVESTAN PEOPLE. The term Avestan people is used here to include both Zoroaster's own tribe, with that of his patron, Kavi Vištāspa, and those peoples settled in Eastern Iran who, though not all "Avestan"speaking, were "of the Avesta" in that they shared in transmitting, and in part composing, the holy texts. Of these texts, the linguistically later ones were handed down in fluid oral transmission—it seems well into the Achaemenian era—and reflect accordingly social conditions from over a long period, often anachronistically blended. Only Zoroaster's $G\bar{a}\theta\bar{a}$ s, strictly memorized from the time of their composition, provide evidence for a particular period and place; but since they form only a small body of texts, their data have generally been interpreted in the light of more abundant Younger Avestan materials.

With regard to Old Avestan society, i.e., that reflected