

A PRIMER OF MODERN STANDARD



Michael C. Shapiro

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ABBREVIATIONS

The following abbreviations have been employed in this primer:

adj.	adjective	pass.	passive
adv.	adverb	perf.	perfective
alt.	alternate	pl.	plural
blut.	best left untranslated in	•	•
oldt.	this context	pol.	polite
!		poss.	possessive
conj.	conjunction	post.	postposition
f.	feminine	pron.	pronoun
fam.	familiar	prop.	proper noun
hab.	habitual	prox.	proximate
í.	intransitive	psmt.	presumptive
imper.	imperative	refl.	reflexive
indecl.	indeclinable	rel.	relative
int.	intimate	s.	singular
inter.	interrogative	si.	simple
interj.	interjection	Skt.	Sanskrit
m.	masculine	t.	transitive
n,	noun	v.	verb
neg.	negative	1	1st person
non-prox.	non-proximate	2	2nd person
num.	number	3	3rd person
obl.	oblique	I	Class I
p.	present	II	Class II
part.	participle	•	hypothetical form
partl.	particle	~	alternates with

The following abbreviations have been used in citing the sources of supplementary reading passages and in referring to Hindi reference materials:

APS	आग्नो पढ़ें ग्रीर सीखें: मेरी चौथी पुस्तक राष्ट्रीय शैक्षिक अनुसंधान ग्रीर प्रशिक्षण परिषद्. New
	Delhi. 1968.
BGMH	A Basic Grammar of Modern Hindi. 3rd edition. Central Hindi Directo-
	rate, Ministry of Education and Social Welfare, Government of India.
	New Delhi. 1975.
BKSK	बच्चों की सो कविताएँ. Harikrana Devasare (ed.). Śakun Prakāsan. New Delhi,

1972.

ABBREVIATIONS

DBSSE	Delhi Board Secondary School Examination (Hindi Paper I, 1977). Published by Shiv Das and Sons, Delhi, 1983.
HKPP	हिन्दी की पहली पुस्तक. Satyanārāyaṇ and Avadhanandan. दक्षिण भारत हिन्दी प्रचार सभा. Madras. 1959.
PKK	पंजाब और कुल्लू की कहानियाँ. Surjit. Publications Division, Information and Broadcasting Ministry, Government of India. New Delhi. 1964.
SHP(I)	सरल हिन्दी पाठमाला (पहली पुस्तक). Jagdiscandra Jain. Orient Longmans. Calcutta. 1950.
SHP(II)	सरल हिन्दी पाठमाला (दूसरी पुस्तक). Jagdiscandra Jain. Orient Longmans. Calcutta. 1952.
SHP (P)	सरल हिन्दी पाठमाला (प्रवेशिका). Jagdiścandra Jain. Orient Longmans. Calcutta.

PART I

CHAPTER 1: INTRODUCTION

1.1. THE HINDI LANGUAGE

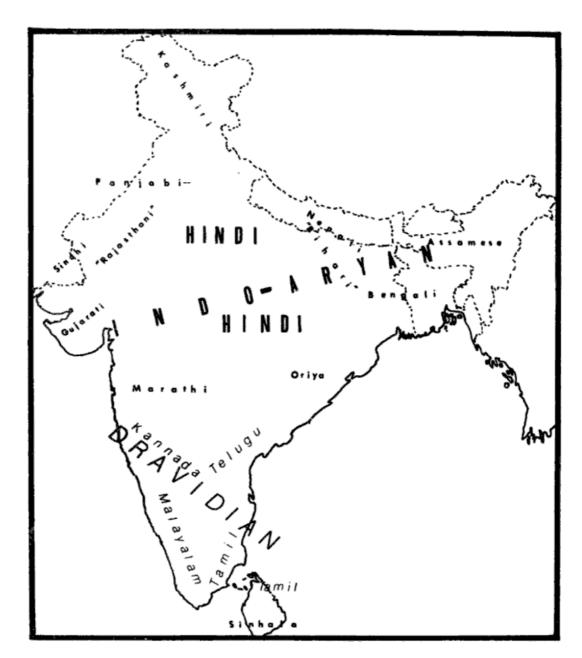
Hindi is one of the most widely spoken languages of the world, possessing speakers of the same order of magnitude as those of English and Russian. In India it has been accorded the status of 'Official Language' and, along with English, is recognized by the central government for use for most administrative purposes. It is spoken natively by at least 150 million persons in the Indian states of Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, and Bihar and as a second language by a like number in other states of North India. It is also an official language of Uttar Pradesh, Madhya Pradesh, Bihar, Haryana, Rajasthan, and Himachal Pradesh, as well as of the Delhi union territory. Urdu, a language so closely related to Hindi to allow some to consider the two to be variants of a single tongue, is spoken by tens of millions, either as a first or second language, both in Pakistan and India. Members of emigrant Indian communities the world over use Hindi as a lingua franca. Hindi enjoys some order of official status in countries as diverse as Fiji, Mauritius, and Guyana.

1.2. THE LINGUISTIC STATUS OF HINDI

Hindi belongs to the Indo-Aryan family of languages, a subgroup of the Indo-European family. It is thus related to such European languages as English, French, German, Russian, etc. The modern Indo-Aryan languages, including such standardized literary languages as Bengali, Marathi, Konkani, Panjabi, Assamese, Oriya, Nepali, Sinhala (=Sinhalese), Sindhi, Kashmiri, Urdu, and Hindi, are historically derived from Sanskrit, the most important vehicle of communication of classical Indian civilization. These modern Indo-Aryan languages stand in approximately the same relation to Sanskrit as do the modern Romance Languages (i.e., French, Spanish, Italian, Portuguese, Rumanian, etc.) to Latin. With the exception of Sinhala, spoken in Sri Lanka, the Indo-Aryan languages are spread over approximately the northern two-thirds of the Indian subcontinent. Languages of the Dravidian family, genetically unrelated to those of the Indo-Aryan family, are the primary standardized vernaculars of the remaining third of the subcontinent. The most important of these languages are Tamil, Telugu, Kannada, and Malayalam.

1.3. DIALECTS OF HINDI

In its spoken forms Hindi encompasses a wide range of dialects. Roughly speaking, these varieties can be divided into "western" and "eastern" groups, with the former including Braj (western Uttar Pradesh and adjacent districts of Haryana, Rajasthan, and Madhya Pradesh), Bundeli (north-central Madhya Pradesh and south-western Uttar Pradesh), Kanauji (west-central Uttar Pradesh), Bangru (Haryana),



· Figure 1. Major Vernacular Language of South Asia.

and Hindustani (Delhi and its environs), and the latter including Avadhi (north-central and central Uttar Pradesh), Bagheli (north-central Madhya Pradesh and south-central Uttar Pradesh), and Chattisgarhi (east-central Madhya Pradesh). In addition to these

western and eastern Hindi dialects, there are several other speech forms that, although counted by some as varieties of Hindi, are properly considered distinct languages. These include a number of Rajasthani languages (of which Marwari is the most widely spoken) and the so-called "Bihari" languages, Maithili, Magahi, and Bhojpuri, of eastern Uttar Pradesh, western and central Bihar, and the Nepal Terai.

The standardized form of Hindi, commonly referred to as khaRi boli (literally 'standing language'), has a somewhat complex history. Before the end of the nine-teenth century "Hindi" literary works were for the most part written in normalized forms of regional vernaculars. Tulsidās and Sūrdās, two of Hindi's greatest medieval devotional poets, wrote in old forms of Avadhi and Braj respectively. The modern standard language (as opposed to regional vernacular or literary dialects) arose through the infusion of considerable external (i.e., non-Hindi) vocabulary into a grammatical skeleton based on the vernacular dialect spoken in the Delhi area. Such non-Hindi vocabulary has included forms from such diverse languages as Sanskrit, Arabic, Persian, Turkish, Portuguese, and English. Beginning in the nineteenth century a heavily Sanskritized form of Hindi, often referred to as śuddh (or 'pure') Hindi, began to come into existence. It is this form of Hindi, written in the devanāgarī writing system (v. chaps. 2-4), that has been promulgated by the Government of India and that is taught in formal courses of study in India.

1.4. HINDI, URDU AND HINDUSTANI

The terms "Urdu" and "Hindustani" are, unfortunately, often used interchangeably with 'Hindi,' leading to considerable confusion. Urdu, like Hindi, is based on the grammar of the vernacular dialect of the Delhi area. Its vocabulary, however, has been enriched by borrowings from Persian and Arabic. In contrast to Hindi, it is written in a modified form of Arabic script. Whereas devanāgarī is written from left to right, Urdu is written from right to left. Literary Urdu can differ quite markedly from literary Hindi. In its most formal varieties the former employs a highly Islamicized vocabulary and may also use a limited set of Persian or Arabic grammatical constructions. Formal Hindi, by contrast, can be extremely Sanskritized, drawing from the rich technical vocabulary of Sanskrit and employing Sanskrit word building devices such as prefixes, suffixes, and other grammatical markers.

The term Hindustani, easily confusable with Hindi, is used in many different, and often contradictory, senses. The most generally accepted of these is a vernacular speech form that is neither excessively Sanskritized nor Islamicized. Hindustani's vocabulary consists of a core of "native" lexical items, as well as a number of forms drawn from either the Sanskritic or the Perso-Arabic lexica. It is this Hindustani that is employed by the vast majority of either Hindi or Urdu speakers for conversational purposes. Hindustani is readily understandable both by individuals who use śuddh Hindi for formal written communication and by those who use literary Urdu. Colloquial Hindustani can be easily written in either devanāgarī or in Urdu script. Since the partition of India in 1947, it has been increasingly common for citizens of India to write in devanāgarī and for those of Pakistan to write in Urdu script. Even in India, however, many individuals, particularly those who received their education before the 1950's or who identify their mother tongues as Urdu, continue to write Hindustani in

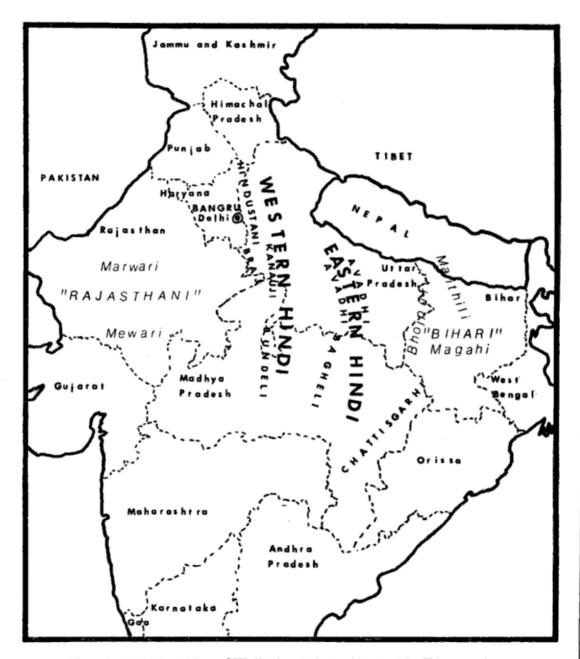


Figure 2. The Major Dialects of Hindi (also "Rajasthani" and "Bihari" languages).

the Urdu script. In Pakistan, Urdu or Hindustani is written almost exclusively in the Urdu script.

In recent years Hindi has come to enjoy a position of preeminence among South

Asian vernacular languages. It has become widely studied throughout India as a result of official efforts in its behalf. Except for English, it is the most commonly employed lingua franca in the subcontinent. Hindi films, manufactured in great number in Bombay, are widely shown in India and to overseas Indian communities. Hindi film songs are enjoyed by hundreds of millions of Indians, and even by the speakers of non-Indian languages, throughout the world. Hindi is an important medium for publication of all kinds, from popular novels to literary works and textbooks. In recent years foreign literature has been extensively translated into Hindi.

I have chosen to call the language discussed in this primer Modern Standard Hindi. It is essentially that form of Sanskritized Hindi taught in Hindi language classes in the Republic of India. I have stressed Sanskritic vocabulary over the Perso-Arabic, although I have included many of those common Perso-Arabic vocabulary items that have entered all styles of the language. The writing system hereemployed is devanāgarī (as opposed to Urdu script). It is my belief that literary Hindi and literary Urdu ought best to be considered two distinct languages, even though the colloquial versions of these two languages overlap to a considerable degree. Readers whose primary interest is in literary Urdu are advised to seek out any of a number of language courses carried out through the medium of Urdu script. Muhammad Abd-al-Rahman Barker's A Course in Urdu, 3 vols. (Ithaca: Spoken Language Services, 1975), is particularly recommended.

1.5. STRATA OF HINDI VOCABULARY

The vocabulary of Modern Standard Hindi is both rich and diverse. It draws from the vast lexical resources of Sanskrit, Arabic, Persian, Turkish, Portuguese, English, and other languages with which Hindi has come into contact. Indian grammarians have found it useful to classify some of the different types of vocabulary items that coexist in the language. Those words that are borrowed directly from Sanskrit with little or no phonetic alteration are classified as tatsama: e.g., pakṣī 'bird', jal, 'water', kārya 'work, deed', agni 'fire'. Items that are ultimately of Sanskritic origin but that have undergone continual phonetic change in the course of their historical evolution are designated as tadbhava, e.g., āg 'fire', sab 'all' (Skt. sarva) "tca 'high, tall' (Skt. ucca). The Indian grammarians also recognize a class of vocabulary items intermediate between tatsama and tadbhava forms. These words, categorized as arddha-tatsama (or "half-tatsama"), are direct borrowings from Sanskrit (as are tatsama forms), but show some degree of phonetic modification (like tadbhava vocabulary), e.g., agin 'fire' (Skt. agni), śanīcar 'Saturday' (Skt. śanaiścara). The tatsama, arddha-tatsama, and tadbhava vocabularies of Hindi are historically Indo-Aryan, owing their origins to Sanskrit in one way or another. In this sense they contrast with borrowings from such non-Indo-Aryan languages as English, Portuguese, Persian, Turkish, and Arabic.

It is not uncommon to find in Hindi sets of synonyms or near synonyms used for expressing a given concept. For instance, the notion 'to wait' can be translated into Hindi as pratiksā karnā (literally 'to do waiting') with the tatsama form pratiksā 'waiting', intazār karnā (with the Arabic-derived noun intazār 'waiting'), or as the tadbhava verb thaharnā. The English noun water is rendered into Hindi by the tadbhava form pāni, by the tatsama word jal, by the Arabic āb, as well as by other words of more limited occurrence.

CHAPTER 2: THE Devanāgarī WRITING SYSTEM AND HINDI PRONUNCIATION

2.1. Introduction

Modern Standard Hindi is most commonly written in the devanāgarī (or sometimes simply nāgarī) writing system. This orthography is also employed for the writing of Sanskrit, Marathi, and Nepali. It is historically related to a number of other writing systems—e.g., those of Bengali, Oriya, Panjabi, Gujarati, Tamil, Telugu, Malayalam, Kannada, Sinhala—current in different regions of South Asia. Several writing systems of Inner and Southeast Asia (e.g., Tibetan, Mongolian, Manchu, Cambodian, Thai) are distantly related to devanāgarī, by way of common origin from the ancient Indian Brāhmī syllabary.

2.2. BASIC PRINCIPLES OF DEVANĀGARĪ

The devanāgarī writing system is best considered to be a modified syllabary. Its syllabic nature results from the fact that words written in this system can be analyzed into sequences of block-like figures each of which represents an independent syllable. The syllabary is said to be a modified one because many of these figures can themselves be analyzed into smaller components standing for the individual sounds of which the syllables are composed. Characters of the devanāgarī system are written from left to right and are hung from a horizontal cross bar (or rekhā). The entire devanāgarī system is not very complex in structure and can be learned in a short period of time. The relationship between characters of the writing system and sounds of the spoken language is quite direct. Mastery of Hindi spelling poses few problems once knowledge has been acquired of the forms of devanāgarī and the pronunciation of Hindi sounds.

There are thirty-three simple consonantal signs used in devanāgarī. To this number must be added a much larger number of conjunct consonant characters representing sequences (or clusters) of consonants. These conjunct consonant characters can, for the most part, be formed by the combination of simple consonants through regular principles. In addition to consonantal forms, devanāgarī possesses characters for eleven vowels. Each of these vowels can be represented in two different ways. When the vowel stands by itself for an entire syllable (i.e., when it is not preceded by a consonant or cluster of consonants), it is indicated by an independent character. When the vowel is preceded by a consonant, it is notated by the placement of a mark of some

In rapid writing, as well as in artistic varieties of handwriting and printing, the rekhā is often omitted.

kind (called a mātrā) on or about the sign for the previous consonant or consonant cluster.

In addition, devanāgarī possesses several other kinds of orthographic devices. It contains a set of numerals (3.3.), punctuation devices of various sorts (4.4.), and diacritics indicating vowel nasalization (2.3.) or other features of pronunciation. It should be observed that devanāgarī employs slightly different inventories of characters when used to represent languages other than Hindi. The reader will be relieved to learn that, unlike Roman, Greek, or Cyrillic alphabets, devanāgarī neither makes a distinction between upper and lower case letters nor between cursive and non-cursive varieties.²

2.3. PRONUNCIATION OF HINDI VOWELS

The eleven vowels of Standard Hindi can, for purposes of exposition, be divided into six "simple" vowels $(a, \bar{a}, i, i, u, \bar{u})$, an "r-like" vowel (f), and four "complex" vowels (e, ai, o, au). The four "simple" vowels (a, \bar{a}, i, u) should pose few problems for English speakers, corresponding closely to the vowels in American English bun, fond, hit, and foot respectively. The sounds i and \bar{u} approximate the vowels of English feet and boot, but without the noticeable diphthongal quality of the pronunciation of these English vowels. Hindi i and \bar{u} thus correspond more closely to what has often been imprecisely characterized as the "pure" i and \bar{u} vowels of many European languages than they do to any English sounds.

The pronunciation of the "r-colored" vowel r varies considerably in Hindi speakping regions. In one very common version, a consonantal r, formed by quickly "tapping" the tip (or apex) of the tongue against the front part of the roof of the mouth, is immediately followed by a brief i. In the pronunciation of many Hindi speakers, particularly in regions adjacent to Rajasthan and Gujarat, the consonantal r is followed by a short u sound instead of an i. Other speakers vocalize the Hindi r as a sequence of a and a following consonantal r.

The "complex" vowels e and o approximate the sounds of the English words gate and boat. Once again it should be noted that these sounds are pronounced in the European fashion, without any strong diphthongal quality. Considerable variation can be observed in the pronunciation of the remaining vowels ai and au. In normative varieties of Western Hindi, the first of these has approximately the quality of the vowel in English cat. In Eastern Hindi, however, this vowel may be noticeably diphthongal, sounding like a rapid sequence of an a or \bar{a} and an i-like sound. The pronunciation of the vowel au may cause difficulty for some speakers of English, as many English dialects lack any sound closely corresponding to it. In many Western Hindi dialects the sound has a pronunciation about halfway between that of \bar{a} and o, retaining the lip rounding of the latter. This is the sound that can be heard in many East Coast dialects of American English in such words as caught, taught, bought, etc., but without the slight "uh"-like element that can be heard at the end of the vowel in these words. In Eastern Hindi, au tends to be diphthongal, sounding like a rapid sequence of a or \bar{a} and a following u element. The diphthongal pronunciations of ai and

2. In rapid writing, however, many devanāgar! characters are frequently abbreviated or modified.

2.4. DEVANĀGARĪ VOWEL SIGNS

The devanāgarī writing system possesses two different forms for each of the vowels of Hindi. A full form is employed for a vowel that does not immediately follow a consonant or consonant cluster, i.e., in word-initial position or when the second of a sequence of vowels. A short form (or $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$) is used when the vowel immediately follows a consonant or consonant cluster. These short forms consist of lines, hooks, or combinations of both placed above, below, or to the side of consonantal characters. One vowel, a, has no special short form. The absence of a $m\bar{a}tr\bar{a}$ adjacent to a consonant suffices to indicate the presence of this vowel. For this reason a is often referred to as the "inherent a." At the end of a word, the inherent a is not normally vocalized. Thus $\pi\pi$ is rendered in Hindi as kak instead of kaka.

Nasalized vowels are notated by the use of one of two superscript diacritics (anusvāra) (·) and anunāsika (ˇ) (also called candrabindu). Indian grammarians have formulated elaborate rules describing when each of these is used. In practice, the distinction between the two notations is often not observed. Some generalizations, however, can be pointed out. The first of these, anusvāra, is always used when the vowel marking (whether short or long form) protrudes above the rekhā (e.g., $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$) $\frac{1}{2}$, $\frac{1}{2}$

In Figure 5 below, the *devanāgarī* system of vowel marking is summarized. Short and long forms for each sound are given, as well as combinations of the sample consonants π k and π m⁶ with following vowels.

Trans- literation	Full Form	Short Form म m and क k Followed by Vowel								
			Non-nasalize				1	Nasali	ized	
a	अ	None	म	ma	क	ka	मं/मैं	mā	कं/कें	kā
	घ									
ā	आ	T T	मा	mā	का	kā	मां/मा	mã	कां/काँ	kä
	धा									
i	ξ	F7	मि	mi	कि	ki	मिं	mî	কি	kī

^{5.} When devanagari is used for writing Sanskrit, as opposed to Hindi, the "inherent—a" is always pronounced, even in word-final position.

^{6.} Precisely speaking, a consonant symbol by itself indicates the consonant plus a following rail a. The signs rail a should thus be transcribed as ra and rail a respectively. The diacritic virāma (v. 4.1.2.), a short diagonal slash placed underneath the consonant sign, is used to block the pronunciation of the "inherent rail a" (thus rail a multiple rail

^{7.} Note that although the short form for \(\) is written before a consonant, the vowel is pronounced after it. Thus \(\) is to be contrasted with \(\) is \(ik. \)

ı	ŧ	ì	मी	mī	की	kī	मीं	mľ	कीं	k!
u	8		मु	mu	3	ku	मं/मुँ	mũ	क्ं/कुं	kũ
ũ	ऊ		म्	mū	ৰূ	kū	म्ंं∕म्	тũ	कूं/कू	kũ
r	Æ		मृ	mŗ	₹.	k <u>r</u>	Do	not o	ccur	
e	ए	`	मे	me	के	ke	में	т₹	कें	k z
ai ⁸	ऐ		मै	mai	के	kai	मै	māi	₹	kāī
o	ओ	ì	मो	mo	को	ko	मों	mõ	कों	kõ
	भ्रो									
au	बी	1	मी	mau	को	kau	मीं	mäü	कीँ	kāŭ
1	भी									

Figure 5. Representation of Hindi vowels in devanagari.

Several peculiarities can be observed in *devanāgarī* vowel notation. Some vowel characters have alternate full forms. Under the provisions of an orthographic reform of 1953, the letters varantial a, varantial a

2.5. Exercises

- 2.5.1. Read aloud each of the following forms and transcribe into Roman using the transliteration introduced in secs. 2.2 and 2.3:
- 1. कु, मृ, कों, मू, मि, के, माँ 2. इक, उक, ग्रांक, ग्रोम, ऋम, ऊक 3. इका, उके, ग्रोंकी, मेकी, मोकू, काकी, आको 4. एकमू, इकुमे, ओकामो, उमकी 5. कमी, आओ, कौआ, कोई, कई, आऊँ, ग्राए ग्राएँ.
- 2.5.2. Transcribe the following forms into devanagari:
- 1. ko, ml, ku, kṛ, mā, mo; 2. am, ām, tk, ṛm, õk, em; 3. imo, aimu, oki, ame, aukā, ṛkai; 4. tmīm, ikūk, omek, ākūm, aiklk, umokā; 5. āl, āi, koe, kau, mai, moā.
- 8. The transcriptions ai and au might, in theory be confused with vowel sequences of আ plus ই and আ plus ই. Fortunately no such diphthong occurs in Hindi. The Roman notations ai and au should be interpreted in this book as standing for the vowel sounds ই and আ respectively. The transliterations al, āt, aū, āū, etc., here represent diphthongs (i.e. আई, আई, অऊ, आऊ). The inherent wa, included when a consonant sign is written without any mātrā, can constitute the first element of such a diphthong (e.g., ফুর্ছ kai মুছ mai).
- 9. This reform also effected a minor change in the printed form of we r as well as several alterations of consonant characters (v. 3.2).

CHAPTER 3: THE Devanāgarī WRITING SYSTEM AND HINDI PRONUNCIATION (Cont.)

3.1. Introduction to the Hindi Consonant System

The consonant system of Hindi, like that of all Indo-Aryan languages is substantially more complex than that of English and other West European languages. This can be attributed both to the sheer number of Hindi consonants and to the manner in which these sounds are articulated. Nevertheless, mastery of Hindi consonants can be readily achieved once the student has learned some basic phonetic principles.

Hindi consonants can be divided into groups on the basis of the phonetic properties of their formation. These groups contain twenty stops (k, kh, g, gh, c, ch, j, jh, t, th, d, dh, t, th, d, dh, p, ph, b, bh), five nasals (n, n, n, m), four semi-vowels (v, r, l, v), three sibilants (s, s, s), one "h-like" sound (h), and two flaps (R, Rh) respectively. Many Hindi speakers employ several other sounds (k, kh, g, z, f) that are not part of the indigenous inventory of consonants. These supplemental consonants have come into Hindi as a result of the borrowing of vocabulary from non-Indo-Aryan languages. The source languages possessed consonants not corresponding to native Hindi ones. When the vocabulary items were adopted, some semblance of the pronunciation of the sounds in the language of origin was also adopted.

The consonants of Hindi can be further classified as either simple or conjunct, the former standing for a single consonant and the latter for two or more consonants without an intervening vowel. Double (or "geminate") consonants are a subtype of conjunct in which the two components of the cluster are the same. Although the vast majority of conjunct consonants consist of two components, clusters with three or more elements are not uncommon.

The consonant sounds of any language result from the combination of a number of phonetic factors, of which manner of articulation, place of articulation, and the presence or absence of voicing, nasality, and aspiration are the most important from the point of view of Hindi. The above-mentioned classification of Hindi consonants as stops, semi-vowels, nasals, etc., is based upon manner of articulation. It should be noted, however, that one of these classes, the so-called "semi-vowels" is nothing more than a grab-bag of sounds of diverse formation.¹

The primary distinction among Hindi consonants is essentially between the stop consonants and nasals on the one hand and all other consonants on the other. The

^{1.} The y can be considered a true semi-vowel, being little more than a positional version of the vowel ξ i. The r is a tongue tap and the l a lateral resonant. The v is variable in pronunciation, ranging from a labio-dental or bilabial fricative to a true semi-vowel w-like sound (i.e., a positional alternate of ξ u).

5.9. EXERCISES:

5.9.1. Translate into English

1. भारत bhārat, भारत से bhārat se; 2. बो रुपये do rupaye; 3. एक घर ek ghar, घर पर ghar par; 4. सड़के से laRke se, सड़कों से laRkõ se, 5. फूलों में phūlõ më; 6. तीन विद्यार्थियों में tin vidyārthiyõ më 7. दरवाचे darvāze, दरवाचे पर darvāze par; 8. पाँच आदमी pāc ādmi; 9. चार कुत्ते cār kutte; 10. बागरे से ägre se; 11. घष्ट्यापकों में adhyāpakõ më 12. कुएँ kuë, कुएँ में kuë më; 13. मित्र mitra, मित्र से mitra se.

5.9.2. TRANSLATE INTO HINDI

1. a boy, the boys, from the boys; 2. the room, in the room, in the rooms; 3. one house, in the three houses; 4. the teachers, among all the teachers; 5. five men, from the five men, 6. a well, in the well, in the wells; 7. the king, the, kings, from the kings; 8. friend, among the friends; 9. in India; 10. from Mohan and Ram.

5.9.3. TRANSLATE INTO ENGLISH

राम घर पर है। rām ghar par hai. 2. घर में घ्वा है? ghar me kyā hai? 3. पानी कुएँ में है pānt kuê me hai. 4. कुएँ में पानी है। kuê me pāni hai. 5. अब मोहन यहाँ नहीं है। ab mohan yahā nahī hai. 6. केंने कहाँ हैं? kele kahā hāi? 7. राम और मोहन मित्र हैं। rām aur mohan mitra hāi. 8. आगरा पाकिस्तान में नहीं है। āgrā pākistān me nahī hai. 9. सब विद्यार्थी स्कूल में हैं। sab vidyārthi skūl me hāi. 10. अब यहाँ कुत्ते नहीं हैं। ab yahā kutte nahī hāi. 11. आगरा भीर मधुरा उत्तर प्रदेश में हैं। āgrā aur mathurā uttar prades me hāi 12. क्या अब सब लड़के पाकिस्तान में हैं? kyā ab sab la Rke pākistān me hāi?

5.9.4. TRANSLATE INTO HINDI

- 1. The boy is in school. 2. Where is Agra? 3. The four friends are at home. 4. What is on the two bananas? 5. There is a flower in the well. 6. The man is not here now.
- 7. Mohan is in Uttar Pradesh. 8. The boy is in India, not in Pakistan. 9. Four teachers and five students are by the door. 10. Is the man at home now? 11. All the flowers are in the water. 12. There are three rupees in the well.

CHAPTER 6

6.1. FEMININE NOUNS

Hindi possesses two classes of feminine nouns, Class I and Class II. Class I feminine nouns end in -ई-i in their singular direct, -ई-i in their singular oblique, -इयो-iyā in their plural direct, and -इयो-iyō in their oblique plural forms:

Singular		Plural	
Direct	लड़की <i>laRkt</i> 'girl'	लड़कियां 'girls'	
Oblique	लड़की को laRkiko 'to the girl'	लड़कियों को laRkiyõ ko 'to the girls'	

A small number of Class I feminine nouns show forms similar to जड़की laRkt, except that -इ -i or -इया -iyā appear in place of -ई -i in the singular forms:

	Singular	Plural	
Direct	शक्त <i>śakti</i> 'power' चिड्या <i>ciRiyā</i> 'bird'	सस्तियाँ <i>śaktiyā</i> 'powers' चिड्डियां <i>ciRìyā</i> 'birds'	
Obilque	गम्ति सें <i>śakti se</i> 'from the power' चिड़िया से <i>ciRiyā se</i> 'from the bird'	्षक्तियों से <i>śaktiyõ se</i> • 'from the powers' चिड़ियों से <i>ciRiyõ se</i> 'from the birds'	

All remaining feminine nouns in Hindi belong to Class II. These nouns form their plural direct forms by means of the suffix -ए and their plural oblique with -शं -õ. The singular forms, both direct and oblique, may end in virtually any sound, excepting, of course, the -ई -I,-इ -i, and -इया -iyā characteristic of Class I Feminine nouns.

	Singulai	Fluiai
Direct	पुस्तक pustak 'book' वस्तु vastu 'thing' माता mātā 'mother'	पुस्तकें <i>pustakह</i> 'books' वस्तुएँ <i>vastuह</i> 'things' माताएँ <i>mātāह</i> 'mothers'
Oblique	पुस्तक में pustak mह 'in the book' बस्तु पर vastu par 'on the thing' माता से mātā se 'from the mother'	पुस्तकों में pustakő mह 'in the books' वस्तुओं पर vastuő par 'on the things' माताघों से mātāõ se 'from the mothers'

Feminine Class II nouns having singular direct forms in $-\bar{u}$ shorten this vowel to $-\bar{u}$ before the plural direct termination $-\bar{q}$ - \bar{z} and the plural oblique termination $-\bar{u}$ - \bar{u} = $-\bar{u}$ = $-\bar{u}$ shorten this vowel

	Singular	Plural	
Direct	बह्न <i>bahū</i> 'daughter-in-law'	बहुएँ <i>bahu</i> ह 'daughters-in-law'	
Oblique	बहू को <i>bahū ko</i> 'to the daughter-in-law'	बहुओं को bahuõ ko 'to the daughters-in-law'	

N.B. It must be remembered that the gender of Hindi nouns cannot always be determined from the basic forms of the nouns. For example, although the ending -भा -ā characterizes a large number of masculine Class I nouns, it is also the terminal sound in many feminine Class II nouns, such as भिन्नता mitratā 'friendship', छाता chātrā 'female student', and एकता ekatā 'solidarity, unity'. Likewise, even though Hindi nouns in -ई -1 tend to belong to feminine Class I, some common nouns ending in this sound are of masculine Class II, as, for example, आवमी ādmī 'man', पानी pānī 'water', भी ghī 'clarified butter', भोती motī 'pearl', and बही dahī 'curds, yoghurt'. Students should therefore take care to learn the gender of Hindi nouns when the words are first encountered.

6.2. ADJECTIVES

Hindi adjectives are of two basic kinds, declinable and indeclinable. Declinable adjectives agree with the nouns they modify in gender (masculine vs. feminine), number (singular vs. plural), and case (direct vs., oblique). The masculine forms of declinable adjectives end in $-\pi$ in the singular direct, and $-\pi$ in the singular oblique, plural direct, and plural oblique cases. Declinable adjectives always show $-\pi$ when modifying feminine nouns, whether singular or plural, direct or oblique. The paradigm of the declinable adjective $\pi\pi$ khaRā 'standing' is given below:

	Mascul Singular	line Plural	
Direct	खड़ा लड़का <i>khaRā laRkā</i> 'standing boy'	खड़े लड़कें khaRe laRke 'standing boys'	
Oblique	खड़े लड़के को khaRe laRke ko 'to the standing boy'	खड़े लड़कों को khaRe laRkô ko 'to the standing boys'	
	Femini Singular	ne Plural	
Direct	खड़ी लड़की khaRt laRkI 'standing girl'	खड़ी लड़कियाँ khaRi laRkiyवँ 'standing girls'	
Oblique	खड़ी सड़की को khaRi laRkt ko 'to the standing girl'	बड़ी लड़कियों को khaRI laRkiyő ko 'to the standing girls'	

A small number of variable adjectives show nasalization throughout their paradigms; e.g. पाँचवा pacva (f. पाँचवी pacva) 'fifth' (V.11.3).

Indeclinable adjectives possess but a single form when modifying nouns of different genders, numbers, or cases. These adjectives do not end in any characteristic sound or series of sounds. A small number of indeclinable adjectives end in $-\pi \tau - \bar{a}$ (e.g., $\pi - \pi \tau - \bar{a}$ (e.g., $\pi - \pi \tau - \bar{a}$) and care should be taken not to treat these adjectives as declinable.

Hindi adjectives may be used either predicatively (i.e. to make a statement about some nominal entity) or attributively (i.e., to restrict or limit the meaning of some nominal entity). Examples of these two types of adjectival usage are given below:

Predicative:

आदमी वहाँ खडाहै।

ādmī vahā khaRā hai.

'The man is standing there'.

Attributive:

खक्षा आदमी मदन है।

kha Rā ādmī madan hai.

'The standing man is Madan'.

Occasionally adjectives are used elliptically in place of the nouns they are understood to modify. In such cases these adjectives come to be declined as nouns. Thus besides the phrase अमीर लोगों को $amIr log\tilde{o} ko$ 'to the rich people' one also encounters अमीरों को $amIr\tilde{o} ko$ 'to the rich (people)'.

6.3. Personal Pronouns

Hindi personal pronouns distinguish three persons (first, second, and third), two numbers (singular and plural), and two cases (direct and oblique). Second person plural pronouns distinguish two different degrees of respect (familiar and polite). Third person personal pronouns may further be specified as either proximate or non-proximate.

The direct forms of the Hindi personal pronouns are as follows:

Plural Singular 1st Person मैं mail 'I' हम ham 'we' 2nd Person तुम tum 'you (familiar)' त tū 'you (intimate)' भाष āp 'you (polite)' 3rd Person: proximate यह yah (phonetically ये ye 'they, he/she (honorific) [ye]) 'he, she, it' non-proximate बह vah (phonetically [vo] → ve¹ 'they, he/she (honor [wo]) 'he, she, it' orific)

The use of personal pronouns is Hindi is significantly different from the use of personal pronouns in English. The main areas of divergence are as follows:

Hindi has three second personal pronouns, whereas English has only the single form 'you'. The singular second person pronoun \bar{q} $t\bar{u}$ is used by Hindi speakers in situations of maximal intimacy. It is commonly used to call small children, to invoke

^{1.} Many Hindi speakers make no distinction in the pronunciation of ag vah and a ve, rendering both as [vo].

or address a god, to address close friends of equal status, or to express anger or disgust. It is also often used in the home by husbands to address their wives, but less often by wives addressing their husbands, gu tum is employed in the home by most family members in a wide variety of contexts. In situations of social inequality it may be used to address the individual of inferior position. तम tum is also commonly used by friends and colleagues in informal situations. Any ap is by and large used to address individuals whom the speaker wishes to accord respect. The form is therefore employed for elders, teachers, and employers. It is also generally used in situations involving a high degree of formality. In situations of social inequality with $\bar{a}p$ is appropriate for addressing the superior party. The pronoun of tū is grammatically singular and may be used to address only individuals. तुम tum and माप ap, by contrast, are grammatically plural, but may be used to address either individuals or groups of them. The word नोग log (literally 'people') is sometimes added directly after तुम tum or आप ap (i.e. तुम लोग tum log, आप लोग ap log) to specify that more than one person is indicated. Words in grammatical agreement with च tū must be grammatically singular. Words in agreement with च म tum or भाग ap must be grammatically plural regardless of the actual number of persons referred to by the pronouns. In this book the pronouns तू tū, तुम tum, and आप āp are referred to as intimate, familiar, and polite second person pronouns respectively.

हम ham is the normal first person pronoun used to express the English notion 'we'. It is, however, ofter used in some varieties of colloquial Hindi in a singular sense in place of the first person singular pronoun में mai. When used by females, it is not uncommon for हम ham to command masculine (in contrast to the expected feminine) verb forms.

The third person singular proximate pronoun as yah (commonly pronounced [ye]) generally refers to a person or thing proximate to the speaker, or the most recent of a number of items mentioned in some discourse. As vah (commonly pronounced [vo] or [wo] indicates a person or thing distant from the speaker or an item (among two or more) earlier specified in some discourse. When degree of proximity to the speaker is not being specifically indicated, as vah tends to be preferred as the common third person singular pronouns for 'he', 'she', and 'it'.

₹ ye and ₹ ve are third person plural pronouns, proximate and non-proximate respectively. Although grammatically plural, they can both be used to refer to either individuals or groups of them. This use of plural pronouns with singular reference is employed as a sign of respect to the person indicated by the pronoun.²

N.B. sentences employing third person plural pronouns are frequently ambiguous with regard to number. For example, the sentence

आज वे इलाहाबाद में हैं। aj ve ilāhābād me hāi.

can be translated either as 'Today they are in Allahabad' or as 'Today he/she (polite) is in Allahabad'. The correct reading of the sentence can only be determined through context.

^{2.} For further details on the "honorific" use of pronouns v. 7.5.

6.4. THE VERB होना honā 'To Be'

The Hindi verb for 'to be' is given $hon\bar{a}$.3 This verb can be used as a copula in simple predicative sentences (i.e., x=y) and as an auxiliary verb in a large number of verbal constructions. There are four main sets of verbal forms of given $hon\bar{a}$, the present, the past, the subjunctive, and the presumptive. Present tense forms of given $hon\bar{a}$ agree with their subjects in number and person:

	Singular	Plural
1st Person 2nd Person (Int.)	मैं māiहूँ hữ तू tù है hai	हम hamहैं hat (Fem.) तुम tum हो ho (Pol.) आप apहैं hat
3rd Person (Prox.) (Non-Prox.)	यह yahहै hai बह vahहै hai	ये yeहै hāī वे veहै hāī

Past tense forms of होना honā agree with their subjects in number and gender. They show या thā with masculine singular subjects, ये the with masculine plural, यो thī with feminine singular, and यो thī with feminine plural:

		Masculine	Feminine
Singular :	मैं/तू/यह/वह māĭ tū yah vah	था thā	थी thi
Plural:	हम/तुम/श्राप/ये/वे ham/tum/āp/ye/ve	थे the	थीं thi

Subjunctive and presumptive forms of girl honā are discussed in 7.1.

6.5. बहुत bahut AND बड़ा baRā

The word बहुत bahut 'very' is commonly used as an adverb immediately before adjectives to indicate an augmented degree of the quality of the adjective, e.g., बहुत अच्छा मिल bahut acchā mitra 'very good friend'. The adjective बड़ा baRā 'large, great' may also be used adverbially in the same capacity as बहुत bahut, e.g., बड़ा अच्छा मिल baRā acchā mitra. In this usage baRā is declined to agree with the head noun in number, gender, and case: बड़े अच्छे मिल को baRe acche mitra ko 'to the very good friend'; बड़ी मच्छी पुस्तक baRt accht pustak 'the very good book'.

^{3.} The form honā is the infinitive of the verb 'to be'. For further discussion of the infinitive in Hindi v. 21.1.

6.6. VOCABULARY

अंग्रेजी	ägrezl	prop. f. English lan- guage; adj. English	हिन्दी	hindI	prop. f. the Hindi language
		prop.m. Amar (man's	ग्रच्छा	acchā	adj. good
अमर	amar		काला	kālā	adj. black
		name)	वरा	khaRā	adj. standing
इमारत	imārat	n.f. building		khulā	adj. open
इलाह्बाद	ilāhābād	prop. m, Allahabad	खुला		adj. open adj. small, younger
		(a city in Uttar	स्रोटा	choṭā	adj. sman, younger
		Pradesh)	ताचा	tāzā	•
कुर्सी	kursī	n.f. chair	पुराना	purānā	adj. old (of things,
खिड़की	khiRki	n.f. window		baRā	not people) adj. large, great,
चिड़िया	ciRiyā	n.f. bird	बड़ा	oana	elder; adv. very
दिल्ली	dillī	prop.f. Delhi	बंद	bād	adj. closed
दुकान	dukān	n.f. store, shop	ਵੈਨਾ	baiṭhã	adj. seated, sitting
नदी	nadī	n.f. river	भारतीय	bhāratīya	adj. Indian
पुस्तक	pustak	n.f. book.	मीठा	mtţhā	adj. sweet
वंगई	bābat	prop. f. Bombay	भाल	lāi	adj. red
बह	bahū	n.f. daughter-in-law	सफ़ेद	safed	adj. white
मदन	m adan	prop. m. Madan	साफ	sāf	adj. clean, clear, pure
ļ		(man's name)	पाज	āj	adv. today
माता	mātā	n.f. mother	तव	tab	adv. then
मिठा ई	miṭhāt	n.f. sweet, sweetmeat	वहुत	bahut	adv. very; adj. much
मेख	mez	n.f. table	વદુવ	burini	many
रानी	rānī	n.f. queen; prop.f.	लेकिन	lekin	conj. but
l		Rani (a woman's	छ:	chah (pro-	-
l		name)	-	nounced	
लड़की	laRkî	n.f. girl	1	[che]	num. six
स्रोग	log	n.m.pl. people	सात	sāt	num. seven
वस्तु	vastu	n.f. thing	भाठ	āṭh	num, eight
सीता	sītā	prop. f. Sita (a wo-	नी	nau	num, nine
1		man's name)	दस	das	num. ten

6.7. Exercises

6.7.1. Translate into English

1. मिठाई mițhāi, छः मिठाइयाँ chah mithāiyā, ताजी मिठाइयाँ tāzi mițhāiyā; 2. पुरानी इमारत purāni imārat, बहुत इमारतें bahut imāratë; 3. खिड़कियों पर khiRkiyõ par, खुली खिड़की khuli khiRki; 4. बड़ी अच्छी लड़की baRi acchi laRki, बैठी लड़कियों से baițhi laRkiyõ se; 5. काली पुस्तकें kāli pustakë, बहुत अच्छी पुस्तकों में bahut acchi pustakõ më; 6. सात खड़े लड़के sāt khaRe laRke; 7. सफ़ेद घीर काले कुत्ते safed aur kāle kutte; 8. घारतीय निवयों में bhāratiya nadiyõ më; 9. छोटी येजों पर choti mezõ par; 10. आठ साफ़ कमरे āth sāf kamre.

6.7.2. Translate into Hindi

1. I am, I (m.) was; 2. they (m.) were, they are; 3. you (int.) are, you (int. f.) were;

4. we are, we (f.) were; 5. you (pol.) are, you (fam.) are; 6. the girls were, the boys are; 7. the red book, in the very red book; 8. ten closed stores, in the ten closed stores; 9. the sweet banana, from the sweet banana; in the five very sweet bananas; 10. three daughters-in-law, from the daughters-in-law.

6.7.3. Translate into English

1. वह लड़का स्कूल में है vah la Rkā skūl më hai. 2. तब वह वहीं नहीं थी। tab vah vahā nahī thī. 3. तुम इलाहबाद में नहीं थे। tum ilāhābād më nahī the. 4. सीता और रानी यहाँ बैठी थीं। sītā aur rāni yahā baithī thī. 5. मिठाइयाँ बहुत ताजी हैं। mithāiyā bahut tāzī hāi. 6. क्या पुस्तकें बहुत पुरानी हैं? kyā pustakë bahut purānī hāi? 7. नदी में कौन है? nadī më kaun hai? 8. मदन और घमर बड़े अच्छे मिल्र हैं। madan aur amar ba Re acche mitra hāi. 9. कमरा साफ़ और बड़ा है। kamrā sāf aur ba Rā hai. 10. तब तू वहां क्यों था? tab tū vahā kyō thā? 11. आप लोग आगरे में कब थे? āp log āgre më kab the? 12. क्या बह अंग्रेशी है? kyā vah āgrezī hai?

6.7.4. Translate into Hindi

1. The stores are open. 2. The books were very old. 3. She is at home. 4. You (int.) are in the large river. 5. There were six dogs in the house. 6. You (pol.) were sitting in the red chair. 7. Bombay is not in Uttar Pradesh. 8. The table is very large and old. 9. We (f.) were not at home then. 10. Is the building in Bombay? 11. I (m.) am sitting on the white chair. 12. There are many tables in the large room.

CHAPTER 7

7.1. PRESUMPTIVE AND SUBJUNCTIVE FORMS OF होना honā 'To Be'

Presumptive forms of the verb $\xi i \pi i hon \bar{a}$ agree with their subjects in gender, person, and number. These forms all show 'the sound $-\pi$ -g-followed by one of the vowels $-\pi i$, $-\pi i$, or $-\xi$. The choice among these three vowels is determined by the number and gender of the subject.

	Masculine	Feminine
मैं māi	हूँगा hधेga (हीऊँगा hoधेgā)	हूँगी hधिg! (or होऊँगी hoधिg!)
Singulor तू tū	होगा hogā	होगी hog!
यह yah/वह vah	होगा hogā	होगी hogi
हम ham	होंगे hõge	होंगी hõgi
Plural तुम tum	होगे hoge	होगी hogi
आप āp	होंगे hõge	होंगी hõgi
ये ye/ वे ve	होंगे hõge	होंगी hõgi

Presumptive forms are used to indicate a state of affairs that is *presumed*, but not known through first-hand experience, to exist.

सीता और अशोक अब तक दिल्ली में होंगे sitā aur asok ab tak dilli më hoge.

'Sita and Ashok must' be in Delhi by now.' (i.e., they are presumed to be there)

यह लड़की भापकी बहन होगी yah laRki āpki bahan hogi.

'This girl must be your sister.'

When explicit mention is made of future time (as when a word such as www kal 'tomorrow' is present), presumptive forms may take on future sense:

कल मेरा भाई दिल्ली में होना kal merā bhāi dillī mē hogā.

'My brother will (presumably) be in Delhi tomorrow.' Note, however, that even in the above sentence the line between a presumptive sense and a future sense of the

^{1.} The word must is commonly employed in English in a presumptive sense. The student should bear in mind, however, that there are two senses of English must, one indicating obligation or necessity and the other presumption. These two senses of must are illustrated by "You must go home now" and "You must have met my good friend John in London" respectively. It is only the latter of these two uses of English must that is expressed in Hindi by the use of presumptive forms of thona.

verb 'to be' in Hindi is not clear. Sentences such as this one are always felt to embody a presumptive judgement about some state of affairs, rather than a positive assertion that this state of affairs will come to be.

Subjunctive forms of होना honā are identical to the presumptive forms, but with the -गा /-गे /-गो - $g\bar{a}$ - |ge|- $g\bar{i}$ endings removed. These forms thus agree with their subjects in number and person, but not in gender :

मैं māi हो जैं hott तू tū हो ho यह yah/ हो ho यह vah

हम ham हों hŏ तुम tum होओ hoo (or हो ho) आप ap हों hö ये ye/बे ve हों hõ

Subjunctive forms of that hona are generally used to indicate situations that are speculative, hypothetical, contingent, or desired in some way. For example, the English sentence "I went you to be happy" is expressed in Hindi by a sequence of words that can be literally translated as 'I want that you happy might be'. The words "might be" of this translation are realized by the Hindi second person singular subjunctive form tho. As the translations into Hindi of sentences such as "I want you to be happy" involves the use of grammatical constructions not as yet introduced, a full discussion of this use of the Hindi subjunctive is deferred until later in this text (13.1.).

Subjunctive forms of होना honā are also commonly used in Hindi in injunctions of the type "let there be..." and in expressions used to convey greetings and congratulations of various kinds:

आपको जन्म दिन की शुभ कामनाएँ हों । āpko janm-din kī subh kāmnāē hõ.
'Best wishes for your birthday' (literally, 'let there be best wishes [शुभ कामनाएँ

subh kāmnāt] of the birthday [अन्म दिन janm-din] to you [आपको āpko]').

नये वर्ष की वधाई हो naya varş ki badhāi ho.

'Have a happy New Year' (literally, 'let there be greetings [नचाई badhāi] of the New Year [नया वर्ष naya vars]').

7.2. DEMONSTRATIVE PRONOUNS

The third person pronouns \overline{q} yah 'this', \overline{q} yah 'that', \overline{q} ye 'these' and \overline{q} ve 'those', in addition to serving as personal pronouns (6.3), also function as demonstrative pronouns in Hindi. In this capacity they serve as quasi-adjectives, modifying the sense of following nouns:

	Singular		Plural	
Proximate	यह पुस्तक	yah pustak 'this book'	ये पुस्तकें <i>ye pustak₹</i> 'these books'	
Non-proximate	बह पुस्तक	vah pustak 'that book'	ने पुस्तकें <i>ve pustakर</i> 'those books'	

Both the spelling and pronunciation of Hindi demonstrative pronouns are variable. Although the common pronunciations of the singular forms are [ye] and [ve], the spelling pronunciations [yehə] and [vehə] are not uncommon. In some instances no distinction is made between the pronunciation of singular and corresponding plural demonstratives (v., 6.3, n.1.). In other circumstances, no distinction is made between the spelling of singular and corresponding plural demonstratives, with $\pi \xi$ being used for both proximate forms and $\pi \xi$ for both non-proximate ones. As the spellings $\pi \xi$ and $\pi \xi$ for the singular forms $\pi \xi$ and $\pi \xi$ for the plural are widely accepted by Indian Hindi language authorities, they have been employed in this volume.

7.3. Possessive Constructions

Possessive constructions are formed in Hindi by means of the declinable postposition $\pi i k \bar{a}$. Possessive constructions function adjectivally in Hindi, modifying nouns with which they agree in number, gender, and case.

The general format for possessive constructions in Hindi is $X k\bar{a} Y$, with Y being the noun modified and the phrase $X k\bar{a}$ its possessive modifier. Thus the expression "the price of the cloth" is expressed in Hindi by the phrase the $\pi q\bar{q}$ $q\bar{q}$ $q\bar{q}$

The various forms of the postposition $\pi \tau k\bar{a}$ can be arranged into the following paradigm:

		Masculine	Feminine
Direct	Singular	का kā	की <i>kī</i>
	Plural	के ke	की kI
Oblique	Singular Plural	₹ ke	की <i>ki</i>
	Plurai	के ke	की ki

Examples of the use of the various forms of $\pi k \ddot{a}$ are given below:

Mascuine	reminine
राम का बेटा rām kā beţā	राम की बेटी rām kī beṭī
'Rām's son'	'Ram's daughter'
राम के बेटे rām ke beţe	राम की वेटियां rām kī beṭiyat
'Ram's sons'	'Ram's daughters'
राम के बेटे से rām ke bete se	राम की बेटी से rām kī beṭī se
'From Ram's son'	'From Ram's daughter'
राम के बेटों से rām ke betō se	राम की बेटियों से rām kī beṭiyō se
'From Ram's sons'	'From Ram's daughters'

Because $\operatorname{st} k\bar{a}$ is a postposition, it causes a noun that precedes it to be placed in its oblique form:

```
लड़के का भाई la Rke kā bhāi 'the boy's brother' लड़कों का भाई la Rkõ kā bhāi 'the boys' brother' लड़कों के भाई la Rkõ ke bhāi 'the boys' brothers'
```

If the noun before the postposition $\pi t k \bar{a}$ is preceded by an adjective, that adjective is also placed in its oblique form:

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अच्छे लड़के के माई acche laRke ke bhāt 'the good boy's brothers' अच्छे लड़के की बहुन acche laRke ki bahan 'the good boy's sister'
```

In the above two examples the adjective अच्छा acchā appears in its oblique singular form अच्छे acche because of the presence of the following postposition. In the first of the two examples the possessive postposition takes the form के ke because it is in agreement with the following plural, direct, masculine noun माई bhaī. In the second example it is in the form की kī because it is in agreement with the following feminine noun बहुन bahan. Often in Hindi two or more possessive phrases are linked together by means of का kā. Thus in order to express the English notion "Ram's brother's friend's pencil" one uses the phrase राम के माई के मिल की पेंसिल rām ke bhāī ke mitra kī pēsil. In this expression only the last postposition (की kī) is in its direct case form. The other possessive forms (के ke) are oblique because of the presence of subsequent postpositions.

N.B. The postposition $\pi t k \bar{a}$ agrees with a noun following it in number, gender, and case. It causes the noun preceding it, as well as any adjective modifying this noun, to be in its oblique case form.

Possessive constructions in Hindi are used to connect nouns standing in many different relation to each other:

```
नदी का पानी nadī kā pānī 'the water of the river' भारत का मौसम bhārat kā mausam 'India's weather' संतरे का दाम sātare kā dām 'the price of the orange'
```

Some common specifiable uses of the possessive in Hindi the following:

 to indicate alienable possession (e.g. मदन की कलम madan kī kalam 'Madan's pen');

- to indicate that the item possessed is a component of the other item (e.g., कमरे की खड़की kamre kī khiRkī 'the room's window');
- to indicate a relationship, particularly that of kinship, between two or more parties (e.g. (पिताजी का मिल्र pitā jī kā mitra 'Father's friend', सीता की बहन sītā kī bahan 'Sita's sister').

Hindi possessive phrases may be used either predicatively or attributively:

राम की पेन्सिल मेज पर है। ram ki pensil mez par hai.

'Ram's pencil is on the table.'

वह पेन्सिल राम की है। vah pensil rām kī hai.

'That pencil is Ram's.'

सीता की दो बहनें अब घर में नहीं हैं। sitā ki do bahanē ab ghar mē nahi hāi,

'Sita's two sisters are not in the house now.

सीता की दो बड़ी बहनें हैं। Sitā kī do baRī bahan' hai.

'Sita has two elder sisters'

In the first of the above two sentences the phrase राम की rām kī functions as an adjectival attribute of पेन्सिल pensil. In the second example the phrase राम की rām kī is used predicatively, making a statement about the noun subject पेन्सिल pensil.

7.4. COMPOUND POSTPOSITIONS

The vast majority of Hindi postpositions are compound (in contrast to the simple postpositions discussed in 5.3) and consist of two or more words. These postpositions are used for many different functions, ranging from the specification of case relations (e.g., 'for X', 'towards X', 'because of X') to the description of temporal and spatial relations of different kinds (e.g., after X', 'before X', 'to the left of X', 'under X', etc.). They also are employed for a wide variety of miscellaneous other relations, e.g., in spite of X, in exchange for X, in comparison to X, concerning X).

The first element of compound postpositions is almost always के ke or की ki, with the former much more common than the latter. A small sample of these postpositions includes X के लिए X ke lie 'for X, for the benefit of X', X के बारे में X ke bare me 'concerning X', X के सामने X ke samne 'in front of X', X के बाद X ke bad 'after X', X की तरह X kt tarah 'like X, in the manner of X', and X की तरफ X kt taraf 'towards X'. From time to time compound postpositions are found in which se appears in place of के ke or की ki as the first member. The construction X से पहले X se pahle 'before X (in time)', for instance, is sometimes used in a similar sense to X के पहले X ke pahle.

7.5. HONORIFIC USAGES

In Hindi honor or respect towards an individual is indicated by the use of plural forms to refer to that individual:

मदन के भाई अब पटना में हैं। madan ke bhat ab patna me hai.

'Madan's brother (honorific) is in Patna now'. (or 'Madan's brothers are in Patna now'.)

Pronouns referring to individuals being accorded respect are also plural:

वे शिवनाय के भाई हैं। ve sivnāth ke bhāi hài.

'He is Shiv Nath's brother' (or 'They are Shiv Nath's brothers'.)

The particle $\Re jl$ is commonly used in conjunction with proper names in order to accord respect:

शर्माजी स्कुल के अध्यापक हैं। śarmāji skul ke adhyāpak hāi.

'Mr. Sharma is the teacher of the school'.

The form $\Re ji$ is also frequently used following kinship terms, particularly in addressing or referring to members of the family:

कल पिताजी मथुरा में थे। kal pitājī mathurā mē the.

'Father was in Mathura yesterday'.

7.6. कुछ kuch and कोई koi

The Hindi indefinite pronoun $\frac{1}{2}$ such is used to indicate a portion or quantity of some entity:

कुएँ में कुछ पानी है। kue me kuch pănî hai.

'There is some water in the well'.

गाँव में कुछ लोग ये gato me kuch log the.

'There were some people in the village'.

With countable entities we kuch indicates an unspecified quantity:

कमरे में कुछ कुर्सियाँ यों। kamre me kuch kursiya thi.

'There were some chairs in the room'.

कुछ kuch also designates an unspecified portion of non-countable entities :

मेज पर कुछ चावल पड़ा था। mez par kuch cāval pa Rā thā.

'There was some rice lying on the table'.

The negative construction कुछ नहीं kuch nahl indicates the absence of a portion or quantity of some entity:

मुझे कुछ नहीं चाहिये। mujhe kuch nahl cāhiye.

'I don't need anything'.

[कुछ नहीं kuch nahl 'nothing']

The indefinite pronoun 勒 kol is used to signify some one person or thing:

सीता के घर में कोई खड़ा था। sitā ke ghar mē koi kha Rā thā.

'Someone was standing in Sita's house'.

The combination of कोई koi with the negative marker नहीं nahl indicates the absence of even one person or thing:

दुकान में कोई बादमी नहीं था। dukān mē koi ādmi nahī thā.

'There was no one in the store' (i.e., not even one person).

आज आगरे में कोई दुकान खुली नहीं है। aj agre me koi dukan khuli nahl hai.

'No stores are open in Agra today' (i.e., not even one store).

7.7. VOCABULARY

आम	ām	n.m. mango	कच्चा	kaccā	adj. unripe, shoddy,
कपड़ा	kapRā	n.m. cloth, material			built of mud or clay,
कपड़े	kapRe	n.m. pl. clothes			raw
क्रलम	kalam	n.f. pen	गरम	garam	adj. hot, warm
किरण	kiraņ	prop.f. Kiran (woman's	ठंडा	ţhāḍā	adj. cold
		name)	ठीक	ţhīk -	adj. correct, right
गांव	gäv	n.m. village	पका	pakā	adj. ripe
ताजमहल	tāj mahal	prop.m. Taj Mahal	पक्का	pakkā	adj. substantial, built
दाम	dām	n.m. price, cost			of brick (as opposed to clay), solid
पटना	paţnā	prop. m.I/II. Patna	प्रसिद्ध	prasiddh	adj. famous
1		(the capital city of		sastā	adj. cheap, inexpensive
1		Bihar)	सस्ता	sasta sārā	adj. all, entire
पिता	pitā	n.m.II. father	सारा	sara sundar	adj. an, entire adj. beautiful
पेन्सिल	pensil	n.f. pencil	सुन्दर		-
बहन	bahan	n.f. sister (also बहिन	हरा	harā	adj. green
ı	•	bahin)	आजकल	ājkal	adv. nowadays
वाजार	bāzār	n.m. market, bazaar	कल	kal	adv. yesterday, to- morrow
बैटा	beţā	n.m. son	लगभग	lagbhag	adv. approximately
बेटी	bețī	n.f. daughter	का/के/की		post. (v. 7.3)
भाई	bhāī ''	n.m. brother	को को	ko	post. marking both
मध्य प्रदश	madhya	prop.m. Madhya	7"	no.	direct and indirect
l	pradeś	Pradesh (a province in central India)			objects (v. 8.3)
मौसम	mausam	n.m. season, weather	तक	tak	post, as far as, up to,
	r lāl ķilā	prop.n. the Red Fort			until, by
साल किया	ı ıaı iııa	(a famous Mughal fort	इसलिये	isliye	conj. therefore
1		in Delhi)	कितना	kitnā	inter. adj. how much?,
संतरा	sātarā	n.m. orange			how many?
संसार	sarar a sāsār	n.m. world			
सेव	seb	n.m. apple	कैसा	kaisā	inter. adj. what kind
हाथ हाथ	häth	n.m. hand			of?, what sort of?
कुछ इ	kuch	pron. and adj. some, a	म्यारह	gyarah²	num. eleven
30	r.ucri	few, an amount of; adv.	बारह	bārah²	num, twelve
1		somewhat, a little, a bit	तेरह	terah2	num. thirteen
कोई	koi .	pron. and adj. some	चौदह	caudah²	num. fourteen
	*	one (person or thing)	पंद्रह	pādrah²	num. fifteen

7.8. EXERCISES

^{7.8.1.} Translate into English.

^{1.} यह मेज yah mez, वे मेजें ve meze, ये तेरह काली मेजें ye terah kāli meze; 2. अमर की बेटी amar kī beṭī, अमर की मुन्दर बेटियां amer kī sūndar beṭiyā, अमर की सात सुन्दर बेटियां से amar kī sāt sundar beṭiyō se; 3. कोई आदमी koi ādmī, कुछ आदमी kuch ādmī, कुछ अच्छे और

^{2.} The final ξh in the written forms of many Hindi numbers is not ordinarily pronounced. These words are spoken as though ending with the vowel $\xi \eta - \tilde{a}$ (e.g., as if $gy\tilde{a}r\tilde{a}$, $b\tilde{a}r\tilde{a}$, $ter\tilde{a}$, etc.).

पके संतरे kuch acche aur pake satare; 4. सस्ते सेव saste seb, सस्ते सेवों में saste sebo me, कुछ सस्ते सेवों में kuch saste sebo më; 5. दिल्ली का लाल किला dillt ka lal kila, दिल्ली के लाल किलों में dillt ke lal kile më; 6. राम की बहन rām ki bahan; राम की बहन के कपड़ें निया ki bahan ke kap Re, राम की बहन के कपड़ों का दाम rām ki bahan ke kap Ro kā dām; 7. दिल्ली की पुरानी इमारतें dilli ki purani imāratē, संसार के छोटे गाँव sāsār ke choṭe gāv; 8. वह होगा vah hogā, तुम होगे tum hoge, आप होंगी āp hogī, लड़की होगी la Rki hogī; 9. चौदह सेव caudah seb, चौदह लाल सेव caudah lāl seb, चौदह लाल और ताजे सेवों में caudah lāl aur tāze sebo mē; 10. कैसा कपड़ा kaisā kap Rā, कैसी दुकानें kaisī dukānē, कैसे कुएँ में kaise kuē mē.

7.8.2. Translate into Hindi.

1. this village, these thirteen villages, those very small villages; 2. that orange, those oranges, these good oranges; 3. some villages, some village (or other), those fifteen villages; 4. the entire world, in the entire world; 5. the sister, Ram's sister, Ram's six very beautiful sisters; 6. this cloth, the price of the cloth, the price of all the clothes; 7. the weather in (i.e., of') Madhya Pradesh, the villages of Uttar Pradesh; 8. he must be, you (int. f.) must be, she must be; we (m) must be; 9. Father's (hon.) friends, Mother's (hon.) sweets, the teacher's (hon.) students; 10. Patna's well built houses, the village's shoddy buildings.

7.8.3. Translate into English.

1. राम का माई अब पटना में होगा। rām kā bhai ab paṭnā mē hogā. 2. पिताजी के विचार्थी इलाहाबाद में होंगे। pitāji ke vidyārthī ilāhābād mē hōge. 3. मध्य प्रदेश के आम बहुत अच्छे और सस्ते हैं। madhya pradeš ke ām bahut acche aur saste hāi. 4. सारे संसार में आगरे का ताज महल बहुत प्रसिद्ध है। sāre sāsār mē āgre kā tāj mahal prasiddh hai. 5. सीता की बेटियां बहुत सुन्दर हैं। sītā kī betiyā bahut sundar hāi. 6. हरे कपड़े का दाम दस रुपये है। hare kap Re kā dām das rupaye hai. 7. कल मौसम बहुत ठंडा या लेकिन कल गरम होगा kal mausam bahut ṭhāḍā thā lekin kal garam hogā. 8. यह स्कूल बहुत छोटा है, इसलिए यहां बहुत विचार्थी नहीं हैं। yah skūl bahut choṭā hai, is liye yahā bahut vidyārthī nahī hāi. 9. आज पाकिस्तान में सब दुकानें बन्द हैं। āj pākistān mē sab dukānē band hāi. 10. कल किरण के घर में कितने लोग ये? kal kiran ke ghar mē kitne log the?

7.8.4. Translate into Hindi.

1. The girl must be in Mathura now. 2. Some pencils and pens were on the two tables. 3. Pakistan's weather was not very good yesterday. 4. What is the price of the mangos? 5. What kind of oranges are those? 6. There were approximately fifteen people in the rooms. 7. The beautiful clothes must be in the old market. 8. Some man (or other) is standing in the room. 9. There were red pencils and black pens on the chair. 10. Mr. Sharma [জনাজী śarmājī] has two sons and one daughter 11. Mr Gupta [মুবাজী guptā jī] has three very beautiful sisters.

CHAPTER 8

8.1. THE OVERALL STRUCTURE OF THE HINDI VERB

The verbal system of Hindi is not overly complex in nature. A high percentage of Hindi verb forms arise through the combination of basic components by regular principles. Exceptions to the major verbal paradigms of the language are few and easily learned. In comparison with the highly inflected verbal systems of Classical Greek, Latin, or Sanskrit, the verbal system of Hindi is relatively simple and clear.

The major grammatical categories that structure the verbal system of Hindi are those of aspect and tense. A large number of Hindi verbal forms exhibit markings for both of these categories. The term aspect is to be understood as indicating the nature of the action of a verb as to its beginning, duration, completion, or repetition, but without reference to its position in time. Hindi displays three grammatical aspects. the habitual, the progressive (or continuous), and the perfective. Each of these aspects is expressed by the explicit marking of verbal stems. Verbal forms indicating one of these aspects are usually further specified for one of four tenses, i.e., the present, past, presumptive, and subjunctive. The combination of one of the three aspects with one of the four tenses leads to the production of one of twelve aspectual-tenses (e.g., presentperfective, past-habitual, presumptive-progressive etc.). In addition, the Hindi verbal system also permits simple-perfective forms, in which a specification is given for aspect (i.e., perfective), but not for tense. A number of "non-aspectual" verb forms are also found in Hindi. In these no specification is given as to whether a verbal action is habitual, progressive, or perfective. The most important of these non-aspectual forms are the future, the root subjunctive, various imperative (command) forms, and the infinitive. A summary of these members of the Hindi verbal system is given below1:

NON-ASPECTUAL

Future
Root Subjunctive
Imberatives
Infinitive

^{1.} This inventory of Hindi verbal forms is not complete. Other distinctions of the Hindi verbal system (e.g., active vrs. passive, simple vrs, compound, simple vrs. conjunct) and constructions (e.g., conjunctive, conditional, participles) are treated at appropriate places later in the text.

ASPECTUAL

	Habitual	Progressive	Perfective
Simple			Simple-Perfective
Present	Present-Habitual	Present-Progressive	Present-Perfective
Past	Past-Habitual	Past-Progressive	Past-Perfective
Presumptive	Presumptive-Habitual	Presumptive-Progressive	Presumptive-Perfective
Subjunctive	Subjunctive-Habitual	Subjunctive-Progressive	Subjunctive-Perfective

The various aspectual tenses of Hindi are formed by the addition of suffixes and verbal auxiliaries to verb stems. The stem may be obtained by removing the -\text{-n} -n\tall
suffix with which the infinitive (21.1) ends. The desired aspect is indicated by the addition of explicit markers of some kind to the stem. The tense portion of an "aspectual-tense" is indicated by the presence of one of the basic forms of \text{\text{\text{in}}} hon\text{\text{\text{d}}} 'to be' (i.e., present, past, presumptive, subjunctive) enumerated in 6.4. and 7.1. The \text{\text{\text{in}}} hon\text{\text{\text{d}}} element follows the combination of stem and one or more suffixes.

8.2. Habitual Verb Forms

The habitual aspect in Hindi is primarily used to indicate that an action occurs on a regular or repeating basis. It can also be used to specify a general action not viewed as a series of discrete events. The various Hindi habitual aspectual-tenses are formed by the addition of the suffix $-\pi$ -t- to the verbal stem. This $-\pi$ -t- is itself immediately followed by one of the three vowels $-\pi - \bar{a}$, $-\psi$ -e, or $-\xi$ -i, with the choice among them determined by the number and gender of the subject of the verb. The stem $+-\pi$ -t-+ vowel combination is in turn followed by one of the simple forms of the verb $\pi \pi hon\bar{a}$ to be'. In order to form the present-habitual, past-habitual, presumptive-habitual, and subjunctive-habitual aspectual-tenses, the present, past, presumptive, and subjunctive simples forms of $\pi \pi hon\bar{a}$ are used respectively. A summary of the habitual verb forms of the verb $\pi \pi n j\bar{a}n\bar{a}$ to go' is given below:

Present-1	Habitual		
Singular	Plural		
मैं जाता/जाती हूँ māi jātā/jāti hū तू जाता/जाती है tū jātā/jāti hai यह/वह जाता/जाती है yah/vah jātā/jāti hai	हम जाते/जाती हैं ham jāte jātī hāi तुम जाते/जाती हो tum jāte jātī ho आप जाते/जाती हैं āp jāte jātī hāi ये/वे जाते/जाती हैं ye ve jāte jātī hāī		

Past-Habitual

Singular

Plural

मैं जाता या/जाती यी	māī jātā thā/jātī thī
तू जाता या/जाती थी	tū jātā thā/jātī thī
यह/वह जाता वा/जाती थी	yah vah jātā thā jātī thī

हम जाते थे/जाती थीं ham jāte the/jātī thi तुम जाते थे/जाती थीं tum jāte the jātī thi आप जाते थे/जाती थीं äp jāte the/jātī thi ये/वे जाते थे/जाती थीं ye/ve jāte the/jātī thi

Presumptive-Habitual

मैं जाता होऊँगा/जाती	māi jātā hõngā jāti
होऊँगी .	hoũgi
तू जाता होगा/जाती होगी	tü jätä hogā jāti hogī
यह/वह जाता होगा/जाती	yah/vah jātā hogā _i jātī
होगी	hogi

हम जाते होंगे/जाती होंगी ham jāte hõge|jātī hõgī तुम जाते होगे/ जाती होगी tum jāte hoge|jātī hogī आप जाते होंगे/जाती होंगी *āp jāte hõge|jātī hõgī* ये/वे जाते होंगे/जाती होंगी ye|ve jāte hõge|jātī hõgī

Subjunctive-Habitual

मै जाता/जाती होऊं	māī jātā jātī hoū
तू/जाता/जाती हो	tū jātā jātī ho
यह/वह जाता/जाती हो	yah vah jātā jātī ho

हम जाते/जाती हों ham jāte|jātī hỗ तुम जाते/जाती हो tum jāte|jātī hō आप जाते/जाती हों ap jāte|jātī hỗ ये/वे जाते/जाती हों ye|ve jāte|jātī hỗ

Present-habitual forms are used to designate habitual actions or states of affairs reported from the vantage point of the present:

वह प्रति दिन दुकान जाता है। vah prati din dukān jātā hai. 'He goes to the store every day'.

उसकी माताजी घर में पंजाबी ही बोलती हैं uski mātāji ghar mē pājābi hī bolti hāī. 'His mother speaks only Panjabi at home'.

The present-habitual, particularly in conjunction with the adverb swit abhi 'right away', is often also used to indicate that an action is to be carried out in the near future:

में अभी आती हूँ। māi abhī āti hū. 'I'll come right away' (said by a female).

In the negative of present-habitual verbs, the present tense form of $\sin hon\bar{a}$ is usually deleted:

यहाँ हम चपातियां नहीं खाते। yahā ham capātiyā nahī khāte.
'We don't eat chapatis here'.

Past-habitual forms are used to indicate an habitual action or state of affairs viewed from the perspective of the past. Occasionally past-habitual verb forms simply indicate that an action or state of affairs took place in the distant past:

उसके मिन्न बहुत पुराने गाने गाते थे। uske mitra bahut purāne gāne gāte the. 'His friends used to sing very old songs'

Presumptive-habitual forms are used to indicate that an action or state of affairs is both habitual and presumed, but not known through direct knowledge to take place:

उसका छोटा भाई वाराणसी जाता होगा । uskā chotā bhāi vārānasī jātā hogā.

'His younger brother must (presumably) go to Benaras (regularly)'.

Subjunctive-habitual forms are used to indicate actions that are both habitual and hypothetical, contingent, imaginary, or speculative. Examples and discussion of subjunctive-habitual forms are deferred until 13.1.

8.3 SOME USES OF 新 ko

The Hindi postposition $\Re ko$ is used in a number of distinct senses and syntactic functions. Two of its most important uses are in the marking of direct and indirect objects:

एकता उस लड़की को नहीं मारती । ektä us laRki ko nahl märti.

'Ekta doesn't hit that girl' [एकता ektā prop. f. a woman's name'; मारना mārnā v.t. to hit, strike]

उस लड़के को तीन रुपये दीजिये। us laRke ko tin rupaye dijiye.

'Please give three rupees to that boy'.

In the first of the above two examples को ko is used to mark the direct object (बहु लड़की vah laRki) of the verb मारती mārti Because को ko is a postposition, it causes the direct object to be in its oblique form उस लड़की us laRki (8.4. below). In the second example, को ko is used to mark the indirect object (बहु आदमी vah ādmi 'that man') of the command form दीजिये dijiye 'please give' (12.1).

Note, however, that not all direct objects in Hindi are marked with को ko. In many instances the direct object appears in Hindi in its direct case form, devoid of any following postposition. For example, in the second of the above two sentences the direct object तीन रुपये tin rupaye 'three rupees' is not followed by को ko. In general, को ko is used to mark the direct object in the following instances:

- 1. When the object is human and specific in reference. When the direct object is human but not specific in reference, however, को ko is normally not used. Thus किरण को बुलाको kiran ko bulão 'call Kiran' and दर्जी को बुलाको darzī ko bulão 'call the tailor' [with a specific tailor intended], but दर्जी बुलाको darzī bulão 'call a tailor [i.e., any tailor].
- 2. When the direct object is inanimate, but made emphatic : इसी पुस्तक को देखिये ist pustak ko dekhiye 'please look at this very book (and no other), but यह पुस्तक देखिये yah pustak dekhiye 'please look at this book'.

8.4. OBLIQUE FORMS OF PRONOUNS

Like nouns, many pronouns appear in special oblique forms when followed by postpositions. The oblique forms of Hindi personal pronouns, given in conjunction

with the exam	ple pos	position 4	t par, '	on, up	pon'.	are as	follows	:

	Singular		Plural
Direct	Oblique	Direct	Oblique
मैं māi तू tū यह yah बह vah	मुझ (पर) mujh (par) तुझ (पर) tujh (par) इस (पर) is (par) उस (पर) us (par)	हम ham तुम tum आप āp ये ye वे ve	हम (पर) ham (par) तुम (पर) tum (par) आप (पर) ap (par) इन (पर) in (par) उन (पर) un (par)

The third person pronouns यह yah, यह vah, ये ye, and वे ve also show the oblique forms इस is, उस us, इन in, and उन un respectively when serving as demonstrative pronouns:

इस मेख पर कुछ किताबें पड़ी थीं। is mez par kuch kitabe paRt th!.

'There were some books lying on this table'.

उन कमरों में बहुत लोग खड़े थे। un kamaro me bahut log khaRe the.
'Many people were standing in those rooms'.

Sequences of Hindi personal pronouns followed by the postposition को ko may optionally be replaced by single word contractions:

मुझ	mujh	+	को ko	becomes	मुझे	mujhe;
तुझ	tujh	+	को ko	becomes	तुझे	tujhe;
इस	is	+	को ko	becomes	इसे	ise;
उस	us	+	को ko	becomes	उसे	use;
हम	ham	+	को ko	becomes	हमें	ham₹;
तुम	tum	+	को ko	becomes	तुम्हें	tumh₹;
इन	in	+	को ko	becomes	इन्हें	inh₹;
उन	un	+	को ko	becomes	ਤ ਾਲੇਂ	unhe;

Thus the sentence

उसको² कूछ पैसे दीजिये । usko kuch paise dijiye.

'Please give him some money'.

is equivalent to

उसे कुछ पैसे दीजिये । use kuch paise dijiye.

There is no contraction of sity $\bar{a}p + \bar{a}n$ ko.

The pronoun कोई kol 'someone person or thing' (7.6) has the oblique form किसी kisi: e.g., कोई आदमी kol ādml 'some one person or other', but किसी आदमी से kisl ādml se from someone (or other)'. By contrast, the pronoun कुछ kuch does not have a special oblique form (e.g., कुछ लोग kuch log 'some people'; कुछ लोगों को kuch log o ko 'to some people').

^{2.} In careful written Hindi a sequence of a pronoun plus either a single-word postposition or the first word of a multi-word postposition is written together as a single word, e.g., पुसपर mujhpar, इसके लिये iske live. This practice is followed in this volume.

8.5. ही hi and भी bhi

The Hindi particles $\Re ht$ and $\Re bhi$ are each used in a number of distinct syntactic functions, and can affect significant semantic alterations in the sentences in which they are employed. Although these words are not technically postpositions—they do not cause the words that precede them to be placed in the oblique case—they nevertheless are reminiscent of postpositions by forming tightly fused phrases with the words immediately preceding them.

The particle with bhi is used in Hindi to include the referent of the word that precedes it in some specified group. This sense is often translated into English by any of the words too, also, or even:

राम भी हिन्दी बोलता है। rām bhī hindī boltā hai.

'Ram also speaks Hindi'
वह उस लड़की को भी देखता है। vah us laRkī ko bhī dekhtā hai.

'He sees that girl also'.

In the first of these two examples \$\forall bhi\$ serves to include Ram in the set of people who speak Hindi. In the second example the word includes "that girl" in the set of people whom the subject sees.

By contrast, $\Re hi$ is employed to exclude some person or entity from some set or other. This sense of exclusion is often rendered into English by the word 'only', although other words may be more appropriate in some contexts:

अमर ही माताजी को रूपये देता है। amar hi mātāji ko rupaye detā hai. 'Only Amar gives Mother money'.

घर में वे हिन्दी ही बोलते हैं। ghar me ve hindi hi bolte hai. 'They speak only Hindi at home'.

The contrast between भी bhi and ही hi can be clearly seen in the following two sentences:

आगरे में दुकानदार भी साड़ियां वेचते हैं। ägre me dukändär bhi säRiya becte hai.
'In Agra even shopkeepers sell saris'.

Further uses of Hindi with bhi and of hi are discussed in 21.3, 23.4, and 30.4.

8.6. VOCABULARY

	urdū	prop.f.the Urdu language	स्द	śuddh	adj. pure, refined, Sans-
चर्दू		n.f.shirt	5-		kritized (as in the expres-
कमीज	,,,,,,,,,	n.m.kurta (a kind of loose			sion मुद्ध हिंदी suddh hidi
कुरता	kurtā				'Sanskritized/pure Hindi')
l		fitting upper garment)	आना	*****	v.i. to come
खाना	khānā	n.m. food	ख्ररीदना		v.t. to buy
गाना	gānā .	n.m. song	खाना	10.100.00	v.t. to eat
गाहक	gāhak	n.m. customer	गाना	0	v.t. to sing
चपाती	capāti	n.f. chapati (a kind of	जाना	jānā	v.i. to go
ı		simple, thin fried bread,	जानना	J	v.t. to know
i i		made from whole wheat	वेखना	,cac.ivi.ivi	v.t. to look, see
1		flour)	देना	denā	v.t. to give
दाल	dāl	n.f. lentils	पहनना	pahannā	
		n.m. shopkeeper	बेचना	becnā	v.t. to sell
घोती	dhoti	n.f. dhoti (a man's gar-	बोलना	bolnā	v.t. to speak, say
1		ment wrapped around the waist and covering	लेना	lenā	v.t. to take
١ .		the bottom half of the	होना	honā	v.i. to be
1		body	दोपहर को	t dopahar ko	adv. in the afternoon
पंजाबी	pājābī	prop. f. the Panjabi lan-	प्रति दिन	prati di	adv. every day
		guage; adj. Panjabi	रात को	rāt ko	adv. at night
वैसा	paisã	n.m. 1/100 of a rupee;	शाम को	śām ko	adv. in the evening
1	-	money	सुबह	subah	adv. in the morning
पै से	paise	n.m. pl. money, wealth	ही	hã	adv. yes
फल	phal	n.m. fruit	कितने में	kitne m	inter. for how much?
फलवा	ला phalvālā	n.m. fruitseller	भी	bhi	partl. indicating inclusion
सखनः	s lakhnaü	prop. m. Lucknow (the			(v.8.5) partl. indicating exclu-
1		capital of Uttar Pradesh)	ही	hī	sion (v.8.5)
वाराण	ासी <i>värāṇas</i>	i prop. f. Varanasi (= Ben-		solah ³	num. sixteen
1		aras)	सालह		num. seventeen
नया	nayā	adj. new (f. नई nai)	सत्तरह		3 num. eighteen
नीला	nîlā	adj. blue	अठारह	unnis	num. nineteen
पीला	pīlā	adj. yellow	उन्नीस	unnis bis	num. twenty
महंगा	mahāgā	adj. expensive	बीस	DIS	наш. том-у

8.7. EXERCISES

8.7.1. Translate into English.

1. मुझपर mujhpar, तुझसे tujhse, हमपर hampar; 2. इस साड़ी पर is sāRi par, उस गाहक को us gāhak ko, उन फलों पर un phalo par; 3. लाल कुरते पर lal kurte par, उन पीली साड़ियों पर un pili saRiyo par; 4. राम ही ram hi, सीता भी sitā bhi, उसकी बहिन ही uski bahin hi, उसके पिता के मिल्ल भी uske pitā ke mitra bhi; 5. दुकानदारों को भी dukāndārō ko bhi, आगरे के गानों में ही ägre ke gānō mi hi; 6. उस गाने में us gāne me, इन बच्छे गानों में in acche gānổ me, उन पंजाबी गानों में un pajābi gānổ me;

^{3.} V.7.7, n. 2.

7. फलवाले के फल phalvāle ke phal, उन फलवालों के फल un phalvālõ ke phal, वाराणसी के फलवालों के सब फल vārāṇasī ke phalvālõ ke sab phal; 8. में आता हूँ mãi ātā hữ, वह बेचता है vah bectā hai, हम देते हैं ham dete hữ, तुम जानती हो tum jāntī ho; 9. वह आती थी vah jātī thī, दुकानदार जाता था dukāndār jātā thā, वे बोलती थीं ve boltī thī; 10. तू जाता होगा tū jātā hogā, वह ख़रीदती होगी vah kharīdtī hogī, वह पहनता होगा vah pahantā hogā, हम खाती हैं ham khātī hāī.

8.7.2. Translate into Hindi.

1. In it, from them, to me, on you (fam.); 2. on this dhoti, in these fruit, from these customers; 3. from these girls, to those very good girls, on those expensive saris; 4. Madan too, only in Varanasi, only three songs, those blue kurtas also; 5. I (m.) buy, you (int.) come, she eats, they (m.) speak; 6. she used to take, he used to wear, they used to sell, I (f.) used to give; 7. he must (psmt.) know, they (f.) must (psmt.) eat, we (m.) must (psmt.) be, you (pol., f.) must (psmt.) sell; 8. how many saris?, how many blue kurtas?, on how many dhotis?; 9. eighteen customers and nineteen shirts, in the fifteen fresh and inexpensive chapatis; 10. very clean shirts, on those clean shirts, on those twenty very beautiful shirts.

8.7.3. Translate into English.

1. वाराणसी में लोग हिन्दी बोलते हैं। vārāṇasī mē log hindt bolte hāi. 2. वह दुकानदार बहुत सुन्दर साड़ियां बेचता है। vah dukāndār bahut sundar sāRiyā bectā hai. 3. भारत में बहुत आदमी घोतियां पहनते हैं। bhārat mē bahut ādmī dhotiyā pahante hāi. 4. घर में वह अंग्रेजो ही बोलता था। ghar mē vah āgrezī hī boltā thā. 5. वह फलवाला कितने में फल बेचता है? vah phalvālā kitne mē phal bectā hai. 6. पिताजी पुराने माने जानते होंगे। pitāji purāne gāne jānte hõge. 7. उसकी बेटी नये कुरते पहनती होगी। uskī betī naye kurte pahantī hogī. 8. क्या आप उस दाल का दाम जानते हैं? kyā āp us dāl kā dām jānte hāī. 9. शाम को वह कितनी चपातियां खाता है? śām ko vah kitnī capātiyā khātā hai? 10. वे प्रति दिन भारतीय गाने गाते थें 1 ve prati din bhāratīva gāne gāte the.

8.7.4. Translate into Hindi.

1. Rani used to wear very beautiful saris. 2. He eats some lentils in the afternoon.

3. This girl used to come here from Pakistan. 4. These people must be very good friends. 5. Why don't they know Panjabi? 6. You (pol.) go (hab.) to school in the afternoon. 7. How many saris does she wear every day? 8. Mother gives us some lentils in the evening. 9. Many people speak Urdu in Lucknow. 10. The teacher gives the students books and pens. 11. They must (psmt.) buy food from that shop. 12. Why don't you speak Hindi at home?

CHAPTER 9

9.1. PROGRESSIVE VERB FORMS

The progressive (or continuous) aspect in Hindi is primarily employed to indicate actions or states of affairs that are thought of as drawn out or extended through time. The use of this aspect generally expresses the elongation or continuation of single actions or state of affairs rather than a series of discrete events of some kind.

Progressive verb forms in Hindi are formed by the addition of two verbal auxiliaries immediately after a verbal stem. The first auxiliary consists of the root $\nabla e - rah$ -followed by one of the three vowels $-\pi i - \bar{a}$, $-\nabla e - e$, or $-\frac{1}{2} - i$. The choice among these three vowels is determined by the number and gender of the subject of the verb (i.e., $-\pi i - \bar{a}$ with masculine singular subjects, $-\nabla e$ with masculine plural, and $-\frac{1}{2} - i$ with feminine singular and feminine plural). The second auxiliary consists of a member of one of the sets of simple verb forms of $\frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{2} - \frac{1}{2} + \frac{1}{$

Present-Progressive						
	Masculine Feminine					
Singular	मैं māī तू/यह/वह tū/yah/vah	जा रहा हूं <i>jā rahā h</i> र्षे जा रहा है <i>jā rahā hai</i>	जा रही हूँ jā rahī htī जारही है jā rahī hai			
Plural	हम/आप/ये/वे ham/āp/ye/ve तुम tum	जा रहे हैं jā rahe hāi जा रहे हो jā rahe ho	जा रही हैं jā rahī h ā ī जा रही हो jā rahī ho			
·	Po	ast-Progressive Masculine	Feminine			
Singular	में/तू/यह/वह māi/tu/yah/vah	जारहाया <i>jā rahā thā</i>	जारही थी <i>jā rahī thī</i>			
Piural	हम/तुम/आप/ये वि ham tum āp ye ve	जा रहे षे jā rahe the	जारही वीं jā rahī thi			

Presumptive-Progressive

		Masculine	Feminine
Singular	में māī	जा रहा होकँया jā rahā hoधैgā	जा रही होर्जेंगी jā rahī hoữgī
	तू/मह/वह tū/yah/vah	जा रहा होगा jā rahā hogā	जा रहीं होगी jā rahī hogī
Plural	हम/आप/ये/वे hām ap ye ve-	जा रहे होंगे jā rahe hõge	जा रही होंगी jā rahī hõgī
	तुम tum	जा रहे होंगे jā rahe hoge	जा रही होगी jā rahī hogī
	Subj	unctive-Progressive	
		Masculine	Feminine
Singular	मै māi	जा रहा होकँ <i>jā rahā ho</i> य	जा रही होऊं <i>jā rahī hot</i> i
	तू/यह/वह tū/yah/vah	जा रहा हो <i>jā rahā ho</i>	जा रही हो <i>jā rahī ho</i>
Plural	हम/आप/ये/वे ham/āp/ye/ve	जा रहे हों jā rahe hõ	जारही हों jā rahī hõ
	तुम tum	जा रहे हों jā rahe ho	जारही हो jā rahī ho

Present-progressive verb forms are used to represent actions or states of affairs that are conceptualized as being extended in time and taking place in the present:

बाजपेयी जी उस कमरे में समाचारपत्न पढ़रहे हैं। vājpeyi jī us kamre mē samācārpatra paRh rahe hāi.
'Mr. Vajpeyi is reading a newspaper in that room'.

'The boys are singing songs'.

Present-progressive forms also are frequently employed in Hindi with future sense:1

Notice that the English translation of the above example also uses a progressive verb form (am going) to express the future. The use of progressive verb forms with future sense is analogous in Hindi and English.

The verb होना honā 'to be', when in the progressive, is used in the sense of the English verb 'to happen':

Past-progressive verb forms are used to represent actions or states of affairs that are conceptualized as being extended or drawn out in time and occurring in the past:

कल शाम को आपका भाई क्या कर रहा था ? kal śām ko āpkā bhāi kyā kar rahā thā? 'What was your brother doing yesterday evening?

^{1.} This is not, however, the only way to express future time in Hindi. Other means for indicating the future in Hindi are described in 8.2, 10.1, 12.2, and 13.2.

पुराने बाजार में बड़ा तमाशा हो रहा था। purāne bāzār mē baRā tamāšā ho rahā thā.

'There was a big event/spectacle going on in the old market'

[तमाशा tamāšā n. m. spectacle, big event]

Presumptive-progressive verb forms are used to indicate that an action or state of affairs is extended in time and presumed, but not directly known, to take place:

उसकी छोटी बहन नीला आगरे से आ रही होगी। uski choṭī bahan nīlā āgre se ā rahī hogī.

'His younger sister Nila must be coming from Agra'. [नीला Nilā prop f.]
Subjunctive-progressive verb forms are discussed in 7.1 and 13.1.

9.2. OBJECTS OF VERBS OF MOTION

Hindi differs from English in an important way in its treatment of the objects of verbs of motion. Normally such objects are marked in English with the preposition to (e.g., "he is going to the store to Delhi, to John's house, etc."). In Hindi, when the object of a verb of motion refers to a place, it is ordinarily not marked by any word analogous to an English preposition. Thus where English would say "I am going to Delhi", Hindisays में बिल्ली जा रहा हूँ। mãi dilli jā rahā hữ. If the object of the verb of motion is a masculine Class I noun, it often is found in its oblique singular form, even though it is not followed by a postposition. Thus corresponding to the English sentence "I am going to Agra" one encounters both:

मैं आगरे जा रहा हूँ।

mài agre jà ruhà hữ.

and

मैं आगरा जा रहा हूँ।

mài agrā jā rahā hū.

If the object of the verb of motion is not a place, but rather a person, then the postposition के पास ke pās is employed:

बह दोपहर को स्कूल से राम के पास जाता है। vah dopahar ko skul se ram ke pas jata hai.

'He goes from school to Ram (i.e., Ram's presence) in the afternoon'.

The postposition are tak is employed with objects of verbs of motion in the sense of "as far as, up to." This postposition clearly marks a limit or terminus of the act of motion.

में नये बाजार तक जा रहा हूँ। mâi naye bāzār tak jā rahā hữ. 'I am going as far as the new market'.

9.3. OBLIQUE FORMS OF क्या kyā AND कीन kaun

The interrogative pronous स्वा $ky\bar{a}$ 'what' and कीन kaun 'who', when followed by postpositions, occur in special oblique forms. These pronouns, distinct in their direct case, share identical oblique case forms. The oblique singular form of both स्व $ky\bar{a}$ and कीन kaun is किस kis and the oblique plural form is किस kin:

बह आदमी किसपर बैठा है ? vah ādmī kispar baiṭhā hai? 'On what is that man sitting?'

पिताजी पैसे किसको दे रहे हैं ? pitājī paise kisko de rahe hāi? 'To whom is Father giving the money?'

वे नोग किन भाषाओं में बोल रहे हैं ? ve log kin bhāṣāō mē bol rahe hāī? 'In what languages are those people speaking?'

CHAPTER 10

10.1. Perfective Verb Forms

The perfective aspect is employed in Hindi in order to characterize a verbal activity or state of affairs as having been completed. There are five sets of perfective forms in Hindi, the simple-perfective, the present-perfective, the past-perfective, the presumptive-perfective, and the subjunctive-perfective. Each of these five sets of aspectual-tense contains a form known as the perfective participle, derived by the modification of a verbal stem through the addition of one of a number of yowel suffixes. The perfective participle is made to agree in gender and number with the subject of the clause in which it appears. In forms of the simple-perfective, the participle appears without any verbal auxiliary. In forms of the present, past, presumptive, and subjunctive forms of gift honā 'to be' respectively are employed as auxiliaries.

The perfective participle is formed by the addition of one of the four "adjectival" endings -अा $-\bar{a}$, $-\bar{q}$ -e, $-\frac{\pi}{8}$ -i, and $-\frac{\pi}{8}$ -i directly after the verbal stem. The choice of one of those vowels is determined by the number and gender of the subject of the clause [i.e., -आ $-\bar{a}$ with m.s. subjects, $-\bar{q}$ -e with m.pl., $-\frac{\pi}{8}$ -i with f.s., and $-\frac{\pi}{8}$ -i with f.pl.]. Thus from the verb जिस्ता girnā 'to fall' can be formed जिस girā (m.s.), जिसे gire (m.pl.) जिसे girī (f.s.), and जिसे girī (f.pl.) as alternate versions of the perfective participle.

A full paradigm of the various perfective forms of firen girnā 'to fall' is given below:

Sin	nple-Perfective Masculine	Feminine	
Singular	गिरा girā	गिरी giri	
Plural	गिरे gire	गिरीं girl	
Pre	sent-Perfective Masculine	Feminine	
में <i>māi</i> Singular नू <i>tū </i> यह <i>yah </i> वह <i>vah</i>	गिरा हूँ girā hā गिरा है girā hai	गिरी हैं girī hữ गिरी है girī hai	
Plural हम ham/आप āp/ ये ye/ वे ve तुम tum	निरे हैं gire hāi गिरे हो gire ho	गिरी हैं girī hāi गिरी हो girī ho	

	F	Past-Perfec	tive			
		Masculine		Fen	ninine	
	Singular	गिरा था	girā thā	गिरी थी	giri thi	
	Plural	गिरे थे	gire the	गिरी थीं	girî thť	
	Presu	mptive-Pe	erfective Iasculine	Fen	ninine	
Singular	में māi तू tū/यह yah/वह vah	गिरा होऊँग गिरा होगा	girā hoữgā girā hogā	गिरी होऊंगी गिरी होगी	girî hoûgî girî hogî	
Plural	हम ham आप āp ये ye वे ve तुम tum	गिरे होंगे गिरे होगे	gire hõge gire hoge	गिरी होंगी गिरी होगी	girī hõgī girī hogī	
	Subi	unctive-Pe	rfective			
	540)1		lasculine	Feminine		
Singular	में māi तू tū/यह yah/वह vah	गिरा होऊँ गिरा हो	girā hoữ girā ho	गिरी होऊँ गिरी हो	girī hoū girī ho	
Plural	हम ham/आप äp/ये ye/वे ve तुम tum	मिरे हों गिरे हो	gire hỗ gire ho	गिरी हों गिरी हो	girî hỗ girî ho	

There are several peculiarities with regard to the formation and use of the perfective aspect in Hindi. The treatment of transitive verbs in this aspect (11.1) is distinct from that of intransitives in a number of regards. There are a few verbs whose perfective participles are irregular and need to be memorized by students. And, lastly, there are a number of minor spelling adjustments that are employed in the written versions of some perfective verb forms.

The spelling irregularities observed in the formation of Hindi perfectives concern verbs whose stem end in vowels. In cases where the stem ends in any of the vowels -आ-ā, -ए-e, or -ओ-o. the glide -य- -y- is inserted before the masculine singular ending -आ-ā. This -य- -y- is also optionally employed before the masculine plural termination -ए-e. The various forms of the perfective participles of आना ānā 'to come', खेना khenā 'to row' and सोना sonā 'to sleep, to go to sleep' are thus as follows:

आना ānā: आया āyā/आए āe or आये āye/आई ai/आई ai; खेना khenā: खेयाँ kheyā/ खेये kheye¹/ खेई khei/ खेई khei;

^{1.} The form *aq khee is not however, permitted. This is most likely due to an avoidance of the sequence -q - e + q e.

सोना sonā: सोया soyā/ सोए soe/ or सोये soye/सोई soī/सोई soī.

Stems ending in -\(\frac{1}{2} \) form their perfective participles on the following model:

पीना pinā 'to drink, to smoke' : पिया piyā/पिए pie or पिये piye/पी pi/पी pi

सीना sīnā 'to sew': सिया siyā/सिए sie or सिये siye/सी sī/सीं sǐ.

Stems ending in $-\pi - \bar{u}$ shorten this vowel to \bar{u} - before the vowel terminations of the perfective participle:

चूना cūnā 'to leak, ooze': चुजा cuā/चुए cue/चुई cui/चुई cui.

A small number of Hindi verbs have irregular perfective participles. Among intransitive verbs the most important irregular forms are as follows:

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जाना jānā 'to go' : गया gayā/गए gae or गये gaye/गई gaī/गई gaī;
होना honā 'to be, come to be, happen' : हुआ huā/हुए hue/हुई huī/हुई huī.
```

One last peculiarity concerning the Hindi perfective is to be observed in the feminine plural forms of the present, past, presumptive, and subjunctive perfectives. It was stated earlier that the feminine plural form of the perfective participle shows the termination $-\frac{2}{5}$. Note, however, that when followed by a form of $\frac{1}{5}$ in which plurality is overtly indicated by nasalization (i.e., as in $\frac{1}{5}$ hall, $\frac{1}{5}$ in hollowed), the termination loses its nasality and becomes $\frac{1}{5}$ in. This tendency to mark 'feminine plurality' by nasalization only once in a multi-word verb form is observed in many other places throughout the grammar of Hindi.

The simple-perfective is used to indicate an action that is conceptualized as having been completed.

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मैं कल ही बंबई गई। māi kal hi bābai gai.
```

'I went to Bombay only yesterday'.

शर्माजी पिताजी के साथ घर से निकले । sarmāji pitāji ke sāth ghar se nikale.
'Mr. Sharma came out of the house together with Father'.

As most completed actions are assumed to have taken place in the past, the simple perfective often functions as a simple past tense:

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आपने तब क्या किया ? āpne tab kyā kiyā ?
'What did you do then ?'
बह घर पहुंचा। vah ghar pahūcā.
```

'He arrived home'.

The simple-perfective is occasionally used to indicate a future action that is conceptualized as, for all practical purposes, already completed:

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अभी आया। abhī āyā.
'I'm coming/I'll come right away'.
```

The present-perfective is used in Hindi to indicate an action or state of affairs that has already been completed, but whose effect is still felt in the present:

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लक्ष्मणजी दुकान से जाये हैं। lakşmaṇji dukān se āye hāī.
'Lakshman has come from the store'.
```

CHAPTER 13

13.1. THE SUBJUNCTIVE

Subjunctive forms can be constituted in Hindi by the addition of certain suffixes directly after the verbal stem. These suffixes are -ऊं- ग्रे in the first person singular, -ए -e in the second and third persons singular, -जो -o in the second person plural familiar, and -ए -र in the first and third persons plural and in the second person plural polite. Thus from जाना वँगवँ 'to come' and कहना kaimā 'to say' can be formed the following subjunctive forms:

1. sg. मैं māi 2. sg. तू tū 3. sg. यह yah बह vah	कहूं kahti कहे kahe	1. pl. हम ham 2. pl.fam.तुम tum pol. आप äp 3. pl. ये ye व ve	जाएँ वृह जाओ वैठ जाएँ वृह	कहें kahë कहो kaho कहें kahë
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In the subjunctive होना honā 'to be', नेना lenā 'to take', and देना denā 'to give' show the following irregular forms:

			होना honā	सेन	n lenā	देना	denā	
	मैं व	m ā i tū	होडें hoữ (or हूँ hữ)	नू े	I ta	दू	dti	١
Sing.	तू यह वह	yah vah	हो ho	ले	le	t	de	
Plural	हम तुम आप ये वे	ham tum āp ye ve	हों hò हो ho . हों hò	सें लो लें	is io	वें दी दें	de do	

Stems ending in -ई -I and -क -ū shorten these vowels to -इ -i and -उ -u before the various vowel endings of the subjunctive (e.g., चित्र piū, चिए pie, etc. from पीना pinā 'to drink/smoke'; छूत्र chuū, छूए chue, etc. from छूना chūnā 'to touch').

Occasionally, the endings -य - y and -वं - y के are seen in written Hindi instead of -ए -e and -एं -र (e.g. जाय jāy and जायं jāy के for जाए jāe and जाएं jāt). In addition, the element -य--v- is at times inserted between a stem final vowel and the subjunctive endings -ए -e and -एं -र (e.g., आने āve and आने āvt for आए āe and आएं āt). All of these usages are,

however, considered archaic or dialectal and are avoided in the standard written language.

The primary function of the subjunctive is to represent activities or states of affairs as hypothetical, imaginary, desired, contingent, or speculative, but not directly asserted to take place. Examples of such usages are given below:

मैं चाहती हूँ कि हम उसके साथ जाएं। māi cāhti hữ ki ham uske sāth jāē.

'I want us to go with him/her'.

हो सकता है कि वे हम पर आक्रमण करें। ho saktā hai ki ve hampar ākramaņ karē 'It's possible that they will attack us'.

यह संभव है कि वह दूसरी कला में पढ़े। yah sābhav hai ki vah dūsrī kakṣā mē paRhe.

'It's possible that he/she will study in the second grade'.

मेरी इच्छा है कि आप उसकी पुस्तक पढ़ें। meri icchā hai ki āp uskī pustak paRhē.

'I want you to read his/her book'. (literally/'my wish is that you might read his/her book').

Subjunctive verb forms are particularly common in 'if... then' constructions: यदि/अगर तुम मेरी मदद करो तो मैं तुमको अपना मिल समझूंगा।

yadi|agar tum meri madad karo to māi tumko apnā mitra samajhūgā. 'If you help me I will consider you my friend'.

The use of the subjunctive is correlated in Hindi with the presence of certain words, phrases, or constructions. For instance, the conjunctions जैसे jaise 'as if' and मानों mānð 'as if' tend to be followed by clauses showing subjunctive verb forms:

बह बोलता है जैसे/मानों उसके शत्रु इसी महर में हों। vah boltā hai jaise/māno uske šatru isi šahar më ho.

'He speaks as if his enemies were in this very city'.

The conjunction कहीं ... र kahl...na 'lest' similarly occurs in conjunction with subjunctive verb forms:1

देखनाकहीं तुम भी एक दिन वीमार न हो जाओ।

dekhnā kahl tum bhī ek din bīmār na ho jāo.

'Watch out lest you fall sick yourself some day'.

The subjunctive is also commonly employed in Hindi in order to make requests and exhortations of various kinds:

बलें। cale. 'Let's go'.

कुछ काफ़ी पिएँ। kuch kāfī pie ? 'Would you like some coffee?'

Another important use of the subjunctive is in indicating the obligation or necessity to do something. Thus usage is exceedingly common in questions:

में क्या करूँ ? māi kyā karā? 'What should I do?' वह कब आए ? vah kab āe? 'When should he/she come?' हम क्या कहें ? ham kyā kahē? 'What should/can we say ?'

^{1.} The marker न na (rather than नहीं nahl) is used in expressing the negative in virtually all subjunctive expressions.

The subjunctive is also to be found in statements of congratulations and greeting, as well as in formulaic expressions of different kinds:

```
(आपको) नये वर्ष की बधाई हो। (āpko) naye varş kī badhāi ho!

'Happy New Year (to you)! [cf. बधाई badhāi n.f. greeting]
भारत की जय हो। bhārat kī jay ho!

'Victory to India!' [cf. जय jay n.f. victory]
```

As was mentioned in earlier chapters (8.1, 8.2, 9.1, 10.1, 11.1), the subjunctive forms of the copula होना honā are employed together with other suffixes or auxiliaries in forming subjunctive-habitual, subjunctive-progressive, and subjunctive-perfective aspectual tense. Illustrations of the use of these constructions are given below.

```
हो सकता है कि वह बंगाली समझती हो । ho saktā hai ki vah bāgāli samajhti ho.
                                  'It is possible that she understands Bengali'.
                          ऐसा लगता है कि वह किसी बड़े शहर में रहता हो।
Subjunctive-
                          aisā lagtā hai ki vah kisī baRe sahar mē rahtā ho.
Habitual
                                  'It seems that he lives in some large city or other'.
                          अगर वह खेत में काम कर रहा हो तो उससे मत बोलो।
Subjunctive-
                          agar vah khet më kam kar raha ho to usse mat bolo.
Progressive
                                 Don't speak to him if he is working in the field'.
                          संभव है कि वह अभी पटना से पहुंचा हो।
Subjunctive-
                           sābhav hai ki vah abhī patnā se pahūcā ho.
Perfective
                              'It is possible that he has just arrived from Patna'.
```

In the first two of the above examples the verbs refer to general or characteristic activities and so are placed in the habitual aspect. Because these activities are only possible and apparent, as opposed to actual or definite, subjunctive forms of the copula $\frac{1}{8}$ honā are employed. In the third example the activity of working is conceptualized as both in progress and hypothetical, hence the subjunctive-progressive is used. In the last example the action of arriving is viewed as complete, but only in a hypothetical or possible world. In this example the use of the subjunctive, as opposed to present, past, or presumptive, perfective has been dictated by the presence of the phrase $\frac{1}{8}$ from \frac

13.2. THE FUTURE

Future verb forms in Hindi are identical to subjunctive forms, but with the addition of the suffix $-\pi/-\bar{\eta}/-\bar{\eta}/-g\bar{a}/-ge/-g\bar{\iota}$. The choice among the alternates of this suffix is determined by the number and gender of the subject (i.e., $-\pi - \bar{a}$ with m.s. subjects, $-\bar{q}$ -e with m. pl., and $-\bar{q}$ - $\bar{\iota}$ with feminine, whether s. or pl.). Thus from $\pi - \bar{a}$ it come' and $\pi - \bar{q}$ ito say' can be formed the following paradigms:

_	Masculine	Feminine
में māi Singular तू tū यह yah बह vah	आऊंगा <i>वेष्टेषुवे</i> कहूंगा kahष्टेषुवे आएगा वेegā कहेगा kahegā	आऊंगी तेंधेंgi कहूंगी kahûgi आएगी aegi कहेगी kahegi

```
इस महीने में कैसा मौसम होना चाहिए ?
'What sort of weather ought there to be in this month ?'
तुमको प्रति दिन संस्कृत में कुछ-न-कुछ लिखना चाहिए ।
'You ought to read something or other in Sanskrit every day'.
[cf. कुछ-न-कुछ 'something or other'.]
उसको अपने परिवार के साथ यहाँ आना चाहिए ।
'He/she ought to come here with his/her family'.
```

Here too चाहिए can be expanded with a following simple past tense form of होता. When this occurs the entire construction signifies that X ought to have carried out the activity denoted by the infinitive. This usage presupposes that X did not, in fact, carry out the activity:

```
उनको यहाँ आना चाहिए था ।
'They ought to have come here'.
तुम्हें इतना खाना नहीं खाना चाहिए था ।
'You ought not to have eaten so much food'.
```

In cases where the infinitive has a direct object, the infinitive is made to agree in number and gender with that direct object. The चाहिए element likewise agrees in number with the direct object. If there is a past tense simple form of होना also present, it agrees in number and gender with the direct object, but the चाहिए element invariably appears in its non-nasalized form:

```
उसको कुछ पुस्तकें ख़रीदनी चाहिए ।
'He ought to buy some books'.

उसको कुछ नई पुस्तकें ख़रीदनी चाहिए थीं ।
'He ought to have bought some new books'.

उनको इतने पपीते नहीं खाने चाहिए थे ।
'They shouldn't have eaten so many papayas'.
```

If the direct object of the infinitive is followed by the postposition को, the infinitive and the past tense form of होना are masculine singular, while the चाहिए element is in its singular (i.e., non-nasalized) form:

```
राम को इन लड़कियों को नहीं देखना चाहिए था। 'Ram ought not to have looked at these girls'.
```

Occasionally, चाहिए sentences are encountered in which the phrases denoting the desired action is transposed after the चाहिए element. The verb of the transposed clause, instead of being in its infinitival form, is generally in the subjunctive:

```
यह चाहिए कि वह आपसे मिलने जाए।
'He/she ought to go to meet you'.
```

This last sentence is roughly synonymous with उसे आपसे मिलने जाना चाहिए ।

17.2. INFINITIVE + होना

Very similar to the construction X को Y चाहिए is another construction having the form X को Y होना, where the variable Y stands for an infinitive or infinitival phrase

अंधेरे में लड़की को नहीं देखाजा सकताथा।

'The girl couldn't be seen in the darkness'.

is an acceptable alternate of अंधेरे में लड़की नहीं देखी जा सकती थी।

Passive sentences in which the जाना auxiliary is placed in its subjunctive form are exceedingly common in Hindi. These constructions offer a polite means of making requests or offers of various kinds:

कुछ चाय पी जाए ?

'Would you like some tea ?' (literally 'should some tea be drunk ?') [cf. चाय n.f. tea]

कुछ संतरे खाए जाएं ?

'Would you like some oranges ?'

The passive subjunctive sentence क्या किया जाए! 'What is to be done?' is commonly used rhetorically to indicate one's helplessness in unpleasant or difficult circumstances.

N.B. The passive in Hindi is not to be considered functionally equivalent to the English passive, particularly with regard to the specification of the party who carries out the verbal activity. The Hindi passive tends to be frequent where specification of location, time, or manner are also present (e.g., in expressing the senses of the English sentences 'Hindi is spoken in the market/on such occasions/very carefully', etc.). When to this is added the specification of the doer of the action, the resulting sentence has a forced quality to it. This additional information tends to be given only for emphatic or stylistic purposes, or in responding to questions that are themselves posed in the passive voice.

There is to be found in Hindi another use of passive verb forms that is quite distinct from the use outlined above. This construction is not limited to transitive verbs, and is, indeed, often found with intransitive verbs in the negative. This usage indicates the inability of some party (marked by $\overline{\epsilon}$) to carry out some verbal activity:

कल रात को उससे सोया नहीं गया।

'He couldn't sleep last night'.

यह देखकर उससे नहीं रहा गया ।3

'When he/she saw this he/she was beside him/herself (in anger)'.

यह बड़ी अफ़सोस की बात है कि उनसे आया नहीं जाएगा।

'Unfortunately, they will not be able to come'.

When जाना is used as the main verb in this construction it appears in the form जाना in place of the expected simple perfective form गया:

मझसे नहीं जाया गया ।

'I was not able to go'.

^{3.} 在實刊 when appearing in this construction has the idiomatic sense of 'to be beside oneself in anger, frustration, or disgust'.

needed the book, the female servant needed the salt, rain was needed here, the neighbor needed the help; 3. I ought to cook, you (pol.) ought to be happy, they ought to speak Hindi, she ought to flee; 4. he ought not to have spoken, I ought to have drunk, we ought to have cooked, Father ought to have repeated; 5. (use infinitive+होता) he has to laugh, we had to speak, people have to wear, she must have to work; 6. (use infinitive+पड़ना) I will have to flee, she had to abandon, they (hab.) have to tell, you (fam.) will have to close; 7. a little water, a little bit of Panjabi, with (use हो) a little bit of attention; 8. the book is (hab.) read, Hindi was (hab.) taught, food will be given, these clothes were cleaned; 9. (use passive) we couldn't see, he couldn't get up, the children couldn't understand; 10. (use passive subjunctive) what should be seen? what ought to be done? what questions should be asked?; 11. this kind of mango, that kind of important work, that sort of spice.

17.7.3. Translate into English

1. हिंदी भारत के बड़े-बड़े महरों में बोली जाती है। 2. उस अवसर पर सब प्रकार के अच्छे खाने पकाए गए। 3. वह पुस्तक घ्यान से पढ़ी जानी चाहिए। 4. वहां पहुंच कर तरह-तरह के जरूरी काम किए जाएंगे। 5. नौकरानी को मिट्टी की कितनी चीजें चाहिएं? 6. आलू अच्छी तरह पकाने के लिए किस तरह का मसाला चाहिए? 7. कहा जाता है कि कश्मीर भारत का सबसे सुन्दर स्थान है। 8. आपको उनकी बातें कितनी बार सुननी पड़ीं? 9. उनके सारे काग्रज खिड़की के बाहर फेंके गए। 10. भारत के बारे में अच्छी तरह सीखने के लिए उसकी पुरानी सड़कों मर घूमना-फिरना चाहिए। 11. उस बाजार में सब वस्तुओं की दुकानें देखी जा सकती हैं। 12. कल रात को बुख़ार लगने के कारण उससे सोया नहीं गया। 13. कमलेश को सब्जी में इतना नमक नहीं डालना चाहिए था।

17.7.4. Translate into Hindi

1. You (pol.) should speak only Hindi when you go to India (use कर and चाहिए).

2. Mr. Vajpeyi had to take his children to Calcutta last week. 3. In Pakistan the native fruit are considered the best (use passive of समझना). 4. How many potatoes did the female servant need? 5. You (fam.) ought not use (i.e., put) so much (use इतना) salt in your food. 6. He ought to have worn his sandals on that occasion. 7. The shopkeepers were compelled to sell their stores. 8. She had to work at the office over and over again. 9. What kind of sandals used to be sold in that market? 10. Much clarified butter was eaten with the bread. 11. Those people were seen in the market of the old city. 12. Panjabi has begun to be understood in those colonies (use बहिन्ता) 13. It is inappropriate to do so much work in the hot season (i.e., so much work ought not be done in the hot season). 14. He couldn't come last week (use passive) because he had to go to the village.

^{4.} बहे-बहे, 'very large'. For a discussion of the functions of the repetition (or 'reduplication') of linguistic forms v. 28.2.

^{5.} तरह-तरह का 'all kinds of'.

^{6.} उनकी बातें 'what they have to say'.

of these pairs are यद्यपि...तथापि and either अगच or हालांकि and any of फिर भी, तो भी, पर, or लेकिन:

यद्यपि हम अपने कार्यों में इन वस्तुओं का प्रयोग नहीं करते, तथापि वे बहुत उपयोगी वस्तुएं हैं।
'Those are very useful things even though we don't use them in our own work'

अगर्षे मीनू बहुत कम मिठाई खाती है फिर भी वह आपकी बर्फ़ी पसन्द करेगी।
Minu will like your barfi even though she doesn't eat sweets very much'.
[cf. बर्फ़ी n.f. a kind of sweet made from dried milk]
हालांकि छवि यू० पी० का है तो भी/लेकिन/पर उसे हिंदी बिलकुल नहीं आती।
'Chavi doesn't know any Hindi at all even though he is from U.P.'3

23.1.3. Subordinating conjunctions with the sense 'so that'

The subordinating conjunctions ताकि and जिससे (कि) are used to indicate that some activity (i.e., that of the main clause) is carried out so that some other activity (i.e., that of the subordinate clause) might also be carried out or brought into effect. Normally the verb of the subordinate clause introduced by ताकि or जिससे (कि) has a subjunctive inflection:

सिंह साहब बाजार में रुके ताकि खाने को¹ कुछ मिल जाए।

'Mr. Singh stopped in the market to get something to eat' [literally 'so that something to eat might be obtained'].

हम दुगुना काम करने लगे जिससे चाचाजी का घर जल्दी तैयार हो जाए।

'We started to do twice as much work so that uncle's house would get completed quickly'.

23.1.4. अर्थात् and यानी

The conjunctions अर्थात् and पानी are used to introduce paraphrases of that which has already been stated in a previous clause:

जानकी अधिक परिश्रमी स्त्री है अर्थात् वह औरत बहुत मेहनत करती है।

'Jānaki is a most industrious woman; that is to say, she does a lot of hard work'.

बर्यात् and यानी may also be used to provide paraphrases not only of entire clauses, but also of single words or small phrases within large clauses:

राम सरन के घर वाले अर्थात्/यानी उसकी पत्नी और दो बच्चे नहीं आ सके।

'The members of Ram Saran's, family, that is to say, his wife and two children, were not able to come'.

23.1.5. Constructions with चाहे

The conjunction चाहे is employed in a number of related, albeit semantically distinct, constructions. The pair चाहे...परन्तु has the sense 'regardless of the fact that. . .still'. Normally the clause in which चाहे appears is in the subjunctive:

^{3.} Cf. 23.2 for a discussion of the use appar to specify the ability to use a learned skill.

^{4.} The postposition को is used frequently as a variant of के लिए after infinitives.

CHAPTER 24

24.1. CONDITIONAL SENTENCES

Conditional sentences are those that have the general sense 'if ... then'. These sentences normally consist of two basic components, an antecedent clause stating the conditions under which some action or state of affairs might occur, and a clause stating what might or will occur given the transpiring of the antecedent.

In formal Hindi, conditional sentences normally have the form यदि/अगर... तो.... The verb of the antecedent clause is commonly in the subjunctive or future, less commonly in the present habitual, with the verb of the subsequent clause most generally in the future, although other verbal inflections are also encountered:

अगर सुनीता आए तो उसकी मदद करने कौन होगा ?

'If Sunita should come, who will be there to help her?'

यदि वहाँ जाने में ज्यादा समय लगे तो हम क्या करें ?

'What will we do if it takes longer to get there?'

अगर तुम बाजार से ताजे मसाले न खरीद लाओ तो सन्जियां कैसे पकाई जाएंगी ?

'How will it be possible to cook the vegetables if you don't bring fresh spices from the market?'

अगर आप यह उचित समझते हैं¹ तो मैं उनसे मिलने जरूर जाऊँया।

'I certainly will go to meet him/her if you think it appropriate'.

Often the verb of the antecedent clause is not in the simple subjunctive, but in one of the perfective aspectual-tenses:

यदि वह दिल्ली से कोई खास चीज लाया हो तो मुझे बुला लीजिए।

'Please call me if he has brought anything special from Delhi'.

अगर बहादर वहाँ के किसी गांव में रहता हो तो उसका जीवन काफ़ी सख्त होगा।

'Bahadur's life must be very difficult if he lives in some village there'.

The relative pronoun जो is employed from time to time in place of यदि/अगर in introducing the antecedent clauses of conditional sentences:

जो तुम मेरे दोस्त हो तो मुझे गालियाँ क्यों देते हो ?

'Why do you curse me if you are my friend?'

In colloquial Hindi, verb forms of the simple perfective are often found in place of the subjunctive or future in the antecedent clause:

अगर वह यहाँ शिकायत करने आया तो बोलने नहीं दूँगा।

'I won't let him speak if he comes here to complain'.

^{1.} For this use of समझना v. 24.6.

- हम उसको पैसा देंगे । →वह तुरन्त उसको खर्च करने बाजार चला जाएगा ।
- तुम गहर की सैर करोगे । + तुम अपनी आंखों से गहर की मशहर जगहें देख सकोगे ।
- कोई तमको गालियां देगा । उसकी बातें न सनो ।

24.8.2. Join each of the following pairs of sentences into a single contrary to fact conditional sentence following the pattern of the given example:

तुमने इतनी बड़ी बाजी नहीं लगाई। + तुम इस बुरी हालत में नहीं हो-→तुम इतनी बड़ी बाजी नहीं लगाते तो इस बुरी हालत में नहीं होते ।

- मेरे पास और पैसा था। + मैं उसकी मदद कर शका।
- हम गरीव नहीं हैं। +हमारे पास काफ़ी खाना है।
- तुम (f.) ने उसको गालियां दीं । उसको गुस्सा बाया ।
- सरकार ने लोगों पर अधिक कर नहीं लगाया । → लोगों का जीवन इतना सकत नहीं था ।

24.8.3. Translate into English

 अपने को देखना, अपने आपको अमीर समझना, अपने पर कोछ करना, अपने आपको गालियां देना;
 एक दूसरे से सवाल पूछना, एक दूसरे को मारना, एक दूसरे को कष्ट देना, एक दूसरे की प्रशंसा करना;
 अपस में बेलना, आपसी दोस्ती, परस्पर संबंध, आपस में बात करना:
 टिकट, एक क्पये-बाला टिकट, बार दो द्वार दो द्वार टिकट।

24.8.4. Translate into Hindi

1. to feed oneself, to teach oneself, to talk to oneself, to bathe oneself; 2. to look at one another, to speak to one another, to attack each other, to help each other; 3. to argue among oneselves, mutual love, mutual hatred; 4. trip, trip to Pakistan, Mr. Sharma's trip to Pakistan, to make a separate trip to Pakistan.

24.8.5. Translate into English

1. (अगर) तुम इलाहाबाद जाने का निश्चय करो तो मुझे जरूर बताना । 2. (अगर) आप चाहें तो हम साथ-साथ देहात की सैर कर सकेंगे । 3. (यदि) वह फिर शिकायत करे तो शायद इस बार सफलता मिलेगी । 4. (यदि) स्थादा ठंड समे तो खिड़की बन्द कर लेना । 5. तुम मेरी वार्ते मानते तो इतनी मुसीबर्ते नहीं सहनी पड़तीं । 6. फिल्म इतनी जल्दी ख़त्म न होती तो गाड़ी पकड़ने में ज्यादा देर न होती । 7. रमेश की इच्छा थी कि कोई उसके स्थान पर आगरे जाए, पर अंत में उसको स्वयं जाना पड़ा । 8. उनके बच्चे एक दूसरे को गालियां देते हैं । 9. राम ने उस लिफ़ाफ़े पर दो बीस पैसे-बाले टिकट लगा दिए । 10. तुम अपने को दूसरों से अच्छी क्यों समझती हो ? 11. उन तीन संतरों का (= के लिए) कितना पैसा लगेगा ? 12. सरकार हम जैसे लोगों पर इतना कर क्यों लगाती है ? 13. दिन रात पढ़ने में मेरा जी नहीं लगता । 14. उन्हें कितनी देर तक एक दूसरे की प्रतीक्षा करनी पड़ी ? 15. मैं उनकी सुन्दर मुस्कराहट न देखता तो मुझे उस समय की दोस्ती की याद नहीं आती ।

24.8.6. Translate into Hindi

1. We will take you to the market if you say [so]. 2. If she has arrived in Varanasi by now (use subjunctive perfective), she will have already met (use presumptive perfective) with Saroj. 3. We will stay at home if it rains tomorrow. 4. If it had rained yesterday we would have stayed at home. 5. If you know how to speak Hindi you would have been able to speak with more people. 6. How long will it take to reach Bombay?

The situation with regard to Hindi language dictionaries has improved considerably in the past few years, and there are many dictionaries that can be recommended to students. Among Hindi-English dictionaries, those by Bahri, Chaturvedi and Tiwari, and Mohan and Kapur are particularly useful. Pathak's Hindi-English dictionary, although widely available, is somewhat less acceptable for students than the works already named. Among English-Hindi dictionaries, that by Bulcke is probably still the best, although The Oxford Progressive English-Hindi Dictionary has many strengths. The advanced student of Hindi is well advised to obtain a Hindi-Hindi dictionary, with the बृह्त् हिन्दी कोण (Kalika Prasad, et. al., eds.) particularly recommended. For those requiring an unabridged dictionary of Hindi giving extensive citations of the use of forms throughout the history of Hindi, the हिन्दी मन्द्रसागर (Shyamsundar Das, ed.) is indispensable. Often the student will, in the course of his study of Hindi, encounter idioms that are not glossed in standard dictionaries. The हिन्दी मुहाबरा कोण, edited by Bholanath Tiwari, is a most helpful tool in tracking down the meanings of such idioms.

The student who wishes to acquire a mastery of the Hindi language cannot, of course, do so merely by reading pedagogical or reference works. Such works, while necessary, only provide a framework for beginning the systematic study of the language. Real mastery is an ongoing process, something that is attained through emersion in the language in its social context. For this it is necessary to speak, read, and write Hindi as much as possible. One can read edited materials or do programmed exercises for only so long. Conversational fluency is attained by speaking Hindi with native speakers of the language. The way to learn how to write Hindi is to write it as much as possible and to have one's own efforts corrected by someone fully literate in the language. And the way to improve one's reading ability in a language is to read. There is no shortage of things to read in Hindi. The sooner the student abandons edited materials and moves on to "real" Hindi the better. Magazines, newspapers, academic, literary, and popular books of all kinds, advertisements, pamphlets, encyclopedias, telephone directories, food wrappers, inserts in pharmaceutical packages, street signs, public notices, and countless other things are printed in Hindi throughout much of north India. My best advice to the student is to read widely in the various styles of the language and to read often. Only by so doing can any real fluency be attained and reading be changed from an act of tedium to one that gives pleasure.

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A COURSE IN ADVANCED HINDI

Sheela Verma

This book is designed to serve as a foundation for a competency-based course in Advanced Hindi for students of Hindi as a Second Language. It is also appropriate for those generally interested in such aspects of language control as intensive reading of authentic textual materials of literary significance, oral production (involving situational conversation, oral presentation, and simultaneous translation), and structured writing using thematic vocabulary. Such aspects of a competency-based language course as advanced listening comprehension and rapid non-intensive reading can be strengthened with the use of supplementary materials in conjunction with this textbook. Attention drawn in this book to the structural strategies of the more productive constructions and expresions, as well as derivational devices and collocational constraints peculiar to authentic Hindi texts, should also be helpful in enhancing these skills.

INTERMEDIATE HINDI

Yamuna Kachru & Rajeshwari Pandharipande

Intermediate Hindi is a selection of teaching materials for teaching Hindi as a second or foreign language. It consists of a number of passages—mostly published materials for general reading designed to teach the grammatical points assigned for the intermediate level. The texts provide a wide range of vocabulary (including Indo-Aryan and Perso-Arabic near synonyms), a variety of topics suited for conversations among students, and typically South Asian Social and Cultural contexts. Each text is followed by a detailed glossary, grammatical explanations for selected constructions, notes on vocabulary and fixed expressions, and exercises and home work assignments. There are also sections on word study and pronunciation. Each volume represents one semester (approximately 48 hours) of classroom instruction.

HINDI MORPHOLOGY: A WORD-BASED DESCRIPTION

Rajendra Singh & Rama Kant Agnihotri

This book provides a fairly comprehensive description of the morphology of Hindi. This description is located in the theory proposed by Ford and Singh. They question some of the most celebrated concepts of morphology and build a theory of morphological relatedness around the word as the basic unit and a set of bidirectional Word Formation Strategies. Morphology is essentially regarded as the study of relationships obtaining among formally and semantically related words. These Word Formation Strategies constitute extremely complex networks of word-relatedness. Access to a single member of a given network can activate the whole network. This book examines critically not only the concepts used in tradtional morphology but also the work done on Hindi morphology during the nineteenth and early twentieth century. In addition to examining intra- and intercategorial relationships among Hindi nouns, verbs, adjectives and adverbs, the book includes sections on morphonemic changes, minimization of morphological marks, non-morphemic morphemes and multiple affixation.

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