Modern Hindi Grammar

Omkar N. Koul
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Preface

Modern Hindi Grammar aims at providing basic information on various aspects of Hindi phonology, morphology, and syntax along with their unique features or characteristics.

Hindi has a special status in India. It is spoken by the largest population in India. It is the official language of the Union of India and eleven state governments, including Delhi. It is taught as a second language in all the non-Hindi speaking states under the three-language formula. Under this formula, a child is supposed to learn his mother tongue, Hindi, and English. If a child’s mother tongue is Hindi, (s)he is expected to learn an additional modern Indian language or a foreign language. Hindi is taught as a foreign language in a large number of countries throughout the world. Besides need-based language learning materials, there is a need for a pedagogically oriented grammar of this language. The present grammar aims to fulfill the need of second/foreign language learners of Hindi in India as well as other countries. A large number of Hindi speakers have settled in non-Hindi speaking states in India, or have migrated and settled abroad. The second generation of these migrants is fast losing contact with their mother tongue in the absence of its use in various domains of their day-to-day life in alien surroundings. They are looking for suitable language learning materials including pedagogically oriented grammars for maintaining the language among their children.

Hindi has a long tradition of grammars and grammatical literature. The existing grammars mentioned in the introduction as well as in references are either too old and do not describe modern spoken and written Hindi, or they are sketchy or too scholarly or detailed. They do not fulfill the needs of second and/or foreign language learners or those native speakers who want to maintain the language in an alien atmosphere.

This grammar is pedagogically oriented. It will be of special interest to Hindi language learners and teachers in different situations. It will also be of interest to linguists and researchers working in the area of language typology, and to general readers as well.
In Modern Hindi Grammar we have utilized simple terminology and provided suitable descriptions with tables for grammatical categories, phrases, and sentence types. The introduction gives a survey of the Hindi speaking area and the number of its speakers, its classification and dialects, Hindi-Urdu relationship, the status of Hindi and its use in administration, education and mass media, Hindi grammars, and the objectives of the present grammar. The phonology section describes segmental phonemes, suprasegmentals, and morphophonology. The morphology provides a description of different word classes: nouns, pronouns, adjectives, numerals, adverbs, particles, connectives, and interjections. It deals with inflectional as well as derivational morphology. The syntax describes the structure of phrases, sentence types, complex and compound constructions, special word order variations, and other intricate syntactic features. The lexicon presents a list of useful classified vocabulary which is useful for students and teachers of Hindi as well as general readers. This grammar emphasizes special features of Hindi that set it apart from other Indo-Aryan languages. In short, it will fulfill the needs of the basic language learner as well as provide useful information for the linguist and the general reader.

I would like to take this opportunity to thank Mr. Thomas Creamer, Director, Language Research Center (a division of McNeil Technologies) for asking me to write this grammar and for deciding to publish it. I would like to thank Prof. Anjani Kumar Sinha, and Prof. Kashi Wali for going through the first draft of it and for offering useful comments and suggestions. Finally, I would like to thank my colleagues at the Indian Institute of Language Studies for providing their assistance.

I hope students, researchers, teachers, and linguists will find this book useful.

Omkar N. Koul
### Abbreviations

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Abbreviation</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
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<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1. first person</td>
<td>NP noun phrase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2. second person</td>
<td>obl oblique</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3. third person</td>
<td>part particle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>abl ablative case</td>
<td>pass passive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>adv adverb</td>
<td>pl plural</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>asp aspirated</td>
<td>pol polite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>aux auxiliary</td>
<td>poss possessive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>caus causative</td>
<td>postp postposition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cond conditional</td>
<td>pre presumptive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cor correlative</td>
<td>prox proximate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cp conjunctive participle</td>
<td>psp past participle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dat dative</td>
<td>ptc participle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>emp emphatic</td>
<td>q question particle</td>
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<tr>
<td>erg ergative</td>
<td>refl reflexive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>fut future</td>
<td>rel relative</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gen genitive case</td>
<td>rem remote</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hon honorific</td>
<td>sbj subjunctive mood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>imp imperative</td>
<td>sg singular</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>impf imperfective</td>
<td>unas unaspirated</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>inf infinitive</td>
<td>VP verb phrase</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>indef indefinite</td>
<td>vd voiced</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ms masculine singular</td>
<td>vl voiceless</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>neg negative</td>
<td>* ungrammatical</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nom nominative</td>
<td>non hon non honorific</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
References


1. Introduction

1.1. Area and Its Speakers

Hindi is an Indo-Aryan language (a branch of the-Indo-European family of languages), spoken primarily in the states of Bihar, Chattisgarh, Delhi, Haryana, Himachal Pradesh, Jharkhand, Madhya Pradesh, Rajasthan, Uttarakhand, and Uttar Pradesh in India. Besides being the official language of these states it is also the official language of government of India along with English. According to the 2001 census, it is spoken by 422,048,642 speakers which include the speakers of its various dialects and variations of speech grouped under Hindi. It is also spoken by a large number of people of Indian origin settled abroad.

1.2. Dialects and Classification

Hindi and Urdu languages have their origins in Khariboli spoken in areas around Delhi. Khariboli was adopted by the Afghans, Persians, and Turks as a common language of interaction with the local population during the period of Islamic invasions and the establishment of Muslim rule in the north of India between the eighth and tenth centuries AD. In time, it developed a variety called Urdu with significant borrowings from Arabic and Persian and that uses a Persian script. It was also known as rexta “mixed language.” As Urdu gained patronage in the Muslim courts and developed into a literature language, the variety used by the general population gradually replaced Sanskrit, literary Prakrits, and Apabhramsas as the literary language. This latter variety looked to Sanskrit for linguistic borrowings and Sanskrit, Prakrits, and Apabhramasas for literary conventions. It is this variety that became known as Hindi.

Hindi and Urdu have a common form known as Hindustani which is essentially a Hindi-Urdu mixed language. This was the variety that was adopted by Indian leaders as a symbol of national identity during the struggle for freedom. Hindi has been used as a literary language since the twelfth century. The development of prose, however, began only in the eighteenth century, which marks the emergence of Hindi as a full-fledged literary language.
1. INTRODUCTION

Grierson (1906) has divided Hindi into two groups: Eastern Hindi and Western Hindi. Between the Eastern and the Western Prakrits there was an intermediate Prakrit called Ardhamagadhi. The modern representative of the corresponding Apabhamsa is Eastern Hindi and the Shaurasena Apabhramsa of the middle Doab is the parent of Western Hindi. In the Eastern group Grierson discusses three dialects: Awadhi, Bagheli, and Chattisgarhi. In the Western group he discusses five dialects: Hindustani, Braj Bhasha, Kanauji, Bundeli, and Bhojpuri. Eastern Hindi is bounded on the north by the language of the Nepal Himalaya and on the west by various dialects of Western Hindi, of which the principal are Kanauji and Bundeli. On the east, it is bounded by the Bhojpuri dialect of Bihari and by Oriya. On the South it meets forms of the Marathi language. Western Hindi extends to the foot of the Himalayas on the north, south to the Jamna valley, and occupies most of Bundelkhand and a part of central provinces on the east side.

The Hindi region is traditionally divided into two: Eastern Hindi and Western Hindi. The main dialects of Eastern Hindi are Avadhi, Bagheli and Chattisgarhi. The Western Hindi dialects are Haryanvi, Braj Bhasha, Bhundeli, Kanuji and Khariboli. The dialects spoken in the regions of Bihar (i.e., Maithili, Bhojpuri, Maghi etc.) in Rajasthan (i.e., Marwari, Jaipuri, Malvi etc.) and some dialects spoken in the northwestern areas of Uttar Pradesh, and Himachal Pradesh were kept away from the earlier classification. Now, all of these dialects are also covered under the term Hindi. The standard Hindi developed from the Khariboli has borrowed lexical items from Sanskrit and is the vehicle of all official literary and commercial communication. It is intelligible throughout the broad Hindi language region. Another literary style, Urdu, has also developed from Khariboli and it uses the Perso-Arabic script and borrows from Perso-Arabic sources.

1.3. Hindi – Urdu

Historical and cultural processes and the linguistic affinity which exists in Indian languages led to the emergence of Hindi-Urdu or so-called Hindustani as the lingua-franca of major areas of India long before its freedom. In an earlier period, the languages of administration, Sanskrit in the case of the earliest Hindu kingdoms, Persian in the case of the Muslim dynasties, and English in the case of the British regime, have mostly remained confined to the elite.
Beginning with the invasion of Mohammed Ghori in the late 12th century AD, the foreign invaders settled down in India to rule. The Slave, Tughluq, Lodi, and Mughal dynasties used Persian in their administration, but they used the local language spoken in and around Delhi for communicating with the people for their day-to-day needs. This local language was a form of Apbhramsha, which eventually became Khariboli; they called this language Hindi - a language belonging to Hind. Thus, the Hindi language derived its name from the Persian towards the end of the 12th century or beginning of the 13th century. During the Mughal period, the word “Urdu” was derived from the Turkish word “Yurt” or “ordu” that meant “military encampment.” This variety was distinguished on the basis of Perso-Arabic influence at the lexical level and was written in the Perso-Arabic script. Hindi-Urdu became the medium of communication between the Muslim rulers and the local people. The southern variety of the speech, best known as Dakhini, also became the medium of literature and socio-religious discourse. This variety is influenced by Dravidian languages as a result of language contact.

Due to a common structural basis, Hindi and Urdu continued to be treated as synonymous for centuries at least up to the period of Mirza Ghalib. Mirza Ghalib called his language “Hindi” on several occasions, though he used the Perso-Arabic script for writing it. He named one of his works “ode-e-Hindi” (perfume of Hindi). Primarily in the domain of different genres of literature, Hindi and Urdu started drifting away from each other not only in the use of two different scripts, but also in literary styles and vocabulary. Hindi started drawing more and more from Sanskrit, and Urdu from Persian and Arabic. The processes continue today.

During British rule, when English was adopted as the official language, local languages were assigned roles for certain functions at lower levels of administration. A competition started between the proponents or supporters of Hindi and those of Urdu for official recognition of their languages. In the first instance, Urdu was recognized by the British in the Northwest and Oudh, Bihar, and the Central Provinces in 1830 AD as the language of the courts. This was followed by the recognition accorded to Hindi in certain areas. Hindi and Urdu were involved in controversy and mutual competition for their recognition in various domains of education and administration. The mutual conflicts intensified at the beginning
1. INTRODUCTION

of the 20th century. On the one hand, there were proponents of Hindi and Urdu who were eager to maintain separate linguistic identities, and, on the other hand, some national leaders wanted to develop Hindustani as a combined linguistic identity on the basis of its use by the general population.

1.4. Linguistic Characteristics

Hindi shares major linguistic characteristics with other Indo-Aryan languages. It has ten vowels. The length of vowels is phonemic. All vowels can be nasalized and nasalization is phonemic. The Hindi syllable contains a vowel as its nucleus, followed or preceded by consonants. Words usually have two or three syllables.

Nouns are inflected for number, gender and case. There are two numbers: singular and plural, two genders: masculine and feminine; and two cases: direct and oblique. Nouns are assigned one of the two genders. The gender of inanimate objects is not predictable from the form or meaning. Pronouns are inflected for number and case. Adjectives are of two types: declinable and indeclinable. The first type is uninflected for number, gender, and case, whereas the second type is not.

Verbs are inflected for person, number, gender, tense, mood, and aspect. There are three tenses: present, past, and future; three moods: imperative, indicative, and subjective; two aspects: imperfective and perfective. Hindi is a verb-final language.

Hindi is written in the Devanagari script which originated from Brahmi. The Devanagari script for Hindi is standardized, but certain minor variations still exist. In this grammar we are using Devanagari and Roman scripts for the data from the language.

1.5. Status

As stated above, Hindi is the official language of the Union of India and ten states. It is spoken by the largest number of people in India. It is widely used in administration, education, and mass media.

The use of Hindi in administration at the Union level as well as in the Hindi speaking states is not free from problems (Koul 1994a). There are some serious gaps in the Official Language Policy (OLP),
and the rules and procedures which are being followed in its implementation. There are problems related to the development of its administrative register. The main problems related to the development of the administrative register are: (i) an artificial coinage of terminology, (ii) lack of standardization, and (iii) lack of coordination between various agencies and duplication of efforts. Problems related to its practical use include the lack of proper monitoring, lack of encouragement, and absence of strong political will.

The implementation of the OLP at the Union level has become the victim of political indecision, the attitude of its protagonists, the lack of will of the monitoring agencies, and the lack of adherence to the rules and regulations set up for it. Even after its continuous use in administration for more than sixty years, its development is still questioned by critics. There is a need to review the OLP, and the rules and procedures of its implementation to identify its problems and resolve them.

The Constitution of India adopted in 1950 provides for the use of Hindi in Devanagari script as the official language of the Union. Article 343 states:

The official language of the Union shall be Hindi in the Devanagari script. The form of numerals to be used for the official purpose of the Union shall be the international form of Indian numerals.

Article 351 provides a directive for the development of Hindi as follows:

It shall be the duty of the Union to promote the spread of the Hindi language, to develop it so that it may serve as a medium of expression for all the composite culture of India and to secure its enrichment by assimilating without interfering with its genius, the forms, style and expressions used in Hindustani and in the other languages of India specified in the Eighth Schedule, and by drawing, whenever necessary or desirable, its vocabulary primarily from Sanskrit and secondarily from other languages.

The Hindi language was supposed to replace English in 1965, fifteen years after the adoption of the Constitution of India. The early sixties witnessed resentment and agitation, primarily in the southern
1. Introduction

The development of Hindi has become a complex concern for the Government of India. The development of Hindi is often linked to the development of other regional languages. The Ministry of Home Affairs (Government of India) Resolution (1968) made some important recommendations in this regard:

1. It is the duty of the Government of India to promote the spread of the Hindi language.
2. The development of Hindi as well as other regional languages is in the interest of the educational and cultural advancement of the country.
3. Efforts should be made to implement the Three-Language Formula.
4. Compulsory knowledge of Hindi or English should be essential for the public service of the Union.
5. Languages of the Eighth Schedule should be used as alternative media for examinations for all-India and higher Central services.

The Resolution adopted by the Ministry of Home Affairs has turned out to be merely a political policy statement. It was not followed by an action plan for the promotion or the spread of the Hindi language in a sustainable manner, although it was rightly realized that the development of Hindi and regional languages is necessary for the educational and cultural advancement of the country. No clear-cut strategies were framed for encouraging their use in education. It did not stop the mushrooming of competing English-medium private schools. Efforts were made to implement the Three-Language Formula, but, in the absence of proper monitoring of its
implementation, the Formula itself was diluted by different states, which resulted in its several versions. The Union Public Service Commission (UPSC) has made a provision for the use of languages of the Eighth Schedule as alternative media for competitive examinations, but, in the absence of adequate study materials in Hindi and regional languages, English continues to reign supreme as the only viable medium of examinations. Hindi is taught to the officers and staff of the Central service during their in-service training, but there is no urgency for its use as long as English continues as an associate official language. The Resolution makes important recommendations, but in the absence of an effective action plan and a sense of urgency on the part of the agencies involved, these recommendations are not implemented properly.

Hindi has a significant role in education. It is used as a subject of study as well as a medium of education in India from the primary level to the university level in all the Hindi-speaking states in India. It is also used as a medium for technical education at the lower levels. Various organizations at the Union and state levels are engaged in the preparation of textbooks and supplementary instructional materials in Hindi. English continues to be a preferred medium of instruction for science and technology at the higher levels.

Hindi has a prominent role in both electronic and print media. Hindi is widely used in programs on radio and television and in films. The language style of Hindi used in electronic media is close to the spoken variety of so-called Hindustani. In the print media, styles vary from high Hindi to that commonly understood by the Hindi-Urdu speech community. Whereas a few newspapers and periodicals prefer high Hindi or the Sanskritized style, others prefer to use the Urdu vocabulary. A large number of newspapers, periodicals, and journals are published in Hindi.

1.6. Grammars in Hindi

Beginning in the eighteenth century, Hindi has a long tradition of grammatical literature which falls under the categories of (a) traditional grammars, (b) comparative and historical grammars, and (c) modern linguistic grammars. Bhatia (1987) provides a critical survey of the Hindi grammatical tradition. Traditional grammars describe the language using the traditional framework of Sanskrit
1. INTRODUCTION

grammars. Comparative and historical grammars are mostly concerned with presenting the diachronic description of the grammatical features at different linguistic levels, especially phonology and morphology. They are useful for historical linguists and those interested in the comparative linguistics of Indo-Aryan languages.

Modern linguistic grammars in Hindi have been written with various objectives. Most of the modern linguistic grammars deal with some aspects of syntax at length and tend to apply the western theoretical models and raise theoretical issues. They are useful for linguists interested in theoretical discussions and are of little use to the language learners and teachers of Hindi or to general readers. It is important to mention a few grammars here.

Aryendra Sharma (1958) prepared first detailed descriptive grammar of modern Hindi in English. It has been revised and printed several times. Though written in a traditional format it presents a good description of Hindi. Different linguistic aspects of Hindi have been described in various dissertations and independent grammatical studies lately. I will specially mention three recent works: Mountaut (2005), Kachru (2006), and Agnihotri (2007) written with different objectives.

Mountaut (2005) provides a functional description of Hindi from a typological perspective. She provides a brief phonological outline of standard Hindi, its morphological analysis, an analysis of simple clauses and complex sentences. The final section provides representative features of standard Hindi, its various dialects with special reference to other neighboring Indo-Aryan languages. She presents review of the earlier works on the subject and uses examples from various written texts. It is a first linguistic grammar of Hindi written from a typological point of view and is useful for linguists working in the area of linguistic typology with special reference to Indo-Aryan languages.

Kachru (2006) describes the structure of modern Hindi keeping in view primarily the sociolinguistic context of language use. She provides description of sounds, devices of word formation, rules of phrases, and sentence constructions and conventions and practices of language use in spoken and written texts keeping in view recent linguistic theories. She also deals with the information and
discourse structure of the current use of Hindi. This is quite useful for linguists and language learners of Hindi in various situations.

Agnihotri (2007) is a practical reference guide to the core structures and linguistic features of Hindi. He provides brief description of various simple, compound and complex structures of Hindi. Word morphology, phonology, and issues related to Devanagari script are dealt with adequate examples. It is useful for linguists and students of Hindi for reference.

There is a scope for a pedagogically oriented grammar which provides essential information for the use of Hindi language learners as well as teachers. The present *Modern Hindi Grammar* is an effort in this direction. It is pedagogically oriented; utilizing simpler terminology and authentic data from standard spoken and written Hindi; providing useful descriptions and tables of grammatical categories as well as simple descriptions of phrases, and sentence types designed for the use of language learners, teachers of Hindi at various levels. The Phonology describes segmental phonemes (vowels, consonants), suprasegmentals (length, stress, intonation), and morphophonology (alterations, deletion and insertion, allomorphs). The Morphology provides descriptions of nominal morphology (noun inflection, gender, number, case, postpositions, pronouns, adjectives), verb morphology (types of verbs, verb inflections, voice, tense, aspect, mood, non-finite verb forms), and adverbs. The Syntax describes the structure of phrases, sentence types, complex and compound constructions, other syntactic constructions among other items. The Lexicon presents a classified vocabulary of Hindi under 12 sub-sections. It is followed by Index.
2. Phonology

2.1. Phonological Units (Segmental)

The pulmonic egressive airstream mechanism is involved in the production of all phonetic segments of the language.

2.1.1. Distinctive Segments

The inventory of the distinctive segments of Hindi is as follows:

**Vowels**

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Front</th>
<th>Central</th>
<th>Back</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>i:</td>
<td>u:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower High</td>
<td>i</td>
<td>u</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>o</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower Mid</td>
<td>e</td>
<td>ë</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>a</td>
<td>a:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The nasalization is phonemic in Hindi. It is represented by the nasal sign ˜ written above the vowel signs as given below:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Front</th>
<th>Central</th>
<th>Back</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>High</td>
<td>ï:</td>
<td>ù:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower High</td>
<td>ï</td>
<td>ù</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Mid</td>
<td>ë</td>
<td>ô</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Lower Mid</td>
<td>ë</td>
<td>ë</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Low</td>
<td>ã</td>
<td>ã:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### Consonants

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Bilabial</th>
<th>Labiodental</th>
<th>Alveolar</th>
<th>Dental</th>
<th>Retroflex</th>
<th>Palatal</th>
<th>Velar</th>
<th>Glottal</th>
<th>Stops</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vl.unasp</td>
<td>p</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>t</td>
<td>k</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vl.asp</td>
<td>ph</td>
<td>th</td>
<td>th</td>
<td>kh</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vd.unasp</td>
<td>b</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>d</td>
<td>g</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vd.asp</td>
<td>bh</td>
<td>dh</td>
<td>dh</td>
<td>gh</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Affricates</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>vl.unas</td>
<td>c</td>
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<tr>
<td>vl.asp</td>
<td>ch</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vd.unas</td>
<td>j</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vd.asp</td>
<td>jh</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Nasal</td>
<td>m</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>n</td>
<td>η</td>
<td>η</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Trill</td>
<td>r</td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Flap</td>
<td>unasp</td>
<td>t</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
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<td>asp</td>
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<tr>
<td>Lateral</td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
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<tr>
<td>Fricative</td>
<td></td>
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<td></td>
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<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vl</td>
<td>f</td>
<td>s</td>
<td>ş</td>
<td>x</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vd</td>
<td>z</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>h</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Semivowel</td>
<td>v</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2.1.2. Description of Phonemes

#### 2.1.2.1. Vowels

**Oral Vowels**

There is a contrast in the position of the tongue, the height of the tongue, and the rounding of the lips in the articulation of vowels.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/i:/</th>
<th>(high front unrounded long vowel):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>इंद्र</td>
<td>i:d Eid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>नीर</td>
<td>n:i:r water</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>जलमी</td>
<td>jaldi: hurry</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## 2. Phonology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Vowel</th>
<th>Description</th>
<th>Example Words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/ɪ/</td>
<td>(high front unrounded short vowel)</td>
<td>इमारत (ima:rat) building, गिरना (girna:) to fall, पति (pati) husband</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/e/</td>
<td>(mid front unrounded long vowel)</td>
<td>एक (ek) one, पत (ret) sand, जुटे (ju:te) shoes</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/a/</td>
<td>(low central unrounded short vowel)</td>
<td>अगर (agar) if, पर (par) but, न (na) no</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/aː/</td>
<td>(low central unrounded long vowel)</td>
<td>आम (a:m) mango, आराम (a:ra:m) rest, अच्छा (accha:) good</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/u/</td>
<td>(high back rounded short vowel)</td>
<td>उठना (uṭha:) to rise, पुत्र (putr) son, किन्तु (kintu) but</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/uː/</td>
<td>(high back rounded long vowel)</td>
<td>उन (u:n) wool, सुंदर (su:d) interest, भालु (bha:lu:) bear</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/o/</td>
<td>(mid back rounded long vowel)</td>
<td>ओस (os) dew, रोटी (roṭi:) bread, दो (do) two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ɛ/</td>
<td>(lower mid unrounded front vowel)</td>
<td>ऐनक (ɛnak) mirror, गर (ger) stranger, ले (le) tune</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ɔ/</td>
<td>(lower mid rounded back vowel)</td>
<td>ओरत (ɔrat) woman, दोलत (dɔlat) wealth, सौ (sɔ) hundred</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
## 2. Phonology

### Nasal Vowels

Nasalization is phonemic in Hindi. All the vowels can be nasalized.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/ĩ/</th>
<th>ũ</th>
<th>/ɪ/</th>
<th>ŭ</th>
<th>/œ/</th>
<th>ō/</th>
<th>/ø/</th>
<th>ŵ</th>
<th>/ã/</th>
<th>õ</th>
<th>/ε/</th>
<th>ë</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>ũc</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>ŭc</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>ũ</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>ŭ</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>ũ</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>ũ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>inch</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>cage</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>brick</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>to irrigate</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>no</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>meeting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>mě</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>in</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>thumb</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>cold</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>courtyard</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>demand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>mother</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>ounce</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>face</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>camel</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>to smell</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>louse</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>lip</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>gum</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>mustard</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>to tighten</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>buffalo</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>I</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>upside down</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>thirty-four</td>
<td>ṭi</td>
<td>eyebrow</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2.1.2.2. Consonants

Consonants are classified into different groups on the basis of their manner and place of articulation. Examples of phonemic consonantal segments of Hindi are presented in minimal or near minimal pairs. Non-phonemic phonetic segments are also exemplified. The examples given below represent their phonetic transcription.
**Stops and Affricates**

In the production of stops, air coming out of the lungs is stopped at the point of articulation and then released with plosion. Stops occur at initial, medial, and final positions of words.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sound</th>
<th>(voiceless unaspirated bilabial stop):</th>
<th>Example Words</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>/p/</td>
<td>pal</td>
<td>moment</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>kapra:</td>
<td>cloth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sâ:p</td>
<td>snake</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/ph/</td>
<td>(voiceless aspirated bilabial stop):</td>
<td>phal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>saphal</td>
<td>successful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sa:ph</td>
<td>clean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/b/</td>
<td>(voiced unaspirated bilabial stop):</td>
<td>bal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ambar</td>
<td>sky</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sab</td>
<td>all</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/bh/</td>
<td>(voiced aspirated bilabial stop):</td>
<td>bha:lu:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>sabha:</td>
<td>meeting</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>la:bh</td>
<td>profit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/t/</td>
<td>(voiceless unaspirated dental stop):</td>
<td>ta:r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ka:tna:</td>
<td>to spin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ra:t</td>
<td>night</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/th/</td>
<td>(voiceless aspirated dental stop):</td>
<td>tha:li:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ha:thi:</td>
<td>elephant</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>ha:th</td>
<td>hand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/d/</td>
<td>(voiced unaspirated dental stop):</td>
<td>darva:za:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>vardi:</td>
<td>uniform</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>band</td>
<td>closed</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/dh/</td>
<td>(voiced aspirated dental stop):</td>
<td>dhan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>a:dha:</td>
<td>half</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>du:dh</td>
<td>milk</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>/t/</td>
<td>(voiceless unaspirated retroflex stop):</td>
<td>tokri:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td>basket</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. PHONOLOGY

| काटना  | ka:tna: | to cut        |
| पोट   | kot     | coat          |
| /th/   | (voiceless aspirated retroflex stop): |
| ठग    | t̪hag   | cheat         |
| मिठई   | mitha:i: | sweets       |
| आठ    | a:th    | eight         |
| /d/    | (voiced unaspirated retroflex stop): |
| डाल   | d̪a:li: | branch        |
| मिदर   | nidar   | fearless      |
| मींढ   | s̪ā:d   | bull          |
| /dh/   | (voiced aspirated retroflex stop): |
| डोल   | d̪hol   | drum          |
| गडा    | gadha:  | ditch         |
| /k/    | (voiceless unaspirated velar stop): |
| कौन   | ka:n    | ear           |
| नकड़ी  | lakrī: | wood          |
| नाक    | na:k    | nose          |
| /kh/   | (voiceless aspirated velar stop): |
| खोदना  | khodna: | to dig        |
| देखना   | dekhna: | to see        |
| गाँव    | ra:kh   | ashes         |
| /g/    | (voiced unaspirated velar stop): |
| गाँदन   | gardan  | neck          |
| आग    | a:g     | if            |
| /gh/   | (voiced aspirated velar stop): |
| घर     | ghar    | home          |
| सुग्ना   | sū:ghna: | to smell |
| बाघ    | ba:gh   | tiger         |

In the production of affricates, air coming out of the lungs passes with friction when the articulator is released gradually. Affricates occur in the initial, medial and final positions of words.

| /c/    | (voiceless unaspirated palatal stop): |
| चार    | ca:r    | four          |
| चन्ना   | bacca:  | child         |
| काँच   | kā:c    | glass         |

| /ch/   | (voiceless aspirated palatal affricate): |
| छ     | che     | six           |
### 2. PHONOLOGY

| नाभली | मछली: | fish |
| कुछँ | कुछ | some |

/\j/ (voiced unaspirated palatal affricate):

| जन | ja:n | life |
| गाजर | ga:jar | carrot |
| ताज़ा | ta:j | crown |

/\jh/ (voiced aspirated palatal affricate):

| जंडा | jhâda: | flag |
| मुहांबिख | sujha:v | suggestion |
| माहै | sâ:jh | evening |

#### Fricatives

There are alveolar and glottal fricatives. They occur at all positions.

| /\fy/ (voiceless labio-dental fricative) |
| फरज़ | farz | duty |
| नफरत | nafrat | dislike |
| निफ़ | sirf | only |

| /\fs/ (voiceless alveolar fricative) |
| सात | sa:t | seven |
| सासा | sasta: | cheap |
| दस | das | ten |

| /\fz/ (voiced alveolar fricative) |
| जाबन | zaba:n | language |
| बाजार | ba:za:r | market |
| गज | gaz | yard |

| /\fs/ (voiceless alveolar fricative) |
| अश | a:ša: | hope |
| नाता | na:š | destruction |

| /\fx/ (voiceless velar fricative) |
| खबर | xabar | news |
| अखबार | axba:r | newspaper |
| अशा | Ša:x | branch |

| /\fh/ (voiceless glottal fricative) |
| हाथी | ha:thi: | elephant |
| बहार | baha:r | spring |
| राह | ra:h | way |
2. PHONOLOGY

Nasals

There are bilabial, alveolar, and velar nasals. The velar nasal occurs in medial and final positions only.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/m/</th>
<th>(voiced bilabial nasal):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>माथा</td>
<td>ma:tha: forehead</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>कमरा</td>
<td>kamra: room</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>आड़ा</td>
<td>a:ra:m rest</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/n/</th>
<th>(voiced alveolar nasal):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>नाक</td>
<td>na:k nose</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>लाना</td>
<td>la:na: to bring</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>धान</td>
<td>dha:n paddy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/ɳ/</th>
<th>(voiced retroflex nasal)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>अनु</td>
<td>anu atom</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>पाण</td>
<td>pra:n life</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/ɳ/</th>
<th>(voiced velar nasal):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>राना</td>
<td>raṇa: to dye</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>रू</td>
<td>raŋ color</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Trill

There is a voiced alveolar trill which occurs in all positions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/r/</th>
<th>(voiced alveolar trill):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>रस्सी</td>
<td>rassi: rope</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>नर्म</td>
<td>narm soft</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>तार</td>
<td>ta:r wire</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Flaps

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/r/</th>
<th>(voiced unaspirated retroflex flap):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>सरक</td>
<td>sarak road</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>भीर</td>
<td>bhi:r crowd</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/rh/</th>
<th>(voiced aspirated retroflex flap):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>पर्फ़ा</td>
<td>parhna: to read</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>झाड़</td>
<td>dha:rh jaw</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Lateral

There is a voiced alveolar lateral which occurs in all positions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/l/</th>
<th>(voiced alveolar lateral):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>लोग</td>
<td>log</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>कला</td>
<td>kala:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>जाल</td>
<td>ja:l</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Semi-vowels

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/v/</th>
<th>(voiced labio-dental semi-vowel):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>वादा</td>
<td>va:da:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>द्वाइ</td>
<td>dava:i:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>नाव</td>
<td>na:v</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>/y/</th>
<th>(voiced palatal semi-vowel):</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>याद</td>
<td>ya:d</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>माया</td>
<td>sa:ya:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>राय</td>
<td>ra:y</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.1.2.3. Distribution of Phonemes and Allophones

The retroflex voiced aspirated stop ड /dh/ does not occur in the final position of words. The velar nasal ध /ḥ/, and the retroflex flaps ढ /ṛ/ and ड /ṛh/ do not occur in the word-initial positions.

The nasal phoneme न /n/ has dental, retroflex, palatal, and velar allophones: न [n], न [ṇ], and न [ɦ]. Palatal and velar nasals are not assigned any phonemic status in Hindi. Phonetically they are pronounced in the speech only when they are followed by palatal and velar voiced consonant phonemes. They occur before homorganic voiced consonants.
2. PHONOLOGY

2.2. Phonotactics

2.2.1. Vowel Sequences

In Hindi only two vowel sequences are permissible.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ai:</th>
<th>नई</th>
<th>nai:</th>
<th>new</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ia:</td>
<td>दीअा</td>
<td>dia:</td>
<td>lamp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ie</td>
<td>चालए</td>
<td>calie</td>
<td>let’s go</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ui:</td>
<td>मूई</td>
<td>sui:</td>
<td>needle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>uã:</td>
<td>कुआ</td>
<td>kuã:</td>
<td>well</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oi:</td>
<td>गौई</td>
<td>roi:</td>
<td>wept</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>oe</td>
<td>ऋआए</td>
<td>khoe</td>
<td>lost</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.2.2. Consonant Clusters

2.2.2.1. Word-initial Consonant Clusters

Word-initial consonant clusters are not as frequent as the word-medial consonant clusters.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ky</th>
<th>क्या</th>
<th>kya:</th>
<th>what</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>kr</td>
<td>क्रम</td>
<td>kram</td>
<td>order</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gy</td>
<td>ग्याह</td>
<td>gya:rah</td>
<td>eleven</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gr</td>
<td>ग्रंथ</td>
<td>granth</td>
<td>book</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jy</td>
<td>ज्येठ</td>
<td>jyešt</td>
<td>elder</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jv</td>
<td>ज्वर</td>
<td>jvar</td>
<td>fever</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tṛ</td>
<td>त्रेन</td>
<td>tren</td>
<td>train</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dy</td>
<td>द्योध</td>
<td>dyoda:</td>
<td>two and a half times</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ḍṛ</td>
<td>ḍ्रम</td>
<td>dra:ma:</td>
<td>drama</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ty</td>
<td>त्याग</td>
<td>tya:g</td>
<td>sacrifice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tv</td>
<td>त्वा:</td>
<td>tvaca:</td>
<td>skin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dhy</td>
<td>ध्यान</td>
<td>dhya:n</td>
<td>attention</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>py</td>
<td>प्यार</td>
<td>pya:r</td>
<td>love</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pr</td>
<td>पृथ्वी</td>
<td>prithvi:</td>
<td>earth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>br</td>
<td>ब्रह्मा</td>
<td>bramha:</td>
<td>Brahma</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>by</td>
<td>ब्याह</td>
<td>bya:h</td>
<td>marriage</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Šy</td>
<td>श्याम</td>
<td>Šya:m</td>
<td>Shyam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Šr</td>
<td>श्रम</td>
<td>šram</td>
<td>labor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sv</td>
<td>स्वास</td>
<td>šva:s</td>
<td>breath</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. PHONOLOGY

| sy | स्यार | sya:r       | jackal   |
| zy | ज्याड | zya:da:     | more     |
| nr | नृत्य | nraty       | dance    |
| ny | न्याय | nya:y       | justice  |
| mr | मृग | mrig         | deer     |
| vy | व्यक्ति | vyakti     | person   |
| hr | ह्रदय | hriday      | heart    |

Initial three-consonant clusters

| str | स्त्री | stri: | woman |
| skr | स्क्रीन | skri:n | screen |
| smr | स्मृति | smriti: | remembrance |

2.2.2.2. Word-medial Consonant Clusters

Consonant clusters occur frequently in the medial position. Most of these clusters are formed across syllable or morpheme boundaries. There are some restrictions in the formation of consonant clusters as follows: (i) two aspirated consonants do not combine to form a consonant cluster, (ii) /ch/ is not combined to form a consonant cluster, (iii) /d/ does not occur as the second member of a consonant cluster. Examples of the consonant clusters are given below.

| pt | कप्तान | kapta:n | captain |
| ps | वापसी | va:psi: | return  |
| fs | अफसोस | afso:s | sorry   |
| fl | गफल | gaflat | mistake |
| fr | नफरत | nafrat | hate    |
| fv | अफवा | afva: | rumor   |
| bn | शबनम | šabnam | dew     |
| bz | सबजी | sabzi: | vegetable |
| tm | आत्मा | a:tna: | soul    |
| dt | बद्दर | badtar | very bad |
| dm | बदमाश | badma:š | rouge |
| kb | मकबूल | makbu:l | popular |
| kt | मक्तब | maktab | school |
| kt | अक्टूर | akta:r | actor |
| kd | हकदार | hakda:r | rightful owner/entitled |
| kr | इक्तृत | ikra:r | acceptance |
### 2. PHONOLOGY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ks</th>
<th>नुसा:न</th>
<th>nusana:</th>
<th>loss</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>gv</td>
<td>भगवान</td>
<td>bhagavan:</td>
<td>God</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ck</td>
<td>अकान</td>
<td>akhun:</td>
<td>a long button-up coat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mb</td>
<td>अंबर</td>
<td>ambar:</td>
<td>sky</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>md</td>
<td>नम्दा</td>
<td>namda:</td>
<td>a carpet</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>djh</td>
<td>महजन</td>
<td>mahjan:</td>
<td>to understand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mv</td>
<td>हमदर</td>
<td>hamdar:</td>
<td>smooth</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nd</td>
<td>अंदर</td>
<td>andar:</td>
<td>inside</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nt</td>
<td>गंडी</td>
<td>gandi:</td>
<td>a bell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nd</td>
<td>ठाड़ा</td>
<td>tha:da:</td>
<td>cold</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>njh</td>
<td>फ़ना</td>
<td>fana:</td>
<td>fan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nj</td>
<td>राजीस</td>
<td>rajis:</td>
<td>anger</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ns</td>
<td>इंसाफ</td>
<td>insaph:</td>
<td>justice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nz</td>
<td>मन्जिल</td>
<td>manjil:</td>
<td>destination</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nv</td>
<td>जानवर</td>
<td>janvar:</td>
<td>bird</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sp</td>
<td>अस्पताल</td>
<td>aspatal:</td>
<td>hospital</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sb</td>
<td>कस्बा</td>
<td>kasba:</td>
<td>town</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>st</td>
<td>सस्ता</td>
<td>sasta:</td>
<td>cheap</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sd</td>
<td>हस्दी</td>
<td>hasdi:</td>
<td>jealous</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sv</td>
<td>तस्वीर</td>
<td>tasvi:</td>
<td>picture</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>št</td>
<td>कुस्ती</td>
<td>kusti:</td>
<td>wrestling</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>şm</td>
<td>दुःस्मन</td>
<td>dusman:</td>
<td>enemy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>šv</td>
<td>रिश्वत</td>
<td>rishvat:</td>
<td>bribe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lt</td>
<td>मलती</td>
<td>malti:</td>
<td>mistake</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lít</td>
<td>उल्टा</td>
<td>ulta:</td>
<td>opposite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lk</td>
<td>हल्का</td>
<td>halka:</td>
<td>light in weight</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lm</td>
<td>फिल्मी</td>
<td>filmi:</td>
<td>related to film</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ls</td>
<td>आल्ली</td>
<td>alali:</td>
<td>lethargic</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lz</td>
<td>मुल्लिम</td>
<td>mulлим:</td>
<td>accused</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rb</td>
<td>गुर्बत</td>
<td>gurbat:</td>
<td>poverty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rd</td>
<td>गंदन</td>
<td>gardan:</td>
<td>neck</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rx</td>
<td>कारगाना</td>
<td>karaga:na:</td>
<td>factory</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rz</td>
<td>मरजी</td>
<td>marji:</td>
<td>consent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rh</td>
<td>सरहद</td>
<td>sarhad:</td>
<td>frontier</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rv</td>
<td>दरवाज़ा</td>
<td>darwa:za:</td>
<td>door</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>zm</td>
<td>जामनाना</td>
<td>jamana:na:</td>
<td>to try</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hb</td>
<td>रहबर</td>
<td>rahbar:</td>
<td>guide</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ht</td>
<td>मोहताज</td>
<td>mohataj:</td>
<td>dependent</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hs</td>
<td>तहसील</td>
<td>tahsil:</td>
<td>tehsil (subdivision)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hl</td>
<td>मोहल्ला</td>
<td>mohalla:</td>
<td>mohalla (dwelling ward)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 2. Phonology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>yd</th>
<th>पायदार</th>
<th>pa:yda:r</th>
<th>strong</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>yv</td>
<td>पयवंद</td>
<td>payvand</td>
<td>grafting</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Medial three consonant clusters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>mjhn</th>
<th>समझना</th>
<th>samjhna:</th>
<th>to understand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pgr</td>
<td>उपग्रह</td>
<td>upgrah</td>
<td>satellite</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tpr</td>
<td>उपप्रेष</td>
<td>upprokś</td>
<td>metaphor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tthr</td>
<td>पथरीला</td>
<td>pathrhī:la</td>
<td>stony</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cct</td>
<td>उच्चता</td>
<td>ucca:ta:</td>
<td>height</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kṣp</td>
<td>पक्षपात</td>
<td>pakṣpa:t</td>
<td>partiality</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jiv</td>
<td>उज्ज्वल</td>
<td>ujjval</td>
<td>bright</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ndr</td>
<td>अंद्रणी</td>
<td>andru:ni:</td>
<td>internal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ndhk</td>
<td>अंधकार</td>
<td>andhka:r</td>
<td>darkness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ndg</td>
<td>बंदगी:</td>
<td>bandgi:</td>
<td>worship</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nsk</td>
<td>संस्कार</td>
<td>sanska:r</td>
<td>rites</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ndn</td>
<td>वंदना:</td>
<td>vandna:</td>
<td>prayer</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nyv</td>
<td>धन्यवाद</td>
<td>dhanyva:d</td>
<td>thanks</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rtk</td>
<td>नर्तकी:</td>
<td>nartki:</td>
<td>dancer (f)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rkht</td>
<td>नृत्त्या:</td>
<td>mu:rkhta:</td>
<td>foolishness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rmc</td>
<td>कर्मचारी:</td>
<td>karmca:ri</td>
<td>worker</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rśn</td>
<td>दशनीय</td>
<td>darśni:y</td>
<td>worth seeing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rvj</td>
<td>सार्वजनिक</td>
<td>sa:rvjanik</td>
<td>public</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>syt</td>
<td>सदस्यता:</td>
<td>sadasyta:</td>
<td>membership</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stm</td>
<td>अस्थमा:</td>
<td>asthmā:</td>
<td>breathing problem</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>štr</td>
<td>गर्भीय</td>
<td>ra:štri:y</td>
<td>national</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Medial four-consonant clusters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ntrt</th>
<th>स्वातंत्र्या:</th>
<th>svatantrta:</th>
<th>independence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ndrv</td>
<td>पंडृष्ठा:</td>
<td>pandhrva:</td>
<td>fifteenth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### 2.2.2.3. Word-final Consonant Clusters

Consonant clusters occur less frequently in the word-final position.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>pp</th>
<th>गप्प</th>
<th>gapp</th>
<th>gossip</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pn</td>
<td>स्वपन</td>
<td>svapn</td>
<td>dream</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tm</td>
<td>खत्म</td>
<td>xatm</td>
<td>finish</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tn</td>
<td>यतन</td>
<td>yatn</td>
<td>try</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
2. PHONOLOGY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>tanggal</th>
<th>latth</th>
<th>stick</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cc</td>
<td>ucc</td>
<td>high</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>cch</td>
<td>svacch</td>
<td>clean</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kt</td>
<td>rkt</td>
<td>blood</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mp</td>
<td>lamp</td>
<td>lamp</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nt</td>
<td>sant</td>
<td>saint</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nk</td>
<td>bank</td>
<td>bank</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nkh</td>
<td>śankh</td>
<td>conch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>st</td>
<td>mast</td>
<td>carefree</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>śt</td>
<td>gašt</td>
<td>take a round</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rth</td>
<td>arth</td>
<td>meaning</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rk</td>
<td>mu:rk</td>
<td>fool</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Final three-consonant clusters

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ntr</th>
<th>mantr</th>
<th>hymn</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ndr</td>
<td>indr</td>
<td>name of God</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>str</td>
<td>astr</td>
<td>weapon</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.2.3. Syllable Structure

Hindi has a (C)(C)V(C)(C) syllable structure. The assignment of the medial units to syllables does not depend on morphological structure. The first consonant of the medial cluster is assigned to the preceding syllable and the remaining elements of the unit to the following syllable. In the following examples, the syllable boundary is marked with [+ ] sign.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>nak: + ša</th>
<th>naksha:</th>
<th>naksha:</th>
<th>map</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sun: + dar</td>
<td>sundar</td>
<td>beautiful</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kis: + mat</td>
<td>kismat</td>
<td>fate</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The vowel-initial syllables are found only in the initial position of words.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>a:ka:š</th>
<th>skye</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>amrit</td>
<td>nectar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ima:rat</td>
<td>building</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ila:j</td>
<td>treatment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
There are different types of syllables.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Monosyllable:</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>मी</td>
<td>mā:</td>
<td>mother</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>चाव</td>
<td>ca:y</td>
<td>tea</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>घर</td>
<td>ghar</td>
<td>house</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Di-syllable:</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>फायदा</td>
<td>fa:ida:</td>
<td>profit</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>शोला</td>
<td>šola:</td>
<td>flame</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>कागज</td>
<td>ka:gaz</td>
<td>paper</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Tri-syllable:</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>नसीहत</td>
<td>nasi:hat</td>
<td>advice</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>हिरस्त</td>
<td>hira:sat</td>
<td>arrest</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>हकीकत</td>
<td>haki:kat</td>
<td>fact</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Quadra-syllable:</th>
<th></th>
<th></th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>हिंदुस्तानी</td>
<td>hindusta:ni:</td>
<td>Indian</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>मुकाबला</td>
<td>muka:bila:</td>
<td>competition</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>इंसानियत</td>
<td>insa:niyat</td>
<td>humanity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2.3. Suprasegmental Features

Nasalization, length, stress, intonation, and juncture are suprasegmental features.

### 2.3.1. Nasalization

Nasalization is an important suprasegmental feature in Hindi. All the vowels can be nasalized. Nasalization is distinctive so it has phonemic status.
2. PHONOLOGY

2.3.2. Length

Length is phonemic in Hindi. There are three pairs of short and long vowels: /i/ and /i:/; /a/ and /a:/; /u/ and /u:/.

The following minimal pairs illustrate the contrast in the length of these vowels.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Mil</th>
<th>Mil</th>
<th>mix</th>
<th>Mile</th>
<th>Mile</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mil</td>
<td>mil</td>
<td>mix</td>
<td>mil</td>
<td>mile</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>दस</td>
<td>das</td>
<td>ten</td>
<td>दास</td>
<td>दास</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>un</td>
<td>un</td>
<td>उन</td>
<td>un</td>
<td>उन</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

2.3.3. Stress

Stress is not a distinctive feature of Hindi; it is not in phonemic contrast. Hindi is a syllable-timed language, sometimes individual words are stressed for emphasis only. Usually, the syllable preceding the consonant cluster gets stress.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>बुध</th>
<th>buddhi</th>
<th>intelligence</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>सत्य</td>
<td>saty</td>
<td>truth</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The initial cluster of the word also gets stress.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>प्रेम</th>
<th>prem</th>
<th>love</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>स्पष्टता</td>
<td>spaśṭta:</td>
<td>clarity</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In di-syllabic words where both syllables have long or short vowels, the first syllable is stressed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>अक्षर</th>
<th>aksar</th>
<th>always</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>अंदर</td>
<td>andar</td>
<td>inside</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>आकार</td>
<td>a:ka:r</td>
<td>figure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>आकाश</td>
<td>a:ma:n</td>
<td>sky</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In di-syllable words wherein the first syllable contains low front or back vowels, the first syllable is stressed.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>फोजी</th>
<th>foji:</th>
<th>soldier</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>केडी</td>
<td>kedi:</td>
<td>prisoner</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
The second syllable is stressed when the first syllable has a short vowel and the second has a long vowel.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>नासि</th>
<th>nasi:b</th>
<th>fate</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>किताब</td>
<td>kita:b</td>
<td>book</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In tri-syllable words, the first syllable is stressed if the first syllable has a long vowel, the second has a short vowel, and the third has a long vowel.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>भेहया</th>
<th>behaya:</th>
<th>shameless</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>बेवकूफ़</td>
<td>bevaku:ph</td>
<td>stupid</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The last syllable is stressed if the first syllable has a short vowel and the last two have long vowels.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>हिंदुस्तान</th>
<th>hindusta:n</th>
<th>India</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>बनजारा</td>
<td>banja:ra:</td>
<td>nomad</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In words of more than three syllables, the stress is always on the penultimate syllable.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>समजहदारी</th>
<th>samajhda:ri:</th>
<th>understanding</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

### 2.3.4. Intonation

There are four major types of intonational patterns: (1) high-fall, (2) high-rise, (3) rise-and-fall, (4) mid-level. Intonations have syntactic rather than emotional content. Statements have a high-fall intonation pattern. Intonation peaks are generally positioned on the penultimate word or on the negative particle if there is one.

1. वह किताब पढ़ रहा है।
   \[vah kita:b parh raha: he.\]
   He is reading a book.

2. कागज़ अलमारी में नहीं है।
   \[ka:gaz alma:ri: mē nahi: hē\]
   The papers are not in the almirah.
Yes-no questions and tag questions have a high-rise intonation.

3. क्या वह कल आया?
   kya: vah kal a:ya:?
   Q he yesterday came-Q
   Did he come yesterday?

Information questions have a rise-and-fall intonation. The rise in intonation is registered on the question word and the fall is attained gradually.

4. आप कब बाजार गए?
   a:p kab ba:za:r gaye?
   you when market went
   When did you go to the market?

5. मोहन किससे मिला?
   mohan kisse mila:?
   Mohan who-dat met-3s
   Who did Mohan meet?

Commands generally follow the mid-level intonational pattern.

6. दरवाजा बंद करो।
   darva:za: band karo.
   door close do-imp
   Close the door.

Contrastive and Emphatic Intonation

The contrastive and emphatic intonations are the same as they employ more than the average stress on the constituents of a sentence. The element to be contrasted carries a slightly higher stress than the emphasized segment. For example, any of the elements can be emphasized in the following sentence depending on the degree of emphasis. The emphasis is indicated by bolding different elements.
2. PHONOLOGY

7a. आप दिल्ली जाएं।
   a:p dilli: ja:ie.
   you Delhi go-fu-2p
   You go to Delhi.

7b. आप दिल्ली जाएं।
   a:p dilli: ja:ie.
   You go to Delhi.

7c. आप दिल्ली जाएं।
   a:p dilli: ja:ie.
   You go to Delhi.

2.3.5. Juncture

Juncture is functional in Hindi. Internal juncture may be considered as phonemic juncture. Mostly, the medial clusters have juncture because those sequences of sounds do not occur in the same syllable.

| मुश्किल | muškil | difficult |
| अनजान | anja:n | ignorant |
| कुर्ता   | kurtा: | shirt    |
| बदमाश | badma:š | rogue   |

The following minimal pairs indicate the phonemic status of internal juncture:

| गायना   | kha:na: | food    |
| रा + ना  | kha: + na: | to eat |
| कलाई   | kala:i: | wrist   |
| कल + आई | kal + a:i: | came yesterday |
| सिरका   | sirka: | vinegar |
| निर + का | sir + ka: | of the head |

There are two types of juncture: (i) internal juncture and (ii) external juncture. The internal juncture (+) reduces words into phrases or compound words in the sentences.
2. PHONOLOGY

8a. ज़िंदगी + मौत का क्या भरोसा
   zindagi: + mõt ka: kya: bharosa:
   life  death-gen what guarantee
   There is no guarantee of life or death.

External juncture (#) occurs between each word and the words
joined by this juncture retain their separate identity.

8b. ज़िंदगी # मौत का क्या भरोसा
   zindagi: # mõt ka: kya: bharosa:
   There is no guarantee of life or death.

2.4. Morphophonemics

Various morphological processes can be marked as loss, addition,
and replacement of phonemes.

2.4.1. Loss of Phoneme

The vowel /a/ in the last syllable is dropped when the suffix /-õ/ is
added to the word.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>ज़िंदगी</th>
<th>orat</th>
<th>woman</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>मौत</td>
<td>oratõ</td>
<td>women (obl)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>पागल</td>
<td>pa:gal</td>
<td>mad</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>पागली</td>
<td>pa:glõ</td>
<td>mad persons (obl)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The consonant न /n/ of a numeral system is lost before any numeral
suffix beginning with /त- , र- , ह-/ is added.

| सींति:न | तीन सींति:न three     +    रह राह ten marker | =  तेरह terah thirteen |

2.4.2. Addition of Phoneme

The vowel ए /-e/ is added to the root before the suffixes are added to
it.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>तिर</th>
<th>+    फ़न pan</th>
<th>=  तिरफ़न pan fifty-three</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>तिर</td>
<td>+    सठ saṭh</td>
<td>=  तिरसठ saṭh sixty-three</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
When different suffixes are added to the root, the addition of a consonant takes place.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Formation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>बा (ba)</td>
<td>+ तीम (ti:s)</td>
<td>बतीम (batti:s) thirty-two</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>शक (šak)</td>
<td>+ ई (i:)</td>
<td>शकी (šaki: one who doubts)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 2.4.3. Alternations

The long vowel ओ /o/ of the verb root changes to a short vowel उ /u/ when the suffix -ला /-la:/ is added to the verb roots.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Formation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>खोल (khol)</td>
<td>+ ला (la:)</td>
<td>खुला (khula: opened)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>रो (ro)</td>
<td>+ ला (la:)</td>
<td>रुला (ruła: to make weep?)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The long vowel ई /i:/ of the verb root becomes the short इ /i/ when the suffix आ /-a:/ is added to the verb root.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Formation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>द्रिङ (pi:)</td>
<td>+ ला (la:)</td>
<td>दिला (pila: make drink)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>सीख (si:kh)</td>
<td>+ आ (a:)</td>
<td>सिखा (sikha: teach)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When the suffixes ला /-la:/ or आ /-a:/ are attached to the monosyllabic verbal stems their vowels ए /e/ and आ /a:/ change into इ /i/.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Formation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>दे (de)</td>
<td>+ ला (la:)</td>
<td>दिला (dila: cause to give)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>खा (kha:)</td>
<td>+ ला (la:)</td>
<td>खिला (khila: cause to eat)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>देख (dekh)</td>
<td>+ आ (a:)</td>
<td>दिखा (dikha: cause to see)</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In certain morphophonemic changes, some consonants are replaced by others.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Formation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>तीन (ti:n) three</td>
<td>+ पन (pan)</td>
<td>त्रिपन (trepan) fifty-three</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>एक (ik) one</td>
<td>+ चालीस (ca:li:s)</td>
<td>इक्कालीस (ikta:li:s) forty-one</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Morphophonemic changes at junctural points or sandhi are very common in Hindi. They usually take place in compound words.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Root</th>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Formation</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>सूर्य (su:rya) sun</td>
<td>+ आदि (a:di)</td>
<td>सूर्यादि (su:rya:di) sun and the like.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>चंद्र (candr) moon</td>
<td>+ उदय (uday)</td>
<td>चंद्रऊदय (candroday) moonrise</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. Morphology

This chapter deals with the morphological structure of different word classes, describing their inflectional and derivational forms. Word classes described include nouns, pronouns, adjectives, verbs, adverbs, particles, connectives, and interjections.

3.1. Nouns

3.1.1. Noun Inflection

Nouns in Hindi are inflected for gender, number, and case. There are three declensions of nouns; Declension I includes आ ए /aː/ ending masculine nouns; Declension II includes all other masculine nouns; and Declension III includes all feminine nouns.

3.1.1.1. Gender

There are two genders in Hindi: masculine and feminine. Besides the natural gender of animate nouns, every inanimate noun is assigned a gender. Though the gender of a large number of inanimate nouns can be predicted by their endings, there are no hard and fast rules for assigning the genders. Masculine forms are traditionally taken as basic. The gender formation involves (a) suffixation, (b) phonological changes, and (c) suppletion. We can make some general observations as follows.

(i) Most of the आ ए /aː/ ending masculine nouns have their feminine forms ending in इ /iː/.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>आ</th>
<th>ए</th>
<th>आ</th>
<th>ए</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>लड़का</td>
<td>लड़का</td>
<td>लड़की</td>
<td>लड़की</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>वाला</td>
<td>वाला</td>
<td>वाली</td>
<td>वाली</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>बिल्ला</td>
<td>बिल्ला</td>
<td>बिल्ली</td>
<td>बिल्ली</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>बंधा</td>
<td>बंधा</td>
<td>बंधी</td>
<td>बंधी</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>नाना</td>
<td>नाना</td>
<td>नानी</td>
<td>नानी</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>साला</td>
<td>साला</td>
<td>साली</td>
<td>साली</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>पगला</td>
<td>पगला</td>
<td>पगली</td>
<td>पगली</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

- लड़का: boy
- लड़की: girl
- वाला: uncle
- वाली: aunt
- बिल्ला: he cat
- बिल्ली: she cat
- बंधा: father’s father
- बंधी: father’s mother
- नाना: mother’s father
- नानी: mother’s mother
- साला: wife’s brother
- साली: wife’s sister
- पगला: a mad man
- पगली: a mad woman
3. Morphology

In the above examples, the final -अ /-a:/ in the masculine nouns is replaced by -ी /-i:/ in their feminine forms.

(ii) Most of the -ी /-i:/ ending animate masculine nouns have their feminine forms ending in -अन /-an/.

(iii) Some nouns ending in -अ /-a:/ form their feminine (diminutive) by replacing -अ /-a:/ with -य आ /-iya:/.

(iv) Most of the -अ /-a:/ ending inanimate nouns are masculine and -ी /-i:/ ending inanimate nouns are feminine.

(v) The suffix -नई /-ni:/ is added to the masculine nouns to form the feminine.
(vi) The suffix -i/-i/ is added to the masculine nouns to form the feminine.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>da:s servant</td>
<td>da:si: maid</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>putr son</td>
<td>putri: daughter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sundar beautiful</td>
<td>sundri: beautiful woman</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1.1.2. Number

There are two numbers: singular and plural.

(i) The -a/-a:/ ending masculine nouns (including pronouns and adjectives), with a few exceptions change into -e/-e/ ending forms in the plural.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>larka: boy</td>
<td>larke boys</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>gho:ra: horse</td>
<td>ghore horses</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mera: my</td>
<td>mere my</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ka:la: black</td>
<td>ka:le black</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The following -a/-a:/ ending masculine nouns do not change in their plural form.

| pita: father/fathers | neta: leader/leaders | dariya: river/rivers |

(ii) All other consonant and/or other vowel-ending nouns do not change in their plural forms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>mor peacock(s)</th>
<th>koṭ coat(s)</th>
<th>gra:m village(s)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ha:thi: elephant(s)</td>
<td>ruma:l handkerchief/handkerchiefs</td>
<td>dhobi: laundry man/ laundry men</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. Morphology

(iii) The feminine plurals are formed by adding the suffix -ẽ/ẽ to the consonant-ending singular forms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>किताब</th>
<th>kita:b</th>
<th>book</th>
<th>किताव</th>
<th>kita:bẽ</th>
<th>books</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>मेज</td>
<td>mez</td>
<td>table</td>
<td>मेज</td>
<td>mezẽ</td>
<td>tables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>गाय</td>
<td>ga:y</td>
<td>cow</td>
<td>गाय</td>
<td>ga:yẽ</td>
<td>cows</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(iv) The plural suffix -yã: is added to the -i: ending feminine nouns.

| लड़की | larki: | girl | + ई -iyã: | = | लड़कियाः | girls |
| लड़की | larki: | girl | + ई -iyã: | = | लड़कियाः | girls |
| कुर्सी | kursi: | chair | + ई -iyã: | = | कुर्सियाः | chairs |
| कहानी | kaha:ni: | story | + ई -iyã: | = | कहानियाः | stories |

Notice that when the suffix is added the final vowel of the stem is deleted.

3.1.1.3. Case

The syntactic and semantic functions of noun phrases are expressed by case-suffixes, postpositions and derivational processes. There are two cases: direct and oblique. Case-suffixes and postpositions are used to express syntactic and semantic functions. Case suffixes are defined as bound suffixes, which do not occur independently as words and are added only to the noun phrases. Case suffixes added to the oblique forms of nouns agreeing in number and gender.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sg Pl</td>
<td>Sg Pl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct</td>
<td>0 0</td>
<td>0 0</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oblique</td>
<td>-े -े</td>
<td>-ई -ई</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocative</td>
<td>-े -े</td>
<td>-ओ -ो</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The vocative address forms may be preceded by the vocative morphemes ओ o/ हे he/ अरे are. The role of case-suffixes and postpositions is explained in the paradigms of लड़का larka: ‘boy’ and लड़की larki: ‘girl’ given below.
3. MORPHOLOGY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Noun + Marker</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Masculine</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Direct</td>
<td>laD,ka</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Oblique</td>
<td>laD,ko</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Vocative</td>
<td>Aao/ho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Aao/ho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>e/e/ho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>e/e/ho</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Case-suffixes followed by postpositions indicate various relationships between the noun phrases and the verb phrases.

3.1.2. Postpositions

Postpositions have specific semantic functions. They express the semantic dimensions of a noun such as benefaction, manner, or location. The main postpositions are: ने ‘ergative marker’; को ‘to’; के ‘for’; पर ‘on’; में ‘in’; से ‘from’; से ‘with’; ते को ‘of’. The postpositions are written as separate words with nouns (अमित ने अमित को, उमा को उमा: को), but they are tagged to pronouns (मैं अमित को अमित, उमा को उमा: को).

3.1.2.1. The Postposition ने ne

The postposition ने ne is used with subject noun phrases usually with the transitive verbs in the past tense. The verb agrees with the object.

1. मैंने पत्र लिखा।
   mēne patr likha:
   I-erg letter wrote
   I wrote a letter.

1a. *मैंने पत्र लिखा।
    *mē patr likha:
2. उसने कपड़े धोएं।
   usne kapre dhoye
   he-erg clothes washed
   He washed clothes.

2a. यह कपड़े धोया।
   *vah kapre dhoya:

Whenever the objects are followed by the dative postposition को ko, the verb remains in masculine singular form.

3. मोहन ने बहिन /बहनों की कुलाया।
   mohan ne bahin/bahnõ ko bula:ya:
   Mohan-erg sister/sisters-dat called
   Mohan called (his) sister/sisters.

4. हमने लड़के / लड़की / लड़कियों की पढ़ाया।
   hamne larke/larkõ/larki:/ larkiyõ ko parha:ya:
   we-erg boy/boys/girl/girls-dat taught
   We taught the boy/boys/girl/girls.

The ने ne postposition is not used with the subjects of the following transitive verbs: लाना la:na: ‘to bring,’ खेलना khela:na: ‘to play,’ बोलना bolna: ‘to speak,’ भूलना bhu:lna: ‘to forget,’ and बकना bakna: ‘to chatter.’

5. उमा कमीज़ लाई।
   uma: kami:z lai:
   Uma-nom shirt brought
   Uma brought a shirt.

5a. *उमा ने कमीज़ लाई।
   *uma: ne kami:z lai:

6. लड़का बोला।
   larøka: bola:
   boy said
   The boy said.

6a. *लड़के ने बोला।
   *larke ne bola:
3. MORPHOLOGY

7. वह रास्ता भूला।
   voh ra:sta: bhu:la:
   he way forgot
   He forgot/lost the way.

7a. *उसने रास्ता भूला।
    *usne ra:sta: bhu:la:

8. वह काफी देर बक्का।
   vah ka:phi: de:r baka:
   he-nom lot duration chattered
   He chattered for a long time.

8a. *उसने काफी देर बक्का।
    *usne ka:phi de:r baka:

The postposition ने ne is used with the following intransitive verbs:
ङ्ग हक़ा: ‘to sneeze’; ङ्ग हक़ा: ‘to cough’; ङ्ग हक़ा: ‘to take a bath’; and ङ्ग हक़ा: ‘to spit’.

9. उसने पर ने निकलते समय छीका।
   usne ghar se nikalte samay chī:ka:
   he-erg house-abl from set out-pte time sneezed
   He sneezed as he was leaving the house.

10. बीमार व्यक्ति (ने) ओर से गाँठा।
    bi:ma:r vyakti (ne) zo:r se khā:sa:
    ill person-erg loudly coughed
    The ill person coughed loudly.

11. मेरे गर्म पानी से नहाया।
    mēne garm pa:ni: se naha:ya:
    I-erg hot water with bathed
    I took a bath in hot water.

12. तुमने मड़क पर क्यों छुका?
    tumne sarak par kyō thu:ka:?
    you-erg road on why spit-past
    Why did you spit on the road?
3. Morphology

It is not used in constructions using the modal verbs लगना lagna:, चुकना cukna:, and सकना sakna::

13. वह सेब खाने लगा।
   vah seb kha:ne laga:
   He started eating apples.

13a. *उसने सेब खाने लगा।
    *usne seb kha:ne laga:

14. मैं यह काम कर चुका।
    mē yah ka:m kar cuka:
    I finished this work.

14a. *मैंने यह काम कर चुका।
    *mēne yah ka:m kar cuka:

15. वह लिख सकता।
    vah citthi: likh saka:
    He could write a letter.

15a. *उसने लिख सकता।
    *usne citthi: likh saka:

In the case of a few transitive verbs like समझना samjhna: ‘to understand’ and खेलना khelna: ‘to play,’ the use of this postposition is optional.

16. मैं उसकी बात समझ।
    mē uski: ba:t samjhi:
    I understood what he said.

16a. मैं उसकी बात समझ।
    mē uski: ba:t samjha:
    I understood what he said.
3. Morphology

17. मैं समझा वह बीमार है।
   mē samjha: voh bi:ma:r he.
   I understood he sick is
   I thought he was sick.

17a. मैंने समझा वह बीमार है।
   mēne samjha: voh bi:ma:r he.

18. वह हॉकी खेला।
   vah ha:ki: khe:la:.
   He hockey played
   He played hockey.

18a. उसने हॉकी खेली।
    usne haki: khe:li:.
    he-erg hockey played
    He played hockey.

The use of the postposition ने ne is invariably found in compound verb constructions with the verb समझना samjhna: ‘to understand’ as the main verb.

19. मैं बात समझ ली।
    mēne ba:t samajh li:
    I-erg matter understand took
    I understood the matter.

19a. *मैं बात समझ ली।
    *mē ba:t samajh li:

3.1.2.2. The Postposition को ko

The postposition को ko is used in different types of sentences and is placed after nouns. It is optional when used with object nouns which are followed by conjunct verbs with an adjective or adverb and the verb.

1. मेज़ (को) माफ करें।
   mez (ko) sa:f karo
   table (dat) clean do-imp
   Clean the table.
3. Morphology

2. काम (को) जल्ल करे।
   ka:m (ko) xatm karo
   work (dat) finish do-imp
   Finish the work.

3. कार (को) तेज़ करें।
   ka:r (ko) tez karo.
   car (dat) fast do-imp
   Speed up the car.

4. कागज (को) दूर रखे।
   ka:ga:z (ko) du:r rakho.
   paper (dat) away do-imp
   Keep the paper away.

5. संदुक (को) इंटर/उपर/उपर/नीचे रखे।
   sandu:k (ko) idhar/udhar/upar/ni:ce rakho
   box (dat) here/there/up/down do-imp
   Keep the box here/there/up/down.

In the object +को ko+verb construction, the verb may be transitive or causative.

6. मैंने पत्र (को) पढ़ा।
   mēne patr (ko) parha:
   I-erg letter (dat) read
   I read the letter.

7. उसने किताब को बेचा।
   usne kita:b ko beca:
   he-erg book-dat sold
   He sold the book.

7a. उसने किताब बेची।
   usne kita:b beci:
   He sold the book.

8. उसने बच्चे को सुलाया।
   usne bacce ko sula:ya:
   he-erg child-dat sleep-caus
   He made the child sleep.
8a. उसने कब्जा मुलाया।

usne bacca: sula:ya:

In the subject + को ko + complement + verb constructions, the verbs express the state of mind, physical experience, involuntarily actions, feelings, obligations, and emotions (9-12).

9. सुनिता को बुगार है।

sunita:ta ko bhukha:r hе
Sunita-dat fever is
Sunita has fever.

10. अमर को दुख हुआ।

amar ko dukh hua:
Amar-dat pain felt
Amar felt pain.

11. मोहन को गौरी आई।

mohan ko hāsī: a:i:
Mohan-dat laugh came
Mohan laughed.

12. बच्चे को दर लगा।

bacce ko ār laga:
child-dat fear struck
The child was afraid.

The postposition को ko is used in the secondary object + को ko + main object + verb constructions.

13. मैं अपने भाई को पत्र लिख रहा हूँ।

mē apne bha:i: ko patr likh raha: hū:
I self-obl brother-dat letter write-prog am
I am writing a letter to my brother.

Pronouns + को ko have alternate forms as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>वह</th>
<th>vah</th>
<th>को ko =</th>
<th>उसको/ उस usko/use</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>यह</td>
<td>yah</td>
<td>को ko =</td>
<td>इसको/ इस isko/ise</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>इन</td>
<td>in</td>
<td>को ko =</td>
<td>इनको/ इन inko/inhē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>उन</td>
<td>un</td>
<td>को ko =</td>
<td>उनको/ उन unko/unhē</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. MORPHOLOGY

In the उं use/इसे ise/इन्हें /उं/उहें unhē forms, there is an inherent को ko.
It is possible to use these forms along with nouns + को ko.

14. उं/उन्हें मोहन को दे दो।
use/unhē mohan ko de do.
that/those-dat Mohan-dat give-imp
Give that/those to Mohan.

15. इसे ले जाओ।
ise le ja:o.
this-dat take-imp
Take this.

The postposition को ko is not normally used with time adverbials.

16. वह आज आएगा।
vah a:j a:ega:.
he today come-fut
He will come today.

16a. *वह आज को आएगा।
*vah a:j ko a:ega:

17. वह कल आएगा।
vah kal ja:ega:.
he tomorrow go-fut
He will go tomorrow.

17a. *वह कल को आएगा।
*vah kal ko ja:ega:

But in certain contexts, को ko can be used with कल kal, not to indicate
‘tomorrow,’ but to denote an indefinite time in the future.

18. कौन जाने कल की क्या होगा।
kñn ja:ne kal ko kya: hoga:.
who know-obl tomorrow-obl what happen-fut
Who knows what will happen tomorrow?
3. MORPHOLOGY

19. अगर कल को उन्हें कुछ हो गया तो...
   
   * agar kal ko unhe kuch ho gaya to  
   * if tomorrow-obl he-obl something happened then  
   * If anything happens to him tomorrow then  

   The postposition को ko can be used optionally with time adverbs, like गत ra:t ‘night,’ शाम ša:m ‘evening,’ and दुपहर dupahar ‘afternoon.’

20. आज शाम/शाम को आप मेरे पर आए।  
   
   * a:j ša:m/ša:m ko a:p mere ghar a:iye.  
   * today evening/-dat you mine house come-imp.pol  
   * Please come to my house today in the evening.

   The postposition को ko is not used with place adverbs like यहाँ yahã: ‘here’; वहाँ vahã: ‘there’; ऊपर upar ‘above’; नीचे ni:ce ‘under’; आगे a:ge ‘in front’; and पीछे pi:che ‘behind.’

21. मैं यहाँ आऊँगा।  
   
   * m`~ yahã: a:u:ga:  
   * I here come-fut  
   * I will come here.

21a. *मैं यहाँ को आऊँगा।  
   
   * *m` yahã: ko a:u:ga:  

22. वे ऊपर पहुँचे।  
   
   * ve u:par pahüce  
   * they top reached  
   * They reached up (the stairs).

22a. *वे ऊपर को पहुँचे।  
   
   * *ve u:par ko pahüce  

   The postposition को ko is added to the subject noun/pronoun if it is followed by an object and the verb चाहिए ca:hiye ‘need/want’ or the modal ‘should’ (i.e., subject + को ko + object + चाहिए ca:hiya).

23. उसको यह आउँगा।  
   
   * usko yeh akhba:r ca:hiye  
   * he-obl this newspaper wants  
   * He wants this newspaper.
3. Morphology

24. उसको यह काम करना चाहिए।
   
   usko yah ka:m karna: ca:hiye
   he-obl this work do-inf should
   He should do this work.

   The verbal noun + को ko (as complementizer) construction shows purpose.

25. उन्हें अपने को कहो।
   use a:ne ko kaho.
   he-dat come-inf-obl tell-imp
tell him to come.

26. उठने को दिल करता है।
   uthne ko dil karta: he
   rise-inf-obl pp heart want-pte be
   One would like to get up.

27. हम दफ्तर जाने को तैयार हैं।
   ham daftar ja:ne ko teya:r he:.
   we office go-inf-obl pp ready are
   We are ready to go to the office.

28. आपके पास पीने को क्या है?
   a:pke pa:s pi:ne ko kya: he?
   you-gen-obl near drink-inf-obl pp what is
   What do you have to drink?

   The postposition को ko can be used for emphasis as well.

29. जाने को क्या, मैं कभी भी जा सकता हूं।
   ja:ne ko kya:, mē kabhi: bhi: ja: sakta: hū:.
   go-inf-obl dat what, I anytime go can be
   What is there, I can go anytime.

   को ko can also be used to denote an object of a verb requiring a predicate.

30. अमित गर्ली को पाप समझता है।
   amit gari:bī ko pa:p samajhta: he.

   46
Amit considers poverty a sin.

31. कपड़ों को पन्द्रह मत करें।
   *kapḍō̂n ko ganda: mat karo.*
   clothes dirty neg do-imp
   Don’t dirty your clothes.

It is used to denote time. When it is used with time adverbials it denotes specificity like दोपहर की dopahar ko or मंगलवार की maralva:r ko but not जानवर की janva:ri ko or आज की a:j ko, कल की kal ko.

32. वह दोपहर को आएगा।
   *vah dopahar ko a:yega:.*
   he noon come-fut
   He will come at noon.

33. मैं मंगलवार की दिल्ली जाएंगा।
   *mē maralva:r ko dilli: ja:ũ:ga:.*
   I Tuesday Delhi go-fut
   I’ll go to Delhi on Tuesday.

3.1.2.3. The Postposition ने se

The postposition ने se is used to indicate association or mutual dealing.

1. मेरे उसे बात करता हूँ।
   *mē us-se ba:t kar-ta: hũ:.*
   I he-obl-with talk do-pte am
   I talk with him.

2. वह परोसी से लड़ा।
   *vah parosi: se laɾa:.*
   he neighbor with quarreled
   He quarreled with his neighbor.

3. नेहरू की बच्चों से प्यार करते थे।
   *nehru: baccō̂ se pya:r karte the.*
   Nehru children-obl with love do-pte was
   Nehru used to love children.
3. MORPHOLOGY

4. mujh-se jhuth na bolo.
   me-obl-with lie neg say-imp
   Don’t lie to me.

5. usse mazaak na kare.
   he-obl-post joke don’t do-imp
   Don’t joke with him.

6. vah parosi: se nafrat karta: he:
   he neighbor with hate do-pte is
   He hates his neighbor.

7. mē a:pse pra:rthna: karta: hũ:
   I you-post request do-pte am
   I request you.

8. sarka:r se mã:g ki: ja:ti: hẽ.
   government with request do aux is
   The government is requested.

9. mē ese logũ: se du:r raha: pasand karta: hũ:.
   I this type people from far remain-inf like do-pte am
   I like to be away from this kind of people.

It is used to indicate a sense of separation or keeping away from something.

10. dil se krodh nika:lo
    heart from anger remove-imp
    Remove anger from your mind.

11. vah daftar se nikla:
    he neighbor with hate do-pte is
he office from came out
He set out from the office.

It represents cause, reason and origin.

12. वह बुधते से कमजोर हुआ।
   *vah bukha:r se kamzor hua:*
   he fever from weak became
   He became weak by fever.

13. बीज में पौधा निकलता है।
   *bi:j se pədha: nikalta: hē.*
   seed from plant comes out
   The plant grows out of a seed.

14. बात में बात निकलती है।
   *ba:t se ba:t nikalti: hē.*
   talk from talk comes out
   One thing comes out of the other.

15. लकड़ी में मेज बनती हैं।
   *lakrī: se mezē banti: hē.*
   wood from tables make-ptc are
   The tables are made of wood.

16. मिट्टी में बर्तन बनते हैं।
   *miṭṭī: se bartan bante hē.*
   clay from pots make-ptc are
   Pots are made of clay.

It indicates the starting point, place, time, and direction.

17. मुझे दफ्तर से तार मिला।
   *mujhe daftar se ta:r mila:.*
   I-obl office from telegram got
   I got a telegram from the office.

18. यहाँ से शहर बहुत दूर हैं।
   *yahā: se šahar bahut du:r hē.*
   here from city very far is
   The city is far away from here.
3. MORPHOLOGY

19. कल में आज अच्छी धूर्ध है।
   kal se a:j acchi: dhu:p he.
   yesterday from today good sunshine is
   It is more sunny today than yesterday.

   It indicates time.

20. वह देर से गया।
    vah der se gaya.:
    he late went
    He went late.

   It is used to indicate the difference or comparison in quality and quantity.

21. वहाँ से यहाँ अधिक गर्मी पड़ती है।
    vahã: se yahã: adhik garmi: parti: he.
    there from here more heat fall-pte is
    This place is hotter than that place.

22. वह दो वर्ष में बीमार है।
    vah do sa:l se bi:ma:r he.
    he two year from sick is
    He has been sick for the last two years.

23. पीछे से आवज आई।
    pi:che se a:va:z a:yi:.
    behind from call came
    Someone called from behind.

   It is used to indicate means, instrument, or agency.

24. चाकू से मसाला काटो।
    ca:ku: se sabzi: ka:to.
    knife with vegetable cut-imp
    Cut vegetables with the knife.

25. कलम से पत्र लिखो।
    kalam se patr likho.
    pen with letter write-imp
    Write a letter with the pen.
3. Morphology

26. हम हाथ में खाना खाते हैं।
   *ham ha:th se kha:na: khate hē.*
   We eat our meals with our hands.

27. पौधों को पानी में घोलो।
   *pūdhō: ko pa:ni: se dho lo.*
   Wash the plants with water.

28. वह बारिश में फूंग गया।
   *vah ba:riš se bhi:g gaya:*  
   He was drenched in the rain.

29. उसने अक्ल में काम किया।
   *usne akl se ka:m kiya:*  
   He worked with wit.

It indicates manner.

30. मेरी बात ध्यान में मनो।
    *meri: ba:t dhya:n se suno.*  
    Listen to what I say with attention.

31. वह तेजी में आया।
    *vah tezi: se a:ya:*  
    He came fast.

32. हम कठिनाई में स्टेशन पहुँचे।
    *ham kāthina:yi: se stē:šan pahūce.*  
    We reached the station with difficulty.
3. MORPHOLOGY

3.1.2.4. The Postposition र् mē

The postposition र् mē is used to denote location or presence of something in or within; duration; price; comparison with reference to more than two; or difference.

Location
1. मेरा दफ्तर दिल्ली में है।
   **mera: daftar dilli: mē he.**
   My office Delhi in is
   My office is in Delhi.

2. मेरा बेटा कलेज में पढ़ता है।
   **mera: bêta: ka:lej mē parhta: he.**
   my son college in study-pto is
   My son studies in college.

3. इस किताब में तीन सौ पृष्ट हैं।
   **is kita:b mē tî:n sā prašt he.**
   this book in three hundred pages are
   There are three hundred pages in this book.

Duration
4. यह लेख मैंने चार दिन में लिखा।
   **yah lekh mēne ca:r din mē likha:.**
   this article I-erg four days in wrote
   I wrote this article in four days.

5. यह इमारत दो साल में बनी।
   **yeh ima:rat do sa:l mē bani:.**
   this building two years in constructed
   This building was constructed in two years.

Price
6. यह मेज दो हज़ार रुपयों में मिला।
   **yah mež do haza:r rupyõ mē mila:.**
   this table two thousand rupees-obl in obtained
   This table cost two thousand rupees.

7. मैंने यह कमीज़ तीन सौ रुपयों में ली।
   **mēne yah kamî:z tî:n sā rupyõ mē li:.**
3. MORPHOLOGY

I-erg this shirt three hundred rupees in got
I got this shirt for three hundred rupees.

Comparison
8. इन लड़कों में अमित सबसे सुमन है।
in larkō mē amit sa:bse cust hē.
these boys-obl in Amit all from active
Amit is the most active out of all these boys.

3.1.2.5. The Postposition पर par

The postposition पर par is used to denote location or position, point of time of an action, sequence of actions, cause or reason, and the object of verbs.

Location
1. कपड़ा में रहे।
ka:gaz mez par hē.
paper table on is
The paper is on table.

2. मेरे कपड़े डर पर रहे।
mere kapṛe chat par hē.
my clothes roof on are
My clothes are on the roof.

3. उसका दफ्तर यहाँ से कुछ दूरी पर रहे।
his office here from some distance at is
His office is some distance from here.

Point of time
4. वह समय पर नहीं पहुँचा।
vah samay par nahī: pahũca:.
he time at not reached
He didn’t arrive in time.

5. बस चार बजकर दस मिनट पर आएगी।
bas ca:r bajkar das minat par a:ye:gi:
bus four stuck-ep ten minutes at come-fut-f
The bus will arrive at ten minutes past four.
3. MORPHOLOGY

**Sequence of actions**
6. "वहाँ पहुँचने पर हमने देखा कि कोई नहीं आया।"
   
   vahã: pahãcne par hamne dekha: ki koi: nah: a:ya:.
   
   there reach-inf-obl on we-erg saw that no one neg came
   
   On reaching there, we found that no one had come.

7. "नेता के आने पर सबने तालियाँ बजाई।"
   
   neta: ke a:ne par sabne ta:liyã: baja:ï:.
   
   leader-gen come-inf-obl on all-erg clapped hands
   
   Upon the arrival of the leader, all clapped their hands.

**Cause or reason**
8. "धोखा देने पर उसे मजा हुआ।"
   
   dhokha: dene par use saza: hui:.
   
   deceive give-inf-obl on he-obl punishment given
   
   He was punished for deceiving (someone).

9. "घूट बोलने पर नीचे ने बच्चे को दंड किया।"
   
   jhu:t bolne par mã:ne bacce ko dã:ta:.
   
   lie tell-inf-obl on mother-erg child-dat scolded
   
   The mother scolded the child for telling a lie.

**Object of verbs**
10. "गरीब घर पर दया करें।"
    
    gari:bõ par daya: karo.
    
    poor-obl on mercy do-imp
    
    Be kind to the poor.

11. "वह किसी पर क्रोध नहीं करता।"
    
    vah kisi: par krodh nah: karta:.
    
    he someone on anger neg do-pr is
    
    He doesn’t get angry at anyone.

12. "मुझसे विश्वास करें।"
    
    mujhpar vi:sva:s karo.
    
    me on faith do-imp
    
    Have faith in me.
3.1.2.6. The Postposition का ka

The postposition का ka: is used to denote the relationship between a noun or pronoun and another noun that follows it. It is used to denote possession and relationship, material or composition, worth and measure, source, origin, cause, subject or object of an act, part of a whole, purpose or characteristics or trait. The form of this postposition agrees with the gender and number of the noun as follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg</td>
<td>Pl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>खा</td>
<td>के</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Possession and relationship**

1. अमित का भाई आज आएगा।
   amit ka: bha:i: a:j a:yega:.
   Amit of brother today come-fut
   Amit’s brother will come today.

2. अमित की बहन/बहनें कल आएगी/आएंगे।
   amit ki: bahn/bahnẽ kal a:yegi/-a:yẽgi:.
   Amit of sister/sisters tomorrow come-fut-fs/-fp
   Amit’s sister/sisters will come tomorrow.

3. अमित के दो दोस्त परसं आएंगे।
   amit ke do dost parsõ a:ẽge.
   Amit of two friends day after tomorrow come-fut
   Amit’s two friends will come day after tomorrow.

**Material or composition**

4. शीशे की अलमारी टूट गई।
   ši:še ki: alma:ri: tu:t gayi:.
   glass-obl of almirah broke went
   The glass almirah broke.

5. मिटटी के बर्तन अच्छे हैं।
   mîṭṭî: ke bartaṇ acche hẽ.
   clay of pots good are
   The earthen pots are good.
3. MORPHOLOGY

Measure or worth
6. एक किलो चावल कितने का है?
   *ek kilo ca:val kitne ka: he?*
   one kilogram rice how much-obl of is
   What is the price of one kilogram of rice?

7. ये दस रुपए के केले हैं।
   *ye das rupye ke kele hē.*
   these ten rupees of bananas are
   These bananas cost ten rupees.

Source, origin, or cause
8. प्रेमचंद के उपन्यास यहाँ नहीं हैं।
   *premcand ke upnya:s yaha:nahī: hē.*
   Premchand’s novels here neg are
   The novels of Premchand are not available here.

9. इस पेड़ के फल मिठे हैं।
   *is per ke phal mītē hē.*
   this tree gen fruit sweet are
   The fruit of this tree is delicious.

Subject (doer of an act)
10. धोबी का काम अच्छा है।
    *dhobi: ka: kā:m accha: he.*
    washerman gen work good is
    The washerman’s work is good.

Object (of an activity)
11. उनके बच्चों की शिक्षा अच्छी है।
    *uske baccō ki: šikša: acchi: he.*
    his children-obl of education good is
    The education of the children is good.

12. उनके पास दवा का राखा नहीं है।
    he-gen near medicine-gen expenses neg is
    He doesn’t have money to pay for medicine.
3. MORPHOLOGY

Part of a whole
13. यह कागज़ का टुकड़ा है।
yeh ka:gaz ka: ŧukra: he.
this paper gen piece is
This is a piece of paper.

14. यह इस पेड़ की आंत है।
yeh is per ki: šahh he.
it this tree-gen branch-fs is
It is the branch of this tree.

Purpose
14. पीने का पानी साफ है।
drink-obl gen water clean is
The drinking water is clean.

Characteristics
15. दूध की मिठाई अच्छी है।
milk gen sweetness good is
The milk is sweet.

3.1.2.7. Compound Postpositions

Compound postpositions are formed by combining the postpositions के ke, की ki:, and इसे iše with other words in certain set phrases as follows.

(i) के ke

| के अन्तर्गत/अनिरिक्त | ke a:la:va:/atirikt | in addition to |
| के अनुग्रह | ke anusa:r | according to |
| के अंदर | ke a:ndar | inside |
| के आगे | ke a:ge | in front of |
| के आपराग | ke a:rpa:r | through |
| के आपत्ति | ke a:spa:s | near about |
| के बाद/उपरान्त/पश्चात् | ke ba:d/upra:n/ta/pašca:t | afterwards |
| के धर | ke pa:r | across |
| के कारण | ke ka:raŋ | because of |
| के द्वारा/लघु | ke dwa:ra:/ha:th | through |
The compound postpositions are employed to express various semantic expressions in combination with other elements. There are, however, alternate ways of expression possible where postpositions are not used. Examples of the usage of various semantic expressions are given below.

Cause is expressed either by the (i) postposition ने se; or by the (ii) compound forms के कारण ke ka:ran ‘for the reason of,’ and की ओर ki: or ‘side.’
3. MORPHOLOGY

1. बाढ़ में मकान गिर गया।
   ba:rh se maka:n gir gaya:.
   flood with house fell
   The house fell down because of the flood.

2. उसके कारण मुझे नुकसान हुआ।
   uske ka:ran mujhe nuksa:n hua:
   he-gen-obl reason I-obl loss occurred
   I had to suffer loss because of him.

3. उसकी ओर में नुसे कभी सुख नहीं मिला।
   uski: or se mujhe sukh na:hī mila:
   he-gen-obl side I-dat ever comfort neg got
   He has never provided comfort to me.

   Purpose is expressed by the use of the oblique infinitive verb optionally followed by the postposition के लिए ke liye ‘for.’

4. वह सब्ज़ी लेने (के लिए) बाज़ार गया।
   vah sabzi: lene (ke liye) ba:za:r gaya:.
   he vegetables bring-inf-obl for market went
   He went to the market to buy vegetables.

   Function is expressed by the genitive postpositional phrase - की तरह ki: 
   tarah ‘like.’

5. वह छाते की सोटी की तरह इस्तेमाल करता है।
   he is umbrella-obl dat stick-gen like use do-pr is
   He uses an umbrella like a stick.

   Reference is denoted by the postpositional expression के बारे में ke ba:re mē ‘about.’

6. उसने मुझे अपने बच्चों के बारे में कहा।
   usne mujhe apne baccō ke ba:re mē kaha:.
   he-erg me self’s children-dat about said
   He told me about his children.
The compound postposition के रुप/भेस में *ke ru:p/bhes me* expresses the meaning ‘in the form of.’

The compound postposition में *me se* is used to express the sense of ‘among/out of.’ Numerals and quantifiers occur after the noun marked में *me se*.

Value is expressed by the genitive or it can be denoted by the expressions की कीमत *ki: ki:mat* or का मूल्य *ka: mu:ly* ‘the price of X’ which precedes the value expression.

The compound postposition के बावजूद *ke ba:vju:d* is used to express the meaning of ‘despite of.’

Inclusion is expressed by the compound postposition के शामें *ke samet/sa:th* ‘including.’
3. Morphology

12. आपके संत गारे अनुपस्थित/वाहहार करे।
   a:pke samet sa:re anupasthit/gerha:zir the.
   you-gen including all absent were
   All, including you, were absent.

13. आपको निलाकर हम दस सदस्य थे।
   a:pkao mila:kar ham das sadasy hē.
   you-dat include-cp we ten members are
   We are ten members, including you.

Exclusion is expressed by the dative postpositions के विन्य ke bina:/ बाँटर bager ‘without.’

14. अमर के विन्य/बाँटर गारे उपस्थित /शातिर थे।
    amar ke bina:/bager sa:re upasthit/ha:zir the
    Amar-gen without all present were
    All, excluding/except Amar, were present.

Addition is expressed either by the use of the comitative compound postposition के साथ ke sa:th ‘with/ along with,’ or by के अत्तिरिक्त ke attirikt/ अलावा ala:va: ‘in addition to.’

15. मोहन के साथ (गाज)/अलावा उमा भी आई।
    mohan ke sa:th (sa:th)/ala:va: uma: bhi: a:yi:
    Mohan-gen with /besides Uma too came
    In addition to Mohan, Uma came too.

Locational semantic functions are generally marked by the postpositions की ओर ki: or ‘motion to,’ (के आब ke bi:c) में से mē se ‘motion through.’

16. वह गाँव की ओर चला।
    vah ga:ù: ki: or cala:
    he village towards set out
    He set out towards the village.

17. वह गाँव (के बीच) में से गुजरतो है।
    bas ga:ù: (ke bi:c) mē se guzarti: hē
    bus village-abl through passes-pr is
    The bus passes through the village.
3. Morphology

The approximate location is expressed by के निकट ke nika’t/ नज़दीक nazdi’k/ करीब kari’b ‘near.’

18. मकान के निकट/नज़दीक दुकान है।
   maka:n ke nika’t/nazdi’k duka:n he.
   house near shop is
   The shop is near the house.

19. वह दफ्तर के नज़दीक तक पहुँचा।
   vah daphtar ke nazdi’k tak pahúča:.
   he office near up to reached
   He reached up to/ near the house.

20. बच्चे की आवाज़ पर के करीब से आई।
    bacce ki: aːvaːz ghar ke kari’b se aːyi:.
    child-obl gen voice house-gen near from came
    The child’s voice came from near the house.

Interior location is expressed by के अंदर ke andar/ में mē ‘inside of,’ or के बीच में se ke biːc mē se ‘from inside’ preceded by the oblique case suffixes.

21. इस मकान में/के अंदर कोई नहीं रहता है।
   is maka:n mē/ke andar koiː naːhiː rahtaː heː.
   this house inside anyone neg live-pr is
   No one lives inside this house.

22. बच्चा कमरे के बीच में से निकला।
   baccaː kamre ke biːc mē se niklaː.
   child room-abl from came out
   The child came out of the house.

Exterior location is denoted by the postposition के बीच ke se बाहर baːhar ‘outside of.’

23. वह गाँव के बाहर रहता है।
   vah gaːʋ: ke baːhar rahtaː heː.
   he village outside live-pr is
   He lives outside the village.
3. MORPHOLOGY

24. वह कमरे में बाहर निकला।
vah kamre se ba:har nikla:.
he room-obl outside set out
He came out of the room.

Anterior location is expressed by the postposition के सामने ke sa:mne ‘in front of.’ It may also be followed by other postpositions like se ‘from,’ or तक tak ‘up to.’

25. विद्यालय के सामने एक बाग है।
vidhya:lay ke sa:mne ek ba:g he.
school in front of a garden is
There is a garden in front of the school.’

26. दुकान के सामने से बस निकलती है।
duka:n ke sa:mne se bas nikalti: he.
shop-gen front-obl from bus start-ptc is
A bus starts in front of the shop.

27. दुकान के सामने तक सड़क है।
duka:n ke sa:mne tak sarak he.
shop-gen in front-obl up to road is
A road is built up to the front of the shop.

Posterior location is denoted by के पीछे ke pi:che ‘behind.’

28. विद्यालय के पीछे एक दुकान है।
vidhya:lay ke pi:che ek duka:n he.
school-gen behind one shop is
There is a shop behind the school.

29. बस अस्पताल के पीछे से जाती है।
bas aspata:l ke pi:che se ja:ti: he
bus hospital-gen behind-obl from go-pte is
A bus runs at the back of the hospital.

30. अस्पताल के पीछे तक बस आती है।
aspata:l ke pi:che tak bas a:ti: he
hospital-gen behind-obl up to bus come-pte is
The bus comes up to the back side of the hospital.
3. MORPHOLOGY

Superior location is denoted by the use of the postpositions ऊँचा (सेते) उ:par (सेते), ‘above,’ preceded by the oblique case suffixes added to the nouns.

31. मकान के ऊँचे से पक्षी उड़ते हैं।
   maka:n ke u:par se paksi: urte hē.
   house-gen above from birds fly-ptc are
   The birds fly above the (top of the) house.

Interior and interior-contact locations are not distinguished. They are indicated by the postposition नीचे ni:ce ‘under, below,’ नीचे से ni:ce se ‘from under’and नीचे तक ni:ce tak ‘up to under’ preceded by the case suffixes added to nouns.

32. जमीन के नीचे पानी निकला।
   zami:n ke ni:ce pa:ni: nikla:.
   ground-obl under water came out
   Water appeared from under the ground.

33. जमीन के नीचे से पानी चलता है।
   ground-obl under from water flow-pr is
   Water is passing through under the ground.

34. दीवार के नीचे तक पानी है।
   wall-obl under up-to water is
   Water is underneath the wall.

Lateral and lateral-contact locations are expressed by the postpositions के पास ke pa:s/के माथ sa:th ‘in the company of/besides.’

35. अमर उमा के पास/माथ बैठो।
   amar uma: ke pa:s/sa:th bētha:
   Amar Uma near sat
   Amar sat near Uma.

Citerior location is expressed by की ओर ki: or ‘towards’ preceded by the proximate demonstrative हम is ‘this’in the oblique case. It is also denoted by the term हम ओर is or ‘this side’ which does not take a separate proximate demonstrative.
3. MORPHOLOGY

36. उसकी दुकान सड़क के इस ओर है।
   uski: duka:n sarak ke is or he.
   his shop road-obl this side
   His house is on this side of the road.

37. नदी के इस ओर कितने बच्चे हैं?
   nadi: ke is or kitne bacce he?
   river this side how many children are
   How many children are there on this side of the river?

Ulterior location is expressed by की ओर ki: or ‘side’ preceded by the remote demonstrative उस us ‘that.’ It can also be denoted by the use of उस पार us pa:r ‘on the other side.’

38. सड़क के उस ओर नए मकान बने हैं।
   sarak ke us or naye maka:n bane he.
   road-obl that-obl side new houses constructed are
   New houses are constructed on that side of the road.

39. सड़क के उस पार काफी आबादी है।
   road that side abundant population is
   There is a large population on the other side of the road.

Medial location is expressed by the terms के बीच में ke bi:c mē ‘in the middle,’ के बीच ke bhi:tar ‘inside,’ or के दरम्यान/बीच में ke darmia:n/madhy mē ‘in the middle,’ के बीच में ke bi:c se ‘through the middle,’ के बीच तक ke bi:c tak ‘up to the middle of.’

40. मेरा घर बाजार के बीच में है।
   mera: ghar ba:za:r ke bi:c mē he.
   my house market middle in is
   My house is in the middle of the market.

41. यह दुकान दो सड़कों के बीच में है।
   yah duka:n do sarkō ke bi:c mē he.
   this shop two roads-obl middle is
   This shop is between the two roads.
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42. गाँव के वर्गीय एक मस्जिद है।
gā:ū: ke darmiya:n ek masjid hē.
There is a mosque in the middle of the village.

43. गाँव के बीच में एक नदी पहुँचता है।
A stream passes through the village.

44. गाँव के बीच तक पानी पहुँचता है।
Water reaches up to the center of the village.

Circumferential location is denoted by adding के इर्द गिर्द ke ird gird ‘around,’ के बागं आर ke ca:rō or ‘on all sides’ preceded by the oblique forms of subject nouns.

45. इस बाग के इर्द गिर्द/बागं आर एक दीवार है।
is ba:g ke ird gird/ca:rō or ek di:vā:r hē.
There is a wall around this garden.

46. पुलिस बैंक के बागं तरफ़ खड़े हैं।
puli:s bank ke ca:rō tarph khar:ī hē.
The police are standing on all the sides of the bank.

Citerior-anterior location is expressed by सामने sa:mne ‘in front of’ preceded by the subject nouns in oblique case. The expression के सामने ने ke sa:mne se is used to denote ‘in the opposite direction.’

47. अमर चोर के सामने खड़ा है।
amar cor ke sa:mne khara: tha:.
Amar was standing in front of the thief.
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48. वह पुलिसवाला के सामने से गुज़रा।
   vah pulisvaa:la: ke sa:mne se guzra:.
   he policeman-gen front-obl from passed
   He passed in front of the policeman.

Motion past an object at some distance is expressed by के बीच में से ke bi: c mē se ‘past/through in(side)’ preceded by the noun in the oblique case.

49. तेल लंबी पाइप में कारखाने तक पहुँचता है।
   tel lambi: payip se ka:x:ne tak pahūcta: ḥē.
   oil long-fs pipe through factory-obl up to reach-ptc is
   Oil reaches the factory through the long pipe.

Motion past an object at right and left angles to it is expressed using phrases such as वाई और da:ǐ: or ‘on the right-hand side’ and वाई और bai: or ‘on the left-hand side.’

50. सड़क के आँगल पर सीधे दाई और निकलो।
   sarak ke a:khir par si:dhe da:ǐ: or niklo.
   road-gen end at straight right hand side go-imp
   At the end of this road, go straight towards the right.

51. पुल पर करें दाई और जाना।
   pul pa:r karke ba:ǐ: or ja:na:.
   bridge cross-cp left towards go-imp
   After crossing the bridge, go straight towards the left.

Other directional locatives are exemplified as follows.

52. भारत के उत्तर/पश्चिम/पूर्व/पूर्व में भीम ठीक है।
   bha:rat ke uttar/dakšin/pu:rv/pascim mē bēm sim thi:kh ḥē
   India-gen north/south/east/west in climate good is
   The climate is good in the north/south/east/west of India.

The directional postposition की और ki: or ‘towards’ is added to the above terms of directional locatives to indicate the meaning of ‘toward north/south/east/west.’

The expression नाक के सीधे में na:k ke si:dh mē ‘straight in the direction of nose’ is used to denote the directional locative ‘straight ahead.’
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53. तुम नाक के मध्य में चले।
   tum na:k ke mēd mē calo.
   you nose-gen straight in walk
   Walk straight ahead.

Directional/locational precision is expressed by adding the emphatic particle - हिं hi: to the locative expression.

54. वह घर में ही रहा।
   vah ghar mē hi: raha:.
   he home inside-emp remained
   He stayed right inside the house.

55. उसने मुझे मूल्य दर्शाए जो ही है।
   usne mujhe su:cna: darva:ze par hi: di:
   he-erg me message door-at-emp gave
   He conveyed the message to me right at the door.

3.1.3. Noun Derivation

A large number of nouns in Hindi are derived from nouns, adjectives, and verbs by using prefixes and suffixes. In this process certain morphophonemic changes take place.

3.1.3.1. Nouns from Nouns

Mostly Persian and Sanskrit prefixes and suffixes are used with the nouns of Persian and Sanskrit origin respectively. Some of these are used with native words. The most common prefixes are: बे be-, बट bad-, बर bar-, ना na:- आ स ap-, चु ku-, दुर dur-, and निर nir-.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>बे be- (Persian) without</th>
<th>उर्म</th>
<th>शर्म</th>
<th>बेशर्म</th>
<th>शालास्म</th>
<th>निर्म</th>
<th>निर्मला</th>
<th>निर्मला</th>
<th>निर्मला</th>
<th>निर्मला</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>उर्म</td>
<td>शर्म</td>
<td>बेशर्म</td>
<td>शालास्म</td>
<td>निर्म</td>
<td>निर्मला</td>
<td>निर्मला</td>
<td>निर्मला</td>
<td>निर्मला</td>
<td>निर्मला</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>i:ma:n</td>
<td>faith</td>
<td>be:ma:n</td>
<td>dishon</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>बद</th>
<th>बद- (Persian)</th>
<th>बद- (Persian)</th>
<th>बद- (Persian)</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>तमिज</td>
<td>tami:z</td>
<td>manner</td>
<td>बदतमिज</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>तमिज</td>
<td>miza:j</td>
<td>temperament</td>
<td>बदतमिज</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>जात</td>
<td>za:t</td>
<td>character</td>
<td>बदजात</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>बर</th>
<th>बर- (Persian) on</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>वक्त</td>
<td>vakt</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>गा ना</th>
<th>गा ना- (Persian) not</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>पसांद</td>
<td>pasand</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

| अप आप- (Sanskrit) opposite |
|-----|------------------|
| मान | ma:n | honor | अपमान | apma:n | dishonor |
| शब्द | šabd | word | अपशब्द | apšabd | bad words |

| दुर दुर- (Sanskrit) bad |
|-----|------------------|
| दशा | daša: | condition | दुरदशा | durdaša: | bad condition |
| गति | gati: | position | दुरगति | durgati: | bad position |

| खु कुँ (Sanskrit) bad |
|-----|------------------|
| कर्म | karm | deed | कुकर्म | kukarm | bad deed |
| पोषान | pošan | nutrition | कुकुपोषान | kupošan | malnutrition |

| निर निर- (Sanskrit) without |
|-----|------------------|
| आदर | a:dar | respect | निरादर | nira:dar | disrespect |
| दोष | doš | fault | निरदोष | nirdoš | innocent |

The most common suffixes are -दार -da:r, -गार -gar, -बद -band, and -दान -da:n.

- दार da:r (Persian) owner

| दुकान | duka:n | shop | दुकानदार | duka:nda:r | shopkeeper |
| जामीन | zami:n | land | जामीनदार | zami:nda:r | landlord |

- गार -gar (Persian) with

| सोदा गा | soda: | items | सोदा -गा | soda:gar | merchant |
| जाड़ु | ja:du: | magic | जाड़ु -गा | ja:du:gar | magician |
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### 3.1.3.2. Nouns from Adjectives

The most productive suffixes used for deriving abstract nouns from adjectives are -ई -i:, ला -la:, रा -ra:, आई -a:i:, इया -iyat, आ / आस -a:s.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>क्षेत्र</td>
<td>kamzor</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>खुश</td>
<td>xuš</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>गरम</td>
<td>garam</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>गरीब</td>
<td>gari:b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>सर्द</td>
<td>sard</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>मोटा</td>
<td>mota:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>गराब</td>
<td>xara:b</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>साफ</td>
<td>sa:f</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ऊँचा</td>
<td>ū:ca:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>विढा</td>
<td>३००</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>नेक</td>
<td>nek</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>सच्चा</td>
<td>sacca:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>मीठा</td>
<td>mi:tha:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Examples</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>क्षेत्र</td>
<td>kamzori:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>खुशी</td>
<td>xuši:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>गर्मी</td>
<td>garmi:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>गरीबी</td>
<td>gari:bi:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>सर्दी</td>
<td>sardi:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>गराबी</td>
<td>xara:bi:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>साफी</td>
<td>sa:fi:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ऊँचाई</td>
<td>ū:ca:i:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>विढाई</td>
<td>३००</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>नेकी</td>
<td>neki:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>सच्छाई</td>
<td>sacca:i:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>मीठाई</td>
<td>mi:tha:i:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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### 3.1.3.3. Nouns from Verbs

The suffix -na: is used to derive gerundive nouns from verb stems. The suffixes -as, -an, -i:, -vat, and -2 are also used to derive abstract nouns from verb stems.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>-na:</th>
<th>-na:</th>
<th>-na:</th>
<th>-na:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ला: la:</td>
<td>bring</td>
<td>लाना: la:na:</td>
<td>bringing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>लिख</td>
<td>write</td>
<td>लिखना: likhna:</td>
<td>writing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>पढ़</td>
<td>read</td>
<td>पढ़ना: parhna:</td>
<td>reading</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>- -an</th>
<th>throb</th>
<th>throbbing</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dharak</td>
<td>throb</td>
<td>dharhan</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lagan</td>
<td>attach</td>
<td>lagan</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>- -i:</th>
<th>a pair</th>
<th>dispute</th>
<th>writing</th>
<th>studies</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>jor</td>
<td>add</td>
<td>jori:</td>
<td>a pair</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lar</td>
<td>quarrel</td>
<td>la:ra:i:</td>
<td>dispute</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>likh</td>
<td>write</td>
<td>likhai:i:</td>
<td>writing</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>parh</td>
<td>read</td>
<td>parhai:i:</td>
<td>studies</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>-vat</th>
<th>shape</th>
<th>decoration</th>
<th>tiredness</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>bana:</td>
<td>make</td>
<td>bana:vat</td>
<td>shape</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>saja:</td>
<td>decorate</td>
<td>saja:vat</td>
<td>decoration</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thak</td>
<td>be tired</td>
<td>thaka:vat</td>
<td>tiredness</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>-2</th>
<th>printing</th>
<th>beating</th>
<th>defect</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>cha:p</td>
<td>print</td>
<td>cha:p</td>
<td>printing</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thag</td>
<td>cheat</td>
<td>thag</td>
<td>cheat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>dór</td>
<td>run</td>
<td>dór</td>
<td>race</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ma:r</td>
<td>beat</td>
<td>ma:r</td>
<td>beating</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mor</td>
<td>turn</td>
<td>mor</td>
<td>turning point</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>upaj</td>
<td>produce</td>
<td>upaj</td>
<td>product</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ha:r</td>
<td>be defeated</td>
<td>ha:r</td>
<td>defeat</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kharc</td>
<td>spend</td>
<td>kharc</td>
<td>expenditure</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>khel</td>
<td>play</td>
<td>khel</td>
<td>play</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>samajh</td>
<td>understand</td>
<td>samajh</td>
<td>understanding</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>soc</td>
<td>think</td>
<td>soc</td>
<td>thinking</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1.4. Noun Compounds

Compounds belonging to the noun category are headed by a noun, which is a final member of the group. The first member may be a noun, an adjective, or a participle and may be declined for number, gender and case. A postposition is attached to the final member of the compound.
3.1.4.1. Noun-Noun Compounds

Noun-noun compounds can be divided into several subgroups based on semantic criteria: copulative compounds, partial duplicated compounds, superordinate compounds, complex compounds, hybrid compounds, genitive-noun compound, and participial compounds.

3.1.4.2. Copulative Compounds

Copulative compounds, also known as co-compounds, are composed of semantically-related nouns. Each noun behaves as an independent constituent in the sense that each may be separately inflected for gender and number, though not for a postposition. Members of some compounds occur in a fixed order.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Maṭa: Pita:</th>
<th>*Pita: Maṭa:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Brother and sister</td>
<td>Bahan</td>
<td>*Bahan Bhaːiː</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Happiness and sorrow</td>
<td>Dukh Dukh</td>
<td>Dukh Sukh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sin and good deeds</td>
<td>Puny Puny</td>
<td>*Puny Puny</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>High and low</td>
<td>*Niːː Niːː</td>
<td>Niːː Niːː</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1.4.3. Reduplicated Compounds

Reduplicated compounds express exhaustive meaning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>English</th>
<th>Ghar Ghar</th>
<th>Every House</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Child-child</td>
<td>Bacca: Bacca:</td>
<td>Every Child</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Penny-penny</td>
<td>Pesā: Pesā:</td>
<td>Every Penny</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1.4.4. Partially Duplicated Compounds

In a partial duplicated compound, also known as an echo-compound, the second member is formed by changing the initial letter of the first member. An initial /v/ is changed into /ʃ/ or /p/; all other initial consonants or vowels are replaced by /v/ or /ʃ/. The meaning of the compound extends beyond the meaning of their members. The compounds usually represent the meaning of similar or associative things.
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sanskrit</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>vaanar Saanar</td>
<td>monkey and the like</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>vaada Saada</td>
<td>promise and the like</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>voot šoṭ</td>
<td>vote and the like</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ka:m ša:m/va:m</td>
<td>work and the like</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kha:ni va:ni:/šahni:</td>
<td>story and the like</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>du:dh šu:dh</td>
<td>milk and the like</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pa:ni va:ni:/ša:ni:</td>
<td>water and the like</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1.4.5. Superordinate Compounds

In this type of compound, the meaning projected by the members does not in any way relate to the meaning of the compound as a whole.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sanskrit</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ha:th pa:ũ:</td>
<td>(hand-feet) body</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kha:na pi:na:</td>
<td>(eating-drinking) lifestyle</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jal va:yu</td>
<td>(water-air) climate</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ca:y pa:ni:</td>
<td>(tea-water) refreshment</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1.4.6. Complex Compounds

Complex compounds involving three or more nouns are not very common in Hindi.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sanskrit</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tan man dhan</td>
<td>(body-mind-money) devotion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1.4.7. Hybrid Compounds

In hybrid compounds, one member is usually borrowed from another language and the second member is a Hindi noun.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sanskrit</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>dabal roṭi:</td>
<td>(double-bread) bread</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rel ga:ri:</td>
<td>(tracks-vehicle) train</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.1.4.8. Adjective-Noun Compounds

A large number of compounds are composed of an adjective followed by a noun. There are no single terms for them.
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| ढोंटी इलाकेवाँ  | चोळा: या:ि | (small cardamom) | cardamom |
| काली निंदा  | काली: मिरा: | (black-pepper) | pepper |

3.1.4.9. Modifier-Noun Compounds

In modifier-noun compounds, the first member acts like a modifier or source and the second member is a noun.

| बैल गाड़ी  | बैल गारी: | (bull-vehicle) | bullock cart |
| गंगा जल  | गंगा: जल | (Ganges-water) | water of Ganges |

3.2. Pronouns

Pronouns are inflected for number and case. Broadly, there are seven classes of pronouns in Hindi: personal, demonstrative, relative, possessive, reflexive, interrogative, and indefinite. Pronouns in the direct and oblique cases are presented below.

### 3.2.1. Personal Pronouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Sg</th>
<th>Pl</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Direct</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1ś</td>
<td>मे</td>
<td>मे</td>
<td>हम</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2ś</td>
<td>तू</td>
<td>तु</td>
<td>तुम</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>(hon sg/pl)</td>
<td>आप</td>
<td>आप</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3ś prox</td>
<td>यह</td>
<td>यह</td>
<td>ये</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rem</td>
<td>वह</td>
<td>वह</td>
<td>वे</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that the personal pronoun आप a:p is used as an honorific form of address for both singular and plural subjects. In the polite speech, it is occasionally used for a person spoken about in place of ये ye. The term लोग log may be attached to a plural pronoun for defining or emphasizing plurality: आप लोग a:p log, हम लोग ham log, तुम लोग tum log, ये लोग ye log, वे लोग ve log.
### 3. Morphology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Case</th>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Sg</th>
<th>Pl</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Dative</td>
<td>ko ko</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>मुझे mujhe/ मुझको mujhko</td>
<td>हमें hamē/ हमको hamko</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>तुम्हें tumhe/तुम्को tumko</td>
<td>तुम्हें tumhē/तुम्को tumko</td>
<td>आपको a:eko आपको a:eko</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; prox</td>
<td>हिम्से ise/हिम्को isko</td>
<td>हिम्से inhē/हिम्को inko</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rem</td>
<td>उसे use/उस्को unko</td>
<td>उसे unhē/उस्को unko</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ergative</td>
<td>ने ne</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>मैं ne mene</td>
<td>हमने hamne</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>तुम tumne</td>
<td>तुम tumne</td>
<td>आपने a:pne आपने a:pne</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; prox</td>
<td>हिम्से isne</td>
<td>हिम्से inhē</td>
<td>आपने unhone आपने unhone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rem</td>
<td>उसने usne</td>
<td>उसने unhē</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Locative</td>
<td>par par</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>मुझपर mujhpar</td>
<td>हमपर hampar</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>तुम्पर tumhpar</td>
<td>तुम्पर tumhpar</td>
<td>आपपर a:ppar आपपर a:ppar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; prox</td>
<td>हिम्से ispar</td>
<td>हिम्से inpar</td>
<td>आपपर unpar आपपर unpar</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rem</td>
<td>उसपर uspar</td>
<td>उसपर unpar</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Ablative</td>
<td>ने se</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>मुझने mujhse</td>
<td>हमने hamse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>तुम्ने tum se</td>
<td>तुम्ने tumse</td>
<td>आपने a:pe आपने a:pe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; prox</td>
<td>हिम्से isse</td>
<td>हिम्से inse</td>
<td>आपने un se आपने un se</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rem</td>
<td>उसने usse</td>
<td>उसने un se</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Possessive / Genitive का ka:/ के ke/की ki</td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>मेरा mera:</td>
<td>हमारा hama:ra:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>तेरा tera:</td>
<td>तुम्हारा tumha:ra:</td>
<td>आपका a:pka: आपका a:pka:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt; prox</td>
<td>हिम्सा iska:</td>
<td>हिम्सा uska:</td>
<td>आपका uska: आपका uska:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rem</td>
<td>उसका uska:</td>
<td>उसका unka:</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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3.2.2. Demonstrative Pronouns

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Direct/Nominative Case</th>
<th>Sg</th>
<th>Pl</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>prox</td>
<td>यह यह</td>
<td>वे ये</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rem</td>
<td>वह वह</td>
<td>वे वे</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Oblique Case को को में/मे पर/का का/के की की</th>
<th>अंसे से</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg</td>
<td>Pl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>prox</td>
<td>हम इस</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>rem</td>
<td>उन उस</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that the demonstrative pronouns are also used as personal pronouns of the third person.

There are two additional pronouns which are used in the sense of ‘so and so’ to refer to third person subjects: अमूक amuk and फाला falā:/ फाला:na:.

3.2.3. Relative Pronouns

Hindi has one relative pronoun: जो jo ‘who, which, that, what’ in both the singular and plural. It is accompanied with वह vah in the main sentence called correlative of जो jo. The correlative form शे so ‘he, they’ is now obsolete, it is used in proverbs and sayings. The term लोग log may be added to जो jo to indicate or emphasize plurality: जो लोग jo log. The oblique forms of the relative pronoun used along with the case-signs are as follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>जिस/जिसने jisne</td>
<td>जिस/जिसने jin/hone</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>जिसको jisko/जिस jise</td>
<td>जिसको jinko/जिस jinhê</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>जिसके jis se</td>
<td>जिसके jin se</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.2.4. Reflexive Pronouns

Reflexive pronouns substitute and refer to a noun or pronoun which is the logical subject of the sentence. Hindi has three reflexive pronouns: आप a:p, its oblique forms अपना apna: and अपने apne, and a compound form of these two, अपने आप apne-a:p. The oblique form
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आपस a:pas means ‘each other’ or ‘one another.’ The reflexive pronoun आप a:p is also substituted by the Sanskrit borrowed term म्वय स्वयम svayam or Persian-borrowed term खुद khud in Sanskritized and Persianized styles respectively. The reflexive pronoun आप a:p optionally followed by the emphatic form हि hi: has an adjectival meaning. It can also be used as an adverb in the meaning ‘of one’s own accord, spontaneously.’ Similarly, आपने आप apne-a:p can either be used in an emphatic sense or in the adverbial meaning of ‘of one’s own accord.’

1. वह आप ही अपने आप घर गया।
   vah a:p hi: / apne-a:p ghar gaya:
   he himself emp home went
   He himself went home.

Note that the oblique forms of अपने apne and आपने आप apne-a:p (except when adverbial) mean ‘oneself’ with the case-signs/postpositions को ka, को se, में mē, and पर par.

3.2.5. Interrogative Pronouns

In both singular and plural, there are two basic interrogative pronouns: कौन kōn ‘who’ (referring to person) and क्या kya: ‘what’ (referring to things). The interrogative pronoun क्या kya: is a neutral form. It is also used for denoting the interrogative nature of the sentence. Note that कौन kōn and क्या kya: can be used as relative pronouns too.

2. कौन आया, कोई नहीं जानता।
   kōn a:ya:, koi: nahī: ja:nta:
   who came no one neg knows
   Nobody knows who came.

The interrogative pronoun क्या kya: is also used as an exclamatory adjective.

3. क्या सुंदर बाग है!
   kya: sundar ba:g he!
   what beautiful garden is
   What a beautiful garden!
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It is also used as an emphatic negation.

4. लड़की क्या है, नाजुक पूल है।
   larki: kya: he, na:zuk phu: l he.
   girl what is delicate flower is
   It is not a girl; it is a delicate flower.
   (What a girl! Just like a delicate flower.)

Interrogative adverbial forms related to these pronouns are: कब kab ‘when,’ कैसा kaisa: ‘how,’ कौनsa: ‘which one,’ कितना kitna: ‘how much.’

3.2.6. Indefinite Pronouns

There are two indefinite pronouns in Hindi: कोई koi: ‘someone, somebody’ and कुछ kuch ‘something.’ कुछ kuch is also used as an adjective (numeral and quantitative) and as an adverb meaning ‘some, a few, a little, partly.’ Similarly, कोई koi: can be used as an adverb in the sense of ‘some, about.’ It can refer to ‘something’ if used with -sa/-sa/-si: = कोई सा koi: sa:/ कोई मी koi: si:. कोई koi: may also be used as the plural form to indicate ‘some people.’

3.2.7. Oblique Forms of Pronouns

Whereas the same case-signs namely ने ne, का ko, के se, मे mē, पर par and का ka: are attached to pronouns as they are attached to nouns, in some cases the oblique forms of pronouns are formed differently.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Direct</th>
<th>Oblique</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg</td>
<td>Pl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>यह yeh</td>
<td>ये ye</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>वह vah</td>
<td>वे ve</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>जी jo</td>
<td>जी jo</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>मो so</td>
<td>मो so</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>कोई koi: कोई koi:</td>
<td>किसी kisi:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Note that (i) when the case-signs are added the singular forms यह yeh, वह vah, जो jo, and मो so change to इस is, उस us, जिस jis and तिस tis respectively; कीन kān and क्या kya: change to किस kis; and कुछ kuch changes to किसी kisi:. (ii) In the plural, except before ने ne, these
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change to इन in, उन un, जिन jin, तिन tin, किन kin, and किन्हें kinhē.: (iii) Before ने ne, the plural oblique forms are: इन्हें inhē:, उन्हें unhē:, जिन्हें jinhē:, किन्हें kinhē:, and किन्हें kinhē.: (iv) ये mē and तू tu: remain unchanged before ने ne: (सी mēne, तू tu:ne). v) Followed by other case-signs, ये mē and तू tu: change to मुझ mujh and तुझh tujh (मुझको mujhko, तुझको tujhko). (vi) The pronouns हम ham and तुम tum remain unchanged before all case-signs: रहको hamko, तुझको tumhē. (vii) The postposition का ka: is not attached to में mē, तू tu:, and तु tum. They change to the following forms agreeing with the object noun in gender and number.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg mera:</td>
<td>सेरी meri:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tera:</td>
<td>तेरी tere:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tumhara:</td>
<td>तुमहारे tumhāre:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(viii) As an alternative to को ko, all oblique forms attach ए e in singular and हें hē in plural: इसे/इसको isko, उसे/उसको unko, इन्हें/इन्होंने inko, उन्हें/उन्होंने unko, तुझें/तुझोंने tumhē/तुझे tumhē, हमें/हमको hamko. In the case of ham, ए e is added, not हें hē. Note that ए e or हें hē is not attached to the indefinite pronouns कोई koi: and कुछ kuch.

As pointed out earlier, the reflexive pronoun उआप a:p changes to उआपने apne before the case signs को ko, उसे, में mē, and पर par. ने ne is not added to the reflexive आप a:p but only to the subject to which आप a:p refers. For denoting various senses of का ka:, आप a:p changes to आपना apna:, आपने apne, and आपनी apni:.

3.2.8. Compound Pronouns

Two, or more than two pronouns may be compounded or the same pronoun may be repeated to convey various shades of meanings. The following are some important compound pronouns.

| आपने आपne a:p | by oneself |
| आप ही आप a:p hi: a:p | by oneself, to oneself |
| जो कोई jo koi: | who(so)ever |
| जो कुछ jo kuch | what(so)ever |
| जो जो jo jo | whoever/whatever |
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hindi</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>कोई कोई koi: koi:</td>
<td>some, a few (archaic)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>सब sab koi:</td>
<td>all, everybody (archaic)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>हर har koi:</td>
<td>all, everybody</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>कोई na koi:</td>
<td>someone or the other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>कोई कोई koi: ... koi:</td>
<td>some ... others or one ... another</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>कुछ कुछ kuch na kuch</td>
<td>something or the other</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>कुछ कुछ kuch ka: kuch</td>
<td>something different from expected</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>सब sab kuch</td>
<td>everything</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>बहुत bahut kuch</td>
<td>a great deal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>कुछ kuch kuch</td>
<td>somewhat, a little</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>कोई या koi: या</td>
<td>someone else</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>जो वो या koi: या</td>
<td>someone else</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>कोई दूसरा koi: du:sra:</td>
<td>someone else</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>कुछ जो kuch जो</td>
<td>something else, a little more</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>जो अधिक जो kuch जो</td>
<td>something else</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>कुछ कुछ kuch kuch</td>
<td>some ... some (Conjunctive)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>कोई या koi: सा:</td>
<td>anything, something</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>कोई या koi: सा:</td>
<td>which one</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>कौन कोन korn korn</td>
<td>which persons, which ones</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>क्या kya: क्या:</td>
<td>which things</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>क्या क्या se kya:</td>
<td>something contrary to expectations</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>क्या क्या: ... kya:</td>
<td>equally, without difference</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>आपस में की a:pas me/ki:</td>
<td>each other, one another</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

All the pronouns can be combined with the emphatic particle हि hi: like मैं मैं में में hi: ‘I myself,’ तू तू tu: hi: ‘thou thyself,’ आप आप a:p hi: ‘you yourself,’ कोई से koi: hi: ‘hardly any one,’ और अधिक और kuch hi: ‘hardly a few.’ Note that most of these compounds are affected by Sandhi and are modified: मैं māj + हि hi: = मैं में māj hi:, तू tu + हि hi: = तू tu की tuhi:, हम ham + हि hi: = हम में hamhi:, तुम tūm + हि hi: = तुम में tumhi:, वह vah + हि hi: = वह vahi:, यह yeh + हि hi: = यह yahi:, उस us + हि hi: = उस ushi:, इस इस is + हि hi: = इस ishi:, किस kis + हि hi: = किस kishi:, इसे इसे is + हि hi: = इसे ishi:, उसे us + हि hi: = उसे ushi:, तिस tish + हि hi: = तिस tishi:, जिस jish + हि hi: = जिस jishi:.

### 3.3. Adjectives

Adjectives in Hindi can be classified into two groups: (i) inflected and (ii) uninflected.
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3.3.1. Inflected

These adjectives are inflected for gender and number.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td><strong>Sg</strong></td>
<td><strong>Pl</strong></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>बड़ा</td>
<td>बड़े</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>छोटा</td>
<td>छोटे</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>लंबा</td>
<td>लंबी</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>काला</td>
<td>काले</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>हरा</td>
<td>हरे</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>अच्छा</td>
<td>अच्छे</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3.2. Uninflected

These adjectives are not inflected for number and gender.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>सुंदर लड़का/लड़की</th>
<th>सुंदरा / लड़की</th>
<th>बुद्धि आदर्श</th>
<th>बुद्धि अदर्श</th>
<th>सफेद कपड़ा/कपड़ी</th>
<th>सफेद कपड़ा/कपड़ी</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>सुंदर लड़का/लड़की</td>
<td>सुंदरा / लड़की</td>
<td>बुद्धि आदर्श</td>
<td>बुद्धि अदर्श</td>
<td>सफेद कपड़ा/कपड़ी</td>
<td>सफेद कपड़ा/कपड़ी</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>सुंदर लड़का/लड़की</td>
<td>सुंदरा / लड़की</td>
<td>बुद्धि आदर्श</td>
<td>बुद्धि अदर्श</td>
<td>सफेद कपड़ा/कपड़ी</td>
<td>सफेद कपड़ा/कपड़ी</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>सुंदर लड़का/लड़की</td>
<td>सुंदरा / लड़की</td>
<td>बुद्धि आदर्श</td>
<td>बुद्धि अदर्श</td>
<td>सफेद कपड़ा/कपड़ी</td>
<td>सफेद कपड़ा/कपड़ी</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3.3. Types of Adjectives

There are two broad types of adjectives: (i) those that describe a quality or quantity, and (ii) those that distinguish one person or thing from another.

(i) Quality is expressed either by a basic adjective or by an adjective derived from a noun.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>सुंदर लड़की</th>
<th>सुंदरा / लड़की</th>
<th>बुद्धि आदर्श</th>
<th>बुद्धि अदर्श</th>
<th>सफेद कपड़ा/कपड़ी</th>
<th>सफेद कपड़ा/कपड़ी</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>सुंदर लड़की</td>
<td>सुंदरा / लड़की</td>
<td>बुद्धि आदर्श</td>
<td>बुद्धि अदर्श</td>
<td>सफेद कपड़ा/कपड़ी</td>
<td>सफेद कपड़ा/कपड़ी</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>सुंदर लड़की</td>
<td>सुंदरा / लड़की</td>
<td>बुद्धि आदर्श</td>
<td>बुद्धि अदर्श</td>
<td>सफेद कपड़ा/कपड़ी</td>
<td>सफेद कपड़ा/कपड़ी</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>सुंदर लड़की</td>
<td>सुंदरा / लड़की</td>
<td>बुद्धि आदर्श</td>
<td>बुद्धि अदर्श</td>
<td>सफेद कपड़ा/कपड़ी</td>
<td>सफेद कपड़ा/कपड़ी</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The adjective अन्द्रा लड़का: लड़का: is derived by adding the suffix - लादड़ा to the noun stem. Negative qualities are expressed by a separate set of adjectives and also by adding negative prefixes.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>अन्द्रा लड़का: लड़का:</th>
<th>अच्छा लड़का: लड़का:</th>
<th>अच्छा लड़का: लड़का:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>अच्छा लड़का: लड़का:</td>
<td>अच्छा लड़का: लड़का:</td>
<td>अच्छा लड़का: लड़का:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>अच्छा लड़का: लड़का:</td>
<td>अच्छा लड़का: लड़का:</td>
<td>अच्छा लड़का: लड़का:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>अच्छा लड़का: लड़का:</td>
<td>अच्छा लड़का: लड़का:</td>
<td>अच्छा लड़का: लड़का:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Quantity may be expressed either by numerals or by the adjectives of quantity like बहुत bahut / अधिक adhik ‘a lot,’ कम kam ‘less,’ थोरा thora: ‘a little.’

| छः किताबें che kita:bē  | six books          |
| बहुत लेग bahut log       | many people        |
| थोरा दूध thora: du:dh     | a little milk      |

Adjectives of quantity may also be formed by the combination of numeral + unit of measure + (classifier (terms of weight, length))/genitive postposition) (+ the particle वाला va:la:) + noun.

| दो गज लंबी (वाली) rassi  | two hundred yards long (gen.) rope |
| दो किलो वजन बट्टर | the stone weighing two kilograms |

The postposition ने se is used in the formation of reduplicated adjectival phrases.

| अधिक से अधिक | adhik se adhik  | at most  |
| कम से कम    | kam se kam     | at least |
| अच्छा से अच्छा | acche se accha: | the best of all |
| बुरा से बुरा   | bure se bura:  | worst of all |
| मिट्टी से मिट्टा  | mi:ṭṭe se mi:ṭṭa | very sweet |

Almost all pronouns can function as adjectives. The demonstrative adjectives that point out persons or things यह - yeh ‘this,’ ये ‘these’ वह vah ‘that,’ वे ‘those’ - are used in the initial position.

| यह घर yeh ghar | this house       |
| ये किताबें ye kita:bē  | these books    |
| वह लड़का vah lar:ka: | that boy       |
| वे बच्चे ve bacco  | those children  |
3. **MORPHOLOGY**

Interrogative pronouns are used to ask questions.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Interrogative Pronoun</th>
<th>有意义</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Translate to English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>कौन लड़का? koun larka?:</td>
<td>which boy?</td>
<td>which boy?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>क्या काम? kya: ka:m?</td>
<td>what work?</td>
<td>what work?</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The possessive pronouns particularize or show relation.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Possessive Pronoun</th>
<th>Possessive Pronoun</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Translate to English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>मेरा / मेरा बेटा</td>
<td>mera/tera: dost</td>
<td>my/your friend</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>मेरी / मेरी बहिन</td>
<td>meri/a:pki: bahan</td>
<td>my/your sister</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>उसका / उसका भाई</td>
<td>uska/unka: bhai:i:</td>
<td>his/their brother</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Indefinite and relative pronouns, too, function as adjectives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Indefinite / Relative Pronoun</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Translate to English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>कोई अखबार</td>
<td>koi: akhba:r</td>
<td>some newspaper</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>कुछ सब्जियाँ</td>
<td>kuch sabziyâ:</td>
<td>some vegetables</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>जो बच्चा</td>
<td>jo bacca:</td>
<td>the child who</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.3.4. Degree of Adjectives

There are three varieties of adjectival degrees: superlative, comparative and minimal. Superlative and comparative degrees of qualities are denoted with the help of the postposition था se attached to the noun or pronoun (in oblique form) with which the comparison is made. Superlative involves comparison with all. For example,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Degree of Adjective</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Translate to English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sab se bari: ima:rat</td>
<td>the biggest building</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sab se sundar larki:</td>
<td>the most beautiful girl</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Comparative involves comparison between two.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Comparative Adjective</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Translate to English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>apne dost se lamba:</td>
<td>taller than his friend</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Minimal involves no comparison.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Minimal Adjective</th>
<th>Meaning</th>
<th>Translate to English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>mera accha: dost</td>
<td>my good friend</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The postposition था mē is also alternately used to denote the superiority of one out of two or more.
3. MORPHOLOGY

Sometimes, the phrase की अपेक्षा ‘in comparison to’ is substituted for में se.

Notice that words अधिक/ज्यादा adhik/zya:da: ‘more’ and कम ‘less’ may be prefixed to adjectives for denoting comparison.

3.3.5. Derivation of Adjectives

A large number of adjectives are derived from nouns by adding the suffixes -ा -a:, -ि -i:, -ु -u:, -िि -i:la:, -ल -lu:, -क -ik, -जानक -janak, -दाई -da:i:, -नाम -ma:i:, -वन -van, -आह आ:na:, -नाक -na:k, -इ -i:n, -मंद -mand, and -दार -da:r.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Noun</th>
<th>Adjective</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sac</td>
<td>sacca:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>lie</td>
<td>jhu:tha:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>hunger</td>
<td>bhu:kha:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>price</td>
<td>ki:mat:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>comfort</td>
<td>sukhi:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>good</td>
<td>nekki:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>mountain</td>
<td>paha:ti:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>stomach</td>
<td>petu:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>market</td>
<td>ba:za:r</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>common</td>
<td>ba:za:ru:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 3. Morphology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Suffix</th>
<th>Example 1</th>
<th>Example 2</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>-i:la</td>
<td>rasjuice</td>
<td>rasi:la:juicy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-laa</td>
<td>zahri:poisonous</td>
<td>kharci:expensive</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-lu</td>
<td>šradha:devotee</td>
<td>šradhia:lu:devotee</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ik</td>
<td>sama:jk:social</td>
<td>sama:jik:scientific</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-janak</td>
<td>a:saj:hopeful</td>
<td>cinta:janak:worried</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-da:i</td>
<td>sukh:comfort</td>
<td>sukhda:i:comfortable</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-mai</td>
<td>a:samai:hopeful</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-va:n</td>
<td>dhan:wealth</td>
<td>dhanva:n:wealthy</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-sa:na</td>
<td>sa:year</td>
<td>sa:la:na:yearly</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-na:k</td>
<td>dard:pain</td>
<td>dardna:k:painful</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-xøf</td>
<td>xøf:fear</td>
<td>xøfna:k:frightful</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
### 3. Morphology

#### -ि़न -i:n

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>रंग</th>
<th>color</th>
<th>रंगीन</th>
<th>rangi:n</th>
<th>colorful</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>नमक</td>
<td>salt</td>
<td>नमकीन</td>
<td>namki:n</td>
<td>salty</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>लेक</td>
<td>liking</td>
<td>लेकीन</td>
<td>ʂki:n</td>
<td>fond</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### -मंड -mand

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>अकल</th>
<th>wisdom</th>
<th>अकलमंड</th>
<th>aklmand</th>
<th>wise</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>दैलत</td>
<td>wealth</td>
<td>दैलतमंड</td>
<td>dølatmand</td>
<td>wealthy</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

#### -दार -da:r

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>माल</th>
<th>property</th>
<th>मालदार</th>
<th>ma:lda:r</th>
<th>wealthy</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>तमीन</td>
<td>land</td>
<td>तमीनदार</td>
<td>zami:nda:r</td>
<td>landlord</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>दुकान</td>
<td>shop</td>
<td>दुकानदार</td>
<td>duka:nda:r</td>
<td>shopkeeper</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

When मा sa: ‘like’ is attached to the oblique forms of nouns or pronouns, they function as adjectives.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>फूल मा</th>
<th>phu:l sa:</th>
<th>flower-like</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>मुहा मुह मा:/ tum मा:</td>
<td>mujh sa:/ tum sa:</td>
<td>me-like/you-like</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

मा sa: is also attached to adjectives to denote ‘looking, seeming.’ When added to quantitative adjectives, it intensifies the meaning.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>लाल मा</th>
<th>la:l sa:</th>
<th>red-looking</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>बड़ा मा</td>
<td>bara: sa:</td>
<td>big-looking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>दुल्ला मा</td>
<td>dubla: sa:</td>
<td>slim-looking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>कमजोर मा</td>
<td>kamzor sa:</td>
<td>weak-looking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>उच्च मा</td>
<td>ü:ca: sa:</td>
<td>high-looking</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>बहुत मा</td>
<td>bahut sa:</td>
<td>a great deal</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>थोड़ा मा</td>
<td>thora: sa:</td>
<td>just a little</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The forms of मा sa: (agreeing in number and gender with the noun) are also added to the genitive/possessive forms to denote a similarity of quality, or possession.
3. **MORPHOLOGY**

| गाय का सा मुंड | ga:y ka: sa: mū ṣ | a face like that of a cow |
| उनके सेन कप्र | unke se kapre | clothes similar to his |
| मेरी मी नाक तेती: सि: नाक | meri: mi nāk teteri: sì: nāk | a nose like mine/yours |

*sa:* may be replaced by *jesa:* with nouns and pronouns (other than indefinite or interrogative ones.)

| बंदर सा/जेशा | bandar sa:/jesa: | similar to a monkey |
| तुम सा/जेशा | tum sa:/jesa: | like you |

The forms of *sa:* can be added to कोई *koi:* and कौन *kōn* to indicate ‘any one,’ and ‘which one’ respectively.

| कोई सा रंग | koi:-sa: raṅ | any color |
| कोई मी कामत | koi:-si: kamiːz | any shirt |
| कौन सा कोट | kōn-sa: koṭ | which coat |
| कौन मी कामत | kōn-si: kamiːz | which shirt |

### 3.3.6. Numerals

Numerals are adjectives indicating number. They may be divided into cardinals, ordinals, or multiplicatives.

#### 3.3.6.1. Cardinals

Cardinal numeral forms in Hindi are given below.

<p>| एक | ek | 1 | दो | do | 2 |
| तीन | tiːn | 3 | चार | caːr | 4 |
| पांच | pāːc | 5 | छः | che | 6 |
| सात | saːt | 7 | आठ | aːṭ | 8 |
| नौ | nav | 9 | दस | das | 10 |
| गियाणह | giaːrah | 11 | बारह | baːrah | 12 |
| तेरह | terah | 13 | चौदह | cōdah | 14 |
| पंदह | pandrah | 15 | सोलह | solah | 16 |
| सातह | sathrah | 17 | अठाणह | aṭhaːrah | 18 |
| उन्नाख | unniːs | 19 | बीस | biːs | 20 |
| इकिखीस | ikkiːs | 21 | बाइस | baːiːs | 22 |</p>
<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Teims</th>
<th>3. MORPHOLOGY</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>tei:s</td>
<td>23</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pacci:s</td>
<td>25</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>satta:i:s</td>
<td>27</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>untli:s</td>
<td>29</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ikatti:s</td>
<td>31</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tenti:s</td>
<td>33</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pëttis</td>
<td>35</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>setis</td>
<td>37</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unta:li:s</td>
<td>39</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ikta:li:s</td>
<td>41</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tëta:li:s</td>
<td>43</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pëta:li:s</td>
<td>45</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sëta:li:s</td>
<td>47</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unca:s</td>
<td>49</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ikyav:an</td>
<td>51</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tirpan</td>
<td>53</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pacpan</td>
<td>55</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sata:van</td>
<td>57</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>unsath</td>
<td>59</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>iksath</td>
<td>61</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tirsa:th</td>
<td>63</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pësath</td>
<td>65</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sar:ath</td>
<td>67</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>una:hta:tr</td>
<td>69</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ika:hta:tr</td>
<td>71</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tehta:tr</td>
<td>73</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paca:hta:tr</td>
<td>75</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sata:hta:tr</td>
<td>77</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>una:si:</td>
<td>79</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ikyasi:</td>
<td>81</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tira:si:</td>
<td>83</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paca:si:</td>
<td>85</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sata:si:</td>
<td>87</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>nava:si:</td>
<td>89</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ikyana:ve</td>
<td>91</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>tira:nave</td>
<td>93</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>paca:nave</td>
<td>95</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sata:nave</td>
<td>97</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Starting with one hundred, the numerals proceed regularly.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>(एक) हज़ार</th>
<th>(ek) haza:r</th>
<th>one thousand</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>दस हज़ार</td>
<td>das haza:r</td>
<td>ten thousand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>लाख</td>
<td>la:kh</td>
<td>hundred thousand</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>दस लाख</td>
<td>das la:kh</td>
<td>million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>करोड़</td>
<td>karor</td>
<td>ten million</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>अरब</td>
<td>arab</td>
<td>thousand million (billion)</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ग्यार</td>
<td>kharab</td>
<td>hundred billion</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.3.6.2. Ordinals


Adjectives of Quantity

Nouns denoting measure, and weight preceded by a numeral or by an adjective denoting an indefinite number, such as कोई koi: or कुछ kuch, are used as adjectives of quantity.
Collective Adjectives

Some regular numerals can be replaced by collective adjectives like जोरा: ‘pair,’ चौकौरा cokra: ‘four,’ पंजा panja: ‘five,’ चक्का chakka: ‘six,’ दर्जन darjan ‘dozen,’ बीस bi:si:// बीसी bisi: kori: ‘score,’ मेक्का sēkra: ‘hundred.’ They are treated as nouns and may be qualified by the regular numerals.

The मेक्का sēkra: is also used in the sense of ‘per hundred.’

3.3.6.3. Fractions

Fractions are expressed as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>एक बटे चार/पाँ</th>
<th>ek baṭe ca:r/pa:v</th>
<th>one quarter</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(pa:v is used mainly for denoting weights)</td>
<td>---</td>
<td>---</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>एक बटे तीन/तिहाई</td>
<td>ek baṭe ti:n/tihaːiː</td>
<td>one-third</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>एक बटे दो/आधा</td>
<td>ek baṭe do/a:dhaː</td>
<td>half</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>तीन बटे चार/शीन</td>
<td>ti:n baṭe ca:r/shiːn</td>
<td>three quarters</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>एक मसी एक बटे चार/तिहाई</td>
<td>ek msiː ek baṭe ca:r/tihaːiː</td>
<td>one and a quarter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>एक मसी एक बटे दो/डेराई</td>
<td>ek msiː ek baṭe do/dεɾaːiː</td>
<td>one and a half</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>दो मसी एक बटे दो ग्राई</td>
<td>do msiː ek baṭe do/gɾaiː</td>
<td>two and a half</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>पौने दो</td>
<td>poun de</td>
<td>two less by a quarter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>पौने तीन</td>
<td>poun tiːn</td>
<td>three less by a quarter</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>तीन तीन</td>
<td>tiːn tiːn</td>
<td>three and a half</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
Note that sa:he denoting ‘half’ is attached to the numerals beginning with three: sa:he ca:r ‘four and half,’ sa:he pã:c ‘five and half,’ etc. The system of denoting fractions is also used to denote fractions of hundred, thousand, ten thousand, etc.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>देखा सी</th>
<th>sava: sō</th>
<th>125</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>हड़ो सी</td>
<td>derh sō</td>
<td>150</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>खाॅई सी</td>
<td>dha:i: sō</td>
<td>250</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>हड़ हजार</td>
<td>derh haza:r</td>
<td>1,500</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>देखा दो लाख</td>
<td>sava: do la:kh</td>
<td>2,25,000</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### 3.3.6.4. Multiplicatives

Multiplicatives are formed by attaching गुना guna: ‘multiplied by’ to the numerals. The numerals 2 to 8 are slightly modified.


### 3.3.6.5. Approximation

Approximation is expressed by placing कोई koi:, लगभग lagbhag, or प्रायः prāya: before the numeral.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>कोई दीवार आड़ी</th>
<th>koi: bi:s a:dmi:</th>
<th>about twenty persons</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>लगभग दो सो लोग</td>
<td>lagbhag pā:c sō log</td>
<td>about five hundred people</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>प्रायः दो सो वर्ष पहले</td>
<td>prāya: do sō varś pahle</td>
<td>about two hundred years ago</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. MORPHOLOGY

It is also expressed by certain pairs of numerals.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>दो-एक</th>
<th>do-ek</th>
<th>one or two</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>दो-नीन</td>
<td>do-ti:n</td>
<td>about two or three</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>दस-पांच</td>
<td>das-på:c</td>
<td>about ten</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>सौ-सवा:सौ</td>
<td>sa-sava:so</td>
<td>about 125</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Reduplication of a numeral denotes ‘… at a time,’ or ‘… per piece.’

| एक-एक लड़के को तीन-तीन किताबें दे। | ek-ek lar ke ko ti:n-ti:n kita:bë do | Give three books to each boy. |

3.3.6.6. Aggregation

Aggregation is expressed by adding - ओं -ों to a numeral. In the case of दो do, -नों -नो is added. (e.g., दोनों donô ‘both,’ तीनों ti:nô ‘all the three,’ चार ca:rô ‘all the four,’ दसों dasô ‘all the ten,’ बीसों bi:sô ‘all the twenty,’ etc.). Notice that -यों -iyô is added to numerals दस or बीस bi:s to indicate an indefinite large number (e.g., दसयों dasiyô ‘several tens,’ बीसयों bi:siyô ‘several scores,’ etc.)

The suffix -ओं -ों is also added to the nouns signifying duration, measures, weight to indicate large and indefinite number or quantity. (e.g., महीनों mahi:nô ‘a number of months,’ वर्षों barsô ‘a number of years,’ बॉरियों अनाज boriyô ana:j ‘sackfuls of grains,’ etc.

3.4. Verbs

There are two types of verbs: main and auxiliary.

3.4.1. The Verb hona:

The verb लेना hona: ‘to be’ is used as a copula in simple predicative sentences, as well as an auxiliary in different types of verbal constructions. The verb लेना hona: has four sets of verbal forms: present, past, presumptive, and subjunctive.
3. Morphology

(a) The present tense forms of होना hona: agree with their subjects in number and person.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>हूँ हुँ</td>
<td>हे हे</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; (intimate)</td>
<td>हे हे</td>
<td>हे हे</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; (polite)</td>
<td>हे हे</td>
<td>हे हे</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>हे हे</td>
<td>हे हे</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>मैं हूँ</th>
<th>मैं हुँ</th>
<th>आप हूँ</th>
<th>आप हुँ</th>
<th>वे हूँ</th>
<th>वे हुँ</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>मैं हूँ</td>
<td>मैं हुँ</td>
<td>आप हूँ</td>
<td>आप हुँ</td>
<td>वे हूँ</td>
<td>वे हुँ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>मैं हूँ</td>
<td>मैं हुँ</td>
<td>आप हूँ</td>
<td>आप हुँ</td>
<td>वे हूँ</td>
<td>वे हुँ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>मैं हूँ</td>
<td>मैं हुँ</td>
<td>आप हूँ</td>
<td>आप हुँ</td>
<td>वे हूँ</td>
<td>वे हुँ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b) The past tense forms of होना hona: agree with their subjects in gender and number.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg</td>
<td>Pl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>या था:</td>
<td>या थे:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>मे था:</td>
<td>मे थे:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>वह था:</td>
<td>वह था:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>नूँ था:</td>
<td>नूँ थे:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>आप/ तुम/ आप</td>
<td>आप/ तुम/ आप</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>तुम</td>
<td>तुम</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>हम/ तुम/ आप/ वे</td>
<td>हम/ तुम/ आप/ वे</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>हम</td>
<td>हम</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>से/ तुम/ आप/ वे</td>
<td>से/ तुम/ आप/ वे</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>हम/ तुम/ आप/ वे</td>
<td>हम/ तुम/ आप/ वे</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>से/ तुम/ आप/ वे</td>
<td>से/ तुम/ आप/ वे</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(c) The presumptive forms of the verb होना hona: agree with their subjects in person, gender, and number.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg</td>
<td>Pl</td>
<td>Sg</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>1&lt;sup&gt;st&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>हूँ</td>
<td>हूँ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; (intimate)</td>
<td>हूँ</td>
<td>हूँ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2&lt;sup&gt;nd&lt;/sup&gt; (hon sg/pl)</td>
<td>हूँ</td>
<td>हूँ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3&lt;sup&gt;rd&lt;/sup&gt;</td>
<td>हूँ</td>
<td>हूँ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. MORPHOLOGY

(d) The subjunctive forms of होना hona: are used to indicate the situations of speculative, hypothetical, contingent, or desired nature. They agree with their subjects in person and number.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Person</th>
<th>Singular</th>
<th>Plural</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st</td>
<td>हो हो :</td>
<td>हो हो</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd (intimate)</td>
<td>हो हो</td>
<td>हो हो</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd (hon sg/pl)</td>
<td>हो हो</td>
<td>हो हो</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd</td>
<td>हो हो</td>
<td>हो हो</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>इ लोँ</th>
<th>में हो:</th>
<th>हम हो</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>दू हो</td>
<td>tu ho</td>
<td>tum ho ho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>आप हो</td>
<td>a:p ho</td>
<td>यह/वह हो yeh/vah ho</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>वे/वो हो</td>
<td>ye/ve ho</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.4.2. Main Verbs

There are three types of main verbs: simple verbs, conjunct verbs, and compound verbs. A simple verb may consist of one main verb and person, gender, number, tense, and aspect markers. In the compound verb construction, the person, gender, number, and aspect markers are taken by the explicators/operators, and in the conjunct verbal construction they are taken by the verb element. We will classify the verbal constructions as intransitive, transitive, ditransitive, causative, dative, conjunct, and compound.

3.4.2.1. Intransitive Verbs

Intransitive verbs like आ a: ‘come,’ जा ja: ‘go’ उठ uṭh ‘get up,’ and बेठ beth ‘sit.’ do not take a direct object and are not marked by any postposition in the present or future tense. Subjects in such cases are controlled by the verb agreement.

1. वह जाता है।
   vah ja:ta: he.
   he go-pte is
   He goes.

2. अमित घर जाएगा।
   amit ghar ja:e:ga:.
   Amit home go-fut
   Amit will go home.
3. MORPHOLOGY

Besides verb agreement, subjects demonstrate a number of other properties which are explained below. Intransitive verbs in the past tense take their subjects in the direct case.

3. वह बहुत थक गई।
   vah bahut thak gai:.
   She very tired aux
   She was dead tired.

4. अमित मध्य पर आया।
   amit samay par a:ya:.
   Amit time at came
   Amit came on time.

Some intransitive verbs, such as खेल khel ‘play’ and लड़ lar ‘fight,’ may sometimes be used as transitives when they take abstract nouns as objects.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intransitive</th>
<th>Transitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>खेलना khelna:</td>
<td>खेलना khel khelna:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>लड़ लड़ा:</td>
<td>लड़ लड़ा:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

5. मोहन खेला।
   mohan khela:.
   Mohan played.

5a. मोहन ने खेल खेला।
    mohan ne khel khela:.
    Mohan played a game.

3.4.2.2. Transitive Verbs

Transitive verbs, such as पढ़ parh ‘read,’ लिख likh ‘write,’ ला la: ‘bring,’ दे de ‘give,’ ले le ‘take,’ and कर kar ‘do,’ take direct objects, and in the past tense they require their subjects must be marked with the ergative case markers agreeing with the object in gender and number.
3. Morphology

6. उमा ने किताब पढ़ी।
   *uma: ne kita:b parhi:.*
   Uma-erg book-fs read-fs
   Uma read a book.

7. अमर ने न्याय खरीदा।
   *amar ne axha:r xari:da:.*
   Amar-erg newspaper-ms bought-ms
   Amar bought a newspaper.

Some transitive verbs are derived from intransitives by certain vocalic changes to the verb roots.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intransitive</th>
<th>Transitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>मार</td>
<td>मार: मार:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>चाप</td>
<td>चाप: चाप:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>कात</td>
<td>कात: कात:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>गिर</td>
<td>गिर: गिर:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>पिस</td>
<td>पिस: पिस:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>बंद हुए</td>
<td>बंद हुए</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>उघ रहा</td>
<td>उघ रहा</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>जाग उठा</td>
<td>जाग उठा</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>फेल पलना</td>
<td>फेल पलना</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>दिख पड़ा</td>
<td>दिख पड़ा</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>बन बना</td>
<td>बन बना</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>पुल घुमा</td>
<td>पुल घुमा</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>दौड़ दौड़ा</td>
<td>दौड़ दौड़ा</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Intransitive</th>
<th>Transitive</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>टोट़ तोट़</td>
<td>टोट़ तोट़</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>विक बिक</td>
<td>विक बिक</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>फट फटी</td>
<td>फट फटी</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>सो सो</td>
<td>सो सो</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>बन बना</td>
<td>बन बना</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In certain cases besides vocalic changes, some consonantal changes also take place.
3. MORPHOLOGY

A few transitive verbs like बोल ‘to speak,’ समझ ‘to understand’ and भूल ‘to forget’ are sometimes used as intransitives and do not take an ergative case marker.

8. में बोला/ समझा/ भूला।
   में बोला/ / समझा/ / भूला.
   I said/ understood/ forgot.

3.4.2.3. Ditransitive Verbs

Some verbs like देना ‘to give,’ सुना ‘to tell,’ बेचना ‘to sell’ are called ditransitives. Ditransitives take three arguments, namely, subject, object, and indirect objects. Indirect objects are always marked in the dative. Other arguments follow the transitive pattern noted above.

9. अमर ने उमा को किताब दी।
   amar ne uma: ko kita:b di:.
   Amar gave a book to Uma.

10. उमा ने बच्चे को कहानी सुनाई।
    uma: ne bacce ko kaha:ni: su:na:i.:.
    Uma told a story to the child.

3.4.2.4. Causative Verbs

Causative verbs may be derived from transitive verbs by adding causative suffixes. They include the transitive verbs derived from intransitives. Causative verbs are, therefore, invariably transitive and take the same forms as other transitive verbs. There are two types of causative forms: causal I and causal II.

Causal I forms

Causal I verbs are formed by adding the causative suffix -a: to the transitive verb form. As a result of adding this suffix, certain morphophonemic changes take place.
(a) Consonant ending roots with short vowels remain unchanged.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transitive</th>
<th>Causal I</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>कर</td>
<td>करा: make x do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>सुन</td>
<td>सुना: make x tell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>अर्थ</td>
<td>अर्था: teach x</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b) The long vowels of the verb roots are shortened. The vowels ए /e/ and ए /i:/ change to ए /i/.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transitive</th>
<th>Causal I</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>देख</td>
<td>दिखा: show</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>सीख</td>
<td>सिखा: make x learn</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(c) The long vowel ending verb roots are shortened and the suffix -ला -la: instead of -आ-ā-, is added to derive the first causal forms. As a result of adding the causative suffix to the verb root, the vowels ए /e/ and ए /a:/ change to ए /i/, and ओ /o/ changes to /u/.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Transitive</th>
<th>Causal I</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>पी</td>
<td>पिला: make x drink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>सी</td>
<td>सिला: make x stitch</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>रा</td>
<td>र्हा: make x give</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>द पी</td>
<td>पिलवा: make x drink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ओ</td>
<td>ओ: make x wash</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

### Causal II

Causal II or extended causatives are formed by adding the causal II suffix -वा -va: to the verb roots.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Causal I</th>
<th>Causal II</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>सुना: tell</td>
<td>सुनवा sunva: cause x to tell</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>पर्हा: teach</td>
<td>पर्हवा parhva: cause x to teach y</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>उठा: lift</td>
<td>उठवा uthva: make x to lift</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>पिला: make x drink</td>
<td>पिलवा pilva: cause x to drink</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>आगा: awaken</td>
<td>आगवा jagva: cause to awaken</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>गुमा: move</td>
<td>गुमवा ghumva: cause x to move</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>धोरा: make x run</td>
<td>धोरवा dorva: cause x to run</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>विला: cause x give</td>
<td>विलवा dilva: cause x to give y</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. MORPHOLOGY

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>तिला खिला:</th>
<th>तिला खिल्ला:</th>
<th>कृ खर:</th>
<th>कृ खरवा:</th>
<th>खुला खुल्ला:</th>
<th>खुला खुल्ला:</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>feed</td>
<td>cause x to feed y</td>
<td>make</td>
<td>cause x to make</td>
<td>get done</td>
<td>cause x to do</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>खना बना:</td>
<td>खना बनवा:na</td>
<td>कर कर:</td>
<td>कर करवा:</td>
<td>खुला खुल्ला:</td>
<td>खुला खुल्ला:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>sell</td>
<td>cause x to make</td>
<td>get done</td>
<td>cause x to do</td>
<td>make x wash</td>
<td>cause x to wash</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>धुला:</td>
<td>धुलवा:</td>
<td>कर करवा:</td>
<td>कर करवा:</td>
<td>धुला धुल्ला:</td>
<td>धुला धुल्ला:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>wash</td>
<td>cause x to wash</td>
<td>get done</td>
<td>cause x to do</td>
<td>make x wash</td>
<td>cause x to wash</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(a) As a result of adding the causal II suffix to the transitive verb root, the vowel ओ /o/ changes to उ /u/.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>नोड टोर</th>
<th>ब्रेक</th>
<th>तुड़वा तुर्वा:</th>
<th>cause x to break</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>break</td>
<td></td>
<td>cause x to break</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(b) There are few irregular forms. In the following example, the causal suffix -वा -वा is added to the intransitive verb root बिक bik ‘sell’ instead of its transitive verb form बेच be:c:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>बेच बेच</th>
<th>बिक्वा:</th>
<th>बिक्वा:</th>
<th>cause x to sell</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>sell</td>
<td></td>
<td>cause x to sell</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

(c) In certain cases, the meanings of the first and second causals are the same as in करना करना: करवा:na: ‘to get done’ or धुलना धुलना: ‘to get washed.’

11. माँ ने बच्चे को दूध खिलाया।
   माँ: ne bace ko du:dh pila:ya:.
   mother-erg child to milk drink-caus-past
   The mother made the child drink milk.

11a. माँ ने बच्चे को नर्स से दूध खिलाया।
    माँ: ne bace ko nars se du:dh pilva:ya:.
    mother-er child to nurse by milk drink-cause
    The mother caused the child to drink milk from the nurse.

3.4.2.5. Dative Verbs

Most dative verbs fall into the stative-inchoative category of verbs. They represent a small class of verbs but are very frequently used. They can be derived by substituting the intransitive verbs हना hona: ‘to be,’ and आना a:na: ‘to come’ in place of करना karna: ‘to do’ in active/conjunct verbs as given below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Stative</th>
<th>Inchoative</th>
<th>Active</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>पसंद हना:</td>
<td>पसंद आना:</td>
<td>पसंद करना:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>pasand hona:</td>
<td>pasand a:na:</td>
<td>pasand karna:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. Morphology

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>याद होना</th>
<th>याद आना</th>
<th>याद करना</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>yaːd honaː</td>
<td>yaːd aːnaː</td>
<td>yaːd karnaː</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>पता होना</th>
<th>पता करना</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>pataː honaː</td>
<td>...</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

12. उसको यह किताब पसंद है।
   usko yeh kitaːb pasand he.
   he-dat this book like is
   He likes this book.

12a. उसको यह किताब पसंद आई।
    usko yeh kitaːb pasand aːiː.
    he-dat this book like came
    He liked this book.

12b. उसको यह किताब पसंद की।
    usne yeh kitaːb pasand kiː.
    he-erg this book like did
    He liked this book.

13. उसको सारी बात याद है।
    usko saːriː baːt yaːd he.
    he-dat all matter remember is
    He remembers the whole matter.

13a. उसको सारी बात याद आई।
    usko saːriː baːt yaːd aːiː.
    he-dat all matter remember came
    He remembered the whole matter.

13b. उसको सारी बात याद की।
    usne saːriː baːt yaːd kiː.
    he-erg all matter remember did
    He remembered the whole matter.

14. उसको यह बात पता है।
    usko yah baːt pataː he.
    he-dat this matter know be
    He knows this matter.
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14a. उसने यह बात पता की।
   usne yah ba:t pata: ki:.
   he-dat this matter find did
   He found out this thing.

3.4.2.6. Conjunct Verbs

A conjunct verb consists of a noun or an adjective and a verb, which takes all the verbal inflections. The verbs may be transitive or intransitive. The most frequent verbs used in conjunct verbal constructions are करना karna: ‘to do’ and होना hona: ‘to be.’ Other verbs used are देना dena: ‘to give,’ आना a:na: ‘to come,’ and लगना lagna: ‘to feel.’

15. मैंने अपना काम मारा किया।
   mēne apna: ka:m sama:pt kiya:.
   I-erg self’s work finish did
   I finished my work.

15a. यह काम मारा हुआ।
   yeh ka:m sama:pt hua:.
   this work finish be-past
   This work is done.

16. दरवाजा बंद करें।
   darva:za: band karo.
   door close do-imp
   Close the door.

16a. दरवाजा बंद हुआ।
   darva:za: band hua:.
   door close be-past
   The door was closed.

One class of conjunct verbs is formed by the combination of a noun and an intransitive verb, which requires the subject to be marked in the oblique case. This class includes psychological predicates such as गूसा आना gussa: a:na: ‘to be angry,’ पूरा लगना bhū:kh lagna: ‘to be hungry,’ प्यास लगना pya:s lagna:, ‘to be thirsty,’ तरस आना taras a:na: ‘to have pity.’ It also includes non-volitional verbs such as दिखाई देना dikha:i: dena: ‘to be seen.’
17. अमर को गृहा आया।
   *amar ko gussa: a:ya:.*
   Amar-dat anger came
   Amar was angry.

18. सुनिटा को भूख/ प्यास लगी।
   *suni:ta ko bhu:kh/pya:s lagi:.*
   Sunita-dat hunger/thirst struck
   Sunita was hungry/thirsty.

19. मोहन को गरीब पर तरस आया।
   *mohan ko gari:b par taras a:ya:.*
   Mohan-dat poor on pity came
   Mohan took pity on the poor.

20. उसको अंतर दिखाता नहीं।
    *usko antar dikhta: nahī:.*
    he-dat difference see-pte neg
    He is not able to see the difference.

### 3.4.2.7. Compound Verbs

Compound verbs in Hindi are combination of Verb 1 + Verb 2 (+ inflections). Whereas Verb 1 (also called main verb) expresses general meaning and occurs in its stem form, verb 2, which is called an explicator/operator, takes all the inflections. The explicators belong to a small group of verbs. The original meaning of the explicator is lost. They add certain aspectual values, such as completion of an action, benefaction, or intensification, to the main verb. The most frequent explicators are listed below with their actual meaning and the aspectual meanings they add to main verbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Explicators</th>
<th>Aspectual Values</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>आ a:</td>
<td>come</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>आ जा:</td>
<td>go</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ले ले</td>
<td>take</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>पड़ पर</td>
<td>fall</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>दे दे</td>
<td>give</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>आ जा:</td>
<td>go</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>हिल dā:1</td>
<td>throw</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>गोड़ चोर</td>
<td>release</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>change of state from within</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>change of state</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>action for or toward others</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>action for or towards self</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>change of state, suddenness</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>direction away, simple completion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>speed, recklessness, relief, completion</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>psychological separation, relief</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. MORPHOLOGY

| रख | put/keep | proactiveness, future use in view |
| बैठ | sit | action for or towards self |
| उठ | rise | action for or towards self |
| पहुँच | reach | action for completion, direction |
| चल | walk | direction away, completion |
| मर | die | completion, lack of control |
| मार | kill | change of state, suddenness |

Thus, a compound verb is made of two verbs, the first, the main verb which expresses its general meaning and, the second, an explicator/operator which is conjugated for different inflections. A large number of compound verbs are formed by the combination of verbs in which the first verb represents the meaning and the explicator takes all the grammatical inflections. Examples of such verbs are: आ जाना a: ja:na: ‘to come,’ फिल जाना mil ja:na: ‘to get,’ या लेना kha: lena: ‘to eat,’ या लेना pi: lena: ‘to drink,’ ले आना le a:na: ‘to bring,’ खरेद लेना xari:d lena: ‘to buy,’ चल देना cal dena: ‘to leave,’ कर बैठना kar bethna: ‘to do,’ कर डालना kar da:lna: ‘to do,’ कर छोड़ना kar chordna: ‘to do,’ के देना de dena: ‘to give.’

21. सबी बच्चे समय पर आ गए।
   sabhi: bacce samay par a: gaye.
   All the children came on time.

22. बच्चे ने सेब राख लिया।
   bacce ne seb kha: liya:.
   The child ate an apple.

23. वह मारे पेसे से गया।
   vah sa:re pese le gaya:.
   He took all the money.

24. उसने नई कार खरीद ली।
   usne nai: ka:r xari:d li:.
   He bought a new car.
25. मेरा अपना काम कर डाला।
    mēne apna: ka:m kar dāla:.
    I-erg self's work do threw
    I completed my work.

There are verbal phrases in which there are two or more inflexible verbs, such as पीता गया pi:ta gaya: ‘went on drinking,’ सुनता रहा sunta: raha: ‘kept on listing,’ सोया पड़ा रहा soya: para: raha: ‘remained sleeping,’ चला गया cala: gaya: ‘gone.’

26. वह सारी रात चाय पीता गया।
    vah sa:ri: ra:t ca:y pi:ta: gaya:.
    he all night tea drink-ptc went-ms
    He kept on drinking tea throughout the night.

27. वह मेरी बात में सुनता रहा।
    vah meri: ba:t dhya:n se sunta: raha:.
    he my talk attention with listened-ptc remained-ms
    He kept on listening to my story with attention.

28. वह सारा दिन सोया पड़ा रहा।
    vah sa:ra: din soya: para: raha:.
    he whole day slept fell remained-ms
    He kept on sleeping for the whole day.

3.4.3. Tense

Tense and aspect are major grammatical categories of the verbal system in Hindi. There are three grammatical aspects: habitual, progressive, and perfective. Each of them is expressed by marking the verbal stems.

Hindi has six tenses: present, past, future, present perfect, habitual past, and past perfect. The present tense represents an ongoing action, a habitual, repeated or characteristic action, or simply expresses a fact.

1. अमर घर जा रहा है।
    amar ghar ja: raha: he.
    Amar home go-prog is
    Amar is going home.
2. वह कॉलेज में पढ़ता है।
   *vah ka:lej mē parhta: he.*
   He college in study-pre-hab. be
   He studies in college.

The verb in (1) is in the progressive aspect and in (2) in the habitual aspect.

The past tense represents an ongoing action or an action completed in the past.

3. अमर दिल्ली जा रहा था।
   *amar dilli: ja: raha: tha:.*
   Amar Delhi-obl go-prog was
   Amar was going to Delhi.

The verb in (3) is in the progressive aspect and in (4) is in the perfect aspect.

The future tense represents an action yet to take place or a state yet to come into being.

4. उसने अखबार पढ़ा।
   *usne axba:r parha:.*
   he-erg newspaper read-perf
   He read the newspaper.

The future tense represents an action yet to take place or a state yet to come into being.

5. उमा कल दिल्ली जाएगी।
   *uma: kal dilli: ja:egi:.*
   Uma tomorrow Delhi-obl go-fut
   Uma will go to Delhi tomorrow.

The present perfect tense represents a completed act the effect of which is still present.

6. उसने यह जगह देखी है।
   *usne yah jagah dekhi: he.*
   he-erg this place see-perf be
   He has seen this place.
The habitual past tense represents an act habitually done in the past.

7. वह हमेशा मेहनत करता था।
   vah hameṣa: mehnat karta: tha:.
   he always hard work do-hab be-past
   He always used to work hard.

The past perfect tense represents an action completed in the past or before a certain past time.

8. अमर परसों सवेरे आया था।
   amar parsō savere a:ya: tha:.
   Amar day before yesterday morning-obl came be-past
   Amar had come the day before yesterday in the morning.

3.4.4. Aspect

Verbal forms indicating one of these aspects are specified for one of the four tenses: present, past, presumptive, and subjunctive. The combination of one of the three aspects with the four different tenses results in the production of various aspectual-tenses: present-habitual, past-habitual, presumptive-habitual, subjunctive-habitual, present-progressive, past-progressive, presumptive-progressive, subjunctive-progressive, present-perfective, past-perfective, presumptive-perfective, and subjunctive-perfective. It also permits the simple-perfective form. Besides these aspectual verb forms, some non-aspectual verb forms of Hindi are the future, root subjunctive, and the imperative and infinitive forms. They will be discussed separately.

3.4.4.1. Habitual Aspect

The habitual aspectual-tenses are formed by adding the following suffixes to the verb stems agreeing with the subject in gender and number:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg</td>
<td>Pl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg / Pl</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-ता -ta:</td>
<td>-ते -te</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
3. MORPHOLOGY

They are followed by appropriate forms of the auxiliary verb होना hona:. Present and past habitual forms are used to express habitual actions or the state of affairs viewed from the perspective of the present and the past respectively.

**Present-habitual**

1. मैं घर गए आता/आती हूँ।
\
   \(\text{mē ghar roz a:ta:a:ti: hū:}.\)
\
   I home daily come-pte-ms/-fs be
   I come home daily.

2. हम घर गए आते /आती हैं।
\
   \(\text{ham ghar roz a:te:a:ti: hē}.\)
\
   we home daily come-pte-mp/-fp be
   We come home daily.

3. तू घर गए आता/आती है।
\
   \(\text{tu: ghar roz ja:ta:ja:ti: hē}.\)
\
   you home daily go-pte-ms/go-fs be
   You go home daily.

4. तुम घर गए आते /आती है।
\
   \(\text{tum ghar roz ja:te:ja:ti: ho}.\)
\
   you home daily go-pte-mp/go-fs be
   You go home daily.

5. आप घर गए आते/आती है।
\
   \(\text{a:p ghar roz ja:te:ja:ti: hē}.\)
\
   you home daily go-m/go-f be
   You go home daily.

6. यह/यह शहर जाता/आती है।
\
   \(\text{yah/vah šahar ja:ta:ja:ti: hē}.\)
\
   (s)he city go-pte-ms/go-fs be
   He/she goes to the city.

7. वे शहर जाते/आती हैं।
\
   \(\text{ve šahar ja:te:ja:ti: hē}.\)
\
   they city go-pte-mp/go-f be
   He/she/they goes/goes/go to the city.
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**Past-habitual**

8. मैं राज बाजार जाता था /जाती थी।
   *mē roz ba:za:r ja:ta: tha:/ja:ti: thi:.*
   I daily market go-ptc-ms was /go-fs was
   I used to go to the market daily.

9. तू राज बाजार जाता था/ जाती थी।
   you daily market go-ptc-ms was/go-ptc-fs was
   You used to go to the market daily.

10. तू/ आप राज दफ्तर जाते थे/जाती थी।
    *tum/a:p roz daftar ja:te the/ja:ti: thi:.*
    you-fam/you-hon daily office go-ptc-ms were/go-ptc-fs were
    You used to go to the office daily.

11. वह मंगे गाँव जाता था/ जाती थी।
    he/she morning-abl village go-ptc-ms was/go-ptc-fs was
    He/She used to go to the village in the morning.

12. वे आम को गाँव जाते थे / जाती थी।
    *ve sa:m ko ga:ũ: ja:te the/ja:ti: thi:.*
    they evening-dat at village go-ptc-ms was/go-ptc-fs was
    They used to go to the village in the evening.

Present-habitual in conjunction with the adverb अभी abhi: ‘right away’ indicates that an action is to be carried out in the near future.

13. मैं अभी जाता हूँ।
    *mē abhi: ja:ta: hũ:.*
    I right away go-ptc.ms am
    I’ll go right away.

In the negative construction of the present-habitual form, the present form of the verb होना hona: is usually deleted.

14. वह मुक्त चाय नहीं पीता।
    *vah subah ca:y nahi: pi:ta:.*
    he morning-abl tea neg drink-ptc.ms
    He doesn’t drink tea in the morning.
3. MORPHOLOGY

Past-habitual also indicates that an action has taken place in remote past.

15. उमा होटल में गाना गानी थी।
   \[ \text{uma: hōṭal mē gaːnaː gaːːtiː thːiː.} \]
   Uma hotel in song sing-ptc was
   Uma used to sing at the hotel.

**Presumptive-habitual**
Presumptive-habitual forms are used to indicate that an action or state of affairs is both habitual and presumed, but not known definitely.

16. मे आता है|आती हैं|.
   \[ mēː aːtā hāːɿː aːtī hāːɿːː. \]
   I come-ms be-pre.hab/ go-fs be-pre.hab.
   I would be coming.

17. हम आते होगा|आती होगी|.
   \[ hamː aːte hōɡːaː aːtī hōɡːiː. \]
   We would be coming.

18. तु|वह|आते होगा|आती होगी|.
   \[ tuːː vahː aːtā hōɡːaː aːtī hōɡːiː. \]
   You/he would be coming.

19. तुम|आप|वे|आते होंगे|आती होंगी|.
   \[ tumːː aːpːː vēː aːte hōɡːeː aːtī hōɡːiː. \]
   You/they would be coming.

**Subjunctive-habitual**
Subjunctive-habitual forms are used to indicate actions that are both habitual and hypothetical, contingent, or speculative, but not directly guaranteed to take place.

20. मे चाहता हूँ|वह|आए|.
   \[ mēː caːhːaː hūː vahː aːyː. \]
   I want him/her to come.
21. मेरी इच्छा है आप यह किताब पढ़े।
   *meri: iccha: hē a:p yeh kita:b parhē.*
   I want you to read this book.

22. वह घर पर काम करता था/ करती थी।
   *vah ghar par kā:m karta: tha: /karti: thi:.*
   He/she home at work do-ms/do-fs was
   He/she used to work at home.

3.4.4.2. Progressive Aspect

Progressive aspect verbs are formed by adding the following auxiliary forms immediately after the verb stems and appropriate forms of the verb *hona:* 'to be' and they agree with the person, gender, and number of the subject of the verb:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg</td>
<td>Pl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>रहा</td>
<td>रही</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>रहा:</td>
<td>रही:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The progressive aspect is used to indicate actions or states of affairs of a continuous nature or extended through time. There are two primary categories: present-progressive and past-progressive.

**Present-progressive**

23. मे घर जा रहा/ जा रही है।
   *mē ghar ja: raha: /ja: rahi: hē:.*
   I home go-prog-ms/ go-prog-fs am
   I am going home.

24. हम/वे घर जा रहे/ जा रही है।
   *ham/ve ghar ja: rahe/ ja rahi: hē.*
   we/they home go-prog-mpl/-prog-fpl be-pl
   We/they are going home.

25. तू कॉलेज में आ रहा है/ रही है।
   you-fam/he/she college from come-prog-ms/-prog-fs be-sg
   You are coming from the college.
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26. तुम खाना खा रहे/रही हो।
   You are eating food.

27. आप/वे चाय पी रहे हैं।
   a:p/ve ca:y pi: rahe hē.
   You /they are drinking tea.

**Past-progressive**

28. मैं गाया था/रही थी।
   mē ga: raha: tha:/rahi: thi:.
   I was singing.

29. तुम इताली खाए/खाते थे/रही थी।
   tu: seb kha: raha: tha:/rahi: thi:.
   You were eating an apple.

30. तुम किताब पढ़ रहे थे /रही थी।
   tum kita:b parh rahe/rahi: ho.
   You are reading a book.

31. आप पत्र लिख रहे थे।
   a:p patr likh rahe the.
   You were writing a letter.

**Presumptive-progressive**

Presumptive-progressive forms are used to indicate that an action or state of affairs is extended in time and presumed to be occurring.

32. उमा दिल्ली से आ रही होगी।
   uma: dilli: se a: rahi: hogi:.
   Uma must be coming from Delhi.
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Subjunctive-progressive
33. सम्भव है वह जा रहा हो।
   sambhav he vah ja: raha: ho.
   possible is he go-prog be-subj
   It is possible he would be going.

34. मुम्किन है वे आ रहे हों।
   mumkin he va: rahe hõ.
   possible is they come-prog be-subj
   It is possible they would be coming.

3.4.4.3. Perfective Aspect

Perfective aspect indicates an action or state of affairs that has been completed. There are five sets of perfective forms in Hindi: simple-perfective, present-perfective, past-perfective, presumptive-perfective and subjunctive-perfective. The following perfect participle suffixes are added to the main verb stems. In constructions with intransitive verbs, they agree with the subject in gender and number. In constructions with transitive verbs, they agree with the object’s gender and number.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg</td>
<td>Pl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-आ -a:</td>
<td>-ए -e</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

These suffixes are added to both intransitive and transitive verbs.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sg</td>
<td>Pl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>गिर</td>
<td>गिरा</td>
<td>गिर</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>गिरा</td>
<td>गिरे</td>
<td>गिरी</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>वाल</td>
<td>वाला</td>
<td>वाल</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>वाला</td>
<td>वाले</td>
<td>वाली</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>पढ़</td>
<td>पढ़ा</td>
<td>पढ़</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>पढ़ा</td>
<td>पढ़े</td>
<td>पढ़ी</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>लिख</td>
<td>लिखा</td>
<td>लिख</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>लिखा</td>
<td>लिखे</td>
<td>लिखी</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In vowel-ending verb stems, the glide -य y is inserted before the masculine singular ending -आ -a: is added to the verb stem.
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<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sg</td>
<td>Pl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>शा शा:</td>
<td>शा शा: शा:</td>
<td>शा शा: शा:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>फा फा:</td>
<td>फा फा: फा:</td>
<td>फा फा: फा:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Notice that the verbs शा शा ‘sleep’ and फा फा ‘sew’ have alternate feminine plural forms; the verb फा फा ‘row’ has the feminine plural form with inserted य glide; the verb फा फा ‘go’ has an irregular past perfective form.

Some transitive verbs have irregular perfective participle forms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sg</td>
<td>Pl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>कर लार</td>
<td>कर लार के</td>
<td>कर लार के</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ले लार</td>
<td>ले लार ले</td>
<td>ले लार ले</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>दे दीर</td>
<td>दे दीर दी</td>
<td>दे दीर दी</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

**Simple-perfective**
The simple-perfective form appears without verbal auxiliaries.

35. लार्का/लार्की घर गया/ गई।
   larka:/larki: ghar ga:ya:/ ga:yi:.
   boy/girl home went-ms/went-fs
   The boy/girl went home.

36. मैं /उसने/ उसकी तस्वीर देखी।
   mënë /hamne/usne/unhône tasi:v:re dekhi:.
   I-erg/we-erg/(s)he-erg/they-erg picture-fs saw-fs
   I/we/(s)he/they saw the picture.

**Present-perfective**

37. मैं कोलकाता गया हूँ।
   mën kolkata: gaya: hù:.

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I Kolkata went be-pre
I have gone to Kolkata.

38. । mēne/ hamne/ unhōne kolkata: dekha: he.
I-erg/we-erg/they-erg Kolkata see-perf be-pre
I/we/they have seen Kolkata.

**Past-perfective**

39. । mē/tu:/vah ba:za:r gaya: tha:
I/you(s)he market went-perf be-past
I/you(s)he had gone to the market.

40. । mēne/ tumne/ unhõne kha:na: kha:ya: tha:
I-erg/you-erg/(s)he-erg/they-erg food eat-perf be-past
I/ you/(s)he/they had eaten the food.

**Presumptive-perfective**

41. । vah kal dilli: gaya: ho.
he tomorrow Delhi went be-subj.perf
He would have gone to Delhi tomorrow.

42. । usne kal yah kita:b parhi: hogi:.
he-erg tomorrow this book read-fs be-subj.perf
He would have read this book tomorrow.

**Subjunctive-perfective**

43. । vah a:ya: ho.
he came be-subj.perf
He might have come.

44. । patte per se gire hō.
leaves tree from fell be-subj.perf
The leaves may have fallen from the tree.
3.4.5. Mood

In Hindi there are three moods: indicative, imperative, and optative.

3.4.5.1. Indicative Mood

The indicative represents the action as a fact or makes a query about it. The verb can be used in habitual (hab), progressive (prog), or perfective (perf) aspects. The present and past participle forms of these verbs have been explained above. The following aspectual marks are added to the verb stem bol ‘say’ in the indicative mood.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>Sg</td>
<td>Pl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Habitual</td>
<td>बोलता</td>
<td>बोलतो</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bolta:</td>
<td>bolte</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Progressive</td>
<td>बोल रहा</td>
<td>बोल रहे</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bol raha:</td>
<td>bol rahe</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Perfective</td>
<td>बोला</td>
<td>बोली</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td></td>
<td>bola:</td>
<td>bole</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The above paradigm shows the agreement of indicative mood with gender and number.

3.4.5.2. Imperative Mood

The imperative expresses an action as a command, a request, a warning, a prohibition, etc. The imperative is restricted to the future and cannot refer to the present or past tenses. Since the imperative denotes a command, request, etc., its proper domain is the second person. Indirect commands or requests made to a third person are expressed by the subjunctive form. In imperative constructions, the subject is omitted and can be guessed from both the context and the form of the verb. The verb agrees with the second person subject which has three second person pronominal forms: (i) intimate, (ii) familiar, and (iii) polite.

The intimate imperative forms are used in issuing orders/commands for those who are usually addressed with the intimate second person pronoun ूँ tu: ‘you.’ The familiar imperatives are used in issuing commands to all those who are normally addressed by the familiar
Second Person pronoun तू tum ‘you.’ Polite imperatives are used for making requests to those who are normally addressed by the second person pronoun आप a:p ‘you.’

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Verb</th>
<th>Intimate</th>
<th>Familiar</th>
<th>Polite</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>आ आ:</td>
<td>come a:</td>
<td>आआ आऽ</td>
<td>आआए a:iye</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>जा ja:</td>
<td>go ja:</td>
<td>जाओ ja:o</td>
<td>जाए ja:iye</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>या kha:</td>
<td>eat kha:</td>
<td>याओ kha:o</td>
<td>याए kha:iye</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>पढ़ parh</td>
<td>read parh</td>
<td>पढ़ो parho</td>
<td>पढ़िए parhiye</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>लिख likh</td>
<td>write likh</td>
<td>लिखो likho</td>
<td>लिखिए likhiye</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>खरेड़ xari:d</td>
<td>buy xari:d</td>
<td>खरेड़ xari:do</td>
<td>खरेड़ए xari:diye</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the above, the intimate forms are the same as the verb stem forms; in familiar forms, -ाऽ -o is added to the verb stem form and in polite forms -ए -iye is added.

1. (तु:) आ / जा / पढ़ / लिख / खरेड़।
   (tu:) a:/ ja:/ kha: / parh / likh / xari:d
   you-intimate come/go/eat/read/write/buy
   Come/go/eat/read/write/buy.

1a. (तुम) आआ / जाओ / पढ़ो / लिखो / खरेड़ो।
   (tum) a:o/ja:o/kha:o / parho / likho / xari:do
   you-familiar come/go/eat/read/write/buy
   Come/go/eat/read/write/buy.

1b. (आप) आआए / जाए / पढ़िए / लिखिए / खरेड़िए।
   (you-polite) come/go/read/write/buy
   Please come/go/eat/read/write/buy

A few verbs have irregular familiar and polite forms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>दे de</th>
<th>दे de</th>
<th>दो do</th>
<th>देजिए di:jiye</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>ले le</td>
<td>ले le</td>
<td>लो lo</td>
<td>लेजिए li:jiye</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>कर kar</td>
<td>कर kar</td>
<td>करो karo</td>
<td>करिए kariye / करिए ki:jiye</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the above forms, - ओ -o is added to the vowel-ending verb stems in the intimate form and the stem vowel is elided. The suffix -ए -iye is added in the polite form and the stem vowel is elided. The
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verb कर "do" has an alternate form करिये "do" in its polite form, as well.

2. (तु:) दे / ले / कर
   (tu:) de/le/kar
   (you-familiar.sg) give/take/do

2a. (तुम) दो / लो / करो
   (tum) do/lo/karo
   (you-familiar.pl) give/take/do

2b. (आप) कर्निये / करनिये / करिये
   (a:p) di:jiye/li:jiye/ki:jiye
   (polite) give/take/do

The operators take the same imperative forms in the compound verb constructions.

3. यह किताब ले लो।
   yah kita:b le lo.
   this book take-explicator
   Take this book.

3a. यह किताब ले लिये।
   yah kita:b le li:jiye.
   this book take explicator-polite
   Please take this book.

4. दरवाजा बंद कर लो।
   darva:za: band kar lo.
   door close do take-explicator-familiar
   Close the door.

4a. दरवाजा बंद कर लिये।
   door close do take-explicator-polite
   Please close the door.

In negative or prohibitive imperative constructions, the negative markers ना /नहीं ‘no’ may precede the verb in the infinitive form.
However, it is optional with the use of prohibitive morpheme *mat* ‘don’t.’

5. दवाई मत / न / नहीं खाना / या लेना।
   *dava:i* *mat/* *na/* *nahI: kha:na:/* *kha: lena:.*
   medicine neg eat-inf./eat take-inf
   Don’t take medicine.

5a. दवाई मत या लेंजिए।
   *dava:i* *mat kha:* *li:jiye.*
   medicine neg eat take-inf.
   Don’t take medicine.

3.4.5.3. Subjunctive Mood

The subjunctive forms are formed by adding certain suffixes to the verb stems that agree with the subjects in person and number, e.g.,

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>Sg</th>
<th>Pl</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>1st person</td>
<td>-ẽ -ẽ</td>
<td>-ẽ -ẽ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd person (familiar)</td>
<td>-ẽ -ẽ</td>
<td>-ẽ -ẽ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>2nd person (polite)</td>
<td>-ẽ -ẽ</td>
<td>-ẽ -ẽ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>3rd person</td>
<td>-ẽ -ẽ</td>
<td>-ẽ -ẽ</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The subjunctive forms of the verb हेना *hona:* ‘to be’ have been given in 3.4.1.(d). Here we will illustrate the subjunctive forms of a few other verbs.

6. मैं जाऊँ / करूँ / पढ़ूँ।
   *mē ja:ũ*/ *karũ:*/* parhũ:*
   I go-subj /do-subj /read-subj

6a. हम जाएँ / करें / पढ़ें।
   *ham ja:e*/* karẽ/ parhẽ*
   we go-subj /do-subj /read-subj

6b. तू जाएँ / करे / पढ़े।
   *tu: ja:e*/* kare/ parhe*
   you go-subj /do-subj /read-subj
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6c. 

\text{tum ja:o/krao/p\dot{zh}o}.
\begin{align*}
\text{you go-subj/do-subj/read-subj}
\end{align*}

6d. 

\text{aap ja:é/karé/parhé}.
\begin{align*}
\text{you go-subj/do-subj/read-subj}
\end{align*}

6e. 

\text{vah a:e/kare/parhe}.
\begin{align*}
\text{he come-subj/do-subj/read-subj}
\end{align*}

6f. 

\text{ve a:é/karé/parhé}.
\begin{align*}
\text{they come-subj/do-subj/read-subj}
\end{align*}

The stem final vowels -\text{i:} and -\text{u:}, as in \text{pi:} ‘drink,’ and \text{chu:} ‘touch,’ are shortened in length as -\text{i} and -\text{u} before the subjunctive verb suffixes are added to them.

7. 

\text{mě pié/chué:}.
\begin{align*}
\text{I drink-subj/touch-subj}
\end{align*}

7a. 

\text{ham pié/chué}.
\begin{align*}
\text{we drink-subj/touch-subj}
\end{align*}

7b. 

\text{tu: pié/chue}.
\begin{align*}
\text{you drink-subj/touch-subj}
\end{align*}

7c. 

\text{tum pio/chuo}.
\begin{align*}
\text{you drink-subj/touch-subj}
\end{align*}

7d. 

\text{a:p pié/chué}.
\begin{align*}
\text{you drink-subj/touch-subj}
\end{align*}
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7e. वह फिरे / झुए।
vah pie/chue
he drink-subj/touch-subj

7f. वे फिरे / झुए।
ve pië/chuë
they drink-subj/touch-subj

3.4.6. Voice

The verbal stem can also be used to indicate the passive voice. It indicates the subject of a verb in the passive voice and it has agreement of number, person, and gender.

1. उमा ने पत्र न लिखा गया।
   uma: se patr na likha: gaya:.
   Uma by letter neg write-pass
   Uma couldn’t write a letter.

2. उसमें बह गया।
   us-se cala: na gaya:.
   she-by walk neg be able
   She couldn’t walk.

3. उसमें यह काम नहीं हो सकता।
   us-se yah ka:m nahi: ho sakta:
   she-by this work neg be able-model
   She would not be able to do this work.

4. मुझे किताब फिर गई।
   mujh-se kita:b gir gayi:.
   me-by book fell down
   The book fell from my hands.

5. उसमें आई टुट गया।
   us-se a:yi:na: tu:t gaya:.
   she-by mirror break explicator
   The mirror was broken by her.
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6. पुराने अखबारों को फेंका गया।
   purane akhbaarokefeka gayaa.
   old newspapers-obl dat thrown explicator
   The old newspapers were thrown away.

   It can also be used to express ‘from’ or ‘through’

7. मुझे अंग्रेजी पढ़ लो।
   mujhe angrezi parh lo.
   me-from English learn explicator
   Learn English from me.

   It is used with the indirect objects of verbs meaning ‘to tell, say, ask, ask for, beg, demand, claim, request,’

8. उसने उसे से कहा कि …
   usne uma se kaha ki …
   he-erg Uma said that
   He told Uma that …

9. उसने मुझे पूछा कि …
   uma ne mujhe puucha ki …
   Uma er me-obl from asked
   Uma asked me …

10. अमित ने उसे प्रार्थना की
    amit ne us-se prarthana ki:
    Amit-erg him/her request made
    Amit requested him/her.

3.4.7. Non-finite Verb Forms

We have discussed various finite verbal forms under tense, aspect, mood, and voice above. We will now discuss the non-finite forms of verbs which include infinitives and participles.

3.4.7.1. Infinitives

Infinitives are formed by adding the suffix -ना -na: to the verb stems:
   आना aana: ‘to come,’ जाना jaana: ‘to go,’ करना karna: ‘to do,’ लिखना likhna: ‘to write,’ etc. Infinitives are used both as nouns and as
adjectives. An infinitive is usually an abstract noun and, being an abstract noun, it is not used in the plural.

1. 
   जल्दी सोना ठीक है।
   *jaldi: sona: thi:kh he.*
   early sleep-inf good is
   It is good to go to sleep early.

2. 
   उसके आने में देर हुई।
   *uske a:ne mē der hui:.*
   he-gen-obl come-inf-obl in late be-fsg
   He/she arrived late.

3. 
   मैं उसे जाने में रोका।
   *mēne use ja:ne se roka:.*
   I-erg he-dat go-inf-obl from stop-pst
   I stopped him from going.

Despite being a noun, the infinite can take an object.

4. 
   वह काम करने में तेज़ है।
   *vah ka:m karne mē tez he.*
   he work do-inf-obl in fast is
   He is prompt in (his) work.

The postposition को 'to' is not added when the infinitive is used as an object.

5. 
   वह किताब लाना भूल गया।
   *vah kita:b la:na: bu:l gaya:.*
   he book bring-inf forget go-operator-pst
   He forgot to bring the book.

6. 
   मैं उन्हें देखने जाऊँगा।
   *mē use milne ja:ũ:ga:.*
   I him-obl meet-inf-obl go-fut
   I will go to see him.

Infinitives are frequently used as adjectives in combination with verbs denoting obligation, necessity, requirement, or compulsion like चाह ca:h ‘want,’ है ho ‘be,’ and पर par ‘compulsion.' The
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compounds made are passive in meaning.

7. मैं चाय पीना चाहता हूँ।
   *mē ca:y pi:na: cahta: hū:*
   I tea drink-inf want-ptc am
   I want to drink tea.

8. मुझे दिल्ली जाना पड़ा।
   *mujhe dilli: ja:na: para:*
   I-dat Delhi go-inf fell(explicator)
   I had to go to Delhi.

9. उसे काम आने तक सफल करना था।
   *use ka:m ša:m tak sama:pt karna: tha:*
   he-obl work evening up to finish do-inf be-past-obligatory
   He had to finish the work by evening.

   When an infinitive is transitive, it is used as an adjective for its object and changes its ending -ना -na: to -नी -ni: or -ने -ne.

10. उसे पैसे लाने हैं।
    *use pēse la:ne hē:*
    he-obl money bring-inf-obl-pl be-obligatory
    He has to bring money.

11. उसे / उसको दवा पीना पड़ीं।
    *use/usko dava:i: pi:ni: paregi:*
    he-obl tea medicine drink-inf-fs necessary-fut
    He has to drink medicine.

12. मैं उसकी मदद करनी चाहै।
    *umēne uski: madad karni: ca:hi:*
    I-erg his/her help-f. do-inf.f.s want-fs
    I wanted to help him/her.

3.4.7.2. Participles

Participles in Hindi are largely verbal in nature and function as adjectives and adverbs. They are of two types: imperfective and perfective. Whereas imperfective participles represent incomplete or unfinished activities, perfective participles designate completed
verbal activities.

3.4.7.2.1. Imperfective Participles

When used adjectivally, imperfective participles are formed by adding the suffixes -ta: (ms), -te (mp), -tī (fs), and -tī: (fp) that are made to agree with the noun in gender and number. Adjectival imperfective participles are expanded with one of the simple perfective forms of होना hona: ‘to be,’ like हुआ hua: (ms), and हुई hue (p), and हुई hui: (fs).

1. दौड़ते हुए आदमी रुक गया।
   
dörta: hua: a:dmi: ruk gaya:.
   
run-imp.ptc be-ms man stop went
   
The running man stopped.

2. दौड़ते हुए बच्चे जोर कर रहे हैं।
   
dört hue bacce šor kar rahe hē:
   
run-imp.ptc be-mp children noise do-prog.asp are
   
The running children are making noise.

3. चलती हुई बस रुक गई।
   
calti: hui: bas ruk gai:
   
move-imp.ptc-fs bus stop went
   
The moving bus stopped.

When used adverbially, the suffix -te is added to the verb stem and is followed by हुए hue.

4. दफ्तर से लौटते हुए मैंने फल खरीदी।
   
daftar se lōtte hue mēnē phal khari:de.
   
office from return-while I-erg fruit bought
   
I bought fruit while returning from the office.

5. बच्चे स्कूल जाते हुए गये रहे थे।
   
bacce sku:la:tee hue ga: rahe the.
   
children school go-while sing-prog.asp were
   
The children were singing songs while going to school.
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Adverbia imperfective participles may be reduplicated.

6. वह पैदल चलते - चलते थक गया।
   vah pedal calte-calte thak gaya:
   he on foot walk-pte walk-pte tired went
   He was tired of walking on foot.

7. वह छल मे गिरते - गिरते बढ गया।
   vah chat se girte-girte bac gaya:
   he roof from fall-pte-fall-pte save went
   He almost fell from the roof.

Adverbia imperfective participles are used with different time expressions.

8. वह घर जाते समय मतूर था।
   vah ghar ja:te samay ma:yu:s tha:
   he home go-pte time sad was
   He was sad when it was time to go home.

3.4.7.2.2. Perfective Participles

Perfective participles are formed by adding the adjectival suffixes -आ -a:, -े -e, and -ई -i: to verb stems agreeing with the noun in person, gender, and number. A few perfective stems are irregular. Perfective participles represent a verbal activity carried through to completion. Perfective participles may be employed either adjectivally or adverbially. The adjectival participles are expanded with the forms of हुआ hua:, हुए hue, and हुई hui: that agree with the modified noun in person, gender, and number.

9. बेटा (हुआ) लड़का
   betha: (hua:) larka:
   the sitting (i.e., seated) boy

9a. बेटे (हुए) लड़के
    bethe (hue) larke
    the sitting boys
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9b. बेठी (हूं) लड़की लड़कियों

| ba | O | z | lark| | larkiyā |

The sitting girl/girls

The adjectival participles may precede or follow the noun they qualify.

10a. कमीज़ फुली (हूं) है।

| kmai | z | dhuli | (hui) | | he |

shirt washed (perf- ptc) is

The shirt is washed.

10b. फुली (हूं) कमीज़ अलमारी में है।

| dhuli | (hui) | kmai | z | alma:ri | mē | he |

washed (ptc) shirt almira: in is

The washed shirt is in almira:.

There are two types of adverbial participles. In one type, the invariable suffix –ए -e is employed.

11. छत पर बेठे हुए वह गया था।

| chat | par | be:the | hue | vah | ga: | raha: | tha |

roof at sitting-perf.p tc he sing-prog was

He was singing while sitting on the roof.

In the other type, the adverbial participle uses the adjectival suffixes –आ -a:,- ए -e, and –ई -i:.

12. नई कमीज़ पहनी हुई रमा बाजार जा रही थी।

| nai: | kmai | z | pahni | hui: | rama: | baza: | r ja: | rahi: | thi |

new shirt wear-perf.p tc Rama market go-prog was

Wearing a new shirt, Rama was going to market.

The perfective adverbial participles are frequently reduplicated.

13. वह घर पर बेठे - बेठे थक गया।

| vah | ghar | par | be:the | be:the | thak | gaya |

he home at sitting-perf.p tc tired went(explicator)

He was tired of sitting at home.
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The perfective participles are used to indicate the passing of time.

14. अमर को अमरीका में आए हुए दो मास गए हैं।
   Amar-dat America from came-perf.ptc two years elapsed are
   It has been two years since Amar came from America.

3.4.7.2.3. Conjunctive Participles

Conjunctive participles are used to form sentences in which two verbal activities share the same subject and one of the activities is a temporal antecedent of the other. In this construction, the verb of the first clause is used in the verb stem form and is immediately followed by *kar*, while the verb of the subsequent clause takes all the conjugation markers.

15. वह घर पहुँचकर बाजार गया।
   *vah ghar pahūckar ba:za:r gaya:.*
   he home reach after-cp market went
   He went to the market after coming home.

16. उसने अख़बार पढ़कर चिट्ठी लिखी।
   *usne axba:r parh kar citthi: likhi:.*
   he-erg newspaper read after-cp letter-fs wrote-fs
   He wrote a letter after reading the newspaper.

If the verb करना *karna:* ‘to do’ appears in the main clause either independently or as a part of a compound, the form *ke* is used in place of कर *kar*.

17. दफ्तर का काम मार्गत करके वह घर गया।
   *daftar ka: ka:m sama:pt karke vah ghar gaya:* 
   office of work finish do-cp he home went
   He went home after finishing the office work.
   Sometimes the conjunctive clauses are used in the adverbial sense.

18. अमर दौड़कर आया।
   *amar dɔ: kar a:ya:.*
   Amar run do-cp came
   Amar came running.
39. Uma smile do-ct said
   Uma said smilingly …

The conjunctive participle marker *kar* is also used in certain fixed
expressions.

20. I especially do-ct Amar with met
   I especially met Amar.

21. He came via Delhi.

22. All the students came one by one.

3.5. Adverbs

An adverb may precede an adjective, a verb, and sometimes another
adverb as a qualifier or modifier.

*Preceding an adjective*

1. He is my very good friend.
   *vah mera: bahut accha: dost hE.*

*Preceding a verb*

2. My friend comes daily.
   *mera: dost roz a:ta: hE.*
3. Morphology

Preceding another adverb
3. वह कल बहुत तेज दौड़ा।
   vah kal bahut tez dørha:
   he yesterday very fast ran
   He ran very fast yesterday.

3.5.1. Types of Adverbs

Adverbs can be classified by form or function. By function, adverbs can be grouped into the following subclasses.

(a) Adverbs of time/duration: आज a:j ‘today,’ कल kal ‘yesterday,’ गुरु subah ‘morning.’

(b) Adverbs of place or direction: अंदर andar ‘in/inside,’ बाहर ba:har ‘out/outside.’

(c) Adverbs of manner: असानी में a:sa:ni: se ‘easily,’ धीर-धीर dhi:re-dhi:re ‘slowly.’

(d) Adverbs of reason: गरीबी के कारण gari:bi: ke ka:ran ‘for the reason of poverty,’ कमजोरी के कारण kamzori: ke ka:ran ‘for the reason of weakness.’

(e) Adverbs of instrument: कलम में kalam se ‘with pen,’ चाँद ca:ku: se ‘with knife.’

(f) Adverbs of purpose: पढ़ने के लिए parhnē ke liye ‘for reading,’ काम के लिए ka:m ke liye ‘for work.’

(g) Comitative: X -के साथ -ke sa:th ‘with/ in the company of X,’ and


By form, adverbs can be classified into the following subgroups: (a) basic or non-derived adverbs, (b) derived adverbs, (c) phrasal adverbs, (d) reduplicated adverbs, and (e) particles.
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(a) The basic or non-derived adverbs may be either pure adverbs like आज *a:j* ‘today,’ सदा *sada:* / हमेशा *hameša:* ‘always,’ or may be formed by adding the postposition *se* to nouns, adjectives, or adverbs.

4. वह हमेशा अच्छी मेहनत करता है।
   *vah hameša: acchi: mehnat karta: he.*
   he always good hard work do-pte is
   He always works very hard.

5. उसने अपना काम खुशी से किया।
   *usne apna: ka:m khuši: se kiya:.*
   she-erg own work happiness with did
   She did her work very happily.

6. नीचे से ऊपर अच्छा दिखता है।
   *ni:ce se u:par accha: dikhta: he.*
   below from top good appear is
   It looks better at the top than at the bottom.

7. बाहर से अंदर अधिक ठंडा है।
   *ba:har se andar adhik thâda: he.*
   outside from inside more cold is
   It is colder inside than outside.

8. उसने एकदम से मेरा हाथ पकड़ा।
   *usne ekdam se mera: ha:th pakra:*
   he-erg at once my hand caught
   He caught hold of my hand at once.

9. मैंने इसे से उसकी बात मान ली।
   *mêne jhat se uski: ba:t ma:n li:.*
   I-erg at once his talk agreed
   I agreed with what he said immediately.

(b) Derived adverbs are formed by adding adverbial suffixes to the base form of demonstrative, relative, correlative, and interrogative pronouns. Locative adverbs are formed by adding the -*ĩ* / -*ã:* suffixes: *yaha:* / *yahã:* ‘here,’ *vaha:* / *vahã:* ‘there,’ *kaha:* / *kahã:* ‘where.’ Directional adverbs are formed by adding the suffix -*se/-*KI* / -*ki: or
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as in यहाँ में yahã: se/इधर में idhar se ‘in this direction,’ यहाँ में vahã: se/ यहाँ की ओर vahã: ki: or/उधर में udhar se ‘in that direction’, कहाँ में kahã: se/कहाँ की ओर kahã: ki: or ‘in which direction.’ Manner adverbs are formed by adding the suffixes -तराह/प्रकार praka:r as in इस तराह is tarah/इस प्रकार is praka:r ‘in this manner,’ उस तराह us tarah/उस प्रकार us praka:r ‘in that manner,’ किस तराह kis tarah ‘in which manner.’

(c) Phrasal adverbs are formed by adding a simple or a compound postposition to a noun.

10. वह तीन दिन के बाद/पश्चात आया।
   vah ti:n din ke ba:d/paśca:t a:ya:.
   he three days post. after came
   He came after three days.

11. उसने पत्र पढ़ने से पहले अपनी आंतक माफ की।
   usne patr parhne se pahle apnii āntak ma:fat ki:.
   he-erg letter read-inf-obl post before self’s glasses clean did
   He cleaned his glasses before reading the letter.

12. हमारे घर के पीछे एक बड़ा पार्क है।
   hama:re ghar ke pi:che ek ba:rk he.
   our house post. behind a big park is
   There is a big park behind our house.

(d) Adverbs can be reduplicated to show intensity and distribution:

13. वह धीरे-धीरे/तेज - तेज चलता है।
   vah dhi:re-dhi:re/tez- tez calta: he.
   he slowly/fast walk-ptc is
   He walks slowly/quickly.

14. पता नहीं वह कहाँ- कहाँ गया।
   pata: nahã: vah kahã: - kahã: gayã:.
   aware neg he where where went
   One doesn’t know which places did he go to?
Reduplicated adverbs may be separated by the negative particle *na* to express indefiniteness: कभी न कभी *kabhi: na kabhi:* ‘sometime or other.’

15. कभी न कभी यह अपनी गल्ली मानेगी।
   *kabhi: na kabhi: vah apni: galti: ma:nega:.*
   sometime neg sometime he self’s mistake accept-fut
   He will realize his mistake some day.

3.5.2. Expressions of Time

3.5.2.1. General Time Expressions

General time expressions employ nouns in the direct and oblique cases. The dative suffix को *ko* is added to adverbs of time, such as दुपहर *duphar* ‘noon,’ शाम *ša:m* ‘evening,’ रात *ra:t* ‘night,’ दिन *din* ‘day,’ कल *kal* ‘tomorrow/yesterday.’

1. आप दुपहर को आए।
   *a:p duphar ko a:yiye.*
   you noon dat come-pol
   Please come at noon.

2. रात को अधिक गर्मी नहीं रही।
   *ra:t ko adhik garmi: nahi: rahti:.*
   night dat more hot neg remain-pte
   It is not very hot during the night.

3.5.2.2. Time of Day

Time of day is expressed by बजे *baje.* It is used in reporting time and not in expressions such as एक घंटे के बाद *ek ghaṇṭe ke ba:d* ‘after one hour.’ In such cases, घंटा *ghaṇṭa:* ‘hour’ is used in the oblique case with a postposition.

3. यह दफ्तर से दस बजे आई।
   *vah daftar se das baje a:yi:.*
   she office from ten o’clock came-fs
   She came from the office at ten o’clock.
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4. वह दो गांठे के बाद आई।
   
   vah do ghante ke ba:d a:yi:
   she two hour-obl post came-fs
   She came after two hours.’

The expressions ‘quarter,’ ‘three-quarters,’ and ‘half an hour’ precede the numerals.

5. वह सवा/ पौने/ चार बज गया।
   
   vah sava/pa:n/a char baje gaya.
   he quarter past/quarter to/half past four o’clock went
   He went at quarter past/quarter to/half past four.

Expressions indicating minutes before the hour add the dative suffix to the infinitive of the verb followed by the postposition ने ‘in’.

The expression कम kam ‘less’ also is used.

6. वह छे बजने में दस मिनट पर आया।
   
   vah che bajne me das minat par a:ya:
   he six o’clock-inf-obl in ten minute at came
   He came at ten minutes to six.

6a. वह दस मिनट कम छे बजे आया।
   
   vah das minat kam che baje a:ya:
   he ten minutes less six o’clock came
   He came at ten minutes to six.

Two types of expressions are used to ask for the time.

7. समय क्या हुआ/ है?
   
   samay k’a: hua:ha?
   time what happened/is
   What time is it?

7a. कितने बज गए?
   
   kitne baj gaye?
   how much strike went
   What time is it?

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3.5.2.3. Period of Day

Periods of day are usually expressed by various nouns in the direct or oblique case with or without postpositions: सवेरा- सवेरे savere (savere) ‘early in the morning,’ रात्रि ko ra:t ko ‘during the night’, दिन में din mē ‘during the day,’ देर में der se ‘late.’ Other frequent expressions are: प्रातः काल prā:ta: ka:l ‘early in the morning,’ सन्ध्या sandhya: ‘dusk/evening,’ दोपहर dophar ‘noon’, दोपहर के बाद dophar ke ba:d ‘afternoon.’

3.5.2.4. Days of the Week

The days of the week are:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hindi</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>सोमवार somva:r</td>
<td>Monday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>मंगलवार mangalva:r</td>
<td>Tuesday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>बुधवार budhva:r</td>
<td>Wednesday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>गुरुवार guruva:r</td>
<td>Thursday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>शुक्रवार šukrva:r</td>
<td>Friday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>शनिवार/शनिक वार šaniva:r/šaniva:r</td>
<td>Saturday</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>रविवार/रविक वार raviva:r/rtiva:r</td>
<td>Sunday</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

3.5.2.5. Months of the Year

Months are expressed in both indigenous and English forms.

1. Hindi months

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Hindi</th>
<th>English</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>वैशाख viśa:kh</td>
<td>April-May</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>जेष्ठ jyešt</td>
<td>May-June</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>अश्वान aśva:rah</td>
<td>June-July</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>श्रावण šra:van</td>
<td>July-August</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>भाद्र bha:dr</td>
<td>August-September</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>अष्ट्रवि a:ştvin</td>
<td>September-October</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>कौटिक ka:rtik</td>
<td>October-November</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>मानस ma:rg</td>
<td>November-December</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>पौष pōṣ</td>
<td>December-January</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>माघ ma:gh</td>
<td>January-February</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>फागुन pha:lgun</td>
<td>February-March</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>चैत्र caitra</td>
<td>March-April</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
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2. English nativized versions: जनवरी janvari:, फरवरी pharvari:, मार्च ma:rc, अप्रैल april, मई mai:, जून ju:n, जुलाई julay, अगस्त agast, सितम्बर sitambar, अक्टूबर akto:bar, नवम्बर navambar, दिसंबर disambar.

3.5.2.6. Year

In Hindi, a reference to a year is usually to the year AD called ईसवी i:svi:. Hindus refer to their indigenous calendar as बिक्रम bikrami or शक śa:k and Muslims as हिज्री hijiri:. The term सन san used before the Christian year, is optionally followed by ईसवी i:svi:. Similarly, an indigenous year starts with संवत samvat before the year and ends with बिक्रम bikrami.

8. सन उन्नीस साल ईसवी में
   san un:is sɔ: sa:th i:svi: mẽ
eyear nineteen hundred sixty Christian era in
   in the year 1960 AD

9. संवत दो हजार साल बिक्रमी में
   samvat do haza:r sa:th bikrami: mẽ
eyear two thousand sixty Bikrami in
   in the year 2060 Bikrami

The terms ईसा पूर्व i:sa: pu:rv ‘before Christ’ are used to denote BC.

10. ईसा पूर्व छे सी वर्ष
    i:sa: pu:rv che sɔ varš
    Christ before six hundred years
    six hundred years before Christ

3.5.2.7. Seasons

There are five major seasons: वसंत vasant ‘spring,’ ग्रीष्म gri:šm ‘summer,’ बरसा: बरसा:t ‘rainy season,’ शारद sharad ‘autumn,’ and शीतकाल ši:tka:l ‘winter.’ These terms can be followed by?नूरू ritu/ मौसम masim ‘season’ in both the direct and oblique cases with or without a postposition.
3. Morphology

11. वसंत (रूटे) में पूँछ खिलते हैं।
   *vasanth (ritu) mē phu:l khilte ḍhe.*
   spring (season) in flowers bloom-pte are
   Flowers bloom during spring.

3.5.3. Frequentative

Frequentative expressions employ reduplication, an emphatic particle, or प्रति/हर har ‘every’ before a time expression.

| गांठ गेछ | roz roz | every day |
| प्रति दिन | prati din | every day |
| हर घंटे | har gante | every hour |
| रात भर | ra:t bhar | whole night |
| खाल पल | har pal | every moment |

12. वह गांठ गेछ / प्रति दिन पेसे सोंगत हैं।
   *vah roz roz/ prati din pēse mā:gte: ḍhe.*
   he daily/every day money demand-pte is
   He asks for money daily.

3.6. Particles

Particles are generally attached to a particular word in a sentences to mark emphasis, or contrast. The main particles used in Hindi are: भी bhi:, ही hi:, तो to, तक tak, भर bhar, and मात्र ma:tra. The use of these particles with different word classes covers a wide range of shades of meaning and semantic interpretations. Here we will illustrate the use of these particles with detailed reference to the prominent particles भी bhi: and ही hi:.

3.6.1. The Particle हर bhi: ‘also’

The particle ही bhi: is used with different types of nouns in the direct or oblique case. It immediately follows a noun in the direct case and the postposition in the oblique case.

1. अमर भी गया।
   *amar bhi: gaya:.*
   Amar part went
   Amar also went.
3. MORPHOLOGY

2. लड़का भी आया।
   larka: bhi: a:ya:.
   boy part came
   The boy also came.

3. गर्मी भी है।
   garmi: bhi: he.
   hot part is
   It is hot, too.

In the oblique case, भी bhi: is placed immediately after the postposition following the noun.

4. अमर को भी जाना है।
   amar ko bhi: ja:na: he.
   Amar-dat part go-inf is
   Amar, too, will have to go.

5. मोहन ने भी नैंद खाई।
   mohan ne bhi: roṭi: kha:yi:.
   Mohan-erg part bread ate-fem
   Mohan, too, ate his meals.’

6. राधा से भी गलती हुई।
   radha: se bhi: galti: hui:.
   Radha-abl part mistake happened
   Radha, too, committed a mistake.

It is to be noted that भी bhi: cannot be used between a noun and a postposition.

7. घर में भी गर्मी है।
   ghar mē bhi: garmi: he.
   house in part hot is
   It is hot in the house as well.

But not
7a. *घर भी में गर्मी है।
   *ghar bhi: mē garmi: he.
3. Morphology

It is also not used in vocative constructions.

8. *मोहन भी आओ!
   *sohan bhi: ao!
   Sohan part come-voc

9. *हे लड़के भी
   *he! larke bhi:
   oh! boy-voc part

The particle भी bhi: can be used with all types of direct and oblique personal, demonstrative, indefinite, relative, and reflexive pronouns.

10. मैं/ तू/ वह भी आया।
    me/tu:/vah bhi: a:ya:.
    I/you/he part came
    I/you/he came too.

11. हम/ तू/ वे भी आए।
    ham/tum/ve bhi: a:ye.
    we/you/they part came
    We/you/they came too.

12. मूझे/ तुझे/ वह भी जाना है।
    mujhe/tujhe bhi: ja:na: he.
    I/you/he-obl part go-inf aux
    I/you, too, have to go.

13. हमें/ आपको/ उन्हें भी जाना है।
    hamẽ/a:pko/uhnẽ bhi: ja:na: he.
    we/you/they-obl part go-inf aux
    We/you/they, too, have to go.’

14. मुझको/ तुझको/ उसको भी वापस आना है।
    I/you/he-obl part go-inf aux
    I/you/he, too, will have to return.
3. MORPHOLOGY

15. वह मेरा /तुम्हारा/ आपका/ उसका/ उसका भी दोस्त है।
   vah mera:/tumhara:/a:pka:/uska:/uska: bhi: dost hē.
   he my/your/his/their friend is part friend is
   He is my/your/his/their friend, too.

16. वह मुझे /तुम्हारे/ आपके/उसके/ उसके भी बड़ा है ।
   he me/you/him they also elder is
   He is older than me/you/him/her.

17. उसे/उसके/ उसके भी बुना लाए।
   use/uske/unke/unko bhi: bula: la:yē.
   he/they part call bring.
   Please call him/her/them also.

18. आप इसके बारे में भी कुछ कहिए।
   a:p iske ba:re mē bhi: kuch kījiye.
   you this-gen about part something do-pl
   Please do something for it.

19. आप कितनी भी कोशिश करिएं सफल नहीं होंगे।
   you how much part try do success neg be
   No matter how much you try, you won’t succeed.

20. आप कौन सा भी कितना दे देंजिए।
   you me-dat any part book give-pl
   Please give me any book.

In the oblique form of the indefinite pronouns, the particle भी bhi: is placed after the postpositions.

21. आप किसी को भी बुलाए。
   you any-dat part call-pl
   Please call anyone.
Not
21a. *आप किसी भी को बुलाएँ।

The use of the particle भी bhi: with the indefinite pronouns कोई koyi: and कुछ kuch, represent different meanings: कोई भी koyi: bhi: ‘anyone,’ कुछ भी kuch bhi: ‘anything.’

22. आप जो भी काम करना चाहते हैं, कर लीजिए।
   Whatever work you want to do, go ahead.

23. जब भी आप आते हैं, कितना माफ ले जाने हैं।
   Whenever you come, bring your book with you.

24. वह आप जैसा भी नहीं है।
   ‘He is not even like you.’

25. आप जितना भी पैसा दे सकते हैं, दे देंजिए।
   Whatever money you can give, please give it.

In the oblique case, the particle भी bhi: is placed after the postpositions.

26. जिसको/जिसको भी जाना है, जाओ/ वह जाएँ।
   Whosoever has to go may leave.

3. MORPHOLOGY

27. वह आप भी मेहनत करता है, दूसरों को भी करवाता है।
   
   वह आप भी मेहनत करता है, दूसरों को भी करवाता है।

28. आप अपने आप/मेरा /मेरे: भी यह काम कर सकते हैं।
   
   आप अपने आप/मेरा /मेरे: भी यह काम कर सकते हैं।

In the case of oblique forms, the particle भी bhi: is placed after the postposition, not between the pronoun and the postposition.

The particle भी bhi: is used with different types of adjectives. It always follows the adjectives.

29. वह लड़की सुंदर भी है और बुद्धिमान भी।
   
   वह लड़की सुंदर भी है और बुद्धिमान भी।

30. कितने भी मजदूर क्यों न आएं, यह काम आज नहीं हो सकता।
   
   कितने भी मजदूर क्यों न आएं, यह काम आज नहीं हो सकता।

In (29), (30), and (31), the particle भी bhi: is merely an emphatic marker. In (32), however, the expression कैसा भी kesa: bhi: is a combined phrase meaning ‘any type of.’ If भी bhi: is deleted, the
sentence will be ungrammatical.

The particle बी bhi: is used with different forms of the verb है ho ‘be’ and the auxiliary verb.

33. मोहन है (भी) कि नहीं?
   mohan he (bhi:) ki nahi?:
   Mohan be (part) or neg
   Is Mohan there or not?

34. वह होगा भी कि नहीं?
   vah hoga: bhi: ki nahi?:
   he be-fut part or neg
   Will he be there or not?

35. आप आएंगे भी कि नहीं?
   a:p a:yēge bhi: ki nahi?:
   you come-fut part or neg
   Will you come or not?

In the above examples, the particle बी bhi: is used for emphasis only. Barring the progressive forms, the particle बी bhi: is used with different types of verbs.

36. उसका घर जाना भी ठीक नहीं था।
   uska: ghar ja:na: bhi: thi:k nahi: tha:.
   his home go-ing part right neg was
   His going home was not good.

37. वह करने वाला भी है और करवाने वाला भी।
   vah karne va:la: bhi: he or karva:ne va:la: bhi:.
   he do-ing-obl part is and do-caus part
   He can do it himself and get it done, too.

38. वह दुकान पर जाता भी है कि नहीं।
   vah duka:n par ja:ta: bhi: he ki nahi:.
   he shop at go part is or neg
   Does he go to the shop or not?
3. MORPHOLOGY

39. आप आए थे और चले भी गए।
   a:p a:ye bhi: or cale bhi: gaye.
   you came part and go-obl part went
   You came and have left, too.

40. आपको वहाँ गए थे भी बहुत दिन हो गए।
   a:p ko vahã: gaye bhi: bahut din ho gaye.
   you-dat there went-obl part many days passed
   It is a long time since you have gone over there.

41. वह रात भी रहा है और बातें भी कर रहा है।
   he eat part prog is and talk part do-prog is
   He is eating as well as talking.

It is to be noted that the particle भी bhi: cannot follow the progressive aspect marker रहा raha:.

42. वह रात भी रहा है।
   he eat part prog is
   He has been eating.

Not

42a. *वह रात रहा भी है।
   *vah kha: raha: bhi: he.

The particle भी bhi: can be used with conjunct verbs. It is used either between the main verb and the operator (auxiliary verb) or following the main verb and the operator as follows.

43. उसने देखा भी था।
   usne dekha: bhi: tha:.
   he-erg saw part was
   He had seen it.

44. उसे लाने भी था।
   use la:ne bhi: do.
   he-abl being-inf-obl part let
   Let him bring (it).
45. ab ja:ne bhi: do.
   now go-inf-obl part let
   Now let it go.

46. mene citthi: likh bhi: di: he.
   I-erg letter write part gave (explicator) is
   I have written a letter, too.

The particle bhi: is also used between the main verb and the
negative marker.

47. vah a:ya: bhi: nahî:.
   he came part neg
   He did not even come.

48. ramesh bhi: a:ya: nahî:.
   Ramesh part came neg
   Even Ramesh did not come.

Notice the change of meaning in the use of the particle bhi:
different from the lexical meaning ‘also’ in the following examples.

49. vah uske ghar gayaa bhi:, magar use mil bhi: na saka:.
   he his home went part but he-dat met part neg able
   He did go to his house, but could not meet him.

   he go-fut part or sit part remain-fut
   Will he go or keep on sitting?

51. vah vahã: gaya: bhi: nahî:.
   he came part neg
   He did not even go there.
The particle भी bhi: can be used with different types of adverbs.

52. जाने भी दो।
   ja:ne bhi: do.
   go-inf-obl part let-imp
   Let it go.

53. रहने भी दो।
   rahne bhi: do.
   remain-inf-obl part let-imp
   Let it be.

The particle भी bhi: can be used with different types of adverbs.

54. यहाँ भी ठंड़ है।
   yahã: bhi: thã:d hã:.
   here part cold is
   It is cold over here, too.

55. वहाँ भी देखो।
   vahã: bhi: dekho.
   there part See-imp
   Please look over there, too.

56. दिन भर भी यहाँ काम न हुआ।
   din bhar bhi: yahã: ka:m na hua:.
   day part here work neg be-part
   The work could not be done for the whole day over here.

57. पाँच भी बज गए, वह आया नहीं।
   pã:c bhi: baj gaye, vah a:ya: nahĩ:.
   five part struck went he came neg
   It is now five o’clock and he has not come.

58. बार बार भी जाना ठीक नहीं है।
   ba:r ba:r bhi: ja:na ñi:k nahĩ: hã:.
   again part go-inf right neg is
   It is not good to go time and again.
3. MORPHOLOGY

59. जैसे भी हो वह आ जाएगा।
   
   जैसे भी: हो वह आ: जाएगा:
   somehow part be he com-fut
   He will come somehow.

60. वह इसलिए गया जाब भी रहे तथा।
   
   वह इसलिए भी: गया: शायद शेष निलें
   he for this part went perhaps money get-subj
   He went in the hope of getting money.

61. में न भी जाओ तुम जाओ जाना।
   
   में नाभी: जाओ: तुम जाओ: जाना:
   I neg part go-subj you definitely go-inf-imp
   You should go, even if I don’t.

62. कभी भी भो करोगे?
   
   कभी: हाँ: भी: करोगे?
   sometime yes part do-fut
   Will you ever say yes?

63. यह भी नहीं करोगे तो क्या करोगे?
   
   यह भी: नहीं: करोगे तो क्या: करोगे?
   this part neg do-fut part what do-fut
   If you are not able to do this much, what else will you do?


The particle भी bhi: is used after certain case markers and /or postpositions as well.

64. उसके पास भी कम करा हैं।
   
   he-gen-abl near part work neg is
   He, too, doesn’t have work.
3. MORPHOLOGY

65. इसके विना भी काम होगा।
   
iske bina bhi ka:m hoga.
this-gen-obl without part work be-fut
The work can be done even without it.

66. उसके बदले भी कोई नहीं आया।
   
   uske badle bhi koyi nah\oh: a:ya:.  
he-gen-obl place part someone neg came
No one came in his place.

The particle भी bhi: used with और or ‘and’ indicates the meaning of ‘more.’

67. नीली झाड़ी में वह और भी लुंबर लगती है।
   
ni:li: sa:ri: m\ oh vah or bhi: sundar lagti: he:.  
blue saree in she more beautiful appear-ptc-is
She appears more beautiful in a blue sari.

68. और भी अच्छा हुआ।
   
or bhi: achha: hua:.  
more good happened
It is better still.

From the semantic point of view, भी bhi: represents different meanings depending on its use in different contexts. The meanings are represented in the following examples.

69. काम आसान भी है और विलिच्छय भी।
   
   ka:m a:sa:n bhi: he or dilcasp bhi:.  
work easy part is and interesting part
The work is easy and interesting, too.

70. वह मेरे साथ वोलता भी नहीं।
   
vah mere sa:th bolta bhi: nah\oh:.
he I-poss-obl with speak-ptc part neg
He doesn’t even talk with me.
3. MORPHOLOGY

71. जाने भी दो।
   ja:ne bhi: do.
go-inf-obl part let-imp
Let it go.

72. सेब छोटा है फिर भी मीठा है।
   seb chota: he phir bhi: mi:tha: he.
apple small is even then part sweet is
Despite of being small, the apple is sweet.

73. माँ को देखकर बच्चा और भी ज़ोर से गया।
   ma: ko dekh kar bacca: or bhi: zor se cila:ya:.
mother-dat see-cp child more part loudly cried
On seeing the mother, the child cried more loudly.

74. उसे कुछ भी माना नहीं आया।
   use kuch bhi: samajh mē nahi: a:ya:.
he-dat anything understand in neg came
He was not able to understand anything.

In the above sentences, भी bhi: represents the general meaning of ‘too,’ ‘even’ and ‘let’ in the sentences (69), (70), and (71) respectively. In (72), फिर भी phir bhi: represents the meaning of ‘even then.’ In (73), और भी or bhi: represents the meaning of ‘more,’ and in (74), कुछ kuch bhi: represents the meaning of ‘anything.’

The particle भी bhi: can be used interchangeably with ही hi: in certain examples with no change in the meaning.

75. उसे मेरा सुझाव बिल्कुल भी / ही पसंद न आया।
   use mera: sujha:v bilkul bhi:/hi: pasand na a:ya:.
he-dat my suggestion exact part like neg came
He did not like my suggestion at all.

In such cases, the use of the particle भी bhi: or ही hi: is meant to emphasize only. Wherever भी bhi: adds meaning to the sentence, it cannot be interchanged with ही hi:
3. MORPHOLOGY

76. नीली साड़ी में वह और भी सुंदर लगती है।
   blue sari in she more part beautiful appear is
   She looks more beautiful in the blue sari.

76a. *नीली साड़ी में वह और भी सुंदर लगती है।

3.6.2. The particle हि hi:

The particle हि hi: is generally used for emphasis and also in the sense of ‘exclusiveness’ or ‘alone.’ As indicated above, the particle हि hi: can be used as an emphatic marker with nouns. It can also be used with different types of pronouns in both the direct and the oblique cases: मैं ही मेह हि: ‘I myself,’ तू ही tuu: hi: ‘thou thyself,’ आप ही aap hi: ‘you yourself,’ कोई ही koi: hi: ‘hardly anyone,’ कुछ ही kuch hi: ‘hardly anything,’ ‘hardly a few.’

1. मैं ही आई।
   mē hi: ai: ga:.
   I past come-fut
   I will come myself.

2. आप ही कहए।
   aap hi: bata:yiye.
   you part say
   You say (it) yourself.

3. कोई ही यह काम कर सकता है।
   koyi: hi: yah ka:m kar sakta: he.
   any part this work do able-pte aux
   Hardly anyone can do this work.

4. कुछ ही लोग आए थे।
   kuch hi: log a:ye the.
   some part people came aux
   Hardly a few people had come.

Adding the emphatic particle हि hi: to certain words results in certain phonological changes.
3. MORPHOLOGY

(a) अब ab + शे hi: = अबेद abhi: just now
तब tab + शे hi: = तबेद tabhi: just then
सब sab + शे hi: = सबेद sabhi: all, everybody

When शे hi: is preceded by pronouns in the oblique case, such as इस is, उस us, किस kis, and जिस jis, the शे h is elided.

(b) इस is + शे hi: = इसेद isi: this very
उस us + शे hi: = उसेद usi: that same
किस kis + शे hi: = किसेद kisi: someone
जिस jis + शे hi: = जिसेद jisi: the very one which

The शे h is dropped when preceded by मुझ mujh, तुझ tujh, यह yah, वह vah, or हम ham.

(c) मुझ mujh + शे hi: = मुझेद mujhi: me myself
तुझ tujh + शे hi: = तुझेद tujhi: you yourself
यह yah + शे hi: = यहेद yahi: this itself
वह vah + शे hi: = वहेद vahi: he himself
हम ham + शे hi: = हमेद hamih: we ourselves

In certain cases, exclusiveness is dropped in the preceding word and the final vowel is nasalized.

यहेद yahi: + शे hi: = यहेद yahi: at this very place
जहाँ jahā: + शे hi: = जहाँ jahi: wherever
वहेद vahi: + शे hi: = वहेद vahi: at that very place
कहाँ kaha: + शे hi: = कहाँ kahi: somewhere

The emphatic particle शे hi: is frequently used with different types of pronouns. Its use with reflexive pronouns is quite interesting. Hindi has only four reflexive pronouns: आप a:p, its oblique forms अपना apna: and अपने apne, and a compound of these two अपने-आप apne-a:p ‘by oneself’; आपस a:pas meaning ‘each other,’ or ‘one another.’ When आप a:p is followed by शे hi:, it has an adjectival intensifying force and qualifies a noun or a pronoun which, as a rule, is the logical subject of the sentences.
3. MORPHOLOGY

5. मोहन आप ही जगा गया।
   mohan a:p hi: vahà: gaya:.
   Mohan self part there went
   Mohan went there on his own.

6. मुझे आप ही जाना पड़ेगा।
   mujhe a:p hi: ja:na: parega:.
   me-dat self part go-inf fall-fut
   I shall have to go myself.

7. वे आप ही आंगे।
   ve a:p hi: a:yège.
   they self part come-fut
   They themselves will come.

8. श्याम ने आप ही यह चिठ्ठी लिखी है।
   šya:m ne a:p hi: yah ciṭṭhi: likhi: he:.
   Shyam-erg self part this letter wrote is
   Shyam has himself written this letter.

आप ही a:p hi: sometimes qualifies nouns or pronouns which are not
the logical subjects of the sentences.

9. उसमें आप ही माहू नहीं है।
   usmē a:p hi: sa:has nahī: he:.
   he in self part courage neg is
   He himself has no courage.

10. उसका आप ही दिवाला निकाल जाएगा।
    uska: a:p hi: diva:la: nikal ja:ya:ega:
    he -gen self part bankrupt come go-fut
    He will himself become bankrupt.

आप ही a:p hi: can be used as an adverb to mean ‘of one’s own
accord.’

11. वह आप ही अपनाकल गया।
    vah a:p hi: aspata:l gaya:.
    he self part hospital went
    He went to the hospital on his own.
It is interesting to note the different shades of the meanings of the particle ही hi: in the following sentences.

12. अमर के आने ही मोहन चला गया।
   amar ke a:te hi: mohan cala: gaya:.
   Amar-gen-come-ptc part mohan went
   As soon as Amar came, Mohan left.

13a. राधा आ रही थी।
    ra:dha: a: ra:hi: thi:.
    Radha come-prog was-f
    Radha was coming.

13b. राधा आ रही थी।
    Radha was come-part-prog was-f
    Radha was just coming.

14a. मोहन जाएगा।
    mohan ja:yega:.
    Mohan go-fut
    Mohan will go.

14b. मोहन जाएगा ही।
    mohan ja:yega: hi:.
    Mohan go-fut part
    Mohan will certainly go.

15a. मैं गया नहीं।
    mē gaya: nahī:.
    I went part neg
    I did not go.

15b. मैं गया ही नहीं।
    mē gaya: hi: nahī:.
    I went part neg
    I did not go at all.

16a. वह आज गया होगा।
    vah a:j gaya: hoga:.
    he today went be-presumptive
    He might have gone today.
16b. वह आज ही गया होगा।

vah a:j hi: gaya: hoga:.
He today part went be-presumptive
He might have gone just today.

17a. यह अच्छा हुआ।

yeh accha: hua:.
this good happened
It is good.

17b. यह अच्छा ही हुआ।

yeh accha: hi: hua:.
this good part happened
It is good (emphatic).

18a. अच्छा हूँ।

accha: hũ:.
good am
I am fine.

18b. अच्छा ही हूँ।

accha: hi: hũ:.
good part am
I am fine (emphatic).

19a. कुछ और मजा आया।

kuch or maza: a:ya:.
some more enjoyment came
It was an extra enjoyment.

19b. कुछ और ही मजा आया।

kuch or hi: maza: a:ya:
some more part enjoyment came
It was quite a different kind of enjoyment.

20. बच्चे ने लतबीर क्या देखीं, लतबीर ही फाड़ दाली।

bacce ne tasvi:r kya: dekhi:, tasvi:r (hi:) pha:r da:li:
child-erg picture what saw picture (emp) tear explicator-past
Instead of seeing it, the child has torn off the picture.
In sentence (12), the particle ० hi: becomes part of the verb adding the meaning ‘as soon as.’ In (13b), the particle ० hi: adds the meaning of ‘just.’ In (14b), the particle ० hi: adds the meaning ‘certainly.’ In (15b), it adds the meaning ‘at all.’ In (16b) and (17b), it makes the adjectives emphatic. By adding the particle ० hi: to कुच और kuch or in sentence (19b), it gives the meaning ‘different kind of.’ Thus, besides its use for emphasis, the particle ० hi: adds different shades of meaning depending on its use.

3.6.3. The Particle तो to

The particle तो to is mostly used as an emphatic marker and also denotes contrast.

1. वह आया तो है।
   vah a:ya: to ke.
   he came part is
   He has come indeed.

2. उसे अंदर आने तो दें।
   use andar a:ne to do.
   he-dat inside come-inf+obl part let
   Let him come inside.

3. मोमबती तो मिली, दियासाला नहीं।
   mombatI: to mili:, diya:sala:yi: nahI:.
   candle part found match-box neg
   The candle was found, (but) not the matchbox.

4. वह उसके पास तो गया, पर बोला नहीं।
   vah uske pa:s to gaya:, par bola: nahI:.
   he he-gen+obl near part went but said neg
   He did go near him, but did not speak.

The particle to is also added to the negative marker नहीं nahI: . The phrase नहीं तो nahI: to has several uses including as an emphatic negative reply denoting ‘surprise’ or ‘disapproval.’
3. Morphology

5. आप आगरा गए दें?
   you Agra went were
   Did you go to Agra?

5a. नहीं तो।
   neg part
   Not really/Not at all.

   As a coordinate conjunction, नहीं तो nahi: to means ‘otherwise.’

6. तेज़ चलो, नहीं तो गाड़ी पूट जाएगी।
   tez calo, nahi: to ga:ri: chu:t ja:yegi:
   Fast walk neg part train miss-fut
   Walk fast, otherwise you will miss the train.

   Another use in combination with the particle तो bhi: indicates ‘yet, even so.’

7. अगर वह कहेगा भी, तो भी में उसके माध्यम से नहीं जाएगा।
   agar vah kahega: bhi:, to bhi: mē uske sa:th nahi: ja:a:ga:.
   If he say-fut part part he-gen-obl with neg go-fut
   Even if he says so, I will not go with him.

   In sentence (7), तो भी to bhi: can be replaced by फिर भी phir bhi: ‘even so, yet.’ In its adverbial use, तो to is a correlative of जब jab ‘when’ or of यदि yadi ‘if’ and it signifies ‘then.’

8. जब उसे मालूम हुआ, तो वह रोने लगा।
   jab use ma:lu:m hua, to vah rone laga:
   when he-dat know be-past part he cry-inf-obl starts
   When he came to know, (then) he began to cry.

8a. यदि तुम घर गए तो पछताओ।
   yadi tum ghar gaye to pachta:oge.
   if you home went part repent-fut
   If you go to your home, (then) you will repent.
3.6.4. The Particle तक *tak* ‘up to’

The particle तक *tak* has two primary meanings: as the limited particle ‘even’ and as the postposition ‘up to.’

1. उसने तार तक नहीं भेजा।
   usne ta:r tak nahī: bheja:.
   he-erg wire part neg sent
   He did not even send a telegram.

2. उसने मेरी बात तक नहीं सुनी।
   usne merī: ba:t tak nahī: sunī:.
   he-erg my talk part neg listened
   He did not even listen to what I said.

As a postposition, तक *tak* is used in the sense of ‘up to’ or ‘until.’

3. वह कल तक ज़रूर आएगा।
   vah kal tak zarū:r a:yega:.
   he tomorrow part definitely come-fut
   He will come by tomorrow definitely.

4. वह कल तक पैसा लीएगा।
   vah kal tak pēsa: līta:yega:.
   he tomorrow part money return-fut
   He will return the money by tomorrow.

5. वहाँ पहुँचने तक दो दिन लगेंगे।
   vahā: pahūcne tak do din lagēge.
   there reach-inf-obl part two days take-fut
   It will take two days to reach there.

6. जब तक आप आज़ाद नहीं देंगे मैं नहीं जाऊँगा।
   when part you permission neg give-fut I neg go-fut
   Until you permit me, I will not go.
3.6.5. The Particle पर bhar

The particle पर bhar denotes the meaning of ‘measuring a…,’ ‘weighing a…,’ ‘a…ful,’ etc. In this meaning, it acts like a suffix, forming the adjectives from nouns. Unlike the English suffix -full, it is a separate word which can be attached to nouns, adjectives, verbs, and other parts of speech.

1. मीटर भर कपड़ा दें दीजिए।
   mi:tär bhar kapra: de di:jiye.
   meter part cloth give-fut
   Please give (a piece of) cloth measuring a meter.

2. वह किसी भर दूब एक बार पी सकता है।
   vah kilo bhar du:dh ek ba:r pi: sakta: he.
   he kilogram part milk one time drink able-pte aux
   He can drink a kilogram of milk at a time.

3. घर में मुट्ठी भर चावल नहीं है।
   ghar mẽ muṭṭi: bhar ca:vala nahi: he.
   home in handful part rice neg is
   There is not even a handful of rice in the house.

As a particle, पर bhar denotes the meanings ‘the entire…,’ ‘the whole…,’ ‘only,’ and ‘just.’

4. देश भर में चुनाव हो रहे हैं।
   deš bhar mẽ cuna:v ho rahe he:.
   country part in election be prog are
   The elections are being held throughout the entire country.

5. वह दिन भर सोया रहा।
   vah din bhar soya: raha:.
   he day part slept remained
   He slept for the whole day.

6. उसने पल भर भी आराम नहीं किया।
   usne pal bhar bhi: a:ra:m nahi: kiya:.
   he-erg moment part rest neg did
   He did not rest even for a moment.
7. घर भर में बच्चे और करने रहे।
   *ghar bhar mē bacce ūre karte rahe.*
   home part in children noise do-pr remained
   The children made noise throughout the entire house.’

8. आप देखने भर हो, खरीदने नहीं।
   *aːp dekhte bhar ho, khariːdte nahiː.*
   you see-pr part be purchase-pr neg
   You only look but do not purchase.

Notice that in sentence (8), घर bhar can be replaced by the particle हि hiː.

### 3.6.6. The Particle मात्र maːtr

The particle मात्र maːtr is borrowed from Sanskrit and means ‘only’ or ‘whole.’ In Sanskrit, it is used as a suffix and is attached to nouns.

| विद्या vidhya + मात्र maːtr = विद्यामात्र vidhyaːmaːtr | only learning |
| पल pal + मात्र maːtr = पलमात्र palmaːtr | only a moment |
| मानव maːnava + मात्र maːtr = मानवमात्र maːnavaːmaːtr | all of humanity |

In Hindi, the particle मात्र maːtr is an equivalent of केवल keval or हि hiː ‘only,’ ‘alone.’ It is also used as a separate word.

1. आप किताब मात्र दीजिए।
   *aːp kītā:b maːtr diːjiye.*
   You book part give-fut
   Please give only the book.

1a. आप केवल किताब दीजिए।
   *aːp keval kītā:b diːjiye.*
   Please give only the book.

1b. आप किताब हि दीजिए।
   *aːp kītā:b hiː diːjiye.*
   Please give just the book.

2. मुझे हि रुपए मात्र दीजिए।
   *mūjhe sə rupaye maːtr diːjiye.*
   me hundred rupees part give-fut
   Please give me a hundred rupees only.

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2a. मुझे मात्र मी रुपए दीजिए।
   *mujhe ma:tr sœ rupaye di:jiye.*

2b. मुझे केवल मी रुपए दीजिए।
   *mujhe keval sœ rupaye di:jiye.*

The particle नः *ma:tr* can also be used in the initial position in sentences. It can be replaced by नः *keval* as in (3a).

3. मात्र उसने यह काम नहीं किया।
   *ma:tra usne yah ka:m nahi: kiya:.*
   part he-erg this work neg did
   He was the only one not to do this work.

3a. केवल उसने यह काम नहीं किया।
   *keval usne yah ka:m nahi: kiya:.*

To sum up, the use of various particles in Hindi is important from a semantic point of view. Besides their use as emphatic markers, they cover a wide range of meanings and further shades of meanings when used in combination with various word classes. They are frequently used in different dialects and styles of speech in Hindi.

3.7. Connectives

Connectives are words that join two elements.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>और अर</th>
<th>and</th>
<th>या</th>
<th>ya:</th>
<th>or</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>लेकिन lekin</td>
<td>but</td>
<td>कि</td>
<td>ki</td>
<td>that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>मगर magar</td>
<td>but</td>
<td>बल्कि</td>
<td>balki</td>
<td>rather</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>वर्ना varna:</td>
<td>otherwise</td>
<td>इसलिए</td>
<td>isi: liye</td>
<td>that is why, therefore</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>क्योंकि kyōki</td>
<td>because</td>
<td>ताकि</td>
<td>ta:ki</td>
<td>so that</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>अगर agar</td>
<td>‘if’</td>
<td>हालांकि</td>
<td>ha:lā:ki</td>
<td>‘though’</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Structurally, connectives are divided into three classes: (i) monomorphemic, (ii) poly-morphemic, and (iii) phrasal.
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3.7.1. Mono-morphemic

Mono-morphemic is composed of only one morpheme.

1. में घर गया और अमर बाजार गया।
   \( m̄e \ ḡh̄ar \ ḡaya: \ ōr \ ām̄ar \ ba:"za:r \ ḡaya:. \)
   I house went and Amar market went
   I went home and Amar went to the market.

2. तुम इंद्र आओगे या में उधर आऊँगा।
   \( t̄um \ id̄har \ a:"oge \ ȳa: \ m̄e \ ud̄har \ a:"u:ga:. \)
   You will come here or I will come there.

3.7.2. Poly-morphemic

Poly-morphemics are composed of two or more morphemes.

3. में आज कालेज नहीं गया, क्योंकि मेरी तबियत ठीक नहीं है।
   \( m̄e \ a:c \ ka:"lej \ nahi:\: \ ḡaya: \ kȳuki \ meri:: \ tabiyat \ thi:k \ nahi::khe. \)
   I today college neg went because my health right neg be
   Today I didn’t go to college because I am not well.

4. उसने खाना नहीं खाया, इसलिए मैं भी नहीं खाया।
   \( us̄ne \ kha:na:: \ nahi:: \ kha:ya::, \ is \ liye \ m̄e:: \ nahi:: \ kha:ya::. \)
   He food neg ate for that I part neg eat
   He didn’t eat the food, therefore I also didn’t eat.

3.7.3. Phrasal

Phrasals consist of two elements interrupted by intervening words, such as अगर agar ... तो to ‘if ... then.’

5. अगर तुम कहो तो मैं आऊँगा।
   \( a:ḡar \ t̄um \ kah̄o \ to \ m̄e \ a:"u:ga::. \)
   If you say-fut then I come-fut
   If you say so then I will come.
3. MORPHOLOGY

3.8. Interjections

Interjections express some emotions such as pain, pleasure, anger, surprise, and disgust. An interjection is in the vocative case and has no grammatical relation with any other word in the sentence. In Hindi, interjections are used as independent words or they can be prefixed to nouns.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>he bhagya:n!</th>
<th>o larke!</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>O God!</td>
<td>O boy!</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

Surprise is expressed by: ओह oh! ओर are! ओहो oho! क्या kya:!

1. ओह / ओर / ओहो / क्या तुम आ गए!  
   oh/are/ooh/kya: tum a: gaye!  
   O you came!

Applause is expressed by: वाह va:h! खुब khu:b! शाबाश ša:ba:š!

2. वाह / खुब / शाबाश बेठे तुमने अच्छा काम किया!  
   va:h/khu:b/ša:ba:š bete tumne accha: ka:m kiya:!  
   Oh son-voc you-erg good work did  
   Oh (my) son, you have done good work!

Sorrow or grief is expressed by: हाय ha:y! हा ha!: अफसोस afsos!

3. हाय / हा / अफसोस यह क्या हुआ!  
   ha:y/ha:/a:h/uph/afsos yah kya: hua:!  
   alas this what happened  
   Alas what happened!

Joy is expressed by: आह a:ha!: आह aha!: वाह va:h - va:h!

4. आह / अहा / वाह - वाह क्या सुंदर जगह है!  
   a:ha:/aha:/va:h-va:h kya: sundar jaga:h he!:  
   Oh what beautiful place is  
   Oh what a beautiful place!
Disgust or disapproval is expressed by: ौौ  (ौौ ौौ)!  रौ ।
धिक्का:र!

5. ौौ (ौौ )/रौ /धिक्का:र कितना गंदा है! ।
       ौौ: (ौौ)/रौ/धिक्का:र कितना: गंदा: हे! ।
       shame, how dirty is ।
       Shame, how dirty it is!

Distress is expressed by: हाय रे ha:y re!

6. हाय रे में लूट गया! ।
       ha:y re में लूट गया: ।
       oh I rob went(explicator) ।
       Oh I am robbed (of everything)!

Certain nouns, pronouns, adjectives and verbs are used as interjections.

7. गम गम ra:m ra:m! (expresses sympathy or disapproval)
8. बाप रे बाप ba:p re ba:p! (expresses surprise or distress)
9. अच्छा accha:! (expresses surprise)
10. क्या kya:! (expresses surprise)
11. जा गर ja: mar! (expresses rebuke)

Some interjections can be used as nouns.

12. क्यों हाय हाय कर रहे हो?
       kyो ha:y ha:y kar rahe ho?
       why expression of ditress do-prp be ।
       Why are you raising the hue and cry?
4. Syntax

4.1. Structure of Phrases

4.1.1. Noun Phrase

A noun phrase is defined as a nominal head preceded by one or more modifiers. It also serves as a nucleus of a postpositional phrase. It may function as a subject or object (indirect or direct) predicative complement or as a direct object of a postposition. A noun or a pronoun can be the minimum constituent of a noun phrase. A nominal may be modified by a variety of modifiers such as adjectives, quantifiers, numerals, emphatic markers, limiters and comparative, equative, and superlative markers.

Attributive adjectives immediately precede a nominal head as a modifier, e.g., नया कोट naya: kot ‘new coat’ and सुंदर लड़की sundar larki: ‘beautiful girl.’ Possessive adjectives precede the head noun as modifiers in noun phrases. They may or may not also be preceded by an appropriate form of the genitive postposition का ka:/ के ke/ की ki: agreeing in gender and number with the object noun.

1. अजीत का बड़ा बेटा आया।
   ajit ka: barä: be̤ta: a:ya:.
   Ajit-gen-ms elder son came
   Ajit’s elder son came.

2. अजीत के दो मित्र आए।
   ajit ke do mitr a:ye
   Ajit-gen-mpl two friends came
   Ajit’s two friends came.

3. मोहन की छोटी बेटी मुंबई हैं।
   mohan ki: choti: be̤ti: sundar he:.
   Mohan-gen-f younger daughter beautiful is
   Mohan’s younger daughter is beautiful.

4. मोहन की छोटी बेटियाँ जा गयी हैं।
   mohan ki: choti: be̤tiyä: ja rahi: hē.
   Mohan-gen-fpl small daughters go-prog are
   Mohan’s younger daughters are going.
4. Syntax

There is no distinct category of articles used in Hindi. The concept of definiteness and indefiniteness is expressed indirectly by means of pronouns, and the numeral एक ‘one.’

5. कोई एक लड़का
   koi:/ek larka:
some /a/one boy

6. यह/वह बच्चा
   yah/vah bacca:
this/that child

The numeral एक ‘one’ and the indefinite pronoun कोई ‘some(one)’ are used in place of an indefinite article. A definite determiner involves either a demonstrative/personal pronoun or a zero marking as given in (6). It is only the context which disambiguates the potential ambiguity present in the above two sentences.


Definite + Cardinal + Noun

7. ये चार कमीजें अच्छी हैं।
   ye ca:r kami:zē acchi: hē
these four shirts good are
These four shirts are good.

Definite + Ordinal + Noun

8. पहला बच्चा हमेशा लजीला होता है।
4. Syntax

The first child is always shy.

Definite + Ordinal + Cardinal + Noun

9. ये पहले दो सप्ताह छम्से वेश्य हैं।
   ye pahle do lekh chapne yogya hē.  
   these first two essays print-inf-obl suitable are
   These first two essays are worth publishing.

Definite + Cardinal + Collective

10. ये तीन दर्जन अड़ि ताने हैं।
    ye tī:n darjan āde tā:ze hē.  
    these three dozen eggs print-inf-obl suitable are
    These three dozen eggs are fresh.

Definite + Cardinal + Measure

11. ये पाँच बोरिया चावल पिछले मास की हैं।
    those five sacks of rice last year gen-fp are
    Those five sacks of rice are last year’s.

Definite + Ordinal + Fractional + Measure

12. यह दूसरा वाला आधा किलो चावल ठीक नहीं है।
    this second half kilogram rice good not is
    This second half kilogram of rice is not good.

Notice that quantifiers such as गांव sa:re/ तमन tama:m ‘all’ follow a
   head noun when the head noun is a pronoun.

13. ये सभी किताबें में पढ़ी हैं।
    ye sabhi: kita:bē mēne parhi:hē.  
    these all books l-erg read-past-fp are
    I have read all these books.
14. हम सभी निशात बाग में चल करें जाएँगे।
   *ham sa:re niśa:t ba:γ sēγ karne ja:yēγe.*
   we all Nishat Bagh walk do-inf-abl go-fut
   All of us will go for a walk to Nishat Bagh.

Limiters such as शेष sirf/ केवल keval/ ‘only’ precede the head noun, whereas emphatic particles -ही -hi: ‘only’ and भी bhi: ‘also’ follow the head noun.

15. केवल ये पहले दो बच्चे टॉमिहान में बैठे।
   *keval ye pahle do bacce intiha:n mē bēthe.*
   only these first two children exam in sat
   Only these two children appeared in the examination.

16. केवल बच्चा ही बाजार आया।
   *keval bacca: hi: ba:za:r a:ya:.
   only child-limiter market came
   Only the child came to the market.

17. माँ भी आई और बच्चा भी।
   *mā: bhi: a:yi: or bacca: bhi:.
   mother also came and child too
   The mother came and so did the child.

Comparative, superlative and equative structures are formed by adding certain morphological forms after the head noun. The comparatives are formed by adding se after adding the ablative case markers to the genitive forms of the head noun.

18. नीरज सुनील में अधिक है।
   *neeraj sunny: l se buddhima:n hē.
   Neeraj Sunil than intelligent is
   Neeraj is more intelligent than Sunil.

19. वह मेरे से मोटा है।
   *vah mere se moṭa: hē.
   he is me-gen-abl than fat is
   He is fatter than me.
Superlatives are formed by adding the form *sab se* before the head noun.

20. न लंबा लंबा कौन है?
   *sab se lamba: larka: kon he?
   superlative tall boy who is
   Who is the tallest boy?

21. अजीत क्लास में सबसे छोटा है?
   *aji:t kala:s me sab se choṭa: he.
   Ajit class in superlative young is
   Ajit is the youngest of all in the class.

Equative structures are formed by adding a form of जेसा/*जेसी* *jesa*/*jesi*: ‘like’ that agrees with the head noun in gender and number.

22. अजीत अमर जेसे चालाक है?
   *aji:t amar jesa: ca:la:k he.
   Ajit Amar like clever is
   Ajit is as clever as Amar.

23. हम उन जेसे चालाक नहीं हैं?
   *ham un jesa ca:la:k nahĩ: he.
   we they like clever not are
   We are not as clever as they are.

24. शीला उमा जेसी गोरी नहीं है?
   Shielia Uma like fair complexioned neg is
   Shielia is not as fair-complexioned as Uma.

25. ये सेब उन सेबों जेसे मिठे हैं?
   *ye seb un sebô jese mi:the he.
   these apples those apples like delicious are
   These apples are as delicious as those ones are.
The terms एक जैसे/ जैसे: ‘as good as/alike’ are also used in equative expressions.

26. ये दो भाई एक जैसे हैं।
   ye do bha:i: ek jese hē.
   these two brothers alike are
   These two brothers are alike.

27. ये बहनें एक जैसे हैं।
   ye bahnē ek jesi: hē.
   these sisters alike are
   These sisters are alike.

There are certain co-occurrence restrictions. Indefinite determiners do not co-occur with ordinals. Similarly, the multiplicatives do not co-occur with collective or measure quantifiers. There are other usage constraints on modifiers. For example, the combination of indefinite determiners and cardinal quantifiers is possible; the combination of an indefinite determiner and a demonstrative pronoun in not allowed.

28. कोई बच्चा यह काम नहीं कर सकता।
   koi: bacca: yah ka:m nahī: kar sakta:.
   some/any(one) child this work neg do can-pte
   No child can do this work.

28a. *कोई वह बच्चा यह काम नहीं कर सकता।
    *koi: vah bacca: yah ka:m nahī: kar sakta:.

Similarly, the combination of multiplicative and collective quantifiers do not yield well-formed sentences.

29. *दुगना जोड़ा दमना
    *dugna: jori: dasta:na:
    twice pair gloves

As mentioned above, emphatic particles and limiters follow head nouns. All other constituents precede the head noun they modify. There is a flexibility in the word order of the preceding modifiers as illustrated below.
Demonstrative - possessive - quantifier - adjective - head noun

30. ये मेरे मारे अच्छे मित्र
ye mere sa:re acche mitr
these my all good friends
all these good friends of mine

Possessive - demonstrative - quantifier - adverbial - adjective - noun

30a. मेरे ये मारे बहुत अच्छे मित्र
mera ye sa:re bahut acche mitr
my these all very good friends
all these very good friends of mine

Demonstrative - quantifier - possessive - adverbial -adjective - noun

30b. ये मारे मेरे बहुत अच्छे मित्र
ye sa:re mere bahut acche mitr
these all my very good friends

Possessive - quantifier - demonstrative - adverbial -adjective - noun

30c. मेरे मारे ये बहुत अच्छे मित्र
mera sa:re ye bahut acche mitr
my all these very good friends

Quantifier - demonstrative - possessive - adverbial -adjective - noun

30d. मारे ये मेरे बहुत अच्छे मित्र
sa:re ye mere bahut acche mitr

The word order constraint for adverbs and adjective is quite strict. The word order of the constituents of demonstrative, possessive and quantifier appear quite flexible.

4.1.2. Postpositional Phrases

A postpositional phrase is defined as a noun phrase followed by an oblique case marker and a postposition. Time adverbials take case markers as well as postpositions.
4. Syntax

1. वह संबंध पर ने आया।
   vah savere ghar se a:ya:
   he morning-obl home from came
   He came in the morning from home.

1a. *वह संबंध आया (पर से)
* vah savera: a:ya: (ghar se).

2. अजीत भोजन को काम करता है।
   aji:t ša:m ko ka:m karta: h
e Ajit is evening-obl work do-pte is
   Ajit works in the evening.

2a. *अजीत भोजन काम करता है।
*a ji:t ša: m ka:m karta: h
e.

3. उसने दिन को कुछ नहीं खाया।
   usne din ko kuch nahī: kha:ya:
   he-erg day-obl for nothing neg ate
   He didn’t eat anything during the day.

4. उसने दिन से कुछ नहीं खाया।
   usne din bhar kuch nahī: kha:ya:
   he-erg day for nothing neg ate
   He didn’t eat anything for the whole day.

5. वह संबंध से भोजन तक काम करता है।
   vah savere se ša: m tak ka:m karta: h
e he morning-obl from evening up to work do-pte is
   He works from morning till evening.

The use of the direct forms of the time adverbials संवेंग currera: and शाम ša:m in sentences (1a) and (2a) make them ungrammatical.

A postposition may be added to simple or compound noun phrases that consist of more than one element.

6. हमारे दफ्तर से
   hama:re daftar se
   our-obl office from
   from our office
7.  

makāna ke drava:ze se

house of door-obl from
from the door of the house

Notice that the presence of a postposition changes all the elements of the compound noun phrase from direct to oblique by adding the oblique case markers.

There are a limited number of compound postpositions used in Hindi such as आगे/ a:ge/ ‘in front/back of’, and बाई da:i/ ‘towards right/left’. All these are directional. The first element indicates the direction, and is followed by the postpositional form की or ‘toward’. They are always used after the oblique noun. Notice that a free postposition without an argument functions as an adverb.

It is possible to modify postpositions by using a limiter तक tak ‘up to/till,’ or a particle ही hi: ‘only.’

8.  

vah ša:m tak pahūcega:

he evening up to reach-m
He will reach by evening.

9.  

tum kita:b mez par hi: rakho.

you book table on emp keep
You just keep the book on the table.

4.1.3. Adjectival Phrases

Adjective phrases are of two types: simple and complex. Simple adjectives may also be divided into basic and derived adjectives. The derived adjectives are derived from other word classes such as nouns. The examples of basic adjectives are: अच्छा accha: ‘good,’ लंबा lamba: ‘long,’ साफ sa:f ‘clean,’ etc. Derived adjectives are derived from nouns:
Adjectives may also be derived from adverbs:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>पीछे</th>
<th>वाला</th>
<th>हिंदी: पिछला</th>
<th>उर्दू: पिछला</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>पीछे</td>
<td>पीछे</td>
<td>पीछे</td>
<td>पीछे</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>वाला</td>
<td>हिंदी: वाला</td>
<td>उर्दू: वाला</td>
<td>हिंदी: वाला</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>वाला</td>
<td>हिंदी: वाला</td>
<td>उर्दू: वाला</td>
<td>हिंदी: वाला</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>का: का</td>
<td>की: की</td>
<td>का: का</td>
<td>की: की</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The use of the forms of वाला: and genitive markers का: के की: की: are frequently employed in the derivation of adjectives. Their forms agree with the following noun in number and and gender as follows:

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg</td>
<td>Pl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>वाला:</td>
<td>वाला:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>वाला:</td>
<td>वाला:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>-का: का:</td>
<td>-के के:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

1. दिल्ली वाला दुकानदार
dilli: va:la: duka:nda:r
   Delhi of shopkeeper
   the shopkeeper from Delhi

2. दूर का रिस्तेदार
dur: ka: riśteda:r
   distance of relative
   a distant relative

Complex adjectives are finite (full relative clauses) as well as non-finite (participle used as adjectives). Adjectives usually precede the nouns they modify.

It is difficult to define adjective phrases because adjectives are not distinguished morphologically from nouns. However, it is possible to distinguish an adjectival phrase from a noun phrase because: (1) the semantics of adjectives is quite distinct from that of nouns; (2) an adjective phrase functions as a modifier for a substantive; (3)
some adjectives are bound forms and their surface form is determined by the number and gender of a following noun. In nouns the gender is marked inherently; (4) adjectives usually precede a head noun and occur in the attributive position. The word order of adjectives with respect to other constituents of an adjective phrase is as follows: determiner - quantifier - adjective - noun.

3. ये दो लंबी कमीजें
   ye do lam[bi: kami:]zê
   these-f two long-fp shirts
   these two long shirts

There are two types of adjectives: those which do not take a complement, and those which do take a complement. Adjectives like mela: dirty do not take a complement, whereas adjectives like taya:r ready do take it. The latter type of adjectives with their complements occurs attributively.

4. कपड़े धोने के लिए तिया लड़का
   kapre dhone ke liye teya:r larka:
   clothes wash-inf-obl for ready boy
   the boy who is ready to wash clothes

4a. *तियार लड़का
    *teya:r larka:

4b. लड़का तियार है।
    larka: teya:r he.
    The boy is ready.

Adjectives can be either stative (अच्छा accha: good, सुंदर sundar beautiful) or non-stative (प्रसन्न prasann ‘happy’, नाराज na:ra:z ‘angry’).

The adverbs of degree in their basic form can serve as modifiers of adjectives.

5a. यह बहुत बड़ा/छोटा पेड़ है।
    yeh bahut bara:/choṭa: peṛ he.
    this very big/ small tree is
    This is a very big/small tree.
4. Syntax

The marker –हि hi: can be added to adverbs of degree for intensification of meaning.

5b. यह बहुत ही बड़ा/छोटा पड़ है।
   yeh bahut hi: bara:/chota: per he
   This is a very big/small tree.

4.1.4. Adverbial Phrases

Phrasal adverbs are formed by adding a simple or a compound postposition to a noun.

1. तीन महीने के बाद
ti:n mahi:ne ke ba:d
   three month-obl after
   after three months

2. पढ़ने से पहले
   parhne se pahle
   read-inf-obl before
   before reading

3. दुकान के पीछे
duka:n ke pi:che
   shop-obl back side
   in the back of the shop

Adverbs are reduplicated to show intensity and distribution.

4. आप कहाँ कहाँ गए?
a:p kahã: kahã: gaye?
you-p where where went
   Which places did you visit?

5. वह कब कब अनुस्थित रही?
vah kab kab anupasthit rahi:?
she when absent remained-fs
   On which dates did she remain absent?
6. वह कभी कभी यहाँ आता है।

\[ vah \text{ kabhi: kabhi: yah\={a}: a:ta: he:} \]

he sometimes here come-ptc is

He comes here sometimes.

Reduplicated adverbs may be separated by the negative particle न na as in the phrases कभी न कभी kabhi: na kabhi: ‘sometime or other’. This category of adverbials expresses indefiniteness.

7. वह कभी न कभी जुम्ला आएगा।

\[ vah \text{ kabhi: na kabhi: zaru:r a:yega:} \]

he sometime neg sometime definitely come-fut

He will come sometime or other.

The emphatic particle हि hi: can occur with an adverb or a noun to render an adverbial reading.

8. वह केवल समय ही नष्ट करता है।

\[ vah \text{ keval samay hi: na\={s}t karta: he:} \]

he only time-emp waste do-ptc is

He merely wastes time.

9. अमर ही आएगा मोहन नहीं आएगा।

\[ amar hi: a:yega: mohan nah\={i}: a:yega: \]

Amar-emp come-fut Mohan neg come-fut

Only Amar will come, not Mohan.

Various case markers and postpositions are employed with a noun to render an adverbial reading, for example, मजबूर savere ‘in the morning’, दीवार पर di:va:r par ‘on the wall’, पर से ghar se ‘from the house’, and बाउं से ca:ku: se ‘with the knife’.

10. वह सवेरे जल्दी दफ्तर जाता है।

\[ vah \text{ savere jaldi: daftar ja:ta: he} \]

he morning-obl early office go-ptc is

He goes to his office early in the morning.

11. यह तस्वीर दीवार पर टैंगो।

\[ yeh \text{ tasvi:r di:va:r par t\={a}:go.} \]

this picture wall on hang

Hang this picture on the wall.
12. मैं कल घर में आऊँगा।

   *mē kal ghar se a:ũ:ga:.*
   I tomorrow home from come-fut
   I’ll come from home tomorrow.

13. सेब चाकू से काटो।

   *seb ca:ku: se ka:to.*
   apple knife with cut
   Cut the apple with the knife.

Adverbials may precede or follow the direct object depending on the
emphasis given to it in the sentence. Compare the examples (10-13)
with (10a-13a).

10a. सवेरे वह जल्दी दफ्तर जाता है।

   *savere vah jaldi: daftar ja:ta: he.*

11a. दौड़ार पर यह तस्वीर टूटी।

   *dia:ra par yeh tasvi:r tũ:ti.*

12a. घर में मैं कल आऊँगा।

   *ghar se mē kal aũ:ga:.*

13a. चाकू से सेब काटो।

   *ca:ku: se seb ka:to.*

Certain adverbs of degree and derived adverbs with *jesa:* like can
sometimes serve as adverbial modifiers of an adverb.

14. तेज़ बैठ।

   *tez dũr*
   fast run
   Run fast.

14a. बच्चों जैसी तेज़ बैठ।

   *baccõ jesĩ: tez dũr*
   children-obl like fast run
   as fast as children run
4. Syntax

Adverbials are always optional and not obligatory in any construction.

4.2. Structure of Clauses

In this section major constituents of a sentence namely subordinate clauses, main clauses (or noun clauses), relative clauses, adverbial clauses are discussed.

4.2.1. Subordinate Clauses

Subordinate clauses are of two types: finite and non-finite. Finite clauses normally have the same sentence structure as main clauses. Sometimes they may precede the main clause due to the consideration of focus. Consider the following examples:

**Main clause**

1. वह आएगा।
   
   \( \text{vah a:yega:} \)
   
   he come-fut
   
   He’ll come.

**Subordinate clause**

1a. मूझे अपना है कि वह आएगा।
   
   \( \text{mujhe a:ša: he ki vah a:yega:} \)
   
   I-obl hope that he come-fut
   
   I hope that he will come.

1b. *कि वह आएगा मूझे आजा है *
    
    \*ki vah a:yega: mujhe a:ša: he*

In case non-finite clause precedes the main clause due to the consideration of focus, the complimentizer is dropped and the element यह yeh this is added in the initial position of the main clause.

1c. वह आएगा यह मेरी आजा है।
    
    \( \text{vah a:yega: yeh meri: a:ša: he} \)
    
    he come-fut, this my hope is
    
    I hope that he will come.
4. Syntax

Non-finite subordinate clauses are structurally quite distinct from the main clauses. They are marked by (i) verb modification, (ii) lack of agreement, and (iii) word order. The subordinate verb undergoes a process of verbal participation or infinitivization/gerundivization. The subordinate verb does not agree with subject and/or object in number and gender and is not marked for tense.

**Participle subordinate verb**

2. वह जिल्लाते हुए निकला।
   vah cilla:te hue nikla:.
   he shriek-ptic left
   He left shrieking.

The infinitive subordinate clause with an adverbial phrase can be put in the initial position.

3. मेरा वापस आना मुम्किन नहीं।
   mera: va:pas a:na: mumkin nahī:.
   my return come-inf possible neg
   It is not possible for me to come back.

4. मशीन चल रही थी।
   maši:n cal rahi: thi:.
   machine move prog was
   The machine was working.

4a. वह चलती मशीन को देख रहा था।
   vah calti: maši:n (ko) dekh raha: tha:.
   he running machine-dat see-prog was
   He was watching the running machine.

4b. *वह मशीन चल रही थी देख रहा था
   *vah maši:n cal rahi: thi: dekh raha: tha:.

4.2.2. Noun Clauses

Noun clauses are of two types: finite and non-finite.
4.2.2.1. Finite Noun Clauses

Finite noun clauses are introduced by the subordinator / complementizer *ki* that and follow the main clause verb. They function as subjects, direct objects, or complements of the main predicate. Finite subject clauses usually occur as subjects of adjectival predicates such as तथा ‘true’, साफ़ ‘clear’, and मुंकिन ‘possible’.

1. यह सच है कि मोहन बीमार है।
   yeh sac he ki mohan bi:ma:r he.
   It is true that Mohan is sick.

1a. यह साफ़/स्पष्ट था कि मोहन बीमार था।
    yeh sa:f/spa:št tha: ki mohan bi:ma:r tha:.
    It was clear that Mohan was sick.

4.2.2.1.1. The *ki* Complement Clauses


2. में जानता था कि वर्ष गिरेगी।
   mē ja:nta: tha: ki barf giregi:.
   I knew-ptc that snow fall-fut
   I knew that it would snow.

3. मुझे लगा कि वह बीमार है।
   mujhe laga: ki vah bi:ma:r he.
   I-obl felt that he sick is
   It seemed to me that he was sick.

The verb चाहना cahna: ‘to wish, desire’ in the matrix clause selects a conditional verb form in its complement clause.
4. Syntax

4. I desire that he exam give
I wish that he appears in examination.

4.2.1.2. Direct and Indirect Speech

Direct and indirect speech are not distinguished by the use of any syntactic device, such as a quotative marker or particle. However, both quoted and reported material may be preceded by the complementizer कि that which is subordinate to the higher verb of communication in the matrix sentence, such as कह- ‘say’, पूछ- ‘ask’, लिख- ‘write’, सुन- ‘hear’, सोच ‘think’, चाह- ‘desire/want’.

5. He said, buy medicine.

6. Usha asked, why should I go to the village?

7. Mohan wrote, Read this book.

8. We heard that he is a doctor.

9. I thought that he would not come.
4. Syntax

Verbs like झुन sun-, झूं सून soc- are ‘hear/say’ type verbs, and they usually occur as higher verbs in reported speech. In sentences (7-9), the complementizer कि ki precedes quoted material and in sentences (10-11), it precedes the reported material. The complementizer is frequently omitted. In Hindi, direct speech is preferred to indirect speech. Sentence (12) may appear ambiguous.

10. राम ने कहा (कि) वह किताब पढ़ेगा।
   \textit{ra:mne kaha: (ki) vah kita:b parhega:}.
   Ram-erg said (that) he bookread-3s-fut
   (a) Ram(i) said, he(j) will read the book.
   (b) Ram(i) said that he(i) will read the book.

In (a) Ram and the noun and pronoun are not co-referential, and in (b) they are. In this sentence, the first or direct speech reading is preferred to the second or indirect speech reading. Instead of using indirect speech, it would be more natural to use direct speech in the second meaning as in (11).

11. राम ने कहा (कि) मैं किताब पढ़ूंगा।
   \textit{ra:m ne kaha: (ki) maOM kita:b paru:ga:}.
   Ram said (that) I book read-1s-fut
   Ram said, I’ll read a book.

Sometimes direct and indirect speech can be differentiated with the help of number and gender markers. For instance, the gender discrepancy between the matrix verb and the embedded verb may indicate an indirect quotation.

12. राम ने कहा (कि) मैं पत्र लिख गया हूँ।
   \textit{ra:mne kaha: (ki) me patr likh ga: hũ}.
   Ram-erg said (that) I letter write-prog am
   Ram (i) said, I(i)m writing a letter.
   Ram (i) said that I (j) am writing a letter.

12a. राम ने कहा (कि) मैं पत्र लिख गयी हूँ।
    \textit{ra:mne kaha: (ki) me patr likh ga:hũ}.
    Ram-erg said (that) I letter write-prog.fs am
    Ram(i) said that I(j) am writing a letter.
    *Ram(i) said that I(i) am writing a letter.
4. Syntax

In (12a) the auxiliary verb of the embedded sentence is feminine, therefore it cannot be co-referential with Ram. Whereas in (12), the verb of the embedded sentence is co-referential with the verb of the matrix sentence. Sentence (12) can be disambiguated by adding a reflexive pronoun स्वयं svayam/ अपने आप apne a:p ‘self’.

12b. राम ने कहा (कि) मैं अपने आप पत्र लिख रहा हूँ।
   ra:m ne kaha: (ki) mē svayam/apne a:p patrlikh raha: hū:.
   Ram-erg said (that) I self letter write-prog.ms am
   Ram (i) said, Im (i) writing a letter myself.

Similarly, the nominalization of an embedded sentence may also result in a reported speech interpretation.

13. राम ने मेरे/अपने आप पत्र लिखने के बारे में कहा।
   ra:m ne mere/apne a:p patr likhne ke ba:re mē kaha:.
   Ram-erg my/he-refl letter write-inf-obl about said
   Ram told about my/his writing the letter.

Thus, there are no quotative markers to distinguish between direct and indirect speech. Direct speech is preferred over indirect speech.

4.2.2.1.3. Non-finite Noun Clause

A non-finite noun clause may consist of an infinitive (or gerundive) verb form. Infinitive gerundive forms can precede or follow the matrix clause and are inflected for case like other types of noun clauses. Non-finite noun clauses change the embedded verb into its infinitival form (stem + ना na:) which lacks subject - verb agreement and tense information. The infinitival form is like a derived noun which can take case markers and postpositions. The oblique form of the infinitival ends in ना -na:. When changing finite noun clauses into nonfinite clauses, certain morphological markers like person, number, tense, aspectual suffixes are lost.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Finite verb</th>
<th>Infinitival form</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>पढ़</td>
<td>parh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>पढ़ना</td>
<td>parhna:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. Syntax

14a. था पढ़ूँगा।
   (mē) parhū:ga:.
   (I) read-1s-fut
   I’ll read.

14b. हम पढ़ूँगे।
   (ham) parhē:ge.
   (we) read-1p-fut
   We’ll read.

14c. करी देखा नहीं है।
   (ve) parhē:ge.
   (they) read-3p-fut
   They’ll read.

Notice that -ना -na: is added to the verb stem in the formation of the
infinitive form.

15. मेरा पढ़ना उसे पसंद नहीं आया।
   mera: parhna: use pasand nahī: a:ya:.
   my read-inf he-dat like neg came
   He did not like me to read.

16. मुझे पढ़ना पसंद है।
   mujhe parhna: pasand he:.
   I-obl read-Inf like is
   I like to read.

Noun clauses can function as subjects, direct objects, postpositional
objects, and adverbials.

Verbs are made non-finite by the processes of infinitivization and
participialization. Infinitivization is the result of adding the suffix -ना
-na: to the verbal stem. There are three groups of participial constructions: (i) present participle, (ii) past participle, and (iii)
agentive participle. The present participle indicates ongoing action or process, the past participle indicates completed action or process,
and the agentive participle indicates a habitual or potential action or process.
17. वह पढ़ा - लिखा लड़का है।
   vah parha: - likha: larka: he.
   he read-past-ms write-past-ms boy is
   He is a literate boy.

17a. वह पढ़ी - लिखी लड़की है।
    vah parhi: - likhi: larki: thi:.
    she read-past-fs write-past-fs girl was
    She was a literate girl.

17b. पढ़ने लिखने बालि लड़का समय व्यय नहीं करता।
    parhe likhne va:la: larka: samay barba:d nahi: karta:.
    read-inf-obl write-inf-obl gen boy time waste neg do- ptc
    The boy who studies does not waste time.

Notice that participial forms remain unaltered in the present and past participles. It is the auxiliary which takes person, gender, number, and tense markers. The participial forms agree with the following nouns in number and gender.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg</td>
<td>Pl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ka:</td>
<td>ke:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

18. उसका उमा को कल यह कहना अच्छा नहीं था।
   he-gen Uma-dat yesterday this say-inf good neg was
   His telling this to Uma yesterday was not proper.

The word order of non-finite noun clauses remains unchanged. The focus-related movements to the left of the non-finite verb yield well-formed sentences. Examples of various movements of non-finite noun clauses are given as follows:

**Leftward movements of indirect objects**

18a. उमा को उसका कल यह कहना अच्छा नहीं था।
    uma: ko uska: kal yah kahna: accha: nahi: tha:.
    Uma-dat his yesterday this say-inf good neg was
    His telling this to Uma yesterday was not proper.
4. SYNTAX

**Leftward movement of the time adverb**

18b. कल उसका उमा को यह कहना अच्छा नहीं था।

    kal uska: uma: ko yah kahna: accha: nahī: tha:.

Notice that no constituent of the non-finite noun clauses can be moved to a position following the non-finite verb कहना ‘to say’ as below.

**Rightward movement of indirect object**

18c. *उसका कल यह कहना अच्छा नहीं था उमा को।


**Rightward movement of time adverb**

18d. *उसका उमा को यह कहना अच्छा नहीं था कल।


4.2.3. Relative Clauses

There are two types of relative clause constructions: finite and non-finite participial relative clauses. The finite relative clauses maintain full sentence structures with subject verb agreement and are very common. Participial relative clauses exhibit the non-finite form of the verb. The former is more explicit than the latter. The former type is also labeled as the real relative clause.

In the formation of finite relative clauses, the relative marker जो jo ‘who’, which is placed in front of the relativized element, the correlative marker वह vah ‘that’ is placed at the beginning of the head noun, and the second identical or co-referential noun phrase may be deleted. The forms of relative and correlative markers are given below.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Relative markers</th>
<th>Direct</th>
<th>Oblique</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>जो</td>
<td>जो</td>
<td>जिस</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Sg</td>
<td>Pl</td>
<td>Sg</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

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Correlative markers

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th></th>
<th>vah</th>
<th>ve</th>
<th>us</th>
<th>un</th>
</tr>
</thead>
</table>

The relative marker begins with a ज /j/ sound, whereas correlative markers begin with व /v/ and उ /u/ sounds. In the direct case, the noun is not followed by a postposition and when it is, it is in the oblique case. The relative and correlative markers change for the number and case of the noun. The forms are as follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Direct</th>
<th>Relative Pronouns</th>
<th>Correlative Pronouns</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg</td>
<td>jaao</td>
<td>vah</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>Pl</td>
<td>jo</td>
<td>ve</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Oblique</th>
<th>jis</th>
<th>jin</th>
<th>us</th>
<th>un</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>jisne</td>
<td>jise</td>
<td>jinhê</td>
<td>use</td>
<td>unhê</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jisko</td>
<td>jinko</td>
<td>usko</td>
<td>unko</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jisse</td>
<td>jinse</td>
<td>usse</td>
<td>unse</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>jisne</td>
<td>jinhône</td>
<td>usne</td>
<td>unhône</td>
<td></td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

In the examples given below, the symbol Ø indicates the presumed site of relativized and head NP prior to deletion.

1. जो लड़का दिल्ली में रहता है वह Ø मेरा भाई है।
   
   *jo larka: dilli me rahta: he vah Ø mera: bha:i: he.*
   
   rel boy Delhi-loc live-ptc is cor -Ø my brother is
   
   The boy, who lives in Delhi, is my brother.

Sentence (1) consists of two clauses which share an identical and co-referential noun phrase.

Main clause:

   *larka: mera: bha:i: he.*

   The boy is my brother.
Relative clause:

The boy lives in Delhi.

Here the relative clause takes the relative pronoun जो jo, whereas the correlative clause takes the correlative pronoun वह vah. When the relative clause precedes the main clause it results in the sentence (1a):

1a. 

[जो लड़का दिल्ली में रहता है] वह लड़का में भाई है।


The second occurrence of लड़का larka: is deleted to yield sentence (1b). There are two other possibilities for relative clauses: (i) the relative clause may follow the head noun phrase (1b), and (ii) the relative clause may follow the correlative clause (1c).

1b. वह लड़का [जो दिल्ली में रहता है] में भाई है।


1c. वह लड़का में भाई है [जो दिल्ली में रहता है]।

vah larka: mera: bha:i: he [jo dilli: mē rahta: he].

Notice that the participial relative clause is formed by (i) deleting the relativized noun phrase, and (ii) changing the verb into a participial form by adding the suffix -ना -na: for the present participle and -ने जाना -ne va:la: for the agentive participle.

4.2.3.1. Restrictive and Non-restrictive Clauses

The restrictive relative clauses allow three possible word orders as given above (1a-1c). The non-restrictive relative clauses are those where some extra but relevant information is provided about the antecedent head noun. They allow only one word order in which the additional information follows the head noun.

2. नेहरु [जो भारत के पहले प्रधानमंत्री थे]

Nehru who India-gen first prime minister was
4. Syntax

Allahabad in born
Nehru, who was the first prime minister of India, was born at Allahabad.

2a. *[नेहरू जन्मे इलाहाबाद में] [जो भारत के पहले प्रधानमंत्री थे]

2b. *[जो भारत के पहले प्रधानमंत्री थे] वे इलाहाबाद में जन्मे।
There are no word order differences between a restrictive and a non-restrictive participial relative clause.

3. [दिल्ली में रहने वाला लड़का] मेरा भाई है।
Delhi in live-inf-obl gen boy my brother is
The boy who lives in Delhi is my brother.

4. इलाहाबाद में जन्मे लेने वाले नेहरू भारत के पहले प्रधानमंत्री थे।
Born at Allahabad, Nehru was the first prime minister of India.

The relative clause may precede or follow the head noun. The non-restrictive relative clause always follows the head noun. In general, the participial relative clauses precede the head noun.

The form of the relativized element in the relative clause corresponding to the head noun (i.e., the relativized element) is usually preserved in full when the relative clause precedes the main clause. Alternately, it is deleted. It is pronominalized when the head is a pronoun.

5. [हु जो मेहनत करता है] उन्नति करता है।
vah [jo mehnat kartaː hē] unnati: kartaː hē.
He who hard work do-pr is progress do-pr is
He who works hard progresses.
Here the second occurrence of the identical noun phrase is nominalized. The antecedent noun phrase may undergo deletion too, as in sentence (6).

6. \[जो दिल्ली में रहता है] वह लड़का मेरा भाई है।
Who Delhi in stay is he boy my brother is
The boy who lives in Delhi is my brother.

The original position of the relativized element usually remains unchanged. In case the relative constituent is placed in the beginning of the clause, the effect is that of contrastive focus.

7. \[मैंने यह लेख पढ़ा [जो सरिता ने लिखा है\]
\[mēne vah lekh parha: [jo sarita: ne likha: hē\].
I-erg that essay read which Sarita-erg write is
I read the essay which was written by Salim.

The place of the relativized direct object is usually in the preverbal position. The placement of the relativized object NP to the relative clause initial position indicates focus on the relativized NP. The relativized adverbials and indirect objects can undergo similar movement.

7a. \[मैंने यह लेख पढ़ा [जो सरिता ने लिखा है\]
\[mēne vah lekh parha: [jo sarita: ne likha: hē\].
I-erg that essay read which Salim-erg wrote is
I read the essay which Sarita wrote.

If the relative clause occurs to the left of the main clause, the relativized element can be placed in the sentence initial position.

7b. \[जो लेख सरिता ने लिखा है] मैं पढ़ा वह।
\[jo lekh sarita: ne likha: hē\] mēne parha: vah.
which essay sarita-erg wrote I read that
I read the essay which was written by Sarita.

In the third order, the relative clause follows immediately after the head NP.
4. Syntax

7c. मैंने पढ़ा वह लेख जो सरिता ने लिखा है।
   *mēne parha: vah lekh jo sarita: ne likha: hē.*
   I read that write which Sarita-erg wrote is
   I read the essay written by Sarita.

In a headless relative clause, the relative clause cannot be placed immediately after the head NP.

8. [राज ने जो मुना] मैंने मुना नहीं।
   *[ra:j ne jo mu:nā:] mēne mu:nā: nahi:.*
   Raj-erg rel heard I-erg hear not
   I didn't hear what Raj heard.

However, it is possible to place the relative clause to the right of the main clause.

8a. मैंने मुना नहीं [जो राज ने मुना।]
    *mēne mu:nā: nahi: [jo ra:j ne mu:nā:.]*
    I didn't hear what Raj heard.

All the constituents of a main clause except the verb can be relativized in a finite relative clause.

Relativization of subject

9. वह आदमी [जो अ आया:]
   *vah a:dmi: [jo a:ya:]*
   cor person rel came
   the person who came

Relativization of direct object

10. वह आदमी [जिसे ऑ में यहाँ लाया:]
    *vah a:dmi: [jise a:mē yahā: la:ya:]*
    cor person rel I here brought
    the person whom I brought here

Relativization of indirect object

11. वह आदमी [जिसे ऑ में देख दी:]
    *vah a:dmi: [jise a:mē kita:b di:]*
    cor person rel I-erg watch gave
    the person who I gave the book
Relativization of adjunct (object of associative postposition)
12. वह आपने [जिसके से मे दिल्ली गया]
   vah a:dmi: [jiske sa:th mē dilli: gaya:]
cor person rel with I Delhi went
   the person with whom I went to Delhi

Relativization of adjunct (object of a locative postposition)
13. वह दफ्तर [जिसे मे में काम करता है]
   vah daftar [jis mē mē ka:m karta: hē:]
cor office rel in I work do-pte am
   the office in which I work

Relativization of possessor noun
14. वह आपने [जिसका यह मकान है]
   vah a:dmi: [jiska: yeh maka:n hē:]
cor person rel-poss this house is
   the man whose house this is

Relativization of object of comparison
15. वह मकान [जिसे मे है]
   vah maka:n [jis mē maka:n bara: hē]
cor house rel than this house big is
   the house which is smaller than this house

Relativization of a subordinate subject
16. वह लड़का [जो उमा ने कहा लड़की खेलता है] गया।
   vah lar:ka [jo umā ne kaha: lar:kī khelta: hē] gaya:.
   rel boy cor Uma-erg said play-pte hockey is went
   The boy that Uma said plays hockey has gone.

Relativization of a subordinate direct object
17. वह टॉपी [जो राजा ने कहा [उमा ने बुनी है]]
   vah topi: [jo ra:ja: ne kaha: [umā ne buni: hē]]
   rel cap that Raja-erg said Uma-erg has knitted
   mere pass hē.
   me-poss is
   The cap that Raja said Uma knitted is with me.
4. Syntax

Relativization of subordinate indirect object
18. वह लड़का [जिसे मोहन ने कहा कि राजा ने किताब दी]] आया।

vah lar'ka:[jise mohan ne kaha: ki raja: ne kita:b di:]ya:.
rel boy cor Mohan-erg said that Raja-erg book gave
The boy that Mohan said Raja gave a book to came.

Relativization of object of a postpositional adverbial phrase
19. वह कालेज [जिसे अजित ने कहा [कि उमा

vah ka:lej [jis ò mē [aji:t ne kaha: [ki uma:
rel college cor in Ajit-erg said that
काम कर रही है]]) छोटा है।

ka:m kar ra:hi: he]] cho:ta: he.
Uma work do-ing is small is
The college that Ajit said Uma works at is small.

Relativization of object of comparison in subordinate clause
20. वह भवन [जिसे अजित ने कहा [कि मेरा

vah maka:n [jis ò se [aji:t ne kaha: [ki mera: maka:n
rel house cor than Ajit-erg said that
बड़ा है]]) दूर नहीं है।

bara: he]] du:r nahī: he.
my office is big is far not is
The house that Ajit said that my house is bigger than it is not
far way.

4.2.3.2. Non-finite Relative Clauses

Participial/non-finite relative clauses allow the subject and the direct
object constituent to undergo the process of relativization. However,
the indirect object etc. cannot undergo relativization.

Relativization of subject
21. [Ø बढ़ता (हुआ)] बच्चा

[ø bar'ta: (hua:) ] bacca:
grow-pst-ms (part.) child
the growing child
22. 
[ Ø पढ़ने लिये वाला ] लड़का

\[ \text{[Ø parhne likhne va:la:] larka:} \]
read-inf-obli write-inf-obli gen boy

the boy who is studying (Lit. the studying boy)

**Relativization of direct object**

23. 
[उसकी युगली हुई ] किताब

\[ \text{[uski: xari:di: hui:] kita:b} \]

his buy-pst-fs book

the book bought by him

**Indirect object**

24. 
*[ Ø किताब दी हुई ] लड़की

*[Ø kita:b di: hui:] larki:

the girl to whom the book is given

Any constituent of a subordinate relative clause, except the verbs, can be relativized.

**4.2.3.3. Finite Relative Clauses**

In finite relative clause modifiers, the possessor elements of the noun phrase can be subjected to further relativization. Also any constituent of a relative clause can be subjected to further relativization.

**Relativization of possessor**

25. 
[हर डॉक्टर] जिसका मोहन व्यक्ति खा रहा है] अच्छा नहीं है

rel doctor cor-poss Mohan medicine eating is good neg is

The doctor whose (prescribed) medicine Mohan is taking is not good.

**Relativization of modifier**

26. 
[हर दूध उत्तर गर्म नहीं है जिसका] (गर्म) में खालमा था।

\[ \text{yeh du:dh utna: garm nahi: he jitna: (garm) me ca:hta: tha:} \]

this milk rel hot neg is cor hot I wanted

This milk is not as hot as I wanted.
4. Syntax

Relativization of a constituent of a relative clause

27. वह मेज़ [जो अरु मधुर पता था [कि आपने खरीदा]]
   
   vah mez [jo ø [mujhe pata: tha: [ki a:pne xari:da:]]
   
   that table cor I know was that you-erg bought
   
   उल्लास वहा नहीं है जिसना मेज़ है।
   
   rel big neg is cor mine is
   
   The table that I know you bought is not as big as mine.

The participialization, however, does not allow relativization of any constituent of a relative clause.

The noun phrases in postpositional phrases can be relativized by the finite relativization strategy. The constituents within coordinate noun phrases can be relativized.

28. वह लड़का [जो मेरे भाई का दोलन है] बलात्कार है।
   
   vah larka: [jo ø mere bha:i: ka: dost he] ca:la:k h
   
   cor boy rel my brother of friend is clever is
   
   The boy who is a friend of my brother is clever.

Elements within coordinate verb phrases and coordinate sentences can also be relativized. In (29) an element of the first conjunct of a coordinate verb phrase is conjoined.

29. वह लेख [जो मेरे पत्र और पत्र लिखा] अच्छा है।
   
   vah lekh [jo ø ène parha: ør patr likha:] accha: he.
   
   cor article rel I-erg read and letter wrote good is
   
   The article which I read and wrote a letter about is good.

This sentence can be interpreted as the joining of two actions in which the first stimulates the second one. The two actions, thus joined, are not independent of each other. In (30) an element of the second conjunct of a coordinate verb phrase is relativized.

30. मेरे लेख पत्र और जो पत्र लिखा वह अच्छा है।
   
   mene lekh parha: ør jo patr likha: vah accha: he.
   
   I-erg article read and cor letter wrote rel good is
   
   I read an article and the wrote a good letter about it.
This sentence can be interpreted as the joining of two actions in which the meaning after doing one thing the second one is done is implied. Therefore it appears like a participial construction. The preferred version will be (30a).

30a. लेख पढ़कर जो पत्र मैंने लिखा वह अच्छा है।

lekh parhkar jo patr mene likha: vah accha: he.

article read-cp cor letter I-erg wrote rel good is

After reading the article, I wrote a good letter about it.

The relativization of the first or second conjunct elements of a coordinate sentence result in ill-formed sentences.

31. *वह लेख [जो मैंने पढ़ा और मोहन ने पत्र लिखा] अच्छा है।

*vah lekh jo mene parha: or mohan ne patr likha: accha: he.

*The essay which I read and Mohan wrote a letter is good.

31a. *मैंने लेख पढ़ा और मोहन ने जो पत्र लिखा वह अच्छा है।

*mene lekh parha: or mohan ne jo patr likha: vah accha: he.

*I read the essay and the letter which Mohan wrote is good.

The order of pre-sentential and post-sentential positions of relative with reference to a correlative clause, also yield well-formed sentences.

32. [जो उ मैंने पढ़ा और पत्र लिखा] वह लेख अच्छा है।

[jo u mene parha: or patr likha:] vah lekh accha: he.

which I-erg read and letter wrote rel essay good is

The essay which I read, and wrote a letter about is good.

32a. वह लेख अच्छा है [जो उ मैंने पढ़ा और पत्र लिखा।]

vah lekh accha: he [jo u mene parha: or patr likha:].

he write good is which I read and letter write

That essay is good which I read and wrote a letter about.

Notice that a conjunct intervening between a relative and a correlative clause is less preferred. Therefore, sentence (32a) more preferred than (32). The relativized element can be moved within the constituents and sometimes to the initial position for the consideration of focus.
Mostly the relative clauses favor the finite relativization strategy. The participialization strategy, which is non-finite in nature, is subject to various syntactic and semantic constraints as pointed out above.

4.2.4. Adverbial Clauses

Adverbial clauses are marked by (a) the finite form of the verb, or (b) the non-finite form of the verb. Finite adverbial clauses can be placed in pre-sentential as well as post-sentential position. The unmarked order of a nonfinite adverbial clause is at the pre-verbal or post-verbal position. There are time, manner, purpose, cause, condition, concession, and degree adverbial clauses.

4.2.4.1. Adverbial Clauses of Time

There are three kinds of the adverbial clauses: (a) finite clauses with relative clauses like time markers such as यदि yedi ‘if’, (b) participial (non-finite) adverbial constructions, and (c) the infinitival constructions.

(a) Finite clauses with relative clause time markers

Some of the adverbial markers in this category are जब jab ‘when’, जब se ‘since’, and ज्योति jyõhi: ‘as soon as’.

1. जब वह आएगा मैं भी आऊँगा।
   jab vah a:yega: mɛ bhi: a:ũ:ga:.
   when he come-fut I too come-fut
   When he comes, I’ll come too.

2. जब मैं जाता हूँ (तब) वह भी जाता है।
   when I go-ptc am (then) he too go-ptc is
   When I go, (then) he goes too.

3. जबसे वह यहाँ आया (तबसे) हम साथ साथ काम करते हैं।
   jabse vah yahã: a:yã: (tabse) ham sa:th-sa:th ka:m karte hɛ.
   cor-from he came here rel-from we together work do-ptc are
   Weve worked together since he came here.
4. Syntax

In sentences (2) and (3), time adverbial clauses are introduced by the markers जब jab and जब से jab se respectively. Like relative clauses, they distinguish themselves from question words which begin with क k. The time clause contains a finite verb with tense aspect information. The time marker जब jab denotes a sequence of events (2) and simultaneous events (3) respectively. It is important to note that the relative clause time markers जब jab or जब से jab se do not undergo deletion as do the correlative markers तब tab and तब से tab se.

(b) Participial (non-finite) constructions

Four participial constructions, present participle, past participle, absolutive and the as soon as participle, also act as time adverbials. The present and past participles agree in gender and number with the subject of the main clause, whereas the last two do not undergo any agreement changes.

4. मोहन दौड़ता आए।
   mohan doṛita a:ya:.
   Mohan run-ppc came
   Mohan came running.

5. अफसर ने कुर्सी पर बैठकर पूछा।
   afsar ne kursi: par bethkar pu:cha:
   officer chair on sit-cp asked
   the officer asked, sitting on the chair

6. घर पहुँचकर उसने टेलीफोन किया।
   ghar pahūckar usne teliphon kiya:.
   home reach-pp she-erg telephone did
   She telephoned after reaching home.

7. आते ही उसने यह सवाल पूछा।
   a:te hi: usne yah sava:l pu:cha:.
   come-emp he-erg this question asked
   As soon as he came, he asked this question.

A present participle expresses an ongoing action or process. It takes the progressive aspect in the subordinate clause.
4. Syntax

8a. मोहन उस समय आया जिस समय वह दौड़ रहा था।
   *mohan us samay a:ya: jis samay vah dɔr ra:ha: tha:.*
   Mohan at that time came when he run-prog was running.

The participle forms can be reduplicated as in (8b).

8b. मोहन दौड़ता - दौड़ता आया।
   *mohan dɔrta: - dɔrta: a:ya:.*
   Mohan run-pte run-pte came running.

(c) Infinitival construction

A verbal noun followed by फ़िले pahle ‘before’, बाद में ba:d mē ‘after’, or पर par ‘on’ results in a time adverbial.

9. उसके आने में पहले कोई नहीं आएगा।
   *uske a:ne se pahle koi: nahī: a:yega:.*
   No one will come before he comes.

10. उसके जाने के बाद में जाऊँगा।
    *uske ja:ne ke ba:d mē ja:ũ:ga:.*
    I’ll go after his departure.

11. उसके आने पर सारे खुश हुए।
    *uske a:ne par sa:re khuš hue.*
    All were happy on his coming.

4.2.4.2. Manner Clauses

Manner clauses also employ relative-like and participial constructions. They are not expressed by infinitival or gerundive constructions. The relative clause-like manner markers जैसे jēse - vēse ‘as/which way’ indicates the manner reading.
12. जैसा में करूँगा जैसे ही करो।
   *jese më kahũ:ga: vese hi: karo.*
   as-rel I tell-you the same way-cor emp do
   Do as I tell you.

The word order of the relative manner clause and correlative manner clause can be altered.

12a. वैसे करो जैसा में करूँगा।
   *vese karo jese më kahũ:ga:*

The following participial constructions express manner rather than time.

13. वह गेले - गेले आया।
   *vah rote - rote a:ya:.*
   he weep-pte weep-pte came
   He came (while) crying.

14. वह फराश पर बैठकर गेया।
   *vah faraš par beţhkar roya:.*
   he floor on sit-cp wept
   He cried sitting on the floor.

15. वह अगरण के साथ बोला।
   *vah šara:rat ke sa:th bola:.*
   he anger-gen with said
   He said with anger.

The negativized participial form is formed by adding -ए बिना -e bina:.

16. वह हैम बिना बोला।
   *vah hāse bina: bola:.*
   he laugh-obl without said
   He said without laughing.

Infinitival constructions also express manner.

17. उसका नामना मुझे पसंद है।
   *usaha: na:cna: mujhe pasand hë.*
   (s)he-gen dance-inf me-dat like is
   I like his/her manner of dancing.
4. Syntax

17a. उसके नाचने का तरीका मुझे पसंद है।
   (s)he-gen-obl dance-inf-gen manner I-dat like is
   I like his/her manner of dancing.

4.2.4.3. Purpose Clauses

Purpose clauses are formed in two ways: (a) infinitival form followed by ए e or the oblique form plus the postposition के लिए ke liye ‘for’, and (b) the क्योंकि kyōki ‘because/as’ clause modifying इस लिए is liye ‘therefore’.

18. वह नाटक देखने गया।
   vah na:tak dekhne gaya:.
   he play see-inf-obl for
   He went to see a play.

18a. वह नाटक देखने के लिए गया।
   vah na:tak dekhne ke liye gaya:.
   he play see-inf-obl for went
   He went to see a play.

Notice that in (18) the oblique case marker e is added to the infinitive form of the verb, which expresses the meaning for. In (18a), the oblique case marker -ए -e is added before the postposition के लिए ke liye ‘for’. In the above construction, there is an option between the two alternatives. If the verb is not a motion verb the oblique form and postposition must be used.

19. मैंने उसे किताब पढ़ने के लिए कहा।
   mēne use kita:b parhne ke liye kaha:.
   I-erg he-dat book read-inf-obl for said
   I told him to read the book.

19a. *मैंने उसे किताब पढ़ने कहा।
    *mēne use kita:b parhne kaha:.
4. SYNTAX

The co-referential phrases *kyōki* because and *is liye* ‘therefore’ can also be used.

20. क्योंकि आज गर्मी थी इसलिए मैं बाज़ार नहीं गया।
    Because today hot was therefore I market neg went
    Because it was hot, I didnt go to market.

The elements of co-referential phrases क्योंकि *kyōki* and इसलिए *is liye* can be deleted. The word order undergoes a change as in (20a) and (20b) below.

20a. आज गर्मी थी इसलिए मैं बाज़ार नहीं गया।
    Today hot was therefore न नहीं I market neg go-past
    It was hot, therefore, I couldnt go to market.

20b. क्योंकि आज गर्मी थी इसलिए मैं बाज़ार नहीं गया।
    because today hot was I market neg go-past
    Because it was hot, I didnt go to market.

4.2.4.4. Cause Clauses

Cause is expressed by using these constructions: (a) finite clauses marked by क्योंकि *kyōki* ‘because’, (b) participles, and (c) infinitival plus ने *se* from.

(a) Finite clauses

21. वह पढ़ नहीं सकता क्योंकि वह अनपढ़ है।
    *vah parːh nahiː saktaː kyōki vah anparːh heː.*
    he read not able because he illiterate is
    He cannot read because he is illiterate.

21a. क्योंकि वह अनपढ़ है वह पढ़ नहीं सकता।
    *kyōki vah anparːh heː, vah parːh nahiː saktaː.*
    Because he is illiterate, he cannot read.
4. Syntax

(b) Participles

22. चलते चलते वह थककर और बैठ गया।
   \textit{calte calte vah thaka: \textchi{\texteta} b{{\texteta}} th\textgama{\texteta} gaya:}.
   walk-ptc he tired and sat aux
   Because of walking (constantly), he was tired and sat down.

23. मे प्रतिश्रम करते करते ठक कर।
   \textit{më prati:kša: karte karte thak gaya:}.
   I wait do-ptc tired aux
   I got tired of waiting.

The cause is expressed in (22) and (23) by reduplicated present and past participles respectively. Cause can be expressed by other participles, too.

24. अधिक शराब पीकर वह बीमार हुआ।
   \textit{adhik šara:b pi:kar vah bi:ma:r hua:}.
   more liquor drink-ep he sick was
   Because he drank a lot (of liquor), he was sick.

25. दवाई राखने ही वह ठीक हुआ।
   \textit{dava:i: kha:te hi: vah thî:kh hua:}.
   medicine eat-ptc emp he alright became
   Immediately upon taking the medicine, he recovered (from illness).

(c) Infinitive plus \textit{se} with

26. बच्चे के आने मे गरी गुज हुए।
   \textit{bacce ke a:ne se sabhi: khuš hue}.
   child-obl-gen come-inf-obl with all happy were
   Because of the arrival of the child, all were happy.

4.2.4.5. Condition Clauses

Condition clauses are marked by the conjunction \textit{agar/yadi} ‘if’.

27. अगर/यदि वह बाजार जाएगा फिर मे नही जाएगा।
   if he market go-fut-ms then I neg go-fut.1s
   If he goes to market, (then) I won’t go.
28. अगर/यदि वारिष्ठ होगी फिर अच्छी फसल होगी।
   agar/yadi ba:riš hogi:. phir acchi: fasal hogi:.
   if rain fall-fut then good crop be-fut
   If it rains, then the crops will be good.

The sequence of if - then clause can be reversed.

27a. फिर मे बाजार नहीं जाएगा अगर वह जाएगा।
   again I market neg go-fut if he go-fut
   I will not go to the market if he goes.

28a. फिर अच्छी फसल होगी अगर वारिष्ठ होगी।
   phir acchi: fasl hogi: agar ba:riš hogi:.
   again good harvest will if rain comes
   The crop will be good if it rains.

It is to be noted that the condition marker अगर agar is not deleted,
whereas its co-referential marker फिर phir can be deleted. The
conjunction marker वर्णा varna: ‘otherwise’ also is used in condition clauses.

29. कल जल्दी आ जाना वर्णा में अकेलें जाएगा।
   tomorrow soon come otherwise I alone-obl go-fut
   Come early tomorrow, otherwise I will go alone.

The same tense reference is marked in both constituents conjoined
by the markers अगर agar and वर्णा varna:.

4.2.4.6. Concession Clauses

A concession clause is marked by subordinate conjunction markers
such as यथायथ yadhypī/ हलालक हा:lā:ki/ यह ca:he ‘although’, अगर - फिर भी
agar - phir bhi: ‘even if’, and क्यों नहीं kyō nahī: ‘why not’.

30. यथायथ/ हलालक वह बहुत अमीर है फिर भी वह कंदुख है।
   yadhypī/ha:lā:ki vah bahut ami:r he phir bhi: vah kanju:s he.
   although he very rich is still he miser is
   Although he is very rich, he is a miser.
4. Syntax

31. चाहे आप उसको पीटोगा भी वह यह काम नहीं करेगा।
   ca:he a:p usko pi:toge bhi:, vah yah ka:m nahī: karega:.
even if you he-dat beat-fut too he this work not do-fut
   Even if you beat him/her up, he/she won’t do this work.

31a. चाहे आप उसको पीटोगा भी वह फिर भी यह काम
caha a:p usko p:to ge bhi:, vah phir bhi: yah ka:m
even if you he-dat beat-fut too even then this work
   nahi karega.
   nahi: karega:.
   not do-fut
   Even if you’ll beat him/her up, even then he/she won’t do this
   work.

32. वह क्यों ना अतुरूंच करे फिर भी भी उसके साथ
   vah kyō na ka:phi: anurodh kare phir bhi: mē uske sa:th
   he why do much insist do even then I he-gen with
   dilli: nahī: ja:ũ:ga:.
   Delhi not go-fut
   Even if he insists, I’ll not go to Delhi with him.

4.2.4.7. Result Clauses

In result clauses, the main clause contains a cause marked by an
oblique infinitive followed by the postposition के कारण ke ka:ran̄ / खी
vajah ki: vajah ‘because of the reason’. This expresses the result of a
sentence. In a sentence sequence, the cause is usually given in the
first sentence, followed by another sentence giving the result of it.
The second sentence usually contains the phrase हा लाई is liye
‘therefore’.

33. बारिश होने के कारण / खी वजह में वाजार न जा सका।
   ba:riš hone ke ka:ran̄/ki: vajah mē ba:za:r na ja: saka:.
   rain fall-inf-obl reason I market neg go able
   I could not go to market because of the rain.

34. कल अच्छा दिन था इसलिए मैं चूपने गया।
   kal accha: mōsam tha: isliye mē ghu:mne gaya:.
yesterday good weather was therefore I walk-inf-obl went-1s
   The weather was good yesterday, therefore, I went for a walk.
4. Syntax

4.3. Sentence Construction

Here we will discuss the different types of sentence constructions: copular, verbal, negation, interrogatives, imperatives, anaphora, reflexives, reciprocals, equatives, comparison, superlatives, and coordination.

4.3.1. Copular Sentences

The verb हों 'to be' is employed in copular sentences. The copula may take a predicate noun, predicate adjective, participle, or a predicate adverb as a complement.

**Predicate noun**

1. वह वकील है।  
   *vah vaki:l hē.*  
   He lawyer is  
   He is a lawyer.

**Predicate adjective**

2. सुषमा लंबी है।  
   *sušma: lambi: hē.*  
   Sushma tall is  
   Sushma is tall.

**Predicate adverbial (participle)**

3. मोहन राखा है।  
   *mohan khara: hē.*  
   Mohan stand is  
   Mohan is standing.

**Predicate adverbial**

4. उसकी आवाज मीठी है।  
   his/her voice sweet is  
   His/her voice is sweet.

The unmarked order of constituents in the examples given above is subject - complement - copula.
4. Syntax

There are two types of predicate adjectival copular sentences: (a) those which change for gender and number of the nouns they modify and (b) those which do not. The adjective लम्बा lambda: ‘tall’ falls into the first category, and the adjective सफेद safed ‘white’ falls into the second.

5. यह लम्बा लड़का है।
yah lambda: larka: he.
this tall boy is
This is a tall boy.

5a. ये लम्बे लड़कें हैं।
ye lambe larke hen.
these tall boys are
These are tall boys.

5b. यह लम्बी लड़की है।
yeh lambi: larki: he.
this tall girl is
This is a tall girl.

5c. ये लम्बी लड़कियाँ हैं।
ye lambi: larkiyā: hen.
these tall girls are
These are tall girls.

6. यह सफेद फूल है।
yeh safed phu:l he.
this white flower is
This is a white flower.

6a. ये सफेद फूल हैं।
ye safed phu:l hen.
these white flowers are
These are white flowers.

6b. यह सफेद कमीज़ है।
yeh safed kami:z he.
this white shirt is
This is a white shirt.
6c. ये सफेद कमीजें हैं।
ye safed kami:zê hê.
these white shirts are
These are white shirts.

The copular verb must be retained in both affirmative (positive) as well as negative sentences. In the case of co-ordinate structures, it is optionally deleted.

7. मोहन डॉक्टर है।
mohan da:kta r hê.
Mohan doctor is
Mohan is a doctor.

8. सोहन वकील नहीं हैं।
sohan vaki:l nah hê.
Sohan lawyer not is
Sohan is not a lawyer.

9. मोहन और अजीत डॉक्टर हैं।
mohan aur aji:t da:kta r hê.
Mohan and Ajit doctors are
Mohan and Ajit are doctors.

9a. मोहन डॉक्टर है और अजीत भी।
mohan da:kta r hê ðr aji:t bhi:
Mohan doctor is and Ajit too
Mohan is a doctor and so is Ajit.

9b. न मोहन वकील है और न अजीत।
na mohan vaki:l hê ðr na aji:t.
neg Mohan lawyer is and neg Ajit
Neither Mohan nor Ajit is a lawyer.

The copular verb is used for definition, identity, existence, and role functions. It is also used as a second member (explicator) in the compound verb sequences.

10. आजकल सूर्य जल्दी बढ़ता है।
nowadays sun quick rise-ptc is
The sun rises early these days.
4. Syntax

11. दिन प्रति दिन हालत बुध्वर रहे हे।
   *din prati din ha:la:t sudhar rahe hē.*
   The situation is improving day by day.

12. आजकल जल्दी अधेष्ठ होता है।
   It becomes dark early (in the evening) these days.

13. ईश्वर है।
   *i:śvar hē.*
   God is

14. भाग्य अपना अपना है।
   *bha:gya apna: apna: hē.*
   One is born with his/her own luck.

15. सत्य किंवा नहीं।
   *satya chipta: nahē.*
   The truth (eventually) comes out. Or
   The truth cannot be hidden.

16. समय बलवान है।
   *samay balva:n hē.*
   Time is strong.

The copular verb always takes a complement. In sentence (13) the complement does not appear at the surface and is understood as विद्यमान *vidhyma:n/ māju:d ‘exists/omnipresent’ and/or हर स्थान *har stha:n/ kaṇ kaṇ maṇ ‘everywhere’.

16a. ईश्वर विद्यमान/समुद्र/हर स्थान पर/ कण कण में है।
   *i:śvar vidhyma:n/mauju:d /har stha:n par/kaṇ kaṇ maṇ mē hē.*
   God present/everywhere particles in is
   God exists. Or God is present everywhere.
In Hindi the copula verb होना hona: ‘to be’ is used as a non-stative verb and is translated as to become/happen/take/occur. This meaning is expressed by using the verb होना hona: or हो जाना ho ja:na: ‘to become’.

17. देर हुई /लगई।
   der hui:/lagai:.
   late be-pst-fs/be aux-fs
   It became late.

18. बातचीत हुई।
   baatci:t hui:.
   conversation be-pst-fs
   The conversation took place.

19. काम हुआ।
   ka:m hua:.
   work be-pst-ms
   The work was done.

4.3.2. Verbal Sentences

Verbal phrases can be grouped into three categories based on the classification of their verbs as simple, conjunct, or compound. The first category has only one verbal root as in (1).

1. मैंने किताब पढ़ी।
   mēne kita:b parhi:.
   I-erg book read
   I read a book.

The second category is formed by combining a noun/adjective plus the verb करना karna: ‘to do’, or होना hona: ‘to be’. (i.e. काम करना ka:m karna: ‘to work’, मेरनत करना mehnat karna: ‘to work hard’, गाफ होना sa:ph hona: ‘to be clear’ ताकत होना ta:kat hona: ‘to be strong/healthy’.)

2. मुझे काम करना है।
   mujhe ka:m karna: he. 
   I-dat work do-inf be
   I have to work.
4. Syntax

3. यह मस्तूला साफ है।
   yeh ma:mla: sa:f hē.
   this matter clear is
   This matter is clear. or It is clear.

4. उसने मेहनत की।
   usne mehnat ki:
   he-erg hard work did
   He worked hard.

5. उसके ताकत है।
   usmē ta:kat hē.
   he-obl-loc strength be
   (S)he is strong/healthy. or (S)he has strength.

   The third category employs a sequence of verbs like पढ़ लेना parh lena: ‘to read’, and लिखें देना likh dena: ‘to write’.

6. उसने अखबार पढ़ लिया।
   usne axba:r parh liya:
   he-erg newspaper read took-explicator-ms
   He read the newspaper.

7. मैं चित्ती लिख दी।
   mēne cit'hi: likh di:
   I-erg letter write gave-explicator-fs
   I wrote the letter.

   The subject of a transitive verb in the past tense is in the oblique case, followed by the case sign or the postposition ने ne.

8. लड़के ने कहा।
   larke ne ke:ha:
   boy-erg essay-ms wrote-ms
   The boy wrote an essay.

9. लड़की ने पत्र लिखा।
   larki: ne patr likha:
   girl-erg letter-ms wrote-ms
   The girl wrote a letter.
4. SYNTAX

10. लड़कों/लड़कियों ने न्याय समझा।
   larkō/larkiyō ne axba:r parha:.
   boys-/girls-erg newspaper read
   The boys/girls read the newspaper.

11. हमें/हमने फिल्म देखी।
    mēṇe/hamne film dekhi:.
    I-erg/we-erg film-fs saw-fs
    I/we saw a film.

12. तू/तुमने/आपने किताब पढ़ी।
    tu:ne/tumne/a:pne kita:b parhi:.
    you-erg book-fs read-fs
    You read a book.

13. तुमने/आपने कुर्सी देखी।
    tumne/a:pne kursi: dekhi:.
    you-erg chair saw-fs
    You saw a chair.

The plural forms of personal pronouns are used as honorific singular/plural subjects as well.

Psychological predicates such as गुस्सा आना gussā: a:na: ‘to be angry or irritated’, and लगना lagna: ‘seem’ always take a dative subject using a dative case marker and the postposition को ko.

14. लड़के को गुस्सा आया।
    larke ko gussa: a:ya:.
    boy-obl to anger came
    The boy was angry.

15. उसे चोट लगी।
    use cot lagi:.
    he-dat injury struck
    He got injured.

4.3.2.1. Direct Object

Verbs are conventionally divided into intransitive and transitive on the basis of whether they take a noun phrase as an object. Transitive
verbs take noun phrases as their object and intransitive verbs do not. In certain cases, the objects are understood and they do not appear at the surface level. For example, see the use of the transitive verbs कहना kahna: ‘to say’ and पूछना pu:chna: ‘to ask’ in sentences (16) and (17) below.

16. मैं कहीं।
   mēne kahi:
   I-erg said-fs
   I said (it) to him/her.

17. उसने पूछा।
   usne pu:cha:
   he-erg asked-fs
   He asked (it to) him/her.

In (16), the verb कहना kahna: is inflected for an implied generic feminine object. Similarly, in (17), the verb पूछना pu:chna: is inflected for an implied generic masculine object. These sentences can be completed as follows.

16a. मैं उससे अपनी बात कहीं।
   mēne usse apni: ba:t kahi:
   I-erg him/her selfs matter-fs told-fs
   I told him/her my story.

17a. उसने हालचाल पूछा।
   usne ha:laːl pu:cha:
   he/she-erg welfare-ms asked-ms
   He/she asked (him/her) welfare.

4.3.2.2. Indirect Object

Whenever direct and indirect objects occur in a sentence, the indirect object receives the dative case markings. The order of the direct and indirect object in a sentence mainly depends on the emphasis given to these constituents in a given sentence. When animate indirect objects precede direct objects, they get extra emphasis. Notice the following examples of sentences using indirect objects in the dative case.
4. SYNTAX

18. मैं अजित को किताब दी।
   mēne ajiː t ko kitaː b diː.
   I-erg Ajit-dat book-fs gave-fs
   I gave Ajit a book.

18a. मैं किताब अजित को दी।
    mēne kitaː b ajiː t ko diː.

19. अजित ने अपनी पत्नी के लिए शाल खरीदी।
   ajiː t ne apniː patniː ke liye šaː l xariː daː.
   Ajit-erg selfs wife for shawl bought
   Ajit bought his wife a shawl.

19a. अजित ने शाल अपनी पत्नी के लिए खरीदी।
    ajiː t ne šaː l apniː patniː ke liye xariː daː.
    Ajit-erg shawl selfs wife for bought
    Ajit bought a shawl for his wife.

20. उमा ने मुझे फाला खिलाया।
    umaː ne mujhe khaː naː khilaː yaː.
    Uma-erg I-obl food feed-fs
    Uma offered the food to me.

20a. मुझे उमा ने खाना फिलाया।
     mujhe uma ne khaː naː khilaː yaː.
     I-obl Uma-erg food feed-fs
     Uma offered the food to me.

In (18), (19) and (20) the indirect objects receive more emphasis
than in (18a), (19a) and (20a).

4.3.2.3. Other Types of Verb Argument

Other types of verb arguments appear in the form of various
postpositional phrases. They include locatives, instruments,
benefactives, and comitatives.

There are no restrictions regarding the number of arguments
(subject, direct/indirect object, and optional arguments) put together
in a sentence. There are, of course, certain semantic restrictions,
including the selection of their cases (nominative, dative, and
ergative subjects), imposed by the choice of verbs and tense.

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4. Syntax

In Hindi, the verb occurs in the final position. The unmarked word order is subject, indirect object, direct object, adverbial (time, locative), and verb. The direct object may occur before the indirect object depending on the emphasis given to it. Consider sentences (21)- (21c) below.

21. मोहन ने पीटर को अजित के लिए कल घर पर किताब दी।
   mohan ne pi:t er ko aji:t ke liye kal ghar par kita:b di:.
   Mohan gave Peter a book for Ajit yesterday at home.

21a. मोहन ने अजित के लिए पीटर को कल घर पर किताब दी।
    mohan ne aji:t ke liye pi:t er ko kal ghar par kita:b di:.

21b. मोहन ने पीटर को अजित के लिए घर पर कल किताब दी।
    mohan ne pi:t er ko aji:t ke liye ghar par kal kita:b di:.

21c. मोहन ने कल पीटर को अजित के लिए घर पर किताब दी।
    mohan ne kal pi:t er ko aji:t ke liye ghar par kita:b di:.

In sentence (21), the direct object gets more emphasis than the indirect object. The order of emphasis is reversed in sentence (21a). Similarly, the adverbial phrase can also precede the direct or indirect object for emphasis.

4.3.3. Negation

4.3.3.1. Sentential Negation

Sentential negation is expressed by the negative particles नहीं nahī: not, मा mat don’t, and ना na no. The negative particle नहीं nahī: is added before the main verb, which may or may not be followed by an auxiliary verb.

1. वह आजकल दफ्तर नहीं जाता है।
   vah a:j kal daftar nah: ji:ta: he.
   He nowadays office neg go-ptc is
   He doesn’t go to the office nowadays.
2. मैं यह बिना नहीं पढ़ा (है)।
   *mene yeh kita:b nahi: parhi: (he).*
   I-erg this book neg read (have)
   I have not read this book.

The particle न मत ‘don’t’ is used with imperative constructions. It is added in the preverbal position.

3. अखबार मत पढ़ो।
   *axba:r mat parho.*
   newspaper neg read
   Don’t read the newspaper.

4. आज घर मत जाए।
   *a:j ghar mat ja:yiye.*
   today home neg go-pl
   Please don’t go home today.

The negative particle मत mat can be replaced by न na ‘no’, but it is not used frequently.

3a. अखबार न पढ़ो।
   *axba:r na parho.*
   Don’t read the newspaper.

4a. आज घर न जाए।
   *a:j ghar na ja:yiye.*
   Please don’t go home today.

4.3.3.2. Constituent Negation

A number of devices are employed to mark constituent negation. The main constituents are the stress and the use of a negative particle after the negated constituent. Sometimes stress is used to negate the constituent.

5. उसे कल पत्नी से लड़ना नहीं चाहिए था।
   *use kal patni: se lar:na: nahi: ca:hiye tha:.*
   he-dat yesterday wife with quarrel neg should was
   He should not have quarreled with his wife yesterday.
6. उन्हें हर गेज आप नहीं पूनी चाहिए।
   He should not drink (liquor) daily.

In sentences (5) and (6), the negated constituents are stressed by
stressing the adverbs.

The negative marker follows the negated constituent.

7. वह घर नहीं गया वह अस्पताल गया।
   vah ghar nahī: gaya:, vah aspata:l gaya:.
   He did not go home; he went to the hospital.

7a. वह घर नहीं गया अस्पताल गया।
   vah ghar nahī: gaya:, aspata:l gaya:.

The negative constituent is also expressed by the use of the negative
markers śiva: except and bina: without added after the main
verbs as given below.

8. वह खाना खाए बिना कालेज गया।
   vah kha:na: kha:ye bina: ka:lej gaya:.
   He went to college without eating.

9. उमा के निवास में समय पर आए।
   uma: ke siva: sa:re samay par a:ye.
   All came on time except Uma.

In sentences (7) and (8), the negative markers cannot be replaced by
नहीं nahī:.

The indefinite markers कोई koi: ‘someone’ and कुछ kuch ‘something’
and the question words कोई नहीं kahi: bhi: ‘anywhere’ and कभी नहीं kabhi: bhi: ‘ever’ are also used with negative constituents.
4. Syntax

10. कोई लड़का नहीं गया।
    *koi: larka: sku:l nahĩ: gaya:.*
    someone student school neg went
    No child went to school.

11. इतने पैसे में कुछ नहीं होगा।
    *itne pese se kuch nahĩ: hoga:.*
    this-obl money with something neg be-fut
    This money is not sufficient.

12. उसने कल में कोई काम नहीं किया।
    *usne kal se koi: ka:m nahĩ: kiya:.*
    he-erg yesterday from any work neg did
    He has done no work since yesterday.

13. अमित कहीं नहीं गया।
    *amit kahi: nahĩ: gaya:.*
    Amit anywhere neg went
    Amit went nowhere.

14. यह काम कभी भी व्यर्थ नहीं होगा।
    *yeh ka:m kabhi: bhi: vyarth nahĩ: hoga:.*
    this work ever waste neg be-fut
    This work will never go waste.

Participles are also used along with negated constituents.

15. अमित दौड़े - दौड़े नहीं आया।
    *amit d̐ørte - d̐ørte nahĩ: a:ya:.*
    Amit run-ptc neg came
    Amit did not come running.

The negative prefixes *be-* and *an-*, borrowed from Persian (morphological negation) negate the constituent to which they are prefixed.

16. वह बेरहम है।
    *vah beraham he:.*
    he without-mercy is
    He is merciless.
4. Syntax

17. वह बेडिल काम करता है।
   vah bedil ka:m karta: he.
   he without-heart work do-ptc is
   He works uninterestingly.

4.3.3.3. Double/Multiple Negation

Hindi allows only one negative particle per clause. Double or multiple negation markers are not used.

18. मैं हैदराबाद नहीं गया हूँ।
   mē hedara:ba:d nahī: gaya: hū:.
   I Hyderabad neg went be
   I have not gone to Hyderabad.

It is, however, possible to use double negation markers for emphasis.

19. मैं मोस्को नहीं न गया हूँ।
   mē ma:sko nahī: na gaya: hū:.
   I Moscow neg neg went be
   Have I ever gone to Moscow? Or
   I have never gone to Moscow.

4.3.3.4. Negation and Coordination

Negation occurs in coordinate structures as it does in simple sentences. The negative element is not moved to the co-ordinate position unless the identical element is deleted from the second negative conjunct. It is only in the na na … na ‘neither … nor’ situation that negative elements are used sentence initially.

20. न अमित नै करकर करता है और न कारबार।
    na amit nā:kri: karta: he ɔr na karoba:r.
    neg Amit service do-prt is and neg business
    Amit has neither a job nor a business.

20a. अमित नै करकर नहीं करता है।
    Amit job neg do-pr is
    Amit is not doing a job.
4. SYNTAX

20b. अमित कारोबार नहीं करता है।
   Amit business neg do-pte is
   Amit is not doing a business.

4.3.3.5. Negation and Subordination

With predicates expressing opinion (पता होना pata: hona: ‘to know’,
expectation/ intention (चाहना ca:hna: ‘to want’), or perception (लगना
lagna: ‘to seem’ and विचार होना vica:r hona: ‘to have an opinion/to
think’), the matrix verb can be negated to express subordinate
negation.

21. मुझे पता है कि वह नहीं आएगा।
   mujhe pata: he ki vah nahĩ: a:yega:.
   I-obl know is that he neg come-fut
   I know that he will not come.

22. मुझे लगता है कि आज बारिश नहीं होगी।
   mujhe lagta: he ki aj ba:riš nahĩ: hogi:.
   I-dat seem-pte is that today rain neg be-fut
   It seems to me that it won’t rain today.

23. मैं चाहता हूँ कि वह कारोबार नहीं करे।
   I want-pte am that he business neg do-subjunctive
   I don’t want him to do business.

24. मेरा विचार है कि उसे यह नौकरी नहीं करनी चाहिए।
   my opinion is that he-obl this job neg do-inf should
   In my opinion, he should not take this job.

The negative particle नहीं nahĩ: can occur before the modal verbs पता
होना pata: hona:; लगना lagna: and चाहना ca:hna: but not before विचार होना
vica:r hona:. Thus, sentences (21-23) can be rephrased as (21a-23a)
but not as (24a).

21a. मुझे नाहीं पता कि वह आएगा (कि नाहीं)।
   mujhe nahĩ: pata: ki vah a:yega: (ki nahĩ:).
4. SYNTAX

22a. मूझे नहीं लगता है कि आज बारिश होगी।
   mujhe nahi: lagta: he ki a:j ba:riš hogi:.

23a. मैं नहीं चाहता कि वह काराबार करे।

24a. *मूझे नहीं विचार है कि
   *mujhe nahi: vica:r he ki.

4.3.4. Interrogative

There are two types of interrogative sentences: yes-no questions and information questions using question-words. These questions are marked by certain intonation characteristics.

4.3.4.1. Yes-No Questions

On the basis of the expected answer, yes-no questions can be put into two categories: (a) neutral yes-no questions (where a definite answer is not expected) and (b) leading yes-no questions (where either an affirmative or a negative answer is expected).

4.3.4.1.1. Neutral Yes-No Questions

Neutral yes-no questions are formed by the optional placement of the question word क्या kya: what in the sentence initial position of a declarative sentence. Note that the use of the question marker क्या kya: in neutral questions is different from its use in the question-word questions. In question-word questions, क्या kya: usually occurs in the second position, and in yes-no questions it occurs only in the initial position.

1. तुम कल दिल्ली जाओगे।
   tum kal dilli: ja:oge.
   you tomorrow Delhi go-fut tomorrow
   You will go to Delhi tomorrow.

1a. (क्या) तुम कल दिल्ली जाओगे?
   (kya:) tum kal dilli: ja:oge?
   (Q-word) you tomorrow Delhi go
   Will you go to Delhi tomorrow?
4. Syntax

1b. तुम क्या कल दिल्ली जाओगे?
   *tum kya: kal dilli ja:oge?*

A declarative sentence can be converted to a neutral yes-no question without adding any question marker by raising the intonation at the end of the verb.

A negative declarative sentence is changed to a yes-no question by adding the negative morpheme before the verb.

2. तुम कल दिल्ली जाओगे।
   *tum kal dilli: nahî: ja:oge.*
   you tomorrow Delhi neg go-fut
   You won’t go to Delhi tomorrow.

2a. (क्या) तुम कल दिल्ली नहीं जाओगे?
   *(kya:) tum kal dilli: nahî: ja:oge?*
   (Q) you tomorrow Delhi neg go-fut
   Won’t you go to Delhi tomorrow?

2b. तुम क्या कल दिल्ली नहीं जाओगे?
   *tum kya: kal dilli nahî: ja:oge?*
   Aren’t you going to Delhi tomorrow?

A negativized yes-no question invokes multiple answers. Consider the answers to questions (3) and (4):

3. तुम यह फिल्म नहीं देखोगे?
   *tum yah film nahî: dekhoge?*
   you this picture neg watch-fut
   Won’t you watch this film?

3a. हाँ, मैं देखूँगा (यह फिल्म).
   *hâ:, mîn dekhũ:ga: (yeh film).*
   yes I watch-1s-fut (this film).
   Yes, I’ll see (this film).

3b. नहीं, मैं देखूँगा नहीं (यह फिल्म).
   *nahî:, mîn dekhũ:ga: nahî: (yeh film).*
   neg I see-fut neg (this film)
   No, I won’t watch (this film).
4. Syntax

3c. हे, मैं देखूँगा नहीं।
   *hāː, mē ḍehūːɡa: nahiː.*
   yes, I watch-1s-fut neg
   Yes, I won’t watch.

3d. नहीं, मैं देखूँगा।
   *nahiː, mē ḍehūːɡa.*
   neg I watch-fut
   No, I’ll watch.

4. आज मधी है ना?
   *aːj sardiː hē naː?*
   today cold is neg-Q
   Isn’t it cold today?

4a. हे, आज मधी है।
   *hāː, aːj sardiː hē.*
   yes today cold is
   Yes, it is cold today.

4b. नहीं, आज मधी नहीं है।
   *nahiː, aːj sardiː nahiː hē.*
   Neg today cold neg is
   No, it isn’t cold today.

4c. हे, आज मधी नहीं है।
   *hāː, aːj sardiː nahiː hē.*
   yes today cold neg is
   Yes, it isn’t cold today.

4d. नहीं, आज मधी नहीं है।
   *nahiː, aːj sardiː nahiː hē.*
   neg today cold neg is
   No, it isn’t cold today.

In these examples, the (a-b) answers indicate positive-negative and the (c-d) indicate agreement-disagreement answering systems. The agreement-disagreement answering systems are less frequently used than the positive-negative ones.
4.3.4.1.2. Leading Questions

Leading questions are formed by adding the repetitive form of the verb negative or positive question markers नहीं nahi: and हाँ hā: respectively at the end of a declarative sentence to serve as tag questions. The tag question comprising of the verb + ना na: is preceded by a positive proposition and the tag question of the verb + हाँ hā: is preceded by the negative proposition.

The expectation of a positive answer is expressed by an affirmative proposition preceding the verb + ना na: as a tag question.

5. आज गर्मी है, है ना?
   आज गर्मी: है, है ना:?
   today hot is is neg-q
   It is hot today, isn’t it?

6. वह बिना पढ़ेगा, पढ़ेगा ना?
   वह किताब पढ़ेगा, पढ़ेगा ना:?
   he book read-3s-fut read-3s-fut neg-q
   He will read a letter, won’t he?

The expectation of a negative answer is expressed by a negative proposition preceding the verb + ना na: or the repetition of the verb form as a tag question.

7. आज गर्मी नहीं है, ना?
   आज गर्मी: नहीं है, ना:?
   today hot neg is neg-q
   It isn’t hot today, is it?

8. वह पत्र नहीं पढ़ेगा, पढ़ेगा?
   वह पत्र नहीं पढ़ेगा, पढ़ेगा?
   he letter neg read-3s-fut read-3s-fut neg-q
   He won’t read a letter, will he?

Note that the occurrence of certain negative polarity markers such as पहले pahle, तो थोरे thore ‘ever’ in the interrogative sentence also invoke a negative answer.
4. Syntax

9. वह पहले/थोरे काम करता है?
   vah pahle/thore ka:m karta: he?
   he ever work do-pte.ms is
   Does he ever work?

Alternative questions are formed by adding the expression कि नहीं ki nahī: ‘or not’ at the end of an interrogative yes-no question.

10. तुम पत्र लिखोगे कि नहीं?
    tum patr likhoge ki nahi?:
    you letter write-3s or not
    Will you write a letter or not?

An alternative form of this question will be:

10a. तुम पत्र लिखोगे कि नहीं लिखोगे?
     tum patr likhoge ki nahi: likhoge?
     you letter write-fut or neg write-fut
     Will you write the letter or not?

4.3.4.2. Question-Word Questions

Interrogative sentences with wh- question words are referred to as क- k-questions in Hindi because question words begin with the क- k-sound. Question words always occur in the second position of interrogative sentences. The main question words are क्या kya: what, कोन kon ‘who’, कहां kahā: ‘where’, केसा kesa: how, क्यों kyō ‘why’, कितना kitna: ‘how much’, कब kab ‘when’ and किद्वर kidhar ‘in what direction’. The question word is always stressed.

11. यह क्या है?
    yeh kya: he?
    this what is
    What is this?

12. मोहन कहां है?
    mohan kahā: he?
    Mohan where is
    Where is Mohan?
4. Syntax

13. तुम क्यों आए?
   tum kyō a:ye?
   you why come-2pl
   Why did you come?

14. तुम कब आआंगं?
   tum kab a:oge?
   you when come-2s-fut
   When will you come?

15. वह किधर जाएगा?
   vah kidhar ja:yega:?
   he where go-3s-fut
   Where will he go?

The question words कैसा kaisa: and कितना kitna: agree with the following or preceding noun in number and gender. They have the following three forms.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg</td>
<td>Pl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>कैसा केसा ke:sa: ke:se</td>
<td>कैसी केसी kesi: kesi:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>कितना कितने kitna: kitne</td>
<td>कितनी कितनी kitni: kitni:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

16. यह लड़का कैसा है?
    yeh lar:ka kesa: he?
    this boy how is
    How is this boy?

17. ये लड़के कैसे है?
    ye lar:ke kese he?
    these boys how are
    How are these boys?

18. यह घरी कैसी है?
    yeh ghari: kesi: he?
    this watch-f how is
    How is this watch?
4. Syntax

19. ये घड़ियाँ कैसे हैं?
   ye ghariyā: kesi: hē?
   these watches how are
   How are these watches?

20. यह पुल कितना लंबा है?
   yeh pul kitna: lamba: hē?
   this bridge how much long is
   How long is this bridge?

21. ये कितने बच्चे हैं?
   ye kitne bacce hē?
   these how many children are
   How many children are there?

22. वह कितना बड़ा कितना है?
   vah kitni: bari: kita:b hē?
   that how big-fs book-f is
   How big is that book?

23. वे कुर्सियाँ कितनी छोटी हैं?
   ve kursiyā: kitni: choti: hē?
   those chairs how small are
   How small are those chairs?

The question words क्या kya: what and कौन kōn who have the oblique forms किन kis (Sg) and किन्नों kin (Pl) which are followed by case suffixes and postpositions. The oblique forms of postpositions are inflected for number as follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine/Feminine</th>
<th>PI</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg</td>
<td>Pl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>किने kine</td>
<td>किनें kinhē</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>किने को kin ko</td>
<td>किने को kin ko</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>किने में kin me</td>
<td>किने में kin me</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>किने से kin se</td>
<td>किने से kin se</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>किने के साथ kin ke sa:th</td>
<td>किने के साथ kin ke sa:th</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>किने पर kin par</td>
<td>किने पर kin par</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>किने का kin ka:</td>
<td>किने का kin ka:</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
24. यह किताब किसे/किस को देना है?
yeh kita:b kise/kis ko deni: he?
this book who give-inf-f aux
To whom is this book to be given? Or
Who is this book to be given to?

25. किस लड़के/लड़की को जाना है?
kis larke/larki: ko jana: he?
who-obl boy-dat/girl-dat go-Inf aux
Which boy/girl has to go?

26. किन लड़कों/लड़कियों को आना है?
kin lar:kõ/larkiyõ ko a:na: he?
who-pl-dat boys-dat/girls-dat come-inf is
Which boys/girls have to come?

27. यह किस शहर/किस शहरों में आएगा?
vah kis šahar/kin šahrõ se a:yega:?
he which-abl city-abl/cities-abl from come-3s-fut
Which city/cities will he come from?

28. यह किसने/किसने सेब खाया?
yeh kisne/kinhõne seb kha:ya:?
this who-erg-ms/-fs/-p apple ate-ms
Who ate this apple?

29. यह किसका बना है?
yeh kiska: bana: he?
this what-of made is
What is it made of?

30. ये किसके बने हैं?
ye kiske bane hē?
these which-gen-ms made-mp are
What are these made of?

31. यह किसकी बनी है?
ye kiski: bani: hē?
these which-gen-fp are
Which are these made of?
4. Syntax

32. यह किसका/किनका मकान है?
yeh kiska:/kinka: maka:n he?
this who-s-gen-ms/-p-gen-ms house is
Whose house is this?

33. यह किस की/किन की किताब है?
yeh kiski:/kinki: kita:b he?
this who-s-gen-fs/-p-gen-fs book is
Whose book is this?

34. ये किसके/किनके परं है?
ye kiske/kinke parde he?
these who-s-gen-mp/-p-gen-mp curtains are
Whose curtains are these?

35. ये किसकी/किनकी कमीजे है?
ye kiski:/kinki: kami:zẽ he?
these who-gen-fp shirts are
Whose shirts are these?

When question words are combined with postpositions they create
adverbials like कहा: से kaha: se ‘in which direction’, कैसे kеsе/ किस तरह
kis tarah ‘in what manner’, and कहा: par kahà: par ‘wherein’.

36. वह कहां जाएगा?
vah kahà: ja:yega:.
vah where go-fut
Where will he go?

37. वह किस तरह आएगा?
vah kis tarah a:yega:.
he what manner come-fut
How will he come?

38. आप कहां से जाएंगे?
a:p kahà: se ja:e:ge?
you-p which direction go-2p-fut
Where will you go from? Or
In which direction will you go?
39. आप कैम आँगे?
   a:p kēse a:ēge?
you how (manner) come-2p-fut
How will you come?

40. वह कहा (पर) बैठा होगा?
vah kahā: (par) bēṭha: hoga:?
He where (at) sit-PP be-fut
Where will he be sitting?

The question words are reduplicated when the expected answer provide a list (of more that one thing, person, event, etc.). Reduplication is obligatory with plural nouns.

41. आपने क्या क्या देखा?
a:pne kya: kya: dekha:?
you-p-erg what what saw-2p-Pa
What items did you see?

42. वह कहा कहा गया?
vah kahā: kahā: gaya:?
he where where went
Which places did he visit?

The masculine plural forms of pronouns are used for honorific singular subjects as well.

Different constituents of the main clause can be questioned as may be seen in sentence (43) below.

43. अमर ने कल शिला को अपने घर एक कमीज़ दिखाई
amar ne kal śi:la: ko apne ghar ek kami:z dikha:i:.
Amar-erg yesterday Shiela to selfs house a shirt showed-fs
Amar showed a shirt to Shiela at his home yesterday.

Subject

43a. किसने कल शिला को अपने घर एक कमीज़ दिखाई?
kisne kal śi:la: ko apne ghar ek kami:z dikha:i:?
Who showed a shirt to Shiela at his home yesterday?
4. Syntax

Direct object
43b. अमर ने कल शिला को अपने घर क्या दिखाया?
   *amar ne kal ši:la: ko apne ghar kya: dikha:ya:?
   What did Amar show Shiela at his home yesterday?

Indirect object
43c. अमर ने किसको कल अपने घर एक कमीज दिखाया?
   *amar ne kisko kal apne ghar ek kami:z dikha:i?
   To whom did Amar show a shirt at his home yesterday?

Time adverbial
43d. अमर ने कब शिला को अपने घर एक कमीज दिखाया?
   *amar ne kab ši:la: ko apne ghar ek kami:z dikha:i?
   When did Amar show Shiela a shirt at his home?

Location adverbial
43e. अमर ने कहाँ कल शिला को एक कमीज दिखाया?
   *amar ne kahã: kal ši:la: ko ek kami:z dikha:i?
   Where did Amar show a new shirt to Shiela?

It is not possible to use simple questions word for questioning a constituent of a verb. Usually the verb phrase क्या किया kya: kiya: ‘do what’ is used for transitive verbs and क्या हुआ kya: hua: ‘what happened’ is used for intransitive verbs.

43f. अमर ने कल अपने घर क्या किया?
   *amar ne kal apne ghar kya: kiya:?
   Amar-erg yesterday self-obl-home what did
   What did Amar do at his home yesterday?

43g. अमर के घर कल क्या हुआ?
   *amar ke ghar kal kya: hua:?
   Amar-gen home yesterday what happened
   What happened at Amars house yesterday?

In non-equational copular interrogative sentences, all the elements except the verb may be questioned. In examples (44-47) the subject, the accompanier, locative, and time adverbial have been questioned. The copular verb cannot be deleted as shown in in (44a-47a).
4. Syntax

44. कौन है?
   *koun ha?
   who is-3s
   Who is (there)?

44a. *कौन?
   *koun?

45. तुम किसके साथ हो?
   *tum kiske sa:th ho?
   you who-gen with are-2s
   Who are you with?

45a. *तुम किसके साथ?
   *tum kiske sa:th?

46. किताब कहाँ है?
   kita:b kahã: he?
   book-fs where-abl is
   Where is the book?

46a. *किताब कहाँ?
   *kita:b kahã?:

47. छुट्टी कब है?
   chuṭṭi: kab he?
   holiday when is
   When is the holiday?

47a. *छुट्टी कब?
   *chuṭṭi: kab?

In equational copular interrogative sentences, either the subject noun phrase or the predicate nominal can be questioned. The demonstrative pronoun used as a subject cannot be questioned. Consider the following examples.

48. यह पट्टा है।
   yeh parda: he.
   it curtain is
   It is a curtain.
4. Syntax

48a. यह क्या है?
yeh kya: he?
it what is-3s
What is it?

48b. *क्या पटा है?
*kya: parda: he?

49. यह किताब है।
yeh kita:b he.
this book is
This is a book.

49a. यह क्या है?
yeh kya: he?
this what is-f
What is this?

49b. *क्या किताब है?
*kya: kita:b he?

Different constituents of subordinate clauses can be questioned. There are two types of subordinate clauses: finite and non-finite. As is the case with matrix sentences, all elements of these clauses can be questioned. Constituents, which undergo deletion in the process of non-finitization, however, cannot be questioned. This supports the argument that the question formation rule applies after the rules for non-finitization of the subordinate clauses take place.

50. (क्या) आपको पता है मोहन ने अमर को क्या
kya: a:uko pata: he mohan ne amar ko kala
Q you-dat knowledge is Mohan-erg Amar-dat yesterday
किताब दी?
kita:b di:?
book gave-f
Do you know that Mohan gave a book to Amar yesterday?
The questioning of the constituent clauses may also involve questioning of the matrix clause.

Note that no constituent of a finite relative clause can be questioned.

51. रमेश से जो दोस्त आज मिला वह चालाक है।
   rameś se jo dost a:j mila: vah ca:la:k he.
   Ramesh-abl rel friend today met he clever is
   The friend who met Ramesh is clever.

51a. *रमेश के कोई दोस्त आज मिला चालाक है?
    *rameś ka: kœ dost a:j mila: ca:la:k he?

Constituents of non-finite subordinate clauses which comprise infinitival and participial phrases can be questioned.

52. वह खाना खाते हुए अज्ञात पाठ रहा था।
   vah kha:na: kha:te hue akhba:r parh raha: tha:.
   he food eating-part newspaper read-prog was
   He was reading a newspaper while eating his meal.
4. Syntax

**Direct object**

52a. वह क्या खाते हुए अखबार पढ़ रहा था?
   
   *vah kya: kha:te hue akhba:r parh raha: tha:?
   
   What was he eating while reading a newspaper?

53. वह चाय पीते हुए बच्चे को पढ़ा रहा था।
   
   *vah ca:y pi:te hue bacce ko parha: raha: tha:.
   
   He was teaching the child while drinking his tea?

**Indirect object**

53a. वह किसे चाय पीते हुए पढ़ा रहा था?
   
   *vah kiske ca:y pi:te hue parha: raha: tha:?
   
   Who was he teaching while drinking his tea?

54. वह राज के माथ बांधे करते हुए जा रहा था।
   
   *vah ra:j ke sa:th ba:tē karte hue ja: raha: tha:.
   
   He was talking to Raj while going.

**Object of a postposition**

54a. वह किसे माथ बांधे करते हुए जा रहा था?
   
   *vah kiske sa:th ba:tē karte hue ja: raha: tha:?
   
   Who was he talking to while going?

The subject of the subordinate clauses undergoes deletion in sentences (52a-54a) because it is co-referential to the subject of the matrix sentence. All the constituents of gerundive and infinitival clause can be questioned.

55. वह क्या करने दिल्ली गया?
   
   *vah kya: karnē dilli: gaya:?
   
   Why did he go to Delhi?

56. मास्टर ने लड़के को पत्र लिखने के लिए कहा।
   
   *ma:star ne larke ko patr likhne ke liye kaha:.
   
   The teacher asked the student to write a letter?
Different constituents of a noun phrase can be questioned. A noun phrase may be made up of any of the following: (a) demonstrative pronoun, (b) quantifier, (c) intensifier, (d) descriptive adjective, (e) classifier/specifier, (f) possessive adjective, (g) possessor, (h) particle and a noun. Nouns may also modify relative clauses and objects of comparison.

**Demonstrative pronoun**

57a. यह छोटी लड़की कौन सी?
   
   yeh choṭi larkī kauṃ sī?
   
   Which little girl?

57b. कौन सी छोटी लड़की घर जाएगी?
   
   kauṃ sī choṭī larkī ghar jaːṛːgī?
   
   Which little girl will go home?

**Quantifier (cardinal number)**

58a. मोहन के तीन दोस्त कल आएगे।
   
   mohan ke tīːn dost kal aːyēga.
   
   Mohans three friends will come tomorrow.

58b. मोहन के तीन दोस्त कल आएगे?
   
   mohan ke tīːn dost kal aːyēga?
   
   How many friends of Mohan will come tomorrow?

**Quantifier (ordinal number)**

59a. उसका तीसरा बेटा दिल्ली में है।
   
   uskaː tīːsraː bēṭːaː dilliː mē hē.
   
   His third son is in Delhi.
4. Syntax

59b. उसका कीन मा बेटा तिल्लो मे हे?
   uska: kən sa: beta: dilli: më he?
Which son of his is in Delhi?

Quantifier (proportional number)
60a. वह हमेशा दोगुना रावा करता हे।
   he always four times expenditure do-pr is
   He always incurs four times the expenses of everyone else.

60b. वह कितने गुना रावा करता हे?
   vah ki:تنे guna: kharc karta: he?
   How many times the expenditure of everyone else does he incur?

Descriptive adjective
61a. पत्ला लड़का पोड़े पर नहीं चढ़ सकता।
   patla: larka: ghore par nahi: can: sakta:.
   The slim boy cannot ride the horse.

61b. कीन नी लड़की कार नहीं चला सकती?
   kən si: larki: ka:r nahi: cana: sakti:?
   Which girl cannot drive the car?

Intensifier
62a. रमा बहुत ही लंबी लड़की हे।
   rama: bahut hi: lambi: larki: he.
   Rama very (intensifier) tall-fs girl is
   Rama is a very tall girl.

62b. रमा कितनी लंबी लड़की हे?
   rama: ki:تنी lambi: larki: he?
   How tall a girl is Rama?

Possessive adjective
63a. मोहन का कालेज दिल्ली मे हे।
   Mohan-gen college is Delhi-loc is in
   Mohan’s college is in Delhi.
4. Syntax

63b. किसका कालेज दिल्ली में है?
   kiska: ka:lej dilli: mē hē?
   Whose college is in Delhi?

Specifier/classifier
64a. मोहन का बड़ा बच्चा बेटा बीमार है।
   Mohan-gen elder (specifier) son sick is
   Mohan’s elder son is sick.

64b. मोहन का छोटा बच्चा बेटा बीमार है?
   mohan ka: kōn sa: beṭa: bi:ma:r he?
   Which of Mohans sons is sick?

Particles है hi: and भी bhi: cannot be questioned.

65a. तुम ही जाओ।
   tum hi: jā:o.
   you-par go-3s-fut
   Only you go.

65b. *कौन ही जाओ।
    *kōn hi: jā:o.

66. वह भी आपके साथ आएगा।
   vah bhi: a:pke sa:th a:ega:.
   he-part you-gen with come-3s-fut
   Hell also come with you.

66a. *कौन भी आपके साथ आएगा।
    *kōn bhi: a:pke sa:th a:ega:.

A comparative phrase can also modify a noun phrase.

Object of comparison
67a. मेरे रजनी से लंबी लड़की देखी।
   mēne rajini se lambi: larki: dekhi:.
   I-erg Rajni-abl than tall-fs girl saw-fs
   I saw a girl taller than Rajni.
4. Syntax

67b. मैंने किस-से लंबी लड़की देखी?

I saw a girl taller than whom?

There are two types of relative clauses: non-finite and finite. No constituent of a finite relative clause can be questioned. Any element of a non-finite relative clause, except the subject, can be questioned.

68. यह बच्चों को पैसे देने वाला है।

He is going to give money to the children.

Direct object of a non-finite relative clause

68a. यह बच्चों को क्या देनेवाला है?

What is he going to give to the children?

Indirect object of a non-finite relative clause

68b. यह किसको पैसे देने वाला है?

Who he is going to give money to?

Elements of a postpositional phrase can also be questioned. A postpositional phrase consists of a head noun followed by a postposition. The postposition assigns the case to the head noun. The noun phrase elements of a postpositional phrase can be questioned. The noun phrase, which is followed by a postposition, is in the oblique case.

69. इस मेंज पर कागज है।

There is paper on this table.

69a. किस मेंज पर कागज है?

Which table is the paper on?
4. Syntax

69b. काकज किस पर है?

ka:kaz kis par he?

What is the paper (placed) on?

70. मोहन के घर के पास दुकान है।
mohan ke ghar ke pa:s duka:n he.

Mohan-poss house near shop is

There is a shop near Mohans house.

70a. किसके घर के पास दुकान है?

kiske ghar ke pa:s duka:n he?

Near whose house is there a shop?

70b. किसके पास दुकान है?

kiske pa:s duka:n he?

Near which place is a shop?

It is only the noun phrase elements of a postpositional phrase which can be questioned, not the postpositions.

Elements of a coordinate structure can be questioned. The coordinate structures are formed either by juxtaposition or by the use of a conjunction.

Juxtaposition

71. शीला पत्र लिखने के लिए काल्त कलम लाई।

Shiela letter write-inf for paper pen brought

Shiela brought paper and pen for writing a letter.

71a. शीला काल्त कलम कब लिखने के लिए लाई?

sh:ila: ka:kaz kalam kya: likhne ke liye la:i:? 

71b. शीला कितने लिखने के लिए कब लाई?

sh:ila: ci:thi: likhne ke liye kya: la:i:? 

Conjunction

72. मोहन और अजित दिल्ली गए।
mohan or ajit dilli: gae.

Mohan and Ajit Delhi went

Mohan and Ajit went to Delhi.
72a. मोहन और किन गए?
*mohan or kωn gae?
Mohan and who went? (Mohan went with whom?)

72b. *कौन और अजित दिल्ली गए?
*kωn or aji:t dilli: gae?
Who and Ajit went to Delhi?

72c. कौन कौन दिल्ली गए?
*kωn kωn dilli: gae?
Who (are the ones who) went to Delhi?

73. शीला और मोहन ने अपना अपना काम समाप्त किया।
ši:la: or mohan ne apna: ka:m sama:pt kiya:.
Shiela and Mohan-erg self's work finish did
Shiela and Mohan finished their work.

73a. शीला और किसने अपना काम समाप्त किया?
ši:la: or kisne apna: apna: ka:m sama:pt kiya:?
Shiela and who finished their work?

73b. *किसने और शीला ने अपना काम समाप्त किया?
*kisne or ši:la: ne apna: ka:m sama:pt kiya:?
Who and Shiela finished their work?

73c. किस किस ने काम समाप्त किया?
kis kis ne ka:m sama:pt kiya:?
Who (are the ones who) finished their work?

74. उसने चिट्ठी लिखी और किताब पढ़ी।
usne cįtθį: likhi: or kita:b parhi:.
he-erg letter wrote-fs and book read-fs
He wrote a letter and read a book.

74a. *उसने चिट्ठी लिखी और क्या पढ़ी?
*usne cįtθį: likhi: or kya: parhi:?

74b. *उसने क्या लिखी और किताब पढ़ी?
*usne kya: likhi: or kita:b parhi:?
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74c. Usne choti lapho aur kya kiyaa?
    *usne ciṭṭhi: likhi: or kya: kiya:?
    He wrote a letter and what else did he do?

74d. Usne kya kya kiyaa?
    *usne kya: kya: kiya:?
    What are the things he did?

75. Usne roṭi: khai: or du:dh piya:.
    *usne roṭi: kha:i: or du:dh piya:.
    He ate bread and milk.
    He ate bread and drank milk.

75a. Usne roṭi: kha:i: or kya: piya:?
    *usne roṭi: kha:i: or kya: piya:?
    He ate bread and what did he drink?

75b. *Usne kya kiyaa?
    *usne kya: kiyaa?
    No part of the juxtaposition phrase can be questioned. The questioning of the first element of a coordinate noun phrase results in the formation of ill-formed sentences as in (73b) and (75b). Similarly, in the coordinate verb phrases, the object of the first verb phrase cannot be questioned.

There is no constraint on the number of constituents of a sentence that can be questioned at one time. The multiple question-word questions are normally used at the end of the narration of a story, especially a folk tale, for checking the comprehension of the listeners.

76. Mohan kal Amar ko saṭh ba:γ dekhne gaya:.
    *mohan kal amar ke sa:th ba:γ dekhne gaya:.
    Mohan yesterday Amar with garden see-inf-obl went
    Mohan went to see the garden with Amar yesterday.

76a. Mohan kal kya dehun gaya Amar ke saṭh?
    *mohan kal kya: dekhne gaya: amar ke sa:th?
    What did Mohan go to see with Amar yesterday?
4. Syntax

76b. मोहन कब क्या देखने गया अमर के साथ?
*mohan kab kya: dekhne gaya: amar ke sa:th?
What did Mohan go to see with Amar and when?

76c. मोहन किसके साथ क्या देखने कल गया?
*mohan kiske sa:th kya: dekhne kal gaya:?
Who did Mohan go with to see what yesterday?

76d. मोहन कब किसके साथ क्या देखने गया?
*mohan kab kiske sa:th kya: dekhne gaya:?
When did Mohan go with whom (and) for seeing what?

Question-words are reduplicated when the expected answer is a listing of persons, items, or events. Multi-question-word questions are used when information about different things is wanted all at the same time in one answer.

77. कौन कौन कब कब किन किन के पास जाता है?
*kon kon kab kab kin kin ke pa:s ja:ta: he?
Who when whom near go-ptc is
Who (which individual) goes with whom (which individual) where/what places (and) when?

This sentence can be used by an employer seeking information regarding his/her employees. Question-words which are not used in plural cannot be reduplicated. For example, the question word *kyo why cannot be used in its reduplicated form.

78. *कौन कौन कब कब व्यक्ति कब व्यक्ति जाता है?
*kon kon kab kab kyo kyo ja:ta: he?

The constituents of both the main and subordinate clauses can be questioned at the same time and the question words can be reduplicated.

79. किसकी गर्भ में कौन कौन किस किस के पास जाता है?
*kiski: ra:y me kon kon kis kis ke pa:s ja:ta: he.
Who-obl opinion in who where who-obl near go-ptc is
Who thinks that who (which individual) goes (near) to whom (which individual) and where (what place)?
There is a flexibility as far as the placement of the questioned constituent is concerned. The movement of the questioned elements is related to their focus. Consider the following examples:

80.  रेमेख कब आएगा?
    rameś kab a:yega:?  
    Ramesh when come-3s-fut
    When will Ramesh come?
80a. कब आएगा रेमेख?
     kab a:yega: rameś?

80b.  रेमेख आएगा कब?
     rameś a:yega: kab?
80c.  आएगा कब रेमेख?
     a:yega: kab rameś?

81.  सारला कहां जाएगी?
     sarla: kahã: ja:yegi?
     Sarla where go-fs
     Where will Sarla go?
81a.  सारला जाएगी कहां?
     sarla: ja:yegi: kahã:?

81b.  कहां जाएगी सारला?
     kahã: ja:yegi: sarla:?
81c.  जाएगी कहां सारला?
     ja:yegi: kahã: sarla:?

The question-word in the sentence initial position carries a stronger focus than when it is in the second position. In other words, it is marked by more stress in the sentence initial position than in other positions. Interrogative sentences (80) and (81) are in natural word order. In (80a) and (81a), the subject is stressed, in (80b) and (81b) the question words are stressed, and in (80c) and (81c) the verb is stressed. The interrogative sentences (80c) and (81c) do not necessarily invoke an answer.
4. Syntax

Usually the question-word क्यों kyon why occurs in the pre-verbal position. It follows the verb within the sentence. The movement of this question-word influences the meaning of the sentence. The placement of this question word in the post-verbal position is possible, but it does not necessarily invoke an answer.

82. आपने उसे किताब क्यों दी?
   
   a:pne use kita:b kyon di:?
   you-erg book he-dat why gave?
   Why did you give him a book?

82a. किताब क्यों दी?
   
   kita:b kyon di:?

82b. क्यों किताब दी?
   
   kyon di: kita:b?

82c. दी किताब क्यों?
   
   di: kyon kita:b?

In (82a) there is stress on the direct object; in (82b) the stress is on the question-word; and in (82c) the stress is on the verb and the indirect object.

4.3.4.3. Echo-Questions

There are two types of echo-questions: (a) yes-no echo-questions, and (b) question-word echo-questions.

4.3.4.3.1. Yes-No Echo-Questions

A yes-no echo-question usually repeats one or more elements of the statement uttered by the previous speaker. The element/elements chosen for clarification is/are retained with a rising intonation and other elements are deleted. For example, the response to a statement made in (83) can be in different forms (83a-83e) in yes-no echo-questions.
4. Syntax

83. मोहन कल बाजार जाएगा।
   mohan kal ba:za:ra ja:yega:
   Mohan tomorrow market go-3s-fut
   Mohan will go to market tomorrow.

83a. मोहन कल बाजार जाएगा?
    mohan kal ba:za:ra ja:yega:?
    Will Mohan go to market tomorrow?

83b. बाजार जाएगा?
    ba:za:ra ja:yega:?
    Will (Mohan) go to market?

83c. मोहन कल जाएगा?
    mohan kal ja:yega:?
    Will Mohan go tomorrow?

83d. मोहन जाएगा?
    mohan ja:yega:?
    Will Mohan go (to the market tomorrow)?

83e. मोहन?
    mohan?
    (Will) Mohan (go to market tomorrow)?

The yes-no echo-questions may be preceded by the term accha: ‘it is so’.

84. वह कल दिल्ली से आएगा?
    vah kal dilli se a:ya:ga:.
    He tomorrow Delhi- abl from come-fut
    He will come from Delhi tomorrow.

84a. अच्छा, वह कल दिल्ली से आएगा?
    accha:, vah kal dilli se a:ya:ga:?
    Is it so that he’ll come from Delhi tomorrow?

Using the same intonational patterns as in yes-no questions echoing
a statement, yes-no question echo-questions are formed either by
asking the previous speaker whether he/she asked the question or by
replacing the constituent under focus. Yes-no questions are
prompted by the previous speakers question and they do not merely
4. Syntax

seek clarification of the previous speakers statement.

85. आपने किताब पढ़ी?
   a:pne kita:b parhi:?
   you-erg book read-ps-pst book
   Did you read the book?

85a. मैं किताब पढ़ी?
    mēne kita:b parhi:?
    Did I read the book?

85b. आप पूछ रहे हैं कि मैं किताब पढ़ी?
    a:p pu:ch rahe hē (ki) mēne kita:b parhi:?
    You are asking if I read the book?

The focused constituent receives stress if the speaker chooses to retain unfocused elements.

4.3.4.3.2. Question-Word Echo-Questions

A question-word may also be used in echo questions and elements of the statement may be repeated depending on the clarification sought.

86. वह पत्र लिख रहा है ज
    vah patr likh raha: hē.
    he letter write-pr is
    He is writing a letter.

86a. क्या लिख रहा है?
    kya: likh raha: hē?
    What is he writing?

86b. क्या?
    kya:?
    What (is he writing)?

86c. पत्र
    patr
    (He is writing a) letter.
Question-word echo-questions are uttered with a slightly rising intonation at the end of the phrase or sentence in yes-no questions. It is not so in question-word questions. The questioner may also use the expected answer in his/her question with a rising intonation.

86d. क्या लिख रहा है, पत्र?
   kya: likh raha: he, patr?
   What is he writing, a letter?

86e. हां, पत्र।
   hā: hā: patr.
   Yes, a letter.

In (86d), a pause (indicated by a comma) separates the two rising intonation patterns. A statement containing more than one constituent permits the use of more than one echo-question.

87. हां, उसने कल किताब पढ़ी।
   hā: usne kal kita:b parhi:.
   Yes he-erg yesterday book read-fs
   Yes, he read a book yesterday.

87a. किसने (कल) किताब पढ़ी।
   kisne (kal kita:b) parhi:? 
   Who read (a book yesterday)?

87b. किसने क्या पढ़ी?
   kisne kya: parhi:?
   Who read what?

87c. किसने क्या किया?
   kisne kya: kiya:?
   Who did what?

Question-word echo-questions follow the same pattern.

88. आप क्या कर रहे हैं?
   a:p kya: kar rahe hē?
   you what are-2s doing
   What are you doing?
4. Syntax

88a. मे क्या कर रहा हूँ?
    मे क्या कर रहा हूँ?
    I what am-ms doing
    What am I doing?

All elements in a sentence, including the verb and any possible combination thereof, can be questioned.

89. मे पूछ रहा हूँ किसने किसे और कब कमाल दी?
    mे पूछ रहा हूँ किसने किसे और कब कमाल दी?
    I ask-pr am who-erg who-dat and when shirt gave
    Im asking you who gave a shirt to whom and when?

89a. किसने किसे और कब कमाल दी?
    kisne kise kab kami:z di:?
    Who gave a shirt to whom and when?

89b. किसने किसे कब दिया?
    kisne kise kab diya:?
    Who gave what to whom and when?

In (89b), the verb is echo-questioned.

4.3.4.4. Answers

Not all types of answers can be formally distinguished from other declarative statements. Answers to yes-no questions require the use of the agreement and disagreement markers हा ‘yes’ and नहीं ‘no’ respectively in the sentence initial position, which may be followed with certain honorific markers. Answers to question-word questions involve the stating of the constituent required by the question. The rest of the elements of the sentence are usually deleted.

90. वह कब आगरा जाएगा?
    vah kab a:gra: ja:yega:?
    When will he go to Agra?

90a. (He) will go day after tomorrow.
4. Syntax

90b. parsõ.

Day after tomorrow.

The minimum answers to a yes-no question include हाँ ‘yes’, नहीं ‘no’ शय ‘perhaps’, मालूम ma:lu:m/ पता नहीं pata: nahi: ‘it is not known’. The short answers may optionally be followed by polite or honorific particles or terms. The polite particle जी ji: can be added to both positive and negative short answers. It usually precedes the answers. In speech under the influence of Punjabi, it follows the affirmative or negative short answers. It is added to indicate politeness for any questioner older or younger than the respondent. Other formal honorific markers used are जिनाना jina:b or साहब sa:hab ‘sir/madam’ for addressing people of all communities. The English honorific terms, sir and madam are also frequently used by the educated community.

91. वह आज आगरा आएगा ना?

vah a:j a:yega a:gra: se?

he come-fut today Agra-abl from

Will he come from Agra today?

91a. हाँ /जी हाँ /ही जिनाना/ ही माहब/ ही मः/ ही मैजेंप

hã:/ji: hã:/jina:b/hã: sa:hab/hã: sar/ hã: medam

Yes/ yes sir/madam.

91b. नहीं / जी नहीं /नहीं जिनाना/ नहीं माहब/ नहीं सर/ नहीं मैजेंप


nahi: medam

No/no sir/madam.

91c. शय.

ša:yad.

Perhaps.

91d. क्या मालूम /क्या पता? क्या क्या पता?

kya: ma:lu:m/kya: pata:/ ji: kya: pata:?

Who knows?
4. Syntax

91e. पता नहीं /मालूम नहीं / जी मालूम नहीं।

pta: nahi:/ma:lu:m nahi:/ji: ma:lu:m nahi:.

It is not known.

91f. पता नहीं /मालूम नहीं।

pta:/ma:lu:m nahi:.

I don’t know.

The honorific terms जिनाब jina:b and साहब sa:hab can also be added in the sentence initial position.

91dd. जिनाब / साहब क्या पता?

jina:b/ sa:hab kya: pata:?

Sir, who knows?

91ee. जिनाब / साहब क्या पता?

jina:b/ sa:hab kya: pata:?

Sir, it is not known.

91ff. जिनाब / साहब पता/मालूम नहीं।

jina:b/ sa:hab pata:/ ma:lu:m nahi:.

Sir, I don’t know.

The agreement or affirmative response is sometimes indicated merely by using the honorific terms जिनाब jina:b and साहब sa:hab as in the following examples:

92. वह चालाक नहीं है?

vah ca:la:k nahi: he?

he clever neg-Q is

Isn’t he clever?

92a. जी /जै/ है, वह चालाक नहीं है?

ji:/ ji: he/ ha:; jina:b/ ha: sa:hab he.

Yes, he is.

As shown above, answers to yes-no questions may be yes, or no, or other response terms or expressions. The positive and negative response particles है hā: yes and नहीं nahi: no can be reduplicated for
emphasis. They may be followed by certain expressions for greater emphasis.

93. आप मेरा यह काम करेंगे?
   \[a:p \text{ mera: yeh ka:m karēge?}\]
   you my this work-ms do fut-q
   Will you do this work for me?

93a. हां हां, यात्रा/ अवधारणा
   \[hā: hā:, zaru:r/avaśya.\]
   yes yes definitely.
   Yes, I’ll do it, definitely.

93b. हां हां, क्यों नहीं?
   \[hā: hā:, kyō nahī?:\]
   yes yes why not
   Yes, why not?

94. आप आगरा नहीं आएंगे?
   \[a:p a:gra: nahī: a:yēge?\]
   you Agra neg come-2p-fut
   Won’t you come to Agra?

94a. नहीं नहीं, बिल्कुल नहीं
   \[nahī: nahī:, bilkul nahī:\]
   no no absolutely not
   No, not at all.

The expression बिल्कुल bilkul is followed by the negative marker. It is to be noted that affirmative and negative particles only are reduplicated, not other response terms and expressions.

94b. *नहीं (नहीं), आप आप नहीं।
   *nahī: (nahī:) ša:yad ša:yad nahī:.

94c. *नहीं (नहीं), क्या पता क्या पता।
   *nahī: (nahī:) kya: pata:, kya: pata:

Answers to positive and negative leading questions are determined by the proposition underlying the question and not by the tag question.
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95. आप यह क्रम करेंगे, करेंगे ना?
   \textit{a:p yah ka:m karēgē, karēge na:?}
   you this work do-fut, do-fut neg-q
   You will do this work, won’t you?

95a. हां, करेंगा।
   \textit{hā:, karē:ga:}
   yes do-1s-fut
   Yes, I’ll do it.

96. आप यह क्रम नहीं करेंगे, करेंगे?
   \textit{a:p yah ka:m nahī: karēge, karēge?}
   You won’t do this work, will you?

96a. नहीं (मे नहीं करेंगा)।
   \textit{nahī: (mē nahī: karē:ga).}
   No (I will not do it).

4.3.5. Imperatives

Imperative sentences are marked for number, gender, person, and degree of politeness. There are three types of imperative constructions: (a) unmarked or true imperatives, (b) prohibitive imperatives and (c) obligative imperatives.

4.3.5.1. Unmarked or True Imperatives

The unmarked imperative takes the second person subjects \textit{tU} \textit{tu:} ‘you’ (non honorific intimate singular), \textit{tum} ‘you’ (non-honorific/plural), and आप \textit{a:p} ‘you’ (honorific plural/singular). Notice that the honorific plural and the honorific singular forms are the same. The singular imperative consists of the verbal stem. Whereas the singular non-honorific form remains unchanged, the suffix \textit{-Aao} \textit{-o} is added to derive the plural non-honorific forms and the suffix \textit{-e} \textit{-iye} is added to derive the singular/plural honorific forms. If the verb stems end in the vowels \textit{e} or \textit{e}, the suffix \textit{-i} \textit{-iye} is added to the honorific singular and plural forms. The stem final vowels \textit{i} or \textit{e} are dropped before the imperative suffixes or the plural non-honorific \textit{-Aao} \textit{-o} and singular/plural honorific suffix \textit{-i} \textit{-iye} are added.
1. Syntactic forms

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Sg non hon</th>
<th>Pl non-hon</th>
<th>Pl/hon</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>(तुः)</td>
<td>(तुः तुम)</td>
<td>(आप आः)</td>
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<tr>
<td>पढ़</td>
<td>पढ़ो</td>
<td>पढ़ए</td>
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<tr>
<td>पढ़ह</td>
<td>पढ़हो</td>
<td>पढ़हिये Please read.</td>
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<tr>
<td>लिख</td>
<td>लिखो</td>
<td>लिखिये Please write.</td>
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<tr>
<td>लाए</td>
<td>लाएँ</td>
<td>लाएँ</td>
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<tr>
<td>la:</td>
<td>la:o</td>
<td>la:iye Please bring.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>लाए</td>
<td>लाएँ</td>
<td>लाएँ</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>kha:</td>
<td>kha:ो</td>
<td>kha:ये Please eat.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>पी</td>
<td>पीँ</td>
<td>पीँजिये</td>
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<tr>
<td>पी:</td>
<td>पी:ो</td>
<td>पी:जिये Please drink.</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ले</td>
<td>ले</td>
<td>लैँजिये</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>le</td>
<td>lo</td>
<td>li:jiye Please take.</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

The polite markers जी ji:, माहब sa:hab, and जिनाब jina:b can be added to the honorific imperative forms.

1a. Polite pl./hon. sg.

| पढ़हिये जी: | माहब sa:hab/ जिनाब jina:b Please read. |
| लिखिये जी: | माहब sa:hab/ जिनाब jina:b Please write. |
| लाएँ जी:   | माहब sa:hab/ जिनाब jina:b Please bring. |
| लैँजिये जी:| माहब sa:hab/ जिनाब jina:b Please take. |

With an object, the order will be as follows:

1b. आप बिलाएँ पढ़एः।

| a:p kita:b parhiye. |
| you book read-pl |
| Please read the book. |

4.3.5.2. Prohibitive Imperatives

Prohibitive imperatives are formed by adding the negative particle mat don’t in the pre verbal position.
2. किताब पढ़/पढ़ो/ पढ़िए।
   *kita:b parh / parho / parhiye.*
   Read a book.

2a. किताब मत पढ़/पढ़ो/ पढ़िए।
   *kita:b mat parh / parho / parhiye.*
   Don’t read a book.

3. पत्र लिख/लिखो/ लिखिए।
   *patr likh/likho/likhiye.*
   Write a letter.

3a. पत्र मत लिख/लिखो/ लिखिए।
   *patr mat likh/likho/likhiye.*
   Don’t write a letter.

Prohibitive imperatives can also be formed by using the verb form मना / वर्जित होना *varjit hona:* to be prohibitive as in (4-4a).

4. शराब पीना मना /वर्जित है।
   *šara:b pi:na: mana:/varjit he.*
   liquor drink-Inf prohibited is
   Drinking (of liquor) is prohibited.

4a. सिगरेट पीना मना है।
   *sigret pi:na: mana: he.*
   cigarette smoke-inf prohibited is
   Smoking is prohibited.

Prohibitive imperatives are also constructed from expressions like चार्डर *xabarda:r/* लाभन *sa:vadha:n* ‘beware’.

5. चार्डर / लाभन दे न आना।
   *xabarda:r/sa:vadha:n der se na a:na:.*
   beware late-abl neg come-inf
   Beware, don’t come late.
   (You better not come late.)

The expressions चार्डर *xabarda:r/* लाभन *sa:vadha:n* are followed by conditional clauses.
4.3.5.3. Degrees of Imperatives

The unmarked ordinary imperative is stronger than the polite imperative. The obligatives of compulsion are stronger than the obligatives of prescription and the polite imperatives. Certain devices are used to strengthen or weaken the force of the imperative. Intonation and tone play an important role in the degree of the imperative. A soft tone of persuasion weakens and a hard authoritative tone strengthens the degree of the imperative.

Certain lexical items or phrases, such as कृपया krapaya: kindly कृपया kripa:/ मेहरबानी karke meharba:ni: karke ‘after being kind’, and भगवान saavaQaana Kuda ko ilae ‘for God’s sake’ are added to imperative sentences to add politeness. They weaken the imperative.

6. कृपया घर जाएं।
krapaya: ghar ja:yiye.
kindly home go-pol-fut
Kindly go home.

7. कृपया / मेहरबानी करके पैसे किजिए।
krapa:/meharba:ni: karke pese di:jiye.
kindness do-cp money give-pol-fut
Kindly give money.

8. भगवान के लिए समय बर्षाद मत कीजिए।
bhagva:n ke liye samay barba:d mat ki:jiye.
God-abl sake/for time waste neg do-pol-fut
For Gods sake, don’t waste time.

The vocative forms may also be used in the sentence initial position to strengthen and weaken the degree of imperative. The vocative forms are as follows.

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg</td>
<td>Pl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>ओ   o</td>
<td>ओ   o</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>are</td>
<td>are</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>
4. Syntax

9. अं, दरवाजा बंद करो।
   *are darvazaa: band karo.*
   Hey door do-2s-fut close-2s-imp
   Hey, close the door.

9a. अं, मेरी बाल तो सुनिए।
   *are, meri: ba:t to suniye.*
   O, my talk emp listen-2p-imp
   Hey, listen to me.

The vocative address forms may be followed by kinship terms like

10. अं, मामा/यार/दोस्त/मित्र प्यारो दूध लाओ।
    *are bha:i:/ya:r/dost/mitr/pya:re du:dh la:o.*
    hey brother/friend/dear one milk bring-2s-imp
    Hey brother/friend/dear one, bring the milk.

10a. अं, बहिन, अपना काम कर।
     *ari: bahan, apna: ka:m kar.*
     hey-f sister selfs work do-2s-imp
     Hey sister, do your work.

10b. हे भाई माहू यह अप्रवास पढ़िए।
     *he bha:i: sa:hab yah akhba:r parhiye.*
     oh-hon brother hon this newspaper read-pol
     Oh brother, please read this newspaper.

The vocatives may also be followed by derogative terms like पागल pa:gal ‘mad’, abusive terms like माले sa:le ‘brother-in-law’, and युवरे susre ‘father-in-law’ or other derogative expressions of address. The use of such derogative terms and abusive kinship terms strengthen the imperative.

11. अं माले, क्या बोलता है?
    *are sa:le, kya: bolta: he?*
    hey-mas brother-in-law what say-pte be
    Hey (my) brother-in-law, what are you saying?
11a. ओ पगल, यहाँ आओ।
   o pa:gal, yahã: a:o
   hey mad person here come-2s-imp
   O mad one, come here.

The use of reduplicated forms of imperatives reinforces the impolite force.

12. जा जा, मुझे लिया।
   ja: ja:, sun liya:.
   go go listened
   Go, I have listened.

Yes-no positive and negative questions in the future tense may also convey the force of imperative form.

13. (आप)तस्वीर देंगे?
    (a:p) tasvi:r dége?
    you picture give-fut-q
    Would you give the picture?

13a. आप देंगे क्या तस्वीर?
    a:p dége kya: tasvi:r?
    you give-fut-q picture

13b. तस्वीर देंगे क्या?
    tasvi:r dége kya:?
    Would you give (me) the picture?

Performative verbs such as निवेदन करना nivedan karna: ‘to make a request’, and (हाथ जोर कर प्रार्थना करना ha:th jor kar pra:rthana: karna: ‘to make a request (with folded hands’) also render imperative force in their complement clause.

14. मैं हाथ जोर कर प्रार्थना करता हूँ मुझे कृपा कर।
    I hands fold-cp request do-ptc am me-dat on kindness do
    I humbly request you to be kind to me.
4. Syntax

4.3.6. Anaphora

Here we will discuss (i) the means of expressing anaphora and (ii) the domains of anaphora. Anaphora in Hindi may be personal pronouns, reflexives, zero pronouns (i.e., null elements PRO or pro) or quasi-pronouns.

In a narrative text or natural discourse, deletion is a prominent device in expressing the anaphora, e.g.,

1. एक दिन मैं एक बच्चे को गाले पर गेले देखा,
   ek din mēne ek bacce ko gale par gale dekha,
   one day I-erg one child-dat road-obl on weep-ptc saw
   पूछा तुम कौन हो?
   pu:cha: tum kau:n ho?
   asked you who are
   One day I saw a child crying on the road; I asked (him),
   Who are you?

In the above example, the anaphoric subject and object (the child) become accessible by means of deletion or zero anaphora in the second sentence. They are recoverable from the first sentence.

Since the verb agrees with the subject and/or object in gender, number, and person, depending on various kinds of constructions, the subject and object can be deleted.

2. मोहन छे बजे पर पहुँचा, कपड़े बदले और आया।
   Mohan che baje par pahūca:, krapdē badle o:ya:.
   Mohan reached home six-abl hour clothes changed and came
   Mohan reached home at six oclock; (he) changed his clothes and he came here.

Anaphoric elements are frequently in the third person, and they are often expressed by personal pronouns.

3. मोहन और उसकी पत्नी बैठे करने गए, उसकी टोकर लगी
   mohan o:ra uski patni: bātē karnē gāye, usko thokar lagē:
   Mohan and his wife walk do-inf-obl went he-dat stumbled
   and fell
   दूर गया।
   dūr gir gaya:
and fell
Mohan and his wife went for a walk. He stumbled and fell down.

Anaphora is expressed by possessive and reflexive pronouns as given in (4) and (5).

4. उसने अपने मित्र से पेंस उधार लिए।
   usne apne mitr se pese udha:r liye.
He took money from his friend on loan.

5. अमित घर आया और स्वयं पत्नी को दवाई दी।
   amit ghar a:ya: or svayam patni: ko dava:i: di:
Amit came home and gave medicine to his wife himself.

Certain other devices like the use of सर sa:ra: all, and the use of ordinals like पहला pahla: ‘first’ and दूसरा du:sra: ‘second’, are also employed to denote anaphora.

6. महान बाजार से सेब लाया। सब सई हुए थे।
   mohan ba:za:r se seb la:ya: sa:re sare hue the.
Mohan bought apples from the market. All were rotten.

7. उमा और शोभा वर्तने हैं। पहली चालक हैं,
   uma: or shobha: bahnë he: pahli: ca:la:kh he,
Uma and Shobha: sisters are first clever is
and second simple
Uma and Shobha are sisters. The former is clever and the latter is simple.

The anaphora occurs within the clause with reflexive pronouns. Personal pronouns are not employed for this purpose.
4. Syntax

8. वकील को अपने पर पूरा भरोसा है।
   
   advocate-dat refl-obl on full confidence is
   The advocate has full confidence in himself.

9. वह अपनी पत्नी के माथ दिली गया।
   
vah apni: patni: ke sa:th dilli: gaya:.
   he refl-dat wife with Delhi went
   He went to Delhi with his wife.

Anaphora between coordinate structures is usually forward. It is
marked by deletion or pronominalization.

10. मोहन समय पर पहुँचा और अपना काम किया।
    
mohan samay par pahũca: ø apna: ka:m kiya:
    Mohan time on reached and refl work did
    Mohan reached in time and did his work.

10a. मोहन (i) समय पर पहुँचा और उसने (i) अपना काम किया।
    
mohan (i) samay par pahũca: ø usne (i) apna: ka:m kiya:
    Mohan time on reached and he-erg self work did
    Mohan reached (office) in time and did his work.

It is possible to have an anaphora between superordinate and
subordinate clauses. Usually, subordinate clauses (except for subject
complementation, relative clauses and if … then clauses) follow
superordinate clauses. Deletion indicates anaphora between a
superordinate and a following subordinate clause.

11. माँ ने बेटे (i) को था (i) पत्र लिखने के लिए कहा।
    
mā: ne beṭe (i) ko ø (i) patr likhne ke liye kaha:
    mother-erg son-dat Ø letter write-inf-abl for said
    The mother asked her son to write a letter.

11a. माँ ने बेटे (i) को कहा वह (i) पत्र लिखे।
    
mā: ne beṭe(i) ko kaha: vah (i) patr likhe.
    mother-erg son-dat said he letter write-subj
    The mother asked her son to write a letter.
4. SYNTAX

Backward deletion is not possible.

11b. *mā ne kaha ki ə/vah (i) betā (i) paī likē.
   *mā: ne kaha: ki ə/vah (i) betā: (i) paī likē.

Backward as well as forward deletion and pronominalization are used to express anaphora.

    rel ə book read-prog is cor girl my sister is
    The girl who is reading a book is my sister.

12a. [jo larḵī kītāb paī ghī əh] vah ə/merī bāiūnā hō.
    rel girl book read-prog is cor ə/my sister is
    The girl who is reading a book is my sister.

Anaphora between different sentences also uses the strategy of deletion and pronominalization. No other strategy is employed.

4.3.7. Reflexives

A reflexive pronoun occupies the same position within a clause as any other type of a pronoun. The only restriction is that the antecedent of a reflexive pronoun must be the subject of its clause. There is no other change except the selection of a dative case marker or a postposition in its use as an indirect object. Emphatic possessive pronouns do not require a co-referential antecedent.

   That girl his emp/*refl
   That girl is his/her own.

Emphatic pronouns are sometimes completely homophonous with possessive pronouns as in (2).
4. Syntax

2. दुल्हन अपने दूल्हे को पसंद है।
   *dulhan apne du:he ko pasand hē.*
   bride refl-obl bridegroom-dat like is
   The bride is liked by her bridegroom.

Sentence (2) is not passive. The conjunct verb *pasand hona:* to like takes a dative subject. Sentence (2), using the emphatic pronoun, can be interpreted as follows:

2a. दुल्हन उसके अपने दूल्हे को पसंद है।
   *dulhan uske apne du:he ko pasand hē.*
   bride her refl-obl bridegroom-dat like is
   The bride is liked by her own bridegroom.

Reflexivity is expressed by the use of agentive reflexive pronouns. This term is used to distinguish between the possessive reflexive अपना: and non-possessive reflexive अपने आप "self". The reflexive अपने आप *apne a:p* represents the main reflexive pronoun, which when followed by a postposition, has the oblique form अपने *apne*. It also functions as an emphatic pronoun as in (1). The emphatic form is also derived by adding the emphatic suffix -हिं -hi: to it. The result is आप हिं *a:p hi:*. The reduplicated form अपने आप *apne a:p* also occurs as a reflexive.

3. अमित आप/ अपने आप/ आप ही यहाँ आया।
   *amit a:p/apne a:p/a:p hi: yahã: a:ya:.*
   Amit self -emp here came
   Amit came here by himself.

4. मैं अपने आप आदा बना है।
   *mẽ apne a:p kha:na: bana:ta: hū:.*
   I am refl food cook-pr am
   I cook my meals myself.

5. हम अपने आप कपड़े धोते हैं।
   *ham apne a:p kapre dhote hē.*
   we refl clothes wash-pte are
   We wash our clothes ourselves.

6. सुमन अपने आप कपड़े इस्ती करती हैं।
   *suman apne a:p kapre isti: karti: hē.*
Suman refl clothes iron do-ptyc is
Suman irons the clothes herself.

There are no separate pronominal reflexive pronouns for each pronoun. The person information is obtained from the antecedent subject.

7. अमित ने अपने लिए / भाई के लिए जूते खरीदे।
   \textit{amit ne apne liye/bha: i ke liye ju:te: khari: de:}.
   Amit-erg refl-obl for/brother for shoes bought
   Amit bought a pair of shoes for himself/his brother.

Sentence (7) shows that a non co-referential object does not take a reflexive form, but selects a non-reflexive form. The reflexivization is also controlled by dative and ergative subjects.

8. उमा को अपने आप काम करना पसंद है।
   \textit{uma: ko apne a:p ka:m karna: pasand he}.
   Uma-dat refl work do-inf like is
   Uma likes to do (her) work herself.

9. अमित ने अपने आप दिन भर आराम किया।
   \textit{amit ne apne a:p din bhar a:ra:m kiya:}.
   Amit-erg refl day-whole rest did
   Amit rested the whole day.

Examples (8-9) can be interpreted as emphatic reflexives as well. Reflexivization can allow backward movement as well.

10. अपने आप अमित ने आराम किया।
    \textit{apne a:p amit ne a:ra:m kiya:}.
    refl Amit-erg rest did
    Amit rested himself.

In possessive structures, the possible reflexive form अपना \textit{apna:} ‘self’ is used in place of possessive pronouns such as the English my and your. When the possessive reflexive is used, the possessor is the same as the agent of the action or the subject. अपना \textit{apna:} agrees with the following head NP in number and gender. Following are its forms:
4. Syntax

<table>
<thead>
<tr>
<th>Masculine</th>
<th>Feminine</th>
</tr>
</thead>
<tbody>
<tr>
<td>Sg</td>
<td>Pl</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>अपना</td>
<td>अपने</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>*apna:</td>
<td>*apne</td>
</tr>
</tbody>
</table>

11. मे अपना /*मेरा कमरा छाँट कर रहा हूँ।

12. मे अपने /*मेरे पैसे गिन रहा हूँ।
mē apne/*mere pese gin raha: hū.: I-refl /*my money count-prog am I am counting my money.

13. अप अपनी /*अपकी किताब पढ़ रहा हैं।

14. वे अपनी /*उनकी कमीजे घो रहे हैं।
ve apni:/unki: kami:zē dho rahe hē. he-refl/*his shirts wash-prog am He is washing his shirts.

15. वह अपना /*उसका लाभ जानता हैं।
vah apna:/uska: la:bh ja:nta: hē. he-refl/*his profit know-prog am He is aware of his benefit.

16. वे अपनी /*उनकी किस्मत पर गो रहे हैं।
ve apni:/unki: kismat par ro rahe hē. they-refl/*selves luck on cry-prog am They repent on their own work.

The use of non-reflexive pronouns yield well-formed sentences provided the subject and possessive pronoun are not co-referential.

17. वह (i) उसकी (j) कमीज़ में रहा हैं।
vah (i) uski: (j) kami:zē sī: raha: hē.
he his shirt stitch-prog is
He (i) is stitching his (j) shirt.

18. वह (i) उनके (j) बच्चे पढ़ा रहा है।
vah (i) unke (j) bacce parha: raha: he.
he their children teach-prog is
He(i) is teaching their (j) children.

Similar to nominative and ergative subjects, the dative subject also controls the possessive reflexive अप्ना apna:. The possessive structure also permits reduplicated reflexives.

19. वे अपना अपना काम कर रहे हैं।
ve apna: apna: ka:m kar rahe hē.
they refl work do-prog are
They are doing their respective jobs.

The scope of reflexivity is usually restricted to the clause in which it is used.

20. मोहन ने कहा कि वह /*अपने आप समय पर आएगा।
mohan ne kaha: ki vah/*apne a:p samay par a:yega:.
Mohan-erg said that he/*refl time at come-fut
Mohan (i) said that he (i) would come on time.

21. मोहन ने पूछा कि उसकी /*अपनी पत्नी कब आएगी।
mohan ne pu:cha: ki uski:/*apni: patni: kab a:yegi:.
Mohan-erg asked that his/*refl wife when come-fut
Mohan (i) asked when his (i) wife would come.

Sentences (20) and (21) show that reflexivization does not go down into subordinate clauses. Notice that reflexivization does not always meet clausemate constraint, as shown in (22).

22. अमित मोहन को अपना शत्रु मानता है।
amit mohan ko apna: šatru: ma:nta: he.
Amit Mohan-dat refl enemy consider-ptc is
Amit (i) considers Mohan (j) his (i,j) enemy.
4. Syntax

Sentence (22) is ambiguous because the reflexive pronoun is coreferential with the subject of the subordinate as well as with the subject of the subordinate clause. It has two readings.

22a. Amit (i) manata hO [ki mohan Amit (i) ka: satru: h].
Amit consider-pte is that Mohan Amit of enemy is
Amit considers Mohan Amits enemy.

22b. Amit manata hO [ki mohan (i) mohan (i) ka: satru: h].
Amit consier-prog that Mohan Mohans enemy is
Amit considers Mohan Mohans enemy.

Here, the reflexive pronoun cannot occur in (22a), but it can occur in sentence (22b) due to its clause boundaries. It shows that the finite subordinate clause becomes finite and is raised to the object position of the matrix sentence.

Reflexive relations occur within nominalized clauses.

23. uskakā svayam ko ma:rnā tih kh nahi: tha:.
his self kill-inf proper neg was
His killing himself was not proper.

Reflexive relations cannot exist within an ordinary noun phrase. It is possible to have reflexive antecedents under two conditions: (i) when the logical antecedent is deleted at the surface level and (ii) when the antecedent is either generic or contextually implied.

(i) Deletion of an underlying antecedent

24. tum apnaa kamra saaf, karo.
you refl room clean do
Clean your room.

24a. apnaa kamra saaf karo.
refl room clean do
Clean your room.
(ii) Generic/implied antecedent

25. अपना समय नष्ट करना ठीक नहीं है।
   
   apna: samay naśt karna: ṭhi:k nahi: he.
   refl time waste do-inf good neg is
   It is not proper (for someone) to waste ones time.

Notice that in (25) the generic antecedent someone is implied.

4.3.8. Reciprocals

The primary way of expressing a reciprocal relationship is the expression एक दूसरे को ek du:sre ko ‘to one another’. It is the combination of the cardinal एक ek ‘one’ and the oblique case form of the ordinal दूसरा du:sra: followed by को ko. Reciprocals can also be formed with आपस में a:pas mẽ ‘mutual’. The scope of reciprocity is restricted to the clause.

1. हमने एक दूसरे के साथ चर्चा की।
   
   hamne ek du:sre ke sa:th cha:ra:k ki:.
   we-erg one another-obl with talk did
   We talked to each other.

2. उन्होंने एक दूसरे की बहुत सहायता की।
   
   they-erg one another-obl very help did
   They helped each other very much.

In these sentences, the scope of the reciprocal expression does not extend to the matrix subject.

Reciprocals usually require an antecedent subject. They may be used as a direct object, an indirect object, an adverb, or a possessive adjective in different types of constructions.

Direct object

3. वे एक दूसरे में कई बार मिले।
   
   ve ek du:sre se kai: ba:r mile.
   they one another-obl many times lot-abl met
   They met each other many times.
4. SYNTAX

**Indirect object**

4. उन्होंने एक दूसरे को उपहार दिए।
   *unhõne ek du:sre ko upha:r diye.*
   They gave presents to each other.

**Adverb**

5. वे एक दूसरे पर जोर से बिजला रहे हैं।
   *ve ek du:sre par zor se cilla: rahe hê.*
   They are shouting at each other.

**Possessive adjective**

6. हम एक दूसरे के पर नहीं जाते।
   *ham ek du:sre ke ghar nahõ: ja:te.*
   We don’t visit each others houses.

7. वे आपमें बात नहीं करते (हैं)।
   *ve a:pas mê ba:t nahõ: karte (hê).*
   They do not talk to each other.

The same range of reciprocals occur in nominalized clauses.

8. उनका एक दूसरे के पर न जाना ठीक नहीं है।
   Their not visiting each others homes is not right.

9. उनकी एक दूसरे की टोपियां बराबर नहीं हैं।
   Each others caps do not fit them.

It is possible to have reciprocal structures without antecedent, if the antecedent is understood either syntactically, as in the case of imperative constructions, or contextually.
10. энд енд арлоо өгөөг уутаан магаа мөрөөг.

\textit{ek du:sre ke sa:th ba:tê mat karo.}

\textbf{one another-obl with talk don’t do}

Don’t talk to each other.


\textbf{Amit-gen two sons are they one-another-gen with always}

Amit has two sons. (They) always quarrel with each other.

4.3.9. Equatives

Like comparatives, there are two types of equatives: (i) syntactic and
(ii) phrasal. The former type is composed of two clauses called as
\textit{itna:} ‘this much’ and \textit{utna:} ‘that much’ clauses. The main
difference between these clauses and the comparative clause is that
in equative clauses, an equative adjective or adverb is used with the
subject and the standard of comparison. A comparative sentence can
be transformed into an equative sentence by the deletion of the
negative particle.

1. \textit{Ajaya \textit{utna:} ca:la:k hO \textit{jitna:} uska: bha:i: (hê).}

Ajay that much-cor clever as much-rel his brother

Ajay is as clever as his brother.

Equative structures can also be formed by using the clause \textit{jesa:}
\textbf{as/which way and jesa vessa: like/that way.}

2. \textit{jesa: ajay ca:la:k hê, utna: uska: bha:i: (bhi:) hê.}

as-rel Ajay clever is that much his brother (also) is

Ajay is as clever as his brother.

Phrasal type equatives are formed using adjectives such as \textit{barabara}
\textit{bara:bar/sama:n sama:n ‘equal’, and jesa: ‘like’}. The forms agree
with the standard of comparison in number and gender.
4. SYNTAX

3. विजय अपने पिताजी के बागवान/ समान लंबा है।
   
   
   Vijay selfs father-gen like tall is
   Vijay is as tall as his father.

4. ये दो भाई अपने मां जैसे सीधे हैं।
   
   
   these two brothers selfs mother like simple are
   These two brothers are as simple as their mother.

5. यह लड़की अपनी बहन कैसी सुंदर है।
   
   yeh larki: apni: bahan jesi: sundar he.
   
   this girl selfs sister like beautiful is
   This girl is as beautiful as her sister.

6. ये दो बहनें अपनी मां की तरह सुंदर हैं।
   
   
   these two sisters selfs mother like beautiful is
   These two sisters are as beautiful as their mother.

7. विजय बच्चे के समान है।
   
   vijay bacce ke sama:n he.
   
   Vijay child-gen equal is
   Vijay is like a child.

8. उमा अनु के बागवान लंबी है।
   
   uma: anu ke bara:bar lambi: he.
   
   Uma Anu-gen equal tall is
   Uma is as tall as Anu.

Notice that a copular/equational sentence employs only the plural
adjectival forms of एक जैसे ek jese/एक जैसी ek jaisi: that agree with the
number and gender of the subject of comparison.

9. अजय और विजय एक जैसे ही हैं।
   
   ajay or vijay ek jese hi: hê.
   
   Ajay and Vijay alike emp are
   Ajay and Vijay are alike.
10. Uma and Anu alike are
   Uma and Anu are alike.

Equative adjectives may be modified by adding the particle –\(hi\):
to these forms: \(ja\)\(\text{esi} hi\); \(ja\)\(\text{esi} hi\) ‘alike’. The particle –\(hi\) is also added to singular forms for emphasis as well.

11. Vijay Ajay like emp is
    Vijay is like Ajay.

12. Uma Anu alike emp is
    Uma is like Anu.

A number of fixed adjectival phrases are used in Hindi.

13. Flower like delicate
    as delicate as a flower

14. Stone like heart
    a stone-hearted (person)

It is possible to delete the identical elements in equative structures.
Deletion is always forward and not backward.

15. Uma cor tall is rel (tall) Uma (is)
    Uma is as tall as Anu.
4. Syntax

The bracketed elements can be deleted to yield (15a).

15a. उमा उन्हें सा क्षमता है कि उसका भाई है।
    uma utna: saIQaa nahIM hO [ijatnaa saIQaa saka Baa:] hO.
    Uma is not that-cor simple as much as-rel simple his brother is

The backward deletion generates ungrammatical sentences, as (15b).

15b. *उमा उन्हें सा क्षमता है।
    *uma: utna: saIQaa saka Baa: hE.

Correlative equatives are formed by syntactic strategy only. They are formed by using the correlative marker उन्हें utna:.

4.3.10. Comparison

Comparison is usually expressed by sentential, phrasal, and morphological strategies. Two types of comparative structures are very common, phrasal comparative structures and non-phrasal ones. Both use postpositions followed by the standards of comparison. Sentential comparison is carried out by the use of two finite clauses introduced by the relative marker उन्हें utna: ‘as much as’ and the correlative marker जितना jitna: ‘that much’.

1. वह उन्हें सा क्षमता नहीं है [जितना सा क्षमता उसका भाई है।]
   he is not that-cor simple as much as-rel simple his brother is
   He is not as simple as his brother.

   The relative clause can be placed at the sentence initial position as well.

1a. [जितना सा क्षमता उसका भाई है।] वह उन्हें सा क्षमता नहीं है।

2. वह जितना परिष्क्रम करता है उसका पैमाना नहीं कमाता।
   vah jitna: pariśram karta: he utna: pesa: nahI: kama:ta:
   he as much hard work do-ptc is that much money earn-ptc neg
   is
   He doesn’t earn as much as he works.
The relative clause can follow the correlative clause.

2a. वह उन्हें पेश किया, जिसना परिवर्तन करता है।
   vah utna: pesa: nahi: kama:ta:, jitna: parivram karta: he

Most of the morphological markers of comparison are borrowed from Perso-Arabic sources. They are not very productive in Hindi.

3. उसका वहाँ जाना बेहतर रहेगा।
   uska: vahã: ja:na: behtar rahega:
   his there go-inf better remain-fut
   It is better for him to go there.

4. यह उसके लिए बदतरीन बात है।
   yah uske liye badtari:n ba:t he:
   this is he-for worst matter is
   This is the worst thing for him.

Phrasal comparison is expressed by a postposition associated with the standard of comparison. The postposition में se is added to the standard of comparison.

5. अमित अनु से लंबा है।
   amit anu: se lamba: he.
   Amit Anu than tall is
   Amit is taller than Anu.

6. अनु उमा से गोरी है।
   anu uma: se gori: he.
   Anu Uma than fair-complexioned is
   Anu is more fair-complexioned than Anu.

The phrasal comparison is also expressed by the use of the phrase के मुकाबले में ke muka:ble me ‘in comparison with’ following the standard of comparison.

7. विजय के मुकाबले में राज पारने में कमजोर है।
   vijay ke muka:ble me raj parhne me kamzor he.
   Vijay-gen comparison in Raj studies-obl in weak is
   Raj is weak in his studies in comparison to Vijay.
4. Syntax

8. वह पेड़ इस पेड़ के मुकाबले में लंबा नहीं है।
   
vah per is per ke muka:ble mē lamba: nahi: he.
   that tree this tree-gen comparison in tall neg is
   That tree is not taller than this tree.

9. उस लड़की के मुकाबले में यह लड़की बुद्धिमान है।
   
   that girl-gen comparison-obl in this girl wise is
   This girl is wiser than that girl.

Adjectives used in a comparison can be modified by the adverb of degree अधिक adhik more.

10. यह घर उस घर से अधिक बड़ा है।
    
   yeh ghar us ghar se adhik bara: he.
   this house that-obl house comparison more big is
   This house is bigger than that one.

11. वह पुस्तक इस पुस्तक से अधिक अच्छी है।
    
   vah pustak is pustak se adhik acchi: he.
   that book this book comparison more good is
   That book is better than this one.

When two sentences are joined, the identical elements in the second conjunct are usually deleted. Whereas forward deletion is possible, backward deletion is not.

12. अमित उसना बड़ा नहीं है जिसना (बड़ा) उसका भाई है।
    
   Amit that much clever neg is as much (clever) his brother is
   Amit is not as clever as his brother.

12a. *अमित उसना नहीं है जिसना उसका भाई बड़ा है।

   *amit utna: nahi: he jitna: uska: bha:i: ca:la:k he

The deletion of the first occurrence of बड़ा ca:la:k in sentence (12a) results in the sentence being grammatically incorrect. The relative correlative markers jitna: उसना utna: cannot be deleted under any circumstance.
4.3.11. Superlatives

Superlatives are usually expressed by substituting सब से अधिक sab se adhik ‘most’, सर्वोत्तम sarvotam ‘best’, or हर एक में हे har ek me se ‘out of all’ for the standard of comparison. Superlative constructions are also formed by the use of कोई दूसरा koi: du:sra: ‘anyone else’ plus the negative particle.

1. अमित का सब से अधिक बुद्धिमान है।
   Amit kakša: mē sab se adhik buddhima:n he.
   Amit class in out of all more wise is
   Amit is wisest of all in his class.

2. उमा सब से अधिक तेज बैंडली है।
   uma: sab se adhik tez dārti: he.
   Uma out of all more fast run-pr is
   Uma runs faster than everyone else.

3. विजय से वजर और कोई दूसरा नहीं है।
   vijay se catur or koi: du:sra: nah: he.
   Vijay than clever anyone else neg is
   No one else is more clever than Vijay.

Superlative constructions are also formed by substituting an adjective of comparison for सब से अधिक sab se adhik. It also serves as the standard of comparison.

4. वह बड़ा से बड़ा समस्या आसानी से हल करता है।
   he big-f more big-f problem easy with solve do-ptc is
   He solves the biggest problems easily.

5. हमारे पास अच्छे से अच्छा कपड़ा यही है।
   we-obl with good-obl than good cloth this is
   This is the best cloth we have.

Notice that in these constructions, the first part of the phrase is put in the oblique case as it is followed by ने se.
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4.3.12. Coordination

Sentence coordination is marked mainly by the use of the conjunction morphemes और ‘and’ या ‘or’, and गर par/किन्तु kintu ‘but’.

1. में दिल्ली गया और मेरा भाई आगरा (गया).
   "mē dilli: gaya: aur mera: bhai: agra: (gaya:).
   I Delhi went and my brother Agra went
   I went to Delhi and my brother went to Agra.

2. सोहन मोहन के घर गया गर par/किन्तु मोहन
   sohan mohan ke ghar gayaa magar/par/kintu mohan
   Sohan Mohan gen home went but Mohan
   home at neg was
   Sohan went to Mohans home, but Mohan was not there.

The conjunction morpheme और ‘and’ can be followed by another particle, भी bhi: ‘also’.

3. मोहन कल बनारस जाएगा और मोहन भी (जाएगा).
   mohan kal bana:ras ja:yega: or sohan bhi: (ja:yega:).
   Mohan tomorrow Banaras go-fut and Mohan also go-fut
   Mohan will go to Banaras tomorrow and Mohan will also go.

The conjunction compound morphemes या -ya: ‘either – or’ are also used in sentence conjunctions.

4. या आज वर्षा होगा या हिमपात होगा.
   "ya: aj varśa: hogi: ya: himpa:t hoga:.
   Either it rains today or it will snow.

Notice that the word order of the constituent sentences undergo a change when conjoined by the use of the conjunction morphemes या - या: - ya:.
   Sentence (4) is obtained by conjoining (4a) and (4b).
4a. आज वर्षा होगी।
a:j varśa: hogi:.
It will rain today.

4b. आज हिमपात होगा।
a:j himpa:t hoga:.
It will snow today.

And coordination is commonly expressed by the conjunction marker और \( \text{or} \). It can join two or more sentences or phrases. This conjunction morpheme occurs before the last conjunct.

5. शीला किताब पढ़ रही है और उमा लिख रही है।
ši:la kita:b parh rahi: h \( \text{or} \) uma: likh rahi: h.
Shiela book read-prog is and Uma letter write write-prog is
Shiela is reading a book and Uma is writing a letter.

6. अमर खेल रहा है, मोहन गाने सुन रहा है और
amar khel raha: h \( \text{or} \) mohan ga:ne sun raha: h,
Amar play-prog is Mohan songs listen-prog is and
Amar is playing, Mohan is listening to songs,
Sham TV see-prog is
Amar is playing, Mohan is listening to songs, and Sham is watching television.

5a. *और शीला किताब पढ़ रही है उमा पत्र लिख रही है।
*\( \text{or} \) ši:la kita:b parh rahi: h, uma: patr likh rahi: h.

6a. *अमर खेल रहा है और मोहन गाने सुन रहा है, आम दी की देख रहा है।
*amar khel raha: h \( \text{or} \) mohan ga:ne sun raha: h, ša:m ti:vi: dekh raha: h.

The misplacement of the coordination conjunction morpheme \( \text{or} \) renders the sentences (5a) and (6a) ungrammatical.

Coordination does not merely involve juxtaposition of two or more independent sentences. There are various syntactic and semantic constraints on the construction of coordinate structures. In general, coordinate sentences express contrast, cumulative effect, cause and effect, sequential action, and contingency. Again, the order of the
conjuncts is interchangeable if a coordinate sentence expresses contrast or cumulative effect. Consider the following examples of various types of coordinate structures as listed above.

**Contrast**

7. यह लड़का मोटा है और यह लड़का दुबला।
   yeh larka: moṭa: he ॊr vah larka: dubla:.
   this boy fat is and that boy slim
   This boy is fat and that boy is slim.

7a. वह लड़का दुबला है और यह लड़का मोटा।
   vah larka: dubla: he ॊr yah larka: moṭa:.
   That boy is slim and this boy is fat.

**Cumulative effect**

8. वह रोज व्यायाम करता है और मैर करता है।
   vah roz vya:ya:m karta: he aur mer karta: he.
   he daily exercise do-ptc is and walk do-ptc is
   He exercises daily and goes for a walk (daily).

8a. वह रोज व्यायाम करता है और मैर भी।
   vah roz vya:ya:m karta: he ॊr mer bhi:.
   he daily exercise do-ptc is and walk also
   He exercises daily and goes for a walk, too.

9. वह दवाई चालता है और आराम करता है।
   he medicine eat-ptc is and rest  do-ptc is
   He is taking medicine and relaxing.

9a. वह आराम करता है और दवाई चालता है।
   He is relaxing and taking medicine.

**Cause and effect**

10. उसने दवाई चाली और वह स्वास्थ हुआ।
    usne dava:i: kha:ta: ॊr vah svasth hua:.
    he-erg medicine ate and he healthy became
    He took medicine and recovered from the illness.
10a. *वह स्वस्थ हुआ और उसने दवाई लिया।
   *vah svasth hua: ṛr usne dava:i: kha:i:.

11. चोर को गोली लगी और वह आत्म हुआ।
   cor ko goli: lagi: ṛr vah a:hat hua:.
   thief-dat bullet struck and he injured was
   The thief was hit by a bullet and he was injured.

11a. *चोर आत्म हुआ और उसको गोली लगी।
   *cor a:hat hua: aur usko goli: lagi:.

**Sequential action**

12. वह आया और हमें घर आने के लिए आयोजना की।
   vah a:ya: ṛr hamê ghar a:ne ke liye nyota: diya:.
He came and we-obl home come-inf-obl invitation gave
He came and invited us to visit his home.

12a. *उसने हमें घर आने के लिए आयोजना की और आया।
   *usne hamê ghar a:ne ke liye nyota: diya: ṛr a:ya:.

13. मोहन घर आया और उसने दरवाजा का ताला खोला।
   mohan ghar a:ya: ṛr usne darva:ze ka: tala: khola:.
   Mohan home came and he-erg door-gen lock opened
   Mohan came home and unlocked the door.

13a. *मोहन ने दरवाजा का ताला खोला और घर आया।
   *mohan ne darva:ze ka: ta:la: khola: ṛr ghar a:ya:.

14. तुम एक अच्छी लड़की ढूंढो और विवाह करो।
   you-fem one good girl search and marriage perform
   You find a good girl and get married.

14a. तुम विवाह करो और एक अच्छी लड़की ढूंढो।

Notice that sentences (7), (8), and (9) permit the reverse order of (7a), (8a), and (9a) respectively. In sentences (10), (11), (12), (13) and (14), the reverse order of the conjuncts results in ungrammatical sentences as shown above because of the constraints on cause and
4. Syntax

effect, sequential action, and contingency the conjoined structures are marked for. The coordinate sentences (10-14) can be paraphrased to indicate that they are related with the subordination process as well. Consider the following sentences.

10b. वह दवा लेकर स्वस्थ हुआ।
   
   vah dava: kha:kar swasth hua:.
   
   he medicine take-cp healthy became
   
   He recovered (from illness) after taking the medicine.

11b. चोर गोली लगाने में आहत हुआ।
   
   cor goli: lagne se a:hat hua:.
   
   thief bullet hit-inf-obl with injured became
   
   The thief was injured by a bullet.

12b. उन्होंने आकर हमें घर आने का न्योता दिया।
   
   usne a:kar hamê ghar a:ne ka: nyota: diya:.
   
   he-erg come-cp us-dat home go-inf-gen invitation gave
   
   On arrival, he invited us to his home.

13b. मोहन ने घर आकर दरवाज़े का तला जोला।
   
   mohan ne a:kar darva:ze ka: ta:la: khola:.
   
   Mohan-erg came-cp door-gen lock opened
   
   On arrival, Mohan unlocked the door.

14b. एक अच्छी लड़की दबाकर तुम विवाह करे।
   
   
   a good girl find-cp you marriage do-imp
   
   Find a good girl and get married.

In the above sentences, cause and effect, sequential action, and contingency are expressed without using conjunction morphemes. The paraphrases indicate that the first conjuncts of the sentences represent the adverbial complements of the second conjuncts.

Besides conjoining sentences, the coordinating conjunction marker \( or \) can be used to coordinate nouns (subjects, direct and indirect objects), verbs, adjectives, and adverbs.
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Coordinate nominal subjects
15. लड़का और लड़की खेल रहे हैं।
   larka: or larki: khel rahe hē.
   boy and girl play-prog are
   A boy and a girl are playing.

Coordinate verbs
16. शीला ने कपड़े धोए और खाना पकाया।
   ši:la: ne kapre dhoye or kha:na: paka:ya:.
   Shiela-erg clothes washed and food cooked
   Shiela washed clothes and cooked meals.

Coordinate adjectives
17. शीला लंबी और गर्मी हैं।
   Shiela tall and fair complexioned is
   Shiela is tall and fair-complexioned.

Coordinate adverbials
18. मैं कल और दूसरे कल गैर जाईंगा।
   mē kal or parsō ghar nahī: ja:i:ga:.
   I tomorrow and day after tomorrow home neg go-fut
   I will not go home tomorrow nor the day after tomorrow.

The coordination of two noun phrases yields a plural noun phrase and therefore, verb agreement is affected. In the case of coordinate subjects, the verb takes a masculine plural concord, whereas, in the case of coordinate objects, the verb agrees with the nearest object.

19. मोहन और शीला बाजार गए।
   mohan or ši:la: ba:za:r gaye.
   Mohan and Shiela market went-mp
   Mohan and Shiela went to the market.

20. मैंने सेब और अप्रूक्षियों खरीदीं।
   mēne seb or xoba:niyā: xari:di:
   I-erg apples-mp and apricots-fp bought-fs
   I bought apples and apricots.
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But coordination is expressed by the conjunction marker पर par/मगर magar/किंतु kintu ‘but’. This marker is placed in the beginning of the second conjunct.

21. मोहन अध्यापक है, मगर वह पढ़ता नहीं।
   mohan adhya:pak he, magar vah parha:ta: nahī:.
   Mohan is a teacher, but he teaches neg
   Mohan is a teacher, but he does not teach.

22. उमा अनपढ़ है, पर वह बहुत बुद्धिमान है।
   uma: anpāth he, par vah bari: budhima:n he.
   Uma is illiterate, but she very wise is
   Uma is illiterate, but she is very wise.

In sentence coordination, as mentioned earlier, the conjunct marker और or occurs before the second or the last conjunct. The conjunct marker पर par precedes the second or subsequent coordinated sentences. Among the disjunctive markers, या ya: can precede the first as well as subsequent disjuncts.

23. या वह दिल्ली जाएगा, या आगरा।
   ya: vah dilli: ja:yega:, ya: a:gra:.
   either he Delhi go-fut or Agra
   Either he will go to Delhi or Agra.

But coordination is usually used with adjectives and adverbials.

24. मीरा बुद्धिमान है पर मुल्क है।
   mi:ra: budhima:n he par sust he.
   Mira is intelligent but lazy is
   Mira is intelligent but lazy.

25. वह मैर करता है पर केवल आम को।
   vah sēr karta: he par keval ša:m ko.
   she walk do-ptc is but only evening-loc at
   He goes for a walk, but only in the evenings.

But coordination of nouns and verbs may involve a negative particle preceding or following the adversative conjuncts.
26. Amar clever boy is but Sohan neg is
Amar is a clever boy but Sohan is not.

27. Hamne uski sundarta ke baare me suna he par
we-erg his beauty about heard but
kabhi dekha hain.
We have heard about her beauty, but have never seen her.

28. Vah patr nahin likhega par telephon zarur krega.
He letter neg write-fut but telephone certainly do-fut
He will not write a letter but hell certainly call.

Or coordination uses the disjunctive markers ya: or and varna:
apitu ‘or’ to conjoin nouns, adjectives, adverbs, and verbs.

29. Mohan ya: Sohan kapre siyega:
Mohan or Sohan clothes stitch-fut
Mohan or Sohan will stitch the clothes.

30. Uma aaj baazar jaayegi ya kal.
Uma today market go-fut or tomorrow
Uma will go to the market today or tomorrow.

31. Kameez ke liye nida laal kapra xaridaye.
Buy blue or red cloth for the shirt.

32. (Aap) seb kha:yega ya: kela?
(you-p) apple eat-fut or banana
Would you like to take an apple or a banana?
4. Syntax

4.3.12.1. Coordination and Accompaniment

Accompaniment is expressed by the postposition साथ sa:th with or in the company of. It can also be expressed by the conjunction morpheme और ār and.

33. सोहन और मोहन आए।
sohan ār mohan a:ye.
Sohan and Mohan came
Sohan and Mohan came.

33a. सोहन मोहन के साथ आया।
sohan mohan ke sa:th a:ya:
Sohan Mohan with came
Sohan came with Mohan.

Sentence (33) is an example of coordination, whereas sentence (33a) denotes accompaniment. Notice that the accompaniment uses a singular verb as in (33a). A single unit cannot be formed using accompaniment, but can be formed by using coordination. The term दोनों donō ‘both’ can, therefore, be used with coordination, but not with accompaniment.

33b. सोहन और मोहन दोनों आए।
sohan ār mohan donō a:ye.
Sohan and Mohan both came
Sohan and Mohan both came.

33c. *सोहन मोहन के साथ आया दोनों।
*sohan mohan ke sa:th a:ya: donō.

The unity of the conjoined phrase cannot be distorted, and this unity is expressed only by coordination and not by accompaniment.

33d. बेटा पिता के साथ आया।
beta: pita: ke sa:th a:ya:.
son father-obl with came
The son came with the father.
4. SYNTAX

33e. बेटा और पिता घर आए।
   *beta: ø r pita: ghar a:ye.
   The son and father came home.

33f. *बेटा घर और पिता आए।

33g. *बेटा और घर पिता आए।
   *beta: ø r ghar pita: a:ye.

This explains the ungrammaticalness of sentences (33f) and (33g). The commutative postposition के साथ ke sa:th follows the noun of accompaniment. It is possible to form coordinate sentences using the co-ordinate conjunction और ør the comitative postposition साथ sa:th in one of the conjuncts.

34. अजित और मोहन अमर के साथ जाएंगे।
   ajit: ø r mohan amar ke sa:th ja:yeng.
   Ajit and Mohan Amar-obl with go-fut
   Ajit and Mohan will accompany Amar.

34a. अमर के साथ अजित और मोहन जाएंगे।
   amar ke sa:th ajit: ø r mohan ja:yeng.
   Ajit and Mohan will accompany Amar.

4.3.12.2. Structural Constraints

There are various structural constraints in coordination. In general, members in the same class can be conjoined but not those that belong to different classes.

Adjective and noun

35. *वह सुंदर और लड़की है।
   *vah sundar ør larki: he.
   she is beautiful and girl.

35a. वह सुंदर और बुद्धिमान लड़की है।
   vah sundar ør budhima:n larki: he.
   she beautiful and intelligent girl is
   She is a beautiful and an intelligent girl.
4. Syntax

Adjective and adverb

36. *यह कपड़ा अच्छा और कल है।
   *yeh kapra: accha: ör kal hē.
   this cloth good and yesterday is

36a. यह कपड़ा अच्छा और सस्ता है।
   this cloth good and inexpensive is
   This cloth is good and inexpensive.

As exemplified above in sentences (35) and (36), it is not possible to conjoin adjectives and nouns, nor adjectives and adverbs. Other types of constraints are indicated below.

Present and past participles and adjectives can be conjoined using coordinate conjunction morphemes.

37. अमित पढ़ा-लिखा और आदिक लड़का है।
   Amit educated and gentle boy is
   Amit is an educated and a gentle boy.

Similarly, it is possible to conjoin the conjuncts with adverbial construction and an adjective phrase.

38. मेरा मित्र शहर में रहता है और बहुत चालाक है।
   my friend city in live-ptc is and very clever is
   My friend lives in the city and is clever.

A relative clause and an adjective phrase cannot be conjoined.

38a. *जो शहर में रहता है और बहुत चालाक निज़ है।
    *jo šahar mē rahta: hē aур bahut ca:la:k mitr hē.
    who city-abl is live-pr is and clever friend tomorrow

Nouns and nominalized constructions can be conjoined, provided the semantic and pragmatic conditions are met.

39. उमे उपन्यास पढ़ा और नाटक देखना पसंद है।
    use upanya:s parha: ör na: tak dekhna: pasand hē.

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4. Syntax

he-dat novel read-inf and play watch-inf like is
He likes to read novels and watch plays.

40.  मैं उसे और उसके पर को सपने में देखा।
    mēne use ʿr uske ghar ko sapne mē dekhaa.
I-erg he-obl and his house-dat dream-obl in saw
I saw him and his house in the dream.

It is possible to coordinate related adverbials in a coordinated structure.

41.  वह हैसते - हैसते और जल्दी हर एक काम करता है।
    vah āste - āste ʿr jaldi: har ek ka:m karta: he.
he laugh-ptc and quickly every work do-ptc is
He gives his opinion smilingly and quickly.

Time adverbials and manner adverbials cannot be conjoined.

42.  *वह कल गया और जोर-जोर में।
    *vah kal roya: ʿr zor - zor se
he yesterday wept and loudly

Active and passive verbs can be coordinated provided they are appropriate in a pragmatic situation. In Hindi, passive constructions can mean capability as well.

43.  अनु ने सेब खरीदीं और उससे गाया नहीं गए।
    anu ne seb xari:de aur usse kha:ye nahi: gaye.
Anu-erg apples bought and she-pass eat-pass neg aux-pass
Anu bought apples and she was not able to eat.

44.  मैंने यह काम किया और उससे नहीं किया गया।
    mēne yeh ka:m kinya: ʿr usse nahi: kinya: gaya:.
I-erg this work did and he-pass neg do-pa went-pass
I did this work and it could not be done by him.

Simple verbs can be conjoined with infinitives in a coordinate structure.

45.  मैंने यह नाचा पड़ा और इसे पड़ना आया है नहीं।
    mēne yeh na:val parha: ʿr ise parha: a:sa:n he nahi:. 
4. Syntax

I-erg this novel read and this-obl read-inf easy neg is
I read this novel and it is not easy to read.

It is also possible to conjoin different types of verbs.

46. मेरा हँसना और हँसना किसी को पसंद नहीं आया।
my laugh-inf and laugh-caus anyone-dat like neg came
My laughing and making others laugh was not liked by anyone.

47. गृहा आना और गृहा प्रकट करना अच्छा नहीं।
anger come-inf and anger express do-inf good neg
It is not good to be angry nor to express ones anger.

When two sentences are conjoined, any number of elements, including verbs, can be deleted under identity. The deletion can be both forward as well as backward. However, backward deletion is less frequent than forward deletion.

48. अमित ने किताब खरीदी और राजत ने कपड़ा।
amit ne kita:b xari:di: ər rajat ne kami:z.
Amit-erg book bought and Rajat-erg shirt
Amit bought a book and Rajat a shirt.

48a. अमित ने किताब 0 और राजत ने कपड़ा खरीदी।
amit-ne kita:b ər rajat ne kami:z xari:di:.
Amit-erg book 0 and Rajat-erg shirt bought
Amit bought a book and Rajat bought a shirt.

The coordinating morpheme ər conjoins sentences and parts of sentences of similar syntactic and semantic structure. Due to such constraints, the following pairs of sentences cannot be conjoined by merely deleting the identical elements.

49a. मुझे चाय पसंद है।
mujhe ca:y pasand he.
I-obl tea like is
I like tea.
49b. मूँ काम करना पसंद है।
   *mujhe ka:m karna: pasand he.*
   I-obl work do-inf like is
   I like to do work.

49c. *मूँ चाह और काम करना पसंद है।
   *mujhe ca:y or ka:m karna: pasand he.*

50a. अमित अवश्य आएगा।
   *amit avaśy a:yega:
   Amit definitely come-fut
   Amit will definitely come.

50b. अमित मोहन के साथ आएगा।
   *amit mohan ke sa:th a:yega:.
   Amit Mohan with come-fut
   Amit will come with Mohan.

50c. *अमित अवश्य आएगा और मोहन के साथ।
   *amit avaśy a:yega: aur mohan ke sa:th

51a. शिला बीमार है।
   *ši:la: bi:ma:r he.*
   Shila sick is
   Shila is sick.

51b. शिला घर पर है।
   *ši:la: ghar par he.*
   Shila home at is
   Shila is at home.

51c. *शिला बीमार है और घर पर।
   *ši:la: bi:ma:r he or ghar par.*
4. SYNTAX

All major sentence constituents, including nouns, adjectives, and adverbs, can be omitted under identity.

**Omission of subject/object**

52. अमित ने किताब ख़रीदी और Ø पढ़ी।
   *amit-ne kita:b xari:di: ø pərhi:.*
   Amit-erg book bought and ø read
   Amit brought a book and read.

**Omission of adjective/verb**

53. उसके पास नीली कमीज़ है और मेरे पास Ø टिपी।
   *uske pa:s ni:li: kami:z he ø mər erase pass ø tipi:.*
   he-obl blue shirt is and I-poss-obl ø cap
   He has a blue shirt and I have a blue cap.

**Omission of adverb/verb**

54. सोहन कल अपने घर गया और मोहन Ø शहर Ø।
   *sohan kal apne ghar gaya: ø mohan ø šahar ø*
   Sohan yesterday own village went and Mohan city
   Sohan went to his village yesterday and Amar went to the city.
5. Lexicon

Here we list useful classified English-Hindi vocabulary for quick reference. The vocabulary is listed under different sections: (1) animals, birds, and insects; (2) flowers, fruits, and vegetables; (3) jewels, metals, and minerals; (4) miscellaneous items; (5) body parts; (6) occupations; (7) kinship terms; (8) adjectives; (9) verbs; (10) adverbs; (11) conjunctions; and (12) pronouns.

5.1. Animals, Birds, and Insects

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5. Lexicon

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5.2. Flowers, Fruits, and Vegetables

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5. Lexicon

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5.3. Jewels, Metals, and Minerals

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5.4. Miscellaneous Items

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## 5. Lexicon

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5. Lexicon

knee  पूंजी  ghuṭna:
leg   टौंग  ṭāːg
lips  आंट  ṭh
liver कलेजी  kaleːji:
lung  फेकङ्ग  pheːphraː:
mouth मुँह  mūh
mustaches मृछ  muːch
nail  नापूज  naːkhuːn
navel नाबी  naːbhi:
neck  गर्दन  gardan
nose  नाक  naːk
palate तालु  taːlu:
palm  हथेली  hatheːli:
rib   पस्ली  pasli:
shoulder कंधा  kandha:
skin  चम्म  carm
sole of foot तलवा  talva:
stomach पॆट  pet

accountant लेखाकार leːkhaːkaːr
advocate वकील  vakiːl
actor  अभिनेता  abhineːta:
actress  अभिनेत्री  abhineːtri:
artist  कलाकार / अदाकार  kalaːkaːr / adaːkaːr
artisan  कारागर  kaːɾiːgar
barber  नाई  naːiː
blacksmith  लुहार  luhaːr
boatman  मल्लाह  mallaːh
barrow  बार्हाई  bāɾhāiː
cartman  गार्थवान  gaːɾtːwaːn
clerk  लिपिक  lipik / klark
## 5. Lexicon

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5. LEXICON

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<td>नौकर (nākar)</td>
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<td>soldier</td>
<td>सिपाही (sipahi)</td>
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<td>नवीस (arzi: navi:s)</td>
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5.7. Kinship Terms

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### 5.8. Adjectives

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5. Lexicon

- sweet: मीठा
- tall: लंबा
- tasteless: पोषक
- temporary: अस्वाभाविक
- tender: कोमल
- thick: मोटा
- thin: पल्ला
- total: कुल
- true: सही / सच्चा
- unripe: कच्चा
- vacant: खाली
- violet: वेंगीनी
- warm: गुंगुना
- weak: कमजोर
- wet: गिला
- wide: चौड़ा
- white: सफेद / श्वेत
- whole: सारा
- wounded: आहत / पापल
- wrong: ग़लत
- yellow: पीला
- young(er): छोटा

5.9. Verbs

- to accept: स्वीकार करना
- to admit: मानना / इज़ीज़ल करना
- to (be) alive: जीना
- to ask for: मांगना
- to bathe: नाहाना
- to be: होना
- to bear: गहना
- to beat: पीटना
- to become: बनना
- to bite: काटना
- to boil: उबलना
- to (be) born: पदा होना
- to break: तोड़ना
- to bring: लाना
- to bring up: पालना
- to (be) broken: तुतना
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<th>English Verb</th>
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## 5. Lexicon

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to listen  सुनना  sunna:
to live  जीना / रहना  ji:na / raha:
to look  देखना  de:khna:
to lose  खोना  kho:na:
to make  तैयार करना  bana:na / tēya:r karna:
to meet  मिलना  milna:
to mix  मिलाना  mila:na:
to occur  होना  ho:na:
to open  खोलना  kho:lna:
to (be) perturbed  ग़बड़ाना  ghabra:na:
to place  रखना  rakhna:
to play  खेलना  khe:lna:
to pluck  तोड़ना  toṛna:
to plunder  लूटना  lu:ṭna:
to possess  रखना  rakhna:
to prepare  बनाना  bana:na / tēyar karna:
to print  चपना  cha:pnna:
to protect  बाहर करना  baca:na / raksha: karna:
to pull  खीरना  khīr:na:
to purchase  खरीदना  xari:dna:
to put on  पहनना  pahanna:
to quarrel  झगड़ना  jhagarṇa:
to raise  उठना  utṭa:na:
to reach  पहुँचना  pahūcna:
to read  पढ़ना  parhna:
to reap  काटना  kaːṭna:
to receive  पाना  paːna:
to recognize  पहचानना  pahca:nna:
to refund  लौटना / वापस करना  loṭna / va:pas karna:
to release  छोड़ना  chōṛna:
to relax  आसन करना  a:ra:m karna:
to remit  अदा करना  ada: karna:
to reside  रहना / निवास करना  raha: / nivaːs karna:
to return  लौटना  loṭna / loṭa:na:
to resolve  घुमना  ghu:mna:
to rise  उठना / जागना  utṭna / jaːgna:
to roast  बुनना  bunna:
to run  दौड़ना  doṛṇa:
to save  बचाना  baca:na:
to say  कहना  kahna:
### 5. Lexicon

<table>
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<tr>
<td>to search</td>
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<td>देखना</td>
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<td>to sell</td>
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<tr>
<td>to send</td>
<td>भेजना</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to set (as sun)</td>
<td>उसना</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to settle down</td>
<td>बसना</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to shine</td>
<td>चमकना</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to shiver</td>
<td>कांपना</td>
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<tr>
<td>to sink</td>
<td>झूना</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>to sing</td>
<td>गाना</td>
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<tr>
<td>to sit</td>
<td>बैठना</td>
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<td>to sleep</td>
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<td>to spend</td>
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<td>to swim</td>
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<td>to teach</td>
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<td>to tear off</td>
<td>फाडना</td>
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<td>to tell</td>
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<td>to twinkle</td>
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<td>to understand</td>
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5. Lexicon

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<th>Sanskrit</th>
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<td>प्रतिक्षा करना</td>
<td>prati:kša: karna:</td>
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<td>to wake up</td>
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<td>ja:gnā:</td>
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<tr>
<td>to walk</td>
<td>चलना</td>
<td>calna:</td>
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<td>to wander</td>
<td>गुमना</td>
<td>ghu:mna:</td>
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<tr>
<td>to wash</td>
<td>धोना</td>
<td>dho:na:</td>
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<tr>
<td>to wear</td>
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<td>pahanna:</td>
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<tr>
<td>to weep</td>
<td>रोना</td>
<td>ro:na:</td>
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<td>to:lna:</td>
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<td>ji:tña:</td>
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<td>चाहना</td>
<td>ca:ha: / iccha: karna:</td>
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<td>to work</td>
<td>काम करना</td>
<td>ka:m karna:</td>
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<td>to worship</td>
<td>पूजा करना</td>
<td>pu:ja: karna: / iba:dat karna:</td>
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<tr>
<td>to write</td>
<td>लिखना</td>
<td>likhna:</td>
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5.10. Adverbs

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<td>ऊपर</td>
<td>u:par</td>
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<tr>
<td>abundantly</td>
<td>गूढ़</td>
<td>xu:b</td>
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<tr>
<td>after</td>
<td>बाद / पीछे</td>
<td>ba:d / pi:che:</td>
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<tr>
<td>after all</td>
<td>आखिर</td>
<td>a:xir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>afterwards</td>
<td>बाद में</td>
<td>ba:d: mē</td>
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<tr>
<td>ahead</td>
<td>आगे</td>
<td>a:ge:</td>
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<tr>
<td>alone</td>
<td>अकेले</td>
<td>ake:le:</td>
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<tr>
<td>also</td>
<td>भी</td>
<td>bhi:</td>
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<td>always</td>
<td>हमेशा / सदा</td>
<td>hameša: / sada:</td>
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<td>भी भी</td>
<td>bi: bi:</td>
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<td>kabhī: bhi:</td>
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<td>kahi:</td>
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<td>at last</td>
<td>आखिर / अंत में</td>
<td>a:xir / ant mē</td>
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<td>दूर</td>
<td>du:r</td>
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<tr>
<td>before</td>
<td>पहले / आगं</td>
<td>pahle: / a:ge:</td>
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<td>पीछे</td>
<td>pi:che:</td>
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<td>below</td>
<td>गंगे</td>
<td>ni:ce:</td>
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<td>बीच / मध्य</td>
<td>bi:c / madhy</td>
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<td>certainly</td>
<td>अवश्य / जरूर</td>
<td>avaśy / zaru:r</td>
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<td>constantly</td>
<td>वर्तमान</td>
<td>bara:bar</td>
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<td>continuously</td>
<td>लगातार</td>
<td>laga:ta: r</td>
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<tr>
<td>day after tomorrow</td>
<td>पहले</td>
<td>parsō:</td>
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### 5. Lexicon

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<td>दूर</td>
<td>du:r</td>
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<td>ni:ce:</td>
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<tr>
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<td>हमेशा</td>
<td>hame:śa:</td>
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<tr>
<td>everywhere</td>
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<td>har jagah</td>
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<tr>
<td>far off</td>
<td>बहुत दूर</td>
<td>bahut du:r</td>
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<td>generally</td>
<td>पाया / अक्षर</td>
<td>pra:yah / aksar</td>
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<td>yahā:</td>
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<td>how</td>
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<td>kase:</td>
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<td>तुरंत / फोरन</td>
<td>turant / fōran</td>
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<td>के प्राणे</td>
<td>ke a:ge</td>
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<td>ke sa:mne</td>
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<td>abhi:</td>
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<td>पास / समीप</td>
<td>pa:s / samī:p</td>
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<td>न / नहीं</td>
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<td>नहीं</td>
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<td>pra:yah / aksar</td>
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<td>be:šak</td>
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<td>ke:val / sirf</td>
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<td>ba:har</td>
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<td>dhī:re:</td>
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<td>kahī:</td>
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<td>aca:nak / eka:ek</td>
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<td>a:j</td>
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<td>kal</td>
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<td>udhar</td>
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<td>then</td>
<td>तब</td>
<td>tab</td>
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<td>idhar</td>
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<td>नीचे</td>
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<td>be:šak</td>
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<td>u:par</td>
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5. Lexicon

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<th>Urdu</th>
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<td>well</td>
<td>गूढ़</td>
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<td>(at) which direction</td>
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<td>kidhar</td>
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<td>when (interrogative)</td>
<td>कब</td>
<td>kab</td>
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<td>when (relative)</td>
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<td>jab</td>
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<tr>
<td>where (interrogative)</td>
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<td>kahâ:</td>
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<td>where (relative)</td>
<td>जहाँ</td>
<td>jahâ:</td>
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<td>whether</td>
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5.11. Conjunctions

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<tbody>
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<td>although</td>
<td>यद्यपि / हालांकि</td>
<td>yadyapi / ha:lã:ki</td>
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<td>again</td>
<td>फिर</td>
<td>phir</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>and</td>
<td>और / तथा</td>
<td>or / tatha:</td>
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<tr>
<td>but</td>
<td>लेकिन / किंतु / परंतु / बल्कि</td>
<td>lekin / kintu / parantu / balki</td>
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<td>hence</td>
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<td>isliye</td>
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<td>or</td>
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<td>ya:</td>
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<td>since</td>
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<td>cú:ki</td>
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<td>isliye:</td>
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<td>ki</td>
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<td>though</td>
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<td>yadyapi / ha:lã:ki</td>
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5.12. Pronouns

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<th>Urdu</th>
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<td>vah / yah / us / is</td>
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<tr>
<td>I</td>
<td>मैं / मुझ</td>
<td>mε/mujh</td>
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<tr>
<td>it</td>
<td>यह / इस</td>
<td>yah / is</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>my</td>
<td>मेरा</td>
<td>me:ra:</td>
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<td>apna:</td>
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<td>हमारा</td>
<td>hama:ra:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>she</td>
<td>वह यह उस इस</td>
<td>vah / yah / us / is</td>
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<td>kuch</td>
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<tr>
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<td>kuch</td>
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<td>ye / in</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>they</td>
<td>वे / उन</td>
<td>ve / un</td>
</tr>
<tr>
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<td>Transliteration</td>
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<td>----------------</td>
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<tr>
<td>those</td>
<td>वे / उन</td>
<td>ve / un</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thou</td>
<td>तू / तुह</td>
<td>tu: / tujh</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>thy</td>
<td>लेगा</td>
<td>te:ra:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (familiar)</td>
<td>तुम</td>
<td>tum</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>you (polite)</td>
<td>आप</td>
<td>a:p</td>
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<tr>
<td>your (familiar)</td>
<td>तुमहारा</td>
<td>tumha:ra:</td>
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<tr>
<td>your (polite)</td>
<td>आपका</td>
<td>a:pi:ka:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>we</td>
<td>हम</td>
<td>ham</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>what</td>
<td>क्या</td>
<td>kya:</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>who (interrogative)</td>
<td>कौन / किस / किन</td>
<td>kun / kis / kin</td>
</tr>
<tr>
<td>who (relative)</td>
<td>जो / जिस / जिन</td>
<td>jo / jis / jin</td>
</tr>
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